Southwestern Association of Naturalists

Aposematic Coloration in Dactylotum variegatum (Orthoptera: Acrididae): Support from

Vertebrate Feeding Trials

Author(s): Paul R. Neal, Mark R. Stromberg and Karen A. Jepson-Innes Source: *The Southwestern Naturalist*, Vol. 39, No. 1 (Mar., 1994), pp. 21-25

Published by: Southwestern Association of Naturalists Stable URL: https://www.jstor.org/stable/3672187

Accessed: 01-05-2024 12:26 +00:00

REFERENCES

Linked references are available on JSTOR for this article: https://www.jstor.org/stable/3672187?seq=1&cid=pdf-reference#references_tab_contents You may need to log in to JSTOR to access the linked references.

JSTOR is a not-for-profit service that helps scholars, researchers, and students discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content in a trusted digital archive. We use information technology and tools to increase productivity and facilitate new forms of scholarship. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

Your use of the JSTOR archive indicates your acceptance of the Terms & Conditions of Use, available at https://about.jstor.org/terms



 $Southwestern\ Association\ of\ Naturalists$ is collaborating with JSTOR to digitize, preserve and extend access to $The\ Southwestern\ Naturalist$

APOSEMATIC COLORATION IN DACTYLOTUM VARIEGATUM (ORTHOPTERA: ACRIDIDAE): SUPPORT FROM VERTEBRATE FEEDING TRIALS

PAUL R. NEAL, MARK R. STROMBERG, AND KAREN A. JEPSON-INNES

Department of Ecology and Evolution, State University of New York at Stony Brook, Stony Brook, NY 11794-5245 (PRN) National Audubon Society, Research Ranch Sanctuary, Box 44, Elgin, AZ 85611 (MRS) Department of Environmental, Population, and Organismic Biology, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 90309 (MRS, KAJ-I) Present address of PRN: Department of Botany, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078 Present address of MRS: Museum of Vertebrate Zoology, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720 Hastings Natural History Reserve, 38601 E. Carmel Valley Rd., Carmel Valley, CA 93924 Present address of KAJ-I: Department of Biology, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405

ABSTRACT—The palatability of the brightly colored and flightless Dactylotum variegatum (commonly called the rainbow grasshopper), relative to apparently cryptically colored and generally winged sympatric grasshopper species, was tested using local predators. Sparrows killed no D. variegatum when both this and other grasshopper species were offered in feeding trials. Mice, however, killed grasshoppers randomly. When similar numbers of D. variegatum were offered alone, mice killed a greater proportion of grasshoppers than the birds killed. When offered only D. variegatum, mice consumed significantly more of the D. variegatum that they killed than did birds. Mice consumed proportionately more of the D. variegatum killed when offered only this species than when offered a mixture of grasshopper species. We also observed nests of Cassin's sparrows to determine whether D. variegatum were delivered to nestlings by adults. No D. variegatum were delivered despite forming 18% of the grasshopper population in the area surrounding the nests. Although this species is highly visible, and represents a large portion of the grasshopper fauna, it does not appear to be proportionately consumed by the local predators we studied. This avoidance by predators may be an important factor influencing the abundance of the rainbow grasshopper in the local habitat. We conclude that the coloration of D. variegatum is aposematic, and is directed primarily at the visually hunting avian predators, being less of a deterrent to nocturnal mice.

The coloration, flight capability, and behavior of the rainbow grasshopper (Dactylotum variegatum (Scudder) (Melanoplinae)) are unusual among the orthopterans commonly found in southeastern Arizona. D. variegatum exhibits a bold color pattern (with bright orange and yellow-green markings on a dark blue background) in both nymphs and adults. This coloration causes the grasshopper to stand out from the background vegetation, at least to the human observer and

presumably to its visually hunting predators. Adults are brachypterous (i.e., have short wings) and, in contrast to most other grasshoppers of this area, are therefore flightless. This species also delays initiation of escape responses when approached or physically disturbed, in contrast to sympatric acridids (pers. obser.).

