# Polyandry promotes successful colonisation in novel thermal environments

Rebecca Lewis\*, Michael D. Pointer\*, Lucy Friend, Ramakrishnan Vasudeva, James Bemrose, Mathew J.G. Gage and Lewis G. Spurgin\*\*

School of Biological Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich Research Park, United Kingdom

\* These authors contributed equally to this work

\*\* **Correspondence**: [L.Spurgin@uea.ac.uk](mailto:L.Spurgin@uea.ac.uk)

## Abstract

It is increasingly recognised that polyandry and sexual selection may enable successful colonisation of novel environments. In addition to the benefits provided by sexual selection, polyandry can promote successful colonisation through minimising the impact of mating with unsuitable males, and by reducing levels of inbreeding in founder populations. Here we show that polyandry provides substantial benefits in the colonisation of novel, and harsh, thermal environments. Using colonisation experiments with the model beetle *Tribolium castaneum*, we founded populations at increased temperature using either singly or doubly mated females, and followed population dynamics for ten generations. We found that extinction rates were significantly lower (9%) in polyandrous-founded populations compared to monogamous-founded populations (34%). Further, we found significant and consistently higher population sizes in polyandrous compared to monogamous-founded populations. Importantly, we identified distinct short-term and delayed benefits of multiple mating for population persistence and fitness, suggesting that polyandry acts to both buffer against mating with infertile males, and reduce inbreeding depression. Our results therefore suggest that polyandry provides substantial benefits for colonising populations, on top of those provided by sexual selection.

**Key words:** colonisation, extinction, population dynamics, sexual selection, Tribolium

## Introduction

Global heating, when combined with other anthropogenic pressures, is placing a range of ecological and evolutionary stresses on wild populations [1,2]. In particular, a combination of habitat clearance and changing temperatures will result in populations simultaneously going through bottlenecks, while needing to respond to novel thermal regimes [3]. Understanding the behavioural, ecological, and genetic processes by which bottlenecked populations respond to novel thermal environments is therefore of relevance to understanding - and ultimately predicting - organismal responses to global warming [4]. Disentangling these processes requires a combination of laboratory and field research at a wide range of organisational levels [5].

One way that populations may be buffered against demographic and environmental change is through multiple mating, or polyandry [6,7]. In addition to the direct benefits that polyandry may provide to females and their offspring (e.g. increased resources from males) [8], multiple mating can provide genetic benefits [9]. Polyandry enables sexual selection, in which females may provide genetic benefits to their descendants through biasing paternity towards high-quality males [10]. There are multiple mechanisms by which sexual selection may improve population fitness [11], including offspring inheriting either “good” or “compatible” genes as a result of female mate-choice resulting in increased fitness [12], or through mate choice for increased genetic diversity in offspring, which may increase adaptability to fluctuating environments [13].

Polyandry may also provide benefits to individuals and populations even in the absence of sexual selection. The best studied mechanism through which this may occur is bet-hedging [14]. If mate-choice is unreliable and there is variance in male fitness, indiscriminate mating with more than one male may be an effective strategy. It is still debated whether the fitness gains derived from bet-hedging are sufficient to drive the evolution of polyandry [15]. However, bet-hedging may play an important role in the dynamics of small colonisinig populations, in which the consequences of mating with a single, low-quality male are expected to be particular severe [16].

Finally, polyandry may enable colonisation of new environments through short-term reductions in inbreeding. Cornell and Tregenza [17] developed a model showing that because offspring of polyandrous females contain half-sibs, inbreeding depression in future generations will be reduced, leading to greater probability of colonisation success. This theory received empirical support in a recent study of seed beetles (*Callosobruchus maculatus*), in which populations founded by polyandrous females had increased fitness after five generations compared to monogamous females [18]. Interestingly, despite the benefits of polyandry for individual fitness, Power and Holman [18] found no effect of mating treatment on extinction rates, which were low throughout the experiment. It is therefore not yet known to how much of a benefit polyandry may provide in terms of establishment probability in harsh environments. Given that inbreeding depression is most severe in poor environmental conditions [19], this is an important area for future investigation.

