

1 **Programmed cell death as a black queen in microbial communities**

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14 **Abstract**

15 Programmed cell death (PCD) in unicellular organisms is in some instances an altruistic trait.
16 When the beneficiaries are clones or close kin, kin selection theory may be used to explain
17 the evolution of the trait, and when the trait evolves in groups of distantly related individuals,
18 group or multilevel selection theory is invoked. In mixed microbial communities, the benefits
19 are also available to unrelated taxa. But the evolutionary ecology of PCD in communities is
20 poorly understood. Few hypotheses have been offered concerning the community role of
21 PCD despite its far-reaching effects. The hypothesis we consider here is that PCD is a black
22 queen. The Black Queen Hypothesis (BQH) outlines how public goods arising from a leaky
23 function are exploited by other taxa in the community. Black Queen (BQ) traits are essential
24 for community survival, but only some members bear the cost of possessing them, while
25 others lose the trait. In addition, BQ traits have been defined in terms of adaptive gene loss,
26 and it is unknown whether this has occurred for PCD. Our conclusion is that PCD fulfills the
27 two most important criteria of a BQ (leakiness and costliness), but that more empirical data
28 are needed for assessing the remaining two criteria. In addition, we hold that for viewing
29 PCD as a BQ, the original BQH needs to include social traits. Thus, despite some empirical
30 and conceptual shortcomings, the BQH provides a helpful avenue for investigating PCD in
31 microbial communities.

32 **Introduction**

33 Unicellular organisms routinely undergo diverse forms of passive death, the causes of which
34 include physical damage, starvation, irradiation, poison, and viral attack. In addition to these
35 incidental forms of death, they also undergo active death. The active form of death—labelled
36 programmed cell death (PCD)—has been observed in all the major bacterial and unicellular
37 eukaryote crown groups (reviewed in Ameisen 2002; Rice and Bayles 2003; Franklin et al.
38 2006; Deponte 2008; Pérez Martín 2008; Kaczanowski et al. 2011; Nedelcu et al. 2011;
39 Bayles 2014; Kasuba et al. 2015; Durand et al. 2016; Bidle 2016), and it is now clear that
40 PCD has major implications in microbial communities (we define a microbial community as
41 a population of microscopic taxa from different lineages that share space and resources, and
42 which interact with each other in ways that impact their life history strategies). Questions
43 concerning the impact of PCD on the community were explicitly raised more than a decade
44 ago (Franklin et al. 2006). Although it is known that PCD contributes to the complexity of the
45 community and plays a general role in evolutionary transitions (Durand et al. 2019)—such as
46 the evolution of the eukaryote cell (Blackstone and Green 1999; Nedelcu and Michod 2003),
47 multicellularity (Koonin and Aravind 2002; Michod 2003; Michod and Nedelcu 2003; Iranzo
48 et al. 2014), and eusociality (Ronai et al. 2016)—a broad understanding of the ecological
49 function of PCD in microbial communities is missing.

50 The central question that has occupied most evolutionary research in unicellular PCD
51 is how natural selection could have selected for a trait that results in the elimination of the
52 individual expressing it. To address this question, the focus has been on the levels and units
53 of selection (Durand 2020). The ecological effects of PCD in microbial communities have
54 received less attention and are poorly understood. Tinbergen’s four questions concerning the
55 mechanism, function, evolutionary history, and development are useful tools for examining
56 the proximate and ultimate causes and the ecological relevance of any particular trait

57 (Tinbergen 1963; Bateson and Laland 2013). For the PCD trait, mechanism and function are
58 particularly relevant to explain the multiple effects in microbial communities. We use the
59 Berman-Frank mechanistic definition that PCD is an “active, genetically controlled, cellular
60 self-destruction driven by a series of complex biochemical events and specialized cellular
61 machinery” (Berman-Frank et al. 2004). The evolutionary history and development questions
62 are less central here, although it is worth mentioning that depending on the ecological
63 context, PCD can be adaptive for kin, groups, or populations (van Zandbergen et al. 2006;
64 Durand et al. 2011, 2014; Refardt et al. 2013; Iranzo et al. 2014; Durand and Ramsey 2019;
65 Vostinar et al. 2019), or it can be non-adaptive (Jiménez et al. 2009; Nedelcu et al. 2011;
66 Proto et al. 2013; Ramisetty et al. 2015). The reader is referred elsewhere for further reading
67 and evolutionary definitions of PCD (Reece et al. 2011; Berges and Choi 2014; Ramisetty et
68 al. 2015; Durand and Ramsey 2019; Durand 2020).

