

1 **Pollen feeding proteomics: salivary proteins of the passion**
2 **flower butterfly, *Heliconius melpomene***

3

4

5 Desiree Harpel^a, Darron A. Cullen^b, Swidbert R. Ott^c, Chris D. Jiggins^d, and James R.
6 Walters^{a*}

7

8 (a) Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Kansas,
9 Lawrence, KS, 66046, USA

10 (b) Zoological Institute, KU Leuven, Naamsestraat 59 - Box 2465BE-3000 Leuven,
11 Belgium

12 (c) Department of Biology, University of Leicester, Adrian Building, University Road,
13 Leicester, LE1 7RH, UK

14 (d) Department of Zoology, University of Cambridge, Downing Street, Cambridge
15 CB2 3EJ, UK

16

17 * Corresponding Author

18 jrwalters@ku.edu

19 301-404-2743

20

21

22

23

24 **Abstract**

25

26 While most adult Lepidoptera use flower nectar as their primary food source,
27 butterflies in the genus *Heliconius* have evolved the novel ability to acquire amino
28 acids from consuming pollen. *Heliconius* butterflies collect pollen on their proboscis,
29 moisten the pollen with saliva, and use a combination of mechanical disruption and
30 chemical degradation to release free amino acids that are subsequently re-ingested
31 in the saliva. Little is known about the molecular mechanisms of this complex
32 pollen feeding adaptation. Here we report an initial shotgun proteomic analysis of
33 saliva from *Heliconius melpomene*. Results from liquid-chromatography tandem
34 mass-spectrometry confidently identified 31 salivary proteins, most of which
35 contained predicted signal peptides, consistent with extracellular secretion. Further
36 bioinformatic annotation of these salivary proteins indicated the presence of four
37 distinct functional classes: proteolysis (10 proteins), carbohydrate hydrolysis (5),
38 immunity (6), and “housekeeping”(4). Additionally, six proteins could not be
39 functionally annotated beyond containing a predicted signal sequence. The
40 presence of several salivary proteases is consistent with previous demonstrations
41 that *Heliconius* saliva has proteolytic capacity. It is likely these proteins play a key
42 role in generating free amino acids during pollen digestion. The identification of
43 proteins functioning in carbohydrate hydrolysis is consistent with *Heliconius*
44 butterflies consuming nectar, like other lepidopterans, as well as pollen. Immune-
45 related proteins in saliva are also expected, given that ingestion of pathogens is a
46 very likely route to infection. The few “housekeeping” proteins are likely not true
47 salivary proteins and reflect a modest level of contamination that occurred during
48 saliva collection. Among the unannotated proteins were two sets of paralogs, each
49 seemingly the result of a relatively recent tandem duplication. These results offer a
50 first glimpse into the molecular foundation of *Heliconius* pollen feeding and provide
51 a substantial advance towards comprehensively understanding this striking
52 evolutionary novelty.

53

54 **Keywords:** saliva, proteomics, *Heliconius*, pollen feeding, Lepidoptera

55

56 1. Introduction

57 Most adult Lepidoptera use flower nectar as their primary food source.
58 Nectar is typically rich in water and carbohydrates but quite limited as a source of
59 amino acids (H. G. Baker, 1975; H. G. Baker and I. Baker, 1977; 1973). Consequently,
60 most Lepidopteran species primarily acquire nutritional protein as larvae feeding
61 on leafy plant material, storing nitrogen and essential amino acids for use during
62 pupation and adulthood (Dunlap-Pianka et al., 1977). Intriguingly, a striking
63 exception to this general pattern is found among butterflies in the genus *Heliconius*,
64 the passion flower butterflies. In addition to nectar feeding, adult *Heliconius*
65 butterflies feed on pollen, a trait with a single origin in this genus (Beltran et al.,
66 2007; Brown, 1981; Gilbert, 1972). Pollen has high nitrogen and essential amino
67 acid content, providing *Heliconius* butterflies with a substantial source of nutritional
68 resources typically thought to constrain adult lepidopteran reproduction and
69 longevity (Dunlap-Pianka et al., 1977; Gilbert, 1972; O'Brien et al., 2003).
70 Accordingly, *Heliconius* butterflies are unusually long-lived, with adult life-spans
71 known to last beyond six months (Gilbert, 1972). Females lay eggs at a moderate
72 and continuous rate throughout adulthood without the reproductive or ovarian
73 senescence characteristic of related butterflies. Carbon isotope analysis has
74 demonstrated that essential amino acids from pollen are directly incorporated into
75 eggs, and excluding pollen from adult *Heliconius* results in dramatic reductions of
76 life-span and fecundity (Dunlap-Pianka et al., 1977; O'Brien et al., 2003). Thus pollen
77 feeding clearly represents a remarkable evolutionary innovation that catalyzed
78 dramatic changes in the physiology and life-history of *Heliconius* butterflies.
79 However, many aspects of this adaptation remain enigmatic and in particular it
80 remains unclear how amino acids are captured from the pollen.

81 *Heliconius* butterflies do not directly ingest pollen grains. Rather, pollen is
82 collected and stored on the outside of the proboscis (Fig. 1), which has an array of
83 unusually dense and long sensory bristles which presumably facilitate pollen
84 collection and retention (Krenn and Penz, 1998). A suite of behavioral adaptations
85 are also associated with pollen feeding, including sophisticated flower handling and
86 a stereotypical coiling-uncoiling of the proboscis that agitates the collected pollen
87 load (Krenn, 2008; Krenn et al., 2009; Penz and Krenn, 2000). During this pollen
88 processing, saliva is exuded from the proboscis into the pollen and ingested some
89 time later, presumably transporting free amino acids back into the butterfly's
90 digestive tract.

