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# Chemical interaction between the larva of a dipteran parasitoid and its coleopteran host: A case of exploitation of the communication system during the searching behaviour?

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## Abstract

The robber fly *Mallophora ruficauda* is one of the principal apicultural pests in the Pampas region of Argentina. As adults, the flies prey on honey bees and other insects; while, as larvae, they parasitize scarab beetle larvae. Females of *M. ruficauda* lay eggs away from the host in tall grasses. After being dispersed by the wind, larvae drop to the ground, where they dig in search of their hosts. It is known that second instar larvae of *M. ruficauda* exhibit active host searching behaviour towards its preferred host, third instar larva of *Cyclocephala signaticollis*, using host-related chemical cues. Furthermore, previous works show that these chemical cues are produced in the posterior body half of hosts. However, the precise anatomical origin of these cues and whether they mediate any behaviour of *C. signaticollis* larvae remains yet unknown. In order to determine the precise origin of the chemical cue, we carried out olfactometer assays with different stimuli of extracts of the posterior *C. signaticollis* body half. Additionally, we tested whether *C. signaticollis* is attracted to any of the same extracts as in the previous experiments. We found that both second instar *M. ruficauda* and third instar of *C. signaticollis* are attracted to extracts of the fermentation chamber (proctodeum). This is the first report of attraction of conspecific larvae in scarab beetles. We discuss a possible case of system communication exploitation in an immature parasitoid-host system.

**Keywords:** host location, parasitoid, Asilidae, Scarabaeidae, infochemicals

(Accepted 19 October 2011)

## Introduction

Chemical compounds play an important role in life of organisms. They are involved in almost every behaviour and

physiological responses related to the location of resources as food, mates and oviposition sites (Dicke & Sabelis, 1988; Vet & Dicke, 1992; Vet, 1999; Dicke & Grostal, 2001). The infochemicals are a particular group of chemical compounds that convey information between individuals, which are involved in interactions among individuals of the same (pheromones) or different species (allelochemicals) (Dicke & Sabelis, 1988). Allelochemicals are very important cues used by predators and parasitoids to locate preys in a complex context (Vet &

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45 Dicke, 1992; Godfray, 1994; Stowe *et al.*, 1995; Bottrell &  
 46 Barbosa, 1998). According to the sources, they are produced  
 47 directly by prey or indirectly mainly by host plants of  
 48 herbivorous preys and products derived from prey activities  
 49 (Lewis & Martin, 1990; Vet & Dicke, 1992; Godfray, 1994;  
 50 Stowe *et al.*, 1995; Vet *et al.*, 1995; Bottrell & Barbosa, 1998; De  
 51 Moraes *et al.*, 2000; Steidle & van Loon, 2003). Products of prey  
 52 activities are weak signals rather than host plants of prey, but  
 53 they are the most reliable source of allelochemicals that can  
 54 inform to predators on the presence, identity, density, avail-  
 55 ability and suitability of the prey (Vet *et al.*, 1991; Vet & Dicke,  
 56 1992; Stowe *et al.*, 1995). For the allelochemicals produced  
 57 directly from the prey, several sources have been identified:  
 58 faeces, cuticle, exuviae, honeydew, body scales, hemolymph  
 59 or body secretions (Vet *et al.*, 1991; Vet & Dicke, 1992; Stowe  
 60 *et al.*, 1995).

61 Pheromones serve as good indicators of the presence of an  
 62 individual of a species and are involved in behaviours such as  
 63 aggregation, mate or host location (Dicke & Sabelis, 1988;  
 64 Stowe *et al.*, 1995; Wertheim, 2005; Wertheim *et al.*, 2005). Since  
 65 pheromones mediate the communication between conspeci-  
 66 fics, they might be an important source of information for  
 67 predators and parasitoids that can benefit from exploiting this  
 68 communication system (Aldrich, 1995; Stowe *et al.*, 1995;  
 69 Wertheim, 2005; Wertheim *et al.*, 2005).

