1	Genomic signatures of sympatric speciation with historical and
2	contemporary gene flow in a tropical anthozoan
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12	Keywords: Sea anemone, species delimitation, allele frequency spectrum, model selection, coral
13	reefs, natural selection
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16	Abstract
17	Sympatric diversification is increasingly thought to have played an important role in the
18	evolution of biodiversity around the globe. However, an in situ sympatric origin for co-
19	distributed taxa is difficult to demonstrate empirically because different evolutionary processes
20	can lead to similar biogeographic outcomes- especially in ecosystems with few hard barriers to
21	dispersal that can facilitate allopatric speciation followed by secondary contact (e.g. marine

22 habitats). Here we use a genomic (ddRADseq), model-based approach to delimit a cryptic 23 species complex of tropical sea anemones that are co-distributed on coral reefs throughout the 24 Tropical Western Atlantic. We use coalescent simulations in *fastsimcoal2* to test competing 25 diversification scenarios that span the allopatric-sympatric continuum. We recover support that 26 the corkscrew sea anemone *Bartholomea annulata* (Le Sueur, 1817) is a cryptic species 27 complex, co-distributed throughout its range. Simulation and model selection analyses suggest 28 these lineages arose in the face of historical and contemporary gene flow, supporting a sympatric 29 origin, but an alternative secondary contact model also receives appreciable model support. 30 Leveraging the genome of *Exaiptasia pallida* we identify five loci under divergent selection 31 between cryptic *B. annulata* lineages that fall within mRNA transcripts or CDS regions. Our 32 study provides a rare empirical, genomic example of sympatric speciation in a tropical 33 anthozoan- a group that includes reef-building corals. Finally, these data represent the first 34 range-wide molecular study of any tropical sea anemone, underscoring that anemone diversity is 35 under described in the tropics, and highlighting the need for additional systematic studies into 36 these ecologically and economically important species.

37

#### 38 1. Introduction

Understanding the processes by which species form is fundamental to evolutionary
biology. Historically, Darwin championed the role of deterministic mechanisms (i.e. selection),
while the dominant paradigm of the Modern Synthesis required physical isolation as the primary
starting point for reproductive isolation and speciation (e.g. Bird, Fernandez-Silva, Skillings, &
Toonen, 2012; Bowen, Rocha, Toonen, Karl, & the ToBo Laboratory, 2013; Coyne & Orr, 2004;
Gaither et al., 2015; Orr & Smith, 1998; Via, 2001). Under a deterministic framework, physical

45 isolation is not a prerequisite for speciation, and selection can maintain reproductive isolation 46 between sympatric populations in the early stages of divergence. The influential biologists of the 20th century Modern Synthesis (i.e. Dobzhansky, Mayr, Maynard Smith) largely rejected 47 48 sympatric speciation (reviewed by Bird et al., 2012), citing the homogenizing effects of gene 49 flow and chromosomal rearrangement to prevent loci under divergent selection from 50 accumulating and promoting reproductive isolation. Today, after decades of molecular data 51 generation and increasing DNA sequencing technology, the idea of sympatric speciation is no 52 longer as controversial. The gradually evolving genome championed by the Modern Synthesis is 53 now giving way to a paradigm where it is understood that selection can drive divergence over 54 short timescales without physical isolation, even in the face of historical and ongoing gene flow 55 (e.g. Christie et al., 2017; Dennenmoser, Vamosi, Nolte, & Rogers, 2017; Feder, Egan, & Nosil, 56 2012; Nadeau et al., 2012; Renaut et al., 2013).

57 However, the relative contributions of allopatric and sympatric speciation in generating 58 patterns of global biodiversity remain largely unresolved (e.g. Bolnick & Fitzpatric, 2007; 59 Bowen et al., 2013) because different evolutionary processes can lead to similar outcomes. For 60 example, it is challenging to empirically establish that co-distributed sister taxa diversified in 61 sympatry versus allopatry, and that the contemporary geographic overlap isn't the result of 62 secondary contact following an allopatric diversification event (reviewed by Bird et al., 2012). 63 Coyne and Orr (2004) suggest that divergence in sympatry, versus allopatric divergence and 64 secondary contact, would be inferred only if the species exhibit reciprocal monophyly and are 65 reproductively incompatible, or that an allopatric explanation seems unlikely. These criteria may 66 be difficult to establish, as newly diverged species may not be reciprocally monophyletic across 67 all individuals at all loci due to gene flow, periodic introgression, and incomplete lineage sorting. 68 Further, contemporary distributions may not reflect historical ones, and range shifts in the distant 69 past may obscure the geographic setting of diversification (e.g. Quenouille et al., 2011; Renema 70 et al., 2008). Mathematical models present another paradigm to demonstrate that a sympatric 71 explanation is favored over alternative scenarios (Bird et al., 2012). These allow researchers to 72 test competing diversification scenarios, build models that incorporate explicit parameters for the 73 directionality, magnitude, and timing of migration events, and use model selection to objectively 74 and quantitatively inform demographic inference. For co-distributed sister taxa with no obvious 75 geographic partitioning, patterns that demonstrate divergence in the face of ancestral and 76 contemporary gene flow are considered among the strongest lines of evidence supporting 77 sympatric diversification scenarios (Bird et al., 2012). 78 Tropical coral reefs are being increasingly viewed as fruitful ecosystems to explore 79 sympatric speciation (Bowen et al., 2013). Coral reefs are the most biodiverse marine habitats on 80 the planet, yet the bulk of diversity resides on less than 0.1% of the seafloor, in a setting with few 81 hard barriers to dispersal. Purely allopatric models of speciation are an uneasy fit for describing 82 diversification on this scale in this habitat (Bowen et al., 2013; Gaither et al., 2015; Gaither & 83 Rocha, 2013; Rocha & Bowen, 2008). Evidence for non-allopatric divergence on coral reefs has 84 been increasing, mainly from reef fishes, including species such as angelfishes, hamlets,

damselfishes, wrasses, basslets, grunts, and gobies (Bernal, Gaither, Simison, & Rocha, 2017;

86 Bowen et al., 2013; Hodge, Read, Bellwood, & Herwerden, 2013; Gaither et al., 2015; ;

87 Munday, van Herwerden, & Dudgeon, 2004;). Examples from invertebrate species are rarer, but

88 sympatric speciation has been invoked to explain to the diversification in limpets, nudibranchs,

sponges, and corals (reviewed by Bowen et al. 2013). Most of the accepted examples of putative

90 sympatric speciation from tropical marine systems have been made by documenting genetic

