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ECTOPARASITE PRESENCE

IN SELECT NORTHCENTRAL KANSAS BAT SPECIES

being

A Thesis Presented to the Graduate Faculty

of the Fort Hays State University

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

the Degree of Master of Science

by

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This thesis for

The Master of Science Degree

By

Elizabeth M. Schumann

has been approved

Chair, Supervisory Committee

Supervisory Committee

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PREFACE

This thesis is written in the style of the Journal of Mammalogy, to which a portion will be submitted for publication.

ABSTRACT

Working with other graduate students on a grant given to Fort Hays State University, from the Kansas Department of Wildlife, Parks and Tourism, I looked at presence and species of ectoparasites on bat species. The main goal of our grant was to quantify and qualify the status of the northern myotis (*Myotis septentrionalis*) in the state of Kansas, and to record data on any bycatch. I worked on our grant in the summer field seasons of 2016 and 2017, May to October, as described by the Indiana bat protocol.

Bats were captured by using mist nets set over ponds, small streams, and rivers in northcentral Kansas. I chose sites by using a combination of historical and acoustic data. I mist netted 61 nights in the field season of 2016, and 47 nights in the field season of 2017.

Over the field seasons of 2016 and 2017, I captured the following bat species: *Eptesicus fuscus, Lasiurus borealis, Lasiurus cinereus, Myotis septentrionalis, Nycticeius humeralis*, and *Perimyotis subflavus*. Only the evening bat, *N. humeralis*, was captured in numbers large enough to run statistical analyses. I compared the presence of ectoparasites between adults and juveniles, males and females, male reproductive status, and female reproductive status. When compared, adults had a significantly lower presence of ectoparasites than juveniles did ($X^2 = 47.38$, d.f. = 3, p = 0.00001). Only 33% of adult *N. humeralis* had ectoparasites, while 76% of juveniles had ectoparasites. Males had 72% ectoparasite presence while females only had 41% ectoparasite presence ($X^2 = 15.03$, d.f. = 3, p = 0.01792). When males were compared based on their reproductive status there was no statistically significant difference in rates of ectoparasite presence ($X^2 = 2.11$, d.f. = 3, p = 0.549328). Reproductive males had 62% ectoparasite presence and non-reproductive males had 82% ectoparasite presence. Female reproductive status was split into four separate categories; pregnant, lactating, postlactating, and non-reproductive. Pregnant females had 24% ectoparasite presence, lactating females had 40% ectoparasite presence, and post-lactating and non-reproductive females both had 46% ectoparasite presence ($X^2 = 7.42$, d.f. = 7, p = 0.38622). Of the ectoparasites collected on *N. humeralis*, 82% were mites, 13% were cimicids, 0.15% were chewing lice, and 5% were unable to be identified.

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I thank Fort Hays State University, including the Graduate School, Department of Biological Sciences, and the Choate Fellowship. Thank you to all of my fellow graduate students in the Department of Biological Sciences and the Department of Geosciences, who were all more than willing to share their advice and experience and offer their help when I needed it. Thank you to the members and volunteers of the bat crew: Katya Frank, Geneva McKown, Mitchell Meyer, Brittany Rogness, Adam Rusk, Angelica Sprague, and Holly Wilson.

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I thank all the landowners who were willing to let me sample bats on their property. Even with their busy schedules, they were willing to show me their land and made sure I had all the access that I needed.

I give special thanks to the United States Fish and Wildlife Service and the Kansas Department of Wildlife, Parks, and Tourism for funding the project. I thank Mr. Ed Miller and Mr. Zach Cordes for their time, help, and advice on my project.

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INTRODUCTION

The natural history of the northern myotis (*Myotis septentrionalis*), even in areas where it is widely distributed, is poorly understood. In Kansas, this species is listed as a species in need of conservation (SINC) and it was listed federally as threatened by the United States Fish and Wildlife Service in April 2015. The main cause of decline is thought to be due to White-nose Syndrome (WNS) caused by the fungus, *Pseudogymnoascus destructans*. Prior to my study, WNS was not observed within the state of Kansas, but recent surveys by the Kansas Department of Wildlife, Parks, and Tourism (KDWP&T) have confirmed the presence of WNS in Barber Cherokee, Comanche, Kiowa, Pratt, and Rooks counties in Kansas (Fig. 1).

To understand one aspect of the natural history of *M. septentrionalis*, I looked at ectoparasite presence and species. I did not limit my collection to only *M. septentrionalis*; I collected ectoparasites from the bycatch of Kansas bat species that I captured over the course of the 2016 and 2017 field seasons.

Many bat ectoparasites are still poorly known around the world (Ueshima 1972; Hopla et al. 1994; Ritzi 2004). An ectoparasite is defined as an organism that inhabits the skin, or outgrowths on the skin, of another organism (host) for varying periods, and might be detrimental to that organism (Hopla et al. 1994). I listed the ectoparasites typically associated with bats in the United States and Canada along with the bat species with which they were associated (Table 1; Jones et al. 1952; Sealander and Young 1955; Brennan and White 1960; Whitaker 1973; Whitaker and Wilson 1974; Whitaker and Loomis 1979; Dood and Kurta 1988; Dick et al. 2003; Reeves et al. 2007; Whitaker et al. 2007; Poissant and Broders 2008). Also, I listed whether the ectoparasites have been recorded in Kansas. All of these ectoparasites are known to feed on their host and can be detrimental to the health of the host if they are present in large numbers

1

(Whitaker and Wilson 1974; Herrin and Tipton 1975; Hudson et al. 2002; Sparks et al. 2003; Hudson et al. 2006; Lučan 2006; Bartonička and Gaisler 2007; Whitaker et al. 2007). The presence of ectoparasites can be quite taxing to the host and can result in behavioral changes to help the host attempt to rid itself of ectoparasites (ter Hofstede and Fenton 2005; Lučan 2006; Lourenço and Palmeirim 2007; Thrall et al. 2007). Some ectoparasites are species specific while others are more generalist and will parasitize a wide range of hosts (Krasnov et al. 2007). Below I summarize the life histories of some bat ectoparasites (primarily from Whitaker et al. 2009, except where cited).

Diptera: Nycteribiidae (Bat Flies)

Originally, this family was placed within the family Polyctenidae, as both groups are very similar, but later work separated out the two groups (Ritzi 2004). This family is divided into three subfamilies: Archinycteribiinae, Cyclopodiinae, and Nycteribiinae. The subfamilies Archinycteribiinae and Cyclopodiinae are located exclusively in the Western Hemisphere and are associated with pteropid bats. The remaining subfamily, Nycteribiinae, has a cosmopolitan distribution, and is associated mainly with the families Vespertilionidae and Rhinolophidae.

