Pharmacophagy in green lacewings (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae: *Chrysopa* spp.)?

Jeffrey R Aldrich, Kamal Chauhan, Qing-He Zhang

Green lacewings (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae) are voracious predators of aphids and other small, soft-bodied insects and mites. Earlier, we identified the first lacewing pheromone from field-collected males of the goldeneyed lacewing, Chrysopa oculata Say; (1R,2S,5R,8R)-iridodial is released from thousands of microscopic dermal glands on the abdominal sternum of males, along with comparable amounts of nonanal, nonanol and nonanoic acid. Iridodial-baited traps attract *C. oculata* and other *Chrysopa* spp. males into traps, while females come to the vicinity of, but do not usually enter baited traps. Despite their healthy appearance, normal fertility and usual amounts of C₉ compounds, laboratoryreared C. oculata males do not produce iridodial. However, we observed that goldeneyed lacewing males caught alive in iridodial-baited traps sometimes try to eat the lure, and in Asia Chrysopa spp. males reportedly eat the native plant, Actinidia polygama (Siebold & Zucc.) Maxim. (Actinidiaceae) to obtain the iridoid, neomatatabiol. These observations prompted us to investigate why laboratory-reared Chrysopa green lacewings do not produce iridodial. Lacewing adult males fed various monoterpenes reduced carbonyls to alcohols and saturated double bonds, but did not convert these compounds to iridodial. Males fed the bicyclic iridoid aphid pheromone component, (4aS,7S,7aR)-nepetalactone, converted ~75% to dihydronepetalactone, but did not produce iridodial; however, wild C. oculata males collected in May often contained traces of dihydronepetalactone. On the other hand, adult males fed the second common aphid pheromone component, (1R,4aS,7S,7aR)-nepetalacton onverted this compound to iridodial. In California the peak late-season attraction of green lacewings to nepetalactol (the lactone is unattractive) occurs at least a month earlier than the peak in aphid oviparae (the pheromone producing morph of aphids), consistent with the hypothesis that Chrysopa males feed on oviparae to obtain nepetalactol as a precursor to iridodial. Adult males from laboratory-reared C. oculata larvae fed nepetalactol failed to produce iridodial, and wild *C. oculata* males collected early in the spring produce less iridodial than males collected later in the season. Therefore, we further hypothesize that Asian Chrysopa eat A. polygama to obtain iridoid precursors in order to make their pheromone, and that other iridoid-producing plants elsewhere in the world must be similarly usurped by male Chrysopa species to sequester

pheromone precursors. Whether or not sequestration of iridodial precursors from oviparae and/or iridoid-containing plants is truly the explanation for lack of pheromone in laboratory-reared *Chrysopa* awaits further research .

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12	Pharmacophagy in green lacewings (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae: Chrysopa spp.)?
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ABSTRACT

25	Green lacewings (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae) are voracious predators of aphids and other
26	small, soft-bodied insects and mites. Earlier, we identified the first lacewing pheromone
27	from field-collected males of the goldeneyed lacewing, Chrysopa oculata Say;
28	(1R,2S,5R,8R)-iridodial is released from thousands of microscopic dermal glands on the
29	abdominal sternum of males, along with comparable amounts of nonanal, nonanol and
30	nonanoic acid. Iridodial-baited traps attract C. oculata and other Chrysopa spp. males
31	into traps, while females come to the vicinity of, but do not usually enter baited traps.
32	Despite their healthy appearance, normal fertility and usual amounts of C ₉ compounds,
33	laboratory-reared C. oculata males do not produce iridodial. However, we observed that
34	goldeneyed lacewing males caught alive in iridodial-baited traps sometimes try to eat the
35	lure, and in Asia Chrysopa spp. males reportedly eat the native plant, Actinidia polygama
36	(Siebold & Zucc.) Maxim. (Actinidiaceae) to obtain the iridoid, neomatatabiol. These
37	observations prompted us to investigate why laboratory-reared Chrysopa green lacewings
38	do not produce iridodial. Lacewing adult males fed various monoterpenes reduced
39	carbonyls to alcohols and saturated double bonds, but did not convert these compounds to
40	iridodial. Males fed the bicyclic iridoid aphid pheromone component, (4aS,7S,7aR)-
41	nepetalactone, converted ~75% to dihydronepetalactone, but did not produce iridodial;
42	however, wild C. oculata males collected in May often contained traces of
43	dihydronepetalactone. On the other hand, adult males fed the second common aphid
44	pheromone component, (1R,4aS,7S,7aR)-nepetalactol, converted this compound to
45	iridodial. In California the peak late-season attraction of green lacewings to nepetalactol
46	(the lactone is unattractive) occurs at least a month earlier than the peak in aphid oviparae

(the pheromone producing morph of aphids), consistent with the hypothesis that
Chrysopa males feed on oviparae to obtain nepetalactol as a precursor to iridodial. Adult
males from laboratory-reared C. oculata larvae fed nepetalactol failed to produce
iridodial, and wild C. oculata males collected early in the spring produce less iridodial
than males collected later in the season. Therefore, we further hypothesize that Asian
Chrysopa eat A. polygama to obtain iridoid precursors in order to make their pheromone,
and that other iridoid-producing plants elsewhere in the world must be similarly usurped
by male Chrysopa species to sequester pheromone precursors. Whether or not
sequestration of iridodial precursors from oviparae and/or iridoid-containing plants is
truly the explanation for lack of pheromone in laboratory-reared Chrysopa awaits further
research.

