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Sperm removal during copulation confirmed in the oldest extant damselfly, *Hemiphysalis mirabilis*

Adolfo Cordero-Rivera

Postcopulatory sexual selection may favour mechanisms to reduce sperm competition, like physical sperm removal by males. To investigate the origin of sperm removal, I studied the reproductive behaviour and mechanisms of sperm competition in the only living member of the oldest damselfly family, *Hemiphysalis mirabilis*, one species that was considered extinct in the 1980s. This species displays scramble competition behaviour, whose males search for females with short flights and both sexes exhibit a conspicuous “abdominal flicking”. This behaviour is used by males during an elaborate precopulatory courtship, unique among the Odonata. Females use a similar display to reject male attempts to form tandem, but eventually signal receptivity by a particular body position. Males immobilise females during courtship using their legs, which, contrarily to other damselflies, never autotomize. Copulation is short (range 4.1-18.7 min), and has two stages. In the first stage, males remove part of the stored sperm, and inseminate during the second stage, at the end of mating. The examination of genitalia indicates that males have two horns covered by back-oriented spines, which match the size and form of female genitalia. The volume of sperm in females after copulation was 2.8 times larger than the volume stored in females whose copulation was interrupted at the end of stage I, indicative of a significant sperm removal. These results point out that sperm removal is an old character in the evolution of odonates, probably dating back to the Permian.

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15 **Abstract**

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17 physical sperm removal by males. To investigate the origin of sperm removal, I studied the
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31 removal. These results point out that sperm removal is an old character in the evolution of
32 odonates, probably dating back to the Permian.

33 **Keywords.** Odonates, damselflies, postcopulatory sexual selection, sperm competition,
34 Hemiphlebiidae

35 **Introduction**

36 The relevance of Sexual Selection in shaping reproductive behaviour is well established
37 (Andersson, 1994), and in particular its effects on the evolution of primary (Leonard & Córdoba-
38 Aguilar, 2010) and secondary sexual characters (Clutton-Brock, 2007). Our understanding of
39 sexual selection processes is based on the conceptual framework that differentiates between pre-
40 copulatory and post-copulatory forces and mechanisms (Eberhard, 1996), and the traditional
41 differentiation of intra- and inter-sexual selection, which can be dated back to the original texts
42 of Darwin (1871). The origin and maintenance of many bizarre behaviours is explained by
43 sexual selection theory, even if such behaviours might not be favoured by natural selection.
44 Males and females do not necessarily have the same interests, and conflicts are expected (Parker,
45 1979; Arnqvist, 2004), which is particularly evident in species whose females store sperm for
46 long periods. Animal genitalia is therefore under intense sexual selection (Eberhard, 1985), and it
47 may drive coevolutionary arms races between sexes (e.g. Sánchez & Cordero, 2014).

48 Several mechanisms explain the evolution of male reproductive strategies, both to increase
49 paternity when in competition with other males, and to reduce the success of other males in the
50 context of sperm competition (for a review, see Cordero Rivera & Córdoba Aguilar, 2016).
51 Perhaps the most surprising adaptation is the ability to physically remove the sperm from rivals,
52 stored inside the female, using the intromittent organ. In a ‘seminal’ (literally) paper, Waage
53 (1979) demonstrated, for the first time, that male damselflies are able to use their genital ligula to
54 trap sperm from previous mates, and remove it during copulation, so that paternity success of the
55 last male is usually near 100% in the first clutch laid after copulation (e.g. Cordero & Miller,
56 1992). Since Waage’s discovery, the mechanism of sperm removal by males has been
57 demonstrated in several animal groups, including Dermaptera (Kamimura, 2005), Orthoptera

58 (Ono, Siva-Jothy & Kato, 1989; von Helversen & von Helversen, 1991) and Coleoptera (Yokoi,
59 1990) among the insects, but also in Crustaceans (Galeotti et al., 2008) and Cephalopods (Wada
60 et al., 2010). This is therefore a widespread phenomenon in animals, which has evolved several
61 times, but we have little information on its origin in any animal group.

62 Although Odonates are well known model species for studies of sexual selection and
63 evolutionary biology in general (Córdoba-Aguilar, 2008), most research is in fact confined to a
64 few families (Cordero-Rivera and Córdoba-Aguilar 2010). This taxonomic bias might induce
65 wrong interpretations about the generality of some behaviours. We do not have fossil
66 information to track the evolution of significant behaviours, like the ability to remove sperm
67 from previous mates when a male copulates with a female. An alternative is to study behaviour
68 on a phylogenetic perspective. From this point of view, *Hemiphlebia mirabilis*, the only living
69 member of the Hemiphlebiidae, given its basal position in the Zygoptera (Dumont, Vierstraete &
70 Vanfleteren, 2010), is a priority taxon in this context. This family dates back to the late Jurassic
71 at least (Lak et al., 2009), and *H. mirabilis* can be considered a “living-fossil”, a survival from
72 the Permian (Fraser, 1955).

