A single episode of sexual reproduction can prevent population extinction under multiple stressors

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Abstract

Recent studies have shown that organisms can adapt to changing environments through

rapid contemporary evolution. Although intraspecific genetic variation is necessary for

rapid evolution to occur, little is known how genetic variation has been produced and

maintained before rapid evolution. Here we show that a single episode of sexual

reproduction can produce a large amount of intraspecific trait variation that allows

population growth in degraded environments by laboratory experiments of a green alga,

Closterium peracerosum–strigosum–littorale complex. We observed population

dynamics of the alga under multiple stressors and confirmed that high salinity and low

pH decreased population growth rates. By comparing parental and their hybrid F_1

populations, we observed larger variation in population growth rates of F_1 populations

(i.e., transgressive segregation) when pH was low. Interestingly, even when parental

populations had negative growth rates, some F_1 populations showed positive growth

rates in severe environmental conditions due to the large variation in population growth.

By utilizing the recently obtained genomic information of the alga, we found greater

enrichment of genes with copy number variations in terms related to pH stress than

those to salt stress in a gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis. Our results suggest

that recombination and variation in the number of gene copies might produce large

genetic variation in the F_1 generation. This will be an important step toward a better

understanding of evolutionary rescue, where rapid evolution prevents population

extinction in changing environments.

Introduction

Traditionally, evolutionary biologists tended to think that evolution is a slow process (Darwin 1859), but studies in the last quarter century have shown that organisms can flexibly adapt to changing environments through rapid contemporary evolution (Thompson 1998, Hairston et al. 2005, Schoener 2011, Hendry 2017, Sanderson et al. 2022). One of the most important implications of this phenomenon is that rapid evolution may prevent population extinction due to environmental changes, a process called "evolutionary rescue" (reviewed in Kinnison and Hairston 2007, Alexander et al. 2014, Carlson et al. 2014, Bell 2017). Previous studies have demonstrated that rapid evolution can prevent population extinction in severe environments by using mathematical modeling (e.g., Gomulkiewicz and Holt 1995, Orr and Unckless 2014, Uecker and Hermisson 2016, Orive et al. 2017), laboratory experiments (e.g., Bell and Gonzalez 2009, Lachapelle and Bell 2012, Lindsey et al. 2013), and field observations (e.g., Vander Wal et al. 2013, Isanta-Navarro et al. 2021).

It is well known, however, that evolution has no foresight and organisms cannot "prepare" for novel environmental changes in the future by maintaining genetic variation. How is genetic variation for rapid evolution produced and maintained in populations before the environmental changes? In addition to *de novo* mutations and immigration, classical studies in evolutionary biology have revealed that sexual reproduction is an important source for genetic variation (Williams 1975, Maynard Smith 1978, Bell 1982, Hartfield and Keightley 2012), and several experimental studies have indeed demonstrated that sexual reproduction can promote evolutionary rescue (Lachapelle and Bell 2012, Petkovic and Colegrave 2019, 2023). However, previous studies tended to compare experimental population dynamics of lineages with and without sexual reproduction and showed that sexual reproduction can increase the speed of adaptive evolution (Kaltz and Bell 2002, Goddard et al. 2005, Morran et al. 2009, Gray and Goddard 2012, Lachapelle and Bell 2012, Petkovic and Colegrave 2019, 2023). Thus, it was not clear how a single event of sexual reproduction can affect the amount of variation and the resultant rapid evolution. Colegrave et al. (2002) examined the effects of a single sexual episode on growth in various carbon sources, but they did not consider evolutionary rescue.

Here we show how a single episode of sexual reproduction can produce a large amount of trait variation and it makes population growth possible in degraded

environments using laboratory experiments of a unicellular green alga, *Closterium*

peracerosum–strigosum–littorale complex (Fig. 1A). The alga is a freshwater species

belonging to the Zygnematophyceae, a group most closely related to land plants

(Wickett et al. 2014). It usually grows vegetatively (asexual reproduction), but it can

also mate with another cell and form a zygospore that has desiccation tolerance (sexual

reproduction: Fig. 1B). As we can easily induce sexual reproduction and obtain F_1

populations in laboratory experiments (Kawaguchi et al. 2023), we observed population

dynamics of the alga under multiple stressors: salinity and acidity (low pH). Freshwater

green algae go extinct under salinity stress (Lachapelle and Bell 2012, Petkovic and

