

1 **Avoidance of host resistance in the oviposition-site preferences of rose bitterling**

2 Romain Rouchet¹, Carl Smith^{1,2,3}, Huanzhang Liu⁴, Caroline Methling¹, Karel Doua⁵, Dan Yu⁴,
3 Qionying Tang⁴, Martin Reichard^{1*}

4 ¹Institute of Vertebrate Biology, Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic, Brno, Czech
5 Republic

6 ²School of Biology, University of St Andrews, St Andrews, UK

7 ³Bell-Pettigrew Museum of Natural History, University of St Andrews, St Andrews, UK

8 ⁴The Key Laboratory of Aquatic Biodiversity and Conservation of Chinese Academy of
9 Sciences, Institute of Hydrobiology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wuhan, Hubei, 430072, PR
10 China

11 ⁵Department of Zoology and Fisheries, Faculty of Agrobiological Food and Natural Resources,
12 Czech University of Life Sciences Prague, Prague, Czech Republic

13

14 * reichard@ivb.cz (corresponding author), phone: +420 543 422 522, fax: +420 543 211 346

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23 **Abstract** A contemporary outcome of dynamic host-parasite coevolution can be driven by the
24 adaptation of a parasite to exploit its hosts at the population and species levels (parasite
25 specialisation) or by local host adaptations leading to greater host resistance to sympatric parasite
26 populations (host resistance). We tested the predominance of these two scenarios using cross-
27 infection experiments with two geographically distant populations of the rose bitterling, *Rhodeus*
28 *ocellatus*, a fish brood parasite of freshwater mussels, and four populations of their mussel hosts
29 (two *Anodonta woodiana* and two *Unio douglasiae* populations) with varying degrees of
30 geographic sympatry and local coexistence. Our data support predictions for host resistance at
31 the species level but no effect of local coexistence between specific populations. *Rhodeus*
32 *ocellatus* showed a preference for allopatric host populations, irrespective of host species. Host
33 mussel response, in terms of ejection of *R. ocellatus* eggs, was stronger in the more widespread
34 and abundant host species (*A. woodiana*) and this response tended to be higher in sympatric
35 populations. These outcomes provide support for the importance of host resistance in bitterling
36 oviposition-site decisions, demonstrating that host choice by *R. ocellatus* is adaptive by
37 minimizing egg ejections. These findings imply that *R. ocellatus*, and potentially other bitterling
38 species, may benefit from exploiting novel hosts, which may not possess appropriate adaptive
39 responses to parasitism.

40 **Introduction**

41 Host-parasite relationships impose strong selective forces in evolution (Woolhouse et al. 2002).
42 The intensity of selection resulting from biological interactions can vary over space and time,
43 ranging from hotspots, with species exhibiting rapid reciprocal adaptations, to coldspots where
44 the same species do not coevolve despite their co-occurrence (Laine 2009). Differences in
45 selective environments may favour different traits in different interacting populations, leading to
46 distinct levels of reciprocal selection, as predicted by the geographic mosaic theory of
47 coevolution (Thompson 1999, 2013).

48 Most host-parasite relationships incur significant costs to both partners and result in a
49 rapid coevolutionary arms race when an adaptation in one partner is followed by reciprocal
50 counter-adaptations in the other (Dawkins and Krebs 1979). This process is dynamic and at a
51 particular evolutionary point, hosts may be better adapted to defend themselves from the parasite
52 or, alternatively, the parasite can be better adapted to exploit its host (Rothstein and Robinson
53 1998; Sorensen et al. 2004; Medina and Langmore 2016). *The parasite specialization scenario*
54 considers that the present coevolutionary state is primarily resolved by traits evolved by the
55 parasite, with parasite adaptations currently overcoming the defences evolved by the host. The
56 *host resistance scenario* predicts that the present coevolutionary state is primarily resolved by
57 the host, which expresses adaptations that resist parasite virulence (Davies and Brooke 1988;
58 Honza et al. 2004). An alternative possibility is that adaptive responses in the host-parasite
59 relationship are lacking, a situation predicted when the cost, probability or intensity of an
60 interaction is limited (Holland et al. 2004).

61 Parasites may specialise on particular host species (Joshi and Thompson 1995) or specific
62 host populations (Kaltz and Shykoff 1998; Kawecki and Ebert 2004). Host communities vary in

63 their species composition, relative abundance of each host species and density of their
64 populations. Given that each host species may require different parasite adaptations, variation in
65 the structure of local host communities may lead to *parasite specialization at the local level*,
66 often to the locally most common host species (Thompson 1994, 1999; Krasnov et al. 2011).
67 This situation produces variable host-parasite associations across geographic regions, leading to
68 local differences in parasite specialization. An example is the European cuckoo (*Cuculus*
69 *canorus* L.) where different populations specialize on different locally accessible host species
70 (Medina and Langmore 2016).

71 In other host-parasite systems, however, parasites may coevolve with a single host
72 species across their entire range. *Parasite specialization at the species level* requires generalised
73 adaptations to exploit a host species and may be favoured when either parasite or host species
74 disperse over large distances (Medina and Langmore 2016). In African indigobirds (*Vidua* spp.),
75 strict host-parasite association at the species level is driven by precise mouth marking in chicks
76 that mimic mouth marking of their respective host species (Sorenson et al. 2003). Stronger
77 specialization on one host species, therefore, comes at a cost of a decrease in fitness on other
78 host species, leading to parasite specialisation at the level of the host species. High host
79 specificity is expected to lead to more intense escalation of reciprocal adaptations in hosts and
80 parasites.

81 An analogous, though reversed, scenario is the situation when host resistance dominates
82 the current state of the reciprocal relationship. Increased resistance to parasites can improve a
83 host's fitness, but is often costly as resources are diverted from growth and reproduction (Moret
84 and Schmid-Hempel 2000; Rigby and Moret 2000; Schmid-Hempel 2003). Hence, a high
85 investment in host resistance is more likely to be maintained under intense parasite pressure.

86 When effective host responses are detected, *host resistance* can be defined at the species and
87 local population levels, similarly to parasite specialization.