The red flour beetle *Tribolium castaneum* is an ideal model to test how polyandry influences colonisation success in a new environment. A pest of stored products, the ecology of *T. castaneum* is characterised by colonisation of empty habitats (e.g grain stores), presumably often by a small number of founders [20]. Experimental studies in this species have shown that founder effects have pronounced costs as a result of genetic and demographic effects, and that colonising populations are able to rapidly adapt to novel environments [21,22]. Further, this species is highly promiscuous and experimental evolution studies have shown that a history of sexual selection results in decreased risk of extinction under inbreeding, and in improved invasion of competitor populations [23,24]. However, the short-term benefits of polyandry for colonisation success have not been studied.

The aim of this study is to test how polyandry affects colonisation dynamics in a novel thermal environment. We placed singly and doubly mated *T. castaneum* females into an empty habitat at high temperature, and allowed populations to grow for ten generations. We first tested the hypotheses that, i) populations founded from polyandrous females were less likely to go extinct, and ii) polyandrous populations exhibited larger population sizes due to increased reproductive fitness. We use these findings to determine how mating strategy and inbreeding interact to affect colonisation dynamics in novel thermal environments.

## Materials and Methods

#### Experimental protocols

All beetles were of our Krakow Super-strain (KSS) [25] and were maintained both before and throughout the experiment on a fodder medium consisting of 90% organic white flour, 10% brewer’s yeast topped with a thin layer of oats for traction.

Founding females and their mates were reared and mated under standard conditions of 30C and 60% humidity. Matings were carried out in 5 cm Petri dishes containing ~20 ml fodder. All females received two matings lasting 24 hours each. In the first round of matings, random pairs of virgin females and virgin males (aged ~7 days post-eclosion) were combined. In the second round of matings, females from the monogamous treatment were re-mated to the same male, who was removed from the dish before being replaced. Females from the polyandrous treatment were mated to a second male, with males being cycled within groups of five females.

Using the above mating treatments, we established populations in a novel thermal environment for the remainder of the experiment. Specifically, after 48 hours of mating with either one or two males, females were transferred to a population container (100 ml PVC screw-cap containers, with the caps pierced for ventilation, and containing 70 ml fodder) and left to oviposit for 7 days at 38C, after which they were removed and the offspring left to develop. This temperature is at the upper limit at which *T. castaneum* can reproduce, and constitutes a highly stressful environment [25]. All population containers post-mating were marked only with a randomised ID number so that experimental treatment was unknown by researchers during subsequent handling. Thirty-five days after females were removed, the first generation of offspring were separated from the fodder by sieving, the fodder was discarded and the container and sieve cleaned with ethanol. The number of live adults was counted and placed into fresh fodder to seed the next generation. If >100 individuals were present, 100 were retained to mate in the next generation and the remainder discarded after counting (in order to minimise density-dependent effects). This new generation of adults was allowed to mate and lay on the fresh fodder for seven days, after which adults were removed by sieving and the offspring again left to develop for 35 days. This process was repeated for 10 generations, all at 38C.

#### Statistical analyses

All analyses were carried out using R version 3.3.3 [26]. We separately modeled how the experimental mating treatment affected i) the probability of extinction over ten generations, and ii) changes in population size over the same period. For the extinction analysis, we used Cox proportional hazards models, implemented in the survival package [27] in R. Because some populations went extinct in the first generation as a result of non-genetic processes (i.e. due to a failure to mate/conceive), we ran the survival models both with and without populations that went extinct in the first generation.

