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1	Changed host plant volatile emissions induced by chemical interaction between unattacked
2	plants reduce aphid plant acceptance with intermorph variation
3	
4	Iris Dahlin ¹ , Andja Vucetic ^{1,2} , Velemir Ninkovic ¹ *
5	¹ Department of Crop Production Ecology, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, PO
6	_Box 7043, SE-75007 Uppsala, Sweden.
7	² Faculty of Agriculture, University of Belgrade, Serbia.
8	[*] Corresponding author, <u>velemir.ninkovic@slu.se</u> , tel: +46 18 672 541, fax: +46 18 672 890.
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10	
11	Abstract
12	Olfactory orientation by aphids is guided by specific volatile blends released from their
13	hosts. Host plants that co-exist with other plants may be less attractive for aphids due to volatile
14	interactions between neighboring plants which can lead to changes in their volatile emissions.
15	These changes in host plant volatile profiles induced by interactions between undamaged plants
16	could be used to manage aphid populations in crops. When potato plants are exposed to volatiles
17	from onion plants, the volatile profile of potato changes in relation to that of unexposed plants
18	with consistently greater quantities of two terpenoids released. We examined the host plant
19	searching behavior of aphids and showed that induced changes in plant volatile emissions affect

20 aphid behavior. We assessed olfactory responses of winged and wingless aphids, *Myzus persicae*

21 Sulzer (Hemiptera: Aphididae) to the changed volatile emissions. Both morphs were

significantly less attracted to odors of potato plants that had been exposed to volatiles from onion

than to odors of unexposed potato plants. Further, both morphs were significantly less attracted

24 to synthetic blends mimicking volatiles emitted by onion-exposed potato plants than to blends

25	mimicking non-exposed controls, and to single compounds emitted in greater quantities by
26	exposed potato. Aphid morphs were repelled differently depending on the concentration of odor
27	sources; winged aphids responded to higher doses than did wingless aphids. The aphid responses
28	to changes in plant volatile profiles induced by neighboring plants may facilitate refinement of
29	habitat manipulation strategies (e.g. intercropping) for integrated pest management to reduce
30	aphid occurrence in crops.
31	Keywords
32	Alatae, apterae, Myzus persicae, olfactory response, plant interaction, volatile chemicals
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34	
35	Key Message
36	• Polyphagous aphids use plant odors in their host plant detection.
37	• Co-existence with other plant species may change volatile emission of aphid host plants.
38	• Green peach aphids are less attracted to hosts with changed volatile profiles.
39	• Winged and wingless aphids respond differently to those changes.
40	• Winged aphid responded to higher concentration of odour sources than wingless morphs.
41	• Habitat manipulation strategies within crop field (e.g. intercropping) can be developed to
42	disrupt aphid orientation and prevent their establishment as a pest.
43	
44	Author Contribution Statement
45	VN conceived and designed the experiments. ID and AV performed the experiments. VN
46	analyzed the data. ID, VN and AV wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the
47	manuscript.

48 Introduction

49 The green peach aphid, Myzus persicae Sulzer (Hemiptera: Aphididae), is a polyphagous aphid pest with high ecological and agronomical importance worldwide, mainly because it is a vector 50 of viruses of many crops including potato (Solanaceae: Solanum tuberosum L.). Myzus persicae 51 52 has developed resistance to at least 70 synthetic compounds and various insecticide resistance 53 mechanisms have been reported worldwide (Silva et al. 2012). So far, there is no alternative to insecticides to control populations of these insects, thus alternative strategies are highly sought 54 55 after. By understanding how aphids locate their host plants, it may become possible to develop 56 alternatives of controlling populations by taking advantage of functional cues in their host location behavior. As an extremely polyphagous aphid it was previously considered that M. 57 persicae does not use olfactory cues from plants in its searching behavior (Hori 1999; Vargas et 58 al. 2005). However, in the last decade it has been shown that *M. persicae* may respond to plant 59 volatiles released from healthy and damaged plants (Eigenbrode 2002; Ngumbi et al. 2007; 60 Alvares et al. 2007; Boquel et al. 2011; Verheggen et al. 2013; Rajabaskar et al. 2013a; Ninkovic 61 et al. 2013). Thus, its olfactory responses to volatile signals may be an important target for 62 63 disrupting its host searching behavior.

