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Coláiste na hOllscoile Corcaigh

1	Is male reproductive senescence minimised in <i>Mus</i> species with high levels of
2	sperm competition?
3	
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16	Running title: Sperm competition and senescence
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20	

- 21 ABSTRACT
- 22

23 Sperm competition, an evolutionary process in which the spermatozoa of two or 24 more males compete for the fertilisation of the same ovum, gives rise to several 25 morphological and physiological adaptations. Generally, high levels of sperm 26 competition enhances sperm function. In contrast, advanced age is known to lead 27 to reproductive senescence, including a general decline in sperm function. Sperm 28 competition and advanced age may thus have opposing effects on sperm function. 29 Here we tested the hypothesis that the increase in sperm function in species 30 experiencing high levels of sperm competition will counteract the negative effects 31 of advanced age. We measured a comprehensive set of reproductive traits in young 32 and old males in three species of mice of the genus *Mus*, which differ greatly in 33 their levels of sperm competition. Our prediction was that the expression of 34 reproductive senescence will be highest in the species with low levels of sperm competition and lowest in the species with high levels of sperm competition. 35 36 Surprisingly, we did not find a strong signal of reproductive senescence in any of 37 the three *Mus* species. Overall, our results did not clearly support our hypothesis 38 that high levels of sperm competition minimise the negative effects of aging in 39 sperm function. However, the pattern observed for the percentage of 40 morphologically normal spermatozoa offered some support to this hypothesis. 41 42 **Keywords**: age and reproduction; ATP; reproductive senescence; rodents; sperm 43 abnormalities; sperm competition; sperm function; sperm morphology 44

45

46 **INTRODUCTION**

47

48 Sperm competition occurs when a female mates with two or more males and 49 the spermatozoa of those males compete for the fertilisation of the female's ova 50 (Birkhead & Møller, 1998; Parker, 1970). Sperm competition is a widespread 51 phenomenon and its occurrence leads to several evolutionary adaptations at the 52 behavioural, morphological and physiological levels (Birkhead & Møller, 1998; 53 delBarco-Trillo, Tourmente & Roldan, 2013). In many taxa, high levels of sperm 54 competition are associated with an increase in the production (delBarco-Trillo et 55 al., 2013), storage and allocation of spermatozoa (delBarco-Trillo, 2011; Parker & 56 Pizzari, 2010), as well as with enhanced sperm function (Fitzpatrick *et al.*, 2009; 57 Gomendio et al., 2006; Gómez Montoto et al., 2011a; Kleven et al., 2009; Martín-Coello et al., 2009). For example, high levels of sperm competition in rodents lead 58 59 to a higher proportion of spermatozoa that are morphologically normal, motile, 60 and capable of reaching and fertilising the ova (Gomendio et al., 2006; Gómez 61 Montoto *et al.*, 2011a), as well as to modifications in sperm dimensions (Gomendio 62 & Roldan, 2008; Tourmente, Gomendio & Roldan, 2011) and sperm energy 63 metabolism (Tourmente et al., 2013; Tourmente et al., 2015b) that may result in 64 improvements in sperm motility.

65 In contrast to the positive effect of sperm competition on sperm function, 66 advanced age has been reported to lead to reproductive senescence (García-67 Palomares et al., 2009a; García-Palomares et al., 2009b), particularly having a 68 negative impact on sperm function (Pizzari et al., 2008). A decline in sperm 69 function with age may be due to the accumulation of *de novo* mutations in the male 70 germline that may occur during each cell division (Radwan, 2003), or to an 71 increasingly impaired process of spermatogenesis with advancing age (Johnson & 72 Gemmell, 2012; Pizzari et al., 2008). These processes may be driven or 73 exacerbated by an accumulation of reactive oxygen species and an escalation of 74 oxidative stress with age (Johnson & Gemmell, 2012; Weir & Robaire, 2006), or by 75 reduced efficiency of DNA repair with advancing paternal age (Paul, Nagano & 76 Robaire, 2011; Sloter et al., 2004).