Despite characteristics which would appear to make this species susceptible to predation, *D. variegatum* is abundant among grasshoppers in our

study area. Because these characteristics of apparent vulnerability are typical of aposematic animals that are distasteful, dangerous, or otherwise strongly defended (Wickler, 1968; Edmunds, 1974), we hypothesized that the bright coloration advertises a protective unpalatability or distastefulness to potential predators. Here we report the results of feeding trials in which *D. variegatum* and other local orthopteran species were offered to sympatric birds and rodents known to consume grasshoppers. We also list grasshopper species that were delivered to nests of one of the bird species used in the feeding trials.

MATERIALS AND METHODS-The study was conducted at the Research Ranch of the National Audubon Society in Santa Cruz County, Arizona (elevation 1,500 m). All test grasshoppers and predators tested were locally sympatric and were taken from semidesert grassland dominated by native perennial grasses, especially Bouteloua gracilis, Lycurus phleoides, and Eragrostis intermedia. The most common perennial shrubs in this area are Happlopappus tenuisectus and Baccharis pteronoides (Bock and Bock, 1986; Brady et al., 1989). The predators we tested were lark sparrows (Chondestes grammacus), Botteri's sparrow (Aimophila botterii), Cassin's sparrow (A. cassinii), and deermice (Peromyscus maniculatus). These predators are common at this site and a large portion of their diets in other areas has been reported to be grasshoppers (Cottam and Knappen, 1939; Martin et al., 1951; Baepler, 1968; Williams and LeSassier, 1968).

Two types of feeding trials were conducted. Predators were offered either a mixture of grasshoppers including D. variegatum or were offered only D. variegatum. Because nymph and adult D. variegatum coloration and behavior are similar, we used them indiscriminately in the feeding trials. In the mixed-species feeding trials the predators were offered, along with D. variegatum, a mixture of Acrididae in various subfamilies in approximate proportion to the diversity of these grasshoppers in the field at the time of the test. The subfamilies included Gomphocerinae (Ageneotettix deorum Scudder, Aulocara femoratum Scudder, Eritettix simplex Scudder, Heliaula rufa (Scudder), Paropomala wyomingensis (Thomas), Psoloessa texana Scudder, Syrbula montezuma (Saussure)), Melanoplinae (Hesperotettix viridis (Thomas), Oedipodinae (Arphia pseudonietiana Bruner), and occasionally other unidentified species from these subfamilies. None of these species bore any resemblance to D. variegatum, most appearing to be cryptic in pattern and coloration.

Feeding trials were conducted by releasing one predator into a $1.0\text{-m} \times 1.6\text{-m} \times 0.7\text{-m}$ cage. The cages were constructed either of clear plastic with wire mesh (6 mesh/cm) vents or entirely of fine wire mesh. Dur-

ing testing, each cage contained water and grain, as well as rock, soil, and clumps of grasses taken from the study area. Four to 17 grasshoppers were offered, depending on our ability to obtain grasshoppers in the field at the time of each test. A total of 151 *D. variegatum* individuals and 105 individuals of the other species were offered to 26 individual predators in 30 feeding trials. In nine of these trials, predators were offered only *D. variegatum*. The numbers of grasshoppers alive and intact, killed but not eaten, and killed and consumed were tallied at the end of each trial. New grasshoppers were captured for each trial.

We tested six individuals of lark sparrow (Chondestes grammacus), three of Botteri's sparrow (Aimophila botterii), and four of Cassin's sparrow (A. cassinii). Each bird was caught in a mist net and immediately released into its own cage; grasshoppers were added about 0.5 h later. The trial was stopped after 1.5 to 3 h, by which time the bird had generally killed one quarter to one half of the prey. Thirteen deermice (Peromyscus maniculatus) were tested. Each mouse was captured at night and held alone over the next day in the feeding trial cage supplied with water and grain. The trials began at dusk the next day when the grasshoppers were released into the cages. The numbers of grasshoppers alive, killed but not eaten, and killed and eaten were tallied early the next morning.

