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1 **Contemporary ecotypic divergence during a recent range expansion was facilitated**
2 **by adaptive introgression**

3

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15

16 Key words: Biological invasion, P matrix, adaptive introgression.

17

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Although rapid phenotypic evolution during range expansion associated with colonization
21 of contrasting habitats has been documented in several taxa, the evolutionary
22 mechanisms that underlie such phenotypic divergence have less often been investigated.
23 A strong candidate for rapid ecotype formation within an invaded range is the threespine
24 stickleback in the Lake Geneva region of central Europe. Since its introduction only ~ 140
25 years ago it has undergone a significant expansion of its range and its niche, now forming
26 phenotypically differentiated parapatric ecotypes that occupy either the pelagic zone of
27 the large lake or small inlet streams respectively. By comparing museum collections from
28 different times with contemporary population samples, we here reconstruct the evolution
29 of parapatric phenotypic divergence through time. Using genetic data from modern
30 samples we infer the underlying invasion history. We find that parapatric habitat-
31 dependent phenotypic divergence between the lake and stream was already present in
32 the first half of the twentieth century, but the magnitude of differentiation increased
33 through time, particularly in anti-predator defense traits. This suggests that divergent
34 selection between the habitats occurred and was stable through much of the time since
35 colonization. Recently increased phenotypic differentiation in anti-predator defense traits
36 likely results from habitat dependent selection on alleles that arrived through
37 introgression from a distantly related lineage from outside the Lake Geneva region. This
38 illustrates how hybridisation can quickly promote phenotypic divergence in a system
39 where adaptation from standing genetic variation was constrained.

40

41

42 **Introduction**

43 The colonization of new habitats combined with natural selection favouring different
44 phenotypes in new environments can quickly lead to the formation of new ecotypes that
45 are distinct from their ancestral population (Schluter, 2000; Carroll *et al.*, 2007; Nosil,
46 2012). Subsequent adaptive phenotypic evolution can be rapid (Thompson, 1998;
47 Palumbi, 2001; Hairston *et al.*, 2005; Carroll *et al.*, 2007; Dlugosch & Parker, 2008; Hendry
48 *et al.*, 2008), especially when measured over short time scales (Hairston *et al.*, 2005) and
49 if selection acts on standing genetic variation (Facon *et al.*, 2006; Arnold *et al.*, 2008;
50 Barrett & Schluter, 2008). The rate and extent of adaptive change depends moreover on
51 the genetic and environmental constraints as well as the time that is available for
52 selection to act (Johnston & Selander, 1964; Hendry *et al.*, 2000; Koskinen *et al.*, 2002;
53 Nosil *et al.*, 2009; Matesanz *et al.*, 2012). Rapid phenotypic changes that allow individuals
54 to match their environment the best may similarly occur instantaneously through
55 adaptive phenotypic plasticity, wherein identical genotypes can express different
56 phenotypes in different environments (Hairston *et al.*, 1999; West-Eberhard, 2003; Keller
57 & Taylor, 2008; Badyaev, 2010; Calsbeek *et al.*, 2011).

58

59 Although rapid ecotype formation has been frequently studied (e.g. Johnston & Selander,
60 1964; Hendry *et al.*, 2000; Koskinen *et al.*, 2002; Matesanz *et al.*, 2012), the evolutionary
61 changes through time have only rarely been investigated due to rarity of historical data
62 documenting these evolutionary shifts (but see Hairston *et al.*, 1999; Badyaev, 2010;
63 Calsbeek *et al.*, 2011 for examples). It is furthermore less clear whether ecotype formation
64 commonly occurs through a gradual process, where genetic constraints may lead towards
65 a novel adaptive optimum over time (Schluter, 1996) or rapidly through selection on

66 standing genetic variation (Barrett & Schluter, 2008) and/or phenotypic plasticity (West-
67 Eberhard, 2003). Adaptive phenotypic evolution is indeed thought to be constrained along
68 so called “lines of least resistance” or \mathbf{g}_{\max} , i.e. the leading eigenvector of the \mathbf{G} matrix,
69 which summarizes the additive genetic variances and covariances (Lande, 1979; Lande &
70 Arnold, 1983; Schluter, 1996; see Steppan *et al.*, 2002 for a review). Biologically, this axis
71 accounts for the largest proportion of genetic variance and is shaped by selection and drift
72 (Lande & Arnold, 1983; Steppan *et al.*, 2002; Marroig & Cheverud, 2005; Facon *et al.*,
73 2006; Arnold *et al.*, 2008; Barrett & Schluter, 2008). In the absence of quantitative genetic
74 data, the \mathbf{G} matrix and \mathbf{g}_{\max} may be surrogated by the \mathbf{P} matrix and \mathbf{p}_{\max} respectively, which
75 are based on phenotypic data from wild populations (Cheverud, 1988). This is especially
76 valid when phenotypic traits are relatively heritable (Lande, 1979), as has been found for
77 many taxa (Cheverud, 1988; Leinonen *et al.*, 2011a; Kolbe *et al.*, 2011).

78

79 Here we study a case of recent ecotype formation in the threespine stickleback
80 (*Gasterosteus aculeatus* species complex) from the Lake Geneva region in Switzerland,
81 where stickleback was introduced only ~140 years ago and form now ecologically and
82 phenotypic distinct parapatric lake and stream ecotypes (Lucek *et al.*, 2010; 2013; 2014a).
83 Lake dwelling stickleback differ from their stream counterparts in both feeding and
84 defence related phenotypes. Specifically, they have longer gill rakers allowing them to
85 feed on a more planktonic diet (Gross, 1977; Berner *et al.*, 2010; Lucek *et al.*, 2013) and
86 extended defense structures, i.e. elongated spines and an increased number of lateral
87 plates, protecting them from gape-limited piscivorous predators (Lucek *et al.*, 2010;
88 2013). Historically, however, only a single lateral plate morph with few lateral plates was
89 documented in the Lake Geneva region, which is consistent with the phenotypes in the

90 native range of the introduced South European lineage (Lucek *et al.*, 2010 and references
91 therein). Phenotypic divergence between lake and stream stickleback occurs commonly
92 for feeding and defence related traits, suggesting that they reflect the major divergent
93 selective pressures between the distinct habitats that work on external phenotypes.
94 However, evidence stems mainly from evolutionarily much older stickleback populations
95 elsewhere in the world that emerged shortly after the retreat of the glaciers ~12'000
96 years ago (e.g. Reimchen *et al.*, 1985; Berner *et al.*, 2009; Kaeuffer *et al.*, 2012; Ravinet *et*
97 *al.*, 2013, but see Hendry *et al.*, 2013).

98

99 By comparing the \mathbf{P} matrices of historical museum and contemporary collections from
100 several lake and stream stickleback populations, we ask if we can demonstrate gradual
101 changes through time towards the currently observed phenotypic differentiation during a
102 recent biological invasion (Lucek *et al.*, 2013). We focus on traits related to anti-predator
103 defence and feeding ecology, two independent trait categories that have previously been
104 found to experience distinct selective regimes and which are furthermore heritable
105 (Reimchen, 1994; Walker, 1997; Lucek *et al.*, 2013). We predict the angle between \mathbf{p}_{\max}
106 and the common line of least resistance to either change gradually, increasing over time
107 (Schluter, 1996) if genetic constraints restrict ecotypic divergence. Alternatively, \mathbf{p}_{\max} of
108 different populations from the same habitat type should align independently of time if
109 habitat dependent ecotypic differentiation was completed rapidly, within the first few
110 decades after colonization. In a second step, we infer the genetic history of this biological
111 invasion using contemporary populations. We test if the contemporary phenotypic
112 differentiation between ecotypes was a result of repeated colonization and secondary
113 contact, where distinct habitats may have been colonized by genetically and

114 phenotypically different colonizing lineages (Taylor & McPhail, 2000), or rather reflects *in*
115 *situ* evolution. Finally, we test if both lateral plates and the *Ectodysplasin* (*Eda*) locus,
116 which controls the lateral plate phenotype (Colosimo *et al.*, 2004; 2005) show patterns of
117 habitat dependent selection and/or reflect patterns of adaptive introgression from an East
118 European lineage that got introduced in the eastern part of Switzerland (Lucek *et al.*,
119 2010; Rieseberg, 2011; Pardo-Diaz *et al.*, 2012).

120

121 **Material and methods**

122 *Sample collection*

123 Eight historical populations from 1921-1979 with ≥ 20 individuals each were available
124 from the Natural History Museums in Geneva and Lausanne (Table 1), with a total of 438
125 individuals originating from both lake and stream habitats. Due to the type of
126 preservation used and legislative restrictions, none of the museum specimens were
127 available for DNA extraction. In addition, a total of 659 individuals from sixteen
128 contemporary populations within the Lake Geneva system were collected between 2007
129 and 2013 using hand nets and minnow traps (Figure 1). Hereafter we refer to these two
130 categories of samples as either of “historical” or of “contemporary” origin, where we use
131 the term “population” to refer to a single sampling event for a geographic site at a given
132 point in time. Some contemporary populations were collected during an earlier study of
133 the invasive range of stickleback in Switzerland (Lucek *et al.*, 2010). Further effort was
134 then made to sample the same sites as those from which historical populations were
135 available. However, only at five of these sites could stickleback be observed and collected
136 (Table 1). For the population GEL3, only juvenile individuals were caught. Consequently
137 only genetic data was generated for this population. Populations were assigned to be

138 either lake or stream dwelling based on the habitat where they were sampled.
139 Contemporary individuals were preserved in 70% ethanol after taking a fin clip, which
140 was stored in absolute ethanol for genetic analysis.

