

Herbivore-Induced Plant Volatiles as a Rich Source of Information for Arthropod Predators: Fundamental and Applied Aspects

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Abstract | Plants respond to arthropod herbivory with the induction of volatiles that attract predatory arthropods that attack the herbivores. These so-called herbivore-induced plant volatiles (HIPVs) appear to be important sources of information that mediate many interactions within a plant–arthropod community. Predators can use HIPVs to find a food source in a complex environment. Moreover, predator responses are modulated by starvation and specific dietary deficiencies. In addition, HIPVs can influence the behaviour and distribution of other community members such as parasitic plants, herbivores, and hyperparasitoids. The collective outcome of these interactions determines the effect of the HIPVs on plant fitness and this has fuelled a debate on whether HIPVs can be beneficial to plants. Interestingly, the origin of the research on HIPVs has been an investigation of how predatory mites exterminate populations of their prey, the herbivorous spider mites. The value of HIPVs for durable pest control is discussed.

Keywords: predator, herbivore, herbivore-induced plant volatiles, crop protection

1 Introduction

Since the late 1980s it has become clear that plants respond to arthropod herbivory with the induced production of volatiles that attract the enemies of theherbivores.¹⁻³Because earlier studies in the 1980s had indicated that plant volatiles could mediate interactions between damaged and undamaged plants,4-6 the research on plant volatiles in plantcarnivore interactions has especially focussed on the adaptiveness of herbivore-induced plant volatiles (HIPVs) to the plant, to establish whether it pays plants to advertise for 'bodyguards'.7 This has resulted in a continued discussion⁸⁻¹⁰ that is fed by ample studies on the effects of HIPVs on various members of the community that interacts with the emitting plant,^{11–16} to investigate whether the emission of HIPVs is adaptive to plants.¹⁶ It appears that HIPVs affect the behaviour of diverse members of the community including not only predators and parasitoids but also herbivores,^{17,18} hyperparasitoids,¹³ parasitic plants,¹⁹ and

neighbouring plants.²⁰ While the issue of the adaptiveness of HIPVs is an exciting topic, in this discussion the use of HIPVs by carnivores has often been reduced to their exploitation of the cues and the fact that carnivores can learn to respond to them. However, HIPVs provide important information to carnivores that can be used to make foraging decisions not only related to finding a food source but to additional aspects of food quality and solving the dietary needs that predators may face.

2 Microscopic and Macroscopic Carnivores

HIPVs are used by a wide range of enemies of herbivorous arthropods. In a recent review of the literature,²¹ 68 species of carnivorous arthropods were recorded to use HIPVs to locate their herbivorous victims. This relates to 41 parasitoid species and 26 predator species. In addition, some entomopathogenic nematodes^{22,23} Herbivore-induced plant volatiles (HIPVs): plant volatiles that are actively produced by the plant in response to herbivory.

Community: an assemblage of populations of different species, interacting with one another.

Hyperparasitoid: parasitoid that attacks another parasitoid.

Parasitoid: organism that lives on or in another organism during the juvenile stages and kills its host.

Laboratory of Entomology, Wageningen University, Radix Building, Droevendaalsesteeg 1, 6708PB Wageningen, The Netherlands. marcel.dicke@wurnl and insectivorous birds^{24,25} use HIPVs to locate their herbivorous host or prey. Most information exists, however, for arthropod carnivores. In the discussion on the relative value of predators and parasitoids for the plant in terms of the elimination of herbivores, predators have been indicated as being of most value because they immediately kill and remove herbivores from the plant.⁸ Predators are generally more generalistic carnivores than parasitoids, although some highly specific predators occur as well.²⁶ This paper will focus especially on arthropod predators and the information value of HIPVs to these predators.