88 A powerful way to test for host and parasite adaptation is by using cross-infection
89 experiments to compare parasite success (or preference) and host resistance for sympatric versus
90 allopatric populations (reviewed by Kawecki and Ebert 2004). *Local parasite adaptation* can be
91 detected by measuring the fitness of a parasite on locally coexisting host populations, with a
92 prediction of parasite preference and increased fitness on locally coexisting hosts. In contrast,
93 *local host resistance* predicts increased parasite fitness on ecologically naive hosts and, in the
94 case that the parasite is capable of evaluating host suitability, parasite preference for ecologically
95 naive host populations over coexisting host populations (Kawecki and Ebert 2004). Previous
96 studies have provided evidence for local adaptation of the parasite, local adaptation of the host,
97 and no local adaptation (Edmunds and Alstad 1978; Greischar and Koskella 2007; Hoeksema
98 and Forde 2008; Laine 2009; Voutilainen et al. 2009).

99 In this study, we investigated interpopulation variation in host-parasite association
100 between a parasitic fish, the rose bitterling, *Rhodeus ocellatus* (Kner), and their host mussels
101 from the family Unionidae. *Rhodeus ocellatus*, like all other bitterling fishes (family
102 Acheilognathidae), lay their eggs in the gills of unionid mussels. Female bitterling use a long
103 ovipositor to lay their eggs in the gills of living mussels by inserting them into the host's exhalant
104 siphon. Male bitterling fertilize the eggs deposited inside the mussel gill by releasing sperm over
105 the host inhalant siphon (Reichard et al. 2004a; Smith and Reichard 2013). Males defend a
106 territory containing one or more mussels against rivals, actively court females and lead them to a
107 mussel (Smith et al. 2004). Bitterling embryos develop in the gills of the host mussel, competing
108 for nutrients and oxygen with the host, before emerging after 3-4 weeks (Aldridge 1999; Spence

109 and Smith 2013). Hosting bitterling embryos is costly to mussels (Reichard et al. 2006), and
110 mussels have evolved counter-adaptations to bitterling parasitism, primarily ejections of their
111 eggs and embryos (Kitamura 2005; Reichard et al. 2007; Reichard et al. 2010). In turn, bitterling
112 eggs and embryos have evolved behavioural and morphological mechanisms to avoid ejection
113 (Smith et al. 2004). The bitterling-mussel system is conceptually analogous to avian brood
114 parasitism (Davies 2016).

115 *Rhodeus ocellatus* is widely distributed across East Asia (Chang et al. 2014). It is a
116 generalist parasite utilising a range of host mussel species, but exhibiting preferences for
117 particular hosts (Reichard et al. 2007). Female *R. ocellatus* display preferences toward certain
118 mussel individuals (Casalini et al. 2013), indicating that female *R. ocellatus* may tailor their host
119 preferences to host quality cues. At least at the level of individual host mussels, males appear
120 less selective than females (Casalini et al. 2013), trading off mussel quality against the risk of
121 sperm competition (Smith et al. 2003). Although female oviposition decisions are also affected
122 by mate quality (Agbali et al. 2010, 2012), the quality of the host mussel is the key factor
123 predicting female oviposition-site decisions (Casalini et al. 2009). Female host choice decisions
124 in *R. ocellatus* and other bitterling species rely on optimal mussel traits related to enhanced
125 embryo survival, particularly the availability of oxygen for developing embryos (Smith et al.
126 2001; Reichard et al. 2007; Spence and Smith 2013; Phillips et al. 2017).

127 There is good evidence for coevolutionary dynamics in the relationship between
128 bitterling fishes and their mussel hosts. Populations of the related European bitterling, *Rhodeus*
129 *amarus* (Bloch), display variation in host species preference across their geographic distribution
130 (Reichard et al. 2010; Smith 2017). Similarly, host mussels have evolved stronger defences (e.g.
131 egg ejection) in areas of ancient sympatry with *R. amarus* than in areas of recent sympatry

132 (Reichard et al. 2010). Hence, bitterling and their hosts can exhibit population-level variation in
133 the intensity of reciprocal selection. We hypothesized that this variation may lead to different
134 degrees of local adaptation, especially in areas of ancient sympatry, driven either by parasite
135 adaptation or host resistance.

136 Here, we used two geographically distant populations of *R. ocellatus* from a region of
137 ancient bitterling-mussel sympatry to test their preference towards two widespread host mussel
138 species, *Anodonta woodiana* (Lea) and *Unio douglasiae* (Gray). Despite wide co-occurrence
139 between both mussel host species and *R. ocellatus*, *A. woodiana* hosts have a larger distribution
140 and are locally more abundant, typically being the dominant unionid species in mussel
141 communities throughout the range of *R. ocellatus* (He and Zimin 2013). Each host mussel
142 species was represented by one population coexisting with and one population naïve to *R.*
143 *ocellatus*. Mussel host populations varied in their level of regional and local coexistence with *R.*
144 *ocellatus*, producing a mosaic of associations at the species and local levels (Fig. 1). We also
145 measured population-specific host mussel resistance to *R. ocellatus* oviposition through egg
146 ejections.

147 The coevolutionary relationship between bitterling and their mussel hosts is antagonistic
148 and dynamic (Smith et al. 2004; Reichard et al. 2012; Spence and Smith 2013). For *parasite*
149 *specialisation* to play a dominant role in the association the prediction is that *R. ocellatus* will
150 make oviposition-site decisions that favour the utilization of mussels with which there is an
151 evolutionary association at a meta (species) level, as well as at a local (population) level. In
152 contrast, in the case that *host resistance* plays the primary role in oviposition-site decisions, *R.*
153 *ocellatus* are predicted to use allopatric mussel species at a meta level and populations without
154 previous exposure to bitterling at a local level. In the context of the present study, in the case of

155 *parasite specialisation at the species level* we predicted a preference by experimental *R.*
156 *ocellatus* for sympatric host species at a broad (meta) geographic scale and, under the *parasite*
157 *specialisation at the local level*, a preference for populations with which they locally coexist. In
158 the case of *host resistance at the species level* we predicted a preference for allopatric and locally
159 naive hosts. These predictions assumed that *R. ocellatus* are able to assess relevant cues
160 associated with a host mussel's ability to eject eggs as the European bitterling *R. amarus* do
161 (Mills and Reynolds 2002), though we did not test this assumption. Predictions for each host
162 mussel and bitterling population under each coevolutionary scenario are summarized in Table 1.

