



ISSN 2320-7078
JEZS 2014; 2 (5): 35-39
© 2014 JEZS
Received: 11-08-2014
Accepted: 10-09-2014

Kanika Tehri
Department of Zoology
Kurukshetra University,
Kurukshetra, India – 136119.

A review on reproductive strategies in two spotted spider mite, *Tetranychus Urticae* Koch 1836 (Acari: Tetranychidae)

Kanika Tehri

Abstract

This review summarizes some of the important reproductive strategies in phytophagous acarine pest, *Tetranychus urticae* Koch 1836. It is an economically important agricultural pest with a global distribution which feeds on a wide range of host plant species throughout the world. The rapid developmental rate, high reproductive potential, and arrhenotokous parthenogenesis in *T. urticae* allows them to achieve damaging population levels very quickly when growth conditions are good, resulting in an equally rapid decline of host plant quality. Moreover, webbing, habitat preference on the underside of leaves, ballooning and high dispersal rate provide additional benefit to the expanding populations of two spotted spider mite, *T. urticae*.

Keywords: Arrhenotoky, Ballooning, Diapause, Dispersal, *Tetranychus urticae* Koch, Reproductive strategies, Webbing

1. Introduction

Mites, the most diverse representatives of the phylum Arthropoda, belong to the subphylum Chelicerata and subclass Acari. Among the arachnids, Acari are the only group, which feeds on plants. Plant feeding mites play an important role as agricultural pests of fruits, vegetables, forage crops, ornamentals and other agricultural crops. The damage caused by many species is still innocuous and often mistaken. Around 7,000 species of phytophagous mites are known worldwide which occur in five families namely Tetranychidae, Tenuipalpidae, Eriophyidae, Tarsonemidae and Tuckerillidae [1]. Tetranychidae, also known as spider mites, is a large family including about 1,200 species belonging to over 70 genera of worldwide distribution [2]. The two spotted spider mite (TSSM), *T. urticae* is a member of the family Tetranychidae that contains many harmful species of plant-feeding mites [3]. It was first described by Koch in 1836 [4] and thought to originate from temperate climates [5].

T. urticae is known to attack about 1200 species of plants [6], of which more than 150 are economically important [1, 7, 8, 9]. It is a ubiquitous and economically important agricultural pest with a global distribution which feeds on a wide range of host plant species throughout the world [10, 11, 12, 13, 14]. Pest status of *T. urticae* on green house vegetables, ornamental and horticultural crops is well documented worldwide [15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20].

Defoliation, loss of chlorophyll, leaf bronzing, and even plant death occur due to direct feeding in severe infestation [11, 21]. The degree of leaf damage by *T. urticae* is a function of its stylet length and leaf thickness [22]. The stylet length of *T. urticae* is typically $132 \pm 27 \mu\text{m}$ [23] and can vary from $103 \mu\text{m}$ (larvae) to $157 \mu\text{m}$ (adult females) depending on developmental stage [24]. *T. urticae* often feeds on cell chloroplasts on the underside of the leaf, while the upper surface of the leaf develops whitish or yellowish stippling characteristic, which may join and become brownish as mite feeding continues. It is estimated that an adult spider mite consumes at the rate of about 50 percent of its mass per hour. The number of photosynthetically active leaf cells that are punctured and emptied per mite, are hundred cells per minute [1]. Indirect effects of feeding thus include decrease in photosynthesis and transpiration [22] leading to reduction in the amount of harvestable material [25].

The life cycle of *T. urticae* has been studied by several authors [26, 27, 28, 29, 30] which passes through five developmental stages: egg, larva, protonymph, deutonymph, and adult.

Correspondence:
Kanika Tehri
Department of Zoology
Kurukshetra University,
Kurukshetra, India – 136119.

