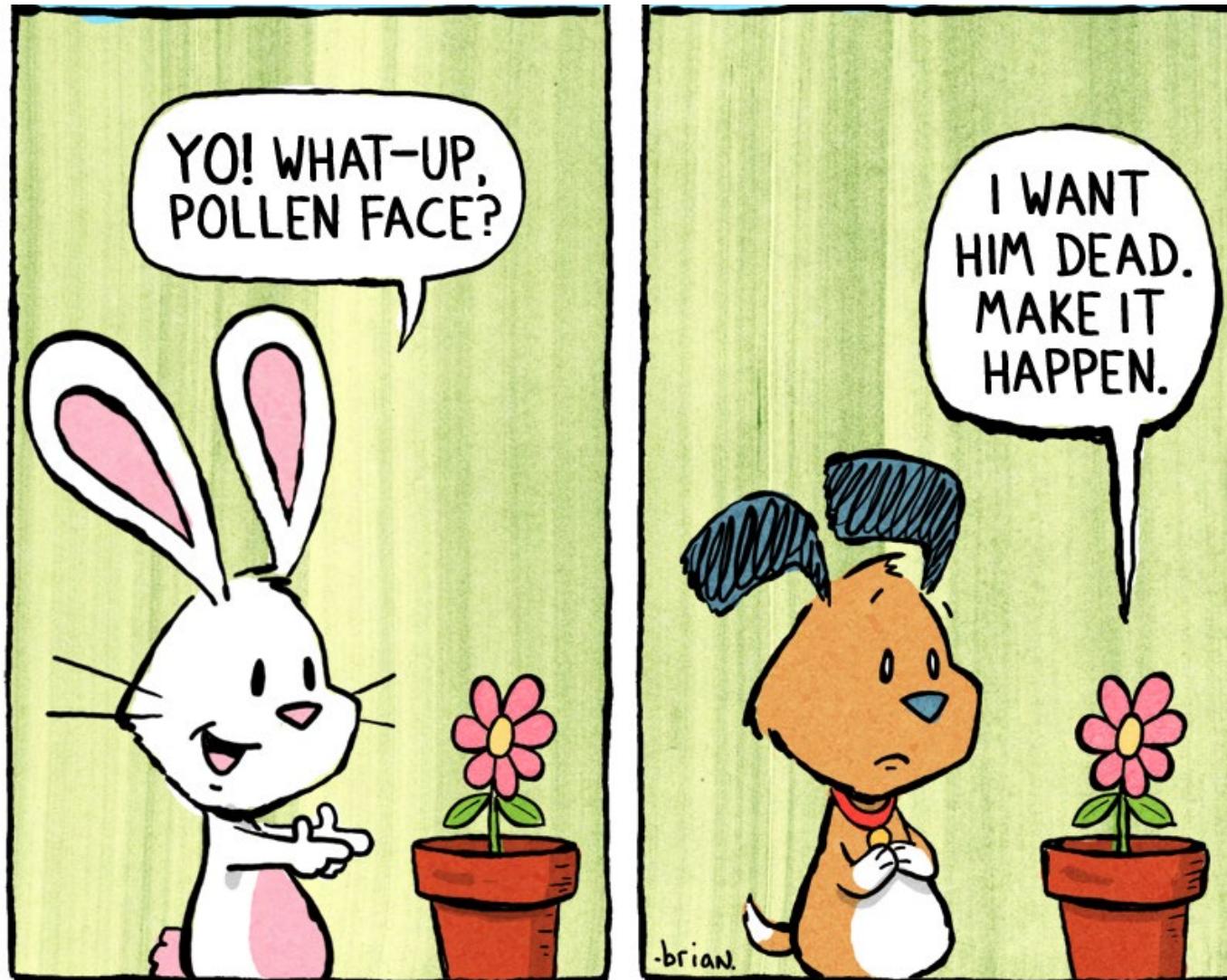


Plant communication part I



Plant-feeding insects damage plants and act as vectors for plant diseases



- Plant-associated insects show host preferences
- Preferences can be positively or negatively affected by plant health and disease status

Hopperburn in rice caused by the brown planthopper (BPH), *Nilaparvata lugens*



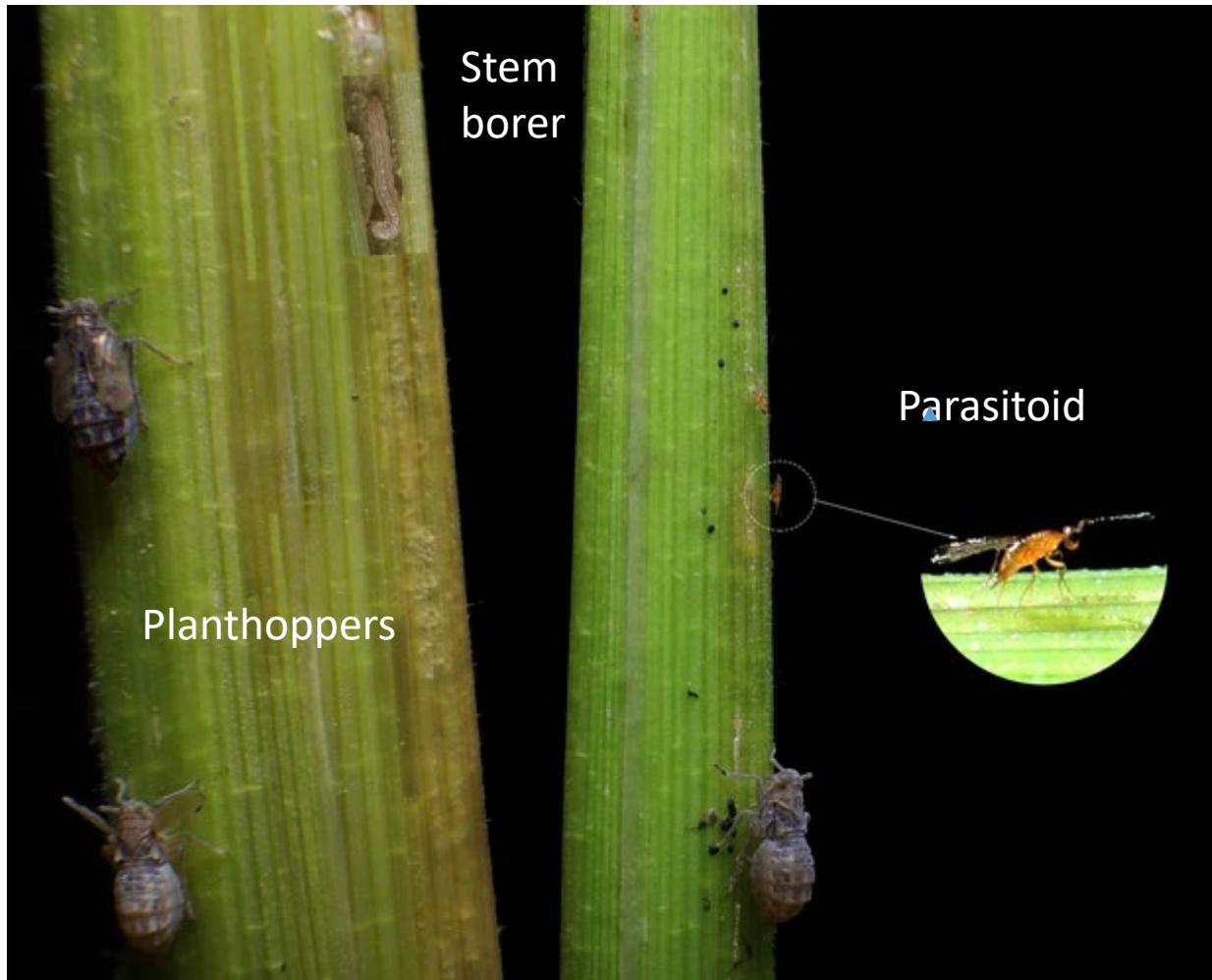
Once a minor pest – now one of the most damaging pests of rice

Nitrogen fertiliser treatment increases susceptibility

Feeding damage (hopperburn) =
400+ nymphs per plant

BPH is also a viral vector & causes increased predisposition to disease through wounding

Brown plant hoppers (BPH) preferentially oviposit on rice plants infested by the rice striped stem borer (SSB; *Chilo suppressalis*) – another major pest of rice.



SSB infested plants are avoided by the BPH parasitoid *Anagrus nilaparvatae*



Rice stem borer

Stem borers also prefer to lay eggs on BPH infested plants - BPH suppresses plant defences against stem borers and reduces attractiveness to stem borer parasitoids

How do stem borer infected plants attract BPH and repel parasitoids (or vice versa)?

Can we make crops less attractive to pests and more attractive to parasitoids?

Overview

- How plants communicate with other organisms
- Basics of biological communication
- Chemical signalling between plants and other organisms
- Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) as agents of plant communication
- Using knowledge of VOC signalling to benefit plant health

Plant communication

Who do plants talk to?

1. Pollinators
2. Seed-dispersing organisms
3. Herbivores & pathogens
4. Symbionts
5. Guardians
6. Prey
7. Predators
8. Themselves
9. Other plants



How do plants communicate?

Appearance (vision)

Touch (mechanoreception)

Mouthfeel (texture)

Chemicals (chemoreception)

Taste (gustation)

Smell (olfaction)

Toxicity (nociception and
interoception)

Temperature (thermoception)

Electricity (electroception)

Acoustics



Over 200 species of plants coat themselves in sand, which makes them less appealing to herbivores
"psammophory"



Experiments using “green sand” to increase appärencey show that it may be the abrasive nature of sand that deters herbivory – rather than sand acting as camouflage

LoPresti and Karben, 2016

Critical analysis of plant communication experiments

- Are you convinced by the authors' explanation of their observations?
- Could there be alternate explanations?
- Is the data provided conclusive or correlative?
- What other experiments might you want to do, or what other data might you want to gather to more conclusively demonstrate or refute a hypothesis?

Definition of biological communication?

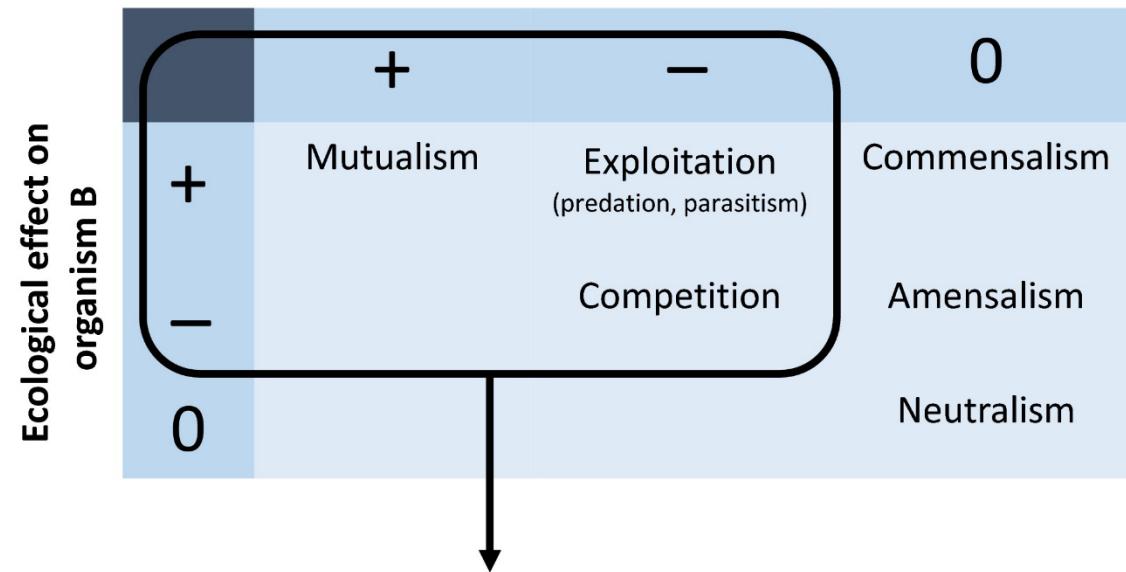
**“Information transmission that is fashioned
and/or maintained by natural selection”**

What is a signal?

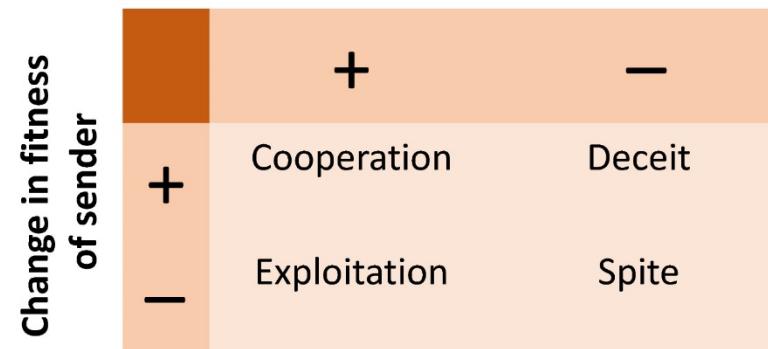
“Signals are traits whose value to the signaller is that they convey information to receivers”

Communication—if signaling plant derives a fitness benefit from conveying information to others

(a) Ecological effect on organism A



(b) Change in fitness of receiver



How do plants communicate?

Appearance (vision)

Touch (mechanoreception)

Mouthfeel (texture)

Chemicals (chemoreception)

Taste (gustation)

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Toxicity (nociception and
interoception)

Temperature (thermoception)

Electricity (electroception)

Acoustics



A **semiochemical** (semeon = signal (Greek)) is a generic term used for a chemical substance or mixture that carries a message

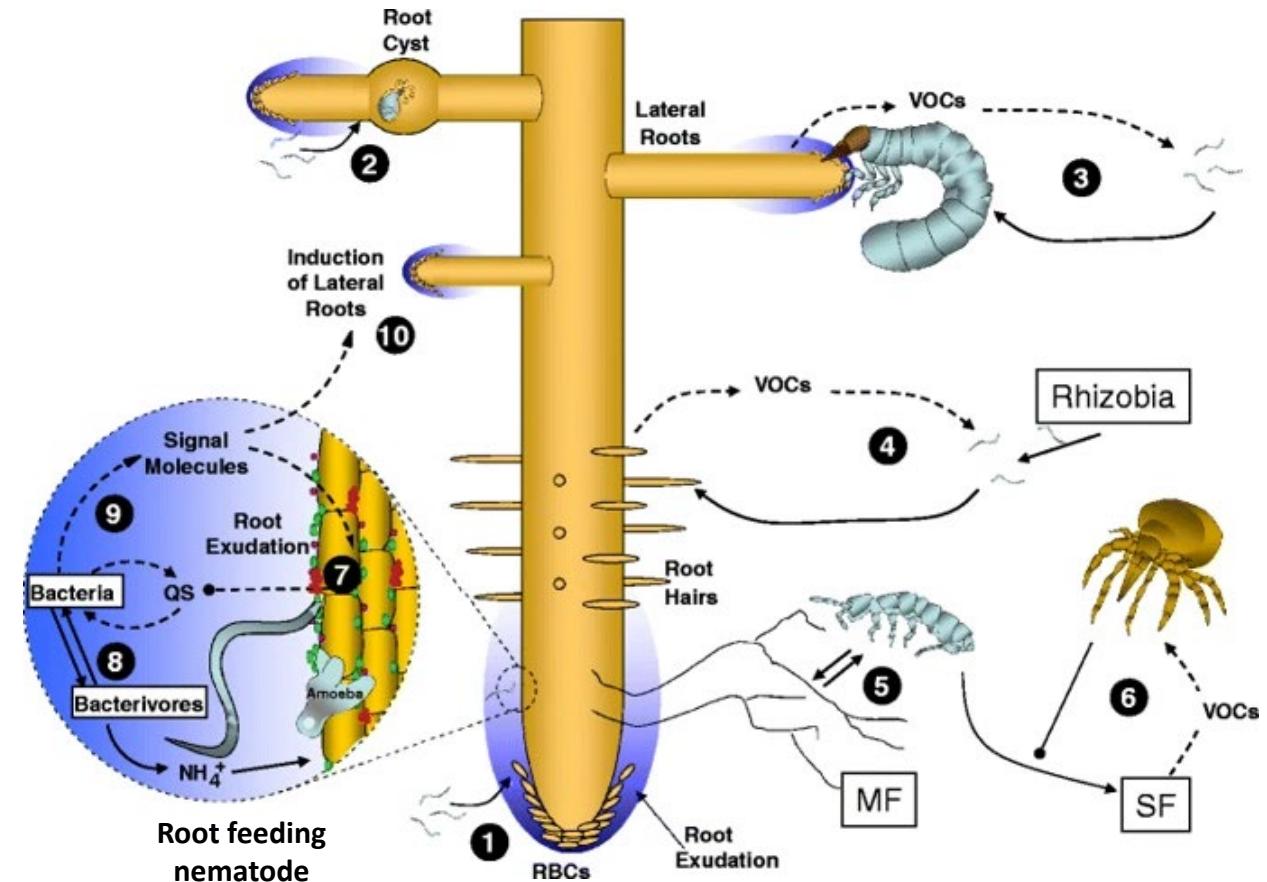
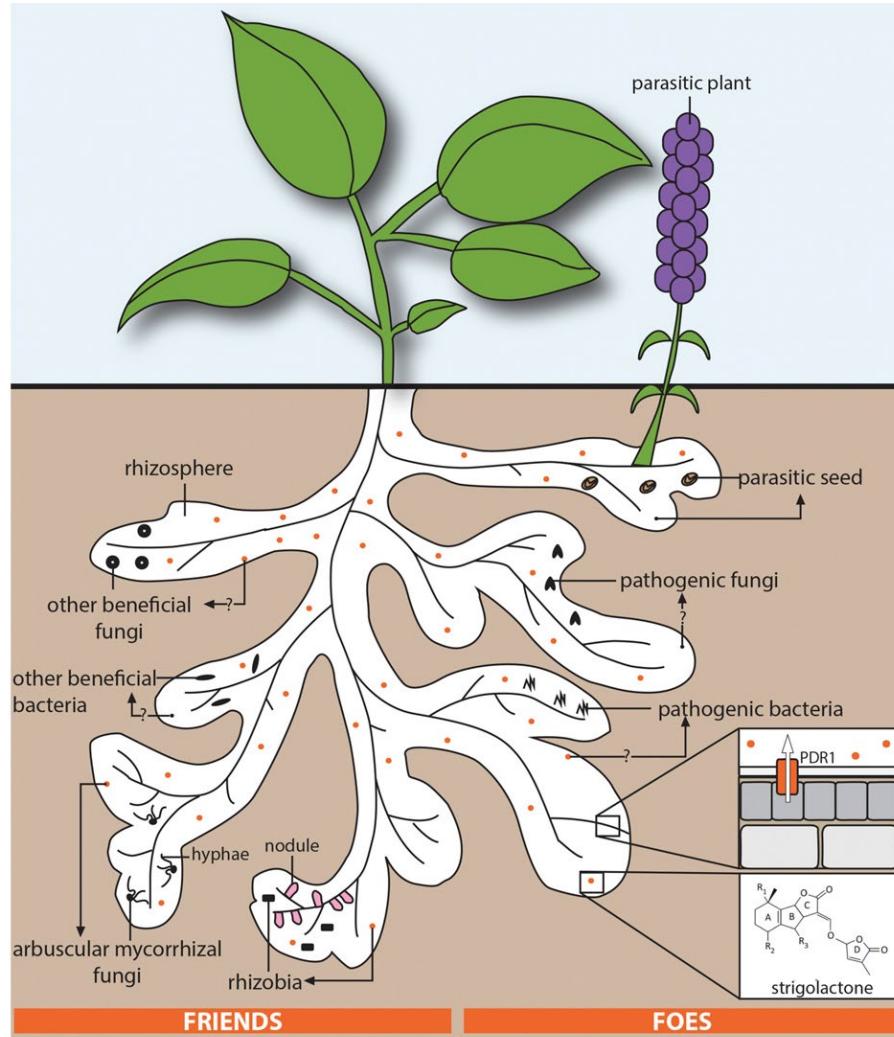
Hormone – a semiochemical produced in one part of an organism that exerts an effect in another part of an organism

Allomone - a semiochemical produced and released by a living organism that benefits the donor (signal producer)

Kairomone - a semiochemical produced and released by a living organism that benefits the receiver

Synomone - a semiochemical that is adaptively advantageous to both the emitting and the receiving organism

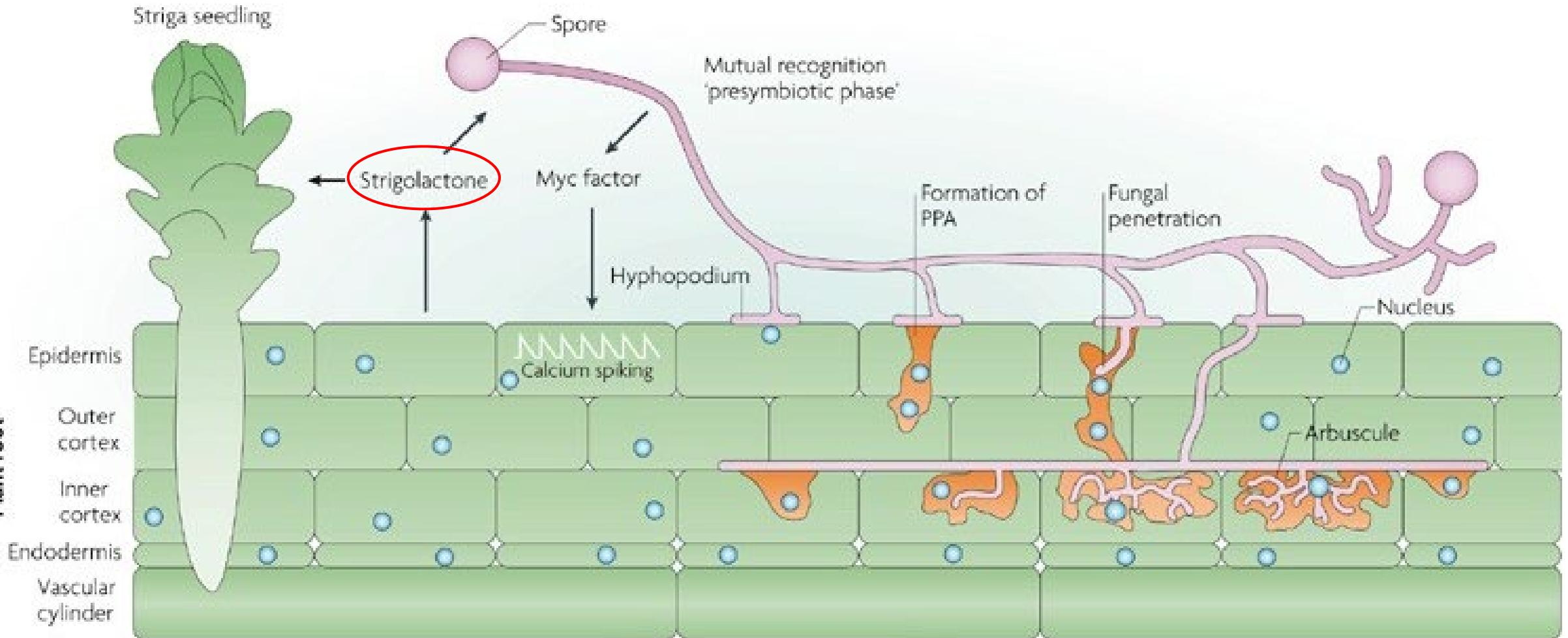
Chemical signalling in the rhizosphere affects the outcome of plant interactions with microbes, parasites and soil fauna



Previous lectures (Nod factors,
Myc factors, Strigolactone)

Bonkowski et al. Plant Soil 2009
De Cuyper et al. MPMI 2017

Chemical signalling is rarely restricted to a single pair of organisms



Strigolactone promotes infection by mycorrhizal fungi
and parasitic plants such as *Striga*

Nature Reviews | Microbiology

Parniske, Nature Rev. Microbiol (2008)
Waters et al. Annu Rev. Plant Biol (2017)

The pitfalls of signalling mechanisms – chemicals such as strigolactone can act as invasion signals for symbionts, pathogens and parasites...



