

# Evidence of capacitation in the parasitoid wasp, *Nasonia vitripennis* and its potential role in sex allocation

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## Abstract

The allocation of resources to the production of one sex or another has been observed in a large variety of animals. Its theoretical basis allows accurate predictions of offspring sex ratios in many species, but the mechanisms by which sex allocation is controlled are poorly understood. Using previously published data we investigated if alternative splicing, combined with differential expression, were involved with sex allocation in the parasitoid wasp, *Nasonia vitripennis*. We found that sex allocation is not controlled by alternative splicing but changes in gene expression, that were identified to be involved with oviposition, were shown to be similar to those involved in sperm motility, and capacitation. Genes involved in Cholesterol efflux, a key component of capacitation, along with calcium transport, trypsin and MAPKinase activity were regulated in ovipositing wasps. The results show evidence for regulation of sperm motility and of capacitation in an insect which, in the context of the physiology of the *N. vitripennis* spermatheca, could be important for sex allocation.

## 1 Introduction

2 Understanding the molecular mechanisms controlling an organisms response to their en-  
3 vironment, is one of the key questions of biology. A fundamental response to the environ-  
4 ment is altering the ratio of male and female offspring, this is, sex allocation (Charnov,  
5 1982; West, 2009). Sex allocation has a large body of theoretical work, and supporting ex-  
6 perimental evidence describing its evolutionary role in many taxa (West, 2009). However,  
7 outside of circumstances such as temperature dependent sex determination (Göth Ann  
8 and Booth David T, 2005; Bull and Vogt, 1979), there is little known about the molec-  
9 ular controls of sex allocation. Frequency dependent selection, was proposed by Fisher  
10 to explain sex allocation dynamics (Fisher, 1999). However, when Hamilton derived kin  
11 selection, he realised that population level competition in species with limited dispersal,  
12 would result in competition between kin. He proposed that selection would act to optimise  
13 species sex allocation, in order to minimise competition between kin (Hamilton, 1967).  
14 This is Local Mate Competition (LMC) and it provides accurate empirical estimates of  
15 optimal sex ratios, based upon population structure. It's predictions have been supported  
16 by observations in mammals, fish and in many invertebrates (West, 2009; Charnov, 1982).  
17 LMC is particularly well studied in the parasitoid wasp, *Nasonia vitripennis*, a model for  
18 the study of sex allocation.

19 *Nasonia vitripennis* produces more female biased broods under conditions of high  
20 LMC, both in the wild and in laboratory conditions (Werren, 1980, 1983b). Several  
21 factors have been found to alter their sex allocation, including the host and brood size  
22 (Werren, 1983a; West, 2009). The two main cues females use to alter sex allocation are;  
23 1) if the host has been previously parasitised and 2) the number of local conspecifics  
24 (Werren, 1980, 1983a; Shuker *et al.*, 2004). How *N. vitripennis* alter their offspring sex  
25 ratio molecularly, has only started to be investigated.

26 Pannebakker *et al.* 2011 identified three QTL regions linked to offspring sex ratio,  
27 along with overlaps with QTLs from clutch size. Three studies have tried to identify  
28 gene regulatory changes in sex allocation. Cook *et al.* 2015 and Cook *et al.* 2018 used