Eggs are round and translucent, turn orange and larvae hatch in about 5 days under optimum conditions of 25-30 °C and 45-55% relative humidity. One generation is completed in 10-14 days when the temperature is between 21-23 °C [29] and in 7 days when temperature is higher than 30 °C [28]. Egg laying by adult females can begin as early as one or two days following maturity. Each female may lay up to 100 eggs in her 30 day life span. The egg-adult development of female *T. urticae* is completed in approximately 6.5 days at 30 °C [31] while the males are reported to complete development earlier than females [32]. However, the population growth parameters of *T. urticae* such as developmental rate, survival, reproduction and longevity may vary in response to changes in temperature, host plant species, host plant nutrition, cultivar kind, phenological stage, exposure to pesticides, relative humidity etc. [16, 31, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37].

Environmental factors play significant role in distribution and abundance of mites. It is well documented that warm and dry weather is favourable for the multiplication and spread of red spider mite [38]. *T. urticae* can complete a generation in one week in green house crops [39]. Temperature was found as regulatory factor for *T. urticae* build up as most of the authors found positive correlation between mite population and temperature [40, 41, 42]. Gulati [43] revealed that *T. urticae* population showed positive correlation with maximum temperature and negative correlation with minimum temperature. But Sunita [44] reported positive correlation between mite population and minimum temperature. Haque *et al.* [45] found that, in vegetable plants temperature had direct positive impact on mite population on jospcks coat, kathua, lady's finger, cucumber, brinjal, tomato, bottle gourd, bean, angled loofah, rongon, daisy and negative impact on bitter melon, radish, morog-jhuti and zinnia. With relative humidity, positive correlation of mite build up was reported by Pande and Yadav [46] while non-significant negative correlation was observed by others [40, 41]. Putatunda and Tagore [42] also found no relation between *T. urticae* infesting okra and relative humidity. In brinjal and sondhamaloti mite number increased significantly with increase of relative humidity but on radish mite number decreased significantly with increase of relative humidity [45]. Singh and Singh [40] and Gulati [43] reported that rainfall and sunshine hours did not play any significant role in mite population build up but Pande and Yadav [46] and Qui and Li [47] recorded positive and negative correlation, respectively between mite population and rainfall. Low wind velocity was also reported to favour the population buildup of tetranychid mites [47].

Parthenogenesis is observed in various groups of invertebrates. This phenomenon consists of the development of an organism from an unfertilized egg. There are two major kinds of parthenogenetic reproduction: (1) thelytoky, in which only diploid female progenies are produced, and (2) arrhenotoky, in which progenies are produced by mated or unmated females; fertilized eggs yield diploid female offspring, whereas unfertilized eggs yield haploid males. Parthenogenesis can be a regular (e.g., stick insects), cyclical (a number of parthenogenetic generations precede a bisexual generation; e.g., aphids), or occasional phenomenon (e.g., non-parthenogenetic species such as butterflies of the family Sphingidae) [49]. In comparison with asexual reproduction, sexual reproduction offers many advantages. Firstly, it greatly and easily enhances genetic variation within the population. Secondly, sexual reproduction requires as few as two cells to form a zygote. This also saves energy that would otherwise be spent, for example, on the division of a parental organism into offspring. Finally, this phenomenon enables the production of

a great number of offspring from the parental generation. On the other hand, parthenogenesis is more efficient than bisexual reproduction because it enables virtually geometric population growth. New individuals are produced by a single organism. Spider mites, like hymenopterans and some homopterous insects, are arrhenotokous: females are diploid and males are haploid [50]. When mated, females avoid the fecundation of some eggs to produce males. Fertilized eggs produce diploid females. Unmated, unfertilized females still lay eggs that give rise to exclusively haploid males. Therefore, parthenogenetic reproduction is particularly useful in areas where bisexual reproduction may be hindered by environmental conditions.

T. urticae, belongs to an assemblage of web spinning mites [38] and the name 'spider' highlights their ability to produce silk like webbing [51]. As mites move around, their webbing can span leaves and stems. Eggs are deposited beneath the webbing and larvae and nymphs develop within it. The webbing defines the colony boundaries [33], serves as a means of protection from rain, wind, and predators [51, 52]. If the webbing is dense enough, protection may also be provided from acaricide sprays [11]. It is thought that the webbing and deposition of faecal pellets within the webbing is a mechanism to regulate humidity [51]. Mites live on both sides of the leaves with a slight preference for the underside and for the vicinity of the veins. Eggs are deposited on the underside of leaves, providing protection from predators, adverse environmental conditions such as rainfall and pesticide sprays thus making control difficult. In addition, the habitat preference for underside of leaves makes the initial detection of mite infestation difficult, thus providing appropriate time for mating and population expansion.

