

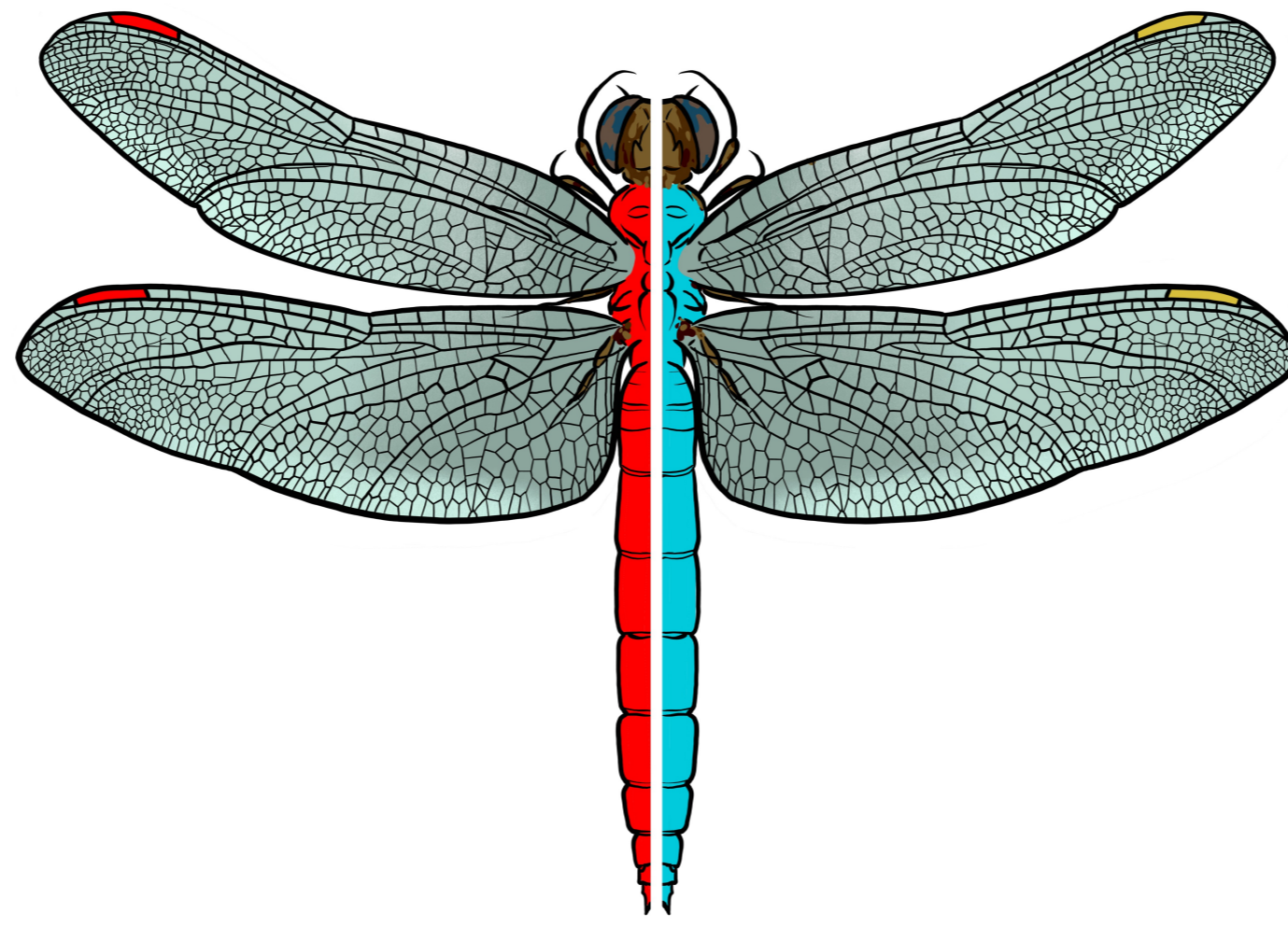
Contrasting copulatory behaviours exhibited by *O. coerulescens* and *S. striolatum* and how the headbutt prompt and oviposition in tandem impact female oviposition

