1	Fluctuating selection strength and intense male competition underlie variation and
2	exaggeration of a water strider's male weapon
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33 Abstract:

34 Sexually selected traits can reach high degrees of expression and variation under directional 35 selection. A growing number of studies suggest that such selection can vary in space, time 36 and form within and between populations. However, the impact of these fluctuations on 37 sexual trait expression is poorly understood. The water strider *Microvelia longipes* displays a 38 striking case of exaggeration and phenotypic variation where males display extreme 39 differences in the size of their rear legs. To study the origin and maintenance of this 40 exaggerated trait, we conducted comparative behavioral and morphometric experiments in 41 a sample of Microvelia species. We uncovered differences both in the mating behavior and 42 the degree of sexual dimorphism across these species. Interestingly, M. longipes evolved a 43 specific mating behavior where males compete for egg-laying sites, consisting of small 44 floating objects, to intercept and copulate with gravid females. Field observations revealed 45 rapid fluctuation in *M. longipes* habitat stability and the abundance of egg-laying sites. 46 Through male-male competition assays, we demonstrated that male rear legs are used as 47 weapons to dominate egg-laying sites and that intense competition is associated with the evolution of rear leg length exaggeration. Paternity tests using genetic markers 48 49 demonstrated that small males could only fertilize about 5% of the eggs when egg-laying 50 sites are limiting, whereas this proportion increased to about 20% when egg-laying sites 51 become abundant. Furthermore, diet manipulation and artificial selection experiments also showed that the exaggerated leg length in *M. longipes* males is influenced by both genetic 52 53 and nutritional factors. Collectively, our results highlight how fluctuation in the strength of 54 directional sexual selection, through changes in the intensity of male competition, can drive 55 the exaggeration and phenotypic variation in this weapon trait.

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65 Introduction

66 Phenotypic variation is central to the process of evolution [1], and understanding the 67 mechanisms of its emergence and persistence in natural populations remains at the 68 forefront of evolutionary biology studies [2]. Sexually selected traits represent some of the 69 primary examples illustrating both intra- and interspecies phenotypic variation [3, 4]. Males 70 in both vertebrates and invertebrates are known to wield extravagant phenotypes that can 71 differ in their nature, location, size, and shape [3-5]. Examples include deer antlers, beetle 72 horns, eyestalks in some flies, pseudoscorpion antennae and harlequin beetle legs. Some 73 males of these species can develop degrees of trait expression so high that they appear 74 exaggerated compared to other body parts or other homologous structures in the other sex 75 [6]. A central prediction for these exaggerated traits to evolve is that only large individuals 76 can afford to bear them, which can be a good indicator of body size and thus act as an 77 honest signal for male quality [7-9]. Under this prediction, females will favor males with the 78 highest trait expression, thus imposing strong directional selection in favor of trait 79 exaggeration [3, 10]. In other situations, the trait is used as a weapon in male-male 80 competition with its size being a good predictor for the outcome of the contest over access 81 to females [11-14].

82 In these examples, sexual selection is thought to be directional and persistent over 83 time [9, 12, 15]. These traits are also known to be subject to survivorship costs, which 84 constrain their degree of expression resulting in a net stabilizing selection. These 85 observations raise important questions regarding the maintenance of phenotypic variation 86 in natural populations [3, 9, 15-21]. A growing number of studies suggest that selection may 87 not be as consistent over time and space, and that environmental changes may influence the 88 strength, direction, and form of sexual selection [22-26]. These fluctuations in selection may, 89 in turn, favor the elevated plastic response and genetic variation observed in sexual traits, 90 possibly influencing their variation and evolution over time [9, 21-23]. Studies assessing the 91 interplay between selection, genetics and plasticity, within the context of a changing 92 environment are therefore crucial to the general understanding of the origin and 93 maintenance of highly variable exaggerated sexual traits.

Here we focus on a novel model system, the water strider *Microvelia longipes*, that displays a strong sexual dimorphism where males have evolved both longer and more variable rear legs than females [27]. The genus *Microvelia* (Heteroptera, Gerromorpha,

97 Veliidae) comprises some 170 species of small water striders distributed worldwide and 98 occupying various fresh water habitats including temporary rain puddles and stable large 99 water bodies [27]. First we reconstructed phylogenetic relationships of five Microvelia 100 species and compared their degree of dimorphism, scaling relationships between leg and 101 body length, and various aspects of mating behavior. We report a clear association between 102 the intensity of male competition and the evolution of trait exaggeration in *M. longipes* 103 males. We then determined the fitness advantages of these exaggerated legs through 104 fertilization success performed under selective conditions reflecting fluctuations in their 105 natural environment. Finally, we assessed the contribution of the strength of sexual 106 selection, genetic variation, and phenotypic plasticity to the variation of exaggerated rear 107 legs in *M. longipes* males.

