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Chemical and visual ecology of the Symphyta

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Abstract

- The Symphyta is the most basal sub-order of the Hymenoptera and includes the woodwasps, horntails and sawflies, many of which are pests. Adults are generally short-lived and as a result males and females experience strong selection to rapidly find a mate and females to find oviposition sites. Mate-searching typically relies on visual and olfactory stimuli such as sexually dimorphic morphology (i.e., body parts used in signalling) and pheromones.
- Here we review the available literature on the chemical and visual ecology of the Symphyta with potential for use in survey and detection programmes. Stimuli reviewed include but are not limited to sex pheromones, larval defensive compounds, plant kairomones and colour preferences.
- 3. Sex pheromones are known for 19 species of Symphyta and show shared evolutionary patterns in chemistry, production site and ecological role.
- 4. In general, sex pheromones in the Symphyta are female-produced, oxidized cuticular hydrocarbons and yellow traps capture more individuals than other colours, although exceptions do exist. More work is needed to expand on these and identify new patterns in the visual and chemical ecology of the Symphyta.

KEYWORDS

colour vision, Hymenoptera, insect control, pheromone

INTRODUCTION

The Hymenoptera started to diversify ~280 million years ago during the Permian period. More than 115,000 extant species of Hymenoptera (e.g., bees, ants, wasps, sawflies) have been described, but it has been estimated that as many as a million species remain undescribed (Sharkey et al., 2017). Two suborders are recognized (Peters et al., 2017). The Symphyta is an older paraphyletic group that contains the primitive Hymenoptera (woodwasps, horntails and sawflies). The younger suborder, the Apocrita (e.g., ants, bees, wasps), is monophyletic. Although the Symphyta is not a monophyletic group, we use it in this review to refer to non-Apocrita Hymenoptera.

The Symphyta contains ca. 8855 species in 817 genera, 7 superfamilies and 14 families (Sharkey et al., 2017; Taeger et al., 2010, 2018). Phylogenetic studies split the Symphyta into three major groups that differ in larval feeding habit. The suspected ancestral group, the Eusymphyta (superfamily: Tenthredinoidea, Xyeloidea and Pamphilioidea) are ectophytophagous and monophyletic. The second group, the endophytophagous Symphyta (superfamily: Cephoidae, Xiphydrioidea, Siricoidea) are paraphyletic. The third group includes the superfamily of Orussoidea which are larval parasitoids and are monophyletic.

Similar to many other insects, the Symphyta are important components of food webs. Larvae actively contribute to the carbon chain by decomposing plant material. Larvae usually feed on plant tissues (e.g., nectar, pollen, leaves, sap, fruit juice) although some species feed on fungal and insect tissues (Jervis & Vilhelmsen, 2000). Adults can be important pollinators (Asenbaum et al., 2021; Barbir et al., 2019). Several species from the family Tenthredinidae have potential for use as biological control agents against invasive plants (Smith, 1993). For

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example, the Tenthredinidae *Nematus oligospilus* was identified as a potential biological control agent for *Salix* spp. in Australia (Caron et al., 2011, 2014). Another Tenthredinidae, *Lophyrotoma zonalis*, was found to be a potential biological control agent for the paperbark tree in Florida (Burrows & Balciunas, 1997), and *Heteroperryia hubrichi* (Pergidae) as a potential biological agent of the Brazilian peppertree (Cuda et al., 2005).

Some species of Symphyta can be important pests of cultivated plants including roses (Özbek & Çalmaşur, 2005), fruit trees (Boevé et al., 1996; Ibrahim et al., 2019), rapeseed-mustard (Patel et al., 2017), stem crops (Wallace & McNeal, 1966), plum trees (Kárpáti et al., 2021) and pine trees (Slippers et al., 2011). Some pest species of Symphyta can have significant economic impact. For example, the wheat stem sawfly Cephus cinctus can cause more than 30% crop loss with an associated cost of \$350 million in the Great Plains of North America (Beres et al., 2011). The potential losses associated with the establishment of the invasive woodwasp Sirex noctilio in Eastern Canada on pine trees were estimated to range from \$86 to \$254 million per year (Yemshanov et al., 2009). In Finland, the large pine sawfly Diprion pini was found to reduce growth of pine trees up to 94% and kill up to 30% of trees after an outbreak with an estimated cost of \$310/ha in 1 year (Lyytikäinen-Saarenmaa & Tomppo, 2002). Between 1997 and 2010 at Mt. Hinokiboramary (Japan), ~18% of beech trees were killed by the nematine sawfly Fagineura crenativora (Koshiji et al., 2012 in Watanabe et al., 2018). Two years of severe attack by the pine sawfly Neodiprion sertifer caused a 33% volume loss in mature pine trees (Austarå et al., 1987). In Sweden, larvae of the European birch sawfly Arge pullata are toxic and can be ingested by pets and cattle (Anderbrant & Broad, 2019).

