Molecular signatures of sperm-level selection in humans and their evolutionary conservation

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SUMMARY PARAGRAPH

Of the millions of sperm in a human ejaculate, only one fertilises an egg. Selection on sperm is strong, offering an opportunity to proofread novel germline genotypes generated by segregation, recombination, and de novo mutations. Here, we combine within-ejaculate selection on phenotypic sperm quality with deep-coverage whole-genome sequencing and tandem mass tag proteomics to identify molecular biomarkers of human sperm quality. High-quality sperm are characterised by increased longevity, motility, morphological normality, and DNA condensation. We show that high-quality sperm are genetically distinct from low-quality sperm at >1,000 loci mapping to 511 genetic elements, 64% of which fall within protein-coding portions including intronic regions. Genes diverging between high- and low-quality sperm pools are involved in cell signalling, cell proliferation, and neurodevelopmental processes. Polygenic scores differ between high- and low-quality sperm and reveal variants linked to overall health and healthy lifestyle choices, linked by putative negative correlation. TMT proteomics show significant differences in the abundance of 1,178 proteins, with known markers of inflammation, immune function, and cancer-related cell proliferation showing lower abundance in high-quality sperm. The genomic signature of sperm selection in humans and zebrafish shows significant overlap, indicating evolutionarily conserved processes determining sperm function across taxa. Our finding of a direct link between phenotypic variation and genomic variation in human sperm highlights the importance of within-ejaculate selection and its key contribution to determining offspring fitness and health.

MAIN TEXT

A human ejaculate contains between 20 and 150 million sperm, of which one fertilises an egg. Sperm within the ejaculate of a man vary phenotypically and genetically, offering a strong opportunity for natural selection to act upon[1–3]. Although the importance of selection among germ cells is increasingly recognised [4], the role and magnitude of selection among mature sperm within an ejaculate remain largely overlooked [1,3]. Recent findings in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) show that longer-lived sperm differ from shorter-lived sperm at many loci distributed across the genome [5]. Large-scale studies of gene expression during spermatogenesis provide clear evidence for expression in post-meiotic haploid spermatids [6], and incomplete sharing of transcripts between meiotic products [7] supports the idea that genetic differences among sperm engender phenotypic differences within an ejaculate. This notion is further supported by accelerated evolution of genes expressed at post-meiotic stages [6], as well as elevated purifying selection on these genes [8].

However, the genes and associated molecular markers under haploid selection in sperm are not known. Identifying molecular biomarkers of high-quality sperm is central to understanding the fundamental biology of human reproduction and fertility and will also inform improved sperm selection for use in Assisted Reproductive Technology [9,10].

Here, we designed two in vitro assays (swim up and methyl cellulose; see Methods) to select for high-quality sperm within the ejaculate of human donors and combined this selection with deep-coverage whole-genome sequencing (WGS) and tandem mass tag (TMT) proteomics to resolve the molecular architecture of human sperm quality. Complementary analyses using polygenic scores from the PAN-UK Biobank further enabled assessment of putative implications of selection on variants underlying sperm quality. By comparing the genomic signature of haploid selection in human sperm with that in zebrafish, we confirmed the biological relevance and generality of our findings across taxa.

Selection on phenotypic sperm quality

We selected distinct sperm-quality pools from semen samples of 35 donors using the swim-up assay and compared fertilisation-relevant traits (sperm kinematics, morphology, chromatin, DNA integrity) across raw and washed samples and selected sperm incubated for 0, 4 and 24 hours (Suppl. Table S1). The fraction of motile sperm decreased from an average of 60% in fresh and washed samples to 50% after 4 hours of incubation and 25% after 24 hours of incubation prior to swim-up (Suppl. Fig. S1 and Suppl. Table S2). Sperm kinematics improved continuously with increasing incubation time (Fig. 1A; Suppl. Tables S3–S10; Suppl. Fig. S2),

as did chromatin condensation (Fig. 1B; Suppl. Table S11) and gross morphology (Fig. 1C;

Suppl. Table S12), whereas DNA integrity was slightly higher in swim-up samples compared

to all other samples (Fig. 1D; Suppl. Table S13).

Genomic divergence among selected sperm pools

We linked phenotypic differences between selected high- and low-quality sperm with genomic

differences by performing high-coverage WGS on selected sperm pools using both assays. For

the methyl cellulose assays, we used ejaculates from four donors and collected sperm from the

Centre (low-quality) and the Edge (high-quality) of the incubation dish; for the swim-up assays,

we used ejaculates from five donors and collected sperm at 0 hours (T0; low-quality) and at 4

and 24 hours (T4 and T24; high-quality). Each donor represented an experimental replicate and

samples were analysed separately. For DNA extraction and sequencing, we standardised the

number of cells to 2 million per sample and performed WGS at ~100× per sample.

To assess genetic variation across donors, we conducted a comprehensive analysis of allele

frequencies and identified significant loci for interpretation. We compared allele frequencies at

an average of 2,280,804 loci per donor (min = 2,022,290; max = 2,754,360; Suppl. Table S14)

and retained >99.9th-quantile significant loci for interpretation. We identified heterozygous

sites for each donor, filtered for a minimum total read number of 32 per locus, and performed

likelihood-ratio tests on allele frequencies to test for significant deviations from expected

Mendelian frequencies using the Centre/T0 samples as reference. We identified significant

variants at an average of 1,139 loci per donor (min = 783; max = 2,578; Fig. 2A,B; Suppl. Table

S15 & S16; Suppl. Fig. S10; coverage was not correlated with significance; Suppl. Table S17;

Suppl. Fig. S4)).

