A multi-marker perspective on the evolutionary history of East African cichlid fishes

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Für meine Liebsten

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Introduction

The affinities of all the beings of the same class have sometimes been represented by a great tree. I believe this simile largely speaks the truth. The green and budding twigs may represent existing species; and those produced during each former year may represent the long succession of extinct species. At each period of growth all the growing twigs have tried to branch out on all sides, and to overtop and kill the surrounding twigs and branches, in the same manner as species and groups of species have tried to overmaster other species in the great battle for life. The limbs divided into great branches, and these into lesser and lesser branches, were themselves once, when the tree was small, budding twigs; and this connexion of the former and present buds by ramifying branches may well represent the classification of all extinct and living species in groups subordinate to groups. Of the many twigs which flourished when the tree was a mere bush, only two or three, now grown into great branches, yet survive and bear all the other branches; so with the species which lived during long-past geological periods, very few now have living and modified descendants. From the first growth of the tree, many a limb and branch has decayed and dropped off; and these lost branches of various sizes may represent those whole orders, families, and genera which have now no living representatives, and which are known to us only from having been found in a fossil state. As we here and there see a thin straggling branch springing from a fork low down in a tree, and which by some chance has been favoured and is still alive on its summit, so we occasionally see an animal like the Ornithorhynchus or Lepidosiren, which in some small degree connects by its affinities two large branches of life, and which has apparently been saved from fatal competition by having inhabited a protected station. As buds give rise by growth to fresh buds, and these, if vigorous, branch out and overtop on all sides many a feebler branch, so by generation I believe it has been with the great Tree of Life, which fills with its dead and broken branches the crust of the earth, and covers the surface with its ever branching and beautiful ramifications.

On the Origin of Species, Charles Darwin

Charles Darwin's book "On the Origin of Species" changed the vision on the diversity of life1 . He poetically described the "great Tree of Life", formed by all extant and extinct species. His ideas about the processes of diversification within and among different lineages and their common ancestry provided a new framework to taxonomic and systematic studies – that of evolution – ultimately leading to the field of phylogenetics, which focuses on the relationships between different taxa on the basis of heritable factors. In molecular phylogenetics, molecular characters are used to draw the twigs and branches of the tree of life. The source of this information is manifold and can originate from amino acids within proteins or from nucleotides within mitochondrial or nuclear DNA and from different RNA molecules. Variability within these molecules is used to infer similarity and thus common ancestry. Besides the sequence information of the character states itself, specific length variations such as indels or duplications and rearrangements within genomes can be used to infer relationships, as these events are supposed to be rare. Other commonly used genetic markers, which can differ between taxa and thus are valuable for phylogenetic inferences, are for example allozymes², single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)^{2, 3}, amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLPs)² or restriction site associated DNA (RAD) markers ⁴.

The available methods for phylogenetic reconstruction are among the most powerful tools in biological research and widespread in nearly all fields of biology. Molecular phylogenetics is an integral part in systematics and taxonomic research investigating the relationships within the tree of life5-8; in phylogeography, which investigates the distribution of biological entities in the context of geography^{3,9,10}; in the field of molecular evolution exploring the history of genomes and gene-families or single genes thereby detecting signals of selection¹¹⁻¹³; in the field of evolutionary developmental biology helping to determine homologous characters, to estimate ancestral states and thus to trace back character evolution¹⁴; in palaeobiology reconstructing the history of ancient life forms and molecules^{11, 15-17}; and also, in medicine when it comes to the understanding of the behavior of certain cell lineages and tumor development¹⁸⁻²² or to the search of the sources of epidemiological outbreaks^{23, 24}. Strong and reliable phylogenetic hypotheses are thus crucial for various biological questions, especially those asked by comparative and evolutionary biologists.

Besides the application of phylogenetic approaches, phylogenies themselves are a fascinating and rapidly developing research area. In the last three decades, the algorithms and software packages have co-evolved with the kind of questions asked and with the increasing amount of data available²⁵⁻²⁸. Among the fields' recent (methodological) trends are: (i) reducing alignment and assembly errors $29-32$, (ii) improving the strategies of accessing appropriate substitution models for the data and the golden way of its partitioning³³⁻³⁵; and (iii) the enhancement of the "traditional" phylogenetic inference methods as the Maximum likelihood-based^{36, 37} and the Bayesian approaches^{38, 39}. The relatively young era of phylogenomics, a research field at the intersection of genomics and phylogenetics, which arose with the availability of genome or transcriptome data, led to a new range of questions and insights. Along with the long-lasting debates of which markers to use came the awareness of the discordance among gene trees and the necessity to acquire several (to hundreds) of markers to reliably infer evolutionary history40-43. A range of software packages for species tree estimation from sequence or biallelic markers^{38, 40, 44-46} as well as from gene tree estimates^{47, 48} were developed, besides using a concatenated supermatrix and standard phylogenetic inferences³⁶⁻³⁹. In the concatenation approach, a supermatrix is generated from several concatenated gene alignments and thereupon treated as a single gene, which is than used to infer the species tree. Combining concordant gene trees, this produces very accurate results. Whereas the first-mentioned species tree approaches are based on coalescent theory^{38, 40, 44-46}. Yet, as phylogenomics is still in its infancy, it remains unclear how many and which loci should be analyzed to adequately

reflect the evolutionary history of a taxon and to examine how the individual signals from the genes and alleles influence the (species) tree estimate^{41, 49, 50}. In addition, it is largely unknown whether or not the concatenation approach is always capable to redraw the species history $50, 51$, how evolutionary processes such as incomplete lineage sorting and hybridization can be integrated ⁵², and how non-phylogenetic signals, originating from the uncertainty in homology, errors in the alignments and the inappropriate model choice, should be handled^{49, 53, 54}. Systems with short branch lengths (in coalescent units) and big population sizes are particularly challenging, as they encompass a high degree of incomplete lineage sorting and, consequently, a profound amount of gene tree discordance, making them prone to inconsistencies in phylogenetic inferences. Ancient and recent adaptive radiations represent examples where genes splits drag behind species splits^{43, 55, 56}.

The East African cichlids, more precisely the cichlid fishes of Lake Tanganyika, Lake Victoria and Lake Malawi, are among the most famous textbook examples of adaptive radiations⁵⁷⁻⁶². Both hybridization and incomplete lineage sorting explain the high degree of shared gene lineages within these species-flocks⁶³⁻⁶⁸.

Considerable effort has been put into the understanding of the relationships between and among the main lineages as this is essential to establish the phylogenetic backbone of the East African cichlid radiations, which in turn is crucial to formulate and validate hypotheses about the patterns and processes underlying this unparalleled species diversification. So far, we know that the radiations within the three Great Lakes started at different time points and with a different set of seeding lineages; the radiations thus differ with respect to the number and diversity of species. The oldest of the lakes, Lake Tanganyika, harbors around 250 species from 12 to 16 different cichlid lineages, whereas the younger Lakes Malawi and Victoria contain a recent radiation of one lineage, namely the haplochromines^{58, 66, 69-77}. These two lakes are home to more than 1,200 cichlid species. Lake Tanganyika, although comprising less variety in number of species, is considered as the source of the East African cichlid radiation, as the modern haplochromines in Lake Malawi and Lake Victoria are derived from the Lake Tanganyikan haplochromines. Hence, Lake Tanganyika cichlids play a crucial role for the onset of the two other enormous radiations⁷⁰. However, the mainly mitochondrial DNA based phylogenies for the Lake Tanganyika cichlids lack resolution for some lineages as support values are low and phylogenetic positions are not consistent within the different tree estimates⁵⁸. It is unknown if this lack of resolution can be only found on the level of single gene trees or if it is reflected on the species level as a real biological polytomy. In my thesis I aimed to generate a solid phylogenetic framework for the cichlid tribes of Lake Tanganyika and hence to get insights to macroevolutionary processes. I developed a broad range of primers and

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applied next generation sequencing methods, resulting in the most comprehensive sequence-based multi-marker set for Lake Tanganyikan cichlids so far. Further I applied phylogenetic inferences and other methods based on the theory of molecular evolution to phylogeographic and other evolutionary questions (e.g. gene diversity).

The first two chapters of this thesis were driven by the question if more information from different genes would help to resolve the phylogenetic relationship of the major tribes within Lake Tanganyika. In the first chapter "A novel primer set for multilocus phylogenetic inference in East African cichlid fishes"⁷⁸ I describe a new PCR primer designing strategy for multi-locus phylogenetic inferences in East African cichlids and make available 24 of such primers. I further demonstrate the successful amplification of these markers with Sanger sequencing in a wide range of cichlid species and provide first insights regarding the power of resolution for this marker set with respect to phylogenetic inference. The designing phase and experiments in the laboratory were conducted at the time when no cichlid genomes were available. I later extended the marker set from the first chapter with the same requirements to 45 markers. However, instead of Sanger sequencing, I generated bar-coded fusion primers for Roche`s 454 pyrosequencing technology (see Appendix 1) for multiplexing reactions⁷⁹. These primers were mixed in groups of eight or respectively ten primer pairs (Appendix 2) and then used in multiplex polymerase chain reactions (Appendix 3) for about eight to sixteen individuals per species. These amplicons were then sequenced unidirectional starting from the forward primer.

In the second chapter "A tribal level phylogeny of Lake Tanganyika cichlid fishes based on a genomic multi-marker approach" I applied the nuclear marker set from the first study⁷⁸ and took a subset of sequences of the large pyrosequencing experiment described in the paragraph above. I picked one individual per species, for which most of the markers were available. In total this data set consisted of 42 loci from 45 species. These 1890 sequences of a length of nearly 18,000 bp were used to conduct phylogenetic analyses, both in a concatenated dataset including all markers and with Bayesian concordance analysis. The first method assumes that all gene trees are reflected in one primary history, the species tree, whereas the latter approach accounts for possible gene tree discordance. Based on this unparalleled dataset we could propose new hypotheses for the evolutionary history of the East African cichlids.

In the third chapter "Back to Tanganyika: a case of recent trans-species-flock dispersal in East African haplochromine cichlid fishes" we report the occurrence of a new cichlid species, found in Lake Tanganyika. Using two nuclear and two mitochondrial markers and conducting different phylogenetic analyses, we detected its genetic affiliation to the haplochromine cichlids of the Lake Victoria superflock. Until recently it was thought that the Great East African Lakes diversified independently after the seeding of these radiations. However, a large SNP-screen in East African cichlids conducted by Loh et al.⁷⁷ showed an astonishing amount of shared genetic polymorphisms among the Lakes. It was hypothesized that this high level of shared SNPs arose due to convergent mutations and also by "riverine transporter" taxa, that migrated between lakes. With the discovery of this modern haplochromine species within Lake Tanganyika, we provide the first case of a recent invasion of a species belonging to a lineage associated to one of the other Great Lakes and thus strengthen the hypotheses described by Loh et al.⁷⁷.

In the fourth chapter, "The evolution of cichlid fish egg-spots is linked with a *cis*regulatory change", I contributed to the study of the molecular basis of the egg spots, which are a novel phenotypic color trait within the most species-rich lineage of the haplochromines⁶⁰. To investigate the underlying genetics of the egg spots it was crucial to have a proper phylogenetic hypothesis at hand. To this end, I generated a new phylogeny of the haplochromines, thus providing a solid basis for the assumptions of the trait emergence and consequently the experiments. I used a subset of the sequences from the second chapter (9 nuclear markers from 12 species) and other new sequences from *Thoracochromis brauschi*, *Serranochromis macrocephalus* and *Astatoreochromis alluaudi*, in addition to one mitochondrial marker and sequences from the genomes of *Maylandia zebra*, *Oreochromis niloticus* and *Neolamprologus brichardi*.

In the last chapter I present ongoing work on "The role of parasites and the immune system in the adaptive radiation of Lake Tanganyika cichlids". We explore the covariations of trophic morphology, trophic level, diet, body shape, macro-parasitism and MHC genes to investigate the contribution of parasite-mediated selection in this adaptive radiation. Besides parasitological screening, one barcoded primer pair was used to amplify MHC class II loci (both intron 1 and exon 2) in several individuals of 39 taxa. We showed that the trophic-morphological axis of diversification in Lake Tanganyika cichlids is strongly correlated with infection levels of metazoan macroparasites. We further detect correlation between these parasites and MHC constitution. This gives insights to the potential influence of parasitism and immunogenetic adaptations to the Lake Tanganyika cichlid radiation.

Finally, in the last section, I discuss the results obtained and briefly suggest future directions.

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A novel primer set for multilocus phylogenetic inference in East African cichlid fishes

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BSM developed the primer pairs, conducted the laboratory work, analyzed the resulting sequence data and drafted the manuscript. WS designed the study and helped with the data analyses and manuscript drafting.

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A novel primer set for multilocus phylogenetic inference in East African cichlid fishes

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Abstract

The cichlid fishes in the East African Great Lakes are a prime model system for the study of adaptive radiation. Therefore, the availability of an elaborate phylogenetic framework is an important prerequisite. Previous phylogenetic hypotheses on East African cichlids are mainly based on mitochondrial and⁄or fragment-based markers, and, to date, no taxon-rich phylogeny exists that is based on multilocus DNA sequence data. Here, we present the design of an extensive new primer set (24 nuclear makers) for East African cichlids that will be used for multilocus phylogenetic analyses in the future. The primers are designed to work for both Sanger sequencing and next-generation sequencing with the 454 technology. As a proof of principle, we validate these primers in a phylogenetically representative set of 16 cichlid species from Lake Tanganyika and main river systems in the area and provide a basic evaluation of the markers with respect to marker length and diversity indices.

Keywords: adaptive radiation, cichlid species flocks, nuclear markers, organismal diversification

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Introduction

Cichlid fishes (Cichlidae) belong to one of the most species-rich families of vertebrates, with a distribution range from Africa including Madagascar, to Central and South America and South India. The Great Lakes in the East African Rift Valley harbour the largest and most diverse species flocks of cichlid fishes (Snoeks 2000; Turner et al. 2001) and are regarded as prime model systems to study evolutionary processes (reviewed in Kocher 2004; Salzburger 2009; Seehausen 2006). Among the three main species flocks, that of Lake Victoria, Lake Malawi and Lake Tanganyika, the latter is the morphologically, behaviourally, ecologically and genetically most diverse (Sturmbauer & Meyer 1992; Salzburger et al. 2002b; Young et al. 2009). This is due to the greater age of the lake, estimated between nine and 12 Ma (Cohen et al. 1993), and, consequently, the greater age of the radiation itself (Genner et al. 2007; Koblmüller et al. 2008; Schwarzer et al. 2009). Moreover, and unlike the species flocks of Lake Victoria and Lake Malawi, which exclusively consist of species of the haplochromine sublineage ('tribe'), the cichlid assemblage in Lake Tanganyika consists of 12–16 tribes, of which the haplochromines are but one (Poll 1986; Salzburger et al. 2002b; Takahashi 2003; Clabaut et al. 2005).

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Since their discovery at the turn of the nineteenth century, the species flocks of cichlids in East Africa have been in the centre of empirical and theoretical research. The main focus has always been on speciation in general, and in particular, on the tempo and mode of diversification, the possible triggers and the progress of adaptive radiations, the respective role of sexual and natural selection and the role of evolutionary key innovations (Verheyen et al. 2003; Salzburger et al. 2005, 2007; Day et al. 2008; Seehausen et al. 2008; Salzburger 2009). Importantly, most of this research depends on phylogenetic hypotheses, which appear difficult to obtain in the rapidly evolving assemblages of cichlids in East Africa (Kocher 2003). Especially in the comparably young cichlid radiations of lakes Malawi and Victoria, there is only limited genetic variation in mitochondrial markers between both species and genera, and haplotype sharing is a common phenomenon (Meyer et al. 1990; Parker & Kornfield 1997; Shaw et al. 2000; Verheyen et al. 2003). The fragment-based amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) method provided better resolution here (Albertson et al. 1999; Allender et al. 2003; Joyce et al. 2011), although comprehensive phylogenies are still lacking for cichlids from lakes Malawi and Victoria.

A more extensive phylogenetic framework is available for the cichlid species flock of Lake Tanganyika, which also includes analyses of its sublineages ('tribes'). Most of the available phylogenetic hypotheses are based on

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mitochondrial markers (e.g. Cyprichromini: Brandstätter et al. 2005; Lamprologini: Day et al. 2007; Limnochromini: Duftner et al. 2005; Bathybatini: Koblmüller et al. 2005; Ectodini: Koblmüller et al. 2004; Haplochromini: Salzburger et al. 2005; Koblmüller et al. 2008). Fewer studies used a combination of sequence-based nuclear and mitochondrial markers (Salzburger et al. 2002a; Clabaut et al. 2005; Schelly et al. 2006; Nevado et al. 2009) or AFLPs and mitochondrial markers (Egger et al. 2007; Koblmüller et al. 2007a,b, 2010; Takahashi et al. 2007; Sturmbauer et al. 2010). These studies often led to new insights regarding hybridization, introgression or incomplete lineage sorting events (Nevado et al. 2009, 2011; Koblmüller et al. 2010). However, no taxon-rich phylogenetic study exists that is based on sequence data from various nuclear markers. This is in contrast to the many advantages that a (nuclear) multilocus phylogeny would provide. Most importantly, a species tree inferred from the gene trees of many independent loci should be more accurate than a species tree obtained from a few loci or a single locus only (Pamilo & Nei 1988).

Here, we present the design and general validation of primer pairs for 24 nuclear loci in East African cichlids. Our main goal was to obtain a set of nuclear markers for multilocus phylogenetic analyses. We focused on the development of markers with a length suitable for high-throughput sequencing. At the same time, we designed primers to amplify genes with known functions and from different functional categories. As a proof of principle, we tested our marker set in 16 East African cichlid species across a broad phylogenetic range and performed a phylogenetic analysis.

Materials and methods

Primer design

First, we defined the following general requirements for our primer sets:

- 1 the primers should work in a phylogenetically representative set of East African cichlid fishes
- 2 the primers should amplify between ca. 400–600 bp (based on the current read length of 454 sequencing ⁄ GS FLX Titanium)
- 3 they should have a maximal length of 24 bp (based on recommendations for fusion primer design)
- 4 all primers should have a similar melting temperature (Tm) at an optimum between $57-59$ °C (according to the table of thermodynamic parameters from (SantaLucia (1998))
- 5 the genes to be amplified should be well characterized.

We first screened the literature for candidate primers, which were then, if necessary, modified to match the above requirements. Second, to generate new markers, we selected a set of candidate genes with known functions, for example, in coloration and pigmentation, growth factor activity, (craniofacial) bone development, protein processing, cell cycle, metabolism, or as transcription factors and ribosomal proteins. In the absence of a cichlid genome assembly (at the time the study was performed), the distribution of these candidate genes across fish genomes was determined using the available assemblies of Zebrafish (Danio rerio) and Medaka (Oryzias latipes) in Ensembl (Flicek et al. 2011). These two assemblies, in combination with available cichlid cDNA/EST sequences (Watanabe et al. 2004; Tsai et al. 2007; Salzburger et al. 2008; Tine et al. 2008; Kobayashi et al. 2009; Lee et al. 2010; Baldo et al. 2011), were also used to infer exon/ intron boundaries for each locus, which was important to estimate intron lengths. The final primer design was based on additional cichlid sequences (from NCBI databases 'wgs' (whole genome shotgun) and 'nr' as well as unpublished sequences from our laboratory). To avoid the amplification of ancient paralogs, primers were designed in regions where paralogs differed. If possible, primers were designed for exon-primed intron-crossing (EPIC) markers, which anneal in conserved exons and amplify mainly the introns. Given a read length of ca. 400 bp (after trimming) by 454/GS FLX Titanium and ca. 600–800 bp by Sanger sequencing, only relatively short introns could be considered. All primers were designed with PRIMER-BLAST (Sayers et al. 2011), which includes the software PRIMER3 (Rozen & Skaletsky 2000) and a BLAST search (Altschul et al. 1990, 1997; Sayers et al. 2011), using the nr nucleotide database with the 'taxid' (NCBI taxonomy id) for cichlids (8113).

Taxon sampling

To assess the applicability of the newly designed primers in a broad spectrum of cichlid species, we tested them in a phylogenetically representative set of 16 cichlid species representing 12 tribes (Tylochromini, Tilapiini, Bathybatini, Eretmodini, Lamprologini, Ectodini, Cyprichromini, Perissodini, Limnochromini, Haplochromini/Tropheini, Cyphotilapiini). Tylochromis polylepis, a relatively recent colonizer of Lake Tanganyika and a representative of an ancestral lineage, was included as outgroup (Salzburger et al. 2002b; Clabaut et al. 2005; Koch et al. 2007). Note that most species are from Lake Tanganyika to account for its greater diversity in cichlid lineages; however, as we also included several haplochromines, our taxon sampling represents the entire phylogenetic spectrum of East African cichlids. Samples were collected in the years 2007 and 2008.

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Molecular data

Genomic DNA was extracted from fin clips preserved in 95% ethanol, using the robotic workstation BioSprint 96 following the manufacture's protocol (Qiagen, Hombrechtikon, Switzerland). PCRs were performed in a final volume of 12.5 μ L containing REDTaq[®] DNA Polymerase (0.04 units/ μ L), its PCR Buffer (1×) (Sigma-Aldrich, Buchs, Switzerland), 200 μ M of each dNTP (Promega, Dübendorf, Switzerland), 0.2 um of each sense and antisense primer (Microsynth, Balgach, Switzerland), 5–10 ng of DNA and water. The PCR conditions of all target fragments consisted of an initial denaturation for 2 min at 94 �C, followed by 32 cycles with a denaturation step at 94 \degree C for 30 s, an annealing step at 52–54 \degree C for 30 s and finalized by an extension step at 72 \degree C for 1 min. PCR success was evaluated using gel electrophoresis (1.5% agarose; buffered in $1\times$ TAE). To assess the length of the PCR product, a size standard (BenchTop 100bp DNA Ladder; Promega) was added as reference to the gel. For visualization under UV-light, the gel was stained with GelRed™ (Biotium; VWR International, Dietikon, Switzerland).

Prior to DNA sequencing, the PCR products were purified from excess primers and dNTPs using ExoSAP-IT (GE Healthcare, Glattbrugg, Switzerland) following the manufacturer's protocol. Sequencing reactions were performed using $1.5 \mu L$ purified PCR products, the primers specified in Table 1 (0.5 μ L/10 μ M), and 1 μ L BigDye[®] Terminator v3.1 Ready Reaction Mix (Applied Biosystems, Rotkreuz, Switzerland) in a total volume of $8 \mu L$ under standard conditions (1 min 94 °C, followed by 25 cycles with 10 s at 94 \degree C, 20 s at 52 \degree C, 4 min at 60 \degree C). To scavenge all unincorporated BigDye® terminators, the BigDye XTerminator[®] Purification Kit with its standard protocol (Applied Biosystems) was used. After this purification step, sequences were obtained with the 3130xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). Chromatograms were edited in CODONCODE ALIGNER (CodonCode, Dedham, MA, USA). Double peaks with equally high intensities in the chromatograms were assigned as heterozygous sites (SNPs). These polymorphic sites were coded as ambiguous nucleotides following the IUPAC-IUB code.

Sequence analysis

Initial alignments were performed with MAFFT (–auto) (Katoh & Toh 2008). Thereafter, a 'supermatrix' was generated by concatenating the single genes of the 16 species using MESQUITE 2.73 (Maddison & Maddison 2010). We then used MEGA5 (Tamura et al. 2011) to calculate genetic p-distance between the ingroup species (excluding T. polylepis) with complete deletion, for each single gene (and, in a second step, within exons and introns

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separately). The percentage of missing data, the gaps and polymorphic sites were accessed using MACCLADE 4.08 (Maddison & Maddison 2005).

Phylogenetic analysis

Prior to phylogenetic analysis, we determined the best fitting substitution model for each gene with JMODELTEST 0.1.1 (Guindon & Gascuel 2003; Posada 2008) on the basis of the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) (Schwarz 1978). We first performed a maximum likelihood analysis with GARLI 2.0 (Zwickl 2006) and our partitioned supermatrix. We run ten independent replicates, which were terminated automatically after 5000 generations with no significant ($P < 0.01$) improvements in topology scoring. To access confidence in the tree topology, 1000 bootstrap replicates were executed and a majority-rule consensus tree was constructed with PAUP* 4.0a114 (Swofford 2002). Bayesian phylogenetic inference for the partitioned data set was conducted with MRBAYES v3.2 (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist 2001; Ronquist & Huelsenbeck 2003). The starting trees were set to be random. Prior probability distributions for all parameters were assumed to be flat. Two simultaneous MCMC were conducted for 21 000 000 generations, each of which had three heated and one cold chain, and the trees were sampled every 1000 generations. The first 25% of the sampled trees were discarded as burnin. To diagnose convergence in the two runs, we used AWTY (Nylander et al. 2008) and TRACER v1.5 (Rambaut & Drummond 2007). The majority-rule consensus tree derived from GARLI and PAUP* as well as the tree from MRBAYES were finally processed in FIGTREE v1.3.1 (Rambaut 2009).

Results

We designed 24 new primer pairs that amplify nuclear markers in East African cichlid fishes. Two of these primers are variations of already existing primers. The S7 reverse primer is adopted from Chow & Hazama (1998), but with an extra degenerated nucleotide. The other primer, the bmp4 reverse primer, is a variation of an existing primer from Albertson et al. (2003), slightly elongated and with more specific nucleotides. The length of the resulting PCR products ranges between 357–707 base pairs, with an average length of 497 bp and a median of 483.5 bp. Table 1 lists all loci with their specific forward and reverse primer sequences, their location in Medaka chromosomes and the number of base pairs belonging to intron or exon.

The amplification of these loci was successful in most of the 16 tested cichlid species; on average, 15 species showed a band on the agarose gels. Sequencing success with the Sanger method was less successful, which we

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Table 1 List of the 24 primer pairs with their forward and reverse sequences using IUPAC code, the length of the respective PCR product with primers, the ENSEMBL-ID (or NCBI Accession no) of the Medaka ortholog, known chromosome position (Chr. pos.) in Medaka (M), and the amount of base pairs in exon and intron

attribute in part to the existence of alleles with different lengths resulting in double peaks (note: this is not an issue when using next-generation sequencing techniques). The percentage of missing data and gaps per species are listed in Table 2.

In total, we obtained a concatenated data set of 24 partial gene sequences containing 9669 bp. A total of 583 sites were variable (6.03%), of which 130 are parsimony– informative sites (1.3%) (calculated without the outgroup taxon Tylochromis polylepis and without indels or polymorphic sites coded with ambiguous IUPAC code). The combined sequence matrix consists of 5761 bp (59.58%) from exons and 3908 bp (40.42%) from introns (Table 1). In 18 of the 24 loci, we detected heterozygous SNPs (46 SNPs in total; referred to as polymorphic sites in the tables, Table 2 and Table S1, Supporting information). Detailed information about the number of variable sites, the number and location of polymorphisms, the calculated BIC value and the gene ontology (GO) terms for every gene are listed in Table S1 (Supporting information). The PCR conditions for each primer pair (including the enzymes used and the annealing temperatures), and PCR and sequencing success (and possible reason for its failure) are shown in Table S2 (Supporting information).

