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Infection, Genetics and Evolution xxx (2015) xxx-xxx

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

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journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/meegid

Experimental removal of sexual selection leads to decreased investment in an immune component in female Tribolium castaneum

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ARTICLE INFO

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16	Article history:
17	Received 18 November 2014
18	Received in revised form 29 April 2015
19	Accepted 5 May 2015
20	Available online xxxx

21 Keywords: 22 Costs 23 Immunity 24 Nosema 25 Paranosema 26 Parasite resistance 27 Phenoloxidase 28 Reproduction 29 Sexual conflict 30 Sexual dimorphism 31 32 Trade-offs

ABSTRACT

Because of divergent selection acting on males and females arising from different life-history strategies, polyandry can be expected to promote sexual dimorphism of investment into immune function. In previous work we have established the existence of such divergence within populations where males and females are exposed to varying degrees of polyandry. We here test whether the removal of sexual selection via enforced monogamy generates males and females that have similar levels of investment in immune function. To test this prediction experimentally, we measured differences between the sexes in a key immune measurement (phenoloxidase (PO) activity) and resistance to the microsporidian Paranosema whitei in Tribolium castaneum lines that evolved under monogamous (sexual selection absent) vs polyandrous (sexual selection present) mating systems. At generation 49, all selected lines were simultaneously assessed for PO activity and resistance to their natural parasite P. whitei after two generations of relaxed selection. We found that the polyandrous regime was associated with a clear dimorphism in immune function: females had significantly higher PO activities than males in these lines. In contrast, there was no such difference between the sexes in the lines evolving under the monogamous regime. Survival in the infection experiment did not differ between mating systems or sexes. Removing sexual selection via enforced monogamy thus seems to erase intersexual differences in immunity investment. We suggest that higher PO activities in females that have evolved under sexual selection might be driven by the increased risk of infections and/or injuries associated with exposure to multiple males. © 2015 Published by Elsevier B.V.

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1. Introduction 55

56 Parasites can impose significant fitness costs on their hosts and 57 may therefore exert strong selection pressure on hosts to defend themselves (Haldane, 1949; Price, 1980; Ewald, 1994; 58 Schmid-Hempel, 2011). As the immune system is costly to maintain 59 and use, trade-offs between immune function and other life-history 60 traits can be expected (Sheldon and Verhulst, 1996; Rolff, 2002). 61 62 Sexual selection is a powerful evolutionary force that can have 63 major direct or indirect effects on a wide range of fitness traits, 64 including immunity (e.g., Hamilton and Zuk, 1982; Andersson and Simmons, 2006). Sexual selection generally selects male traits that 65 66 increase reproductive success in the face of pre- and postcopulatory 67 male-male competition and that overcome female resistance

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.meegid.2015.05.005 1567-1348/© 2015 Published by Elsevier B.V.

(Andersson and Simmons, 2006). There is increasing evidence that males face a phenotypic trade-off between investment in reproduction and immune function (Blount et al., 2003; Faivre et al., 2003; Jacot et al., 2004) and such trade-offs can also have a genetic basis (Hosken, 2001; Simmons and Roberts, 2005). In many vertebrates, males are typically more susceptible to parasites (Zuk, 1990; Folstad and Karter, 1992; Poulin, 1996; Zuk and McKean, 1996; Schalk and Forbes, 1997; Moore and Wilson, 2002). The underlying mechanism of this pattern has usually been attributed to the immunosuppressive influence of testosterone (Alexander and Stimson, 1988; Zuk, 1990; Folstad and Karter, 1992). Nevertheless, in invertebrates, which lack testosterone and other steroid hormones, males are also often more susceptible to parasites than females (e.g., Gray, 1998; Wedekind and Jakobsen, 1998; Adamo et al., 2001; Schwarzenbach et al., 2005). In addition, recent data in sex-role reversed species in which females compete to mate with males suggest that sexually competitive females have a weaker immune response (Roth et al., 2011).

