Oviposition habitat selection by the mosquito *Culiseta longiareolata* in response to risk of predation and conspecific larval density

MOSHE KIFLAWI¹, LEON BLAUSTEIN¹ and MARC MANGEL² ¹Institute of Evolution, Faculty of Sciences, University of Haifa, Israel and ²Department of Applied Mathematics and Statistics, Jack Baskin School of Engineering, University of California, Santa Cruz, U.S.A.

- **Abstract.** 1. Most female *Culiseta longiareolata* (Diptera: Culicidae) avoid ovipositing in pools that contain the predatory backswimmer *Notonecta maculata*. Such oviposition habitat selection has been suggested to reflect a trade-off between the risk of predation on larvae and potential density-dependent fitness costs. This putative trade-off was examined. In particular, evidence was sought in support of direct female response to local heterogeneity in habitat quality.
- 2. Three habitat types were established using artificial outdoor pools: predator pools, and non-predator pools with either low or high densities of *Culiseta* larvae. During each experimental night, females were offered one of the three possible pair-wise treatment combinations.
- 3. The majority (\approx 88%) of females oviposited in low-density pools rather than in the predator- or high-density pools. Furthermore, a substantially higher proportion of females oviposited in predator pools when faced with the high-density alternative, however this was due largely to fewer females ovipositing in high- vs low-density pools.
- 4. Females of a second mosquito species (*Culex laticinctus*), the larvae of which are at a lower risk of predation, were predicted to exhibit weaker aversion to *N. maculata*; this prediction was supported only weakly.
- 5. Oviposition habitat selection by female *C.longiareolata* does not appear to involve a behavioural response that is based on individual assessment of local heterogeneity in *relative* pool quality, at least not at the spatial scale examined here; alternative explanations are discussed.

Key words. *Culex*, *Notonecta*, oviposition habitat selection, temporary pools, trade-off.

Introduction

Parental capacity to enhance offspring survivorship and fecundity contributes, by definition, to parental fitness. In organisms with no parental care or juvenile dispersal, offspring survival and growth may depend strongly on the quality of the habitat in which they are deposited. Thus,

Correspondence: Leon Blaustein, Institute of Evolution, Faculty of Sciences, University of Haifa, Haifa 31905, Israel. E-mail: leon@research.haifa.ac.il

when potential habitats vary in their suitability for juveniles, females are expected to choose habitats that maximise their fitness. In mosquitoes, such oviposition habitat selection has been demonstrated in response to physical and chemical suitability for larval development (e.g. Trimble, 1979), habitat size and resource availability (e.g. Blaustein & Kotler, 1993; Heard, 1994), the presence and density of conspecific competitors (e.g. Edgerly *et al.*, 1998), and the presence of predators (e.g. Chesson, 1984; Blaustein *et al.*, 1995).

On the other hand, density dependence of fitness components such as survival and growth (e.g. Renshaw *et al.*, 1994; Lord, 1998; Mercer, 1999) implies that as more females

choose the same subset of available habitats, the value of preferred habitats will decline. Such density-dependent habitat quality is expected to lead to habitat utilisation that approaches the ideal free (sensu Fretwell & Lucas, 1970), guaranteeing fitness returns that are independent of oviposition site. Thus, at equilibrium, the ratio of females ovipositing in habitats with and without predators, for example, is expected to balance the risk of predation on offspring and density-dependent offspring growth and survival rates (Spencer et al., 2002).

Females of the mosquito species Culiseta longiareolata avoid ovipositing in pools that contain the backswimmer Notonecta maculata, which preys on its larvae. Faced with a choice between an equal number of predator and predatorfree pools, $\approx 90\%$ of females oviposit in the pools that lack the predator (e.g. Blaustein et al., 1995; Blaustein, 1998). This incomplete avoidance of predator pools has been hypothesised to reflect the trade-off between the risk of predation and the detrimental effects of larval density (Spencer et al., 2002). The work reported here tested this hypothesis. In particular, evidence was sought in support of direct female response to local heterogeneity in habitat quality.

