

Population collapse in viviparid gastropods of the Lake Victoria ecoregion started before the Last Glacial Maximum

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[This manuscript has been accepted for publication in Molecular Ecology. Published version available at: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/mec.15599] Population collapse in viviparid gastropods of the Lake Victoria ecoregion started before the Last Glacial Maximum Bert Van Bocxlaer^{1,*}, Catharina Clewing², Anne Duputié¹, Camille Roux¹, Christian Albrecht^{2,3}. ¹ CNRS, Univ. Lille, UMR 8198 – Evo-Eco-Paleo, F-59000 Lille, France ² Department of Animal Ecology & Systematics, Justus Liebig University Giessen, D-35392 Giessen, Germany ³ Department of Biology, Mbarara University of Science and Technology, Mbarara, Uganda * Corresponding author: bert.van-bocxlaer@univ-lille.fr; Tel: +33 3 20 43 40 15. ORCID information: BVB: 0000-0003-2033-326X, CC: 0000-0001-7974-5037; AD: 0000-0003-2213-7940; CR: 0000-0001-9497-1446; CA: 0000-0002-1490-1825.

Running title: demographic collapse in African gastropods

Abstract

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Ecosystems of Lake Victoria and riparian communities have been strongly disrupted by the introduction of the invasive Nile perch and its fishing industry. Beyond this invasion and other recent anthropogenic stressors, the Lake Victoria ecoregion also underwent phases of pronounced aridity over the Late Pleistocene, lastly during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM). The consequences of recent and historic environmental change have been canvassed for the adaptive radiation of haplochromine cichlids occupying the ecoregion, but their effect on freshwater invertebrate diversity remains largely unknown. Here we use 15 microsatellite loci and approximate Bayesian computation to test whether viviparid gastropods experienced a population bottleneck during the LGM, as did cichlids. Clustering analyses support three viviparid gene pools in the Lake Victoria ecoregion, gathering specimens from 1) Lake Albert and the White Nile, 2) the Victoria Nile and Lake Kyoga and 3) Lake Victoria and tributaries. The last group contains the highest genetic diversity, but all groups have a considerable number of private alleles and are inferred to predate the LGM. Examinations of demographic history reveal a 190- to 500-fold population decline that started ~125-150 ka ago, thus substantially before the LGM bottleneck documented in haplochromine cichlids. Population collapses in viviparids are an order of magnitude more severe than declines in cichlids and have not been halted by the re-establishment of freshwater ecosystems since the LGM. Recent anthropogenic ecosystem deterioration is causing homogenization of previously diversified microhabitats, which may contribute to (local) extinction and enhanced gene flow among species within gene pools.

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Keywords: Viviparidae, *Bellamya*, phylogeography, genetic diversity, approximate Bayesian computation

Introduction

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46 Less than 1 % of the Earth's surface is covered by freshwater ecosystems, yet these habitats support ~10 % of all known species, including approximately a third of the global vertebrate biodiversity 47 (Strayer & Dudgeon, 2010). The Lake Victoria ecoregion of the East African Rift System, which 48 49 contains among others Lakes Albert, Kyoga and Victoria, has rapidly accumulated extraordinary freshwater biodiversity throughout the Quaternary, including almost 700 species of cichlid fishes 50 (Danley et al., 2012; Salzburger, Van Bocxlaer, & Cohen, 2014). The region also underwent major 51 geological and climatological changes during this period linked to the development of the East 52 53 African Rift, including several phases of aridity (Bishop & Trendall, 1966; Johnson, Kelts, & Odada, 2000; Lehman, 2009; Tryon et al., 2016). Additionally, human activities have exerted multifactorial 54 55 pressures on freshwater environments in the ecoregion over recent decades, through habitat 56 degradation, pollution, exploitation, the introduction of invasive species, ecosystem modifications and 57 climate change (Hecky, Mugidde, Ramlal, Talbot, & Kling, 2010; Johnson et al., 2000; Sayer, Máiz-58 Tomé, & Darwall, 2018; Verschuren et al., 2002). As such, understanding diversification dynamics in 59 freshwater biota within the Lake Victoria ecoregion requires insight into the consequences of recent 60 and historic environmental change. The interplay of environment and diversification dynamics have 61 been canvassed for the remarkable evolutionary radiation of cichlid fishes in Lake Victoria while 62 addressing how the lake accumulated hundreds of endemic species despite having been dry ~15 ka ago (Fryer, 2001, 2004; Johnson et al., 1996; Stager, Day, & Santini, 2004; Stager & Johnson, 2008; 63 64 Verheyen, Salzburger, Snoeks, & Meyer, 2003). Apart from cichlids and the schistosome-transmitting snail genus Biomphalaria (Standley, Goodacre, Wade, & Stothard, 2014), the seemingly controversial 65 interplay between environment and diversity in the Lake Victoria ecoregion has not generated detailed 66 phylogeographic and demographic studies of freshwater taxa. This knowledge gap implies that the 67 effects of ecosystem changes on the community composition and demography of benthic organisms 68 remain poorly assessed, and that the effectiveness of currently implemented strategies for managing 69 70 fisheries and sustaining biodiversity is unstudied. 71 Beyond cichlids, several other freshwater organisms display elevated diversity throughout the Lake 72 Victoria ecoregion (Sayer et al., 2018), such as viviparid gastropods. Viviparidae has been proposed

73 to be particularly useful in reconstructing phylogeographic patterns due to poor dispersal in the absence of hydrographic connections (Schultheiß, Van Bocxlaer, Riedel, von Rintelen, & Albrecht, 2014; 74 Stelbrink et al., 2020), and they are an important component of benthic ecosystems in general (Strong, 75 Gargominy, Ponder, & Bouchet, 2008; Van Bocxlaer & Strong, 2020), as illustrated in the Lake 76 77 Victoria ecoregion (Brown, 1994; Mandahl-Barth, 1954). The family has been studied on a rift-wide scale at several occasions (Schultheiß et al., 2014; Schultheiß, Wilke, Jørgensen, & Albrecht, 2011; 78 Sengupta, Kristensen, Madsen, & Jørgensen, 2009), resulting in good knowledge on the 79 phylogeographic connectivity of drainage basins throughout the East African Rift. In contrast, the 80 relationships within clades occupying individual drainage basins remain largely unresolved in existing 81 82 phylogenetic analyses (Schultheiß et al., 2014; Sengupta et al., 2009). The observed polyphyly in 83 regional morphospecies and races may result from incomplete lineage sorting, from independent 84 recurrent mutations, or adaptive introgression between distant gene pools (Lee & Coop, 2017). 85 Studies of genetic diversity at the population level are thus required to obtain insight into regional 86 patterns of diversity and to link environmental and evolutionary history. 87 Here we study the population structure of the clade of *Bellamya* gastropods that occupies the Lake 88 Victoria ecoregion, i.e. the 'Victoria clade' (Schultheiß et al., 2014), to relate past environmental 89 change with demography and diversification dynamics. Bellamya is diploid, with separate sexes, 90 internal fertilization and ovovivipary (Van Bocxlaer & Strong, 2020), and the Victoria clade contains 13 91 geographical races, which have been grouped into 7 nominal species, 5 of which are endemic to Lake 92 Victoria (Brown, 1994; Mandahl-Barth, 1954). To examine the geographical structure of diversity we first performed a network analysis using a fast evolving mitochondrial marker and increased 93 94 sampling. Subsequently, we used microsatellites to document how genetic diversity in Viviparidae of the Lake Victoria ecoregion is structured in space and time. In light of the previous description of 95 geographical races and lake endemics, we hypothesized that the genetic diversity of viviparids in the 96 Lake Victoria ecoregion is geographically structured. Given the high morphological disparity and 97 elevated nominal species diversity in Lake Victoria, we hypothesized higher genetic diversity within 98 99 this lake and barriers to gene flow that reflect habitat divergence. Additionally, we used approximate 100 Bayesian computation (ABC) to test the hypothesis that individual gene pools of these benthic

gastropods experienced a population bottleneck during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), as did cichlids (Elmer et al., 2009).

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Material and Methods

Sampling. Material was collected in 2008-2010 throughout the Lake Victoria ecoregion by CA and colleagues (Fig. 1), and was deposited in the Systematics and Biodiversity collection of the Justus Liebig University Giessen (UGSB). For the network analysis we used sequence data on cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 (COI) from 60 specimens: one from Jørgensen, Kristensen, and Madsen (2008), 22 from Sengupta et al. (2009), 4 from Schultheiß et al. (2011), 16 from Schultheiß et al. (2014) and 17 sequences were newly generated (Fig. 1). Specimen information, including UGSB and NCBI GenBank accession numbers, is provided in Table S1. Our microsatellite dataset consists in total of 321 individuals from 39 localities at Lake Victoria, its tributaries, the Victoria Nile, Lake Kyoga, Lake Albert and the White Nile (Fig. 1). Specimen information is supplied in Table S2. Note that Bellamya is absent from three other large lakes in this ecoregion, i.e. Lakes George, Edward and Kivu (Brown, 1994). Because we recovered few *Bellamya* individuals at some of the sampling localities, we pooled localities with small samples sizes within a 5-km radius into a regrouped dataset (282 specimens from 21 populations with ≥10 individuals per population) from which some isolated, poorly-sampled localities were discarded. Depending on analytical requirements, we analysed the total or regrouped dataset for a robust characterisation of patterns of genetic variation within and between sampling localities. Regrouping did not alter the overall results and interpretation of our analyses compared to analyses of the total dataset.

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Morphological identifications. Morphological identifications to race and morphospecies were performed with the identification key of Mandahl-Barth (1954), information in Brown (1994) and by evaluating type specimens. All *Bellamya* species and races currently recognized in the Lake Victoria ecoregion (Brown, 1994; Mandahl-Barth, 1954) are represented in our dataset (see SI Text). Construction of the regrouped dataset did not result in the exclusion of races or morphospecies, but implied that the rare *B. phthinotropis* is only represented by three specimens. Morphological

identifications were used to interpret patterns of genetic diversity, but not as an input variable to guide molecular data analyses.

COI data collection and analysis. We extracted genomic DNA following the protocol of Schultheiß et al. (2014). We used the forward primer LCO1490 (Folmer, Black, Hoeh, Lutz, & Vrijenhoek, 1994) and the reverse primer COX-B7R (Schultheiß et al., 2011) for PCR amplification. The PCR conditions were an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 60 s, followed by 29 amplification cycles (denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing at 52 °C for 30 s and elongation at 72 °C for 30 s) and a final extension step at 72 °C for 180 s. Sequencing was performed on an ABI3730XL sequencer at LGC Genomics (Berlin, Germany). The first base pairs following the 3' end of each primer were difficult to read and therefore trimmed, leaving a 593 bp fragment. The sequences were unambigously aligned with ClustalW (Thompson, Higgins, & Gibson, 1994) in BioEdit v. 7.2.5 (Hall, 1999) and visually inspected. We constructed a haplotype network using this alignment and an infinite site model with functions from the package PEGAS v. 0.12 (Paradis, 2010) in the statistical environment R v. 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019).

Microsatellite data collection. The here analysed microsatellite loci have previously been described by Clewing et al. (2013). Genomic DNA was extracted, amplified and genotyped as outlined in Clewing et al. (2013). In summary, PCR reactions were performed separately for each locus, and loci were subsequently pooled in four groups depending on the expected fragment length and fluorescent dyes used (pool 1: Bel_L10, Bel_L13, Bel_L15, Bel_L53, Bel_L25; pool 2: Bel_L18, Bel_L23, Bel_L50; pool 3: Bel_L45, Bel_L47, Bel_L63; pool 4: Bel_L16, Bel_L31, Bel_L32, Bel_L48, Bel_L56). These pools were sent to LGC Genomics for precision electrophoresis on a 16-capillary 3130xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). Genotypes were called by CC using GeneMarker® v. 1.85 (SoftGenetics LLC). First, chromatograms were visually inspected and custom panels of allele sizes per locus were created with prior knowledge on the length of repeat motives for each locus. Subsequently, the software automatically called genotypes based on the created panels. Allele calls that did not correspond to the associated panel were verified manually. For two markers, Bel_L18 and

Bel_L56, chromatograms were sometimes difficult to read or occasionally included more than two alleles, so these loci were excluded. Finally, individuals for which allele profiles were difficult to read were excluded from the dataset. All automated genotype calls were verified manually by CC and a subset of 15 % of individuals were genotyped twice, but as no inconsistencies occurred, we considered our genotype calling robust for subsequent analyses. Size data for each of the 321 specimens and each of the 15 microsatellite loci was tabulated for subsequent analyses. All data and analytical scripts have been uploaded to the Dryad Data Repository and are available via https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.q83bk3jg2 (Van Bocxlaer et al., 2020).

Examination of genetic variation within populations. We examined the 15 microsatellites for the presence of null alleles with the ApparentNulls method of the R package GENEPOP v.1.1.3 (Rousset, 2008) using the weighted average over all populations in the total and regrouped datasets. Subsequent analyses were performed both including and excluding loci with null alleles. We studied genetic variation within populations from the regrouped dataset. Genotypic linkage disequilibrium was documented pairwise for all possible pairs of loci with a log-likelihood ratio test as implemented in FSTAT v. 2.9.3.2 (Goudet, 2002). Significance was examined at a nominal level of $\alpha = 0.05$ and pvalues were corrected for multiple tests using the false discovery rate (FDR; Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995). Subsequently, we estimated genetic variation for the microsatellite loci by examining the number of alleles, allelic richness, the observed and expected heterozygosity, and mean fixation indices (F_{IS}, F_{IT}, F_{ST}) in FSTAT and the R package HIERFSTAT v. 0.04-22 (Goudet & Jombart, 2015). Fixation indices were calculated following Weir and Cockerham (1984). The significance of departures from zero for F_{IS} , F_{IT} , F_{ST} were examined in FSTAT with 1000 randomizations of alleles within populations, alleles among populations, and individuals among populations, respectively. Subsequently, we tested whether our loci are in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium with χ^2 tests and exact tests based on 1000 Monte Carlo permutations of alleles following Guo and Thompson (1992) with functions from PEGAS. Genetic diversity was also examined per sampling locality using SPAGeDi 1.5a (Hardy & Vekemans, 2002) and HIERFSTAT.

Spatial patterns of genetic structure. Spatial patterns of molecular differentiation were identified from the total dataset in three different ways. First, we subjected the centered matrix of genotypes to principal component analysis (PCA) with the function 'indpca' of HIERFSTAT. The coordinates for all individuals on PC1 and PC2 were then subjected to model-based clustering using Gaussian mixture models with functions of the R package MCLUST v. 5.4 (Scrucca, Fop, Murphy, & Raftery, 2016). MCLUST uses various models of variance-covariance structure to fit clusters to the data without a priori assumptions of group entities. The model-fit for the various models is subsequently evaluated with a Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC). Second, we performed Bayesian clustering analyses in STRUCTURE v. 2.3.4 (Pritchard, Stephens, & Donnelly, 2000), using an admixture model with correlated allele frequencies. Analyses were conducted for K = 1-20 with 30 independent runs per K. Each Markov chain ran for 5 000 000 iterations with a burn-in of 200 000 iterations. The underlying genetic structure was examined with the ΔK statistic (Evanno, Regnaut, & Goudet, 2005) in CLUMPAK (Kopelman, Mayzel, Jakobsson, Rosenberg, & Mayrose, 2015). Finally, we performed a discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) using the R package ADEGENET v. 2.1.1 (Jombart, 2008). We first evaluated the number of groups present in our dataset from the output of Kmeans clustering with a BIC and subsequently performed DAPC on scenarios retained from the clustering output. The results of DAPC were subsequently evaluated by examining the assignment probability of individuals to molecular groups. Subsequently, we documented the proportions of shared and private alleles for the obtained molecular groups, i.e. gene pools, using the R package POPPR v. 2.8.1 (Kamvar, Tabima, & Grünwald, 2014) and the regrouped dataset. Because substantial differences existed in the number of individuals per molecular cluster, we resampled each molecular cluster to the smallest sample size with 1,000 replicates and tested for differences in the number of private alleles with a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by FDR-corrected pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum tests. Recent migration rates among populations in the regrouped dataset were assessed in BayesAss (Wilson & Rannala, 2003) from three independent runs of 20,000,000 Markov chain Monte Carlo iterations with default mixing parameters, a burn-in of 5,000,000 iterations and sampling every 10,000 iterations. We verified that the runs achieved stationary and that the variance among runs was low.

