

1 **Genetic load in Evolutionarily Significant Units (ESUs):**
2 **conservation and management implications**

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4 van Oosterhout C.*, DeWoody J.A., Godoy J. A., Geue J.C., Leigh D.M., Sunnucks P.

5

6 *corresponding author

7

8 Cock van Oosterhout

9 C.van-Oosterhout@uea.ac.uk

10 *1 International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Conservation Genetics Specialist Group*
11 *(CGSG), Gland, Switzerland*

12 *2 School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia: Norwich, Norfolk, GB*

13 *ORCID: 0000-0002-5653-738X*

14

15 J. Andrew DeWoody

16 dewoody@purdue.edu

17 *1 International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Conservation Genetics Specialist Group*
18 *(CGSG), Gland, Switzerland*

19 *2 Depts. of Forestry & Natural Resources and Biological Sciences, Purdue University, West Lafayette*
20 *Indiana, USA*

21 *ORCID: 0000-0002-7315-5631*

22

23 José A. Godoy

24 godoy@ebd.csic.es

25 *1 International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Conservation Genetics Specialist Group*
26 *(CGSG), Gland, Switzerland*

27 *2 Estación Biológica de Doñana, CSIC, Seville, Spain*

28 *ORCID: 0000-0001-7502-9471*

29

30 Julia C. Geue

31 julia.geue@wildlife.uni-freiburg.de

32 *1 International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Conservation Genetics Specialist Group*
33 *(CGSG), Gland, Switzerland*

34 *2 Wildlife Ecology and Management, University Freiburg, Freiburg im Breisgau, Germany*

35 *ORCID:0000-0002-1038-8614*

36 Deborah M. Leigh

37 deborah.leigh@senckenberg.de

38 *1 International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Conservation Genetics Specialist Group*
39 *(CGSG), Gland, Switzerland*

40 *2 LOEWE Centre for Translational Biodiversity Genomics, Frankfurt, Germany*

41 *3 Senckenberg Research Institute, Frankfurt, Germany*

42 *4 Institute of Ecology, Evolution, and Diversity, Faculty of Biosciences, Goethe University Frankfurt,*
43 *Frankfurt, Germany*

44 *ORCID: 0000-0003-3902-2568*

45

46 Paul Sunnucks

47 paul.sunnucks@monash.edu

48 *1 International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) Conservation Genetics Specialist Group*
49 *(CGSG), Gland, Switzerland*

50 *2 Wildlife Genetic Management Group, School of Biological Sciences, Monash University, Melbourne*
51 *3800, Victoria, Australia*

52 *ORCID: 0000-0002-8139-7059*

53

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56 **Abstract**

57 The Conservation Genetics Specialist Group of the International Union for Conservation of
58 Nature (IUCN) proposes introducing Evolutionarily Significant Units (ESUs) as an additional
59 new assessment unit in the IUCN Red List and Green Status. This proposal is made because
60 ESUs possess unique evolutionary trajectories present within species and harbour genetic
61 diversity that requires safeguarding. Given that genetic diversity is not formally incorporated
62 in the Red List or Green Status assessment, the inclusion of ESUs would help improve the
63 protection of valuable intraspecific biodiversity. In this framework, ESUs can be identified by
64 non-genetic and/or genetic data, including data on karyotype differences, distinct adaptations,
65 and deep evolutionary distinctiveness. Genetic load is purposefully not included in ESU
66 delineation, even though its important role in species conservation and management is
67 increasingly recognised. Here, we report on the discussion that led to this decision, explaining
68 the rationale and challenges that led us to exclude the genetic load from the ESU-defining
69 framework. We also discuss recent research on genetic load, and how this could help advance
70 conservation science and improve species conservation and recovery programs.