91 differentiation between species/populations with overlapping distributions, but that segregate 92 ecologically or in some other non-allopatric manner (e.g. Bongaerts et al., 2010; 2013). Other 93 studies have used genomics to search for the basis of ecological adaptation for co-distributed 94 species, and thus the basis for maintaining reproductive isolation and putative cause of 95 divergence, but have not focused on the historical demographics of the speciation process itself 96 (e.g. Rose, Bay, Morikawa, & Palumbi, 2018). The result is that many of the studies invoking 97 sympatric diversification to explain the observed genetic and ecological patterns on reefs, while 98 likely correct in many cases, arrive at these conclusions *post hoc*, and do not test competing 99 speciation hypotheses. Modeling alternative processes provides a more objective way to assess 100 the contributions of sympatric speciation, and helps avoid data over interpretation by 101 incorporating statistical uncertainty into the model selection process (e.g. Knowles, 2009). 102 Here we conduct range-wide population-level sampling on coral reefs throughout the 103 Tropical Western Atlantic (TWA) for the corkscrew sea anemone Bartholomea annulata, a 104 common and ecologically important sea anemone that is described as a single species throughout 105 its range (e.g. Briones-Fourzán, Pérez-Ortiz, Negrete-Soto, Barradas-Ortiz, & Lozano-Álvarez, 106 2012; Titus & Daly, 2017; Titus, Daly, & Exton, 2015; Titus et al., 2017). Using a double digest 107 restriction-site associated DNA sequencing (ddRADseq) approach, we detect support for a 108 previously unrecognized cryptic species that is co-distributed throughout the region. We then use 109 the joint-folded allele frequency spectrum and coalescent simulations to model alternative 110 diversification hypotheses. Finally, we conduct genome scans to identify loci under putative 111 natural selection, and then leverage the close relationship between *B. annulata* and *Exaiptasia* 112 pallida (see Grajales & Rodriguez, 2016), a species for which a genome has been published 113 (Baumgarten et al., 2014), to explore whether these fall within, or are linked to, functional

114 coding regions. Our model selection results provide one of the first genomic examples of 115 sympatric speciation in the face of historical and ongoing gene flow in a tropical anthozoan, 116 although an alternative secondary-contact model receives appreciable model support. This study 117 highlights the importance of testing alternative diversification hypotheses and accounting for 118 model uncertainty when conducting studies aimed at empirically demonstrating sympatric 119 diversification. Lastly, these data represent the first range-wide molecular investigation into any 120 reef-dwelling sea anemone in the world, underscoring that anemone diversity is under described 121 in the tropics, and highlighting the need for additional systematic studies into these ecologically 122 and economically important species. 123 124 2. Material and Methods 125 2.1. Sample collection, DNA isolation, and library preparation 126 Tissue samples (i.e. tentacle clippings and whole animals) were collected by hand using 127 SCUBA from 14 sample localities spanning the geographic range of *B. annulata*, and from 128 localities separated by known phylogeographic barriers (Fig. 1; reviewed by DeBiasse, Richards, 129 Shivji, & Hellberg, 2016). Samples were collected from coral reef habitats between 5- and 20-m 130 depth, preserved on shore, and transferred back to The Ohio State University for DNA extraction 131 and sequencing. Genomic DNA was isolated using DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kits (Qiagen Inc.) 132 and stored at -20°C. DNA degradation was assessed for each sample using gel electrophoresis, 133 and only samples with high molecular weight DNA were carried forward for ddRADseq library 134 preparation. DNA concentrations were quantified (ng/uL) using a Qubit 2.0 (ThermoFisher) 135 fluorometer and dsDNA broad-range assay kits. 20uL aliquots, each with 200ng of DNA, were 136 prepared for each sample and used for ddRADseq library preparation.

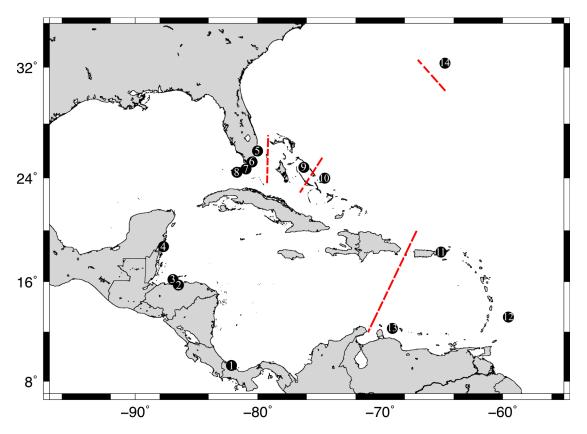
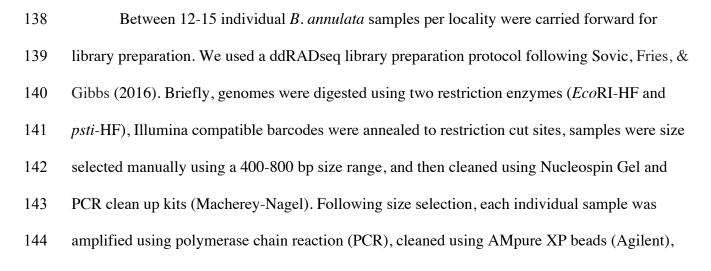


Figure 1. Map of sampling localities in the Tropical Western Atlantic for the corkscrew sea anemone *Bartholomea annulata*. 1) Bocas del Toro, Panama, 2) Cayos Cochinos, Honduras, 3) Utila, Honduras, 4) Mahahual, Mexico, 5) Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, 6) Upper Keys, Florida, 7) Middle Keys, Florida, 8) Lower Keys, Florida, 9) Eleuthera, Bahamas, 10) San Salvador, Bahamas, 11) St. Thomas, US Virgin Islands, 12) Barbados, 13) Curacao, 14) Bermuda. Dashed lines denote previously recovered major phylogeographic breaks and allopatric boundaries in the region. Sympatric lineages were recovered from all localities except Honduras (2, 3), Virgin Islands (11), and Bermuda (14).



145 and then quantified via quantitative PCRs (qPCR) to inform the pooling of individual samples 146 into final libraries. A total of 141 individuals (Table 1) met all quality control steps and were 147 pooled across five separate libraries. Samples were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 using 148 single-end 100 base pair reads at The Ohio State University Genomics Shared Resource. 149 150 2.2. Data processing and dataset assembly 151 Raw sequence reads were demultiplexed, aligned, and assembled *de novo* using the 152 program pyRAD v3.0.66 (Eaton, 2014). We required a base call Phred score of 20 and set the 153 maximum number of bases in a locus with Phred scores < 20 (NQual) to five. Low quality base 154 calls were replaced with Ns. We set the clustering threshold (Wclust) to 0.90 to assemble reads 155 into loci, and required a minimum coverage depth of seven to call a locus (Mindepth). Finally, 156 we required a locus to be present in 75% of all individuals to be retained in the final dataset. 157 RADseq protocols are known to be susceptible to missing data due to mutations in restriction cut 158 sites and allelic dropout (e.g. Arnold, Corbett-Detig, Hartl, & Bomblies, 2013), but biases can 159 also arise when datasets are overly conservative (i.e. no missing data allowed; Huang & 160 Knowles, 2014). Thus we allowed some missing data in our final dataset. 161 Like most coral reef dwelling anthozoans, *B. annulata* hosts endosymbiotic 162 dinoflagellates from the genus Symbiodinium (e.g. Grajales & Rodriguez, 2016). Thus, DNA 163 extractions harbor a mix of anemone and dinoflagellate DNA, and the resulting ddRAD 164 sequencing yields a mixture of anemone and *Symbiodinium* sequences. To deal with the 165 potentially confounding Symbiodinium DNA contamination and verify that our final data set 166 contains SNPs that are anemone DNA only, we created a symbiont-free dataset by mapping 167 ddRADseq loci to the Exaiptasia pallida genome (Baumgarten et al., 2014). Exaiptasia pallida

