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**Greater sperm complexity in the Australasian old endemic rodents (Tribe: Hydromyini) is associated with increased levels of inter-male sperm competition**  
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1 **Title:**

2 **Greater sperm complexity in the Australasian old endemic rodents (Tribe:**  
3 **Hydromyini) associates with increased levels of intermale sperm competition**

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14

15 **Abstract**

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17 The male gamete, the spermatozoon, exhibits considerable interspecies morphological variation  
18 across mammals, especially among murid rodents. In Australasia most murids in the Tribe  
19 Hydromyini have a spermatozoon with a highly complex head that has, in addition to an apical hook  
20 characteristic of most murids, two further projections that extend from its upper concave surface,  
21 the ventral processes. Here we performed a phylogenetically controlled comparison of sperm  
22 morphology across 44 species of hydromyine rodents to test the hypothesis that the length and  
23 angle of both the ventral processes and apical hook, as well as the dimensions of the sperm tail,  
24 increase with relative testes mass as a proxy for differences in levels of intermale sperm  
25 competition. Although both sperm head protrusions exhibited considerable variation in their length  
26 and angle across species, only the angles increased significantly in relation to relative testes mass.  
27 Significant positive relationships were also evident between relative testes mass and lengths of the  
28 sperm midpiece and flagellum. These results suggest that in the sperm head of hydromyine rodents,  
29 the angle of the ventral processes, as well as that of the apical hook, together with the sperm tail  
30 length, are likely to be under sexual selection. The possible functional significance of these findings  
31 is discussed.

32

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34 **Introduction**

35 The spermatozoon is the most morphologically variable type of cell known to occur in vertebrates  
36 (Cohen 1977; Pitnick *et al.* 2009). The reason(s) for this are not clear although differences in both the  
37 mode of fertilisation and phylogeny have been suggested (Franzén 1970; Jamieson 1987). It is,  
38 however, becoming increasingly evident that sexual selection also plays a major role in determining  
39 the species specific form of the spermatozoon (for reviews see Pitnick *et al.* 2009; Simmons and  
40 Fitzpatrick 2012) with mounting evidence suggesting that both sperm size and shape co-vary with  
41 differences in levels of intermale sperm competition (see Snook 2005; Pitnick *et al.* 2009; Simmons  
42 and Fitzpatrick 2012; Fitzpatrick and Lüpold 2014 for reviews). Within a species, sperm morphology  
43 also appears to respond to experimentally manipulated levels of sperm competition (e.g. LaMunyon  
44 and Ward 2002; Palopoli *et al.* 2015), and has been found to contribute to fertilisation success under  
45 competitive conditions (e.g. LaMunyon and Ward 1998; Miller and Pitnick 2002; Oppliger *et al.* 2003;  
46 García-González and Simmons 2007; Firman and Simmons 2008; Lüpold *et al.* 2012; Bennison *et al.*  
47 2015).

48 A spermatozoon consists of a head, with a nucleus housing a haploid set of chromosomes and an  
49 enzyme-filled acrosome, and a tail for motility with the energy-generating mitochondria being  
50 present in its midpiece. Across species, the midpiece and total flagellum length tend to positively  
51 associate with sperm swimming speed (Gomendio & Roldan, 2008; Fitzpatrick *et al.*, 2009; Lüpold *et*  
52 *al.*, 2009; Gómez Montoto *et al.*, 2011; Tourmente, Gomendio & Roldan, 2011) which is particularly  
53 evident when the size and shape of the sperm head is also taken into account (Higdon, 1979;  
54 Humphries *et al.* 2008).

55 Compared to most mammalian taxa, the morphology of the spermatozoon in murid rodents is highly  
56 diverse across species in both its size and the shape of its head (Breed, 2004, 2005; Gomendio,

57 Tourmente & Roldan, 2011; Tourmente *et al.*, 2011). Within the subfamily Murinae most, but not  
58 all, species have a sperm head with an apical hook whereas most rodents of the Australasian old  
59 endemic tribe Hydromyini have an even more complex sperm form with two further extensions, the  
60 ventral processes, protruding from its upper concave surface. Suggested functions of the apical hook  
61 include facilitating temporary binding of the spermatozoon to the oviduct epithelium (Smith &  
62 Yanagimachi, 1990; Firman & Simmons, 2009; Gómez Montoto *et al.*, 2011) and/or in aiding in the  
63 formation of sperm aggregates or “trains” to enhance motility under high levels of intermale sperm  
64 competition (Moore *et al.*, 2002; Immler *et al.*, 2007; Fisher & Hoekstra, 2010) whereas the function  
65 of the sperm ventral processes may be to facilitate sperm binding to, and penetration of, the coat  
66 that surrounds the egg, the zona pellucida (Breed and Leigh, 1991; Drew *et al.* 2014).

67 In the current study, we tested the hypothesis that the length and angle of the sperm head ventral  
68 processes, that are characteristic morphological feature of the spermatozoon of most of the  
69 hydromyine rodents, are sexually selected traits and increase as the level of sperm competition is  
70 enhanced. We examined morphological data of sperm obtained from 44 species of hydromyine  
71 rodents in a phylogenetically controlled framework using relative testes mass as a proxy for sperm  
72 competition (Soulsbury 2010).

73

## 74 **Materials and Methods**

75 The taxonomy of the Australasian Old Endemic rodents used in the current study follows that of  
76 Musser and Carleton (2005) and Lecompte *et al.* (2008). Thus, within the Tribe Hydromyini six  
77 divisions are recognised: Hydromys, Xeromys, Uromys, Pogonomys, Lorentizmys, and Pseudomys.