Artificial pools were used to look for a shift towards increased use of predator pools as Culiseta larval densities in the alternative, predator-free pools, were changed from practically nil to high. In addition, a comparison was made with a second mosquito species, Culex laticinctus, the larvae of which are less prone to predation by N. maculata (Blaustein, 1998). Reduced larval susceptibility, presumably due to lower movement rates (L. Blaustein, unpublished), was expected to result in a higher proportional use of predator pools by Culex females faced with a benign alternative. The potential for density-dependent fitness costs was assessed by comparing the size at metamorphosis of Culiseta reared under conditions of low and high larval densities.

Methods

Experimental set-up and procedure

A rectangular array of 18 plastic tubs $(0.6 \times 0.4 \times 0.15 \,\mathrm{m})$ was set up in the Mt Carmel Nature Reserve, Israel, on 14 May 2000. Each tub was separated by \approx 30 cm from its two flanking neighbours. The water level in these artificial pools was established and maintained using aged (24 h) tap water. An initial inoculate of ≈81 of re-suspended sediment and algae, obtained from artificial pools that had been standing for ≈1 month, was introduced into each of the 18 tubs. A large shading net (mesh density: 90%), placed ≈2 m above the entire array, kept water temperatures within the pools from rising above 26 °C.

Proceeding around the array, pools were assigned sequentially to one of three treatments: (1) no predator, low Culiseta larval density (LO), (2) no predator, high Culiseta larval density (HI), (3) predator-present (NT) (see

details below). Prior to sundown on nights during which oviposition was monitored, the six pools belonging to one of the three treatments were covered, leaving females to choose between the two alternatives. On the following mornings, the egg rafts found in the exposed pools were recorded and removed, and all 18 pools were left uncovered. Egg rafts were brought back to the laboratory, and the emerging larvae were reared for species identification. Starting on 16 May, and over a period of 1 month, the low-density/predator, low-density/high-density, and highdensity/predator combinations were examined on 6, 7, and 8 nights respectively. When interpreting the observed oviposition patterns, it was assumed that females of both mosquito species oviposit a single egg raft (van Pletzen & van der Linde, 1981; Clements, 1999).

High-density pools were stocked using larvae hatched from egg rafts oviposited in the field and reared in the laboratory. Initial densities of instar I-IV Culiseta larvae averaged 891^{-1} (SD = 35) (such high densities are often observed in nature; L. Blaustein, pers. obs.). Densities were sampled periodically and, in an attempt to account for natural mortality, stage I and II larvae were added regularly; however initial mortality rates greatly exceeded the rate at which the larvae were replenished, resulting in average densities of 31 ± 12 , 34 ± 10 , and 25 ± 81^{-1} , 1, 2, and 3 weeks later respectively. Larval densities in the lowdensity pools were continuously well below 11⁻¹. Density estimates were based on sampling with a 5×7 cm net (mesh size: 250 µm), having established, in controlled trials, that a single figure-of-eight sweep captures an average of 43% $(\pm 5\%)$ of the available larvae. The number of predators in predator pools, third- to fifth-instar N. maculata, was kept constant at three. Predator pools contained virtually no mosquito larvae, leaving N. maculata instars to feed on other aquatic invertebrates, as well as terrestrial invertebrates that found their way into the pools.

To assess density-dependent effects on larval performance, Culiseta pupae were collected from the low- and high-density pools, towards the end of the experimental period, transferred to emergence chambers, and left to metamorphose. The emerged adults were asphyxiated using chloroform, transferred to glass vials, and left to dry. The lengths of one wing of up to 10 males and 10 females, per pool, were measured to the nearest 0.1 mm using the WScanArray image analyser (Galai Production Ltd, Migdal Haemek Israel). Low pupation rates in highdensity pools, and low larval densities in low-density pools, resulted in some pools having less than 10 wing measurements per sex, or even none at all (average number of Culiseta per pool, per sex: 6.1 ± 2.8). A lack of sufficient subjects prevented a statistically rigorous analysis of Culex.