Maximum likelihood (not shown) and Bayesian inference (Fig. 1) of the concatenated data yielded congruent trees. The only differences between the two trees concern weakly supported nodes (the relative positions of the Cyprichromini, Cyphotilapiini, Limnochromini, Eretmodini and Perissodini to the Lamprologini/Ectodini complex) and the placement of Sargochromis within the Haplochromini.

Discussion

In this study, we present a new primer set for phylogenetic inferences in East African cichlid fishes. We further show that our primers amplify successfully in most of the tested representatives from Lake Tanganyika, making our primer set applicable for a great portion of the \sim 250 cichlid species in this lake. As the primers amplify very well in our riverine and Tanganyikan representatives of haplochromines sensu lato (Salzburger et al. 2005), it is likely that they also work for the members of

Table 2 DNA sequencing success in our test taxon set. The total sequence length (in bp) for each taxon, the percentage of missing data relative to the supermatrix, the percentage of gaps and the number of polymorphic sites (SNPs) within each taxon are given

Taxon	Sequence length (bp)	Missing $(\%)$	Gaps $(\%)$	SNPs
Bathybates graueri	9528	37.2	1.5	Ω
Cyprichromis leptosoma	9616	54.7	0.5	1
Ophthalmotilapia ventralis	9517	56.9	1.6	7
Oreochromis tanganicae	9552	31.9	1.2	1
Cyphotilapia frontosa	9532	52.2	1.4	1
Eretmodus cyanostictus	9437	14.4	24	5
Tropheus moori	9482	73	1.9	4
Ctenochromis horei	9480	1.9	1.9	2
Astatotilapia burtoni	9504	13.1	1.7	$\overline{2}$
Lamprologus callipterus	9593	18.6	0.8	5
Perissodus microlepis	9489	14.7	1.9	Ω
Neolamprologus pulcher	9530	31.8	1.4	1
Tylochromis polylepis	9633	37.9	04	2
Limnochromis abeelei	9494	13.1	1.8	5
Sargochromis spec.	9523	11.9	1.5	7
Pseudocrenilabrus philander	9531	23.7	1.4	3

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the species flocks of Lake Malawi and the Lake Victoria region, which exclusively consist of haplochromines (Meyer et al. 1990; Verheyen et al. 2003; Salzburger et al. 2005).

We designed the primer pairs specifically for the use in both single-read Sanger sequencing and next-generation sequencing with the 454 technology, by restricting the amplicon product length to the read length of these methods (see Table 1). Another important attribute of our primers constitutes the similar melting temperature and consequently a comparable annealing temperature, which enables multiplexed reactions and cost-effective parallel high-throughput sequencing. Furthermore, the markers are placed into annotated genes with known functions, leading to a good coverage of the genome (see Table 1) and the avoidance (or at least relatively easy identification) of paralogs or pseudogenes. Finally, the primers were designed to cover coding (exons) and noncoding (introns) regions of these genes. Intron sequences have been used successfully for both phylogenetic inference (Hedin & Maddison 2001; Fujita et al. 2004; Dalebout et al. 2008; Jacobsen & Omland 2011; Yu et al. 2011) and population genetics (Palumbi & Baker 1994; Tay et al. 2008; Carvajal-Vallejos et al. 2010), particularly because

Fig. 1 Bayesian inference topology inferred with MRBAYES for the 16 species in our test data set and based on 24 genes (concatenated, 9669 bp). Bootstrap support for ML > 50 and posterior probability of the MRBAYES analysis >0.50 are shown. Branch lengths are proportional to the number of mutations per site.

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introns typically contain a higher percentage of polymorphic sites than exons (reviewed in Zhang & Hewitt 2003). About 40% of the nuclear DNA sequences, obtained by using our newly developed primer set for cichlids, belong to introns, which indeed show greater diversity than the exons (see Table S1, Supporting information).

The primary goal of this novel primer set is to use it for phylogenetic purposes in order to refine and extend existing phylogenetic hypotheses (Salzburger et al. 2002b, 2005; Clabaut et al. 2005; Day et al. 2008; Koblmüller et al. 2008) and to address the gene tree ⁄ species tree issue in Tanganyikan cichlids (see Brito & Edwards 2009; Heled & Drummond 2010; Liu 2008 for methods and discussions).

The various drawbacks of the sole use of mitochondrial markers for phylogenetic, phylogeographic and population genetic inference have been frequently discussed (Ballard & Whitlock 2004; Ballard & Rand 2005; Rubinoff & Holland 2005; Brito & Edwards 2009; Galtier et al. 2009). However, also nuclear markers have some drawbacks, such as a relatively low mutation rate (Moritz et al. 1987) and a four times larger effective population size compared with the haploid and uniparentally inherited mitochondrial markers leading to longer coalescence times and slower fixation rates (Moore 1995). In the case of the new marker set provided here, this is counterbalanced by the relatively large amount of sequence data that can be obtained.

Taken together, we present the development and the proof of functionality of the so far largest set of independent sequence-based nuclear markers for phylogenetic purposes for East African cichlid fishes. The markers can be used in both Sanger sequencing and next-generation sequencing using the 454 approach. We thus provide an important tool that will be used for multimarker phylogenetic analyses of East African cichlids in the future.

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B.S.M., W.S. conceived and designed the project. B.S.M. performed the experiments. B.S.M., W.S. analyzed the data and wrote the paper.

Data Accessibility

All DNA sequences from this study are available under GenBank Accession: JX135129–JX135389 (for more details see: Table S3, Supporting information).

Supporting Information

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.

Table S1 List of the 24 genes used for primer design. Information is provided with regard to the alignment length used for primer design; the percentage of variable and parsimonyinformative sites without the outgroup; the number of polymorphic sites (SNPs), the location in the different species and its percentage including the outgroup; average p-distance calculated with complete deletion and without the outgroup; its range and SE calculated with 500 bootstrap replicates; and average p-distance including only base pairs from exon or intron without the outgroup; the recommended model from JMODELTEST 0.1.1 on the basis of the BIC with its computed likelihood scores; the GO terms from annotated fish sequences from UniProtKB.

Table S2 List of the 24 genes used for primer design. Information about the number of successful PCR and sequencing reactions; further used sequences and their Accession number of GenBank or other source; the percentage of missing data (due to sequencing errors); used annealing temperature in the PCR and used Taq polymerase; $+/+$ designates successful PCR and sequencing reaction, $-/-$ both unsuccessful, $+/-$ PCR successful and sequencing unsuccessful; indicating possible reason for failed sequencing reaction.

Table S3 List of used species, 24 markers and GenBank Accession numbers (asterisks indicate the usage of other unpublished primer pairs) http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/.

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Supplementary Material

A novel primer set for multilocus phylogenetic inference in East African cichlid fishes

Britta S. Meyer & Walter Salzburger

Molecular Ecology Resources (2012) 12, 1097–11, doi: 10.1111/j.1755-0998.2012.03169.x

Supplementary Table 1

List of the 24 genes used for primer design. Information is provided with regard to the alignment length used for primer design; the percentage of variable and parsimonyinformative sites without the outgroup; the number of polymorphic sites (SNPs), the location in the different species and its percentage including the outgroup; average p-distance calculated with complete deletion and without the outgroup; its range and SE calculated with 500 bootstrap replicates; and average p-distance including only base pairs from exon or intron without the outgroup; the recommended model from JModelTest 0.1.1 on the basis of the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) with its computed likelihood scores; the GO terms from annotated fish sequences from UniProtKB (The UniProt Consortium (2012) Reorganizing the protein space at the Universal Protein Resource (UniProt). Nucleic Acids Research 40, D71-D75).

Supplementary Table 2

List of the 24 genes used for primer design. Information about the number of successful PCR and sequencing reactions; further used sequences and their Accession no of GenBank or other source; the percentage of missing data (due to sequencing errors); used annealing temperature in the PCR and used Taq polymerase; +/+ designates successful PCR and sequencing reaction, -/- both unsuccessful, +/- PCR successful and sequencing unsuccessful; indicating possible reason for failed sequencing reaction.

Supplementary Table 3

List of used species, 24 markers and GenBank Accession nos (asterisks indicate the usage of other unpublished primer pairs) http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/.

Supplementary Table 1

Supplementary Table 2

The Evolution of the Pro-Domain of Bone Morphogenetic Protein 4 (Bmp4) in an Explosively Speciated Lineage of East African Cichlid Fishes. Molecular biology and evolution 19, 1628-1632. **Salzburger W, Braasch I, Meyer A

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Phylogenetic relationships of the lamprologine cichlid genus Lepidiolamprologus (Teleostei: Perciformes) based on mitochondrial and nuclear sequences, suggesting introgressive hybridization.
Molecular Phylogenetics and Evo

Supplementary Table 3

	bmp4	bmp2	tat6	furina	run2	shh	pax9	sox10b	ednrb1	mctr	c-ski	kita	mitfa	Σ	csfr1	pax ₃	hag	rag	b2m	gapdhs	ccng1	ptr-like	enc1	57
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Bathybates graueri				IX135153 JX135190					JX135142	JX135178	IX135251	IX135216	JX135296		JX135196	IX135379	IX135345*	IX135282		JX135310	JX135129	IX135239	JX135322	
Cyprichromis leptosoma		X135270	JX135154			JX135359						JX135217	JX135297							JX135311		JX135240		
Ophthalmotilapia ventralis	JX135203	JX135271											IX135298				X135346			JX135312	JX135130		JX135323	IX135230
Oreochromis tanganicae	IX135204		JX135155							JX135179	IX135252	IX135218	IX135299	JX135368			X135347			JX135313	JX135131	JX135241		X13523 ⁻
Cyphotilapia frontosa	JX135205	JX135272	JX135156					135334			JX135253		IX135300			JX135380	IX135348			JX135314	JX135132			
Eretmodus cyanostictus	JX135206	JX135273	JX135157		X135288			K135335	JX135143	JX135180	JX135254	IX135219	IX135301	JX135369		IX135381	X135349		JX135168	JX135315	JX135133	JX135242	JX135324	X135232
Tropheus moori	IX135207	JX135274	JX135158	JX135191	JX135289	JX135360		(135336	JX135144	JX135181	IX135255	IX135220	IX135302	JX135370	JX135197	JX135382	IX135350		IX135169	JX135316	JX135134		X135325	X135233
Ctenochromis horei	IX135208	JX135275	JX135159	JX135192	JX135290	JX135361	JX135265	<135337	JX135145	JX135182	JX135256	JX135221	IX135303	JX135371	JX135198	JX135383	JX135351	JX135283	JX135170	JX135317	JX135135	JX135243	JX135326	X135234
Astatotilapia burtoni		IX135276	JX135160	JX135193	IX135291		JX135266	135338	JX135146	JX135183	IX135257	X135222	IX135304	JX135372	JX135199	JX135384	JX135352	JX135284	JX135171		JX135136	JX135244	IX135327	
amprologus callipterus	JX135209		JX135161			IX135362	JX135267	(135339	JX135147	JX135184	JX135258	IX135223	IX135305	JX135373		JX135385			JX135172	JX135318	JX135137	JX135245	JX135328	
Perissodus microlepis	JX135210	JX135277	JX135162		JX135292		JX135268	K135340	JX135148		IX135259	JX135224	IX135306	IX135374			IX135353	JX135285	JX135173	JX135319*	JX135138	JX135246	JX135329	X135235
Neolamprologus pulcher		IX135211 JX135278	JX135163			X135363		13534		JX135185	IX135260	IX135225	IX135307	JX135375		JX135386	IX135354		JX135174			IX135247	IX135330	X135236
ylochromis polylepis		JX135212 JX135279	JX135164	JX135194	JX135293	JX135364		K135342	JX135149	JX135186	JX135261	JX135226		JX135376			X135355							X135237
imnochromis abeelei	JX135213	JX135280	JX135165		JX135294	JX135365			JX135150	JX135187	JX135262	IX135227	JX135308	JX135377	JX135200	JX135387	JX135356		JX135175	JX135320	JX135139	JX135248	JX135331	X135238
Sargochromis spec.	JX135214	JX135281	JX135166	JX135195	JX135295	JX135366		135343	JX135151	JX135188	JX135263	IX135228		JX135378	IX135201	IX135388	IX135357	IX135286	JX135176	JX135321	JX135140	JX135249	JX135332	
Pseudocrenilabrus philander	JX135215		JX135167			JX135367	JX135269	(135344	JX135152	JX135189	JX135264	JX135229	JX135309		JX135202	JX135389	JX135358	JX135287	JX135177		JX135141	JX135250	JX135333	
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A tribal level phylogeny of Lake Tanganyika cichlid fishes based on a genomic multi-marker approach

Britta S. Meyer, Michael Matschiner & Walter Salzburger

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BSM developed the primer pairs, conducted the laboratory work, analyzed the resulting sequence data and drafted the manuscript. MM participated/helped analyzing the data and participated in manuscript drafting. WS designed the study and helped with the data analyses and participated in manuscript drafting.

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A tribal level phylogeny of Lake Tanganyika cichlid fishes based on a genomic multi-marker approach

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abstract

The species-flocks of cichlid fishes in the East African Great Lakes Victoria, Malawi and Tanganyika constitute the most diverse extant adaptive radiations in vertebrates. Lake Tanganyika, the oldest of the lakes, harbors the morphologically and genetically most diverse assemblage of cichlids and contains the highest number of endemic cichlid genera of all African lakes. Based on morphological grounds, the Tanganyikan cichlid species have been grouped into 12–16 distinct lineages, so-called tribes. While the monophyly of most of the tribes is well established, the phylogenetic relationships among the tribes remain largely elusive. Here, we present a new tribal level phylogenetic hypothesis for the cichlid fishes of Lake Tanganyika that is based on the so far largest set of nuclear markers and a total alignment length of close to 18 kb. Using next-generation amplicon sequencing with the 454 pyrosequencing technology, we compiled a dataset consisting of 42 nuclear loci in 45 East African cichlid species, which we subjected to maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference phylogenetic analyses. We analyzed the entire concatenated dataset and each marker individually, and performed a Bayesian concordance analysis and gene tree discordance tests. Overall, we find strong support for a position of the Oreochromini, Boulengerochromini, Bathybatini and Trematocarini outside of a clade combining the substrate spawning Lamprologini and the mouthbrooding tribes of the 'H-lineage', which are both strongly supported to be monophyletic. The Eretmodini are firmly placed within the 'H-lineage', as sister-group to the most species-rich tribe of cichlids, the Haplochromini. The phylogenetic relationships at the base of the 'H-lineage' received less support, which is likely due to high speciation rates in the early phase of the radiation. Discordance among gene trees and marker sets further suggests the occurrence of past hybridization and/or incomplete lineage sorting in the cichlid fishes of Lake Tanganyika.

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1. Introduction

The species-flocks of cichlid fishes in the East African Great Lakes Victoria, Malawi and Tanganyika (LT) represent the most species-rich adaptive radiations known in vertebrates (see e.g. Kocher, 2004; Salzburger, 2009; Seehausen, 2006). Several hundred of endemic cichlid species have evolved in each of these lakes in only the last few million to several thousand of years (see e.g. Genner et al., 2007; Kocher, 2004; Salzburger, 2009; Salzburger

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and Meyer, 2004; Snoeks, 2000; Turner et al., 2001; Verheyen et al., 2003). Because of their taxonomic diversity, their ecological and morphological disparity and the high proportion of endemism, East African cichlid fishes are a prime model system in evolutionary biology (reviewed in: Kocher, 2004; Salzburger, 2009; Santos and Salzburger, 2012).

With a maximum estimated age of 9–12 million years (my), LT is the oldest lake in Africa (Cohen et al., 1997; Salzburger et al., 2014) and contains the genetically, morphologically and ecologically most diverse group of cichlid fishes counting ca. 200 species in more than 50 genera (Koblmüller et al., 2008b; Salzburger et al., 2002a; Snoeks, 2000). Based on morphological grounds, Poll (1986) grouped the LT cichlid species into 12 tribes (a taxonomic rank between subfamily and genus): Bathybatini, Cyprichromini, Ectodini, Eretmodini, Haplochromini, Lamprologini, Limnochromini, Perissodini, Tilapiini, Trematocarini, Tropheini,

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and Tylochromini. Takahashi (2003) revised Poll's tribal assignment and suggested to (i) taking Boulengerochromis microlepis out of the Tilapiini into its own tribe, Boulengerochromini, leaving behind Oreochromis tanganicae as the only representative of the Tilapiini in LT; (ii) splitting the Limnochromini into Limnochromini sensu stricto, Benthochromini and Greenwoodochromini; (iii) establishing a separate tribe, Cyphotilapiini, for Cyphotilapia frontosa and C. gibberosa; (iv) moving 'Ctenochromis' benthicola into its own tribe; and (v) putting the species of the Trematocarini into the Bathybatini. Only some of these revisions are backed up by molecular data, such as the establishment of the new tribes Benthochromini, Boulengerochromini, and Cyphotilapiini (Koblmüller et al., 2008b; Muschick et al., 2012; Salzburger et al., 2002a). Greenwoodochromis, on the other hand, is clearly nested within the Limnochromini in molecular phylogenies (Duftner et al., 2005; Muschick et al., 2012; Kirchberger et al., 2014), and should hence remain within the Limnochromini; the Trematocarini consistently form a separate lineage outside the Bathybatini (see e.g. Koblmüller et al., 2005; Muschick et al., 2012) and should remain in their own tribe (note that Koblmüller et al. (2008b) suggested splitting the Bathybatini into Bathybatini sensu stricto and Hemibatini); and 'Ctenochromis' benthicola has recently been identified as member of the Cyphotilapiini (Muschick et al., 2012). Finally, the Tropheini were consistently found to be nested within the Haplochromini (Salzburger et al., 2005, 2002a; see also below) and should, hence, not be considered as separate tribe but as part of the Haplochromini.

Not all of the cichlid tribes occurring in LT are endemic to this lake, though, and four tribes show a distribution range that exceeds the LT basin by far. The Tylochromini have their center of divergence in West Africa (Stiassny, 1990), and the only LT species, T. polylepis, is likely to have invaded LT only recently (Koch et al., 2007). The same might be true for O. tanganicae, the only native representative of the widely distributed Tilapiini in LT (Klett and Meyer, 2002). Note that the Tilapiini were recently taxonomically revised and that the genus Oreochromis has been placed into a new tribe, namely the Oreochromini (Dunz and Schliewen, 2013). The Lamprologini, the most species-rich tribe of cichlids in LT, contain a few species that have secondarily colonized the Congo and Malagarasi River systems (Salzburger et al., 2002a; Schelly et al., 2003; Schelly and Stiassny, 2004; Sturmbauer et al., 2010). The Haplochromini (including the Tropheini) represent the most species-rich tribe of cichlids overall, and are distributed across large parts of Africa, where they have seeded various radiations including the ones of Lake Malawi and the Lake Victoria Region (Koblmüller et al., 2008a; Salzburger et al., 2005; Schwarzer et al., 2012; Verheyen et al., 2003; Wagner et al., 2012). The LT cichlid fishes thus show faunal affinities across a large geographical range to both older cichlid lineages such as the Tylochromini and Tilapiini/Oreochromini and younger ones such as the Haplochromini.

The phylogenetic relationships among East African cichlid tribes has been the subject of various studies over the past two decades, yet remain enigmatic (reviewed in: Koblmüller et al., 2008b). The first comprehensive phylogenetic study of LT's cichlid fishes using molecular information dates back to the early 1990s, when Nishida (1991) used allozyme data to examine the relationships among tribes. He established the so-called 'H-lineage' consisting of the tribes Cyprichromini, Ectodini, Eretmodini, Haplochromini/Tropheini (which he already found to be monophyletic), Limnochromini, and Perissodini as sister-group to the Lamprologini; the Bathybatini, Trematocarini plus Boulengerochromis microlepis, Oreochromis tanganicae, and Tylochromis polylepis were placed outside of a clade formed by the 'H-lineage' and Lamprologini. Yet, the relative position of the 'H-lineage' tribes differed depending on the algorithms used (UPGMA and neighbour-joining; NJ) (Fig. 1a).

Sturmbauer and Meyer (1993) used two mitochondrial (mt) DNA markers (cytochrome b and control region) and suggested, based on phylogenetic analyses with NJ and maximum parsimony (MP), a sister-group relationship between the Cyprichromini and the Ectodini and between the Eretmodini and the Haplochromini (Fig. 1b). Kocher et al. (1995) established the mitochondrial NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2 (ND2) gene as marker for phylogenetic analyses in cichlid fishes and provided the most inclusive phylogenetic hypothesis for LT cichlids so far. In their MP and NJ phylogenies, the Bathybatini, the Tylochromini, B. microlepis and O. tanganicae formed a clade, and the Eretmodini were placed outside the 'H-lineage', as sister-group to the Lamprologini (Fig. 1c). The Cyprichromini were resolved as the sister-group to all remaining 'H-lineage' taxa (i.e. without the Eretmodini). Using three mitochondrial markers (control region, cytochrome b, ND2) and NJ, MP and maximum-likelihood (ML) phylogenetic analyses, Salzburger et al. (2002a) confirmed the position of B. microlepis, the Bathybatini and the Trematocarini outside all other tribes occurring in Lake Tanganyika, with the exception of the Tylochromini, and the Eretmodini were placed as sister-group to the Lamprologini and the remaining 'H-lineage' tribes (Fig. 1d). Within the 'H-lineage', the Ectodini appeared as the sister to the remaining taxa. This study was also the first to establish phylogenetic affinities between the LT cichlid fishes and the riverine genus Orthochromis (not shown in Fig. 1d; see also Salzburger et al., 2005). Clabaut et al. (2005) combined sequences of the mitochondrial ND2 gene and the nuclear recombinase activating gene (rag) and applied ML and Bayesian inference (BI). They placed the Eretmodini as sister-group to the Lamprologini and established the 'C-lineage', i.e. the 'H-lineage' of Nishida (1991) but without the Eretmodini. Within this 'C-lineage', the Limnochromini plus C. frontosa appeared as the sister-group to the Perissodini, the Ectodini, the Cyprichromini and the Haplochromini (Fig. 1e). Day et al. (2008) provided one of the most comprehensive datasets to date (cytochrome b, ND2) including 157 taxa. Their ML and BI phylogenies supported the existence of the 'C-lineage' by placing the Eretmodini as sister-group to the Lamprologini. In their analyses, a clade formed by the Ectodini and Cyprichromini was placed as the sister-group of the remaining 'C-lineage' taxa (Fig. 1f). In the ML phylogeny of Muschick et al. (2012), who used the mitochondrial ND2 gene and two nuclear markers (ednrb1, phpt1), the Eretmodini were placed as sister group to the Lamprologini and the 'C-lineage', within which the Limnochromini appeared outside of all other included taxa (Fig. 1g). The study of Friedman et al. (2013), which was based on ten nuclear makers and did not focus specifically on the species of LT but on a larger cichlid phylogeny, revealed a clade formed by the Lamprologini, the Perissodini plus the Cyprichromini, and the Cyphotilapiini plus the Limnochromini as sister group to the Ectodini, the Eretmodini and the Haplochromini (Fig. 1h).

In summary, after more than 20 years of research, the composition of individual LT tribes has been well investigated, whereas the phylogenetic relationships among these cichlid tribes remain largely elusive. All studies performed so far revealed different results (Fig. 1), and the support values for many of the deeper nodes were consistently low. While there is consensus about the position of T. polylepis, O. tanganicae, the Bathybatini, Boulengerochromini and Trematocarini outside of the other tribes, the following main areas of uncertainty persist: (i) the relative position of the Bathybatini, Boulengerochromini and Trematocarini to each other; (ii) the placement of the Eretmodini, which were suggested as either being part of the 'H-lineage' and sister to the Haplochromini (Friedman et al., 2013; Nishida, 1991; Sturmbauer and Meyer, 1993), as sister-group to the Lamprologini (Clabaut et al., 2005; Day et al., 2008; Kocher et al., 1995), or as separate lineage outside the Lamprologini-'C-lineage' clade (Muschick et al., 2012; Salzburger et al.,

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Fig. 1. Previous hypotheses for the phylogenetic relationships among cichlid tribes in Lake Tanganyika. The figure depicts simplified cladograms based on the studies of (a) Nishida (1991), (b) Sturmbauer and Meyer (1993), (c) Kocher et al. (1995), (d) Salzburger et al. (2022), (e) Clabaut et al. (2005), (f) Day et al. (2008), (g) Muschick et al. (2012),
and (h) Friedman et al. (2013). The mar Muschick et al. (2012). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

2002a); and (iii) the relative position of the 'H-lineage'/'C-lineage' taxa with respect to each other.

The apparent intricacy with resolving the phylogenetic relationships of the cichlid tribes in LT might have various reasons. First, the conflict between the various phylogenetic hypotheses might in part result from the different phylogenetic algorithms used (see above), although this would not apply to the more recent studies, all of which relied on ML and BI methods. Second, we might face the problem here that the previously used markers do not provide enough power of resolution for the question at hand. Alternatively, the inability to resolve some of the phylogenetic relationships of

LT's cichlid tribes might reflect biological reality in the context of an adaptive radiation, where speciation is not necessarily bifurcating and multiple lineages may evolve nearly contemporaneously from a common ancestor ('soft polytomy' versus 'hard polytomy' problem: Maddison, 1989; Slowinski, 2001; Sturmbauer et al., 2003; Walsh et al., 1999; Whitfield and Lockhart, 2007). Conflicting topologies may also be the result of reticulate evolution due to (introgressive) hybridization, which is a commonly observed phenomenon in LT's cichlid assemblage (e.g. Koblmüller et al., 2007; Salzburger et al., 2002b) and might have acted as trigger of cichlid adaptive radiations in the first place (Joyce et al., 2011; Seehausen,

2004). Finally, discordance between different sets of markers could reflect incomplete lineage sorting, which is expected to have a strong impact on phylogenetic inference in rapidly diversifying clades (Kubatko and Degnan, 2007) and has been demonstrated in LT cichlid fishes before (Takahashi et al., 2001).

With decreasing sequencing costs and increasing computational resources, single marker and mtDNA-based phylogenies are rapidly being replaced by phylogenies inferred from large-scale nuclear marker sets based on selected loci, transcriptomes, or even whole genomes (McCormack et al., 2013). This recent development enables comparisons between the phylogenetic histories of multiple sets of individual markers. Here, we analyze the phylogenetic history of cichlid fishes from LT on a tribal level, including representatives from the East African Lakes Victoria and Malawi. We sampled 45 species and 42 nuclear loci and thus assembled the largest DNA sequence dataset available for LT cichlid fishes to date. In order to account for potential hybridization and incomplete lineage sorting, we explore gene tree concordance in addition to concatenation as ways for species tree estimation. We further test the strength of our dataset using random resampling of different numbers of markers.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Sample collection and DNA extraction

Specimens for this study were collected between 2007 and 2011 at the Kafue River (Kafue National Park) and at LT in the Northern Province of the Republic of Zambia following the standard operating procedure described in Muschick et al. (2012). Additional samples were obtained from aquaria stocks at the University of Basel and at EAWAG, Kastanienbaum, Switzerland. In total, we analyzed data for 45 specimens, each representing a different East African cichlid species. Our sampling comprised 34 cichlid species from LT covering all major cichlid lineages in this lake. In addition we included 11 further species of riverine clades and from Lakes Victoria and Malawi, to place the LT cichlid taxa into a larger phylogenetic context. A detailed list of specimens, their IDs and sample locations is provided in Table S1. Genomic DNA was extracted from ethanol preserved tissue of whole specimens (see Muschick et al., 2012 for details).