73 The goals of this study were therefore two fold. First, I aimed at observing and describing the
74 reproductive behaviour of this species, still unknown. Fraser (1955) published a description of
75 the male intromittent organ, with two flagella or horns similar to that of other species known to
76 use these structures to remove sperm (Córdoba-Aguilar & Cordero-Rivera, 2008). However,
77 female internal organs remain unknown. Given that female structures are the “arena” where
78 postcopulatory sexual selection takes place, their study is crucial. Therefore, my second goal was
79 to study genital morphology and sperm competition mechanisms. If *H. mirabilis* males displace

80 sperm, this would suggest that sperm displacement and the dual function of male genitalia
81 (Waage, 1979) is a very old character in Odonates.

82 **Methods**

83 Most observations and experiments were done at Long Swamp, a large freshwater system in the
84 Discovery Bay Coastal Park, near to Nelson (Victoria, Australia), between 17 November and 7
85 December 2013. At this place, population density of *H. mirabilis* was very high during the field
86 work (Cordero-Rivera, 2015). A second population, inhabiting Ming Ming swamp in Grampians
87 National Park, was visited for further observations.

88 Animals included in this study were individually marked. Having a marked population is a
89 convenient fact for demographical and behavioural studies (Cordero-Rivera & Stoks, 2008),
90 because individually marked specimens are best for focal observations. Marking was done with a
91 permanent black ink pen (Faber-Castell Multimark 1525 S) on the external side of the right hind
92 wing (see Figures 2 and 3).

93 Copulatory behaviour was rarely observed. For instance, I observed one mating on 19 and 25
94 November and two on 26 November. Therefore, I decided to try to increase inter-individual
95 encounters by using a mosquito net as an outdoor insectary, where a set of marked specimens
96 was introduced. The insectary was used to elicit mating behaviour on days 29, 30 November and
97 1 and 3 December, between 11 and 16-17 h. At the end of the observations, the insectary was
98 removed and remaining individuals released. I observed 28 copulations in total, and 11 were
99 interrupted at different times, to study sperm competition. The pair, or sometimes only the
100 female, was immediately preserved in 70% ethanol for further analyses. One thermometer was
101 situated on the shade of a shrub at about 1.5 m over water. Temperature was recorded
102 approximately once every hour.

103 In the laboratory, females were dissected and the sperm storage organs extracted. Three females
104 (two after copula and one interrupted) had no sperm in their bursa copulatrix. This fact might be
105 due to failure in insemination (Sánchez-Guillén, Wellenreuther & Cordero-Rivera, 2012), and
106 were excluded from sperm volume analyses. The sperm storage organs of a further female were
107 damaged during dissection and could not be analysed. Final sample sizes were therefore seven
108 females after copulation and four interrupted at the end of stage I. The volume of sperm was
109 estimated following standard protocols (Cordero & Miller, 1992), using the software ImageJ
110 (<http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>) to measure the area of the sperm mass from microscope pictures. Male
111 secondary genitalia was dissected and observed under Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM).
112 Permits to collect odonates were issued by the Victorian Department of Environment and
113 Primary Industries (permit number 10006907).

114 Mean values are presented with their standard error (SE) and sample size: mean \pm SE (N).

115 **Results**

116 Reproductive behaviour

117 *Hemiphlebia mirabilis* shows limited flying activity, and remains most of the time perched.
118 Males are not territorial, and the mating system is scramble competition. The most conspicuous
119 behaviour was abdominal flicking, which occurred continuously over the day, was performed by
120 both sexes, and has been studied elsewhere (Cordero-Rivera, 2015).

121 Mating behaviour was very infrequent. Over the study period, I observed 28 copulations, but
122 only eight of them outside the insectary. Mating behaviour reminds that of Coenagrionidae, but
123 with several peculiarities. When a male detects a potential partner, he makes a fast flight, similar
124 to a feeding flight, and grasps the female by the wings with his legs (Figure 1A). Occasionally,

125 males try to get in tandem other males (even of other species), but this behaviour lasts only a few
126 seconds. Some females curl their abdomen upwards when are immobilised by males, and try to
127 dislodge the male, in a clear refusal behaviour (Figure 2), which sometimes was successful. In
128 the insectary, these tandems which did not end in copula lasted 8.4 ± 2.4 (4) minutes.

129 Receptive females remain motionless, and adopt a characteristic position with their abdomen
130 curved downwards in the junction between the first and second abdominal segment, and upwards
131 between third and fourth segment. The position recalls a capital Z (Figures 1B-F and 2C). After a
132 variable time motionless, males start to make their characteristic abdominal flicking, in a clear
133 courtship behaviour (see the sequence in Figure 1B-F, and also [Video 1](#)). Then, males curve their
134 abdomen upwards and grasp the female's prothorax with their abdominal appendages (Figure
135 2C). The average time between female capture and tandem formation was 6.20 ± 1.17 (19)
136 minutes, with a range from 1.67 to 23.0 minutes. During this time, males use their abdominal
137 flicking display to court the female, with motionless periods intercalated. After grasping the
138 female with his anal appendages, the male widely opens its legs when releases female's wings
139 ([Video 1](#)).