With the exception of Antarctica, Symphyta are found on every continent on earth. They occupy diverse environments, from arid to tropical forests, wherever their host plants are present. New discoveries of symphytan pests outside their native range have often been reported (Blank et al., 2010; Kirichenko et al., 2019; Looney et al., 2016; Macek & Sipek, 2015; Park et al., 2019) suggesting that as a group they have a high invasion potential. The rate of introduction of invasive pests and pathogens is expected to increase with climate change and globalization (Bradshaw et al., 2016; Chakraborty & Newton, 2011; Huang et al., 2011; Qin et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2017; Yan et al., 2017; Ziska et al., 2011) suggesting that incursions by Symphyta may become more common.

Globally there has been an increase in the need for survey and detection tools against insect pests, including the Symphyta. Understanding and managing the spread of invasive species is more important than ever and relies on efficient detection tools. Survey and detection tools facilitate determination of which pests are present, population levels and associated damage. They also facilitate the evaluation of the impact of intervention treatments. However, the development and implementation of efficient survey and detection tools require a good understanding of the biology of the targeted insect pest.

Adult Symphyta usually live for a few days up to a few weeks (Smith, 1993) and thus experience selection to rapidly locate mates and host plants. Adults generally rely on vision and olfaction to locate these resources. As a result, these stimuli alone or in combination can be replicated on traps to significantly increase insect capture (Domingue et al., 2013; Hawkes et al., 2017; Raguso & Willis, 2005; Shrestha et al., 2019; Silk et al., 2019; Vuts et al., 2012). Research on the visual and chemical ecology of the Symphyta offers opportunities to develop survey and detection tools. This review synthesizes the literature on and the chemical and visual ecology of the Symphyta with an emphasis on stimuli with potential applications for survey and detection.

VISUAL AND CHEMICAL BASIS FOR MATE LOCATION IN SYMPHYTA

The morphology and behaviour of the Symphyta suggest that vision and olfaction play an important role in its biology. The majority of Symphyta possess antennae, two compound eyes and three ocelli. Most adult Symphyta are diurnal (Naumann, 1997) and diurnal species typically rely, at least partially, on visual stimuli to locate mates and hosts.

In some insects, mate location is mediated by sexually dimorphic traits. Sexual dimorphism in the Symphyta includes differences in eye (e.g., Abiinae), mandible (e.g., Cimbicidae) and hind leg (e.g., Siricidae, Cimbicidae) size, antennal morphology (e.g., Diprionidae), body colouration and pheromone production (Cooperband et al., 2012; Crook et al., 2008; Hallberg, 1979; Vilhelmsen, 2019). Martínez et al. (2014) placed sticky mesh at various heights in pine canopies in Argentina and observed that females flew higher when males were present than when males were absent. Field trials comparing traps baited with males to traps without males suggest that female *S. noctilio* use visual stimuli to locate males (Allison et al., 2019). Cumulatively, the available morphological and behavioural evidence suggests that Symphyta use visual stimuli to locate mates and hosts.

Transcriptome studies reflect the importance of olfaction in the Symphyta. A total of 72 odorant receptor genes were found in the C. cinctus genome (a smaller number than all species of Apocrita with known numbers of odorant receptors) (Robertson et al., 2018), and 28 odorant receptors were identified in the antennal transcriptome (Gress et al., 2013). A phylogenetic analysis of these odorant receptors revealed homology with other apocritan (Apis melifera and Nasonia vitripennis) odorant receptors, but some lineages conserved in the Symphyta have been lost in the Apocrita (Ferguson et al., 2021; Robertson et al., 2018). Antennal structures in the Symphyta also suggest an important role for long- and short-range communication. Lower Cretaceous Symphyta fossils already showed large male antenna supposedly used in long-distance mate finding (Krogmann et al., 2013). Studies of S. noctilio antennae show that ~80% of sensilla on the antennae were contact pheromone receptors (Crook et al., 2008). The sensillar structure and/or the morphology of the antenna can be sexually dimorphic (Hallberg, 1979; Schmidt et al., 2006). For example, differences in the antennal ultrastructure of male and female Acantholyda posticalis (Pamphilidae) strongly suggest