29 RNASeq and Pannebakker *et al.* 2013 used a microarray approach, to try and identify  
30 key genes that could be involved in sex allocation. The 2015 study used whole bodies  
31 and compared three conditions; no host, fresh host and parasitised host to investigate  
32 the difference in oviposition and how increased female biased broods in the fresh host  
33 compared to the previously parasitised host. The main gene of interest from the 2015  
34 study and Pannebakker *et al.* 2013 was *glucose dehydrogenase (Gld)*. *Glucose dehydroge-*  
35 *nase* is involved in sperm storage in *Drosophilla melanogaster* (Iida and Cavener, 2004).  
36 *Gld D. melanogaster* mutants, release sperm at a slower rate than wildtype. With *N.*  
37 *vitripennis* being haplodiploid (fertilised eggs become female, unfertilised eggs become  
38 male), the regulation of sperm and fertilisation is key to understanding sex allocation.  
39 The 2018 study aimed to identify changes in gene expression in the head, that could be  
40 tied to a neurological control of sex allocation using foundress number to alter sex ratios.  
41 No differentially expressed genes were identified, indicating that if there are changes in  
42 gene expression involved in sex allocation they don't occur in the brain. The expression  
43 of the sex determining splicing factor *double sex (dsx)* was altered in relation to oviposi-  
44 tion (Cook *et al.*, 2015). Female and male specific splice variants need to be maternally  
45 provided for normal sex determination pathways to work (Verhulst *et al.*, 2010, 2013).  
46 How this maternal provision is coordinated with sex allocation is unknown.

47 Alternative splicing describes how mRNA transcripts, from the same gene, can contain  
48 different exons and introns resulting in different protein structure and function. This  
49 allows for a large variation in protein product to be produced from a single gene. Changing  
50 the transcript composition has been shown to be a key regulator in plastic phenotypes,  
51 such as between head and body lice, even when no differential gene expression is present  
52 (Tovar-Corona *et al.*, 2015).

53 In the eusocial Hymenoptera, alternative splicing has an important role in reproductive  
54 status (Price *et al.*, 2018; Jarosch *et al.*, 2011). We also see alternative splicing involved in  
55 neurotransmitter receptors within Hymenoptera (Jin *et al.*, 2007) which have been linked  
56 to oviposition in *N. vitripennis* and the regulation of sex allocation by neuronal signalling  
57 (Cook *et al.*, 2015). In fact, application of the neurotransmitter acetylcholine agonist

58 imidiclopid to *N vitripennis*, disrupts the detection of the optimal sex allocation (Cook  
59 *et al.*, 2016).

60 We used the 2015 data from Cook *et al.* 2015 and the 2018 data from Cook *et al.* 2018  
61 to investigate alternative splicing and sex allocation. Our aim is to identify if alternative  
62 splicing could be involved directly in sex allocation, by searching for an effect caused by  
63 foundress number. If we are unable to find an effect caused by foundress number, then we  
64 aim to identify any processes that alternative splicing could be involved in regarding either;  
65 the regulation and allocation of sperm or epigenetic mechanisms that could be involved  
66 in maternal imprinting required for sex determination. We reanalysed the differential  
67 expression data using an alignment free approach, as alignment approaches can lead to  
68 false positive inflation (Soneson *et al.*, 2016; Bray *et al.*, 2016). We then combined this  
69 information from our alternative splicing analysis, using an alignment based approach,  
70 to gain as complete a picture of transcriptomic changes in the different treatments as  
71 possible.

## 72 **Methods**

### 73 *Structure of the data sets and read processing*

74 The 2018 data set consists of three treatments; single, five and ten foundresses and ex-  
75 tracted RNA from the head. The 2015 data is a two by three factorial design with  
76 either single or ten foundresses treatments and either no hosts, fresh hosts or previ-  
77 ously parasitised hosts. RNA in this study was extracted from whole body samples.  
78 SRA files for both of these studies were downloaded from the NCBI database (Accession:  
79 GSE105796 and GSE74241) using the e utilities (Sayers, 2017). Reads were then viewed  
80 using FASTQC (Andrews, 2014) and then both sets of reads were trimmed using trimmo-  
81 matic (Bolger *et al.*, 2014) and only the paired reads were used. After looking at the tile  
82 quality in the 2015 data set we applied a tile filter using the BBMap functions (Bushnell,  
83 2018).

