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1 Human adaptation to deep space environment: an evolutionary perspective of
2 the foreseen interplanetary exploration

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7

8 Long-term and deep space exploration is a prevailing dream that is becoming a reality. Is that so? The
9 answer to this question depends on how the main actors of space exploration, i.e. politicians,
10 scientists and engineers, define “long-term” and the ultimate goals of the current space programs.
11 Presently, long-term refers to few months or years, which is equivalent to the time necessary for a
12 manned mission to reach another planet and return to Earth. Such a space mission is a tremendous
13 scientific challenge associated with multidisciplinary issues spanning from technology¹ to medicine
14 biology², social and psychological science³. It has been a priority of the main westernized societies
15 that has attracted the brightest and most innovative scientific minds since World War II. At first the
16 stakes were mainly political in order to demonstrate to other countries power and strength. It
17 progressively became a scientific motivation to uncover the secrets of the Universe and life’s origin,
18 and potentially to find traces of distant life. More recently, a desire to colonize space and exploit
19 resources on other planets has emerged as a new dream. Although the journey to Mars is still a
20 prospective and travelling in deep space a further elusive goal⁴, one can question the ultimate
21 implications of deep space exploration over the long-term.

22 This perspective requires subscribing to a new paradigm that no longer sees “long-term” as
23 months or years but rather as time in an evolutionary context. This further means that instead of
24 thinking about the physiological and psychological response of the human body to the space
25 environment, we must consider the adaptations that will be naturally selected by this extreme

26 environment. The long-term objective may then be to provide humanity an access to space shelters
27 (*i.e.* spaceships or exoplanets) in order to survive the Sun's death.

28 Going into deep space should therefore also concern evolutionary biology/ecology research
29 fields. Including evolutionary concepts to better assess the long-term challenges imposed by the
30 human presence in space could open up new perspectives for imagining how successive generations
31 of humans will cope with the environmental conditions of space. Such a question belongs to the
32 research field of evolutionary biology, which essentially tackles how evolution resolves previous
33 challenges imposed to life on Earth. We believe this question easily extends to how evolution will
34 help a human population adapt to an environment drastically different from the present on Earth. In
35 fact, evolution through natural selection has led to the emergence of species that can live in extreme
36 environment. Some prokaryotic microorganism (*e.g.* bacteria), crabs and fishes can inhabit extreme
37 environments like boiling waters and/or live under high environmental pressure. Some Vertebrates
38 (mammals and birds) can also live when facing ambient temperatures of -40°C or sustaining highly
39 demanding physical activities at an altitude above 7000 m. Such a questioning on the evolutionary
40 mechanisms and environmental limits of living beings was actually, although not presented as in the
41 present perspective, recognized by the NASA Astrobiology Roadmap as one of the scientific
42 objectives to be addressed⁵.

43 Presently, research in space life science mainly focuses on understanding the physiological
44 adaptations to the space environment, *i.e.* physiological responses to microgravity and radiation, and
45 to a lesser extent to the loss of nycthemeral cycles, exposure to extreme temperatures or
46 hypercapnic conditions present in the ISS. The goal is to assess the impact of these changes on health
47 and consequently on the safety and survival of the crew members. It is now well known that
48 microgravity leads to a myriad of body alterations including bone and muscle mass loss,
49 cardiovascular deconditioning, impaired exercise capacity, immune-deficiency and alterations of
50 peripheral metabolism⁶⁻⁸. To prevent the development of these physiological modifications during

51 spaceflights international space agencies have put a lot of effort into the development of
52 countermeasures. Countermeasure programs essentially consist in nutritional and pharmacological
53 treatments, exercise training protocols, vibrations and low body negative pressure used separately or
54 in combination ². Adaptations to the space environment are often referred to as maladaptations
55 when they are in fact physiological responses to a new environment with different physical
56 characteristics. What is commonly considered maladaptive is a physiological trait that deviates from
57 an optimal response shaped by natural selection in the terrestrial environmental conditions, but not
58 an inability to adapt to space environment. A first provisional response to such a challenge could be
59 to artificially modify human physiology to allow human life to thrive in the unique space
60 environment. One could imagine that synthetic molecules could be developed to prevent short-term
61 physiological alterations. This could be a promising avenue for space research on human adaptation
62 ⁹, if long-term administration of synthetic molecules does not trigger additional medical issues over
63 the long-term. The different approaches developed by the field of synthetic biology ¹⁰, such as
64 genetic engineering or synthetic molecules redefining the main physiological pathways, could
65 theoretically provide biological tools for a short-term adaptation to multiple challenges imposed by
66 spaceflight. However apart from the obvious ethical issues of human design, the start of a new
67 human lineage is not, in our opinion, a definitive solution. Such pre-adaptation to space will be based
68 on our current knowledge of astronaut's health problems (*e.g.* bone and muscle loss), which may not
69 be the main factors limiting the long-term survival of humans in space. Furthermore, exposing these
70 humans designed for living in deep space does not preclude human physiology to pursue
71 evolutionary process through selection. Nevertheless, synthetic biology offers interesting
72 opportunities. It could be used to either investigate synthetic genetic systems that can neutralize
73 evolution of key genes, or to send synthetic entities capable of evolution into deep space and thus
74 ensure space observation, analysis or pioneering tasks ¹⁰.