69 Photosynthetic eukaryotic and prokaryotic microorganisms in aquatic environments
70 have most frequently been used to examine PCD in microbial communities. When reports of
71 programmed death in phytoplankton began to emerge, it quickly became apparent that PCD
72 has major implications for the ecology of microbial communities (Franklin et al. 2006). This
73 realization led to the proposal of a number of hypotheses to explain the evolutionary ecology
74 of PCD in microbes (Frade and Michaelidis 1997; Blackstone and Green 1999; Segovia et al.
75 2003; Ameisen 2004; Kaczanowski et al. 2011; Nedelcu et al. 2011; Pepper et al. 2013;
76 Iranzo et al. 2014; Klim et al. 2018). Phytoplankton contribute about 40% of global primary
77 production (Field 1998; Geider et al. 2001) and their modes of death have far reaching
78 biogeochemical effects (Bidle 2016). PCD impacts an organism’s life history evolution in the
79 microbial loop (Orellana et al. 2013), carbon export into the deep sea (Bidle 2016), resistance
80 against viruses (Vardi et al. 2009), and population dynamics (Vardi et al. 1999). PCD is also
81 implicated in the production of the transparent exopolymer polysaccharide (TEP) an

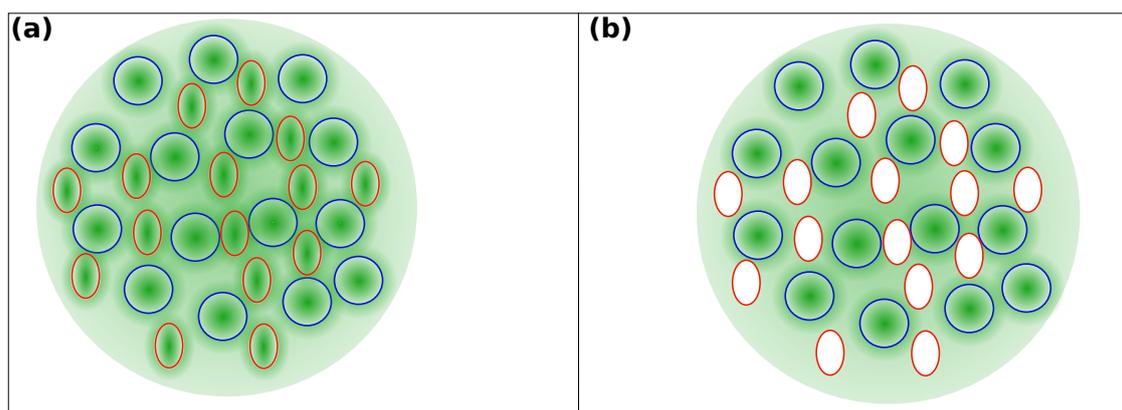
82 important component of the “sea skin” (Abada and Segev 2018; van Niekerk and Ndhlovu
83 2019). Furthermore, ecologically significant taxa including the nitrogen fixing
84 cyanobacterium *Trichodesmium* (Berman-Frank et al. 2004; Spungin et al. 2019), and the
85 most abundant microbes in the global ocean—like *Synechococcus* (Thornton and Chen
86 2017)—undergo PCD. These organisms form massive blooms that collapse after several days
87 or weeks, and their death contributes to the flow of nutrients in biogeochemical cycles
88 (reviewed in Bidle 2016). However, the significance of PCD in these processes requires
89 further studies.

90 The data from marine phytoplankton-prokaryote and other microbial communities
91 indicates that PCD leads to a structuring of interactions between taxa. While there are several
92 hypotheses put forward to explain the microbial ecology of PCD (Segovia et al. 2003;
93 Ameisen 2004; Kaczanowski et al. 2011; Nedelcu et al. 2011; Pepper et al. 2013; Iranzo et al.
94 2014; Klim et al. 2018) there have been very few that explicitly examine the effect that PCD
95 has in structuring microbial interactions and functional dependencies. One potential line of
96 enquiry that may shed light on PCD in microbial communities is the Black Queen Hypothesis
97 (BQH). The BQH, introduced by Morris et al. (2012), seeks to describe the conditions under
98 which dependencies evolve in the microbial world. In this article, we ask whether PCD falls
99 into the category of a black queen (BQ), since this would be of value for future studies. We
100 evaluate each of the criteria imposed by the BQH and determine whether PCD fulfils these.

