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Sperm Competition

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Abstract

Sperm competition is a form of intrasexual competition in which the sperm of two or more males concurrently occupy the reproductive tract of a single female and compete to fertilize an available ovum. As a nonmonogamous species, humans have been subject to selection pressures associated with sperm competition. Consequently, human males have evolved a variety of anatomical, physiological, and psychological adaptations to address associated adaptive problems. Some of these adaptations motivate avoidance of sperm competition by engaging in precopulatory intrasexual competition, which may limit the risk of exposure to sperm competition. Other adaptations promote engagement in sperm competition during copulation or postcopulation and function not by avoiding sperm competition but by increasing the likelihood of winning the competition and siring offspring. For example, men facing a perceived increase in risk of sperm competition are more likely to demonstrate an increased interest in sex with their long-term partner. We summarize previous research on adaptations to sperm competition in humans, and highlight several directions for future research.

Key Words: sperm competition, cuckoldry, semen displacement, ejaculate adjustment, forced in-pair copulation, sexual coercion, female-directed violence, cryptic female choice

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Sperm competition occurs when the sperm of two or more males concurrently occupy the reproductive tract of a single female. The extent to which sperm competition occurs in sexually reproducing species varies, from virtually nonexistent in truly sexually monogamous species to extraordinary in polygynandrous species. As a nonmonogamous species, humans are subject to the risks of sperm competition. Some theorists argue that sperm competition has not been greatly influential over the course of human evolutionary history, and as evidence they point to historically and contemporary low discrepant paternity or cuckoldry rates in humans of around 1 to 2 percent (Greeff & Erasmus, 2015; Larmuseau et al., 2017; Larmuseau et al., 2013). Recent evidence indicates such rates may be culturally variable, and much higher in some cultures. For instance, extra-pair paternity is nearly 50 percent among Himba pastoralists of Namibia in southwest Africa (Scelza et al., 2020). In some cases, these instances of extra-pair paternity may not qualify







as cuckoldry, per se, as the men and women involved in such cases seem to be accurately aware of the mismatch (Scelza et al., 2020). Even outside of such explicit cases of extrapair paternity, people estimate local cuckoldry rates to be upwards of 10 percent (Voracek et al., 2009). So, although there is some disagreement about a species-wide rate of cuckoldry or extra-pair paternity, it is undeniable that cuckoldry at least occasionally occurs in humans, today and for much of our recent evolutionary history. Consequently, the risk of sperm competition in humans is certainly greater than zero.

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Compelling evidence for the influence of sperm competition in humans is also apparent in the suite of purported adaptations that reduce the costs associated with sperm competition (for men) or promote sperm competition (for women). Such adaptations manifest at many levels—including anatomical and physiological features as well as psychological motivations and behaviors—and can and do operate at every stage of the mating process.

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Testes Size

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One of the most consistently identified anatomical features associated with sperm competition risk is relative testes size, which is a ratio of combined testes mass to overall body mass. Across numerous nonmonogamous species, from butterflies (Gage, 1994) and fish (Stockley et al., 1997) to birds (Møller & Briskie, 1995), rodents (Ramm et al., 2005), and primates (Baker & Shackelford, 2018a, 2018b; Møller, 1988), interspecific differences in relative testes size correlate with interspecific differences in risk of sperm competition. Experimental evidence from S. stercoraria confirms that increases in testes size are consequent to increased sperm competition, such that increases in sperm competition cause subsequent increases in relative testes size (Hosken & Ward, 2001). Larger testes are an adaptation to increased risk of sperm competition given that larger testes produce larger ejaculates, which increases a male's chances of successful fertilization of an egg under circumstances of sperm competition (Møller, 1989). Among primates, human males have a relative testes size that is between gorillas' comparatively small testes (associated with very low sperm competition) and chimpanzees' comparatively large testes (associated with very high sperm competition). This suggests that human males, with intermediately sized testes, are subject to sperm competition at a rate between the highly competitive chimpanzees and the virtually noncompetitive gorillas (Baker & Shackelford, 2018a).