the presence of a long-range sex pheromone (Yuan et al., 2013). Transcriptomic, morphological and physiological data show that Symphyta can use their antenna and other body parts [*S. noctilio* can detect host volatiles with their ovipositor (Hayes et al., 2015)] to detect volatile organic compounds.

Cuticular hydrocarbon (CHC) production in the Symphyta is also sexually dimorphic. The primary role of CHCs in communication of solitary hymenoptera is to mediate mate, species and sex recognition. The complexity of CHC profiles in the Symphyta is similar to the rest of the Hymenoptera, including social species (Kather & Martin, 2015). Long chains of alkenes in C. cinctus [(Z)-9-pentacosene and (Z)-9-heptacosene] and S. noctilio [(Z)-7-heptacosene, (Z)-7-nonacosene and (Z)-9-nonacosene)], or alkadienes in Pikonema alaskensis [(Z,Z)-9,19-alkadiene] and A. erythrocephala [(Z,Z)-1,9,15-pentacosatriene] were only found on females and were shown to elicit a copulatory response or to excite males (Bartelt et al., 1982, 2002; Böröczky et al., 2009). Experimental evidence suggests that female L. analis (Pergidae) with their CHCs removed are not attractive to males but become attractive when their CHCs are reapplied (Schmidt et al., 2006). Similarly, body washes of virgin females in two Cephalcia species were more attractive to males than male extracts (Borden et al., 1978; Nemer et al., 2007).

PHEROMONES IN SYMPHYTA

We mapped known sex pheromones of Symphyta onto a recent phylogeny representing the relationships of the families in this order (Peters et al., 2017) to look for possible evolutionary patterns (Figure 1). Volatile pheromones from 19 species within 6 families of Symphyta are known from the literature; 12 species of Diprionidae and in 1 to 2 species from the 5 other families (2 Pamphilidae, 1 Nematinae, 1 Tenthredininae, 1 Siricidae and 2 Cephidae). All the pheromones described were released by females, except for the putative male pheromone of the woodwasp *S. noctilio*. The chemical structure found in most Symphyta pheromones includes an oxygen functional group (mostly aldehyde, alcohol, ketone or ester) followed by a long alkene, alkane or branched-alkane chain. The different compounds found within and between species mostly differ in their functional groups and carbon chain lengths. This chemical structure is found in several families and may be ancestral in the Symphyta.

In the Symphyta, volatile pheromones have been most extensively studied in the family Diprionidae (Genus: *Diprion, Neodiprion, Macrodicprion, Microdiprion* and *Gilpinia*). In brief, sex pheromones in this family are released by females and usually follow a similar structural motif. The sex pheromone precursor in the Diprionidae is typically a chain of 3,7-methylalkane-2-ol 11-16 carbons long (Anderbrant et al., 2011, 2021; Bång et al., 2011; Bergström et al., 1995, 1998; Hedenström et al., 2006, 2009; Jewett et al., 1976; Olaifa et al., 1987, 1988; Östrand et al., 2003; Tai et al., 1998, 2002; Wassgren et al., 1992, 2000). Some species possess an additional methyl group at various positions on the 3-methylalkane-2-ol precursor (Bergström et al., 1998; Wassgren et al., 2000). The pheromone precursor is stored in the female and is esterified into an acetate and/or a propionate during release (Anderbrant, 1999). Pheromone precursors are typically present in higher titres than the pheromone making them easier to identify.