163

164 **Material and methods**

165 **Study subjects**

166 Two species of host mussel (*Anodonta woodiana* and *Unio douglasiae*) were collected from each
167 mussel collection site. These were Lake Bao'an in Hubei Province (30° 17' 25.4" N; 114° 43'
168 48.9" E) and Lake Qinglan (28° 30' 40.144" N; 116° 8' 2.112" E), Jiangxi Province, China. Both
169 mussel species were confirmed to be hosts of *R. ocellatus* (Reichard et al. 2007; R. Rouchet
170 unpublished data). Mussels locally coexisting with the local *R. ocellatus* population were
171 collected from Lake Bao'an, a shallow lake with abundant aquatic vegetation where *R. ocellatus*
172 is common and co-occurs with at least four other bitterling species - *Rhodeus sinensis* Guenther,
173 *Rhodeus fangi* (Miao), *Acheilognathus chankaensis* (Dybowski) and *Acheilognathus imberbis*
174 Guenther. Mussels naive to *R. ocellatus* were collected from Lake Qinglan, a part of Lake
175 Poyang, the largest lake in China. Bitterling species recorded in Lake Qinglan include *A.*
176 *chankaensis*, *A. imberbis*, *Acheilognathus tonkinensis* (Vaillant), *Acheilognathus* cf. *meridianus*
177 (Wu), *Acheilognathus barbatulus* Guenther, *Acheilognathus rhombeus* (Temminck & Schlegel)

178 and *Acheilognathus gracilis* Nichols. There are no records of *R. ocellatus* from the lake although
179 this species is found in some smaller affiliated waters. Given the pronounced dispersal capability
180 of unionid mussels during their larval stage (Douda et al. 2012), it is possible that host mussels
181 from Lake Qinglan may have a history of coexistence with *R. ocellatus* at a larger scale, despite
182 individual host mussels from Lake Qinglan not co-occurring with *R. ocellatus*. In Lake Qinglan,
183 *U. douglasiae* is known to be parasitized by the embryos of *A. tonkinensis* (a bitterling species
184 unrelated to *R. ocellatus*), while there are no records of bitterling embryos recovered from *A.*
185 *woodiana* from Lake Qinglan (Liu et al. 2006).

186 Mussels were collected by hand from both lakes. In the case of Lake Qinglan, because of
187 its greater depth, specimens were also collected using a mussel dredge hauled by a boat. Stocks
188 of experimental *A. woodiana* and *U. douglasiae* were collected in early April 2014 and
189 supplemented during three additional collections in Lake Bao'an and four in Lake Qinglan
190 between late April and mid-June. Mussels were stored in large (2.0 x 1.0 m) plastic containers
191 filled with water to a depth of approximately 300 mm and aerated continuously.

192 *Rhodeus ocellatus* used in the study were collected in April and May 2014 using baited
193 fish traps. Fish from the locally coexisting population were collected from Lake Bao'an (the
194 same site as mussel collection) where *R. ocellatus* lived in sympatry with at least four species of
195 freshwater mussel, including both study host species (included as two host study populations).
196 The second population of *R. ocellatus* (Nanchang) was not coexisting with any experimental
197 populations of host mussels, but coexisted with a local (non-experimental) population of *A.*
198 *woodiana*. Fish from this *R. ocellatus* population were collected in a natural pond in the city of
199 Nanchang (Jiangxi province, 28° 39' 55.08" N; 115° 48' 57.79" E), located 35 km from Lake
200 Qinglan where the mussels ecologically naive to *R. ocellatus* were collected. The pond was

201 shallow (<1 m) and measured approximately 15 x 40 m. There was no connection allowing fish
202 migration between the pond and Lake Qinglan or adjacent bodies of water. Only a single mussel
203 species (*A. woodiana*) was recorded in Nanchang pond despite an intensive search. *R. ocellatus*
204 coexisted in the pond with another bitterling species, *R. sinensis*.

205 Experimental bitterling were transported in aerated containers and housed in four large
206 (2.0 x 1.0 m) tanks. A maximum of 150 fish were stored in each tank, with approximately equal
207 sex ratio. In each tank we placed *Lamprotula caveata* (Heude) mussels to encourage female
208 ovulation. These mussels were enclosed with transparent covers that permitted bitterling to see
209 and smell them but prevented oviposition. *L. caveata* was chosen because it is phylogenetically
210 and morphologically unrelated to *A. woodiana* and *U. douglasiae* (Liu et al. 2006) and hence
211 prevented fish habituation towards one of the tested host mussels prior to the start of the
212 experiment.

213 **Behavioural experiment**

214 The experiment consisted of a test of male and female *R. ocellatus* towards a pair of host mussel
215 species of different combinations of host species, meta and local co-occurrence (Fig. 1). We use
216 the terms *sympatric* and *allopatric* at the “meta” scale (Bao'an host mussels sympatric with *R.*
217 *ocellatus*, Qinglan host mussels allopatric with *R. ocellatus*) and the terms *locally coexisting* and
218 *ecologically naive* at the “local” scale (*ecologically naive*: populations of fish and mussels not
219 locally coexisting regardless of sympatry at the meta scale) (Fig. 1). The experiment took place
220 between April and June 2014 in the laboratory facilities of the Institute of Hydrobiology of the
221 Chinese Academy of Sciences in Wuhan, China.

222 For each replicate, we used a set of four mussels: one *A. woodiana* from Lake Bao'an,
223 one *A. woodiana* from Lake Qinglan, one *U. douglasiae* from Lake Bao'an and one *U.*

224 *douglasiae* from Lake Qinglan (Fig. 1). Although it was impossible to obtain all four adult
225 mussels of the same size because *A. woodiana* (shell length: 91-132 mm) is larger than *U.*
226 *douglasiae* (37-91 mm), mussels from the same species within a set were size-matched. Four
227 separate preference tests (always containing a pair of host mussels; Fig. 1) were performed in a
228 random predetermined order. A full set of preference tests within a replicate was tested within
229 one day for one of the two *R. ocellatus* populations (Bao'an or Nanchang). The same set of
230 mussels was tested with the second fish population on a subsequent day, usually the following
231 day, but always within one week. A set of four host mussels (one individual from each study
232 population) was, therefore, tested in four separate paired tests (*A. woodiana* Bao'an x *A.*
233 *woodiana* Qinglan; *U. douglasiae* Bao'an x *U. douglasiae* Qinglan; *A. woodiana* Bao'an x *U.*
234 *douglasiae* Bao'an; *A. woodiana* Qinglan x *U. douglasiae* Qinglan) with the same pair of *R.*
235 *ocellatus* fish in one day and with another pair of *R. ocellatus* (from a different population) on a
236 later day (Fig. 1). In seven cases, mussel mortality prevented completion of the test with the
237 second bitterling population.

