

TITLE:

Variation in physiological function across source populations of a New Zealand freshwater snail¹

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Mitochondrial function in New Zealand snails

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The mitochondrial and nuclear-encoded genes responsible for cellular respiration are
3 expected to experience relatively intense purifying selection, meaning that variation in
4 these genes will often decrease fitness. Still, extensive variation for mitochondrial
5 function persists in natural populations. We integrated physiological, cellular, and
6 behavioral approaches to quantify phenotypes relevant to mitochondrial function across
7 a diverse sample of *Potamopyrgus antipodarum*, a New Zealand snail characterized by
8 frequent coexistence between otherwise similar sexual and asexual individuals. We
9 found extensive across-lake variation in organismal oxygen consumption and behavioral
10 response to heat stress coupled with elevated mitochondrial membrane potential in
11 males vs. females. These data set the stage for applying this important model system
12 for sex, host-parasite interactions, invasion biology, and ecotoxicology to novel tests of
13 the relationships between mitochondrial variation and performance in natural
14 populations.

15

16 **KEYWORDS**

17 asexual reproduction, JC-1, mitochondria, oxygen consumption, *Potamopyrgus*
18 *antipodarum*, sexual reproduction

19 INTRODUCTION

20 The production of ATP *via* cellular respiration is a critical component of eukaryotic
21 function and fitness (Chen *et al.*, 2007; Pike *et al.*, 2007; Dowling *et al.*, 2008; Barreto
22 and Burton, 2013; Dowling, 2014), which likely explains why the components of the
23 oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) pathway generally appear to be evolving under
24 purifying selection (Blier *et al.*, 2001; Montooth *et al.*, 2009; Neiman *et al.*, 2010;
25 Castellana *et al.*, 2011; Zhang and Broughton, 2013; Havird and Sloan, 2016;
26 Sharbrough *et al.*, 2018). By this logic, one would expect that the OXPHOS genes
27 would tend to harbor relatively low intraspecific variation. Instead, these genes are often
28 polymorphic within species (Ballard and Whitlock, 2004; Dowling *et al.*, 2008; Galtier *et*
29 *al.*, 2009; Bock *et al.*, 2014; Dobler *et al.*, 2014; Sharbrough *et al.*, 2018), with important
30 implications for phenomena from mitonuclear incompatibilities (*e.g.*, Ellison and Burton,
31 2006) to DNA barcoding (Hebert *et al.*, 2003). The effects of this genetic variation on
32 phenotypic variation for metabolic function - and indeed, how mitochondrial function is
33 maintained over evolutionary time despite mutational pressure (Gabriel *et al.*, 1993) -
34 remain unclear despite extensive variation for metabolic and mitochondrial function in
35 natural populations of a diverse array of species (see *e.g.*, Ursi *et al.*, 2003; Sadowska
36 *et al.*, 2005; Dowling *et al.*, 2008; Nilsson *et al.*, 2009; Arnqvist *et al.*, 2010; Oellermann
37 *et al.*, 2012; Chung *et al.*, 2017; Nespolo *et al.*, 2017; Sharbrough *et al.*, 2017). Although
38 some variation in metabolic and mitochondrial traits has been linked to specific
39 environmental correlates (*e.g.*, altitude – Simonson *et al.*, 2010; Storz *et al.*, 2010,
40 temperature – Clarke and Johnston, 1999, energy source – Montooth *et al.*, 2003), we
41 lack a systematic understanding of the distribution of this variation across biogeographic

42 space. We can address this important knowledge gap by evaluating mitochondrial
43 function across species ranges, which will provide insight into how phenotypic variation
44 is partitioned across populations and environments.

