1 Title: The relationship of body condition, superoxide dismutase and superoxide with sperm
2 performance
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Running headline: Body condition, oxidative status and sperm performance

Lay summary

Damage-inducing reactive oxygen species (ROS) are a by-product of oxygen-based energy

production that are quenched by energetically expensive antioxidants. Male sexual colouration

requires investment of energy and resources, which may constrain allocation to other functions like

antioxidant production or spermatogenesis. Here we explored whether the body condition of

colourful male lizards reflected their investment in antioxidants and reduction of ROS, which may

influence sperm performance. We found that drab males in better condition had more antioxidants.

Colourful males had lower levels of antioxidants and their sperm performed poorly at higher ROS

levels. These results suggest a trade-off between colour maintenance and sperm performance.

Abstract

Sperm competition theory predicts a negative correlation between somatic investment in traits that

aid in pre- and postcopulatory sexual selection. Sperm performance is critical for postcopulatory

success but are susceptible to damage by free radicals such as superoxide radicals generated during

mitochondrial respiration (mtSOx). Males can ameliorate damage to spermatozoa by investing in the

production of antioxidants, like superoxide dismutase (SOD), which may act as a mechanistic link for

pre and postcopulatory trade-offs. Some male Australian, colour-polymorphic painted dragon lizards

(*Ctenophorus pictus*) possess a yellow throat patch (bib) that females prefer over non-bibbed males

and are also more likely to win male-male contests indicating that males with bibs are better at

monopolizing females. We tested whether the sperm performance in non-bibbed males was

superior to that of bibbed males as predicted by sperm competition theory. We show that blood cell

mtSOx levels are negatively correlated with SOD activity in the plasma in all males early in the

breeding season but SOD was lower in bibbed males. Non-bibbed males maintain a positive

correlation between body condition and SOD activity over time while bibbed males do not. Overall

sperm performance was not different between the bib-morphs, however, higher mtSOx levels were

negatively correlated with sperm performance in bibbed males, but not of non-bibbed males.

Together these data suggest physiological associations between body condition, SOD activity and

sperm performance are linked to the expression of a yellow gular patch, which may be related to

intrinsic differences in metabolism of bibbed versus non-bibbed males.

Keywords

Sperm performance, oxidative stress, polymorphism, body condition, condition dependence, lizard

Introduction

Theoretical models of ejaculate investment under sperm competition predict an allocation

trade-off between pre- and postcopulatory traits generating a negative correlation between these

two types of traits (Parker, 1970; Parker et al., 2013; Parker and Pizzari, 2010; Tazzyman et al., 2009).

Among individuals of the same species, nutritional resources and energy allocation—quality or

condition—is especially likely to mediate pre- and postcopulatory trade-offs (Tuni et al., 2018).

Indeed, empirical results that indicate investment in precopulatory traits are often negatively

correlated with testes size, predominantly in species where males are able to monopolise females

(Dines et al., 2015; Dunn et al., 2015; Fitzpatrick et al., 2012; Kahrl et al., 2016; Lüpold et al., 2014;

Simmons and Emlen, 2006). However, in addition to size, other testicular adaptations may also be

important for postcopulatory sexual selection (Ramm and Schärer, 2014).

A critical function of the testis is to protect sperm from oxidative damage during

spermatogenesis and subsequent storage (Aitken and Roman, 2008; Ko et al., 2014; Ramm and

Schärer, 2014). Oxidative damage of functionally critical macromolecules (membrane lipids, cellular

proteins, and DNA) by reactive oxygen species (ROS) adversely affects whole organism physiological

performance, health and lifespan (Finkel and Holbrook, 2000). ROS are free radicals naturally and

principally produced in mitochondria during oxidation-reduction reactions occurring in the electron

transport chain (ETC) during oxidative-phosphorylation generating ATP and therefore tightly linked

to energy production (Murphy, 2009; Turrens, 2003). Spermatozoa are particularly vulnerable to

oxidative damage because their membranes are composed of a high proportion of easily oxidized

polyunsaturated fatty acids (Sanocka and Kurpisz, 2004). Therefore, selection on energetically

expensive mechanisms to reduce oxidative damage is important both for life-history evolution and

sexually selected traits, potentially generating condition dependent soma-germline trade-offs

(Dowling and Simmons, 2009; Metcalfe and Alonso-Alvarez, 2010; Monaghan et al., 2009; von

Schantz et al., 1999).

As they are terminally differentiated and transcriptionally inactive with limited antioxidant

defenses, spermatozoa have limited capacity to repair molecular damage (Tremellen, 2008).

Consequently, ROS production and damage are self-perpetuating in spermatozoa leading to reduced

sperm function, velocity and percent of progressively motile sperm, all of which are strongly

associated with male infertility in humans (Aitken et al., 1989; Aitken and Graves, 2002; Koppers et

al., 2008; Tremellen, 2008). Intuitively, sperm performance is conjoined with male reproductive

success so oxidative stress at the organismal level should have important implications in

postcopulatory sexual selection (Firman and Simmons, 2010; Fitzpatrick and Lupold, 2014; Møller,

1988; Simmons and Fitzpatrick, 2012). Sperm competition puts males in a double bind. The

production of more sperm requires increased metabolic activity in the testes (Gomendio et al., 2011;

Parapanov et al., 2008; Tourmente et al., 2011), which may then be accompanied by a concomitant

increase in ROS production and adaptations to ameliorate the associated costs (delBarco-Trillo and

Roldan, 2014; Ribou and Reinhardt, 2012). Even in species with relatively short-term sperm storage

and with limited opportunity for sperm competition, such as humans (Simmons et al., 2004; van der

Horst and Maree, 2014), oxidative damage strongly influences sperm performance and male

reproductive success (Aitken et al., 2014). Allocating resources for protecting sperm from oxidative

damage to maintain high sperm performance is even more vital in the context of sperm competition

(Dowling and Simmons, 2009).

Protection from and repairing damage caused by ROS during spermatogenesis is potentially

costly and may be condition dependent (Costantini, 2008, 2014; Monaghan and Costantini, 2014).

