populations simplify their behavior in courtship as a result of founder effects. Thus, females in the ancestral population discriminated against males from the derived population, while females from the derived population not only accepted courtship with males from the ancestral population, but sometimes even preferred them over males from their own population. Similar results for *D. mercatorum* subspecies were observed by Koeper and Fensten (1991), who found asymmetric mating between different geographic strains of *D. mercatorum*. However, their results did not allow to accurately infer direction of evolution between *D. mercatorum* subspecies.

The asymmetries observed in the intrasubspecific crosses show that males from lines with extreme IPI and FF values are accepted preferentially by females from lines with medium values for these parameters. This suggests a stabilizing selection on sound A. This fact agrees with the prediction made by Ewing and Myian (1986) after analyzing the sound of the species from the *repleta* group. According to these authors, sound A may be considered an isolating or identifying signal in the species that takes place at the beginning of courtship. It is unambiguous and subject to stabilizing selection.

Our results show that there is variation in the sexual behavior of *D. mercatorum* and it could not be explained by an exclusive hypothesis, instead it should be a byproduct of the modifications of the evolutionary process involving this species.

Acknowledgments: We thank Dulce Rocha and Denise Kuhn who reviewed the manuscript. This research was supported by Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq), Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (FAPESP), Financiadora de Estudos e Projetos (FINEP) and Universidade de São Paulo (USP).

References: Bennet-Clark, H.C., and A.W. Ewing 1969, Anim.Behav. 17: 755-759; Bennet-Clark, H.C., and A.W. Ewing 1967, Nature 215: 669-671; Chang, H.C., and D.D. Miller 1978, Evolution 32: 540-550; Dobzhansky, T., and C. Pavan 1943, Bolm. Fac. Filos. Ciênc. Univ. S. Paulo (36), Biologia Geral (4): 1-72; Ewing, A.W., 1978, Physiol. Entomol. 3: 33-36; Ewing, A.W., 1979, Anim.Behav. 27: 343-349; Ewing, A.W., and H.C. Bennet-Clark 1968, Behaviour 31: 288-301; Ewing, A.W., and J.A. Miyan 1986, Anim.Behav. 34: 421-429; Ikeda, H., I. Takabatake, and N. Sawada 1980, Behav. Genet. 10: 361-375; Ikeda, H., H. Idoji, and I. Takabatake 1981, Zool.Mag. 90: 325-332; Kaneshiro, K.Y., 1976, Evolution 30: 740-745; Koepfer, H.R., and E.J. Fenster 1991, Evolution 45: 455-458; Kyriacou, C.P., and J.C. Hall 1982, Anim. Behavior 30: 794-801; Liimatainen, J., and A. Hoikkala 1998, Journal of Insect Behavior 11: 399-417; Liimatainen, J., A. Hoikkala, J. Aspi, and P. Welbergen 1992, Anim.Behav. 43: 35-48; Manning, A., 1967, Science 158: 136-137; Manfrin, M.H., P.R.R. Prado, and F.M. Sene 1997, Rev.Bras.Biol., 57:349-355; Ohta, A.T., 1978, Evolution, 32: 485-492; Patterson, J.T., and M.R. Wheller 1942, Univ. Texas Publ. 4213: 67-109; Ritchie, M.G., and C.P. Kyriacou 1994, Anim. Behav., 48: 425-434; Schilcher, F. von. 1976, Anim. Behav. 24: 18-26; Scott, D., 1994, Evolution, 48: 112-121; Sene, F.M., 1986, Rev. Bras. Genet. 9:573-591; Spieth, H.T., 1974, Ann. Rev. Entomol. 19: 385-405; Stalker, H.D., 1942, Genetics, 27: 238-257; Tomaru, M., and Y. Oguma 1994, Genetical Research, 63: 11-17; Tomaru, M., H. Matsubayashi, and Oguma 1998, Journal of Insect Behavior 11: 383-398; Wasserman, M., 1982, In: The Genetics and Biology of Drosophila. vol 3b. (M. Ashburner, H.L. Carson, and J.N. Thompson, jr., eds), Academic Press, London. pp. 61-139; Wharton, L.T., 1944, Univ. Texas Publ. 4445: 175-193; Whitties, T.S., F.Y. Nam, T.E. Shelly, and K.Y. Kaneshiro 1994, Jornal of Insect Behavior 7: 159-170.

The attractiveness of *Drosophila* bait to arachnid predators and hymenopteran parasitoids.

<u>Hodge, Simon, and Cor J. Vink</u>. Ecology & Entomology Group, PO Box 84, Lincoln University, Canterbury, New Zealand.

## Introduction

When trapping drosophilids in the field it is not unusual to collect a number of hymenopteran parasitoids in the same traps. The parasitoids are attracted to olfactory cues from their host's resource in order to locate hosts for their larvae (e.g., Carton et al., 1986; Vet et al., 1984; van Alphen et al., 1991).

