Main Manuscript for

Resurrection genomics provides molecular and phenotypic evidence of rapid
adaptation to salinization in a keystone aquatic species

Matthew J. Wersebe[1,2] and Lawrence J. Weider[1]

[1]Program in Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Department of Biology, University of Oklahoma

[2]730 Van Vleet Oval, Richards Hall 304, Norman, OK 73019

Email: matthew.wersebe@ou.edu

Author Contributions: This work represents a chapter of MJW's doctoral dissertation at the
University of Oklahoma. MJW conceived the study, conducted the research, and wrote the
manuscript with direction and advice from LJW.

Competing Interest Statement: No competing interest.

Classification: Evolutionary Biology; Environmental Science

Keywords: *Daphnia*, Salinization, Whole Genome Sequencing, LC50, Rapid Adaptation

This PDF file includes:

Main Text
Figures 1 to 4
Tables na
19

Abstract

Ecologists and evolutionary biologists are increasingly cognizant of rapid adaptation in wild

populations. Rapid adaptation to anthropogenic environmental change is critical for maintaining

biodiversity and ecosystems services into the future. Anthropogenic salinization of freshwater

ecosystems is quickly emerging as a primary threat, which is well documented in the northern

temperate ecoregion. Specifically, many northern temperate lakes have undergone extensive

salinization because of urbanization and the associated increase in impervious surfaces for

runoff, and the extensive use of road deicing salts (e.g., NaCl). It remains unclear if increasing

salinization will lead to extirpation of species from these systems. Using a "resurrection

genomics" approach, we investigated whether the keystone aquatic herbivore, *Daphnia pulicaria,*

has evolved increased salinity tolerance in a severely salinized lake located in Minnesota, USA.

Whole genome resequencing of 54 *Daphnia* clones hatched from resting eggs that represent a

25-year temporal contrast demonstrates that many regions of the genome containing genes

related to osmoregulation are under selection in the study population. Tolerance assays of clones

revealed that the most recent clones are more tolerant to salinity than older clones; this pattern is

concomitant with the temporal pattern of stabilizing salinity in this lake. Together, our results

demonstrate that keystone species such as *Daphnia* can rapidly adapt to increasing freshwater

salinization. Further, our results indicate that rapid adaptation to salinity may allow lake *Daphnia*

populations to persist in the face of anthropogenic salinization maintaining the food webs and

ecosystem services they support despite global environmental change.

Significance Statement

Rapid adaptation to human-induced environmental change is critical for preserving biodiversity

and ecosystem services into the future. A key question is whether populations of keystone

species can rapidly adapt to maintain the ecosystems they support. We investigated rapid

adaptation to anthropogenic salinization in *Daphnia pulicaria,* a keystone aquatic herbivore in lake

ecosystems. By resuscitating decades-old resting eggs, we investigate genomic changes across

an approximately 25-year temporal contrast from a severely salinized lake. We report that the

genes showing signatures of natural selection throughout the genome are related to

osmoregulation and ion regulation. Phenotyping clones for salinity tolerance revealed evidence

that genetic changes may underlie rapid evolution. We provide molecular genomic and

phenotypic evidence for rapid adaptation to salinity in *D. pulicaria*.

51
52

Main Text

Introduction

Ecologists and evolutionary biologists now recognize many examples of wild populations rapidly

evolving in the face of environmental change (1, 2). A population's ability to rapidly evolve is

critical for survival in the face of ever-increasing anthropogenic environmental change. This

capacity is especially important for organisms that provision key ecosystem services or are

keystone species because their extirpation would fundamentally alter ecosystem dynamics.

Despite this, studies demonstrating a mechanistic basis for rapid adaptation that integrates

information from the genome to the phenome of a population are rare (3). A key reason for the

paucity of such studies is that many loci of small effect are thought to contribute most to rapid

evolutionary change and do not align with classical "hard-sweep" models making their

identification difficult (4, 5). Additional analytical challenges are exacerbated by different

population-specific parameters (e.g., effective size or N_e) that influence the supply of new

potentially beneficial mutations ($\theta = 4N_e\mu$) and the resulting distribution of fitness effects (N_es) (6,

7).

One way that rapid adaptation can be studied is using temporal genomic contrasts. Most

commonly, temporal contrasts take the form of so-called "evolve and re-sequence studies" which

follow a population across time during experimental evolution trials that typically employ

contrasting selection regimes (8–10). By finding the alleles that increase in frequency rapidly in

different treatments, the molecular basis of phenotypic shifts can be explored (8). Such studies

have been largely restricted to organisms such as bacteria (11) or *Drosophila* (10), which have

rapid generation times and are easily manipulated in the lab. Other types of temporal contrasts

encompass more natural experiments, such as the isolation and sequencing of ancient DNA,

which can give insight into past selection (12). However, with few exceptions, the genomes

sampled are divorced from the phenomes they produced; thus, inference is based solely on the

change in allele frequencies. A third way that temporal contrasts can be studied is through

"resurrection" studies that seek to hatch or germinate seeds, cysts or other resting stages of

organisms and compare genotypes and phenotypes from different points in time (13–15). For

instance, resurrection ecology (16–18), commonly used in animals from the freshwater

crustacean genus *Daphnia* has provided insight into the genetic basis of various traits (15, 19,

20). Thus far, however, this method has not allowed the identification of loci that can be plausibly

related to the phenotype under study because genetic markers are either too sparse (21) or the

traits under study are too highly integrated across the genome (19).

Daphnia are keystone species in freshwater food webs, connecting the flow of energy

from algal production to higher trophic levels such as fish (22, 23). Specific to many North

American lakes, *Daphnia pulicaria*, maintains water clarity, a key ecosystem service and supports

recreational fisheries with values in the millions of USD per lake per annum (24). Freshwater

ecosystems are among the most threatened ecosystems worldwide, impacted by various

anthropogenic stressors such as pollution, climate change and invasive species (25). One issue

threatening many freshwater ecosystems is salinization due to human activities (26), within

northern temperate lakes specifically salinization is particularly acute (27, 28). The causes and

scope of salinization have been well known (29, 30), while more recent studies have focused on

deciphering the ecological impacts of salinization (31, 32). In addition, we lack a more general

understanding of this widespread environmental issue from an evolutionary perspective, and of

the specific genetic architecture of adaptative responses. Such a perspective is critical because

recent research has shown that current water quality guidelines do not sufficiently protect aquatic

life from salinization (33).

To address this short coming, we sought to use resurrection ecology to study the

evolutionary response of *D. pulicaria* from a severely salinized lake located in Minnesota, USA.