There is increasing evidence of the conditional dependence of sperm production (e.g. numbers and

morphology Dávila and Aron, 2017; Kahrl and Cox, 2015) and sperm velocity, motility and

fertilization success (Mitre et al., 2004; Rakitin et al., 1999). Male condition dependence of oxidative

status affects sperm quality, and there is increasing evidence that male colouration reflects

antioxidant status (Helfenstein et al., 2010; reviewed in, Svensson and Wong, 2011; von Schantz et

al., 1999) and studies indicate colouration and sperm quality can be correlated (Locatello et al.,

2006; Peters et al., 2004; Pitcher et al., 2007; Rowe et al., 2010). For example, Helfenstein et al.

(2010) showed that male great tits (*Parus major*) with paler carotenoid-based breast plumage

subjected to experimentally elevated workloads had higher lipid peroxidation (an indicator of

oxidative damage) as well as reduced sperm motility and 'swimming ability'; these effects were

ameliorated with supplementation of dietary carotenoid antioxidants. Age-related declines in the

innate antioxidant capacity of red junglefowl (*Gallus gallus*), was associated with an increase in

oxidative damage, and a decline in sperm quality (Noguera et al., 2012). Decreased endogenous

antioxidant expression translates to lower sperm competitiveness as Garratt et al. (2013) show that

mice deficient in the endogenous antioxidate superoxide dismutase (SOD) had no fertilization

success in sperm competition trials. Thus, the role of oxidative stress in sperm performance and/or

fertilization success *in vivo*, preferably in wild populations, merits attention (Dowling and Simmons,

2009). Such analyses would be particularly interesting in intraspecific studies on males with

divergent reproductive strategies characterized by trade-offs between pre- and postcopulatory

sexually selected traits (Lüpold et al., 2014).

Colour-polymorphic species can be a useful tool in determining the selective forces that

drive sexually selected trait expression in wild populations. Heritable colour morphs often have

divergent behaviours and physiology, with associated differences in reproductive tactics in animals

with an otherwise common genetic background (Healey et al., 2007; Huxley, 1955; Olsson et al.,

2007b; Olsson et al., 2009a; Pryke et al., 2007; Pryke and Griffith, 2006; Sinervo and Lively, 1996;

reviewed in Wellenreuther et al., 2014).

Here we assess the relationship between an important mitochondrial ROS—antioxidant pair,

a measure of resources (body condition: BCI) and sperm performance in a wild colour-polymorphic

lizard, the Australian painted dragon (*Ctenophorus pictus*). Primary ROS production in mitochondria

usually begins with the single reduction of molecular oxygen (O_2) to form superoxide ($O^{\bullet-}$), which is

the rate limiting step in the subsequent damaging cascade of ROS production (Andreyev et al., 2015;

Turrens, 2003). On its own, superoxide is a relatively weak oxidizer of macromolecules; however,

superoxide reduces iron (Fe^{2+}) which may then catalyse the disproportionation of hydrogen peroxide

(H_2O_2) to produce the hydroxyl radical ($^{\bullet}OH$), which is the strongest oxidizing agent in biological

systems (Fridovich, 1995; Turrens, 2003) . Superoxide that is not quenched readily exits cell-

membranes with high concentrations of anion channels, such as erythrocytes (Fridovich, 1995; Lynch

and Fridovich, 1978). So we will focus on superoxide and its elimination by the action of an

endogenous enzyme, superoxide dismutase (SOD), which, at sufficiently high concentrations,

eradicates O^{-} at the rate of diffusion (Fridovich, 1995; Turrens, 2003). Thus, although there are other

important endogenous antioxidants (e.g., catalase and various isoforms of glutathione peroxidase),

the balance between superoxide and SOD is a significant mediator of incipient oxidative stress

during energy (ATP) production.

Oxidative stress and sexual selection biology of painted dragons have been the subject of

extensive investigations. For example, aggressive colour-morphs have higher testosterone (T), and

superoxide levels than less aggressive males that tend to have lower T (Olsson et al., 2007a; Olsson

et al., 2009c). Although colour is in part carotenoid-based, a potential exogenous antioxidant,

dietary manipulation of carotenoids does not mediate a relationship between superoxide and bright

colouration (Olsson et al., 2008a). However, experimental reduction of superoxide levels using

exogenous doses of the SOD mimetic, EUK 134, does reduce colour fading over the breeding season

(Olsson et al., 2012b). Males in better body condition (residuals of mass-length regression) have

enhanced morph-specific colour maintenance despite higher net ROS levels (Friesen et al., 2017b)

indicating that investment in endogenous antioxidants, such as SOD, may be condition-dependent.

Furthermore, baseline superoxide level varies among individuals and is heritable (Olsson et al.,

2008b), but whether this is due to reduced production of ROS or increase quenching of ROS by

endogenous antioxidants in unknown. Collectively these studies suggest that there are evolutionarily

important links between body condition, SOD and superoxide levels, and sexual colouration in

painted dragons.

In this paper we exploit natural variation in a colour trait, the presence or absence of a

yellow gular patch (henceforth, bib **Figure 1**), which is an important, but costly, sexually selected

colour-trait in painted dragons. Bibbed male painted dragons experience greater declines in body

condition in the wild than non-bibbed males (Healey and Olsson, 2009a; Olsson et al., 2009a). Males

with bibs also have greater telomere attrition (Rollings et al., 2017) and higher resting metabolic rate

through the breeding season than non-bibbed males (Friesen et al., 2017a). These costs of bearing a

bib, must come with potential fitness benefits to explain the trait's persistence in the population.

Indeed, bibbed males are more attractive to females in staged preference trials and more likely to

win male-male competition trials when pitted against non-bibbed rivals indicating there is a

precopulatory mating advantage for bibbed males (McDiarmid et al., 2017b). Bibbed males are less

likely than non-bibbed males to lose paternity to neighbouring males in the wild (Healey and Olsson,

2009a; Olsson et al., 2009a), which may be due to efficient mate monopolization. McDiarmid et al.

(2017b), hypothesized that this precopulatory advantage of bibbed males would relax

postcopulatory selection on sperm performance, however sperm motility and velocity did not differ

between bibbed and non-bibbed males. McDiarmid et al. (2017b) did not measure superoxide or

SOD. We make three straightforward predictions: 1) SOD and superoxide level should be negatively

correlated, 2) sperm performance and superoxide levels should be negatively correlated, and 3) if

SOD is indeed costly, body condition should be positively correlated with SOD levels. Finally, if

bibbed males face a resource allocation trade-off, then bibbed males should have lower sperm

performance after accounting for SOD and body condition than non-bibbed males.

