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Active swimming in terrestrial caterpillars: Implications for preadaptation to aquatic environment

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Similar behaviours, including swimming, are exhibited by animals of markedly different lineages due to convergent evolution. Elucidation of the role selective pressures play in convergent evolution of behaviours is a fundamental goal in ecology and evolutionary biology. Although swimming behaviour has been reported in many animals, the evolutionary and behavioural origins of this behaviour remain unclear. Most butterfly and moth larvae are terrestrial; however, the larvae of several groups are aquatic. When terrestrial caterpillars fall into water, they may drown or be preyed upon by aquatic predators. In July 2018, we observed a terrestrial caterpillar actively swimming on the surface of a pond in Japan. To further investigate swimming in terrestrial caterpillars, we experimentally placed the larvae of 13 moth species (four families) on a water surface under laboratory and field conditions. We documented two types of swimming behaviours (undulatory and kick swimming) in seven species from two moth families (Noctuidae and Erebidae). Because some aquatic caterpillar species belong to these moth families, we posit that the active swimming observed in these terrestrial caterpillars represents preadaptation to an aquatic environment. Furthermore, we suggest potential factors related to specific morphologies, host plant habitats, and defensive behaviours that could lead to the acquisition of swimming behaviour in lepidopterans.

Active swimming in terrestrial caterpillars: implications for preadaptation to an aquatic environment

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ABSTRACT

Similar behaviours, including swimming, are exhibited by animals of markedly different lineages due to convergent evolution. Elucidation of the role selective pressures play in convergent evolution of behaviours is a fundamental goal in ecology and evolutionary biology. Although swimming behaviour has been reported in many animals, the evolutionary and behavioural origins of this behaviour remain unclear. Most butterfly and moth larvae are terrestrial; however, the larvae of several groups are aquatic. When terrestrial caterpillars fall into water, they may drown or be preyed upon by aquatic predators. In July 2018, we observed a terrestrial caterpillar actively swimming on the surface of a pond in Japan. To further investigate swimming in terrestrial caterpillars, we experimentally placed the larvae of 13 moth species (four families) on a water surface under laboratory and field conditions. We documented two types of swimming behaviours (undulatory and kick swimming) in seven species from two moth families (Noctuidae and Erebidae). Because some aquatic caterpillar species belong to these moth families, we posit that the active swimming observed in these terrestrial caterpillars represents preadaptation to an aquatic environment. Furthermore, we suggest potential factors related to specific morphologies, host plant habitats, and defensive behaviours that could lead to the acquisition of swimming behaviour in lepidopterans.

Keywords: anguilliform, Erebidae, Noctuidae, preadaptive behaviour

INTRODUCTION

Similar behaviours, including flying and swimming, are exhibited by animals of markedly different lineages due to convergent evolution (Gleiss *et al.*, 2011). Elucidation of the role selective pressures play in the convergent evolution of behaviours is a fundamental goal in ecology and evolutionary biology (Gleiss *et al.*, 2011). Some terrestrial animals exhibit swimming behaviour (Miller, 1972; Franklin, Jander & Ele, 1977; Pflüger & Burrows, 1978; Graham *et al.*, 1987; Bohn, Thornham & Federle, 2012; Yanoviak & Frederick, 2014; Gripshover, Yanoviak & Gora, 2018; Yasui *et al.*, 2019). Terrestrial insects such as locusts, cockroaches, praying mantises, and ants use their legs to swim (Miller, 1972; Franklin, Jander & Ele, 1977; Pflüger & Burrows, 1978; Bohn, Thornham & Federle, 2012; Yanoviak & Frederick, 2014; Gripshover, Yanoviak & Gora, 2018), whereas terrestrial snakes and centipedes swim by undulating their bodies to propel themselves forward (Graham *et al.*, 1987; Yasui *et al.*, 2019). The behavioural origins of these behaviours, however, have not fully been elucidated.

The larvae of butterflies and moths (Lepidoptera) are predominantly terrestrial; however, approximately 0.5% of 165,000 known species are aquatic at the larval stage (Pabis, 2018). When terrestrial caterpillars fall into water, they can drown or be preyed upon by aquatic predators such as fish (Gustafsson, Greenberg & Bergman, 2014; Iguchi *et al.*, 2004). Some caterpillars (i.e., aquatic species) may have evolved behavioural responses to aquatic environments and predators to avoid these risks (Pabis, 2018), but the evolutionary processes underlying these aquatic behaviours remain unclear.