140 After tandem, males perform the sperm translocation, from segment 9th to 2nd (Figure 3), which
141 lasted on average 3.5 ± 0.24 (26) seconds (range 1-6 sec; Video 1). This behaviour always
142 preceded copulation, contrarily to what was previously reported (Sant & New, 1988). Copulation
143 starts immediately after sperm translocation. Copulatory movements are similar to
144 Coenagrionidae, and had two clear phases, which correspond with stage I and II as described for
145 *Enallagma cyathigerum* (Miller & Miller, 1981) (see Figure 4).

146 Copulation lasted 10.53 ± 1.17 (14) minutes (range 4.1-18.7 min), and its duration is not
147 significantly related to time of day (Figure 5) or air temperature (Figure 6) (multiple regression

148 analysis with copula duration as the response variable and time of day and temperature as
149 explanatory variables; time effect: -0.0053 ± 0.0105 , $t_8 = -0.51$, $p = 0.624$; temperature effect:
150 0.0008 ± 0.0006 , $t_8 = 1.32$, $p = 0.224$). A similar analysis of the duration of courtship and
151 precopulatory tandem also suggests that time of day and temperature have no effect (data not
152 shown). Most of the variation in copulation duration is due to stage I, which lasts 9.96 ± 1.30 (12)
153 minutes. Stage II is of short duration and shows little variability in duration (1.08 ± 0.11 (13)
154 min). At the end of copulation, all males flew off immediately leaving the female alone, but
155 usually perched nearby. Females either flew ($N=5$) or remained perched for a short time ($N=4$).
156 One female could be observed for about 2 minutes after copula. She apparently did not expel
157 sperm (Córdoba-Aguilar, 2006), but made conspicuous movements of the external genitalia.
158 I could not observe a single female laying eggs. It is clear that oviposition does not take place in
159 tandem after mating, so it should be performed by females alone. On 25 November I collected 10
160 females apparently mature and put them in plastic containers with humid filter paper, which
161 elicits oviposition behaviour in many zygopterans (Van Gossum, Sánchez-Guillén & Cordero-
162 Rivera, 2003). They were retained for two hours on a shaded spot, and afterwards were released,
163 but none laid eggs. A second attempt to obtain eggs was done with 22 females from the
164 population at Ming Ming Swamp, which were fully mature judging by their enlarged abdomen.
165 Females were maintained with humid filter paper from 12:15 to 15:30 h, but once more, no
166 oviposition was observed. Five females were retained and maintained overnight with humid filter
167 paper and a piece of vegetation, but yet again, no eggs were laid.

168 Anatomy of genitalia and sperm competition

169 Figure 7 shows the anatomy of male genitalia at SEM, and female genitalia at optical
170 microscope. The aedeagus measures about 2 mm in length, and ends with a flexible head,

171 culminated by two dorsal horns (Figure 7A, D). These are covered by backwards oriented spines
172 (Figure 7F). The aedeagus is covered by small spines in both sides (Figure 7E), and by a group
173 of large spines in the ventral median part (Figure 7C). Female genitalia shows two chitinized
174 plates with embedded sensilla (Figure 7B), and a large *bursa copulatrix*, full of sperm in
175 postcopula females. There is no spermatheca, although in some specimens the bursa seems
176 divided into two parts, like the example in Figure 7B. The size and structure of male genitalia
177 compared to female *bursa copulatrix*, as well as the presence of spines, both suggest that males
178 can remove sperm during the stage I of copulation.

179 The volume of sperm in females after copulation was 2.8 times larger than the volume stored in
180 females whose copulation was interrupted at the end of stage I (Figure 8; ANOVA, $F_{1,9}=9.70$,
181 $p=0.012$), indicating a significant sperm removal.

182 **Discussion**

183 The reproductive behaviour of *H. mirabilis* is unique from several points of view. Both sexes
184 perform abdominal flicking very frequently, particularly after flights, even in the absence of
185 conspecifics (Cordero-Rivera, 2015). The results of this study indicate that this abdominal
186 display, which is the most conspicuous behaviour of *H. mirabilis* (Sant & New, 1988), is also
187 part of the courtship (Figure 1). There have been suggestions in the literature indicating that
188 males use the curling of the abdomen to display to and attract females (Tillyard, 1913), and that
189 females respond to male abdominal flicking by performing the same display (Davies, 1985). My
190 observations nevertheless do not confirm this. Although to some extent both males and females
191 show this behaviour when conspecifics also display, females can perform abdominal flicking
192 even more actively than males when they are alone and undisturbed (up to 172 es in 10
193 minutes compared to 119 times in males; Cordero-Rivera, 2015). Courtship lasted a maximum of

194 23 min, which is a substantial amount of time, and is likely to be energetically expensive. This
195 was an unexpected result, because small non-territorial damselflies do not have elaborate
196 courtships, and suggests that precopulatory sexual selection might be intense in this species. The
197 complexity of this precopulatory courtship is also relevant from a different point of view: this
198 species is not only unique from its morphology and taxonomic position; it is also unique from the
199 ethological point of view.

