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6	Article type : Research Paper
7	
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9	Editor: J. Wright
10	Cryptic castes, social context and colony defence in a social bee, <i>Tetragonula</i>
	carbonaria
11	Carbonana
12	
13	Short title: Cryptic castes and colony defence in a social bee
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29	Acknowledgments
30	Many thanks go to Tim Heard for arranging access to the colonies, advice on experimental
31	design and <i>T. carbonaria</i> behaviour.
32	
33	Conflict of interest

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the <u>Version of Record</u>. Please cite this article as <u>doi: 10.1111/eth.12765</u>

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- 34 We declare we have no conflict of interest
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### 36 Abstract

37 Division of labour in social insect colonies is facilitated in two ways: through temporal 38 sharing of tasks or by morphologically specialised castes. In casteless species, colony 39 defence is maintained by morphologically indistinct workers, who lack the obvious defensive 40 specialization of polymorphic species. Discrimination of intruders is carried out via antenna, 41 which also detect defensive social cues such as alarm pheromones. Despite their functional 42 importance however, antennal morphology is rarely considered in studies of nestmate 43 recognition. We investigated antennal morphology and the necessity of social cues in 44 mediating defensive behaviour across differentially tasked workers of a casteless social bee, 45 Tetragonula carbonaria. Our results suggest that the current understanding of division of 46 labour in casteless worker species remains poorly understood, with differences in antennal 47 morphology and aggression creating morphologically and behaviourally distinct 'cryptic 48 castes'. Further, we found that defensive behaviour was only elicited near nest odours. 49 highlighting the importance of mediating aggression among workers. 50

51

Keywords: caste, nestmate recognition, task allocation, antenna, Tetragonula carbonaria 52

### 53 Introduction

54 Division of labour in social insect societies is essential for colony organization and 55 maintenance. Often, it is facilitated by worker dimorphism and the evolution of highly 56 specialised castes (Wilson 1984; Fjerdingstad & Crozier 2006). In these societies, workers 57 are behaviourally variable and task allocation is static. Guards are among the most 58 specialised castes in highly polymorphic species, possessing distinctive morphological and 59 behavioural characteristics: nestmate recognition studies repeatedly reveal that these 60 workers are more aggressive than their typically smaller nestmates (Whitehouse & Jaffe 61 1996; Grüter et al. 2012). In contrast, task allocation changes temporally in species with 62 morphologically indistinct workers. Typically, workers in these species spend the first weeks 63 after eclosion engaging in in-nest duties such as nursing, then progress to guard behaviour 64 and eventually foraging (Robinson 1987; Gordon et al. 2005). In these casteless worker 65 societies, a lack of specialization suggests that each individual is similarly capable of 66 engaging with intruders and defending the nest.

67

68 Nest defence is of paramount importance to social insects that are frequently attacked by 69 predators, parasites and conspecific intruders (Breed & Page 1991). Nest defence in both 70 casteless and polymorphic worker species requires two steps: distinguishing between

- 71 nestmates and others, and an appropriate behavioural response (Leonhardt et al. 2016).
- Among bees, sensilla on the antennae and legs detect the cuticular profiles (CHC's) of other
- individuals. Olfactory receptors in the sensilla bind odour molecules, stimulating sensory
- 74 neurons that are then decoded in specialised regions of the brain (Kaissling 1971;
- Hildebrand 1995). Bees use CHC's to distinguish between nestmates and other intruders,
- and an unfamiliar profile typically causes an aggressive response (van Zweden & d'Ettorre
- 77 78

2010).

Antennae have an additional function involved with nest defence – the detection of cues that may motivate workers to react aggressively. Volatile signals, such as alarm pheromones, encourage defensive behaviour (Blum 1969), but more subtle social signals emanating from the nest may similarly activate a response (Couvillon et al. 2013). Given the functional importance of antennae, it is surprising that antennal morphology is rarely, if ever, considered in studies of nestmate recognition (but see (Gill et al. 2013)).

85

86 Workers in the eusocial meliponine bee *Tetragonula carbonaria* are morphologically 87 identical and, like other meliponine species (Sakagami 1982; Sommeijer 1984; Inoue et al. 88 1996; Grüter et al. 2017), task allocation is assumed to be associated with age, although 89 some meliponine species have evolved behaviourally distinct sub-castes (Hammel et al. 90 2016; Grüter et al. 2017). Guards in *T. carbonaria* are visible at the entrance and challenge 91 returning workers and potential intruders (Gloag et al. 2008). If an intruder is detected, they 92 are removed by a guard in a physical contest that is usually fatal for both combatants, 93 ensuring the cost of misidentification is high (Gloag et al. 2008; Cunningham et al. 2014; 94 Shackleton et al. 2015). We examined variation in antennal morphology and social cues 95 across guards and foragers in this casteless species, and determined their role in nestmate 96 recognition and defence. Specifically, we asked the following questions: (1) does the 97 response of bees to non-nestmates depend upon their proximity to nest odours; (2) do 98 guards and foragers respond differently to non-nestmates; and (3) do guards and foragers 99 differ in antennal morphology?

