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1 **Title: Indirect effects of phytochemicals on offspring performance of Queensland fruit**  
2 **fly, *Bactrocera tryoni* (Diptera: Tephritidae)**

3

4 **Short heading:** Effect of male attractants on fruit fly offspring

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19 **Abstract**

20 Phytochemical lures such as methyl eugenol (ME) and cue-lure are used in the management  
21 of *Bactrocera* fruit flies for monitoring and control. These lures are not just attractants, but  
22 also trigger physiological changes in males that lead to enhanced mating success.  
23 Additionally, in the cue-lure responsive *Bactrocera tryoni*, females mated with lure-fed males  
24 exhibit changes in fecundity, remating receptivity and longevity. While the lures show  
25 current generation effects, no research has been done on possible multi-generational effects,  
26 although such effects have been hypothesized within a ‘sexy son’ sexual selection model. In  
27 this study we test for indirect, cross-generational effects of lure exposure in F1 offspring of *B.*  
28 *tryoni* females mated with cue-lure fed, zingerone fed and lure unfed (= control) males. The  
29 F1 attributes we recorded were immature development time, immature survival, adult  
30 survival and adult male lure foraging. No significant differences were found between  
31 treatments for any of the three life history measurements, except that the offspring sired by  
32 zingerone fed males had a longer egg development time than cue-lure and control offspring.  
33 However, indirect exposure to lures significantly enhanced the lure foraging ability of F1  
34 adult males. More offspring of cue-lure fed males arrived at a lure source in both large flight  
35 cages and small laboratory cages over a two-hour period than did control males. The  
36 offspring of zingerone fed males were generally intermediate between cue-lure and control  
37 offspring. This study provides the first evidence of a next generation effect of fruit fly male  
38 lures. While the results of this study support a ‘sexy son’ sexual selection mechanism for the  
39 evolution of lure response in *Bactrocera* fruit flies, our discussion urges caution in  
40 interpreting our results in this way.

41 **Key words:** cue-lure, zingerone, male lures, sexual selection, offspring effects

## 42 **Introduction**

43 The males of many fruit fly species from the Tribe Dacini (Diptera: Tephritidae: Dacinae) are  
44 strongly attracted to plant derived chemicals or their close chemical analogues (Bateman  
45 1972). These chemicals, known in the fruit fly literature as parapheromones or male lures  
46 (referred to in this paper as male lures) elicit strong, positive anemotaxis and chemotactic  
47 feeding responses in male flies (Metcalf et al. 1975). The behavioural attraction of flies to  
48 male lures has been manipulated and used in monitoring and as part of a lure-and-kill  
49 approaches in pest management (Christenson 1963). The two most commonly used male  
50 lures are methyl-eugenol (ME) (4-[allyl-1,2-dimethoxybenzene]) and cue-lure (4-[4-  
51 acetoxyphenyl]-2-butanone), but other lures occur (Drew and Hooper 1981). Methyl-eugenol  
52 is found commonly in nature (Tan and Nishida 2012), while cue-lure is a synthetic chemical  
53 with natural analogues (Porter and Christenson 1960).

54 **In addition to the importance of lures in fruit fly management, their functional role(s) and the**  
55 **evolutionary reasons for lure feeding remain only partially understood** (Shelly 2010). Males  
56 fed on the chemicals accumulate them (or their conversion products) in their rectal glands via  
57 the haemolymph, from where they are subsequently released as part of the male sex  
58 pheromone (Hee and Tan 2005, Hee and Tan 2006). Presumed to be due to the modified  
59 pheromone, lure fed males of many species have a well documented mating advantage over  
60 lure unfed males (Shelly and Villalobos 1995, Shelly and Nishida 2004, Wee et al. 2007,  
61 Shelly et al. 2010). However, the effects of lure feeding have been studied in detail for only a  
62 very small number of the hundreds of fruit fly species which respond to lures, and at least  
63 some results have been shown to vary across species. **For example male mating advantage**  
64 **following lure feeding has been shown in *Bactrocera dorsalis* (Hendel), *Bactrocera***  
65 ***carambolae* (Drew and Hancock) and *Bactrocera tryoni* (Froggatt) (Shelly et al. 2010,**  
66 **Kumaran et al. 2013), but not in *B. cacuminata* (Hering) (Raghu and Clarke 2003); while a**