Colegrave 2019, 2023), and some species of the genus *Closterium* has been reported to

prefer neutral or high pH water (Gough 1977, Renstrom 1979, Greenwood and Lowe

2006). By comparing parental and hybrid F_1 populations, we observed large variation in

population growth rates of F_1 populations under low pH. This can be seen as an

example of transgressive segregation, the formation of extreme phenotypes in hybrid

populations (Rieseberg et al. 1999). Interestingly, even under severe environmental

conditions when parental populations had negative growth rates, some F_1 populations

showed positive growth rates. This suggests the potential importance of sexual

reproduction for producing genetic variation within populations that can prevent

population extinction in deteriorating environments. We further found greater

enrichment of genes with copy number variations in terms related to pH stress than

those to salt stress in a gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis, and discuss the

potential importance of gene copy number variation and recombination for producing

genetic variation based on recently sequenced genomic information for the alga

(Kawaguchi et al. 2023).

Materials and Methods

Base Population and Culture Conditions

Two strains of *C. psl.* complex, NIES-64 and NIES-65, were obtained from the National

Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES), Environment Agency (Ibaraki, Japan). The

strains are genetically close and sympatric (Kawaguchi et al. 2023). They are

heterothallic strains and they can form zygospores between cells of two mating types:

mating type plus (mt$^+$: NIES-65) and mating type minus (mt$^-$: NIES-64) (Tsuchikane

and Sekimoto 2019, Kawaguchi et al. 2023, Ohtaka and Sekimoto 2023). They

recognize each other through the sex pheromones and then form zygotes (Fig. 1B:

Sekimoto et al. 1994, Nojiri et al. 1995). Through sexual reproduction, haploid parental

populations produce diploid zygospores, and then haploid offspring (F_1) populations

arise via meiosis and recombination (Fig. 1B).

The base population used for the experiments was cultured in a nitrogen-

supplemented medium (CA medium). The CA medium contains the following reagents

in 99.9 mL of distilled water: 2 mg of calcium nitrate tetrahydrate ($Ca(NO_3)_2 \cdot 4H_2O$),

10 mg of potassium nitrate (KNO_3), 5 mg of ammonium nitrate (NH_4NO_3), 3 mg of

sodium beta-glycerophosphate pentahydrate (β-Na2glycerophosphate $\cdot 5H_2O$), 2 mg of

magnesium sulfate heptahydrate ($MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$), 0.01 μg of vitamin B_{12}, 0.01 μg of

biotin, 1 μg of thiamine HCl, 0.1 mL of PIV metal solution, 0.1 mL of Fe (as EDTA; 1:1

molar), and 40 mg of HEPES. The PIV metal solution contains the following reagents in

100 mL of distilled water: 100 mg $Na_2EDTA \cdot 2H_2O$, 19.6 mg $FeCl_3 \cdot 6H_2O$, 3.6 mg

$MnCl_2 \cdot 4H_2O$, 1.04 mg $ZnCl_2$, 0.4 mg $CoCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ and 0.25 mg $Na_2MoO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$ (pH

7.2, 0% NaCl; Kasai et al. 2004). The culture conditions were maintained at 22 °C

under a 14 h light/10 h dark cycle. The light intensity was about 40 μmol photons m^{-2} s^{-1}.

Establishment of F_1 Populations

We grew cells from the parental strains, NIES-64 and NIES-65, vegetably for 10 days

and then they were washed two times with a nitrogen-depleted mating-inducing medium

(MI medium; Ichimura 1971). The MI medium contains the following reagents in 99.7

mL of distilled water: 4 mg of $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$, 5 mg of β-Na2glycerophosphate $\cdot 5H_2O$,

10 mg of $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$, 0.01 μg of vitamin B_{12}, 0.01 μg of Biotin, 1 μg of thiamine HCl,

0.3 mL of PIV metals, and 50 mg of Tris (hydroxymethyl) aminomethane. Subsequently,

the two strains were mixed and incubated in the MI medium at a concentration of

10,000 cells/ml for each strain. This mixture was exposed to 24 h continuous light for

10 days. The zygotes were then kept in the dark conditions for a week until they were

completely dried out (note that they have desiccation tolerance). After a week, we added

the CA medium to induce germination of the zygospores. Through these processes, we

established eight F_1 populations in total. Populations F_1-A through F_1-E germinated

from 1,000 zygospores each, whereas F_1-F germinated from 100 zygospores and F_1-G

and F_1-H germinated from 10,000 zygospores.