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Semen Displacement

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In addition to testes size, penis morphology may function as an adaptation to sperm competition. For example, the presence of penile spines (Orr & Brennan, 2016; Stockley, 2002) and the shape of the baculum (André et al., 2018; Stockley, 2012) are associated with greater sperm competition. Although human males have neither penile spines nor bacula, the shape of the human penis may similarly function as an adaptation to sperm competition. Specifically, the relatively greater penile girth (compared to humans' closest primate relatives) and the protrusion of the coronal ridge may function to displace semen

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already present in the female reproductive tract (Gallup et al., 2003). That is, during intromission with a woman who has recently copulated with another man, the size (girth) and shape (prominent coronal ridge) of the human penis may function to push the rival male's sperm out of the female's reproductive tract. This would function as a valuable sperm competition tactic, as sperm that have been removed from the reproductive tract are no longer viable for fertilization, giving an advantage to the man who is doing the displacing over the male whose sperm has been displaced.

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Behavioral evidence supports the hypothesis that semen displacement is a sperm competition tactic in humans. Men are more likely to engage in copulatory behaviors that facilitate displacement of rival semen when the risk of the presence of rival semen is higher. For example, men whose female partners have spent more time around rival males report greater sexual interest in their partners and greater distress following their partner's sexual rejection (DeLecce et al., 2017) and report copulatory behaviors that include deeper thrusting and a greater number of thrusts (Pham et al., 2017). A similar effect is evident among men who find themselves at greater risk of sperm competition given their partner's attractiveness and other individual difference traits related to an increased risk of a partner's extra-pair sex (Goetz et al., 2005). As these copulatory behaviors, including increased thrust frequency and deeper thrusting, have been demonstrated to displace comparatively greater amounts of semen (Gallup et al., 2003), the association of these behaviors with circumstances under which men are at greater risk of sperm competition further supports the role of semen displacement as an evolved response to sperm competition.

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Of course, semen-displacing behaviors function to remove any semen currently in the female reproductive tract, even if that semen is one's own. As behaving in ways that could result in self-semen displacement would be disadvantageous, it would be reasonable to hypothesize that men may have adaptations to reduce the risk of self-semen displacement (Gallup & Burch, 2004). Indeed, such behaviors and physiological features have been documented. For instance, shortly following ejaculation, human males experience a significant loss of erectile volume, engage in reduced thrusting, and withdraw the penis from the vagina (Gallup et al., 2006), all of which are contrary to semen displacement and may function to reduce the likelihood of displacing one's own semen. It also has been argued that the postejaculatory refractory period, or the inability to achieve erection for some period of time following ejaculation, may function to reduce self-semen displacement (Gallup & Burch, 2004). If one cannot achieve the erection necessary to successfully copulate again following a successful copulation, then one is not at risk of inadvertently displacing one's own previously deposited semen. The fact that refractory periods are not immutable and may be overcome by the introduction of a novel female (i.e., the Coolidge effect; Vance & Shackelford, 2021) is suggestive of the functional value of such a refractory period in terms of reducing self-semen displacement.



Sperm Quality and Ejaculate Adjustment

In comparison to ova, sperm and seminal fluid are relatively inexpensive to produce in terms of metabolic expenditure (Hayward & Gillooly, 2011). However, *relatively inexpensive* does not mean *inconsequential*, and males are not expected to be indiscriminate in this expenditure. Rather, males are expected to adjust this expenditure to invest disproportionately in copulations for which sperm competition risk is higher. Indeed, at a species' level, sperm competition results in increased sperm quality along several parameters, including percentage of normal sperm, acrosome integrity, and motility (Gómez Montoto et al., 2011). Similar adjustments in sperm and ejaculate quality have been documented at an individual level, as well. For example, men who produced masturbatory ejaculates in response to sexually explicit visual materials adjust that ejaculate depending on the level of sperm competition depicted in that material. Specifically, men exposed to depictions of sperm competition produce masturbatory ejaculates with greater sperm motility (Kilgallon & Simmons, 2005). As sperm motility is positively associated with fertility (Tardif et al., 1999), producing an ejaculate with more motile sperm in the presence of sperm competition would be a valuable response to such conditions.