67 positive male mating effect is long lasting (up to 30days) in the ME responsive *B. dorsalis*  
68 (Shelly and Dewire 1994), it is short (2 - 3 days) in the cue-lure responsive *B. cucurbitae*  
69 (Coquillett) and in the ME responsive *B. carambolae* (Shelly and Villalobos 1995, Wee et al.  
70 2007). The physiology of how the different lures are handled by the flies is also different,  
71 with ME being broken down soon after digestion and before accumulation in the rectal gland,  
72 while cue-lure accumulates in the rectal gland unaltered (Shelly 2010).

73 Nearly all research on fruit fly lures has focused on the direct effects of lure feeding on  
74 males, and almost none on the indirect effects on females mated with lure-fed males. For the  
75 ME responding *B. dorsalis* there is no evidence of effect on females, with females mated with  
76 lure-fed males showing no changes in longevity, total egg production, temporal pattern of egg  
77 production or percentage egg hatch compared to females mated with control males (Shelly  
78 2000). In direct contrast, in the only other study of its sort, Kumaran et al. (2013) found all of  
79 these measures were significantly different for females mated with lure-fed males over  
80 control females for the cue-lure responsive *B. tryoni*. These results, along with the known  
81 differences in the internal processing of ME and cue-lure and the different duration of male  
82 mating impacts (references above), suggests that more research on cue-lure is warranted,  
83 particularly as this lure is generally under-represented in the broader fruit fly lure research  
84 area (Shelly 2010).

85 Given that our previous work (Kumaran et al. 2013) found that mating with lure-fed males  
86 altered the physiology of *B. tryoni* females, we wished to investigate if any changes also  
87 occurred in the progeny of those females (i.e. the F1 generation). More specifically, by  
88 comparing offspring sired by lure-fed and unfed males, the aims of this study are to: i) assess  
89 any indirect physiological effects of lures on the F1 life history traits of immature  
90 development time, immature survival and adult longevity; and ii) to compare lure foraging

91 ability of F1 adult males in order to test the cross-generational effect of male lures in the  
92 context of 'sexy son' explanation for the evolution of lure response. As for our previous  
93 study the cue-lure responsive Queensland fruit fly, *B. tryoni*, served as our model species. As  
94 lures we used both the synthetic cue-lure and the naturally occurring phenolic alkanone,  
95 zingerone. Zingerone is found in orchid blossoms and other plant sources and attracts both  
96 ME and cue-lure responsive flies (Tan and Nishida 2007); physiologically it induces exactly  
97 the same changes in male and female *B. tryoni* as does cue-lure (Kumaran et al. 2013).  
98 Zingerone is less attractive to *B. tryoni* than cue-lure (Fay 2012); however, this chemical is  
99 included in the current study as it is a naturally occurring compound that might help to  
100 answer evolutionary reasons for lure response. Also, as a chemical that attracts both cue-lure  
101 and ME responsive flies, we had *a priori* reason to suspect that the fly's response to  
102 zingerone may not be the same as to cue-lure and so its inclusion increased the breadth of  
103 conclusions we could draw from any findings.