We mapped the significantly diverging loci to an average of 511 genetic elements (min = 340;

max = 697) per comparison, of which 64% were intron and exon regions of protein-coding

genes (min = 58.4%; max = 69.4%) and 31.6% were lncRNAs (min = 26.4%; max = 37.5%;

Fig. 2E,F), with no significant differences in element representation across donors and time

points (χ^2 = 103.42, df = 228, p = 1.0). Significantly diverging protein-coding sequences were

longer than the average protein-coding gene in the reference genome (Centre: t = 8.62, p <

0.001; T4: t = 5.66, p < 0.001; T24: t = 7.42, p < 0.001; T48: t = 4.42, p < 0.001; Suppl. Fig.

S5). Gene functions and Gene Ontology (GO) terms overlapped across time points (Suppl. Fig.

S6–S8); we focus here on methyl cellulose and swim up at T4. Overall, significantly diverging

genes were enriched for processes of cell assembly and neuronal signalling. In methyl cellulose, enrichment included transmembrane receptor protein tyrosine kinase signalling, cell junction assembly and neuron development (Fig. 2C), and molecular functions associated with cell communication and membrane transport such as protein serine kinase activity, G-protein-coupled neurotransmitter receptor activity, calcium ion binding and glutamate receptor activity (Suppl. Fig. S7). In swim up at T4, most enrichment was associated with nervous system development, including synapse assembly, neuron differentiation and chemical synaptic transmission (Fig. 2D), and molecular processes involving cellular transport and cell adhesion such as calcium ion binding, glutamate receptor activity and calcium-activated potassium channel activity (Suppl. Fig. S8).

Across assays and time points, we identified 19 genes that diverged in at least six of nine donors (Suppl. Table S18); the top five were *DLG2, PTPRD, CSMD1, CDH18* and *NRXN1. DLG2, PTPRD, CSMD1* and *CDH18* are well-described tumour suppressor genes [11–13], and *NRXN1* has a role in lung cancer development. Certain alleles within these five genes have been associated with altered risk for schizophrenia, autism spectrum disorder (ASD), and neurodevelopmental disorders, as well as involvement in inflammasome formation and cellular senescence [14–18]. *CSMD1* is associated with male and female infertility [19], *DLG2* is downregulated in human sperm with compromised performance [20], *CDH18* is implicated in cell adhesion in testes [21] and deletions in *NRXN1* have been observed in azoospermic patients [22]. Analysing assays separately, we detected *RBFOX1, EGLN3, CDH13, LRP1B* and *LINC00960* across all four donors in methyl cellulose (Suppl. Fig. S9A) and *CDH18* and *ZFPM2* across all donors in swim up at T4 (Suppl. Fig. S9B). *RBFOX1* and *CDH13* contribute to neuronal development [23,24], whereas *CDH18, EGLN3, LRP1B* and *LINC00960* participate in cancer cell migration and tumour growth or suppression [25–27].

Polygenic scores of variants diverging between sperm pools

We connected the genomic signature of selection for sperm quality with traits by generating polygenic scores (see Methods) using the Pan-UK Biobank database [43]. Using raw PGS that included all heterozygous loci for each sperm pool (T0/T4 and Centre/Edge), we calculated the score difference between the two pools for each donor and normalised the difference (Fig. 1A,B). Based on normalised *Z*-scores in the 99th percentile, we identified the highest-scoring traits as total, direct and indirect bilirubin, supervision of normal pregnancy, lipoprotein(a) and urate and some lifestyle and diet traits were also among the top traits (Fig. 2G,H). The emerging terms were remarkably consistent across donors (Suppl. Fig. S10), and changes in polygenetic

scores for bilirubin-related traits showed a negative correlation to changes in scores for lifestyle
traits, indicating genetic correlation between traits. The direction of effects was not always
consistent between donors and experiments. This supports the idea that selection on sperm
performance is likely polygenic, rather than driven by a small number of variants. In addition,
the variability across genomic backgrounds may indicate potential epistatic interactions,
although polygenicity alone does not always imply epistasis. We tested for genetic correlations
between trait-associated polygenic scores, which yielded similar patterns across both assays.
(Suppl. Fig. S4A; Suppl. Fig. S11). None of the traits that showed the strongest changes in their
polygenic scores (Fig. 2G,H) displayed significant genetic correlations. Overall, these results
support a highly polygenic response to sperm selection, and that many organism-level traits
have genetic underpinnings that are visible to selection at the sperm stage.

Evolutionarily conserved genomic signature of haploid selection between humans and
zebrafish

We re-analysed zebrafish sperm-pool data from Alavioon *et al.* (2017)[5] using the same rigorous
approach as for the human data and compared genes diverging between sperm pools in humans
and zebrafish using human gene annotations[5] (Suppl. Tables S19–S21; Suppl. Fig. S12–S13).
We identified on average 5,233 significantly diverging loci per male (range: 4,545–5,722; Fig.
3A), with distributions of genomic elements like those observed in human samples (Fig. 3C).
Enrichment analyses in zebrafish revealed biological processes including cell-to-cell
interactions and neurodevelopmental processes (differentiation and generation of neurons, cell
signalling, developmental cell differentiation and organ formation; Fig. 3B), and molecular
functions related to ion transport and channel activity (calcium-activated cation channel
activity, sodium channel activity and ion transmembrane transporter activity; Suppl. Fig. S15).
We found 153 genes shared among human methyl cellulose, swim up and the human homologs
of zebrafish genes (Fig. 3D). The top 20 significant biological GO terms for these 153 genes
indicated functions centred on neural development and cell proliferation (Fig. 3E). Semantic
similarity analysis between GO terms identified in humans and the human homologs of
zebrafish genes revealed high similarity (scores of 0.85 for methyl cellulose and 0.7 for swim
up at T4; Suppl. Fig. S14). Finally, three of the five top candidate genes in humans were also
significantly diverging among zebrafish sperm pools—*DLG2/dlg2, CSMD1/csmd1a* and
CDH18/cdh18. Altogether, despite ~450 million years of evolutionary divergence between
zebrafish and humans [28], the biological processes and gene functions under haploid selection
in sperm appear highly conserved across taxa.