Feeding trials were conducted from mid-August to mid-September 1984, and from early July to early August 1985, when both grasshoppers and predators were most abundant. The data were tested for independence using the G-Statistic. Williams' correction for a 2×2 contingency table of small sample size was applied (Sokal and Rohlf, 1981). For all reported values, d.f. = 1.

Feeding observations at nests were conducted in August 1983, during peak nesting season at this site. The identity of grasshoppers delivered by adult Cassin's sparrows to young at two nests was noted. Nests on an upland mesa of the Research Ranch were observed through binoculars from a blind set up approximately 25 m from each nest. Each nest was watched on two consecutive days (4 and 5 August and 11 and 12 August 1983), for a total of 8.5 h (3.0 and 5.5 h respectively). Observations were made at peak feeding times during morning and afternoon. Grasshoppers were categorized as D. variegatum or "other" for the purposes of this study. Grasshoppers were counted in the vicinity of the nests during a concurrent study by counting and identifying individuals as they were flushed from wire hoops (Jepson, 1985; Jepson-Innes and Bock; 1989). The census was conducted during July and August 1983, and included the area in which the nests were located.

RESULTS—The results of the feeding trials, pooled for each species of predator, are shown in

Tables 1 and 2. All three species of birds were offered a mixture of D. variegatum and other grasshoppers, but only non-D. variegatum species were killed. This result differs significantly from the hypothesis that the birds would kill grasshoppers randomly with respect to their frequency in the mixture offered (feeding trials pooled by species; lark sparrows, G = 24.307, P < 0.001; Botteri's sparrows, G = 13.333, P < 0.001; Cassin's sparrows, G = 28.486, P < 0.001). However, when deermice were offered a mixture of species, D. variegatum was killed in proportion to its frequency in the pooled mixture (G = 0.547, P > 0.5).

In feeding trials including only D. variegatum, both birds and deermice killed grasshoppers. Deermice killed significantly more D. variegatum than did the birds (pooled) under these conditions (G = 25.314, P < 0.001).

Not all of the D. variegatum individuals killed were eaten. Birds killed and consumed D. variegatum only when no other grasshopper species were offered. Deermice consumed significantly more of the D. variegatum they killed when offered D. variegatum alone than when offered this species in a mixture with other species (G = 5.606, P < 0.05). Considering only trials offering D. variegatum alone, deermice consumed significantly more of the D. variegatum they killed than did the birds (G = 4.245, P < 0.05).

Grasshoppers made up over 90% of the total number of food items delivered to these nests; other items were praying mantids and lepidopteran larvae. The numbers of D. variegatum and non-D. variegatum grasshoppers brought to the two nests were pooled. The adult sparrows delivered a total of 69 grasshoppers; 69 were non-D. variegatum species and none were D. variegatum. This is significantly fewer D. variegatum than expected (G = 15.15, P < 0.001), given that they represented 18% of the total grasshopper population during July and August (Jepson, 1985).

Discussion—Aposematic colors and patterns should be most effective with visually hunting predators. The birds we tested are all diurnal hunters. During the daylight hours (when the birds were tested), D. variegatum was easier for us to see in the cages than were the other grasshoppers. We assume, therefore, that the distinctive coloration of D. variegatum was not overlooked by birds in the feeding trials with the

TABLE 1—Fates of D. variegatum and other grasshoppers offered together to birds and to mice in feeding trials. Numbers of grasshoppers pooled for all feeding

trials with each predator. Numbers i	r. Numbers in	parentheses are the p	n parentheses are the proportion of the total number of grasshoppers in each category following the feeding trials.	of the total numb	er of grassho	oppers in each c	ategory following	gory following the feeding trials.	ıls.
		D. 0	D. variegatum			Other	Other grasshoppers		
Predator	Total offered	Alive	Killed, not consumed	Killed and consumed	Total offered	Alive	Killed, not consumed	Killed and consumed	Number of trials
Deermice Birds	30	2 (0.07)	9 (0.30)	19 (0.63)	38	1 (0.03)	0 (0.00)	37 (0.97)	11
Lark Sparrow	16	16 (1.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.63)	47	18 (0.38)	0 (0.00)	29 (0.62)	4
Botteri's Sparrow	6	9 (1.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	6	2 (0.22)	0 (0.00)	7 (0.78)	3
Cassin's Sparrow	111	11 (1.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	11	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	11 (1.00)	3
All birds	36	36 (1.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	29	20 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	47 (0.70)	10

TABLE 2—Fates of D. variegatum off	red alone to birds	and to mice in	feeding trials.	Numbers are to be
interpreted as indicated for Table 1.				

