

Adaptive habitat selection by a single celled alga?

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by

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Summary

- 1) When populations have opportunity to occupy multiple habitats, individuals that move to habitats with higher mean fitness will expect to produce more descendants than will individuals that are incapable of adaptive habitat choice. Although adaptive movement is widely assumed, we lack understanding of how widely it might apply to motile but non-sentient organisms.
- 2) I used replicate populations of the single-celled alga, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, to assess its ability to preferentially occupy habitat yielding the highest fitness. I pipetted different densities of *C. reinhardtii* into pairs of shaded and unshaded control Petri dishes filled with growth media. I estimated fitness of this 'clonal' species as per capita growth rate (the ratio of cell densities measured at time $t + 1$ divided by the density at time t). I used the estimates to predict the ideal-free distribution of cells expected in adjacent pairs of the two habitats.
- 3) I created pairs of adjacent shaded and unshaded habitats within two other sets of Petri dishes by covering one-half of each dish with black micromesh. One set of dishes contained unused media, the other set contained the same media in which the cells had been growing (used media). I pipetted algae into either half of these Petri dishes and let cells distribute between habitats for 12 h. I isolated the two halves of each dish and sampled the density of cells occupying each side. I compared the observed distribution with that predicted to test for an ideal-free distribution and calculated fitness to assess adaptive movement.
- 4) Fitness declined linearly with increasing density in both the light and shade controls, and was higher in light than in shade. When pipetted into the light side of dishes with unused

media, cells were more abundant in light than in shade, and there was no difference in fitness. But when pipetted into the shaded side in dishes with unused media, and in all treatments with used media, there was no significant difference in cell density between habitats even though fitness was usually higher in the light habitat.

- 5) It thus appears that the ability of *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* to achieve an ideal free distribution, and more generally to move adaptively, is contingent not only on differences between habitats, but also on the mean quality of the environment in which habitat selection occurs. Regardless, the experiments demonstrate that a motile non-sentient species with simple sensory abilities is clearly capable of adaptive movement that enhances fitness.

Lay Summary

Faculty and students in the Department of Biology are bound together by a common interest in explaining the diversity of life, the fit between form and function, and the distribution and abundance of organisms. The research reported here shows how habitat selection and adaptive movement influence population dynamics. I first demonstrate by theory why habitat selection should vary with density. I then describe experiments in which I measured per capita population growth rates of the single-celled alga, *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, in separate shaded and unshaded (light) habitats across a range of densities, and used them to predict the number of cells that one should observe in adjacent habitats. Fitness was higher in the light habitat than in the shade. Using these observations, theory predicts that all individuals should occupy the light habitat at low density, but as density increases individuals should increasingly occupy the shade. More generally, individual cells should move to habitats of higher mean fitness (adaptive movement). My experiments on *Chlamydomonas* demonstrated a rather novel form of adaptive movement that only partially confirmed the predictions. The fitness of cells released in the light habitat in rich environments was not different from that in shade because density was higher in light. Cells released in shade, and those released in poor environments, moved such that there were no differences in density between habitats, even though fitness was usually higher in light. Adaptive movement thus depends not only on the quality of the occupied habitat, but also on mean environmental quality.

Acknowledgments

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1 **Introduction**

2 The vast majority of organisms compete for resources in spatially and temporally stochastic
3 environments where density-dependent habitat selection can modulate population dynamics,
4 species-interactions, and community structure (Rosenzweig 1981; Morris 2011). When
5 organisms live in heterogeneous environments, those individuals which remain in or move to
6 areas of high fitness will expect to produce more descendants than will individuals lacking such
7 adaptive potential (Holt 1985; Abrams 2000). Classical theory imagines that the movement of
8 individuals among habitats that differ in suitability should equalize mean fitness (an ideal free
9 distribution [IFD]; Fretwell & Lucas 1969). The IFD assumes, however, that organisms possess
10 perfect information and move only to increase fitness (Milinski & Parker 1991; Hugie & Grand
11 1998). Somewhat less ‘perfect’ organisms are nevertheless likely to move to, or remain in, areas
12 of higher fitness (adaptive movement: Abrams, Cressman & Křivan 2010) but not necessarily
13 equalize mean fitness amongst habitats (Cressman & Křivan 2012).

14 Experiments that match variation in habitat quality with the sensory capabilities and
15 motility of organisms should be able to detect adaptive movement. Such experiments will be
16 most effective if they can be replicated under strictly controlled conditions and if they can
17 independently assess fitness and density. Thus, I ask whether *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (Fig.
18 1), a motile single-celled alga with phototactic and chemotactic abilities (Harris et al. 2009), can
19 achieve adaptive movement.

20 I begin by describing how I manipulated population densities of *C. reinhardtii* in order to
21 obtain replicated estimates of fitness (per capita population growth rates) in shaded and unshaded
22 (light) habitats. I use the relationships between fitness and density to predict the expected

23 distributions of cells in the two habitats assuming ideal-free habitat selection. I then describe
24 experiments where I covered one-half of a set of Petri dishes with micromesh to create adjacent
25 pairs of shaded and unshaded habitats, and assess whether the algae preferentially occupied the
26 habitat yielding the highest fitness. I contrast the observed patterns of distribution and fitness
27 with those predicted from theory and conclude by discussing the evidence supporting adaptive
28 movement, and how it might be constrained in environments of low mean quality.

29

30 **Materials and methods**

31 ALGAL CULTURES

32 Pure batch cultures of wild-type bi-flagellate *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* (strain CC-2935,
33 *Chlamydomonas* Center, Duke University, NC) were grown anaerobically in Erlenmeyer flasks
34 containing modified Bold's basal medium (Appendix 3; Bold, 1940; Bell, 1990). Cultures were
35 gently aerated with sterile filtered air at ambient CO₂ levels (AIRPUMP 702A, Rena®) using 5-
36 ml glass Pasteur pipettes and flexible plastic tubing (C-Flex tubing, No. 06422-07, Cole Parmer).
37 All cultures were grown synchronously in a growth chamber (ThermoScientific, Model no. 845,
38 CA, USA) set on a 12 h light-dark cycle maintained at 23°C (±1.0°C). Mean (and standard
39 deviation) light intensity obtained from measurements (Amprobe LM631A, WA, USA) taken
40 every five minutes at 12 positions in the growth chamber over one hour (repeated four times at 3-
41 h intervals, $n = 144$.) was 2120 (±160) *lux*.

42 Cultures were started from single colonies grown on routinely transferred agar plates as
43 described by Harris et al., (2009). Starting cultures were grown in 75 ml of fresh media in 250-
44 ml Erlenmeyer flasks until they reached mid-log-phase density (1-5 million cells·ml⁻¹) after five
45 to seven days (Appendix 5; Table A2, p. 54). Aliquots (25 ml) were transferred into 300 ml of

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53 Figure 1: Digitally photographed *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* cells [CC-2935, wildtype (-)]
54 under 60X magnification using a phase-contrast setting on an inverted microscope (Olympus
55 IX51, USA) in the Lakehead University Instrumentation Lab, July 2010.

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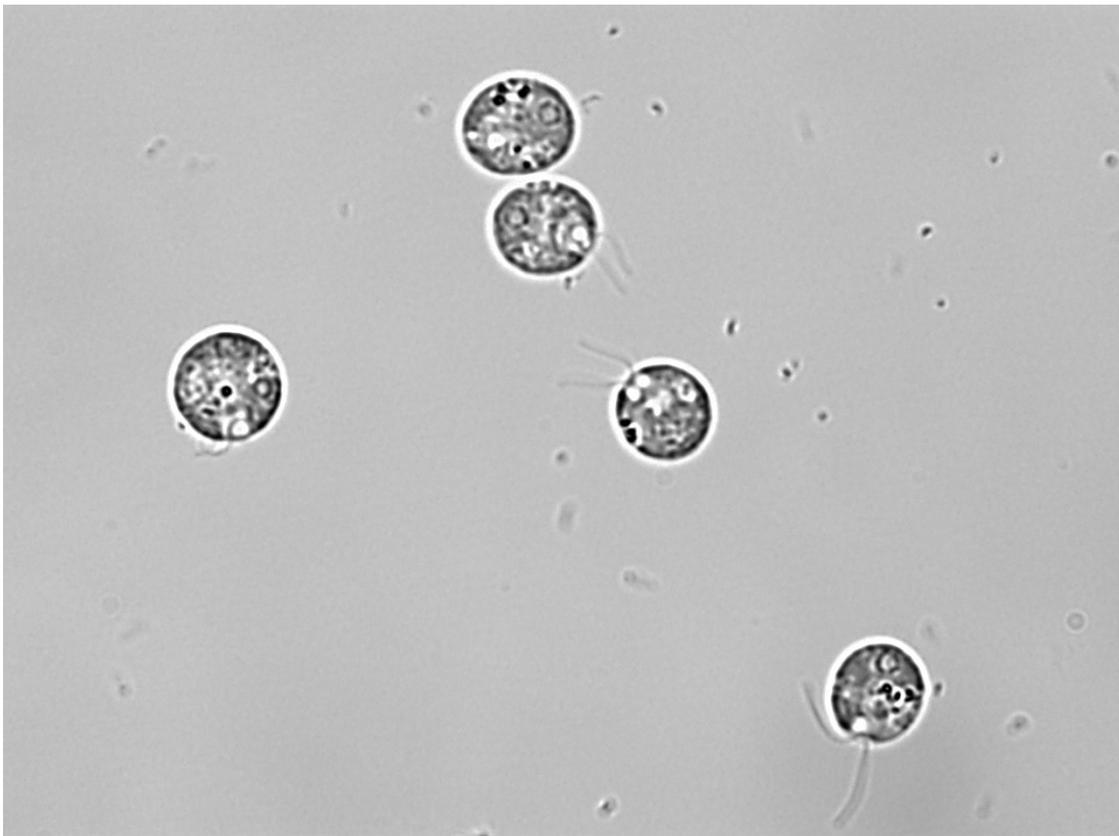
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73 media in one litre Erlenmeyer flasks for an additional growth period (7-10 d). Culture densities
74 were adjusted by dilution to achieve randomly allocated target densities, then centrifuged
75 (Sorvall RC 6 Plus, No. 46910, Thermo Scientific, USA) to pelletize the cells (Harris et al.
76 2009). Cell pellets were washed and re-suspended in 100 ml of fresh media in 500-ml
77 Erlenmeyer flasks, then acclimated for a further 36 h before experimental use (as recommended
78 by Harris et al. 2009).

