

1 **Adaptive introgression from distant Caribbean islands**
2 **contributed to the diversification of a microendemic**
3 **radiation of trophic specialist pupfishes**
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25 Short title: Caribbean-wide sources of adaptive variation contribute to localized adaptive
26 radiation
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36

37 **Abstract**

38 Rapid diversification often involves complex histories of gene flow that leave variable and
39 conflicting signatures of evolutionary relatedness across the genome. Identifying the extent and
40 source of variation in these evolutionary relationships can provide insight into the evolutionary
41 mechanisms involved in rapid radiations. Here we compare the discordant evolutionary
42 relationships associated with species phenotypes across 42 whole genomes from a sympatric
43 adaptive radiation of *Cyprinodon* pupfishes endemic to San Salvador Island, Bahamas and several
44 outgroup pupfish species in order to understand the rarity of these trophic specialists within the
45 larger radiation of *Cyprinodon*. 82% of the genome depicts close evolutionary relationships among
46 the San Salvador Island species reflecting their geographic proximity, but the vast majority of the
47 fixed variants between the specialist species lie in regions with discordant topologies. These
48 regions include signatures of selective sweeps and adaptive introgression from neighboring islands
49 into each of the specialist species. Hard selective sweeps of genetic variation on San Salvador
50 contributed 10-fold more to divergence between specialist species within the radiation than
51 adaptive introgression of Caribbean genetic variation; however, some of these introgressed regions
52 from distant islands were associated with the primary axis of oral jaw divergence within the
53 radiation. For example, standing variation in a proto-oncogene (*ski*) known to have effects on jaw
54 size introgressed into one San Salvador specialist from an island 300 km away. The complex
55 emerging picture of the origins of adaptive radiation on San Salvador indicates that multiple
56 sources of genetic variation contributed to the adaptive phenotypes of novel trophic specialists on
57 the island. Our findings suggest that a suite of factors, including rare adaptive introgression, may
58 also be required to trigger adaptive radiation in the presence of ecological opportunity.

59

60 **Author summary**

61 Groups of closely related species can rapidly evolve to occupy diverse ecological roles, but the
62 ecological and genetic conditions that trigger this diversification are still highly debated. We
63 examine patterns of molecular evolution across the genomes of a rapid radiation of pupfishes that
64 includes two trophic specialists. Despite apparently widespread ecological opportunities and gene
65 flow across the Caribbean, this radiation is endemic to a single Bahamian Island. Using the whole
66 genomes of 42 pupfish we find evidence of extensive and previously unexpected variation in
67 evolutionary relatedness among Caribbean pupfish. Two sources of genetic variation have
68 contributed to the adaptive diversification of complex phenotypes in this system: selective sweeps
69 of genetic variation from across the Caribbean that was brought into San Salvador through
70 hybridization and genetic variation found on San Salvador. While genetic variation from San
71 Salvador appears to be relatively more common in the divergence observed among specialists,
72 hybridization probably played an important role in the evolution of the complex phenotypes as
73 well. Our findings that multiple sources of genetic variation contribute to the San Salvador
74 radiation suggest that a complex suite of factors, including hybridization with other species, may
75 be required to trigger adaptive radiation in the presence of ecological opportunity.

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82 **Introduction**

83 Adaptive radiations are central to our understanding of evolution because they generate a wealth
84 of ecological, phenotypic, and species diversity, often in very rapid bursts. However, the
85 mechanisms that trigger the rapid bursts of trait divergence, niche evolution, and diversification
86 characteristic of classic adaptive radiations are still debated. The availability of resources in new
87 environments with few competitors has long been seen as the major force driving adaptive
88 radiations[1–3], but it is a longstanding question why only some lineages rapidly diversify in
89 response to such resource abundance while others do not [4–9].

90 Gene flow can introduce adaptive genetic variants [10,11], genetic incompatibilities [12–
91 14], and/or reinforcements [15–18] that initiate or contribute to the process of speciation and a
92 growing number of studies have identified gene flow and genome-wide introgression across a
93 range of adaptive radiations [19–26]. The hybrid swarm hypothesis [27] proposes that
94 hybridization among distinct lineages can introduce genetic diversity and novel allele
95 combinations genome-wide that may trigger rapid diversification in the presences of abundant
96 ecological opportunity. Yet there is still little evidence that hybridization specifically triggered
97 adaptive diversification within radiations, as opposed to simply being pervasive throughout the
98 history of any young rapidly diversifying group [25,28]. One of the only examples with strong
99 evidence of hybridization leading to ecological and species diversification is that of several hybrid
100 species within a radiation of *Helianthus* sunflowers [29–34]. However, this may simply represent
101 examples of multiple homoploid speciation events within an already radiating lineage rather than
102 a hybrid swarm scenario. So while there is convincing evidence that hybridization can facilitate
103 diversification among species pairs (but see [26,35] for a potential multispecies outcome of

104 hybridization), it is still unclear whether gene flow is a major factor constraining adaptive radiation
105 in some lineages or if ecological opportunity is the sole constraint.

106 The adaptive radiation of San Salvador pupfishes provides an outstanding system to
107 address these questions about the contributions of different sources of genetic variation to rapid
108 diversification and the role of gene flow in the evolution of complex phenotypes. Pupfish species
109 of the genus *Cyprinodon* inhabit saline lakes and coastal areas across the Caribbean and Atlantic
110 and nearly all pupfishes are dietary generalists consuming algae and small invertebrates [36]. In
111 contrast, three *Cyprinodon* species live sympatrically in the hypersaline lakes of San Salvador
112 Island and comprise a small radiation that has occurred within the past 10,000 years based on the
113 most recent glacial maximum when these lakes were dry due to lowered sea levels [37–39]. This
114 radiation is composed of the widespread generalist algae-eating species *Cyprinodon variegatus*
115 and two endemic specialists that coexist with the generalist in all habitats in some lakes. These
116 specialists have adapted to unique trophic niches using novel morphologies: the molluscivore
117 *Cyprinodon brontotheroides* with a unique nasal protrusion and the scale-eating *Cyprinodon*
118 *desquamator* with enlarged oral jaws and adductor mandibulae muscles [36,40]. Surveys of
119 populations living on neighboring islands in the Bahamas and phylogenetic analyses with other
120 *Cyprinodon* species indicate that these specialist species are endemic to the hypersaline lakes of
121 San Salvador Island and that both specialists arose from a generalist common ancestor during this
122 recent radiation [41].

123 The currently available ecological and genetic data on the group provides little indication
124 as to why this radiation is localized to a single island. Variation in ecological opportunity among
125 hypersaline lake environments in the Caribbean does not appear to explain the rarity of this
126 radiation [41]. This finding suggests a potentially important role for sufficient genetic variation to

127 respond to abundant, underutilized resources in these environments. However, a hybrid swarm
128 hypothesis about the origins of the radiation does not appear to explain its rarity either: genetic
129 diversity is comparable among islands and gene flow occurs among all Caribbean islands
130 investigated, not only into San Salvador Island [41]. Novel traits and increased rates of
131 diversification associated with them are well documented in this system [36,41,42], but
132 understanding the rarity of this adaptive radiation requires a thorough investigation of the
133 underlying genetic variation that accompanies these rare ecological transitions. A recent study
134 investigating the genetic basis of trophic specialists in this radiation revealed very few regions
135 underlying these phenotypes [43]. Only hundreds of variants out of 12 million were fixed within
136 the scale-eater and molluscivore species. Since genetic divergence is limited to particular regions,
137 localized rather than genome-wide investigations of the genome will be important for
138 understanding how genetic variation, possibly originating outside of San Salvador, has contributed
139 to the exceptional phenotypic diversification restricted to this island. Here, we use a machine-
140 learning approach to identify regions of the genome with different evolutionary histories across 42
141 pupfish genomes sampled from the San Salvador radiation, two distant Caribbean islands, and 3
142 additional outgroups. We then scan the genome for evidence of localized introgression with
143 pupfish populations outside of San Salvador Island and compare the relative contributions of
144 adaptive introgression from two distant islands and hard selective sweeps to the divergence of each
145 specialist species.

146

147 **Results**

148 **Extensive variation in patterns of evolutionary relatedness across the genome**

149 To identify localized patterns of population history across the genome, we used the machine-
150 learning approach SAGUARO. SAGUARO combines a Hidden Markov Model with a self-
151 organizing map to characterize local histories across the genome among aligned individuals [44].
152 This method does not require any *a priori* hypotheses about the relationships among individuals,
153 but rather infers them directly from the genome by finding regions of consecutive nucleotides with
154 a similar pattern of genetic differentiation, building hypotheses about relationships among
155 individuals from these genetic differences, and then assigning regions of the genome to these
156 hypothesized local “histories”. Since smaller segments with fewer informative SNPs are more
157 likely to be incorrectly assigned to a hypothesized history by chance (pers. comm. M.G. Grabherr),
158 we filtered out segments with fewer than 20 SNPs. Using this approach, we partitioned the genome
159 into a total of 15 unique histories across 227,248 genomic segments that ranged from 101-324,088
160 base pairs in length (median: 852 bp) (S1 and S2 Figs; Table S1).

161 The most prevalent history across 64% of the genome featured the expected species
162 phylogeny for this group from previous genome-wide studies [36,41,45], in which all individuals
163 from San Salvador Island were cleanly grouped into a single clade with distant relationships to
164 generalist pupfish populations from other islands in the Caribbean, Death Valley in California, and
165 two specialists from a second radiation in Mexico spanning the most divergent branch of the
166 *Cyprinodon* tree (Fig 1). Unlike previous genome-wide phylogenies [41,45], and with the
167 exception of a few individuals that grouped with molluscivores by lake, the generalists on San
168 Salvador form a discrete clade from the molluscivores and scale-eaters.

169 Within this dominant topology, scale-eaters from six lakes on San Salvador fell into one of
170 two separate clades: small-jawed individuals from Osprey Lake, Great Lake, and Oyster Pond and
171 larger-jawed individuals from Crescent Pond, Stout Lake, Osprey Lake, and Little Lake (Fig 1).