Proteomic biomarkers of selected sperm

To identify molecular biomarkers of sperm quality, we performed methyl cellulose and swim up assays in an additional four human donor samples (two donors per assay) and applied TMT proteomics to the selected sperm samples (see *Methods*), including a technical replicate for one donor to confirm robustness. Of 8,191 peptide matches, 4,616 proteins were identified and retained after rigorous filtering, and 2,232 overlapped across all donors (Fig. 4A). In total, 1,178 proteins showed significant differences in abundance between sperm pools in at least one donor, with 634 proteins showing significantly ($\log_2$-fold change > 2; $p_{adj} < 0.05$) lower abundance and 544 showing significantly higher abundance in high-quality sperm (Fig. 4B). Analysing assays separately, we identified 52 and 425 proteins with higher and lower abundance, respectively, in methyl cellulose and 33 and 594 proteins with higher and lower abundance, respectively, in swim up (range: 43-113 higher and 86-431 lower per donor; Suppl. Table S22). In swim up, proteins less abundant in high-quality sperm were strongly associated with RNA processing and protein translation (Suppl. Fig. S15A), whereas proteins more abundant in high-quality sperm were enriched for motility and membrane organisation. In methyl cellulose, proteins were associated with lipid transport and cholesterol efflux pathways characteristic of capacitation (Suppl. Fig. S15B). KEGG analysis showed that proteins less abundant in selected sperm were enriched for RNA- and ribosome-binding activities, including "ribonucleoprotein complex binding" and "structural constituent of ribosome" (Suppl. Fig. S15A). Adhesion-related terms such as "collagen binding" and "cell–substrate junction" were also observed. Proteins more abundant in selected sperm were enriched for functions related to enzyme inhibition and structural support, including endopeptidase inhibitor activity, peptidase regulator activity and antioxidant activity (Suppl. Fig. S16B). Functional enrichment analyses revealed two broad, consistent patterns. First, proteins with low abundance in high-quality sperm are linked to translational and splicing activity—features of immature sperm absent from mature, high-quality sperm [29]. Their depletion in selected fractions supports the interpretation that sperm surviving the selection assays represent a more functionally mature population. Second, proteins with increased abundance in high-quality sperm were related to motility, consistent with evidence that flagellar structure and activity are central to sperm motility and fertilisation competence [30–32]. Other enriched functions included lipid metabolism and membrane-associated protein complexes, processes tightly linked to capacitation and regulation of membrane fluidity [33]. Enrichment for antioxidant and enzyme inhibitor activities

is also consistent with requirements to withstand oxidative and proteolytic stress during transit

through the female tract [34,35]. Applying an additional filtering step based on significance

(p_{adj} < 0.05) and the median ratio of protein abundance among sperm pools across all four

donors, we identified six key proteins that were downregulated and located on the membrane

in high-quality sperm: OLFM4, CTNG, PLA2, DEFB105A, midkine and protein K, all

associated with human disease phenotypes including various cancers, inflammation and cell

growth [36-40]. We validated OLFM4 and CTNG as possible biomarkers based on their abundance

and putative cell-surface localisation using fluorophore-conjugated antibodies and FACS in

five additional donors (see Methods). Both proteins showed consistently higher abundance in

low-quality sperm across all five donors (Suppl. Table S23; Suppl. Fig. S17, S18), supporting

the TMT results. Genes underlying the significantly diverging proteins showed some overlap

with genomic signatures in the WGS data (Suppl. Fig. 4E).

Discussion

Within-ejaculate selection for sperm fitness, based on a combination of longevity and

penetration ability, resulted in significant improvement of overall phenotypic sperm quality.

These phenotypic differences have a genomic basis, as indicated by genome-wide signals of

selection involving genes with fundamental roles in organismal health and fitness across

generations. The genomic markers of haploid selection are remarkably conserved and show

strong parallels between species as distant as humans and zebrafish. Beyond coding regions

exhibiting divergence in both species, non-coding regions and lncRNAs in human sperm and

lincRNAs in zebrafish sperm were particularly frequent. lnc/linc RNAs exert widespread

regulatory functions on downstream gene expression, suggesting substantial regulatory activity

in genes determining sperm function. Differences in lncRNA expression have also been

reported in sperm of men with compromised fertility [42] where they regulate genes involved in

cytoplasmic transport, biosynthetic processes and spermatogenesis. Notably, we found little

overlap with geno-informative markers previously identified in the mammals: mouse,

macaque and cattle [7].

Our genomic and proteomic data indicate that this gametic stage may play a key role in

favouring high-functioning genomes, with potential to reduce transmission of heritable disease

and to improve overall health and fitness. While the genomic data highlight clear divergence

between sperm pools, reduced abundance of proteins related to neurodevelopmental processes

and cancer in high-quality sperm suggests a direct link between phenotypic sperm quality and

genetic quality. A link between sperm fitness and offspring fitness has been demonstrated in

zebrafish [5,41], and we provide the genomic architecture underlying these differences. Neurodevelopmental disorders point to early developmental differences, which may also explain the observed 5–7% difference in survival during early zebrafish embryo development [5]. In contrast, cancer is an ageing-related heritable disease, and the reduction of proteomic cancer biomarkers in high-quality sperm aligns with our previous observation of higher reproductive fitness and increased lifespan in zebrafish sired by longer-lived sperm [41]. The signals among variants contributing to Polygenic Scores further support a strong link between overall genetic sperm quality and human health.