Other metrics relevant to the risk of sperm competition have been related to functional ejaculate adjustments. For example, high mate value men produce comparatively high-quality ejaculates, but only when produced in response to highly attractive women (Leivers et al., 2014). Given that highly attractive women are perceived to be particularly attractive as short-term mates (McDowell & Starratt, 2019) and are more likely to embrace a short-term mating strategy (Perilloux et al., 2013), they may represent a relatively high risk of sperm competition, at least in comparison to their less attractive counterparts. Higher mate value men are also more likely to pursue a slower life history strategy (McDowell & Starratt, 2021; Strouts et al., 2017) and, given that a slower life history strategy is associated with an increased focus on a long-term mating strategy and the consequential increased risk of sperm-competition-caused cuckoldry, men who report slower life history strategies also produce higher-quality ejaculates (Barbaro et al., 2019). In short, it is possible that men who find themselves at greater risk of sperm competition by forming long-term partnerships, and at greater risk of particularly high costs of sperm competition by forming partnerships with highly attractive women, may solve the adaptive problem of increased risk by producing high-quality ejaculates likely to be successful in sperm competition.

Beyond the influence of long-term versus short-term mating strategies and the attractiveness of one's partner, there are specific copulatory behaviors men perform that may affect ejaculate quality. In general, these copulatory behaviors may function to increase ejaculate quality by increasing male sexual arousal (Pound et al., 2002). One of the behaviors that may serve this purpose is the performance of cunnilingus, a behavior associated with increased sexual arousal in men and increased duration of subsequent copulation, both of which are associated with signals of increased ejaculate quality such as ejaculate

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volume (Pham et al., 2016; Pham et al., 2013b). That is, men who perform oral sex on their partner may also experience increased sexual arousal and spend more time in copulation, which leads to the production of high-quality ejaculates (e.g., greater sperm number and faster sperm swimming speed) that presumably fare better in sperm competition.

Copulation Frequency, Sexual Coercion, and Forced Copulation

In addition to displacing rival semen and increasing ejaculate quality, males also may increase their chances of success in sperm competition by increasing the frequency of copulation with their partner. Indeed, men whose female partners spend more time around rival males—a circumstance that creates more opportunity for a woman to put her partner at risk of sperm competition—report greater in-pair copulation frequency, primarily when those women are perceived to be particularly attractive (Pham et al., 2014). The value of this increased copulation frequency may be twofold. First, as copulation frequency is positively related to relationship satisfaction (McNulty et al., 2016) and relationship satisfaction is negatively related to female extra-pair sexual activity (Atkins et al., 2001), it is possible that this increased frequency of in-pair copulation reduces the risk of sperm competition by increasing relationship satisfaction and consequently reducing the risk of a woman engaging in behaviors that would put her partner at risk of sperm competition.

Second, frequent copulations may decrease the likelihood that, should a female partner have engaged in an extra-pair copulation, the rival males' sperm will have an unchallenged chance at fertilization. This value of frequent in-pair copulation is evident in men's insistence on and persistence in pursuing copulation with a partner whom they believe may have engaged in extra-pair sexual activity. That is, men who are at greater risk of sperm competition are more likely to employ sexual coercion against their partners (Goetz & Shackelford, 2006; Lopes et al., 2019; Starratt et al., 2008). Additionally, following cues to increased sperm competition risk, men are more likely to report decreased copulatory duration (Barbaro et al., 2015). By engaging in forced in-pair copulation and reducing the amount of time to place his sperm in competition with any rival male sperm in his partner's reproductive tract, a man would be reducing the likelihood of cuckoldry should his partner's behavior have put him at risk of sperm competition (Shackelford et al., 2006). The reduced copulatory duration described here and the increased copulatory duration subsequent to increased cunnilingual duration described above may represent two distinct sperm competition tactics, with the former more likely to serve as a "corrective strategy" and the latter as a "preventative" strategy (Barbaro et al., 2015).

