

1 **CONVERGENT EVOLUTION OF CONSERVED MITOCHONDRIAL**  
2 **PATHWAYS UNDERLIES REPEATED ADAPTATION TO EXTREME**  
3 **ENVIRONMENTS**

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23 **Significance Statement**

24 Some organisms can tolerate environments lethal for most others, but we often do not know what  
25 adaptations allow them to persist and whether the same mechanisms underly adaptation in different  
26 lineages exposed to the same stressors. Investigating fish inhabiting springs rich in toxic hydrogen  
27 sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), we show that tolerance is mediated by the modification of pathways that are inhibited  
28 by H<sub>2</sub>S and those that can detoxify it. Sulfide spring fishes across multiple genera have evolved  
29 similar modifications of toxicity targets and detoxification pathways, despite abundant lineage-  
30 specific variation. Our study highlights how constraints associated with the physiological  
31 consequences of a stressor limit the number of adaptive solutions and lead to repeatable  
32 evolutionary outcomes across organizational and evolutionary scales.

33

34 Keywords: Adaptive evolution | Comparative physiology | Ecological genomics | Hydrogen sulfide  
35 | Phylogenetic comparative analysis | Poeciliidae

36

37 **Extreme environments test the limits of life; yet, some organisms thrive in harsh conditions.**  
38 **Extremophile lineages inspire questions about how organisms can tolerate physiochemical**  
39 **stressors and whether the repeated colonization of extreme environments is facilitated by**  
40 **predictable and repeatable evolutionary innovations. We identified the mechanistic basis**  
41 **underlying convergent evolution of tolerance to hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S)—a toxicant that**  
42 **impairs mitochondrial function—across evolutionarily independent lineages of a fish**  
43 **(*Poecilia mexicana*, Poeciliidae) from H<sub>2</sub>S-rich springs. Using comparative biochemical and**  
44 **physiological analyses, we found that mitochondrial function is maintained in the presence**  
45 **of H<sub>2</sub>S in sulfide spring *P. mexicana*, but not ancestral lineages from nonsulfidic habitats,**  
46 **due to convergent adaptations in the primary toxicity target and a major detoxification**  
47 **enzyme. Genome-wide local ancestry analyses indicated that convergent evolution of**  
48 **increased H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance in different populations is likely caused by a combination of**  
49 **selection on standing genetic variation and *de novo* mutations. At a macroevolutionary**  
50 **scale, H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance in 10 independent lineages of sulfide spring fishes across multiple**  
51 **genera of Poeciliidae is correlated with the convergent modification and expression changes**  
52 **of genes associated with H<sub>2</sub>S toxicity and detoxification. Our results demonstrate that the**  
53 **modification of highly conserved physiological pathways associated with essential**  
54 **mitochondrial processes mediates tolerance to physiochemical stress. In addition, the same**  
55 **pathways, genes, and—in some instances—codons are implicated in H<sub>2</sub>S adaptation in**  
56 **lineages that span 40 million years of evolution.**

57       Stephen J. Gould made a strong case for the importance of contingency in evolution,  
58 famously quipping that replaying the “tape of life” would lead to different outcomes every time (1).  
59 But despite the unpredictability of mutations, the effects of genetic drift, and other historical  
60 contingencies, convergent evolution of phenotypic traits and their underlying genes is common,

61 indicating that natural selection sometimes finds repeatable and predictable solutions to shared  
62 evolutionary challenges (2, 3). A major challenge that remains is the identification of the ecological,  
63 genetic, and functional factors that might determine the repeatability and predictability of  
64 evolutionary outcomes (4).

65 Mitochondria and their genomes provide a fascinating model to ask questions about the  
66 predictability of evolution for two reasons: (i) Mitochondrial genomes were historically thought to  
67 be a prime example of contingency evolution, because alternative genetic variants were assumed to  
68 be selectively neutral (5). This paradigm has been shifting though, with mounting evidence that  
69 mitochondria—and genes encoded in the mitochondrial genome—can play important roles in  
70 adaptation, especially in the context of physiochemical stress (6). (ii) Mitochondria are critical for the  
71 cellular function of eukaryotes (7). Their function is dependent on the gene products from two  
72 genomes, the mitochondrial and the nuclear (8), which interact to ultimately shape whole-organism  
73 performance. Despite extensive characterization of allelic variation in mitochondrial genomes, it  
74 often remains unclear how variation in genes that contribute to mitochondrial function translates to  
75 variation in physiological and organismal function. Furthermore, it is not known whether exposure  
76 to similar selective regimes may cause convergent modifications of mitochondrial genomes and  
77 emergent biochemical and physiological functions in evolutionarily independent lineages.

78 Extreme environments that represent novel ecological niches are natural experiments to  
79 address questions about mechanisms underlying mitochondrial adaptations and illuminate the  
80 predictability of adaptive evolution of mitochondria. Among the most extreme freshwater  
81 ecosystems are springs with high levels of hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S), a potent respiratory toxicant lethal  
82 to metazoans due to its inhibition of mitochondrial ATP production (9). Multiple lineages of  
83 livebearing fishes (Poeciliidae) have colonized H<sub>2</sub>S-rich springs throughout the Americas and  
84 independently evolved tolerance to sustained H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations orders of magnitude higher than

85 those encountered by ancestral lineages in nonsulfidic habitats (10). Here, we identify the molecular  
86 basis of an evolutionary innovation that facilitated the independent colonization of extreme  
87 environments (increased H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance) and ask if the underlying mechanisms have evolved in  
88 convergence in disparate lineages of livebearing fishes.