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Introduction

Odonata are an ancient clade of *Insecta* with a wide range of behavioural traits which have evolved for the purpose of reproduction.[1] The final stage in the lifecycle of Odonata is limited which puts huge pressures on the individual to pass their genes on to the next generation.[2] Adaptations vary between species, such as post-copulatory resting (PCR) and the headbutt prompt (HBP) exhibited by *O. coerulescens*,[3] and oviposition in tandem, exhibited by *S. striolatum*. [4] Typically, insect copulation is performed with the male and female oriented in the opposite directions.[5] However, Odonates remain attached at two points creating the copulatory wheel.[6] Post copulation, Odonata must disperse their eggs through oviposition.[2] This important stages of their reproduction contributes to the inclusive fitness of the species.[7] It is in the male's best interest to encourage oviposition because rival sperm can displace his own within a 24-hour period.[2] This study aimed to determine how these contrasting copulatory behaviours impact oviposition.



Results

S. striolatum released more eggs than *O. coerulescens* due to the increased number of successful dipping actions. There was clear contrast in the amount of time males investment in the oviposition phase. Furthermore, we found the **headbutt prompt** was commonly used by *O. coerulescens*. 70% of the males used this behaviour to end PCR and coax oviposition. Significant correlation was observed in the amount of oviposition dips exhibited in relation to increased headbutt prompts.