Striga – “Witchweed”



Cyst nematode



Orobanchaceae

VOCs are key agents of chemical communication for plants

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are compounds that have a high vapor pressure and low water solubility

Up to 36% of assimilated carbon may be released by plants as complex bouquets of VOCs

Some VOCs (e.g. ethylene, methyl jasmonate, methyl salicylate) - may be used in signalling processes both intra- (within) and inter- (between) organisms

Some VOCs detected when researchers study VOCs released by plants are actually generated by microorganisms present in the plant microbiome

VOCs as inter-kingdom signals

Who do plants talk to using VOCs?

1. Pollinators
2. Seed-dispersing organisms
3. Herbivores
4. Guardians
5. Prey
6. Predators

Symbionts & pathogens (see other lectures)

1. Attracting pollinators



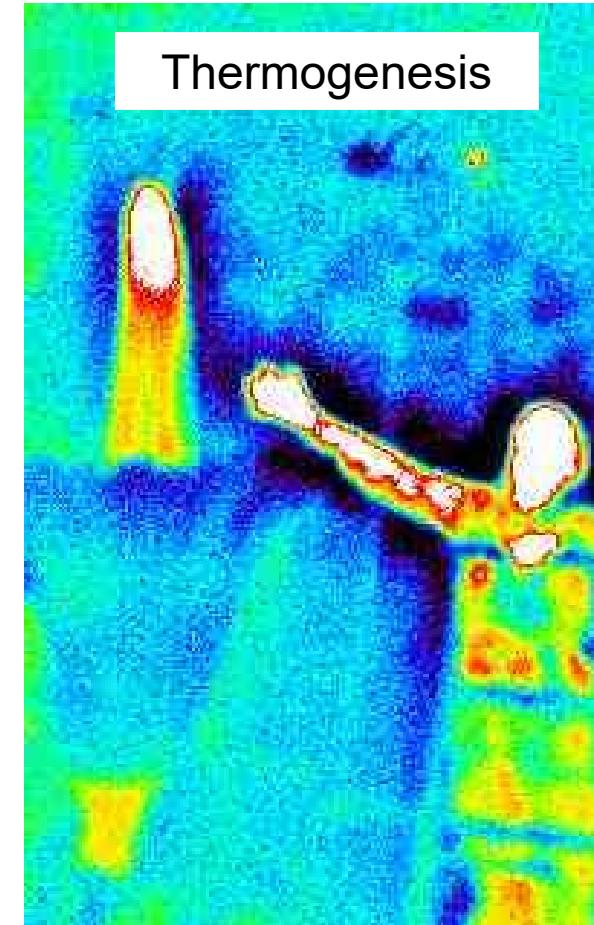
Yucca brevifolia (moth-pollinated)



Rafflesia amoldii (fly-pollinated)

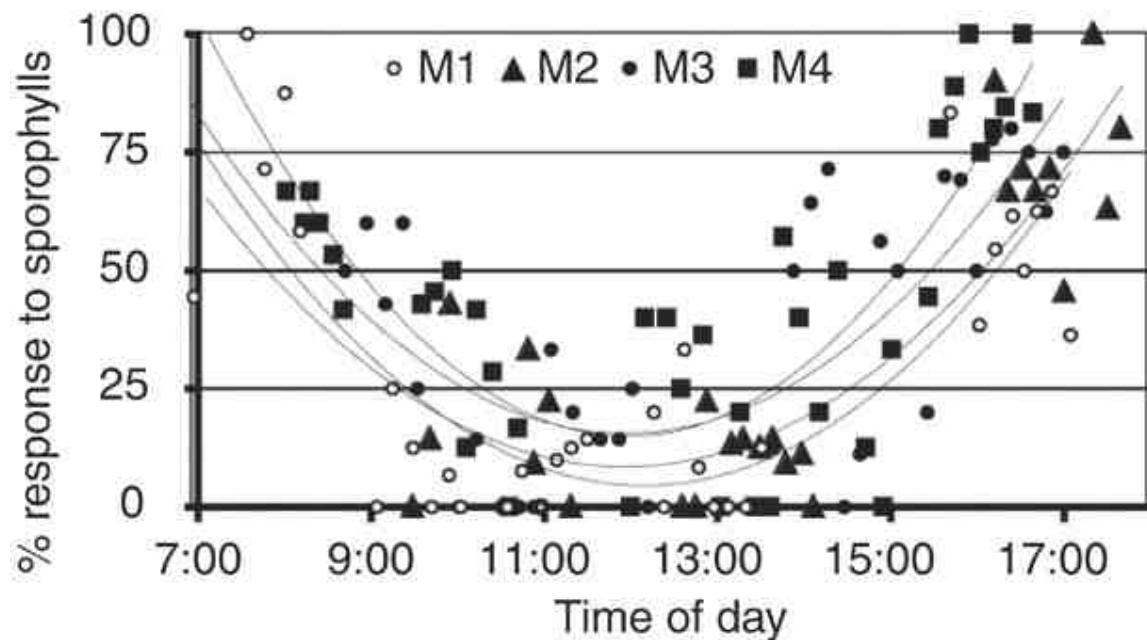
VOCs act in conjunction with other signals such as flowers or temperature to communicate messages to pollinators

Titan arum
(corpse flower)



Cycles of thermogenesis and volatile production modify pollinator behaviour in cycads

% of insects going to sporophylls of four mid-pollination-stage male cones (M1 to M4) versus controls



Pollen-laden thrips leave male cycad cones during the daily thermogenic phase. Cone temperatures and volatile emissions increase dramatically and thrips are repelled.

As thermogenesis declines, total volatile emissions diminish. Cones attract thrips, resulting in pollination of female cones.



Terry et al. (2007). Science 318, 5847.

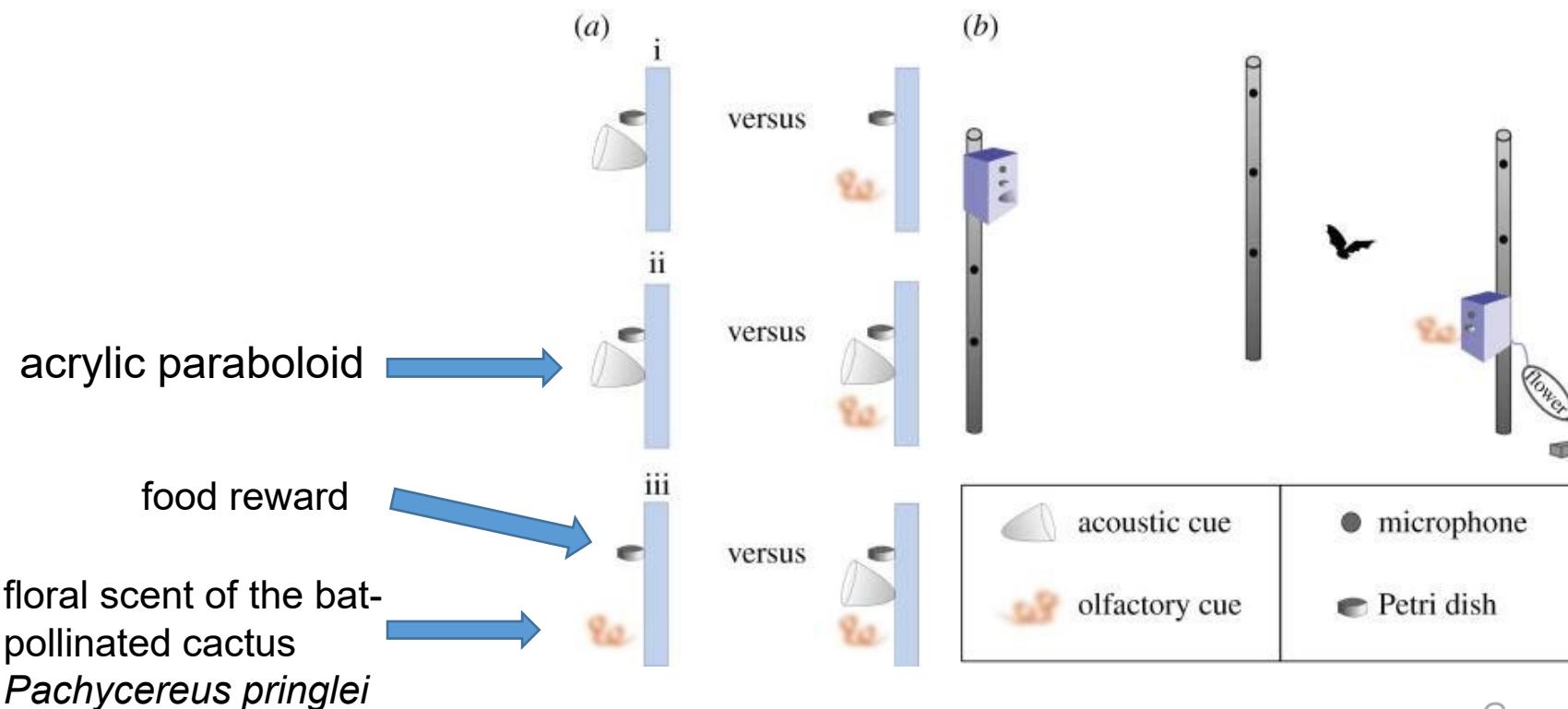
Plant manipulation of acoustic perception

Marcgravia evenia has evolved dish-shaped leaves with conspicuous echoes that enable nectar-feeding bats to find its flowers through echolocation

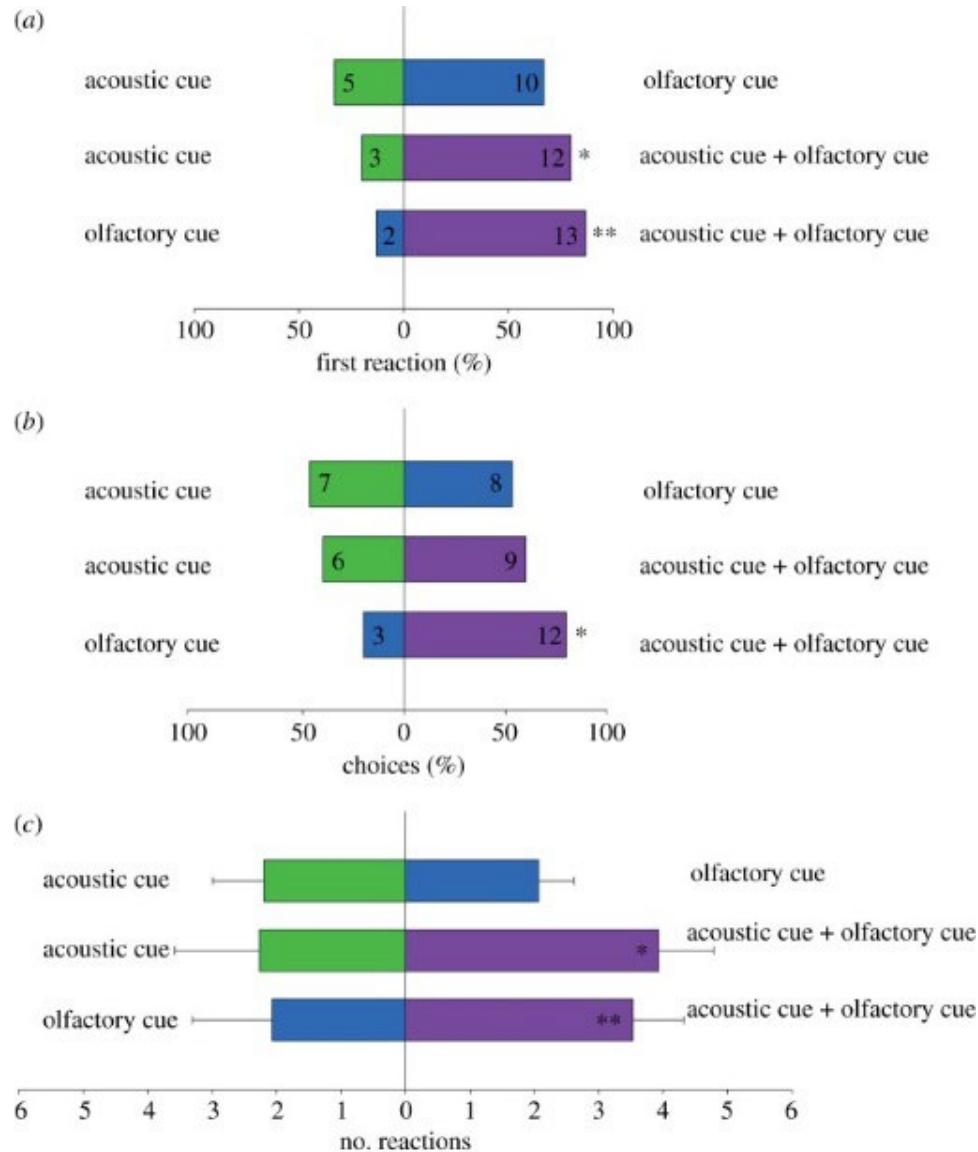


R. Simon, M. W. Holderied, C.
U. Koch, O. von Helversen.
**Floral Acoustics:
Conspicuous Echoes of a
Dish-Shaped Leaf Attract Bat
Pollinators.** *Science*, 2011;
333 (6042): 631

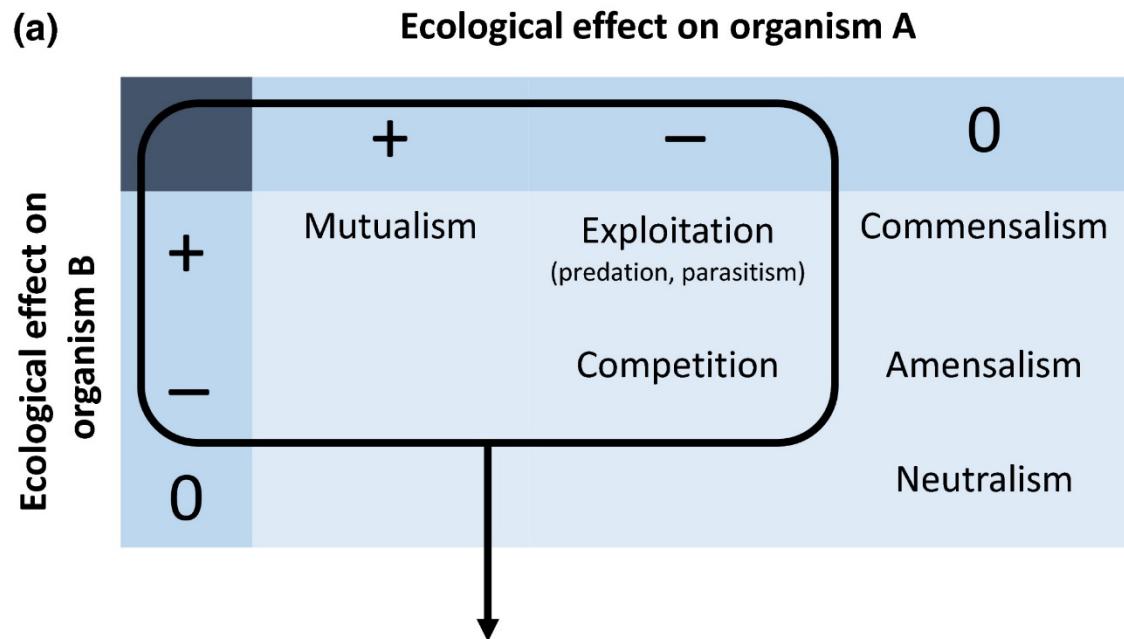
Bats use a combination of scent and echolocation to find flowers...



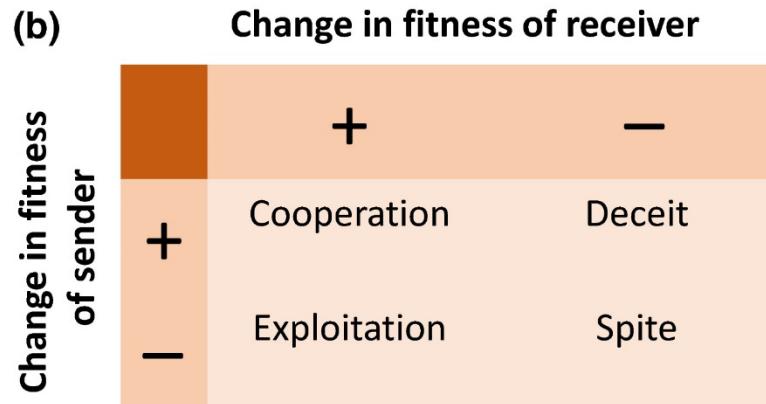
In choice assays bats respond more to the combined acoustic and olfactory cue than to either cue alone...



(a)



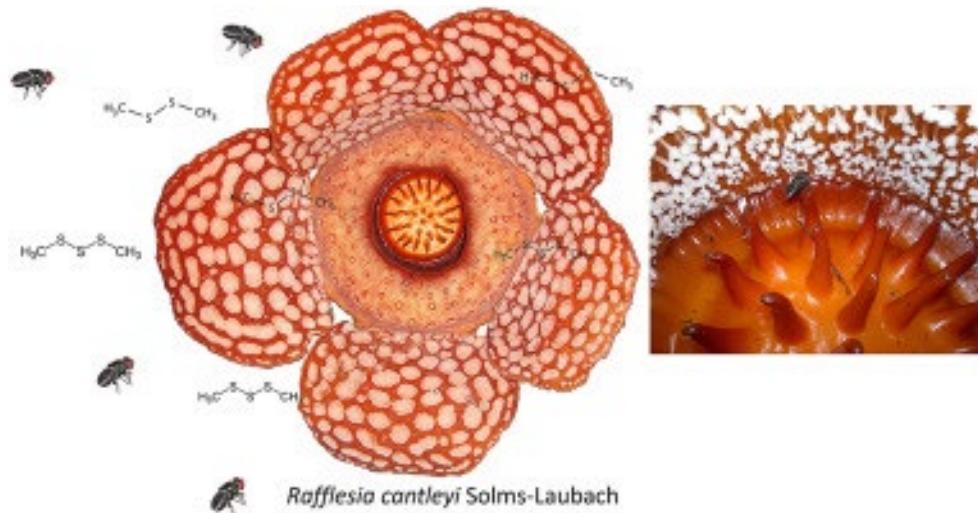
(b)



Are there examples of plant signalling interactions that involve deceit?

Deceitful plants?