91 There has been considerable uncertainty regarding the exact mechanism by
92 which amino acids are released from the pollen grains. Early hypotheses favored a
93 "passive" process. In the initial description of *Heliconius* pollen feeding, Gilbert
94 (1972) suggested that germination of pollen when moistened on the proboscis was
95 sufficient to release free amino acids (Gilbert, 1972). Later Erhardt & Baker (1990)

96 proposed a diffusion process. However, a recent demonstration that proboscis
97 coiling-uncoiling causes substantial mechanical disruption of pollen grains
98 undermines these “passive” hypotheses, indicating instead that *Heliconius*
99 butterflies actively degrade their pollen (Krenn et al., 2009). Additionally,
100 colorimetric assays of proteolytic activity clearly show *Heliconius* saliva contains
101 proteases that likely degrade pollen enzymatically to complement mechanical
102 disruption (Eberhard et al., 2007). Thus the behavior of pollen processing in saliva
103 acts as an extra-oral digestion (Krenn et al., 2009), but the proteins involved in this
104 process remain unknown.

105 Here we report an initial investigation into the molecular components of
106 pollen feeding. Using liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS) “shotgun”
107 proteomics, we analyzed the protein content of saliva from *Heliconius melpomene*.
108 We confidently identified more than thirty proteins from *Heliconius* saliva, including
109 several putatively secreted proteins with predicted proteolytic function. Also
110 prevalent were proteins predicted to function in carbohydrate hydrolysis and
111 immunity. These results lay the foundation for future investigations into the
112 molecular origins and mechanisms of *Heliconius* pollen feeding.

113

114 [2. Methods](#)

115 [2.1 Butterfly care, saliva collection and preparation](#)

116

117 *Heliconius melpomene aglaope* were purchased as pupae from commercial
118 providers (Stratford Butterfly Farms, Stratford-Upon-Avon, Warwickshire, UK) and
119 reared in a temperature and humidity controlled greenhouse at the University of
120 Cambridge’s Madingley Field Station, Madingley, UK. Butterflies were kept in cages
121 1.5 m tall, 1.5 m wide, by 1m deep and provisioned with artificial nectar consisting
122 of 10% sucrose solution in water augmented with 5 g/L Critical Care Formula
123 (Vetark Professional, Winchester UK). In order to minimize contamination of saliva
124 samples with food or pollen proteins, the butterflies were not provided with plants
125 or another pollen source. Additionally, for at least 36 hours before sampling, the
126 Critical Care Formula supplement was removed from the artificial nectar.

127

128 Saliva samples were collected by applying a small amount of water-
129 moistened glass beads ($\leq 106 \mu\text{M}$, Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA) to the proboscis
130 with an insect pin and then washing the proboscis and beads into a 1.5 μL
131 microcentrifuge tube using a pipettor. Typically the application of beads or even
132 just the manipulation of the proboscis with a pin caused visible droplets of saliva to
133 be exuded from the proboscis, usually from the outer edge proximal to the head (Fig
134 1). The same 150 μL of deionized water was used repeatedly to rinse saliva and

135 beads from the proboscis of 8-10 butterflies per round of collection. Two rounds of
136 collection were performed in one day, separated by 1.5 h, using the same 150 μ L
137 diH₂O. Sampling on two different days provided a pair of biological replicates for
138 proteomic analysis.

139

140 Each of the two 150 μ L samples was vacuum-centrifuged at 60°C to reduce
141 volume to 50 μ L. 20 μ L per sample was kept for polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis,
142 and the remaining 30 μ L was submitted for direct shotgun proteomic analysis via
143 LC-MS.

144

145 **2.2 Protein gel electrophoresis**

146

147 For polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, 2.6 vol sample were mixed with 1 vol
148 4 \times NuPAGE LDS Sample Buffer (Invitrogen) and 0.4 vol 10 \times NuPAGE Reducing
149 Agent (0.5 M dithiothreitol; Invitrogen). The samples were heated to 70°C for 10
150 min, loaded on 4–12% NuPAGE Bis-Tris 1.0mm precast gels (Invitrogen) and
151 electrophoresed in NuPAGE MOPS running buffer at 4 mA/gel for about 100 min.
152 Gels were then fixed and silver stained using standard methods, followed by
153 imaging on a flat-bed scanner.

154

155 **2.3 Mass spectrometry and analysis**

156

157 Each biological replicate was split into two technical replicates, so a total of
158 four LC-MS experiments were performed. Samples were digested and analyzed *in*
159 *toto*, one experiment per replicate, without prior gel fractionation. Samples
160 submitted for LC-MS analyses were dried down and resolubilised in 20 mL of 50 mM
161 ammonium bicarbonate. Proteins were then reduced (5 mM DTT) and alkylated
162 (15mM iodoacetamide) before being digested overnight with trypsin. The samples
163 were then dried and resuspended in 20 mL 0.1% formic acid and pipetted into a
164 sample vial and placed in the LC autosampler.

