

**Allopatric and sympatric diversification within roach  
(*Rutilus rutilus*) of large prealpine lakes**

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## **Allopatric and sympatric diversification within roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) of large prealpine lakes**

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- 2 **large prealpine lakes**
- 3
- 4

5 **Abstract**

6 Intraspecific differentiation in response to divergent natural selection between  
7 environments is a common phenomenon in some lineages of northern  
8 freshwater fishes, especially salmonids and stickleback. Understanding why  
9 these taxa diversify and undergo adaptive radiations while most other fish  
10 species in the same environments do not, remains an open question. The  
11 possibility for intraspecific diversification has rarely been evaluated for most  
12 northern freshwater fish species. Here, we assess the potential for intraspecific  
13 differentiation between and within lake populations of roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) – a  
14 widespread and abundant cyprinid species - in lakes in which salmonids have  
15 evolved endemic adaptive radiations. Based on more than 3,000 polymorphic  
16 RADseq markers, we detected low but significant genetic differentiation between  
17 roach populations of two ultraoligotrophic lakes and between these and  
18 populations from other lakes. This, together with differentiation in head  
19 morphology and stable isotope signatures, suggests evolutionary and ecological  
20 differentiation among some of our studied populations. Next, we tested for  
21 intralacustrine diversification of roach within Lake Brienz, the most pristine lake  
22 surveyed in this study. We found significant phenotypic evidence for ecological  
23 intralacustrine differentiation between roach caught over a muddy substrate and  
24 those caught over a rocky substrate. However, evidence for intralacustrine  
25 genetic differentiation is at best subtle and phenotypic changes may therefore be  
26 mostly plastic. Overall, our findings suggest roach can differ between ecologically  
27 distinct lakes, but the extent of intralacustrine ecological differentiation is weak,  
28 which contrasts with the strong differentiation among endemic species of  
29 whitefish in the same lakes.

30

31 **Keywords:** *Rutilus rutilus*, resource polymorphism, postglacial range expansion,  
32 stable isotopes, RADseq

### 33 **Introduction**

34           Much of the existing species diversity of freshwater fish in northern  
35 climate zones is of recent origin, having evolved since the end of the last  
36 glaciation period ~12kyrs ago (Hewitt, 1999; Seehausen & Wagner, 2014).  
37 During the invasion of newly available freshwater bodies and associated range  
38 expansion, many fish species colonized a variety of different environments, and  
39 as a result may have experienced competitive release that may have triggered  
40 adaptive diversification (Bolnick *et al.*, 2007; Stroud & Losos, 2016). Divergent  
41 selection between habitats frequently led to the emergence of ecologically  
42 distinct populations, ecotypes, and species. Divergence of populations may for  
43 example occur as a response to different predation regimes (Walsh & Reznick,  
44 2009; Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013), different parasites (Karvonen & Seehausen,  
45 2012), different feeding regimes (Schluter, 1996; Jonsson & Jonsson, 2001;  
46 Svanbäck & Eklöv, 2004), or as a response to interactions among several of these  
47 and other variables (Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). The same factors when  
48 combined with intraspecific competition may also drive intraspecific  
49 diversification in sympatry (Rosenzweig, 1978; Dieckmann & Doebeli, 1999;  
50 Gavrillets, 2004; Svanbäck & Bolnick, 2007), e.g., within a lake where ecologically  
51 distinct individuals may occupy different niches. Such intralacustrine  
52 diversification of fish has received an ample amount of interest to study adaptive  
53 radiation (Schluter, 1996; Bolnick & Fitzpatrick, 2007; Seehausen & Wagner,  
54 2014). Evidence for intraspecific sympatric diversification and adaptive  
55 radiation among temperate freshwater fishes is, however, restricted to relatively  
56 few taxonomic groups, particularly salmonids and a few cases of threespined  
57 stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) (Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). These are  
58 classic examples of adaptive radiations, i.e., the diversification of a single taxon  
59 into phenotypically, ecologically, and genetically differentiated populations or  
60 ultimately species (Schluter, 2000). Comparatively, few studies have explored  
61 taxa beyond these classical cases to better understand why some fish taxa form  
62 adaptive radiations while others do not, and therefore, a study bias cannot be  
63 ruled out (reviewed in Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). Comparative investigations  
64 of other common taxa are consequently needed.

65           Cases of intralacustrine diversification in temperate freshwater fish often  
66 involve differentiation along a pelagic-benthic axis, leading to the evolution of  
67 sympatric planktivorous pelagic and benthivorous benthic species (Seehausen &  
68 Wagner, 2014). A second axis of diversification includes segregation along depth  
69 gradients such as in Arctic charr (*Salvelinus alpinus*; Jonsson & Jonsson, 2001) or  
70 whitefish (*Coregonus* sp.; Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2009). The range and discreteness of  
71 vacant niches and available food resources in an ecosystem may determine the  
72 number of resource-specific ecotypes that can evolve (Nosil & Sandoval, 2008;  
73 Wagner *et al.*, 2014; Lucek *et al.*, 2016). In the case of intraspecific diversification,  
74 adaptive phenotypic differentiation may initially emerge through divergent  
75 selection on standing genetic variation (Barrett & Schluter, 2008), phenotypic  
76 plasticity, or a combination of both (Smith & Skulason, 1996; Schluter, 2000;  
77 Lucek *et al.*, 2014). Plasticity can initially promote differentiation (Snorrason &  
78 Skulason, 2004; Pfennig *et al.*, 2010), and depending on the stability of the  
79 selective regime, divergent phenotypes may become genetically fixed through  
80 phenotypic canalization, genetic assimilation, or genetic accommodation (Crispo,  
81 2008; Thibert-Plante & Hendry, 2011). On the other hand, plasticity may shield  
82 the genome from the effects of selection and prevent genetic fixation (Price *et al.*,  
83 2003; Ghalambor *et al.*, 2007). If reproductive isolation cannot evolve, adaptive  
84 variation may sometimes be maintained by intraspecific resource  
85 polymorphisms either through adaptive phenotypic plasticity (Pfennig *et al.*,  
86 2010) or frequency dependent selection (Svanbäck & Bolnick, 2007).

87           Here, we test for the presence of intraspecific differentiation and  
88 diversification in a widespread and abundant fish species of postglacial lakes –  
89 the roach (*Rutilus rutilus*). Roach are often considered to be generalist feeders  
90 (Persson, 1983), but may specialize on part of the food spectrum, such as  
91 zooplankton, to avoid predation and/or interspecific competition (Svanbäck *et al.*,  
92 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). Roach have also been shown to, in some cases,  
93 undergo ontogenetic dietary shifts, e.g. from zooplankton to macrophytes or  
94 mussels (Prejs *et al.*, 1990; Vejříková *et al.*, 2017). Roach represent an ideal  
95 candidate to test for intraspecific diversification, given i) its broad dietary niche  
96 providing the ecological opportunity to explore a wide range of the available  
97 niche space and thus to potentially adapt to one or more niches, ii) its wide

98 distribution across Europe (Kottelat & Freyhof, 2007), iii) its ability to inhabit an  
99 array of different environments (including streams and the pelagic and littoral  
100 zones of lakes (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015), iv) its large population  
101 sizes, and v) its modest economic importance, resulting in little to no direct  
102 management. Additionally, the roach in this study (Figure 1) often coexist with  
103 adaptive radiations of whitefish and are ecologically similar to some of the  
104 shallow water whitefish species (Hudson *et al.*, 2011; Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2012;  
105 Doenz *et al.*, 2018), thus providing the potential for ecological niche shifts of  
106 roach in response to interspecific interactions, as has been shown for other fish  
107 species (Persson, 1983; Braband, 1985; Faulks *et al.*, 2015).

108 Previous allozyme studies implicate that genetic differentiation in roach  
109 occurs predominantly between, but not within, drainage systems as a result of  
110 different colonization events following the last glaciation period (Laroche *et al.*,  
111 1999; Hänfling *et al.*, 2004). Roach from lakes with distinct colonization histories  
112 often differ in body shape, potentially as a response to different predation  
113 regimes (Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013) or varying levels of intra- (Svanbäck *et al.*,  
114 2008) or interspecific competition (Faulks *et al.*, 2015). However, in cases where  
115 genetic data were available, phenotypic differentiation showed only minor  
116 association with the level of genetic differentiation, suggesting that plasticity  
117 may often underlie phenotypic differences among roach populations  
118 (Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). The aforementioned studies were,  
119 however, conducted in relatively shallow lakes, which might not provide the  
120 same ecological opportunities for genetic and adaptive differentiation as large,  
121 deep, and oligotrophic lakes do (Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). In addition, studies  
122 of lacustrine populations compared different drainages that were likely  
123 independently colonized, potentially resulting in different evolutionary  
124 contingencies (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013; Faulks *et al.*,  
125 2015). By integrating phenotypic data of roach from seven large pre-alpine lakes  
126 with genomic and ecological (i.e. stable isotopic) data of five of these, we assess  
127 to which degree allopatric populations from lakes within the same drainage  
128 system that are connected by rivers differ from each other. We further test for  
129 intralacustrine differentiation of roach caught over different substrates within  
130 Lake Brienz. As Brienz is the most pristine lake that we studied (Figure 1, Table

131 1), it is also the most likely lake to reveal if intralacustrine diversification evolved  
132 in roach as a response to local ecological opportunities. This is because the fish  
133 fauna of this lake experienced relatively little human impact, i.e. did not undergo  
134 a phase of eutrophication and re-oligotrophication during the second part of the  
135 20<sup>th</sup> century like many other Swiss lakes (Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2012), and is one of  
136 the few pre-alpine lakes that still hosts its whole adaptive radiation of whitefish  
137 (Hudson *et al.*, 2011; Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2012; Doenz *et al.*, 2018).

138

### 139 **Materials and Methods:**

#### 140 *Study area and sampling*

141 We sampled 1,223 roach from seven pre-alpine Swiss lakes between  
142 September 2011 and October 2012 (Figure 1a; Table 1). All lakes belong to the  
143 Aare/Rhine drainage except for Lake Geneva, which belongs to the Rhone  
144 drainage. However, former biogeographic work found that *R. rutilus* from the  
145 Rhone drainage formed a genetic cluster with specimens from the Rhine  
146 drainage (Larmuseau *et al.*, 2009), potentially reflecting human translocations  
147 and/or natural drainage crossings, which has been observed for other fish  
148 species between the Aare/Rhine drainage and Lake Geneva (Vonlanthen *et al.*,  
149 2007; Gousskov & Vorburger, 2016). All specimens were collected during *Project*  
150 *Lac*, a large fish diversity assessment of pre-alpine lakes that aimed to probe all  
151 available littoral substrates and depth-related habitats for each lake using a  
152 standardized gillnet approach (reviewed in Alexander *et al.* (2015a; b)). Briefly,  
153 for each lake the littoral habitats (<5 m deep) were classified based on substrate  
154 composition and particle size, macrophyte morphology and density, and  
155 proximity to an inwardly or outwardly flowing watercourse. Fishing was  
156 subsequently performed using a combination of two different gillnet protocols  
157 that combined different mesh sizes to reduce size-selective catch biases  
158 (described in detail in Alexander *et al.* 2015a). Nets were set in a randomized  
159 way within the available area of both benthic and littoral habitats. Netting effort  
160 reflected the relative abundance of each habitat with a minimum number of  
161 three nets per habitat (Alexander *et al.*, 2015a; b). Following capture, the total  
162 length of each specimen was measured and each sample was photographed on  
163 the left side for further morphological analyses. From a subset of specimens,



164 muscle tissue samples were collected for further genetic and stable isotopic  
165 analyses (Table 1).