Please cite this article in press as: Hangartner, S., et al. Experimental removal of sexual selection leads to decreased investment in an immune component in female Tribolium castaneum. Infect. Genet. Evol. (2015), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.meegid.2015.05.005

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86 An alternative and more general hypothesis suggests that sex-87 ual dimorphism in immunity can be expected because females 88 and males of many species have sexually dimorphic life-history 89 strategies and only a certain amount of resources are available 90 for all life history traits (Sheldon and Verhulst, 1996; Rolff, 91 2002). The main assumptions of this hypothesis are that the 92 immune system is costly, and females invest more in longevity 93 than males, whereas mating rate and mating success are of much 94 greater importance to males (Rolff, 2002). This hypothesis was recently referred to as the "susceptible male hypothesis" and pre-95 96 dicts that females should invest relatively more in immune func-97 tion than males and that the magnitude of sexual dimorphism in immunity increases with the strength of sexual selection (Rolff, 98 2002; Stoehr and Kokko, 2006). In the absence of sexual selection 99 100 and conflict, as under scenarios with genetic monogamy, both 101 sexes would therefore be expected to invest equally in reproduc-102 tion and immunity (Zuk, 1990, 2009; Stoehr and Kokko, 2006).

103 In addition to different resource allocation strategies between 104 the sexes, conflicting optimal fitness strategies between females and males can lead to evolution towards different fitness optima 105 106 between the sexes (Parker, 1979). The importance of sexual con-107 flict as an evolutionary force has become increasingly clear (Trivers, 1972; Parker, 1979, 2006; Arnqvist and Rowe, 2005), 108 and sexual conflict is likely to be a powerful mechanism for the 109 110 evolution of sexual dimorphism (Rice and Chippindale, 2001). 111 Whereas recent studies have shown that sexual conflict can drive 112 evolution in reproductive traits, and even speciation (Arnqvist and Rowe, 2002; Martin and Hosken, 2003; Ritchie, 2007; 113 Hosken et al., 2009), the role of immune traits is less studied in 114 the context of sexual conflict (Zuk, 1990, 2009) despite the fact that 115 116 conflict over immunity can be expected as males and females are 117 assumed to have different adaptive peaks in immunity, and, due 118 to the costliness of immunity (Lessells, 1999; Zuk, 2009). In con-119 trast, when sexual conflict is absent, such as under lifelong mono-120 gamy, the sexes would be expected to have similar adaptive peaks 121 concerning immunity (Stoehr and Kokko, 2006; Zuk, 2009).

122 Insects have a complex innate immune system, consisting of 123 humoral and cellular immunity, which can cope with a variety of 124 parasites and pathogens (Schmid-Hempel, 2005). Melanisation is 125 an important and well-studied immune response in many insects 126 and phenoloxidase (PO) is a key enzyme of the melanisation cascade, which is often used to estimate immune function in insects 127 (reviewed in Cerenius et al., 2008; González-Santoyo and 128 129 Córdoba-Aguilar, 2012). PO activity has profound fitness consequences in several pathogen-host systems (Kraaijeveld and 130 131 Godfray, 1997, 2001; Siva-Jothy et al., 2001; Rolff and Siva-Jothy, 132 2004; Cerenius et al., 2008). There is evidence for resource alloca-133 tion trade-offs between PO and other fitness traits (Siva-Jothy and 134 Thompson, 2002; Rantala et al., 2003; Cotter et al., 2004; Pomfret 135 and Knell, 2006), and studies on narrow sense heritability have 136 revealed that PO is a heritable trait (Cotter et al., 2004; Armitage and Siva-Jothy, 2005; Schwarzenbach and Ward, 2006; Gershman 137 et al., 2010). It remains to be tested if sexual conflict can drive 138 the evolution of sexual dimorphism in PO activity and if the evolu-139 140 tion of PO activity is constrained by genetic trade-offs.