168 and *B. annulata* are members of the same family and are closely related (Grajales & Rodriguez, 169 2016), and polymorphic microsatellites have previously been designed from E. pallida that 170 amplify in *B. annulata* (Titus et al., 2017). To map polymorphic *B. annulata* loci to *E. pallida*, 171 we downloaded the *E. pallida* genome and created a local BLAST database. After initially 172 running pyRAD to completion, a python script (parse\_loci.py, available on Dryad doi:XXX) was 173 written to select the first DNA sequence from each locus in the .loci output file, and create a 174 .fasta file that could then be BLASTed against the *E. pallida* genome (BLAST+; Camacho et al, 175 2009). We used an 85% identity threshold to call a locus as putatively anemone in origin, to 176 avoid being over conservative as we were not mapping to a conspecific genome. Next, a separate 177 python script (blast2loci.py, available on Dryad doi:XXX) was written to read through the 178 BLAST output file, pull all sequences in all loci that met the 85% identity threshold, and create a 179 new .loci file with the same file name as the original. The original .loci file was then replaced 180 with the new anemone-only file, at which point the final step of pyRAD (step 7) was re-run to 181 create our final anemone-only output files (i.e. unlinked SNPs and alleles files) for downstream 182 analyses.

183

# 184 2.3. Genetic clustering and species delimitation

To search for evidence of cryptic species-level diversity, we used the clustering program Structure v2.3.4 (Pritchard, 2000) as a preliminary species discovery analysis (i.e. no *a priori* species assignments; reviewed by Carstens, Pelletier, Reid, & Satler, 2013). We collapsed biallelic data into haplotypes at each locus, using information contained in linked SNPs when more than one SNP was present in a locus. Each analysis in Structure was run using the full set of samples (Table S1), and used the admixture model, correlated allele frequencies, and sampling

191	location. Each MCMC chain for each value of K was run with a burnin of 1 x $10^5$ generations
192	and sampling period of 2 x $10^5$ generations. We conducted five iterations of a broad range of K
193	values (1-6), to gain an initial snapshot of the data across the region. In both initial analyses we
194	used the peak ln $Pr(D K)$ and the $\Delta K$ (Evanno et al. 2005) to help select the best K value.
195	Structure analyses overwhelmingly selected $K = 2$ as the best clustering scheme with both
196	genetic clusters being co-distributed throughout the entire TWA, save for Bermuda and the US
197	Virgin Islands (see Results). Because this pattern may suggest the presence of an unrecognized
198	cryptic anemone species, we conducted species delimitation analyses using path sampling and
199	Bayes factors using the program SNAPP and Bayes Factor Delimitation* (BFD*; Leache, Fujita,
200	Minin, & Bouckaert, 2014). BFD* uses unlinked SNPs and marginal likelihood estimates
201	(MLEs) calculated via path sampling in the species tree program SNAPP (Bryant et al., 2012) to
202	perform model selection on competing species delimitation models. We tested the current
203	concept of <i>B. annulata</i> (i.e. a single TWA species) versus the alternative model (i.e. two
204	sympatric species). Bayes Factors were calculated after Leache et al. (2014). Positive values
205	indicate support for model 1 (current concept) while negative values indicate support for model 2
206	(competing species delimitation models; Leache et al., 2014).
207	Due to the computational constraints running SNAPP with biallelic SNP data (i.e.
208	computation time increases linearly as more loci are added but exponentially as more samples
209	are added), and missing data constraints for estimating species trees (i.e. data has to be present in
210	at least one individual at each locus for each putative species) we created new SNP datasets by

211 significantly reducing the number of total individuals so that our analyses could be completed

212 over the course of days rather than weeks or months. Similar approaches have been taken by

213 previous studies (e.g. Sovic et al., 2016). We used n = 5 randomly selected individuals from each

214	genetic cluster delimited by Structure and used <i>E. pallida</i> as an outgroup as BFD* can only
215	perform model selection on models with $n \ge 2$ species (Table S2).
216	Of 11 total individuals included in this subset analysis, we required a locus to be present
217	in 10 of 11 individuals to meet the requirements of species tree estimation. Our species
218	delimitations were thus a two species model (E. pallida + current concept of B. annulata) and a
219	three species model ( <i>E. pallida</i> + <i>B. annulata</i> Clade 1 + <i>B. annulata</i> Clade 2). For each SNAPP
220	analysis, mutation rates $u$ and $v$ were set to 1 and were not sampled and the coalescent rate was
221	set at 10 and sampled throughout the analysis. We used only polymorphic loci and a broad
222	gamma distributed (2, 200) prior for speciation rate ( $\lambda$ ). Each step in the path analysis (48 steps)
223	was conducted in SNAPP v1.3 and BEAST v.2.4.6 (Bouckaert et al., 2014) for 1 x $10^5$ MCMC
224	generations with 10% discarded as burnin.
225	As we did not include any <i>E. pallida</i> samples in our ddRAD sequencing, we wrote a
226	python script that located and pulled the segments of DNA from the E. pallida genome where
227	our 100bp B. annulata loci mapped with high confidence using BLAST searches
228	(add_outgroup.py, available on Dryad; LINK). These 100bp segments of E. pallida DNA were
229	then incorporated into, and aligned with, our <i>B. annulata</i> RAD loci using Muscle v3.8.31 (Edgar
230	2004). SNPs were recoded and one SNP per locus was pulled randomly to create a new unlinked
231	SNP .nexus file that could be inputted into SNAPP (aln2snapp.py, available on Dryad doi:XXX).
222	
232	This novel approach for using current genomic resources to add outgroups to RADseq datasets
232	This novel approach for using current genomic resources to add outgroups to RADseq datasets should be amenable to any set of closely related species. The script, along with full details and

