# Two-headed butterfly vs. mantis: do false antennae matter? (#16517)

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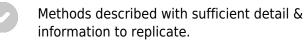
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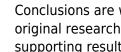
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### Two-headed butterfly vs. mantis: do false antennae matter?

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The colour patterns and morphological peculiarities of the hindwings of several butterfly species result in the appearance of a head at the rear end of the insect's body. Although some experimental evidence supports the hypothesis that the "false head" deflects predator attacks towards the rear end of the butterfly, more research is needed to determine the role of the different components of the "false head". We explored the role of hindwing tails (presumably mimicking antennae) in predator deception in the "false head" butterfly Callophrys xami. We exposed butterflies with intact wings and with hindwing tails experimentally ablated to female mantises (Stagmomantis limbata). We found no differences in the number of butterflies being attacked and the number of butterflies escaping predation between both groups. However, our behavioural observations indicate that some aspects of the "false head" help C. xami survive some mantis attacks, supporting the notion that they are adaptations against predators.

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#### 15 ABSTRACT

The colour patterns and morphological peculiarities of the hindwings of several butterfly 16 17 species result in the appearance of a head at the rear end of the insect's body. Although some experimental evidence supports the hypothesis that the "false head" deflects predator 18 19 attacks towards the rear end of the butterfly, more research is needed to determine the role of the different components of the "false head". We explored the role of hindwing tails 20 (presumably mimicking antennae) in predator deception in the "false head" butterfly 21 Callophrys xami. We exposed butterflies with intact wings and with hindwing tails 22 experimentally ablated to female mantises (Stagmomantis limbata). We found no 23 differences in the number of butterflies being attacked and the number of butterflies 24 25 escaping predation between both groups. However, our behavioural observations indicate 26 that some aspects of the "false head" help C. xami survive some mantis attacks, supporting 27 the notion that they are adaptations against predators.

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#### 29 INTRODUCTION

Butterfly wings are canvases on which evolution designs solutions to the problems posed 30 31 by thermoregulation, sexual selection and predation (Monteiro & Prudic, 2010; Kemp & 32 *Rutowski*, 2011). These adaptations frequently involve compromises between selective 33 pressures when optimal trait values differ between functions (*Ellers & Boggs, 2003*), 34 although sometimes they coincide (Finkbeiner et al., 2014). Several butterfly species exhibit colour patterns and morphological peculiarities in their hindwings that suggest, at 35 least to the human eye, that a butterfly resting with its wings closed possess a second head 36 37 at the rear end of its body (Robbins, 1980; Cordero, 2001). This appearance is enhanced by

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peculiar behaviours, such as the back and forth movements of the closed hindwings that 38 presumably permit the "false antennae"-the "tails" frequently present in the border of the 39 anal angle of the hindwings (Fig. 1a)-mimic the movements of real antennae (Robbins, 40 1980; López-Palafox et al., 2015). False head butterflies are especially common among the 41 42 subfamily Theclinae (Lycaenidae). Although several specific hypotheses on the function of the "false head" have been 43 advanced, all of them consider visually oriented predators as the main selective pressure, 44 and avoidance or deflection of attacks as the main advantage (Robbins, 1980; Cordero, 45 2001). Although false head butterflies are textbook examples of anti-predator adaptations 46 (e.g. Wickler, 1968; Ruxton et al., 2004), to the best of our knowledge, there are only two 47 48 published experimental studies testing the effect of false heads on probability of predation in live butterflies. Sourakov (2013) exposed two Calycopis cecrops (Lycaenidae) 49 butterflies, a species of with false head, and thirteen individuals from eleven species of 50 51 butterflies and moths without false heads, to one individual predatory salticid spider (*Phidippus pulcherrimus*). The spider repeatedly failed to trap the lycaenid butterflies 52 because becaus 53 other species, mostly (11 out of 13 cases) in the first or second attack. Wourms & 54 Wasserman (1985) added artificial "false heads" to Pieris rapae (Pieridae) butterflies by 55 attaching tails ("false antennae") and painting spots ("false eyes") on the anal angle of the 56 hindwings, as well as by painting lines converging on the anal angle, three of the main 57 components of the false heads identified by *Robbins (1980)*. Wourms & Wasserman (1985) 58 59 compared predation rates by Blue Jays (Cyanocitta cristata) between intact butterflies and

60 butterflies with false heads added. All control and experimental butterflies attacked were