### 84 *Differential expression*

85 Both previous studies had taken an alignment approach to differential expression. We  
86 took an alignment free approach using the kallisto 0.43.0 and sleuth 0.30.0 pipeline.  
87 We used this approach to reduce the number of false positives (Bray *et al.*, 2016;  
88 Pimentel *et al.*, 2017; Sonesson *et al.*, 2016). We generated a kallisto index using  
89 GCF000002325.3Nvit2rna.fna file from NCBI. The kallisto quantification step was then  
90 run with a 100 bootstrap samples. Using the sample run metadata in R (core development  
91 team, 2011) and a custom bash script we generated the gene transcript information from  
92 the GCF000002325.3Nvit2.1genomic.gtf file. The PCAs for both data sets did not show  
93 any outlying samples so none were removed. We then created the full and reduced model  
94 and ran the likelihood ratio test, filtering results with a false discovery rate below 0.05.  
95 The 2018 data had no significant results with the treatment of foundress number so no  
96 further comparisons were made. The 2015 data had no significant results with foundress  
97 as the model main effect but when host treatment was used as the models main effect  
98 significant results were identified.

## 99 *Alternative Splicing*

100 With the *N. vitripennis* genome being sequenced relatively recently and with a high likeli-  
101 hood of new transcripts being identified we chose an alignment approach using the tuxedo  
102 suit. We aligned reads to the genome using HISAT2 (Pertea *et al.*, 2016) and sam files were  
103 sorted and indexed using samtools (Li *et al.*, 2009). Stringtie was then used to assemble  
104 and quantify transcripts, exon and introns using the GCF000002325.3Nvit2.1genomic.gtf  
105 file as a guide. A summary using gffcompare found that the 2015 data had 9.4% novel  
106 exons and 5.7% novel introns along with 16.9% of loci being novel. Tables of counts  
107 were extracted and then read into R (core development team, 2011) and analysed using  
108 the ballgown package (Pertea *et al.*, 2016) and visualised using ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009).  
109 The PCAs for the 2015 data identified one sample outlier which was then removed from  
110 the analysis. Differential transcript usage was determined using FPKM, while differen-  
111 tial exon and intron usage was determined using uniquely mapped reads overlapping the  
112 exon. Differential transcript usage was identified using the ballgown linear model frame-  
113 work with a FDR correction, q-values of less than 0.05 were determined as significant.

## 114 *Gene ontology (GO) analysis*

115 An annotation of the GCF000002325.3Nvit2 transcriptome was made using trinotate  
116 (Bryant *et al.*, 2017). This full GO term list was used to test gene lists of interest for  
117 enrichment. Lists of genes were tested for enrichment accounting for GO term structure  
118 using the treemap and GSEABase packages (Tennekes, 2017; Morgan *et al.*, 2018) using a  
119 hypergeometric test with the GOSTats package (Falcon and Gentleman, 2007) and a cut  
120 off FDR of 0.05 (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

## 121 Results

### 122 *Differential gene expression*

123 With the 2015 and 2018 data, we found that there was no significant clustering for  
124 foundress number. For the 2015 data, we did not identify the same strong clustering  
125 pattern with host treatment as Cook *et al.* 2015 did.