On July 20, 2018, we observed a terrestrial caterpillar of *Dinumma deponens* (Lepidoptera: Erebidae) swimming on the surface of a pond in Unnan, Shimane, Japan. The caterpillar undulated from side to side to propel itself forward on the water surface; it was able to successfully reach the shore (Fig. 1a). The caterpillar may have accidentally fallen into the pond

because *D. deponens* larvae feed on the leaves of *Albizia julibrissin* (Fabaceae) (Kishida, 2011). We placed the same caterpillar on the water surface again and confirmed its swimming behaviour (Fig. 1b; Video S1). This active swimming behaviour could in evading aquatic predators (i.e., water striders Fig. 1b; Video S1). On the basis of this observation, we hypothesised that terrestrial caterpillars can swim on the water surface.

To test this hypothesis, we experimentally placed the larvae of 13 moth species (belonging to four families), including *D. deponens*, onto a water surface and observed their behaviours under laboratory and field conditions. In addition, we experimentally investigated the relationship between body size and swimming behaviour in a moth species to clarify how body size can influence propulsive power in water.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

To test the swimming capacity of terrestrial caterpillars, we experimentally placed the larvae of 13 moth species (from four families) on a water surface and observed their behaviours under laboratory and field conditions (Table 1). We collected larvae from eight plant species from June 2019 to July 2019 in Shimane Prefecture and in June 2020 in Hyogo Prefecture, Japan (Table 1). We carefully placed each caterpillar ($n = 49$) on the water surface in a plastic vessel ($390 \times 265 \times 65 \text{ mm}^3$, length \times width \times height) containing 2 L of water (20 mm depth, 25°C) under well-lit conditions, with an air temperature of 25°C. We also placed two larvae (*Hypopyra vespertilio* and *Acosmetia biguttula*) and one larva (*Theretra oldenlandiae*) on the surfaces of ponds in Shimane Prefecture, respectively. During each 2-min observation period, we investigated (1) whether the larva floated on the water surface and (2) whether the larva moved forward on the water surface (i.e., swam). To examine the possible behavioural origins of swimming behaviour, we also observed how caterpillars of each species walk on twigs or leaves

(i.e., inching or looping; *van Griethuijsen & Trimmer, 2014*; Table 1). We identified each lepidopteran species based on the morphological characteristics of the larvae (*Sugi, 1987*; *Yasuda, 2010, 2012, 2014*; *Suzuki et al., 2018*). We also reared some larvae under laboratory conditions (25°C) to identify the species based on the morphological characteristics of the emerged adults (*Kishida, 2011*).

To clarify how caterpillar size can influence propulsive power in water, we experimentally investigated the relationship between body size and swimming behaviour in the erebid species *Spirama retorta*. We reared *S. retorta* larvae from the eggs of two females that were collected in Shimane, Japan, in August 2019. We reared the larvae on *A. julibrissin* leaves under laboratory conditions (26–29°C). *Spirama retorta* passes through seven larval instars before pupation (Table 2). We measured the body weight of each larva to the nearest 1 mg using an electronic balance (CJ-620S; Shinko Denshi, Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan); we measured the body length and head capsule width to the nearest 0.01 mm using slide callipers or an ocular micrometer. We placed 10 larvae per instar stage individually on the water surface in a plastic container (390 × 265 × 65 mm³) with 2 L of water (20 mm depth) under well-lit conditions at 25°C. We filmed the behaviours of the larvae ($n = 70$) using video cameras (V2; Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). We played back the footage of the recorded swimming behaviours using iMovie version 10.0.6 (Apple, Inc., Cupertino, CA, USA). During each 2-min observation period, we recorded (1) whether the larva floated on the water surface, (2) whether the larva moved forward on the water surface (i.e., swam), and (3) the distance (mm) the larva had swum in 2 s.