89 H<sub>2</sub>S toxicity and detoxification are associated with highly conserved physiological pathways  
90 in mitochondria (Figure 1A) (11, 12), providing *a priori* predictions about the potential molecular  
91 mechanisms underlying adaptation to this strong source of selection. Toxic effects of H<sub>2</sub>S result  
92 from binding to and inhibition of cytochrome c oxidase (COX) in the oxidative phosphorylation  
93 (OxPhos) pathway, which contains subunits encoded in both the nuclear and the mitochondrial  
94 genomes (13). Animal cells can also detoxify low concentrations of endogenously produced H<sub>2</sub>S via  
95 the mitochondrial sulfide:quinone oxidoreductase (SQR) pathway, which is linked to OxPhos but  
96 entirely encoded in the nuclear genome (14). We have previously shown that genes associated with  
97 both pathways are under divergent selection and differentially expressed between fish populations in  
98 sulfidic and nonsulfidic habitats (10). These include nuclear and mitochondrial genes encoding  
99 subunits of the direct toxicity target (COX) and the nuclear gene encoding the enzyme mediating the  
100 first step of detoxification (SQR) (10). Tolerance to H<sub>2</sub>S may therefore be mediated by resistance  
101 (modification of toxicity targets that reduce the negative impact of H<sub>2</sub>S), regulation (modification of  
102 physiological pathways that maintain H<sub>2</sub>S homeostasis), or both (9).

103 Based on these previous results, we hypothesized that the repeated modification of enzymes  
104 in the OxPhos and SQR pathways in *P. mexicana* populations from sulfidic habitats leads to an  
105 increased ability to maintain mitochondrial function in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S. In the present study, we  
106 consequently used a series of *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays to identify the functional consequences of  
107 modifications to the OxPhos and SQR pathways in evolutionarily independent population pairs of  
108 *P. mexicana* from adjacent sulfidic and nonsulfidic habitats that are situated in different river

109 drainages. In addition, we hypothesized that convergent molecular modifications in the same  
110 pathways underlie the convergent evolution of H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance across different lineages of poeciliid  
111 fishes. Hence, we also used phylogenetic comparative analyses of gene expression and analyses of  
112 molecular evolution to detect patterns of molecular convergence in 10 lineages of sulfide spring  
113 poeciliids and ancestors from nonsulfidic habitats.

114

## 115 **Results and Discussion**

### 116 ***Sulfide spring P. mexicana exhibit a resistant toxicity target***

117 If resistance is the primary mechanism of tolerance, we would predict that COX function is  
118 maintained in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S in fish from sulfidic populations, but not those from nonsulfidic  
119 populations. Quantification of COX function indicated that enzyme activity generally declined with  
120 increasing H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations, but this decline was reduced in populations from sulfidic habitats  
121 (Figure 1B; habitat × H<sub>2</sub>S:  $P < 0.001$ , Table S3). Even though the drainage of origin was not retained  
122 as an explanatory variable in statistical models (SI Appendix, Table S2), COX activity in one H<sub>2</sub>S-  
123 tolerant population (Tac) declined just as in nonsulfidic populations (Figure 1B). The other two *P.*  
124 *mexicana* populations from sulfidic habitats (Puy and Pich) maintained significant COX activity even  
125 at the highest H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations, which should reduce the negative impact of H<sub>2</sub>S on cellular  
126 respiration. These results are consistent with previous analyses (15) and indicate that resistance may  
127 contribute to H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance in some populations, but cannot explain the repeated evolution of H<sub>2</sub>S  
128 tolerance by itself.

129

### 130 ***Sulfide spring P. mexicana can regulate mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>S through increased detoxification***

131 We also tested whether tolerant and intolerant populations differ in their ability to detoxify H<sub>2</sub>S by  
132 conducting enzyme activity assays of SQR. Activity of SQR was significantly higher in mitochondria

133 from sulfidic populations at intermediate and high H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations (Figure 1C; habitat × H<sub>2</sub>S: *P*  
134 < 0.001 in SI Appendix, Table S5), likely helping fish from sulfidic habitats to maintain H<sub>2</sub>S  
135 homeostasis during environmental exposure. To test this prediction *in vivo*, we used a novel  
136 mitochondria-specific H<sub>2</sub>S-probe (MitoA) that allows for the monitoring of relative H<sub>2</sub>S levels inside  
137 the mitochondria of living organisms (16). We measured mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations in this  
138 manner using laboratory-reared fish that were exposed to varying levels of environmental H<sub>2</sub>S.  
139 Because laboratory-reared fish were not available for the population pair from Pich, only two  
140 population pairs were used for this analysis. Overall, mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations increased  
141 with environmental exposure (*P* = 0.001) and was higher in fish from non-sulfidic habitats (*P* <  
142 0.001 in SI Appendix, Table S7). H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations in mitochondria isolated from livers (Figure  
143 1D) and other organs (SI Appendix, Figure S2) of fish from nonsulfidic habitats increased above  
144 control levels at all exposure concentrations. In contrast, mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations in  
145 isolates of fish from sulfidic populations did not usually exceed control levels and remained lower  
146 than levels in fish from nonsulfidic habitats. Together, these results indicate that populations of *P.*  
147 *mexicana* from sulfidic habitats can detoxify H<sub>2</sub>S at higher rates and thus regulate mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>S  
148 upon environmental exposure.