Potential rewards offered by plants to pollinators



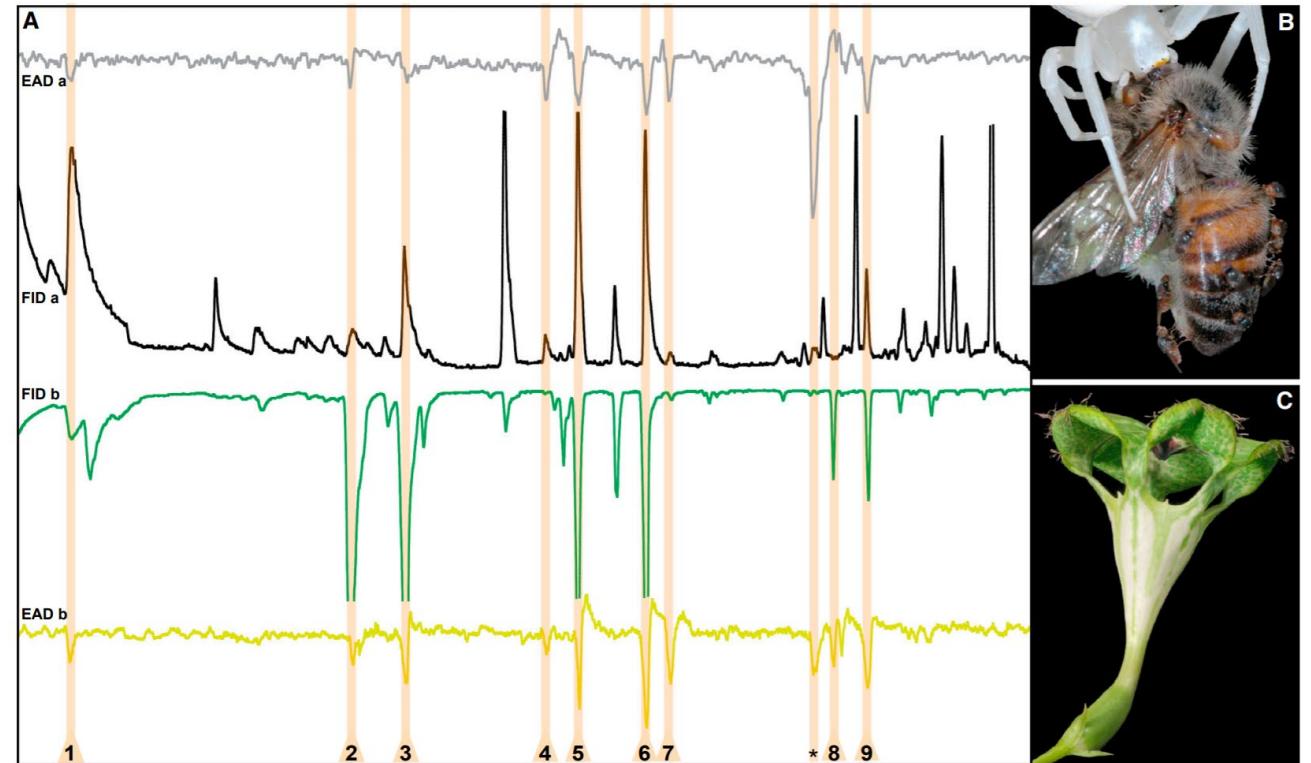
Rafflesia cantleyi
(fly-pollinated)

- Food (e.g. nectar, pollen, plant tissue)
 - Takeaway food for young organisms
 - Egg laying site
 - Nest building material
 - Shelter
 - Warmth
 - Fragrance to use in mating displays
-
- *Rafflesia* attracts but does not benefit female flies
 - Rendezvous location – mating opportunities for male flies?

Wee et al., Phytochemistry 2018

Trap flowers lure pollinators with false signals

- An estimated 4-6% of plants are thought to attract pollinators by deception
- *Ceropegia sandersonii* emits VOCs similar to those emitted by honeybees being attacked by predators
- This attracts “kleptoparasitic” flies, which normally feed on the prey of other organisms
- The plant lures the flies to a pitfall trap, which enables pollination



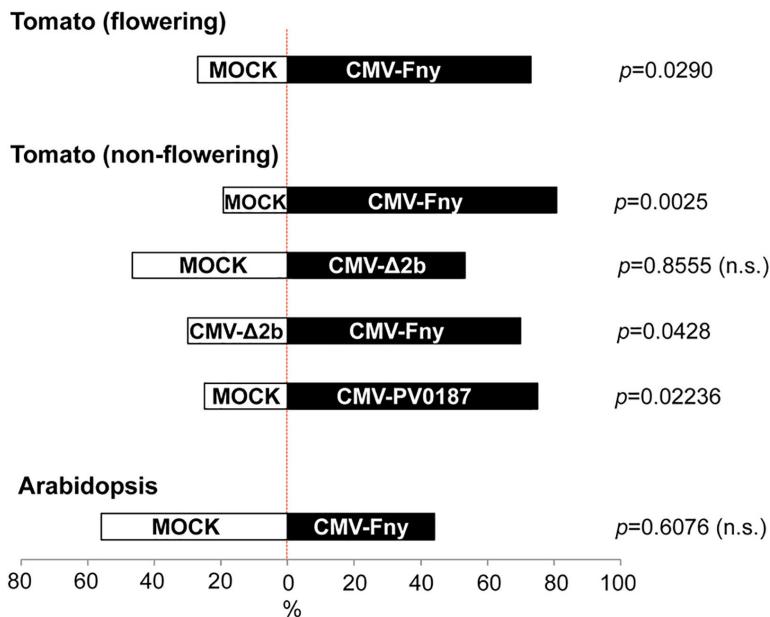
- Antennal responses of female *Desmometopa sordida* to VOCs released by honeybees under simulated attack (top) and to the flower scent of *Ceropegia sandersonii* (bottom).
- The image at the top right shows kleptoparasitic flies on the body of a bee that is being attacked by a spider

Some pathogens increase plant attractiveness to pollinators

A



B



Bumblebees prefer volatiles emitted by Cucumber Mosaic Virus (CMV)-infected tomato plants

Bees are not viral vectors – is this a payback for susceptible viral hosts?

2. Seed dispersal

The size, shape, colour and odour of seeds and fruit attracts organisms that act to disperse seeds – odour can be particularly important for nocturnal animals

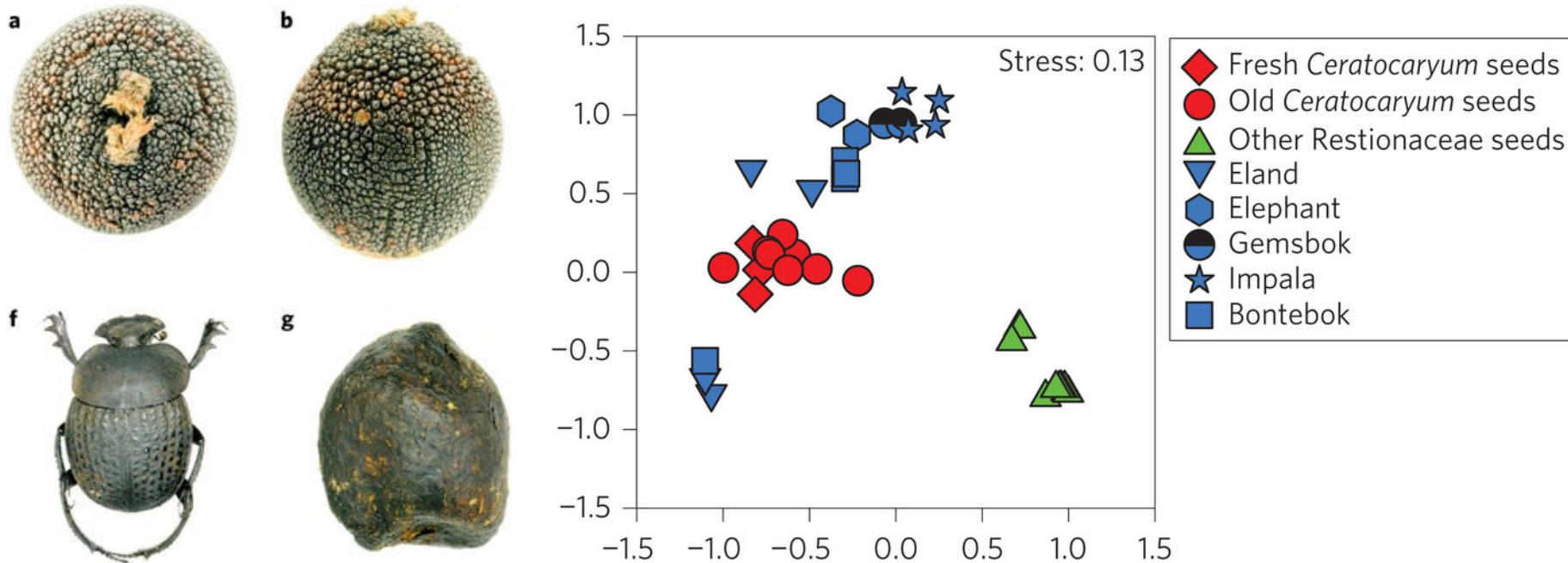


Leptonycteris curasoae: Lesser long-nosed bat
feeding on saguaro (*Carnegiea gigantea*)



Grey mouse lemur (*Microcebus murinus*)

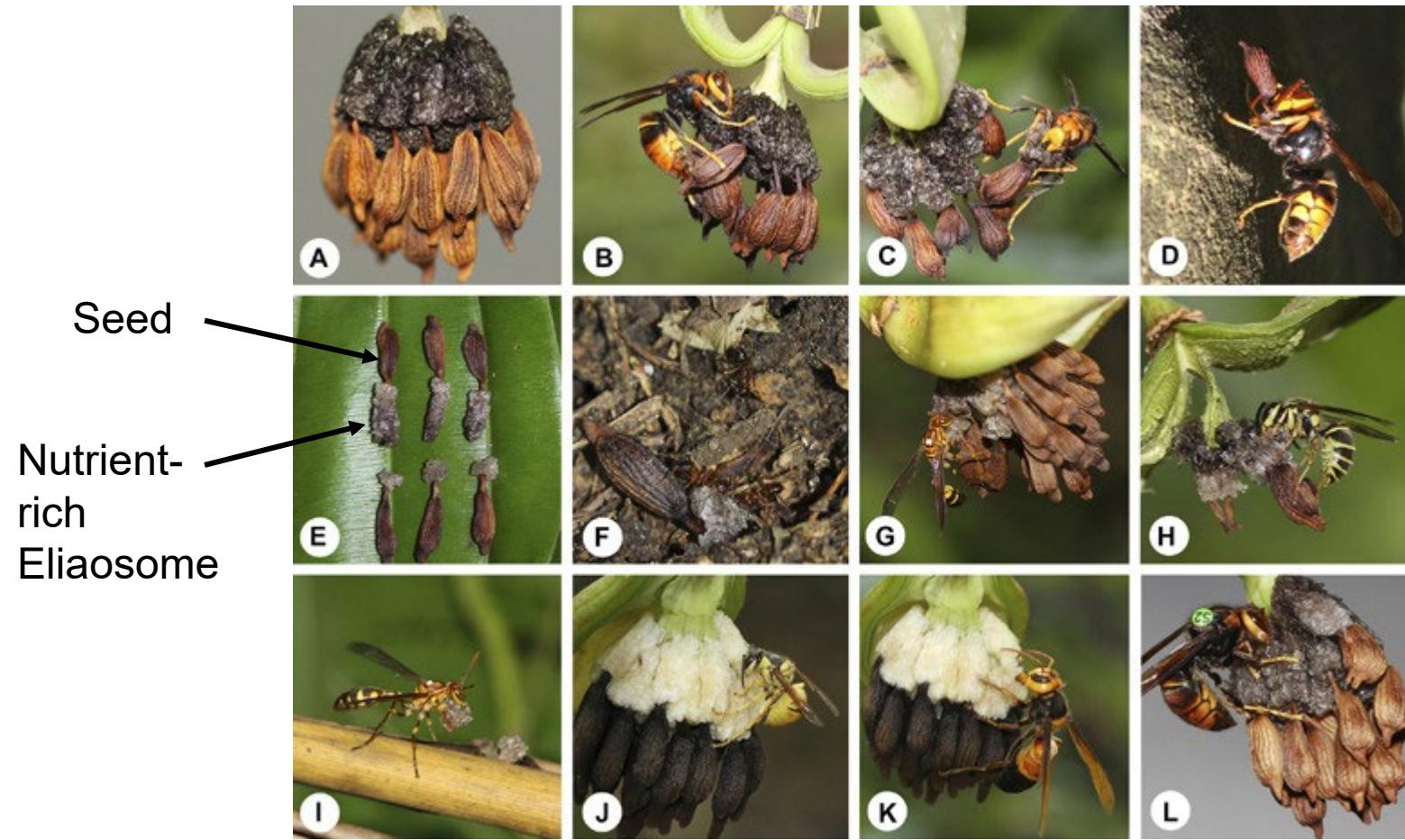
Faecal mimicry by seeds ensures dispersal by dung beetles



Vertical (a) and side (b) views of a *C. argenteum* seed.
(f) *E. flagellatus*. (g) Bontebok faeces

The composition of scent sampled from *Ceratocaryum* seeds is very similar ($R = 0.75$, $P = 0.33$) to that of dung of local herbivores (eland and bontebok), but differs markedly ($R = 1.0$, $P = 0.028$) from that of seeds of other Restionaceae (nested ANOSIM permutation test).

Volatile signals attract hornets (and ants) to disperse seeds of myrmecochorous plants



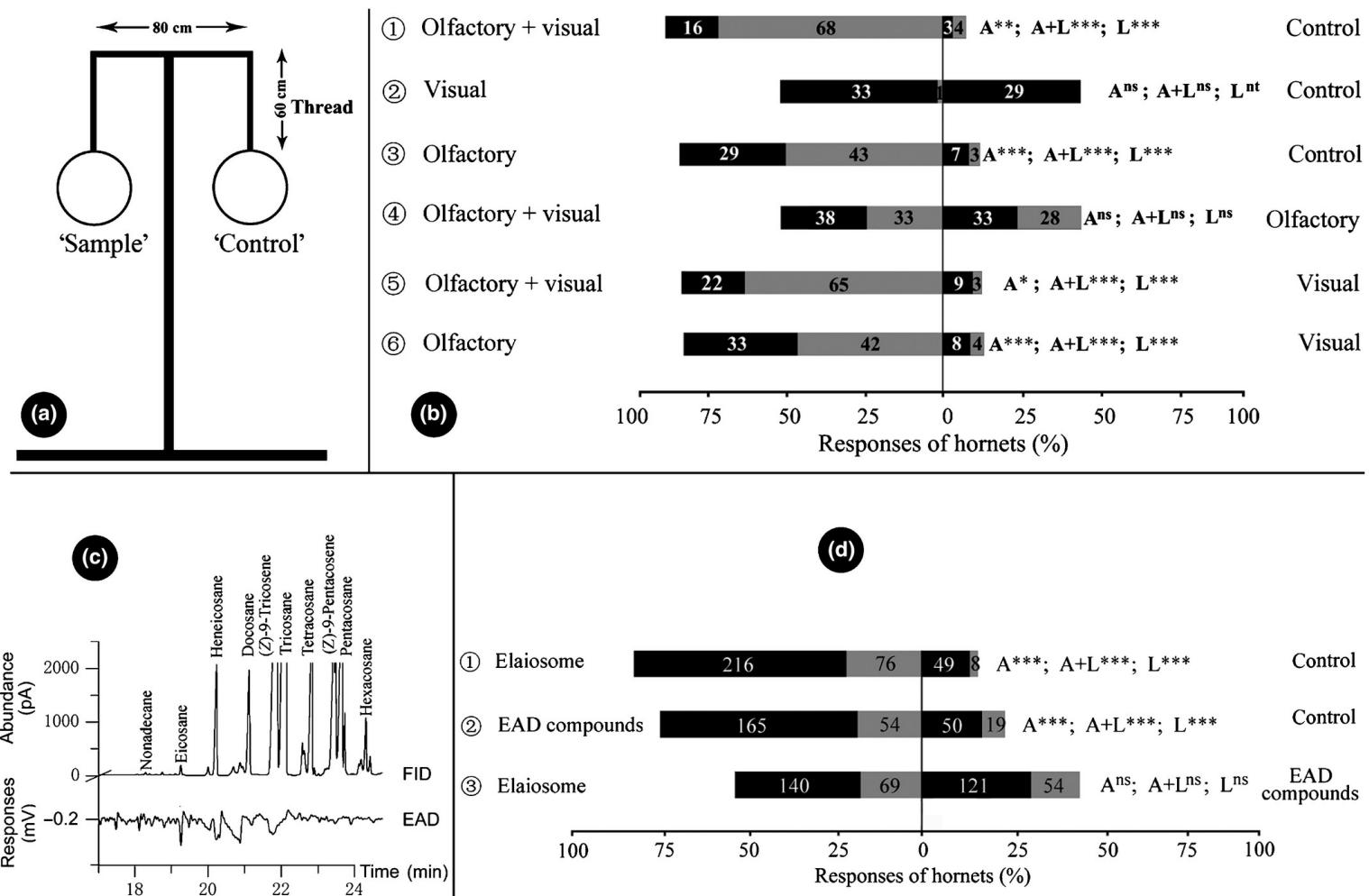
Myrmecochory =
dispersal by ants

Movie S1
Movie S2

<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1111/jipb.12568>

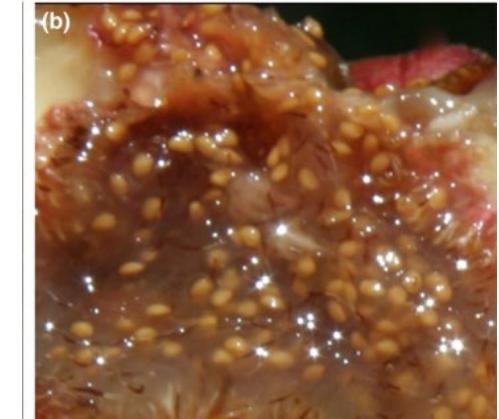
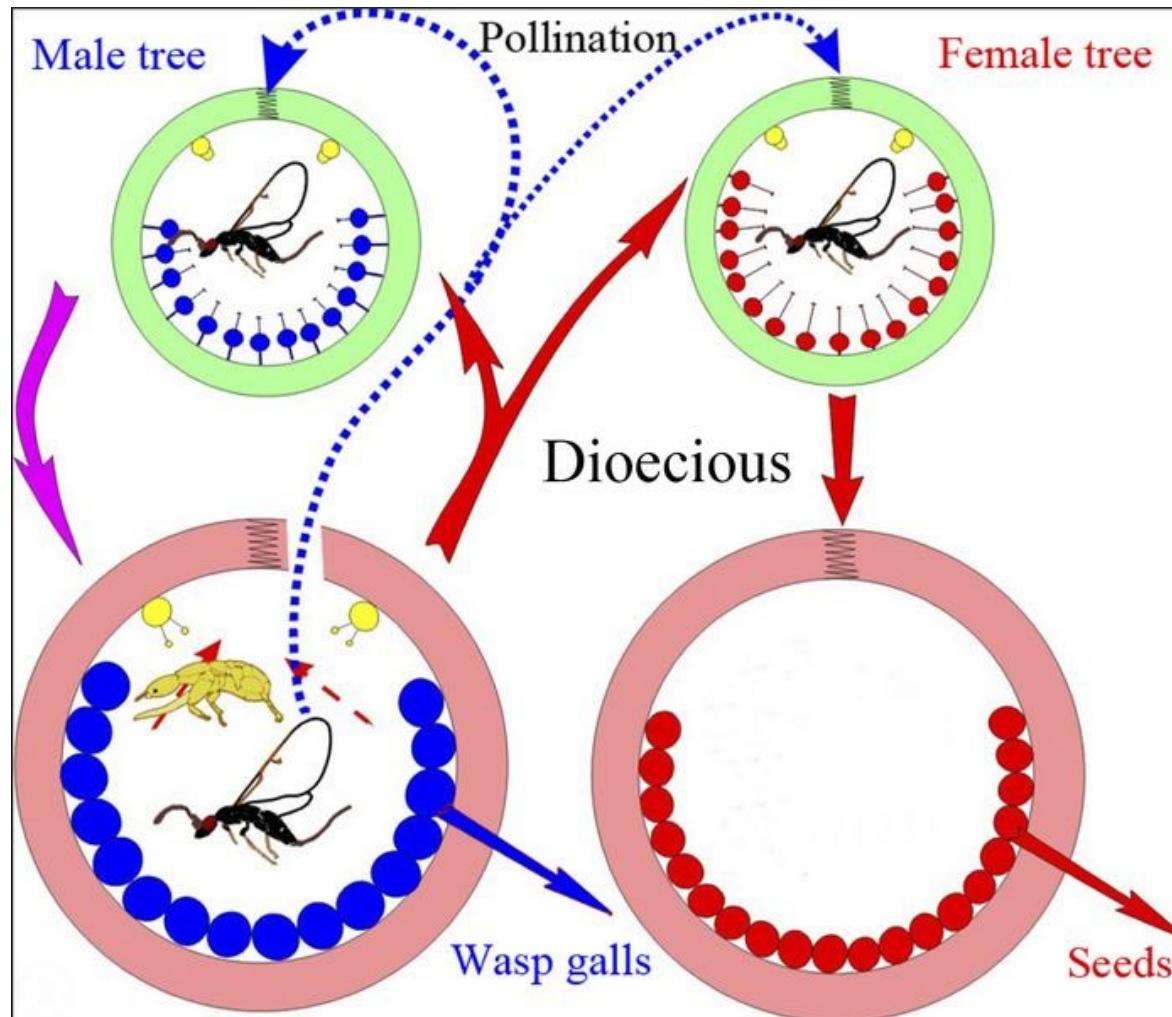
Chen et al. J. Intr Plant Biol. 2017.

