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(*Rutilus rutilus*) of large prealpine lakes**

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Allopatric and sympatric diversification within roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) of large prealpine lakes

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- 1 **Allopatric and sympatric diversification within roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) of**
- 2 **large prealpine lakes**
- 3
- 4

5 **Abstract**

6 Intraspecific differentiation in response to divergent natural selection between
7 environments is a common phenomenon in some lineages of northern
8 freshwater fishes, especially salmonids and stickleback. Understanding why
9 these taxa diversify and undergo adaptive radiations while most other fish
10 species in the same environments do not, remains an open question. The
11 possibility for intraspecific diversification has rarely been evaluated for most
12 northern freshwater fish species. Here, we assess the potential for intraspecific
13 differentiation between and within lake populations of roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) – a
14 widespread and abundant cyprinid species - in lakes in which salmonids have
15 evolved endemic adaptive radiations. Based on more than 3,000 polymorphic
16 RADseq markers, we detected low but significant genetic differentiation between
17 roach populations of two ultraoligotrophic lakes and between these and
18 populations from other lakes. This, together with differentiation in head
19 morphology and stable isotope signatures, suggests evolutionary and ecological
20 differentiation among some of our studied populations. Next, we tested for
21 intralacustrine diversification of roach within Lake Brienz, the most pristine lake
22 surveyed in this study. We found significant phenotypic evidence for ecological
23 intralacustrine differentiation between roach caught over a muddy substrate and
24 those caught over a rocky substrate. However, evidence for intralacustrine
25 genetic differentiation is at best subtle and phenotypic changes may therefore be
26 mostly plastic. Overall, our findings suggest roach can differ between ecologically
27 distinct lakes, but the extent of intralacustrine ecological differentiation is weak,
28 which contrasts with the strong differentiation among endemic species of
29 whitefish in the same lakes.

30

31 **Keywords:** *Rutilus rutilus*, resource polymorphism, postglacial range expansion,
32 stable isotopes, RADseq

33 **Introduction**

34 Much of the existing species diversity of freshwater fish in northern
35 climate zones is of recent origin, having evolved since the end of the last
36 glaciation period ~12kyrs ago (Hewitt, 1999; Seehausen & Wagner, 2014).
37 During the invasion of newly available freshwater bodies and associated range
38 expansion, many fish species colonized a variety of different environments, and
39 as a result may have experienced competitive release that may have triggered
40 adaptive diversification (Bolnick *et al.*, 2007; Stroud & Losos, 2016). Divergent
41 selection between habitats frequently led to the emergence of ecologically
42 distinct populations, ecotypes, and species. Divergence of populations may for
43 example occur as a response to different predation regimes (Walsh & Reznick,
44 2009; Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013), different parasites (Karvonen & Seehausen,
45 2012), different feeding regimes (Schluter, 1996; Jonsson & Jonsson, 2001;
46 Svanbäck & Eklöv, 2004), or as a response to interactions among several of these
47 and other variables (Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). The same factors when
48 combined with intraspecific competition may also drive intraspecific
49 diversification in sympatry (Rosenzweig, 1978; Dieckmann & Doebeli, 1999;
50 Gavrillets, 2004; Svanbäck & Bolnick, 2007), e.g., within a lake where ecologically
51 distinct individuals may occupy different niches. Such intralacustrine
52 diversification of fish has received an ample amount of interest to study adaptive
53 radiation (Schluter, 1996; Bolnick & Fitzpatrick, 2007; Seehausen & Wagner,
54 2014). Evidence for intraspecific sympatric diversification and adaptive
55 radiation among temperate freshwater fishes is, however, restricted to relatively
56 few taxonomic groups, particularly salmonids and a few cases of threespined
57 stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) (Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). These are
58 classic examples of adaptive radiations, i.e., the diversification of a single taxon
59 into phenotypically, ecologically, and genetically differentiated populations or
60 ultimately species (Schluter, 2000). Comparatively, few studies have explored
61 taxa beyond these classical cases to better understand why some fish taxa form
62 adaptive radiations while others do not, and therefore, a study bias cannot be
63 ruled out (reviewed in Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). Comparative investigations
64 of other common taxa are consequently needed.

65 Cases of intralacustrine diversification in temperate freshwater fish often
66 involve differentiation along a pelagic-benthic axis, leading to the evolution of
67 sympatric planktivorous pelagic and benthivorous benthic species (Seehausen &
68 Wagner, 2014). A second axis of diversification includes segregation along depth
69 gradients such as in Arctic charr (*Salvelinus alpinus*; Jonsson & Jonsson, 2001) or
70 whitefish (*Coregonus* sp.; Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2009). The range and discreteness of
71 vacant niches and available food resources in an ecosystem may determine the
72 number of resource-specific ecotypes that can evolve (Nosil & Sandoval, 2008;
73 Wagner *et al.*, 2014; Lucek *et al.*, 2016). In the case of intraspecific diversification,
74 adaptive phenotypic differentiation may initially emerge through divergent
75 selection on standing genetic variation (Barrett & Schluter, 2008), phenotypic
76 plasticity, or a combination of both (Smith & Skulason, 1996; Schluter, 2000;
77 Lucek *et al.*, 2014). Plasticity can initially promote differentiation (Snorrason &
78 Skulason, 2004; Pfennig *et al.*, 2010), and depending on the stability of the
79 selective regime, divergent phenotypes may become genetically fixed through
80 phenotypic canalization, genetic assimilation, or genetic accommodation (Crispo,
81 2008; Thibert-Plante & Hendry, 2011). On the other hand, plasticity may shield
82 the genome from the effects of selection and prevent genetic fixation (Price *et al.*,
83 2003; Ghalambor *et al.*, 2007). If reproductive isolation cannot evolve, adaptive
84 variation may sometimes be maintained by intraspecific resource
85 polymorphisms either through adaptive phenotypic plasticity (Pfennig *et al.*,
86 2010) or frequency dependent selection (Svanbäck & Bolnick, 2007).

87 Here, we test for the presence of intraspecific differentiation and
88 diversification in a widespread and abundant fish species of postglacial lakes –
89 the roach (*Rutilus rutilus*). Roach are often considered to be generalist feeders
90 (Persson, 1983), but may specialize on part of the food spectrum, such as
91 zooplankton, to avoid predation and/or interspecific competition (Svanbäck *et al.*,
92 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). Roach have also been shown to, in some cases,
93 undergo ontogenetic dietary shifts, e.g. from zooplankton to macrophytes or
94 mussels (Prejs *et al.*, 1990; Vejříková *et al.*, 2017). Roach represent an ideal
95 candidate to test for intraspecific diversification, given i) its broad dietary niche
96 providing the ecological opportunity to explore a wide range of the available
97 niche space and thus to potentially adapt to one or more niches, ii) its wide

98 distribution across Europe (Kottelat & Freyhof, 2007), iii) its ability to inhabit an
99 array of different environments (including streams and the pelagic and littoral
100 zones of lakes (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015), iv) its large population
101 sizes, and v) its modest economic importance, resulting in little to no direct
102 management. Additionally, the roach in this study (Figure 1) often coexist with
103 adaptive radiations of whitefish and are ecologically similar to some of the
104 shallow water whitefish species (Hudson *et al.*, 2011; Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2012;
105 Doenz *et al.*, 2018), thus providing the potential for ecological niche shifts of
106 roach in response to interspecific interactions, as has been shown for other fish
107 species (Persson, 1983; Braband, 1985; Faulks *et al.*, 2015).

108 Previous allozyme studies implicate that genetic differentiation in roach
109 occurs predominantly between, but not within, drainage systems as a result of
110 different colonization events following the last glaciation period (Laroche *et al.*,
111 1999; Hänfling *et al.*, 2004). Roach from lakes with distinct colonization histories
112 often differ in body shape, potentially as a response to different predation
113 regimes (Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013) or varying levels of intra- (Svanbäck *et al.*,
114 2008) or interspecific competition (Faulks *et al.*, 2015). However, in cases where
115 genetic data were available, phenotypic differentiation showed only minor
116 association with the level of genetic differentiation, suggesting that plasticity
117 may often underlie phenotypic differences among roach populations
118 (Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). The aforementioned studies were,
119 however, conducted in relatively shallow lakes, which might not provide the
120 same ecological opportunities for genetic and adaptive differentiation as large,
121 deep, and oligotrophic lakes do (Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). In addition, studies
122 of lacustrine populations compared different drainages that were likely
123 independently colonized, potentially resulting in different evolutionary
124 contingencies (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013; Faulks *et al.*,
125 2015). By integrating phenotypic data of roach from seven large pre-alpine lakes
126 with genomic and ecological (i.e. stable isotopic) data of five of these, we assess
127 to which degree allopatric populations from lakes within the same drainage
128 system that are connected by rivers differ from each other. We further test for
129 intralacustrine differentiation of roach caught over different substrates within
130 Lake Brienz. As Brienz is the most pristine lake that we studied (Figure 1, Table

131 1), it is also the most likely lake to reveal if intralacustrine diversification evolved
132 in roach as a response to local ecological opportunities. This is because the fish
133 fauna of this lake experienced relatively little human impact, i.e. did not undergo
134 a phase of eutrophication and re-oligotrophication during the second part of the
135 20th century like many other Swiss lakes (Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2012), and is one of
136 the few pre-alpine lakes that still hosts its whole adaptive radiation of whitefish
137 (Hudson *et al.*, 2011; Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2012; Doenz *et al.*, 2018).

138

139 **Materials and Methods:**

140 *Study area and sampling*

141 We sampled 1,223 roach from seven pre-alpine Swiss lakes between
142 September 2011 and October 2012 (Figure 1a; Table 1). All lakes belong to the
143 Aare/Rhine drainage except for Lake Geneva, which belongs to the Rhone
144 drainage. However, former biogeographic work found that *R. rutilus* from the
145 Rhone drainage formed a genetic cluster with specimens from the Rhine
146 drainage (Larmuseau *et al.*, 2009), potentially reflecting human translocations
147 and/or natural drainage crossings, which has been observed for other fish
148 species between the Aare/Rhine drainage and Lake Geneva (Vonlanthen *et al.*,
149 2007; Gousskov & Vorburger, 2016). All specimens were collected during *Project*
150 *Lac*, a large fish diversity assessment of pre-alpine lakes that aimed to probe all
151 available littoral substrates and depth-related habitats for each lake using a
152 standardized gillnet approach (reviewed in Alexander *et al.* (2015a; b)). Briefly,
153 for each lake the littoral habitats (<5 m deep) were classified based on substrate
154 composition and particle size, macrophyte morphology and density, and
155 proximity to an inwardly or outwardly flowing watercourse. Fishing was
156 subsequently performed using a combination of two different gillnet protocols
157 that combined different mesh sizes to reduce size-selective catch biases
158 (described in detail in Alexander *et al.* 2015a). Nets were set in a randomized
159 way within the available area of both benthic and littoral habitats. Netting effort
160 reflected the relative abundance of each habitat with a minimum number of
161 three nets per habitat (Alexander *et al.*, 2015a; b). Following capture, the total
162 length of each specimen was measured and each sample was photographed on
163 the left side for further morphological analyses. From a subset of specimens,

164 muscle tissue samples were collected for further genetic and stable isotopic
165 analyses (Table 1).