2.2. Marker selection, sequencing and quality control

To infer the phylogenetic history of the cichlid fishes of LT on the basis of an informative set of nuclear (nc) DNA markers, we selected a set of 42 nuclear loci. Twenty-four primer pairs were taken from earlier studies (Meyer and Salzburger, 2012; Muschick et al., 2012; Won et al., 2005) and 18 primer pairs were newly designed following the strategy described in Meyer and Salzburger (2012). In short, we selected genes with known functions and aimed for amplification products between 400 and 600 bp in length to enable the application of next-generation amplicon sequencing. Twentyfour of the markers were developed as exon-primed intron crossing (so-called EPIC) primers (Lessa, 1992; Slade et al., 1993). The markers for enc1, ptr, tbr and snx33 were taken from Li et al. (2007), but modified to meet our requirements. The same strategy was applied for ednrb (Lang et al., 2006), bmp4 (Albertson et al., 2003), and the reverse primer of s7 (Chow and Hazama, 1998). The genome of the Nile Tilapia (Oreochromis niloticus) (Brawand et al., 2014) was used to define exon–intron boundaries and UTRs. A detailed list of all primers, their base composition, the length of the amplification products, their source, the ENSEBML reference of the respective locus in Tilapia, the chromosomal position of the respective locus in the Medaka genome and the number of variable sites are provided in Tables 1 and 2.

The 42 nuclear markers were PCR amplified in several separate multiplex reactions in a final volume of $25 \mu L$ on a Veriti or 2720 thermal cycler (both Applied Biosystems, Rotkreuz, Switzerland). All PCR reactions contained the Multiplex PCR Kit (QIAGEN, Hombrechtikon, Switzerland) and a primer mix including eight to ten barcoded primer pairs (0.1 μ M of each primer), water, and template DNA (5-20 ng/ μ L). We used barcoded fusion primers synthesized by Microsynth (Balgach, Switzerland). The PCR conditions were standardized for all reactions with an initial heat activation phase of 95 \degree C for 15 min, followed by 35 amplification cycles with denaturation steps at 94 °C for 30 s, annealing steps at 60–62 °C for 90 s and extension steps at 72 \degree C for 90 s; reactions were completed by a final extension phase at 72 \degree C for 10 min.

To remove small fragments, residual primers and primerdimers, we applied the Agencourt AMPure XP magnetic bead system following the manufacturer's protocol (Beckman Coulter, Nyon, Switzerland) and using a bead/DNA ratio of 1:1. Purification results were inspected with a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent, Basel, Switzerland) using the DNA 1000 Kit. The amplification products of five individual PCR reactions with different primer combinations were then pooled (on the basis of the concentration measurements with the Bioanalyzer) to obtain the final libraries containing all 42 markers of one individual. In a second pooling step, 16 barcoded individuals were pooled for one 1/16th run on a 454 PicoTiterPlate. The subsequent library handling and sequencing was conducted by Microsynth (Balgach, Switzerland) with the GS FLX system (454 Sequencing, Roche). Sequencing was unidirectional starting at the forward primer, which also contained the barcodes.

Individual sequences (in both fasta and fastq format) were separated and extracted with Roche's sffinfo tool (described in 454 Sequencing System Software Manual Version 2.6). Quality control was conducted with the software PRINSEQ (v0.20.3) (Schmieder and Edwards, 2011). We excluded individual reads that were shorter than 150 bp, that had an average Phred quality score below 15, or that contained more than 1% unidentified bases coded as ''N''. In a second step, we filtered out exact duplicates. The assembly to reference sequences from the A. burtoni genome (Brawand et al., 2014) was performed with the software bwa and the BWA-SW algorithm (the Burrows-Wheeler Aligner's Smith-Waterman Alignment) (Li and Durbin, 2010). The resulting SAM files were imported into Geneious (v6.1.6–7.0.3, Biomatters Ltd, Auckland, New Zealand; available from http://www.geneious.com), visually inspected, if necessary reassembled, and further trimmed (we allowed a 0.05 error probability limit and a maximum of 10 low quality bases at the $3'$ end). The final consensus sequences for each individual and marker were constructed with a 50% threshold, where bases were called ''N'' if the Phred score was below 20. Sequence data has been deposited on GenBank under the accession numbers KP129679-KP131427 (see Table S2 for details) and KM263618-KM263752 (Santos et al., 2014).

2.3. Alignment and sequence characterization

Sequences for each locus were aligned with the software MAFFT (v7.017) (Katoh and Standley, 2013), using the "-auto" option. Resulting alignments were visually inspected and manually improved when obvious sequencing artefacts (e.g. homopolymers) were observed or homology appeared questionable.

Overall mean distance for each locus was calculated with the software MEGA (v5.2.1) (Tamura et al., 2011) as the total number of differences and the p-distance. This was done for all ingroup taxa (i.e. excluding Tylochromis polylepis), with pairwise deletion for missing and ambiguous data. For the concatenated alignment the within group mean distance was also calculated for the three most species-rich lineages, the Haplochromini, the Lamprologini and the Ectodini.

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Table 1
List of the 42 markers used in this study. The marker name, the forward and reverse sequence of each primer, the Ensembl Gene-ID for the respective locus in Tilapia, the link to
the Ensemble entry for Tilapia, th

Table 2

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Characterization of the 42 loci used in this study. The marker name, the alignment length of each marker, the sequenced gene regions, the number of variable (V) and parsimony informative (PI) sites in the ingroup taxa, the mean number of differences (genetic distance) and the p-distance in the ingroup taxa, and the assignment to one of six subsets according to the CONCATERILLAR analysis are specified for each marker.

2.4. Gene tree discordance tests

We first tested for topological incongruence between individual gene trees, using hierarchical likelihood ratio tests as implemented in the software CONCATERPILLAR (v1.7.2) (Leigh et al., 2008), with default settings and the assumption of linked branch lengths. As part of the CONCATERPILLAR analysis, tree inference was performed using RAxML (v7.2.8) (Stamatakis, 2006), assuming a single GTR substitution model for each sequence alignment. The two largest sets of markers identified by CONCATERPILLAR to have concordant histories (containing 13 and 14 markers, respectively) were each concatenated and subjected to phylogenetic analyses as described below.

2.5. Phylogenetic analysis of concatenated datasets

In brief, sequence alignments for sets of loci were concatenated according to different strategies (see below) and phylogenetic analyses were based on both maximum likelihood with GARLI-PART (v2.0.1019) (Zwickl, 2006) and RAxML (v7.7) (Stamatakis, 2006), and on Bayesian inference with MrBayes v3.2.1 (Ronquist et al., 2012). Prior to tree inference, sequence alignments were subdivided according to gene region (exons, introns and UTRs) and codon position, and the optimal substitution models and partitioning

schemes for these subdivisions were selected with the greedy algorithm of PartitionFinder (v1.1.1) (Lanfear et al., 2012) applying the Bayesian information criterion (BIC), and always taking into account substitution models available in the respective tree inference software (Schwarz, 1978). Phylogenetic analyses were run locally or at the CIPRES Science Gateway (Miller et al., 2010) and at Bioportal (Kumar et al., 2009).

We first inferred the phylogeny for each of the two largest sets of loci with concordant histories according to CONCATERPILLAR. To this end, sequence alignments of all markers included in each set were concatenated. We then used concatenation of the full set of 42 loci to infer the phylogenetic history of LT cichlid fishes. This method assumes that all markers share a common evolutionary history and that discordant signals resulting from homoplasies can be counterbalanced by extensive and genome wide marker sampling (Rokas et al., 2003). While the assumption of a common evolutionary history seems to be violated at least for the analysis of the full marker set, concatenation may still lead to correct phylogenetic estimates when the true tree lies outside of the ''anomaly zone'' (Kubatko and Degnan, 2007). As there is no fully unlinked branch length option in GARLI, analyses were run with linked branch lengths (subsetspecificrates = 1 , linkmodels = 0) and partitioning schemes and substitution models selected by PartitionFinder with respective settings (branchlengths = linked,

models = all, resulting in 17 distinct partitions for the full-concatenated dataset). A total of 50 independent ML inferences were conducted in GARLI, with the termination condition set to at least 10,000 generations without any substantial (0.01) topological enhancement. Node support was assessed with 500 replicates of non-parametric bootstrapping with the same settings. Bootstrap values were mapped to the ML topology with SumTrees (v3.3.1), using the DendroPy Phylogenetic Computing Library (v3.12.0) (Sukumaran and Holder, 2010).

ML phylogenies with unlinked partition-specific branch lengths were estimated with RAxML, using the -M option and applying a partitioning scheme obtained by a PartitionFinder analysis (settings: branchlengths = unlinked, model = raxml, resulting in 2 partitions). For the ML inference, we used RAxML's rapid hill-climbing algorithm and the GTR + GAMMA model in 50 alternative runs and with 500 bootstrap replicates each.

Likewise, MrBayes analyses were conducted with unlinked branch lengths (unlink brlens = (all), prset ratepr = fixed) and a partitioning scheme estimated by PartitionFinder (settings: branchlengths = unlinked, model = mrbayes, resulting in 2 partitions). Using the default prior probability distribution (exponential prior with a mean of 0.1) on branch lengths, two independent MrBayes runs were conducted with four chains for 10,000,000 MCMC generations, sampling every 100th generation, and discarding the first 25% as burn-in. All other settings were left at their defaults. Convergence of MCMC was assessed by MrBayes' Potential Scale Reduction Factor (PSRF) reaching 1.0, and the average standard deviation of split frequencies falling below 0.01. We further evaluated effective sample sizes in Tracer (v1.5) (Rambaut and Drummond, 2007) and plotted posterior probabilities of splits over the MCMC run with AWTY online to test for convergence of runs (Nylander et al., 2008).

To examine the phylogenetic signal contained in length-mutational events and to evaluate the potential power of a combined analysis (alignment plus indel information), the indels from the concatenated alignment were translated into a presence/absence matrix. This was performed with the software SeqState v1.4.1 (Müller, 2005) using the simple indel coding procedure (SIC) (Simmons and Ochoterena, 2000). Phylogenetic inference for these two datasets was conducted with GARLI, applying the Mkv model of Lewis (2001), and otherwise using default settings as described above.

2.6. Gene tree summary statistics and Bayesian concordance analysis

In order to visualize potentially conflicting signal contained in the 42 loci, gene trees for each individual marker were inferred using GARLI with settings as specified in Section 2.5. The 50 best topologies from each run and from all 42 markers (a total of 2100 gene trees) were used to generate an average consensus tree in SplitsTree (v4.12.3) (Huson and Bryant, 2006). The implemented ''average consensus tree'' function constructs a neighbor-net using the average pairwise distances of the individual trees.

As a further approach to investigate the discordance among the sampled gene trees and to combine conflicting data in a primary concordance and a population tree, we applied a Bayesian concordance analysis (BCA) (Ane et al., 2007; Baum, 2007), as implemented in the software BUCKy v1.4.0 (Larget et al., 2010). Using samples of MrBayes' posterior tree distribution as input, this analysis accounts for both uncertainty in individual gene trees and potential discordance among trees inferred from different loci. The primary concordance tree, as estimated by BUCKy, visualizes the most dominant history from several gene trees, along with concordance factors (CF) indicating the proportion of loci supporting a given clade (Baum, 2007). In addition, a population tree with coalescent units as branch lengths is generated by BUCKy, based on

quartets of concordance factors. This population tree is known to be consistent in the presence of incomplete lineage sorting (Chung and Ané, 2011; Larget et al., 2010).

In order to apply BUCKy, MrBayes was used to infer gene trees from the individual loci, with substitution models and partitioning schemes selected by PartitionFinder (assuming linked branch lengths for all subdivisions of each locus). For each locus, we conducted two replicate MrBayes runs with six chains of 15 million generations, sampling every 100th generation. As reported by Willis et al. (2013), we found that for most loci, all of the 150,000 sampled trees represented unique topologies, suggesting a lack of resolution in some parts of the tree. This could partly be due to polytomies, which would be displayed as multiple weakly supported topologies with very short branches in MrBayes, as this software only provides fully resolved trees. To reduce the large number of distinct tree topologies, we pruned our dataset to 14 taxa, keeping only one representative per tribe (as our primary interest was a tribal level phylogeny). This deletion was done with the pruning option in BUCKy. The BUCKy analysis was conducted with 4 runs, 10 chains and 500,000 generations per chain. The alpha prior, which represents the a priori expected level of discordance, was set to 1–100.

2.7. Testing the strength of the phylogenetic signal as a function of dataset size

In order to test whether our dataset contains a sufficiently large number of markers to recover the ''true'' phylogenetic history of LT cichlids, we randomly resampled and concatenated different numbers of markers, and produced ML phylogenies from these sets. We then measured the topological difference between the tree resulting from one set of randomly chosen markers and the tree resulting from the complete set including of all markers and between the trees resulting from two different and mutually exclusive marker sets. As our full dataset contained 42 markers, the first comparisons were done for 1–41 randomly chosen markers, whereas the latter was performed for 1–21 randomly chosen markers. For each number of markers between 1 and 41, we compiled 20 sets drawn at random from the full set of 42 markers. Then, for each of the sets containing at most 21 markers, a comparison set was produced containing the same number of markers so that the two sets did not share any marker. In order to take into account marker concordance according to the results of the CONCATERPILLAR analysis (see Section 2.4.) we repeated the same procedure for 1–13 markers, again with 20 replications each. For the latter analysis, we always compiled two sets of markers, so that markers shared a concordant history within each set, but a discordant history between the two sets (according to CONCATERPILLAR). All generated marker sets were subjected to phylogenetic analysis with GARLI (see above, Section 2.5.), using marker-specific partitions and substitution models as suggested by PartitionFinder. Topological differences between resulting ML trees were measured by means of their K-score (Soria-Carrasco et al., 2007), as the K-score accounts for variable substitution rates between marker sets.

Then, K-scores of 20 replicate comparisons were plotted against the number of markers used in the datasets for which the respective ML trees had been inferred (see Camargo et al., 2012; Willis et al., 2013). We expected a general decrease of mean K-scores (i.e., fewer topological differences) with increasing marker number due to an increase in the phylogenetic signal for larger datasets. We further expected K-scores between a tree based on randomly drawn markers and the tree based on the full dataset of 42 markers to approach zero for marker numbers close to 42, as the alignments used for the reconstruction of the two trees would become increasingly similar. Nevertheless, we expected the degree to which Kscores decrease with increasing number of markers to inform

about the minimum number of markers needed to reliably construct the relationships among cichlid tribes in LT.

As an additional measure of discordance, we tested for statistically significant topological differences between the tree based on all 42 markers, and trees based on smaller datasets, using the Shimodaira–Hasegawa (Shimodaira and Hasegawa, 1999) and Approximated Unbiased (Shimodaira, 2002) tests as implemented in PAUP⁄ (v.4.0a129) (Swofford, 2003). For each number of markers between 1 and 41, we plotted the number of tree replicates that fitted the full dataset significantly worse than the tree produced from all 42 markers.

3. Results

3.1. Sequencing

Amplicon sequencing was successful for most of the 42 markers for the 45 taxa. In total, we obtained 98.3% of the 1890 possible sequences. Of 789,525 bp in the final alignment, 26,854 bp (3.40%) consisted of gaps; 27,211 bp (3.45%) were undetermined (''N'') and 476 bp (0.06%) were ambiguous (''WRYSMK'' coded).

3.2. Alignment and sequence characterization

The concatenated alignment had a total length of 17,545 bp, of which 1932 positions (11.01%) were variable and 769 positions (4.38%) were parsimony informative (not considering the outgroup Tylochromis polylepis). The amount of variable sites per marker varied between 13 and 110 sites (average: 46, median: 43), the number of parsimony informative sites ranged between four and 59 (average: 18.3, median: 16) (Table 2). The average sequence length for each marker was 417.7 bp (median: 423 bp), and the average total number of differences across all sequence pairs was 208.8 (uncorrected p-distance: 0.013). Within three of the major lineages, we found that the Ectodini showed the highest divergence (114.1 differences; uncorrected p-distance: 0.007), followed by the Lamprologini (110.4; 0.007) and the Haplochromini (all species included; 103.1; 0.006). Separate analyses of the within group mean distance of the haplochromines of the three lakes indicated a higher number of base differences between the four species of Lake Malawi (14.3; 0.0009) than the four species of Lake Victoria (6.8; 0.0004). The Tropheini (Ctenochromis horei, Lobochilotes labiatus, Gnathochromis pfefferi, Tropheus moori) included in this study showed a higher level of diversity (73.0; 0.004).

3.3. Gene tree discordance tests

We used CONCATERPILLAR to test for topological incongruence between markers and to identify concordant sets of markers. Based on hierarchical likelihood ratio tests, CONCATERPILLAR detected six sets of markers that were concordant internally, but exhibited significant levels of discordance (p-value < 0.001) between them. The three largest sets contained 14, 13, and 6 markers, respectively, whereas the remaining three sets included 3 markers each (the assignment of each marker to one of these subsets is indicated in Table 2). The six sets exhibited no obvious clustering of markers according to gene function, coding and non-coding parts, or variability. The two largest sets of markers were subjected to individual phylogenetic analysis. Subset 1 (14 markers) contained a total of 5872 concatenated bp, of which 10.30% were variable and 3.92% were parsimony informative. The average pairwise distance was 61.05 mutational steps, and the uncorrected p-distance was 0.012. Subset 2 (13 markers) had a length of 5507 bp, with 12.69% variable sites, and 5.25% parsimony informative sites. This

marker-set showed a somewhat higher variability (average pairwise distance: 76.07; uncorrected p-distance: 0.015).

3.4. Phylogenetic analysis of concatenated datasets

Phylogenetic analysis of concatenated subsets revealed conflicting topologies between subset 1 and subset 2 (Fig. 2a and b). While the base of the resultant trees (i.e. the position of the Bathybatini, Boulengerochromini and Trematocarini) was highly similar, the topologies differed with respect to the relative placement of the Eretmodini, the Lamprologini, the Limnochromini and the Cyprichromini/Perissodini clade. For subset 1 the three inferred topologies from the different analyses were congruent. In these trees, the Lamprologini were nested within the mouthbrooding tribes of the 'H-lineage', of which the Cyprichromini/Perissodini clade branched off first. The Lamprologini were resolved as sister group to the Limnochromini in BI (BPP 0.81), and the same relationship was weakly supported in GARLI and RAxML inferences (BS 37 and 45). The Ectodini were placed as sister group to a clade formed by Cyphotilapiini, Eretmodini and the Haplochromini (GARLI BS 26, RAxML BS 35, BPP 0.89).

The phylogenetic analyses of subset 2 revealed a monophyletic group containing the 'H-lineage' taxa (BS 99, BPP 1.0), which were placed as sister taxon to the Lamprologini. The Eretmodini branched off first, and the Ectodini were consistently grouped together with a clade formed by Cyprichromini/Perissodini, the Cyphotilapiini and the Limnochromini (BS 32-34, BPP 0.90). In general, the interrelationships of tribes received only moderate support, which is likely a consequence of the comparatively small number of markers in this subset (see Section 3.6). Excluding Eretmodus cyanostictus from these two phylogenetic analyses did not change the resulting tree topologies (data not shown).

The trees obtained with the entire concatenated dataset of 42 markers were highly congruent and most nodes were very well supported (mean GARLI BS 79.2; mean RAxML BS 78.1; mean BPP 0.941). Fig. 3b depicts the ML tree inferred with GARLI; the ML tree obtained with RAxML and the 50% majority rule consensus tree of our MrBayes analysis are shown in Fig. S1. In all three trees, Oreochromis tanganicae appeared as the sister to Tilapia sparrmanii and a strongly supported clade formed by the remaining tribes (GARLI BS 100, RAxML BS, 100, BPP 1.0). The monophyly of these tribes was strongly supported (BS 100, BPP 1.0 for all tribes of which more than two representatives have been included). Within this group T. nigrifrons and B. graueri appeared as sister taxa (BS 100, BPP 1.0) in all our analyses. The three tribes Boulengerochromini (represented by their only member, B. microlepis), Trematocarini (represented by T. nigrifrons), and Bathybatini (represented by B. graueri) appeared outside of a strongly supported clade (BS 100, BPP 1.0), in which the substrate spawning Lamprologini, the most species-rich tribe within LT, are clearly separated from the mouthbrooding tribes (i.e. Cyphotilapiini, Cyprichromini, Ectodini, Eretmodini, Haplochromini, Limnochromini, Perissodini; BS 73-75, $RPP 1.0$

The branching order within the mouthbrooding tribes of the 'Hlineage' received less support, and there was incongruence between the tree topologies resulting from the different analyses with respect to the placement of the Cyphotilapiini and the Limnochromini relative to each other, and regarding the first divergence events within the Haplochromini (indicated by dotted lines in Fig. 3b). The Cyprichromini were consistently resolved as the sister group of Perissodini (BS 100, BPP 1.0), and the clade formed by these two tribes represented the sister of all remaining tribes of the 'H-lineage' in all analyses of the full-concatenated dataset. The Limnochromini and the Cyphotilapiini formed a monophyletic group that was sister to a clade combining the Ectodini, the Eretmodini, and the Haplochromini (GARLI BS 65, RAxML BS 59, BPP

Paralabidochromis sp."rock
Nundamilia nyererei
Neochromis rufocaudalis
Labrochromis rufocaudalis
Haplochromis rot. stappersi
Haplochromis cf. stappersi
Pseudotropheus sp. "acei"
Rhamphochromis seox
Oynotilapia pulpican
Ata Lobochilotes labiatus Tropheus moorii
Serranochromis macrocephalus Seudocrenilabrus philander
Feeudocrenilabrus philander
Technodus cyanosicicus
Chenochromis" benthicola
Cyphotilapia gibberosa
Alulonocranus dewinditi
Qahthalmotilapia ventralis
Callochromis macrops
Lamprologus calipterus
L estrationneme maerosophi Neolamprologus modestus Neolamprologus tetracanthus Neolamprologus tetracanthus
Neolamprologus pulcher
Neolamprologus prochilus
Limnochromis abeelei
Gnathochromis permaxillaris
Haplotaxodon microlepis
Cyprichtomis leptosoma
Cyprichtomis leptosoma
Bathybates graueri
Bathybat Tilapia sparrmanii Oreochromis tanganicae Tylochromis polylepis Paralabidochromis sp."rock kribensis"
Neochromis rufocaudalis
Haplochromis cf. stappersii
Labrochromis sp."stone"
Pundamilia nyererei
Astatoliapia butoni
Astatoliapia butoni Labidochromis caeruleus

100 . $Q₀$ 100 100 **Cities** 100 . g۶ . 10^c 95 10^c . 0.007

Pseudotropheus sp. "acei Pseudotropheus sp. "acei"
Cynotilapia pulpican
Rhamphochromis esox
Icobochilotes labiatus
Lobochilotes labiatus
Cenochromis horei
Garanochromis macrocephalus
Pseudocremiabrus philander
L'Imnochromis abeelei
Cenochromis per Perissodus microlepis Haplotaxodon microlepis
Cyprichromis leptosona
Ophthalmotilapia ventralis
Cyphthalmotilapia ventralis
Xenotilapia spilopera
Grammatotria lemairi
Calochromis macrops
Eretmodus cyanostictus
Neolamprologus pucher
Neolamprolog Hanlotaxodon microlenis Neolamprologus modestus Neolamprologus tetracanthus
Lepidiolamprologus elongatus
Altolamprologus compressiceps
Lamprologus calipterus
Lepidiolamprologus caudopunctatus
Bathybates graueri
Bullengerochromis microlepis
Oreochromis tanganicae
Oreochr Neolamprologus tetracanthus

Fig. 2. Results from the phylogenetic analyses based on the two largest subsets of markers identified with CONCATERPILLAR. (a) Maximum likelihood phylogeny of subset 1 (14 markers; see Table 2) inferred with GARLI. (b) Maximum likelihood phylogeny of subset 2 (13 markers; see Table 2) inferred with GARLI. Numbers above the branches
represent maximum likelihood bootstrap support values (revealed with MrBayes. The branch leading to the outgroup taxon, Tylochromis polylepis, is shortened by one third. The colors indicate the affiliation of each taxon to one of the cichlid tribes.

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Fig. 3. Tribal level phylogeny of the Lake Tanganyika cichlid fishes. (a) Map of the area showing the three East African Great Lakes. (b) Maximum likelihood tree based on the concatenated dataset (17,545 bp) as obtained from a partitioned analysis with GARLI. Numbers above the branches indicate maximum likelihood bootstrap support values
(≥50%) produced with GARLI, numbers below the branches r between the maximum likelihood analysis with GARLI (as shown here) and the maximum likelihood analysis with RAxML (Fig. S1a) and Bayesian inference with MrBayes (Fig. S1b) are indicated with dotted lines; the branch leading to Tylochromis polylepis was shortened by one third; colors indicate the tribal affiliation of each taxon. Sample origin other than LT are indicated with boxes on the right; R = riverine. Fish pictures were taken in the field, except for P. nyererei and R. esox (credit: E. Schraml), P. rockkribensis (credit: M. Negrini) and L. sp. 'stone' (credit: O. Seehausen).

1.00) in the GARLI analysis, whereas the Cyphotilapiini appeared closer to this clade according to the RAxML and MrBayes analyses. Within this clade, the representative of the Eretmodini (E. cyanostictus) was consistently placed as sister group to the Haplochromini (GARLI BS 71, RAxML BS 50, BPP 0.88). Similarly, the species from Lake Victoria and Lake Malawi appeared reciprocally monophyletic (BS 100, BPP 1.0) within the Haplochromini. Haplochromis cf. stappersii from LT was resolved as sister taxon to the Lake Victoria cichlids (BS 100, BPP 1.0). The riverine species Astatotilapia burtoni was always placed outside of the species-flocks of the Lake Malawi and Victoria cichlids (BS 100, BPP 1.0). The haplochromines Serranochromis macrocephalus and Pseudocrenilabrus philander were either put into a separate clade (in RAxML and BI), or placed together with the LT haplochromines (Tropheini) (with GARLI).

Translating all indels of the 42 loci into a binary code resulted in a dataset comprising 167 positions, of which 70 were parsimony informative. A phylogenetic hypothesis obtained with this dataset with GARLI was, overall, concordant with the trees resulting from the concatenated dataset. However, while the monophyly of most tribes and the position of the Eretmodini as sister group to the Haplochromini was recovered, the respective support values were generally low and the position of most of the tribes relative to each other could not be recovered (see Fig. S2).

3.5. Gene tree summary statistics and Bayesian concordance analysis

Inferring single gene trees from 42 genes and 45 taxa with both GARLI and MrBayes (data not shown) resulted in 42 alternative topologies with some to numerous polytomies or low support values for certain branches, whereas other parts of the trees were well resolved. Fig. 4 shows the average consensus network of 2100 trees with 168 splits representing the conflicting affinities within the individual gene trees at the base of the tribes. The tribes themselves seem clearly defined and show only few alternative splits.

