UC San Diego UC San Diego Previously Published Works

Title

Multiple paternity in leopard shark (Triakis semifasciata) litters sampled from a predominantly female aggregation in La Jolla, California, USA

Permalink https://escholarship.org/uc/item/8m71r82d

Authors

Nosal, Andrew P Lewallen, Eric A Burton, Ronald S

Publication Date

2013-08-01

DOI

10.1016/j.jembe.2013.05.002

Peer reviewed

1	Multiple paternity in leopard shark (<i>Triakis semifasciata</i>) litters sampled from a predominantly
2	female aggregation in La Jolla, California, USA
3	
4	Andrew P. Nosal ^a *, Eric A. Lewallen ^b , and Ronald S. Burton ^a
5	
6	^a Marine Biology Research Division, Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of
7	California – San Diego, 9500 Gilman Drive, La Jolla, CA 92093, USA
8	
9	^b Department of Biological Sciences, University of Toronto Scarborough, 1265 Military Trail,
10	Toronto, Ontario, M1C 1A4, Canada
11	
12	
13	* Corresponding Author:
14	E-mail: anosal@ucsd.edu
15	Phone: +1 (908) 240 3404
16	Fax: +1 (858) 534 1305
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	

24 Abstract

25 The number of sires per litter was determined for the leopard shark (Triakidae: Triakis semifasciata) to investigate the potential effect of female-biased aggregation behavior on the 26 27 frequency of multiple paternity ($F_{\rm MP}$). Four highly polymorphic microsatellite markers were 28 developed and used to genotype 449 pups from 22 litters (20.4 ± 7.0 pups per litter) sampled 29 from pregnant females collected from a female-dominated leopard shark aggregation in La Jolla, California, USA. Multiple paternity was detected in 8 of 22 litters ($F_{MP} = 36.4\%$), each having 30 31 two sires per litter. The relatively low $F_{\rm MP}$ (compared to other shark species) is generally 32 consistent with the hypothesis that female aggregation behavior reduces mating attempts by males and thus limits genetic polyandry. Significant interannual variability in F_{MP} observed 33 between two years of the study (2010: $F_{MP} = 20.0\%$, n = 10, and 2011: $F_{MP} = 83.3\%$, n = 6) 34 35 appears to be correlated with the frequency of males in the aggregation. Although females may 36 benefit indirectly from mating with multiple males by promoting sperm competition and hedging 37 against nonviable sperm, the most probable explanation for genetic polyandry in the leopard 38 shark appears to be "convenience polyandry," where females acquiesce to superfluous mating 39 attempts if the costs of resistance outweigh the costs of capitulation. Thus, F_{MP} is expected to 40 increase as the male-to-female ratio increases and the capacity of females to resist coercive males 41 decreases at the time and place of mating.

- 42
- 43
- 44
- 45 Keywords

46 elasmobranch; microsatellite; multiple paternity; paternal skew; shark; sperm competition

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Multiply sired litters (multiple paternity) are common in elasmobranch fishes; however, 49 the percentage of litters sired by multiple males (frequency of multiple paternity, $F_{\rm MP}$) exhibits 50 strong inter- and intraspecific variability (reviewed in Byrne and Avise, 2012). Recent work 51 suggests $F_{\rm MP}$ is related to the encounter rate between potential mates (Daly-Engel et al., 2010), 52 which varies among and within species depending on the extent of sexual segregation (reviewed 53 in Wearmouth and Sims, 2008). For example, protracted sexual segregation might account for 54 the low $F_{\rm MP}$ in the shortspine spurdog (*Squalus mitsukurii*, $F_{\rm MP} = 11.1\%$; Daly-Engel et al., 55 2010) and the spiny dogfish (S. acanthias, $F_{MP} = 17.2\%$; Veríssimo et al., 2011), whereas the 56 comparatively high $F_{\rm MP}$ in the brown smoothhound (*Mustelus henlei*, $F_{\rm MP} = 93.0\%$) might be due 57 to the formation of dense mixed-sex mating aggregations (Byrne and Avise, 2012). 58 Predominantly female aggregations are particularly common in sharks (reviewed in Jacoby et al., 59 2011) and are often hypothesized to function as a means of reducing male harassment in the form 60 of potentially injurious mating attempts (Economakis and Lobel, 1998; Klimley, 1985; Sims et al., 2001). If this is true, then female avoidance of superfluous copulations should limit genetic 61 62 polyandry and result in a low $F_{\rm MP}$. The present study tests this prediction using the leopard shark 63 (Triakidae: Triakis semifasciata) as a model. 64 The leopard shark is a nearshore benthic species that forms dense aggregations of mature 65 females throughout California, USA (Ebert and Ebert, 2005; Hight and Lowe, 2007; Nosal et al., 66 2013) and has an annual reproductive cycle; females give birth to 6 - 36 pups in April – June 67 following a gestation period of 10 - 11 months, and thus mating, ovulation, and fertilization is 68 expected to occur within a narrow window (1 - 2 months) following parturition (Castro, 2011;

69 Ebert, 2003). Sperm storage and the potential for multiply sired litters are likely in *T*.

70 semifasciata, given the well-developed oviducal gland in mature females (Ebert and Ebert,

71 2005), where sperm storage has been documented in other triakid sharks, including *Mustelus*

canis (Conrath and Musick, 2002), *M. antarcticus* (Storrie et al., 2008), and *M. asterias* (Farrell
et al., 2010).