The time *S. striolatum* spent in the two mating phases

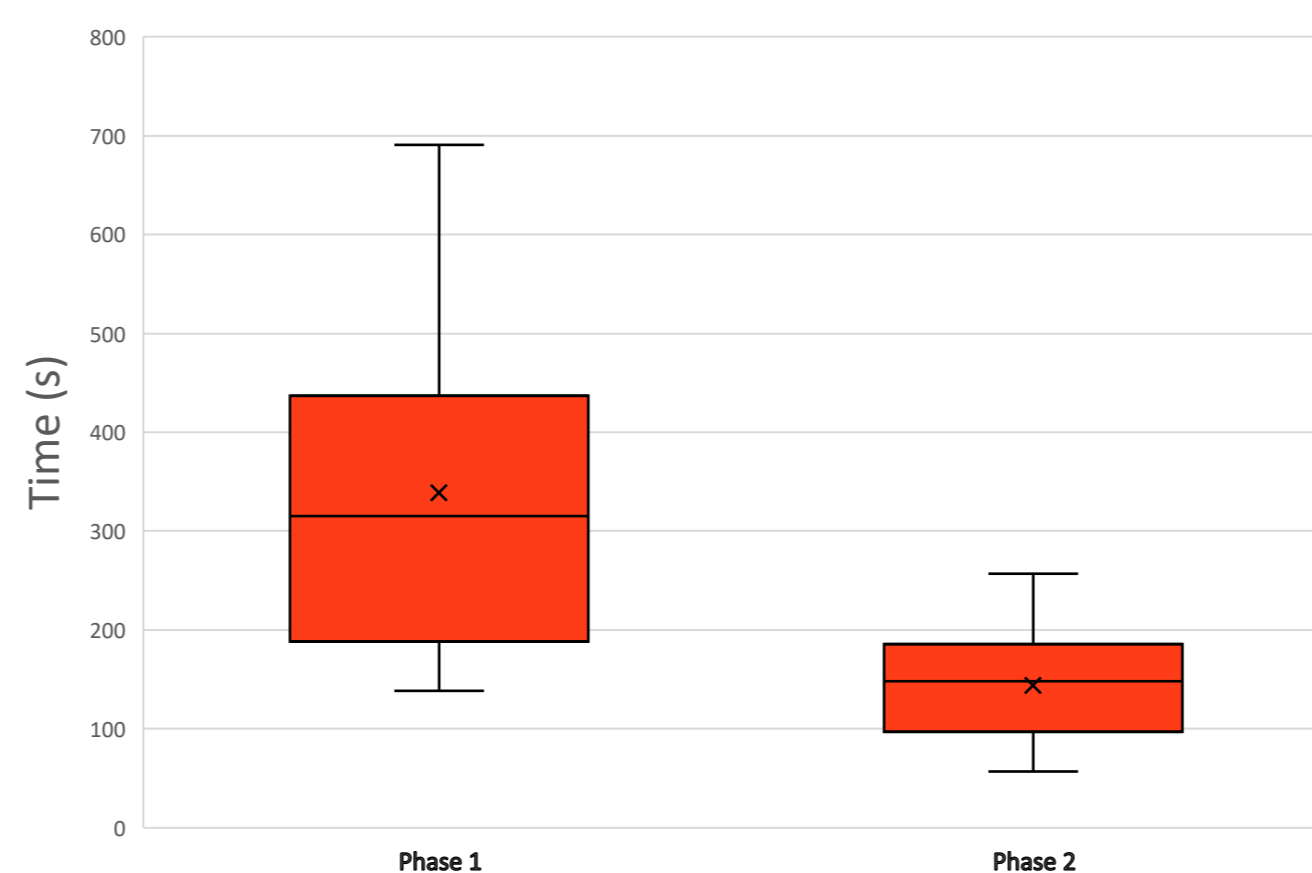


Figure 1. Box and whisker plot representing *S. striolatum* two mating phases. Phase 1 - n = 8, $p < .001$ Phase 2 - n = 14, $p < .01$.