Overall, we detected stable core patterns in the molecular biomarkers of human sperm quality across donors, assays and species. Nevertheless, we observed notable differences in the identity of diverging genes and proteins, consistent with sperm fitness - like organismal fitness - being shaped by a large network of genes. Allelic divergence in these genes varies among individuals, and these regulatory networks appear to arise from genetic correlations, but this idea needs further testing. Our study provides molecular signatures of gametic selection and its consequences for organismal fitness and health. These findings open opportunities to use sperm-quality biomarkers as indicators of overall genomic health in applied contexts such as Assisted Reproductive Technologies, particularly IVF and ICSI [10], and to improve outcomes in human reproduction, animal stock breeding and aquaculture.

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METHODS

Sample collection from human donors

For the assessing the effects of sperm selection on sperm phenotypic quality, we used the

samples from 35 self-reported healthy donors collected at the University of East Anglia, UK.

For the genomics analyses, we included ejaculates from nine self-reported healthy volunteers

with sperm concentration >15 M/ml: nine samples used for genomics analyses were collected

at the Rigshospitalet Copenhagen, Denmark.

For TMT proteomics analyses we used four human sperm ejaculates: two from the University

of East Anglia (UEA), Norwich, UK; two from Cape Town, South Africa (ZA)). For the

biomarker validation of OFLM4 and CTNG, we recruited an additional five donors from the

University of East Anglia (UEA), Norwich, UK.

The samples from University of East Anglia and Cape Town were collected under ethics permit

no. ETH2324-0997 and the samples collected at the Rigshospitalet Copenhagen were collected

under ethics permit no. H-17012149.

Sperm selection assays

All samples were collected near the laboratory and allowed to liquefy for 30 minutes at 37°C

prior to the selection assay. We used two different assays to select for sperm within ejaculates:

Methyl Cellulose Assay: A 10 cm-diameter watch glass was filled with 1% (w/v)

methylcellulose (Sigma, Denmark) up to a 4cm radius and 10ml total volume. Then, 300µl of

raw ejaculate was placed in the centre of the glass (the ejaculate was allowed to sink and filled

a circle of 0.5cm in the centre of the glass). For each donor, we used five 300 µl aliquots

allocated into five watch glasses per donor in parallel to ensure sufficient cells in the edge

population for subsequent whole genome sequencing. The samples were incubated in the watch

glasses for two hours at 37°C under 5% CO2 supplementation. 4ml aliquots were then collected

from the outer circle of each watch glass at a radius of 3-3.5 cm, 2.5-3cm or 2-2.5cm

(depending on the distance travelled by the sperm starting at the radius from the further circle

with >10 cells under the microscope for each male) and placed in a 15ml tube. All five edge

samples collected from the outer circle were pooled for each donor to ensure high enough cell

numbers for sequencing. We also collected a sample (5 ml) from the centre of each watch glass

at least 0.5 cm above the bottom of the glass to avoid contamination with dead sperm and

somatic cells. To extract the sperm from the methylcellulose, 1µl of cellulase was added for

every 1ml of collected sample and the sample was mixed thoroughly on a shaking table for two

hours at 50°C. The samples were then centrifuged, the supernatant removed, and the sperm

pellets were stored at -80° C for subsequent DNA extraction.

Swim Up Assays: For the phenotypic analyses, we collected a raw (R T0), washed (W T0), and

sub-samples from swim ups following incubation (T0, T4, T8, T24, T48) and for the genomic

analyses we collected a raw sample (T0) and sub-samples from swim ups following incubation

(T4, T24 for all five donors and T8 (n = 1 donor), T24 and T48 (n = 3 donors).

For the swim ups sub-samples, aliquots of 1ml raw ejaculate were placed in 15ml centrifuge

tubes at a 1:1 ratio of human tubal fluid (HTF) medium containing (in mM): 72.8 NaCl, 4.69

KCl, 0.2 $MgSO_4$, 0.37 KH_2PO_4, 2.04 $CaCl_2$, 0.33 sodium pyruvate, 21.4 sodium lactate, 2.78

glucose, 21 HEPES, 25 $NaHCO_3$, adjusted to pH 7.4 with NaOH (Fisher, UK) and incubated

for 2, 4, 8, 12, 24 and 48 hours at 37°C with 5% CO2 in the air. Motile sperm, at each time

point, were recovered by direct swim up as follows: after flicking each tube to homogenise the

sample, 1ml was aliquoted and placed under 4ml of HTF medium in a new 15ml centrifuge

tube at 37°C for 60 min in 5% CO2 as described above. The top layer of the swim up (3.5ml)

was collected and centrifuged at 700xg for 10-20 min at room temperature (RT) prior to

resuspension in 2ml HTF. After assessing sperm concentrations of samples using image

cytometry, the cells were pelleted, the supernatant removed, and the pellet stored at -80°C until

further use.

Phenotypic analyses

Sample prep and selection assay

We used samples from 35 donors for sperm selection by Swim Up assay and subsequent

phenotypic analyses. All raw samples were split into three aliquots: one third of the raw sample

was used directly for a swim up and the remaining 2/3 were washed and split into two aliquots

and incubated for 4h and 24h, respectively. In the washing step, the samples were washed twice

in HTF lacking HAS. The sample was centrifuged at 500g for 10 minutes and after removal of

the supernatant, 3ml of HFT+ was added and the sample was split again into two labelled tubes

(T4 and T24). Following incubation, the samples were centrifuged at 500g for 10 minutes to

supernatant and perform a direct swim up to isolate motile cells as described above.

