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Text 1. Materials and Methods

1.1 Sample collection and bacterial isolation

 A 10 L and a 1 L sample of surface seawater (the upper one meter) was collected at a 40 coastal site of the South China Sea near Xiamen in China. The samples were stored at 4 °C in the dark and immediately returned to the laboratory for bacterial isolation. The 1 L sample was kept from shaking during transportation and was not subjected to filtration for the preservation of the microenvironments. The 10 L sample was subjected to filtration for the seawater medium preparation and sample dilution. The physiochemical data about the samples were shown in Table S1. Seawater subsampled from the 10 L sample for flow cytometry was pre-filtered through the 20 μm-pore size mesh to remove large particles and zooplankton, added to 47 glutaraldehyde (0.5% final concentration), incubated at 4° C for 15 min in the dark, flash-frozen 48 in liquid nitrogen and then stored at -80 $^{\circ}$ C until analysis. The prokaryotic abundance was 49 estimated to be $\sim 10^6$ cells ml⁻¹ using a BD Accuri C6 flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, CA, USA) 50 by staining with 1×10^{-4} SYBR Green I (v/v, final concentration, Molecular Probes) [1]. Next, we employed a dilution-to-extinction method (Fig. S1) for bacterial cultivation. Briefly, the 10 L sample was filtered through 0.22 µm-pore size polycarbonate filters (47 mm diameter, Millipore) and autoclaved, and then was used as the seawater medium for subsequent isolation. Using the *in situ* seawater rather than artificial seawater can better simulate the *in situ* conditions providing multiple necessary elements to diverse bacterial species. To increase the chance of obtaining diverse slow-growing species, six different types of seawater culture media were prepared by supplementation of ultralow concentrations of different substrates (Table S2). Among the six types of seawater media, the simplest one was supplemented with glucose only, with the resulting isolates named by a prefix of "xm-g". Three more complex ones were

TIANGEN Biotech). The 16S rRNA gene sequence was amplified using the Polymerase Chain

79 Reaction (PCR). The reagents for the PCR include 25 µl Premix Taq (TAKARA, Version 2.0), 1

80 µl forward primer (final concentration 0.4 µM, 27 F: 5'-AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3')

81 and 1 µl reverse primer (final concentration 0.4 µM, 1492 R: 5'-

82 TACGGYTACCTTGTTACGACTT-3'), 22 µl the nuclease-free water, and 1 µl template DNA.

 The thermocycling condition for the PCR includes the initial denaturation at 95 ℃ for 5 minutes, followed by 30 cycles (95 ℃ for 45 seconds, 55 ℃ for 45 seconds and 72 ℃ for 90 seconds), final extension at 72 ℃ for 10 minutes. After determining the 16S rRNA gene sequence, a population related to *Roseovarius* in the *Roseobacter* group of Alphaproteobacteria and a second population related to *Marinobacterium* of Gammaproteobacteria were identified, each consisting of 16 strains showing (nearly) identical 16S rRNA gene sequences.

1.2 Genome sequencing, assembly, and annotation

 The quality of the genomic DNA of the above 32 isolates was required to pass the 92 following criteria: $A_{260nm}/A_{280nm} > 1.8$, $A_{260nm}/A_{230nm} > 2.0$, and $A_{260nm} > A_{270nm}$, which was 93 measured using NanoDropTM 2000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo). Genome sequencing with Illumina HiSeq 2500 was used to generate paired 251 bp reads and performed at the Hubbard Center for Genome Studies in the University of New Hampshire (NH, USA). The resulting raw reads were trimmed using Trimmomatic v0.36 [3]. Nextera adaptors were removed, and the three beginning and trailing base pairs (bps) of each read were also trimmed if the quality score is lower than three. The trimmed reads each with less than 50 bp were discarded. Next, FastQC v0.11.5 [4] was used to check the quality of the remaining reads. The *de novo* assembly of the clean reads sequenced from each genome was performed using SPAdes assembler v3.9.1 [5] with the default parameters, and contigs shorter than 1,000 bp were not used for the downstream analyses.

 To facilitate the population genomic analyses of the *Roseobacter* population, the isolate xm-d-517 was additionally sequenced with a long-insert (20 kb) library using the RSII platform of PacBio sequencing technology. A complete and closed genome consisting of a chromosome

 and a plasmid of the strain was assembled based on the Illumina short reads and the PacBio long reads using Unicycler v0.4.6 [6], which follows a new hybrid assembly pipeline to resolve bacterial genome from a combination of short and long reads. The completeness and contamination of the scaffolded assembly were evaluated for each genome using CheckM v1.0.7 [7]. The gene calling of each genome assembly was performed using Prokka v1.11[8], and the functional annotation of each protein-coding gene was performed using Prokka, the RAST server v2.0 [9], the KEGG database v82.0 [10, 11] and the CDD database v3.16 [12].