75 An alternative is to look at the short-term human physiological response to space in an
76 evolutionary context. We should consider three possibilities when analysing the unhealthy output of

77 exposition to microgravity. First, not everything in evolution is adaptive and some of the genetic and
78 phenotypic traits we observe are the result from the best of misuse strategies. There are many
79 examples in evolution showing that behaviours, reproductive tactics, or phenotypes originated from
80 genetic conflicts or life-history trade-offs, which precludes organisms from being perfectly adapted to
81 their environment ¹¹. Thus, it can be considered that humans may never optimally adapt to the
82 space environment. Second, the responses of the human body to the space environment may reflect
83 the short-term mismatch between the rapid and drastic changes in environmental conditions, and
84 the concomitant modifications in human physiology (*i.e.* phenotypic plasticity). However, plasticity is
85 not adaptation, and the evolution of human traits may require a much longer time-scale (*i.e.*
86 thousands of years at least) to adapt to space conditions. Again, the synthetic biology may putatively
87 accelerate the adaptation process. However, we know that the extent of bone or body mass loss
88 widely varies among astronauts, some showing dramatic variations in their pre- and post-flight
89 values, while others do not ¹². This means that there are genotypes and phenotypes within the
90 human population that may offer some degree of short-term resistance to space environment. In
91 evolutionary biology, this corresponds to the concept of reaction norms, *i.e.* the ability for the same
92 genotype to produce different phenotypes under the influence of the environment. We can envisage
93 that the directional selection conducted so far, based on short-term benefits and comprehensive
94 rules of astronaut's safety, experience and productivity, prevented us from screening the whole
95 distribution of human phenotypes/phenotypic plasticity that best matches with rapid exposition to
96 living conditions in space. The recent rise of private companies (*e.g.* SpaceX, Blue Origin) that aim to
97 open spaceflight to private passengers, *i.e.* individuals not selected on the basis of strict
98 physical/cognitive performance, could provide an experimental window to test a wider range of
99 human phenotypes in response to the space environment. Thirdly, we could also consider that the
100 short-term responses observed so far in astronauts belong to an adaptation process in the
101 evolutionary sense, *i.e.* long-term changes that will promote the selection of genetic and phenotypic
102 variations of individuals associated with higher rate of reproductive success in space. We have

103 already seen that these changes are slow in humans for various reasons including the diploid
104 genome, our developmental constrains, and our pace-of-life. As a conclusion, fast changing variables
105 (i.e. what is currently called human space adaptations) may be indicative or not about long-term
106 adaptability (i.e. evolutionary human adaptation). The answer to this question will be unveiled when
107 the impact of short-term adaptations on human fitness will be tested. With this in mind, we can
108 enter into an evolutionary vision of the study of space biology applied to human biology, which has
109 been surprisingly lacking over the past years¹³.