101 **The Black Queen Hypothesis**

102 The BQH is named after the black queen (the queen of spades) in the game of hearts (Morris
103 et al. 2012), where the main strategy is to accumulate as few points as possible. The black
104 queen is worth the most and is thus to be avoided. But someone is inevitably stuck with the
105 queen of spades. A biological analogy can be made for multi-species microbial communities
106 in which there are functions performed by members of the community that are vital to the

107 community but costly to the survival of the individuals performing the function (Figure 1).
108 No player of hearts wants the BQ (except in the case of shooting the moon—more on that
109 later), but it is necessary that one person bears it. Similarly, there are microbial products that
110 are costly and necessary for the community to produce, but that not every member of the
111 community needs to produce. The example used by Morris et al. is the production of catalase-
112 peroxidase (katG), a large, Fe-dependent enzyme that is the primary defense against external
113 hydrogen peroxide (HOOH) in cyanobacteria (Tichy and Vermaas 1999; Perelman et al.
114 2003). When viewed in isolation, it is puzzling that the ability to produce such a crucial
115 enzyme would be lost. But these bacteria do not occur in isolation—they live as part of a
116 community.



117
118 **Figure 1.** The BQH describes how the availability of public goods due to leakiness
119 provides conditions for some taxon to relinquish the cost of performing a vital
120 function. (a) Two taxon perform a leaky vital function, resulting in public goods.
121 (b) These conditions lead to the red ellipsoidal taxon relinquishing this costly activity
122 becoming ‘beneficiary’ of the public goods provided by the blue circular ‘helper’
123 taxon.

124

125 From the point of view of any individual cyanobacterium, what is important is that
126 katG is being produced, not that it is being produced by itself. Morris (2015) identifies the

127 katG enzyme as being leaky, benefiting both the producers and others in the community. The
128 production of katG is expensive, and if an individual can escape the metabolic costs
129 associated with synthesizing the enzyme, it will gain a fitness advantage. Comparative
130 genomic data reveal that the enzyme is present in most cyanobacteria. However, all of the
131 sequenced genomes of the members of the *Prochlorococcus* genus, and some members of the
132 *Synechococcus* genus, lack the *katG* gene despite the phylogenetic evidence of shared
133 ancestry. In other words, the *katG* gene was lost in some lineages. The production of katG,
134 therefore, fulfils the criteria of being a BQ. Investing in its production incurs a fitness cost
135 but, just as the black queen in the card game is always present, the production of katG cannot
136 be dispensed with. At least one species in any community of *Prochlorococcus*,
137 *Synechococcus*, or any other genus of cyanobacterium, must produce katG to detoxify oxygen
138 free radicals. At the level of the community, it is predicted that some species may exhibit
139 functional gene loss, relying on other taxa to supply the vital gene products to others.

140 The BQH shares a similar name to Van Valen's (1973) Red Queen Hypothesis (RQH)
141 of evolutionary arms races between interacting taxa, resulting in constant extinction rates.
142 Both hypotheses provide explanatory frameworks for functional interactions. However, in
143 contrast with the RQH, the BQH proposes a race to the bottom. Instead of gaining functions
144 in order to win an evolutionary arms race, winners are those who have been successful at
145 losing a vital but costly function. Organisms that lose these costly functions become
146 'beneficiaries' of the 'helpers', which are the organisms that perform the leaky, but vital and
147 costly function. Morris et al. (2012) first described the detoxification of lethal reactive
148 oxygen (HOOH) as a BQ function in cyanobacteria, but subsequently went on to test BQH
149 predictions in a similar dynamic in *Escherichia coli*, where species with HOOH resistance
150 and sensitivity were able to coexist (Morris et al. 2014). These findings provided empirical
151 evidence that BQs may be widespread and that the BQH may be a powerful lens through

152 which to examine the ecology of microbial communities. This has been supported by further
153 searches for BQs in other microbial communities (Ankrah et al. 2018; Mas et al. 2016; Cairns
154 et al. 2018; Billet et al. 2019).

