

Evolutionary consequences of environmental effects on gamete performance

Angela J. Crean^{1,*} and Simone Immler²

¹ Charles Perkins Centre, School of Life and Environmental Sciences, The University of Sydney, Sydney NSW 2006, Australia

² School of Biological Sciences, University of East Anglia, NR4 7TJ Norwich, UK

* angela.crean@sydney.edu.au ORCID 0000-0003-2605-6435

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1 **Summary**

2 Variation in pre- and post-release gamete environments can influence evolutionary processes by
3 altering fertilisation outcomes and offspring traits. It is now widely accepted that offspring inherit
4 epigenetic information from both their mothers and fathers. Genetic and epigenetic alterations to
5 eggs and sperm acquired post-release may also persist post-fertilisation with consequences for
6 offspring developmental success and later-life fitness. In externally fertilising species, gametes are
7 directly exposed to anthropogenically-induced environmental impacts including pollution, ocean
8 acidification, and climate change. When fertilisation occurs within the female reproductive tract,
9 although gametes are at least partially protected from external environmental variation, the
10 selective environment is likely to vary among females. In both scenarios, gamete traits and selection
11 on gametes can be influenced by environmental conditions such as temperature and pollution as
12 well as intrinsic factors such as male and female reproductive fluids, which may be altered by
13 changes in male and female health and physiology. Here, we highlight some of the pathways
14 through which changes in gamete environments can affect fertilisation dynamics, gamete
15 interactions, and ultimately offspring fitness. We hope that by drawing attention to this important
16 yet often overlooked source of variation we will inspire future research into the evolutionary
17 implications of anthropogenic interference of gamete environments including the use of Assisted
18 Reproductive Technologies.

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23 **Environmental effects on gamete phenotypes**

24 In a rapidly changing world, understanding the impact of environmental variation on organisms at all
25 stages is key to predicting population responses to environmental change [1]. Climate change and
26 anthropogenic influence have led to drastic changes and fluctuations in factors including
27 temperature, oxygen levels, pollutants and spatial restrictions [2-5]. Much of our focus on
28 understanding the impact of environmental variation has been centred on the ecosystem, species
29 and population-wide impacts. This approach includes all life stages, but it has become clear that
30 some life stages are more sensitive to environmental change than others [1, 6, 7]. Gametes are
31 susceptible to environmental stress, which is of concern because impacts on reproduction have
32 critical implications for individual fitness which in turn might have ramifications for population
33 health and viability [8, 9].

34

35 Environmental variation may affect gametes at two stages: pre-release during oogenesis and
36 spermatogenesis and post-release after ovulation or ejaculation [10]. Environmentally-induced
37 modifications to eggs and sperm acquired pre-release have been the focus of the majority of
38 research into intergenerational and transgenerational epigenetic inheritance in animals (recently
39 reviewed in [11, 12]). Hence, here we largely focus on evolutionary consequences of variation in
40 post-release gamete environments. In this context, external fertilising and sperm-casting (sperm are
41 released into the environment to be subsequently collected by females) species may be particularly
42 vulnerable to environmental change as gametes and early life-history stages are directly exposed to
43 areal (e.g. fungi, plants) or aquatic (e.g. fish) environments [13, 14]. Nevertheless, even if gametes of
44 internal fertilisers are not directly exposed to environmental change, they may be indirectly affected
45 by environmentally-induced changes in both male and female reproductive fluids [15, 16].

46 Irrespective of fertilisation mode, environmental conditions encountered by gametes after release
47 prior to fertilisation may affect them in two ways: varying environmental conditions may select
48 among gametes and favour some over others (which will be particularly important for male
49 gametes), and/or they may alter the molecular and structural content of the gametes (affecting their
50 function and potentially the fitness of the sired offspring). Both of these impacts have potential
51 evolutionary consequences.

52

53 Sperm are the main functional unit of male reproduction, and have therefore been the focus of
54 attention in studies of paternal effects (e.g. [17, 18]). However, males do not just transfer sperm
55 during mating, they transfer an ejaculate. In humans, sperm only constitute about 2 - 5% of the total
56 semen volume. The remainder of the ejaculate – known as seminal plasma or seminal fluid –

57 contains a complex blend of chemicals (such as proteins, hormones and RNAs) with diverse functions
58 that extend far beyond the simple nourishment of sperm [19-21]. The composition of seminal
59 plasma varies not only among species [22], but also among males and ejaculates within a male [23-
60 25], demonstrating that semen composition is susceptible to environmental change. We know that
61 variation in seminal plasma can regulate sperm phenotype because seminal plasma supplementation
62 can be used to shift sperm traits such that they resemble the sperm traits of the donor ejaculate [26,
63 27].