INTRODUCTION

With ~ 6000 living species, Neuroptera is one of the smaller orders of insects (Winterton et al. 2010), but most larval neuropterans are predacious, often in agricultural systems, lending added importance to this group (Tauber et al. 2009). Of foremost agricultural importance are the green lacewings (Chrysopidae), particularly *Chrysoperla* and *Chrysopa* species, whose larvae are voracious predators of aphids and other soft-bodied insects and mites (McEwen et al. 2007). The meticulous illustrations of male-specific dermal glands in *Chrysopa* (Principi 1949) by the grande dame of neuropterists, Maria Matilde Principi (Pantaleoni 2015), inspired our identification of the first pheromone for green lacewings (Zhang et al. 2004).

Field-collected male goldeneyed lacewings, Chrysopa oculata Say, release

70	(1R,2S,5R,8R)-iridodial with comparable amounts of nonanal, nonanol and nonanoic acid
71	(Zhang et al. 2004); iridodial-baited traps attracted C. oculata males into traps and
72	females to the vicinity of baited traps (Chauhan et al. 2007). Subsequently, we found that
73	the same iridodial stereoisomer similarly attracted adults of C. nigricornis Burmeister in
74	the western U.S. (Zhang et al. 2006a), and C. septempunctata Wesmael in China (Zhang
75	et al. 2006b). However, our efforts to pursue pheromone research of exotic chrysopids
76	was thwarted by the discovery by one of us (JRA) that, despite their healthy appearance,
77	normal fertility and usual amounts of C ₉ compounds, laboratory-reared C. oculata males
78	produced no iridodial (unpublished data). Furthermore, an observation by another of us
79	(Q-HZ) that C. nigricornis males caught alive in traps baited with iridodial tried to eat the
80	lure (unpublished observation), combined with previous reports of Chrysopa
81	septempunctata eating the iridoid-containing plant known as silver leaf, Actinidia
82	polygama (Siebold & Zucc.) Maxim (Actinidiaceae; native to Asia) (Hyeon et al. 1968)
83	(Supplemental Figure 1, compounds 5 and prompted us to pursue the feeding studies
84	reported herein in an effort to explain this phenomenon.
85	
86	MATERIALS AND METHODS
87	Chemical standards
88	(Z,E)-nepetalactone [= $(4aS,7S,7aR)$ -nepetalactone] was prepared from catnip oil,
89	dihydronepetalactone was from hydrogenation of the lactone, (Z,E) -nepetalactol [=
90	(1R,4aS,7S,7aR)-nepetalactol] was from reduction of the lactone, and $1R,2S,5R,8R$ -
91	iridodial was derived from the (Z,E) -nepetalactone as previously described (Chauhan et
92	al., 200 The standard of 8-hydroxygeraniol was a gift from Dr. Wilhelm Boland

93	(Department of Bioorganic Chemistry, Max Planck Institute for Chemical Ecology, Jena,
94	Germany). Geranyl and farnesyl pyrophosphates were from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Louis,
95	MO) as were the following volatile standards ($\geq 95\%$) geraniol, citronellal,
96	linalool, citral, 6-methyl-5-hepten-2-one, 8-hydroxycitronellol, and 8-hydroxycitronellal.
97	
98	Lacewing collection and rearing
99	Adults of C. oculata for the laboratory colony were collected in May of 2008 by sweep
100	net from wild herbaceous vegetation bordering deciduous trees at the Beltsville
101	Agricultural Research Center (BARC), Prince George's County, Maryland, USA. Quart
102	wide-mouth Mason® canning jars (Mason Highland Brands, LLC, Hyrum, UT) were used
103	to maintain the adult insects. The jars were positioned horizontally, and nylon organdy
104	cloth (G Street Fabrics, Rockville, MD) held in place by the screw-top rim used to seal
105	the jars. Jars were provisioned with live parthenogenic pea aphids [Homoptera: Aphidae:
106	Acyrthosiphon pisum (Harris)] (supplied by Dr. John Reese, Kansas State University),
107	eggs of the Angoumois grain moth (Gelechiidae: Sitotroga cerealella (Oliver); Kunafin
108	"the Insectary", Quemado, TX), and a 10% honey solution. A 5 x 12 cm piece of
109	cardboard was used as a feeding platform. Honey solution was provided in a shell vial
110	with a loose-fitting sponge stopper (4 ml, 15 x 45 mm; Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA)
111	secured at one end of the cardboard with a rubber band. An adhesive strip of a Post-it®
112	paper (50 x 40 mm; 3M, St. Paul, MN) was gently applied to the Sitotroga eggs, and the
113	paper was glued (UHUstic®, UHU GmbH & Co., Bühl, Germany) to the other end of the
114	cardboard with the band of moth eggs exposed. The cardboard feeding platform thus
115	prepared was inserted in the bottom of the horizontal jar, and live pea aphid clones (up to