1.3 Ortholog prediction and phylogenomic construction

 The orthologous gene families among strains in each population were identified using OrthoFinder 2.2.7 [13]. For each gene family, the amino acid sequences were aligned using MAFFT v7.215[14], and gaps in the alignment were trimmed using TrimAl v1.4.rev15 [15]. Next, the trimmed alignments were concatenated and used to construct the phylogenomic tree. Considering the potentially heterogeneous evolutionary rate among different gene families, the data partition model was implemented using PartitionFinder2 [16], and the estimated partition scheme was incorporated in the maximum likelihood phylogenomic construction using RAxML v8.1.22 [17]. The phylogeny of the *Roseobacter* population was rooted with *Aliiroseovarius crassostreae* CV919-312 [18] and *A. crassostreae* DSM16950 (RefSeq assembly accession number: GCA_001307765.1 and GCA_900116725.1), and the phylogeny of the *Marinobacterium* population was rooted with *Marinobacterium* sp. AK27 (RefSeq assembly accession number: GCA_000705555.1). These outgroup species were chosen because they are phylogenetically distinct from, but most closely related to, the two populations under study, respectively. The phylogeny of *Marinobacterium* genus (Fig. S12) was constructed with

 additional 12 *Marinobacterium* strains, which can be retrieved from RefSeq assembly accession numbers: GCA_000220545.2, GCA_000378045.1, GCA_000428985.1, GCA_000620085.1, GCA_001528745.1, GCA_001651805.1, GCA_003014615.1, GCA_003250495.1, GCA_004339595.1, GCA_900107855.1, GCA_900108065.1, GCA_900155945.1.

1.4 Recombination inference and population structure analysis

 The whole genome sequences of the strains within each population were aligned using progressiveMauve v2.3.1[19] with the default settings. The core genomic regions, which are shared by all strains of a population and longer than 500 bp, were extracted using the stripSubsetLCB module provided by Mauve [20]. With the core genome alignment and the phylogenomic tree as inputs, the recombination events occurring in each population were inferred using ClonalFrameML v1.1 [21], which uses maximum likelihood inference to detect recombination in a computationally efficient way. The shared ancestry among the strains in the population was inferred with ChromoPainter and FineStructure [22]. The inputs for the ChromoPainter, including haplotype data formatted as 'phase' files and the recombination map files, were prepared following the instructions. After generating the chunk count data, the GUI version of the FineStructure was used to perform a model-based clustering using the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) approach with the default settings. Two independent runs with random seed yielded consistent assignments of individuals to co-ancestral populations, indicating 148 the convergence as described in the manual. The coancestry plot was visualized using the R script 'fineRADstructure.R' [23].

1.5 Divergent allele replacement inference based on the outlier d^S

 Allelic replacements with divergent species via homologous recombination in the core gene families of the *Roseobacter* population were identified through the detection of orthologs with anomalously large between-clade synonymous substitution rate (*dS*), which was described earlier [24–26]. Briefly, synonymous mutations are often considered neutral as they do not change the amino acid sequences, and most variations in synonymous divergence among loci are mainly caused by the stochastic nature of mutations across the whole genome. However, if a divergent allele was acquired via recombination, the recombined loci would expectedly show unusually large synonymous substitution rate (*dS*), compared to the remaining loci in the genome. There have been a few arguments that synonymous changes are under selection at other levels. For example, nitrogen limitation and carbon limitation each were demonstrated to act as 162 selective pressures in the pelagic marine environment, which drives genomic G+C content to decrease and increase, respectively, in marine bacterial populations [27, 28]. In this case, mutations at all genomic sites, including synonymous sites, are under selection. However, these pressures indiscriminately affect synonymous sites of all genes in the genome, which is unlikely to result in a small subset of gene families with unusually large *d^S* values. Another potential selective source at synonymous sites is codon usage bias. Alternative synonymous codons are generally not used in equal frequencies, and the codon usage bias is correlated with gene expression levels in fast-growing microorganisms [29, 30]. A recent study showed that codon usage bias in highly expressed genes is driven by selection to maximize translation speed or accuracy [31], whereas the codon usage in weakly expressed genes is thought to reflect mutation pressure in the absence of selection [32, 33]. Therefore, strong translational selection reduces synonymous substitution rate in highly expressed genes, while synonymous changes in weakly

 expressed genes are randomly affected by mutation. Therefore, this mechanism cannot lead to a small subset of outlier gene families with unusually large *d^S* values.

176 Based on the above principles, if a gene family shows that pairwise d_S values between 177 Clade R-I and Clade R-II are enormously large but pairwise d_S values within each clade are extremely small, it can be inferred that the allelic replacement in this family occurred at either 179 the last common ancestor (LCA) of Clade R-I or the LCA of Clade R-II. In practice, for each single-copy protein-coding gene family shared by all strains in the *Roseobacter* population, *d^S* was estimated for all possible pairs of the strains using the yn00 module in PAML [34]. To detect the core gene families showing anomalous patterns of *dS*, all pairwise *d^S* values of all single-copy core gene families were clustered using the k-means clustering algorithm. The number of optimal clusters (k=2, Fig. S2A) was determined using the R package 'NbClust' [35], which provides a variety of indices for cluster validity.

