

1 Predicting rapid adaptation in time from adaptation in space: a 30-year field 2 experiment in marine snails

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19 **Abstract:** Predicting the outcomes of adaptation is a major goal of evolutionary biology. When
20 temporal changes in the environment mirror spatial gradients, it opens up the potential for
21 predicting the course of adaptive evolution over time based on patterns of spatial genetic and
22 phenotypic variation. We assessed this approach in a 30-year transplant experiment in the marine
23 snail *Littorina saxatilis*. In 1992, snails were transplanted from a predation-dominated
24 environment to one dominated by wave action. Based on spatial patterns, we predicted
25 transitions in shell size and morphology, allele frequencies at positions throughout the genome,
26 and chromosomal rearrangement frequencies. Observed changes closely agreed with predictions.
27 Hence, transformation can be both dramatic and rapid, and predicted from knowledge of the
28 phenotypic and genetic variation among populations.

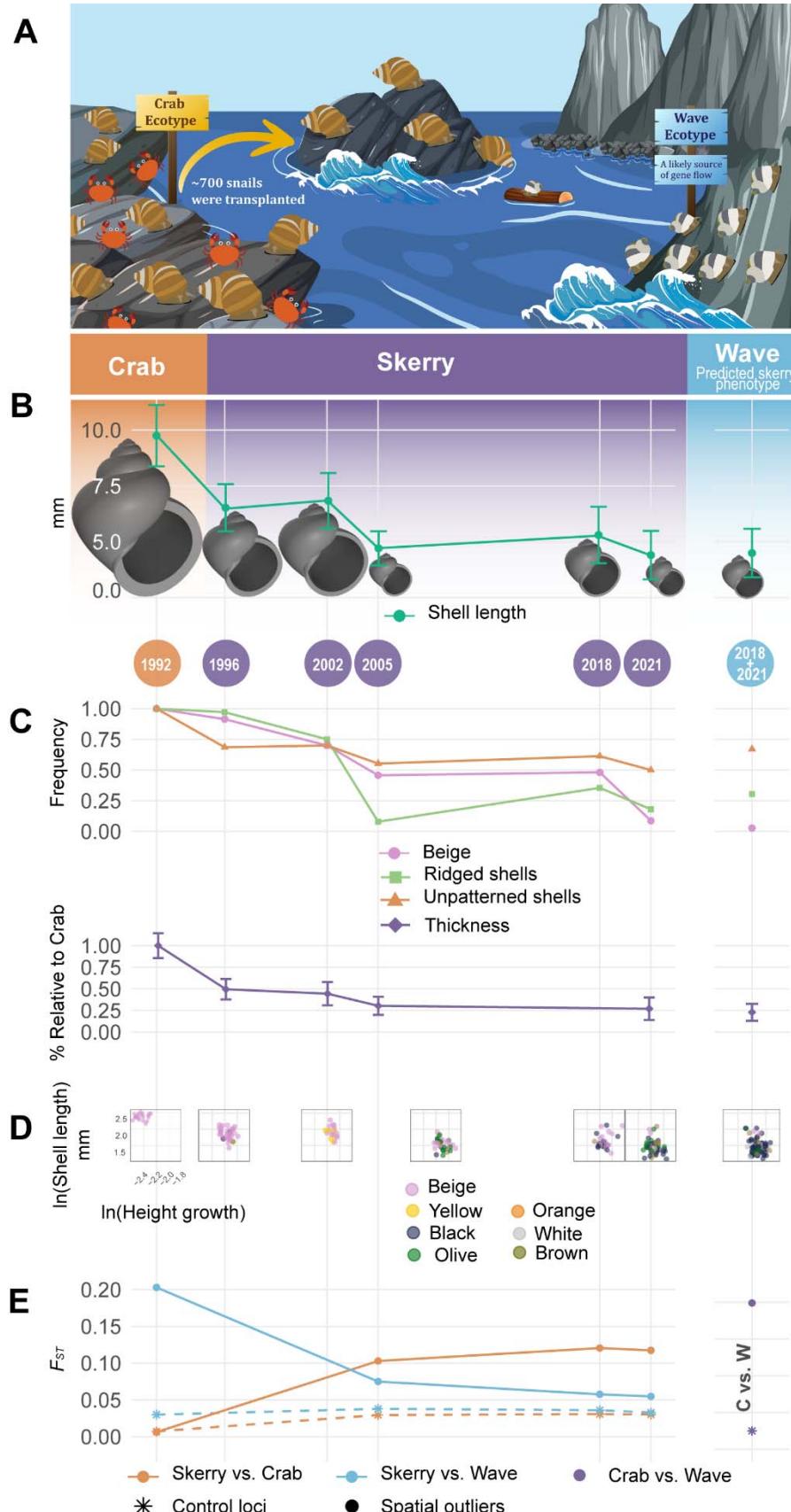
29 **Main text:** Populations can sometimes adapt rapidly to sudden environmental shifts, even within
30 a few dozen generations (1, 2). For many populations, rapid adaptation would be necessary to
31 persist in the face of anthropogenic environmental change (e.g. climate change, habitat
32 fragmentation, pollution, etc.). However, we are far from being able to predict whether and how
33 fast a population will adapt, and which phenotypic and genetic changes will occur (3). We
34 urgently need to understand whether adaptation is possible and how rapid it can be (4).