To investigate the relationship between larval body size and swimming behaviour in *S. retorta*, we ran a generalised linear model with a binomial error distribution and logit link function (i.e., logistic regression). We used 10 individuals per instar stage ($n = 70$) for the analysis. We used swimming (1) or non-swimming (0) as the binary response variable; we regarded body length as

a fixed factor. We also ran a generalised linear model with a Poisson error distribution and log link function (i.e., Poisson regression) to investigate the relationship between body size and swimming distance in *S. retorta*, analysing 10 individuals per instar stage ($n = 70$). We used swimming speed (mm/s) as the response variable; we regarded body length as a fixed factor. When the residual deviance was smaller (underdispersion) or larger (overdispersion) than the residual degrees of freedom, we used a quasi-binomial or quasi-Poisson error distribution, respectively, rather than a binomial or Poisson error distribution (Sugiura & Sato, 2018). We performed all analyses using R software version 3.5.2 (R Core Team, 2019).

Results

All caterpillars floated in this study. Larvae from six of the 13 caterpillar species did not move forward on the water surface, whereas larvae from seven species (two families: Erebididae and Noctuididae) could swim on the water surface (Table 1). Two types of swimming behaviours were observed (Table 1): larvae of *D. deponens*, *H. vespertilio*, *S. retorta*, *Laelia coenosa*, *Lymantria dispar* (Erebididae), and *Naranga aenescens* (Noctuididae) swung their bodies side to side quickly to propel themselves on the water surface (i.e., undulatory swimming; Figs. 1c–d, 2a; Video S2); in contrast, larvae of *A. biguttula* (Noctuididae) moved the end of the abdomen up and down quickly to propel themselves on the water surface (i.e., kick swimming; Fig. 2b; Video S3). Although thoracic legs were not used for undulatory and kick swimming, quick movements of the anal prolegs were used to propel the caterpillars on the water surface (Videos S2 and S3). One larva of *A. biguttula* was observed kick swimming to escape from an aquatic predator in a pond (Video S3).

The relationship between body size and swimming behaviour in *S. retorta* was investigated under laboratory conditions. All larvae floated (Table 2). The frequency of swimming increased

with increasing body size: 0%, 0%, 40%, 70%, 100%, 100%, and 100% of the first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh instars could swim, respectively (Table 2). Consequently, swimming frequency increased with body length (Fig. 3a; Tables 2 and 3). Furthermore, the swimming speed (mm/s) increased with body length (Fig. 3b; Table 4).

Discussion

Swimming on the water surface has been observed in some aquatic and semi-aquatic caterpillars, such as those of *Bellura vulnifica* (Noctuidae) (Welch, 1914), *Paracles klagesi* (Erebidae) (Meneses et al., 2013), and *Ostrinia penitalis* (Crambidae) (Coates & Abel, 2019). However, terrestrial caterpillars are not considered good swimmers (Pabis, 2018). In the present study, we observed two types of active swimming (undulatory and kick swimming) in terrestrial caterpillars (Figs. 1, 2; Table 1). Undulatory swimming (anguilliform) has been reported in slender-bodied animals such as eels, snakes, and centipedes (Graham et al., 1987; Yasui et al., 2019; Sfakiotakis, Lane & Davies, 1999). The frequency and speed of undulatory swimming in larvae increased with body length (Fig. 3; Tables 3 and 4). High-speed swimming can help caterpillars to avoid aquatic predators (Video S1). The kick swimming observed in *A. biguttula* was similar to the kick action of a human swimming stroke (i.e., ‘dolphin kick’ of the ‘butterfly stroke’). However, not all caterpillar species can swim (Table 1). We propose three factors that may influence the acquisition of swimming behaviour in lepidopterans: (1) specific morphology, (2) host plant habitats, and (3) locomotive and defensive behaviours in terrestrial caterpillars.

Swimming caterpillars exhibit distinct morphological traits, such as relatively elongated bodies. In this study, long-bodied caterpillars were more capable of swimming, compared with short-bodied caterpillars (Fig. 3a; Table 3). The same pattern has been suggested to explain swimming behaviour in the aquatic caterpillar species *B. vulnifica*, although morphological traits