79 Optical densities were estimated from spectrophotometer absorbancy readings at 665 *nm*
80 on a microplate spectrophotometer (xMark™ Microplate Absorbance Spectrophotometer #168-
81 1150, Bio-Rad, USA) calibrated with one blank well containing pure media on each microplate.
82 Optical densities of diluted cell cultures were converted to cell densities (millions of cells·ml⁻¹)
83 with calibration curves from haemocytometer cell counts of immobilized samples (Appendix 4,
84 pp. 47-51; Fig. A7, p. 61).

85

86 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

87 Experiments were conducted in glass Petri dishes (100 x 15 mm, No. 89000-304, VWR®
88 International). All Petri dishes were placed inside 10-cm tall black cardstock cylinders to ensure
89 that cultures received uniform light intensity from the bank of growth lights overhead.
90 Removable partitions made of wax-based modelling clay (NDC57, Polyform Products Co.
91 Illinois, USA) were placed across the middle of each Petri dish to create two equal-sized halves
92 (habitats). Habitats designated as ‘shaded’ were overlaid with double-layered black fibreglass
93 micromesh (mesh size 0.25 mm², FCS7350-A, Saint Gobain, CA). The mesh on top of the Petri
94 dish lids reduced the mean (and standard deviation) light intensity from 2120 (±160) to 240

95 (± 35) *lux* ($n = 144$). Unshaded Petri dishes (light habitats) were fully exposed to the mean light
96 intensity of 2120 (± 160) *lux*.

97 Fifteen ml of *C. reinhardtii* culture was pipetted into one-half (the initial half) of the
98 partitioned Petri dishes (15 ml of unused or used media without algae was pipetted into the
99 alternate half). Partitions were removed and cells were free to move throughout the Petri dish for
100 one full photoperiod (12 h). Two controls and two treatments, consisting of three different
101 densities (12 Petri dishes), were tested simultaneously (Figure A5, p. 57). ‘Light’ controls were
102 unshaded; shade controls were fully covered with mesh. One-half of each dish was covered by
103 mesh in the two habitat-selection treatments. One treatment consisted of cell-culture pipetted
104 into light halves of the three replicate dishes, the other consisted of cell-culture pipetted into
105 shaded halves. All cell-culture transfers, positions in the growth chamber, and the order of
106 processing samples were determined randomly in advance using a random number generator (R
107 Core Development Team 2008).

108

109 FITNESS AND HABITAT SELECTION

110 Cell densities in each habitat were quantified at time zero, and at 12, 24, and 48 hours after the
111 start of each experiment. At the end of the first photoperiod (12 h), after cells had opportunity to
112 select between habitats, new partitions were inserted between the habitats and remained in place
113 for the duration of the experiment (Appendix 5; Fig. A6, p. 59). Each half of every Petri dish
114 was gently aerated at each sampling interval to ensure accurate and repeatable density estimates
115 within habitats. Eight-220 μ l samples from each half were drawn with an eight-tip micropipette
116 oriented parallel to, and equidistant from (225 mm), the partition. All samples were then

117 pipetted into 96-well microplates (DL-3571172, BD Falcon, CA, USA) and the mean of three
118 optical densities (absorbancy) recorded at 665 *nm* on the spectrophotometer. One ‘blank’ well
119 containing pure media was used to calibrate the readings obtained from each microplate.
120 Densities recorded at 12 h (N_{12}) were used to determine the distribution achieved by habitat
121 selection. Cells divide only during the dark part of the cycle (Harris et al. 2009), so I estimated
122 fitness as the per capita population growth rate achieved between 24 and 48 h (density at 48 h
123 [N_{48}] divided by the density at 24 h [N_{24}]). Use of the 24-48 h time period guarantees that the
124 growth estimates represent fitness achieved after the cells had completed any habitat choice
125 (division between h 12 and 24 would include fitness obtained by cells that occupied both habitats
126 during the previous photosynthesis and habitat-selection phase of the experiment).

127 I conducted two sequential sets of experiments using two different kinds of media in
128 order to assess the role of mean environmental quality on habitat selection. I used freshly
129 prepared (unused) media with a full suite of nutrients in the first set of experiments. In the
130 second set, I tested used media (media remaining after I removed cells by centrifugation) from
131 cultures grown at equivalent densities (and for equal durations) as in the experimental cultures. I
132 tested 15 experimental densities in each set of experiments (and for both the shaded and
133 unshaded controls, as well as the two treatments; 120 Petri dishes yielding 240 estimates of
134 density and fitness).

135

136 PREDICTIONS AND TESTS

137 I designed my experiments to assess whether motile organisms with sensory capability can use
138 those abilities to remain in, or move to, habitats with higher mean fitness (adaptive movement).

139 I reasoned that an absence of covarying densities between the habitats would rule out density-
140 dependent habitat selection. If the density in one habitat depended on that in the other, if the
141 pattern of density mirrored that predicted from the control habitats, and if there was no difference
142 in mean fitness between them, then I can conclude that *Chlamydomonas* habitat selection
143 achieved an IFD. But if density in one habitat depended on that in the other, if mean fitness was
144 higher in the rich (light) habitat, and if cells preferentially moved to or remained in the light, then
145 I can conclude that *Chlamydomonas* is capable of adaptive habitat selection, but incapable of
146 achieving an IFD.

147 I estimated the relationships between per capita population growth rates and cell density
148 by geometric mean regressions in R with the lmodel2 package (2.15.2; R Development Core
149 Team 2008). I used those functions (from the controls only) to predict the densities in each
150 habitat such that mean fitness would be the same in each (the habitat isodars, Morris 1987; 1988;
151 an IFD; Appendices 1 & 2, pp. 38-43). I then contrasted the actual relationships from the
152 habitat-selection treatments with that predicted from the controls. I evaluated the fit of the
153 models to the data by verifying that the distributions of residuals were not different from that
154 expected assuming a normal distribution. I concluded the experiments by using paired t-tests to
155 assess whether fitness was different between the initial and alternate halves of the Petri dishes in
156 each experiment. Significance tests for those comparisons were two-tailed because the IFD
157 predicts equal fitnesses and is silent as to which side of the dishes should attain higher fitness by
158 a non-habitat selecting species.

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161 DIFFUSION CONTROL

162 My tests for adaptive habitat selection assume that the light versus shade treatments created rich
163 and poor habitats respectively, and that algal distributions differed from that expected by
164 diffusion of the media between the two halves of the Petri dishes. If the media diffuses more
165 slowly than the time-scale of habitat selection, then habitat-selection for light versus shade might
166 be confounded by differences in nutrient concentrations.

167 I tested for this possibility by pipetting a 15-ml solution of media coloured with a single
168 concentration of non-reactive dye (10 μ L of dye in 50 ml of media, Bio-Safe coomassie blue
169 stain, #101-0786, BioRad, USA) into one half of 12 different Petri dishes. I pipetted 15 ml of
170 standard media into the other half of the dishes. I evaluated the time-dependent pattern of
171 diffusion by extracting eight-220 μ l paired samples from each side of 12 replicated Petri dishes
172 at one-hour intervals for 12 hours (eight samples from each side of one dish at each interval, each
173 dish used once only). I pipetted the samples into a 96-well microplate and recorded three
174 absorbancy values at 665 *nm* on the spectrophotometer (this wavelength is close to the coomassie
175 blue absorption maximum of 595*nm*, Syrový & Hodný 1991). I calculated the mean of the three
176 values and assessed whether there were differences between the two halves of the dish with
177 paired-t tests ($n = 8$ for each of the 12 tests; Table A3, p. 64). I reasoned that the time when I
178 was unable to detect a difference in absorbancy would correspond with that required for
179 diffusion to 'homogenize' the media.

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182 **Results**

183 UNUSED MEDIA

184 Per capita population growth rate was higher in the control light than in the control shade.
185 Growth rates declined with population density linearly, and in parallel, in both habitats
186 (equations A and B in Table 1, Fig. 2).

187 In order to assess whether or not the habitat-selection experiments yielded an IFD, I set
188 equations (A) and (B) equal to one another

189
$$2.37 - 1.20 \times (\textit{Density in light}) = 1.87 - 1.29 \times (\textit{Density in shade}) \quad (1)$$

190 and solved for the habitat isodar as the density of cells occupying the light habitat,

191
$$\textit{Density in light} = 0.42 + 1.08 \times \textit{Density in shade} \quad (2)$$

192 (dashed line, Fig. 3c, d). According to the isodar, if cells select between the two habitats
193 according to an ideal free distribution, then they should occupy only the light habitat at densities
194 below 0.42 million cells·ml⁻¹, then become ever more evenly distributed between habitats with
195 increasing population size.

196 All regressions comparing cell densities between sides and habitats in unused media were
197 statistically significant (Equations C-F; Table 1). Intercepts were not different from zero and
198 slopes were not different from one in all comparisons of density between sides of control dishes
199 (Table 1). Similarly, there was no difference in the mean per capita population growth rates
200 between initial and alternate sides of the control Petri dishes (Table 2). Cells given a choice
201 between the two identical halves of the control dishes followed an ideal free distribution.

