## Florivorous caterpillars act as ecosystem engineers and provide a cool microhabitat for thrips in *Peixotoa tomentosa* (Malpighiaceae)

ESTEVAO ALVES-SILVA1\*, ALEXANDRA BÄCHTOLD2 & KLEBER DEL-CLARO1

<sup>1</sup>Universidade Federal de Uberlândia, Rua Ceará s/nº, Instituto de Biologia, Campus Umuarama, 38400-902. Uberlândia, Minas Gerais, Brazil <sup>2</sup>Universidade de São Paulo, Avenida Bandeirantes, 3900, 14040-901, Ribeirão Preto, São Paulo, Brazil.

Abstract: We investigated the role of florivorous lycaenid butterflies in creating microhabitats available to occupation by thrips (*Pseudophilothrips*) in *Peixotoa tomentosa* (Malpighiaceae). Both insects feed on flower buds, but thrips are suckers, whereas caterpillars chew the internal part of flower buds, leaving only the external bud surface (bud-shells). We hypothesised that thrips inhabit bud-shells as protection from high temperatures. The study was conducted in a Brazilian savanna (18°59'S, 48°18'W). The results revealed that thrips indeed remained in bud-shells when temperatures were high and returned to their foraging behaviour outside the buds when temperatures lowered. *Pseudophilothrips* depend on intact buds for feeding, whereas bud-shells act as shelter against the environment, so lycaenid caterpillars provide a complementary resource for thrips. To our knowledge, this is the first record of a free-living caterpillar as an ecosystem engineer, as examples to date are based mostly on leaf-rolling and shelter-living butterflies.

**Key words**: Allosmaitia strophius, Cerrado, Lycaenidae, Pseudophilothrips, Peixotoa, Malpighiaceae.

Handling Editor: Christopher D. Beatty

## Introduction

In general, animals interact with their habitat both temporally and spatially, and the consequent effects can either positively or negatively influence the occurrence of other animals (Jones et al. 1997; Kupika et al. 2014). The term "ecosystem engineer" is used for organisms that provoke and induce changes in the physical state or condition (e.g. creation, modification and maintenance) of their habitats, and consequently, either facilitate or prevent the occurrence of other organisms in the new environment that is created (Crooks et al. 2002; Gutiérrez et al. 2003; Jones et al. 1994).

This study examined the role of florivorous

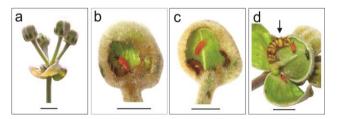
lycaenid butterflies (Lepidoptera) in creating microhabitats available to thrips (Thysanoptera) occupation in *Peixotoa tomentosa* A. Juss. (Malpighiaceae). In the Cerrado biome (Brazilian savannah), lycaenids co-occur with herbivore thrips in Malpighiaceae and both feed on flower buds, but thrips are suckers (Alves-Silva & Del-Claro 2014), whereas lycaenid caterpillars feed on the whole content of buds (Kaminski & Freitas 2010), leaving only their shells (external surface), hereafter referred to as "bud-shells". Thrips forage throughout the whole day in *P. tomentosa*, but during field surveys, we noted that at around midday, these insects were predominantly found inside the bud shells, presumably as protection

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding Author; e-mail: estevaokienzan@yahoo.com.br

against high temperature (see Mound & Terry 2001). During the reproductive season of *P. tomentosa* (June–July), temperatures in the Cerrado are high and rains are scarce (see Réu & Del-Claro 2005). Studies have demonstrated that high temperatures are a cause of mortality in thrips (McDonald *et al.* 1998, 1999). Thus, any type of shelter that is available to thrips occupation in *P. tomentosa* might benefit their maintenance in the plant. As shown by Mound & Terry (2001), thrips seek refuges within the plants to escape from high temperatures. In this context, we hypothesised that bud-shells created by lycaenids might provide a cool microhabitat for thrips during the hottest part of the day.

We examined a possible spatial segregation of thrips in relation to daily temperature. We hypothesised that thrips would be predominantly found outside bud-shells in the morning and the evening, when the temperature is cooler, but that around midday, when the temperature in the Cerrado may reach up to 40 °C, thrips would remain in the bud-shells. This might indicate that bud-shells are important as a refuge from the environment. Lycaenid-thrips interactions in the laboratory and the rate of shell occupation by were also examined. If a positive relationship between thrips abundance in budshells and temperature exists, it might be evidence that lycaenid caterpillars act as ecosystem engineers by creating a microhabitat for thrips.