100

## 101 Methods

102 Colonies of *T. carbonaria* (n=5) used in our experiments were sourced from distinct and
103 unrelated wild colonies and raised in artificial hive boxes in suburban Brisbane, Australia.
104 Hive boxes contain a nest of around 8kg, similar to that of established wild colonies (Heard
105 2016). Foragers were caught in the air, using a clean plastic bag. Guards form a distinctive
106 ring at the nest entrance and were captured in a glass vial. Vials were used once only, to

- eliminate contamination through volatile or cuticular odours. Our sample includes workers of
  a range of ages because brood of *T. carbonaria* is produced continuously (Heard 2016).
- 109
- 110 Trials
- 111 A forager or guard (focal bee) was chosen from the holding container and placed in the test
- arena with a stimulus bee that was either a forager nestmate or forager non-nestmate. Only
- 113 the behaviour of the focal bee was monitored.

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114

The effect of social context was examined by employing two sets of assays: the first was conducted in an enclosed glass container washed with hexane between trials (Fig. 1a); and the second was conducted in a tube that was attached to the nest entrance (Fig. 1b). The container in the first trial was located roughly 6-8 metres from the nest. In the second trial, gauze was placed between the colony entrance and the test arena, allowing passage of volatile chemical odours, but not bees, into the test arena. In both assays, bees were allowed to acclimatize for one minute before being introduced to each other.

122

123 Trials only began once the bees had encountered each other, thereby accounting for any 124 effects of different sized containers. Each trial was then filmed (Sony DSCH90) for three 125 minutes. The digital recordings were replayed, and we noted the frequency of the following 126 behaviours of the focal bee: antennating or mutual touching of the antenna (typically 127 associated with mutual identification). Chasing, (one bee pursues the other, usually 128 accompanied by antennating on the abdomen of the escaping bee), a behaviour common in 129 Apis mellifera (Breed et al. 2004) and other meliponines (Inoue et al. 1999); and 130 grasping/fighting with mandibles and legs preventing either bee from escaping. This fighting 131 behaviour is often observed in this species and can involve a swarm of thousands of 132 workers (Heard 1996; Gloag et al. 2008; Cunningham et al. 2014).

133

Each of the four treatments were replicated with ten trials, using a randomized collection of bees from across the five colonies. Colony identity and treatment were not confounded, and the behavioural data were collected blind to task and nestmate status.

137

## 138 Morphological assays

139 After each trial, the focal bees were euthanized in a freezer. The antennae were removed

- 140 from the head and dehydrated through ethanol solutions of 75, 80, 85, 90, 95, and 100%.
- 141 Antenna were critically dried (Balzers CPD 030), then sputter coated with gold and
- 142 photographed in a scanning electron microscope (Phillips XL30 FEG). Sensilla density was
- 143 calculated across the middle two segments (five and six) and the most distal segments (nine

- 144 and ten) of the antenna. We manually counted the number of sensilla present within three
- 145 quadrats drawn onto each segment using ImageJ v1.49 with the Cell Counter package
- 146 (Schneider et al. 2012). The value across the quadrats was averaged, giving a mean value
- for density per 1000  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>. Body size, measured by intertegular distance, and head width,
- 148 measured as the widest point of the head viewed from above, were also calculated in
- 149 ImageJ.
- 150
- 151 Statistical analysis
- 152 We calculated an aggression index, following (Gill et al. 2013):
  - $\frac{\sum_{i}^{3}(A_{i} x f_{i})}{n}$

where  $A_i$  denotes the assigned aggression score for each behaviour i, *f* is the frequency of the behaviour and n is the number of all behaviours recorded. The behaviours were

assigned the following scores: antennation – 1; chasing – 2; grasping/fighting – 3.

156 We included antennation behaviour in the index because it represents an important

157 component of nestmate discrimination (see Breed et al., 2004), and also because we

158 observed bees persistently chasing and antennating non-nestmates, suggesting that the

- 159 behaviour has functions beyond 'exploratory' behaviour. Aggression and density scores
- 160 were compared using mixed models, with colony as a random effect, in JMP (v12.1), and

161 pairwise comparisons for aggression were analysed using Tukey's post hoc test.

