

1 **Hybridization and a mixture of small and large-effect loci facilitate adaptive radiation**

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3 Rishi De-Kayne^{1,2,3}, Oliver M. Selz¹, David A. Marques^{1,2,4}, David Frei^{1,2}, Ole Seehausen^{1,2}, & Philine
4 G. D. Feulner^{1,2,*}

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6 1. Department of Fish Ecology and Evolution, Centre of Ecology, Evolution and Biogeochemistry,
7 EAWAG Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology, Switzerland

8 2. Division of Aquatic Ecology and Evolution, Institute of Ecology and Evolution, University of Bern,
9 Switzerland

10 3. Institute for Evolutionary Biology, University of Edinburgh, UK

11 4. Natural History Museum Basel, Switzerland

12 * Corresponding author

13 **Abstract**

14 Adaptive radiations represent some of the most remarkable explosions of diversification across the
15 tree of life. However, the constraints to rapid diversification and how they are sometimes overcome,
16 particularly the relative roles of genetic architecture and hybridization, remain unclear. Here, we
17 address these questions in the Alpine whitefish radiation, using a whole-genome dataset that includes
18 multiple individuals of each of the 22 species belonging to six ecologically distinct ecomorph classes
19 across several lake-systems. We reveal that repeated ecological and morphological diversification
20 along a common environmental axis is associated with both genome-wide allele frequency shifts and
21 a specific, larger effect, locus, associated with the gene *edar*. Additionally, we highlight the role of
22 introgression between species from different lake-systems in facilitating the evolution and persistence
23 of species with unique phenotypic combinations and ecology. These results highlight the role of both
24 genome architecture and secondary contact with hybridization in fuelling adaptive radiation.

25 **Introduction**

26 Understanding the genetic basis of speciation and adaptive radiation without geographic isolation, and
27 determining how and when such diversification is possible, is a key aim of evolutionary biology.
28 Speciation with gene flow often occurs in the form of ecological speciation. During this process,
29 reproductive isolation results from divergent ecological selection, or ecologically-mediated, sexual
30 selection^{1,2}. Despite the supposed prevalence of ecological speciation in adaptive radiation, the
31 factors that constrain or facilitate speciation and the mechanisms by which speciation proceeds during
32 the adaptive radiation of lineages are still not well understood^{3,4}. Studying the identity and genomic
33 distribution of loci involved in ecological speciation, particularly in cases where parallel
34 ecomorphological contrasts have arisen multiple times, is one way to address these questions.

35 Using such approaches, studies have already highlighted the prevalence of either strongly
36 differentiated genomic ‘islands’ of differentiation^{5–10} or genome-wide polygenic architectures of
37 phenotypic differentiation and ecological speciation^{11–15}. Both of these architectures on their own
38 constrain speciation with gene flow in different ways. In the former scenario, reproductive isolation
39 may be unlikely to evolve because the chance that loci under divergent selection will be linked to a
40 trait that causes reproductive isolation is slim, and a genome-wide correlated response to divergent
41 selection is lacking^{16,17}. Polymorphism may therefore be a more likely outcome than speciation. In
42 the polygenic scenario, the strength of per-locus divergent selection is likely to be small and
43 insufficient to overcome the homogenising effects of gene flow¹⁸. Combinations of a larger number
44 of genome-wide small-effect loci and some large-effect loci, may therefore be most conducive for
45 overcoming constraints to speciation in the face of gene flow that result from either one of these
46 architectures alone^{4,7,19}.

47 In addition to specific genetic architectures, empirical^{20–24}, experimental^{25,26}, and theoretical
48^{27,28} investigations have implicated introgression between non-sister species as a process that may also
49 facilitate diversification and adaptive radiation. Since introgression generates novel combinations of
50 haplotypes, combining those from the distinct parental species, it may be possible that hybrid
51 populations are able to span fitness valleys and, in turn, occupy ecological niches that would
52 otherwise be inaccessible via stepwise adaptation²⁷. However, few studies have been able to link
53 ecological novelty with empirical signatures of introgression in the wild (but see^{22,29}).

54 The Alpine whitefish radiation contains over 30 species of the genus *Coregonus*, which have
55 evolved in small species flocks across multiple lake-systems in the last 10-15 thousand years^{30–36}.
56 Although whitefish have speciated in many postglacial lakes across the Northern hemisphere, species
57 flocks in pre-Alpine lakes are particularly diverse, and up to six whitefish species, with different
58 ecological strategies, exist in sympatry, and exhibit considerable phenotypic variation, including body
59 size, spawning depth and season, gill-raker count and length, and diet (Fig. 1a;^{30–33,36}). Across
60 multiple lake-systems, species from different species flocks have evolved similar ecological strategies
61 and phenotypes and as such have been categorised into ecomorphs based on these similarities³⁷.

62 Interestingly, a number of traits are correlated across the Alpine whitefish radiation, particularly
63 amongst widespread ecomorphs that have evolved in most species flocks. For example, deeper
64 spawning species tend to have higher gill-raker counts and smaller bodies than shallower spawning
65 species (Fig. 1b; Supplementary Fig. 1; ³⁸). However, in addition to these widespread ecomorph
66 trends, there are a number of less-widespread ecomorphs that have evolved just in one or few lakes
67 and exhibit different trait combinations, decoupled from this trend (for example deep spawning, small
68 bodied, species with few gill rakers). The fact that sympatric whitefish species flocks are thought to
69 have evolved independently within each lake-system ³⁵ provides the opportunity to identify
70 overarching genomic features that may have facilitated rapid diversification, including the rapid and
71 repeated evolution of similar ecomorphs, and the origin and persistence of species with new trait
72 combinations.

73 Here, we build on past work on adaptive radiations ^{39,40} to investigate the genetic basis of
74 diversification, and the ways in which, in the absence of geographical isolation, constraints to
75 speciation may have been overcome, within the Alpine whitefish radiation. We compiled whole-
76 genome sequences for 99 whitefish individuals, spanning 22 species belonging to six distinct
77 ecomorphs, from five pre-Alpine lake-systems (putative species flocks), and four outgroup species
78 (Fig. 1a; Fig. 1b; Supplementary File S1). We show that phenotypic diversification along water depth
79 gradients, which is independently repeated across five lake-systems ⁴¹, is underpinned by a mixed
80 genetic architecture that comprises both genome-wide differentiation and one locus with a larger
81 effect on phenotype. Additionally, our results suggest that secondary contact between species from
82 different species flocks, followed by interspecific hybridization has helped overcome constraints to
83 the evolution of additional niche specialists.

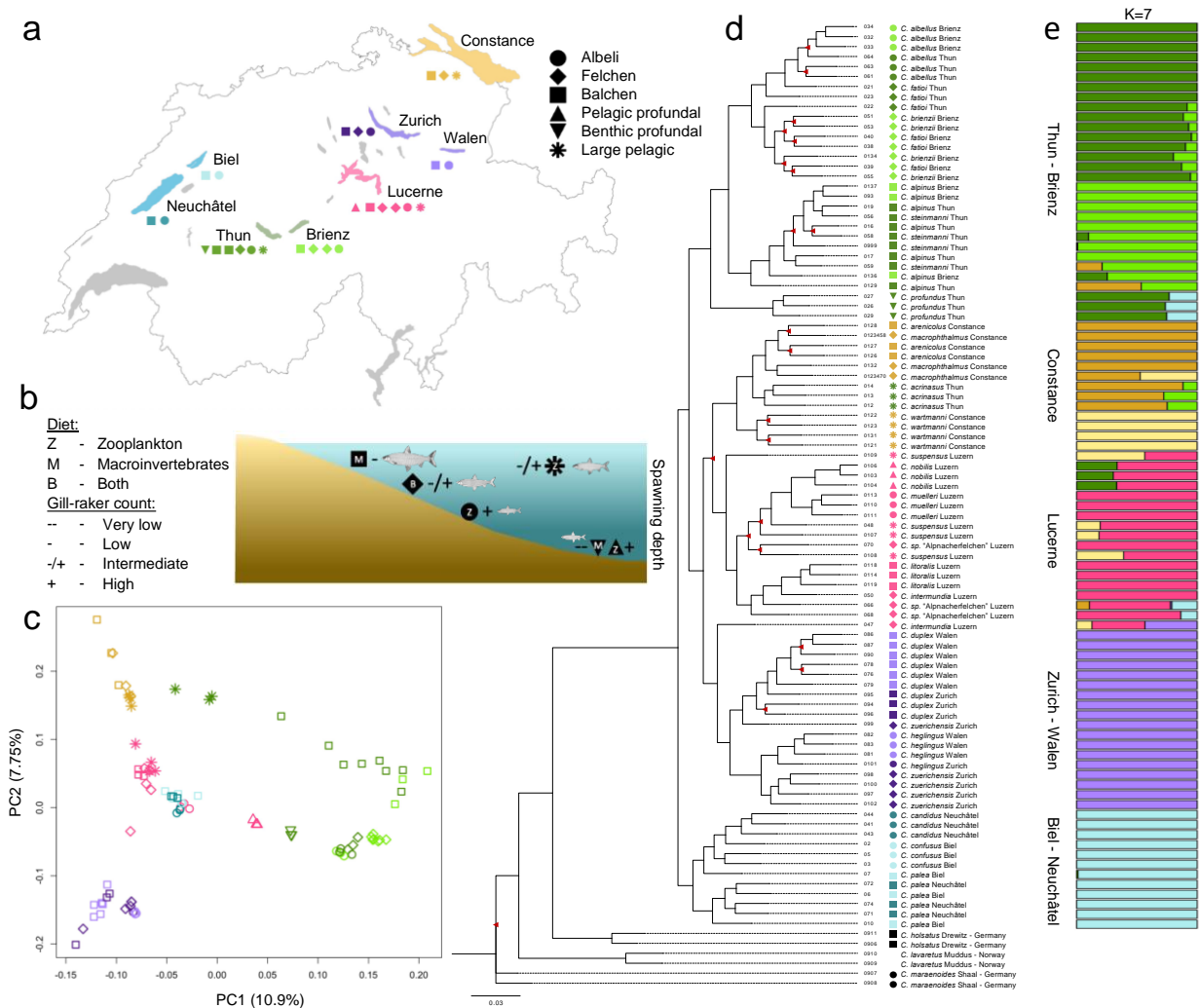
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85 **Results**