Indeed, across taxa there is strong evidence for a generalised decline in
sperm function with age. Such decline may involve: a decline in the number of

germinal cells and Sertoli cells in the seminiferous tubules (Dakouane *et al.*, 2005),
a reduction in the number of sperm ejaculated (Sasson, Johnson & Brockmann,
2012), an increase in sperm abnormalities (Syntin & Robaire, 2001), a decrease in
sperm motility (Møller *et al.*, 2009; Wolf *et al.*, 2000), an increase in sperm DNA
damage (Harris *et al.*, 2011; Velando *et al.*, 2011), or decreased reproductive
success (Dean *et al.*, 2010).

85 Although the positive effect of sperm competition on sperm function is 86 restricted to species experiencing high levels of sperm competition, the negative 87 impacts of advanced age on sperm function can be considered to be similar across 88 phylogenetically related species. Consequently, we hypothesised that the 89 generalised increase in sperm function in species with high levels of sperm 90 competition will diminish the negative impacts of senescence only in such species. 91 That is, in species with high levels of sperm competition, selective pressures on 92 sperm competitiveness may be strong throughout a male's reproductive life, and 93 may reduce the incidence of sperm senescence.

94 To test our hypothesis, we measured a comprehensive set of reproductive 95 traits in young and old males in three species of mice of the genus *Mus* that differ in 96 their levels of sperm competition based on relative testes size: *M. musculus, M.* 97 spretus, and *M. spicilegus* (delBarco-Trillo et al., 2016). These reproductive traits 98 included the number of spermatozoa in the caudae epididymides, sperm 99 dimensions and morphology, the percentage of spermatozoa with morphological 100 abnormalities, sperm motility and velocity, and ATP content in spermatozoa. A 101 decrease in sperm function can include lower number of stored spermatozoa, 102 shorter spermatozoa, a higher percentage of spermatozoa with morphological 103 abnormalities, lower motility and velocity, and lower ATP content in spermatozoa. 104 According to our hypothesis, we predicted that the decrease in sperm function in 105 old males would be the highest in the species with low levels of sperm competition 106 (*M. musculus*) and the lowest in the species with high levels of sperm competition 107 (*M. spicilegus*).

108

109 **METHODS**

110

111 Animals

112 We used adult males of three species from the genus *Mus* that differ greatly in 113 their levels of sperm competition: *M. musculus, M. spretus,* and *M. spicilegus* (n = 11 114 per species). These three species have been characterized as a good model for 115 studies on sperm competition in rodents, representing low, intermediate and high 116 levels of sperm competition, respectively (Gomendio et al., 2006; Gómez Montoto 117 et al., 2011a). We selected males of two age classes, hereafter referred as "young" 118 and "old" for simplicity. Young males (n = 6 per species) were 4-6 months of age. 119 At this age, mice are no longer juveniles but at the same time they are not old 120 enough to be affected by reproductive senescence. Old males (n = 5 per species)121 were 24-28 months of age. Males were selected so that ages of young (155.11 ± 122 37.31 days; mean ± SD) and old animals (769.93 ± 43.96 days) were similar across 123 species. Old males in our study were older than males considered to be senescent 124 in other studies in mice (Anjum et al., 2012; Biddle et al., 1997; Tognetti et al., 125 2017). We were not able to measure all reproductive traits for all individuals. 126 However, $n \ge 5$ for any species and age class combination.

127 Adult males were close descendants of animals acquired from the Institut 128 des Sciences de l'Evolution, CNRS- Université Montpellier 2, France, belonging to 129 the following wild-derived strains: M. musculus, strain MPB (from Bialowieza, 130 Poland); *M. spretus*, strain SEB (from Barcelona, Spain), and *M. spicilegus*, strain 131 ZRU (from Kalomoyevka, Ukraine). Crossings in our colony were arranged to 132 minimise inbreeding. All males were maintained under standard conditions (14 h 133 light–10 h darkness, 22–24°C, 55-60% relative humidity); with food (rodent chow, 134 Harlan Laboratories; seeds and fresh apple) and water provided ad libitum. All 135 males used in this study were housed individually for at least a month before 136 sampling to eliminate the possibility that males had a different perceived risk of 137 sperm competition.