### 78 *Specimens and Sample Preparation*

79 Sperm samples were obtained from 44 species that included representatives from all of the 6  
80 hydromyine divisions (for a full list of species and source of the material see Supplementary Table 1).

81 Sperm were obtained from the cauda epididymides that had been fixed in 10% buffered formalin.  
82 The testis weight was determined and, when only one testis was available, its weight was doubled to  
83 provide an approximate combined testes mass for the individual. Slides of sperm smears were  
84 prepared by teasing apart the cauda epididymides with forceps under a dissecting microscope and  
85 extruding sperm from the ducts. Body mass data came from either museum or laboratory records of  
86 the relevant individuals or from the literature (e.g. Breed & Taylor, 2000; see Supplementary Table 1  
87 for details).

### 88 *Sperm Parameters*

89 To indicate qualitative differences in sperm head morphology across species, and in particular the  
90 interspecific variation in the length and orientation of the apical hook and ventral processes,  
91 scanning electron microscopy of the sperm was carried out as previously described (see Breed, 1983,  
92 1984; Breed & Leigh, 2010).

93 For quantification of trait variation, light microscopical images of morphologically intact sperm were  
94 captured with a Nikon digital camera (Olympus SC100) attached to a Nomarski light microscope  
95 (Olympus BH2), and 10 sperm per individual were measured using the image analysis program NIS-  
96 Elements BR, calibrated to 0.09  $\mu\text{m}/\text{pixel}$ . Sperm were selected at random and photographically  
97 archived. Sperm head length was measured from the base of the sperm head to the base of the  
98 apical hook, and head width across the widest part of the head perpendicular to head length. The  
99 ventral process and hook length was determined by drawing a line at the base of the ventral  
100 processes, when present, and the apical hook. The lengths of the apical hook and ventral processes  
101 were measured from the base to the tip by tracing the centre line using a segmented line tool.  
102 Where two ventral processes were discernible and differences in length were evident, the longer of  
103 the two processes was recorded. The angle of the apical hook and ventral processes was measured  
104 as the reflective angle between the tangent of a line drawn through their rostral tip along the  
105 concave surface and the main longitudinal axis of the sperm head (see Immler *et al.*, 2007).

106 Midpiece length was measured from the connecting piece to either the cytoplasmic droplet and/or  
107 to a discernible narrowing of tail width. The lengths of the principal and end pieces were combined  
108 and measured from the posterior end of the midpiece to the tip of the tail. The total flagellum  
109 length was the sum of the midpiece, principal piece and end piece lengths. Sperm with discernible  
110 breaks were precluded from the analysis.

### 111 *Statistical Analysis*

112 Statistical analyses were performed using the statistical package R v.3.1.1 (R Core Team, 2014). Non-  
113 normal data distributions were logarithmically transformed and relative testes mass (RTM) was used  
114 as a proxy for sperm competition (e.g. Soulsbury, 2010) by including both combined testes mass and  
115 body mass as predictor variables in all analyses of sperm traits against the level of sperm  
116 competition.

117 Phylogenetic general linear models (PGLM) were used to account for statistical non-independence of  
118 the data due to shared common ancestry (Pagel, 1999; Freckleton, Harvey & Pagel, 2002), based on  
119 a molecular phylogeny of the Australasian old endemic rodents (P. Smitsen & K. Rowe, unpublished;  
120 see Supplementary Fig. 1). The phylogenetic scaling parameter  $\lambda$ , estimated by the PGLM, was used  
121 to determine the level of phylogenetic dependence of the relationships. In brief, values of  $\lambda$  close to  
122 0 indicate that the association between the traits under examination is largely independent of  
123 phylogeny, whereas  $\lambda$  values close to 1 suggest strong phylogenetic dependence. Likelihood ratio  
124 tests were used to compare the maximum likelihood estimates of  $\lambda$  of a given PGLM to models  
125 where  $\lambda$  was set to 0 or 1, respectively, and the corresponding  $P$ -values are shown as superscripts  
126 following  $\lambda$  (first superscript for  $\lambda=0$ , second for  $\lambda=1$ ). We report the strength of all relationships  
127 (i.e., effect sizes) as the partial correlation coefficients,  $r$ , with 95% non-central confidence intervals  
128 (95% CI), calculated from the  $t$ -statistic of the PGLM (Nakagawa & Cuthill, 2007).

129

130 **Results**

131

132 The species investigated exhibited marked differences in relative testes mass (RTM) (for details see  
133 Supplementary Table 1). The smallest RTM occurred in the three species of *Notomys* (*N. alexis*, *N.*  
134 *fuscus* and *N. mitchelli*) which were between 0.14% and 0.16% of body mass, whereas the largest  
135 RTM occurred in *Pogonomys* species, *Mastocomys*, and several species of *Pseudomys* where it  
136 ranged from 2.7% to 5.5% of body mass. Considerable interspecific variation in RTM was observed  
137 within the one genus *Pseudomys* where it ranged from 0.4% in *P. novaehollandiae* to 3.4% in *P.*  
138 *fumeus* hence spanning most of the interspecific variation for RTM throughout the hydromyine  
139 species investigated (see also Breed & Taylor, 2000).

140 Scanning electron microscopy showed that in five out of six divisions of hydromyine rodents most  
141 species have a sperm head with two ventral processes (Figs. 1 and 2). However, their length and  
142 angle, as well as that of the apical hook, varied across species (e.g. compare Fig. 1 a-d, g-i with Fig.  
143 2a-e, g-i) even though they were generally fairly consistent within a species. Within the *Pseudomys*  
144 division, *P. novaehollandiae* (Fig. 1e) was the only species with no ventral processes but a single  
145 apical hook, whereas *P. shortridgei* had neither an apical hook nor ventral processes (see Fig. 1j).  
146 Furthermore, the presence of ventral processes was highly variable within *N. alexis*, but, when  
147 present, the apical hook and these processes were always very short (see Fig. 1j). The *Pogonomys*  
148 division also had interspecies variation in the presence of ventral processes with some exhibiting  
149 clear processes (Fig. 2 g to i) whereas others lacked them (Table S1).