61	caught, but the percentage of butterflies escaping during handling was twice as large in the				
62	treatment with artificial false heads as in the control group (16 out of 60 vs. 10 out of 79,				
63	respectively). The authors mention that butterflies escaped due to "mishandlings" by the				
64	birds, i.e. due to errors resulting from misdirected strikes while handling captured prey				
65	(Wourms & Wasserman, 1985). Thus, the experimental research available supports the idea				
66	that false heads help butterflies to deflect attacks away from their less vulnerable end				
67	(Wourms & Wasserman, 1985; Sourakov, 2013). However, these studies have some				
68	limitations. Sourakov's (2013) sample size was very small and the control group differed in				
69	a number of morphological and behavioural aspects besides the absence of a false head,				
70	while Wourms & Wasserman (1985) recognized that the wing shape of P. rapae is different				
71	from that of "false-head" Lycaenidae and that some of the behaviours associated with the				
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84

### 85 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental butterflies were raised from eggs laid by three females collected in the 86 87 Pedregal de San Ángel Ecological Reserve (PSAER) of the Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM), located in the main campus of the UNAM in the South of 88 Mexico City. Specimens were captured under a Scientific Collector permit granted to the 89 90 second author by the Mexican Secretaría de Medio Ambiente y Recursos Naturales (FAUT-0237). Dami is a multivoltine "false head" butterfly whose main food plant in the 91 92 collection site is Echeveria gibbiflora DC (Crassulaceae). Rearing methods followed Jiménez & Soberón (1988-1989). The predators used in the experiment were adult females 93 (males did not attack butterflies in pilot tests) of the mantis S. limbata, a species living in 94 the PSAER and, therefore, a potential natural predator of *C. xami*. P 95 the offspring of a female collected in the PSAER, whose nymphs were maintained 96 97 individually in  $\frac{1}{2}$  L plastic containers until the fourth instar and afterwards in 1 L 98 containers. Nymphs from instars 1 to 3 were fed *Drosophila nubin* ad libitum every other day, and afterwards with Achaeta domesticus cricke  $\mathcal{P}$  he rest of the female man  $\mathcal{P}$  s used 99 100 were raised and donated by the Unidad de Manejo Ambiental Yolkatsin (México). All insects were main bed at ambient temperature under a 12 h dark–12 h light photoperiod in 101 the insectary of the Instituto de Ecología (UNAM) located besides the PSAER. 102

103 The butterflies were randomly assigned to a treatment group: in the experimental 104 group the hindwing tails were ablated (Fig. 1b), whereas in the control group the wings 105 remained intact (Fig. 1a). Hindwing tails ablation was achieved by first introducing the 106 butterflies in a -20°C freezer until they were immobile (between 2 and 5 min), then the tails

were cut out with micro-scissors (Iris Scissors, Bioquip<sup>TM</sup>). Manipulation of each butterfly 107 108 lasted approximately 2 min. Control individuals were also introduced in the freezer and manipulated for a similar amount of time as experimental butterflies. A total of 26 109 butterflies of both sexes were attacked thus producing experimental data (14 males: 8 110 111 control, 6 experimental; 12 females: 6 control, 6 experimental; see Appendix). Twenty four female mantises were used, but five never attacked. Twelve mantises that attacked were 112 used just once (six with experimental and six with control butterflies) and seven were used 113 two four were used once with an experimental and once with a control butterfly, two 114 only with control butterflies and one only with experimental butterflies). Mantises used 115 twice had a time interval between trials of at least two weeks. To increase the probability of 116 attack, mantis were starved three days before being exposed to a butterfly. 117 Butterflies were individually exposed to one mantis in a glass chamber measuring 118  $33.4 \text{ cm} \times 13.3 \longrightarrow 11.8 \text{ cm}$ , with one of the two largest (33. 4 cm  $\times 13.3 \text{ cm}$ ) sides 119 covered with white Styrofoam. A Sony Handycam HDR-SR1was used to film most of the 120 trials (23 out of 26). The mantis was introduced to the experim  $\frac{1}{2}$  l chamber two hours 121 before each trial. Afterwards, the butterfly was gently introduced in the chamber in a 122 position as far as possible from the mantis. If after five minutes mantis did not attacked, 123 the trial was discarded. If the mantis attacked within five minutes after the introduction of 124 the butterfly, we recorded the result (i.e. if the butterf was captured or escaped) and 125 finished the trial. We allowed just on  $\bigcirc$  ttack with exception of one case in which the 126

127 butterfly escaped the first attack (this was the result used in the analysis) but, since it was in

128 one corner of the chamber, rapidly flew back close to the mantis and it was captured.

129

131

#### 130 **RESULTS**

Twenty six butterflies (59.1%) were attacked. The butterflies were attacked when they were walking (away or towards the mantis), perching after walking or after landing; in one case the butterfly was detected after stepping on one leg of the mantis. The number of butterflies attacked (Fig. 2a) was statistically independent of the presence of hindwing tails (Chi squared = 0.38, P = 0.54, gl. = 1). The number of attacked butterflies displaying hindwing

We staged 22 control and 22 experimental interactions between a mantis and a butterfly.