The swim ups were performed in an Eppendorf tube as follows: 1 ml of human tubal fluid

(HTF+) medium containing (in mM): 72.8 NaCl, 4.69 KCl, 0.2 $MgSO_4$, 0.37 KH_2PO_4, 2.04

$CaCl_2$, 0.33 sodium pyruvate, 21.4 sodium lactate, 2.78 glucose, 21 HEPES, 25 $NaHCO_3$ and

3.5% human serum albumin (HSA) (Fisher, UK) adjusted to pH 7.4 with HCL was added to

the semen/sperm pellet. During the swim up assay, cells were allowed to swim up for 1h at

37°C with 5% CO_2 supplementation after which we collected 700µl of the sample from the top

of the Eppendorf tube.

We then assessed phenotypic traits including sperm concentration, motility and velocity, sperm

viability, sperm morphology, chromatin and DNA integrity (see *Supplementary Methods* for

details on each of these).

Genomic analyses of sperm human sperm pools

Whole genome sequencing

DNA was extracted using a standard phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol protocol (see

Supplementary Methods for details on DNA extraction) from the sperm pools and prepared

using a PCR-free library preparation kit (KAPA HyperPrep kit; Roche) for a standard insert

size (400-500 bp), (see Supplementary Methods for details). Sequencing was conducted by the

Earlham Institute, UK, on an Illumina NovaSeq6000 to generate 150 bp paired-end reads.

Bioinformatic analyses of genome data

All scripts and step-by-step instructions are available on:

https://github.com/alicegodden/spermpool.

Allele frequency estimations

Following quality control (see *Supplementary Methods* for details), variant detection of the

alignments of reads from the T0 raw ejaculate followed the best practice hard-filtering

workflow recommended by GATK. In brief, GATK 4.9.1 Haplotype Caller was used to call the

variants and filter the heterozygous paternal sites. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)

were filtered using SelectVariant. Alignment of the reads from T0 raw ejaculate and selected

sperm pools were used to generate base count profiles using pileup2pro2

(https://github.com/douglasgscofield/gameteUtils). SAMtools v1.9 option -q30, -Q30 and

d100000 was used to exclude sites with low quality, allowing for sites with deep coverage.

For the likelihood ration tests, we only retained sites with a total coverage of > 31x or more

than 2*total mean coverage were excluded (mean coverage was 206.69, 200.68, 176.31, 174.9,

261.17, 221.03, 271.5, 239.1023 and 211.443 for 9 donors: Donor 1, Donor 2, Donor 3, Donor

4, Donor 5, Donor 6, Donor 7, Donor 8 and Donor 9, respectively). The heterozygous sites and

base count profiles of the T0 raw and high performance sperm pools were used for likelihood

ratio tests using the script hetPoolLikelihoods.pl available at

https://github.com/douglasgscofield/gameteUtils following Lynch et al (2014) [1]. The most

significant allelic differences between the T0 raw and T4/24 sperm pools were identified by

the largest likelihood ratios. Briefly, the major and minor alleles were assigned according to

counts within the T0 raw sperm pools. To identify statistically significant loci between T0 raw

and T4/T8/T24/T48 sperm pools, the threshold for genome-wide significance was set to >

99.9th quantile (critical values Donor1: 17.08, Donor 2: 11.91, Donor 3: 15.36, Donor 4:11.60,

Donor 5: 11.37, Donor 6: 11.30, Donor 7: 11.67, Donor 8: 11.37, Donor 9:11.6).

Predictive role of genetically divergent regions

To identify genetic elements residing at statistically significant loci, identified loci were

mapped onto an annotated *Homo sapiens* reference genome GRCh38. To uncover the

biological significance of the genetic differences resulting from the comparisons between T0

raw and selected fit sperm pools, the resulting gene overlaps were then used for gene
enrichment and gene length analysis using *ShinyGO v0.75* [2].

Polygenic Scores

VCF files were generated from each sperm pool BAM file with a bcftools v1.15.1 [3] pipeline as
follows:

bcftools mpileup -a AD,ADF,ADR -r "${ncbi_chr}" -q 30 -Q 30 -f
GRCh38_latest_genomic.fna "${bam_file}" | bcftools call -mv -f GQ -Oz -o "$output_file" [1].
Chromosome files were concatenated, and chromosome identifiers converted to Ensembl
format. To allow integration with the Pan-UK Biobank dataset, the VCF files were lifted over
to the GRCh37 reference genome coordinate system using GATK v4.6.0.0, with Picard
LiftoverVCF. The GRCh37 reference genome was obtained from Ensembl,
Homo_sapiens.GRCh37.dna_sm.primary_assembly.fa.gz , version 27/11/2015. The chain file
GRCh37_to_GRCh38.chain.gz, version 25/07/2014,
https://ftp.ensembl.org/pub/assembly_mapping/homo_sapiens/ was downloaded from
Ensembl.

Polygenic Score (PGS) data were obtained from the Pan-UK Biobank phenotype manifest:
https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1AeeADtT0U1AukliiNyiVzVRdLYPkTbruQSk38De
utU8/edit?gid=1450719288#gid=1450719288 in May 2025. The data were filtered to retain
CHR, POS, REF, ALT and beta_EUR columns, with the latter representing the effect size of
the alternative allele as estimated in UK Biobank participants of inferred European ancestry.
We extracted information on allele frequency, chrom, pos, ref and alt columns from the sperm
pool VCF files and retained all positions that overlapped with variants in the Pan-UK Biobank
dataset. The sperm pool allele frequencies and beta_EUR of all overlapping loci for a
phenotype were multiplied and the product for each phenotype was added up, to obtain a score
for each donor.