200 When zygopterans are handled for marking, it is not rare that some lose one or more legs, a fact
201 that might reduce their survivorship (Cordero-Rivera, Egidio Pérez & Andrés, 2002). In the case
202 of *H. mirabilis* this never happened, and all individuals had six legs when first captured.

203 Furthermore, I found that pulling legs out from adult *H. mirabilis* to sample tissues for DNA,
204 required the use of scissors instead of forceps, because forcibly removing one leg could damage
205 the animal, due to muscular tissues remaining attached to the leg. Given that legs are used to
206 immobilise females during courtship (Figures 1 and 2), perhaps this explains why *H. mirabilis*
207 males do not autotomize their legs. Legs are crucial for male courtship in *H. mirabilis*, another
208 unusual characteristic.

209 A third peculiarity of *H. mirabilis* is that mating frequency is surprisingly low. Even if males and
210 females were observed in large numbers, they seldom interacted. This low mating frequency,
211 combined with the intense precopulatory sexual selection during courtship, and the fact that there
212 is no postcopulatory association between males and females, which is typical when polyandry is
213 common (Alcock, 1994), suggest that females mate very few times during their lifetime. This is
214 further indicated by the finding that one female (out of 5) interrupted at the end of stage I of
215 copulation had no sperm from previous matings, which suggests that she might be mating for the
216 first time.



217 Even if mating frequency is low, it is unlikely that female *H. mirabilis* is monogamous. The
218 anatomy of genitalia is typical of sperm removers, and the measurement of sperm volumes
219 confirmed this possibility. If the images in Figures 7A and 7B are compared, it is evident that the
220 size and morphology of the ligula matches the size and morphology of the female genitalia. Note
221 that images in Figure 7 are oriented with the dorsal part above, but during copulation, the
222 abdomen of the female contacts with the male upside-down, like in Figure 4. This means that the
223 foldable head of the ligula is orientated during copulation in a way that favours the introduction
224 of its horns into the bursa, facilitating sperm capture and removal. In all Zygopteran species so
225 far studied, stage I is used to remove sperm from previous matings and stage II to inseminate
226 (Córdoba-Aguilar, Uhía & Cordero-Rivera, 2003). My results are compatible with this scenario
227 also for *H. mirabilis*. Therefore, sperm competition has been a relevant force in the evolution of
228 reproductive behaviour in this species, and given its phylogenetic situation, in the odonates as a
229 group. It may date back to the Permian. A study of the evolution of genitalia in a phylogenetic
230 context is certainly a priority (e.g. Rudoy & Ribera, 2016). It is interesting to note that two (out
231 of nine) females dissected after a complete copulation did not have sperm in their bursa. This
232 suggests that some matings might be unsuccessful at insemination, and therefore females may
233 need to mate more than once to be able to reproduce. This possibility needs further study.

234 I could not observe oviposition, neither elicit egg-laying on humid filter paper and plant tissue.
235 Oviposition has apparently never been observed in this species (Sant & New, 1988). The dense
236 vegetation of Long Swamp was too thick to allow detailed behavioural observations of these
237 small damselflies. If females lay eggs at the base of the reeds, this is unlikely to be detected.
238 Even mating pairs were very difficult to notice among the vegetation. Furthermore, individuals
239 in copula were never seen flying (a further peculiarity of this species), which also difficult

240 detection. Focal observation of 79 females in this population (during 10 min each) allowed
241 witnessing three of them mating, but none laying eggs (Cordero-Rivera, 2015). One possibility is
242 that oviposition takes place during the night. Nevertheless, this seems unlikely because animals
243 showed no activity at low temperatures, and five females were maintained over night with humid
244 filter paper, and did not lay eggs. Further detailed observations at localities where the vegetation
245 is less dense (like Ming Ming swamp) might be fruitful to detect oviposition. It surely is
246 endophytic, given the structure of the ovipositor (Sant & New, 1988).

247 To conclude, this study offers the first description of reproductive behaviour of a key taxon in
248 the evolution of the Odonata, considered the sister group to all Lestoidea (Dumont, Vierstraete &
249 Vanfleteren, 2010), and suggests that sperm removal is a very old adaptation of male odonates in
250 the arena of sexual selection. Some mysteries remain: “*Hemiphlebia mirabilis* will always be an
251 enigma” (Fraser, 1955).