Fieldwork was performed in a Cerrado reserve (18°59'S, 48°18'W; 230 ha) in Uberlândia, Brazil. The study area is characterised by a tropical climate with well-defined dry (April to September) and wet (October to March) seasons (Réu & Del-Claro 2005). *Peixotoa tomentosa* is an extrafloral nectaried shrub (~1.5 m in height), occurring in



**Fig. 1.** (a) Cluster with four flower buds of *Peixotoa tomentosa*; (b) Lycaenids consume the internal tissues of buds, leaving an empty space where thrips dwell; a bud-shell containing a *Pseudophilothrips* larva is shown here; (c) a thrips pre-pupa inside a bud-shell; (d) *Allosmaitia strophius* (arrow), together with two larvae (red) and one adult (black) of thrips. Scale bars: a, c, d–5 mm; b–3 mm.

open areas; its reproductive season takes place from June to late July; flower buds are round and grow in clusters of four buds at the apex of branches (Fig. 1a). Each flower bud is surrounded by eight elliptical and green oil-glands (Del-Claro Adults etal.1997). and larvae Pseudophilothrips (Phlaeothripidae) are roughly 2 mm and 1 mm long, respectively, and feed constantly on flower buds. Adults are black and winged, whereas larvae are wingless and reddish in colour (Alves-Silva & Del-Claro 2014). To avoid ambiguity in this study, lycaenid and immature thrips are referred to as 'caterpillars' and 'larvae', respectively.

As a preliminary evaluation of the daytime variation of thrips in flower buds (intact buds and bud-shells), we observed five shells and five intact buds from two P. tomentosa individuals (N = 20 flower buds) on one sunny day from 08:00 h to 17:00 h. Each plant was examined for two minutes in each hourly interval and we registered the number of thrips in both shells and intact buds. The temperature (°C) during the daytime was measured with a thermometer placed in the soil near the plants. The relationship between thrips abundance in bud-shells (Fig. 1b, c), intact buds and temperature was examined using linear regression (assuming  $\alpha = 0.025$  as corrected P value), as the original data was normally distributed. The temperature in and out of the shells was measured with an infrared thermometer at around midday.

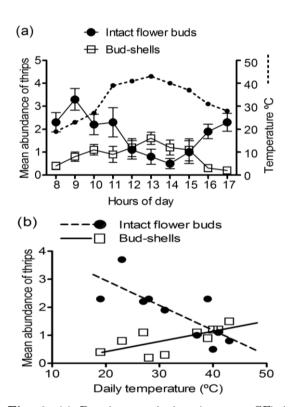
To investigate the interactions between thrips and lycaenids in the laboratory, and occupation of bud-shells by thrips, we used 4th instar caterpillars. In this stage, caterpillars feed extensively on flower buds, allowing us to rapidly relationship between examine the consumption (shell creation) and shell occupation by thrips. Our study focussed on the species Allosmaitia strophius (Godart 1824) (Fig. 1d), which is a frequent caterpillar on P. tomentosa (pers. obs.). Caterpillars collected in the field (N = 13) were reared until the 4th instar in the laboratory (following Bachtold et al. 2013).

Lycaenid—thrips interactions were observed in transparent plastic pots (200 ml). At the base of each pot (N = 13 pots) we placed a cluster of flower buds and carefully added an A. strophius caterpillar. Then six Pseudophilothrips individuals (N = 3 adults and 3 larvae) were placed at the lid of the pot, using a fine brush. Each pot was closed and we waited 15 minutes for insect accommodation. Observations were subsequently

performed each 30 minutes for 300 minutes and at each interval, we registered the number of buds consumed by caterpillars and the number of *Pseudophilothrips* (adult and larvae) inside shells. The relationship between the number of buds eaten by lycaenids (bud-shells), and occupation by thrips (adults and larvae) was examined using linear regression.

In the morning, thrips were more abundant in intact buds, but in the afternoon when the temperature was higher (peaking above 40 °C), thrips were mostly found inside bud-shells. In the evening, thrips left the bud-shells and returned to their foraging behaviour on intact buds (Fig. 2a). There was a negative relationship between the abundance of thrips on intact buds and temperature ( $F_8 = 13.09$ ,  $R^2 = -0.62$ , P = 0.01), and a positive, though only marginally significant, relationship between thrips in shells and temperature ( $F_8 = 7.39$ ,  $R^2 = 0.48$ , P = 0.03) (Fig. 2b). At midday, the interior of the shells was cooler (28 °C) than the external surface (31 °C).

During the observations, we found a pre-pupa



**Fig. 2.** (a) Daytime variation (mean  $\pm$  SE) in the number of *Pseudophilothrips* in intact buds and budshells of *Peixotoa tomentosa* (b) Relationship between thrips abundance in buds and temperature. During the hotter parts of the day, thrips moved to budshells.

in one shell (Fig. 1c) and three eggs of *Pseudophilothrips* in other shells. Apart from *Pseudophilothrips*, some florivore thrips species were also noted in bud-shells, such as *Heterothrips* peixotoa (Del-Claro et al. 1997) (N = 4 bud-shells), *Scutothrips nudus* (Moulton 1932) (N = 3 bud-shells) and one species of *Heterothrips* sp. (N = 1 bud-shell).

