

1 **CONVERGENT EVOLUTION OF CONSERVED MITOCHONDRIAL PATHWAYS**
2 **UNDERLIES REPEATED ADAPTATION TO EXTREME ENVIRONMENTS**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Extreme environments test the limits of life. Still, some organisms thrive in harsh conditions,
24 begging the question whether the repeated colonization of extreme environments is facilitated by
25 predictable and repeatable evolutionary innovations. We identified the mechanistic basis underlying
26 convergent evolution of tolerance to hydrogen sulfide (H₂S)—a potent toxicant that impairs
27 mitochondrial function—across evolutionarily independent lineages of a fish (*Poecilia mexicana*,
28 Poeciliidae) from H₂S-rich freshwater springs. We found that mitochondrial function is maintained
29 in the presence of H₂S in sulfide spring *P. mexicana*, but not ancestral lineages in adjacent nonsulfidic
30 habitats, due to convergent adaptations in both the primary toxicity target and a major detoxification
31 enzyme. Additionally, we show that H₂S tolerance in 10 independent lineages of sulfide spring fishes
32 across multiple genera of Poeciliidae is mediated by convergent modification and expression changes
33 of genes associated with H₂S toxicity and detoxification. Our results demonstrate that the repeated
34 modification of highly conserved physiological pathways associated with essential mitochondrial
35 processes enabled the colonization of novel environments.

36

37 Stephen J. Gould was a fierce proponent of the importance of contingency in evolution, famously
38 quipping that replaying the “tape of life” would lead to different outcomes every time (1).
39 Mitochondrial genomes were historically thought to be a prime example of such contingency
40 evolution, because alternative genetic variants were assumed to be selectively neutral (2). This
41 paradigm has been shifting, with mounting evidence that mitochondria—and genes encoded in the
42 mitochondrial genome—play an important role in adaptation, especially in the context of
43 physiochemical stress (3). However, it often remains unclear how genetic variation in mitochondrial
44 genomes and nuclear genes that contribute to mitochondrial function translates to variation in
45 physiological and organismal function. Furthermore, it is not known whether exposure to similar
46 selective regimes may cause convergent modifications of mitochondrial genomes and emergent
47 biochemical and physiological functions in evolutionarily independent lineages. Extreme
48 environments that represent novel ecological niches are natural experiments to address questions
49 about mechanisms underlying mitochondrial adaptations and illuminate the predictability of adaptive
50 evolution of mitochondria. Among the most extreme freshwater ecosystems are springs with high
51 levels of hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), a potent respiratory toxicant lethal to metazoans due to its
52 inhibition of mitochondrial ATP production (4). Multiple lineages of livebearing fishes (Poeciliidae)
53 have colonized H₂S-rich springs throughout the Americas and independently evolved tolerance to
54 sustained H₂S concentrations orders of magnitudes higher than those encountered by ancestral
55 lineages in nonsulfidic habitats (5). Here, we identify the mechanistic basis of increased H₂S
56 tolerance—an evolutionary innovation that facilitated the independent colonization of extreme
57 environments—and ask if the underlying mechanisms have evolved in convergence in disparate
58 lineages of livebearing fishes.

59 H₂S toxicity and detoxification are associated with highly conserved physiological pathways
60 in mitochondria (Figure 1A) (6, 7), providing *a priori* predictions about molecular mechanisms

61 underlying adaptation to this strong source of selection. Toxic effects of H₂S result from binding to
62 and inhibition of cytochrome c oxidase (COX) in the oxidative phosphorylation (OxPhos) pathway
63 (8). Animal cells can also detoxify low concentrations of endogenously produced H₂S via the
64 mitochondrial sulfide:quinone oxidoreductase (SQR) pathway, which is linked to OxPhos (9). We
65 have previously shown that genes associated with both pathways are under divergent selection and
66 differentially expressed between fish populations in sulfidic and nonsulfidic habitats (5). These
67 include genes encoding subunits of the direct toxicity target (COX) and the enzyme mediating the
68 first step of detoxification (SQR) (5). Tolerance to H₂S may therefore be mediated by resistance
69 (modification of toxicity targets that reduce the negative impact of H₂S), regulation (modification of
70 physiological pathways that maintain H₂S homeostasis), or both (4).