several hundred) were added to the cage. Ten to twenty adults could be kept per jar,
adding fresh aphids and moth eggs every other day or so, and adding fresh honey solution
as needed. In jars used as mating cages (5-10 pairs/jar), a piece of light blue colored
paper (providing a color contrast to the green eggs that are laid singly on stalks) was
inserted inside the length of the jar as an oviposition substrate. Servicing of these jars was
accomplished by working in a cage (30 x 30 x 60 cm; BioQuip Products, Rancho
Dominguez, CA, USA) open at one end, and illuminated at the top of the other end by a
fluorescent light. Adults from mating jars were moved to new jars weekly, the food
platform was removed from the jar with freshly laid lacewing eggs, and the eggs that had
been laid were allowed to hatch. Using a camel hair brush, two first-instar larvae were
transferred to each plastic cup (3/4 oz., snap-on lids; Solo Cup Company, Urbana, IL)
with a layer of Sitotroga eggs in the bottom. Cups provisioned with only Sitotroga eggs
were usually sufficient for both larvae to complete all 3 instars and pupate; more than two
larvae per cup usually resulted in cannibalism. Lacewing pupae were transferred to the
bottom compartment of mosquito breeders (BioQuip Products) and, upon emergence, the
adults were removed from the top compartment. The colony was maintained in an
environmental chamber set at 25 °C, 72% relative humidity, and 16:8 h (L:D)
photoperiod.
In addition to chemical feeding trials, some C. oculata males were reared as
above with access to foliage of Nepeta cataria (Catnip) (Mountain Valley Seed Inc., Salt
Lake City, UT; lot #G2217); some were antennectomized 1-5 days after emergence; and
some larvae were reared as above, plus fed pea aphid clones. Lacewings are unusual
among insects in that adults have chewing mouthparts whereas larvae have

139	piercing/sucking mouthparts (Tauber et al. 2009); therefore, some larvae were reared
140	with methylene blue dye in a preliminary experiment to verify that larvae ingested
141	materials from the honey water bottles, as did adults. Adult males from these treatments
142	were subsequently chemically sampled and analyzed as described below.
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144	Scanning election microscopy
145	Live wild C . oculata males were anesthetized with CO_2 , mounted on copper specimen
146	holders (16 \times 29 \times 1.5 mm thick) with cryoadhesive, and immersed in liquid N_2 . The
147	frozen specimens were transferred to an Oxford CT1500 HF cryo-preparation system,
148	and examined using a low temperature scanning electron microscope (LTSEM; Hitachi
149	S-4100) operated at 2.0 kV (Erbe et al. 2003). Micrographs were recorded on Polaroid
150	Type 55 P/N film.
151	
152	Chemical feeding, extraction of dermal glands, and chemical analysis
153	Each of the chemical standards listed above were individually fed to adult laboratory-
154	reared C. oculata males at 1 μ g/ μ l in the 5% aqueous honey solution for ca. 4 days prior
155	to analysis. Abdominal cuticle extracts (segments $3-8$) for chemical analyses of C .
156	oculata male-produced volatiles were prepared the same day as analysis as previously
157	described (Zhang et al. 2004). Wild males collected by sweep net, Beltsville MD, USA,
158	14 May – 1 June, 2009, were dissected in like manner the same day as collected.
159	Gas chromatography (GC) and coinjections were performed in splitless mode
160	using an HP 6890 GC equipped with a DB-5 column (0.25 μm film thickness, 30 m x
161	0.32 mm ID; J & W Scientific, Folsom, CA). Helium was used as the carrier gas,

