Effects of Queen Body Parts on the Production of New Sexuals in the Pharaoh's Ant, *Monomorium pharaonis* (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)

by

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ABSTRACT

The effects of the presence of queen body parts on the production of new sexuals in the Pharaoh's ant, *Monomorium pharaonis* were determined in this study. Whole live queens, whole dead queens and queen's thorax, head and gaster were used respectively in ant colonies consisting of 300-400 workers and 0.5 g of brood. Reproductives started emerging at day 57 after initiation of the experiment. Results showed that replicates with live queens were the slowest to produce sexuals. By day 64, only queenless replicates showed insignificant difference with the queenright colonies. At day 85, replicates with queen's gasters were not significantly different from the queenright and queenless colonies, causing the authors to suggest that suppression pheromones could be stored in the queen's gaster. Production of male alates was irregular throughout the entire 15 weeks of experiment. We hypothesize that a male alate could inseminate more than one virgin queen in its life.

Keywords: Monomorium pharaonis, queen, pheromones.

INTRODUCTION

The Pharaoh's ant [Monomorium pharaonis (L.)] has emerged to be one of the most important pest species in the world. Its notoriety in bacterial transmission at hospitals through sterilized apparatus makes it an even more burdensome pest. Over the years, many studies on the control of this species have been conducted. This includes the usage of juvenile hormone integrated into baits. Hormones such as this play an important part in caste differentiation in social insects. Although studies were conducted in the 1960s and the 1970s, they provided minimal information needed to fully comprehend the caste differentiation phenomenon. Queens of social insects are known for their ability to suppress the production of new sexuals. They are essentially the principal reproductives, if not exclusive, in eusocial insects. They play an important role in communication through production of numerous

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pheromones to coordinate activities within the colony (Hölldobler & Wilson 1990, Winston & Slessor 1992, Vargo 1998, 1999). Despite its royal importance, progress in understanding insect queen pheromones has been sluggish (Vargo & Hulsey 2000).

The best-studied queen pheromone system in social insects is that of the honey bee, *Apis mellifera* L. (Winston & Slessor 1992). The honey bee queen's mandibular gland produces a complex of five compounds that have several different effects. These effects include formation of a retinue of workers around the queen (Slessor *et al.* 1988), inhibition of construction of queen cells by workers (Winston *et al.* 1989, 1990), swarming suppression (Winston *et al.* 1991), delaying the onset of worker foraging behavior (Pankiw *et al.* 1998) and stimulation of foraging and brood rearing (Higo *et al.* 1992).

In queenless honey bee colonies, workers are found to be able to establish themselves as pseudoqueens, which express many of the characteristics associated with the reproductive physiology of the queen caste (Sakagami 1958). The queen's secretion is attractive to workers and was postulated to constitute a part of the complex queen signal (Katzav-Gozansky *et al.* 2002, as cited by Sole *et al.* 2002).

In ants, queen pheromones of *Solenopsis invicta* received the most attention (Vargo & Hulsey 2000). The poison sac, which houses the poison gland, was demonstrated to be a source of a releaser pheromone that attracts workers to the queen (Vander Meer *et al.* 1980). This poison sac was also found to be the source of queen primer pheromone that inhibits virgin queens from dealation and ovaries' maturation (Fletcher & Blum 1981, Vargo 1997). In addition, the queens produce a pheromone that restrains rearing of male and female reproductives by the workers (Vargo & Fletcher 1986, 1987) as well as a pheromone that causes mutual suppression of egg production among cohabiting queens in multiple-queen colonies (Vargo 1992).

The queen pheromones too play a role in regulating the number of queens in a colony through execution of excess queens by workers (Fletcher & Blum 1983). As rearing reproductives requires a massive amount of energy, social insects typically delay investment in fabricating reproductives until a suitable worker force is established (Klobuchar & Deslippe 2002). Such pheromones are often manipulated to prevent workers from laying eggs capable of developing into males (Bourke 1988), dictate larval feeding at critical periods to distort gyne development in female larvae (Vargo 1998) or simply by stimulating the workers to execute sexual larvae (Edwards & Abraham 1991, Vargo & Passera 1991). Killing of sexual larvae by workers has been well documented in numerous species of ants namely *Myrmica rubra*, *Plagiolepis pygmaea*,

Linepithema humile, Monomorium pharaonis and Solenopsis invicta. Executions are ignited in colonies of these pest ants when queens are present but not vice versa (Brian 1979, Passera 1969, 1980, Vargo & Fletcher 1986, Edwards & Abraham 1991, Vargo & Passera 1991).

One of the most striking examples of elaborate cooperative behavior comes from social insects. Although it seems perfect from the world outside, yet within the colony itself, conflict entails. In ants, the most significant conflict concerns sex ratio (Passera *et al.* 2001). Social hymenopterans employ the haplodiploid system in sex determination. As a result, workers are generally more related to sisters than brothers whereas the queens are equally related to her sons and daughters (Mehdiabadi *et al.* 2003).

