Ecology, 61(4), 1980, pp. 932-943 © 1980 by the Ecological Society of America

Best Regarder

PREDATOR-PREY INTERACTIONS BETWEEN STONEFLIES AND MAYFLIES: BEHAVIORAL OBSERVATIONS¹

BARBARA L. PECKARSKY²

Department of Zoology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin 53706 USA

Abstract. Field experiments were conducted at two streams to determine the mechanisms by which mayfly prey detect and avoid stonefly predators, and to quantify the effect of stonefly predators upon mayfly behavior, distribution, and activity levels. Direct observations of the interactions between stoneflies and mayflies were made at Otter Creek, Sauk County, Wisconsin, USA and the East River, Gunnison County, Colorado, USA using plexiglass boxes with screen ends and an artificial substrate. Ephemerella subvaria and Stenonema fuscum, Otter Creek, avoided the stonefly predator Acroneuria lycorias given only noncontact chemical stimuli. Ephemerella infrequens and Baetis bicaudatus, East River, responded to long-range chemical stimuli from Megarcys signata and Kogotus modestus, East River. Baetis phoebus and Heptagenia hebe, Otter Creek, and Cinygmula sp., East River, did not respond to stonefly predators given long-range chemical cues alone. Differences among responses of different mayflies may be due to differential predation pressure or effectiveness of predator evasion tactics. None of the species of mayflies tested responded to the presence of stonefly predators given only visual stimuli.

The Ephemerella species assumed a "scorpion"-like display posture upon encounter with the stoneflies. This posture may increase the apparent size of the mayflies which are then rejected by the tactile predators. The Baetis species characteristically swam or drifted in response to contact with the stonefly predators. Predator evasion could partially explain the high incidence of this genus of mayflies reported in stream drift. The remaining mayflies, of the family Heptageniidae, showed an effective crawling evasion upon contact with stonefly predators. Ephemerella infrequens and B. bicaudatus differentially responded to contact with hree different stonefly predators in the East River. Both species of mayflies evaded contact with Pteronarcella badia, a large omnivorous stonefly which morphologically resembles M. signata, significantly less frequently than they evaded M. signata and K. modestus upon contact. The mechanism by which this differentiation occurs could be chemotactile. Cinygmula sp. avoided all stoneflies equally regardless of size or relative threat of consumption. Tactile stimuli are probably responsible for this behavior.

Key words: behavior; chemical; display; distribution; drift; mayflies; predator avoidance; stone-flies; streams; tactile; visual.

Introduction

Considerable experimental evidence exists of the effects of biological interactions such as predation and competition upon the distribution and abundance of aquatic invertebrates in the marine rocky intertidal (Paine 1969, Woodin 1974, Menge 1976), and in freshwater lakes and ponds (Brooks and Dodson 1965, Dodson 1974a, and Kerfoot 1977). Such evidence is rare for stream ecosystems (Peckarsky 1979a, b).

Experimental manipulations by Peckarsky and Dodson (1980) suggest that stonefly predators influence the distribution and abundance of benthic invertebrates in streams. This study was undertaken to determine the mechanisms by which mayfly prey detect and avoid stonefly predators, and to explore further the effects of stonefly predators upon prey distribution, behavior, and activity levels.

Several studies have examined the mechanisms by which primarily fish and molluscan prey detect fish predators (literature review by Stein 1979). The mech-

anisms by which aquatic invertebrate prey detect or avoid invertebrate predators have received considerably less attention. Zooplankton have been shown to detect and avoid predators and objects simulating predators creating mechanical waves in freshwater laboratory systems (Strickler 1975). Tissue extracts of starfish predators have been found to elicit defense responses in some marine gastropod prey (Bullock 1953, Feder 1963, Yarnall 1964). Phillips (1978) demonstrated that sea urchins can distinguish foraging and inactive starfish predators given only chemical cues. No such studies exist for freshwater insect predator-prey interactions.

The capacity for sensory perception in aquatic invertebrates is well documented. Kohn (1961) and Slifer (1970) review the older literature on the structure and existence of chemoreceptors in gastropods and insects. Recent scanning electron microscope studies have clarified the fine structure of invertebrate sensory organs. Mechanoreceptors and chemoreceptors have been observed on adult mayfly antennae (Schmidt 1974, Slifer 1977), on antennae of mayfly nymphs (Peckarsky 1979b), mechanoreceptors on adult stonefly antennae (Rupprecht and Gnatzy 1974), and auditory organs on the mesothorax of corixid Heteroptera

¹ Manuscript received 5 February 1979; revised 30 September 1979; accepted 1 November 1979.

² Present address: Entomology Department, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York 14853 USA.

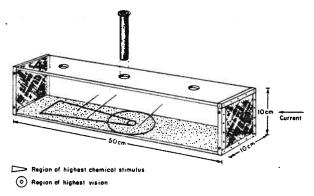


Fig. 1. The observation box with screen tube inserted in slot; schematic representation of proposed regions of highest chemical stimulus and highest vision.

(Prager 1973). However, these structural analyses provide only suggestive evidence of the sensory capabilities of invertebrates. Behavioral observations are necessary to support hypotheses concerning the functional capacity of aquatic invertebrates to detect predators.

The experiments described in this study were designed to investigate the following alternative mechanisms by which several abundant species of mayfly prey detect and avoid stonefly predators in two streams: noncontact chemical stimuli, visual stimuli, and contact stimuli. Changes in mayfly distribution, activity levels, or behavior in response to the presence of one or more stonefly predators were measured to determine the relative importance of the alternative avoidance mechanisms for each mayfly species.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study areas

Experiments were conducted at Otter Creek, Sauk County, Wisconsin, and the East River, Gunnison County, Colorado. Both are second-order streams, high in dissolved oxygen, low in dissolved inorganic material, and have heterogeneous rock, cobble substrates. Otter Creek, a temperate woodland stream, receives considerably higher allochthonous input from a more extensive riparian vegetation than the East River, a high-altitude (3100 m), montane stream. Temperature in Otter Creek ranges from 0°-24°C, a wider range than in the East River (0°-18°); and the Wisconsin stream has a lower discharge. Both streams are described in more detail elsewhere (Peckarsky 1979a, b).

