

Solenopsis invicta virus 3: Further Host-Specificity Tests with Native Solenopsis Ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)

Authors: Porter, Sanford D., Valles, Steven M., Wild, Alexander L.,

Dieckmann, Roberta, and Plowes, Nicola J. R.

Source: Florida Entomologist, 98(1): 122-125

Published By: Florida Entomological Society

URL: https://doi.org/10.1653/024.098.0120

BioOne Complete (complete.BioOne.org) is a full-text database of 200 subscribed and open-access titles in the biological, ecological, and environmental sciences published by nonprofit societies, associations, museums, institutions, and presses.

Your use of this PDF, the BioOne Complete website, and all posted and associated content indicates your acceptance of BioOne's Terms of Use, available at www.bioone.org/terms-of-use.

Usage of BioOne Complete content is strictly limited to personal, educational, and non - commercial use. Commercial inquiries or rights and permissions requests should be directed to the individual publisher as copyright holder.

BioOne sees sustainable scholarly publishing as an inherently collaborative enterprise connecting authors, nonprofit publishers, academic institutions, research libraries, and research funders in the common goal of maximizing access to critical research.

Solenopsis invicta virus 3: Further host-specificity tests with native Solenopsis ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)

Sanford D. Porter^{1,*}, Steven M. Valles¹, Alexander L. Wild², Roberta Dieckmann³, and Nicola J. R. Plowes⁴

Abstract

A thorough understanding of host specificity is essential before pathogens can be used as biopesticides or self-sustaining biocontrol agents. In order to better define the host range of *Solenopsis invicta virus 3* (SINV-3), we collected and exposed colonies of 2 native fire ants (*Solenopsis aurea* Wheeler, *Solenopsis xyloni* McCook) and 2 native thief ants (*Solenopsis carolinensis* Forel, *Solenopsis molesta* [Say]) (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) to the SINV-3 virus. Despite extreme exposure to the virus, active, replicating infections resulted only in colonies of the red imported fire ant (*Solenopsis invicta* Buren). These results, combined with a previous study of ants from 13 other genera, strongly support the proposition that the SINV-3 virus can be used safely as either a biopesticide or a self-sustaining biocontrol agent in parts of California, the Caribbean, and other regions of the world where this virus does yet not occur.

Key Words: Solenopsis invicta; biocontrol; host range; thief ant; native fire ant; SINV-3

Resumen

Una comprensión completa de la especificidad de hospederos es esencial para poder utilizar patógenos como bioplaguicidas o agentes de biocontrol autosostenibles. Para determinar el rango de hospederos del virus Solenospsis invicta 3 (SINV-3), colectamos y expusimos el virus SINV-3 a colonias de 2 especies de hormigas de fuego nativas de EE.UU (Solenopsis aurea Wheeler, Solenopsis xyloni McCook) y 2 especies nativas de hormigas ladronas (Solenopsis carolinensis Forel, Solenopsis molesta [Say]) (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). A pesar de la exposición extrema al virus, sólo se observaron infecciones activas y replicantes en las colonias de la hormiga de fuego importada (Solenopsis invicta Buren). Estos resultados, combinados con los de un estudio previo de otros 13 géneros de hormigas, apoyan firmemente la propuesta de que el virus SINV-3 puede ser utilizado con seguridad como bioplaguicida o agente de biocontrol autosostenible en áreas de California, el Caribe y otras regiones del mundo donde este virus no se encuentra todavía.

Palabras Claves: Solenopsis invicta; control biológico; rango de hospederos; hormigas ladronas; hormigas de fuego nativas de EE.UU.; SINV-3

Three RNA viruses have been found in the red imported fire ant, *Solenopsis invicta* Buren (Hymenoptera: Formicidae): SINV-1, SINV-2, and SINV-3 (Valles 2012). *Solenopsis invicta virus 3* is the most virulent of these three, often causing considerable worker mortality and the cessation of brood production in laboratory colonies (Porter et al. 2013; Valles et al. 2013). SINV-3 has potential for use as a biopesticide if an effective bait formulation can be developed (Valles et al. 2013). This virus could also be a classical or self-sustaining biocontrol agent if it can be safely introduced into areas where it is not yet found, including Australia, China, the Caribbean, and parts of California (Ascunce et al. 2011; SMV, Wetterer, and SDP, unpublished data). A previous study showed that SINV-3 is highly host specific—only infecting *Solenopsis* fire ants from South America (Porter et al. 2013). The objective of this study was to expand host specificity evaluations for SINV-3 to include

a 2nd and 3rd native fire ant species (Solenospis aurea Wheeler, Solenopsis xyloni McCook) and 2 species of native thief ants also in the genus Solenopsis (S. carolinensis Forel, S. molesta [Say]).