238 Experimental aquaria measured 550 (length) x 350 (width) x 450 (depth) mm and
239 contained a 20 mm layer of washed sand as a substrate. In the evening prior to the start of a test,
240 a focal male *R. ocellatus* was introduced into an experimental aquarium with a non-experimental
241 *L. caveata* mussel placed in the centre of the aquarium to elicit territoriality. On the following
242 morning the *L. caveata* mussel was removed. A second, non-experimental *R. ocellatus* male
243 (from the same population as the focal male) was placed in the tank in a cylindrical glass jar
244 (diameter 100 mm) to further stimulate the territorial and reproductive behaviour of the focal
245 male. A female in spawning condition, obvious from an extended ovipositor that unambiguously
246 demonstrates that a female bitterling has ovulated a batch of eggs, from the same population as

247 the focal male was gently released into the aquarium. The first pair of mussels to be tested were
248 placed 150 mm apart in the centre of the aquarium inside sand-filled plastic pots to hold them in
249 position. The mussels were covered with a transparent pierced plastic box that allowed the fish to
250 see and smell the mussels but prevented oviposition. After at least 30 min. of acclimation, the
251 covers were removed from the mussels. Behaviour recording started once one of the
252 experimental fish began inspection of the siphons of a mussel. Behaviours directed at a specific
253 host mussel and relevant to oviposition preference were recorded. These were: male *leading* the
254 female *R. ocellatus* towards one of the mussels (though with no interference with that mussel),
255 male or female *inspection* of the exhalant and inhalant siphons of the host mussel (sampling host
256 cues to assess its suitability for the incubation of *R. ocellatus* embryos), *sperm release* by the *R.*
257 *ocellatus* male (indicating investment into a particular host mussel, clearly detected by typical
258 male movement over the mussel inhalant siphon), *skimming* by a *R. ocellatus* female (a
259 behaviour resembling oviposition but without insertion of the ovipositor into the mussel siphon
260 and without egg laying) and female *oviposition* (spawning, identified by a typical female
261 movement and insertion of her ovipositor into the mussel exhalant siphon). For a detailed
262 description of bitterling reproductive behaviour see Reichard et al. (2004b). *R. ocellatus*
263 behaviour was recorded continuously for 20 min. or until oviposition, whichever occurred
264 earlier. If oviposition occurred, the mussel was observed for a further 1 min. to record any egg
265 ejections by the host mussel. Mussel ejections occur either within a few seconds of oviposition
266 (immediate ejections) or over an extended period of several days (late ejections). The two types
267 of ejections are positively correlated (Reichard et al. 2007a, b) but late ejections cannot be
268 observed directly. After completion of a trial the experimental host mussels were replaced with
269 the next treatment combination and covered until the subsequent behavioural test, with a

270 minimum interval of 30 min. between tests to ensure that females were capable of spawning
271 another batch of ovulated eggs (Smith et al. 2004). Experimental mussels did not contain any
272 bitterling eggs or embryos prior to their use in a trial. Once all trials were completed for a given
273 pair of fish, they were stocked in a separate tank and not used again in the experiment.

274 **Data analysis**

275 Data from each focal female and male *R. ocellatus* were used to model host mussel preference.
276 Before applying statistical models a data exploration was undertaken, following the protocol
277 described in Ieno and Zuur (2015). The data were examined for outliers in the response and
278 explanatory variables, homogeneity and zero inflation in the response variable, collinearity
279 between explanatory variables and the nature of relationships between the response and
280 explanatory variables. Oviposition was used as a definitive measure of mussel preference. We
281 detected collinearity between female inspection of host mussels with oviposition and dropped
282 female inspection from the analysis. Male mussel inspection behaviour was similarly found to be
283 collinear with male leading behaviour and was subsequently dropped from the analysis. Male
284 leading behaviour was included in the model as a covariate to accommodate the effect of male
285 behaviour on female oviposition-site decision. Sperm release by males rarely occurred prior to
286 oviposition, limiting its informative value, and this variable was not included in the model. No
287 outliers were detected.

288 Mussel preference was modelled using a Bernoulli Generalized Linear Mixed Model
289 (GLMM). The model contained fixed effects for *sympatry* (two levels: sympatry and allopatry),
290 *local coexistence* (two levels: locally coexisting and ecological naive), and *host species* (two
291 levels: *A. woodiana* and *U. douglasiae*). An interaction between host mussel species and local
292 coexistence was included to test for an effect of conditioning on host preference. *Male leading*

293 was a covariate representing the frequency of male leading behaviour to a mussel, which can
294 potentially influence female oviposition decisions (Smith et al. 2004). We also included the
295 effects of body size (measured as the total length, including caudal fin) of male and female *R.*
296 *ocellatus*. Mussel shell size was not included as a covariate because host mussels were size-
297 matched within host species and fully collinear (non-overlapping size range) between species.
298 Random terms were *Fish ID* (permitting random variation on the intercept for each individual
299 fish (fish pair used in trials) and *Trial* as a random intercept for each pairwise experimental trial
300 (with response to two host mussel individuals tested simultaneously in a paired design) nested
301 within individual fish and permitting a different intercept for each experimental trial.

302 The occurrence of egg ejection by mussels immediately following oviposition was
303 modelled using a subset of the data that included only trials that resulted in oviposition. The
304 model was fitted as a Bernoulli GLMM (log-link function) and contained the same set of fixed
305 and random effects as the oviposition model, except for the removal of *male leading* given the
306 lack of an association between male leading behaviour and host mussel ejection. Data analyses
307 were conducted using the *lme4* package in R 3.2.0 (Bates et al. 2014; R Core Development Team
308 2015). We quantified model goodness-of-fit (R^2_{GLMM}) for the fixed part of the model (R^2_{GLMM}
309 marginal) and for the complete model (including random effects; R^2_{GLMM} conditional)
310 (Nakagawa and Schielzeth 2013). Goodness-of-fit parameters were extracted using the *MuMIn*
311 package (Bartoń 2015). The *effects* package (Fox 2016) was used to visualize model estimates of
312 fixed term effects.

