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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA
RIVERSIDE

Does Selective Breeding for High Voluntary Wheel-Running Behavior Alter
the Pelvis in a Sex-Specific Manner?

A Thesis submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science

in

Evolution, Ecology, and Organismal Biology

by

Marisol B. Ibarra Zea

September 2026

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ABSTRACT OF THESIS

Does Selective Breeding for High Voluntary Wheel-Running Behavior Alter
the Pelvis in a Sex-Specific Manner?

by

Marisol B. Ibarra Zea

Master of Science, Evolution, Ecology, and Organismal Biology
University of California, Riverside, September 2026
Dr. Theodore Garland, Jr., Chairperson

The pelvis is the attachment site for vertebrate hindlimbs and is responsible for supporting the weight of the upper body and transferring it to the lower limbs, facilitating balance and mobility. The pelvis is composed of the sacrum, coccyx, and paired hip bones (ilium, ischium, pubis). Research comparing species with different locomotor behaviors indicates that pelvic morphology in terrestrial mammals may be shaped, in part, by evolutionary trade-offs between reproductive demands and locomotor performance. We used the artificially selected High Runner (HR) lines of mice to analyze pelvic morphology in relation to daily movement distance and sex. In this model, outbred house mice (*Mus domesticus*; Hsd:ICR strain) were bred for increased voluntary wheel-running behavior to create four HR lines and four non-selected Control (C) lines. These lines have been used to study correlated responses in exercise physiology, behavior, neurobiology, and genetics. Whole-body CT images were

obtained from 190 mice at generation 93. Pelvic size and shape were analyzed with 3D geometric morphometrics, based on 44 landmarks.

We expected divergence in pelvic morphology between the HR and C lines, and that this would be greater for males than for females because the latter are somewhat constrained by reproductive demands. We also tested for differences among the replicate HR lines to examine the possibility of multiple solutions.

With body length as a covariate, HR lines did not significantly differ from C lines in pelvic centroid size, but the pelvis was larger in females than males, with no linetype-by-sex interaction. In contrast, pelvic shape (with or without body size or centroid size as a covariate), was affected by both linetype and sex, but with no linetype-by-sex interaction, therefore not supporting our differential constraint hypothesis.

At the level of variation among replicate lines, pelvic shape was more dispersed in morphospace in HR lines as compared with C lines, for both sexes. This result suggests "many-to-one mapping" as a mechanism that has led to "multiple solutions" in response to a uniform selective regime imposed on the four replicate HR lines.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Pelvis in general

The **pelvis** (sacrum, coccyx, and paired hip bones [os coxae; composed of the ilium, ischium, and pubis]) serves as a critical functional interface, responsible for the transmission of propulsive forces from the hindlimbs to the torso and the distribution of axial body weight to the appendicular skeleton (Dalstra and Huiskes 1995; Lewton et al. 2020). Selection on locomotor behavior is expected to engender **correlated, adaptive changes** in pelvic structure that enhance force transmission, stability, and energetic efficiency. Accordingly, the mammalian pelvis has received considerable study.

1.2. Pelvis in Relation to Locomotion in Quadrupeds

Numerous studies have examined pelvic characteristics in relation to locomotion in quadrupeds, especially how the pelvis is related to cursoriality. Before considering some examples, it is important to note that the definition of "cursoriality" is complicated. In a review of the literature, Carrano (1999) noted multiple definitional aspects, including: 1) an animal that can run, run often or for

long distances; 2) has parasagittal oriented limbs; 3) larger animals specialized as a result of limb scaling at large body sizes; 4) morphology-based differences; 5) performance-based differences; 6) mechanical relevance for locomotion. Thus, studies can vary widely in how they define cursoriality, including Kelly et al. (2006) and (Garland, Jr. and Janis 1993).

In a broad-based comparative study of 123 species, Álvarez et al. (2013) found that in saltatorial and bipedal species, such as kangaroo rats (*Dipodomys* sp.) and spring hare (*Pedetes capensis*), the pelvis has an elongated ilium and ischio-pubic complex. Cursorial species, including the cheetah (*Acinonyx jubatus*), gray wolf (*Canis lupus*), and Patagonian mara (*Dolichotis patagonum*), have an elongated ilium and a wide vertical ramus of the ischium. Conversely, ambulatory mammals like the hog-nosed skunk (*Conepatus chinga*) and crab-eating raccoon (*Procyon cancrivorus*) typically have an open acetabulum and a relatively short ischio-pubic complex. Finally, trotter species, such as the Western European hedgehog (*Erinaceus europaeus*) and the wombat (*Vombatus ursinus*), are characterized by an extremely reduced symphysis and ischium body (Álvarez et al. 2013).

In a study of 46 species of modern Carnivora and 27 extinct ones, Martín-Serra et al. (2014) concluded that body size (allometry) and phylogeny appear to be the primary drivers of hind limb morphology (femur, tibia, and pelvis taken

together), with locomotor behavior playing a secondary role. Even so, examining these structures across different taxa reveals clear functional contrasts in skeletal robustness. For instance, cursorial canids have slender hind limbs that may facilitate energetic efficiency, whereas distantly related ursids (e.g., the extinct cave bear and giant panda), the semifossorial European badger, and extinct saber-toothed cats (*Smilodon* and *Barbourofelis*), have robust bone morphologies that could be more suited to withstanding the mechanical stresses of capturing large prey. In addition, Martín-Serra et al. (2014) concluded that allometric shape changes (with pelvises exhibiting larger areas in larger-bodied species) may provide increased attachment space for proximal limb muscles. Ultimately, the authors suggest that the appendicular skeleton in mammalian carnivores is an example of “one-to-many” pattern of evolution between phenotype and function (Martín-Serra et al. 2014).

In a more recent study of 33 species of Carnivora, Lewton et al. (2020) found results that corroborated those of Martin-Serra (2014) in showing that phylogeny and body size have greater effects on the three-dimensional (3D) shape of the carnivoran pelvis than does locomotor behavior, which they categorized into six locomotor “groups” (arboreal, cursorial, natatorial, scansorial, semifossorial, terrestrial). Nevertheless, examining pelvic morphology across these specific locomotor groups reveals some anatomical patterns. For instance, many terrestrial species (e.g., felids) have square-shaped pubic bones with long

symphyses, whereas other terrestrial groups (e.g., herpestids [mongooses]) have narrower ilia and more slender ischia. In addition, scansorial taxa, such as ursids, have the widest and most laterally flaring iliac blades in the sample, though the authors note this is likely driven by positive allometric changes related to body size rather than climbing demands. Similarly, cursorial canids are characterized by longer ilia and shorter ischia, whereas semifossorial skunks have a triangular pelvis with long pubic rami and short symphyses. In contrast, the arboreal locomotor type seen in species such as palm civets is associated with a pelvis featuring wide ilia and broad ischia.

In contrast, research on 12 species of Felidae by Pallandre et al. (2021) indicates that pelvic morphology, specifically the inter-iliac angle, is more related to locomotor behavior (e.g., climbing, pack hunting) than to phylogeny and allometry. Cursorial specialists, such as the cheetah, have a long and narrow pelvis, with a highly acute angle, which is thought to enhance joint stiffness to resist pitching moments during high-speed gallops. Arboreal species have wider pelvic angles, hypothesized to support the leg abduction required for climbing. In contrast, scansorial and terrestrial felids have intermediate angles.

In a study of 30 species of echimyid rodents and eight species of octodontoid, Tavares and Pessôa (2020) found that, after correcting for variation in body size, epigean species, such as the terrestrial spiny rats (*Proechimys*

simonsi and *Thrichomys inermis*), have an elongated pelvis, with a quadrangular shape and a long distance between the acetabulum and femoral tubercle, which is suggested to provide the power and stability needed for rapid terrestrial acceleration. Arboreal taxa, including the bamboo rat (*Kannabateomys amblyonyx*) and the painted tree rat (*Callistomys pictus*), have a short distance between the femoral tubercle and acetabulum and a large femoral head with a short greater trochanter, possibly helping with extreme hip mobility and load-bearing capacity required for climbing. In contrast, fossorial rodents (e.g., *Carterodon sulcidens* and *Clyomys laticeps*) have a short, wide pubic body and a broad obturator foramen resulting in a triangular ischiopubic region, which likely increases the area for hip adductor muscles used to stabilize the body while digging. Finally, semi-aquatic species such as the coypu (*Myocastor coypus*) are characterized by a posteriorly elongated pubic body and a high ischial tuberosity located close to the acetabulum, which is suggested to promote the strong propulsive force needed for the swimming power stroke (Tavares and Pessôa 2020).

Despite numerous studies (Csanády et al. 2019; Mpagike and Makungu 2024; Belyaev et al. 2025). However, the selective factors that have led to the adaptive evolution of pelvis size and shape are not fully understood, nor are the potential constraints and functional trade-offs that may be involved (Lewton 2015; Esteban et al. 2020).

1.3. Sexual Dimorphism (and Sexual Selection)

Differential functional requirements, such as those related to weight bearing, parturition, locomotion, and attachment of muscles can lead to the evolution of sexual size dimorphism (Csanády et al. 2019). Aside from functional demands related to locomotion, the mammalian pelvis is also uniquely shaped by the physical and physiological requirements of reproduction. As these requirements typically differ between the sexes, one might expect some degree of sexual dimorphism in the pelvis. Indeed, the pelvis is sexually dimorphic in many species, including laboratory rodents, with females generally having larger and wider pelvic apertures that facilitate the passage of neonates (McPherson and Chenoweth 2012).

In the genus *Urocyon*, two species of foxes (*U. cinereoargenteus* and *U. littoralis*) exhibit significant sexual dimorphism in pelvic shape. However, only *U. littoralis* had sexual dimorphism in pelvis size, and *U. cinereoargenteus* did not have dimorphic size (Schutz et al. 2009b). Specifically, males in both species typically have a larger acetabulum and a wider, longer obturator foramen. In contrast, females feature a longer, wider iliopubic ramus and a shorter pubic symphysis to accommodate a larger birth canal. The authors suggest that the pelvic dimorphism is driven by a functional constraint of efficient cursorial

locomotion (which favors a narrow pelvis) and the reproductive necessity of giving birth to proportionately large offspring (which requires a broad pelvis).

In a comparative study of two species, larger quadrupedal mammals, such as wolves and Eurasian lynx, males have larger pelvic bones than females, with the most significant differences found in the breadth of the ilium and size of the acetabulum (Csanády et al. 2019). Female wolves had a slightly wider pelvic canals than males, which the authors interpret as a likely adaptation to facilitate giving birth. Consequently, female pelvic morphology represents a functional trade-off between the narrowness required for efficient species-specific locomotion and the width necessary for giving birth to offspring (Csanády et al. 2019).

Sexual dimorphism of the pelvis has also been studied in rodents, where dimorphism is attributed to hormones and ontogeny (Gardner 1936; Bernstein and Crelin 1967; Uesugi et al. 1992). In laboratory rats, for example, sexual maturity occurs around six weeks of age (Sengupta 2013), and the first dimorphic features appear at 32 days of age (Bernstein and Crelin 1967). When comparing rats to laboratory mice, they found the biggest difference in pelvic sexual dimorphism was the pelvic canal size, which is greater in mice (wider female pelvic canal) compared to rats (Bernstein and Crelin 1967).

In laboratory house mice (*Mus musculus* or *domesticus*), pelvic shape and size are significantly modified by parity (the history of giving birth), with parous females having the largest os coxae (Schutz et al. 2009a). These parous females exhibit more divergent pelvic shapes relative to males than nulliparous females, with the puboischial complex representing the primary region of dimorphic change (Schutz et al. 2009a).

1.4. Study System

Detecting subtle functional adaptations remains challenging because environmental stochasticity and phylogenetic constraints introduce significant statistical noise across comparative analyses. To delineate the biomechanical effects of locomotion more clearly, controlled experimental frameworks are required, as can be achieved through artificial selection experiments (Rose and Garland, Jr. 2009). The High-Runner (HR) mouse experiment serves as a primary organismal model for evaluating the correlated responses to selection for high intensity locomotor behavior under replicated and highly controlled conditions (Swallow et al. 1998, 2009). Begun from an outbred (genetically variable) founding population of laboratory house mice in 1993, the protocol utilizes four replicate HR lines selectively bred for increased voluntary wheel running distance on days five and six of a six day trial as young adults, while four additional lines are maintained as non-selected controls (Swallow et al. 1998).

Increased wheel-running behavior (both daily distance and running speeds) in the HR lines leads to altered mechanical loading and would be expected to engender correlated responses in functionally relevant aspects of the skeleton.

Long-term artificial selection for voluntary exercise has elicited a suite of correlated behavioral, physiological, and morphological responses. Compared to non-selected Control mice, individuals from the HR lines have:

1. Elevated spontaneous physical activity (SPA) in home-cage environments when running wheels are not provided (Malisch et al. 2009; Khan et al. 2024).
2. Systematic reductions in adult body mass and body length, largely driven by decreased post-weaning growth rates (Swallow et al. 1999; Thompson et al. 2024).
3. Reduced adiposity (body fat mass), alongside an enhanced physiological capacity to conserve fat when faced with the acute energetic challenge of wheel running (Hiramatsu and Garland, Jr. 2018).
4. Superior aerobic performance, characterized by higher treadmill endurance and significantly elevated maximal oxygen consumption VO_{2max} during forced exercise (Meek et al. 2009; Schwartz et al. 2023).
5. Cardiac adaptations, including larger heart mass relative to body mass (Copes et al. 2015; Schwartz and Garland, Jr. 2024).