 Next, gene trees were constructed to determine the potential phylogenetic sources for the genes displaying anomalous patterns of *dS*. The potential gene donors were searched against 89 available *Roseobacter* genomes closely related to the population under study. For each gene family displaying anomalous patterns of *dS*, their putative orthologous genes in the above 89 genomes were identified using BLASTP program with an e-value of 1e-5 [36], aligned with MAFFT [14] at the amino acid sequence level, and the alignments were trimmed with TrimAl [15]. The maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees were constructed using IQ-Tree [37] with the parameters "-mset WAG,LG,JTT,JTTDCMut -mrate E,I,G,I+G -mfreq FU -bb 1000".

1.6 Mobile genetic element prediction

 The mobile genetic elements (MGEs) including plasmids, genomic islands, prophages, insertion sequences (IS), and integrons were predicted for the 16 genomes of the *Roseobacter* population. Among these, the potential plasmid sequences were predicted using plasmidSPAdes [38] and Recycler [39], the potential genomic islands (GIs) were predicted using the online IslandViewer 4 [40] by summarizing the results from all four methods hosted by this service, the 201 potential prophages were predicted using the PHASTER web server [41], the potential IS families were predicted using ISEScan [42], and the potential integrons were predicted using IntegronFinder [43] and benchmarked using *Vibrio cholerae* N16961 with known integrons [44]. All of these programs were implemented with default parameters. *1.7 Substrate utilization assays* 207 The phenotypic microarray (PM) technology from $BiOLOG^{TM}$ is a high-throughput method for measuring a large number of cellular properties simultaneously [45]. The technology uses the color change of its patented redox as a reporter of active metabolism [46]. In this study, two types of microplates including PM01 and PM02A covering 190 carbon sources were used to

assay the phenotypic differentiation between Clade R-I and Clade R-II of the *Roseobacter*

population, each represented by two strains (xm-d-517 and xm-m-339-2 for Clade R-I; xm-m-

213 314 and xm-v-204 for Clade R-II) each with three replicates. The experiment was performed

following the procedures recommended by the manufacturer. The strains were incubated on the

215 petri dish plate of Marine Agar 2216 (BD DifcoTM) at 30 °C overnight. Bacterial cells were

collected and suspended using a mixture consisting of the IF-0a inoculation medium, sterile

217 distilled water, and NaCl solution. The final concentration of NaCl was 2% (m/w), which was

determined from a pilot growth experiment. After adjusting the turbidity of cell suspension to 60%

 using the BiOLOG turbidity meter, the redox Dye Mixes D (100X) was added to the mixture and the final concentration was adjusted to 1.5X. Then the bacterial suspension was homogenized 221 and inoculated in each well of the plates $(100 \mu l)$. All PM plates were incubated on the OmniLog instrument under 30 ℃. After incubating the PM plates for five days, the raw data were collected, and substrate curves were generated with the programs provided by the manufacturer. A substrate curve represents the bacterium's respiration activity, a useful proxy for the traditional bacterial growth curve [45]. Most substrate curves either resemble bacterial growth curves indicating active utilization of these substrates or locate at the baseline indicating little utilization. Next, the assayed compounds in the PM plates were linked to the KEGG metabolic pathways with the *opm* package [47]. The package analyzes and compares the respiration-based growth data of the four strains generated from the OmniLog platform, and identifies compounds that were utilized significantly differently between strains. Based on the KEGG compound ID corresponding to the compounds in the PM microplate, the program proposes candidate metabolic pathways by which these compounds are utilized. Through manual inspection, we established the potential link between the phenotypic variation and the genotypic variation among the tested strains.

 According to functional annotation of the core genes underlying the differentiation of the *Roseobacter* population, we further tested the utilization of polyamines (putrescine and spermidine) as a sole carbon source and a sole nitrogen source, respectively. The four strains 238 were inoculated in liquid medium (Difco[™] Marine broth 2216) overnight at 28 °C. Cell cultures were centrifuged at 4,000 rpm under room temperature for three minutes, and the pellets were resuspended and washed with the basal salt medium without any carbon or nitrogen sources (See 241 Table S11 for the ingredients). Next, about 60 µl of the cell culture was added to test tubes

 containing 3 ml of intended media with equal initial inoculation concentration. The tubes were incubated at 28 ℃ with shaking, and the growth of each strain was monitored by measuring OD₆₀₀ every two hours. The intended media consisted of the basal medium and the supplemented 245 carbon and nitrogen source (Table S11). When spermidine and putrescine each were tested as a 246 sole carbon source, pyruvate was used as a comparison and distilled water as a negative control. When each were tested as a sole nitrogen source, NH4Cl was used as a comparison. For each test, 248 the growth of cells in marine broth 2216 (DifcoTM) was monitored simultaneously to ensure that the growth rate of the four stains are similar given proper conditions. The statistical comparisons of the between-clade growth rate were conducted with one-way ANOVA.