172 Molluscivores did not form a single clade as individuals from some lakes (Crescent Pond and
173 Moon Rock) were more closely related to generalists from the same lake than molluscivores from
174 other lakes, similar to previous genome-wide phylogenies [45]. Another history covering 10% of
175 genome was very similar to the dominant one, differing only in the relationships among San
176 Salvador generalists (S1 Fig). Additional histories spanning 7.6% of the genome featured a single
177 San Salvador clade but also depicted a closer relationship between San Salvador and the outgroups
178 as well as groupings of all three San Salvador species by lake in Crescent Pond and Moon Rock
179 Pond. When combined with the dominant history, only 82.6% of the genome supported the
180 expected San Salvador clade (S1 Table).

181 In other regions of the genome, San Salvador did not form a single clade (Figs 2A-C and
182 S2, S1 Table). The most frequently observed alternative relationships depicted specialist
183 individuals as a clade outside of the San Salvador Island group and sister to all the outgroup
184 *Cyprinodon* species (Figs 2A,B). One such history, the ‘large-jawed scale-eater topology’, featured
185 large-jawed scale-eater individuals outside of the San Salvador clade and was assigned to 4,437
186 segments covering 3.27% of the genome (Fig 2A). Another history, the ‘molluscivore topology’
187 showed a similar pattern in which the molluscivore individuals form a single clade outside of the
188 San Salvador group and sister to all other outgroups (Fig 2B). This molluscivore topology was
189 assigned to 3,916 segments and covered 3.11% of the genome. Another 2,029 segments covering
190 1.66% of the genome were assigned to a topology where both the large-jawed and small-jawed
191 scale-eaters formed a combined clade outside of the San Salvador group, the “combined scale-
192 eater topology’ (Fig 2C). Other histories featuring one of the specialists separated from the rest of
193 San Salvador covered 0.76%-2.48% of the genome (Table S1).

194 Unexpectedly, all histories separated scale-eaters into groups of smaller- and larger-jawed
195 individuals and the relationships between these two groups and other species differed across
196 different regions of the genome. In some regions, the small-jawed scale-eater individuals were
197 sister to the large-jawed scale-eaters (Figs 1,2B-C, and S1). In other regions, the small-jawed scale-
198 eaters were more closely related to the generalists and molluscivores (Figs 2A and S1). These
199 small-jawed scale-eaters may be a product of ongoing hybridization between species on San
200 Salvador, an intermediate stage in the evolutionary path towards scale-eating, or a new species.
201 Their consistent appearance as a separate clade supports a previously unrecognized small-jawed
202 scale-eating species in some lakes.

203

204 **Localized introgression into both specialists from across the Caribbean**

205 We examined signals of introgression from two distant pupfish generalist populations in the
206 Caribbean: Lake Cunningham, New Providence Island in the Bahamas (described as the endemic
207 species *Cyprinodon laciniatus* [46]) and Etang Saumautre Lake in the Dominican Republic
208 (described as the endemic species *Cyprinodon bondi* [47]). We characterized the genomic
209 landscape of introgression in the three San Salvador species using f_4 statistics that were initially
210 developed to test for introgression among human populations [48–50].

211 We found 230 10-kb regions out of 100,260 that contained significant evidence of
212 introgression between *C. laciniatus* or *C. bondi* and the San Salvador specialists (Fig 3A).
213 Introgressed regions were scattered across the genome in 140 of the 9,259 scaffolds in our dataset.
214 These regions were not typically concentrated in one section of the genome, with the largest cluster
215 within a single scaffold containing only 5% of the total regions detected (Fig 3A). The genomic
216 regions with significant evidence of introgression varied between the two specialists (Fig 3B,C),

217 suggesting that admixture with other Caribbean populations has occurred multiple times and
218 independently for each specialist or that different introgressed regions were used by the two
219 specialists after a single admixture event (see S3-S5 Figs for full Manhattan plots). Only 23 regions
220 of the 205 and 236 regions with significant evidence of introgression were shared between
221 generalist/scale-eater and generalist/molluscivore comparisons, respectively. We also tested for
222 introgression with the small-jawed scale-eaters excluded to search for potential introgression with
223 the large-jawed scale-eaters alone (S6 Fig). Introgressed regions were less variable between the
224 two groups of scale-eaters, with 150 of 211 regions shared. The sixty-one introgressed regions
225 unique to the large-jawed scale-eaters suggest that some introgression occurred between
226 populations on other Caribbean islands and the large-jawed scale-eater population, independently
227 from the small-jawed scale-eaters.

228 To assess whether our regions of introgression were predominately from regions of low
229 diversity, we looked at D_{xy} and π estimates across the detected regions of introgression in
230 comparison to the genome-wide estimates (mean $D_{xy}=0.116$; mean π scale-eater= 0.0035 ; mean π
231 molluscivore= 0.0044). We found that while some of the regions with significant f_4 values were in
232 regions with low D_{xy} and/or π between the San Salvador species, the majority were in regions of
233 intermediate diversity (S7 Fig), and some were in regions with higher between-population
234 divergence between the two specialists (S7 Fig), consistent with introgression that contributed to
235 speciation.

236

237 **Multiple sources of genetic variation underlie species divergence**

238 The relationships observed in the three alternative topologies (Fig 2) underlie most of the
239 divergence observed between the molluscivores and scale-eaters, as 75% and 88% of the fixed
240 SNPs between molluscivores and large-jawed scale-eaters and molluscivores and all scale-eaters
241 respectively fall in these histories that make up less than 5% of the genome in total. Many of these
242 regions contained candidate genes previously associated with variation in *Cyprinodon* jaw size
243 [43]: 18 of the 31 candidate regions occurred in the combined scale-eater topology, and 1 candidate
244 region in the molluscivore topology.

245 We then assessed the relative contributions of different sources of genetic variation to the
246 divergence observed between the two specialists. The overlaps between these signals are
247 summarized in Fig 4 (also see S8 Fig). The alternative topologies contained a greater proportion
248 of regions with introgressed genetic variation and selective sweeps than those regions assigned to
249 the dominant topology (Figs 4 and S8).

250

251 **Adaptive introgression contributed to localized adaptive radiation: a case study of *ski***

252 In general, selective sweeps of introgressed genetic variation that contributed to species divergence
253 between the specialists were rare. However, four of the 31 regions strongly associated with jaw
254 size variation in the specialists [43] showed strong evidence of introgression from *Cyprinodon*
255 species on two distant Caribbean islands (Table 1). This includes the proto-oncogene *ski*, a
256 candidate gene with known craniofacial effects. *Ski* encodes a nuclear protein that binds to DNA
257 and modulates transcription [51,52]. Mutations in *ski* cause marked reductions in skeletal muscle
258 mass, depressed nasal bridges, and shortened, thick mandible bones in mice [53,54], remarkably
259 similar to the novel craniofacial morphologies in San Salvador Island pupfishes, including
260 increased nasal/maxillary protrusion, shortened lower jaw, and thicker dentary and articular bones

261 [40].

262 **Table 1. Adaptively introgressed 10 kb regions and gene annotations for fixed SNPs between**
 263 **scale-eater and molluscivore species that lie in segments assigned to the three alternative**
 264 **topologies.** Asterisks (*) indicate SNPs in gene regions that have been associated with San
 265 Salvador pupfish jaw size variation in a previous study [43]. Bolded genes have known functional
 266 effects on craniofacial traits in a model system. Regions that are not annotated for genes are
 267 indicated with a dash (-).

268

Scaffold	Position	Segment Length	f_4	Fixed SNPs	Tajima's D Molluscivore	Tajima's D Scale-eater	Gene
Large-jawed scale-eater topology							
KL652578.1	34250-35784	1534	0.34	7	0.05	-2.16	-
KL652808.1	48674-50395	1721	-0.30	50	-2.09	-2.10	ube2
KL653236.1	261439-262126	687	0.27	11	-2.29	-2.11	-
KL653461.1	31579-32075	496	-0.30	6	-2.02	-2.10	-
Combined scale-eater topology							
KL652649.1	863752-863969	217	0.25	20	-2.49	-1.89	-*
KL652674.1	781305-782379	1074	0.23	21	-1.99	-2.22	-
KL652715.1	801693-804224	2531	-0.22	72	-2.19	-1.81	pard3*
KL652715.1	814671-815203	532	-0.22	3	-1.46	-1.81	pard3*
KL652761.1	939073-939598	525	0.29	7	-1.98	-1.81	colgalt2
KL652959.1	292277-293459	1182	-0.25	5	-1.12	-1.81	wnt7b
KL652959.1	294961-295670	709	-0.25	5	-1.12	-1.81	wnt7b
KL652983.1	268808-270404	1596	0.26	2	-2.24	-1.82	ski*
KL653171.1	369020-369346	326	-0.25	2	-2.03	-1.89	lbt2
KL653171.1	370174-370702	528	-0.25	2	-1.11	-1.89	lbt2
KL653356.1	50459-51629	1170	0.26	9	-2.12	-1.82	srbd1
KL653356.1	57713-59092	1379	0.26	9	-2.12	-1.82	srbd1
KL653356.1	75673-76452	779	-0.27	20	-2.21	-1.81	srbd1
KL653706.1	184149-184721	572	0.36	31	-2.25	-1.89	plekhg*
Molluscivore topology							
KL652867.1	572016-572646	630	-0.32	2	-0.86	-1.89	nbea

269

270 The adaptively introgressed segment is located at the start of *ski* in the 5' untranslated
271 region and contains a fixed SNP, signature of positive selection, reduced diversity in both of the
272 specialists, and high absolute genetic divergence between the two specialists in this region
273 compared to surrounding regions on the scaffold (Fig 5). This pattern is consistent with a hard
274 selective sweep of an introgressed *ski* allele from outside San Salvador. To further assess the source
275 of introgression and which specialist is the recipient, we compared F_{st} in this region between the
276 outgroups individuals and specialists. Genetic differentiation was minimal between molluscivores
277 and *C. laciniatus* ($F_{st} = -0.15$) (Fig 5) and higher in all other pairwise comparisons ($F_{st} > 0.35$)
278 between the two specialists and two outgroup Caribbean pupfish species (S3 Table), indicating
279 gene flow between the molluscivores on San Salvador Island and the generalist *C. laciniatus* on
280 New Providence Island. Taking a closer look at the genetic variation in this region, we observe
281 that the *ski* SNP fixed in the San Salvador molluscivores is homozygous in *C. laciniatus* and
282 segregating in the generalists (Fig 6A), suggesting that it occurs at an appreciable frequency in the
283 generalists. In the surrounding molluscivore genetic background of the fixed *ski* SNP is very
284 similar to *C. laciniatus* (Fig 6B). In this region, there are only 62 variants between the
285 molluscivores and *C. laciniatus* in our sample.