149

### 150 ***Sulfide spring P. mexicana can maintain mitochondrial function in presence of H<sub>2</sub>S***

151 Modification of the OxPhos and SQR pathways in *P. mexicana* suggests that mitochondrial  
152 adaptations are key to the evolution of H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance. Therefore, mitochondrial function of fish  
153 from sulfidic habitats should be maintained upon exposure to H<sub>2</sub>S. We tested this hypothesis by  
154 quantifying different aspects of mitochondrial function (basal respiration, maximal respiration, and  
155 spare respiratory capacity) along a gradient of H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations using an *ex vivo* coupling assay. As  
156 expected, all aspects of mitochondrial function generally declined with increasing H<sub>2</sub>S (Figures 1E;

157 SI Appendix, S3-S5). Comparison of mitochondrial function between adjacent populations in  
158 sulfidic and nonsulfidic habitats indicated no differences in basal respiration (SI Appendix, Figure  
159 S3). However, individuals from sulfidic populations were able to maintain maximal respiration and  
160 spare respiratory capacity at higher levels compared to individuals from nonsulfidic habitats of the  
161 same river drainage (Figure 1E), even though the magnitude of difference and the shape of response  
162 curves varied (SI Appendix; significant drainage  $\times$  habitat interactions in Tables S10 & S12, Figures  
163 S4-S5). These findings indicate that mitochondria of H<sub>2</sub>S-tolerant individuals continue to produce  
164 ATP in the presence of a potent inhibitor that reduces mitochondrial function in ancestral lineages.

165 Overall, our quantitative analyses indicate clear patterns of convergence in functional  
166 physiological traits associated with H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance. Nonetheless, further inspection of the results also  
167 reveals lineage-specific patterns (especially in H<sub>2</sub>S-dependent COX activity and mitochondrial  
168 respiration), indicating that evolutionary responses across lineages are similar but not necessarily  
169 identical. These idiosyncrasies are consistent with the results of previous comparative transcriptome  
170 analyses, which revealed a large number of genes that are under selection or differentially expressed  
171 in just a subset of lineages in addition to genes that are consistently differentially expressed and  
172 under selection across all lineages (17-19). Based on their functions, the OxPhos and SQR pathways  
173 undoubtedly include some major-effect genes influencing H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance in different populations of  
174 *P. mexicana*, but tolerance—as an emergent physiological trait—is a complex trait impacted by other  
175 genes as well. In the future, quantitative genetic analyses will be required to understand how other  
176 loci contribute to tolerance within each lineage, and how population-specific patterns of genetic  
177 differentiation might shape variation in functional physiology evident in our data.

178

179 ***Convergence among P. mexicana populations is shaped by selection on de novo mutations***  
180 ***and standing genetic variation***



181 The convergent evolution of H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance in *P. mexicana* begs questions about the origin of adaptive  
182 alleles (20). At microevolutionary scales, convergence may be a consequence of the repeated  
183 assembly of related alleles into different genomic backgrounds, either through selection on standing  
184 genetic variation or introgression (21, 22). However, the epitome of convergent evolution is,  
185 arguably, the independent origin of adaptive mutations at the same locus that lead to consistent  
186 functional outcomes (23). To identify convergence at a genomic level, we re-sequenced whole  
187 genomes of multiple *P. mexicana* individuals from sulfidic and nonsulfidic habitats. Analyzing  
188 phylogenetic relationship among *P. mexicana* populations (with *P. reticulata* as an outgroup) using  
189 13,390,303 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) distributed across the genome confirmed three  
190 independent colonization events of sulfide springs and distinct evolutionary trajectories for sulfide  
191 spring populations in different drainages (Figure 2A), as inferred by previous studies (24). If adaptive  
192 alleles arose separately through *de novo* mutation in each sulfide spring population, we would expect  
193 that putative adaptive alleles mirror these relationships, as previously documented for H<sub>2</sub>S-resistant  
194 alleles in mitochondrial *COX* subunits (15). However, patterns of divergence (SI Appendix, Figure  
195 S6) and local ancestry were highly variable across the genome. Classifying local patterns of genetic  
196 similarity using a Hidden Markov Model and a self-organizing map allowed us to identify genomic  
197 regions in which ancestry patterns deviate from the genome-wide consensus, including multiple  
198 regions with a strong signal of clustering by ecotype (sulfidic *vs.* nonsulfidic populations). Such  
199 clustering by ecotype occurred in less than 1 % of the genome (SI Appendix, Figure S7), but  
200 included genomic regions encoding key genes associated with H<sub>2</sub>S detoxification (e.g., *SQR* and  
201 *ETHE1*; Figure 2B; SI Appendix, Dataset S2). Clustering by ecotype indicates a monophyletic origin  
202 of putatively adaptive alleles at these loci that are shared across independent lineages of sulfide  
203 spring *P. mexicana* as a consequence of selection on standing genetic variation or introgression (25),  
204 although the latter scenario is less likely considering the geographic barriers and strong survival

205 selection against migrants from sulfidic to nonsulfidic habitats (26). Consequently, multiple  
206 mechanisms—not just selection on *de novo* mutations (19)—played a role in the convergent evolution  
207 of H<sub>2</sub>S-tolerance in *P. mexicana*.