Apparatus

Plexiglass observation boxes ($50 \times 10 \times 10$ cm) were constructed with screen ends (mesh $800 \mu m$) and a silicon sand substrate spray painted light brown (Fig. 1). The boxes contain three holes on the upper surface through which experimental animals can be intro-

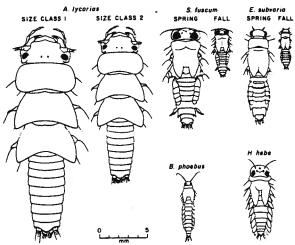


Fig. 2. Otter Creek stoneflies and mayflies. Size classes 1 and 2 of A. lycorias represent terminal and subterminal instars.

duced, or into which screen tubes or test tubes can be inserted. The boxes were placed in the stream immediately adjacent to the bank at water depth 4-8 cm. Careful choice of sites facilitated observation of activities within the boxes and ensured that the current velocity was relatively laminar, and slow enough that experimental animals could maintain their hold on the artificial substrate.

Experimental animals

Acroneuria lycorias (Perlidae), Megarcys signata, and Kogotus modestus (Perlodidae) are tactile, searching predators which consume primarily mayflies and chironomids (Richardson and Gaufin 1971, Cather and Gaufin 1975, Allan 1978, Peckarsky 1979c). Pteronarcella badia (Pteronarcidae) morphologically re-

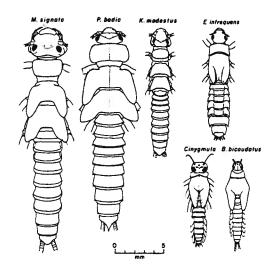


Fig. 3. East River stoneflies and mayflies.

Table 1. Preliminary gut content analysis of stoneflies. Relative abundances of mayflies within stonefly stomachs were calculated using the least abundant mayfly as a standard for each stonefly. Top: Otter Creek; bottom: East River.

Predator	Relative abun- mayfly	Total stone- flies	Stone- flies with prey		
A. lycorias	B. phoebus E. subvaria S. fuscum H. hebe	5.4 4.9 2.1 1.0	780	438	
M. signata	B. bicaudatus Cinygmula sp. E. infrequens	5.0 2.0 1.0	67	25	
K. modestus	B. bicaudatus Cinygmula sp.	21.3 1.0	154	127	
P. badia	B. bicaudatus	1.0	144	27	

sembles M. signata. Although previous stomach content analyses suggest that P. badia is a detritivore, late-instar nymphs have been shown to consume mayflies and chironomids in addition to their primarily detritivorous diet (Richardson and Gaufin 1971, Fuller and Stewart 1977). Observations made during this study confirm that P. badia nymphs are facultative search predators which consume some mayfly prey. However, the relative incidence of this occurrence is very low compared to that of the other stoneflies. Figs. 2 and 3 illustrate the average length and head capsule widths of each predator tested in Otter Creek and the East River. Head capsule widths of the predators indicate the mouth gape or maximum size of food that can be consumed (Devonport and Winterbourn 1976, Kliban 1976).

The prey species tested were of three types (Figs. 2 and 3). An Ephemerellidae species from each

TABLE 2. Summary of experiments.

A. Technique						
Experiment	No. predators	Condition of predator(s)	No. mayflies	Time sequence of treatments for each replicate		
(1) Noncontact chemical stimuli	1	in screen tube	15	mayflies introduced into box → at least 15 min acclimation → 15 min of distribution mapping on the minute → predator introduced → acclimation → mapping → predator removed → acclimation → mapping (screen tube in place through experiment)		
(2) Visual stimuli	1	in test tube	15	mayflies introduced → acclimation → mapping → predator introduced → acclimation → mapping (test tube in place throughout)		
(3) Contact stimuli	1	free	15	mayflies introduced → acclimation → predator introduced → acclimation → all encounters recorded for 15 min		
(4) Activity change	3	free	6	mayflies introduced → acclimation → activity recorded for 15 min on the minute → predator introduced → acclimation → mayfly activity recorded		

B. Replicates

		Number of replicates				
Stonefly- mayfly pair	Location	Noncontact chemical	Visual	Contact (encounters)	Activity change	
	Otter Creek			Spring—156		
A. lycorias-				Fall—193		
E. subvaria		8	2	367	4	
S. fuscum		4	2	225	4	
B. phoebus		4	2	6 October-48	4	
H. hebe		2	2	37	•	
M. signata-	East River					
E. infrequens		5	2	305		
Cinygmula sp.		4	2	217		
B. bicaudatus		4	2	282		
	ii	-	-	202		
K. modestus-	East River		_	_		
E. infrequens		4	2	380	2	
Cinygmula sp.		4	2	206	2	
B. bicaudatus		4	2	284	2	
P. badia-	East River					
E. infrequens		5	2	210		
Cinygmula sp.		4	2	198		
B. bicaudatus		4	5	386		

stream, Ephemerella subvaria, Otter Creek, E. infrequens, East River, represent a group of mayflies which attain a relatively large size and characteristically cling to rocks (Merritt and Cummins 1979). Three species of Heptageniidae, Stenonema fuscum and Heptagenia hebe from Otter Creek, and Cinygmula sp. from the East River are very dorsoventrally flattened crawlers. Stenonema fuscum becomes very large, but H. hebe and Cinygmula sp. emerge at smaller sizes than the ephemerellid species. Their head capsules, however, are disproportionately wider. Baetis phoebus (Baetidae) from Otter Creek and B. bicaudatus. East River. represent a family having many species which are very fast-swimming, cylindrical, streamlined mayflies. They were the smallest species tested and are common prey of many stonefly predators (Sheldon 1969, Siegfried and Knight 1976a, b, Fuller and Stewart 1977, Peckarsky 1979c, J. D. Allan, personal communication).

Table 1 represents preliminary data from gut content analysis of the predators tested. Acroneuria lycorias and M. signata consume all of the experimental mayflies in the relative abundances indicated. Kogotus modestus consumes only the two smaller species of mayflies, and only B. bicaudatus was recovered in the stomachs of P. badia.

The experiments

Four experiments were conducted in May, June, September, and October 1978 at Otter Creek, and in June, July, and August 1978 and 1979 at the East River. Table 2 summarizes the methods and numbers of replicates of each experiment.