## 104 **Materials and Methods**

### 105 **Insect source**

106 Flies were obtained from a colony maintained by the [Queensland Government] Department  
107 of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry, Brisbane. Flies were maintained in cages (90 cm x 60  
108 cm x 60 cm high) at 27°C and 70% relative humidity in a room illuminated with fluorescent  
109 lights between 0700 and 1600 hours and natural light for the rest of the day. Adults were  
110 sexed within three days of emergence and provided with protein hydrolysate, sugar and water  
111 *ad libitum*. When 14-days old, 15 randomly chosen males were placed in each of 24 small  
112 cages (30 cm x 20 cm x 20 cm high) and provided with 1.5 ml of cue-lure (eight cages), or  
113 zingerone (10ug/ul of 95% ethanol) (eight cages) in a cotton wick on inverted petri dish for  
114 2h: the remaining eight cages were lure-unfed controls. The lure concentration was chosen

115 based on previous studies on *B. cucurbitae* and *B. tryoni* (Shelly and Villalobos 1995; Tan  
116 and Nishida 1995). To obtain offspring, 15 females from the same batch of pupae as were the  
117 males were released into each of the cages and allowed to mate. The following day females  
118 were provided with egg laying cups for egg laying and eggs were collected over three hours; this  
119 was repeated for the following two days (i.e. three days of egg laying in total). The short  
120 duration of sampling was based on previous research which shows the direct effect of cue-  
121 lure on fruit flies only lasts for two to three days in *B. cucurbitae* (Shelly & Villalobos, 1995)  
122 and *B. tryoni* (Kumaran et al. 2013). For each treatment (i.e. the two lures and control), the  
123 eggs were collected for three days and from across the eight cages. Eggs and emerging adults  
124 were randomly used for all the life history and foraging experiments (NB the age of all eggs  
125 used were known and accounted for in development time calculations). The purpose of  
126 splitting treatment flies across cages was so we could more easily observe individual pairs  
127 and so ensure mating had occurred.

## 128 Experiments

### 129 *Developmental time and survival of F1 immature stages*

130 To identify differences in the F1 immature developmental time and survivorship for offspring  
131 sired by lure-fed males and unfed males, eggs from the three treatment groups were placed  
132 individually into the lids of 10ml screw-cap vials filled with carrot media (Heather and  
133 Corcoran 1985) as larval food. These were then placed individually into petri-dishes, partially  
134 filled with vermiculite to serve as a subsequent pupation site. Individual egg hatching was  
135 directly monitored every three hours until all hatching was completed, and then subsequent  
136 larval (the three instars combined) and pupal duration monitored every 12 hours. On adult  
137 emergence the sex of the individual was recorded for sex ratio calculation. The percentage  
138 survival of egg, larval and pupal stages was calculated based on difference between the  
139 number of individuals entering a particular developmental stage and number successfully

140 completing. Sixty eggs were initially set up for each treatment, with the total sample size  
141 reducing over the life of the trial due to mortality. Petri-dishes were held at room  
142 temperature during egg development and at a constant 27°C and 70% relative humidity for  
143 the rest of the observations.

#### 144 *F1 adult survival*

145 On the day of emergence, F1 adults from cue-lure, zingerone and lure-unfed treatments were  
146 placed into small Perspex cages (30 cm x 20 cm x 20 cm high) and provided with water,  
147 sugar and protein hydrolysate (but no lure). Thirty flies (equal sex ratio) were placed into  
148 each cage, and there were eight replicate cages per treatment. The mortality of flies within  
149 the cages was monitored daily for eight weeks.

#### 150 *F1 adult foraging to a lure*

151 This study tested for differences in the ability of offspring sired by lure-fed or unfed males in  
152 foraging to a lure, as measured by the number of F1 adult males landing on a lure source  
153 within a two hour observation period. The experiment was carried out in large field cages  
154 (7m x 7 m x 3.8m high). For each replicate, 30 F1 males (14 - 17 day old) from each of the  
155 cue-lure, zingerone and control treatments were simultaneously released into a cage. Flies  
156 were marked with non-toxic paint on their thoraces for identification; preliminary  
157 observations showed no effect of marking. Further, the colours were rotated amongst the  
158 treatment groups to avoid any hidden effects. The lure sources (either 1.5ml of cue-lure or  
159 zingerone on cotton wicks) were exposed at a height of 110 cm on plastic plants at each of  
160 three locations randomly chosen with uniform distance to each other and to cage walls; only  
161 one lure type was tested in a given trial. The number of flies locating the lure (three sources  
162 combined) was recorded for two hours between 0800 and 1000h, which is the major time of  
163 lure response for *B. tryoni* (Brieze-Stegeman et al. 1978). Eight replicate cages were run for



164 each of the cue-lure and zingerone trials, and on a given day four cages (two replicates each  
165 for cue-lure and zingerone) were run.