202 When released in light habitat, there was no difference in mean fitness of
203 *Chlamydomonas* between light and shade habitats (Table 2), but the resulting isodar departed
204 from that predicted from the control dishes (intercept not different from zero, slope larger than
205 unity (Fig 3c)). Cells did not achieve an ideal free distribution when released in the shaded half
206 of the habitat-selection dishes. There was no difference in density between habitats (Table 1, Fig
207 3d) even though fitness was higher in the light habitat (Table 2).

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228 Figure 2: The relationships between per capita population growth rates (fitness) and
229 *Chlamydomonas* cell density (millions of cells·ml⁻¹) in the control light (open circles) and
230 control shade (filled circles) habitats with unused media ($n = 30$ for each regression).

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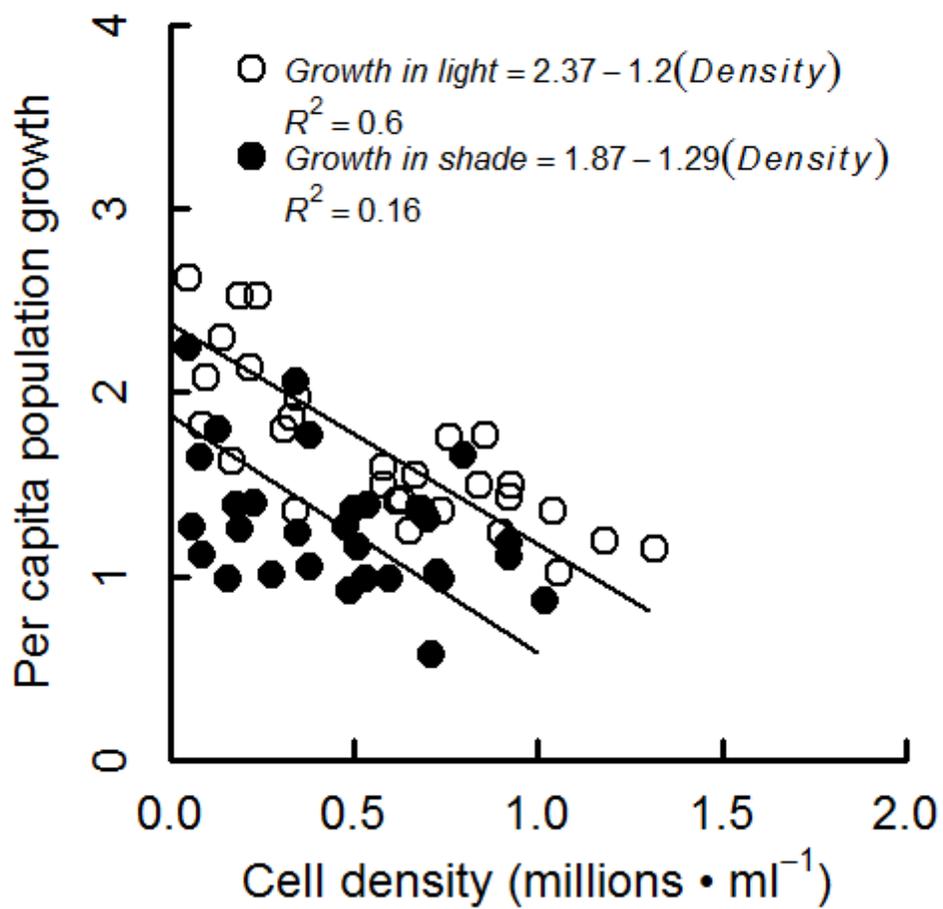
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253 Table 1: Summaries of the relationships between per capita population growth rate (fitness) and
254 cell density, of densities between the two sides of control dishes, and of densities between
255 habitats in treatment dishes for unused media (geometric mean regression; 95% confidence
256 intervals in parentheses). All regressions were statistically significant (bold lettering).

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Comparison	Regression equation	<i>F</i>	df	<i>P</i>	Eq
Per capita population growth rate and density (controls)	$W_{light} = 2.37 (\pm 0.2) - 1.20 (\pm 0.3) \times N_{light}$	44.0	1, 28	<0.001	A
	$W_{shade} = 1.87 (\pm 0.2) - 1.29 (\pm 0.4) \times N_{shade}$	6.4	1, 28	0.02	B
Density between sides (controls)	$N_{Alternate light} = -0.10 (\pm 0.3) + 0.82 (\pm 0.4) \times N_{Initial light}$	9.3	1, 13	0.01	C
	$N_{Alternate shade} = -0.02 (\pm 0.2) + 0.96 (\pm 0.4) \times N_{Initial shade}$	8.7	1, 13	0.01	D
Density between habitats	$N_{Alternate shade} = -0.03 (\pm 0.1) + 0.54 (\pm 0.2) \times N_{Initial light}$	21.5	1, 13	<0.001	E
	$N_{Alternate light} = -0.03 (\pm 0.2) + 1.05 (\pm 0.4) \times N_{Initial shade}$	26.6	1, 13	<0.001	F

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282 Table 2: Comparisons of per capita population growth rates between the initial and alternate
283 sides of Petri dishes containing controls and habitat-selection treatments in unused media. **Bold**
284 lettering identifies statistically significant differences (non-IFD). Paired t-tests; two-tailed
285 significance.

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Side	Habitat	Mean fitness	Paired <i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
Initial	Light	1.56	1.92	0.08
Alternate	Light	1.77		
Initial	Shade	1.37	-1.32	0.21
Alternate	Shade	1.19		
Initial	Light	1.55	-1.8	0.09
Alternate	Shade	1.35		
Initial	Shade	1.10	3.97	0.001
Alternate	Light	1.79		

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311 Figure 3: The 'isodar graphs' of *C. reinhardtii* (millions of cells·ml⁻¹) living in unused media.

312 a and b: habitat isodars comparing initial and alternate sides from control dishes. c and d:

313 regressions of density from the treatment dishes. Open data points represent experiments

314 initiated in the light habitat, filled data points correspond to experiments initiated in the shade.

315 Dashed lines represent the isodar predicted from comparisons between shade and light control

316 dishes.

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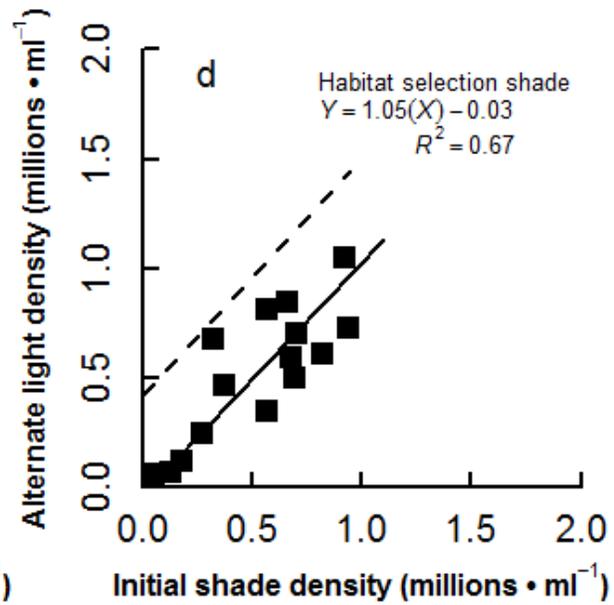
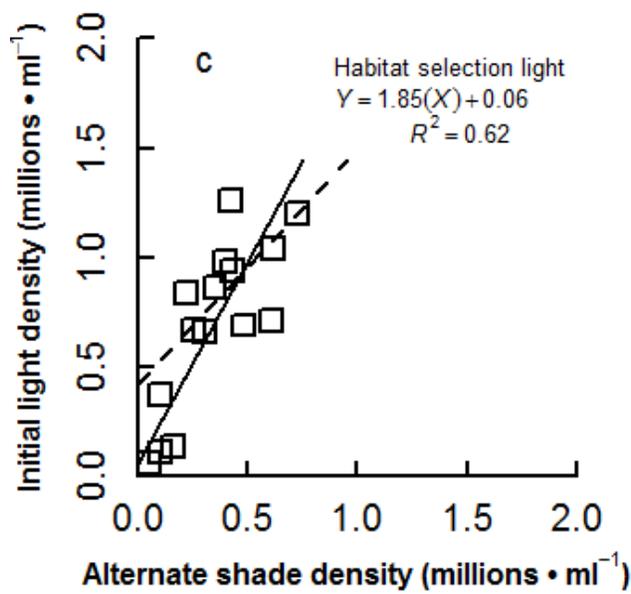
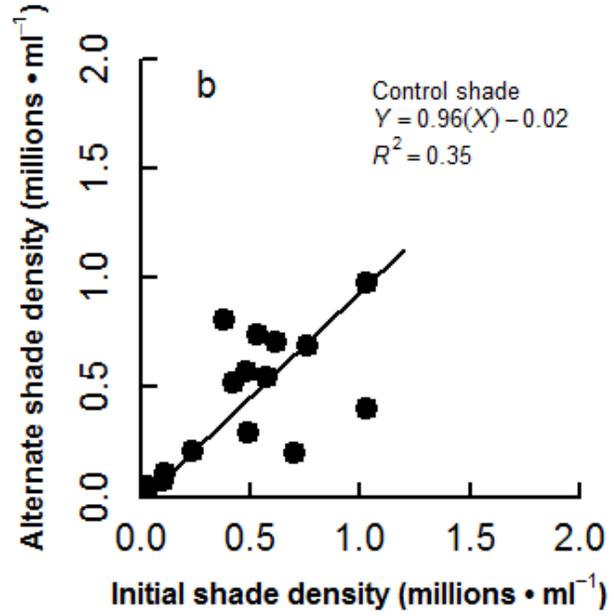
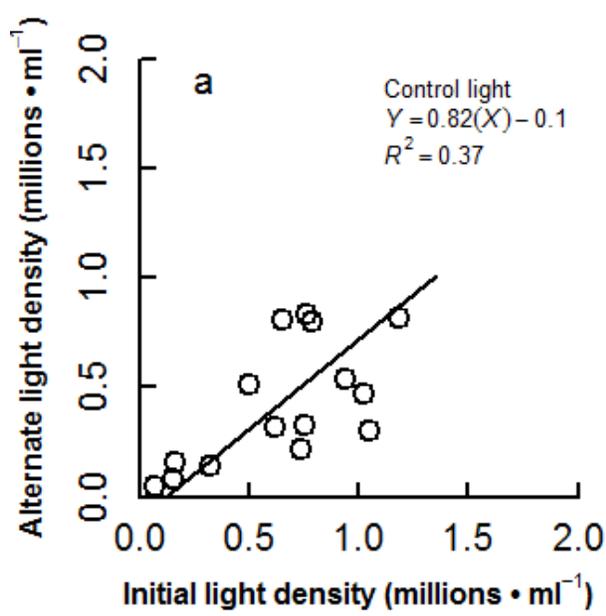
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329 USED MEDIA