208

209 ***Convergent modifications of toxicity targets and detoxification pathways are evident at***  
210 ***macroevolutionary scales***

211 While selection on standing genetic variation and introgression can contribute to convergent  
212 evolution at microevolutionary scales, adaptive alleles are unlikely to be shared among lineages at  
213 macroevolutionary scales due to high phylogenetic and geographic distances separating gene pools  
214 (27). Absence of convergence in molecular mechanisms at broader phylogenetic scales might  
215 indicate the importance of contingency in evolution, as asserted by Gould (3). In contrast, the  
216 presence of convergence would indicate that fundamental constraints limit the number of solutions  
217 for a functional problem (28).

218 We used phylogenetic comparative analyses of gene expression and analyses of molecular  
219 evolution to detect patterns of molecular convergence in 10 lineages of sulfide spring poeciliids and  
220 ancestors in nonsulfidic habitats (Figure S1). This included members of five genera that span over  
221 40 million years of divergence and occur in different biogeographic contexts (SI Appendix, Figure  
222 S1). We found evidence for convergence in both gene expression and sequence evolution. Variation  
223 in overall gene expression was strongly influenced by phylogenetic relationships (Figure 3A).  
224 However, 186 genes exhibited significant evidence for convergent expression shifts in sulfide spring  
225 fishes (Figure 3B; SI Appendix, Dataset S3), segregating lineages based on habitat type of origin,  
226 irrespective of phylogenetic relationships (Figure 3C). The only outlier was *Limia sulphurophila*, which  
227 clustered with nonsulfidic lineages despite significant expression differences with its sister, *L.*  
228 *perugiae*. Functional annotation indicated that genes with convergent expression shifts were enriched

229 for biological processes associated with H<sub>2</sub>S detoxification (SQR pathway, Figure 3D), the  
230 processing of sulfur compounds, and H<sub>2</sub>S toxicity targets in OxPhos (SI Appendix, Figure S8, Table  
231 S14).

232 We also identified 11 genes with elevated nonsynonymous to synonymous substitution rates  
233 across the phylogeny, including three mitochondrial genes that encode subunits of H<sub>2</sub>S's toxicity  
234 target (*COX1* and *COX3*) and OxPhos complex III (*CYTB*; Dataset S4). Most amino acid  
235 substitutions in *COX1* and *COX3* occurred in a lineage-specific fashion, but convergent  
236 substitutions across clades occurred at six codons in *COX1* and two codons in *COX3* (Figure 4).  
237 These findings suggest that modifications of H<sub>2</sub>S toxicity targets and detoxification pathways are not  
238 only critical in the evolution of H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance in *P. mexicana*, but they have evolved in convergence in  
239 other lineages that were exposed to the same source of selection.

240

## 241 **Conclusions**

242 We capitalized on past evolutionary genetics studies that compared *P. mexicana* populations from  
243 sulfidic and nonsulfidic environments (10) to test hypotheses about functional ramifications of  
244 genetic differences and their impact on organismal performance. As predicted, we found that the  
245 repeated evolution of H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance in independent *P. mexicana* populations is mediated both by  
246 modifications of a direct toxicity target (causing increased resistance to H<sub>2</sub>S) and a pathway involved  
247 in detoxification (causing an increased ability to regulate mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>S). Similar modifications  
248 to COX and SQR have been hypothesized to mediate H<sub>2</sub>S adaptation in other groups of organisms  
249 (29-31), but the evolutionary context and the consequences for mitochondrial function in these  
250 cases remained unknown. Overall, our analyses indicated that closely related populations can exhibit  
251 substantial differences in what we assume to be highly conserved physiological pathways associated  
252 with the function of mitochondria. Modification of mitochondrial processes consequently can be

253 critical in mediating adaptation to different environmental conditions at microevolutionary scales,  
254 underscoring the long overlooked role of mitochondria in adaptive evolution (6).

255 Our comparative transcriptome analyses across a broader sampling of sulfide spring fishes  
256 further indicated that colonization of novel niches with extreme environmental conditions can arise  
257 through the convergent modification of conserved physiological pathways. The convergent  
258 evolution of high H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance across species is the result of repeated and predicted modifications  
259 of the same physiological pathways, genes, and—in some instances—codons associated with  
260 mitochondrial function. This convergence at multiple levels of biological organization is likely a  
261 consequence of constraint, because the explicit biochemical and physiological consequences of H<sub>2</sub>S  
262 limit the ways organisms can cope with its toxicity (32, 33). Due to these constraints, molecular  
263 convergence is not only evident at microevolutionary scales, where selection can repeatedly assemble  
264 related alleles into different genomic backgrounds, but also at macroevolutionary scales including  
265 lineages separated by over 40 million years of evolution.

266 That said, there is an inordinate amount of genetic and gene expression variation that  
267 seemingly varies idiosyncratically across different lineages. In comparative analyses of highly  
268 quantitative traits (such as H<sub>2</sub>S tolerance), there is an inherent bias to emphasize the importance of  
269 shared modifications in adaptation, while we tend to dismiss lineage-specific patterns as noise. But  
270 how lineage-specific genetic and gene expression variation interacts with molecular mechanisms that  
271 have evolved in convergence remains largely unknown for most study systems. So, if we replayed  
272 the tape of life, the same characters may make an appearance in the same setting, but the overall  
273 plots may still unfold in very different ways when many characters are part of the story.

274

275 **Methods**

276 The following sections provide a synopsis of the procedures used in this study. Detailed materials  
277 and methods are provided in an SI Appendix.