All members of this family are obligate, blood-sucking, specialized, true flies that are parasitic on bats. Although they are a true fly, all nycteribiids are completely wingless. They have a very spider-like appearance, and their head and legs originate from the dorsal thoracic surface. Like fleas, nycteribiids have several ctenidia (combs) that aid in the protection of joints and organs or might help to keep the organism from being brushed out of the fur.

Adult nycteribiids spend their entire lives on their bat host. The only exception is when a female leaves to lay a larva on the roost walls. Females lay fully developed larvae (prepupae)

that pupate immediately. Males never leave their host and try to mate with any females that they encounter.

Diptera: Streblidae (Bat Flies)

Streblids are exclusively ectoparasites of bats. This family is divided into five subfamilies: Nycteriboscinae, Ascodipterinae, Nycterophiliinae, Streblinae, and Trichobiinae. The Nycteriboscinae and the Ascodipterinae are limited to the Eastern Hemisphere, while the Nycterophiliinae, the Streblinae, and the Trichobiinae are limited to the Western Hemisphere.

All streblids are external parasites with the exception on the females in the genus *Ascodipteron*. These females embed themselves into the skin of bats, effectively becoming endoparasitic. Many streblids are winged, but there are several genera with vestigial wings. Even fully winged species, however, are weak flyers. Like the nycteribiids, females only leave the host to lay a single egg on the roost walls.

Siphonaptera (Fleas): Ischnopsyllidae

Adult fleas are hematophagous ectoparasites of birds and mammals that can cause problems such as anemia, dermatitis, hypersensitivity, and pathogen transmission (Hopla et al. 1994). Fleas are small, laterally compressed, wingless insects, usually with ctenidia (Whitaker et al. 2009; Bitam et al. 2010). The family Ischnopsyllidae feeds exclusively on the following bat families: Desmodontidae, Emballonuridae, Megadermatidae, Molossidae, Noctilionidae, Pteropodidae, Rhinolophidae, Rhinopomatidae, and Vespertilionidae (Marshall 1982; Ritzi 2004; Whitaker et al. 2009). Only the adults are parasitic, with a few exceptions.

Hemiptera (True Bugs): Cimicidae (Bed Bugs)

Most species of cimicid are obligate hematophages (Ritzi 2004). They live in bat roosts and bird nests, only coming out to feed. Many species of cimicid parasitize bats, swifts, swallows, or humans, by taking advantage of their gregarious, or social lifestyles (Reinhardt and Siva-Jothy 2007). Many cimicids feed on bats, but some species feed on humans, such as *Cimex hemipterus* and C. *lectularius*. Cimicids are small, oval-shaped, dorsoventrally flattened with non-functioning wing pads, and piercing-sucking mouthparts (Jones and Jordan 1991). They do not have ctenidia or clasping tarsi that are often seen on permanent parasites and can survive long periods without a blood meal.

Cimex adjunctus is a species that is commonly parasitic on bats and is often confused with *C. lectularius* because they are very similar in appearance (Jones and Jordan 1991). *Cimex adjunctus* and *C. lectularius* are so similar that they can only be told apart by using a microscope. The fringe hairs along the pronotum are as long as, or longer than the width of the eyes on *C. adjunctus* (Fig. 2). On *C. lectularius* the fringe hairs along the pronotum and are shorter than the width of the eye (Jones and Jordan 1991).

On bats, cimicids are associate with hairless areas such as the wings, forearms, uropatagium, feet, and penis (Reinhardt and Siva-Jothy 2007). *Cimex adjunctus* is a free-living ectoparasite of bats, but in the absence of their preferred host will feed on humans. This typically is seen when bats roost in a home and are then removed leaving the cimicids behind (Jones and Jordan 1991). *Cimex adjunctus* will hide in the cracks and crevices in bat roosting areas and make repeated visits to the bat throughout the day. This same behavior can be seen in *C. lectularius* as well (Jones and Jordan 1991; Reinhardt and Siva-Jothy 2007).

Effects on the host include an immune response, causing discomfort; secondary infection; physiological changes in the host; and a change in the host's reproductive success (Reinhardt and Siva-Jothy 2007). Bats can rid themselves of these ectoparasites by grooming or changing roost

sites. Moving roost sites can be very effective for bats to rid themselves of these parasites, as eggs are laid and cemented to the roost and the bats are unlikely to carry eggs to a new roost.

Hemiptera (True Bugs): Polyctenidae (Bat Bugs)

Bats bugs are a rare group of hemipterans (Polyctenidae) that are permanent ectoparasites of bats (Ritzi 2004; Whitaker et al. 2009). There is only one genus of polyctenid, *Hesperoctenes*, thought to occur in the New World (Ueshima 1972; Whitaker et al. 2009). In the United States, only two species are known from California and Texas, *H. eumops* and *H. hermsi*, respectively. These were associated with *Eumops perotis* (*E. californicus*) and *Tadarida macrotis* (*T. molossa*), respectively (Ueshima 1972).

Polyctenids can be confused with cimicids but have a few key differences that separate them. They have a longer, thinner body, lack eyes, and have modified limbs for clinging onto the hair of bats. Unlike cimicids, they are obligate ectoparasites that can only go a short time without feeding and spend their entire life on their host (Ritzi 2004; Whitaker et al. 2009). Polyctenids also are viviparous, a trait unique among Hemiptera, so they do not need to leave the host to lay eggs.

Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Argasidae and Ixodidae (Ticks)

The tick families Argasidae (soft-bodied ticks) and Ixodidae (hard-bodied ticks) both have been associated with bats, although argasids are more common. Many species of argasids are associated with birds, and some species associated with bats are even associated more commonly on birds. This could be due to ticks being habitat specific, rather than host specific. Thus, they are limited by their habitat, and will feed on anything with blood that uses that habitat. Hard ticks and soft ticks both must have a blood meal each time they molt. For hard ticks, the time spent on the host can be considerable, as they need to stay attached for several days so that they can molt. Soft ticks can do several feedings in rapid succession as they only need to feed for a few minutes at a time. Female soft ticks can lay up to 500 eggs in the roost in between each feeding, and all stages live in the roost.

Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Trombiculidae and Leeuwenhoekiidae (Chiggers)

"Chigger" is the term used to refer to the larval stage of a mite in the family Trombiculidae or the family Leeuwenhoekiidae. Many chiggers are parasites on vertebrates, while the free-living stages are predators of arthropods and their eggs, these stages are poorly known, however. As a result, classification of Trombiculidae and Leeuwenhoekiidae is based mostly on the larval chigger stage.