Methods

Animal collection/housing and mating trials

The Australian painted dragon (*Ctenophorus pictus*, Peters 1866) is a small (adult: mass 8 – 18 g;

snout-to-vent length [SVL] 55-75mm) agamid lizard native to arid parts of central New South Wales

to Western Australia (Cogger, 2014). All research was conducted with the approval of the University

of Sydney Animal Ethics Committee Project Number: 2013-2016/6050 and were collected under

NSW National Parks and Wildlife Service Scientific licence number SL100352. Lizards were caught at

Yathong Nature Reserve, in western New South Wales (145°35'; 32°35') and were brought back to

holding facilities at the University of Sydney (14, October: N = 40 females; N = 56 males; 20 bibbed

and 36 non-bibbed males). The animals were sampled at random at the study site and, hence,

approximately represent natural frequencies in the wild at the time. Males were kept individually in

tanks (60 × 60 × 50cm) on a 12:12 h (light: dark) light regime with a basking light for

thermoregulation. They were watered daily, and fed crickets and mealworms to satiation every

second day.

After a three-week acclimation period, we conducted mating trials on five different days in

the period between 6-Nov.-4 Dec (5-8 matings per day). This period corresponds with the middle

third of the breeding season in the wild (late September-late December). We obtained 5-8 matings

on any given day which allowed for timely processing of both sperm and blood samples with minimal

temporal separation between them. Each male was observed continuously after the introduction of

a receptive female to his own cage. Males usually mated within 10 minutes of the female's

introduction, and trials were terminated if mating did not occur after 1 hour. Only those males that

mated were included in this study (N = 31 of 56 males mated; 12 bibbed and 19 non-bibbed males).

Although not all males mated, the ratio of bibbed/non-bibbed males was the same as those brought

back to the lab ($X^2_{df\,1}$ = 0.077, P = 0.781). Females were used only once during the receptive phase of

their 3 week reproductive cycle (Olsson et al., 2009b).

Subsequent to copulation, semen was collected from the female's cloaca by pulling the

ejaculate into a 1 mL syringe (Olsson, 2001) preloaded with 100 μL Hams F-10 medium (Cat # 99175,

Irvine Scientific, Santa Ana, CA, USA; 21 mM HEPES buffer, 4 mM sodium bicarbonate, 1 mM calcium

lactate, 0.5 mM magnesium sulfate, 5 mg mL−1 (0.5%) human albumin; e.g., (Friesen et al., 2013;

Friesen et al., 2014; Mattson et al., 2007; McDiarmid et al., 2017b). Sperm samples were kept at

35±1 °C in an incubator until they were analysed using computer-assisted sperm analysis (CASA, see

below) ≤ 30 minutes after collection; 35 °C is the preferred body temperature of this species

(Melville and Schulte II, 2001). A pilot study (N = 6) showed no significant decline in sperm motility or

velocity after 60 minutes, and was verified in the full data set presented in this paper (see results

below). We collected a blood sample in a capillary tube from a vessel in the corner of the mouth,

the *vena angularis*, after it was gently punctured with the tip of an 18 ga syringe needle. Each blood

sample was taken within 5 min of semen collection for mitochondria superoxide and plasma

superoxide dismutase analysis (below). Body mass and SVL were recorded the same day as mating

trials.

Sperm performance—Computer aided sperm analysis (CASA)

The ejaculate was diluted to 1×10^6 / mL with Hams F-10 medium and slowly pipetted (10.0 μL) into

the chamber of a pre-warmed sperm analysis slide (Hamilton-Thorne 2X-CEL®; Beverly, MA, USA;

warmed to 35 °C on a slide warmer). Sperm were examined using CASA at a frame rate set to 60 hz

(Hamilton-Thorne, IVOS-II; Beverly, MA, USA). Sperm motility was determined for a minimum of 300

sperm per individual. In pilot work, we found it impossible to eliminate all particulates from the

ejaculate without negatively affecting sperm motility with excessive washing. Therefore, we

modified CASA factory settings to classify sperm as motile only if its velocity was ≥5 μm/s with no

constraints on path straightness. In addition, we visually inspected each sperm track to verify that

only sperm were included in the analysis and to confirm accurate tracking of multiple sperm with

intersecting paths at the time of analysis. In addition to providing proportion of motile sperm (MOT),

we used the following standard average measures of sperm kinematics data generated by CASA for

each sample for PCA analysis (see "statistics" below): straight-line velocity (VSL), curvilinear velocity

(VCL), average path velocity (VAP), amplitude of lateral head displacement (ALH), beat cross

frequency (BCF), linearity of movement (LIN), and proportion of progressively motile sperm (PMOT).

Progressively motile sperm (i.e., sperm that were 'going somewhere' and not merely convulsing or

turning in place) were defined as sperm with an average path velocity (VAP) of ≥50μm/s and a

straightness index (STR) of 70% (VSL/VAP ≥70%).

Mitochondrial Superoxide—Flow-cytometry fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS)

We followed previously published protocols for measuring mitochondrial superoxide (Ballen et al.,

2012; Friesen et al., 2017b; Giraudeau et al., 2016). Briefly, an aliquot of a single sample of whole

peripheral blood (10 µl) was diluted immediately with 9 volumes of phosphate buffered saline (PBS;

137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 1.5 mM KH2PO4, 8 mM Na2HPO4, pH 7.4) and stored on ice prior to

FACS analyses that were completed within 2 hours of sampling. The remainder of the blood sample

was kept on ice until centrifugation for plasma collection and subsequence storage at -80°C (3 hours

after blood sampling) for later quantification of SOD. Prior to staining blood cells for mt-superoxide,

the diluted blood was further diluted 50-fold in PBS and then centrifuged (300 g for 5 min) to pellet

blood cells. Cells were resuspended in 100 µl of PBS containing 5 µM MitoSOX Red (MR; Molecular

Probes, Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Sydney, Australia). MR was added from stock solutions in

dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO); the final concentration of DMSO was 0.2% (v/v) or less. Cells were

subsequently incubated at 35 °C for 30 min then washed with PBS by centrifugation as described

above and held on ice until analysed by flow cytometry; 50,000 events (cells) were acquired for all

samples. Flow cytometry was performed using an Accuri C6 flow cytometer (BD Accuri Cytometers,

Ann Arbor, MI, USA) with excitation at 488 nm and emitted fluorescence collected using band pass

filters of 575 ± 13 nm. Data were acquired and analysed using BD Accuri C6 Software. On the basis of

forward angle laser scatter and side angle laser scatter, a number of blood cell populations were

discerned; the results obtained were similar for all these populations. For each sample, the

arithmetic mean fluorescence for all 50,000 cells acquired was determined using Accuri C6 software

and used to compare between samples and treatments. (A pilot experiment determined that the

particulate matter in the semen samples precluded measurement of mitochondrial superoxide

production in sperm with flow cytometry).