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109 **Results and discussion**

110 Sexual Dimorphism and scaling relationships in *Microvelia* species

111 We found a considerable inter-species variation in the degree of sexual dimorphism 112 within the Microvelia genus (Figure 1). Measurements of various body parts revealed 113 dimorphism in average body length, leg length, and the scaling relationship between these 114 two traits (Figure 1B; Supplementary table 1). In some species, such as *M. americana* and *M.* 115 paludicola, the dimorphism in leg and body length is small, whereas in others such as M. 116 longipes, the dimorphism is spectacular (Figure 1A). The extreme leg elongation found in M. 117 longipes males originates from the evolution of hyperallometry where the allometric 118 coefficient is significantly higher than 1 and reaches a value of 3.2 - one of the highest 119 known (Figure 1B; Supplementary table 1) [5, 28]. In contrast, M. longipes females and both sexes of all other species show scaling relationships between leg and body length that are 120 121 isometric or near isometry (Figure 1B; Supplementary table 1). Taking the two traits 122 individually, M. longipes male legs are both significantly longer and more variable than 123 female legs (Figure 2A, B; Supplementary table 1). In contrast, M. longipes body size is 124 significantly more variable in males than in females, but average body length is not 125 significantly different between the sexes (Figure 2A, C; Supplementary table 1). Despite 126 these major differences, both sexes presented leg and body length distributions that were 127 not significantly different from normality (Supplementary table 2).

128 Finally, we found that the males of three *Microvelia* species (*Microvelia sp., M. americana* 129 and *M. paludicola*) evolved prominent spikes on the rear legs indicative of a function in 130 grasping females during pre-mating struggles [29] (Figure 1A). Overall, these analyses 131 indicate that the evolution of hypervariable exaggerated legs in *M. longipes* males results 132 from the high variance in body length and the associated hyperallometric relationship with 133 leg length (Figure 1 and 2). In *M. pulchella*, despite the high variation in male body length, 134 the near isometric relationship between leg and body length makes their legs less 135 exaggerated and less variable than *M. longipes* males (Figure 1B; Supplementary table 1). 136 Moreover, the diversity in sexual dimorphism between *Microvelia* species does not seem to 137 follow any particular phylogenetic pattern (Figure 1), suggesting that variation in the 138 ecology, behavior, or mating systems may play a role in the divergence of the sexes in these 139 species.

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141 Mating systems in *Microvelia* species.

142 We characterized mating systems and sexual interactions in all five species to better 143 understand the differences in sexual dimorphism (Supplementary figure 2). In nature, the 144 *Microvelia* genus comprises species that occupy a wide variety of habitats [27]. Most species 145 live nearshore, in stagnant, large water bodies [27]. Some species, like M. longipes, M. 146 pulchella or Microvelia sp. are gregarious and specialize in small temporary puddles filled 147 with rainwater in tropical South America [27, 30]. Behavioral observations both in the wild 148 and in laboratory-recreated puddles revealed that M. longipes males are highly territorial 149 and tend to aggressively guard floating objects consisting of small twigs or pieces of dead 150 leaves (Supplementary figure 3). These are egg-laying sites where males signal to attract 151 females, by vibrating their rear-legs and pounding with their genitalia on the water surface 152 producing ripples (Supplementary videos 1 and 2). We hereafter refer to these objects as 153 egg-laying floaters. When a female approaches the floater, the dominating male switches 154 from signaling to a courtship behavior. The female inspects the floater and either leaves or 155 mates without any resistance with the courting male and immediately lays 1 to 4 eggs (n=26 156 mating events) (Supplementary figure 3; Supplementary video 2). The male then initiates an 157 aggressive guarding behavior by turning around the egg-laying female and chasing other 158 approaching males to (Supplementary video 2). After egg-laying the female leaves and the 159 male initiates another cycle of signaling on the same floater. During this entire process,

other males constantly challenge the signaling male in an attempt to dominate the floater.
During these contests, the dominant and the challenging male fight back-to-back by kicking
each other with their rear-legs until one of them is chased away (Supplementary video 2).
We also observed that females could lay eggs in the mud at the margin of the puddle and
that males attempt to mate outside floaters by jumping on female's back randomly in the
puddle.