330 Again, as in unused media, per capita population growth rate was higher in the control light than
331 in the control shade. Growth rates in controls declined with population density linearly, but
332 much more slowly in shade than in light (equations G and H in Table 3, Fig. 4). The maximum
333 per capita population growth in the control light was slightly lower than in unused media, as was
334 the decline with density (Table 3; contrast Fig. 2 with Fig. 4). There was no difference in fitness
335 between paired halves of control dishes in light (Table 4), but the regression comparing paired
336 densities in the two sides of the dishes was not significant (Fig. 5a, no evidence for density-
337 dependent habitat selection, and thus, not an IFD). Fitness and density in the initial shade side
338 exceeded that in the alternate shaded side (Table 4, Fig. 5b). Contrary to unused media, cells in
339 used-media controls failed to achieve an IFD. Nevertheless, I set equations (G) and (H) equal to
340 one another,

341
$$2.15 - 0.82 \times (\text{Density in light}) = 1.27 - 0.39 \times (\text{Density in shade}) \quad (3)$$

342 and solved the expected isodar as the cell density in the light habitat,

343
$$\text{Density in light} = 1.07 + 0.48 \times \text{Density in shade} \quad (4)$$

344 (dashed line, Fig 5c, d). According to equation (4), if cells select between the two habitats
345 according to an ideal free distribution, then they should occupy only the light habitat at densities
346 below 1.07 million cells·ml⁻¹. Then, for each increase in population size, approximately half as
347 many cells should occupy the lighted half of the dish as occupy the shaded half.

348 Neither habitat-selection treatment with used media produced patterns in habitat densities
349 different from linear one-to-one relationships with zero intercepts and slopes of unity (Table 3,

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357 Figure 4: The relationships between fitness (per capita population growth rates) and
358 *Chlamydomonas* cell density (millions of cells·ml⁻¹) in the control light (open circles) and
359 control shade (filled circles) habitats with used media ($n = 26$ and $n = 29$ respectively).

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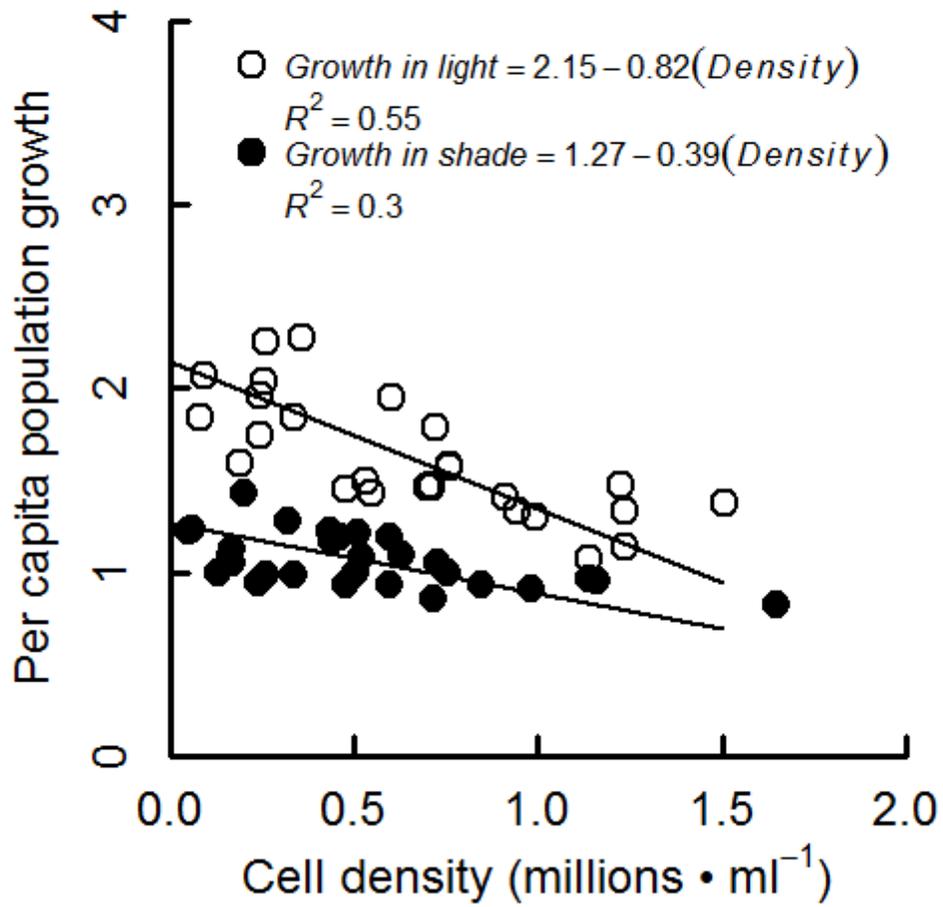
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382 Table 3: Summaries of the relationships between per capita population growth rate (fitness) and
383 cell density, of densities between the two sides of control dishes, and of densities between
384 habitats in treatment dishes for used media (geometric mean regression; 95% confidence
385 intervals in parentheses). Bold lettering identifies statistically significant differences.

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Comparison	Regression equation	<i>F</i>	df	<i>P</i>	Eq
Per capita population growth rate and density (controls)	$W_{light} = 2.15 (\pm 0.2) - 0.82 (\pm 0.2) \times N_{light}$	32.6	1, 25	<0.001	G
	$W_{shade} = 1.27 (\pm 0.1) - 0.39 (\pm 0.1) \times N_{shade}$	13.2	1, 27	0.001	H
Density between sides (controls)	$N_{Alternate light} = 0.12 (\pm 0.3) + 0.67 (\pm 0.4) \times N_{Initial light}$	3.5	1, 13	0.08	I
	$N_{Alternate shade} = -0.06 (\pm 0.2) + 1.32 (\pm 0.4) \times N_{Initial shade}$	9.6	1, 13	<0.01	J
Density between habitats	$N_{Alternate shade} = -0.12 (\pm 0.2) + 0.91 (\pm 0.4) \times N_{Initial light}$	14.2	1, 13	<0.01	K
	$N_{Alternate light} = -0.15 (\pm 0.2) + 0.84 (\pm 0.4) \times N_{Initial shade}$	7.4	1, 13	0.02	L

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411 Table 4: Comparisons of per capita population growth rates between the initial and alternate
412 sides of Petri dishes containing controls and habitat-selection treatments in used media. Bold
413 lettering identifies statistically significant differences (non-IFD). Paired t-tests; two-tailed
414 significance.

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Side	Habitat	Mean fitness	Paired <i>T</i>	<i>P</i>
Initial	Light	1.56	1.82	0.09
Alternate	Light	1.91		
Initial	Shade	1.12	-2.20	0.05
Alternate	Shade	1.04		
Initial	Light	1.81	-5.01	<0.001
Alternate	Shade	1.04		
Initial	Shade	1.12	3.97	<0.001
Alternate	Light	2.16		

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440 Figure 5: The 'isodar graphs' of *C. reinhardtii* (millions of cells·ml⁻¹) living in used media.

441 a and b: habitat isodars comparing initial and alternate sides of control dishes. c and d:

442 regressions of density from the treatment dishes. Open data points represent experiments

443 initiated in the light habitat, filled data points correspond to experiments initiated in the shade.

444 Dashed lines represent the isodar predicted from comparisons between shade and light control

445 dishes.