The pheromone production pathway appears to be well conserved in the Diprionidae. In addition to known pheromones, field trials with different possible esterified isomers were attractive to several species of Diprionidae (Anderbrant et al., 1997; Guo-fa et al., 1997; Kikukawa et al., 1982; Kraemer et al., 1983, 1984; Olaifa et al., 1984; Zhang et al., 2005). Although these structures have not been confirmed as pheromones, their activity in field trials and similarity to known pheromones of other species of Diprionidae suggest that they are pheromones. To date, pheromones and/or pheromone precursors of 12 Diprionidae species have been identified and field trials have identified putative pheromones in an additional 8 species (see Table S1, Supporting Information). For these compounds, additional work is required to confirm production and release of the pheromone and/or precursors. Usually, one isomer elicits larger antennal responses and/or captures more males in field trials (Anderbrant et al., 2005: Hedenström et al., 2006, 2009: Kraemer et al., 1984). The response of Diprionidae to additional isomers can vary with dose (Anderbrant et al., 2021), ratios (Olaifa et al., 1988) and among populations (Anderbrant et al., 2000). Details of the precursor chemistry, antennal activity and field trial responses to the different isomers in the Diprionidae have been reviewed by Anderbrant (1993, 1999).

The chemistry of volatile pheromones identified in the rest of the Symphyta is similar among distant families. Volatile pheromones in the Symphyta generally include a long chain of alkene with an oxygen-containing functional group [Pamphiliidae (Baker et al., 1983; Staples et al., 2009), Nematinae (Bartelt et al., 1983; Bartelt & Jones, 1983), Tenthredininae (Hall et al., 2017), Cephidae (Bartelt et al., 2002; Cossé et al., 2002), Siricidae (Cooperband et al., 2012; Faal et al., 2022; Guignard et al., 2020)]. Within species, pheromone components usually have similar functional groups but different alkene chain lengths. Functional groups include alcohols (Siricidae Nematinae), aldehydes (Pamphilidae, Nematinae), esters and (Tenthredininae) and acetoxy (Cephidae). The sex pheromone of the web-spinning larch sawfly (Pamphilidae) differs from the rest of Symphyta as it is the only one with two functional groups (amino and ketone) branched on a cyclohexatriene (Baker et al., 1983). This pheromone induced abdomen flexing and short flights in males but no upwind flight. There is a need to study more families to get a broader understanding of the evolution of pheromone chemistry in the Symphyta.

Two primary sites of sex pheromone production have been reported in the Symphyta. In the Pamphiliidae (Staples et al., 2009), Nematinae (Bartelt et al., 1983), Siricidae (Faal et al., 2022) and Cephidae (Bartelt et al., 2002) female-specific CHCs are oxidized into smaller and more volatile sex pheromones. Extracts of the female abdomen of the cedar web-spinning sawfly *C. tannourinensis* and the pine sawfly *N. sertifer* had much higher titres of sex pheromone than extracts of the head and thorax (Nemer et al., 2007; Wassgren et al., 1992). The putative sex-aggregation pheromone released by

male *S. noctilio* is the only pheromone in the Symphyta known to be stored in a specific body part (the hind legs) (Guignard et al., 2020). Pheromones for the rest of the Symphyta were not found to be stored

in a specific gland and are all released by females. The chemistry of pheromones from different release sources does not strongly differ in the Symphyta.