70 Within dipteran parasitoids, pheromones are mainly used  
 71 as cues in location of hosts (Aldrich, 1995; Stowe *et al.*, 1995;  
 72 Feener Jr & Brown, 1997; Stireman III *et al.*, 2006). Moreover,  
 73 several egg, larval and pupal parasitoids in this group actually  
 74 use pheromones produced by adults to locate the immature  
 75 host stages. This strategy is a solution to the reliability-  
 76 detectability problem, called the 'infochemical detour' (Vet &  
 77 Dicke, 1992; Wiskerke *et al.*, 1993). Particularly, this searching  
 78 strategy is relevant in those dipteran parasitoids that have a  
 79 split host location strategy with an active larval stage perform-  
 80 ing the final location and parasitism of the host (Eggleton &  
 81 Belshaw, 1992, 1993; Godfray, 1994; Feener Jr & Brown, 1997;  
 82 Brodeur & Boivin, 2004). Parasitoids with this host location  
 83 strategy must use reliable cues, such as pheromones, to find  
 84 them efficiently given their mobility and the potential time-  
 85 limitation (Brodeur & Boivin, 2004). The use of host-reliable  
 86 cues enhances the efficiency in host finding and consequently  
 87 increases the fitness on time-limited parasitoids (Vet *et al.*,  
 88 1991; Wajnberg *et al.*, 2006). However, there are few studies  
 89 dealing specifically with the origin of the pheromones used as  
 90 cues by the active larval stage in the host-seeking behaviour  
 91 (Coulibaly & Fanti, 1992). One of the possible sources of the  
 92 production is the tissue or the cells that are involved in the  
 93 production of aggregation or sexual pheromones (Leal, 1998;  
 94 Tillman *et al.*, 1999; Ma & Ramaswamy, 2003; Wyatt, 2003).  
 95 There is much variability in the anatomic location of this  
 96 tissue, but the abdomen appears to be the most common  
 97 location for Blattodea, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera (Leal,  
 98 1998; Tillman *et al.*, 1999; Ma & Ramaswamy, 2003). The other  
 99 source of pheromone production is the microorganisms that  
 100 live in virtually every insect (Hoyt *et al.*, 1971; Byers & Wood,  
 101 1981; Dicke, 1988). There are microorganisms that are strictly  
 102 dependent on their hosts and others that can live freely. The  
 103 location of these microorganisms in the host varies with the  
 104 species it is associated with (Hoyt *et al.*, 1971; Byers & Wood,  
 105 1981; Dicke, 1988).

106 *Mallophora ruficauda* Wiedemann (Diptera: Asilidae) is a  
 107 robber fly endemic to the Pampas region of Argentina that  
 108 inhabits open grasslands near bee farms (Rabinovich &

109 Corley, 1997). As an adult, *M. ruficauda* feeds mainly on  
 110 foraging honeybees and other flying insects; and, as larva, is  
 111 an ectoparasitoid of the third instar larvae of *Cyclocephala*  
 112 *signaticollis* Burmeister (Coleoptera: Scarabaeidae), which are  
 113 commonly known as white grubs. Females oviposit on tall  
 114 grasses or artificial supports, such as wire fences, laying egg-  
 115 clutches covered by albumin (Copello, 1922; Castelo & Corley,  
 116 2004; Castelo *et al.*, 2006). After hatching, larvae are dispersed  
 117 by the wind, falling to the ground, where they start to dig  
 118 searching for their host (Castelo & Capurro, 2000; Castelo *et al.*,  
 119 2006). Particularly, it is the second instar larva of *M. ruficauda*  
 120 that performs an active searching of the hosts (Crespo &  
 121 Castelo, 2008). According to the biology of the hosts, females  
 122 of *C. signaticollis* lay isolated eggs in the soil, walking some  
 123 distance after each oviposition (López *et al.*, 1994). After  
 124 hatching, first instar larvae feed on organic material; and, in  
 125 the next stadium, they feed on turfgrass and roots of a great  
 126 variety of plants, consuming a lot of vegetable food (Alvarado,  
 127 1980). To find the plants, beetle larvae have to move into the  
 128 soil and, when the temperature is stable, tend to remain in the  
 129 upper root zone (Villani & Wright, 1990). During winter, a  
 130 seasonal pattern of vertical movement apparently associated  
 131 with soil temperature has been documented in several species  
 132 of scarab grubs (Villani & Wright, 1990).

133 Previous works have demonstrated that the sources of the  
 134 infochemicals involved in this system are associated with the  
 135 digestive tube of the third instar larva of *C. signaticollis*  
 136 (Castelo & Lazzari, 2004; Crespo & Castelo, 2008).  
 137 Nevertheless, the precise anatomic location where these  
 138 infochemicals are produced is unknown. It is also unknown  
 139 whether these infochemicals mediate any behaviour of  
 140 *C. signaticollis* larvae. Previous studies indicate that there are  
 141 two possible anatomical locations where the allelochemicals  
 142 might be present: glandular tissues or symbiotic microorgan-  
 143 isms inside the digestive tube. According to the morphology  
 144 and histology of the digestive tube, both hypotheses are valid  
 145 (Hoyt *et al.*, 1971; Bauchop & Clarke, 1975; Byers & Wood,  
 146 1981; López-Guerrero & Morón, 1990; Cazemier *et al.*, 1997;  
 147 Egert *et al.*, 2005).