3 Taxonomic Diversity

The predatory lifestyle is widely distributed among arthropods. Predators occur in the Arachnida and in 15 insect orders, some of which consist predominantly or exclusively of predators, such as the Odonata and Neuroptera.²⁷ Yet, the 26 species of predators for which experimental data are available,²¹ represent only a limited taxonomic diversity: Hemiptera (7 species), Neuroptera (2 species), Coleoptera (3 species), Thysanoptera (1 species) and the family Phytoseiidae within the Acari (13 species). This diversity is most likely to represent the taxonomic interest of the research groups addressing HIPVs rather than an indication that the use of HIPVs is limited to only a few taxonomic groups. I am not aware of any study of predators and their response to HIPVs that did not record a response. Some species, such as social insects like ants and paper wasps, may be excellent candidates to be expected among the predators that use HIPVs. Social insects are well known to use infochemicals. Indeed, some ant species have been found to exploit plant volatiles,28-30 but no example of their use of HIPVs is known to me. Recent studies recorded the appearance of social wasps, Polistes dominula, Vespula germanica, and V. vulgaris in experimental plots of Brassica nigra plants with Pieris brassicae caterpillars once the caterpillars reached the fourth instar and not in neighbouring plots with plants without caterpillars.³¹ This may have been the result of the predators responding to caterpillar-induced plant volatiles but proof for this remains to be collected.31

4 HIPVs to Locate Prey

Imagine that you are a tiny predator, only a millimeter in size, and searching for prey that is of roughly the same size and located somewhere in a three dimensional maze with dimensions far beyond your own size. This is the situation that predatory arthropods face when searching for

their herbivorous prey in complex vegetation. Moreover, the prey is under natural selection not to give away its presence to its predators. In this situation, any type of information that can guide the predator to its prey will reduce its searching time and enhance the odds of finding food and thus contributing to the next generation. This has resulted in the formulation of the reliabilitydetectability problem³² for which HIPVs provide one of the solutions. HIPVs are plant volatiles that are produced in response to herbivory. They comprise a complex mixture of tens up to more than 200 compounds, the composition of which may vary with herbivore species, herbivore developmental instar, plant tissue, and abiotic conditions.^{15,33,34} Moreover, the emission rate of HIPVs is much higher than the volatile emission rate by herbivores themselves. Thus, HIPVs combine high detectability with considerable reliability³² and constitute a valuable source of information to predators.

Apart from finding prey, the identity of the prey may influence a predator's fitness. Prey quality may influence a predator's reproduction rate and prey quality can be decisively influenced by the host plant on which the prey feeds.³⁵ Thus, HIPVs as a source of information originating from plants can also inform a predator about the food source of its prey.³²

5 HIPVs to Resolve Specific Dietary Needs

Prey quality to a predator may be determined by various factors, e.g. nutritional quality, physical properties, or the prey's diet.36-39 Predators can use HIPVs to select the best prey. For instance, the predatory mites Phytoseiulus persimilis and Metaseiulus occidentalis are attracted to volatiles related to feeding by its prey, the two-spotted spider mite Tetranychus urticae, but not to volatiles related to feeding by the European red spider mite Panonychus ulmi. The reverse was found for the predatory mites Amblyseius potentillae and Amblyseius finlandicus.26 These behavioural responses reflected the value of the spider mites as prey for the predators. The ladybird beetle Aiolocaria hexaspilota uses HIPVs from Salix eriocarpa to select the most suitable stage of its prey, the leaf beetle Plagiodera versicolora.⁴⁰ The predatory mites A. potentillae, A. finlandicus and Typhlodromus pyri used HIPVs from apple leaves to select the prey species that yields the highest reproductive success.⁴¹ It is interesting to see that the predator's preference for HIPVs matches with their prey preference as assessed under laboratory conditions or as assessed from their gut contents in the field.⁴¹ The behavioural responses of the predators are dependent on their degree of starvation in terms of gut content.26 Moreover, it is interesting that a deficiency in specific nutrients can affect predator responses to HIPVs. The predatory mite A. potentillae requires β -carotene or vitamin A for assessing day length and entering diapause. This predator has a clear preference for HIPVs associated with its main prey, the spider mite *P. ulmi*. When this predator lacks β -carotene or vitamin A, it is attracted to plant volatiles associated with several inferior prey species that they are not attracted to when their vitamin A-deficient diet is supplemented with vitamin A.^{42,43} These inferior prey species can provide the predators with vitamin A and, therefore, are a prey that can relieve their dietary deficiency. Thus, the predators respond to a wider spectrum of HIPVs when vitamin A-deficient to resolve their dietary deficiency. Yet, carotenoid-deficient predators are not attracted to HIPVs associated with herbivores that cannot serve as prev and thus cannot relieve their carotenoid deficiency.42