Partner-directed violence that is not specifically sexual also may function as a response to sperm competition, as female-directed violence positively correlates with frequency of in-pair copulations. That is, men who are more violent toward their partners also secure more copulations with those partners (Barbaro & Shackelford, 2016). That said, the nature of the violence may be tailored to different aspects of sperm competition risk. For example, while men who accuse their female partners of having been unfaithful are more

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likely to sexually coerce their partners, men who find their partners to be already pregnant switch from sexual violence to nonsexual physical violence (Burch & Gallup, 2020). In other words, when the risk is that a female partner's behavior may have put a man at risk of sperm competition, he is more likely to engage in partner-directed sexual violence, which could function to place his sperm in competition with any existing rival males' sperm. However, when a partner's pregnancy is confirmed and the risk escalates from one of potential sperm competition to potential cuckoldry, men's behavior may shift from specifically sexual violence to nonsexual physical assault, which may more directly address the potential risk of his partner giving birth to a rival male's offspring (i.e., by causing miscarriage). Some evidence even suggests this nonsexual physical violence may be particularly targeted toward the pregnancy, with assaults to the abdomen and the developing fetus (Valladares et al., 2005).

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These behavioral responses to sperm competition risk are expressions of men's evolved psychology designed to address such risk. That is, as men's risk of sperm competition increases, so too does their sexual interest in their partner, distress following their partner's sexual rejection, and persistence in pursuing sex with their partner following her sexual rejection (Shackelford et al., 2007), particularly when they perceive themselves to be at risk of a partner's infidelity (Starratt et al., 2013). Men at an increased risk of sperm competition also demonstrate increased mate-guarding behaviors, which function to reduce the likelihood of a partner engaging in behavior that would put a man at risk of sperm competition (Starratt et al., 2007). In short, men who perceive themselves to be at risk of sperm competition experience jealousy and emotional distress, which are amplified by a partner's sexual rejection and which motivate men to tenaciously pursue copulation with their partners, occasionally to the point forced sex.

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Female Role in Sperm Competition

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Men's sensitivity to a partner's sexual rejection and motivation to respond to that rejection with increased sexual persistence may be warranted in terms of risk of sperm competition. This is because women who have had sex with an extra-pair man may be likely to subsequently attempt delaying sex with their in-pair partner (Gallup et al., 2006). Such a delay would effectively prevent a woman's in-pair partner from successfully addressing this greater risk of sperm competition. This behavior of delaying in-pair copulation following extra-pair copulation may be but one way in which women influence sperm competition for the purpose of granting reproductive preference to some men over others. In fact, evidence suggests that females employ a wide array of strategies to exert control over males' sperm competition success, strategies sometimes referred to as cryptic female choice (Firman et al., 2017).

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These female strategies to influence sperm competition include both behavioral strategies, such as in-pair copulation delay, and physiological mechanisms. An example of the latter is chemoattractant moderated sperm choice, in which the follicular fluid of a

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particular woman differentially attracts sperm of some men over others in a manner that is independent of that woman's intentional mate choice (Fitzpatrick et al., 2020). Ova preferentially attract sperm from specific males, and the preferential treatment of those sperm appears to be independent of whether those sperm come from the woman's social partner or from an extra-pair partner. It is likely that these effects are the result of the influence of female reproductive fluid, including chemoattractants, on both sperm and seminal fluid. For example, female reproductive fluid can affect sperm motility, longevity, and capacitation and can influence seminal fluid such that it is more conducive to sperm viability (Gasparini et al., 2020).