Materials and Methods

WHOLE COLONY INFECTION TEST

In our first test, whole *S. invicta* colonies were used as infection standards. Eight colonies were raised from founding queens collected in the Gainesville, Florida, area (N 29° 39' W 82° 19') using rearing procedures designed to eliminate viral infections (Valles & Porter 2013). Each *S. invicta* colony (Table 1) was adjusted so it weighed about 3 g including a queen, workers (1,500 to 2,200), and brood (~ 50% by weight). Colonies

¹USDA-ARS, Center for Medical, Agricultural and Veterinary Entomology, 1600 SW 23rd Dr., Gainesville, Florida 32608, USA

²Department of Entomology, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana-Champaign, Illinois 61801, USA

³Coachella Valley Mosquito and Vector Control District, 43-420 Trader Place, Indio, California 92201, USA

⁴School of Life Sciences, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85287, USA

^{*}Corresponding author; e-mail: sanford.porter@ars.usda.gov

Table 1. Whole colony SINV-3 infection tests in queen-right colonies of native desert fire ants, native thief ants, and imported fire ants, as detected by the presence of the VP2 capsid protein.

Solenopsis species (no. colonies)	Туре	Initial weights (g)	Final weights (g)	SINV-3 capsid protein
S. aurea (3)	Treated	3.0, 3.0, 1.5	7.1, 10.9, 4.8	Negative
S. aurea (2)	Control	3.0, 1.5	19.7, 4.8°	Negative
S. molesta (2)	Treated	0.36, 0.39	0.24°, 0.38	Negative
S. carolinensis (1)	Treated	0.045	0.080	Negative
S. invicta (4)	Treated	3.0, 3.1, 3.0, 3.0	4.6 ^b , 3.0 ^a , 2.9 ^a , 4.4 ^a	Positive
S. invicta (4)	Control	3.2, 3.1, 3.2, 3.0	15.1, 4.0°, 26.6°, 15.7	Negative

^aNo brood production

of the test species S. aurea, S. carolinensis, and S. molesta were variable in their sizes (Table 1). A colony of the desert fire ant (S. aurea) was collected in Indio, California (N 33° 43' W 116° 13'), and another colony was collected in Mecca, California (N 33° 34' W 116° 5'). The Indio colony contained 7 queens and was split into 4 colonies. Three of these colonies each contained 2 queens, 3 g of workers (1,500 to 2,200) and brood (~50% by weight), and the 4th colony contained 1 queen and 1.5 g of workers and brood that matched the size of the Mecca colony. Two colonies of the thief ant S. molesta (Table 1) were collected under sidewalks in Urbana, Illinois (N 40° 6' W 88° 12'). They each contained queens (1 and 3, respectively), several thousand workers, and ample brood. A colony of the thief ant S. carolinensis (Table 1) was collected from a pine stump in the Austin Cary Forest about 7 km NE of Gainesville, Florida. At the start of the test, it contained a queen and several hundred workers and brood. All colonies were maintained at 27 to 28 °C in nests and foraging trays appropriate to their size. Colonies were fed domestic crickets (Acheta domesticus [L.]; Orthoptera: Gryllidae) and 1.5 M sugar water (Gavilanez-Slone & Porter 2013).