The time *O. coerulescens* spent in the three mating phase

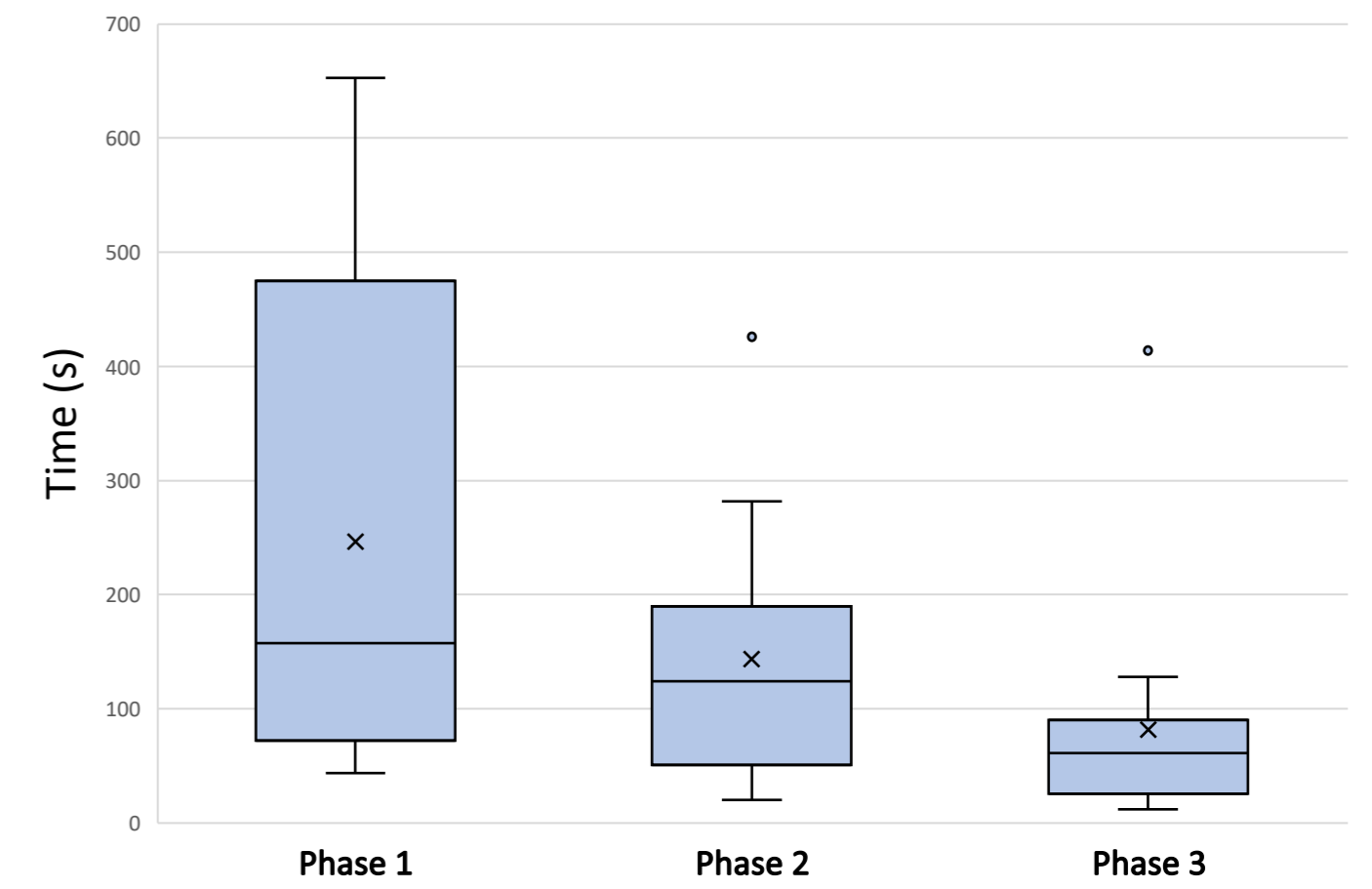


Figure 2. Box and whisker plot representing *O. coerulescens* three mating phases. Phase 1 - n = 18, $p < .001$. Phase 2 - n = 20, $p < .014$. Phase 3 - n = 16, $p < .001$.

Comparison between the number of oviposition actions exhibited between *O. coerulescens* and *S. striolatum*