35 Adaptation relies on genetic variation, including both variation at individual base positions (5)
36 and larger structural variants. The later include chromosomal inversions that generate large gene
37 blocks that are inherited together and can simultaneously affect multiple traits (6, 7). Rapid
38 adaptation particularly depends on variation already present within a species, because time is not
39 sufficient to accumulate new beneficial mutations, unless population sizes are very large (8, 9) or
40 generation times are very short (10).

41 The reliance of rapid adaptation on pre-existing variation suggests that it might be possible to
42 predict future evolutionary change from knowledge about current variation (11). In particular,
43 many temporal environmental changes, such as temperature increase, resemble a current pattern
44 in space (e.g. a spatial temperature gradient). In this case, for a focal population experiencing an
45 environmental change, adaptive evolution is likely to rely on genetic variation that has entered
46 the population via past or on-going gene flow from a population that has already adapted to a
47 similar environment. This information is often available from studies on phenotype-environment
48 and genotype-environment associations. Can this knowledge on adaptive variation in space be
49 used to predict how a population will respond over time after an environmental change? This
50 principle is implicit in much conservation genetics work (12–14), but has rarely been explicitly
51 tested. From a practical viewpoint, predictability would mean that population responses to
52 environmental change can be anticipated and management efforts adjusted accordingly (15). In
53 basic research, predictability provides a test of the current understanding of a system: for
54 example, if loci contributing to divergence between environments in space have been identified
55 correctly, they should respond in a predictable way to changing selection pressures in time.

56 The marine snail *Littorina saxatilis* is a model system in which divergent adaptation in space is
57 exceptionally well-documented (16–18). Spatial variation and local adaptation to rocky shore
58 environments are particularly obvious in the “Wave” and “Crab” ecotypes that have been
59 intensively studied in Sweden, UK and Spain. The ecotypes originated repeatedly in different
60 locations (17), in response to the selective pressures of wave action (19) and crab predation (20)
61 on wave-exposed rocks and crab-rich parts of shores, respectively (16, 21) (Figure 1A). Adaptive
62 variation in space in this system has been studied on three levels. At the phenotypic level, the
63 ecotypes differ in traits like size, shell shape, shell colour, and behaviour (16, 21, 22). For
64 example, the Wave ecotype is small, has a thin shell that often shows Wave-specific colours and

65 patterns, a large and rounded aperture, and bold behaviour, while the Crab ecotype is large, has a
66 thick shell without patterns, a relatively smaller and more elongated aperture, and wary
67 behaviour (Figure 1B, Figure S1D). At the level of individual SNPs (single-nucleotide
68 polymorphisms), highly differentiated loci likely contributing to adaptation or linked to adaptive
69 loci are scattered across the whole genome (18, 23). At the level of large chromosomal
70 rearrangements, several inversions differ in frequency between ecotypes (24–26) and explain
71 variation in divergent traits between ecotypes (23, 26). These features all change over local
72 contact zones between ecotypes and most differences are paralleled over large geographic areas
73 (27). These repeated phenotype-environment and genotype-environment associations strongly
74 suggest a role of divergent selection. Hence, we tested whether the observed spatial associations
75 allow us to predict changes in time by studying evolution after an immediate environmental
76 change in real time.