6 Prey Sabotaging HIPV Emission and Thus Interfering with Predator Attraction

A recurring question is whether herbivores can interfere with the HIPV production by the plant, e.g. by stealthy feeding. Some herbivores, such as phloem-feeding aphids, are known to reduce the degree of physical damage while feeding. These herbivores move their stylets in the plant intercellular space and make only limited punctures in parenchymal cells on their way to the phloem.44 Yet, these herbivores also induce plant responses including the production of HIPVs.⁴⁵ The induction of HIPVs involves elicitors in oral secretions.46 These oral secretions are often applied to the plant during feeding47,48 and are likely involved in the start of digestion of food. The induction of defence in general by plants and of carnivore attractants in particular is likely to be under selection for herbivores to make themselves undetectable by the plant. This is likely an arms race where plants recognize herbivore elicitors and mount a defence. Subsequently, the herbivore evolves effectors that suppress the induction by the plant, followed by plant responses that now exploit the effectors as cues to initiate induced defence. This is then followed by the evolution of new effectors suppressing the plant's response and so on. This is the so-called zigzag model representing the current view of plant immune systems49 and has been especially developed for plant-pathogen interactions in which knowledge of effectors

is rapidly increasing. For plant-arthropod interactions, knowledge on the suppression of induced defences has only just started.50-60 Herbivores may suppress induced defences by hijacking phytohormonal signal transduction in the plant.^{55,57} For instance, one population of the spider mite T. urticae is known that does not induce jasmonic acid-mediated defences, including the induction of jasmonic acid-dependent HIPVs.57 The suppression of plant defence induction may not only benefit the herbivore that suppresses the defence^{54,55} but also other herbivores that feed on the same plant.^{54,61} By suppressing the induction of defences, the herbivore may suppress the emission of HIPVs;54,57,61,62 a functional phytohormonal signaling in the plant is needed for this as well.⁶² As a result of the suppression of HIPV emission, predator attraction is reduced; for example, the attraction of the predatory mite P. persimilis to plants infested with its herbivorous prey T. urticae is attenuated when the whitefly Bemisia tabaci co-infests the plant. The magnitude of this attenuation is dependent on whitefly density.61

7 Plants Enhancing the Emission of HIPVs

While herbivores may suppress the induction of HIPVs, plants may be under selection to enhance their response to herbivores. After all, indirect defence through HIPVs has a temporal delay between not only recognizing the herbivore and synthesizing the volatiles but additionally there is the delay of the response of carnivores, provided they are nearby. Therefore, any way of accelerating or intensifying the response may promote the effectiveness of induced indirect defence. One way of enhancing HIPV emission is by priming.63 Plants may be primed by exposure to HIPVs from neighbouring plants.⁶⁴ For example, lima bean plants that have been exposed to HIPVs from neighbouring plants respond with a more intense response to spider mite infestation in terms of HIPV emission and consequently are more attractive to predatory mites than unexposed plants infested with spider mites.65 In addition to being primed by volatiles from neighbouring plants, plant responses may also be primed by HIPVs emitted from other leaves from the same plant.66,67 For example, undamaged lima bean leaves from a beetle-damaged plant that were exposed to HIPVs from the beetle-damaged leaves responded with the production of extrafloral nectar, a component of indirect plant defence.66

Interestingly, plant responses to herbivory may also be affected by interactions of the plant with other community members, such as soil **Phytohormone:** plant hormone; the production of several plant hormones is induced by herbivory

and mediates further induction processes.