Superoxide dismutase activity

We followed the same protocol described previously in this species (Olsson et al., 2012a; Olsson et

al., 2012b) that assayed SOD in blood plasma samples collected within five minutes of semen

collection. Briefly, we used the Superoxide Dismutase Assay Kit II (catalogue no. 574601,

Calbiochem, supplied by Merck Pty Ltd., Victoria, Australia). This kit is designed to generate

superoxide radicals with xanthine oxidase and hypoxanthine. The superoxide radicals are dismutated

by SOD in the plasma sample to molecular oxygen and hydrogen peroxide and detected by

tetrazolium salt. This SOD assay measures all three types of SOD (Cu/Zn-, Mn- and Fe-SOD).

Absorbance measurements were taken using a microplate reader (Pherastar®FSX, BMG Labtech,

Mornington, Victoria, Australia). The optimal plasma sample dilution was determined to be a factor

of 48 in previous studies (Olsson et al., 2012b), indicating that SOD is abundant in the plasma of this

species. Standards and samples were run in duplicate and were placed randomly on the plates for

intra-assay precision. The intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) between two samples from the

same individual was ICC = 0.880, P < 0.001. One unit of SOD activity is defined as the amount of

enzyme needed to exhibit 50 % dismutation of the superoxide radical to hydrogen peroxide.

Statistical analysis

Data preparation

We calculated body condition (BCI) as the standardized residuals (mean = 0; standard deviation =1)

from linear regressions of ln(body mass) as a function of ln(SVL) in all males, not just those that

mated (Olsson et al., 2009a).

After inspection of normal Q-Q plots and the failure of Shaprio-Wilk tests of normality, mean

fluorescence values of mitochondrial superoxide (henceforth "mtSOx": W = 0.858, P < 0.001) and

superoxide dismutase activity (SOD: W = 0.883, P = 0.003) were ln-transformed to improve normality

(ln(mtSOx): W = 0.961, P = 0.317; ln(SOD): W = 0.993, P = 0.999) and reduce heteroscedasticity.

Hereafter, mtSOx and SOD refer to these transformed variables unless otherwise stated.

A priori, we wanted to assess proportions of motile (MOT) and progressively motile (PMOT)

sperm. MOT is one of the most commonly reported sperm performance parameters while PMOT is a

useful holistic indicator of efficient mitochondrial function, membrane integrity and fertilization

success in most species studied to date, including for example, humans, horses, ram, rabbit and

poultry (De Graaf et al., 2006; Froman and Feltmann, 2000; Froman and Kirby, 2005; Johinke et al.,

2014; Quintero-Moreno et al., 2003; Rickard et al., 2014; Simon and Lewis, 2011). PMOT captures

both velocity and path straightness and also scales to the relative population size of progressively

motile sperm in the ejaculate. However, it is unclear how these two variables and the other six

kinematic parameters generated by CASA are related.

Initial data exploration with Q-Q plots indicated MOT and PMOT were normally distributed,

which was also confirmed using Shaprio-Wilk tests of normality (MOT: $W = 0.946$, $P = 0.123$; PMOT:

$W = 0.976$, $P = 0.684$). Furthermore, MOT, VSL, VCL, VAP, ALH, BCF, LIN, and PMOT were correlated

($|r|$ range: 0.276-0.973). Rather than run multiple separate analyses with each sperm kinematics

parameter, following Helfenstein et al. (2010), we chose to reduce these eight dimensions into one

variable using principle component analysis with varimax orthogonal rotation. The first axis (PC1),

which we call "sperm performance" and Helfenstein et al. (2010a) call "swimming ability", explained

69.73% of the variance in the kinematic parameters. All kinematic parameters were significantly

correlated with PC1 after rotation (Listed here in order of increasing strength of positive correlation

with PC1: LIN, ALH, MOT, PMOT, VCL, VAP, VSL; r ranged 0.663-0.994, all p <0.0001; BCF (beat

frequency) had a significantly negative correlation with PC1 r = -0.578, P< 0.0001). Thus, individuals

with relatively large and positive values of PC1 can be described as having proportionally more

sperm that swim relatively fast and straight and were more efficient given the negative correlation

with beat frequency.

Significance tests

We report basic comparisons of mass, SVL and body condition between bib-morphs at time of

capture and at mating. We pre-planned to fit separate models including one covariate of interest

(BCI, mtSOx, SOD) and its interaction with bib-morph. Therefore, we chose to conduct significance

tests on three separate relationships using restricted maximum likelihood (REML) estimated

Generalized Linear Models (GLM; normal distribution, identity link function) with Satterthwaite

approximated degrees of freedom and robust covariance estimation to manage unbalanced sample

sizes in IBM® SPSS® version 24. We report Likelihood ratios and associated p-values from Omnibus

tests of full versus intercept-only models for completeness but base our interpretations on

parameter estimates for the pre-planned comparisons (Rutherford, 2011). All full models reported

here initially included main effects of bib-morph and the covariate of interest as well as their

interaction, but the interaction parameters were dropped if estimates were not significant at $\alpha >$

0.05.

Figures

We included separate regression lines for each 'morph' in all plots regardless of significance. All plots

and R^2 values (when reported) for these simple linear regressions (SLR) were generated in

SigmaPlot® 13.0 (Systat Software, Inc. San Jose CA, USA).

Results

Of the males that mated and were used for sperm collection, bibbed males were slightly but

significantly longer (SVL: 66 mm ± 0.07 se) than non-bibbed males (SVL: 68 mm ± 0.07 se) at capture:

$F_{1, 29}$ = 5.578, P = 0.025); SVL did not change in the acclimation period. Bibbed and non-bibbed males

did not differ significantly in mass or body condition at the time of capture or mating (all P ≥ 0.119)

although all males gained an average of 0.626 g ± 0.229 se or 4.7% increase in body mass in this

period ($F_{1,29}$ = 6.820, P = 0.014).