Four of the S. invicta colonies, 3 of the S. aurea colonies (including the Mecca colony), and all of the thief ant colonies (S. molesta, S. carolinensis) (Table 1) were repeatedly exposed to massive doses of SINV-3 (see below) over a period of about a month, following a protocol similar to that of Porter et al. (2013). The remaining 4 S. invicta colonies and 2 S. aurea colonies were maintained as controls (Table 1). The treatment colonies were exposed by ad libitum access to SINV-3-laced sugar water bait 5 times at 0, 5, 12, 19, and 35 d. This bait contained > 106 genome equivalents of the virus per microliter and was formulated as a slurry with filtered extract from SINV-3-infected ants (~ 1 g of crushed dead worker ants per 20 mL of 15% sugar water; Valles et al. 2013). Treatment colonies were also given ad libitum access to a SINV-3-laced cricket mash 3 times during the same month (1, 4, 11 d), formulated as a 1:7 ratio of infected ants (see above) and crickets (dry: wet weight). Food was withheld from test colonies for 2 to 3 d before introducing the sugar or cricket baits. At the start of the test, treatment colonies also received several grams of cracked wheat ground together with dead infected ants (10:1 wheat: ants, dry weight). Additionally, several thousand dry crushed SINV-3-infected S. invicta workers were scattered across the foraging trays of test colonies at the start of the test.

Seven weeks after the start of the test, samples were collected from the fire ant colonies (15 workers per colony), the *S. molesta* colonies (~

40 workers per colony), and the *S. carolinensis* colony (\sim 60 workers) for western blot analysis to detect replication of the virus by production of the VP2 capsid protein of SINV-3 by the method described previously (Valles et al. 2014a).

WORKER INFECTION TEST

A second SINV-3 host-specificity test was conducted 5 mo later with test *Solenopsis xyloni* McCook workers from Tempe, Arizona (N 33° 24' W 111° 54'), and *S. aurea* workers from the colonies used above. We used workers because whole *S. xyloni* colonies were not available. These workers were compared to *S. invicta* workers from Gainesville, Florida (included as infection standards). We used 4 groups of *S. xyloni* workers, 5 groups of *S. aurea* workers, and 8 groups of *S. invicta* workers (Table 2). Each group was from a separate colony. Test workers were collected by placing a card into a disturbed field nest (*S. xyloni*, *S. invicta*) or a laboratory colony (*S. aurea*), permitting workers to run up the card, and then tapping them off into a collection tray. The field-collected *S. invicta* workers were pre-tested for SINV-3 virus (Valles et al. 2009) and all proved to be free of this pathogen.

Test worker groups that had not been fed in 2 to 3 d were exposed to 0.5 mL sugar water SINV-3 bait 3 times (day 0, 3, and 12). Sugar water bait was formulated as in the first test. Additionally, 1/4 to 1/3 of test workers were shaken in an aqueous solution of crushed SINV-3—infected ants prepared as above for the sugar water, but without sugar. After draining off the solution, these workers were returned live to their respective test groups. Finally, 0.4 ± 0.05 g (SD, wet weight) of crushed infected *S. invicta* workers were scattered in each test tray. Cricket baits were not used because brood was not present. At 18 d, 20 workers from each test group were tested for SINV-3 capsid protein using the western blot analysis as above.

Results

WHOLE COLONY INFECTION TEST

Despite repeated and extensive exposure, the desert fire ant (S. aurea) and the 2 species of native thief ants, also in the genus Sole-

Table 2. SINV-3 infection tests with workers of two species of native fire ants and the red imported fire ant, as detected by the presence of the VP2 capsid protein.

Solenopsis species (no. groups)	Туре	Weight of test groups ^a (g)	SINV-3 Capsid Protein
S. xyloni (4)	Treated	1.4, 0.8, 0.3, 0.2	All negative
S. aurea (5)	Treated	0.9, 1.0, 0.9, 0.2, 0.9	All negative
S. invicta (8)	Treated	1.4, 0.8, 0.3, 0.2, 1.4, 0.8, 0.3, 0.2	7 of 8 Positive

^aOne gram of fire ant workers (all 3 species) equals about 1,000 to 1,500 workers

^bTrace brood production

^{&#}x27;Not tested for capsid protein due to space limits

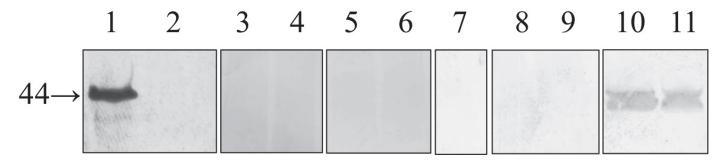


Fig. 1. Representative western blot analyses to detect the presence of SINV-3 capsid protein (VP2) in different ant species. Lane assignments are as follows: 1) purified SINV-3; 2) S. invicta negative control colony; 3,4) S. aurea; 5,6) S. xyloni; 7) S. carolinensis; 8,9) S. molesta; 10,11) S. invicta positive control colonies. Molecular retention indicated as kDa.