programming from 50°C/2 min, to 250°C at 10°C/min, then held for 10 min. GC-mass
spectrometry (GC-MS) analyses were performed with an Electron impact ionization (EI)
mass spectra were obtained at 70 eV with an Agilent Technologies 5973 mass selective
detector interfaced with 6890N GC system equipped with either an HP-5MS (30 m×0.25
mm i.d.×0.25 μm film) column programmed from 50°C/2 min, rising to 230°C at
15°C/min, then held for 15 min, or using a DB-WaxETR column (0.25 μm film
thickness, 30 m \times 0.25 mm ID; J &W Scientific, Folsom, CA) programmed at 50°C/2
min, rising to 230°C at 15°C/min, then held for 15 min.
RESULTS
In <i>C. oculata</i> adult males the dermal glands (Güsten 1996) are elliptical (\sim 12 x 7.5 μ m)
with a central slit (Fig. 1), and occur on the 3rd-8th abdominal sternites (~800, 2100,
2500, 2500, 2300 and 1500, respectively); corresponding dermal glands are absent in
females (Zhang et al. 2004). Similarly appearing male-specific dermal glands occur on
both abdominal tergites and sternites in C. septempunctata (Principi 1949), whose males
were abundantly captured in iridodial-baited traps in China (Fig. 2) (Zhang et al. 2006b).
Analyses of C. oculata revealed that nonanal and nonanol were abundant in
extracts of the abdominal sternites of males regardless of whether they were collected in
the wild or reared in the laboratory; however, iridodial was absent in extracts of
laboratory-reared C. oculata males (Fig. 3A and B; Table 1). Conspecific females did
not produce detectable amounts of the C_9 compounds or iridodial (data not shown).
Access of C. oculata males to catnip foliage did not stimulate production of iridodial, nor
did feeding geranyl or farnesyl pyrophosphates. Removing the antennae of <i>C. oculata</i>

185	males had no effect on production of iridodial, and rearing C. oculata males in isolation
186	from conspecific males did not result in production of iridodial (data not shown).
187	Providing pea aphid clones to larvae during rearing yielded at most only traces of
188	iridodial in the ensuing adult males, although the methylene blue uptake by larvae
189	verified uptake from the honey water solution. In wild males collected by sweep netting
190	foliage in early spring (i.e. not from iridodial-baited traps) the mean iridodial percentage
191	relative to the abundances of nonanal and nonanol was $14.30 \% (\pm SEM = 3.72)$ (Table
192	1). Analysis of one male caught in one iridodial-baited trap (14 May 200) eltsville,
193	MD) to which the captured males had access to the lure, showed that this male produced
194	more iridodial than the normal mean abundance for nonanol in wild-caught males (64.42
195	<u>+</u> 4.73; Table 1).
196	Feeding naturally common monoterpene alcohols and aldehydes to C. oculata
197	males did not stimulate production of iridodial (Table 2, experiment numbers 1-8).
198	However, this series of feeding trials did reveal that males evidently possess reductase
199	and saturase enzymes capable reducing aldehydes to alcohols, and of saturating double
200	bonds in these molecules. These reactions appeared to be unidirectional; for example,
201	geranial was completely converted to geraniol (Table 2, experiment number whereas
202	geraniol was slightly isomerized to nerol but aldehydes were not produced (Table 2,
203	experiment number 6). Furthermore, the abundances of C ₉ compounds were not affected;
204	nonanal, nonanol and nonanoic acid occurred in ratios within their ranges for wild-caught
205	males for all experiments shown in Table 2. Feeding 8-hydroxygeraniol did not stimulate
206	production of iridodial, nor did feeding geranyl or farnesyl pyrophosphates (data not
207	shown).

208	Feeding male goldeneyed lacewings the common aphid pheromone components,
209	(4aS,7S,7aR)-nepetalactone and (1R,4aS,7S,7aR)-nepetalactol, produced more positive
210	results. While feeding nepetalactone did not result in production of iridodial, about 75%
211	of this lactone was converted to the dihydronepetalactone (Table 2, experiment number
212	9). Interestingly, dihydronepetalactone was detected at low, but unequivocal levels in
213	some samples from wild C. oculata males (Supplemental Figures 2 and 3). Chrysopa
214	oculata males fed $(1R,4aS,7S,7aR)$ -nepetalact ponverted this compound to
215	(1R,2S,5R,8R)-iridodial (82.7%; Table 2, experiment number 10; Fig. 3C), with two later
216	eluting 168 MW compounds accounting for 17.3% of the other newly appearing
217	components, as well as (Z) -4-tridecene from the defensive prothoracic glands (Fig. 3C,
218	compound c) (Aldrich et al. 2009). Two additional feeding experiments were conducted
219	as for experiment 10 (Table 2) except the GC-MS analysis used a 30m HP-5 column; one
220	of these experiments (N = 4 males) resulted in 100% conversion to $(1R,2S,5R,8R)$ -
221	iridodial, while the second ($N = 9$ males) showed 54.90% conversion to ($1R,2S,5R,8R$)-
222	iridodial with two later eluting 168 MW components (14.70% and 30.40%, respectively).
223	The mass spectra of the 168 MW compounds from experiment 10 (Table 2; Fig. 3C) did
224	not match the spectra of the later eluting 168 MW compounds seen in the latter
225	experiment using 9 males analyzed using the HP-5 column.
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227	
228	DISCUSSION
229	Coincidence of male-specific dermal glands with extraction of (1R,2S,5R,8R)-iridodial
230	from the 3 rd -8 th abdominal sternites strongly implicates these glands as the pheromone

