

Replicated Functional Evolution in Cichlid Adaptive Radiations

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22 **ABSTRACT**

23 Adaptive radiations highlight the mechanisms by which species and traits diversify and the
24 extent to which these patterns are predictable. We used 1,110 high-speed videos of suction
25 feeding to study functional and morphological diversification in 300 cichlid species from three
26 African Great Lake radiations of varying ages (Tanganyika, Malawi and Victoria) and an older,
27 spatially dispersed continental radiation in the Neotropics. Among African radiations, standing
28 diversity was reflective of time. Morphological and functional variance in Lake Victoria, the
29 youngest radiation, was a subset of that within Lake Malawi, which itself was nested within the
30 older Tanganyikan radiation. However, functional diversity in Neotropical cichlids was often
31 lower than in Lake Tanganyika, despite being at least 25 My older. These two radiations broadly
32 overlapped, but each diversified into novel trait spaces not found in the youngest lake radiations.
33 Evolutionary rates across radiations were inversely related to age, suggesting, at least for lake
34 radiations, extremely rapid trait evolution at early stages. Despite this support for early bursts,
35 other patterns of trait diversity were inconsistent with expectations of adaptive radiations. This
36 work suggests that cichlid functional evolution has played out in strikingly similar fashion in
37 different radiations, with contingencies eventually resulting in lineage-specific novelties.

38

39 **Introduction**

40 Adaptive radiations provide glimpses into how traits diversify and evolve across related
41 taxa in the presence of ecological opportunity (Simpson 1953; Gillespie et al. 2020). Studies on
42 adaptive radiations have helped to explain how Caribbean anoles (Losos et al. 1998) and
43 Hawaiian spiders (Gillespie 2004) have colonized new island habitats through repeated evolution
44 of convergent ecomorphs. They have also highlighted mechanisms underlying trait divergence

45 across adaptive peaks in Bahamian pupfishes (Patton et al. 2022), Galapagos finches, and
46 Hawaiian honeycreepers (Tokita et al. 2016). A common theme in the literature on adaptive
47 radiations is the degree to which trait evolution reflects predictable patterns of diversification
48 versus the generation of novel combinations of phenotypes (e.g., Schluter 1996; Losos et al.
49 1998; Gillespie 2013).

50 Cichlid fishes are renowned for having multiple expansive radiations involving hundreds
51 of species in each of three large African lakes – Tanganyika, Malawi and Victoria – (Freyer and
52 Illes 1972) and a continental radiation in tropical South and Central America (López-Fernández
53 et al. 2013; Arbour and López-Fernández 2014). The existence of these large radiations of
54 related species provides an opportunity to capitalize on natural replication to address questions
55 about the repeatability of these systems at a scale beyond the first few niche expansions. The
56 radiations also differ considerably in age, approximately 55 Ma for Neotropical cichlids, 28 Ma
57 for Lake Tanganyika (although a recent estimate suggests 10 Ma; Ronco et al. 2021), 2 Ma for
58 Lake Malawi, and 0.1 Ma for Lake Victoria (we discuss cichlid ages further in the supplement).
59 These differences present temporally spaced sample points that allow insight into the long-term
60 unfolding of adaptive radiations and the relative importance of time and rate of diversification on
61 current patterns of diversity.

62 Previous comparisons of phenotypic diversity in the three African lakes have drawn two
63 main conclusions. First, diversity of body shape and trophic morphology differs between the
64 lakes, with the oldest radiation, in Lake Tanganyika, housing greater diversity of body shape and
65 craniofacial morphology, and the youngest radiation, in Lake Victoria, having the lowest
66 diversity (Young et al. 2009; Cooper et al. 2010). It is not known whether adaptive radiations of
67 the African lakes have amassed greater morphological diversity, and associated functional

68 variation, than the much older continental radiation in the Neotropics that includes roughly 500
69 species (Lopez-Fernandez et al. 2013). Such a contrast would provide insight into whether the
70 processes of adaptive evolution in the African lakes produces even greater diversity than a
71 continental radiation evolving over a much longer time span. Second, convergent ecology and
72 morphology are common, suggesting relatively predictable modes of diversification and broadly
73 repeated patterns of evolution in feeding morphology (Cooper et al. 2010) and body shape
74 (Kocher et al. 1993; Young et al. 2009). Similar instances of convergence have been found in
75 related groups of Neotropical cichlids (Burress et al. 2017). Thus, large cichlid adaptive
76 radiations could generate similar, though not identical, sets of phenotypes where diversity
77 accumulates over extended time periods.

78 The temporal sampling of cichlid radiations creates an opportunity to evaluate, at various
79 stages of development, patterns of functional diversification relative to our expectations of
80 adaptive radiations. A classic prediction is an early burst in trait diversification, where
81 evolutionary rates are initially rapid as open niches in newly colonized habitats are filled,
82 followed by a nonlinear decay in rates after initial expansion (Simpson 1953). An assumption of
83 the early burst model is that the rapid increase in trait diversity is achieved by different lineages
84 evolving toward separate adaptive zones where they subsequently undergo further
85 diversification, resulting in comparatively greater variance among clades than within (Simpson
86 1953; Harmon et al. 2003).

87 In the present study, we describe the diversity of cichlid prey capture kinematics using
88 high-speed video recordings of 300 species, sampled from the three African great lake radiations
89 and the Neotropics. We contrast kinematic and morphological variation of the feeding
90 mechanism in radiations of varying age to test the hypothesis that differences in standing

91 functional diversity are due to time, as opposed to different rates of evolution. To assess the
92 repeatability and predictability of cichlid adaptive radiation, we also quantify the extent to which
93 each has produced species with similar feeding kinematics. Additionally, we test the key
94 expectation that adaptive radiations exhibit an early burst in trait diversification that is achieved
95 through the partitioning of traits among clades (Simpson 1953; Harmon et al. 2003).

96 A secondary objective of this work is to examine the relationship between morphological
97 and functional diversity of the cichlid feeding mechanism. Preliminary estimates of body and
98 craniofacial variation in the three large African lake radiations have typically been interpreted as
99 reflecting functional diversity linked to locomotor and feeding biomechanics (Young et al. 2009;
100 Cooper et al. 2010). In many cases, links between morphological variation and functional
101 properties are well-established (Hulsey & García de León 2005; Hulsey et al. 2006; Higham et
102 al. 2007). Nevertheless, our current understanding of functional diversity in cichlids is largely
103 inferred from morphological variation, rather than direct measurements of functional traits.
104 Comparisons of functional diversity allow us to test the reliability of morphological variation to
105 reflect function and help to identify key axes of diversification that are cryptic when only
106 morphology is considered.

107

108 **Methods**

109 *Species sampling and feeding videos*

110 1,110 high-speed videos of feeding motions from 300 species of lab-filmed cichlids were
111 studied. Species were broadly distributed phylogenetically from one of four focal radiations, the
112 Neotropics (n=85 species) and African Great Lakes, Tanganyika (n=89), Malawi (n=86), and
113 Victoria (n=40). We note that two species, *Harpagochromis* sp. “golden duck” and *Pyxichromis*

114 *orthostoma*, belonging to the Lake Victoria Region Superflock are endemic to Lake Kyoga,
115 which retains a connection to Lake Victoria via the Victoria Nile River. All videos were filmed
116 from a lateral perspective at 2,000 frames-per-second (McGee et al. 2016) and contained full-
117 effort suction feeding strikes on moderately evasive, living midwater prey. Primary prey
118 included mosquito larvae (*Culex pipiens*), black worms (*Lumbriculus* sp.), and *Daphnia magna*.
119 Small fish were rarely used as prey to elicit sufficiently full effort feeding strikes from some
120 species, which was important for reducing kinematic variation due to fish effort. We extracted 10
121 frames from each video, equally spaced in time from the initiation of the motion to peak
122 expansion of the feeding apparatus, prior to mouth closing. For comparative analyses, we
123 matched filmed species to a recent cichlid phylogeny (McGee et al. 2020; Supplementary
124 Information).