Relationship between body condition and superoxide dismutase activity

Superoxide dismutase activity, measured at the time of mating, was positively related to body

condition at time of capture (SOD~ $BIC_{capture}$: r = 0.336, $F_{1, 29}$ = 4.465, P = 0.043). Although BCI

increased from time of capture to time of mating in the lab, SOD activity decreased slightly over the

course of the mating trials (i.e., sampling period) for all males (SOD ~ date: r = -0.355, $F_{1,29}$ = 4.193, P

= 0.050) regardless of bib phenotype (date x Bib, P = 0.748). At the time of each individual male's

mating, BCI was not significantly correlated with SOD activity, however, SOD activity was positively

related to BCI in non-bibbed males, but not in bibbed males (Bib x BCI_{mating}, P =0.015; **Figure 2b**,**Table**

1), and non-bibbed males had higher SOD activity than bibbed males (P = 0.041).

Relationship between mitochondrial superoxide (mtSOx) and SOD

Overall, mtSOx tended to decrease with increasing SOD activity (P = 0.012) **Table 2; Figure 3**.

Superoxide levels increased significantly over the course of the sampling period in all males (r =

0.564, $F_{1, 29}$ = 13.526, P = 0.001) regardless of bib phenotype (date x Bib, P = 0.371).

Relationship between mitochondrial superoxide and sperm kinematic parameters

We constructed GLMs with bib, superoxide levels and their interaction as independent variables and

three different kinematic parameters as response variables: MOT, PMOT and PC1 or "sperm

performance" **Tables 3a-c** respectively. Sperm motility was significantly and negatively related to

superoxide levels (P = 0.001), but motility did not differ between bib-morphs (P = 0.358) **Figure 4**.

Sperm performance (PC1) and the proportion of progressively motile sperm (PMOT) was negatively

linked with superoxide levels (mtSOx: P ≤ 0.004). Progressive motility of sperm declined in both

morphs, but significantly more steeply in bibbed males (bib x mtSOx P = 0.036: **Figure 5a**). While

sperm performance (PC1) declined with increasing mtSOx levels in bibbed males (bib x mtSOx, P =

0.036 **Figure 5b**), no such decline occurred in non-bibbed males.

Discussion

We investigated prospective links between body condition, antioxidant defences (SOD), whether

antioxidant levels were associated with ROS levels (mtSOx) and finally whether the relationship

between ROS levels and sperm performance differ between bib- and non-bibbed male painted

dragon lizards. Our results suggest that somatic levels of ROS production and antioxidant protection

are associated with sperm performance. Mitochondrial superoxide (mtSOx), measured in blood cells

(somatic), is negatively associated with the proportion of motile sperm (MOT) and the proportion of

progressively motile sperm (PMOT) in both bib-morphs (**Figures 4 and 5a**). Similar to McDiarmid et

al. (2017b), we did not find bib-morph specific differences in sperm kinematic parameters per se,

until superoxide was included as a covariate. There were morph-specific differences in the

association of blood cell superoxide level with progressive sperm motility. The negative relationship

between superoxide levels and sperm performance was most pronounced in bibbed males

(represented by PMOT and PC1, **Figures 5a & 5b**). Sperm performance seems to be strongly, albeit

indirectly linked to oxidative status in bibbed males, but less tightly so in non-bibbed males (**Figure**

5b). This may reflect differences in superoxide dismutase (SOD) levels in plasma (i.e., somatic

investment), which were negatively related with mtSOx in both morphs, but significantly higher in

non-bibbed males. Given the susceptibility of spermatozoa to ROS damage it is not surprising that

there are many studies that demonstrate negative correlations between antioxidants within the

semen and sperm performance in humans (Aitken et al., 1989; Aitken and Graves, 2002; Aitken and

Roman, 2008; Sanocka and Kurpisz, 2004) (e.g., reviewed in Aitken, 2016); and a few in non-

mammalian models (e.g., Rojas Mora et al., 2016). Nevertheless, a holistic idea of organismal

function in which levels of somatic antioxidants reflects overall condition or health is also supported

in the literature, as reproductive senescence and many disease states in humans are also associated

with oxidative stress in somatic tissues and declines in sperm performance and infertility (Aitken,

2016; Aitken et al., 2014). The link between SOD activity and body condition we found tentatively

suggests a trade-off between the allocation of resources to aggressiveness and colour investment in

the soma of bibbed males on one hand, and the buffering against the negative effect of superoxide

on sperm performance in non-bibbed males on the other.

As predicted, SOD activity, in both bibbed and non-bibbed males, was positively related to

body condition (BCI) at the time of capture. SOD activity measured nearly a month after body

condition measures were taken had a positive relationship indicating that SOD activity may depend

more on the available resources at the time of SOD production, than at the time of measurement;

we have recently documented similar time-lagging relationships between DNA-damage repair and

telomere attrition in this species (Olsson et al., 2018). However, the relationship of SOD activity and

BCI measured at the time of mating is more complex. In non-bibbed males, BCI at mating was still

positively related to SOD activity, but not so in bibbed males. Indeed, SOD levels were significantly

lower in bibbed males than non-bibbed males even after accounting for body condition at the time

of mating.

Positive links between colour traits, oxidative stress and sperm performance have been

demonstrated in a few species of birds, such as: Helfenstein et al. (2010) work on great tits

mentioned in the introduction; the positive association between colour, immunocompetence and

sperm performance demonstrated by Peters et al. (2004) in mallards; and Tomášek et al. (2016) use

of pro-oxidant manipulations to reveal oxidative-status versus colour maintenance allocation-

tradeoffs in captive zebra finches. Other comprehensive studies find clear links between oxidative

stress, colour and sperm performance. In the zebra finch (*Taeniopygia guttata*), Tomášek et al.