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Plants release a variety of different volatile compounds providing herbivore insects with information that allows them to discriminate between host and non-host plants. As well as using volatiles to determine taxonomic identity, aphids can also use plant volatiles to discriminate between the suitability of different plants within the same species (Webster 2012). The emission of volatiles from plants is significantly changed in plants under stress caused by abiotic factors (Gouinguene and Turlings 2002), mechanical damage (Piesik et al. 2010), pathogens (Rajabaskar et al. 2013b), herbivory (Arimura et al. 2009) or co-existence with other con- and heterospecific

72 plants (Ninkovic et al. 2002; Ninkovic 2003; Le Guigo et al. 2010; Glinwood et al. 2011) than in unstressed plants. These changes in their volatile profiles can play important roles in aphid 73 behavior and host plant search. Recently, Ninkovic et al. (2013) found that winged M. persicae 74 prefer the odor of unexposed potato plants to the odor of potato plants previously exposed to 75 76 onion plants. The exposure resulted in greater production of two terpenoids, (E)-nerolidol and 77 (3E, 7E) - 4, 8, 12-trimethyl-1, 3, 7, 11-tridecatetraene (TMTT), both of which are involved in indirect defenses of plants against herbivorous insects (Degenhardt and Gershenzon 2000; 78 Pophof et al. 2005; Arimura et al. 2009). The changes in volatile emissions of host plants 79 80 induced by the exposure to volatiles from neighboring plants reduced plant acceptance of winged aphids. Further this can be one of explanations for the reduced abundance of winged *M. persicae* 81 observed in the field where potatoes were intercropped with onion (Ninkovic et al. 2013). 82

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Many aphid species have several distinct morphs during their life cycle, which may 84 specialize on different ranges of host plants and have differing behavioral responses to these 85 plants (Powell and Hardie 2001). Numerous studies have confirmed that volatiles strongly 86 influence the searching behavior of aphids (Beyaert et al. 2010; Webster 2012), but most have 87 88 focused on only one morph, thus there is little information on between-morph differences in responses to volatiles. The behavior and ecological functions of winged and wingless aphids 89 differ because of their morphological divergence. Aphids perceive plant odors with olfactory 90 91 sensilla (rhinaria) on their antennae. Secondary rhinaria are much more abundant in winged aphids than in wingless insects, suggesting that these structures might be involved in host 92 93 location and mate selection (Blackman and Eastop 2000; Sun et al. 2012). Given that winged 94 virginoparae are mostly responsible for finding and colonizing new secondary hosts (Klingauf

1987; Blackman 1990), we hypothesize that winged morphs will show different behavioral
responses to plant volatiles than wingless morphs.

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The aim of the study presented here was to investigate whether winged and wingless M. 98 persicae respond differently to changes in volatile emissions of their hosts. Through their higher 99 100 mobility, winged aphids have the ability for the establishment of new colonies, while wingless aphids have greater impact in their population development due to their higher reproduction rate 101 (Dixon 1985). If both respond negatively, changes in volatile emissions of plants would be an 102 103 effective target in pest control. We studied aphid olfactory responses to volatile interactions of 104 onion and potato plants in laboratory experiments using living plants, synthetic blends of plant volatiles and single volatile compounds. The synthetic blends were designed to emulate natural 105 106 odors from host plants with and without modification by exposure to volatiles from neighboring onion plants. 107

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110 Materials and Methods

111 Plants and insects

112 We obtained potato tubers (Solanaceae: Solanum tuberosum, L.cv. Sava) from Lantmännen,

113 Sweden, and onion bulbs (Amaryllidaceae: *Allium cepa*, L.cv. Stuttgarter Riesen) from Weibulls

Horto, Sweden. We placed them individually in potting soil (Special Hasselfors garden,

Hasselfors, Sweden) in plastic pots (8 x 8 x 8 cm) and grew plants in a greenhouse maintained at

116 18-22°C with 16 h:8 h light:dark cycles, using HQIE lamps to extend the natural photoperiod as

117 required. To prevent interaction among plants during the pre-experimental period, onion and

potato plants were grown in separate greenhouse chambers, and to avoid emissions of
mechanically damage-related volatiles, only visibly undamaged plants (aged three weeks) were
used in the experiments.

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Adult winged and wingless individuals of *M. persicae* derived from a stock culture were grown on potted rapeseed plants (Brassicaceae: *Brassica napus* L.) under similar conditions to the test plants, but in different climate chambers. Production of winged aphids was induced by crowding under long-day conditions. Winged aphids after first take-off were used for behavioral experiments.

