The cryptic origins of evolutionary novelty: 1,000-fold-faster trophic diversification rates without increased ecological opportunity or hybrid swarm

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Abstract

Ecological opportunity is frequently proposed as the sole ingredient for adaptive radiation into novel niches. Alternatively, genome-wide hybridization resulting from 'hybrid swarm' may be the trigger. However, these hypotheses have been difficult to test due to the rarity of comparable control environments lacking adaptive radiations. Here I exploit such a pattern in microendemic radiations of Caribbean pupfishes. I show that a sympatric three-species radiation on San Salvador Island, Bahamas diversified 1,445 times faster than neighboring islands in jaw length due to evolution of a novel scale-eating adaptive zone from a generalist ancestral niche. I then sampled 22 generalist populations on seven neighboring islands and measured morphological diversity, stomach content diversity, dietary isotopic diversity, genetic diversity, lake/island areas, macroalgae richness, and Caribbean-wide patterns of gene flow. None of these standard metrics of ecological opportunity or gene flow were associated with adaptive radiation, except for slight increases in macroalgae richness. Thus, exceptional trophic diversification is highly localized despite myriad generalist populations in comparable environmental and genetic backgrounds. This study provides a strong counterexample to the ecological/hybrid-swarm theories of adaptive radiation and suggests that diversification of novel specialists on a sparse fitness landscape is constrained by more than ecological opportunity and gene flow.

Introduction

48

49 Adaptive radiation is one of the most fundamental processes producing bursts of species

50 diversification, trait divergence, and niche evolution across the tree of life (Simpson 1944; Schluter

51 2000). Ecological opportunity, an abundance of available resources in a new environment with

52 few competitors, has long been viewed as the primary force driving diversification through

53 divergent selection on niche use, mediated by competition and predation (Simpson 1944; Schluter

54 2000; Losos and Mahler 2010; Pfennig and Pfennig 2010). This relationship between new

55 ecological space and divergent selection leading to reproductive isolation forms the foundation of

56 the ecological theory of adaptive radiation (Schluter 2000; Losos and Mahler 2010) and ecological

57 speciation theory (McKinnon et al. 2004; Rundle and Nosil 2005; Nosil 2012).

58 At microevolutionary scales, substantial observational and experimental evidence

59 demonstrates that resource abundance drives ecological divergence (Schluter 2000; Parent and

60 Crespi 2009; Nosil 2012). For example, parallel ecological diversification and speciation has been

61 observed repeatedly in laboratory microcosms (Rainey and Travisano 1998; Elena and Lenski

62 2003; Kassen et al. 2004) and natural systems (Gillespie 2004; Langerhans et al. 2007; Losos 2009;

63 Martin 2012) when populations are confronted with similar levels of ecological opportunity,

64 constrained only by altered communities of predators or competitors (Vamosi 2003; Pfennig and

65 Pfennig 2012). Holding lineage-specific factors and biotic communities constant, ecological

66 divergence in response to resource abundance appears much more predictable than originally

67 imagined (Bolnick and Lau 2008; Nosil et al. 2009; Langerhans 2010).

68 In contrast, it is still largely unknown what triggers major evolutionary novelties and large-

69 scale adaptive radiation: why do only some lineages rapidly diversify and colonize novel

70 ecological niches in response to resource abundance while others do not (Roderick and Gillespie

3

71   1998; Burns et al. 2002,Erwin 2015a)? Many macroevolutionary trends run counter to predictions

72   of the ecological theory of adaptive radiation. First, contrary to Simpson's paradigm (Simpson

73   1944), major ecological transitions to new adaptive zones are only weakly or not at all associated

74   with the availability of ecological opportunity due to colonization of an isolated habitat, following

75   mass extinction, or the evolution of a key innovation (Erwin 2015a; Harmon and Harrison 2015).

76   For example, for nearly every adaptive radiation containing novel ecological specialists, there is a

77   similar lineage which has failed to diversify in the exact same environment (Givnish et al. 1997;

78   Roderick and Gillespie 1998; Arbogast et al. 2006; Losos 2009; Martin and Wainwright 2011,

79   2013c). Large-scale radiations often originate long before mass extinction events (Schuettpelz and

80   Pryer 2009; Wilson et al. 2012) or the evolution of key innovations (Alfaro et al. 2009,Erwin

81   2015a). Moreover, most classic adaptive radiations do not exhibit an early burst of trait

82   diversification, the rapid niche-filling response predicted by the ecological opportunity hypothesis

83   (Harmon et al. 2010,Erwin 2015a; Harmon and Harrison 2015).

84   Second, the origins of adaptive radiation cannot be explained by the same factors that are

85   associated with speciation and morphological diversification rates. Although there is a strong

86   relationship between area and speciation rate (Losos and Schluter 2000; Kisel and Barraclough

87   2010), island biogeography breaks down when attempting to predict which lineages will radiate

88   and where (Seehausen 2006; Wagner et al. 2012, 2014). Adaptive radiation also appears to defy

89   ecological limits and frequently results in species assemblages exceeding the equilibrium species

90   diversity expected from community assembly processes alone (Gillespie 2004; Gavrilets and

91   Losos 2009; Martin and Genner 2009; Wagner et al. 2014). Thus, while ecological opportunity is

92   sufficient to drive divergent selection among populations, its primary role in triggering

93   macroevolutionary diversification is unclear (Erwin 2015a).

4

94   An emerging alternative to ecological opportunity for the origins of adaptive radiation is

95   the hybrid swarm hypothesis, which proposes that an influx of genetic diversity and novel allelic

96   combinations after hybridization of distinct lineages (inter- or intraspecific), possibly including

97   segregating postzygotic intrinsic incompatibilities, may trigger rapid diversification (Seehausen

98   2004; Roy et al. 2015; Schumer et al. 2015). Hybridization plays a well-known role in the

99   formation of single ecologically divergent species, even among homoploids (Rieseberg et al. 2003;

100 Schumer et al. 2013). In contrast, although a growing number of studies identify substantial gene

101 flow and adaptive introgression within adaptive radiations (Brawand et al. 2014; Lamichhaney et

102 al. 2015; Malinsky et al. 2015; Martin et al. 2015, 2016; Stankowski and Streisfeld 2015), there is

103 still no evidence that hybridization specifically triggered their diversification, as opposed to being

104 pervasive throughout the history of these lineages (Servedio et al. 2013; Berner and Salzburger

105 2015; Kuhlwilm et al. 2016), and direct tests are needed. In order to directly test these hypotheses

106 about the origins of adaptive radiation and novelty, we need to examine systems where parallel

107 speciation is not the dominant feature and compare variation in ecological opportunity and

108 hybridization across similar environments that differ in the presence of nascent adaptive radiations

109 of specialists.

110   Here I exploit such a pattern of microendemic adaptive radiations and the rare evolution of

111 novel trophic specialists in *Cyprinodon* pupfishes to test the roles of ecological opportunity and

112 hybridization in triggering adaptive radiation and novelty. Pupfishes inhabit coastal areas and salt

113 lakes across the entire Caribbean and Atlantic, from Massachusetts to Venezuela; however, despite

114 the ubiquity of these populations and the abundant ecological opportunity present in most

115 Caribbean salt lakes which lack predators and contain few competing fish species, nearly all

116 populations are generalist omnivores, consuming algae and micro-invertebrates, and sympatric

117   radiations of trophic specialists have evolved only twice: once in 10,000-year-old salt lakes on San

118   Salvador Island, Bahamas and independently in the 8,000-year-old Laguna Chichancanab basin in

119   the Yucatan (Martin and Wainwright 2011). In addition to a generalist algae-eating species present

120   in all lakes (*C. variegatus*), the San Salvador radiation contains two rare specialist species

121   coexisting with generalists in some lakes which have adapted to unique trophic niches using novel

122   skeletal traits: a scale-eating pupfish with enlarged oral jaws [*C. desquamator* (Martin and

123   Wainwright 2013a)] and a molluscivore pupfish with a nasal/maxillary protrusion which may

124   provide jaw stabilization for crushing [*C. brontotheroides* (Martin and Wainwright 2013a)].