Culturing of Populations

The populations of NIES-64, NIES-65, and eight F_1 populations were cultured in six-

well plates at a density of 2,500 cells per 5 mL CA medium (Fig. S1). The culture

conditions varied across combinations of NaCl concentrations (0, 0. 05, 0.1, and 0.5%)

and pH levels (6.2, 7.2, and 8.2), resulting in a total of 12 different conditions. For

reference, 0.5% NaCl corresponds to 5g/L NaCl and ca. 0.0856 M whereas seawater is

about 3% NaCl (ca. 0.5 M). Each condition was replicated five times.

Measurement of Growth Rate

To calculate the population growth rate, algal biomass was measured on the first day

(day 0; the day the cells were introduced to each medium), as well as on days 1, 2, and 6,

using a Multiskan SkyHigh TCD (Thermo) at an absorbance of 684 nm as like previous

experimental studies on *Chlamydomonas* (Lachapelle and Bell 2012, Petkovic and

Colegrave 2019, 2023). As the pigment content variation of a cell may bias the

estimation of algal biomass, we used a wavelength where absorbance by the pigment is

small (Griffiths et al. 2011). We also checked the correlation between the absorbance

and the number of cells (Fig. S2). Before every measurement, the cells were agitated by

pipetting. To eliminate the effects of the background, the absorbance values of media

without cells were subtracted from all measurements.

The biomass dynamics was modeled using nonlinear least-squares fitting with

the minpack.lm package (Elzhov et al. 2016) in R (version 4.3.2) (R Core Team 2023)

as follows:

$N_t = N_0 e^{rt},$ (1)

where N_t represents the algal biomass (absorbance values) on day t, r is the biomass

growth rate, t denotes the number of days, and N_0 is the algal biomass on day 0.

Hereafter we use "population growth" to represent biomass growth dynamics (Fig. S3).

To investigate whether the variation in growth rates in the F_1 populations is

significantly larger than those expected from the parental (NIES-64 and NIES-65)

populations, we calculated a mean and a standard deviation (SD) in population growth

rates of the two parental populations. Then we sampled F_1 individuals from a normal

distribution with the calculated mean and SD. This is an expected distribution of F_1

growth rates, and we calculated a SD of the distribution. The simulation was repeated

10,000 times to construct a null distribution of the SDs. We then examined whether the

observed SDs of the F_1 population significantly deviated from these simulated

distributions (whether $p < 0.01$ or not).

Results

We first analyzed how salinity and low pH affect population growth rates, r. To simplify

our analyses, we focused on conditions with 0.05%, 0.1%, and 0.5% NaCl and pH 6.2

and 7.2 in the main text (Fig. 2). See Fig. S3 and S4 for the entire dataset including

conditions with 0% NaCl and/or pH 8.2. We found that both stresses decreased

population growth rates significantly (two-way ANOVA: salinity; $F_{2,291} = 101$, $p <$

0.001, pH; $F_{1,291} = 46.5$, $p < 0.001$, Fig. 2, Table S1). In addition, the effects of stressors

were not additive (salinity × pH interaction; $F_{2,291} = 7.24$, $p < 0.001$, Fig. 2, Table S1),

indicating the importance of considering two stressors simultaneously. The results from

Fig. 2 were consistent with those based on the entire dataset (Table S2). As expected,

we found that combining two types of stressors can further decrease population growth

rates: for example, most populations showed positive growth rates in the condition with

0.05% NaCl and pH 6.2 (Fig. 2A, S4B) as well as that with 0.1% NaCl and pH 7.2 (Fig.

2E, S4G), but many of them showed negative growth rates in the condition with 0.1%

NaCl and pH 6.2 (Fig. 2B, S4C). Growth responses of the two parental populations to

stressors can be sometimes similar (Fig. 2B-C), but sometimes different (Fig. 2E).

Under the 0.1% NaCl and pH 7.2 condition (Fig. 2E, S4G), the NIES-64 strain showed

a significantly higher growth rate than the NIES-65 strain (Student's t-test: t-value =

3.74, d.f. = 7, $p = 0.00726$).