127

Potato plants were exposed to volatiles from onion plants in a series of 'two-chamber cage' 128 129 experiments (Ninkovic et al. 2002), as follows. We placed a series of clear perspex cages in a greenhouse maintained at 18-22°C with 16 h:8 h dark cycles (as above). The cages were divided 130 into two 10 x 10 x 40 cm chambers (inducing and responding) connected by a 7 cm diameter 131 132 opening in the dividing wall. Air was introduced into the system through the inducing chamber with an onion plant, passed through the hole in the dividing wall into the responding chamber 133 134 with a potato plant. From the responding chambers air was extracted through a tube attached to a vacuum tank and then vented outside the room by an electric fan preventing that the plants 135 volatiles contaminate the greenhouse. The inducing chamber was left empty for the control 136 treatment. Airflow through the system was adjusted to 1.3 l min⁻¹. Individual pots were watered 137 using an automated drop system (DGT Volmatic) and placed in separate Petri dishes in the 138 139 chambers to prevent root exudates affecting other plants. Exposure time was set to five days,

based on previous studies of volatile interactions between plants (Ninkovic et al. 2013). The
plants were used for olfactometer studies immediately after exposure.

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144 Olfactory bioassays with plants

Olfactory responses of aphids were measured using a two-way airflow olfactometer consisting of 145 two stimulus zones, arms (length 4cm) directly opposite each other connected by a neutral 146 central zone (2.5 x 2.5 cm) separating them (Ninkovic et al. 2013). Airflow in the olfactometer 147 148 was set to 180 ml/min, which established discrete air currents in the side zones. Test aphids were randomly collected from the cultures using a fine paintbrush and placed in Petri dishes with 149 moistened filter paper to prevent dehydration. The aphids were then left in the bioassay room for 150 151 at least 2 h to acclimatize prior to the experiments. A single aphid was then introduced into the central zone of the olfactometer through a hole in the top and after an adaptation period of 10 152 min, the position of the aphid in the arms, defined as a visit, was recorded at three minute 153 154 intervals over a 30 min period. The accumulated number of visits of a single aphid in a single arm after ten recordings was regarded as one replicate. Observations of individual aphids in the 155 156 central zone cannot conclusively be related to one of the arm zones and are therefore excluded from the analysis. Data were expressed as mean of individual aphid visits per olfactometer arm 157 during observation period. To avoid pseudoreplication, each aphid was only tested once and a 158 159 clean olfactometer was used for each aphid. The test was terminated if an aphid did not move for longer than 10 minutes and these individuals were not included in the analysis. The 160 olfactometers were washed with 10% Teepol L (TEEPOL, Kent, UK) and rinsed with 80% 161 ethanol solution and distilled water and left to air dry. If an aphid did not move for more than 10 162

min the test was terminated and data for these individuals were not included in the analysis.
Before introducing each test insect the olfactometer was rotated 180° to avoid positional bias.
The number of replicates, individual aphids tested, varied between 15 and 21 per experiment.

In tests with plants we compared the aphids' preferences for odors from: (a) a potato plant 167 168 previously exposed to an onion plant versus an unexposed potato plant, (b) a combination of an unexposed potato and an onion plant versus two unexposed potato plants, (c) an unexposed 169 potato plant versus an onion plant, (d) an unexposed potato plant versus soil with no plants, and 170 171 (e) an onion plant versus soil with no plants. The two-chamber cages containing plants used as 172 odor sources were connected directly to the arms of the olfactometer (Markovic et al. 2014). For (b), the two plants on each side of the olfactometer were in separate cages and connected to the 173 174 inlet of the olfactometer by y-connectors to prevent interaction. The airflow in all olfactometer tests was set to 180 ml/min driven by a sucking pump. The pots with soil but no plants were used 175 to account for variations in moisture levels between the chambers with and without plants. 176

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178 Olfactory bioassays with chemicals

We also investigated whether winged and wingless aphids respond differently to the odors of
plants and to synthetic blends mimicking volatile profiles of onion-exposed and unexposed
potato plants. For the latter, we used serial dilutions of synthetic blends based on previous
chemical analyses of the volatile profiles of potato plants (Ninkovic et al. 2013). The blend
mimicking volatiles of onion-exposed potato plants consisted of 0.05 ng/µl (*E*)-2-hexenal; 0.04
ng/µl (*Z*)-3-hexen-1-ol; 0.48 ng/µl myrcene; 0.03 ng/µl limonene; 0.225 ng/µl linalool; 0.25
ng/µl (*Z*)- 4,8-dimethyl-1,3,7-nonatriene; 1.24 ng/µl (*E*)- 4,8-dimethyl-1,3,7-nonatriene; 0.95