166

### 167 *Assessing phenotypic differentiation*

168 We quantified individual shape phenotypes based on 11 landmarks (Figure  
169 1b) in TPSDIG2 (Rohlf, 2015) and subsequently conducted a Procrustes fit on the  
170 obtained shape data in MORPHOJ 1.05e (Klingenberg, 2011) for (i) all lake  
171 populations (ii) Lake Brienz specimens, (iii) roach used in the genetic and stable  
172 isotopic analyses (see Table 1). We corrected Procrustes coordinates for size by  
173 performing a regression against standard length, retaining the residuals. To  
174 identify the major axes of phenotypic variation, we performed a principal  
175 component (PC) analysis on each size-corrected dataset. The scores along the  
176 second and third PC axes in the overall data set were tested for differentiation  
177 among lake populations using ANOVAs with *post hoc* Tukey-Kramer tests. PC1 of  
178 size-corrected landmarks (accounting for 25.5%, 23.9%, and 25.3% of the total  
179 variance for the overall data set, the Lake Brienz data set, and the  
180 genetic/isotopic data set, respectively) was not analyzed because it was driven  
181 by the bending of the fish and therefore, represented a non-biological artifact  
182 (Figure S1). We calculated pairwise Mahalanobis distances among lake  
183 populations as well as substrate types within Lake Brienz, and estimated their  
184 significances with 10,000 bootstrap replicates. To further assess the degree of  
185 phenotypic differentiation among lake populations, we calculated  $P_{ST}$  following  
186 Kaeuffer *et al.* (2012).  $P_{ST}$  is a unit-less and scale-free proportional measurement  
187 of pairwise difference, here using the scores of PC2 and PC3. For each  $P_{ST}$ , we  
188 established the 95% confidence interval using a resampling approach with 1,000  
189 replicates following the procedure by Lucek *et al.* (2013). Finally, we tested for  
190 an association between pairwise  $P_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$ , and between  $P_{ST}$  and pairwise  
191 differences in phosphate levels of lakes (Table 1), using Mantel tests in R 3.1.1  
192 with 10,000 bootstrap replicates to determine significance.

193 To assess phenotypic differentiation within Lake Brienz, we calculated  
194 Mahalanobis distances between individuals from different substrates using PC2  
195 scores. Based on the observed clustering of phenotypes (see Results), we  
196 combined individuals from different substrates into broader substrate categories,

197 i.e. rocky (boulders, cobble) and muddy (ledge, inlet/outlet, vegetation). We  
198 subsequently performed an ANOVA on individual PC2 and PC3 scores to test for  
199 a difference between individuals from these broader substrate categories.

200

#### 201 *Genomics*

202       We prepared two restriction site-associated (RAD) genomic libraries using  
203 *SbfI* restriction sites following Lucek *et al.* (2018). Libraries contained DNA from  
204 42 and 50 individually barcoded specimens, respectively. Each library was  
205 single-end sequenced on one lane of an Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform together  
206 with ~10% bacteriophage PhiX genomic DNA (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA)  
207 to increase complexity at the first 10 sequenced base pairs. Reads without the  
208 complete *SbfI* recognition sequence were subsequently discarded. Using the  
209 FASTX toolkit ([http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx\\_toolkit/](http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/)), we removed any reads  
210 with at least one base with a Phred quality score <10 or more than 5% of base  
211 pairs with quality <30. This approach yielded 102.6 million high quality reads for  
212 analysis.

213       Given the lack of a reference genome for roach, we generated a *de novo*  
214 assembly using all filtered reads for all individuals having more than 250k reads  
215 with USTACKS (Catchen *et al.*, 2011). The following settings were used: minimum  
216 stack size of 75 reads, allowing a maximum of two base pairs of difference for  
217 stacks to be merged and excluding loci with unusually high coverage to avoid  
218 repetitive regions. The *de novo* assembly consisted of 49,772 contigs and was  
219 used to map reads for each individual with BWA MEM 0.7.17 (Li, 2013). We also  
220 aligned raw sequencing reads against the PhiX 174 reference genome (accession:  
221 NC\_001422; Sanger *et al.*, 1977) masking known variants. We then used the  
222 PhiX-alignments to create a base quality score recalibration table for each library  
223 using BASERECALIBRATOR from GATK v. 3.7-0 (McKenna *et al.*, 2010). We  
224 subsequently recalibrated the base quality scores of each roach alignment to  
225 remove potential library effects with the GATK tool PRINTREADS. We called  
226 genotypes with UNIFIEDGENOTyper implemented in GATK v. 3.7-0, considering  
227 only bases with a mapping quality >20. Using VCFTools v. 0.1.14 (Danecek *et al.*,  
228 2011), we filtered the resulting VCF file, where we set genotypes with quality <  
229 28 or depth < 6 to missing. We further applied a minor-allele frequency cut-off of

230 0.03 considering only biallelic SNP positions with  $\leq 20\%$  missing data. Following  
231 all filtering steps, a total of 3,865 polymorphic SNPs were available for the  
232 subsequent analyses comprising all lakes and 4,721 polymorphic SNPs for the  
233 Lake Brienz dataset.

234 We estimated the level of pairwise genetic differentiation between roach  
235 populations from different lakes using pairwise locus-by-locus  $F_{ST}$ s in GENODIVE v.  
236 2.0b27 (Meirmans & Van Tienderen, 2004). Significances were assessed with  
237 10,000 permutations, applying a Bonferroni correction for the pairwise  
238 comparisons. To calculate the probability of each individual to be assigned to its  
239 sample population, we employed a discriminant function analysis on principal  
240 components (DAPC) with ADEGENET (Jombart *et al.*, 2010) in R based on the first  
241 ten PC axes and the four leading discriminant axes. We further used ADEGENET to  
242 calculate the observed heterozygosity ( $H_0$ ) for each roach population. SNPRELATE  
243 (Zheng *et al.*, 2012) was used to perform a PC analysis based on the genomic data.

244 We used RAxML 8.2.11 (Stamatakis, 2014) to test for genetic differentiation  
245 among individuals from different lakes as well as among individuals caught over  
246 different substrates within Lake Brienz. In both cases we implemented a  
247 generalized time-reversible (GTR) model with optimized substitution rates and a  
248 gamma model of rate heterogeneity. We then applied an ascertainment bias  
249 correction for each dataset to account for the fact that we only used polymorphic  
250 SNPs. Significances were assessed using 1000 bootstrap replicates. We also  
251 tested for intralacustrine genetic differentiation between individuals caught over  
252 a muddy or rocky substrate within Lake Brienz using DAPC based on the 20  
253 leading PC axes accounting for 80% of the total variation and also calculated the  
254 average locus-by-locus genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}$ s) between individuals from  
255 the two substrates in GENODIVE.

256

### 257 *Stable Isotope Analysis*

258 We obtained the stable isotopes signature of individuals using muscle  
259 tissue for 12 to 28 individuals per lake (Table 1). In fish, differences in  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$   
260 ratios fall along a gradient where low values indicate a diet dominated by plant  
261 and algae matter, while increased values reflect a shift towards higher trophic  
262 levels (Post, 2002). To further obtain isotopic baseline values, we collected snails

263 (*Lymnaeidae* sp. and *Planorbidae* sp.) at the time each lake was sampled (Table  
264 1), except for lakes Neuchatel and Geneva, where we collected baseline material  
265 in September 2013. All samples were dried at 55°C for 48 hours. Dry mass (0.5-  
266 1.0 mg) was subsequently analyzed with internal reference standards (18  
267 Sucrose [IAEA-CH-6], 18 IAEA-N2, and 18 caffeine [IAEA-600]). The remaining  
268 uncertainty as estimated by the standards was 0.08‰ (VPDB). The stable  
269 isotopic signature was used to i) test for differences in the stable isotopic  
270 signature among populations from different lakes with an ANOVA followed by a  
271 TukeyHSD *post hoc* decomposition, ii) to test for an association between  
272 morphology and diet across all lake populations by regressing the baseline  
273 corrected  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values against the scores of the second and third phenotypic PC  
274 axes, respectively, iii) to determine if the trophic status as measured by the  
275 phosphate level of a lake (Table 1) affected the diet of the respective roach  
276 population by using an ANOVA, and lastly iv) to test for ecotypic differentiation  
277 based on stable isotopes between individuals caught over a rocky or muddy  
278 substrate within Lake Brienz using a Mann-Whitney test.

279

## 280 **Results**

### 281 *Differentiation among roach from different lakes*

282 Roach differed phenotypically between lakes along both the second  
283 ( $F_{6,1216} = 45.19, p < 0.001$ ) and third PC axes ( $F_{6,1216} = 16.55, p < 0.001$ ), accounting  
284 for 16.7% and 13.1% of the overall shape variance, respectively (Figure 2, Table  
285 S1). The *post hoc* decomposition suggests that individuals from lakes Brienz and  
286 Brenet account for most of the variation captured by the two PC axes (Table S2).  
287 Variation along PC2 was driven by differences in the position of the mouth  
288 (landmarks 1 & 2) and the position of the pelvic and pectoral fins (landmarks 6 &  
289 7). In contrast, PC3 was mainly driven by differences in the position of the dorsal  
290 fin (Table S1). This resulted in a group of specimens from lakes Walen, Neuchatel,  
291 Hallwil, Joux, Geneva, and Brenet with a terminal mouth and a more anterior  
292 dorsal fin and a second group consisting of roach from Lake Brienz, which had a  
293 compact head, a subterminal mouth and a posteriorly placed dorsal fin (Figure 2).