137 movements (that presumably allow the hindwing tails to mimic the movement of antennae)

during the whole interaction with a mantis (Fig. 2b) was statistically independent of the

139 presence of hindwing tails (Chi squared = 1.47, P = 0.22, gl = 1).

140 The number of butterflies surviving the attack (Fig. 2c) was statistically independent of the presence of hindwing tails (Chi squared = 0.25, P = 0.62, gl = 1). In one of the 10 141 interactions in which the butterfly escaped, the mantis directed the attack towards the "false 142 head" of a control butterfly despite the real head of the butterfly was closer to the head and 143 144 front legs of the mantis. In other three interactions in which the butterfly escaped (two controls and one with hindwing tails ablated), the mantis directed the attack towards the 145 146 rear side of the butterfly (which in two cases was closer to the mantis), grabbed part of the wings and the butterfly escaped after losing one or two pieces of wings; in one of these 147 148 cases the mantis grabbed the distal tip of the forewings just with one leg and the butterfly escaped after some struggle, while in the other two cases the attack was directed to the 149 "false head" area and the butterfly escaped rapidly. In other five cases (two controls and 150 three with hindwing tails ablated), the butterfly escaped after being touched by the mantis. 151 152 We do not have a video of the remaining case in which a control butterfly escaped.



153

### 154 **DISCUSSION**

155	Our results indicate that the presence of hindwing tails in perching C. xami butterflies does
156	not affect the probability of surviving an attack from a mantis that is possibly a natural
157	predator. At least three kinds of explanations are possible for this result. First, hindwing
158	tails could perform no function in this species, but being present because they were
159	inherited from their phylogenetic ancestors. We cannot discard this possibility, but
160	phylogenetic inertia seems unlikely considering that in Theclinae (the diverse subfamily
161	including C. xami) false head components evolve rapidly (Robbins, 1981). Second,
162	hindwing tails could be involved in a different function, such as in courtship behaviour or
163	flight manoeuvrability. This alternative deserves further study. Finally, hindwing tails could
164	improve the deceiving effect of "false heads" (i.e. act as "false antennae") against predators
165	different from mantises, such as birds that detect their prey and actively, and rapidly,
166	approach it from a relatively long distance. In contrast, against a mantis, a predator that
167	relies on crypsis and has a sit-and-wait strategy that allows more time to observe the prey at
168	close range, hindwing tails could be useless. In fact, our observations suggest that S.
169	limbata cryptic appearance and behaviour is quite successful against C. xami since in many
170	cases the attacked butterflies approached the mantis (an extreme case was that of a butterfly
171	that was detected because stepped over a mantis leg). Furthermore, the back and forth
172	movements of the closed hindwings, that presumably permit the "false antennae" mimic the
173	movements of real antennae (Robbins, 1980; López-Palafox et al., 2015), possibly have a
174	negative effect because they appeared to attract the attention of the mantis in some cases
175	(personal observations).

Although our observations show that in many cases mantises did not direct their 176 177 attacks towards the "false head" and that many attacks resulted in successful capture of butterflies (16 out of 26 in our experiment), our study also indicates that at least some 178 aspects of the "false head" help C. xami survive some mantis attacks, supporting the notion 179 180 that they are adaptations against predators (Robbins, 1980; Cordero, 2001; Sourakov, 2013). The three butterflies that we are sure were attacked in the "false head" zone were 181 able to escape. In two of these cases (one control and one with hindwing tails ablated) the 182 mantis teared small pieces of wing from the false head area, an observing  $f_{\mu}$  is consistent with 183 the idea that the "false head" area breaks-off easily (*Robbins*, 1980). In the other case, the 184 behaviour of the mantis suggested that she choose to attack the rear end of the butterfly 185 because the attack was directed towards the "false head", even though the head and front 186 legs of the mantis were closer (just a few millimetres away) to the real butterfly head; this 187 case involved a control butterfly that escaped before having being gripped. Thus, our 188 observations indicate that escaping from an attacking mantis also depends on other factors, 189 such as the ability to take flight rapidly and the strength of the grip when the normalis grabs 190 191 the wings.