The research protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Spanish
Research Council (CSIC). All procedures were carried out following Spanish Animal
Protection Regulation RD53/2013, which conforms to European Union Regulation
2010/63.

142

143 Morphological measurements

- 144 Males were sacrificed by cervical dislocation, weighed (in g) and measured 145 (body length and tail length; in mm). To evaluate body condition we calculated a 146 body mass index as weight (in g) / length squared (in mm²) (Labocha, Schutz & 147 Hayes, 2014). Testes were removed and weighed (in g). Relative testes mass (RTS) 148 has been shown to reflect sperm competition levels in rodents (Bryja et al., 2008; 149 Firman & Simmons, 2008; Long & Montgomerie, 2006; Ramm, Parker & Stockley, 150 2005; Soulsbury, 2010). RTS was calculated using Kenagy and Trombulak's 151 rodent-specific regression equation: RTS = testes mass $/ 0.031 \times body mass^{0.77}$ 152 (Kenagy & Trombulak, 1986).
- 153 Compared to young mice, old mice had higher body weights (2-way ANOVA: 154 $F_{1,27} = 23.04$, p < 0.0001), longer bodies ($F_{1,27} = 7.28$, p = 0.012), and longer tails 155 ($F_{1,27} = 30.08$, p < 0.0001). Body mass index (used as a measure of body condition) 156 was also higher in old mice than in young mice ($F_{1,27} = 8.83$, p = 0.006).
- 157Relative testes size differed among the three species, following the predicted158pattern with lowest values in *M. musculus* and highest in *M. spicilegus* (2-way159ANOVA: $F_{2,27} = 221.75$, p < 0.0001; Table 1, Supporting Information). Relative</td>160testes size, however, did not differ between young and old males ($F_{1,27} = 2.51$, p =1610.13).
- 162

163 Sperm suspension preparation and sperm measurements

164 Mature spermatozoa were collected from the caudae epididymides and vasa 165 deferentia, by placing the tissue in a Petri dish containing Hepes-buffered modified 166 Tyrode's medium (mT-H; see Supporting Information for details) prewarmed to 167 37°C, making several cuts and allowing spermatozoa to swim out for a period of 5 168 min. After the 5-min swim-out incubation, the sperm suspension was transferred to a prewarmed eppendorf tube. Each sperm suspension was maintained at 37°C 169 170 until processing. Some samples were assessed immediately (we will refer to this time as "0 h"). Sperm suspensions were also incubated for 3 h at 37°C in mT-H 171 172 under air, after which samples were taken and some of the sperm parameters were 173 assessed again (we will refer to this time as "3 h"). The duration of incubation (3 h) 174 was selected based on maintenance of sperm motility in vitro in a subset of rodent 175 species, including the three species here studied (Tourmente *et al.*, 2015b). This 176 period of incubation does not result in a complete sperm immobilization in the