Priming: a phenomenon where herbivory does not induce a change in the plant but alters the plant so that a second attack results in a faster or more intense plant response than in a plant without previous attack.

Elicitor: a compound produced by an herbivore that induces a response in the plant on which the herbivore feeds.

Effector: a compound produced by an herbivore that suppresses a defence response of the plant on which the herbivore feeds. microbes.⁶⁸ For instance, the interaction of bean plant roots with the mycorrhizal fungus *Glomus mosseae* influenced the composition of HIPVs produced in response to infestation of the spider mite *T. urticae* and this affected the attraction of the predatory mite *P. persimilis*.⁶⁹

Thus, plants within a community that each have their own history in terms of an interaction network may differ in the intensity with which they respond to herbivory with HIPV emission and, consequently, herbivores are likely to have differential mortality on plants within a community. It will be interesting to investigate whether herbivores can assess this differential value of plants with regard to their fitness and whether this affects their host plant choices. Some preliminary information for this is available: T. urticae spider mites prefer to feed on leaves of lima bean plants infested with the whitefly Bemisia tabaci. On these plants the spider mites have a better performance in terms of plant quality as assessed in terms of egg production and in addition the whiteflies interfere with the emission of one of the HIPVs resulting in a reduced attraction of the spider-mite predator P. persimilis.⁶¹

8 Application of HIPVs in Agriculture

HIPVs mediate interactions between plants, herbivores and their enemies. The origin of the research on HIPVs lies in agricultural studies that aimed to understand how the predatory mite P. persimilis exterminates populations of its prey, the spider mite T. urticae, in cucumber.70,71 Modelling of the predator-prey population dynamics only matched with experimental observations on prey extermination when the model included a behaviour in which predators returned to a prey patch upon leaving it, owing to the steep odour gradient of a putative odour, thus being arrested within the prey patch;⁷¹ this behaviour was later found to be mediated by volatiles emitted from infested plants.72 The source of these volatiles appeared to be the plant that produced the volatiles in response to spider-mite feeding.^{1,2} Thus, the plant's response to herbivory in terms of HIPV emission was identified as being the essential component of prey eradication by predators, and thereby successful biological control of spider mites. This has stimulated research on improving crop quality in terms of HIPV emission so as to breed for crops with enhanced capacity for interaction with biological control agents;^{73–80} these efforts include short-term trials in agricultural settings.77,79 For instance, in a glasshouse setting, cucumber cultivars that differed in predator attraction upon spider-mite

infestation under laboratory conditions, also differed in predator arrival in a distant prey patch.⁷⁷ This shows that laboratory studies on attraction may be extrapolated to field conditions as was also observed in other studies.^{81,82} However, to date no commercial breeding programme is known to have been initiated to develop a commercial cultivar to be marketed for its enhanced attraction of biological control agents. It would be interesting to have such a cultivar available and to investigate the effects on pest control in an agricultural setting in a comparative way. Another option is to supplement an agricultural field with HIPVs to attract natural enemies from the surroundings. Several interesting examples of this have been reported,^{83–86} although it remains to be investigated what the consequences are for neighbouring fields.⁸⁷ Yet, given the fact that there is no report of a plant-herbivore-carnivore interaction where HIPVs do not mediate the attraction of carnivores to HIPVs, and the finding that, at least in successful biological control of spider mites by their predators, HIPVs play a crucial role, it is likely that HIPVs already mediate biological control on a large scale. Improving on this to enhance the successes of sustainable pest management in a systems approach such as Integrated Pest Management is an important route ahead. A very interesting case in this context is the push-pull system developed to control stem borers in maize in Africa. Here a cropping system has been developed that combines different plants so as to repel stem borer moths and make them oviposit on trap plants, while attracting parasitoids of the stem borers with plants that emit one of the HIPV components that attract the parasitoids.^{88,89} This cropping system has been widely adopted by farmers in central Africa and makes an important contribution to local food security.90 Making progress in such applied research is more important than ever in times when still ca 20–40% of crop losses occur due to insect pests, while we need to increase production to feed the rapidly growing human population.

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