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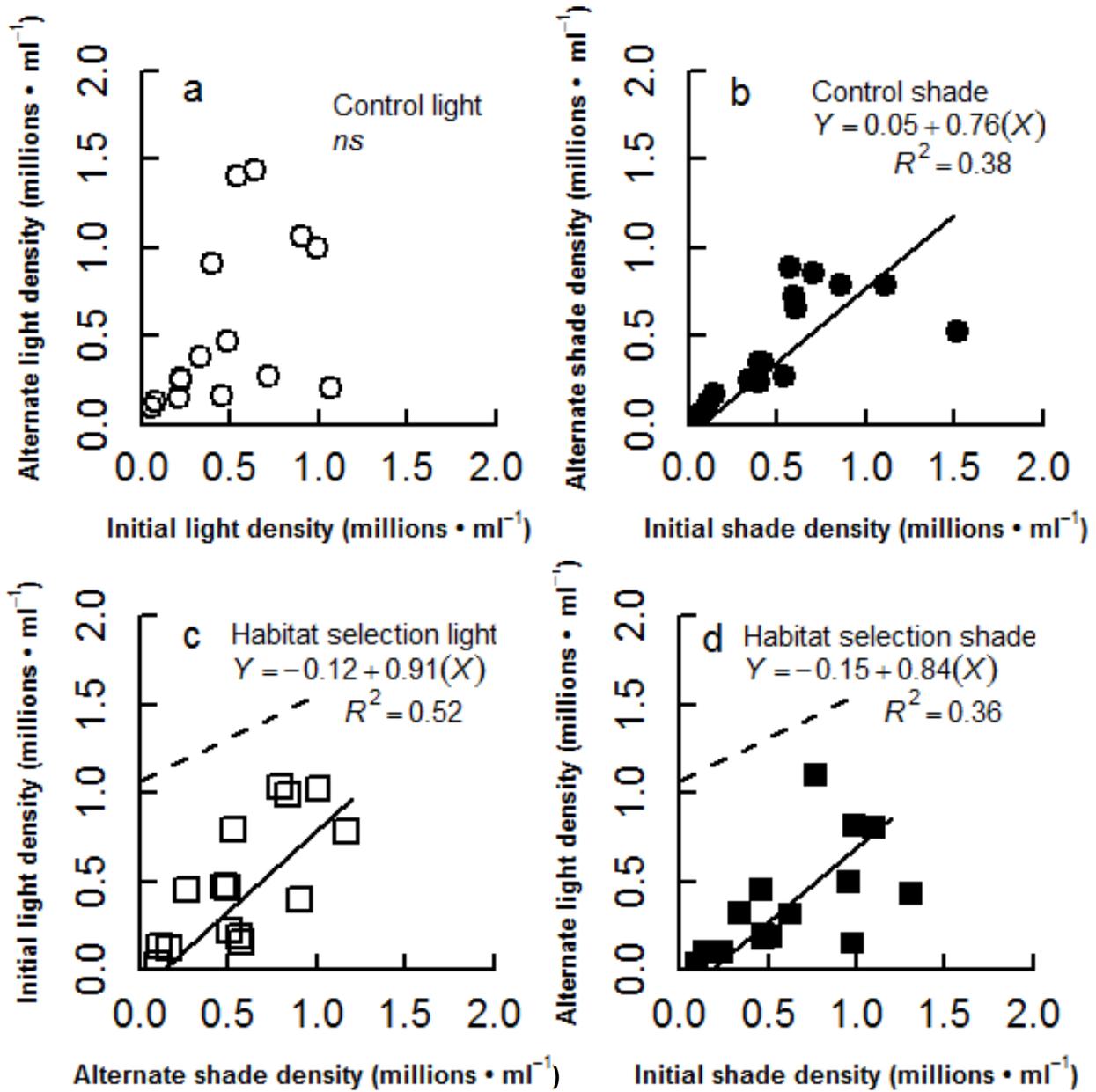
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457 Fig. 5c & d). Per capita population growth rates were significantly greater in light regardless of
 458 which habitat the cells were released into (Table 4). Although there was no clear evidence of

459 differences in density between habitats, the pattern in the residuals suggests a possible preference
460 for the light habitat at low density (Fig. 5c & d). This preference, if real, is consistent with the
461 higher per capita population growth rates observed in that habitat at low density (Fig. 4).

462

463 DIFFUSION

464 Mean absorbancy by dye was dramatically greater on the initial side of the dishes until about
465 hour 4, after which absorbancy was more-or-less homogeneous in both halves of the dishes
466 (Appendix 7, p. 62). It is thus reasonable to assume, for much of the 12-h time course available
467 for habitat selection, 1, that media did not differ between light and shaded habitats, and 2, that
468 differences between habitats were thus caused mainly by differences in light intensity.

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470 Discussion

471 Habitat selection operates through the process of adaptive movement such that individuals can
472 increase fitness by moving to a different habitat. Motile organisms should thus evolve sensory
473 capabilities that enable preferential occupation of habitats yielding higher fitness than others.
474 The experiments reported here document that even simple organisms are capable of adaptive
475 movement that yield repeated, but often less than ideal, patterns of habitat selection.

476 Adaptive habitat selection was best demonstrated in the experiments with unused media.
477 When cells were released in either light or shade controls, there was no difference in density or
478 fitness between the two halves of the dishes. But when cells were released in the light habitat
479 and given the opportunity to move to shade, density was greater in the light habitat even though

480 my diffusion test showed that nutrient concentrations should have equilibrated between habitats.
481 Cells released in light thus attained an ideal free distribution (fitness was not different between
482 habitats), but the densities were not those predicted from the controls.

483 Conversely, there was no detectable difference in density between habitats when cells
484 were exposed to used media, or released in the shade with unused media, even though mean
485 fitness was higher in the light than in the shade in all treatments where cells demonstrated
486 density-dependent habitat selection. How can adaptive movement account for these differing
487 results?

488 Although the experiments maintained constant differences between light and shade
489 habitats in light intensity, cell division was likely limited by local resource depletion as cells
490 metabolized nutrients (Tilman 1990). Thus, diffusion of nutrients from used versus unused
491 media should influence per capita population growth. In rich environments where unused media
492 diffuses between habitats, cells in the light habitat are likely to receive adequate nutrients to
493 maintain high photosynthetic output and reproduction. In poor (used media) environments,
494 however, the availability of nutrients may limit photosynthetic efficiency and cell division such
495 that there is little advantage in choosing one habitat over the other.

496 Regardless, fitness at most densities was higher in light habitat than in shade, and one
497 should expect, *ceteris paribus*, a preference for light by phototactic algae. All is not quite equal,
498 however, because cells living at high light intensities are exposed to increased oxidation of
499 photosystems that require expensive cellular repairs (Harris et al. 2009). It is thus possible that
500 the costs of oxidative stress in light limit the otherwise density-dependent benefits associated
501 with occupying that habitat. Once restricted to the light habitat at the end of the 12-h selection
502 phase, the cells might then invest in physiological adjustments to increase protection and

503 photosynthetic efficiency (Poulin et al. 2009). Those adjustments could then materialize as
504 higher mean fitness (between 24 and 48 h) than the cells initially ‘anticipated’ during oxidative
505 stress.

506 Some readers might question whether the chemotactic ability of *C. reinhardtii* also
507 accounts for the apparent inability to preferentially occupy the habitat (light) yielding high
508 fitness. I suspect not because diffusion should have equalized nutrient concentrations between
509 habitats long before cells completed habitat selection. It is thus difficult to imagine chemotactic
510 cues that, in my experiments, would consistently ‘attract’ cells to one habitat or the other.

511 When cells are released in light, the difference in movement responses between used and
512 unused media are consistent with Křivan et al.’s (2008) prediction that the probability of
513 emigration decreases with the increased suitability of the initial habitat. Cells appear to choose
514 one habitat over another only when there is a strong signal of differences in quality between
515 them that can overcome any costs associated with habitat selection. A similar pattern of
516 apparently adaptive ‘non-movement’ occurs in laboratory populations of rotifers (*Brachionus*
517 *calyciflorus*) which decrease speed and increase turning frequencies when occupying a high
518 quality habitat (Kuefler, Avgar & Fryxell 2013). *C. reinhardtii* appears to possess a movement
519 strategy similar to that of the rotifers. Cells living under diminished light switch stochastically
520 between synchronous and asynchronous flagellar beating patterns that produce intervals of
521 straight swimming with abrupt re-orientations (Poulin et al. 2009). Such simple decision making
522 can likely pay substantial dividends in fitness because the swimming pattern increases the
523 probability of contacting higher-quality habitat. The caveat is that *Chlamydomonas* may only be
524 able to reap those dividends when resources are sufficiently abundant to maximize their
525 photosynthetic capacity.

526 Algal habitat selection is further complicated by an ability to rapidly acclimate to
527 different light conditions. The adaptive value of emigrating from the shade may thus deteriorate
528 through time because the probability of acclimating to a different light intensity increases with
529 the length of exposure (cells can begin acclimating to different light intensities within minutes,
530 Bonente et al. 2012). The ‘doubling’ of costs associated with re-acclimating to light should
531 reduce the penchant for movement by cells that have previously acclimated to shade.

532 The acclimation-cost hypothesis, which has similarities to Stamps’ ‘silver spoon’ and
533 ‘natal habitat preference induction’ models (Davis & Stamps 2004; Stamps 2006; Stamps,
534 Luttbeg & Krishnan 2009), likely accounts for why my best evidence for an ideal free
535 distribution was associated with control dishes in which I observed no difference between halves
536 in either density or fitness. Cells moving between identical ‘habitats’ do not change
537 photosystems and glide through the media with normal flagellar movements that are unlikely to
538 entail significant additional costs of habitat selection. Acclimation costs of habitat selection also
539 likely account for the departure of the ‘released in light’ isodar from that predicted by data from
540 control dishes. Cells migrating to shade must pay the cost of changing photosystems, but cells
541 grown in light controls do not. This important caveat, that controls may not fully account for
542 fitness expectations between habitats, should be carefully contemplated in future tests of habitat
543 selection.

544 Regardless as to mechanisms, selection of high fitness habitat by *C. reinhardtii* in this
545 study was conditional on whether nutrient concentrations were high (unused media) or low (used
546 media). Although conditional strategies of habitat selection are inferior to density-dependent
547 habitat choice, they can be adaptive when habitats of different quality remain constant over long
548 periods of time (Morris, Diffendorfer, & Lundberg 2004). It will be interesting to learn whether

549 habitat selection by more sentient organisms also depends on differences between habitats
550 conditioned by the mean quality of the environment.

551 Adaptive movement emphasizes the benefits of increased fitness as individuals select
552 habitat in response to differences in their environment (Abrams 2000; Cressman & Křivan 2012).
553 The distribution and fitness of *C. reinhardtii* in my experiments documents abilities of adaptive
554 habitat choice originally developed mainly for sentient organisms (Fretwell & Lucas 1969;
555 Flaxman & deRoos 2007). My research demonstrates rather clearly that even so-called simple
556 single-celled organisms are capable of adaptive movements that modify spatial distribution and
557 population dynamics. The biggest surprise, however, is not that algae are capable of adaptive
558 habitat selection, but rather that adaptive movement is so often neglected by ecologists studying
559 the dynamics of populations and communities.