6. Larger femoral heads, which likely serve as a biomechanical adaptation to increase articular surface area at the hip, thereby reducing joint stress during loading (Garland, Jr. and Freeman 2005; Kelly et al. 2006; Castro and Garland, Jr. 2018).
7. Modular adaptations of the ribcage, including significant alterations in rib shape, count, and craniocaudal patterning within the thoracic region (Webb et al. 2026).
8. Divergent pelvic and hindlimb size and/or shape, including more gracile pelvic structures characterized by thinner distal ilia and lighter overall pelvic mass (Castro et al. 2021). Furthermore, μ CT analyses demonstrate that exercise-induced loading via 13 weeks of voluntary wheel running (in these lines results in an increase in ilium cortical area (Lewton et al. 2019).

1.6. Hypotheses

Here, we studied the pelvic girdle of the HR mice from generation 93. Our first, general hypothesis was that the pelvis would differ in size (relative to body size) and/or multivariate shape between HR and C lines of mice. Second, we expected differences between males and females. Third, we expected that any differences would be greater in males than in females because the former are not constrained by the need to give birth. Finally, we expected to find evidence for

the evolution of "multiple solutions" among the four replicate High Runner lines
(see Discussion).

2. Methods

2.1. Organismal Model and Selection Regime

The specimens utilized in this investigation were retired breeders from generation 93 of the High-Runner (HR) mouse selection experiment, an ongoing study of the evolution of voluntary exercise behavior initiated in 1993 (Swallow et al. 1998; Careau et al. 2013). Briefly, the founding population consisted of 224 outbred, genetically heterogeneous Hsd:ICR house mice (*Mus domesticus*), which were randomly mated for two generations before being partitioned into eight closed lines. Four of these replicate lines are selectively bred for high voluntary wheel-running distance, while the remaining four lines serve as non-selected controls. Selection is based on the total number of wheel revolutions recorded during the final two days of a six-day trial once individuals reach sexual maturity (~6–8 weeks of age) (Swallow et al. 1998). Within the HR lines, the highest-running male and female from each of the 10 families per line are chosen as breeders, whereas breeders for the Control lines a male and female from within each family are chosen at random (Swallow et al. 1998). To reduce inbreeding, sibling matings are prohibited (Swallow et al. 1998). Throughout the

experiment, mice are maintained on a 12:12-hour light:dark cycle with ad libitum access to water and a standard laboratory rodent diet (Harlan Teklad [W]-8604). Following a 19-day co-housing period for breeding, pregnant dams are transitioned to a high-nutrient breeder diet (Harlan Teklad [S-2335]-7004) until offspring reached weaning at post-natal day 21.

2.2. Specimens

The specimens analyzed in the present study (100 males, 95 females; Table 1) are the same as used by Webb et al. (2026) in their investigation of thoracic morphology. Males were euthanized at a mean age of 95 days, following their removal from breeding pairs, while females were sacrificed at an average of 126 days, exactly seven days after their pups were weaned at 21 days of age. This specific timeline for females is important for pelvic analysis, as the history of parturition (parity) is known to induce significant changes in the murine puboischial complex (Schutz et al. 2009a). Immediately following sacrifice via carbon dioxide inhalation, body mass was recorded to the nearest 0.01 g and body length (rostrum to anus) was measured to the nearest mm (Webb et al. 2026).

2.3. Three-Dimensional μ CT Analysis and Reconstruction

As described previously, carcasses were stored at -20°C prior to postmortem imaging. High-resolution three-dimensional (3D) pelvic volumes were captured using a Nikon XT225ST μ CT scanner (80 kV, 120 μA , 1440 projections), yielding scans with an isometric pixel size of 61 μm (Webb et al. 2026). The pelvic skeletal elements were digitally isolated from the surrounding soft tissue using Dragonfly ORS (v. 2022.1; Comet Technologies, Canada). The resulting osteological meshes were converted into 3D surface wraps in MeshLab (v. 2022.02) utilizing Poisson surface reconstruction (Cignoni et al. 2008; Kazhdan and Hoppe 2013).

2.4. Statistical Analysis of Body Size and Pelvis Centroid Size

In accordance with established protocols for the HR model, phenotypic traits were analyzed using SAS Procedure MIXED (SAS Institute, Cary, NC) (e.g., Copes et al. 2015; Castro and Garland, Jr. 2018; Hiramatsu and Garland, Jr. 2018; Schwartz and Garland, Jr. 2024). The statistical models employed sex and 'linetype' (HR vs. Control) as fixed effects, with replicate line nested within linetype as a random effect (Castro and Garland, Jr. 2018; Webb et al. 2026). Degrees of freedom for testing the main effects of linetype, sex, and their interaction were 1 and 6. Because the mammalian pelvis scales significantly with

body size, body length was used a covariate to control for allometric effects on pelvic architecture (Martín-Serra et al. 2014; Lewton et al. 2020). We allowed for different variances between HR and C groups, both at the level of among lines and at the level of residual variation.

2.5. Pelvis Isolation, Landmark Collection, Visualization, and Statistical Analyses

Pelvis morphology was quantified using 3D geometric morphometrics (Zelditch et al. 2026). A total of 44 homologous landmarks were digitized for each pelvis specimen using 3D Slicer software, version 5.8.1 (Kikinis et al. 2014). The 3D surface wraps (.stl files) created in Webb et al. (2026) were imported into 3D Slicer (<https://www.slicer.org/>), where a Region of Interest (ROI) was placed to encapsulate the pelvis. The ROI was then clipped to create a new model, removing the rest of the mouse skeleton. The online Supplemental Files includes a complete description of the procedures used to process scans and place landmarks (Supplementary_Material_Protocol 3dslicer_V10ProQuest.docx).

Based on the landmarks from Berdnikovs et al. 2007, Waltenberger et al. 2021, and Özkan et al 2024, 44 landmarks were chosen to capture the overall shape of the pelvis. With the isolated pelvis, the 44 landmarks were placed on

100 male and 95 female specimens (two males and three females were subsequently excluded from analyses as outliers: see below). The 3D coordinates for the 44 landmarks were then exported as a csv file for each mouse. Custom R code was then used to read in these files and create a single csv file containing all mice.

Shape analysis was performed using the R package geomorph (Baken et al. 2021). To align landmarks within a common shape space and eliminate the effects of translation, rotation, and size, a generalized Procrustes superimposition (GPA) was executed via the 'gpagen' function (Rohlf and Slice 1990; Zelditch and Swiderski 2024).

Principal components (N = 125) were computed from the 44 landmark coordinates. Principal component (PC) scores for the first four axes were extracted for each individual and used to visualize morphospace occupation. To illustrate the extent of morphospace occupied by each line, convex hull polygons were calculated from the PC scores using the `chull()` function and overlaid onto the PC scatterplots. Figures were generated using the `ggplot2` package in R. Based on scatterplots of scores for PCs 1 through 4, we identified five outliers (96200 F, 96332 F, 96013 F, 96233 M, 96012 M), i.e., specimens whose scores were discrepant relative to their sex and linetype minimum convex polygons (96200 and 96332). Three of these individuals had apparent deformities or

dubious scans (96233, 96012, 96013). These five individuals were removed from the dataset, resulting in 98 males and 92 females.

Statistical analyses used Procrustes coordinates as the dependent variable, with replicate line nested within linetype. To control for allometry, body length was included as a covariate (Klingenberg 2016), as this measure has been demonstrated to be a superior predictor of skeletal morphology in High Runner (HR) mice compared to body mass (Castro et al. 2021). Statistical models were implemented via the 'procD.lm' function of geomorph using 10,000 iterations and Type III Sums of Squares. The use of Type III Sums of Squares aligns with the established conventions of the HR mouse experiment, as in the SAS analyses described above. This method is unaffected by the order of factors and effectively handles uneven sample sizes. Finally, to account for the fact that each replicate line represents an independent experimental iteration, the 'anova' function was used to adjust error effects. This ensured that the effect of linetype was evaluated relative to the variance associated with the replicate lines rather than the residual error, with 1 and 6 d.f.). The online supplemental **Supplemental Files** includes a complete output with all R code and Results, as a Microsoft Word file (PelvisShape_Analysis_Code_40_Supp.docx).

3. Results

3.1. Body Length

Considering both sexes, body length did not significantly differ between HR and Control lines (**Table 2A**) (SAS Procedure Mixed with REML estimation and Type III tests of fixed effects: $N=190$, $F_{\text{linetype}}=1.98$, $d.f.=1,6$, $p=0.2095$; Least Squares Means and associated Standard Errors were $10.90 \pm 0.07 \text{ mm}$ for Control and $10.75 \pm 0.08 \text{ mm}$ for HR lines). By contrast, the effect of sex was significant ($F_{\text{sex}}=15.00$, $d.f.=1,6$, $p=0.0082$), with $\text{LSM} \pm \text{SE}$ of $10.91 \pm 0.06 \text{ mm}$ for females and $10.74 \pm 0.06 \text{ mm}$ for males. The sex-by-linetype interaction term was non-significant ($F_{\text{sex*linetype}}=0.05$, $d.f.=1,6$, $p=0.8313$). Considering the sexes separately, body length did not significantly differ between the two linetypes for either females (**Table 2B**) or males (**Table 2C**).

Body length differed among genetic lines and between sexes (**Fig. 3A**). Across both Control and High Runner lines, females generally exhibited greater least-squares mean body lengths than males. Variation among genetic lines was evident within both line types, with Co4 and HR8 exhibiting the largest body

lengths and HR6 and HR7 exhibiting comparatively smaller body lengths.

Individual variation within each line and sex is shown by the distribution of gray points.

3.2. Pelvis Centroid Size

With body length as a covariate ($F_{\text{length}}=95.49$, d.f.=1, 173, $p<0.0001$), HR and Control lines did not significantly differ for centroid size ($N=190$, $F_{\text{linetype}}=0.72$, d.f.=1,6, $p=0.4286$) (**Table 2D**). By contrast, the effect of sex was highly significant ($F_{\text{sex}}=401.52$, d.f.=1,6, $p<0.0001$), with females having larger centroid sizes than males. The sex-by-linetype interaction term was non-significant ($F_{\text{sex*linetype}}=0.06$, d.f.=1,6, $p=0.8144$). Considering the sexes separately, HR and Control lines did not significantly differ for either females (**Table 2E**) or males (**Table 2F**).

After adjusting for body length as a covariate, pelvis centroid size also varied among genetic lines and between sexes (**Fig. 3B**). Females generally exhibited larger adjusted centroid sizes than males across both Control and High Runner lines. Among the Control lines, Co2 and Co4 had the largest adjusted centroid sizes, whereas HR8 exhibited the largest adjusted centroid size among the High Runner lines. Differences among genetic lines remained evident after accounting for body length.

3.3. Pelvis Shape

Pelvis Shape for Both Sexes

Using all mice for the pelvis with no covariate (**Table 3A**), selective breeding for high voluntary activity significantly impacted shape (Nested Procrustes ANOVA with Type III Sums of Squares: $N=190$, $F_{\text{linetype}}=32.03$, $d.f.=1,174$, $Z=4.86$, $p=0.0001$). Sexual dimorphism in overall pelvic morphology was highly significant ($F_{\text{sex}}=41.90$, $d.f.=1,174$, $Z=6.10$, $p=0.0001$), although the sex-by-linetype interaction term was non-significant ($F_{\text{sex*linetype}}=0.15$, $d.f.=1,174$, $p=0.8336$). Regarding variation among the replicate lines (nested within linetype), the overall pelvis shape varied significantly ($F_{\text{line(linetype)}}=12.95$, $d.f.=6,174$, $Z=7.05$, $p=0.0001$). These replicate lines accounted for a larger portion of the total morphological variation in the model ($R^2=0.096$) than the effect of selection for running behavior itself. The interaction between replicate line and sex was non-significant ($F_{\text{line(linetype)*sex}}=1.54$, $d.f.=6,174$, $p=0.1230$).

Results were similar with body length as a covariate, which was not a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 3B**). Results were also similar with centroid size as a covariate, although it was a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 3C**).

Shape by Line

Using the High Runner subset for the pelvis with no covariate (**Table 4A**), replicate line significantly impacted shape (Procrustes ANOVA with Type III Sums of Squares: $N=99$, $F_{\text{Line}}=23.40$, $d.f.=3, 91$, $Z=6.68$, $p=0.0001$). Sexual dimorphism in overall pelvic morphology was highly significant ($F_{\text{Sex}}=47.09$, $d.f.=1, 91$, $Z=6.03$, $p=0.0001$), although the line-by-sex interaction term was non-significant ($F_{\text{Line} \times \text{Sex}}=1.98$, $d.f.=3, 91$, $p=0.0860$). Regarding variation among the replicate lines, the overall pelvis shape varied significantly ($F_{\text{Line}}=23.40$, $d.f.=3, 91$, $Z=6.68$, $p=0.0001$). These replicate lines accounted for a larger portion of the total morphological variation in the model ($R^2=0.141$) than the effect of sexual dimorphism itself ($R^2=0.095$). Finally, the interaction between replicate line and sex was non-significant ($F_{\text{Line} \times \text{Sex}}=1.98$, $d.f.=3, 91$, $p=0.0860$).