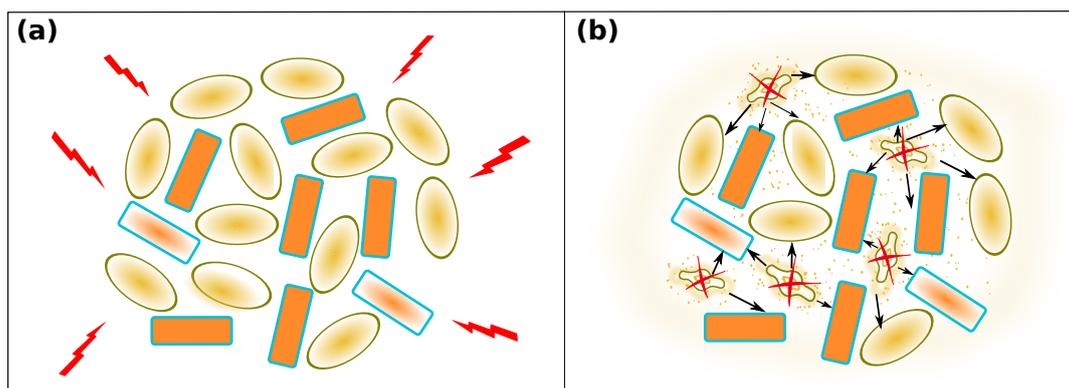
155 The BQH shares similar features with widely known theories in the fields of social
156 sciences and economics on public goods including the ‘free-rider problem’ (Sweeney 1973)
157 and the ‘tragedy of commons’ (Hardin 1968). However, as Morris (2015) argued, the BQH
158 goes further than these theories to provide an explanatory framework for how dependencies
159 between helpers and beneficiary evolve in microbial communities. In comparison to existing
160 theories on public goods, the BQH is more suited to capture the dynamics of the public goods
161 of PCD in microbial communities. As a general hypothesis, the BQH seeks to describe the
162 conditions under which costly traits lead to the evolution of dependencies in microbial
163 communities.

164 **Criteria for the Black Queen Hypothesis**

165 Morris et al. (2012) noted that in all their examples the BQ was (i) leaky enough for the
166 resulting public goods to be used by other species; (ii) costly (energetically or nutritionally
167 expensive or bearing some other fitness cost); (iii) vital to the community, not just the
168 producer, and (iv) performed by only a fraction of the community. We will treat these as
169 general criteria for the identification of a BQ. Using data drawn chiefly from phytoplankton
170 and prokaryote interactions, we will assess each of these in turn. After assessing the criteria,
171 we will consider potential objections to our assessment and discuss the explanatory power of
172 the BQH with respect to the role of PCD in community ecology.

173 **Criterion 1: BQ functions are leaky enough for the resulting public goods to be used by**
174 **other species**

175 Leakiness was identified as the single most important requirement for a BQ trait to evolve
176 (Morris 2015; Mas et al. 2016). It determines how dependencies between helpers and
177 beneficiaries in microbial communities are structured via the release of substances across the
178 “leakiness spectrum” (Morris 2015; p. 478), with biological functions ranging from purely
179 public goods to purely private goods. Functions tend to be leaky if products are membrane
180 permeable, extracellular, long lived, and modify the environment. Whether or not the
181 functions are leaky is thus largely determined by the physico-chemical properties of the
182 products and substrates.



184 **Figure 2.** PCD is leaky, and public goods provide the conditions that may lead to
185 the evolution of BQs. (a) Phytoplankton exist in microbial communities where
186 they experience a variety of environmental stressors (lightning bolt). (b) Some
187 members (ellipsoid) of the community undergo PCD. Cellular resources leak into
188 the environment. These are available to other taxa (rectangular) leading to the
189 evolution of dependencies.

190

191 Leakiness is an inevitable effect of PCD, since it results in molecules being extruded
192 from the cell (Figure 2). The fitness effects of the substances released by cells dying by PCD
193 have been examined in some instances. One demonstration of PCD leakiness and the effect of

194 the associated extruded molecules comes from the Great Salt Lake, Utah, USA (Orellana et
195 al. 2013). In response to the onset of darkness, the halophilic chlorophyte *Dunaliella salina*
196 undergoes PCD and releases dissolved organic matter (DOM) into the environment. Increases
197 in growth rates of *D. salina* depended on the release of DOM during PCD. In addition, there
198 was a mutual dependency discovered with a co-occurring prokaryote *Halobacterium*
199 *salinarum*. The *H. salinarum* re-mineralized glycerol, one of the carbon sources present in the
200 DOM released by dying *D. salina* cells (Orellana et al. 2013). In these and other situations, it
201 is clear that PCD is a trait by which materials are released into the environment—and once
202 released, can be used by others in the community, allowing functional dependencies to
203 evolve. The ‘leakiness’ criterion is thus met.

204 ***Criterion 2: A black queen is costly***

205 In Hearts, the player who ends up with the queen of spades (the BQ) is generally the loser, as
206 this card is worth the same number of points as all the other cards combined. In the analogy
207 with the card game, the BQ represents a function that is costly in terms of fitness. This is
208 certainly the case for PCD. The substances released during PCD are nutritionally and
209 energetically expensive. Chemical energy is used in the architectural restructuring of the cell
210 and its organelles as revealed by ultrastructural studies (Arnoult et al. 2002; Moharikar et al.
211 2006; Jiménez et al. 2009; Durand et al. 2016), active biosynthesis and secretion of volatile
212 organic compounds (Zuo et al. 2012) and lipid molecules (Sathe et al. 2019). While the
213 resources released are costly to produce, if their release involves cell death—as is the case
214 with PCD—then the trait clearly bears a significant cost.