86 ***Phylogeny and population structure***

87 To understand how the Alpine whitefish radiation evolved and how the relationships between
88 sympatric species within flocks, and between ecologically similar species (belonging to the same
89 ecomorph) in different flocks, are structured, we produced a genomic PCA (Fig. 1c) and constructed a
90 phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1d). Our PCA and phylogeny confirm and expand upon results of earlier work
91 ³⁵ in demonstrating that the Alpine whitefish radiation is monophyletic with respect to non-Alpine
92 whitefish and European Cisco (*Coregonus albula*; not plotted), and, in general, each of the pre-Alpine
93 lake-systems sampled constitutes a reciprocally monophyletic species flock. Both the branching
94 patterns in the phylogeny and the results of our clustering analysis (Fig. 1d; Fig. 1e; K=7;
95 Supplementary Fig. 2; Supplementary Fig. 3) are concordant with the independent evolution of
96 sympatric species flocks within lakes or lake-systems, and hence the parallel evolution of species with
97 similar ecological strategies, i.e. ecomorphs. The one substantial deviation from this pattern of
98 reciprocal monophyly amongst lake-system species flocks is the placement of *C. acrinus*, which

99 phylogenetically belongs to the Lake Constance clade despite being endemic to Lake Thun (discussed
 100 below; also noted in ³⁵; in addition to a number of individuals with putative hybrid signatures).
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102
 103 *Figure 1. Lake-systems and species are genomically distinct across the Alpine whitefish radiation. a) A map of*
 104 *the Alpine whitefish species, assigned to ecomorphs, sampled from each of the pre-Alpine lake-systems*
 105 *including Constance (yellow), Zurich/Walen (purple), Lucerne (pink), Thun/Brienzi (green) and Biel/Neuchâtel*
 106 *(blue). b) A qualitative diagram showing the ecological characteristics of each whitefish ecomorph (represented*
 107 *by different symbols) including relative spawning depth (indicated by position in figure), diet (indicated by*
 108 *letter), and relative gill-raker count (indicated by +/- symbols); fish illustrations by Verena Kälin. c) A genomic*
 109 *PCA of all 91 Alpine whitefish based on a linkage-disequilibrium filtered SNP-set of 1,133,255 (a subset of our*
 110 *full 14,313,952 SNP dataset) which separates out the Thun/Brienzi system from all other lakes on PC1 and each*
 111 *of the other lake-systems from one another on PC2. d) A maximum likelihood RAxML phylogeny produced using*
 112 *a thinned subset of 1,692,559 SNPs from all 99 sequenced whitefish individuals (nodes have bootstrap support \geq*
 113 *95/100 unless highlighted with red triangles; outgroup samples with known ecomorph assignment are denoted*
 114 *with black symbols; for ease of viewing the most distantly related outgroup C. albula is pruned from this tree).*
 115 *e) An admixture analysis highlights the lake-system based population structure within the Alpine whitefish*

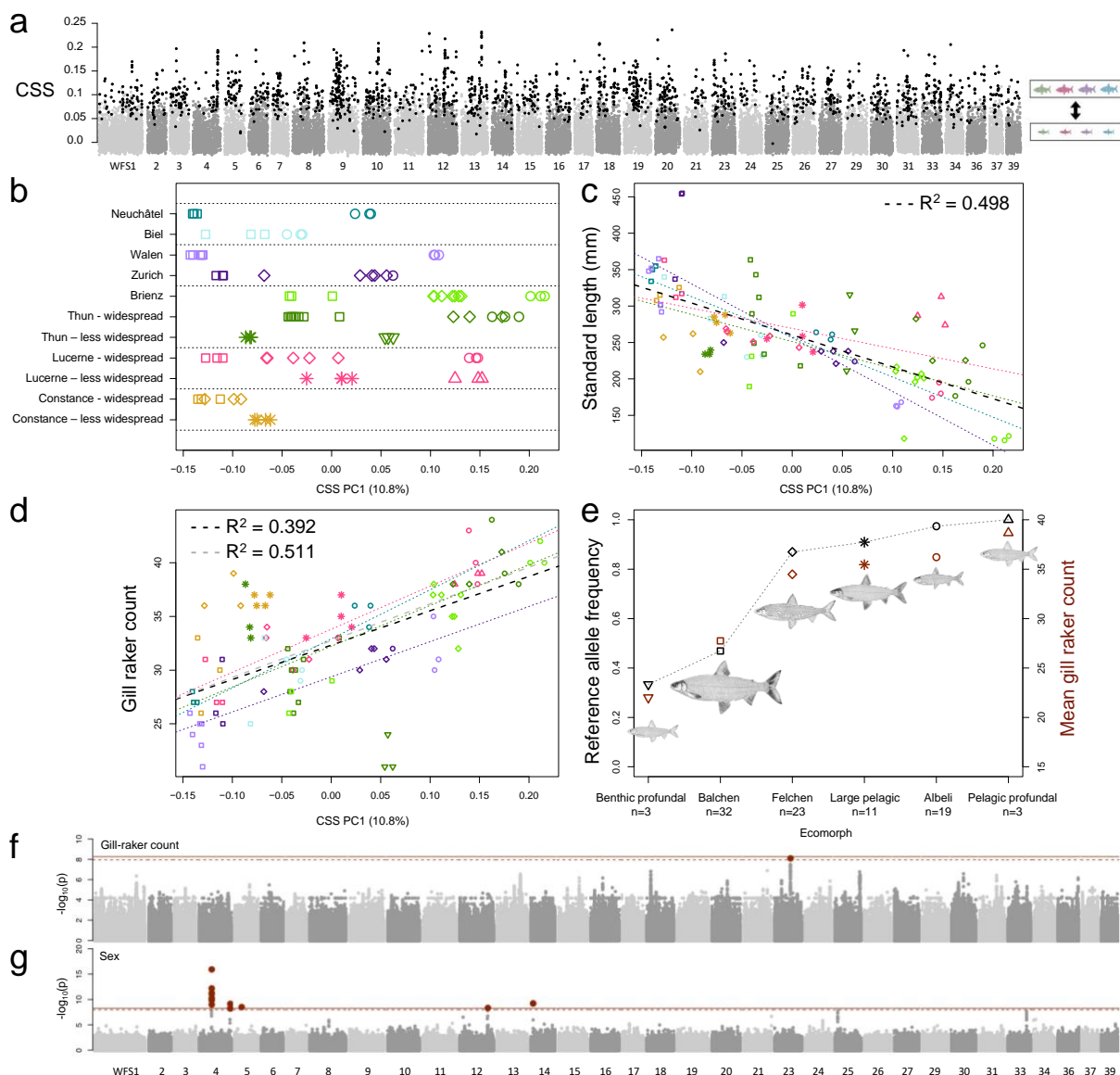
116 *radiation, and shows that sympatric whitefish species are each other's closest relatives (to best observe within*
117 *and between-lake-system level population structure, $K=7$ is shown; see Supplementary Fig. 2 for the range of*
118 *CV error associated with other values of K and Supplementary Fig. 3 for admixture proportions of individuals*
119 *from $K=2$ to $K=10$)*

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121 ***Parallel allele frequency shifts underpin repeated ecological differentiation***