125   Similarly, the Chichancanab radiation of five species contains a generalist algae-eating species (*C.*

126   *beltrani*) and at least two trophic specialists – a zooplanktivore (*C. simus*) and a piscivore (*C.*

127   *maya:* (Humphries and Miller 1981; Humphries 1984; Stevenson 1992; Horstkotte and Strecker

128   2005). These trophic niches and skeletal phenotypes in each sympatric radiation are unique among

129   all *Cyprinodon* species; furthermore, scale-eating is unique among over 1,500 species of

130   Cyprinodontiform fishes (Martin and Wainwright 2011, 2013c). These unique traits are

131   hypothesized to be novel, in the sense of a body part evolving quasi-independence or individuation

132   through modification of gene regulatory networks (following Erwin 2015), and different scaling

133   relationships with body size support this idea [Fig. S4; (Lencer et al. 2016)]. These traits are also

134   innovations, in the sense of enabling access to new resources (following Liem 1980; Losos 2009;

135   Blount et al. 2012a), but it is too early to determine if they are key innovations causing an increase

136   in species diversification rate (Hunter 1998; Whittall and Hodges 2007).

137   Trophic specialists in both sympatric pupfish radiations co-occur in all lake habitats, but

138   are largely reproductively isolated with low levels of hybridization (within-lake interspecific F_{st} =

139   0.12-0.49: Strecker 2006a; Martin and Feinstein 2014). The San Salvador radiation is nested within

140   many outgroup Caribbean populations of *C. variegatus*, strongly indicating that these specialists

141   evolved from a generalist ancestor similar in morphology to *C. variegatus* (Martin and Wainwright

142   2011; Martin and Feinstein 2014). Similarly, the Chichancanab radiation is nested within outgroup

143   populations of *C. artifrons* along the Yucatan coast, indicating that these specialists evolved from

144   a generalist ancestor resembling *C. artifrons* (Martin and Wainwright 2011). Unfortunately,

145   Chichancanab was colonized by two invasive fish species in the 1990's which caused the

146   extinction of at least two specialist species (Schmitter-Soto 1999; Strecker 2006b; Martin and

147   Wainwright 2011). Thus, I focus on the San Salvador radiation in this study with occasional

148   comparisons to initial descriptions of the Chichancanab environment before it was impacted by

149   invasives [e.g. (Humphries and Miller 1981)].

150   In summary, two unusual features of Caribbean pupfishes provide an outstanding

151   opportunity for investigating the causes of adaptive radiation and the rare evolution of ecological

152   novelty: 1) major evolutionary novelties evolved within 10,000 years and are restricted to isolated

153   locations, 2) each sympatric radiation is surrounded by a large number of comparable

154   environments inhabited by a generalist lineage comparable to the putative ancestor where rapid

155   adaptive diversification has not occurred. To pinpoint where major ecological novelties evolved

156   and identify which ecological and genomic factors are associated with these transitions, I

157   integrated population genomics, phylogenetic comparative methods, and a Caribbean-wide

158   ecological, morphological, and genetic survey of pupfish populations. I first tested for the presence

159   of exceptional trophic diversification and shifts to new adaptive zones by constructing a time-

160   calibrated *Cyprinodon* phylogeny from 8,352 loci and measuring 28 functional traits in 22 pupfish

161   populations on 7 islands ($n = 493$ individuals across all populations). I then tested whether

162   ecological opportunity and hybridization were associated with the exceptional trait diversification

163 rates detected on San Salvador. To test the role of ecological opportunity, I compared the best

164 indicators of ecological opportunity in this system to the number of sympatric pupfish species

165 within each lake: lake area, macroalgae species richness, and the genetic diversity, stomach content

166 diversity, stable isotope diversity, and morphological diversity of generalist pupfish populations

167 in each lake. To test the role of hybridization, I used genome-wide sampling of genetic markers to

168 estimate whether the species on San Salvador showed evidence of hybrid swarm origins relative

169 to neighboring islands using f_4 statistics, principal components analysis, species tree estimation,

170 and Treemix population graphs.

171

Methods

Sampling

174 Twelve hypersaline lakes on San Salvador Island were sampled for both generalist and specialist

175 pupfishes (if present), including four lakes containing only generalists, two containing generalists

176 and molluscivores, two containing generalists and scale-eaters, and four containing generalists and

177 both specialist species in July, 2011 (Fig. 1; Appendix S1). Seven hypersaline lakes containing

178 generalist pupfish populations on five neighboring Bahamian Islands (Rum Cay, Cat, Long,

179 Acklins, New Providence) and three lakes in the Dominican Republic (Laguna Bavaro, Laguna

180 Oviedo, Etang Saumatre) were sampled between May – July, 2011 (sampling locations highlighted

181 in Fig. 1 by brown arrows; Appendix S1). Additional outgroup *Cyprinodon* species were sampled

182 from across the Caribbean and Atlantic, spanning the entire coastal range of *Cyprinodon* from

183 Massachusetts to Venezuela (Appendix S1).

184   Neighboring lakes were comparable to those on San Salvador: hypersaline due to limited

185 hydrological connectivity with the ocean dominated by mangroves in predominantly shallow (2 –

8

186   5 m) karst basins. Physiological parameters, including pH, salinity, alkalinity, and temperature are

187   extremely variable within each lake due to tidal fluctuations and rainfall, but highly comparable

188   across lakes due to their shared carbonate geology and water chemistry (Rothfus 2012). Lakes

189   contained from 0 – 2 insectivorous fish species in addition to *Cyprinodon*: the Bahamian

190   mosquitofish, *Gambusia hubbsi*, and the bighead silverside, *Atherinomorus stipes*, with the

191   exception of both lakes on New Providence Island which contained invasive fishes such as

192   *Oreochromis mossambicus*, *Xiphophorus maculatus*, and *Poecilia reticulata* and the three large

193   lakes in the Dominican Republic, which contained cichlid, eleotrid, and American crocodile

194   (*Crocodylus acutus*) predators and *Limia* spp. and *Gambusia* spp. competitors. Dominican lakes

195   exhibited similar phenotypic and ecological diversity trends to those in the Bahamas and are

196   included for comparison; removing these lakes did not qualitatively affect the results.

197   Between 9 – 48 specimens (mean = 21.6; sd = 8.8) were sampled from generalist

198   populations in each lake by seine-net or hand net and euthanized in an overdose of buffered MS-

199   222 (Finquel, Inc.) following animal care protocols approved by the University of California,

200   Davis Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC protocols #15908 and #17455).

201

Genomic sequencing and bioinformatics

203   Between 1 - 6 wild-caught fish from each of 22 generalist populations, plus specialist *C.*

204   *desquamator* and *C. brontotheroides* populations on San Salvador, and Caribbean-wide outgroup

205   sampling spanning the entire Caribbean and Atlantic range of *Cyprinodon* (*n* = 112 individuals

206   detailed in Appendix S1) were individually bar-coded and sequenced using the genotyping by

207   sequencing RADseq protocol (Elshire et al. 2011), filtered reads were aligned to the *C. variegatus*

208   reference assembly using bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012), and genotypes were called

9

209   using the Stacks pipeline (Catchen et al. 2013), exporting loci with a minimum depth of 10 reads

210   genotyped in >50% of individuals following the approach of previous RADseq studies (Martin

211   and Feinstein 2014; Martin et al. 2015, 2016; Martin et al. in review). Respectively, 601 million

212   150-bp and 356 million 100-bp raw reads were sequenced and 651 million reads uniquely aligned

213   to the *C. variegatus* assembly. Further details are provided in the supplemental methods.

214

215   ***Testing for exceptional diversification rates: phylogenetic and comparative analyses***

216   I first used BEAST (Drummond and Rambaut 2007) to estimate a time-calibrated phylogeny for

217   Caribbean *Cyprinodon* populations from 8,352 concatenated RADseq loci (following Martin et al.

218   2015), detailed in the supplemental methods and presented in Fig. S1. I then used two

219   complementary approaches to assess the distribution of trait diversification rates across this

220   phylogeny. First, I used reversible-jump MCMC sampling of multi-rate Brownian motion models

221   for each trait on the maximum likelihood phylogeny (Eastman et al. 2011). Nearly all nodes in the

222   time-calibrated tree were resolved with posterior probabilities of 1 (Fig. S1); therefore,

223   phylogenetic uncertainty was not accounted for in these analyses and only a single tree was used.