150 Based on quantitative light microscopical measurements, the length of the sperm head ranged from  
151 around 4.3  $\mu\text{m}$  in *Hydromys chrysogaster* to a mean of 9.2  $\mu\text{m}$  in *Abeomelomys sevia*, and its  
152 maximum width ranged from 1.6  $\mu\text{m}$  in *Mallomys rothschildi* to around 4  $\mu\text{m}$  in *Notomys fuscus* (Fig.  
153 2i) and *Anisomys imitator* (see Suppl. Table 2). When the apical hook on the sperm head was

154 present, its length ranged from 2  $\mu\text{m}$ , or less, in sperm of *Notomys alexis* (Fig. 1j) to 14  $\mu\text{m}$  in *A.*  
155 *sevia*, with most sperm having an apical hook length of between 4 and 9  $\mu\text{m}$ . The angle also varied  
156 across species and ranged from 218° in *N. alexis* (Fig. 1j) to exceeding 340° in two species of  
157 *Paramelomys* (e.g. Fig. 2c) (see Suppl. Table 2 for details).

158 Ventral processes were present on the sperm head of 36 out of all 44 species (Figs. 1, 2). However, in  
159 *N. alexis*, when present, they measured no more than 1.0  $\mu\text{m}$ . By contrast the ventral processes  
160 exceeded 6  $\mu\text{m}$  in several species including those of *Pseudomys desertor* (Fig. 1a), *P. australis*, *P.*  
161 *gracilicaudatus*, *P. higginsi*, *Leporillus conditor*, and *Mastocomys fuscus* (see Suppl. Table 2). The  
162 angle of these processes varied from 204° in *N. alexis* to 360° in *Paramelomys levipes*, although the  
163 majority fell between 300° and 330° (see Suppl. Table 2).

164 Finally, midpiece lengths ranged from about 20  $\mu\text{m}$  in *H. chrysogaster* to 55  $\mu\text{m}$  in *Chiruromys vates*,  
165 whereas the principal and end piece lengths varied between about 70  $\mu\text{m}$  in *N. fuscus* and 126  $\mu\text{m}$  in  
166 *Abeomelomys sevia*.

167 Phylogenetically controlled general linear models revealed several statistically significant  
168 relationships between sperm traits and relative testes mass (RTM) (see Table 1 for details). For  
169 example, the ratio of head length to width, a measure of how streamlined the sperm head is,  
170 covaried positively with RTM ( $N = 44$ , partial  $r = 0.58$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 3a). The length of both the  
171 apical hook and ventral processes also tended to increase with RTM. Both these associations were,  
172 however, largely driven by *N. alexis* and, after removing this species from the analysis, neither  $P$ -  
173 values were statistically significant (partial  $r \leq 0.18$ ,  $P \geq 0.25$ ). The angles of both the apical hook and  
174 ventral processes were also positively correlated with RTM (partial  $r \geq 0.63$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) with these  
175 effects remaining statistically significant after removing the three influential data points (apical hook  
176 angle:  $N = 44$ , partial  $r = 0.71$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; ventral process angle:  $N = 36$ , partial  $r = 0.63$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (see  
177 Fig. 3 b, c). In addition, midpiece length tended to increase with RTM, albeit not significantly so  
178 (partial  $r = 0.27$ ,  $P = 0.07$ ), whereas the lengths of the combined principal and end pieces and the

179 total flagellum length were positively associated with RTM (partial  $r \geq 0.50$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 3d).  
180 None of the ratios between sperm components were significantly correlated with RTM (partial  $|r| \leq$   
181  $0.25$ ,  $P \geq 0.09$ ).

182

### 183 **Discussion**

184 Most of the old endemic hydromyine rodents of Australasia have a highly complex sperm head in  
185 which two cytoskeletal processes, the ventral processes, extend from its upper concave surface.  
186 There are differences in length and orientation of these processes across the species and here we  
187 tested the hypothesis that their length and orientation have evolved as a result of sexual selection.

188 Most murid rodents have elongated sperm heads with an apical hook into which the nucleus,  
189 acrosome with an elongated region of cytoskeleton, the perforatorium into which part of the  
190 nucleus, acrosome and cytoskeleton extend (Fawcett, 1975; Oko & Clermont, 1988; Breed, 2004),  
191 and it has previously been found that the length and angle of this apical hook increases in length  
192 with increase of RTM (Immler et al. 2007, Sandera et al 2013). Our current study using 44 species in  
193 the murid tribe, Hydromyini, shows that, in addition to the apical hook, most species have a sperm  
194 head that has, in addition to an apical hook, two ventral processes which, unlike the apical hook, are  
195 largely composed of cytoskeletal material (Flaherty and Breed 1983, 1987; Breed et al., 2000). The  
196 present results show that these ventral processes have a more reflective angle in species with a high  
197 RTM. A finding that suggests that their angle, like that of the apical hook, is a sexually selected trait  
198 that has evolved under high levels of intermale sperm competition.