186	ng/μl α-copaene; 0.03 ng/μl α-cedrene; 0.2 ng/μl (<i>E</i>)-caryophyllene; 0.09 ng/μl (<i>E</i>)-β-farnesene;
187	0.2 ng/µl (<i>E</i>)-nerolidol; 0.5 ng/µl (3 <i>E</i> ,7 <i>E</i>)-4,8,12-trimethyl-1,3,7,11-tridecatetraene. The blend
188	mimicking unexposed plants consisted of 0.056 ng/ μ l (<i>E</i>)-2-hexenal; 0.05 ng/ μ l (<i>Z</i>)-3-hexen-1-
189	ol; 0.54 ng/µl myrcene; 0.03 ng/µl limonene; 0.085 ng/µl linalool; 0.3 ng/µl (Z)- 4,8-dimethyl-
190	1,3,7-nonatriene; 0.67 ng/µl (<i>E</i>)- 4,8-dimethyl-1,3,7-nonatriene; 0.7 ng/µl α -copaene; 0.03 ng/µl
191	α-cedrene; 0.155 ng/µl (<i>E</i>)-caryophyllene; 0.1 ng/µl (<i>E</i>)-β-farnesene; 0.03 ng/µl (<i>E</i>)-nerolidol;
192	0.125 ng/µl (3E,7E)-4,8,12-trimethyl-1,3,7,11-tridecatetraene. We compared aphid olfactory
193	responses to these synthetic blends by adding them in 10 μ l micro caps to small pieces of filter
194	paper, allowing them to evaporate for 30 s, and placing the pieces into 2.5 mm diameter glass
195	tubes connected to holes in the sides of the olfactometer arms. Test concentrations in the
196	olfactometer were 1/100, 1/10, 1, 10 and 100 times the reported amount of volatiles emitted from
197	the plants during a period of 24 hours.

Since onion-exposed potatoes emit significantly more (*E*)-nerolidol and TMTT than unexposed potatoes, according to Ninkovic et al. (2013), we also investigated responses of winged and wingless aphids to these compounds, individually, at five concentrations (0.01, 0.1, 1, 10, and 100 ng μ l⁻¹) in a series of dose-response olfactometer experiments with redistilled nhexane as a control.

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205 Statistical analyses

Wilcoxon matched pairs tests were used to compare the number of aphid visits to each olfactometer arm in the olfactory bioassays using Statistica version 10 software (StatSoft Inc., 208 2011), setting a significance level of p = 0.05.

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211 **Results**

The main achievements of the study are summarized graphically in Figure 1.

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214 Olfactory responses of the aphids to odors from plants

According to numbers of recorded visits to the olfactometer arms both winged and wingless M.

216 *persicae* aphids significantly preferred the odor of unexposed potato plants to the odor of onion-

exposed potato plants (Z = 3.57, p = 0.0004, n = 18 and Z = 2,012, p = 0.04, n = 17, respectively)

218 (Fig. 2). The *p*-values indicate that winged *M. persicae* were more sensitive to the difference in

volatile emissions from their host plant than the wingless morphs. In addition, neither winged nor

wingless *M. persicae* preferred the odor of unexposed potato plants to those of associated potato

and onion plants (Z = 1.85, p = 0.06, n = 18 and Z = 1.136, p = 0.3, n = 15, respectively).

However, while winged *M. persicae* preferred the odor of unexposed potato plants to the odor of 222 223 onion plants (Z = 3.42, p = 0.0006, n = 19), wingless morphs showed no preference for these options (Z = 1.704, p = 0.09, n = 17). Both winged and wingless morphs significantly preferred 224 225 the odor of unexposed potato plants, their secondary host, to the odor of soil with no plants (Z =3.51, p = 0.0005, n = 20; and Z = 2.09, p = 0.036, n = 20, respectively). The odor of onion plants 226 did not repel the aphids; neither winged nor wingless *M. persicae* showed a preference between 227 onion plants and soil with no plants (Z = 0.852, p = 0.4, n = 21; and Z = 0.327, p = 0.7, n = 18, 228 respectively). 229

