

Polyandry by wood mice in natural populations

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Keywords

polyandry; wood mouse; *Apodemus*; sperm competition; reproductive success; microsatellite genetic diversity; population cycle; multiple paternity.

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Abstract

Multiple paternity was investigated for the first time in natural populations of the wood mouse *Apodemus sylvaticus*. Thirteen females and their respective litters sampled within distinct habitats, seasons and years were screened for eight microsatellite loci. Allelic variation was compared with a dataset comprising 307 adult mice collected from the same source populations as pregnant females. Multiple paternity was unambiguously identified in seven litters (53.8%). In each case, a minimum of two or three male parents were involved. Populations of *A. sylvaticus* inhabiting the northern latitudes of the species range are characterized by annual cycles of abundance during which numbers can fluctuate by several orders of magnitude. Hence, the discovery of multiple paternity within litters sampled between May and July (high and low densities, respectively) in all years suggests that polyandry maximizes genetic diversity of the litter and, hence, survival of some of the offspring through such cycles. The results indicate that polyandry is a common mode of reproduction within wild populations of *A. sylvaticus*.

Introduction

Once considered rare, polyandry (female mating with multiple males) has now been reported in many species including birds (Primmer, Møller & Ellegren, 1995; Whittingham, Dunn & Magrath, 1997), reptiles (Fitzsimmons, 1998), invertebrates (Gosselin, Sainte-Marie & Bernatchez, 2005) and mammals (Baker, Makova & Chesser, 1999; Bartmann & Gerlach, 2001). The importance of this mating strategy has been recognized through the impact that it may have on effective population size, genetic diversity and levels of inbreeding (Sugg & Chesser, 1994). Relative to single paternity, litters composed of half-siblings resulting from multiple paternity may exhibit increased genetic diversity (Williams, 1975). Multiple paternity may also prevent inbreeding (Stockley *et al.*, 1993) and lead to increased interaction among offspring (Ridley, 1993). It is clear, therefore, that in order to address fundamental questions regarding effective population size, genetic diversity and social structure, precise quantitative measurements of the mating strategies must be carried out.

The social and reproductive behaviour of the wood mouse *Apodemus sylvaticus* has received considerable attention (Garson, 1975; Randolph, 1977; Montgomery & Gurnell, 1985; Wolton & Flowerdew, 2006; Jonsson & Silverin, 1997; Baker *et al.*, 1999; Bartmann & Gerlach, 2001) and a number of hypotheses regarding this species mating strategies have been proposed. Both Garson (1975) and Randolph (1977) observed the formation of bisexual pair bonds shortly after the beginning of the breeding season, supporting a monogamous mating system, at least during the initial part

of the breeding season. However, among mammals, monogamy is considered rare (Ribble, 1991; Hohoff *et al.*, 2002). Two relatively recent studies based on molecular data have suggested the occurrence of polyandry and, subsequently, promiscuity in *A. sylvaticus* (Baker *et al.*, 1999; Bartmann & Gerlach, 2001). Baker *et al.* (1999) reported polyandry in the litters of three female *A. sylvaticus* out of six sampled from an area inadvertently exposed to radiation, an enclosure and a control area in the Chernobyl region of the Ukraine. A further study by Bartmann & Gerlach (2001) indicated multiple paternity occurring in 85% (29 out of 34) of litters produced by laboratory-bred females housed in an experimental outdoor cage under high density (experimental groups of 4:4 in a cage with a floor area of 4.25 m²). Both investigations, however, were based on populations that could be considered unnatural.

The aim of the present study was to further elucidate the mating system of the European wood mouse *A. sylvaticus* living under natural conditions in an effort to estimate both the occurrence and frequency with which multiple paternity occurs.