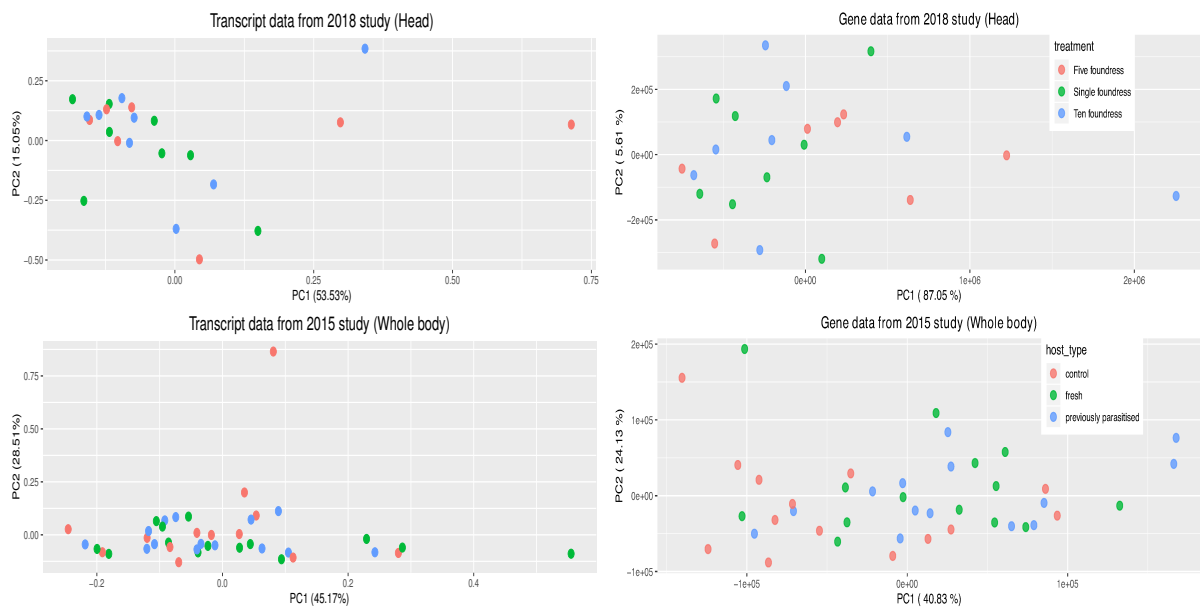


Figure 1: First and second principle components for both (Cook *et al.*, 2018) and (Cook *et al.*, 2015) transcript and gene expression data using FPKM and counts respectively. There is no clear clustering based upon foundress number or host type for either data set.

126 Neither data set showed any differential expression when foundress was used as the  
127 predictor variable. However, as with Cook *et al.* 2015, we identified differential expression  
128 with host type as the predictor variable in the 2015 data set which also had host treatment  
129 as a variable. We identified 352 differentially expressed genes using host treatment as the  
130 predictor variable compared to the 1359 identified in the 2015 data.

### 131 *Alternative splicing*

132 No clustering based upon either foundress or host treatment was identified using the  
133 PCA of the covariance of the transcript expression in either the 2015 or 2018 data. The  
134 2015 data paper did show some clustering based upon host treatment (figure 1). When



135 using foundress number as the predictor variable to determine differentially expressed  
136 transcripts, exons and introns, we only identified one transcript as being differentially  
137 expressed in the 2018 data after FDR correction. However no introns or exons from that  
138 transcript, or any other, were identified as differentially expressed. We decided this was  
139 unlikely to be true differential transcript usage and discarded it. When we used host  
140 treatment as a predictor variable, with the 2015 data set, we identified; 1674 transcripts,  
141 3190 introns and 6770 exons that were differentially expressed. We identified 124 genes  
142 which had also been identified as differentially expressed from the sleuth pipeline, that also  
143 had multiple differentially expressed transcripts. 435 genes were also identified as having  
144 differential transcript usage but were not from differentially expressed genes. Differential  
145 transcript usage could either be a particular transcript has differential expression, while  
146 all other transcripts in that gene remain the same or it could be isoform switching, where  
147 one or several transcripts are upregulated while others are downregulated.