64

65 Similarly, female reproductive fluids (including ovarian fluid, follicular fluid, cervical mucus, and egg
66 jelly) can influence both gamete phenotypes and interactions between sperm and eggs [28-31]. The
67 role of female reproductive fluids in chemotaxis to lead specific sperm cohorts to the eggs has been
68 described first in broadcast-spawning marine invertebrates [32], but different forms of chemotaxis
69 are also found in other taxa including fish [33-35] and internal fertilisers such as mammals [36].
70 Female reproductive fluid composition varies among individuals [37, 38], and can affect sperm
71 motility and velocity as well as fertilisation dynamics [39-41]. The composition of the female
72 reproductive fluid may be influenced by female condition [42], and is therefore likely to be similarly
73 influenced by other environmental factors, with consequences for fertilisation success and offspring
74 fitness.

75

76 **Intergenerational effects of variation in the gamete environment**

77 Adaptive plasticity, in particular maternal and paternal effects, may provide some protection if
78 parents can prepare gametes and offspring for altered conditions [43, 44]. However, parental effects
79 are not necessarily adaptive, and epigenetic inheritance may also amplify negative consequences of
80 environmental change if parents transmit stress to future generations [45, 46]. Furthermore, the
81 fitness consequences of epigenetic changes may not act in the same direction in all life-history
82 stages. For example, increases in sperm fertilisation success may come at a cost to offspring
83 developmental success [47, 48]. Hence, epigenetic inheritance may dampen, amplify, decelerate, or
84 accelerate population responses to environmental change [43, 45].

85

86 Environmental conditions may affect gamete performance and molecular structure [49], and these
87 changes can be induced either pre- and/or post-release [10]. Changes in the environment may affect
88 gamete traits such as motility, swimming velocity, morphology and longevity in male gametes [50-
89 53], and size, composition, and structure of female gametes [54-56]. The molecular content of
90 gametes may be affected by the environment through direct DNA damage, RNA and protein decay

91 [57, 58] as well as changes in the hormonal content in eggs [59]. All these changes may either be
92 triggered by the physiological response to changing environments in the organisms and the soma-
93 germline signalling pathways or through interactions with the intrinsic (seminal and ovarian fluid,
94 female tract etc.) and extrinsic factors (temperature, salinity, pH, toxins etc.) after gamete release.
95 Any of these changes in the gametes have the potential to affect the offspring sired by these
96 gametes [18, 60].

97

98 Post-release gamete environments can also have direct effects on the epigenetic content of sperm
99 and eggs [11, 18, 58], again with either adaptive or non-adaptive consequences for fertilisation
100 success and offspring fitness. For example, seminal plasma components can bind directly to sperm,
101 and/or interact with both eggs and the female reproductive tract [20, 21]. Consequently,
102 environmentally-acquired variation in seminal plasma can influence the development and
103 phenotypic traits of offspring, even when the offspring are sired by another male [61-63]. While
104 these effects may be at least partially mediated by female responses in internal fertilisers [64],
105 seminal plasma also affects offspring developmental success and swimming performance in
106 externally fertilising fish [65]. This indicates that variation in seminal plasma can have a direct effect
107 on offspring phenotype.

108

109 Stressful environmental conditions during fertilisation can impact fitness in both the parental and
110 offspring generations by reducing fecundity and offspring performance [8]. Experiments in
111 externally-fertilising taxa demonstrate that changes in gamete environments can have carry-over
112 effects on offspring traits that are independent of effects of the parental and developmental
113 environment [66-68]. For example, sperm exposure to an elevated temperature pre-fertilisation
114 resulted in reduced offspring size and swimming performance in a salmonid fish (*Coregonus*
115 *lavaretus*), even though no effects on sperm performance and embryo mortality were detected [67].
116 The micro-environment that spawned gametes experience can rapidly fluctuate both temporally and
117 spatially, and thus the gamete environment may differ from the parental and developmental
118 environments. It is possible that within-ejaculate and within-clutch variation in gamete phenotypes
119 may act as a bet-hedging strategy to buffer against unpredictable gamete environments [69].