313

314 **Results**

315 A total of 272 paired trials were conducted, of which 80 resulted in oviposition. *Rhodeus*
316 *ocellatus* spawned more frequently in allopatric than sympatric mussel species, regardless of
317 mussel population of origin (Table 2a, Fig. 2), which is in agreement with a predominant role for
318 *host resistance* and contradicts predictions for the importance of *parasite specialization at the*
319 *meta level*. There was no effect of local coexistence between *R. ocellatus* and host mussels on the
320 probability of *R. ocellatus* oviposition, suggesting the parasite specialization was not affected by
321 local interactions and, therefore, not supporting predictions for *parasite specialization at the*
322 *local level*. There was no effect of host mussel species on the probability of *R. ocellatus*
323 oviposition, indicating that there was no parasite specialization for a particular host species.
324 There was no interaction between host mussel species and the effect of local coexistence,
325 indicating no effect of local conditioning on host preference. Male leading behaviour, a covariate
326 in the model, had a significant positive effect on the probability of oviposition (Table 2a). There
327 was no effect of female *R. ocellatus* body size on oviposition but a positive trend of male *R.*
328 *ocellatus* body size (Table 2a), indicating that females were more likely to spawn with larger
329 males. The model explained 9% of variability in the data ($R^2_{\text{GLMM}} \text{ marginal} = 0.0887$), with
330 almost all explained variation related to fixed part of the model ($R^2_{\text{GLMM}} \text{ conditional} = 0.0887$).

331 Ejection of *R. ocellatus* eggs by host mussels showed a significant effect of mussel
332 species (Table 2b), with *A. woodiana* exhibiting a higher frequency of egg ejection than *U.*
333 *douglasiae* (Fig. 3). Sympatric mussel hosts, irrespective of species, tended to eject *R. ocellatus*
334 eggs more frequently, though this effect was not statistically significant ($P = 0.068$). This trend
335 tends to support a role for *host resistance at the meta level*. There was no effect of local host
336 mussel coexistence on egg ejections (Table 2b), discounting the importance of local level effects.

337 The model explained 30% of variability in the data ($R^2_{\text{GLMM}} \text{ marginal} = 0.2997$), with almost all
338 explained variation related to the fixed part of the model ($R^2_{\text{GLMM}} \text{ conditional} = 0.2996$).

339

340 **Discussion**

341 We investigated outcomes in the host-parasite relationship between *R. ocellatus* and its unionid
342 mussel hosts with respect to parasite specialization and host resistance. Using an experimental
343 design that allowed us to distinguish the effects of host-parasite coexistence on a larger
344 geographical level (sympatry/allopatry) and local population level (ecologically relevant local
345 coexistence), we found support for the role of host resistance, with its effects operating at a
346 regional rather than local level. *R. ocellatus* avoided oviposition in sympatric populations of two
347 host mussel species in favour of allopatric populations and there was no effect of local host-
348 parasite coexistence or host species identity on *R. ocellatus* host preference. Ejection of *R.*
349 *ocellatus* eggs by host mussels was more likely by populations of one species, *A. woodiana*. This
350 host species has higher local population densities and a wider distribution than the other test host
351 species and is, therefore, more likely to be encountered by *R. ocellatus* and other bitterling
352 species. In addition, ejections tended to be higher in sympatric host mussel populations
353 irrespective of host species, providing further support for the importance of host resistance at a
354 meta level.

355 Parasite preference for allopatric hosts may interact with host species preference. We
356 found no difference in the preference of *R. ocellatus* between host mussel species, although *A.*
357 *woodiana* mussels exhibited overall higher egg ejection rates than *U. douglasiae* mussels (Table
358 2b). The lack of preference for host species may have been overridden by a strong preference for
359 allopatric hosts. *R. ocellatus* is a host generalist, capable of successfully parasitizing both mussel

360 species offered in the study, but demonstrating a certain level of host species preferences
361 (Reichard et al. 2007). Moreover, conditioning has been shown to affect the choice of host
362 mussel species in the European bitterling *R. amarus*, with a tendency to preferentially exploit
363 host mussel species that were housed with experimental fish (Reichard et al. 2011). In our study,
364 a population of *R. ocellatus* from Nanchang had no previous experience with *U. douglasiae*
365 hosts, but did not exhibit any mussel species preference towards *A. woodiana* hosts. This
366 outcome contradicts the potential role for a conditioning effect and reinforces the importance of
367 generalised host suitability (i.e. the lack of host resistance) in the oviposition-site decisions of *R.*
368 *ocellatus*. The cues that bitterling use for oviposition decisions appear to include mussel odour,
369 the dissolved oxygen concentration of the water emerging from the mussel and the flow velocity
370 of the exhalant flow (Smith et al. 2001; Mills and Reynolds 2002; Phillips et al. 2017), though
371 these are not yet fully understood. In European unionids, host mussel populations have evolved
372 morphological and behavioural adaptations, including egg ejection, to avoid bitterling
373 oviposition, with mussel populations from areas under stronger parasitic pressure exhibiting
374 enhanced counter-adaptations to reduce parasitism by bitterling (Reichard et al. 2010). It is
375 unclear whether bitterling are capable of perceiving such differences in the level of host counter-
376 adaptation, but our results suggest it may be the case at the host population level, making *R.*
377 *ocellatus* highly efficient at utilising a broad range of novel host populations and species.
378 However, despite showing appropriate responses, the cues used by *R. ocellatus* to recognise host
379 suitability remain to be identified.

380 The limited species selectivity by *R. ocellatus* may appear contradictory in the context of
381 host-parasite coevolution, but may reflect an overriding role for host quality traits rather than
382 host specific traits. Thus the dissolved oxygen concentration and flow velocity of the exhalant

383 flow of a mussel may be more reliable predictors of the suitability of a host for the incubation of
384 eggs and embryos than species identity, at least in the case of *R. ocellatus*. This effect arises
385 because host quality, irrespective of species, can change markedly over a spawning season
386 (Kitamura 2005; Smith 2017). The spawning season of *R. ocellatus* is relatively protracted,
387 starting in April and typically lasting 6 months (Kitamura 2005; Pateman-Jones et al. 2011). As
388 the spawning season advances mussels fill with eggs and embryos and progressively decline in
389 quality as incubation sites. Towards the end of the spawning season bitterling offspring emerge
390 from mussels, which consequently increase in quality as hosts (Kitamura 2005). While we have
391 only tested host mussels without bitterling eggs and embryos to standardise host condition, the
392 capacity to distinguish the relative quality of an individual mussel when making oviposition-site
393 decisions may be more critical than host species discrimination. Additional studies to compare
394 egg ejection rates among more host species and hosts with varying intensity of infection by *R.*
395 *ocellatus* would help clarify variation in host preference.