The present study examines $F_{\rm MP}$ for leopard shark litters acquired from pregnant females aggregating off La Jolla, California, USA. This site-specific aggregation, which forms annually in June – December and consists of > 95% mature females, has been hypothesized to function, in part, as a refuge from males after mating elsewhere (Nosal et al., 2013); thus, due to the local scarcity of males, $F_{\rm MP}$ was hypothesized to be low.

79

80 2. Methods

81 2.1. Sample Collection and DNA Extraction

82 Seventeen dams were captured by hook and line from the La Jolla aggregation site 83 (32.853°N, 117.263°W) between the months of September and November of 2007 – 2011 (well 84 after ovulation and fertilization, so as to not artificially reduce the period in which additional 85 copulations might have been procured) and transported to an open flow-through aquarium 86 facility at Scripps Institution of Oceanography. In captivity, eight females gave birth naturally to 87 litters of term pups, three were sacrificed, and six died of undetermined causes and prematurely 88 delivered some or all of their pups shortly before death. Dead dams were dissected, whereas 89 surviving dams and pups were donated to other laboratories, educational facilities, or released 90 with permission from the California Department of Fish and Game. In addition to live-collected 91 sharks, five pregnant females were found dead at the aggregation site during the course of the 92 study (also between the months of September and November), salvaged, and included in the

multiple paternity analysis. Fin clips were collected from all dams and pups and preserved in
95% ethanol and stored at -80°C. To obtain baseline population genetic information, fin clips
were collected from an additional 126 adult *T. semifasciata* at the aggregation site (tagged and
released) during the same period. Total genomic DNA was extracted from each fin clip using a
DNeasy Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Inc., Valencia, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

98

99 2.2. Microsatellite Marker Development and Genotyping

100 Four microsatellite markers (*Tse01*, *Tse02*, *Tse03*, and *Tse04*) were developed from 101 enriched DNA libraries constructed specifically for T. semifasciata and screened according to the 102 methods described by Jones et al. (2002). Briefly, total genomic DNA was digested with a 103 cocktail of seven blunt-end restriction enzymes. Resulting fragments in the size range of 300 to 104 750 base pairs were hybridized to 5-prime-biotinylated oligonucleotides (microsatellite probes) 105 and subjected to streptavidin magnetic bead capture (Millipore, Billerica, MA). Captured 106 fragments were eluted and then amplified, cloned, and sequenced. Microsatellite-containing 107 fragment sequences were identified by inspection and PCR primers were designed to anneal to 108 flanking regions using DesignerPCR v1.03 (Research Genetics, Inc., Huntsville, AL). Forward 109 primers were 5-prime-labeled with 6-FAM, HEX, or TET dyes for fluorescent visualization 110 (Table 1).

Optimized PCR reactions for loci *Tse*01, *Tse*03, and *Tse*04 consisted of 25 μl of 1x
GoTaq Green Master Mix (Promega Corporation, Fitchburg, WI), 10 μM each forward and
reverse primer, and 50 – 100 ng of DNA template. For locus *Tse*02, the optimized PCR reaction
consisted of 25 μl of 1x iTaq Buffer (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, CA), 1.5 mM MgCl₂,
200 μM each dNTP, 10 μM each forward and reverse primer, and contained 1.25 units iTaq

116 DNA Polymerase (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, CA) and 50 – 100 ng DNA template. 117 PCR amplification on a MyCycler thermal cycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, CA) 118 consisted of an initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min, followed by 33, 28, 32, or 35 cycles (for 119 loci Tse01, Tse02, Tse03, and Tse04, respectively) of 30 s at 95°C, 30 s at 56°C, and 1 min at 120 72°C, followed by a final extension at 72°C for 45 min. PCR products (including negative 121 controls), ROX-labeled DNA ladder (MegaBACE ET550-R; GE Healthcare Life Sciences, 122 Piscataway, NJ), and locus-specific allelic standards (positive controls) were resolved 123 concurrently on 0.4 mm thick, large-format (33 x 39 cm) vertical polyacrylamide denaturing gels 124 according to the methods described by Gruenthal and Burton (2008). Gels were electrophoresed 125 at 60 W for 2 – 4 h and fluorescently scanned on a Typhoon 9410 Variable Mode Imager 126 (Molecular Dynamics, Inc., Sunnyvale, CA). Allele sizes were determined using ImageQuant 127 software (Molecular Dynamics, Inc., Sunnyvale, CA) and manually scored, independently by two laboratory personnel. Discrepancies between scorers were rare, and settled by re-screening 128 129 those particular individuals to confirm the genotype.

130

131 2.3. Statistical Analyses

For each microsatellite locus, the number of alleles, allele frequency distribution, observed and expected heterozygosity, and conformance to the expectations of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) were determined for the population sample (n = 148, including the 22 dams) using Genepop v4.1 (Rousset, 2008). MicroChecker v1 (van Oosterhout et al., 2004) was used to infer potential genotyping errors due to null alleles and stutter peaks. Genotypic arrays of each litter were evaluated manually to ensure all progeny shared a maternal allele at each locus and to count the number of paternal alleles. A litter having three or more paternal alleles at one or more loci was considered to be multiply sired. Gerud v2.0 (Jones, 2005) was used to estimate the minimum number of sires for each litter and determine the genotype of each sire. If no single solution of paternal genotypes could explain the progeny genotypic array, alternative solutions were ranked by relative probability based on patterns of Mendelian segregation and expected genotypic frequencies in the population (Jones, 2005). The most probable solution of paternal genotypes was used to assign a sire to each of the progeny and thus determine paternal skew for each litter.