Chiggers, like ticks, are habitat restricted, and will feed on any vertebrate entering the area. These parasitic larvae serve as a method of dispersal, while the postlarval stages restrict a species to a habitat. This habitat restriction by these postlarval stages can limit the hosts available to larvae. Species associated with bats appear to be able to feed on other organisms, but they are restricted from other hosts by their habitat specializations. The species *Albeckia senase* is usually found on *Myotis velifer*, a primarily cave-roosting bat. In Kansas though, there was an instance where *A. senase* was recovered from the southern plains woodrat (*Neotoma micropus*), that was found in a cave where bats were roosting.

Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Cheyletidae (Mites)

Most cheyletid mites are free-living predators, but some could be parasitic on mammals (Whitaker et al. 2007; Whitaker et al. 2009). *Cheletonella vespertilionis* is known from a bat in Australia, and from a bat in Indiana. It also is known from the guano piles of a colony of

Eptesicus fuscus in Indiana, and the guano piles of *Myotis velifer* in Texas. Mites of this family are characterized by a large terminal claw, which is usually toothed, on the palpal tibia, each leg usually has two claws and an empodium (Whitaker et al. 2007).

Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Chirodiscidae (Mites)

Chirodiscid mites are very similar to listrophorid mites, but chirodiscid mites have legs 1 and 2 highly modified for grasping hairs. Four North American genera, *Alabidocarpus*, *Dentocarpus*, *Olabidocarpus*, and *Schizocarpus*, formerly were included in the family Listrophoridae. The genera *Alabidocarpus*, *Dentocarpus*, and *Olabidocarpus* have all been associated with bats in the United States (Whitaker et al. 2007).

Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Laelapidae (Mites)

Many laelapid mites are parasitic, but only a few are parasitic on bats. The four species known to be parasitic on bats are: *Notolaelaps novaguinea*, *Neolaelaps spinosa*, *N. vitzhumi*, and *N. palpispinosus* from bats in New Guinea, Asia, Australia, and oceanic islands. Other genera reported on bats, *Androlaelaps* and *Laelaps*, are found frequently on other hosts and are considered to be accidental infestations (Whitaker et al. 2007; Whitaker et al. 2009). Laelapid mites are identified by their jug-shaped epigynial plate, and an elongated peritreme (Whitaker et al. 2007).

Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Macronyssidae (Mites)

Macronyssid mites are related closely to laelapid mites but can be differentiated by a pronounced ridge on the palpal trochanter (Whitaker et al. 2007). Many species are parasitic on bats, and feed on their blood or body fluids. Genera known to feed on bats include: *Chiroptonyssus, Cryptonyssus, Macronyssus, Ornithonyssus*, and *Steatonyssus* (Whitaker and Wilson 1974; Sparks et al. 2003; Whitaker et al. 2007). Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Myobiidae (Mites)

Myobiid mites are parasitic solely on mammals, and several species are parasites of bats (Whitaker et al. 2007; Whitaker et al. 2009). The first pair of legs are modified for grasping hairs, the chelicerae are minute, as are the palpi (Whitaker et al. 2007). These mites feed directly on the host's tissue fluids. All stages of life stay on the host, with adult females gluing their eggs to the host's hair. Genera that parasitize bats include: *Acanthophthirius, Ewingana, Phyllostomybia, Pteracarus*, and *Radfordia* (Whitaker and Wilson 1974; Whitaker et al. 2007).

Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Pygmephoridae (Mites)

Within Pygmephoridae only the species *Pygmephorus mahunkai* has been recorded on bats, and thus far it is only known from the bat species *Myotis lucifugus*. Members of the genus *Pygmephorus*, however, are thought to be phoretic and not parasitic. Within this genus, individuals recorded are females usually that have an enlarged first pair of legs for grasping hair. This genus is also often associated with small mammals, especially insectivores, and are thought to feed on fungi in the soil or in the nests of mammals (Whitaker et al. 2007).

Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Rosensteiniidae (Mites)

Rosensteiniids are associates of bats and their roosts, but they are not parasitic and commonly are not associated with bats. These mites could be abundant in guano and the roost, where they feed on feces or on smaller organisms. The genera *Chiroptoglyphus*, *Mydopholeus*, and *Nycteriglyphus* have all been associated with bats (Whitaker et al. 2007; Whitaker et al. 2009).

Acarina (Mites, Ticks, and Chiggers): Spinturnicidae (Mites)

Spinturnicid mites are all parasitic on bats. These mites have a reduced tritosternum, prominent legs, a stout body, and the peritreme is often ventral posteriorly. Most species crawl

on the wing and tail membranes, but the species *Paraspinturnix globosus* is known to live in the anus of some North American *Myotis* species. Genera associated with bats in the United States and Canada are: *Periglischrus*, and *Spinturnix* (Whitaker et al. 2007; Whitaker et al. 2009).

Phthiraptera (Lice): Anoplura (Sucking Lice) and Mallophaga (Chewing Lice)

Lice are flattened, wingless insects that are obligate hematophagous ectoparasites of birds and mammals (Hopla et al. 1994). Lice typically are divided into two suborders: Anoplura, the sucking lice, and Mallophaga, the chewing lice (Hopla et al. 1994; Ritzi 2004). The Mallophaga, however, have been further separated into three suborders: Amblycera, Ischnocera, and Rhyncophthirina. The Ischnocera and Rhyncophthirina mainly parasitize mammals, while the Amblycera mainly parasitize birds (Ritzi 2004). Sucking lice have a head that is narrower than its prothorax, while chewing lice have a head that is as wide as or wider than its prothorax (Johnson and Clayton 2003).

Kansas Bat Species

In Kansas 15 species of bats are known to occur, and there is one additional species that potentially might occur. All species are in the family Vespertilionidae unless otherwise indicated. The known occurrences are: *Antrozous pallidus*, pallid bat; *Corynorhinus townsendii*, Townsend's big-eared bat; *Eptesicus fuscus*, big brown bat; *Lasionycteris noctivagans*, silver-haired bat; *Lasiurus borealis*, eastern red bat; *Lasiurus cinereus*, hoary bat; *Myotis ciliolabrum*, western small-footed myotis; *Myotis grisescens*, gray myotis; *Myotis lucifugus*, little brown myotis; *Myotis septentrionalis*, the northern myotis; *Myotis velifer*, cave myotis; *Myotis yumanensis*, Yuma myotis; *Nycticeius humeralis*, evening bat; *Perimyotis subflavus*, tri-colored bat; and *Tadarida brasiliensis* (Molossidae), Brazilian free-tailed bat (Schmidt et al. 2019). The

species of questionable occurrence in Kansas is *Nyctinomops macrotis*, big free-tailed bat (Schmidt et al. 2019).