294 Consistent with a single colonizing lineage, the degree of pairwise genetic  
295 differentiation among lake populations was generally low ( $F_{ST} \leq 0.040$ ) but

296 significant (Table 2). The low level of genetic differentiation between the roach  
297 populations from lake Neuchatel and Geneva is consistent with a recent drainage  
298 crossing (Larmuseau *et al.*, 2009) and/or human translocations. Despite the low  
299 level of genetic differentiation, 99% of all individuals were correctly assigned to  
300 their lake of origin by DAPC (Figure 3a). The genetic PC analysis showed a  
301 clustering of ultraoligotrophic (Brienz and Walen) and mesotrophic lake  
302 populations (Hallwil, Geneva, and Neuchatel) along PC1, accounting for 2.75% of  
303 the total genetic variation (Figure 3b). Our phylogenomic reconstruction showed  
304 a clustering similar to the DAPC assignment (Figure 3c), where individuals from  
305 Brienz seemed most distinct, whereas individuals from Geneva and Neuchatel  
306 clustered together. However, bootstrapping yielded no significant node support,  
307 suggesting substantial levels of gene flow. Levels of heterozygosity ( $H_o$ ) differed  
308 marginally among lake populations (Table 2), and this variation was negatively  
309 correlated with the phosphate levels (see Table 1) observed in each lake  
310 (Pearson correlation:  $\rho = 0.958$ ;  $t_{1,3} = 5.78$ ,  $p = 0.010$ ). Pairwise  $F_{ST}$ s were  
311 neither correlated with differences in phosphate levels (Mantel test:  $r_M = 0.114$ ,  $p$   
312  $= 0.600$ ) nor with pairwise phenotypic ( $P_{ST}$ ) differentiation among lake  
313 populations (PC2:  $r_M = 0.088$ ,  $p = 0.466$ ; PC3:  $r_M = -0.113$ ,  $p = 0.690$ ).  $P_{ST}$  was  
314 likewise not correlated with differences in phosphate amongst lakes (PC2:  
315  $r_M = 0.367$ ,  $p = 0.165$ ; PC3:  $r_M = -0.151$ ,  $p = 0.613$ ).

316 Stable isotopes indicate significant trophic differentiation of roach amongst  
317 lakes ( $F_{4,77} = 47.49$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), where all but two *post hoc* comparisons  
318 (Neuchatel-Geneva and Neuchatel-Walen) were significant. Stable isotopes range  
319 from a more herbivorous diet in Lake Brienz ( $\delta^{13}C$  of  $-22.63 \pm 1.80$ ) to a more  
320 omnivorous diet within Lake Hallwil ( $\delta^{13}C$  of  $-29.72 \pm 1.16$ ; Figure 4). However,  
321 the stable isotopic values were neither correlated with individual scores along  
322 the second ( $F_{1,80} = 0.01$ ,  $p = 0.990$ ) or third ( $F_{1,80} = 0.19$ ,  $p = 0.665$ ) phenotypic PC  
323 axes, nor were they correlated with differing phosphate levels ( $F_{1,3} = 1.14$ ,  $p =$   
324  $0.365$ ).

325

#### 326 *Diversification within Lake Brienz*

327 Pairwise Mahalanobis distances suggested phenotypic clustering of  
328 individuals caught over “rocky” (boulder, cobbles) vs. “muddy” (ledge,

329 vegetation) substrates (Figure 5c; Table S3). Individuals caught close to the inlet  
330 or outlet clustered with the muddy substrate group and were subsequently  
331 included in this substrate category (Figure 5). Consistent with this clustering, we  
332 found significant phenotypic differentiation between individuals caught over  
333 muddy and rocky substrates along the second ( $F_{1,81}=12.77$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) but not  
334 third ( $F_{1,81}=0.01$ ,  $p=0.902$ ) PC axes. Variation along PC2 was driven by  
335 morphological differences in the position of the dorsal, caudal, and pelvic fin  
336 (landmarks 11, 9 and 7), while PC3 was driven by the placement of the dorsal  
337 (landmark 11) and pectoral fin (landmark 6) and the position of the mouth  
338 (landmarks 1 & 2). The two phenotypic clusters did not differ in their diet  
339 assessed by stable isotopes ( $W = 61.5$ ,  $p = 0.540$ ).

340 Our phylogenomic reconstruction did not yield any significant clustering by  
341 substrate (Figure 5b). Concordantly, there was no genome-wide differentiation  
342 between individuals caught over muddy or rocky substrate ( $F_{ST} = -0.001$ ,  $p =$   
343  $0.759$ ). When using a discriminant function analysis that maximizes the  
344 differentiation among substrates, a bimodal distribution occurred along the  
345 discriminant axis, supporting some genetic differentiation (Figure 5a). Indeed,  
346 we found five SNPs among the total of 4,721 polymorphic SNPs within Lake  
347 Brienz that showed a  $F_{ST} > 0.3$ , each belonging to a different contig (Table S4). To  
348 identify potential genes involved in substrate-related differentiation, we further  
349 matched each contig against the NCBI nucleotide collection on the 26<sup>th</sup> of October  
350 2018 using megablast (Boratyn *et al.*, 2013). Of the five contigs, two overlapped  
351 with known genes: i) *FSTL5: Follistatin-related protein 5* and ii) *PCSK5:*  
352 *Proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 5* – a gene involved in neuromast  
353 deposition within the lateral line system in zebrafish, where a deficiency resulted  
354 in reduced spatial awareness and sensing of the environment (Chitramuthu *et al.*,  
355 2010).

356

## 357 **Discussion**

### 358 *Postglacial diversification of roach*

359 Understanding why some species undergo diversification, while others do  
360 not, remains a conundrum. Evidence for species diversification among temperant  
361 freshwater fish comes from a small range of taxa, while intraspecific

362 diversification remains unassessed for most other fish species (Seehausen &  
363 Wagner, 2014). Roach have a broad geographic distribution in Europe and occur  
364 in a variety of habitats – including deep and ultraoligotrophic lakes that provide  
365 a wide range of potential niches to diversify, making roach a good candidate to  
366 look for diversification (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). We found  
367 evidence for intraspecific differentiation between roach populations from  
368 ultraoligotrophic lakes and lakes with a higher trophic level, as well as some  
369 diversification within the ultraoligotrophic Lake Brienz.

370         Former studies suggested that roach often adapt to their local environment  
371 and become phenotypically differentiated, e.g. along a littoral-pelagic axis as a  
372 result of intra- and interspecific competition (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Faulks *et al.*,  
373 2015) or predation (Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013), and this phenotypic  
374 differentiation has often been attributed to phenotypic plasticity (Svanbäck *et al.*,  
375 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). Studying roach from pre-alpine lakes in Switzerland,  
376 we found subtle yet significant genetic differentiation amongst populations from  
377 different pre-alpine lakes, where populations from ultraoligotrophic lakes are  
378 genetically more distinct (Figure 3b). This is consistent with recent colonization,  
379 potentially combined with ongoing gene flow within the Aare/Rhine drainage.  
380 Alternatively, the effective population size may be too large for drift to become a  
381 dominant factor (Gillespie, 2001). We also found roach from Lake Geneva to  
382 cluster closely with individuals from the nearby Aare/Rhine system (Figure 3).  
383 This suggests a common origin, potentially due to historical connectivity as  
384 observed for other fish species (Vonlanthen *et al.*, 2007; Gousskov & Vorburger,  
385 2016) or supplementary human translocations. Despite their low level of genetic  
386 differentiation (Table 2), roach differed both phenotypically (Figure 2b, Table  
387 S1) and ecologically (Figure 4) between lakes. Individuals differed  
388 predominantly in their head shape, with the population from Lake Brienz being  
389 most distinct, showing a slender head and more subterminal orientation of the  
390 mouth (Figure 2). The observed phenotypic changes among roach from different  
391 lakes hint towards a functional and potentially adaptive response related to  
392 feeding regimes that differ between lakes (Wainwright & Barton, 1995).  
393 Phenotypic changes in head and body shape similar to the ones observed here  
394 were indeed found to occur in response to differences in resource use in other

395 fish (Anker, 1974; Barel, 1983; Pfaender *et al.*, 2009). Given the lack of an  
396 association between the degree of phenotypic and genetic differentiation, the  
397 observed phenotypic changes likely represent a plastic response to varying  
398 environmental pressures, as has been proposed for other roach populations  
399 (Scharnweber *et al.*, 2013; Faulks *et al.*, 2015).

400

#### 401 *Intralacustrine diversification in Lake Brienz*

402 Habitat-dependent divergent selection can lead to the evolution of  
403 distinctly adapted ecotypes within a system (Schluter, 2000; Nosil, 2012). When  
404 combined with intra- and interspecific competition, divergent selection can lead  
405 to differences in prey utilization between individuals from structurally  
406 contrasting environments. These factors are common drivers of diversification  
407 among postglacial freshwater fishes (Rosenzweig, 1978; Dieckmann & Doebeli,  
408 1999; Gavrillets, 2004; Svanbäck & Bolnick, 2007). Both intra- and interspecific  
409 competition, such as with perch (*Perca fluviatilis*), have been shown to drive  
410 resource polymorphism in roach from Swedish lakes (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008;  
411 Faulks *et al.*, 2015). This may similarly apply for roach in Lake Brienz where  
412 perch are the most abundant fish species caught, followed by roach and  
413 whitefish. Roach were moreover restricted to depths <3m, overlapping with  
414 perch and part of the whitefish species, thus providing the potential for  
415 interspecific competition (Alexander *et al.*, 2015a; Doenz *et al.*, 2018).

416 Substrate-related phenotypic differentiation is common among  
417 freshwater fishes, where adaptive phenotypic changes often occur in head shape,  
418 as a response to different feeding regimes (Caldecutt & Adams, 1998; McGee *et*  
419 *al.*, 2013), and in fin position or body shape in response to different swimming  
420 regimes (Walker, 1997; Hendry *et al.*, 2011). Within Lake Brienz, we found roach  
421 to show evidence for such substrate-related intralacustrine phenotypic  
422 diversification, as individuals fell into two phenotypic clusters (Figure 5).  
423 Individuals caught over muddy substrates showed a more caudal position of the  
424 dorsal fin, consistent with adaptation to more active swimming in cyprinid fish  
425 (Felley 1984). This, together with an elongated snout and a more terminal mouth  
426 (Figure 5), could reflect feeding on more pelagic prey as has been found for other  
427 lake-dwelling roach populations (Svanbäck *et al.*, 2008; Faulks *et al.*, 2015). In



428 contrast, individuals caught over a rocky substrate had a more anterior dorsal fin,  
429 consistent with increased manoeuvrability in structured environments such as  
430 between rocks. The compact head and sub-terminal mouth of fish from a rocky  
431 substrate is also often associated with a predominantly benthic feeding strategy  
432 (Wainwright & Barton, 1995). To which degree these phenotypic differences are  
433 associated with selective feeding strategies, e.g., if and to which extent fish  
434 caught over a muddy vegetated substrate feed on macrophytes, remains  
435 unknown as we relied solely on stable isotope data. With the latter we found no  
436 association between phenotypes and resource use. This, however contrasts with  
437 the increased range of stable isotope values found for roach in Lake Brienz  
438 (Figure 4) and could reflect limited power to distinguish differences in  
439 microhabitats given our restricted sample sizes. However, stable isotopes  
440 represent a long-term average diet, and the observed phenotypic segregation  
441 shown here may be seasonal (Post, 2002).