Predator	Total offered	Alive	Killed, not consumed	Killed and consumed	Number of trials
Deermice Birds	33	12 (0.36)	4 (0.12)	17 (0.52)	3
Lark Sparrow	47	43 (0.91)	4 (0.09)	0 (0.00)	5
Cassin's Sparrow	5	3 (0.60)	0 (0.00)	2 (0.40)	1
All birds	52	46 (0.88)	4 (0.08)	2 (0.04)	6

grasshopper mixture. Presumably, once this grasshopper is noticed, its slower escape behavior would cause it to be more readily captured if the birds chose to do so. We conclude that *D. variegatum* was perceived and actively avoided by these visually hunting predators. That the birds did kill *D. variegatum* when no other grasshopper species were present further corroborates this conclusion.

Deermice, however, are primarily nocturnal and forage using a well developed sense of smell. They would be less likely to detect the colors and pattern of their prey. Deermice were able to find and kill grasshoppers, but apparently did not discriminate between the *D. variegatum* and non-*D. variegatum* on the basis of color and pattern, as indicated by grasshoppers being killed at random with respect to their frequency in the mixed species tests.

Not all species with apparently aposematic coloration possess distasteful or dangerous characteristics. Since most of the D. variegatum killed by the birds were subsequently rejected as food and since we found no other species in the area that might serve as models for mimicry, we conclude that D. variegatum is not likely to be protected by a mimetic resemblance to another protected species. Our results suggest that D. variegatum itself possesses qualities that render it undesirable as food to these birds and that the bright coloration of D. variegatum serves an aposematic function. The brightly colored and closely related species D. pictum is reported to be inedible by "bantams, turkey, sparrows, mockingbirds, and others" (Isely, 1938).

Although deermice killed grasshoppers indiscriminately, *D. variegatum* is apparently less desirable as food. Having killed a grasshopper, a deermouse is less likely to consume *D. variegatum* than other species in the mixed species feeding

trials. We assume that the characteristics that make D. variegatum undesirable as a food item for birds also affect the deermice. Because deermice consumed a greater proportion of the D. variegatum offered to them than did the birds in the D. variegatum only feeding trials, we conclude that the effect of the deterrent was apparently not as strong for the mice under our test conditions. Mice were held for a longer period before testing and may have had a higher hunger level. This may have caused them to consume more of the D. variegatum that they killed than did the birds.

In addition to the hunger level of the predator, the unpalatability of a food item could be influenced by the strength of the deterrent characteristic as perceived by a particular predator. We noticed that while the birds generally consumed portions of the thoracic and abdominal exoskeleton of *D. variegatum* along with the internal organs, the deermice often consumed only the interior contents leaving the exoskeleton. Because toxic products are frequently sequestered in cuticular reservoirs by insects (Blum, 1978) feeding in this fashion may allow deermice to avoid the postulated deterrent.

One candidate for the feeding deterent is gymnospermin (Miyakado et al., 1974) or a derivative of this diterpenic alcohol which has been isolated from *D. variegatum* (cited in Whitman, 1990). Gymnospermin is produced by *Baccharis glutinosa*, a genus heavily fed on by *Dactylotum* spp. (Ball, 1936; Whitman, 1990). This composite is common at our study site (pers. obser., Bonham, 1972).

Avian predators have been shown to significantly affect the density and species composition of grasshopper populations in grassland systems (Joern, 1986; Bock et al., 1992). The protected status of *D. variegatum* may in part explain the

relatively high proportional representation of this species in our study site (Joern and Gaines, 1990; Bock et al., 1992).