Previous work on this lake has demonstrated the ecological dynamics of this population over the

last 150 years (31). Towards this goal, we resurrected genotypes from across approximately 25

years from the sediment egg bank isolated from a dated sediment core. Using whole genome

sequencing (WGS) of resurrected and extant individuals, we conducted numerous population

genomic analyses to depict population structure over time, reconstruct the demographic history,

and identify outlier genomic regions in the data. Additionally, we assayed a subset of genotypes

for tolerance to salinity. Specifically, we were interested in testing two main hypotheses; first, we

believed that the F_{st} outliers, or those genomic regions with extreme changes in frequency, would

contain genes related to osmoregulation as selection would favor higher salinity tolerance.

Second, this would be reflected in a higher mean tolerance of the more recent subpopulations. In

addition, we identify a list of candidate genes, which likely influence phenotypic variation

throughout the genome, and that can be targeted for further study.

Results

We studied the *D. pulicaria* population of Tanners Lake (TL; 44°57'02.2"N 92°58'54.2"W), a small

suburban hardwater lake located in Oakdale, Minnesota. The watershed includes approximately

32% impervious surfaces including parking lots, interstate highways and residential development

(31). TL has received significant inputs of chloride from the watershed primarily in the form of the

road deicer NaCl (524 kg Cl^- ha^{-1} yr^{-1}) (34). The upper waters (i.e., surface/epilimnetic) chloride

concentration of TL has increased significantly in the last 75 years, from approximately 1-2 mg Cl^-

L^{-1} on average to over 150 mg Cl^- L^{-1}(35, 36). TL has also transitioned to a state of cultural

meromixis (37) with a persistent high salinity chemocline interrupting normal lake mixing dynamics.

We resurrected and sequenced 54 *D. pulicaria* clones from across approximately 25-year temporal

contrast (~1994-2019). In total we called 3,802,961 high confidence biallelic SNPs in the

population.

Population Structure and Genetic Divergence:

Key to understanding the dynamics of the population across time is accurately describing

population structure to rule out possible extinction and recolonization. The 54 clones selected for

sequencing were separated into two clusters based on the first two principal component axes

explaining 7.6% and 4.6% of the variance in the LD-pruned SNP data, respectively (Figure 1A).

These two clusters largely separated the clones by depth with the older clones (layers 16-18 cm,

18-20 cm, and 22-24 cm) and more recent clones (Lake Clones, 2-4 cm, 6-8 cm, and 10-12 cm)

forming the two groupings. Subsequently, we decided to assign the clones into three groups for the

remainder of the analyses. We designated these as DEEP, encompassing all clones from 16-24

cm in depth (n = 18) and date from the mid to late 1990s. The second designation, called MID,

encompassed all clones from 6-12 cm in depth (n = 18) and date from the mid to late 2000s. The

third and final designation, referred to as TOP hereafter, included all clones collected from the water

column and 2-4 cm in depth in the core (n = 18) spanning from 2016 to 2019. We based our

assignment into the groupings on two observations: firstly, the TOP and DEEP subpopulations are

delineated by the PCA clusters, and thus warranted separate assignments. Secondly, the MID

subpopulation, while closely related to TOP, was intermediate in the time-scale –approximately 10

years prior to TOP and approximately 10 years after DEEP– and thus formed an appropriate

intermediate grouping. While the TOP and MID are indistinguishable using PCA (Fig 1A), their

temporal separation is a key feature of our simulations. We did not think it would be biologically

realistic if each group was permitted to coalesce instantaneously (e.g., become active at the same

time). Hence, we included each as a separate temporal deme in our simulations and analysis.

Conveniently, this scheme also allowed each grouping to achieve equal sample size (i.e., 18

samples). Using Discriminate Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC), which is a flexible group

assignment method, we found good support for assignment of clones to the three *a priori*

designated groups (Figure 1B). However, as with the PCA results, generally MID clones had non-

negligible assignment probabilities when compared to the TOP subpopulation. Site-wise F_{st} was

low across time, with an overall estimate of approximately 0.016 (Figure 1C). However, site-wise

F_{st} estimates ranged from around 0 to as high as 0.398, with most sites having an F_{st} of essentially

0. The pairwise genetic distance between the three temporal subpopulations was related to the

temporal distance with the TOP vs DEEP comparison being highest (0.019) and the MID population

being intermediate to both (Figure 1D).

Estimation of Effective Population Size and Simulations:

To accurately parameterize tests for selection, we sought to estimate a demographic model for the

TL population. We were able to estimate the effective population size of the TL *D. pulicaria*

population using both linkage disequilibrium (LD) and coalescent simulations. The LD-based

results using just samples from the lake clone (LC) isolates showed that over the last few hundred

generations, there was a period of population expansion and contraction (Figure S1). The

population reached a peak N_e of 4000-6500 approximately 150 generations ago and the population

has contracted recently to an N_e of around 2000. For this analysis, we interpret "generations" here

to be sexual generations (i.e., LD is related to recombination and asexual generations are

ameiotic). Since sex may occur once or at most a few times per year in stable lake habitats (38,

39), we interpret a single generation to be equivalent to one year. The coalescent-based FSC2.7

(40) run with the highest likelihood estimated N_e to be 2931 individuals and had a signal of

population contraction with a population growth rate of 2.629×10^{-5}. The estimate of effective

population size was within the 95% confidence for 100 parametric bootstraps; however, the

estimate for population growth rate was not and the confidence intervals included zero (table S1).

We ran simulations in FSC2.7 using the maximum likelihood estimates to establish expectations

for F_{st} based on the modeled demographic parameters. The results from 100 independent runs of

FSC2.7 were pooled to develop a distribution of expected F_{st} values from simulated ~110000 SNPs.

Testing each LD-pruned SNP against this distribution and correcting for multiple testing using false

discovery rate (FDR) resulted in 178 outlier SNPs with corrected one-tailed p-values above a p =

0.05 significance threshold (Figure 2). There were outliers on every chromosome, ranging from a

low of 2 SNPs (CHR 08) to a high of 42 (CHR 04).