71 **Background**

72 The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) has assessed the extinction risk of
73 over 163,000 species in the Red List of Threatened Species. Their risk of extinction was
74 assessed based on the best available data on occupation of the species' past and present range,
75 census size and trends, habitat extent and quality, and level of fragmentation (IUCN, 2024).
76 Extinction risks have historically been assessed at three levels: entire species, subspecies, and
77 subpopulations (IUCN, 2024). Genetic or genomic data are not explicitly considered in these
78 assessments, although there are increasing calls that they must be (Willoughby et al. 2015;
79 Garner et al. 2020; Norderhaug et al. 2024). Furthermore, the Red List assesses the extinction
80 risk over 3 generations or 10 years (whichever is longest). Such a short time frame is
81 insufficient to assess the long-term threat to biodiversity caused by genomic erosion (Jackson
82 et al. 2022; Pinto et al. 2024). The IUCN recently established the Green Status of Species, and
83 although it too does not include genetic diversity in its assessment framework, its assessment
84 is over a 100-year timespan (IUCN, 2021). The Green Status of Species assessment provides
85 an appropriate platform to include genetic data and evolutionary genetic concepts relevant to
86 population recovery, in particular when combined with computer-modelling based population
87 viability forecasts. The Green Status of Species framework can help assess the contribution
88 that management of evolutionary genetic health can make to population trajectories (Jeon et al.
89 2024; Norderhaug et al. 2024).

90 The absence of genetic and genomic data in the IUCN's assessments has been a subject of
91 considerable debate encompassing reasons why inclusion of these data would be beneficial, and
92 how to do so (Garner et al. 2020; Schmidt et al. 2023; Jeon et al. 2024; Norderhaug et al. 2024).
93 The Conservation Genetics Specialist Group (CGSG) was established as part of the Species
94 Survival Committee (SSC) of the IUCN with the aim to promote research, collaboration, and
95 awareness of genetic and evolutionary principles in conserving biodiversity. Growing concern
96 about the lack of recognition of evolutionary and genetic principles motivated the CGSG to
97 propose Evolutionarily Significant Units (ESUs) as an additional new unit of conservation in
98 the IUCN Red List and Green Status assessments (Geue et al. 2025). ESUs are defined based
99 on their unique evolutionary trajectories, and inclusion of ESUs in IUCN's assessments would
100 help protect intraspecific genetic diversity and enhance conservation management (Geue et al.
101 2025).

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103

104 **The importance of ESUs**

105 The first mention of the term ESU was by Ryder (1986). In his paper, he discussed the need to
106 conserve unique genetic attributes within a species that are important for present and future
107 generations. Ryder (1986) furthermore suggested a combination of genetic data, geographic
108 distribution data, life history information and morphometrics to delineate ESUs within species.
109 Considerable research on ESUs has since followed, briefly summarised in Geue et al. (2025).
110 The application of the term ESU has suffered long-standing issues resulting from a lack of
111 standardisation, partly due to the multidisciplinary nature of conservation science. Moreover,
112 scientists from different disciplines have defined and used ESUs with different approaches and
113 types of data. Geue et al. (2025) proposes a framework intended to consolidate the best
114 elements of ESU approaches into one feasible, stepwise approach, incorporating both genetic
115 data as well as data that do not require genetic analysis.

116 The new ESU assessment framework proposed by Geue et al. (2025) comprises two steps: (1)
117 identifying distinct subpopulations and, (2) assessing whether these subpopulations meet the
118 criteria to be all or part of an ESUs or flagged as possible ESUs (pESUs) in case of data
119 limitations. Three types of data are used in this delineation framework: *genetic* evidence,
120 *recorded biological* evidence and *inferred* evidence. *Genetic* evidence derives from genetic or
121 genomic data (e.g., single nucleotide polymorphisms, microsatellites, mitochondrial
122 haplotypes, structural variants) or from quantitative genetic (breeding) studies. *Recorded*
123 *biological* evidence comprises observed biogeographic patterns, phenotypic or behavioural
124 variation. *Inferred* evidence is not observed directly in the focal units but inferred from
125 biogeographic patterns based on modelling techniques, related species, and traditional
126 knowledge (Geue et al. 2025).

127 From a genetics point-of-view, ESUs can be identified based on their deep evolutionary
128 distinctiveness, as evidenced from long-term restricted gene flow, reciprocal monophyly, or
129 genetic estimates of divergence times. In some cases, the distinction between ESU and species
130 can be blurry. Even in the absence of genomic evidence for local adaptation, “drift speciation”
131 can occur if ESUs are completely isolated and population sizes are sufficiently small (Black et
132 al. 2024). Such cases are likely to be rare, and often genetic data (e.g., karyotypes) can be used
133 to identify heritable differences in chromosome numbers or ploidy, or provide strong evidence
134 of no/rare/unfit hybrids. Furthermore, ESUs can be defined based on their adaptive uniqueness
135 in the form of local adaptation driven by natural- or sexual selection. Although the genetic load
136 of deleterious mutations is increasingly recognised as an important aspect in species

137 conservation and restoration (van Oosterhout 2020), this aspect of genetic diversity was
138 ultimately not included in the ESU- defining framework.