Oviposition analysis

Normalised likelihood functions (SL) were calculated for the proportion (P) of egg rafts oviposited in one treatment of each of the paired alternatives. Corresponding to Bayesian posteriors with uniform priors (Hilborn & Mangel, 1997), these functions are given by:

$$SL(P_i|K,N) = P_i^K (1 - P_i)^{(N-K)} / \Sigma P_i^K (1 - P_i)^{(N-K)}$$

$$0 \le P_i \le 1$$
 (1)

where N is total number of egg rafts oviposited during all of the days on which a particular treatment pair was offered, and K is the corresponding number of egg rafts oviposited in the pools belonging to one of the two treatments (note that in the denominator, the integral is approximated by summation in steps of dP = 0.01). These functions were used to determine confidence intervals that delimit the range of proportions that express the extent of female preference for the focal treatment. The maximum likelihood estimates of P ($P_{\rm MLE}$) equal the observed proportions.

Indication as to how likely the two species are to differ in habitat selection, when faced with any particular treatment pair, was obtained by evaluating the likelihood ratio:

$$R = L(P_{\text{MLE,cs}}|K_{\text{cs}}, N_{\text{cs}}) L(P_{\text{MLE,cx}}|K_{\text{cx}}, N_{\text{cx}}) / L(P_{\text{MLE,cs}+cx}|K_{\text{cs}+cx}, N_{\text{cs}+cx})$$
(2)

where L is the likelihood of $P_{\rm MLE}$. The subscripts cs, cx, and cs+cx denote *Culiseta*, *Culex*, and the pooled data respectively. In other words, the likelihood that the two species differ in their preference was compared against the likelihood that they share the same preference. A similar analysis was used for within-species comparison of female tendency to oviposit in low-density pools, when paired with either predator or high-density pools. In all cases, higher values of R ($R \ge 1$) imply stronger evidence in favour of a difference.

Diagnostic analysis

The above analyses assume that, throughout the experimental period, oviposition events are independent of each other. Two factors could violate this assumption. (1) Among experimental nights: some of the low-density pools are either more attractive (e.g. given possible heterogeneity in resource availability) and/or are more likely to be encountered (e.g. due to their position within the array). (2) Within experimental nights: as in other mosquito species (Clements, 1999), females may be attracted to freshly oviposited conspecific egg rafts. The assumption of independence was assessed by: (1) looking at the among-pool concordance in the daily number of egg rafts received, and (2) comparing the frequency distribution of the daily number of egg rafts oviposited, per pool, against the null expectation of a Poisson distribution; a tendency to aggregate egg rafts was expected to be manifested even when pooling data across experimental nights.

Results

The effect of larval density

High larval densities caused a significant decrease in the average (per pool) wing length of both males and females, with females suffering a larger decrease [split-plot ANOVA with sex and larval density (high and low) as the within- and between-pool factors respectively; density, $F_{1,8} = 142.3$, P < 0.001; density—sex interaction, $F_{1,8} = 15.9$, P < 0.01] (Fig. 1). In relative terms, the average wing length of males and females decreased by ≈ 24 and 28% respectively.

Oviposition analysis

Both *Culiseta* and *Culex* oviposited preferentially in low-density pools, discriminating against both predator and high-density pools (Fig. 2), with only weak evidence in support of *Culiseta* exhibiting stronger preference in either case (predator: R = 1.5; high density: R = 2.0). For neither species did the proportion of females ovipositing in low-density pools seem to depend on whether the alternative comprised predator or high-density pools (*Culiseta*: R = 1.05; *Culex*: R = 1.12).

The proportion of females ovipositing in predator pools was markedly higher when these were paired with high-density, rather than low-density, pools, with *Culiseta* showing the more pronounced difference (*Culiseta*: $R = 2 \times 10^3$; *Culex*: R = 6.2; Fig. 2), however this change did not result from the redistribution of a *fixed* number of egg rafts among paired treatments. Rather, the average daily number of egg rafts oviposited in predator pools was independent of the alternative treatment (two-way ANOVA of square-root transformed numbers, density effect: $F_{1,24} = 0.02$, NS; species-density interaction: $F_{1,24} = 0.01$, NS), whereas significantly fewer egg rafts were oviposited in high-density pools

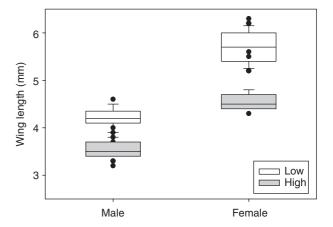


Fig. 1. Box plots (median, 10th, 25th, 75th, and 90th percentiles) depicting per-pool average wing lengths of male and female *Culiseta longiareolata* that, as larvae, developed under conditions of high and low conspecific densities.