For assistance capturing birds, mice, and grasshoppers we thank R. Akcakaya, R. Bowers, and T. Strong. J. Thomson and C. Bock and two anonymous reviewers provided useful comments on earlier versions of the manuscript. Logistical support provided by the staff of the Research Ranch Sanctuary is gratefully acknowledged. This is publication No. 896 in Ecology and Evolution from the State University of New York at Stony Brook.

LITERATURE CITED

- BAEPLER, D. H. 1968. Chondestes grammacus (Say): lark sparrow. Pp. 886-902, in Life histories of North American cardinals, grosbeaks, buntings, towhees, finches, sparrows, and allies (O. L. Austin, Jr., ed.). U.S. Natl. Mus. Bull. no. 237, Washington, D.C.
- Ball, E. D. 1936. Food plants of some Arizona grasshoppers. J. Econ. Entomol., 29:679-684.
- Blum, M. S. 1978. Biochemical defenses of insects. Pp. 465-513, in Biochemistry of insects (M. Rockstein, ed.). Academic Press, New York.
- BOCK, J. H., AND C. E. BOCK. 1986. Habitat relationships of some native perennial grasses in southeastern Arizona. Desert Plants, 8:3-14.
- BOCK, C. E., J. H. BOCK, AND M. C. GRANT. 1992. Effects of bird predation on grasshopper densities in an Arizona grassland. Ecology, 73:1706-1717.
- BONHAM, CHARLES D. 1972. Ecological inventory information storage-retrieval system for the Research Ranch, Elgin, Arizona. Range Sci. Dept. Science Ser. No. 14., Colo. State Univ., Fort Collins.
- Brady, W. W., M. R. Stromberg, E. F. Aldon, C. D. Bonham, and S. H. Henry. 1989. Response of a semidesert grassland to 16 years of rest from grazing. J. Range Mgmt., 42:284-288.
- COTTAM, C., AND P. KNAPPEN. 1939. Food of some uncommon North American birds. Auk, 56:136-169.

- EDMUNDS, M. 1974. Defence in animals. Longman Group Limited, Essex.
- ISLEY, F. B. 1938. Survival value of acridian protective coloration. Ecology, 19:370-389.
- JEPSON, K. A. 1985. Response of grasshoppers to changes in vegetation structure and availability: a comparison of grazed and ungrazed sites in southeastern Arizona. Unpubl. M.S. thesis, Univ. Colorado, Boulder.
- JEPSON-INNES, K. A., AND C. E. BOCK. 1989. Response of grasshoppers (Orthoptera: Acrididae) to livestock grazing in southeastern Arizona: differences between seasons and subfamilies. Oecologia, 78:430-431.
- JOERN, A. 1986. Experimental study of avian predation on coexisting grasshopper populations (Orthoptera: Acrididae) in a sandhills grassland. Oikos, 46:243-249.
- JOERN, A., AND S. B. GAINES. 1990. Population dynamics and regulation in grasshoppers. Pp. 415–482, in Biology of grasshoppers (R. F. Chapman and A. Joern, eds.). Wiley, New York.
- MARTIN, A. C., H. S. ZIM, AND A. L. NELSON. 1951. American wildlife and plants. Dover, New York.
- MIYAKADO, M., N. OHNO, H. YOSHIOKA, T. J. MABRY, AND T. WHIFFIN. 1974. Gymnospermin: a new ladan triol from *Gymnosperma glutinosa*. Phytochem., 13:189-190.
- SOKAL, R. S., AND F. J. ROHLF. 1981. Biometry. Freeman, New York.
- WHITMAN, D. W. 1990. Grasshopper chemical communication. Pp. 357–391, in Biology of grasshoppers (R. Chapman and A. Joern, eds.). Wiley, New York.
- WICKLER, W. 1968. Mimicry in plants and animals. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- WILLIAMS, F. C., AND A. L. LESASSIER. 1968. Aim-ophila cassinii (Woodhouse): Cassin's sparrow. Pp. 981-990, in Life histories of North American cardinals, grosbeaks, buntings, towhees, finches, sparrows, and allies (O. L. Austin, Jr., ed.). U.S. Natl. Mus. Bull. no. 237, Washington, D.C.