Myotis septentrionalis has historically occurred in Kansas, but recent records are lacking. As Kansas only recently has had cases of WNS (Fig. 1), it is critical to determine the status of the current *M. septentrionalis* population in Kansas. The overarching goal of the project, which began in 2015 and ended in 2019, was to try and determine where in Kansas these bats occur, characteristics of hibernacula, and characteristics of maternity colonies.

My main objective, while working on the project, was to identify which ectoparasites were present on Kansas bats. My second objective was to determine if there was any correlation between the presence of ectoparasites and age, reproductive status, and the sex of Kansas bats. Given the second objective, I formed the following three hypotheses. My first hypothesis was that juvenile bats had greater parasite presence than adults (McLean and Speakman 1997; Christe et al. 2003; Lučan 2006). My second hypothesis was that males would have a higher presence of ectoparasites then females (Lučan 2006). My third hypothesis was that reproductive female bats would have a higher presence of ectoparasites than non-reproductive bats (Lučan 2006).

METHODS

Bat Capture

All of the following methods fell within the approved Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) protocol (15-0002, Appendix 1). Bats were captured by using mist nets set across rivers and streams just before sunset (Carroll et al. 2002; Robbins et al. 2008). In the field season of 2016, I set mist nests in a total of 43 locations in three northcentral Kansas counties: Ellis, Rooks, and Russell. In the field season of 2017, I set mist nets in a total of 22 locations in eight Kansas counties: Butler, Ellis, Jewell, Marshall, Phillips, Rooks, Russell, and Trego (Fig. 3).

I chose netting localities by using a combination of historic localities for *M*. *septentrionalis* and acoustic monitoring by using an SM 3 Bat detector. I took historic localities recorded in the Kansas Mammal Atlas (Schmidt et al. 2019). I compiled historic localities as a combination of voucher specimens, visual observations, and literature observations. I set acoustic detectors near these historic localities and checked for the presence of *Myotis* species. If supposed *Myotis* calls were recorded, then I set mist nets in that location and in the surrounding areas.

I kept mist nets closed until sunset to avoid capturing birds. I checked mist nets every five to ten minutes for bats once they were opened. Frequent checking minimized stress on bats and ensured that bats did not chew holes in mist nets. I used single, double high, or triple high setups. I only used the triple high setup in the 2016 field season. Mist net lengths depended on the width of the waterway and were 6m, 9m, and 12m. In addition, in Russell County, I found bats in a 356m long, underground, man-made cave. Because it was difficult to set mist nets

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outside either entrance of the cave, I collected bats by taking them from the walls, or by using butterfly nets.

After capture I placed each bat into a Dixie PerfecTouch 12-ounce, paper cup with a lid, and weighed the cup containing the bat by using a 50 g Pesola scale. The bats remained in a cup for a minimum of 30 minutes, but no longer than three hours. I did this to help ensure fecal sample collection for diet analysis. Following fecal collection, I checked each bat for age, sex, and reproductive status. I estimated age by shining a light through the wing membrane to determine if there was epiphyseal-diaphyseal fusion. If the joint was fused, I considered the individual to be an adult, and juvenile if not fused. I examined the bats to determine the sex based on the external genitalia. I determined males to be reproductive or non-reproductive based on the descended or non-descended, testes, respectfully. I placed females into one of four reproductive categories: pregnant, lactating, post-lactating, or non-reproductive. For each bat, I recorded in millimeters the following: ear length, tragus length, forearm length, body length, tail length, and hindfoot length. Finally, I examined each bat for ectoparasites, banded them and released them.

Ectoparasite Collection

I used a modification of Whitaker's method for ectoparasite collection (Whitaker et al. 2009). Collecting ectoparasites was done by two people and consisted of colleague holding a bat spread-winged for inspection, over a large-mouth plastic jar that contained 60% ethanol, while visual inspection and brushing was done. I visually inspected each bat initially for large ectoparasites, such as cimicids and ticks. I removed these large ectoparasites by using soft-tipped forceps and placed them in the 60% ethanol. Afterwards, I used a soft toothbrush to brush

the body and wings, both dorsally and ventrally so that smaller ectoparasites, such as mites, fell into the ethanol. I rinsed the toothbrush in ethanol between uses (Ritzi 2004; Whitaker et al. 2009). I brushed bats thoroughly until ectoparasites were no longer visible to the naked eye. I then banded each bat with an identification number and released onto the nearest tree away from the mist nets

Slide Preparation

I followed the techniques and instructions included with the insect slide mounting kit purchased through the BioQuip website (BioQuip 2001). I placed mites in a solution of 75% ethanol for 10 minutes, moved them to an 85% solution for another 10 minutes, and then placed them in a 95% ethanol solution for 10 minutes. This made the mites miscible (forming a homogenous mixture when added together) with the Euparal mounting solution. Finally, I placed individuals in one to two drops of Euparal mounting solution and positioned them ventral side up by using micro tools under a microscope. Once positioned I placed a cover slip on the slide and left it to dry on a slide heater. Cimicids were too large to place onto a slide, so I identified them under a dissecting microscope. I identified ticks under a dissecting microscope because they were soft-bodied and placing them onto a slide would have damaged identifiable characteristics. I deposited all 90 prepared slides with the Sternberg Museum of Natural History's entomology collection.

Ectoparasite Identification

I identified ectoparasites by using a combination of mite, tick, and cimicid dichotomous keys (Keegan 1951; Furman and Catts 1982). I identified mites by using a compound light microscope and ticks and cimicids by using a dissecting microscope.

Statistical Analysis

For my statistical analysis I used Pearson's chi-squared test of independence (Pearson 1900). I used this test because it assesses whether unpaired observations on two variables, expressed in a contingency table, are independent of each other. This allowed me to compare ectoparasite presence between age, reproductive status, and sex for each bat species captured.

RESULTS

Bat Capture

I captured bats beginning in early May and continuing until early October in 2016 and 2017 (Table 2). Between the 2016 and 2017 field seasons, I mist netted for 104 nights over a total of 248 hours (Table 2). The species of bats I captured: *E. fuscus* (N = 64), *L. borealis* (N = 10), *L. cinereus* (N = 5), *M. septentrionalis* (N =7), *N. humeralis* (N = 317), and *P. subflavus* (N = 80) (Table 3).