442 Average genome-wide differentiation between the two substrate-related  
443 phenotypic groups was absent (i.e.  $F_{ST} = -0.001$ ), and no apparent clustering  
444 occurred in our phylogenetic reconstruction (Figure 5). This is also consistent  
445 with plasticity acting as the main driver for the observed phenotypic  
446 differentiation. However, a discriminate function analysis that captured the  
447 differences between the two groups suggests a bimodal distribution of  
448 individuals (Figure 5a). Among the five markers that showed the highest degree  
449 of genetic differentiation between substrates (Table S4), one occurred within the  
450 gene *PCSK5* that is involved in lateral line development (Chitramuthu *et al.*,  
451 2010). The lateral line organ is important for spatial awareness and sensing of  
452 the environment, and the observed genetic differences could suggest divergent  
453 selection between the two substrates that differ in their complexity, being  
454 consistent with the detected differences in body shape (Figure 4). Genomic  
455 differentiation at only few target loci is consistent with a very early stage of  
456 divergence-with-gene flow, where further differentiation depends on the  
457 evolution of barriers to gene flow (Nosil, 2012). The absence of significant  
458 genomic differentiation could also reflect a limited resolution given the  
459 restricted number of polymorphic SNPs available for our analyses (Wagner *et al.*,  
460 2013).

461           The slight differentiation of roach of different habitats contrasts with the  
462 co-occurring adaptive radiation of whitefish, which had a similar timespan as  
463 roach to evolve in Lake Brienz, i.e. since the retreat of the glaciers ~12kyrs ago.  
464 Within Lake Brienz, there are a total of four genetically differentiated whitefish  
465 species, segregated along the water depth and pelagic-benthic axes, which are  
466 distinct in their morphology, including the gill rakers (Doenz *et al.*, 2018), thus  
467 suggesting adaptation to different trophic niches (Roesch *et al.*, 2013). Given the  
468 abundances of perch and whitefish in Lake Brienz (Alexander *et al.*, 2015a;  
469 Doenz *et al.*, 2018), the limited degree of diversification in roach could be a result  
470 of different factors. i) Interspecific competition may have constrained roach from  
471 diversifying. ii) If the observed phenotypic differentiation (Figure 5) is  
472 primarily due to phenotypic plasticity, the latter could have  
473 constrained diversification by shielding the genome from selection, thus  
474 decreasing the potential for genetic divergence (Price *et al.*, 2003; Ghalambor *et al.*  
475 *et al.*, 2007). iii) The fundamental niche of roach may be narrower than that  
476 of whitefish, preventing roach to explore otherwise available niche space. For  
477 example, roach prefer warmer water and are therefore restricted to the shallow  
478 zones of lakes, while whitefish can tolerate colder water, allowing them to  
479 explore the deeper sections of lakes (Coutant 1977, Kottelat & Freyhof, 2007). iv)  
480 Recent genomic work suggests that adaptive diversification in stickleback and  
481 whitefish often occurs from standing genetic variation in genomic regions that  
482 show structural changes, including inversions (Jones *et al.*, 2012; Marques *et al.*,  
483 2016) or chromosomal rearrangements (Dion-Côté *et al.*, 2016). Such structural  
484 genomic rearrangements may then facilitate diversification through coupling of  
485 co-adapted alleles (Butlin & Smadja, 2018). Given the limited evidence for  
486 genetic differentiation in roach (Figure 5, Table S4), such genomic features may  
487 be lacking, which may constitute a genetic constraint that  
488 impedes diversification and the build-up of genetic barriers to gene  
489 flow (Seehausen *et al.*, 2014).

490

491 *Conclusions*

492           Intraspecific differentiation in response to habitat-dependent divergent  
493 selection is thought to be a major driver of diversification and adaptive radiation  
494 in freshwater fish, yet evidence comes from only a few taxonomic groups  
495 (Seehausen & Wagner, 2014). Combining phenotypic, ecological, and genomic  
496 data, we show differentiation between lake populations of roach from  
497 ultraoligotrophic lakes and lakes with a higher trophic level within the same  
498 drainage system, potentially in response to different abiotic and biotic factors. In  
499 one ultraoligotrophic lake, we also found evidence for intralacustrine  
500 diversification with different phenotypes being associated with distinct  
501 substrates. However, given the lack of genetic differentiation, phenotypic  
502 changes are likely to be mostly plastic, where the lack of diversification may also  
503 reflect genomic constraints. This needs to be investigated in the future. Taken  
504 together, our study reveals striking differences in the degree of phenotypic and  
505 genetic differentiation between this lineage of roach and the lineage of whitefish  
506 that has undergone impressive adaptive radiations in the same lakes. However,  
507 our study also indicates the potential for more subtle intraspecific differentiation  
508 and diversification in a widespread and abundant freshwater fish species,  
509 especially in ultraoligotrophic lakes. This may similarly apply to other fish  
510 species and highlights the importance to study both an ecologically and a  
511 geographically broad range of populations within a species to assess cryptic  
512 biodiversity (Bickford *et al.*, 2007).

513

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519

#### 520 **Data accessibility**

521           BAM files with aligned de-multiplexed and base quality score recalibrated  
522 reads are available through the short read archive ([www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra)).  
523 BioProject ID: PRJNA533015. Phenotypic and stable isotopic data are available  
524 through DRYAD: XXXXX.

525

526 **Figure legends**

527 Figure 1: a) Map of Switzerland with the sampled lakes indicated: A) Geneva, B)  
528 Joux, C) Brenet, D) Neuchatel, E) Brienz, F) Hallwil, and G) Walen (see Table 1 for  
529 details). b) Roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) with the 11 morphological landmarks used: 1)  
530 anterior tip of snout, 2) anterior tip of lower lip, 3) anterior & 4) posterior point  
531 of operculum, 5) junction where the dorsolateral part of the head and body fuse,  
532 anterior insertion points of the 6) pectoral, 7) pelvic and, 8) anal fin, 9) ventral  
533 and 10) dorsal junction of the caudal peduncle and tail, 11) anterior insertion of  
534 the dorsal fin.

535

536 Figure 2: Phenotypic relationships across lake populations. a) Mahalanobis  
537 distance dendrogram. b) Principal component (PC) analysis of body shape for all  
538 seven-lake populations. Shown are the mean values across the second and third  
539 PC axes with the 95% confidence interval for each population. Changes in body  
540 shape are further indicated.

541

542 Figure 3: Population genomic structure across different lake populations. a)  
543 Individual-based assignment probabilities based on a discriminant function  
544 analysis of PC components (DAPC). b) Principal component analysis based on  
545 3,865 polymorphic SNPs. c) RAxML phylogeny tree depicting the genetic  
546 relationship of all roach (no significant bootstrap support except two nodes with  
547 >50% support highlighted by a grey dot).

548

549 Figure 4: Boxplot summarizing the variance in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  among roach from different  
550 lakes. Horizontal bars indicate significant comparisons ( $p < 0.05$ ) after a *post hoc*  
551 Tukey-Kramer ANOVA decomposition (see main text for details).

552

553 Figure 5: Differentiation of roach within Lake Brienz based on: a) discriminant  
554 function analysis of genetic data comparing individuals assigned to different  
555 substrate groups (rocky vs. muddy). b) RAxML phylogeny tree depicting the  
556 genetic relationship of Brienz roach (no significant bootstrap support). c)  
557 Morphological relationship based on Mahalanobis distances between different

558 substrates. Morphological differences between individuals caught over rocky  
559 (boulders and cobble) and muddy (ledge, inlet/outlet, and vegetation) substrates  
560 are indicated.

561

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856 Table 1: Characteristics of each sampled lake and the sample size of each data set. For each lake, the coordinates, the trophic status  
857 based on dissolved phosphate (parts per million – ppm), its elevation, and maximal depth are given. In addition to the sampling date,  
858 depth range where individuals were sampled are indicated. Samples sizes for morphology, genomics and stable isotopes are provided.  
859 Phosphate levels are based on measurements taken in 2002.

Lakes	Geographic coordinates		Trophic status		Elevation (m)	Maximum Depth (m)	Sampled	Depth Range (m)	Numbers of Samples		
	Latitude	Longitude	Phosphate (ppm)	Trophic Level					Morphology	Genomics	Stable Isotopes
<b>Brienz</b>	47°48'E	45°49'N	3	Oligotrophic	564	260	Sept 2011	1.0 – 12.0	190	41	28
<b>Brenet</b>	6°19'E	46°40'N	29	Eutrophic	100	18	Sept 2011	1.9 – 20.0	342	-	-
<b>Hallwil</b>	8°12'E	47°17'N	16	Mesotrophic	449	28	Oct 2012	1.9 – 20.0	94	10	13
<b>Joux</b>	6°17'E	46°38'N	16	Mesotrophic	100	32	Sept 2011	1.1 – 15.0	257	-	-
<b>Geneva</b>	6°33'E	46°26'N	23	Mesotrophic	372	310	Sept 2012	0.5 – 42.0	102	9	12
<b>Neuchatel</b>	6°55'E	46°59'N	6	Oligotrophic	429	152	Sept 2011	1.2 – 37.0	208	10	15
<b>Walen</b>	9°12'E	47°07'N	4	Oligotrophic	419	151	Oct 2012	1.1 – 27.0	30	10	14