For purposes of statistical analysis, a region of highest chemical stimulus was determined by introducing food coloring into the screen tube prior to each noncontact chemical experiment and observing its dispersal pattern. Dye was also used to standardize current velocity. Fig. 1 illustrates the region of the box which showed the highest concentration of food coloring and, presumably, other organic molecules emanating from the screen tube. A proposed region of highest vision was chosen conservatively since the reactive distance of mayflies is unknown (Fig. 1). Inspection of graphs of the number of mayflies within the region of highest chemical stimulus or vision over all 15 min of each treatment revealed that the distribution of mayflies stabilized after ≈10 min. Chi square statistical analysis (1 df) was applied to the data from the last 4 min of each treatment to make pairwise comparisons of the numbers in and out of the region of stimulus for each pair of treatments.

For the contact experiments, an encounter was defined as a physical contact between the stonefly and a mayfly (Evans 1976). The result of each encounter was scored as (a) attack or consumption, (b) locomotory evasion by the mayfly, and (c) freezing response by the prey. During fall at Otter Creek and

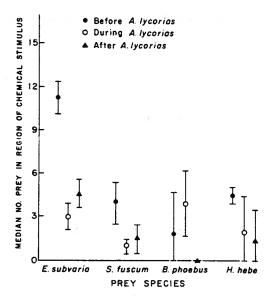


FIG. 4. Median and standard error of number of prey in region of chemical stimulus before, during, and after presence of A. lycorias, Otter Creek.

summer 1979 at the East River, evasion responses were further classified as crawling, swimming, drifting (releasing hold of the substrate and passively floating downstream), and drift-swimming (briefly drifting, then actively swimming). A display posture observed in some mayflies upon encounters with stoneflies was also quantified. Mann-Whitney U tests were performed to compare the frequencies of different responses exhibited by different species of mayflies for the contact and activity change experiments.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The effect of noncontact chemical stimulus upon mayfly prey distribution

If mayflies can detect the presence of the stonefly given only noncontact chemical cues, the number of

TABLE 3. Summary of the statistically significant comparisons of the number of prey in the region of highest chemical stimulus. B = before predator, D = during predator, A = after predator. Asterisks indicate level of significance (chi square, 1 df). (* = .05, ** = .01, *** = .001)

Prey	Predator	Comparison	Signifi- cance level
E. subvaria	A. lycorias	B vs. D B vs. A	***
S. fuscum	A. lycorias	B vs. D	*
E. infrequens	M. signata	B vs. D D vs. A	***
B. bicaudatus	M. signata	B vs. D D vs. A B vs. A	*** *
	K. modestus	B vs. D D vs. A	***

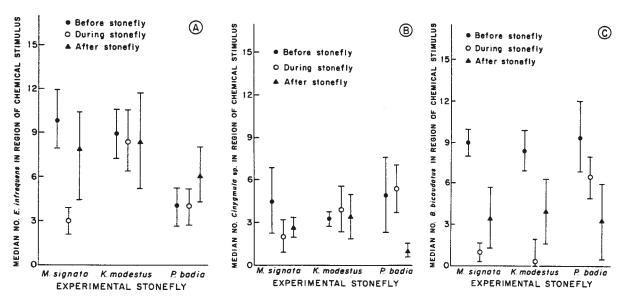


FIG. 5. Median and standard error of number of (A) E. infrequens, (B) Cinygmula sp., and (C) B. bicaudatus in region of chemical stimulus before, during, and after presence of each stonefly predator, East River.

mayflies in the region of highest chemical stimulus should decrease during the presence of a stonefly predator in the screen tube, and subsequently increase after removal of the predator. This trend was observed for E. subvaria and S. fuscum but not for B. phoebus and H. hebe at Otter Creek (Fig. 4). At the East River, E. infrequens and Cinygmula sp. responded as predicted to M. signata only (Figs. 5A, 5B); and B. bicaudatus showed the predicted response to M. signata and K. modestus, but not to P. badia (Fig. 5C).

The results of chi square statistical analysis of the differences between treatments are summarized in Table 3. A significant decrease in numbers of mayflies B vs. D indicates a systematic avoidance of the region downstream of a predator in the screen tube. Ephem-

Table 4. Number of mayflies in proposed region of vision before and during the presence of the stonefly in a test tube.

Mayfly	Stonefly	Before	During
E. subvaria	A. lycorias	27	24
S. fuscum	•	5	8
B. phoebus		0	3
H. hebe		11	8
E. infrequens	M. signata	22	26
• •	K. modestus	44	35
	P. badia	31	26
Cinygmula sp.	M. signata	27	32
	K. modestus	18	11
	P. badia	23	14
B. bicaudatus	M. signata	16	19
	K. modestus	17	14
	P. badia	23	29

erella subvaria and S. fuscum exhibited this response to A. lycorias, E. infrequens to M. signata, and B. bicaudatus to M. signata and K. modestus. A significant increase in numbers of mayflies D vs. A indicates a systematic recovery in numbers of mayflies within the proposed region of chemical stimulus after the removal of the predator. None of the Otter Creek mayflies showed this significant increase. However, a nonsignificant trend toward recovery by E. subvaria and S. fuscum suggests that given enough time, the original distribution may be resumed. At the East River, E. infrequens distributions showed significant recovery after the removal of M. signata and those of B. bicaudatus after the removal of M. signata and K. modestus. Longer acclimation time given during summer 1979 trials may explain this result.

No significant difference between the numbers of mayflies B vs. A the presence of the stonefly, following a significant decrease B vs. D, may also indicate recovery in numbers within the region of chemical stimulus. This result occurred with S. fuscum at Otter Creek, and for E. infrequens vs. M. signata and B. bicaudatus vs. K. modestus at the East River.

In summary, the predicted decrease in numbers of mayflies within the proposed region of chemical stimulus during the presence of the predator, and subsequent increase after removal of the predator were observed for two of four mayfly-stonefly pairs at Otter Creek, and three of nine pairs at the East River. Since the prey were screened from all other predator-related stimuli except noncontact chemical cues, this behavior suggests that the mayflies detect and avoid a chemical stimulus emanating from the predator.