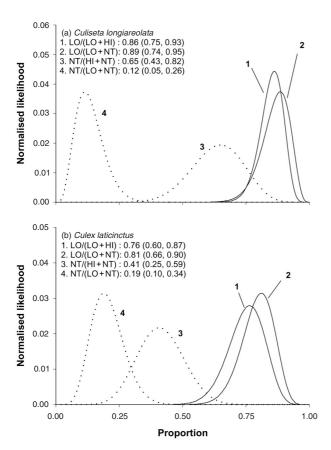


Fig. 2. Normalised likelihood functions of the proportion of Culiseta longiareolata and Culex laticinctus females that oviposit in pools belonging to one of two treatments. Solid curves compare oviposition in low Culiseta larval density pools (LO), when paired with either predator pools (NT) or high Culiseta larval density pools (HI). Dotted curves depict the shift in the proportion of females that oviposit in predator (NT) pools, as Culiseta densities in the alternative set of pools are changed from low to high. The maximum likelihood estimate (P_{MLE}) is provided for each treatment pair, together with the lower and upper confidence intervals (in parentheses).

than in low-density pools, lowering the total (density effect: $F_{1.24} = 10.24$, P < 0.01; species-density $F_{1,24} = 0.83$, NS) (Fig. 3). Note that even if a true difference in the mean number of egg rafts oviposited in predator pools went undetected due to low power ($\beta = 75\%$; Fig. 3a), it could not account for the difference observed between the low-density and high-density pools (Fig. 3b).

Diagnostic analysis

Because low-density pools received the vast majority of all egg rafts, the analysis was limited to these six pools. During the 13 nights in which low-density pools were offered, each pool received between 5 and 27% of the 81 egg rafts oviposited by Culiseta; however, there was no statistical indication for consistent differential use of pools

across nights (Kendall's coefficient of concordance, W = 0.25, P = 0.116). Forty-eight per cent of the 56 Culex egg rafts oviposited during the same period were found in a single pool. The remaining pools received between 6 and 25% of the egg rafts, with no statistical indication for consistent differentiation among pools other than the one idiosyncratic pool (W = 0.18, NS).

The frequency distribution of the number of Culiseta egg rafts per pool did not differ significantly from the Poisson [Chi square goodness of fit: $\chi^2 = 7.5$, d.f. = 5, P > 0.15; with 9% probability of type II error at the $\alpha = 0.20$ level (power analysis followed Cohen, 1988)]. The distribution for Culex did differ significantly from the Poisson, regardless of whether or not the idiosyncratic pool was included in the analysis ($\chi^2 = 18.4$, d.f. = 5, P < 0.01 and $\chi^2 = 70.1$, d.f. = 4, P < 0.001 respectively). In both cases, however, the main contribution to the deviation was a preponderance of single egg rafts and the absence of double egg rafts. Thus, it would seem that such a tendency to aggregate egg rafts, to the extent that it exists in Culiseta and Culex, is of little consequence to inferences regarding oviposition habitat selection.

Discussion

Both Culiseta and Culex females oviposited preferentially in low-density, predator-free pools, avoiding pools that contained either predators or high larval densities (Fig. 2). This result is not unexpected. Mosquito larvae experience high mortality rates in the presence of notonectids (Chesson, 1984; Blaustein, 1998; Eitam et al., 2002), whereas high densities decrease larval survivorship, development rate, and size at metamorphosis (e.g. Bradshaw & Holzapfel, 1992; Renshaw et al., 1994; Lord, 1998; Mercer, 1999; this study: Fig. 1). Adult body size, in turn, often correlates positively with longevity and female fecundity (e.g. Bradshaw & Holzapfel, 1992; Lyimo & Takken, 1993; Ameneshewa & Service, 1996). The main goal in this study, however, was to examine whether females trade off between the two potential risk factors based on their assessment of local oviposition-habitat availability.