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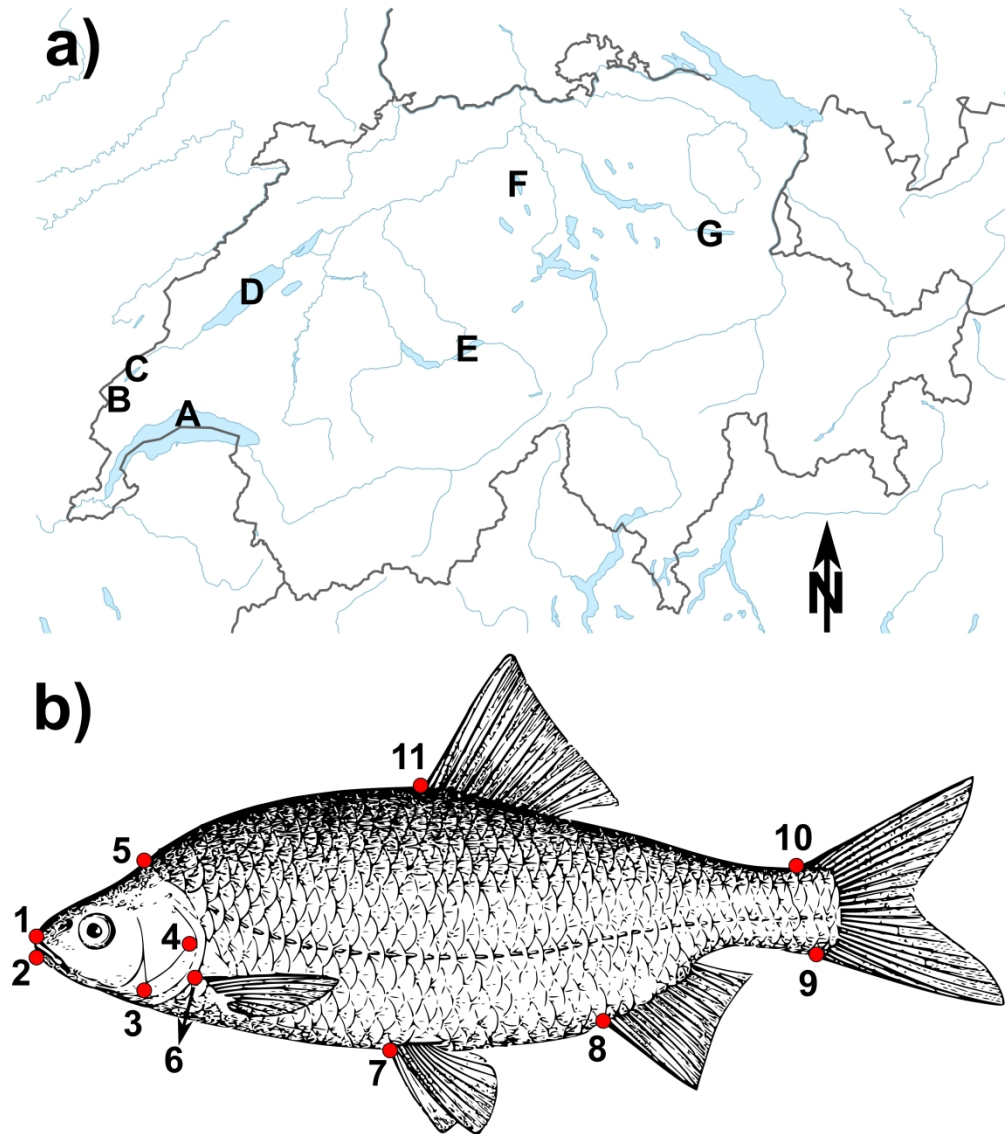
862 Table 2: Observed heterozygosity ( $H_0$ ) of each lake population as well as the  
 863 pairwise genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}$ ) among populations.  $F_{ST}$  values are  
 864 presented in the lower triangle and Bonferroni corrected significance levels in  
 865 the upper triangle.

866

	<b><math>H_0</math></b>	<b>Brien</b>	<b>Hallwil</b>	<b>Geneva</b>	<b>Neuchatel</b>	<b>Walen</b>
<b>Brien</b>	0.265		<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<b>Hallwil</b>	0.257	0.032		<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<b>Geneva</b>	0.257	0.026	0.032		<0.001	<0.001
<b>Neuchatel</b>	0.264	0.025	0.025	0.005		<0.001
<b>Walen</b>	0.265	0.038	0.036	0.030	0.026	

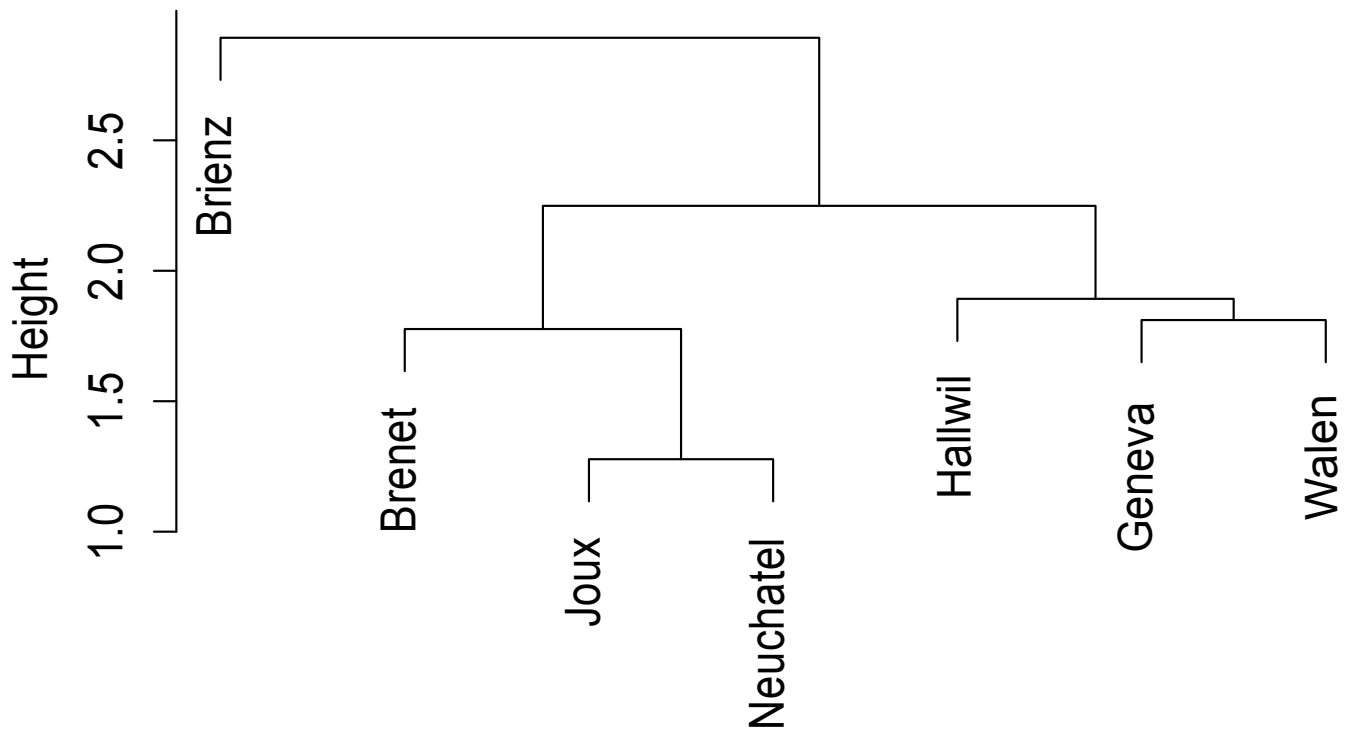
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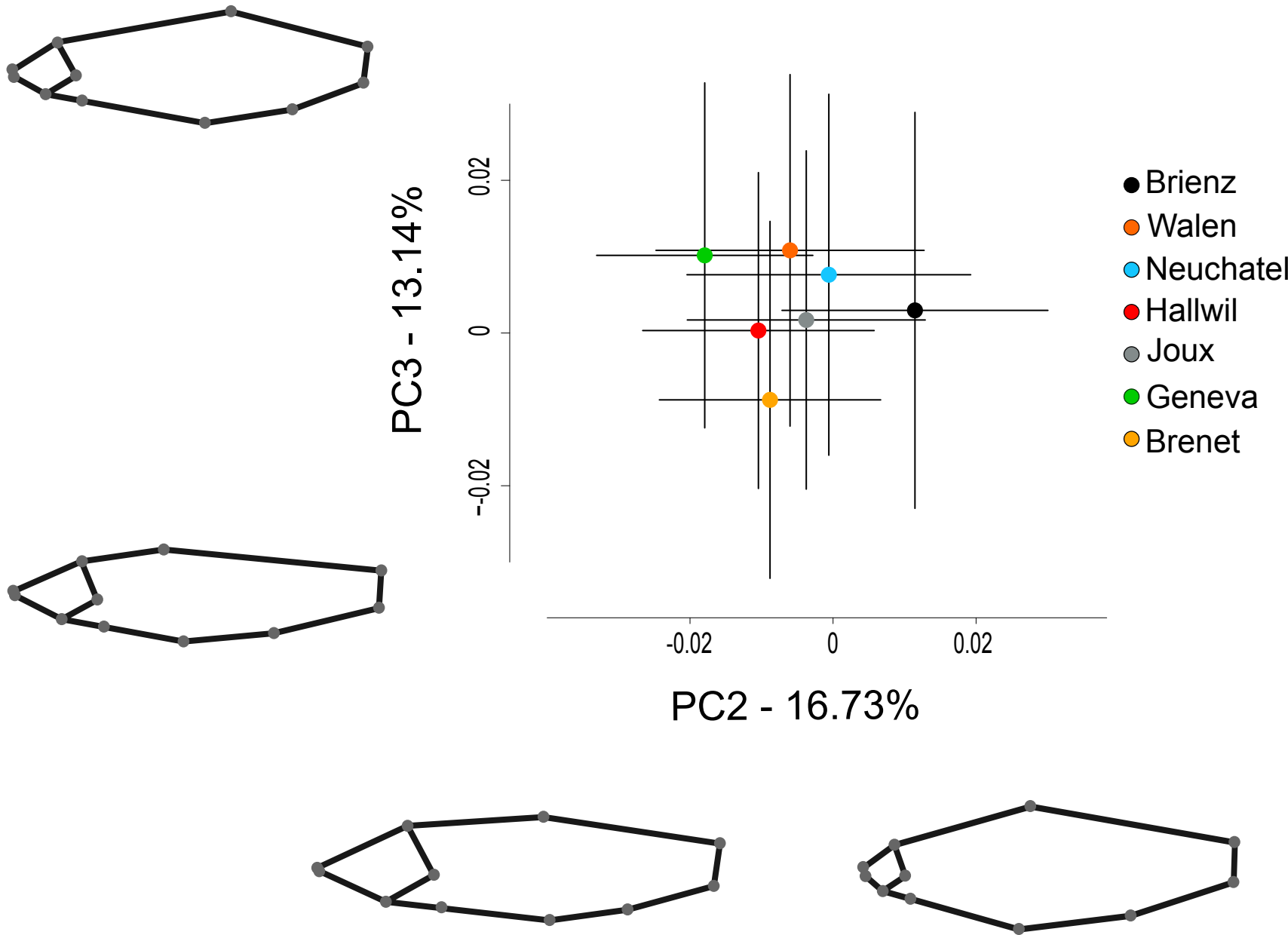


a) Map of Switzerland with the sampled lakes indicated: A) Geneva, B) Joux, C) Brenet, D) Neuchatel, E) Brienzi, F) Hallwil, and G) Walen (see Table 1 for details). b) Roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) with the 11 morphological landmarks used: 1) anterior tip of snout, 2) anterior tip of lower lip, 3) anterior & 4) posterior point of operculum, 5) junction where the dorsolateral part of the head and body fuse, anterior insertion points of the 6) pectoral, 7) pelvic and, 8) anal fin, 9) ventral and 10) dorsal junction of the caudal peduncle and tail, 11) anterior insertion of the dorsal fin.