For the Bayesian concordance analysis with BUCKy, we pruned the dataset to one representative per tribe (Fig. 5). Changes in the alpha prior had no influence in the topology of both primary concordance and population tree. Its topology (with alpha default

Fig. 4. Average consensus neighbor-net inferred with SplitsTree4 from average pairwise distances in the best gene trees obtained from 50 GARLI runs for each marker (2,100 trees). Note that in this consensus network each gene tree estimate contributed equally and that differences in alignment lengths, degrees of variation, and uncertainties (e.g. bootstrap values) among markers are not considered. The color code is the same is all other figures, the numbers refer to the different species (see Table S1). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

prior) is mostly consistent with the species tree inferred from the full-concatenated dataset (see above; Fig. 3). However, one topological disagreement was found regarding the position of Boulengerochromis microlepis, which was placed as a sister group to the clade composed of the Lamprologini and the representatives of the 'H-lineage' (including the Eretmodini) in the population tree, but clustered with the Trematocarini and the Bathybatini in the primary concordance tree. Within the population tree the Eretmodini were again resolved as sister group to the Haplochromini. This close relationship is also reflected in the concordance factors of splits within the primary concordance tree (see Text S1).

3.6. Strength of the phylogenetic signal as a function of dataset size

After 20 repetitions of random resampling and concatenation of 1–41 markers, we used GARLI to infer ML phylogenies from all replicate marker sets, and compared the resulting trees between each other and with the optimal tree based on the full concatenated dataset of 42 markers, in order to test the strength of the phylogenetic signal as a function of dataset size. We expected topological differences between two trees to decrease with increasing size of the respective marker sets as shown in Camargo et al. (2012). Different types of comparisons were performed: Between one tree based on 1–41 markers and the tree resulting from the full marker set (Fig. 6a), between two trees produced from mutually exclusive sets containing 1–21 markers (Fig. 6b), and between two trees based on mutually exclusive sets of 1–13 markers found to be internally concordant but externally discordant in topology according to the CONCATERPILLAR analysis (Fig. 6c).

As expected, topological differences between two trees, as measured by their K-score, generally decreased with increasing marker number; the steepest decrease was observed for marker numbers between 1 and 8–10. The median K-score between one tree based on a randomly compiled marker set of a given size and the tree based on the full set of 42 markers was always lower than median K-scores between two trees based on randomly compiled marker sets of the same size (Fig. 6a versus b). Furthermore, topological comparisons involving the tree based on the full marker set generally resulted in a lower variance of K-scores than comparisons between two trees that were produced from randomly sampled mutually exclusive marker sets. In the latter case, the two trees represent independent phylogenetic estimates and are thus particularly useful to assess variance in discordance as a function of marker set size. For this type of comparisons, K-scores appear relatively constant for datasets combining between 11 and 21 markers. Nevertheless, K-scores between trees based on 21 markers (mean 0.0111) are significantly lower than those between trees constructed from sets of 16 markers (mean 0.0140, *t*-test *p*-value = 0.01613) or less (means ≥ 0.0128 , *t*test *p*-values ≤ 0.01704). For most marker set sizes, mean and median K-scores of two trees based on mutually exclusive marker sets were slightly lower when all markers with a set were concordant according to the CONCATERPILLAR analysis (Fig. 6c) compared to when sets were composed of randomly sampled markers (Fig. 6b). This reduction was significant for marker sets with eight markers or more (t-test p-values ≤ 0.0295), with the exception of sets

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Fig. 5. Population tree topology from the Bayesian concordance analysis (conducted with BUCKy) of 14 taxa representing the different cichlid tribes in LT. Numbers above the branches represent the averaged concordance factors, numbers below are coalescence units (see Text S1 for further details). Fish pictures and color codes are the same as in Fig. 4. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

containing eleven markers (t -test p -value = 0.0881), which suggests that the discordance between the two largest marker sets identified by CONCATERPILLAR is lower than that between randomly compiled marker sets of the same size.

Similarly, the number of marker set replicates, for which ML trees differ significantly from the ML tree based on 42 markers, shows an overall decrease with increasing size of the respective marker sets. For concatenated sets of 1–5 markers, and for sets of 8 markers, phylogenies produced from all 20 replicate sets are significantly different to the full ML tree, according to both the SH and the AU tests. On the other hand, for concatenated sets of 34 or more markers, none of the phylogenies based on these sets differ significantly from the tree obtained with the full set of markers, according to either of the two tests. Between these extremes, we observe a general decrease in the number of rejected tree replicates with increasing number of markers, based on which these trees were produced (Fig. 6a).

4. Discussion

The present study is the most extensive phylogenetic analysis of cichlid fishes in East African Lake Tanganyika with respect to the number of nuclear DNA markers and the total length of the ncDNA sequences analyzed. The main goal of our work was to establish a robust phylogenetic hypothesis for the relationships among the cichlid tribes of LT, which has so far been inferred on the basis of mtDNA or relatively few nuclear markers only (Clabaut et al., 2005; Day et al., 2008; Friedman et al., 2013; Kocher et al., 1995; Muschick et al., 2012; Salzburger et al., 2002a; Sturmbauer and Meyer, 1993).

The comparatively high information content provided by mtDNA sequences and the availability of universal primers were the main reasons for the utilization of mtDNA markers in earlier phylogenetic analyses aiming to resolve the relatively young and rapid radiation of cichlid fishes in LT. Among the many drawbacks

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Fig. 6. Topological differences between ML trees measured by their K-scores as a function of the number of randomly resampled and concatenated markers. (a) K-scores between trees based on randomly sampled and concatenated markers and the tree based on the full dataset of 42 markers. Light blue lines indicate the number of tree replicates (out of a total of 20 replicates) significantly different to the tree based on the full dataset, according to the Shimodaira–Hasegawa (SH) test (solid line), and the Approximately Unbiased (AU) test (dashed line). (b) K-scores between two trees that are both based on mutually exclusive randomly sampled marker sets of the given size. (c) As (b), but strictly grouping concordant markers in each set (according to CONCATERPILLAR, see text). Boxplots are based on 20 replicates of each comparison. Whiskers indicate the lowest K-score still within 1.5 inter-quartile range of the lower quartile, and the highest K-score still within 1.5 inter-quartile range of the upper quartile. Outliers are indicated with dots. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

of mtDNA markers are that only maternal inheritance patterns are captured and that past events of introgression and hybridization remain largely invisible (Ballard and Whitlock, 2004). In addition, a single locus (irrespective of being based on mtDNA or ncDNA) might not accurately reflect the species tree, as individual gene trees often differ from the true species tree (Pamilo and Nei, 1988). Nuclear DNA markers, on the other hand, usually contain fewer variable sites thus less phylogenetic signal. Clabaut et al. (2005) showed, for example, that in LT cichlids, ncDNA datasets would need to contain about ten times more sequence data to obtain the same quantity of phylogenetic information as provided by mtDNA markers – a task not reached by any previous study.

Here we took advantage of the 454 next-generation pyrosequencing technology and compiled a ncDNA dataset for LT cichlids containing 42 markers in well characterized genes and reaching a total alignment length of 17,545 bp. We chose a locus re-sequencing strategy with barcoded primers in order to obtain long enough sequence reads and to sample a large number of gene histories. Primers were chosen to bind in more conserved exons and to amplify (if possible) more variable intron regions (Meyer and Salzburger, 2012).

4.1. Single gene-tree discordance and evaluation of the strength of the phylogenetic signal

Not surprisingly, the individual single locus datasets did not contain enough phylogenetic information to accurately resolve the phylogenetic relationships among the cichlid tribes of LT. Most single locus trees were not very well resolved, the branch support values in these trees were generally rather low, and all 42 single locus topologies differed at least to some extent (in part because of the occurrence of polytomies; not shown). Overall, however, many of the single locus topologies follow a general trend as is illustrated in the average consensus network shown in Fig. 4. Many branches, and especially the monophyly of cichlid tribes, are well supported across the datasets. However, the consensus network indicates certain areas of uncertainties, which might result from hybridization and/or incomplete lineage sorting or simply reflect the low power of resolution in some of the individual markers (see below).

In order to estimate the strength of the phylogenetic signal as a function of dataset size and to evaluate whether our dataset contained enough phylogenetic information, we applied a strategy that compares tree topologies inferred from randomly chosen

datasets with varying numbers of markers per alignment on the basis of their K-scores (Camargo et al., 2012). More specifically, we compiled datasets from 1 to 41 randomly chosen markers (in 20 replications each) and compared the ML trees based on these marker sets to the tree produced in the same way from the full dataset containing all 42 concatenated markers. Obviously, and as expected, the topologies resulting from the randomly drawn marker sets become increasingly similar to the best tree obtained with 42 markers the more markers are included in each concatenated dataset (Fig. 6a). Also, differences between equally large and mutually exclusive marker sets generally decrease with increases in the number of markers included in both sets (Fig. 6b). The same decrease was observed when trees were produced from two sets of markers that were identified as topologically concordant within each set, but discordant between sets (Fig. 6c). However, topological differences were generally slightly lower when marker sets were discordant to each other (Fig. 6c). This was unexpected but could in part be explained if the phylogenetic histories of marker sets 3–6 (which are included in Fig. 6b, but excluded from Fig. 6c) are even more discordant than those of marker sets 1 and 2.

Importantly, while all tree topologies resulting from datasets of 1–5 markers were significantly distinct from the best tree according to both SH and AU tests, inferred trees become successively more similar with an increasing number of markers, and statistically indifferent from the best tree when more than 34 markers are included (light blue lines in Fig. 6a). These results suggest that our full dataset is large enough to reliably resolve the phylogenetic history of the LT cichlid fishes. Whether or not an extension of our marker set to even more than 42 markers would provide additional phylogenetic signal remains to be tested.

4.2. A threefold strategy for phylogenetic analyses in LT cichlids

In order to account for potential problems with dataset concatenation (see below), we opted to apply three strategies to analyze our data. In a first step, we performed ML and BI phylogenetic analyses with a concatenated dataset containing all 42 markers of all 45 species. These analyses were based of the naïve assumptions that all gene histories equally reflect the species tree, and that the 'true' phylogenetic signal should dominate over phylogenetic noise in a large enough dataset (Rokas et al., 2003). The usage of the concatenated dataset is further backed up by our phylogenetic analyses of randomly chosen subsets of varying numbers of markers, which demonstrate that the phylogenetic signal improves with increasing number of included markers (Fig. 6).

Although concatenation of multiple markers is often thought to improve accuracy (Bayzid and Warnow, 2013; Chen and Li, 2001; Rokas et al., 2003; but see Salichos and Rokas, 2013), this approach assumes that genes share a common evolutionary history, and it has been shown that violation of this assumption can lead to strongly supported yet incorrect phylogenies (Degnan and Rosenberg, 2009; Gadagkar et al., 2005; Kubatko and Degnan, 2007; Salichos and Rokas, 2013). One situation, in which concatenation may lead to inconsistent species tree estimates, is incomplete lineage sorting (Degnan and Rosenberg, 2009; Kubatko and Degnan, 2007; Yang and Rannala, 2012). We thus, in a second approach, applied a gene tree discordance test with CONCATERPIL-LAR to evaluate the incongruence between individual gene trees. This test suggested the existence of six sets of markers that were concordant within them, but discordant between each other. The two largest sets, containing 14 and 13 markers respectively, were then subjected to in-depth phylogenetic analysis.

As a third strategy, we performed a Bayesian concordance analysis with BUCKy, which accounts for uncertainty and variability in the individual locus phylogenies and has been shown to deal well with incomplete lineage sorting (Chung and Ané, 2011; Knowles and Kubatko, 2011; Yang and Warnow, 2011). In this analysis, we pruned our dataset to one species per tribe.

Overall, the three strategies applied to analyze our multi-marker dataset resulted in congruent topologies. All analyses confirm the monophyly of the LT tribes (in cases where more than one representative was included; this does, hence, not apply to the BUCKy analysis with the reduced taxon set). In all analyses, the Tylochromini, Oreochromini and Tilapiini were resolved outside of all other included species. The representatives of the Trematocarini and the Bathybatini always formed a clade, and were, together with B. microlepis (Boulengerochromini), consistently placed as sistergroup to the remaining cichlid tribes; the Cyprichromini and Perissodini always clustered together. Furthermore, in all analyses except in those based on subset 1 of CONCATERPILLAR, the Lamprologini were resolved as sister group to the 'H-linage' consisting of Cyphotilapiini, Limnochromini, Cyprichromini, Perissodini, Ectodini, Eretmodini and Haplochromini. In all analyses, the Eretmodini appear as a member of the 'H-lineage' and, with one exception (i.e. subset 2 of CONCATERPILLAR), appear as sister-group to the Haplochromini.

Within the 'H-lineage', the relationships of the cichlid tribes differed between the three approaches. Especially the analysis of subset 1 of CONCATERPILLAR revealed a rather different topology, whereas in subset 2 the relative position of the Eretmodini and Ectodini varied in comparison to the other approaches. Note, however, that the two largest subsets of markers identified by CONCAT-ERPILLAR contain only 14 (subset 1) and 13 markers (subset 2), respectively. Our analyses have shown that sets with as many as 34 markers can still produce significantly different trees for the same set of taxa. The phylogenetic hypotheses resulting from these small marker sets (Fig. 2a and b) should thus be taken with caution.

Taken together, we believe that, in our case, the concatenation of all markers is a justified strategy (Fig. 3), as it leads to the best-supported tree topologies, which are backed-up by similar results in both the average consensus network (Fig. 4) and the Bayesian concordance analysis (Fig. 5). The concatenation strategy is further supported by our phylogenetic signal tests, which show that the largest datasets lead to significantly more robust topologies (Fig. 6), whereas the subsets suggested by CONCATERPILLAR may not contain enough phylogenetic information. At the same time, these tests indicate the presence of a sufficient phylogenetic signal in the concatenated dataset, so that remaining uncertainties in the resultant tree topologies (GARLI, RAxML and MrBayes analyses of concatenated dataset and subsets) should not be due to lacking power of resolution ('soft polytomy' problem). Instead, it appears that the remaining uncertainties in our trees, most notably the phylogenetic relationships among 'H-lineage' tribes (see Figs. 2–4), are due to high speciation rates at the onset of radiation of the LT mouthbrooders ('hard polytomy' problem), past events of hybridization, and/or the persistence of ancestral polymorphisms. It has previously been recognized that it is notoriously difficult to resolve, with the available methodology, the phylogenetic relationships among lineages that emerged from adaptive radiation events (Glor, 2010), which is not least due to the fact that such tree topologies are expected to be 'bottom-heavy' (Gavrilets and Vose, 2005).

4.3. Conclusions

With this study, we present a novel hypothesis for the phylogenetic relationships among East African cichlid tribes, which is based on the largest set of ncDNA sequences so far, and which differs from all previous hypotheses (Fig. 1). Our analyses provide strong support for the monophyly of LT mouthbrooding cichlids (i.e. the 'H-lineage' of Nishida, 1991) as sister-group to the substrate spawning Lamprologini. We thus confirm the scenario that both lineages have radiated in parallel within LT (Salzburger and Meyer, 2004), leading to some intriguing cases of convergent evolution (Muschick et al., 2012). The clustering of the tribes within the 'H-lineage' generally reflects the life styles and habitat use of the respective tribes. The Cyprichromini and Perissodini, which are consistently put together (Figs. 2–5), are both adapted to the open-water column; the Cyphotilapiini and Limnochromini, which cluster together in most analyses (Figs. 2–5, excluding 2A), are restricted to deep-water habitats; and the Ectodini, Eretmodini and Haplochromini dominate (together with many lamprologine species) the shallow waters of LT. Our phylogenies thus reveal the general trend that the less species-rich cichlid tribes in LT (including the Bathybatini, Boulengerochromini and Trematocarini) occupy less-productive habitats such as the open-water column or deeper areas, whereas the generally more species-rich tribes of the 'H-lineage' dominate the more-productive and generally preferred shallow/rocky habitats (Muschick et al., 2012).

We further postulate a nested position of the Eretmodini within the 'H-lineage', as sister-group to the Haplochromini, which is in clear contrast to most of the studies relying on mtDNA markers (Clabaut et al., 2005; Day et al., 2008; Kocher et al., 1995; Muschick et al., 2012), yet in concordance to allozyme data (Nishida, 1991) and ncDNA phylogenies (Friedman et al., 2013). The obvious discordance between the Lamprologini-like mtDNA and Haplochromini-like ncDNA in the Eretmodini can either be explained by incomplete mtDNA lineage sorting, or, more likely, by an ancient hybridization event (Meng and Kubatko, 2009). The positions of the oldest tribes (Tylochromini, Oreochromini, Trematocarini, Bathybatini, Boulengerochromini) are largely in agreement with previous studies, as most studies suggested a sistergroup relationship between the Bathybatini and Trematocarini (Clabaut et al., 2005; Day et al., 2008; Salzburger et al., 2002a) and placed the Oreochromini outside of this group (Friedman et al., 2013; Muschick et al., 2012; Salzburger et al., 2002a). The placement of the Boulengerochromini differed slightly between our analyses, but in all cases this monotypic tribe was resolved outside the clade formed by the Lamprologini and the 'H-lineage'.

5. Outlook

With this study, we provide a strong phylogenetic hypothesis for the cichlid tribes in LT based on 42 ncDNA makers. Yet, we also identified remaining areas of uncertainties, especially with respect 70 B.S. Meyer et al. / Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 83 (2015) 56–71

to the phylogenetic relationships of the mouthbrooding tribes within the 'H-lineage'. Future analyses should focus on the amount and relative proportion of shared genes among the different cichlid lineages to allow further insights into stochastic processes such as incomplete lineage sorting or hybridization. To this end, we recommend the usage of much larger datasets such as whole transcriptomes or genomes. RAD-sequencing could also provide a large random sample of ncDNA loci, although the current read lengths render the phylogenetic inference based on individual loci problematic. Another important next step to understand the evolutionary history of LT cichlids and to establish a species tree would be to perform coalescent-based analysis with BEST and ⁄ BEAST (Liu, 2008; Heled and Drummond, 2010), using phased alleles and more individuals per species. Finally, future analyses should increase taxon sampling, ultimately leading to a complete species tree for the cichlid species of LT.

Data accessibility

All sequences are accessible in Genbank KP129679-KP131427 and KM263618-KM263752.

Trees are deposited at Treebase (http://purl.org/phylo/treebase/ phylows/study/TB2:S16660).

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ympev.2014.10. 009.

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Supplementary Material

A tribal level phylogeny of Lake Tanganyika cichlid fishes based on a genomic multi-marker approach

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Population Tree: $((((((((1, (8, 10)), (9, 11)), (2, 13)), 3), 4), (6, 7)), (5, 12), 14);$

Primary Concordance Tree Topology: $((((((1,3),(8,10)),(9,11)),(2,13)),(4,(6,7))),(5,12),14);$

Population Tree, With Branch Lengths In Estimated Coalescent Units:

 $((((((1:10.000,(8:10.000,10:10.000):0.083):0.046,(9:10.000,11:10.000):0.055):0.033,(2:10.000,11:10.000):0.055)$ 0,13:10.000):0.322):0.118,3:10.000):0.325,4:10.000):0.016,(6:10.000,7:10.000):0.246):0.442, (5:10.000,12:10.000):0.679,14:10.000);

Primary Concordance Tree with Sample Concordance Factors:

 $((((((1:1.000,3:1.000):0.059,(8:1.000,10:1.000):0.136):0.038,(9:1.000,11:1.000):0.116):0.062,$ $(2:1.000,13:1.000):0.244):0.235,(4:1.000,(6:1.000,7:1.000):0.286):0.101):0.364,(5:1.000,12:1)$.000):0.572,14:1.000);

Four-way partitions in the Population Tree: sample-wide CF, coalescent units and Ties(if present)

Splits in the Primary Concordance Tree: sample-wide and genome-wide mean CF (95% credibility), SD of mean sample-wide CF across runs

{1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9,10,11,13,14|5,12} 0.572(0.476,0.667) 0.560(0.390,0.724) 0.006 {1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9,10,11,13|5,12,14} 0.364(0.286,0.429) 0.356(0.206,0.521) 0.005 {1,2,3,4,5,8,9,10,11,12,13,14|6,7} 0.286(0.190,0.381) 0.281(0.134,0.452) 0.007 {1,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,14|2,13} 0.244(0.167,0.333) 0.240(0.103,0.406) 0.007 {1,2,3,8,9,10,11,13|4,5,6,7,12,14} 0.235(0.167,0.286) 0.230(0.108,0.377) 0.003 {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,9,11,12,13,14|8,10} 0.136(0.048,0.214) 0.134(0.029,0.280) 0.009 {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,10,12,13,14|9,11} 0.116(0.048,0.190) 0.114(0.023,0.250) 0.01 {1,2,3,5,8,9,10,11,12,13,14|4,6,7} 0.101(0.048,0.190) 0.098(0.014,0.234) 0.012 {1,3,8,9,10,11|2,4,5,6,7,12,13,14} 0.062(0.048,0.119) 0.060(0.007,0.164) 0.012 {1,3|2,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14} 0.059(0.000,0.119) 0.059(0.000,0.179) 0.01 {1,3,8,10|2,4,5,6,7,9,11,12,13,14} 0.038(0.024,0.071) 0.037(0.001,0.136) 0.001

Splits NOT in the Primary Concordance Tree but with estimated $CF > 0.050$:

{1,8|2,3,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,12,13,14} 0.119(0.048,0.190) 0.117(0.021,0.258) 0.002 {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,13|12,14} 0.094(0.048,0.167) 0.093(0.013,0.217) 0.008 {1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13|5,14} 0.090(0.048,0.143) 0.089(0.014,0.209) 0.008 {1,11|2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,12,13,14} 0.086(0.024,0.167) 0.085(0.004,0.224) 0.008 {1,2,3,4,8,9,10,11,13|5,6,7,12,14} 0.084(0.024,0.190) 0.082(0.002,0.228) 0.019 {1,10|2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,11,12,13,14} 0.076(0.024,0.143) 0.075(0.006,0.196) 0.002 {1,2,3,5,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14|4,6} 0.073(0.000,0.167) 0.073(0.000,0.211) 0.003 {1,2,3,6,7,8,9,10,11,13|4,5,12,14} 0.073(0.000,0.143) 0.071(0.000,0.205) 0.002 {1,2,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,12,13,14|3,8} 0.071(0.024,0.143) 0.071(0.006,0.191) 0.009 {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,10,11,12,14|9,13} 0.067(0.024,0.143) 0.066(0.001,0.190) 0.003 {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,12,13,14|10,11} 0.064(0.024,0.119) 0.063(0.005,0.177) 0.004 {1,3,4,5,6,7,8,10,11,12,14|2,9,13} 0.062(0.000,0.119) 0.061(0.000,0.181) 0.01 {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,11,12,13,14|9,10} 0.061(0.024,0.119) 0.061(0.003,0.180) 0.002 {1,2,3,4,7,8,9,10,11,13|5,6,12,14} 0.059(0.000,0.119) 0.058(0.000,0.182) 0.002 ${1,3,4,5,6,7,9,10,11,12,13,14|2,8}$ 0.059(0.024,0.119) 0.058(0.002,0.172) 0 {1,2,3,5,6,8,9,10,11,12,13,14|4,7} 0.058(0.000,0.143) 0.058(0.000,0.187) 0.002 {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,11,12,14|10,13} 0.055(0.000,0.119) 0.055(0.000,0.173) 0.006 {1,2,4,5,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14|3,6} 0.054(0.000,0.119) 0.053(0.000,0.168) 0.001 {1,2,3,4,5,6,7,9,10,12,13,14|8,11} 0.052(0.000,0.119) 0.052(0.000,0.165) 0.002

Text S1: Extract of the concordance file from the Bayesian Concordance Analysis with BUCKy including more information about the concordance factors and coalescent units as well as the tree topologies of both the primary concordance tree and the population tree.

Table S1: List of specimens used in this study. The species names, the classification into tribes, the sample ID's, sampling date and location, and institute where the samples are deposited are indicated. Numbers ("ID for neighbor-net") refer to Fig. 4.

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Chapter 2

Table S2:Sample ID's and GenBank accession numbers for all sequences used in this study.

Fig. S1: Tree topologies of the concatenated supermatrix inferred with MrBayes (a and b), RAxML (c), and GARLI (d). Note that A and B result from different partitions (as suggested by PartitionFinder) and unlinking branch-lengths. All support values are plotted.

Fig. S2: Phylogram inferred using only the information provided by indels, which were transformed into a presence/absence matrix using the SIC coding procedure (Simmons and Ochoterena, 2000) and further processed with GARLI using the Mkv model. Bootstrap values (≤50%) are provided above the branches.

Fig. S3: Tree topologies of subset 1 from the CONCATERPILLAR analysis, inferred with GARLI, MrBayes and RAXML. All support values are plotted. The branch leading to Tylochromis polylepis was shortened by one third.

Fig. S4: Tree topologies of subset 2 from the CONCATERPILLAR analysis, inferred with GARLI, MrBayes and RAXML. All support values are plotted. The branch leading to Tylochromis polylepis was shortened by one third.
Back to Tanganyika: a case of recent trans-species-flock dispersal in East African haplochromine cichlid fishes

Britta S. Meyer* , Adrian Indermaur *, Xenia Ehrensperger , Bernd Egger , Gaspard Banyankimbona , Jos Snoeks , Walter Salzburger

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AI, BE, GB WS were sampling specimens; GB and JS helped with taxonomic analyses; XE conducted labwork; BSM and AI equally analyzed the resulting sequence data and drafted the manuscript (*) ; BE, XE, GB, JS and

WS participated in manuscript drafting; WS designed the study.

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Back to Tanganyika: a case of recent trans-species-flock dispersal in East African haplochromine cichlid fishes

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1. Summary

The species flocks of cichlid fishes in the East African Great Lakes are the largest vertebrate adaptive radiations in the world and illustrious textbook examples of convergent evolution between independent species assemblages. Although recent studies suggest some degrees of genetic exchange between riverine taxa and the lake faunas, not a single cichlid species is known from Lakes Tanganyika, Malawi and Victoria that is derived from the radiation associated with another of these lakes. Here, we report the discovery of a haplochromine cichlid species in Lake Tanganyika, which belongs genetically to the species flock of haplochromines of the Lake Victoria region. The new species colonized Lake Tanganyika only recently, suggesting that faunal exchange across watersheds and, hence, between isolated ichthyofaunas, is more common than previously thought.

2. Introduction

Adaptive radiation, the rapid evolution of novel species as a consequence of adaptation to distinct ecological niches, is thought to have played an important role in the origin of phenotypic diversity [1]. The species flocks of cichlid fishes in the African Great Lakes; Tanganyika, Malawi and Victoria are the most

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species-rich vertebrate adaptive radiations, consisting of hundreds of endemic species each [2–4]. Lake Tanganyika, the oldest lake, harbours the genetically and phenotypically most diverse cichlid assemblage comprising 12–16 'tribes' [5]. The radiations in Lakes Malawi and Victoria involve only one of these tribes, the Haplochromini, making this the most species-rich cichlid lineage [4].

The haplochromines probably originated in the area of Lake Tanganyika, from where they colonized water bodies in large parts of Africa, including Lakes Malawi and Victoria [6–8]. This 'out of Tanganyika' scenario [6] implies that the seeding events of the haplochromine radiations in Lakes Malawi and Victoria date back to 1–5 and less than 0.25 Ma, respectively [6–9]. The latter radiation is not confined to only the basin of Lake Victoria, but includes the cichlid faunas of other lakes and rivers in the area, including Lakes Edward, George, Kivu and the Lake Rukwa drainage; it is hence referred to as the 'Lake Victoria region superflock' (LVRS) [6,7,10].