286 We then used TREEMIX [50] to visualize the direction gene flow in adaptively
287 introgressed regions that contributed to species divergence in the specialists. We found evidence
288 that genetic variation from both *C. laciniatus* and *C. bondi* introgressed into both specialists (Fig
289 7A-D). This included the introgressed region containing *ski*, with evidence of gene flow from *C.*
290 *laciniatus* into the molluscivore (Fig 7A). In other regions we found evidence of gene flow from
291 both distant Caribbean Islands (New Providence Island, Bahamas and the Dominican Republic)
292 into the generalist populations on San Salvador as well as gene flow from San Salvador into the

293 outgroup Caribbean species (S4 Table).

294

295 **Discussion**

296 **Alternative topologies reveal diverse sources of genetic variation contributed to a highly** 297 **localized adaptive radiation**

298 Our investigation of genetic variation reveals that multiple sources of genetic variation from distant
299 corners of the Caribbean have been important in the assembly of the complex phenotypes
300 associated with the novel ecological transitions seen only on San Salvador. While species
301 divergence appears to mostly come from selective sweeps of standing or *de novo* genetic variation
302 (Fig 4), rare adaptive introgression has played a role in the radiation. The adaptive introgression
303 we found in this study has come from large admixture events into San Salvador from populations
304 as far as 742 km across the Caribbean. Our best candidate was a region containing a single fixed
305 variant in the molluscivore specialist previously associated with jaw size variation on San Salvador
306 containing the proto-oncogene *ski*, adaptively introgressed from another pupfish species on an
307 island 300 km away (Figs 5,6, and 7A, Table 1). Importantly, our limited sampling of one
308 individual from each of two distant islands suggests that long-distance adaptive introgression is
309 common and arises from abundant genetic variation found in only some parts of the Caribbean.

310 We rarely know the source of candidate variants involved in diversification or the
311 contributions of multiple sources of genetic variation to rapid diversification. Genomic
312 investigations of other adaptive radiations have also inferred roles for multiple genetic sources
313 contributing to rapid diversification. For example, in the apple maggot fly, ancient gene flow from
314 Mexican populations introduced an inversion affecting key diapause traits that aided the sympatric

315 host shift to apples in the United States [55]. Hybridization within Darwin's finches also appears
316 to play a role in the origin of new lineages through adaptive introgression of functional loci
317 contributing to beak shape differences between species [21]. In a *Mimulus* species complex,
318 introgression of a locus affecting flower color appears to have been a driver of adaptation in the
319 early stages of their diversification [56]. However, even in case studies demonstrating multiple
320 sources of genetic variation, the relative contributions to the diverse ecological traits in these
321 radiations still remain unknown in most cases (but see [57]).

322

323 **The genomic landscape of introgression differs between sympatric trophic specialists**

324 Only 10% of all introgressed regions in either the molluscivore or scale-eater were shared between
325 the two. This minimal overlap may reflect the complexity of different performance demands.
326 Performance in the two specialists involves very different sets of functional traits (i.e. higher
327 mechanical advantage and a novel nasal protrusion in the molluscivores vs. enlarged oral jaws and
328 adductor muscles in the scale-eaters [42]) and divergent selective regimes (narrow and shallow vs.
329 wide and deep fitness valleys [41,58,59]). The extensive variability in the genetic variation that
330 introgressed between the two specialists may reflect multidimensional adaptation to two distinct
331 trophic niches in this radiation, rather than variation along a linear axis (e.g. see [60–65]).

332

333 **Did adaptive introgression trigger adaptive radiation?**

334 Although adaptive introgression is rare and localized across the genome, it was likely important
335 for the assembly of the complex phenotypes observed on San Salvador (e.g. *ski*). Our findings
336 suggest that rare adaptive introgression may have been required to trigger the radiation in the
337 presence of ecological opportunity. Indeed, a longstanding paradox in this system is why generalist

338 populations in hypersaline lakes on neighboring islands with similar levels of ecological
339 opportunity, lake areas, and overall genetic diversity have not radiated (Martin 2016).

340 The presence of introgressed adaptive variants on San Salvador could be explained through
341 two main admixture scenarios. They could represent a large admixture event into the entire San
342 Salvador genetic pool, a prediction of the hybrid swarm hypothesis [27] , which was then sorted
343 during the initial divergence of the specialist populations. Alternatively, the introgressed adaptive
344 variants may represent secondary gene flow, aiding the ongoing divergence of the specialists. Our
345 TREEMIX analyses weakly support a scenario of secondary contact for several regions, including
346 *ski*, with evidence of admixture from *C. bondi* and *C. laciniatus* directly into the specialists (Fig
347 7). A closer investigation of the *ski* variant fixed between the specialists shows that the variant
348 fixed in the molluscivores is segregating in the generalist population (Fig 6). This suggests that
349 either admixture brought the adaptive *ski* allele into the generalist San Salvador population and
350 was subsequently fixed in the molluscivores or that secondary gene flow between molluscivores
351 and generalists has introduced the allele into the generalist through secondary contact. However,
352 these are only exploratory inferences on directionality of gene flow and timing of introgression.
353 They should be confirmed with demographic analyses focused on testing different scenarios of
354 admixture into San Salvador (e.g. [26,66–70]).

355 We can roughly estimate the timing of introgression for this *ski* region from the number of
356 variants that have accumulated between the *C. laciniatus* and molluscivore haplotypes ($n = 62$
357 variants; Fig 6). Assuming neutrality, the observed genetic differences between the two lineages
358 should equal $2\mu t$, the time since their divergence in each lineage and μ , the mutation rate [71].
359 Using mutation rate estimates ranging from 5.37×10^{-7} (phylogeny-based estimate of *Cyprinodon*
360 substitution rate [69]) to 1.32×10^{-7} mutations site⁻¹ year⁻¹ (estimated from cichlid pedigree estimate

361 of the per generation mutation rate [72] using a pupfish generation time of 6 months), introgression
362 of the *ski* adaptive haplotype from *C. laciniatus* into the molluscivore specialist occurred between
363 5,700 to 23,500 years ago. The 10,000 year age estimate of the San Salvador Island radiation
364 (based on the most recent lake drying event estimates [37–39]) falls within this window, suggesting
365 the intriguing scenario in which widespread introgression during the last glacial maximum may
366 have triggered adaptive radiation within pupfish populations isolated in the saline lakes of San
367 Salvador Island during their initial formation.

368 While there are rare and convincing examples of hybridization leading to homoploid
369 speciation (reviewed in [34]), no study has yet provided convincing evidence that hybridization
370 was directly involved in triggering an adaptive radiation. For example, while there is strong
371 evidence in Darwin’s finches that adaptive introgression of a loci controlling beak shape has
372 contributed to phenotypic diversity of finches in the Galapagos, this hybridization occurred
373 between members within the radiation [21]. Another recent study argued that hybridization
374 between ancestral lineages of the Lake Victoria superflock cichlid radiations and distant riverine
375 cichlid lineages fueled the radiations, based on evidence of equal admixture proportions across the
376 genomes of the Victorian radiations from the riverine lineages and the presence of allelic variation
377 in opsins in the riverine lineages which are also important in the Victoria radiation [35]. However
378 even this fascinating finding only indirectly supports hybridization as the trigger of adaptive
379 radiation. Allelic variation in opsins is common in most cichlid communities [73–79] and adaptive
380 radiation is common in many African lakes [80,81]; thus it remains unclear whether the ancestral
381 Victorian cichlid community would not have radiated without the additional influx of opsin
382 variation from riverine lineages. Admittedly, hybridization as the necessary and sufficient trigger
383 of adaptive radiation is a difficult prediction to test.

384 Those examples with more direct evidence linking hybridization to adaptation and
385 reproductive isolation within a radiation are often special cases where a single introgressed
386 adaptive allele automatically results in increased reproductive isolation. Examples include
387 introgressed adaptive loci controlling wing patterns in *Heliconius* butterflies involved in mimicry
388 and mate selection [82,83], a locus controlling copper tolerance in *Mimulus* that is tightly
389 associated with one causing hybrid lethality [12], and loci contributing to differing insecticide
390 resistance in the M/S mosquito mating types [84–86]. While these cases provide convincing
391 evidence that adaptive introgression can facilitate both ecological divergence and reproductive
392 isolation, it is still unclear whether this introgression has actually triggered or simply contributed
393 to the ongoing process of adaptive radiation.

394

395 **A new small-jawed scale-eating species within the radiation?**

396 We also found evidence of a distinct clade of small-jawed scale-eaters, separate from the large-
397 jawed scale-eaters (Figs 1 and 2). The consistent clustering of this clade across the genome
398 suggests that they are a distinct, partially reproductively isolated population on San Salvador,
399 rather than a product of hybridization between generalists and scale-eaters in the lakes where they
400 exist sympatrically. Indeed, the small-jawed scale-eaters appear to be more reproductively isolated
401 than the molluscivores and generalists, as they form a distinct clade from the other species across
402 a larger percentage of the genome than the molluscivores do (Figs 1 and 2; S1 and S2 Figs).
403 Instead, these small-jawed scale-eaters could represent a new ecomorph that only occurs in some
404 lake environments. They have only been observed in the five lakes connected to the Great Lake
405 System on San Salvador (Great Lake, Mermaid’s Pond, Osprey Pond, Oyster Pond, and Stout’s
406 Lake), but not in isolated lakes such as Crescent Pond. Consistent with this pattern of occurrence,

407 F2 hybrid phenotypes resembling the scale-eaters have previously been shown to have extremely
408 low survival and growth rates in these isolated lakes [58].