224   Reversible-jump sampling allows for 'jumps' among models with varying numbers of parameters

225   in addition to varying the values of these parameters while sampling likelihood space, enabling

226   the MCMC sampler to explore shifts among different diversification rate regimes on different parts

227   of the phylogeny without *a priori* specification of these shifts as required in earlier methods

228   (O'Meara et al. 2006). This approach also naturally results in model-averaged parameter estimates

229   (Burnham and Anderson 2002).   For each residual trait measured in 29 taxa (see below:

230   *Morphological diversity*), I used the *auteur* suite of methods (Eastman et al. 2011), part of the

231   geiger2 package (Harmon et al. 2008) in R (R Core Team 2015), to run rjMCMC chains and

232   estimate the placement and magnitude of shifts in diversification rate across the tree. Each chain

233   was run for 10,000 generations, sampling every 100 steps from a relaxed Brownian motion model

234   allowing for the possibility of instantaneous jumps between rate regimes (*type* = "jump-rbm"). The

235   first 50% of each chain was discarded as burn-in and shifts in rate regimes were visualized on the

236   phylogeny for each trait. Chains were run multiple times for each trait to assess convergence.

237   Median diversification rates and their placement on the phylogeny for rapidly-diversifying traits

238   was generally robust across runs; however, this is primarily an exploratory technique for

239   visualizing the highest densities of major trait diversification shifts and no explicit model

240   comparisons were performed (e.g. Santini et al. 2013).

241   Second, I used reversible-jump MCMC sampling of the more generalized Ornstein-

242   Uhlenbeck (OU) model of trait diversification. In addition to a Brownian motion parameter (σ^2)

243   modeling diffusion rate, the OU model includes the elastic pull of a stabilizing selection regime

244   acting on a trait with two additional parameters: α, the strength of selection on the trait, and θ, the

245   location of the fitness optimum (Hansen 1997; Martins and Hansen 1997; Butler and King 2004).

246   Stronger selection on a trait as it nears its fitness optimum constrains the stochastic diffusion rate

247   of σ^2 over time, erasing the phylogenetic signal of a trait (Hansen et al. 2008). Although a single

248   fitness optimum can be fit to an entire clade, the ecological theory of adaptive radiation predicts

249   that multiple fitness peaks will drive ecological divergence and speciation (Schluter 2000),

250   indicating that multi-optima OU models are needed to model adaptive radiation. Indeed, multiple

251   fitness peaks on a complex fitness landscape were directly measured in this system (Martin and

252   Wainwright 2013c), demonstrating that fitness peaks were non-Gaussian and connected by varying

253   depths of fitness valleys and ridges on a single adaptive landscape for the entire three-species

254   radiation, in contrast to instantaneous transitions among single-optimum Gaussian fitness regimes

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255   along branches specified by the multi-rate OU. Nonetheless, OU models may provide a rough

256   approximation of stabilizing selection acting on different phenotypic optima over evolutionary

257   time and enable estimation of the temporal dynamics of adaptive regime shifts across the

258   *Cyprinodon* phylogeny.

259   To specifically explore jaw length, the trait with the largest shift in diversification rate on

260   San Salvador, I used bayou to conduct reversible-jump MCMC sampling of multi-rate OU models

261   (Uyeda and Harmon 2014) in R. I first specified an uninformative prior on the OU models, using

262   half-cauchy priors for α and σ^2, a normal prior for θ, a conditional Poisson distribution for the

263   number of shifts between selective regimes (lambda = 15, max = 200), and a maximum of one

264   shift per branch. I also explored more restrictive priors for the number of shifts, but found

265   convergence across runs to be less stable. I ran two chains of 1,000,000 generations each, sampling

266   every 100 steps, and combined chains after discarding the first 50% as burnin-in. Convergence

267   was assessed using Gelman and Rubin's R statistic. Repeated runs indicated that convergence was

268   quickly reached and all runs indicated a robust shift to a new adaptive regime for scale-eaters.

269   Results were plotted as a 'traitgram' (Ackerly 2009) using bayou's built-in plotting function

270   (Uyeda and Harmon 2014).

271

272   ***Testing the ecological opportunity hypothesis: morphological, dietary, and genetic diversity***

273   To test the hypothesis that ecological opportunity is associated with exceptional diversification

274   rates on San Salvador Island, I used linear models to measure the effects of morphological

275   diversity, dietary diversity, genetic diversity, lake/island areas (from the Google Maps Area

276   Calculator Tool: daftlogic.com), and macroalgae species richness on the number of pupfish species

277   coexisting within a lake (ranging from 1-3 species; Tables 1-2). Multiple regression models were

12

278   compared using stepwise addition and removal of predictors with the stepAIC function in the

279   MASS package in R (Venables and Ripley 2013). The fit of significant one-way models was

280   compared to full models including all interaction terms. Estimation of predictor variables is

281   described below.

282

283   *Morphological diversity*

284   Multiple individuals from 21 lake populations (*n* = 493 individuals total; 9 − 48 samples per

285   population; mean = 21.6; sd = 8.8) were cleared and alizarin-stained for measurement of 28

286   functional skeletal traits (Figs. S2-S4). For each population, adult specimens were cleared and

287   double-stained with alizarin and alcian blue in order to visualize skeletal morphology (Dingerkus

288   and Uhler 1977). The skull of each specimen was photographed on both lateral sides with jaw

289   adducted for a clear view of the quadroarticular region, framing only the head and pectoral girdle

290   for maximum resolution of smaller features (Fig. S3). Specimens were photographed and

291   measured on both lateral sides of the head and the mean was used to reduce measurement error.

292   Thirty-two landmarks (Fig. S3) were digitized using tpsdig2 software (Rohlf 2001) and converted

293   to 29 linear distances (Table S1) describing functional traits and the most divergent traits among

294   the three San Salvador species.

295   After removing or remeasuring outlier measurements in the dataset, log-transformed linear

296   distances were regressed against log-transformed head size of *C. variegatus* individuals as an index

297   of overall size (Fig. S4). Size-corrected residuals were used for surveys of morphological diversity

298   across generalist populations. Residuals from a separate linear regression calculated from the mean

299   of each population were used for phylogenetic comparative analyses so that each taxon was

300   weighted equally for the size-correction procedure.

301

Dietary diversity

303   For a subset of the generalist individuals sampled from each population, dietary diversity was

304   estimated from stomach content analyses ($n = 359$ individuals total) and stable isotope analyses of

305   δ13C and δ15N ($n = 487$ individuals total; Fig. S5). These complementary approaches reflect

306   short-term fine-grain and long-term coarse-grain estimates of dietary diversity, respectively (Post

307   2002; Layman 2007).   Stomach items were separated into broad taxonomic categories (e.g.

308   macroalgae, seagrass, polychaete, ostracod, gastropod) and total surface areas of each component

309   were estimated under 10-50x magnification using a Sedgwick-rafter cell [following (Martin and

310   Wainwright 2013c)]. Dietary diversity within each population was estimated from Simpson's

311   inverse diversity index, the probability that two randomly sampled items do not belong to the same

312   category (DeJong 1975). For stable isotope analyses, dried muscle samples from the caudal

313   peduncle region of each fish were analyzed for natural abundances of δ13C and δ15N at the UC

314   Davis Stable Isotope Facility on a PDZ Europa ANCA-GSL elemental analyzer interfaced to a

315   PDZ Europa 20-20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer.

316

Genetic diversity

318   Genetic diversity across lake populations of generalist *Cyprinodon* was estimated by exporting

319   170 loci genotyped completely in 22 populations to avoid any biases introduced by missing data

320   and using Stacks to calculate π, the average number of pairwise differences between sequences

321   drawn at random within the population (Catchen et al. 2013). Estimates of genetic diversity were

322   similar and qualitatively unchanged when running analyses with more permissive filtering criteria,

323   at the island-level, and without genome alignment.

324

Testing the hybrid swarm hypothesis: major axes of genetic variation and introgression

Principal components analysis

The main prediction of the hybrid swarm hypothesis is that hybridization will facilitate the

evolution of ecological specialists. To test for this pattern, I first estimated principal components

of genetic variation across the Caribbean, excluding San Salvador populations. 11,706 SNPs

genotyped in at least 50% of individuals with a minimum depth of 10 aligned reads were exported

for principal component analyses of genetic variance using probabilistic pca in the Bioconductor

pcaMethods package (Stacklies et al. 2007) in R. Only 1 SNP per locus was exported to reduce

linkage disequilibrium within this dataset. I then projected all three San Salvador species ($n = 75$

individuals) onto the first two principal components of Caribbean-wide genetic variation to assess

whether specialists shared a greater proportion of their ancestry with any of the outgroups sampled.

This approach has previously been used to visualize patterns of shared ancestry within a focal

population while avoiding biases introduced by uneven sampling among groups inherent to

principal components analysis (e.g. see discussion in McVean 2009; Lazaridis et al. 2014; Martin

et al. 2015).