125

126 ***Morphological and functional traits***

127 Cichlid functional diversity was determined using a variety of kinematic traits, all derived
128 from an initial configuration of 18 cranial landmarks manually placed on each of 10 video
129 frames for a motion (fig. 1A). Digitizing was done in tpsDIG2 (Rohlf 2015) and StereoMorph
130 (Olsen and Westneat 2015). Landmark data for 53 species came from a previous study (Martinez
131 et al. 2018) but the remaining 247 species comprised new data. First, subsets of landmarks were
132 used to measure movements (i.e., maximum excursions) of key morphological features involved
133 in prey capture. In total, we created six *motion component* traits (fig. 1B), three from rotational
134 movements of bones (*lower jaw rotation, cranial rotation, maxillary rotation*) and three from
135 linear displacements (*premaxilla protrusion, hyoid depression, mouth gape*). We analyzed traits
136 both as multivariate *motion components*, and individually. Due to the incommensurability of

137 angles and linear displacements (Huttegger and Mitteroecker 2011), we converted the three
138 rotational traits to distances by using the observed angle of rotation and the length of the rotating
139 arm (measured on the fish at full gape) to determine the length of the arc transcribed by the
140 structure in question (e.g., the Euclidean distance travelled by the distal end of the maxilla). All
141 component traits were then scaled by dividing values by the centroid size of the fish's head in a
142 closed-mouth state. Lastly, we averaged the components across repeated feeding trials within
143 individuals, and then across individuals to get a mean trait value for the species. All additional
144 traits described below were similarly averaged to species for comparative analyses.

145 Additional kinematic traits were created using an approach that characterizes movements
146 as trajectories of shape change (fig. 1), integrating the numerous moving parts involved in a
147 complex motion into a single object that allows for comparisons at the whole-motion level
148 (Adams and Cerney 2007; Adams and Collyer 2009; Collyer and Adams 2013; Martinez et al.
149 2018; 2022; Martinez and Wainwright 2019). Digitized cranial landmarks were aligned and
150 scaled using generalized Procrustes analysis (GPA) with the 'gpagen' function in the 'geomorph'
151 package, v 4.0.3, in the R statistical environment, v 4.1.3 (Adams et al. 2021; R Core Team
152 2022), with alignment of sliding semi-landmarks along the ventral margin of the head achieved
153 by minimizing Procrustes distances. Once aligned with GPA, the progressive movements of
154 landmark-tracked cranial features result in a trajectory of shape change (fig. 1A & E), the
155 features of which can be used as traits that capture motion variation (Martinez et al. 2018; 2019;
156 2022). In this study, for example, the length of each motion trajectory is a measure of cranial
157 *kinesis*, or the amount of movement generated by the feeding apparatus during prey capture (fig.
158 1D). The total trajectory length was computed as the sum of Procrustes distances between
159 consecutive motion shapes (Collyer and Adams 2013).

160 We also generated two composite traits designed to provide context about when and how
161 kinesis is achieved. *Kinesis skew* was the natural logarithm of the ratio of kinesis across the final
162 five motion shapes to the total kinesis for the motion. It is a descriptor of the temporal
163 distribution of kinesis within a movement, with smaller values indicating comparatively more
164 movement toward the beginning of the feeding strike and larger values meaning that movement
165 is concentrated near the end of the strike. Next, we measured a *kinesis coefficient* trait, as an
166 analog to kinematic transmission (Westneat 1994; 2004), which is commonly used with
167 biomechanical linkage models to describe output movement of an anatomical feature, given a
168 degree of input motion from another. Here, we took the natural logarithm of total kinesis for a
169 motion (output movement) divided by maximum cranial rotation (input movement) from the
170 *motion components* described above. We used cranial rotation, which is driven by contraction of
171 epaxial muscles posterior to the head, for the input value as it facilitates expansion of the buccal
172 cavity and drive movements of other features of the feeding apparatus (Camp et al. 2020).

173 The final functional trait we compared was *motion pattern*, briefly described here. For
174 complex biomechanical systems composed of numerous mobile features, any change in relative
175 timing and/or degree of movement across those features causes variation in the pattern of
176 movement at the whole-motion level. We used anatomical landmarks to express feeding
177 movements as an ordered series of changing shapes over time, or a trajectory through
178 morphospace (fig. 1A). The paths forged by these trajectories each have their own shape that
179 reflects motion patterns – different trajectory shapes represent different patterns of movement
180 that can be observed both within a single species feeding with different modes of prey capture
181 (Martinez et al. 2022) and across species with different evolved feeding systems (Martinez et al.
182 2018). We note that *Motion components* and *motion pattern* are both multivariate descriptors of

183 feeding movements but capture contrasting aspects of their diversity. *Motion components*
184 measure maximum excursions of key features of feeding motions, whereas *motion pattern*
185 describes how and when those movements take place (Martinez et al. 2022). To compare *motion*
186 *patterns*, we used modified code from the ‘trajectory.analysis’ function in the R package ‘RRPP’
187 (version 1.0.0) to align and scale trajectories (fig. S1; Collyer and Adams 2018; 2019). Here, the
188 centroid size of the entire trajectory was the scaling factor.

189 To provide context to functional and kinematic patterns, we also examined interspecific
190 cranial morphologies across cichlid species. We extracted head shape data from the starting
191 positions of motions, where the mouths were in a closed state. A separate shape alignment was
192 done on head shape landmarks, which were then averaged to species prior to statistical analyses.

193

194 ***Trait diversity and overlap among radiations***

195 Variance of morphological and kinematic traits, both univariate and multivariate, were
196 measured and statistically compared using the ‘morphol.disparity’ function in ‘geomorph’ with
197 10,000 permutations. In addition to trait variation, we were interested in the degree of overlap (or
198 lack thereof) in the occupation of multivariate functional and morphological spaces across
199 cichlid radiations. We created four-dimensional hypervolumes for *motion components*, *motion*
200 *pattern*, and head shape data using the R package ‘hypervolume’ v 3.0.0 (Blonder et al. 2014;
201 2018). We took the first four axes from a principal component analysis, as hypervolumes are best
202 conducted on orthogonal variables (Blonder et al. 2014; 2018). Hypervolumes were made for
203 each radiation (e.g., species from Lake Tanganyika), and for subsets of the data excluding each
204 radiation (e.g., all species *not* from Lake Tanganyika). We then assessed hypervolume overlap
205 and the fraction of unique space occupied by each radiation. Lastly, we estimated the likelihood

206 of our observed results against a null distribution of hypervolumes generated by randomly
207 permuting group assignments among species 10,000 times (e.g., Corn et al. 2022).

208

209 ***Rates of evolution***

210 For all traits, we estimated rates of evolution (the Brownian rate parameter) within each
211 cichlid radiation with the ‘compare.evol.rates’ function in ‘geomorph’ for both univariate and
212 multivariate rates, with significance based on 10,000 permutations.

213

214 ***Modes of trait diversification***

215 We examined both historical reconstructions of trait diversification and contemporary patterns of
216 variation to explore the manner by which trait diversity was attained in cichlid radiations. We
217 estimated the accumulation of trait disparity through time (DTT) in radiations using the ‘dtt’
218 function in the R package ‘geiger’ v 2.0.7. (Harmon et al. 2008; Pennell et al. 2014). DTT plots
219 show relative disparities among subclades at each divergence event in the tree, estimating
220 whether trait diversity is concentrated within or among subclades as an explicit test of the early
221 burst expectation (Simpson 1953). An output of this analysis is the morphological disparity index
222 (MDI), a metric for comparing the difference between the estimated relative disparity of a clade
223 and the disparity of the clade under simulated Brownian motion. MDI statistics were calculated
224 for the first 75% of the tree’s history, as missing species in the recent phylogeny may obscure
225 patterns close to the present. We estimated DTT from subtrees of each radiation for *motion*
226 *components*, *motion pattern* and head shape, using the first four axes from PCAs on each,
227 consistent with our comparisons of hypervolumes. Tree topology is key to DTT analyses, so we
228 note caution in interpreting results for young radiations, like Lakes Malawi and Victoria, in

229 which a tree-like model of lineage diversification is unlikely due to widespread hybridization
230 (Joyce et al. 2011; Meier et al. 2017; Scherz et al. 2022). Consequently, we focus our discussion
231 on the two older radiations in Lake Tanganyika and the Neotropics but provide results for all
232 radiations in the supplement materials.