396 The host mussel choice by *R. ocellatus* was adaptive in terms of the use of host mussel
397 populations that tended to be least effective in ejecting *R. ocellatus* eggs. We have previously
398 detected large differences in capability of European unionid hosts to eject the eggs of the
399 European bitterling, *R. amarus*, between areas of recent and ancient association (Reichard et al.
400 2010). However, cross resistance experiments between host mussel and fish parasite populations
401 from areas of ancient and recent sympatry were not possible in that study due to the lack of legal
402 approval of animal transport between study regions. The current findings with *R. ocellatus* and
403 their host mussels are consistent with the prediction that naive hosts, evolving in the absence of
404 parasites, relax costly resistance mechanisms in comparison with hosts continuously exposed to
405 parasites. Similarly, relaxed selection by brood parasitic brown-headed cowbirds *Molothrus ater*

406 (Boddaert) on allopatric populations of American robins *Turdus migratorius* L. and gray catbirds
407 *Dumetella carolinensis* (L.) resulted in a lower frequency of ejection of parasite eggs compared
408 with sympatric populations (Kuehn 2009). Analogous observations have been found in other
409 host-parasite systems, such as for the susceptibility of isopod populations to an acanthocephalan
410 parasite (Hasu et al. 2009), and infection by the yeast parasite *Metschnikowia bicuspidata*
411 (Metschnikow) of the crustacean *Daphnia dentifera* Forbes (Auld et al. 2013).

412 No effect of local coexistence on host mussel preference across *R. ocellatus* populations
413 failed to support the existence of fine-scale local adaptations of *R. ocellatus* to avoid their locally
414 coexisting population of hosts. Parasites are frequently reported to avoid local hosts due to their
415 better resistance, for example in the relationship between the bacterial parasite *Holospora*
416 *undulata* Hafkine and its protozoan host *Paramecium caudatum* Ehrenberg (Adiba et al. 2010).
417 However, the lack of host-parasite coevolution at a local scale could be explained by other
418 factors. First, studies based on parasites with broad host ranges are less likely to demonstrate
419 local parasite adaptation than those on parasites with narrow host ranges, probably due to
420 evolutionary lags during diffuse coevolution of generalist parasites with their hosts (Lajeunesse
421 and Forbes 2002). In terms of our study system, this would predict more localised coevolutionary
422 dynamics in host specialist bitterling, such as *R. sinensis* (Reichard et al. 2007a). Second, the
423 potential for large-scale dispersal by at least one of the partners mitigates the opportunity of fine-
424 scaled local adaptation. All unionid mussels have a larval stage (glochidium) that attaches to host
425 fish for days to months and may be dispersed over large distances (Dillon 2000). Third, in some
426 systems, local adaptation of the parasite can be observed over a scale of meters (Lively and
427 Jokela 1996), while in other systems parasites exhibit no local adaptation within-regions but do
428 express adaptations at larger distances (Hanks and Denno 1994). Hence, although it is possible

429 that *R. ocellatus* exhibit no local adaptation at the scale tested here, we cannot preclude local
430 adaptation on a larger environmental scale, particularly given the limited number of test
431 populations and the use of naive mussels as one of the host populations.

432 Understanding the coevolutionary dynamics between *R. ocellatus* and *A. woodiana* has
433 become a pressing question because *A. woodiana* is an invasive species across Europe, Asia, and
434 the Americas (Watters 1997; Douda et al. 2012). The invasive range of *A. woodiana* includes
435 large parts of the range of the European bitterling *R. amarus* (Reichard et al. 2015). While we
436 show that *A. woodiana* was capable of ejecting a large proportion of eggs oviposited by *R.*
437 *ocellatus* in its gills, its ejection rate of *R. amarus* eggs is even greater (Reichard et al. 2012;
438 Reichard et al. 2015). Notably, *R. ocellatus* is itself an invasive species in several Asian
439 countries (Welcomme 1988; Kawamura et al. 2001; Vasil'eva et al. 2015). Our results show a
440 preference for allopatric, evolutionarily naive hosts, regardless of host species identity. In order
441 to establish, persist and spread without their native hosts, introduced parasites must either be
442 generalist species that can infect a large range of new hosts, with at least some degree of success,
443 or specialize on a new host species in the novel communities they invade (Font 2003; Frankel et
444 al. 2015). One of the primary reasons for the invasive success of *R. ocellatus* may be its capacity
445 to exploit a wide variety of mussel species and populations as hosts, coupled with the fitness
446 advantage demonstrated here in using naive host populations due to their lower egg ejection rates
447 (Reichard et al. 2010). Given that several successful parasite invasions have been attributed to
448 the use of naive hosts species owing to the absence of an effective adaptive response (Kelehear et
449 al. 2015), *R. ocellatus* is predicted to successfully reproduce and establish non-native populations
450 in other geographic regions.

451

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613 **Figure Captions**

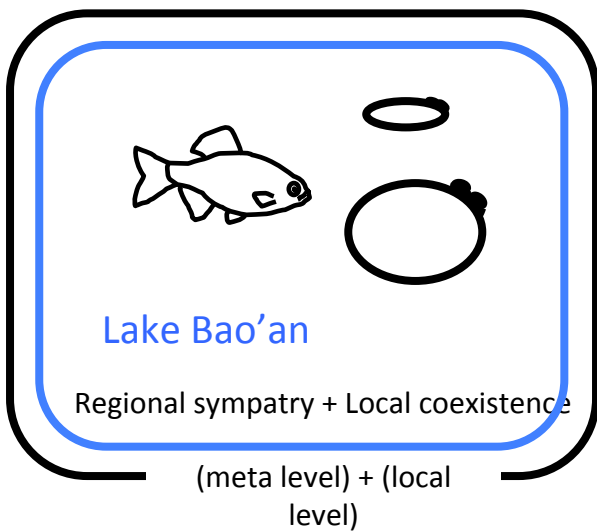
614 **Figure 1** An illustration of experimental populations with regard to their reciprocal coexistence
615 at a meta-level (sympatry/allopatry) and local coexistence (locally coexisting/ecologically naïve).
616 Each experimental pair of *Rhodeus ocellatus* was tested against four contrasting pairs of host
617 mussels, with all four trials completed over 1-3 days. The trials represented contrasts between (1)
618 *Anodonta woodiana* from two populations; and (2) *Unio douglasiae* from two populations, each
619 contrasting geographically sympatric and allopatric hosts; (3) *A. woodiana* and *U. douglasiae*
620 from Lake Bao'an, contrasting host species that both locally coexisted with *R. ocellatus*; and (4)
621 *A. woodiana* and *U. douglasiae* from Lake Qinglan, contrasting host species that were both
622 ecologically naïve to *R. ocellatus*. Note that since two *R. ocellatus* populations were used overall,
623 each contrast had additional predictions that are articulated in Table 1.