120

121 Finally, while the 'optimal' phenotypes of sperm and eggs vary across environments, environmental
122 conditions may also influence how gametes interact. In internal fertilisers, paternal effects may be
123 modulated by female responses [70, 71]. Similarly, mate choice can occur at the gamete level [30,
124 31, 72]. These interactions between sperm and eggs may be modified by the environment in which

125 they occur such that poor performers in one environment are the best performers in another
126 environment [67, 73]. Hence, altered gamete environments may indirectly alter population traits via
127 changes in the outcome of sperm competition [29] and gamete compatibility [30, 31]. Consequently,
128 gamete environments may play an important, yet under-appreciated role in shaping population
129 responses to environmental change [9].

130

131 **Within-ejaculate variation in sperm phenotype**

132 Experiments in external fertilising species using a split-ejaculate design demonstrate that selecting
133 for different subpopulations of sperm within an ejaculate can translate into differences in offspring
134 phenotypes. For example, ascidian (*Styela plicata*) [74] and Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) [75] eggs
135 fertilised by a subpopulation of longer-lived sperm are more likely to develop and survive. The
136 fitness consequences of within-ejaculate variability in sperm longevity can even carry over to grand-
137 offspring [76]. Within-ejaculate variation in thermal tolerance is also linked to variation in offspring
138 performance; fish larvae (*Coregonus lavaretus*) sired by sperm exposed to increased temperatures
139 were smaller and had reduced swimming performance compared to siblings sired by sperm of the
140 same ejaculate maintained at normal temperatures [67]. Within-ejaculate variation may be
141 adaptive, and could potentially serve as a bet-hedging strategy. For example, larvae of an estuarine
142 tubeworm (*Galeolaria gemineoa*) that were sired by sperm exposed to low salinities had poorer
143 developmental success overall, but performed better in low salinity conditions than siblings sired by
144 sperm exposed to normal salinities [68]. Hence, altered sperm environments may select for different
145 sperm phenotypes, with consequences for offspring fitness.

146

147 Within-ejaculate variation in sperm phenotypes may be driven by genetic or epigenetic differences,
148 or likely, a combination of both. Decades of intense research on sperm competition, animal
149 breeding, and reproductive medicine were founded on the premise that sperm phenotypes are
150 predominantly determined by testicular gene expression, and hence the diploid genome of the male
151 [77]. However, at least in some cases, male genotype only explains a minor proportion of variation in
152 sperm function [78, 79]. Sperm phenotype is also influenced by mitochondria and the environment
153 [50]. But exciting new evidence suggests that sperm phenotype is at least partially linked to its
154 haploid genetic content. Evidence for haploid selection in animals [80-82], and post-ejaculation
155 protein transcription by sperm [83], has been steadily increasing. Of note, Alavioon et al [76]
156 experimentally demonstrated that sperm from a single ejaculate with different swimming
157 behaviours differed genetically at numerous sites throughout the genome. In addition, a recent
158 study in house mice and primates showed that the sharing of transcripts in haploid spermatids after

159 meiosis is for many genes incomplete supporting the idea that a large number of genes expressed at
160 this stage are directly linked to the haploid spermatid genome [84]. These findings suggest that the
161 enduring belief that the genetic content of sperm is not expressed needs to be revised. If sperm do
162 express their haploid genome, then sperm carrying different haploid genotypes may respond to
163 changes in their environment in different ways, resulting in haploid gene by environment
164 interactions.

165

166 The sperm environment may also influence within-ejaculate variability in non-genetic factors that
167 are transferred to offspring alongside DNA [18, 85-87]. Several non-genetic components are known
168 to be transferred to the egg including additions and modifications of the chromatic structure
169 through methylation and acetylation, several types of small RNAs as well as proteins such as prions.
170 How these components contribute to the development and fitness of the resulting offspring is still
171 largely unknown. The most direct evidence comes from studies in mice where the injection of sperm
172 RNAs independently of sperm induces changes in offspring phenotypes that fully or partially
173 replicate observed paternal effects [88, 89]. One issue with such experimental designs is that the
174 amount of RNA injected into a zygote is likely to be several orders of magnitude larger than the
175 amount present in the sperm and hence the true mechanisms of how sperm RNAs affect offspring
176 are still unclear. The same is true for other aspects, including methylation, as the inheritance of
177 methylation patterns varies markedly across species and may range from largely maternally
178 inherited in mice [57] to largely paternally inherited in zebrafish [90], thereby influencing the relative
179 importance it may play in paternal non-genetic inheritance. In addition, its true function is thought
180 to be anywhere between gene regulation and the silencing of selfish genetic elements and hence,
181 while being non-genetic themselves it may be strongly associated with genomic variation. The
182 molecular mechanisms of paternal non-genetic inheritance are therefore in great need of more
183 detailed investigation.