78 **Figure 1.** Divergence trajectory of the skerry population at the levels of phenotypes and loci in
79 collinear genomic regions. Years correspond to sampling points in time. **(A)** Illustration of the
80 transplant experiment showing the donor Crab ecotype on the left side, the recipient skerry in the
81 middle, and the neighbouring Wave ecotype on the right side. Figure created using some
82 graphics from Vecteezy.com under Free License. **(B)** Shell length and shape divergence. The
83 shell length decreased after transplantation to less than half of the original value and approached
84 the length of the reference Wave ecotype population. **(C)** Divergence of shell colour, patterning,
85 roughness and thickness in the Skerry population that over time reached values in the range of
86 the reference Wave ecotype. Thickness represent the average thickness in the Skerry population
87 and Wave population relative to the average thickness of the transplanted population in 1992.
88 **(D)** Scatter plots of two uncorrelated quantitative traits (shell length & height growth) on a log
89 scale, and one qualitative trait (colour) reveal no bi-modalities in the skerry population. **(E)**
90 Genetic differentiation of the skerry versus the reference populations based on control and spatial
91 outlier SNP (single-nucleotide polymorphism) loci.

92 We assessed local adaptation in a 30-year transplant experiment on the Swedish west coast. In
93 1992, we collected ~700 Crab ecotype snails and relocated them to a nearby wave-exposed
94 environment earlier occupied by a population of the Wave ecotype. This wave environment is a
95 “skerry” (a 1 x 3 m rocky islet), exposed to strong waves and with no evidence of crabs (Figure
96 1A; Figure S1). The skerry had remained uninhabited by snails since a toxic algal bloom in 1988
97 killed all Wave snails (28). The skerry (current census size: ~1000 individuals) is located ~320
98 m away, across open sea, from the donor Crab ecotype population and ~160 m from the nearest
99 Wave ecotype population (Figure S1; supplementary materials and methods). Therefore, there
100 are two potential sources of adaptive variation: Standing genetic variation in the donor
101 population (resulting, in part, from past gene flow from adjacent Wave populations on the same
102 island), and post-transplant gene flow due to occasional migrants (e.g. rafted snails, see (28); the
103 species lacks pelagic dispersal) from the neighbouring Wave population (or, less likely,
104 elsewhere).

105 ***Three predicted levels of adaptive evolution***

106 We predicted three levels of change in the skerry population. At the phenotypic level, we
107 anticipated a transition from Crab ecotype to Wave ecotype morphology: the averages of
108 quantitative traits (e.g., shell length, and shell thickness) and the proportions of qualitative traits
109 (e.g., shell colour, patterning, and roughness) were expected to approach the values typically
110 observed in the Wave ecotype present in the area. We formulated our prediction on the basis of
111 the polygenicity of phenotypes (23, 29) that can reach Wave optima through different pathways
112 (both genetic and plastic) and are often under strong selection in space (30). For SNPs, we
113 predicted an allele frequency shift over time beyond the effect of drift and neutral gene flow in at
114 least a subset of “spatial outliers” (candidate SNPs associated with ecotype divergence in space
115 in previous studies; see supplementary materials and methods) towards the frequencies observed
116 in undisturbed Wave ecotype population. For inversions, we predicted an increase in frequency
117 of arrangements that are common in Wave ecotype populations. We predicted a tendency to fix
118 arrangements that appear favoured in the Wave ecotype (18, 23). We predicted non-fixation for
119 inversions that are maintained polymorphic in the Wave ecotype, likely by balancing selection
120 (24). Finally, for both spatial outlier SNPs and inversions, we predicted a correlation between
121 temporal (start vs end of experiment) and spatial (Crab ecotype vs Wave ecotype) genetic
122 differentiation. Overall, we expected predictability to be higher for inversions than for SNPs
123 because many inversions are likely to be under strong direct selection, while spatial outlier SNPs
124 may often only be indirectly affected by selection.