278

### 279 *Sampling*

280 Samples of *P. mexicana* for comparative biochemical and physiological analyses were collected from  
281 three population pairs from the Tacotalpa (Tac), Puyacatengo (Puy), and Pichucalco (Pich) drainages  
282 in Mexico, each including evolutionarily independent H<sub>2</sub>S-tolerant and ancestral, intolerant  
283 population (Table S1) (34). With the exception of measurements of mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>S levels, which  
284 were conducted with common-garden-reared individuals, all assays were conducted with specimens  
285 collected in the field. For macroevolutionary analyses of convergence, we collected specimens from  
286 multiple species that have independently colonized H<sub>2</sub>S-rich springs in the United States, Mexico,  
287 and the island of Hispaniola, as well as from geographically and phylogenetically proximate lineages  
288 in nonsulfidic habitats. Our sampling included populations of *Poecilia latipinna* and *Gambusia holbrooki*  
289 in Florida; populations of the *Poecilia mexicana* species complex (including *Poecilia mexicana*, *Poecilia*  
290 *sulphuraria*, and *Poecilia limantouri*), the *Gambusia sexradiata* species complex (including *G. sexradiata* and  
291 *Gambusia eurystoma*), *Pseudoxiphophorus bimaculatus*, and *Xiphophorus hellerii* in Mexico; as well as  
292 populations of the *Limia perugiae* species complex (*L. perugiae* and *Limia sulphurophila*) in the  
293 Dominican Republic (see Table S1).

294

### 295 *Measurements of enzyme activity*

296 Measurements of COX and SQR activities were conducted using isolated mitochondria from three  
297 *P. mexicana* population pairs and followed previously established methods. COX activity was  
298 quantified by measuring decrease in absorbance at 550 nm resulting from the protein's oxidation of  
299 reduced cytochrome c (35, 36). Samples were assayed along a gradient of H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations

300 between 0 and 0.9  $\mu\text{M}$ . SQR activity was quantified by measuring the reduction of decyl-ubiquinone  
301 (37) along a gradient of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations between 0 and 100  $\mu\text{M}$ . Variation in enzyme activity for  
302 analyzed using linear mixed-effects models to estimate the effects of habitat type of origin (sulfidic  
303 vs. nonsulfidic), drainage, and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration. Alternative models were assessed by using Akaike  
304 Information Criteria with finite sample correction ( $\text{AIC}_c$ ) (38).

305

### 306 *Measurements of mitochondrial $\text{H}_2\text{S}$*

307  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  exposure experiments and measurement of mitochondrial  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  were conducted using common-  
308 garden-raised F1 individuals from two population pairs (Tac and Puy). We used a mitochondria-  
309 specific  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  probe (MitoA) that can be injected into living organisms, where it accumulates within  
310 mitochondria due to its unique chemical structure (16). Inside mitochondria, MitoA reacts with  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$   
311 and is converted to MitoN. The ratio of MitoN/MitoA can be quantified using liquid  
312 chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry and serve as a metric of mitochondrial  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . We  
313 used a MitoA protocol specifically validated for *P. mexicana* (39). Fish injected with MitoA were  
314 exposed to different environmental  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentrations for 5 hours. Gill, liver, brain, and muscle  
315 tissues were sampled from fish and use for the quantification of MitoN/MitoA ratios. Standardized  
316 MitoN/MitoA ratios were analyzed using linear mixed-effects models with habitat type of origin,  
317 drainage, and ambient  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  concentration as predictor variables. Alternative models were assessed by  
318 using Akaike Information Criteria with finite sample correction ( $\text{AIC}_c$ ).

319

### 320 *Measurements of mitochondrial function*

321 Mitochondrial function was measured in mitochondria isolated from livers from three *P. mexicana*  
322 population pairs. Mitochondrial function was assayed using a Seahorse XFe96 Extracellular Flux  
323 Analyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), which allows for the quantification of

324 oxygen consumption rates (OCR) of isolated mitochondria in 96-well plates (40). Measuring  
325 mitochondrial OCR in presence of different substrates and inhibitors allows for the quantification of  
326 a variety of mitochondrial functions (41), and we measured basal respiration, maximal respiration,  
327 and spare respiratory capacity as indicators of mitochondrial function across a range of H<sub>2</sub>S  
328 concentrations between 0 and 90 μM. To compare responses in mitochondrial function to H<sub>2</sub>S  
329 between sulfidic and nonsulfidic populations, we employed a drug response analysis, where separate  
330 n-parameter logistic regressions were fit for each mitochondrial isolate with the metrics of  
331 mitochondrial function (basal respiration, maximal respiration, and spare capacity) as dependent  
332 variables and H<sub>2</sub>S concentration as independent variable (42). For each model, we quantified the  
333 area under the curve (AUC) based on Simpson's rule, and higher AUC values represent an increased  
334 ability to maintain mitochondrial function in the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S. AUC values inferred for different  
335 mitochondrial isolates were then used as a dependent variable in linear models, with habitat type of  
336 origin and drainage as predictor variables. Alternative models were assessed by using Akaike  
337 Information Criteria with finite sample correction (AIC<sub>c</sub>).

