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# CHEMOECOLOGY



# Your chemical coat tells me you are my delicacy: a predatory stink bug uses cuticular hydrocarbons to identify prey

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Received: 22 August 2017 / Accepted: 19 March 2018 / Published online: 22 March 2018 © Springer International Publishing AG, part of Springer Nature 2018

#### Abstract

Extensive studies have shown that cuticular hydrocarbons (CHCs) are among the major cues that allow many insects to identify interspecific and intraspecific variation between individuals. CHCs often have mutually nonexclusive functions that can provide multiple types of signals, while their role in predator–prey interactions has received little attention. Here, we used a predatory stink bug, *Zicrona caerulea* (Hemiptera: Pentatomidae), and one of its favorite flea beetle prey, *Altica viridicyanea* (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae), to test the hypothesis that CHCs of prey are important chemical cues for a predator. Two-choice bioassays using dead beetles and glass dummies clearly indicated that the CHC profile of *A. viridicyanea* is the pivotal cue in prey identification for *Z. caerulea*. The results also suggested that the role of acoustic and visual cues can be ignored in prey recognition at close range.

Keywords Cuticular hydrocarbon · Chemical cue · Predation · Prey preference · Altica · Zicrona

# Introduction

Cuticular hydrocarbons (CHCs) of insects often are comprised of straight chain, unsaturated and methyl-branched complex mixtures with the chain lengths ranging from 21 to 50 and, in some rare cases, even 70 carbon atoms (Blomquist and Bagnères 2010; Ginzel and Blomquist 2016). In addition to acting as a desiccation barrier, the nonvolatile CHCs may have mutually nonexclusive functions and can provide multiple chemical communication signals in many insects (Ginzel and Blomquist 2016). While CHCs are involved in several important functions in insects such as species recognition (Peterson et al. 2007; Zhang et al. 2014), sex and breeding status discrimination (Dietemann et al. 2003; Monnin 2006; Scott et al. 2008), nestmate and kin recognition (Lahav et al. 1999; Thomas et al. 1999; Wagner et al. 2000; Lorenzi et al.

Communicated by Thomas Schmitt.

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2004; Lihoreau and Rivault 2009; Rahman et al. 2016) and chemical mimicry (Akino et al. 1999; Endo and Itino 2013) their role in predator–prey interactions has received little attention outside of several hymenoptera species (Uma and Weiss 2010; Koedam et al. 2011; Endo and Itino 2013; Rutledge et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2014; Ranganathan et al. 2015; Binz et al. 2016; Ginzel and Blomquist 2016).

Our previous studies showed that CHCs were used by *Altica* Geoffroy (Insecta: Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) species in inter- and intra-specific individual discrimination. In mating choice tests, the male beetles not only can recognize conspecific females from those of closely related species (Xue et al. 2016a), but also can distinguish males from females and distinguish sexually mature females from immature ones, partly using CHCs (Xue et al. 2016b).

Zicrona caerulea (Linnaeus) is a cosmopolitan species (Rider and Zheng 2002) with the common name "blue shieldbug" belonging to the Pentatomidae family (Hemiptera). The bug favours leaf beetles as prey, and *Altica* is its most common prey (Phillips 1977; Wang et al. 2005; Bantock and Botting 2013). Because of a deep blue-green metallic luster similar to that of *Altica* adults, the bug was suggested as a case of aggressive mimicry (Bantock and Botting 2013; also see Fig. 1). In addition to other areas, *Z. caerulea* was often found preying on larvae and adults of *Altica* species in Beijing, China, including *Altica cirsicola* 

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Fig. 1 The blue shieldbug Zicrona caerulea preys on a flea beetle Altica viridicyanea

Ohno, *A. fragariae* Nakane and *A. viridicyanea* (Baly) (H.J. Xue, personal observation). Here, we tried to use the "*Zicrona-Altica*" system to test the hypothesis that the stink bug predator uses CHCs to identify prey.