122 Of the six whitefish ecomorph classes, the most widely distributed are the large, deep bodied, and
123 macro-invertivorous 'Balchen', the smaller, shallower bodied, and zooplanktivorous 'Albeli', and the
124 'Felchen', which have intermediate characteristics between these two ecomorphs (across these three
125 widespread ecomorphs, whitefish species exhibit correlated trait variation; Fig. 1b; Supplementary
126 Fig. 1). Our phylogeny indicates that within each lake, two genetically distinct lineages typically
127 emerged first, separating a 'Balchen' species from an 'Albeli' species or, if 'Felchen' species are
128 present, from the common ancestor of 'Albeli' species and 'Felchen' species (with the exception of
129 Lake Constance where no 'Albeli' species is present). These divergence events therefore happened
130 separately in each lake-system, and species belonging to these widespread ecomorphs evolved
131 independently in different lake-systems. To identify whether this parallel phenotypic differentiation
132 was underpinned by parallel allele-frequency shifts we first investigated four sympatric pairs of
133 'Balchen' and 'Albeli' species from lakes Brienz, Lucerne, Walen, and Neuchâtel. We subsetted our
134 full data set to include three 'Balchen' and three 'Albeli' individuals from each of these four lakes and
135 first analysed F4 statistics to confirm that indeed each sympatric species-pair represents a single
136 independently evolved species-pair (as in ⁴²). Topologies placing sympatric 'Balchen' and 'Albeli'
137 species as sister taxa in a four-taxon tree had consistently lower F4 statistics, indicative of a more
138 accurate topology, than topologies where the species of the same ecomorph from different lakes were
139 sister taxa (Supplementary Fig. 4). Then we calculated the cluster separation score (CSS) between the
140 ecomorph groups (i.e. individuals of the four 'Balchen' species were grouped together and individuals
141 of the four 'Albeli' species were grouped together; ^{43,44}; Fig. 2a), allowing the detection of signals of
142 parallel allele frequency differences between ecomorphs. The resulting 1659 50 kb CSS outlier
143 windows, which represented parallel allele frequency shifts between the 'Balchen' and 'Albeli'
144 species from different lakes (identified by running a permutation test which shuffled the assignment
145 of individuals to each ecomorph group whilst maintaining population structure and then identifying
146 windows with an FDR corrected p-value of < 0.01), were distributed genome-wide (Fig. 2a). These
147 1659 parallel-differentiated windows overlapped with 1800 genes in total, which were significantly
148 enriched for a number of gene ontology terms including those related to neurons, cell signalling, and
149 fatty acid metabolism (Supplementary File S2 contains a full list of significantly enriched gene
150 ontology terms; Supplementary Fig. 5 shows that the length distribution of these genes was not
151 substantially different to that of all annotated genes).

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Figure 2. A combination of genome-wide allelic variation and major effect loci underpins parallel ecomorph differentiation in the Alpine whitefish radiation. a) CSS scan (calculated between 12 ‘Balchen’ individuals and 12 ‘Albeli’ individuals, with each ecomorph group comprising four distantly related species) highlights genome-wide parallel allele frequency shifts between ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ ecomorphs across the four lakes. Outlier CSS windows are shown in black. b) PC1 calculated using linkage filtered SNPs from across the 1659 CSS outlier windows for all whitefish individuals separates whitefish within lakes and lake-systems (rows separated by dashed lines). Widespread and less-widespread ecomorphs within the same lake are separated along the same axis. c) Whitefish standard length plotted against CSS PC1 for all lakes together (black line; $R^2=0.498$, $p=8.06 \times 10^{-15}$) and for each lake separately. Significant lake-system-specific regressions are coloured by lake-system and range in R^2 from 0.322 in Lake Lucerne ($p=0.01405$) to 0.6925 in the lake Walen/Zurich system ($p=1.84 \times 10^{-5}$). d) Gill-raker count plotted against CSS PC1 for all lakes together including (black line; $R^2=0.3921$, $p=4.1 \times 10^{-11}$) or excluding (grey line; $R^2=0.5107$, $p=7.63 \times 10^{-15}$) the outlier species *C. profundus*, and for each lake-system separately. Significant lake-system-specific regressions are coloured by lake and range in R^2 from 0.3871 in the Lake Thun-Brienze system (including the outlier *C. profundus*; $p=1.11 \times 10^{-4}$; when

168 *excluding C. profundus* $R^2=0.6051$, $p=4.22 \times 10^{-7}$) to 0.8113 in lake Lucerne ($p=3.47 \times 10^{-7}$). See Supplementary
169 Table S1 for all details regarding lake-specific statistics. e) Allele frequencies for the SNP significantly
170 associated with gill-raker count variation where all 91 Alpine whitefish are grouped by ecomorph (black
171 symbols) compared to ecomorph-averaged gill-raker counts (red symbols); fish illustrations by Verena Kälin. f)
172 GWAS results for gill-raker count and g) sex for all 9,120,498 polymorphic SNPs within the Alpine whitefish
173 radiation across the 90 individuals with corresponding phenotypes.

174

175 Genetic variation across CSS outlier regions not only differentiated ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’
176 species from each other but also allowed the separation of species belonging to the four other
177 whitefish ecomorphs within each lake-system (Fig. 2b; Supplementary Fig. 6). We further show that
178 genomic variation across these parallel differentiated regions (captured by CSS PC1; Fig. 2b)
179 correlated with body size (standard length; Fig. 2c; total $R^2=0.498$, $p=8.06 \times 10^{-15}$; see Supplementary
180 Table S1 for lake-system-specific statistics) and gill-raker count (Fig. 2d; total $R^2=0.3921$, $p=4.1 \times 10^{-11}$;
181 see Supplementary Table S1 for lake-system-specific statistics), suggesting that in addition to
182 explaining variation between ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species, these genomic regions might contribute
183 to broader phenotypic differences between other ecomorphs, including intermediate ‘Felchen’ species
184 and to some degree the less-widespread ecomorphs, ‘large-pelagic’, ‘benthic-profundal’, and ‘pelagic-
185 profundal. These results are concordant with a scenario of polygenic differentiation between
186 sympatric species, with many loci affected by divergent selection and potentially associated with
187 ecological and phenotypic differences and each contributing a small amount to a broader overall
188 pattern of divergence.

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190 ***Parallelism in gene functional pathways between independent ecomorph contrasts***

191 In addition to patterns of genetic parallelism between species of the widespread ‘Balchen’ and
192 ‘Albeli’ ecomorphs, we also investigated each of the four independently evolved ‘Balchen’ and
193 ‘Albeli’ species pairs separately, to identify whether, despite the presence of parallel allele frequency
194 shifts, the most strongly differentiated genomic regions between ecomorphs are species-pair-specific
195 or shared among replicate pairs from different lakes. Species-pair-specific patterns of strong
196 differentiation may be indicative of subtle differences in selection regimes between lakes and hint at
197 the degree to which genetic redundancy, where different genotypes can result in similar phenotypes,
198 underpins parallel ecomorph differentiation. As such, we assessed whether genomic differentiation
199 between each independently evolved ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species-pair involved the same set of
200 alleles, genes, or gene pathways, hinting at the commonality of ecomorph evolution across lake-
201 systems. To understand the genome-wide landscape of differentiation across the four independent
202 ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species pairs we first carried out separate pairwise F_{ST} scans in 50 kb windows
203 (each with >10 SNPs) for each sympatric species-pair (resulting in $\sim 34,000$ windows for each species-
204 pair; Supplementary Fig. 7). This window-based approach averaging F_{ST} estimates based on only 12

205 alleles across multiple loci may result in some observed frequency differences arising from sampling,
206 limiting us to the detection of strong selection and near fixation regimes^{45,46} but allows us to explore
207 the degree of genomic redundancy across scales. The most differentiated regions of the genome
208 between sympatric ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species (outlier windows within the top F_{ST} percentile for a
209 given species-pair) have a genome-wide distribution (with mean genome-wide background F_{ST} across
210 the four species pairs ranging from 0.06 in Neuchâtel to 0.12 in Brienz; Supplementary Fig. 7), and
211 are species-pair-specific, with no outlier windows shared across all four lakes (6 outlier windows were
212 shared between three contrasts, and 63 shared between two; in keeping with findings from North
213 American whitefish ecomorph contrasts where observed genetic differentiation is not parallel across
214 all lakes⁴⁷). These species-pair-specific patterns were also reflected at the gene level (i.e. regardless
215 of window boundaries), where, out of 1130 genes that overlapped with F_{ST} outlier windows in at least
216 one of the four sympatric ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species contrasts (out of the 42,695 genes that sit on
217 scaffolds that were annotated in the reference genome), none overlapped with an outlier window in all
218 four lakes (Supplementary Table S2).