165

166 All LC-MS experiments were performed using a nanoAcquity UPLC (Waters
167 Corp., Milford, MA) system and an LTQ Orbitrap Velos hybrid ion trap mass
168 spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA). Separation of peptides was
169 performed by reverse-phase chromatography using at a flow rate of 300 nL/min
170 and a Waters reverse-phase nano column (BEH C18, 75 mm i.d. x 250 mm, 1.7 mm
171 particle size). Peptides were loaded onto a pre-column (Waters UPLC Trap
172 Symmetry C18, 180 mm i.d x 20mm, 5 mm particle size) from the nanoAcquity
173 sample manager with 0.1% formic acid for 3 minutes at a flow rate of 10 mL/min.

174 After this period, the column valve was switched to allow elution of peptides from
175 the pre-column onto the analytical column. Solvent A was water + 0.1% formic acid
176 and solvent B was acetonitrile + 0.1% formic acid. The linear gradient employed was
177 5-50% B in 60 minutes.

178
179 The LC eluant was sprayed into the mass spectrometer by means of a New
180 Objective nanospray source. All m/z values of eluting ions were measured in an
181 Orbitrap Velos mass analyzer, set at a resolution of 30000. Data dependent scans
182 (Top 20) were employed to automatically isolate and generate fragment ions by
183 collision-induced dissociation in the linear ion trap, resulting in the generation of
184 MS/MS spectra. Ions with charge states of 2+ and above were selected for
185 fragmentation. Post-run, the data was processed using Protein Discoverer (version
186 1.2, ThermoFisher) and converted to mascot generic format (.mgf) files for
187 subsequent database searching.

188

189 2.4 Mass spectra analysis

190

191 MS/MS spectra were searched against the *H. melpomene* predicted protein
192 set (downloaded from butterflygenome.org, last updated June 4, 2012) using the
193 Mascot search engine (Perkins et al., 1999) . The search parameters were as follows:
194 digestive enzyme- trypsin, maximum missed cleaves- 2, fixed modifications-
195 carbamidomethyl, variable modifications- oxidation (M), peptide mass tolerance- 25
196 ppm, fragment mass tolerance- .8 Da, mass values- monoisotopic, instrument type-
197 ESI-TRAP. The *cRAP* database (via The Global Proteome Machine, www.thegpm.org),
198 last updated February 29, 2012, was also included to search for contaminants in the
199 samples. A false discovery rate (FDR) was calculated by simultaneously searching
200 spectra against a decoy database created by reversing the sequences of the *H.*
201 *melpomene* protein set. Proteins were identified using peptide and protein
202 identifications validated through Scaffold 4.0 (Searle, 2010). Peptide threshold was
203 established at 90% and protein threshold at 95%, using the Peptide Prophet
204 algorithm and Protein Prophet algorithms respectively, with at least two unique
205 peptide matches required in each sample. Protein and peptide FDR were 0% to
206 ensure high confidence in identifications. Relative abundances of proteins were
207 estimated as the mean of normalized spectral counts, as calculated by the Scaffold
208 software.

209

210 2.5 Functional predictions

211

212 Proteins identified via LC-MS were functionally annotated bioinformatically
213 using sequence homology. Proteins were searched against the NCBI non-redundant
214 protein database using BLASTP (Altschul et al., 1990). Proteins were also submitted
215 to InterproScan (Zdobnov and Apweiler, 2001). For each protein identified, putative
216 function was manually assigned after reviewing and integrating bioinformatic
217 search results.

218
219

220 **3. Results and Discussion**

221

222 **3.1 SDS-PAGE**

223

224 Protein electrophoresis revealed a relatively sparse collection of proteins present in
225 the saliva (Fig. 2). Only about 20 distinct bands were visible in the saliva sample.
226 Notably, none of the bands were concordant with bands observed in the dietary
227 supplement, indicating that the saliva was not contaminated with Critical Care
228 Formula diet supplement.

229

230 **3.2 Shotgun Proteomics**

231

232 After filtering the protein hits by significance using Scaffold and removing all
233 contaminant protein hits, a total of 31 proteins were confidently identified from *H.*
234 *melpomene* adult saliva. Results are summarized in Table 1. There was substantial
235 consistency between biological replicates, with 24 proteins (77%) identified in both
236 samples. Technical replication was also reasonably consistent, with 22 proteins
237 (70%) identified in all four replicates. We also identified and discarded a few
238 obvious contaminant proteins in the filtered LC-MS results (e.g. human keratin, pig
239 trypsin).

240

241 One clear prediction about salivary proteins is that they are secreted
242 extracellularly and therefore should contain a signal peptide at the N-terminus
243 (Scheele et al., 1978). As expected, signal peptides predicted by Signal-P (via
244 InterproScan) were found in 20 of the salivary proteins (Petersen et al., 2011). This
245 is probably an underestimate because four of 11 proteins without predicted signal
246 peptides were represented by problematic gene models that lacked start codons.
247 Missing start codons likely reflects errors in the underlying genome assembly on
248 which gene models were built because our manual inspection could not identify
249 obvious start codons. Otherwise, “complete” proteins without signal peptides
tended to have “housekeeping” functions and are likely to be *Heliconius*-derived

250 contaminants rather than true salivary proteins (see section below on
251 “housekeeping” proteins).

252 The identified proteins could be divided into four groups based on function:
253 proteolysis, carbohydrate hydrolysis, immunity, and “housekeeping”. Additionally,
254 several proteins could not be functionally annotated and were lumped into a fifth
255 group of proteins with unknown function.