338

### 339 *Comparative genomics and local ancestry analysis*

340 To test hypotheses about the origin of putatively adaptive alleles, we re-analyzed data from Brown et  
341 al. (25), which included whole-genome sequences from all sites known to harbor H<sub>2</sub>S-tolerant  
342 populations of the *P. mexicana* species complex ( $N=5$ ) as well as adjacent nonsulfidic habitats ( $N=5$ ;  
343 Table S1). Raw reads were mapped to the *Xiphophorus maculatus* reference genome (43), and we called  
344 SNPs using Genome Analysis Toolkit (44). Local ancestry patterns were identified with Saguaro (45),  
345 which uses a combination of a Hidden Markov Model and a self-organizing map to build 'cacti'  
346 (matrices of pairwise genetic distance between samples) that describe phylogenetic relationships

347 among samples in specific genomic regions. Saguaro was executed for 29 iterations, which resulted  
348 in 30 cacti describing local ancestry patterns for segments of the genome.

349

350 *Comparative transcriptomics, phylogenetic comparative analyses, and molecular evolution*

351 For comparative transcriptomic analyses, we isolated RNA from gills for 5-6 individuals each from  
352 10 sulfidic and 10 non-sulfidic lineages distributed across multiple genera in the family Poeciliidae.  
353 Raw reads from transcriptome sequencing were mapped to the *Poecilia mexicana* reference genome  
354 (46), and the number of RNA-seq reads mapped to each gene was determined for each individual  
355 using cufflinks (47). To analyze patterns of gene expression across lineages, we used a phylogenetic  
356 comparative approach for analyzing gene expression variation to explicitly account for the effects of  
357 evolutionary relationships. Specifically, we used individual-level expression data of the top 5,000  
358 expressed genes as dependent variables in Expression Variance and Evolution (EVE) models that  
359 identify genes exhibiting convergent shifts in expression upon the colonization of sulfidic habitats  
360 based on a phylogeny of focal taxa (58, 59). To identify genes with potential structural or functional  
361 changes in lineages from sulfidic habitats, we analyzed patterns of molecular evolution in protein  
362 coding genes included in the analysis of gene expression. For each gene, we generated a consensus  
363 sequences for all exons across individuals from the same populations and then used branch models  
364 implemented in the program codeml from the PAML package to test for evidence of positive  
365 selection (48).

366

### 367 **Acknowledgements**

368 We thank the Centro de Investigación e Innovación para la Enseñanza y Aprendizaje (CIIEA), O.  
369 Cornejo, T. Morgan, D. Petrov, R. Rohlf, and N. Rohner for their help. This work was supported  
370 by grants from the National Science Foundation (IOS-1463720, IOS-1557795, IOS-1557860, IOS-



371 1931657 to JHS, JLK, and MT), the US Army Research Office (W911NF-15-1-0175, W911NF-16-  
372 1-0225 to JLK and MT), the Medical Research Council UK (MC\_U105663142 to MPM), and by a  
373 Wellcome Trust Investigator Award (110159/Z/15/Z to MPM).

374

### 375 **Author contributions**

376 Conceptualization: RG, NB, CH, JHS, JLK, MT; Funding: MPM, JHS, JLK, MT; Fieldwork: RG,  
377 NB, APB, LAR, CMRP, JLK, MT; Functional analyses: NB, CH, SA, GYL, MPM, LW, DL, JHS,  
378 MT; Genomics and transcriptomics: RG, APB, JLK, MT; Data analysis: RG, NB, CH, APB, JLK,  
379 MT; Writing original draft: RG, NB, JLK, MT; Writing, reviewing, editing: all authors.

380

### 381 **Data sharing**

382 Data and code associated with biochemical and physiological analyses are available on GitHub  
383 ([github.com/michitobler/convergent\\_h2s\\_evolution](https://github.com/michitobler/convergent_h2s_evolution)). All sequence data is available at NCBI under  
384 BioProject numbers PRJNA473350 and PRJNA608180.