146 As a *post-hoc* power assessment, the probability of detecting multiple paternity (PrDM) 147 was calculated in PrDM v1 (Neff and Pitcher, 2002). This program used a Monte Carlo 148 simulation to generate 10,000 reconstructed genotypes of multiply sired litters based on the 149 number of microsatellite loci, the number of alleles and allelic frequency distribution at each 150 locus, maternal genotype, litter size, numbers of sires (at least two), and hypothetical skew of 151 sire reproductive success in the litter (paternal skew; 50:50, 60:40, 70:30, 80:20, 90:10, and 152 95:5). PrDM is the proportion of 10,000 multiply sired litters that contain at least three unique 153 paternal alleles at one or more loci and would therefore be correctly identified as multiply sired. 154 This test was particularly relevant for apparently singly sired litters. The Bayesian program 155 FMM v1 (Neff et al., 2002) was used to generate a 95% confidence interval (CI) for the observed 156 frequency of multiple paternity ($F_{\rm MP}$ = number of multiply sired litters / total number of litters 157 analyzed * 100) based on the expected $F_{\rm MP}$ given the allelic frequency distribution of the 158 population.

Finally, to investigate why some litters might have exhibited multiple paternity, but not others, the following tests were conducted. A Mann-Whitney *U* test was used to determine whether dam total length (TL) and litter sizes were each significantly different between multiply and singly sired litters. A chi-squared (χ^2) test was used to determine if paternal skew in multiply sired litters was significantly different from 50:50, and whether paternal skew inside each uterine horn was significantly different from the overall paternal skew. Lastly, Fisher's Exact Tests were used to determine whether the number of singly and multiply sired litters differed significantly between dams collected in 2010 and 2011, and whether the number of litters containing unfertilized ova differed between those sired by single and multiple males.

168

169 **3. Results**

170 Mean TL \pm SD of the dams (n = 22) was 142.6 ± 7.0 cm (range: 130 - 156 cm). Litters 171 of term pups (n = 8) were born in captivity between 4 April and 1 July (mean date of birth \pm SD 172 = 16 May \pm 34 d). Mean litter size \pm SD (n = 20) was 21.8 \pm 5.6 pups (range: 11 – 33 pups); 173 litters I and K were excluded from this calculation because each was partially consumed by 174 several large swell sharks (Cephaloscyllium ventriosum) being held temporarily in the same tank 175 at the time of birth. The surviving pups from litters I (n = 9) and K (n = 4) were nevertheless 176 genotyped; thus, the mean number of progenv genotyped \pm SD was 20.4 ± 7.0 pups (range: 4 -177 33 pups). The ratio of male to female pups did not deviate from 50:50 (Wilcoxon Signed-Rank 178 Test; W = 4.0, n = 18, P = 0.924), nor did the ratio of pups found in the left to right horns of the 179 uterus (W = -4.0, n = 11, P = 0.857). These findings are summarized in Table 2. A positive 180 linear relationship was observed between litter size and dam TL (excluding litters H and K; Fig. 1) with a slope (b) that was significantly different from zero (b = 0.526, $r^2 = 0.429$, n = 20, P = 0.429181 182 (0.002). In each of eight litters (36.4%), 1 - 3 unfertilized eggs were found either at the anterior 183 end of the uterine horns, or delivered along with the pups. Mating scars were not evident in any 184 of the 148 females sampled.

The suite of four microsatellite markers exhibited moderate to high polymorphism (9 - 23 alleles per locus; Appendix 1) in the screened population sample (n = 148, including the 22 dams) and conformed to the expectations of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (Table 1). There was no evidence of linkage disequilibrium between the four loci (tested in Genepop v4.1; Rousset, 2008).

190 In total, 22 dams and 449 pups were genotyped for paternity analysis. Multiple paternity 191 was detected in 8 of 22 litters ($F_{\rm MP}$ = 36.4%, Bayesian estimate of 95% CI: 19 – 57%). No more 192 than four paternal alleles were observed at each locus, consistent with having one or two sires 193 per litter (Table 2). Paternal skew was high in the multiply sired litters; the dominant of the two 194 males (having higher reproductive success) sired up to 95.5% of the pups in a given litter (mean 195 \pm SD = 76.0 \pm 18.1%). Paternal skew deviated significantly from the expected ratio of 50:50 in multiply sired litters R, T, U, and V ($\chi^2 = 13.500 - 20.571$, d.f. = 1, n = 22 - 28, p < 0.0002), but 196 not in litters E, I, K, and S ($\chi^2 < 3.841$, d.f. = 1, n = 4 - 30, p > 0.05). Of the eight multiply sired 197 198 litters, GERUD 2.0 produced a unique paternal skew solution for five litters (E, I, R, S, and U) 199 and two possible paternal skew solutions for three litters (K, T, and V). However, the most likely (reported) solutions for two of these litters (T and V) were $> 4 \times 10^3$ times more probable 200 201 than their alternatives. Two nearly equally likely paternal skew solutions (3:1 and 2:2) were 202 returned for litter K. Given that high paternal skew decreases PrDM, the empirically derived 203 $F_{\rm MP}$ of 36.4% might underestimate the true $F_{\rm MP}$. For example, if one half of the apparently 204 singly sired litters (n = 7) had paternal skews of 90:10 (two thirds, n = 4.67) or 90:5 (one third, n 205 = 2.33), and given a mean *post-hoc* PrDM of 0.865 (90:10) and 0.647 (95:5) for the apparently 206 singly sired litters, then 1-2 of these might actually have been sired by multiple males, and not 207 detected. Thus, $F_{\rm MP}$ for T. semifasciata might be as high as 40.9 – 45.5%, which still falls within the 95% CI. Finally, significant interannual variability in F_{MP} was observed between two years of the study (2010: $F_{MP} = 20.0\%$, n = 10, and 2011: $F_{MP} = 83.3\%$, n = 6; Fisher's Exact Test, n = 16, P < 0.035) (Table 2).