110 It is far from incongruous to think that space and evolution are linked. Going past the billions
111 of generations that separate us from the very first living being that appeared on Earth 4.5 billion
112 years ago, and go back up one more generation, one can feel what the thinness of the presence and
113 absence of life. In a similar vein, the Panspermia theory of Richter and Arrhenius was proposed more
114 than a century ago hypothesizing that some forms of life, resistant to space stressors such as outer
115 space or radiations, might have the ability to spread from planets to planets^{14,15}. There is now
116 experimental evidence showing that some life forms such as bacteria or tardigrades may survive
117 exposure to space¹⁶⁻¹⁹. This actually opens up exciting avenues of research for human adaptation to
118 space. Two of them have already been assessed because they have short-term implications. First,
119 microgravity through genomic and phenotypic adaptation may enhance the population growth rate
120 of certain bacteria as well as their virulence or resistance to antibiotics¹⁹⁻²². This has conducted
121 researchers to study how the host-pathogen relationships can be accordingly modified²³. The second
122 (and still related to the former) concerns changes in the microbiome (*i.e.* the many microorganisms
123 living in the human host) during exposure to microgravity and radiation. The diversity of microbiotes
124 decreases after a spaceflight, which can weaken some healthy functions such as immunity²⁴. By
125 consequence, maintaining the microbiome during long-duration spaceflight is a major health
126 challenge for astronauts. These changes may be due to (i) a direct causal effect of microgravity on
127 the bacterial populations of the microbiome, or (ii) an indirect effect of spaceflight environment on
128 the host (*i.e.* astronauts) physiology, such as stress or change in the quality of the diet²⁵. These

129 modifications in population composition may reflect intimate changes in the gene expression of
130 bacteria ²⁶, pointing out mechanisms of phenotypic plasticity and norms of reactions to space that
131 need to be better understood. What would be the long-term output of having two entities intimately
132 linked physically and physiologically but evolving at very different rates in response to the space
133 environment? It is likely that natural selection will promote a remodelling of the microbiome towards
134 a composition better associated with the greater reproduction success of its host, integrating the
135 prevailing environmental constraints. This means that we cannot interpret, so far, the observed
136 modification of the microbiome as an alteration of an optimal situation, which has evolved under
137 different conditions on Earth. The temptation to explore the biological engineering of the
138 microbiome ²⁷ to establish the evolutionary stability of bacterial populations is interesting. However,
139 we cannot extrapolate that this will provide the human host with a more suitable phenotype over
140 generations of space travellers. Furthermore, the rate of change of the microbiome in humans is
141 likely to be accelerated by our social nature as a species. As suggested by long-term simulation of
142 living conditions in space ²⁸, changes in the microbiome composition are partially driven by social
143 interactions. Sociality matters for long-term space travels ²⁹; for obvious reasons, it is already taken
144 into account when selecting members for a space mission. As the microbiome influences individual
145 behaviour *via* the gut-brain connection ³⁰, it also has evolutionary consequences for the space
146 adaptation of human beings. In addition, because highly deleterious parasitic organisms favour host-
147 to-host transmission, limiting horizontal transmission between space mission members may be a key
148 factor when considering generations of humans who are slowly developing new host-pathogen
149 relationships. This should be taken into account in studies aimed at resolving infection diseases in
150 deep space. Apart from isolating each person from the other, impeding horizontal transmission is a
151 challenging strategy to implement given the operational capabilities of space shuttles. In conclusion,
152 the rapid and low rates of evolutionary under space conditions apply to cells and whole-organism ³¹.
153 The adaptation of cells to gravity may or may not favour the adaptation of individuals (*i.e.* promote

154 reproductive success in space), and we need more long-term data to fully understand the meaning of
155 the short-terms dynamics of single cells response to the space environment.

156 With generations of humans travelling into deep space, the selection of individuals with the
157 greatest reproductive success in this specific environment must be top priority when considering
158 human adaptation to the space environment. This has evolutionary consequences as well as obvious
159 ethical issues ³². We would like to highlight here key points relating to reproductive success,
160 methodological or theoretical, both placed in the context of evolutionary theory. First, investigating
161 adaptation in an evolutionary perspective calls for studies at the population level, because it will
162 decipher the nature of the phenotype associated with the highest breeding success during
163 spaceflight. This is the most powerful way to assess how organisms, as a species over generations,
164 will succeed surviving the space environment. Previous studies in bacteria subjected to microgravity
165 have revealed interesting evolutionary patterns. The bacterial populations exposed to microgravity
166 display increased growth rates suggesting specific adaptations that lead them to overtake the
167 cultures of their terrestrial siblings²². Ranging from the differential expression of genes and proteins,
168 alternative splicing ³³ or genome size reduction may explain, among other possibilities, the higher
169 growth yields of space-exposed bacteria. The ultimate costs in terms of persistence of these
170 mutants/phenotypes in the long-term remain to be established. Nevertheless, by reproduction we
171 mean sexual reproduction (*i.e.* with male and female gametes) and not asexual reproduction (*i.e.* like
172 most bacteria). The reason is simple: the evolution of humans in the space environment will never
173 return to asexual reproduction. This is due to developmental constrains inherited from the history of
174 human evolution based on the sequential expression of genes inherited from the father and mother
175 during embryonic growth. In this line, how developmental constraints restrain evolution under
176 microgravity is in itself an interesting topic because phenomena like blastula development is partly
177 governed by gravity ³⁴. Then, we need to use sexually reproducing animal models, place them in
178 microgravity and/or space radiation, and record the short-term changes in pre and post-natal growth
179 patterns, as well as their genomic and phenotypic changes over generations. By allowing the