Differences in responses by mayflies to noncontact

chemical stimuli from a stonefly predator may reflect the relative effectiveness at evading capture by stoneflies, or differential predator pressure. Since no feeding preference experiments have been performed on these stonefly nymphs, one must rely on gut content data for an estimate of the constituents of stonefly diets.

At Otter Creek, the two mayflies which avoided A. lycorias were the two largest species, E. subvaria and S. fuscum. Gut contents of some stoneflies suggest that larger prey may be preferred by larger predators (Sheldon 1969, J. D. Allan, personal communication). Stomachs of A. lycorias showed a high frequency of E. subvaria and a low incidence of S. fuscum. A proposed long-range chemical detection mechanism is not similarly reducing consumption of these two mayfly species; nor is the lack of such a response similarly increasing consumption of the smaller H. hebe and B. phoebus. Differences in predator preference, escape responses, or encounter probabilities may explain these differences.

At the East River the largest mayfly, E. infrequens, avoided noncontact chemical stimuli from only the largest predator, M. signata, which is also the only stonefly in whose stomachs it has been found. Cinygmula sp. did not avoid any of the stoneflies, although it is consumed by M. signata and K. modestus. Effective escape tactics, low preference, or low encounter probabilities may account for its low frequency in stonefly stomachs. Baetis bicaudatus avoided the large and small predators, but not the stonefly which only takes it occasionally. This very abundant mayfly is consumed in high relative frequency despite an avoidance response to noncontact chemical stimuli from two of the stoneflies.

The experiments presented lend preliminary support to the hypothesis that some mayflies can detect the presence of stoneflies by long-range chemoreception. Detected chemically, the presence of a stonefly can significantly alter the distribution of some mayflies within observation boxes. Documentation of the existence and nature of chemical substances produced by stoneflies during different states of hunger, at different times of day or night, or as a response to stress would lend substantive support to these behavioral observations.

The lack of information regarding the importance of stonefly predation as a source of mortality in mayflies limits the interpretation of these results. Mortality of mayflies due to stonefly predation has not been measured, although Siegfried and Knight (1976b) reported that numbers of prey recovered in the gut contents of a western perlid stonefly nymph could account for fluctuations of prey observed in the benthos. Experimental manipulations presented here support direct cause-effect relationships between stonefly stimuli and mayfly responses, but one cannot extrapolate with certainty that variability in mayfly avoidance re-

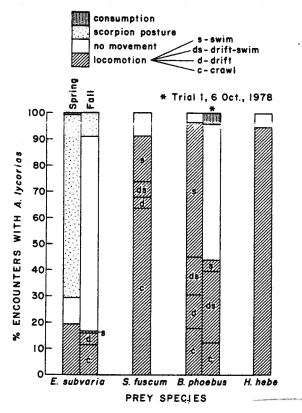


FIG. 6. Percent encounters of mayfly prey species with A. lycorias resulting in specific responses, Otter Creek.

sponses to different stoneflies is attributable to an evolutionary cause such as differential stonefly predation pressure.

The effect of visual stimulus upon mayfly prey distributions

If mayflies detect and avoid stonefly predators by visual cues, the number of mayflies occupying the proposed region of highest vision should decrease during the presence of a stonefly predator within the test tube. For 7 of the 13 mayfly-stonefly pairs this predicted trend was observed (Table 4). However, all comparisons were nonsignificant (chi square, 1 df). Any changes in numbers of mayflies occupying the region of highest vision were so small that directional trends should not be inferred. Given visual cues alone, mayflies did not avoid a region surrounding a stonefly predator.

Many benthic invertebrates live under stones in streams and are negatively phototactic (Bishop and Hynes 1969, Hughes 1969a, 1969b). This factor in addition to the probable nocturnal feeding habits of the stoneflies (Hynes 1970) lower the apparent adaptiveness of a visual sense as a mechanism of predator detection. It is not surprising that the experimental evidence suggests that mayflies do not avoid predators presented visually only. The uncertainty of a reactive

TABLE 5. Summary of statistical analysis of contact experiments. Asterisks refer to significance levels, Mann-Whitney U test. A species indicated in parentheses showed no significant difference from those on either side.

A. Otter Creek: Comparisons among prey. E = E. subvaria, S = S. fuscum, B = B. phoebus, H = H. hebe

H. hebe				
Evasive behavior	All trials except 6 October 1978	6 October 1978		
Total locomotion	*** *** E < S < B (H)	*** * E < B < S		
Crawling	*** E B < S	*** E B < S		
Drifting	S < B (E)	*** B < S (E)		
Drift-swimming	E *** < B S *	E *** < B S *		
Swimming	* *** E < S < B	no significant differences		

B. East River: Comparisons among prey. E = E. infrequens, C = Cinygmula sp., B = B. bicaudatus, M = M. signata, K = K. modestus, P = P. badia.

	Predator				
Evasive behavior	M	K	P		
Total locomotion	*** C E < B	*** C E < B	E < B < C		
Crawling	*** E B < C	*** E B < C	*** E B < C		
Drifting	C < B (E)	C < B (E)	C < E < B		
Drift-swimming	E < C (B)	E *** < B C	no significant differences		
Swimming	C < B (E)	*** B C < * E	C * < B E **		

distance and the possibility of the test tube creating an optical and hydrodynamic obstruction remain as problems in this analysis.

Avoidance behavior of mayflies upon contact-encounter with stoneflies

Mayflies which do not show noncontact chemical avoidance of predators should show more intensified locomotory responses to contact by the predators. Baetis phoebus, H. hebe, and S. fuscum reacted to contact with A. lycorias by locomotory evasion >90% of the time. Ephemerella subvaria moved away from the predator after <20% of the encounters (Fig. 6). The primary locomotory responses of E. subvaria

TABLE 5. Continued.