source (Zhang et al. 2004). Surprisingly, only males are caught in traps baited with this
iridodial (Zhang et al. 2004; Zhang et al. 2006a; Zhang et al. 2006b); however, females
are drawn to the vicinity of, but seldom enter, iridodial-baited traps (Chauhan et al.
2007), presumably because the close-range substrate-borne vibrational signals to which
females are ultimately attracted are disrupted by trapping males (Henry 1982). The C_9
compounds are unattractive to C. oculata, quantitatively much less variable than
iridodial, and inhibitory to iridodial attraction, suggesting these compounds play a role
independent from that of iridodial (Zhang et al. 2004).
Previous laboratory rearing studies with Chrysopa oculata showed that males
produced fertile matings when fed only sugar and water, whereas females needed to feed
on pea aphid clones in order to mate and produce fertile eggs (Tauber and Tauber 1973).
Our results support these finding, but also make it clear that C. oculata males are unable
to make pheromone on this feeding regimen. Iridodial production in C. oculata males
was not stimulated by 1) antennectomy of sexually mature C. oculata males, which in
some group-reared insects stimulates pheromone production (e.g. Dickens et al. 2002); 2)
providing access to catnip plants, Nepeta cataria, containing the nepetalactone aphid
pheromone component (Pickett et al. 2013); or 3) rearing C. oculata males in isolation,
which in some insects is required for maximal pheromone production (Ho et al. 2005;
Khrimian et al. 2014).
Feeding monoterpene alcohols and aldehydes to C. oculata males did not
stimulate production of iridodial either, but this series of feeding trials revealed that
males are capable of reducing aldehydes to alcohols and of saturating double bonds.
Feeding 8-hydroxygeraniol, which is a precursor to biosynthesis of iridodials in some

insects (Hilgraf et al. 2012), did not stimulate production of iridodial, nor did feeding 8-
hydroxycitronellol. On the other hand, males fed the common aphid pheromone
component, $(4aS,7S,7aR)$ -nepetalactone, converted ~75% to dihydronepetalactone, and
males fed the other common aphid pheromone component, (1R,4aS,7S,7aR)-nepetalacte
converted this bicyclic iridoid to $(1R,2S,5R,8R)$ -iridodial. Interestingly, analyses of wild
C. oculata males collected in May often revealed the presence of dihydronepetalactone.
One interpretation of these data is that C. oculata males must eat aphid oviparae
to obtain nepetalactol in order to make their pheromone. Indeed, in northern California
the peak late-season attraction of green lacewings to nepetalactol (nepetalactone is
unattractive) occurs at least a month earlier than the peak in aphid oviparae (Symmes
2012), consistent with the hypothesis that Chrysopa males feed on oviparae to obtain
nepetalactol as a precursor for iridodial. These dynamics indicate there is sufficient time
for Chrysopa males to feed on oviparae, produce iridodial, mate, and have conspecific
females' offspring reach the prepupal overwintering stage (Uddin et al. 2005). However,
adult males from laboratory-reared C. oculata larvae fed nepetalactol still failed to
produce wild-type levels of iridodial even though wild C. oculata males collected early in
the spring produce less iridodial than do males collected later in the season (Zhang et al.
2004). Although some aphids produce oviparae under stressed conditions in summer
(Hardie 1985), it seems unlikely that these oviparae are a reliable or abundant enough
source to sustain Chrysopa male pheromone production. Therefore, we further
hypothesize the raison d'être that Asian Chrysopa eat fruit and foliage of silver leaf (A.
polygama) is to obtain iridoid precursors necessary to make their pheromone; other
iridoid-producing plants (e.g. Hilgraf et al. 2012; Prota et al. 2014) elsewhere in the

١	world must	be similarly	usurped by	male (Chrysopa	species to	o sequester	iridoid
1	pheromone	precursors.						