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Finally, we examined the processes underlying geographical differentiation in the regrouped dataset by estimating the pairwise relatedness between individuals with a kinship coefficient, F_{ij} , in SPAGeDi. Kinship coefficients were regressed on the spatial distances among sampling localities in SPAGeDi, first for all localities together, and then for relevant subsets. This method is similar to regressing F_{ST} [or $F_{ST}/(1-F_{ST})$] on spatial distances, with the difference that kinship coefficients can be established pairwise between individuals (used here) as well as between populations (see Fenster, Vekemans, & Hardy, 2003; Van Bocxlaer, 2017). Summary statistics are based on tests with 1000 permutations and jackknife procedures. Because *Bellamya* disperses very poorly in the absence of hydrographic connections (e.g. Schultheiß et al., 2014; Van Bocxlaer, Verschuren, Schettler, & Kröpelin, 2011) the distances between sampling localities were measured manually in Google Earth Pro v. 7.3.2.5776 as the shortest path of dispersal along the hydrographic network.

Examination of demographic history. All analyses of demographic history were performed with the regrouped dataset and ABC as implemented in the program DIYABC v.2.1.0 (Cornuet et al., 2014). Because null alleles are treated as missing data in DIYABC, demographic analyses included all 15 loci. First, we examined the extent to which five anagenetic scenarios of demographic changes in Ne were able to reproduce the patterns of genetic polymorphism observed in the empirical dataset (Fig. 2). Model 1) simulates constant Ne, 2) an increase in Ne, 3) a decline in Ne, 4) a bottleneck, and 5) population increase followed by decline. The priors for each parameter of Ne were set as a uniform distribution from 1 to 10,000,000 and for time parameters between 10 and 500,000 generations [with 1 generation ≈ 1 year for *Bellamya* (Brown, 1994)]; additional constraints are indicated in Fig. 2. Subsequently, we designed cladogenetic models with all possible scenarios of hypothesized phylogenetic relationships between the recognized molecular groups, and three demographic models of changes in Ne upon divergence (Fig. S1): 1) divergence with constant Ne (3 time parameters, 1 parameters of Ne), 2) divergence with changing Ne upon each lineage split (3 time parameters, 5 parameters of Ne), and 3) divergence similar to 2) but allowing additional change in Ne along the longest branch (4 time parameters, 6 parameters of Ne). These models were implemented with the same priors as the anagenetic models and with additional constraints on the timing of population

splits: $t_2 > t_1$ and $t_2 > t_{1b}$. Change in Ne was unconstrained, so that increases or decreases were possible as time progressed. All calculation with DIYABC were implemented with the Generalized Stepwise Mutation model (Estoup, Jarne, & Cornuet, 2002), with the default parameters for microsatellite loci. For each model 1 million data sets were simulated and subsequently compared to our empirical data using 4 and 36 default summary statistics for anagenetic and cladogenetic simulations, respectively. Parameters were estimated for retained models from the posterior distribution of raw parameter values using the 1 000 ABC simulations that approximated the observed data best. Some migration among gene pools was inferred in our analyses and, because the resulting gene flow could lead to inferential bias (see e.g. Heller, Chikhi, & Siegismund, 2013), we examined its potential effect on our ABC inferences in two ways. Because DIYABC cannot currently account for migration, we first repeated our analyses excluding specimens that showed signs of admixture, i.e. those with an assignment probability to their gene pool of <80% such as F_1 , F_2 or backcross hybrids. This strategy allows estimating the influence of migration from distant gene pools on ABC inferences. Second, we evaluated the effect of migration on our model comparisons by using a slightly different ABC approach that can account for migration. Specifically, we simulated datasets for three demographic scenarios (constant, declining and increasing population size, respectively) and 11 rates of migration into the studied population (0-10 migrants per generation). For each combination of demographic scenarios and migration rates (n = 33), we simulated 1 000 datasets with a coalescent simulator (Hudson, 2002), after which we used ABC to document the relative support for each demographic scenario under all 33 combinations. Population size was randomly drawn from a uniform distribution between 100 and 5,000,000 diploids; the start of population decline or increase was randomly drawn from a uniform distribution between 100 and 500,000 generations; for population decline model the current population was randomly drawn from a uniform distribution between 0.0 and 0.5× the ancestral Ne; for population increase model the ancestral population was randomly drawn from a uniform distribution between 0.0 and 0.5× the current Ne. Each simulated dataset consisted of 500 sampled loci for each of 10 individuals, for which we calculated the following summary statistics: number of SNPs, diversity measured as π (Tajima, 1983), Watterson's θ (Watterson, 1975), Tajima's D (Tajima, 1989), and the number of SNPs in each category describing the site frequency spectrum.

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Model comparison was performed by first training a random forest from 20 000 simulations without migration (RF; Pudlo et al., 2016) for each of the demographic models. This ABC RF is composed of 1 000 trained trees per demographic scenario and was used to estimate which of the demographic scenarios was best supported for each of the 33,000 simulated datasets.

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Results

Haplotype network analysis. Our COI dataset contained 52 haplotypes and like previous phylogenetic studies (Schultheiß et al., 2014; Sengupta et al., 2009), our network analysis did not reveal geographic structure in the haplotype diversity of *Bellamya* from the Lake Victoria ecoregion (Fig. S2).

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280 **Linkage disequilibrium and genetic diversity.** The total and regrouped datasets display low null 281 allele frequencies (≤5.0 %) except for two of our 15 microsatellite loci, i.e. Bel L50 and Bel L45 (7.5 and 14.7 %, respectively). We removed these two loci from the dataset for the analyses reported 282 283 below (except for demographic analyses, which were performed with 15 loci as mentioned above), 284 although frequencies up to 8 % bias population genetic estimators only slightly (Putman & Carbone, 285 2014), and analyses with all 15 loci gave highly similar results. All analyses of genetic diversity have 286 thus been performed with the regrouped dataset and 13 loci. Examining pairwise linkage among our loci did not reveal evidence for linkage disequilibrium, therewith enabling downstream demographic 287 inferences that assume independence among loci. 288 Our dataset contains substantial allelic richness and genetic diversity (Table S3). Three loci display a 289 290 deficit of heterozygotes (Bel L23, Bel L25 and Bel L47; Table S3) and significant deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium were observed for all but two loci (Bel L13 and Bel L53; Table S4), 291 implying the existence of population structure. Summary statistics of genetic diversity per sampling 292 locality in the regrouped dataset are illustrated in Table S5 and Fig. S3. We found significantly higher 293 allelic richness and genetic diversity in Lake Victoria ($A_r = 6.962$ among 14 gene copies; $H_E = 0.822$) 294 than in other waterbodies ($A_r = 6.068$; $H_E = 0.761$; Wilcoxon rank sum tests: A_r : W = 82, p = 0.004; 295 H_E : W = 88.5, p < 0.001; Fig. S3). Substantial differentiation exists among populations (global $F_{ST} =$ 296

0.064, 95% CI = 0.048-0.082). Pairwise population differentiation ranges between F_{ST} = 0.005 and 0.150, and all but 9 of the 210 pairwise tests indicate significant differentiation after FDR-correction (Fig. S4).

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Spatial patterns of genetic structure. PCA on the centered matrix of genotypes followed by modelbased clustering with 14 models on the variance-covariance structure in the PCA revealed strong support for three gene pools (Fig. 3A). Solutions with a different number of groups received much less support ($\triangle BIC \ge 21.024$; Fig. 3B). Bayesian clustering with STRUCTURE and examination of the ΔK statistic supported two to three genetic clusters (Fig. 3C). Analysis of molecular structure with DAPC produced a four-group model, but with limited preference over models with three or five groups ($\Delta BIC < 2.03$; Fig. S5). Overall assignment probabilities decreased substantially when more than three groups were considered, however (99.7 %, 82.6 % and 68.5 % for models with three, four and five groups, respectively), so that the three group DAPC model is considered most representative, despite its slightly higher BIC score. In summary, our analyses of molecular structure jointly indicate a three-group model, which is moreover corroborated by high population pairwise differentiation among gene pools versus low differentiation within (Fig. S4; see below). These three groups display a clear geographical pattern: 1) sampling localities in Lake Albert and the White Nile, 2) those in Lake Kyoga and the Victoria Nile, and 3) those of Lake Victoria, with its tributaries, including Lake Muhazi in Rwanda, and localities directly at the outflow of Lake Victoria into the upper Victoria Nile, i.e. VN01 (Fig. 4). In what follows we label these gene pools as LAG, LKG, LVG, respectively, after the principal lake in each group. Pairwise F_{ST} values between LAG and LVG, between LVG and LKG, and between LAG and LKG are 0.084, 0.078 and 0.108, respectively (regrouped dataset; all at p < 0.001). Beyond a higher allelic richness and genetic diversity (see above), LVG has more private alleles than LAG and LKG, even when resampled to identical sampling sizes (Kruskal-Wallis test; $\chi^2 = 2430.9$, df = 2, p < 0.001; Table S6, Fig. S6). The molecular clusters reflect morphospecies and geographical races to some extent (Fig. 3, 5): all individuals identified as B. rubicunda and most identified as B. unicolor unicolor belong to LAG (n = 41), whereas LKG (n = 29) consists almost exclusively of B. costulata ugandae.

The most genetically diverse group, LVG (n=212), also displayed the highest morphological disparity (11 races/morphospecies), but these races/morphospecies do not coincide with genetically distinct subgroups within LVG (Fig. 3C, D, 5).

Overall, we found strong isolation-by-distance (IBD), i.e. a significant negative correlation between kinship coefficients and geographic distances (r^2 = 0.916; p < 0.001; Fig. 6A), in *Bellamya* throughout the Lake Victoria ecoregion. There is no IBD within LVG (Fig. 6B; 16 localities) and 113 of the 120 related F_{ST} values range between 0.00 and 0.05 (Fig. S4), revealing that overall limited genetic differentiation exists within LVG. Nevertheless, kinship coefficients within LVG are elevated at very small spatial scales compared to those at intermediate and large spatial scales (Fig. 6B). Recent migration rates estimated with BayesAss are low among gene pools: the fraction of individuals in a population that are inferred to be migrants from a population of another gene pool is usually \leq 1.1 %. Migration within each of the gene pools is elevated among at least some population pairs, however (>10%; Table S7).

Demographic modelling indicates population collapse. Using anagenetic ABC models and the regrouped dataset we found that models simulating population decline (i.e. models 3 and 5 in Fig. 2) obtained high support for all three gene pools (joint posterior probability of 76.1-86.3 %; Table 1). Model 5, a past population expansion followed by population decline, consistently obtained the highest support for all three gene pools. Model 3 also consistently received substantial support and differs from model 5 by simulating a population at equilibrium, rather than under expansion, prior to the subsequent decline. These two models are difficult to distinguish because the ongoing decline is erasing the genetic signature of previous demographic events. The support for models of constant effective population size (Ne) was much smaller (13.3 – 21.5 %), whereas models that include a recent population expansion have very limited explanatory power (0.1 – 2.4 %). LKG experienced the strongest population decline, with a ~500-fold reduction in Ne over the last ~102 ka (95% CI: 10-387 ka; Table 2). Nevertheless, LAG and LVG also endured 240-fold and 190-fold declines in Ne, respectively, over the same period (LAG: 140 ka, 95% CI: 18-426 ka; LVG: 173 ka, 95% CI: 26-452 ka). In simulations of model 5 the average value of t_2 , the onset of population expansion, was ~300 ka

(95% CI: 70-490 ka) for each molecular group. At that time, expansions in Ne were about 2-fold for each molecular group, and, hence, much more restricted than the subsequent population collapses. None of the cladogenetic models tested with ABC (Fig. S2) fitted the empirical data well, so we do not consider them further. In summary, the three gene pools display very similar demographic histories indicating a tight link since differentiation from their most recent common ancestor (MRAC). Their current population sizes represent only 0.2-0.6 % of those prior to ~125-150 ka ago. Some migration among gene pools occurs in our dataset (Table S7), which warranted an analysis of how the resulting gene flow may affect our ABC analyses. Specimens indicating admixture among gene pools were found in LAG (n = 1) and LVG (n = 16); regrouped dataset) but not in LKG. Model support remains very similar when these specimens are removed (Table S8), and also our estimates of model parameters are robust (Table S9). Running ABC on simulated datasets without migration, 99.8 %, 99.1 % and 99.2 % of simulations were assigned correctly to the models of population decline, population increase and a constant population size (Fig. S7). Including progressively increasing levels of migration, the demographic history of populations with declining and increasing Ne remained accurately reconstructed (correct assignment >97 %; Fig. S7A, B). Migration into populations at equilibrium size resulted in ~17 % of correct assignment only, with bias in the ABC inferences towards strongly inflated support for the population expansion model (~83 %; Fig. S7C). This bias results from migration causing long branches in the coalescent model, which mimics the expected coalescence under an expansion model. In conclusion, the model of population decline is not affected by migration nor did migration cause erroneous support for population decline under models of population increase and equilibrium. As such, our analysis of robustness indicates that the ABC support obtained for population decline cannot be attributed to bias caused by gene flow from distant gene pools.

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Discussion

Our results indicate that three, geographically-structured gene pools exist in *Bellamya* gastropods of the Lake Victoria ecoregion, with the highest genetic diversity in LVG. We did not uncover barriers to gene flow within gene pools that reflect habitat divergence, which is surprising for LVG, given the

recognition of several endemic species (Brown, 1994; Mandahl-Barth, 1954). Our study presents the first examination of demographic history of freshwater invertebrates from the Lake Victoria ecoregion with ABC and it evidences population collapse, which started before the Last Glacial Maximum. Declines in viviparids are much more severe than in co-occurring haplochromine cichlids (Elmer et al., 2009), they have started earlier and they are evidenced in all studied gene pools. Whereas population collapse was initiated by historical environmental change, it appears to be intensified by ongoing anthropogenic ecosystem change. Below we discuss all these aspects in the ecological context of environmental change in the Lake Victoria ecoregion.

Spatial patterns of genetic structure. Our microsatellite dataset is the first to document three gene pools in viviparid gastropods of the Lake Victoria ecoregion, which occupy distinct geographic regions (see Fig. 4). Specimens of these gene pools had been included in rift-wide phylogenetic analyses based on 6 nuclear and mitochondrial gene fragments (Schultheiß et al., 2014; Sengupta et al., 2009), but these studies and our analysis of COI haplotypes (Fig. S2) did not uncover spatial patterns of genetic structure. Our data suggest that a few critical barriers have driven dispersal limitations. The main transition between LKG and LVG occurs ~20 km downstream of the outflow of Lake Victoria, between sampling localities VN01 and VN02, which are historically separated by a series of cascades, rapids and now also the Bujagali Hydropower Plant. Likewise, LAG and LKG are separated by a series of rapids that includes the Karuma and Murchison Falls, which also prevent fish migration (Hecky et al., 2010). Interestingly, all three gene pools contain substantial genetic diversity, including private alleles, although during the LGM, Lake Victoria was dry (Johnson et al., 2000; Johnson et al., 1996), Lake Albert experienced several low stands and potential desiccation (Beuning, Talbot, & Kelts, 1997), and the Victoria Nile became a permanent overflow of Lake Victoria only ~11.2 ka (Johnson et al., 2000).