340

Species tree inference

Concatenation approaches may be consistently misleading estimators of the species tree, even with

large amounts of data (Degnan and Rosenberg 2006, 2009; Kubatko and Degnan 2007; Heled and

Drummond 2010; Liu et al. 2015). To estimate the species tree for Caribbean pupfishes, I used

SNAPP, which integrates over all sampled gene trees (Bryant et al. 2012). To limit the

computational demands of this analysis, I restricted the dataset to 1,534 SNPs genotyped

347   completely in 21 focal Caribbean populations (Appendix S1: n = 70 individuals; mean = 3.3 per

348   population) and pooled closely related saline lake populations on Crooked/Acklins Islands, New

349   Providence Island, and Long Island were each pooled. Only 1 SNP was sampled per RAD locus

350   to reduce linkage disequilibrium. Using BEAST2 (v. 2.2.0; Bouckaert et al. 2014) with the SNAPP

351   plug-in (Bryant et al. 2012), two chains were run for 150,000 and 275,000 generations,

352   respectively, and converged after 60,000 and 100,000 generations of burn-in, assessed using

353   Tracer (v. 1.6; Drummond and Rambaut 2007). Due to slow run times on an 8-core Pentium i7

354   machine (1 million generations every 8,000 hours or 333 days), large effective sample sizes of

355   parameters were not obtainable, which ranged from 3 – 170, affecting several theta parameters.

356   After discarding burn-in, trees were sampled every 100 generations from both runs and visualized

357   using Densitree in BEAST2 (Bouckaert et al. 2014).

358

359   *Tests of asymmetric gene flow using f4 statistics*

360   Species trees may still be an inadequate model to understand population history if secondary or

361   continuous gene flow is present (Pickrell and Pritchard 2012). I used f_4 statistics to test for

362   additional gene flow between branches within four-population maximum likelihood trees

363   containing the two specialist species relative to Caribbean outgroups of the form: ((*C.*

364   *brontotheroides, C. desquamator)*; (Caribbean outgroup 1, Caribbean outgroup 2)). This statistic

365   measures asymmetry in allele frequency correlations between the (A,B) and (C,D) clades on the

366   four-population tree ((A,B);(C,D)) and is expected to be zero in the absence of gene flow with

367   only incomplete lineage sorting (but may be sensitive to ancestral population structure: Reich et

368   al. 2009; Durand et al. 2011). Similar to the ABBA-BABA/D-statistic, the f_4 statistic tests for

369   evidence of secondary gene flow in focal taxa, but does not require a rooted four-taxon tree (Martin

370 et al. 2015). Treemix software [v. 1.12; (Pickrell and Pritchard 2012)] was used to calculate f_4

371 statistics from 4,213 SNPs genotyped in all focal Caribbean populations (pooled as described for

372 SNAPP analyses) and sampled once per RAD locus.

373

374 *Treemix population graphs*

375 To visualize secondary gene flow among Caribbean populations, I used Treemix [v. 1.12; (Pickrell

376 and Pritchard 2012)] to estimate maximum likelihood trees with varying numbers of migration

377 events connecting populations after their divergence, forming graphs of interconnected

378 populations. The number of migration events was estimated by comparing the log likelihood of

379 graph models following global realignment and jackknife estimation in windows of size 1 using

380 the 4,213 SNP dataset (following Martin and Feinstein 2014). To estimate the number of migration

381 events connecting populations, I used an approach similar to Evanno et al. (2005) and compared

382 the rate of change of the log likelihood with the addition of each migration event.

383

384 **Results**

385 *Exceptional trophic diversification rates within San Salvador Island pupfishes*

386 I found strong evidence for exceptional rates of trophic diversification and shifts to new adaptive

387 zones localized to San Salvador Island, Bahamas (Fig. 2) despite extensive sampling of saline

388 lakes with identically depauperate fish communities on 5 neighboring Bahamian islands and the

389 three largest Caribbean saline lakes found in the Dominican Republic (Fig. 1). Sampling from the

390 posterior distribution of multi-rate Brownian motion models indicated that the fastest trait

391 diversification rates occurred for jaw length on the internal branch leading to all three populations

392 of the scale-eating pupfish, *C. desquamator*, endemic to San Salvador (Fig. 2a, Table S1). These

17

393   analyses must be interpreted with caution due to the small size of our phylogeny and violation of

394   *auteur*'s assumption of a bifurcating phylogeny (see Fig. 5); however, the relative rate difference

395   observed was substantially larger than the largest effect size used in *auteur* simulations and larger

396   effect sizes increase precision in the inferred placement of true rate shifts in this model (see Fig. 2

397   in Eastman et al. 2011). Nonetheless, comparative methods for population networks are needed.

398   Accelerated trait diversification rates were most pronounced for jaw length and the width

399   of the articular coronoid process (Fig. 2c, Table S1), which forms the base of the jaw closing lever

400   and reflects the biomechanical tradeoff between fast scale-eating strikes and powerful shell-

401   crushing force in the San Salvador specialists. Only two of the 28 traits measured showed

402   decelerated trait diversification rates on San Salvador relative to other islands (Fig. 2c, Table S1).

403   Sampling from the generalized Ornstein-Uhlenbeck model of trait evolution strongly supported a

404   shift to a new adaptive regime for scale-eating (Fig. 2b). The highest posterior probability of a

405   shift to a new fitness optimum was observed for jaw length along the internal branch leading to

406   scale-eating pupfish (posterior probability = 0.25: Fig 2b). This new scale-eating optimum jaw

407   size was nearly three standard deviations away (in mean standardized units) from the jaw length

408   optimum estimated for generalist pupfish, indicating a major phenotypic transition (Fig. 2b).

409

410   ***Increased ecological opportunity is not associated with adaptive radiation and trophic novelty***

411   The ecological theory of adaptive radiation predicts that such exceptional rates of morphological,

412   ecological, and sympatric species diversification on San Salvador should be associated with

413   increased ecological opportunity. In contrast, I found no association between the presence of

414   ecological specialist pupfishes and variation in nearly every standard index of ecological

415   opportunity. First, the predicted island biogeographic relationship between island size and

416   speciation rate (Losos and Schluter 2000; Kisel and Barraclough 2010; Wagner et al. 2014) does

417   not hold up in this system. There was no correlation between lake area and the number of sympatric

418   pupfish species and a negative correlation between island area and sympatric pupfish species

419   (Table 1, Fig. 3a-b). Second, despite theoretical predictions (Weinreich and Chao 2005), genetic

420   diversity within lake populations, an indicator of effective population size, was not associated with

421   the number of sympatric pupfish species (Fig. 3c). Comparable levels of genetic diversity were

422   also observed in the Chichancanab radiation (CHM unpublished data). Instead, low genetic

423   differentiation among Caribbean islands is consistent with previous demonstrations of pervasive

424   gene flow among islands and may continually renew genetic diversity within saline lakes (Martin

425   and Feinstein 2014; see also Martin et al. 2016). Third, in contrast to many similar studies

426   demonstrating a positive correlation between ecological opportunity and intraspecific or

427   interspecific morphological and dietary diversity (Losos and Schluter 2000; Burns et al. 2002;

428   Parent and Crespi 2009), an extensive survey of generalist populations across San Salvador and

429   neighboring islands provided no evidence of increased ecological or phenotypic diversity in San

430   Salvador lakes supporting specialists (Tables 1-2, Figs. 4, S2, S5). The diets of generalist pupfish

431   should most directly reflect the availability of accessible resources within an environment, the best

432   possible measurement of ecological opportunity. Furthermore, in contrast to expectations of

433   character displacement (Pfennig and Pfennig 2012), there was no significant difference in dietary

434   or morphological diversity between generalist populations on San Salvador with and without

435   specialist pupfish species present (Table S2), suggesting that San Salvador generalist populations

436   provide a good ecological baseline for comparison to other islands. There was no association

437   between lakes supporting specialists and stomach content diversity, nitrogen isotopic diversity

438   [indicating relative trophic position (Post 2002)], carbon isotopic diversity (indicating dietary

19

439 carbon sources), or morphological diversity of generalist populations (estimated from principal

440 component axes and discriminant axes separating the three San Salvador species based on 28

441 skeletal traits: Figs. 4, S2, S5; Tables 1-2).