In comparing singly and multiply sired litters, no significant differences were found in dam TL (Mann-Whitney Test, U = 73, n = 22, P = 0.259) or litter size (excluding litters I and K; Mann-Whitney Test, U = 52, n = 20, P = 0.435). In litter S, the paternal skew was significantly different from the overall skew of 17:13 in both the left (13:1, $\chi^2 = 7.476$, n = 14, d.f. = 1, P =0.006) and right uterine horns (4:12, $\chi^2 = 6.543$, n = 16, d.f. = 1, P = 0.011); however, no other litter exhibited this pattern.

217

218 **4. Discussion**

The present study is the first to demonstrate multiple paternity and estimate $F_{\rm MP}$ for T. 219 220 semifasciata. The observed F_{MP} of 36.4% is not the lowest reported for sharks (S. mitsukurii, $F_{\rm MP}$ = 11.1%; Daly-Engel et al., 2010); however, it certainly falls to the lower end of the 221 222 spectrum of $F_{\rm MP}$ reported for other species (reviewed in Byrne and Avise, 2012) and thus 223 generally supports the hypothesis that female aggregation behavior limits genetic polyandry. 224 Nevertheless, multiply sired litters were detected; the simplest explanation for these is that they 225 arose as a consequence of sexual conflict without any benefit to the females (Daly-Engel et al., 226 2010). However, it is important to address alternative explanations for these multiply sired litters 227 and for the relatively low observed F_{MP} .

Pratt and Carrier (2001) suggested repeated copulations might be required in some shark
species to ensure complete fertilization of ova; thus, multiple mating could increase fecundity.
Consistent with this hypothesis, unfertilized ova were present in eight of the 22 leopard shark

231 litters examined (36.4%), which, in dissected dams (n = 6), were located at the anterior end of 232 either or both uterine horns, nearest the oviducal gland. Assuming conservation of uterine 233 position throughout gestation, thus indicative of ovulation sequence (Smale and Compagno, 234 1997; Smale and Goosen, 1999), these unfertilized ova were last to pass through the sites of 235 fertilization, when sperm had perhaps already been depleted. However, because unfertilized ova 236 were found in both singly and multiply sired litters with no significant difference between the 237 two, multiple mating clearly did not ensure complete fertilization. Moreover, there was no 238 significant difference in litter size between multiply and singly sired litters, suggesting mating 239 multiply does not increase fecundity in T. semifasciata.

Females might benefit indirectly from multiple mating because the simultaneous presence of sperm from multiple males could promote sperm competition and cryptic female sperm choice (Fitzpatrick et al., 2012). If sperm competitiveness is heritable, then male progeny of males with competitive sperm should have greater reproductive success (Keller and Reeve, 1995).

Alternatively, if sperm competitiveness is related to genetic quality of the corresponding male

245 more generally, then promoting sperm competition could increase the chances that offspring will

inherit "good genes" (Jennions and Petrie, 2000; Sheldon, 1994; Yasui, 1997). Finally, cryptic

247 female choice among ejaculates may similarly increase offspring genetic quality or

complementarity (Fitzpatrick et al., 2012; Olsson and Madsen, 2001; Simmons, 2005).

249 Consistent with these hypotheses are the high paternal skews observed in four multiply sired *T*.

semifasciata litters (mean = 91.7:8.3), which suggest some form of post-copulatory sperm

selection, or else are an artifact of mating order. However, direct evidence supporting "good

252 genes" hypotheses (e.g., trading up, genetic bet-hedging) is lacking in elasmobranch fishes

253 (Daly-Engel et al., 2007; DiBattista et al., 2008).