148 In the present work, we study some aspects of the chemi-  
 149 cal ecology of the host-parasitoid system composed by  
 150 *C. signaticollis* (the host) and *M. ruficauda* (the parasitoid).  
 151 The aims of this work were to determine: (i) which part of  
 152 the posterior intestine of *C. signaticollis* is associated to the  
 153 attractive chemicals for *M. ruficauda* larvae, and (ii) if the  
 154 chemicals attractive to *M. ruficauda* larvae mediate behaviours  
 155 in *C. signaticollis* larvae. For this study, we analyze, by means  
 156 of behavioural experiments, how the display of different  
 157 stimuli extracted from body parts of the host affects  
 158 differentially the orientation response of *M. ruficauda* larvae.  
 159 We also examine the orientation response of white grub  
 160 individuals using the same stimuli that were used with  
 161 *M. ruficauda*. We expect that *M. ruficauda* use host infochem-  
 162 icals mediating conspecific interaction between individuals of  
 163 *C. signaticollis* as a cue for finding them, when both species  
 164 show an orientation response towards the same stimulus  
 165 extract.

## 166 Materials and methods

167 In order to determine both the anatomic production site  
 168 and whether the infochemicals that mediate the orientation  
 169 behaviour of *M. ruficauda* larvae also mediate any behaviour

170 of *C. signaticollis* larvae, we used second-instar larvae of  
 171 *M. ruficauda* and third-instar larvae of *C. signaticollis* in binary  
 172 choice tests using different *C. signaticollis* stimuli.

### 173 *Experimental conditions*

174 Experiments on *M. ruficauda* were conducted during  
 175 January–March 2009 under laboratory conditions ( $25.7 \pm$   
 176  $1.6^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $60.0 \pm 5\%$  RH), in days with atmospheric pressure  
 177 between 1012 and 1020 mbar. For the *C. signaticollis*  
 178 experiments, the tests were made in July–August 2008 under  
 179 laboratory conditions ( $22.5 \pm 1.3^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $63.0 \pm 15\%$  RH) under  
 180 atmospheric pressure values between 1005 and 1024 mbar.

181 Since environmental conditions influence behaviour of  
 182 insects (Roitberg *et al.*, 1993; Amat *et al.*, 2006), pressure  
 183 and temperature ranges under which the experiments with  
 184 *M. ruficauda* and *C. signaticollis* larvae were performed were  
 185 those in which insects had shown an orientation behaviour  
 186 in previous experiments (Castelo & Lazzari, 2004; Crespo &  
 187 Castelo, 2008; Crespo, 2011). In order to keep the experimental  
 188 conditions similar to natural conditions, all experiments were  
 189 carried out in darkness, because both insect species in these  
 190 instars live underground.

191 In order to guarantee the occurrence of behavioural  
 192 responses, we used experimental extracts of the host, equiv-  
 193 alent to 2.5 white grubs  $\text{ml}^{-1}$  hexane, for experiments with  
 194 *M. ruficauda* larvae, which is more than double the concen-  
 195 tration used by Castelo & Lazzari (2004). For experiments with  
 196 *C. signaticollis* larvae, we used experimental extracts of one  
 197 white grub  $\text{ml}^{-1}$  hexane to ensure behavioural responses of  
 198 individuals (Castelo, 2003).

### 199 *Insects*

200 Larvae of *M. ruficauda* were reared in the laboratory from  
 201 egg-clusters collected in January–March 2009 on grasslands in  
 202 Pilar ( $34^\circ 28' \text{S}$ ,  $58^\circ 55' \text{W}$ ) and Moreno ( $34^\circ 46' \text{S}$ ,  $58^\circ 93' \text{W}$ ), two  
 203 localities with apiculture activity, in Buenos Aires province,  
 204 Argentina. In the field, egg-clusters were carefully cut off from  
 205 their support and were kept individually in Falcon-type tubes  
 206 until larvae were hatched. In the laboratory, after hatching, the  
 207 neonate larvae were separated individually in Eppendorf-type  
 208 tubes with a moistened piece of filter paper as substrate, to  
 209 keep humidity inside the tube at 100%. Tubes were stored in  
 210 darkness and at room temperature in the laboratory between  
 211  $18.6$ – $29.8^\circ\text{C}$ . When the larvae reached the second instar and  
 212 were 22 to 25 days old, they were used to perform the behav-  
 213 ioural experiments.

214 Scarab larvae were collected at soil depth of 0.30 m in  
 215 grasslands of Pilar, Mercedes ( $34^\circ 40' \text{S}$ ,  $59^\circ 26' \text{W}$ ) and Nuñez  
 216 ( $34^\circ 32' \text{S}$ ,  $56^\circ 26' \text{W}$ ) localities, in Buenos Aires province,  
 217 Argentina, from May to August 2008. Third-instar larvae of  
 218 *C. signaticollis* were identified using the taxonomic key of  
 219 Alvarado (1980), which is based on the morphology of the  
 220 raster. *Cyclocephala signaticollis* individuals were maintained  
 221 individually in the laboratory at room temperature ( $18.6$ –  
 222  $29.8^\circ\text{C}$ ) in black tubes (30 ml) filled with soil and were fed  
 223 weekly with pieces of fresh carrots.