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It has also been suggested that female orgasm may function as a means of cryptic female choice via ejaculate manipulation, such that more sperm are retained in the reproductive tract when female orgasm occurs shortly before, during, or a brief time after male ejaculation (Baker & Bellis, 1993). Women who orgasm shortly before or less than an hour following male ejaculation, according to this hypothesis, retain more sperm from that ejaculate. That women are more likely to experience orgasm when their male partners are more attractive (Shackelford et al., 2000) and display lower fluctuating asymmetry (Thornhill, Gangestad, & Comer, 1995), two indicators of high mate value, suggests that women may preferentially retain sperm from particularly high value men. Retaining a greater portion of sperm from higher-quality men, of course, would subsequently increase the likelihood of successful fertilization by those more valuable men.

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If female orgasm functions as a mechanism of cryptic female choice, then we might expect men to demonstrate interest in ensuring a female partner's orgasm, particularly when they are at greater risk of sperm competition. Indeed, evidence suggests that this is the case. For example, interest in a partner's orgasm is positively related to risk of sperm competition, particularly for men who are more highly invested in their long-term relationship (McKibbin et al., 2010). That is, men who perceive themselves to be at some risk of sperm competition and who are invested in maintaining a relationship with their current long-term partner are more likely to report an interest in ensuring their partner's copulatory orgasm, thereby potentially increasing their likelihood of successfully surviving sperm competition and decreasing the risk of suffering the negative effects of cuckoldry. This is not to suggest, however, that any potential value of female orgasm is restricted to its purported role in cryptic female choice. It also has been argued that female orgasm may function as a broader mate-retention strategy, such that women in relationships with men who demonstrate an interest in female orgasm and pursue behaviors to that end may remain more invested in and less likely to stray from those relationships (Pham et al., 2013a). In either case, men who are more successful in ensuring their female partner's copulatory orgasms may be at a reduced risk of encountering sperm competition and/or an increase likelihood of "winning" such a competition.

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Impact and Influence of Sperm CompetitionAlthough there remains some debate as to the level of risk of sperm competition in humans, the preponderance of evidence indicates

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that it has played an influential role in the evolution of human sexual physiology, psychology, and behavior. As the sex subject to both the negative consequences of losing sperm competition and the benefits of winning sperm competition, men have evolved physical adaptations that function to increase their chances of successfully navigating a high risk of sperm competition and psychological adaptations that motivate behaviors both for avoiding sperm competition and for being successful when it either cannot be avoided or

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Table 23.1 Proposed Adaptations to Sperm Competition	
Adaptation	Function
Precopulatory	
Large testes to body mass ratio	Larger testes produce larger ejaculates, which increase chances of successful fertilization
Penis morphology (e.g., coronal ridge protrusion)	Displacement of rival male semen from the female reproductive tract
Response to a partner's sexual rejection	Increased sexual interest, persistence, and distress following rejection increases likelihood of placing sperm in competition with potential rival sperm
Sexual coercion	Increases likelihood of placing sperm in competition with potential rival sperm
Mate guarding	Prevent partner from engaging in behavior that would increase risk of sperm competition
Copulatory	
Copulatory frequency	Increases likelihood of placing sperm in competition with potential rival sperm
Copulatory duration	quickly placing sperm in competition with potential rival sperm
Increased thrusting depth and frequency	displacement of rival male semen from the female reproductive tract
ejaculate adjustment	Ejaculate quality increases with the risk (high risk) and costs (high partner quality) of sperm competition
Chemoattractant moderated sperm choice	Cryptic female choice; female reproductive fluid preferentially attracts sperm from specific males
Female orgasm	Cryptic female choice; increased retention of sperm from high value males
Interest in ensuring female orgasm	Increase chance of preferential retention of own sperm over potential rival male sperm
Postcopulatory	
Female-specific refractory period	Reduce risk of self-semen displacement
Female-delayed in-pair copulation	Following extra-pair copulation, delaying in-pair copulation favors rival male sperm
Partner-directed nonsexual violence	Reduce risk of partner giving birth to rival male's offspring





when it would be reproductively valuable. On the other hand, as the sex that could almost invariably benefit from sperm competition, women have adaptations for both encouraging sperm competition among rival males and ensuring that the most valuable of those rivals is successful.

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