256

257 3.3 Proteolytic proteins

258

259 Ten identified proteins were found to play a role in proteolysis, encompassing a
260 range of functions including protein degradation, cleaving small peptide bonds, and
261 proteolytic inhibition. The seven proteases are primary candidates for playing a role
262 in the digestion of pollen granules. These include serine proteases, cysteine
263 proteases, astacins, and a carboxypeptidase. All three serine proteases appear to
264 have trypsin-like or chymotrypsin-like properties based on BLAST-based homology
265 and protein domain predictions. Intriguingly, both HMEL006217-PA and HMEL017107-
266 PA show close homology (i.e. strong BLAST hits) to the Cocoonase protein from
267 *Bombyx mori* (silkworm). Cocoonase is a well-characterized trypsin-like protease
268 secreted by the proboscis during eclosion to weaken the cocoon silk and facilitate
269 emergence (Kafatos et al., 1967; Yamamoto et al., 1999). The function of Cocoonase
270 homologs in butterflies, which lack silken cocoons, remains unknown. In the case of
271 *Heliconius* it is tempting to speculate that these proteases, which presumably have
272 an evolutionary history of expression in the proboscis, were evolutionarily co-opted
273 to function in pollen digestion.

274 Carboxypeptidases hydrolyze peptide bonds at the carboxy-terminal end of a
275 peptide or protein and are also known for their digestive roles (Bown and
276 Gatehouse, 2004). Similarly, astacins often play an important role in extracellular
277 protein digestion (Foradori et al., 2006). Thus this suite of secreted proteases
278 together potentially provides a rich cocktail for breaking down pollen proteins and
279 releasing free amino acids for consumption.

280 The cysteine and trypsin inhibitors inactivate cysteine and serine proteases,
281 respectively, by bonding to the protein’s active site and rendering it inactive
282 (Eguchi, 1993). The two cysteine protease inhibitors identified here appear to be
283 related to the well-characterized *Bombyx* Cysteine Protein Inhibitor (BCPI)
284 (Yamamoto et al., 1999). BCPI-like proteins likely originated from the inhibitory
285 propeptide region of a cysteine proteinase that is typically cleaved to release the
286 proteolytic function of the mature peptide. These BCPI-like proteins function as
287 “stand alone” inhibitors of cathepsin-L type cysteine proteases (Kurata et al., 2001).
288 Another such protein was proteomically identified as a constituent of seminal fluid

289 in *Heliconius erato*; the putative *H. melpomene* ortholog of this seminal protein is
290 clearly distinct from these two salivary cysteine protease inhibitors, sharing only
291 ~70% amino acid identity with either (Wallow and Harrison, 2010). It thus appears
292 that these propeptide-derived cysteine protease inhibitors are commonly deployed
293 for extra-cellular regulation of proteolysis in *Heliconius* butterflies. Nonetheless, it
294 is difficult to predict what role, if any, these cysteine and trypsin protease inhibitors
295 play in pollen digestion. One plausible alternative function is in pathogen defense.
296 Many insect protease inhibitors are known to target pathogen-derived proteases or
297 are upregulated after pathogen exposure, presumably providing defense against
298 infection (Kanost, 1999; Rai et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2012). An immunity-related
299 function of salivary protease inhibitors would be consistent with our observing
300 several other immunity-related salivary proteins (see below).

301 A distinct lack of molecular characterization of other butterfly saliva proteomes
302 leads to difficulty in making comparisons across pollen and non-pollen feeding
303 Lepidoptera. However, a study performed by (Feng et al., 2013) gave insight into the
304 honeybee saliva proteome. Honeybees are another insect that consumes both pollen
305 and nectar, presenting interesting parallels to *Heliconius*. Honeybees have a mostly
306 carbohydrate rich diet (nectar), which is reflected in the proteins found in their
307 proteome. Both proteomes contain proteins relating to both proteolytic activity and
308 carbohydrate hydrolysis, but *Heliconius* appears to have relatively more proteins
309 related to proteolytic activity and fewer to carbohydrate hydrolysis.

310

311 3.4 Carbohydrate hydrolysis

312

313 Five proteins identified in *H. melpomene* saliva are predicted to be varieties of
314 glycoside hydrolases that appear to play a role in carbohydrate hydrolysis (Withers,
315 2001). The two β -fructofuranosidases function in breaking down sucrose into
316 fructose and glucose by cleaving the O-C bond. Until recently, β -fructofuranosidases
317 were thought to be absent from animals despite being found among bacteria, fungi,
318 and plants. However, pairs of these proteins have been identified in several
319 lepidopteran species, apparently having arisen via horizontal transfer from bacteria
320 (Daimon et al., 2008). Previously, these β -fructofuranosidases have primarily been
321 associated with larval gut, so their presence in adult saliva is consistent with a role
322 in digestion but also marks a distinct expansion of their known functional milieu.

323 The remaining three glycoside hydrolases (glycerophosphodiester
324 phosphodiesterase, β -hexosaminidase, and hydrolase) all appear to have relatively
325 general functions in sugar metabolism. This is not unexpected given that *Heliconius*
326 butterflies consume substantial quantities of sugar-rich plant nectar along with
327 pollen.

328

329 3.5 Immune function

330

331 Another six *H. melpomene* salivary proteins likely play a role in immune
332 response. Two of these, lysozyme and β -1,3 glucanase, are glycoside hydrolases that
333 have secondarily evolved to function in immune response (Davis and Weiser, 2011).
334 Lysozymes are common antimicrobial proteins that function to degrade bacterial
335 cell walls; they are well known components of insect immune responses, including
336 in Lepidoptera (Callewaert and Michiels, 2010; Jiang et al., 2010). Proteins that bind
337 β -1,3glucan function as pathogen recognition proteins that tend to target gram-
338 negative bacteria. Several such proteins have been identified in moths and
339 butterflies (Fabrick et al., 2004). These proteins are usually isolated from
340 hemolymph, but have also been found in the saliva and digestive tracts of other
341 insects (Pauchet et al., 2009).