254 Finally, interspecific differences in oviducal gland ultrastructure could generate variation 255 in sperm storage capability, and perhaps affect F_{MP} (Pratt, 1993). For example, Daly-Engel et al. 256 (2010) suggested the underdeveloped oviducal gland in the family Squalidae could limit sperm 257 storage (Hamlett, 2005; Hamlett et al., 1998), which could at least partly explain the low F_{MP} in 258 Squalus mitsukurii. Comparatively low F_{MP} in S. acanthias supports this hypothesis (Lage et al., 259 2008; Veríssimo et al., 2011), as does the high F_{MP} for *M. henlei* (Byrne and Avise, 2012), a 260 member of the family Triakidae, in which complex partitioning and sperm storage in the 261 oviducal gland have been documented (Conrath and Musick, 2002; Farrell et al., 2010; Storrie et 262 al., 2008). Given the apparent conservation of oviducal gland ultrastructure within taxonomic 263 families, T. semifasciata is expected to have a structurally complex oviducal gland; thus, limited 264 sperm storage does not readily explain the comparatively low F_{MP} observed for T. semifasciata. The most likely explanation for the interannual variability in F_{MP} for T. semifasciata is 265 266 interannual variability in the mate encounter rate. During a concurrent study of leopard shark 267 movement patterns using passive acoustic telemetry (Nosal, 2013), the mean number of tagged males detected d⁻¹ at the La Jolla aggregation (all males were tagged in July 2009 at a site 12 km 268 north of the La Jolla aggregation) was 0.009 (range: 0 - 1 male detected d⁻¹) in 2010 (F_{MP} = 269 20.0%) and 0.784 (range: 0 – 5 males detected d⁻¹) in 2011 (F_{MP} = 83.3%). The increased male 270 271 presence at the La Jolla aggregation site in 2011 suggests the mate encounter rate was also likely 272 higher during this year, which in turn led to increased mating activity and the higher F_{MP} that 273 year. Given this interannual variability in F_{MP} , multiple paternity likely arises in T. semifasciata 274 as a consequence of sexual conflict; despite the need for cooperation for successful intromission, 275 female sharks may acquiesce to most, if not all, mating attempts if the costs of resistance (e.g., 276 incurring injury) are expected to exceed the costs of capitulation (Daly-Engel et al., 2010;

DiBattista et al., 2008; Portnoy et al., 2007). Such "convenience polyandry" does not necessarily
exclude more elaborate evolutionary explanations of multiple paternity (e.g., genetic bethedging, trading up, hedging against insufficient or nonviable sperm); however, it would seem
unlikely, for example, that female leopard sharks would hedge their bets or trade up to more
attractive males more in one year than another.

282 In conclusion, the results of this study generally support the hypothesis that genetic 283 polyandry is limited by female aggregation behavior and that $F_{\rm MP}$ should largely reflect the 284 probability of encountering mates during each reproductive cycle (Daly-Engel et al., 2010). 285 However, the lack of mating scars in sampled females suggests mating may be less violent than 286 in other species, and that, at least for T. semifasciata, avoiding mating-related injuries per se may 287 not be the primary incentive for aggregation. Alternatively, avoiding male harassment may be an 288 additional benefit to aggregating near favorable resources such as foraging grounds and warm, 289 calm water (Nosal et al., 2013).

290

291 Acknowledgements

We thank the many people who volunteered their time in various aspects of this project, particularly S. Pennebaker, A. Barker, E. Kisfaludy, T. Smith, P. Zerofski, and C. Jew. This work was conducted under University of California – San Diego Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) protocol No. S00080. A. Nosal was supported by Graduate Research Fellowship Program (GRFP) and Integrated Graduate Education and Research Traineeship (IGERT, No. 0333444) awards from the National Science Foundation. Additional funding was provided by various private donors, including a generous gift from the Nosal family. We would

299	like to dedicate this paper to Jeffrey B. Graham, who provided valuable insight and
300	encouragement during the early stages of this project, but passed away before its completion.

- ...

- 323 Byrne, R.J., Avise, J.C., 2012. Genetic mating system of the brown smoothhound shark
- 324 (Mustelus henlei), including a literature review of multiple paternity in other elasmobranch
- 325 species. Marine Biology 159, 749-756
- 326
- 327 Castro, J.I., 2011. The Sharks of North America. Oxford University Press, New York, NY328
- 329 Conrath, C.L., Musick, J.A., 2002. Reproductive biology of the smooth dogfish, *Mustelus canis*,
- in the northwest Atlantic Ocean. Environmental Biology of Fishes 64, 367-377

- 332 Daly-Engel, T.S., Grubbs, R.D., Bowen, B.W., Toonen, R.J., 2007. Frequency of multiple
- 333 paternity in an unexploited tropical population of sandbar sharks (*Carcharhinus plumbeus*).
- 334 Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 64, 198-204
- 335
- 336 Daly-Engel, T.S., Grubbs, R.D., Feldheim, K.A., Bowen, B.W., Toonen, R.J., 2010. Is multiple
- 337 mating beneficial or unavoidable? Low multiple paternity and genetic diversity in the shortspine
- 338 spurdog Squalus mitsukurii. Marine Ecology Progress Series 403, 255-267
- 339
- 340 DiBattista, J.D., Feldheim, K.A., Gruber, S.H., Hendry, A.P., 2008. Are indirect genetic benefits
- 341 associated with polyandry? Testing predictions in a natural population of lemon sharks.
- 342 Molecular Ecology 17, 783-795
- 343

- 347 Ebert, D.A., Ebert, T.B., 2005. Reproduction, diet and habitat use of leopard sharks, *Triakis*
- *semifasciata* (Girard), in Humboldt Bay, California, USA. Marine and Freshwater Research 56,
 1089-1098