624
625 **Figure 2** Mean rate of oviposition of female *R. ocellatus* with respect to (a) sympatry/allopatry
626 between *R. ocellatus* (parasite) and host mussel populations, (b) local coexistence between *R.*
627 *ocellatus* (parasite) and host mussel populations, (c) host mussel species regardless their
628 sympatry or local coexistence with *R. ocellatus*. Values represent mean and 95% confidence
629 intervals from model estimates (Table 2a), produced in the R package *effects*. An asterisk
630 indicates $P < 0.05$.

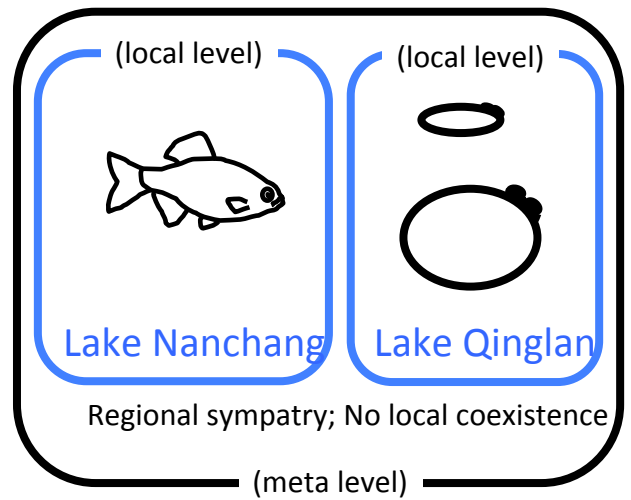
631
632 **Figure 3** Mean rate of *R. ocellatus* egg ejection by host mussels with respect to (a)
633 sympatry/allopatry between *R. ocellatus* (parasite) and host mussel populations; (b) local
634 coexistence between *R. ocellatus* (parasite) and host mussel populations; (c) host mussel species
635 regardless their sympatry or local coexistence with *R. ocellatus*. Values represent mean and 95%

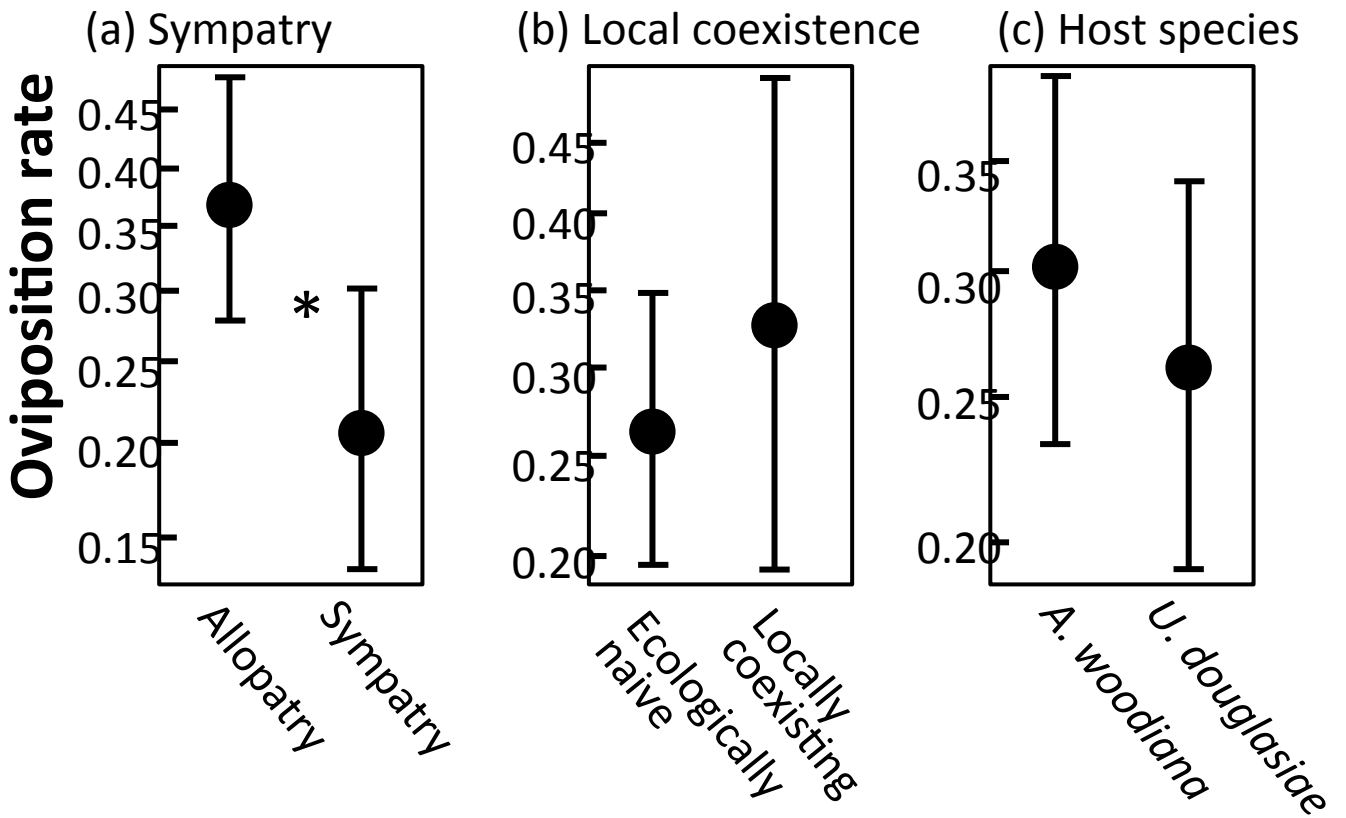
636 confidence intervals from model estimates (Table 2b), produced in the R package *effects*. An
637 asterisk indicate $P < 0.05$, asterisk in parentheses indicates $P = < 0.10$.