409 Small-jawed scale-eaters may also represent a stepping-stone in the evolutionary path to
410 scale-eating. If they were a stepping stone, we might expect regions of the genome to reflect a
411 nested relationship between the large-jawed and small-jawed scale-eaters. We see this predicted
412 pattern in the combined scale-eater topology that underlies most of the fixed variants between the
413 two specialists (Fig 2). Small-jawed scale-eater diets also appear to be consistent with intermediate
414 levels of lepidophagy (scale-eating). Preliminary gut content analyses reveal that scales were
415 found in the stomachs of 30% of small-jawed scale-eaters ($n = 23$, unpublished data J.A. McGirr)
416 compared to 91% of large-jawed scale-eaters ($n = 53$ [42]; CHM unpublished data).

417

418 **The complex evolutionary history of the San Salvador pupfish radiation illustrates the**
419 **inadequacy of the “species tree” view**

420 Localized regions containing traits relevant to understanding speciation in this system would be
421 obscured by a genome-wide species tree summary. Our dominant history contained only 10% of
422 the variants fixed between species. Furthermore, this dominant history is not a genome-wide
423 summary of coalescence akin to a species tree. Instead, it provides a meaningful segmentation of
424 the genome into speciation-relevant and largely geography-relevant histories [87,88]. Speciation
425 genomic studies of many other radiations have similarly found evidence of localized regions that
426 are highly differentiated relative to the rest of the genome, demonstrating that specific regions play
427 an important role in maintaining reproductive isolation in the face of gene flow [21,24,89–92].
428 Understanding rapid adaptive radiation requires a new framework, one built upon the fact that
429 different regions of the genome correspond to different evolutionary histories, in order to

430 understand the mechanisms that drive diversification in this system. Within this framework,
431 species trees and other genome-wide summaries of evolutionary history are meaningless, or worse,
432 misleading for understanding what triggers adaptive radiations (see also [89,93,94]).

433

434 **Conclusion**

435 Here we demonstrate that the complex phenotypes associated with the novel ecological transitions
436 seen on San Salvador arose from multiple sources of genetic variation spread across the Caribbean.
437 The variation important to this radiation is localized in small regions across the genome that are
438 obscured by genome-wide summaries of the history of the radiation. Species divergence appears
439 to mostly come from selective sweeps of standing or *de novo* genetic variation on San Salvador,
440 but rare adaptive introgression events may also be necessary for the radiation. This genomic
441 landscape of introgression is variable between the specialists and has come from large admixture
442 events from populations as far as 742 km across the Caribbean. Our findings that multiple sources
443 of genetic variation contribute to the San Salvador radiation suggests a complex suite of factors
444 that include rare adaptive introgression, may be required to trigger adaptive radiation in the
445 presence of ecological opportunity.

446

447 **Methods**

448 **Study system and samples**

449 Individual pupfish were caught in hypersaline lakes on San Salvador Island in the Bahamas with
450 either a hand or seine net in 2011, 2013, and 2015. Samples were collected from seven isolated
451 lakes on this island (Crescent Pond, Great Lake, Little Lake, Mermaid's Pond, Moon Rock Pond,
452 Oyster Lake, and Stout's Lake) and one estuary (Pigeon Creek). 13 *Cyprinodon variegatus* were

453 sampled from all eight lakes on San Salvador Island; 10 *C. brontotheroides* were sampled from
454 four lakes; and 14 *C. desquamator* were sampled from six lakes as the specialist species occur in
455 sympatry with the generalists in only some of the lakes. Individual pupfish that were collected
456 from other localities outside of San Salvador Island served as outgroups to the San Salvador Island
457 radiation, including closely related *C. laciniatus* from Lake Cunningham, New Providence Island
458 in the Bahamas, *C. bondi* from Etang Saumautre lake in the Dominican Republic, *C. diabolis* from
459 Devil's Hole in California (collected as a dead specimen by National Park Staff in 2012), as well
460 as captive-bred individuals of *C. simus* and *C. maya* originating from Laguna Chicancanab,
461 Quintana Roo, Mexico. Fish were euthanized by an overdose of buffered MS-222 (Finquel, Inc.)
462 following approved protocols from University of California, Davis Institutional Animal Care and
463 Use Committee (#17455) and University of California, Berkeley Animal Care and Use Committee
464 (AUP-2015-01-7053) and stored in 95-100% ethanol. Only degraded tissue was available for *C.*
465 *diabolis*, as described in [69].

466

467 **Genomic sequencing and bioinformatics**

468 DNA was extracted from muscle tissue using DNeasy Blood and Tissue kits (Qiagen, Inc.) and
469 quantified on a Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (ThermoFisher Scientific, Inc.). PCR-free Truseq-type
470 genomic libraries were prepared using the automated Apollo 324 system (WaterGen Biosystems,
471 Inc.) at the Vincent J. Coates Genomic Sequencing Center (QB3). Samples were fragmented using
472 Covaris sonication, barcoded with Illumina indices, and quality checked using a Fragment
473 Analyzer (Advanced Analytical Technologies, Inc.). Nine to ten samples were pooled in four
474 different libraries for sequencing on four lanes of Illumina 150PE Hiseq4000.

475 426 million raw reads were mapped from 42 individuals to the *Cyprinodon* reference
476 genome (NCBI, *C. variegatus* Annotation Release 100, total sequence length = 1,035,184,475;
477 number of scaffold = 9,259, scaffold N50, = 835,301; contig N50 = 20,803) with the Burrows-
478 Wheeler Alignment Tool [95] (v 0.7.12). Duplicate reads were identified using MarkDuplicates
479 and BAM indices were created using BuildBamIndex in the Picard software package
480 ([http://picard.sourceforge.net\(v.2.0.1\)](http://picard.sourceforge.net(v.2.0.1))). We followed the best practices guide recommended in
481 Genome Analysis Toolkit [96](v 3.5) to call and refine our SNP variant dataset using the program
482 HaplotypeCaller. Since we lacked high-quality known variants that are typically required as a
483 reference to filter SNP variants, we filtered SNPs based on the recommended hard filter criteria
484 (i.e. QD < 2.0; FS < 60; MQRankSum < -12.5; ReadPosRankSum < -8) [84,96]. Our final dataset
485 after filtering contained 16 million variants and a mean sequencing coverage of 7.2X per individual
486 (range: 5.2–9.3X).

487

488 **Characterization of genomic heterogeneity in evolutionary relationships across individuals**

489 We used the machine learning program SAGUARO [44] to identify regions of the genome that
490 contain different signals about the evolutionary relationships across San Salvador Island and
491 outgroup *Cyprinodon* species. Saguaro combines a hidden Markov model with a self-organizing
492 map to characterize local phylogenetic relationships among aligned individuals without requiring
493 *a priori* hypotheses about the relationships. This method infers local relationships among
494 individuals in the form of genetic distance matrices and assigns segments across the genomes to
495 these topologies. These genetic distance matrices can then be transformed into neighborhood
496 joining trees to visualize patterns of evolutionary relatedness across the genome. Three
497 independent runs of SAGUARO were started using the program's default settings and each was

498 allowed to assign 15 different histories across the genome. The 15th history and additional histories
499 that we investigated tended to be uninformative about the evolutionary relationships among
500 individuals and represented less than 0.5% of the genome. To determine how many histories to
501 estimate, analogous to a scree plot [97,98], we plotted the proportion of the genome explained by
502 a hypothesized history and looked for an inflection point in the section of the plot where
503 hypothesized histories explained little of the genome. We also looked at the neighborhood joining
504 trees to assess whether additional histories were informative about the evolutionary relationships
505 among individuals (S9 Fig). We excluded the last history (15th) from downstream analyses due to
506 lack of genetic distinction at both the level of populations and species included in the proposed
507 genetic distance matrix and the low percentage of the genome assigned to it. The 14 histories
508 included and the total percentages of the genome assigned to them were robust across all three
509 independent runs.

510

511 **Characterization of introgression patterns across the genome**

512 We characterized the heterogeneity in introgression across the genome using f_4 statistics that were
513 initially developed to test for introgression among human populations [48–50]. The f_4 statistic tests
514 if branches among a four-taxon tree lack residual genotypic covariance (as expected in the presence
515 of incomplete lineage sorting and no introgression) by comparing allele frequencies among the
516 three possible unrooted trees. A previous study [41] provides evidence of potential admixture with
517 the Caribbean outgroups species used in this study, preventing their use in a D-statistic framework
518 which requires explicit outgroup designation.

519 To look for evidence of gene flow across the Caribbean, we focused on tests of
520 introgression with the two outgroup clades from our sample that came from other Caribbean

521 islands in the Bahamas and Dominican Republic. Based on the tree ((P1, P2),(*C. laciniatus*, *C.*
522 *bondi*)), f_4 statistics were calculated for all three possible combinations of P1,P2 among the pooled
523 populations of generalists, scale-eaters, and molluscivores on San Salvador Island. These f_4
524 statistics were calculated using the population allele frequencies of biallelic SNPs and summarized
525 over windows of 10 kb with a minimum of 50 variant sites using a custom python script (modified
526 from ABBABABA.py created by Simon H. Martin, available on
527 https://github.com/simonhmartin/genomics_general), allowing for up to 10% missing data within
528 a population per site. All 10 and 14 individuals from San Salvador were used in the tests for the
529 molluscivores and scale-eaters, respectively, for the comparison to the molluscivore and combined
530 scale-eater histories. In another calculation of f_4 statistics across the genome, the 5 small-jawed
531 scale-eater individuals were excluded for the comparison to the large-jawed scale-eater topology.
532 Although only single individuals from New Providence Island, Bahamas and the Dominican
533 Republic were used to represent *C. laciniatus* and *C. bondi* in the f_4 tests, these individuals that
534 were sequenced are a random sample from the populations and should be representative. This
535 resulted in 100,276 f_4 statistics (mean $f_4 = -2 \times 10^{-4}$) calculated across the genome for the test that
536 included all scale-eaters and 100,097 f_4 statistics (mean $f_4 = -9 \times 10^{-5}$) for the test excluding the small-
537 jawed scale-eaters. The significance of f_4 values was assessed through the calculation of Z-scores
538 using the mean and standard deviation of f_4 values calculated from all regions across the genome.
539 These Z-scores were then transformed into *P*-values and significance was assessed using a
540 Bonferroni-corrected significance threshold of 5×10^{-7} .