Comparison between human and zebrafish data

To identify conserved genetic pathways between zebrafish and human sperm pools selected for
fitness, we reanalysed the zebrafish sperm pool data from Alavioon et al. (2017) [4]. The full
experimental design and selection assay for longevity in zebrafish is described in Alavioon et
al. (2017) [3]. To process the genomic data, we used the latest zebrafish GRCz11 *Danio rerio*
reference genome to align the genomic reads and employed the same analysis pipeline and hard
filtering as for human samples (see *Supplementary Methods* for details). To further minimise

potential sequencing bias in the zebrafish data, the cut-off point for genome-wide identification

of significant loci in the zebrafish data was set to the 99.9th quantile; critical values were 13.99,

26.51, 10.39 for male ID: Male_31, Male_32 and Male_34, respectively. We then used Venn

diagrams on significant genes by converting zebrafish genes into human gene homologs to

identify genes shared between humans and zebrafish and performed GO analyses using

ShinyGO v0.75 [2] on the 153 shared genes.

TMT proteomics

Sperm selection assays for proteomics

Samples from four donors in total, two for each assay were used. The samples were washed in

human tubal fluid (HTF) and resuspended in 200 μL HTF. We collected two samples

representing a less fit (Centre/T0) and a fitter (Edge/T4) sperm pool from each donor from

Methyl Cellulose and Swim Up (assays as described above; see Supplementary Methods for

exact details) and stored them at -80°C.

Protein extraction and proteomics

For protein extraction, samples were thawed, and 450 ml of acetone was added to each of the

thawed samples. Samples were then vortexed for 15 minutes, then centrifuged at 10,000 rpm

for 10 minutes. Supernatant was then removed, and 500 ml of acetone added to each sample.

Each sample was then spun gently for two minutes manually then centrifuged for 15 mins at

10000 rpm. Supernatant was removed and samples were air dried for 1 and a half hours.

Protein pellets were resuspended in 100 μl of 2.5% sodium deoxycholate (SDC; Merck) in 0.2

M EPPS-buffer (Merck), pH 8.5, and the samples vortexed under heating. The samples were

treated with dithiothreitol and iodoacetamide to alkylate cysteine residues and digested with

trypsin in the SDC buffer according to standard procedures. After the digest, the SDC was

precipitated by adjusting to 0.2% TFA, and the clear supernatant subjected to C18 SPE

(Reprosil-Pur 120 C18-AQ, 5 um, Dr. Maisch GmbH, Germany). Peptide concentration was

estimated by running an aliquot of the digests on LCMS (see below). TMT labelling was

performed using 8 channels from a TMT™10plex kit (TMT lot: VH306773, ThermoFisher

Scientific, Hemel Hempstead, UK) according to the manufacturer's instructions with slight

modifications; samples were dissolved in 90 μl of 0.2 M EPPS buffer (MERCK)/10%

acetonitrile, and 200 μg TMT reagent dissolved in 22 μl of acetonitrile was added. Samples

were assigned to the TMT channels in two separate experiments, according to the table below.

After 2 h incubation, aliquots of 1.5 µl from each sample from each individual TMT experiment

were combined in 250 µl 0.2% TFA, desalted, and analysed on the mass spectrometer to check

the labelling efficiency and estimate total sample abundances. The main sample aliquots were

quenched by adding 8 µl of 5% hydroxylamine and combined to roughly level abundances.

The peptides were desalted using a C18 Sep-Pak cartridge (200 mg, Waters, Wilmslow, UK).

The eluted peptides were dissolved in 500 µl of 25 mM NH_4HCO_3 and fractionated by high pH

reversed phase HPLC. The samples were loaded to an XBridge® 3.5 µm C18 column (150 x

3.0 mm, Waters). Fractionation was performed on an ACQUITY Arc Bio System (Waters) with

the following gradient of solvents A (water), B (acetonitrile), and C (25 mM NH_4HCO_3 in

water) at a flow rate of 0.5 ml min^{-1}: solvent C was kept at 10% throughout the gradient; solvent

B: 0-5 min: 5%, 5-10 min: 5-10%, 10-60 min: 10-40%, 60-75 min: 40-80%, followed by 5 min

at 80% B and re-equilibration to 5% for 24 min. Fractions were collected every 1 min and

concatenated by combining fractions of similar peptide concentration to produce 20 final

fractions for MS analysis. A replicate of one donor sample (2 TMT channels) was fractionated

using the Pierce™ High pH Reversed-Phase Peptide Fractionation Kit (Thermo) to produce 7

fractions.

TMT analyses

Aliquots of all fractions were analysed by nanoLC-MS/MS on an Orbitrap Eclipse™ Tribrid™

mass spectrometer equipped with a FAIMS Pro Duo interphase coupled to an UltiMate® 3000

RSLCnano LC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Hemel Hempstead, UK). The samples were

loaded onto a trap cartridge (PepMap™ Neo 5 µm C18 300 µm X 5 mm Trap Cartridge,

Thermo) with 0.1% TFA at 15 µl min^{-1} for 3 min. The trap column was then switched in-line

with the analytical column (Aurora Frontier TS, 60 cm nanoflow UHPLC column, ID 75 µm,

reversed phase C18, 1.7 µm, 120 Å; IonOpticks, Fitzroy, Australia) for separation using the

following gradient of solvents A (water, 0.1% formic acid) and B (80% acetonitrile, 0.1%

formic acid) at a flow rate of 0.23 µl min^{-1} : 0-3 min 1% B (parallel to trapping); 3-10 min

linear increase B to 9 %; 10-105 min increase B to 50%; followed by a ramp to 99% B and re-

equilibration to 1% B.