166 M. pulchella, the sister species of M. longipes (Figure 1A), is also found in small 167 temporary puddles [30] and displays a highly similar mating behavior despite the lack of 168 rear-leg exaggeration (Figure 1C). Males of *M. pulchella* compete for egg-laying floaters, 169 fight with their rear-legs, and generate ripples to attract females. Also like M. longipes, 170 females of *M. pulchella* lay their eggs both on floaters and in the mud. In spite of similarities 171 in their mating behavior, these two sister species display significant morphological 172 differences, raising the question as to which factors drove the evolution of trait exaggeration 173 in *M. longipes*.

174 In the three other species, M. americana, M. paludicola, and Microvelia sp., males 175 possess grasping spines on their rear-leg femurs (Figure 1A) and actively harass females in an 176 attempt to mate. Females consistently struggle through vigorous shaking, frequently 177 resulting in the rejection of the male. Males of these three species also fight occasionally but 178 the fights do not seem to result in the dominance of any particular localized resource (Figure 179 1C; Supplementary figure 2). M. americana and M. paludicola females lay eggs exclusively on 180 water margins while females in *Microvelia sp.* lay eggs randomly either on floaters or water 181 margins, but do not do so immediately after mating (Figure 1C; Supplementary figure 2). 182 Altogether, these data show that the behavior, consisting of contests using the rear-legs, 183 predates the origin of exaggerated leg length and could therefore be necessary but not 184 sufficient for its evolution. Moreover, differences in egg-laying habits may have driven the 185 diversity in male mating strategies and sexual dimorphism in the *Microvelia* genus. In small 186 temporary habitats, eggs laid in the mud are at high risk of desiccation when water levels go 187 down, and nymphs tend to drown at hatching when water levels go up, something we 188 frequently observe in laboratory conditions. Egg-laying behavior on floating objects, which 189 remain on the surface despite fluctuating water levels, is likely an adaptation to the fast-190 changing state of the habitat. Interestingly, male behavior consisting of dominating these 191 egg-laying floaters is observed only in species where females lay eggs just after mating,

indicative of the high fitness value in accessing them. This behavior is also associated with

the high body length variation in *M. longipes* and *M. pulchella* males (Figure 1B), suggesting

- a link between body size variation and competition for oviposition sites.
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196 Intensity of male competition in *M. longipes* compared to *M. pulchella*

197 In order to evaluate the contribution of exaggerated leg length to male mating 198 success, we tested whether a correlation existed between male leg length and their ability to 199 dominate egg-laying sites. We found increased rear leg length to be strongly correlated with 200 the fighting outcome (ANOVA, F(1, 13) = 144.6, p < 0.01), where the males with longer legs 201 won 97% of the fights (n= 75 fights) and dominated the floater (Figure 3A). We also observed 202 this male dominance over egg-laying sites in *M. pulchella*, which did not evolve leg 203 exaggeration. We therefore hypothesized that male phenotypic differences between M. 204 longipes and M. pulchella could be driven by differences in the intensity of male 205 competition. When we measured the intensity of male competition in standardized space 206 conditions, we found that *M. longipes* males fought on average 8 times more frequently 207 than M. pulchella males in a period of 1 hour (Figure 3B, Supplementary table 3). This 208 indicates that male competition is significantly higher in *M. longipes* than in *M. pulchella*. 209 More importantly, 81 % of *M. longipes* fights occurred on the floaters (Figure 3B, 210 Supplementary table 3) whereas *M. pulchella* males' fights occurred randomly on and away 211 from floaters (Figure 3B, Supplementary table 3). The same result was reached when we 212 repeated this experiment in standardized density conditions taking into account size 213 differences between the two species (Supplementary table 3). These data demonstrate first 214 that increased rear leg length in *M. longipes* males favors male dominance over egg-laying 215 sites to better intercept gravid females. While both M. longipes and M. pulchella males 216 intercept females and compete on those egg-laying sites, competition intensity for egg-217 laying sites is almost an order of magnitude higher in *M. longipes*. A primary difference 218 between the ecology of these two species is that *M. longipes* specializes in rainwater-filled 219 small puddles while *M. pulchella* is a generalist that can be found in both temporary and 220 more stable water bodies ([31, 32] and personal field observations). This difference in niche 221 specialization has two major impacts on *M. longipes* population structure. First, *M. longipes* 222 populations can reach very high densities confined in a small space, something we observed 223 frequently in the wild and which is not the case for *M. pulchella*. Second, because the water