### 224 *Extraction of C. signaticollis stimuli*

225 Host stimuli used along the experiments were obtained  
 226 from different body portions of third instar larvae of  
 227 *C. signaticollis*, following the protocols used by Castelo &

Lazzari (2004) and Crespo & Castelo (2008). Immediately after  
 228 collection, larvae of *C. signaticollis* were dissected in several  
 229 parts, and each body portion was homogenized using hexane  
 230 as solvent, obtaining an extract with the host infochemicals. A  
 231 list of stimuli extracts tested in experiments with *M. ruficauda*  
 232 and *C. signaticollis* individuals used as experimental individ-  
 233 uals are shown in fig. 1. Each type of extract was made only  
 234 once, and a fraction of the same vial was offered to both insects  
 235 in the experiments in due time. To determine whether the  
 236 infochemicals used by *M. ruficauda* in the orientation to  
 237 *C. signaticollis* individuals mediate any behaviour in the host,  
 238 we tested the same body portions utilized in Castelo & Lazzari  
 239 (2004) but with the host as experimental individual: anterior  
 240 body half (AB), posterior body half (PB), posterior body  
 241 wall (cuticle) (PC), posterior half of the digestive tube (PDT),  
 242 faeces (F).  
 243

244 Castelo & Lazzari (2004) determined that the origin of the  
 245 chemical cues linked to the orientation behaviour of *M.*  
 246 *ruficauda* is in the posterior half of the digestive tube of the  
 247 host. In order to find the specific structure that produces the  
 248 infochemicals, host extracts were made by dividing the last  
 249 part of the digestive tube in three portions: posterior  
 250 mesenteron (M), fermentation chamber (FC) and colon (C).  
 251 Also, in other experimental series, the content of the posterior  
 252 digestive tube was separated from the epithelium, to  
 253 determine if the cue is produced by the gut tissues of the  
 254 fermentation chamber (López-Guerrero & Morón, 1990) or by  
 255 the presence of symbionts in the tract (Chapman, 1998). We  
 256 used two protocols to carry out the extraction of the stimuli  
 257 of both parts of the gut. In the first protocol, the content  
 258 of the digestive tube was separated from the epithelium, and  
 259 the content was homogenized using hexane as solvent. Then,  
 260 the tissue was washed with distilled water and then homo-  
 261 genized with hexane. For the second protocol, the epithelium  
 262 was treated as previously, but the chemical cues present  
 263 in the content of the fermentation chamber were obtained by  
 264 a solvent extraction using a separating funnel. This techni-  
 265 que allowed us to separate the chemical cues from the  
 266 whole content of the fermentation chamber, dissolving their  
 267 content in two immiscible liquids (hexane-water). Due to  
 268 being nonpolar compounds (Castelo & Lazzari, 2004), these  
 269 substances were extracted in a nonpolar solvent fraction  
 270 (hexane).

### 271 *Responses of individuals to host/conspecific stimuli*

272 Experiments to determine the behavioural responses of the  
 273 insects were performed using similar experimental arenas as  
 274 in Castelo & Lazzari (2004). We divided the arenas into three  
 275 equally sized zones (one middle and two laterals) along the  
 276 long axis. On each lateral zone of the arena, a piece of filter  
 277 paper impregnated with a volume of either the stimulus or the  
 278 control extract was placed. At the beginning of each trial, an  
 279 individual was released at the centre of the arena and allowed  
 280 to move freely. After a time of experimentation, its position in  
 281 the arena was recorded. In this way, three possible responses  
 282 could be obtained: choice for the stimulus (S), for the control  
 283 (C) or no decision (ND) if the individual remained in the  
 284 middle zone. After every trial, each individual was discarded  
 285 and the arena was cleaned with soap and water, and then  
 286 dried with an air current in order to eliminate possible larval  
 287 odours. Experimental design and number of replicates for  
 288 each experiment is detailed in table 1.