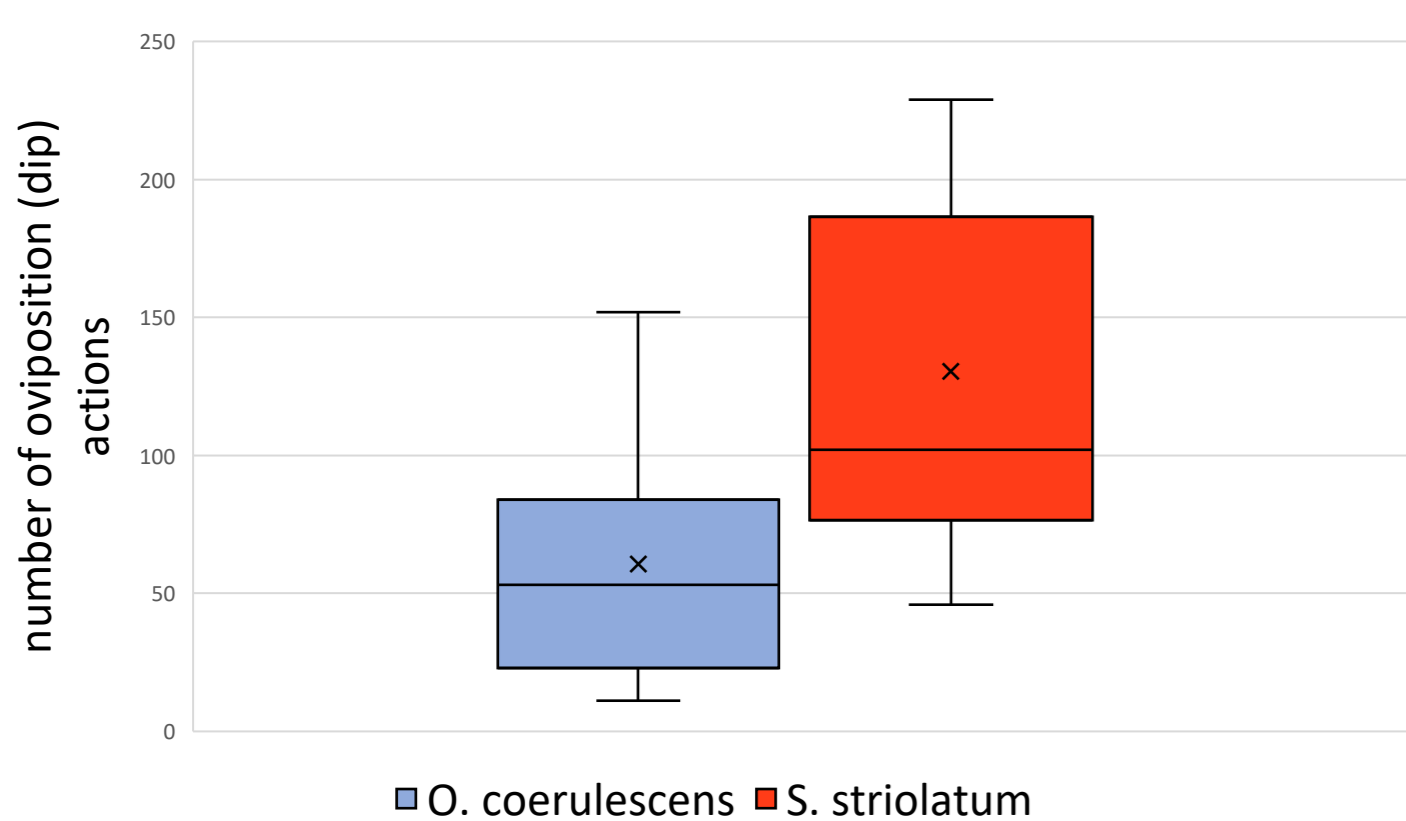


Figure 3. Box and whisker plot representing the number oviposition actions exhibited by *O. coerulescens* and *S. striolatum*. *O. coerulescens* n = 11, *S. striolatum* n = 13. No mathematical significance between species $p > .42$.