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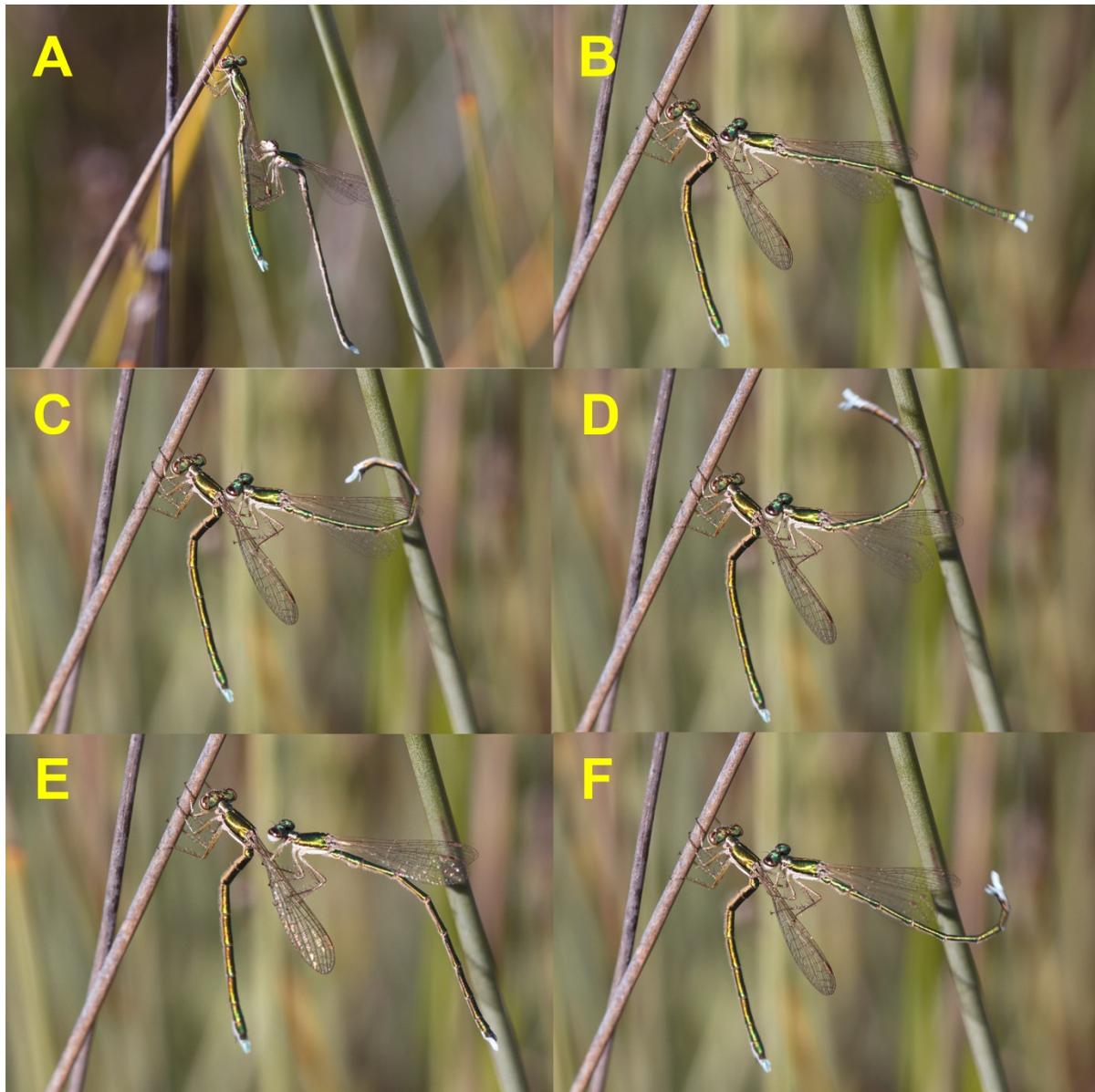
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351 **Supplementary material**

352 Video 1. A summary of reproductive behaviour of *H. mirabilis*.

353 Available at: https://youtu.be/ROfXhv_bg00



354

355 Figure 1. Courtship behaviour of male *H. mirabilis*. Males use the “flicking” display
356 characteristic of this species. Note the “Z” position of female abdomen, which signals
357 receptivity. Males repeatedly curl their abdomen up and downwards during this display. See also
358 [Video 1](#).