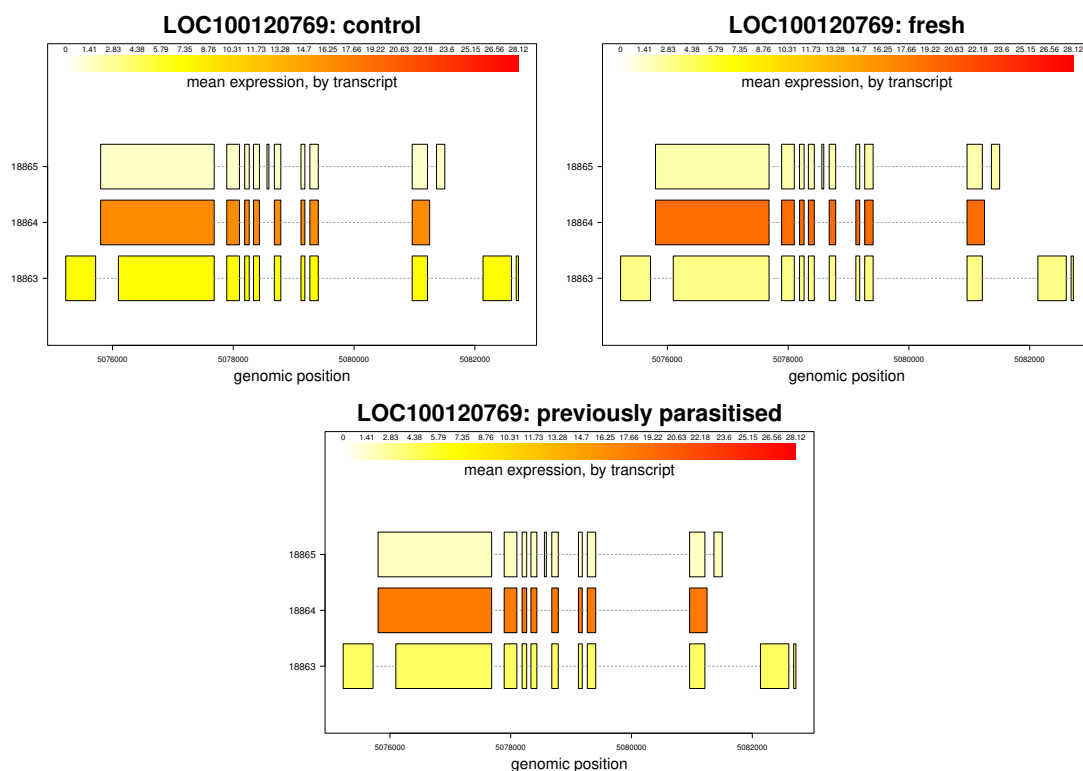


Figure 2: Expression of transcripts in FPKM for *N. vitripennis* LOC100120769 across the three different treatments in the (Cook *et al.*, 2015) data. LOC100120769 is one of the genes with the GO term for a calcium dependent serine/threonine kinase activity

## 148 *GO analysis*

149 To understand the processes being affected by oviposition, we identified enriched GO  
150 terms for molecular function, cellular components and biological process for differentially  
151 expressed genes, differentially expressed genes which also had differential expression of  
152 different transcripts and genes which only had differential transcript usage. For differen-  
153 tially expressed genes we found; 220 enriched GO terms for biological processes, 84 for  
154 molecular functions and 38 for cellular components. Within the biological process we  
155 see terms for regulation of cardiac muscle contraction, calcium ion regulation and other  
156 transmembrane transport. The key terms involved in molecular function include RNA  
157 polymerase I initiation, serine protease inhibition and oxidoreductase activity.

158 174 enriched GO terms for biological processes were identified from genes found to have  
159 differential transcript usage as well as being identified as being differentially expressed.  
160 This includes terms for positive regulation of insulin receptor signalling pathways, glyco-  
161 protein transport, lipid catabolism, negative regulation of prostglandin secretion, mRNA  
162 cleavage, acyl-CoA biosynthesis and acteyl-CoA metabolism as well as other involved in  
163 cell division and organ development. 102 enriched GO terms were identified for molecular  
164 function including; methyltransferase activity for histone-glutamine and tRNA, insulin  
165 binding and transmembrane transport activity for anions and cholesterol.

166 For genes that were only identified as having differential transcript usage, we identified  
167 251 GO terms for biological processes, 89 GO terms for molecular function and 40 cellular  
168 component terms that were enriched. The biological processes found terms for; regulation  
169 of mRNA splicing and processing, snRNA processing, oocyte localisation, regulation of  
170 the meitotic cell division and the cell cycle, P granule organisation and germ cell repul-  
171 sion, negative regulation of histone acetylation and hetrochromatin maintenance involved  
172 in silencing. Some of the molecular functions of interest enriched include acetylcholine  
173 transmembrane activity, translational repression, RNA binding and MAP kinase activity  
174 including calcium modulated MAP kinase activity.