Queens of many social insects produce a wide variety of pheromones that influence behavior, development and physiology of colony members profoundly (Hölldobler & Wilson 1990, Winston & Slessor 1992, Vargo 1998). Queen control is defined by her ability to influence reproductivity of nestmates (Wilson 1971, Fletcher & Ross 1985).

For instance, fire ant queens can indirectly influence nestmate reproduction by producing releaser pheromones that incite workers to eliminate sexual brood (Vargo & Fletcher 1986, 1987, Klobuchar & Deslippe 2002, reviewed in Brent & Vargo 2003). Functional queens are capable of mutual inhibition of egg production. These queens are also able to prevent dealation of virgin alates and inhibit them from becoming reproductively active (Fletcher & Blum 1981).

The queen pheromone may express its property by affecting nest-mate development through action on the corpora allata, thus altering the rate of the juvenile hormone release (Barker 1978, 1979, Vargo & Laurel 1994).

Removal of queens in laboratory colonies resulted in appearance of new reproductives. The same phenomenon was observed in a colony containing brood and workers reared in the absence of queen (Peacock *et al.* 1954, 1955). In a nest where fertile queens are present, rearing of new sexual forms was prevented (Edwards 1987).

This study focuses on how queens' presence affects offspring of new reproductives. The origin of the queen pheromone is also studied by manipulating queen's body parts in colonies containing workers and brood.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ants used in this study were Pharaoh's ants that have been reared in the Urban Entomology Laboratory since 1995. They were reared in the laboratory using aluminium trays $(40.0 \times 24.5 \times 8.0 \text{ cm})$ with the

inner sides laced with fluon to prevent escape. Food such as cockroach nymphs, tuna fish, hard-boiled egg yolk, honey and sugar water was given *ad libitum*. Water source was ensured to be available at all times using an up-turned polypropylene cup on a petri dish cover. Cotton was used to fill the petri dish cover to provide the moisture to the ants.

Queens were killed at freezing temperature before their body parts were taken. Freshly killed queens were cut accordingly to obtain the head, the thorax and the gaster. Some queens were left intact to be used in the replicates with whole dead queens.

Experimental colonies were set up with each colony consisting 300-400 workers and 0.3 g of mixed-stages brood. Queens' presence was manipulated into different conditions as follow:

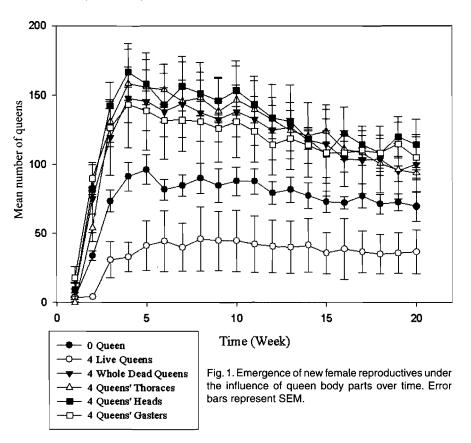
- (A) 4 Live queens
- (B) 4 Whole dead queens
- (C) 4 Queen's heads
- (D) 4 Queen's thoraces
- (E) 4 Queen's gasters

Each of the conditions mentioned above was replicated three times and food was provided every other day. Daily observations were made for emergence of new sexuals. After the first sight of new sexuals, surveillance was made on a weekly basis. This was done by taking digital still pictures of each colony. These photos were then used in enumerating the total number of new queens and male sexuals in each experimental colony. Data collected was subjected to One-Way ANOVA and the means were separated using Tukey HSD (p < 0.05).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We first observed new female reproductives emerging after 57 days from the initiation of the experiment. Three weeks later, queenless replicates were the only ones insignificantly different from the queenright colonies. At week 6, replicates with queen's gasters were not significantly different from the queenless and queenright colonies (Fig. 1). This shows that the production of new female reproductives may have been suppressed by the presence of queen's gasters.

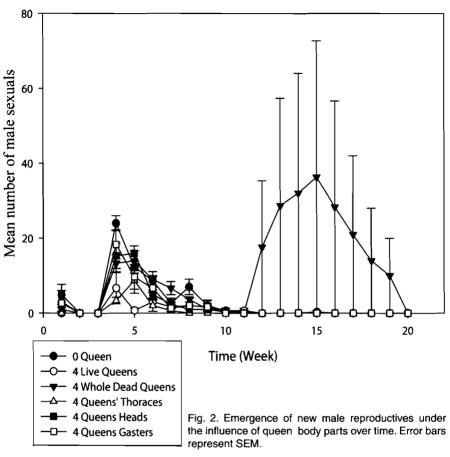
Results also showed that queen body parts enhanced the making of female reproductives. These body parts seem to generate a void that the workers pick up and hence create more sexual larvae amongst existing brood pile. Queen's gasters were not sensed as a sign of queen's death probably because the suppression pheromones were stored here. Queenless replicates did not show significant differences in terms of mean numbers when compared with the queenright colonies. There-



fore, death of queens could be a factor to trigger the offset of queen production in a colony.