199 Across the species of hydromyine rodents there are, nevertheless, marked differences in overall  
200 sperm head size and shape, as well as in the length of the apical hook and ventral processes. For  
201 instance in *Notomys fuscus*, unlike most hydromyines, the sperm head is around half as wide as it is  
202 long with the apical hook being relatively much shorter than that of most other species with the

203 ventral processes also being either very short or nonexistent. These divergent features were even  
204 more evident in the sperm of a closely related species, that of *N. alexis*, which has a highly variable  
205 sperm head shape (e.g. see Suttle et al., 1988; Bauer and Breed, 2006) with the ventral processes  
206 often being absent and the curvature of the apical hook being considerably less than that of the  
207 other species. These two species of *Notomys* have the smallest relative testes mass of all species  
208 investigated and, at least in *N. alexis*, the efficiency of production of sperm per gram testis is  
209 comparatively low (Peirce and Breed, 2001; Bauer and Breed, 2008). These features suggest that  
210 intermale sperm competition in these species is weak or even lacking, and this has resulted in highly  
211 variable sperm morphology that occurs within and between males in these species similar to the  
212 situation in the greater bandicoot rat *Bandicota indica* (Thitipramote et al 2011) and naked mole rat  
213 *Heterocephalus glaber* (Van der Horst et al 2011) in which it has been suggested that due to  
214 minimal sperm competition “degenerative” sperm traits and high levels polymorphism has evolved  
215 (Van der Horst and Maree 2014).

216 Previous work on the functional and evolutionary significance of the apical hook of murine sperm  
217 has suggested that in the wood mouse, *Apodemus sylvaticus*, the hook may facilitate the formation  
218 of highly progressive motile groups of sperm, or “sperm trains”, with sperm attaching to each other  
219 by way of their apical hook (Moore et al., 2002). This finding was subsequently observed in sperm of  
220 the laboratory rat, *Rattus norvegicus* (Immler et al., 2007) as well as in a species of deer mouse,  
221 *Peromyscus maniculatus* (Fisher & Hoekstra, 2010). Within the hydromyine rodents, the only  
222 published study addressing this question is that of Firman et al. (2013) using sperm from the Sandy  
223 Inland mouse, *Pseudomys hermannsburgensis*, in which no sperm grouping was observed in spite of  
224 a well-developed apical hook being present. However, more recent observations on sperm with  
225 similar morphology, those of *P. australis*, have indicated that sperm do indeed aggregate upon  
226 release from the epididymis into culture medium, but this was not found to occur in sperm of *N.*  
227 *alexis*, which lack lack a long hook and ventral processes (Kathrine Ferres and Bill Breed, unpublished  
228 observations). Based on the comparison between these two species it may be that the ventral

229 processes facilitate sperm aggregation although further evidence of the ventral processes being  
230 involved in sperm behaviour is clearly needed.

231 Apart from supporting sperm aggregation, the sperm head ventral processes may also facilitate  
232 sperm binding to the egg coat. For example, studies on sperm–egg interactions *in vitro* show that in  
233 *P. australis* the ventral processes enhance the area of sperm binding to the egg coat (Drew *et al.*,  
234 2014), and *in vivo* observations indicate that these processes enlarge the size of the penetration slit  
235 in the zona (Breed & Leigh, 1991). The significance of variation in the angle of the ventral processes  
236 in relation to zona pellucida binding and penetration is unknown but it may be that sperm with more  
237 reflective ventral processes form tighter initial attachment to the egg coat. Even though the function  
238 of these processes remains unclear at the present time, the present study clearly shows that their  
239 length and orientation are generally similar to that of the apical hook; a feature that suggests that  
240 these structures have coevolved.

241 In addition to sperm head variation, a significant positive relationship between relative testes mass  
242 and the sperm flagellum length was also evident, a finding that is consistent with a broader range of  
243 rodents (Gomendio *et al.*, 2011). The prevailing explanation for a positive association with relative  
244 testes size is that sperm with a relatively long flagellum and/or larger midpiece are favoured by  
245 sexual selection because they have a competitive advantage by achieving greater swimming velocity  
246 than sperm with relatively shorter tails (Katz, Drobniš & Overstreet, 1989; Cardullo & Baltz, 1991;  
247 Gómez Montoto *et al.*, 2011). Despite relatively little evidence within species (reviewed in  
248 Humphries *et al.*, 2008; Simmons & Fitzpatrick, 2012), such a link between sperm morphology and  
249 sperm velocity is supported by comparative studies using various vertebrate taxa, including cichlid  
250 fishes (Fitzpatrick *et al.*, 2009), passerine birds (Lüpold *et al.*, 2009, but see Kleven *et al.*, 2009), and  
251 mammals (Gomendio & Roldan, 1991; Tourmente *et al.*, 2011; Gómez Montoto *et al.*, 2011). If such  
252 a link between sperm form and function also holds for hydromyine sperm, our comparative data

253 would suggest that selection on sperm tail length through sperm competition may be mediated by  
254 its effects on the speed of sperm swimming.

255 In conclusion, our results suggest that the complex sperm morphology of hydromyine rodents is, at  
256 least in part, a result of postcopulatory sexual selection. These findings extend previous reports of  
257 Immler *et al.*, (2007) and Šandera *et al.* (2013) on the apical hook of murine sperm and show that  
258 the additional ventral processes on the sperm head of the Australasian old endemic rodents may  
259 also have evolved under sexual selection. Similarly, sperm tail dimensions co-vary positively with  
260 relative testes mass, which might be the result of sperm competition selecting for faster sperm,  
261 mediated by relatively longer tails. Further studies are now required to gain more in-depth insight  
262 into the adaptive significance of the ventral processes that are such a characteristic feature of the  
263 sperm head of most of the hydromyine species of Australasia.