Using the Control subset for the pelvis with no covariate (**Table 4B**), replicate line significantly impacted shape (Procrustes ANOVA with Type III Sums of Squares: $N=91$, $F_{\text{Line}}=2.89$, $d.f.=3, 83$, $Z=2.04$, $p=0.0201$). Sexual dimorphism in overall pelvic morphology was highly significant ($F_{\text{Sex}}=41.03$, $d.f.=1, 83$, $Z=6.00$, $p=0.0001$), although the line-by-sex interaction term was non-significant ($F_{\text{Line} \times \text{Sex}}=1.10$, $d.f.=3, 83$, $p=0.3542$). Regarding variation among

the replicate lines, the overall pelvis shape varied significantly ($F_{\text{Line}}=2.89$, $d.f.=3, 83$, $Z=2.04$, $p=0.0201$). In this control group, these replicate lines accounted for a smaller portion of the total morphological variation in the model ($R^2=0.031$) than the effect of sexual dimorphism itself ($R^2=0.148$). Finally, the interaction between replicate line and sex was non-significant ($F_{\text{Line} \times \text{Sex}}=1.10$, $d.f.=3, 83$, $p=0.3542$).

Results were similar with body length as a covariate for both HR and C, which was not a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 4C** for HR and **Table 4D** for C mice). Results were also similar with centroid size as a covariate for both HR and C, although it was a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 4E** for HR and **Table 4F** for C mice).

Shape by Females

Males and females were analyzed both together and separately because females were older at the time of sacrifice, had experienced pregnancy and parturition, and show significant sexual dimorphism in skeletal traits associated with the hindlimb (Castro and Garland, Jr. 2018). Using the female subset for the pelvis with no covariate (**Table 5A**), selective breeding for high voluntary activity significantly impacted shape (Nested Procrustes ANOVA with Type III Sums of Squares: $N=92$, $F_{\text{Linetype}}=24.88$,

d.f.=1, 84, $Z=4.43$, $p=0.0001$). Pelvis shape also varied significantly among lines (FLine(Linetype)=10.06, d.f.=6, 84, $Z=6.24$, $p=0.0001$). These replicate lines accounted for a substantially larger portion of the total morphological variation in the model ($R^2=0.362$) than the effect of selection for running behavior itself ($R^2=0.149$).

Results were similar with body length as a covariate for all females, which was not a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 5B**). Results were also similar with centroid size as a covariate for all females, although it was a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 5C**).

Shape by Males

Using the male subset for the pelvis with no covariate (**Table 6A**), selective breeding for high voluntary activity significantly impacted shape (Nested Procrustes ANOVA with Type III Sums of Squares: $N=98$, FLine(Linetype)=43.39, d.f.=1, 90, $Z=4.58$, $p=0.0001$). Regarding variation among the replicate lines (nested within linetype), the overall pelvis shape varied significantly (FLine(Linetype)=28.07, d.f.=6, 90, $Z=8.80$, $p=0.0001$). These replicate lines accounted for a substantially larger portion of the total morphological variation in the model ($R^2=0.605$) than the main effect of selection for running behavior itself ($R^2=0.156$).

Results were similar with body length as a covariate for all males, which was not a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 6B**). Results were also similar with centroid size as a covariate for all Males, although it was a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 6C**).

Shape by Female HR Lines

Using the female High Runner (HR) subset for the pelvis with no covariate (*Table 7A*), replicate line significantly impacted shape (Procrustes ANOVA with Type III Sums of Squares: $N=47$, $F_{\text{Line}}=15.18$, $d.f.=3, 43$, $Z=5.08$, $p=0.0001$). Regarding variation among these four selected lines, the overall pelvis shape varied significantly ($F_{\text{Line}}=15.18$, $d.f.=3, 43$, $Z=5.08$, $p=0.0001$). Within this female HR group, these replicate lines accounted for a substantial portion of the total morphological variation in the model ($R^2=0.514$), representing over half of the observed shape variance.

Results were similar with body length as a covariate for HR females, which was not a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 7B**). Results were also similar with centroid size as a covariate for HR females, although it was a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 7C**).

Shape by Female C Lines

Using the female Control subset for the pelvis with no covariate (**Table 8A**), replicate line significantly impacted shape (Procrustes ANOVA with Type III Sums of Squares: $N=45$, $F_{\text{Line}}=2.81$, $d.f.=3, 41$, $Z=2.03$, $p=0.0205$). Regarding variation among these four control lines, the overall pelvis shape varied significantly ($F_{\text{Line}}=2.81$, $d.f.=3, 41$, $Z=2.03$, $p=0.0205$). Within this female control group, these replicate lines accounted for a moderate portion of the total morphological variation in the model ($R^2=0.171$). While significant, this is a smaller portion of the variance than seen in the female HR lines ($R^2=0.514$), likely reflecting the absence of directional selection for wheel-running behavior.

Results were similar with body length as a covariate for C females, which was not a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 8B**). Results were also similar with centroid size as a covariate for C females, although it was a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 8C**).

Shape by Male HR Lines

Using the male High Runner (HR) subset for the pelvis with no covariate (**Table 9A**), replicate line significantly impacted shape (Procrustes ANOVA with

Type III Sums of Squares: $N=52$, $F_{\text{Line}}=74.61$, $d.f.=3, 48$, $Z=9.02$, $p=0.0001$; $R^2=0.823$). Regarding variation among these replicate lines, the overall pelvis shape varied significantly ($F_{\text{Line}}=74.61$, $d.f.=3, 48$, $Z=9.02$, $p=0.0001$). These replicate lines accounted for a larger portion of the total morphological variation in the model ($R^2=0.823$) than observed in the female HR or control subsets.

Results were similar with body length as a covariate for HR males, which was not a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 9B**). Results were also similar with centroid size as a covariate for HR males, which was **not** a significant predictor of pelvis shape (Table 9C).

Shape by Male C Lines

Using the male Control subset for the pelvis with no covariate (**Table 10A**), replicate line significantly impacted shape (Procrustes ANOVA with Type III Sums of Squares: $N=46$, $F_{\text{Line}}=3.48$, $d.f.=3, 42$, $Z=2.06$, $p=0.0180$). Regarding variation among these replicate lines, the overall pelvis shape varied significantly ($F_{\text{Line}}=3.48$, $d.f.=3, 42$, $Z=2.06$, $p=0.0180$). These replicate lines accounted for a moderate portion of the total morphological variation in the model ($R^2=0.199$).

Results were similar with body length as a covariate for C males, which

was not a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 10B**). Results were also similar with centroid size as a covariate for C males, which was **not** a significant predictor of pelvis shape (**Table 10C**).

4. Discussion

Overall Findings in Relation to Hypotheses

The mechanical demands of locomotion and those related to reproduction may often conflict (e.g., Hogervorst et al. 2009; Ricklan et al. 2021). More generally, evolutionary trajectories of all traits are shaped by trade-offs, where, for example, the enhancement of one function occurs at a physiological or biomechanical cost to another (Garland, Jr. et al. 2022). As outlined in the Introduction, the mammalian pelvis is one structure where such conflicts and trade-offs may be particularly apparent. Here, we studied the High Runner (HR) mouse model (Garland, Jr. 2003; Swallow et al. 2009; Wallace and Garland, Jr. 2016) to four hypotheses. Our first hypothesis, that pelvis shape would differ between the 4 selectively bred High Runner lines and their 4 non-selected Control lines, was supported. Our second hypothesis was also supported: pelvis shape differs strongly between male and female mice. Our third hypothesis was that HR vs C differences would be greater in males than females because the former are not constrained by the need to give birth. This was not supported, as we found no statistically significant sex-by-linetype interaction. Finally, as hypothesized, we found that the HR lines have diverged in morphospace from

each other, and more than have the C lines, providing evidence for multiple solutions (adaptive responses) to uniform selection.

Based on analysis of PC scores (Table 3), HR and C lines of mice are strongly separated in pelvic morphospace (as indicated by Z scores in the range of 3.6-4.9), even when accounting for potential associations with pelvic centroid size or body length. Thus, our first hypothesis was supported. In addition, we found that the female and male pelvis occupy separate areas in morphospace (e.g., see Figures 4 and 5), including in analyses with body size or pelvis centroid size as covariates (Table 3). Some of this differentiation could be caused by females having given birth (and potentially by the females being older than males). However, given the magnitude of the sex differences (Z scores in the range of 4.5-6.1), we believe that it largely reflects inherent biological differences between the sexes. Results from the present study are consistent with previous reports of sexual dimorphism in the pelvic girdle of mice (Uesugi et al. 1992; Berdnikovs 2007; Schutz et al. 2009).

We did not, however, find evidence for a linetype-by-sex interaction (Table 3). Therefore, our second hypothesis that linetype differences between the sexes would be smaller for females -- because their pelvic evolution in response to selective breeding for endurance running may be constrained by reproductive demands -- was not supported. Pelvis centroid size (with body length as a

covariate: Table 2) differed between the sexes (females larger) but not between linetypes, and we again found no limetype*sex interaction. Note that body length was significantly longer in females than males, with no statistically significant effect of limetype and no limetype*sex interaction (Table 2). Thus, the response to selection was specific to pelvic shape rather than pelvic size or overall body size, a finding consistent with Webb et al. (2026), who studied the ribs. Taken together, our results and those of Webb et al. (2026) indicate that the response of the axial skeleton to selection for high voluntary activity has involved morphological reorganization, specifically overall shape changes in the pelvis and ribs, along with changes in structural patterning in the ribcage (e.g., rib counts), rather than changes in overall skeletal size.

Multiple Solutions and Many-to-One Mapping

A key finding of this study is the greater variation among the four replicate HR lines than among the four Control lines (Tables 7-10). This high degree of dispersion among HR lines in morphospace (e.g., Figures 6, 7) indicates that each line evolved its pelvic shape somewhat differently. These results suggest that redundant or "many-to-one mapping" (Alfaro et al. 2004) has allowed the evolution of "multiple solutions" to uniform selection in the HR lines. As noted by Wainwright et al. (2005), many-to-one mapping is a "ubiquitous feature of biological design" that allows for redundant mapping between underlying features

and whole-organism performance. This redundancy explains how different combinations of skeletal dimensions, such as the varying hind limb dimensions in lizards that produce similar jumping abilities (Toro et al. 2004) or the diverse combinations of leg length and muscle mass in anurans that yield equivalent jumping and swimming performance (Moen 2019). A finding of greater dispersion in morphospace for the HR versus non-selected Control lines is consistent with the findings of Webb et al. (2026) in the ribcage. Various other examples of multiple solutions, including for running behavior itself (Garland, Jr. et al. 2011; Hillis and Garland 2023) and muscle properties (Castro and Garland, Jr. 2018), have been reported.

Our findings for the HR lines contrast with the macroevolutionary results of Martín-Serra et al. (2014), who described the carnivoran appendicular skeleton as an example of a “one-to-many” pattern between phenotype and function, and a general lack of correspondence between locomotor type and skeletal phenotype (see also Lewton et al. 2020). These functional signals of adaptation may be obscured by deep-time phylogenetic associations or constraints (e.g., see Blomberg and Garland, Jr. 2002; Blomberg et al. 2003).

The specific “solutions” reached by each line likely reflect their genetic backgrounds to some extent. For instance, the “mini-muscle” phenotype, which became fixed in HR Line 3 and remains polymorphic in Line 6 (e.g., see Garland,

Jr. et al. 2002; Dlugosz et al. 2009; Castro et al. 2024), illustrates how specific genetic mutations can influence morphological and physiological outcomes. The distinct morphospace occupied by Line 3 (Figures 6, 7) may therefore represent a pelvic adaptation specifically associated with this unique mutation.

Modular Adaptation: Birth vs. Locomotion

The mammalian pelvis is a complex, multi-bone structure comprising the ilium, ischium, pubis, and sacrum. Although the present study analyzed overall pelvic shape through 3D geometric morphometrics rather than individual bone measurements, these distinct elements play specialized roles in weight bearing, muscle attachment, and parturition. Consequently, shape changes in specific regions can reveal locomotor responses to selection for high activity (voluntary wheel-running) or sexual dimorphism. The TPS grids (Figures 4B and 5B) allow for the visualization of these localized changes along the primary axes of variation.

Obstetric Module and Sexual Dimorphism

Analysis of the principal components shows that PC1 primarily captures the significant sexual dimorphism inherent in the pelvic girdle. As illustrated by

the TPS grids (Figure 4), the "PC1 max" position, occupied by females, features a noticeably wider region for the pelvic canal, defined by the expansion of the pubis and ischium and a wider orientation of the sacrum. This anatomical configuration is consistent with the "obstetric module" described by Ricklan et al. (2021), which encompasses the dimensions necessary to facilitate the passage of neonates.