- species with low sperm survival. Moreover, because fertilisation takes place a few
 hours after copulation in muroid species for which data are available (Suarez *et al.*,
 1990), our selected incubation time is within physiological time frames.
- 180 We used a hemocytometer (modified Neubauer chamber) to estimate the 181 total number of spermatozoa stored in the caudae epididymides. To measure 182 sperm linear dimensions, 5 μ l of the sperm suspension was smeared onto a slide, 183 fixed with formaldehyde in a phosphate buffer, stained with Giemsa as previously 184 described (Gómez Montoto et al., 2011a), and examined using bright field 185 microscopy. All samples were evaluated and photographed at 1000× magnification 186 for subsequent digitalization using an Eclipse E-600 microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, 187 Japan) with Pan-Fluor optics and a DS5 camera (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). 188 Spermatozoa were photographed by using the software NIS-Elements v.3.0 (Nikon, 189 Tokyo, Japan). For each individual, we measured 25 different spermatozoa. Linear 190 dimensions were obtained by measuring captured sperm images using ImageJ 191 software v.1.41 (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA) (Gómez 192 Montoto et al., 2011b). Measurements included head length, head width, head area, 193 total flagellum length, and total sperm length. Head length was measured as the 194 linear distance between the most basal point and the most apical one of the sperm 195 head. Head width was taken as a straight line between the dorsal and ventral 196 regions in the wider region of the sperm head. Head area was measured 197 considering the entire sperm head including the apical hook.
- To quantify differences in sperm head morphology we used a geometric
 morphometric approach described previously (Varea Sánchez, Bastir & Roldan,
 200 2013). See Supporting Information for details.
- 201 To assess sperm abnormalities, we used sperm smears stained first with 202 eosin-nigrosin and subsequently with Giemsa (Gómez Montoto *et al.*, 2011a). 203 Briefly, 5 µl sperm suspension and 10 µl eosin-nigrosin solution were mixed on a 204 glass slide placed on a stage at 37°C and 30 s later the mix was smeared and 205 allowed to air-dry. Smears were stained with Giemsa solution and mounted with 206 DPX. Smears were examined at 1000x under bright field and 200 spermatozoa per 207 male were examined to evaluate the percentage of morphologically normal 208 spermatozoa (i.e. without abnormal head, midpiece or principal piece, and without 209 a cytoplasmic droplet or coiled flagella).

210 The percentage of motile spermatozoa (MOT) was evaluated by examining 10 211 μ l of the sperm suspension that was placed between a pre-warmed slide and a 212 coverslip at 100× magnification under phase contrast optics. We also estimated the 213 percentage of spermatozoa exhibiting forward progression. To assess sperm 214 swimming patterns, an aliquot of sperm suspension was diluted to approximately 215 5×10^{6} spermatozoa ml⁻¹, placed in a pre-warmed microscopy chamber with a 216 depth of 20 µm (Leja, Nieuw-Vennep, The Netherlands), and filmed at 40× using a 217 phase contrast microscope connected to a digital video camera (Basler A312fc, 218 Vision Technologies, Glen Burnie, MD). A minimum of 150 sperm trajectories were 219 assessed per male using a computer-assisted sperm analyzer (CASA; Sperm Class 220 Analyzer version 4.0, Microptic, Barcelona, Spain), and the following swimming 221 parameters were estimated for each trajectory: curvilinear velocity (VCL, μ m s⁻¹), 222 straight line velocity (VSL, μm s⁻¹), average path velocity (VAP, μm s⁻¹), wobble 223 (WOB = VAP/VCL), linearity (LIN = VSL / VCL), straightness (STR = VSL / VAP), 224 amplitude of lateral head displacement (ALH, µm), and beat-cross frequency (BCF, 225 Hz).

Sperm ATP content was measured using a luciferase-based ATP
bioluminescence assay kit (HS II, Roche Applied Science) (Tourmente *et al.*,
2015a). See Supporting Information for details.

229

230 Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses were conducted using R version 3.1.0 (R Core Team,
2014) unless otherwise specified. Normality was checked with the Shapiro-Wilk
normality test. If normality was not met, we used logarithmic and arcsine
transformations as required. Average values are reported as mean ± SD.

235 Significance level (α) was set at 0.05 for all the tests.

We used principal component analysis (PCA) to reduce potentially correlated
variables and obtain measures of "overall sperm morphology", "overall sperm
velocity", and "overall trajectory shape". See Supporting Information for details.
We implemented 2-way ANOVAs and 2-way ANCOVAs fitted using the
function *aov*. The two factors were species (3 levels) and age (young and old). The

241 covariate in the ANCOVAs was body mass. We also considered the interaction

between species and age to determine if any significant difference between young

and old mice differed across species, and whether such species effect paralleled thedifferent levels of sperm competition among those species.