The influence of time spent in phase 2 on the number oviposition dips

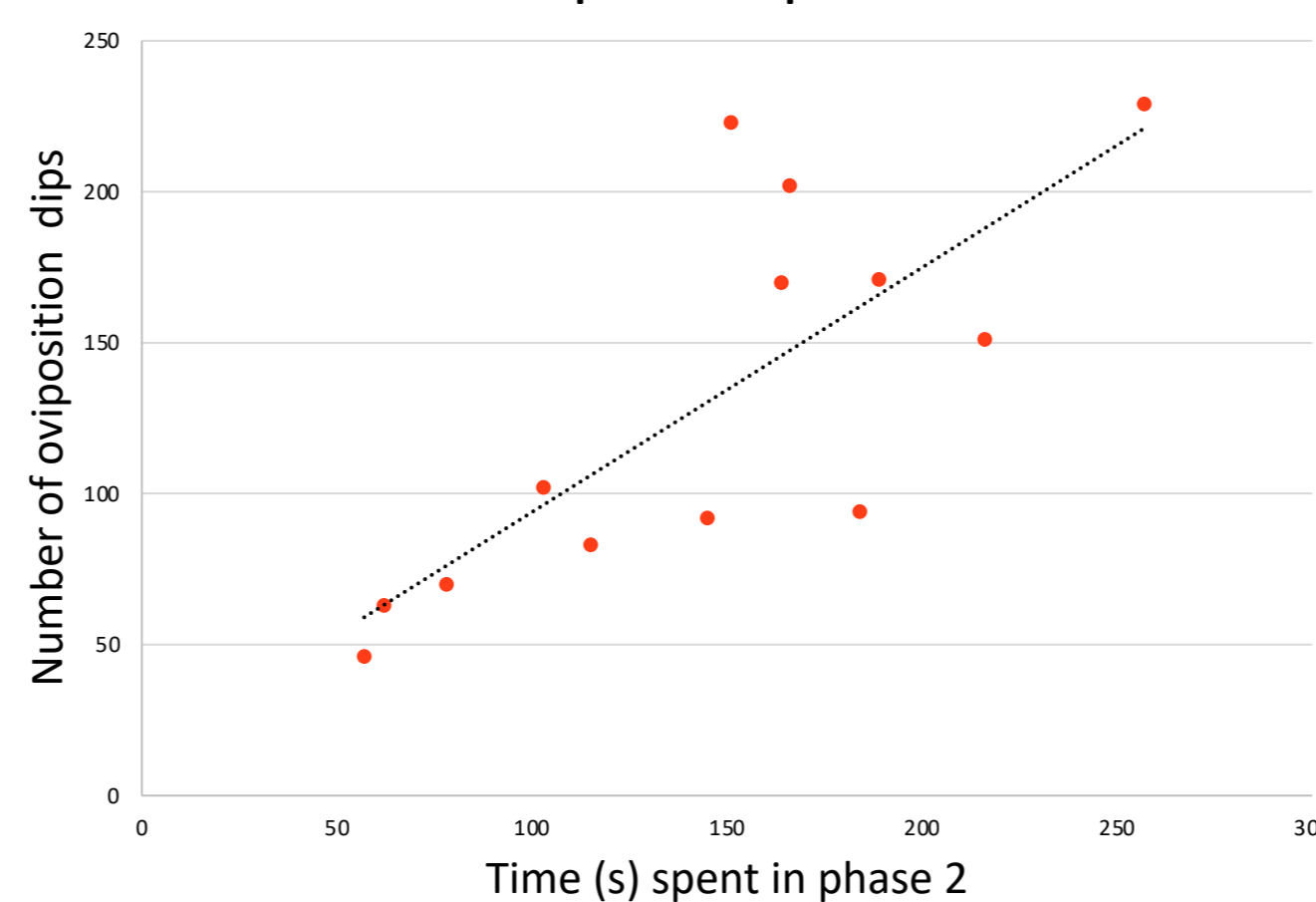


Figure 4: Scatter plot representing statistically significant correlation between increased time in phase 2 on the number of increased oviposition actions. N = 13, $p < .01$.

The influence of the number of headbutt prompts has on *O. coerulescens* total number of oviposition dips.