Thus, Chrysopa spp. lacewings, whose adults are predacious distinguishing them
from closely aligned green lacewings in the genus Chrysoperla whose adults are not
predacious (Tauber et al. 2009), appear to exhibit pharmacophagy: that is, they "search
for certain secondary plant substances directly, take them up, and utilize them for specific
purpose other than primary metabolism" (Boppré 1984). A prime example of
pharmacophagy are male Bactrocera fruit flies (Tephritidae) that feed on plants to obtain
their pheromone precursor, methyl eugenol (Tan and Nishida 2012). Indeed, males of
certain lacewings [i.e. Ankylopteryx exquisite (Nakahara) (Pai et al. 2004), and Mallada
basalis (Walker) (Oswald 2015; Suda and Cunningham 1970)] are also powerfully
attracted to methyl eugenol for unknown reasons (Tan and Nishida 2012). In addition,
certain chrysomelid beetle larvae discharge iridoid allomones that may be synthesized de
novo, which is considered ancestral, or produced via the more evolutionarily advanced
mechanism, sequestration from plants (Kunert et al. 2008). Increasingly, pharmacophagy
is being recognized as a widespread phenomenon in insects, and Wyatt (2014) has
extended the concept of pharmacophagy to include molecules produced by bacteria that
are used as pheromones, such as locust phase-change pheromones produced by gut
bacteria. If male Chrysopa spp. lacewings actually do seek out aphid oviparae to obtain
nepetalactol as a precursor to iridodial, and in this regard it should be noted that only
Chrysopa males are attracted to nepetalactol (Koczor et al. 2015), then the concept of
pharmacophagy must be further extended to include this type of predator/prey interaction.
Whether or not sequestration of iridodial precursors from oviparae and/or iridoid-

containing plants is truly the explanation for lack of pheromone in laboratory-reared *Chrysopa* awaits further research.

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CONCLUSIONS

Goldeneyed lacewing males, Chrysopa oculata (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae), produce (1R,2S,5R,8R)-iridodial as an aggregation pheromone from specialized dermal glands on the abdomen; however, seemingly normal laboratory-reared males of C. oculata do not produce iridodial. Feeding studies with C. oculata showed that males of these predatory insects fed one of the common aphid sex pheromone components, (1R,4aS,7S,7aR)nepetalactol, sequester this compound and convert it to the stereochemically correct lacewing pheromone isomer of iridodial. These data, combined with literature accounts of other *Chrysopa* species from the Oriental region that feed on iridoid-producing plants, suggest these (and some other) lacewing species must obtain precursors from aphid oviparae and/or certain plants containing iridoids in order to make pheromone. The phenomenon, known as pharmacophagy, whereby an insect searches for certain secondary plant substances and sequesters the chemicals for a specific purpose other than primary metabolism, is widespread among phytophagous insects but, to our knowledge, is unknown among lacewings or other predacious insects. Our findings, if verified, have significant implications for lacewing-based biological control of aphids and other small arthropod pests.

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330	
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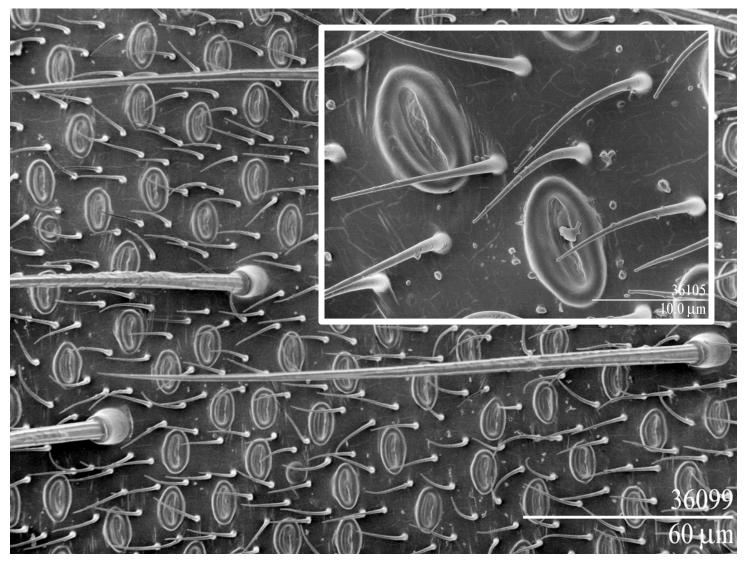


Figure 1 Scanning electron micrographs of the male-specific dermal glands of Chrysopa oculata. Low temperature scan (Erbe et al., 2003) with insert showing close-up of two dermal glands.

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Figure 2 Male *Chrysopa septempunctata* captured in pheromone-baited trap, Shengyang, China (Zhang *et al.*, 2006). *Chrysopa* females come to the vicinity of iridodial-baited traps, but are seldom caught (Chauhan et al., 2007).

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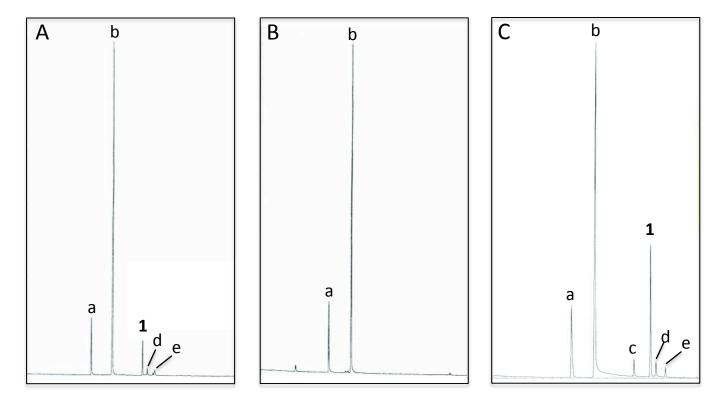


Figure 3 Total ion chromatograms of abdominal cuticular extracts of male *Chrysopa oculata*; A) field-collected, B) laboratory-reared and, C) laboratory-reared fed (1R,4S,4aR,7S,7aR)-dihydronepetalactol (see Table 2). (Column = 30m DB-WAXetr: a = nonanal; b = nonanol; c = (Z)-4-tridecene; 1 = (1R,2S,5R,8R)-iridodial; d & e = 168 MW isomers.)