Experimental evolution experiments enable evolution to be 141 142 captured in action, whilst assessing both direct and indirect responses to divergent selection. Experimental evolution applied 143 to insect models and incorporating different intensities of sexual 144 145 selection generally affects a host of morphological, physiological 146 and behavioral reproductive traits in both sexes (e.g., Hosken, 147 2001; Morrow and Gage, 2001; Wigby and Chapman, 2004; Simmons and Garcia-Gonzalez, 2008; Michalczyk et al., 2011b; 148 149 Demont et al., 2014). Due to the close links between reproduction 150 and immunity, such experiments have considerable potential for advancing knowledge of immune traits (Kerstes and Martin, 2013). Our previous study using *Tribolium castaneum* lines that had been exposed to contrasting sexual selection intensities via different sex ratios revealed that females invest more in an immune measurement than males (Hangartner et al., 2013). Although the intensity of sexual selection varied among these lines, sexual selection was always present (Hangartner et al., 2013). Having established this dimorphism, in this study we test whether the complete removal of sexual selection via enforced monogamy generates males and females that have similar levels of investment into immune function.

We thus tested for evolutionary changes associated with immunity and parasite resistance in response to different mating systems using T. castaneum. These lines have been exposed experimentally to contrasting mating systems: monogamy versus polyandry (i.e. absence vs presence of sexual selection). These experimental evolution lines have been used previously to reveal consequences of evolving under polyandry and monogamy in both sexes (Demont et al., 2014; Grazer et al., 2014). In particular, the polyandry lines have evolved males who were quicker to achieve copulation when facing competition and females who are more resistant to multiple mating by delaying the first copulation when given a choice of males, revealing that adaptation to polyandry in both sexes provide benefits when choice and competition were present (Demont et al., 2014). We also found that females evolving under enforced monogamy incurred costs and gained benefits that were shaped by environmental quality (standard benign vs novel stressful environments, see Grazer et al., 2014). Polyandrous females generally had a higher fecundity than monogamous females, whereas monogamous females seemed to have reduced fecundity when mated with polyandrous males in standard benign environments (Grazer et al., 2014).

After 49 generations, males and females from all selection lines were tested for PO activity and resistance to their natural parasite *Paranosema whitei* (e.g., Milner, 1972; Berenos et al., 2009; Kerstes et al., 2013). *P. whitei* is a microsporidian pathogen of some species of *Tribolium* (previously *Nosema whitei* (Weiser, 1953), recently reclassified by Sokolova et al., 2005). *P. whitei* is an obligatory intracellular parasite that infects internal organs, and generally causes the host to die in the late larval or early pupal stage (Dunn and Smith, 2001; Blaser and Schmid-Hempel, 2005).

We expected evolutionary changes in immune function in 192 response to adaptation to two contrasting mating systems (where 193 sexual selection and conflict are either present or absent) and con-194 sider two scenarios: Scenario 1: sexual dimorphism in immunity is 195 expected when sexual selection is present, but not under mono-196 gamy where sexual selection is absent. This scenario is in concor-197 dance with hypotheses based on different life history strategies 198 between the sexes (Zuk, 1990, 2009; Rolff, 2002; Stoehr and 199 Kokko, 2006), as well as with our previous work on the same spe-200 cies (Hangartner et al., 2013). It predicts that females have evolved 201 to invest more in immunity than males in the polyandrous lines, 202 with investment additionally fuelled by increased mating costs 203 (e.g., stress, injury, sexually transmitted diseases). In contrast, the 204 sexes are not expected to differ in immunity in the monogamous 205 lines. Scenario 2: polyandrous lines with high sexual conflict show 206 reduced immune investment, so individuals of both sexes in 207 polyandrous lines would be expected to have evolved inferior 208 immunity than monogamous lines. This would be indicative of a 209 genetic trade-off between investment in reproductive traits and 210 immunity, as found in other species (e.g., Hosken, 2001; McKean 211 and Nunney, 2008; McNamara et al., 2013). Whereas scenario 1 212 predicts differences between the sexes depending on the selection 213 regime, scenario 2 predicts differences between the selection 214 regimes but not between the sexes. 215

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