While Lake Tanganyika's cichlid assemblage has long been regarded as polyphyletic [11], the haplochromines from Lake Malawi and the LVRS were considered reciprocally monophyletic [7,12,13]. This view has recently been challenged with the analysis of large sets of nuclear DNA markers, which uncovered a polyphyletic origin of Lake Malawi's haplochromines [14,15], and high levels of shared genetic polymorphisms between the cichlid faunas of all three lakes [15,16]. These findings, together with the identification of similar or even identical genotypes across large geographical scales [17,18], suggest that the hydrologic systems in East Africa are more permeable for cichlids than previously thought. It has even been proposed that riverine species have 'transported' polymorphisms between lakes [15].

Interestingly, however, not a single case of a recent colonization of a Great Lake through a riverine lineage has been documented, and none of these lakes is known to contain a species belonging to a lineage associated with another Great Lake's radiation. Here we report the discovery of a haplochromine cichlid species in Lake Tanganyika, which belongs genetically to the LVRS.

3. Material and methods

In 2011 and 2012, we collected 12 specimens of a new haplochromine species (named *Haplochromis* sp. 'Chipwa' hereafter) in a shoreline habitat within Lake Tanganyika at Chipwa Village, between 500 and 1000 m south from the Kalambo River mouth. Five additional specimens were sampled in 2011 in the Lufubu River delta on Lake Tanganyika's western shoreline (open water distance between these locations: more than 55 km; figure 1*a*, *b*). In both localities, the new species co-occurs with the widespread haplochromine *Astatotilapia burtoni* found within Lake Tanganyika and in affluent rivers [20]. The new taxon was identified as undescribed species in the field by A.I.

For comparative reasons, we sampled additional haplochromines, including a morphologically similar species (*Haplochromis stappersii*) from rivers Malagarasi (*n* = 4) and Rusizi (*n* = 1) (electronic supplementary material, tables S1–S3). Sampling was performed using our standard operating procedure [21]; vouchers were deposited at the University of Basel or the Royal Museum of Central Africa, Tervuren.

In order to place the new taxon into a phylogenetic context, we amplified and sequenced two nuclear (*ednrb1*: 524 bp; *phpt1*: 434 bp) and two mitochondrial (mtDNA) loci (d-loop: 373 bp; ND2: 1047 bp), following the protocols described elsewhere [21,22]. These markers were chosen on the basis of the existence of large quantities of reference data on GenBank. The newly obtained sequences were inspected by eye in CODONCODEALIGNER, combined with available data from GenBank, aligned with MAFFT [23], and the appropriate models of molecular evolution were determined with JMODELTEST [24]. All specimens of the new species were identical in all four loci.

To identify the placement of the new species in the haplochromine phylogeny, we performed a stepwise approach using three different datasets: first, we wanted to confirm our *ad hoc* assumption that the new taxon does not belong to any of the Tanganyikan cichlid lineages (and genera) known to date. To this end, we combined the nuclear and ND2 sequences of the new species with a representative set including all East African cichlid lineages [21], resulting in a total of 83 taxa. The concatenated data (2001 bp) was analysed using Bayesian inference with MRBAYES [25] (10 000 000 generations, four chains, two runs, 25% burn-in, three partitions: $GTR + I + \Gamma$; $GTR + I + \Gamma$; $GTR + \Gamma$) and maximum likelihood (ML) with GARLI (http://garli.nescent.org) (50 runs, 500 bootstrap replicates; three partitions: TIM3 + I + Γ ; TVM + I + Γ ; TPM2uf + Γ). In a second step, we focused on ND2 only, as many more reference data are available for this common marker in cichlids [6,8]. We again combined our data with available sequences from GenBank (216 taxa in total) and used MRBAYES (3 000 000 generations, four chains, two runs, 25% burn-in; GTR + I + Γ) and GARLI (50 runs, 500 bootstraps; TIM2 + I + Γ). On the basis of this tree, we selected 86 taxa for an in-depth analysis focusing on the species belonging to the LVRS and its

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Figure 1. (a) Map of the study area indicating sample locations and potential watershed connections. (b) Haplochromis sp. 'Chipwa' (male) from LT. (c) ML phylogeny of haplochromine cichlids based on the mitochondrial ND2. Haplochromis sp. 'Chipwa' is firmly placed within the LVRS (grey box); the specimens from LT are depicted in blue. (d) Mitochondrial haplotype genealogy of representative haplotypes of the LVRS and the new species (see also the electronic supplementary material, figure S3) based on a 365 bp segment of the control region. The identification of a shared haplotype between the Malagarasi and the LR basin (M2/LR1) corroborates a recent connection between these watersheds, e.g. via 'Ugalla–Rungwa' or 'Nkululu–Rungwa' connections [19]. Colour-codes correspond to (a) and (c), haplotype numbers refer to [7].

closest sister taxa (MRBAYES: 10 000 000 generations, four chains, two runs, 25% burn-in, GTR + I + Γ ; GARLI: 50 runs, 500 bootstraps, TrN + I + Γ). Finally, we integrated the mitochondrial control region sequences of *H*. sp. 'Chipwa' in the largest available dataset of members of the LVRS [7]. We performed an analysis using 178 unique mitochondrial haplotypes [7], representing about 900 specimens of the LVRS plus outgroup taxa, using GARLI (50 runs; 500 bootstraps; K81uf $+$ I + Γ). On the basis of the resultant tree, we chose a representative subset of 27 sequences to construct a haplotype genealogy following the method described in [19] and using the first segment of the mitochondrial control region (373 bp).

4. Results

The analysis of the concatenated nuclear and mtDNA dataset resulted in highly congruent trees (electronic supplementary material, figure S1), in which *H*. sp. 'Chipwa' formed a strongly supported clade with four taxa representing the LVRS (ML bootstrap = 100 , posterior probability = 1), thus confirming previous results based on a large set of nuclear DNA markers [26].

In the more inclusive ND2 phylogeny, the new species was firmly placed within the LVRS *sensu* [7] (electronic supplementary material, figure S2; ML bootstrap = 100, posterior probability = 1). Within this clade, the single ND2 haplotype of the new species from Lake Tanganyika clustered with *H. stappersii* from the Malagarasi River plus another undescribed species from Tanzania (figure 1*c*). Interestingly, two *H. stappersii* were not part of this clade: the sample from Rusizi River in Burundi and the one with unknown sampling location used by Schwartzer *et al*. [18], suggesting that specimens previously identified as *H. stappersii* are not reciprocally monophyletic and belong to at least two distinct mitochondrial lineages.

In the mtDNA haplotype genealogy, the new species was grouped into a clade of riverine taxa derived from the central haplotype of the LVRS (haplotype 25 in [7]; see the electronic supplementary material, figure S3). The reduced dataset (figure 1*d*) highlights that the single haplotype found in *H*. sp. 'Chipwa'

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from Lake Tanganyika is derived from the central haplotype of this riverine clade (M2/LR1) by one mutation (nucleotide divergence: 0.29%). We refrained from performing a molecular clock analysis here, which is problematic with just one mutational difference. However, a single difference in the cichlids' mitochondrial control region is typically interpreted as recent and in the range of a maximum of tens of thousands of years [7,9].

5. Discussion

In this study, we report the discovery of a haplochromine species in Lake Tanganyika, which belongs to a clade of riverine haplochromines that is part of the LVRS (figure 1; electronic supplementary material, figures S1–S3). The phylogenetic position of the new species and the existence of identical mtDNA haplotypes on both sides of Lake Tanganyika suggest that this taxon colonized this lake recently and spread across its southern basin. Accidental translocation, e.g. with aquacultured tilapia, seems unlikely given the absence of farmed tilapia at the sampling localities. Instead, it appears likely that the new species entered Lake Tanganyika naturally.

East Africa is a geologically active area and it has been assumed that river captures mediated by tectonic movements, erosion and fluctuations in precipitation allowed for past connections between watersheds [27–30]. Since the mtDNA haplotype of the new species (HLT in figure 1) is derived from the central haplotype (M2/LR1) found in the Malagarasi and in the Lake Rukwa drainage, two alternative dispersal scenarios emerge: either via the Malagarasi River followed by southward coastal migration, or from the Lake Rukwa drainage. Given the large geographical distance between the Malagarasi River and the collection sites and that we never caught any specimen in the coastline north of the Kalambo estuary, the latter scenario appears more plausible—especially, since geological evidence suggests that Lake Rukwa was connected to Lake Tanganyika in the Early Holocene via the Karema Gap [29]. The existence of such a connection has further been corroborated with fossil molluscs and ostracods in Lake Rukwa, which resemble extant taxa from Lake Tanganyika [28]. Another recent Lake Rukwa–Lake Tanganyika connection has been hypothesized in the Kalambo-Mwimbi fault, where rivers Kalambo and Mfiwizi run, in close proximity and in opposite direction, through a swampy depression [27]. Any fish migrating downstream the Kalambo River would, however, face the challenge of a 221 m high waterfall.

With the finding of a member of the LVRS in Lake Tanganyika, we provide, to our knowledge, the first record of a cichlid species in an East African Great Lake that features genetic affinities to the fauna of another Great Lake. More precisely, we show that a haplochromine species belonging to the most recent large-scale cichlid adaptive radiation, the LVRS dated at less than 0.25 Ma [6–9], managed to migrate into the much older Lake Tanganyika, and to establish itself alongside the existing lake endemics. *Haplochromis* sp. 'Chipwa' thus represents yet another cichlid lineage that independently colonized Lake Tanganyika. Our discovery thus lends empirical support to the hypothesis that occasional migration of riverine taxa into lakes might have 'transported' genetic polymorphism between the cichlid species flocks in the East African Great Lakes [15]. Note, however, that we only demonstrated the first step required by the 'transporter hypothesis', i.e. the arrival of a distantly related haplochromine species into an established cichlid radiation. Whether this resulted in the second step, i.e. gene-flow from a divergent lineage into an established lacustrine species, remains unanswered and should be examined in the future.

Taken together, we demonstrate that recent faunal exchange occurred between the otherwise nonoverlapping cichlid assemblages of the LVRS and Lake Tanganyika, thereby extending the area covered by LVRS taxa to now also include the southern part of Lake Tanganyika and affluent rivers. Our findings are in line with recent reports of shared mtDNA haplotypes across large geographical scales in haplochromines [17,18] and, particularly, with the view that faunal exchange between cichlid faunas of rivers and lakes is more common than previously thought [15]. We thus suggest that more attention should be directed towards the survey of riverine cichlid communities, which are understudied compared to the endemic faunas of Lakes Tanganyika, Malawi and Victoria.

Ethics statement. This study was performed under research permits issued by the Lake Tanganyika Research Unit, Department of Fisheries, Republic of Zambia and the cantonal veterinary office Basel (permit no. 2317).

Data accessibility. Sequence data has been deposited at GenBank under the accession numbers KJ955381-KJ955446.

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Competing interests. We declare we have no competing interests.

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Supplementary Material

Back to Tanganyika: a case of recent trans-species-flock dispersal in East African haplochromine cichlid fishes

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(a) **GARLI**

Maximum likelihood (*a*) and Bayesian (*b*) tree based on the concatenated dataset (table S1). All bootstrap support values and posterior probabilities are plotted. The geographical origin of the specimen is indicated in color (blue = Lake Tanganyika; yellow = Lake Victoria; other locations are not further indicated).

 0.05

Supplementary figure 2: MrBayes 50% majority rule consensus tree with branch lengths based on the ND2 data set (table S2). Posterior probabilities ≥ 0.5 are plotted. The grey box represents the Lake Victoria Region superflock.

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The evolution of cichlid fish egg-spots is linked with a *cis***regulatory change**

M. Emília Santos, Ingo Braasch, Nicolas Boileau, Britta S. Meyer, Loïc Sauteur, Astrid Böhne, Heinz-Georg Belting, Markus Affolter, Walter Salzburger

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M.E.S., I.B. and W.S. designed the study; M.E.S and W.S. collected the samples; M.E.S. performed the RNAseq, gene expression, comparative genomics and zebrafish functional analysis; N.B. performed the sequencing of *fhl2* paralogs coding region and analysed its rates of evolution; B.S.M. collected the 454 sequence data; and B.S.M. and W.S. performed the phylogenetic analysis; A.B. performed the SINE consensus alignments and analysed the transposable element composition of *fhl2b* genomic region; I.B. performed the zebrafish functional assays of the A. burtoni construct and *fhl2* paralogs synteny analysis; L.S., H.-G.B. and M.A. assisted with the zebrafish functional assays of the *A. burtoni, P. philander* and *N. sexfasciatus* construct; and M.E.S. and W.S. wrote the paper and all authors contributed to revisions.

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The evolution of cichlid fish egg-spots is linked with a cis-regulatory change

M. Emília Santos^{1,†}, Ingo Braasch², Nicolas Boileau¹, Britta S. Meyer^{1,†}, Loïc Sauteur³, Astrid Böhne¹, Heinz-Georg Belting³, Markus Affolter³ & Walter Salzburger¹

The origin of novel phenotypic characters is a key component in organismal diversification; yet, the mechanisms underlying the emergence of such evolutionary novelties are largely unknown. Here we examine the origin of egg-spots, an evolutionary innovation of the most species-rich group of cichlids, the haplochromines, where these conspicuous male fin colour markings are involved in mating. Applying a combination of RNAseq, comparative genomics and functional experiments, we identify two novel pigmentation genes, fhl2a and fhl2b, and show that especially the more rapidly evolving b-paralog is associated with egg-spot formation. We further find that egg-spot bearing haplochromines, but not other cichlids, feature a transposable element in the cis-regulatory region of fhl2b. Using transgenic zebrafish, we finally demonstrate that this region shows specific enhancer activities in iridophores, a type of pigment cells found in egg-spots, suggesting that a cis-regulatory change is causally linked to the gain of expression in egg-spot bearing haplochromines.

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The *de novo* evolution of complex phenotypic traits poses

a challenge to evolutionary biology¹⁻⁵. While selection

explains adaptation and speciation in an adequate

manner⁶ it is more difficult to conceive bow celec the *de novo* evolution of complex phenotypic traits poses a challenge to evolutionary biology^{1–5}. While selection manner⁶, it is more difficult to conceive how selection would trigger the origin of evolutionary novelties such as insect wings, feathers, tetrapod limbs, flowers, the mammalian placenta, beetle horns or butterfly eye-spots^{1,4,5,7,8}. The emergence of evolutionary innovations, that is, lineage-restricted traits linked to qualitatively new functions, involves the origin of new developmental modules that are responsible for the identity of these novel characters^{4,5}. Most of the available evidence suggests that new developmental programs emerge largely through cooption of pre-existing regulatory gene networks via changes in their regulation and deployment ('old genes playing new tricks'5). Uncovering the mechanisms of how these developmental modules are co-opted or newly evolved is one of the primary goals of evo-devo $res\text{each}^{2,3,5,7,8}.$

Anal fin egg-spots are an evolutionary innovation in the so-called 'haplochromines'⁹ (Fig. 1a and Supplementary Fig. 1), the most species-rich group of cichlid fishes, best known for their spectacular adaptive radiations in the East African lakes
Victoria and Malawi^{10,11}. Adult males of \sim 1,500 cichlid species feature this pigmentation trait in the form of conspicuously coloured circular markings^{9,11,12}. Haplochromine egg-spots vary substantially in colour, shape, number and arrangement between species (Fig. 1b), and even within species a certain degree of variation is observed. In some species, also females show eggspots, which are then much less pronounced and colourful. The

function of egg-spots has been implicated with the mating
behaviour of the female-mouthbrooding haplochromines^{12,13}. Immediately upon spawning, a haplochromine female gathers up her eggs into the mouth; the male then presents his egg-spots to which the female responds by snatching and bringing her mouth close to the male's genital opening; upon discharging sperm, the eggs become fertilized inside the female's mouth (Fig. 1c). The mother subsequently broods and carries her progeny in the oral cavities for several weeks after fertilization.

Here we are interested in the molecular basis of the anal fin egg-spots of haplochromine cichlids. The main advantages of the cichlid egg-spot system are that (i) the evolutionary innovation of interest emerged just a few million years ago and hence is recent compared with most other evolutionary novelties studied so far^{9,10,14}; (ii) the phylogenetic context in which the novel trait evolved is known and living sister clades to the lineage featuring the novelty still exist^{9,15,16}; and (iii) the genomes of two outgroup species lacking the trait and of three derived species featuring the trait are available. This allows us to study early events involved in the origin of an evolutionary innovation in an assemblage of phenotypically diverse, yet closely related and genetically similar
species¹⁴. Using RNAseq, we identify two novel candidate pigmentation genes, the a- and b-paralogs of the four and a half LIM domain protein 2 (*fhl2*) gene, and show that both genes, but especially the more rapidly evolving b-copy, are associated with the formation of egg-spots. We then find that egg-spot bearing haplochromines—but not an egg-spot-less ancestral haplochromine and not the representatives from more basal

Figure 1 | The egg-spots of haplochromine cichlids. (a) Phylogeny of the East African cichlid fishes based on a new multimarker data set. The haplochromines are the most species-rich and derived group of cichlids in East Africa. One of the common features of haplochromines is the presence of egg-spots on the anal fin of males. Note that one of the ancestral lineages, represented here by P. philander, does not show this characteristic trait^{9,33}. Substr-br, substrate brooders; mouthbr, mouthbrooders; spp.: species. (b) Examples of male anal fin patterns in East African cichlids. Haplochromine egg-spots (upper panel) vary in size, shape, number and colouration. Non-haplochromines and basal haplochromine P. philander (lower panel) do not show this trait. (c) A typical mating cycle of haplochromine cichlids.

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cichlid lineages—exhibit a transposable element insertion in close proximity to the transcription initiation site of fhl2b. A functional assay with transgenic zebrafish reveals that only a haplochromine-derived genetic construct featuring the SINE (short interspersed repetitive element) insertion drove expression in a special type of pigment cells, iridophores. Together, our data suggest that a cis-regulatory change (probably in the form of a SINE insertion) is responsible for the gain of expression of fhl2b in iridophores, contributing to the evolution of egg-spots in haplochromine cichlids.

Results

fhl2 paralogs: novel candidates for egg-spot morphogenesis. As a first step, we performed an Illumina-based comparative transcriptomic experiment (RNAseq) between male (with egg-spots) and female (without egg-spots) anal fins in the haplochromine cichlid Astatotilapia burtoni. Two of the most differentially expressed genes according to RNAseq were the aand b-paralogs of $fh12$ (\sim 4 log₂-fold and \sim 5 log₂-fold differences, respectively; see Supplementary Table 2). These paralogs result from the teleost genome duplication¹⁷ (Supplementary Fig. 2). The four and a half LIM domain protein 2 (Fhl2) is known as a transcriptional co-activator of the androgen receptor
and the Wnt-signalling pathway^{18,19}; Fhl2 plays a role in cell-fate determination and pattern formation, in the organization of the cytoskeleton, in cell adhesion, cell motility and signal transduction; furthermore, it regulates the development of heart, bone and musculature in vertebrates^{20,21}.

Expression of *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* is egg-spot specific. To confirm the results obtained by RNAseq, we performed quantitative realtime PCR (qPCR) experiments (Fig. 2a), this time also comparing egg-spot versus non-egg-spot tissue within male anal fins. In addition, we tested another haplochromine species, Cynotilapia pulpican, with a different egg-spot arrangement to exclude positional effects of gene expression on the anal fin. In both species, the two duplicates of $f h l2$ were overexpressed in egg-spots (A. burtoni: fhl $2a$: $t_5 = 10.77$, $P = 0.0001$; fhl $2b$: $t_5 = 4.362$, $P = 0.0073$;
C. pulpican: fhl $2a$: $t_1 = 5.031$, $P = 0.0073$; fhl $2b$: $t_1 = 9.154$. pulpican: fhl2a: $t_4 = 5.031$, $P = 0.0073$; fhl2b: $t_4 = 9.154$, $P = 0.0008$). We then tested the expression of both *fhl2* paralogs in the four main developmental stages of egg-spot formation in A. b urtoni 22 and compared it with other candidate pigmentation genes (including the previously identified xanthophore marker csf1ra, the melanophore marker mitfa and the iridophore marker $pnp4a$). We found that the expression of both $fh12$ paralogs increases substantially throughout anal fin and egg-spot development, and both genes showed higher expression levels compared with the other pigmentation genes (Fig. 2b); fhl2b shows the highest increase in expression exactly when egg-spots begin to form. Furthermore, we corroborate that the expression

Figure 2 | The role of fhl2a and fhl2b in egg-spot formation. (a) qPCR experiments reveal that both genes are overexpressed in egg-spot compared with adjacent anal fin tissue in the haplochromine cichlids A. burtoni and C. pulpican (**P<0.01; ***P<0.001; RQ, relative quantity). Images of male fishes of the two species, their anal fins and a scheme showing the distribution of egg-spots are provided. (b) Expression profiles of fhl2a and fhl2b during the ontogenetic development of egg-spots in A. burtoni (note that egg-spots are absent in juveniles and only form when males become sexually mature; see ref. 22 for further details). The values on the x axis represent fish standard length in millimetres (three replicates per developmental stage were used). The error bars represent the s.e.m. fhl2b shows the largest increase in expression overall and its expression profile mimics the formation of egg-spots. Three other pigmentation genes (pnp4a, csf1ra and mitfa) were included for comparative reasons. csf1ra and mitfa show a much smaller increase in gene expression during egg-spot development than fhl2a and especially fhl2b, while pnp4a shows a constant increase in gene expression throughout the development of egg-spots. (c) RNA in situ hybridization experiments revealed that both fhl2 paralogs (results only shown for fhl2b) are primarily expressed in the colourful inner circle of haplochromine egg-spots (defined by the solid line) and not in the transparent outer ring (defined by the dashed line). Expression was also observed in the proximal fin region, which also contains pigment cells. Panel 2 is a close-up from the region defined by the square in panel 1.

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domain of both fhl2a and fhl2b matches the conspicuously coloured inner circle of egg-spots with RNA in situ hybridization (see Fig. 2c for results on fhl2b).

fhl2a and fhl2b evolved under purifying selection. In general, phenotypic differences can arise via mutations affecting the function of proteins or via changes in gene regulation⁵. Therefore, we examined coding sequence evolution in the two *fhl2* paralogs to test for positive selection and potential change of function in a phylogenetically representative set of 26 East African cichlids. We found that the two fhl2 genes are highly conserved in cichlids, with few amino-acid differences between species and an average genetic divergence (0.4% in $f h l 2a$ and 0.7% in $f h l 2b$) that lies below the transcriptome-wide average of 0.95% (ref. 23). None of the observed amino-acid changes was correlated with the eggspot phenotype (Supplementary Table 7).

Greater functional specialization of fhl2b in haplochromines. Usually, after a gene duplication event, the duplicates go through a period of relaxed selection, during which one of the two copies can diversify and acquire new functions²⁴. We found that the b-copy of fhl2 shows an elevated rate of molecular evolution compared with its paralog (fhl2a), which more closely resembles the ancestral sequence (Fig. 3a). An additional series of qPCR experiments in 12 tissues revealed that, in cichlids, fhl2a is primarily expressed in heart, bony structures and muscles, whereas $fh12b$ is highly expressed in the eye, and further in skin and the egg-spots of haplochromines (Fig. 3b,c). This is different to the gene expression profiles in medaka, where both duplicates are highly expressed in heart, skin and eye tissues; and in zebrafish, where the two paralogs are primarily expressed in heart, eye and (pharyngeal) jaw tissues, with fhl2a showing rather low levels of gene expression (Supplementary Figs 3 and 4). When compared with the other teleost fishes examined here, our results suggest that the haplochromine *fhl2a* retained most of the previously described functions, whereas the more rapidly evolving fhl2b obtained new expression patterns. Together, the gene expression profile and the pattern of sequence evolution make $fh\$ 2b a prime candidate gene for the morphogenesis of haplochromine egg-spots.

fhl2b shows an AFC-SINE insertion in species with egg-spot. Since there were no changes in the coding regions of *fhl2a* and fhl2b that are specific to the egg-spot bearing haplochromines, we shifted our focus towards the analysis of putative regulatory elements, exploring the recently available genomes of five East African cichlids (including the egg-spot bearing haplochromines A. burtoni, Pu. nyererei, Metriaclima zebra and the egg-spot-less non-haplochromines Neolamprologus brichardi and Oreochromis $niloticus$). The non-coding region of $fhl2a$ shows homology with other teleosts (Oryzias latipes, Takifugu rubripes, Tetraodon nigroviridis and Gasterosteus aculeatus) and we identified four conserved non-coding elements (CNEs) in all species examined (Supplementary Fig. 5a). These CNEs might thus represent conserved regulatory regions responsible for ancestral conserved functions of fhl2a in teleosts. We might be missing cichlid-specific regulatory regions in important upstream regions although, as our capacity to detect lineage-specific enhancers is limited owing to the small sample size for each lineage and the high background conservation level present in cichlids.

Concerning $fh12b$, we did not find any CNE that is shared by cichlids and other teleosts (Supplementary Fig. 5b). Strikingly, however, we found a major difference that is shared by the three egg-spot bearing haplochromines: the presence of a transposable element upstream of *fhl2b*. Specifically, we identified a SINE

belonging to the cichlid-specific AFC-SINEs (African cichlid family of SINEs²⁵), which inserted \sim 800-bp upstream of the transcriptional start site of fhl2b (Supplementary Fig. 6). To confirm that this insertion is associated with the egg-spot phenotype, we sequenced the upstream region of $fh12b$ in 19 cichlid species. The insertion was indeed present in nine additional, egg-spot bearing haplochromine species, yet absent in all 10 non-haplochromines examined (Supplementary Table 8). Importantly, we found that one haplochromine species lacks the AFC-SINE element, namely P. philander. This species belongs to one of the basal lineage of haplochromines (Fig. 1a), which is characterized by the absence of egg-spots (Fig. 1b). This suggests that the AFC-SINE upstream of fhl2b is not characteristic to the entire haplochromine clade, but to those that feature egg-spots, thus linking the SINE insertion to the origin of this evolutionary innovation.

Haplochromine fhl2b regulatory region drives iridophore expression. A long-standing hypothesis proposes that ubiquitous genomic repeat elements are potential regulators of transcription, and could thereby generate evolutionary variations and novelties^{26,27}. SINEs are known for their capability of 'transcriptional rewiring', that is, to change the expression patterns of genes by bringing along new regulatory sequences when inserted in close proximity to a gene's transcriptional initiation site^{7,28}. In order to test whether the insertion of an AFC-SINE close to fhl2b functions as an enhancer of gene expression, we aimed for a functional experiment. We were particularly interested to find out whether there were changes in enhancer activity between AFC-SINE-positive haplochromines and other cichlids lacking both the insertion and the egg-spot phenotype. To this end, we designed reporter constructs containing the upstream region of fhl2b $(\sim 2 \text{ kb}$ upstream to intron 1) of three cichlid species linked to the coding region of green fluorescent protein (GFP), and injected these constructs into zebrafish (Danio rerio) embryos to generate transgenic lines. We switched to the zebrafish system here, as no functioning transgenesis was available for haplochromine cichlids at the time the study was performed (owing to the small number of eggs per clutch associated with the characteristic femalemouthbrooding behaviour). The three constructs were derived from A. burtoni (haplochromine with egg-spots, $AFC-SINE^+$), P. philander (haplochromine without egg-spots, $AFC-SINE^-$) and *N. sexfasciatus* (lamprologine, $AFC-SINE^-$), respectively (Fig. 4a).