Table 1 Volatiles from abdominal cuticle of field-collected and laboratory-reared *Chrysopa oculata* **males**. Wild *C. oculata* males were collected by sweep net, Beltsville, Maryland, and *C. oculata* laboratory-reared males (see text for details) were sampled for comparisons. Abdominal cuticle (segments 3–8) for chemical analyses were prepared as described previously (Zhang et al., 2004).

		Compound (%)			
Source / Date	\mathbf{N}^{a}	Nonanal	Nonanol	Iridodial ^b	% Σ ^c
Field / 14 May 2009	4	13.06	80.68	2.35	96.09
Field / 18 May 2009	2	15.81	80.16	2.12	98.09
Field / 22 May 2009	1	10.31	42.01	38.13	90.45
Field / 28 May 2009	1	30.09	50.06	16.11	96.26
Field / 28 May 2009	1	13.56	67.55	16.19	97.30
Field / 28 May 2009	1	8.84	74.88	14.06	97.78
Field / 1 June 2009	1	32.24	54.82	9.94	97.00
Field / 1 June 2009	1	13.69	65.20	15.53	94.42
	Mean:	13.95	64.42	14.30	95.92
	<u>+</u> SEM:	3.81	4.73	3.72	
Lab / 27 June 2008 ^d	8	21.28	76.26	0	97.54
Lab / 13 Aug 2008 ^d	5	21.37	69.34	0	90.71
Lab / 24 Nov 2008 ^d	6	11.20	86.12	0	97.32
Lab / 24 Nov 2008 ^d	7	18.60	75.74	0	94.34
Lab / 5 Jan 2009 ^e	5	16.58	79.42	0	96.00
	Mean:	17.81	77.38	0	95.18
	<u>+</u> SEM:	1.88	1.73		

^a In samples where N>1, multiple males were pooled and analyzed as a single sample by GC-MS on a 30 m DB-WaxETR column.

^b (1*R*,2*S*,5*R*,8*R*)-Iridodial (Chauhan et al., 2004).

^e Percentage of total volatiles; nonanoic acid (poorly resolved chromatographically) accounted for the majority of non-included volatiles.

^d Reared singly as adults.

^eReared in a group as adults.

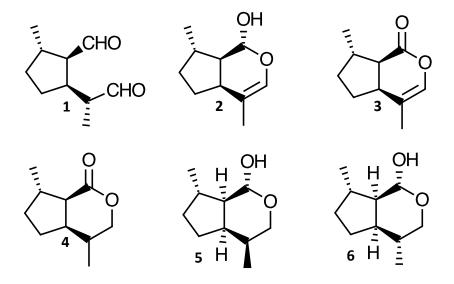
Table 2 Compounds produced by laboratory-reared *Chrysopa oculata* males fed various exogenous terpenoids. Sampling and rearing methods described in text; $1 \mu g/\mu l$ test compound in honey water, analyzed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry using a 30 m DB-WaxETR column.

		VaxETR colum: Compound		ound(s) produce	d from treatme	nt (%)°	
No.	N^{a}	fed ^b	a	b	c d		
1	8	ŎĦ —	(16)	ОН (3.3)	OH OH (9.7)	ОН (71)	
2	12		(9.9)	(8.3) OH	ОН (42.3)	ОН (39.5)	
3	9		(100)				
4	10		ОН (100)				
5	7)=\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	ОН (95.3)	ОН (4.7)			
6	5)—(ОН (4.3)	ОН (95.7)			
7	15	~ ~ ~ ~ ~	ОН ОН (100)				
8	15	OH OH	ОН ОН (100)				
9	12		(23.3)	(76.7)			
10	10	Ğ.,	СНО СНО (82.7)				