Materials and methods

Sample collection

Thirteen pregnant female *A. sylvaticus* were available for this investigation, collected across two main habitat types between the months of April and August from studies carried out between 1990 and 2002. Eleven were collected from forests with a further two from a hedgerow system located on agricultural farm land, situated in County Down,

Table 1 *Apodemus sylvaticus* mother–litter groups analysed in this study

Female ID number	Number of offspring	Minimal number of sires	Paternal contribution ratio	Habitat type	Collecting date
1	4	1	/	Forest	April 1990
2	4	2	2:2	Forest	May 1990
3	5	2	2:3	Forest	May 1990
4	6	2	3:3	Forest	May 1990
5	4	1	/	Forest	May 1990
6	5	2	2:3	Forest	June 1990
7	6	3	2:2:2	Forest	July 1990
8 ^a	5	2	4:1	Forest	June 2001
9	6	1	/	Forest	July 2001
10	4	2	2:2	Forest	July 2001
11	5	1	/	Hedgerow	July 2001
12	5	1	/	Hedgerow	August 2001
13	5	3	2:2:1	Forest	May 2002

^aNot included in multiple-paternity litters as supported only by a single additional paternal allele at one locus.

Northern Ireland. Individual habitat type of origin and associated collection dates are given in Table 1. Mice were caught using Longworth live traps, each containing dry straw bedding in the nest box and baited with barley. Pre-baiting is not considered necessary for the trapping of *A. sylvaticus* (Gurnell & Flowerdew, 2006). Each location within the chosen sampling sites/regions was trapped for three consecutive nights, with traps checked daily between 7:00 and 9:00 AM throughout the trapping period. Individuals collected in 1990 were returned to the laboratory and allowed to give birth before being euthanized, whereas females collected during 2001 and 2002 were immediately euthanized and the embryos were dissected out in the laboratory. The latter practice was used as a precautionary measure to prevent the possibility of embryo loss, which occurs in 2–5% of litters in *A. sylvaticus* (Pelikan, 1964). This practice also prevented the possibility of cannibalization of the young before tissue sampling could be performed, which could result in the underestimation of the frequency of multiple paternity. Biopsy tissue samples comprised either 1-cm tail clips removed from each female or tissue salvaged from whole embryos upon dissection. Tissues were placed in individually labelled vials containing 99% reagent-grade ethanol and were stored at 4 °C until DNA extraction. In order to obtain relevant population genetic data, tail clips were also taken from all males and non-gravid females within each study site. These individuals were released immediately after biopsy sampling at the exact location of capture. Microsatellite genotypic data were collected for 307 specimens representing the populations of origin of the 13 pregnant females surveyed in this study.

DNA extraction and microsatellite amplification

Total genomic DNA was extracted from tissues following the methodology of Taggart *et al.* (1992) with minor

modifications, and samples were subsequently standardized to a final concentration of 50 ng μ L. Females and their offspring were screened for eight polymorphic microsatellite loci: GACAB3A and GCATD7S (Makova *et al.*, 1998), As-7, As-11, As-12, As-34 (Harr, Musolf & Gerlach, 2000), WM2 (Barker, 2002) and WM4-6 (Booth, 2005). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) settings for these microsatellites generally followed those described by their respective authors with minor modifications. Radioactively end-labelled (α^{32} P-dATP) microsatellite primers were used for manual screening, whereas fluorescently labelled IRD microsatellite primers were used for automated genotyping using a LiCor (Lincoln, NB, USA) (dual laser) system. PCR reactions were carried out in 12 μ L volumes, each containing 1 \times Promega Taq buffer, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 100 mM dNTPs, 100 ng DNA template, 1 U Taq and ddH₂O to 12 μ L. Primer concentration and annealing temperature varied depending on the screening method and between-individual loci (Table 2). Amplified PCR products were loaded onto 6% (1 \times TBE) polyacrylamide gels containing 5.6 M Urea. Size standards (MicroStep-13b, 20a and 28a from MicrozoneTM (Haywards Heath, UK) were run every 15 samples to assist the sizing of allelic fragments. In all instances, maternal samples were run adjacent to their respective offspring, with at least one control sample (i.e. a sample of known genotype) run per gel to ensure accuracy and consistency of typing among different gels. The GeneProfiler (v3.46) software (Scanalytics Inc., Fairfax, VA, USA) was used to analyse genotypic data. Population samples were treated in a similar manner.