Data were acquired with the following parameters in positive ion mode: MS1/OT: resolution

120K, profile mode, mass range *m/z* 400-1600, AGC target 4e^5, max inject time 50 ms, FAIMS

device set to three compensation voltages (-35V, -50V, -65V) for 1 s each; MS2/IT: for each

CV, data dependent analysis with the following parameters: 1 s cycle time Rapid mode, centroid

mode, quadrupole isolation window 0.7 Da, charge states 2-5, threshold $1.9e^4$, CID CE=33,

AGC target 1e4, max. inject time 50 ms, dynamic exclusion 1 count for 15 s with mass

tolerance of 7 ppm; MS3 synchronous precursor selection (SPS): 10 SPS precursors, MS2

isolation window 0.7 Da, HCD fragmentation with CE=65, Orbitrap Turbo TMT and TMTpro

resolution 30k, AGC target 200%, max inject time 100 ms; Real Time Search (RTS): protein

database UP000005640_human_2024_9606.fasta (Uniprot, 20,609 entries), enzyme trypsin,

1 missed cleavage, oxidation (M) as variable, carbamidomethyl (C) and TMT6plex as fixed

modifications, precursor tolerance 10 ppm, Xcorr = 1.4, dCn = 0.1.

Proteome data analyses

Scripts are on: https://github.com/alicegodden/spermpool.

The acquired raw data were processed and quantified in Proteome Discoverer 3.1 (Thermo

Fisher Scientific); all mentioned tools of the following workflow are nodes of the proprietary

Proteome Discoverer (PD) software.

The UP000005640_human_2024_9606.fasta protein fasta database (Uniprot, 20,609 entries)

was imported into PD adding a reversed sequence database for decoy searches. The database

search was performed using the incorporated search engines CHIMERYS (MSAID, Munich,

Germany) and Comet.

The processing workflow for both search engines included recalibration of MS1 spectra (RC),

reporter ion quantification by most confident centroid (20 ppm) and a search on the human

protein database (as imported above). For CHIMERYS the Top N Peak Filter was applied with

20 peaks per 100 Da. Then the inferys_3.0.0. fragmentation prediction model was used with

fragment tolerance of 0.3 Da, enzyme trypsin with 1 missed cleavage, variable modification

oxidation (M), fixed modifications carbamidomethyl (C) and TMT6plex on N-terminus and K.

For Comet the version 2019.01 rev.0 parameter file was used with default settings except

precursor tolerance set to 6 ppm and trypsin missed cleavages set to 1. Modifications were the

same as for CHIMERYS.

The consensus workflow included the following parameters: intensity-based abundance,

normalisation on total peptide abundances, protein abundance-based ratio calculation, only

unique peptides (protein groups) for quantification, TMT channel correction values applied

(Lot VH306773), co-isolation/SPS matches/CHIMERYS Coefficient thresholds 50%/70%,

0.8, missing values imputation by low abundance resampling, hypothesis testing by *t*-test

(background based), adjusted p-value calculation by BH-method. The results were exported

into a Microsoft Excel table including data for normalised and un-normalised abundances,

ratios for the specified conditions, the corresponding p-values and adjusted p-values, number

of unique peptides, q-values, PEP-values, identification scores from both search engines; FDR

confidence filtered for high confidence (strict FDR 0.01) only. We used *AlphaFold* [5-7] to

generate molecule views of the candidate proteins.

626 Validation of OLFM4 and CTNG

627 Sample collection and preparation

Following sample collection, liquefaction and CASA analysis to assess sperm motility in each

sample, samples were aliquoted to approximately 1.5 million cells in 1 mL of human tubal fluid

(HTF) medium. Aliquots were incubated for 4 hours at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 prior to antibody

staining. Following incubation, sperm samples were reassessed for motility and cell number

using CASA, then immediately stained with eFluor™ 520 fixable viability dye (eBioscience,

Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's protocol. After viability staining, cells were fixed

in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) at 4 °C.

Fixed cells were then blocked using Human Fc Receptor Blocking Solution (eBioscience,

Invitrogen) to minimise non-specific antibody binding. Fluorophore-conjugated primary

antibodies were subsequently added and incubated under standard conditions. The following

antibodies were used: anti-OLFM4 clone 12, conjugated to R-phycoerythrin (PE), at a 1:10

dilution (Novus Biologicals, NBP3-06415PE); anti-CTNG (CTNG/2155R), conjugated to

mFluor Violet 450 SE, at 1:10 dilution (Novus Biologicals, NBP3-08485MFV450); and anti-

AOC3 (VAP1/AOC3 - TK8-14), conjugated to Alexa Fluor 594, at 1:10 dilution (Bio-Techne,

NBP2-81043AF594.). Throughout staining, cells underwent minimal washing steps to preserve

cell numbers and were stored overnight at 4 °C prior to flow cytometry analysis.

645 Flow cytometry

Samples were analysed using the BD FACSDiscover™ S8 Cell Sorter (BD Biosciences),

operated in fully spectral mode. No cell sorting was performed. Imaging and fluorescence data

were acquired simultaneously for each sample with fixable viability dye (eFluor™ 520)

detected using imaging laser B1 to allow for imaging. Events were gated to isolate the sperm

population (P1), based on forward and side scatter properties. All subsequent data acquisition

and analysis were restricted to the P1 population. For each antibody-stained sample, between

5,000 and 50,000 individual events within the P1 gate were recorded, depending on sample

quality and cell availability.