215 ***Criterion 3: A black queen is vital to the community***

216 What does it mean to be vital? In the classic BQ example (Morris et al. 2012), none of the
217 individuals survive without the BQ, implying that the BQ is an obligate function. Clearly,

218 PCD and the leaky products hold no benefit for the dying cell, but the community benefits are
219 manifested in two ways. First, there are benefits to conspecifics at the group or kin (inclusive
220 fitness) level (Durand et al. 2011; Kaczanowski et al. 2011; Yordanova et al. 2013; Iranzo et
221 al. 2014; Vostinar et al. 2019). Second, unrelated taxa in the community may also benefit, as
222 seen in the Great Salt Lake microbial loop study (Orellana et al. 2013), which demonstrated
223 that the production of glycerol during PCD is one of the nutrients driving the syntrophic
224 interaction between *D. salina* and *H. salinarum*. Interactions like these play central roles in
225 marine microbial communities in general (Bidle 2015). However, while PCD provides a
226 fitness benefit in these situations, it is not clear whether it is always essential (at least in the
227 short-term) for the survival of either the phytoplankton or the co-occurring prokaryotes in the
228 community. In other instances, the PCD trait is indeed essential for survival. In *Leishmania*
229 *major* infections, for example, PCD is essential for the survival of the parasite community in
230 the host organism (van Zandbergen et al. 2006).

231 While the classic BQ example involved an essential function, it is not clear whether
232 PCD is always vital for community survival. BQ products that are important but not vital to
233 the community could be labelled ‘weak BQs’, whereas BQs producing vital—or nearly
234 vital—traits are ‘strong BQs’. It seems that most cases of PCD occupy the spectrum from
235 weak BQ to strong BQ, but further investigation would be required to determine precisely
236 where PCD falls on this spectrum.

237 ***Criterion 4: Black queen functions are performed by only a fraction of the community***

238 The BQH asserts that it is an unstable equilibrium for all of the members of a community to
239 produce a BQ trait. There is a selective advantage for the beneficiaries to dispense with the
240 costs associated with the BQ. Due to the ubiquitous nature of the BQ products in the
241 environment, there is a negative frequency dependency on fitness as organisms compete to

242 dispense with the costly function (Morris et al. 2012). Stability of the BQ is determined by
243 the dynamics between helpers and beneficiaries.

244 Data from numerous model organisms indicate that under environmental conditions
245 matching those in the field, only a proportion of cells undergo PCD (Vardi et al. 1999;
246 Moharikar et al. 2006; van Zandbergen et al. 2010; Orellana et al. 2013; Bouderbala et al.
247 2018). If we can generalize from such studies, then Criterion 4 is satisfied. The difference
248 with the prototypical BQ is that the fraction performing the BQ function is unrelated to the
249 taxa who have lost the BQ. However, it seems that relatedness is not important for the
250 evolution of BQs. The reason why others in the community do not undergo PCD has,
251 however, not been explicitly studied. The BQH suggests that the function is lost because of
252 its costly nature. On the other hand, as PCD-inducing factors vary with species (see for
253 example, Nedelcu et al. 2011), this raises questions about whether non-PCD exhibiting taxa
254 may simply have not yet been exposed to conditions that trigger their PCD.

255 **Adaptive gene loss and the evolution of dependencies in microbial communities**

256 Adaptive gene loss is not one of the criteria for BQs offered by Morris et al. (2012), but the
257 examples they used all involve adaptive gene loss. Adaptive gene loss may well be an
258 important mechanism underlying many cases of the loss of BQ traits, and there is ample
259 evidence for the role of gene loss in evolution where resource conservation is the driving
260 factor (Albalat and Canestro 2016). In the classic case of the KatG enzyme used by Morris et
261 al. (2012), they used comparative genomics coupled with experimental evidence to identify
262 the gene, its function, and to explain how the loss of the gene occurred as an adaptation.

263 In the case of PCD, the causal mechanism for the loss of function is unlikely to be as
264 simple as a single gene loss. PCD is not a monogenic trait and in most instances the trait is
265 manifested by complex polygenic machinery (Aravind et al. 1999; Uren et al. 2000; Durand
266 and Coetzer 2008; Nedelcu 2009). PCD is also not a discrete all-or-nothing trait. It is a

267 continuous trait that is “probabilistic, branching, and non-discrete” (Durand and Ramsey
268 2019). It therefore seems unlikely that PCD can be lost through the loss of single genes,
269 except in the simplest bacterial systems like *E. coli* (Refardt et al. 2013). However, if we
270 accept the hypothesis for the ancient origins of PCD (Ameisen 2002), and that some taxa fail
271 to show morphological markers of PCD in response to stress, we have to concede that the
272 ability to undergo PCD may have been lost in some taxa. To our knowledge, however, this
273 has not been demonstrated empirically or shown using genetic analyses.