Statistical analyses

Summary population sample statistics (i.e. allelic diversity and heterozygosity) were estimated using the GENEPOP 3.1 software (Raymond & Rousset, 1995). Exclusion probabilities for the markers used in this study were calculated following the method described by Dodds *et al.* (1996), as implemented in the GERUD v1.0. The incidence of multiple paternity was assumed when, after subtracting maternal alleles, more than two paternal alleles were observed in at least two loci within a litter. As the number of loci (within a litter) meeting this criterion increases, so does the robustness of the multiple-paternity inference. This was initially carried out by visual inspection and subsequently with the assistance of the GERUD v1.0 software (Jones, 2001). Where multiple paternity was clearly detected, the program GERUD v1.0 was also used to estimate the minimum number and ratio of paternal contribution of males involved.

Results

Microsatellite variation

Summary population sample statistics are presented in Table 3. Overall, allelic diversity was found to be 15.33 alleles/locus. The average observed heterozygosity across

Table 2 Microsatellite primer details indicating the source, annealing temperature, number of cycles, primer concentration and MgCl₂ concentration

Locus	Source	Automated screening – LiCor				Manual screening – ³² P isotope			
		Annealing temperature (°C)	Number of cycles	Primer concentration (pM)	MgCl ₂ concentration (mM)	Annealing temperature (°C)	Number of cycles	Primer concentration (pM)	MgCl ₂ concentration (mM)
GCATD7S (F)	Makova <i>et al.</i> (1998)	55	27	2.5	2	60	28	5	1.5
GACAB3A (R)	Makova <i>et al.</i> (1998)	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	55	28	5	1.5
As-7 (F)	Harr <i>et al.</i> (2000)	55	27	0.8	1.5	48	28	5	1.5
As-11 (F)	Harr <i>et al.</i> (2000)	57	26	1.2	1.5	55	28	5	1.5
As-12 (F)	Harr <i>et al.</i> (2000)	56	26	1.2	1.5	48	28	5	1.5
As-34 (F)	Harr <i>et al.</i> (2000)	55	27	1.25	1.5	55	28	5	1.5
WM2 (F)	Barker (2002)	55	30	0.85	2	53	28	5	1.5
WM4-6 (F)	Booth (2005)	45	30	2.5	2	45	30	5	2

The end-labelled primer indicated in parentheses after locus name (N/A—the GACAB3A locus was screened manually only).

the panmictic sample was 72.7%. Population samples were found to be in Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (HWE). Population summary statistics were unavailable for two microsatellite loci (*As-11* and *GACAB3A*) across all sampled locations due to difficulties encountered during optimization for use with the Li-Cor™ dual laser automated DNA analyser. Although problematic for population analyses, these loci were scored unambiguously for mating system determination following the manual radioisotope-based methodology. Table 3 summarizes the usefulness of the marker loci used for parentage analysis, as expressed by the exclusion probability. Although individual locus exclusion probabilities ranged from 16.4% (*WM2*–Hedgerow) to 82.4% (*As-12*–Hedgerow), when combined across all loci, the exclusion probability per sample was higher than 99% when one of the parents is known.

The number of embryos per female varied from four to six (Table 1). Genotypic data at eight microsatellite loci were collected for 13 female *A. sylvaticus* and their combined 64 offspring with two exceptions. Females ID-4 and ID-13 failed to amplify at the loci *WM4-6* and *GACAB3A*, respectively. However, as more than two paternal alleles were detected at the additional loci screened for these females, these two loci were redundant. Genotypes of all young were consistent with the females being the mothers of their respective litters, that is, all embryos possessed a maternal allele at each locus.