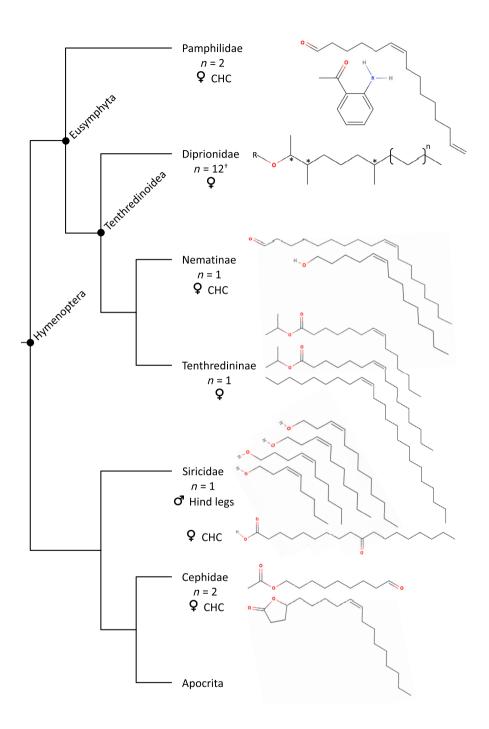


FIGURE 1 Phylogenetic tree of non-Apocrita hymenopteran families (left, adapted from Peters et al., 2017) and their corresponding pheromone structures (right). The number of species where the pheromone was available from literature was indicated by N. In Diprionidae, three structures are possible: R—H for the alcohol precursor, R—COCH₃ for the acetate or R—COCH₂CH₃ for the proprionate. Only the acetate or propionate is active in the field. *Indicates asymmetric centres. [†]Pheromones in Dirpionidae were identified in 12 species but attractive isomers were tested in 20 species (see text). The length of carbon chain (*n*) after the 7th carbon can vary for a total of 11–16 and can include an extra methyl group (e.g., *Macrodiprion nemoralis, Microdiprion pallipes* or *D. nipponica*). Pamphiliidae: (Baker et al., 1983; Staples et al., 2009), Nematinae (Bartelt et al., 1983; Bartelt & Jones, 1983), Tenthredininae (Hall et al., 2017), Cephidae (Bartelt et al., 2002; Cossé et al., 2002), Siricidae (Cooperband et al., 2012; Guignard et al., 2020), Diprionidae; see Table S1, Supporting Information

Pheromone-based tactics have potential for use in the field to manage populations of Symphyta. For example, strong mating disruption of the pine sawfly N. sertifer was observed in plantations where the percentage of male cocoons (this species is parthenogenetic and unmated females only produce male progeny) increased from 3% to 46% in forests treated with sex pheromones (Martini et al., 2002). In the field, traps baited with the respective synthetic female sex pheromones of Cephalcia lariciphila (Baker et al., 1983), A. erythrocephala (Staples et al., 2009), Janus integer (James et al., 2003), P. alaskensis (Bartelt et al., 1983), Nematus olfaciens (Hall et al., 2017) and C. cinctus (Cossé et al., 2002) captured more males than unbaited controls. In N. olfaciens, the addition of the (Z)-9-tricosene CHC present in both male and female to a blend of two volatile pheromones extracted from virgin females significantly increase the number of catches compared with blends without the CHC (Hall et al., 2017). Although the potential for use in the field to monitor these species has been demonstrated, management programmes that include the use of these pheromones have not yet been developed. In S. noctilio, both the male and female pheromones were attractive in lab bioassays, but have not been shown to be attractive in the field (Cooperband et al., 2012; Faal et al., 2022; Hurley et al., 2015) suggesting they may have limited utility for survey and detection of this pest of plantation pines.

The chemical ecology of the Symphyta includes larval compounds. Tenthredinidae larvae release a great diversity of volatile compounds from their ventral gland thought to be defensive compounds (Boevé et al., 1992, 2000; Duffield et al., 1990; Jonsson et al., 1988). 1,6-Germacradien-5-ol released from larvae of the diprionidae *N. sertifer* likely possess an antimicrobial function (Bergström et al., 1994). These larval compounds have not been shown to be attractants and for that reason are not considered further in this review. However, unidentified larval compounds such as trail pheromones (Flowers & Costa, 2003; Vincent et al., 2019) could be useful for future pest control programmes.

VISION IN SYMPHYTA

Very little is known about the visual ecology of the Symphyta. Humans typically perceive colour by comparing the information received from the red, green and blue photoreceptors ($\lambda_{max} = 564$, 534 and 420 nm, respectively). The three photoreceptors found in most Apocrita are the ultraviolet, blue and green sensitive photoreceptors, but their respective sensitivity can vary among species (van der Kooi et al., 2021). Peitsch et al. (1992) used intracellular electroretinograms to demonstrate that between two and four photoreceptors are present in several species of Symphyta. The ultraviolet, blue and green photoreceptors were found in Tenthredo campestris (Tenthredinidae) ($\lambda_{max} =$ 328, 464 and 540 nm, respectively), which also possesses an extra red photoreceptor ($\lambda_{max} = 596$ nm) (Peitsch et al., 1992). The green and red photoreceptors were found in two other species of Symphyta, T. scrophulariae ($\lambda_{max} = 532$ and 592 nm, respectively) and Xiphydria cameus (Xiphydriidae) ($\lambda_{max} = 556$ and 604 nm, respectively). Finally, the only photoreceptor found in

Urocerus gigas (Siricidae) was the green photoreceptor $(\lambda_{max} = 542 \text{ nm})$. The ultraviolet and blue photoreceptors are assumed to be present in all species, but were not found during intracellular recordings of T. scrophulariae, X. cameus and U. gigas (Briscoe & Chittka, 2001). A more recent study showed that S. noctilio has lost the blue photoreceptor and its associated opsin gene (Guignard et al., 2021). Males and females of this woodwasp express both the ultraviolet ($\lambda_{max}~=~364~\text{nm})$ and green photoreceptors (λ_{max} = 527 nm), but the red photoreceptor found in other Symphyta seems to have been lost in the Siricidae and in the Apocrita (Guignard et al., 2022).