To model how population size changed over time, we used generalised linear mixed models, implemented using the glmmADMB package [28] in R. For this analysis we only included population counts above zero. Offspring number per generation was modeled as a response variable with a negative binomial error distribution, and generation and experimental treatment (monogamous vs polyandrous founder) were fitted as explanatory variables. To account for potential non-linear changes in population size over time, we constructed three models, with generation fitted as i) a continuous variable, ii) a fixed factor and iii) a third order polynomial. For all models, population ID was fitted as a random effect. Finally, we tested for a difference in population size between experimental treatments in the first and last generation, using two separate generalized linear models (as above but with no random effects), implemented using the MASS package [29] in R.

## Results

We tracked a total of 53 singly-mated and 55 doubly-mated *T. castaneum* populations in a novel thermal environmental until extinction, or for up to 10 generations. Overall dynamics of the populations are given in Figure 1; though there was an overall trend for increasing population size, there were substantial fluctuations over generations, with decreases in population size between generations three and four, and between generations six and seven (Fig. 1). Despite this, we observed a clear and consistent trend of larger adult population size in populations founded by polyandrous compared to monogamous females (Fig. 1).

For statistical comparison of our experimental treatments, we separately tested for differences extinction rates (i.e. did time to extinction differ between treatments), and population size changes over time. In the first generation, six populations founded by singly-mated females went extinct (11%), while no populations founded by doubly-mated females went extinct. By generation ten, 18 monogamous populations (34%) and five polyandrous populations (9%) were extinct (Fig. 2A). The effect of treatment on time to extinction was significant (Cox proportional hazards; hazard ratio = 0.256; 95% CIs = 0.102, 0.642; = 0.004). This effect remained significant after removal of populations that went extinct in the first generation (hazard ratio = 0.361; 95% CIs = 0.137, 0.950; = 0.039).

We next tested how founder mating regime affected fitness and population trajectories. Excluding extinctions, we found no significant difference in the number of offspring produced by singly or doubly-mated females in the first generation (GLM, = 0.503). Considering all generations, however, we found that populations founded from polyandrous females had higher overall population sizes than populations founded by monogamous females (Fig. 2B, Table 1). We also found that, when generation modeled as a continuous variable, population size increased over time, but that there was no interaction between treatment and generation (Fig. 2B, Table 1). The effect of experimental treatment was also significant when generation was modeled as a fixed factor ( = 0.037), and as a third-order polynomial ( = 0.018). Finally, considering only populations that survived all ten generations, population size in polyandrous-founded populations in generation ten was significantly higher in monogamous-founded populations (GLM, = 0.004).

## Discussion

The costs of mating with multiple males are likely to outweigh any direct benefits gained, and such the evolution and maintenance of polyandry are generally viewed as an evolutionary puzzle [30]. Potential indirect benefits of polyandry include i) enabling sexual selection, ii) enabling bet-hedging, and iii) reducing inbreeding load. Previous research using the *T. castaneum* model has found that long-term sexual selection results in increased population fitness [23,24]. Here we show that polyandry has substantial benefits in colonising populations, even when the opportunity for sexual selection is reduced.

Perhaps the best-studied way in which females can increase the fitness of their offspring through polyandry is through bet-hedging [16]. By mating with multiple males, females may reduce the risk of being fertilised by an unsuitable male, and therefore increase offspring fitness. Bet-hedging is likely to be most beneficial when i) there is a substantial proportion of highly unsuitable (e.g. infertile) males in the population, and ii) the population is small [16]. In our study, populations were founded by a single female, and as such there is clear potential for polyandry to provide benefits. We found that 11% of singly-mated females produced no offspring in the first generation, while all doubly-mated females produced offspring. This is consistent with a situation in which a failure to produce offspring is the result of male infertility, under which we would only have expected 1.28% of random pairs of males to both be infertile. Despite the obvious potential for polyandry to benefit colonising populations through guarding against male infertility, there is limited empirical evidence supporting this hypothesis [31]. The mating conditions we imposed were short and artificial, and studies of natural populations are required. Nevertheless, given the likely high levels of make infertility in the wild (as high as 63% in insects [32]), it is likely that multiple mating is an important mechanism for increasing short-term establishment probability in newly-colonised populations.