233 To further examine patterns of trait dispersion, we computed distances between extant
234 species and radiation-specific ancestral states. For each cichlid radiation, we estimated ancestral
235 states under Brownian motion with the ‘gm.prcomp’ function in ‘geomorph’, extracting the value
236 at the root of the tree as the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) for the radiation. Finally, we
237 measured Euclidean distances (*motion components*) and Procrustes distances (*motion pattern* and
238 head shape) between each species and its radiation’s MRCA.

239

240 **Results**

241 *Functional diversity across cichlid radiations*

242 *Motion components*, composed of six key features of fish cranial movement during
243 feeding (fig. 1B), displayed 3.2 (Lake Tanganyika) and 2.9 times (Neotropics) greater variance
244 in older radiations compared to the youngest radiation in Victoria (figs. 2 & 3; table S3).
245 Separate univariate analyses on the individual components did show some variation in rank
246 orders of variances across traits (fig. 2; table S3). In all cases, Lake Victoria had the lowest
247 variance, followed closely by Lake Malawi, but some traits displayed their highest variation in
248 Lake Tanganyika (*premaxillary protrusion*, *maxillary rotation*, *lower jaw rotation*, and *mouth*
249 *gape*), while others were most variable in the Neotropics (*cranial rotation* and *hyoid depression*).

250 Functional traits derived from trajectories of shape change also showed different levels of
251 diversity across radiations. Cranial *kinesis* had significantly greater variance in Lake Tanganyika

252 than all other cichlid radiations, having 1.9-times greater variance than the next closest (the
253 Neotropics) and 2.9-times greater variance than the lowest (Lake Victoria). *Kinesis skew*, the
254 proportion of kinesis in the latter half of the feeding motion, was again most variable in Lake
255 Tanganyika, but there was greater parity between it, Lake Malawi and the Neotropics (fig. 2).
256 *Kinematic coefficient*, output kinesis relative to input movement from cranial rotation, showed
257 the highest variance in the Neotropical radiation, which was significantly greater than that of the
258 younger radiations in Lakes Malawi and Victoria (fig. 2). Finally, the rank order of variances for
259 whole *motion pattern*, a trait describing the timing and sequence of motion events, was the same
260 as they were for *kinesis skew* – Lake Victoria was significantly lower than the other major
261 radiations, followed by nearly identical values in Lake Malawi and the Neotropics, and the
262 greatest variance again in Lake Tanganyika (fig. 2 & 3). Despite its young age, Lake Malawi
263 showed surprisingly high diversity in *motion pattern*. This appears to be driven by a collection of
264 species like *Tyrannochromis nigriventer*, *Copadichromis virginalis*, and *Caprichromis liemi* that
265 have feeding motions in which kinesis is disproportionately concentrated toward the end of the
266 strike (i.e., high *kinesis skew*, and *motion patterns* with large positive PC 1 scores in fig. 3B).

267

268 ***Occupation of novel functional spaces***

269 Comparisons of hypervolumes identified whether individual radiations occupied unique
270 regions of multivariate functional spaces. For the *motion components*, we found that 62% of
271 Lake Tanganyika's and 49% of the Neotropics' functional space was unique to those radiations
272 at the exclusion of all others, with both results occurring in the 99th percentile of randomized
273 trials (fig. 3A; table S4). Cichlids occupying unique regions of the *kinematic components*
274 functional space in Tanganyika included several specialized planktivores with high upper jaw

275 protrusion in the genus *Cyprichromis* and elongate species with comparatively small gapes, like
276 *Chalinochromis brichardi* and *Julidochromis dickfeldi*. In the Neotropics, multiple species of
277 *Amatitlania* and a host of species in the tribe Geophagini (all with relatively small mouths, low
278 cranial rotation, and low hyoid depression) occurred in one unique region, and species capable of
279 extreme upper jaw protrusion, *Petenia splendida* and *Caquetaia myersi*, were found in another.
280 In contrast to Tanganyika and the Neotropics, only 6% of this space in Lake Malawi and 3% in
281 Lake Victoria was unique to those lakes, suggesting that most of their diversity is nested within
282 the other cichlid radiations (fig. 3A; table S4).

283 Across all species, the diversity of *motion patterns* was largely restricted to a distinct
284 concave or arched distribution (fig. 3B). This reflects a general constraint on motion diversity –
285 despite differences in the relative magnitude of movements (*motion components*), patterns of
286 feeding movements in cichlids are created by the same morphological features, moving in the
287 same direction, and mostly in the same sequence. One extreme of the *motion pattern* distribution
288 was characterized by an abrupt shift in the direction of cranial shape change within morphospace
289 toward the end of the motion, which manifested as an asymmetrical trajectory shape (left side of
290 fig. 3B). During feeding sequences, this was caused by late onset cranial rotation and hyoid
291 depression after full protrusion of the upper jaw was achieved, presumably for continued buccal
292 expansion posteriorly to prolong suction during prey acquisition. The other extreme contained
293 symmetrically shaped trajectories in which the rate of cranial shape change was slow initially but
294 fast toward the end of the strike, such that kinesis was disproportionately concentrated in later
295 motion stages (right side of fig. 3B), a pattern reminiscent of high *kinesis skew*. Comparisons of
296 hypervolumes for *motion pattern* revealed a mostly nested pattern in which Tanganyika (54%)

297 occupied the greatest volume of unique space (upper 99th percentile of permutations), with much
298 lower values for the Neotropics (26%), Malawi (14%), and Victoria (1%; table S4).

299

300 ***Rates of functional evolution***

301 Across all functional traits, there was a strong inverse and nonlinear relationship between
302 rates and crown ages of radiations (fig. S2; table S5). In each case, Lake Victoria had much
303 higher rates than other radiations, ranging anywhere from 42 to 95-fold faster diversification
304 compared to the radiation with the slowest rate. Similarly, the second youngest radiation, Lake
305 Malawi, consistently had the second highest rates of trait evolution. Pairwise comparisons of
306 rates between Lakes Victoria and Malawi were statistically significant at the $\alpha=0.05$ level for
307 functional traits except for *hyoid depression* and *kinesis skew*. One caveat is that these analyses
308 assume a tree-like pattern of lineage diversification, and so we limit our interpretation primarily
309 to emphasize the vastly different time scales over which functional trait diversity has
310 accumulated in these radiations. In comparisons between the two older radiations, rates in Lake
311 Tanganyika were always higher than in the Neotropics, ranging from 1.1-fold to 4-fold
312 differences. However, unlike other pairwise comparisons among radiations, Tanganyika and the
313 Neotropics failed to show significant differences with each other for over half of the functional
314 traits considered. Significant differences in rate of evolution in these two radiations were found
315 for *premaxillary protrusion*, *kinesis skew*, *kinesis*, *motion components*, and *motion pattern*.

316

317 ***Modes of functional diversification***

318 Disparity through time (DTT) analyses provided information about temporal patterns of
319 diversification for two multivariate functional traits, *motion components* and *motion pattern*. In

320 Lake Tanganyika and the Neotropics, neither trait displayed DTT trends that were statistically
321 different from Brownian motion – the morphological disparity index (MDI), describing the
322 deviation of observed DTT trends from the null expectation, was not statistically significant for
323 either dataset (fig. 4A; see table S6 for results from all radiations). However, while DTT trends
324 for *motion components* largely stayed within the 95% range of simulated trait histories, those for
325 *motion pattern* were above the Brownian expectation in all radiations, in some cases for
326 prolonged durations, suggesting that trait variance was at times disproportionately concentrated
327 within subclades. Notably, none of the functional DTT trends fell below the lower 95% range for
328 Brownian motion, an indicator of early bursts of trait diversification during adaptive radiation
329 (fig. 4C).