180 population to evolve and establish these changes in gene frequencies associated with high
181 reproductive success, we can identify key genes and alleles for space adaptations. Second, adopting
182 an evolutionary view of human adaptation to space will bring us beyond purely medical aspects of
183 human reproduction in microgravity³⁵. Because sexual reproduction encompasses processes such as
184 genetic conflict, mate selection and social constraints, we need to integrate specific traits of human
185 biology and evolution into future experiments. For instance, the kin selection theory³⁶ has yielded
186 important implications for our understanding of sexual reproduction and evolution of cooperation.
187 Among these, the mother-father conflict is driving the expression of developmental genes, which are
188 involved in the way the foetus will manipulate the mother's investment in reproduction, the
189 outcome being a gain in foetal mass. Males found a benefice in driving genes promoting mass and
190 survival of the offspring, while females have to find the best trade-off between the cost of their
191 reproduction and their survival and chances to reproduce again. The way in which the expression of
192 these genes is altered by the space environment is likely to have tremendous consequences on the
193 evolution of human population over generations. For example, theories are emerging on the
194 relationship between the mother-father conflict and mental illness in offspring³⁷. Whether autism or
195 schizophrenia prevalence may differ in space-based human population compared to Earth-based
196 human population, considering parents-conflict or changes in the microbiome³⁸ has important
197 predictive value.

198 Beyond the purely technological challenges, the question of the human presence in deep
199 space turns first of all into philosophical questioning. For most of us, the rationale of human space
200 exploration is primarily related to high-value, near-term technological spinoffs or the economic
201 promises of soon-to-be accessible natural resources. The growing share of private companies
202 involved in spaceflight often justifies their activities by the extensive possibilities of exploiting
203 minerals and metals, and thus being able to address the ecological crisis on Earth. Others also invoke
204 exploitation of space resources as a way of reducing the environmental cost of human activities on
205 Earth, reconciling the words sustainable and economic development for future human generations³⁹.

206 As we have seen so far, reflection on deep space travel brings us to address ethical and philosophical
207 questions such as human engineering ⁴⁰, and the selection of phenotypes or genotypes of the
208 terrestrial inhabitants with the highest fitness. It further raises important questions about the future
209 of sub-populations of astronauts derived from humans after generations living in space, and the
210 relationship between human populations that will likely differ in their phenotype (and because
211 evolution has to deal with contingency, evolution of different populations are likely to differ), but
212 also in the way they view humanity's place in the cosmos. Astronauts have reported a shift in their
213 relationship with Earth after a spaceflight. They specifically report that viewing the Earth from outer
214 space increased their appreciation of its inestimable value and fragility ⁴¹. As developed over the past
215 30 years by Frank White in his Hypothesis of the Cosma, a cognitive shift in awareness towards Earth,
216 named as the overview effect, will likely occur in the mind of deep space travellers.

217 Every evolutionary biologist has had to face criticism of his/her scientific questions. The lack
218 of immediate deliverables applicable to short-term objectives is often cited in evaluations. This is due
219 to a misunderstanding of the goals of evolutionary biology. Studying the short-term physiological
220 adaptations to microgravity and the long-term consequences of living in the space environment using
221 an evolutionary perspective is not incompatible; both approaches are highly informative and
222 relevant. However, we subscribe to the view that understanding the genomic, physiological and
223 behavioural mechanisms underlying adaptations to new and contrasted environmental conditions
224 must be placed in the light of evolution. Evolutionary biology is a field that attempts to understand a
225 simple equation, *i.e.* how evolution actually finds a solution to an ecological problem. This is the
226 question that life space science has tried to address: how do humans adapt to the space
227 environment? By bringing current space research into the realm of evolutionary biology, we could
228 generate new paradigms that will help humans to cope with deep space travelling. We are now
229 entering a very exciting era during which such a question may be addressed.

230

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235

236 **Author contributions**

237 FC wrote a first text, which was thereafter extensively drafted by AB, and further commented by CS.

238

239 **Competing interests**

240 The authors declare no competing interests.

241

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