236 2.4. Model selection

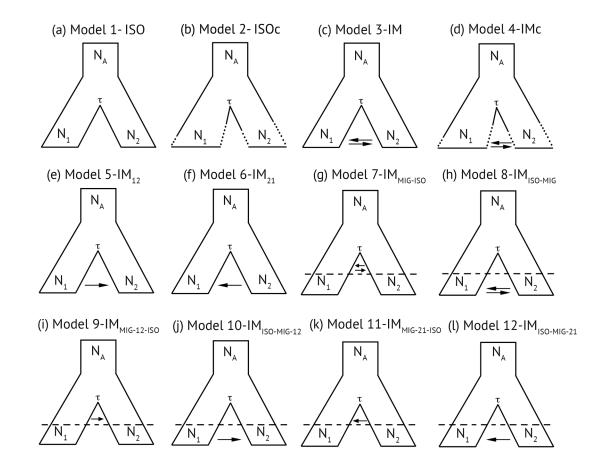
237 We used the allele frequency spectrum (AFS) and a coalescent simulation approach using 238 the program fastsimcoal2 (FSC2; Excoffier, Dupanloup, Huerta-Sánchez, Sousa, & Foll, 2013) 239 to provide empirical support that the pattern of cryptic species-level diversity we detect using our 240 ddRADseq dataset most likely arose sympatrically. FSC2 uses coalescent simulations to 241 calculate the composite likelihood of arbitrarily complex demographic models under a given 242 AFS. The best-fit model can then be selected using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). 243 We built 12 demographic models (Fig. 2), all variants of the two-population isolation-244 migration models, as Structure and BFD\* analyses support two lineages of B. annulata (see 245 Results). Models are isolation-only, isolation followed by secondary contact, and models that 246 incorporate historical and contemporary gene flow (Fig. 2). We aim to test the likelihood of 247 alternative hypotheses given the available data rather than attempting to prove sympatric 248 speciation with "air-tight" evidence (Bird et al., 2012). For lineages that are co-distributed 249 throughout their entire range, the strongest evidence for sympatric diversification would be 250 models that demonstrate both historical and contemporary gene flow (i.e. no interruption of gene 251 flow). These models necessarily exclude allopatric scenarios where complete geographic 252 isolation has disrupted gene flow to initiate divergence (Bird et al., 2012). Conversely, the 253 weakest evidence for sympatric speciation would be isolation-only and secondary-contact 254 models. In the latter scenario, we would fail to reject scenarios where divergence occurred with 255 complete allopatric isolation but became sympatrically distributed and resumed gene flow after 256 secondary contact.

To conduct simulation analyses, two-population, joint-folded AFS were generated from pyRAD output files and previously published python scripts (see Satler & Carstens, 2017) using 24 randomly selected individuals from the more well sampled *B. annulata* lineage (Clade 2) and

260 all 16 individuals from the less sampled lineage (Clade 1; Table S3). One of the assumptions of 261 FSC2 is that SNPs are in linkage equilibrium (Excoffier et al., 2013), and thus, only one SNP per 262 locus was selected to produce the AFS. Further, AFS calculations in FSC2 require fixed numbers 263 of alleles from all populations (i.e. no missing data). As meeting this latter requirement would 264 greatly decrease our dataset size, and thus likely bias our analyses, we followed the protocol of 265 Satler and Carstens (2017) and Smith et al., (2017) by requiring a locus in our AFS to be present 266 in 85% of all individuals. To account for missing data without violating the requirements of the 267 AFS we built our AFS as follows: 1) if a locus had fewer alleles than our threshold it was 268 discarded, 2) if a locus had the exact number of alleles as the threshold, the minor allele 269 frequency was recorded, and 3) if a locus exceeded the threshold, alleles were down-sampled 270 with replacement until the number of alleles met the threshold, at which point the minor allele 271 frequency was counted. This approach allowed us to maximize the number of SNPs used to build 272 the AFS, but also has the potential to lead to monomorphic alleles based on the down-sampling 273 procedure (see Satler and Carstens 2017). Thus, we repeated the AFS building procedure 10 274 times, allowing us to account for variation in the down-sampling process during model selection, 275 but also allowing us to calculate confidence intervals on our parameter estimates (Satler and 276 Carstens, 2017; Smith et al., 2017.

Each simulation analysis in FSC2 (i.e. each AFS replicate per model; 12 models x 10 replicates) was repeated 50 times, and we selected the run with the highest composite likelihood for each AFS replicate and model. The best-fit model was then calculated using the AIC and model probabilities calculated following Burnham and Anderson (2002). Because FSC2 requires a per generation mutation rate to scale parameter estimates into real values, we used the substitution per site per generation mutation rate of 4.38 x 10<sup>-8</sup> proposed for tropical anthozoans

283 (Prada et al., 2017) and a generation time of 1 year for *B. annulata* (Jennison, 1981). All analyses



were conducted on the Oakley cluster at the Ohio Supercomputer Center (<u>http://osc.edu</u>).

Figure 2. Models used in FSC2 to understand the demographic processes leading to cryptic diversification in the corkscrew anemone *Bartholomea annulata*. Each model is a two-population isolation-migration (IM) model that varies in the degree and directionality of gene flow and effective population size. Models are as follows: a) isolation only, b) isolation only with population size changes following divergence, c) IM model with symmetric migration, d) IM model with symmetric migration and population size changes, e) IM model with migration from population 1 to 2, f) IM model with migration from population 2 to 1, g) IM model with symmetric migration, h) IM model with isolation immediately following divergence, followed by more recent isolation, h) IM model with isolation immediately following divergence, followed by more recent secondary contact and symmetric migration, j) IM model with migration from population 1 to 2 immediately following divergence followed by more recent isolation, j) IM model with isolation from population 1 to 2 immediately following divergence followed by more recent isolation, j) IM model with isolation immediately following divergence followed by more recent isolation, j) IM model with isolation immediately following divergence followed by more recent isolation, from population 1 to 2, k) IM model with migration from population 2 to 1 immediately following divergence followed by more recent isolation, and l) IM model with isolation immediately following divergence followed by more recent isolation, 2 to 1 immediately following divergence followed by secondary contact and migration from population 1 to 2 to 1 immediately following divergence followed by secondary contact and migration from population 2 to 1 immediately following divergence followed by secondary contact and migration from population 2 to 1 immediately following divergence followed by secondary contact and migration 2 to 1 immediately following divergence followed by secondary contact and migration 2 to 1 immediately fol

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#### 286 2.5. Detecting and identifying loci under selection

287 Islands of genomic divergence linked to functional genes under selection are common in 288 sympatrically diverging species (e.g. Renaut et al., 2013). To detect and identify loci under 289 putative selection that may be contributing to the divergence of our newly delimited *B. annulata* 290 lineages we used the program BayeScan v.2.1 (Foll & Gaggiotti, 2008). This program uses 291 logistical regression and a Bayesian framework to statistically search for loci under natural 292 selection. It implements a locus effect and population effect in the model to explain the observed 293 patterns of differentiation. If the locus effect is needed to explain the pattern, divergent selection 294 is indicated (Folk & Gaggiotti, 2008). We used 100,000 simulations with prior odds of 8 (i.e. 295 how much more likely the neutral model is than the selection model), and a false discovery rate 296 of 10%. Results were summarized and outlier loci visualized using R v3.3.1 and RStudio v0.98 297 (R Core Team 2014). 298 We used the genome of *E. pallida* to identify where in the genome the SNPs under 299 putative selection reside and to determine whether they are in, or in close proximity to, 300 functional coding regions. We used the full 100bp sequence from which each outlier SNP was 301 recovered, and then mapped each locus to the annotated E. pallida genome (Baumgarten et al., 302 2014) using Geneious v10.2.3 (Kearse et al., 2012). For outlier loci that did not fall within 303 coding regions, we recorded the distance (in bp) to the next-closest coding region, as these loci 304 may be linked to functional genes under selection.