We were able to produce stable transgenic zebrafish lines for each of the three constructs to examine the expression of GFP. Importantly, we found striking differences in expression between the A. burtoni construct and the two constructs lacking the AFC-SINE. Of the three reporter lines, only the AFC-SINE⁺ showed GFP expression in iridophores, a silvery-reflective type of pigment cells (Fig. 4b,c and Supplementary Fig. 7). This experiment demonstrates the presence of novel enhancer activities in the regulatory region of fhl2b in derived haplochromines and strongly suggests that these came along with the SINE insertion.

Iridophores and egg-spot development. The egg-spot phenotype has previously been associated with pigment cells containing pteridines (xanthophores)^{16,22}, whereas our new results indicate an auxiliary role of iridophores in egg-spot formation. We thus re-evaluated the adult egg-spot phenotype by removing the pteridine pigments of the xanthophores (Fig. 4e). We indeed found that A. burtoni egg-spots show a high density of iridophores, which is further corroborated by the increase in gene expression of the iridophore marker $pnp4a$ during egg-spot

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Figure 3 | Gene tree of the two fhl2 paralogs and expression profiling in East African cichlid fishes. (a) Bayesian inference phylogeny of the orthology and paralogy relationships between cichlids, other teleosts (O. latipes, D. rerio, Ta. rubripes and G. aculeatus) and tetrapods (Anolis carolinensis and Mus musculus) fhl2 sequences. This gene tree is important for generating functional hypotheses about both duplicates, and to infer the ancestral state of the fhl2 gene before duplication. Our phylogeny indicates that fhl2a is more similar to the ancestral state, while fhl2b is apparently evolving faster in teleosts. Values at the tree nodes represent posterior probabilities. In Supplementary Fig. 2, we present a synteny analysis supporting the origin of teleost fhl2 duplicates in the teleost genome duplication. (b) Relative quantity (RQ) of *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* gene expression in 12 tissues (three replicates per tissue) in C. pulpican, an egg-spot bearing haplochromine from Lake Malawi. The error bars represent the s.e.m. (c) RQ of fhl2a and fhl2b gene expression in 12 tissues in N. crassus, a substrate spawning lamprologine that has no egg-spots. In both species, gill tissue was used as reference; in N. crassus, 'egg-spots' corresponds to the fin region where haplochromines would show the egg-spot trait. In C. pulpican (b), fhl2a is highly expressed in heart, in pigmented tissues (eye, skin and egg-spot) and in craniofacial traits (oral jaw and lower pharyngeal jaw); fhl2b is mainly expressed in the pigmented tissues. N. crassus (c) shows a similar expression patterns for fhl2a and fhl2b, with the difference that fhl2a does not show high expression levels in jaw tissues, and fhl2b is not highly expressed in skin and fin tissue. These results suggest that *fhl2b* shows a higher functional specialization, and that it might be involved in the morphogenesis of sexually dimorphic traits such as pigmented traits including egg-spots. LPJ, lower pharyngeal jaw bone.

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formation (Fig. 2b). With the exception of the proximal region of the anal fin, the number of iridophores is greatly reduced in the fin tissue surrounding egg-spots (Supplementary Fig. 8a). Interestingly, this proximal region is the only area of the anal fin besides the egg-spots where we observed fhl2 expression with

RNA in situ hybridization (see Fig. 2c for fhl2b), once more linking fhl2 expression with iridophores (and less so with xanthophores, which are very rare in this region). In the nonhaplochromine N. crassus, which features a yellow anal fin pattern containing xanthophores, we did not find iridophores in

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the xanthophore-rich region (Supplementary Fig. 9), suggesting that the xanthophore/iridophore pattern is unique to haplochromine egg-spots. Importantly, we also observed that iridophores appear early in the newly forming egg-spot of haplochromines, that is, before the first xanthophores start to aggregate (Supplementary Fig. 8b).

In zebrafish, stripe development is initiated by iridophores, which serve as morphological landmarks for stripe orientation in that they attract further pigment cells such as xanthophores by expressing the $csf1$ ligand gene^{29,30}. Interestingly, it has previously been shown that a gene encoding a Csf1 receptor known for its role in xanthophore development in zebrafish, csf1ra, is expressed in haplochromine egg-spots¹⁶. We thus examined the expression of the ligand $csf1b$ and show that its relative level of gene expression doubles during egg-spot development, and that this increase coincides with the emergence of the phenotype (Supplementary Fig. 10). This leads us to suggest that a similar pigment cell type interaction mechanism might be involved in egg-spot patterning as the one described for zebrafish^{29,30}. The specific mode of action of fin patterning in haplochromine cichlids, and how Fhl2b interacts with the Csf1/Csf1r system, remains to be studied in the future.

Contribution of fhl2a in egg-spot formation. The role of the more conserved and functionally constrained a-paralog of fhl2 in egg-spot development cannot be dismissed. Its temporally shifted increase in gene expression compared with $fh12b$ (Fig. 2b) suggests that fhl2a most likely acts as a more downstream factor involved in pigment pattern formation. We were nevertheless interested in uncovering the regulatory region responsive for this expression pattern. The first intron of fhl2a shows two CNEs that are common across percomorph fish (Supplementary Fig. 5). Using the same strategy as described above, we generated a transgenic zebrafish line containing exon 1 and intron 1 of A. burtoni linked to GFP. This construct drove expression in heart in zebrafish embryos, which is consistent with the reported function of $fhl2a$ in tetrapods²⁰, whereas there was no indication of a pigment cell related function for this reporter construct (Supplementary Fig. 7e). An alignment between the genomic regions of the two fhl2 paralogs shows that there were no CNEs in common and generally very little homology between them, suggesting that the regulation of the expression of fhl2a in eggspots might proceed in a different way (Supplementary Fig. 11).

Discussion

In this study, we were interested in the genetic and developmental basis of egg-spots, an evolutionary innovation of the most species-rich group of cichlids, the haplochromines, where these conspicuous colour markings on the anal fins of males play an important role in mating^{11–13} (Fig. 1).

We first performed a comparative RNAseq experiment that led to the identification of two novel candidate pigmentation genes, the a- and b-paralogs of the four and a half LIM domain protein 2 (fhl2) gene. We then confirmed, with qPCR and RNA in situ hybridization, that the expression domain of both duplicates indeed matches the conspicuously coloured inner circle of eggspots (Fig. 2). Especially the more rapidly evolving b-copy of $f\overline{h}l2$ emerged as strong candidate gene for egg-spot development, as its expression profile mimics the formation of egg-spots (Figs 2b and 3). Interestingly, we found that the egg-spot bearing haplochromines, but not other cichlids, feature a transposable element in the cis-regulatory region of fhl2b. Finally, making use of transgenic zebrafish, we could show that a cis-regulatory change in fhl2b in the ancestor of the egg-spot bearing haplochromine cichlids (most likely in the form of the AFC-SINE insertion) resulted in a gain of expression in iridophores, a special type of pigment cells found in egg-spots (Fig. 4). This in turn might have led to changes in iridophore cell behaviour and to novel interactions with pigmentation genes (csf1b, csf1ra and pnp4a), thereby contributing to the formation of egg-spots on male anal fins. The specific mode of action of the SINE insertion, and how the fhl2b locus interacts with these other pigmentation genes remains elusive at present. Addressing these questions would require functional studies in haplochromines, which are, however, hampered by the specific mechanisms involved in the trait complex of interest (mouthbrooding makes it notoriously difficult to obtain enough eggs—in a controlled manner—to make such experiments feasible).

Our results are also suggestive of an important role of the a-copy of fhl2 in cichlid evolution. With our qPCR experiments, we provide strong evidence that fhl2a is involved in jaw tissue in zebrafish (Supplementary Fig. 3) and, importantly, in the pharyngeal jaw apparatus of cichlids (Fig. 3b,c), another putative evolutionary innovation of this group. The pharyngeal jaw apparatus is a second set of jaws in the pharynx of cichlids that is functionally decoupled from the oral jaws and primarily used to process $food^{11,12,15}$. Interestingly, $fhl2a$ has previously been implicated in the evolution of fleshy lips in cichlids³¹, which is yet another ecologically relevant trait. From a developmental perspective, the main tissues underlying these traits—the craniofacial cartilage (the jaw apparatus) and pigment cells (eggspots)—have the same origin, the neural crest, which itself is considered an evolutionary key innovation of vertebrates³². It thus seems that the function of *fhl2* in cichlids may have been split into (a) an ecologically important, that is, naturally selected, scope of duties, and (b) a role in colouration and pigmentation more likely to be targeted by sexual selection.

Taken together, our study permits us to propose the following hypothesis for the origin of cichlid egg-spots: In one of the early, already female-mouthbrooding, haplochromines the insertion of a transposable element of the AFC-SINE family in the cisregulatory region of fhl2b, and its associated recruitment to the iridophore pigment cell pathway, mediated the evolution of eggspots on the anal fins—possibly from the so-called *perfleckmuster*
common to many cichlids¹⁶. The conspicuous anal fin spots were fancied by haplochromine females, which—just like many other cichlids and also the ancestral and egg-spot-less haplochromine genus Pseudocrenilabrus—have an innate bias for yellow/orange/ red spots that resemble carotenoid-rich prey items³³, leading to the fixation of the novel trait. In today's haplochromines, eggspots seem to have a much broader range of functions related to sexual selection³⁴.

Most of the currently studied evolutionary innovations comprise relatively ancient traits (for example, flowers, feathers, tetrapod limb, insect wings and mammalian placenta), thereby making it difficult to scrutinize their genetic and developmental basis. Here we explored a recently evolved novelty, the anal fin egg-spots of male haplochromine cichlids. We uncovered a regulatory change in close proximity to the transcriptional start site of a novel iridophore gene that likely contributes to the molecular basis of the origin of egg-spots in the most rapidly diversifying clade of vertebrates. This, once more, illustrates the importance of changes in cis-regulatory regions in morphological evolution².

Methods

Samples. Laboratory strains of A. burtoni, C. pulpican, Astatoreochromis alluaudi,
Pu. nyererei, Labidochromis caeruleus, Pseudotropheus elegans and N. crassus were kept at the University of Basel (Switzerland) under standard conditions (12 h light/ 12 h dark; 26 °C, pH 7). Before dissection, all specimens were euthanized with MS 222 (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) following an approved procedure (permit no. 2317

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issued by the cantonal veterinary office Basel). Individuals of all other specimens were collected in the southern region of Lake Tanganyika (Zambia) under the permission of the Lake Tanganyika Unit, Department of Fisheries, Republic of Zambia, and processed in the field following our standard operating procedure¹⁵.
Tissues for RNA extraction were stored in RNAlater (Ambion, US of Basel.

RNA and DNA extractions. Isolation of RNA was performed according to the TRIzol protocol (Invitrogen, USA) after incubating the dissected tissues in 750 µl of TRIzol at 4 C overnight or, alternatively, for 8–16 h (in order to increase the RNA yield after long-term storage). The tissues were then homogenized with a Bead-Beater (FastPrep-24; MP Biomedicals, France). Subsequent DNase treatment was performed with DNA-Free kit (Ambion). RNA quantity and quality was determined with a NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, USA). cDNA was produced using the High Capacity RNA-to-cDNA kit (Applied Biosystems, USA). Genomic DNA was extracted using a high salt extraction method (modified from ref. 35).

Phylogenetic analyses. DNA extraction of 18 specimens of East African cichlid fishes was conducted as described above. For the amplification of nine nuclear markers (rag, gapdhs, s7, bmp4, ednrb1, mitfa, tyr, hag and csfr1), we used the primer sets published in ref. 36. The sequences of M. zebra, O. niloticus and N. brichardi were extracted from the respective genome assemblies (http://www.
broadinstitute.org/models/tilapia). The data for Astatoreochromis alluaudi, Thoracochromis brauschi and Serranochromis macrocephalus were collected with
Sanger sequencing following the method described in ref. 36, all other data were Sanger sequencing following the method described in ref. 36, all other data were
generated by amplicon sequencing with 454 GS FLX system at Microsynth,
Switzerland, following the manufacturer's protocols^{37,38}. Sequence alignment (BWA-SW) followed by visual inspection and consensus sequence generation in Geneious 6.1.6 (ref. 40). As a tenth marker, we included mitochondrial NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2 (ND2) sequences available on
GenBank (see Supplementary Table 1 for accession numbers). Since the *ednrb1*
gene sequence is not available in the *N. brichardi* genome assembly, we

gene sequence from its sister species, N. pulcher, instead.
Sequences were aligned with MAFFT⁴¹ and the most appropriate substitution
model of molecular evolution for each marker was determined with *JMODELTEST* v2.1.3 (ref. 42) and BIC^{43} . The partitioned data set (5,051 bp) was then subjected to phylogenetic analyses in MRBAYES v3.2.1 (ref. 44) and GARLI v2.0 (ref. 45). MRBAYES was run for 10,000,000 generations with two runs and four chains in parallel and a burn-in of 25%, GARLI was run 50 times followed by a bo

Differential gene expression analysis using RNAseq. We used a transcriptomic approach (RNAseq) to identify genes differentially expressed between male and female anal fins of A. burtoni. Library construction and sequencing of RNA extracted from three male and three female anal fins (at the developmental stage of 30 mm; Fig. 2) was performed at the Department of Biosystems Science and
Engineering, University of Basel and ETH Zurich. The samples were sequenced on
an Illumina Genome Analyzer IIx. Each sample was sequenced in one lane with a read length of 76 bp.

The reads were then aligned to an embryonic A. burtoni reference transcriptome assembled by Broad Institute (http://www.broadinstitute.org/ models/tilapia). This transcriptome is not annotated and each transcript has a nomenclature where the first term codes for the parent contig and the third term codes for alternatively spliced transcripts (CompX_cX_seqX). The reference transcriptome was indexed using NOVOINDEX (www.novocraft.com) with default parameters. Using NOVOALIGN (www.novocraft.com), the RNAseq reads were mapped against the reference transcriptome with a maximum alignment (t) score of 30, a minimum of good-quality base pair per read (l) of 25 and a successive trimming factor (s) of 5. Reads that did not match these criteria were discarded. Since the reference transcriptome has multiple transcripts/isoforms belonging to the same gene, all read alignment locations were reported (rALL). The mapping results were reported (o) in SAM format. The output SAM file was then transformed into BAM format, sorted, indexed and converted to count files (number of reads per transcript) using SAMTOOLS version 0.1.18 (ref. 47). The count files were subsequently concatenated into a single data set—count table—and
analysed with the R package EDGER⁴⁸ in order to test for significant differences in
gene expression between male and female anal fins. The

redundant database (Supplementary Table 2).
We selected two genes out of this list for in-depth analyses—*fhl2a* and fhl2b—for the following three reasons: (i) fhl2b was the gene showing the highest difference in expression between male and female anal fins; (ii) the difference in gene expression in its paralog, *fhl2a*, was also significantly high; and (iii) the

functional repertoire of the Fhl2 protein family indicates that these might be strong candidates for the morphogenesis of a secondary male colour trait.

Differential gene expression analysis using qPCR. The expression patterns of fhl2a and fhl2b were further characterized by means of qPCR in three species, A. burtoni, C. pulpican and N. crassus. The comparative cycle threshold method⁵⁰ was used to calculate differences in expression between the different samples using the ribosomal protein L7 (*rpl7*) and the ribosomal protein SA3 (*rpsa3*) as endogenous controls. All reactions had a final cDNA concentration of $1 \text{ ng } \mu \text{l}^{-1}$ and a primer concentration of 200 mM. The reactions were run on a StepOnePlusTM Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems) using the SYBR Green master mix (Roche, Switzerland) with an annealing temperature of 58 °C
and following the manufacturer's protocols. Primers were designed with the
software GenScript Real-Time PCR (Taqman) Primer Design available at h exons to avoid gDNA contamination (see Supplementary Table 3 for details).
Primer efficiencies of the experimental primers (*fhl2a* and *fhl2b*) were comparable
to the efficiency of the endogenous controls *rpl7* and *rpsa*

We conducted the following experiments: qPCR experiment 1: Egg-spots were separated from the anal fin tissue in six male A. burtoni and five ma C. pulpican. Relative quantity values were calculated for each sample, and the differential expression between anal fin (reference) and egg-spot tissue was analysed with a paired t-test using GraphPad Prism version 5.0a for Mac OS X (www.graphpad.com). qPCR experiment 2: *fhl2a*, *fhl2b*, *csf1ra*, *mitfa*, *pmp4a* and *csf1b* expression was measured in RNA extracted from *A. burtoni* fins at four and different developmental stages²². Here, *csf1ra* and $csf1b$ because of its role in pigment pattern organization in zebrafish^{29,30}. Wused three biological replicates for each developmental stage, and each replicate consisted of a sample pool of three fins, except for the youngest stage at 15 mm, where we pooled five fins. The first developmental stage was used as reference tissue. qPCR experiment 3: *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* expression was measured in RNA extracted from different tissues from three males from C. pulpican and N. crassus (gills, liver, testis, brain, heart, eye, skin, muscle, oral jaw, pharyngeal jaw and eggspot). Although N. crassus does not have egg-spots, we separated its anal fin into an area corresponding to egg-spots in haplochromines and a section corresponding to anal fin tissue (the 'egg-spot' region was defined according to the egg-spot positioning in A. burtoni). Expression was compared among tissues for each species using gills as reference tissue. The same experiment was performed for *D. rerio* and *O. latipes* (two teleost outgroups), using *ef1a* and *rpl13a* (ref. 52), as well as rpl7 and 18sRNA (ref. 53) as endogenous controls, respectively.

Cloning of fhl2a and fhl2b and RNA in situ hybridization. A. burtoni fhl2a and fhl2b coding fragments were amplified by PCR (for primer information, see Supplementary Table 3) using Phusion Master Mix with High Fidelity buffer (New England BioLabs, USA) following the manufacturer's guidelines. These fragments were cloned into pCR4-TOPO TA vector using the TOPO TA cloning kit (Invitrogen). Plasmid extractions were done with GenElute Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Sigma-Aldrich). RNA probes were synthetized with the DIG RNA labelling kit (SP6/T7) (Roche). The insertion and direction of the fragments was confirmed by Sanger sequencing using M13 primers (available with the cloning kit) and BigDye terminator reaction chemistry (Applied Biosystems) on an AB3130xl Genetic
Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). In situ hybridization was performed in 12 fins from A. burtoni males, six for fhl2a and six for fhl2b. The protocol was executed as described in ref. 16, except for an intermediate proteinase K treatment (20 min at a final concentration of 15 μ g ml⁻¹) and for the hybridization temperature (65 °C).

Synteny analysis of teleost fhl2 paralogs. The Synteny Database (http://synte nydb.uoregon.edu⁵⁴) was used to generate dotplots of the human FHL2 gene (ENSG00000115641) region on chromosome Hsa2 and the genomes of medaka (Supplementary Fig. 2a) and zebrafish (Supplementary Fig. 2b). Double-conserved synteny between the human $FHL2$ gene and the $fhl2a$ and $fhl2b$ paralogons in teleost genomes provide evidence that the teleost $fhl2$ paralogs were generated during the teleost genome duplication.

fhl2a/fhl2b coding region sequencing and analysis. We then used cDNA pools extracted from anal fin tissue to amplify and sequence the coding region of *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* in a phylogenetically representative set of 26 cichlid species (21 Tanganyikan species, three species from Lake Malawi and two species from the Lake Victoria basin). This taxon sampling included 14 species belonging to the haplochromines and 12 species belonging to other East African cichlid tribes not featuring the egg-spot trait (Supplementary Table 4). *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* coding regions were fully sequenced (from start to stop codon) in five individuals per species in order to evaluate the rate of molecular evolution among cichlids. For PCR amplification, we used Phusion Master Mix and cichlid-specific primers (for pri-mer information, see Supplementary Table 3) designed with Primer3 (ref. 55). PCR products were visualized with electrophoresis in a 1.5% agarose gel using GelRed
(Biotium, USA). In cases where multiple bands were present, we purified the
correct size fragment from the gel using the GenElute Gel Extract

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Aldrich). PCR products were enzymatically cleaned with ExoSAP-IT (Affymetrix, USA) and sequenced with BigDye 3.1 Ready reaction mix (Applied Biosystems)— after BigDye XTerminator purificaton (Applied Biosystems)—on an AB3130xl Genetic Analyzer. Sequences were corrected, trimmed and aligned manually in CODONCODE ALIGNER (CodonCode Corporation).

fhl2 phylogenetic analysis. *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* sequences from non-cichlid teleosts
and *fhl2* sequences from tetrapods were retrieved from ENSEMBL⁵⁶ (species names, gene names and accession numbers are available in Supplementary Table 5). We then constructed gene trees based on these sequences and on a subset of the cichlid sequences obtained in the previous step (information available in Supplementary Table 4) in order to confirm the orthologous and paralogous relationships of both duplicates. Sequences were aligned with CLUSTALW2 (ref. 57) using default parameters. The most appropriate model of sequence evolution was determined with JMODELTEST as described above. Phylogenetic analyses were performed with MRBAYES (1 million generations; 25% burn-in).

Tests for positive selection in fhl2a and fhl2b. Using PAUP* 4.0b10 (ref. 58), we first compiled a maximum likelihood tree based on the mitochondrial ND2 gene, including all species used for the positive selection analyses (see Supplementary Table 6 for species and GenBank accession numbers). We used the GTR $+$ Γ model with base frequencies and substitution rate matrix estimated from the data (as suggested by \overline{J}^{42} . We then ran CODEML implemented in PAML version 4.4b to test for branch-specific adaptive evolution in *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* applying the branch
branch-site model (free-ratios model with ω allowed to vary)^{59,60}. The branch
comparisons and results are shown in Supplem

Identification of CNEs. We then made use of the five available cichlid genomes⁶¹
to identify CNEs that could explain the difference in expression of *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* between haplochromines and non-haplochromines (note that there are three haplochromine genomes available: A. burtoni, Pu. nyererei, M. zebra; and
two genomes belonging to more ancestral cichlid lineages: N. brichardi and Or. niloticus). For this analysis, we also included the respective genomic regions
of four other teleost species (O. latipes, Ta. rubripes, Te. nigroviridis and
G. aculeatus). More specifically, we extracted the genomic sc fhl2a and fhl2b from the available cichlid genomes using BLAST v. 2.2.25 and
the BIOCONDUCTOR R package BIOSTRINGS⁶² to extract 5–6 kb of sequence

containing *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* from these scaffolds.
Comparative analyses of the *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* genomic regions were done with
MVISTA (genome.lbl.gov/vista)⁶³ using the LAGAN alignment tool⁶⁴; *A. burtoni* was used as a reference for the alignment. We applied the repeat masking option
with *Ta. rubripes* (Fugu) as reference. CNEs were defined as any non-coding
section longer than 100 bp that showed at least 70% sequence iden A. burtoni.

Sequencing of the upstream region of fhl2b. In order to confirm whether the AFC-SINE insertion was specific to egg-spot bearing haplochromines, we amplified
the genomic region upstream of the *fhl2b* open reading frame in 19 additional
cichlid species (10 haplochromines and 9 non-haplochromines). was performed as described above. For sequencing, we used four different primers, the two used in the amplification reaction and two internal primers, one haplochromine specific and another non-haplochromine specific. For detailed infor-mation about species and primers, see Supplementary Table 8.

Alignment of AFC-SINES from the A. burtoni genome. SINE elements were identified using the SINE insertion sequence 5' of the fhl2b gene of A. burtoni as query in a local BLASTn search⁴⁹ with default settings against the A. burtoni reference genome. Blast hits were retrieved using custom scripts and extended to a region of 200-bp upstream and downstream of the identified sequence. Sequences were aligned using MAFFT v. 6 (ref. 41) with default settings and allowing for adjustment of sequence direction according to the reference sequence. The alignment was loaded into CODONCODE ALIGNER for manual correction and end trimming. Sequences shorter than 50 bp were excluded from the alignment. The final alignment contained 407 sequences that were used to build the A. burtoni SINE consensus sequence using the consensus method implemented in CODONCODE ALIGNER with a percentage-based consensus and a cutoff of 25%. The AFC-SINE element in the *fhl2b* promoter region was compared with the consensus sequence and available full-length AFC-SINE elements of cichlids in order to determine whether it was an insertion or deletion in haplochromines (Supplementary Table 8).

Characterization of fhl2b upstream genomic region in cichlids. The fhl2b genomic regions of the five cichlid genomes (A. burtoni, M. zebra, Pu. nyererei, N. brichardi, and O. niloticus) were loaded into CODONCODE ALIGNER assembled (large gap alignments settings, identity cutoff 70%). Assemblies were manually corrected. Transposable element sequences were identified using the Repeat Masking function of REPBASE UNIT (http://www.girinst.org/censor/

index.php) against all sequence sources and the bl2seq function of BLASTn⁴⁹. Supplementary Fig. 6 shows a scheme of the transposable element composition of this genomic region in several cichlid species.

CNEs construct cloning and injection in zebrafish. We designed three genetic constructs containing the AFC-SINE and intron 1 of $fh12b$ of three cichlid species (A. burtoni, P. philander and N. sexfasciatus) (Fig. 4) and one containing the $5'$ untranslated region, exon 1 and intron 1 of A . *burtoni fhl2a*. The three fragments were amplified with PCR as described above (see Supplementary Table 3 for primer information). All fragments were cloned into a pCR8/GW/TOPO vector (Invi-trogen) following the manufacturer's specifications. Sequence identity and direction of fragment insertion were confirmed via Sanger sequencing (as described above) using M13 primers. All plasmid extractions were performed with GenElute
Plasmid Miniprep Kit (Sigma-Aldrich). We then recombined these fragments inte
the Zebrafish Enhancer Detection ZED vector⁶⁵ following the pro consideration the original orientation of the $fh12b$ genomic region. The resulting ZED plasmids were then purified with the DNA clean and concentrator -5 Kit (Zymo Research, USA). Injections were performed with 1 nl into one-/two-cell stage zebrafish (*D. rerio*) embryos (*A. burtoni* construct was injected in wild-type strains AB and ABxEK, *P. philander* and *N. sexfasciatus* constructs were injected in wild-type strain ABxEK) with 25 ng μ l⁻¹ pl for the P. philander construct, and finally one F1 stable transgenic line for the N. sexfasciatus construct. Fish were raised and kept according to standard procedures⁶⁷. Zebrafish were imaged using a Leica point scanning confocal microscope SP5-II-matrix and Zeiss LSM5 Pascal confocal microscope.

Fixation and dehydration of cichlid fins. In order to determine the pigment cell composition of egg-spots (and especially whether they contain iridophores in addition to xanthophores), we dissected A. burtoni anal fins. To better understand the morphological differences between non-haplochromine and haplochromine fins, we further dissected three *N. crassus* anal fins. To visualize iridophores, we removed the pteridine pigments of the overlying xanthophores by fixating the fin in 4% paraformaldehyde–PBS for 1 h at room temperature and washing it in a series of methanol:PBS dilutions (25%, 50%, 75% and 100%). Pictures were taken after 6 days in 100% methanol at -20° C.

