

# **No evidence that presence of sexually transmitted infection selects for reduced mating rate in the two spot ladybird, *Adalia bipunctata***

Sophie L Jones, Daria Pastok, Gregory D D Hurst

Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) are common in animals and plants, and frequently impair individual fertility. Theory predicts that natural selection will favour behaviours that reduce the chance of acquiring a STI. We investigated whether an STI, *Coccipolipus hippodamiae* has selected for increased rejection of mating by female *Adalia bipunctata* as a mechanism to avoid exposure. We first demonstrated that rejection of mating by females did indeed reduce the chance of acquiring the mite. We then examined whether rejection rate and mating rate differed between ladybirds from mite-present and mite-absent populations when tested in a common environment. No differences in rejection intensity or remating propensity were observed between the two populations. We therefore conclude there is no evidence that STIs have driven the evolution of female mating behaviour in this species.

1 **No evidence that presence of sexually transmitted infection selects for reduced**  
2 **mating rate in the two spot ladybird, *Adalia bipunctata*.**

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8

## 9 Abstract

10 Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) are common in animals and plants, and frequently impair  
11 individual fertility. Theory predicts that natural selection will favour behaviours that reduce the  
12 chance of acquiring a STI. We investigated whether an STI, *Coccipolipus hippodamiae* has  
13 selected for increased rejection of mating by female *Adalia bipunctata* as a mechanism to avoid  
14 exposure. We first demonstrated that rejection of mating by females did indeed reduce the  
15 chance of acquiring the mite. We then examined whether rejection rate and mating rate differed  
16 between ladybirds from mite-present and mite-absent populations when tested in a common  
17 environment. No differences in rejection intensity or remating propensity were observed between  
18 the two populations. We therefore conclude there is no evidence that STIs have driven the  
19 evolution of female mating behaviour in this species.

20

## 21 INTRODUCTION

22 Sexually transmitted infections (STIs) can be defined as infections that are primarily transmitted  
23 following sexual contact. Over 200 STIs have been identified to date and have been discovered  
24 in 48 families and 27 orders of hosts (Lockhart et al., 1996). Hosts vary from plants (e.g. white  
25 campion *Silene alba* suffers from infection of the pollinator-transmitted anther smut *Ustilago*  
26 *violacea* (Thrall et al., 1993)), through to mammals (e.g. horses can be infected by *Trypanosoma*  
27 *equiperdum* (Smith and Dobson, 1992)). In the past, vertebrate STIs were the most heavily  
28 studied and widely understood STIs, and insect STIs were somewhat neglected (Smith and  
29 Dobson, 1992, Sheldon, 1993, Lockhart et al., 1996, Lombardo, 1998). However in more recent  
30 years, insect STIs have received increasing attention. Knell & Webberley (2004) noted records  
31 of 73 species of STIs infecting approximately 182 species of insect. Insect STIs recorded to date  
32 are most commonly multicellular ectoparasites, such as mites, worms and fungi.

33 Most STIs have relatively small negative effects on host mortality, but tend to reduce fecundity  
34 or sterilise the host (Lockhart et al., 1996). Natural selection should therefore favour host traits  
35 that reduce the risk of infection. There are three possible behavioural routes to reducing the  
36 chance of acquiring an STI. First, if female fertility is not limited by low remating rates,  
37 exposure can be limited by mating with fewer partners. Theory predicts that STI presence should  
38 select for an increase in female refusal to mate when courted (Boots and Knell, 2002, Kokko et  
39 al., 2002). Second, there is the possibility of rejection of infected partners in favour of uninfected  
40 ones. Whilst there is some evidence for contagion avoidance choices for 'classic' infections  
41 (Able, 1996), studies to date have failed to find evidence for avoidance of mating with  
42 individuals carrying an STI (Abbot and Dill, 2001, Webberley et al., 2002, Nunn, 2003). This  
43 distinction may be associated with the strong selection on STIs to be cryptic to enable

44 transmission (Knell, 1999). Finally, it has been postulated that some post-copulatory grooming  
45 processes, and in cape ground squirrels, post-copulatory masturbation, may have evolved as a  
46 means of preventing STI transmission (Hart et al., 1988, Nunn, 2003, Waterman, 2010).