A second mechanism through which polyandry can benefit colonising populations in the absence of sexual selection is through reducing levels of inbreeding in subsequent generations [17]. Consistent with this hypothesis, we found significantly lower population sizes and higher extinction rates in monogamous-founded populations over the full duration of our experiment. Population sizes fluctuated substantially over the course of our experiment, likely a result of density-dependent processes which are well-documented in *T. castaneum* [33]. Though the higher population sizes in polyandrous-founded populations were generally consistent over time, it is notable that the difference between treatments was highest when population sizes were high (i.e. in generations 2,3,8 and 9), and lowest when population sizes were reduced (i.e. generations 4 and 7). It is possible that a bet-hedging like scenario could explain these longer-term benefits of polyandry if there was substantial variation in fitness among fertile males, as multiple-mating would increase the chances of mating with at least one suitable make [16]. However, this is unlikely to explain our results, as found no difference in population size between treatments in the first generation, but instead only when considering later generations. Similarly, if post-copulatpry sexual selection could explain some of the differences observed between our experimental treatments, we would expect to observe at least some differences in offspring fitness in the first generation. We therefore suggest that in *T. castaneum* and similar systems, polyandry benefits colonising populations through i) guarding against male infertility and enabling establishment, and ii) reducing inbreeding and enabling longer-term population persistence.

Our results are broadly consistent with a recent study in *C. maculatus*, in which the increased fitness in polyandrous-founded populations were observed in F4 and F5, but not F1-F3, generations [18]. It is worth noting that, unlike in our study, Power and Holman [18] found no effect of mating treatment on extinction, likely because of the environment was relatively benign, or because there was insufficient time for extinctions to occur. Here, through a longer-term experiment, we thus demonstrate that the benefits can persist for substantial periods of time, and show that they are likely to be important for populations colonising novel thermal environments.

Finally, it is worth noting that our study does not aim to address whether the benefits gained from either bet-hedging or inbreeding avoidance are sufficient to explain the evolution of polyandry [11,17]. Rather, we suggest that in the specific context of colonising novel environments, the benefits of these processes are likely to be substantial [16]. Future climate change is expected to result in species shifting their ranges and undergoing changes in population size, and there is increasing realisation that evolutionary processes need to be incorporated into predictive models of population and species responses to climate change [34]. The multiple, interacting benefits of polyandry should certainly be incorporated into such models in order to improve predictive power.

## Acknowledgements

This research was funded by a BBSRC Future Leader fellowship to LGS (BB/N011759/1), a UEA-funded PhD studentship to RL, a BBSRC NRP DTP funded PhD studentship to MDP and a NERC EnvEast studentship to JB.

## References

1. Hoffmann AA, Sgrò CM. Climate change and evolutionary adaptation. Nature. nature.com; 2011;470: 479–485.

2. Pecl GT, Araújo MB, Bell JD, Blanchard J, Bonebrake TC, Chen I-C, et al. Biodiversity redistribution under climate change: Impacts on ecosystems and human well-being. Science. 2017;355.

3. Hill JK, Griffiths HM, Thomas CD. Climate change and evolutionary adaptations at species’ range margins. Annu Rev Entomol. 2011;56: 143–159.

4. Hoelzel AR. Looking backwards to look forwards: Conservation genetics in a changing world. Conserv Genet. 2010;11: 655–660.

5. Scheffers BR, De Meester L, Bridge TCL, Hoffmann AA, Pandolfi JM, Corlett RT, et al. The broad footprint of climate change from genes to biomes to people. Science. 2016;354.

6. Candolin U, Heuschele J. Is sexual selection beneficial during adaptation to environmental change? Trends Ecol Evol. 2008;23: 446–452.

7. Parrett JM, Knell RJ. The effect of sexual selection on adaptation and extinction under increasing temperatures. Proc Biol Sci. 2018;285.