141

142 *Morphological analysis*

143 Sixteen linear morphological traits were measured to the nearest 0.01 mm using a digital
144 calliper. These traits were either related to anti-predator defense, feeding ecology or
145 general body shape and swimming performance (Mori & Takamura, 2004; Lucek *et al.*,
146 2013; see Figure 2). Because all linear traits were significantly correlated with standard
147 length (results not shown), a size correction was applied. Each trait was first scaled by the
148 average trait value separately for each population as suggested by Houle (1992).

149 Subsequently, a linear regression of each trait against standard length was performed
150 separately for each population, retaining the residuals for further analysis (Berner *et al.*,
151 2010b). In addition to the linear measurements, the number of lateral plates on the left
152 flank was counted using a dissection microscope and then separately analysed.

153

154 Pairwise phenotypic comparisons between historical and contemporary populations from
155 the same site were performed for the five cases where such data was available: GES2,
156 VDL4, VDL6, VDS6, VSS3 (Table 1). The degree of phenotypic divergence was estimated
157 using pairwise P_{ST} based on principal component scores, following Kaeuffer *et al.* (2012),
158 where the 95% confidence interval of each P_{ST} was calculated using a resampling
159 approach with 1000 replicates. P_{ST} is used as a unit-less and scale-free proportional
160 measure of pairwise phenotypic divergence. In addition to P_{ST} , divergence between the
161 historical and contemporary p_{max} within a sampling site was estimated as the angle

162 between them. The significance of these angles to deviate from zero was determined using
163 a bootstrap resampling procedure with 1000 replicates following Berner (2009). This
164 approach calculates the probability of obtaining an angle between \mathbf{p}_{\max} that is equal to or
165 greater than our observed angle given the resampling variance if the true angle was zero.
166 For each iteration, the observed angle was subtracted from the bootstrapped angle for
167 each iteration. P values were subsequently calculated as the proportion of iterations
168 where the absolute angle difference is equal or greater than the observed angle. The
169 occupied morphospace of each population was additionally estimated as the ellipse size of
170 the 95% confidence interval based on the two leading PC axes. The same PC axes were
171 then used to estimate the shape of the \mathbf{P} matrix, measured by its eccentricity – the ratio of
172 its two leading eigenvectors – where for example increased directional selection can
173 result in higher eccentricity (Jones *et al.*, 2003). These calculations were performed using
174 all linear traits combined. In addition, feeding and defence related traits were separately
175 analysed because habitat dependent phenotypic divergence between parapatric lake and
176 stream stickleback populations occurs repeatedly in these trait categories whose selective
177 regime is relatively well understood (Lucek *et al.*, 2013). Both feeding and defence related
178 traits are furthermore known to be associated with high heritabilities (Leinonen *et al.*,
179 2011b; Lucek *et al.* 2014b). To account for multiple testing of the same hypothesis, the p
180 values for the angles between \mathbf{p}_{\max} were corrected using a Benjamini & Yekutieli
181 correction (Narum, 2006).

182

183 The overall multivariate phenotypic changes between *habitat* (lake and stream) or *time*
184 (historical and contemporary) were estimated by calculating the angles between the
185 leading eigenvectors \mathbf{p}_{\max} of each population against the overall \mathbf{p}_{\max} , where all individuals

186 were pooled. The overall \mathbf{p}_{\max} may consequently capture the major evolutionary
187 constraints in the entire data set, which may be similar for some populations but not
188 others. Following Schluter (1996), the angle between two \mathbf{p}_{\max} was calculated as the
189 inversed cosine of their dot product that is divided by the summed length of both \mathbf{p}_{\max} .
190 The statistical significance of each comparison was established using 1000 bootstrap
191 replicates and then corrected for multiple comparisons using a Benjamini & Yekutieli
192 correction. Obtained angles were subsequently tested for a significant association with
193 either *habitat*, *time* or their interaction using linear models, where the best fitting model
194 was determined using a stepwise backward procedure.

195

196 Lastly, a linear model was used to test if the lateral plate counts differ significantly
197 between historical and contemporary populations (i.e. *time*) as well as between lake and
198 stream populations (i.e. *habitat*). Because lateral plate counts do not follow a normal
199 distribution (Shapiro test: $W = 0.422$, $p < 0.001$) and because the variance in the number
200 of plates differed between historical and contemporary populations (Fligner-Killeen test:
201 $\chi_{21}^2 = 8.26$, $p = 0.004$) the number of plates were boxcox-transformed to meet the
202 assumptions of normality. Moreover, a variance function structure was included in the
203 model to allow for different variances between historical and contemporary populations
204 using the “varIdent” function in the R package “nlme” (Pinheiro and Bates 2000).
205 Population was included as a random effect. A stepwise backward deletion procedure was
206 then used to remove non-significant terms ($p > 0.05$). Fixed effects were subsequently
207 tested for significance using two-tailed, Type II F values (Fox, 2002). Model selection was
208 done using maximum likelihood while parameter estimates of mixed models were

209 obtained via restricted maximum likelihood (Pinheiro and Bates 2000). All statistical
210 analyses were performed in R 2.15.1 (R Core Team, 2012).

211

212 *Genetic analysis*

213 In total, 403 individuals from 16 contemporary sites within the Rhone drainage were
214 genotyped at nine microsatellites (Table 1), of which three markers (Stn26, Stn96,
215 Stn130) are putatively linked to QTLs related to spine lengths (Peichel *et al.*, 2001). In
216 addition, 147 individuals from five populations within the invasive range of stickleback in
217 Switzerland outside the Rhone drainage system were included to test for potential gene
218 flow between drainage systems. DNA for all individuals was extracted using a 10% Chelex
219 solution, following the manufacturers protocol (Biorad, California, USA). All
220 microsatellites were amplified in one multiplex kit. Detailed information on the marker
221 identity, the multiplexing setup and the PCR protocol can be found in Lucek *et al.* (2014a).
222 Alleles were visualized on an ABI 3130XL and scored with GENEMAPPER 4.0 (Applied
223 Biosystems, Switzerland).

224

225 Pairwise genetic F_{ST} were calculated with GENODIVE 2.0B22 (Meirmans & Van Tienderen,
226 2004) using 100,000 bootstrap replicates to assess significance. The pairwise F_{ST} values
227 were subsequently adjusted for multiple comparisons using a Benjamini & Yekutieli
228 correction. To test for an isolation-by-distance pattern of genetic differentiation within
229 the Lake Geneva drainage, the pairwise F_{ST} values were correlated with pairwise minimal
230 waterway distances using a Mantel test with 10,000 bootstrap replicates to assess
231 significance. The genetic structure was further assessed using an admixture model
232 implemented in STRUCTURE 2.3.4 (Falush *et al.*, 2007) with 30,000 burn in steps followed

233 by 300,000 MCMC steps. The analysis was performed assuming any number of genetic
234 clusters (K) between 1 and 15, with 10 replicates for each assumed K. The optimal
235 number of clusters was determined based on the log likelihood of each run and its
236 variation among runs for the same K, following Evanno et al. (2005). To further infer the
237 genetic relationships among populations, a neighbour joining tree, based on Cavalli-Sforza
238 distances among populations was constructed. Statistical support for each node of the
239 inferred tree was obtained using a bootstrap procedure with 1000 replicates in PHYLIP
240 3.69 (Felsenstein 2012).

241

242 In addition, 639 individuals from all contemporary populations within the Rhone drainage
243 were genotyped for *Stn382*, following the protocols of Colosimo et al. (2005). The primers
244 flank a 60 bp indel in intron 1 of the *Eda* gene, yielding either a 158 bp allele – *Eda_L*,
245 associated with the low plated phenotype or a 218 bp allele – *Eda_C*, associated with the
246 fully plated phenotype (Colosimo *et al.*, 2005). PCR products were separated on a 1.5 %
247 agarose gel, and genotypes were scored by eye. Because the *Eda* gene and its associated
248 marker *Stn382* are potentially under strong selection (Barrett *et al.*, 2008), *Stn382* was
249 excluded from the abovementioned population based analyses. To test for an association
250 between the presence of the *Eda_C* allele and *habitat*, a generalized linear mixed model was
251 used, treating population as a random factor and assuming a binomial error distribution.
252 The significance of the differences between groups was assessed using a likelihood ratio
253 test.

254

255 Finally, assuming that the presence of the *Eda_C* allele in the Lake Geneva region coincides
256 with the presence of other alleles from the Lake Constance region (Lucek *et al.*, 2010), the

257 frequency of both *Edac* and Lake Constance specific microsatellite alleles were compared
258 between habitats. The latter were defined as the private alleles of both Constance
259 populations combined in comparison to the population from the Lake Geneva system that
260 showed the lowest degree of introgression in the STRUCTURE analysis, i.e. VDS6. The
261 frequency of these Constance private alleles was subsequently estimated for all other
262 populations in the Lake Geneva region. To further test for habitat-specific and potentially
263 adaptive introgression of the *Edac* allele within the Lake Geneva system, the difference
264 between the allele frequencies of both marker types was calculated for each population.
265 Comparisons between habitats were performed using *t* tests.