C. East River: Comparisons among responses to different predators.

Evasive	Prey					
behavior	E	С	*** M P < K			
Total locomotion	* K M < P	no significant differences				
Crawling	no significant differences	* K < P (M)	no significant differences			
Drifting	** K < P (M)	P *** < M K	* M K < P			
Drift- swimming	no significant differences	* P K < M	M * < K			
Swimming	M * < K P ***	*** M < K (P)	no significant differences			
Scorpion posture	*** K P < ** M					

nymphs were crawling and drifting, of S. fuscum, crawling, and of B. phoebus, entering the water column by swimming, drift-swimming, and drifting. The results of Mann-Whitney U tests on the differences between the responses by mayfly species to encounters with A. lycorias are summarized in Table 5A. Stenonema fuscum showed greater total locomotion than E. subvaria but less total locomotion than B. phoebus. There was no statistical difference between the frequencies of evasion by locomotion for H. hebe and S. fuscum or B. phoebus.

On 6 October 1978, two *B. phoebus* individuals were consumed by *A. lycorias* during the experiment. The effect of this event upon the behavior of the remaining *B. phoebus* nymphs is illustrated in Fig. 6 and Table 5A. The percentages of total locomotory responses significantly dropped, especially the swimming and drifting behaviors. The percentage of driftswim responses to stonefly encounters significantly increased.

Ephemerella subvaria responded most frequently to encounters with A. lycorias by freezing and extending its caudal filaments and posterior abdominal segments vertically and anteriorly through a 180° radius. I have termed this behavior "scorpion" display. Fig. 7a-dillustrates the various intensities of this posture observed before or during encounters with A. lycorias. The frequency of this response markedly dropped from spring when the nymphs of E. subvaria were mature to fall when early instars primarily responded to encounters with A. lycorias by freezing in normal posture (Fig. 7a).

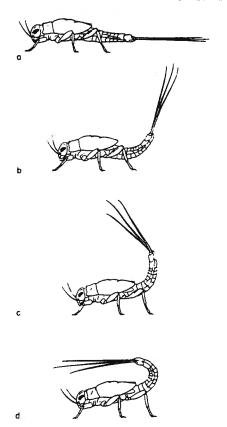


Fig. 7. E. subvaria: a. normal resting posture, b. low-intensity scorpion posture, c. moderate-intensity scorpion posture, d. high-intensity scorpion posture.

Responses of the East River mayflies to encounters with the stonefly predators are shown in Fig. 8. In general, E. infrequens, which also froze and displayed a scorpion posture before and during contact by stoneflies, showed a low frequency of locomotory evasion of all three predators. Baetis bicaudatus and Cinygmula sp. demonstrated a significantly higher percentage of total locomotion in response to encounters with all stoneflies. The results of Mann-Whitney U tests comparing the responses of the mayflies are summarized in Table 5B.

The most frequent types of locomotory responses of *E. infrequens*, like *E. subvaria*, were crawling and drifting. *Cinygmula* sp. primarily crawled, and *B. bicaudatus* entered the water column, for the most part, by drifting, drift-swimming, or swimming in response to contact with the stoneflies.

Differences in mayfly behavior were observed in response to encounters with the different predators (Table 5C). Ephemerella infrequens froze or scorpioned more frequently in response to M. signata and K. modestus than to P. badia. Its total locomotory evasion of M. signata was less frequent than that of the other two stoneflies. Cinygmula sp. showed no differences in the frequency of total locomotion responses to encounters with any of the stoneflies. Individuals

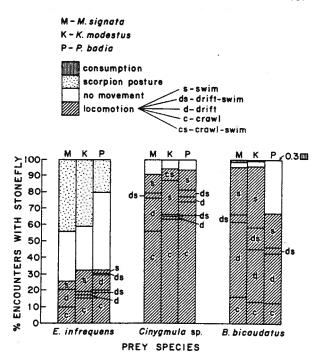


FIG. 8. Percent encounters of mayfly species with three stonefly predators resulting in locomotory responses, East River.

of this species exhibited a crawl-swim sequence of responses to K. modestus encounters. Baetis bicaudatus showed more frequent locomotion in response to M. signata and K. modestus than to P. badia. Differences within specific behavior patterns in response to the three stoneflies occurred for some mayflies, and appear in Table 5B and C.

To summarize, in response to contact-encounters with stonefly predators, the *Ephemerella* species from both streams primarily clung to the substrate or postured, *Baetis* species entered the water column, and heptageniid species crawled.

Baetis and Ephemerella species are commonly reported in the drift of streams (Lehmkuhl and Anderson 1972, Hildebrand 1974, Ciborowski et al. 1977, and Corkum 1978). These authors attribute the high frequency of these mayflies in the drift to their morphology, and to the interaction of their activity patterns with physical factors which tend to dislodge them from the substrate. Waters (1972), Müller (1974), and Keller (1975) summarize the occurrence of mayfly nymphs in the drift. Although differing opinions exist, the most prevalent explanation for invertebrate drift is that negative phototaxis causes the benthos to appear on the surface of the substrate to feed during periods of low light intensity. Their vulnerability to the current and physical disturbance from other foragers accounts for the high incidence of drift during these active periods. No previous information has been presented to document the importance of drift as an active predator

avoidance mechanism. The behavior of *Ephemerella* and *Baetis* species shown here in response to foraging stonefly predators could in part explain the high incidence and diel periodicity of these mayflies in the drift.

The Baetis species showed the most frequent evasive responses to stoneflies. However, upon a successful attack by A. lycorias of B. phoebus, a severe reduction in swimming and drifting behavior occurred. The remaining mayflies aggregated in corners and ends of the observation box. As an aggregate, they did not respond as frequently upon encounters with the predator. Charnov et al. (1976) report similar evasion of fish predators by a Baetis species which responded by aggregating in corners of an aquarium. The stimulus causing this change in behavior is unknown.

The scorpion display of the Ephemerella species is the first of its kind to be reported for aquatic insect larvae or nymphs, although an early reference to this behavior exists (Needham et al. 1935). This type of response is not unique to invertebrates, however. Crane (1952) published an inclusive study of the defense postures of Trinidad mantids. The studies of Bullock (1953), Feder (1963), and Yarnall (1964) describe displays of various marine invertebrates in response to starfish and gastropod predators. Stein and Magnuson (1976) and Hayes (1977) report defensive postures of crayfish as a response to simulated and real fish predators in freshwater.