224 level in the puddle can change rapidly (Supplementary figure 4), floaters represent the safest 225 substrate in terms of survival of the progeny. This may explain why females bounce the 226 floater up and down before they copulate and lay eggs (Supplementary video 2), and why M. 227 longipes males are so aggressive in dominating these floaters. The situation is different for 228 *M. pulchella* due to the higher stability of the habitat, making floaters less critical and the 229 survival of eggs in the mud more likely. These ecological conditions favoring high-density 230 populations and floating objects as the more suitable egg-laying substrate may have at least 231 contributed to the high competitiveness observed in *M. longipes*, and thus acted as a driving 232 force for the evolution of the exaggerated leg length for use as a weapon. Both empirical 233 and theoretical models suggest that population density can influence aggressiveness and the 234 intensity of sexual selection [33], and our data show how increased competitiveness can 235 drive secondary sexual traits to reach dramatic levels of expression.

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237 Effect of exaggerated leg length on male reproductive fitness in *M. longipes*

238 Post-mating competition is widespread in insects [34], including water striders [35-239 38], and can strongly alter the outcome of pre-mating strategies [34, 39]. Field observations 240 also indicate that the state of the habitat occupied by *M. longipes* can fluctuate rapidly and, 241 sometimes, the water can evaporate entirely in days (Supplementary figure 4). Moreover, 242 the amount of egg-laying resources is highly variable from one puddle to another and can 243 additionally fluctuate with water level (personal observations from the field). We 244 hypothesized that these rapidly changing conditions will influence competition and mating 245 success across the distribution of male phenotypes. To test this hypothesis, we conducted 246 paternity tests using *M. longipes* lines that are homozygous for distinct microsatellite 247 markers that can reveal the identity of the parents (see methods for more details). We set 248 the experiment such that heterozygous progeny could only originate from eggs fertilized by 249 small males. Because egg-laying floaters represent the primary resource that males 250 dominate to intercept gravid females, we designed a first treatment where floaters were 251 limiting (3 floater for 6 large and 6 small males) and another treatment where floaters were 252 abundant (20 floaters for 6 large and 6 small males). We also genotyped the progeny from 253 eggs laid in the mud to determine mating success of different male phenotypes in contexts 254 other than the dominance of floaters. In all replicates of each treatment, females laid the 255 majority of their eggs on floaters regardless of whether floaters are limiting (91% of a total

256 of 512 eggs) or abundant (71% of a total of 500 eggs) (Figure 3D). However, females laid on 257 average three times more eggs on the mud when floaters were limiting (Supplementary 258 table 4). In the condition where floaters were limiting, small males fertilized 4.6% (15 eggs 259 of a total of 357 eggs) of the eggs laid on floaters and 25% of the eggs laid in the mud (35 260 eggs of a total of 143 eggs) on average (Figure 3D; Supplementary table 4). Interestingly, the 261 number of eggs sired by small males was more than twice higher in the mud than on floaters 262 (Figure 3D; Supplementary table 4). This suggests that when the dominance of floaters by 263 small males is limited, they primarily achieve egg fertilization by mating outside floaters. In 264 the condition of abundant floaters, the proportion of eggs fertilized by small males on 265 floaters increased significantly to 19% (96 eggs of a total of 468 eggs) (Figure 3D; 266 Supplementary table 4), while that outside floaters remained unchanged (11 eggs of a total 267 of 44 eggs) (Figure 3D; Supplementary table 4). In contrast to the treatment with limiting 268 floaters, here the number of eggs fertilized by small males is almost nine times higher on 269 floaters than in the mud (Figure 3D; Supplementary table 4). These results show that small 270 males can sire significantly more progeny when egg-laying sites are abundant but can also 271 mate outside these egg-laying sites when floaters are limiting. Therefore, sexual selection is 272 strong in favor of large males with long legs but can become relaxed in conditions where 273 egg-laying sites are abundant. Rapid changes in water level and high heterogeneity between 274 puddles are intrinsic to the life history of this species and are expected to cause variation in 275 the amount of accessible egg-laying floaters over time and space. This fluctuating selection is 276 therefore likely to influence the strength of competition and mating success and contribute 277 to the high phenotypic variation found in *M. longipes* natural populations.

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279 Environmental and genetic contributions to male rear leg variation

280 We have shown that possible fluctuation in the strength of sexual selection may 281 favor phenotypic variation, however its impact on the mechanistic underpinnings of 282 phenotypic variation in *M. longipes* males is unknown. We therefore tested how genetic 283 variation and phenotypic plasticity contribute to the maintenance of high variation in M. 284 longipes male leg length. Artificially selected large and small male lines, generated through 285 15 sib-sib successive crosses from a natural population, showed a shifted distribution of 286 male leg length towards the respective extreme phenotypes of the distribution (Figure 4A). 287 The difference between these two lines held for both absolute and relative leg length, but

the allometric coefficient remained, nonetheless, unchanged (Supplementary figure 5;
Supplementary table 5). This shows that genotypic variation contributes to the variation in
both rear leg length and body size.