(2017) established that sperm performance of colourfully-beaked males was no different than drab

males. However, dosing male zebra finch with the pro-oxidant diquat, the sperm performance of the

most colourful males was drastically reduced in a remarkably similar fashion as the morph-specific

relationship of superoxide and sperm performance in our current study (Figure 1 in Tomášek et al.,

2017; our Figures 5a and 5b). Rojas Mora et al. (2016) found that the ratio of oxidised to reduced

glutathione (an endogenous antioxidant that quenches hydrogen peroxide, a downstream product

of superoxide dismutation by SOD) in the ejaculate of house sparrows (*Passer domesticus*) was

negatively correlated with the size of a melanin-based breast badge, thus indicating a link between

badge size and increased ejaculate antioxidants. Nevertheless, sperm swimming performance in the

house sparrow was not directly related to any oxidant or antioxidant measurement in semen (Rojas

Mora et al., 2016). In a follow up paper, experimental increases in oxidative stress in the same

species of sparrow increased antioxidant levels in the ejaculate but diquat dosing still reduced sperm

velocity with *the least* aggressive/dominant birds being the most strongly affected, probably due to

socially mediated decreases in access to food resources—or condition dependence (Rojas Mora et

al., 2017a). In yet another study, Rojas Mora et al 2017b, semen superoxide dismutase was positively

correlated with blood SOD supporting our view that somatic oxidative status should relate to

ejaculate oxidative status. Furthermore, males that changed social status to dominate roles tended

to have lower quality ejaculates compared to those produced by males in the middle of the

hierarchy (Figure 3, Rojas Mora et al., 2017b; unless the bird started at the lowest social status who

then moved into higher ranks). Together Rojas Mora et al.'s comprehensive work reveals a complex

relationship between oxidative status, ejaculate quality and social interactions in house sparrows,

that we interpret broadly as pointing toward the extreme plasticity of ejaculate traits in response to

social status and resource allocation trade-offs that are revealed under pro-oxidant manipulations,

when the social system is perturbed, and when access to resources is limited by dominance related

social interactions.

Initiating aggression is a critical determinant of winning male-male contests in painted

dragons (Healey et al., 2007) and bibbed males are the more aggressive of the two bib-morphs

(McDiarmid et al., 2017b), which may partially explain why males with bibs are less likely to lose

paternity to neighboring rivals and males without bibs (Olsson et al., 2009a). Our results contrasts to

some of the results found in the wild house sparrows described above; relative superoxide levels

most strongly negatively associated with sperm performance of the more aggressive bibbed males,

who also tended to have lower SOD in unmanipulated lizards. In our study, males were not allowed

to interact (intense fighting occurs if males are housed together) which removes the costs of

aggressive interactions (on both the aggressor and their target) and the lizards were fed to satiety

every other day so socially mediated differential in resource limitation alone is not a likely

explanation of our results. But if aggressiveness is correlated with underlying physiology, such as

metabolic rate, costs may be incurred in addition to those due to direct interactions (Metcalfe et al.,

1995). For example, aggressive male phenotypes of the Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) have elevated

metabolic rates which are beneficial in mating success, but may be deleterious during periods of low

food abundance and even affect the growth rate and age-related declines in performance (Fleming,

1996; Jonsson et al., 1991; Metcalfe et al., 1995). Thus, the cost-benefit trade-off between morph-

specific reproductive strategies may be linked to metabolic rate. It is possible, that such condition-

dependent trade-offs underpin our results.

The correlations we found between ROS and sperm performance were in unmanipulated

males, and although the relationship of body condition and SOD is only suggestive of condition-

dependence. In the brown anole lizard (*Anolis sagrei*), experimental food-manipulations

demonstrated body condition affected sperm morphology and numbers, which also translated to

greater fertilization success for males with higher BCI (Kahrl and Cox, 2015). Manipulative studies

such as those described above are necessary to fully illuminate the links we examine in this study.

Below we consider non-mutually exclusive hypotheses that may better explain our results

while also suggesting further avenues of research. First, the temporal difference in these two

condition dependent relationships with SOD, and the morph-specific differences in SOD may be

related to the decrease in SOD and increase in mtSOx over the course of our sampling period.

Second, morph-specific SOD turnover rates due to initial condition may have a lasting effect on SOD

activity that may also explain the breakdown in the relationship between BCI and SOD at the time of

mating. Regrettably, data on SOD turnover rates in animal taxa other than mammals (i.e., mice, rats

and humans) are sparse and temperature dependent rates in ectotherms is in need of further

research. Thermally mediated variation in SOD production and turnover rate was proposed as an

explanation for the slower post activity decreases in mtSOx of male painted dragons acclimated to

"hot" basking conditions compared with "cool" basking males (Ballen et al., 2012), but this was not

tested directly. Nevertheless, we can construct rough estimates of turnover rates in these dragons

because metabolic rate is linked to stoichiometry of protein and other macromolecular turnover

across taxa (Hulbert and Else, 2000).

Some mammalian cellular proteins like histones (H3.1) and nuclear pore complex proteins

(Nup205) persist nearly a year *in vivo* (Toyama et al., 2013), but most proteins have half-lives of only

45 minutes to 22.5 hours (Eden et al., 2011). Among proteins, superoxide dismutase is relatively

long-lived (Valentine et al., 2005) with a half-life of 45-80 hours for SOD expressed in mice kidneys

(Crisp et al., 2015; Hoffman et al., 1996). Nevertheless, the standard/basal metabolic rate of a 13g

mouse (e.g., *Mus spp.*) is nearly 5.5 x higher than that of a 13 g painted dragon, (0.09ml/min*60 =

5.4ml/hr; Friesen et al., 2017a; mouse 29.78mlO2/hr; Withers, 1992, pg 95). Furthermore, non-

specific protein synthesis rates in mice are ~4.8 x faster than in lizards (Sayegh and Lajtha, 1989;

Warne et al., 2010) and isotopic nitrogen turnover rates yield similar values (Vander Zanden et al.,

2015; Warne et al., 2010). Assuming that this inter-taxonomic factorial adjustment is reasonable, the

degradation rate of SOD in a lizard is probably 4.8-5.5 x slower than in a mouse, which translates to a

SOD half-life of 9-18 days in painted dragons. Given the upper end of this half-life range, BCI taken at

capture could plausibly influence SOD activity 21-50 days later, which might explain the effect of

early season condition on later SOD activity. As bibbed males have ~14% higher resting metabolic

rates than non-bibbed males (Friesen et al., 2017a), they are likely to have had faster degradation of

SOD, which could explain the disappearance of the positive relationship between SOD and BCI at

mating in bibbed males, but not non-bibbed males.