305

**306 3. RESULTS** 

307 3.1. RADseq dataset assembly

308 Double digest RADseq library preparation and sequencing resulted in a total of 186.7
 309 million sequence reads across 141 individuals, 175.6 million of which passed quality control

310	filtering and were retained to create the final dataset. Twenty-two of the 141 individuals had <
311	500,000 reads and were not retained in the final dataset. Requiring a locus to be present in a
312	minimum of 75% of all individuals resulted in a final data set of 10,998 parsimoniously
313	informative sites distributed across 3176 unlinked loci in 119 individuals. BLASTing these loci
314	to the <i>Exaiptasia pallida</i> genome identified 1402 loci that matched with high confidence ( $\geq 85\%$
315	identity); these were used as the final anemone-only SNP dataset. The remaining 1772 loci that
316	did not map to any genomic resources were discarded as their identity (anemone or algal) could
317	not be verified. SNP files and datasets are available on Dryad (Dryad doi:XXX).
318	
319	3.2. Genetic clustering and species delimitation
320	Genetic clustering approaches in Structure [i.e. $\Delta K$ and the mean $\ln P(K)$ ] both selected K
321	= 2 as the optimum partitioning scheme (Table 2; Figure 3). Both genetic clusters were co-
322	distributed and recovered from all sampling localities with the exception of Bermuda, Honduras,
323	and the US Virgin Islands. One cluster, henceforth B. annulata Clade 1, was sampled
324	infrequently and was represented by only 16 individuals (13% of all sampled individuals)
325	throughout the TWA, while the second cluster, henceforth B. annulata Clade 2, was well
326	sampled and comprised the majority of the samples ( $87\%$ ; Figure 3). Some admixture between B.
327	annulata clades is evident in our Structure results (Figure 3). Species delimitation analyses using
328	SNAPP and BFD* support both genetic clusters recovered by Structure as separate species,
329	favoring the alternative model to the current taxonomy model (Table 3).
330	
331	

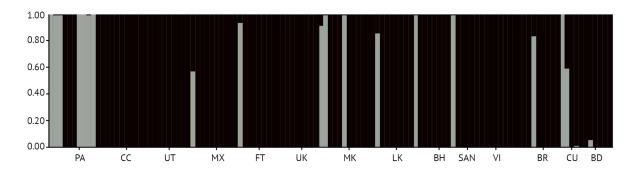


Figure 3. Structure plot denoting K = 2 genetic clusters for the corkscrew sea anemone *Bartholomea annulata* distributed sympatrically throughout the Tropical Western Atlantic. Samples are partitioned by sample locality (Fig 30): PA = Bocas del Toro, Panama, CC = Cayos Cochinos, Honduras, UT = Utila, Honduras, MX = Mahahual, Mexico, FT = Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, UK = Upper Keys, Florida, MK = Middle Keys, Florida, LK = Lower Keys, Florida, BH = Eleuthera, Bahamas, SAN = San Salvador, Bahamas, VI = St. Thomas, US Virgin Islands, BR = Barbados, CU = Curacao, BD = Bermuda. The order of listed sample localities reflects a roughly West to East distribution across the Tropical Western Atlantic.

#### 333 *3.3. Coalescent model selection*

334 The best fit model under the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) is model 5 (Figure 2), 335 an IM model with unidirectional gene flow from *B. annulata* Clade 1 to Clade 2 (Table 4). Also 336 supported was model 10, an IM model with isolation immediately following divergence followed 337 by secondary contact and migration from B. annulata Clade 1 to Clade 2. Each of the top three 338 models according to AIC specified unidirectional gene flow from B. annulata Clade 1 to Clade 339 2. Isolation-only models received an inconsequential amount of support (Table 4). For the best-340 fit model, FSC2 simulation places divergence time estimates between putative species at 2.1 341 mya. In general, parameter estimates for the two best-fit models were broadly similar, except in 342 divergence time, which was estimated at a far older date in model 10 than model 5 (Table 5). 343 344 3.4. Detecting and identifying loci under selection

We detected 31 outlier loci, out of 1401 total loci, using BayeScan v.2.1 (Figure S1). Six were characterized as being outliers with high Fst, and putatively under divergent selection. The

347 remainder had low Fst, compared with the remaining dataset, and are putatively under balancing 348 selection. The genomic positions of all 31 outlier loci were identified by mapping full 100 bp 349 reads to the *E. pallida* genome. 15 loci mapped within exons of coding regions (CDS), nine 350 mapped to mRNA transcripts, and the remaining loci did not map to any known functional 351 regions (Table 6). Of the loci that did not map to an mRNA transcript or coding region, we 352 identified the next closest gene and mRNA transcript, as these could potentially be linked to 353 genes under selection. 354 The six loci identified as being under divergent selection (loci 1, 97, 197, 1160, 1224, and 355 1326) all had Fst values exceeding 0.60 with a maximum observed Fst value of 0.93 (Figure S1). 356 Locus 197 and 1160 were identified as residing within CDS/exon regions, and mapped to the 357 predicted functional genes zinc finger FYVE domain-containing protein and snaclec rhodocetin 358 subunit alpha respectively (Table 6). Locus 1, 97, and 1326 mapped to mRNA transcripts in 359 association with neuronal acetylcholine receptor subunit alpha-10, C-C chemokine receptor type 360 4, and phosphate 1 regulatory subunit 12A genes respectively (Table 6). Locus 1224 did not map 361 to a known functional region in the E. pallida genome and was 7,000 bp from a receptor-type 362 tyrosine-protein phosphate delta gene.

363

# 364 4. DISCUSSION

### 365 4.1. Genomic signatures of sympatric speciation

Tropical coral reefs have extraordinary levels of biodiversity that reside on a small fraction of suitable habitat space and that occupy large biogeographic ranges. Most reef species have planktonic larval stages, and all marine species reside in a physical environment that should facilitate dispersal, gene flow, and large effective population sizes. This dichotomy highlights the

370 challenge of disentangling sympatric diversification from allopatric diversification followed by 371 secondary contact on reefs, as incipient species that diverge in allopatry can readily become co-372 distributed with their sister taxa unless permanently isolated by hard barriers to dispersal (i.e. 373 continental land masses). Here we provide one of the first genomic, model-based, tests of 374 sympatric speciation in a reef-dwelling species. Our coalescent simulation analyses and model 375 selection suggest that two co-distributed lineages of sea anemones, currently described as a 376 single species, the corkscrew anemone *Bartholomea annulata*, have diverged in the face of 377 continuous, unidirectional, gene flow on reefs throughout the Tropical Western Atlantic. We 378 note, however, that there is model support for an alternative secondary contact scenario where 379 gene flow was suspended for a prolonged period of time.