During a survey of drosophilids in New Zealand orchards, it was noticed that spiders and harvestmen were often found in the fruit-baited traps. *Drosophila* are often used as food for spiders maintained in

laboratory cultures and appear suitable prey for a wide variety of spider families (e.g., Linyphiidae - Turnbull, 1962; Lycosidae - Hardman and Turnbull, 1974; Salticidae - Edwards and Jackson, 1994; Theridiidae - Rypstra, 1993; Thomisidae - Pollard, 1989). Some spiders make foraging decisions based on previous success, suggesting they use 'learnt' information to influence subsequent foraging effort (e.g., Pasquet et al., 1999) and some species locate webs in sites containing insect attractants (Janetos, 1986). Spiders are known to have olfactory capabilities (Foelix, 1996) and we hypothesized that the spiders found in our *Drosophila* traps may be using cues from the fermenting fruit bait in order to locate a site that is rich in dipteran prey.

The aim of this investigation was to systematically assess whether spiders were attracted to *Drosophila* bait or were simply using the traps as suitable shelters or web sites. In carrying out the investigation, we also gained information on the attractiveness of the *Drosophila* bait to hymenopteran parasitoids in New Zealand.

## Methods

The investigation was carried out in six sites in the Christchurch region of Canterbury, New Zealand, between November 1998 and June 1999. The sites were chosen so as to represent a variety of different habitat types utilized by *Drosophila*. The sites were an organic orchard (Lincoln University, Canterbury), a sub-urban garden (Riccarton, Christchurch), a native forest remnant (Riccarton Bush, Christchurch), a recently planted forest restoration site (King George V Reserve, Christchurch), a conifer plantation (near Lincoln, Canterbury) and farm out-buildings (Prebbleton, Canterbury).

Plastic containers (60 mm high; 40 mm diameter) with yellow plastic lids were used as the trapping vessels. Nine holes (4mm diameter) were drilled into the lids to allow entry of animals. The traps were either baited with pieces of ripe banana ( $\approx 20$  g) or left unbaited. Thirty replicates of baited and unbaited traps were placed on the ground at each field site. The traps were placed on their sides, so that the lids were perpendicular to the ground. The traps were left in the field for 10 days and then collected and returned to the laboratory. The presence or absence of drosophilids, hymenopteran parasitoids and spiders in each trap was recorded. The distribution of each major taxa between baited and unbaited traps at each site was assessed using  $\chi^2$  tests. The heterogeneity of the distributions between sites was also assessed and, if viable, a  $\chi^2$  test using Cochrane's method was then performed on the pooled data (Zar, 1984).

## Results

Four species of *Drosophila* were collected; *D. melanogaster*, *D. pseudoobscura*, *D. immigrans* and *D. neozealandica*. As expected, *Drosophila* showed a highly significant association with the banana bait (pooled data  $\chi^2 = 198.4$  for 1 df; P < 0.001) and - with one exception - were found only in baited traps (Tables 1 and 2).

Eight different families of hymenopteran were collected (Table 1). In the first three trials, Hymenoptera were significantly more likely to be found in baited traps than in unbaited traps (Table 2). However, the Hymenoptera collected from the pine plantation showed no significant bias to either baited or unbaited traps and, due primarily to the late season, only a single specimen was collected at both the remnant forest and around the farm buildings. The distribution of Hymenoptera was, therefore, significantly heterogeneous between sites ( $\chi^2 = 19.2$  for 5 df; P < 0.01) and the data could not legitimately be pooled for an overall analysis.

At least five families of spider (Anapidae, Linyphiidae, Lycosidae, Salticidae and Theridiidae) were found inside the traps, along with a number of unidentifiable juveniles (Table 1). Spiders were relatively rare, being present in only 30 of the 360 traps (Table 2). Although there was an overall trend towards spiders being found in baited traps this was not statistically significant within any one site or for the overall collection (Table 2; pooled data  $\chi^2 = 1.8$  for 1 df; P > 0.10).

## Discussion

The results tend to confirm the attractiveness of *Drosophila* baits to parasitoid wasps, which showed a clear preference in three of the six sites. On the last two sampling occasions too few Hymenoptera were captured to make any sound judgments. The Hymenoptera collected in the pine forest showed a spurious distribution, in that they were equally occurrent in baited traps as in unbaited. We have no immediate explanation for this result.

Table 1. Species of Drosophila, families of parasitoid Hymenoptera and species of spiders found in Drosophila traps at each of the field sites. (B - baited traps; U - unbaited traps).