Multiple-paternity analyses

According to the chosen criteria based on the number of paternal alleles per locus as an indicator of the paternal contribution to each litter, multiple paternity was unambiguously detected in seven (53.8%) of 13 litters examined (Table 1). In these instances, more than two paternal alleles were evident at more than one locus (Table 4). In five cases (i.e. 38.5%), litters were sired by a minimum of two males, while for the remaining two cases (15.4%), litters were found to have been sired by a minimum of three males, which were inferred through the detection of five paternal alleles at two loci. The litter of female ID-8 exhibited an additional paternal allele at a single locus (*As-12*), but as this does not fit the criteria for the multiple paternity as described earlier, this litter was not considered a multi-sired litter. Multiple paternity was evident in litters of females collected in forest habitats sampled across all years. No incidence of multiple paternity was detected in the litters of females sampled in the hedgerow habitat. However, with a sample size of two, little can be deduced from this. Multiple paternity was observed during the months of May, June and July. Both multiple paternity and monogamous litters were observed within the same sampling location and sampling year (Table 1). With one exception (female ID-8), the males involved in multiple paternity were equally successful in siring the litter. Thus, there was no apparent skew in the reproductive success of the males involved (Table 1).

Table 3 Summary statistics for *Apodemus sylvaticus* population samples for which pregnant females were obtained and screened for eight microsatellite loci

Sample/microsatellite locus	<i>GCATD7S</i>	<i>WM2</i>	<i>As-7</i>	<i>As-11</i>	<i>As-12</i>	<i>As-34</i>	<i>GACAB3A</i>	<i>WM4-6</i>	Average
Panmictic population									
<i>n</i>	303	305	307	N/A	278	305	N/A	303	300.2
NA	18	6	16	N/A	25	18	N/A	9	15.33
<i>H_o</i>	0.763	0.376	0.882	N/A	0.921	0.733	N/A	0.688	0.727
<i>H_e</i>	0.775	0.381	0.825	N/A	0.905	0.789	N/A	0.837	0.752
ExPr	0.553	0.194	0.652	N/A	0.782	0.626	N/A	0.661	0.998 ^a

^aTotal combined over loci/population sample).

n, number of individuals screened per sample; NA, number of alleles; *H_o*, observed heterozygosity; *H_e*, expected heterozygosity (Nei, 1987); ExPr, exclusion probability per locus (Dodds *et al.*, 1996).

N/A, population genetic data unavailable.

Table 4 Microsatellite genotypes in *Apodemus sylvaticus* for eight microsatellite loci screened for 13 families