125 *Swift transformation of shell morphology and patterning validates phenotypic predictions*

126 To evaluate our predictions at the phenotypic level, we sampled adult snails from the skerry in
127 1996, 2002, 2005, 2018 and 2021. As anticipated, the morphology of the transplanted snails
128 experienced multiple changes from its original Crab ecotype to a morphology more similar to the
129 Wave ecotype. In addition to a decrease in length, a shell reconstruction using six shape
130 parameters (Figure 1B; supplementary materials and methods) revealed that, after 30 years,
131 snails of the skerry population exhibited a relatively broader aperture and less pointed tips
132 compared to their ancestral form and similar to the Wave ecotype. Moreover, the beige colour
133 common in the Crab ecotype became rare over time, with the skerry population becoming
134 colour-polymorphic, similar to Wave ecotype populations (Figure 1C). Simultaneously, the
135 distinctively thick, ridged, and unpatterned shells of the Crab ecotype were largely replaced by

136 thinner, smoother, and tessellated shells. Scatter plots depicting diagnostic traits (Figure 1D)
137 show that this transition took place across all sampled individuals. Therefore, the change in
138 population average on the skerry did not reflect the presence of migrants or early-generation
139 hybrids but was due to gradual allele frequency changes across the whole population.

140 Previous estimates of additive genetic variance and plastic effects of the environment for size
141 and shell-shape traits allowed us to estimate the strength of selection required to explain the
142 observed phenotypic (23) changes in these quantitative traits. Assuming an initial plastic
143 response in the transplanted population, followed by Gaussian stabilizing selection towards an
144 optimum defined by the phenotype of the Wave reference population (supplementary materials
145 and methods), the strength of stabilizing selection (V_S/V_P , the variance of the fitness function
146 relative to the phenotypic variance) ranged from 1.65 to 7.84, depending on the trait, assuming
147 one generation per year (supplementary text). These values are in the typical range for estimates
148 from natural populations (31, 32) and correspond to a fitness reduction for the Crab ecotype
149 population, when first introduced to the skerry between 30 and 96% (8 to 90% after the plastic
150 change in phenotype). For the aperture position trait (r_0) all of the change on the skerry could be
151 accounted for by plasticity; for other traits, estimated plastic effects accounted for 23-40% of the
152 change in phenotype on the skerry (Table S2).

153 ***Multi-year genetic data confirm adaptive frequency shifts in candidate mutations***

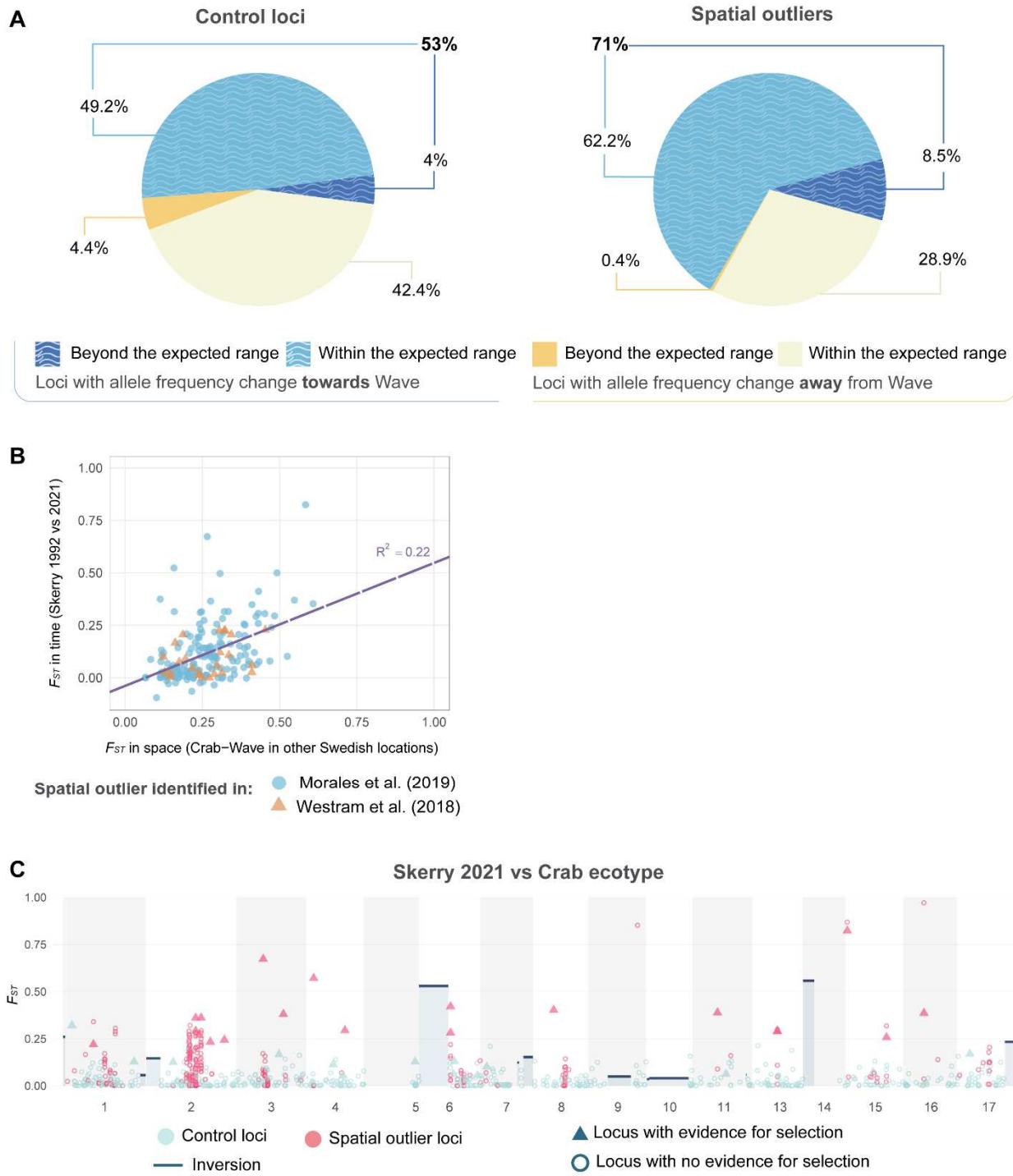
154 To evaluate our predictions at the genetic level, we genotyped samples from different years
155 (2005, 2018, and 2021) from the skerry population as well as from the donor Crab population
156 (1992, 2018, and 2021) and the neighbouring Wave ecotype population (2018 and 2021)
157 (supplementary materials and methods). We included both spatial outliers (292 SNPs) that
158 showed high Crab-Wave differentiation in previous studies on ecotype differentiation in the area
159 (18, 27), SNPs diagnostic for chromosomal rearrangements (225 SNPs) (25), and control SNPs
160 (565 SNPs) that lacked strong association with ecotype divergence in Sweden (18, 27). All
161 spatial outliers and control loci are SNPs outside chromosomal inversions.