Hornets are attracted by volatile signals released by the elaiosome



VOCs promote pollination and seed dispersal in figs

VOCs attract pollinating female wasps



Attracts seed dispersers
(e.g. bats, birds, primates)

http://www.figweb.org/Interaction/Life_cycle/dioecious.htm

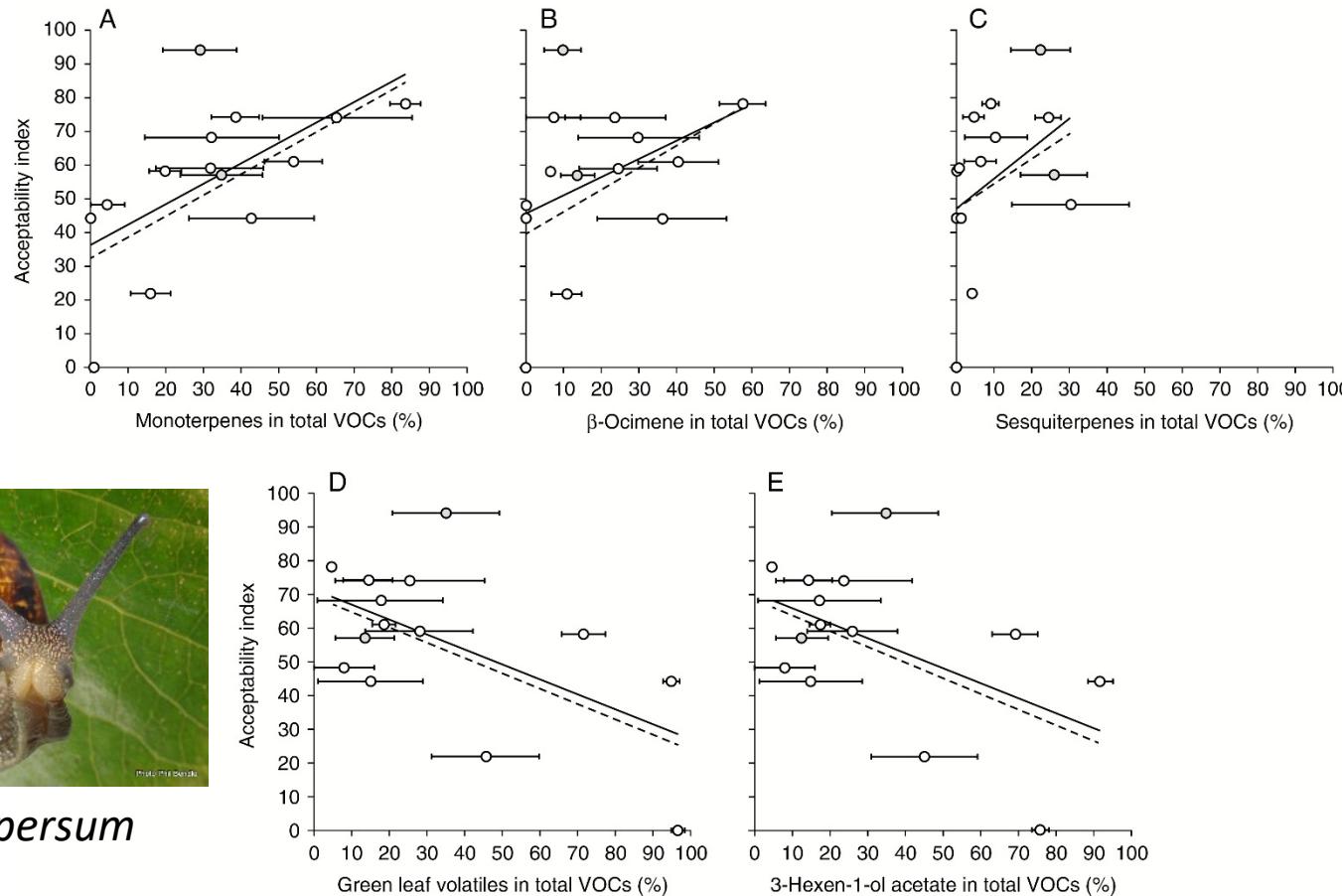
Borges et al 2008
Functional Ecology

3. Herbivores

Specific VOCs can affect attractiveness to specific herbivores



Cornu aspersum



Relationship between seedling acceptability (AI) and the relative proportion (% in total profile) of major VOCs produced by the seedlings of 14 grassland plant species.

Preferred species produce high levels of monoterpenes, beta-ocimene and sesquiterpenes, but lower levels of green leaf volatiles and 3-hexen-1-ol acetate.

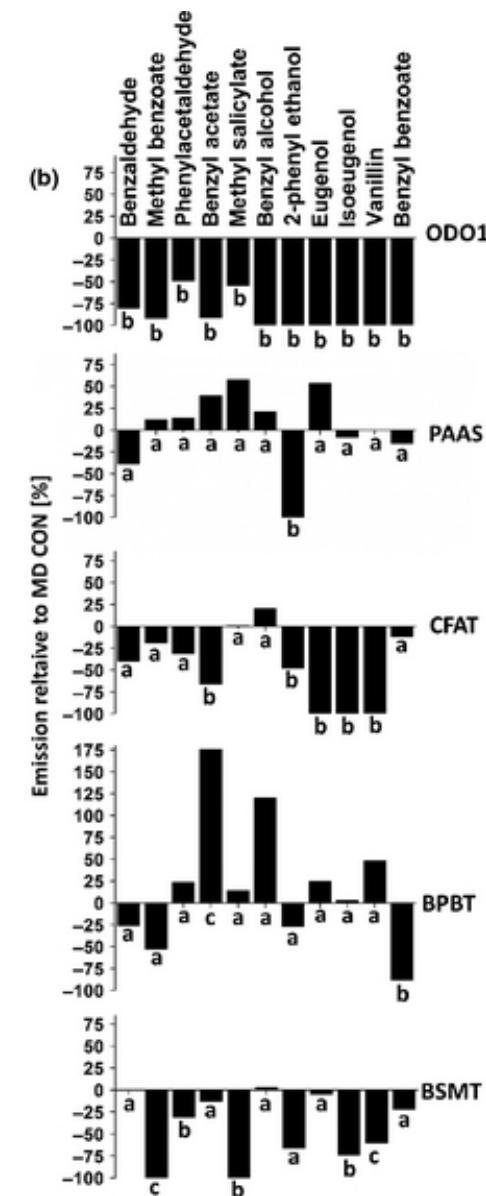
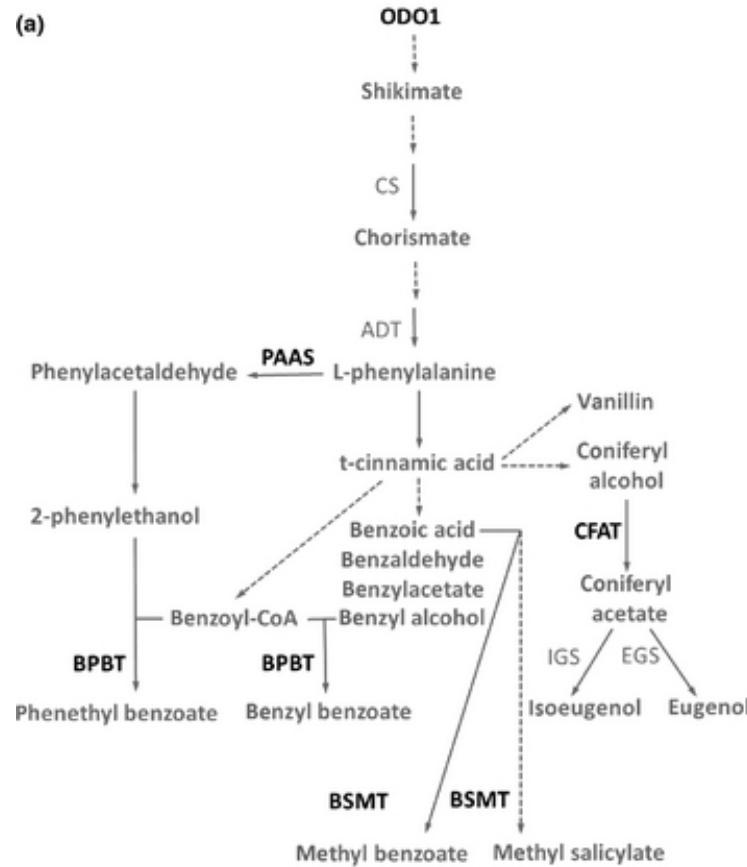
Volatile compounds can also act to deter oviposition by females

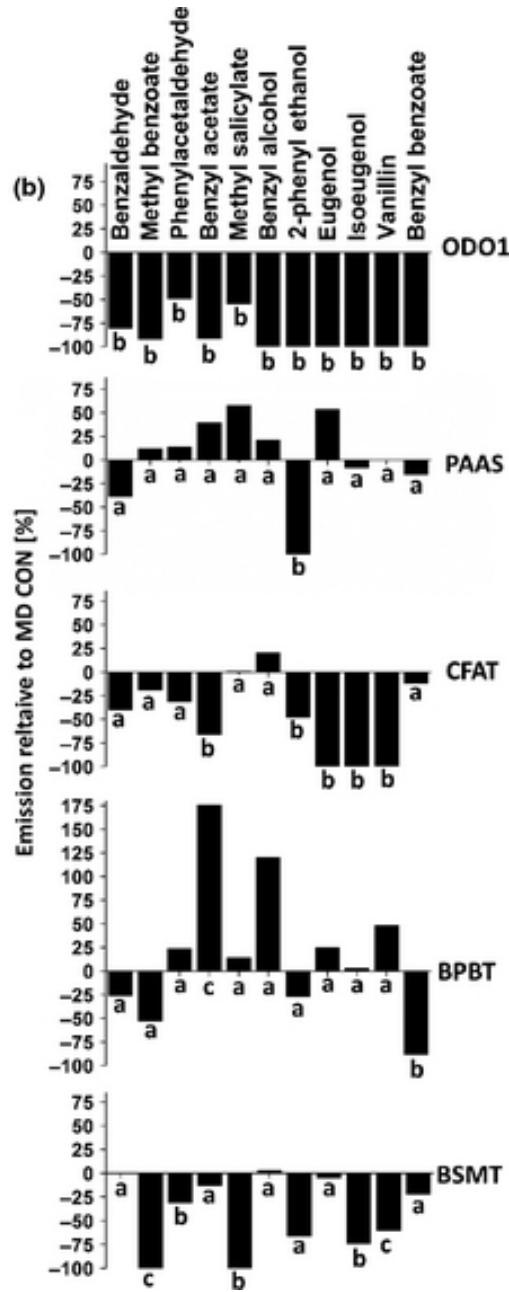


Nicotiana attenuata
deters oviposition by
Manduca sexta

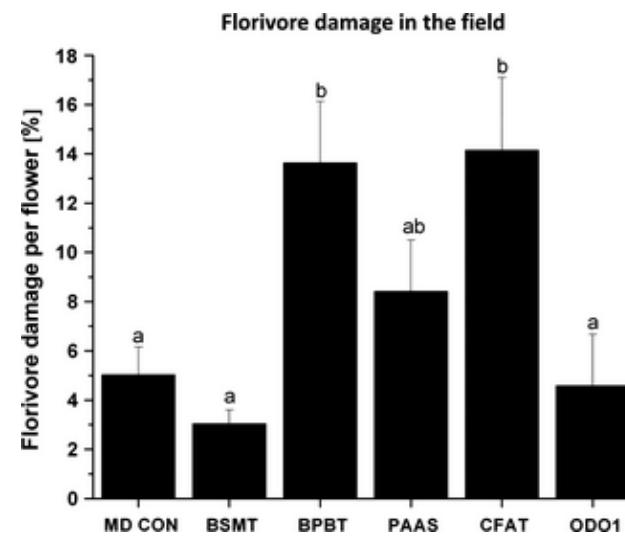


The floral VOC cocktails emitted by *Petunia* can be altered by silencing specific genes...

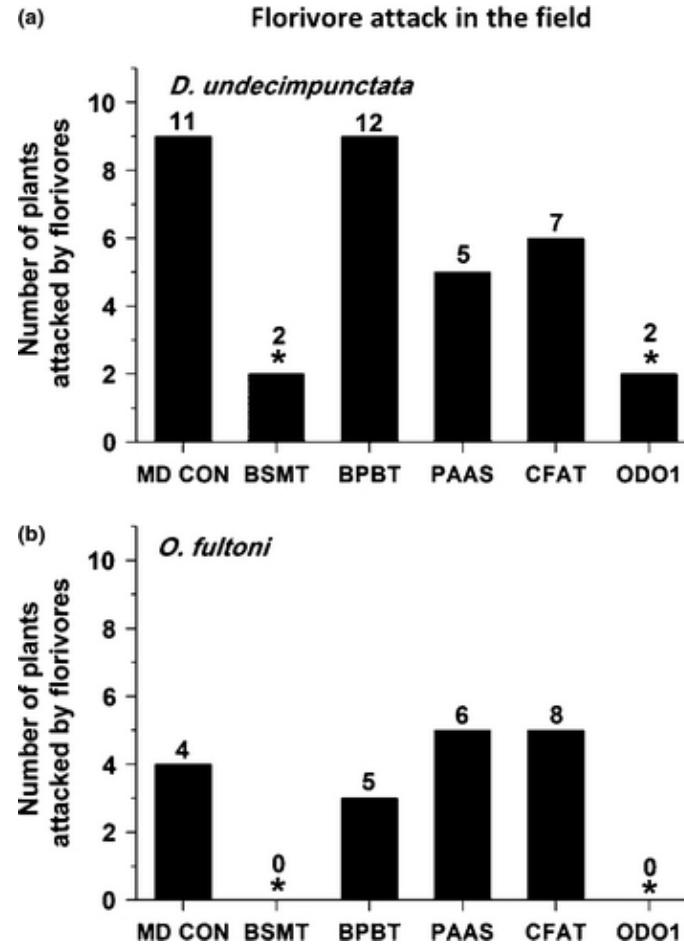




Petunia flowers with altered levels of volatiles are subject to differing levels of damage by florivores



The presence of specific florivores on *Petunia* flowers depends on the emission of specific floral volatiles..



Diabrotica undecimpunctata



Oecanthus fultoni

4. Guardians



Tobacco Hornworm
(*Manduca sexta*)
parasitized by
braconid wasps



©2005 Jeffrey Pippen

Attract air-borne parasitoids

Diaeretiella rapae attacking
Myzus persicae on
Arabidopsis



Parasitoids recognise the chemical signals associated with specific types of herbivore damage

Spodoptera littoralis



Spodoptera littoralis larva.

Herbivore 1
(chewing)

Euscelidius variegatus



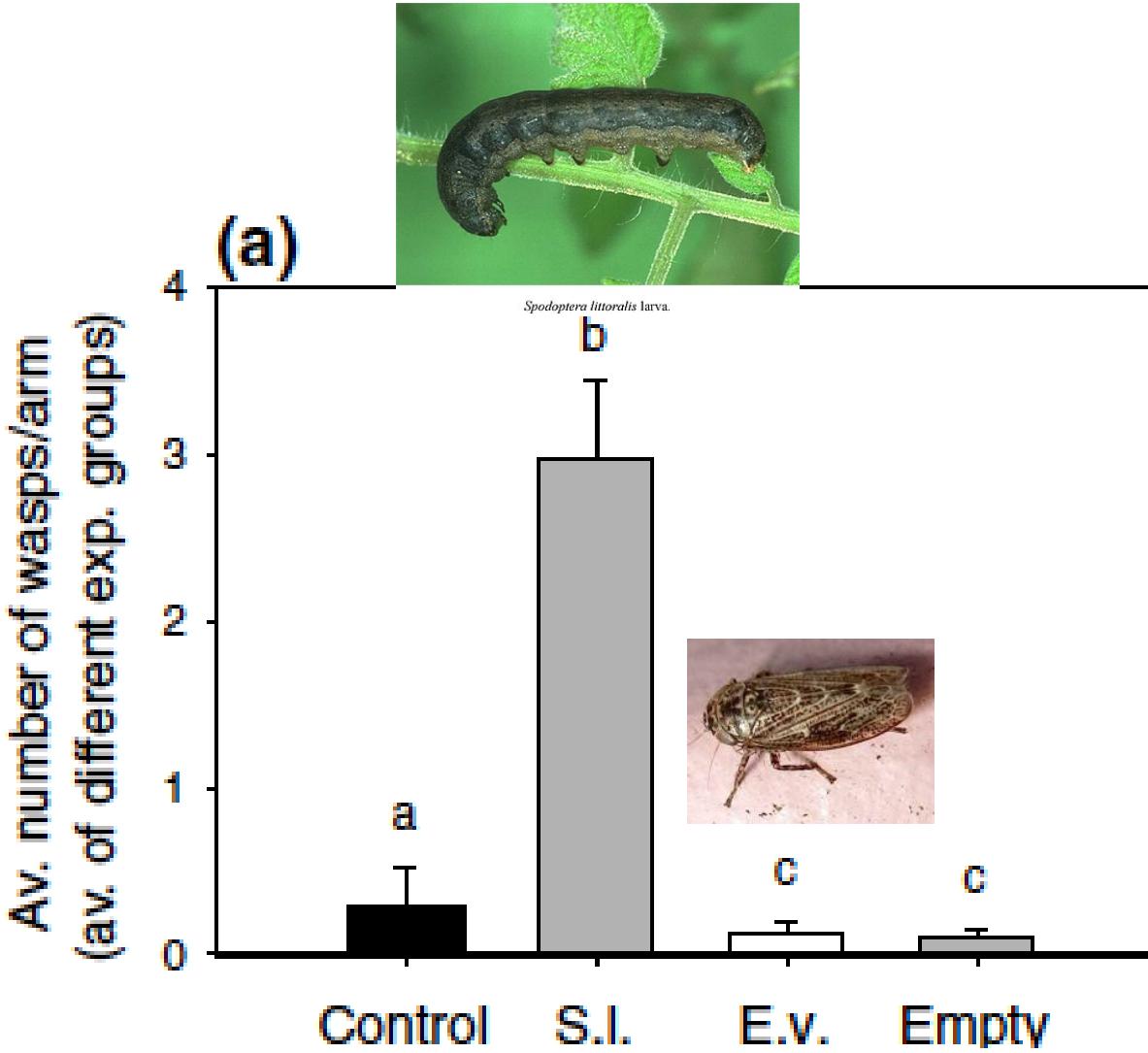
Herbivore 2
(piercing sucking)



Cotesia marginiventris



Parasitoid of
herbivore 1



Costesia marginivenis (parasitoid) is specifically attracted by the volatile signals emitted by plants when they are attacked by *Spodotora littoralis* (host organism)

Sucking and piercing insects induce a distinctive set of plant volatile compounds, which attract specific parasitoids of these insects