330 Trait dispersion of extant species in each radiation around their most recent common
331 ancestor (MRCA) additionally captured patterns of trait space occupation across radiations at
332 different stages of development. Euclidean distances of *motion components* between species and
333 the MRCA were continuously distributed for all radiations except Lake Victoria (fig. 4B). In this
334 youngest lake, a handful of species with comparably low upper jaw protrusion formed a small
335 secondary peak that was more distantly situated from the Lake Victoria radiation MRCA
336 (observations in the upper left of the Lake Victoria distribution in fig. 3A). These species
337 consisted mostly of herbivorous cichlids from the genus *Neochromis* and omnivores in the genus
338 *Pundamilia*, possibly representing a (weakly) isolated adaptive peak related to trophic ecology
339 and jaw function. For *motion pattern*, Procrustes distances from radiation-specific MRCAs were
340 right-skewed, particularly in Lake Victoria and the Neotropics, seemingly reflecting the highly
341 constrained distribution of the trait more than distinct adaptive zones (figs. 3B & 4D).

342

343 ***Cranial morphology and its relation to motion diversity***

344 Interspecific variance in head shape was highest in Neotropical cichlids, but only
345 marginally greater than in Lake Tanganyika (table S3). Still, the Neotropics boasted 2.3-times
346 more head shape diversity than Lake Malawi and 2.7-times more than Lake Victoria. Pairwise
347 comparisons of variances were statistically significant except between the two youngest
348 radiations, Malawi-Victoria, and the two oldest, Neotropics-Tanganyika (table S3). Interestingly,
349 the high head shape variance in the Neotropics did not directly translate to functional diversity,
350 as Lake Tanganyika still had greater (but similar) diversity in *motion components*, and
351 significantly higher variance in *kinesis*, *motion pattern*, *premaxillary protrusion*, and *maxillary*
352 *rotation* (fig. 5C-E).

353 Comparisons of hypervolumes for head shape revealed that 59% of cranial diversity in
354 the Neotropics and 57% in Lake Tanganyika was unique to those regions, both observations
355 occurring in the upper 99th percentile of randomized permutations (table S4). One of the things
356 that made the Neotropics stand out was expansion towards deep-headed taxa, like *Symphysodon*
357 *discus* and *Pterophyllum scalare*, but also several species in the genus *Amatitlania* that were not
358 as extreme but still outside of the space occupied by cichlids in other radiations (fig. 5A, lower
359 scores on PC 1). Some species from the African lake radiations occurred in a non-overlapping
360 region of morphospace with the Neotropics that contained many small-mouthed benthic biting
361 and picking specialists, like *Tropheus brichardi*, *Melanochromis wochepea*, and *Chalinochromis*
362 *popelini* (fig. 5A, lower scores on PC 2). In addition, Lake Tanganyika possessed a fair degree of
363 unique morphologies varying broadly in direction of mouth orientation (fig. 5B), from upturned
364 (e.g., *Haplotaxodon microlepis*) to downward deflecting profiles (e.g., *Xenotilapia ochrogenys*).

365 Morphological diversity within Lakes Malawi and Victoria was almost entirely contained within
366 the other regions, with only 5% and 3% unique morphospace occupation, respectively.

367 Rates of head shape evolution were again lowest in the older radiations (Neotropics and
368 Lake Tanganyika), faster in Lake Malawi and much faster in Lake Victoria (fig. S2; table S5).
369 All pairwise comparisons of rates were statistically significant (table S5). Like functional
370 analyses, disparity through time (DTT) trends for head shape were statistically indistinguishable
371 from a Brownian process (fig. S3; table S6). However, in the Neotropics the DTT trend dipped
372 just below the 95% range for Brownian simulations briefly from 44-40 Mya, and again for an
373 extended time from about 39 to 28 Mya (fig. S3). During these periods, head shape disparity was
374 concentrated among clades at a level beyond the null expectation, likely representing evolution
375 of clades towards different adaptive peaks.

376

377 **Discussion**

378 In this study, we provide the first quantitative comparison of functional diversity across
379 four major cichlid radiations, leveraging the largest-ever comparative kinematics dataset of
380 vertebrate organisms to contrast patterns of adaptive diversification across vastly different
381 temporal scales (many thousands of years to over 50 My) and spatial ranges (individual lakes
382 versus continental scale). We show that standing functional diversity in African cichlids is
383 strongly related to radiation age and displays a striking nested pattern in which trait spaces
384 occupied in Lakes Victoria and Malawi were almost fully contained within that of Lake
385 Tanganyika. Somewhat surprisingly, functional variance in the much older, continental
386 Neotropical radiation was lower than it was in Lake Tanganyika for many traits, making the high
387 diversity in the latter all the more impressive. This suggests that diversifying forces have

388 operated more effectively in Lake Tanganyika, and likely across the African Great Lakes, as
389 compared to the largely riverine cichlids of Central and South America. Indeed, numerous
390 cichlid lake radiations beyond those examined in this study experience elevated rates of
391 morphological evolution (Burress and Muñoz 2023).

392

393 *Cichlid feeding systems and adaptive radiation*

394 Cichlids have long served as a model system for understanding adaptive radiation
395 (Stiassny and Meyer 1999; Seehausen 2006; Turner 2007), yet we recovered mixed evidence that
396 functional diversification of their feeding systems adheres to traditional expectations of this
397 process (Simpson 1953). A negative relationship was found between radiation age and rates of
398 kinematic and morphological evolution (fig. S2), suggesting that phenotypic diversification
399 proceeds fastest in early-stage radiations in a manner consistent with an early burst. Young
400 cichlid radiations in Lakes Victoria and Malawi support modest levels of trait diversity, but they
401 have acquired it at an incredibly fast pace. Although there may be some effect in our study of the
402 natural time-dependency of macroevolutionary rate estimates (Harmon et al. 2021), the
403 relationship between disparity and age of each radiation (fig. 2) strongly suggests a negative
404 correlation between age and rate of phenotypic diversification.

405 In addition to an early burst, an assumption of adaptive radiations remains that at some
406 stage of early diversification, trait variance will be distributed disproportionately among clades
407 versus within them (Simpson 1953; Harmon et al. 2003). Though cranial morphology showed
408 some hints of elevated divergence among lineages in the Neotropics (fig. S3), none of the
409 examined morphological or functional DTT trends were statistically different from Brownian
410 motion (table S6). Further, trait dispersion of extant species around their MRCA was mostly

411 continuous (fig. 4) with minimal evidence of clustering (i.e., discrete ecomorphs), a pattern
412 largely consistent across radiations. One exception was found for *motion components* in Lake
413 Victoria, which displayed a small secondary cluster of species with low values of jaw protrusion
414 (fig. 4B), possibly representing divergence toward an adaptive peak associated with a substrate
415 biting mode of feeding. That withstanding, comparably low trait variance in the two youngest
416 radiations (fig. 2) are not suggestive of rapid divergence *among* lineages occupying distinct
417 adaptive zones, where a significant portion of total potential diversity is achieved at initial stages
418 of adaptive expansion.

419 Our study suggests that the diversification of feeding systems in cichlid adaptive
420 radiations likely occurs by way of early burst, achieved not by adaptive divergence among
421 clades, but through extremely rapid within-clade dispersion in incipient radiations. Previous
422 research has predicted such patterns in cichlids as a possible outcome of transgressive
423 segregation during widespread introgression – a common theme of emerging African lake
424 radiations – paired with ecological opportunity in newly colonized habitats (Seehausen 2004;
425 Meier et al. 2017; Irisarri 2018; Salzburger 2018; Meier et al. 2019; Selz and Seehausen 2019).
426 Although we do not explicitly address the ecological dimensions across which functional
427 diversification occurs, previous work on Lake Malawi and Tanganyika cichlids suggests that
428 feeding diversity is distributed continuously along an axis of prey evasiveness (Martinez et al.
429 2018), matching observed patterns in this study of time-dependent trait dispersion around
430 radiation specific MRCAs (fig. 4). If the landscape of ecological opportunity was
431 discontinuously or sparsely distributed, for instance, it could pose challenges for a radiation
432 diversifying via transgressive segregation since open adaptive zones are no longer adjacent to

433 currently occupied zones, thereby reducing the probability that hybrid offspring happen upon a
434 more distantly situated adaptive peak.