Putative erosion of adaptive divergence. Genetic differentiation between the inferred viviparid gene pools seems to have been caused mainly by dispersal limitation but, given the consistent morphological differences among these gene pools, adaptive divergence may also have contributed

(Fig. 5). Adaptive divergence was previously only inferred within LVG, where morphological disparity is largest (Fig. 3D). Indeed, morphological differentiation within LVG has been interpreted as the result of ecological divergence related to different microhabitats within Lake Victoria (Brown, 1994; Mandahl-Barth, 1954), so that the Lake Victoria viviparids represent an evolutionary radiation (Schultheiß et al., 2014; Sengupta et al., 2009). Therefore, we anticipated that our neutral genetic markers would uncover clear traces of molecular divergence among morphospecies within LVG, which was not the case despite high molecular diversity and morphological disparity. Nevertheless, 112 out of 120 pairwise population F_{ST} values (~93 %) within LVG indicate limited albeit significant genetic differentiation. As such, subtle genetic differences exist in LVG, but they have not been picked up in our analyses of genetic structure. Interestingly, our sampling indicates that many of the morphospecies that were previously confined to different microhabitats within Lake Victoria currently occur in sympatry (Table S2, S5). This observation and the result that kinship coefficients within LVG are elevated at very small spatial scales (Fig. 6B) strongly suggest that gene flow occurs among sympatric morphospecies. To examine this hypothesis, we compared individual inbreeding coefficients for localities of LVG that contained one versus multiple morphospecies, which resulted in no significant differences (Fi = 0.026 ± 0.048 vs. 0.030 ± 0.041 [mean \pm sd], respectively; Wilcoxon rank sum tests: W = 32.5, p = 0.958). Our data suggest that the anthropogenic homogenization of previously differentiated microhabitats (Sayer et al., 2018) is promoting gene flow among morphospecies (see below), which may also explain the deficit in heterozygotes observed for three loci. We would expect inbreeding to trigger similar patterns of heterozygosity across loci, however, and the uneven occurrence of null alleles in a few populations for these three loci (although being overall infrequent), may have contributed to heterozygote deficiency. Surprisingly, morphological differences currently persist among morphospecies of LVG that occur in sympatry, that share recent gene flow, and that are not molecularly differentiated for the here studied loci. Ecophenotypic plasticity is contradicted by regular sympatric co-occurrence and the observed morphological disparity exceeds that expected under such plasticity (see Van Bocxlaer, Van Damme, & Feibel, 2008). If morphological differentiation indeed was adaptive then we would expect it to be linked to regions of the genome that are/were under selection and where differentiation may persist in the face

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of gene flow. If the size of such regions is restricted in comparison to that of the viviparid genome, we would unlikely have sampled such regions with our microsatellite loci. More in-depth investigations into the molecular diversity of the viviparids of Lake Victoria is warranted to further test this hypothesis, which would best be undertaken with genome-wide, rapidly-evolving molecular markers and samples that cover all shorelines of the lake (see e.g. Wagner et al., 2013).

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Comparison of phylogeography and demography with haplochromine cichlids. The largest intraspecific genetic differentiation in the mega-diverse species flock of haplochromine cichlids of the Lake Victoria ecoregion occurs in Lake Kivu (Verheyen et al., 2003), from which other parts of the ecoregion were subsequently colonized (Elmer et al., 2009; Nagl et al., 2000). Lake Kivu does not harbor extant viviparid populations, and neither do Lakes Edward and George (Brown, 1994), but otherwise phylogeographic patterns are highly similar in viviparids and cichlids. For example, cichlids from tributaries of Lake Victoria are genetically more closely related to those of Lake Victoria than to those of Lakes Albert and Kyoga (Elmer et al., 2009). Our results suggest that the ancestral stock of viviparids from the Lake Victoria ecoregion either occurred in the geographic area currently covered by LVG, or that it colonized this area well before colonizing the regions occupied by LAG and LKG. The increase in viviparid Ne in ABC model 5 ~300 ka (95% CI 70-490 ka) coincides broadly with the formation of the Lake Victoria Basin ~400 ka ago (Bishop & Trendall, 1966; Johnson et al., 2000; Lehman, 2009). That demographic expansion was only two-fold, which indicates that large populations of Bellamya were already existing in the ecoregion before the origin of the Lake Victoria Basin. Indeed, the MRCA of the viviparids from the Lake Victoria ecoregion was estimated to ~2.5 Ma (95% CI 1.5-4.3 Ma) (Schultheiß et al., 2014), which broadly overlaps with estimates on the MRCA of the Lake Victoria haplochromines ~1.4 Ma (Nagl et al., 2000) or ~3.0 Ma (95% CI 2.3-3.9 Ma; Elmer et al., 2009). As such, some genetic lineages of viviparids in the ecoregion clearly predate the Late Pleistocene desiccation of Lake Victoria, which has, beyond cichlids, also been reported for cyprinid fish (Rutaisire, Booth, Masembe, Nyakaana, & Muwanika, 2004), catfish (Mwita & Nkwengulila, 2008) and unionid bivalves (Ortiz-Sepulveda et al., 2020). Furthermore, the current genetic differentiation, estimated as population pairwise F_{ST} values, is very

similar in viviparids (0.005-0.150) and cichlids (0.013-0.104; Elmer et al., 2009) of the Lake Victoria ecoregion. After formation of the basin, aquatic environments experienced three low stands, potentially related to 100,000-year glacial-interglacial cycles (Johnson et al., 2000). As mentioned, the last megadrought in the Lake Victoria ecoregion occurred at the LGM ~18-15 ka and included a substantial interval during which Lake Victoria, with a current surface area of almost 70,000 km², was completely desiccated. Lake Albert experienced simultaneous low stands and potential desiccation, and the Victoria Nile was only formed ~11.2 ka ago (Beuning et al., 1997; Johnson et al., 2000). Interestingly, none of the three viviparid gene pools evidence a population expansion related to the re-establishment of aquatic habitats in the Lake Victoria ecoregion after the LGM. Instead, our demographic modelling suggests that the Ne of each of these viviparid gene pools remained relatively stable during recent ecosystem calamities (Table 2). This diversity was potentially maintained in mountain-fed river systems along the western branch of the East African Rift (Johnson et al., 2000). The penultimate phase of megadrought in the Lake Victoria ecoregion transpired at the end of the last interglacial ~125 ka (Tryon et al., 2016), and whereas the extent of aridity during this period is more uncertain in comparison to the LGM (Johnson et al., 2000; Johnson et al., 1996), it corresponds broadly to the onset of viviparid population decline estimated in our ABC simulations, suggesting at least a similar level of aridity to that at the LGM. Whereas we anticipated scenarios of early population expansion and subsequent decline to perform well in simulations, based on earlier demographic studies of cichlids (Elmer et al., 2009), the early onset of such decline and the magnitude of population collapse were unexpected. Indeed, the here documented collapses in viviparids (Table 3) are an order of magnitude more severe than those recorded in haplochromine cichlids (30- to 50- fold population declines), and they also started 100 ka earlier (Elmer et al., 2009). Additionally, our evidence indicates that they affected all viviparid gene pools in the Lake Victoria ecoregion simultaneously. Given the persistence and extent of population collapses, it is likely that viviparid species have gone extinct in the Lake Victoria ecoregion over the Late Pleistocene.

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Paleoenvironmental studies in the Lake Victoria ecoregion focused primarily on the megadrought at the LGM because it is geologically better constrained than previous phases of aridity (Johnson et al., 1996), and because desiccation seemed counter-intuitive with cichlid evolution (Elmer et al., 2009; Verheyen et al., 2003). Consequently, cichlid research addressing this seeming contradiction likewise focused on the LGM, and responses in cichlid evolution to earlier ecological calamities may not have been fully considered. The increase in haplotype diversity observed for haplochromines since the penultimate phase of aridity ~125 ka (Nagl et al., 2000) suggests a simultaneous bottleneck for cichlids and viviparids. The alternative explanation, i.e. that the LGM megadrought affected cichlids more severely than viviparids, is unlikely given the limited dispersal abilities of viviparids compared to cichlids. A search for genomic imprints of earlier megadroughts in other freshwater organisms including other benthic invertebrates is warranted, especially because high-throughput sequencing technology now allows the reconstruction of population history with unprecedented resolution.

Recent ecological degradation. The historical population decline in viviparid gastropods is intensified by the ongoing ecological degradation resulting from multifactorial anthropogenic pressures on freshwater ecosystems of the Lake Victoria ecoregion (Hecky et al., 2010; Sayer et al., 2018; Van Damme, Seddon, & Carr, 2018). Indeed, as for cichlids (Elmer et al., 2009), no signs for a potential recovery of allelic diversity have been observed in viviparids since the LGM. Algal blooms and widespread bottom anoxia are becoming increasingly common in Lake Victoria (Hecky et al., 1994; Stager & Johnson, 2008), which could result in a shoaling of gastropods (Christian Albrecht, pers. obs.), as is occurring in Lakes Malawi and Tanganyika (Van Bocxlaer, Schultheiß, Plisnier, & Albrecht, 2012). Viviparids were previously (19th and early 20th centuries) found to maximum depths of 30 and 33 m in Lake Victoria (*B. trochlearis* and *B. phthinotropis*, respectively), and *B. rubicunda* was recovered from a maximum depth of 18 m in Lake Albert (Brown, 1994; Mandahl-Barth, 1954). In our surveys, no living *Bellamya* specimens were retrieved from depths >6 m in Lake Albert. In Lake Victoria *B. trochlearis* and *B. phthinotropis* were obtained from <15 m and usually in sympatry with other *Bellamya* species (see Table S5). At two localities living viviparids, i.e. *B. costulata ugandae* and *B. unicolor meta*, which were previously reported up to depths of 10 and 12 m,

respectively, were collected between 15 and 23 m. Beyond mass mortality in fishes, as occasionally reported (Ochumba, 1990), anoxia would asphyxiate large proportions of zoobenthos communities, especially of taxa with low mobility such as viviparids. The toll of such events on mollusc populations is evidenced by deposits of dead and moribund individuals along the shorelines of Lake Victoria (Van Bocxlaer and Albrecht, pers. obs.). The consequences of ongoing degradation may differ among shorelines, among the various habitats and among taxa. Some viviparid species, such as B. phthinotropis, which was predominantly found in deeper waters (see above), are rare in recent surveys and are reported to be critically endangered (Sayer et al., 2018). The ongoing ecological degradation of Lake Victoria is homogenising environmental conditions through the elimination of microhabitats, which may cause the reduction of endemic diversity in various freshwater taxa through extinction and faunal homogenization (Sayer et al., 2018). Our data indicate that habitat destruction has forced putatively differently adapted (incipient) viviparid species to occupy increasingly more similar habitats, and that this renewed (ecological and geographical) proximity is causing gene flow among them, which may erode genetic distinctiveness. Estimating the extent to which reproductive barriers among viviparids have already been obliterated is currently difficult, especially because it is unclear to what level such barriers existed prior to the onset of ecological degradation and given the lack of dense genomic sampling. Nevertheless, reverse speciation has previously been hypothesized for co-occurring cichlids (Seehausen, 2006), so investigations as to how reproductive barriers have changed over time are warranted for other freshwater biota in the Lake Victoria ecoregion. Our data suggests inbreeding among morphospecies and therewith faunal homogenisation in aquatic invertebrates and we document the strongest demographic collapse observed thus far in the Lake Victoria ecoregion. Given the current rate of ecosystem change throughout the entire Lake Victoria ecoregion, and given the anticipated additional anthropogenic pressure expected over coming decades (Sayer et al., 2018), further in-depth studies of the viviparid species flock from Lake Victoria, and benthic invertebrate diversity in general, are highly pressing. Indeed, understanding the consequences of ongoing, multifactorial ecosystem transformations on freshwater communities will be critical for sustaining biodiversity and managing fisheries in the Lake Victoria ecoregion over the coming decennia.

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Data accessibility

Various metadata are provided in Supplemental Information, including data on specimen vouchers and NCBI GenBank accession numbers. All data files and the R script used for the analysis have been deposited in the Dryad Data Repository and are available via https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.q83bk3jg2.

Author contributions

BVB and CA designed research; CA coordinated sampling; CC performed molecular biology; BVB,
 AD and CR performed analyses; BVB wrote the paper, with help of all authors.

767 Tables

Table 1. Relative model support for the five anagenetic demographic models included in our ABC simulations. Scenarios of effective population size through time for each of these models are displayed in Fig. 2.

| Group | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 | Model 5 | Model 3+5 |
|---------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|
| Lake Albert Group | 0.1468 | 0.0003 | 0.3591 | 0.0009 | 0.4930 | 0.8521 |
| Lake Kyoga Group | 0.1328 | 0.0000 | 0.3571 | 0.0041 | 0.5060 | 0.8631 |
| Lake Victoria Group | 0.2147 | 0.0030 | 0.3443 | 0.0214 | 0.4166 | 0.7609 |

| | mean Ne | mode Ne | 95% | % CI | mean t or t_1 | $ \text{mode } t \\ \text{or } t_l $ | 959 | % CI | mean Nebig | mode Nebig | 95% | % CI | mean t_2 | mode t ₂ | mean Ne _{s_Anc} | mode Ne _{s_Anc} |
|---------------------|------------------|------------|-------|--------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|--------|---------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------|----------------------|------------|---------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Lake Albert Group | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Model 3 | 23 800 | 12 700 | 5 830 | 60 300 | 186 000 | 72 900 | 25 700 | 460 000 | 4.36×10^{6} | 1.36×10^{6} | 259 000 | 9.63×10^{6} | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Model 5 | 19 800 | 9 220 | 4 840 | 51 400 | 98 600 | 51 600 | 15 000 | 308 000 | 6.06×10^6 | 8.60×10^6 | 1.12×10^6 | 9.82×10^6 | 291 000 | 323 000 | 2.81×10^6 | 503 000 |
| Model 3+5 | 21 500 | 11 200 | 5 310 | 56 000 | 140 000 | 66 000 | 17 500 | 426 000 | 5.22×10^6 | 8.11×10^6 | 397 000 | 9.77×10^6 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Lake Kyoga | Lake Kyoga Group | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Model 3 | 9 860 | 4 080 | 2 210 | 27 100 | 116 000 | 28 500 | 11 000 | 411 000 | 4.26×10^{6} | 2.49×10^{6} | 239 000 | 9.58×10^{6} | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Model 5 | 12 900 | 5 110 | 3 300 | 35 00 | 81 600 | 30 000 | 11 400 | 265 000 | 6.73×10^6 | 9.83×10^6 | 1.82×10^6 | 9.88×10^6 | 293 000 | 439 000 | 3.50×10^6 | 2.17×10^6 |
| Model 3+5 | 11 700 | 5 570 | 2 750 | 32 700 | 102 000 | 40 700 | 9 690 | 387 000 | 5.58×10^6 | 7.75×10^6 | 484 000 | 9.82×10^6 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Lake Victoria Group | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Model 3 | 27 800 | 12 800 | 6 800 | 72 900 | 213 000 | 85 000 | 35 900 | 470 000 | 4.19×10^{6} | 1.50×10^{6} | 158 000 | 9.63×10^{6} | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Model 5 | 30 600 | 10 200 | 7 000 | 69 900 | 136 000 | 94 500 | 22 000 | 360 000 | 6.04×10^6 | 9.41×10^6 | 1.12×10^6 | 9.72×10^6 | 345 000 | 414 000 | 2.82×10^6 | 722 000 |
| Model 3+5 | 27 000 | 11 700 | 6 870 | 70 000 | 173 000 | 78 300 | 25 500 | 452 000 | 5.18×10^6 | 8.95×10^6 | 348 000 | 9.71×10^6 | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |

Figure captions

Figure 1. Geographical context of this study with indication of the major lakes and sampling localities (triangles for the COI dataset, circles for the microsatellite dataset). The Lake Victoria ecoregion is demarcated. Lakes Albert and Kivu are currently considered to be part of the Upper Nile and Lake Tanganyika ecoregions, respectively (see Abell et al., 2008), but their historic biogeography is strongly connected with the Lake Victoria ecoregion. Therefore, we here consider them to be part of the Lake Victoria ecoregion for practical reasons (dashed lines).