266

267 **Results**

268 *Morphology*

269 Within a sampling site, **P** matrices commonly changed through time both in their shape
270 and their leading eigenvector \mathbf{p}_{\max} (Table 2, Figure 3). However, changes in the **P** matrix
271 and the levels of pairwise phenotypic divergence (P_{ST}) varied among sites and trait
272 combinations. Combining all traits, the 95% confidence interval of the P_{STs} between
273 historical and contemporary samples from the same site exceeded zero in four (Table 2)
274 and \mathbf{p}_{\max} differed within sites over time, i.e. showed a significant angle between historical
275 and contemporary \mathbf{p}_{\max} in all but one case. Using either only feeding or defence related
276 traits, \mathbf{p}_{\max} did not differ between historical and contemporary populations except for
277 VSS3 for both trait categories and GES2 for feeding related traits. The size and shape of
278 the **P** matrix changed over time (Figure 3), with the phenotypic variation captured by the
279 two leading PC axes decreasing over time in many populations, especially when all traits
280 were analysed together and for defence traits only (Table 2; Figure 3). Phenotypic

281 variation increased however in three of five populations for feeding related traits (VDS6,
282 VDL4, VDL6) and eccentricity changed over time in many sites.

283

284 When comparing the p_{\max} of each sampled population against the overall p_{\max} combining
285 all traits, the best model explaining the angles between them retained only *time* as a
286 significant factor when all traits were used: Historical populations have a significantly
287 smaller angle against the overall p_{\max} than contemporary populations ($F_{1,18} = 10.4$, $p =$
288 0.005 , Table 3, Figure 4a and d). When defence related traits were analysed on their own,
289 the retained best model included only *habitat*, with lake populations having significantly
290 larger angles against the overall p_{\max} ($F_{1,18} = 25.2$, $p < 0.001$, Figure 4b and e). Considering
291 feeding related phenotypic traits on their own, the best statistical model showed a
292 significant interaction between *habitat* and *time* ($F_{1,16} = 5.53$, $p = 0.032$), where historical
293 lake populations had larger angles than contemporary ones against the overall p_{\max} ,
294 whereas this difference was inversed for the stream populations (Figure 4c and f, Table
295 3). *Habitat* was furthermore marginally significant ($F_{1,16} = 4.53$, $p = 0.049$) with lake
296 populations showing relatively larger angles than stream populations.

297

298 *Genetic structure*

299 The global F_{ST} values within the Lake Geneva system, calculated separately for each
300 microsatellite marker, did not statistically differ between putatively QTL linked and
301 neutral markers (Wilcoxon $W = 9$, $p = 0.999$). Consequently all microsatellite markers
302 were pooled for the subsequent analyses. When analysing the contemporary samples
303 from Lake Geneva together with those from France and the Swiss Rhine catchment, two
304 genetic clusters ($K=2$) was the best supported K in STRUCTURE as inferred by the method of

305 Evanno *et al.* (Evanno *et al.*, 2005). The two clusters separate the Rhone drainage from
306 populations in the Aare/Rhine drainage (Bern, Constance) except for Neuchatel (VDS2;
307 Figure 5a), which was mainly assigned to the Rhone drainage cluster with clear
308 indications of genetic admixture with the Aare/Rhine drainage stickleback. Low levels of
309 introgression from the Rhone drainage into the Aare/Rhine drainage were moreover
310 observed in the Bern populations. STRUCTURE suggests that introgression also occurred
311 from the Aare/Rhine drainage into the Lake Geneva catchment, particularly into the lake
312 populations. The neighbour joining tree further suggests a single genetic clade for all
313 populations from the Rhone drainage. The Neuchatel and Bern populations are resolved
314 as intermediate between Geneva and Constance, consistent with a hybrid origin (Figure
315 5b; Lucek *et al.* 2010).

316

317 Populations within the Lake Geneva region were generally genetically differentiated from
318 populations in the Aare/Rhine drainage (all $F_{ST} > 0.200$ and $p < 0.001$; Table S1). The only
319 exception was the population VDS2 from Lake Neuchatel, which was not significantly
320 differentiated from five of our populations in the Lake Geneva region, where the lowest
321 F_{ST} was observed between this population and its geographically closest population in
322 Lake Geneva (VDS2-VDL2: $F_{ST} = 0.008$, $p = 0.129$). The southern Rhone population (FrAS)
323 showed increased genetic differentiation from all populations in the Lake Geneva region
324 (all pairwise $F_{ST} \geq 0.098$ and $p = 0.001$). Within the Lake Geneva region, considerable
325 genetic structure was observed (global $F_{ST} = 0.030$, $p < 0.001$), which was not explained by
326 geographic distance (Mantel $r = 0.199$, $p = 0.069$). The overall genetic differentiation
327 between lake and stream populations within the Lake Geneva region, pooling all

328 individuals from either habitat, was not significant ($F_{ST} = 0.002$, $p = 0.696$), speaking
329 against a colonization of the two habitats by distinct stickleback lineages.

330

331 *Lateral plate phenotype/genotype-environment associations*

332 In concordance with historical reports and consistent with the genetic lineage that
333 dominates the lake, (Lucek *et al.*, 2010 and references therein), fully plated individuals
334 were absent from Lake Geneva in all historical populations (Figure 6). Nevertheless few
335 historical individuals had some additional plates close to their structural plates. Such a
336 phenotype is however not necessarily associated with the presence of the *Eda_C* allele,
337 which commonly underlies highly plated phenotypes (Lucek *et al.*, 2012b). In contrast,
338 fully and intermediately plated individuals were numerous among contemporary
339 populations. The best statistical model that explained the overall variation in lateral plate
340 number included significant contributions of both *time* and *habitat* with a non-significant
341 interaction ($F_{1,19} = 0.8$, $p = 0.380$). Overall, stream dwelling populations had a significantly
342 lower number of plates than lake dwelling populations ($F_{1,20} = 22.1$, $p < 0.001$), while
343 contemporary populations had more plates than historical populations ($F_{1,20} = 8.1$, $p =$
344 0.010 ; Figure 6). The presence of highly plated individuals among contemporary samples
345 coincides with the occurrence of the *Eda_C* allele, where *Eda* was significantly correlated
346 with the number of lateral plates ($R^2 = 0.838$, $p < 0.001$). In accordance with the observed
347 habitat dependent differences in lateral plate numbers, the presence of the *Eda_C* allele was
348 significantly higher in the lake than in the stream habitats for contemporary individuals
349 (likelihood ratio test = 4.24, $p < 0.001$), suggesting habitat dependent selection.

350

351 The frequency of Lake Constance private alleles did not statistically differ between
352 habitats within the Lake Geneva system ($t_{1,13} = 1.84, p = 0.089$; Figure 7). In contrast, the
353 population based Eda_C allele frequency was significantly higher among lake populations
354 ($t_{1,13} = 2.88, p = 0.027$). The frequency of Eda_C was moreover significantly higher than
355 expected from the frequency of Constance derived alleles in the lake ($t_{1,13} = 2.82, p =$
356 0.029).

357

358 Discussion

359

360 Whereas empirical evidence suggests that rapid phenotypic evolution during the
361 colonization of contrasting habitats occurs frequently (e.g. Johnston & Selander, 1964;
362 Hendry *et al.*, 2000; Koskinen *et al.*, 2002; Matesanz *et al.*, 2012), the role of genetic
363 constraints (Schluter, 1996), gene flow and adaptive introgression are far less understood
364 (e.g. Lavergne & Molofsky, 2007; Rieseberg, 2011). Combining phenotypic and population
365 genetic data, we explored the evolutionary changes that underlie the rapid emergence of
366 parapatric ecotypes in stickleback in the Lake Geneva region (Lucek *et al.*, 2013). We had
367 access to preserved individuals from museum collections starting in 1921, ~50 years after
368 stickleback were introduced, and had our own collections from about 90 years later.
369 Hence, we studied phenotypic evolution over the second half of the 140 years since
370 colonization. Consistent with other studies on multivariate phenotypic evolution in
371 recently colonized habitats in different taxa (Badyaev, 2010; Eroukhmanoff & Svensson,
372 2011; Calsbeek *et al.*, 2011), we find phenotypic shifts through time at a given site, where
373 the phenotypic covariance (**P**) matrices changed in their shape, size and in some cases
374 their orientation (Table 2, Figure 3). Overall habitat dependent phenotypic divergence in

375 ecologically relevant morphology seems to have already evolved in the first ~50 years of
376 this biological invasion as lake and stream populations had a consistently different line of
377 least resistance (p_{\max}). For lateral plates, the extent of habitat dependent phenotypic
378 differentiation has increased from the historical to the contemporary samples (Figure 6).
379 This is likely a result of recent introgression of alleles from a distantly related lineage,
380 outside the Lake Geneva region, that experience divergent selection between habitats
381 (Figure 5 & 7). Thus, introgression of adaptive variation through hybridisation may have
382 contributed to the increased parapatric phenotypic divergence over the last decades
383 (Rieseberg, 2011; Pardo-Diaz et al., 2012).