389x439mm (300 x 300 DPI)

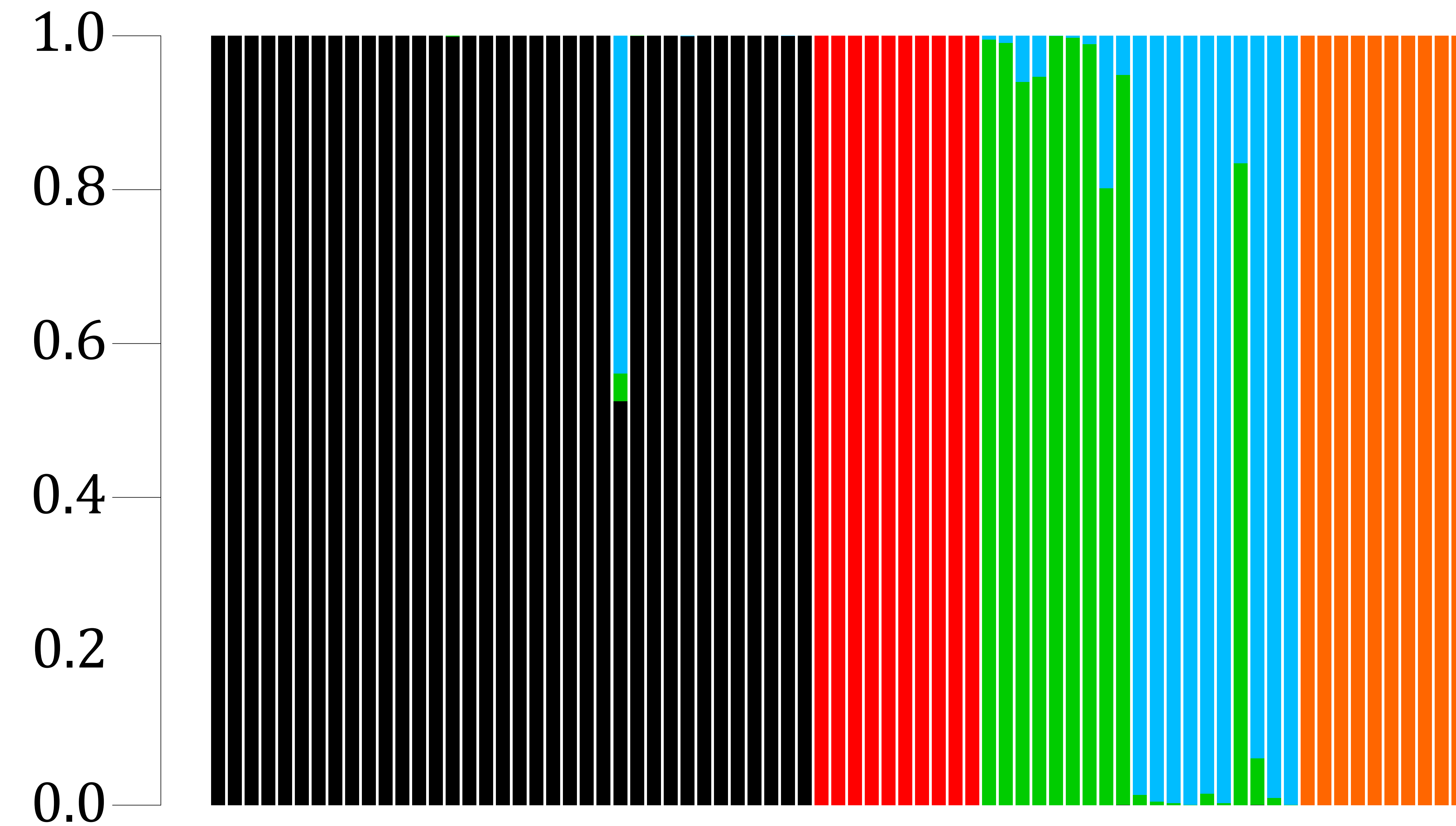


b)

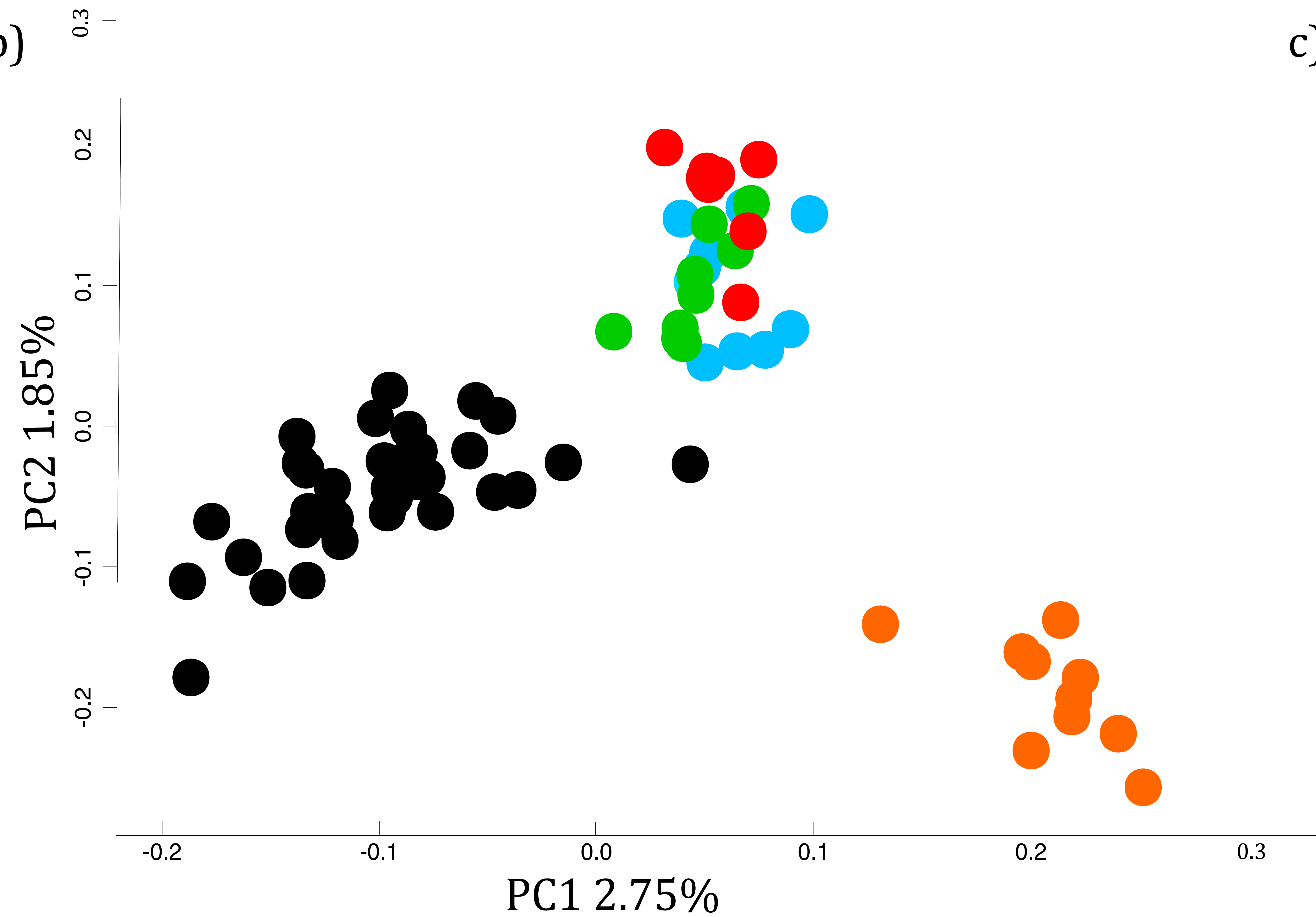


a)

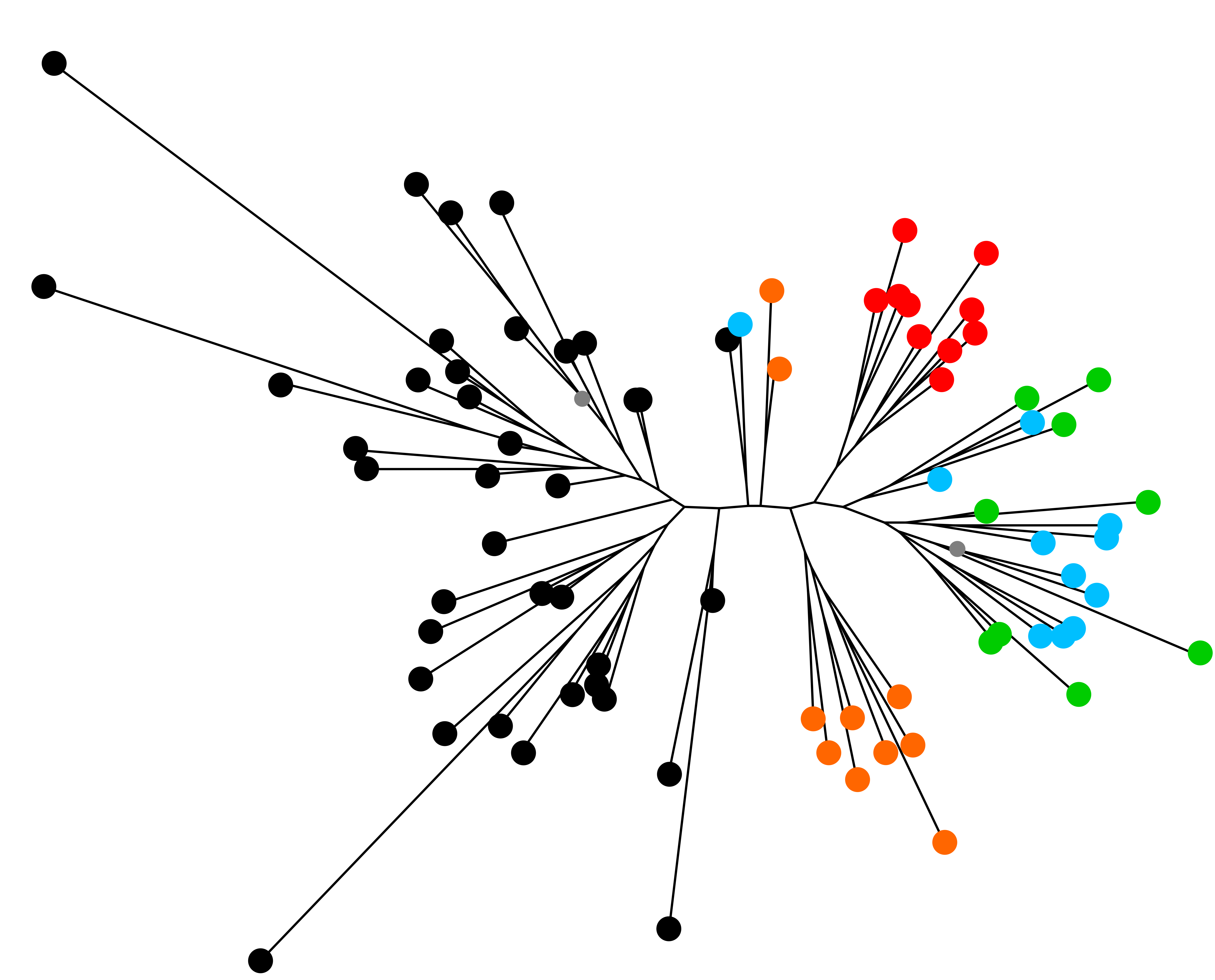
membership probability



b)



c)