342 REPAT and hemolin are Lepidopteran specific immune proteins that have shown
343 increased expression in response to pathogen infection in caterpillars of several
344 species (Hernández-Rodríguez et al., 2009; Terenius et al., 2009; Yamamoto et al.,
345 1999). Also implicated in insect immune response are heat shock proteins, such as
346 alpha crystalline, that are important in keeping essential proteins from unfolding
347 (Pirkkala et al., 2001). Hsp20/alpha crystalline has been found in the salivary glands
348 of other insects and is known to regulate proteins when the organism's temperature
349 exceeds 25 degrees C (Arrigo and Ahmadzadeh, 1981). Finally, we have tentatively
350 assigned an immunity-related function to the one identified salivary glucose-
351 methanol-choline (GMC) oxidoreductase gene. GMC oxidoreductases comprise a
352 large and diverse protein family whose members play a variety of often poorly
353 understood roles in developmental processes, glucose metabolism, and immune
354 function (Iida et al., 2007). In Lepidoptera this protein family is particularly diverse
355 and many members seem to play a role in immune response (Sun et al., 2012). Thus
356 we have grouped this protein with other immunity-related proteins, but much
357 additional research would be necessary to confidently characterize the true function
358 of this particular GMC oxidoreductase.

359

360 3.6 Housekeeping and other functions

361

362 Proteins functioning in proteolysis, sugar metabolism, and immunity are
363 reasonably expected to be found in saliva. We additionally identified in our samples
364 several proteins that seemingly have little relevance to expected salivary functions,
365 or are generally of ambiguous function. Foremost among these is actin, known for
366 its role in muscle contraction and cytoskeletal structure generally, but not expected

367 to function outside of cells (Dominguez and Holmes, 2011). Actin is a ubiquitous and
368 highly abundant protein, so may easily have contaminated the saliva samples.
369 Similarly, an identified serine-arginine-rich splicing factor protein typically
370 functions in RNA splicing and gene expression (Long and Caceres, 2009); it is also
371 probably best considered a contaminant.

372 Somewhat more ambiguous is the presence of yellow-d, a member of the *yellow*
373 protein family. The function of Yellow proteins is poorly understood, though clearly
374 some members play a role in melanization (Drapeau, 2001; Ferguson et al., 2010). In
375 *B. mori*, yellow-d appears to be ubiquitously expressed and also contains a predicted
376 signal peptide (Xia et al., 2006). The annotation of the yellow-d gene model from the
377 *H. melpomene* genome did not indicate the presence of a signal peptide. However,
378 comparison with a sequence generated from ESTs (GenBank accession ADX87351)
379 clearly indicates that the genome-based model is truncated and that *H. melpomene*
380 yellow-d does contain a signal peptide. Thus, while the molecular function of this
381 and other yellow proteins remains largely unknown, it seems reasonable to
382 consider yellow-d as normally present in *H. melpomene* saliva.

383 The Cysteine-rich secretory proteins, antigen 5 and pathogenesis related (CAP)
384 proteins are taxonomically diverse with an equally diverse set of functions, making
385 it difficult to predict any particular function for this one protein found in *H.*
386 *melpomene* saliva (Gibbs et al., 2008). CAP proteins are typically secreted
387 extracellularly, but in the case of this one salivary CAP, the predicted gene model
388 was incomplete at the N-terminus and therefore uninformative regarding the
389 presence of a signal peptide.

390

391 3.7 Unknown function

392

393 Finally, six proteins found in the sample could not be functionally characterized
394 at any level, other than all of them exhibiting a predicted signal peptide. One of
395 these, HMEL010245-PA, showed extensive homology to similar proteins present in
396 many other insect species, though none of these were functionally annotated. The
397 remaining five proteins appear to be extremely taxonomically restricted.

398 HMEL015039-PA and HMEL015041-PA are a pair of closely linked paralogs situated
399 adjacent to each other, separated by ~8Kbp, suggesting they arose via tandem
400 duplication. Strikingly, a variety of BLAST strategies have yielded no significant
401 homology (e-val < 0.01) to any other protein or nucleotide sequences.

402 The remaining three uncharacterized proteins, HMEL008913-PA, HMEL008915-
403 PA, and HMEL014907-PA, are another set of paralogs. The similarity and apparent
404 tandem duplication of HMEL008913-PA and HMEL008915-PA suggest
405 HMEL014907-PA is the most distantly related of the three paralogs. In this case, the

406 only clearly homologous loci that were identified were a pair of paralogs from the
407 monarch butterfly, KGM_02914 & KGM_02913, that also appear to be tandemly
408 duplicated. Otherwise these proteins lacked both Blast and InterproScan hits,
409 although each had a signal peptide. These groups of Nymphalid-specific, perhaps
410 even *Heliconius*-specific, secreted proteins in the saliva are very intriguing in light of
411 *Heliconius* pollen feeding.
412

413 5. Conclusions and future directions

414

415 The results presented here offer a first glimpse into the molecular foundation of
416 *Heliconius* pollen feeding and provide a substantial advance towards
417 comprehensively understanding this striking evolutionary novelty. The observation
418 of several proteolytic enzymes supports the emerging view that *Heliconius*
419 butterflies actively degrade pollen and consume released amino acids via extra-oral
420 digestion (Krenn et al., 2009). These results also highlight the importance of
421 salivary digestion of sugars for nectar-feeding insects as well as oral ingestion of
422 pathogens as a common infection route that is actively defended via immune-related
423 proteins in the saliva.