71 We used a series of *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays to identify the functional consequences of
72 modifications to the OxPhos and SQR pathways in evolutionarily independent population pairs of
73 *P. mexicana* from adjacent sulfidic and nonsulfidic habitats (Figure S1), including analyses of the
74 activity of relevant proteins and the physiological function of mitochondria and whole organisms. If
75 resistance was the primary mechanism of tolerance, we predict that COX function is maintained in
76 the presence of H₂S in fish from sulfidic populations, but not those from nonsulfidic populations.
77 Quantification of COX function indicated that enzyme activity generally declined with increasing
78 H₂S concentrations (Figure 1B). However, inhibition of COX by H₂S was reduced for two *P.*
79 *mexicana* populations from sulfidic habitats (Puy and Pich), which maintained significant COX
80 activity even at the highest H₂S concentrations. Consequently, resistance may contribute to H₂S
81 tolerance in some populations, but cannot explain the repeated evolution of H₂S tolerance by itself,
82 because COX activity in one H₂S-tolerant population (Tac) declined just as in nonsulfidic
83 populations (Figure 1B).

84 We also tested whether tolerant and intolerant populations differ in their ability to detoxify
85 H₂S by conducting enzyme activity assays of SQR. SQR activity was significantly higher in
86 mitochondria from sulfidic populations at intermediate and high H₂S concentrations (Figure 1C),
87 likely helping fish from sulfidic habitats to maintain H₂S homeostasis during environmental
88 exposure. To test this prediction *in vivo*, we used a novel mitochondria-specific H₂S-probe (MitoA)
89 that allows for the monitoring of relative H₂S levels inside the mitochondria of living organisms (10).
90 We measured mitochondrial H₂S concentrations in this manner using laboratory-reared fish that
91 were exposed to varying levels of H₂S. Mitochondrial H₂S concentrations in mitochondria isolated
92 from livers (Figure 1D) and other organs (Figure S2) of fish from nonsulfidic habitats increased
93 above control levels at all exposure concentrations. In contrast, mitochondrial H₂S concentrations in
94 isolates of fish from sulfidic populations did not usually exceed control levels and remained lower
95 than levels in fish from nonsulfidic habitats. Together, these results indicate that populations of *P.*
96 *mexicana* from sulfidic habitats can detoxify H₂S at higher rates and thus regulate mitochondrial H₂S
97 upon environmental exposure.

98 Modification of the OxPhos and SQR pathways in *P. mexicana* suggests that mitochondrial
99 adaptation is key to the evolution of H₂S tolerance. Therefore, mitochondrial function of fish from
100 sulfidic habitats should be maintained upon exposure to H₂S. We tested this hypothesis by
101 quantifying different aspects of mitochondrial function (basal respiration, maximal respiration, and
102 spare respiratory capacity) along a gradient of H₂S concentrations using an *ex vivo* coupling assay. As
103 expected, all aspects of mitochondrial function generally declined with increasing H₂S (Figures 1E,
104 S3-S5). Comparison of mitochondrial function between adjacent populations in sulfidic and
105 nonsulfidic habitats indicated no differences in basal respiration (Figure S3). However, individuals
106 from sulfidic populations were able to maintain maximal respiration and spare respiratory capacity at
107 higher levels compared to individuals from nonsulfidic habitats of the same river drainage (Figure

108 1E), even though the magnitude of difference and the shape of response curves varied (Figures S4-
109 S5). Overall, our findings indicate that mitochondria of H₂S-tolerant individuals continue to produce
110 ATP in the presence of an inhibitor that reduces mitochondrial function in ancestral lineages.