Genes surrounding F_{st} outliers and GO term enrichment and Variant Annotation:

One of our primary hypotheses was that the genes surrounding Fst outliers would be related to

osmoregulation and salinity tolerance. We searched for genes within 10Kb of the Fst outlier SNPs

($\pm$ 5 KB centered on the SNP) and in total we extracted 286 genes near these SNPs with known

function in the *D. pulicaria* genome. GO term enrichment analysis with PantherDB webtool (41)

yielded 59 enriched terms for this list of genes after correction for FDR (Figure 3). The enriched

terms and p-values are available in table S2. Notable among the enriched terms for molecular

function are chloride channel activity (GO:0005254; p = 0.00925); however, many different ion and

channel terms were enriched. After running variant effect prediction (42) on all the SNPs called in

the population, we identified 17181 variants with "high" predicted effects. Intersecting this list with

outlier genes, we found 78 of the 286 outlier genes had high effect variants, only one of these,

Chloride Channel 2 isoform X2 (*clcn2-x2*), located on chromosome 5 had any obvious relation to

osmoregulation or salinity tolerance. *Clcn2-x2* has five SNPs of high effect, including four

premature stop codon changes and a splice donor change that would likely severely interrupt

protein function. It is tightly linked to the F_{st} outlier site at CHR05:12238, which is an intronic SNP

within *clcn2-x2*. In addition to the high effect mutations, this gene has a total of 28 missense

mutations and 37 synonymous mutations classified as moderate and low impact respectively. Of

the clones surveyed for chloride tolerance (see next section), we found that the two most tolerant

clones were homozygous for the wildtype (i.e., functional) allele at *clcn2-x2.* Overall, 252 of the

outlier genes had effects that included moderate impacts to function such as a missense SNP.

However, *clcn2-x2*'s behavior as an outlier is not consistent with a single large effect locus.

The SNP at CHR05:12238 is the 88th most differentiated SNPs among the 178 outliers with an

overall F_{st} of just 0.1985 (FDR corrected p = 0.0269). The top 11 outlier SNPs (F_{st} 0.3983 – 0.3175)

all had F_{st} unobserved under neutral demography. One of the SNPs is an intergenic variant, while

the 10 remaining SNPs are intronic SNPs associated with 13 different genes, 10 of which have

annotated functions (table S3). The SNP located at CHR04:13394600 is the most differentiated

SNP observed and is associated with the genes *pank4* and *tda6.* The remaining genes span across

functional categories including the structural protein collagen alpha-1 chain and the calcium-binding

protein *fstl5*, to several genes related to development comprising *still life* (43)*, daam1* (44)*, and pnt*

(45), which contains two outlier SNPs*, rap1gtp (46), and rotund (47).*

Chloride Tolerance LC50:

We expected that increasing chloride pollution in TL would result in higher tolerance of more recent

clones. Therefore, we conducted clone-specific assays to estimate 96-hour Lethal Concentration-

50% (LC50). Clonal tolerance ranged from a low of 584.91 mg/L Cl- (clones 10-12-12A & 18-20-04A)

to a high of 1047.16 mg/L Cl- for (Clone LC-06). We observed a main effect of subpopulation in the

Kruskal-Wallis test (p = 0.006; Figure 4). Post-hoc testing using a pairwise Wilcoxon test found that

the Lake subpopulation (i.e., TOP) was more tolerant on average than either the DEEP (22-24 cm

& 18-20 cm) or MID (10-12 cm) subpopulations (p = 0.0076). The DEEP and MID subpopulations

did not differ from one another (p = 0.9073).

Discussion

Our resurrection ecology (RE) study across ~25-year temporal contrast has provided phenotypic

and molecular evidence of rapid evolution of salinity tolerance in the TL *Daphnia pulicaria*

population. Using whole genome resequencing to analyze population genetic structure and

demographic history, we have identified genomic regions putatively under selection, with support

from LC_{50} chloride tolerance assays. We found that Chloride Channel-2 isoform X2 (*clcn2-x2*) has

a unique mutational history and may be affecting salinity tolerance in this population, as one of

many genes under selection in this population. We find support for both of our main hypotheses

— genes related to osmoregulation are enriched in outlier regions and that the population shows

increasing tolerance to salinity over time.

Demographic History and Subpopulation Structure:

A goal of our study was to establish a demographic model for the TL population. This would

enable the modeling of population genetic summary statistics (i.e., F_{st}) for establishment of a

distribution of expected or null estimates of F_{st}-based on the demographic history (discussed

below). We used two complementary methods – LD-based methods and coalescent simulation to

understand the recent demographic history of the TL population. Each method provides

incomplete information, and each has unique biases that need to be considered. Furthermore,

despite N_e being a critical parameter in population genetics, it is notoriously difficult to estimate

(46). For instance, it appears that SFS (coalescent) based methods are underpowered for recent

demographic history; however larger sample sizes may ameliorate some of these effects (47).

This may also explain why it was difficult to accurately estimate the population growth rate

parameter. The LD-based method we employed here appears to be strongly affected by the

number of homozygotes in the sample (48), and thus, is sensitive to analyzing genomes from

different generations. This prevented us from modeling each subpopulation separately.

Additionally, it also appears to be inaccurate for the first few generations, giving unrealistically

small numbers (see Figure S1). As such, we used these methods in tandem to increase the

confidence in our estimation of the demographic parameters. Both methods were concordant that

recent N_e was approximately 2000-3000 individuals, and both showed signatures of recent

population contraction. This effective population size is not unexpected for *D. pulicaria* because

populations are thought to delay sex and recombination for long periods of time (a year or more)

(36, 37). During this time, clonal selection is thought to winnow down the population to a

collection of ecologically-equivalent clones (49). These facts, taken together with the current

understanding of zooplankton metapopulation dynamics (50, 51) suggests that *Daphnia* effective

populations should be small and insular.

Despite the small and insular nature of the TL population, it appears that drift does not

always predominate. Our PCA results demonstrate at least on a decadal scale (i.e., between MID

and TOP) that the population is temporally consistent. This likely reflects the dominance of the

few ecologically equivalent clones predicted by Lynch and Spitze (37). It is likely that only after a

rapid or pronounced change in environment can one expect to see a population structure across

time, as reflected in other studies of *Daphnia* utilizing RE (15, 52). Salinization in TL is ongoing

and likely started in the mid-20th century with the onset of widespread use of road deicing salts in

the 1950s (53). The sediment intervals dating to the early 1990s from which we recovered the

oldest samples in this study reflect a period of change in the sediment egg bank (e.g., low

ephippial fluxes) (30) and suggests a period of rapid environmental change in this lake. Wersebe

et al. (30), reported that by the early-1990s, TL had already reached a surface (waters) chloride

concentration of at least 100 mg/L. Thus, all the source periods examined in the present study

are typified by elevated chloride levels. Since we were unable to hatch eggs from before

salinization commenced or was comparatively low in TL, it is impossible to determine if the

structuring we observed was ongoing or more sudden. It is most likely that our temporal samples

represent a process of ongoing adaptation to very rapidly increasing salinization. Regardless,

since the clones are closely related across time at both the genomic and mitochondrial levels, it

remains unlikely that the population became extinct and was recolonized by migrant genotypes

(Fig. 1C; S2).