## 175 Discussion

176 Our findings confirm those found from both Cook *et al.* 2018 and Cook *et al.* 2015, that  
177 there is no differential gene expression caused by foundress treatment. We identified fewer  
178 genes involved in oviposition than Cook *et al.* 2015, have been able to identify enriched GO  
179 terms but did not see the same clustering pattern as Cook *et al.* 2015. This is likely due to  
180 the different methods being used with the kallisto sleuth pipeline being more stringent on  
181 false positives (Pimentel *et al.*, 2017; Soneson *et al.*, 2016). Our investigation into alter-  
182 native splicing also identified no significant effect on splicing caused by foundress number.  
183 However, by comparing the different gene sets, and those identified in previous studies,  
184 patterns that could be informative in determining potential mechanisms regulating sex  
185 allocation emerge.

186 One of the main findings from the Cook *et al.* 2015 was increased expression of *glucose*  
187 *dehydrogenase (gld)*(LOC100120817) in ovipositing females. We not only confirmed *gld*  
188 is differentially expressed, but also alternatively spliced. *gld* mutant flies were found to  
189 be unable to retain the same level of sperm as well as altered the rates of sperm utilis-  
190 ation (Iida and Cavener, 2004). This is not the only gene to be identified that is known  
191 to regulate sperm activity. Our study also identified that *Glycerol-3-phosphate dehydro-*  
192 *genase* (GDP, LOC100113822), was alternatively spliced and differentially expressed in  
193 ovipositing females. GDP is also involved in calcium dependent lipid metabolism and, in  
194 mammals, GDP plays an important part in sperm capacitation, particularly with reactive  
195 oxygen species generation (Kota *et al.*, 2009, 2010). The glucose dehydrogenase identified  
196 is the FAD-quinone like dehydrogenase, which operates in the absence of oxygen (Tsu-  
197 jimura *et al.*, 2006). Another aspect of sperm storage is reducing oxidative stress (Degner  
198 and Harrington, 2016), with which we identified several genes including; LOC100123558  
199 an ampedeaminase and LOC103317747 a riboflavin transporter which catalysis oxidation  
200 reduction reactions, which were up regulated in ovipositing females. We also identified  
201 several other processes which are potentially involved with sperm capacitation.

202 Capacitation is a series of functional changes which are key for readying sperm for

203 fertilisation. Removing cholesterol from the plasma membrane of sperm, increasing its  
204 permeability to bicarbonate and calcium ions, is the defining initial step in capacitation  
205 (Ramírez-Reveco *et al.*, 2017). While capacitation has not been identified in insects it  
206 has been identified in the mite, *Varroa destructor* (Oliver and Brinton, 1973) and there  
207 is some evidence for changes in mosquito sperm (Ndiaye *et al.*, 1997). Two ATP-binding  
208 cassette sub-family G member 1-like genes (LOC100123700, LOC100118359) were differ-  
209 entially expressed and spliced while another ATP-binding cassette sub-family G member  
210 1-like gene along with epididymal secretory protein E1-like (a cholesterol transporter) and  
211 scavenger receptor class B type 1 (LOC100118508, LOC100115434, LOC100116121) were  
212 differentially spliced. These genes are directly involved in cholesterol efflux. All of these  
213 genes were either up regulated in ovipositing females or had specific isoforms that were  
214 up regulated in ovipositing females, indicating an increase in cholesterol transport which  
215 is synonymous with capacitation.