Ectoparasite Identification

I collected the following ectoparasites: mites in the families Laelapidae and Spinturnicidae; cimicids in the family Cimicidae; ticks in the family Argasidae, and a chewing louse (Fig. 4) in the order Mallophaga (Table 3). These ectoparasites were distributed across six species of bats (Table 3).

I identified mites in the family Laelapidae as the genus *Haemogamasus*, which previously has not been documented in Kansas. It has been documented in many parts of the United States, but it mostly has been limited to the coasts, with a single occurrence documented in Oklahoma (Whitaker and Wilson 1974). I found the laelapid mites in Ellis, Jewell, and Rooks counties; the spinturnicid mites in Ellis, Jewell, and Rooks counties; the cimicids in Ellis, Jewell, and Rooks counties; the ticks in Ellis County; and the louse in Ellis County. I did not find ectoparasites on bats in Coffey, Lyon, Marshall, Osage, Osborne, Phillips, Republic, Russell, Trego, or Washington counties. *Nycticeius humeralis*, however, was the only species captured in high enough numbers to evaluate statistically. This was somewhat unexpected because there has not been that many recent records of *N. humeralis* in northcentral Kansas. *Eptesicus fuscus* was expected to be captured in greater numbers because they have been recorded in higher numbers in northcentral Kansas (Schmidt et al. 2019).

I collected ectoparasites from each captured bat species listed below. From *Eptesicus fuscus*, I collected 3 mites in the family Laelapidae and 3 mites in the family Spinturnicidae; 5 cimicids in the family Cimicidae; 3 ticks in the family Argasidae; and 4 individuals that I was unable to identify (Table 3). From *Lasiurus borealis*, I collected no ectoparasites (Table 3). From *Lasiurus cinereus*, I collected 3 mites in the family Spinturnicidae (Table 3). From *Myotis septentrionalis*, I only collected one unidentifiable mite. From *Nycticeius humeralis*, I collected 492 mites in the family Laelapidae and 67 mites in the family Spinturnicidae, 89 cimicids in the family Cimicidae, a single louse in the order Mallophaga, and 35 individuals that I was unable to identify (Table 3). Finally, I collected no ectoparasites from *Perimyotis subflavus* (Table 3).

Statistical Analysis

I used a chi-square test of independence to determine significance for the following comparisons. I compared the presence of ectoparasites between adult and juvenile *N. humeralis*. Juvenile *N. humeralis* had a higher presence of ectoparasites than adults ($X^2 = 47.38$, d.f. = 3, p = 0.00001, Table 4). I compared the presence of ectoparasites between male and female *N. humeralis*. Males had higher presences of ectoparasites than females ($X^2 = 15.03$, d.f. = 3, p = 0.0018, Table 4). I compared the presence of ectoparasites between reproductive and non-reproductive male *N. humeralis* and found no significant difference ($X^2 = 2.11$, d.f. = 3, p = 0.55, Table 4). When comparing the reproductive status of *N. humeralis* females, I split them into four separate categories: pregnant, lactating, post-lactating, and non-reproductive. Similar to males, there was no significant difference in ectoparasite presence between the female reproductive stages ($X^2 = 7.42$, d.f. = 7, p = 0.39, Table 4).

DISSCUSSION

The first objective of my project was to identify which ectoparasites were present on captured bats. I was able to meet my first objective by collecting ectoparasites from all bats captured over the two field seasons. For my first objective, however, I was only able to identify larger ectoparasites, such as cimicids and large mites, on the bats that were captured. I was unable to collect smaller ectoparasites, such as follicle mites, because my chosen method of collection was biased towards larger organisms. The best way to collect and identify smaller ectoparasites would have been to euthanize the bat, and then examine it under a microscope (Whitaker et al. 2009), which I could not do because of the overall objectives of the project. Furthermore, it is very time consuming, and is not ideal for threatened or endangered species (Whitaker et al. 2009).

The second objective of my project was to determine if there was any relationship between the presence of ectoparasites and age, reproductive status, and the sex of each bat species captured. I was able to meet my second objective by performing a chi-square test of independence to determine if there was any relationship between age, reproductive status, or sex, and the presence of ectoparasites. For my second objective, there were statistically significant differences between adult and juvenile *N. humeralis*, as well as between males and females. There was no statistically significant difference between different reproductive statuses for male and female *N. humeralis*.

My first hypothesis was that juvenile bats had greater parasite presence than adults (Christe et al. 2003; Lučan 2006). Due to a small sample size, I was only able to statistically analyze ectoparasites from *N. humeralis*. Juveniles had a higher presence of ectoparasites than adults did. This might be due to juveniles being restricted to their

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roosts until they are able to fly, making them more susceptible to ectoparasites (McLean and Speakman 1997; Christe et al. 2000, 2003). Juveniles also might not be able to groom themselves as well as adults (Christe et al. 2003).

My second hypothesis was that males would have a higher presence of ectoparasites than females in *N. humeralis*. Males had a higher presence of ectoparasites than the females did. Males might have more ectoparasites due to their promiscuous nature. Males tend to try and mate with as many females as possible, thus, increasing their chance to come into contact with ectoparasites (Webber et al. 2015). Other bat species might not have had as high of levels of ectoparasites because of very low capture rates not being truly representative of the populations.

My third hypothesis was that reproductive female *N. humeralis* would have a higher presence of ectoparasites than non-reproductive bats (Lučan 2006). When looking at reproductive status there was no significant difference in ectoparasite presence. This might be because there was not a large enough sample (126 reproductive individuals, split into four reproductive categories), or because there is no relationship between ectoparasite presence and reproductive status. Just looking at the numbers, however, nonreproductive males had a higher presence of ectoparasites, as did the nonreproductive females.

There have been many studies looking at age, reproductive status, sex, and the presence of ectoparasites on bats, but the results have been contradictory. Reproductive females had a higher presence of ectoparasites than males did, and juveniles had a higher presence of ectoparasites than adults did for the species *Myotis blythii*, *M. daubentonii*, *M. emarginatus*, *M. myotis*, *M. mystacinus*, *M. nattereri*, *Nyctalus noctula*, *Pipistrellus*

pipistrellus, and *Plecotus auritus* (Christe et al. 2000, 2003; Zahn and Rupp 2004; Lučan 2006; Christe et al. 2007). However, adult *Eptesicus fuscus* in Colorado had a higher presence of ectoparasites than juveniles did, and lactating females had the highest presence of ectoparasites (Pearce and O'Shea 2007). Pregnant female *Miniopterus schreibersii* had the highest presence of ectoparasites in temperate-zone caves (Lourenço and Palmeirim 2008). These results most likely conflict due to numerous factors. Bat species and ectoparasite species both play a role in ectoparasite presence. Each species has its own life history, and many ectoparasites have a very poorly understood life history. Roosting sites, temperature, time of year, and geographic region all likely factor in as well (McLean and Speakman 1997; Christe et al. 2000, 2003, 2007; Zahn and Rupp 2004; Lučan 2006; Pearce and O'Shea 2007; Lourenço and Palmeirim 2008).