8. Fedorka KM, Mousseau TA. Material and genetic benefits of female multiple mating and polyandry. Anim Behav. 2002;64: 361–367.

9. Zeh JA, Zeh DW. Reproductive mode and the genetic benefits of polyandry. Anim Behav. 2001;61: 1051–1063.

10. Andersson M, Iwasa Y. Sexual selection. Trends Ecol Evol. 1996;11: 53–58.

11. Yasui Y. The “genetic benefits” of female multiple mating reconsidered. Trends Ecol Evol. 1998;13: 246–250.

12. Neff BD, Pitcher TE. Genetic quality and sexual selection: An integrated framework for good genes and compatible genes. Mol Ecol. 2005;14: 19–38.

13. Garcia-Gonzalez F, Yasui Y, Evans JP. Mating portfolios: Bet-hedging, sexual selection and female multiple mating. Proc Biol Sci. 2015;282: 20141525.

14. Watson PJ. Multiple paternity as genetic bet-hedging in female sierra dome spiders, linyphia litigiosa (linyphiidae). Anim Behav. 1991;41: 343–360.

15. Holman L. Bet hedging via multiple mating: A meta-analysis. Evolution. 2016;70: 62–71.

16. Yasui Y, Garcia-Gonzalez F. Bet-hedging as a mechanism for the evolution of polyandry, revisited. Evolution. 2016;70: 385–397.

17. Cornell SJ, Tregenza T. A new theory for the evolution of polyandry as a means of inbreeding avoidance. Proc Biol Sci. 2007;274: 2873–2879.

18. Power DJ, Holman L. Polyandrous females found fitter populations. J Evol Biol. 2014;27: 1948–1955.

19. Armbruster P, Reed DH. Inbreeding depression in benign and stressful environments. Heredity. 2005;95: 235–242.

20. Dawson PS. Life history strategy and evolutionary history of tribolium flour beetles. Evolution. [Society for the Study of Evolution, Wiley]; 1977;31: 226–229.

21. Szűcs M, Melbourne BA, Tuff T, Hufbauer RA. The roles of demography and genetics in the early stages of colonization. Proc Biol Sci. 2014;281.

22. Szűcs M, Melbourne BA, Tuff T, Weiss-Lehman C, Hufbauer RA. Genetic and demographic founder effects have long-term fitness consequences for colonising populations. Ecol Lett. 2017;20: 436–444.

23. Lumley AJ, Michalczyk Ł, Kitson JJN, Spurgin LG, Morrison CA, Godwin JL, et al. Sexual selection protects against extinction. Nature. 2015;522: 470–473.

24. Godwin JL, Spurgin LG, Michalczyk Ł, Martin OY, Lumley AJ, Chapman T, et al. Lineages evolved under stronger sexual selection show superior ability to invade conspecific competitor populations. Evol Lett. 2018;2: 511–523.

25. Dickinson M. The impacts of heat-wave conditions on reproduction in a model insect, tribolium castaneum. PhD thesis, University of East Anglia; ueaeprints.uea.ac.uk. 2018.

26. Development Core Team RR. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R foundation for statistical computing …; 2011;

27. Therneau TM. A package for survival analysis in s [Internet]. 2015. Available: <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=survival>

28. Fournier DA, Skaug HJ, Ancheta J, Ianelli J, Magnusson A, Maunder M, et al. AD Model Builder: Using automatic differentiation for statistical inference of highly parameterized complex nonlinear models. Optim Methods Softw. 2012;27: 233–249.

29. Venables WN, Ripley BD. Modern applied statistics with s [Internet]. Fourth. New York: Springer; 2002. Available: <http://www.stats.ox.ac.uk/pub/MASS4>

30. Simmons LW. The evolution of polyandry: Sperm competition, sperm selection, and offspring viability. Annu Rev Ecol Evol Syst. Annual Reviews; 2005;36: 125–146.