were not quantified (*Welch, 1914*). In addition, anal prolegs could be used in a manner similar to that of tail fins. Quick movements of elongated bodies and anal prolegs could therefore result in forward propulsive power on a water surface (Fig. 1). Furthermore, long body hairs can assist in floating on the water surface in hairy caterpillars, such as those of *La. coenosa* and *Ly. dispar* (*Meyer-Rochow, 2016*). However, these morphological characters may have evolved for reasons other than swimming because long bodies, prolegs, and body hairs have other important functions—mimicking plant twigs, gripping stems, and defending against predators, respectively (Fig. 4; *Skelhorn et al., 2010*; *van Griethuijsen & Trimmer, 2014*; *Sugiura & Yamazaki, 2014*). Caterpillars use silk threads produced from head spinnerets as lifelines to drop from host plants (*Sugiura & Yamazaki, 2006*). However, caterpillars inhabiting host plants growing by the waterside may accidentally fall into water. Six of the seven caterpillar species observed swimming in this study were collected from waterside plants, such as *A. julibrissin* (Table 1). Therefore, active swimming behaviour could help these caterpillars survive in a waterside environment.

Terrestrial behaviours may also provide insight into the behavioural origins of swimming in terrestrial caterpillars. Undulatory swimmers typically locomote in a characteristic looping manner on leaves or stems (i.e., inching; *van Griethuijsen & Trimmer, 2014*; Table 1). When disturbed, these caterpillars violently bend their bodies from side to side. Undulatory swimming may therefore have originated from this defensive behaviour, rather than walking behaviour. Caterpillars that exhibited kick-swimming behaviour typically move their abdomen up and down to move on land (i.e., crawling; *van Griethuijsen & Trimmer, 2014*; Table 1); the similarity of the kick-swimming and crawling motions suggests that kick swimming originated from the crawling motion.

Swimming behaviour was observed in two lepidopteran families—Erebidae and Noctuidae

(Table 1). These moth families also include some aquatic caterpillar species (*Welch, 1914*; *Meneses et al., 2013*). Therefore, we posit that active swimming in terrestrial caterpillars represents preadaptation to an aquatic environment. Although the insect order Lepidoptera contains 133 recognised families (*Mitter, Davis & Cummings, 2017*), our investigation was limited to four families. Active swimming will likely be found in other lepidopteran families (e.g., Crambidae) that include aquatic caterpillar species.

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Competing Interests

The authors declare there are no competing interests.

Author Contributions

Masakazu Hayashi conceived and designed the experiments, performed the experiments, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, prepared figures and/or tables, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved the final draft.

Shinji Sugiura conceived and designed the experiments, performed the experiments, analysed the data, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, prepared figures and/or tables, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, and approved the final draft.

Animal Ethics

The following information was supplied relating to ethical approvals (i.e., approving body and

205 any reference numbers):

206 The experiments were undertaken in accordance with the Kobe University Animal
207 Experimentation Regulations (Kobe University's Animal Care and Use Committee, 30–01).
208 Ours study was not conducted in any national parks or protected areas. Study insects were not
209 assigned to protected species the study sites. In addition, no specific permissions are required
210 to collect non-protected insects in non-protected area in Japan.

211

212 Data Availability

213 Data available from the Figshare Digital Repository:

214 <https://figshare.com/s/b1bcd137726734746076>

215

216 Supplemental Information

217 Supplemental information for this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/>

218

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 289

290 Figure legends

291

292 **Figure 1 Swimming behaviour in terrestrial caterpillars.** (a) *Dinumma deponens*. (b)

293 *Dinumma deponens* swimming on the surface of a pond. (c) Undulatory swimming in *Spirama*

294 *retorta*. (d) Undulatory swimming in *Hypopyra vespertilio*. (e) Kick swimming in *Acosmetia*

295 *biguttula*. (f) Undulatory swimming in *Laelia coenosa*. Arrows indicate anal prolegs, which may

296 function in a manner similar to that of tail fins.

297

298 **Figure 2 Active swimming in terrestrial caterpillars.** (a) Temporal sequence of undulatory

299 swimming in *Hypopyra vespertilio*. (b) Temporal sequence of kick swimming in *Acosmetia*

300 *biguttula*.

301

302 **Figure 3 Relationship between body size and swimming behaviour in *Spirama retorta*.** (a)

303 Relationship between body length and swimming behaviour ($n = 70$). (b) Relationship between

304 body length and swimming speed (mm/s) ($n = 70$). Lines and blue areas represent regression

305 lines and 95% confidence intervals derived from generalised linear models, respectively (Tables

306 3 and 4).