162

### 163 Results

164 Social context

165 Bees in the sealed glass container displayed none of the behaviours observed in typical

166 worker-to-worker interactions in natural populations. Instead, the bees spent most of their

- 167 time attempting to locate a point of escape. In contrast, when the assay container was
- 168 connected to the nest, bees interacted frequently, and antennation, at a minimum, was
- 169 recorded during each trial, (see electronic supplementary material). There was a significant
- 170 difference in their behaviour across the four treatments ( $F_{3, 41} = 65.5866, p < 0.001$ ). The
- 171 mean aggression scores of foragers and guards against test nestmate bees were low (Fig.
- 172 **2a**), and did not strongly differ between tasks (Tukey's *post hoc* test, *p*=0.0557). Conversely,
- both focal guards and foragers reacted aggressively towards non-nestmate test bees, and
- 174 their scores were markedly different between tasks (Tukey's *post hoc* test, p = < 0.001), with
- the mean aggression scores of guards 1.2 times greater than that of foragers.
- 176

177 The antennation frequency of focal foraging bees toward non-nestmate foragers (**Fig. 2b**) 178 was significantly higher than focal guard; the mean frequency of foragers is 1.9 times higher 179 than that of guards (Tukey's *post hoc* test, p=0.0161).

180

### 181 Morphological assays

182 The sensilla density of both foragers and guards increased distally along the length of the 183 antenna (Fig. 3). However, regardless of segment, sensilla density was significantly higher 184 in guards compared with foragers ( $F_{(1,38)}$ = 5.0368, p=0.0369). Guards are also significantly 185 larger than foragers. The intertegular distance of guards (Fig. 4) (1.188mm ±0.0273) is 186 significantly larger than that of foragers (1.109  $\pm$ 0.0197), a mean difference of approximately 187 7% ( $t_{(18)} = 2.1001$ , p = 0.0302). Comparative results of head width are also consistent with 188 intertergular distance; the heads of guards (Fig. 5) (1.857mm ±0.0146) are significantly 189 wider than that of foragers (1.787  $\pm 0.0147$ ), a difference of approximately 4% (t<sub>(18)</sub> = 2.1009,

- 190 p = 0.0032).
- 191

### 192 Discussion

193 The response of workers of *T. carbonaria* to conspecifics depends upon both social context 194 and task. When isolated from their nest, workers did not interact with each other, but they 195 displayed inquisitive and aggressive behaviour towards one another in the presence of nest 196 odours. In these encounters, guards were more aggressive than foragers, reflected by a 197 greater willingness to physically engage with intruders. Workers are not only behaviourally 198 distinct but morphologically different; guards are both larger, and have significantly greater 199 numbers of antennal sensilla than foragers.

200

201 Our experiments highlight the importance of nest context in eliciting defensive behaviour in 202 *T. carbonaria.* Workers are likely to be able to detect their own nests through chemical 203 odours from the nest material, which in meliponines, is often similar to the workers cuticular 204 profile (Leonhardt et al. 2011a). This may allow guards to readily compare the cuticular 205 profiles of returning workers against nest odour. In addition, workers in close proximity to the 206 nest may also respond to vibrational signals that may reveal nest identity (Hunt & Richard 207 2013). The importance of workers confining their defensive behaviour to the critical area of 208 the nest entrance may reflect the potential cost of recognition errors: experimentally induced 209 defensive swarm responses from a *T. carbonaria* colony revealed that one in five workers 210 engaged in fatal fighting had inadvertently coupled with a nestmate (Gloag et al. 2008). In 211 addition, these fighting swarms may last for several days, seriously affecting the ability of the 212 colony to forage. Given the cost of these antagonistic encounters, there is a strong

213 functional benefit to ensuring that defensive behaviour is context-specific. Our results may 214 help explain the surprisingly low levels of aggression towards non-nestmates in other bees, 215 revealed from trials in isolated arenas (Leonhardt et al. 2011b; Dew et al. 2014) but see 216 (Breed & Page 1991). Social context is also important in honey bees, whose defensive 217 behaviour is usually only expressed at the nest entrance and environmental or social cues 218 may be required to discriminate nestmates (Downs & Ratnieks 1999; Buchwald & Breed 219 2005). Similarly, gynes of *Polistes fascatus* that are not exposed to their natal nest struggle 220 to discriminate between related and non-related females (Shellman & Gamboa 1982). 221 Future nestmate recognition studies should consider the role of social odours when 222 measuring adgression, or they may fail to capture the full range of behaviours performed in 223 nest defence (Breed 2003).