274 Because loss of function (LoF) is not necessarily due to the loss of a gene or gene-
275 network, the BQH should not be based on adaptive gene loss. The one gene–one function
276 concept is outdated and the loss of phenotypes can occur through changes in how genes are
277 regulated (in the absence of their loss), but also by non-genetic means (Laland et al. 2015;
278 Sultan 2015). These include processes like epigenetic inheritance, developmental bias, and
279 phenotypic plasticity. In the *Dunaliella-Halobacterium* study, for example, approximately a
280 third of the phytoplankton community underwent PCD (Orellana et al. 2013). In these
281 organisms, the PCD trait is not monogenic (see Bidle 2015 for a broad outline of the
282 mechanistic processes), though the reason for the other two-thirds not dying was not
283 investigated. Of course, LoF mutations may have occurred, but we hold that the BQ
284 classification is independent of whether it has occurred.

285 In the case of PCD, there is also an alternative to absolute LoF. Simply because the
286 function *appears* to be lost, this does not mean that the inherited mechanism has *actually*
287 been lost. The apparent disappearance of a trait may be part of microbial bet-hedging,
288 something demonstrated by Libby et al. (2018), who argued that PCD is an accessory to
289 microbial bet-hedging strategies that make use of stochastic phenotypic switching.
290 Communities that face recurring but unpredictable environmental stresses may evolve such
291 life-history strategies. The phenotype is manifested only under a particular set of

292 environmental conditions. In other words, there is a LoF, but it is facultative and the ability to
293 produce the function is not eliminated from the organism's genome. Rather, the trait is plastic
294 and switches on or off depending on the conditions.

295 One can therefore distinguish between two evolutionary responses to producing a BQ.
296 One response is to lose the mechanisms capable of producing the BQ, forcing other species to
297 continue doing so. This has the advantage of being able to lose not just the function, but the
298 machinery used to produce it. But there are costs. If the species lacking the ability finds itself
299 surrounded by only other species also lacking this ability, then they will perish. The second
300 response is to produce the resource facultatively, only when necessary if none of the other
301 species present are producing it. The mechanistic properties of such a facultative BQ could
302 depend on the type and function of the resource produced. Furthermore, it does not have to be
303 constitutively expressed as in the case of the *katG* BQ dynamic, but could be environment
304 dependent or triggered by stress as in the case of PCD. Furthermore, facultative production of
305 a BQ requires sensing, and this ability can be more costly than constitutive traits. Members of
306 such a species would produce the resource only if necessary, and only if no other species
307 present are producing it. The *never produce the BQ* and *sometimes produce the BQ* are both
308 strategies in the games of hearts played by microbial communities. Thus, neither pure LoF (as
309 opposed to facultative LoF) nor gene loss are necessary for a trait to be a BQ. We concede
310 that the empirical evidence to provide conclusive evidence of PCD as a BQ is currently
311 lacking, and that future studies should be able to resolve the argument presented here.

312 **Morris's objection to sacrificial traits being BQs**

313 Morris (2015) claims that trait functions that require death or forgoing reproduction “have no
314 private benefit for the producer and therefore are not BQ functions” (p. 476). This claim,
315 however, is true only in the narrow sense, where selection is at the cell level and excludes
316 inclusive fitness or selection at other levels. This seems overly restrictive, because evolution

317 by natural selection occurs at multiple levels of organization (Okasha 2006). The selection
318 pressures in PCD also occur at multiple levels (Durand 2020). Because of this, it is important
319 not to exclude these cases and limit selection to a particular level. Although there are no
320 private benefits for the individual cell undergoing PCD, there are fitness benefits arising at
321 the kin/group level.

322 In cases where there is kin/group selection, the helper-beneficiary paradigm of the
323 BQH is appropriate. It is now clear from several lineages that there are indeed kin- or group-
324 level benefits arising from PCD (reviewed in Ameisen 2002; Berges and Choi 2014;
325 Debrabant and Nakhasi 2003; Kaczanowski et al. 2011; Durand et al. 2016). In a multilevel
326 selection context, there are private goods associated with PCD. The additional evidence that
327 the benefits are selected for means that PCD in unicellular organisms can be defined as an
328 altruistic adaptation to environmental stresses that lead to the death of the cell (Durand and
329 Ramsey 2019).