166

167 *Assessing phenotypic differentiation*

168 We quantified individual shape phenotypes based on 11 landmarks (Figure
169 1b) in TPSDIG2 (Rohlf, 2015) and subsequently conducted a Procrustes fit on the
170 obtained shape data in MORPHOJ 1.05e (Klingenberg, 2011) for (i) all lake
171 populations (ii) Lake Brienz specimens, (iii) roach used in the genetic and stable
172 isotopic analyses (see Table 1). We corrected Procrustes coordinates for size by
173 performing a regression against standard length, retaining the residuals. To
174 identify the major axes of phenotypic variation, we performed a principal
175 component (PC) analysis on each size-corrected dataset. The scores along the
176 second and third PC axes in the overall data set were tested for differentiation
177 among lake populations using ANOVAs with *post hoc* Tukey-Kramer tests. PC1 of
178 size-corrected landmarks (accounting for 25.5%, 23.9%, and 25.3% of the total
179 variance for the overall data set, the Lake Brienz data set, and the
180 genetic/isotopic data set, respectively) was not analyzed because it was driven
181 by the bending of the fish and therefore, represented a non-biological artifact
182 (Figure S1). We calculated pairwise Mahalanobis distances among lake
183 populations as well as substrate types within Lake Brienz, and estimated their
184 significances with 10,000 bootstrap replicates. To further assess the degree of
185 phenotypic differentiation among lake populations, we calculated P_{ST} following
186 Kaeuffer *et al.* (2012). P_{ST} is a unit-less and scale-free proportional measurement
187 of pairwise difference, here using the scores of PC2 and PC3. For each P_{ST} , we
188 established the 95% confidence interval using a resampling approach with 1,000
189 replicates following the procedure by Lucek *et al.* (2013). Finally, we tested for
190 an association between pairwise P_{ST} and F_{ST} , and between P_{ST} and pairwise
191 differences in phosphate levels of lakes (Table 1), using Mantel tests in R 3.1.1
192 with 10,000 bootstrap replicates to determine significance.

193 To assess phenotypic differentiation within Lake Brienz, we calculated
194 Mahalanobis distances between individuals from different substrates using PC2
195 scores. Based on the observed clustering of phenotypes (see Results), we
196 combined individuals from different substrates into broader substrate categories,

197 i.e. rocky (boulders, cobble) and muddy (ledge, inlet/outlet, vegetation). We
198 subsequently performed an ANOVA on individual PC2 and PC3 scores to test for
199 a difference between individuals from these broader substrate categories.

200

201 *Genomics*

202 We prepared two restriction site-associated (RAD) genomic libraries using
203 *SbfI* restriction sites following Lucek *et al.* (2018). Libraries contained DNA from
204 42 and 50 individually barcoded specimens, respectively. Each library was
205 single-end sequenced on one lane of an Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform together
206 with ~10% bacteriophage PhiX genomic DNA (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA)
207 to increase complexity at the first 10 sequenced base pairs. Reads without the
208 complete *SbfI* recognition sequence were subsequently discarded. Using the
209 FASTX toolkit (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/), we removed any reads
210 with at least one base with a Phred quality score <10 or more than 5% of base
211 pairs with quality <30. This approach yielded 102.6 million high quality reads for
212 analysis.

213 Given the lack of a reference genome for roach, we generated a *de novo*
214 assembly using all filtered reads for all individuals having more than 250k reads
215 with USTACKS (Catchen *et al.*, 2011). The following settings were used: minimum
216 stack size of 75 reads, allowing a maximum of two base pairs of difference for
217 stacks to be merged and excluding loci with unusually high coverage to avoid
218 repetitive regions. The *de novo* assembly consisted of 49,772 contigs and was
219 used to map reads for each individual with BWA MEM 0.7.17 (Li, 2013). We also
220 aligned raw sequencing reads against the PhiX 174 reference genome (accession:
221 NC_001422; Sanger *et al.*, 1977) masking known variants. We then used the
222 PhiX-alignments to create a base quality score recalibration table for each library
223 using BASERECALIBRATOR from GATK v. 3.7-0 (McKenna *et al.*, 2010). We
224 subsequently recalibrated the base quality scores of each roach alignment to
225 remove potential library effects with the GATK tool PRINTREADS. We called
226 genotypes with UNIFIEDGENOTYPER implemented in GATK v. 3.7-0, considering
227 only bases with a mapping quality >20. Using VCFTOOLS v. 0.1.14 (Danecek *et al.*,
228 2011), we filtered the resulting VCF file, where we set genotypes with quality <
229 28 or depth < 6 to missing. We further applied a minor-allele frequency cut-off of

230 0.03 considering only biallelic SNP positions with $\leq 20\%$ missing data. Following
231 all filtering steps, a total of 3,865 polymorphic SNPs were available for the
232 subsequent analyses comprising all lakes and 4,721 polymorphic SNPs for the
233 Lake Brienz dataset.

234 We estimated the level of pairwise genetic differentiation between roach
235 populations from different lakes using pairwise locus-by-locus F_{STs} in GENODIVE v.
236 2.0b27 (Meirmans & Van Tienderen, 2004). Significances were assessed with
237 10,000 permutations, applying a Bonferroni correction for the pairwise
238 comparisons. To calculate the probability of each individual to be assigned to its
239 sample population, we employed a discriminant function analysis on principal
240 components (DAPC) with ADEGENET (Jombart *et al.*, 2010) in R based on the first
241 ten PC axes and the four leading discriminant axes. We further used ADEGENET to
242 calculate the observed heterozygosity (H_0) for each roach population. SNPRELATE
243 (Zheng *et al.*, 2012) was used to perform a PC analysis based on the genomic data.

244 We used RAxML 8.2.11 (Stamatakis, 2014) to test for genetic differentiation
245 among individuals from different lakes as well as among individuals caught over
246 different substrates within Lake Brienz. In both cases we implemented a
247 generalized time-reversible (GTR) model with optimized substitution rates and a
248 gamma model of rate heterogeneity. We then applied an ascertainment bias
249 correction for each dataset to account for the fact that we only used polymorphic
250 SNPs. Significances were assessed using 1000 bootstrap replicates. We also
251 tested for intralacustrine genetic differentiation between individuals caught over
252 a muddy or rocky substrate within Lake Brienz using DAPC based on the 20
253 leading PC axes accounting for 80% of the total variation and also calculated the
254 average locus-by-locus genetic differentiation (F_{STs}) between individuals from
255 the two substrates in GENODIVE.

256

257 *Stable Isotope Analysis*

258 We obtained the stable isotopes signature of individuals using muscle
259 tissue for 12 to 28 individuals per lake (Table 1). In fish, differences in $^{13}C/^{12}C$
260 ratios fall along a gradient where low values indicate a diet dominated by plant
261 and algae matter, while increased values reflect a shift towards higher trophic
262 levels (Post, 2002). To further obtain isotopic baseline values, we collected snails

263 (*Lymnaeidae* sp. and *Planorbidae* sp.) at the time each lake was sampled (Table
264 1), except for lakes Neuchatel and Geneva, where we collected baseline material
265 in September 2013. All samples were dried at 55°C for 48 hours. Dry mass (0.5-
266 1.0 mg) was subsequently analyzed with internal reference standards (18
267 Sucrose [IAEA-CH-6], 18 IAEA-N2, and 18 caffeine [IAEA-600]). The remaining
268 uncertainty as estimated by the standards was 0.08‰ (VPDB). The stable
269 isotopic signature was used to i) test for differences in the stable isotopic
270 signature among populations from different lakes with an ANOVA followed by a
271 TukeyHSD *post hoc* decomposition, ii) to test for an association between
272 morphology and diet across all lake populations by regressing the baseline
273 corrected $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values against the scores of the second and third phenotypic PC
274 axes, respectively, iii) to determine if the trophic status as measured by the
275 phosphate level of a lake (Table 1) affected the diet of the respective roach
276 population by using an ANOVA, and lastly iv) to test for ecotypic differentiation
277 based on stable isotopes between individuals caught over a rocky or muddy
278 substrate within Lake Brienz using a Mann-Whitney test.

279

280 **Results**

281 *Differentiation among roach from different lakes*

282 Roach differed phenotypically between lakes along both the second
283 ($F_{6,1216} = 45.19, p < 0.001$) and third PC axes ($F_{6,1216} = 16.55, p < 0.001$), accounting
284 for 16.7% and 13.1% of the overall shape variance, respectively (Figure 2, Table
285 S1). The *post hoc* decomposition suggests that individuals from lakes Brienz and
286 Brenet account for most of the variation captured by the two PC axes (Table S2).
287 Variation along PC2 was driven by differences in the position of the mouth
288 (landmarks 1 & 2) and the position of the pelvic and pectoral fins (landmarks 6 &
289 7). In contrast, PC3 was mainly driven by differences in the position of the dorsal
290 fin (Table S1). This resulted in a group of specimens from lakes Walen, Neuchatel,
291 Hallwil, Joux, Geneva, and Brenet with a terminal mouth and a more anterior
292 dorsal fin and a second group consisting of roach from Lake Brienz, which had a
293 compact head, a subterminal mouth and a posteriorly placed dorsal fin (Figure 2).