192

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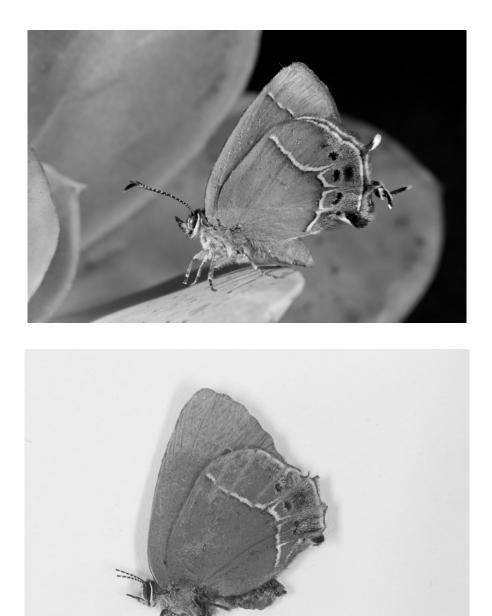
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201	
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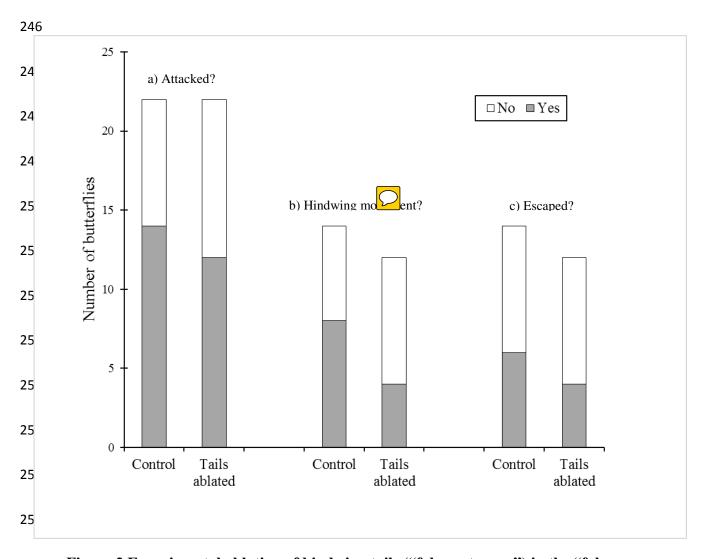
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- 243 Figure 1 *Callophrys xami* (a) with hindwing tails intact (control) and (b) with
- 244 hindwing tails experimentally ablated (dead experimental specimen with broken
- 245 **antennae**). Photographs by Raúl Iván Martínez.



258 Figure 2 Experimental ablation of hindwing tails ("false antennae") in the "false 259 head" butterfly Callophrys xami and its effect on interactions with female mantis (Stagmomantis limbata). Control butterflies were manipulated in the same way as 260 experimental butterflies but their hindwing tails were not ablated. (a) Number of butterflies 261 attacked (gray) or ignored (white). (b) Number of butterflies that performed hindwing 262 263 movements (gray) or not (white) before being attacked. (c) Number of butterflies escaping 264 (gray) or being captured (white). None of the differences between control and experimental 265 groups were statistically significant (see text).

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#### APPENDIX

268 Raw data from the experiment on the effect of ablation of butterfly (*Callophrys xami*)

269 hindwing tails ("false antennae") on hindwing movement (HWM) and capture by

- 270 **female mantis** (*Stagmomantis limbata*). Control butterflies were manipulated in the same
- 271 way as experimental butterflies but their hindwing tails were not ablated.

Treatment	Mantis	Butterfly <sup>a</sup>	HWM	Result
Control	4	37-F	No	Captured
Control	11	14-M	No	Captured
Control	TRON	106-F	No	Captured
Control	XOXO	11 <b>7-</b> F	No	Captured
Control	1	1-M	Yes	Captured
Control	11	126-M	Yes	Captured
Control	15	90-F	Yes	Captured
Control	Z	78-F	Yes	Captured
Control	5	39-M	No	Escaped
Control	13	94-M	No	Escaped
Control	1	38-M	Yes	Escaped
Control	12	86-M	Yes	Escaped
Control	16	92-M	Yes	Escaped
Control	17	127-F	Yes	Escaped
Tails ablated	14	70-M	No	Captured
Tails ablated	14	102-F	No	Captured
Tails ablated	1E	68-M	No	Captured
Tails ablated	2E	60-M	No	Captured
Tails ablated	AGRESIVA	101-F	No	Captured
Tails ablated	TRONCO	128-F	No	Captured
Tails ablated	7	33-F	Yes	Captured
Tails ablated	15	119-M	Yes	Captured
Tails ablated	10	8-M	No	Escaped
Tails ablated	6	42-F	No	Escaped
Tails ablated	5	18-M	Yes	Escaped
Tails ablated	XOXO	129-F	Yes	Escaped

272

<sup>a</sup> M: male, F: female.