Locomotor Adaptations and the Cursorial Hypothesis

In our original hypotheses, we expected HR mice to evolve a "longer and narrower" pelvis, mirroring the specialized morphology seen in cursorial specialists like the cheetah or canids, and even terrestrial spiny rats (Martín-Serra et al. 2014; Tavares and Pessôa 2020; Pallandre et al. 2021). However, the HR and C lines did not differ statistically (results not shown) for any of the first four PCs (Figures 4, 5), whereas examination of the TPS grids reveals more nuanced anatomical changes. Specifically, while PC1 emphasizes sexual dimorphism, PC2 captures variation in the distance of the ilium (specifically the ilia wing) from the sacrum (Figure 4).

However, certain bones within the pelvis have been shown to be more sensitive to selective breeding, showing trends toward a more gracile structure, such as the thinner distal ilia previously noted in these lines by Castro et al.

(2021). Moreover, mice with the mini-muscle phenotype (all of HR line 3 and some within line 6) have clearly longer and thinner hindlimbs (e.g., see Kelly et al. 2006).

Caveats, Limitations, and Future Directions

Although the 3D geometric morphometric techniques used in this study provide an important step towards the assessment of pelvic shape, several caveats regarding our experimental design and sample must be addressed. Specifically, although our overall morphometric patterns reveal clear divergence between the replicate lines, further analysis of the existing μ CT scans could provide a more granular look at the individual pelvic bone dimensions that contribute to these overarching shapes.

Methodological Refinements and Linear Measurements

We used landmark-based 3D geometric morphometrics to study overall pelvic shape. Other methods for data collection have been used in previous studies, including 2D geometric morphometrics (e.g., Álvarez et al. 2013), angle measurements (e.g., Pallandre et al. 2021), and linear measurements (e.g., Tavares and Pessôa 2020). Each of the methods has their advantages and disadvantages. For example, 2D geometric morphometrics has the advantage of

using economic photo capturing, ideal for flat anatomical features, and reduced dimensionality for data analysis. However, in a 2D space, non-flat anatomical features can be distorted, also leading to less precise landmark placement, and data analysis is limited to reduced dimensionality (Zelditch et al. 2026). Second, linear measurements do not show the overall shape, but the advantage is that they are interpretable individually, and also sometimes as functional ratios (Zelditch et al. 2026). Lastly, although angle measurement can provide information that is rather directly related to biomechanical performance, specifically where the bones are in relation to an anatomical point, the shape of the bones measured will remain unknown.

To complement our geometric morphometric analysis, future research should incorporate precise linear measurements of the pelvic canal. Specifically, utilizing existing landmarks to calculate the distance between the left and right sides (e.g., landmarks 43/44 and 16/17) would provide a numerical assessment of canal width to validate our shape-based findings. Alternatively, analyzing functional ratios of linear dimensions (including ratios to the hindlimbs bones), specifically the ratio of ischium and pubis width to the total length of the innominate bone (os coxae), would provide a standardized measure of pelvic proportions. Such individual bone measurements would help clarify the exact extent to which the HR pelvis is "narrower" or "longer," building on historical descriptions of rodent pelvic dimorphism, such as Gardener's (1936) work on

house mice and Dunmire's multispecies study (1955). Additionally, measuring the width of the sacrum (e.g., distance between landmarks 41 and 42) would allow for a more integrated analysis of the pelvic ring. This would also add to the skeletal connectivity of the vertebrae currently under investigation by Hennekam et al. (personal communication).

Sampling and Phenotypic Plasticity

It is important to acknowledge that the specimens utilized in this investigation, retired breeders from generation 93, were chosen partly to economize on animal usage within the long-term experiment. Consequently, we cannot fully disentangle genetically fixed traits from the phenotypic plasticity (or "adaptation") induced by a lifetime of mechanical loading during normal locomotion within cages (plus 6 days of wheel access) and the possibly permanent remodeling associated with reproduction and birth. In laboratory house mice, the male pelvis is more different compared to parous females than when compared to nulliparous females, which likely accounts for a portion of our observed sexual dimorphism (e.g., Uesugi et al. 1992; Berdnikovs et al. 2007; Schutz et al. 2009a). Furthermore, because loading and joint forces result in continuous change in the pelvis (Siegel and Jones 1975; Lionberger et al. 1985), a future study conducted across ontogeny for the HR mice would be critical to

identifying the developmental point at which selective and dimorphic features first emerge (Bernstein and Crelin 1967).

Integrative Analyses of Skeletal Evolution

Future directions should also investigate how pelvic shape correlates with the wider axial skeleton; for instance, Esteban et al. (2020) demonstrated that sacrum morphology is significantly related to relative tail length in Carnivora, suggesting that tail dimensions should be included in future, synthetic analyses of skeletal evolution.

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Tables

Table 1 – Sample Size for Control and High Runner Mice.

Linetype	Control				High Runner			
Line	1	2	4	5	3	6	7	8
Sex	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F
	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
Number of Specimens	10	12	11	12	12	11	12	12
	11	12	12	11	12	16	12	12

Abbreviations: F, Female; M, Male.

190 total=98 males + 92 females

Control females: 45

Control males: 46

HR females: 47

HR males: 52

Grand total: 45 + 46 + 47 + 52=190 specimens.

Table 2 – Body Length and Centroid Size from SAS

Table 2A Body Length by Sex and Linetype

Covariance Parameter Estimates					
Cov Parm	Group	Estimate	Standard Error	Z Value	Pr > Z
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 0	0.01442	0.01419	1.02	0.1547357494
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 1	0.02105	0.02173	0.97	0.1663048401
Sex*Line(Linetype)	Linetype 0	0	.	.	.
Sex*Line(Linetype)	Linetype 1	0.006280	0.008166	0.77	0.2209454582
MouseI(Linety*Line)	Linetype 0	0.06508	0.009926	6.56	<.0000000001
MouseI(Linety*Line)	Linetype 1	0.04567	0.006767	6.75	<.0000000001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects				
Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Sex	1	6	14.998118733	0.0082396723
Linetype	1	6	1.9750484866	0.2095197087
Sex*Linetype	1	6	0.0494964683	0.8313216985

Least Squares Means						
Effect	Sex	Linetype	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value Pr > t
Sex	0		10.9113	0.05670	6	192.43 <.0000000001
Sex	1		10.7396	0.05645	6	190.27 <.0000000001
Linetype		0	10.8986	0.06574	6	165.77 <.0000000001
Linetype		1	10.7523	0.08071	6	133.23 <.0000000001
Sex*Linetype	0	0	10.9894	0.07110	6	154.56 <.0000000001
Sex*Linetype	0	1	10.8332	0.08835	6	122.61 <.0000000001
Sex*Linetype	1	0	10.8078	0.07086	6	152.52 <.0000000001
Sex*Linetype	1	1	10.6713	0.08788	6	121.43 <.0000000001

Table 2B. Body Length by Linetype for Females

Covariance Parameter Estimates					
Cov Parm	Group	Estimate	Standard Error	Z Value	Pr > Z
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 0	0.01311	0.01646	0.80	0.2130163631
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 1	0.02304	0.02256	1.02	0.1535623252
MouseI(Linety*Line)	Linetype 0	0.07270	0.01608	4.52	0.0000030986
MouseI(Linety*Line)	Linetype 1	0.05449	0.01175	4.64	0.0000017614

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects				
Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Linetype	1	6	2.0463036398	0.2025247087

Least Squares Means						
Effect	Linetype	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
	Linetype 0	10.9894	0.06998	6	157.03	<.0000000001
	Linetype 1	10.8339	0.08319	6	130.23	<.000000000

Table 2C. Body Length by Linetype for Males

Covariance Parameter Estimates					
Cov Parm	Group	Estimate	Standard Error	Z Value	Pr > Z
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 0	0.01479	0.01623	0.91	0.1810873418
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 1	0.03085	0.02749	1.12	0.1308395397
MouseI(Linetype*Line)	Linetype 0	0.05824	0.01271	4.58	0.0000022912
MouseI(Linetype*Line)	Linetype 1	0.03781	0.007716	4.90	0.0000004785

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects				
Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Linetype	1	6	1.3933750917	0.2825073584

Least Squares Means						
Effect	Linetype	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
Linetype 0		10.8092	0.07047	6	153.39	<.0000000001
Linetype 1		10.6725	0.09193	6	116.10	<.0000000001

Table 2D. Centroid Size with Body Length as a Covariate by Sex and Linetype

Covariance Parameter Estimates					
Cov Parm	Group	Estimate	Standard Error	Z Value	Pr > Z
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 0	1.0843	0.9465	1.15	0.1259735677
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 1	1.6566	1.3714	1.21	0.1135286373
Sex*Line(Linetype)	Linetype 0	0.08833	0.1134	0.78	0.2180087357
Sex*Line(Linetype)	Linetype 1	0	.	.	.
MouseI(Linety*Line)	Linetype 0	0.5716	0.08899	6.42	<.00000000001
MouseI(Linety*Line)	Linetype 1	0.5235	0.07653	6.84	<.00000000001

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects				
Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Sex	1	6	401.51844353	0.0000010029
Linetype	1	6	0.7201512331	0.4286456325
Sex*Linetype	1	6	0.0601979925	0.8143598390
LENGTH	1	173	95.487484637	<.00000000001

Least Squares Means						
Effect	Sex	Linetype	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value Pr > t
Sex	0		47.4484	0.4281	6	110.83 <.0000000001
Sex	1		44.3260	0.4276	6	103.67 <.0000000001
Linetype		0	46.2445	0.5374	6	86.05 0.0000000002
Linetype		1	45.5299	0.6479	6	70.28 0.0000000006
Sex*Linetype	0	0	47.7872	0.5545	6	86.17 0.0000000002
Sex*Linetype	0	1	47.1096	0.6522	6	72.24 0.0000000005
Sex*Linetype	1	0	44.7017	0.5528	6	80.86 0.0000000002
Sex*Linetype	1	1	43.9502	0.6523	6	67.38 0.0000000007

Table 2E. Centroid Size with Body LLength as a Covariate by Linetype for Females

Covariance Parameter Estimates					
Cov Parm	Group	Estimate	Standard Error	Z Value	Pr > Z
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 0	0.9053	0.7821	1.16	0.1235114261
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 1	1.7405	1.4708	1.18	0.1183355437
MouseI(Linety*Line)	Linetype 0	0.4782	0.1063	4.50	0.0000034457
MouseI(Linety*Line)	Linetype 1	0.7173	0.1549	4.63	0.0000018245

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects				
Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Linetype	1	6	0.7885750993	0.4087161422
LENGTH	1	83	34.984450628	0.0000000716

Least Squares Means						
Effect	Linetype	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
	Linetype 0	48.0371	0.4875	6	98.55	<.0000000001
	Linetype 1	47.2995	0.6716	6	70.43	0.0000000006

Table 2F. Centroid Size with Body Length as a Covariate by Linetype for Females

Covariance Parameter Estimates					
Cov Parm	Group	Estimate	Standard Error	Z Value	Pr > Z
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 0	1.4591	1.2395	1.18	0.1195650966
Line(Linetype)	Linetype 1	1.4510	1.2122	1.20	0.1156410137
MouseI(Linetype*Line)	Linetype 0	0.6541	0.1434	4.56	0.0000025301
MouseI(Linetype*Line)	Linetype 1	0.3475	0.07124	4.88	0.0000005343

Type 3 Tests of Fixed Effects				
Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	Pr > F
Linetype	1	6	0.603029968	0.4669241895
LENGTH	1	89	70.117287678	<.00000000001

Least Squares Means						
Effect	Linetype	Estimate	Standard Error	DF	t Value	Pr > t
	Linetype 0	44.4589	0.6162	6	72.15	0.0000000005
	Linetype 1	43.7861	0.6082	6	72.00	0.0000000005

Table 3— Shape ANOVA All Mice (No Covariate, with Length, with Centroid)

Table 3A. Pelvis Shape for Both Sexes (1N)

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
linetype	1	0.01787	0.0178744	0.039453	32.0339	4.8583	0.0001
sex	1	0.02338	0.0233795	0.051604	41.9000	6.0966	0.0001
linetype:sex	1	0.00008	0.0000850	0.000188	0.1523	-0.9746	0.8336
linetype:line	6	0.04336	0.0072262	0.095700	12.9506	7.0507	0.0001
linetype:sex:line	6	0.00514	0.0008566	0.011345	1.5352	1.1558	0.1230
Residuals	174	0.09709	0.0005580	0.214298			
Total	189	0.45306					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ linetype + sex + linetype * sex + linetype/line + linetype/line * sex, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pca_gdf)`

Table 3B. Pelvis Shape for Both Sexes with Length (1L)