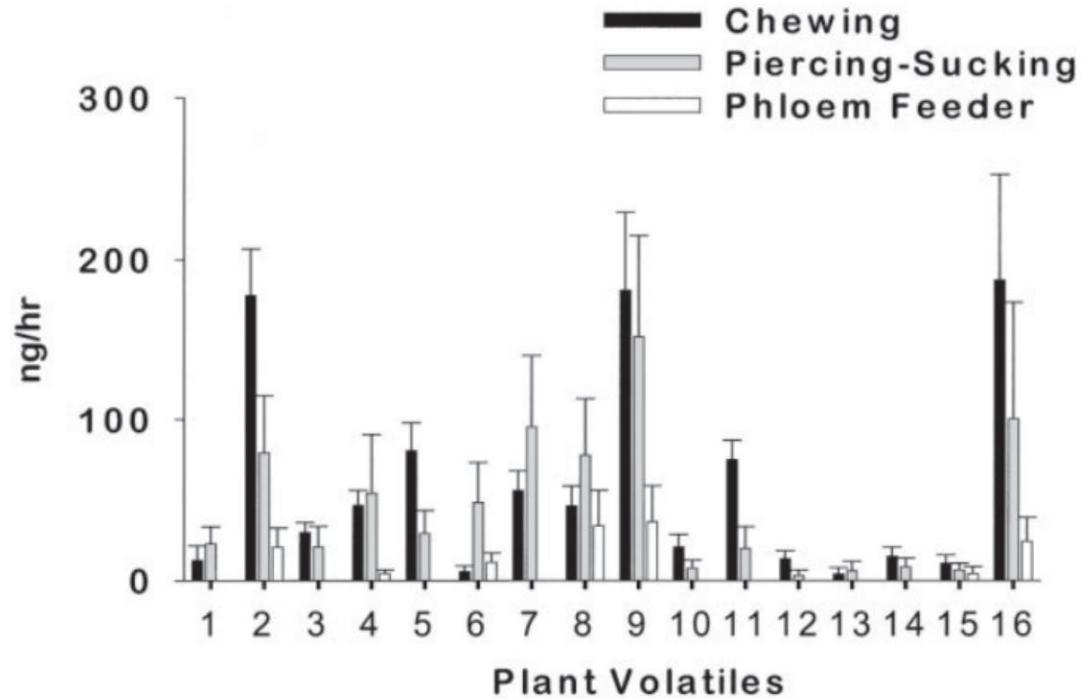
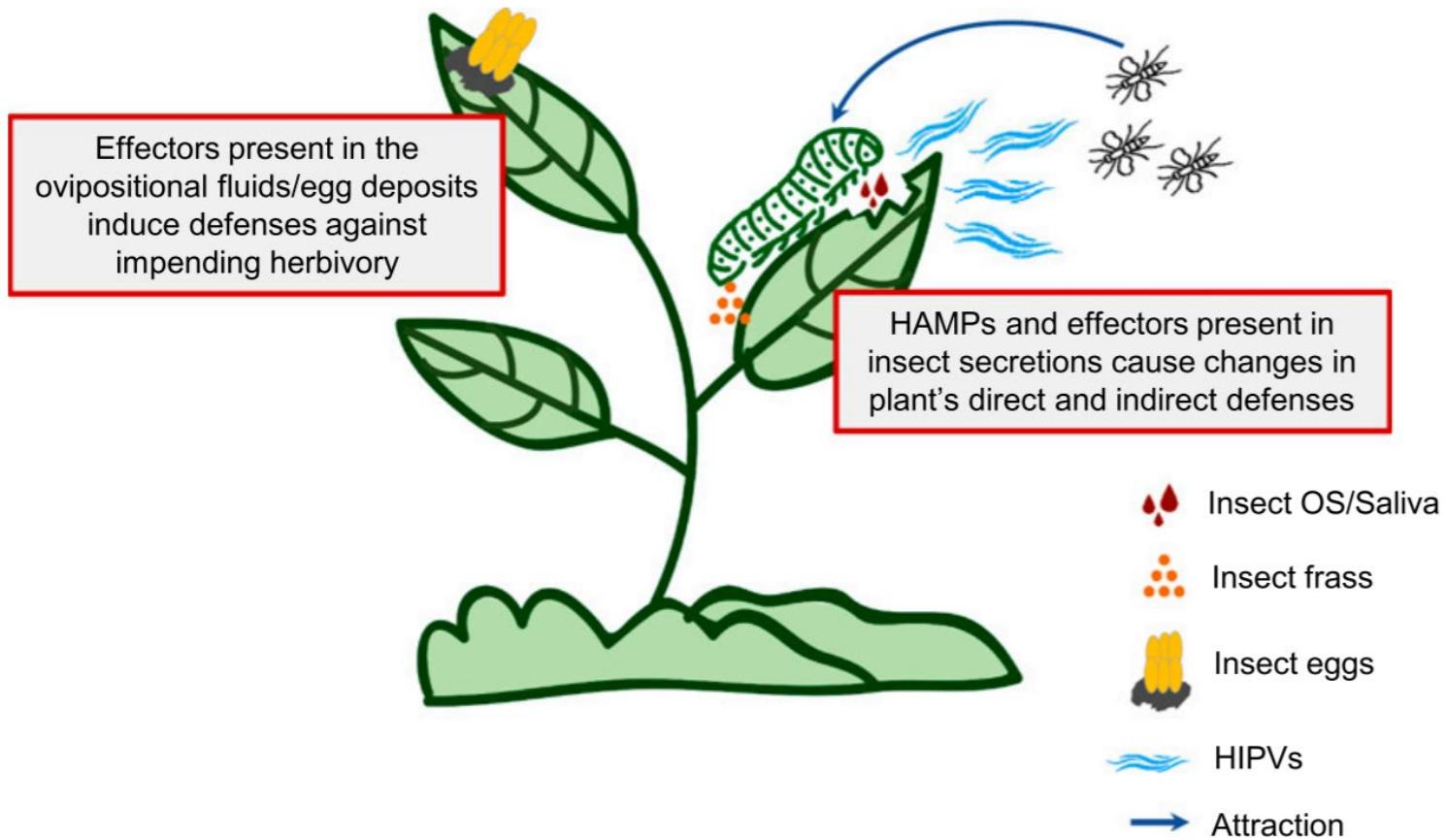


Fig. 1. Headspace volatile emissions from cotton plants injured by three species of herbivores with different feeding habits: the chewing caterpillar *Spodoptera exigua*, the piercing-sucking bug *Lygus hesperus*, and the phloem feeder *Bemisia tabaci*. Volatile compounds are: 1 = (E)-2-hexanal, 2 = α -pinene, 3 = β -pinene, 4 = myrcene, 5 = (Z)-3-hexenyl

acetate, 6 = limonene, 7 = (E)- β -ocimene, 8 = linalool, 9 = (E)-4,8-dimethyl-1,3,7-nonatriene, 10 = indole, 11 = (E)- β -caryophyllene, 12 = α -humulene, 13 = (E)- β -farnesene, 14 = (E,E)- α -farnesene, 15 = nerolidol, 16 = (E,E)-4,8,12-trimethyl-1,3,7,11-tridecatetraene. Bars represent the mean + 1 SE. Data extracted from Rodriguez-Saona et al. (2002, 2003).

The composition of the volatiles released is affected by the type of damage, and by chemicals present in insect saliva

A cry for help...?



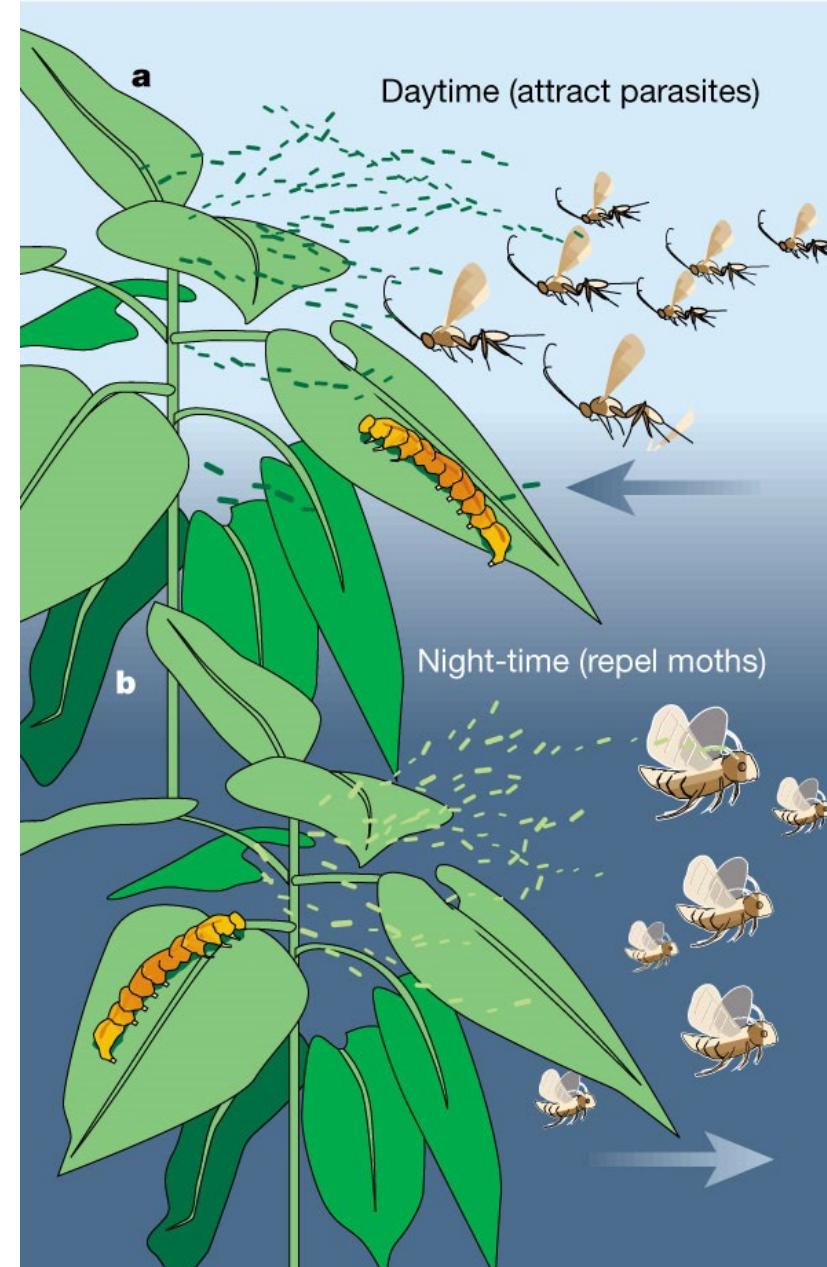
Herbivore associated molecular patterns (HAMPs) which induce plant responses can arise from:

- Oral secretions (OS) (regurgitant)
- Saliva
- Ventral eversible gland (VEG) secretions
- Digestive waste products (e.g., frass)
- Ovipositional fluids
- Herbivore-associated endosymbionts

Plant responses to herbivores can be divided into direct responses – which act directly on the herbivore and indirect responses, such as the attraction of parasitoids

A nocturnal warning?

- Tobacco plants (*Nicotiana tabacum*) release herbivore-induced volatiles during both night and day.
- Several volatile compounds are released exclusively at night and are highly repellent to female moths (*Heliothis virescens*).
- The plant also makes chemicals that attract predatory insects during the day, so it could be advantageous for the moths to keep away.



Ryan (2001), Nature

De Moraes et al (2001) *Nature*

Crying for help below ground?

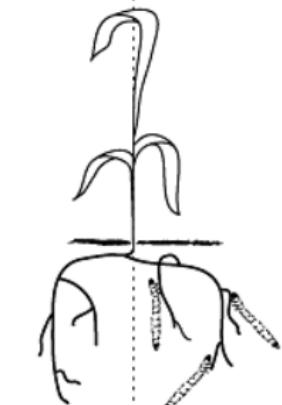


Western corn rootworm
Diabrotica virgifera virgifera



Entomopathogenic
nematode (EPN)

Split root system

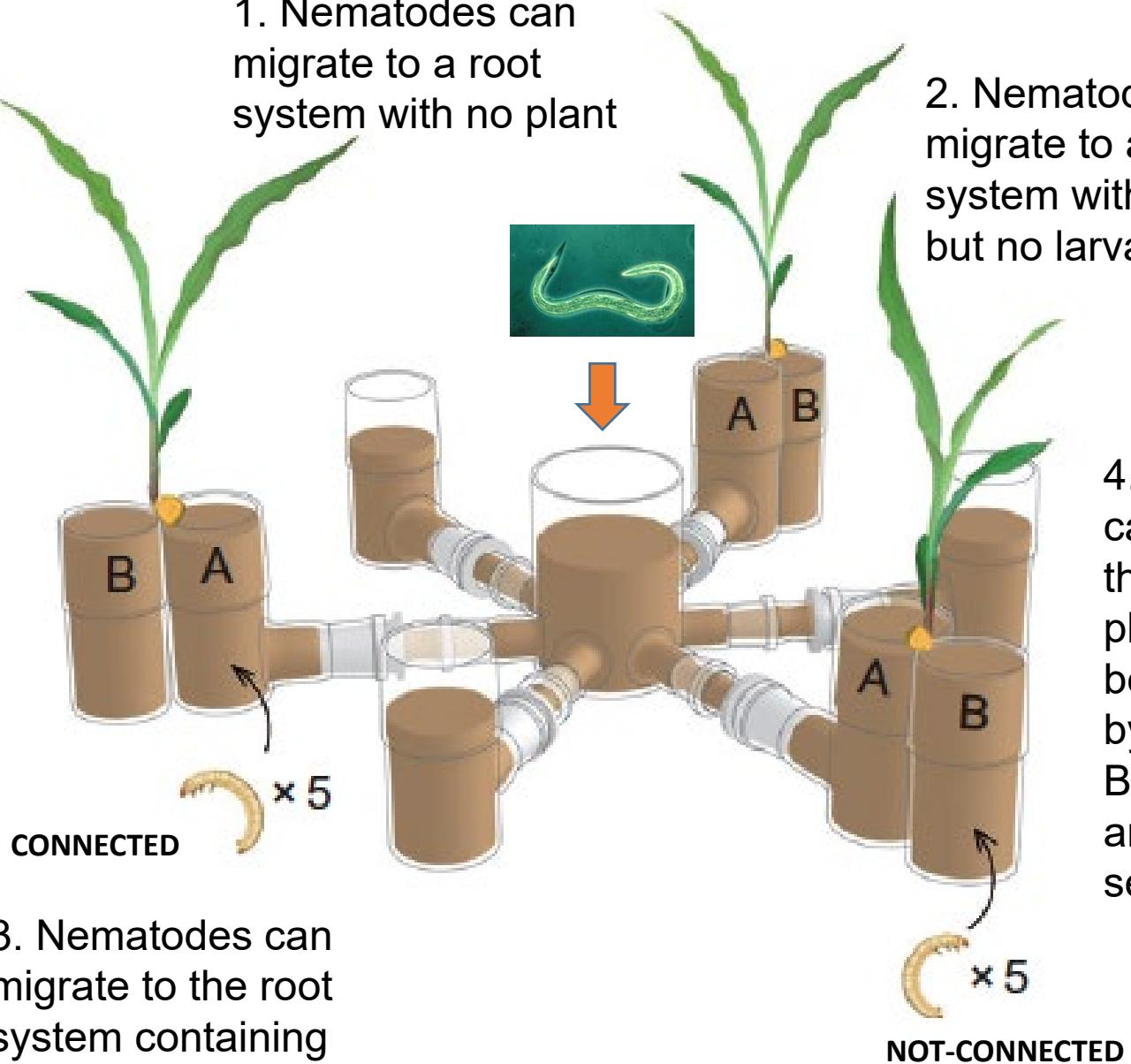


Systemic Local

Systemic responses to larvae

1. Nematodes can migrate to a root system with no plant

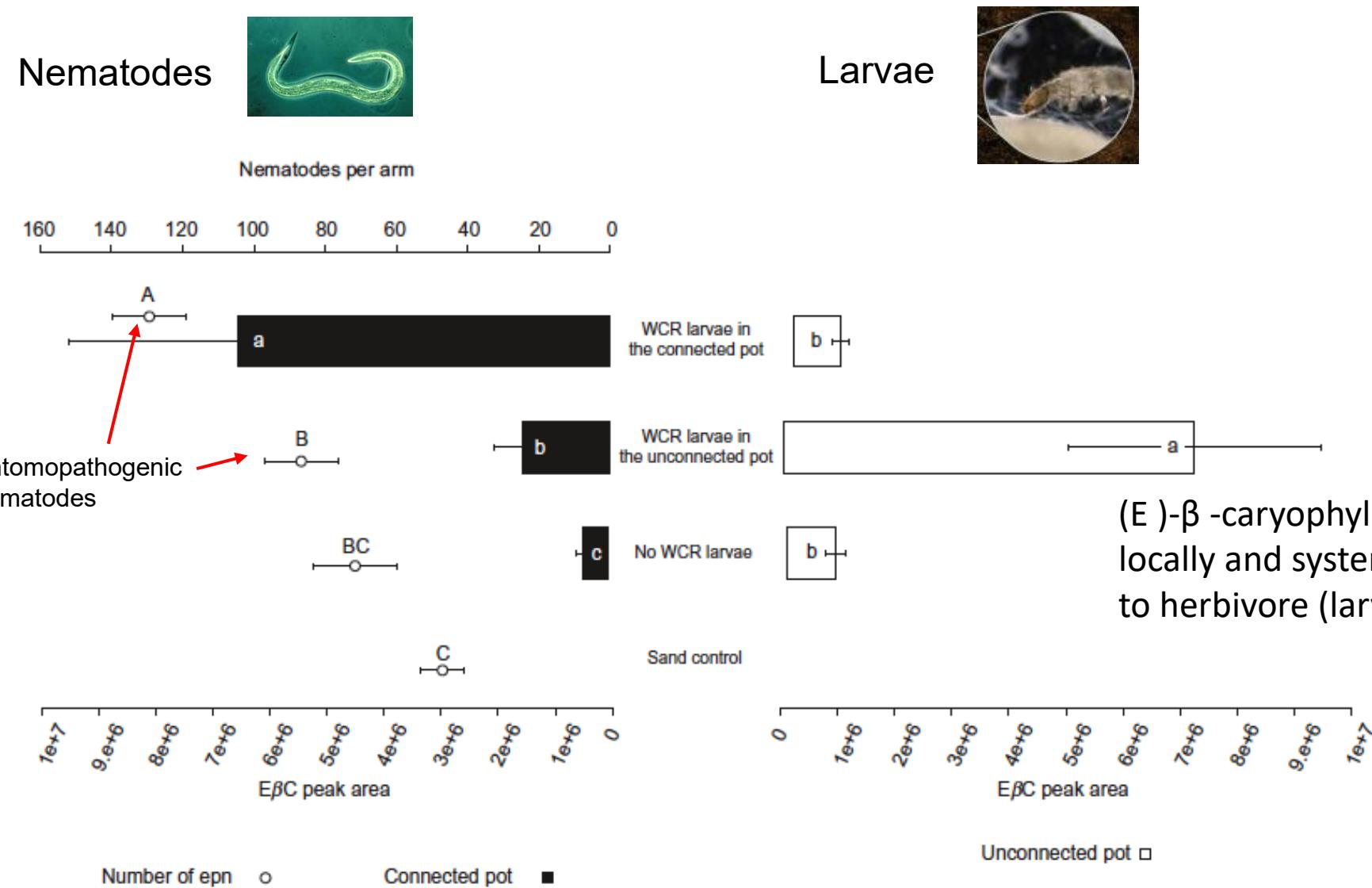
2. Nematodes can migrate to a root system with a plant but no larvae



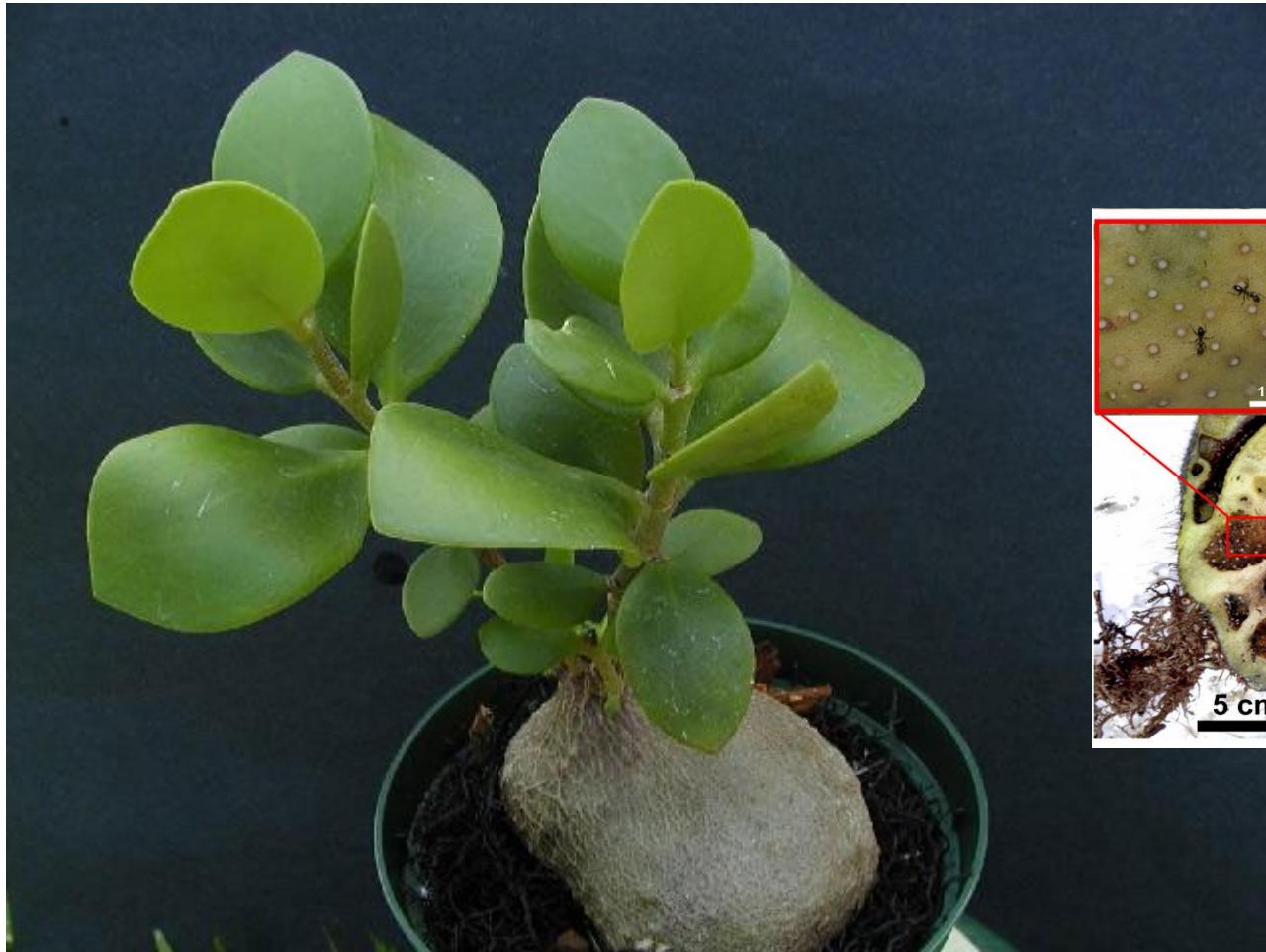
3. Nematodes can migrate to the root system containing larvae (A)

4. Nematodes can migrate to the roots of a plant that is being attacked by larvae.
But nematodes and larvae are separated