219 The lack of overlap in genes associated with outlier windows across the four species pairs
220 may also suggest that genetic redundancy is at play. To test whether genetic redundancy explains
221 species-pair-specific differentiation patterns we investigated whether the same set of four species
222 pairs exhibit parallelism at the functional level rather than at the gene level by comparing gene
223 orthology terms and pathways associated with each gene that overlapped with F_{ST} outlier windows
224 between sympatric ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species. For the 1130 genes overlapping F_{ST} outlier
225 windows we identified 660 KEGG ortholog terms, of which two were associated with outlier
226 windows in the species pairs of all four lakes (Supplementary Table S2). For both of these orthology
227 terms from the KEGG orthology database that were associated with outlier windows in all four lakes
228 (K07526 and K12959) we found that in Lake Neuchâtel one associated gene was on chromosome
229 WFS12, and in the remaining three lakes a second associated gene was located on chromosome
230 WFS10 (K07526 is also associated with an additional gene in Lake Lucerne). For K07526, both
231 genes, despite being located on different chromosomes, had BLAST hits to different isoforms of the
232 protein *SRGAP3* (SLIT-ROBO Rho GTPase-activating protein 3). Similarly, for K12959 both genes
233 hit to caveolin and caveolin-like proteins in other salmonids. WFS12 and WFS10 are homeologous
234 chromosomes⁴⁸, supporting the idea that genomic redundancy, in this case across homeologous
235 chromosomes, is involved in ecomorph differentiation. This finding furthermore supports the idea that
236 the ancient salmonid-specific whole-genome duplication facilitated diversification by increasing the
237 number of possible adaptive combinations of alleles⁴⁹. Additionally, around one third (111/ 315) of
238 the KEGG pathways that the 660 KEGG ortholog terms belonged to were associated with outlier
239 windows in all four independent species pairs (Supplementary Table S2). This shared differentiation
240 at the metabolic pathway level, across independent speciation events with similar phenotypic
241 outcomes, without parallelism at the gene level, highlights the role of genetic redundancy. As such,

242 parallel ecomorphological divergence across the radiation may be underpinned by a polygenic
243 adaptive architecture featuring redundancy, as reflected by the many parallel frequency shifts detected
244 (using CSS), the lack of widely shared regions of strong differentiation (as indicated by F_{ST}), and the
245 evidence for genetic redundancy at the gene pathway level ⁵⁰.

246

247 ***Large-effect loci underpin a key ecological trait***

248 We also identify the genetic basis of variation in gill-raker count in whitefish, a key ecological trait
249 that often differs between species occupying different niches because of its role in determining
250 feeding efficiency on different prey items, i.e. trait utility ^{51,52}. Fish with fewer gill-rakers feed most
251 efficiently on benthic macroinvertebrates ⁵³ whilst fish with many gill-rakers feed most efficiently on
252 zooplankton ⁵¹. We tested associations between gill-raker counts and SNPs (those polymorphic within
253 the Alpine whitefish radiation). Using data from all 90 Alpine whitefish individuals with recorded
254 gill-raker counts we identified a single significantly associated SNP on WFS23 ($-\log_{10}(p)=8.1$; LD-
255 considerate significance threshold $-\log_{10}(p)=7.96$; Fig. 2f), that explains 31% of the variation
256 observed in gill-raker counts and displays highly correlated allele frequencies with mean gill-raker
257 counts across all ecomorphs and species (Fig. 2e; Supplementary Fig. 8). This candidate SNP fell
258 within an annotated whitefish gene on WFS23, which, when aligned with other salmonid assemblies
259 using BLAST, hit with high confidence against the *edar* gene (ectodysplasin-A receptor). This gene is
260 known to be involved in gill-raker development in zebrafish, where *edar* knockouts exhibit a loss of
261 gill-rakers ⁵⁴, and is in the same protein family as the gene *eda*, which is known to underpin a number
262 of ecologically important features in other fish species, most notably plating in stickleback ⁵⁵. Using a
263 similar approach, we also identified a number of significant sex-associated peaks, with the most
264 significantly associated SNP ($-\log_{10}(p)=15.93$), explaining 54% of the variation in sex across the
265 radiation, located on WFS04 (Fig. 2g; see methods for more information).

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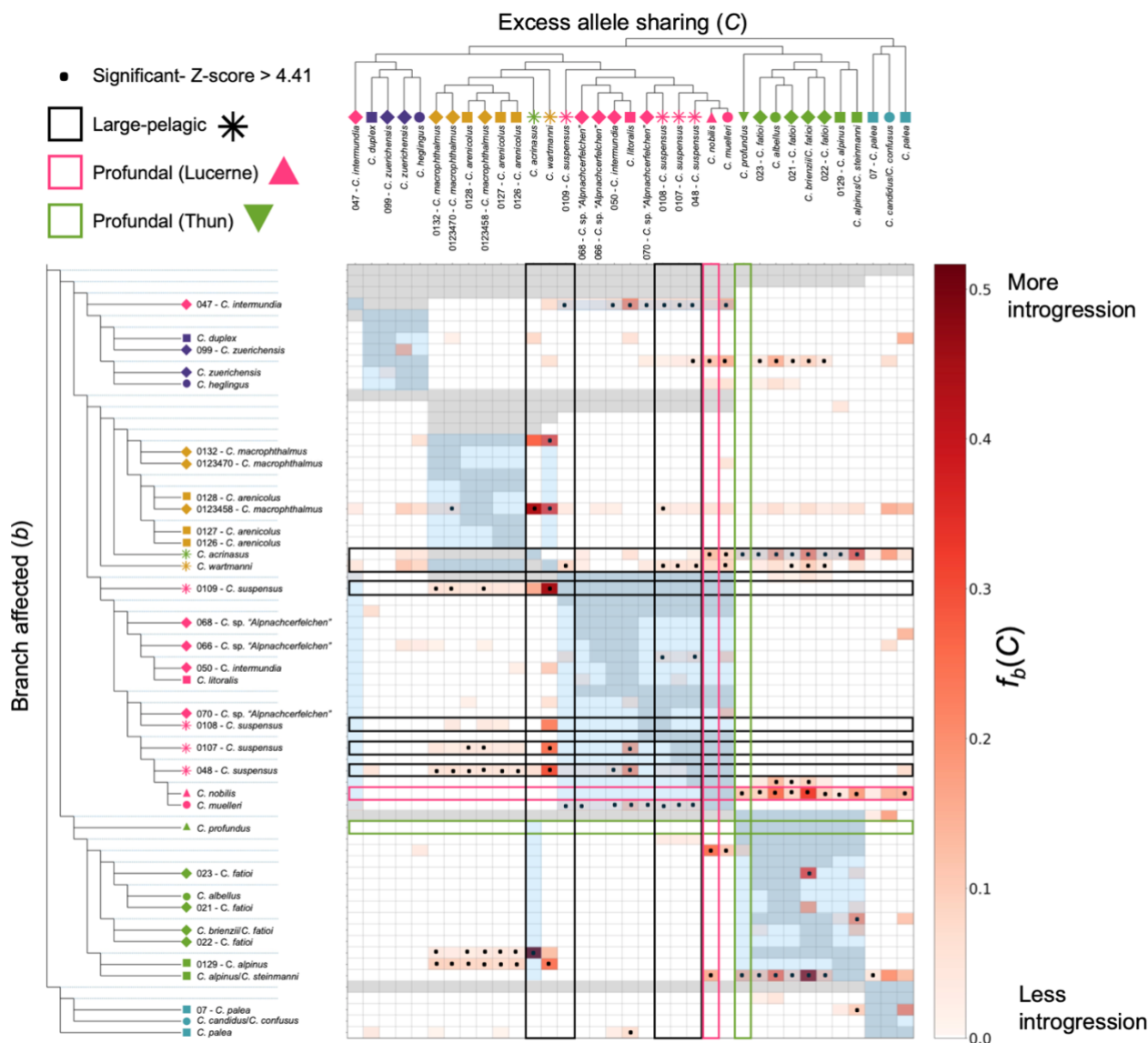
267 ***Hybridization facilitates ecological diversification***

268 Although species of the geographically widespread ‘Balchen’, ‘Felchen’ and ‘Albeli’ ecomorphs
269 repeatedly diverge from one another along the common ecological axis of water depth with correlated
270 phenotypic differentiation in several traits (including standard length and gill-raker count; Fig. 1b;
271 Supplementary Fig. 1), likely the result of similar selection pressures along water depth gradients in
272 different lakes, some lakes additionally harbour species of less-widespread ecomorphs, with
273 distinctive ecological strategies. These include ‘large-pelagic’, ‘benthic-profundal’, and ‘pelagic-
274 profundal’ species. These species have combinations of traits that contrast with the direction of
275 correlation among traits seen in the widespread ecomorphs. For example, whereas species that spawn
276 deeper typically have higher gill-raker counts, reflective of the transition from feeding on benthic
277 macroinvertebrates to zooplankton, the ‘benthic-profundal’ *C. profundus* spawns very deep but has
278 very few gill-rakers. Interestingly, our admixture analysis highlighted that a number of species that

279 belong to these less-widespread ecomorphs, including two of the three ‘large-pelagic’ species, and
280 both profundal species, show evidence of genetic admixture between species flocks from different
281 lakes (Fig. 1e). To investigate these signals further, and determine whether secondary contact and
282 introgression were associated with the evolution and maintenance of less-widespread ecomorphs with
283 distinct trait combinations, explaining their heterogeneous distribution across the Alpine whitefish
284 radiation, we calculated excess allele sharing between species across our dataset. Excess allele-
285 sharing was computed using the f-branch statistic $f_b(C)$, which was calculated from f4 admixture
286 ratios, $f(A,B;C,O)$, for all combinations of species (or clades in cases where sister species belong to
287 the same ecomorph but are not reciprocally monophyletic) within and between lakes that fit the
288 relationships ((A, B), C), according to our phylogeny (Fig. 1d).