The adaptive significance of the scorpion posture has not been experimentally documented. One possible explanation is that the posture alters the apparent size and shape of the mayfly, which foils a tactile predator. Stoneflies merely walked over or around Ephemerella nymphs in scorpion posture. Perhaps the display creates a seemingly large spiny creature in the perception of a stonefly. Small E. subvaria instars assumed a scorpion posture significantly less frequently in response to encounters with A. lycorias. The results are consistent with the interpretation that an increase in the apparent size of a small Ephemerella might cause it to appear as a preferred size for stonefly consumption. Iwao and Wellington (1970) describe a similar change in defensive behavior of the tent caterpillar from the fourth to the fifth instar upon predation by a pentatomid bug. As prey become larger and more conspicuous, they intensify their defensive behavior when attacked by a predator.

The effectiveness of altering apparent size to reduce predation by invertebrate tactile predators has been suggested by Dodson (1974b), Zaret (1975), O'Brien and Vinyard (1978), and O'Brien et al. (1979), for cyclomorphotic cladocerans, and Gilbert (1967, 1973) for cyclomorphotic rotifers. O'Brien et al. (1976) propose that vertebrate predators select prey by their apparent size rather than their real size.

The results of the contact experiments demonstrate differences among escape behaviors of the mayflies tested, which may clarify results of the noncontact

chemical experiments. Since the Ephemerella species are not active escapers but display in response to stonefly predators, long-range chemoreception would be advantageous for these species. In many instances, the scorpion posture was observed to occur prior to physical contact with the predator. The stimulus producing this response could be chemical. The combination of chemical forewarning and display posture is not fail-safe, however, since predators may capture smaller nymphs which do not display. Also, predators approaching from downstream of the mayflies should have higher capture success than those approaching from upstream. This has interesting implications for successful search strategies of stream predators; one would expect predators to hunt upstream. High incidence of E. subvaria in A. lycorias stomachs may reflect predator preference and the fallibility of the scorpion display. Low frequency of consumption of E. infrequens may be due to lack of predator preference; or M. signata nymphs may only consume smaller E. infrequens nymphs (J. D. Allan, personal communication).

The high frequency of escape responses in addition to smaller size of the heptageniids, H. hebe, Otter Creek, and Cinygmula sp., East River, may be related to their lack of a long-range chemical avoidance response to stonefly predators, and their low frequencies in stonefly stomachs. However, the larger, more common, heptageniid, S. fuscum also appeared in relatively low numbers in A. lycorias stomachs. This may be due to long-range chemical detection of the predator which compensates for a lower frequency of locomotion response to contact. In late-instar S. fuscum nymphs, their very large size could create a prohibitive energetic cost of handling after capture. Acroneuria lycorias nymphs were observed to spend over 2 min consuming a S. fuscum as opposed to almost instantaneous consumption of B. phoebus.

In addition to being the smallest mayflies tested, the Baetis species were extremely fast swimmers. Upon contact with stoneflies both species showed the highest frequencies of evasion by locomotion. The only captures occurred when the predator cornered the prey rather than out-pursued it. The lack of experimental evidence for chemoreception in B. phoebus in Otter Creek may reflect the effectiveness of its evasion response upon close-range contact detection, or a lower predation pressure by A. lycorias due to its small size. Baetis bicaudatus, on the other hand, is more heavily preyed upon than any other mayfly species by all three stoneflies in the East River. The high probability that a stonefly might encounter this extremely common mayfly could explain its high incidence in stonefly stomachs, despite a high evasion frequency and response to noncontact chemical stimuli from stoneflies.

The differential responses by the East River mayflies to the three stoneflies provides additional information regarding the predator detection mechanisms used by each mayfly. If the mayflies can differentiate predators by chemoreception, their responses should differ consistently with the threat of consumption, regardless of the size differential among predators. If a tactile sense is used, the mayflies may avoid stoneflies differentially by size; or prey might react to all stoneflies of sizes greater than a certain threshold size which poses a threat of consumption.

Ephemerella infrequens showed an intensified display posture to M. signata and K. modestus, and the highest combination of freeze and display behavior to M. signata, the only stonefly which consumes it. These responses, consistent with the interpretation of the results of the noncontact chemical experiments, suggest that a contact-chemical or chemotactile mechanism is used by the mayflies to differentiate stoneflies.

Baetis bicaudatus, which avoided M. signata and the smaller K. modestus given noncontact chemical stimuli, also showed a significantly reduced response to contact with P. badia despite its larger size. A chemotactile differentiation of these three stoneflies is consistent with results of the noncontact chemical experiments. Cinygmula nymphs, which did not avoid the stoneflies without contact, avoided all three stoneflies upon contact regardless of size or threat of consumption. Since Cinygmula has been recovered in M. signata and K. modestus stomachs only, K. modestus could represent the threshold size for predator avoidance by Cinygmula nymphs using a tactile detection mechanism.

Change in activity of mayflies in the presence of stoneflies

If mayflies can detect the presence of stonefly predators given all available cues, their activity levels should change as a reflection of avoidance behavior. Ephemerella subvaria nymphs, usually active mayflies, reduced their level of activity in the presence of A. lycorias (Fig. 9), especially the frequency of crawling behavior. They also increased the frequency of scorpion postures in the presence of the predators. Stenonema fuscum and B. phoebus, relatively inac-

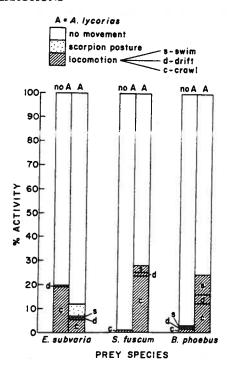


Fig. 9. Change in percent activity by mayflies before and during the presence of A. lycorias, Otter Creek.

tive species, increased their activity levels in the presence of A. lycorias. Stenonema fuscum crawled, and B. phoebus crawled and swam more frequently. Table 6 summarizes the statistical comparisons between mayfly activity levels before and during the presence of the stoneflies.

In the presence of K. modestus, E. infrequens, like E. subvaria, became less active, reducing its frequency of crawling. It similarly increased the number of scorpion displays (Fig. 10). Cinygmula sp., like S. fuscum became more active, increasing the frequency of crawling behavior in the presence of K. modestus. Baetis bicaudatus did not alter its behavior pattern in the presence of K. modestus.