1.8 Motility tests

 The swimming motility of the four strains (xm-d-517 and xm-m-339-2 for Clade R-I; xm-m-314 and xm-v-204 for Clade R-II) was tested on 0.18% (w/v) soft agar marine broth plates. Overnight culture of each of the strains was sub-cultured (1:200 dilution) into the marine broth 256 2216 (DifcoTM) at 28 °C for 4-5 hours with shaking. When OD_{600} reached 0.6-0.8, a suspension of cells (3 μl) was spotted at the center of a freshly prepared semi-solid swimming plate. After 258 incubation for 11 days at 28 \degree C, the distance of colony migration around the inoculation site was evaluated by the diameter of the covered areas. The capacity of swimming motility was indicated by the longest distance bacterial cells could swim on the plate. All assays were conducted in triplicates. For sedimentation assays, the overnight culture of each strain was diluted (1:1) into fresh marine broth 2216. 2 ml of the suspension was transferred to a 14-ml falcon test tube and was allowed to sediment at room temperature for up to 24 hours without shaking. Three replicates were conducted for each sample, and each experiment was performed at least twice.

1.9 Oxidative and osmotic stress sensitivity assay

Text 2. Supplementary results

2.1 Speciation does not occur in a sympatric Marinobacterium population

 The analyses in the main text demonstrated that the *Roseobacter* population is under ongoing speciation and the results indicate that phycosphere is one of the likely ecological niches that drove its speciation. A natural next question is whether this is a general pattern in other bacterial populations in the sympatric environment. In our culture collection resulted from the same sampling and bacterial isolation campaign, there is another bacterial species also consisting of 16 strains related to the *Marinobacterium* genus in Gammaproteobacteria. No other species have sufficient amount of closely related isolates amenable for our population genomic analyses. Isolates in the *Marinobacterium* population share the 16S rRNA gene sequence identity of

 99.90±0.13% and ANI of 98.12±4.57%. In terms of the intraspecific diversity, despite that the *Marinobacterium* species and the *Roseobacter* species is nearly indistinguishable when these two criteria were compared, they differ surprisingly by a factor of over 10 in the density of SNPs in their core genomes (57,045 per Mbp versus 4,242 per Mbp; Table S4). Although the 16 strains in the *Marinobacterium* population are similarly grouped into two phylogenetic clusters (hereafter Clade M-I and Clade M-II) based on all single-copy core genes (the tree shown on the left of Fig. S10), the results of ClonalFrameML show that 295 recombination occurs nearly as frequently as point mutations (ρ / θ =0.76), indicating a sexual population structure. In addition, seven fineSTRUCTURE populations were identified in the 16

five strains (xm-d-530, xm-g-59, xm-d-579, xm-d-564, and xm-a-152) spanning all over the

strains of the *Marinobacterium* population (Fig. S10). Among these, one population consists of

phylogenomic tree, indicating that frequent gene flow occurs between distinct phylogenetic

groups. For the remaining fineSTRUCTURE populations that share the membership of the

monophyletic groups shown in the phylogeny, the clustering order of the fineSTRUCTURE

populations shown in the dendrogram is completely different from the branching order of the

corresponding monophyletic groups. Therefore, it is difficult to observe any fineSTRUCTURE

population or monophyletic group in *Marinobacterium* that is well differentiated from the

remaining fineSTRUCTURE populations. Furthermore, the SNP density distribution of the

whole *Marinobacterium* population is similar to that of the Clade M-I in this population (Fig.

S11), suggesting that genetic diversity of the whole population is well represented by members

of Clade M-I. This pattern lends further support for its panmictic population structure with no

signature for genetic differentiation between Clade M-I and Clade M-II.

 Our analyses indicate that the micro-evolutionary pattern of the *Marinobacterium* species does not correlate with phycosphere or other microscale ecological niches. A simple genome content analysis showed that none of the genomes in this population contain any motility and chemotaxis genes (Fig. S13), which are required to establish symbiosis with phytoplankton [48–50] or explore other microenvironments. Moreover, the *Marinobacterium* species under study may have undergone genome reduction during its evolutionary history, as members of this species are equipped with streamlined genomes (~2.3 Mbp, Table S12) and phylogenetically imbedded into other *Marinobacterium* species with larger genomes (3.5-5.6 Mbp, Fig. S12). Reduction of genomic G+C content, a signature of genome streamlining in marine bacteria [51], was also observed (~48% versus 54%-64%; Fig. S12). These genomic features indicate that members of the isolated *Marinobacterium* species are oligotrophic bacteria with streamlined genomes, which are not known to actively explore microenvironments including phycospheres [51–53]. Thus, the observed population differentiation potentially driven by phycosphere may be restricted to bacteria equipped with more versatile metabolism like the *Roseobacter* population studied here.