442   The only significant effect uncovered among all univariate and multivariate models was

443 the greater species richness of macroalgae communities within some lakes on San Salvador

444 supporting multiple pupfish species (Fig. 4a, Tables 1-2). However, these additional macroalgae

445 species (e.g. *Ulva fluxuosa, Valonia ventricosa*) made up less than 0.1% of total plant biomass and

446 these lakes were still dominated by three macroalgae species (*Batophora oerstedii*, *Cladophora*

447 *crispata*, and *Acetabularia crenulata*) and one marine angiosperm (*Ruppia maritima*) found

448 throughout the Bahamas (Godfrey 1994). Furthermore, only half the lakes containing specialists

449 had higher macroalgae richness (Fig. 4a). It is also notable that only a single macroalgae species

450 (*Chara* sp.) occurs in Laguna Chichancanab (Humphries and Miller 1981), demonstrating that a

451 diverse macroalgae community is not necessary for adaptive radiation. Macroalgae richness also

452 exhibited no significant interactions with dietary diversity or lake size (Table 2) and the only other

453 variable with a marginal effect on sympatric species number was morphological diversity along

454 discriminate axis 1 (LD1), suggestive of slightly increased variation in jaw length (which loads

455 heavily on this axis) in populations with specialists, most likely due to elevated within-lake

456 introgression (demonstrated in Martin and Feinstein 2014).

457

458 ***Increased gene flow is not associated with adaptive radiation and trophic novelty***

459 Alternatively, the hybrid swarm theory of adaptive radiation predicts that adaptive radiation should

460 be uniquely tied to admixed populations receiving a large influx of gene flow from highly

461 divergent surrounding lineages (Seehausen 2004). This hypothesis must be evaluated with caution

20

462 because gene flow is pervasive during adaptive radiation, but is often not unique to the radiating

463 lineage (Abbott et al. 2013; Seehausen et al. 2014; Berner and Salzburger 2015). Indeed, there was

464 substantial evidence for secondary gene flow with the specialist populations on San Salvador based

465 on asymmetric allele frequency correlations with outgroups (significant f_4 statistics in 20 out of 55

466 four-population tests: Table S3), but also with generalist populations on neighboring islands that

467 failed to radiate (Fig. 5). This can visualized as the likelihood of secondary gene flow connecting

468 island populations in Treemix population graphs (Fig. 5c-d). Support for highly interconnected

469 population graphs did not subside until reaching 20 connections (Fig. 5c-d), supporting widespread

470 gene flow among Caribbean islands in violation of a bifurcating branching structure assumed by

471 phylogenetic models (in contrast to Figs. 2a, 5b, S1). Importantly, the inferred directions of gene

472 flow events among Caribbean islands crisscrossed the entire archipelago, rather than forming an

473 epicenter at San Salvador, in contrast to the predictions of the hybrid swarm hypothesis (Fig. 5c-

474 d).

475   Projections of San Salvador populations onto the first two principal components of genetic

476 variation across the Caribbean indicated a pattern of continuous variation across islands, often

477 diverging from geographic proximity (Fig. 5a). For example, most introgression into San Salvador

478 specialists came from *C. higuey* in the Eastern Dominican Republic (Table S3; Fig. 5), which was

479 only distantly related to western Dominican Republic populations.

480   Species tree analysis illustrated the diversity of majority-consensus phylogenies across the

481 sampled RAD loci, including many different topologies for the sister group relationships among

482 San Salvador specialist populations and outgroups on neighboring islands (Fig. 5b; however, note

483 that a bifurcating tree is an inadequate model of gene flow in this system). For example, there was

484 consistent support for intra-lake clustering of all three species in Crescent Pond, consistent with

485   genome-wide introgression and islands of genetic differentiation (Martin and Feinstein 2014), but

486   diverse topologies supported sister relationships between the San Salvador radiation and a coastal

487   population of *C. variegatus* (Pigeon Creek, San Salvador Island), the closest island Rum Cay, or

488   more distant islands (Fig. 5b).

489

490   **Discussion**

491   Overall, these results strongly indicate that an exceptional increase in trait diversification rates and

492   a major ecological transition from an ancestral generalist diet of algae and microinvertebrates to a

493   new adaptive zone for scale-eating occurred only on San Salvador Island, Bahamas. This might

494   reflect the extreme functional demands of scale-eating (Sazima 1983; Janovetz 2005) and the

495   ecological novelty of this niche within pupfishes, which is separated by 168 million years from

496   other extant scale-eating fishes (Martin and Wainwright 2013c). These estimates of relative trait

497   diversification rates are similar to a previous species-level study across *Cyprinodon* using a

498   mitochondrial phylogeny (Martin and Wainwright 2011) and substantially exceed relative

499   diversification rates for the same jaw traits measured in classic examples of adaptive radiation in

500   fishes, including Malawi cichlids [up to 9-fold faster than New World cichlids (Hulsey et al. 2010)]

501   and coral reef fishes [2-fold faster than non-reef (Price et al. 2011)]. Indeed, the observed relative

502   rates of trait diversification are among the fastest ever reported (Barkman et al. 2008; Ackerly

503   2009; Harmon et al. 2010).

504   In contrast to the large literature documenting ecological drivers of speciation (Schluter

505   2000; McKinnon et al. 2004; Rundle and Nosil 2005; Nosil et al. 2009; Parent and Crespi 2009;

506   Nosil 2012), variation in ecological opportunity among depauperate saline lake environments does

507   not appear sufficient to explain the rare occurrence of adaptive radiation in pupfishes. The young

508   age and homogeneity of carbonate saline lakes across the Bahamas suggest that similar levels of

509   ecological opportunity also existed 10 kya at the origins of adaptive radiation on San Salvador;

510   furthermore, field fitness experiments demonstrate that the current environment continues to drive

511   diversification in these lakes in the presence of ongoing gene flow (Martin and Wainwright 2013b;

512   Martin and Feinstein 2014). Additional unmeasured ecological variables also appear comparable

513   between San Salvador and neighboring saline lakes: all lakes are physiochemically similar with

514   shared carbonate geology, the same dominant macroalgae species, and the same 1-2 insectivorous

515   fish species (Godfrey 1994; Rothfus 2012). Primary productivity and pupfish population densities

516   also appeared similar across islands based on observations of terrestrial inputs and catch per unit

517   effort. The exceptional diversification rates observed on San Salvador relative to neighboring

518   generalist populations would suggest the presence of exceptional ecological differences unlikely

519   to be overlooked. Surprisingly, this survey indicates that any ecological differences unique to San

520   Salvador are subtle, if present. Perhaps rare macroalgae taxa are necessary to facilitate additional

521   fitness peaks by providing nutritional or structural substrate for critical species of gastropods or

522   ostracods, the predominant food source of the molluscivore pupfish, or shelter for the scale-eating

523   pupfish to successfully ambush its prey. Although alternative stable ecosystem states often exhibit

524   sensitive dependence on initial ecological conditions (Beisner et al. 2003), such subtle thresholds

525   and sensitivity would be unprecedented within the ecological theory of adaptive radiation

526   (Simpson 1944; Schluter 2000; Gavrilets and Losos 2009; Erwin 2015b; but see Chen et al. 2015).

527   Conversely, the abundance of scales in all pupfish communities and pervasiveness of gene

528   flow would suggest that scale-eating pupfish should colonize the entire Caribbean. There was no

529   unique signature of secondary gene flow into San Salvador as predicted by the hybrid swarm

530   hypothesis (Seehausen 2004); instead, all current evidence suggests that gene flow is ubiquitous

531   and ongoing among islands and lakes (Fig. 5; Martin and Feinstein 2014). If sufficient ecological

532   opportunity and genetic diversity exists in most Caribbean saline lakes, what are the additional

533   constraints on adaptive diversification and dispersal of specialists across the Caribbean? One

534   possibility is that colonization of neighboring populations may be constrained by the extremely

535   low fitness of scale-eater hybrids (demonstrated in Martin and Wainwright 2013b; Martin 2016)

536   and low probability of dispersal of a scale-eater pair to a neighboring lake due to their low

537   frequency in all lake populations [<5% (Martin and Wainwright 2013c)].   Indeed, fitness

538   experiments with F2 hybrid pupfish on San Salvador indicated that a large fitness valley separates

539   scale-eating from generalist phenotypes, suggesting that survival in the wild is dependent on an

540   extreme scale-eating phenotype with the full complement of adaptive alleles underlying this

541   complex phenotype, whereas intermediate phenotypes reside in a deep fitness valley (Martin and

542   Wainwright 2013a; Martin 2016; Martin et al. in review). Thus, the complex genetic architecture

543   of the scale-eater phenotype and its interaction with fitness may further constrain its evolution,

544   even in the presence of sufficient ecological opportunity.