47 The interaction between the two-spot ladybird, *Adalia bipunctata*, and its ectoparasitic mite  
48 *Coccipolipus hippodamiae*, represents one of the best studied invertebrate-STI interactions. The  
49 mite lives under the elytra of the beetle, and larval mites move between host individuals that are  
50 copulating (Hurst et al., 1995). Mite infection in females is associated with a rapid loss of  
51 fertility, such that acquiring an infection is very costly to females. The two-spot ladybird is a  
52 promiscuous species where females mate once every 2-3 days in the wild (Haddrill et al., 2008).  
53 Where the mite is present, this promiscuity leads to an epidemic of this disease during the  
54 spring/summer mating season, during which nearly all adult beetles become infected (Webberley  
55 et al., 2006a, Ryder et al., 2013, Ryder et al., 2014).

56 The STI is thus both prevalent and highly costly to female hosts, creating a selection pressure for  
57 direct avoidance of infected partners through mate choice, and indirect avoidance of mite  
58 acquisition through reduced mating rate. Previous laboratory and field studies provided no  
59 evidence that ladybirds discriminated against infected partners in mating decisions (Webberley et  
60 al., 2002). However, the hypothesis that selection has acted to increase the general tendency to  
61 reject matings has not been tested. One prediction of this hypothesis is that rejection behaviour  
62 should be more intense, and mating rate lower, in ladybirds from populations where the mite is  
63 present.

64 In this paper, we examine first whether rejection is efficient at preventing mite transfer, and then  
65 test the hypothesis that ladybirds from populations in which the STI is present have been selected

66 for more intense rejection behaviour and lower mating rate, as a means of avoiding infection.  
67 Our measures, which are made under standardized laboratory conditions, provide no evidence  
68 that rejection behaviour or remating propensity differs between these populations.

69

## 70 MATERIALS AND METHOD

71

72 *Experiment 1: Is rejection of mating by a female an efficient means of preventing transmission of*  
73 *C. hippodamiae infection?*

74 Female and male ladybirds were collected from Stockholm in June/July 2011 and returned to the  
75 laboratory. They were sexed and classified as being uninfected, latent infected or infectious on  
76 the basis of absence of mites, presence of mites without infectious larval mites, and presence of  
77 larval mites ready to transmit. Pairs comprising a single infectious male with a focal uninfected  
78 female, and single infectious female with a focal uninfected male were established in clean 90  
79 mm in diameter Petri dishes in the laboratory, and behaviour observed for 30 minutes. Behaviour  
80 was scored as no interaction, rejected mating, and successful mating. Pairs that mated were  
81 allowed to mate to completion before separation of the focal partner to a new dish. The focal  
82 individual was then examined 24 hour later for the presence of larval mites, and where present,  
83 the number of larval mites was scored. The importance of focal host sex and mating/rejection on  
84 mite transfer was analysed with a binomial GLM.

85

86 *Experiment 2: Do female beetles from populations that carry the STI show lower mating rates*  
87 *and a greater likelihood of rejecting mating?*

88 *Adalia bipunctata* were collected from two locations c. 300 km apart in Sweden during August  
89 2012: Nässjö (57.7°N, 14.7° E) and Stockholm (59.3°N, 18.1°E). The Nässjö population is free of  
90 mite infection (Webberley et al., 2006b), whereas there is an annual epidemic of the infection in  
91 Stockholm, leading to nearly all beetles becoming infected (Ryder et al., 2013, Ryder et al.,  
92 2014). Females from these populations were allowed to mate with sympatric males, and progeny  
93 reared in the laboratory. This rearing was conducted concurrently for both populations to  
94 standardize environment. The resulting adult ladybirds were sexed and maintained in single sex  
95 dishes with an ample supply of pea aphid food for 30 days, creating ladybirds of equivalent  
96 reproductive maturity to that seen in the May/June mating period. These ladybirds were then  
97 used before experimental analysis of rejection behaviour and mating rate. All behavioural  
98 observations occurred in the absence of mites to avoid any direct impact of mites on the mating  
99 behaviour of their host (although none have previously been observed: (Webberley et al., 2002)).  
100  
101 Rejection behaviour and mating rate were analysed over daily mating trials carried out over a  
102 five day period. ‘Pools’ of five females and five males were created for each population. In each  
103 case males were from same population as females, but unrelated to them. Within each pool,  
104 males and females were mixed and allowed to mate once three days before the experiment. This  
105 was intended to reduce artefactual behaviour resulting from single sex confinement.  
106 Subsequently, females from each pool were offered a male for 30 minutes at the same time each  
107 day for a five day period, with each female being offered a different male every day (see Table 1  
108 for block design).  
109 During each mating trial, each pair was placed in a clean Petri dish at 21°C for the duration of the  
110 observation, and the presence of the following behaviour observed:

- 111 a) The number of interactions between male and female
- 112 b) The presence and duration of rejection behaviour during these interactions. Rejection
- 113 behaviour was categorised into different intensity levels; no rejection observed; mild
- 114 rejection (<1 minute); moderate rejection (1-5 minutes) and intense rejection (>5
- 115 minutes).
- 116 c) Whether interactions resulted in mating

117 From these measures, the likelihood of a female rejecting mating, the intensity of rejection, and

118 the probability of successful mating occurring were calculated.

119 Four replicate groups were used, resulting in 20 females being tested for each population.

120

## 122 RESULTS

123

124 *Experiment 1: Is rejection of mating by a female an efficient means of preventing transmission of*125 *C. hippodamiae* infection?

126 Transmission rates from wild caught infectious male and female individuals to uninfected

127 partners with which they mated were high, with only one of 26 females not acquiring infection

128 during mating with an infectious male partner, and one of 35 males not acquiring infection from

129 an infectious female partner. In contrast, transmission was rare when mating was rejected, with

130 one of seven females acquiring an infection following rejection of the infectious male, and one of

131 three males acquiring infection having been rejected by an infectious female. Statistical analysis

132 revealed no evidence for an interaction term between sex of infected host and mating/rejection

133 behaviour on mite transfer probability. Statistical analysis with the interaction term dropped

134 revealed no effect of donor sex on transmission probability (GLM factor host sex,  $p=0.288$ ), but135 a significant effect of the factor 'rejected/mated' (GLM factor mated/rejected,  $p<0.0001$ ). Thus

136 rejection behaviour by the female is protective against mite transfer both from an infected male,

137 and additionally prevents transmission to an uninfected male partner. We additionally examined

138 the number of larval mites transferred during copulation /rejected copulation for the cases where

139 larval mites were transferred. The intensity of infection following the two rejected matings where

140 mites did transfer was low (1 and 2 larval mites) compared to that observed for completed

141 pairings (median 10, range 2-30,  $n=56$ ).

142

143 *Experiment 2: Do female beetles from populations that carry the STI show a greater likelihood*144 *of rejecting mating and a lower mating rate?*

145 Mating was observed to be more common on day 1 than on other days in experiments involving  
146 both Stockholm and Nässjö (Figure 1). We pooled mating trial outcome data across repeats and  
147 populations, and observed that mating rate was heterogeneous between days within the  
148 experiment ( $\chi^2=16.042$ ,  $df=4$ ,  $p=0.003$ ). This heterogeneity is associated with high mating rates  
149 on day 1 (after 3 days without mating activity); when day 1 is excluded, mating rates are  
150 homogenous over days 2-5 ( $\chi^2=0.276$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p=0.964$ ). Thus, in further analysis, day 1 mating is  
151 excluded, as the high mating rate on this day is likely to be associated with experimentally  
152 induced lack of mating opportunity.

153 We then examined whether there was any evidence for a difference in mating behaviour between  
154 the two populations from days 2-5. We pooled all encounters, and analysed the outcome of the  
155 80 male-female interaction trials in each population. We observed that males approached females  
156 for mating in 64 cases for both populations. Where interactions occurred, most females exhibited  
157 some rejection behaviour in encounters, and this rejection was prolonged in over half of cases in  
158 both populations. There was no evidence that females from the two populations differed in the  
159 intensity of rejection behaviour following a male's attempt to mate ( $\chi^2=4.13$ ,  $df=3$ ,  $p=0.25$ )  
160 (Figure 3).