2.2 Utilization of polyamines

 A few other substrates included in the PM microplates were differentially utilized by the four strains, but the pattern disagrees with the phylogenetic divide of these strains. For instance, only two strains, xm-d-517 (R-I) and xm-m-314 (R-II), could use putrescine as a sole carbon source (Table S10 and Fig. S5-H08), which was inconsistent with the phylogenetic grouping of the four strains. Putrescine and spermidine (the latter not included in the two PM microplates) are the most important short-chain polyamines, and they are mainly produced by phytoplankton and other planktonic organisms and consumed as carbon and nitrogen sources by the

 Roseobacter group and a few other bacterial lineages in the ocean [54]. Their uptake is thought to occur through the ABC-type transporter genes encoded by the *pot* gene cluster *potABCD* [55], which (from xm-d-517_03110 to xm-d-517_03113) are part of the 200 core genes subjected to recombination with external species. While the protein products of *potA* and *potD* are both essential to spermidine and putrescine uptake together with channel forming proteins encoded by *potB* and *potC* [56], the novel allele replacement for *potA* and *potD* occurred at the LCA of Clade R-II and the LCA of Clade R-I, respectively, suggesting that functional innovation may have occurred in both Clade R-I and Clades R-II members. We therefore performed simple growth assays and confirmed that the differential utilizations by the four representative strains of putrescine and spermidine each as a sole carbon source (Fig. S6) do not match the phylogenetic divide of these strains. The two polyamines each was further tested as a sole nitrogen source. While the putrescine did not show differential utilization between the two clades, the spermidine was utilized significantly better by Clade II members than by Clade I members (One-way ANOVA, *p* < 0.001, Fig. 3G).

2.3 Inference of the history and pattern of novel allele replacements

 Among the 200 core families, 183 have orthologs in the two genomes of *Aliiroseovarius crassostreae*, the available lineage most closely related to the *Roseobacter* population (Fig. S8A). These 183 gene trees each show close relationship between Clade R-I, Clade R-II and *A. crassostreae*, but they differ in the branching order of the three lineages (see examples of gene trees in Fig. S7A, B, C). This indicates that *A. crassostreae* or lineages related to it were the sources of the novel alleles. We noted that, however, all gene trees summarizing the evolutionary relationship between Clade R-I, Clade R-II and *A. crassostreae* are rooted with very distant

 outgroups (again see Fig. S7A, B, C as examples of gene trees). It is well known that appropriate outgroups allow for reliable inference of ancestral state of the lineages under comparison and thus of the rooted tree topology (Fig. S8B), whereas too distant outgroups weaken the confidence of the ancestral inference and the reliability of the resulting topology (Fig. S8C). Hence, the evolutionary relationship of the three lineages in the gene trees inferred with the regular tree building method is not reliable due to the lack of an appropriate outgroup.

 As such, an alternative approach was employed to infer the gene tree topology, which 363 calculates the pairwise neutral genetic distances (approximated by pairwise d_S values) among the three lineages and sets the root between the two lineages showing the greatest distance (i.e., the midpoint rooting). Among the 183 (out of 200) core gene families that have orthologs in *A. crassostreae*, 148 each show the smallest *d^S* in the comparison of Clade R-II and *A. crassostreae*, suggesting that Clade R-I branches off first in the gene tree (Fig. S9-i-a) and that recombination may have occurred from unsampled lineages that branched earlier than *A. crassostreae* to the LCA of Clade R-I on the rooted species tree (the red arrow in Fig. S9-i-b). An alternate explanation is that these gene families underwent recombination between the LCA of *A. crassostreae* and the LCA of Clade R-II (the grey arrow in Fig. S9-i-b). The latter mechanism homogenizes the genetic materials at these gene families, which is expected to lead to unusually low *d^S* values between recombined lineages [25]. Because the *d^S* values between *A. crassostreae* and Clade R-II are large and comparable to other pairwise comparisons in each gene family (Table S9), the second mechanism was ruled out. Likewise, four gene families each were inferred to show a gene tree topology by

clustering Clade R-I and *A. crassostreae* (Fig. S9-ii-a) and to have undergone recombination

from the unsampled lineages to the LCA of Clade R-II (the red arrow in Fig. S9-ii-b). In another

2.4 The pattern of Roseobacter population differentiation fits an existing microbial speciation model

 The ecological differentiation could be driven by either genome-wide selective sweeps [57] or gene-specific selective sweeps [58]. The first model states that acquisition of an adaptive genetic trait enables a genotype to outcompete all others in the population, and recombination is rare enough to sustain period selection which purges genetic diversity to near zero across the genome. This theory finds its first and strong support only recently from a natural lake bacterial population, which showed genome-wide genotype succession over eight years [59]. Alternatively, acquisitions of new alleles may enable the cell to explore a new ecological niche and form a new ecotype, and genome-wide selective sweeps can effectively separate the gene pool of the new ecotype from that of the old one and lead to new species formation [57]. Whether this second mechanism occurs in nature remains contentious [60, 61].