166 Because of an unexpected result, the experiment was repeated in the laboratory using small  
167 cages (30cm x 20 cm x 20 cm high), with 30 males per cage. Flies were not marked this time  
168 and the three F1 treatment groups were maintained in separate cages for observation, which  
169 were otherwise identical to the field cage trial except that only one lure source was provided.  
170 Four replicate cages for each treatment/lure combination (e.g. F1 adults of cue-lure mated  
171 females exposed to zingerone source) were run.

## 172 **Statistical analysis**

173 Differences in F1 egg, larval and pupal duration, as well as response of F1 adults to a lure  
174 source, were compared using one-way ANOVA with *post hoc* comparisons of means done  
175 using Tukey's HSD test. The probability of survival of immature stages was subjected to  
176 logistic analysis with the significance tested using the likelihood ratio test. F1 adult survival  
177 was analysed using survival analysis with significance tested using Cox proportional hazard  
178 test, and differences in cumulative survival analysed using one-way ANOVA. The sex ratio  
179 of emergent F1 adults for each lure treatment was tested for deviation from the 1:1 sex ratio  
180 normal for *B. tryoni* (Khan 2013). A Chi-square test of proportions was carried out for  
181 females, assuming the expected value was 50% of the sampled population size. All data  
182 before analyses were checked for assumptions of homogeneity of variance and any violation  
183 was corrected by appropriate data transformation. The probability level was set as  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

## 184 **Results**

### 185 **Developmental time of F1 immature stages**

186 Egg developmental time significantly differed among treatments ( $F_{2, 154} = 4.39$ ;  $P = 0.041$ ).  
187 Post-hoc analysis showed eggs from females mated with zingerone fed males had  
188 significantly longer development duration than control eggs, with the development duration  
189 of eggs from females mated with cue-lure fed males intermediate between the two, and not  
190 significantly different from either. Larval ( $F_{2, 117} = 0.944$ ;  $P = 0.392$ ), pupal ( $F_{2, 110} = 1.654$ ;  $P$   
191  $= 0.196$ ) and total immature ( $F_{2, 110} = 3.152$ ;  $P = 0.057$ ) development time did not  
192 significantly differ among treatments (Table 1).

### 193 **Survival of F1 immature stages and sex ratio**

194 There were no significant differences in likelihood of survival for eggs ( $b = 1.83 \pm 0.22$ ;  $\chi^2 =$   
195  $1.21$ ;  $P = 0.547$ ), larvae ( $b = 1.19 \pm 0.19$ ;  $\chi^2 = 3.21$ ;  $P = 0.200$ ) and pupae ( $b = 2.76 \pm 0.39$ ;  $\chi^2$   
196  $= 1.62$ ;  $P = 0.445$ ) among offspring sired by cue-lure fed, zingerone fed and unfed males  
197 (Table 1). The observed sex ratio of emergent adults was 1.5:1 (female: male), 1.3:1 and  
198 1.2:1 for cue-lure, zingerone and control offspring respectively; none of which differed  
199 significantly from a 1:1 expected sex ratio (cue-lure  $\chi^2 = 1.225$ ; zingerone  $\chi^2 = 0.658$ ; control  
200  $\chi^2 = 0.121$ ; for  $df = 1$ ,  $P = 0.05$ , critical  $\chi^2 = 3.84$ ).