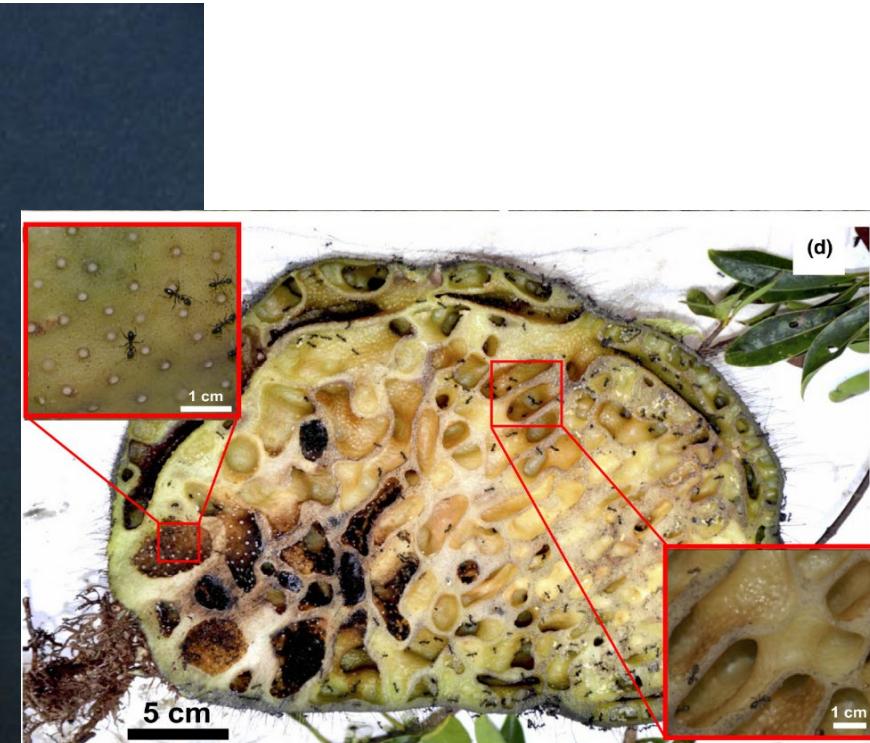
Attack by western corn rootworm larvae attracts entomopathogenic nematodes



Volatiles are also used as signals in mutualistic associations with herbivores



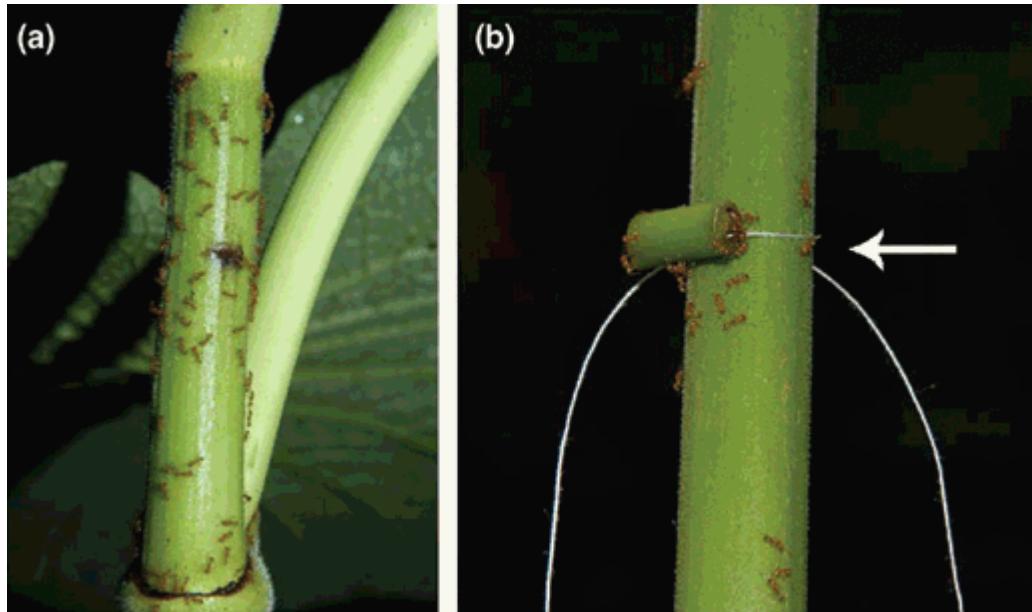
Hydnophytum



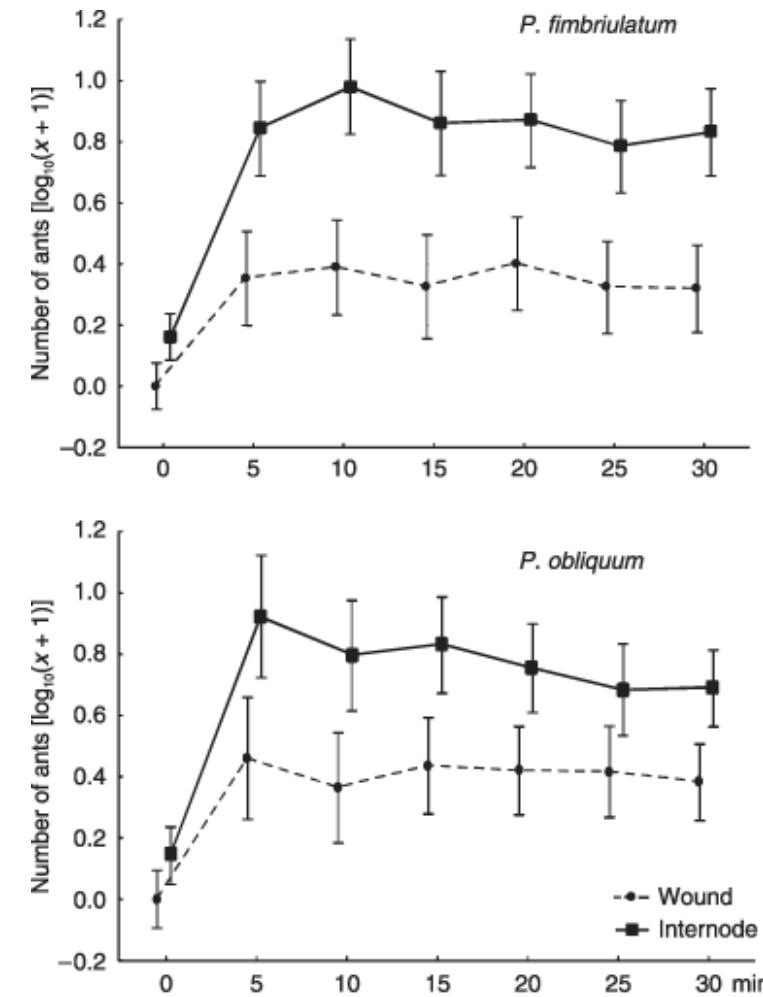
Acacia



Guardians are attracted by plant volatiles to damage to their host plant...



Mayer, V., D. Schaber, and F. Hadacek.
2008. Volatiles of myrmecophytic *Piper*
plants signal stem tissue damage to
inhabiting *Pheidole* ant-partners. *J. Ecol.*
96:962-970.



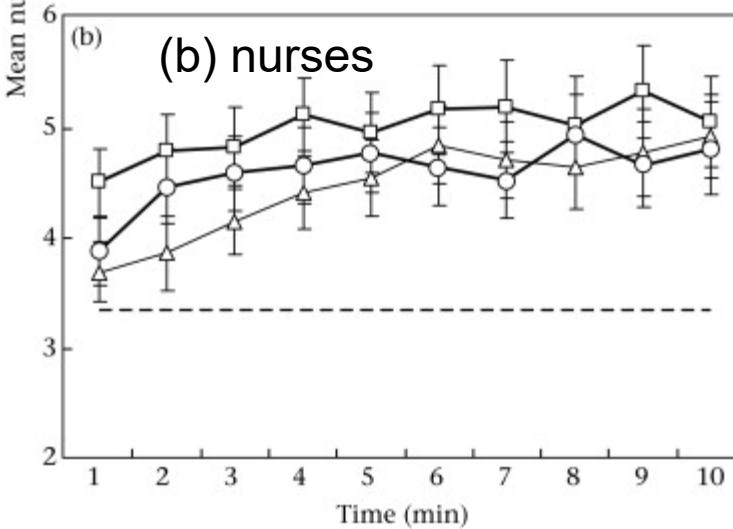
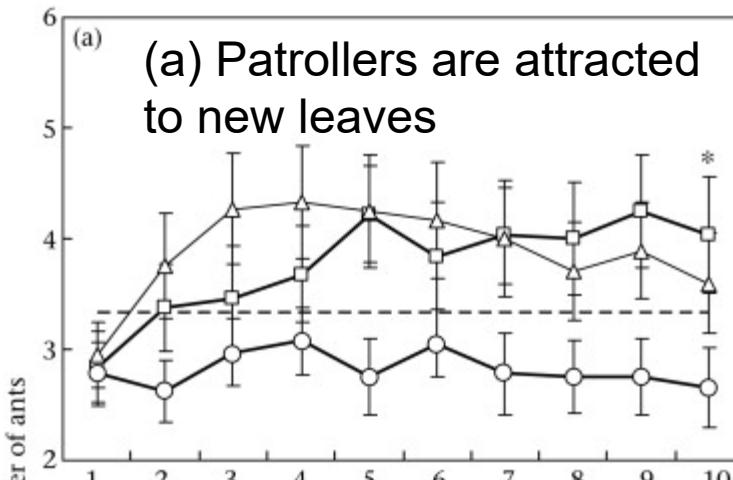
Chemical signals also modify the distribution of guardians – e.g. to protect new shoots



Nurse workers and brood



Patroller workers on new shoot



Mean number of worker ants attracted to filter papers containing new-leaf (□), mature-leaf (○), and pure hexane (Δ) extracts

5. Prey

Carnivorous plants use scent to attract prey...

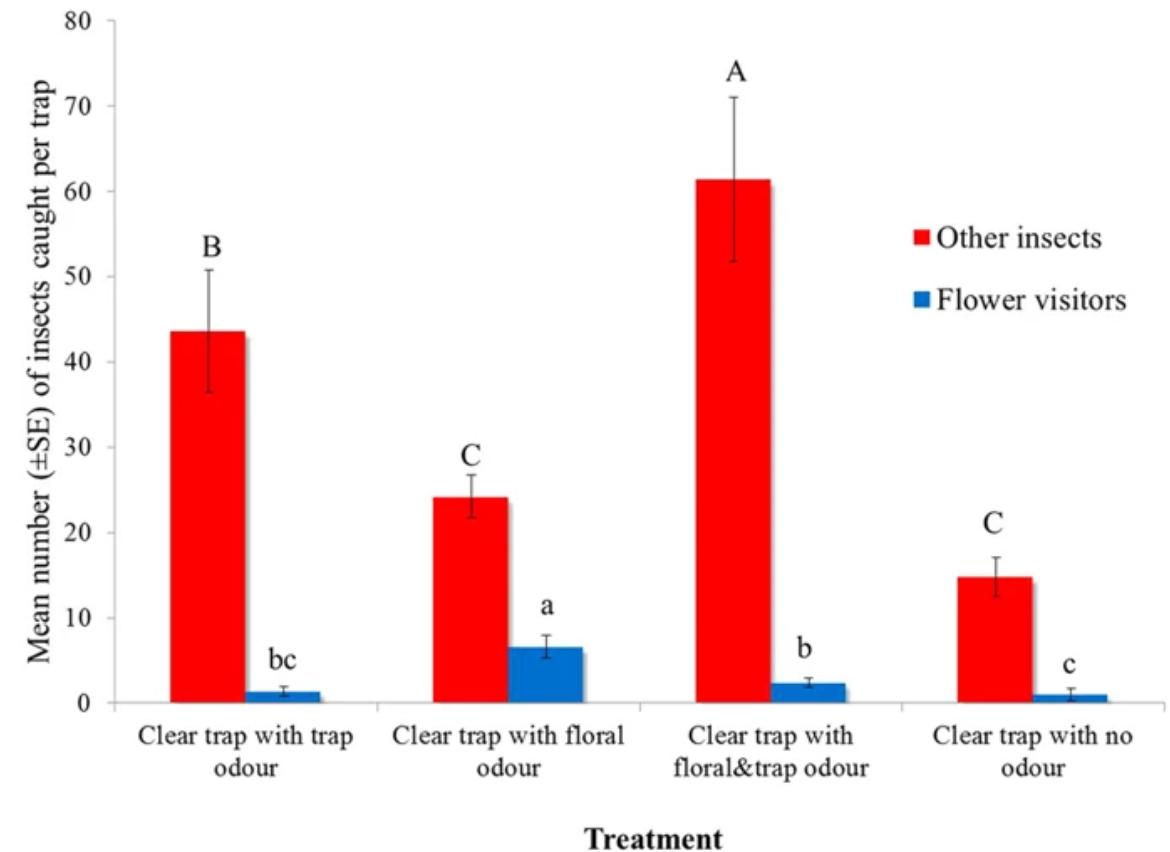
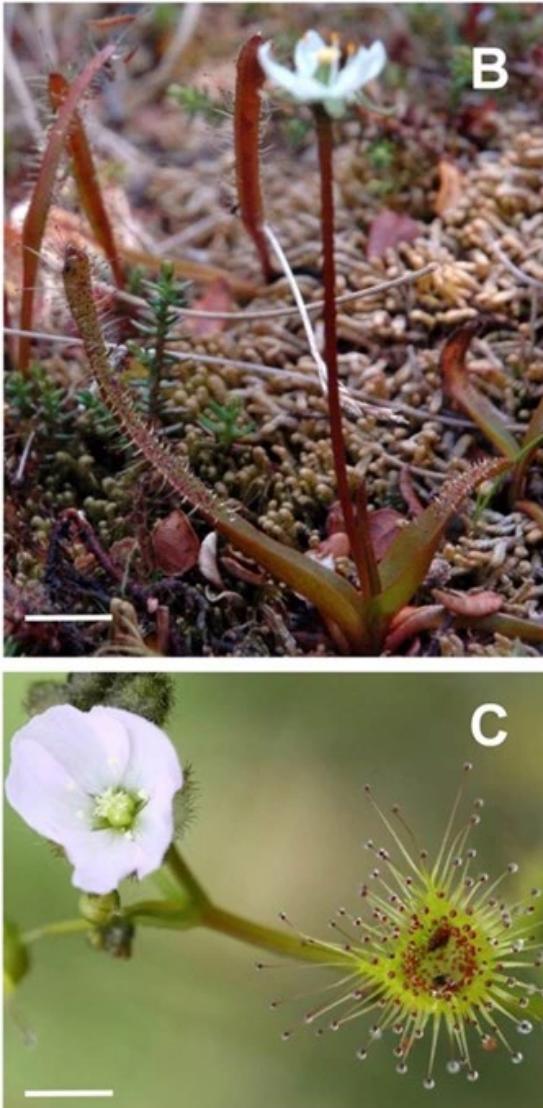


Venus fly trap



Pitcher plant

Carnivorous plants attract pollinators to flowers and prey to traps

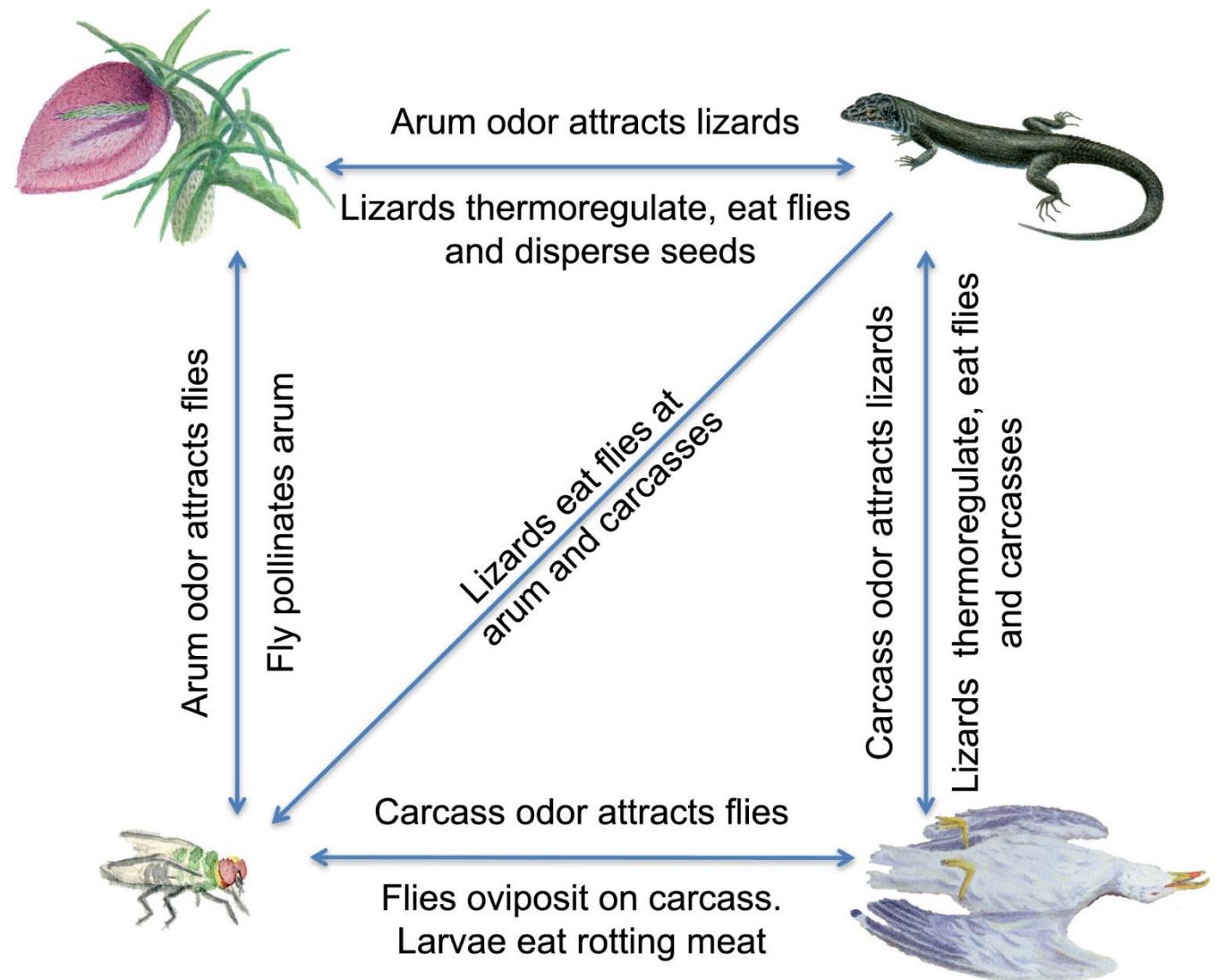
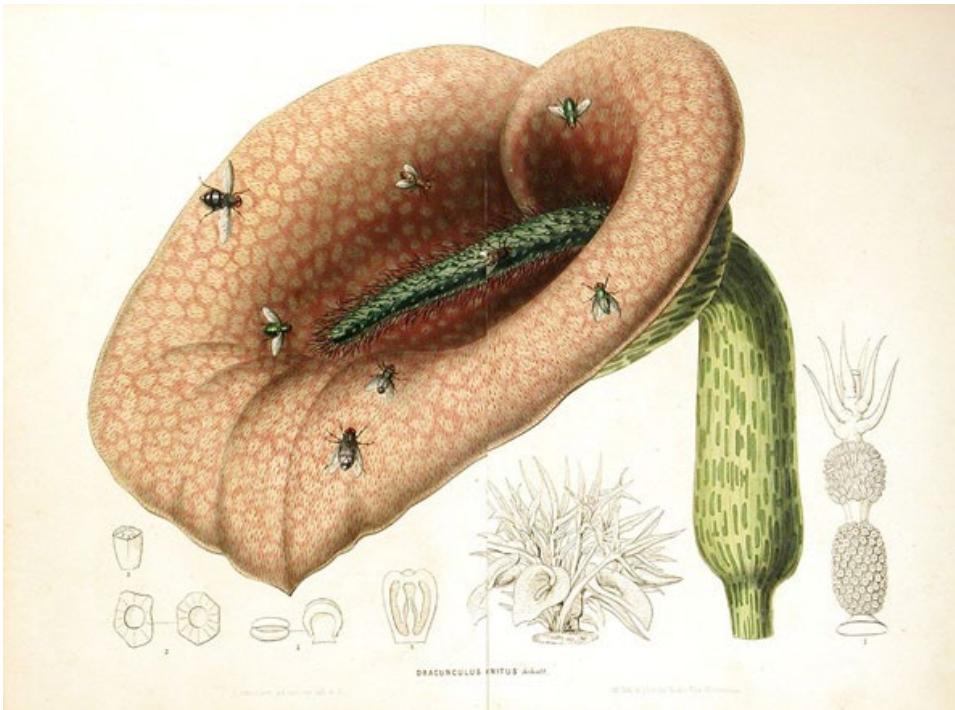


Traps with trap odour attract a range of insects, but floral visitors are attracted more to traps with floral odour

Flower trap arrangement in *Drosera spatulata* (A), *Drosera arcturi* (B) and *Drosera auriculata* (C). Scale bar = 1 cm.