291 Next, we tested the reaction norm of one of these inbred lines in poor and rich 292 nutritional condition. Despite near identical genotype, individuals reared in poor condition 293 developed shorter legs than individuals reared in rich condition such that the distributions of 294 the two treatments were almost non-overlapping (Figure 4B, Supplementary figure 6; 295 Supplementary table 5). Importantly, this difference in leg length between the two 296 treatments resulted mostly from differences in overall body size (t-test body length: t =297 10.5643, df = 25.274, p-value = 9.244e-11) but not in the scaling relationship as we failed to 298 detect any significant difference in the allometric coefficient or the intercept between rich 299 and poor conditions (Supplementary figure 6; Supplementary table 5). The same result was 300 reached when we tested condition dependence in a laboratory population where no specific 301 selection has been applied, although some statistical tests detected a small but significant 302 difference in intercept between the two conditions (Supplementary figure 7; Supplementary 303 table 5). This difference was nonetheless not significant when using a linear model (ANOVA, 304 F(1,88) = 2.6202, p-value = 0.1076). We therefore conclude that, in *M. longipes*, male body 305 size is highly condition-dependent but the rear legs are not or they are to a small extent 306 after body size correction. Altogether, these results suggest that male leg length variation in 307 nature results from the contribution of both genetic variation and strong condition 308 dependence. The fluctuations in the amount of egg-laying floaters, combined with 309 phenotypic plasticity, is expected to result in the maintenance of a certain degree of genetic 310 variation in the population through the incomplete removal of alleles of small leg and body 311 size. However, episodes of relaxed selection are not only known to increase genetic variation 312 in the population, but also to favor the evolution of reaction norms and therefore increase 313 phenotypic plasticity [40, 41].

314

315 **Conclusions**

This study provides a good example of how various ecological factors influence the intensity of sexual selection and ultimately the mechanisms and patterns of phenotypic variation. In the genus *Microvelia*, mating systems are diverse and are likely to influence the diversification of male-specific secondary sexual traits used in pre-mating copulatory 320 strategies. The intense male competition to dominate egg-laying sites in *M. longipes*, unlike 321 other Microvelia species, underlies the evolution of exaggerated leg length used as a 322 weapon. Dominating males that intercept and copulate with gravid females on egg-laying 323 sites gain a significant increase in their reproductive fitness by siring the majority of the eggs. 324 This intense selection on increased leg length can, however, be relaxed when egg-laying sites 325 are abundant thus allowing small males to fertilize a significant number of eggs. We have 326 also shown that plasticity in response to nutritional condition along with genetic variation 327 both contribute to the high phenotypic variation we observe in body and leg length. It is 328 possible that fluctuating selection, combined with phenotypic plasticity, both facilitate the 329 dramatic increase and maintenance of phenotypic variation in *M. longipes* compared to 330 other Microvelia species. It is also important to note that the fluctuating selection described 331 here (availability of egg-laying floaters) is independent of the individual condition. Therefore 332 its influence on phenotypic variation cannot be the consequence of a pre-existing increase of 333 condition-dependence, as it would be the case for fluctuating selection on food resources 334 for example. Altogether, these results point to two ways in which alleles for small male body 335 and leg size will be maintained in the population. First, because small males can sire a 336 significant number of progeny due to possible episodes of relaxed selection. Second, 337 because males with allelic combinations for low trait expression can develop larger body and 338 leg size if they experience higher nutritional condition during development. Therefore 339 condition dependence causes a non-linear relationship between genotypes and phenotypes, 340 making directional selection less efficient in depleting genetic variation. In their opinion 341 paper, Cornwallis and Uller [23] refer to this process as a "feedback loop between 342 heterogeneity, selection and phenotypic plasticity".

343 The findings outlined here open important research avenues to gain a general 344 understanding of how sexual selection can impact phenotypic evolution. *Microvelia longipes* 345 as a new hemimetabolous insect model with an exaggerated secondary sexual trait offers 346 the opportunity to complete the substantial literature in holometabolous insects such as 347 beetles or various flies [8, 42-45]. Males of many species of water striders employ water 348 surface ripples as mating calls, and it is unknown whether females can deduce the size of the 349 male from the ripple pattern and whether this would influence female choice [27, 46-49]. In 350 addition, the number and the frequency of allelic variants underlying this trait and how they 351 may interact with the environment remains to be tested. The ease of rearing and the relative

352 short generation time make *Microvelia longipes* a powerful future model to study the extent 353 to which genetic variation and environmental stimuli influence gene expression and 354

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ultimately phenotypic variation.