424 Our results open several different avenues for productive future research. One
425 route for better understanding the molecular basis of *Heliconius* pollen feeding
426 would be experimental characterization of the several proteins with ambiguous or
427 unknown function via cloning and *in vitro* expression or targeted knock-outs (e.g.
428 CRISPR)(Sander and Joung, 2014). Complementing this, comparative proteomic
429 analysis would inform the evolutionary history of this adaptation. Specifically,
430 contrasting the salivary protein content of related taxa that do not pollen feed would
431 highlight unique *Heliconius* salivary proteins that are most likely to reflect molecular
432 adaptations to pollen feeding. If whole genome assemblies become available for
433 related species that exclusively feed on pollen, then comparative genomics can
434 reveal the relative importance of genetic novelty versus cooption and redeployment
435 of existing genes in the evolution of pollen feeding. Broadly speaking, our results
436 presented here demonstrate that proteomic and genomic analysis of *Heliconius*
437 pollen feeding hold great potential for researching the molecular genetic basis of a
438 complex physiological adaptation.
439

440 6. Acknowledgements

441

442 This work was supported by the Balfour-Browne fund administered by the
443 Department of Zoology at the University of Cambridge. Additional support came
444 from the University of Kansas. We are grateful for technical assistance from Nadya

445 Galeva and Todd Williams from the University of Kansas proteomics facility.
446 Timothy Karr provided valuable guidance interpreting proteomic data. Two
447 anonymous reviewers offered constructive criticism to improve the manuscript.
448
449

450 **7. References**

451

452 Arrigo, A.P., & Ahmadzadeh, C. (1981). Immunofluorescence Localization of a small heat
453 shock protein (hsp-23) in salivary-gland cells of *Drosophila-melanogaster*. *Molecular &*
454 *General Genetics*, 184(1), 73-79.

455 Altschul, S.F., Gish, W., Miller, W., Myers, E.W., Lipman, D.J., 1990. Basic local alignment
456 search tool. *J. Mol. Biol.* 215, 403–410. doi:10.1016/S0022-2836(05)80360-2

457 Baker, H.G., 1975. Sugar Concentrations in Nectars from Hummingbird Flowers. *Biotropica*
458 7, 37–41.

459 Baker, H.G., Baker, I., 1973. Amino-Acids in Nectar and Their Evolutionary Significance.
460 *Nature* 241, 543–545.

461 Baker, H.G., Baker, I., 1977. *Coevolution of animals and plants*. Austin: University of Texas
462 Press.

463 Beltran, M., Jiggins, C.D., Brower, A.V., Bermingham, E., Mallet, J., 2007. Do pollen feeding,
464 pupal-mating and larval gregariousness have a single origin in *Heliconius* butterflies?
465 Inferences from multilocus DNA sequence data. *Biological Journal of the Linnean*
466 *Society* 92, 221–239.

467 Bown, D.P., Gatehouse, J.A., 2004. Characterization of a digestive carboxypeptidase from the
468 insect pest corn earworm (*Helicoverpa armigera*) with novel specificity towards C-
469 terminal glutamate residues. *Eur J Biochem* 271, 2000–2011. doi:10.1111/j.1432-
470 1033.2004.04113.x

471 Brown, K.S., Jr, 1981. The biology of *Heliconius* and related genera. *Annu. Rev. Entomol.* 26,
472 427–457.

473 Callewaert, L., Michiels, C.W., 2010. Lysozymes in the animal kingdom. *Journal of*
474 *Biosciences* 35, 127–160. doi:10.1007/s12038-010-0015-5

475 Daimon, T., Taguchi, T., Meng, Y., Katsuma, S., Mita, K., Shimada, T., 2008. -
476 Fructofuranosidase Genes of the Silkworm, *Bombyx mori*: Insights into enzymatic
477 adaptation of *B. Mori* to toxic alkaloids in mulberry latex. *Journal of Biological*
478 *Chemistry* 283, 15271–15279. doi:10.1074/jbc.M709350200

479 Davis, K.M., Weiser, J.N., 2011. Modifications to the Peptidoglycan Backbone Help Bacteria
480 To Establish Infection. *Infection and Immunity* 79, 562–570. doi:10.1128/IAI.00651-10

481 Dominguez, R., Holmes, K.C., 2011. Actin Structure and Function. *Annu. Rev. Biophys.* 40,
482 169–186. doi:10.1146/annurev-biophys-042910-155359

483 Drapeau, M.D., 2001. The Family of Yellow-Related *Drosophila melanogaster* Proteins.
484 *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications* 281, 611–613.
485 doi:10.1006/bbrc.2001.4391

486 Dunlap-Pianka, H., Boggs, C.L., Gilbert, L.E., 1977. Ovarian Dynamics in Heliconiine
487 Butterflies: Programmed Senescence versus Eternal Youth. *Science* 197, 487–490.
488 doi:10.1126/science.197.4302.487

489 Eberhard, S.H., Hrasnigg, N., Crailsheim, K., Krenn, H.W., 2007. Evidence of protease in the
490 saliva of the butterfly *Heliconius melpomene* (L.) (Nymphalidae, Lepidoptera). *Journal*
491 *of Insect Physiology* 53, 126–131. doi:10.1016/j.jinsphys.2006.11.001

492 Eguchi, M., 1993. Protein Protease Inhibitors in Insects and Comparison with Mammalian
493 Inhibitors. *Comp. Biochem. Physiol., B* 105, 449–456.