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
linetype	1	0.01760	0.0175989	0.038845	31.4216	4.7510	0.0001
sex	1	0.02278	0.0227763	0.050273	40.6654	5.9684	0.0001
length	1	0.00019	0.0001935	0.000427	0.3455	-0.4623	0.6760
linetype:sex	1	0.00008	0.0000760	0.000168	0.1358	-1.0446	0.8463
linetype:line	6	0.04200	0.0070008	0.092715	12.4994	6.9404	0.0001
linetype:sex:line	6	0.00483	0.0008051	0.010662	1.4374	0.9984	0.1588
Residuals	173	0.09690	0.0005601	0.213871			
Total	189	0.45306					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ linetype + sex + linetype * sex +
 linetype/line +
 linetype/line * sex + length, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III",
 data = pca_gdf)

Table 3C. Pelvis Shape for Both Sexes with Centroid Size (1S)

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
linetype	1	0.00790	0.0078957	0.017428	14.7320	3.6016	0.0001
sex	1	0.01081	0.0108102	0.023861	20.1698	4.4916	0.0001
centroid size	1	0.00437	0.0043681	0.009641	8.1500	2.7967	0.0017
linetype:sex	1	0.00011	0.0001087	0.000240	0.2027	-0.7990	0.7869
linetype:line	6	0.02960	0.0049331	0.065331	9.2043	6.2789	0.0001
linetype:sex:line	6	0.00525	0.0008746	0.011582	1.6318	1.2968	0.0976
.							
Residuals	173	0.09272	0.0005360	0.204657			
Total	189	0.45306					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ linetype + sex + linetype * sex +
 linetype/line +
 linetype/line * sex + size, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data
 = pca_gdf)

Table 4 — Shape ANOVA All Mice by LINE Both Sexes (No Covariate, with Length, with Centroid)

4A (4N)--HR No Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.038411	0.0128038	0.141180	23.4018	6.6768	0.0001
sex	1	0.025766	0.0257656	0.094701	47.0922	6.0334	0.0001
line:sex	3	0.003251	0.0010836	0.011949	1.9806	1.3823	0.0860
Residuals	91	0.049789	0.0005471	0.182998			
Total	98	0.272074					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + sex + line * sex, iter = 9999,
 SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_HR)

4B (5N) --C No Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.004946	0.0016486	0.031343	2.8929	2.0424	0.0201
sex	1	0.023379	0.0233795	0.148164	41.0251	5.9995	0.0001
line:sex	3	0.001889	0.0006296	0.011971	1.1049	0.3802	0.3542
Residuals	83	0.047300	0.0005699	0.299759			
Total	90	0.157794					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + sex + line * sex, iter = 9999,
 SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_CTRL)

4C (4L) --HR Length

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
Number of permutations: 10000
Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.037649	0.0125498	0.138379	22.7225	6.6474	0.0001
sex	1	0.023528	0.0235277	0.086475	42.5990	5.9131	0.0001
length	1	0.000081	0.0000813	0.000299	0.1472	-1.0266	0.8441
line:sex	3	0.003240	0.0010799	0.011907	1.9553	1.3618	0.0892
Residuals	90	0.049708	0.0005523	0.182699			
Total	98	0.272074					

```
Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + sex + line * sex + length, iter =
9999,
  SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_HR)
```

4D (5L) --C Length

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
Number of permutations: 10000
Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.004595	0.0015317	0.029121	2.6849	1.8912	0.0287
sex	1	0.022208	0.0222084	0.140743	38.9280	5.9691	0.0001
length	1	0.000519	0.0005193	0.003291	0.9103	0.3458	0.3671
line:sex	3	0.001702	0.0005672	0.010783	0.9942	0.2247	0.4102
Residuals	82	0.046781	0.0005705	0.296468			
Total	90	0.157794					

```
Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + sex + line * sex + length, iter =
9999,
  SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_CTRL)
```

4E (4S) -- HR Centroid

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
Number of permutations: 10000
Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsqr	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.021289	0.0070963	0.078247	13.5177	5.8628	0.0001
sex	1	0.008242	0.0082419	0.030293	15.7001	4.0544	0.0001
size	1	0.002542	0.0025424	0.009344	4.8429	2.0633	0.0192
line:sex	3	0.003199	0.0010665	0.011759	2.0315	1.4418	0.0765
Residuals	90	0.047246	0.0005250	0.173653			
Total	98	0.272074					

```
Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + sex + line * sex + size, iter =  
9999,  
SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_HR)
```

4F (5S)--C Centroid

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
Number of permutations: 10000
Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsqr	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.003977	0.0013256	0.025203	2.4055	1.7089	0.0442
sex	1	0.006715	0.0067153	0.042557	12.1860	3.6222	0.0002
size	1	0.002113	0.0021127	0.013389	3.8339	1.7925	0.0363
line:sex	3	0.002130	0.0007099	0.013498	1.2883	0.6272	0.2700
Residuals	82	0.045188	0.0005511	0.286370			
Total	90	0.157794					

```
Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + sex + line * sex + size, iter =  
9999,  
SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_CTRL)
```

Table 5— Shape ANOVA FEMALE No Covariate, with Length, with Centroid

Table 5A (2N) — Shape ANOVA FEMALE No Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
linetype	1	0.017874	0.0178744	0.14927	24.882	4.4325	1e-04
linetype:line	6	0.043357	0.0072262	0.36209	10.059	6.2400	1e-04
Residuals	84	0.060343	0.0007184	0.50394			
Total	91	0.119742					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ linetype + linetype/line, iter = 9999,
 SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_female)

Table 5B (2L)— Shape ANOVA FEMALE with LENGTH

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
linetype	1	0.017206	0.0172056	0.14369	23.7198	4.4353	0.0001
length	1	0.000137	0.0001371	0.00115	0.1891	-0.8932	0.8103
linetype:line	6	0.041501	0.0069168	0.34658	9.5355	6.1174	0.0001
Residuals	83	0.060206	0.0007254	0.50279			
Total	91	0.119742					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ linetype + linetype/line + length, iter =
 9999,
 SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_female)

Table 5C (2S)— Shape ANOVA FEMALE with CENTROID SIZE

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
linetype	1	0.004181	0.0041810	0.03492	6.2591	2.5132	0.0052
size	1	0.004899	0.0048990	0.04091	7.3338	2.6608	0.0026
linetype:line	6	0.027485	0.0045808	0.22953	6.8576	5.4434	0.0001
Residuals	83	0.055444	0.0006680	0.46303			
Total	91	0.119742					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ linetype + linetype/line + size, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_female)`

Table 6— Shape ANOVA MALE (No covariate, with Length, with Centroid)

Table 6A (3N) — Shape ANOVA MALE No Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
linetype	1	0.017714	0.0177142	0.15580	43.386	4.5787	1e-04
linetype:line	6	0.068760	0.0114601	0.60477	28.068	8.8036	1e-04
Residuals	90	0.036746	0.0004083	0.32320			
Total	97	0.113696					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ linetype + linetype/line, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_male)`

Table 6B (3L)— Shape ANOVA MALE with LENGTH as Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
linetype	1	0.016918	0.0169182	0.14880	41.1517	4.5748	0.0001
length	1	0.000157	0.0001567	0.00138	0.3812	-0.2933	0.6135
linetype:line	6	0.067111	0.0111851	0.59026	27.2065	8.6200	0.0001
Residuals	89	0.036590	0.0004111	0.32182			
Total	97	0.113696					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ linetype + linetype/line + length, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_male)`

Table 6C (3S)— Shape ANOVA MALE with CENTROID SIZE as Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
linetype	1	0.006707	0.0067068	0.05899	16.5395	3.4011	0.0001
size	1	0.000656	0.0006564	0.00577	1.6187	0.8664	0.2012
linetype:line	6	0.057964	0.0096607	0.50982	23.8240	8.6567	0.0001
Residuals	89	0.036090	0.0004055	0.31742			
Total	97	0.113696					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ linetype + linetype/line + size, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_male)`

**Table 7— Shape ANOVA FEMALE HR LINES (No Covariate, with Length,
with Centroid)**

Table 7A (6N) — Shape ANOVA Female HR Lines No Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.038411	0.0128038	0.51425	15.175	5.0842	1e-04
Residuals	43	0.036282	0.0008438	0.48575			
Total	46	0.074693					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data =
 pelvis_gdf_female_HR)

Table 7B (6L)— Shape ANOVA Female HR Lines Length

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.038378	0.0127927	0.51381	15.0105	5.0742	0.0001
length	1	0.000487	0.0004874	0.00653	0.5719	-0.0417	0.5198
Residuals	42	0.035795	0.0008523	0.47922			
Total	46	0.074693					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + length, iter = 9999, SS.type =
 "III",
 data = pelvis_gdf_female_HR)

Table 7C (6S)— Shape ANOVA Female HR Lines Centroid Size

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.018673	0.0062243	0.24999	7.8545	3.9861	0.0001
size	1	0.003000	0.0029995	0.04016	3.7852	1.7156	0.0426 *
Residuals	42	0.033282	0.0007924	0.44559			
Total	46	0.074693					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + size, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_female_HR)`

Table 8— Shape ANOVA FEMALE C LINES (no covariate, with length, with Centroid)

Table 8A (8N) — Shape ANOVA Female C Lines No Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.0049458	0.00164860	0.17051	2.8092	2.0272	0.0205
Residuals	41	0.0240608	0.00058685	0.82949			
Total	44	0.0290066					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_female_CTRL)

Table 8B (8L) — Shape ANOVA Female C Lines Length

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.0041954	0.00139847	0.14464	2.4278	1.74011	0.0405
length	1	0.0010200	0.00102002	0.03517	1.7708	0.93722	0.1767
Residuals	40	0.0230408	0.00057602	0.79433			
Total	44	0.0290066					

Call: procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + length, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_female_CTRL)

Table 8C (8S) —Shape ANOVA Female C Lines Centroid Size

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.0044969	0.00149898	0.15503	2.8503	2.1158	0.0176
size	1	0.0030243	0.00302435	0.10426	5.7507	2.3667	0.0076
Residuals	40	0.0210365	0.00052591	0.72523			
Total	44	0.0290066					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + size, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III",
 data = pelvis_gdf_female_CTRL)`

Table 9— Shape ANOVA MALE HR LINES (No Covariate, with Length, with Centroid)

Table 9A (7N) — Shape ANOVA Male HR Lines No Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.062983	0.0209944	0.82342	74.609	9.0215	1e-04
Residuals	48	0.013507	0.0002814	0.17658			
Total	51	0.076490					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_male_HR)`

Table 9B (7L) — Shape ANOVA Male HR Lines length

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.060256	0.0200853	0.78776	71.937	8.9609	0.0001
length	1	0.000384	0.0003842	0.00502	1.376	0.6665	0.2583
Residuals	47	0.013123	0.0002792	0.17156			
Total	51	0.076490					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + length, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_male_HR)`

Table 9C (7S)— Shape ANOVA Male HR Lines Centroid Size

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.046701	0.0155669	0.61054	56.4176	8.6809	0.0001
size	1	0.000538	0.0005385	0.00704	1.9516	1.0386	0.1514
Residuals	47	0.012968	0.0002759	0.16954			
Total	51	0.076490					

Call: `procD.lm(fl = shape ~ line + size, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III",
 data = pelvis_gdf_male_HR)`

Table 10— Shape ANOVA Male C Lines (No Covariate, with Length, with Centroid)

Table 10A (9N)— Shape ANOVA Male C Lines No Covariate

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.0057771	0.00192569	0.1991	3.4802	2.0624	0.0180
Residuals	42	0.0232394	0.00055332	0.8009			
Total	45	0.0290165					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_male_CTRL)`

Table 10B (9L) — Shape ANOVA Male C Lines Length

Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.0059088	0.00196960	0.20364	3.5087	2.07583	0.0170
length	1	0.0002240	0.00022404	0.00772	0.3991	-0.14874	0.5540
Residuals	41	0.0230154	0.00056135	0.79318			
Total	45	0.0290165					

Call: `procD.lm(f1 = shape ~ line + length, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III", data = pelvis_gdf_male_CTRL)`

Table 10C (9S)— Shape ANOVA Male C Lines Centroid Size

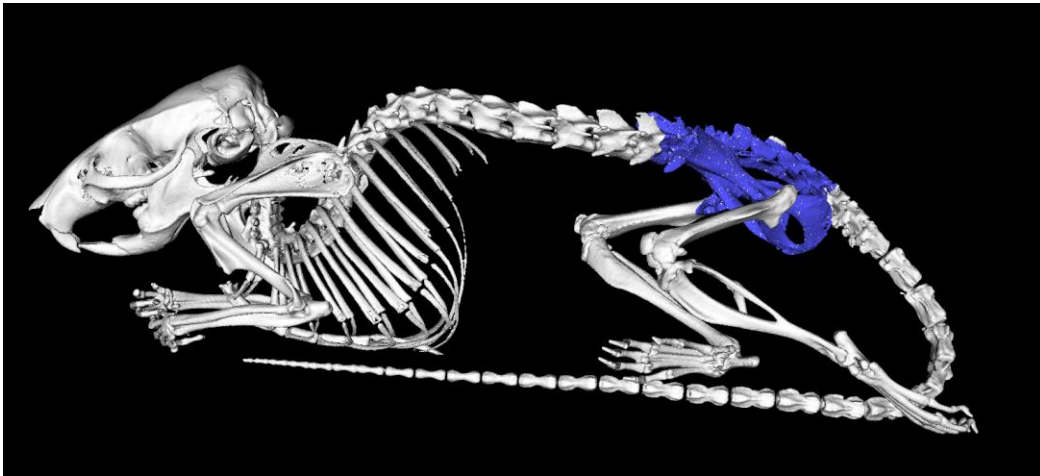
Analysis of Variance, using Residual Randomization
 Permutation procedure: Randomization of null model residuals
 Number of permutations: 10000
 Estimation method: Ordinary Least Squares
 Sums of Squares and Cross-products: Type III
 Effect sizes (Z) based on F distributions