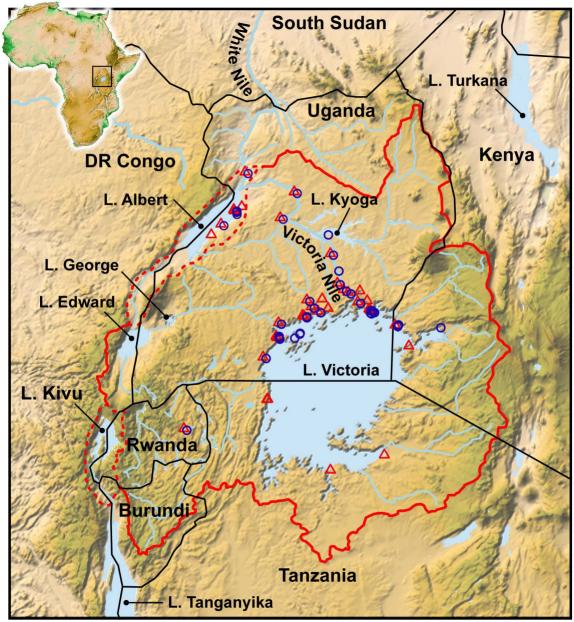
Figure 2. Five scenarios of anagenetic demographic change in effective population size (Ne) over time (t), as implemented in approximate Bayesian computations. Scenario 1) indicates constant Ne, scenario 2) an expansion in Ne, scenario 3) a decline in Ne, scenario 4) a population bottleneck, and scenario 5) population expansion followed by population decline. These scenarios are reflected in the specified model conditions (see Methods).

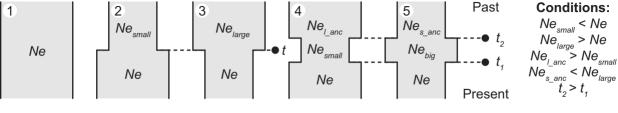
Figure 3. Structure of molecular diversity in *Bellamya* from the Lake Victoria ecoregion. A) Principal component analysis on the centered matrix of genotypes for the total dataset (39 populations; 321 individuals) with results of model-based clustering using 14 variance-covariance models (B; see Methods). C) results of Bayesian clustering with STRUCTURE for K = 2, 3; the individuals of one cluster that approach another cluster in A, correspond to the individuals that have mixed assignments in C under scenario K = 3. D) the morphospecies belonging to each molecular group. LAG: B. unicolor unicolor (a) and B. rubicunda (b); LKG: B. costulata ugandae (c) and B. u. elatior (d); LVG: B. c. ugandae (e), B. c. dagusiae (f), B. c. costulata (g), B. u. elatior (h), B. u. meta (i), B. phthinotropis (j), B. jucunda altior (k), B. j. kisumiensis (l), B. j. jucunda (m), B. trochlearis (n-p), B. constricta (q).

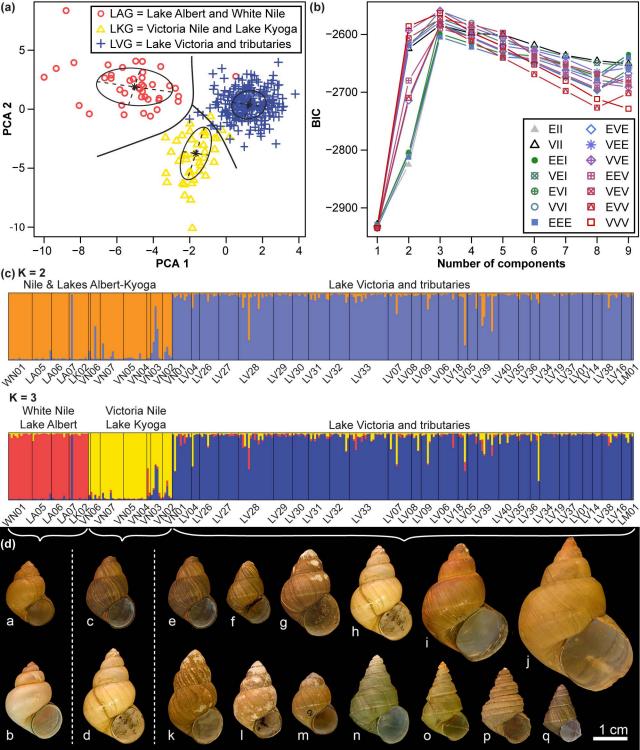
Figure 4. Geographical distribution of sampling localities in the total dataset with pie charts indicating the average assignment of individuals per sampling localities to the three gene pools following the output of STRUCTURE.

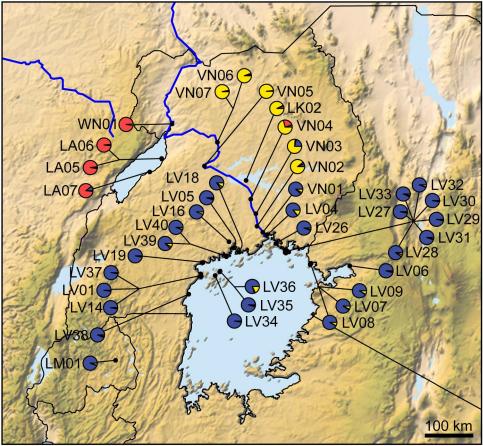
Figure 5. Principal component analysis on the centered matrix of genotypes in our total dataset with symbols indicating the race or morphospecies to which individuals have been assigned. Specimens from LAG have been assigned to *B. rubicunda* and *B. unicolor unicolor*, whereas most specimens from LKG were assigned to *B. costulata ugandae*. Most morphological disparity was found in LVG, but these races/morphospecies do not coincide with genetically distinct subgroups (*B. c. = Bellamya costulata*, *B. j. = Bellamya jacunda*, *B. u. = Bellamya unicolor*).

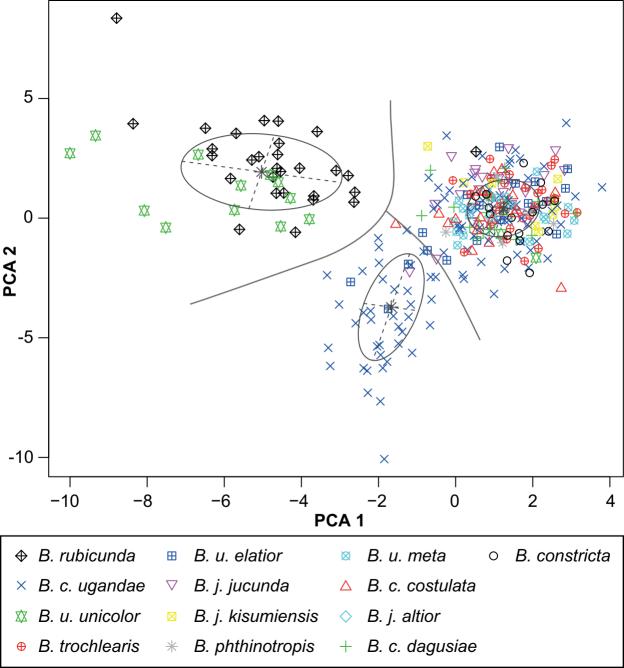
Figure 6. Regression of kinship coefficients on geographic distance for the regrouped dataset indicates a pattern of isolation-by-distance (IBD) over the entire ecoregion (A), but not for the Lake Victoria group (LVG; 16 localities; B), although kinship coefficients are elevated over very short geographical distances for LVG (blue vertical bar).

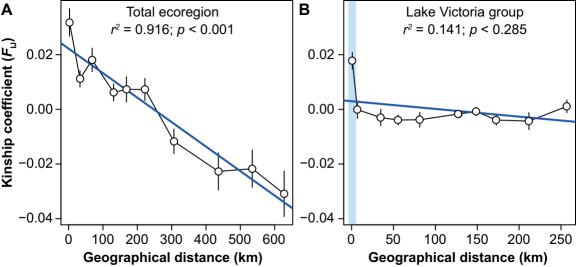














Supplemental Information for:

Population collapse in viviparid gastropods of the Lake Victoria ecoregion started before the Last Glacial Maximum

Bert Van Bocxlaer, Catharina Clewing, Anne Duputié, Camille Roux, Christian Albrecht

SI text

Morphological identifications

Morphological identifications to species and/or races were performed with the identification key of Mandahl-Barth (1954) and these identifications were subsequently updated following Mandahl-Barth (1973) and Brown (1994). Because the identification key has some ambiguous steps, we additionally cross-validated our identifications using type specimens from the Natural History Museum in London and the Zoological Museum, Copenhagen, which houses the Mandahl-Barth collection. As multiple morphological transitions exist, the status of geographical races, nominal species and the assignment of races to species requires further taxonomic research. Nevertheless, all currently recognized races and species were represented in our total dataset, although some morphological variants of B. trochlearis, B. phthinotropis and B. unicolor are missing. Construction of the reduced dataset from the total dataset did not result in the exclusion of morphospecies, but it implied that B. phthinotropis is only represented by three specimens. This regrouping of the populations also implied three cases of lumping several morphospecies into joint populations. More specifically, it affects specimens of B. constricta, B. costulata costulata and B. trochlearis in the merge of LV01, LV14 and LV37; specimens of B. costulata ugandae, B. jucunda altior, B. jucunda jucunda, and B. unicolor elatior in the merge of LV29 and LV30; and specimens of B. costulata costulata, B. jucunda altior, B. cf. phthinotropis, B. costulata ugandae, B. sp. (juvenile) in the merge of LV35 and LV36. In none of these cases, however, did the merge result in drastically altered summary statistics.

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| 53 | Weir, B. S., & Cockerham, C. C. (1984). Estimating F-statistics for the analysis of population structure. |
|----|---|
| 54 | Evolution, 38(6), 1358-1370. |
| 55 | Wilson, G. A., & Rannala, B. (2003). Bayesian inference of recent migration rates using multilocus |
| 56 | genotypes. Genetics, 163, 1177-1191. |

58 Tables

 Table S1. Sampling and collection information on all specimens in the cytochrome c oxidase subunit I dataset: population code (Pop.), specimen code (Ind.), morphological identification, accession number in the Systematics and Biodiversity collection of the Justus Liebig University Giessen (UGSB), the DNA voucher number (DNA#), the NCBI GenBank accession number and sequence code. For each locality sampling information is provided as well. The reference (Ref.) for the sequence data is: 1 = Jørgensen, Kristensen, and Madsen (2008); 2 = Sengupta, Kristensen, Madsen, and Jørgensen (2009); 3 = Schulthei, Wilke, Jørgensen, and Albrecht (2011); 4 = Schulthei, Van Bocxlaer, Riedel, von Rintelen, and Albrecht (2014); 5 = this study. Identifications of specimens from Schultheiß et al. (2014) were updated: Specimens indicated with an * under identification were previously identified as B. unicolor, that with ** as B. trochlearis. Individuals with bold specimen codes were included in the microsatellite dataset.