384

385 *Evidence for consistent parapatric ecotypic differentiation*

386 Both the occurrence and extent of parapatric ecotype formation depends among other
387 things on the underlying environmental and selective gradients (Endler, 1977; Doebeli &
388 Dieckmann, 2003). Parallel and consistent evolutionary divergence is therefore only
389 expected when the selective regimes are very similar among populations (Langerhans &
390 DeWitt, 2004; Kaeuffer *et al.*, 2012) and adaptive genetic variation is not limiting (Barrett
391 & Schluter, 2008). Cases of parapatric lake-stream stickleback systems provide both
392 evidence for parallelism and nonparallelism in the realized trait-specific divergence that
393 occur both on smaller geographical scales and between continents (Hendry & Taylor,
394 2004; Berner *et al.*, 2009; 2010a; Kaeuffer *et al.*, 2012; Ravinet *et al.*, 2013; Lucek *et al.*,
395 2013; 2014a). Parallel habitat dependent selection in stickleback occurs especially in
396 feeding and defence-related traits (Reimchen *et al.*, 1985; Hendry *et al.*, 2002; Kaeuffer *et*
397 *al.*, 2012; Ravinet *et al.*, 2013; Lucek *et al.*, 2013), where stream populations feed
398 predominantly on benthic food and experience a macroinvertebrate dominated predation

399 regime. In contrast, lake populations feed predominantly on zooplankton and have more
400 numerous and elongated gill rakers to filter small prey items (Reimchen *et al.*, 1985;
401 Hendry *et al.*, 2002; Berner *et al.*, 2008; Lucek *et al.*, 2012a; 2014b). They moreover have
402 elongated spines and an increased number of lateral plates, likely as a consequence of a
403 predation regime dominated by piscivorous fishes and birds (Reimchen, 1980; 1994;
404 Lucek *et al.*, 2013).

405

406 Although previous studies on Lake Geneva stickleback that focused on single lake-stream
407 pairs found habitat dependent phenotypic divergence that is comparable to other systems
408 (Berner *et al.*, 2010a; Lucek *et al.*, 2013), the evolutionary history and the degree of
409 parallelism within the Lake Geneva system was not assessed. In line with our predictions
410 and the results of the abovementioned studies, we find that p_{\max} for the same trait
411 categories differs significantly and consistently between lake and stream habitats when
412 comparing population based p_{\max} with the overall p_{\max} (*sensu* Schluter, 1996; Figure 4,
413 Table 3). Stickleback within the Lake Geneva system form a distinct genetic cluster
414 (Figure 5), where lake and stream populations do not differ genetically overall. This
415 suggests that habitat dependent phenotypic divergence likely evolved *in situ*, rather than
416 resulting from two distinct colonization events. The p_{\max} for feeding and defence related
417 traits are moreover comparable within each habitat (Figure 4, Table 3), indicating parallel
418 and consistent ecotypic divergence within the Lake Geneva region. Ecotype formation
419 may consequently be similarly constrained across our studied populations where the
420 overall divergent selective regime was likely stable through time.

421

422 However, phenotypic changes also occur within sites, i.e. between historical and
423 contemporary populations even a hundred years after the initial colonization of the Lake
424 Geneva region (Figure 3, Table 2), where \mathbf{P} matrices differ in terms of their morphospace
425 size, eccentricity and to some extent their directionality (\mathbf{p}_{\max}). Overall, we find decreased
426 phenotypic variation in defence-related traits among contemporary samples in
427 comparison to their historical counterparts (Figure 3, Table 2). Moreover, both P_{ST} and the
428 angle between \mathbf{p}_{\max} are significant between historical and contemporary populations in
429 only few cases and not for defence-related traits. Consequently, phenotypic evolution or
430 divergence that would change \mathbf{p}_{\max} seems to rarely occur at a given site for linear
431 morphology. This may suggest that adaptation to a local environment can occur rapidly
432 after its colonization especially for adaptive traits (e.g. feeding and defence-related traits
433 in stickleback), whereafter the average phenotype remains relatively stable over time and
434 may experience stabilizing selection (Jones *et al.*, 2004).

435

436 *On the tempo and mode of ecotype formation*

437 Adaptive phenotypic evolution can be rapid and emerge through phenotypic plasticity,
438 selection on standing genetic variation or a combination of both (Robinson & Wilson,
439 1996; Thompson, 1998; Hairston *et al.*, 2005; Carroll *et al.*, 2007; Dlugosch & Parker,
440 2008). Concomitantly, the \mathbf{P} matrix and its axis \mathbf{p}_{\max} should rapidly and consistently
441 diverge if new adaptive phenotypes are mainly produced by phenotypic plasticity (Lande,
442 2009; Draghi & Whitlock, 2012) or adaptation from standing genetic variation (Lande &
443 Shannon, 1996; Barrett & Schluter, 2008), which can be facilitated by introgression or
444 hybridization (Guillaume & Whitlock, 2007). Conversely, a gradual increase in divergence
445 between divergently adapted populations over many generations is expected if adapted

446 phenotypes need to evolve, where the \mathbf{P} matrix is realigning itself slowly towards a new
447 adaptive peak on the adaptive landscape (Schluter, 1996; Stepan *et al.*, 2002).
448
449 We find that habitat-dependent divergence may occur rapidly and may lead quickly to
450 some phenotypic differentiation between the populations inhabiting these habitats as \mathbf{p}_{\max}
451 differed already consistently between habitats among our historical samples (Figure 4).
452 However, we cannot tell from our data whether this early change was achieved by
453 phenotypic plasticity or fast but gradual evolution because our data series only starts ~50
454 years post colonization. Phenotypic plasticity may, in principle, promote the colonization
455 of distinct habitats and subsequent ecotype formation (Smith & Skúlason, 1996;
456 Ghalambor *et al.*, 2007). In such cases \mathbf{p}_{\max} may shift rapidly and \mathbf{p}_{\max} from different
457 populations may moreover align if they experience similar selective regimes (Lande,
458 2009; Draghi & Whitlock, 2012). However, the fact that we still observe changes in the
459 population specific \mathbf{P} matrix even a hundred years after the colonization of the Lake
460 Geneva system may suggest a gradual differentiation over time and concordantly a
461 heritable component of ecotypic divergence (Schluter, 1996) as has been found for other
462 stickleback populations in Switzerland that evolved over a similar time scale (Lucek *et al.*
463 2014b). The relatively recent introgression from the differentiated stickleback lineage
464 dominating the East of Switzerland may have introduced additional adaptive genetic
465 variation that facilitated the observed phenotypic changes.

466

467 *Evidence for adaptive introgression*

468 Because the potential of a population to colonize and adapt to a new environment
469 depends on the availability of adaptive standing genetic variation (Sakai *et al.*, 2001;

470 Barrett & Schluter, 2008), it can potentially be fuelled by gene flow, introducing novel
471 beneficial alleles followed by introgression or hybridization (Lavergne & Molofsky, 2007;
472 Guillaume & Whitlock, 2007; Rieseberg, 2011; Pardo-Diaz *et al.*, 2012). Using nuclear
473 markers, we indeed find indications for a secondary introduction and subsequent
474 introgression from the Aare/Rhine system into the Lake Geneva system (Figure 5), where
475 stickleback are thought to derive from a single introduction event about 140 years ago.
476 Based on mitochondrial haplotypes, they originate from a genetic lineage of the Southern
477 Rhone that is fixed for both the low plated phenotype and the *Eda_L* allele (Lucek *et al.*,
478 2010). In contrast, we find highly plated individuals and concomitantly the *Eda_C* allele to
479 be present among our contemporary populations, where the *Eda* genotype is associated
480 with the number of lateral plates. The *Eda_C* allele was likely introduced from the
481 Aare/Rhine system given the pattern observed for the microsatellite markers (Figure 5).
482 This is further supported by the fact that *Eda_C* haplotypes in the Lake Geneva region are
483 shared with the Aare/Rhine system (Berner *et al.*, 2010a).

484

485 Both the different lateral plate phenotypes as well as the different *Eda* alleles themselves
486 are known to experience divergent habitat-dependent selection (Reimchen, 1994; Barrett
487 *et al.*, 2008; Zeller *et al.*, 2012 and references therein), where even small changes in the
488 average lateral plate number can be adaptive (Reimchen, 1994; 2000). A more fully plated
489 body, and hence the presence of the *Eda_C* allele, is thought to be beneficial to protect
490 against attacks from piscivorous predators by increasing the probability of surviving an
491 attack (Reimchen, 1994). A lower number of plates and the associated *Eda_L* allele, on the
492 other hand may increase the rate of handling failures by macroinvertebrate predators
493 (Reimchen, 1994; Marchinko, 2009). Consistent with these predictions, we find lake

494 populations in the Lake Geneva region to have a slightly yet significantly increased
495 number of plates compared to stream populations already in the first half of the 20th
496 century (Figure 6), with phenotypes that can be expressed in the absence of the *Eda_C*
497 allele (Colosimo *et al.*, 2005; Cano *et al.*, 2006; Le Rouzic *et al.*, 2011; Lucek *et al.*, 2012b).
498 Coinciding with the presence of the *Eda_C* allele, the phenotypic differentiation is much
499 increased among contemporary populations, mainly due to the presence of many highly
500 plated individuals in lake populations. The frequency of *Eda_C* moreover significantly
501 exceeds that of other Lake Constance derived alleles within the lake environment (Figure
502 7). This is overall consistent with adaptive introgression (Rieseberg, 2011; Pardo-Diaz *et al.*,
503 2012), where positive selection leads to the disproportionate increase in the frequency
504 of an adaptive allele as for *Eda_C* in the lake environment.