Diapause is an adaptive strategy of many insects and mites in that it synchronizes their life cycle with the availability of food and enables them to avoid unfavourable physical conditions such as cold, heat or drought. Diapause occurs as an obligatory phase of individual development or in response to cue factors. In the temperate regions, photoperiod is the major cue, controlling diapause induction and maintenance [53]. In the spider mite *T. urticae*, diapausing females search for hibernation sites [54], whereas ovipositing summer-form spider mites remain on their host plant [55]. Diapausing females or eggs are the most common overwintering stage for tetranychids [56] in response to short day lengths and cooling temperatures [32]. The egg diapause is considered as a derived ancestral trait, while the adult diapause as a secondary apotypic feature [57]. During diapause, *T. urticae* do not feed or oviposit, and they generally seek shelter in crevices in the bark of trees and shrubs, clods of dirt, and in leaf litter [58]. Diapause in the spider mite is induced by long night photoperiods experienced during preimaginal development and is expressed in the adult stage in females only. Mites which have entered diapause cannot leave this state instantaneously in response to favourable conditions [54]. Activity can only be resumed after completion of a physiological process called 'diapause development' [59]. According to Tauber *et al.* [53], diapause development ends when photoperiod control of diapause maintenance is lost. In *T. urticae* diapause development is accelerated and rapidly completed when short nights are experienced but persists for several weeks to two or three months when mites are kept under long nights. Thus, diapause development in *T. urticae* proceeds gradually under a long night photoperiod [60].

Populations of tetranychid mite species become limited in relation to food supply, if their increase in number is not controlled by some form of environmental or artificial resistance [61]. Spider mites are highly mobile and the

redistribution of populations among hosts seems to be an important part of their life history. When the plant begins to decline, resulting in a reduced food supply, the mites enter a dispersal phase from sedentary phase^[55] and aggregate on the uppermost parts of the plants^[62]. Dispersal includes both intraplant and interplant movement. *T. urticae* disperses individually by walking from one plant to another^[63], or aerially by positioning their bodies in such a way as to catch wind^[55]. Under extreme conditions (overcrowding coinciding with food depletion), individuals gather at the plant apex to form a ball made by mites and silk threads^[64], the phenomenon commonly called as ballooning. Ballooning leads to the aggregation of mites into a ball like structure and prevents random dispersal of individuals. Once formed, the balls are not firmly attached to the apex of the plant. In the field, the wind or a passing animal would be sufficient for the dispersal of the ball. In passive airborne dispersal such as individual ballooning or collective silk balls, the distance and the direction of travel are largely determined by the air currents^[65]. Aerial displacements may be tightly linked to fitness because of direct mortality risks related to the potential (uncontrollable) dispersal distance^[66, 67] and the spatial availability of other host-plants. Individual ballooning or collective balls in tetranychid mites is the result of an active behaviour that enhances the probability of mites being carried aloft from plant surface^[55]. Newly emerged mated females are the stage most likely to disperse individually, through either aerial or ambulatory means^[68]. However, recent reports suggest that the balls are mainly composed of immature stages. It could be possible that under the combined protection of aggregation and silk threads (webs), ball-dispersed eggs could hatch into the young larvae in an optimal environment^[64]. Aerial dispersal begins with the mites aggregating on the uppermost portions of the plants. The mites produce threads of silk, which they use to “balloon” into the wind, which sometimes carry them great distances^[55, 62].