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650 **Appendix 1: DENSITY-DEPENDENT HABITAT SELECTION**

651 Habitat selection refers to the process by which an individual chooses an area in which to
652 conduct specific activities and interact with others (Stamps 2009). Habitat selection emerges
653 because organisms are better suited to live and reproduce in some places than others (Morris et
654 al. 2008). Individuals maximizing fitness should occupy the best habitat available. When
655 increasing density depresses fitness to that of lower-quality habitats, individuals should disperse
656 to those habitats ((Fretwell & Lucas 1969; Rosenzweig 1981; Morris 1987; Johnson & Gaines
657 1990; Holt & Barfield 2001). Thus, if individuals possess ‘complete’ knowledge of all habitat
658 qualities, are of equal competitive ability, and if there is no cost to movement, then the
659 distribution of individuals among habitats should fit an ideal free distribution (IFD) such that
660 mean fitness is equal in every occupied habitat. If we assume logistic population growth such
661 that

662
$$\frac{dN_i}{dt} = r_i N_i \left[1 - \frac{N_i}{K_i} \right] \quad (\text{A1})$$

663 where N_i is the population density, r_i is the maximum growth rate, and K_i is the carrying capacity
664 in habitat i , and estimate fitness (W_i) as per capita growth rate, then

665
$$W_i = \frac{1}{N_i} \frac{dN_i}{dt} = r_i - \frac{r_i N_i}{K_i} \quad (\text{A2})$$

666 (fitness declines linearly with increasing density, Fig. A1).

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679 Figure A1: An illustration of ideal-free habitat selection with logistic population growth.

680 Ideal-free habitat selectors achieve equal expectations of fitness (W) in habitats 1 and 2 (dashed

681 horizontal lines), but at different population densities (N_1 and N_2 , dotted horizontal lines).

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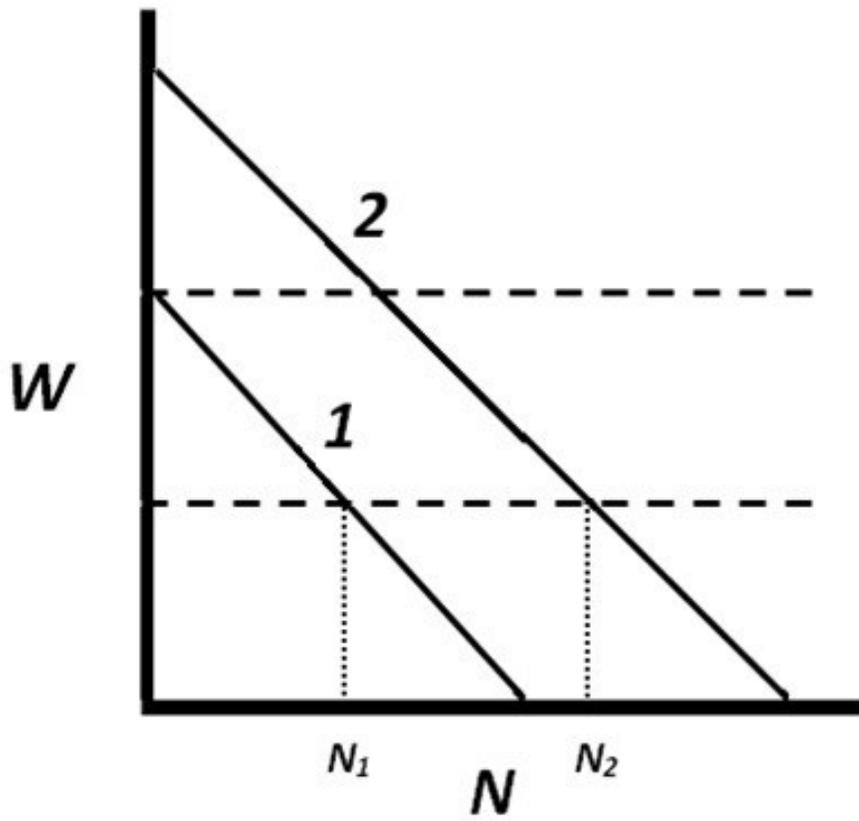
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700 **Appendix 2: HABITAT ISODAR**

701 Imagining that two habitats differ in logistic population growth, then the solution to ideal habitat
702 selection is given by the habitat isodar (Morris 1987;1988)

703
$$N_2 = \frac{r_2 - r_1}{r_2} K_2 + \frac{r_1 K_2}{r_2 K_1} N_1 \quad (\text{A3})$$

704 (Fig. A2; Morris 1987; 1988). If one knows the rate at which fitness declines with density in
705 two or more habitats, as in my experiments with *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, one simply needs
706 to set the two fitness functions equal to one another in order to model the IFD isodar *a priori*.
707 Knowing the isodar expected from ideal-free habitat selection enables a rigorous test for the ideal
708 free distribution as long as one can then expose populations to the two habitats experimentally.
709 The similarity between the predicted isodar and the distribution of individuals in the two-habitat
710 experiments will reveal the ability of the organisms to achieve an ideal free distribution.

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728 Figure A2: An example of an ideal-free habitat isodar (the distribution of individuals between
729 two habitats such that mean fitness is equal in each) that emerges when fitness declines linearly
730 with increasing density (N) in habitats 1 and 2 as in figure A1. The dashed lines correspond to
731 the carrying capacities in each habitat.

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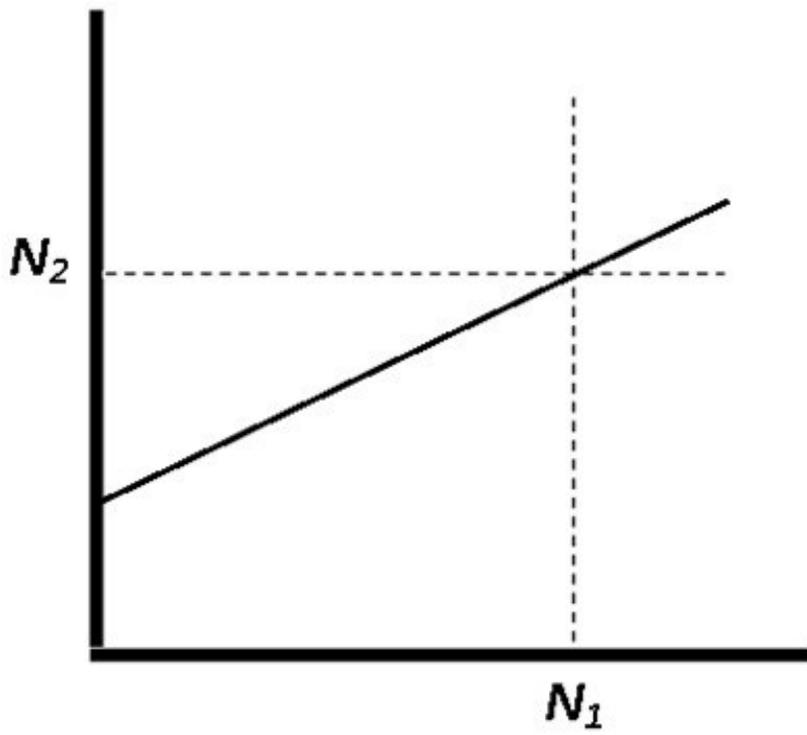
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749 **Appendix 3: BOLD'S BASAL MEDIUM**

750 I prepared modified Bold's basal medium for standard stock solution in four 1-litre batches
751 (Table A1; Bold 1949; Bell 1990). I added the first six macronutrient salt solutions individually
752 after complete dissolution into the medium, followed by trace metal and nutrient solutions
753 (again, added individually after complete dissolution into the medium). I filtered ferrous
754 sulphate heptahydrate through Whatman's filter paper No. 1, then autoclaved the filtered solution
755 with the rest of the dissolved ingredients before combining them to create the complete medium.
756 I adjusted the pH after autoclaving when necessary [pH = 6.7 (+/-0.2)].

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781 Table A1: Stock solutions and volumes of each compound used in the recipe for modified

782 Bold's basal medium. Original stock solution and refinements are listed as in Bold (1949) and

783 Bell (1990).

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Chemical compound	1 Litre Stock Solution	Quantity added to 1 litre of stock medium	Molar Concentration in final medium
NaNO₃	25 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	10 ml	2.94 x 10 ⁻³ M
CaCl₂·2H₂O	2.5 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	10 ml	1.7 x 10 ⁻⁴ M
MgSO₄·7H₂O	7.5 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	10 ml	3.04 x 10 ⁻⁴ M
K₂POH₄	7.5 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	10 ml	4.31 x 10 ⁻⁴ M
KH₂PO₄	17.5 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	10 ml	1.29 x 10 ⁻³ M
NaCl	2.5 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	10 ml	4.28 x 10 ⁻⁴ M
EDTA anhydrous	50 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	4.28 x 10 ⁻⁴ M
KOH	31 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	1.38 x 10 ⁻³ M
FeSO₄·7H₂O	4.98 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	4.48 x 10 ⁻⁵ M
H₂SO₄	24.5 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	1 x 10 ⁻³ M
H₃BO₃	11.42 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	4.62 x 10 ⁻⁴ M
ZnSO₄·7H₂O	8.82 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	7.67 x 10 ⁻⁵ M
MnCl₂·4H₂O	1.44 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	1.82 x 10 ⁻⁵ M
MoO₃	0.71 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	1.23 x 10 ⁻⁵ M
CuSO₄·5H₂O	1.57 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	1.57 x 10 ⁻⁵ M
Co(NO₃)₂·6H₂O	0.49 g L ⁻¹ ddH ₂ O	1 ml	4.21 x 10 ⁻⁶ M

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799 **Appendix 4: QUANTIFYING CELL DENSITY**

800 I calculated cell densities (millions of cells·ml⁻¹) by fitting optical densities (spectrophotometer
801 absorbancy) to haemocytometer cell counts by geometric mean regression. I used a dilution
802 series to create different densities, then measured absorbancy at 665 *nm* in a microplate
803 spectrophotometer (BioRad xMark™ Microplate Absorbance Spectrophotometer, 168-1150, CA,
804 USA). I immobilized cells from corresponding samples in the two chambers of a Neubauer
805 haemocytometer (Hausser Scientific, Catalogue # 3110, PA, USA) with a drop of Iodine-
806 Potassium-Iodide (Lugol's stain, 6% KI, and 4% I).