307

308 **Figure 4 Larval morphology of *Hypopyra vespertilio*.** (a) A larva on a host plant leaf. (b) A

309 larva on the water surface. *Hypopyra vespertilio* larvae have three pairs of thoracic legs (T1–T3)

310 and five pairs of abdominal prolegs (A3–A6 and A10).

311

312



Supplementary videos

Video S1 Undulatory swimming by a *Dinumma deponens* larva on the water surface of a pond.

Active swimming could aid in evading water striders (*Aquarius paludum*).

Video S2 Undulatory swimming by *Hypopyra vespertilio* larvae under laboratory and field conditions.

Video S3. Kick swimming by *Acosmetia biguttula* larvae under laboratory and field conditions.

Active swimming could aid in evading predation by backswimmers (*Notonecta triguttata*) in the pond.

The English in this document has been checked by at least two professional editors, both native speakers of English. For a certificate, please see:

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Table 1 (on next page)

Table 1 Swimming and other behaviours of the caterpillars placed on the water surface.

Table 1 Swimming and other behaviours of the caterpillars placed on the water surface.

Family	Subfamily	Species	Instar	Body length (mm)	Host plant range	Plant species (sampling)	Habitat (sampling)	Walking	Behavior on the water surface	Swimming % (<i>n</i>)
Erebidae	Erebinae	<i>Hypopyra vespertilio</i>	Middle-late	23–70	Fabaceae	<i>Albizia julibrissin</i>	Lake bank	locomotion	Undulatory swimming	100 (7/7) †
		<i>Spirama retorta</i>	Middle-late	8–42	Fabaceae	<i>Albizia julibrissin</i>	Lake bank	Inching	Undulatory swimming	100 (3/3)
	Scoliapteryginae	<i>Dinumma deponens</i>	Middle-late	20–32	<i>Albizia julibrissin</i>	<i>Albizia julibrissin</i>	Lake bank	Inching	Undulatory swimming / floating	33 (1/3)
	Lymantriinae	<i>Laelia coenosa</i>	Late	22–34	Poaceae, Cyperaceae, Typhaceae	<i>Typha latifolia</i> L.	Pondside		Undulatory swimming	100 (6/6)
		<i>Lymantria dispar</i>	Late	33–54	Many families	<i>Cerasus × yedoensis</i>	Urban area	Inching	Undulatory swimming / floating	30 (3/10)
Noctuidae	Bagisarinae	<i>Xanthodes transversa</i>	Middle-late	25–42	Malvaceae	<i>Hibiscus mutabilis</i>	Garden	Crawling	Floating	0 (0/2)
	Condicinae	<i>Acosmetia biguttula</i>	Middle-late	20–38	<i>Bidens</i>	<i>Bidens frondosa</i>	Pondside	Inching	Kick swimming	100 (6/6) †
	Eustrotiinae	<i>Naranga aenescens</i>	Middle-late	13–24	Poaceae	<i>Pseudoraphis sordida</i>	Abandoned paddy field		Undulatory swimming	100 (4/4)
		<i>Sarcopolia illoba</i>	Early-middle	19–34	Many families	<i>Albizia julibrissin</i>	Lake bank	Inching	Floating	0 (0/3)
		<i>Britha inambitiosa</i>	Middle-late	13–20	<i>Pterostyrax hispidus</i>	<i>Pterostyrax hispidus</i>	Streamside	Crawling	Floating	0 (0/3)
Geometridae	Ennominae	<i>Chiasmia defixaria</i>	Middle-late	20–30	<i>Albizia julibrissin</i>	<i>Albizia julibrissin</i>	Lake bank	Inching	Floating	0 (0/3)
		<i>Ectropis excellens</i>	Late	30	Many families	<i>Pterostyrax hispidus</i>	Streamside	Inching	Floating	0 (0/1)
Sphingidae	Macroglossinae	<i>Theretra oldenlandiae</i>	Early	20	Many families	<i>Causonis japonica</i>	Garden	Inching	Floating	0 (0/1) †

† One larva of each species was observed on the water surface of a pond, while other larvae were observed under laboratory conditions.

Table 2(on next page)

Table 2 Body size and swimming behaviour of *Spirama retortalarvae*.

1 **Table 2** Body size and swimming behaviour of *Spirama retorta* larvae.