	Df	SS	MS	Rsq	F	Z	Pr(>F)
line	3	0.0052992	0.00176641	0.18263	3.1494	1.88803	0.0280
size	1	0.0002439	0.00024388	0.00840	0.4348	-0.09334	0.5358
Residuals	41	0.0229956	0.00056087	0.79250			
Total	45	0.0290165					

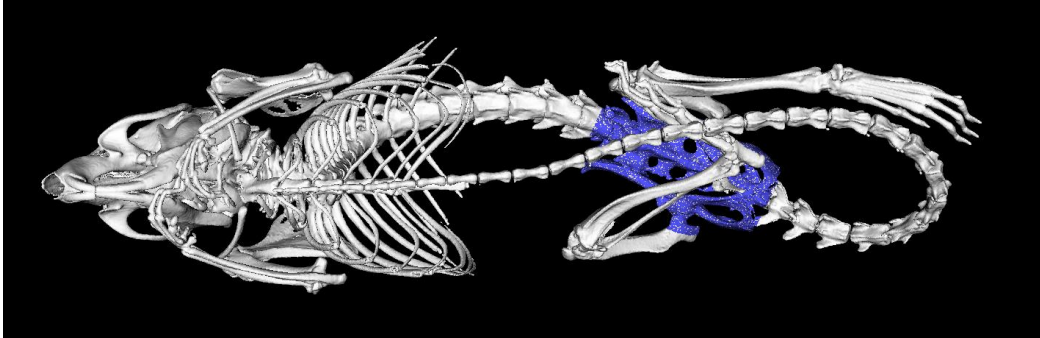
Call: `procD.lm(fl = shape ~ line + size, iter = 9999, SS.type = "III",
 data = pelvis_gdf_male_CTRL)`

Figures

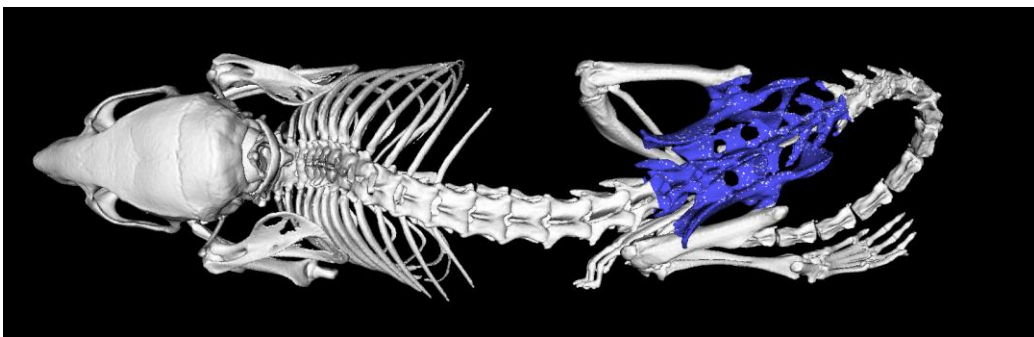
Figure 1. Whole-Body Scan of Same Mouse (ID 96186)



Lateral view



Ventral view



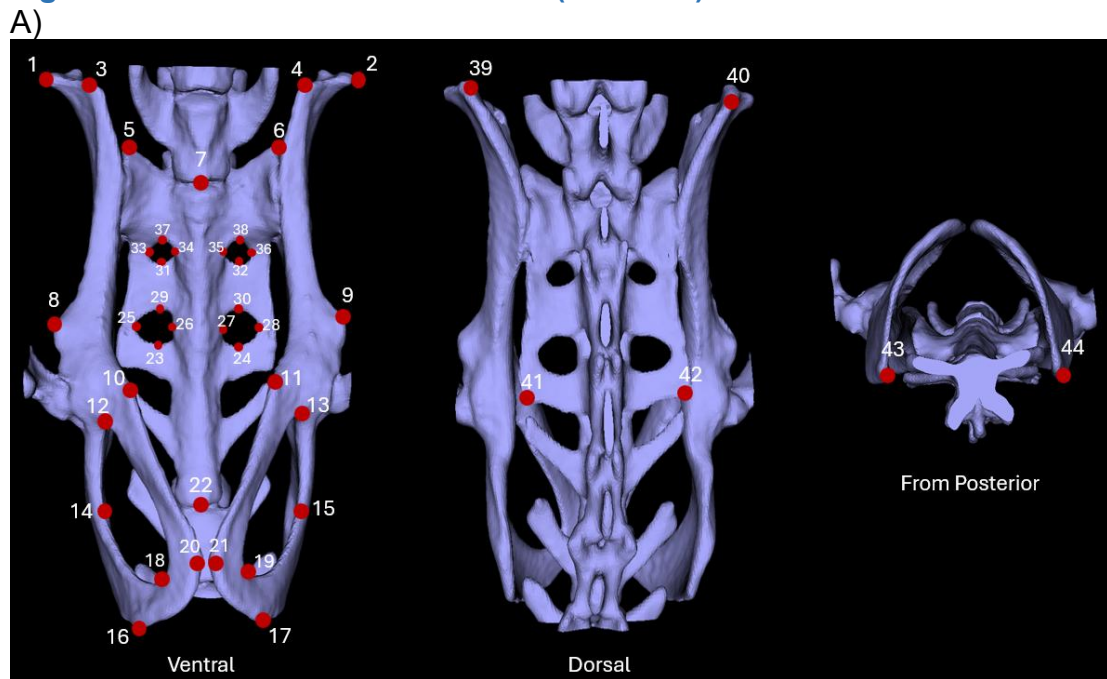
Dorsal View

MouseID: 96186

Figure 1. Whole-Body Scan of Same Mouse (ID 96186)

Three-dimensional micro-computed tomography (micro-CT) reconstruction of a representative mouse skeleton. The pelvic girdle is highlighted in purple and shown in lateral (top), ventral (middle), and dorsal (bottom) views. These views illustrate the anatomical region used for geometric morphometric landmark placement and shape analyses.

Figure 2. 44 Landmarks in Methods (ID 96186)



MouseID: 96186

B) Labeled pelvis bones

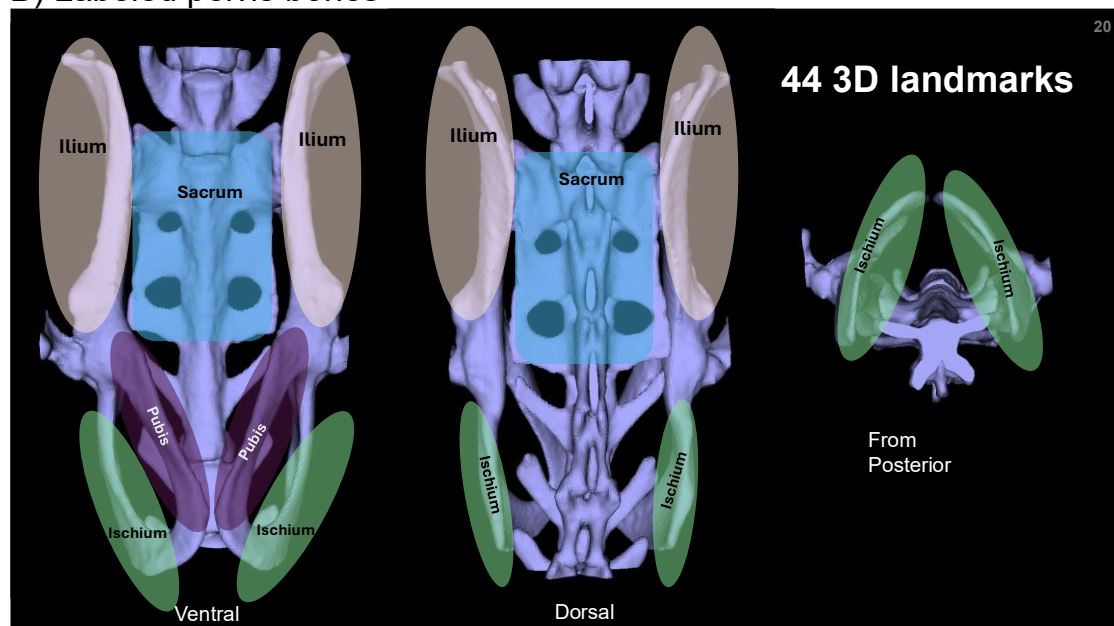


Figure 2. 44 Landmarks in Methods (ID 96186)

A) Isolated three-dimensional micro-computed tomography (micro-CT) reconstruction of the pelvis girdle. Angles shown in lateral (top), ventral (middle), and dorsal (bottom) views. The red dot indicate the 44 landmarks placed around the pelvic region used for geometric morphometric landmark placement and shape analyses. B) Labeled pelvis bones: Ilium, ischium, and pubis.

Figure 3 A) Body Length & B) Centroid Size 2 Panels by Line and Sex from SAS

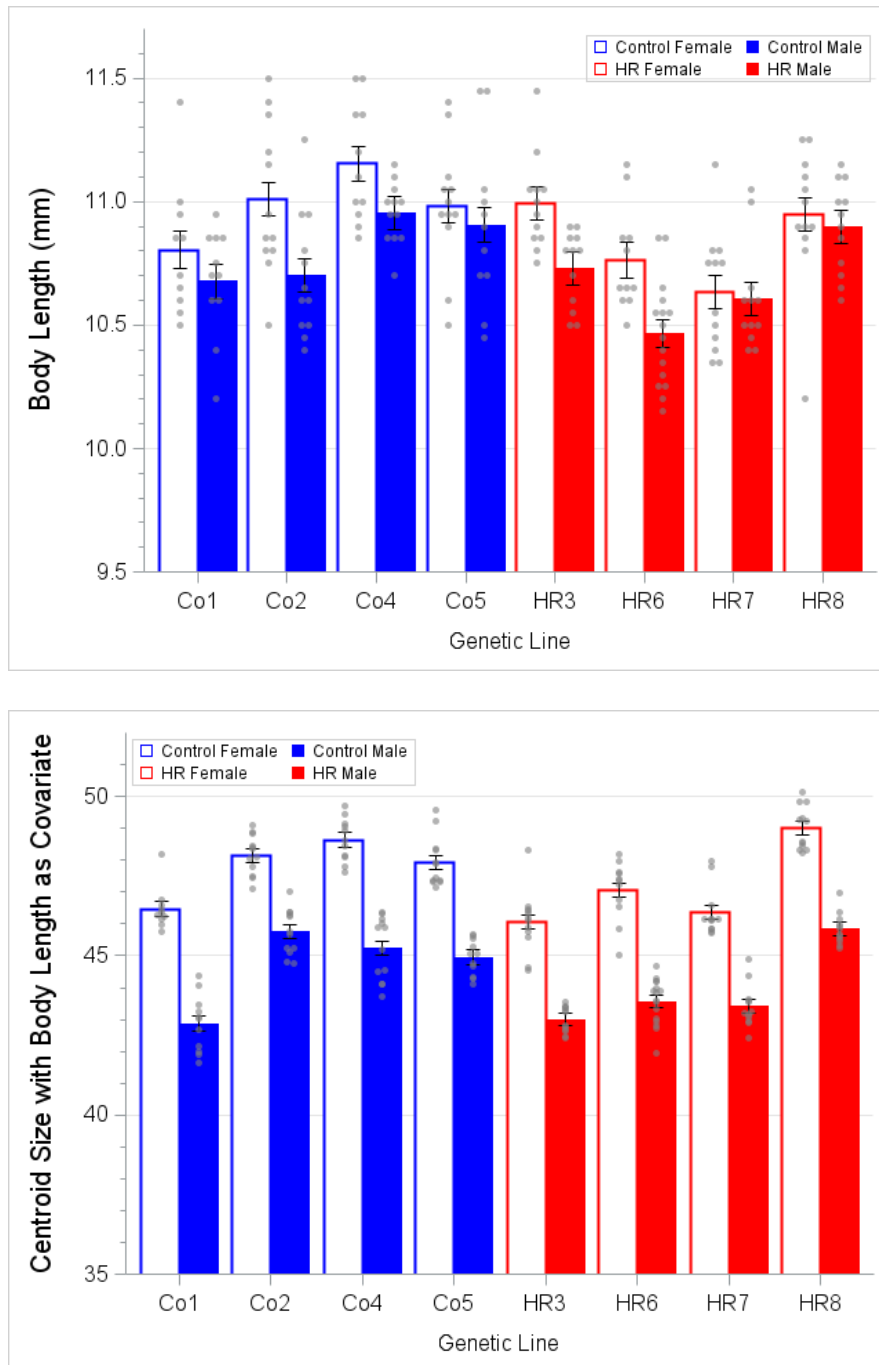


Figure 3 A) Body Length & B) Centroid Size 2 Panels by Line and Sex from SAS

A) Body length (mm) (tip of nose to base of tail) of mice for the 4 non-selected Control (Co1, Co2, Co4, Co5) and 4 selectively bred High Runner (HR3, HR6, HR7, HR8) genetic lines, separated by sex. White bars represent females and colored bars represent males. Blue indicates Control lines and red indicates High Runner lines. Values are least squares means $\pm$ SEM from SAS Procedure Mixed (see Methods), and gray points represent individual mice (residuals + LSM for their subgroup).