T. urticae has different strategies to disperse: **1.** Dispersal by active movement – by walking^[62] **2.** Phoresy – passive transport by another organism^[69] **3.** Aerial displacement by air currents^[70]. One important biological feature of *T. urticae* is its abundant silk production due to a continuous silk deposit while walking. Silk threads are used as a physical support for locomotion^[69] and can be used for aerial dispersal^[65]. This individual passive displacement called ballooning is a mechanical kiting that many small species of spiders (Araneae), spider mites (Acari), and some moth larvae (Lepidoptera) use to disperse through the air^[65]. Some of the ballooning spider mites (e.g. *Metatetranychus citri*, *Tetranychus pacificus*) were found to travel a few hundred meters and might fly up to 3 km away^[71]. **4.** In *T. urticae*, a collective displacement seems to occur in conditions of overcrowding and food depletion on a host plant: The formation of silk balls can be carried away by the wind or by a passing animal i.e. anemochory or zoochory^[72]. As the population peaks, the mites congregate on leaf tips, spin silk threads, and form small masses from which mites can be observed to be carried aloft in light breezes. The aerial dispersal of these aggregates may be an important element in the spatial dynamics of *T. urticae* populations and it might explain the sudden outbreak of large spider mite populations in crops that, apparently, were previously uninfected. Until now, the processes involved in the formation of mites' aggregate and silk balls are still unknown^[64].

In conclusion, this review summarizes some of the important reproductive strategies in phytophagous acarine pest, *Tetranychus urticae* Koch. This mite is polyphagous and

attacks broad range of crops, limiting the yield and thus, leading to huge economic losses. Understanding *T. urticae* population, life cycle, and outbreaks require a knowledge of many factors which include the biotic potential of the species, the influence of meteorological factors, the availability and relative susceptibility of hosts, competition between mite species, structural and chemical adaptations of each kind of mite. The rapid developmental rate, high reproductive potential, and arrhenotokous parthenogenesis in *T. urticae* allows them to achieve damaging population levels very quickly when growth conditions are good, resulting in an equally rapid decline of host plant quality. Moreover, webbing, ballooning, high dispersal rate and habitat preference on the underside of leaves, provide additional benefit to the expanding populations of two spotted spider mite, *T. urticae*.

6. References

1. Chhillar BS, Gulati R, Bhatnagar P. Agricultural Acarology. Daya Publishing House, Delhi, 2007, 355.
2. Bolland HR, Gutierrez J, Fletchmann CHW. World Catalogue of the Spider Mite Family (Acari: Tetranychidae). Koninklijke Brill NV, Leiden, the Netherlands, 1998, 392.
3. Borror DJ, Triplehorn CA, Johnson NF. *An introduction to the study of insects*. Saunders College Publishing, 1989, 875.
4. Pritchard AE, Baker EW. A revision of the spider mite family Tetranychidae. Memoirs series. Pacific Coast Entomol Soc San Francisco 1955, 2, 436.
5. Fasulo TR, Denmark HA. Two-spotted spider mite, *Tetranychus urticae* Koch. *UF/IFAS Featured Creatures* EENY, 2000, 150.
6. Zhang Z. Mites of Greenhouses. CABI Publishing Oxon, UK, 2003, 244.
7. Gupta VN, Gupta SK. Mites associated with vegetable crops in West Bengal. *Indian J. Acarol* 1985; 10:61-64.
8. Xie L, Miao H, Xiao-Yue, Hong XY. The two spotted spider mite *Tetranychus urticae* Koch and the carmine spider mite *Tetranychus cinnabarinus* (Boisduval) in China mixed in their *Wolbachia* phylogenetic tree. *Zoolaxa* 2006; 1166:33-46.
9. Geroh M. Molecular Characterization of *Beauveria bassiana* (Balsamo) Vuillemin and its Bioefficacy against *Tetranychus urticae* Koch (Acari: Tetranychidae), Ph. D. Thesis, CCS HAU, Hisar, 2011.
10. Van de Vrie M, McMurty JA, Huffaker CB. Ecology of tetranychid mites and their natural enemies: a review. III. Biology, ecology and pest status, and host plant relations of tetranychids. *Hilgardia* 1972; 41:343-432.
11. Meyer MKPS. Mite pests and their predators on cultivated plants in southern Africa. *Vegetables and berries*. ARC, South Africa, 1996.
12. Navajas M. Host plant associations in the spider mite *Tetranychus urticae* (Acari: Tetranychidae): insights from molecular phylogeography. *Exp Appl Acarol* 1998; 22:201-214.
13. Nauen R, Stumph N, Elbert A, Zebitz CP, Kraus W. Acaricide toxicity and resistance in larvae of different strains of *Tetranychus urticae* and *Panonychus ulmi* (Acari: Tetranychidae). *Pest Manag Sci* 2001; 57:253-261.
14. Farouk S, Osman MA. The effect of plant defence elicitors on common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) growth and yield in absence or presence of spider mite (*Tetranychus urticae* Koch) infestation. *J Stress Physiol and Biochem* 2011; 7(3):6-22.
15. Johnson WT, Layon HH. *Insects that feed on trees and*