264

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276

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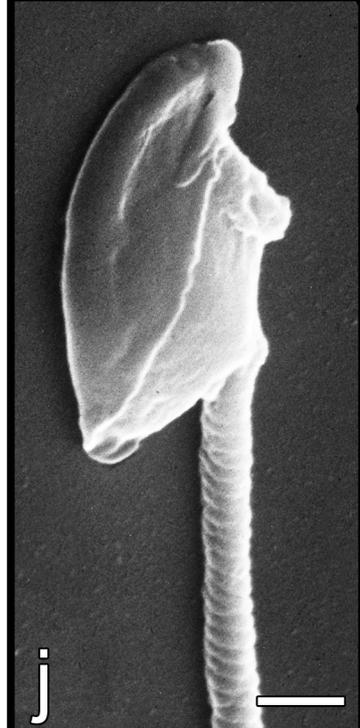
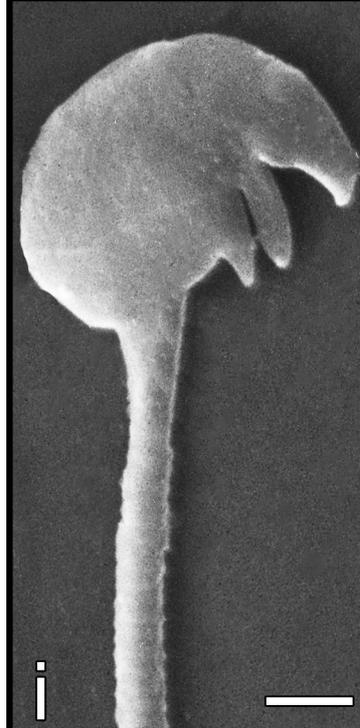
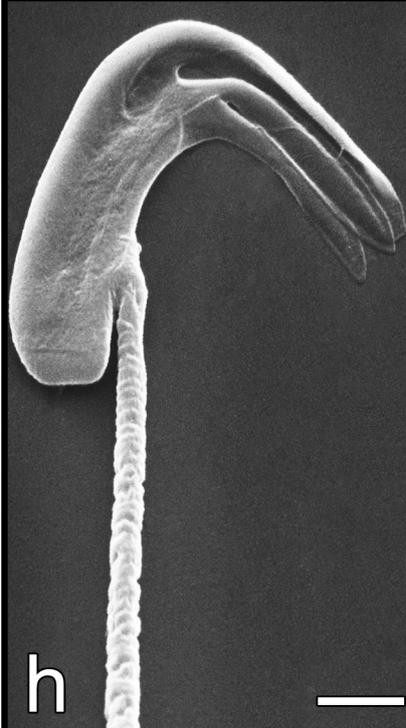
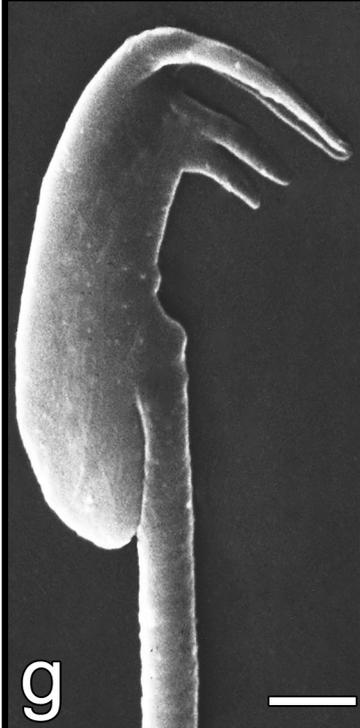
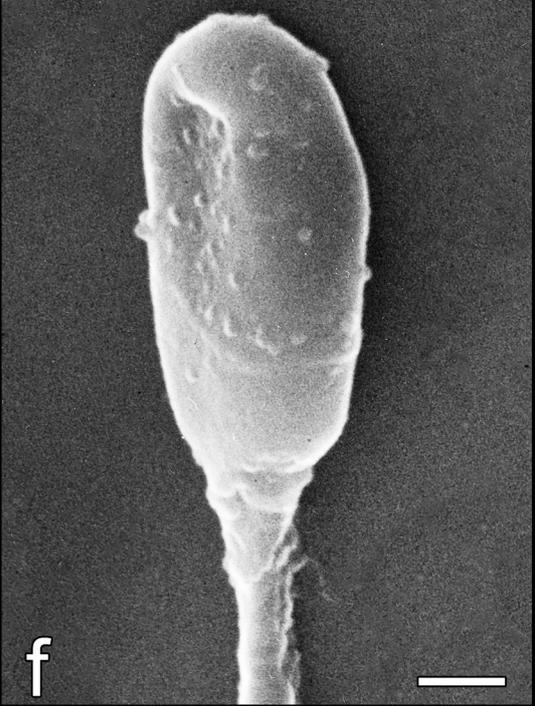
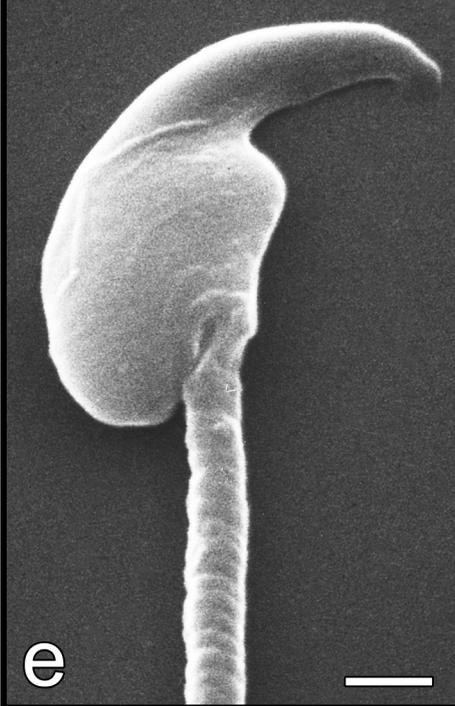
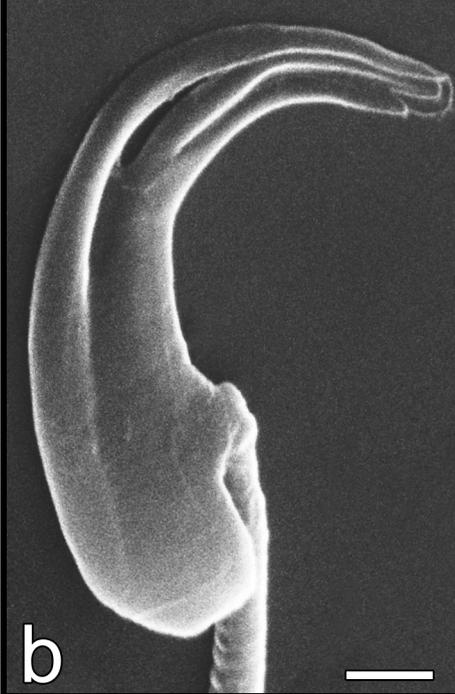