Outliers and the Identification of Candidate Genes:

The specification of a demographic model for the TL lake population allowed us to establish the

presence of statistical significance for each site in the genome scan. This analysis revealed 178

regions with F_{st} beyond what we could reasonably expect based on demography alone. Genes

surrounding these outliers had many functions, but as expected, genes involved in

osmoregulation were among the most enriched in the dataset according to GO terms for

molecular function. The presence of hundreds of outlier genes suggests that salinity tolerance

has a complex genetic architecture and that tolerance to increased salinity requires changes at

many loci of small effect. Transcriptomic studies of clonal isolates from within the *D. pulex*

complex (to which *D. pulicaria* belongs) support this assertion (54). Indeed, cross-referencing

these outlier genes with different mutational types (e.g., missense SNPs) showed that many of

these genes have sites that may be under selection. However, the only gene with a known

functional role in osmoregulation with high effect mutations was *clcn2-x2*. Chloride channels play

a key role in osmoregulatory physiology of all animals. *Daphnia* are known as hypo-

osmoregulators, meaning they attempt to maintain their hemolymph solute concentration above

the ambient media concentration (55). Osmoregulation occurs within the gill-epithelium of

Daphnia, and chloride channels like *clcn2-x2* play a major role in shuttling Cl- ions into the

hemolymph across the basolateral membrane of the gill epithelium to maintain a hypo-osmotic

concentration in the hemolymph (56). The constellation of premature stop codon mutations in this

gene means that the protein is very unlikely to function properly because the channel is too short

to pass through the cell membrane. Individuals are at least heterozygous for each of the four

premature stop codon SNPs and the wild-type gene sequence annotated in the reference. Thus,

they can produce a functioning protein. The two most tolerant clones in this study were both

homozygous for the functional allele. This suggests that *clcn2-x2* is a critical gene requiring at

least one functional copy and it explains some portion of the variance in acute salinity tolerance.

However, a larger sample of genotyped and phenotyped individuals would be required to further

validate this statistically.

The most differentiated genes in the genome were involved in a few key functions. There

was a concentration of outlier SNPs in genes involved in regulating Rho-like GTPases which are

involved in the regulation of actin filaments and neuronal development. The reason why these

genes are the most differentiated is not initially clear. One potential explanation involves

phenotypic plasticity. Increased salinity tolerance may require the accommodation of new

developmental trajectories through phenotypic plasticity. Evolution via plasticity (59) requires that

central developmental pathways serve as fuel for phenotypic differentiation (60). Furthermore,

plasticity is thought to play an important role in rapid adaptation in *Daphnia*, a pattern we observe

in the TL population (61–63). Regardless, testing of this assertion would be difficult because

unlike other model arthropods, *Daphnia* development is not as well explored.

Chloride Tolerance and Rapid Evolution:

The clones observed in this study vary nearly two-fold in salinity tolerance (585 – 1047 mg/L),

with the most tolerant clones detected in the most recent (TOP) temporal subpopulation. It is

important to note that all clones in this study come from natal conditions that included elevated

salinity with all subpopulations likely experiencing surface chloride conditions of 100-150 mg/L

(31). Surface chloride conditions in TL are unlikely to exceed 150 mg/L in a year because of the

dynamic equilibrium between annual loading and flushing of chloride in the system (48).

However, TL more recently has transitioned to a state known as "cultural meromixis" were the

accumulation of Cl at depth has interrupted normal lake mixing. For instance, in July 2019, we

observed inferred Cl^- concentrations of approximately 275 mg/L directly above the chemocline

(47% of the lowest LC50). Below the chemocline, inferred concentrations approached 483 mg/L

(82% of the lowest LC50). Large-bodied *D. pulicaria,* undergo diel vertical migration to avoid

visually oriented predators like fish. This vertical movement means that a clone may have to

accommodate fluctuations in the ambient chloride concentration of 100s-of-miligrams over the

course of 24-hrs. Such elevated Cl^- concentrations routinely observed in TL likely have several

sublethal effects that reduce clonal fitness. Presumably, a clone that has high acute tolerance has

the physiological capacity to ameliorate the sublethal effects of increased chloride and we

attempted to approximate this physiological response with LC_{50} assays. LC_{50} may be a quick

measure of acute tolerance but it has an uncertain correlation with fitness components. As such,

our phenotyping results should be interpreted with caution when thinking about relative clonal

fitness. Insofar as the pattern of rapid evolution of acute tolerance observed may be not actively

reflect the phenotype actually under selection across time.

Caveats, Analytical Roadmap, and Conclusions:

All studies integrating historical data require caution to avoid over-interpretation of the emergent

patterns. Our study is no different and relies heavily on a single core from a single lake. Our

previous studies with this lake have explored many of these caveats (31). Specific to resurrection

ecology (RE) studies, an acute limitation has always been hatching from the egg bank in the

deepest layers. There may be non-random patterns of egg mortality in the sediments or non-

random propensies in hatching success that skew phenotypic estimates and prevent accurate

estimation of allele frequencies. Some have termed this the "invisible fraction" (*sensu (49)*). In our

study this is most notable in our inability to hatch genotypes predating the most substantial

increases in salinity (e.g., from 1950 or before). In other resurrection studies that have been able

to hatch truly 'ancient' eggs (15), the utility of these samples in constructing a framework of

phenotypic evolution is limited by sample size because only one or a few isolates survive to be

cultured. In many circumstances, however, directly sequencing the eggs is an alternative but will

prevent any possible phenotypic characterization of sequenced individuals because eggs are

destructively sampled (50). These latter methods are still nonetheless difficult and involve costly

genome amplification steps with variable success rates and high levels of exogenous

contamination in the final libraries (50). This approach may help reduce the impacts of the

'invisible fraction' but will not eliminate it completely. Another caveat that we must highlight is that

we have only analyzed a single population, and as such, we cannot place our results within a

metapopulation context. We assume that gene flow should be negligible in producing allele

frequency changes. To accurately account for gene flow, one would need to sample many

additional spatially-distributed populations in addition to hatching temporal samples. While such

data sets are within technical reach, the practicality of such a sampling regime would be difficult

to amass for species such as *D. pulicaria*.