289 When considering the three ‘large-pelagic’ species (*C. wartmanni* in Lakes Constance, *C.*
290 *acrinasus* in Lake Thun, and *C. suspensus* in Lake Lucerne), the most striking significant
291 introgression (indicated by a high, and significant, $f_b(C)$ value) reflects excess allele sharing between
292 Lake Constance and *C. suspensus* from Lake Lucerne, particularly with the Constance ‘large-pelagic’
293 species *C. wartmanni* (Fig. 3; black box). This result is concordant with our admixture analysis which
294 indicated that *C. suspensus* indeed looks admixed between species of Lake Lucerne and Lake
295 Constance. The Lucerne ‘large-pelagic’ *C. suspensus* also appears to have significant, but less
296 substantial, excess allele sharing with a number of other Lucerne species. Our results also suggest, as
297 supported by our phylogeny and admixture analysis, that the ‘large-pelagic’ species in Lake Thun, *C.*
298 *acrinasus*, is genetically admixed, with alleles from Lake Constance and Lake Thun (indicated by
299 significant excess allele sharing with all Brienz/Thun branches in our tree; Fig. 3). This also confirms,
300 and clarifies, the results of other studies which suggested that the evolution of *C. acrinasus* involved
301 the historical anthropogenic translocation of fish from Lake Constance into Lake Thun³⁸. Despite this
302 extensive gene flow in the recent past, *C. acrinasus* now appears to persist as a stabilised hybrid
303 species, demonstrated by its monophyly in our phylogeny (Fig. 1d) and distinct placement in our PCA
304 (Fig. 1c). Together, these patterns suggest that the ‘large-pelagic’ ecomorph may have originally
305 evolved in Lake Constance, and that fish of this species from Lake Constance subsequently colonised,
306 or were translocated to other lake-systems where hybridization with native species then occurred and
307 hybrid species became established (as suggested by historical records for lakes Thun³⁸ and Lucerne
308⁵⁶).

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310
 311 *Figure 3. Excess allele sharing is widespread between whitefish species both within and between lake-systems.*
 312 *F -branch ($f_b(C)$) statistics across our dataset highlight excess allele sharing between tips in the tree (which*
 313 *represent species or individuals when species were not monophyletic; horizontally arranged at the top of the*
 314 *figure) and each other tip and node in the phylogenetic tree (vertically arranged on the left of the figure),*
 315 *compared to its sister branch. The associated lake and ecomorph of each tree tip is indicated by the symbol and*
 316 *colour (as in Fig. 1a). The redness of each cell in the matrix indicates the degree of excess allele sharing*
 317 *between each tree tip (C) and each tip or node (b) with significant instances of excess allele sharing, where the*
 318 *Z-score was >4.41 (equivalent to the Bonferroni multiple testing corrected p-value of 0.01), are highlighted*
 319 *with a dot. For clarity, when a species within a lake or lake-system is supported as monophyletic we have*
 320 *collapsed all of its individuals into a single tree tip. Blue shading is used to indicate comparisons among species*
 321 *within a lake-system. Grey shading indicates tests which cannot be carried out due to the topology of the tree.*
 322 *F -branch statistics associated with species of the three focal ecomorphs are highlighted with boxes in the matrix*
 323 *including the large-pelagic ecomorph of which we have three species from three lake-systems (black), pelagic-*
 324 *profundal ecomorph as a single species from Lucerne (pink) and the benthic-profundal ecomorph as a single*
 325 *species from Thun (green).*

326 Interestingly, a modest amount of excess allele sharing was observed between the ‘benthic-
327 profundal’ species from Lake Thun *C. profundus* and the ‘large-pelagic’ species *C. acrinus* (from
328 Lake Thun; likely the result of within-lake gene-flow), and the ‘pelagic-profundal’ species *C. nobilis*
329 from Lake Lucerne (Fig. 3; green box), despite the implied admixture from the Biel/Neuchâtel system
330 (as was shown in Fig. 1e). However, more substantial signals of excess allele sharing were observed
331 between other non-profundal ecomorphs of Lakes Thun/Brienzen and *C. nobilis* (Fig. 3; pink box). The
332 strongest signals of excess allele sharing with *C. nobilis* came from the ‘Albeli’ species *C. albellus* in
333 lakes Thun and Brienzen, and the ‘Felchen’ species from Lake Brienzen. The ‘pelagic-profundal’ *C.*
334 *nobilis* may therefore constitute a stabilised hybrid between other whitefish species from Lake
335 Lucerne and some from Lakes Thun or Brienzen. These system-wide f-branch statistics highlight that
336 significant signals of excess allele sharing are less commonly associated with species of widespread
337 ecomorphs which exhibit correlated traits, but are prevalent when considering species of less-
338 widespread ecomorphs, which have trait combinations that are discordant with these correlations.

339

340 Discussion

341 Adaptive radiations provide a valuable opportunity to identify constraints of diversification and to
342 disentangle the ways in which species may overcome some of these constraints. In this study we
343 addressed these outstanding questions using radiation-wide whole-genome sampling. We found that
344 the genetic basis of rapid parallel evolution of widespread Alpine whitefish ecomorphs comprises
345 both a locus of large effect, implicating the gene *edar* in underpinning gill-raker variation, and many
346 allele frequency shifts distributed across the length of the genome. We were also able to detect
347 parallelism in gene-pathways differentiating species of the ecologically contrasting and widespread
348 ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ ecomorphs across different lake-systems. Our data also suggest that the
349 evolution and maintenance of less-widespread ecological strategies and unique trait combinations, is
350 often associated with introgression upon secondary contact between species of different species
351 flocks.

352 Previous empirical and theoretical work had suggested that the genetic basis of differentiation
353 of ecologically contrasting species can comprise few large effect loci⁵⁻¹⁰ or many genome-wide
354 small-effect loci¹¹⁻¹⁵. However, mounting empirical evidence^{14,19,57} suggests that polygenic architectures
355 with a combination of these two, a so-called ‘mixed’ genetic architecture comprising many small-
356 effect loci and a few large-effect loci, may also be present^{14,19,57}. Such ‘mixed’ architectures may
357 provide the ideal substrate for rapid speciation in the absence of geographical isolation, since they
358 may better facilitate the build up of linkage disequilibrium in the face of gene flow than either very
359 few key loci or highly polygenic architectures. This is because large-effect loci can act as ‘visible’
360 targets for selection, and additional genome-wide modifier loci increase the chances of the
361 accumulation of reproductive isolation via linked selection¹⁸. Our data suggests that such an

362 architecture, a combination of large and small effect loci, indeed underpins variation among species in
363 the Alpine whitefish radiation.

364 Our results also highlight the potential role of genetic redundancy in facilitating the repeated
365 evolution of ecologically similar species within adaptive radiations. Genetic redundancy can act at
366 many scales and describes the scenario in which various alleles both within and between genes, and
367 even gene pathways, result in similar phenotypes^{50,58}. Such genetic redundancy may help explain
368 rapid and repeated instances of evolution, since subtly different environment-specific selection
369 regimes acting on different regions of the genome can still drive parallel phenotypic change. It may be
370 possible that the prevalence of duplicated genes (ohnologs) after whole genome duplication, and the
371 possible relaxation of selection acting on these ohnologs⁵⁹, may facilitate both the *de novo* evolution
372 of novel alleles (and thus phenotypes) and increase the likelihood that different populations can
373 evolve and reach the same fitness optimum in a genetically non-parallel but redundant way. Whole
374 genome duplication is thought to have facilitated adaptation in a diverse array of clades (including
375 plants⁶⁰, fungi⁶¹, and animals⁶²), and our observations that different ohnologs underpin
376 differentiation between ecologically similar, independent, whitefish species pairs support the idea that
377 the ancient salmonid-specific whole-genome duplication facilitated diversification by increasing the
378 number of possible adaptive combinations of alleles (Macqueen & Johnston, 2014).