494 Fabrick, J.A., Baker, J.E., Kanost, M.R., 2004. Innate Immunity in a Pyralid Moth: Functional
495 Evaluation of Domains from a -1,3-Glucan Recognition Protein. *Journal of Biological*
496 *Chemistry* 279, 26605–26611. doi:10.1074/jbc.M403382200

497 Feng, M., Fang, Y., Bin Han, Zhang, L., Lu, X., Li, J., 2013. Novel aspects of understanding
498 molecular working mechanisms of salivary glands of worker honeybees (*Apis mellifera*)

499 investigated by proteomics and phosphoproteomics. *Journal of Proteomics* 87, 1–15.
 500 doi:10.1016/j.jprot.2013.05.021
 501 Ferguson, L.C., Green, J., Surridge, A., Jiggins, C.D., 2010. Evolution of the Insect Yellow Gene
 502 Family. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 28, 257–272. doi:10.1093/molbev/msq192
 503 Foradori, M.J., Tillinghast, E.K., Smith, J.S., Townley, M.A., Mooney, R.E., 2006. Astacin family
 504 metalloproteinases and serine peptidase inhibitors in spider digestive fluid. *Comp.*
 505 *Biochem. Physiol. B, Biochem. Mol. Biol.* 143, 257–268. doi:10.1016/j.cbpb.2005.08.012
 506 Gibbs, G.M., Gibbs, G.M., Gibbs, G.M., Gibbs, G.M., Roelants, K., Roelants, K., Roelants, K.,
 507 Roelants, K., O'Bryan, M.K., O'Bryan, M.K., O'Bryan, M.K., O'Bryan, M.K., 2008. The CAP
 508 Superfamily: Cysteine-Rich Secretory Proteins, Antigen 5, and Pathogenesis-Related 1
 509 Proteins—Roles in Reproduction, Cancer, and Immune Defense. *Endocrine Reviews* 29,
 510 865–897. doi:10.1210/er.2008-0032
 511 Gilbert, L.E., 1972. Pollen Feeding and Reproductive Biology of *Heliconius* Butterflies. *Proc.*
 512 *Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 69, 1403–&. doi:10.1095/biolreprod.114.121657
 513 Hernández-Rodríguez, C.S., Ferré, J., Herrero, S., 2009. Genomic structure and promoter
 514 analysis of pathogen-induced repeat genes from *Spodoptera exigua*. *Insect Molecular*
 515 *Biology* 18, 77–85. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2583.2008.00850.x
 516 Iida, K., Cox-Foster, D.L., Yang, X., Ko, W.-Y., Cavener, D.R., 2007. Expansion and evolution of
 517 insect GMC oxidoreductases. *BMC Evolutionary Biology* 7, 75. doi:10.1186/1471-2148-
 518 7-75
 519 Jiang, H., Vilcinskas, A., Kanost, M.R., 2010. Immunity in Lepidopteran Insects. *Invertebrate*
 520 *Immunity* 708, 181–204.
 521 Kafatos, F.C., Tartakoff, A.M., Law, J.H., 1967. Cocoonase I. Preliminary characterization of a
 522 proteolytic enzyme from silk moths. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 242, 1477–1487.
 523 Kanost, M.R., 1999. Serine proteinase inhibitors in arthropod immunity. *Developmental &*
 524 *Comparative Immunology* 23, 291–301.
 525 Krenn, H.W., 2008. Feeding behaviours of neotropical butterflies (Lepidoptera,
 526 Papilionoidea). *Denisia, zugleich Kataloge der oösterreichischen Landesmuseen*
 527 *Neue Serie* 88, 295–304.
 528 Krenn, H.W., Eberhard, M.J.B., Eberhard, S.H., Hinkl, A.-L., Huber, W., Gilbert, L.E., 2009.
 529 Mechanical damage to pollen aids nutrient acquisition in *Heliconius* butterflies
 530 (Nymphalidae). *Arthropod-Plant Interactions* 3, 203–208. doi:10.1007/s11829-009-
 531 9074-7
 532 Krenn, H.W., Penz, C.M., 1998. Mouthparts of *Heliconius* butterflies (Lepidoptera:
 533 Nymphalidae): a search for anatomical adaptations to pollen-feeding behavior.
 534 *International Journal of Insect Morphology and Embryology* 27, 301–309.
 535 Kurata, M., Yamamoto, Y., Watabe, S., Makino, Y., Ogawa, K., Takahashi, S.Y., 2001. Bombyx
 536 cysteine proteinase inhibitor (BCPI) homologous to propeptide regions of cysteine
 537 proteinases is a strong, selective inhibitor of cathepsin L-like cysteine proteinases.
 538 *Journal of biochemistry* 130, 857–863.
 539 Long, J.C., Caceres, J.F., 2009. The SR protein family of splicing factors: master regulators of
 540 gene expression. *Biochem. J.* 417, 15. doi:10.1042/BJ20081501
 541 O'Brien, D.M., Boggs, C.L., Fogel, M.L., 2003. Pollen feeding in the butterfly *Heliconius*
 542 *charitonia*: isotopic evidence for essential amino acid transfer from pollen to eggs.
 543 *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 270, 2631–2636.
 544 doi:10.1098/rspb.2003.2552
 545 Pauchet, Y., Freitak, D., Heidel-Fischer, H.M., Heckel, D.G., Vogel, H., 2009. Immunity or
 546 Digestion: Glucanase Activity in a Glucan-Binding Protein Family from Lepidoptera.
 547 *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 284, 2214–2224. doi:10.1074/jbc.M806204200
 548 Penz, C.M., Krenn, H.W., 2000. Behavioral adaptations to pollen-feeding in *Heliconius*

549 butterflies (Nymphalidae, Heliconiinae): an experiment using Lantana flowers. *Journal*
550 *of Insect Behavior* 13, 865–880.