45 *Potamopyrgus antipodarum*, a New Zealand freshwater snail (Winterbourn,
46 1970), is ideally suited for investigating spatial patterns in mitochondrial functional
47 variation. There is both extensive mtDNA population structure in their native range
48 (Neiman and Lively, 2004; Neiman *et al.*, 2010; Paczesniak *et al.*, 2013) and evidence
49 for local adaptation to biotic (Lively and Jokela, 1996; Krist *et al.*, 2000; Dybdahl and
50 Krist, 2004; Jokela *et al.*, 2009; King *et al.*, 2009; Koskella and Lively, 2009; Bankers *et*
51 *al.*, 2017) and abiotic (Lively and Jokela, 1996; Krist *et al.*, 2000; Krist *et al.*, 2014; Krist
52 *et al.*, 2017) environmental conditions of their source lakes. Temperature in particular
53 appears to be a primary determinant of the geographical distribution of *P. antipodarum*
54 within New Zealand (Winterbourn, 1969). Because sexual and asexual *P. antipodarum*
55 frequently coexist in nature (Lively, 1987) and because asexuality has arisen multiple
56 times within *P. antipodarum* (Neiman and Lively, 2004; Neiman *et al.*, 2011), distinct
57 asexual lineages can be treated as repeated “natural experiments” into the
58 consequences of asexuality for mitochondrial function. Asexual production of male
59 offspring by obligately asexual female *P. antipodarum* (Neiman *et al.*, 2012) also makes
60 it possible to assay sex-specific mitochondrial function, even in asexual lineages whose
61 mitochondrial genomes have been “trapped” in females for generations. These features,
62 along with extensive and heritable variation for mitochondrial performance among
63 asexual lineages (Sharbrough *et al.*, 2017), allow *P. antipodarum* to be used for

64 powerful tests of the contribution of sexual reproduction to the processes underlying
65 mitonuclear coevolution.

66 Here, we tested whether source population, reproductive mode, or sex (male vs.
67 female) affect mitochondrial and physiological function at organismal and organellar
68 levels under laboratory conditions in field-collected *P. antipodarum*. We found evidence
69 that metabolic rate and behavioral response to heat stress vary across *P. antipodarum*
70 from different New Zealand lakes. The importance of lake-of-origin as a determinant of
71 mitochondrial phenotype demonstrates that direct and rigorous comparisons of
72 phenotypic function between sexual and asexual lineages and between males and
73 females in *P. antipodarum* will require extensive within-lake sampling. Altogether, our
74 results confirm previous reports of extensive variation for mitochondrial function in *P.*
75 *antipodarum* (Sharbrough *et al.*, 2017), extend these results to natural populations, and
76 set the stage for powerful comparisons between fitness-relevant traits in sexual and
77 asexual snails.

78

79 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

80 **Field collections of *P. antipodarum***

81 While the phenotypic and ecological similarity of sexual vs. asexual *P. antipodarum*
82 enable direct comparisons across reproductive modes, it also means that definitive
83 determination of reproductive mode requires snail sacrifice. We therefore sampled field-
84 collected snails from New Zealand lakes known to harbor sexual and asexual
85 individuals, with populations at least ~10% male (Neiman *et al.*, 2011; Paczesniak *et al.*,
86 2013; Bankers *et al.*, 2017). Upon arrival at the University of Iowa, snails were housed

87 at 16°C on a 18hr light/6 hr dark schedule, and fed *Spirulina* algae 3x per week, as
88 described in (Zachar and Neiman, 2013). We arbitrarily selected adult snails from lake
89 collections (each of which consisted of 100s-1000s of individuals) and isolated each
90 snail in a 0.5 L glass container with 300ml carbon-filtered H₂O. Water was changed
91 weekly. Two distinct samples were used in this study: (1) we assayed oxygen
92 consumption under heat stress in 57 wild-caught females, and (2) we assayed
93 behavioral function and mitochondrial membrane potential in 46 wild-caught male and
94 female snails (Table 1). All functional and behavioral assays began immediately
95 following isolation, and all assays were completed within six months of arrival at the
96 University of Iowa.

97

98 **Oxygen consumption under heat stress conditions**

99 Because oxygen becomes limiting to ectotherms under elevated temperatures (Abele *et*
100 *al.*, 2007) and because *P. antipodarum* demonstrates signs of stress at elevated
101 (~30°C) temperatures (*e.g.*, reduced fecundity – Dybdahl and Kane, 2005, elevated
102 oxygen consumption and decreased righting ability – Sharbrough *et al.*, 2017), we
103 measured oxygen consumption using an aquatic respirometer as described in
104 (Sharbrough *et al.*, 2017) for 57 wild-caught female *P. antipodarum* from each of six
105 lakes. Oxygen consumption was assayed at three different water temperatures: 16°C
106 (not stressful, and similar to New Zealand lake temperatures), 22°C (moderately
107 stressful), and 30°C (stressful) (Sharbrough *et al.*, 2017). Each snail was assayed at
108 each temperature in a randomly determined order, and only snails that survived across
109 all three temperature treatments were included in our analyses. Wet mass for each

110 individual was calculated after each trial, and mean mass across all three trials was
111 used in our final analyses.