| | | microsateinte dataset. | TICOD | ************************************** | ~ n . | ~ . | <u>.</u> | | *** . * * | ~ . | · | |
|--------------|------------------|-------------------------------|-------|--|----------------------|-----------|----------|----------|----------------------------|------------------|------------------|----------|
| Pop. | Ind. | Identification | UGSB | DNA# | GenBank | Seq_code | Lat. | | Waterbody | Country | Locality | Ref. |
| LV01 | LV01/1 | B. trochlearis | 7933 | n.a. | FJ405837 | Btr837vi | | 32.02575 | | Uganda | Bukakata | 2 |
| LV02 | LV02/1 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405872 | Bsp872vi | 0.48827 | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Buluba | 2 |
| LV03 | LV03/1 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405862 | Bsp862vi | 0.05388 | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Entebbe | 2 |
| LV03 | LV03/2 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405866 | Bsp866vi | 0.05388 | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Entebbe | 2 |
| LV04 | LV04/1 | B. unicolor elatior | 7935 | n.a. | FJ405848 | Bun848vi | | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Jinja | 2 |
| LV04 | LV04/2 | B. unicolor elatior | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405853 | Bun853vi | | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Jinja | 2 |
| LV05 | LV05/1 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | 7928 | n.a. | FJ405849 | Bsp849vi | 0.19892 | 32.61540 | | Uganda | Kaazi | 2 |
| LV08 | LV08/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 7064 | 15686 | JX489237 | Bco237vi | -0.10900 | 34.02031 | Lake Victoria | Kenya | Usenge | 2 |
| LV08 | LV08/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 7063 | 15685 | MT834851 | Bsp685VI | -0.10900 | 34.02031 | Lake Victoria | Kenya | Usenge | 5 |
| LV10 | LV10/1 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405850 | Bsp850vi | 0.19364 | 32.85216 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Kibanga Port | 2 |
| LV11 | LV11/1 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405869 | Bsp869vi | 0.32119 | 33.50837 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Kityerea | 2 |
| LV12 | LV12/1 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405868 | Bsp868vi | 0.35247 | 32.75374 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Kivindi | 2 |
| LV12 | LV12/2 | B. trochlearis | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405870 | Btr870vi | 0.35247 | 32.75374 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Kivindi | 2 |
| LV14 | LV14/1 | B. trochlearis | 7930 | n.a. | FJ405846 | Btr846vi | -0.32093 | 32.03923 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Lambu | 2 |
| LV15 | LV15/1 | <i>B</i> . sp. | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405854 | Bsp854vi | n.a. | n.a. | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Lomba | 2 |
| LV16 | LV16/1 | B. trochlearis | 7934 | n.a. | FJ405847 | Btr847vi | 0.31341 | 32.54089 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Lugala | 2 |
| LV17 | LV17/1 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405852 | Bsp852vi | -0.43713 | 34.20606 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Mbita | 2 |
| LV18 | LV18/1 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | 7929 | n.a. | FJ405839 | Bsp839vi | 0.12303 | 32.72698 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Mpunge | 2 |
| LV19 | LV19/1 | B. trochlearis | 7932 | n.a. | FJ405855 | Btr855vi | -0.06967 | 32.06489 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Ngombe | 2 |
| LV20 | LV20/1 | B. costulata | n.a. | 7125 | HQ012712 | Bco712vi | -2.26658 | 33.79654 | Lake Victoria | Tanzania | Speke Bay | 3 |
| LV21 | LV21/1 | B. costulata/jucunda/unicolor | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405845 | Bsp845vi | n.a. | n.a. | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Nile Source | 2 |
| LV22 | LV22/1 | B. costulata costulata | 13203 | 20330 | MT834852 | Bsp330VI | -2.52111 | 32.89134 | Lake Victoria | Tanzania | Mwanza | 5 |
| LV23 | LV23/1 | B. costulata costulata | 13204 | 20331 | MT834853 | Bsp331VI | -1.33525 | 31.82467 | Lake Victoria | Tanzania | Bukoba | 5 |
| LV24 | LV24/1 | B. constricta | 13206 | 20333 | MT834854 | Bsp333VI | | 31.83954 | | Tanzania | Bukoba | 5 |
| LV24 | LV24/1 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 13207 | 20334 | MT834855 | Bsp334VI | | | Lake Victoria | Tanzania | Bukoba | 5 |
| LV25 | LV25/1 | B. costulata costulata | 13209 | 20336 | MT834856 | Bsp336VI | | | Lake Victoria | Tanzania | Bukoba | 5 |
| LV26 | LV26/1 | B. unicolor meta | 6261 | 15170 | MT834857 | Bsp170VI | 0.28161 | 33.39454 | | Uganda | Lufu Island | 5 |
| LV26 | LV26/2 | B. unicolor meta | 6262 | 15171 | MT834858 | Bsp171VI | | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Lufu Island | 5 |
| LV26 | LV26/3 | B. unicolor meta | 6264 | 15173 | MT834859 | Bsp173VI | 0.28161 | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Lufu Island | 5 |
| LV30 | LV30/1 | B. unicolor elatior | 6518 | 15261 | JX489229 | Bun229vi | 0.14067 | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Simu Island | 4 |
| LV30 | LV30/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 6517 | 15260 | MT834860 | Bsp260VI | 0.14067 | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Simu Island | 5 |
| LV32 | LV32/1 | B. trochlearis | 6283 | 15192 | JX489227 | Btr227vi | 0.16176 | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Dagusi Island NE | 4 |
| LV32 | LV32/2 | B. trochlearis | 6284 | 15193 | JX489228 | Btr228vi | 0.16176 | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Dagusi Island NE | 4 |
| LV38 | LV38/1 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6578 | 15321 | JX489231 | Bju231vi | | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Ddimo | 4 |
| LV38 | LV38/2 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6577 | 15320 | MT834861 | Bsp320VI | | 31.80791 | | Uganda | Ddimo | 5 |
| LV39 | LV39/1 | B. unicolor elatior** | 6889 | 15494 | JX489235 | Btr235vi | 0.03892 | 32.49402 | | Uganda | Entebbe S | 4 |
| LV39 | LV39/2 | B. unicolor elatior | 6890 | 15495 | JX489236 | Bun236vi | | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Entebbe S | 4 |
| LM01 | LM01/1 | | 7123 | 15745 | JX489240 | Bun240mu | -1.84843 | | Lake Muhazi | Rwanda | Gahini | 4 |
| VN01 | VN01/6 | | 6253 | 15162 | MT834862 | Bun162NI | 0.48544 | | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Bujagali Falls | 5 |
| VN01 | VN01/9 | B. costulata ugandae* | 6256 | 15165 | JX489226 | Bun226ni | 0.48544 | | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Bujagali Falls | 4 |
| VN02 | | B. unicolor elatior | 7931 | n.a. | FJ405851 | Bun851vi | 0.59448 | | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Kumucanga | 2 |
| VN04 | VN04/1 | B. costulata ugandae* | 7085 | 15707 | JX489238 | Bun238ni | | 32.93648 | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Budali | 4 |
| | LK01/1 | B. unicolor | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405863 | Bun863ky | n.a. | | Lake Kyoga | Uganda | Lyingo | 2 |
| | VN05/1 | | 7111 | 15733 | JX489239 | Bun239ni | | | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Masindi Port | 1 |
| | VN06/1 | | 7124 | 15746 | JX489241 | Bun241ni | | | Victoria Nile | | Mutunda | 4 |
| VN07 | | B. costulata ugandae | 6692 | 15458 | MT834863 | Bsp458NI | 2.12852 | | Victoria Nile | Uganda Uganda | Mutunda | 5 |
| VN07 VN07 | | B. costulata ugandae | 6695 | 15461 | MT834864 | Bsp4561NI | | | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Mutunda | <i>5</i> |
| LA01 | LA01/1 | B. rubicunda | | 6612 | HQ012714 | Bru714al | | | Lake Albert | Uganda | Kiabahamba | 3 |
| LA01 | | В. rubicunda | n.a. | | - | Bru714al | | | | Uganda | Kiabahamba | 3 |
| LA01 | LA01/2 LA01/3 | | n.a. | 6611 6615 | HQ012713 HQ012715 | Bru715al | | | Lake Albert Lake Albert | Uganda | Kiabahamba | 3 |
| | | B. rubicunda | n.a. | | - | | | | | Uganda | | |
| LA02 | LA02/1 | B. rubicunda B. rubicunda | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405861 | Bru861al | | | Lake Albert | U | Bugoigo | 2 |
| LA03 | LA03/1 | | n.a. | n.a. | FJ405836 | Bru836al | 1.80911 | | Lake Albert | Uganda | Butiaba | 2 |
| LA04 | LA04/1 | B. rubicunda | n.a. | n.a. | EU274556 | Bru556al | n.a. | n.a. | Lake Albert | Uganda | Rwangala | 1 |

| Pop. | Ind. | Identification | UGSB | DNA# | GenBank | Seq_code | Lat. | Long. | Waterbody | Country | Locality | Ref. |
|------|--------|----------------------|------|-------|----------|----------|---------|----------|-------------|---------|------------|------|
| LA05 | LA05/1 | B. rubicunda | 6303 | 15212 | MT834865 | Bru212AL | 1.83060 | 31.31484 | Lake Albert | Uganda | Butiaba | 5 |
| LA06 | LA06/1 | B. rubicunda | 6877 | 15482 | JX489233 | Bru233al | 1.81842 | 31.32021 | Lake Albert | Uganda | Butiaba | 4 |
| LA06 | LA06/2 | B. rubicunda | 6878 | 15483 | JX489234 | Bru234al | 1.81842 | 31.32021 | Lake Albert | Uganda | Butiaba | 4 |
| LA07 | LA07/1 | B. rubicunda | 6569 | 15312 | JX489230 | Bru230al | 1.58649 | 31.10057 | Lake Albert | Uganda | Kiriamboga | 4 |
| WN01 | RN07/1 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6710 | 15476 | JX489232 | Bun232ni | 2.45933 | 31.50487 | White Nile | Uganda | Pakwach | 4 |
| WN01 | RN07/2 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6711 | 15477 | MT834866 | Bsp477NI | 2.45933 | 31.50487 | White Nile | Uganda | Pakwach | 5 |
| WN01 | RN07/3 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6712 | 15478 | MT834867 | Bsp478NI | 2.45933 | 31.50487 | White Nile | Uganda | Pakwach | 5 |

Table S2. Sampling and collection information on all individuals included in our microsatellite dataset: population code (Pop.), specimen code (Ind.), morphological identification, accession number in the Systematics and Biodiversity collection of the Justus Liebig University Giessen (UGSB), the DNA voucher number (DNA#), and locality information. Information specific to the sampling event is identical for all specimens in a population and, therefore, it is only indicated on the first row for each population. Populations that have been pooled in the regrouped dataset are indicated with identical locality names, however, their geographic coordinates specify precise sampling locations.

| Pop. | Ind. | Identification | UGSB | DNA# | Lat. | Long. | Waterbody | Country | Locality |
|---------|------------------|---|--------------|----------------|----------|----------|---------------|---------|------------|
| A05 | LA05/1 | B. rubicunda | 6303 | 15212 | 1.83060 | 31.31484 | Lake Albert | Uganda | Butiaba |
| | LA05/2 | B. rubicunda | 6295 | 15204 | | | | C | |
| | LA05/3 | B. rubicunda | 6296 | 15205 | | | | | |
| | LA05/4 | B. rubicunda | 6297 | 15206 | | | | | |
| | LA05/5 | B. rubicunda | 6298 | 15207 | | | | | |
| | LA05/6 | B. rubicunda | 6299 | 15208 | | | | | |
| | LA05/7 | B. rubicunda | 6301 | 15210 | | | | | |
| | LA05/8 | B. rubicunda | 6302 | 15211 | | | | | |
| | LA05/9 | B. rubicunda | 6305 | 15214 | | | | | |
| | LA05/10 | B. rubicunda | 6306 | 15215 | | | | | |
| A06 | LA06/1 | B. rubicunda | 6877 | 15482 | 1.81842 | 31.32021 | Lake Albert | Uganda | Butiaba |
| | LA06/2 | B. rubicunda | 6878 | 15483 | | | | - 8 | |
| | LA06/3 | B. rubicunda | 6879 | 15484 | | | | | |
| | LA06/4 | B. rubicunda | 6880 | 15485 | | | | | |
| | LA06/5 | B. rubicunda | 6881 | 15486 | | | | | |
| | LA06/6 | B. rubicunda | 6882 | 15487 | | | | | |
| | LA06/7 | B. rubicunda | 6884 | 15489 | | | | | |
| | LA06/8 | B. rubicunda | 6886 | 15491 | | | | | |
| | LA06/9 | B. rubicunda | 6887 | 15492 | | | | | |
| A07 | LA07/1 | B. rubicunda | 6569 | 15312 | 1.58649 | 31.10057 | Lake Albert | Uganda | Kiriamboga |
| | LA07/2 | B. rubicunda | 6567 | 15310 | -10-00-1 | | | 0 8 | |
| | LA07/3 | B. rubicunda | 6568 | 15311 | | | | | |
| | LA07/4 | B. rubicunda | 6570 | 15313 | | | | | |
| | LA07/5 | B. rubicunda | 6571 | 15314 | | | | | |
| | LA07/6 | B. rubicunda | 6572 | 15315 | | | | | |
| | LA07/7 | B. rubicunda | 6573 | 15316 | | | | | |
| | LA07/8 | B. rubicunda | 6574 | 15317 | | | | | |
| | LA07/9 | B. rubicunda | 6575 | 15318 | | | | | |
| | LA07/10 | B. rubicunda | 6576 | 15319 | | | | | |
| K02 | LK02/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 7122 | 15744 | 1.43136 | 32.85360 | Lake Kyoga | Uganda | Bukungu |
| M01 | LM01/1 | B. unicolor unicolor | 7123 | 15745 | -1.84843 | | Lake Muhazi | Rwanda | Gahini |
| V01 | LV01/1 | B. trochlearis | 7961 | 16549 | -0.29431 | | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Bukakata |
| 2,01 | LV01/3 | B. trochlearis | 7962 | 16550 | 0.27 131 | 32.02373 | Lune victoria | Ogundu | Dununuu |
| | LV01/4 | B. trochlearis | 7963 | 16551 | | | | | |
| | LV01/5 | B. trochlearis | 7964 | 16552 | | | | | |
| | LV01/6 | B. trochlearis | 7965 | 16553 | | | | | |
| V04 | LV04/4 | B. unicolor elatior | 7972 | 16560 | 0.44008 | 33 23195 | Lake Victoria | Hoanda | Jinja |
| 2 1 0 1 | LV04/5 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7973 | 16561 | 0.44000 | 33.23173 | Luke Victoria | Ogunda | Jiija |
| | LV04/6 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7974 | 16562 | | | | | |
| | LV04/0 LV04/7 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7975 | 16563 | | | | | |
| V05 | LV05/2 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7936 | 16524 | 0.19892 | 32 61540 | Lake Victoria | Haanda | Kaazi |
| . v U.J | LV05/2 LV05/3 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7937 | 16525 | 0.17072 | 54.01540 | Lake Victoria | Oganua | 1xaazi |
| | LV05/3 LV05/4 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7938 | 16526 | | | | | |
| | LV05/4 LV05/5 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7938 7939 | 16527 | | | | | |
| | LV05/5 LV05/6 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7939 7940 | 16528 | | | | | |
| V06 | LV05/0 LV06/1 | B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6493 | 15236 | -0.12739 | 34 74232 | Lake Victoria | Kanya | Kisumu |
| . • 00 | LV06/1 LV06/2 | B. jucunda kisumiensis B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6494 | 15237 | -0.12/39 | 34.74232 | Lake Victoria | Kenya | Kisuiliu |
| | LV06/2 LV06/3 | B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6495 | 15237 | | | | | |
| | LV06/3 LV06/4 | B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6497 | 15240 | | | | | |
| | LV06/4 LV06/5 | B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6498 | 15240 | | | | | |
| | LV06/5 LV06/6 | B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6498 | 15241 | | | | | |
| | LV06/6 LV06/7 | • | | 15242 | | | | | |
| | LV06/7 LV06/8 | B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6500 6502 | | | | | | |
| | | B. jucunda kisumiensis B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6502 6503 | 15245 | | | | | |
| | LV06/9 | • | 6503 | 15246 | | | | | |
| V07 | LV06/10 | B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6504 | 15247 | 0.00024 | 24.02106 | Laka Wint | V a | Haar |
| .V07 | LV07/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 6505 | 15248 | -0.09034 | 34.02106 | Lake Victoria | Kenya | Usenge |
| | LV07/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 6506 | 15249 | | | | | |
| | LV07/3 | B. costulata ugandae | 6507 | 15250 | | | | | |
| | | | 6508 | 15751 | | | | | |
| | LV07/4 LV07/5 | B. costulata ugandae B. costulata ugandae | 6508 6509 | 15251 15252 | | | | | |