545   Ultimately, this comprehensive examination of the origins of novel ecological niches

546   during adaptive radiation rejects the ecological and hybrid swarm theories of adaptive radiation.

547   The paradox is why 1000-fold differences in the diversification of trophic traits are not associated

548   with 1000-fold differences in ecological opportunity or genetic diversity? Admittedly, the

549   relationship between these two variables is unlikely to be one-to-one; however, it is worth

550   emphasizing the dramatic nonlinearity between trait diversification rates and ecological or genetic

551   explanatory variables within this system.

552   An increasing number of case studies suggests that the nonlinear emergence of novel traits

553   leading to evolutionary innovations may be limited by the availability of genetic variation for

24

554 complex phenotypes in addition to the presence of ecological opportunity (Schuettpelz and Pryer

555 2009; Wilson et al. 2012,Erwin 2015a; Harmon and Harrison 2015). For example, in the Lenski

556 long-term evolution experiment, the evolution of citrate-feeding was limited by the specific

557 mutations necessary for this major metabolic transition despite the continual presence of citrate

558 (Blount et al. 2008, 2012; Quandt et al. 2015), providing a model for the rare origins of trophic

559 novelty in pupfishes despite widespread examples of local adaptation throughout their range (e.g.

560 Tobler and Carson 2010; Martin and Wainwright 2011). In contrast to parallel ecological

561 speciation across similar environments, major ecological novelties, such as scale-eating, may

562 emerge from non-ecological, contingent processes within a long-term background of ecological

563 abundance. The isolation of novel ecological niches on the fitness landscape, as demonstrated for

564 the scale-eating pupfish, may constrain their evolution even in the presence of resource abundance

565 (e.g. scales in all pupfish communities), which could explain the singular evolution of scale-eating

566 among thousands of Cyprinodontiform fishes: perhaps Caribbean pupfishes occupy a sparse fitness

567 landscape dominated by a single wide peak (generalist algae-eating) with very few and difficult-

568 to-access specialist peaks (e.g. scale-eating, molluscivory, piscivory, planktivory). Abundant

569 ecological opportunity alone should not be expected to trigger such rare transitions.

570 Caribbean pupfishes provide a rare opportunity to examine the origins of evolutionary

571 novelty. Such novelties are commonplace in many classic adaptive radiations (Martin and

572 Wainwright 2013c), but can rarely be observed to vary across very similar populations in

573 comparable neighboring environments. Despite Caribbean-wide gene flow and an abundance of

574 competitor-free environments, trophic innovation is confined to a single island, providing a strong

575 counterexample to the prevailing view of ecologically driven diversification and innovation.

576

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585

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923 **Table 1.** Association between island/lake area, ecological diversity, genetic diversity, and

924 morphological diversity with the number of sympatric *Cyprinodon* species coexisting within a lake

925 ($n = 1 - 3$) across 22 lake populations on 7 islands (Fig. 4). Except for island area, all linear

926 regressions treated each lake population as independent replicates; however, note that degrees of

927 freedom in these tests may be inflated by the additional covariance among populations due to their

928 varying degrees of shared history (Felsenstein 1985; Revell 2009). The only significant positive

929 correlation is highlighted in bold.

| variable	correlation with *Cyprinodon* spp.	r^2	P
$\log_{10}$ island area	*negative*	*0.695*	*0.003*
$\log_{10}$ lake area	-	0.006	0.654
genetic diversity	-	0.030	0.284
macroalgae richness	**positive**	**0.416**	**0.002**
stomach content diversity	-	0.003	0.856
$\delta13C$	-	0.001	0.903
$\delta15N$	-	0.012	0.646
PC1 variance	-	0.131	0.107
PC2 variance	-	0.044	0.360
LD1 variance	-	0.017	0.571
LD2 variance	-	0.025	0.496

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940 **Table 2.** Models incorporating the effects of lake area, ecological diversity, genetic diversity (π),

941 and morphological diversity on the number of sympatric *Cyprinodon* species coexisting within a

942 lake (spp. = $1 - 3$). Linear regression models treated the ecology of each lake as independent

943 replicates; however, note that degrees of freedom for comparisons of generalist traits may be

944 inflated by the additional covariance among populations due to their varying degrees of shared

945 history (Felsenstein 1985; Revell 2009). Significant models are highlighted in bold and include

946 presentation of significance, effect sizes, and SE for each term.

model	*df*	*adj.r²*	*P*
spp. ~ log(lake area)+π+macroalgae richness+stomach content diversity+δ13C+δ15N+PC1 variance+PC2 variance+LD1 variance+LD2 variance	10	0.10	0.546
spp. ~ log(lake area)+π+macroalgae richness+PC1 variance+PC2 variance+LD1 variance+LD2 variance	16	0.32	0.216
spp. ~ macroalgae richness+PC1 variance+ LD1 variance	**16**	**0.53**	**0.005**
macroalgae richness: 0.223 ± 0.07			**0.009**
PC1 variance: 0.176 ± 0.12			0.162
LD1 variance: 1.054 ± 0.50			0.057
spp. ~ macroalgae richness*PC1 variance*LD1 variance	16	0.49	0.506

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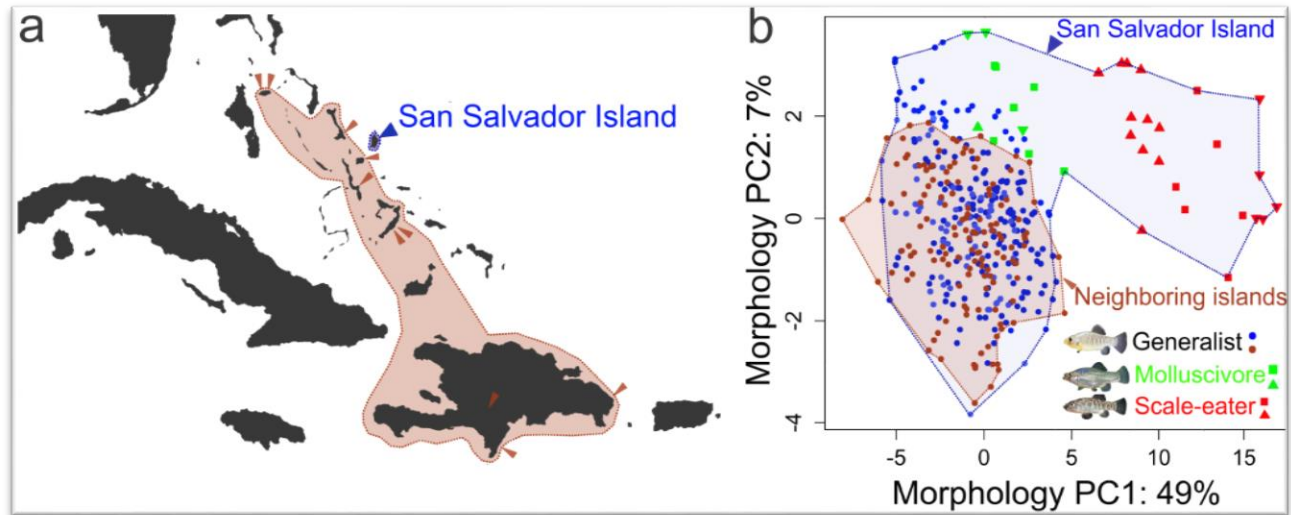
Fig. 1.

Fig. 1 *a)* Sampling locations of generalist populations across the Caribbean (San Salvador lakes: $n = 12$; lakes on neighboring islands: $n = 10$). *b)* First two principal components of morphological diversity for 28 size-corrected skeletal traits measured on 493 alizarin-stained specimens (Fig. S3). Morphological diversity of generalists on San Salvador (●) is equal to the diversity of generalist morphology on neighboring islands (●). Diversity of all three San Salvador species (blue area) greatly exceeds trans-Caribbean diversity (brown area). Shapes indicate different specialist populations on San Salvador.