435 Clear evidence for early bursts appears to be the exception and not the rule in
436 comparative trait data (Harmon et al. 2010). Previous analysis of trait diversification inclusive to
437 Lake Tanganyika cichlids showed support for an early burst in body shape evolution but failed to
438 find such evidence for jaw morphology (Ronco et al. 2021). Even this study, with rates among
439 radiations showing a strong slowing trend with age, did not satisfy the prediction of an early
440 burst by way of adaptive divergence among clades. Given that the latter is often used as a
441 diagnostic tool for identifying early bursts (Harmon et al. 2003), it raises questions about
442 potential limitations of our current models of adaptive radiation.

443

444 *Are we watching the same film?*

445 Stephen Jay Gould famously contemplated what the diversity of life on earth might look
446 like if we had the ability to start over and replay the tape of life (Gould 1991). Would it be
447 unprecedented and unrecognizable, or would we see familiar patterns as selection inevitably
448 leads to diversification along predictable paths? Many others have since pondered this question
449 (e.g., Lobkovsky and Koonin 2012; Blount et al. 2018; Orgogozo 2015). In one sense, evolution
450 is constantly repeating its own version of this experiment at much smaller spatial and temporal
451 scales – independent radiations in related groups of organisms provide replication and insight
452 into evolutionary contingencies under conditions of varying similarity. A primary focus of this
453 study was to examine whether four large cichlid radiations, each resulting in hundreds of species
454 and celebrated levels of ecological and morphological variation, have generated similar patterns
455 of functional diversity. Has diversification of feeding functional morphology played out

456 following the same script in each radiation, or have they diversified along separate functional
457 axes? The answer appears to be that both are true.

458 Considering, for a moment, only the three African lake radiations examined in this study,
459 there is an argument to be made that both functional and morphological diversification have
460 progressed in a similar fashion in each of the lakes. The high-dimensional spaces filled by
461 *motion components*, *motion pattern*, and cranial shape data each show the younger radiations,
462 Malawi and Victoria, occupying subspaces of the older and more diverse Tanganyikan radiation,
463 with novelty only commonplace in the latter. This result is consistent with impressions of
464 widespread convergence on trophic morphotypes in Lakes Malawi and Tanganyika (Kocher et
465 al. 1993; Ronco et al. 2021). On the other hand, it is unclear if we were to fast-forward the Lake
466 Victoria tape to the current age of Lake Tanganyika (10-28 My, depending on the estimate),
467 whether we would find a carbon-copy of that lake or if selection would eventually lead the
468 Victorian radiation into unfamiliar functional and morphological spaces.

469 When we expand beyond the large African lake radiations to contrast their phenotypic
470 and functional diversity for the first time with the large Neotropical radiation, a different story
471 emerges. The two older radiations are more diverse than the others and each has invaded novel,
472 radiation-specific regions of functional and morphological space. Tanganyika boasts species with
473 unique combinations of *motion components*, including highly specialized planktivores
474 (*Cyprichomis*) and benthic foragers (e.g., *Pseudosimochromis curvifrons*, *Telamatochromis*
475 *vittatus*). In the Neotropics, some geophagine cichlids feed with a strongly sequenced kinematic
476 pattern, partitioned between distinct jaw protrusion and cranial rotation phases (asymmetrical
477 *motion patterns* toward the left of fig. 3B). Additionally, an innovation in select piscivorous
478 species from the tribe Heroini (e.g., *Petenia splendida* and *Caquetaia myersi*) results in extreme

479 levels of premaxillary protrusion (Waltzek and Wainwright 2003; Hulsey and García de León
480 2005) that places them in a unique region of *motion component* space (fig. 3A). Both Lake
481 Tanganyika and the Neotropics contain cichlids with functional profiles that do not occur
482 anywhere else, showing that radiations can eventually diverge from each other in key areas of
483 diversification. These observations amplify questions about the contrasting landscapes of
484 ecological opportunity experienced by lake versus continental radiations.

485

486 ***Morphology provides an imperfect index of functional diversity***

487 The idea that morphological variation can be used as a proxy for functional diversity is
488 commonly advanced, but the widespread presence of complex form-function relationships tests
489 this assumption (e.g., Wainwright et al. 2005; Young et al. 2007; 2010; Lautenschlager et al.
490 2020). Neotropical cichlids, when compared to the Lake Tanganyika radiation, illustrate that
491 high variance in cranial morphologies does not always result in greater functional diversity. The
492 primary axis of morphological variation in the Neotropics involved differences between elongate
493 and slender (e.g., *Crenicichla*) versus deep heads with steep cranial profiles (e.g., *Symphysodon*,
494 *Pterophyllum*, *Uaru*), which are adaptations typically found in species living in fast flowing
495 riverine environments and slow-moving water like lakes or floodplains, respectively (López-
496 Fernández et al. 2013). It is therefore likely that an important source of variance in head shapes
497 of Neotropical cichlids is due to selection on habitat-specific body shape, perhaps involving
498 adaptation of the locomotor system. Complex form-function relationships, particularly in
499 biomechanical systems with many cooperating components, can make for challenging
500 comparisons between morphologies and motions, and impact how these traits accumulate during

501 adaptive diversification (Alfaro et al. 2005). These findings suggest caution is warranted in
502 attributing observed morphological variation in fish feeding systems to functional diversity.

503

504 ***Conclusions***

505 Cichlids have captivated the attention of biologists and aquarists alike with their
506 remarkable diversity, boasting seemingly endless combinations of body shapes, sizes, coloration
507 patterns, diets, and behaviors. Each radiation examined in this study has amassed an impressive
508 variety of morphological and functional diversity. Adaptive radiation of cichlids has produced
509 modest diversity of feeding kinematics in Lakes Victoria and Malawi, while Lake Tanganyika
510 has surpassed even the much older Neotropical radiation, suggesting that the forces driving
511 diversification in Tanganyika outstrip those in the Neotropics. However, these patterns of
512 diversity have been established on very different time scales. Rates of functional evolution range
513 from 40-95 times faster in Lake Victoria than in the Neotropics, supporting the notion that the
514 African Great Lake radiations have involved rapid evolutionary change. These observations
515 suggest that while similarities exist, adaptive radiation of cichlid feeding kinematics has not
516 always followed a common profile. Rather, evolutionary contingencies linked to time and
517 biogeography explain varied patterns of morphological and functional diversification across this
518 iconic group of fishes.

519

520 **Acknowledgements**

521 We thank Ed Burress and Sarah Friedman for their support and assistance during this project. We
522 also thank Michael Collyer for engaging discussions on morphometrics. CMM was funded by
523 the UC Davis Chancellor's Postdoctoral Fellowship Program. KAC was supported by an

524 American Dissertation Fellowship from the American Association of University Women and a
525 fellowship from the Achievement Rewards for College Scientists Foundation. ASRH was
526 supported by the National Science Foundation with a Graduate Research Fellowship, Grant No.
527 1650042.

528

529 **Statement of Authorship**

530 CMM and PCW conceived of the project. MDM and SRB recorded most of the videos of cichlid
531 feeding events, and CMM contributed videos for the remaining species. All authors digitized
532 landmark data on video frames. KAC ran statistical analyses. CMM and PCW wrote the paper
533 with edits from all authors.