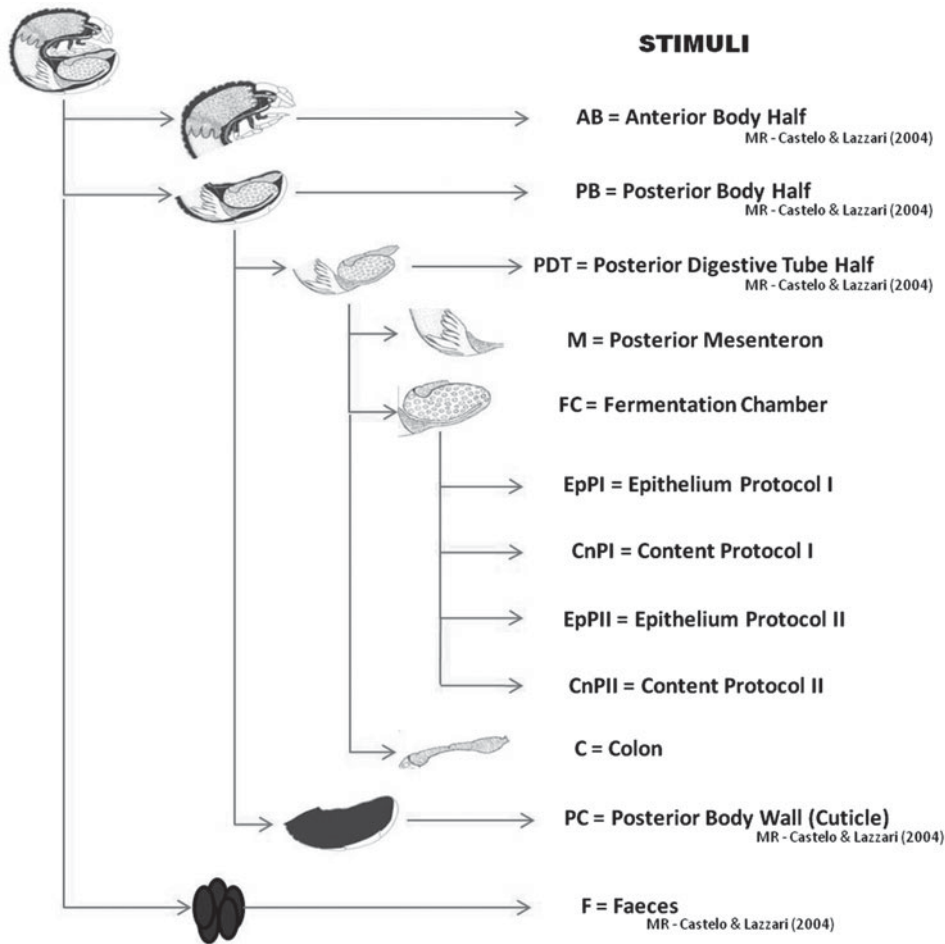


Fig. 1. Regions of the body of *C. signaticollis* larvae from which extracts were used in behavioural assays throughout the experiments. MR – Castelo & Lazzari (2004) indicates previous studies where some of these extracts were tested on *M. ruficauda* larvae.

#### 289 Responses of *M. ruficauda* to host stimuli

290 Behavioural experiments with *M. ruficauda* were carried on  
291 in an arena of  $9 \times 6 \times 1$  cm using a piece of filter paper of  $1 \times 2$  cm  
292 impregnated with  $10 \mu\text{l}$  of either the stimulus or the control  
293 extract. In each trial, an individual larva was released as  
294 experimental individual at the centre of the arena, and after  
295 90 min of experimentation, its position in the arena was  
296 recorded (table 1).

#### 297 Responses of *C. signaticollis* to conspecific stimuli

298 For behavioural experiments with *C. signaticollis*, we  
299 carried out trials with an arena of  $13 \times 8 \times 2$  cm. In each lateral  
300 side of the experimental arena, a filter paper of  $2 \times 3$  cm  
301 impregnated with  $40 \mu\text{l}$  of stimulus or control extract was  
302 presented. An individual larva was released at the centre of  
303 the arena in each trial as experimental individual; and, after  
304 45 min of experimentation, its position in the arena was  
305 recorded (table 1).

#### 306 Statistical analysis

307 In the experiments, we tested the influence of *C. signaticollis*  
308 stimuli on the orientation behaviour of both *M. ruficauda*

larvae and *C. signaticollis* larvae. In both orientation exper- 309  
iments, preference of insects for either side of the experimen- 310  
tal arena (stimulus or control) was tested against a random 311  
distribution by means of  $\chi^2$  tests of goodness of fit (one-way 312  
contingency table analysis: Sokal & Rohlf, 1969; Zar, 1984; 313  
Rosner, 1995). Individuals that remained in the middle zone of 314  
the arena (no decision response) were excluded from the 315  
analysis. 316

## 317 Results

### 318 Responses of *M. ruficauda* to host stimuli

319 When second instar larvae of *M. ruficauda* were exposed to  
320 *C. signaticollis* third instar larvae odours, experiments revealed  
321 that the infochemicals that evoke the positive orientation  
322 behaviour of *M. ruficauda* toward the host are associated to the  
323 fermentation chamber (table 1, fig. 2). However, larvae  
324 distributed at random in the experimental arena when they  
325 were exposed to extract of both epithelium and content of the  
326 fermentation chamber of its host treated with any of both  
327 protocols (table 1, fig. 3). These results did not allow us to  
328 determine the precise biosynthesis origin of the infochemicals  
329 used by the larvae of *M. ruficauda* during the host-seeking  
330 behaviour.

Table 1. Olfactometer experiments carried out to evaluate the response of *M. ruficauda* and *C. signaticollis* larvae to odours from different parts of the body of third instar *C. signaticollis* larvae.