### 201 **F1 adult survival**

202 Adult longevity did not differ among treatments for either sex (male:  $F_{2, 23} = 0.381$ ;  $P =$   
203  $0.688$ ; female:  $F_{2, 23} = 0.452$ ;  $P = 0.643$ ). During the eight week observation period, the  
204 cumulative male mortality observed in cue-lure, zingerone and control offspring was  $17.9 \pm$   
205  $2.6$ ,  $15.8 \pm 1.8$  and  $18.3 \pm 3.1\%$ , respectively; the same data for females was, respectively,  
206  $28.8 \pm 2.1$ ,  $26.3 \pm 1.6$  and  $25.4 \pm 2.8\%$ . Cox proportional hazard analysis showed no  
207 significant difference among treatments with time lapsed (male:  $\chi^2 = 0.376$ ;  $P = 0.540$ ;  
208 female:  $\chi^2 = 0.128$ ;  $P = 0.720$ ), with the mortality trend over time similar among treatment  
209 for both males and females (Fig. 1).

## 210 **F1 adult foraging to a lure**

211 In the large field cages, there were significant treatment effects with respect to F1 adults  
212 foraging to cue-lure ( $F_{2, 23} = 3.81$ ;  $P = 0.039$ ). A significantly higher proportion of offspring  
213 from females mated with cue-lure exposed males located the cue-lure source than either the  
214 zingerone or control offspring, which were not significantly different to each other (Fig. 2A).  
215 A similar pattern was seen in the trials testing fly response to zingerone, where again  
216 significant treatment effects were observed ( $F_{2, 23} = 4.29$ ;  $P = 0.027$ ). In this trial F1 male  
217 adults of the cue-lure treatment again showed a significantly stronger response than control  
218 males, but additionally in this trial the response of F1 males sired by zingerone fed flies were  
219 intermediate between the cue-lure and control males, and not significantly different from  
220 either (Fig. 2B).

221 When repeating the experiments in small cages, similar results were obtained to the large  
222 cages. There were significant treatment effects in both the cue-lure ( $F_{2, 11} = 3.93$ ;  $P = 0.039$ )  
223 and zingerone ( $F_{2, 11} = 6.78$ ;  $P = 0.016$ ) lure trials and the general patterns of fly response  
224 were identical between trials. Significantly higher proportions of cue-lure offspring foraged  
225 to cue-lure or zingerone than the respective control offspring; while the zingerone offspring  
226 were intermediate in lure response to the cue-lure and control offspring and were not  
227 statistically different to either (Fig. 3).

## 228 **Discussion**

### 229 **Summary of results**

230 In *B. tryoni* we studied possible indirect effects of two male lures (cue-lure and  
231 zingerone) on the lure foraging ability and selected life history traits of F1 offspring sired by  
232 lure-fed and unfed males. In both large field cages and small laboratory cages more offspring  
233 sired by cue-lure fed males arrived at cue-lure and zingerone sources than offspring of lure

234 unfed males (= control flies), with the offspring of zingerone fed males generally  
235 intermediate between the two. Lure-feeding by the sire had few if any effects on the  
236 measured F1 life-history traits, with a minor increase in F1 egg development time for the  
237 zingerone fed treatment being the only significant difference between treatment and control  
238 flies. While restricted to changes in lure foraging, this study still provides the first evidence  
239 for multi-generation effects of a male lure on a tephritid fruit fly and, when combined with  
240 our earlier work (Kumaran et al. 2013), suggests that lures have positive effects for *B. tryoni*  
241 on both the parental generation and, in the context of the ‘sexy son hypothesis’, on the F1  
242 generation.