541 It is difficult to distinguish between genetic variation that is similar among taxa due to
542 introgression from a hybridization event and that from ancestral population structure, so some of
543 the regions with significant f_4 values may represent the biased assortment of genetic variation into

544 modern lineages from a structured ancestral population. A recent simulation study [99] found that
545 extending the use of genome-wide introgression statistics such as Patterson's D statistic and f_4
546 statistics to small genomic regions can result in a bias of detecting statistical outliers mostly in
547 genomic regions of reduced diversity. We assessed whether our identified regions of introgression
548 were predominately from regions of low diversity by comparing D_{xy} and π estimates across the
549 detected regions of introgression in comparison to the genome-wide estimates.

550 To visualize gene flow among the Caribbean populations included in this study, we used
551 TREEMIX v1.12 [50] to estimate population graphs with 0-4 admixture events connecting
552 populations. Population graphs were estimated for each region with a significant f_4 value, each
553 with a minimum of 50 SNPs and a block size of 1. The number of admixture events was estimated
554 by comparing the rate of change in log likelihood of each additional event, an approach similar to
555 one used in Evanno et al. ([100]; also see [41]). However, this analysis should be viewed only as
556 an exploratory tool as the reliability of TREEMIX to detect the number of admixture events has
557 not been tested. This analysis was designed to be applied on genome-wide allele frequencies and
558 estimates covariance in allele frequencies among populations in branch lengths using a model that
559 assumes allele frequency differences between populations are solely caused by genetic drift [50].
560 The use of fewer SNPs (≥ 50) in our window-based approach also makes it harder to reliably
561 distinguish between the different likelihoods for the number of migration events. The reliability of
562 inference under these conditions has not been evaluated, however the migration events inferred in
563 our TREEMIX results were consistent with our findings from our formal f_4 test for gene flow.

564

565 **Comparison of patterns of introgression to patterns of genetic divergence and diversity**

566 We then calculated several population genetic summary statistics in sliding windows across the

567 genome to compare to the f_4 patterns of introgression: F_{st} , within-population nucleotide diversity
568 (π) for pairwise species comparisons, and Tajima's D estimates of selection in each species. These
569 statistics were calculated in non-overlapping sliding windows of 10 kb using 'wier-fst-pop',
570 'window-pi', and 'TajimaD' functions in VCFtools v.0.1.14 [101]. Negative values of Tajima's D
571 indicate a reduction in nucleotide variation across segregating sites [102], which may result from
572 hard selective sweeps due to positive selection. We took the regions with Tajima's D values in the
573 95% percentile from the lower tail of the distribution as regions under strong positive selection.
574 Population genetic divergence (D_{xy}) between molluscivores and scale-eaters was calculated over
575 the same 10-kb windows of the f_4 tests using the python script popGenWindows.py created by
576 Simon Martin (available on https://github.com/simonhmartin/genomics_general). Within regions
577 of overlap between significant f_4 values, strongly negative Tajima's D values, fixed SNPs between
578 the two specialists, and alternative topologies, we looked for annotated genes and searched their
579 gene ontology in the phenotype database 'Phenoscape' [103–106] and AmiGO2 [107] for skeletal
580 system effects. Skeletal features, particularly craniofacial morphologies such as jaw length, have
581 extremely high rates of diversification among the species on San Salvador Island [36,41] and likely
582 play a key role in the diversification of this group.

583

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597

598 **Author Contributions**

599

600 EJR wrote the manuscript and conducted all analyses. CHM collected the samples and provided
601 the genomic data. Both authors contributed to the development of ideas presented in the study and
602 revised the manuscript.

603

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845 Short Article Plumage Genes and Little Else Distinguish the Genomes of Hybridizing
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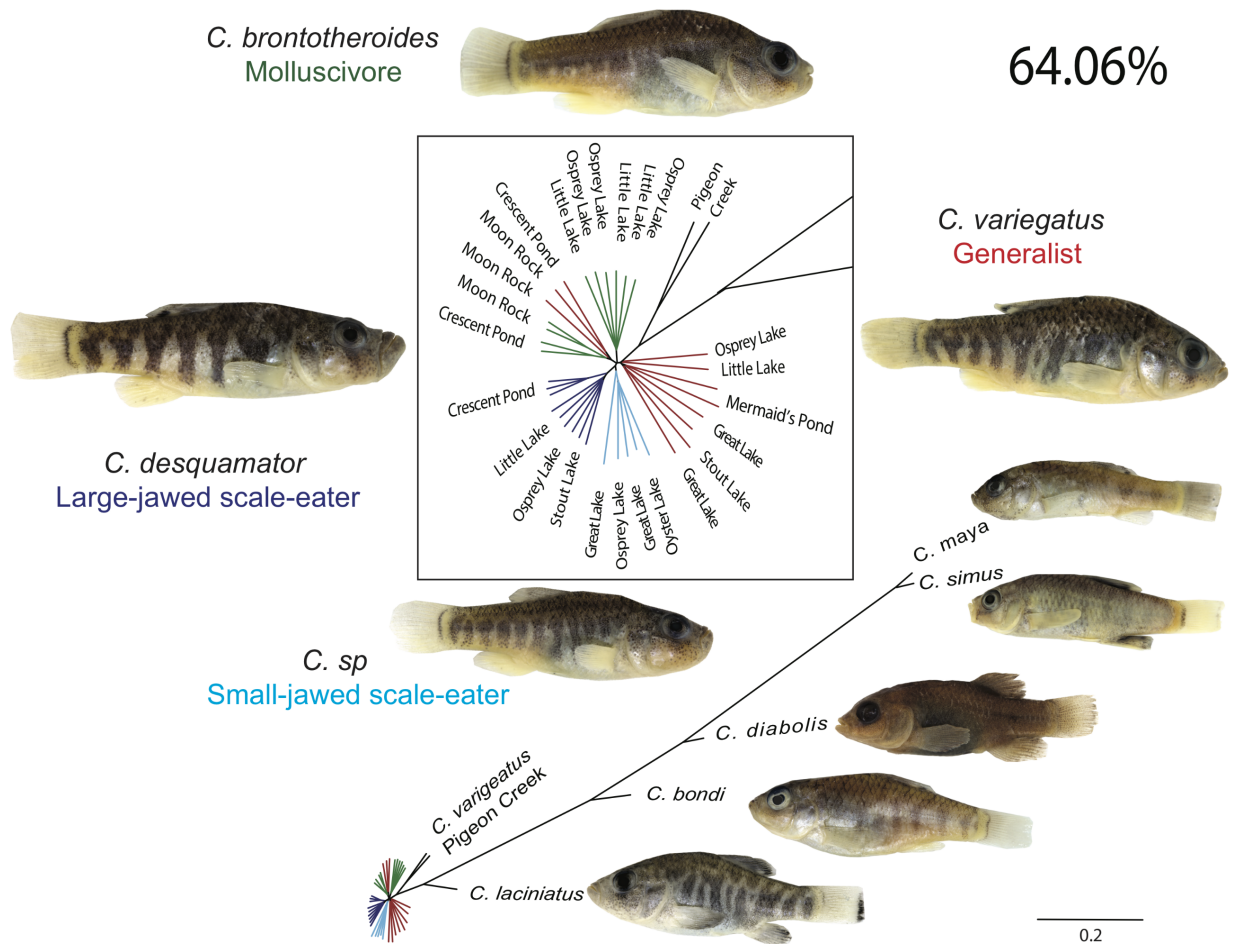
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894 **Fig. 1**



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897 **Fig 1. Neighborhood-joining tree of the dominant history of a monophyletic San Salvador**
898 **clade covering 64% of the genome.** San Salvador generalists (red), molluscivores (green), large-
899 jawed scale-eaters (dark blue), small-jawed scale-eaters (light blue), and outgroup species (black)
900 in the Caribbean, California, and Mexico. Other histories featuring a monophyletic San Salvador
901 clade are presented in S1 Fig.