384   Regardless of the issues with RE data sets, we believe we can provide some insights into

an analytical framework for future resurrection genomic studies. One major goal of the field of

ecological and evolutionary genomics is to ultimately produce a comprehensive phenotype-to-

genotype map- especially for those traits that one deems "ecologically relevant." Relevant

critiques of a QTL or QTN-centric research program aside (51), temporally-sampled genomic

datasets may provide some very convincing examples of phenotype-genotype maps (see (52).

Resurrection-type studies are poised to do this in natural populations as well. This will require

robust demographic analysis of resurrected populations, integrated with simulations in a flexible

manner. One potential way forward is the use of flexible-forward genetic simulations (e.g., those

available in SLiM; (53)), which can allow more analytical power in genomic analysis of temporally

sampled populations.

396   In summary, resurrection ecology (RE), when paired with whole genome sequencing,

provides a unique and powerful way to study rapid evolution of populations *in situ*. Integration of

candidate loci identified with RE into study designs including breeding experiments (54), forward

mutation screens (55) or CRISPR technology (56) will provide unrivaled insight for the genetic

architecture of complex, ecologically relevant traits in the wild. Such an approach would be

beneficial here, for example in validating the effect of the null *clcn2-x2* allele on salinity tolerance

in the TL population. Overall, however, here RE provides both molecular and phenotypic

evidence of rapid adaptation in the TL population. Thus, the persistence of *D. pulicaria* in this

severely salinized lake is likely the result of this rapid adaptation. Our findings indicate that

keystone aquatic species such as lake *Daphnia* may continue to thrive in lakes that exceed

current water quality limits for salinization and thus maintain the stability of the food webs and

ecosystem services they support.

Materials and Methods

Clone bank and Sequencing:

On 2 July 2019, we collected duplicate sediment cores in TL from a 14 m deep station following

Wright (57). During the same period, we also collected *D. pulicaria* from the active plankton

community using several vertical tows of a Wisconsin net at the core sampling station. Animals

were isolated as single individuals in 125 mL plastic (screw-capped) cups in COMBO media (58).

A total of 10 of these clones were established in laboratory culture. Resting eggs (ephippia)

collected from throughout the cores were collected according to the methods outlined in Wersebe

et al. (31). Ephippia identified as *D. pulicaria* were subjected to hatching protocol described (15)

(see supplemental). These hatchling individuals were expanded in culture to establish upwards of

10 clones per sediment layer to establish a clone bank. Fifty-four isoclonal lineages from the

clone bank were selected for DNA extraction and whole genome sequencing (average 10X) on

an Illumina NovaSeq by the Oklahoma Medical Research Foundation.

Bioinformatics:

Raw sequencing reads were quality trimmed and adaptor contamination removed using

Trimmomatic (59). Quality trimmed reads were aligned to the chromosome-level *D. pulicaria*

genome assembly (60) using the BWA mem algorithm (61). The resulting files were piped

through samtools (62) to mark duplicates, fix mates and sort the bam files. We called variants

using the bcftools mpileup and call pipeline using all individuals together (63). Using bcftools, the

resulting BCF files were concatenated together into a single genome-wide file and quality filtered

to a set of high confidence biallelic single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs).

Population Structure and Genetic Divergence:

The variants in the final quality-filtered VCF file were pruned for linkage disequilibrium (LD) using

Plink (64) independent pairwise function (settings: 50, 10, 0.1), providing an independent and

essentially random set of SNPs. The resulting variants were further filtered to SNPs with 0%

missingness to a set 27854 genome wide SNPs. We conducted Principal Components Analysis

(PCA) in R (Version 4.2.0; R core team 2022) using the packages *adegenet* and *vcfr* (65, 66). We

also conducted Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC); a flexible population

assignment method also implemented in *adegenet* (67). Using the cross-validation procedure

outlined in the vignette, we found that retention of 10 PCs performed best in population

assignment. We performed population assignment tests for each clone retaining 10 PCs and 2

discriminant functions and plotted the results as a bar plot to visual the probabilities of population

assignment. DAPC is flexible enough to handle mixed clonal and temporal sampling - two factors

that violate other assignment techniques (e.g., STRUCTURE (68). From the PCA and the DAPC,

results, we determined that the samples could be assigned to three "sub-populations" according

to the depth of their recovery (see results). Using these three subpopulations as designations, we

estimated overall site-wise F_{st} using the basic.stats function and mean pairwise genetic distance

genet.dist function in the R package *hierfstat* (69).

Estimation of Effective Population Size and Simulations:

To parameterize our tests for selection, we sought to identify the recent demographic history of

the TL *D. pulicaria* population. To accomplish this, we used two different methods to estimate

effective population size (N_e) and growth trajectory of the population. The first method,

implemented in GONE (70) uses LD to estimate the recent population history. This method is

robust to non-equilibrium histories such as selection (71); however, it is suitable only for sample

pools collected from the same generation. Thus, for this method we used only the samples

collected from the water column in 2019. We ran six independent runs of this method using

random subsets of 600,000 SNPs from all the SNPs called in the population and a constant

recombination rate of 7.2 cm/mb estimated from the *D. pulicaria* genetic map (60). This analysis

does not take in a given model *a priori*, instead it produces a population size trajectory that when

inspected graphically can hint at different events (e.g., bottlenecks). In addition to LD-based

methods, we estimated demographic parameters of the TL population - estimating N_e and the

population growth rate - by fitting a demographic model to the folded site frequency spectrum

(SFS) implemented in FastSimcoal 2.7 (FSC2.7) (40). With the LD pruned SNPs used above in

the PCA analysis, we created folded 2-D SFS from the three temporal subpopulations. Using 100

independent runs of FSC2.7, we chose the run that maximized the likelihood of the observed

data. We fixed the sampling points in time for the temporal subpopulation (MID and DEEP) to be

50 and 100 generations in the past. This assumes approximately 4 asexual generations a year

and single sexual generation for a total of five generations a year. Each run conducted 1-million

coalescent simulations and used 40 brent maximization cycles. Further, we estimated empirical

p-values for the site-wise F_{st} estimates using simulation (72). We chose the best fitting

demographic model estimated in FSC2.7 and conducted 100 separate runs of this model to

simulate approximately 1100 SNPs for each run. For each run, we estimated F_{st} using basic.stats

function in *hierfstat* (69). We pooled each simulation into an empirical distribution of probable F_{st}

values under the best fitting demographic model. We tested each observed site-wise F_{st} estimate

against this empirical distribution to estimate a p-value. We corrected these p-values for multiple

testing using a false discovery rate in R using the p.adjust function.