### 243 **Evolutionary reasons for lure feeding**

244 Lure feeding in tephritid fruit flies is presumed to be a trait associated with sexual selection  
245 as males of most species have enhanced mating success when fed on either methyl-eugenol or  
246 cue-lure (depending on the fruit fly species) (Shelly 2010). However, no direct female  
247 benefits were detected when *B. dorsalis* females mated with ME-fed males and, assuming  
248 that increased mating success was due to modified female choice, this led Shelly (2000) to  
249 hypothesise two reasons as to why females may select lure-fed males. Firstly, he suggested  
250 that females may have inherent sensory bias to the lures and so were simply responding to  
251 males which produced those chemicals. Secondly, he suggested that females may selectively  
252 mate with lure-fed males because such matings may confer indirect benefits to the females  
253 via sexy sons (sensu Weatherhead and Robertson 1979), i.e. the sons inherit their father’s lure  
254 foraging ability and so ultimately have a greater chance of passing on the female’s genes. In  
255 *B. tryoni* we have previously found enhanced male mating success following male lure  
256 feeding, but we have also found direct female benefits. As definitions of ‘sexy-son’ sexual  
257 selection require that there be no direct parental female benefits (Weatherhead and Robertson  
258 1979), this led us to propose that while lure feeding is indeed a trait involved in sexual

259 selection for *B. tryoni*, the evolution of the lure response in this species is unlikely to be  
260 driven by sexy-son selection (Kumaran et al., 2013).

261 In contrast to our earlier work, the data presented in this paper clearly supports a ‘sexy son’  
262 effect of lures; matings between cue-lure fed males and mothers produced sons which had (at  
263 least in cages) an enhanced ability to locate lures. This means, for *B. tryoni* and cue-lure, that  
264 the ‘sexy son’ concept demands further attention. However, it is important to note that the  
265 aim of the current study was not to explicitly test sexy-son theory in dachine fruit flies; rather  
266 it was to test for possible physiological effects of lure exposure on the parental population to  
267 the F1 generation. To test the sexy-son hypothesis robustly requires a complex multi-  
268 generation study, assessing trait heritability and changes in mating and foraging success  
269 within known lineages. For *B. tryoni*, regardless of the outcome of such a trial, the sexy-son  
270 theory as the evolutionary driver for lure response in dachine tephritids cannot be the exclusive  
271 answer because of **known direct female benefits, such as increased life-time fecundity of**  
272 **females mated with lure-fed males** (Kumaran et al. 2013). However, in a species such as *B.*  
273 *dorsalis* where no current generation female affects are known (Shelly 2000), then sexy-son  
274 selection may still be an exclusive evolutionary mechanism for the development of lure  
275 response if a multi-generational lure effect is demonstrated.

276 Phytochemical lures appear to be an integral part of fruit fly ecology and, following the  
277 outcomes of this paper, there are now documented direct or indirect effects of lures on males  
278 feeding on those lures, females mating with lure-fed males and offspring sired by lure-fed  
279 males. Lures are indeed likely a sexual selection trait that provides various fitness and genetic  
280 benefits, but differences in how the lures act at an individual species level suggests that trying  
281 to slot the evolution of lure response into a particular theoretical sexual selection ‘pigeon-  
282 hole’ is unlikely to be helpful. Rather, as detailed studies are carried out on more species of

283 fruit fly, it appears that most progress will be made through independent assessments of how  
284 the lures directly and indirectly affect the physiology and behavior of individual species. We  
285 suggest that to fully understand the evolution of lure response and their functional  
286 significance to fruit flies, future studies should concentrate on how lures directly impact on  
287 male physiology and behavior leading to mating benefits, and the underlying mechanisms  
288 (e.g. accessory gland proteins, Radhakrishnan and Taylor 2007, Avila et al. 2011) that trigger  
289 indirect responses in females and their offspring.

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359

## 360 **Figure Legends**

361 **Figure 1.** Proportionate survival over eight weeks from initial emergence of adult *Bactrocera*  
362 *tryoni* A) males and B) females. The flies are the F1 offspring of females mated with cue-  
363 lure fed, zingerone fed or lure unfed males.

364 **Figure 2.** Mean percentage (+SE) of offspring sired by cue-lure fed, zingerone fed and unfed  
365 males foraging to (A) cue-lure and (B) zingerone in large field cages.

366 **Figure 3.** Mean percentage (+SE) of offspring sired by cue-lure fed, zingerone fed and unfed  
367 males foraging to (A) cue-lure (B) zingerone in small cages in the laboratory.