807 I photographed the two chambers in the prepared haemocytometer slides separately with
808 a microscope camera (OptixCam VS1.009, VA, USA), displayed the digital images on a
809 computer monitor (Figure A7), then counted the number of cells in the four corner grids in each
810 chamber's field-of-view. I used a total of 18 separate samples to calibrate optical densities for
811 light and shade habitats at both the start and end (12 h) of the light cycle. Each estimate
812 represents the mean number of cells counted from four separate images covering four separate
813 sections of the haemocytometer grid. Methods for all of the haemocytometer cell counts were
814 from Leboffe & Pierce (2005).

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Figure A3: Regressions used to calibrate cell densities (millions of cells·ml⁻¹) from optical densities (absorbancy at 665 nm) at the start of the light cycle for both light (a: open squares) and shaded (b: filled squares) habitats (*n* = 18 each). OD = optical density.

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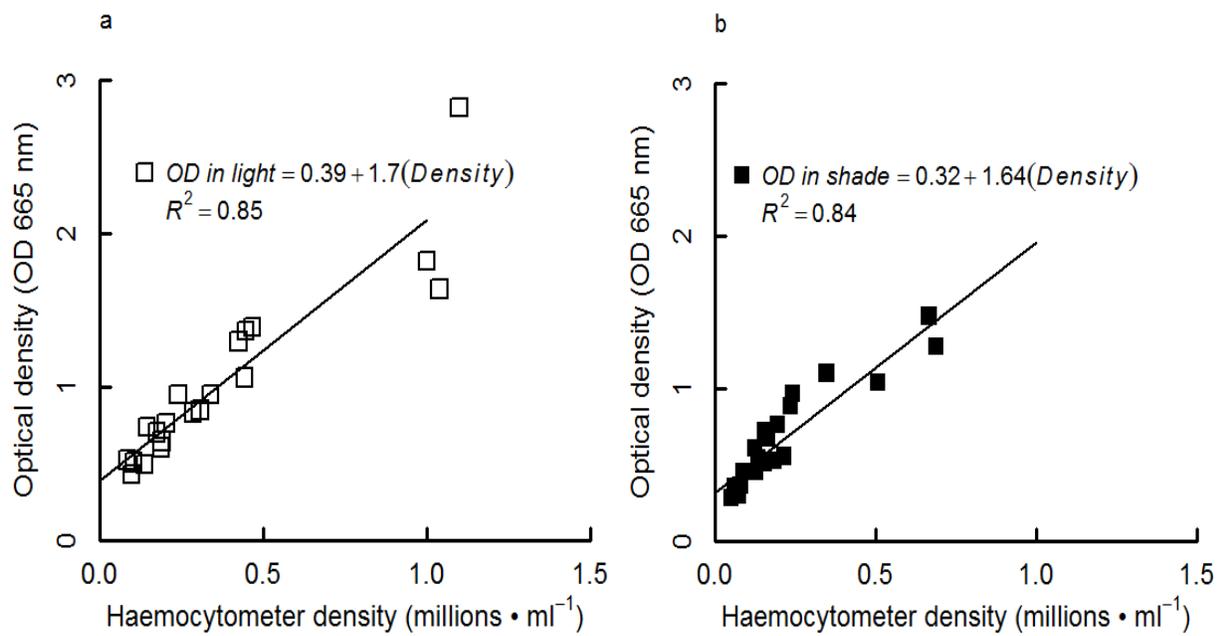
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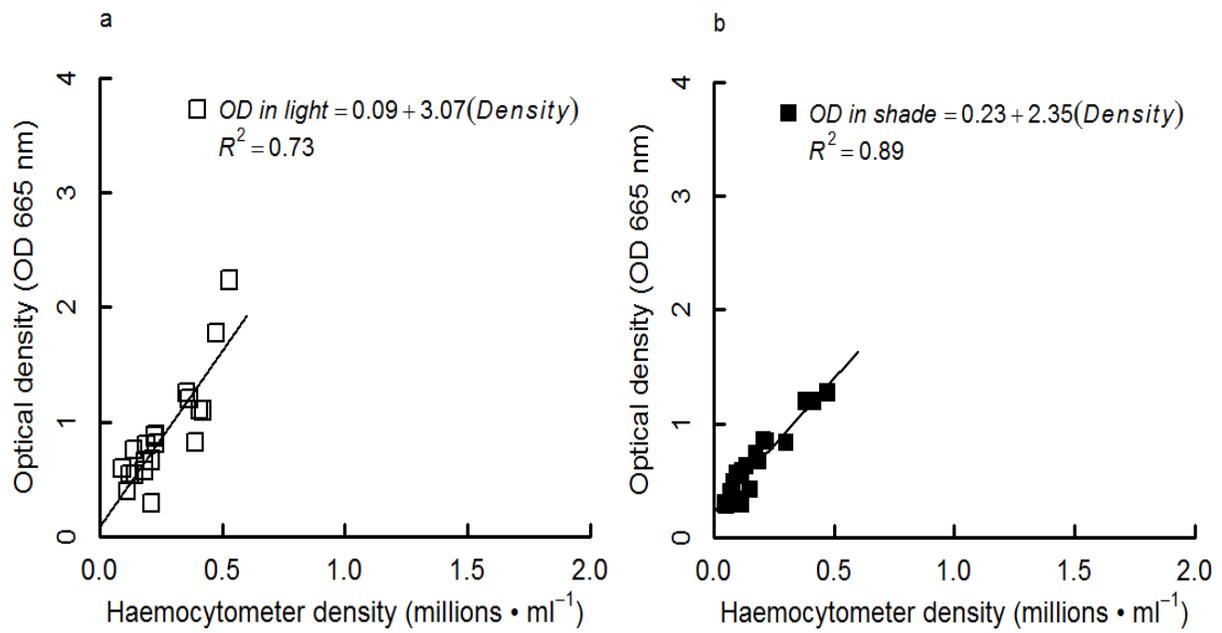
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Figure A4: Regressions used to calibrate cell densities (millions of cells·ml⁻¹) from optical densities (absorbancy at 665 nm) at the end of the light cycle (12 h) for both light (a: open squares) and shaded (b: filled squares) habitats (*n* = 18 each). OD = optical density.

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895 **Appendix 5: LABORATORY & EXPERIMENTAL PROTOCOLS**

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928 Table A2: Culturing and experimental protocol used to assess habitat selection by

929 *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Experiments conducted between September 2012 and January

930 2013.

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Time	Culturing and experimental protocols
Day 0	Transfer single colony-forming units (CFUs) from enriched agar plates into 75 ml of Bold's medium in 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks. Grow 'starting' cultures for 5-7 d to a mean density of 2.5 million cells·ml ⁻¹ . Repeat for additional cultures as required. Grow all cultures in a controlled growth chamber at 23°C, set on a 12 h light:dark cycle to synchronize cellular division (Harris et al. 2009).
Day 6-8	Pipette 25-ml from each 'starting' culture into 300 ml of fresh medium in one litre Erlenmeyer flask for an additional growth period (7-10 d). Repeat for additional flasks.
Day 14-18	Adjust densities from batch cultures to three predetermined experimental densities by centrifugation and or dilution. Pelletize experimental cell cultures by centrifugation and re-suspend in 100 ml of fresh medium in 500 ml Erlenmeyer flasks for 36 h before use in order to acclimate cells to experimental conditions (Harris et al. 2009).
Start of Experiment	
Time Zero (~day 20)	Pipette 15 ml of experimental culture into one half of each partitioned Petri dish. Repeat with 4 dishes (one for each treatment) at three separate densities to be tested simultaneously. Pipette 15 ml of unused (or used media) medium into the alternate half of each Petri dish. Remove partitions from Petri dishes. Draw 8-220µl aqueous samples from each half of the dishes, parallel to the partition, and transfer into 96-well microplates. Record optical densities from spectrophotometer absorbencies at 665 nm. Overlay dishes with two layers of black nylon mesh for shade treatments. Place dishes in the incubator and do not disturb dishes for 12 h.
Time 12	Remove shade covers and insert new partitions along the central axis of each Petri dish and aerate each culture. Draw 8-220µl aqueous samples from each half of the dishes parallel to the partition, and transfer into 96-well microplates. Record optical densities from spectrophotometer absorbencies at 665 nm. Reposition covers for shade treatments.
Time 24	Repeat sampling. Remove shade cover, then aerate and sample cell densities in each half of each Petri dish. Draw 8-220µl aqueous samples from each half of the dishes perpendicular to the partition, and transfer into 96-well microplates. Read optical densities on the spectrophotometer at 665 nm. Reposition shade cover and then repeat with next dish.
Time 48	Remove shade covers and insert new partitions along central axis of Petri dish and aerate culture in each half of the dishes. Draw 8-220µl aqueous samples from each half of the dishes perpendicular to the partition, and transfer into 96-well microplates. Record optical densities from spectrophotometer absorbencies at 665 nm.
End of experiment	

943 **Appendix 6: PHOTOGRAPHS**

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Figure A5: Photograph illustrating an example of the random placement of control (fully covered by shade and fully exposed to light) and habitat-selection Petri dishes (half shaded) used to assess habitat selection by *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. Each of the three replicate dishes contains a different algal density. Image taken at 12 h.