Genes surrounding Fst outliers, GO term enrichment, and Variant Effects:

We extracted the genes surrounding F_{st} outliers (p ≤ 0.05 after correction) in 10 Kb windows

using the *D. pulicaria* RefSeq annotation (release 100, SC_F0-13Bv2) using bedtools (73). Next,

we created Panther Generic Mappings for the genes with known annotations using each gene's

protein sequences following the method outlined in (41). Using the generic mappings, we tested

for molecular function Gene Ontology (GO) term enrichment by testing against the *Daphnia pulex*

gene list using the PantherDB webtool using a false discovery rate correction (41). In addition to

testing for GO term enrichment, we also surveyed all genes for potential SNPs and small indels

mutations potentially driving selection using Ensembl's Variant Effect Predictor (VEP) (42). We

built a custom database using the RefSeq annotations in GFF format following the developer's

protocol. We extracted all "High" (e.g., premature stops) and "Moderate" (e.g., missense SNPs)

impact mutations predicted and cross-referenced these with the genes near F_{st} outliers.

Chloride Tolerance:

We selected a subset of 30 clones from the Lake (n = 10), 10-12 cm sediment layer (n =10), 18-

20 cm (n = 3), and 22-24 cm (n = 7) subpopulations for estimating clone-specific tolerance to

chloride. See the Supplemental Materials for details on the experimental set-up. We estimated

LC_{50} for each clone separately by fitting a reduced-bias generalized linear model (GLM) to the

survival curve using the R package *brglm* (74). Data were not normally distributed, nor did they

meet the assumption of equal variances, so we performed a non-parametric ANOVA (Kruskal-

Wallis) test on the LC$_{50}$ estimates to test for differences in the mean LC$_{50}$ value for each

subpopulation.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank M. Edlund who facilitated the collection of the Tanners Lake sediment

cores. T. Curb, Z. Arnold, A. Twumasi-Mensah, and A. Hemani, helped with the LC$_{50}$

experiments. G. Wiley aided in the preparation of sequencing libraries. The University of

Oklahoma Biological Station and the St. Croix Watershed Research Station facilitated field work.

Funding for this study was provided by the University of Oklahoma Department of Biology Adams

Summer Scholarship, Robberson Graduate College Grant, Hill Fund for Research in Biology,

Graduate Student Senate Research Grant, AMNH Theodore Roosevelt Grant and the

Biogeography of Behavior student seed grant (NSF DBI-2021880; PI L. Stein) awarded to MJW in

support of graduate research. Any opinions, findings and conclusions or recommendations

expressed in this material are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the

National Science Foundation, the American Museum of Natural History or the University of

Oklahoma. This manuscript represents a portion of MJW's doctoral dissertation at The University

of Oklahoma.

Data Availability:

Sequencing reads will be made available on the NCBI SRA upon acceptance. Data and

appropriate metadata from this study will be archived in the University of Oklahoma's ShareOK

data repository (https://shareok.org). Code used in the analysis is available on GitHub at

https://github.com/mwersebe/Tanner_lake_genomics.

References

532   **References**
533

534   1.   S. M. Rudman, *et al.*, What genomic data can reveal about eco-evolutionary dynamics.
535   *Nature Ecology & Evolution* **2**, 9–15 (2018).

536   2.   N. G. Hairston, *et al.*, Lake ecosystems: Rapid evolution revealed by dormant eggs. *Nature*
537   **401**, 446–446 (1999).

538   3.   F. Mallard, V. Nolte, R. Tobler, M. Kapun, C. Schlötterer, A simple genetic basis of
539   adaptation to a novel thermal environment results in complex metabolic rewiring in
540   Drosophila. *Genome Biology* **19**, 119 (2018).

541   4.   P. W. Messer, D. A. Petrov, Population genomics of rapid adaptation by soft selective
542   sweeps. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* **28**, 659–669 (2013).

543   5.   P. W. Messer, S. P. Ellner, N. G. Hairston, Can Population Genetics Adapt to Rapid
544   Evolution? *Trends in genetics : TIG* **32**, 408–418 (2016).

545   6.   A. Eyre-Walker, P. D. Keightley, The distribution of fitness effects of new mutations. *Nature*
546   *Reviews Genetics 2007 8:8* **8**, 610–618 (2007).

547   7.   P. D. Keightley, A. Eyre-Walker, What can we learn about the distribution of fitness effects
548   of new mutations from DNA sequence data? *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal*
549   *Society B: Biological Sciences* **365**, 1187–1193 (2010).

550   8.   A. Long, G. Liti, A. Luptak, O. Tenaillon, Elucidating the molecular architecture of
551   adaptation via evolve and resequence experiments. *Nature Reviews Genetics* **16**, 567–582
552   (2015).

553   9.   C. Schlötterer, R. Kofler, E. Versace, R. Tobler, S. U. Franssen, Combining experimental
554   evolution with next-generation sequencing: A powerful tool to study adaptation from
555   standing genetic variation. *Heredity* **114**, 431–440 (2015).

556   10.   T. L. Turner, A. D. Stewart, A. T. Fields, W. R. Rice, A. M. Tarone, Population-Based
557   Resequencing of Experimentally Evolved Populations Reveals the Genetic Basis of Body
558   Size Variation in Drosophila melanogaster. *PLoS Genetics* **7**, e1001336 (2011).

559   11.   R. E. Lenski, Convergence and divergence in a long-term experiment with bacteria.
560   *American Naturalist* **190**, S57–S68 (2017).

561   12.   M. Dehasque, *et al.*, Inference of natural selection from ancient DNA. *Evolution Letters* **4**,
562   94–108 (2020).

563   13.   L. J. Weider, P. D. Jeyasingh, D. Frisch, Evolutionary aspects of resurrection ecology:
564   Progress, scope, and applications-An overview. *Evolutionary Applications* **11**, 3–10 (2018).

14.   M. Gros-Balthazard, *et al.*, The genomes of ancient date palms germinated from 2,000 y
old seeds. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of*
America **118** (2021).

15.   D. Frisch, *et al.*, A millennial-scale chronicle of evolutionary responses to cultural
eutrophication in *Daphnia*. *Ecology Letters* **17**, 360–368 (2014).

16.   W. C. Kerfoot, J. A. Robbins, L. J. Weider, A new approach to historical reconstruction:
Combining descriptive and experimental paleolimnology. *Limnology and Oceanography* **44**,
1232–1247 (1999).

17.   W. C. Kerfoot, L. J. Weider, "Experimental paleoecology (resurrection ecology): Chasing
Van Valen's Red Queen hypothesis" (2004).