112

113 **Behavioral response to heat stress**

114 Righting time (Sharbrough *et al.*, 2017) and time to emergence following a startling
115 stimulus – hereafter “shyness” – (M Neiman pers. obs.) increase with temperature in *P.*
116 *antipodarum*, indicating that both assays can be used to assess heat-induced stress.
117 We quantified righting times and shyness under each of the same three temperature
118 treatments as for oxygen consumption in 46 wild-caught *P. antipodarum* and compared
119 behavior reaction norms across temperatures, lakes, reproductive modes, and sexes.
120 Snails were each assayed once at each temperature, and only snails surviving all three
121 temperature treatments were included in our final analyses.

122

123 **Mitochondrial membrane potential**

124 JC-1 is a small positively charged molecule that diffuses down the electrochemical
125 gradient across the inner mitochondrial membrane (Garner and Thomas, 1999). Under
126 UV illumination, JC-1 fluoresces green if dispersed and red if aggregated (e.g., when
127 inside the mitochondrial matrix) (Garner and Thomas, 1999). As a result, the median
128 ratio of red: green fluorescence in freshly isolated, live mitochondria stained with JC-1
129 can serve as a proxy for mitochondrial membrane potential. We isolated mitochondria
130 from 46 wild-caught *P. antipodarum* and measured red: green ratios in JC-1-treated
131 mitochondrial extracts as described in Sharbrough *et al.* (2017) using a Becton
132 Dickenson LSR II flow cytometer. Using only the set of 46 snails that completed

133 behavioral assays at all three temperatures, we compared median red: green ratios
134 across lakes, reproductive modes, and sexes.

135

136 **Determination of reproductive mode**

137 Sexual *P. antipodarum* are diploid and asexual *P. antipodarum* are polyploid (triploid or
138 tetraploid – Wallace, 1992; Neiman *et al.*, 2011), allowing us to use flow cytometry to
139 determine DNA content and, thus, reproductive mode of individual *P. antipodarum*. After
140 completing all physiological and/or behavioral assays, we dissected head tissue from
141 each individual snail, flash froze this tissue in liquid nitrogen, and stored the frozen
142 tissue at -80°C until flow cytometry. We then homogenized head tissue in DAPI solution,
143 filtered this solution through a 30 µm filter, and ran the solution on a Becton-Dickinson
144 FACS Aria II following the protocol (including a chicken red blood cell standard) outlined
145 in Krist *et al.* (2014).

146

147 **Statistical analyses**

148 We used a mixed-effects model framework to quantify the relationships between oxygen
149 consumption and behavioral metrics (righting time, shyness) with categorical variables
150 for temperature (16° C, 22° C, 30° C), lake of origin (n = 3-6 depending on the analysis),
151 reproductive mode (asexual, sexual), sex (male, female; only fit in models pertaining to
152 behavior assays), and a continuous variable for mass (g; only fit in model pertaining to
153 oxygen consumption). We modeled a term for snail identity as a random intercept to
154 account for repeated measures on individuals across temperatures. Finally, we modeled
155 mitochondrial membrane potential, measured as the ratio of red: green fluorescence, as

156 a function of lake, reproductive mode, and sex, using analysis of variance (ANOVA),
157 which does not assume balanced or large sample sizes in its inferences. Only main
158 effects were considered, as the study was not designed to investigate interactions.

159 We developed final models using backwards selection until only predictors with
160 p -values less than 0.05 remained. To test assumptions of normality and
161 heteroscedasticity of errors, we graphically inspected residuals and log- or square-root-
162 transformed response variables when necessary. We performed all statistical analyses
163 in R (R Core Team, 2017), fitting fixed-effect models with the *lm* function, fitting mixed-
164 effects models using the lme4 package (Bates *et al.*, 2007), and estimating degrees of
165 freedom for mixed-effect models using Satterthwaite's approximation *via* the lmerTest
166 package (Kuznetsova *et al.*, 2015).