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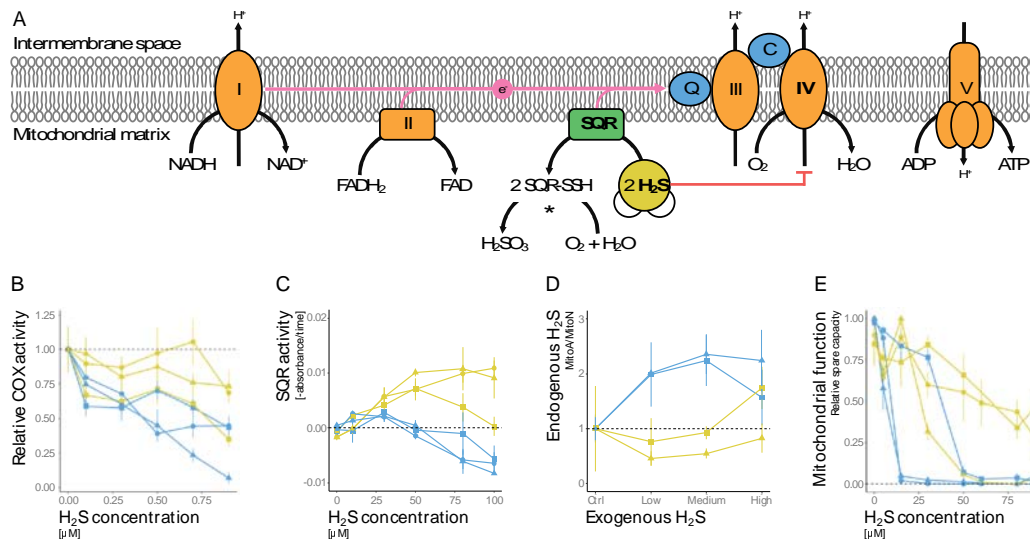
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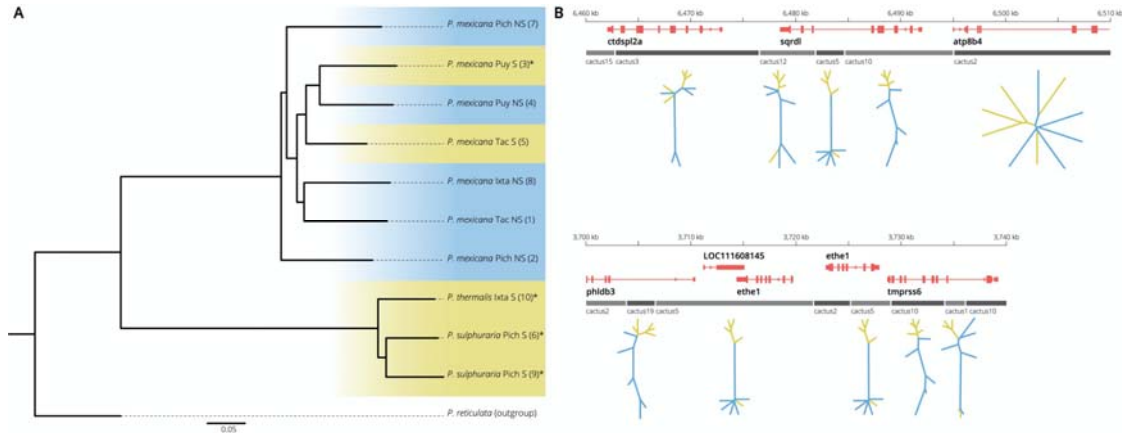
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493  
 494 **Figure 1.A.** Physiological pathways associated with H<sub>2</sub>S toxicity and detoxification are located in the  
 495 inner mitochondrial membrane. H<sub>2</sub>S inhibits OxPhos (orange enzymes, encoded by genes in the  
 496 mitochondrial and nuclear genomes) by binding to COX (Complex IV). H<sub>2</sub>S can be detoxified  
 497 through SQR (green enzyme, encoded by genes in the nuclear genome) and additional enzymes  
 498 (indicated by asterisks). **B.** Relative activity of COX upon H<sub>2</sub>S exposure, which was primarily  
 499 explained by an interaction between habitat type of origin and ambient H<sub>2</sub>S concentration (Tables  
 500 S2-S3). **C.** Activity of SQR as a function of H<sub>2</sub>S concentration, which was explained by an  
 501 interaction between habitat type of origin and H<sub>2</sub>S concentration (Tables S4-S5). **D.** Relative change  
 502 in mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>S concentrations in the liver of live fish exposed to different levels of  
 503 environmental H<sub>2</sub>S. Variation in mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>S levels were explained by habitat type of origin  
 504 and exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S concentration (Tables S6-S7). **E.** Relative spare respiratory capacity of isolated  
 505 liver mitochondria at different levels of H<sub>2</sub>S. The interaction between habitat type of origin and  
 506 drainage of origin best explained variation in spare respiratory capacity (Tables S11-S12). For all  
 507 graphs, yellow colors denote *P. mexivana* from H<sub>2</sub>S-rich habitats, blue from nonsulfidic habitats.  
 508 Symbols stand for populations from different river drainages (■: Tac; ▲: Puy; ●: Pich; see Figure  
 509 S1).



510

511 **Figu**

*ata*

512 as an outgroup) based on genome-wide SNPs. Colors indicate sulfidic (yellow) and nonsulfidic (blue)

513 lineages. **B.** Local ancestry patterns around genes encoding two enzymes involved in H<sub>2</sub>S