18.   L. Orsini, *et al.*, Temporal genetic stability in natural populations of the waterflea
<scp>D</scp> *aphnia magna* in response to strong selection pressure. *Molecular Ecology*
25, 6024–6038 (2016).

19.   A. Chaturvedi, *et al.*, Extensive standing genetic variation from a small number of founders
enables rapid adaptation in Daphnia. *Nature Communications* **12**, 4306 (2021).

20.   C. Cousyn, *et al.*, Rapid, local adaptation of zooplankton behavior to changes in predation
pressure in the absence of neutral genetic changes. *Proceedings of the National Academy*
of Sciences of the United States of America **98**, 6256–60 (2001).

21.   D. Frisch, *et al.*, Paleogenetic records of *Daphnia pulicaria* in two North American lakes
reveal the impact of cultural eutrophication. *Global Change Biology* **23**, 708–718 (2017).

22.   W. Lampert, U. Sommer, *Limnoecology: The Ecology of Lakes and Streams* (Oxford
University Press, 2007).

23.   Ž. Ogorelec, C. Wunsch, A. J. Kunzmann, P. Octorina, J. I. Navarro, Large daphniids are
keystone species that link fish predation and phytoplankton in trophic cascades.
Fundamental and Applied Limnology **194**, 297–309 (2021).

24.   J. R. Walsh, S. R. Carpenter, M. J. Vander Zanden, Invasive species triggers a massive loss of
ecosystem services through a trophic cascade. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*
Sciences of the United States of America **113**, 4081–5 (2016).

25.   A. J. Reid, *et al.*, Emerging threats and persistent conservation challenges for freshwater
biodiversity. *Biological Reviews* **94**, 849–873 (2019).

26.   S. S. Kaushal, *et al.*, Freshwater salinization syndrome on a continental scale. *Proceedings*
of the National Academy of Sciences (2018) https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1711234115.

27.   H. A. Dugan, *et al.*, Lakes at Risk of Chloride Contamination. *Environmental Science and*
Technology **54**, 6639–6650 (2020).

28.   H. A. Dugan, *et al.*, Salting our freshwater lakes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of*
Sciences of the United States of America **114**, 4453–4458 (2017).

29.   W. D. Hintz, R. A. Relyea, A review of the species, community, and ecosystem impacts of
road salt salinisation in fresh waters. *Freshwater Biology* **64**, 1081–1097 (2019).

30.   D. Cunillera-Montcusí, *et al.*, Freshwater salinisation: a research agenda for a saltier world.
Trends in Ecology & Evolution **0** (2022).

31.   M. J. Wersebe, M. B. Edlund, L. J. Weider, Does salinization impact long-term Daphnia
assemblage dynamics? Evidence from the sediment egg bank in a small hard-water lake.
Limnology and Oceanography Letters **n/a** (2021).

32.   S. Arnott, *et al.*, Road salt impacts freshwater zooplankton at concentrations below current
water quality guidelines. *Environmental Science & Technology* (2020)
https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.0c02396 (August 11, 2020).

33.   H. W. D., *et al.*, Current water quality guidelines across North America and Europe do not
protect lakes from salinization. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **119**,
e2115033119 (2022).

34.   E. V. Novotny, D. Murphy, H. G. Stefan, Increase of urban lake salinity by road deicing salt.
Science of The Total Environment **406**, 131–144 (2008).

35.   J. M. Ramstack, S. C. Fritz, D. R. Engstrom, Twentieth century water quality trends in
Minnesota lakes compared with presettlement variability. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries*
and Aquatic Sciences **61**, 561–576 (2004).

36.   J. M. Ramstack, S. C. Fritz, D. R. Engstrom, S. A. Heiskary, The Application of a Diatom-
based Transfer Function to Evaluate Regional Water-Quality Trends in Minnessota Since
1970. *Journal of Paleolimnology* **29**, 79–94 (2003).

37.   R. J. Sibert, C. M. Koretsky, D. A. Wyman, Cultural meromixis: Effects of road salt on the
chemical stratification of an urban kettle lake. *Chemical Geology* **395**, 126–137 (2015).

38.   D. E. Allen, M. Lynch, THE EFFECT OF VARIABLE FREQUENCY OF SEXUAL REPRODUCTION
ON THE GENETIC STRUCTURE OF NATURAL POPULATIONS OF A CYCLICAL PARTHENOGEN.
Evolution **66**, 919–926 (2012).

39.   C. E. Cáceres, A. J. Tessier, Incidence of diapause varies among populations of Daphnia
pulicaria. *Oecologia* **141**, 425–431 (2004).

40.   L. Excoffier, *et al.*, fastsimcoal2: demographic inference under complex evolutionary
scenarios. *Bioinformatics* **37**, 4882–4885 (2021).

41.   H. Mi, *et al.*, PANTHER version 16: A revised family classification, tree-based classification
tool, enhancer regions and extensive API. *Nucleic Acids Research* **49**, D394–D403 (2021).

42. W. McLaren, *et al.*, The Ensembl Variant Effect Predictor. *Genome Biology* **17**, 122 (2016).

43. S. Masaki, *et al.*, Still life, a Protein in Synaptic Terminals of Drosophila Homologous to
GDP-GTP Exchangers. *Science* **275**, 543–547 (1997).

44. P. Aspenström, N. Richnau, A.-S. Johansson, The diaphanous-related formin DAAM1
collaborates with the Rho GTPases RhoA and Cdc42, CIP4 and Src in regulating cell
morphogenesis and actin dynamics. *Experimental Cell Research* **312**, 2180–2194 (2006).

45. C. Klambt, The Drosophila gene pointed encodes two ETS-like proteins which are involved
in the development of the midline glial cells. *Development* **117**, 163–176 (1993).

46. C. Fangli, B. Margaret, R. K. T., Q. Adrian, H. I. K., Biological characterization of Drosophila
Rapgap1, a GTPase activating protein for Rap1. *Proceedings of the National Academy of
Sciences* **94**, 12485–12490 (1997).

47. S. E. St Pierre, M. I. Galindo, J. P. Couso, S. Thor, Control of Drosophila imaginal disc
development by rotund and roughened eye: differentially expressed transcripts of the
same gene encoding functionally distinct zinc finger proteins. *Development* **129**, 1273–
1281 (2002).

48. E. V. Novotny, H. G. Stefan, Projections of Chloride Concentrations in Urban Lakes
Receiving Road De-icing Salt. *Water, Air, & Soil Pollution* **211**, 261–271 (2010).

49. A. E. Weis, Detecting the "invisible fraction" bias in resurrection experiments. *Evolutionary
Applications* **11**, 88–95 (2018).