| | | | | | | _ | | | |
|---|------------------|--|--------------|----------------|----------|-----------|---------------|---------|------------------|
| Pop. | Ind. | Identification | UGSB | DNA# | Lat. | Long. | Waterbody | Country | Locality |
| | LV07/6 | B. costulata ugandae | 6510 | 15253 | | | | | |
| | LV07/7 | B. costulata ugandae | 6511 | 15254 | | | | | |
| | LV07/8 | B. costulata ugandae | 6512 | 15255 | | | | | |
| | LV07/9 | B. costulata ugandae | 6513 | 15256 | | | | | |
| | LV07/10 | B. costulata ugandae | 6514 | 15257 | | | | | |
| | LV07/11 | B. costulata ugandae | 6515 | 15258 | | | | | |
| * | LV07/12 | B. costulata ugandae | 6516 | 15259 | 0.10000 | 24.02021 | * * *** | ** | ** |
| LV08 | LV08/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 7064 | 15686 | -0.10900 | 34.02031 | Lake Victoria | Kenya | Usenge |
| | LV08/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 7063 | 15685 | | | | | |
| | LV08/3 | B. costulata ugandae | 7065 | 15687 | | | | | |
| | LV08/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 7066 | 15688 | | | | | |
| T 7.700 | LV08/5 | B. costulata ugandae | 7068 | 15690 | 0.00075 | 24.02206 | Y 1 Y7' . ' | 17 | * * |
| LV09 | LV09/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 7069 | 15691 | -0.08075 | 34.03286 | Lake Victoria | Kenya | Usenge |
| | LV09/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 7070 | 15692 | | | | | |
| | LV09/3 | B. costulata ugandae | 7071 | 15693 | | | | | |
| | LV09/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 7072 | 15694 | | | | | |
| | LV09/5 | B. costulata ugandae | 7073 | 15695 | | | | | |
| | LV09/6 LV09/7 | B. costulata ugandae | 7074 7075 | 15696 | | | | | |
| | LV09/7 LV09/8 | B. costulata ugandae | | 15697 15698 | | | | | |
| | LV09/8 LV09/9 | B. costulata ugandae | 7076 7077 | | | | | | |
| LV14 | LV09/9 LV14/2 | B. costulata ugandae B. costulata costulata | 7946 | 15699 16534 | -0.32093 | 22 02022 | Lake Victoria | Haanda | Bukakata |
| LV14 | | B. costulata costulata | | 16535 | -0.32093 | 32.03923 | Lake Victoria | Oganda | Бикаката |
| | LV14/3 | | 7947 | | | | | | |
| | LV14/4 LV14/5 | B. costulata costulata B. costulata costulata | 7948 7949 | 16536 16537 | | | | | |
| | LV14/5 LV14/6 | B. costulata costulata B. costulata costulata | | | | | | | |
| LV16 | LV14/6 LV16/2 | B. unicolor elatior | 7950 7966 | 16538 | 0.31341 | 22 54090 | Lake Victoria | Haanda | Lugala |
| LVIO | LV16/2 LV16/3 | B. unicolor elatior | 7966 7967 | 16554 16555 | 0.31341 | 32.34089 | Lake Victoria | Oganda | Lugala |
| | LV16/3 LV16/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 7968 | 16556 | | | | | |
| | LV16/4 LV16/5 | | 7969 | | | | | | |
| | LV16/5 LV16/6 | B. costulata ugandae B. costulata ugandae | 7909 | 16557 16558 | | | | | |
| LV18 | LV10/0 LV18/2 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7941 | 16529 | 0.12303 | 32 72608 | Lake Victoria | Haanda | Mpunge |
| LVIO | LV18/2 LV18/3 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7941 | 16530 | 0.12303 | 32.72098 | Lake Victoria | Oganua | Mpunge |
| | LV18/3 LV18/4 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7942 | 16531 | | | | | |
| | LV18/4 LV18/5 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7943 | 16532 | | | | | |
| | LV18/5 LV18/6 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7944 | 16533 | | | | | |
| LV19 | LV19/2 | B. phthinotropis | 7956 | 16544 | -0.06967 | 32 06/189 | Lake Victoria | Haanda | Ngombe |
| LVI | LV19/2 LV19/3 | B. phthinotropis | 7957 | 16545 | -0.00707 | 32.00407 | Lake victoria | Oganda | regomoc |
| | LV19/4 | B. trochlearis | 7958 | 16546 | | | | | |
| | LV19/5 | B. trochlearis | 7959 | 16547 | | | | | |
| | LV19/6 | B. trochlearis | 7960 | 16548 | | | | | |
| LV26 | LV26/1 | B. unicolor meta | 6261 | 15170 | 0.28161 | 33 39454 | Lake Victoria | Hoanda | Lufu Island |
| L 120 | LV26/1 LV26/2 | B. unicolor meta | 6262 | 15170 | 0.20101 | 33.37434 | Luke Victoria | Oganda | Data Islana |
| | LV26/3 | B. unicolor meta | 6264 | 15173 | | | | | |
| | LV26/4 | B. unicolor meta | 6260 | 15169 | | | | | |
| | LV26/5 | B. unicolor meta | 6263 | 15172 | | | | | |
| | LV26/6 | B. unicolor meta | 6265 | 15174 | | | | | |
| | LV26/7 | B. unicolor meta | 6266 | 15175 | | | | | |
| | LV26/8 | B. unicolor meta | 6267 | 15176 | | | | | |
| | LV26/9 | B. unicolor meta | 6268 | 15177 | | | | | |
| | LV26/10 | B. unicolor meta | 6270 | 15179 | | | | | |
| LV27 | LV27/1 | B. costulata costulata | 6541 | 15284 | 0.11627 | 33.56262 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Dagusi Island SW |
| | LV27/2 | B. costulata costulata | 6542 | 15285 | | | | J | C |
| | LV27/3 | B. costulata costulata | 6543 | 15286 | | | | | |
| | LV27/4 | B. unicolor elatior | 6544 | 15287 | | | | | |
| | LV27/5 | B. unicolor meta | 6545 | 15288 | | | | | |
| | LV27/6 | B. costulata ugandae | 6546 | 15289 | | | | | |
| | LV27/7 | B. costulata ugandae | 6547 | 15290 | | | | | |
| | LV27/8 | B. costulata ugandae | 6549 | 15292 | | | | | |
| | LV27/9 | B. unicolor elatior | 6551 | 15294 | | | | | |
| | LV27/10 | B. unicolor elatior | 6552 | 15295 | | | | | |
| LV28 | LV28/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 6271 | 15180 | 0.10460 | 33.57583 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Dagusi Island S |
| | LV28/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 6272 | 15181 | | | | - | - |
| | LV28/3 | B. costulata ugandae | 6274 | 15183 | | | | | |
| | LV28/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 6275 | 15184 | | | | | |
| | LV28/5 | B. costulata ugandae | 6276 | 15185 | | | | | |
| | LV28/6 | B. costulata ugandae | 6277 | 15186 | | | | | |
| | LV28/7 | B. costulata ugandae | 6280 | 15189 | | | | | |
| | LV28/8 | B. costulata ugandae | 6282 | 15191 | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |

| Pon | Ind. | Identification | UGSB | DNA# | Lat. | Long. | Waterbody | Country | Locality |
|--------|--------------------|--|--------------|----------------|---------|----------|---------------|---------|--------------------|
| Pop. | LV28/9 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 6553 | 15296 | Lat. | Long. | waterbouy | Country | Locality |
| | LV28/10 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 6554 | 15297 | | | | | |
| | LV28/11 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 6555 | 15298 | | | | | |
| | LV28/12 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 6556 | 15299 | | | | | |
| | LV28/13 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 6557 | 15300 | | | | | |
| | LV28/14 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 6558 | 15301 | | | | | |
| | LV28/15 LV28/16 | B. sp. (juvenile) B. sp. (juvenile) | 6559 6560 | 15302 15303 | | | | | |
| | LV28/10 LV28/17 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 6561 | 15303 | | | | | |
| | LV28/17 LV28/18 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 6562 | 15305 | | | | | |
| LV29 | LV29/1 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6644 | 15410 | 0.13707 | 33.60149 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Simu Island |
| | LV29/2 | B. jucunda altior | 6645 | 15411 | | | | _ | |
| | LV29/3 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6646 | 15412 | | | | | |
| | LV29/4 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6647 | 15413 | | | | | |
| | LV29/5 LV29/6 | B. jucunda jucunda B. jucunda jucunda | 6649 6650 | 15415 15416 | | | | | |
| | LV29/0 LV29/7 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6651 | 15417 | | | | | |
| | LV29/8 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6653 | 15419 | | | | | |
| | LV29/9 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6654 | 15420 | | | | | |
| | LV29/10 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6655 | 15421 | | | | | |
| LV30 | LV30/1 | B. unicolor elatior | 6518 | 15261 | 0.14067 | 33.60258 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Simu Island |
| | LV30/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 6517 | 15260 | | | | | |
| | LV30/3 LV30/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 6519 | 15262 | | | | | |
| | LV30/4 LV30/7 | B. unicolor elatior B. costulata ugandae | 6520 6525 | 15263 15268 | | | | | |
| | LV30/7 LV30/8 | B. unicolor elatior | 6526 | 15269 | | | | | |
| | LV30/9 | B. unicolor elatior | 6527 | 15270 | | | | | |
| | LV30/10 | B. unicolor elatior | 6528 | 15271 | | | | | |
| LV31 | LV31/1 | B. unicolor meta | 6656 | 15422 | 0.12456 | 33.62969 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Kaza Island E |
| | LV31/2 | B. unicolor meta | 6657 | 15423 | | | | | |
| | LV31/3 | B. unicolor meta | 6658 | 15424 | | | | | |
| | LV31/4 | B. unicolor meta | 6659 | 15425 | | | | | |
| | LV31/5 LV31/6 | B. unicolor meta B. unicolor meta | 6660 6661 | 15426 15427 | | | | | |
| | LV31/0 LV31/7 | B. unicolor meta | 6662 | 15428 | | | | | |
| | LV31/8 | B. unicolor meta | 6663 | 15429 | | | | | |
| | LV31/9 | B. unicolor meta | 6665 | 15431 | | | | | |
| | LV31/10 | B. unicolor meta | 6666 | 15432 | | | | | |
| | LV31/11 | B. unicolor meta | 6667 | 15433 | | | | | |
| LV32 | LV32/1 | B. trochlearis | 6283 | 15192 | 0.16176 | 33.58264 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Dagusi Island NE |
| | LV32/2 LV32/3 | B. trochlearis B. trochlearis | 6284 6285 | 15193 15194 | | | | | |
| | LV32/3 LV32/4 | B. trochlearis | 6286 | 15195 | | | | | |
| | LV32/5 | B. trochlearis | 6287 | 15196 | | | | | |
| | LV32/6 | B. trochlearis | 6289 | 15198 | | | | | |
| | LV32/7 | B. trochlearis | 6290 | 15199 | | | | | |
| | LV32/8 | B. trochlearis | 6292 | 15201 | | | | | |
| | LV32/9 | B. trochlearis | 6293 | 15202 | | | | | |
| LV33 | LV32/10 LV33/1 | B. trochlearis B. costulata dagusiae | 6294 6668 | 15203 15434 | 0.15662 | 33 56/1/ | Lake Victoria | Haanda | Dagusi Island NW |
| L V 33 | LV33/1 LV33/2 | B. costulata dagusiae B. costulata dagusiae | 6669 | 15434 | 0.13002 | 33.30414 | Lake Victoria | Oganua | Dagusi Islanu IV W |
| | LV33/2 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6671 | 15437 | | | | | |
| | LV33/4 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6672 | 15438 | | | | | |
| | LV33/5 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6673 | 15439 | | | | | |
| | LV33/6 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6674 | 15440 | | | | | |
| | LV33/7 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6675 | 15441 | | | | | |
| | LV33/8 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6676 | 15442 | | | | | |
| | LV33/9 LV33/10 | B. costulata dagusiae B. costulata dagusiae | 6678 6679 | 15444 15445 | | | | | |
| | LV33/10 LV33/11 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6680 | 15446 | | | | | |
| | LV33/11 LV33/12 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6681 | 15447 | | | | | |
| | LV33/13 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6682 | 15448 | | | | | |
| | LV33/14 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6683 | 15449 | | | | | |
| | LV33/15 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6685 | 15451 | | | | | |
| | LV33/16 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6687 | 15453 | | | | | |
| | LV33/17 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6688 | 15454 | | | | | |
| | LV33/18 LV33/19 | B. costulata dagusiae B. costulata dagusiae | 6689 6690 | 15455 15456 | | | | | |
| | LV33/19 LV33/20 | B. costulata dagusiae | 6691 | 15457 | | | | | |
| | 1. 73140 | z. commun augustut | 5071 | 15751 | | | | | |

| | T 1 | T1 (*C* (* | HCCD | DNA | T 4 | т т | XX7 4 1 1 | C 4 | T 114 |
|-------|-------------------|--|--------------|----------------|----------|----------|------------------|---------|-------------------|
| Pop. | Ind. | Identification | UGSB | DNA# | Lat. | Long. | Waterbody | Country | Locality |
| LV34 | LV34/1 | B. trochlearis | 6307 | 15216 | -0.30371 | 32.28927 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Kalangala |
| | LV34/2 | B. trochlearis | 6308 | 15217 | | | | | |
| | LV34/3 | B. trochlearis | 6309 | 15218 15219 | | | | | |
| | LV34/4 | B. trochlearis B. trochlearis | 6310 | | | | | | |
| | LV34/5 | | 6311 | 15220 | | | | | |
| | LV34/6 LV34/7 | B. trochlearis B. trochlearis | 6312 6313 | 15221 15222 | | | | | |
| | LV34/7 LV34/8 | B. trochlearis | 6315 | 15224 | | | | | |
| | LV34/8 LV34/9 | B. trochlearis | 6317 | 15224 | | | | | |
| | LV34/9 LV34/10 | B. trochlearis | 6318 | 15227 | | | | | |
| LV35 | LV34/10 LV35/1 | B. cf. phthinotropis | 7091 | 15713 | -0.23731 | 32 37333 | Lake Victoria | Haanda | Serinya Island |
| LVJJ | LV35/1 LV35/2 | B. cf. phthinotropis | 7092 | 15714 | -0.23731 | 32.31333 | Lake victoria | Oganda | Scrinya Island |
| | LV35/3 | B. cf. phthinotropis | 7093 | 15715 | | | | | |
| | LV35/4 | B. costulata costulata | 7094 | 15716 | | | | | |
| | LV35/5 | B. jucunda altior | 7095 | 15717 | | | | | |
| | LV35/6 | B. costulata costulata | 7096 | 15718 | | | | | |
| LV36 | LV36/1 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 7097 | 15719 | -0.22237 | 32.37996 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Serinya Island |
| | LV36/2 | B. sp. (juvenile) | 7098 | 15720 | | | | • | • |
| | LV36/3 | B. costulata ugandae | 7099 | 15721 | | | | | |
| | LV36/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 7100 | 15722 | | | | | |
| | LV36/5 | B. costulata ugandae | 7102 | 15724 | | | | | |
| LV37 | LV37/1 | B. constricta | 7103 | 15725 | -0.27263 | 32.02691 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Bukakata |
| | LV37/2 | B. constricta | 7104 | 15726 | | | | | |
| | LV37/3 | B. constricta | 7105 | 15727 | | | | | |
| | LV37/4 | B. constricta | 7106 | 15728 | | | | | |
| | LV37/5 | B. constricta | 7107 | 15729 | | | | | |
| | LV37/6 | B. constricta | 7108 | 15730 | | | | | |
| | LV37/7 | B. constricta | 7109 | 15731 | | | | | |
| LV38 | LV38/1 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6578 | 15321 | -0.64564 | 31.80791 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Ddimo |
| | LV38/2 | B. jucunda jucunda | 6577 | 15320 | | | | | |
| | LV38/3 | B. costulata costulata | 6579 | 15322 | | | | | |
| | LV38/4 | B. costulata costulata | 6580 | 15323 | | | | | |
| | LV38/5 LV38/6 | B. costulata costulata B. costulata costulata | 6581 6582 | 15324 15325 | | | | | |
| | LV38/0 LV38/7 | B. costulata costulata | 6583 | 15325 | | | | | |
| | LV38/7 LV38/8 | B. costulata costulata | 6585 | 15328 | | | | | |
| | LV38/9 | B. jucunda kisumiensis | 6496 | 15239 | | | | | |
| | LV38/10 | B. costulata costulata | 6584 | 15327 | | | | | |
| LV39 | LV39/1 | B. unicolor elatior | 6889 | 15494 | 0.03892 | 32.49402 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Entebbe S |
| | LV39/2 | B. unicolor elatior | 6890 | 15495 | ***** | | | 0 8 | |
| | LV39/3 | B. unicolor elatior | 6891 | 15496 | | | | | |
| | LV39/4 | B. costulata costulata | 6892 | 15497 | | | | | |
| | LV39/5 | B. costulata costulata | 6894 | 15499 | | | | | |
| | LV39/6 | B. costulata costulata | 6895 | 15500 | | | | | |
| | LV39/7 | B. costulata costulata | 6896 | 15501 | | | | | |
| | LV39/8 | B. costulata costulata | 6897 | 15502 | | | | | |
| | LV39/9 | B. costulata costulata | 6899 | 15504 | | | | | |
| | LV39/10 | B. costulata costulata | 6900 | 15505 | | | | | |
| | LV39/11 | B. costulata costulata | 6893 | 15498 | | | | | |
| LV40 | LV40/1 | B. constricta | 6529 | 15272 | 0.05525 | 32.49198 | Lake Victoria | Uganda | Entebbe N |
| | LV40/2 | B. constricta | 6530 | 15273 | | | | | |
| | LV40/3 | B. constricta | 6531 | 15274 | | | | | |
| | LV40/4 | B. constricta | 6532 | 15275 | | | | | |
| | LV40/5 | B. constricta | 6533 | 15276 | | | | | |
| | LV40/6 | B. constricta | 6534 | 15277 | | | | | |
| | LV40/7 LV40/8 | B. unicolor unicolor B. constricta | 6535 6537 | 15278 15280 | | | | | |
| | LV40/8 LV40/9 | B. constricta | 6539 | 15282 | | | | | |
| | LV40/10 | B. constricta | 6540 | 15283 | | | | | |
| VN01 | VN01/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 6247 | 15156 | 0.48544 | 33 15524 | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Bujagali Falls |
| 11101 | VN01/1 VN01/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 6249 | 15158 | U. 10277 | 55.1554T | . 1000114 1 1110 | Suman | _ 0,000011 1 0110 |
| | VN01/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 6250 | 15159 | | | | | |
| | VN01/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 6251 | 15160 | | | | | |
| | VN01/5 | B. costulata ugandae | 6252 | 15161 | | | | | |
| | VN01/6 | B. costulata ugandae | 6253 | 15162 | | | | | |
| | VN01/7 | B. costulata ugandae | 6254 | 15163 | | | | | |
| | VN01/8 | B. costulata ugandae | 6255 | 15164 | | | | | |
| | VN01/9 | B. costulata ugandae | 6256 | 15165 | | | | | |
| | VN01/10 | B. costulata ugandae | 6257 | 15166 | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |

| Don | Ind | Identification | LICED | DNA# | Lat | Long | Watanhada | Country | Locality |
|---------|--------------------|--|--------------|-------|---------|----------|----------------------------|----------|--------------|
| Pop. | Ind. VN02/2 | Identification | UGSB 7051 | DNA# | Lat. | Long. | Waterbody Vioteria Nila | Country | Locality |
| VN02 | | B. unicolor elatior | 7951 | 16539 | 0.59448 | 33.05257 | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Kumucanga |
| | VN02/3 | B. jucunda jucunda | 7952 | 16540 | | | | | |
| | VN02/4 | B. unicolor elatior | 7953 | 16541 | | | | | |
| | VN02/5 | B. unicolor elatior | 7954 | 16542 | | | | | |
| * D 102 | VN02/6 | B. unicolor elatior | 7955 | 16543 | 0.00000 | 22.02102 | *** | ** 1 | B. 1 |
| VN03 | VN03/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 7078 | 15700 | 0.82298 | 33.03183 | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Bulemuti |
| | VN03/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 7079 | 15701 | | | | | |
| | VN03/3 | B. costulata ugandae | 7080 | 15702 | | | | | |
| | VN03/4 | B. unicolor elatior | 7081 | 15703 | | | | | |
| | VN03/5 | B. costulata ugandae | 7082 | 15704 | | | | | |
| | VN03/6 | B. costulata ugandae | 7083 | 15705 | | | | | |
| VN04 | VN04/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 7085 | 15707 | 1.09002 | 32.93648 | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Budali |
| | VN04/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 7084 | 15706 | | | | | |
| VN05 | VN05/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 7111 | 15733 | 1.69255 | 32.09473 | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Masindi Port |
| | VN05/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 7110 | 15732 | | | | | |
| | VN05/3 | B. costulata ugandae | 7112 | 15734 | | | | | |
| | VN05/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 7113 | 15735 | | | | | |
| | VN05/5 | B. costulata ugandae | 7114 | 15736 | | | | | |
| | VN05/6 | B. costulata ugandae | 7115 | 15737 | | | | | |
| | VN05/7 | B. costulata ugandae | 7116 | 15738 | | | | | |
| | VN05/8 | B. costulata ugandae | 7117 | 15739 | | | | | |
| | VN05/9 | B. costulata ugandae | 7118 | 15740 | | | | | |
| | VN05/10 | B. costulata ugandae | 7119 | 15741 | | | | | |
| | VN05/11 | B. costulata ugandae | 7120 | 15742 | | | | | |
| | VN05/12 | B. costulata ugandae | 7121 | 15743 | | | | | |
| VN06 | VN06/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 7124 | 15746 | 2.12373 | 32.33107 | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Mutunda |
| | VN06/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 7125 | 15747 | | | | | |
| | VN06/3 | B. costulata ugandae | 7126 | 15748 | | | | | |
| | VN06/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 7127 | 15749 | | | | | |
| | VN06/5 | B. costulata ugandae | 7128 | 15750 | | | | | |
| VN07 | VN07/1 | B. costulata ugandae | 6692 | 15458 | 2.12852 | 32.32919 | Victoria Nile | Uganda | Mutunda |
| | VN07/3 | B. costulata ugandae | 6693 | 15459 | | | | U | |
| | VN07/4 | B. costulata ugandae | 6694 | 15460 | | | | | |
| | VN07/2 | B. costulata ugandae | 6695 | 15461 | | | | | |
| | VN07/5 | B. costulata ugandae | 6696 | 15462 | | | | | |
| | VN07/6 | B. costulata ugandae | 6697 | 15463 | | | | | |
| | VN07/7 | B. costulata ugandae | 6698 | 15464 | | | | | |
| | VN07/8 | B. costulata ugandae | 6699 | 15465 | | | | | |
| | VN07/9 | B. costulata ugandae | 6700 | 15466 | | | | | |
| | VN07/10 | B. costulata ugandae | 6701 | 15467 | | | | | |
| | VN07/11 | B. costulata ugandae | 6702 | 15468 | | | | | |
| | VN07/12 | B. costulata ugandae | 6703 | 15469 | | | | | |
| WN01 | WN01/1 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6710 | 15476 | 2.45933 | 31.50487 | White Nile | Uganda | Pakwach |
| | WN01/2 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6711 | 15477 | 2,55 | -1.00.07 | | 2 Burran | |
| | WN01/3 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6712 | 15478 | | | | | |
| | WN01/4 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6704 | 15470 | | | | | |
| | WN01/5 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6705 | 15471 | | | | | |
| | WN01/6 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6706 | 15472 | | | | | |
| | WN01/7 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6707 | 15473 | | | | | |
| | WN01/8 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6708 | 15474 | | | | | |
| | WN01/8 WN01/9 | B. unicolor unicolor | 6709 | 15474 | | | | | |
| | WN01/9 WN01/10 | B. unicolor unicolor B. unicolor unicolor | 6713 | 15479 | | | | | |
| | WN01/10 WN01/11 | B. unicolor unicolor B. unicolor unicolor | 6714 | 15480 | | | | | |
| | WN01/11 WN01/12 | B. unicolor unicolor B. unicolor unicolor | 6714 | 15481 | | | | | |
| | WINUI/IZ | B. unicolor unicolor | 0/13 | 13461 | | | | | |

Table S3. Estimates of nuclear genetic variation for our 15 microsatellite loci in the regrouped dataset (21 populations; 282 specimens). Note that loci Bel_L045 and Bel_L050 (in grey) are discarded from the results reported in the main text due to the presence of null alleles. A_n = number of alleles; A_r = allelic richness standardized to a sample size of 5 diploid individuals, H_0 = observed heterozygosity; H_E = expected heterozygosity. The mean fixation indices F_{IS} , F_{ST} , F_{IT} are indicated with their standard error following Weir and Cockerham (1984).

| Locus | An | $\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{r}}$ | Ho | H_{E} | F_{IS} | s.e. F_{IS} | \mathbf{F}_{ST} | s.e. F_{ST} | F_{IT} | s.e. F_{IT} |
|------------|----|---------------------------|-------|----------------|----------|---------------|-------------------|---------------|----------|---------------|
| Bel_L53 | 19 | 6.9 | 0.888 | 0.880 | -0.005 | 0.020 | 0.038*** | 0.009 | 0.034* | 0.022 |
| Bel_L25 | 23 | 6.5 | 0.800 | 0.859 | 0.067** | 0.034 | 0.033*** | 0.010 | 0.098*** | 0.032 |
| Bel_L48 | 17 | 5.1 | 0.738 | 0.727 | -0.014 | 0.027 | 0.107*** | 0.032 | 0.095** | 0.046 |
| Bel_L16 | 18 | 7.2 | 0.870 | 0.861 | -0.016 | 0.020 | 0.067*** | 0.025 | 0.052** | 0.026 |
| Bel_L63 | 15 | 4.8 | 0.702 | 0.670 | -0.036 | 0.036 | 0.108*** | 0.032 | 0.076** | 0.050 |
| Bel_L13 | 10 | 3.4 | 0.571 | 0.602 | 0.026 | 0.037 | 0.023* | 0.017 | 0.048 | 0.043 |
| Bel_L10 | 19 | 6.3 | 0.755 | 0.769 | 0.021 | 0.027 | 0.117*** | 0.035 | 0.136*** | 0.045 |
| Bel_L50 | 24 | 7.4 | 0.734 | 0.883 | 0.147*** | 0.034 | 0.037*** | 0.010 | 0.178*** | 0.036 |
| Bel_L32 | 30 | 8.1 | 0.907 | 0.924 | 0.010 | 0.018 | 0.031*** | 0.007 | 0.040** | 0.017 |
| Bel_L23 | 27 | 7.6 | 0.788 | 0.907 | 0.118*** | 0.033 | 0.037*** | 0.011 | 0.151*** | 0.030 |
| Bel_L47 | 33 | 7.2 | 0.817 | 0.853 | 0.038* | 0.025 | 0.064*** | 0.019 | 0.099*** | 0.029 |
| Bel_L15 | 23 | 6.5 | 0.763 | 0.791 | 0.040 | 0.034 | 0.105*** | 0.026 | 0.141*** | 0.034 |
| Bel_L45 | 28 | 6.3 | 0.574 | 0.852 | 0.314*** | 0.039 | 0.025*** | 0.011 | 0.332*** | 0.036 |
| Bel_L31 | 33 | 7.3 | 0.833 | 0.864 | 0.035 | 0.023 | 0.050*** | 0.009 | 0.083*** | 0.022 |
| Bel_L17 | 16 | 5.1 | 0.728 | 0.764 | 0.041 | 0.036 | 0.058*** | 0.019 | 0.096** | 0.033 |

 Significance scores for F_{IS} , F_{ST} and F_{IT} : * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table S4. Tests whether genotype frequencies in the 13 retained microsatellite loci follow Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. These tests, i.e. χ^2 tests and exact tests based on 1000 Monte Carlo permutations of alleles, were run on the regrouped dataset.

| Locus | χ^2 | df | $Pr(\chi^2)$ | Pr.exact |
|------------|----------|-----|--------------|----------|
| Bel_L53 | 152.7 | 171 | 0.839 | 0.073 |
| Bel_L25 | 395.0 | 253 | < 0.001 | 0.002 |
| Bel_L48 | 142.1 | 136 | 0.343 | 0.002 |
| Bel_L16 | 182.6 | 153 | 0.051 | 0.031 |
| Bel_L63 | 166.2 | 105 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 |
| Bel_L13 | 52.0 | 45 | 0.220 | 0.225 |
| Bel_L10 | 262.1 | 171 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 |
| Bel_L32 | 507.8 | 435 | 0.009 | 0.012 |
| Bel_L23 | 608.5 | 351 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 |
| Bel_L47 | 920.1 | 528 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 |
| Bel_L15 | 649.7 | 253 | < 0.001 | < 0.001 |
| Bel_L31 | 708.9 | 528 | < 0.001 | 0.002 |
| Bel_L17 | 194.3 | 120 | < 0.001 | 0.002 |

Table S5. Locality information for the regrouped dataset (13 loci) including statistics of genetic diversity and the identification of specimens to species and/or race. A_n = number of alleles; A_r = expected allelic richness among 14 gene copies (K = 14), H_E = expected heterozygosity, i.e. gene diversity corrected for sample size (Nei, 1978), H_O = observed heterozygosity, F_i = individual inbreeding coefficient with asterisks indicating the level of significance for $Fi \neq 0$ from a two-sized test with 1000 randomizations of gene copies among individuals (* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001).

| Code | Morphospecies | Waterbody | Country | Latitude | Longitude | # ind. | An | $\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{r}}$ | HE | Ho | Fi |
|----------------|--|---------------|---------|----------|-----------|--------|-------|---------------------------|-------|-------|---------|
| LA05_LA06 | B. rubicunda | Lake Albert | Uganda | 1.82451 | 31.31753 | 19 | 10.00 | 6.68 | 0.787 | 0.765 | 0.029 |
| LA07 | B. rubicunda | Lake Albert | Uganda | 1.58649 | 31.10057 | 10 | 7.77 | 6.65 | 0.786 | 0.729 | 0.076 |
| LV01_LV14_LV37 | B. constricta; B. costulata costulata; B. trochlearis | Lake Victoria | Uganda | -0.29596 | 32.03063 | 17 | 10.85 | 7.01 | 0.800 | 0.790 | 0.013 |
| LV06 | B. jucunda kisumiensis | Lake Victoria | Kenya | -0.12739 | 34.74232 | 10 | 7.85 | 6.63 | 0.791 | 0.754 | 0.050 |
| LV07_LV08_LV09 | B. costulata ugandae | Lake Victoria | Kenya | -0.09336 | 34.02474 | 26 | 12.62 | 7.14 | 0.820 | 0.782 | 0.048* |
| LV26 | B. unicolor meta | Lake Victoria | Uganda | 0.28161 | 33.39454 | 10 | 7.54 | 6.44 | 0.786 | 0.703 | 0.110** |
| LV27 | B. costulata costulata; B. costulata ugandae; B. unicolor elatior; B. unicolor meta | Lake Victoria | Uganda | 0.11627 | 33.56262 | 10 | 7.15 | 6.45 | 0.808 | 0.774 | 0.044 |
| LV28 | B. costulata ugandae; B. sp. (juvenile) | Lake Victoria | Uganda | 0.10460 | 33.57583 | 18 | 10.92 | 7.18 | 0.831 | 0.853 | -0.027 |
| LV29_LV30 | B. costulata ugandae; B. jucunda altior; B. jucunda jucunda; B. unicolor elatior | Lake Victoria | Uganda | 0.13887 | 33.60204 | 18 | 10.31 | 7.08 | 0.838 | 0.859 | -0.027 |
| LV31 | B. unicolor meta | Lake Victoria | Uganda | 0.12456 | 33.62969 | 11 | 8.38 | 6.98 | 0.831 | 0.788 | 0.056 |
| LV32 | B. trochlearis | Lake Victoria | Uganda | 0.16176 | 33.58264 | 10 | 8.54 | 7.32 | 0.845 | 0.804 | 0.051 |
| LV33 | B. costulata dagusiae | Lake Victoria | Uganda | 0.15662 | 33.56414 | 20 | 10.85 | 7.24 | 0.843 | 0.842 | 0.001 |
| LV34 | B. trochlearis | Lake Victoria | Uganda | -0.30371 | 32.28927 | 10 | 7.38 | 6.41 | 0.797 | 0.815 | -0.024 |
| LV35_LV36 | B. costulata costulata; B. costulata ugandae; B. jucunda altior; B. phthinotropis; B. sp. (juvenile) | Lake Victoria | Uganda | -0.22984 | 32.37665 | 11 | 8.92 | 7.39 | 0.847 | 0.810 | 0.046 |
| LV38 | B. costulata costulata; B. jucunda jucunda; B. jucunda kisumiensis | Lake Victoria | Uganda | -0.64564 | 31.80791 | 10 | 8.00 | 6.78 | 0.798 | 0.747 | 0.067 |
| LV39 | B. costulata costulata; B. unicolor elatior | Lake Victoria | Uganda | 0.03892 | 32.49402 | 11 | 8.62 | 7.19 | 0.852 | 0.855 | -0.005 |
| LV40 | B. constricta; B. unicolor unicolor | Lake Victoria | Uganda | 0.05525 | 32.49198 | 10 | 8.62 | 7.19 | 0.842 | 0.782 | 0.075* |
| VN01 | B. costulata ugandae | Victoria Nile | Uganda | 0.48544 | 33.15524 | 10 | 6.92 | 5.97 | 0.752 | 0.777 | -0.035 |
| VN05 | B. costulata ugandae | Victoria Nile | Uganda | 1.69255 | 32.09473 | 12 | 6.54 | 5.36 | 0.729 | 0.724 | 0.006 |
| VN06_VN07 | B. costulata ugandae | Victoria Nile | Uganda | 2.12613 | 32.33013 | 17 | 7.85 | 5.74 | 0.747 | 0.709 | 0.052 |
| WN01 | B. unicolor unicolor | White Nile | Uganda | 2.45933 | 31.50487 | 12 | 7.00 | 6.01 | 0.765 | 0.747 | 0.025 |