In the laboratory, thrips were observed to walk over or remain on the A. strophius body very often, apparently without provoking disturbances in lycaenid behaviour (Fig. 1d). Adult Pseudophilothrips moved rapidly from flower buds, whereas larvae were less mobile. Thrips entered the bud-shells as soon as lycaenids consumed the internal tissues of flower buds. Thrips abandoned the shells very often, visiting intact buds and then returning to the shells. A positive and significant relationship between the abundance of buds consumed by A. strophius and the number of thrips that occupied the bud-shells was found (adult:  $F_9$  = 33.13,  $R^2 = 0.89$ , P < 0.001; larvae:  $F_9 = 52.28$ ,  $R^2 =$ 0.92, P < 0.0001). At the end of the experiment, when all buds had been consumed by lycaenid caterpillars, 38% of the thrips were inside shells; the other thrips were wandering or immobile inside the pot.

Our hypothesis that caterpillars might act as by modifying ecosystem engineer architecture of flower buds in P. tomentosa and making them attractive to thrips was supported. Thrips are well known for their habit of entering small cracks (Crespi et al. 1997; Sakai 2001), including the shelters of other thrips species (kleptoparasitism) or other insects (Bächtold & Alves-Silva 2013; Cavalleri et al. 2013; Crespi & Abbot 1999). To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate that thrips benefit from a habitat created by another animal in the context of ecosystem engineering. According to Fukui (2001), shelter inquilines (such as thrips) have a series of advantages (e.g. favourable microclimate, protection from natural enemies), without incurring costs related to the construction and maintenance of the habitat (see also Lill & Marquis 2007). The occupation of budshells by thrips is therefore advantageous, as they find a cool microhabitat, which protects them against the environment.

In *P. tomentosa*, both intact buds and budshells play a complementary role in thrips life history. Thrips depend on intact buds for feeding, whereas shells act specifically as shelters, as the external layer of bud-shells is crispy and the oil

glands are dry, offering no food for thrips. High temperature was related to the migration of thrips from intact buds to shells, as most thrips were within shells around midday. temperature inside shells was also cooler in comparison to that outside. The flower buds of P. tomentosa grow at the apex of branches and are exposed to direct sunlight all day long. Thrips are small insects with a thin cuticle, therefore, direct sunlight and high temperatures might interfere with their metabolism and increase the risk of desiccation. In Australia, for instance, thrips seek shelter during the hottest period of the day in cones of cycads (Mound & Terry 2001), as thrips mortality is high at temperatures above 35 °C (McDonald et al. 1998, 1999; Tsai et al. 1995; Wiesenborn 2000). In the laboratory, thrips moved to shells as soon as lycaenids fed on buds, but many thrips continued to wander inside the pot. These results can be explained by the mobility of Pseudophilothrips, which move very often from plant structures in the field, eventually stopping on buds to feed. In the laboratory the temperature was cooler (~24 °C), and as shown in Fig. 2, thrips sought shells as the temperature rose.

In this study lycaenids were shown to be able to physically manipulate flower buds and turn them into a microhabitat appropriate to thrips. Other herbivores, such as endophytic beetles also feed on the content of buds (Alves-Silva et al. 2013), but abandoned buds are wide open and contain the waste and faeces of beetles, and are thus not favourable to occupation by thrips. To conclude, we assume that *A. strophius* can be considered an ecosystem engineer, by creating a microhabitat that can be used by thrips when temperatures are high.

## Acknowledgements

We thank two anonymous reviewers for comments on the manuscript. Financial support was provided by Fapesp (AB grant), Capes (EAS grant) and CNPq (KDC, EAS grant).

## References

Alves-Silva, E., G. J. Barônio, H. M. Torezan-Silingardi & K. Del-Claro. 2013. Foraging behavior of Brachygastra lecheguana (Hymenoptera: Vespidae) on Banisteriopsis malifolia (Malpighiaceae): Extrafloral nectar consumption and herbivore predation in a tending ant system. Entomological Science 16: 162–169.