MR, *M. ruficauda*; CS, *C. signaticollis*; AB, anterior body half; PB, posterior body half; PDT, posterior digestive tube half; M, posterior mesenteron; FC, fermentation chamber; EpPI, epithelium protocol I; CnPI, content protocol I; EpPII, epithelium protocol II; CnPII, content protocol II; C, colon; PC, posterior body wall (cuticle); F, faeces; H, hexane (control). Numbers show the replicates for experiments with MR and CS larvae. Between brackets, the total number of individuals that made a choice (left: stimulus; right: solvent) in the experimental arena.

Experiment (stimulus – control)	MR	CS	Description	MR $\chi^2$ ; <i>P</i>	CS $\chi^2$ ; <i>P</i>
AB – H	–	54 (25–21)	Anterior body half extract.	–	0.35 ; >0.5
PB – H	–	55 (33–18)	Posterior body half extract.	–	4.41 ; <0.05
PDT – H	–	54 (34–15)	Posterior digestive tube half extract.	–	7.37 ; <0.01
M – H	100 (37–33)	70 (31–20)	Posterior mesenteron extract.	0.23 ; >0.5	2.37 ; >0.1
FC – H	100 (51–29)	70 (36–20)	Fermentation chamber extract.	6.05 ; <0.025	4.57 ; <0.05
EpPI – H	200 (67–74)	64 (25–22)	Epithelium of FC extract (protocol I).	0.35 ; >0.5	0.19 ; >0.5
CnPI – H	200 (61–59)	64 (28–26)	Content of FC extract (protocol I).	0.03 ; >0.75	0.07 ; >0.75
EpPII – H	200 (58–68)	64 (27–19)	Epithelium of FC extract (protocol II).	0.79 ; >0.25	1.39 ; >0.1
CnPII – H	200 (63–57)	64 (25–20)	Content of FC extract (protocol II).	0.3 ; >0.5	0.56 ; >0.25
C – H	150 (56–43)	70 (33–24)	Colon extract.	1.71 ; >0.1	1.42 ; >0.1
PC – H	–	54 (27–24)	Posterior body wall (cuticle) extract.	–	0.18 ; >0.5
F – H	–	54 (22–25)	Faeces extract.	–	0.19 ; >0.5

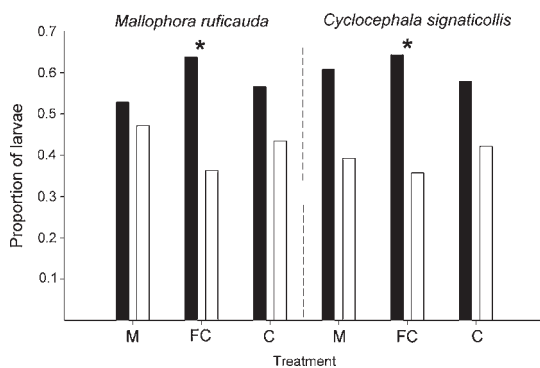


Fig. 2. Response of *M. ruficauda* and *C. signaticollis* to stimuli from three regions of the posterior digestive tube of third instar larvae of *C. signaticollis*. Asterisks denote statistically significant differences ( $\chi^2$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ). M, posterior mesenteron; FC, fermentation chamber; C, colon (■, Stimulus; □, Control).

### 331 Responses of *C. signaticollis* to conspecific stimuli

332 We found that *C. signaticollis* larvae showed a positive  
333 orientation response towards the extract of the posterior body  
334 half of conspecifics, particularly towards of the posterior  
335 digestive tube half (table 1, fig. 4). These portions of the host  
336 body are the same as those that induced the positive  
337 orientation behaviour of the larvae of *M. ruficauda* demon-  
338 strated by Castelo & Lazzari (2004).

339 When we analyzed the orientation behaviour of  
340 *C. signaticollis* to extracts of the three morphological portions  
341 of the posterior digestive tube half of conspecifics (posterior  
342 mesenteron, fermentation chamber and colon), experiments  
343 showed that *C. signaticollis* orientated positively to the extract  
344 of fermentation chamber (table 1, fig. 2).

345 Finally, we found that *C. signaticollis* larvae distributed at  
346 random in the experimental arena when stimulated with ex-  
347 tract of both epithelium and content of the fermentation  
348 chamber of conspecifics (table 1, fig. 3). These experiment  
349 suggest that the extracts lose their biological activity when we  
350 divided the fermentation chamber into content and epi-  
351 thelium.

Therefore, these results suggest that the attraction of  
*M. ruficauda* and *C. signaticollis* larvae to the same extracts of  
the body part of *C. signaticollis* is due to the utilization of the  
same cues in two different contexts: the location of host for the  
parasitoid and conspecific interaction between *C. signaticollis*  
individuals.