294 Consistent with a single colonizing lineage, the degree of pairwise genetic
295 differentiation among lake populations was generally low ($F_{ST} \leq 0.040$) but

296 significant (Table 2). The low level of genetic differentiation between the roach
297 populations from lake Neuchatel and Geneva is consistent with a recent drainage
298 crossing (Larmuseau *et al.*, 2009) and/or human translocations. Despite the low
299 level of genetic differentiation, 99% of all individuals were correctly assigned to
300 their lake of origin by DAPC (Figure 3a). The genetic PC analysis showed a
301 clustering of ultraoligotrophic (Brienz and Walen) and mesotrophic lake
302 populations (Hallwil, Geneva, and Neuchatel) along PC1, accounting for 2.75% of
303 the total genetic variation (Figure 3b). Our phylogenomic reconstruction showed
304 a clustering similar to the DAPC assignment (Figure 3c), where individuals from
305 Brienz seemed most distinct, whereas individuals from Geneva and Neuchatel
306 clustered together. However, bootstrapping yielded no significant node support,
307 suggesting substantial levels of gene flow. Levels of heterozygosity (H_o) differed
308 marginally among lake populations (Table 2), and this variation was negatively
309 correlated with the phosphate levels (see Table 1) observed in each lake
310 (Pearson correlation: $\rho = 0.958$; $t_{1,3} = 5.78$, $p = 0.010$). Pairwise F_{ST} s were
311 neither correlated with differences in phosphate levels (Mantel test: $r_M = 0.114$, p
312 $= 0.600$) nor with pairwise phenotypic (P_{ST}) differentiation among lake
313 populations (PC2: $r_M = 0.088$, $p = 0.466$; PC3: $r_M = -0.113$, $p = 0.690$). P_{ST} was
314 likewise not correlated with differences in phosphate amongst lakes (PC2:
315 $r_M = 0.367$, $p = 0.165$; PC3: $r_M = -0.151$, $p = 0.613$).

316 Stable isotopes indicate significant trophic differentiation of roach amongst
317 lakes ($F_{4,77} = 47.49$, $p < 0.001$), where all but two *post hoc* comparisons
318 (Neuchatel-Geneva and Neuchatel-Walen) were significant. Stable isotopes range
319 from a more herbivorous diet in Lake Brienz ($\delta^{13}C$ of -22.63 ± 1.80) to a more
320 omnivorous diet within Lake Hallwil ($\delta^{13}C$ of -29.72 ± 1.16 ; Figure 4). However,
321 the stable isotopic values were neither correlated with individual scores along
322 the second ($F_{1,80} = 0.01$, $p = 0.990$) or third ($F_{1,80} = 0.19$, $p = 0.665$) phenotypic PC
323 axes, nor were they correlated with differing phosphate levels ($F_{1,3} = 1.14$, $p =$
324 0.365).

325

326 *Diversification within Lake Brienz*

327 Pairwise Mahalanobis distances suggested phenotypic clustering of
328 individuals caught over “rocky” (boulder, cobbles) vs. “muddy” (ledge,

329 vegetation) substrates (Figure 5c; Table S3). Individuals caught close to the inlet
330 or outlet clustered with the muddy substrate group and were subsequently
331 included in this substrate category (Figure 5). Consistent with this clustering, we
332 found significant phenotypic differentiation between individuals caught over
333 muddy and rocky substrates along the second ($F_{1,81}=12.77$, $p<0.001$) but not
334 third ($F_{1,81}=0.01$, $p=0.902$) PC axes. Variation along PC2 was driven by
335 morphological differences in the position of the dorsal, caudal, and pelvic fin
336 (landmarks 11, 9 and 7), while PC3 was driven by the placement of the dorsal
337 (landmark 11) and pectoral fin (landmark 6) and the position of the mouth
338 (landmarks 1 & 2). The two phenotypic clusters did not differ in their diet
339 assessed by stable isotopes ($W = 61.5$, $p = 0.540$).

340 Our phylogenomic reconstruction did not yield any significant clustering by
341 substrate (Figure 5b). Concordantly, there was no genome-wide differentiation
342 between individuals caught over muddy or rocky substrate ($F_{ST} = -0.001$, $p =$
343 0.759). When using a discriminant function analysis that maximizes the
344 differentiation among substrates, a bimodal distribution occurred along the
345 discriminant axis, supporting some genetic differentiation (Figure 5a). Indeed,
346 we found five SNPs among the total of 4,721 polymorphic SNPs within Lake
347 Brienz that showed a $F_{ST} > 0.3$, each belonging to a different contig (Table S4). To
348 identify potential genes involved in substrate-related differentiation, we further
349 matched each contig against the NCBI nucleotide collection on the 26th of October
350 2018 using megablast (Boratyn *et al.*, 2013). Of the five contigs, two overlapped
351 with known genes: i) *FSTL5: Follistatin-related protein 5* and ii) *PCSK5:*
352 *Proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 5* – a gene involved in neuromast
353 deposition within the lateral line system in zebrafish, where a deficiency resulted
354 in reduced spatial awareness and sensing of the environment (Chitramuthu *et al.*,
355 2010).

356

357 **Discussion**

358 *Postglacial diversification of roach*

359 Understanding why some species undergo diversification, while others do
360 not, remains a conundrum. Evidence for species diversification among temperant
361 freshwater fish comes from a small range of taxa, while intraspecific

362 diversification remains unassessed for most other fish species (Seehausen &
363 Wagner, 2014). Roach have a broad geographic distribution in Europe and occur
364 in a variety of habitats – including deep and ultraoligotrophic lakes that provide
365 a wide range of potential niches to diversify, making roach a good candidate to
366 look for diversification (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). We found
367 evidence for intraspecific differentiation between roach populations from
368 ultraoligotrophic lakes and lakes with a higher trophic level, as well as some
369 diversification within the ultraoligotrophic Lake Brienz.

370 Former studies suggested that roach often adapt to their local environment
371 and become phenotypically differentiated, e.g. along a littoral-pelagic axis as a
372 result of intra- and interspecific competition (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Faulks *et al.*,
373 2015) or predation (Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013), and this phenotypic
374 differentiation has often been attributed to phenotypic plasticity (Svanbäck *et al.*,
375 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). Studying roach from pre-alpine lakes in Switzerland,
376 we found subtle yet significant genetic differentiation amongst populations from
377 different pre-alpine lakes, where populations from ultraoligotrophic lakes are
378 genetically more distinct (Figure 3b). This is consistent with recent colonization,
379 potentially combined with ongoing gene flow within the Aare/Rhine drainage.
380 Alternatively, the effective population size may be too large for drift to become a
381 dominant factor (Gillespie, 2001). We also found roach from Lake Geneva to
382 cluster closely with individuals from the nearby Aare/Rhine system (Figure 3).
383 This suggests a common origin, potentially due to historical connectivity as
384 observed for other fish species (Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2007; Gouskov & Vorburger,
385 2016) or supplementary human translocations. Despite their low level of genetic
386 differentiation (Table 2), roach differed both phenotypically (Figure 2b, Table
387 S1) and ecologically (Figure 4) between lakes. Individuals differed
388 predominantly in their head shape, with the population from Lake Brienz being
389 most distinct, showing a slender head and more subterminal orientation of the
390 mouth (Figure 2). The observed phenotypic changes among roach from different
391 lakes hint towards a functional and potentially adaptive response related to
392 feeding regimes that differ between lakes (Wainwright & Barton, 1995).
393 Phenotypic changes in head and body shape similar to the ones observed here
394 were indeed found to occur in response to differences in resource use in other

395 fish (Anker, 1974; Barel, 1983; Pfaender *et al.*, 2009). Given the lack of an
396 association between the degree of phenotypic and genetic differentiation, the
397 observed phenotypic changes likely represent a plastic response to varying
398 environmental pressures, as has been proposed for other roach populations
399 (Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013; Faulks *et al.*, 2015).

400

401 *Intralacustrine diversification in Lake Brienz*

402 Habitat-dependent divergent selection can lead to the evolution of
403 distinctly adapted ecotypes within a system (Schluter, 2000; Nosil, 2012). When
404 combined with intra- and interspecific competition, divergent selection can lead
405 to differences in prey utilization between individuals from structurally
406 contrasting environments. These factors are common drivers of diversification
407 among postglacial freshwater fishes (Rosenzweig, 1978; Dieckmann & Doebeli,
408 1999; Gavrillets, 2004; Svanbäck & Bolnick, 2007). Both intra- and interspecific
409 competition, such as with perch (*Perca fluviatilis*), have been shown to drive
410 resource polymorphism in roach from Swedish lakes (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008;
411 Faulks *et al.*, 2015). This may similarly apply for roach in Lake Brienz where
412 perch are the most abundant fish species caught, followed by roach and
413 whitefish. Roach were moreover restricted to depths <3m, overlapping with
414 perch and part of the whitefish species, thus providing the potential for
415 interspecific competition (Alexander *et al.*, 2015a; Doenz *et al.*, 2018).

416 Substrate-related phenotypic differentiation is common among
417 freshwater fishes, where adaptive phenotypic changes often occur in head shape,
418 as a response to different feeding regimes (Caldecutt & Adams, 1998; McGee *et*
419 *al.*, 2013), and in fin position or body shape in response to different swimming
420 regimes (Walker, 1997; Hendry *et al.*, 2011). Within Lake Brienz, we found roach
421 to show evidence for such substrate-related intralacustrine phenotypic
422 diversification, as individuals fell into two phenotypic clusters (Figure 5).
423 Individuals caught over muddy substrates showed a more caudal position of the
424 dorsal fin, consistent with adaptation to more active swimming in cyprinid fish
425 (Felley 1984). This, together with an elongated snout and a more terminal mouth
426 (Figure 5), could reflect feeding on more pelagic prey as has been found for other
427 lake-dwelling roach populations (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). In

428 contrast, individuals caught over a rocky substrate had a more anterior dorsal fin,
429 consistent with increased manoeuvrability in structured environments such as
430 between rocks. The compact head and sub-terminal mouth of fish from a rocky
431 substrate is also often associated with a predominantly benthic feeding strategy
432 (Wainwright & Barton, 1995). To which degree these phenotypic differences are
433 associated with selective feeding strategies, e.g., if and to which extent fish
434 caught over a muddy vegetated substrate feed on macrophytes, remains
435 unknown as we relied solely on stable isotope data. With the latter we found no
436 association between phenotypes and resource use. This, however contrasts with
437 the increased range of stable isotope values found for roach in Lake Brienz
438 (Figure 4) and could reflect limited power to distinguish differences in
439 microhabitats given our restricted sample sizes. However, stable isotopes
440 represent a long-term average diet, and the observed phenotypic segregation
441 shown here may be seasonal (Post, 2002).

442 Average genome-wide differentiation between the two substrate-related
443 phenotypic groups was absent (i.e. $F_{ST} = -0.001$), and no apparent clustering
444 occurred in our phylogenetic reconstruction (Figure 5). This is also consistent
445 with plasticity acting as the main driver for the observed phenotypic
446 differentiation. However, a discriminate function analysis that captured the
447 differences between the two groups suggests a bimodal distribution of
448 individuals (Figure 5a). Among the five markers that showed the highest degree
449 of genetic differentiation between substrates (Table S4), one occurred within the
450 gene *PCSK5* that is involved in lateral line development (Chitramuthu *et al.*,
451 2010). The lateral line organ is important for spatial awareness and sensing of
452 the environment, and the observed genetic differences could suggest divergent
453 selection between the two substrates that differ in their complexity, being
454 consistent with the detected differences in body shape (Figure 4). Genomic
455 differentiation at only few target loci is consistent with a very early stage of
456 divergence-with-gene flow, where further differentiation depends on the
457 evolution of barriers to gene flow (Nosil, 2012). The absence of significant
458 genomic differentiation could also reflect a limited resolution given the
459 restricted number of polymorphic SNPs available for our analyses (Wagner *et al.*,
460 2013).