Locus	F1 (<i>n</i> =4)	F2 (<i>n</i> =4)	F3 (<i>n</i> =5)	F4 (<i>n</i> =6)	F5 (<i>n</i> =4)	F6 (<i>n</i> =5)	F7 (<i>n</i> =6)	F8 (<i>n</i> =5)	F9 (<i>n</i> =6)	F10 (<i>n</i> =4)	F11 (<i>n</i> =5)	F12 (<i>n</i> =5)	F13 (<i>n</i> =5)
<i>As-7</i>	113123 <i>113123</i> 123123 113125 113125	113113 <i>113113</i> 113115 113119 113113	113113 <i>113113</i> 113113 107113 113113 107113	113129 <i>113121</i> 121129 <i>113129</i> 113113 113119 113113 119129 113113	113125 <i>113113</i> 113113 113113 113119 107113 113113 113113	107113 <i>107113</i> 113113 107113 107109 107113 109117 113127 109113	109127 <i>109113</i> 113127 119127 119127 119127 113127 113127 109113	121127 <i>113127</i> 119127 119127 119127 119127 113127 113121 111123	113123 <i>113123</i> 113123 113123 113123 113123 113123 113121 111123	111121 <i>113121</i> 111135 121123 121123 113113 113113 111123	113113 <i>113125</i> 113125 113125 113125 113117 113125 113125 111123	113121 <i>121129</i> 117121 121129 121129 117121 113129 113129 113129	113119 <i>115119</i> 119125 119121 119121 113113 119121 119121 119121
NPA	2	3	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	3	2	2	4
<i>As-11</i>	220246 <i>240246</i> 240246 220240 <i>220246</i>	250252 <i>240250</i> 246252 252256 <i>250252</i>	246250 <i>240250</i> 246248 246250 238246 246248	246256 <i>238246</i> 256256 238246 238256 238256 256256	240252 <i>240256</i> 240246 240246 252256 246246 252256	220246 <i>220240</i> 246246 220220 246246 240250 220240	220240 <i>232244</i> 240246 232220 240246 240250 220242	218248 <i>232248</i> 218252 232248 218232 218232 232248	242242 <i>242242</i> 242242 242248 242248 242248 242248	218244 <i>218244</i> 218248 218244 242244 242244 242244	248252 <i>246252</i> 246252 242248 246248 246248 242248	242252 <i>242252</i> 242252 252252 242242 242242 242252	234246 <i>234234</i> 244246 234250 234236 234250 234250
NPA	2	4	4	2	2	2	5	2	2	3	2	2	4
<i>As-12</i>	258258 <i>258270</i> 258258 258270 258258	248264 <i>228248</i> 248258 248254 254264	254260 <i>254254</i> 228260 244260 228260 244254	268274 <i>228274</i> 268274 228268 268274 NA 228268	244254 <i>244260</i> 244260 244260 228254 244260	260268 <i>244268</i> 244260 260268 244268 244260	258270 <i>258264</i> 264270 254258 258258 244260 258258 236270	232234 <i>232254</i> 232234 234268 234268 234254 232258 232258	232232 <i>232258</i> 232258 232258 232258 232258 232258 232258	228232 <i>232248</i> 228264 232248 232264 232264 232264 232258	232258 <i>258266</i> 232266 248258 232248 248258 248258 248258	232258 <i>232254</i> 258264 232254 232254 232254 232254 232254	234254 <i>254254</i> 234238 254254 234263 254254 254254 254254
NPA	2	3	3	2	2	2	4	3	1	2	2	2	4
<i>As-34</i>	130130 <i>130130</i> 130130 130130 130130	130136 <i>130154</i> 130154 130144 130130	144144 <i>NA</i> 130144 144144 144144 144144	130136 <i>130136</i> 136144 136144 136156 136156	130154 <i>130130</i> 130130 130130 130130 130130	130136 <i>130130</i> 136144 136144 130136 130136	136150 <i>136154</i> 144150 136154 144150 130136 130136	136136 <i>136154</i> 136136 136154 136154 136154 130136	130130 <i>130130</i> 130130 130130 130130 130130 130130	154154 <i>130154</i> 146162 146162 146154 146154 130154	154162 <i>158162</i> 146162 146162 146154 146154 154158	138150 <i>150150</i> 150150 150160 138150 138150 138150	130136 <i>136162</i> 136166 136164 136166 136166 130136
NPA	1	3	2	3	1	2	3	2	1	1	2	2	3
<i>GCATD7S</i>	241241 <i>241255</i> 241241 241255 241241	259259 <i>245259</i> 199259 259259 245259	201257 <i>245257</i> 201257 201257 201257 201201	195245 <i>195245</i> 195245 195257 245257 195257 245257	201259 <i>201245</i> 245259 201245 257259 195199 195199	195201 <i>197201</i> 195201 195201 195201 195199 195199	201259 <i>199259</i> 195201 199259 195201 259259 195259 201259	205205 <i>205245</i> 201205 201205 201205 201205 205245 205245 201203	203245 <i>201245</i> 201245 203203 201245 201205 201205 203203 201203	201245 <i>203245</i> 201247 201203 201203 201203 201203 201203 201203	245245 <i>245259</i> 245259 245245 245245 245245 245245 245245 245245	205245 <i>201205</i> 201245 201205 201205 201245 201245 201245 201245	201247 <i>203247</i> 201245 201259 201259 201259 201259 201203 201203