Colour preference in the field has been tested in a total of 16 species belonging to 4 families (13 Tenthredinidae, 1 Cephidae, 1 Diprionidae and 1 Argidae) of Symphyta (Anderbrant et al., 1989; Barker et al., 1997: Digweed et al., 1997: Holuša & Drápela, 2006: Song et al., 2015; Taniwaki, 2013). Not all the colours were tested for each species, but vellow was preferred to the other colours tested in 12 out of 15 species (Figure 2). In the genus Dolerus, results from five different coloured traps were more variable (Barker et al., 1997). The colours non-ultraviolet reflective white (410-700 nm) and vellow (550-770 nm) captured similar numbers of Dolerus puncticollis. Black traps (reflecting <2% of reflective light) were preferred to D. haematodes, whereas D. picipes and D. nigratus had no preferences for any of the five colours tested. Finally, N. sertifer was more attracted to white traps compared with other colours tested (reflectance was not measured), but yellow traps were not tested (Anderbrant et al., 1989). Koch et al. (2015) reported that yellow traps are particularly attractive to Athalia species and Xenapates similis. In the same study, the authors reported that white and blue attract different species of Symphyta than yellow and observed that a 'brighter' yellow was more attractive for some species (the authors did not define what brighter means in this context).

The basis for the observed general attraction towards yellow in the Symphyta remains unclear. Colour patterns in Symphyta mostly include orange, yellow or red; green or blue are rarely expressed. Colour patterns can be sexually dimorphic. The frequent occurrence of yellow and colour of close wavelength might partially explain a general attraction of Symphyta to yellow to facilitate mate location. Alternatively, some species of Symphyta are pollinators and feed on pollen or on other insects (Smith, 1993). Hymenopteran pollinators can also be attracted to yellow flowers as they can be a source of food (Papiorek et al., 2016; Reverté et al., 2016). In addition, many herbivorous insects might be attracted to yellow because yellow could be perceived as a super-normal foliage stimulus of a greater intensity than green (Prokopy & Owens, 1983; van der Kooi et al., 2021).

COMMON PATTERNS, KNOWLEDGE GAPS AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

Some patterns in the use of pheromones are beginning to emerge in the Symphyta. Pheromones of different families of Symphyta, feeding on different hosts, released by different sexes, with different sites of



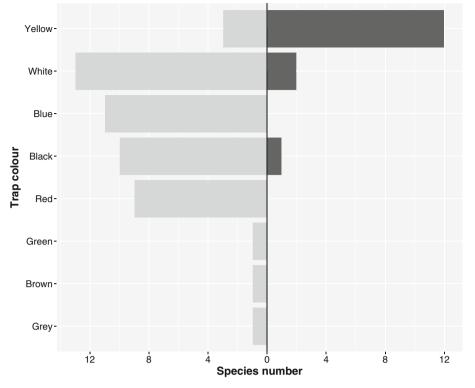


FIGURE 2 Total number of non-Apocrita hymenopteran species (n = 16) attracted (right, dark grey) or not attracted (left, light grey) to different colour traps. Colours were considered as attractive when it caught more insects compared with other colours tested. Colours were labelled as non-attractive when significantly less insects were caught as it was not possible to distinguish between nonresponsive or repelled insects in the literature due to the experimental design.

biosynthesis, generally possess a common chemistry: a long alkene (alkane in Diprionidae) chain with oxygen-containing functional group on one end. The (*Z*)-isomer is the common configuration for all double bonds found in Symphyta pheromones. The similar ecology, diet, genes and pathways involved to produce pheromone likely share a common evolutionary origin before the divergence of Symphyta.