31. Sutter A, Travers LM, Oku K, L. Delaney K, J. Store S, Price TAR, et al. Flexible polyandry in female flies is an adaptive response to infertile males. Behav Ecol. Narnia; 2019;30: 1715–1724.

32. Garcı'a‐González F. Infertile matings and sperm competition: The effect of “nonsperm representation” on intraspecific variation in sperm precedence patterns. Am Nat. The University of Chicago Press; 2004;164: 457–472.

33. Mertz DB. The tribolium model and the mathematics of population growth. Annu Rev Ecol Syst. Annual Reviews; 1972;3: 51–78.

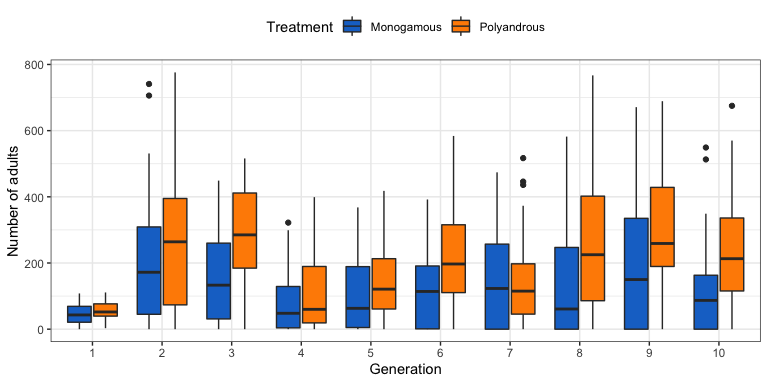
34. Lavergne S, Mouquet N, Thuiller W, Ronce O. Biodiversity and climate change: Integrating evolutionary and ecological responses of species and communities. Annu Rev Ecol Evol Syst. Annual Reviews; 2010;41: 321–350.

## Tables and Figures

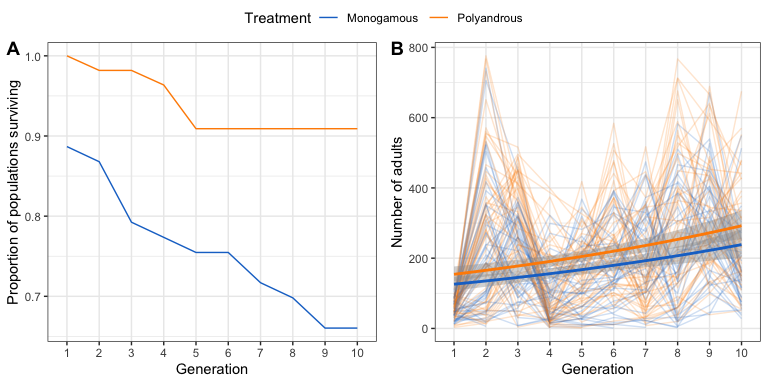
**Table 1** Summary of results from a generalised linear mixed model of population dynamics of experimental *T. castaneum* populations founded from monogamous or polyandrous females. Here, the ‘treatment’ estimate refers to the effect of polyandrous relative to monogamous females, and generation was modeled as a linear effect. Population ID was modeled as a random effect (Var = 0.12, SD = 0.35).

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Estimate | SE | P |
| (Intercept) | 4.716 | 0.084 | < 0.001 |
| Treatment | 0.227 | 0.090 | 0.012 |
| Generation | 0.065 | 0.010 | < 0.001 |
| Treatment x Generation | 0.005 | 0.020 | 0.815 |

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  |  |  |  |



**Figure 1** Colonisation dynamics of experimental *T. castaneum* populations founded from singly-mated (monogamous) or doubly-mated (polyandrous) females.



**Figure 2** Extinction and population dynamics of experimental *T. castaneum* populations founded from singly-mated (monogamous) or doubly-mated (polyandrous) females. **A** Proportion of populations surviving over time; **B** number of adults in experimental populations. In **B**, thin lines represent individual populations, while the thick lines represent fitted values from a negative-binomial GLM.