nopsis, did not support replication of SINV-3. Western blot analysis produced distinct bands for the viral capsid protein (VP2, see Fig. 1) in all 4 of the treated S. invicta colonies (Table 1) indicating that the virus was replicating. Furthermore, all 4 treated S. invicta colonies had stopped growing by the end of the test (Table 1) and contained either no brood (3 colonies) or only a trace of brood (1 colony). In contrast, the capsid protein (see Fig. 1) was not detected in the 3 treated S. aurea colonies or the 2 species of thief ants (Table 1) confirming the lack of viral replication in these ants. The capsid protein was also not found in 3 of the 4 untreated S. invicta colonies (see Fig. 1; the 4th colony was not tested because of space limits, Table 1). After 7 wk, 3 of the 4 S. invicta control colonies and all of the S. aurea colonies contained large amounts of brood and had at least doubled in weight (Table 1). Brood production had stopped in 1 of the untreated S. invicta colonies and 1 of the S. molesta colonies (Table 1), but neither colony contained capsid protein evidence of replicating virus. The S. carolinensis colony and the other S. molesta colony remained healthy with large amounts of brood. Four months later, all of the S. aurea colonies, the S. carolinensis colony, and the one S. molesta colony remained healthy.

WORKER INFECTION TEST

In the worker infection test, 7 of the 8 *S. invicta* standards tested positive for SINV-3 capsid protein demonstrating replicating viral infections (Table 2). In contrast, none of the 4 *S. xyloni* groups or the 5 *S. aurea* groups tested positive for SINV-3 capsid protein (Table 2). This test was terminated after 18 d because this is a reliable period to assess worker infections (Valles et al. 2014b) and because we were not looking at long-term effects on colony growth.

Discussion

A previous study showed that red, black, and hybrid fire ants in the *saevissima* species group from South America served as hosts for SINV-3, whereas 16 species of ants in 13 other genera did not support replication of SINV-3 (Porter et al. 2013). Importantly, Porter et al. (2013) also reported that laboratory test colonies of the native fire ant *Solenopsis geminata* (F.) were not infected, and the virus was not found in several dozen samples of miniature *Solenopsis* thief ants collected in the field.

The results reported in this paper are important because they confirm that a 2nd and 3rd native fire ant species (*S. aurea* and *S. xyloni*) and 2 species of native thief ants (*S. carolinensis* and *S. molesta*) are also not susceptible to SINV-3 viral infections (Tables 1 and 2), despite

massive exposure in the laboratory (i.e., multiple exposures to baits, drenches, and crushed workers each with well over a million viral genome copies per microliter). Although only workers were tested for *S. xyloni*, rather than fully functioning colonies, it should be noted that SINV-3 is specific to *S. invicta* adults and does not appear to infect immature stages (Valles et al. 2014b); consequently, there is little reason to expect different results if whole colonies had been tested, especially considering the absence of infections in fully functioning colonies of two sister fire ant species (*S. geminata*, *S. aurea*; Table 1 and Porter et al. 2013).

Apparently, only fire ant species from the South American *saevissima* group (Fig. 2; Trager 1991) are susceptible to the virus, because 3 closely related *Solenopsis* fire ants in the North and Central American *geminata* group (i.e., *S. geminata*, *S. xyloni*, *S. aurea*; Fig. 2) were not suitable viral hosts (Tables 1 and 2 and Porter et al. 2013). Furthermore, the 2 species of more distantly related *Solenopsis* thief ants (Fig. 2) did not become infected in our tests (Table

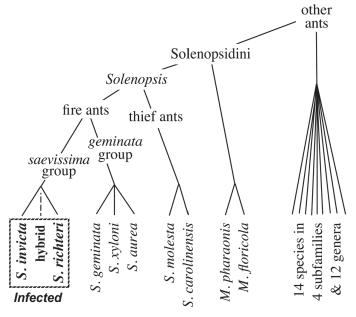


Fig. 2. Solenopsis invicta virus 3 (SINV-3) infections are restricted to Solenopsis fire ants in the South American saevissima group (*S. invicta*, *S. richteri*, and their hybrid in the United States). North American fire ants in the *geminata* group, thief ants, two species of *Monomorium* (also tribe Solenopsidini), and 14 additional species of ants from 3 subfamilies and 12 genera were not infected in lab trials (this paper and Porter et al. 2013).