162 At the level of individual loci, the allele frequencies at many control loci in the skerry population
163 changed towards the frequencies observed in the Wave ecotype: 59% of the control loci had
164 shifted towards Wave in 2005, 63% in 2018, and 61% in 2021. For spatial outlier loci, the shift

165 toward Wave was stronger, as predicted: 82%, 87%, and 89%, respectively (Figure S13, S14).
166 The trajectory of genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) also reflected the more pronounced shift of spatial
167 outliers compared to the control loci (Figure 1E): The trajectory of spatial outliers indicate that
168 from 2005 onwards, the skerry population was highly divergent from the Crab ecotype but close
169 to the Wave ecotype. Control loci, on the other hand, showed no trend in direction in F_{ST} . The
170 results are also confirmed by a PCA (Figure S15).

171 The subtle change in allele frequency observed at control loci towards the Wave ecotype
172 suggests either gene flow from a nearby Wave population or hitch-hiking effects by spatial
173 outliers under selection. The fact that the allele frequency shift is more pronounced at spatial
174 outlier loci than control loci is consistent with selection, although it alone does not provide
175 sufficient evidence. This is because spatial outlier loci are on average more differentiated than
176 control loci between the skerry starting population and the nearby Wave population. Therefore,
177 neutral gene flow from a Wave population alone would already lead to a more pronounced shift
178 for spatial outlier loci over time on the skerry population. To distinguish between these
179 possibilities, we inferred the demographic history of the skerry population and compared the
180 observed allele frequency changes to those expected under neutrality (neglecting linkage
181 disequilibrium). Based on the allele frequencies of the control SNPs in the starting population
182 (1992) and in the neighboring Wave population (2018+2021) as a potential source of gene flow,
183 we found the growth rate, carrying capacity, migration rate, and number of generations per year
184 that best predicted the allele frequency distribution observed in the skerry samples from 2005,
185 2018, and 2021 (supplementary materials and methods). The most likely estimate for migration
186 was $M=2$ diploid individuals per generation (see Table S7 for other parameters). This relatively
187 low number of migrants is reasonable considering that the species is brooding and without
188 pelagic larvae and that the skerry remained unoccupied by snails for four years after the toxic
189 algal bloom (28). Furthermore, it is of the same order of magnitude as direct estimates of
190 colonisation of empty skerries in the area following the bloom (28). Starting with the allele
191 frequencies observed in 1992, and randomly drawing parameter combinations from the
192 likelihood surface, we simulated neutral evolution for each control and spatial outlier locus until
193 2021 (approximately 58 generations). Running 1,000 replicates for each SNP, we estimated the
194 expected range of allele frequency changes from 1992 to 2021 without selection, but including
195 genetic drift, gene flow, sampling, and model uncertainty (range spanning 95% of the simulated

