

SENTINEL COLONIES OF DIAMONDBACK LARVAE FOR EARLY SEASON DETECTION OF PARASITES

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Of the 700,000-odd species of insects so far recognized by science (some suspect that there may be a billion or more), a great many make their livings from original sources, for example by sucking blood or plant juices, chewing hair, wool, or stored food products, feeding on dung or carrion, chewing a wide variety of foliage, collecting nectar and pollen, or boring in plant stems or tree trunks. But those species that live by feeding on other insects as parasites or predators numerically exceed those living by most other principal means. There are roughly 100,000 species of the Order Hymenoptera (bees and wasps) and of these a very large number are parasitic or predaceous on other insects. Diptera (flies of certain families) are the other great specialists in parasitism. Some parasitic species are so closely adapted and associated with their hosts that they form an exclusive, integrated host-parasite complex. Bertha armyworm and its principal parasite, a hymenopteran, seem to be an example of such a complex.

The author's own interest in parasitism is a narrow one, stemming from his former concern with the diamondback moth (an annual immigrant into our latitudes) and its larvae (*Plutella xylostella* (L.) Lepidoptera: Plutellidae), and the factors affecting its abundance in our rapeseed, or as we say nowadays, our canola fields. Parasitism turned out to be one of those factors.¹ Two small hymenopterans were involved, *Microplitis plutellae* Gues., of the family Braconidae, and

Diadegma insularis (Cress.), family Ichneumonidae; you may have read about a few of the larger species of the latter. Adults of both species are too small to attract popular attention, so they have no common names. The adaptations of these parasites to the size and life cycle of the small host diamondback larva is close: one host supports one parasite larva to its maturity, and the emergence of the adult stages of the successive generations is concurrent. As the host larva matures, the parasite larva emerges (finishing off the host of course) and spins its own cocoon. *M. plutellae* forms a brown, oval cocoon about the size of a small grain of wheat. This adheres to whatever surface (leaf, stem, etc.) the host larva was on when the parasite emerged. *D. insularis* emerges and spins up inside the loosely woven cocoon that the host larva had intended (so to speak) to use for itself. Many of the pupae inside the cocoons of *M. plutellae* quickly transform to adults and emerge, and probably all those of *D. insularis* do so. They come out and fly in time to go to work on the closely following next generation of diamondback larvae. Next time diamondback larvae are abundant, sweep up a hundred or so and rear them in a cage. You will probably get not only diamondback pupae, followed by moths, but cocoons of both parasites, soon too followed by their adults.

The first generation of diamondback larvae is often confined, at the beginning of the season, to weed mustards such as flixweed, a winter annual, and

volunteer canola. The larvae at this stage are often scarce, and yet a high percentage of them are parasitized. High percentage parasitism in a low population is not thought of as normal, so why this? It was suspected that the adult parasites, particularly *M. plutellae*, might be present and waiting when the first diamondbacks of the season hatched.

To investigate this, I developed a method suggested by the "sentinel chicken flock" idea.³ This involves the periodic testing of blood samples from chickens in these flocks for the presence of antibodies developed in response to western equine encephalitis inoculated by the bites of mosquito carriers. In my adaptation, a hundred or so tiny diamondback larvae were counted out onto canola plants supported in a greenhouse pot. These "colonies" were then exposed in the open at ground level for three or four days, and retrieved and replaced. The retrieved colonies were isolated in cages, and incubated in a greenhouse for sufficient time for the diamondback larvae to mature and any parasites to emerge. All insect material was then identified and counted. Since the exposures were begun before any insect activity in the spring, the dates of first appearance in the field of the parasites could be known with a precision of three or four days.

Experiments using the technique described above were carried out during the period 1971-75 inclusive, at four stations in Saskatchewan: Saskatoon, Watson, Melfort, and Aylsham, totalling 13 station-years (not every station was used during each of the five years). Dates of arrival of immigrant diamondback moths were being watched for at the same time by other means. The technique is regarded as having worked reasonably well. Retention of host larvae was commonly about 60 per cent, except in cases of an early season frost that killed the plants. Chicken wire

cages were adopted to protect the plants from hares at times when there was no other succulent vegetation. After the presence of parasites was first detected by means of the sentinel colonies, colonies successively exposed nearly always continued to show parasitism.

As a generalization, *M. plutellae* was commonly first detected during the latter half of May, and *D. insularis* during the first half of June. Percentage parasitism in the recovered insect material was sometimes up to about 90 percent, but varied widely and averaged about 50 percent. Larvae exposed in the colonies could become parasitized, particularly by *M. plutellae*, before naturally occurring host larvae became available. The evidence for the presence of *M. plutellae* prior to that of naturally occurring host larvae was therefore quite strong; their readiness would explain the high percentage parasitism in the first collectible host larvae of the season. Later, it was shown that *M. plutellae* had adaptations, i.e. diapause in part of each pupal generation, and cold hardiness, that could permit it to overwinter locally, and that it in fact did so. Usually, but not invariably, *M. plutellae* was detected before *D. insularis*; the latter has no known adaptations for wintering in our climate. It is therefore thought to be an annual immigrant, but this is not certainly known.

How do tiny wasp-like adult parasites home in on an isolated cluster of *Brassica* sp. plants carrying an infestation of host larvae? Are there so many of them that orientation and flight from a considerable distance is not necessary? Do they just drift along on the breeze and bump into the plants more or less on the basis of random encounter? If something attracts them, even from a short distance of a few m, is it the plants or the host larvae on the plants? Or perhaps more logically, first the plants and then the larvae? Experiments have not been designed and performed to

obtain answers to these questions; there might be ingenious persons out there who could think of ways to do it. The capability of an insect to orient toward an attractant source can be very great, as we have known for some time from the very general phenomenon of the reaction of male moths to a unique sex attractant released by females of the same species.

PUTNAM, L. G. 1973. Effects of the larval parasites *Diadegma insularis* and *Microplitis plutellae* on the abundance

of the diamondback moth in Saskatchewan rape and mustard crops. *Can. J. Plant Sci.* 53 (4):911-914.

² PUTNAM, L. G. 1978. Diapause and cold hardiness in *Microplitis plutellae*, a parasite of the larvae of the diamondback moth. *Can. J. Plant Sci.* 58 (3):911-913.

³ RAINEY, M. B., G. V. WARREN, A. D. HESS, and J. S. BLACKMORE. 1978. A sentinel chicken shed and mosquito trap for use in encephalitis field studies. *Mosquito News* 22(4):337-342.



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