161 There was also no evidence for variation in overall propensity to mate between ladybirds from  
162 Nässjö (mite free in nature) and Stockholm (mite present in nature) (Figure 2). Across days 2-5,  
163 there was no evidence of an association between population and remating rate ( $\chi^2=0.627$ ,  $df=1$ ,  
164  $p=0.428$ ). We additionally reanalysed mating propensity to create a more ecologically relevant  
165 statistic. The confined experiment of the Petri dish allows males the ability to interact with  
166 female repeatedly, which is unlikely to occur in the field. An 'environmental' mating rate based

167 on the result of the first interaction between male and female only was therefore calculated,  
168 which discounted mating if this took more than five minutes to achieve. The ‘environmental’  
169 mating rate for Stockholm and Nässjö was half that of the overall mating rate (Figure 3).  
170 Analysis indicates there was no evidence of association between location and ‘environmental’  
171 mating rate ( $\chi^2=0.295$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p=0.587$ ).

## 172 DISCUSSION

173 Sexually transmitted infections are common in nature, and are frequently harmful to female hosts  
174 (Lockhart et al., 1996). Models predict that the presence of STIs should therefore select on  
175 female mating behaviour. Past work has failed to reveal any choice of mates associated with STI  
176 avoidance (Abbot and Dill, 2001, Webberley et al., 2002, Nunn, 2003). However, there has been  
177 no test of the hypothesis that selection will promote avoidance of STIs through reducing mating  
178 rate (Boots and Knell, 2002, Kokko et al., 2002). In this study, we first studied the impact of  
179 rejection behaviour on mite transfer. We observed rejecting mating was protective against mite  
180 transfer, with a reduced probability of transmission during rejected mating. Further, where mite  
181 transmission occurred, a lower number of larval mites transferred during copulation, and low  
182 intensity initial infections such as these are less like to develop into mature infection (Pastok et  
183 al., 2015). Thus, we can conclude rejection of mating by females would be protective, and  
184 selection on females to reject mating would be predicted.

185 In contrast to this, we failed to observed differences in female tendency to reject matings when  
186 beetles from Stockholm (where the STI is naturally present) and Nässjö (which is naturally  
187 uninfected) were compared. No evidence was found for differences in tendency to attract  
188 courtship, nor in the presence or intensity of rejection behaviour exhibited by females when

189 contacted by a male, nor in the overall outcome measured in terms of mating/not mating.  
190 Combined with previous observations of lack of mate choice for uninfected partners, the data do  
191 not support the hypothesis that STIs have selected on female mating behaviour in this species,  
192 despite rejection of mating being partly effective at preventing STI transmission.

193 Failure to find a difference in mating rates between the two populations could have four sources.  
194 First, there may be no difference. Second, there may be a difference but the effect size is small.  
195 However, we would note that mating rate was quantitatively higher in beetles from Stockholm  
196 (mite present population) than Nässjö (mite absent). Third, the beetles in the experiment may not  
197 fully represent the populations they derive from. Whilst the beetles used in each repeat of the  
198 experiment were outbred and different individuals, they derived from 5 families in each case.  
199 The sample is an estimate of the individuals in the population they derive from, rather than fully  
200 representing the populations. This would not affect our ability to uncover fixed differences  
201 between populations. It would, however, potentially compromise our ability to detect the  
202 evolution of a mixed risky/safe strategy in response to STI presence, as suggested by Boots &  
203 Knell (Boots and Knell, 2002, Kokko et al., 2002). Fourth, the behaviour is observed in the  
204 laboratory, removed from natural conditions. 'Naturalness' is always a problem for laboratory  
205 study. Despite an experimental design that attempted to replicate natural mating environment e.g.  
206 temperature, lighting, there were possible critiques of spatial confines, repeated interaction and  
207 ineffective behaviour. However, consideration of the first interaction only did not alter the  
208 conclusion that the outcome of male/female interactions did not vary between populations. Thus,  
209 it is currently most parsimonious to conclude there are no fixed biological differences in mating  
210 propensity between these two populations.