196 replicates) (Figure S12). While for both control loci and candidate outliers the probability of
197 being outside the expected range is relatively small (4 vs 8.5%), the candidate outliers overall
198 clearly show stronger allele frequency changes than expected under the neutral model
199 (supplementary text). In alignment with our predictions, spatial outliers shifted towards Wave
200 more than expected without selection (71% showed a stronger shift than the median shift without
201 selection, compared to 53% in the control loci) (Figure 2A). This supports our prediction that
202 selection influences at least a subset of the spatial outliers. Given that selection is not expected to
203 directly impact control loci, drift, gene flow, and hitch-hiking effects are plausible reasons for
204 the towards-wave shift in allele frequencies experienced by about half of the control loci.



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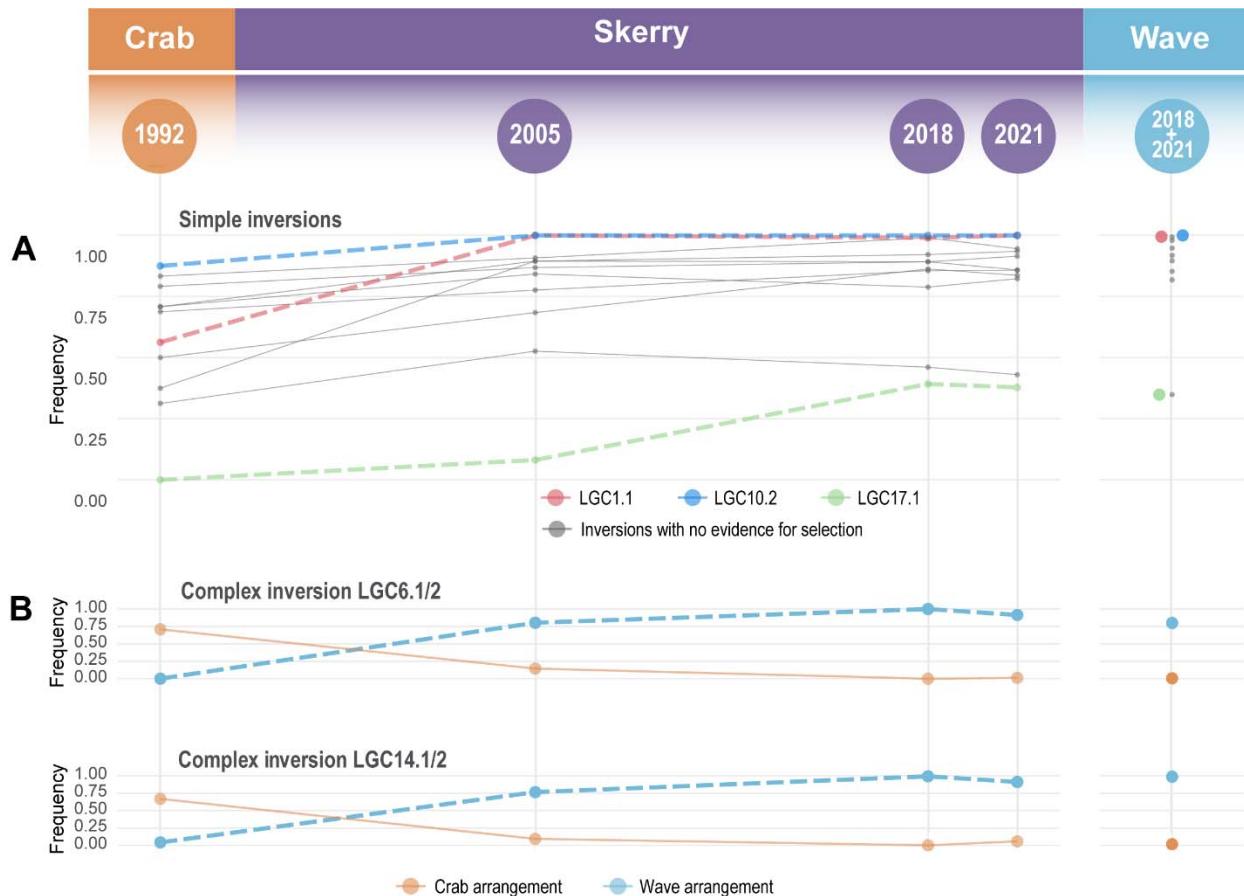
206 **Figure 2.** Genome wide evidence of selection in the skerry. **(A)** A comparison to the expected
 207 95% range of allele frequency changes without selection shows evidence of selection in a larger
 208 fraction of spatial outliers than in control loci (dark blue slices of the pie charts). **(B)**
 209 Relationship between spatial and temporal differentiation. Each point is a spatial outlier SNP