B) Pelvis centroid size, adjusted for body length as a covariate.

Figure 4 A) PC1 vs PC2 Both Sexes; B) X, Y TPS Grid PC1 and PC2

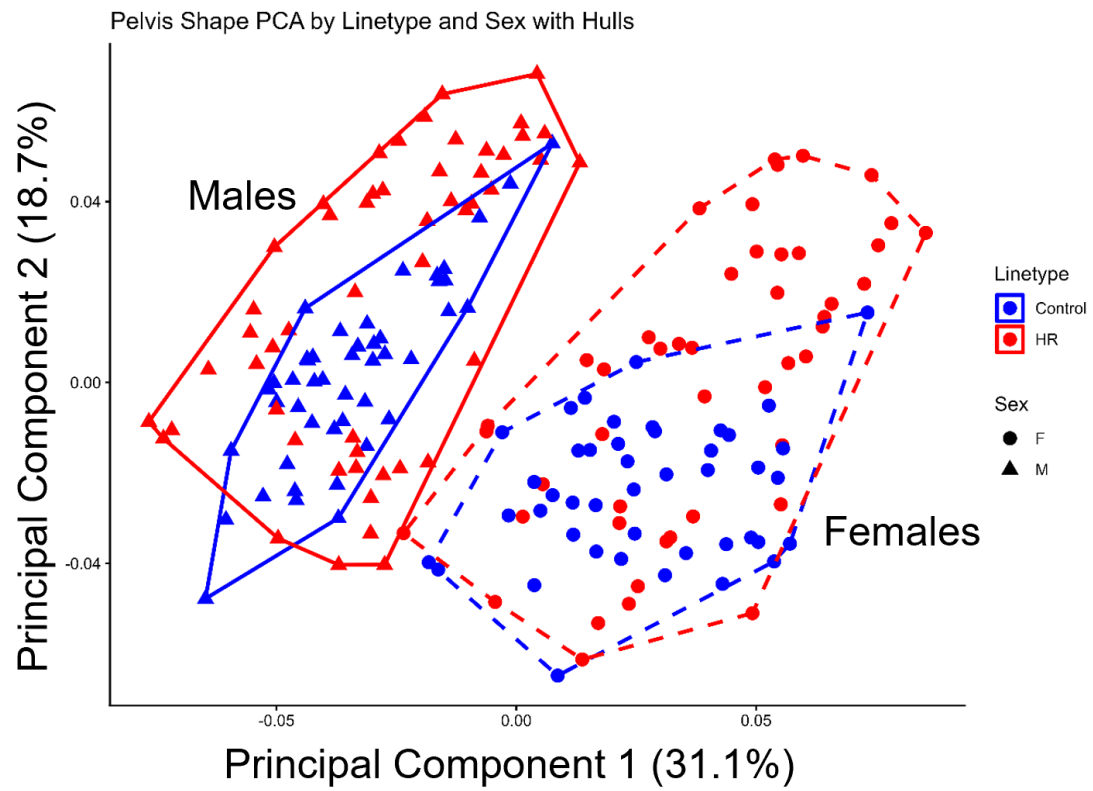


Figure 4 continued

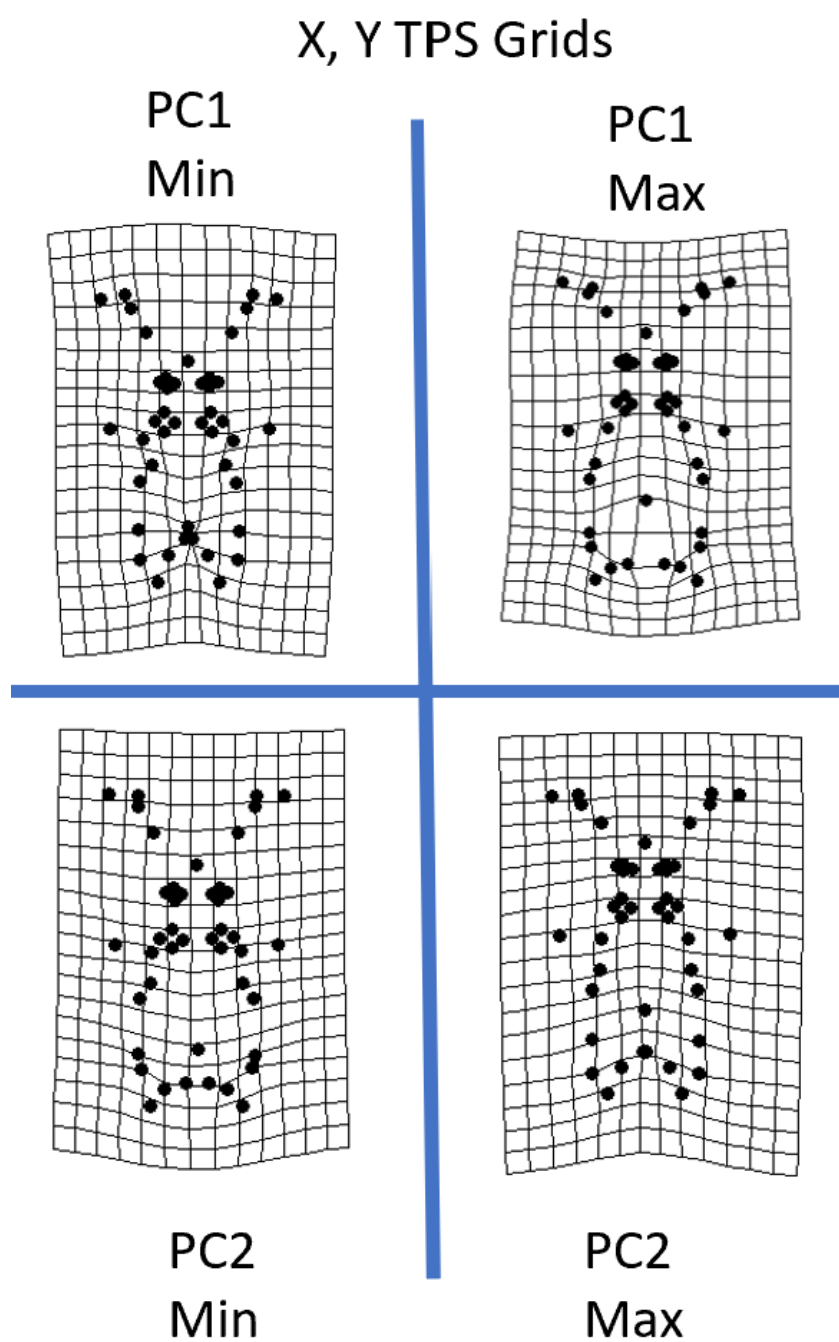


Figure 4 A) PC1 vs PC2 Both Sexes; B) X, Y TPS Grid PC1 and PC2

A) Principal component analysis (PCA) of pelvis shape based on Procrustes-aligned landmark coordinates. X-axis has PCA 1 and y-axis has PCA 2. Each point represents an individual mouse (N=190 specimens). Colors indicate linetype (blue = Control, red = High Runner), and symbols indicate sex (circles = females, triangles = males). Convex hulls outline the distribution of specimens within each linetype-sex group, illustrating the range of shape variation along the first two principal components. B) X,Y TPS Grid for PC1 and PC2 minimum and maximum points.