350

- 351 Economakis, A.E., Lobel, P.S., 1998. Aggregation behavior of the gray reef shark, Carcharhinus
- *amblyrhychos*, at Johnston Atoll, Central Pacific Ocean. Environmental Biology of Fishes 51,

353 129-139

354

- 355 Farrell, E.D., Mariani, S., Clarke, M.W., 2010. Reproductive biology of the starry smooth-hound
- 356 shark *Mustelus asterias*: geographic variation and implications for sustainable exploitation.
- 357 Journal of Fish Biology 77, 1505-1525

358

359 Fitzpatrick, J.L., Kempster, R.M., Daly-Engel, T.S., Collin, S.P., Evans, J.P., 2012. Assessing

the potential for post-copulatory sexual selection in elasmobranchs. Journal of Fish Biology 80,

361 1141-1158

- 362
- 363 Gruenthal, K.M., Burton, R.S., 2008. Genetic structure of natural populations of the California
- 364 black abalone (Haliotis cracherodii Leach, 1814), a candidate for endangered species status.
- 365 Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 355, 47-58

- 367 Hamlett, W.C. (Ed.), 2005. Reproductive biology and phylogeny of Chondrichthyes: sharks,
- 368 batoids and chimaeras, Vol 3. Science Publishers, Enfield, NH
- 369
- 370 Hamlett, W.C., Knight, D.P., Koob, T.B., Jezior, M., Luon, T., Rozycki, T., Brunette, N., Hysell,
- 371 M.K., 1998. Survey of oviducal gland structure and function in elasmobranchs. Journal of
- 372 Experimental Zoology 282, 399-420
- 373
- Hight, B.V., Lowe, C.G., 2007. Elevated body temperatures of adult female leopard sharks,
- 375 Triakis semifasciata, while aggregating in shallow nearshore embayments: Evidence for
- behavioral thermoregulation? Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology 352, 114-

378

- 379 Jacoby, D.M.P., Croft, D.P., Sims, D.W., 2011. Social behaviour in sharks and rays: analysis,
- 380 patterns and implications for conservation. Fish and Fisheries DOI: 101111/j1467-

381 2979201100436x

382

- Jennions, M.D., Petrie, M., 2000. Why do females mate multiply? A review of the genetic
- 384 benefits. Biological Reviews 75, 21-64
- 385
- Jones, A.G., 2005. GERUD 2.0: a computer program for the reconstruction of parental genotypes
- 387 from half-sib progeny arrays with known or unknown parents. Molecular Ecology Notes 5, 708-

388 711

- Jones, K.C., Levine, K.F., Banks, J.D., 2002. Characterization of 11 polymorphic tetranucleotide
 microsatellites for forensic applications in California elk (*Cervus elaphus canadensis*).
 Molecular Ecology Notes 2, 425-427
- 393
- 394 Keller, L., Reeve, H.K., 1995. Why do females mate with multiple males the sexually selected
- 395 sperm hypothesis. Advances in the Study of Behavior, Vol 24, 291-315

- 397 Klimley, A.P., 1985. Schooling in Sphyrna lewini, a species with low-risk of predation a non-
- 398 egalitarian state. Zeitschrift Fur Tierpsychologie-Journal of Comparative Ethology 70, 297-319399
- 400 Lage, C.R., Petersen, C.W., Forest, D., Barnes, D., Kornfield, I., Wray, C., 2008. Evidence of
- 401 multiple paternity in spiny dogfish (*Squalus acanthias*) broods based on microsatellite analysis.
- 402 Journal of Fish Biology 73, 2068-2074
- 403
- 404 Neff, B.D., Pitcher, T.E., 2002. Assessing the statistical power of genetic analyses to detect
- 405 multiple mating in fishes. Journal of Fish Biology 61, 739-750

- 407 Neff, B.D., Pitcher, T.E., Repka, J., 2002. A Bayesian model for assessing the frequency of
 408 multiple mating in nature. Journal of Heredity 93, 406-414
- 409
- 410 Nosal, A.P., 2013. Demography, movement patterns, and mating system of leopard sharks
- 411 (Triakis semifasciata) aggregating along the open coast of southern California, USA. PhD
- 412 dissertation. University of California San Diego, La Jolla, CA, USA

414	Nosal A.P., Cartamil D.P., Long J.W., Lührmann M., Wegner N.C., Graham J.B., 2013.
415	Demography and movement patterns of leopard sharks (Triakis semifasciata) aggregating near
416	the head of a submarine canyon along the open coast of southern California, USA.
417	Environmental Biology of Fishes DOI: 10.1007/s10641-012-0083-5
418	
419	Olsson, M., Madsen, T., 2001. Promiscuity in sand lizards (Lacerta agilis) and adder snakes
420	(Vipera berus): Causes and consequences. Journal of Heredity 92, 190-197
421	
422	Portnoy, D.S., Piercy, A.N., Musick, J.A., Burgess, G.H., Graves, J.E., 2007. Genetic polyandry
423	and sexual conflict in the sandbar shark, Carcharhinus plumbeus, in the western North Atlantic
424	and Gulf of Mexico. Molecular Ecology 16, 187-197
425	
426	Pratt, H.L., 1993. The storage of spermatozoa in the oviducal glands of western North Atlantic
427	sharks. Environmental Biology of Fishes 38, 139-149
428	
429	Pratt, H.L., Carrier, J.C., 2001. A review of elasmobranch reproductive behavior with a case
430	study on the nurse shark, Ginglymostoma cirratum. Environmental Biology of Fishes 60, 157-
431	188
432	
433	Rousset, F., 2008. GENEPOP ' 007: a complete re-implementation of the GENEPOP software
434	for Windows and Linux. Molecular Ecology Resources 8, 103-106
435	