The identification of the correct isomer is critical to optimizing the sensitivity of surveillance programmes. Recent re-investigation of *D. similis* reported different pheromone isomers and effects on trap capture than previously reported (Anderbrant et al., 2021). Similarly, more attractive sex pheromone homologues were identified in *D. nipponica* (Tai et al., 1998, 2002) and in *M. pallipes* (Bergström et al., 1998; Östrand et al., 2003) after re-investigation. Anderbrant et al. (2021) suggested that some of the Diprionidae pheromones identified in the 1970s and 1980s could have been misidentified due to poor replication and contaminated mixtures of stereoisomers. Coupled gas-chromatography with electroantennographic detection and/or mass-spectrometry has become more affordable and machines more sensitive. These improved technologies combined with separation methodologies to quickly identify the pheromone precursor isomers (Bång et al., 2012) should facilitate the re-investigation of potentially misidentified pheromones.

The site of pheromone biosynthesis and storage has received limited attention to date. Sex pheromones in Symphyta (except Dirpionidae) are thought to be oxidized CHCs and could be ancestral in the Hymenoptera. The impact of factors such as light, humidity or temperature on CHC oxidation is unknown in the Symphyta but can be significant in other insects (Hatano et al., 2020). This information could accelerate future research on where and how to find pheromones in the Symphyta. In addition, knowledge of the biosynthetic pathways involved could decrease the cost of production of synthetic pheromone for large scale integrated pest management programmes.

The performance of a synthetic pheromone in the field could be negatively affected by multiple factors. For example, temperature, light and humidity could all alter the chemical composition of a pheromone blend (Nielsen et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2015). For these reasons, care must be taken to guarantee that the chemistry of the synthetic pheromone blend does not degrade over time. For example, extensive studies with N. sertifer show that both isomerism and chemical composition have a strong influence on the performance of pheromonebaited traps. Field experiments using shorter analogues of the main pheromone were not as successful as those baited with the original pheromone (Anderbrant et al., 2010). Field trials also demonstrated geographic variation in the response of male N. sertifer to isomers of pheromone components with synergistic, antagonistic or no effects observed in different populations (Anderbrant et al., 2000, 2010). New materials available for use as dispensers can provide better protection of pheromone components from abiotic factors, in addition to more stable release rates.

In some cases, the performance of pheromone lures can be improved when they are coupled with other stimuli such as kairomones or visual attractants. For example, in some species of woodborers, traps baited with synthetic pheromone lures alone capture few individuals but high numbers are captured when pheromone is coupled with host volatiles (Allison et al., 2012; Silk et al., 2007; Teale et al., 2011). Artificial lights are used to control and manage populations of some pest insects (Kim et al., 2019) and provide basic ecological information, often missing for species of Symphyta. The performance of semiochemical-baited traps could be enhanced with the addition of visual stimuli such as artificial lights. In cases where artificial lights cannot be implemented, odourless paint (to avoid any negative interactions between the paint and semiochemical lures) may improve trap captures.

The biology of some Symphyta suggests that attractive stimuli other than pheromones may have more potential to trap insects and could be easier to use in the field. For example, both male and female S. noctilio fly to the top of the canopy after they emerge from host trees. There, males form leks which may be mediated by the putative sex-aggregation pheromone (Cooperband et al., 2012; Guignard et al., 2020) and mate with females. Traps placed at the bottom of trees and baited with this putative pheromone are not attractive in the field (Hurley et al., 2015; Sarvary et al., 2015). It is possible that at this height the activity of the male pheromone is reduced as only females searching for an oviposition site fly at this height. Mated S. noctilio females were shown to be more attracted to the volatiles emitted by their symbiotic fungus than a closely related fungus (Sarvary et al., 2016). The symbiotic fungus in S. noctilio degrades the wood into nutrients ingested by larvae (Thompson et al., 2013). It is possible that females coming down from the canopy might choose trees already infected by the fungus indicating a suitable environment for their brood. In this context, traps baited with a fungal kairomone and coupled with ultraviolet lights [shown to attract females (Sarvary et al., 2015)] may have more application for S. noctilio management than traps baited with the putative male pheromone deployed at the base of host trees. Traps baited with these visual and olfactory stimuli may capture mate- (ultraviolet light) and host- (fungal kairomone) searching females.

The chemical and visual ecology of Symphyta does not feature prominently in the management of Symphyta. Silviculture (Dodds et al., 2014), selection for resistant plants (Beres et al., 2011), entomopathogenic nematodes (Narayanan & Gopalakrishnan, 2003; Nježić & Ehlers, 2020; Portman et al., 2016; Slippers et al., 2012) and fungi (Fătu et al., 2021), parasitoids (Fischbein & Corley, 2015; Portman et al., 2018) and nucleopolyhedrovirus (Lucarotti et al., 2007) are effective methods alone or in combination to control Symphyta pests. In some Symphyta insecticides are ineffective due to the larvae being protected inside the host plant [e.g., *C. cinctus* (Portman et al., 2018)].