Hubei Province



Jianxi Province





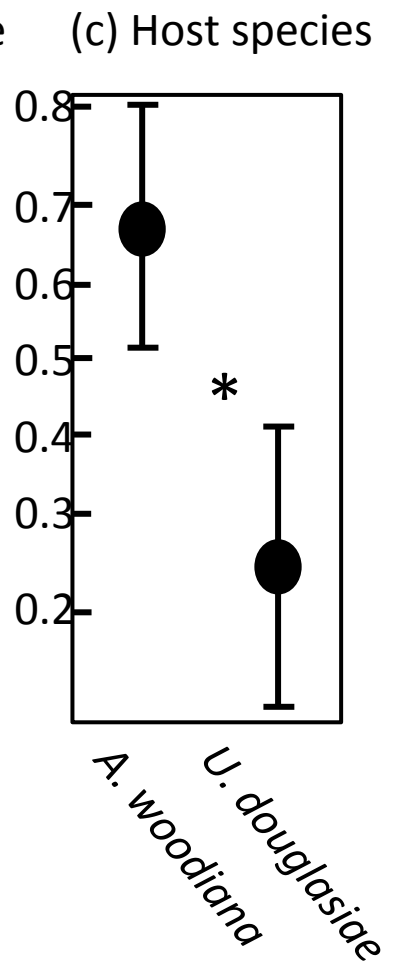
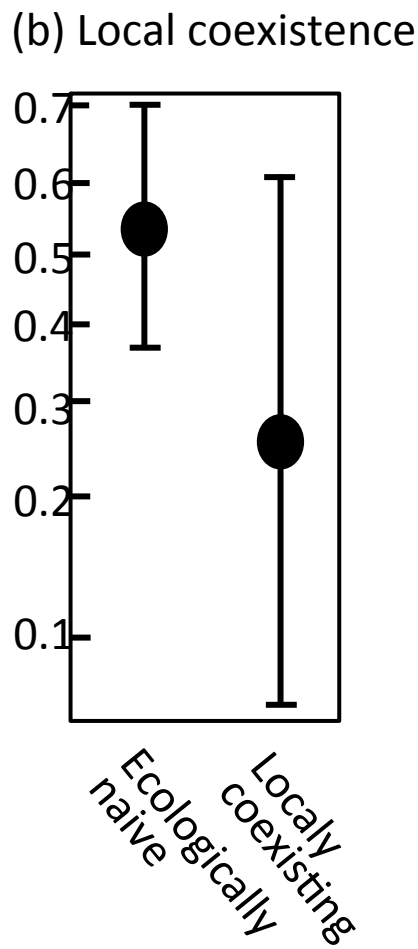
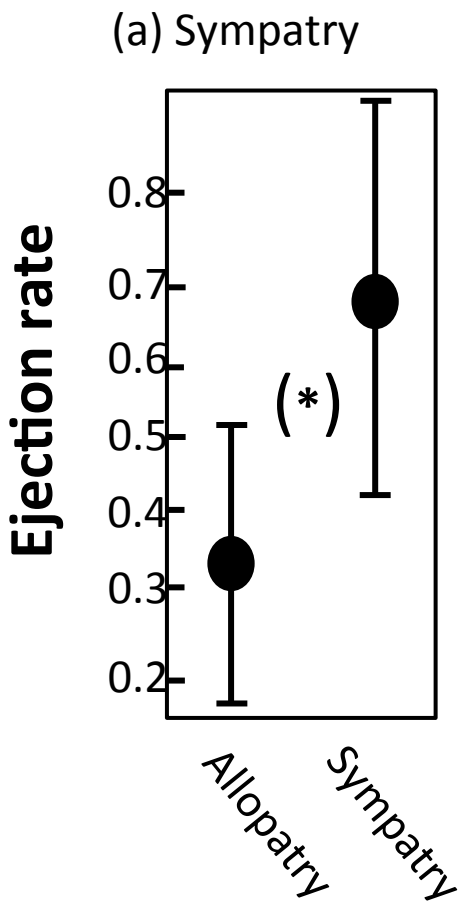


Table 1. Experimental design showing the predicted responses of parasitic *R. ocellatus* and host mussels for scenarios when parasite specialisation (tested using parasite oviposition preference) or host resistance (tested using host egg ejection) dominate the current coevolutionary state. Support for each contrast is indicated by an asterisk (at $P < 0.05$) or asterisk in brackets (at $P = < 0.10$).

Response variable	Covariate	Covariate level	Predictions		Support
			Parasite specialisation	Host resistance	
Parasite oviposition	Sympatry	Sympatric	✓	✗	*
		Allopatric	✗	✓	
Parasite oviposition	Local coexistence	Coexisting	✓	✗	—
		Not coexisting	✗	✓	
Host egg ejection	Sympatry	Sympatric	✗	✓	*
		Allopatric	✓	✗	
Host egg ejection	Local coexistence	Coexisting	✗	✓	—
		Not coexisting	✓	✗	

✓ – preference for this host supports the prediction

✗ – preference for this host contradicts the prediction

Table 2. Estimates and *P*-values of fixed effects from GLMMs on (a) oviposition rate; and(b) egg ejections. Significant *P*-values are indicated in bold.

Variable	Source	Estimate	S.E.	<i>z</i>	<i>P</i>
(a) Oviposition	Intercept	-0.528	0.241	-2.19	0.028
	Sympatry _(sympatric)	-0.834	0.388	-2.15	0.032
	Local coexistence _(coexisting)	0.458	0.544	0.84	0.401
	Sympatry : Local coexistence	-0.370	0.633	-0.58	0.559
	Mussel species _(U.douglasiae)	-0.135	0.319	-0.42	0.673
	Male leading	0.364	0.137	2.66	0.008
	Female <i>R. ocellatus</i> size	-0.115	0.152	-0.76	0.447
	Male <i>R. ocellatus</i> size	0.262	0.143	1.83	0.067
(b) Egg ejection	Intercept	0.490	0.388	1.26	0.207
	Sympatry _(sympatric)	1.509	0.823	1.83	0.067
	Local coexistence _(coexisting)	-1.230	0.966	-1.27	0.203
	Mussel species _(U.douglasiae)	-1.872	0.529	-3.54	<0.001
	Female <i>R. ocellatus</i> size	0.306	0.288	1.06	0.288
	Male <i>R. ocellatus</i> size	-0.281	0.262	-1.07	0.283