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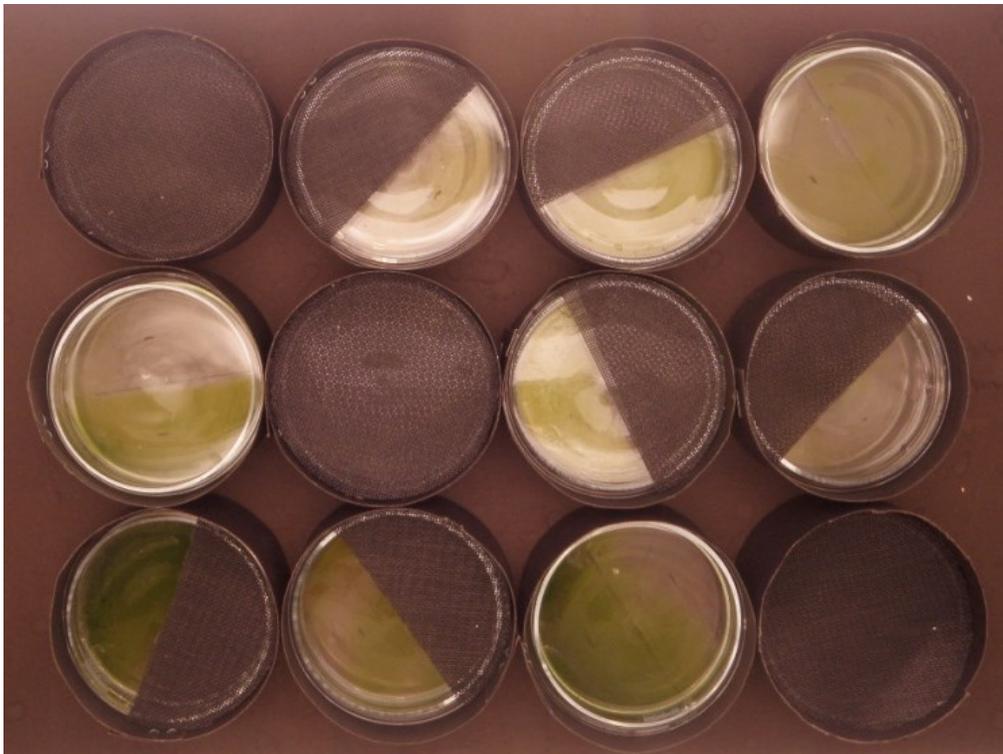
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1012 Figure A6: Photograph of a Petri dish illustrating habitat selection by *Chlamydomonas*

1013 *reinhardtii* cells released in the light habitat (right-hand side) with opportunity to occupy shade

1014 (unused media). Initial density at time zero = 0.85 million cells·ml⁻¹. Image taken at 12 h.

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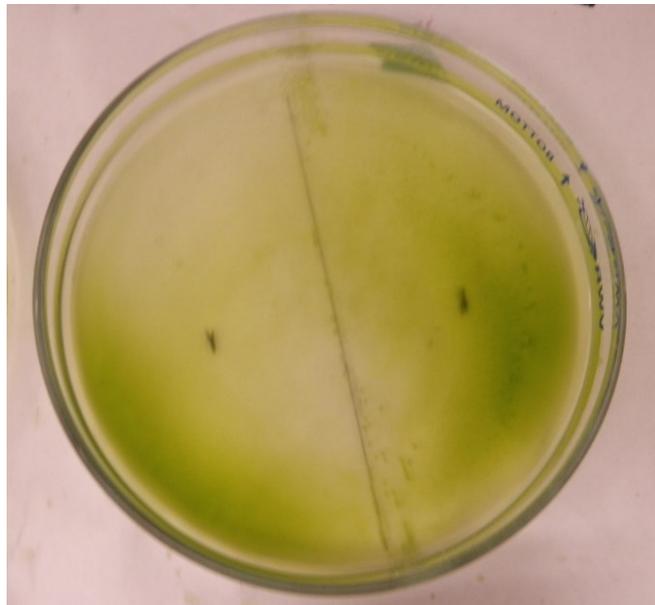
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1052 Figure A7: Photograph of immobilized *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* cells in a haemocytometer

1053 chamber used to calibrate optical densities. Living cells are dark green. Dead cells (not counted)

1054 appear without complete cellular structure or vibrancy (Leboffe & Pierce 2005).

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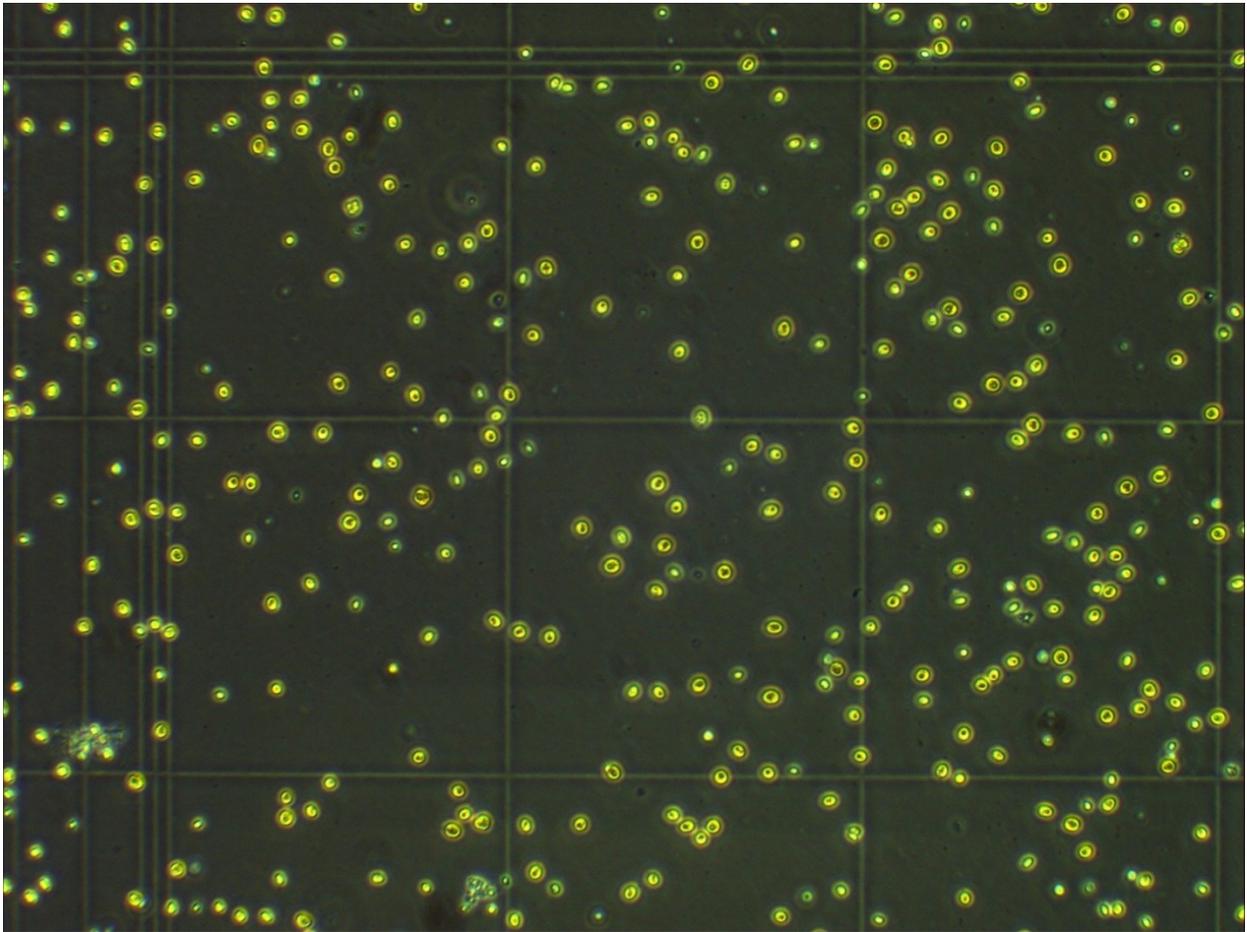
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1076 **Appendix 7: DIFFUSION**

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Table A3: Comparisons of paired mean absorbancy values between the initial (dye added) and alternate (no dye) sides of Petri dishes at 12 hourly intervals. Degrees of freedom at 3 and 11 hours were reduced because I replaced one randomly chosen sample with a pure-media blank in order to calibrate the spectrophotometer for each of the two 96-well microplates evaluating absorbancy of the 192 samples (16 samples \times 12 hours). Bold lettering identifies statistically significant differences. Paired t-tests; two-tailed significance.

Hour	Side	Mean OD	Paired <i>T</i>	df	<i>P</i>
0	Initial	0.059	-9.23	7	<0.001
	Alternate	0.017			
1	Initial	0.048	9.45	7	<0.001
	Alternate	0.037			
2	Initial	0.056	7.86	7	<0.001
	Alternate	0.028			
3	Initial	0.052	9.65	6	<0.001
	Alternate	0.025			
4	Initial	0.044	2.34	7	0.054
	Alternate	0.040			
5	Initial	0.048	1.95	7	0.09
	Alternate	0.045			
6	Initial	0.044	-1.79	7	0.12
	Alternate	0.048			
7	Initial	0.046	-1.48	7	0.18
	Alternate	0.048			
8	Initial	0.044	0.04	7	0.97
	Alternate	0.044			
9	Initial	0.043	0.55	7	0.60
	Alternate	0.041			
10	Initial	0.043	0.10	7	0.928
	Alternate	0.043			
11	Initial	0.048	2.07	6	0.08
	Alternate	0.043			