This experiment was originally suggested by a qualitative observation early in July, 1978, that given only

TABLE 6. Summary of statistical significance of change of activity of mayflies in the presence of stoneflies, Mann-Whitney U test. Asterisks refer to levels of significance. Blank squares indicate no significant difference. (+) = increase, (-) = decrease.

Predator	Prey	Total locomotion	Crawling	Swimming	Drifting	Scorpion
A. lycorias	E. subvaria S. fuscum B. phoebus	** (-) *** (+) *** (+)	** (-) *** (+) * (+)	* (+)		* (+)
K. modestus	E. infrequens Cinygmula sp. B. bicaudatus	** (-) * (+)	* (-) * (+)			** (+)

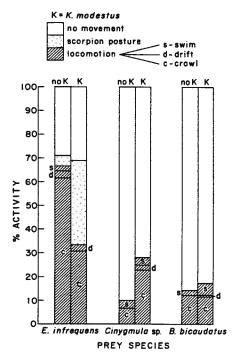


FIG. 10. Change in percent activity of mayflies before and during the presence of K. modestus, East River.

long-range chemical cues, *Baetis* nymphs became relatively inactive in the presence of *K. modestus*. However, the quantitative observations reported here were made during an emergence period of *B. bicaudatus* indicated by blackened wing pads and direct observations of emergences. Thus, the pattern recorded may not be indicative of behavior characteristic of this species during other phases of its development.

In summary, two of three pairs of species representing three families of mayflies in two streams, showed analogous behavioral alterations in the presence of free stonefly predators. Both *Ephemerella* species reduced their activity levels clinging to the substrate more often, and both Heptageniidae increased their crawling behavior. These activity changes have interesting implications regarding the energetic costs of predator avoidance.

Conclusions

The presence of a stonefly predator within an observation box in streams has considerable influence upon the distribution, behavior, and activity levels of mayfly prey. Mechanisms of mayflies used for detection of stonefly predators probably include noncontact chemoreception, close-range contact chemoreception, and mechanoreception. Later instars of some mayflies respond to predator detection by freezing and assuming a posture which may increase their apparent size and cause them to be rejected by stonefly predators. Other mayflies evade capture by stoneflies by the lo-

comotory behaviors of crawling, swimming, driftswimming, or drifting away from the predator. This behavior may be part of the complex set of interactions involved in the diel periodicity and relative abundances of invertebrates in the drift.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank Stanley I. Dodson and Fred H. Wiman for their initial inspiration for this project; Dr. Dodson, Jack Hailman, John Neess, George Gallepp, Scott Cooper, David Allan, and an anonymous reviewer for their technical assistance with this manuscript; Richard Ganje for the construction of the observation boxes; Cheryl Hughes for the effective illustrations; JoAnn Spring for typing the manuscript; and Leanne Mumpy and Steve Horn for invaluable field and lab assistance.

LITERATURE CITED

Bishop, J. E., and H. B. N. Hynes. 1969. Upstream movements of benthic invertebrates in Speed River, Ontario. Journal of the Fisheries Research Board of Canada 26:279-298.

Brooks, J. L., and S. I. Dodson. 1965. Predation, body size, and composition of the plankton. Science 150:28-35.

Bullock, T. H. 1953. Predator recognition and escape responses of some intertidal gastropods in the presence of starfish. Behaviour 5:130-140.

Cather, M. R., and A. R. Gaufin. 1975. Life history and ecology of Megarcys signata (Plecoptera: Perlodidae), Mill Creek, Wasatch Mountains, Utah. Great Basin Naturalist 35:39-48.

Charnov, E. L., G. H. Orians, and K. Hyatt. 1976. Ecological implications of resource depression. American Naturalist 110:247-259.

Ciborowski, J. J. H., P. J. Pointing, and L. P. Corkum. 1977. The effect of current velocity and sediment on the drift of the mayfly *Ephemerella subvaria* Mcdunnough. Freshwater Biology 7:567-572.

Corkum, L. D. 1978. The influence of density and behavioral type on the active entry of two mayfly species (Ephemeroptera) into the water column. Canadian Journal of Zoology 56:1201-1206.

Crane, J. 1952. A comparative study of innate defensive behavior in Trinidad mantids. Zoologica, New York 37:259-293.

Devonport, B. F., and M. J. Winterbourn. 1976. The feeding relationships of two invertebrate predators in a New Zealand river. Freshwater Biology 6:167-176.

Dodson, S. I. 1974a. Zooplankton competition and predation: an experimental test of the size-efficiency hypothesis. Ecology 55:605-613.

Dodson, S. E. 1974b. Adaptive change in plankton morphology in response to size-selective predation: a new hypothesis of cyclomorphosis. Limnology and Oceanography 19:721-729.

Evans, H. F. 1976. The role of predator-prey size ratio in determining the efficiency of capture by Anthocoris nemorum and the escape reactions of its prey Acyrthosiphon pisum. Ecological Entomology 1:85-90.

Feder, H. M. 1963. Gastropod defensive responses and their effectiveness in reducing predation by starfishes. Ecology 44:505-512.

Fuller, R. L., and K. W. Stewart. 1977. The food habits of stoneflies in the upper Gunnison River, Colorado. Environmental Entomology 6:293-302.

Gilbert, J. J. 1967. Asplanchna and posterolateral spine production in Brachionus calyciflorus. Archiv für Hydrobiologie 64:1-62.