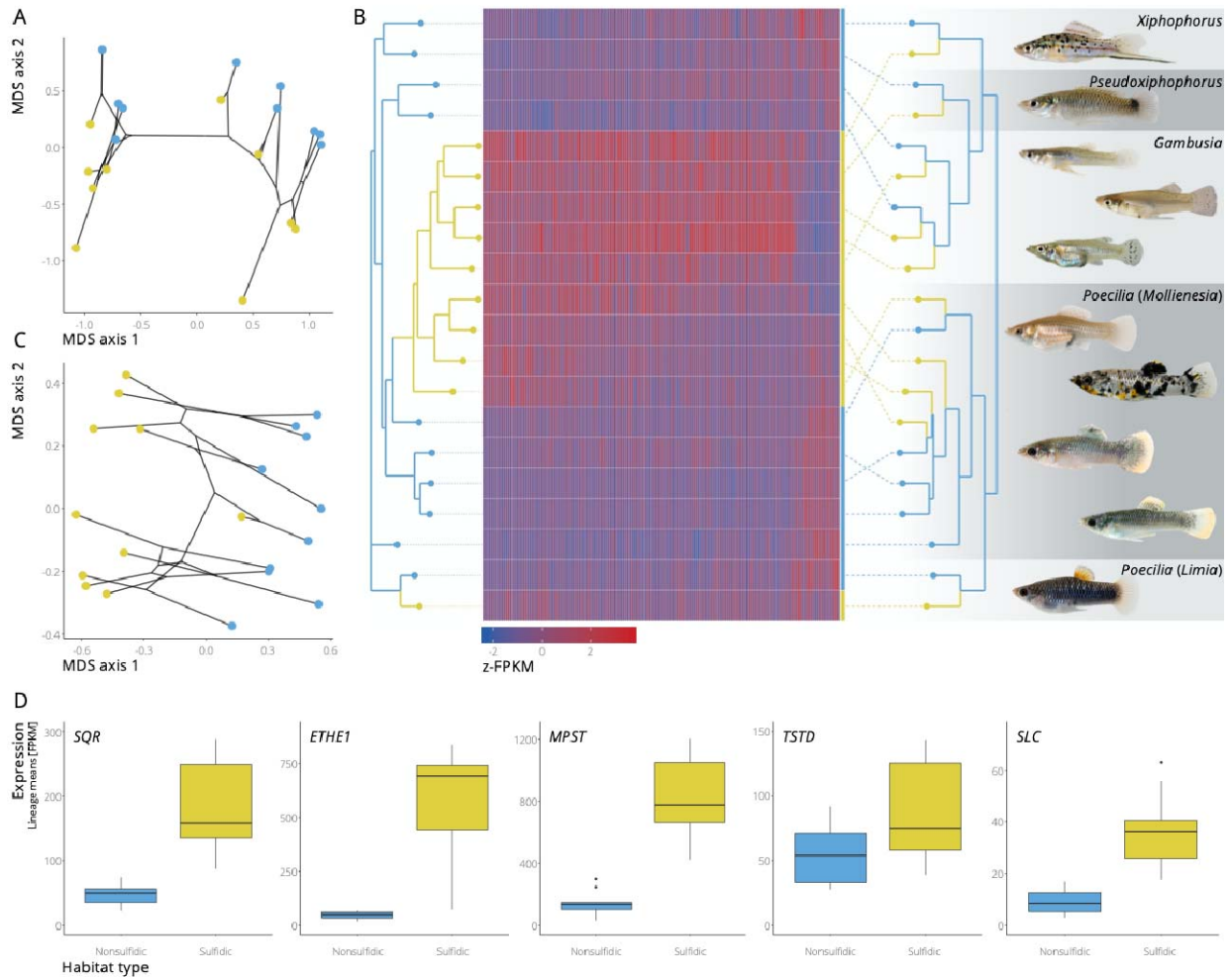
514 detoxification, *SQR* and *ETHE1*. Gray bars represent the local ancestry pattern (cactus) associated

515 with each region. Unrooted trees represent local ancestry relationships, with sulfidic lineages colored

516 in yellow and nonsulfidic lineages in blue. Cacti 10 and 19 show clear clustering by ecotype. In cacti

517 1, 5, and 12, four of five sulfidic individuals cluster together.

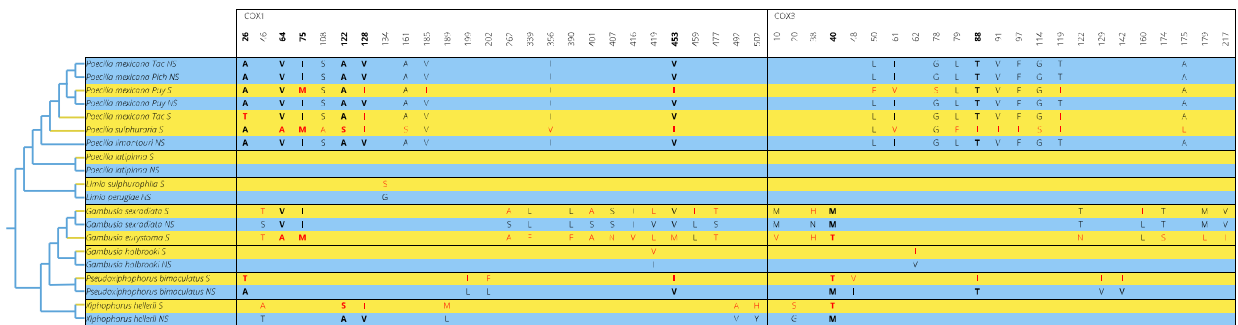
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520 **Figure 3.A.** Multidimensional scaling (MDS) plot of overall gene expression patterns across 20  
 521 lineages of poeciliid fishes. Black lines represent phylogenetic relationships among lineages; color  
 522 represents habitat type of origin (yellow: sulfidic; blue: nonsulfidic). **B.** Expression variation of 186  
 523 genes with evidence for convergent expression shifts ( $\alpha$ -transformed FPKM, Fragments Per  
 524 Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads). Colors represent expression levels as indicated by  
 525 the scale. The neighbor-joining tree on the left groups species based on expression similarity. The  
 526 cladogram on the right shows the phylogenetic relationship among lineages. Pictures on the side are  
 527 examples of sulfide spring fishes (from top to bottom): *X. hellerii*, *P. bimaculatus*, *G. holbrooki*, *G.*  
 528 *sexradiata*, *G. eurystoma*, *P. latipinna*, *P. sulphuraria* (Pich), *P. mexicana* (Tae), *P. mexicana* (Puy), and *L.*

529 *sulphurophila*. **C.** MDS plot of the expression of 186 genes with evidence for convergent expression  
530 shifts. **D.** Boxplot with mean expression levels of different components of the SQR pathway across  
531 lineages from sulfidic (yellow) and nonsulfidic (blue) habitats.  
532



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534

535 nonsulfidic (blue) habitats. Derived amino acids are shown in red. Bold letters indicate codons with

536 convergent amino acid substitutions in different clades (separated by black horizontal lines) of

537 sulfide spring fishes.