Table 4 Continued

NPA	2	3	2	2	2	4	3	2	2	3	2	1	4
GACAB3A	379383	381391	379387	383395	383391	383387	379387	281291	383391	377385	381385	391391	/
	<i>375383</i>	<i>383391</i>	<i>379387</i>	<i>387395</i>	<i>383391</i>	<i>361383</i>	<i>371379</i>	<i>381391</i>	<i>383391</i>	<i>377385</i>	<i>381381</i>	<i>385391</i>	/
	<i>379383</i>	381387	383387	383383	<i>383391</i>	<i>383387</i>	379379	381381	391397	385391	381381	371391	/
	375379	383391	<i>379387</i>	387395	391391	381383	387387	379381	<i>383391</i>	379385	385385	371391	/
	375379	375381	379379	383383	<i>383391</i>	<i>383387</i>	371387	379391	<i>383391</i>	<i>377385</i>	<i>385385</i>	371391	/
			<i>379379</i>	<i>383395</i>		<i>383387</i>	<i>379387</i>	<i>381391</i>	<i>383391</i>		385385	NA	/
				<i>383395</i>			383387		<i>383391</i>				/
NPA	2	3	2	2	2	3	4	2	2	3	2	2	/
WM2	192206	192192	192192	192192	192192	192202	192202	192192	192194	192192	192202	192192	192192
	<i>192192</i>	<i>192192</i>	<i>192192</i>	<i>192192</i>	<i>192192</i>	<i>192202</i>	<i>192202</i>	<i>192192</i>	<i>192194</i>	<i>192194</i>	<i>192192</i>	<i>192192</i>	<i>192192</i>
	206206	192192	192192	192192	192192	192192	192206	192194	<i>192194</i>	192192	<i>192202</i>	192192	192192
	192192	192192	192192	192200	192206	202202	<i>192202</i>	192192	192196	192194	194202	192192	192206
	NA	192192	192192	192200	192192	202202	<i>192202</i>	192192	<i>192194</i>	192192	192194	192192	192192
			192192	NA		192192	<i>192202</i>	192192	<i>192194</i>		<i>192202</i>	192192	192192
				192192			192206		192192				
NPA	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2
WM4-6	157173	161165	169173	NA	161161	157169	161169	161173	169169	165173	161169	173181	153165
	<i>157165</i>	<i>165173</i>	<i>169181</i>	<i>157169</i>	<i>161185</i>	<i>157165</i>	<i>161165</i>	<i>173181</i>	<i>161169</i>	<i>165173</i>	<i>161165</i>	<i>153181</i>	<i>153157</i>
	165173	161169	161169	<i>169173</i>	<i>161169</i>	<i>157169</i>	157169	173173	169169	157165	161173	169173	157165
	161173	161169	173185	<i>161173</i>	NA	<i>157185</i>	<i>161169</i>	173173	169169	<i>165173</i>	165169	169181	NA
	161173	157165	173185	<i>169173</i>	161169	<i>157157</i>	<i>161181</i>	NA	161169	165165	169173	169181	157165
			169185	<i>157169</i>		157165	161165	173173	161169		161173	169173	157165
				<i>157169</i>			161177		169169				
NPA	2	3	3	/	2	3	5	2	2	2	2	2	1

Maternal genotype and inherited alleles are given in bold. Paternally inherited alleles are given in regular font. Where determination of the paternal allele was impossible due to the mother and offspring sharing complete genotypes is given in italics.

NPA, number of paternal alleles; n, number of offspring; NA, non-amplification.

Discussion

The results suggest that polyandry is common in female *A. sylvaticus*, with the multi-sired litters examined often characterized by roughly equal success of sires. We report, for the first time, the occurrence of multiple paternity in litters sampled throughout the breeding season and in different sampling years within natural populations of this species. Our findings, therefore, remove doubt over the applicability of the results presented in the previous studies (i.e. Baker *et al.*, 1999; Bartmann & Gerlach, 2001) to natural populations of this species. Owing to the inherent statistical improbability of collecting more than one litter sired by the same male in a sample of 13 litters, we were unable to document polygyny. Nevertheless, field observations of territory size and overlap (Brown, 1969; Wolton & Flowerdew, 2006) strongly suggest that males are polygynous. Thus, if the documentation of polygyny by Bartmann & Gerlach (2001) is considered in combination with field behavioural observations, it is likely that the mating system of *A. sylvaticus* is predominantly promiscuous.

Multiple paternity may occur frequently in *A. sylvaticus* because males are unable to guard females successfully after mating due to long and unpredictable oestrus cycles, which can range from 1.3 to 15.8 days (Jonsson & Silverin, 1997).