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Author contributions

M.E.S., I.B. and W.S. designed the study; M.E.S and W.S. collected the samples; M.E.S. performed the RNAseq, gene expression, comparative genomics and zebrafish functional analysis; N.B. performed the sequencing of $\mathit{fnl2}$ paralogs coding region and analysed its rates of evolution; B.S.M. collected the 454 sequence data; and B.S.M. and W.S. performed the phylogenetic analysis; A.B. performed the SINE consensus alignments and analysed the transposable element composition of *fhl2b* genomic region; I.B. performed
the zebrafish functional assays of the A. burtoni construct and *fhl2* paralogs synteny

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analysis; L.S., H.-G.B. and M.A. assisted with the zebrafish functional assays of the A. burtoni, P. philander and N. sexfasciatus construct; and M.E.S. and W.S. wrote the paper and all authors contributed to revisions.

Additional information

Accession codes: All nucleotide sequences reported in this study have been deposited in
GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ under the accession codes KM263618 to KM264016. All the
short reads have been deposited in GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ Sequenc under the BioProject ID PRJNA25755.

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Supplementary Material

The evolution of cichlid fish egg-spots is linked with a *cis***regulatory change**

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Supplementary Figure 1 | Phylogeny of East African cichlids based on a new multimarker dataset. (**a**) Bayesian inference phylogeny with MrBayes. (**b**) Maximum likelihood phylogeny with GARLI and 500 bootstrap replicates. While most of the branches are supported with high posterior probabilities (**a**) and bootstrap values (**b**), the phylogenetic relationships among the more ancestral haplochromines – including *Pseudocrenilabrus philander* – are poorly supported and differ between the analyses. LM: Lake Malawi, LV: Lake Victoria, LT: Lake Tanganyika

Supplementary Figure 2 | Synteny analysis of teleost *fhl2* **paralogs.** Dotplots of the human FHL₂ gene region on human chr₂ (100-220Mb) shows double conserved synteny to the two *fhl2* paralogons in (**a**) medaka on chromosomes Ola21 (*fhl2a*) and Ola2 (*fhl2b*) and in (**b**) zebrafish on chromosomes Dre9 (*fhl2b*) and Dre6 (*fhl2b*). These chromosomes were previously shown to be derived from the ancestral chromosome *c* and duplicated during the teleost genome duplication^{1,2}.

Supplementary Figure 3 | Gene expression profiling in the teleost *Danio rerio* **and**

Oryzias latipes. (**a**) Relative quantification (RQ) of *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* gene expression in ten tissues in *D. rerio* (three replicates per tissue) (**b**) RQ of *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* gene expression in eleven tissues in *O. latipes* (three replicates per tissue)*.* In both species, gill tissue was used as reference. The error bars represent the standard error of the mean (SEM). In *D. rerio* (**a**) expression of *fhl2a* is higher in heart, eye, and oral jaw, although the expression of this gene copy is overall very low, especially when compared to the level of *fhl2a* expression in cichlids and *O. latipes*. Contrary to the scenario in cichlids (Fig. 3), in *D. rerio fhl2b* is mainly expressed in the heart. In *O. latipes* (**b**) both duplicates are highly expressed in heart, skin and eye tissues. *fhl2a* does not show high expression levels in the pharyngeal jaw (unlike cichlid *fhl2a*). In this species both copies show a similar expression profile. These results suggest that the divergence history between the duplicates was different in the different lineages of teleosts, where divergence in expression profile is stronger in cichlids (see Figure 3).

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Supplementary Figure 4 | *fhl2* **duplicates expression heatmap.** The relative quantification values (RQ) from the qPCR experiment 3 (see methods, Fig. 3 and Supplementary Fig. 4) were categorized and color coded accordingly. Colour code and RQ value categories can be found in the bottom of this figure. The heatmap in (**a**) is grouped by gene, whereas the heatmap in (**b**) is grouped by species. The grouping of expression data by gene (**a**) suggests that both paralogs seems to have gained a new function in cichlids (*fhl2a* in jaw and LPJ and *fhl2b* in skin and egg-spot tissue). The grouping of the gene expression data by species (**b**) suggests that the expression profiles of *D. rerio* and *O. latipes* are similar, whereas the expression patterns of cichlids are more divergent.

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Supplementary Figure 5 | Genomic comparisons of *fhl2* **paralogs of cichlids and other teleosts.** *A. burtoni* genomic sequences were used as a reference for the alignments. The conserved regions (>70% identity) are marked in pink. Any conservation of the non-coding sequence across distant taxa is an indication of functional constraint and therefore of their potential role as enhancers/promoters. (**a**) MVISTA plot of a 5kb region of the *fhl2a* locus; the first three exons of *fhl2a* are shown in purple. We found four CNEs (conserved non-coding elements) and all of them are shared amongst cichlids; no major difference was detected among these CNEs. (**b**) MVISTA plot of a 5kb region of *fhl2b* locus; the first three exons of *fhl2b* are shown in purple. There are no conserved non-coding elements (CNEs) in common with the other examined teleosts, the only conserved regions are the exons. There are two regions that are conserved among haplochromines but not with non-haplochromines. One region corresponds to the first intron (positioned between 3.5-5kb), and the other region (positioned between 2-3kb) corresponds to a transposable element insertion (vertical arrow on top of the diagram), which is only present in haplochromines, the egg-spot bearing lineage. More specifically, we found that the egg-spot bearing haplochromines are characterized by an AFC-SINE insertion upstream of the *fhl2b* open reading frame. After close inspection we determined that the lack of conservation in intron one is a result of inversions (marked with a horizontal arrow) (in *O. niloticus* or in the other cichlids examined) and a missing sequence in the genome assembly of *N. brichardi* (marked with NNNN)*.* This region most probably cannot explain the presence/absence of the egg-spot since the transcription factor binding sites would not be lost due to the inversion. These results indicate that a SINE element insertion is the likely explanation for the difference in *fhl2b* expression between haplochromines and nonhaplochromines (Fig. 3).

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Supplementary Figure 6 | Detailed characterization of the *fhl2b* **upstream region in cichlid fishes.** A more detailed characterization of the upstream genomic region of *fhl2b* shows that multiple transposon element insertions occurred in different cichlid species. It seems that this upstream region is prone to insertions (when compared to *fhl2a*), and that these insertions might disrupt the regulatory regions of this gene, explaining why *fhl2b* is more divergent in terms of gene expression than *fhl2a*. The AFC-SINE insertion is the only transposable element insertion that correlates with the egg-spot phenotype though. Interestingly, *M. zebra* (haplochromine) has several deletions in the *fhl2b* upstream region, but the AFC-SINE element is still conserved suggesting that this element is functionally important.

Supplementary Figure 7 | Molecular and cellular basis of egg-spot development. (**a**) The upper panel shows images of the head region of a 3 day-old zebrafish embryo under RFP filter, the middle panel is the same region under GFP light and the lower panel under bright field light. The RFP shows that transgenesis was effective (positive control, for more information see ref. 3). The *A. burtoni* AFC-SINE⁺ construct drives GFP expression in the iridophores of the embryo eye (yellow arrow), a pattern that is not seen with any of the AFC-SINE- constructs (*P. philander* and *N. sexfasciatus*). The two wild-type strains (AB and ABxEK) used in this study were also imaged. (**b**) Only the AFC-SINE⁺ construct drives GFP expression in the iridophores of the adult anal fin in zebrafish (the stripe of iridophores is surrounded by yellow circle). (**c**) Higher magnification image of the anal fin of the AFC-SINE+ construct showing GFP expression in the iridophores. (**d**) Zebrafish wild-type strain AB. This image complements the main manuscript figure 4 where we only show the imaging for the wild-type strain ABxEK. (**e**) The construct containing the first exon and intron of *fhl2a* of *A. burtoni* drove expression in heart in zebrafish. Note however, that this experiment is not exactly comparable to the one with *fhl2b*, as the fhl2a construct did not contain the upstream region.

Supplementary Figure 8 | Iridophores in *A. burtoni* **adult and developing fins.**

(a) The upper panels show an anal fin of a juvenile *A. burtoni*. Panel 2 is a close up of panel 1. In addition to the high density of iridophores in the egg-spots (as shown in Figure 4e) we also find iridophores in high density in the proximal region of the fin (depicted with yellow arrows), which coincides with *fhl2a/b* expression patterns (see Figure 2c for *fhl2b*), suggesting that these genes are indeed iridophore genes. The first and second egg-spot are located in the second and fourth soft fin ray, respectively. Interestingly, iridophores are present in the fin rays, but absent from the inter-rays around the egg-spots, hinting at potential inhibitory relationships between different cellular types. Female anal fins (not shown) of *A. burtoni* show much smaller spots, which, in addition, emerge at later stages, and contain a much smaller number of xanthophores and iridophores. **(b)** The lower panels show different

early stages of egg-spot development. The iridophores (blue cells depicted with yellow arrows) start accumulating in the second soft fin ray and then on the fourth (panel 1 and 2). At later stages (panel 3 and 4) xanthophores (yellow cells) start to accumulate where iridophores are present.

Supplementary Figure 9 | Characterization of pigment cells present in the non-

haplochromine *N. crassus* **fin.** To better understand the morphological differences between haplochromine and non-haplochromine fins we dissected *N. crassus* anal fins. The fins of *N. crassus* show a yellow and silver transparent banded pattern (see left panel). The yellow bands are composed of xanthophores that are not visible after dehydration as the pteridine pigments are washed away. Contrary to fins with egg-spots, there are no iridophores in the xanthophore-rich regions. Instead the iridophores concentrate in the silver transparent band. Examples of iridophores are highlighted with a yellow arrow.

Supplementary Figure 10 | Expression of *csf1b* **in egg-spot development.** In addition to the expression profiles of *fhl2* duplicates (Fig. 2), *csf1ra, mitfa* and *pnp4a,* we studied the expression profile of *csf1b* (a key gene in mediating iridophores-xanthophore interaction in zebrafish) during the development of egg-spots in *A. burtoni*. The values on the x-axis represent fish standard length in millimeters. *csf1b* doubles in expression when the egg-spots emerge.

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Supplementary Figure 11 | Genomic comparisons between *fhl2a* **and** *fhl2b* **genomic**

region. The *A. burtoni fhl2b* genomic sequence was used as a reference for the alignment. As in Supplementary Fig. 3 the conserved regions (>70% identity) are marked in pink and conservation of the non-coding sequence across these two genes could be an indication of shared enhancers/promoters. There are no CNEs (conserved non-coding elements) shared between the two paralogs. This comparison shows that that the two regulatory regions are different.

Supplementary Table 1| Multimarker dataset used for phylogenetic analyses. The table lists GenBank accession numbers and the

Supplementary Table 2 | Top 10 differential expressed transcripts between female and male anal fins of *A. burtoni* **and their identification as determined by BLASTx searches against the NCBI non-redundant database**⁴ **.** From these ten transcripts, three were identified as *fhl2* - four and a half LIM domain protein 2 - and these were among the most differentially expressed genes. Whilst tetrapods have one copy of *fhl2*, the majority of teleosts have two copies due to the extra whole genome duplication⁵. We aligned the three transcripts and observed that they are, instead of one gene, two duplicates - *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* (identification via protein homology with other teleosts and by phylogenetic inference). Comp19010_c0_seq1 and comp17680_c0_seq1 correspond to two different parts of *fhl2b* gene and comp2939 c0 seq1 corresponds to *fhl2a*. logFC stands for log₂Fold-Change in gene expression between male fins and female fins. The short read sequences are deposited under the BioProject ID PRJNA257552.

Supplementary Table 3| Subset of primers used in this study.

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Supplementary Table 5 | Species (and GenBank accession numbers) used to infer the fhl2 gene tree. **Supplementary Table 5 | Species (and GenBank accession numbers) used to infer the** *fhl2* **gene tree.**

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Supplementary Table 6 | Species (with corresponding GenBank accession numbers) used to infer the ND2 phylogeny for the positive selection analysis.

Supplementary Table 7 | Testing for branch or site-specific positive selection on East African cichlids *fhl2a* **and** *fhl2b* **with CODEML.**

We found no evidence for branch or site-specific positive selection in the *fhl2a* copy while in *fhl2b*, we detected positive selection on three amino acids (positions 10, 86) and 150). Positive selection was only detected within one species, *Pseudotropheus elegans* (Pseele)*.* Overall, *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* are under purifying selection, showing that coding sequences alone cannot explain the emergence or diversity of the egg-spot trait in haplochromines. All *fhl2a* and *fhl2b* coding sequences were found to be 837bp long (279 amino acids), except for three individuals from two species - *Tropheus moori* (843bp and 745bp, respectively) and *Simochromis diagramma* (840bp)

Briefly, under the null model, the foreground branch (branch of interest) has proportions of sites under neutral selection that may differ from those on the background branches. In the alternative model, positive selection is allowed on the foreground branch. For clarity's sake, we do not show the proportion of sites in each category, only the computed value of the corresponding *dn/ds* ratios (ω). In both models and on both branches:

0: ω_0 < 1 **1:** $\omega_1 = 1$

In the Null model:

2a: $\omega_2 = 1$ on foreground and $\omega_0 < 1$ on background.

2b: $\omega_2 = 1$ on foreground branch and $\omega_1 = 1$ on background. In the Alternative model:

2a: $\omega_2 \geq 1$ on foreground and $\omega_0 < 1$ on background.

2b: $\omega_2 \ge 1$ on foreground and $\omega_1 = 1$ on background.

With ω_0 : $dn/ds < 1$, ω_1 : $dn/ds = 1$, ω_2 : $dn/ds \ge 1$. *LRT*: Likelihood Ratio Test computed as $2\times (lnL_1 - ln L_0)$ where L_1 is the Likelihood for the Alternative model and L_0 is the likelihood of the Null model. Under the Null model, the LRT follows a Chisquare distribution with 1 df. *Site:* positively selected amino-acid site with the amino acid change in brackets. *BEB:* Bayes Empirical Bayes.

Supplementary Table 8 | The AFC-SINE insertion is specific to egg-spot bearing haplochromines. In order to test whether the SINE insertion is correlated with the egg-spot phenotype we sequenced this transposable element region in 19 cichlid species, including both haplochromines and non-haplochromines. We also sequenced one haplochromine species that has no egg-spot but instead features a blotch on its anal fin: *Pseudocrenilabrus philander.* We confirmed that the AFC-SINE insertion is specific to the egg-spot bearing haplochromines, whereas the ancestral haplochromine *P. philander* does not have this insertion. The AFC-SINE element in the *fhl2b* promoter region was compared to the consensus sequence and available full-length AFC-SINE elements of cichlids. The insertion in the *fhl2b* promoter covers a fulllength element and is flanked both 3' and 5' by five nucleotide long direct repeats, so called target site duplications. These duplications are the result of the element's insertion process via DNA strand break and repair⁶, confirming that this is an insertion in haplochromines and not a deletion in non-haplochromines, since no remnants of these sites or the element are detected in the other species. The sequences are available under the accession numbers KM263999 to KM264016.

*only available from genome not amplified in house

**primers used only for sequencing and not for product amplification, Hap only works for haplochromines and non-Hap only works for non-haplochromines

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Chapter 5

The role of parasites and the immune system in the adaptive radiation of Lake Tanganyika cichlids

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BSM sequenced the MHC genes; PIH, AR, MH, JAMR performed the parasitological survey; BSM, PIH, JAMR analysed the data; BSM, JAMR drafted the manuscript; JAMR and WS supervised the project.

INTRODUCTION

The species flocks of the East African cichlid fishes belong to the most powerful model systems to study the genetic basis of adaptation and diversification¹⁻³. Especially the cichlid fishes of the Lake Tanganyika radiation are genetically and morphologically very diverse as this species flock consists of 12-16 different lineages^{$4, 5$}. The processes, which could have lead to the emergence of so many species in such adaptive radiations, could have been manifold and are still debated intensively^{4, $6-9$}. The main idea is that their evolutionary success is due to an interaction of several extrinsic and intrinsic factors. Until recently allopatric speciation mechanisms were thought to be the prevalent trigger to promote speciation; and due to lake-level fluctuations in Lake Tanganyika, this mechanism seems likely and could have played potentially an important role. However it is also very likely that during the early lake formation many newly created habitats and therefore ecological niches could be filled. In the mechanism referred as "ecological speciation", divergent natural selection pressures on phenotypic traits (such as trophic apparatus, body size and shape, colouration and colour perception, acoustics and olfaction, as well as behaviour) contribute to the ecological divergence of the species^{10, 11}. Besides the fact that sexual isolation can arise as a side effect, due to pleiotropic (linked) interaction between genes or traits, ecological speciation happens accelerated if actually the same traits are both under natural and sexual selection, e.g. if both the environment and the potential mate favour one specific trait ("magic trait" principle)12. Parasites represent an ecological pressure, which is predominant in all living animals. Since parasites influence survival and reproduction, it has been suggested that they could also influence adaptation, reproductive isolation and speciation (reviewed by 13). These possibilities have been considered in a number of studies, including in cichlids. First, differences in parasite community composition have been shown for closely related cichlid species living in sympatry¹⁴. Accordingly, these species were also different for a specific set of genes involved in the immune system, the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II genes, suggesting an adaptive genetic basis for the differences in parasitism with the potential to promote reproductive isolation. Second, differences in parasitism have been described for allopatric colour morphs *within* a species¹⁵. This confirms that parasites represent one of the factors that might promote divergence in allopatry, or accelerate speciation upon secondary contact. Third, a study by 16 suggested that parasite-mediated sexual selection might contribute to the divergence of female mating preferences for male coloration, strengthening reproductive isolation.

While each of these studies hint at the importance of parasites at the micro-evolutionary level, no study has investigated parasite-driven speciation in cichlids at the macro-evolutionary level. Here, we explore the potential contribution of parasitism to the speciation processes of the Lake Tanganyika cichlid radiation. In this system, habitat and diet shifts have been proposed to be major drivers of adaptation and speciation¹⁷. However, habitat and diet shifts likely lead to the exposure to different parasites or differences in infection risk. As such, and in particular because parasites might influence natural as well as sexual selection, the Lake Tanganyika cichlid radiation might be to an important extent parasite-driven. We first evaluated whether there is covariation between trophic morphology, trophic level, diet, body shape, and parasitism within the LT cichlids. We expected different macroparasite communities among species, possibly between algae and invertebrate feeders (i.e. species that shifted in diet), or between generalists and sand and rock dwelling species (i.e. species that shifted in habitat). Second, we tested whether the species evolved immunogenetic differences by screening several loci of teleost MHC class II *B* genes. The resulting sequences were tested by means of molecular evolutionary analyses (e.g. *dN/dS* substitution rate ratio and genetic diversity within and among tribes).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

MHC screening

To access the genetic diversity within and among the different Lake Tanganyikan cichlid tribes and to get insights for the acting selection on the MHC genes in cichlids of Lake Tanganyika, a representative set of species was chosen focusing mainly on Lamprologini (11 species), Ectodini (five species) and Haplochromini (four Tropheini species, two basal riverine haplochromines and each four derived Lake Malawi and Lake Victoria haplochromines) (see table 1). Other tribes (as Eretmodini, Perissodini, Boulengerochromini, Cyphotilapiini, Cyprichromini, Limnochromini, Trematocarini and Oreochromini) were included as well but with only one or respectively two species. The sampling of these specimen was conducted in the years 2007 and 2013, independently from the parasite screening, using the standard sampling procedure¹⁷. From each species about 8 to 16 individuals were used for genotyping.

In teleost fishes, the MHC is spread over three chromosomes. One chromosome contains the MHC class I. Whereas the teleost MHC class II loci are spread across two different chromosomes, which are called class II*a* and class II b genes. Each of these regions encompasses two separate subclasses of genes, the MHC class II A and B genes, coding for different two different chains within the MHC molecules, which are typically arranged in pairs along the MHC. The classII*a* genes are more conserved in teleost fish, whereas the classII*b* genes are more diverse and have undergone several rounds of duplication¹⁸. Here, we focused on the Mhc class II genes (D) of the subclass *b* and only on the genes for the beta chain (B), which are located in the five genomic regions (B, C, D, E, F) defined by ¹⁸ and which were named DBB-DFB. For the amplification of these cichlid Mhc loci the forward primer TU383 (CTCTTCATCAGCCTCAGCACA) and the reverse primer TU377 (TGATTTAGACAGARKGKYGCTGTA) from the study of 19 were used. This primer pair is known to amplify the intron 1 and parts of exon 2 of up to 17 homology groups ¹⁹ (note that in another study up to eight expressed putative loci were find with this primer set 14).

The PCR amplification of the MHC was conducted with a multiplex approach in a final volume of 25 µL of the Multiplex PCR Kit (Qiagen, Hombrechtikon, Switzerland), the MHC specific barcoded fusion primers (0.1 μ M of each primer) (see conditions in Appendix 1, 3 of this thesis) and DNA of the different species. Standardised PCR conditions started with an initial heat activation phase (necessary for the HotStarTaq DNA Polymerase) of 95 °C, and continued with 35 amplification cycles consisting of 30 s of denaturation at 94 °C, 90 s of annealing phase at 60 °C and an extension phase of 90 s at 72 °C. The PCR was terminated with a final extension phase of 10 min at 72 °C. The PCR products were purified with the magnetic bead system of Agencourt AMPure XP (Beckman Coulter, Nyon, Switzerland). Before the pyrosequencing step (454 with GS FLX system, Roche, conducted by Microsynth, Balgach, Switzerland), quality of the PCR products was assessed using the 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent, Basel, Switzerland).

The generated raw reads were processed with Roche's demultiplexing and converting tools (sffinfo, sfffile). For quality filtering we applied a filter for too short reads (\leq 150 bp), only allowed 1% of ambiguous bases (N) and filtered out low quality sequences (Mean \geq 15). These sequences were imported species-wise into Geneious (v3.7. Biomatters Ltd, www.geneious. com) and de novo assembled. This resulted in contigs with highly identical reads. If more than 3 bp of a read were different than the rest of the consensus, the reads were excluded. Strict (50 %-) consensus sequences (here called alleles per individual) were generated within Geneious (v3.6), with the option of assigning the highest quality and calling a base "N", if it had a lower PHRED score than 20. These alleles were aligned using MAFFT $(-auto)^{20}$ and insertions of ambiguous "N" and misalignments were manually excluded. A blast search with the obtained alleles let to the exclusion of further sequences. Identical or highly similar (from low coverage contigs with less than 4 reads) alleles were collapsed to haplotypes using again the de novo algorithm within Geneious - thus with very strict settings (only allowing maximal 1 % mismatches and the maximal 2 % of gaps per read). These haplotypes were used for the following analyses.

To check how many different groups were amplified with the two primers, we generated three neighbor-joining (NJ) trees 21 using Jukes-Cantor (JC) substitution model²²: with the intron 1 and exon 2 as an entity, further only of the exon and finally of the translated amino acid sequences using Geneious. The three tree estimates were compared to (i) investigate the power of resolution of the amino acids sequence and (ii) to investigate the influence of the intron in the process of group assignment. The resulting groups were numbered with Latin numbers. We applied the "homology group" (DBB-DFB-like) assignment (see in 23) to our data set. Therefore we just combined the alignments of both studies and transferred their homology group assignment to our analysis.

The genetic diversity was estimated with the software package MEGA (v5.2.2) at different levels²⁴. We mixed all haplotypes of all groups and calculated the evolutionary divergence within tribes. This was done on intron-exon $(\sim450-500$ bp) and exon $(241$ bp) level. Gaps and missing data was eliminated in a pairwise comparison. Both the absolute number of differences and the uncorrected p-distance were recorded.

To investigate the effects of the MHC diversity of species in reference to the parasites (see below) we performed among-species comparisons, where we calculated the genetic distance as a between group average. Therefore we estimated the distance (uncorrected p-distance) of the exon (first, second and third codon together; 241 positions). Finally, we calculated the distance of amino acid sequences using the Jones-Taylor-Thornton (JTT) model. The JTT model, an empirical substitution model, corrects for multiple substitutions based on a model for amino acid substitutions using the substitution-rate matrix²⁵. We excluded species with a very low amount of number of MHC reads.

The genetic distance (as the uncorrected p-distance for exon and amino acid translation) was also evaluated in our defined "homology" groups. We also counted the number of haplotypes per species occurred within these groups. Further we estimated the dn/ds ratio of all sites with $SLAC$, a maximum likelihood analysis²⁶, and thus could the number and location of positively and negatively selected sites to see if our sequenced MHC genes are under selection and thus functional.

Parasitological survey

A subset of 21 species included in the genomic survey along with two additional species (*S. diagramma* and *C. furcifer*) were screened for metazoan ecto- and endoparasites. For this purpose, sampling was conducted at Toby's place on the Zambian shoreline of Lake Tanganyika, i.e. the same site as for the genomic survey. While most species were obtained in August 2012, *S. diagramma* and *H. microlepis* were captured in August 2011 and July 2013, respectively. One species, *A. burtoni*, was obtained in July 2013 at Kapata, which is about 20 km more southward. About ten individuals per species were caught by chasing fish into standing nets. After capture the fish were kept in tanks of 0.8 m x 0.8 m x 1.2 m depth or 0.8 m x 0.8 m x 2 m depth. Before usage, tanks were cleaned, dried and filled with lake water.

All fish were dissected in the field within four days after capture. The day of dissection (0, 1, 2 or 3 days after capture) was recorded in order to keep track of changes in parasitological parameters while the fish were kept in the tanks. Individual fish were killed with an overdose of MS222. The parasitological survey consisted of three parts. First, the outer surface and the mouth cavity of the fish were inspected for ectoparasitic monogeneans and crustaceans (copepods, branchiurans, isopods), bivalves, any kind of helminthic cyst. Second, the four gill branches on the left were dissected and stored on 100% analytical ethanol (EtOH), and later on screened for ectoparasitic monogeneans, crustaceans (copepods and branchiurans), bivalves, any kind of helminthic cyst. Third, fish were screened for intestinal monogeneans, digeneans, acanthocephalans, nematodes, and any kind of helminthic cysts. To do so, stomach, intestines, gall and urinary bladder were dissected and inspected with in a petridish with lake water. Finally, the sex of the fish was determined by visual inspection of the genital papilla and gonad development.

The parasitological survey was performed with a stereomicroscope and different observers. Observers were recorded in order to keep track of observer bias. The outer surface and the mouth cavity of the fish was screened by a single observer. The gills were screened by two observers in 2011, two observers in 2012 and two observers in 2013. The intestines were screened by three observers in 2011, four observers in 2012, and a single observer in 2013.

All parasites were counted and identified to genus or class level and preserved as follows. Monogeneans were isolated using dissection needles and were either mounted on slides in ammonium picrate glycerine for further morphological research, or stored on 100 % EtOH. Acanthocephalans and nematodes were stored on 80 % EtOH, while intestinal monogeneans, branchiurans, copepods, any kind of helminthic cysts, bivalves and unknown groups were stored on 100 % EtOH.

Data analysis

The analyses of infection levels were performed in the statistical package R^{27} . Prevalence and mean abundance were calculated for each group of parasites and each host species following the terminology of Rosza et al.28. Manova was used to test for differences in infection levels (quantified either as prevalence or mean abundance) between cichlid tribes for all parasite groups together. Subsequently, Kruskal-Wallis Anova's were used to test for differences in infection levels between the tribes for each parasite group separately.