184

185 **Anthropogenic interference of gamete environments**

186 Sperm counts are declining at an alarming rate worldwide. In humans, for example, a trend towards
187 lower sperm counts was first observed in 1974 [91], and although still controversial, was
188 convincingly illustrated in a recent comprehensive meta-analysis [92]. Levine *et al* [92] found that
189 average sperm counts in Western countries have decreased by over 50% in the past 40 years, with
190 no signs that the rate of decline is easing. The pace of change indicates an environmental cause, with
191 several environmental factors potentially contributing to the trend [93]. Of particular concern are
192 increased levels of endocrine disrupting chemicals in the environment, which may be impacting

193 fertility of both human and wildlife populations [9, 94, 95]. Lifestyle factors, including altered diets
194 and increased rates of obesity are also likely to be contributing to the decrease in sperm counts [96],
195 although the relationship between obesity and male fertility is not clear cut [97]. Another important
196 environmental factor is temperature. Although unlikely to explain much variation in human
197 populations, increasing global temperatures are likely to impact fertility in wildlife populations [8].
198 These multiple environmental stressors on male fertility are likely to exert strong selective pressures
199 potentially altering which males, and which sperm, pass their genes onto future generations [73].

200

201 Assisted Reproductive Technologies (ART) offer several treatment options to overcome infertility,
202 including ovulation induction followed by intrauterine insemination (IUI), in vitro fertilisation (IVF),
203 or intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI). All of these medical interventions expose sperm, eggs,
204 and/or embryos to novel and artificial environmental conditions. Compared to spontaneously
205 conceived children, IVF children show modest yet significant increases in fasting glucose levels, fat
206 deposition, and blood pressure, as well as systemic and pulmonary vascular dysfunction [98-100].
207 Long-term health consequences of these deceptively subtle health disturbances can be severe,
208 particularly when offspring experience stressful conditions themselves. For example, when
209 challenged with a high-fat diet, IVF-conceived mice suffered a 25% reduction in lifespan compared to
210 naturally-conceived controls [101]. The intergenerational impacts of ART altered gamete
211 environments may be particularly severe because ART allows no opportunity for parental effects to
212 pre-adapt gametes to altered environmental conditions. However, ART protocols and media are
213 optimised to minimise this stress.

214

215 The impacts of environmental stress on eggs and embryos during ART are widely acknowledged and
216 accepted, and therefore protocols have been optimised to reduce stress during these stages [102].
217 Less appreciated is the potential for altered sperm environments to also induce epigenetic changes
218 with consequences for developmental success and offspring health. During the development of
219 semen handling protocols, methods were optimised to maximise fertilisation success only. However,
220 there is now compelling evidence that environmentally-acquired traits can be transmitted from
221 sperm to offspring via non-genetic inheritance mechanisms [18, 58, 64] and hence, ART success rates
222 may be improved by optimising semen preparation protocols to balance fertilisation and offspring
223 developmental success. In particular, semen preparation methods can be used to select which
224 sperm within an ejaculate are used to fertilise eggs.

225

226 Despite declines in sperm numbers, the average adult human male still produces over 200 million
227 sperm per ejaculate [92]. However, all sperm are not equal, and only a surprisingly small fraction of
228 sperm needs to be functional for a male to be fertile. According to WHO guidelines, an ejaculate is
229 considered as normal fertility with as little as 32% of sperm showing progressive motility and 4% of
230 sperm having normal morphology (strict criteria) [103]. An underappreciated implication of these
231 differing figures is that many sperm with non-normal morphology are able to swim normally, and
232 could potentially successfully fertilise an egg. Even less is known about how phenotypic differences
233 in these fertile sperm relate to variation in offspring. In fact, selecting a subpopulation of sperm by
234 thermotaxis prior to ICSI results in a greater number of high quality mouse embryos compared to
235 ICSI using unselected sperm [104]. Just as average sperm traits are influenced by a male's
236 environment, the amount of variation in sperm traits within an ejaculate can also be influenced by
237 environmental factors [105, 106]. If these differences in sperm traits are associated with differences
238 in offspring traits, then any factor influencing which sperm within an ejaculate fertilises an egg could
239 also influence offspring.