- Alves-Silva, E. & K. Del-Claro. 2014. Fire triggers the activity of extrafloral nectaries, but ants fail to protect the plant against herbivores in a neotropical savanna. *Arthropod-Plant Interactions* 8: 233–240.
- Bächtold, A., & E. Alves-Silva. 2013. Behavioral strategy of a lycaenid (Lepidoptera) caterpillar against aggressive ants in a Brazilian savanna. *Acta Ethologica* **16**: 83–90.
- Bächtold, A., E. Alves-Silva & K. Del-Claro. 2013. Notes on Lycaenidae (Lepidoptera) in inflorescences of *Peixotoa parviflora* (Malpighiaceae): A new host plant in a Brazilian Atlantic forest. *Journal of the Lepidopterists' Society* 67: 65–67.
- Cavalleri, A., A. R. de Souza, F. Prezoto & L. A. Mound. 2013. Egg predation within the nests of social wasps: a new genus and species of Phlaeothripidae, and evolutionary consequences of Thysanoptera invasive behaviour. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 109: 332–341.
- Crespi, B. & P. Abbot. 1999. The behavioral ecology and evolution of kleptoparasitism in Australian gall thrips. *Florida Entomologis* 82: 147–164.
- Crespi, B. J., D. A. Carmean & T. W. Chapman. 1997. Ecology and evolution of galling thrips and their allies. *Annual Review of Entomology* **42**: 51–71.
- Crooks, J. A. 2002. Characterizing ecosystem-level consequences of biological invasions: The role of ecosystem engineers. *Oikos* **97**: 153–166.
- Del-Claro, K., R. Marullo & L. A. Mound. 1997. A new Brazilian species of *Heterothrips* (Insecta: Thysanoptera) interacting with ants in *Peixotoa tomentosa* flowers (Malpighiaceae). *Journal of Natural History* **31**: 1307–1312.
- Fukui, A. 2001. Indirect interactions mediated by leaf shelters in animal–plant communities. *Population Ecology* **43**: 31–40.
- Gutiérrez, J. L., C. G. Jones, D. L. Strayer & O. O. Iribarne. 2003. Mollusks as ecosystem engineers: the role of shell production in aquatic habitats. *Oikos* 101: 79–90.
- Jones, C. G., J. H. Lawton & M. Shachak. 1994. Organisms as ecosystem engineers. *Oikos* **69**: 373–386.
- Jones, C. G., J. H. Lawton & M. Shachak. 1997. Positive and negative effects of organisms as physical ecosystem engineers. *Ecology* **78**: 1946–1957.
- Kaminski, L. A. & A. V. L. Freitas. 2010. Natural history and morphology of immature stages of the butterfly *Allosmaitia strophius* (Godart) (Lepidoptera: Lycaenidae) on flower buds of Malpighiaceae. *Studies on Neotropical Fauna and Environment* 45: 11–19.
- Kupika, O. L., S. Kativu, E. Gandiwa & A. Gumbie. 2014. Impact of African elephants on baobab

- (Adansonia digitata L.) population structure in northern Gonarezhou National Park, Zimbabwe. Tropical Ecology 55: 159–166.
- Lill, J. T. & R. J. Marquis. 2007. Microhabitat manipulation: ecosystem engineering by shelter-building insects. pp. 107–138. In: K. M. D. Cuddington, J. E. Byers, A. Hastings & W. G. Wilson (eds). Ecosystem Engineers: Concepts, Theory, and Applications in Ecology. Elsevier Press. San Diego.
- McDonald, J. R., J. S. Bale & K. F. Walters. 1998. Effect of temperature on development of the western flower thrips, *Frankliniella occidentalis* (Thysanoptera: Thripidae). *European Journal of Entomology* **95**: 301–306.
- McDonald, J. R., J. S. Bale & K. F. A. Walters. 1999. Temperature, development and establishment potential of *Thrips palmi* (Thysanoptera: Thripidae) in the United Kingdom. *European Journal of Entomology* **96**: 169–174.

- Mound, L. A. & I. Terry. 2001. Thrips pollination of the central Australian cycad, *Macrozamia macdonnellii* (Cycadales). *International Journal of Plant Sciences* **162**: 147–154.
- Réu, W. F. & K. Del-Claro. 2005. Natural history and biology of *Chlamisus minax* Lacordaire (Chrysomelidae: Chlamisinae). *Neotropical Entomology* **34**: 357–362.
- Sakai, S. 2001. Thrips pollination of androdioecious Castilla elastica (Moraceae) in a seasonal tropical forest. American Journal of Botany 88: 1527-1534.
- Tsai, J. H., B. Yue, S. E. Webb, J. E. Funderburk & H. T. Hsu. 1995. Effects of host plant and temperature on growth and reproduction of *Thrips palmi* (Thysanoptera: Thripidae). *Environmental Entomology* **24**: 1598–1603.
- Wiesenborn, W. 2000. Desiccation susceptibility of the desert brachypterous thrips *Arpediothrips mojave* Hood (Thysanoptera: Thripidae). *Pan-Pacific Entomologist* **76**: 109–114.

(Received on 14.04.2014 and accepted after revisions, on 27.02.2015)