551 Perkins, D.N., Pappin, D.J., Creasy, D.M., Cottrell, J.S., 1999. Probability-based protein
552 identification by searching sequence databases using mass spectrometry data.
553 *Electrophoresis* 20, 3551–3567. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1522-
554 2683(19991201)20:18<3551::AID-ELPS3551>3.0.CO;2-2

555 Petersen, T.N., Brunak, S., Heijne, von, G., Nielsen, H., 2011. SignalP 4.0: discriminating signal
556 peptides from transmembrane regions. *Nature Publishing Group* 8, 785–786.
557 doi:10.1038/nmeth.1701

558 Pirkkala, L., Nykänen, P., Sistonen, L., 2001. Roles of the heat shock transcription factors in
559 regulation of the heat shock response and beyond. *FASEB J.* 15, 1118–1131.

560 Rai, S., Aggarwal, K.K., Mitra, B., Das, T.K., Babu, C.R., 2010. Purification, characterization and
561 immunolocalization of a novel protease inhibitor from hemolymph of tasar silkworm,
562 *Antheraea mylitta*. *Peptides* 31, 474–481. doi:10.1016/j.peptides.2009.08.021

563 Sander, J.D., Joung, J.K., 2014. CrisPr-Cas systems for editing, regulating and targeting
564 genomes. *Nature Biotechnology* 32, 347–355. doi:10.1038/nbt.2842

565 Scheele, G., Dobberstein, B., Blobel, G., 1978. Transfer of proteins across membranes. *Eur J*
566 *Biochem* 82, 593–599.

567 Searle, B.C., 2010. Scaffold: A bioinformatic tool for validating MS/MS-based proteomic
568 studies. *Proteomics* 10, 1265–1269. doi:10.1002/pmic.200900437

569 Sun, W., Shen, Y.-H., Yang, W.-J., Cao, Y.-F., Xiang, Z.-H., Zhang, Z., 2012. *Insect Biochemistry*
570 *and Molecular Biology*. *Insect Biochemistry and Molecular Biology* 42, 935–945.
571 doi:10.1016/j.ibmb.2012.09.006

572 Terenius, O., Popham, H.J.R., Shelby, K.S., 2009. Bacterial, but not baculoviral infections
573 stimulate Hemolin expression in noctuid moths. *Developmental & Comparative*
574 *Immunology* 33, 1176–1185. doi:10.1016/j.dci.2009.06.009

575 Wallow, J.G., Harrison, R.G., 2010. Combined EST and Proteomic Analysis Identifies Rapidly
576 Evolving Seminal Fluid Proteins in *Heliconius* Butterflies. *Molecular Biology and*
577 *Evolution* 27, 2000–2013. doi:10.1093/molbev/msq092

578 Withers, S.G., 2001. Mechanisms of glycosyl transferases and hydrolases. *Carbohydrate*
579 *Polymers* 44, 325–337.

580 Xia, A.-H., Zhou, Q.-X., Yu, L.-L., Li, W.-G., Yi, Y.-Z., Zhang, Y.-Z., Zhang, Z.-F., 2006.
581 Identification and analysis of YELLOW protein family genes in the silkworm, *Bombyx*
582 *mori*. *BMC Genomics* 7, 195. doi:10.1186/1471-2164-7-195

583 Yamamoto, Y., Watabe, S., Kageyama, T., Takahashi, S.Y., 1999. Purification and
584 characterization of *Bombyx* cysteine proteinase specific inhibitors from the hemolymph
585 of *Bombyx mori*. *Arch. Insect Biochem. Physiol.* 42, 119–129. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1520-
586 6327(199910)42:2<119::AID-ARCH2>3.0.CO;2-C

587 Zdobnov, E.M., Apweiler, R., 2001. InterProScan—an integration platform for the signature-
588 recognition methods in InterPro. *Bioinformatics* 17, 847–848.

589 Zhao, P., Dong, Z., Duan, J., Wang, G., Wang, L., Li, Y., Xiang, Z., Xia, Q., 2012. Genome-Wide
590 Identification and Immune Response Analysis of Serine Protease Inhibitor Genes in the
591 Silkworm, *Bombyx mori*. *PLoS ONE* 7, e31168. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0031168.s010
592
593

594 **Figure Legends**

595

596 *Production Note: Figure 1 is intended for color reproduction on the internet, but grey-*
597 *scale in print.*

598

599 Figure 1. A) *Heliconius* butterfly with a large load of pollen on the proboscis. B)
600 Saliva droplets exuded onto the proboscis after stimulation with microscopic glass
601 beads during saliva collection.

602

603

604 Figure 2. PAGE analysis of *H. melpomene* saliva and Critical Care Formula diet
605 supplement. Size standard is in kiloDaltons (kDa)

606

607

608 **Table Legend**

609

610 Table 1. Summary of proteins identified in the saliva of *Heliconius melpomene* via
611 LC-MS/MS.