Instar	Body weight (mg) †	Body length (mm) †	Head width (mm) †	Floating (%)	Swimming (%)	<i>n</i>
First	0.4 ± 0.2	6.1 ± 0.2	0.4 ± 0.0	100	0	10
Second	8.4 ± 1.1	14.3 ± 0.5	0.7 ± 0.0	100	0	10
Third	27.9 ± 2.0	22.3 ± 0.6	1.3 ± 0.0	100	40	10
Fourth	79.1 ± 5.7	29.2 ± 0.5	2.0 ± 0.0	100	70	10
Fifth	281.6 ± 21.0	44.4 ± 0.9	2.7 ± 0.0	100	100	10
Sixth	587.4 ± 47.6	54.8 ± 1.4	3.5 ± 0.1	100	100	10
Seventh	884.8 ± 72.3	61.1 ± 1.3	4.1 ± 0.0	100	100	10

2

3 † Values are mean ± SE.

4

Table 3(on next page)

Table 3 Relationship between body size and swimming behaviour in *Spirama retortalarvae* obtained using a generalised linear model.

1 **Table 3 Relationship between body size and swimming behaviour in *Spirama retorta* larvae obtained using a generalised**
 2 **linear model.**

□	□	□	□	□	□
Response variable	Explanatory variable (fixed effect)	Coefficient estimate	SE	<i>t</i> value	<i>P</i> value
Swimming behavior †	Intercept	−7.21997	1.33807	−5.396	<0.0001
□	Caterpillar body length	0.28593	0.05312	5.383	<0.0001

3
 4 † A quasi-binomial error distribution (rather than a binomial error distribution) was used because the residual deviance was smaller
 5 than the residual degrees of freedom (underdispersion).
 6

Table 4(on next page)

Table 4 Relationship between body size and swimming distance (mm/s) in *Spirama retorta* larvae obtained using a generalised linear model.

1 **Table 4 Relationship between body size and swimming distance (mm/s) in *Spirama retorta* larvae obtained using a**
 2 **generalised linear model.**

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Response variable	Explanatory variable (fixed effect)	Coefficient estimate	SE	<i>t</i> value	<i>P</i> value
Swimming distance †	Intercept	0.995874	0.233774	4.26	<0.0001
<input type="checkbox"/>	Caterpillar body length	0.056937	0.004376	13.01	<0.0001

3
 4 † A quasi-Poisson error distribution (rather than a Poisson error distribution) was used because the residual deviance was larger than
 5 the residual degrees of freedom (overdispersion).
 6

Figure 1

Figure 1 Swimming behaviour in terrestrial caterpillars.

(a) *Dinumma deponens*. (b) *Dinumma deponens* swimming on the surface of a pond. (c) Undulatory swimming in *Spirama retorta*. (d) Undulatory swimming in *Hypopyra vespertilio*. (e) Kick swimming in *Acosmetia biguttula*. (f) Undulatory swimming in *Laeliacoenosa*. Arrows indicate anal prolegs, which may function in a manner similar to that of tail fins.



Figure 2

Figure 2 Active swimming in terrestrial caterpillars.

(a) Temporal sequence of undulatory swimming in *Hypopyra vespertilio*. (b) Temporal sequence of kick swimming in *Acosmetia biguttula*.