	Family	ŏ	Orchard	Gar	Garden	Resto	Restoration	Ā	Pines	Rem	Remanant	Fa	Farm
		В	٦	æ	_	8	_	В	٥	<u>В</u>	_	ш	⊃
Drosophila	D. immigrans	>	ŀ	>		>		>		>		>	>
•	D. melanogaster	>										>	٠
	D. neozealandica	•		,		>				>			•
	D. pseudoobscura	>		>		`		>		>		>	
Hymenoptera	Bethylidae	•		>		•					,		•
	Braconidae	`		`		>	>					,	•
	Diapriidae	,		,	,			>	>				
	Encyrtidae	>			,	•	,						•
	Eulophidae		,	,					,		`		
	Figitidae		,		1			>				,	•
	Ichneumonidae	•						>	>		•		٠
	Pteromalidae	•						,				>	•
Spiders													
Anapidae	Zealanapis armata			•						>			•
Linyphiidae	Araeoncus humilis	,			,					>			>
	Diplocephalus cristatus									>	>		>
	juveniles	>	,	,		>		>					•
Lycosidae	'Lycosa' hilaris	>		`							,		,
Salticidae	juveniles	•					>						•
Theridiidae	undescribed sp1		, .	1				>	>				
	undescribed sp2	>	>	,		,				1			
	juveniles	>	`		,		>		>			>	•
unknown	juveniles	>		>		>	`						٠

Table 2.	Number of baited and unbaited traps containing Drosophila, hymenopteran parasitoids and spiders at
each of s	six sites near Christchurch, New Zealand (N = 30).

Site	Date	Drosophila		Parasitoids		Spiders	
		baited	unbaited	baited	unbaited	baited	unbaited
Organic orchard	30/11/98	29	0*	10	0*	5	3
Sub-urban garden	22/12/98	19	O* 🦠	11	0*	4	0
Restoration site	29/3/99	25	0*	10	2*	2	3
Pine plantation	21/4/99	10	0*	7	10	2	2
Remnant forest	20/5/99	19	0* ·	0	1	5	1
Farm out-buildings	1/6/99	20	1*	1	0	1	2
Total (N = 180)		122	1*	39	13	19	11

<sup>\* -</sup> significant preference for baited traps identified using  $\chi^2$  test; P<0.05

Our casual observation that spiders were frequent visitors to *Drosophila* traps did not withstand systematic examination. We found fewer spiders than expected, and those that were collected showed no significant preference towards baited traps. However, as almost two thirds of spiders collected were caught in the baited traps, this issue may warrant further investigation. Separating spiders into different families or species may reveal more detailed patterns in preference of foraging site. Also, the use of olfactometer experiments in the laboratory may clarify whether certain species of spider are attracted to *Drosophila* resources.

Acknowledgments: Thanks to Jo Berry of Landcare Research, Auckland, for identifying the Hymenoptera.

References: Carton, Y., M. Bouletreau, J.J.M. van Alphen, and J.C. van Lenteren 1986, In: *The Genetics and Biology of* Drosophila Vol 3e (M. Ashburner, H.L. Carson, and J.N. Thompson, jr., Eds.), pp 347-394; Edwards, G.B., and R.R. Jackson 1994, New Zealand Journal of Zoology, 21: 269-277; Foelix, R.F., 1996, *Biology of Spiders*, 2nd Edition. Oxford University Press, Oxford. 330 pp; Hardman and Turnbull 1974, Journal of Animal Ecology, 43: 155-171; Janetos, A.C., 1986, In: *Spiders: Webs, Behavior and Evolution*. (W.A. Shear, Ed.), Stanford University Press, Stanford, CA. pp 269-305; Pasquet, A., R. Leborgne, and Y. Lubin 1999, Behavioural Ecology, 10: 115-121; Pollard, S.D., 1989, Oecologia, 81: 392-396; Rypstra, A.L., 1993, American Naturalist, 142: 868-880; Turnbull, A.L., 1962, The Canadian Entomologist, 94: 1233-1249; van Alphen, J.J.M., G. Nordlander, and I. Eijs 1991, Oecologia, 87: 324-329; Vet, L.E.M., C. Janse, C. van Achtenberg, and J.J.M. van Alphen 1984, Oecologia, 61: 182-188; Zar, J.H., 1984, *Biostatistical Analysis*. Prentice-Hall, New Jersey, USA. 718 pp.

Factors of spontaneous mutations, mutability in large chromosomes and mortality from dominant lethals in *Drosophila melanogaster*.

<u>Ivanov, Yu.N.</u> Institute of Cytology and Genetics, Siberian Division of Russian Academy of Sciences, Novosibirsk, 630090, Russia. FAX: (3832) 33 12 78. E-mail: ivanov@bionet.nsc.ru.

The ideas are widespread that changes of the natural radiation background increase the rate of mutability and are responsible for such prominent events in life on the Earth as extinction of fossil faunas (dinosaurs are mentioned most frequently), outbreaks of pest reproduction, epizooites and other phenomena believed to be associated with emergence of mutations causing resistance to pesticides and of more virulent or antibiotic-resistant microbial strains. However, 1) mutations are destructive and have nothing to do with biogenesis (Ivanov and Ivannikov, 1997), that is why the above ideas about the emergence of new forms with a heightened fitness are extremely doubtful. It is not new mutant forms that arise, it is that tolerable hereditary types preadapted to new conditions which are inherent in the given species from its very origin, but rare under the usual conditions, begin to reproduce more intensely. The species becomes adapted to various possible