 In contrast, the second model proposes that high frequency of recombination results in the spread of adaptive alleles in the population while preventing the elimination of the genome- wide diversity. In the *Roseobacter* population under study, the very low frequency of 404 recombination (ρ / θ =0.076) prevents adaptive alleles acquired at the three core genomic regions from unlinking to the rest of the genome, thus gene-specific selective sweeps were less likely to occur. Instead, the genome-wide diversity within the derived clade (Clade R-I) is extremely low (Fig. 1C), which was likely a result of the genome-wide selective sweep. The present study therefore provides the first evidence that genome-wide selective sweep drives bacterial speciation in nature. One caveat is the limited number of available isolates affiliated with Clade R-I may discount the use of the genome-wide selective sweep as an exclusive mechanism to explain the data. If genetically diverse members of Clade R-I do exist but remain unsampled, which carry the same adaptive alleles but are more diverged in the rest of the genome, the mechanisms driving the speciation process may become more complicated.

Figure S1. The overview of a dilution-to-extinction cultivation approach used for *Roseobacter* isolation. The flowchart on the left describes the general procedure of the approach, and the schematic plot on the right provides the details of the dilution strategy. More information can be found in SI Text 1.1.

Figure S2. Illustration of allelic replacement inference using d_s values. (A) The demo heatmap of the d_s values calculated for every possible pair of genomes across all single-copy orthologous gene families, with warmer colour indicating higher d_s values. The gene families are grouped into two clusters according to (C). Cluster 1 shows unusually large $d_{\rm s}$ values between Clade R-I and Clade R-II but small *d*_s values within each clade, whereas both between- and within-clade *d*_s values are small in Cluster 2. (B) Evolutionary history of an example gene from Cluster 1 mapped to the genome tree. Due to the unusually large between-clade d_s values and little diversity within each clade, the allelic replacement with distant lineages is inferred to have occurred at the LCA of Clade R-I or that of Clade R-II. (C) The determination of optimal number of clusters by cluster validity indices using 'NbCluster' package in R language. The best cluster number is determined to be two, which is supported by seven indices ('duda', 'pseudot2', 'beale', 'gap', 'frey', 'sindex', 'sdbw') for cluster validity. It means that the core genes in the *Roseobacter* population are grouped into two clusters based on the pairwise $d_{\rm s}$ values among all 16 strains across 2,846 single-copy orthologous gene families.

Figure S3. The representation of genomic feature of strain *Aliiroseovarius* sp. xm-d-517. From outer to inner rings: (1) the chromosome (in light blue) and the plasmid (in light red). Both are closed and circular, though they are displayed linearly; (2) the histogram of sequence depth in 1kb window. The depth ranges from 60× to 878×, with a median of 235×; (3-4) protein coding genes on the forward and reverse strand, respectively; (5) the histogram of GC content along the genome. The genomic regions in red and black indicate that the GC content of these regions are greater and lower than the average level of the whole genome (59%), respectively.

 $-$ xm-d-517 — xm-m-339

Figure S4. The utilization of 95 carbon sources in phenotypic microarray microplate PM01 by the strain xm-d-517 (purple) and xm-m-339-2 (light purple) from Clade R-I and the strain xm-v-204 (green) and xm-m-314 (light green) from Clade R-II in the *Roseobacter* population. The first well (A01) in the microplate is the negative control without any carbon source. The substrate curves show the respiration activity of bacteria as a proxy for the traditional bacterial growth curve. Most of substrate curves in the microplate either resemble bacterial growth curves or are near the baseline. The former indicates that the strain could use the corresponding substrates for growth, whereas the latter indicates that no respiration is detected in the well, namely, incapable of using the substrates. Three replicates are performed for each strain. Five significantly differentially utilized substrates by members from these two diversified clades are highlighted in red.

PM 02 (Carbon Sources)

Figure S5. The utilization of 95 carbon sources in phenotypic microarray microplate PM02A by the four representative strains (same as those shown in Fig. S4) in the Roseobacter population. Three replicates are performed for each strain. No differentially utilized substrate from this plate by members from the two diversified clades of the *Roseobacter* population was identified.