Symphyta are often host specific and several studies have identified kairomones such as plant volatiles (Crook et al., 2012; Piesik et al., 2008) that can be used to monitor and capture these pests. Specific host volatiles can also influence Symphyta oviposition behaviour. For example, *C. cinctus* lays more eggs in the susceptible hollow wheat due to less mechanical resistance, which also release the (*Z*)-3-hexenyl acetate in higher quantities than the more solid and resistant cultivar (Piesik et al., 2008; Weaver et al., 2009). At shorter range, contact kairomones (Barker et al., 2006; Braccini et al., 2015; Fernández et al., 2019) and host physiology (Madden, 1974; Mumm & Hilker, 2006) are important factors to trigger oviposition. Recently, it was shown that exposure of host trees to sawfly pheromones induces host plant defences (Bittner et al., 2019). Mechanisms underlying these responses remain unknown but offer potential for incorporation into sawfly management programmes.

A single electroretinogram study (Peitsch et al., 1992) of four species demonstrated that some Symphyta possess an extra photoreceptor sensitive to red light. This photoreceptor seems to be lost in the rest of the Hymenoptera (Guignard et al., 2021: Peitsch et al., 1992). The role of the extra red photoreceptor is unknown, but it could allow Symphyta to respond to light not visible to other Hymenoptera. Investigating if the wavelengths that activate this photoreceptor (~600-700 nm) are attractive to Symphyta could improve selectivity and efficiency of traps. Narrow-band LED and paint could also be used to determine the most attractive colour, if any. In addition, the loss of blue photoreceptor and associated gene in S. noctilio demonstrates that Symphyta possess from two to four photoreceptors in a few closely related families (Guignard et al., 2021). As a result, the Symphyta offer a unique opportunity to study the ecological mechanisms (e.g., feeding habits) underlying the rapid gain and loss of visual opsins and associated photoreceptors.

The Symphyta are difficult to rear in the laboratory and thus the availability of insects is dependent on labour-intensive laboratory rearing or field-collected material and as a result is usually limited. Laboratory colonies do not exist for many of the most damaging species (e.g., S. noctilio) and researchers have to collect infested material from the field and store it until insects emerge. Typically, insects are available for a short time window and research cannot be conducted continuously throughout the year. Ultimately, the unreliable supply of insects limits the number of experiments that can be conducted during the year and influences the number of replicates for each experiment. By contrast, continuous rearing of C. cinctus is possible, although it takes ca. 7 months to rear one generation (Macedo et al., 2005). In most cases, the rearing of Symphyta is difficult due to their sensitivity to abiotic conditions (e.g., temperature, photoperiod, humidity) (Knerer, 1984). As a result, a model Symphyta which would facilitate detailed experimental work and improve the fundamental knowledge of Symphyta, does not exist at the moment.

CONCLUSION

Understanding the modalities and stimuli that mediate host and mate location in the Symphyta has immense potential to inform the development of management tactics. In many Symphyta, pheromones are present and mediate mate-searching. Pheromone baited lures remain one of the most specific and sensitive methods to monitor population ricultural and Forest

levels and subsequently prevent outbreaks together with other control methods. Technological advances have the potential to facilitate the development of management tactics for forest insects, including the Symphyta (Slippers et al., 2020). More Symphyta genomes are available, which facilitates the development of new technology such as reverse chemical ecology (Li et al., 2021) or CRISPR-Cas9 (Pickett, 2014). Accurate identification of Diprionidae pheromone isomers and an increase in compound purity can increase the number of insects caught in 'attract and kill' programmes. The visual ecology of Symphyta has received little attention from a genetic to a behavioural level. The effect of factors such as achromatic visual contrast with the background or polychromatic stimuli is largely unknown and could be attractive at long and short ranges. Finally, developing rearing protocols for Symphyta could greatly accelerate research done on this group of insects.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing interests.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analyzed in this study.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of the article at the publisher's website.

 Table S1 References list of alcohol precursor identification and pheromone-based field trial for 21 species of Diprionidae.

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