- shrubs*. Comstock Publishing and Cornell University press, Ithaca, NY, 1991, 416.
16. James DG, Price TS. Fecundity in two-spotted spider mite (Acari: Tetranychidae) increased by direct and systemic exposure to imidacloprid. *J Econ Entomol* 2002; 95(4):729-732.
 17. Irigaray FJS, Marco-Mancebón V, Pérez-Moreno I. The entomopathogenic fungus *Beauveria bassiana* and its compatibility with triflumuron: effect on the two-spotted spider mite, *Tetranychus urticae*. *Biol Control* 2003; 26:168-173.
 18. Parvin MM, Haque MM. Control of two-spotted spider mite, *Tetranychus articae* Koch (Acari: Tetranychidae) by predators on potted plants. *Univ J Zool* 2008; 27:51-54.
 19. Islam MT, Haque MM, Naher N, Parween S. Effect of plant materials on the developmental stages of two spotted spider mite *Tetranychus urticae* Koch (Acari: Tetranychidae). *J Bio Sci* 2008; 16:121-124.
 20. Haque M, Islam T, Naher N, Haque MM. Seasonal abundance of spider mite *Tetranychus urticae* Koch on vegetable and ornamental plants in Rajshahi. *Univ. j. zool. Rajshahi Univ* 2011; 30:37-40.
 21. Meyer MKPS, Craemer C. Mites (Arachnida: Acari) as crop pests in southern Africa: an overview. *Afr. Plant Prot* 1999; 5:37-51.
 22. Park YL, Lee JH. Leaf cell and tissue damage of cucumber caused by twospotted spider mite (Acari: Tetranychidae), *J Econ Entomol* 2002; 95:952-957.
 23. Sances FV, Wyman JA, Ting JP. Morphological responses of strawberry leaves to infestations of the two-spotted spider mite. *J Econ Entomol* 1979; 72:710-713.
 24. Avey DJ, Briggs JB. The etiology and development of damage in young fruit trees infested with fruit tree red spider mite, *Panonychus ulmi* (Koch). *Ann. Appl. Biol.* 1968; 61:227-228.
 25. Hussey NW, Parr WJ. The effect of glasshouse two-spotted spider mite on the yield of cucumber. *J Hort Sci* 1963a; 38:255-263.
 26. Boudreaux HB. Biological aspects of some phytophagous mites. *Ann Rev Entomol* 1958; 8:137-154.
 27. Coates TJD. The influence of some natural enemies and pesticides on various populations of *Tetranychus cinnabarinus* (Boisduval), *T. lombardinii* Baker & Pritchard and *T. ludeni* Zacher (Acari: Tetranychidae) with aspects of their biologies. *Ent Memoir No. 42 Dep Agr Techn Services South Africa*, 1974.
 28. Hebert HJ. Biology, life tables, and innate capacity for increase of the two-spotted spider mite, *Tetranychus urticae* (Acarina: Tetranychidae). *Can Entomol* 1981; 113:371-378.
 29. Meyer MKPS. Mite pests of crops in southern Africa. *Sci Bull Dep Agric Fish South Africa*, 1981.
 30. Helle W, Sabelis MW. Spider mites, their biology, natural enemies and control. Vol 1A, Elsevier, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 1985.
 31. Sabelis MW. Biological control of two-spotted spider mites using phytoseiid predators. Part 1. Modeling the predator-prey interaction at the individual level. *Agricultural Research Reports No. 910, Wageningen, Netherlands*, 1981.
 32. Mitchell R. Growth and population dynamics of a spider mite (*Tetranychus urticae* K., Acarina: Tetranychidae). *Ecology* 1973; 54:1349-1355.
 33. Brandenburg RL, Kennedy GG. Ecological and agricultural considerations in the management of two-spotted spider mite (*Tetranychus urticae* Koch). *Agric Zool Rev* 1987; 2:185-236.