### Discussion

In the present work, we determined which part of the  
posterior intestine of *C. signaticollis* has the attractive chemicals  
used by *M. ruficauda* to orientate to its host. Our results show  
that infochemicals eliciting the orientation behaviour of  
*M. ruficauda* and *C. signaticollis* larvae are associated with the  
fermentation chamber but not with the colon or the mesen-  
teron. This result is in agreement with the result found in the  
study by Castelo & Lazzari (2004), where it was concluded  
that the origin of the chemical cues involved in the host-  
seeking behaviour are associated with the posterior digestive  
tube half. It has been shown that Coleopteran and Dipteran  
immature parasitoids exhibit a searching behaviour modu-  
lated by cues released by their hosts (Wright & Müller, 1989;  
Godfray, 1994; Feener Jr & Brown, 1997; Brodeur & Boivin,  
2004). For *M. ruficauda*, larvae whose entire lifespan is spent  
underground in a very complex chemical environment, it  
could be expected that infochemicals triggering the host-  
seeking behaviour are produced directly by the host.

Regarding the orientation behaviour of *C. signaticollis* to  
odours from conspecifics, we found that a positive orientation  
towards the odour fermentation chamber exists. Moreover,  
this positive orientation was found only to odours from the  
fermentation chamber. Interestingly, there was no positive  
response to odours from the colon extract, indicating that these  
chemicals are not food related volatiles from degradation of  
metabolites. However, there is a study showing that white  
grubs, in general, have an aggregated distribution in the field  
(Castelo & Capurro, 2000). This might indicate that chemicals  
found in the fermentation chamber could be acting as an  
aggregation pheromone. The question that arises is how the  
volatiles in the fermentation chamber get to the outside of the  
individual. A possibility is that volatiles might be directed  
somehow towards the cuticle, and reaches the exterior



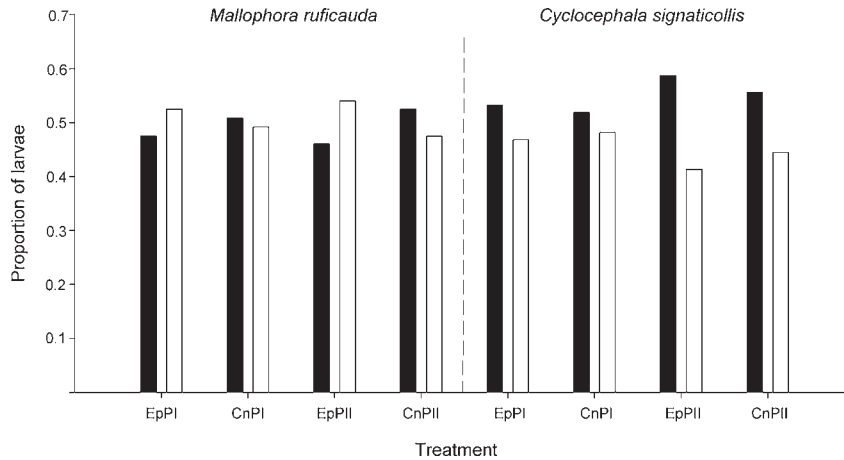


Fig. 3. Response of *M. ruficauda* and *C. signaticollis* to stimuli extracted from two regions of the fermentation chamber of third instar larvae of *C. signaticollis*. EpPI, epithelium protocol I; CnPI, content protocol I; EpPII, epithelium protocol II; CnPII, content protocol II (■, Stimulus; □, Control).

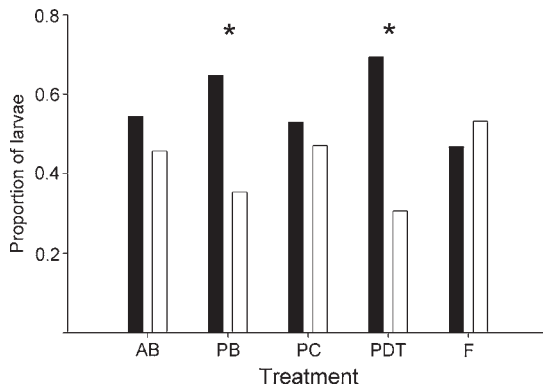


Fig. 4. Response of *C. signaticollis* to stimuli extracted from the different body parts of conspecifics. Asterisks denote statistically significant differences ( $\chi^2$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ). AB, anterior body half; PB, posterior body half; PC, posterior body wall (cuticle); PDT, posterior digestive tube half; F, faeces (■, Stimulus; □, Control).

392 through the tracheal system, as occurs with pheromone gland  
393 cells content in others insects (Ma & Ramaswamy, 2003).