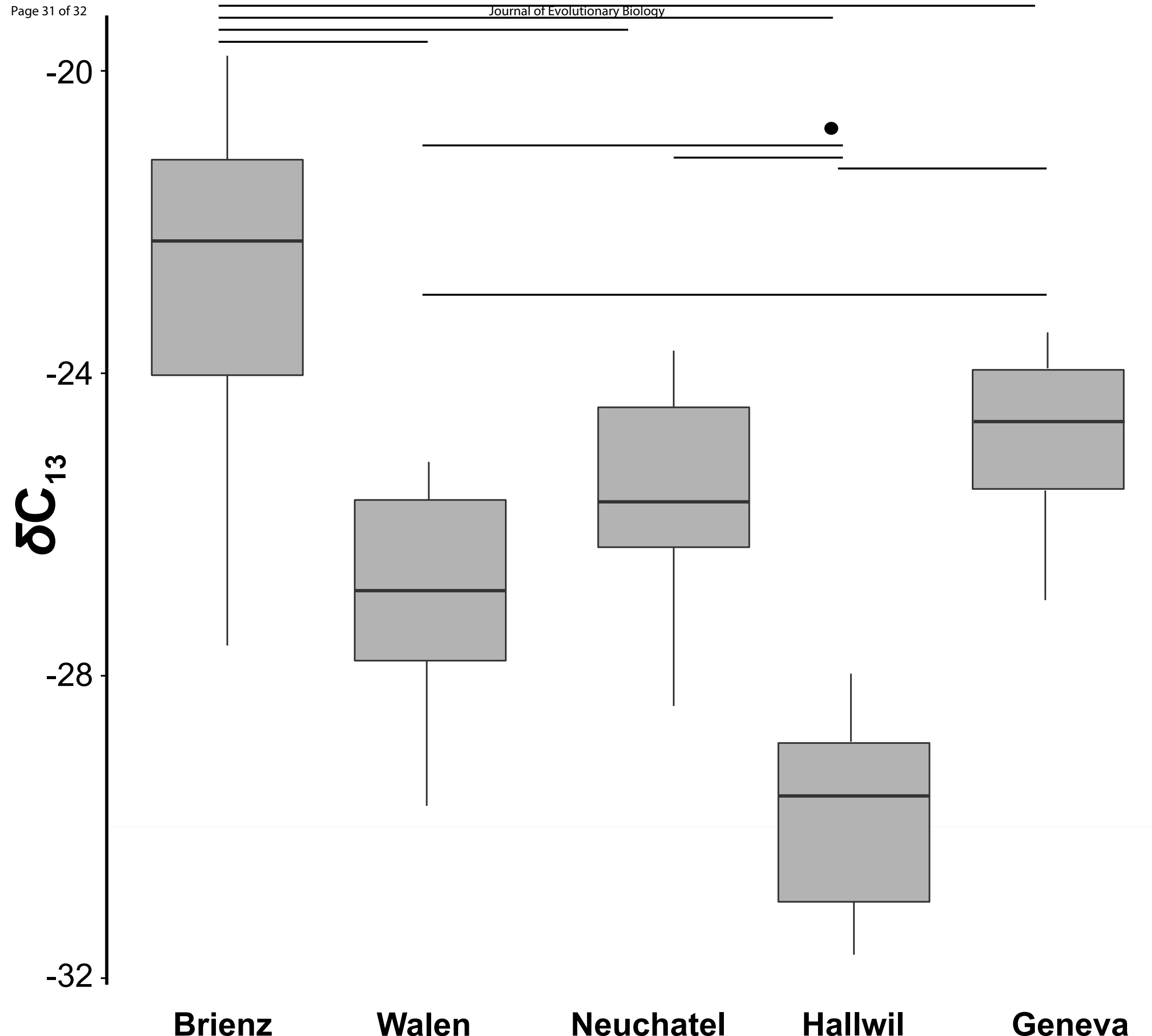
■ Brienz

■ Hallwil

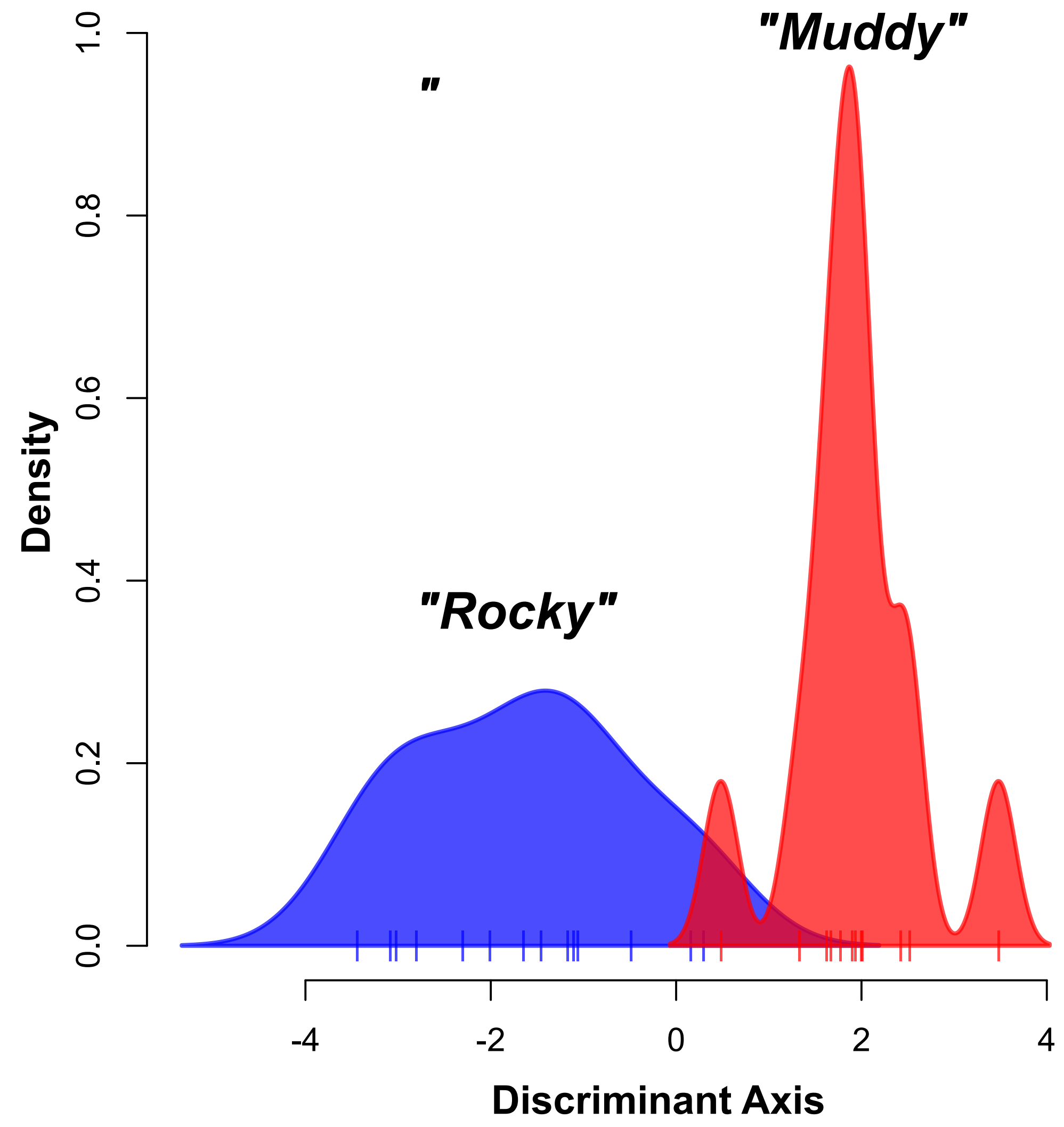
■ Geneva

■ Neuchatel

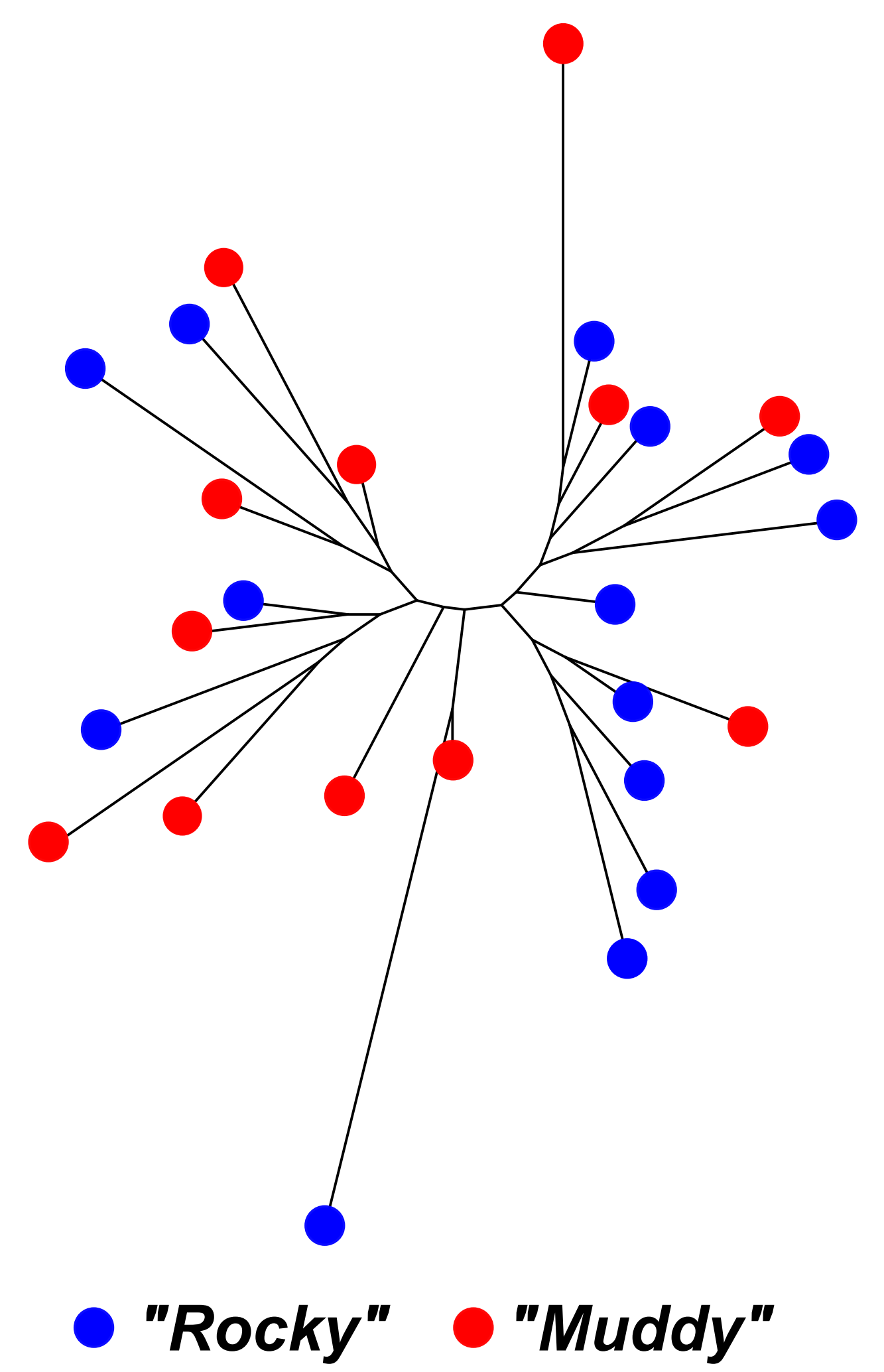
■ Walen



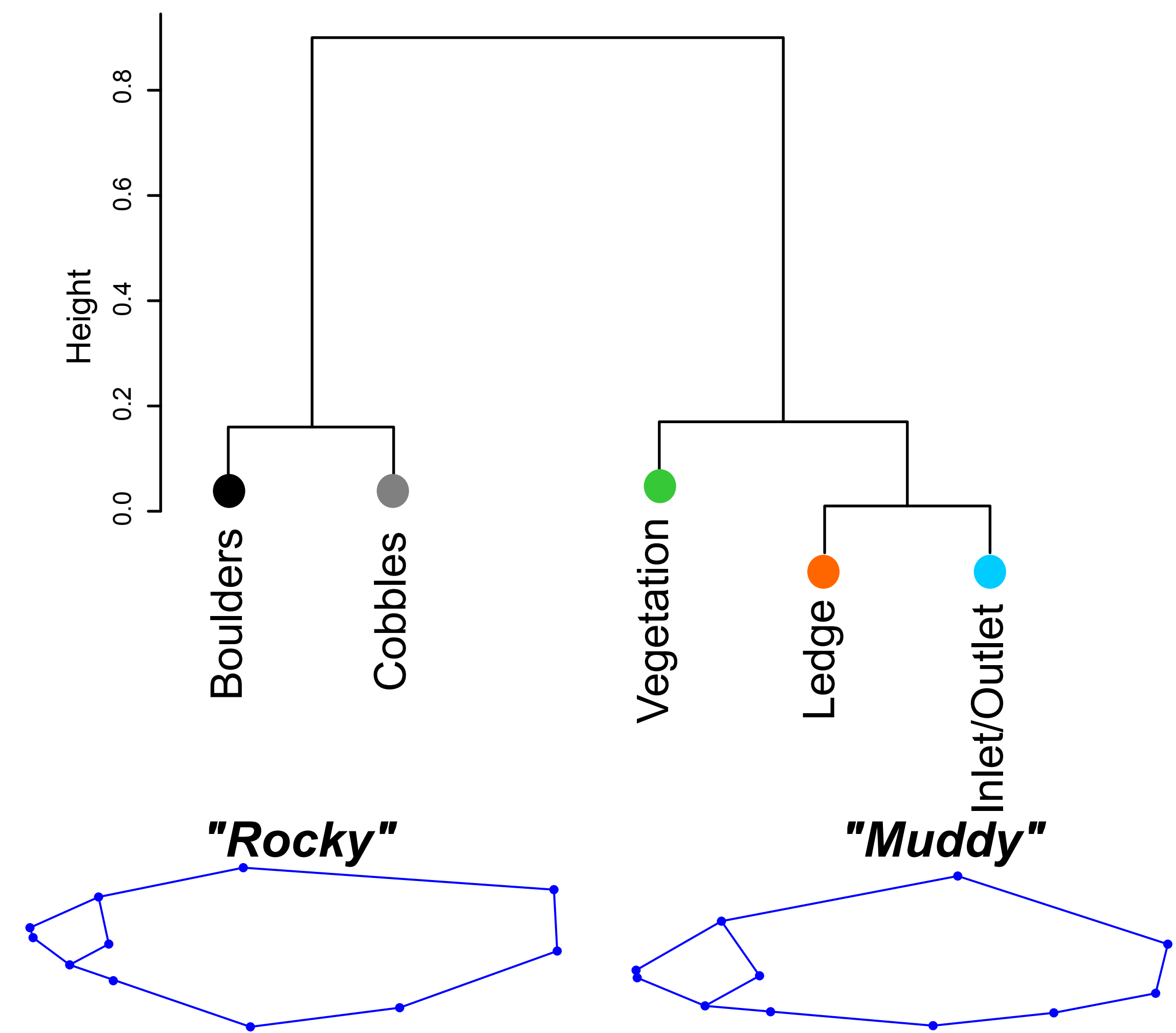
### a) Discriminant Function Analysis



### b) Phylogenetic Relationship



### c) Phenotypic Relationship



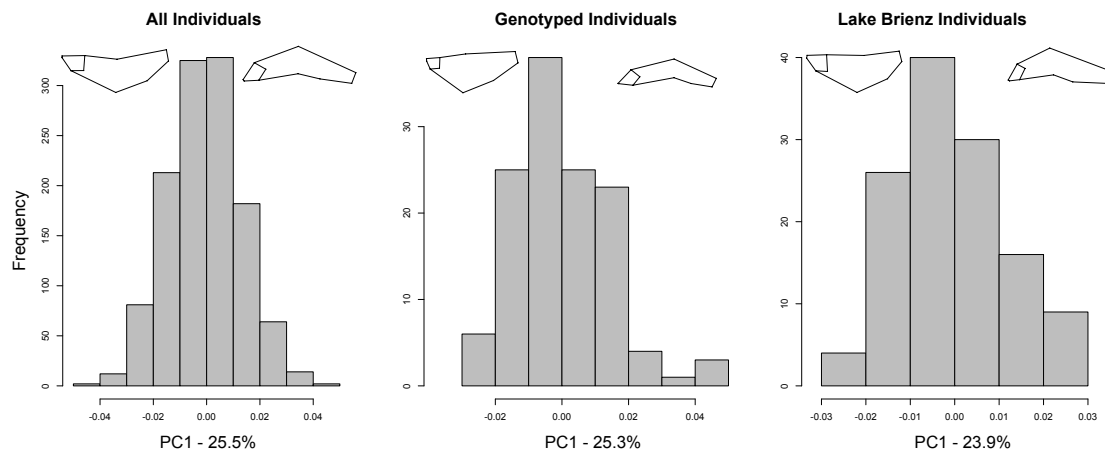


Figure S1: Histograms based on PC1 scores using size-corrected geometric morphometric data. Shown are the distributions using individuals from all lakes, using only genotyped individuals, and using only individuals from Lake Brienz. PC1 data was removed from subsequent analysis for all datasets because PC1 was driven by the bending of the fish, shown by the deformation grids for each dataset.

Table S1: Principal component (PC) scores for each landmark (see Figure 1 for details) along PC axes 1-3. For each axis, the percentage of variance explained is indicated. Also indicated are the standardized PC scores for axes 2 and 3 showing the relative importance of each trait (see main text for details).

Landmark	PC1 (25.5%)	PC2 (16.7%)	PC2 Standardized	PC3 (13.1%)	PC3 Standardized
x1	-0.014	0.474	0.992	0.066	0.087
y1	-0.331	0.012	0.026	-0.034	0.045
x2	0.008	0.478	1	0.064	0.084
y2	-0.326	-0.045	0.095	-0.06	0.079
x3	0.115	-0.057	0.118	-0.131	0.173
y3	-0.062	0.12	0.25	0.014	0.018
x4	0.007	-0.323	0.676	-0.204	0.268
y4	0.147	-0.001	0.003	0	0
x5	-0.234	-0.16	0.336	-0.231	0.303
y5	-0.015	-0.187	0.392	-0.056	0.073
x6	0.109	-0.348	0.728	-0.215	0.283
y6	0.207	0.051	0.108	0.029	0.038
x7	0.012	-0.338	0.708	0.239	0.314
y7	0.479	-0.083	0.174	-0.06	0.079
x8	-0.171	0.034	0.072	0.166	0.219
y8	0.157	-0.052	0.11	0.001	0.001
x9	0.029	0.22	0.46	-0.27	0.356
y9	-0.306	0.049	0.102	0.012	0.016
x10	0.147	0.167	0.349	-0.245	0.322
y10	-0.317	0.021	0.043	-0.001	0.002
x11	-0.008	-0.146	0.306	0.76	1
y11	0.367	0.117	0.245	0.157	0.206