Geometric morphometrics statistical analyses were conducted with MorphoJ v1.06d (Klingenberg, 2011). Differences in sperm head shape between young and old individuals were quantified by examining the distance between the mean of both groups conducting a discriminant analysis (Timm, 2002).

249

250 **RESULTS**

The number of spermatozoa stored in the cauda epididymides differed between species, following the predicted pattern (2-way ANCOVA: $F_{2,26} = 50.36$, p < 0.0001; Table 1, Supporting Information), but there was no difference between young and old males ($F_{1,26} = 0.4$, p = 0.54).

The overall sperm morphology differed between species ($F_{2,24} = 168.42$, p > 0.0001), and between young and old males ($F_{1,24} = 6.15$, p = 0.02), but there was no significant interaction between species and age ($F_{2,24} = 0.1$, p = 0.91). The shape of the sperm head differed between species (discriminant analyses: p < 0.0001), but not between young and old mice (p = 0.2; Fig. 1).

260 The percentage of normal spermatozoa differed between species ($F_{2,27} = 7.44$, 261 p = 0.003); even though there was not an overall difference between young and old 262 males ($F_{1,27} = 0.99$, p = 0.33), we found a statistically significant interaction 263 between species and age ($F_{2,27} = 4.07$, p = 0.029). Subanalyses by species showed 264 no differences between young and old mice in *M. spicilegus* and *M. spretus* (p >265 0.05) but a higher percentage of normal spermatozoa in young males than in old 266 males in *M. musculus* (p = 0.008; Fig. 2), the species with the lowest level of sperm 267 competition.

There were differences in sperm motility across species (2-way ANCOVA: 268 269 $F_{2,26} = 36.47$, p < 0.0001), this trait being higher in young males than in old males 270 $(F_{1,26} = 7.25, p = 0.01)$. However, all species were affected similarly by age (interaction: $F_{2,26} = 0.1$, p = 0.9). After 3 hours of incubation, significant differences 271 272 among species remained in sperm motility ($F_{2,26} = 25.05$, p < 0.0001) but there 273 were no longer differences between age classes ($F_{1,26} = 0.41$, p = 0.53). Sperm 274 forward progression also differed between species, both at 0 h ($F_{2,26}$ = 6.22, p = 0.006) and after 3 hours of incubation ($F_{2,26} = 17.71$, p < 0.0001), and while it was 275

- 276similar in young and old males at 0 h ($F_{1,26} = 0.25$, p = 0.62), after 3 hours of277incubation it was higher in old males than in young males ($F_{1,26} = 7.38$, p = 0.01).278Overall sperm velocity and overall trajectory shape differed between species279(p < 0.0001 in both analyses) and ages (p < 0.01) but there was not a significant</td>280interaction between species and age (p > 0.05).
- There were significant differences between species in the amount of ATP per sperm cell, both at 0 h ($F_{2,26} = 6.85$, p = 0.004) and after 3 hours of incubation ($F_{2,26}$ = 9.59, p = 0.0008; Table 1, Supporting Information). However, there was not a significant difference in ATP concentration between young and old males, nor a significant interaction between species and age at either time (p > 0.05 for all analyses).
- 287

288 **DISCUSSION**

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290 Overall, our results do not support the hypothesis that males in species with 291 high levels of sperm competition suffer less reproductive senescence than in 292 species with low levels of sperm competition. We found that many reproductive 293 traits were unaffected by age, whereas others were either enhanced or lessened in 294 old males compared to young males, but the level of sperm competition did not 295 have an influence in most of these traits. Only the percentage of normal 296 spermatozoa matched our prediction, with a decline in old males in *M. musculus* 297 (i.e. the species with low levels of sperm competition) but not in the other two 298 species, which experience higher levels of sperm competition (*M. spretus* and *M.* 299 *spicilegus*). This result may be driven by an enhanced process of spermatogenesis 300 in species with high levels of sperm competition, which would either directly or 301 indirectly minimise the occurrence of sperm abnormalities in old males, but this is 302 an area of research that requires further investigation.