Individual populations of bats and ectoparasites need to be studied because relationships might not be the same even across the same species. For example, 80 *Perimyotis subflavus* were captured (all were in the cave except one), but no ectoparasites were collected, even though ectoparasites have been collected from this species in past studies (Table 1; Jones et al. 1952; Whitaker and Wilson 1974; Whitaker et al. 2007). Ectoparasites could have been overlooked during collection or could have been missed by the sampling technique used. Possibly, lack of ectoparasites might be due to individuals roosting in small groups and keeping themselves very clean. This cave is man-made, and is roughly 200 years old, and could have been used for food storage in the past where pesticides were used to help keep food free of insects. This is another potential explanation for the lack of ectoparasites found on *P. subflavus*. Another reason might be that the cave is too cold or sterile for ectoparasites to maintain themselves in the roosts while the bats are away. These differences could also be due to the time of the year I captured bats and checked for ectoparasites. Ectoparasite loads are known to fluctuate seasonally, and the inability to net all locations at the same time could have skewed the results (Lučan 2006; Bartonička and Gaisler 2007; Lourenço and Palmeirim 2008).

The single louse found is a tentative identification. The specimen did not transfer well to the slide, and key identifiable features were hard to see. It was also tentative because it was the only specimen found on 482 bats. Many of these bat species roost under the bark of trees, this louse might have been picked up accidentally from a bird's nest. Birds are common hosts of lice, and their nests can have a large number of lice found in them as well (Boyd 1951; Dunn 2005). Plausibly the bat could have picked up a louse by accident when roosting in or near a bird's nest.

Given that white-nose syndrome continues to spread in bats, we need to learn about other factors that might weaken bats and potentially make them more susceptible to the disease. This is particularly critical in places such as Kansas where the fungus only recently has been found. Understanding the impact ectoparasites can have on their bat hosts could potentially help with their management and successful recovery for threatened and endangered species, many of which are declining from white-nose syndrome.

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TABLES

Table 1. -- Known ectoparasite species associated with bats in the United States and Canada. *Antrozous pallidus* (ANPA); *Choeronycteris mexicana* (CHME); *Corynorhinus rafinesquii* (CORA); *C. townsendii* (COTO); *Eptesicus fuscus* (EPFU); *Euderma maculatum* (EUMA); *Eumops perotis* (EUPE); *Lasionycteris noctivagans* (LANO); *Lasiurus borealis* (LABO); *L. cinereus* (LACI); *L. intermedius* (LAIN); *Mormoops megalophylla* (MOME); *Myotis austroriparius* (MYAU); *M. californicus* (MYCA); *M. evotis* (MYEV); *M. grisescens* (MYGR); *M. keenii* (MYKE); *M. leibii* (MYLE); *M. lucifugus* (MYLU); *M. occultus* (MYOC); *M. septentrionalis* (MYSE); *M. sodalis* (MYSO); *M. thysanodes* (MYTH); *M. velifer* (MYVE); *M. volans* (MYVO); *M. yumanensis* (MYYU); *Nycticeius humeralis* (NYHU); *Nyctinomops femorosaccus* (NYFE); *N. macrotis* (NYMA); *Parastrellus hesperus* (PAHE); *Perimyotis subflavus* (PESU); and *Tadarida brasiliensis* (TABR). Y: yes; N: no

Order	Family	Ectoparasite	Synonym(s)	Bat	Found
		Species		Species	Kansas Bats
Diptera	Nycteribiidae	Unidentified		ANPA,	N
_				CORA,	
				MYTH	
		Basilia forcipata		MYOC,	N
				MYVO	
	Streblidae	Unidentified		CHME,	N
				CORA	
		Trichobius		CORA	N
		corynorhini			
Siphonaptera	Ischnopsyllidae	Myodopsylla sp.		MYYU	N
		M. gentilis		MYOC	Ν
		M. insignis		EPFU,	N
				MYLU,	
				MYSE	
Hemiptera	Cimicidae	Cimex sp.		EPFU,	N
				PAHE	
		C. adjunctus		EPFU,	Y; EPFU,
				LANO.	NYHU
				MYKE,	
				MYLU,	
				MYSE,	
				NYHU	
		C. pilosellus		MYOC	Ν
	Polyctenidae	Hesperoctenes		EUPE	Ν
		eumops			
Acarina	Argasidae	Cryptonysuss		MYLE	Ν
		desultorius			
		Ornithodorus sp.		MYOC	Ν

	0 kellevi		EPFU	Ν
	0. Kelleyi		MVI F	11
			MVLU	
			MILU, MVSE	
T 1' 1	D		MISE	NT
Ixodidae	Dermacentor sp.		ANPA,	N
			PAHE	
Glycyphagidae	Glycyphagus		MYOC	Ν
	hypudaei			
Anoetidae	Undescribed sp.		EPFU	Y; EPFU
Cheyletidae	Cheletonella		EPFU	Ν
	vespertilionis			
	Chevletus		MYVE	Ν
	cacahuamilpensis			- 1
Chirodiscidae	Alabidocarnus sn		EDELI	N
Chirodisoidae	A calcaratus	A longinilus	MYCA	N
Chirodiscidae	A. calcaralus	A. longipilus	MICA,	1
			MYLU,	
			MYOC,	
			MYVO,	
			MYYU	
	A. eptesicus		EPFU,	Ν
			MYOC	
	Dentocarpus		TABR	Ν
	macrotrichus			
	Olabidocarpus		MYAU.	Ν
	whitakeri		MYGR	
	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,		MYSE	
Demoicidae	Demoder		MYSE	N
Dermenvesidee	Demouex	D quotormudia	MVVE	N
 Dermanyssidae	gallinae	D. evolomyals		11
Glycophagidae	Glycyphagus		MYOC	Ν
	hypudaei			
Laelapidae	Androlaelaps		TABR,	Ν
I I	casalis		MYLE.	
			MYSE	
	A fahrenholzi	Atricholaelan	СОТО	Y. EPFU
		s sigmodoni.	EPFII	MYGR
		Haemolaelans	MYCP	TARP
		nuemotuetups	NVUU	TADK
		Laolana	DEST	
		Laeiaps	FESU,	
		californicus;	IABK	
		L. glassgowi		
		scalopi; L.		
		stegemani; L.		
		virginianus;		
		Liponyssus		
		setiger		