380 Definitions of sympatric speciation have, historically, been contentious, and there is no 381 agreed upon consensus definition (reviewed by Bird et al., 2012). We define sympatric 382 speciation in a broad biogeographic sense: both lineages of *B*. annulata are sympatric in their 383 broad-scale biogeography, co-occur in several places, and lack major allopatric barriers across 384 their ranges. Well-resolved allopatric boundaries in the Tropical Western Atlantic linked to 385 putative speciation events include the Mona Passage between the islands of Hispanola and 386 Puerto Rico, the Florida Straits separating the Florida peninsula from the Bahamas and Cuba, the 387 isolated archipelago of Bermuda, and a Central Bahamas break (reviewed by DeBiasse et al., 388 2016). Reefs off the coast of Panama are another biogeographic sub-region within the Tropical 389 Western Atlantic that are physically isolated by ocean currents (i.e. the Panamanian Gyre; 390 Richardson, 2005) and have a propensity to show limited genetic connectivity with nearby reefs 391 (e.g. Andras, Kirk, & Harvell, 2011; Andras, Rypien, & Harvell, 2013; DeBiasse et al., 2016). 392 Interestingly, 7 of the 16 individuals from our infrequently sampled Clade 1 lineage came from

393 reefs from Bocas del Toro, Panama (Fig. 3). Given the appreciable model support for a 394 secondary contact divergence scenario, it could be possible that a population of *B. annulata* 395 became physically isolated in Panama for a prolonged period of time, followed by limited 396 dispersal from this region to the rest of the Caribbean and Tropical Western Atlantic leading to 397 its co-distribution. In this current study, we had to trade off increasing the number of samples 398 sequenced per locality to increase the sampling distribution to include the entire range of the 399 species. Increased sampling and sequencing for *B. annulata* from each locality throughout the 400 region may be warranted and provide a better idea of the abundance of our Clade 1 lineage. 401 Many species with overlapping broad-scale biogeographic distributions can become 402 specialized in different ecological niches and habitats, and thus, may become physically isolated 403 from each other on a fine-scale (termed micro-allopatry; Bird et al., 2012; Getz & Kaitala, 1989; 404 Tobler, Riesch, Tobler, Schulz-Mirbach, & Plath, 2009). For the B. annulata species complex, 405 we found no obvious ecological or habitat difference that could explain a micro-allopatric 406 divergence scenario. Samples from both putative lineages were collected from the same reef 407 sites, at the same depths, and with the same crustacean symbionts. Our sample localities across 408 the TWA span a continuum of reef environments from shallow, high-nutrient, nearshore patch 409 reef sites in Bocas del Toro, Panama, to fore reefs along the Meso-American Barrier reef in 410 Mexico, and Bahamian patch reefs surrounded by seagrass. Further, in many micro-allopatric 411 divergence scenarios, habitat specialization is expected to lead to immediate isolation and a 412 cessation of gene flow should follow (Bird et al., 2012; Tobler et al., 2009). Our model selection 413 analyses prefer models with continuous unidirectional gene flow rather than models where a 414 period of isolation followed divergence and that contemporary gene flow is the result of 415 secondary contact. For these reasons, we conclude that the *B. annulata* species complex likely

416 evolved in sympatry. Additional sampling with a greater focus on sampling across disparate
417 habitats at each sample locality may provide greater clarity as to whether any micro-allopatric
418 divergence scenarios are responsible for the divergence we have recovered.

419 In addition to overlapping biogeographic ranges, no obvious habitat partitioning, and a 420 genomic signature of divergence with continuous gene flow, our genome scan analyses recover a 421 number of loci that appear to be under selection (Table 6; Fig. S1). These include loci that are 422 under putative divergent selection, and those that are more conserved relative to their neutrally 423 evolving counterparts. The genomic underpinnings that may drive divergence and maintain 424 reproductive isolation, even with continuous gene flow, are unknown in benthic anthozoans. In 425 the stony coral genus Acropora, the PaxC gene (a nuclear intron) resolves a tree topology that 426 clusters conspecifics that spawn in the same seasons, but no additional functional genes under 427 putative natural selection have been identified (Rosser et al., 2017). A recent study also 428 highlights the importance of variation in gene expression in maintaining ecological divergence 429 (i.e. polygenic adaptation) across a sympatrically distributed coral species complex (Rose et al., 430 2018).

431 While our dataset is limited because only loci from *B. annulata* that map to the *E. pallida* 432 genome are able to be identified, and we did not conduct a comparative transcriptomic 433 investigation, our results may at least provide a basic starting point for future genomic 434 investigations into tropical anthozoan speciation. All loci detected by BayeScan as being under 435 divergent selection were mapped to the annotated *E. pallida* genome to identify loci that may be 436 linked to functional genes. Five of the six loci were mapped to mRNA transcripts and CDS/exon 437 regions (Table 6). Locus 1 mapped to a mRNA transcript linked to a predicted neuronal 438 acetycholine receptor subunit alpha gene, a cell membrane receptor involved in muscle

439 activation when acetylcholine is released by motor nerves in the central nervous system. Locus 440 97 mapped to a 3' untranslated region (UTR) in an mRNA transcript linked to a predicted C-C 441 chemokine receptor type 4. The C-C chemokine receptors are well characterized cell signaling 442 pathways involved in immune responses (e.g. Murphy, 1994). The type 4 receptor transports 443 leukocytes in vertebrates. Genes involved in vertebrate immune cell communication have been 444 shown to evolve rapidly, thought to be a response to intense selective pressures placed on them by the molecular mimicry of microbes disrupting host immune responses (Bajoghil, 2013; 445 446 Zlotnik, Yoshie, & Nomiyama, 2006). Other loci under selection that mapped to transcriptomic 447 regions of the *E. pallida* genome include membrane proteins involved in lipid binding and 448 recognition, vesicular trafficking, signal transduction, and phagocytosis (locus 197; den Hertog, 449 1999), a candidate toxin protein that is a well characterized component of snake venom (locus 450 1160; Doley & Kini, 2009), and proteins that bind to myosin and are involved in muscle 451 contraction (Locus 1326). While it's unclear whether, how, or why any of these identified 452 functional genes maintain linkage disequilibrium, and thus putative species boundaries, 453 ecological specialization could certainly drive adaptive divergence in immune response if 454 different niches are exposed to different pathogens. It is also not hard to imagine that a shift in 455 exposure to different prey types across disparate habitats could lead to a corresponding shift in 456 venom composition or toxicity. The finding that 5/6 loci under divergent selection mapped to 457 mRNA transcripts, and 2 of these loci mapped within CDS/exon regions is consistent with the 458 idea that selection may play an important role in maintaining species boundaries between these 459 cryptic taxa.