461 The slight differentiation of roach of different habitats contrasts with the
462 co-occurring adaptive radiation of whitefish, which had a similar timespan as
463 roach to evolve in Lake Brienz, i.e. since the retreat of the glaciers ~12kyrs ago.
464 Within Lake Brienz, there are a total of four genetically differentiated whitefish
465 species, segregated along the water depth and pelagic-benthic axes, which are
466 distinct in their morphology, including the gill rakers (Doenz *et al.*, 2018), thus
467 suggesting adaptation to different trophic niches (Roesch *et al.*, 2013). Given the
468 abundances of perch and whitefish in Lake Brienz (Alexander *et al.*, 2015a;
469 Doenz *et al.*, 2018), the limited degree of diversification in roach could be a result
470 of different factors. i) Interspecific competition may have constrained roach from
471 diversifying. ii) If the observed phenotypic differentiation (Figure 5) is
472 primarily due to phenotypic plasticity, the latter could have
473 constrained diversification by shielding the genome from selection, thus
474 decreasing the potential for genetic divergence (Price *et al.*, 2003; Ghalambor *et al.*
475 *al.*, 2007). iii) The fundamental niche of roach may be narrower than that
476 of whitefish, preventing roach to explore otherwise available niche space. For
477 example, roach prefer warmer water and are therefore restricted to the shallow
478 zones of lakes, while whitefish can tolerate colder water, allowing them to
479 explore the deeper sections of lakes (Coutant 1977, Kottelat & Freyhof, 2007). iv)
480 Recent genomic work suggests that adaptive diversification in stickleback and
481 whitefish often occurs from standing genetic variation in genomic regions that
482 show structural changes, including inversions (Jones *et al.*, 2012; Marques *et al.*,
483 2016) or chromosomal rearrangements (Dion-Côté *et al.*, 2016). Such structural
484 genomic rearrangements may then facilitate diversification through coupling of
485 co-adapted alleles (Butlin & Smadja, 2018). Given the limited evidence for
486 genetic differentiation in roach (Figure 5, Table S4), such genomic features may
487 be lacking, which may constitute a genetic constraint that
488 impedes diversification and the build-up of genetic barriers to gene
489 flow (Seehausen *et al.*, 2014).

490

491 *Conclusions*

492 Intraspecific differentiation in response to habitat-dependent divergent
493 selection is thought to be a major driver of diversification and adaptive radiation
494 in freshwater fish, yet evidence comes from only a few taxonomic groups
495 (Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). Combining phenotypic, ecological, and genomic
496 data, we show differentiation between lake populations of roach from
497 ultraoligotrophic lakes and lakes with a higher trophic level within the same
498 drainage system, potentially in response to different abiotic and biotic factors. In
499 one ultraoligotrophic lake, we also found evidence for intralacustrine
500 diversification with different phenotypes being associated with distinct
501 substrates. However, given the lack of genetic differentiation, phenotypic
502 changes are likely to be mostly plastic, where the lack of diversification may also
503 reflect genomic constraints. This needs to be investigated in the future. Taken
504 together, our study reveals striking differences in the degree of phenotypic and
505 genetic differentiation between this lineage of roach and the lineage of whitefish
506 that has undergone impressive adaptive radiations in the same lakes. However,
507 our study also indicates the potential for more subtle intraspecific differentiation
508 and diversification in a widespread and abundant freshwater fish species,
509 especially in ultraoligotrophic lakes. This may similarly apply to other fish
510 species and highlights the importance to study both an ecologically and a
511 geographically broad range of populations within a species to assess cryptic
512 biodiversity (Bickford *et al.*, 2007).

513

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519

520 **Data accessibility**

521 BAM files with aligned de-multiplexed and base quality score recalibrated
522 reads are available through the short read archive (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra).
523 BioProject ID: PRJNA533015. Phenotypic and stable isotopic data are available
524 through DRYAD: XXXXX.

525

526 **Figure legends**

527 Figure 1: a) Map of Switzerland with the sampled lakes indicated: A) Geneva, B)
528 Joux, C) Brenet, D) Neuchatel, E) Brienz, F) Hallwil, and G) Walen (see Table 1 for
529 details). b) Roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) with the 11 morphological landmarks used: 1)
530 anterior tip of snout, 2) anterior tip of lower lip, 3) anterior & 4) posterior point
531 of operculum, 5) junction where the dorsolateral part of the head and body fuse,
532 anterior insertion points of the 6) pectoral, 7) pelvic and, 8) anal fin, 9) ventral
533 and 10) dorsal junction of the caudal peduncle and tail, 11) anterior insertion of
534 the dorsal fin.

535

536 Figure 2: Phenotypic relationships across lake populations. a) Mahalanobis
537 distance dendrogram. b) Principal component (PC) analysis of body shape for all
538 seven-lake populations. Shown are the mean values across the second and third
539 PC axes with the 95% confidence interval for each population. Changes in body
540 shape are further indicated.

541

542 Figure 3: Population genomic structure across different lake populations. a)
543 Individual-based assignment probabilities based on a discriminant function
544 analysis of PC components (DAPC). b) Principal component analysis based on
545 3,865 polymorphic SNPs. c) RAxML phylogeny tree depicting the genetic
546 relationship of all roach (no significant bootstrap support except two nodes with
547 >50% support highlighted by a grey dot).

548

549 Figure 4: Boxplot summarizing the variance in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ among roach from different
550 lakes. Horizontal bars indicate significant comparisons ($p < 0.05$) after a *post hoc*
551 Tukey-Kramer ANOVA decomposition (see main text for details).

552

553 Figure 5: Differentiation of roach within Lake Brienz based on: a) discriminant
554 function analysis of genetic data comparing individuals assigned to different
555 substrate groups (rocky vs. muddy). b) RAxML phylogeny tree depicting the
556 genetic relationship of Brienz roach (no significant bootstrap support). c)
557 Morphological relationship based on Mahalanobis distances between different

558 substrates. Morphological differences between individuals caught over rocky
559 (boulders and cobble) and muddy (ledge, inlet/outlet, and vegetation) substrates
560 are indicated.

561

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856 Table 1: Characteristics of each sampled lake and the sample size of each data set. For each lake, the coordinates, the trophic status
857 based on dissolved phosphate (parts per million – ppm), its elevation, and maximal depth are given. In addition to the sampling date,
858 depth range where individuals were sampled are indicated. Samples sizes for morphology, genomics and stable isotopes are provided.
859 Phosphate levels are based on measurements taken in 2002.

Lakes	Geographic coordinates		Trophic status		Elevation (m)	Maximum Depth (m)	Sampled	Depth Range (m)	Numbers of Samples		
	Latitude	Longitude	Phosphate (ppm)	Trophic Level					Morphology	Genomics	Stable Isotopes
Brienz	47°48'E	45°49'N	3	Oligotrophic	564	260	Sept 2011	1.0 – 12.0	190	41	28
Brenet	6°19'E	46°40'N	29	Eutrophic	100	18	Sept 2011	1.9 – 20.0	342	-	-
Hallwil	8°12'E	47°17'N	16	Mesotrophic	449	28	Oct 2012	1.9 – 20.0	94	10	13
Joux	6°17'E	46°38'N	16	Mesotrophic	100	32	Sept 2011	1.1 – 15.0	257	-	-
Geneva	6°33'E	46°26'N	23	Mesotrophic	372	310	Sept 2012	0.5 – 42.0	102	9	12
Neuchatel	6°55'E	46°59'N	6	Oligotrophic	429	152	Sept 2011	1.2 – 37.0	208	10	15
Walen	9°12'E	47°07'N	4	Oligotrophic	419	151	Oct 2012	1.1 – 27.0	30	10	14

860

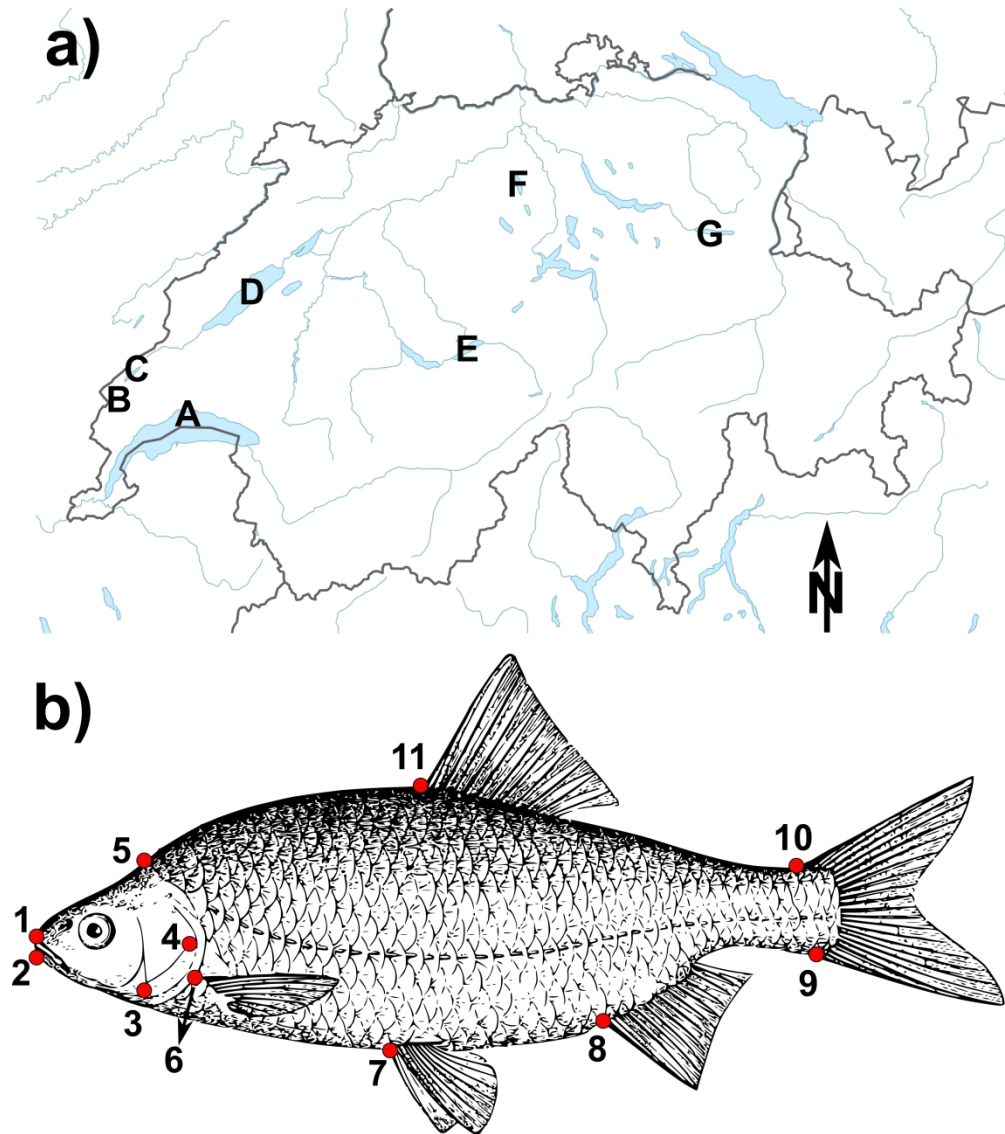
861

862 Table 2: Observed heterozygosity (H_0) of each lake population as well as the
 863 pairwise genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) among populations. F_{ST} values are
 864 presented in the lower triangle and Bonferroni corrected significance levels in
 865 the upper triangle.