	Eubrachylaelaps		ANPA	Ν
	debilis			
	Haemogamasus	H. alaskensis;	MYCA,	Ν
	ambulans	H. sternalis;	MYLU	
		H. twitchelli		
	Ichoronvssus sp.		CORA.	Ν
	<i>J</i> 1		MYCA.	
			MYTH	
	Ischvropoda		MYCA	Ν
	armatus			
	Laelaps		MYLU	Ν
	alaskensis			
Listrophoridae	Dentocarpus		TABR	N
F	macrotrichus			
	Listrophorus		ANPA	N
	mexicanus			
	Olabidocarpus		LAIN	N
	americanus			11
	0 lawrencei		TABR	N
	0. whitakeri		MYAU	N
	0. Whitekeri		MYKE	11
			MYSE	
Macronyssidae	Chiroptonyssus		EUPE	N
mueronyssicae	haematonhagus		MYOC	11
	C robustines	C. texensis	EPFU	Y: TABR
	e. roousupes	e. renembro	LACI	1, 11, 11, 12, 12, 12, 12, 12, 12, 12, 1
			MOME	
			MYCA.	
			MYLU.	
			MYOC.	
			MYVE.	
			TABR	
	C. venezolanus		NYFE.	N
			NYMA.	
			PAHE	
	Cryptonyssus sp.		MYOC	N
	C. desultorius		EPFU.	Ν
			EUMÁ,	
			MYCA,	
			MYOC,	
			MYSO,	
			MYVE,	
			MYVO,	
			MYYU,	
		1	DATIE	

C. flexus		LANO,	Ν
5		MYLU	
Macronyssus	Ichoronyssus	CORA,	Y:
crosbyi	brittanicus; I.	COTO.	MYSE
	auadridentatu	EPFU.	
	s	MYAU.	
	5	MYCA	
		MYCI	
		MYEV	
		MYKE	
		MYLE,	
		MYLU	
		MYOC	
		MYSE	
		MYSO	
		MYTH	
		MYVF	
		MYVII	
		NYHU	
		DESU	
M jonasi	Ichoronyssus	FPEU	V. EDELI
M. jonesi	Macronyssus,	MYAU	I, LIFO, MYGR
	macronyssus	MYGR	MVVF
		MYVE	
M longisetosus		COTO	N
11. iongisciosus		MYVE	11
M. macrodactvlus		LANO	N
M. unidens		СОТО.	Y:
		EPFU.	COTO.
		LANO.	EPFU.
		MYLU.	MYLU.
		MYVE.	MYVE
		PESU	
Ornithonyssus	Liponyssus	EPFU.	N
svlviarum	americanus:	MYVE	
	L. pacificus;		
	O. banksi		
Steatonyssus sp.		ANPA	
S. antrozoi		ANPA,	Ν
		COTO,	
		EPFU,	
		MYYU	
S. ceratognathus		EPFU.	Y;
0		LABO.	ŃYHU
		MYLU.	_
		MYSE,	

			MYSO,	
			NYHU.	
			PESU.	
			TABR	
	S. emarginatus		MYYU	N
			PAHE	
	S. furmani		LABO.	Y: LABO
	~~		LACI	_ ,
	S jogaujmi		EPFU	N
	Sijenquini		MYLU	
	S. occidentalis		CO sp.,	Y: CO
			EPFU,	sp.,
			LABO,	EPFU,
			MYLU.	LABO.
			MYSO,	MYLU,
			MYVE.	MYVE,
			PAHE,	TABR
			PESU,	
			TABR	
	S. radovsky		LAIN	N
Myobiidae	Acanthophthirius		LABO,	N
	SD.		LANO,	
	1		MYKE,	
			MYLU,	
			MYSE,	
			MYSO	
	A. caudata	Myobia	EPFU,	N
		canadensis	MYLU,	
			MYVE,	
			PESU	
	A. gracilis		MYSE,	N
			MYVO	
	A. lasiurus		LABO,	N
			LACI	
	A. lucifugus		MYLU,	N
			MYOC,	
			MYSO	
	A. nycticeius		NYHU	Ν
	A. oregonensis		PAHE	Ν
	A. steatocaudatus		LANO	Ν
	Ewingana		ANPA,	N
 	inaequalis		TABR	
	E. longa		TABR	Ν
	Pteracarus		EPFU	N
	aculeus			

	P. chalinolobus		COTO,	Ν
			EPFU,	
			LACI,	
			LAIN,	
			MYCI,	
			MYTH,	
			MYVO	
	P. completus		LABO,	N
			LACI,	
			EPFU	
	P. elegans		СОТО	N
	P. minutus		MYOC,	N
			MYVO,	
			PESU	
	P. robustus		ANPA	Ν
	Radfordia		TABR	N
	floridensis			
Pygmephoridae	Pygmephorus		MYLU	N
	mahunkai			
Rosensteiniidae	Chirptoglyphus		CORA,	Ν
	americanus		MYLU,	
			MYVE	
	Nycteriglyphus		TABR	N
	bifolium			
	N. fuscus		EPFU	Ν
	N. pennsylvanicus		EPFU	Ν
	N. texanus		COTO,	Ν
			MYVE,	
			MYYU,	
			TABR	
Spinturnicidae	Paraspinturnix		MYSO	Ν
	globosus			
	Periglischrus		MOME	Ν
	strandtmanni			
	Spinturnix sp.		ANPA,	Ν
			CHME,	
			EPFU,	
			MYCA,	
			MYTH,	
			MYYU	
	Spinturnix	Pteroptus	ANPA,	Y; EPFU,
	americanus	echinipes; S.	EPFU,	MYGR,
		carloshoffman	MYAU,	MYLU,
		ni; S. grossus,	MYCI,	MYVE,
		S. iowae	MYEV,	MYYU,
			MYGR,	PESU,

				MYKE,	TABR
				MYLE	
				MYLU	
				MYOC	
				MITOC,	
				MYSE,	
				MYSO,	
				MYTH,	
				MYVE,	
				MYVO.	
				MYYU	
				DESU	
				TADD	
		<i>a</i>		TABR	
		S. bakeri	S. americana;	EPFU,	Y; EPFU
			<i>S</i> .	MYVO	
			americanus;		
			S. echinipes		
			(?)		
	1	S banksi		MYGR	V.
		5. Ourikst		MVVE	MYGP
					MYNE
					MIYVE
		S.		MYVE	N
		carloshoffmanni			
		S. globosus		MYGR,	Y;
				MYLU,	MYGR,
				MYSO	MYVE
				MYVF	
				MYVO	
		а ·			N
		S. <i>iowae</i>		MYGR,	N
				MYSO,	
				PESU	
		S. myoti	Pteroptus	Bat	Ν
			grossus		
		S. orri	S. americanus	ANPA	N
	Trombiculidae	Euschoengastia		EPFU	N
		hamiltoni		MYLE	
		$E_{\text{ministrum}}^{\text{ministrum}}$			V.
		E. pipistrelli		EPFU,	
				MYAU,	MYSE
				MYGR,	
				MYKE,	
				MYLU,	
				MYSE.	
				PESU	
		Futrombicula		MVSE	N
				WIISE	
		aijreaaugesi			
		Leptotrombidium		EPFU,	N
		myotis		MYKE.	