Gilbert, J. J. 1973. The adaptive significance of polymor-

- 1 1 mg

- phism in the rotifer Asplanchna. Humps in males and females. Oecologia 13:135-146.
- Hayes, W. A., II. 1977. Predator response postures of crayfish. I. The genus *Procambarus* (Decapoda, Cambaridae). Southwest Naturalist 21:443-449.
- Hildebrand, S. G. 1974. The relation of drift to benthos density and food level in an artificial stream. Limnology and Oceanography 19:951-957.
- Hughes, D. A. 1966a. On the dorsal light response in a mayfly nymph. Animal Behaviour 14:13-16.
- Hughes. D. A. 1966b. The role of responses to light in the selection and maintenance of microhabitat by the nymphs of two species of mayfly. Animal Behaviour 14:17-33.
- Hynes, H. B. N. 1970. The ecology of running waters. Toronto University Press, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
- Iwao, S., and W. G. Wellington. 1970. The influence of behavioral differences among tent-caterpillar larvae on predation by a pentatomid bug. Canadian Journal of Zoology 48:896-898.
- Keller, V. A. 1975. (The drift and its ecological significance. Experimental investigations on *Ecdyoneurus venosus* (Fabr) in a stream model.) Schweizerische Zeitschrift für Hydrologie 37:294-331.
- Kerfoot, W. C. 1977. Implications of copepod predation. Limnology and Oceanography 22:316-325.
- Kliban, B. 1976. Never eat anything bigger than your head and other drawings. Workman's Press, New York, New York, USA.
- Kohn, A. J. 1961. Chemoreception in gastropod molluscs. American Zoologist 1:291-308.
- Lehmkuhl, D. M., and N. H. Anderson. 1972. Microdistribution and density as factors affecting the downstream drift of mayflies. Ecology 53:661-667.
- Menge, B. A. 1976. Organization of the New England rocky intertidal community: role of predation, competition, and environmental heterogeneity. Ecological Monographs 46:335-393.
- Merritt, R. W., and K. W. Cummins. 1978. An introduction to the aquatic insects of North America. Kendall/Hunt, Dubuque, Iowa, USA.
- Müller, K. 1974. Stream drift as a chronobiological phenomenon in running water ecosystems. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 5:309-323.
- Needham, J. G., J. Traver, and Y. Hsu. 1935. Biology of mayflies. Comstock, Ithaca, New York, USA.
- O'Brien, W. J., D. Kettle, and H. Riessen. 1979. Helmets and invisible armor: structures reducing predation from tactile and visual planktivores. Ecology 60:287-294.
- O'Brien, W. J., N. A. Slade, and G. L. Vinyard. 1976. Apparent size as the determinant of prey selection by bluegill sunfish (*Lepomis macrochirus*). Ecology 57:1304-1310.
- O'Brien, W. J., and G. L. Vinyard. 1978. Polymorphism and predation: the effect of invertebrate predation on the distribution of two varieties of *Daphnia carinata* in South India Ponds. Limnology and Oceanography 23:452-460.
- Paine, R. T. 1969. The *Pisaster-Tegula* interaction: prey patches, predator food preference, and intertidal community structure. Ecology 50:950-961.
- Peckarsky, B. L. 1979a. Biological interactions as determinants of distributions of benthic invertebrates within the substrate of stony streams. Limnology and Oceanography 24:59-68.
- Peckarsky, B. L. 1979b. Experimental manipulations involving the determinants of the spatial distribution of benthic invertebrates within the substrate of stony streams.

- Dissertation. University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, USA.
- Peckarsky, B. L. 1979c. A review of the distribution, ecology, and evolution of the North American species of Acroneuria and six related genera (Plecoptera: Perlidae). Journal of the Kansas Entomological Society 52:787-809.
- Peckarsky, B. L., and S. I. Dodson. 1980, in press. Do stonefly predators influence benthic distributions in streams? Ecology 61.
- Phillips, D. W. 1978. Chemical mediation of invertebrate defensive behaviors and the ability to distinguish between foraging and inactive predators. Marine Biology 49:237-243
- Prager, J. 1973. (Auditory threshold of the mesothoracic tympanic organ in *Corixa punctata* Illies (Heteroptera:Corixidae).) Journal of Comparative Physiology 86:55-58.
- Richardson, J. W., and A. R. Gaufin. 1971. Food habits of some western stonefly nymphs. Transactions of the American Entomological Society 97:91-122.
- Rupprecht, R., and W. Gnatzy. 1974. (The ultrastructure of sensory hairs on the vesicle of *Leuctra hippopus* and *Nem-oura cinerea* (Plecoptera).) Cytobiologie 9:422-431.
- Schmidt, K. 1974. (The mechanoreceptors on the pedicel of mayflies (Insecta, Ephemeroptera).) Zeitschrift für Morphologie und Ökologie der Tiere 78:193-220.
- Sheldon, A. L. 1969. Size relationships of Acroneuria californica (Perlidae, Plecoptera) and its prey. Hydrobiologia 34:85-94.
- Siegel, S. 1956. Nonparametric statistics for the behavioral sciences. McGraw Hill, New York, New York, USA.
- Siegfried, C. A., and A. W. Knight. 1976a. Prey selection by a setipalpian stonefly nymph, Acroneuria (Calineuria) californica Banks (Plecoptera:Perlidae) in a Sierra foothill stream. Ecology 57:603-608.
- Siegfried, C. A., and A. W. Knight. 1976b. Trophic relations of *Acroneuria (Calineuria) californica* (Plecoptera:Perlidae) in a Sierra foothill stream. Environmental Entomology 5:575-581.
- Slifer, E. H. 1970. The structure of arthropod chemoreceptors. Annual Review of Entomology 15:121-142.
- Slifer, E. H. 1977. Sense organs on the antennal flagellum of mayflies (Ephemeroptera). Journal of Morphology 153:355-361.
- Stein, R. A. 1979. Behavioral response of prey to fish predators. Pages 343-353 in H. C. Clepper, editor. Predator-prey systems in fisheries management. Sport Fishing Institute, Washington, District of Columbia, USA.
- Stein, R. A., and J. J. Magnuson. 1976. Behavioral response of crayfish to a fish predator. Ecology 57:751-761.
- Strickler, J. R. 1975. Intra- and interspecific information flow among planktonic copepods: receptors. Verhandlungen des Internationalen Vereins Limnologie 19:2951-2958.
- Waters, T. F. 1972. The drift of stream insects. Annual Review of Entomology 17:253-272.
- Woodin, S. A. 1974. Polychaete abundance patterns in a marine soft-sediment environment: the importance of biological interactions. Ecological Monographs 44:171–187.
- Yarnall, J. L. 1964. The responses of *Tegula funebralis* to starfishes and predatory snails. The Veliger 6(Supplement):56-58.
- Zaret, T. M. 1975. Strategies for existence of zooplankton prey in homogeneous environments. Verhandlungen des Internationalen vereins Limnologie 19:1484–1489.