330 However, there should be a distinction drawn between PCD as a nutritionally and
331 energetically expensive trait and PCD as an altruistic trait. Morris et al. (2012) refer to a BQ
332 as the former, but BQs should more generally be referred to as altruistic traits. Altruistic traits
333 are by definition costly, but not all costly traits are altruistic. When the cell group is the target
334 of selection, the suggestion that there are indeed private benefits for the producer is
335 acceptable because the ‘producer’ is the group. This calls into question Morris’s objection
336 that sacrificial functions cannot be included in the BQH. This is not to say that in all cases
337 PCD should be viewed as a BQ. There are numerous proposed roles of PCD, and the trait
338 may not always meet all of the necessary criteria to count as a BQ.

339 **Shooting the moon**

340 In the BQH, avoidance of the BQ is the best strategy. Certainly, this is true for PCD, since for
341 the individual organism no death is better than death. But avoiding the BQ, as a general

342 strategy, is beneficial only if other local species are stuck with the BQ. During the course of
343 evolution, there may be times when no species bearing the BQ are to be found. Thus, while
344 avoiding the BQ may be good in the short term, it may make the species more likely to go
345 extinct. Producing the BQ may thus hold a benefit in the long term. This is indeed consistent
346 with the bet-hedging argument made by Libby et al. (2018) referred to above.

347 Morris et al. (2012) note that being stuck with the black queen may not always be
348 disadvantageous. In the card game there is a risky strategy to make the most of it—shooting
349 the moon—that involves taking all the penalty cards. If successful, all the players except the
350 holder of the black queen are penalized. The analogy with microorganisms is that at the
351 community level, the taxon with the BQ trait may become a keystone species. Individuals
352 with the BQ become ecologically essential for the survival of others in the community. Thus,
353 one question to explore with PCD and the BQH is whether a benefit of exhibiting PCD is that
354 it confers a large ecological importance on the species, thereby creating a stable niche.

355 Since the cell that exhibits PCD dies, the suggestion that a “shooting-the-moon”
356 strategy is possible with PCD depends on PCD being selected for at the group or kin level.
357 The question, therefore, is whether groups with PCD can outcompete other groups that do not
358 exhibit the PCD trait. In an experiment to investigate PCD evolution, the costs and benefits of
359 suicidal altruism in *E. coli* infected with an obligately lytic prophage were examined (Refardt
360 et al. 2013). The authors found that altruistic suicide drove a population without PCD to
361 extinction. Similarly, in experiments with *L. major*, groups of individuals without PCD were
362 less fit than those with the PCD trait (van Zandbergen et al. 2010).

363 **Explanatory power of PCD being a BQ**

364 Multilevel selection models provide explanatory frameworks for how and why PCD could
365 have evolved by natural selection (Reece et al. 2011; Refardt et al. 2013; Iranzo et al. 2014;

366 Durand 2020; Vostinar et al. 2019). What is unexplained, however, is the ecology of PCD in
367 microbial communities comprising unrelated taxa. It is known that PCD has a significant
368 effect on population structures, the partitioning of resources, and the evolution of costly
369 functions (Franklin et al. 2006; Bidle 2016). The observation that PCD is unequally
370 distributed across species in any particular community is unexplained and new avenues of
371 enquiry are being sought. From our analyses, it seems that interpreting PCD as a BQ is
372 promising as a potential explanation for the evolutionary dynamics of programmed forms of
373 death in microbial communities. For example, the BQH predicts that dependencies between
374 microbial communities will evolve when members of the community stop performing a vital
375 and costly function. Seeing PCD as a BQ suggests that members of microbial communities in
376 which all the species undergo PCD will likely not be an evolutionarily stable state. Species
377 will be selected to liberate themselves from the BQ trait. Thus, the frequency of PCD in a
378 community may carry important information about both the current function of the trait as
379 well as its evolutionary history. For instance, a high frequency of PCD in a community may
380 indicate that communities of this kind have a short evolutionary history, or that PCD is an
381 exceptionally important feature of the community.

382 **Metacaspases: An example of the power of the BQH for investigating PCD**

383 Changes in the PCD pathway in the form of gene loss or LoF mutations represent the most
384 logical place to find BQ functions and mechanistic explanations for the loss of PCD. While
385 the principal proteins involved in the PCD machinery have largely been identified (Aravind
386 et al. 1999), the molecular ecophysiology of PCD in unicellular organisms remains to be fully
387 elucidated (Bidle 2015). In this section, we discuss proteins that are widely accepted to be
388 executioners of the PCD pathway, and whose loss is likely to result in a loss of the PCD
389 pathway.