379 Whilst our data shows that highly replicated ecomorphological differentiation along similar
380 ecological (water depth) gradients in different lake-systems is underpinned by a mixed genetic
381 architecture, hybridization upon secondary contact between species from different lake-systems seems
382 to facilitate the additional growth of species flocks through addition of species with trait combinations
383 that are decoupled from those associated with speciation on depth gradients. Whilst a mixed genetic
384 architecture promotes the rapid and repeated diversification of ecologically similar whitefish, there are
385 likely constraints to the phenotypic divergence that can be achieved simply by the shuffling of
386 existing alleles. As a result, the occupation of vacant niches may require new combinations of alleles
387 that result in new, discordant, combinations of traits. Hybridization between distantly related species,
388 e.g. non-sister whitefish species from different species flocks, results in the coming together of
389 adaptive alleles or haplotypes which have each been tested by selection on their own, but have not
390 previously existed in these combinations. This gene flow upon secondary contact between separate
391 species flocks within a single large radiation may therefore provide a mechanism by which constraints
392 to diversification may be overcome, allowing evolution into new niche space without having to persist
393 through low-fitness intermediate states^{27,63}. The specific genetic architecture of introgressed regions
394 might also play a crucial role in determining the potential to overcome constraints, since large
395 introgressed haplotypes can rapidly reach substantial frequencies following hybridization⁶⁴. Our
396 results suggest that a combination of the genetic architecture of traits under divergent selection and
397 the opportunity for secondary contact and hybridization between non-sister species are both important
398 for rapid adaptive radiation.

399 **Methods**

400 *Sampling the radiation*

401 To understand the phylogenetic relationships between Alpine whitefish we carried out whole-genome
402 resequencing on 96 previously collected whitefish (with associated phenotypic measurements
403 including standard length and gill-raker counts; collected in accordance with permits issued by the
404 cantons of Zurich (ZH128/15), Bern (BE68/15), and Lucerne (LU04/14); in addition to three
405 previously sequenced whitefish; discussed below). Fish were selected from lakes Constance, Lucerne,
406 Thun, Brienz, Biel, Neuchâtel, Zurich, and Walen which make up five separate lake-systems
407 (Constance, Lucerne, Thun/Brienz, Biel/Neuchâtel, and Walen/Zurich; Fig. 1a; Supplementary File
408 S1). Individuals from each whitefish species within each lake, representing the phenotypic diversity of
409 Swiss Alpine whitefish, were sampled, including three species from Lake Constance, six from Lake
410 Lucerne, six from Lake Thun, and four from Lake Brienz, two from Lake Biel, two from Lake
411 Neuchâtel, three in Lake Zurich, and two in Lake Walen. In addition to these Swiss whitefish a
412 number of outgroup individuals were also sampled, including two *Coregonus albula* (European
413 cisco), and a number of members of the European *C. lavaretus* species complex including two
414 Norwegian *Coregonus lavaretus*, and four samples of North German whitefish thought to be the
415 closest relatives of the Alpine whitefish radiation members: two German *Coregonus holsatus* (from
416 Lake Drewitz) and two German *Coregonus maraenoides* (from Lake Schaal).

417 The whitefish species we sampled spanned a range of six different ecomorphs that differ in
418 their morphology, including body length, depth, and feeding morphology, as well as spawning depth
419 and time, and diet (sampled species in each lake and the ecomorphs to which these species belong
420 were plotted according to their distribution; Fig. 1a; Fig. 1b). Species in this study were assigned to
421 each ecomorph based on their phenotype by whitefish taxonomic experts and co-authors Oliver M.
422 Selz and Ole Seehausen. The ‘Balchen’ whitefish ecomorph is characterised by large bodied shallow
423 spawning species which predominantly feed on benthic macroinvertebrates. Conversely, the ‘Albeli’
424 ecomorph is characterised by small species which spawn deeper (intermediate depth to very deep) and
425 feed on zooplankton in the pelagic zone of lakes. The third ecomorph is the ‘Felchen’ type, which
426 grow to larger sizes than the ‘Albeli’ ecomorph but not as large as the ‘Balchen’, feed on zooplankton,
427 and feed and spawn from an intermediate depth to very deep. In addition to these three widespread
428 ecomorphs are three less-widespread ecomorphs which occur in three or fewer lake-systems. These
429 include two variations of profundal ecomorphs, a ‘benthic-profundal’ species, *C. profundus* from
430 Lake Thun (an additional, now extinct, ‘benthic-profundal’ species *C. guttuerosus* was also once
431 present in Lake Constance), which have few gill-rakers but spawn at intermediate to great depth and a
432 ‘pelagic-profundal’ species, *C. nobilis* in Lake Lucerne, which spawn deep but have a high number of
433 gill-rakers. The final ecomorph we sampled were the ‘large-pelagic’, and included the species *C.*
434 *wartmanni* from Lake Constance, *C. acrinus* from Lake Thun, and *C. suspensus* from Lake
435 Lucerne, which, although they are large bodied, have a high gill-raker count and feed predominantly

436 on zooplankton. *C. wartmanni* has a well described pelagic spawning behaviour, while the other two
437 ‘large-pelagic’ species are so far less well characterised in that respect. A full breakdown of the fish
438 included in this study, their gill-raker counts, standard-length measurements, and the ecomorph
439 assignment of each species can be seen in Supplementary File S1.

440 DNA for each individual was extracted from either fin or muscle tissue from each fish that
441 had been stored at -80 °C using Qiagen DNeasy extraction columns, quantified using a Qubit 2.0, and
442 run on a 1% agarose gel to assess DNA quality. DNA was then sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeq
443 6000 with a 550bp insert size (Next Generation Sequencing Platform, University of Bern). To this
444 data, we added Illumina HiSeq 3000 data sequenced from one *Coregonus sp.* “Balchen” (ENA
445 accession: GCA_902810595.1; now re-classified as *C. steinmanni*³¹) from Lake Thun (Switzerland)
446 that was previously used to polish and validate the Alpine whitefish reference genome assembly⁴⁸.

447

448 ***Genotyping and loci filtering***

449 After sequencing, all fastq files were quality checked using FastQC⁶⁵ before being mapped to the
450 *Coregonus sp.* “Balchen” Alpine whitefish reference genome (ENA accession: GCA_902810595.1;⁴⁸;
451 with additional un-scaffolded contigs
452 (<https://datadryad.org/stash/dataset/doi:10.5061/dryad.xd2547ddf>) to ensure accurate mapping) using
453 bwa-mem v.0.7.17⁶⁶ changing the ‘r’ setting to 1 to allow more accurate, albeit more time-
454 consuming, alignment. Mosdepth v.0.2.8⁶⁷ was used to calculate mean sequencing coverage from the
455 BAM files for each of the 97 individuals which ranged from 15.32x to 41.69x (an additional two
456 individuals were added to this dataset after genotype calling discussed below). Picard-tools (Version
457 2.20.2; <http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>) was then used to mark duplicate reads
458 (MarkDuplicates), fix mate information, (FixMateInformation) and replace read groups
459 (AddOrReplaceReadGroups). Genotypes were then called across the 40 chromosome-scale scaffolds
460 included in the *Coregonus sp.* “Balchen” Alpine whitefish assembly (ENA accession:
461 GCA_902810595.1;⁴⁸) using HaplotypeCaller in GATK v.4.0.8.1⁶⁸ using a minimum mapping
462 quality filter of 30. The resulting VCF file was then filtered using vcftools v.0.1.14⁶⁹ to remove indels
463 (--remove-indels) and include biallelic loci (--min-alleles 2 --max-alleles 2) which have a minor
464 allele count > 3 (--mac 3), no missing data (--max-missing 1), a minimum depth > 3 (--min-meanDP
465 3 --minDP 3), a maximum depth < 50 (--max-meanDP 50 --maxDP 50), and a minimum quality of 30
466 (--minQ 30), to leave 16,926,710 SNPs. Loci that fell within potentially collapsed regions of the
467 genome assembly (as identified in De-Kayne et al. 2020) were removed using BEDTools v.2.28.0⁷⁰;
468 bedtools subtract) and any loci with duplicate IDs which were identified with PLINK v.1.90⁷¹ were
469 removed with VCFtools⁶⁹ resulting in 15,841,979 SNPs. To increase our sampling of the species *C.*
470 *macrophthalmus* from Lake Constance from one individual to three, we added sequencing data from
471 an additional two individuals (Supplementary File S1). To avoid the downstream impacts of
472 combining sequencing data from different runs (which can result from different biased nucleotide

473 calls and introduce erroneous signals of genetic differentiation; as outlined in ⁷²) we mapped these two
474 samples as above (resulting in a mean genome-wide coverage of 9.32x and 16.58x) and called
475 genotypes again for all samples (including the two additional *C. macrophthalmus* individuals) at each
476 of the original 15,841,979 SNP positions. Following this genotype calling, which resulted in
477 15,521,925 SNPs, SNP filtering was repeated as before, leaving 14,313,952 SNPs with no missing
478 data across the dataset of 99 individuals.