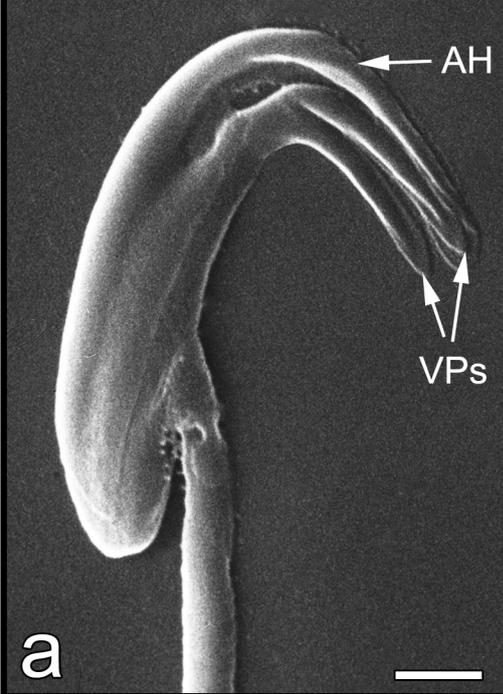
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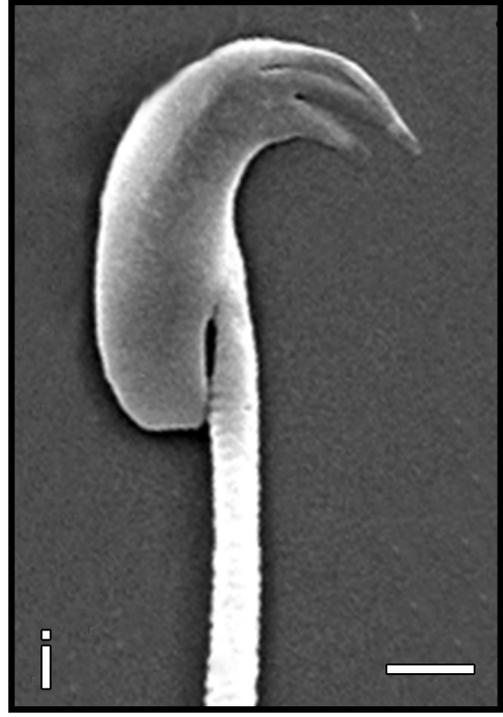
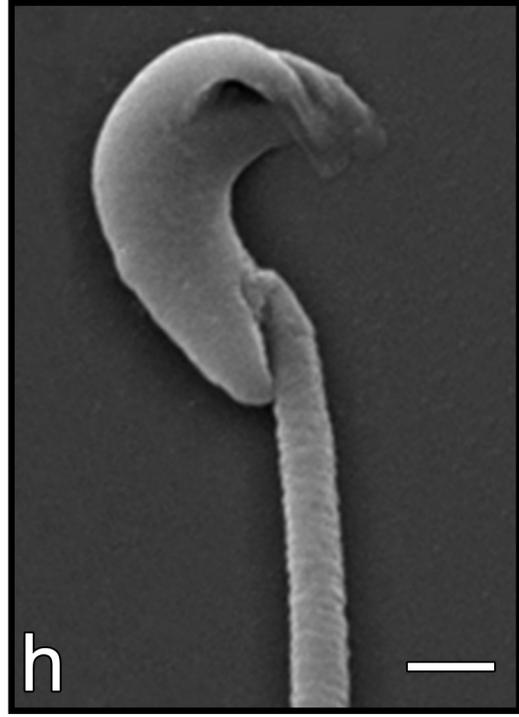
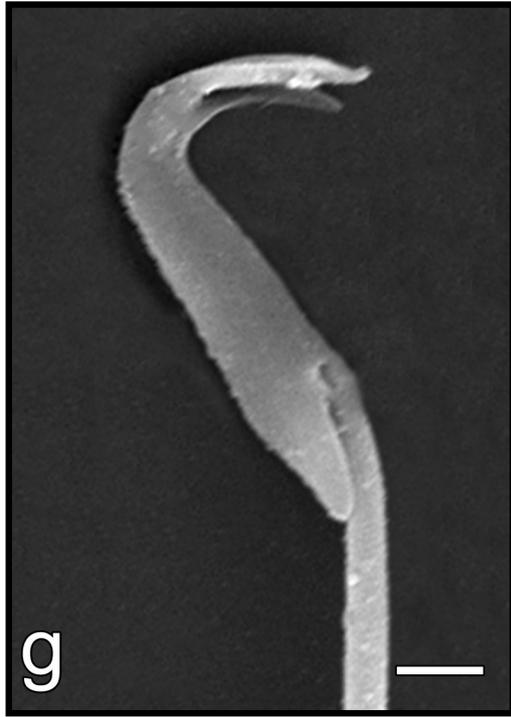
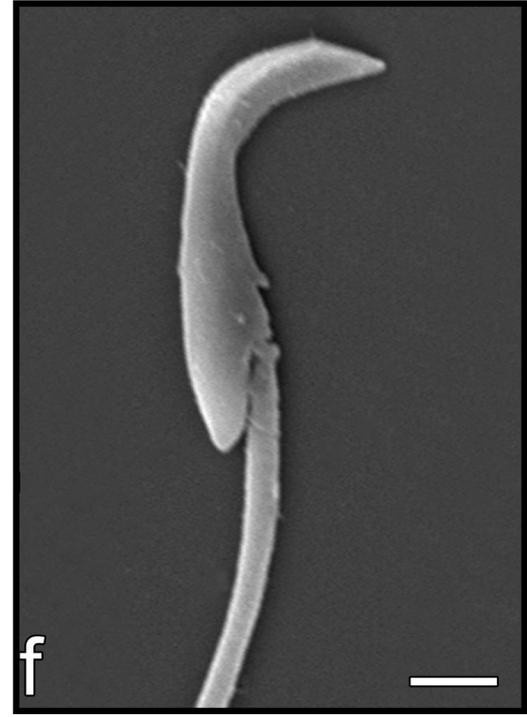
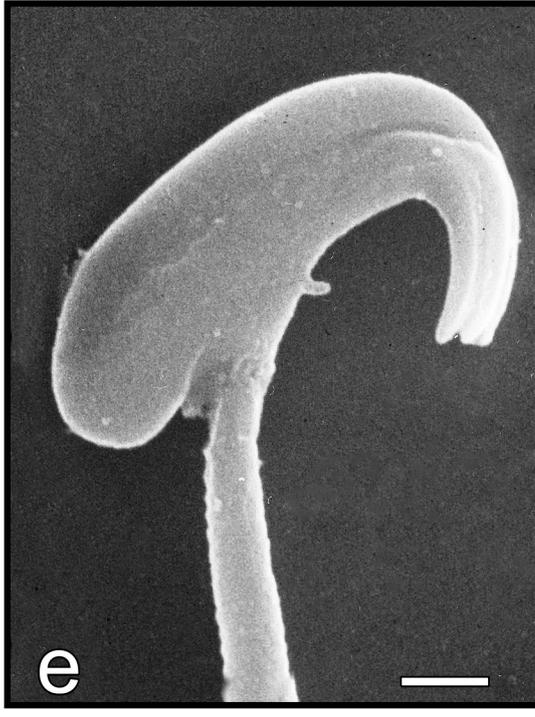
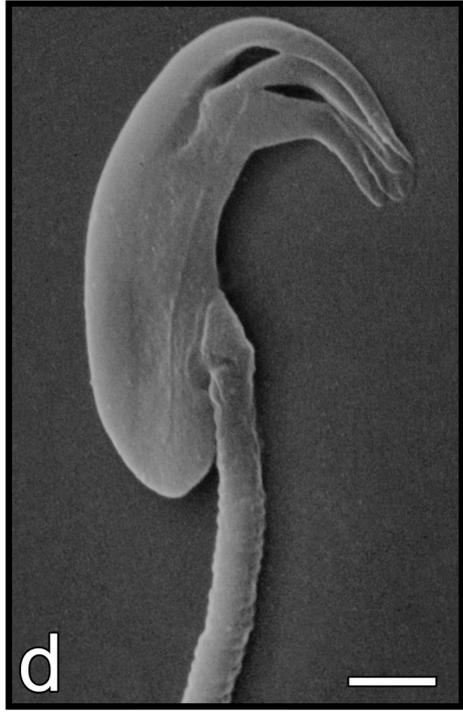
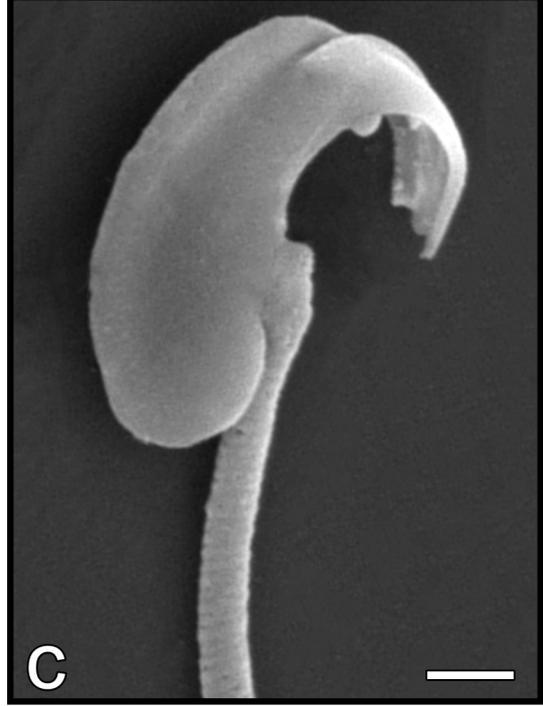
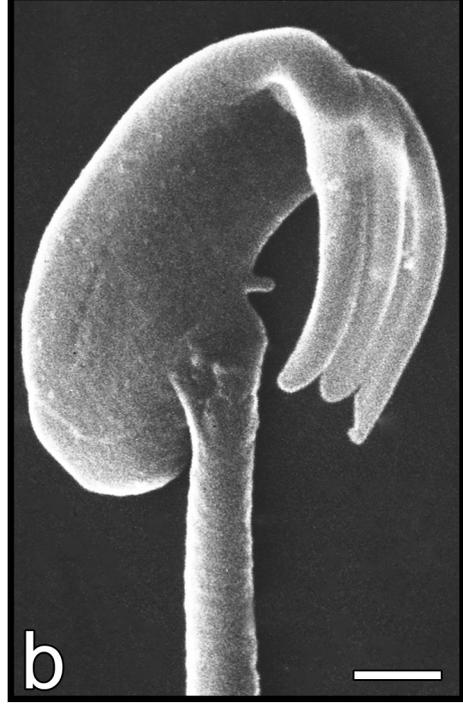