866

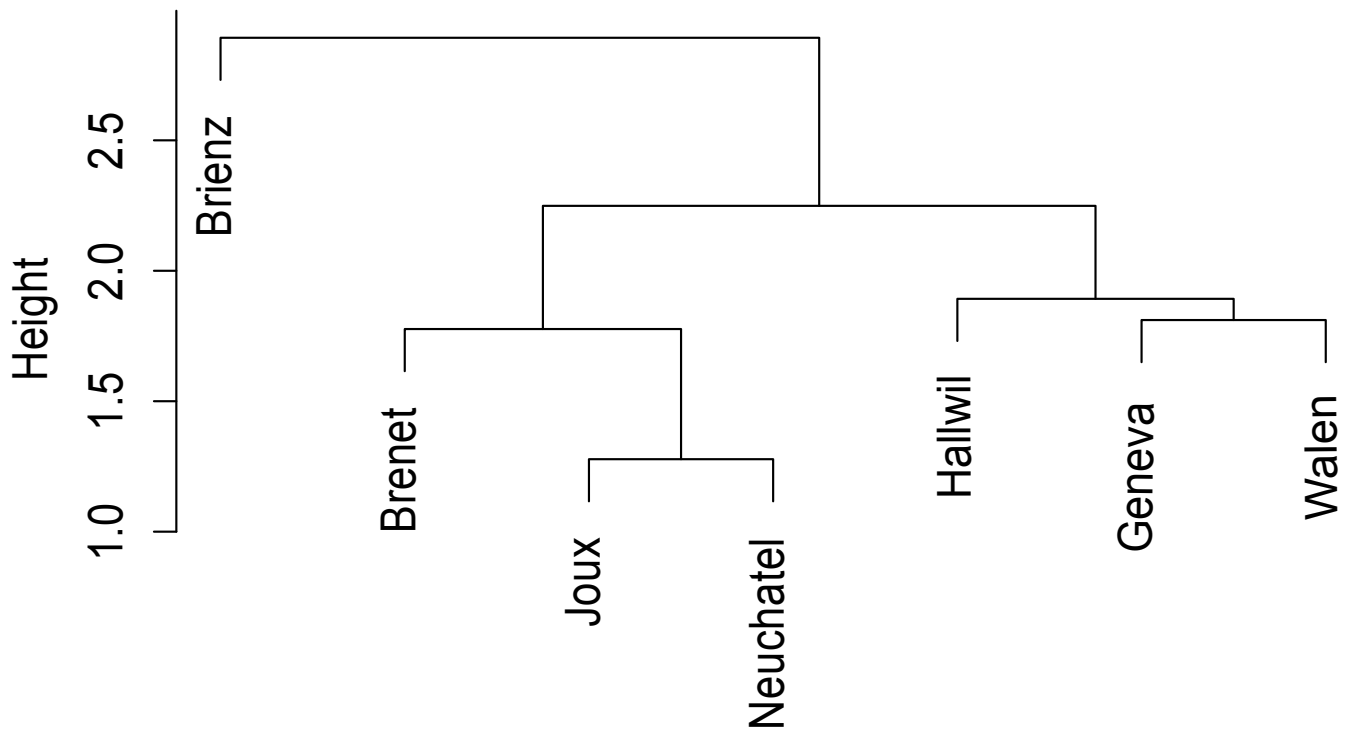
	<i>H₀</i>	Brien	Hallwil	Geneva	Neuchatel	Walen
Brien	0.265		<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Hallwil	0.257	0.032		<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Geneva	0.257	0.026	0.032		<0.001	<0.001
Neuchatel	0.264	0.025	0.025	0.005		<0.001
Walen	0.265	0.038	0.036	0.030	0.026	

867

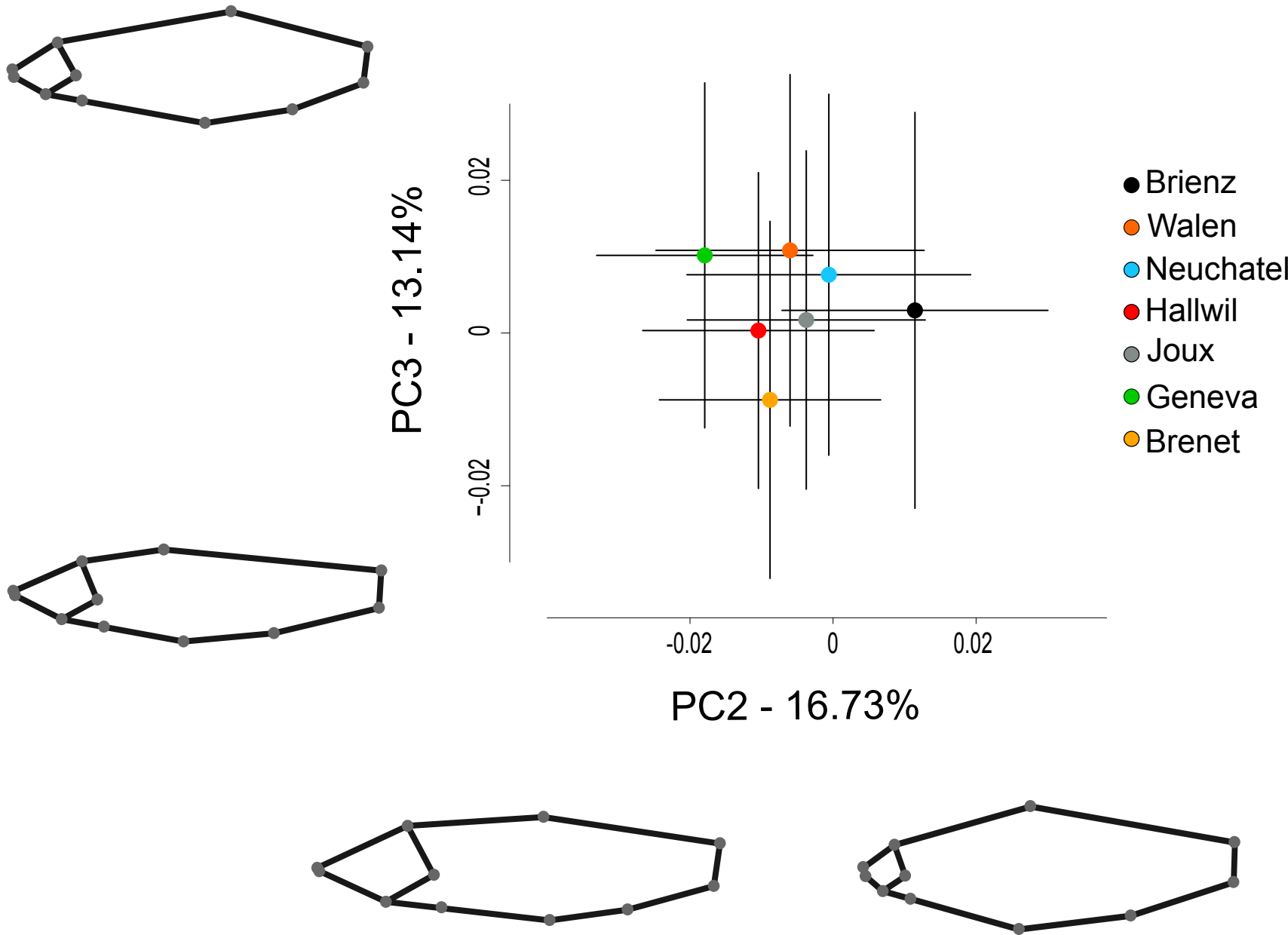


a) Map of Switzerland with the sampled lakes indicated: A) Geneva, B) Joux, C) Brenet, D) Neuchatel, E) Brienzi, F) Hallwil, and G) Walen (see Table 1 for details). b) Roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) with the 11 morphological landmarks used: 1) anterior tip of snout, 2) anterior tip of lower lip, 3) anterior & 4) posterior point of operculum, 5) junction where the dorsolateral part of the head and body fuse, anterior insertion points of the 6) pectoral, 7) pelvic and, 8) anal fin, 9) ventral and 10) dorsal junction of the caudal peduncle and tail, 11) anterior insertion of the dorsal fin.