Figure S6. Growth experiments of the four representative strains with and without carbon sources, in which three replicates were performed for each strain. Left: the negative control without any carbon source, the positive control when pyruvate is used as a sole carbon source, and another control inoculated in rich medium (DifcoTM Marine broth 2216). Middle and right: the growth curves of the four strains with putrescine and spermidine as a sole carbon source, respectively. The lines for the four strains are indicated in distinct colors (xm-d-517 in purple; xm-m-339-2 in light purple; xm-v-204 in green; xm-m-314 in light green).

Figure S7. Examples illustrating the inference of the evolutionary scenarios underlying novel allele replacements at the core genes each showing an unusually large between-clade d_S value in the *Roseobacter* population. The four example (A, B, C and D) core gene families (named with gene locus from strain xm-d-517) each represent a distinct evolutionary path (i, ii, iii and iv) shown in Fig. S9. The two diversified clades of the *Roseobacter* population are highlighted with distinct colors in the gene tree, consistent with the color scheme shown in their phylogenomic tree (Fig. 1A).

(B) xm-d-517 03119

0.05

Figure S8. (A) The RAxML maximum-likelihood phylogenomic tree of the *Roseobacter* population and *A. crassostreae* based on concatenated single-copy core genes. Solid and open circles at the nodes indicate the frequency of the group defined by that node is at least 95 and 80. (B and C) Two examples of ancestral state inference. Above each branch is ancestral state of each lineage. (B) The ancestral state of the LCA of Clade R-I, Clade R-II and *A. crassostreae* can be reliably inferred when appropriate outgroups are available. The solid circles denote the root of three lineages. (C) Available outgroups are too distant to infer ancestral state of three lineages.

Figure S9. The inferred recombination history of the 200 core gene families that drove population differentiation. Left shows gene tree topology inferred based on pairwise neutral genetic distance (d_{S}) among Clade R-I, Clade R-II and *Aliiroseovarius crassostreae*, and right is the inferred recombination history mapped on the species tree of Clade R-I, Clade R-II and *A*. *crassostreae*. (i) Clustering between Clade R-II and *A. crassostreae* (i-a) indicates the LCA of Clade R-I replaced novel alleles from unsampled lineages that branched earlier than *A. crassostreae* (the red arrow; i-b) or recombination between the LCA of Clade R-II and that of *A. crassostreae* (the grey arrow; i-b). The history indicated by the grey arrow is rejected by the *d*_s analysis; (ii) Clade R-I and *A. crassostreae* share closer evolutionary relationship (ii-a), indicating unsampled lineages which branched earlier than *A. crassostreae* donated alleles to the LCA of Clade R-II (the red arrow; ii-b) or recombination between the LCA of Clade R-I and *A. crassostreae* (the grey arrow; ii-b). The history indicated by the grey arrow is rejected by the d_s analysis; (iii) gene tree shows topology consistent with species tree (iii-a), suggesting either the LCA of Clade R-I or that of Clade R-II replaced alleles from unsampled lineages that branched off following *A. crassostreae* (iii-b); (iv) gene tree is congruent with species tree, though no orthologs can be found in *A. crassostreae* (iv-a), suggesting either the LCA of Clade R-I or that of Clade R-II replaced alleles from unsampled lineages that branched off following the "distant lineage".

Figure S10. The RAxML maximum-likelihood phylogenomic tree and the fineSTRUCTURE coancestry matrix of the *Marinobactrium* population. The rooted phylogenomic tree is shown on the left (the outgroup is not shown). Solid and open circles at the nodes indicate the frequency of the group defined by that node is at least 95 and 80, respectively, in the 100 bootstrapped replicates. The scale bar indicates the number of substitutions per site. The two most deeply branching clades in the *Marinobactrium* population are highlighted in blue and orange. The last common ancestors of Clade M-I and Clade M-II each are marked with an arrow. The coancestry matrix is shown on the right, the legend of the matrix is same as that in Fig.1A.

Figure S11.The distribution of SNPs along a representative genome in the *Marinobacterium* population. The SNPs are counted within 10-kb sliding windows across the reference genome. As the *Marinobacterium* population in which a closed genome sequence is not available, the strain xm-d-579 is used as a reference since it consists of the fewest contigs, and contigs are ordered decreasingly in length.The SNP density is counted within each of the two most deeply-branching clades, respectively, as well as among all strains pooled together. The phylogenomic tree of each population is on the left of the plot, where the last common ancestors of Clade M-I and Clade M-II each are marked with an arrow.

Tree scale: 0.01

Figure S12. The RAxML maximum-likelihood phylogenomic tree of the *Marinobacterium* genus and genomic features. The rooted phylogenomic tree is shown on the left (the outgroup is not shown. The genome sequences of published *Marinobacterium* strains were downloaded from NCBI). Solid and open circles at the nodes indicate the frequency of the group defined by that node is at least 95 and 80, respectively, in the 100 bootstrapped replicates. The scale bar indicates the number of substitutions per site. The genome size and GC content are shown on the right, with warmer color representing the larger genome size or higher GC content.