- 436 Sheldon, B.C., 1994. Sperm competition in the chaffinch the role of the female. Animal437 Behaviour 47, 163-173
- 438
- 439 Simmons, L.W., 2005. The evolution of polyandry: sperm competition, sperm selection, and
- 440 offspring viability. Annual Review of Ecology Evolution and Systematics 36, 125-146
- 441
- 442 Sims, D.W., Nash, J.P., Morritt, D., 2001. Movements and activity of male and female dogfish in
- 443 a tidal sea lough: alternative behavioural strategies and apparent sexual segregation. Marine
- 444 Biology 139, 1165-1175
- 445
- 446 Smale, M.J., Compagno, L.J.V., 1997. Life history and diet of two southern African
- smoothhound sharks, *Mustelus mustelus* (Linnaeus, 1758) and *Mustelus palumbes* Smith, 1957
- 448 (Pisces : Triakidae). South African Journal of Marine Science-Suid-Afrikaanse Tydskrif Vir
- 449 Seewetenskap 18, 229-248
- 450
- Smale, M.J., Goosen, A.J.J., 1999. Reproduction and feeding of spotted gully shark, *Triakis megalopterus*, off the Eastern Cape, South Africa. Fishery Bulletin 97, 987-998
- 453
- 454 Storrie, M.T., Walker, T.I., Laurenson, L.J., Hamlett, W.C., 2008. Microscopic organization of
- 455 the sperm storage tubules in the oviducal gland of the female gummy shark (Mustelus
- 456 *antarcticus*), with observations on sperm distribution and storage. Journal of Morphology 269,
- 457 1308-1324
- 458

459	van Oosterhout, C., Hutchinson, W.F., Wills, D.P.M., Shipley, P., 2004. MICRO-CHECKER:
460	software for identifying and correcting genotyping errors in microsatellite data. Molecular
461	Ecology Notes 4, 535-538
462	
463	Veríssimo, A., Grubbs, D., McDowell, J., Musick, J., Portnoy, D., 2011. Frequency of multiple
464	paternity in the spiny dogfish Squalus acanthias in the western North Atlantic. Journal of
465	Heredity 102, 88-93
466	
467	Wearmouth V.J., Sims D.W., 2008. Sexual segregation in marine fish, reptiles, birds and
468	mammals: Behaviour patterns, mechanisms and conservation implications. Advances in Marine
469	Biology, Vol 54 54, 107-170
470	
471	Yasui, Y., 1997. A "good-sperm" model can explain the evolution of costly multiple mating by
472	females. American Naturalist 149, 573-584
473	
474	
475	
476	
477	
478	
479	
480	
481	





Figure 1. Linear regression of *Triakis semifasciata* litter size versus dam total length. Litters H and K are excluded because these litter sizes were artificially low (see Section 3). Singly sired litters appear as open circles and multiply sired litters appear as closed circles. Both a singly sired and a multiply sired litter occur at (145, 22). Regression statistics: $r^2 = 0.429$, p = 0.002; litter size = 0.526*(dam total length) - 52.826

488	Tables												
489													
490	Table 1												
491	Summary	of microsatellite characteristics for 1	48 presun	nably ur	nrelated	d Triakis semifa	sciata. A	nnea	ling	tempera	ature (T	a); num	5
492	PCR cycl	es (Cycl. #); size in base-pairs of the	cloned all	ele fron	1 which	n the primers we	ere design	ed (S	ize)	; numbe	er of inc	lividual	\mathbf{v}
493	screened ((N _i); allelic diversity (N _a); expected h	eterozygo	osity (H _I	E); obse	erved heterozyg	osity (H ₀)); <i>p</i> -v	alue	s from]	Hardy-	Weinbe	gı
494	exact tests	s for homozygote excess (P_{HW}); exclu	ision prob	ability ($(\mathbf{P}_{\mathrm{E}})$								
495													
	Locus	Primer Sequences	5' Label	T₄ (°C)	Cycl. #	Repeat Motif	Size (bp)	Z	Na	ΗĘ	Ho	Рнм	
	Tse01	F: 5'-TGTGCTTTTGTATTCCTAATCC-3'	HEX	56	33	(CA) ₁₄	239	148	9	0.785	0.791	0.502	
	Tse02	F: 5'-CACCAGCAATCTGTCACTTG-3' R: 5'-CTGTCTTAGCAATGGGTCTGT-3'	6-FAM	56	28	(CA) ₁₀ C(CA) ₁₈	123	148	23	0.868	0.885	0.674	.0
	Tse03	F: 5'-CAGTATTCTGGGATGGACTCTA-3' R: 5'-AAGCAGTGTCAGTGGTAGTAGG-3'	TET	56	32	(GATA) ₁₅	287	148	17	0.878	0.872	0.541	0
496	Tse04	F: 5'-CCTGCCTGGTTATTGACC-3' R: 5'-CCTGACTGAGGTGTGTGTAAGATT-3'	HEX	56	35	(CTAT) ₁₆	140	148	18	0.873	0.885	0.780	0
497													