230

231 Olfactory responses of the aphids to plant volatiles

Winged *M. persicae* only showed statistically significant responses to the mixture of synthetic volatiles at high doses: 10 ng μ l⁻¹ (Z = 2.97, p = 0.003, n = 19) and 100 ng μ l⁻¹ (Z = 2.43, p = 0.015, n = 21) (Fig. 3a), while wingless morphs reacted only to the lowest test doses: 0.01 ng μ l⁻¹ (Z = 2.68, p = 0.007, n = 21) and 1 ng μ l⁻¹ (Z = 2.52, p = 0.01, n = 21) (Fig. 3b). However, both winged and wingless *M. persicae* showed a clear ability to discriminate between the synthetic blends of onion-exposed and unexposed potato plants.

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As shown in Fig. 4, winged morphs visited the olfactometer arm containing the highest doses of (*E*)-nerolidol significantly less than the control: 100 ng μ l⁻¹ (Z = 2.56, *p* = 0.01, n = 17) and 10 ng μ l-1 (Z = 2.46, *p* = 0.01, n = 18), while wingless morphs showed this preferential response to four of five used concentrations: 100 ng μ l⁻¹ (Z = 2.72, *p* = 0.007, n = 18), 10 ng μ l-1 (Z = 3.18, *p* = 0.002, n = 18), 1 ng μ l⁻¹, (Z = 2.11, *p* = 0.04, n = 18) and 0.1 ng μ l-1 (Z = 2.11, *p* = 0.04, n = 19).

245

When TMTT was used as the test volatile, winged morphs visited the arm offering it at the highest tested concentration, 100 ng μ l⁻¹ (Z = 2.63, *p* = 0.009, n = 17), significantly less often than the control, while wingless morphs significantly responded in this manner to 10, 0.1, and 0.01 ng μ l⁻¹ doses of TMTT (Z = 1.99, *p* = 0.046, n = 19; Z = 2.46, *p* = 0.01, n = 20; and Z = 2.64, *p* = 0.008, n = 18, respectively) (Fig. 5).

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253 Discussion

254 The importance of plant volatiles in searching behavior of extremely polyphagous aphids such as *M. persicae* for a host plant is still unclear. Some studies have shown the unimportance of 255 olfactory cues for this aphid (e.g. 1959; Hori, 1999; Vargas et al., 2005). However our results 256 and some others have clearly shown that *M. persicae* responds to olfactory cues released from 257 one of its secondary hosts (Eigenbrode et al. 2002; Ngumbi et al. 2007; Amarawardana et al. 258 259 2007; Ninkovic et al. 2013). The presented results also show that both winged and wingless M. persicae morphs can detect slight changes in concentrations and profiles of host plant's volatiles, 260 including changes induced by exposure to volatiles from another plant. These findings 261 262 demonstrate that volatile signals may be stimulants in the process of plant acceptance even for polyphagous aphids, confirming that aphids are heavily dependent on olfactory cues when 263 searching for a suitable host in complex habitats (Pettersson et al. 2007; Webster 2012). 264

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267 Olfactory responses of aphids to odors from plants

Host plants that co-exist with other plants may be less attractive and suitable for aphids due to 268 induced resistance from their association with neighboring plants (Dahlin and Ninkovic 2013). 269 270 Ninkovic et al. (2013) found that the migration of *M. persicae* into a potato field was significantly reduced when potato plants were sown together with onion plants due to the change 271 in volatile emissions from potato plants making them less attractive for winged aphids. Our 272 273 results confirm this interactive effect of volatiles from different plants for both winged and wingless *M. persicae*. Similar effects have been observed for the response of the wingless 274 oligophagous aphid Rhopalosiphum padi L. (Hemiptera: Aphididae) to barley plants exposed to 275 276 volatiles from weeds (Glinwood et al. 2004; Ninkovic et al. 2009; Dahlin and Ninkovic 2013) or

other barley cultivars (Ninkovic et al. 2002; Kellner et al. 2010). These volatile interactions can
reduce the attraction of potential host plants for wingless aphids as well as for flying, hostseeking aphids, which may have profound consequences for the establishment of new colonies
by wingless aphids and hence aphid numbers (Wiktelius 1989; Ninkovic and Åhman 2009).