210 identified in a previous study, and the spatial F_{ST} reflects the average across (Morales et al.
211 (2019) outliers; light blue) or 7 (Westram et al. (2018) outliers; orange) nearby Crab-Wave
212 contacts (supplementary materials and methods). The line reflects a linear model describing the
213 relationship ($R^2=0.22$). (C) Genomic distribution of F_{ST} in the skerry population versus the
214 average Crab ecotype for individual SNPs in the collinear genome (circles and triangles) and for
215 inversions (rectangular blue-grey fields with dark blue bars at top indicating F_{ST} value). Loci
216 with evidence for selection (triangles) are SNPs that experienced allele frequency change in the
217 Skerry population towards Wave and beyond the neutral range.

218 As predicted, the more differentiated a spatial outlier was between Crab and Wave in other
219 locations in Sweden, the more its allele frequency also changed in time; however the relationship
220 was noisy (Spearman's rho = 0.46, $p<0.0001$; Figure 2B). Loci potentially affected by selection
221 are distributed widely along the genome rather than concentrated in a few linkage groups (LG;
222 Figure 2C; Figure S16). We observed relatively few spatial outliers with evidence for selection
223 (red triangles) in LG 2 compared to the expectation from its density of spatial outliers (Figure
224 S17).

225 ***Natural selection favours specific chromosomal rearrangements as predicted***

226 Consistent with our predictions, the “Wave arrangements” (inversion arrangements that are more
227 common in the Wave ecotype than in the Crab ecotype) increased in frequency in the skerry over
228 time to near fixation or to a frequency similar to that in the Wave population (Figure 3A). This
229 pattern was found in “simple” inversions (where two alternative arrangements exist) and
230 complex inversions (where three different arrangements exist; Figure 3B). The two complex
231 inversions are known to be particularly strongly associated with Crab and Wave ecotype
232 divergence and to influence adaptive traits (18, 23). Simulations of neutral expectations (Figure
233 S11) show that arrangement frequency shifts required selection in five cases (simple inversions,
234 LGC1.1, LGC10.2 & LGC17.1, and both complex inversions, LGC6.1/2 & LGC14.1/2).
235 Moreover, the inversions showed growing genetic differentiation F_{ST} over time in the skerry
236 population with respect to Crab, comparable to the differentiation observed in spatial outliers
237 (Figure 2C, Figure S16).



238

239 **Figure 3.** Trajectories of the “Wave” arrangement for polymorphic inversions. Grey lines
240 indicate trajectories of arrangements in the skerry with frequency changes between 1992 and
241 2021 within the range expected without selection. The trajectories of arrangements that
242 experienced frequency changes beyond the expected range are shown in colour. **(A)** The
243 trajectories of simple inversions show arrangements of three inversions (LGC1.1, LGC10.2, &
244 LGC17.1) that changed in frequency more than expected by drift and gene flow alone. **(B)** The
245 “Wave” arrangement in complex inversions (dashed line) on two linkage groups (LG 6 AND LG
246 14) increased from rare to near fixation while the “Crab” arrangement (solid line) became rare.