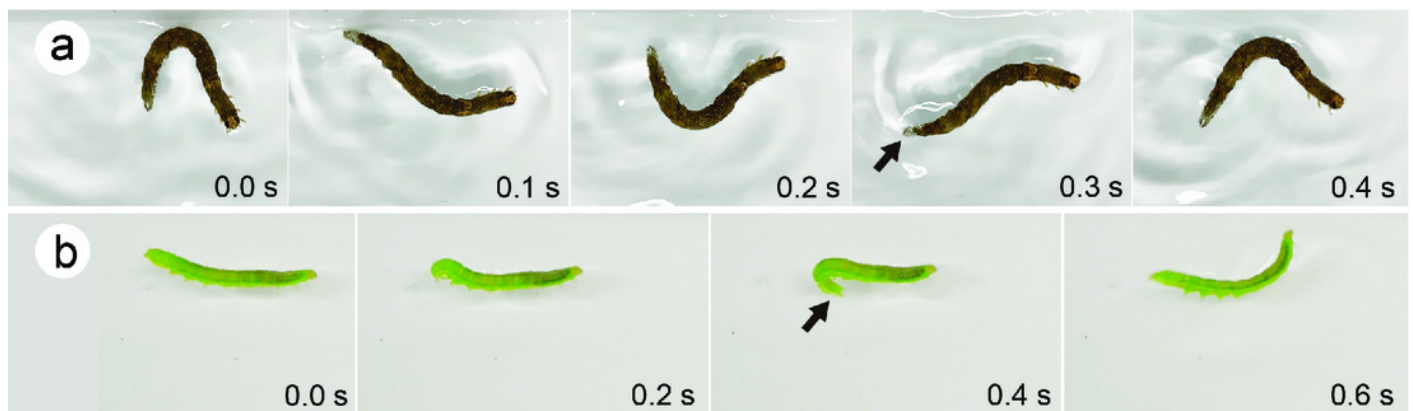


Figure 3

Figure 3 Relationship between body size and swimming behaviour in *Spirama retorta*.

(a) Relationship between body length and swimming behaviour ($n=70$) (b) Relationship between body length and swimming speed (mm/s) ($n=70$). Lines and blue areas represent regression lines and 95% confidence intervals derived from generalised linear models, respectively (Tables 3 and 4).

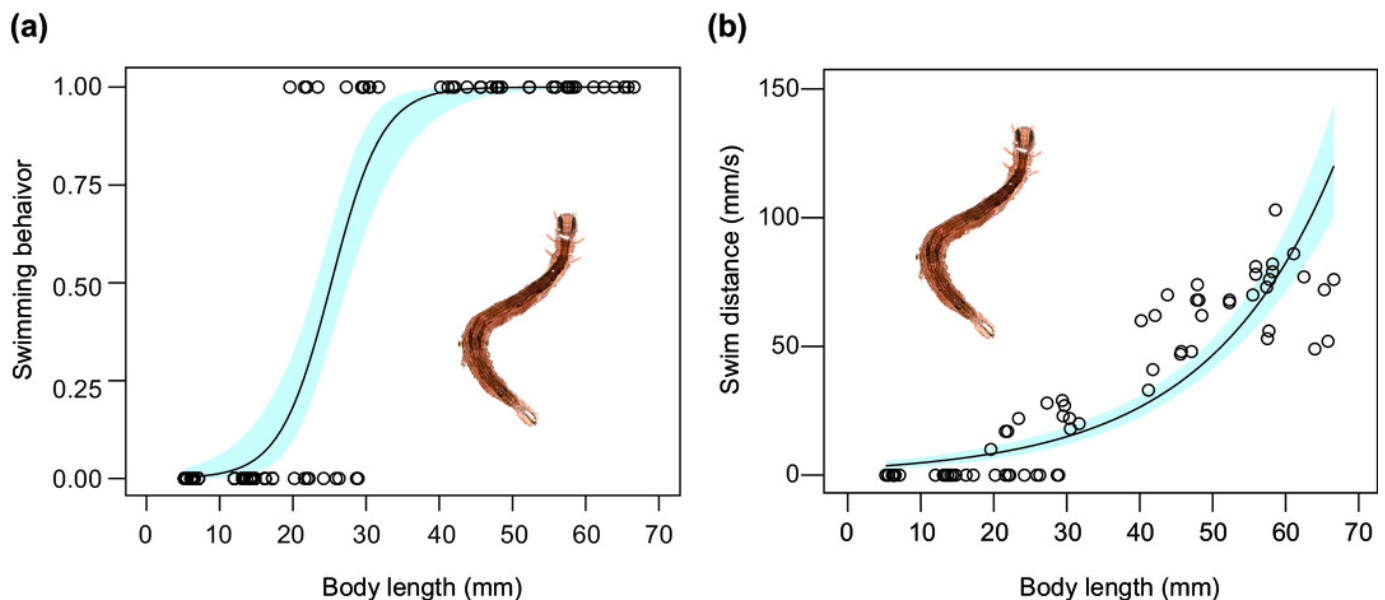


Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 4 Larval morphology of *Hypopyra vespertilio*.

(a) A larva on a host plant leaf. (b) A larva on the water surface. *Hypopyra vespertilio* larvae have three pairs of thoracic legs (T1-T3) and five pairs of abdominal prolegs (A3-A6 and A10).