6. Predators may also use plants to attract prey – while plants can exploit predators for seed dispersal

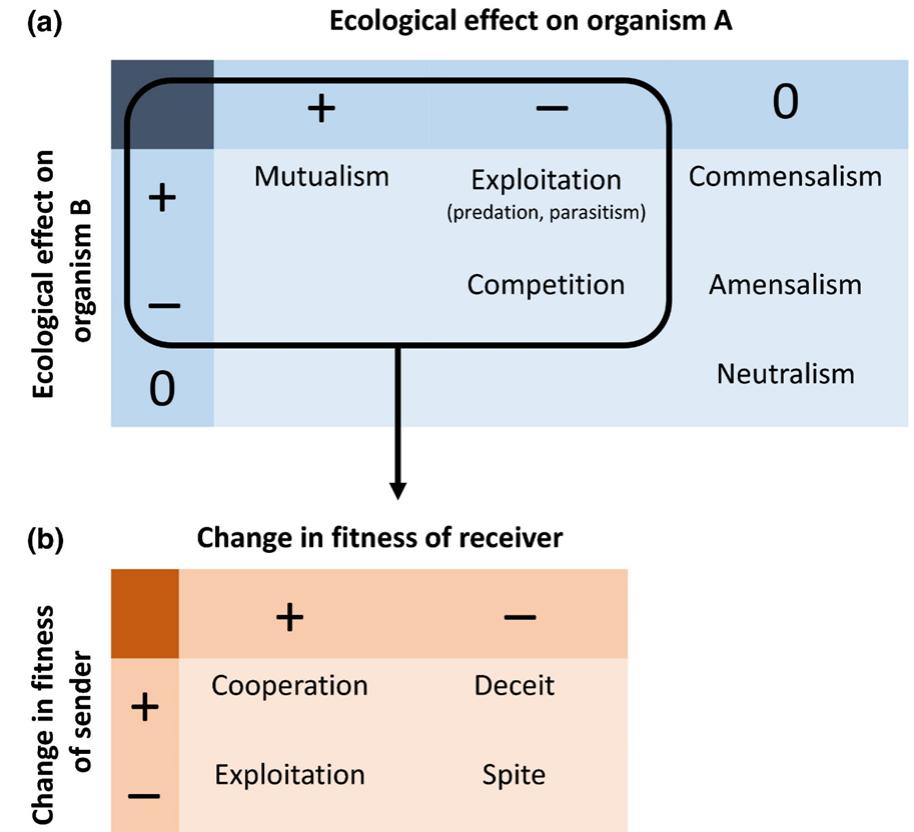
Dead horse arum and *Podarcis lilfordi*
(Balearic lizard)



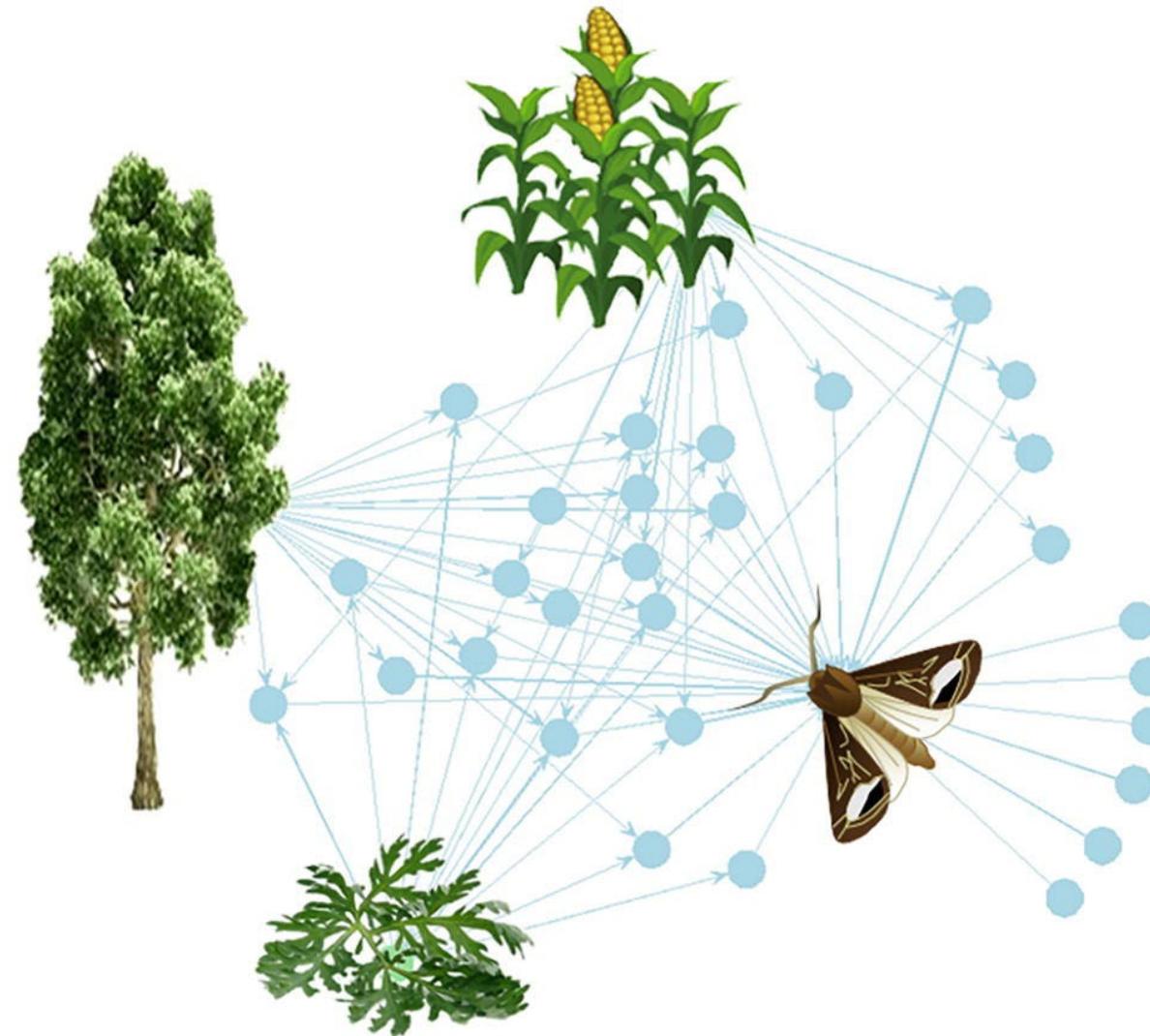
VOCs as inter-kingdom signals

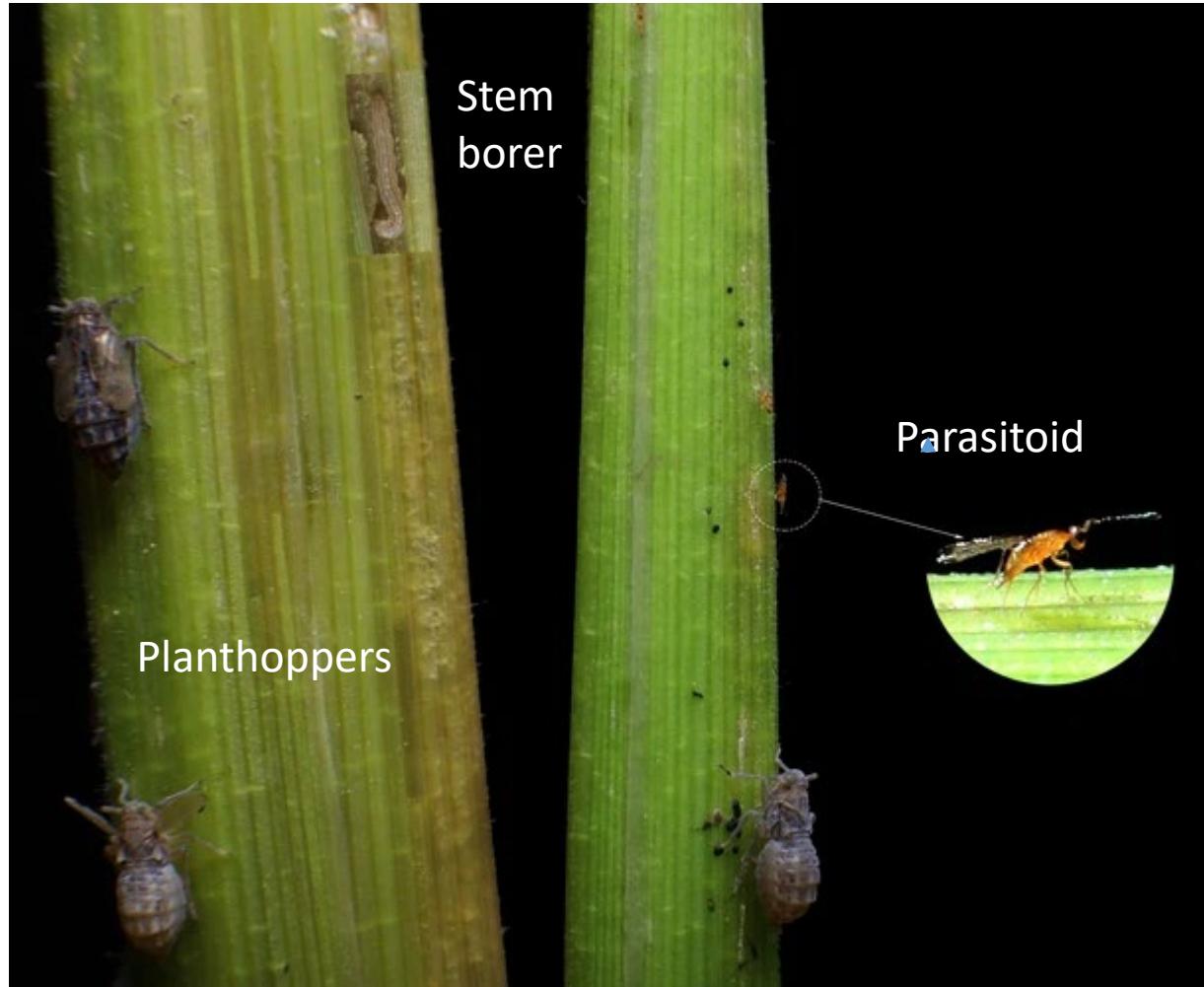
Who do plants talk to?

1. Pollinators
2. Seed-dispersing organisms
3. Herbivores, parasites and symbionts
4. Guardians
5. Prey
6. Predators



Can we use knowledge of plant communication mechanisms to enhance pest and disease control?





The brown planthopper *Nilaparvata lugens*, the rice-striped stem borer *Chilo suppressalis*, and the egg parasitoid *Anagrus nilaparvatae*.



Can we make crops less attractive to pests and more attractive to parasitoids?

GM strategies to alter volatile production?

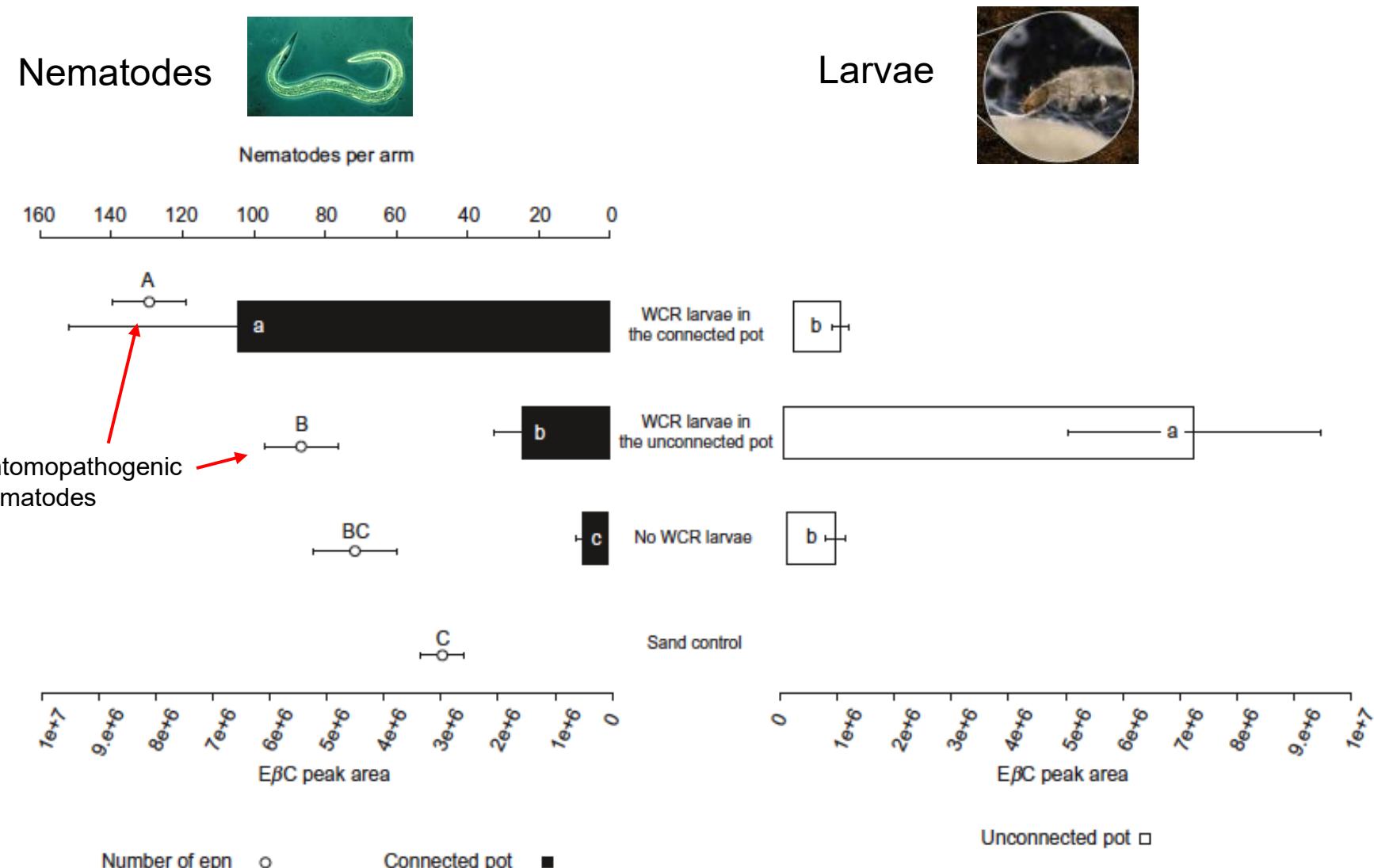
Hu et al. 2020 eLife

Modern crop varieties often have significantly reduced volatile-mediated signalling relative to their wild relatives or landraces

- Modern crop species have been reported to produce both a reduced quantity and diversity of volatile signals in response to pest damage
- Studies on cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.), tomatoes (*Solanum lycopersicum*), and maize (*Zea mays*) have shown that natural enemies such as parasitoids are more attracted to the damage-induced VOCs of wild relatives and landraces than those of modern crop species
- Modern, high yielding rice varieties also show an altered volatile profile compared to traditional varieties, including a reduction in phenolics.

Loughrin et al. J. Chemical Ecology 1995, Chamberlain et al. J. Chemical Ecology 1996, Magara et al. Int. J. Sciences 2015, Li et al. Agricultural and Forest Entomology 2018, Ashokkumer et al. Frontiers Nutr 2020

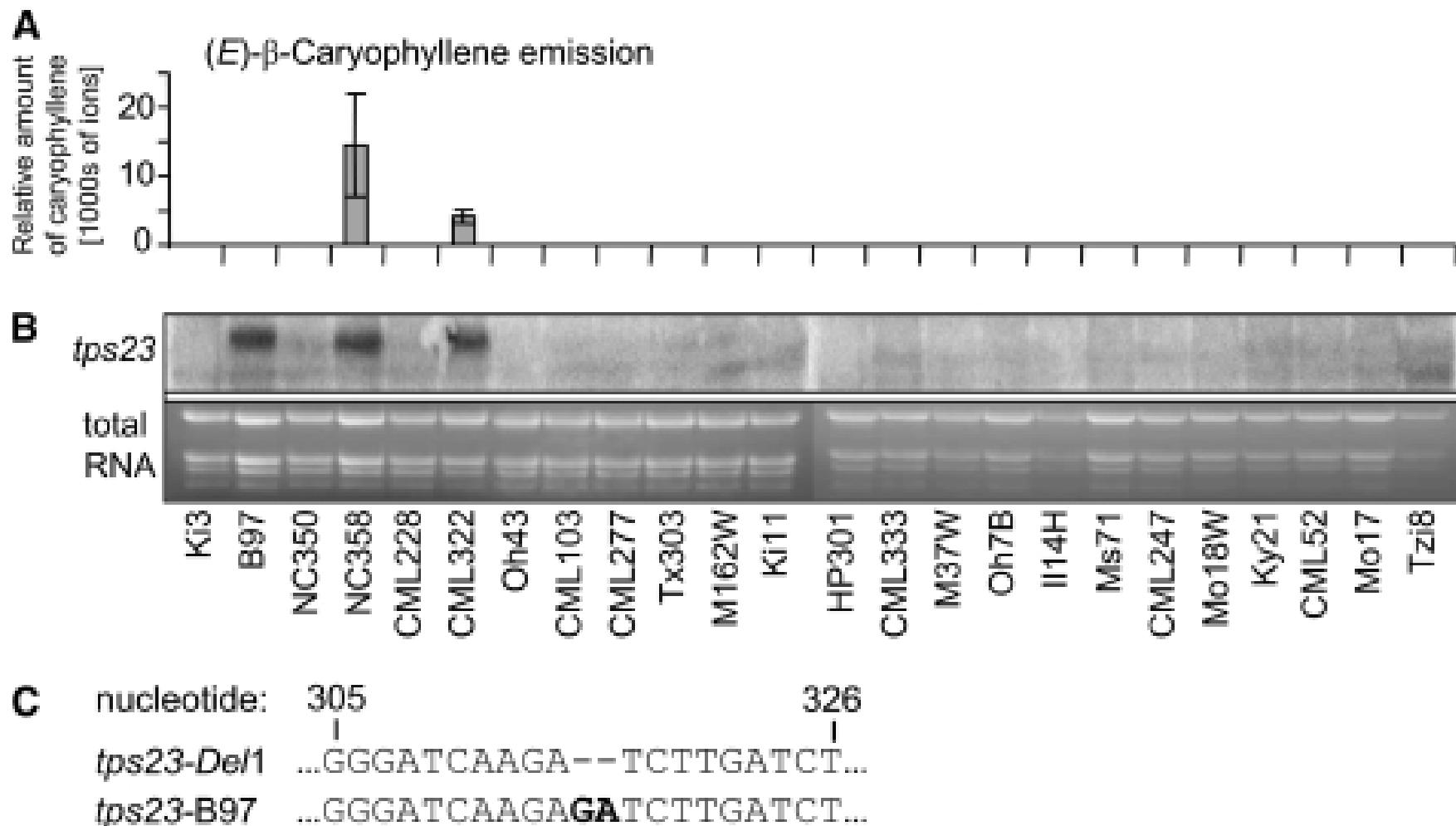
Attack by western corn rootworm larvae attracts entomopathogenic nematodes



(E)- β -caryophyllene ($E\beta C$) production increases in plants that are being attacked by larvae.

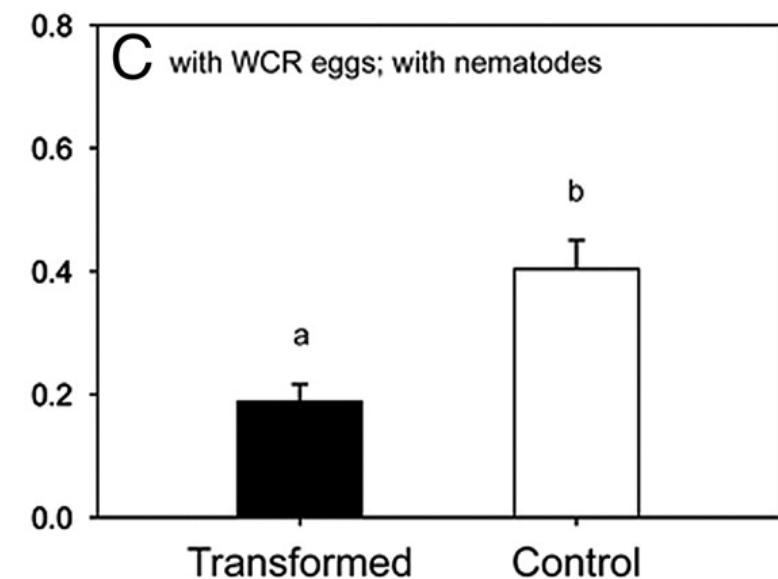
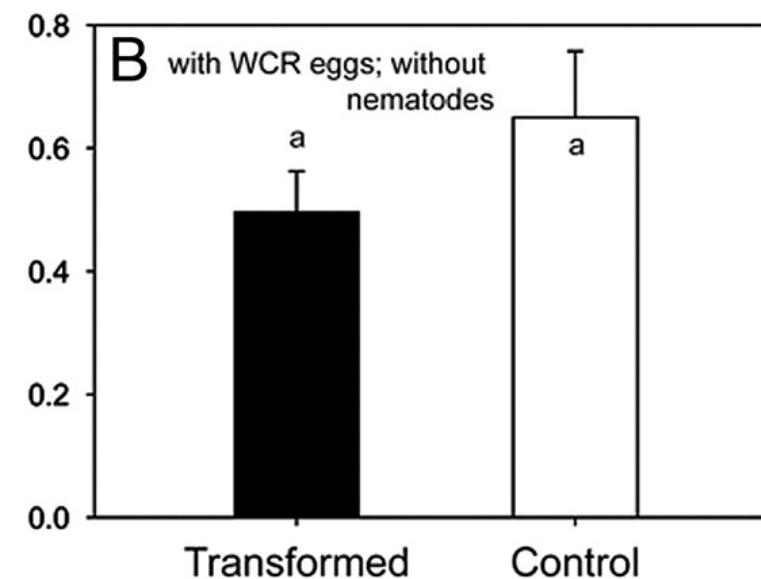
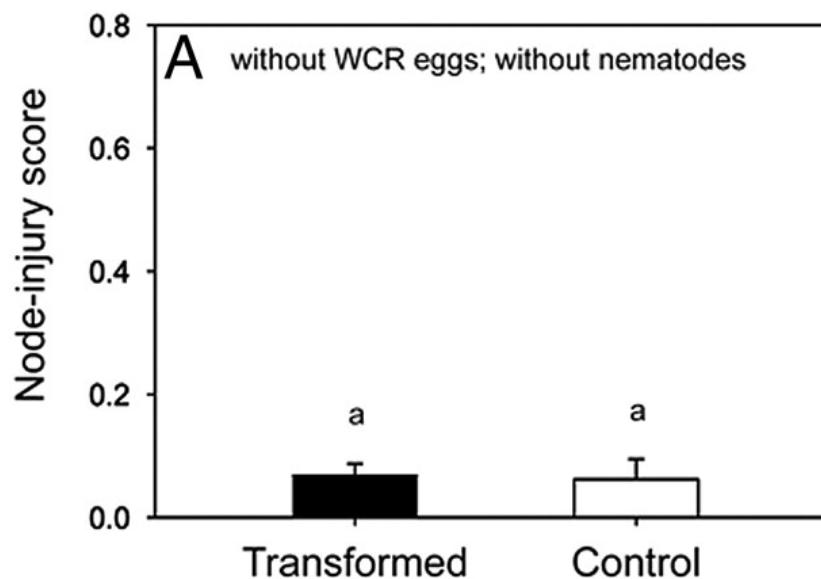
Rasmann et al Nature 2005
Hiltbold et al Plant Cell Env 2011

Maize lines of North American origin do not produce (E)- β -Caryophyllene



The *tps23* allele of the E β c non-producing line B97 contains a 2-bp insertion at nucleotide 315 compared with *tps23-Del*, which results in an inactive enzyme.