111 The independent evolution of H₂S tolerance in *P. mexicana* by convergent modifications in
112 pathways involved in toxicity and detoxification begs questions about the origin of adaptive alleles
113 (11). At microevolutionary scales, convergence may be a consequence of the repeated assembly of
114 related alleles into different genomic backgrounds, either through selection on standing genetic
115 variation or introgression (12, 13). However, the epitome of convergent evolution is arguably the
116 independent origin of adaptive mutations at the same locus that lead to consistent functional
117 outcomes (14, 15). To identify convergence at a genomic level, we re-sequenced whole genomes of
118 multiple *P. mexicana* individuals from sulfidic and nonsulfidic habitats. Analyzing phylogenetic
119 relationship among *P. mexicana* populations (with *P. reticulata* as an outgroup) using 13,390,303 SNPs
120 distributed across the genome confirmed three independent colonization events of sulfide springs
121 and distinct evolutionary trajectories for sulfide spring populations in different drainages (Figure
122 2A). If adaptive alleles arose separately through *de novo* mutation in each sulfide spring population,
123 we would expect that putative adaptive alleles mirror these relationships, as previously documented
124 for H₂S-resistant alleles in mitochondrial *COX* subunits (16). However, patterns of divergence
125 (Figure S6) and local ancestry were highly variable across the genome. Classifying local patterns of
126 genetic similarity using a Hidden Markov Model and a Self Organising Map (17) allowed us to
127 identify genomic regions in which ancestry patterns deviate from the genome-wide consensus,
128 including multiple regions with a strong signal of clustering by ecotype (sulfidic *vs.* nonsulfidic
129 populations). Such clustering by ecotype occurred in <1 % of the genome (Figure S7), but included
130 genomic regions encoding genes associated with H₂S detoxification (e.g., *ETHE1* and *SQR*; Figure
131 2B, Table S14). Clustering by ecotype indicates a monophyletic origin of putatively adaptive alleles

132 that are shared across independent lineages of sulfide spring *P. mexicana* as a consequence of
133 selection on standing genetic variation or introgression. Consequently, multiple mechanisms played a
134 role in the convergent evolution of H₂S-tolerance in *P. mexicana*.

135 While selection on standing genetic variation and introgression can explain convergent
136 evolution at microevolutionary scales, adaptive alleles are unlikely to be shared among lineages at
137 macroevolutionary scales due to high phylogenetic and geographic distances separating gene pools
138 (18). Absence of convergence in molecular mechanisms at broader phylogenetic scales might
139 indicate the importance of contingency in evolution, as postulated by Gould. In contrast, the
140 presence of convergence would indicate that fundamental constraints limit the number of solutions
141 for a functional problem (19). We used phylogenetic comparative analyses of gene expression and
142 analyses of molecular evolution to detect patterns of molecular convergence in 10 lineages of sulfide
143 spring poeciliids and ancestors in nonsulfidic habitats (Figure S1). This included members of five
144 genera that span over 40 million years of divergence and occur in different biogeographic contexts
145 (Figure S1). We found evidence for convergence in both gene expression and sequence evolution.
146 Variation in overall gene expression was strongly influenced by phylogenetic relationships (Figure
147 3A). However, 186 genes exhibited significant evidence for convergent expression shifts in sulfide
148 spring fishes (Figure 3B, Table S16), segregating lineages based on habitat type of origin, irrespective
149 of phylogenetic relationships (Figure 3C). Functional annotation indicated that genes with
150 convergent expression shifts were enriched for biological processes associated with H₂S
151 detoxification (SQR pathway, Figure 3D), the processing of sulfur compounds, and H₂S toxicity
152 targets in OxPhos (Figure S8, Table S17). We also identified 11 genes with elevated nonsynonymous
153 to synonymous substitution rates across the phylogeny, including three mitochondrial genes that
154 encode subunits of H₂S's toxicity target (*COX1* and *COX3*) and OxPhos complex III (*CYTB*; Table
155 S18). Most amino acid substitutions in *COX1* and *COX3* occurred in a lineage-specific fashion, but

156 convergent substitutions across clades occurred at six codons in *COX1* and two codons in *COX3*
157 (Figure 4).

158 Colonization of novel niches with extreme environmental conditions in poeciliids is the
159 result of repeated and predicted modifications of the same physiological pathways, genes, and—in
160 some instances—codons associated with mitochondrial function. This convergence at multiple
161 levels of biological organization is likely a consequence of constraint, because the explicit
162 biochemical and physiological consequences of H₂S severely limit the ways organisms can cope with
163 its toxicity (19). Due to these constraints, molecular convergence is not only evident at
164 microevolutionary scales, where selection can repeatedly assemble related alleles into different
165 genomic backgrounds, but also at macroevolutionary scales including lineages separated by over 40
166 million years of evolution. Evolutionary novelty can consequently arise through the convergent
167 modification of the most conserved physiological pathways, underscoring the long overlooked role
168 of mitochondria in adaptive evolution (3).