Spectral unmixing was performed using BD FACSChorus™ software (BD Biosciences), based on single-stained controls for each fluorophore-conjugated antibody and the fixable viability dye. An unstained sperm sample was included in experiment set to control for cellular autofluorescence during unmixing. Compensation and unmixing matrices were applied prior to further analysis.

Flow cytometry image files were merged with the primary fluorescence data using BD CellView™ Image Extractor. The resulting datasets were processed in R v4.4.3 [8]. Data were normalised using the CytoNorm package [9], and quality control was performed using PeacoQC [10] to identify and remove anomalous events. Gated and cleaned data were subsequently analysed in FlowJo v 10.10.0 (BD Life Sciences – FlowJo, LLC, Ashland, OR, USA. https://www.flowjo.com), with all events restricted to the P1 sperm population (see Suppl. Fig. S5-2 for gating strategy).

Statistical modelling of marker expression in live and dead cell populations was conducted in R v4.4.3 [8], with residual diagnostics simulated using the DHARMa package [11] to evaluate model fit and distribution assumptions. Model summaries were formatted using the Stargazer package for publication [12].

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

DM: Sample collection, phenotypic data collection, data analyses, WGS data analysis, data interpretation, writing. JCK: Proteomics sample preparation, proteomics data analysis, data interpretation, writing. AG: WGS data analyses, data interpretation, writing. GA: sperm selection assay development, sample collection for WGS. GS: Proteomics sample preparation, data analysis, data interpretation. AB: Polygenic scores analyses, data interpretation, writing. KA: Donor recruitment, sample collection for genomics, ethics permit holder DK. SI: Conception and design of study, supervision of project, ethics permit holder UK, data interpretation, writing.

DATA AVAILABILITY

All raw datasets have been uploaded to respective platforms. The sperm phenotypic data, R scripts associated with phenotype statistical analyses, the list of significantly differentially expressed genes form the human genomic analyses and the list of significantly differentially expressed proteins can be found on dryad (doi:10.5061/dryad.4qrfj6qkn). The data files containing the raw whole-genome sequencing data for all human sperm pools can be found in the European Nucleotide Archive under accession number PRJEB80525. The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD056057 and 10.6019/PXD056057; PXD056228 and 10.6019/PXD056228; and PXD056234 and 10.6019/PXD056234"".

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Supplementary Information is available for this paper. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to SI (s.immler@uea.ac.uk). The authors declare no competing interests.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Phenotypic signature of within-ejaculate selection on sperm quality. Phenotypic
traits of sperm in raw (R T0), washed (W T0), swim up after 0 hours incubation (SW T0), after
four hours incubation (SW T4) and 24 hours incubation (SW T24). **(A)** Curvilinear velocity,
(B) % sperm with mature chromatin (using aniline), **(C)** % sperm with normal morphology
(using SpermBlue), and **(D)** % sperm without single- or double-strand breaks (using toluidine
blue). Data for all donors are shown as individual dots and overall mean ± standard error are
shown in black for each time point (sample sizes: Raw: n=35; W: n=35; T0: n=25; T4: n=35
and T24: n=12).

Figure 2: Genomic signature of within-ejaculate selection on human sperm quality. Loci
with significantly diverging alleles between sperm pools collected **(A)** from Centre (low-
quality) and Edge (high-quality) in the Methyl Cellulose assay (n = 4) and **(B)** at T0 (low
quality) and T4 (high quality) from Swim Up assays (n = 5; likelihood ratio tests, > 99.9th
quantile). Top 20 significant Biological GO terms for the genes showing significant divergence
in **(C)** Methyl cellulose and **(D)** Swim Up. Distribution of genomic elements among
significantly diverging loci for **(E)** Methyl Cellulose and **(F)** Swim Up. The heatmap shows
the Z-score normalised average difference in polygenic scores for the top traits selected based
on the 99th percentile of absolute score differences across donors. Positive values (red) indicate

traits with higher-than-average score differences, while negative values (blue) indicate lower-

than-average differences for **(G)** Methyl Cellulose and **(H)** Swim Up.

Figure 3: Comparison of genomic signature of within-ejaculate selection in zebrafish and

humans. (A) Loci with significantly diverging alleles between sperm pools collected from

centre (low quality) and edge of a water droplet (n = 3; data from Alavioon et al 2017[5]) and (B)

the associated top 20 significant biological GO terms. **(C)** Distribution of genomic elements

among significantly diverging loci. **(D)** Venn diagram showing overlap of significantly

diverging genes between human Methyl Cellulose, human Swim Up and zebrafish. **(E)** Top 20

significant biological GO terms for the 153 genes share between zebrafish, human Methyl

Cellulose and human Swim Up assays.

Figure 4: Proteomic signature of within-ejaculate selection on sperm performance. (A)

Venn diagram showing overlap of differentially expressed proteins between donors,

experiments and technical runs. **(B)** Volcano plots for each donor displaying significantly

differentially expressed proteins (pink; (significance cut-off points are $p_{adj} < 0.05$; $\log_2$ fold

change > |2|) between Centre/T0 and Edge/T4 sperm pools assays with $\log_2$ fold changes > 0

indicating increased expression in Centre/T0 sperm pools and $\log_2$ fold changes < 0 indicating

increased expression in Edge/T0 sperm pools. Two technical runs were performed for Donor A

in the Swim Up assay. The top five significant proteins shared among all samples are

highlighted by black circle and protein ID. **(C)** Validation of OLFM and CTNG as markers of

human sperm quality using FACS on cells stained with a combination of antibody labelling and

live-dead staining. 'Positive' indicates staining for marker protein above gating threshold and

'negative' indicates sub-threshold labelling for antibodies (see Supplementary Material for

gating details).

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4