505

506 *Conclusions*

507 Taken together, our results provide a case of rapid and repeated ecotype formation that is
508 associated with consistent evolutionary divergence among populations through time.
509 Moreover, parapatric ecotype formation has resulted in similar and hence predictable
510 phenotypic axes for ecologically relevant trait categories. Divergent habitat-dependent
511 selection appears to have led to some spatially consistent phenotypic differentiation
512 among populations inhabiting these habitats early on. More recent adaptive introgression
513 may then have facilitated further adaptive differentiation among ecotypes in anti-
514 predator related traits. Our study thus provides evidence on the role of evolutionary
515 constraints, gene flow and adaptive introgression during the colonization of novel
516 environments and subsequent ecotype formation.

517

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731

732 Figure 1: Map of Switzerland (© SwissTopo 2012) with all Swiss sampling sites indicated
733 (see table 1 for details). The colors of waterways represent the two major drainage
734 systems of western Switzerland, i.e. Rhone (blue) and the Aare/Rhine system (green).

735

736 Figure 2: Linear measurements that were taken either from the left flank a) or the ventral
737 side b) of each specimen. Traits were categorized as either anti-predator defence (red),
738 feeding ecology (green) or body shape and swimming performance (blue). Trait
739 abbreviations are as follow: FSL -length of the first dorsal spine; SSL - length of the second
740 dorsal spine; PSL - length of the pelvic spine; PGL - length of the pelvic girdle; HL - head
741 length; UJL - upper jaw length; SnL - snout length; ED - eye diameter; SL - standard length;
742 PGW - width of the pelvic girdle; BD1 - body depth measured after the first dorsal spine;
743 BD2 - body depth measured after the second dorsal spine; caudal peduncle length; BLA -
744 basal length of the anal fin; BLD - basal length of the dorsal fin; TLP - total length of the
745 pelvic fin.

746

747 Figure 3: Principal component scores based on either all linear morphological traits (left),
748 defense related traits (middle) or feeding related traits only (right) for the two leading
749 principal component axes. Only sites are shown where both historical and contemporary
750 populations were available. Ellipsoids represent the 95% CI with contemporary samples
751 in red and historical samples in blue and green. The relative changes between historical

752 and contemporary samples (Δ) in eccentricity and phenotypic variation, i.e. the size of the
753 95% CI ellipsoid, are indicated (see Table 2 for details).

754

755 Figure 4: The angle against a common p_{\max} for each population and year for either all
756 traits combined or defense or feeding related traits only (see Table S1). The major axis of
757 phenotypic variation (p_{\max}) for each population is given for lake (a - c) and stream (d - f)
758 populations, separating historical (dashed) and contemporary (continuous line) sampling
759 events. *P* values are calculated from bootstrapping with 1000 replicates. Boldfaced
760 populations indicate cases where p_{\max} differed significantly after applying a Benjamini &
761 Yekutieli correction for multiple comparisons (see main text for details).

762

763 Figure 5: Genetic relationship among individuals and populations within Lake Geneva and
764 Switzerland (Constance, Bern and Neuchatel) as well as a population from the Rhone river
765 downstream of Lake Geneva (France) based on nine microsatellites. a) Individual based
766 assignments using STRUCTURE for the best supported number of clusters, $K = 2$. The
767 respective habitat where populations were samples is indicated (L = Lake, S = Stream). b)
768 Unrooted neighbour joining tree based on Cavalli-Sforza distances calculated from
769 population allele frequencies. Bold numbers indicate the support for each node based on
770 1000 bootstrap replicates. Only values with more than 50% bootstrap support are given.
771 See table 1 for details of each population.

772

773 Figure 6: Number of lateral plates in each population for both historical and
774 contemporary stream and lake populations. *P* values for significance of differences
775 between habitats are based on *post hoc t* tests associated with fixed-effect parameters in a
776 linear model that included the non-significant interaction between *time* (historical and
777 contemporary) and *habitat* (lake and stream; see main text for details). The average
778 number of plates for each habitat is reported above the boxplots. Pie plots indicate the
779 allele frequency of the two *Stn382* alleles (white – L allele, black – C allele). No phenotypic
780 data was available for the GEL3 population (see Table 1 for details).

781

782 Figure 7: Frequency of the *Edac* allele (circles) and other alleles that introgressed from the
783 Lake Constance region (triangles) for each contemporary population within the Lake
784 Geneva region. Sites are ordered according to the minimal waterway distance,
785 downstream of VSS3. Stream sites are depicted in black, lake sites in grey.

1 Table 1: Summary of the threespine stickleback populations studied, where population refers to a single sampling event (one point in
 2 time) per site. For each site the ID, the catchment, the habitat where individuals were caught are indicated. The coordinates for each
 3 location are additionally provided. For historical populations the year of collection, the number of individuals available for morphology
 4 ($N_{\text{Morphology}}$) and the respective museum ID (NHMG=Natural History Museum Geneva, NHML= Natural History Museum Lausanne) are
 5 given. For contemporary populations, the year of collection, the number of individuals available for morphology ($N_{\text{Morphology}}$),
 6 microsatellites ($N_{\text{µsat}}$) and the *Eda* linked marker *Stn382* (N_{Stn382}) are indicated. Site IDs consist of two letters for Swiss sites, which are
 7 consistent with a prior study (Lucek *et al.* 2010) and three letters for the French site, followed by the habitat type (L, lake; and S, stream)
 8 and by a serial number.
 9

Site ID	Catchment	Habitat	Coordinates	Year	Historical		Contemporary			
					$N_{\text{Morphology}}$	Museum ID	Year	$N_{\text{Morphology}}$	$N_{\text{µsat}}$	N_{Stn382}
VSS3	Geneva	Stream	46°16'45" N 7°30'55" E	1921	84	NHMG-816	2009	96	26	96
VDS6	Geneva	Stream	46°20'52" N 6°54'38" E	1958	36	NHML-163	2012	32	32	32
				1964	28	NHML-4216, -4772				
GES2	Geneva	Stream	46°11'48" N 6°11'30" E	1979	35	NHMG-2063, -2064	2009	42	32	42
VSS1	Geneva	Stream	46°12'50" N 7°18'53" E	-	-		2007	102	30	96
VSS2	Geneva	Stream	46°23'07" N 6°51'30" E	-	-		2007	59	32	59
GES1	Geneva	Stream	46°10'47" N 6°00'32" E	-	-		2008	36	32	36
GES3	Geneva	Stream	46°18'09" N 6°14'51" E	-	-		†2009	6	6	6
VSS4	Geneva	Stream	46°20'20" N 6°53'20" E	-	-		†2012	48	29	48
VDL4	Geneva	Lake	46°18'18" N 6°10'55" E	1967	20	NHML-6520	2010	30	32	23
VDL6	Geneva	Lake	46°23'45" N 6°53'18" E	1967	70	NHML-6465	2012	37	30	32
GEL1	Geneva	Lake	46°12'14" N 6°08'02" E	1978	34	NHMG-1592	-	-	-	-
GEL2	Geneva	Lake	46°12'10" N 6°07'54" E	1979	131	NHMG-2009	-	-	-	-
VDL2	Geneva	Lake	46°31'02" N 6°34'41" E	-	-		2008	40	30	40
VDL3	Geneva	Lake	46°23'38" N 6°55'18" E	-	-		2010	34	19	32
VDL5	Geneva	Lake	46°27'12" N 6°20'11" E	-	-		2010	30	16	30
VSL1	Geneva	Lake	46°23'09" N 6°51'29" E	-	-		†2012	36	28	37

GEL3	Geneva	Lake	46°17'57" N	6°14'32" E	-	-	2013	-	29	30
FrAS	Southern Rhone	Stream	45°58'04" N	5°17'40" E			2012	32	32	32
VDS2	Neuchatel	Stream	46°38'30" N	6°37'36" E			2008	-	31	-
BEL1	Bern	Lake	46°57'59" N	7°21'09" E			2007	-	30	-
BES4	Bern	Stream	46°59'31" N	7°24'42" E			2008	-	28	-
SGL1	Constance	Lake	47°29'08" N	9°32'38" E			2007	-	30	-
SGS1	Constance	Stream	47°19'33" N	9°34'41" E			2007	-	28	-

10

11 † Only the number of lateral plates was counted.

12 Table 2: Pairwise P_{ST} with its 95% confidence interval (CI) and angle between the leading eigenvectors of the P matrix for each historical
 13 vs. contemporary samples within the same site are given for either all traits combined or subsets using either only defense or only feeding
 14 related traits. In addition, the relative ellipse size and eccentricity for both the historical and contemporary population samples are given
 15 with the respective percentage difference. See table 1 for details of each population. P_{ST} values whose 95% CI does not include zero and
 16 significantly differentiated angles after a Benjamini and Yekutieli correction that was performed for site separately are highlighted in bold.