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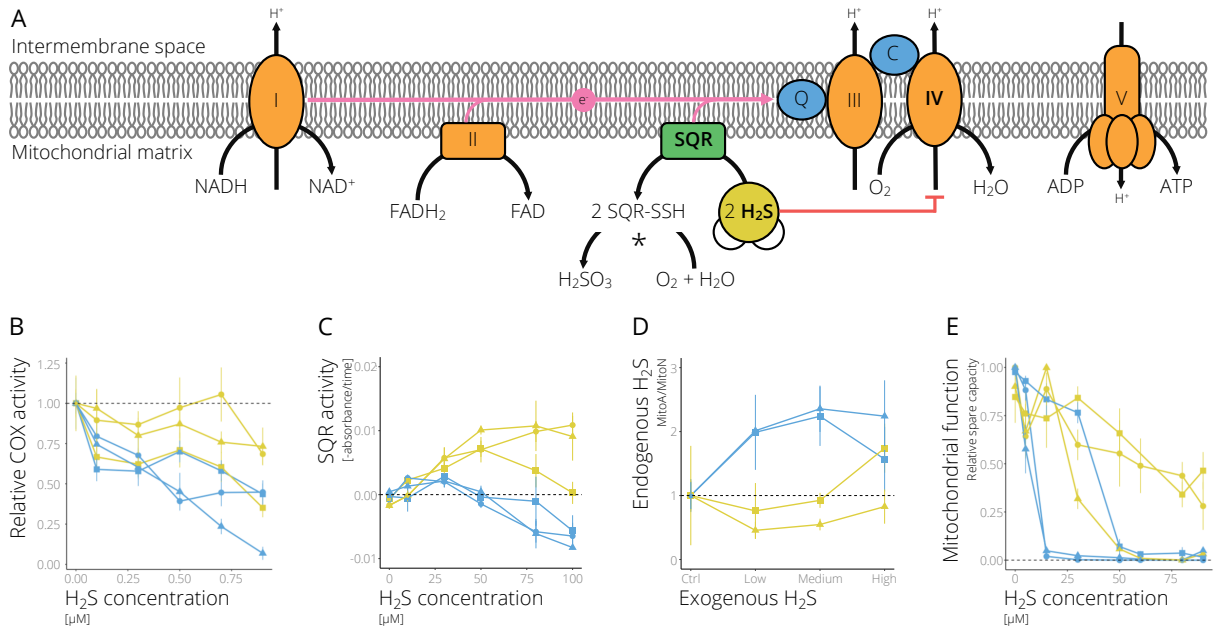
217 MT; Fieldwork: RG, NB, APB, LAR, CMRP, JLK, MT; Functional analyses: NB, CH, SA, GYL,

218 MPM, LW, DL, JHS, MT; Genomics and transcriptomics: RG, APB, JLK, MT; Data analysis: RG,

219 NB, CH, APB, JLK, MT; Writing original draft: RG, NB, JLK, MT; Writing, reviewing, editing: all

220 authors.