Another, although more speculative, hypothesis is that different variants of SOD or

mitochondrial genes may be linked to bib expression. For example, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis

(ALS) is associated with oxidative damage of neuronal axons (Oeda et al., 2001), and mutations in

SOD (>100 functional ALS mutations) are linked with 20-25% of ALS cases in humans (Valentine et

al., 2005). In humans, small mutations in SOD genes results in drastic 10-30 fold increases in SOD

levels in blood serum (Zelko et al., 2002). Thus, bibbed and non-bibbed males may have different

genetic variants of SOD genes that affect oxidative status and is linked to condition. Nutrition and

condition may also affect mitochondrial function and superoxide generation (Ballard and Youngson,

2015; Salin et al., 2018) and exogenous antioxidants could certainly play a role in reducing ROS levels

(Monaghan et al., 2009). However, in painted dragons, supplementation with vitamin E (an

antioxidant) does not increase longevity in the wild (Healey and Olsson, 2009b) and

supplementation with dietary carotenoids does not reduce the effects of ROS effects on colour

maintenance (Olsson et al., 2008a). Nevertheless, dietary antioxidants may affect sperm function in

this species and this merits further research. We did not measure colour brightness or intensity in

this study so we cannot directly assess the link between bib colour investment and sperm

performance. McDiarmid et al. (2017b), however did not find a significant relationship between bib

saturation and two measures of sperm function, motility (MOT) and velocity (VAP) which is

consistent with the meta-analysis of Mautz et al. (2013) that found only weak positive, but non-

significant correlations between colour traits and sperm kinematic performance. However, as Lüpold

et al. (2014) demonstrate, the strength and evolution of pre- and postcopulatory trade-off depends

on the degree of male monopolization. We might expect mate monopolization rates to be high for

bibbed males based on advantages in both female preference and contest success (McDiarmid et al.,

2017a), which seems to translate into reduced cuckoldry by neighbouring males in the wild (Olsson

et al., 2009a). Nevertheless, if this trade-off is mediated by an allocation trade-off rather than a strict

negative genetic correlation, as the relationship between SOD and body condition suggests it might,

negative correlations between colouration and sperm performance might not be evident in the lab

where resources were available ad libitum, and aggressive metabolically taxing territorial activity

was absent.

Bibbed males have shorter telomeres than non-bibbed males (Rollings et al., 2017), and

telomere shortening is linked with oxidative stress (Monaghan, 2010; Olsson et al., 2018; Olsson et

al., 2017). In the wild, male painted dragons lose mass through the breeding season which ends in

late December to mid-January; 90% of adults do not survive through winter 'hibernation' (beginning

in late May) to the next breeding season (in September) (Healey and Olsson, 2009a; Olsson et al.,

2007b; Olsson et al., 2009a). The increase in superoxide and decrease in SOD throughout the

sampling period we describe here is consistent with senescence manifest in weight loss, DNA

damage, telomere shortening, and colour fading across the breeding season in this species

(Giraudeau et al., 2016; Olsson et al., 2012b; Rollings et al., 2017). We tested mtSOx in blood cells,

but the mitochondrial proteins in sperm cells are the same as those in blood cells and should

generate similar levels of mtSOx. Mitochondrial function and superoxide production is affected by

the stress response (Manoli et al., 2007), and, if bib-morphs differ in their resilience to stress, this

may explain different sensitivities of sperm to ROS. Spermatogenesis is ongoing throughout the

breeding season in painted dragons, indicated by testicular enlargement persisting August through

late December (Niejalke, 2006). Condition earlier in the season during spermatogenesis may have a

strong influence on sperm damage and concomitant sensitivity to oxidative damage later in the

season as our males were held without access to females prior to mating trials and sperm collection.

This would constitute a trade-off between aggression typical of bibbed males and resilient sperm of

non-bibbed males. Supplementation with a SOD mimetic, EUK 134, reduces age-related colour

fading associated with oxidative stress and may also be used to experimentally tease apart the

potential effects of body condition from SOD on sperm performance (Olsson et al., 2012b).

Conclusions

We found a positive relationship between body condition and blood plasma SOD activity. SOD

activity, which was lower in bibbed males, was negatively related to mitochondrial superoxide of

erythrocytes. SOD was measured in the plasma which precludes a direct link between these

variables. Furthermore, there was a negative, morph-specific indirect link between erythrocyte

mitochondrial superoxide and sperm performance. Given the correlative nature of these results, we

are unable to ascribe cause or disentangle the proximate mechanisms that underlay these the

linkages. Nevertheless, these results add yet another morph-specific difference in physiology and

behaviour to those we have previously documented in the Australian painted dragon lizards (Friesen

et al., 2017a; Friesen et al., 2017b; Healey and Olsson, 2009a; Healey et al., 2007; McDiarmid et al.,

2017a; Olsson et al., 2007a; Olsson et al., 2009a; Rollings et al., 2017). Future investigations that

manipulate body condition and activity levels of bibbed and non-bibbed males are needed to

determine whether sperm performance is condition-dependent in this species.

Competing interests statement

We have no competing interests.

Author contributions

All authors contributed materially and intellectually to this experiment and manuscript.

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Data, code and materials

Data will be deposited to http://datadryad.org/ upon acceptance of the manuscript.

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     Figure legends

Figure 1
Male painted dragon lizards. On the left is a male without a yellow throat patch (i.e. a non-bibbed
male) and on the right is a male with a yellow throat patch (i.e. a bibbed male).

Figure 2
Relationship between SOD activity (untransformed data graphed) and body condition (BCI, residual
ln(body mass) given ln(snout to vent length)). In each graph, solid circles (●) represent non-bibbed
males and unfilled diamonds (◇) represent bibbed males. Panel **a)** SOD activity at mating as a
function of body condition *at capture*: R^2 = 0.213, P = 0.009. Panel **b)** SOD activity at mating as a
function of body condition at mating: separate regression lines for each morph are plotted due to
the significant morph x BCI interaction (P = 0.015; solid line represents non-bibbed males (R^2 = 0.149,
P = 0.103), dashed line represents bibbed males (R^2 = 0.066, P = 0.420).

Figure 3
Negative relationship between mitochondrial superoxide levels in blood cells and plasma superoxide
dismutase activity (R^2 = 0.107, P = 0.018). Solid circles (●) represent non-bibbed males and unfilled
diamonds (◇) represent bibbed males.

Figure 4
Overall negative relationship between sperm motility and mitochondrial superoxide levels (P =
0.001). We have graphed separate regressions for each bib-morph: Solid circles (●) represent non-
bibbed males (solid regression line, R^2 =0.080) and unfilled diamonds (◇) represent bibbed males
(dashed regression line, R^2 = 0.249).