Figure S13. Comparison of functional gene abundance between the *Roseobacter* population and the *Marinobacterium* population, and genes are categorized based on the first level of subsystems from the RAST server for all genes within each population. The statistical enrichment of each functional group was assessed using χ^2 test. Two stars on the right of the bars denote significant difference ($p < 0.01$) in the relative abundance of genes in these functional categories between the two populations.

Table S1. The physicochemical data of the seawater sample from which the *Roseobacter* population and the *Marinobacterium* population were isolated.

Table S2. List of nutrient supplements for six types of seawater media used for bacterial isolation. These nutrient supplements each are suspended using the autoclaved and filtered (0.22 μ m syringe) seawater in the preparation of the cultivation media.

Table S3. Genome statistics of the 16 isolates in the *Roseobacter* population. The completeness and contamination are estimated with CheckM [7], and the remaining statistics are calculated with QUAST [62].

Table S4. Genetic diversity of the Roseobacter population and the Marinobacterium population. For the purpose of comparison, published prokaryotic populations are also included which show evidence of population differentia The number of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) is calculated based on the core genomes of each population, and normalized by the core genome length and the number of genomes within each population. The 16S rRNA gene identity and whole-genome average nucleotide identity (ANI) each are the mean value of all pairwise comparisons. In the case of *Clostridium difficile* and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* data sets, genome assemblies are available and therefore their 16S rRNA gene identity and pairwise ANI are not available. As the evolution of the Roseobacter population is heavily affected by the three large genomic regions showing evidence of novel allel acquisitions, the genetic diversity of this population is calculated with and without these regions. In the 'Lifestyle' column, 'F' and 'H' represent free-living and host-associated lifestyles, respectively, whereas 'MIX' lifestyles are present in the organism.

> This study without the three recombination affected regions)

This study

Table S5. The number of the bi-allelic single nucleotide polymorphisms (BiPs), the relative frequency (*ρ/θ*) and relative effect (*r/m*) of recombination to point mutation in the *Roseobacter* population calculated from the whole genome alignment (WGA) generated by progressiveMauve v2.3.1 [19]. These ratios are also calculated from the same WGA but without the three long recombination segments inferred by ClonalFrameML (Fig. 1B). Within these three recombined segments, the BiPs are categorized into homoplasious and non-homoplasious BiPs.

Table S6. Statistics of between-clade (i.e., Clade R-I vs. Clade R-II in the *Roseobacter* population) and withinclade *d^S* values for the two clusters across 2,846 shared single-copy gene families identified with the K-means clustering algorithm. The optimal number $(K=2)$ of the clusters was determined with the R package 'NbClust' (Fig. S2A). The number in the parenthesis denotes the number of core gene families assigned to each cluster.

Table S7. Functional annotation of the 53 genes exclusively and universally found in either Clade R-I or Clade R-II of the *Roseobacter* population. Clade R-I and Clade R-II specific genes are represented by loci from strains xm-d-517 and xm-a-104, respectively.

Table S8. The number of single-copy core gene families showing amino acid substitutions in the *Roseobacter* population. The pattern of amino acid substitution is considered to be congruent with the speciation pattern of the *Roseobacter* population if the amino acid state is identical within a clade (Clade R-I or Clade R-II) but different between the two diversified clades.

Table S9. Functional annotation of the 200 core genes in the *Roseobacter* population subject to homologous recombination with external lineages. ^a Mean d_s value of pairwise genes between Clade R-I and Clade R-II. ^b Mean d_S value of pairwise genes between Clade R-I and *Aliiroseovarius crassostreae*. ^c Mean d_S value of pairwise genes between Clade R-II and *A. crassostreae*. Mean *d^S* values are not available for gene families having no orthologs in *A. crassostreae*.

Table S10. The list of substrates that are utilized differently among the four representative strains of the *Roseobacter* population. These substrates are collected from two Biolog phenotypic microplates (PM01 and PM02A), within which the compound in each well (except the negative control) is used by the bacteria as a sole carbon source. In the column 'Utilization pattern', isolates are clustered with parentheses if they show similar utilization pattern, but are grouped to different parentheses if they show significantly different utilization patterns. The substrates with similar utilization patterns are grouped and separated by colored shadings.

Table S11. The recipe of the medium used to test the polyamine (putrescine and spermidine) utilization by the *Roseobacter* population. The recipe was modified from a medium used for isolating *Sulfurimonas autotrophica* from deep sea sediment [89]. When testing a polyamine compound as a sole carbon source, NH4Cl is used as the nitrogen source. When testing a polyamine compound as a sole nitrogen source, pyruvate is used as the carbon source.

Table S12. Genome statistics of the 16 isolates in the *Marinobacterium* population. The completeness and contamination are estimated with CheckM [7], and the remaining statistics are calculated with QUAST [62].

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