479

480 ***PCA, phylogenetics, and admixture analysis***

481 PLINK v.1.90 ⁷¹ was used to produce a genomic PCA of all 91 Alpine whitefish genomes with the
482 aim of understanding how each of the individuals, species, and lakes were differentiated from one
483 another. All eight outgroup individuals were removed from the full dataset of leaving only Alpine
484 whitefish from the five lake-systems. Loci were then filtered based on linkage disequilibrium using
485 PLINK v.1.90 (⁷¹; 50 kb windows with a step size of 10 bp and filtering for an $R^2 > 0.1$). This resulted
486 in 1,133,255 loci which were processed by PLINK to calculate eigenvector distances between
487 individuals. PCAs were plotted using R ⁷³.

488 We took a phylogenetic approach to understand the relationships between each of the Alpine
489 whitefish species we sampled. First, the full VCF file was thinned to include only SNPs which were
490 500bp apart using VCFtools (⁶⁹; --thin 500). The thinned SNP dataset containing 2,039,744 SNPs was
491 then filtered using bcftools (part of SAMtools v.1.8 ⁷⁴; bcftools view -i 'COUNT(GT="RR")>0 &
492 COUNT(GT="AA")>0') to leave only SNPs that were present at least once in our dataset as
493 homozygous for the reference allele, and homozygous for the alternative allele, as required by
494 RAxML. This reduced the dataset to 1,692,559 SNPs. This filtered VCF file was then converted to a
495 PHYLIP file using vcf2phylip v.2 ⁷⁵ before RAxML v.8.2.12 ⁷⁶ was run with the ASC_GTRGAMMA
496 substitution model (-m ASC_GTRGAMMA --asc-corr=lewis, -k -f a) with 100 bootstraps and
497 specifying the *C. albula* samples as outgroups to produce the maximum likelihood tree. The
498 phylogenetic tree, excluding the long node to *C. albula*, was then plotted using Figtree v.1.4.4 ⁷⁷.

499 The same linkage-pruned dataset of 1,133,255 SNPs that was used to produce the full PCA
500 was used to calculate admixture proportions. The .bed file from PLINK resulting from the PCA was
501 analysed using admixture v.1.3.0 ⁷⁸ to estimate admixture for values of K between 2 and 14 specifying
502 20 cross validations (--cv=20). As the CV error increased with the range of K that we tested
503 (Supplementary Fig. 2, we selected the K which helped to resolve the lake-systems and deep clade
504 splits best, K=7, and plotted admixture barplots in R (additional admixture plots for K=2-K=10 can be
505 found in Supplementary Fig. 3).

506

507 ***Outlier scans***

508 To identify the degree of genetic parallelism between 'Balchen' and 'Albeli' whitefish species from
509 across the radiation, we subsetted 24 individuals representing three 'Balchen' species and three

510 ‘Albeli’ species from four of the lakes we sampled: Lake Brienz, Lake Lucerne, Lake Walen and
511 Lake Neuchâtel out of our full 99 individual dataset. ‘Albeli’ species included *C. candidus*, *C.*
512 *albellus*, *C. muelleri*, and *C. heglingus* (for lakes Neuchâtel, Brienz, Lucerne, and Walen), and
513 ‘Balchen’ species included *C. palea*, *C. alpinus*, *C. litoralis*, and *C. duplex* (for lakes Neuchâtel,
514 Brienz, Lucerne, and Walen). To first confirm the independent evolution of each ‘Balchen’ and
515 ‘Albeli’ species-pair within each of these four lakes, as indicated by the phylogeny, F4 statistics were
516 calculated across a four-taxon tree (as used in ⁴²), allowing us to estimate the degree of correlated
517 allele frequencies between ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ individuals within and between lake-systems. First,
518 loci were pruned based on linkage disequilibrium using the script `ldPruning.sh`
519 (<https://github.com/joanam/scripts/raw/master/ldPruning.sh>), resulting in 1,315,105 SNPs. Then the
520 script `plink2treemix.py` (from <https://speciationgenomics.github.io/Treemix/>) was used to convert data
521 into the `treemix` format before F4 calculations were implemented using `f4.py`
522 (<https://raw.githubusercontent.com/mmatschiner/F4/master/f4.py>). We calculated F4 for two different
523 topologies, placing ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species from all pairwise combinations of the four lakes on
524 a four-taxon tree. In the first four taxon tree ((A,B),(C,D)) we placed sympatric ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’
525 species from a first lake as A and B, and ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species from a second lake as C and
526 D. In this context the resulting F4 ($F4^1$) represents the correlated allele frequency between A or B and
527 C or D that would indicate introgression, or in our case, representative of a single evolution of
528 ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ followed by sorting into lakes. We then calculated F4 where allopatric
529 ‘Balchen’ species from two different lakes were placed as A and B and allopatric ‘Albeli’ species
530 from the same two lakes as C and D ($F4^2$). F4 in this second arrangement represents the correlated
531 allele frequencies of sympatric species, again between A or B and C or D. Where $F4^1 < F4^2$ there is
532 stronger support for the scenario in which ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ are truly sympatric species pairs,
533 and therefore independently originated across lakes rather than for a single origin of the two
534 ecomorphs.

535 To explore whether ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species of whitefish show a parallel genetic basis
536 of evolution in different lakes, regardless of lake structure, we used the cluster separation score (CSS;
537 introduced by Jones *et al.* ⁴³ and the therein reported formula corrected by Miller *et al.* ⁴⁴), a measure
538 of genomic differentiation between individuals assigned to two groups. Here we assigned individuals
539 from the four ‘Balchen’ species to one group and those from the four ‘Albeli’ species to another.
540 When calculated in windows of the genome, the CSS score quantifies the genetic distance between
541 these ecomorph groups relative to the overall genetic variance in this particular window ⁴³. We
542 calculated CSS in 50 kb windows using a custom R script
543 (<https://github.com/marqueda/PopGenCode/blob/master/CSSm.R>) where the 24 whitefish individuals
544 were split into two groups according to ecomorph (i.e. ‘Balchen’ or ‘Albeli’). A stratified permutation
545 test which reshuffles the assignment of individuals to each of the ecomorph groups within each lake to
546 test the statistical significance of the CSS score for each window, whilst maintaining population

547 structure, was then carried out 100,000 times using a custom R script
548 (https://github.com/marqueda/PopGenCode/blob/master/CSSm_permutation.R). Windows with fewer
549 than 24 SNPs were removed (in accordance with ⁴⁴) and outlier windows were identified based on a
550 false discovery rate adjusted p-value cutoff of $p < 0.01$, using ‘fdr.level = 0.01’ in the R package
551 ‘qvalue’⁽⁷⁹⁾; similarly to ⁴⁴). The median CSS score across all 34,102 windows with ≥ 24 SNPs was
552 0.0083 and the median CSS score across all 1659 outlier windows was 0.0973. A PCA was then
553 produced for all 91 Alpine whitefish (excluding our outgroup samples) using PLINK v.1.90 starting
554 with only the 690,101 SNPs that fell within these 1659 CSS outlier windows. Filtering for linkage
555 disequilibrium was carried out as above, resulting in 56,127 SNPs that were then used to determine
556 the genomic variation between whitefish species within these genomic regions. Correlations between
557 PC1, which separated out species, and traits (gill-raker count and standard length) were carried out
558 using the linear model function (lm) in R.

559 To confirm that this pattern is not simply driven only by the inclusion of individuals used to
560 define the outlier CSS windows, we produced a second PCA as above but excluding the original 24
561 individuals. In this instance, CSS PC1 was still significantly correlated with standard length
562 ($R^2=0.2081$, $p=1.183 \times 10^{-4}$) and gill-raker count ($R^2=0.1135$, $p=5.667 \times 10^{-3}$ when including the outlier
563 *C. profundus*; $R^2=0.2201$, $p=1.05 \times 10^{-4}$ when including the outlier *C. profundus*), albeit, and
564 unsurprisingly, to a lesser extent.

565 We also identified genes that were annotated on chromosome-scale scaffolds in the whitefish
566 reference genome ⁴⁸ which overlapped with the 1659 outlier CSS outlier windows by a minimum of
567 1bp using ‘bedtools intersect’ ⁷⁰. And then used the topGO package ⁸⁰ in R to identify significantly
568 enriched gene ontology terms (p-values < 0.05 according to both the ‘weight’ and ‘elim’ algorithms)
569 associated with these outlier windows (Supplementary File S2). To demonstrate that the 1800 genes
570 that overlapped with our 1659 CSS outlier windows were not substantially longer than non-
571 overlapping genes, we compared their length distribution to the length distribution of all 42,695 genes
572 (Supplementary Fig. 5).