534

535 **Figure Captions**

536 **Figure 1.** Functional traits examined across 300 species of cichlid in this study. **A)** Principal
537 component axes, PC 1 and PC 2, displaying shape change for a single trajectory of 10 cranial
538 shapes during a suction feeding motion. **B)** Subsets of two or three landmarks were used to
539 measure maximum excursions of six commonly measured *motion components* of suction feeding
540 in percomorph fishes. **C)** Changes in the timing or extent of movements represent differences in
541 *motion pattern* that are manifested as variation in trajectory shapes. Trajectories varied in
542 spacing of cranial shape changes and the relative symmetry of trajectory paths. **D)** A series of
543 trajectory-derived traits related to mobility, included cranial *kinesis* (total trajectory length),
544 *kinesis coefficient* (not pictured, total output kinesis divided by input movement from cranial
545 rotation), and *kinesis skew* (kinesis over the last five motion shapes divided by total kinesis). **E)**
546 PCs 1 and 2 from 1,110 trajectories of suction feeding motions, with deformation grids

547 displaying shape change. All plots are shown in two dimensions for visualization, but data
548 analysis was in the full dimensionality of the shape data unless otherwise noted.

549

550 **Figure 2.** Functional trait variances in cichlid adaptive radiations plotted against crown age. Six
551 individual kinematic traits are shown on top, with an arrow pointing to the multivariate *motion*
552 *components* containing all of them. *Motion pattern* (i.e., the shape of a kinematic trajectory) is
553 shown in the middle with an arrow pointing to composite *kinesis-based* traits measured from
554 trajectories. Letters next to plot points denote significant P-values from pairwise comparisons.
555 Radiations sharing a letter do not have statistically different variances.

556

557 **Figure 3.** Primary dimensions of variation, PCs 1 and 2, from separate principal component
558 analyses for species-averaged multivariate functional traits. **A)** *Motion components*, a dataset
559 comprising measurements of maximum excursions for six key kinematic features are plotted by
560 cichlid radiation. Cichlid heads at maximum gape are shown across the plot, and trait loadings
561 are shown on the right. **B)** Variation in *motion patterns* by radiation, with two-dimensional
562 representations of the shapes of kinematic trajectories provided at select locations of the plot (red
563 diamonds). Low values on PC 1 are motions with an abrupt shift in the manner of cranial
564 movements and large values are motions in which kinesis is disproportionately concentrated
565 toward the end of the strike. For both multivariate traits, Lake Tanganyika and the Neotropics
566 display unique occupation of this space, while Lakes Malawi and Victoria are almost entirely
567 nested within them. Estimated values of most recent common ancestors (MRCA) are shown as
568 large dots with white borders.

569

570 **Figure 4.** Disparity through time (DTT) plots in the two oldest cichlid radiations, Lake
571 Tanganyika and the Neotropics, for **A)** *motion components* and **C)** *motion pattern*. Also shown
572 are distributions of **B)** Euclidean distances *of motion components* and **D)** Procrustes distances of
573 *motion pattern* between extant species and their radiation-specific most recent common ancestor
574 (MRCA).

575

576 **Figure 5.** Species-averaged interspecific head shape diversity across cichlid radiations. **A)** Major
577 axes of variation, PCs 1 & 2, show the wide diversity of head shapes in Neotropical cichlids,
578 most notably in head depth (left of plot). Small-mouthed taxa in African lakes, often benthic
579 biting feeders, are concentrated toward the bottom of the plot. **B)** PCs 3 and 4 display axes on
580 which Lake Tanganyika contains high morphological diversity, including variation in orientation
581 of jaws. **C-E)** variance in head shape is shown in relation to select kinematic traits, displaying
582 relationships between form and function. High morphological diversity in the Neotropics does
583 not translate to commensurate kinematic diversity. Most recent common ancestors (MRCA) are
584 shown as large dots with white borders.

585

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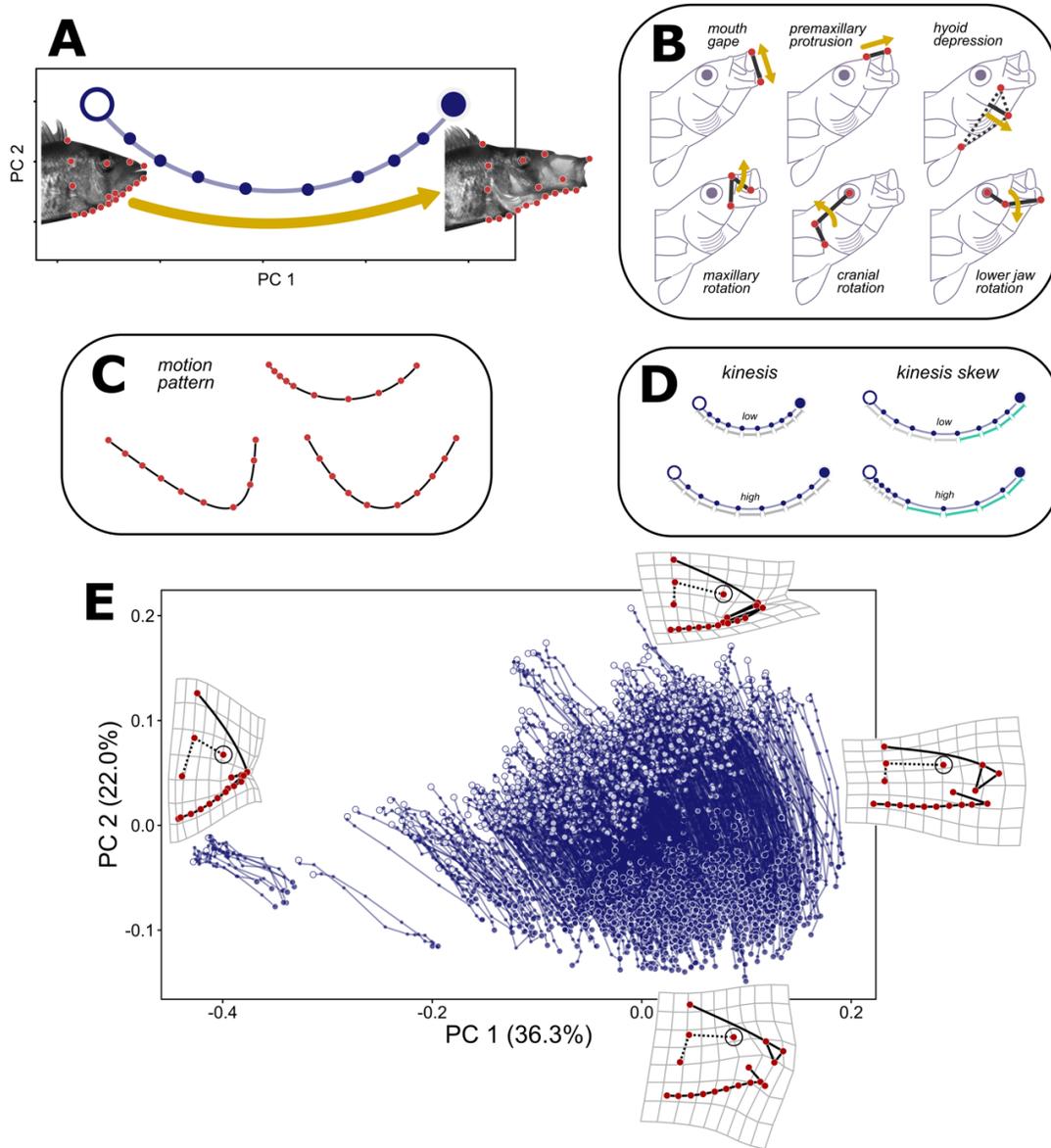


Figure 1. Functional traits examined across 300 species of cichlid in this study. A) Principal component axes, PC 1 and PC 2, displaying shape change for a single trajectory of 10 cranial shapes during a suction feeding motion. B) Subsets of two or three landmarks were used to measure maximum excursions of six commonly measured motion components of suction feeding in percomorph fishes. C) Changes in the timing or extent of movements represent differences in motion pattern that are manifested as variation in trajectory shapes. Trajectories varied in spacing of cranial shape changes and the relative symmetry of trajectory paths. D) A series of trajectory-derived traits related to mobility, included cranial kinesis (total trajectory length), kinesis coefficient (not pictured, total output kinesis divided by input movement from cranial rotation), and kinesis skew (kinesis for the last five motion shapes divided by total kinesis). E) PCs 1 and 2 from 1,110 trajectories of suction feeding motions, with deformation grids displaying shape change. All plots are shown in two dimensions for visualization, but data analysis was in the full dimensionality of the shape data unless otherwise noted.