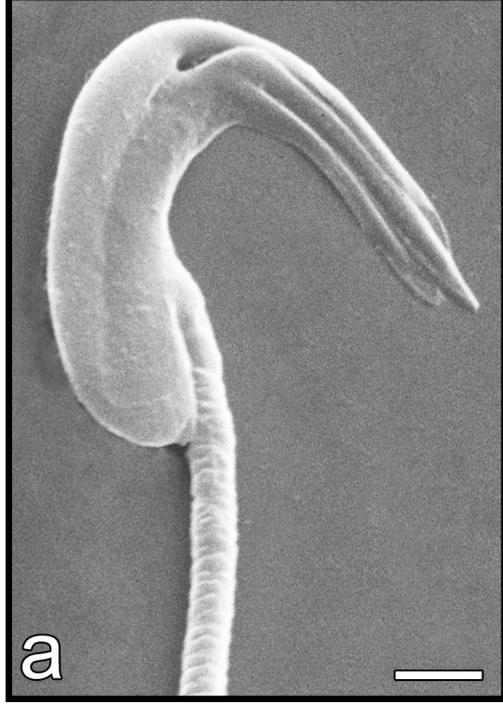
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**Table 1:** Phylogenetically controlled associations between sperm morphological traits and testes mass corrected for body mass; all variables are log-transformed. Effect sizes(?) are shown as the partial correlation coefficients  $r$  along with their lower (LCL) and upper (UCL) 95% confidence limits.