			MYLE,	
			MYLU,	
			MYOC,	
			MYSE,	
			MYVO	
	Neotromibcula		EPFU	Ν
	microti			
	Parasecia		EPFU	Ν
	gurneyi			
	Trombicula	Eustrombicul	EPFU,	Ν
	alfreddugesi	a alfreddugesi	LABO,	
			MYKE	
	T. batatas	E. batatas	LABO	Ν
	T. gurneyi		NYHU	Ν
	T. myotis		MYGR	Ν
	Whartonia senase		EPFU	N
Dermestidae	Dermestes sp.		EPFU	Y; EPFU

Table 2. -- Number of nights and hours spent mist netting for each month of the 2016 and the2017 field seasons, with the number and species of bats captured. Except for a singleindividual, all PESU were captured at the man-made tunnel. *Eptesicus fuscus* (EPFU);*Lasiurus borealis* (LABO); *Lasiurus cinereus* (LACI); *Myotis septentrionalis* (MYSE);*Nycticeius humeralis* (NYHU); and *Perimyotis subflavus* (PESU).

Month/Year	Number of nights and	Bat species and numbers captured
	hours spent mist	
	netting	
May 2016	7 nights; 17 hours, 6	EPFU: 4
	minutes	NYHU: 24
June 2016	20 nights; 49 hours, 33	EPFU: 4
	minutes	LABO: 3
		LACI: 1
		MYSE: 2
		NYHU: 64 (4 recaptured)
July 2016	16 nights; 35 hours, 48	EPFU: 38 (1 recaptured)
	minutes	LABO: 4
		LACI: 5
		MYSE: 1
		NYHU: 88 (1 recaptured)
August 2016	8 nights; 16 hours, 27	EPFU: 2
	minutes	LABO: 2
		NYHU: 24 (1 recaptured)
September 2016	5 nights; 14 hours, 3	EPFU: 1
	minutes	NYHU: 6
		PESU: 21 (1 recaptured)
October 2016	3 nights; 12 hours, 30	MYSE: 1
	minutes	PESU: 36 (8 recaptured)
May 2017	2 nights; 6 hours, 32	EPFU: 3
	minutes	MYSE: 1
		NYHU: 7 (1 recaptured)
June 2017	10 nights; 22 hours, 32	EPFU: 8
	minutes	LABO: 2
		MYSE: 2
		NYHU: 46 (10 recaptured)
		PESU: 1
July 2017	14 nights; 29 hours, 55	EPFU: 1
	minutes	NYHU: 30
August 2017	12 nights; 30 hours	EPFU: 2
		LABO: 3
		LACI: 1
		NYHU: 49 (2 recaptured)
		PESU: 3
September 2017	5 nights; 9 hours, 49	EPFU: 4 (2 recaptured)
	minutes	NYHU: 1
		PESU: 11 (2 recaptured)

October 2017	2 nights; 3 hours, 45	PESU: 53 (19 recaptured)		
	minutes			

Table 3. -- Ectoparasites associated with select bat species in northcentral Kansas during the 2016 and 2017 field seasons. These are the total numbers of each type of ectoparasite associated with each species, not ectoparasites per individual. *Eptesicus fuscus* (EPFU); *Lasiurus borealis* (LABO); *Lasiurus cinereus* (LACI); *Myotis septentrionalis* (MYSE); *Nycticeius humeralis* (NYHU); and *Perimyotis subflavus* (PESU).

Species	Number of bats	Bats with ecto-	Laelapidae	Spinturnicidae	Chewing lice	Cimicids	Ticks	Un- known
		parasites						
EPFU	64	8	3	3	0	5	3	4
LABO	10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
LACI	5	2	3	0	0	0	0	0
MYSE	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
NYHU	317	143	492	67	1	89	0	35
PESU	80	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

category. The percentages of bats with and without ectoparasites for each group are also shown.							
Categories	\mathbf{X}^2	Р-	Number of	Number of	Percentage	Percentage	
	value	value	bats with	bats without	with	without	
			ectoparasites	ectoparasites	ectoparasites	ectoparasites	
Adults	47.38	0.0000	74	149	33%	67%	
		1					
Juveniles			69	22	76%	24%	
Males	15.03	0.0018	33	13	72%	28%	
Females			111	160	41%	59%	
Reproductive	2.11	0.5493	15	9	62%	38%	
males							
Nonreproductive			18	4	82%	18%	
males							
Pregnant females	7.42	0.3862	12	37	24%	76%	
-							
Lactating			21	32	40%	60%	
females							
Postlactating			19	22	46%	54%	
females							
Nonreproductive			56	69	46%	54%	
females							

Table 4. -- Statistical analyses showing the X^2 values and p-values between compared groups of *Nycticeius humeralis*. The number of bats with and without ectoparasites are shown for each category. The percentages of bats with and without ectoparasites for each group are also shown.

FIGURES

Fig. 1. Map of the spread of white-nose syndrome (WNS), presented by the United States Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS).



Citation: White-nose syndrome occurrence map - by year (2019). Data Last Updated: 8/30/2019. Available at: https://www.whitenosesyndrome.org/static-page/wns-spread-maps.

Fig. 2. Photograph showing how to differentiate between *Cimex lectularius* and *C. adjunctus*. The fringe hairs along the pronotum are as long as, or longer, than the width of the eyes on *C. adjunctus*. On *C. lectularius* the fringe hairs along the pronotum are shorter than the width of the eye (Jones and Jordan 1991). Photo courtesy of N. T. Gallagher.



Fig. 3. Map of Kansas depicting the locations that were mist netted during the 2016 and 2017 field seasons.





Fig. 4. Photograph of the chewing louse from Ellis County, Kansas.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. – Project approval by the Fort Hays State University Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committee protocol number 15-0002.



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