167

168 **RESULTS**

169 All model-fitting results are detailed in Table 2.

170 We measured oxygen consumption in 57 female *P. antipodarum* collected from
171 six New Zealand lakes (see Table 1) under three different temperature regimes (*i.e.*,
172 16°C, 22°C, and 30°C). We found that temperature ($p < 0.0001$), mass ($p = 0.00154$),
173 and lake of origin ($p = 0.0072$), but not reproductive mode, moderated the rate of
174 oxygen consumption (Fig. 1a, Table 2). This result indicates that snails collected from
175 different lakes exhibit distinct respiratory responses to laboratory-controlled heat stress
176 treatments.

177 Using a second sample of 46 male and female *P. antipodarum* from six New
178 Zealand lakes (see Table 1), we tested whether lake-of-origin, reproductive mode, sex,

179 and temperature were associated with righting time and shyness under heat stress
180 conditions. We found that temperature was a significant predictor of both our behavioral
181 assays of righting ability ($p < 0.0001$, Fig. 1b) and of shyness ($p < 0.0001$, Fig. 1c). Lake
182 of origin was a significant predictor of righting time ($p = 0.0155$) but not of shyness.
183 Neither reproductive mode nor sex were significantly associated with either behavior in
184 response to heat stress. These data indicate that elevated temperatures stress *P.*
185 *antipodarum* sufficiently to alter behavior, and that righting ability differs across New
186 Zealand lake populations of *P. antipodarum*.

187 We next assayed mitochondrial membrane potential in live mitochondrial
188 extracts using the fluorescent dye JC-1 in this same set of 46 field-collected snails. We
189 found that sex, but not lake of origin or reproductive mode, was a significant predictor of
190 mitochondrial membrane potential ($p = 0.0070$, Fig. 2), with higher mitochondrial
191 membrane potential in males vs. females. We had relatively low power to detect
192 differences in mitochondrial membrane potential across lakes (power = 0.427) or sexes
193 (power = 0.365). Together these data indicate that while mitochondrial membrane
194 potential differs across sexes in *P. antipodarum*, larger sample sizes are necessary to
195 compare mitochondrial membrane potential across lakes and reproductive modes.

196

197 **DISCUSSION**

198 Extensive work in the *P. antipodarum* system has documented lake-specific phenotypes
199 and local adaptation for resistance to infection by the trematode parasite *Microphallus*
200 *livelyi* (Lively and Jokela, 1996; Krist *et al.*, 2000; Dybdahl and Krist, 2004; Jokela *et al.*,
201 2009; King *et al.*, 2009; Koskella and Lively, 2009; Bankers *et al.*, 2017), life history

202 traits such as growth rate and size (Larkin *et al.*, 2016), and response to nutrient
203 limitation (Krist *et al.*, 2014; Krist *et al.*, 2017). Here, we report the first evidence of
204 population-structured variation for mitochondrial and behavioral function in *P.*
205 *antipodarum*. Combined with population structure for mitochondrial genetic variation
206 (Neiman and Lively, 2004; Neiman *et al.*, 2010; Neiman *et al.*, 2011; Paczesniak *et al.*,
207 2013), this result suggests the intriguing possibility that mitochondrial function is locally
208 tuned in *P. antipodarum*.

209 These data set the stage for downstream studies addressing multiple important
210 evolutionary questions. Chief among these questions is whether and how asexuality
211 might influence mitonuclear coevolution. While the elevated linkage disequilibrium
212 expected to result from asexuality should reduce the efficacy of natural selection in both
213 nuclear (Fisher, 1930; Muller, 1964; Hill and Robertson, 1966; Birky and Walsh, 1988;
214 Kondrashov, 1993; Charlesworth, 2012) and mitochondrial genomes (Gabriel *et al.*,
215 1993; Normark and Moran, 2000; Neiman and Taylor, 2009), stable transmission of
216 mitonuclear genotypes may also facilitate rapid mitonuclear coadaptation and thereby
217 local adaptation (Neiman and Linksvayer, 2006). There are few empirical tests of
218 whether and how asexuality affects mitochondrial performance, leaving an important
219 gap in our understanding of the evolutionary consequences of changes in reproductive
220 mode. Surveys of mitochondrial genomes of asexual lineages (Paland and Lynch, 2006;
221 Johnson and Howard, 2007; Neiman *et al.*, 2010; Henry *et al.*, 2012; Sharbrough *et al.*,
222 2018) have revealed elevated rates of putatively harmful mutations in mitochondrial
223 genomes compared to sexual lineages. Absent nuclear compensation for mitochondrial
224 function (*e.g.*, Harrison and Burton, 2006; Osada and Akashi, 2012), we predict