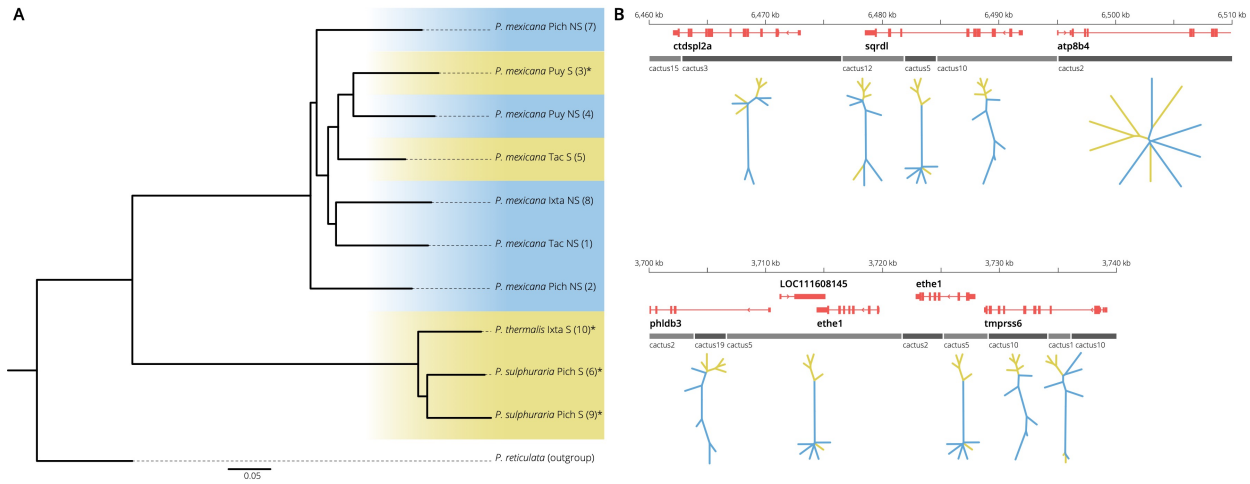
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223 **Figure 1.A.** Physiological pathways associated with H₂S toxicity and detoxification are located in the
 224 inner mitochondrial membrane. H₂S inhibits OxPhos (orange enzymes) by binding to COX
 225 (Complex IV). H₂S can be detoxified through SQR (green enzyme) and additional enzymes
 226 (indicated by asterisks). **B.** Relative activity of COX upon H₂S exposure, which was primarily
 227 explained by an interaction between habitat type of origin and ambient H₂S concentration (Tables
 228 S2-S3). **C.** Activity of SQR as a function of H₂S concentration, which was explained by an
 229 interaction between habitat type of origin and H₂S concentration (Tables S4-S5). **D.** Relative change
 230 in mitochondrial H₂S concentrations in the liver of live fish exposed to different levels of
 231 environmental H₂S. Variation in mitochondrial H₂S levels were explained by habitat type of origin
 232 and exogenous H₂S concentration (Tables S6-S7). **E.** Relative spare respiratory capacity of isolated
 233 liver mitochondria at different levels of H₂S. The interaction between habitat type of origin and
 234 drainage of origin best explained variation in spare respiratory capacity (Tables S11-S12). For all
 235 graphs, yellow colors denote *P. mexicana* from H₂S-rich habitats, blue from nonsulfidic habitats.
 236 Symbols stand for populations from different river drainages (■: Tac; ▲: Puy; ●: Pich; see Figure
 237 S1).