Under the stressful conditions, some F_1 populations exhibited larger variation

in growth rates compared with the parental ones (Fig. 2). Specifically, under conditions

of pH 6.2 with 0%, 0.05%, 0.1%, and 0.5% NaCl; pH 7.2 with 0%; and pH 8.2 with

0.5% NaCl, the F_1 populations showed significantly greater standard deviations in

growth rates than those expected from parental populations ($p < 0.01$, Fig. 2A-C and

S4A-E and L, see Materials and Methods section for details). For example, in the

condition with 0.05% NaCl and pH 6.2, the two parental populations showed very

similar positive growth rates whereas the F_1 populations exhibited large variation of

growth rates: the variation is so large that some of them are even negative (Fig. 2A,

S4B). Furthermore, some F_1 populations demonstrated positive growth rates even under

severe stress conditions where the parental populations showed negative growth rates

(0.1% NaCl and pH 6.2, Fig. 2B, S4C). Even in the severest condition (0.5% NaCl and

pH 6.2), some F_1 populations showed positive growth rates (Fig. 2C, S4D). We also

found that F_1 populations germinated from larger number of zygospores exhibited

higher growth rates in two conditions (Fig. S5D, S5F), but it is not always the case (see

Fig. S5 for details).

Discussion

Sexual reproduction has been a central enigma in evolutionary biology because of the

many costs of sex (Williams 1975, Maynard Smith 1978, Bell 1982, Hartfield and

Keightley 2012, Lehtonen et al. 2012). Recent studies have shown that sexual

reproduction is important for organisms to adapt to rapidly changing environments

(Colegrave 2002, Kaltz and Bell 2002, Goddard et al. 2005, Morran et al. 2009, Becks

and Agrawal 2010, Gray and Goddard 2012) and for preventing population extinction

(Lachapelle and Bell 2012, Petkovic and Colegrave 2019, 2023), but it was not clear

whether a single episode of sexual reproduction can produce large amount of genetic

variation. By using the unicellular green alga, *Closterium peracerosum–strigosum–*

littorale complex, we have shown large variation in population growth rates of F_1

populations (Fig. 2, S4). Even when parental populations show negative growth rates,

some F_1 populations show positive growth rates in severe environmental conditions

(e.g., the condition with 0.1% NaCl and pH 6.2, Fig. 2B, S4C). Our results indicate that,

although asexual reproduction is more efficient in population growth, sexual

reproduction is important for growth in stressful environments and for evolutionary

rescue.

Theory suggests that recombination due to sexual reproduction has two

antagonistic effects on evolutionary rescue: it generates and breaks up favorable gene

combinations (Uecker and Hermisson 2016, Orive et al. 2017). The former is related to

the Fisher-Muller hypothesis where sexual recombination can combine beneficial alleles

into the same genome (Fisher 1930, Muller 1932). Our results are consistent with the

two classical ideas: sexual reproduction tended to increase the variance in population

growth rates, and it resulted in positive (or negative) growth of some F_1 populations

even when their parental populations showed negative (or positive) growth (Fig. 2, S4).

Genome information recently obtained for this algal species (*C. psl.* complex) has

revealed that approximately 30% of the genes in the parental strains showed copy

number differentiation (Kawaguchi et al. 2023). Variation in the number of gene copies

may produce large variation in the F_1 generation through recombination (Hastings et al.

2009). Thus, it will be interesting to carefully consider how genetic architecture,

including structural variation, affects evolutionary rescue in future studies

(Gomulkiewicz et al. 2010, Yamamichi 2022).

When we regard population growth rate as a quantitative trait, it is possible to

consider our results as an example of transgressive segregation (Rieseberg et al. 1999).

Previous studies tended to focus on its effects on macroevolution such as speciation and

adaptive radiation (e.g., Kagawa and Takimoto 2018), but our results suggest that it may

affect rapid contemporary evolution as well as evolutionary rescue. Kawaguchi et al.

(2023) estimated the genome sizes of the F_1 populations between NIES-64 and NIES-65

and found that they were intermediate values between those of their parental

populations (Fig. 3a of Kawaguchi et al. 2023). This is consistent with the results on

population growth rates in, for example, Fig. 2E, but not consistent with the results

under low pH (Fig. 2A-C). Thus, it will be important to explore causes of the difference

between the estimated genome size and population growth rates in future studies. In this

context, it will be helpful to conduct linkage mapping to understand which genes are

responsible for population growth rates. Green algae are suitable as they grow as

haploids, and thus it should be easier to detect genes responsible for a quantitative trait

without considering allelic dominance.

We observed that the green alga grew very well in high pH medium (when pH

was 8.2, Fig. S3, S4), which is consistent with previous studies on some species of the

genus *Closterium* (Gough 1977, Renstrom 1979, Greenwood and Lowe 2006). On the

other hand, low pH reduced growth rates significantly as expected (when pH was 6.2,

Fig. 2, S3, S4). Interestingly, the F_1 populations tended to have larger variation in

growth rates in low pH environments (Fig. 2A-C). This may be seen as an example of

cryptic genetic variation, which has little or no effect on phenotype normally but

generates phenotypic variation under novel conditions (Paaby and Rockman 2014).