359

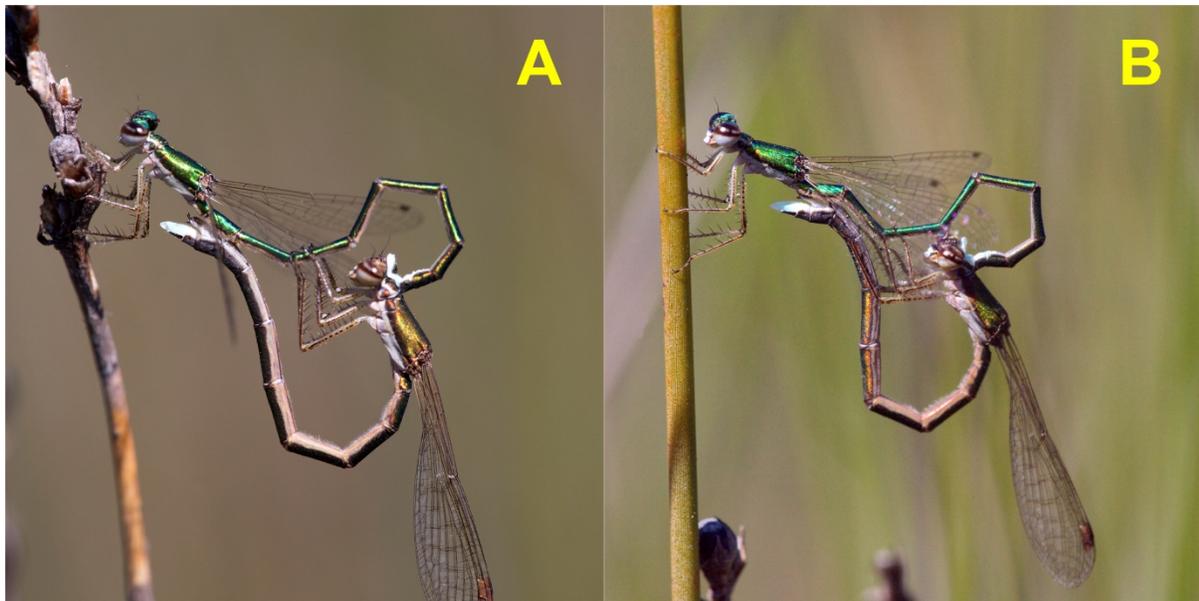
360 Figure 2. Female refusal behaviour, using the abdomen to try to dislodge the male (A and B), and
361 the start of precopulatory tandem (C), once female shows signs of receptivity. Female acceptance
362 of copulation is indicated by the “Z” position of her abdomen.

363



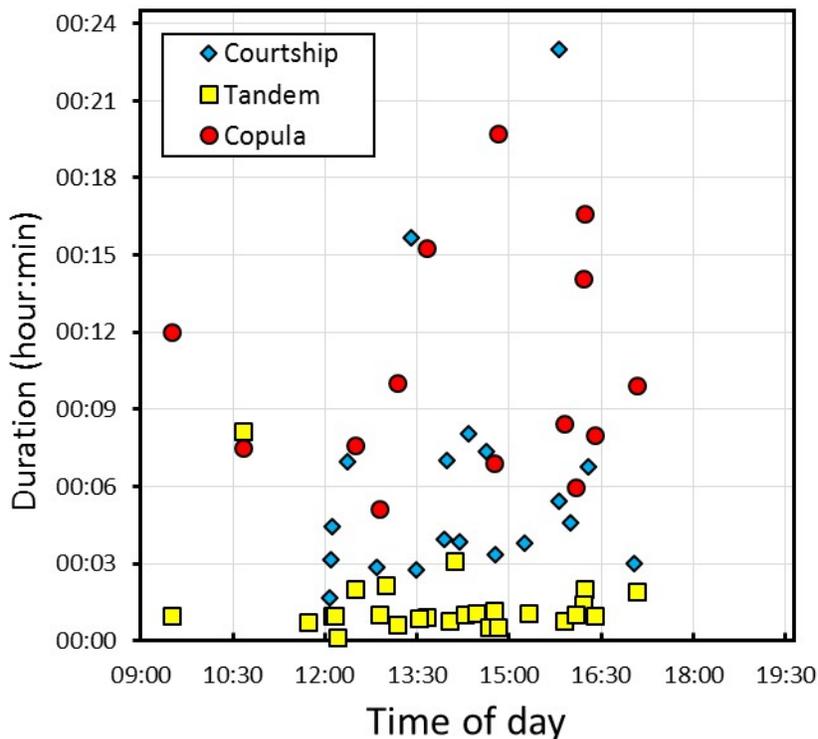
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365 Figure 3. The intra-male sperm translocation behaviour. All matings observed (N=28) were
366 preceded by this behaviour.

367



368
369 Figure 4. Copulatory phases in *H. mirabilis* match the description of stage I (A) and stage II (B)
370 of Miller and Miller (1981). Stage I is involved in rivals' sperm removal and insemination takes
371 place during stage II.