Remote mate guarding using a copulatory plug is thought to be a strategy utilized by many mammals (especially rodents) for paternity assurance. However, the observed frequent multiple paternity in *A. sylvaticus* argues that copulatory plugs prove to be ineffective or inefficient barriers to insemination by other males, especially as it appears to be characterized by roughly equal fertilization success between sires. Spines on the glans penis of muroid rodents, which includes the genus *Apodemus*, may have evolved to aid in plug removal and would help to explain their apparent inefficiency for chastity enforcement (Milligan, 1979; Dewsbury, 1984).

As sperm plugs seem to be ineffective in preventing further copulations, it seems likely that other post-copulatory mechanisms may exist to maximize the success of sperm by each copulating male. The relative testis to body-mass ratio of around 5% in male *A. sylvaticus* is higher than for almost all other rodent species and suggests that sperm competition is a prominent feature of the reproductive behaviour of this species (Gage & Freckleton, 2002; Moore *et al.*, 2002). In addition, the spermatozoa of *A. sylvaticus* display a unique postcopulatory morphological transformation, which results in cooperation among sperm to form aggregations or 'trains' composed of hundreds or even thousands of cells within 1–5 min of ejaculation (Moore

et al., 2002). 'Trains' were found to increase the sperm motility significantly. Thus, it may be hypothesized that 'trains' form to ensure that sperm progress rapidly through the reproductive tract of the female, ensuring that the unfertilized eggs are reached before the sperm of rival males. If these trains function to confer increased motility in response to sperm competition, it would imply that the period between copulation of a single female by multiple males must often be very short. Moreover, this function would imply that sperm trains should only form between sperm from the same male.

With the possible exception of obtaining nutrition from multiple sperm plugs, it is unlikely that females benefit directly (e.g. through additional paternal care of offspring) from copulating with several males. In addition, as the paternity of litters examined in this study appears not to be biased towards one outright, highly competitive male, the advantage of multiple paternity in terms of female fitness is not obvious. However, genetic benefits may play a significant role in the evolution of promiscuous reproductive behaviour and multiple paternity in *A. sylvaticus*. Polyandry resulting in increased within-litter offspring diversity may enhance the fitness of the mother by decreasing sibling competition. Furthermore, this may enhance the survival probability of the offspring across variable habitat types and environmental conditions, effectively serving as an insurance against environmental uncertainty (Loman, Madsen & Håkansson, 1988; Foerster *et al.*, 2003; Fisher *et al.*, 2006). This may be particularly important in *A. sylvaticus* occupying the northern latitudes of the species range, where populations are characterized by annual cycles of abundance during which numbers may fluctuate by several orders of magnitude. Hence, polyandry during periods of low numbers may maximize the genetic variation within litters, and thus maximize the chance that some offspring survive.

This study demonstrates that the production of single litters sired by multiple males, as a result of polyandry, is common in females in natural populations of *A. sylvaticus*. This polyandrous mating system is further supported by relatively large testes size and the formation of post-copulatory sperm trains, suggesting that male *A. sylvaticus* are adapted for sperm competition. The outcome of this mating system in *A. sylvaticus* appears to be the production of litters with increased allelic diversity, with a nearly equal genetic representation of successful males. If this increased allelic diversity can indeed be linked to enhanced likelihood of survival and offspring of a higher reproductive value, as suggested by Foerster *et al.* (2003), the evolution of polyandry, and more than likely promiscuity, may play a fundamental role in the maintenance of genetic diversity within *A. sylvaticus* populations. A fundamental question that remains to be addressed is related to the possible variation of mating strategy within this species as proposed by Montgomery & Gurnell (1985). The authors have suggested that a shift from monogamy to polygyny may occur between the commencement of the breeding season and the end in *A. sylvaticus*. This may be associated with the annual fluctuations in abundance common to members of this

species occupying the northern latitudes of its range. This relevant question could be addressed with a more comprehensive sampling regime using the same approach used in this study.

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