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365 Author contributions: A.K. and W.T. designed research; W.T. performed research; A.K. and 366 W.T. analyzed data; and A.K. and W.T. wrote the paper

367

368 Material & methods

369 Population sampling and culture

370 Microvelia populations were collected during fieldwork in French Guyana in Crique Patate 371 near Cayenne. These populations were maintained at 25°C and 50% humidity. The bugs were 372 fed on either frozen or freshly euthanized crickets. Adults laid eggs on Styrofoam floaters 373 and the hatched nymphs were raised in separate tanks to avoid cannibalism.

374

375 Measurement of Microvelia species and statistics

376 Rear leg and body lengths of all *Microvelia* species were measured with a SteREO Discovery 377 V12 (Zeiss) using the Zen software. All statistical analyses were performed in RStudio 378 0.99.486. Comparisons for mean trait size and trait distributions were performed on raw 379 data whereas log-transformed data were used for scaling relationship comparisons. We used 380 Major-Axis (MA) regression to assess differences in scaling relationships ("smatr" package in 381 R, [50]). Differences in intercepts were estimated using a Wald statistic test and we used 382 Likelihood ratio test for differences in slopes [50].

384 Behavioral observations and video acquisition

Male and female interactions of all *Microvelia* species were observed in a recreated small puddle, using local mud, and were filmed with a Nikon digital camera D7200 with an AF-S micro nikkor 105mm lens. Observations and video acquisitions were taken a couple of hours after the bugs were transferred to the puddle. In *M. longipes* and *M. pulchella* male and female interactions were also observed in the field.

390

391 Microvelia phylogenetic reconstruction

392 The phylogenetic relationships between the five *Microvelia* species used in the behavioral 393 assays was generated using the Geneious software version 7.1.9 using plugins MrBayes 394 version 3.2.6 and PhyML version 3.0, as described in [51]. The phylogenetic reconstruction 395 was performed using 14 molecular markers retrieved from in house transcriptome 396 databases: 12S RNA; 16S RNA; 18S RNA; 28S RNA; Cytochrome Oxydase subunit I (COI); 397 Cytochrome Oxydase subunit II (COII); Cytochrocme Oxydase subunit III (COIII); Cytochrome b 398 (cyt b); Ultrabithorax (Ubx); Sex combs reduced (Scr); Gamma interferon inducible thiol 399 reductase (gilt); Antennapedia (Antp); Distal-less (dll); Doublesex (dsx). All these markers can 400 be retrieved in GenBank using the following accession numbers: (Will be provided before 401 publication). Phylogenetic reconstruction was perfomed using MrBayes version 3.2.6 and 402 PhyML version 3.0 in Geneious 7.1.9 as described in [52]. Concatenation of sequence 403 alignments and phylogenetic tree in Newick format are also available in the Dryad Digital 404 Repository.

405

406 Fight frequency assay

407 To compare the number of fights between males of *M. longipes* and *M. pulchella*, we 408 isolated twenty-five adult males and females over a period of two days. Both sexes were 409 then mixed together in the puddle during 30 minutes before observation. The number of 410 fights on and outside floaters was counted for a period of one hour. We repeated the 411 experiment the following day with the same males and females kept mixed together 412 overnight. Finally, in order to account for population density, because of size differences 413 between the two species, we calculated the number of fights in a reduced sample of ten 414 males and ten females in *M. longipes*.

416 Artificial selection experiment, phenotyping and line sequencing

We assessed the genetic contribution of rear leg length variation in males by performing an artificial selection experiment for long versus short-legged males. Individual males from the French Guyana natural population were selected for their absolute rear leg sizes and mated with random females to initiate the successive sib-sib crosses. After fifteen generations of sib-sib inbreeding, two populations selected for extreme phenotypes were amplified over two generations before phenotyping.