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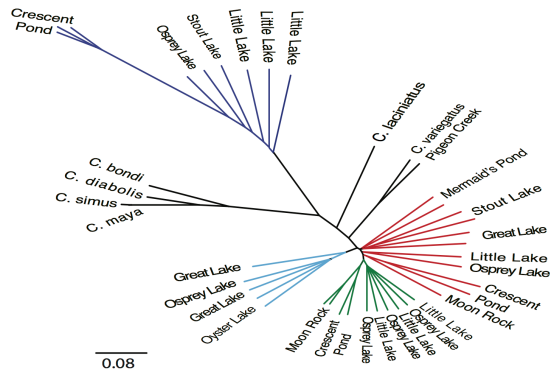
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Fig. 2

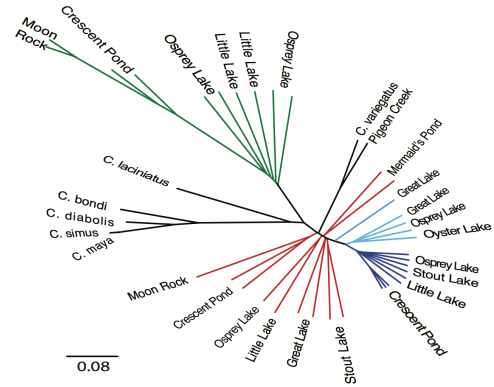
A) Large-jawed scale-eater

3.77%



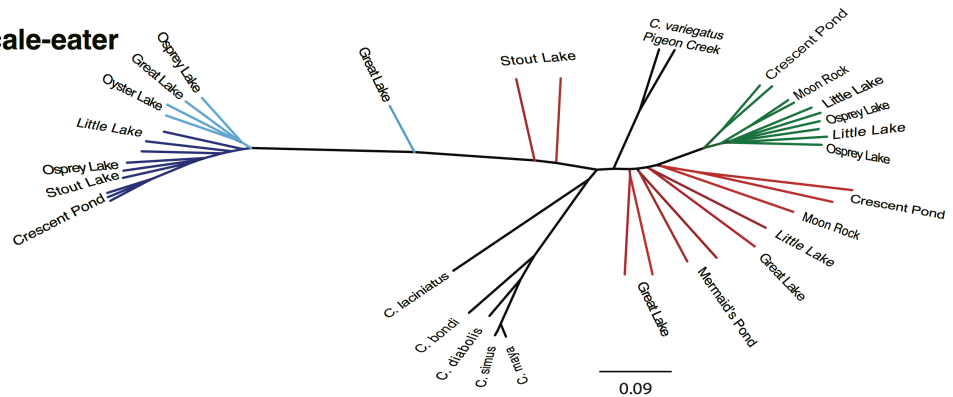
B) Molluscivore

3.12%



C) Combined Scale-eater

1.66%



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908 **Fig 2. Neighborhood-joining trees of alternative topologies.** (A) The large-jawed scale-eater

909 topology describing 3.77% of the genome, where larger jawed scale-eater individuals fall outside

910 of the San Salvador Island clade, with a sister relationship to outgroup pupfish species. (B) The

911 molluscivore topology assigned to a non-overlapping 3.12% of the genome, where molluscivore

912 individuals fall outside of the San Salvador Island clade, with a sister relationship to the outgroup

913 pupfish species. (C) The combined scale-eater topology assigned to another non-overlapping

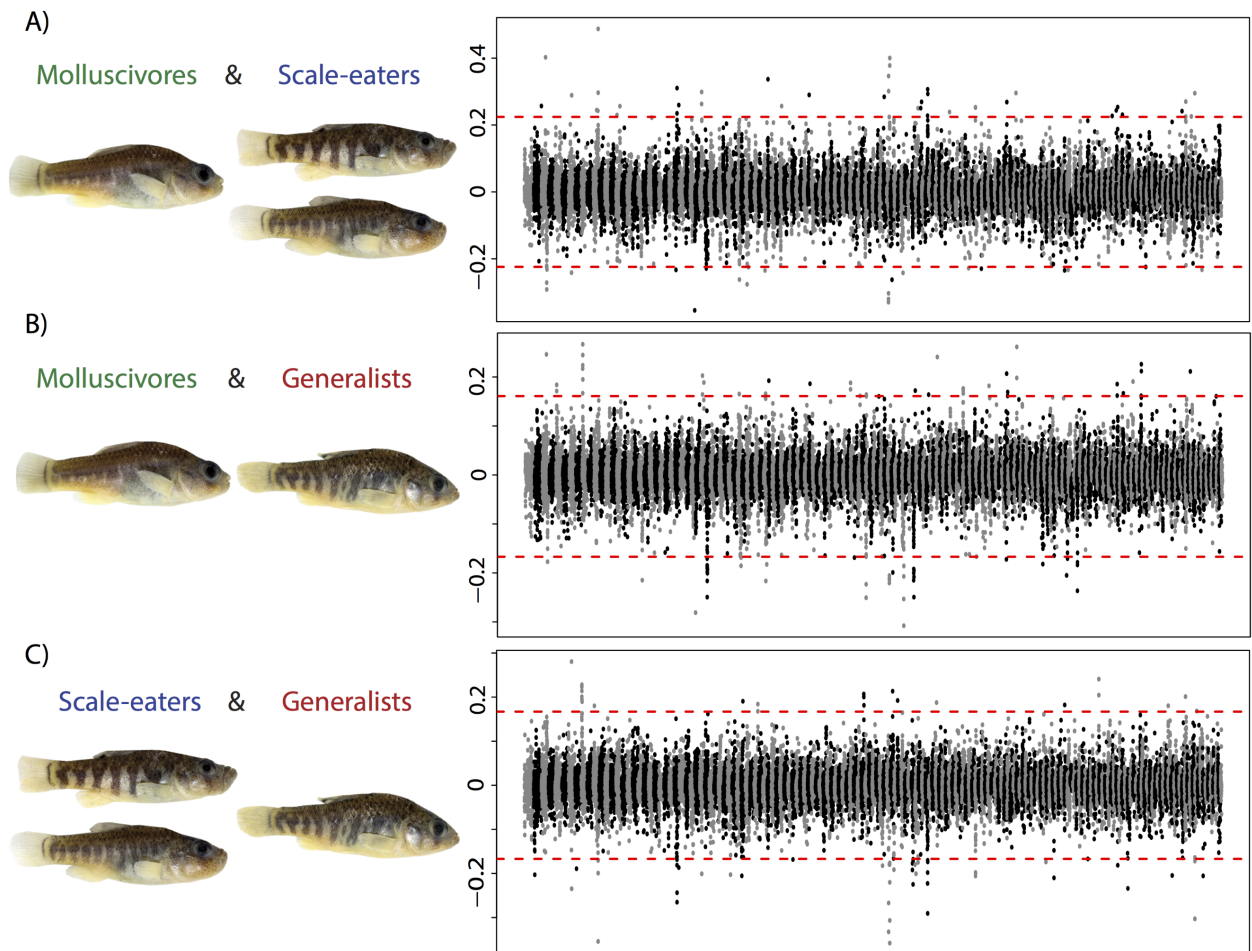
914 1.66% of the genome, where all scale-eaters (along with two generalists from Stout's Lake) fall

915 outside of the San Salvador clade with a sister relationship to the outgroup pupfish species.

916 Additional alternative topologies are presented in Fig S2.

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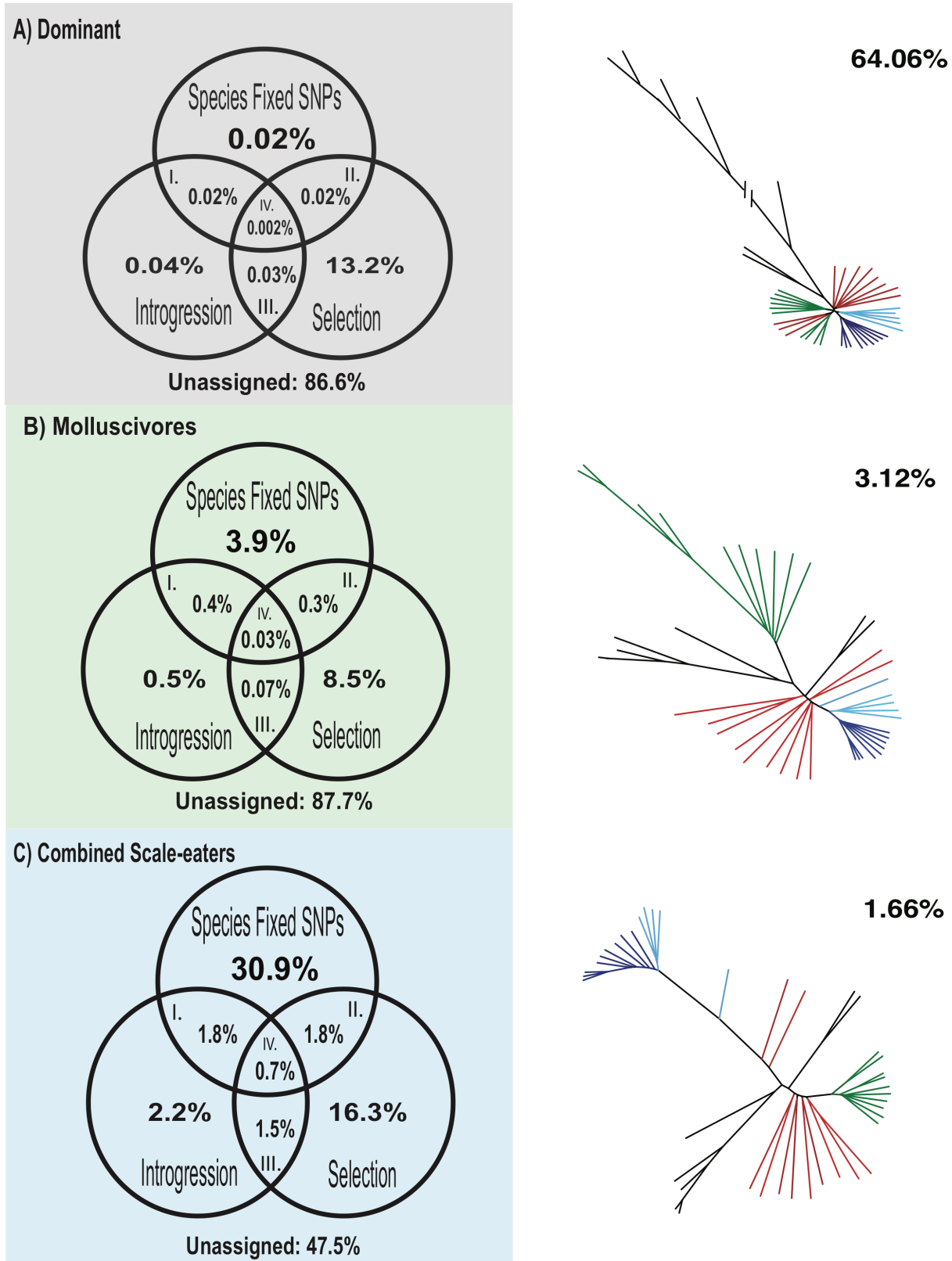
918 **Fig. 3**



919 **Fig 3. Variable introgression from distant Caribbean islands across the genomes of the San**
920 **Salvador trophic specialists.** Manhattan plot of the f_4 values between the *C. laciniatus* from New
921 Providence Island, Bahamas, *C. bondi* from Etang Saumautre Dominican Republic and (A)
922 molluscivores and scale-eaters on San Salvador, (B) molluscivores and generalists from San
923 Salvador, (C) scale-eaters and generalists on San Salvador. Alternating gray/black colors indicate
924 different scaffolds from the largest 170 scaffolds of the genome. Dotted red lines mark the of
925 Bonferroni-corrected significance level for the f_4 values (P -value $< 5.2 \times 10^{-7}$). Full Manhattan plots
926 for each comparison are presented in Figs. S3-S6.