Site	Habitat	Year range	Traits	P_{ST}	95% CI	Angle	p_{Angle}	Relative ellipse size			Eccentricity		
								Historical	Contemporary	$\Delta\%$	Historical	Contemporary	$\Delta\%$
VSS3	Stream	1921-2009	All	0.000	0.000-0.227	55.9°	<0.001	0.398	0.327	-17.8	2.660	1.369	-48.5
			Defense	0.000	0.000-0.041	16.8°	<0.001	0.246	0.099	-59.8	6.432	5.305	-17.5
			Feeding	0.218	0.120-0.340	11.1°	0.016	0.120	0.091	-24.2	3.110	8.321	+167.6
VDS6	Stream	1958-1964	All	0.359	0.138-0.506	51.8°	<0.001	0.569	0.690	+21.3	1.557	1.490	-4.3
			Defense	0.041	0.000-0.175	11.5°	0.158	0.248	0.221	-10.9	4.868	11.535	+137.0
			Feeding	0.000	0.000-0.128	6.3°	0.409	0.239	0.149	-37.7	4.333	5.651	+30.4
VDS6	Stream	1958-2012	All	0.384	0.119-0.519	82.9°	<0.001	0.527	0.426	-19.2	1.557	2.115	+35.8
			Defense	0.000	0.000-0.059	3.8°	0.714	0.249	0.173	-30.5	4.868	2.947	-39.5
			Feeding	0.075	0.000-0.288	28.0°	0.165	0.229	0.276	+20.5	4.333	1.790	-58.7
VDS6	Stream	1964-2012	All	0.000	0.000-0.110	81.0°	<0.001	0.781	0.460	-41.1	1.490	2.115	+42.0
			Defense	0.000	0.000-0.075	7.7°	0.297	0.220	0.171	-22.3	11.535	2.948	-74.4
			Feeding	0.000	0.000-0.122	24.6°	0.222	0.137	0.279	+103.6	5.651	1.790	-68.3
GES2	Stream	1979-2009	All	0.326	0.041-0.709	10.9°	<0.001	0.460	0.221	-52.0	1.664	1.870	+12.4
			Defense	0.215	0.071-0.390	9.2°	0.062	0.185	0.095	-48.6	2.680	4.022	+50.1
			Feeding	0.000	0.000-0.163	4.4°	0.001	0.180	0.082	-54.4	5.394	6.278	+16.4
VDL4	Lake	1967-2010	All	0.000	0.000-0.139	41.7°	0.048	0.519	0.271	-47.8	3.188	1.469	-53.9
			Defense	0.000	0.000-0.108	12.4°	0.189	0.437	0.102	-76.7	5.776	3.599	-37.7
			Feeding	0.004	0.000-0.226	5.9°	0.773	0.112	0.136	+21.4	6.208	1.453	-76.6
VDL6	Lake	1967-2012	All	0.109	0.013-0.251	74.4°	<0.001	0.421	0.422	+0.2	1.247	1.761	+41.2
			Defense	0.010	0.000-0.088	3.8°	0.486	0.187	0.110	-41.2	5.310	6.028	+13.4
			Feeding	0.016	0.000-0.120	7.7°	0.092	0.101	0.199	+97.0	5.479	5.057	-7.7

18

19 Table 3: Angle between the leading eigenvector of the P matrix for each population and the leading eigenvector for all populations pooled
 20 using either all linear measurements or a subset with defense or feeding related traits only. *P* values are based on bootstrapping with 1000
 21 replicates. Significant values after a Benjamini and Yekutieli correction that was performed for each trait group separately are highlighted
 22 in bold (see main text for details). See Table 1 for details of each population.

Site	Habitat	Year	<i>All traits</i>		<i>Defense traits</i>		<i>Feeding traits</i>	
			Angle °	<i>p</i>	Angle °	<i>p</i>	Angle °	<i>p</i>
VSS3	Stream	1921	18.4	0.057	9.8	0.023	1.2	0.139
VDS6	Stream	1958	63.3	<0.001	6.0	0.003	1.8	0.032
VDS6	Stream	1964	22.7	0.192	6.0	0.107	2.1	0.019
GES2	Stream	1979	66.3	<0.001	13.5	<0.001	2.2	0.033
VSS1	Stream	2007	75.7	<0.001	7.3	0.001	3.0	<0.001
VSS2	Stream	2007	51.4	<0.001	1.3	0.855	4.0	0.002
GES1	Stream	2008	73.3	<0.001	8.1	0.015	3.3	0.017
GES2	Stream	2009	38.4	0.027	10.2	0.005	2.9	0.013
VSS3	Stream	2009	65.0	<0.001	12.1	0.002	2.1	0.002
VDS6	Stream	2012	64.5	<0.001	3.2	0.390	12.2	0.086
FrAS	Stream	2012	51.2	<0.001	7.6	0.018	1.2	0.403
VDL4	Lake	1967	31.5	0.204	20.0	0.060	5.4	0.027
VDL6	Lake	1967	22.0	0.285	14.2	0.007	8.9	0.002
GEL1	Lake	1978	22.3	0.075	24.4	0.004	12.5	0.094
GEL2	Lake	1979	11.0	0.171	14.1	0.027	5.8	<0.001
VDL2	Lake	2008	16.6	0.136	9.7	0.030	3.2	0.042
VDL3	Lake	2010	86.0	<0.001	17.7	0.001	3.5	0.015
VDL4	Lake	2010	63.4	<0.001	25.3	<0.001	2.7	0.357
VDL5	Lake	2010	87.6	<0.001	22.5	<0.001	7.1	0.011

VDL6	Lake 2012	86.4	<0.001	13.5	0.001	5.2	0.001
Average Stream (± 1 SD)		53.9 (± 20.6)		7.8 (± 3.8)		3.5 (± 3.2)	
Average Lake (± 1 SD)		47.4 (± 32.9)		17.9 (± 5.4)		6.0 (± 3.1)	

24

25 Table S1: Pairwise F_{ST} values for all genotyped contemporary populations based on nine microsatellites (lower triangle). Significant
 26 comparisons after a Benjamini and Yekutieli correction, based on 100,000 bootstrap replicates are highlighted in bold, with the actual p
 27 values given in the upper triangle. See Table 1 for details of each population.

		Lake Geneva system														Other populations						
		GES1	GES2	GES3	GEL3	VDL4	VDL5	VDL2	VDL3	VDL6	VSL1	VSS2	VDS6	VSS4	VSS1	VSS3	FrAS1	VDS2	BEL1	BES4	SGL1	SGS1
Lake Geneva system	GES1	-	0.001	0.026	0.161	0.003	0.003	0.195	0.262	0.042	0.051	0.005	0.178	0.017	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	GES2	0.079	-	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.003	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	GES3	0.056	0.214	-	0.071	0.021	0.042	0.030	0.246	0.009	0.019	0.184	0.021	0.046	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.046	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	GEL3	0.006	0.068	0.034	-	0.762	0.141	0.450	0.294	0.208	0.165	0.636	0.403	0.158	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.004	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VDL4	0.027	0.069	0.057	-0.006	-	0.246	0.027	0.011	0.083	0.061	0.751	0.019	0.115	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VDL5	0.043	0.067	0.068	0.011	0.007	-	0.086	0.291	0.570	0.320	0.339	0.079	0.672	0.236	0.002	0.001	0.005	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VDL2	0.006	0.049	0.048	0.000	0.017	0.018	-	0.246	0.146	0.294	0.070	0.094	0.108	0.001	0.005	0.001	0.129	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VDL3	0.005	0.075	0.020	0.003	0.024	0.006	0.006	-	0.571	0.117	0.065	0.765	0.114	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.005	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VDL6	0.015	0.041	0.071	0.005	0.010	-0.004	0.007	-0.002	-	0.721	0.152	0.628	0.490	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VSL1	0.015	0.050	0.070	0.007	0.013	0.004	0.003	0.012	-0.005	-	0.231	0.175	0.693	0.014	0.006	0.001	0.011	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VSS2	0.024	0.092	0.019	-0.004	-0.006	0.003	0.014	0.015	0.007	0.005	-	0.043	0.800	0.003	0.003	0.001	0.009	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VDS6	0.006	0.065	0.063	0.001	0.021	0.022	0.010	-0.008	-0.003	0.007	0.017	-	0.041	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VSS4	0.021	0.088	0.044	0.007	0.009	-0.007	0.010	0.010	-0.001	-0.005	-0.007	0.015	-	0.143	0.007	0.001	0.010	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VSS1	0.077	0.115	0.090	0.058	0.047	0.007	0.053	0.048	0.031	0.021	0.030	0.065	0.008	-	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
VSS3	0.057	0.102	0.112	0.046	0.043	0.052	0.030	0.072	0.049	0.035	0.032	0.072	0.029	0.050	-	0.001	0.012	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	
Other populations	FrAS1	0.098	0.222	0.135	0.121	0.116	0.153	0.127	0.141	0.140	0.112	0.105	0.154	0.105	0.127	0.117	-	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	VDS2	0.024	0.075	0.038	0.025	0.030	0.039	0.008	0.027	0.028	0.020	0.023	0.045	0.020	0.045	0.022	0.083	-	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
	BEL1	0.257	0.335	0.232	0.255	0.268	0.229	0.234	0.230	0.264	0.259	0.251	0.296	0.236	0.238	0.234	0.266	0.175	-	0.584	0.001	0.001
	BES4	0.262	0.337	0.246	0.259	0.272	0.237	0.240	0.236	0.274	0.272	0.262	0.302	0.251	0.254	0.242	0.269	0.185	-0.002	-	0.001	0.001
	SGL1	0.338	0.394	0.295	0.344	0.363	0.331	0.303	0.299	0.349	0.352	0.352	0.379	0.341	0.343	0.346	0.396	0.245	0.144	0.157	-	0.040
	SGS1	0.357	0.413	0.312	0.359	0.378	0.347	0.327	0.313	0.364	0.370	0.368	0.393	0.358	0.360	0.370	0.417	0.265	0.149	0.163	0.014	-