The level of covariation between body shape, trophic morphology, diet and parasitism within LT cichlids was investigated by a Spearman rank correlation analysis between infection levels and data collected previously by Muschick et al.¹⁷. Specifically, body shape was included in the analysis as the two first principal components of body shape variation, as calculated by Muschick et al.¹⁷ from a geomorphometric analysis. Likewise, trophic morphology was included using the two first principal components of lower pharyngeal jaw shape variation as calculated by Muschick et al. ¹⁷. Diet was included as the two first principal components on proportional diet data, as well as the two first principal components calculated from these data. In addition to body shape, trophic morphology and diet, we also included carbon and nitrogen stable isotope signatures (δ 13C and δ 15N), which are a proxy for trophic ecology¹⁷. In particular, δ 13C values in LT cichlids were found to be correlated with body shape clusters, whereas δ15N values correlate with the shape of the lower pharyngeal jaw. As such the δ13C and δ15N respectively reflect variation between macrohabitats (e.g. benthic versus pelagic) and the relative trophic level of an organism.

To further investigate which source of information (body shape, trophic morphology, diet or isotopes) was most strongly linked to infection levels for all parasite groups simultaneously, we performed a redundancy analysis (RDA). RDA is a canonical extension to PCA in which the principal components produced are constrained to be linear combinations of a set of predictor variables²⁹. It enables to identify the best ordination model that describes parasite community similarities among cichlid species. This analysis was performed with the R library vegan. Significance of the proportion of variation in infection levels explained by each source of information was calculated and tested for significance using 1000 random permutations. For each source of information separately, the RDA analysis was preceded with a forward selection procedure as implemented in the "packfor" package in $R³⁰$. Forward selection corrects for highly inflated type I errors and overestimated amounts of explained variation.

MHC vs. parasites, trophic ecology, morphology and isotope signatures

To investigate which source of information (body shape, trophic morphology, diet, isotopes or infection levels) was significantly linked to MHC divergence between cichlid species, we performed a redundancy analysis (RDA; see above) using the R library vegan. Infection levels were included in the analysis either as prevalence or mean abundance. Since the set of cichlid species for which parasite data were available was smaller than for the other data, two separate analyses were performed. The MHC data were included in the analysis as the first ten axis obtained from a classical multidimensional scaling analysis (CMDS) on MHCbased genetic distances, either based on exon 2 or on amino acids using the JTT model (see above). Significance of the proportion of variation in MHC profiles explained by each source of information was calculated and tested for significance using 1000 random permutations. For each source of information separately, the RDA analysis was preceded with a forward selection procedure as implemented in the packfor package in R^{30} .

RESULTS

Sequencing success

In total we received, after our filtering procedure, 11,569 reads of MHC(-like) genes using pyrosequencing and the barcoded fusion-primers. The filtered mean read lengths was 289.62 \pm 90.31 bp. Overall the sequencing coverage was best for the three major tribes, namely the Lamprologini, the Ectodini and Haplochromini (Table 1). Whereas sequencing nearly completely failed in the basal lineages of Lake Tanganyika cichlid radiation (*Oreochromis tanganicae, Bathybathes graueri* and *Boulengerochromis microlepis*. Other species with few reads were *Eretmodus cyanostictus and Gnathochromis pfefferi*. After we defined alleles within individuals (data not shown here) and species, we blasted these. This resulted in 1198 MHC alleles, 201 sequences of "*Haplochromis burtoni* dual specificity protein phosphatase CDC14A-like OR SINEs", 26 alleles without any BLAST hit, 25 sequences of "*Haplochromis burtoni* zinc finger protein 513-like" and 14 miscellaneous sequences. Following our strategy

of filtering, processing and collapsing of alleles, we resulted in 573 different haplotypes within 39 "species" (37 plus Lake Malawi and Victoria haplochromines, which are not distinguished separately, due to their low read coverage and high relatedness). Note, that in Table 1 are more haplotypes, as some closely related species share exact alleles.

All three NJ-tree estimates created the same clusters of MHC genes (called homology group from here on), only differing in relationship to each other. However, as we were not interested in the evolutionary history of these genes at this stage, we decided to choose the exon-based NJtree estimate to represent the grouping. In total, we can visually distinguish six major groups and some substructuring (groups 1-6; in Figure 1). A combination and comparison (with alignment and NJ-trees) to the dataset of Hablützel et al.²³ revealed that our used primer pair successfully amplifies two DEB-like groups, three DFB-like groups, and to some other unnamed groups (see Table 2). However we could not assign any of our haplotypes to DBB-like, DCB-like or DDB-like groups.

The average genetic diversity tribe is shown in Table 3. This table shows besides the haplotype number, that the overall genetic distance within the three tribes with more species (but also higher read coverage and more defined haplotypes) is very similar (ranging around 0.2).

As we were focusing in detail to the homology groups, defined in this study as group 1-6, we realised that not all loci were amplified in all tribes equally (Table 2). The average genetic distance within the groups ranged between 0.077 (group 2b) and 0.166 (group 1). (Note that the low value could be due to the limited number of reads, whereas the higher number could be due to the fact that we possibly summarized two subgroups two group 1, also see Figure 1). In all groups we could detect positively and negatively sites, which differed more or less between the defined groups: closely associated groups have the tendency to have more positions in common with both positive and negative selection signs (as in the case of group 6a and 6b). However there are positions, which are shared over several homology groups.

Infection patterns

Manova revealed significant differences between Lake Tanganyika cichlid tribes for the prevalence of metazoan ecto- and endoparasites (Wilks' lambda = 0.0066, $F_{\text{max}} = 1.96$, P = 0.0322). These differences were mainly due to the prevalence of acanthocephalans which was high in Tropheini, intermediate in Ectodini, and low in Lamprologini and Perissodini (Table 4, Figure 2). There was no multivariate difference between the tribes for the mean abundance of parasites (Wilks' lambda = 0.027 , $F_{\text{28,40}} = 1.12$, P = 0.38), but at the univariate level there were differences for the mean abundance of acanthocephalans and *Cichlidogyrus* sp. (Table 4). Mean abundance for both groups of parasites was again high in Tropheini, intermediate in Ectodini, and low in Lamprologini and Perissodini (Figure 3). Accordingly, a two-dimensional (PCAbased) representation of parasite communities (Figure 4) revealed partially non-overlapping parasite communities in the Lamprologini and Tropheini, while parasite communities in the Ectodini show similarities with both the Lamprologini and the Tropheini.

Spearman rank correlations revealed that infection levels across cichlid species were correlated with trophic ecology, morphology or isotope signatures. The prevalence of acanthocephalans increased with δ13C and the proportion of sand and aufwuchs in the diet, and decreased with δ15N (Table 5; Figure 5). The prevalence of nematodes increased with δ15N, and decreased with the proportion of mollusks in the diet (Table 5; Figure 5). The prevalence of *Urogyrus* sp. increased with the proportion of aufwuchs in the diet, while the prevalence of cysts in the gills decreased with the proportion of fish in the diet. The prevalence of cysts in the fins and *Cichlidogyrus* sp. were respectively correlated with the second principal component of body shape variation, and the second principal component of lower pharyngeal jaw shape variation. Spearman rank correlations with mean abundance confirmed these patterns (Table 6). In addition, there was an increase of *Enterogyrus* sp. with the proportion of fish in the diet, an increase of *Ergasilus* sp. with the proportion of arthropods, and an increase of cysts in the fins with the proportion of fish scales.

Forward selection followed by RDA identified a significant effect of the second principal component of body shape variation on the entire parasite community, accounting for 11% of the variation in prevalences (RDA: $F_{1,1}$ =2.27; P = 0.028). A significant effect of the second principal component of lower pharyngeal jaw shape variation on the entire parasite community was identified when the analysis was performed on mean abundance (RDA: $F_{1,19}=3.83$; P = 0.0325). This model accounted for 17% of the variation. Other variables accounting for trophic ecology, morphology or isotope signatures were not selected in these models.

MHC vs. parasites, trophic ecology, morphology and isotope signatures

A two-dimensional (MDS-based) representation of the MHC divergence between cichlid species revealed partial overlap between Tropheini, Ectodini and Lamprologini at the exon 2 as well as the amino acid level (Figure 3). The smaller tribes (Perissodini, Cyphotilapiini, Cyprichromini, and Trematocarini) seem to have different MHC profiles, especially at the amino acid level. Forward selection identified significant effects of the prevalence of acanthocephalans and *Gyrodactylus* sp. on the MHC exon 2 divergence. The combined model explained 31% of the variation at the exon 2 level (RDA: $F_{1,1}=2.66$; P = 0.036). At the amino acid level, only the prevalence of acanthocephalans showed a significant effect, accounting for 13% of the variation (RDA: F_{11} =2.02; P = 0.02). Similar results were obtained with mean abundance. Variables quantifying trophic ecology, morphology or isotope signatures did not explain significant variation at the exon 2 or amino acid level (results not shown).

DISCUSSION

MHC diversity

Here we present the first MHC sequences for East African cichlids other than Haplochromini (including Tropheini) and Oreochromini (note: there are two sequences of Cyphotilapiini in GenBank). We thus show that the primers by Malaga-Trillo et al.¹⁹ are able to cover the whole phylogenetic range of Lake Tanganyika cichlid tribes. In this study we successfully amplified at least five homology groups of MHC classII*b* B genes, of which all showed signs of acting selection pressures and none of them comprising a stop codon. This let us to the conclusion that the here investigated genes are expressed and consequently relevant for the immune system. In Halblützel et al.²³ not all these groups were amplified in that degree and thus we add a new dimension of MHC gene diversity for Lake Tanganyika cichlids. It is likely that we only see the tip of the iceberg, as we could not amplify DBB, DCB and DDB-like loci. As we determined selection on differing positively (potentially antigen binding sites) and conserved negatively positions, we assume that each homology group plays a different role in the immune-defence. We would like to extend the MHC genotyping to more MHC class II*b* B loci and to increase the coverage, this could happen with the primer set developed in Hablützel et al.²³. Sampling more intensively within a tribe or closely related taxa one would additionally gain insights to the dynamic processes underlying the creation and maintenance of this diverse multigene family (e.g. the birth-and-death-model, the frequency of pseudogenes, the frequency of duplications or gene-conversions, amount of inter and intralocus exchange)³¹.

Our NJ trees produced of intron-exon and exon alignments revealed no extreme incongruence in the assignment of homology groups. However, a study by Figueroa et al. showed that the phylogeny of the exon with that of the flanking introns were mismatching³², it would be worth to re-analyse our data in detail, in order to check for this phenomenon. The authors assume that this could be due to convergent evolution in the exons and/or homogenization processes on the introns³². These processes are known from human HLA studies, were the introns flanking the polymorphic exons of some human MHC genes have been become relatively conserved due to intra-locus recombination and thus homogenization³³.

In other studies on the MHC of East African cichlid, a high degree of "trans-species polymorphisms", the long-term retention of allelic lineages after speciation, could be detected 32, 34. However, these studies only included a very small subsample of closely related cichlids, mainly from the relatively young haplochromines, where shared polymorphism due to incomplete lineage sorting are also known in other genes. Nevertheless, we also observed allele sharing within tribes (based on exon-intron data). This was the case for two derived haplochromine (*Astatotilapia burtoni* and *Haplochromis cf. stappersii*), some closely related lamprologines (e.g. *Neolamprologus tetracanthus* and *N. modestus* and *N. pulcher*, and between *Lamprologus callipterus* and *Lepidiolamprolgus elongatus*) and between a known hybrid species (*Telmatochromis dhonti*) and other lamprologines. It remains to be tested if this allele sharing also occurs across tribes, if we only look at the exon level or amino acid level. If also balancing selection pressure or only incomplete lineage sorting is responsible for this ancestral polymorphisms, is not clear.

Covariation between trophic morphology, body shape, trophic ecology and parasitism

Habitat adaptation and trophic adaptation have been proposed to be important drivers of the Lake Tanganyika cichlid radiation, because differences in habitat and diet between species are associated with morphological differences. For instance, Muschick et al.17 observed that diet is associated with pharyngeal jaw morphology, a key trait for feeding on a specialized diet (from algae and biofilms to invertebrates and fish), while habitat is associated with differences in body shape. Likewise, carbon and nitrogen stable isotope signatures, which are a proxy for trophic ecology, are also correlated with morphology¹⁷. In particular, δ 13C values in LT cichlids correlate with body shape clusters, whereas δ15N values correlate with the shape of the lower pharyngeal jaw. As such the δ13C and δ15N respectively reflect variation between macrohabitats (e.g. benthic versus pelagic) and the relative trophic level of an organism.

Despite these potentially strong drivers of adaptation in Lake Tanganyika cichlids, we anticipated that habitat and diet shifts would also imply exposure to different parasites or shifts in infection risk. Such shifts would likely happen simultaneously, so there would be no particular order of adapting first to a novel habitat or diet before adapting to novel parasites, or vice versa. A number of findings in this study show that habitat and diet are indeed correlated with parasitism. For instance, δ13C was correlated with the prevalence of acanthocephalans. This suggests that benthic cichlid fishes have a higher risk of infection with acanthocephalans than pelagic species. Likewise, δ15N was correlated with the prevalence of nematodes, suggesting that species at a higher trophic level have a higher risk of infection with nematodes. Various parasites were also correlated with the proportion of prey items as well as with morphology. Overall, body shape and lower pharyngeal jaw shape seemed to explain the most variation in infection levels. This is
perhaps not surprising given the indications that these traits enable cichlids to occupy different niches - hence running into different parasites. This also explains why different cichlid tribes harboured partially non-overlapping parasite communities.

MHC vs. parasites, trophic ecology, morphology and isotope signatures

Together, the above results imply that the potential contribution of parasites to the radiation of Lake Tanganyika cichlids should not be overlooked. Parasites are known to represent a strong selective force that can lead to behavioural as well as immunological adaptations. In theory, parasitism could be even more important than habitat and diet shifts, because parasites are known to not only influence survival, but also mate choice. This combines the effect of natural and sexual selection, and has the potential to accelerate speciation³⁵.

In fishes, there is growing evidence that parasites can play such a role, mediated in particular through the immune system³⁶. If so, it is expected that species with similar infections have similar MHC profiles. We indeed observed a match between MHC profiles and infection with certain parasite groups, in particular acanthocephalans. However, these results were not corrected for neutral genetic divergence between species. We therefore cannot exclude at this stage that species with similar infections show similar MHC profiles because of phylogenetic relatedness. Another uncertainty at this stage is whether the observed MHC diversity is representative, and allows to quantify these relationships. The same is true for our assessment of parasite diversity, since our focus was only on metazoan macroparasites and since taxonomic identifications were done with a low resolution. The few detailed parasitological studies that exist for Lake Tanganyika all hint at a huge diversity of parasite species $37, 38$.

Conclusion

We showed that different cichlid tribes harboured partially non-overlapping parasite communities as well as partially non-overlapping MHC diversity. The trophic-morphological axis of diversification in Lake Tanganyika cichlids is strongly correlated with infection levels of metazoan macroparasites. As such the potential contribution of parasitism and immunogenetic adaptation to this radiation should be not be overlooked.

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Figure 1. A NJ tree based on exon 2 sequence data of MHC genes. Groups are indicated with names 1-6. Subgroups are named a-e. This naming corresponds to Table B.

Figure 2. Prevalence of ten groups of endo- and ectoparasites by cichlid tribe. Ba: Bathybatini; Bo: Boulengerochromini; Ec: Ectodini; Er: Eretmodini; La: Lamprologini; Pe: Perissodini; Tr: Tropheini.

Figure 3. Mean abundance of ten groups of endo- and ectoparasites by cichlid tribe. Ba: Bathybatini; Bo: Boulengerochromini; Ec: Ectodini; Er: Eretmodini; La: Lamprologini; Pe: Perissodini; Tr: Tropheini.

Figure 5. Scatterplot matrix of isotopes signatures (δ15N and δ13C) versus parasitological parameters (prevalence of acanthocephalans and nematodes). The various symbols represent different tribes (circles: Bathybatini; upper triangles: Boulengerochromini; +: **Ectodini; x: Eretmodini; diamonds: Lamprologini; lower triangles: Perissodini; squares: Tropheini).**

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Figure 4. Two-dimensional representations of morphology, trophic ecology, infection levels, MHC-based genetic divergence, and isotope signatures. Principal component analysis (PCA) of (A) body shape and (B) LPJ shape, (C) proportional stomach and gut contents, and (D) mean square-root transformed abundance of parasites. (E) classical multidimensional scaling (CMDS) plot based on between-species MHC classII*b* **B exon 2 genetic distances. (F) CMDS plot based on between-species MHC classII***b* **B amino acid distances. (G) Plot of stable isotope data (δ15N versus δ13C) for Lake Tanganyika cichlids. Filled triangles in (A, B, D) represent tribes for which only one species was analyzed; grey bars in (G) indicate t-based 95% confidence intervals. Plot A, B, C and G were reproduced from Muschik et al. (2012; Figure S1).**

Table 1. Sequencing success of MHC: Tribe name, species name, reads total from a bigger experiment, where MHC-experiment was part of, number of reads from MHC- or MHC- like genes, and number of defined haplotypes based on intron-exon assignment.

Table 2. Species and number of haplotypes in different homology groups (1-6), assignment by Hablützel et al. 2012 and Klein et al 1993, mean dn/ds ratio, list of position of positively and negatively selected sites (treshold of p-value 0.05).

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Chapter 5

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Table 3. Overview of number of haploytpes within different tribes, number of shared haplotypes within tribes, and the genetic distance both based on intron-exon and exon-only sequences (absolute difference and uncorrected p-distance).

Table 4. Non-parametric (Kruskal-Wallis) Anova on prevalence of metazoan ecto- and endoparasites between Lake Tanganyika cichlid tribes.

Table 5. Spearman rank correlations across cichlid species between infection levels of various parasite groups, morphology, trophic ecology and isotope signatures. A) Prevalence vs. proportional stomach and gut content; B) Prevalence vs. principal components for body shape (body1 and body2), lower pharyngeal jaw shape (lpj1 and lpj2), proportional stomach and gut content (diet1 and diet2), and stable isotope signatures (δ13C and δ15N).

Table 6. Spearman rank correlations across cichlid species between infection levels of various parasite groups, morphology, trophic ecology and isotope signatures. A) Mean abundance vs. proportional stomach and gut content; B) Mean abundance vs. principal components for bodyshape (body1 and body2), lower pharyngeal jaw shape (lpj1 and lpj2), proportional stomach and gut content (diet1 and diet2), and stable isotope signatures (δ13C and δ15N).

Discussion

The main aim of this doctoral thesis was to deepen our knowledge of the phylogenetic relationships within the species flock of cichlid fishes in East African Lake Tanganyika, a role model for adaptive radiation^{$1, 2$}. This goal was successfully reached, as presented in the five chapters of my thesis. In the following I would like to briefly summarize and review my main results.

In the first two chapters of my thesis, I present a novel approach of examining the phylogenetic relationships of the main linages of cichlids in Lake Tanganyika, based on a large set of genomic markers. So far, mainly mitochondrial markers have been used to study the phylogenetic relationships in Tanganyikan cichlids. The resulting tree topologies were in part contradicting and generally neither well resolved nor supported.

In my thesis, I thus investigated the phylogenetic signal provided by a large sequencebased nuclear multi-marker dataset obtained my next-generation DNA sequencing. In the first chapter³ I describe the starting point of this project, in which I used mainly expressed sequence tags (ESTs) from several cichlid species⁴⁻⁹, the unassembled whole genome shotgun (wgs) database of Oreochromis niloticus and the Medaka fish genome to identify genes that could be suitable as phylogenetic markers.

Due to the chosen marker length between 400 and 500 bp, I could successfully sequence these loci with the traditional Sanger method and later with the 454 nextgeneration sequencing platform. One advantage of our primer design strategy is that the rough location of the markers within the genome was known (in the comparison to other fish genomes), which enabled us to sample many independent gene histories to infer the species tree. This is in clear contrast to previous studies based on a single marker (or very few markers), where the history of one or few genes has been used to represent species history. We argue that genome-wide multi-marker datasets should better be suited to resolve the complex phylogenetic history within an adaptive radiation, where lineage formation is generally rapid and where more than two species might emerge from a common ancestor (i.e. speciation is not necessarily bifurcating). I would like to note here that the markers were chosen before the five sequenced and assembled cichlid genomes became available by the Broad Institute, which would, of course, have facilitated primer design (e.g. using bioinformatic pipelines searching for single copy genes) 10 nowadays.

In the second chapter I applied an extended version of my newly developed multimarker primer set to a representative set of East African cichlids. In total, I compiled a dataset based on 42 markers (17,545 bp in total) and 45 species. With this dataset and up-to-date phylogenetic analyses, we provide a new phylogenetic hypothesis for the relationships between the main cichlid lineages, so-called 'tribes', in Lake Tanganyika. In particular, our analyses revealed new insights into the phylogenetic relationships within the mouth brooding lineages. For example, the nuclear markers uncovered a close affiliation of the Eretmodini to the more derived Haplochromini. This finding is concordant to another recently published study¹¹ and to an older allozyme study¹², however quite distinct to mitochondrial DNA based studies, which placed the Eretmodini closer to the substrate spawning Lamprologini13-15. While most parts of our new phylogeny were well resolved, a few areas of uncertainty remained. A novel approach to evaluate the phylogenetic signal in our dataset, in which we combined simulations and resampling techniques, suggested that our dataset contained enough phylogenetic signal. It thus seems that the remaining polytomies at the basis of the derived mouthbrooders (the 'H-lineage') represent biological reality. In particular, there are still uncertainties with respect to the positioning of the two tribes Cyphotilapiini and Limnochromini, as well as the Perissodini and Cyprichromini. It remains to be tested if the low resolution is due to the stochastic sorting of ancestral polymorphisms, past hybridization, the short time frame, the lack of mutations and thus the lack of phylogenetic signal or if we only have chosen inconclusive and/or too few markers.

Overall, however, the amount of markers was suitable to provide new insights to the cichlid phylogeny of Lake Tanganyika, as shown in the resampling tests, where we combined and compared different sets of randomly chosen markers. Further, the high concordance of the concatenated tree estimates and the species tree provided by the Bayesian concordance analysis with Bucky, show the reliability and power of our multi-marker dataset.

The usefulness of my markers has previously been shown in other studies, for example in the study of Muschick et al. (2012)¹, and, additionally, in the study by Emilia Santos presented in the fourth chapter of my thesis, where I contributed to the phylogenetic analyses. In this project, nine of my markers were used to generate a strong phylogenetic backbone for the Haplochromini, the most species-rich tribe of cichlids. This was essential as it strengthened the assumptions about the timing of the emergence of the studied novel color trait.

In the third chapter I applied phylogenetic analysis methods to investigate the placement of a newly discovered species from Lake Tanganyika, Haplochromis sp. 'Chipwa'. This resulted in the surprising finding of a close genetic affiliation of this species to the Lake Victoria cichlid superflock. Parallel to our study other researchers postulated the non-inclusive monophyly of the three Great Lakes, as they observed high degrees of shared genetic polymorphisms in a SNP study¹⁶. However, we are the first ones to potentially support their hypotheses with the existence of a species, which invaded Lake Tanganyika from another drainage system. If this newly detected species has ever hybridized with other Lake Tanganyika haplochromines remains to be tested.

In the last chapter we studied the potential contribution of parasites to the Lake Tanganyika cichlid radiation investigating several loci of MHC genes and infection levels of metazoan macroparasites in combination with a trophic and morphological dataset. This analysis gave hints about the enormous diversity at the MHC class II loci for East African cichlids, as this was the first study including Lake Tanganyikan tribes (other than Oreochromini and Haplochromini). Besides resolving some influences of habitat, diet and morphological traits to the level of parasite infection, we could finally detect a correlation between infections and the MHC genes. Nevertheless, we would like to increase the intensity of sequencing to gain a better coverage for our data matrix, as it was shown that not all known loci could be amplified in all species and tribes.

Since it is known that concatenation of many markers can lead to wrong signals in phylogenetic inferences¹⁷⁻¹⁹, we plan to extend our analyses to coalescent-theory based species tree estimates $20-23$ in the future. We would particularly like to crossvalidate our phylogenetic results presented in the second chapter. Coalescence methods account for gene tree discordance originating from stochastic processes such as incomplete lineage sorting. For this purpose we still have phased data of 42 markers for around 400 more cichlid individuals. This dataset would further allow studying the genetic diversity on an individual level within species for single genes. Thus, different selection regimes could be potentially detected, as we did, for example, for the MHC genes (fifth chapter).

Multi-marker studies are the link between single marker and whole genome and transciptome studies. Since the field of phylogenomics and its standards and "doctrines" are rapidly changing, a new range of possibilities is constantly established. On the one hand, this is due to the developments in the field of next-generation sequencing methods 24 , 25 . On the other hand, also theory and analytical tools are constantly being improved 25-27. The challenging and time-consuming steps, in the analyses of the data obtained by whole-transcriptome and genome sequencing, are the choice of the appropriate phylogenetic markers out of a huge data cloud. Such

Discussion

markers should reflect appropriate evolutionary rates, should be homologous, and be expressed across a range of species (in the case of transcriptomes). An additional challenge is the computationally time expensive analysis of millions of base pairs, as well as the computational expenses of data partitioning and model choice. Most of the available phylogenetic software packages and species tree estimation algorithms were not designed for datasets of this size. Thus our strategy of multimarker sequencing seems still very appropriate to be applied to answer phylogenetic questions, specially if we take into account our planned extension to the coalescent theory based analyses.

Still, if possible, I would add more markers and more taxa per lineage in the future, to sample a wider range of possible gene histories and to better estimate the degree of incomplete lineage sorting within an adaptive radiation. I would further focus on species with 'mixed' origins (such as *Eretmodus cyanostictus*) to gain insights in the processes of hybrid speciation or the impact of hybridization to adaptive radiations²⁸. Additionally to "zooming out" and adding all Lake Tanganyika tribes, "zooming in" (more species and even individuals within specific tribes) could potentially reveal more resolution both with coalescent-based species tree estimates as well as the concatenation approach (now that we know more about potential sister tribes). In addition to the transcriptomes and genomes I would further think about new methods, such as paired end RAD sequencing, which could potentially produce assemblies of up to 500 bp 24 .

In this thesis I report the successful development and application of a newly developed marker set for East African cichlid fishes. It was used for the amplification of more than 40 loci in 45 species covering a phylogenetic range of over 10 million years, revealing a new perspective to the phylogenetic history of East African cichlids.

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Appendix

Appendix 1a: Used barcodes for the fusion primers of 454 pyrosequencing. Fusionsprimers were synthesized at Microsynth (Balgach, Switzerland). The forward fusionprimers composed of the template specific forward primer, the B-Adaptor and the respective TCMID1-10 barcodes. Reverse primer are composed of the template specific reverse primer and the A-Adaptor.

Appendix 1b: The two used Adaptor sequences.

A Adaptor

CGTATCGCCTCCCTCGCGCCATCAG

B Adaptor

CTATGCGCCTTGCCAGCCCGCTCAG

Appendix 2 a: 5 Primermixes (A-E) per individual, primer sequences, lengths and estimated temperatures

to be continued next page...

Appendix 2 b: Normalized primer stock for 10 or 8 primerpairs

Appendix 3a: Standard multiplex PCR Mastermix using Multiplex PCR Kit (Qiagen, Hombrechtikon, Switzerland)

Appendix 3b: Standard multiplex PCR conditions