However, emergence of male reproductives (Fig. 2) did not clearly portray a pattern for analysis. Most of them perished by Week 11 after the first batch of female reproductives emerged. In queenright colonies, the queens inhibit production of new reproductives by competing for "profertile" food that is needed most by developing sexual larvae (Buschinger & Kloft 1973) or by producing inhibitory pheromones (Berndt 1977). The presence of fertile queen alone is enough to generate instincts to kill sexual larvae in a colony (Edwards & Abraham 1991).

Queens exert their inhibitory effects differently in three phases of their lives. The young queens' ability is minimal as they have yet to mature in terms of egg-laying capacity. The mature queens have the most influential inhibitory effects. These mature queens also have visibly bigger gasters. When queens enter the final days of their lives,



they become senile and possess zero capability in inhibition (Peterson-Braun 1975, Edwards 1984). It has also been demonstrated that virgin queens inhibit the production of reproductives to a certain extent (Berndt & Nitschmann 1979, Edwards 1984). In addition, Brian & Blum (1969) suggested that the queens seem to contain both the stimulatory and suppressive substances. Dead queens and extracts of queens of *Lasius alienus* and *Pheidole pallidula* were also shown to stimulate certain behavior patterns in workers, the most obvious being assembling, licking and transportation (Stumper 1956, reviewed in Brian & Hibble (1963). Brian & Blum (1969) further solidify queen's role in governing sex determination where workers of *Myrmica rubra* attacked female larvae but not if they are male, leading to the suggestion that the female larvae are sensed as potential rivals. In 1962, Carr showed

that dead queens replaced regularly were effective in suppressing larval growth and eliminating a behavioral mechanism for transmitting information to the workers and larvae. Carr later demonstrated that the mandibular gland of queens produced an attractive volatile chemical. These glands, when immersed in purified paraffin oil, increased larval growth rate (Brian & Hibble 1963). They also found whole queen heads crushed in ethanol and applied on larvae halved the amount of queen production whereas live queens reduced it to zero. All these observations have led to the proposition that queens contain both the stimulatory and suppressive substances.

Other body parts of the queen too have been shown to manifest effects on the production of reproductives. For instance, Vander Meer et al. (1982) suggested that the queen's postpharyngeal gland serves social functions in S. invicta. Vargo & Hulsey (2000) found that the head and the abdomen of S. invicta are equally attractive to the workers. Cogliotore & Cammaerts (1981) also found similar observations with M. rubra where the head, thorax and abdomen were all equally attractive in relation to their relative surface areas. Besides that, neocembrene produced in the Dufour's gland of the Pharaoh's ant queen may serve as a queen recognition compound (Edwards & Chambers 1984). Conversely, Cariou-Etienne et al. (1992) found that the thorax of the queens of L. humile was more attractive than the head or abdomen and they suggested that the metapleural gland or the epidermal cells in the thorax could be the source of the queen attractant.

Apart from new reproductives, queens are known to inhibit female reproductives from developing their ovaries and shedding their wings in the fire ant, *S. invicta* (Fletcher & Blum 1981, 1983). The queens produce a pheromone that inhibits workers from rearing male and female reproductives (Vargo & Fletcher 1986, 1987). In multiple-queen colonies, queen pheromones suppress egg production mutually among cohabiting queens (Vargo 1992).

Edwards & Abraham (1991) further proved the existence of queen's pheromonal control when introduced sexual larvae were cannibalized in the presence of queens. In *S. invicta*, queen pheromone induces workers to kill sexual larvae in the presence of a dealated queen. This pheromone is believed to have come from the poison sac, located in the gaster (Vargo & Hulsey 2000). Queen corpses were also found to have significant effects on stimulating execution of sexual larvae (Klobuchar & Deslippe 2002). This was in conformity with the results of this study where the dead queen's gasters were found to have inhibitory effects.

Rearing sexual larvae requires a mammoth amount of energy and resources. If a colony already consists of healthy and fertile sexuals, investment of such nature will drain the colony of resources. By having a system that regulates production of new sexuals, energy flow will be fully utilized and redistributed within the colony (Klobuchar & Deslippe 2002).

In the males, production was inconsistent and led to the conclusion that male sexuals are capable of inseminating the queens more than once in their relatively short lifespan. This finding was agreeable to Edwards' (1986) speculation where a single male was thought to mate up to four times. There is not much information available on this particular caste in ants as they have often been overlooked and understudied. Among the very little available preceding studies, Passera & Keller (1994) observed that the males of L. humile take flight into foreign colonies when opportunities are scarce in their mother colony. Their acceptance is largely based on the colony itself. When a colony is in need of increasing colony genetic diversity, the foreign males are readily accepted. Otherwise, they would be killed almost instantly. Death is usually inevitable in this species because queens generally bite the males violently to end mating (Keller & Passera 1992). However, the production of males or the effects of queens' presence were not discussed. There are still many fissures to be filled to comprehend the role of the males in ants. It is crucial that more studies are conducted to bridge the gap to further understand this phenomenon.

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