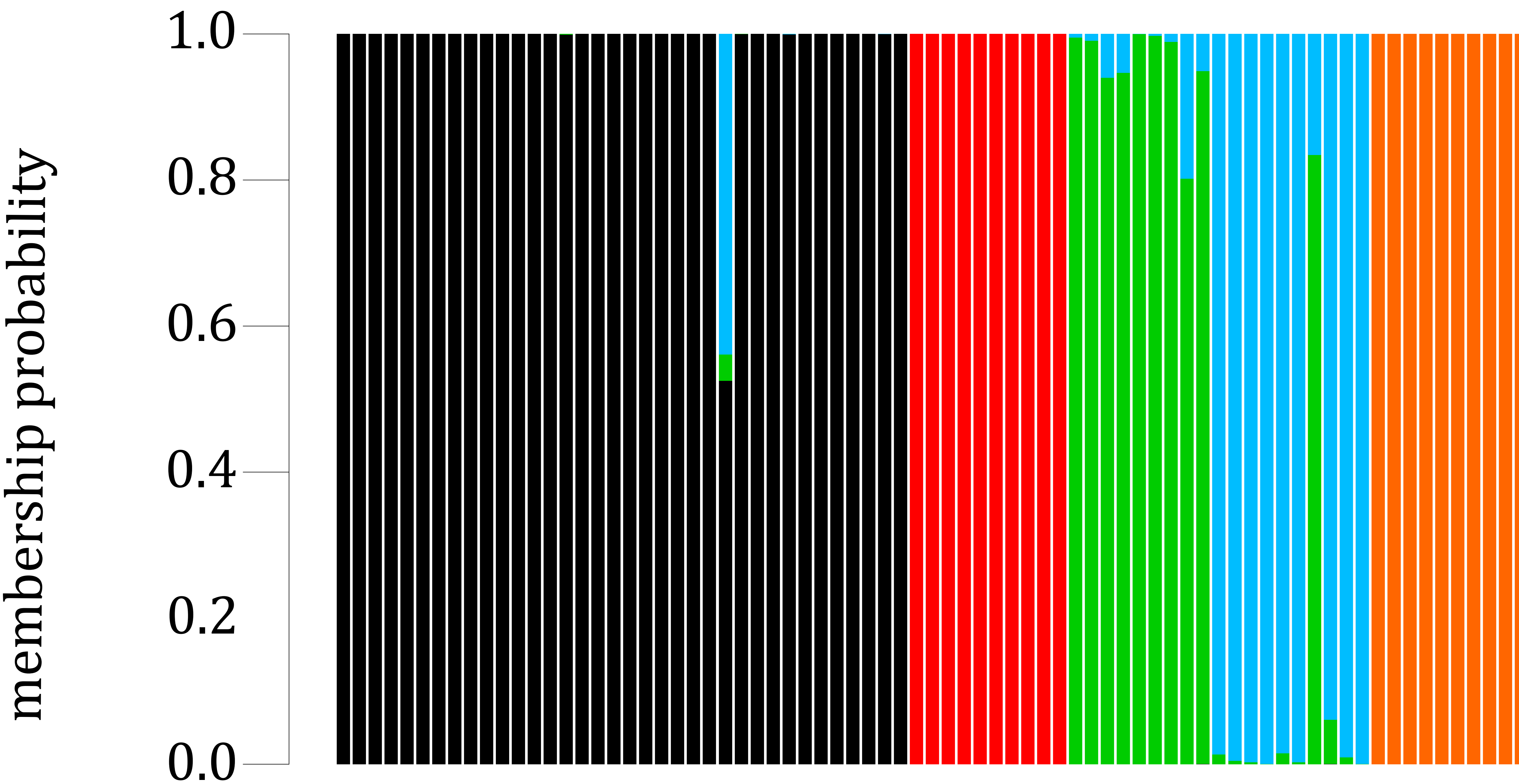
389x439mm (300 x 300 DPI)



b)



a)