423

424 *Condition-dependence experiment*

425 First instar nymphs were collected just after hatching and individuals were reared attributed 426 in either poor or rich nutritional condition. In the poor condition, hundred first instar 427 nymphs of the long-legged inbred line were fed everyday with ten crickets during the first 428 two nymphal instars, followed by only three cricket legs until adulthood. In the rich 429 condition fifty individuals of the same line were fed with ten crickets, changed everyday, 430 over their entire nymphal development until adulthood. In a second experiment we tested 431 the effect of condition in an independent set of individuals from the lab population. This 432 experiment was performed on three replicates per condition, with fifty individuals per 433 condition. Replicates were then pooled for the analysis. We started the poor condition by 434 feeding the first two nymphal instars with height crickets everyday and then switched to one 435 small cricket every two days until they reached adulthood. Individuals from the rich 436 condition were fed during their entire nymphal development with eight crickets everyday.

437

438 Microsatellite development

DNA from *M. longipes* was extracted from ten male and female individuals from the lab population. Insects were first frozen in liquid nitrogen before DNA extraction with the Genomic DNA Buffer Set kit from Qiagen. We used 12µg of DNA for sequencing on an lon-Torrent Sequencer machine (Sequencing Plateform IGFL, Lyon, France) generating 3.7M reads with median size of 317 bp.

We used the program Exact Tandem Repeat Analyzer 1.0 (available from
<u>ftp://ftp.akdeniz.edu.tr/</u>) in order to identify reads containing microsatellite repeats [53].
The software also provided primers for microsatellite amplification (Supplementary table 6).
Forty-seven markers of various tandem repeats were tested by PCR and forty of them were

successfully amplified from an aliquot of the genomic extraction used for the Ion-Torrent sequencing (Supplementary table 7). We also tested the same pairs of primers on DNA extraction from single individuals of the stock population (Supplementary table 7), as described in [54].

452

453 In order to identify polymorphic microsatellites, we first performed PCRs of these forty 454 markers on fifteen individuals from the lab population and sent these samples for 455 genotyping (Genoscreen, Lille, France). We considered polymorphic, any marker that was 456 showing at least two genotypes in at least two individuals. Nine polymorphic reliable 457 markers could be identified, among which one of them (microsatellite 21, see 458 Supplementary table 6) was showing a polymorphism between our two lines of interest. This 459 microsatellite was genotyped in seven males and seven females from each line to confirm 460 the polymorphism prior to the paternity test experiment.

461

462 Paternity test

463 To assess the fertilization success of long and short-legged males, we collected six males 464 from both the short- and the long-legged inbred lines, and put them together in an artificial 465 puddle with twelve females from the long-legged inbred line. We conducted two 466 treatments, each with four replicates, where we provided twenty or three floaters in the 467 puddle to create conditions with abundant and limiting egg-laying sites, respectively. On day 468 3, the parents were collected, their DNA extracted and the microsatellite of interest 469 amplified for genotyping. We then isolated the floaters and genotyped the nymphs that 470 hatched from the floaters and those that hatched from the mud after adults and floaters 471 were removed.

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660 Figure 1: Diversity in leg sexual dimorphism and mating behaviours in *Microvelia*. A) 661 Phylogenetic relationships between five Microvelia species using Maximum Likelihood and 662 Bayesian analyses. Support values obtained after Bayesian posterior probabilities and 1000 663 bootstrap replicates, respectively, are shown for all branches. Pictures of males (right) and 664 females (left) illustrate divergence in sexual dimorphism in the five Microvelia species. Scale 665 bar represents 1mm. B) Scaling relationships of log-transformed data between rear legs and 666 body lengths were estimated in males (blue) and females (red) of the five *Microvelia* species 667 using Major Axis regressions. The equations and fitting (R-squared) of the linear regressions 668 in males and females were indicated using the same colour codes. C) Behavioural characters 669 describing the mating system of the five *Microvelia* species. These characters were mapped 670 onto the phylogeny based upon the parsimony criterion.



Figure 2: Phenotypic variation of rear leg exaggeration and body length in *M. longipes*. A)
 Phenotypic variation of rear leg length in males and in a female. (B) Rear leg length and (C)
 body length distributions of males (white) and females (grey) from a natural population
 collected in French Guyana.

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725 Figure 3: Selective pressures and reproductive fitness of leg exaggeration in M. longipes 726 males. A) Relationships between fighting outcome and male rear leg length. Winners 727 correspond to males keeping the access to the egg-laying sites after the fights. Solid line 728 represents a fitted linear regression model, B) Frequency of fights between M. longipes and 729 M. pulchella on both floaters and outside floaters, C) Fertlization success of large and small 730 males and the contribution of egg-laying sites. Heterozygous eggs result from the siring of 731 short-legged males (short-legs selected line) and females (long-legs selected line). 732 Homozygous eggs result from the siring of long-legged males (long-legs selected line) and 733 females (long-legs selected line). The table summarizes an ANOVA test recapitulating the 734 influence of the floaters and the egg-laying locations on the egg genotypes.