240

241 **Evolutionary implications of ART**

242 While ART is used in medical science as a treatment for infertility, the predominant use of ART
243 occurs in agriculture and fisheries, where it is used to enhance selective breeding and production
244 efficiencies [107, 108]. In animal industries, ART is often used in fertile animals over multiple
245 generations. Hence, ART induced epigenetic changes transmitted from gametes to offspring could
246 have evolutionary implications for livestock populations. The most common form of ART applied in
247 agriculture is artificial insemination (AI), producing up to 80% of dairy cattle and 90% of breeding
248 sows in developed countries [107]. Semen from an elite stud male can be diluted and frozen,
249 shipped worldwide, and subsequently used to inseminate herds of females quickly and easily. For
250 example, more than 1000 semen doses can be produced from a single bull ejaculate. Even in this
251 minimally invasive procedure, sperm are exposed to oxygen and light, subjected to altered
252 temperatures, altered nutritional environments (via dilution and supplementation with supportive
253 media), handling and shear stress, and potentially pollutants and contaminants [109]. Because these
254 altered environmental conditions may alter genetic and epigenetic sperm content transmitted to
255 offspring, the extensive use of even just a few steps of ART in animal breeding and fisheries has the
256 potential to induce unanticipated and under-appreciated changes to population traits.

257

258 The effects of semen preparation methods on sperm DNA fragmentation [110, 111], and the role of
259 sperm DNA fragmentation in ART outcomes [112, 113] have begun to receive research attention. For

260 example, it is well known that cryopreservation causes both lethal and sub-lethal damage to sperm
261 (including DNA fragmentation, oxidative stress, and reduced mitochondrial function) with functional
262 consequences for sperm and offspring [114]. A recent study in the brown trout *Salmo trutta* showed
263 that the processes involved in cryopreservation have negative effects on offspring growth even after
264 just one generation [115]. Cryopreservation may also induce epigenetic changes in sperm, with early
265 indications suggesting that patterns of DNA methylation and histone modification are impacted and
266 may be transmitted over several generations [116]. An exciting development that may alleviate
267 some of the infertility problems we are currently facing is the recent finding that embryo
268 development is enhanced by 'starving and subsequently rescuing' sperm motility prior to use in *in*
269 *vitro* fertilisation [117]. Sperm were 'starved' by incubation in media without nutrients until sperm
270 were no longer motile, then motility was 'rescued' by adding energy substrates to the media. This
271 process increased the number of sperm that became hyperactivated, improving both fertilisation
272 success and post-fertilisation developmental success [117]. Embryo development is also enhanced
273 by transient sperm exposure to a calcium ionophore [118], confirming that embryo development can
274 be improved through modifications to sperm incubation media used in ART. It is too early at this
275 stage, however, to fully understand the possible long-term effects of such seemingly positive
276 interventions.

277

278 **Conclusion and future directions**

279 Our review highlights an important but underappreciated source of genetic and epigenetic variation
280 – environmental variation in post-release gamete environments. Offspring traits can be influenced
281 by changes in environmental conditions experienced by both eggs and sperm via differential
282 fertilisation success, within-ejaculate and within-clutch selection on gamete phenotypes and
283 potentially haploid genotype by environment interactions, and through the inheritance of epigenetic
284 modifications to the molecular content of both eggs and sperm. This review is not intended to be
285 comprehensive, but rather to inspire both applied and fundamental research into the evolutionary
286 consequences of environmental effects on gamete performance. Many of the ideas presented are
287 largely speculative and require further investigation. An obvious knowledge gap is a lack of
288 understanding of the specific molecular changes driving most of the effects described and the
289 functions of altered molecules on both gametes and embryos. In other words, now that we have
290 shown that post-release gamete environments *can* influence offspring traits, we need to move to
291 the next step of understanding *how* these changes are mediated. Of course, different mechanisms
292 are likely to drive different effects, and multiple mechanisms are likely to have additive and
293 interactive effects in most cases [11].

294

295 Other fruitful areas for future investigation include the possibility that sperm are not
296 transcriptionally silent, at least in the early spermatid stages [84] and may express their haploid
297 genome. Such selection may not only be subject to directional (purifying or positive) selection, but
298 also balancing selection induced by variation in environmental conditions during fertilisation. New
299 techniques have also been developed to observe sperm interactions within the female reproductive
300 tract [119-121], which may help to unlock some of the processes by which females differentially
301 select sperm from competing males (i.e. cryptic female choice), which until now have remained
302 elusive. Lastly, we encourage further investigation into the effects of different semen preparation
303 techniques in ART on embryo development. Assisted insemination is used extensively in animal
304 production, veterinary medicine, and conservation biology for practical reasons as it is considered to
305 be minimally invasive. However, because sperm are exposed to altered environments, reproduction
306 via assisted insemination has the potential to affect offspring traits. Modification of semen
307 preparation protocols has the potential to improve outcomes in terms of both the number of
308 offspring produced and the health of these offspring.

309

310

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316

317

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