Figure 5

a) Negative relationship between the proportion of progressively motile sperm (PMOT) and
mitochondrial superoxide levels in blood cells (ln(mtSOx); P < 0.001). Regression lines were
calculated and plotted separately for each morph given the significant bib x ln(mtSOx) level
interaction (P = 0.036). Solid circles (●) represent non-bibbed males (solid regression line: R^2
= 0.130) and unfilled diamonds (◇) represent bibbed males (dashed regression line: R^2 =
0.458).
b) Negative relationship between sperm performance (PC1) and mitochondrial superoxide
levels (ln(mtSOx), P = 0.019). PC1 is positively correlated with the following sperm kinematic
parameters: LIN, ALH, MOT, PMOT, VCL, VAP, VSL see text for definitions (r ranged 0.663-
0.994, all p <0.0001); BCF (beat frequency) had a significantly negative correlation with PC1
(r = -0.578, P< 0.0001). Regression lines were calculated and plotted separately for each
morph given the significant bib x ln(mtSOx) level interaction (P = 0.038). Solid circles (●)
represent non-bibbed males (solid regression line: R^2 = 0.002) and unfilled diamonds (◇)
represent bibbed males (dashed regression line: R^2 = 0.288).

Tables

Table 1: Model effects of GLM (normal, identity link function) SOD activity as a function of bib and

BCI at the time of mating. Full model: ln(SOD) ~ Bib + BCI_{mating} + Bib * BCI. Likelihood ratio χ^2_{df3} =

8.9166, P = 0.043 vs intercept only model. Bib (n = 12), Non-bibbed (n = 19), a positive coefficient

indicates non-bibbed greater than bibbed. Bold text indicates P ≤ 0.05.

ln(SOD)~	β(se)	95% Likelihood CI	Type III Sum of Squares

Source		(lower, upper)	Wald	Sig.
Intercept	-1.951(0.165)	-2.243, -1.658	328.891	**<0.001**
Bib	0.394(0.194)	0.021, 0.768	4.161	**0.041**
BCI_{mating}	-0.161(0.129)	-0.413, 0.90	1.570	0.210
Bib x BCI_{mating}	0.407(0.168)	0.028, 0.786	5.878	**0.015**

Table 2: Model effects of GLM (normal distribution, identity link function) mtSOx levels as a function

of bib and SOD activity at the time of mating. Full model: ln(mtSOx) ~ Bib + ln(SOD) + Bib * ln(SOD):

Likelihood ratio χ^2_{df3} = 6.345, P = 0.096 vs intercept only model. Reduced model: mtSOx~ln(SOD)

Likelihood ratio χ^2_{df1} = 4.646, P = 0.031 Bib (n = 12), Non-bibbed (n = 19), a positive coefficient

indicates non-bibbed greater than bibbed. Bold text indicates P ≤ 0.05.

Ln(mtSOx)~		95% Likelihood CI	Type III Sum of Squares	
Source	β(se)	(lower, upper)	Wald	Sig.
Intercept	6.786(0.470)	5.646, 7.926	445.140	**<0.001**
Bib	1.174(0.699)	0.294, 2.642	2.820	0.093
ln(SOD)	-0.701(0.194)	-1.256, -0.147	6.297	**0.012**
Bib x ln(SOD)	0.527(0.349)	-0.265, 1.318	2.276	0.131

Table 3a: Model effects of GLM (normal distribution, identity link function) sperm motility (MOT) as

a function of bib and mtSOx level at the time of mating. Full model: MOT ~ mtSOx + bib +

bib*mtSOx: Likelihood ratio χ^2_{df3} = 5.486, P = 0.139 vs intercept only model. Reduced model: MOT ~

mtSOX Likelihood ratio χ^2_{df1} = 4.747, P = 0.029. Bib (n = 12), Non-bibbed (n = 19), a positive

coefficient indicates non-bibbed greater than bibbed. Bold text indicates P ≤ 0.05.

MOT~		95% Likelihood CI	Type III Sum of Squares	
Source	β(se)	(lower, upper)	Wald	Sig.
Intercept	220.008(56.382)	48.628, 391.39	21.279	**<0.001**
Bib	-73.048(79.553)	-300.85, 154.754	0.843	0.358
mtSOx	-19.993(6.822)	-40.919, -0932	11.244	**0.001**
Bib x mtSOx	-8.231(9.470)	-19.485, 35.948	0.755	0.385

Table 3b: Model effects of GLM (normal distribution, identity link function) progressively motile

sperm (PMOT) as a function of bib and mtSOx level at the time of mating. Full model: PMOT ~ mtSOx

897   + bib + bib*mtSOx: Likelihood ratio χ^2_{df3} = 13.218, P = 0.004 vs intercept only model. Bib (n = 12),

898   Non-bibbed (n = 19), a positive coefficient indicates non-bibbed greater than bibbed. Bold text

899   indicates P ≤ 0.05.

PMOT~ Source	β(se)	95% Likelihood CI (lower, upper)	Type III Sum of Squares	
			Wald	Sig.
Intercept	1.872(0.448)	0.993, 2.750	17.445	**< 0.001**
Bib	-1.015(0.502)	-1.998, -0.32	4.094	**0.043**
mtSOx	-0.186(0.053)	-0.291, -0.082	12.282	**< 0.001**
Bib x mtSOx	0.013(0.003)	0.008, 0.242	4.398	**0.036**

901   **Table 3c**: Model effects of GLM (normal distribution, identity link function) "sperm performance"

902   (PC1) as a function of bib and mtSOx level at the time of mating. Full model: PC1 ~ mtSOx + bib +

903   bib*mtSOx: Likelihood ratio χ^2_{df3} = 6.283, P = 0.099 vs intercept only model (we did not reduce

904   model given significant parameter estimates). Bib (n = 12), Non-bibbed (n = 19), a positive coefficient

905   indicates non-bibbed greater than bibbed. Bold text indicates P ≤ 0.05.

Sperm performance (PC1) Source	β(se)	95% Likelihood CI (lower, upper)	Type III Sum of Squares	
			Wald	Sig.
Intercept	20.145(7.202)	6.030, 34.259	7.825	**0.005**
Bib	-17.744(8.617)	-34.633, -0.854	4.240	**0.039**
mtSOx	-2.456(0.863)	-4.147, -0.765	8.105	**0.004**
Bib x mtSOx	2.157(1.029)	0.141, 4.173	4.398	**0.036**

907