139

140 **Rationale to exclude genetic load from the ESU-defining framework**

141 Here we report the debate concerning the relevance and issues relating to the exclusion of
142 genetic load in the ESU assessment framework. There are two fundamental arguments against
143 the inclusion of genetic load to define ESUs. First, these units are defined based on their
144 evolutionary uniqueness that needs to be conserved, whereas contemporary maladaptive
145 variation is by definition not useful and worthy of protection. Second, the framework focuses
146 on ESU delimitation, whereas ESU assessment and management—for which genetic load is
147 more relevant—is a separate process of goal-setting and decision-making. The practical
148 arguments against incorporating genetic load in ESU delineation include that identifying and
149 quantifying the impact of deleterious mutations remains challenging. We also explain why,
150 despite the exclusion of the genetic load from the ESU-defining framework, the assessment of
151 harmful mutations can be critical for the management of ESUs and how genetic load is
152 currently being analysed.

153

154 **Analysis of genetic load**

155 Genetic load can be considered a fitness concept, in which case it is estimated as a decrease in
156 the average fitness of a population relative to that of the optimal genotype (Bertorelle et al.
157 2022). Genetic load can now also be estimated based on genomic data, but the link between
158 the fitness concept and the molecular genetic concept of the genetic load remains largely
159 untested in wildlife (Grueber and Sunnucks 2022).

160 Studying genetic load tends to involve advanced bioinformatic approaches to assess the impact
161 of genetic variants, which are then ranked or categorised according to the level of assumed
162 severity (Bertorelle et al. 2022). Popular variant-prediction scores include GERP (Genomic
163 Evolutionary Rate Profiling), CADD (Combined Annotation-Dependent Depletion), and SIFT
164 (Sorting Tolerant From Intolerant), and many others (reviewed in Bertorelle et al. 2022).
165 Recent papers have proposed frameworks to examine the dynamics of genetic load in
166 threatened and recovering populations, and these approaches are increasingly being applied in
167 conservation genomics (Grossen et al. 2020; Mathur & DeWoody, 2021; Dussex et al. 2023;

168 Smeds & Ellegren 2023; Kyriazis et al. 2023; Kleinman-Ruiz et al. 2022; Femerling et al. 2023;
169 Cavill et al. 2024; Hogg 2024; Hasselgren et al. 2024).

170 Unfortunately, the rank scores of variants do not directly translate into selection (s) coefficients.
171 Consequently, unlike s coefficients, rank scores (e.g., CADD scores) cannot simply be summed
172 to estimate the genetic load. An additional complication is that the fitness impact of genetic
173 variants is often context-dependent. For example, the sickle cell mutation at the beta-globin
174 gene can be beneficial or deleterious depending on whether an individual carries one or two
175 copies, and the environmental conditions (notably whether malaria is endemic). More broadly,
176 many variants of polygenic traits can be deleterious or beneficial depending on their genetic
177 background and environment (van Oosterhout et al. 2022).

178 Nevertheless, some genetic load consists of variants that are unconditionally deleterious in
179 (nearly) all individuals and environments. For example, genetic variants that are shared by
180 highly diverged species are likely to be conserved by strong purifying selection. The
181 evolutionary conservation of such a variant suggests that its substitution is likely to be harmful
182 to fitness under nearly all conditions and genetic backgrounds. Ultra-Conserved Elements
183 (UCEs) consist of such highly invariable sites (Speak et al. 2024). Although it might not be
184 possible to determine the exact deleteriousness of a given variant at a conserved site in every
185 individual, we can be confident that the long-term *average* effect of a mutation at such a site is
186 harmful when considered across multiple individuals. Moreover, we can rank the impact of
187 these mutations using their variant-prediction score and compare the distribution of these
188 scores between individuals or populations. This enables researchers to estimate what
189 proportion of harmful mutations is expressed as realised load, and how much remains hidden
190 from selection as masked load (Speak et al. 2024).