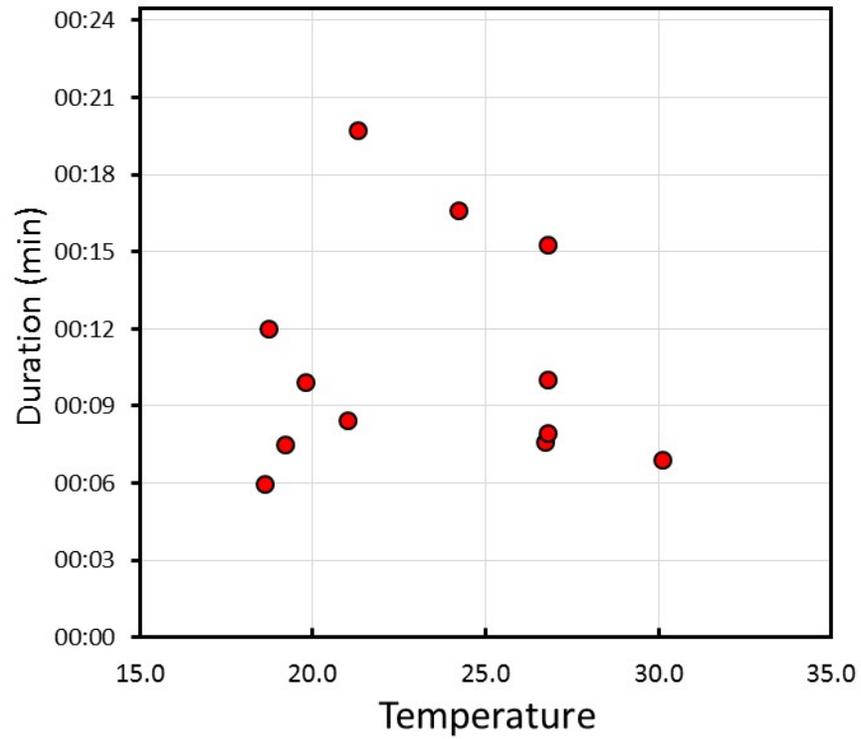
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374 Figure 5. The relationship between time of day and duration of reproductive behaviours of *H.*
375 *mirabilis*. Courtship refers to the time between female capture and tandem formation. Tandem
376 indicates the time the pair remained in tandem before copulation. Finally, copulation refers to the
377 time between the start and the end of the copulatory wheel.

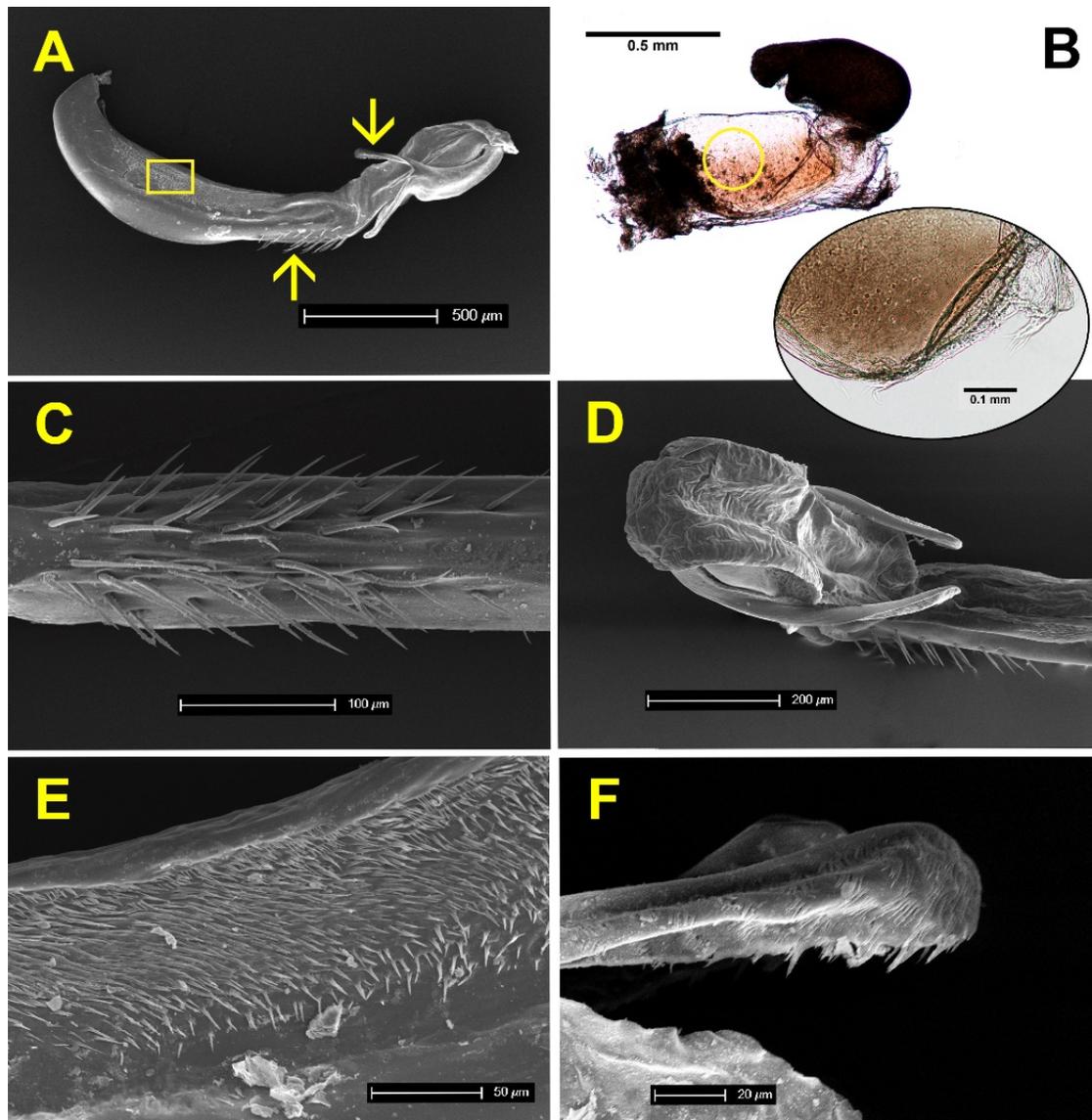
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380 Figure 6. The relationship between air temperature and copulation duration in *H. mirabilis*.