 34. Wermelinger B, Oertli JJ, Baumgärtner J. Environmental factors affecting the life-tables of *Tetranychus urticae* (Acari: Tetranychidae) III. Host-plant nutrition. *Exp App Acarol* 1991; 12:259-274.
 35. Wilson LJ. Plant-quality effect on life-history parameters of the twospotted spider mite (Acari: Tetranychidae) on cotton. *J Econ Entomol* 1994; 87:1665-1673.
 36. Dicke M. Chemical ecology of host-plant selection by herbivorous arthropods: a multitrophic perspective. *Biochem. Syst. Ecol* 2000; 28:601-617.
 37. Marcic D. The effects of clofentezine on life-table parameters in two-spotted spider mite *Tetranychus urticae*. *Exp Appl Acarol* 2003; 30(4):249-63.
 38. Jeppson LR, Keifer HH, Baker EW. *Mites injurious to economic plants*. Univ Calif Press, 1975, 614.
 39. Duzgunes Z, Cobano S. The life history and tables *Tetranychus urticae* Koch and *Tetranychus cinnabarinus* (Boisduval) (Acarina: Tetranychidae) under the various temperatures and humidities. *Plant Prot Bul* 1983; 23(4):171-187.
 40. Singh RN, Singh J. Incidence of *Tetranychus cinnabarinus* in relation to weather factors in Varanasi. *Pestology* 1993; 17(8):18-23.
 41. Dhar T, Dey PK, Sarkar PK. Influence of abiotic factors on population build-up of red spider mite, *Tetranychus urticae* on okra *vis a vis* evaluation of some new pesticides for their control. *Pestology* 2000; 24(9):34-37.
 42. Putatunda BN, Tagore A. Effect of temperature, relative humidity and sunshine hours on mite population. In: *Mites, their identification and management* (eds. Yadav PR, Chauhan R, Putatunda BN, Chhillar BS.), CCS HAU, Hisar, India, 2003; 23-28.
 43. Gulati R. Incidence of *Tetranychus cinnabarinus* infestation on different varieties of *Abelmoschus esculentus*. *Ann Pl Protec Sci* 2004; 12:45-47.
 44. Sunita. Bionomics and control of mites on okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus* Linn.) Ph. D. Thesis, CCS HAU, Hisar, 1996, 96.
 45. Haque M, Islam T, Naher N, Haque MM. Seasonal abundance of spider mite *Tetranychus urticae* Koch on vegetable and ornamental plants in Rajshahi. *Univ j zool Rajshahi Univ* 2011; 30:37-40.
 46. Pande YD, Yadav SRS. A new host record of *Tetranychus macfarlanei* Baker and Pritchard (Acari: Tetranychidae). *Labdev J Sci and Tech* 1976; 13(B):75.
 47. Qui F, Li QS. Biology and population dynamics of *Tetranychus cinnabarinus* on cotton. *Insect knowledge* 1988; 25(6):333-338.
 48. Sadana GL, Kumari M. Seasonal history of *Brevipalpus phoenicis* on *Psidium guajava* cv. seedless guava. In: *Proc First Nat Sem Acarol Kalyani, West Bengal*, 1987, 18.
 49. Razowski J. *Sownik Enetomologiczny*. PWN, Warszawa, 1987.
 50. Bell G. *The Masterpiece of Nature: the Evolution and Genetics of Sexuality*. Croom Helm, 1982.
 51. Gerson U. Webbing. In: *Spider mites, their biology, natural enemies and control*. (Helle W. and Sabelis M.W. eds). Elsevier, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 1985, 223-232.
 52. Morimoto K, Furuichi H, Yano S, Osakaba MH. Web-mediated interspecific competition among spider mites. *J Econ Entomol* 2006; 99:678-684.
 53. Tauber MJ, Tauber CA, Massaki S. *Seasonal adaptations of insects*. Oxford University Press, New York, 1986.