# Materials and methods

### Insects

Adults of Z. caerulea (length 5.0–7.0 mm) and A. viridicyanea (length 3.0–4.0 mm) were collected from field populations in Liuchun (40.11°N, 116.01°E), Changping, Beijing and then maintained in growth chambers held at 16:8 LD and 25 °C. A. viridicyanea was fed their normal host plants Geranium nepalense (Sweet) and Z. caerulea was fed with larvae and adults of A. viridicyanea.

#### **Prey bioassays**

In a previous study, six (semi-) volatile and 19 nonvolatile CHC components (relative percentage > 0.5%) were identified from hexane extracts of *A. viridicyanea*. After solvent evaporation, most of the remaining chemicals in hexane extracts are nonvolatile CHC components (Xue et al. 2016b). In the present study, hexane was used as a solvent to strip the CHCs of beetles and to coat the dummies with CHCs.

In the prey preference bioassays, we constructed arenas using Petri dishes  $(9.0 \times 1.2 \text{ cm})$  lined with moistened filter paper. Three bioassays were carried out in a temperature-controlled room held at 25–27 °C under natural light conditions.

In bioassay I, one killed beetle with intact CHCs and one killed beetle stripped of its CHCs were presented to a stink bug. Randomly selected individuals of *A. viridicyanea* were

killed by freezing at -30 °C for 20 min. To strip the CHCs, each beetle was dipped in 0.8 mL hexane (Ourchem, Sinopharm Chemical Regent Co., Ltd, Shanghai, China) for 15 min six times. Previous GC-FID analysis showed that nearly all of the CHCs were removed by this wash step (Xue et al. 2016b). The dead specimens were glued (Konishi glue, Japan) to a small piece of triangular filter paper (length = 1.0 cm), then to the wall of a Petri dish (the two specimens were about 2.5 cm apart) (c.f. Xue et al. 2016a, b). The solvent was evaporated in a chemical fume hood before tests.

In bioassay II, we utilized a similar setup to bioassay I, but one beetle with CHCs stripped and one beetle with CHCs stripped and then reapplied were presented to a stink bug. For the second group, CHCs were extracted by soaking each beetle in 40  $\mu$ L hexane for about 15 min. Then CHC-free specimens were dipped in the above extracts to reapply CHCs, and the solvent was evaporated in a chemical fume hood.

In bioassay III, black glass dummies (diameter=3 mm) were used instead of beetles. To obtain beetle cuticular extracts, each beetle was dipped in 40  $\mu$ L hexane for 15 min. One glass dummy was submerged in 80  $\mu$ L cuticular extracts (each dummy was treated with the hexane extracts of two beetles because its surface area is much larger than that of a beetle) and the other dummy just treated with hexane, then the solvent was evaporated in a chemical fume hood. These two dummies were glued on the bottom of Petri dishes about 2.5 cm apart from each other.

In all bioassays, stink bugs were starved for 24 h to increase their predatory desire before feeding tests. Fortytwo replicates were conducted for each bioassay. One-hour bioassays were carried out because trial tests showed that predation percentage exceed 50% during that period. The number of successful predations and the prey preferences were recorded during the tests. In bioassays I and II, a predation was considered successful when the bug inserted its rostrum into the beetle for longer than 1 min; in bioassay III, a successful predation was recorded when the bug exhibited proboscis-protruding behavior (Yasuda 1997), i.e., tried to insert its rostrum into the glass dummy.

#### Data analysis

Prey preference was analyzed using Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) tests in SPSS 18.0 (IBM, Armonk, NY, USA).

## **Results and discussion**

The results of bioassay I showed that all *Z. caerulea* individuals preferred *A. viridicyanea* with intact CHCs to those with CHCs stripped (Fig. 2a). In bioassay II, only one *Z*.



*caerulea* preyed on a beetle without CHCs in a total of 26 successful predation events ( $\chi^2 = 22.154$ , p < 0.001; Fig. 2b). Similarly, in bioassay III, only one *Z. caerulea* selected a dummy without CHCs in a total of 24 successful predation events ( $\chi^2 = 20.167$ , p < 0.001; Fig. 2c).