Maize plants transformed to express the E β c-synthase gene show reduced damage when western corn rootworm larvae and entomopathogenic nematodes are present



Restoring volatile production traits lost in domesticated or modern crops may increase pest and pathogen resistance

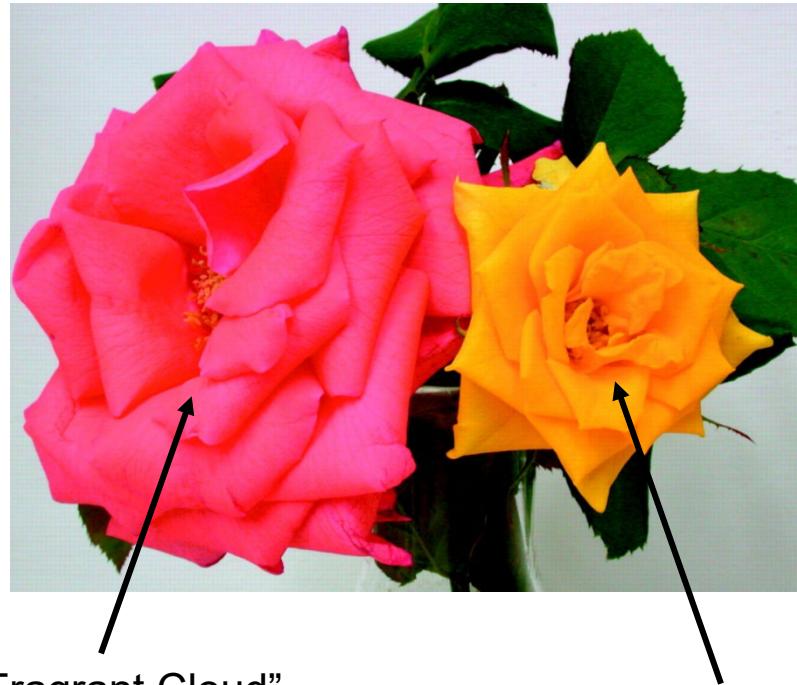
Could enhancing scent production in commercially bred flowers enhance both appeal and pest/disease resistance?



Scented rose

Many commercially bred flowers have low scent production

(high yield, large flowers, long vase life = low scent = trade-off?)



“Fragrant Cloud”

volatile esters,
aromatic and aliphatic
alcohols,
monoterpenes, and
sesquiterpenes

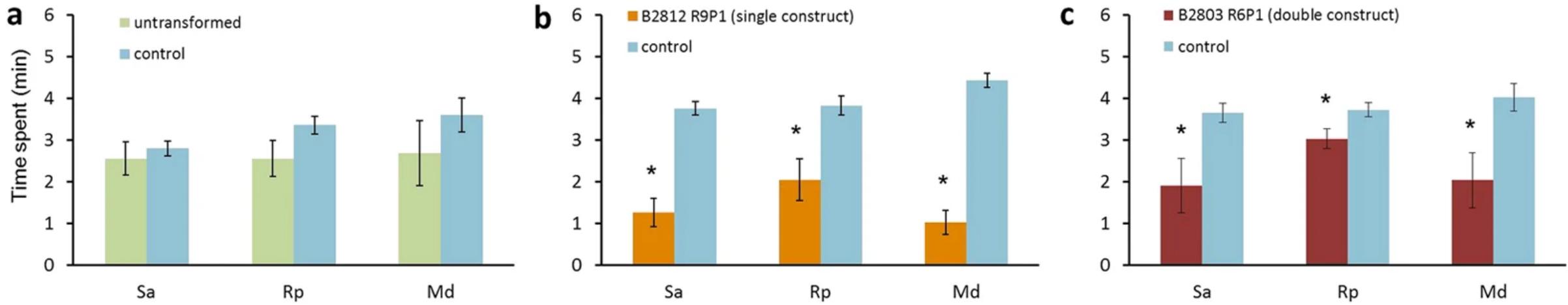
“Golden Gate”

nonscented
methoxylated
phenols

Guterman, I. et al. 2002 Plant Cell 14:2325-2338.

Eckardt, N. A. 2002. Plant Cell 14:2315-2317.

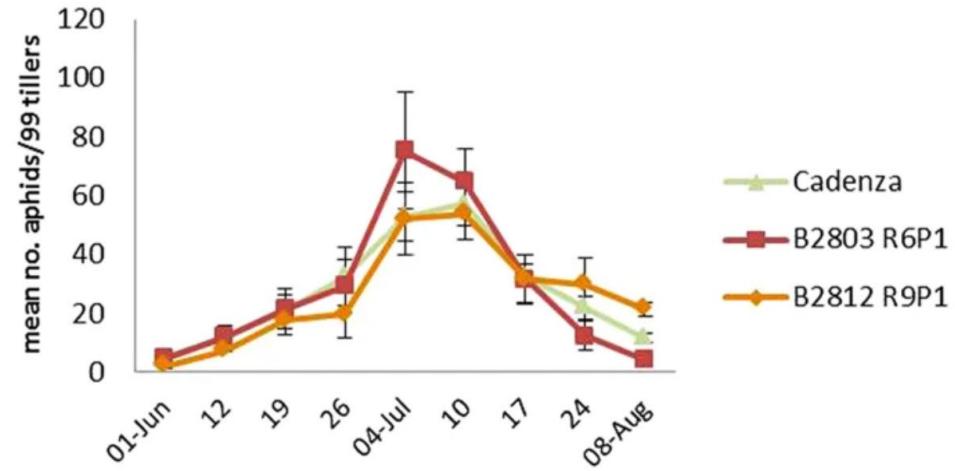
Wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) has been genetically engineered to produce the aphid alarm pheromone (E)- β -farnesene (E β f), which repels aphids and attracts their natural enemies



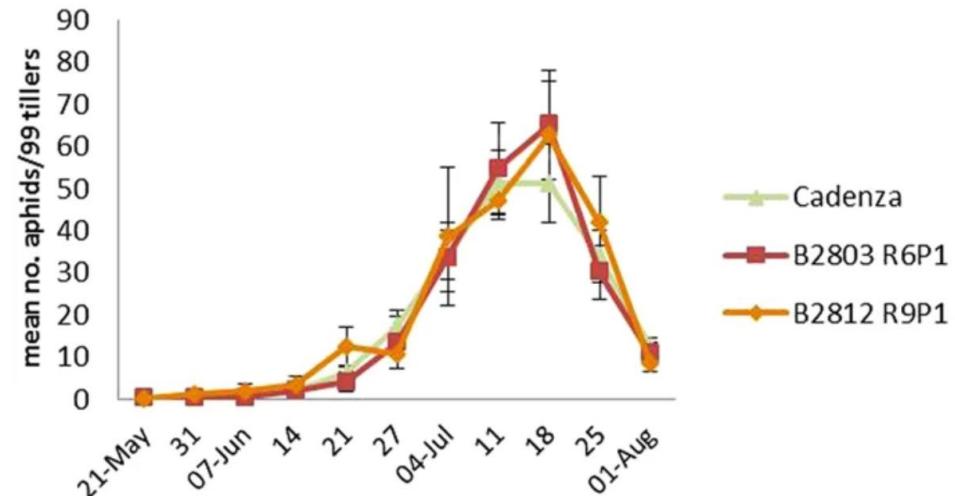
Aphids were observed to be repelled by the transformed wheat lines (B2812 R9P1 and B2803 R6P1) in the laboratory. Graphs show time spent (mean \pm s.e.) by the cereal aphids *Sitobion avenae* (Sa), *Rhopalosiphum padi* (Rp) and *Metopolophium dirhodum* (Md) in different regions of a 4-arm olfactometer ($n = 10$).

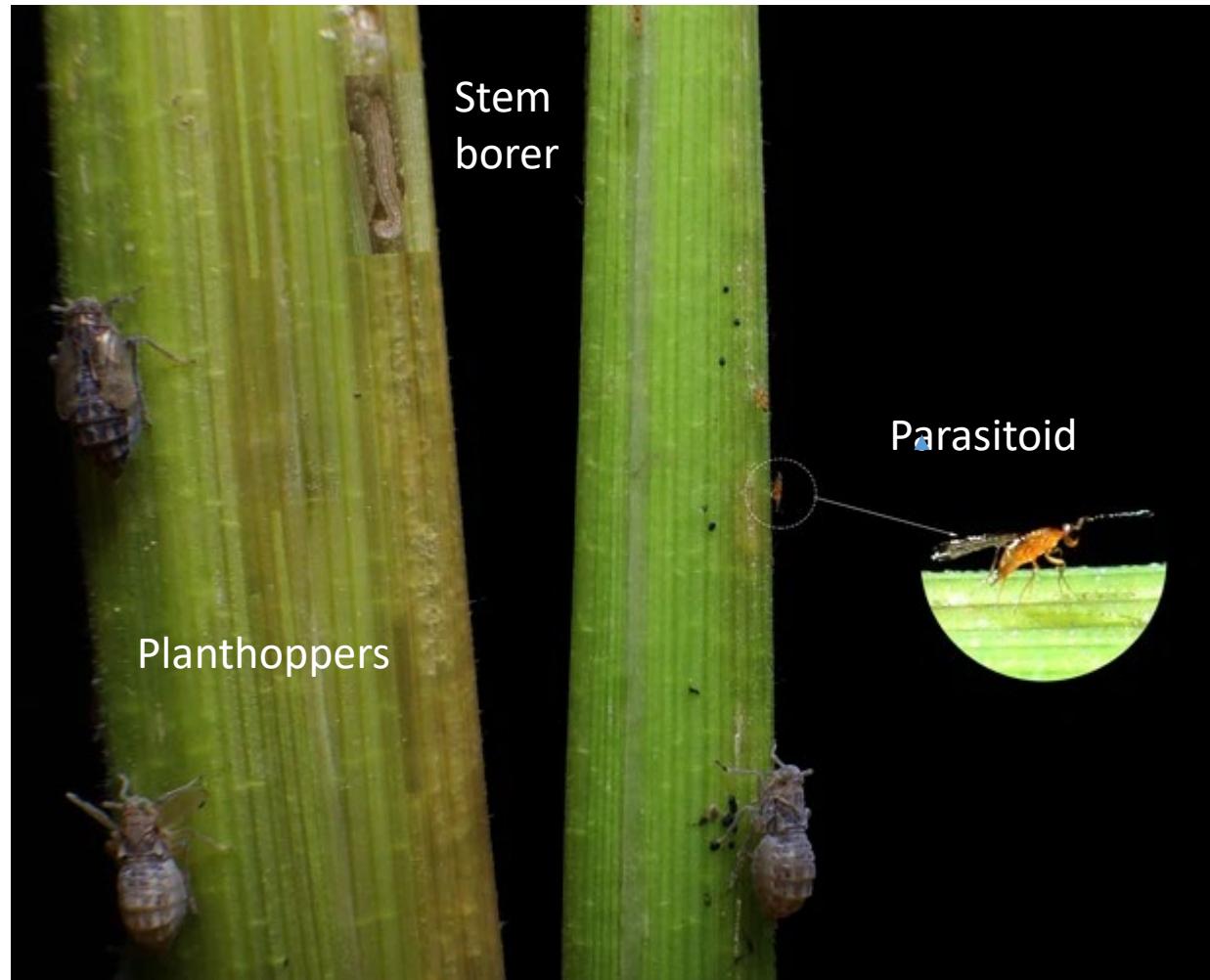
But the researchers did not observe a significant reduction in aphid numbers in the field

2012 - summer



2013 - summer





The brown planthopper *Nilaparvata lugens*, the rice-striped stem borer *Chilo suppressalis*, and the egg parasitoid *Anagrus nilaparvatae*.



Can we make rice less attractive to pests
and more attractive to parasitoids?

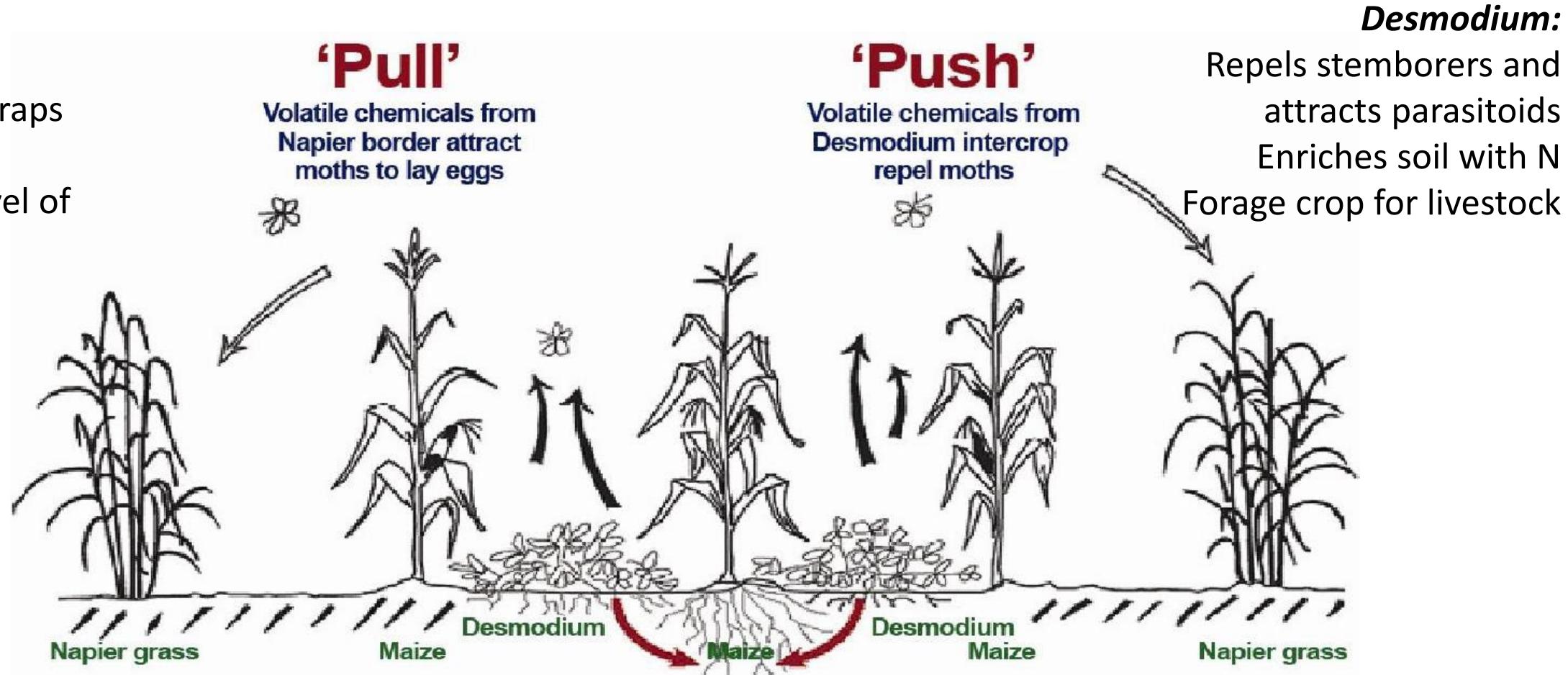
GM strategies to alter volatile production?

Other approaches?

Push-Pull technology to protect maize from insect pests

Napier grass:

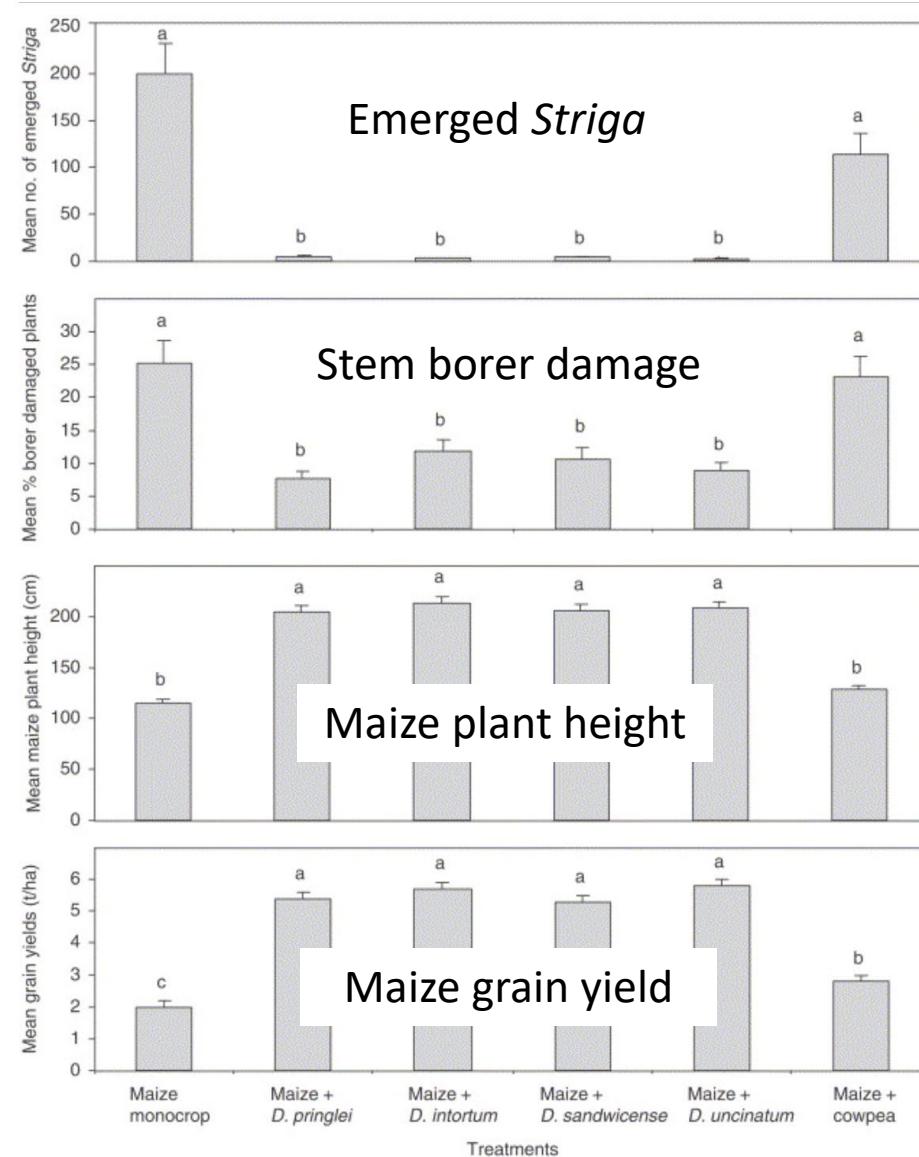
Attracts and traps
stemborers
Emits high level of
VOCs at night



Desmodium intercropping also helps to control *Striga*



Desmodium secretes a C-glycosylflavonoid called Isoschaftoside in its root exudates which inhibits the growth of germinating *Striga*.



Vocabulary

- Semiochemical
- Hormone
- Allomone
- Kairomone
- Synomone
- Strigolactone
- Volatile organic compound
- Thermogenesis
- Choice assay
- Myrmecochory
- Oviposition
- Parasitoid
- Herbivore associated molecular pattern (HAMP)
- Push-Pull technology
- Intercropping