Figure 5 A) PC3 vs PC4 Both Sexes; B) X, Y TPS Grid PC3 and PC4

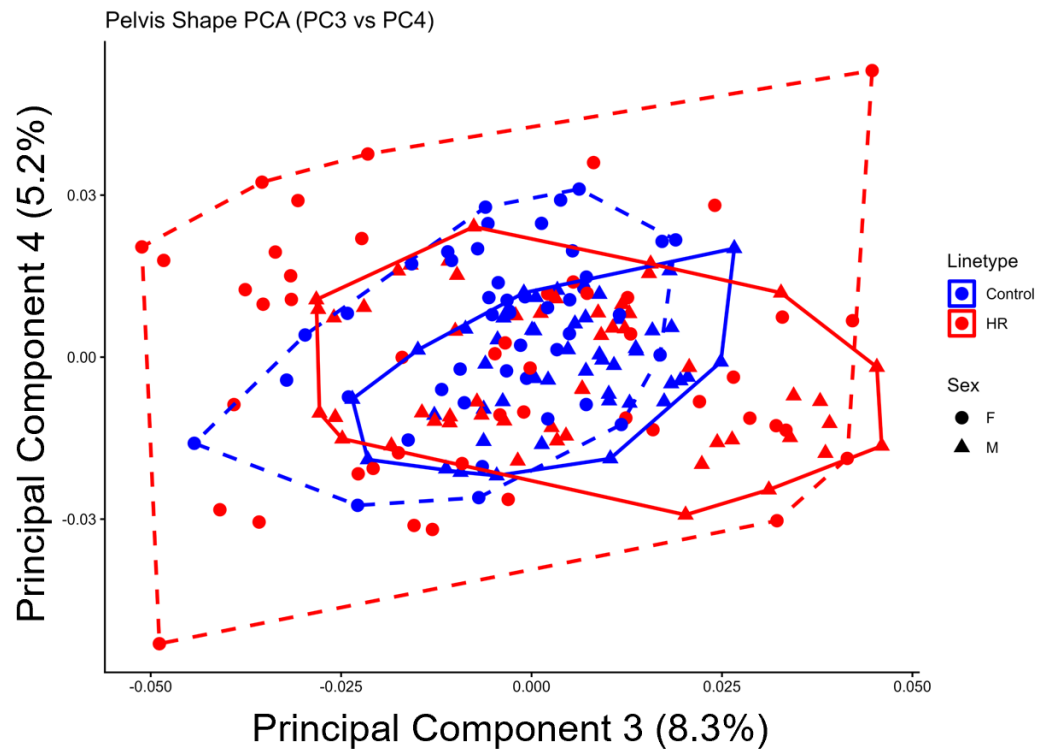


Figure 5 continued

X, Y TPS Grids

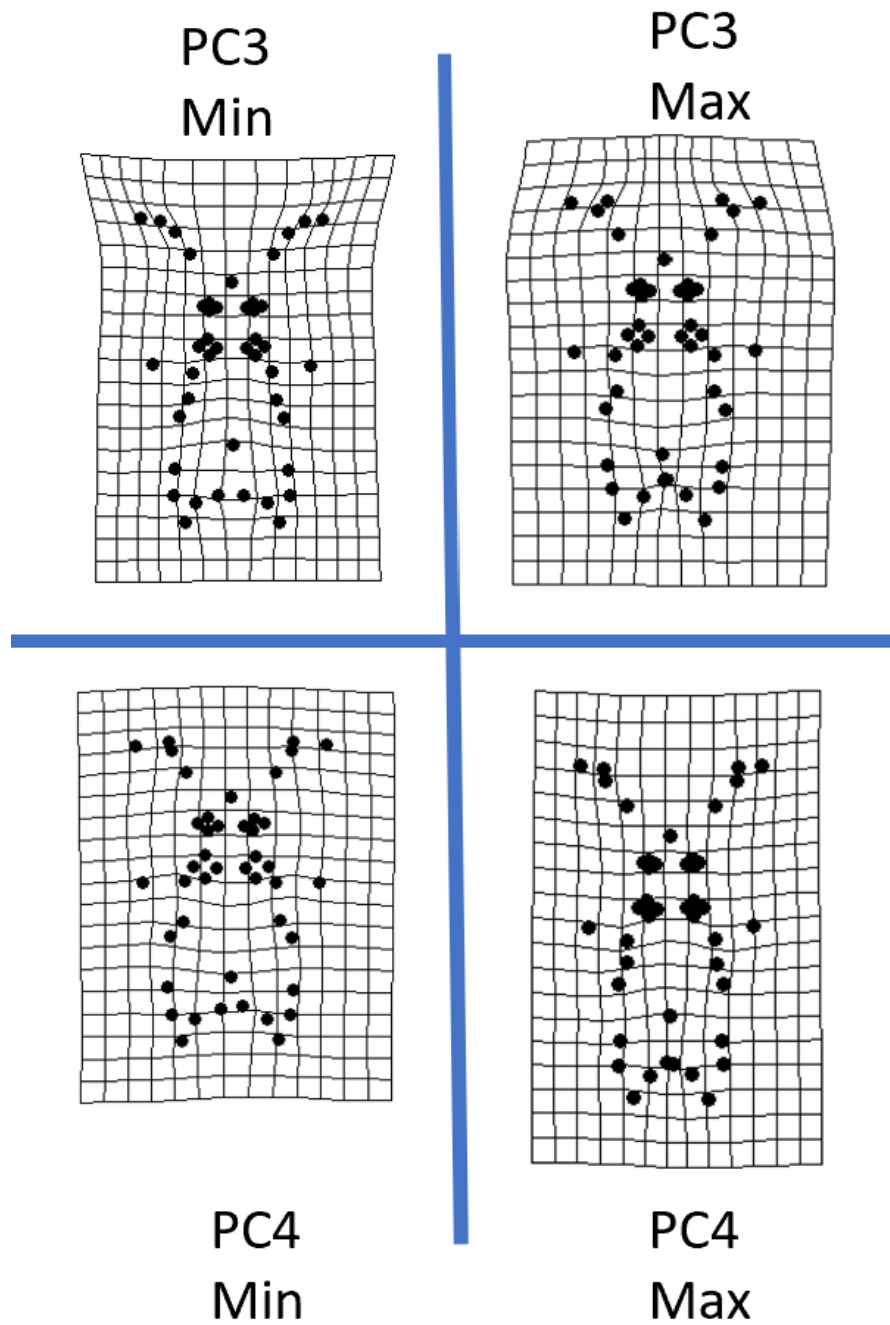


Figure 5 A) PC3 vs PC4 Both Sexes; B) X, Y TPS Grid PC3 and PC4

A) Principal component analysis (PCA) of pelvis shape showing variation along Principal Components 3 and 4 based on Procrustes-aligned landmark coordinates. X-axis has PCA 3 and y-axis has PCA 4. Each point represents an individual mouse. Colors indicate linetype (blue = Control, red = High Runner), and symbols indicate sex (circles = females, triangles = males). Convex hulls outline the distribution of specimens within each linetype–sex group, illustrating the extent of within-group shape variation and overlap along PC3 and PC4. B) X,Y TPS Grid for PC3 and PC4 minimum and maximum points.

Figure 6 PC1 vs PC2 by Line Females and Then Males

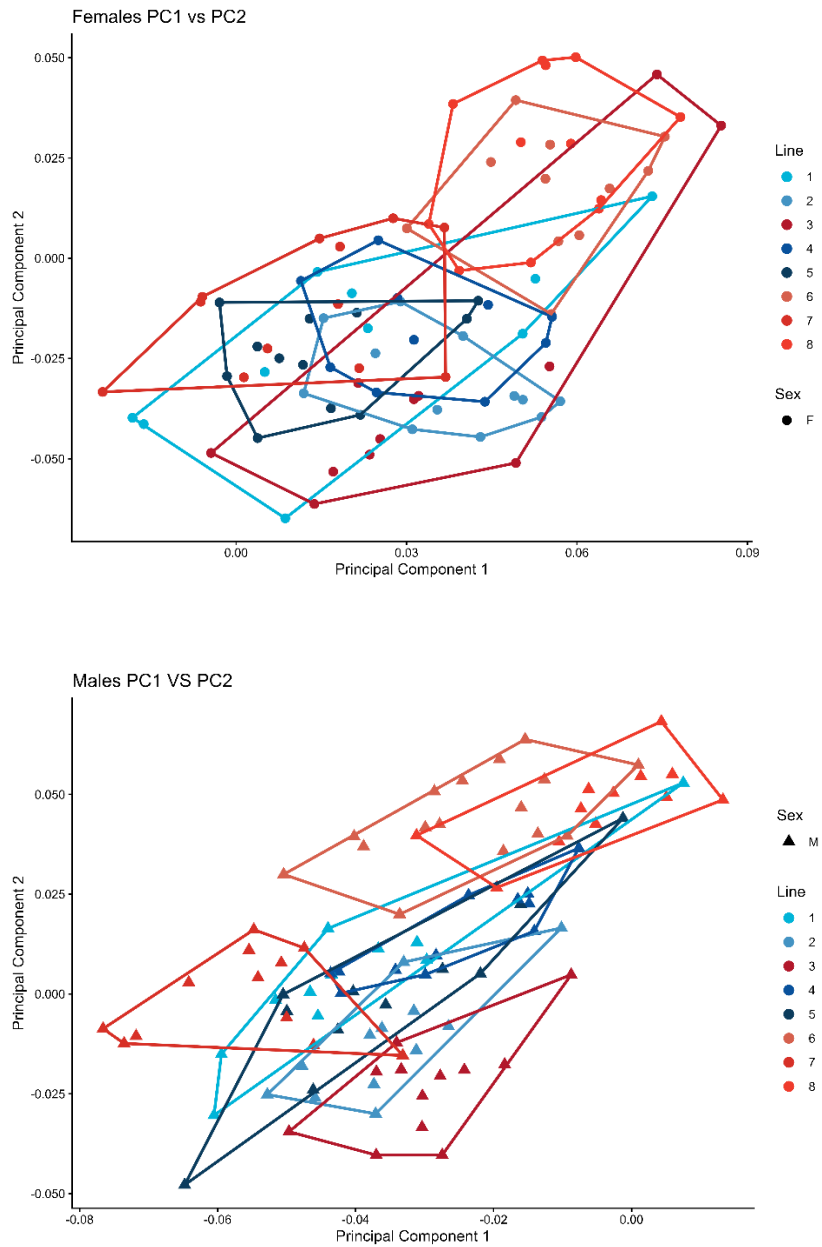


Figure 6 PC1 vs PC2 by Line Females and Then Males

Female only portion of the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) 1 and 2 of pelvis shape based on Procrustes-aligned landmark coordinates. X-axis has PCA 1 and y-axis has PCA 2. Each point represents an individual female mouse (N=92 specimens). Colors indicate each of the 8 lines (Control lines are in blue shades and HR lines are in red shades). Convex hulls outline the distribution of specimens within each line, illustrating the range of shape variation along the first two principal components.

Male only portion of the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) 1 and 2 of pelvis shape based on Procrustes-aligned landmark coordinates. X-axis has PCA 1 and y-axis has PCA 2. Each point represents an individual male mouse (N=98 specimens). Colors indicate each of the 8 lines (Control lines are in blue shades and HR lines are in red shades). Convex hulls outline the distribution of specimens within each line, illustrating the range of shape variation along the first two principal components.

Figure 7 PC3 vs PC4 by Line Females and Then Males

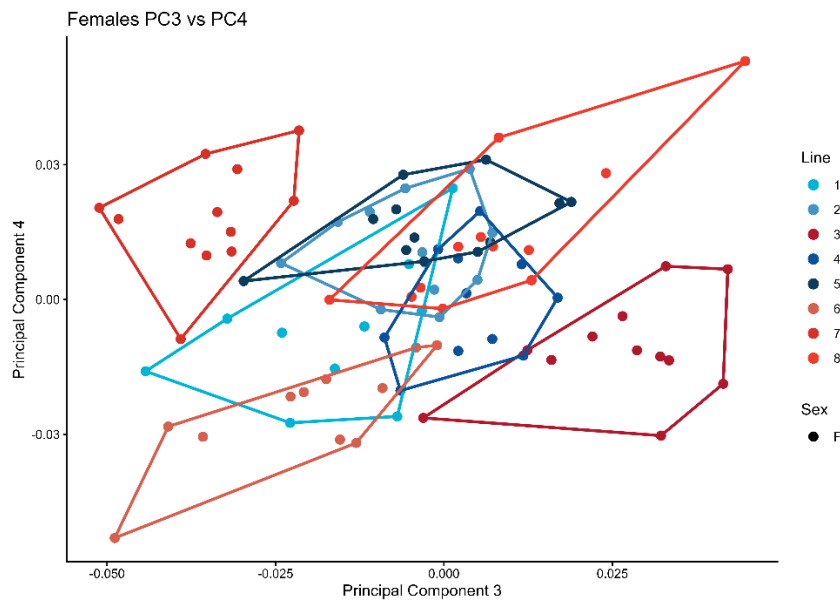
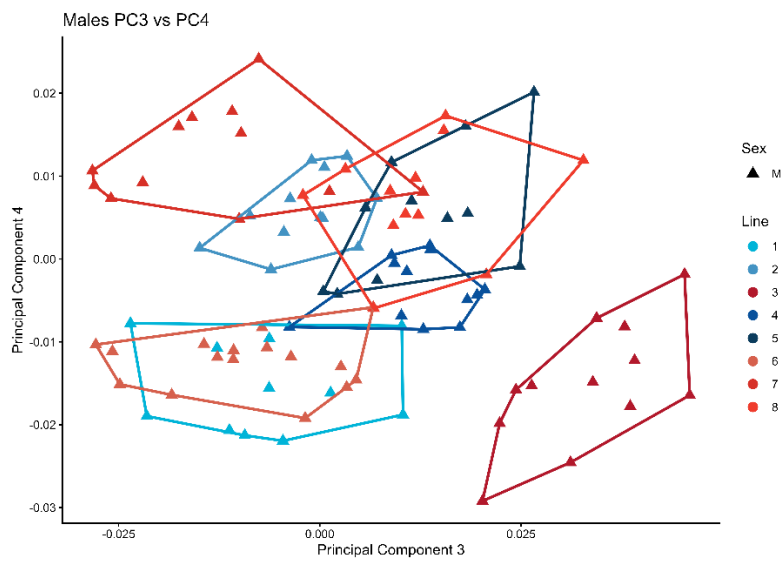


Figure 7 PC3 vs PC4 by Line Females and Then Males

Female only portion of the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) 3 and 4 of pelvis shape based on Procrustes-aligned landmark coordinates. X-axis has PCA 3 and y-axis has PCA 4. Each point represents an individual female mouse (N=92 specimens). Colors indicate each of the 8 lines (Control lines are in blue shades and HR lines are in red shades). Convex hulls outline the distribution of specimens within each line, illustrating the range of shape variation along principal components 3 and 4.

Male only portion of the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) 3 and 4 of pelvis shape based on Procrustes-aligned landmark coordinates. X-axis has PCA 3 and y-axis has PCA 4. Each point represents an individual male mouse (N=98 specimens). Colors indicate each of the 8 lines (Control lines are in blue shades and HR lines are in red shades). Convex hulls outline the distribution of specimens within each line, illustrating the range of shape variation along principal components 3 and 4.

Figure 8 Morphological Disparity (all 125 PCAs)

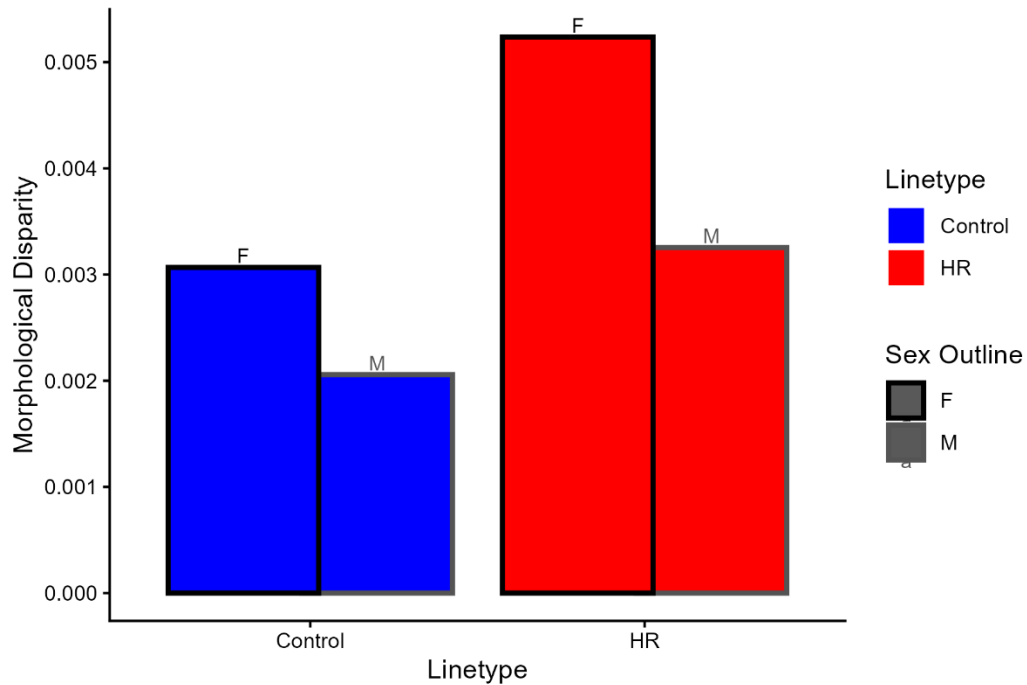


Figure 8 Morphological Disparity (all 125 PCAs)

Procrustes variance was calculated separately for Control and High Runner (HR) mice within each sex using morphological disparity analysis. Bars represent within-group Procrustes variance; black and gray outlines indicate females and males, respectively.

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Supplemental Files

File S1. Protocols for using 3D Slicer.

Supplementary_Material_Protocol 3dslicer_V10ProQuest.docx

File S2. R Code Markdown and Complete Results.

PelvisShape_Analysis_Code_40_Supp.docx