■ Brienz

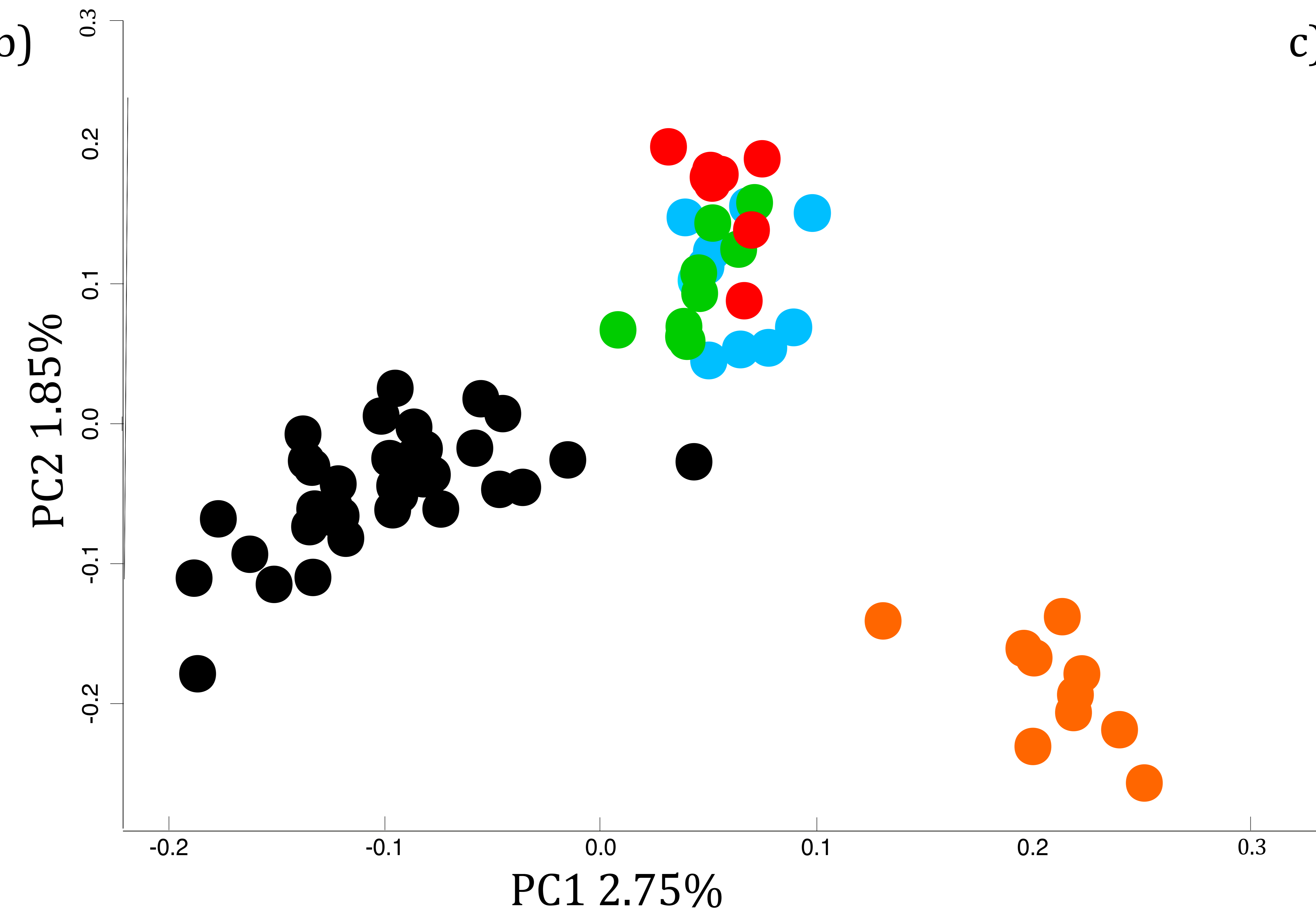
■ Hallwil

■ Geneva

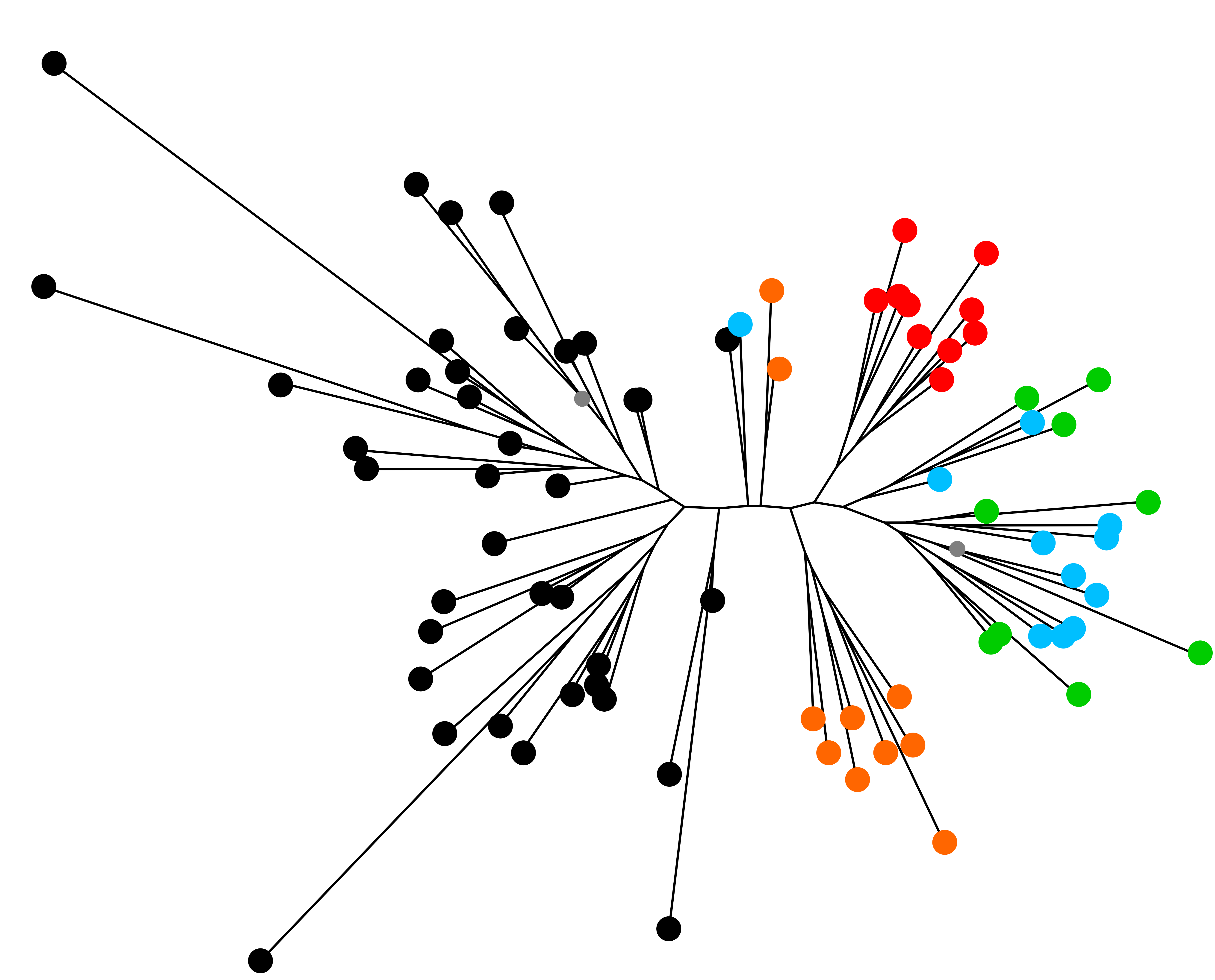
■ Neuchatel

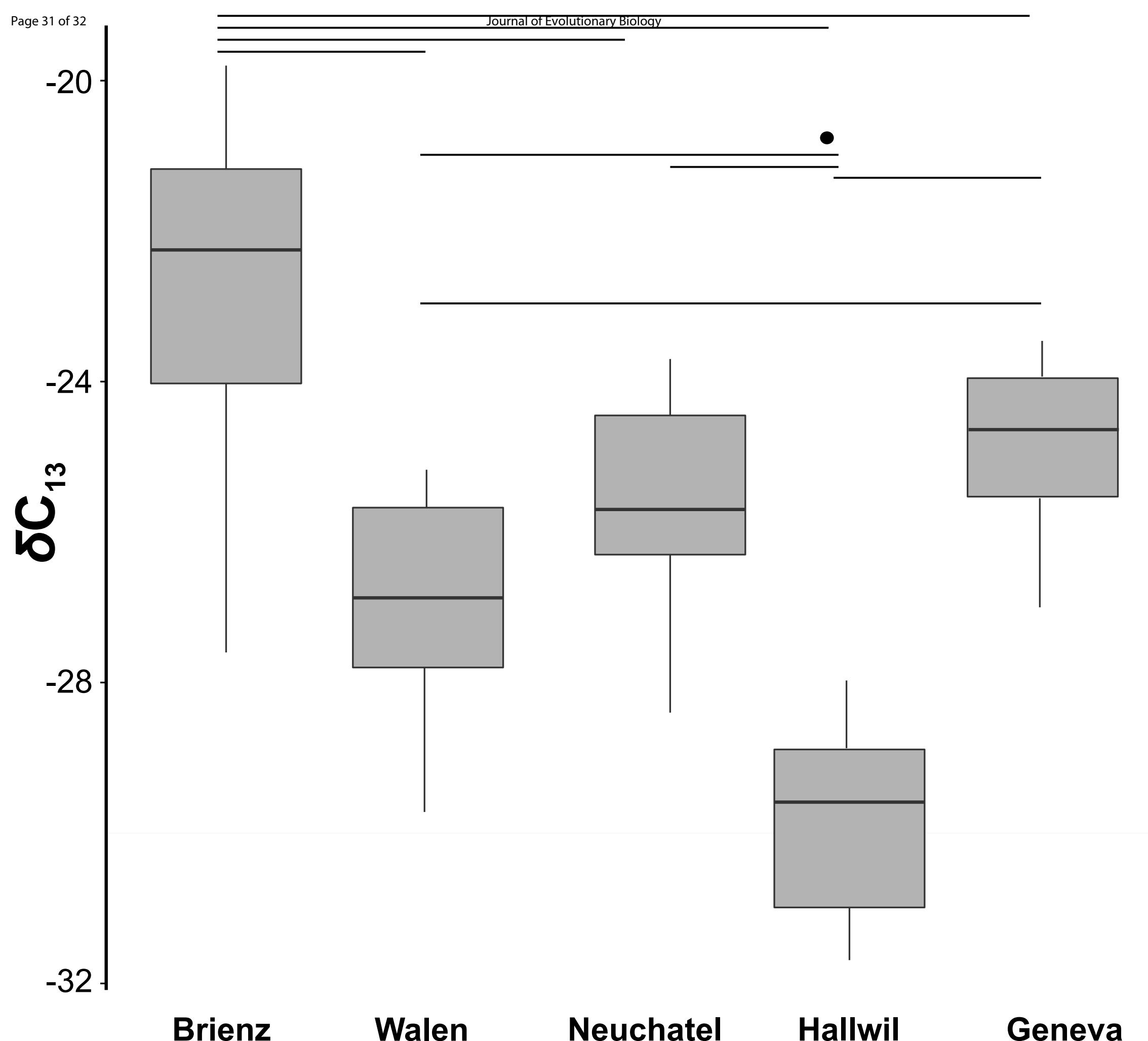
■ Walen

b)

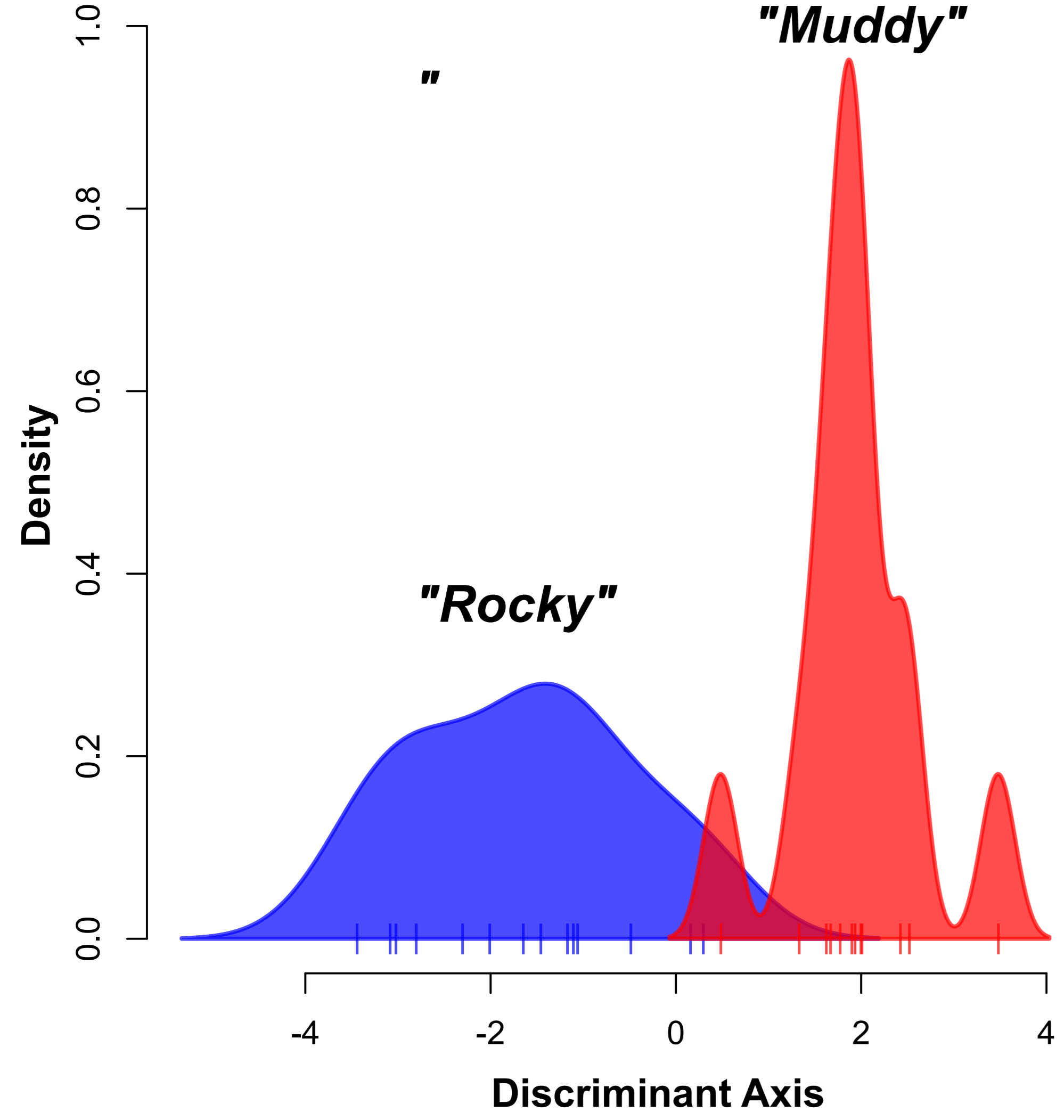


c)