224

225 The consistent pattern of differential investment in antennal sensilla between guards and 226 foragers likely reflects differences in required capacity to detect signals. Guards are the 227 frontline defence of the nests of meliponine bees, and threats of usurpation from 228 neighbouring conspecific colonies are common (Cunningham et al. 2014; Grüter et al. 2016). 229 In bumblebees, larger workers have a higher density of olfactory antennal sensilla and 230 greater odour sensitivity (Spaethe et al. 2007). Similarly, higher sensilla density may allow T. 231 carbonaria guards to identify intruders more quickly and or accurately than foragers, 232 especially if these sensilla contain receptors for nest recognition signals. This interpretation 233 of a link between sensilla density and efficient signal detection is consistent with reported 234 differences in the density of sensilla between social and solitary bees, which presumably 235 reflect a greater investment in antennal receptor organs in social species (Wittwer et al. 236 2017).

237

238 Constraining the definition of worker castes to obvious gross polymorphisms may be 239 unhelpful, as differences in finer morphological structures may create 'cryptic castes' within 240 worker populations. We use 'cryptic' to indicate that the morphological differences are simply 241 less obvious than in 'conventional' castes – in a manner analogous to 'cryptic' female choice 242 and 'cryptic' species. Although foragers in our assays chased and antennated more often 243 than guards, only guards attacked non-nestmate intruders. Soldier or guard castes of 244 polymorphic social insects are also typically larger and have elevated levels of aggression 245 (Jandt & Dornhaus 2009; Kamhi et al. 2015). A larger body and greater head width may 246 benefit guards, who are most likely to engage intruders in physical contests, where a large 247 body size is likely to be useful. Our results are consistent with a recent study documenting 248 worker differentiation in ten other stingless bee species (Grüter et al. 2017), where size and 249 colour dimorphism is associated with previously unknown guard castes. Age polyethism

(Wilson 1971) is not precluded as a driver of task allocation in *T. carbonaria*: younger
workers may remain in the nest, engaging in in-nest duties, subsequently adopting either
foraging or guarding tasks depending upon their sensilla density. Indeed, some guards may
subsequently become foragers, perhaps if their antennae are damaged (see Gill et al.,
2012). Accordingly, we predict far greater variation in the body and antennal size of younger
workers confined to the nest.

256

Variation in antennal morphology in these previously unnoticed cryptic castes allows *T. carbonaria* to produce workers optimally positioned to defend their colonies. Odour mediated
aggression ensures workers maintain behavioural plasticity, thereby giving the colony a
flexible and efficient response to threats.

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Figure 1 – Test arenas used in nestmate recognition trials (a) Bees were assayed in a
partitioned glass container, which was cleaned of odours between trials and located
between 6 and 8 metres from the nest. Each bee was given one minute to acclimatize
before the petition was raised and the trial began. (b) Second-round assays were performed
in a tube attached to the nest entrance, separated from the entrance by gauze, ensuring the
test bees did not encounter an erroneous worker. Again the test bee was given one minute
to acclimatize before the trial began.

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- 383 Figure 2 – Variation in aggression and antennation frequency of focal bees towards 384 nestmates and intruders in nest entrance trials. (a) Against nestmates aggression was 385 low and similar between guards and foragers. Against intruders, guards were significantly 386 more aggressive than foragers (Tukey's *post hoc* test, p = < 0.001). (b) Foragers antennated 387 on the antenna and abdomen of intruders significantly more often than the other treatments, 388 indicative of recognition but displaying an unwillingness to fight (Tukey's post hoc test, 389 p=0.0161). N = 10 for each trial. (Fn – forager nestmate, Fnn – forager non-nestmate, Gn – 390 guard nestmate, Gnn – Guard non-nestmate) 391
- Figure 3 Mean (± standard error) sensilla density on antennomeres five, six, nine and ten of *T. carbonaria* foragers and guards. Consistent with most reported Hymenopteran, density increases distally along the antenna in all workers. However, density in guards is significantly higher than foragers, particularly on the most distal region of the antenna ( $F_{(1,1)}$ = 5.0368, p=0.0369, n= 10). Bars are marked with standard error.
- Figure 4 Guards are consistently larger than foragers, as measured by intertegular distance. Mean size of guards is 1.188mm  $\pm 0.0273$ , which is significantly greater than that of foragers, with a mean of 1.109mm  $\pm 0.0197$ . White circles represent individual data points. N = 10.
- Figure 5 Head width of guards is also consistently larger than that of foragers. Mean head width of guards is 1.857mm  $\pm 0.0146$ , which is significantly greater than that of foragers with a mean of 1.787  $\pm 0.0147$ . White circles represent individual data points. N = 10.

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Cryptic castes, social context and colony defence in a social bee, Tetragonula carbonaria

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2018-08-01

### Citation:

Wittwer, B. & Elgar, M. A. (2018). Cryptic castes, social context and colony defence in a social bee, Tetragonula carbonaria. ETHOLOGY, 124 (8), pp.617-622. https:// doi.org/10.1111/eth.12765.

Persistent Link: http://hdl.handle.net/11343/284125