573 We then calculated pairwise genome-wide relative divergence between sympatric ‘Balchen’
574 and ‘Albeli’ species for each lake separately. Weir and Cockerham F_{ST} was calculated between
575 ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species in each lake after filtering out loci which had a minor allele count < 1
576 between the two using vcftools v.0.1.14 ⁽⁶⁹⁾; --weir-fst --mac 1) specifying a window size of 50 kb.
577 Windows with fewer than 10 SNPs were removed. The mean F_{ST} of all windows along the genome
578 was then calculated for each species-pair to determine the total extent of differentiation between
579 sympatric ‘Balchen’ and ‘Albeli’ species. To identify regions of the genome which underpin the
580 phenotypic contrast between ecomorphs we identified the top percentile of most differentiated
581 windows in each lake and species-pair using R and those outlier windows which were shared between
582 two or more species pairs were noted. As with CSS outlier windows, genes that overlapped with the
583 top 1% outlier windows from each of the four species pairs were identified using ‘bedtools intersect’

584 ⁷⁰. KEGG orthology was identified for 28,673 of the 46,397 annotated genes in the whitefish
585 *Coregonus sp.* “Balchen” assembly using BlastKOALA (<https://www.kegg.jp/blastkoala/>; using the
586 taxon id 861768 and selecting the genus_eukaryotes database) and as a result the genes and KEGG
587 orthology terms that overlapped with each of the F_{ST} outlier windows, and genes overlapping with
588 these windows, for each of the four species-pair comparisons were identified. For each species-pair
589 the KEGG gene pathways that were associated with KEGG orthology terms associated with lake-
590 specific F_{ST} outlier windows were also identified using the KEGG orthology database
591 (<https://www.kegg.jp/kegg/ko.html>). The genes, KEGG orthology terms and KEGG gene pathways
592 that were associated with each species-pair-specific set of F_{ST} outlier windows were then compared to
593 identify any features that were associated with ‘Balchen’-‘Albeli’ differentiation across all lake-
594 systems. Full protein sequences for genes associated with the shared KEGG orthology terms K07526
595 (augustus_masked-PGA_scaffold11__203_contigs__length_63881516-processed-gene-394.0 and
596 maker-PGA_scaffold9__196_contigs__length_60468309-snap-gene-345.2) and K12959 (maker-
597 PGA_scaffold11__203_contigs__length_63881516-snap-gene-396.10 and maker-
598 PGA_scaffold9__196_contigs__length_60468309-snap-gene-342.13) were BLASTed using blastp
599 (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi?PAGE=Proteins>) and the resulting best hits, those with the
600 highest E-value and an annotated gene name in a salmonid species were noted (Supplementary File
601 S3).

602

603 ***Genome-wide association mapping***

604 To identify the genetic basis of gill-raker variation across the Alpine whitefish radiation we used a
605 mixed model approach implemented in EMMAX ⁸¹(as in ¹⁴). First, EMMAX was used to produce a
606 Balding-Nichols kinship matrix between all 90 Alpine whitefish samples for which we had gill-raker
607 counts using ‘emmax-kin’ using only the 9,120,498 SNPs that were polymorphic within the Alpine
608 whitefish radiation. We then used EMMAX to calculate the association of each SNP marker with gill-
609 raker count for each SNP. Two significance thresholds were determined. A strict Bonferroni multiple
610 testing p-value threshold was calculated using the total number of SNPs tested: $-\log_{10}(0.05/9120498)$
611 $= 8.26$, in addition to an LD-considerate threshold of $-\log_{10}(0.05/4536915) = 7.96$, which was
612 calculated by removing linked markers ($R^2 > 0.95$) in 50 kb sliding windows across the genome using
613 PLINK ⁷¹. One SNP on WFS23 had an association above the LD-considerate threshold and the allele
614 frequencies within each of the six ecomorph groups was calculated for this SNP using vcftools --freq
615 on each subset of ecomorphs separately (Fig. 2e; in addition to each ecomorph within each lake
616 separately; Supplementary Fig. 8). The gene that overlapped with this SNP was identified with
617 BEDTools ⁷⁰ and the full protein sequence from the gene that overlapped with the SNP (maker-
618 PGA_scaffold22__199_contigs__length_52020451-snap-gene-302.9) was BLASTed using Ensembl
619 TBLASTN against the Atlantic Salmon, Rainbow Trout, Brown Trout and Coho Salmon genomes,
620 hitting with high confidence against the ectodysplasin-A receptor (*edar*) gene (E-value $1e-20$; ID%

621 97.62 in Brown Trout fSalTru1.1; ENSSTUG00000036900 and E-value $7e-20$; ID% 100 in Atlantic
622 Salmon ICSASG_v2; ENSSSAG00000053655). The variance in gill-raker count across our samples
623 explained by the most significantly associated SNP was calculated using the equation: $PVE =$
624 $((2 * (\beta^2) * MAF * (1 - MAF)) / (2 * (\beta^2) * MAF * (1 - MAF) + (se_beta^2) * 2 * N * MAF * (1 - MAF)))$
625 where N = the sample size (90), se_beta = the standard error of effect size of the SNP, β = SNP
626 effect size, and MAF = SNP minor allele frequency (from the Supplementary Information S1
627 associated with ⁸²).

628 This EMMAX association mapping was repeated using sex as a binary trait for 90 Alpine
629 whitefish individuals. The most substantial associated peak was observed on WFS04. As above, genes
630 that overlapped with these SNPs were identified with BEDTools ⁷⁰ and the protein sequence from the
631 single gene that overlapped with this peak of SNPs on WFS04, maker-
632 PGA_scaffold3__454_contigs__length_92224161-snap-gene-551.2, was BLASTed using Ensembl
633 TBLASTN against the Atlantic Salmon, Rainbow Trout, Brown Trout and Coho Salmon genomes,
634 however, no annotated genes were hit with high confidence using this approach.

635

636 ***F-branch statistics***

637 To calculate excess allele sharing across the dataset, and test whether species of the less-widespread
638 ecomorphs with unique trait combinations (i.e. combinations of traits that contrast with the direction
639 of correlation among combinations of traits seen in the widespread ecomorphs) have evolved as a
640 result of gene flow between lake-systems, we used the f-branch statistic $f_b(C)$ as calculated by the
641 package Dsuite ⁸³ as in ⁸⁴. First, a simplified version of the full RAxML phylogenetic tree was
642 prepared. To make use of the multiple samples per species in our dataset and get robust estimates of
643 excess allele sharing both within and between lake-systems, collapsed nodes in the phylogenetic tree
644 using the R package ‘ape’ ⁸⁵ where possible. Individuals which looked like potential F1 hybrids as
645 indicated by close to 50/50 splitting in the admixture analysis or were placed discordantly in our
646 genome-wide PCA and phylogeny (including the *C. alpinus* 0129 and *C. zuerichensis* 099) and
647 individuals which did not sit in the same clade as other individuals of the same species in the same
648 lake-system were kept separated so as to not skew species-wide estimates of excess allele sharing
649 from single, potentially recent introgression events, and thus not included in node collapsing. Nodes
650 were then collapsed, and the individuals within that clade assigned as a single tree tip, if all
651 individuals within the clade belonged to the same species or species of the same ecomorph from a
652 single lake or, where possible, single lake-system (excluding potential F1 individuals). All outgroup
653 individuals in the tree were collapsed into a single outgroup tip. Dsuite ⁸³ was then run specifying
654 Dtrios, DtriosCombine, and finally Fbranch, each time specifying the collapsed tree. Dsuite was used
655 to first calculate f4 admixture ratios $f(A,B;C,O)$ across the dataset where combinations of taxa fit the
656 necessary relationship $((A, B), C)$ in our phylogenetic tree, with the 8 non-Alpine whitefish set as the
657 outgroup. The f-branch statistic $f_b(C)$ was then calculated from these f4 statistics using the

658 phylogenetic tree to identify excess allele sharing between any taxa into any other taxon or node in the
659 phylogeny. $f_b(C)$ is particularly powerful for complex systems such as the Alpine whitefish radiation
660 since, unlike Patterson's D, it provides branch-specific estimates of excess allele sharing, meaning
661 that specific instances of gene flow do not skew excess allele sharing estimates across multiple nodes
662 or branches, providing a phylogenetically-guided and robust estimate of excess allele sharing⁸⁴.
663 Significant instances of excess allele sharing were identified by calculating a stringent Bonferroni
664 multiple-testing significance threshold, which involved dividing the p-value threshold of $p < 0.01$ by
665 the number of cells in the f-branch matrix for which $f_b(C)$ could be calculated (1910) and converting
666 this to a Z-score using R. All cells with Z-scores higher than this threshold i.e. $Z > 4.41$ represented
667 significant excess allele sharing between taxa in the tree and were indicated as such.

668

669 Data availability:

670 The raw sequencing files will become accessible on SRA upon publication (and the appropriate SRA
671 sample codes added to Supplementary File S1) and additional source data (genotype file and
672 corresponding metadata file along with figure-specific data) will be deposited on the Eawag research
673 data institutional collections (<https://doi.org/10.25678/0005S0>) upon publication.

674

675 Code Availability

676 Scripts for all analyses are available on GitHub:

677 https://github.com/RishiDeKayne/Alpine_whitefish_WGS.

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865

866 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

867

868 **Materials & Correspondence:** Correspondence and material requests should be addressed to
869 P.G.D.F.