A shift in proportional use of predators pools, which is due to a difference in larval densities in the non-predator alternative (Fig. 2), would have implied that females adjust their choice to suit relative habitat quality only if the total number of oviposition events remained constant. This was not the case here (Fig. 3). Rather, considerably fewer egg rafts were oviposited, on average, when females had to choose between predator and high-density pools, than when choosing between predator and low-density pools. This pattern does not negate the proposition that oviposition habitat selection reflects the trade-off between the risk of predation and density-dependent effects. It is possible, for example, that at least some of the females that visited the experimental site considered it as only part of their available options. Conversely, females may not compare their options, per se, but rather utilise the different habitat

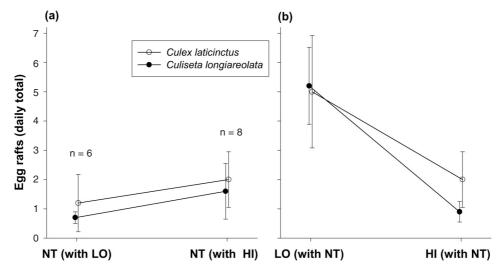


Fig. 3. (a) The daily average (± 1 SE) number of egg rafts collected from the six *Notonecta maculata* pools (NT), for the *n* nights on which they were offered alongside six other pools containing either high (HI) or low (LO) densities of larval Culiseta longiareolata. (b) The corresponding daily average number of egg rafts collected from either the high-density or the low-density pools.

types with specific probabilities that, potentially, balance the risk of predation and the effect of high larval densities (Spencer et al., 2002).

Consider the second scenario, assuming that females arrive at the array at a rate that is independent of the treatment combination on offer. Assume further that individual females limit the number of pools they visit before foregoing oviposition and leaving the array. Given, for example, a 0.1 probability of ovipositing in predator and high-density pools (compared with 1.0 in low-density pools), and an average of two oviposition attempts per female, it can be shown that: (1) the expected oviposition rates given low-density/high-density and low-density/predator combinations should be four times higher than with the high-density/predator combination, (2) the expected daily average number of egg rafts oviposited in predator pools should be twice as high with the high-density/predator combination than with the low-density/predator combination, and (3) the proportion of egg rafts oviposited in lowdensity pools, paired with either predator or high-density pools, should be ≈ 0.91 . All three predictions are at least qualitatively consistent with the data (Figs 2 and 3).

The avoidance of predator pools by Culex, when faced with the low larval-density alternative, was weaker than that of Culiseta (81 vs 89% respectively). While the latter is expected to show the greater avoidance, based on differential larval susceptibility to predation, the two species are only 1.5 times more likely to differ than to coincide in the extent of their aversion to *N. maculata*. Concomitantly, female Culex exhibited lower aversion to the high, vs low, larval density treatment (76 vs 86% respectively), possibly due to differential dietary requirements (van Pletzen, 1981; Clements, 1992). Thus, the difference between the two species in their proportional use of predator pools, when paired

with the high-density alternative (Fig. 2), may reflect a difference in their response to each risk factor separately, rather than a difference in their perception of relative pool quality.

In summary, while oviposition habitat selection in C. longiareolata may reflect an adaptive balance between two risk factors, predation and density-dependent larval growth/survival, individual females are not adjusting their decisions to suit local heterogeneity in habitat quality. Rather, individuals appear to respond, in a probabilistic manner, to the absolute value of potential oviposition sites, not to their relative value. Oviposition habitat selection can have significant demographic consequences (Spencer et al., 2002), which may carry over to the community level (Blaustein, 1999). Understanding the mechanism of oviposition habitat selection would not only enhance understanding of the structure of ephemeral communities, such as those found in temporary pools, but may also inform pest-control policies.

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