211 We are thus confident that the presence of a sterilizing STI that reaches high prevalence has not  
212 led to the evolution of increased female rejection behaviour. Why has an intuitive evolutionary  
213 path not been taken? One possibility is that a high mating rate is required for female fertility,  
214 such that females who refuse to mate incur a cost. However, *Adalia* females mated singly have  
215 equivalent fertility, measured over 20 days, to females mated every two days (Haddrill et al.,  
216 2007). Thus, there is ample scope for a female's risk of mite induced infertility to be reduced  
217 before sperm-depletion associated infertility is observed. A second possibility is that local  
218 adaptation is not possible in this species, or that there has not been sufficient time for adaptation  
219 to occur. The presence of variation in the frequency of colour pattern variants in this species on  
220 equivalent spatial scales (Brakefield, 1984) make us confident gene flow is not sufficient to  
221 impede local adaptation. Historical records of mites on European ladybirds dating back 20 years  
222 indicates this is not a very recent interaction, and thus we do not believe that the lack of a  
223 response is associated with evolutionary lag. A third hypothesis is that selection to prevent STI  
224 acquisition does operate in the way expected, but there are other factors differing between the  
225 populations that influence mating rate evolution. It is possible that there is a counterbalancing  
226 selective force working in opposition to the effect of the STI (e.g. spatially varying benefits of  
227 polyandry). The source of such selection is not obvious (the two populations use similar habitat  
228 and have similar sex ratio), but such a hypothesis cannot be ruled out. It is also possible that  
229 there is a different, but hitherto cryptic, STI present in Nassjo. The presence of confounding  
230 processes can only be properly excluded by a wider comparison of STI present/absent  
231 populations, which would reduce the influence of any local confounding variables. Finally, the  
232 prediction that STIs select for lower mating rate applies to female hosts, in which there are  
233 smaller benefits to each additional mating, and in this species, higher costs of infection (sterility).

234 Selection on males is not expected to act in the same way, as each mating provides significant  
235 fitness benefits, and the STI is only weakly costly to male hosts (Ryder et al., 2007). If mating  
236 rate is determined by males, then the STI is less likely to drive mating system evolution.

237 In summary, our experiment demonstrated rejection behaviour was efficient at preventing STI  
238 transmission, but did not occur more commonly in beetles derived from populations where the  
239 STI was common. This study, combined with previous analysis indicating STI infected beetles  
240 were not disadvantaged in acquiring mates (Webberley et al., 2002), produces no support for the  
241 hypothesis that female mating behaviour evolves in response to the presence of a sterilizing STI.  
242 An intriguing possibility is that STIs are most commonly observed in species in which evolution  
243 to resist STI transmission is inhibited.

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246

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**Table 1** (on next page)

Experimental design for mating experiment, indicating rotation of partners within block

Table 1: Five day experimental block design of sympatric matings between Stockholm (SF1=Stockholm Female 1, SM1=Stockholm Male 1 etc) and Nässjö (NF1= Nässjö Female 1, NM1= Nässjö Male 1 etc.) individuals. Numbers in the matrix indicate day of mating.

	<b>SF1</b>	<b>SF2</b>	<b>SF3</b>	<b>SF4</b>	<b>SF5</b>
<b>SM1</b>	5	4	3	2	1
<b>SM2</b>	1	5	4	3	2
<b>SM3</b>	2	1	5	4	3
<b>SM4</b>	3	2	1	5	4
<b>SM5</b>	4	3	2	1	5

1

	<b>NF1</b>	<b>NF2</b>	<b>NF3</b>	<b>NF4</b>	<b>NF5</b>
<b>NM1</b>	5	4	3	2	1
<b>NM2</b>	1	5	4	3	2
<b>NM3</b>	2	1	5	4	3
<b>NM4</b>	3	2	1	5	4
<b>NM5</b>	4	3	2	1	5