501	Table 2
502	Summary information for litters of Triakis semifasciata. Multiply sired litters are indicated in bold. Dam ide
503	dam total length (TL) in cm; litter size (SIZE) in number of pups; ratio of female to male pups in a given litte
504	length of pups in a given litter \pm standard deviation (MEAN TL \pm SD) in cm; minimum number of sires sugg
505	SIRES) and skew of male reproductive success (in parentheses; SKEW); probability of detecting multiple pat
506	paternal skew scenarios
507	
508	^ Litter size artificially low because some pups were consumed by swell sharks (see Section 3)
509	* Significant departure from expected 50:50 ratio ($\chi^2 = 4.545$, n = 22, d.f. = 1, p = 0.033)
510	
511	
512	
513	
514	
515	
516	
517	

DA	M			R			PrDN					
	7	YEAR			MEAN TL	# SIRES	0.50:	0.60:	0.70:	0.80:	0.90:	0.95:
Ð	(cm)	ACQUIRED	SIZE	H:M	±SD (cm)	(SKEW)	0.50	0.40	0.30	0.20	0.10	0.05
Þ	150	2007	25	15:10	20.1 ± 0.6	1 (25:0)	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.995	0.922	0.714
в	142	2007	22	10:12	21.5 ± 0.7	1 (22:0)	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.991	0.895	0.667
c	132	2007	11	7:4	21.2 ± 0.6	1 (11:0)	0.997	0.994	0.975	0.907	0.675	0.423
D	140	2009	15	n.d.	4.1 ± 0.7	1 (15:0)	0.999	0.998	0.993	0.959	0.784	0.526
ш	130	2009	13	5:8	13.5 ± 0.8	2 (7:6)	0.999	0.997	0.987	0.938	0.734	0.477
т	147	2009	33	22:11	21.0 ± 0.5	1 (33:0)	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.965	0.809
G	145	2010	22	n.d.	4.3 ± 0.8	1 (22:0)	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.989	0.891	0.664
т	154	2010	25	n.d.	4.9 ± 0.9	1 (25:0)	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.995	0.921	0.713
_	147	2010	v6	4:5	12.8 ± 0.6	2 (5:4)	0.993	0.986	0.953	0.855	0.603	0.362
ے	142	2010	24	n.d.	3.8 ± 0.7	1 (24:0)	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.993	0.913	0.699
⊼	150	2010	4^	2:2	15.8 ± 0.6	2 (3:1)	0.801	0.772	0.685	0.536	0.313	0.167
	140	2010	13	7:6	13.0 ± 0.9	1 (13:0)	0.999	0.987	0.988	0.939	0.735	0.477
≤	137	2010	21	10:11	21.8 ± 0.7	1 (21:0)	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.988	0.882	0.645
z	137	2010	22	7:15	19.5 ± 2.0	1 (22:0)	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.992	0.903	0.681
0	132	2010	18	7:11	20.2 ± 0.7	1 (18:0)	0.999	0.999	0.997	0.973	0.825	0.574
P	143	2010	21	13:8	20.7 ± 0.5	1 (21:0)	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.988	0.883	0.652
Q	139	2011	25	9:16	15.5 ± 0.6	1 (25:0)	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.994	0.922	0.713
R	156	2011	24	12:12	20.6 ± 0.6	2 (21:3)	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.994	0.914	0.700
s	148	2011	30	17:13	20.2 ± 0.4	2 (17:13)	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.998	0.953	0.777
-	145	2011	22	6:16*	20.6 ± 0.5	2 (20:2)	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.990	0.893	0.667
	136	2011	22	12:10	18.3 ± 1.1	2 (21:1)	0.999	0.999	0.999	0.990	0.893	0.668
<	145	2011	28	16:12	21.6 ± 0.4	2 (26:2)	1.000	0.999	0.999	0.997	0.941	0.752

522 Appendix 1

523 Allele frequency distributions of four microsatellite loci for 148 presumably unrelated *Triakis semifasciata* individuals. Allele size

524 (SIZE) in bp; allele frequency (FREQ)

													253 0.010	251 0.088	245 0.010	243 0.020	241 0.054	239 0.243	237 0.307	229 0.041	217 0.226	SIZE FREQ	Tse01
125 0.003	123 0.034	120 0.003	119 0.064	117 0.003	115 0.024	113 0.226	111 0.216	110 0.003	109 0.115	108 0.014	107 0.010	106 0.007	104 0.074	100 0.003	99 0.014	96 0.003	88 0.010	86 0.037	72 0.010	68 0.010	66 0.101	SIZE FREQ	Tse02
					323 0.014	319 0.007	315 0.027	311 0.061	307 0.030	303 0.034	299 0.051	295 0.088	291 0.084	287 0.034	283 0.007	279 0.017	275 0.034	271 0.074	267 0.057	263 0.280	259 0.101	SIZE FREQ	Tse03
				180 0.007	176 0.037	172 0.007	168 0.027	164 0.037	160 0.030	156 0.074	152 0.017	148 0.071	144 0.054	140 0.051	136 0.064	132 0.024	128 0.061	124 0.068	120 0.304	116 0.064	112 0.003	SIZE FREQ	Tse04