974   **Fig. 2**
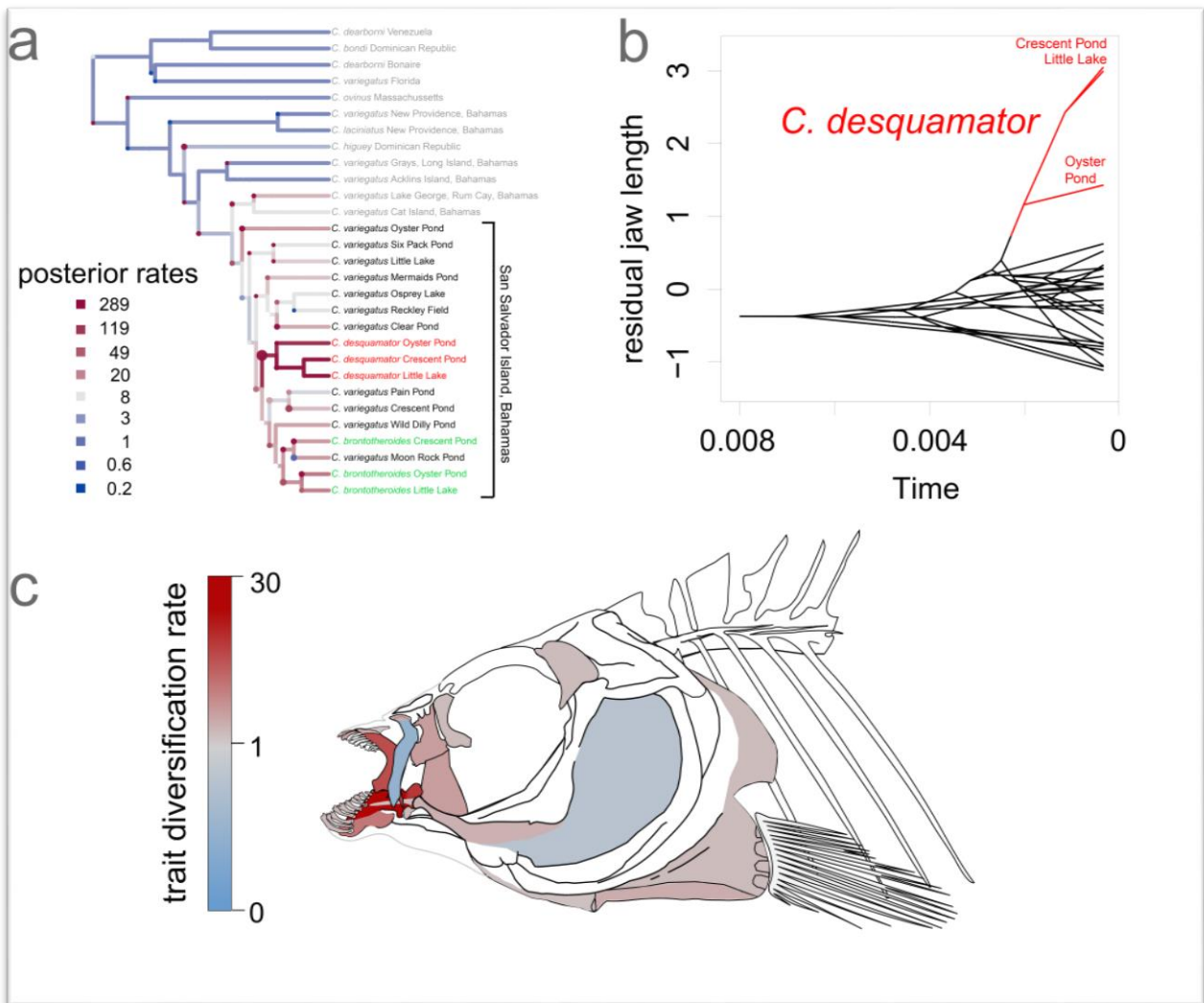
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977   **Fig. 2 *a*) Shifts in jaw diversification rate** painted along each branch of the phylogeny estimated

978   from mean residual jaw size in each population. Heat colors along each branch indicate median

979   rates estimated from the posterior distribution of models and the size of circles at each node

980   indicate the probability of a shift to a different rate regime. There was a 49% posterior probability

981   of a shift to the highest jaw diversification rate at the root node of all three scale-eating pupfish

982   populations, which was 30.8 times faster than median background diversification rates (Table S1)

983   and **1,445 times faster than the slowest background rate** (legend in panel *a*: 289/0.2) on most

984   neighboring islands. *b)* **Traitgram** illustrating distribution of mean residual jaw lengths across

985   *Cyprinodon*. Red branches indicate the estimated phylogenetic position of a new adaptive regime

986   corresponding to all three scale-eating populations (*C. desquamator*) with greatly enlarged jaws

987   relative to the ancestral adaptive regime for generalist pupfish indicated by the black branches. *e)*

988   *Cyprinodon* **anatomy-gram** illustrating median trait diversification rates on San Salvador relative

989   to background rates on neighboring islands (modified from original heat map diagram in Martin

990   and Wainwright 2011). Warm/cool colors indicate faster/slower rates, respectively. Representative

991   skeletal regions are highlighted for a selection of linear traits presented in Table S1.

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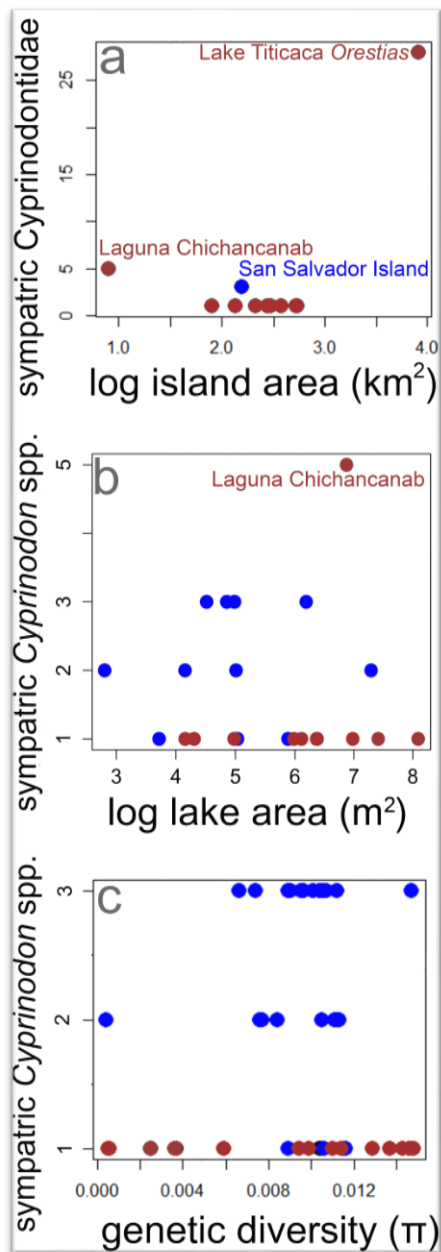993

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1006   **Fig. 3**

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1008   **Fig. 3** In contrast to the expected speciation-area relationship, there was no correlation between *a)*

1009   island area, *b)* lake area, or *c)* genetic diversity and the number of endemic *Cyprinodon* species

1010   (Tables 1-2). San Salvador populations are highlighted in blue, all other populations on

1011   neighboring islands in brown. The predicted speciation-area relationship was only supported at a

1012   much larger scale by including the distantly-related radiation of *Orestias* pupfishes in Lake

1013   Titicaca [log lake area: $r^2 = 0.24$, $P = 0.003$; log island area: $r^2 = 0.364$, $P = 0.050$; (Vila et al.

1014   2013)].