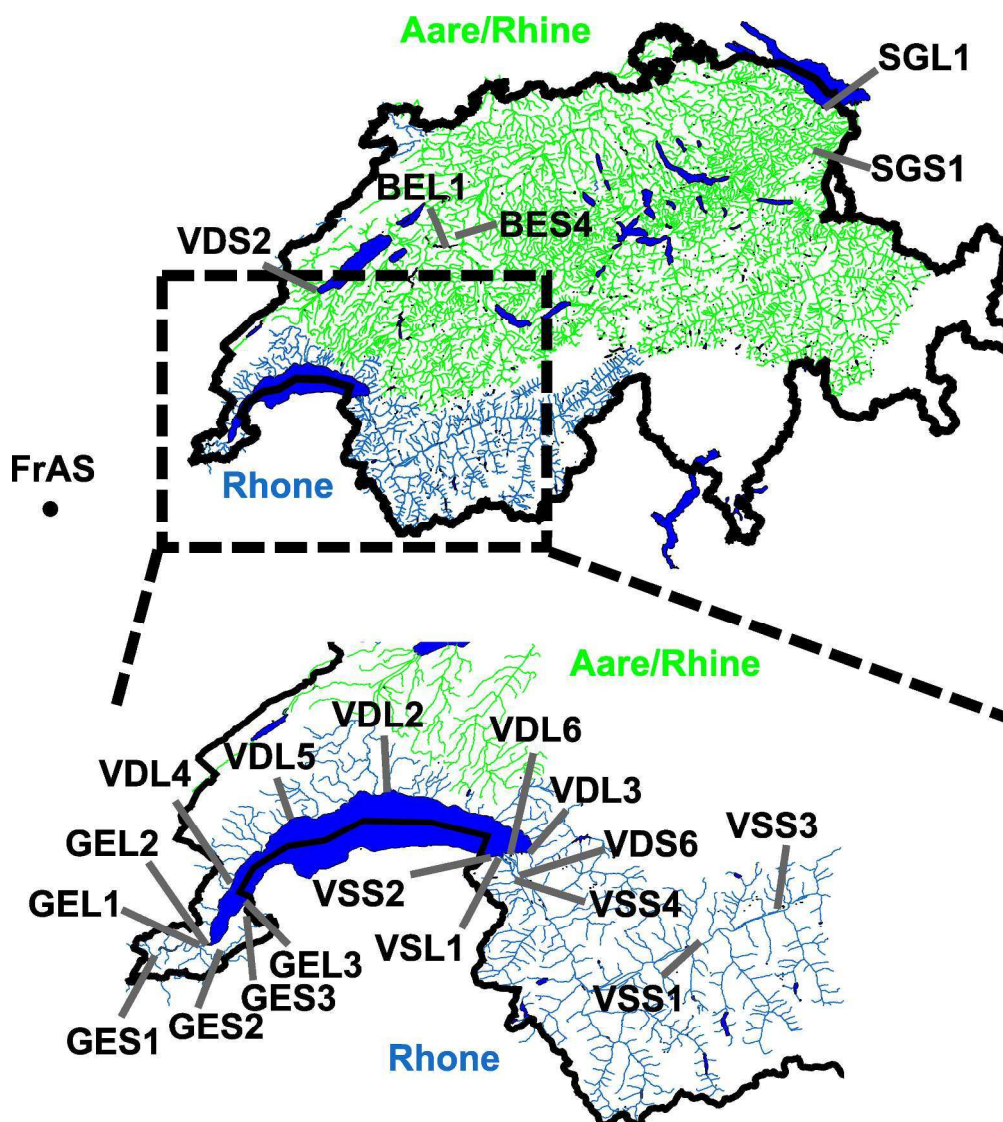


Figure 1: Map of Switzerland (© SwissTopo 2012) with all Swiss sampling sites indicated (see table 1 for details). The colors of waterways represent the two major drainage systems of western Switzerland, i.e. Rhone (blue) and the Aare/Rhine system (green).

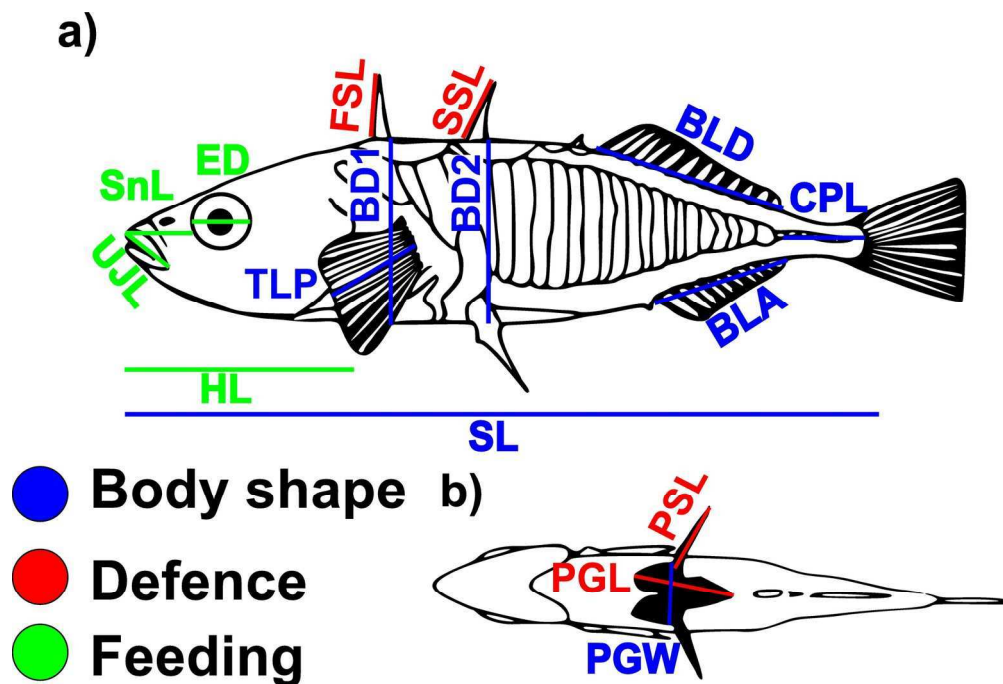


Figure 2: Linear measurements that were taken either from the left flank a) or the ventral side b) of each specimen. Traits were categorized as either anti-predator defence (red), feeding ecology (green) or body shape and swimming performance (blue). Trait abbreviations are as follow: FSL -length of the first dorsal spine; SSL - length of the second dorsal spine; PSL - length of the pelvic spine; PGL - length of the pelvic girdle; HL - head length; UJL - upper jaw length; SnL - snout length; ED - eye diameter; SL - standard length; PGW - width of the pelvic girdle; BD1 - body depth measured after the first dorsal spine; BD2 - body depth measured after the second dorsal spine; caudal peduncle length; BLA - basal length of the anal fin; BLD - basal length of the dorsal fin; TLP - total length of the pelvic fin.

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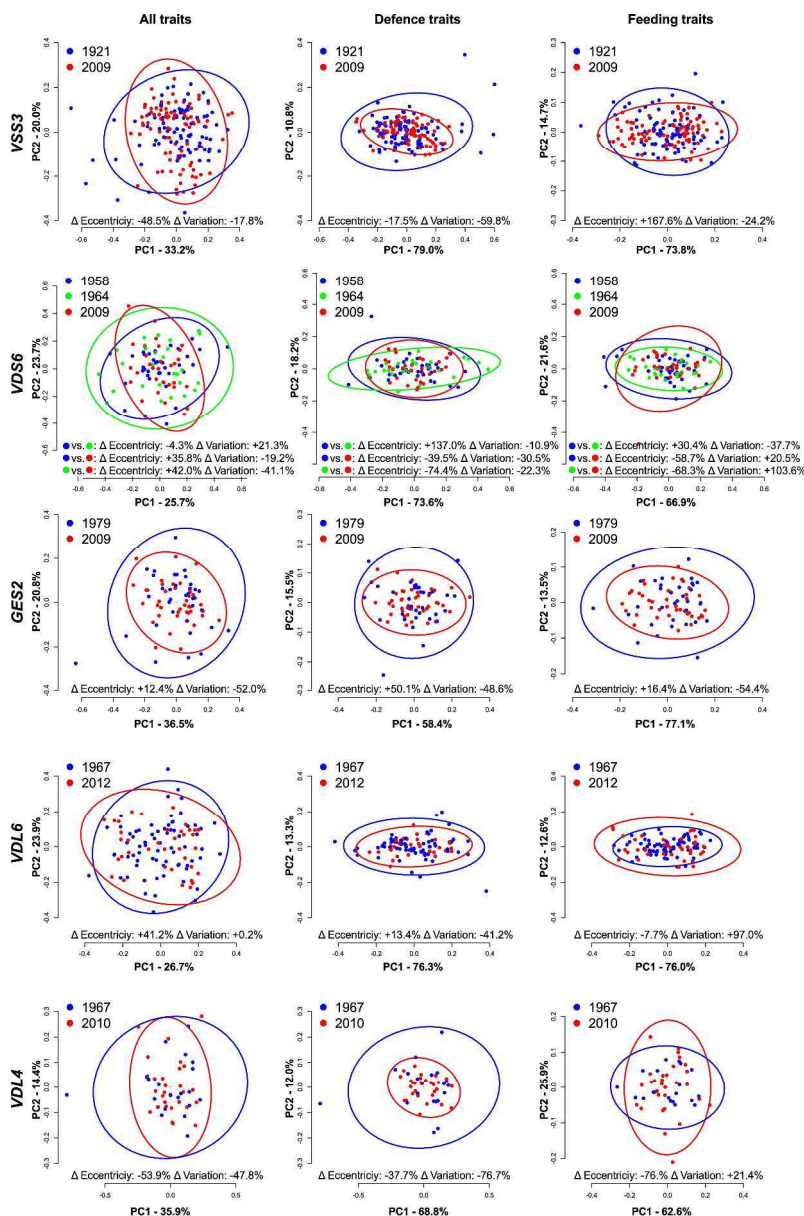


Figure 3: Principal component scores based on either all linear morphological traits (left), defense related traits (middle) or feeding related traits only (right) for the two leading principal component axes. Only sites are shown where both historical and contemporary populations were available. Ellipsoids represent the 95% CI with contemporary samples in red and historical samples in blue and green. The relative changes between historical and contemporary samples (Δ) in eccentricity and phenotypic variation, i.e. the size of the 95% CI ellipsoid, are indicated (see Table 2 for details).