The results of bioassays I and II suggested that beetle CHCs are important cues for the stink bug predator. In bioassay I, one beetle was treated with hexane, so the effect of the solvent may affect predatory behavior. In bioassay II, both beetles were treated with hexane, so the effect of the solvent could be ruled out. Although gas chromatography analysis showed that nearly all of the CHCs were removed during the hexane wash step (Xue et al. 2016b), some queries may be raised because other chemicals (such as esters, free fatty acids, alcohols, ketones and sterols) on the beetle surface may bias the predatory behavior of Z. caerulea. In bioassay III, the only difference between the two dummies was whether they were coated with beetle CHCs or not (almost all of the chemicals left after solvent evaporation were nonvolatile CHCs). Therefore, the results further verified that CHCs play a pivotal role in prey recognition for Z. caerulea.

Olfactory, visual and acoustic cues from prey are often used by insect predators to assess food information (Wang et al. 2014). Several wasps were reported as efficiently using olfactory cues to locate prey, for example, the digger wasp, *Liris niger* (Anton and Gnatzy 1998); European beewolf, Philanthus triangulum (Herzner et al. 2005); the social paper wasp. Mischocyttarus flavitarsis (McPheron and Mills 2007); the spider-hunting wasp, Sceliphron caementarium (Uma and Weiss 2010); digger wasp Trachypus boharti (Koedam et al. 2011); a ground-nesting wasp Cerceris fumipennis (Rutledge et al. 2014) and the hornet Vespa velutina (Wang et al. 2014). In most cases, a combination of olfactory and visual cues facilitates predators in detecting, locating and identifying their prey. The different types of cues may play different roles in different stages of predation. In the paper wasp Mischocyttarus flavitarsis, olfactory cues play a significant role in both short-range and long-range location of prey, while visual cues are negligible in foraging behavior (McPheron and Mills 2007). Some other insect predators, for example, the stinkbug Podisus maculiventris use vibrations produced by prey as cues for prey location (Pfannenstiel et al. 1995). In the present study, the hypothesis that prey CHCs act as important chemical cues for a stink bug predator was supported by direct behavioral evidence. Our study using dead beetles and dummies rejected the likelihood of acoustic signals in prey identification. Likewise, the results of bioassay III using dummies instead of beetles also indicated visual signals do not play a decisive role in predation behaviour. The bioassays were carried out in a limited space in the present study (Petri dishes with diameter = 9 cm), no doubt nonvolatile CHCs play a pivotal role at a close range while the visual function at a distance still cannot be rejected.

Previous studies showed that the CHC profiles of *Altica* are species-specific (Xue et al. 2016a, b), furthermore, although *Z. caerulea* prefers *Altica* species to other insects, it is not a strict specialist predator. For example, it also preys upon *Leptinotarsa decemlineata* (Chrysomelidae) and caterpillars (Lepidoptera) occasionally (Shu et al. 2012). This suggests that the chemical cues eliciting predatory behavior may be common chemicals existing in various insect prey (Yasuda and Wakamura 1996). Alternatively, the bug may respond to multiple chemical cues released by prey during prey-search behavior (Binz et al. 2016).

The chemical compounds triggering predatory behavior have been seldom identified. A long-chain alcohol, (Z)-11-eicosen-1-ol, was suggested as an essential component of the prey recognition cue for the European beewolf, *Philanthus triangulum* (Herzner et al. 2005). Behavioral bioassays showed that the stinkbug *Eocanthecona furcellata* mainly uses two volatile chemicals from extracts of *Spodoptera litura* to locate its prey: *n*-pentadecane attracts the bugs and *E*phytol stimulates their proboscis-protruding behavior (Yasuda and Wakamura 1996; Yasuda 1997). For the "*Zicrona-Altica*" system, further studies are required to identify the behaviorally active compounds, which will give deeper insights into the mechanism of predatory behavior.

**Acknowledgements** We thank Rui-E Nie and Ming-Xia Guo for assistance in field collecting and bioassays, anonymous reviewers for helpful comments and Elizabeth McHone for helpful comments and English editing. This study was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 31272302) awarded to H.J.X.

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