281

282 In other studies it has been speculated that intercropped plants may mask olfactory cues used by herbivores to find their hosts (Randlkofer et al. 2010; Finch and Collier 2012). However, 283 we found that onion plants did not mask the odor of potato plants for *M. persicae*; a mixture of 284 285 odors from onion and potato plants was as attractive as the odor of only potato plants. This suggests a mechanism based on volatile exchange between plants rather than odor masking. The 286 ability to locate and recognize host plants is essential for the survival of aphids; they can detect 287 288 slight changes in volatile emissions of their secondary hosts, even changes induced by interaction with neighboring plants. The changes in volatile emission have informative value for the aphids 289 in terms of the host plant quality (Pickett and Glinwood 2007). The ability of onion to induce 290 291 changes in potato volatile emission, reducing their attraction for *M. persicae*, can have a great 292 potential as aphid control agent. Thus, intercropping with onion plants or plants that emit similar 293 volatiles may substantially improve integrated pest management in potato fields. Volatile compounds released from living plants could also be used in integrated pest management 294 strategies against other pests such as thrips (Egger and Koschier 2014). 295

296

297 Olfactory responses of aphids to odors from synthetic blends and single volatile compounds

298 Aphids perceive plant odors through highly specialized olfactory receptor neurons. The

similarity of the responses of both winged and wingless *M. persicae* to the synthetic blends of

300 volatiles and living plants we observed suggests that blends of chemicals can adequately 301 represent the fragrances of onion-exposed and unexposed potato plants. For both aphid morphs the synthetic blend of exposed plants was significantly less attractive than the blend from 302 303 unexposed potato plants, but winged and wingless morphs were sensitive to different doses of 304 the blends. Flying aphids should be able to discriminate different plant odors from greater 305 distance than wingless morphs that tend to migrate locally within a reduced range of host (Wiktelius 1989). Alate aphids possess more olfactory sensilla than apterous forms, thus alate 306 aphid forms of Sitobion avenae have higher sensitivities and selectivity to leaf odor components 307 308 than apterous (Yan and Visser 1982).

309

Aphids recognize and locate their hosts by detecting emissions of characteristic blends of 310 volatile compounds, and respond more strongly to blends than to individual components (as 311 reviewed in Bruce and Pickett 2011). However, concentrations of single compounds in blends 312 can play a critical role in aphids' acceptance of host plants. We found that winged and wingless 313 314 aphids responded negatively to both the single compounds (E)-nerolidol and TMTT, which are released in higher amounts by potato plants that have been exposed to onion plants (Ninkovic et 315 316 al. 2013), and to synthetic blends made of these compounds together with other compounds released by potatoes. Thus, TMTT and (E)-nerolidol might act as signals for the location of 317 aphid host plants, but as repellents if the emission of these chemicals is increased in fields by 318 319 diverse plant associations (Hedge et al. 2011; Kos et al. 2013; Markovic et al. 2014).

320

Our finding that winged aphids responded to relatively high concentrations of single
volatile compounds released by plants, is in accordance with previous reports (Webster et al.

323 2010; Hori 1998), while wingless individuals responded to low concentrations of the synthetic 324 blend of volatiles, and TMTT. A possible explanation for this is that small changes in odor emissions of host plants are more important for wingless aphids than huge deviations. Wingless 325 326 aphids are usually in closer contact with plants and their odors. Huge concentrations of odors 327 from exposed plants are overwhelming and unrecognizable for them, and thus these odors are 328 meaningless and without benefit for wingless aphids that usually have low intention to leave a host plant. However, (E)-nerolidol was effective at a wide range of doses, repelling wingless 329 aphids across the range of test concentrations. Morphs of other aphid species such as Sitobion 330 331 avenae (F.) and R. padi also reportedly have differing capacities to detect volatile semiochemicals (Yan and Visser 1982; Quiroz and Niemeyer 1998). An important difference 332 between winged and wingless aphids is the greater abundance of secondary rhinaria on the 333 antennae of winged morphs (Pickett et al. 1992), but the function of these organs is still 334 unknown. Pickett and colleagues (1992) suggested that they might play a role in host searching 335 behavior and mate selection, but they have no proven role in the detection of plant odors (Hardie 336 337 et al. 1994; Park et al. 2000; Park and Hardie 2004).