247 **Discussion**

248 This study shows that rapid phenotypic and genetic changes in a new environment can to a large
249 extent be predicted based on spatial patterns. In barely a decade after the introduction, a
250 transplanted population of Crab ecotype adapted rapidly to its new environment which closely
251 resembles that of the Wave ecotype. Adaptive capacity following a sudden environmental

252 change has been studied in other systems, such as guppy (33), stickleback (2), and salmonids
253 (34). As in those studies, we demonstrated that adaptive evolution can take place relatively
254 quickly, and we show that this is the case at three different levels: – phenotype, SNP genotype,
255 and chromosomal inversion. Additionally, a morphological change immediately following the
256 transplantation suggests that plasticity was crucial to avoid immediate extinction, as the allele
257 frequencies adjusted to a new optimum (35).

258 Our results suggest that it is possible to predict how a population may change over time, using
259 prior information on the genetic and phenotypic variation along spatial environmental gradients.
260 However, predictability is only high at the phenotypic level and for strongly-selected inversions.
261 Phenotypically, the skerry reached a Wave ecotype endpoint through the contribution of both
262 adapted alleles (regardless of their source) and plastic changes. At the inversion level, the Wave
263 arrangement in all cases reached frequencies similar to that in a Wave ecotype population, with
264 statistical evidence for selection in five cases. This is in line with their widely accepted role in
265 suppressing recombination between beneficial alleles in a specific genetic background or
266 environment. Predictability is lower for collinear loci, for which only a small fraction showed
267 clear evidence of selection and this specific subset could not be predicted. There are multiple, not
268 mutually exclusive explanations. First, some loci might be less favoured on the skerry than in the
269 wave-lashed environment that we used as a reference. Thus, these loci might be under selection
270 only in some wave habitats because the environmental conditions differ among locations (e.g.,
271 the Wave samples in previous studies are likely to be associated with higher shore levels than is
272 the skerry). Second, many of our spatial outliers may be linked to targets of selection, rather than
273 being under selection themselves; in this case, responses to selection depend on the linkage
274 disequilibrium in the studied population, which in turn depends on the history of gene flow.
275 Third, because some of the adaptive traits are likely to be highly polygenic (e.g. shell shape), the
276 same phenotypic optimum can potentially be reached via different genetic routes (29). Therefore,
277 it is plausible that the evolution of the Wave phenotype was possible via changes at a subset of
278 the loci studied here, together with changes at loci not included in this study.

279 A recurring challenge for genomic studies of this nature consists of disentangling the effects of
280 demographic history and natural selection (36). For example, if alleles introduced by migration
281 experience positive selection and large blocks of migrant (Wave) background hitchhike along,

282 we might overestimate the migration parameter. However, this does not affect our result that
283 spatial outliers and inversions shift more towards Wave than expected without selection. In
284 addition, we did not find evidence that hitch-hiking extends over a larger region of the
285 chromosomes (Figure S18).

286 In the Anthropocene, studies such as the present one can be a basis for developing predictive
287 models for the response of populations to environmental changes as a result of human activities,
288 e.g. climate change, industrial fishing, habitat fragmentation, invasions, etc. (37). Future
289 experiments could integrate variables (e.g. temperature, precipitation, pollution, etc.) that
290 fluctuate as a result of human activities. In our study, we observed rapid adaptation, and
291 predicted the genetic and phenotypic changes successfully because the population experiencing
292 an environmental change contained or received a great amount of genetic variation, the raw
293 material for natural selection. Nonetheless, this scenario will not universally apply to numerous
294 other populations undergoing (anthropogenic) environmental shifts. Our results highlight the
295 importance of ensuring that species remain in a variety of different environments in order to
296 maintain genetic variation needed to fuel future adaptation.

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305 **Author contributions:**

306 Conceptualization: AMW, KJ, RKB
307 Analysis: AMW, DGC, JL, NB, RKB, SS
308 Writing – original draft: DGC
309 Writing – review & editing: AMW, DGC, JL, KJ, NB, RF, RKB, SS

310 **Data and materials availability:**

311 SNP and phenotype datasets will be available on a repository upon acceptance.

312 **Supplementary materials:**

313 Materials and Methods

314 Supplementary Text

315 Figs. S1 to S18

316 Tables S1 to S9

317

318 **Other Supplementary Materials for this manuscript include the following:**

319 Table S2: Supplementary Table Phenotypic Analysis.xlsx

320 Mathematica Workbook: Skerry interpolation 9.23 v2.nb

321

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