216 This change in permeability however requires changes in  $Ca^{2+}$ , in order to cause ac-  
217 tivation in sperm motility. Several enriched GO terms for differential gene expression  
218 are involved in calcium and cardiac muscle regulation. There are two sets of genes that  
219 seem to be involved in calcium movement. One of these sets were ankyrin homologs,  
220 which were down regulated in ovipositing females. These ankyrin genes are involved in  
221 regulating  $Ca^{2+}$  in humans, particularly in smooth muscle with a down regulation caus-  
222 ing atrial fibrillation (rapid and irregular heartbeats) (Cunha *et al.*, 2011; Le Scouarnec  
223 *et al.*, 2008). As these ankyrin genes are predominantly involved in smooth muscle reg-  
224 ulation, we believe they are involved in the peristaltic muscle contractions involved in  
225 moving developing eggs through the ovariole and oviduct, which have smooth muscle  
226 bands (King and Ratcliffe, 1969). Another source of  $Ca^{2+}$  could come from the increase  
227 in synaptic vesicle glycoprotein 2B-like genes (SV2B, LOC100677929, LOC100122803,  
228 LOC100123034, LOC100122992), accompanied by changes in splicing of putative trans-  
229 porter SVOPL (LOC100119949), are more likely to be involved with sperm activation.  
230 SV2B is involved in synaptic and neuronal transmission, particularly of  $Ca^{2+}$ , and stud-  
231 ies show that Sv2B knock outs exhibit an elevation of presynaptic  $Ca^{2+}$  levels (Wan *et al.*,

232 2010; Morgans *et al.*, 2009). As the 2015 data is whole body it is not possible to tell if  
233 an increase in calcium is related to sperm activation. The increased SV2B expression  
234 is combined with up regulation of EF-hand calcium-binding domain-containing protein  
235 1-like (EFCB1, LOC100117520) in ovipositing females. EFCB1's cellular component GO  
236 term identifies it as been located in the sperm cilia. EFCB1 has been inferred to have an  
237 effect on sperm motility and its ortholog has experimental evidence showing an effect on  
238 sperm motility in sea squirts (Mizuno *et al.*, 2012).

239 It is not just the increase in calcium which would indicate that *N. vitripennis* is  
240 regulating sperm motility. Sperm have different waveforms; A, B and C which have  
241 progressive levels of activity (Thaler *et al.*, 2013). In the mosquito, *Culex quinquefasciatus*,  
242 trypsin was identified as inducing the progression to type C motility and is mediated by  
243 mitogen activated protein kinase phosphorylation pathways (Thaler *et al.*, 2013). A  
244 similar system has been observed in the common water strider, *Aquarius remigis*, in  
245 Lepidoptera, and Orthoptera which would indicate that this is a well conserved system  
246 (Miyata *et al.*, 2012; Shepherd, 1974; Aigaki *et al.*, 1987, 1994; Osanai and Baccetti, 1993).  
247 Our differential expression analysis, along with Cook *et al.* 2015, identified several trypsin  
248 and serine protease inhibitors to be up regulated along with a down regulation of several  
249 serine proteases. From our alternative splicing analysis we have identified 3 trypsin genes  
250 that are alternatively spliced (SP97, SP33, SP82) along with a venom serine protease  
251 (SP76). Only SP82, a trypsin 1 like endoprotease, was not identified in *N. vitripennis*  
252 venom (de Graaf *et al.*, 2010) , indicating a role in other biological functions, potentially  
253 activation of sperm motility.

254 Our alternative splicing analysis identified several different MAP kinases, including  
255 serine/threonine targeting kinase activity, which is important for mediating sperm wave-  
256 form transition (Thaler *et al.*, 2013), which were calcium/calmodulin dependent. Only  
257 one of these MAP kinases had transcripts that were up regulated in ovipositing females,  
258 LOC100120769 2. The changing of several MAP kinases splice variants in our data, would  
259 indicate a process requiring precise targeting of MAP kinases and the regulation of sperm  
260 waveform transitions would fit under that description.