50. J. B. Lack, L. J. Weider, P. D. Jeyasingh, Whole genome amplification and sequencing of a
Daphnia resting egg. *Molecular Ecology Resources* **18**, 118–127 (2018).

51. M. V. Rockman, THE QTN PROGRAM AND THE ALLELES THAT MATTER FOR EVOLUTION:
ALL THAT'S GOLD DOES NOT GLITTER. *Evolution* **66**, 1–17 (2012).

52. N. O. Therkildsen, *et al.*, Contrasting genomic shifts underlie parallel phenotypic evolution
in response to fishing. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* **365**, 487–490 (2019).

53. B. C. Haller, P. W. Messer, SLiM 3: Forward Genetic Simulations Beyond the Wright-Fisher
Model. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **36**, 632–637 (2019).

54. R. E. Sherman, R. Hartnett, E. L. Kiehnau, L. J. Weider, P. D. Jeyasingh, Quantitative
genetics of phosphorus content in the freshwater herbivore, *Daphnia pulicaria*. *Journal of
Animal Ecology* **00**, 1365-2656.13419 (2021).

55. M. Snyman, T. V. Huynh, M. T. Smith, S. Xu, The genome-wide rate and spectrum of EMS-
induced heritable mutations in the microcrustacean Daphnia: on the prospect of forward
genetics. *Heredity* **127**, 535–545 (2021).

56. C. Hiruta, K. Kakui, K. E. Tollefsen, T. Iguchi, Targeted gene disruption by use of
CRISPR/Cas9 ribonucleoprotein complexes in the water flea Daphnia pulex. *Genes to Cells*
23, 494–502 (2018).

57. H. E. Wright, Coring tips. *Journal of Paleolimnology* **6**, 37–49 (1991).

58. S. S. Kilham, D. A. Kreeger, S. G. Lynn, C. E. Goulden, L. Herrera, COMBO: a defined
freshwater culture medium for algae and zooplankton. *Hydrobiologia* **377**, 147–159
(1998).

59. A. M. Bolger, M. Lohse, B. Usadel, Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence
data. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 2114–2120 (2014).

60. M. J. Wersebe, R. E. Sherman, P. D. Jeyasingh, L. J. Weider, The roles of recombination and
selection in shaping genomic divergence in an incipient ecological species complex.
Molecular Ecology **n/a** (2022).

61. H. Li, R. Durbin, Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler transform.
Bioinformatics **25**, 1754–1760 (2009).

62. H. Li, *et al.*, The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 2078–
2079 (2009).

63. P. Danecek, *et al.*, Twelve years of SAMtools and BCFtools. *GigaScience* **10**, 1–4 (2021).

64. C. C. Chang, *et al.*, Second-generation PLINK: Rising to the challenge of larger and richer
datasets. *GigaScience* **4**, 7 (2015).

65. T. Jombart, adegenet: a R package for the multivariate analysis of genetic markers.
Bioinformatics **24**, 1403–1405 (2008).

66. B. J. Knaus, N. J. Grünwald, vcfr: a package to manipulate and visualize variant call format
data in R. *Molecular Ecology Resources* **17**, 44–53 (2017).

67. T. Jombart, S. Devillard, F. Balloux, Discriminant analysis of principal components: A new
method for the analysis of genetically structured populations. *BMC Genetics* **11**, 94 (2010).

68. T. A. Joseph, I. Pe'er, Inference of Population Structure from Time-Series Genotype Data.
American Journal of Human Genetics **105**, 317–333 (2019).

69. J. Goudet, hierfstat, a package for r to compute and test hierarchical F-statistics.
Molecular Ecology Notes **5**, 184–186 (2005).

70. E. Santiago, *et al.*, Recent Demographic History Inferred by High-Resolution Analysis of
Linkage Disequilibrium. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **37**, 3642–3653 (2020).

71.   I. Novo, E. Santiago, A. Caballero, The estimates of effective population size based on
698   linkage disequilibrium are virtually unaffected by natural selection. *PLOS Genetics* **18**,
699   e1009764 (2022).

700   72.   K. E. Lotterhos, M. C. Whitlock, The relative power of genome scans to detect local
701   adaptation depends on sampling design and statistical method. *Molecular Ecology* **24**,
702   1031–1046 (2015).

703   73.   A. R. Quinlan, I. M. Hall, BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic
704   features. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 841–842 (2010).

705   74.   I. Kosmidis, E. C. Kenne Pagui, N. Sartori, Mean and median bias reduction in generalized
706   linear models. *Statistics and Computing* **30**, 43–59 (2020).

707
708
709
710

Figures and Tables

 Figure 1: Genetic structure, divergence, and distance across time in Tanners Lake. A) Principal
 Component Analysis (PCA) biplot of all clones color-coded according to the depth of recovery in
 the core (cm). PC1 and PC2 explain 7.6 % and 4.6 % of variance observed in the SNP data,
 respectively. Older clones (22-24 cm, 18-20 cm, & 16-18 cm) form a cluster distinct from more
 recent clones (LC, 2-4 cm, 6-8 cm and 10-12 cm). B) Discriminant Analysis of Principal
 Components (DAPC) bar plot showing the posterior probability of assignment to the three *a priori*
 defined temporal subpopulations. C) Observed Weir and Cockerham site-wise F_{st} estimates.
 Overall F_{st} was low (red vertical line) at only 0.0169. D) Pair-wise genetic chord distances
 between the three temporal subpopulations (TOP, MID and DEEP)

Figure 2: Genome-wide F_{st} Manhattan plots. Each panel represents a chromosome (1-12), each point designates a Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP), the horizontal line indicates genome-wide significance at $p = 0.05$. Points above the red line are statistical outliers. Chromosome lengths are normalized across panels.

725
726
727
728

Figure 3: Enriched Gene Ontology (GO) terms for molecular function. Enriched terms are set along the Y-axis. The length of each bar indicates the term's fold enrichment in the analyzed gene list, and the bar color denotes its False Discovery Rate (FDR) corrected p-value. In total, 59 terms were enriched among the 286 genes found near outlier SNPs. GO term mappings are provided in table S2.

Figure 4: 96-hour lethal concentration-50% assay (LC$_{50}$) estimates for clones evaluated in the
salinity tolerance experiments. Box plots indicate population medians and variances, each point is
a clone. Overall, non-parametric ANOVA (Kruskal-Wallis) indicated a significant main effect of
population. Post-hoc testing (pairwise Wilcoxon test) confirmed that the TOP population was
more tolerant than either the MID or DEEP populations, which were not different from one
another.