191

192 **Fitness-impact of genetic load in wildlife**

193 Linking these variant-prediction scores to individual fitness remains a big challenge. Studies
194 addressing the issue are beginning to emerge. In *Arabidopsis lyrata*, an indicator of genetic
195 load (i.e., weighted mean frequency of derived alleles, $P_{\text{D}}f_{\text{D}}/P_{\text{S}}f_{\text{S}}$) correlated with a fitness proxy,
196 population growth (Willi et al. 2018). More recently, arctic fox (*Vulpes lagopus*) individuals
197 with more homozygous loss-of-function genotypes (LoFs) were shown to have lower lifetime
198 reproductive success and reduced lifespans compared with individuals with lower proportions
199 of LoFs (Hasselgren et al. 2024). Similarly, LoF variants at specific loci associated with

200 reproductive health reduced male reproductive success in the northern elephant seal (*Mirounga*
201 *angustirostris*) (Hoelzel et al. 2024). Moreover, in five loci associated with transcriptional
202 regulation during hypoxia, frequencies of minor alleles (e.g., putatively deleterious alleles)
203 were higher in individuals with lower dive performance. Importantly, genome-wide
204 heterozygosity was not a good predictor of the fitness components (Hoelzel et al. 2024),
205 implying that the genetic load at particular loci, rather than genome-wide diversity, was a better
206 predictor of the chosen fitness indicators in this species.

207 These are the first studies showing that it is possible to link the effects of putative harmful
208 mutations to fitness of individuals in wild populations of non-model organisms. There is an
209 urgent need for more studies that link individual fitness to genetic load and other genomic data.
210 We also need to critically test the potential added value of assessing and managing deleterious
211 mutations in biodiversity conservation (van Oosterhout 2020; Grueber and Sunnucks 2022;
212 Jackson et al. 2022). Genomics data have immense value for biodiversity conservation, but this
213 potential will be fully realised only when we go beyond categorising or ranking genetic variants
214 in relation to their relative severity (or benevolence). We need to be able to estimate the fitness
215 effects of genetic variants and express them into selection coefficients, which would enable us
216 to engage the powerful quantitative- and population genetic frameworks. That would be a step-
217 change in the use of genomics data in the studies of ecology, evolution, and conservation.

218

219 **Genetic load in ESUs**

220 Genetic load plays a pivotal role in biodiversity conservation and management. However, the
221 framework proposed by the CGSG is designed to delineate ESUs for consideration in
222 conservation management, not to prescribe particular conservation interventions. Conservation
223 management of ESUs can benefit from a better understanding of genetic load. If individuals
224 from one ESU have become fixed for deleterious variants at different loci than those in another
225 ESU, gene flow between these ESUs could improve fitness. Conservation management that
226 promotes gene flow can help to mask realised load by making loci heterozygous, thereby
227 improving fitness and population viability. Future conservation management of threatened
228 ESUs subject to genetic rescue may benefit from balancing the harm of introducing deleterious
229 variants versus the benefits of adding beneficial alleles and replenishing lost adaptive variation
230 (Mathur et al. 2023). Knowledge derived from genomics-informed conservation about genetic
231 load is valuable in conservation management, but at present, these analyses are prohibitively

232 complex for applied conservation of most threatened species (Ralls et al. 2020; Speak et al.
233 2024). Important progress can be made by combining population genomics with quantitative
234 genetics and linking detailed observational fitness and experimental data to genomics-based
235 estimates of genetic load (Willi et al. 2018; Bertorelle et al. 2022; Grueber & Sunnucks 2022;
236 Hasselgren et al. 2024; Hoelzel et al. 2024). Improving and validating fitness inferences from
237 genetic variant predictions would be a major advance in conservation science, enabling better
238 use of genomics data for the conservation and recovery of ESUs and threatened species.

239

240 **Competing Interests**

241 The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

242

243 **Author Contributions**

244 All authors contributed to the study conception. The first draft of the manuscript was written
245 by Cock van Oosterhout and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript.
246 All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

247

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