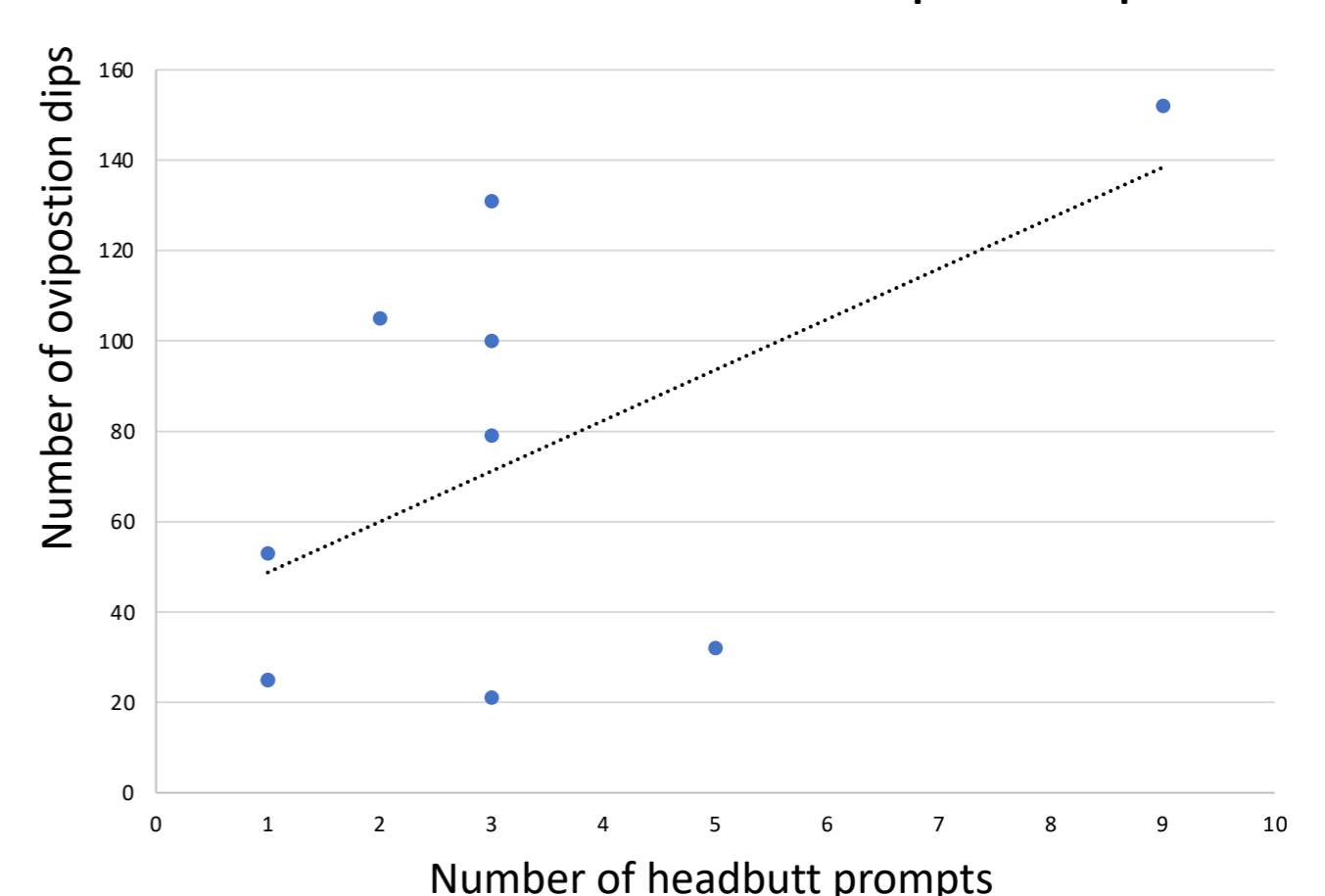


Figure 5: Scatterplot represents mathematically significant correlation between the number of headbutt prompts on the amount of oviposition dips exhibited n = 9, $p < .02$.

Discussion

The headbutt prompt, exhibited by *O. coerulescens*, was previously documented by Miller, (1989) to end PCR. However, under our observation males exhibited the HBP used to end PCR, control females during oviposition, prompt female dipping and select oviposition area. Males which exhibit the HBP and invest more time in one female may be more reproductively successful than those seeking multiple mates. However, there appears to be a trade-off between interpersonal interactions with females and time spent deterring any outside influence such as rival males.[8] *S. striolatum* which control female dipping were observed performing an increased number of dips while in tandem when compared to females exhibiting non-contact dipping.[9] This behaviour is energetically costly for males. However, this behaviour appears to reduce the risk of losing females to rival males and ensures reproductive success.[9]

Reference list

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 [3] Miller & Miller (1989) *Odonatological* 18(1): 33-41. [4] Moore (1951) *Behaviour*, 4(1): 101-103.
 [5] Wickman & Rutowski (1999) *Oikos* 84(3): 463. [6] Tillyard (1917) *The biology of dragonflies* 11: 212-229.
 [7] Rivas-Torres (2019) *Behavioural Ecology and Sociobiology* 73(5). [8] Moore (1964) *The Journal of Animal Ecology*, 33(1): 49.
 [9] Convey (1989) *Animal Behaviour* 37: 56-63. [10] Image: Odonata. Credit: Eryk Jakubiak.



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