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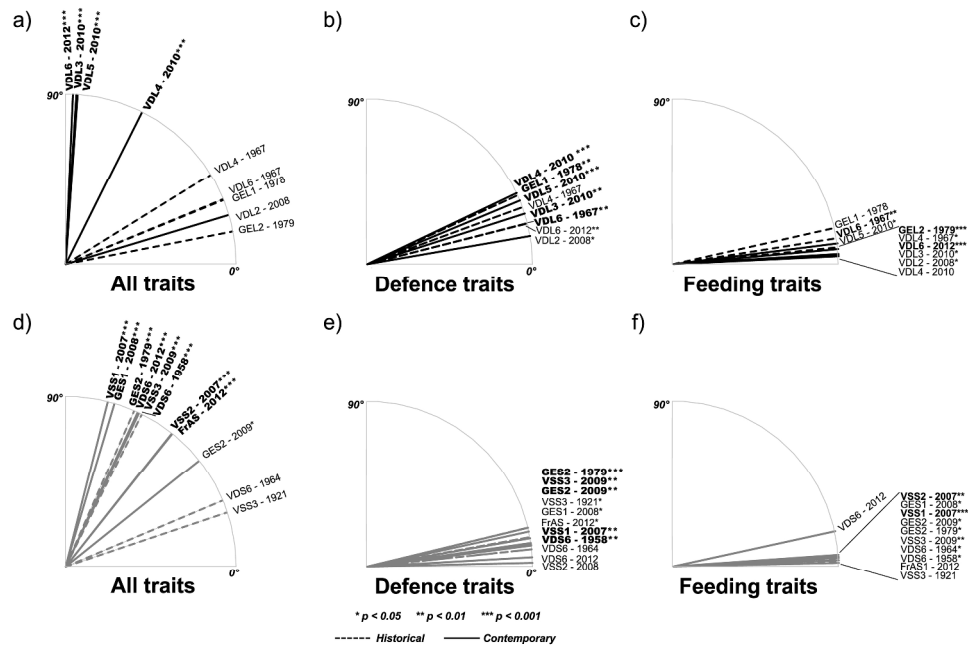


Figure 4: The angle against a common pmax for each population and year for either all traits combined or defence or feeding related traits only (see Table S1). The major axis of phenotypic variation (pmax) for each population is given for lake (a - c) and stream (d - f) populations, separating historical (dashed) and contemporary (continuous line) sampling events. P values are calculated from bootstrapping with 1000 replicates. Boldfaced populations indicate cases where pmax differed significantly after applying a Benjamini & Yekutieli correction for multiple comparisons (see main text for details).

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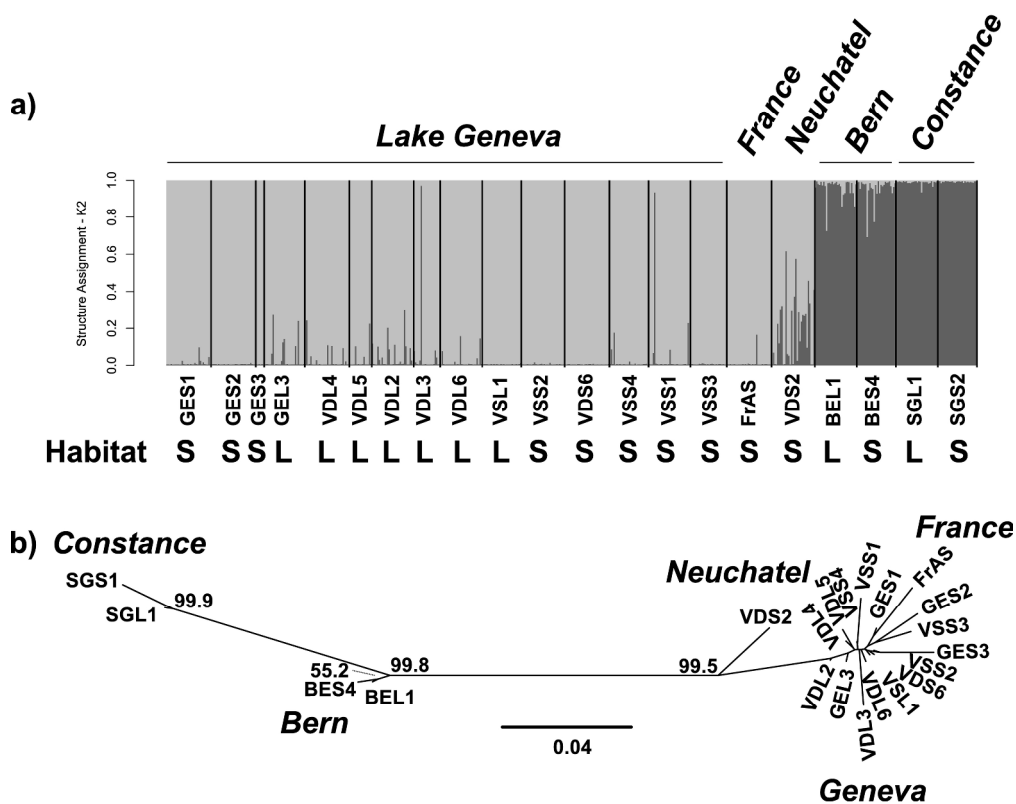


Figure 5: Genetic relationship among individuals and populations within Lake Geneva and Switzerland (Constance, Bern and Neuchatel) as well as a population from the Rhone river downstream of Lake Geneva (France) based on nine microsatellites. a) Individual based assignments using STRUCTURE for the best supported number of clusters, K = 2. The respective habitat where populations were samples is indicated (L = Lake, S = Stream). b) Unrooted neighbour joining tree based on Cavalli-Sforza distances calculated from population allele frequencies. Bold numbers indicate the support for each node based on 1000 bootstrap replicates. Only values with more than 50% bootstrap support are given. See table 1 for details of each population.

265x209mm (300 x 300 DPI)

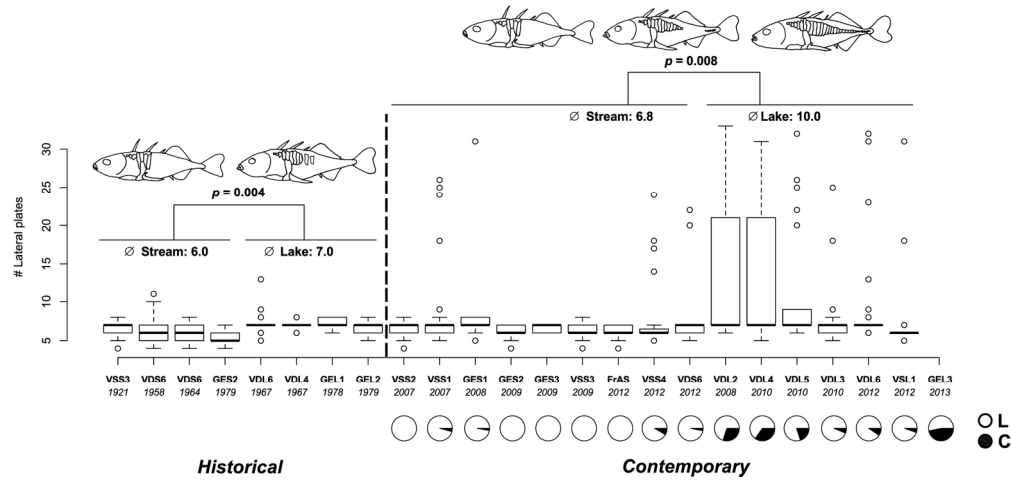


Figure 6: Number of lateral plates in each population for both historical and contemporary stream and lake populations. P values for significance of differences between habitats are based on post hoc t tests associated with fixed-effect parameters in a linear model that included the non-significant interaction between time (historical and contemporary) and habitat (lake and stream; see main text for details). The average number of plates for each habitat is reported above the boxplots. Pie plots indicate the allele frequency of the two *Stn382* alleles (white – L allele, black – C allele). No phenotypic data was available for the GEL3 population (see Table 1 for details).

171x80mm (300 x 300 DPI)