460

461 *4.2. Tropical sea anemone diversity* 

462 Bartholomea annulata is the first tropical anemone species complex to be delimited using 463 genomic data and a molecular systematic approach. With simple body plans, hydrostatic 464 skeletons, no rigid structures, and few diagnostic characters (most of which are highly 465 convergent; e.g. Rodriguez et al., 2014), morphological studies of sea anemones are challenging 466 (Fautin, 1988), and much of the species-level diversity that exists could be cryptic. The lack of 467 informative morphological characters is compounded by the history of molecular biology and the 468 slow rate of mitochondrial genome evolution in anthozoans (Daly, Gusmão, Reft, & Rodríguez, 469 2010; Shearer, Van Oppen, Romano, & Wörheide, 2002). Short regions of mitochondrial DNA 470 barcodes (mtDNA) became the molecular marker of choice for evolutionary biologists 471 conducting population-level studies in most animal phyla (e.g. Avise, 2009). An unintended 472 byproduct of these early studies was that biologists began uncovering highly divergent lineages 473 in taxa that were nominally described as single morphological species. While anemone mtDNA 474 is used in phylogenetics to resolve deeper taxonomic relatedness, it is incapable of picking up 475 shallow divergence times, which are characteristic of many cryptic species complexes (Daly et 476 al., 2010). Similarly, the universal molecular markers from the nuclear genome that are used for 477 phylogenetic reconstruction are also too slowly evolving for population level studies (Daly et al., 478 2010). Finally, sea anemone diversity peaks in temperate regions where they are often the 479 dominant benthic macrofauna, but lack species diversity in the tropics, which are dominated by 480 scleractinian corals and octocorals (Fautin, Malarky & Soberon, 2002). This convergence of 481 factors has led to a lack of evolutionary attention to tropical anemone species compared to 482 temperate ones, and diversity in the tropics is likely under described as a result. Our findings 483 demonstrate the utility of genomic data for discovering and delimiting cryptic anemone species 484 that are likely to be missed using conventional markers. An important note, however, is that we

485	used BFD* for our genomic species delimitation analyses. BFD* implements the multi-species
486	coalescent model, which has been shown to be unable to distinguish between intraspecific
487	population genetic structure and species boundaries under some speciation models (Sukumaran
488	& Knowles, 2017). With this in mind, we suggest a targeted morphological study of both
489	delimited lineages, and possibly an RNAseq approach to search for fixed SNPs and variation in
490	expression levels in functional genes we have preliminarily identified here. Additional types of
491	data could independent lines of evidence in support of our analyses here.

492

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696	Data Accessibility Statement: Raw sequence data and all files for all analyses will be archived
697	in Dryad upon final acceptance of this manuscript. Python scripts are also available on
698	GitHub (github.com/pblischak/Bann_spdelim).
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700	Author Contributions: B.M.T. and M.D. conceived the study research; B.M.T. collected
701	samples and conducted laboratory work. B.M.T., P.D.B. analyzed the data and conducted
702	bioinformatics work. B.M.T., P.D.B., and M.D. wrote and edited the manuscript.
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### 712 Tables

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- Table 1. Sample localities, sample sizes, and geographic coordinates of corkscrew sea anemone
- 715 Bartholomea annulata used in this study. Sample sizes reflect the number samples sequenced
- and the number of samples retained in the final double digest Restriction-site Associated DNA
- 717 sequencing (ddRADseq) dataset (in parentheses). Differences between the number of samples
- 718 sequenced and retained reflects variation in the number of sequence reads and sequencing
- 719 coverage in out ddRADseq dataset across all individuals.

Locality	Code	Sample	Latitude	Longitude	
		size			
Eleuthera, Bahamas	BH	10 (9)	24°49'44.51"N	76°16'46.11"W	
San Salvador, Bahamas	SAN	10 (2)	24° 2'37.12"N	74°31'59.83"W	
Barbados	BR	10 (9)	13°11'30.52"N	59°38'29.04"W	
Bermuda	BD	12 (9)	32°26'53.62"N	64°45'45.42"W	
Curacao	CU	10 (2)	12° 7'19.45"N	68°58'10.80"W	
Ft. Lauderdale, Florida, USA	FT	9 (9)	26° 4'19.80"N	80° 5'46.68"W	
Upper Keys, Florida, USA	UK	10 (9)	25° 1'57.92"N	80°22'4.45"W	
Middle Keys, Florida, USA	MK	10 (10)	24°41'58.09"N	80°56'21.48"W	
Lower Keys, Florida, USA	LK	10 (10)	24°33'42.39"N	81°23'31.59"W	
Utila, Honduras	UT	10 (10)	16° 5'18.03"N	86°54'38.54"W	
Cayos Cochinos, Honduras	CC	10 (9)	15°57'1.12"N	86°29'51.82"W	
Mahahual, Mexico	MX	10 (10)	18°42'18.45"N	87°42'34.46"W	
Bocas del Toro, Panama	PA	10 (10)	9°25'7.28"N	82°20'32.55"W	
St. Thomas, US Virgin Islands	VI	11 (11)	18°19'0.69"N	64°59'22.59"W	

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Table 2. Results of Structure analyses for the corkscrew anemone *Bartholomea annulata*. *K* is

the number of genetic clusters tested for each model. Highlighting indicates the model with the

best support, as determined by the mean natural log posterior probabilities  $[\ln P(K)]$  and delta K

730 (ΔK).

K	Iterations	mean lnP(K)	Stdev lnP(K)	ΔΚ
1	5	-535786.16	18.47	N/A
2	5	-194732.23	27.09	12637.83
3	5	-196054.70	249.66	4.42
4	5	-196272.33	738.44	0.99
5	5	-197221.50	2098.35	36.97
6	5	-275748.30	135217.75	N/A

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Table 3. Path sampling results for two species delimitation models for *Bartholomea annulata* in the Tropical Western Atlantic. All Bayes Factor calculations are made against the current model describing *B. annulata* as a single species. Positive Bayes Factors indicate support for the current model. Negative Bayes Factors indicate support for the alternative model, in which *B. annulata* comprises two species. For both models, *Exaiptasia pallida* was included as an outgroup. The higher ranked model is highlighted.

	Model	Species	MLE	Rank	BF
	<i>E. pallida</i> + current concept	2	-3194.20	2	-
	<i>E. pallida</i> + <i>B.</i> <i>annulata</i> Clade 1 + <i>B. annulata</i> Clade 2	3	-3087.25	1	-213.90
748	MLE = I	Marginal Like	elihood Estimate;	BF = Bayes Facto	pr
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- 761 Table 4. Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) results for model selection results from FSC2.
- Model refers to those depicted and described in Figure 2. k = number of parameters in the model,
- 763  $\Delta_{\rm I}$  = change in AIC scores, and  $w_i$  = Akaike weights. Models are listed according to their AIC
- rank and the highest-ranked model is highlighted.