Previous studies on *Chlamydomonas* species have suggested that genes encoding heat-
shock proteins and plasma membrane H^+-ATPase were attributable to adaptation to low
pH environments (Gerloff-Elias et al. 2006, Hirooka et al. 2017). In the genus
Klebsormidium, belonging to streptophyte algae (as like *Closterium*), it has been
demonstrated that the ability to adapt to low pH conditions has evolved multiple times
independently (Škaloud et al. 2014). These previous studies, combined with our
findings, imply that adaptation to low pH environments may be related to cryptic
genetic variation that can promote rapid adaptation.
284    Under high salt stress, we also observed a notable reduction in population
growth rate (Fig. 2, S3, S4). Salt is known to impose osmotic and oxidative stresses by
disrupting the homeostasis of ions and inhibits growth by decreasing the rates of
photosynthesis (Husic and Tolbert 1986, Neelam and Subramanyam 2013) and promote
population extinction in *Chlamydomonas* (Lachapelle and Bell 2012, Petkovic and
Colegrave 2019, 2023). However, unlike low pH, salt stress alone did not result in
increased variation in growth rates of F_1 populations (Fig. 2D-F). Our additional
analyses suggest that the large variation observed in the F_1 populations under low pH
may be attributed to copy number variation between parental strains. Previous studies
have reported that there was a difference in chromosome numbers between the parental
strains NIES-64 and NIES-65, and approximately 30% of genes exhibited variations in
copy number (Kawaguchi et al. 2023, Tsuchikane et al. in press). Following the
methodology of Kawaguchi et al. (2023), our Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis
revealed greater enrichment of genes with copy number variations in terms related to
pH stress than those to salt stress (see Fig. S6 for more details). Notably, the term
"regulation of pH" (GO:0006885) showed significant enrichment ($p = 0.0339$). It
suggests that the copy number variation contributes to the greater variance observed in
F_1 populations under low pH conditions. Further analysis comparing genes involving in
pH and salt stress responses would be valuable, providing insights into how genetic
structures, environmental stressors, and recombination contribute to transgressive
segregation and promote evolutionary rescue.
305    While previous studies tended to focus on a single environmental factor to
understand its deteriorating effect on population growth and evolutionary rescue
(Kinnison and Hairston 2007, Alexander et al. 2014, Carlson et al. 2014, Bell 2017),
recent studies proposed that multiple stressors are simultaneously affecting ecosystem

dynamics in the Anthropocene (Orr et al. 2020). Therefore, it will be important to

consider interacting multiple stressors in future studies on evolutionary rescue to deepen

our understanding on conservation of endangered species as well as management of

target species for hunting and fisheries. For archiving this goal, it will be essential to

utilize genome information to reveal the genetic architecture underlying adaptation. If

there are two or more stresses, more loci will affect phenotypic adaptation to the

degraded environments, and it will further make sexual recombination important for

producing combinations better adapted to the environmental changes.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: MY and YWK; Experiments and data analyses: YWK; Funding

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YWK.

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Conflict of interest

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Figures

Fig. 1. Green alga, *Closterium peracerosum–strigosum–littorale* complex, and its life

cycle.

(A) A cell of *C. psl.* complex (NIES-65). (B) The life cycle of *C. psl.* complex, with

mating types "mt$^+$" (mating type plus) and "mt$^-$" (mating type minus). Chromosomes

from parental strains, mt$^-$ and mt$^+$, are colored by orange and red, respectively. The

symbols "n" and "2n" denote haploid and diploid cells, respectively. Haploid cells

proliferate via vegetative reproduction, whereas sexual reproduction between different

mating types produces diploid zygospores. Then, haploid cells (F$_1$) were produced from

the diploid zygospores through meiosis.

Fig. 2. Population growth rates under each stress condition.

Blue and orange points (and boxplots) denote parental (NIES-64 and NIES-65) and F_1 populations, respectively. Bars and boxes represent the median and interquartile range, respectively. Whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range. A, D: 0.05% NaCl. B, E: 0.1% NaCl. C, F: 0.5% NaCl. A-C: pH 6.2. D-F: pH 7.2. Under condition marked with an asterisk (A, B, C), the F_1 populations showed significantly larger variation in growth rates than the parental ones ($p < 0.01$). See Fig. S3 and S4 for more details and Fig. S5 for the effects of the founder population size.