225 mitochondrial genomes carried by asexual lineages will therefore be associated with
226 reduced mitochondrial performance. Evaluating whether these mutations actually result
227 in reduced function will have profound implications for our understanding of the
228 maintenance of sex. Importantly, the strong lake effect observed here means that the
229 effects of reproductive mode and sex on mitochondrial and behavioral function can only
230 be rigorously evaluated with extensive within-lake sampling.

231 Asexuality, and its implications for mitonuclear coevolution are especially
232 relevant considering the invasion success of some asexual *P. antipodarum* lineages.
233 Indeed, invasive lineages of *P. antipodarum* are entirely asexual (Wallace, 1992);
234 however, only a few lineages of asexual *P. antipodarum* have successfully colonized
235 novel environments to become invasive (Stadler *et al.*, 2005; Dybdahl and Drown, 2011;
236 Levri *et al.*, 2017). The extensive but heterogeneous colonization success around the
237 world by *P. antipodarum* therefore suggests that there exists substantial variation for
238 invasive potential among asexual lineages, making this snail model a useful system in
239 which to test hypotheses relating to traits associated with successful invasion (*e.g.*,
240 Dybdahl and Kane, 2005). Notably, the indirect evidence that a particular mitochondrial
241 haplotype is spreading among asexual lineages (haplotype 1A –Paczesniak *et al.*,
242 2013), is particularly intriguing in this context, as it may indicate an association between
243 mitochondrial haplotype and migration in asexual *P. antipodarum*. The relationship
244 between mitochondrial performance and stress documented here and in (Sharbrough *et*
245 *al.*, 2017), combined with the co-transmission of mitonuclear genotypes in asexual
246 lineages outlined above raises the possibility that invasive *P. antipodarum* may exhibit
247 particularly good mitochondrial performance in response to environmental stress.

248 Maternal transmission of mitochondrial genomes precludes inheritance of all
249 mitochondrial mutations originating in males, with two primary consequences: 1) ~50%
250 reduction in N_e relative to a scenario in which cytoplasmic genomes are inherited
251 biparentally, and 2) sexually antagonistic mutations only experience effective natural
252 selection in females (Frank and Hurst, 1996; Gemmell *et al.*, 2004). This latter
253 phenomenon, the so-called “mother’s curse”, is predicted to result in the accumulation
254 of mutations that are neutral or beneficial in females, but deleterious in males (Camus *et*
255 *al.*, 2012). The lack of widespread evidence for mother’s curse (but see Innocenti *et al.*,
256 2011; Patel *et al.*, 2016; Camus and Dowling, 2017) may point to mechanisms that
257 prevent the spread of male-specific deleterious mutations in mitochondrial genomes
258 (e.g., paternal leakage – Kuijper *et al.*, 2015, inbreeding – Wade and Brandvain, 2009,
259 kin selection – Wade and Brandvain, 2009, nuclear-encoded restorers of male function
260 – Delph *et al.*, 2007; Dowling *et al.*, 2007). We found that male *P. antipodarum* have
261 higher mitochondrial membrane potential than females, leading us to speculate that
262 male *P. antipodarum* do not suffer from mother’s curse type mutations that decrease
263 their ability to generate a proton motive force. Importantly, mitochondrial membrane
264 potential depends upon protons pumped by OXPHOS complexes comprised of both
265 nuclear and mitochondrial gene products (*i.e.*, complexes I, III, and IV Hatefi, 1985),
266 meaning that we should expect to detect reduced mitochondrial membrane potentials if
267 male-harming mutations accumulate in *P. antipodarum* mitochondrial genomes. Still,
268 sex-specific optima for mitochondrial membrane potentials make this prediction difficult
269 to evaluate. Asexual *P. antipodarum* occasionally produce males (Neiman *et al.*, 2012),
270 such that nuclear and mitochondrial genomes that have been “trapped” in females for

271 generations are suddenly expressed in a male context. These asexual males are
272 expected to exhibit particularly poor mitochondrial performance because selection
273 against male-harming mutations is completely ineffective in asexual lineages, making
274 them uniquely well suited to evaluate the efficacy of selection against mother's curse in
275 nature.