1). Finally, 2 *Monomorium* species from the same tribe as *Solenopsis* fire ants (Fig. 2) were also not infected in previous tests (Porter et al. 2013). In short, centrifugal testing of potential hosts according to their degrees of relatedness, as recommended by Briese (2005), confirms that SINV-3 is a highly host-specific pathogen limited to closely related ants from South America (Fig. 2). Consequently, we conclude that SINV-3 can be used safely as either a biopesticide or a self-sustaining biocontrol agent without threat to native ants in the United States, the Caribbean, and nations along the Pacific Rim that are currently infested with red imported fire ants (Ascunce et al. 2011).

Acknowledgments

We thank Darrell Hall (USDA-ARS, Gainesville, Florida) for assistance with rearing test colonies and Michael Martinez (CVMVCD, Indio, California) for helping to find and collect the *S. aurea* colonies. David Oi (USDA-ARS, Gainesville, Florida), Anne-Marie Callcott (USDA/APHIS, Biloxi, Mississippi), and several anonymous reviewers are thanked for reading this paper and offering helpful suggestions. Jenny Gavilanez-Slone (USDA-ARS, Gainesville, Florida), Laura Varone, and Luis Calcaterra (both FuEDEI, Hurlingham, Argentina) are thanked for assistance with the Spanish abstract. This study was made possible, in part, by an Interagency Agreement from the United States Department of Agriculture's Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service (APHIS) and may not necessarily express APHIS' views.

References Cited

- Ascunce MS, Yang CC, Oakey J, Calcaterra L, Wu WJ, Shih CJ, Goudet TJ, Ross KG, Shoemaker D. 2011. Global invasion history of the fire ant *Solenopsis invicta*. Science 331: 1066-1068.
- Briese DT. 2005. Translating host-specificity test results into the real world: the need to harmonize the yin and the yang of current testing procedures. Biological Control 35: 208-214.
- Gavilanez-Slone J, Porter S. 2013. Colony growth of two species of *Solenopsis* fire ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) reared with crickets and beef liver. Florida Entomologist 96: 1482-1488.
- Porter SD, Valles SM, Oi DH. 2013. Host specificity and colony impacts of the fire ant pathogen, Solenopsis invicta virus 3. Journal of Invertebrate Pathology 114: 1-6.
- Trager JC. 1991. A revision of the fire ants, *Solenopsis geminata* group (Hymenoptera: Formicidae: Myrmicinae). Journal of the New York Entomological Society 99: 141-198.
- Valles SM. 2012. Positive-strand RNA viruses infecting the red imported fire ant, *Solenopsis invicta*. Psyche 2012: Article ID 821591, 14 pp.
- Valles SM, Porter SD. 2013. Procedures to mitigate the impact of Solenopsis invicta virus 3 in fire ant rearing facilities. Florida Entomologist 96: 252-254.
- Valles SM, Varone L, Ramirez L, Briano J. 2009. Multiplex detection of *Solenopsis invicta* viruses -1, -2 and -3. Journal of Virological Methods 162: 276-279.
- Valles SM, Porter SD, Choi M-Y, Oi DH. 2013. Successful transmission of Solenopsis invicta virus 3 to *Solenopsis invicta* fire ant colonies in oil, sugar, and cricket bait formulations. Journal of Invertebrate Pathology 113: 198-204.
- Valles SM, Bell S, Firth AE. 2014a. *Solenopsis invicta virus 3*: mapping of structural proteins, ribosomal frameshifting, and similarities to *Acyrthosiphon pisum virus* and kelp fly virus. PLoS ONE 9: e93497.
- Valles SM, Porter SD, Firth AE. 2014b. Solenopsis invicta virus 3: pathogenesis and stage specificity in red imported fire ants. Virology 460-461: 66-71.