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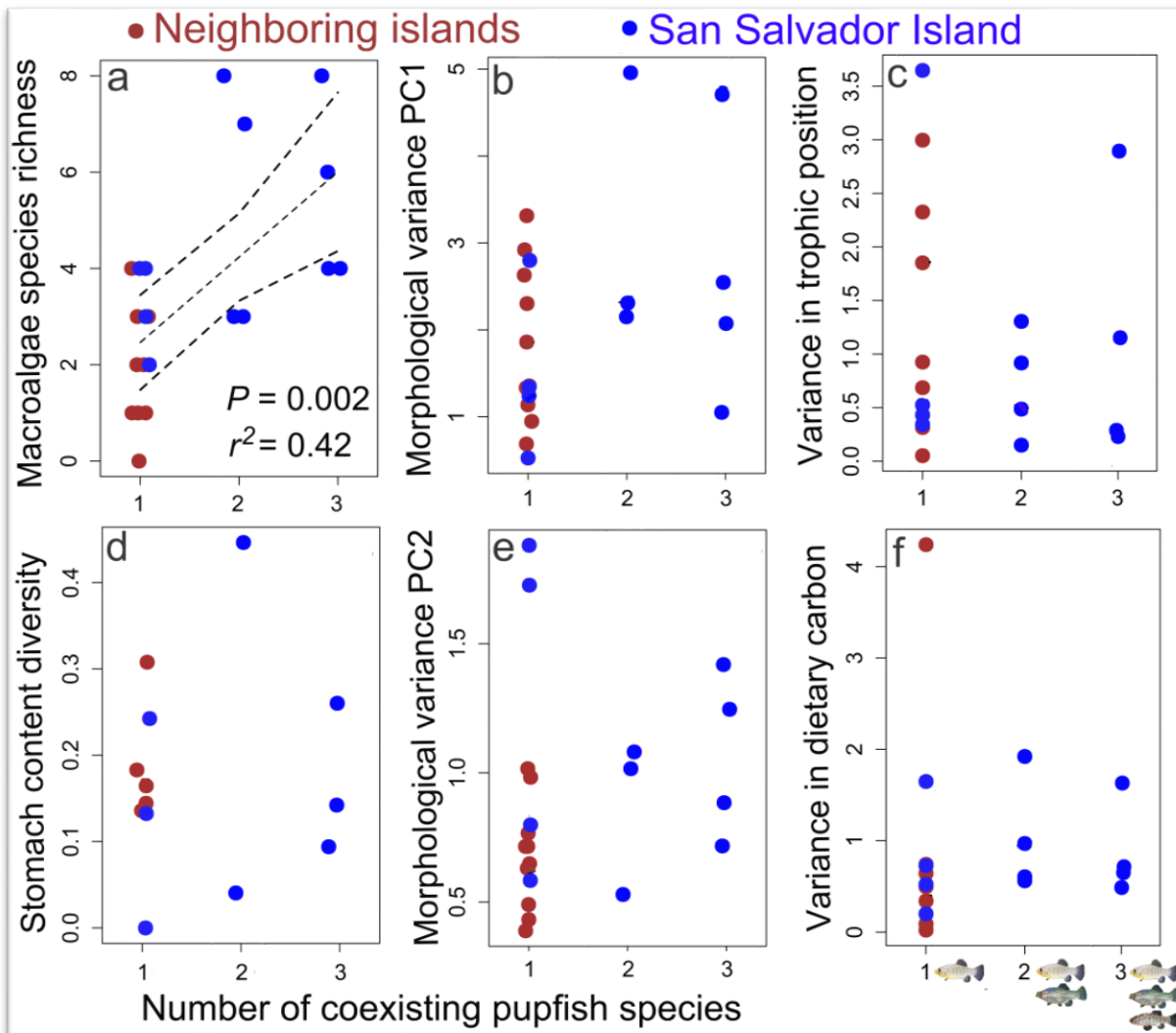1022

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1036 **Fig. 4**

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Fig. 4 *a)* Macroalgae species richness was significantly correlated with the number of coexisting pupfish species within a lake (dashed lines indicate best-fit regression line and 95% confidence interval; Table 1). All other ecological and morphological variables were not correlated with the number of coexisting pupfish species: *b,e)* morphological diversity on the first two principal component axes (*n* = 493 individuals, 21 populations), *d)* stomach content diversity (Simpson's index: *n* = 359 individuals, 13 populations), and *c,f)* dietary isotopic diversity (δ15N: trophic

1044   position and δ13C: dietary carbon) of generalist populations in Caribbean salt lakes ($n = 487$

1045   individuals, 20 populations). Only generalist populations were compared among all sites.

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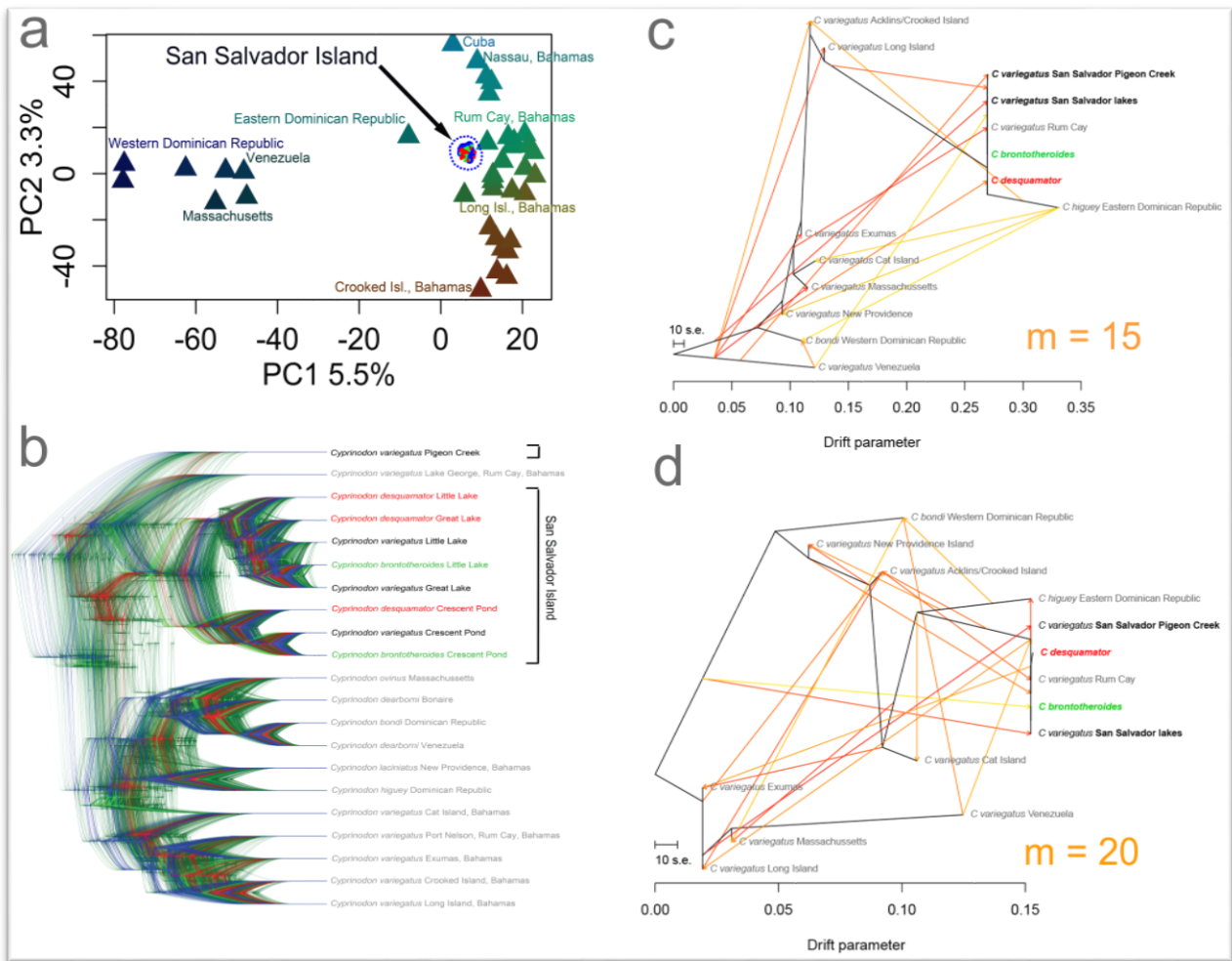
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1067   **Fig. 5**

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1070   **Fig. 5 *a)*** Genetic variation within San Salvador populations relative to the genetic variation across

1071   the Caribbean for 11,706 SNPs. Individuals of all three species on San Salvador (●generalist $n =$

1072   33; ●molluscivore $n = 24$; ●scale-eater $n = 19$) were projected onto the first two principal

1073   component axes of Caribbean-wide genetic variation (excluding San Salvador Island). Outgroup

1074   populations (▲) are colored according to their values along each principal component axis. ***b)***

1075   **Distribution of gene tree topologies** estimated from 1,534 RAD loci (1 SNP per locus) using

1076   SNAPP plugin in BEAST2 (Bryant et al. 2012). ***c-d)*** Treemix population graphs (Pickrell and

1077   Pritchard 2012) illustrating gene flow among Caribbean populations based on stepwise fitting of

1078   migration events (shown as colored arrows, heat color indicates amount of gene flow) to a

1079   maximum likelihood phylogeny for 4,213 SNPs genotyped in all populations. Graphs are

1080   illustrated with 15 and 20 migration events (*c* and *d*, respectively). Following the approach of

1081   Evanno for choosing the number of genetic clusters in a dataset (Evanno et al. 2005), the rate of

1082   change of the likelihood began to decline as the number of migration events approached 20 ($m =$

1083   10: lnL = 97; $m = 15$: lnL = 350; $m = 20$: lnL = 552; $m = 25$: lnL = 550).