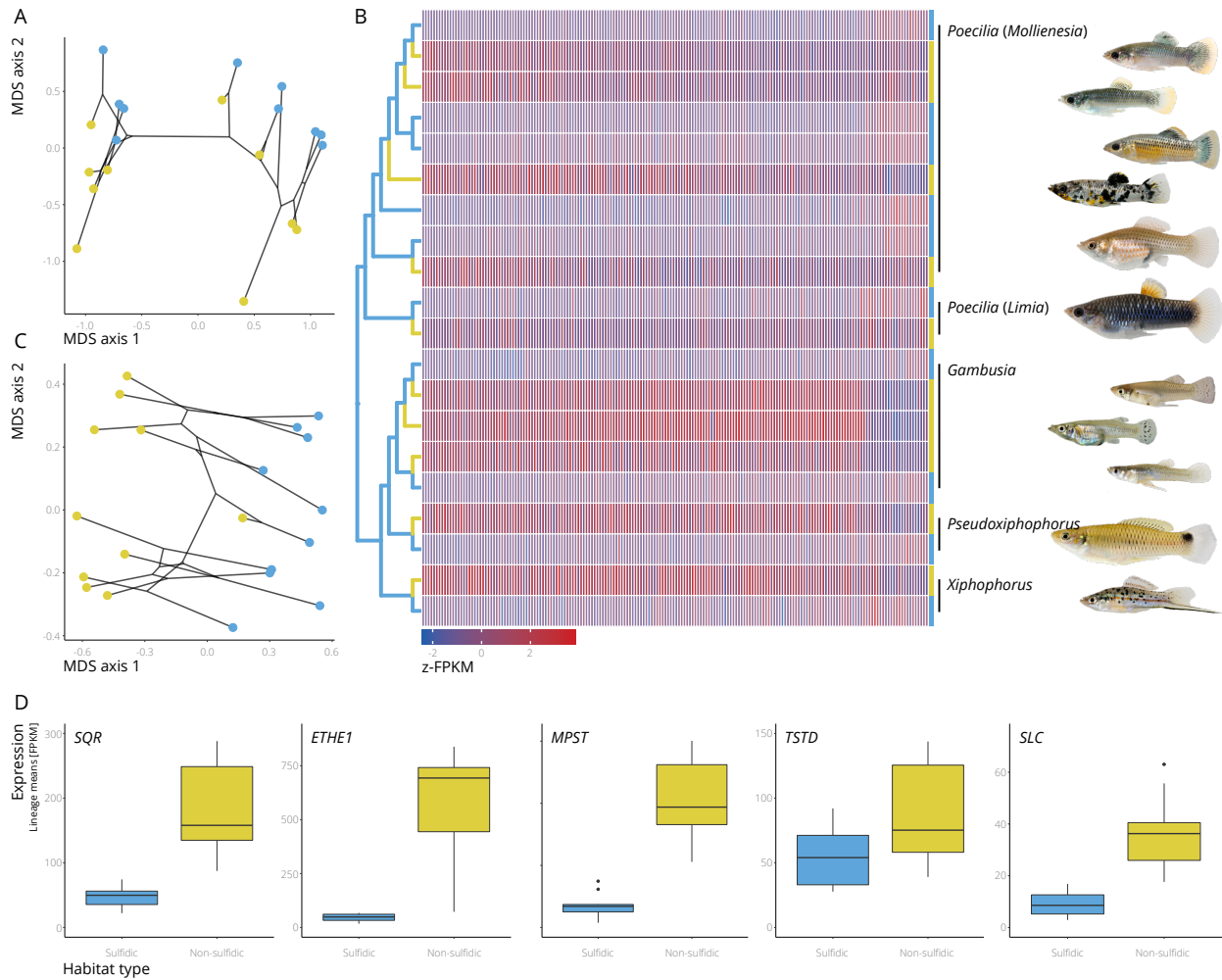
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240 **Figure 2.A.** Phylogeny of different population in the *P. mexicana* species complex (with *P. reticulata*
241 as an outgroup) based on genome-wide SNPs. Colors indicate nonsulfidic (blue) vs. sulfidic (yellow)
242 lineages. **B.** Local ancestry patterns around two key genes involved in H₂S detoxification, *SQR* and
243 *ETHE1*. Gray bars represent the local ancestry pattern (cactus) associated with each region.
244 Unrooted trees represent local ancestry relationships, with sulfidic lineages colored in yellow and
245 nonsulfidic lineages in blue. Cacti 10 and 19 show clear clustering by ecotype. In cacti 1, 5, and 12,
246 four of five sulfidic individuals cluster together.

247



248
 249 **Figure 3.A.** Multidimensional scaling (MDS) plot of overall gene expression patterns across 20
 250 lineages of poeciliid fishes. Black lines represent phylogenetic relationships among lineages; color
 251 represents habitat type of origin (yellow: sulfidic; blue: nonsulfidic). **B.** Expression variation of 186
 252 genes with evidence for convergent expression shifts (α -transformed). Colors represent expression
 253 levels as indicated by the scale. The cladogram shows the phylogenetic relationship among lineages.
 254 Pictures on the side are examples of sulfide spring fishes (from top to bottom): *P. mexicana* (Tac), *P.*
 255 *mexicana* (Puy), *P. sulphuraria* (2), *P. latipinna*, *L. sulphurophila*, *G. sexradiata*, *G. eurystoma*, *G. holbrooki*, *P.*
 256 *bimaculatus*, *X. hellerii*. **C.** MDS plot of the expression of 186 genes with evidence for convergent
 257 expression shifts. **D.** Boxplot with mean expression levels of different components of the SQR
 258 pathway across lineages from sulfidic (yellow) and nonsulfidic (blue) habitats.