**Commented [SL1]:** Yes, this is correct. This is a statistical term referring to a statistic (in this case partial  $r$ ) that expresses the strength (and direction) of an effect (or relationship).

Sperm Trait	Predictors	df	partial $r$	(LCL, UCL)	$t$	$P$	$\lambda^a$
Head Length: Width Ratio	Testes Mass	42	0.41	(0.13, 0.61)	2.89	<b>0.006</b>	0.76 <sup>&lt;0.001, &lt;0.001</sup>
	Body Mass	42	-0.27	(-0.51, 0.03)	-1.81	0.08	
Apical Hook Length	Testes Mass	41	0.29	(-0.01, 0.52)	1.94	0.06 <sup>b</sup>	0.38 <sup>0.12, &lt;0.001</sup>
	Body Mass	41	-0.08	(-0.36, 0.22)	-0.51	0.61	
Apical Hook Angle	Testes Mass	41	0.72	(0.55, 0.82)	6.68	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<0.001 <sup>1.0, &lt;0.001</sup>
	Body Mass	41	-0.50	(-0.67, -0.23)	-3.66	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	
Ventral Process Length	Testes Mass	33	0.36	(0.03, 0.59)	2.22	<b>0.03<sup>b</sup></b>	0.24 <sup>0.31, &lt;0.001</sup>
	Body Mass	33	-0.16	(-0.45, 0.18)	-0.93	0.36	
Ventral Process Angle	Testes Mass	33	0.63	(0.39, 0.77)	4.72	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<0.001 <sup>1.0, &lt;0.001</sup>
	Body Mass	33	-0.32	(-0.57, 0.01)	-1.95	0.06	
Midpiece Length	Testes Mass	42	0.08	(0.22, 0.36)	1.84	0.61	1.00 <sup>&lt;0.001, 1.0</sup>
	Body Mass	42	-0.40	(-0.47, 0.08)	-1.46	0.15	
Principal and End Piece Length (PEL)	Testes Mass	42	0.34	(0.05, 0.56)	2.35	<b>0.02</b>	0.82 <sup>0.001, 0.05</sup>
	Body Mass	42	-0.22	(-0.47, 0.08)	-1.49	0.14	
Total Flagellum Length (TFL)	Testes Mass	42	0.34	(0.05, 0.56)	2.33	<b>0.02</b>	0.91 <sup>&lt;0.001, 0.22</sup>
	Body Mass	42	-0.27	(-0.51, 0.03)	-1.81	0.08	
PEL:TFL Ratio	Testes Mass	42	0.23	(-0.07, 0.47)	1.52	0.14	0.94 <sup>&lt;0.001, 0.39</sup>
	Body Mass	42	-0.04	(-0.32, 0.26)	-0.24	0.81	
Midpiece:TFL Ratio	Testes Mass	42	-0.24	(-0.49, 0.06)	-1.62	0.11	0.90 <sup>&lt;0.001, 0.22</sup>
	Body Mass	42	-0.04	(-0.25, 0.33)	-0.29	0.77	
Flagellum:Head Ratio	Testes Mass	42	0.24	(-0.06, 0.49)	1.63	0.11	<0.001 <sup>1.0, 0.05</sup>
	Body Mass	42	-0.30	(-0.53, 0.00)	-2.04	<b>0.05</b>	

<sup>a</sup> Superscripts following the phylogenetic scaling parameter  $\lambda$  ~~estimates~~ denote significance levels of likelihood ratio tests (first superscript: against  $\lambda = 0$ ; second superscript: against  $\lambda = 1$ ).

<sup>b</sup> These positive trends are not statistically significant after removal of a single influential data point (*Notomys alexis*; both partial  $r \leq 0.18$ ,  $P \geq 0.25$ ). Statistically significant  $P$ -values (at  $\alpha = 0.05$ ) are highlighted in bold.