Table S2: Tukey-Kramer *post hoc* results, with a Bonferroni correction applied, for PC2 and PC3 scores detailing significant morphological differences amongst lake populations.

Lake Comparisons		<i>p-value</i>	
		PC2	PC3
Brenet	Brienzenz	<0.001	0.000
	Geneva	0.984	0.015
	Joux	0.006	0.000
	Geneva	<0.001	0.000
	Neuchatel	<0.001	0.000
	Walenz	0.978	0.000
Brienzenz	Geneva	<0.001	0.973
	Joux	<0.001	0.998
	Geneva	<0.001	0.154
	Neuchatel	<0.001	0.419
	Walenz	<0.001	0.606
Geneva	Joux	0.021	0.999
	Geneva	0.036	0.050
	Neuchatel	<0.001	0.152
	Walenz	0.882	0.325
Joux	Geneva	<0.001	0.032
	Neuchatel	0.431	0.093
	Walenz	0.993	0.398
Geneva	Neuchatel	<0.001	0.973
	Walenz	0.014	1.000
Neuchatel	Walenz	0.669	0.993



Table S3: Mahalanobis distances calculated between habitat groups within Lake Brienz, with their associated *p*-values based on 10,000 bootstraps.

<b>Comparison</b>	<b>Mahalanobis distance</b>	<b><i>p</i>-value</b>
Boulders – Cobble	1.58	0.110
Boulders – Ledge	2.39	<0.001
Boulders – Affluent/Effluent	1.69	<0.001
Boulders - Vegetation	1.84	<0.001
Cobble – Ledge	1.81	0.056
Cobble – Affluent/Effluent	1.72	0.001
Cobble – Vegetation	1.52	0.130
Ledge – Affluent/Effluent	1.52	0.080
Ledge – Vegetation	1.50	0.272
Affluent/Effluent – Vegetation	0.93	0.755

Table S4: List of SNPs showing an  $F_{ST} > 0.3$  between individuals caught over rocky or muddy substrates in Lake Brienz. Also, presented are the SNPs, contig IDs, and the locus specific  $F_{ST}$ . Each contig was compared to the NCBI nucleotide collection. Gene annotations for contigs that aligned with a known gene in other fish species are given.

<b>SNP ID</b>	<b>Contig ID</b>	<b><math>F_{ST}</math></b>	<b>Gene annotation</b>
SNP_1198	consensus_3971	0.333	FSTL5: Follistatin-related protein 5
SNP_2379	consensus_10858	0.374	-
SNP_2439	consensus_11289	0.307	PCSK5: Proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 5
SNP_3301	consensus_18419	0.323	-
SNP_4437	consensus_38170	0.319	-