338

Integrated pest management based on plant-insect relationships is a promising method as alternative strategy to decrease the excessive reliance on insecticides. By understanding how different aphid morphs locate their host plants, it is possible to control populations by taking advantage of functional cues in their host location behavior. Through manipulation of botanical composition in crop fields (e.g. by intercropping), aphid orientation may be disrupted reducing their abundance and prevent their establishment as a pest. Based on our findings about the volatile interactions between plants and between plants and insects, functional biodiversity in

346	agro-ecosystems can be exploited as a component of integrated pest management. Application of
347	volatile chemicals in the field might be difficult; the effects depend on correct concentration and
348	emission rate and applications might have to be repeated. We recommend rather using living
349	plants that emit permanently the "right dose".
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351	
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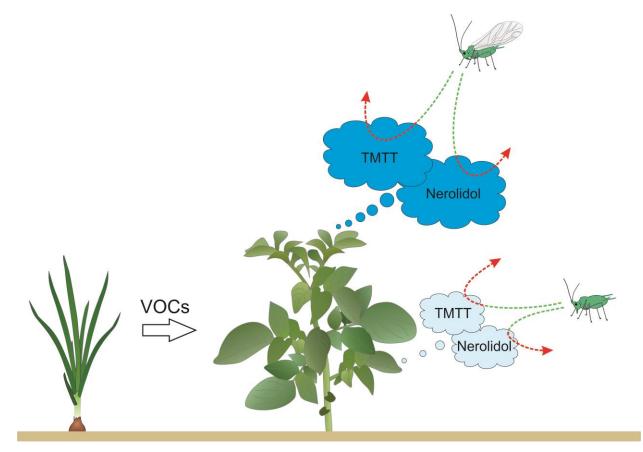
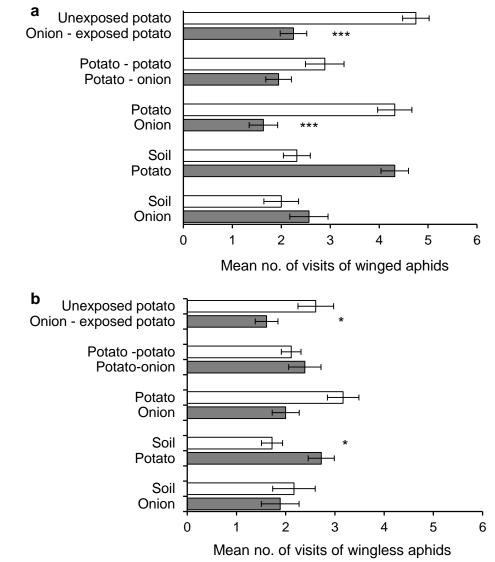


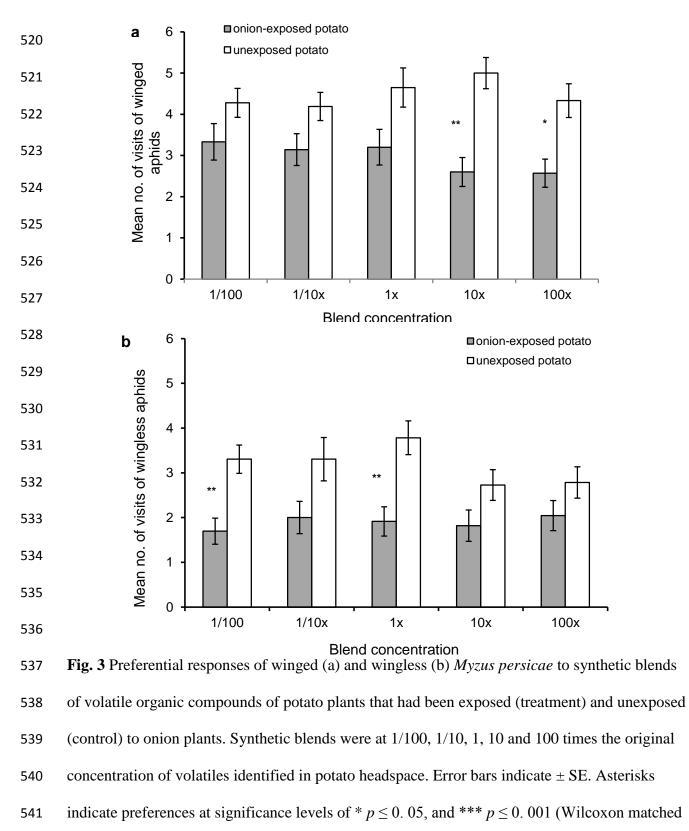
Fig. 1 Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) from onion plants induce changes in the volatile
emission of neighboring potato plants with a higher release of the terpenoids TMTT and
nerolidol. High doses of these compounds repelled winged aphids, while wingless aphids were
repelled by low doses.