Figure 4: Environmental and genetic contributions to rear leg length variation in males *M. longipes.* A) Rear leg length distributions of adult males from natural population (white) and from an inbred line that developed under poor (light grey) and rich (dark grey) conditions. B) Rear leg length distributions of adult males from natural population (white) and from two inbred lines that were selected for short (light grey) or long (dark grey) rear legs under rich condition. Normal curves were fitted to each distribution after testing for normality of each condition.

757	Supplementary figure 1: Comparative morphology of the legs across Microvelia species
758	sample in figure 1. Note the presence of grasping traits on male legs in Microvelia
759	americana, Microvelia paludicola and Microvelia sp. These traits are absent in Microvelia
760	longipes and Microvelia pulchella.
761	
762	Supplementary figure 2: Schematic summary representation of the mating systems in the
763	five <i>Microvelia</i> species
764	
765	Supplementary figure 3: M. longipes natural habitat. Top panel: Example of rain-filled
766	puddle in French Guyana in Crique Patate near Cayenne where <i>M. longipes</i> population was
767	collected. Middle panel: Zoom on the floating substrates deposited on the water surface of
768	the puddle. Bottom panel: Example of floater full of <i>M. longipes</i> eggs. Scale bar represents
769	5mm.
770	
771	Supplementary figure 4: Fluctuating environment. Pictures of a rain-filled puddle, over a
772	five-day period, in Rio de Janeiro where a <i>M. longipes</i> natural population was found.
773	
774	Supplementary figure 5: Artificial selection effects on body-leg scaling relationships. Static
775	allometry on log-transformed data between rear leg and body lengths for adult individuals
776	selected for long (black) and short-legged (grey) males.
777	
778	Supplementary figure 6: Nutrition effects on body-leg scaling relationships in the long-
779	legged inbred line. Static allometry on log-transformed data between rear leg and body
780	lengths for inbred adult individuals fed on rich (black) and poor (grey) diets.
781	
782	Supplementary figure 7: Nutrition effects on body-leg scaling relationships in the lab
783	population. Static allometry on log-transformed data between rear leg and body lengths for
784	unselected adult individuals fed on rich (black) and poor (grey) diets.
785	
786	Supplementary table 1: Morphometric data and associated statistical tests. Summary
787	table of the adult measurements and statistical tests for all <i>Microvelia</i> species.
788	

789	Supplementary table 2: normality tests: Tests for normal distribution in all M. longipes
790	conditions. Values of Shapiro tests and associated p-values for each M. longipes adult
791	population reared in different condition.
792	
793	Supplementary table 3: Fight frequency between <i>M. longipes</i> and <i>M. pulchella</i> males.
794	Summary table of the number of fights in <i>M. longipes</i> and <i>M. pulchella</i> males in different
795	conditions for a period of one hour. Below are the associated statistical tests for differences
796	in fight frequency.
797	
798	Supplementary table 4: Count and genotype of the total number of eggs laid by females in
799	each condition.
800	
801	Supplementary table 5: Statistical tests associated with differences in leg length and scaling
802	relationships between artificially selected and nutritionally manipulated M. longipes
803	populations.
804	
805	Supplementary table 6 : Table containing the primer sequences, the full sequence, the
806	motif and the length of each tested microsatellite.
807	
808	Supplementary table 7: Table PCR protocols for microsatellite amplifications and single
809	individual genotyping.
810	
811	Supplementary video 1: <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion.
811 812	Supplementary video 1 : <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion.
811 812 813	Supplementary video 1: <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion. Supplementary video 2: <i>M. longipes</i> mating system.
811 812 813 814	Supplementary video 1: <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion. Supplementary video 2: <i>M. longipes</i> mating system.
 811 812 813 814 815 814 	Supplementary video 1: <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion. Supplementary video 2: <i>M. longipes</i> mating system.
 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 	Supplementary video 1: <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion. Supplementary video 2: <i>M. longipes</i> mating system.
 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 818 	Supplementary video 1: <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion. Supplementary video 2: <i>M. longipes</i> mating system.
 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 818 819 820 	Supplementary video 1: <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion. Supplementary video 2: <i>M. longipes</i> mating system.
 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 818 819 820 821 	Supplementary video 1: <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion. Supplementary video 2: <i>M. longipes</i> mating system.
 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 818 819 820 821 822 	Supplementary video 1: <i>M. longipes</i> male vibrations in slow motion. Supplementary video 2: <i>M. longipes</i> mating system.