2

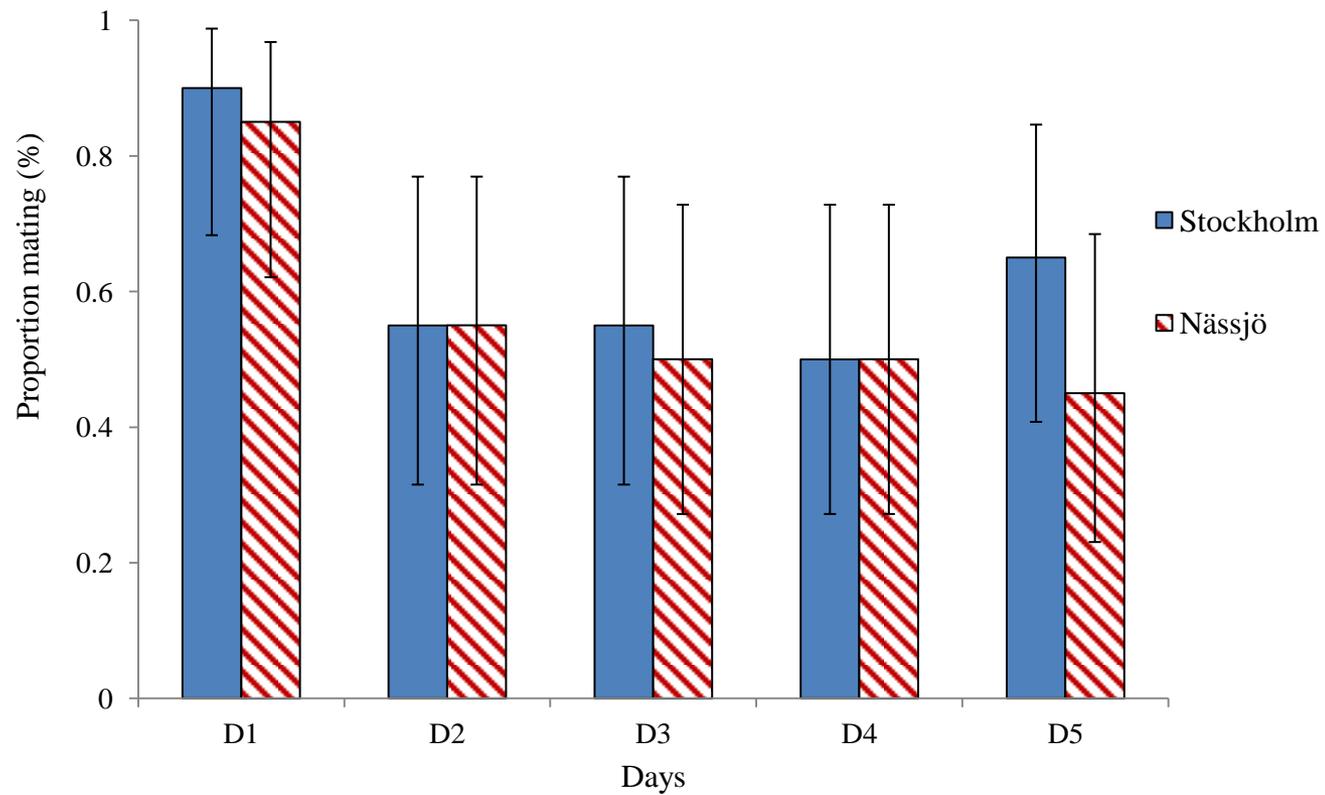
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4

**Figure 1** (on next page)

Probability of mating for *A. bipunctata* from Stockholm (STI present population) and Nassjo (STI absent population) on each of five days