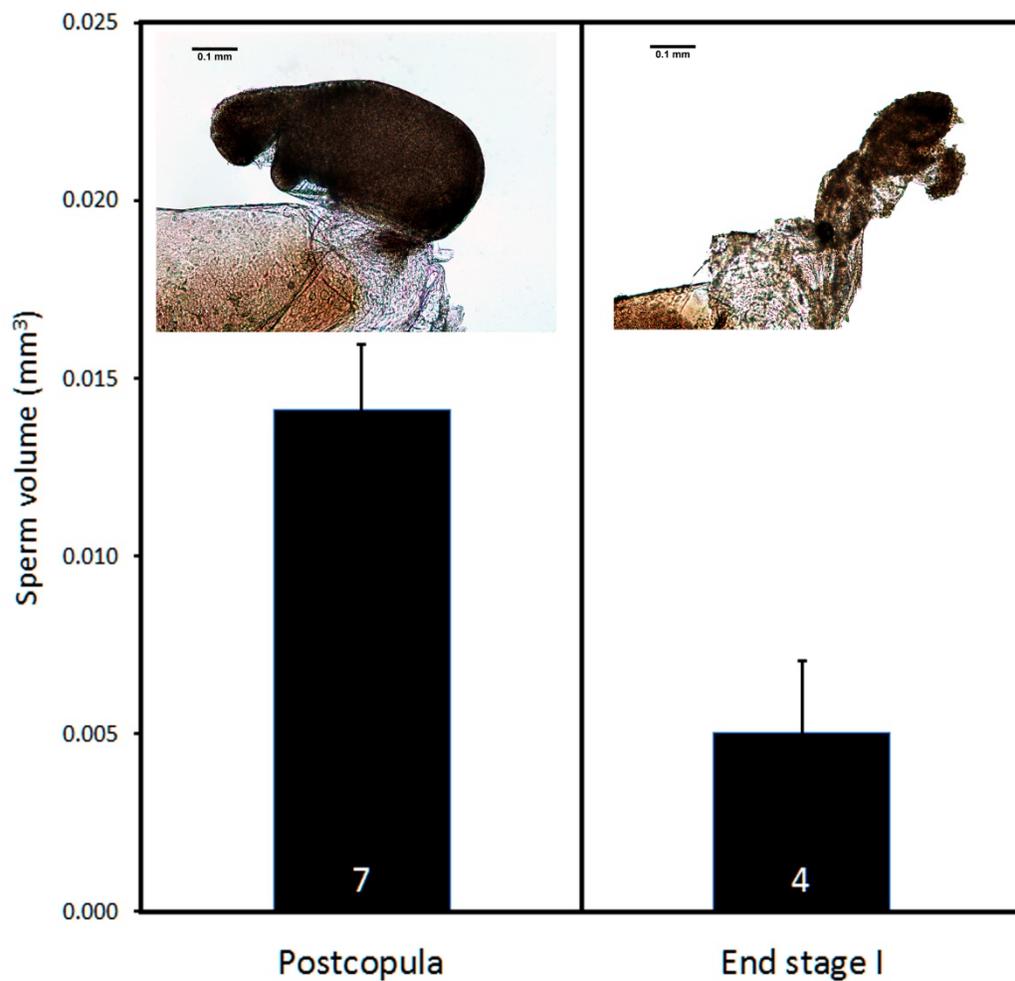
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383 Figure 7. Male and female genitalia of *H. mirabilis*. (A) Lateral view of aedeagus and (B) female
 384 vagina and bursa copulatrix, both at the same scale, and orientated with the dorsal part above.
 385 The insert in (B) shows a detail of the genital valves of the female, with mechanical sensilla,
 386 situated in the area indicated by the circle. Further details of male aedeagus are shown. (C)
 387 Ventral view of the spines, in the region indicated by the upwards arrow in (A). (D) Dorso-lateral
 388 view of the head of the aedeagus. (E) Detail of the spines of the aedeagus in the region indicated
 389 by the rectangle in (A). (F) Lateral view of the aedeagus horns, with backward-directed spines,

390 whose position is indicated by the downward arrow in (A). The image in (B) has been edited to
391 remove dust.



392

393 Figure 8. The volume of sperm (mean+SE) in females after a complete copulation and
394 interrupted at the end of stage I, before insemination. Numbers are sample size. The pictures
395 show examples of the bursa copulatrix full of sperm after copulation (left) and partially emptied
396 at the end of stage I (right). Scale bar in the images 0.1 mm. Images edited to remove dust.