54. Koveos DS, Kroon A and Veerman A. Geographic variation of diapause intensity in the spider mite *Tetranychus urticae*. *Physiological Entomology* 2006; 18 (1):50-56.
55. Kennedy GG, Smitley DR. Dispersal. In: Spider mites, their biology, natural enemies and control. (Helle W. and Sabelis M.W. eds). Vol. 1A Elsevier, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 1985, 233-242.
56. Veerman A. Aspects of stage induction of diapause in a laboratory strain of the mite *Tetranychus urticae*. *J. Insect. Physiol.* 1977; 23:703-711.
57. Koveos DS, Kroon A and Veerman A. The same photoperiodic clock may control induction and maintenance of diapause in the spider mite *Tetranychus urticae*. *Journal of Biological Rhythms* 1993; 8:265-282.
58. Huffaker CB, de Vrie MV, McMurtry JA. The ecology of tetranychid mites and their natural enemies. *Ann Rev Entomol* 1969; 14:125-144.
59. Veerman A. Spider mites: their biology, Natural enemies and Control Vol 1A, (ed. By W. Helle and M. W. Sabelis). Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1985, 279-319.
60. Koveos DS, Veerman A. Accumulation of phototrophic information during diapause development in the spider mite *Tetranychus urticae*. *Journal of Insect Physiology* 1994; 40:701-704.
61. Watson TF. Influence of host plant condition on population increase of *Tetranychus telarius* (Linnaeus) (Acarina: Tetranychidae). *Hilgardia* 1964; 35:273-322.
62. Hussey NW, Parr WJ. Dispersal of the glasshouse two-spotted spider mite *Tetranychus urticae* Koch (Acarina, Tetranychidae). *Entomol Exp Appl* 1963b; 6:207-214.
63. Margolies DC, Kennedy GG. Movement of the two-spotted spider-mite, *Tetranychus-urticae*, among hosts in a corn-peanut agroecosystem. *Entomologia Experimentalis Et Applicata* 1985; 37:55-61.
64. Clotuche G, Mailleux AC, Fernández AA, Deneubourg JL, Detrain C. The formation of Collective Silk Balls in the Spider Mite *Tetranychus urticae* Koch. *PLoS ONE* 2011; 6(4):1804-1817.
65. Bell JR, Bohan DA, Shaw EM, Weyman GS. Ballooning dispersal using silk: world fauna, phylogenies, genetics and models. *Bull Entomol Res* 2005; 95:69-114.
66. Bonte D, Vandebroecke N, Lens L, Maelfait JP. Low propensity for aerial dispersal in specialist spiders from fragmented landscapes. *Proc R Soc Lond* 2003; 18:385-402.
67. Bonte D, Borre JV, Lens L, Maelfait JP. Geographic variation in wolfspider dispersal behaviour is related to landscape structure. *Anim Behav* 2006; 72:655-662.
68. Li JB, Margolies DC. Effects of Mite Age, Mite Density, and Host Quality on Aerial Dispersal Behavior in the two-Spotted Spider-Mite. *Entomologia Experimentalis Et Applicata* 1993; 68:79-86.
69. Yano S. Does *Tetranychus urticae* (Acari: tetranychidae) use flying insects as vectors for phoretic dispersal? *Expl Appl Acarol* 2004; 32:243-248.
70. Osakabe MH, Isobe H, Kasai A, Masuda R, Kubota S. Aerodynamic advantages of upside down take-off for aerial dispersal in *Tetranychus* spider mites. *Expl Appl Acarol* 2008; 44:165-183.
71. Miller RW, Croft BA, Nelson RD. Effects of early season immigration on cyhexatin and formetanate resistance of *Tetranychus urticae* (Acari: Tetranychidae) on strawberry in central California. *Journal of Economic Entomology* 1985; 78:1379-1386.
72. Weeks AR, Turelli M, Hoffman AA. Dispersal patterns of pest earth mites (Acari: Penthaleidae) in pasture and crops. *J Econ Entomol* 2000; 93:1415-1423.