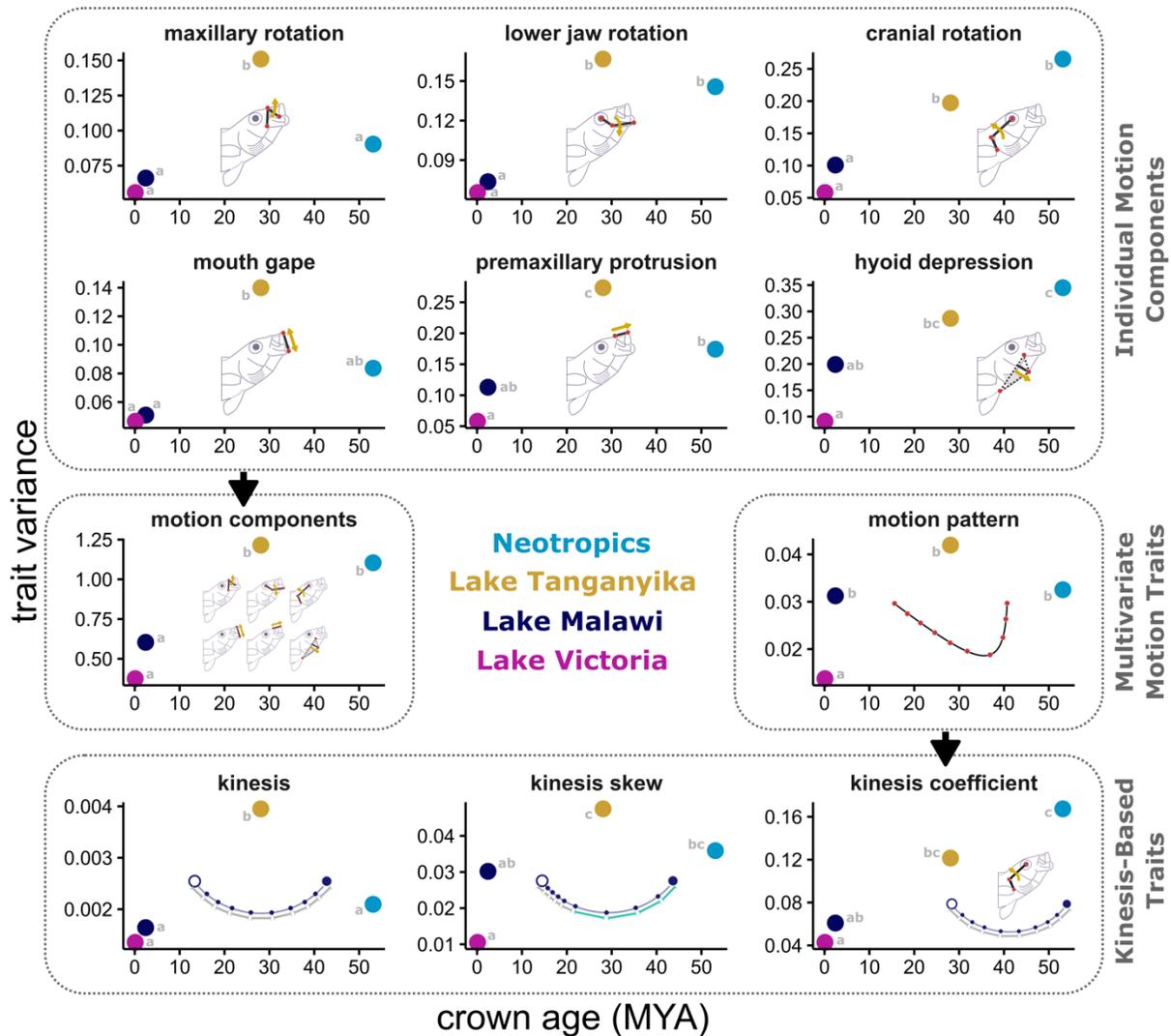


Figure 2. Functional trait variances in cichlid adaptive radiations plotted against crown age. Six individual kinematic traits are shown on top, with an arrow pointing to the multivariate motion components containing all of them. Motion pattern (i.e., the shape of a kinematic trajectory) is shown in the middle with an arrow pointing to composite kinesis-based traits measured from trajectories. Letters next to plot points denote significant P-values from pairwise comparisons. Radiations sharing a letter do not have statistically different variances.

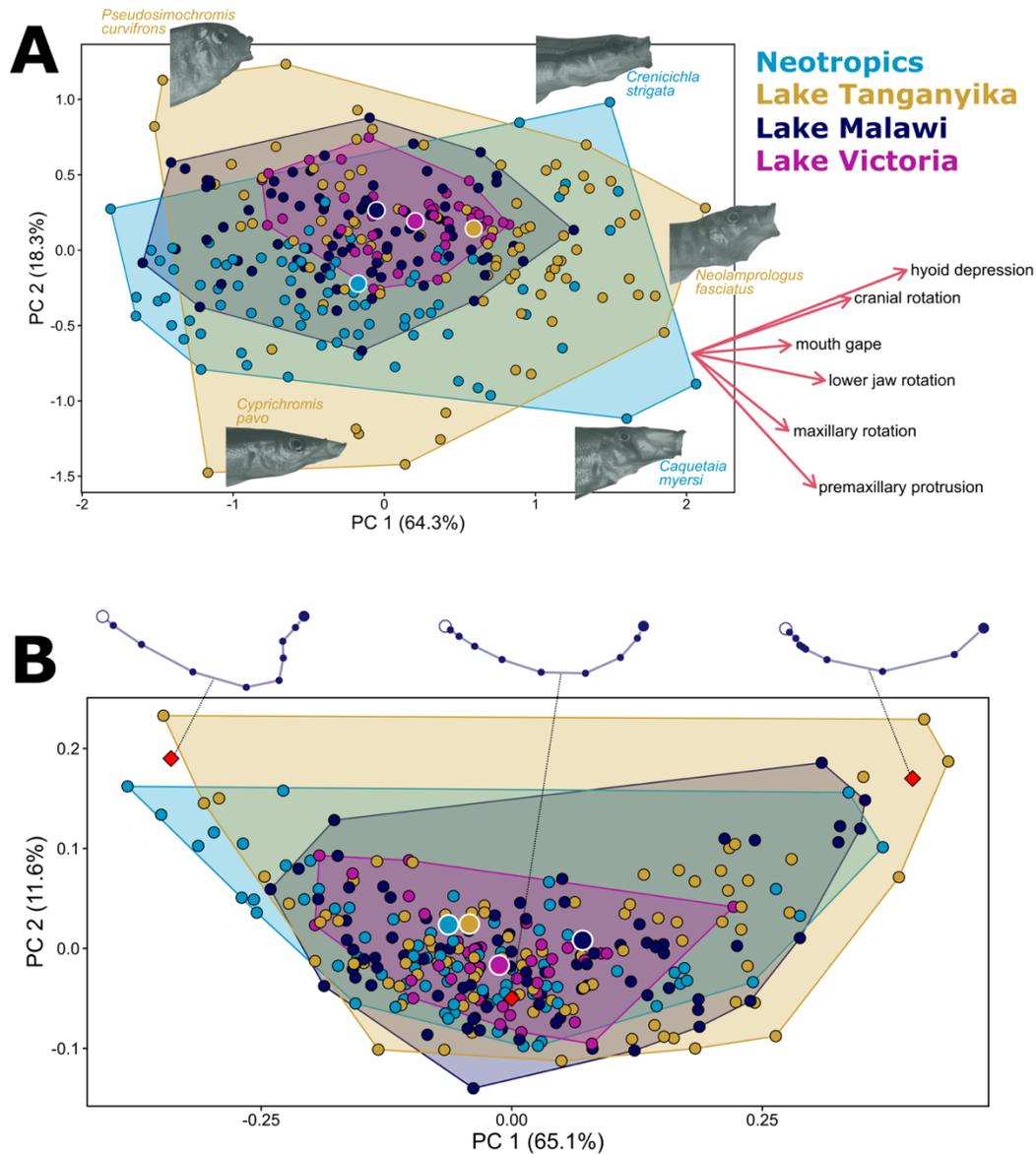


Figure 3. Primary dimensions of variation, PCs 1 and 2, from separate principal component analyses for species-averaged multivariate functional traits. A) Motion components, a dataset comprising measurements of maximum excursions for six key kinematic features are plotted by cichlid radiation. Cichlid heads at maximum gape are shown across the plot, and trait loadings are shown on the right. B) Variation in motion patterns by radiation, with two-dimensional representations of the shapes of kinematic trajectories provided at select locations of the plot (red diamonds). Low values on PC 1 are motions with an abrupt shift in the manner of cranial movements and large values are motions in which kinesis is disproportionately concentrated toward the end of the strike. For both multivariate traits, Lake Tanganyika and the Neotropics display unique occupation of this space, while Lakes Malawi and Victoria are almost entirely nested within them. Estimated values of most recent common ancestors (MRCA) are shown as large dots with white borders.