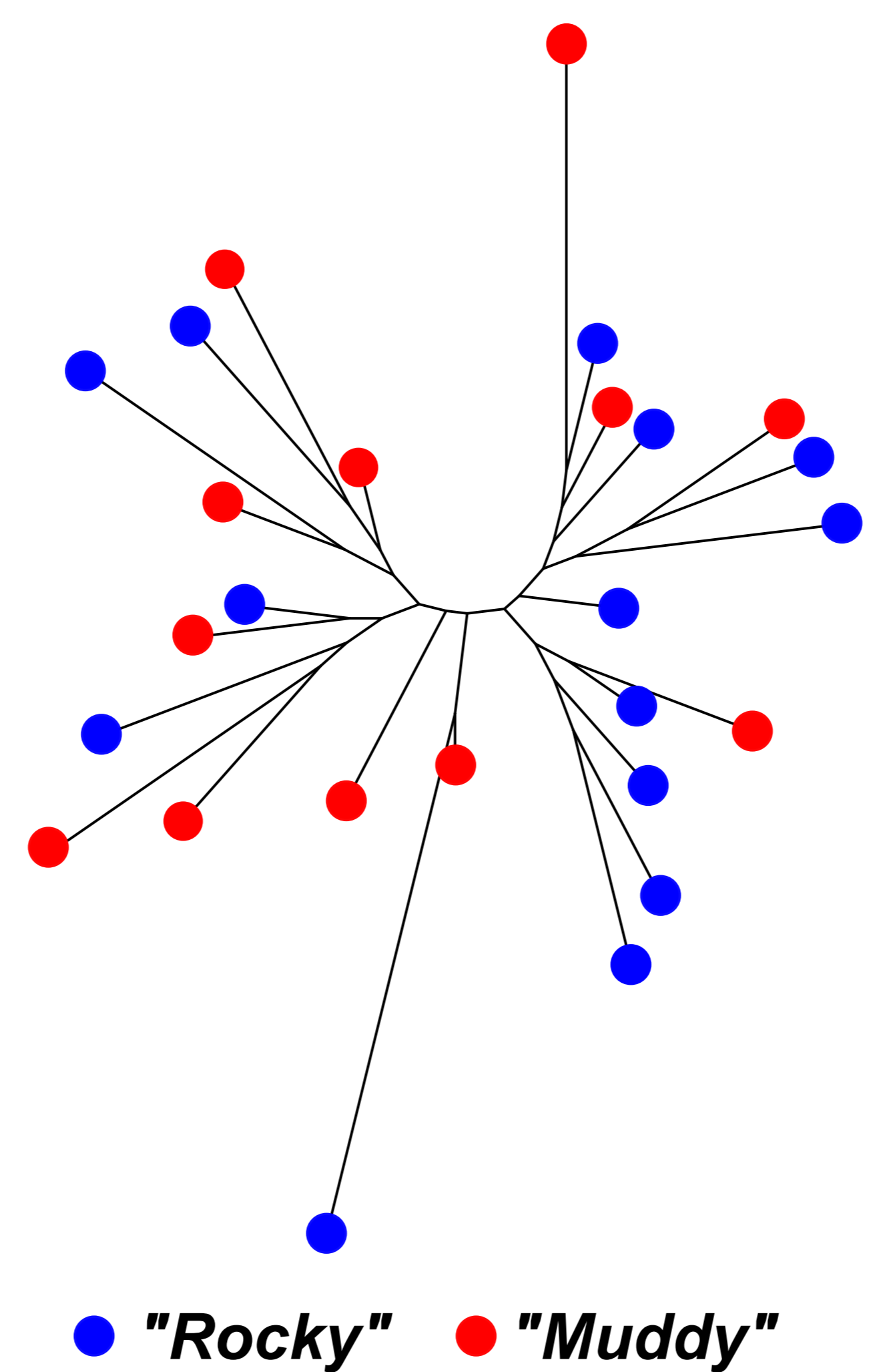




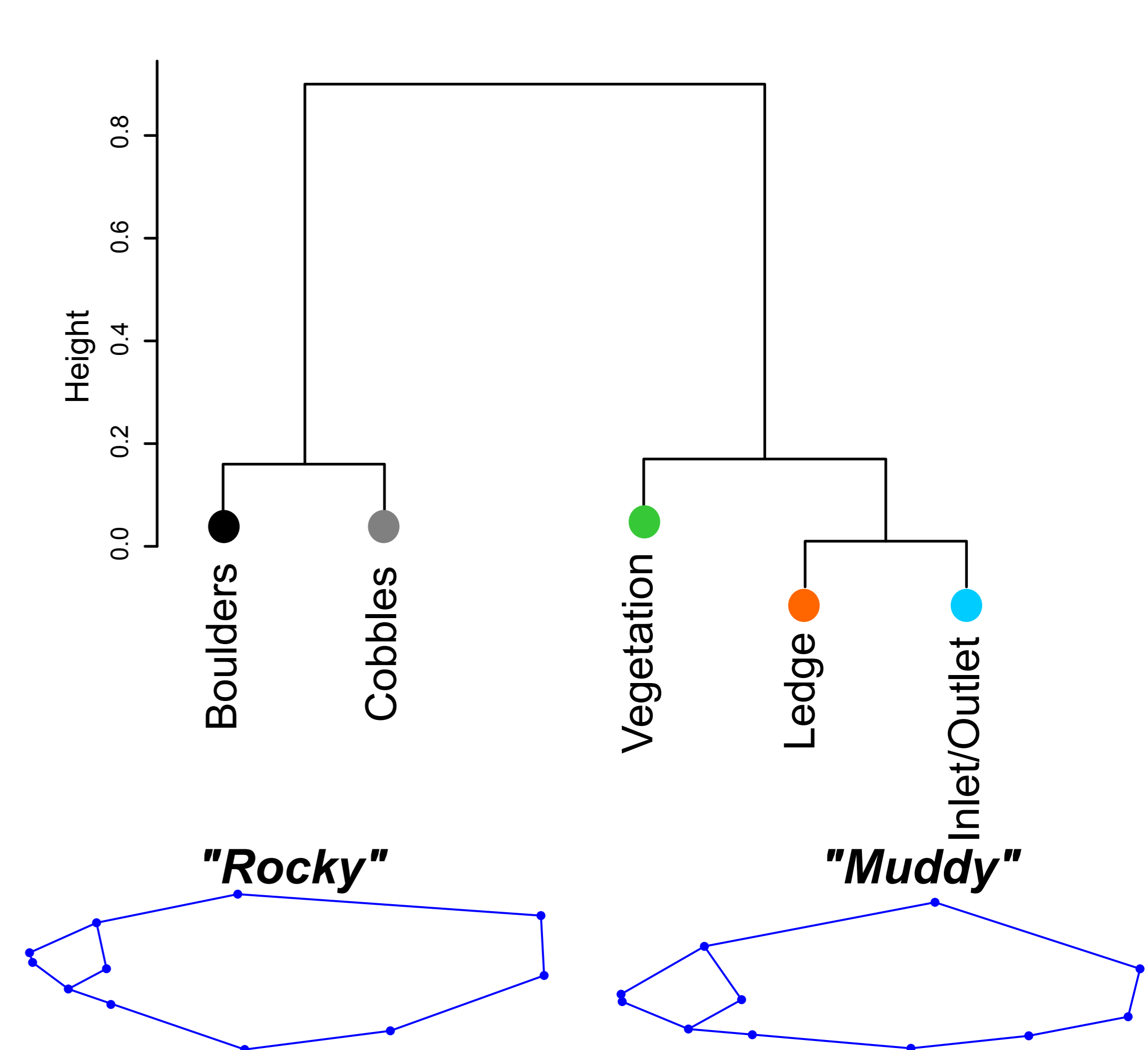
a) Discriminant Function Analysis



b) Phylogenetic Relationship



c) Phenotypic Relationship



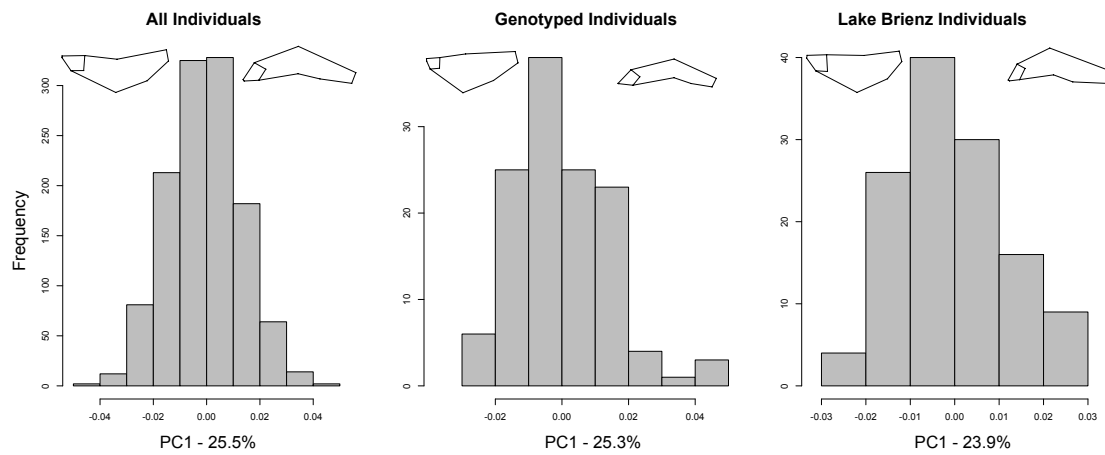


Figure S1: Histograms based on PC1 scores using size-corrected geometric morphometric data. Shown are the distributions using individuals from all lakes, using only genotyped individuals, and using only individuals from Lake Brienz. PC1 data was removed from subsequent analysis for all datasets because PC1 was driven by the bending of the fish, shown by the deformation grids for each dataset.

Table S1: Principal component (PC) scores for each landmark (see Figure 1 for details) along PC axes 1-3. For each axis, the percentage of variance explained is indicated. Also indicated are the standardized PC scores for axes 2 and 3 showing the relative importance of each trait (see main text for details).

Landmark	PC1 (25.5%)	PC2 (16.7%)	PC2 Standardized	PC3 (13.1%)	PC3 Standardized
x1	-0.014	0.474	0.992	0.066	0.087
y1	-0.331	0.012	0.026	-0.034	0.045
x2	0.008	0.478	1	0.064	0.084
y2	-0.326	-0.045	0.095	-0.06	0.079
x3	0.115	-0.057	0.118	-0.131	0.173
y3	-0.062	0.12	0.25	0.014	0.018
x4	0.007	-0.323	0.676	-0.204	0.268
y4	0.147	-0.001	0.003	0	0
x5	-0.234	-0.16	0.336	-0.231	0.303
y5	-0.015	-0.187	0.392	-0.056	0.073
x6	0.109	-0.348	0.728	-0.215	0.283
y6	0.207	0.051	0.108	0.029	0.038
x7	0.012	-0.338	0.708	0.239	0.314
y7	0.479	-0.083	0.174	-0.06	0.079
x8	-0.171	0.034	0.072	0.166	0.219
y8	0.157	-0.052	0.11	0.001	0.001
x9	0.029	0.22	0.46	-0.27	0.356
y9	-0.306	0.049	0.102	0.012	0.016
x10	0.147	0.167	0.349	-0.245	0.322
y10	-0.317	0.021	0.043	-0.001	0.002
x11	-0.008	-0.146	0.306	0.76	1
y11	0.367	0.117	0.245	0.157	0.206

Table S2: Tukey-Kramer *post hoc* results, with a Bonferroni correction applied, for PC2 and PC3 scores detailing significant morphological differences amongst lake populations.

Lake Comparisons		<i>p-value</i>	
		PC2	PC3
Brenet	Brienzi	<0.001	0.000
	Geneva	0.984	0.015
	Joux	0.006	0.000
	Geneva	<0.001	0.000
	Neuchatel	<0.001	0.000
	Walén	0.978	0.000
Brienzi	Geneva	<0.001	0.973
	Joux	<0.001	0.998
	Geneva	<0.001	0.154
	Neuchatel	<0.001	0.419
	Walén	<0.001	0.606
Geneva	Joux	0.021	0.999
	Geneva	0.036	0.050
	Neuchatel	<0.001	0.152
	Walén	0.882	0.325
Joux	Geneva	<0.001	0.032
	Neuchatel	0.431	0.093
	Walén	0.993	0.398
Geneva	Neuchatel	<0.001	0.973
	Walén	0.014	1.000
Neuchatel	Walén	0.669	0.993

Table S3: Mahalanobis distances calculated between habitat groups within Lake Brienz, with their associated *p*-values based on 10,000 bootstraps.

Comparison	Mahalanobis distance	<i>p</i>-value
Boulders – Cobble	1.58	0.110
Boulders – Ledge	2.39	<0.001
Boulders – Affluent/Effluent	1.69	<0.001
Boulders - Vegetation	1.84	<0.001
Cobble – Ledge	1.81	0.056
Cobble – Affluent/Effluent	1.72	0.001
Cobble – Vegetation	1.52	0.130
Ledge – Affluent/Effluent	1.52	0.080
Ledge – Vegetation	1.50	0.272
Affluent/Effluent – Vegetation	0.93	0.755

Table S4: List of SNPs showing an $F_{ST} > 0.3$ between individuals caught over rocky or muddy substrates in Lake Brienz. Also, presented are the SNPs, contig IDs, and the locus specific F_{ST} . Each contig was compared to the NCBI nucleotide collection. Gene annotations for contigs that aligned with a known gene in other fish species are given.

SNP ID	Contig ID	F_{ST}	Gene annotation
SNP_1198	consensus_3971	0.333	FSTL5: Follistatin-related protein 5
SNP_2379	consensus_10858	0.374	-
SNP_2439	consensus_11289	0.307	PCSK5: Proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 5
SNP_3301	consensus_18419	0.323	-
SNP_4437	consensus_38170	0.319	-