276

277 **CONCLUSIONS**

278 Our results point toward population-specific mitochondrial and behavioral function that is
279 related to temperature, which has implications for climate change response and
280 colonization success in this globally invasive species. This lake effect necessitates
281 extensive sympatric sampling when comparing mitochondrial function in *P. antipodarum*.
282 Together, our results establish *P. antipodarum* as a model system for evaluating
283 mutational hypotheses for sex *via* comparisons of mitochondrial performance in sexual
284 vs. asexual snails and for evaluating the strength and efficacy of selection against
285 mother's curse in sexual populations.

286 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

287 Oxygen consumption, behavioral, and mitochondrial membrane potential data will be
288 made freely accessible upon acceptance.

289

290 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

291 ESG, JTS contributed to all aspects of study, SF to statistical analyses and manuscript
292 drafting, JLC, MN to concept, statistical design, and manuscript drafting, and JDW, SKH,
293 MRK, JAM, and MRP to data collection and manuscript editing.

294

295 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

296 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

297

298 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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302 collections.

303 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

304 **Figure 1. Physiological responses to heat stress for *P. antipodarum* across**

305 **source lakes. a) Oxygen consumption/hour/gram. b) Righting time. c) Shyness.**

306

307 **Figure 2. Mitochondrial membrane potential in field-collected *P. antipodarum*.**

308 Ratios of red: green fluorescence of JC-1-treated mitochondrial extracts for a) snails

309 from all six New Zealand lakes, b) male vs. female snails from all lakes.

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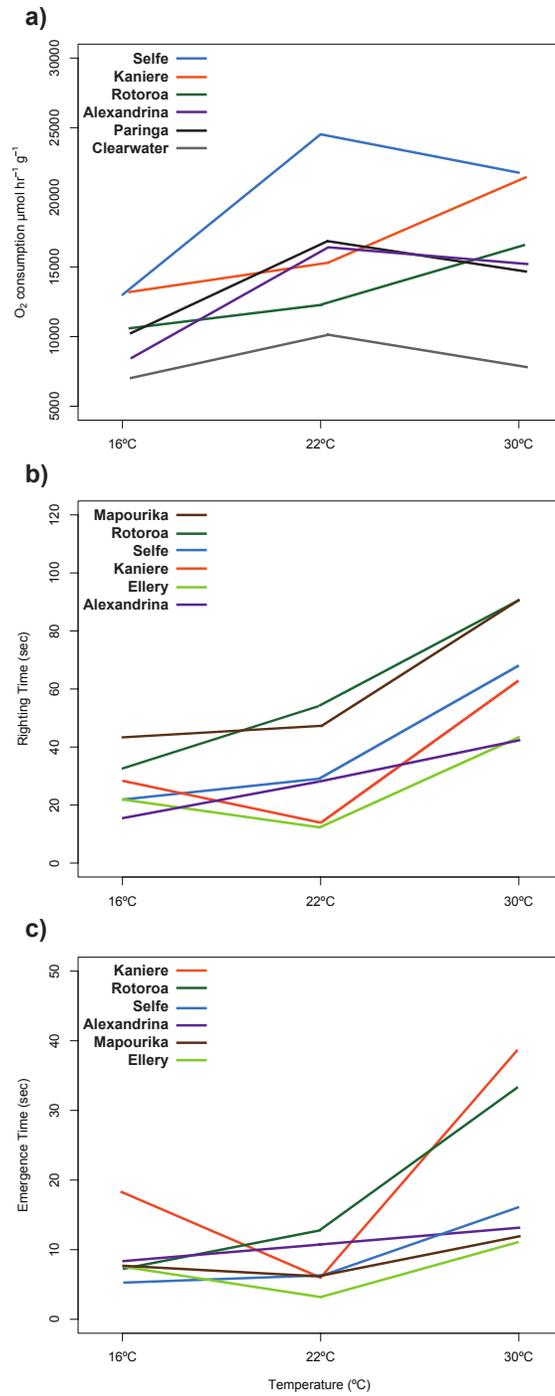
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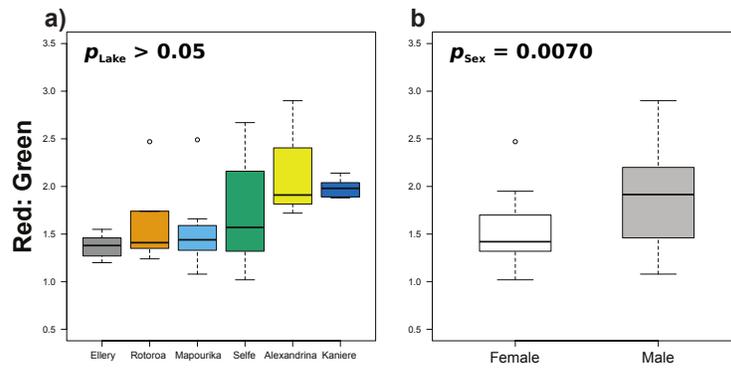