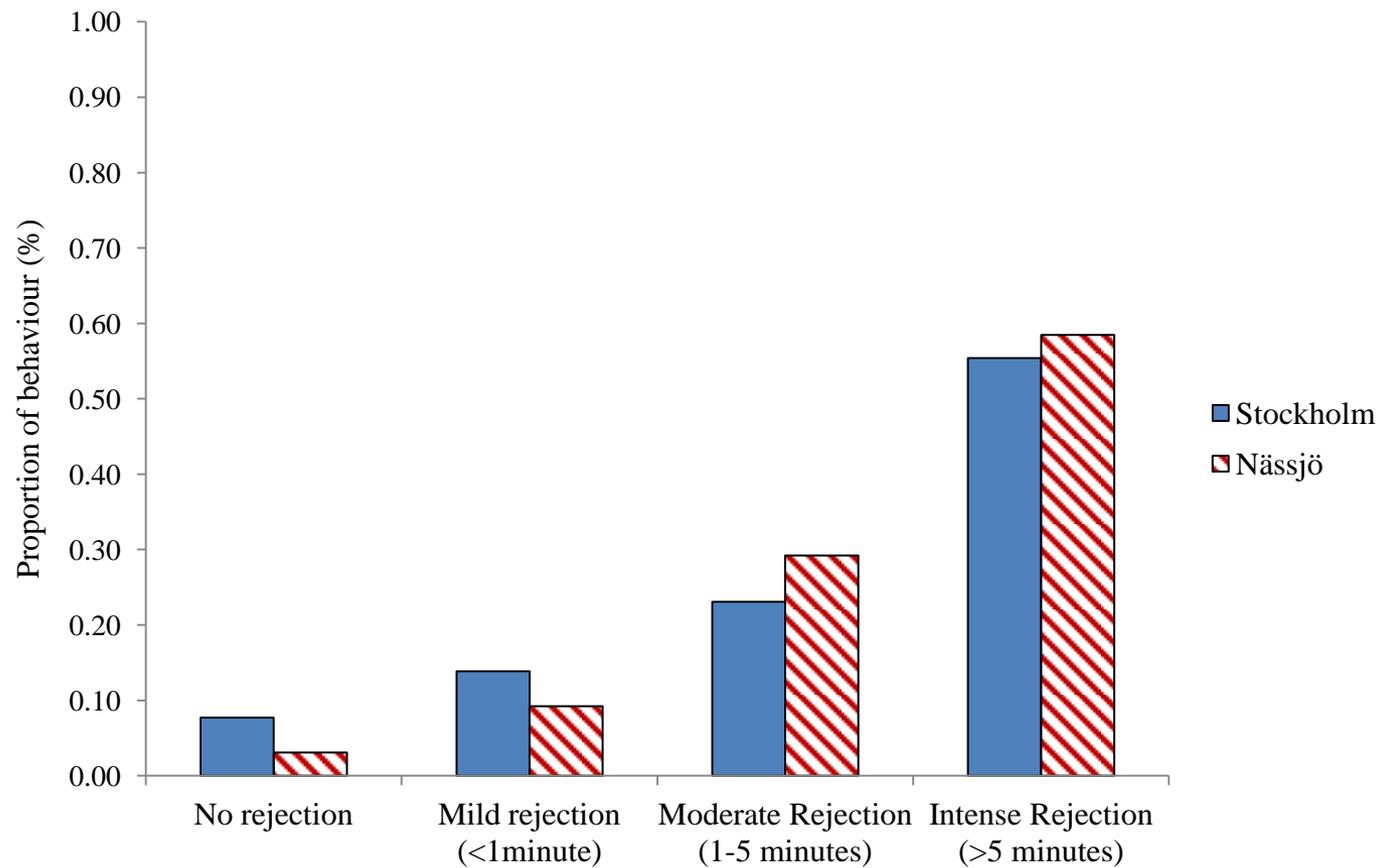
Figure 1: Proportion of pairs that mated each day during 30 minute period from Stockholm (Blue, STI naturally present in nature, though absent in the experiment) and Nässjö (Hatched Red, no STI). N=20 for all days, the combined results from four blocks. Error bars for proportionate data represent binomial sampling intervals calculated using the Clopper-Pearson (1934) method.



**Figure 2** (on next page)

Rejection behaviour by female *A. bipunctata* from Stockholm (mite present) and Nassjö (mite absent) populations

Figure 2: Proportion of different intensities of rejection behaviour (No rejection, mild rejection (<1minute), moderate rejection (1-5minutes), intense rejection (>5minutes)) observed from Stockholm (Blue, STI naturally present, though absent in the laboratory) and Nässjö (Hatched Red, no STI) females during 30 minute period experiments over days 2-5. N=64 for both populations.



**Figure 3** (on next page)

Environmentally relevant mating rate for *A. bipunctata* from Stockholm (mite present population) and Nassjo (mite absent population).

Figure 3: 'Environmental' mating rate for Stockholm (Blue, STI naturally present, absent in the laboratory) and Nässjö (Hatched Red, no STI) ladybirds over days 2-5. A pair was considered to have mated only if the first interaction between male and female led to mating. N= 20 female beetles, 80 interactions, for both populations.