Model	k	ln(Likelihood)	AIC	$\Delta_{\mathbf{i}}$	Model Likelihoods	<i>W</i> <sub>i</sub>
5 – IM <sub>12</sub>	5	-2285.63	4581.27	0	1	0.65
$10 - IM_{ISO-MIG-12}$	6	-2285.52	4583.04	1.76	0.41	0.27
$9-IM_{\rm MIG-12-ISO}$	6	-2287.03	4586.07	4.79	0.09	0.06
$7 - IM_{\text{MIG-ISO}}$	7	-2287.24	4588.49	7.21	0.02	0.02
$8 - IM_{ISO-MIG}$	7	-2293.17	4600.35	19.07	7.20e <sup>-5</sup>	4.70e <sup>-5</sup>
3 – IM	6	-2294.36	4600.72	19.44	5.97e <sup>-5</sup>	3.90e <sup>-5</sup>
1 – ISO	4	-2309.26	4626.52	45.25	$1.49e^{-10}$	9.73e <sup>-11</sup>
$6 - IM_{21}$	5	-2322.01	4654.03	72.75	1.58e <sup>-16</sup>	1.03e <sup>-16</sup>
$11 - IM_{\text{MIG-21-ISO}}$	6	-2357.18	4726.37	145.09	3.11e <sup>-32</sup>	2.03e <sup>-32</sup>
$12-IM_{\rm ISO-MIG-12}$	6	-2362.40	4736.80	155.52	$1.69e^{-34}$	$1.10e^{-34}$
$2 - ISC_{C}$	11	-2436.15	4894.31	313.03	$1.06e^{-68}$	6.92e <sup>-69</sup>
$4 - IM_{\rm C}$	12	-2557.29	5138.59	557.31	9.55e <sup>-122</sup>	6.23e <sup>-122</sup>

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769	Table 5. Population	genetic parameter	r estimates from	n FSC2 for the two	cryptic lineages of
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- 770 Bartholomea annulata (Clade 1 & Clade 2) for the two demographic models with the highest
- 771 Akaike model weights from Table 4. Parameter estimates generated with unlinked allele
- frequency spectrum data. Divergence time ( $\tau$ ) and time at secondary contact ( $\tau$ -M) are in
- millions of years (mya), effective population sizes ( $N_e$ ) are presented as the effective number of
- individuals in each population, and migration rates (*M*) are presented as the effective number of

775 migrants per generation. N/A refers to parameters that were not included in the model.

	Model	<u>τ (mya)</u>		<u>N<sub>e</sub> Clade1</u> <u>N<sub>e</sub> Clade2</u>		<u>τ -Μ</u>		<u>M<sub>12</sub></u>			
		Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI	Mean	95% CI
	5	2.11	(± 1.62)	23.70	(± 10.4)	107,348	(± 5339)	N/A	N/A	4.7e <sup>-5</sup>	$(\pm 6.04 e^{-6})$
	10	8.87	(± 3.20)	45.40	(± 5302)	98,213	(± 10,619)	2.10	(± 2.05)	5.5e <sup>-5</sup>	$(\pm 1.63 e^{-5})$
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788	Table 6. List of Bartholomea annulata outlier loci detected by BayeScan, the genome scaffold
789	number they map to in the Exaiptasia pallida genome, whether they fall within an annotated
790	region of the genome, and their closest functional gene identity. Loci identified as being within
791	coding regions (CDS) and exons map within the specific gene listed. Loci identified as mRNA
792	transcripts are listed beside the functional gene that corresponds with that transcript. Loci listed
793	as N/A do not map to any known functional regions. Instead, the closest functional gene in the $E$ .
794	pallida genome is listed to the right. Highlighted loci (1, 97, 197, 1160, 1224, and 1326) are

Locus	Genome scaffold #	Annotation	Closest functional gene
1	54	mRNA	<i>E. pallida</i> : neuronal acetylcholine receptor subunit alpha-10-like-PREDICTED
10	83	mRNA/3' UTR	<i>E. pallida</i> : peroxisomal coenzyme A diphosphatase NUDT7-like-PREDICTED
19	237	N/A	<i>E. pallida</i> ; inactive rhomboid protein 1-like- PREDICTED
27	28	mRNA/5' UTR	<i>E. pallida</i> : ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase 8- like-PREDICTED
97	14	mRNA/3' UTR	<i>E. pallida</i> : C-C chemokine receptor type 4-like- PREDICTED
142	86	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : twisted gastrulation protein homolog- PREDICTED
197	197	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : zinc finger FYVE domain-containing protein 1-like-PREDICTED
265	100	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : dual serine/threonine & tyrosine protein kinase-like-PREDICTED
310	407	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : melatonin receptor type 1A-like- PREDICTED
321	25	CDS/exon	E. pallida: protocadherin-like protein-PREDICTED
399	66	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : posphatidylineositide phosphate SAC2-like-PREDICTED
522	233	CDS/exon	E. pallida: uncharacterized protein
602	358	N/A	<i>E. pallida</i> : fibropellin-1-like transcript variant X1- PREDICTED
684	138	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : YTH domain containing family protein 1- like-PREDICTED
725	64	mRNA/5'UTR	E. pallida: uncharacterized protein
744	62	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : NAD-dependent progein deacetylase SRT1- like-PREDICTED
757	78	mRNA	<i>E. pallida</i> : dnaJ homolog subfamily C member 11-like- PREDICTED
766	197	N/A	<i>E. pallida</i> : zinc metalloproteinase nas-13-like- PREDICTED
776	2486	N/A	<i>E. pallida</i> : formin binding protein 4-like-PREDICTED

those under divergent selection (high Fst).

814	542	N/A	E. pallida: zinc finger protein 567-like-PREDICTED
851	764	mRNA	E. pallida: uncharacterized protein
1013	99	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : pre-mRNA-processing-splicing factor 8- PREDICTED
1017	1177	mRNA	<i>E. pallida</i> : Golgi-associated plant pathogenesis-related protein 1-like-PREDICTED
1043	155	CDS/exon	E. pallida: GDAP2 protein homolog-PREDICTED
1131	109	N/A	E. pallida: uncharacterized
1159	211	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : germinal center kinase 3-like-PREDICTED
1160	210	CDS/exon	<i>E. pallida</i> : snaclec rhodocetin subunit alpha-like-PREDICTED
1213	5	CDS/exon	E. pallida: uncharacterized protein
1224	210	N/A	<i>E. pallida</i> : receptor-type tyrosine-protein phosphatase delta-like-PREDICTED
1312	19	CDS/exon	E. pallida: nesprin-1-like-PREDICTED
1326	30	mRNA	<i>E. pallida</i> : phosphatase 1 regulatory subunit 12A-like-PREDICTED