394 This is the first study, to our knowledge, showing active  
395 conspecific attraction of scarab beetle larvae by an experimen-  
396 tal approach. Nonetheless, there are many reports showing  
397 that larvae of insects respond to chemical cues. In those  
398 studies, the authors suggested that these chemicals elicited  
399 behavioural responses that are indirectly beneficial to the  
400 organisms living in groups. Some suggested increases in  
401 individual survival, growth or improved development  
402 (Ghent, 1960; Stamp & Bowers, 1990; Inouye & Johnson,  
403 2005; Despland & Le Huu, 2006; Jumena *et al.*, 2009). Others  
404 proposed an increased efficiency in the exploitation of food or  
405 in the defensive ability against natural enemies (Capinera,  
406 1980; Tsubaki & Shiotsu, 1982; Deneubourg *et al.*, 1990;  
407 Hunter, 2000; Ruzicka & Zemek, 2008).

408 Other benefits were proposed to the larval aggregation  
409 behaviour. For instance, in the codling moth *Cydia pomonella*  
410 L. (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae), a decrease was recorded in the

411 mating searching time of males after emergence by attraction  
412 to cocoon-spinning larvae and to female prepupae allowing  
413 them to copulate as soon as the female emerges from the  
414 cocoon (Duthie *et al.*, 2003). Species of the genus *Cyclocephala*  
415 are univoltine where adults are active only a few weeks per  
416 year (Potter, 1981). Hence, it is of extreme importance that both  
417 males and females find each other efficiently (Potter, 1981).  
418 Therefore, aggregation behaviour between larvae could be  
419 expected since more energy could be invested on mating  
420 instead of on mate searching, thus increasing their individual  
421 fitness.

422 We also performed experiments to determine whether the  
423 infochemicals that attract larvae of *M. ruficauda* are produced  
424 either by glands or symbionts from the fermentation chamber.  
425 In order to achieve this, we performed two series of  
426 experiments, but we were unable to elucidate this. None of  
427 the treatments performed (extracts of the content and the  
428 epithelium of the fermentation chamber) elicited a response on  
429 *M. ruficauda*. The fact that we were unable to obtain a response  
430 from this experiment could be indicating a highly volatile  
431 chemical cue that was lost during the dissection and manipu-  
432 lation of fermentation chamber and preparation of epi-  
433 thelium and content extracts. Moreover, this fact is indicating  
434 that probably both tissues are needed to obtain the attractive  
435 cue. There is extensive evidence showing that pheromones are  
436 compound blends where a specific proportion of each of them  
437 is very important for the blend to have biological activity.  
438 Therefore, if the blend composition changes, the biological  
439 activity could be lost (Greenfield, 2002). This is probably the  
440 reason of loss of activity when we did the extracts. Other  
441 possible explanation to the loss of biological activity is  
442 the reaction of the immune system of the host to injuries, i.e.  
443 the dissection of the fermentation chamber, triggering the  
444 synthesis of different compounds that can interact with the  
445 infochemical cue modifying their characteristics (Fehlbaum  
446 *et al.*, 1994; Bidla *et al.*, 2009). Nevertheless, if this procedure  
447 produces injury-based changes on chemicals, the effects  
448 would have also been present in the other extracts. Moreover,  
449 the insects were killed before performing the dissections,  
450 meaning that the immune system could not have produced  
451 any injury induced chemicals. Although we were unable to

452 show where the cue is located, our results indicate that it is  
453 possible that a pheromone is involved in conspecific com-  
454 munication of *C. signaticollis* and that the same cue is used by  
455 larvae of *M. ruficauda* to locate its host. If this were to be true,  
456 then *M. ruficauda* could be exploiting the communication  
457 system of its host to locate it.

458 There are few cases that show that a parasitoid exploits the  
459 communication system of its host. This is explained by a  
460 reliability-detectability trade-off that exists in a complex multi-  
461 trophic system where very reliable cues have a low delect-  
462 ability decreasing encounters with the host (Vet *et al.*, 1991;  
463 Vet & Dicke, 1992; Aldrich, 1995; Riba & Blas, 1995; Stowe  
464 *et al.*, 1995). However, parasitoids such as *M. ruficauda* have a  
465 split strategy, where the female would be attracted to less  
466 reliable but more detectable cues when laying eggs, whereas  
467 the larva seeks and finds the host, orientating to more reliable  
468 and specific allelochemicals of the host. This strategy could  
469 increase the efficiency of locating a host, augmenting in turn  
470 the individual fitness.

### Acknowledgements

471 We thank local beekeepers from Pilar, Mercedes and  
472 Moreno, Province of Buenos Aires, Argentina, for allowing  
473 us to work on their farms. We also acknowledge Dr J.E. Crespo  
474 for the help provided during the work in the field and the  
475 experiments. This work has been partially funded through the  
476 grants ANPCyT-Foncyt PICT No 01-16724, UBACyT No X416,  
477 and PIP-CONICET N° 1597 to M.K. Castelo, and ANPCyT-  
478 Foncyt No PICT 01200 and PICS 4144.

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