261 *Nasonia vitripennis* spermatheca consists of an unmuscle capsule that contains  
262 sperm, a duct with two bends in it, a muscle that attaches to the duct either side of  
263 the bend and a gland with collecting ducts leading into the main sperm duct in the mid-  
264 dle of the bend (King and Ratcliffe, 1969). It has been proposed that the bend in the duct  
265 acts as a valve, because as the muscles contract, the duct straightens (King and Ratcliffe,  
266 1969) and the duct is small enough to only allow a very limited number of sperm through  
267 (Holmes, 1974). The problem with this is the capsule containing the sperm has no mus-  
268 culature to propel the sperm (King and Ratcliffe, 1969). If *N. vitripennis* is indeed able  
269 to regulate sperm motility, by capacitation and hyperactivation to waveform C, then the  
270 sperm provide the propellant force for the duct to act as a valve. We also see evidence in  
271 changes in neurological regulation which could potentially be involved in muscle control.

272 There is a downregulation of Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor-associated  
273 protein, which controls the clustering of GABA receptors. GABA is an inhibitory neuro-  
274 transmitter and therefore changes in its effect. It would be intriguing to see where this  
275 effect is localised, as the spermatheca is located near the terminal ganglion, the largest  
276 ganglion in the ventral nerve cord (King and Richards, 2009).

277 If capacitation is occurring, variation in sensitivity to female controlled sperm activation  
278 could also explain the minimal influence of males on fertilisation (Shuker *et al.*, 2006).  
279 It could also explain why females with more than one mating have increased first male  
280 broods on their first offspring batch, but increased second male broods on the second  
281 mating (Boulton *et al.*, 2018). With more sperm available from the second male after  
282 the first laying a greater proportion of second male sperm has access to the Ca<sup>2+</sup> and  
283 other enzymes required for activation. What must also be taken into account is that *N.*  
284 *vitripennis* require maternal inputs to successfully develop male or female phenotypes. It  
285 would make sense then that these inputs are able to be joined with sex allocation in a  
286 complimentary manner.

287 Maternal imprinting has been identified as being important for *N. vitripennis* sex  
288 determination (Verhulst *et al.*, 2010, 2013). In relation to maternally controlled gene  
289 expression, our analysis found several genes, identified as being alternatively spliced due

290 to oviposition, involved in RNA processing particularly snRNA, snoRNA and piwiRNA  
291 (Werren *et al.*, 2010). In *Caenorhabditis elegans*, recent evidence has shown that snRNA  
292 can be transgenerationally provided, changing gene expression in offspring and these can  
293 be neuronally controlled (Ashe *et al.*, 2012; Posner *et al.*, 2019). Our analysis identi-  
294 fied alternative splicing of both *Doublesex* and *Transformer2*, which are both maternally  
295 provided in *N. vitripennis*. Investigating small RNAs in *N. vitripennis* and identifying if  
296 they are maternally provided in a similar manner as seen in *C. elegans* could explain how  
297 imprinting and sex allocation could be co-ordinated.

298 Our main finding is that *Nasonia vitripennis*, during oviposition, displays several  
299 changes in gene expression that are known to be involved in regulating sperm motil-  
300 ity. These include cholesterol efflux, which is synonymous with mammalian capacitation,  
301 as well as changes in trypsin, MAPK activity and calcium regulation. However, as with  
302 all whole body studies, there are several different processes occurring that could show  
303 similar findings. Further work is needed to understand if there really is a capacitation like  
304 process occurring. Given the context, a processes manipulating sperm would be logical.  
305 Our findings do offer readily testable predictions which can be experimentally investigated  
306 by looking at the location of individual gene expression as well as perturbing expression  
307 to see effects on sex allocation.

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493 **Data Accessibility,**

494 The 2015 and 2018 data can be found at NCBI:(Accession:GSE74241,GSE105796) respec-  
495 tively.

496 **Author contributions**

497 ARCJ and EBM designed the study. ARCJ did the analysis. Both authors wrote and  
498 approved the manuscript.