Even though we considered many reproductive traits that could be affected by senescence, there are many other traits that could be differently affected in young and old males of a species depending on the level of sperm competition normally experienced in that species. These traits include chromosomal abnormalities, DNA damage in spermatozoa, and any traits that regulate or determine the success of the capacitation and fertilisation processes (Gogol,

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309 Bochenek & Smorag, 2002; Momand, Xu & Walter, 2013). For example, in brown 310 rats, the spermatozoa of old males are more susceptible to oxidative damage and 311 DNA fragmentation (Zubkova, Wade & Robaire, 2005), as well as having a 312 decreased antioxidant capacity and an increased production of reactive oxygen 313 species (Weir & Robaire, 2006). It is important to notice that the genomic damage 314 in spermatozoa driven by aging may be independent of sperm function. Despite a 315 normal expression of sperm function in old males, any genomic damage in their 316 spermatozoa will increase the risk of transmission of multiple genetic and 317 chromosomal defects to offspring (Wyrobek et al., 2006).

318 Surprisingly, we did not find a strong signal of reproductive senescence in 319 the three species of mice that we studied. Reproductive senescence may thus not 320 play an important role in the natural populations of the three *Mus* species under 321 study. Indeed, given the high predation rates suffered by rodents, most males will 322 normally die before the inception of any signs of senescence. Another study using 323 wild-captured *Mus musculus domesticus* found that epididymal sperm counts 324 declined with age, although only a range of relatively advanced ages (21-32 325 months) were studied (Garratt et al., 2011). It must be noted that most of the 326 available knowledge on reproductive senescence in rodents is based on laboratory 327 strains (Katz-Jaffe et al., 2013; Lucio et al., 2013; Parkening, 1989). This may be a 328 shortcoming, as in a benign captive environment the negative effects of aging can 329 be minimized and thus differences between age classes might be obscured.

Even though there are many studies describing the timing and incidence of reproductive senescence, there are also many studies in which reproductive condition remains unchanged or is even enhanced in old individuals (Gasparini *et al.*, 2010; Johnson & Gemmell, 2012; Kanuga *et al.*, 2011). It is still unclear why reproductive senescence is pronounced in some species but not in others.

It is important to consider whether any differences between young and old males lead to a fertilising advantage for one age type or the other. For example, young male guppies produce faster-swimming spermatozoa compared to old males; however, young males do not have a fertilising advantage under sperm competition scenarios (Gasparini *et al.*, 2010). It is equally possible that despite a lack of consistent differences in sperm function between young and old males, as we found in our three species of mice, undetected differences between their 342 spermatozoa could result in a lower reproductive potential in older individuals.

343 We can thus conclude that even though our results did not support our hypothesis

that high levels of sperm competition can minimise the impacts of senescence,

345 more reproductive measurements, including sperm competition tests, and

- 346 measurements of fertilising ability and offspring health, and possibly higher
- 347 sample sizes than we used, are required to fully support or disprove our
- 348 hypothesis.
- 349

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351

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366

The authors have no conflicting interests to declare.

367

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543 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

544

545 Figure 1. Sperm head shape in young and old males of three *Mus* species. Dots

546 indicate the landmarks used for geometric morphometrics analyses.

547

548 Figure 2. Percentage of morphologically normal spermatozoa in young and old

549 males of three *Mus* species. For each boxplot, the bar within each box represents

550 the sample median, each box represents 50% of the data around the median, and

551 the two whiskers represent the 95% confidence interval. ** denotes p < 0.001; NS

- 552 denotes p > 0.05.
- 553