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929 **Fig. 4**



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932 **Fig 4. Contributions of selection and introgression to species divergence across regions**
933 **assigned to different topologies.** Venn diagrams of the contribution of different sources of genetic
934 variation to speciation in this system based on fixed SNPs between the molluscivore and combined
935 scale-eaters, significant f_4 values of introgression, hard selective sweeps (the lower 5% of the
936 distribution of Tajima's D value) in regions assigned to the (A) dominant topology, (B)
937 molluscivore topology, and (C) combined scale-eater topology. Under each topology, we
938 calculated the percentage of I) regions that contain introgressed genetic variation from the
939 Caribbean contributing to species divergence, II) regions that have undergone strong selective
940 sweeps from non-introgressed genetic variation on San Salvador, III) adaptively introgressed
941 regions not contributing to species divergence , and IV) regions that have undergone selective
942 sweeps of introgressed variation that contribute to species divergence of the two specialists.

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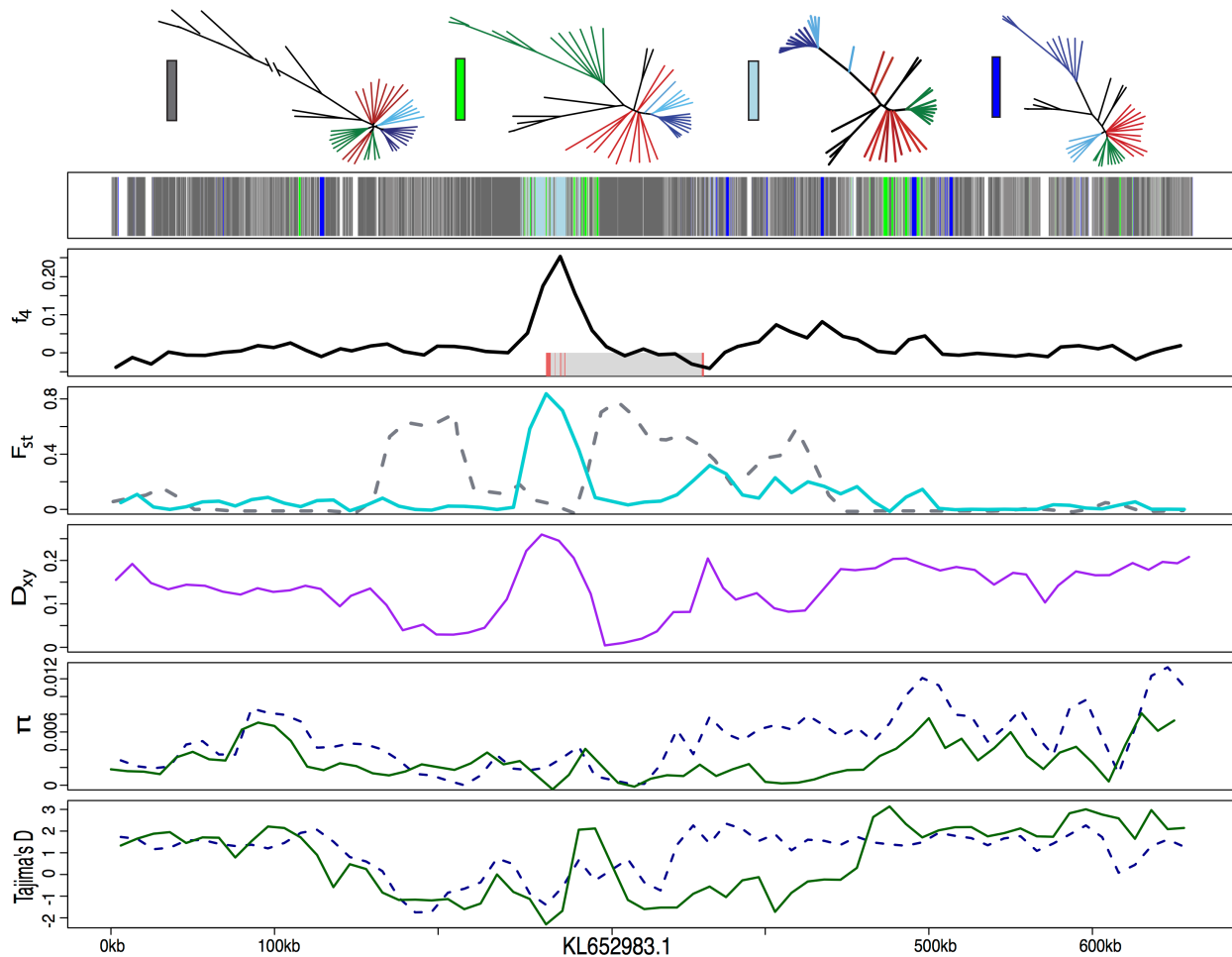
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955 **Fig. 5**



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958 **Fig 5. Candidate gene *ski* associated with jaw size [43] with signatures of introgression and**
 959 **a hard selective sweep.** Row 1 shows the history assigned by SAGUARO to segments along a
 960 600-kb scaffold (dark grey: dominant topology; blue: large-jawed scale-eater topology; light blue:
 961 combined scale-eater topology; green: molluscivore topology; light grey: all other topologies;
 962 white: unassigned segments). Row 2 shows average f_4 value across non-overlapping 10-kb
 963 windows between molluscivores/scale-eaters. Shaded grey box shows region annotated for *ski*
 964 gene with exons in red. Row 3 shows average F_{st} value across non-overlapping 10-kb windows
 965 between molluscivores/scale-eaters (turquoise) and molluscivores/*C. laciniatus* (gray-dashed).

966 Row 4 shows between-population divergence (D_{xy}) across non-overlapping 10-kb windows
967 between molluscivores/scale-eaters. Row 5 shows within-population diversity (π) across non-
968 overlapping 10-kb windows (blue-dashed: scale-eater; green: molluscivore). Row 6 shows
969 Tajima's D across non-overlapping 10-kb windows (blue-dashed: scale-eater; green:
970 molluscivore).

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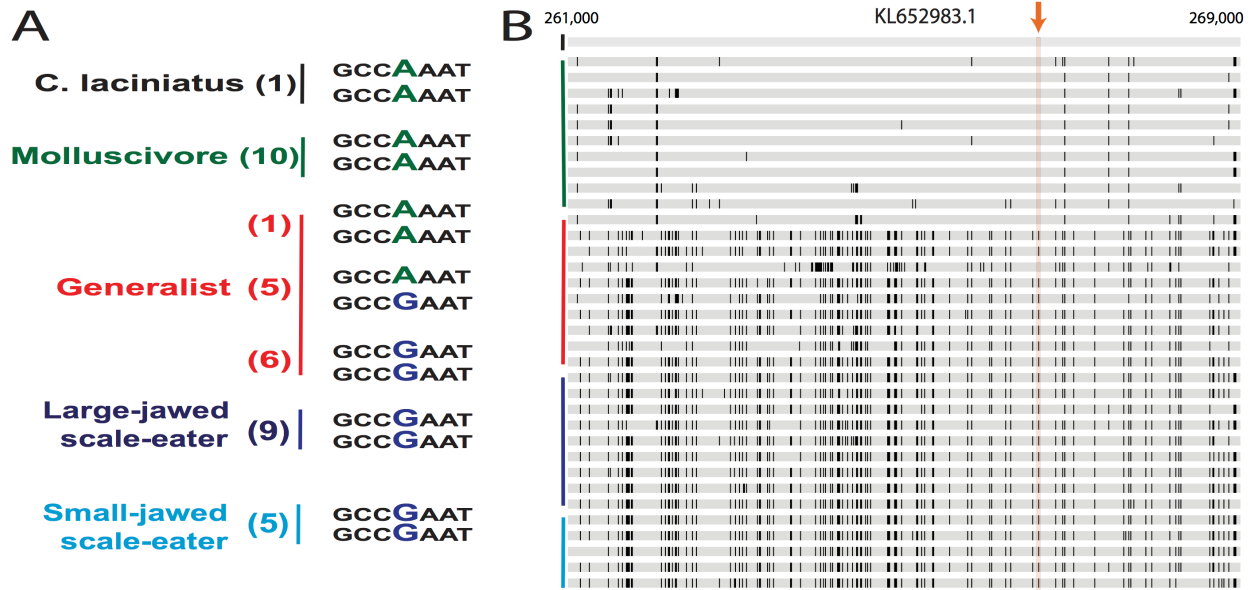
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989 Fig. 6



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991 **Fig 6. Genetic diversity surrounding the fixed variant in *ski* region assigned to the combined**

992 **scale-eater topology. (A) The variant fixed between the two specialists. The number of individuals**

993 with the haplotype(s) are located in parentheses next to species names.

994 (B) A comparison of the San Salvador genotypes (green=molluscivore; red=generalists;

995 blue=scale-eater) with the *C. laciniatus* genotype (black) across an 8-kb window surrounding the

996 fixed variant (orange arrow). The alleles that do not match the alleles of *C. laciniatus* are

997 highlighted with black bars. The arrow points to the conflicting genotypes in the surrounding 8 kb

998 region of the SNP.