Table S6. Locus-specific percentage of private alleles for each of the three molecular groups, i.e. LAG
 the Lake Albert Group, LVG = the Lake Victoria Group and LKG = the Lake Kyoga group.

| Locus | % LAG-private | % LVG-private | % LKG-private | % common |
|------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------|
| Bel_L53 | 0.00 | 0.32 | 0.00 | 0.68 |
| Bel_L25 | 0.00 | 0.21 | 0.00 | 0.79 |
| Bel_L48 | 0.00 | 0.42 | 0.05 | 0.53 |
| Bel_L16 | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.00 | 0.79 |
| Bel_L63 | 0.05 | 0.26 | 0.00 | 0.68 |
| Bel_L13 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 0.00 | 0.89 |
| Bel_L10 | 0.05 | 0.21 | 0.00 | 0.74 |
| Bel_L32 | 0.00 | 0.53 | 0.00 | 0.47 |
| Bel_L23 | 0.05 | 0.26 | 0.05 | 0.63 |
| Bel_L47 | 0.00 | 0.84 | 0.05 | 0.11 |
| Bel_L15 | 0.21 | 0.42 | 0.00 | 0.37 |
| Bel_L31 | 0.16 | 0.32 | 0.00 | 0.53 |
| Bel_L17 | 0.00 | 0.42 | 0.05 | 0.53 |

Table S7. Estimates of contemporary relative gene flow between pairwise populations of *Bellamya* from the Lake Victoria ecoregion as inferred with BayesAss (Wilson & Rannala, 2003). Source populations appear in rows and receiving populations in columns, with diagonal values indicating the proportion of non-migrants. Other values indicate the fraction of individuals in the receiving population that are migrants from the source population. Represented values are averages from three independent runs, each with 20,000,000 Markov chain Monte Carlo iterations, a burn-in of 5,000,000 iterations and sampling every 10,000 iterations. Standard deviations among runs were negligible (<0.11 %). The greyscale background color of cells is proportional to values.

| | | LA05 | | LV01 | | LV07 | | | | LV29 | | | | | LV35 | | | | | | |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|--------|-----------|--------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------|
| | WN01 | _06 | LA07 | _14_37 | LV06 | _08_09 | LV26 | LV27 | LV28 | _30 | LV31 | LV32 | LV33 | LV34 | _36 | LV38 | LV39 | LV40 | VN01 | VN05 | VN06_07 |
| WN01 | 67.7 % | 12.2 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 2.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % |
| LA05_06 | 0.8 % | 82.4 % | 0.8 % | 0.9 % | 0.8 % | 0.9 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 1.7 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.9 % |
| LA07 | 1.1 % | 10.8 | 67.7 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 2.2 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % |
| LV01_14_37 | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 67.5 % | 0.9 % | 15.7 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % |
| LV06 | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 67.8 % | 11.8 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % |
| LV07_08_09 | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 84.2 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 1.5 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 0.7 % | 1.5 % |
| LV26 | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 11.8 % | 67.7 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % |
| LV27 | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 8.9 % | 1.1 % | 67.8 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 4.0 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % |
| LV28 | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 16.2 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 67.5 % | 0.8 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % |
| LV29_30 | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 13.7 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 67.5 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 3.4 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.8 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % |
| LV31 | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 12.6 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.1 % | 1.0 % | 67.7 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % |
| LV32 | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 11.8 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 67.7 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % |
| LV33 | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 14.6 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 69.9 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % | 0.8 % |
| LV34 | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 11.8 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 67.7 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % |
| LV35_36 | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 12.4 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.1 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 67.7 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.1 % |
| LV38 | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 11.8 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 67.7 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % |
| LV39 | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 11.4 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 2.1 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 67.7 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.1 % |
| LV40 | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 11.9 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 67.7 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % |
| VN01 | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 11.8 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % | 67.7 % | 1.1 % | 1.1 % |
| VN05 | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 67.7 % | 13.1 % |
| VN06_07 | 0.9 % | 1.0 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 1.5 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 0.9 % | 81.7 % |

Table S8. Relative support for the five anagenetic demographic models in our ABC simulations for
 LAG and LVG, excluding individuals that indicate admixture (n = 1 and 16, respectively; in LKG all
 individuals have assignment probabilities to the gene pool ≥80%). Scenarios of effective population
 size through time for each of these models are displayed in Fig. 2.

| Group | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 | Model 5 | Model 3+5 |
|---------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|
| Lake Albert Group | 0.1700 | 0.0004 | 0.3933 | 0.0006 | 0.4357 | 0.8290 |
| Lake Victoria Group | 0.2378 | 0.0109 | 0.3492 | 0.0199 | 0.3822 | 0.7314 |

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Table S9. Estimates on the principal demographic parameters for the best supported ABC models on LAG and LVG excluding individuals that indicate admixture. 95% CI indicates the 95% confidence intervals. Given the high similarities in models 3 and 5, their averaged outcome is presented under Model 3+5. *Ne* represents the number of diploid individuals in the population and times t, t_1 and t_2 are expressed in number of generations [1 generation is \sim 1 year for *Bellamya* (Brown, 1994)].

| | mean Ne | mode Ne | 95% CI | | mean t or t_I | mode t or t_I | 95% CI | | mean Ne _{big} mode Ne _{big} | | 95% | 95% CI | | mode t2 | mean Ne _{s_Anc} mode Ne _{s_Anc} | |
|------------------------------------|-----------|------------|--------|--------|-------------------|-------------------|--------|---------|---|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|---------|---------|---|---------|
| Lake Albert | Group (no | admixture) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| scenario 3 | 16 400 | 7 500 | 4 360 | 43 400 | 148 000 | 48 600 | 18 700 | 433 000 | 3.92 × 10 ⁶ | 1.11 × 10 ⁶ | 203 000 | 9.46 × 10 ⁶ | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| scenario 5 | 21 100 | 8 270 | 4 450 | 43 400 | 100 000 | 39 500 | 14 800 | 308 000 | 6.20×10^6 | 9.69 × 10 ⁶ | 1.38 × 10 ⁶ | 9.84×10^6 | 299 000 | 339 000 | 3.02×10^6 | 405 000 |
| scenario3+5 | 16 800 | 7 110 | 4 400 | 43 000 | 123 000 | 32 700 | 13 900 | 406 000 | 5.13 × 10 ⁶ | 3.70×10^6 | 401 000 | 9.73×10^{6} | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| Lake Victoria Group (no admixture) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| scenario 3 | 29 000 | 12 300 | 7 360 | 78 200 | 210 000 | 77 200 | 33 500 | 473 000 | 4.47 × 10 ⁶ | 378 000 | 187 000 | 9.64 × 10 ⁶ | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |
| scenario 5 | 47 600 | 11 200 | 7 310 | 85 300 | 134 000 | 78 900 | 17 800 | 358 000 | 6.10×10^{6} | 8.97 × 10 ⁶ | 1.28 × 10 ⁶ | 9.85 × 10 ⁶ | 316 000 | 406 000 | 2.64×10^{6} | 238 000 |
| scenario3+5 | 35 500 | 12 700 | 7 570 | 78 600 | 173 000 | 74 600 | 24 600 | 451 000 | 5.28 × 10 ⁶ | 9.12 × 10 ⁶ | 362 000 | 9.80 × 10 ⁶ | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. | n.a. |

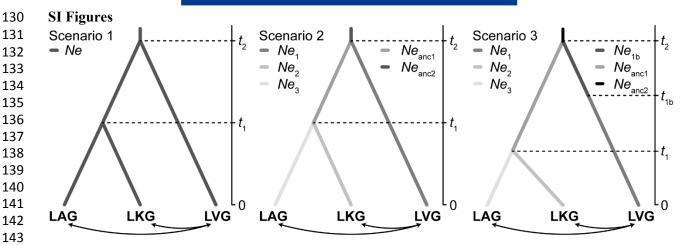


Figure S1. Schematic representation of the 9 examined phylogenetic DIYABC models, including three possible topological relationships between the three molecular groups, i.e. the Lake Albert Group (LAG), the Lake Kyoga Group (LKG), and the Lake Victoria Group (LVG) for each of three scenarios. From scenario 1 to 3 the number of parameters as to effective population size (*Ne*) increases, allowing with each new parameter new combinations of change (increase or decrease) in *Ne*.

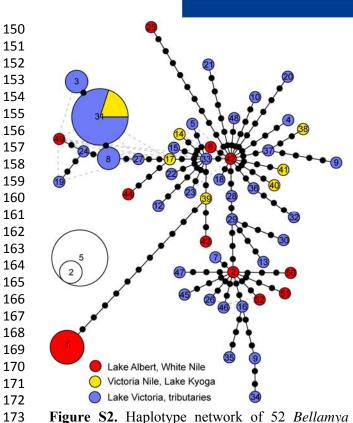


Figure S2. Haplotype network of 52 *Bellamya* haplotypes obtained from 60 sequences of the cytochrome oxidase subunit I (593 bp; see Table S1) belonging to specimens of the Lake Victoria ecoregion, i.e. the 'Victoria clade' of Schultheiß et al. (2014). Dashed light grey edges indicate alternative relationships (mutations, at most 2 mutations/edge, are not indicated for these edges).

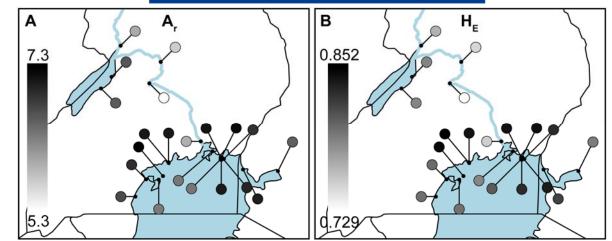


Figure S3. Geographic variation in allelic richness among 14 gene copies (A) and expected heterozygosity (B) in the regrouped dataset of *Bellamya* from the Lake Victoria ecoregion.

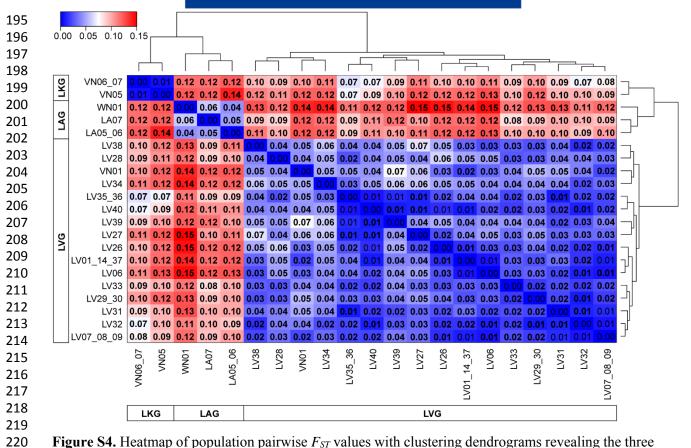
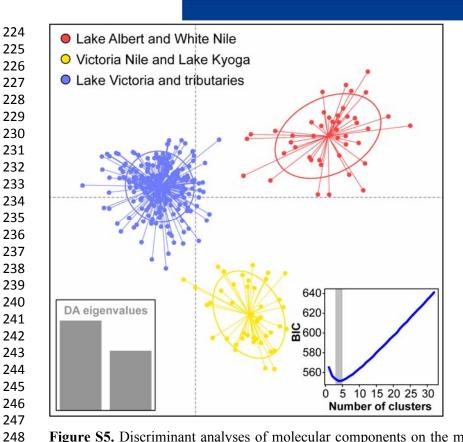


Figure S4. Heatmap of population pairwise F_{ST} values with clustering dendrograms revealing the three molecular groups (= gene pools) of specimens in the Lake Victoria ecoregion. High F_{ST} values are observed between gene pools (red), whereas F_{ST} values within gene pools (blue) are lower.



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Figure S5. Discriminant analyses of molecular components on the microsatellite dataset (13 loci) of Bellamya from the Lake Victoria ecoregion. The analysis indicates highest support from the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) for four groups, which resulted in poor assignment probabilities for two of these four groups, however. The here depicted three-group solution has still high BIC support and consistently high assignment probabilities. Therefore, it represents a more robust clustering solution. As with the other two clustering methods illustrated in the main text, a few individuals were assigned to geographic clusters that are inconsistent with their sampling locality (not shown). See main text and Fig. 3A, C for more information on this topic.

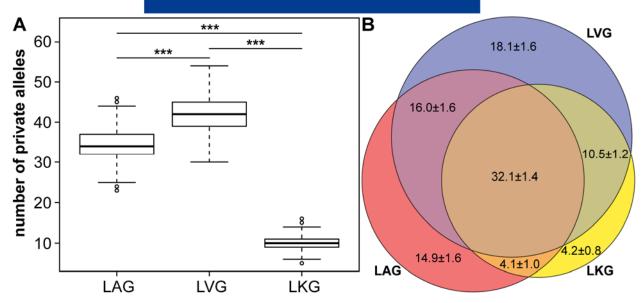


Figure S6. A) Total number of private alleles from 13 microsatellite loci for 1000 random subsamples of 29 individuals (the number of individuals in the regrouped dataset assigned to the smallest genetic cluster, LKG) for each molecular cluster. Differences between these three distributions were tested with FDR-corrected Wilcoxon tests, and are highly significant. B) Relative proportions (in %, mean \pm sd) of private and shared alleles among the three molecular groups following the same subsampling scheme under (A).

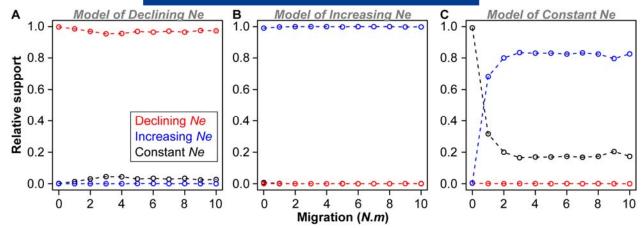


Figure S7. Analysis of how migration into the studied population affects approximate Bayesian computation (ABC) for populations with a decline in Ne (A), an increase in Ne (B) and constant Ne (B) over time. Migration is indicated as the number of immigrants per generation into the studied population (N.m). Migration does not bias ABC inferences for populations that are declining or increasing in Ne, however, it is expected to bias conclusions for populations of constant Ne.