Table 1. Summary of source populations of *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* collected from New Zealand lakes.

Oxygen consumption assay						
Lake	Latitude, Longitude	Sexual	Asexual	Male	Female	
Alexandrina	-43.900476, 170.453978	14	2	-	16	
Clearwater	-43.602131, 171.043917	-	4	-	4	
Kaniere	-42.832886, 171.14759	16	-	-	16	
Paringa	-43.713068, 169.411348	5	-	-	5	
Rotoroa	-41.855414, 172.637882	-	17	-	17	
Selfe	-43.237765, 171.520449	-	3	-	3	

Behavior and mitochondrial membrane potential assays¹						
Lake	Latitude, Longitude	Sexual	Asexual	Male	Female	
Alexandrina	-43.900476, 170.453978	3	-	3	-	
Ellery	-44.046898, 168.654261	2	3	-	5	
Kaniere	-42.832886, 171.14759	5	1	4	2	
Mapourika	-43.315212, 170.204061	8	2	6	4	
Rotoroa	-41.855414, 172.637882	4	1	-	5	
Selfe	-43.237765, 171.520449	9	8	9	8	

¹ – Same individual snails were used in behavioral and mitochondrial membrane potential assays

Table 2. Linear and mixed-effects models of select predictors on oxygen consumption, righting time, shyness, and mitochondrial membrane potential.

Oxygen consumption¹					
Factor	χ^2	df	p	Non-significant predictors⁶	
Intercept ²	2.700	1	0.1004		
Temperature	39.038	2	< 0.0001***	Reproductive Mode	
Mass	11.061	1	0.0009***		
Lake of Origin	15.280	5	0.0092**		
Righting time³					
Factor	χ^2	df	p	Non-significant predictors⁶	
Intercept ²	59.205	1	< 0.0001***		
Temperature	73.661	2	< 0.0001***	Reproductive Mode, Sex	
Lake of Origin	14.020	5	0.0155*		
Shyness⁴					
Factor	χ^2	df	p	Non-significant predictors⁶	
Intercept ²	448.891	1	< 0.0001***	Reproductive Mode, Sex, Lake of Origin	
Temperature	46.646	2	< 0.0001***		
Mitochondrial membrane potential⁵					
Factor	Sum of Squares	df	F	p	Non-significant predictors⁶
Intercept	55.876	1	305.104	< 0.0001***	Reproductive Mode, Lake of Origin
Sex	1.466	1	8.004	0.0070**	
Residuals	8.058	44			

¹ – Type III Repeated-Measures Analysis of Deviance χ^2 Test of O₂ consumption per hour

² – Snail ID was fit as a random intercept

³ – Type III Repeated-Measures Analysis of Deviance χ^2 Test of log-transformed righting times

⁴ – Type III Repeated-Measures Analysis of Deviance χ^2 Test of square-root-transformed shyness

⁵ – Type III Analysis of Variance *F* Test of log-transformed ratios of red: green in mitochondrial extracts

⁶ – Non-significant predictors listed in order of elimination from the model

* – $p < 0.05$

** – $p < 0.01$

*** – $p < 0.001$