- b Sources of standards listed in text; 1) 3,7-dimethyl-1,6-octadien-3-ol (linalool), 2) (Z/E)-3,7-dimethyl-2,6-octadienal (citral: 43% Z-isomer, neral + 57% E-isomer, geranial), 3) 6-methyl-5-hepten-2-one, 4) 2,6-dimethyl-5-heptenal (citronellal), 5) 2,6-dimethyl-5-heptenol (citronellol), 6) (E)-3,7-dimethyl-2,6-octadien-1-ol (geraniol), 7) (E)-3,7-dimethyl-8-hydroxy-6-octen-1-al (8-hydroxycitronellal), 8) (E)-2,6-dimethyloct-2-ene-1,8-diol (8-hydroxycitronellol), 9) (4aS,7S,7aR)-nepetalactone and, 10) (1R,4S,4aR,7S,7aR)-dihydronepetalactol. Purities of all standards (except for iridodial) were \geq 95%; synthetic and natural iridodial analyzed by GC existed with two later eluting 168 MW isomers (Fig. 3; compounds d and e), here accounting for 10.2% and 7.1%, respectively, of the 168 MW compounds.
- c Abdominal cuticle (segments 3–8) for chemical analyses of *C. oculata* male-produced volatiles were prepared as described previously (Zhang et al., 2004). Compounds produced from fed precursors for which synthetic standards were available were verified by coinjections: 2c & 6a) nerol; 2d, 5b & 6b) geraniol; 4a & 5a) citronellol; 9a) (4a*S*,7*S*,7a*R*)-nepetalactone; 9b) (4a*S*,7*S*,7a*R*)-dihydronepetalactone and, 10a) (1*R*,2*S*,5*R*,8*R*)-iridodial. Other compounds were tentatively identified by near matches to mass spectra of compounds in the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) mass spectral library: 1a) 3,7-dimethyl-6-octen-3-ol (1,2-dihydrolinalool); 1b) (*Z*)-3,7-dimethyl-2,6-octadien-1-ol; 1c) 2,6-dimethyl-7-octene-2,6-diol; 1d) (*E*)-2,6-dimethyl-2,7-octadiene-1,6-diol; 2a & 3a) 6-methyl-5-hepten-2-ol; 2b) 3,7-dimethyl-6-octen-1-ol.

^a Number of males pooled for analysis.

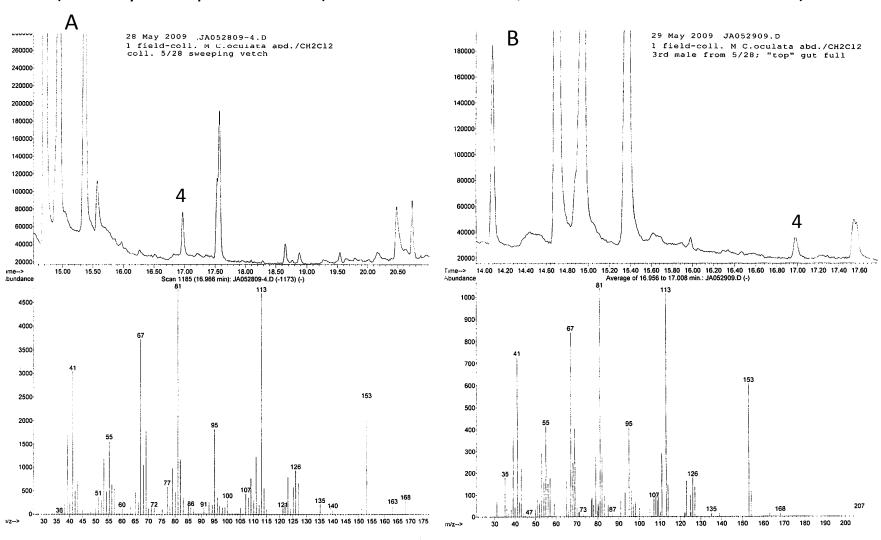
Compound 7a and 8a yielded a less than a perfect match for 3,7-dimethyl-1,7-octanediol; based upon previously seen glandular reactions, this compound is likely 2,6-dimethyl-1,8-octanediol.



Suppl. Figure 1 Structures of *Chrysopa* semiochemicals: **1:** (1*R*,2*S*,5*R*,8*R*)-iridodial, **2**:(1*R*,4*S*,4a*R*,7*S*,7a*R*)-dihydronepetalactol, **3**: (4a*S*,7*S*,7a*R*)-nepetalactone, **4**: dihydronepetalactone, **5**: (1*R*,4*S*,4a*R*,7*S*,7a*R*)-dihydronepetalactol

Suppl. Figure 2 GC and MS data of abdominal cuticular extracts from *Chrysopa Oculata* males a) & b) collected 28 May, 2009, sweeping vetch, Beltsville, MD.

(4 = dihydronepetalactone (column = 30m HP-5; conditions described in text)



Suppl. Figure 3 GC-MS data for dihydronepetalactone (4), 2 July 2014.

Analyzed on an HP 6890N GC coupled in series with an HP 5973 mass selective detector using a 30m DB-5 capillary column (250 μ m x 0.25 μ m film Thickness; Agilent Technologies, Wilmington, DE, USA), 50 °C for 5 min, to 280 °C at 10 °C/min, hold 3 min.