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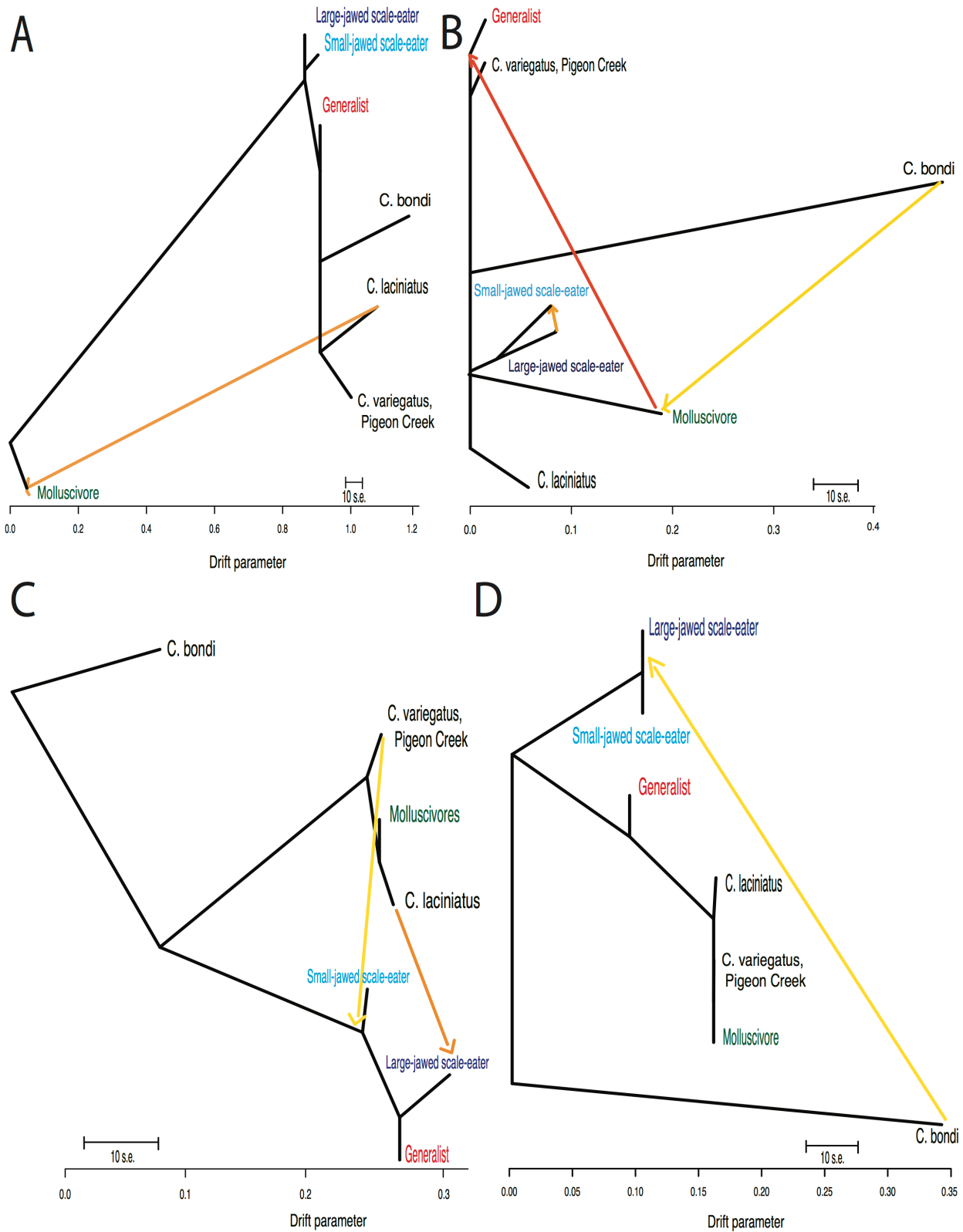
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1005 **Fig. 7**



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1007 **Fig 7. Three different histories of adaptive introgression into the molluscivore specialist from**
1008 **a distant Caribbean island visualized using using Treemix graphs.** Adaptively introgressed
1009 region overlapping with the combined scale-eater topology supporting (A) gene flow from *C.*
1010 *laciniatus* into the molluscivores in the *ski* region (change in composite log-likelihood with
1011 increase in number of migration events: $m=0$, LnL: -320; $m=1$, LnL: 81), (B) gene flow from *C.*
1012 *bondi* into the molluscivores ($m=1$, LnL: 74 ; $m=2$, LnL: 107), (C) gene flow from *C. laciniatus*
1013 into the scale-eaters ($m=0$, LnL: -268; $m=1$, LnL: 95), and (D) gene flow from *C. bondi* into scale-
1014 eaters ($m=2$, LnL: -274; $m=3$, LnL: 130).

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1034 **Supporting Information**

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1036 **S1 Fig. Hypothesized histories featuring a monophyletic San Salvador clade and the percent of**
1037 **the genome assigned to the histories.** Black lineages are the *Cyprinodon* outgroups, red lineages

1038 are the San Salvador generalists, green lineages are the San Salvador molluscivores, dark blue

1039 lineages are the large jawed scale-eaters and light blue lineages are the small-jawed scale-eaters.

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1041 **S2 Fig. Hypothesized histories featuring a non-monophyletic San Salvador clade and the**
1042 **percent of the genome assigned to the histories.** Black lineages are the *Cyprinodon* outgroups,

1043 red lineages are the San Salvador generalists, green lineages are the San Salvador molluscivores,

1044 dark blue lineages are the large jawed scale-eaters and light blue lineages are the small jawed

1045 scale-eater.

1046

1047 **S3 Fig. Visualization of introgression across the genomes of molluscivores and scale-eaters.**

1048 Manhattan plot of the f_4 values between the San Salvador molluscivores, scale-eaters, *C.*

1049 *laciniatus* from New Providence Island, Bahamas and *C. bondi* from Etang Saumautre, Dominican

1050 Republic. Alternating gray/black colors indicate different scaffolds, starting with the largest

1051 scaffolds in the top row and the smallest scaffolds in the bottom row. Dotted red lines mark the

1052 of Bonferroni-corrected significance level for the f_4 values (P -value $< 5.2 \times 10^{-7}$).

1053

1054 **S4 Fig. Visualization of introgression across the genomes of molluscivores and generalists.**

1055 Manhattan plot of the f_4 values between the San Salvador molluscivores, generalists, *C. laciniatus*

1056 from New Providence Island, Bahamas and *C. bondi* from Etang Saumautre, Dominican Republic.
1057 Alternating gray/black colors indicate different scaffolds, starting with the largest scaffolds in the
1058 top row and the smallest scaffolds in the bottom row.

1059

1060 **S5 Fig. Visualization of introgression across the genomes of scale-eaters and generalists.**

1061 Manhattan plot of the f_4 values between the San Salvador large-jawed scale-eaters, small-jawed
1062 scale-eaters, *C. laciniatus* from New Providence Island, Bahamas and *C. bondi* from Etang
1063 Saumautre, Dominican Republic. Alternating gray/black colors indicate different scaffolds,
1064 starting with the largest scaffolds in the top row and the smallest scaffolds in the bottom row.

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1066 **S6 Fig. Visualization of introgression across the genomes of large-jawed scale-eaters and**

1067 **molluscivores.** Manhattan plot of the f_4 values between the San Salvador large-jawed scale-
1068 eaters, molluscivores, *C. laciniatus* from New Providence Island, Bahamas and *C. bondi* from
1069 Etang Saumautre, Dominican Republic. Alternating gray/black colors indicate different scaffolds,
1070 starting with the largest scaffolds in the top row and the smallest scaffolds in the bottom row.

1071

1072 **S7 Fig. Comparison of f_4 to genetic diversity statistics over 10-kb non-overlapping windows.** Red

1073 dots indicate 10-kb regions with signals of introgression above Bonferroni-corrected significance
1074 level the f_4 values (P -value $< 5.2 \times 10^{-7}$). The f_4 statistic of a region compared to A) F_{st} between
1075 molluscivores and scale-eaters in the region, B) D_{xy} between molluscivores and scale-eaters on
1076 San Salvador, C) within-population diversity in molluscivores, and D) within-population diversity
1077 in San Salvador scale-eaters.

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1079 **S8 Fig. The percentage of segments assigned to large-jawed scale-eater topology that contain**
1080 **signatures of species divergence, selection, and introgression.** Venn diagrams of the
1081 contribution of different sources of genetic variation to speciation in this system based on the
1082 overlap of regions with fixed SNPs between the molluscivore and large-jawed scale-eater,
1083 significant f_4 values of introgression, the lower 5% of the distribution of Tajima's D value with
1084 positive selection and their overlap. Under each topology, we calculated the percentage of I)
1085 regions that contain introgressed genetic variation from the Caribbean contributing to species
1086 divergence, II) regions that have undergone strong selective sweeps from non-introgressed
1087 genetic variation on San Salvador, III) adaptively introgressed regions not contributing to species
1088 divergence, and IV) regions that have undergone selective sweeps of introgressed variation that
1089 contribute to species divergence of the two specialists.

1090

1091 **S9 Fig. The proportion of the genome assigned to each topology by SAGRUARO.** The insert is a
1092 closer look at the 13 topologies assigned to the smallest proportion of the genome and the
1093 uninformative 15th topology hypothesized. This shows a saturation in the variation in topologies
1094 across the genome at 14.

1095

1096 **S1 Table: Hypothesized topologies from the SAGUARO analysis.**

1097

1098 **S2 Table: Summary statistics in adaptively introgressed regions.**

1099

1100 **S3 Table: Pairwise genetic divergence (F_{st}) between molluscivores, scale-eaters, *C. laciniatus***
1101 **and *C. bondi*.**

1102

1103 **S4 Table: Summary of admixture events inferred by TREEMIX for the 21 adaptively**
1104 **introgressed regions assigned to the three alternative topologies.** San Salvador Island generalist
1105 (G), San Salvador Island large-jawed scale-eater (L), San Salvador Island small-jawed scale-eater
1106 (S), San Salvador Island molluscivore (M), *C. laciniatus* from New Providence Island Bahamas
1107 (CUN), *C. bondi* from Dominican Republic (ETA), most recent common ancestor of Caribbean
1108 pupfish lineages (MRC).