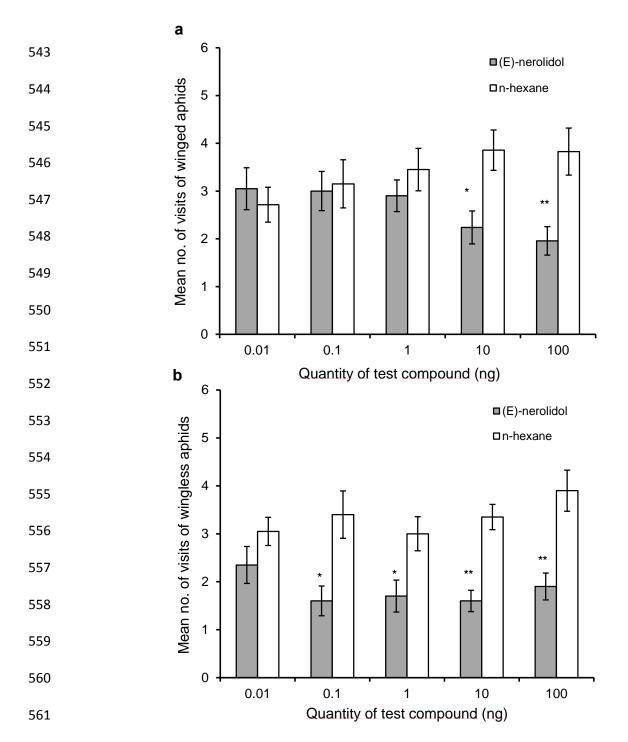
levels of * $p \le 0.05$, and *** $p \le 0.001$ (Wilcoxon matched pairs test).

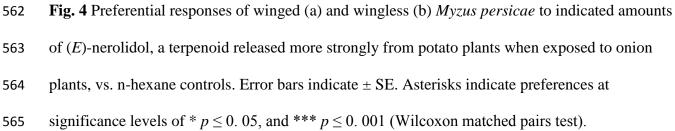
Fig. 2 Behavioral responses of winged (a) and wingless (b) *Myzus persicae* to indicated choices

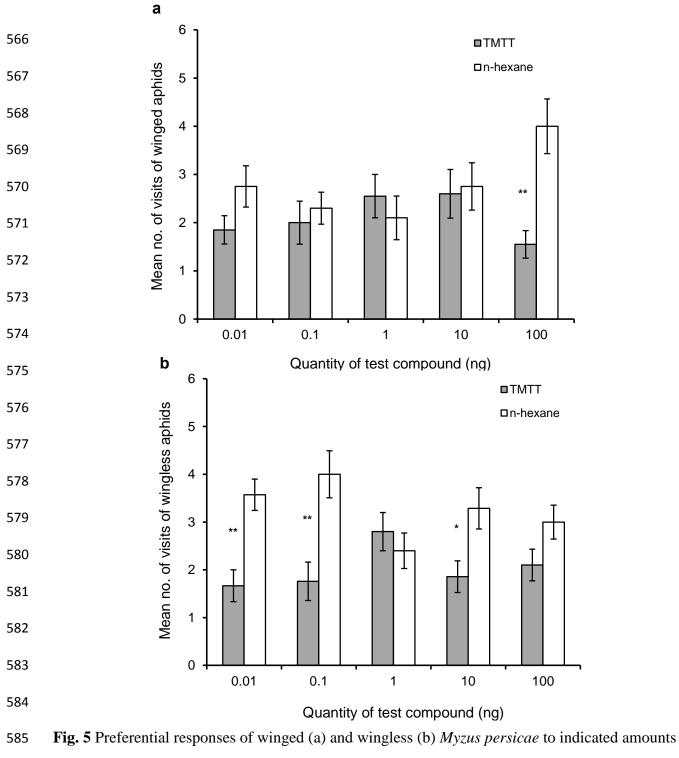
of volatiles from plants. Error bars indicate \pm SE. Asterisks indicate preferences at significance



542 pairs test).







of (3E, 7E) 4, 8, 12-trimethyl-1, 3, 7, 11-tridecatetraene (TMTT), a terpenoid released more
strongly from potato plants when exposed to onion plants, vs. n-hexane controls. Error bars

- indicate \pm SE. Asterisks indicate preferences at significance levels of * $p \le 0.05$, and *** $p \le 0.05$.
- 589 001 (Wilcoxon matched pairs test).