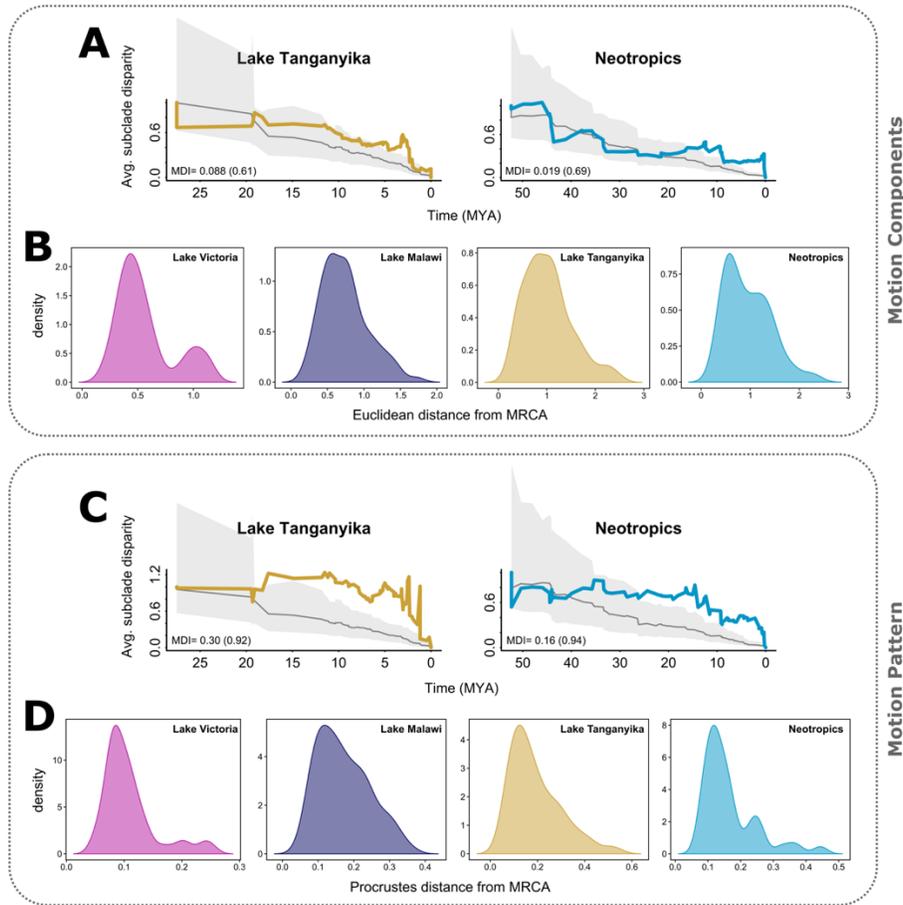


Figure 4. Disparity through time (DTT) plots in the two oldest cichlid radiations, Lake Tanganyika and the Neotropics, for A) motion components and C) motion pattern. Also shown are distributions of B) Euclidean distances of motion components and D) Procrustes distances of motion pattern between extant species and their radiation-specific most recent common ancestor (MRCA).

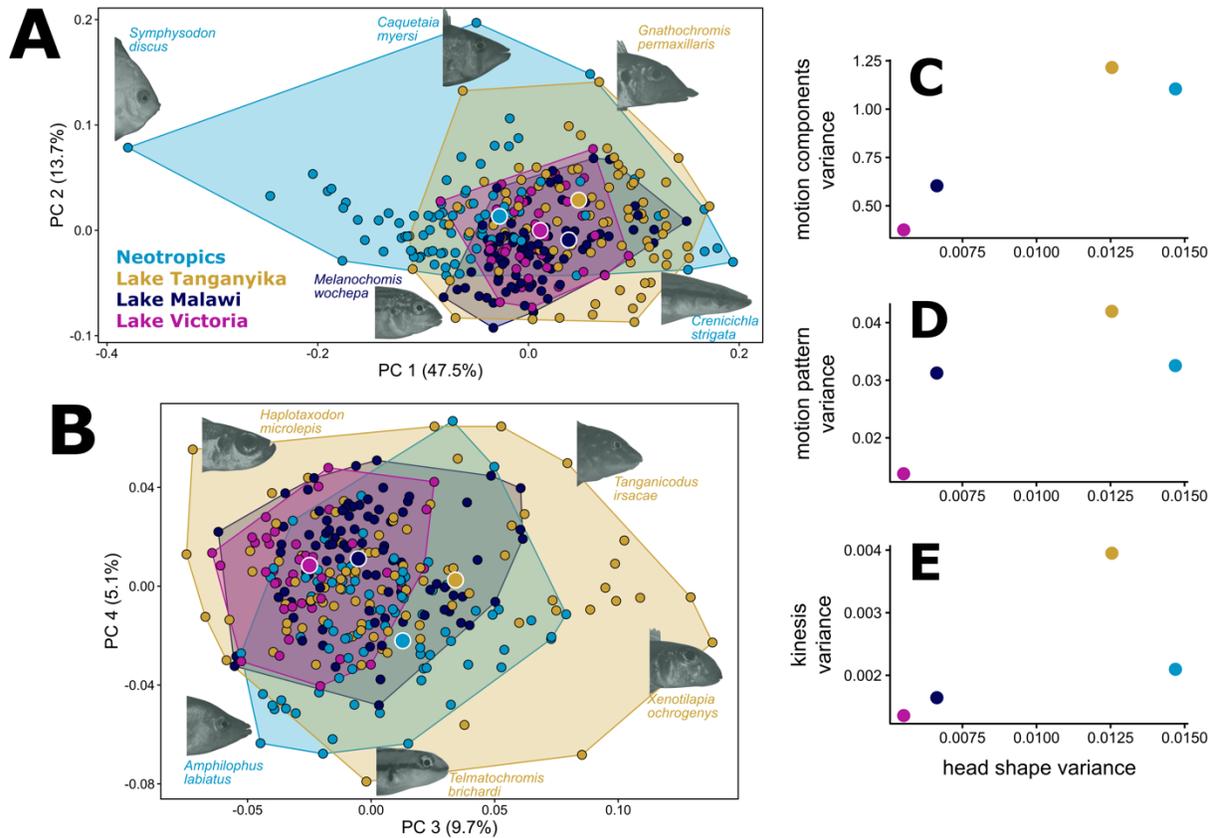


Figure 5. Species-averaged interspecific head shape diversity across cichlid radiations. A) Major axes of variation, PCs 1 & 2, show the wide diversity of head shapes in Neotropical cichlids, most notably in head depth (left of plot). Small-mouthed taxa in African lakes, often benthic biting feeders, are concentrated toward the bottom of the plot. B) PCs 3 and 4 display axes on which Lake Tanganyika contains high morphological diversity, including variation in orientation of jaws. C-E) variance in head shape is shown in relation to select kinematic traits, displaying relationships between form and function. High morphological diversity in the Neotropics does not translate to commensurate kinematic diversity. Most recent common ancestors (MRCA) are shown as large dots with white borders.