390 The emergence of PCD in unicellular eukaryotes has been attributed to the acquisition
391 of mitochondrial genes from an alpha-proteobacterium, a mitochondrion progenitor, coupled
392 with horizontal gene transfer events between the archaeo-eukaryote ancestor and bacteria
393 (Aravind et al. 1999; Koonin and Aravind 2002; Martijn and Ettema 2013). Caspases
394 (Cysteine-dependent **ASP**artyl-specific prote**ASE**) are proteolytic cysteine specific proteases
395 that have been identified to be at the heart of the PCD molecular machinery where they are
396 initiators and executors of the catalytic cascade resulting in the apoptotic-like morphotypes
397 and cell disintegration in metazoans (Cohen 1997; Thornberry and Lazebnik 1998).

398 Unicellular organisms lack caspases in their genomes, but distant homologs called
399 metacaspases have been identified in a variety of unicellular taxa (Aravind et al. 1999; Uren
400 et al. 2000; Tsiatsiani et al. 2011; Klemenčič and Funk 2019). Expression of metacaspase
401 genes is increasingly being viewed as a proxy for PCD activity as numerous studies have
402 correlated metacaspase expression with hallmarks of apoptotic-like PCD in a range of
403 unicellular organisms (Kosec et al. 2006; Bidle et al. 2007; Bidle and Bender 2008; Tsiatsiani
404 et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2017; Liu et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2018; Spungin et al. 2019).
405 Although metacaspases have also been implicated in non-PCD related functions (Shrestha
406 and Megeny 2012; Minina et al. 2017; Mata et al. 2019), they continue to be used to explore
407 the origins and evolution of the PCD molecular machinery in unicellular organisms (Koonin
408 and Aravind 2002; Choi and Berges 2013; Klemenčič and Funk 2019). Therefore, we
409 propose that LoF of metacaspases genes would be a good indicator that the PCD pathway has
410 been lost or compromised as set out in the BQH.

411 Comparative analysis of prokaryote genomes reveal that there is variability in the
412 number of metacaspases genes with members of the alphaproteobacteria, deltaproteobacteria,
413 and cyanobacteria showing the greatest number of metacaspase genes (Asplund-Samuelsson
414 et al. 2012). On the other hand, only a single metacaspase gene, *MCA1*, has been identified in

415 the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* genome where the gene has been linked to apoptotic-like
416 PCD (Madeo et al. 2002) and cytoprotection during aging (Hill and Nyström 2015). How the
417 variability in the number of metacaspase genes between different taxa affects the PCD
418 pathway remains unexplored. Evidence of the loss of metacaspase genes has been
419 documented, coincidentally, in the same organisms which led to the formulation of the BQH.
420 Members of the *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* genera have been found to lack
421 metacaspase genes in their genomes and are therefore suggested to be unable to undergo PCD
422 (Bidle and Falkowski 2004; Asplund-Samuelsson et al. 2012). We are not aware of any work
423 that has been carried out to investigate why these genes are missing. Future studies based on
424 the lines of enquiry and theoretical frameworks discussed here will be able to assess whether
425 loss of metacaspase genes are part of an evolutionary response to PCD functioning as a BQ in
426 microbial communities.

427 **Concluding remarks**

428 Multilevel selection theory explains how unicellular species have evolved PCD by natural
429 selection. What is much less clear is the ecological role of PCD in microbial communities.
430 Despite the caveats and dearth of functional data from ecological studies, it does seem that
431 PCD may be a BQ. PCD certainly is a leaky trait that is important for community survival
432 and is quite obviously a costly trait. Whether there has been adaptive gene loss, however, is
433 not clear, although the metacaspase example suggest that this may be the case. The
434 hypothesis that PCD functions as a BQ may thus be a fruitful line of enquiry.

435 **Data availability statement**

436 Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analysed in this
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- 682
683

684 **Figures**

685 **Figure 1:** The BQH describes how the availability of public goods due to leakiness
686 provides conditions for some taxa to relinquish the cost of performing a vital function. **(a)**
687 Two taxa perform a leaky vital function, resulting in public goods. **(b)** These conditions lead
688 to the red ellipsoid taxa relinquishing this costly activity becoming ‘beneficiaries’ of the
689 public goods provided by the blue circular ‘helper’ taxa.

690 **Figure 2:** PCD is leaky and public goods provide the conditions that may lead to
691 the evolution of BQs. **(a)** Phytoplankton exist in microbial communities where they
692 experience a variety of environmental stressors (lightning bolt). **(b)** Some members
693 (ellipsoid) of the community undergo PCD. Cellular resources leak into the environment.
694 These are available to other taxa (rectangular) leading to the evolution of dependencies.

695