

1 **Temperature regimes and aphid density interactions differentially influence VOC emissions in *Arabidopsis***

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16  
17 **Abstract**

18 The effects of volatile emissions from plants exposed to individual abiotic and biotic stresses are well  
19 documented. However, the influence of multiple stresses on plant photosynthesis and defense responses, resulting in a  
20 variety of volatile profiles has received little attention. In this study, we investigated how temperature regimes in the  
21 presence and absence of the sucking insect *Myzus persicae* affected volatile organic compound emissions in  
22 *Arabidopsis* over three time periods (0-24 h, 24-48 h, and 48-72 h). Headspace solid-phase microextraction coupled  
23 with gas chromatography-mass spectrometry was used to evaluate *Arabidopsis* volatile organic compounds. The results  
24 showed that under laboratory conditions, eight volatile classes [alcohols (mainly 2-ethyl-hexan-1-ol), ketone (6-methyl  
25 hept-5-en-2-one), esters (mainly (Z)-3-hexenyl acetate), aldehydes (mainly phenylacetaldehyde), isothiocyanates  
26 (mainly 4-methylpentyl isothiocyanate), terpenes (mainly (E,E)- $\alpha$ -farnesene), nitrile (5-(methylthio) pentanenitrile), and  
27 sulfide (dimethyl trisulfide)] were observed on plants exposed to stress combinations, whereas emissions of six volatile  
28 classes were observed during temperature stress treatments alone (with the exception of nitriles and sulfides). Aphid  
29 density at high temperature combinations resulted in significantly higher isothiocyanate, ester, nitrile and sulfide  
30 proportions. The results of the present study provide an insight into the effects of temperature - aphid interactions on  
31 plant volatile emissions.

33 Key words: *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Myzus persicae*. Temperature regimes. Stress combination. Volatile organic  
34 compounds (VOCs).

35

## 36 **Introduction**

37

38 Plants in diverse continental environments might experience the effects of a variety of biotic and abiotic  
39 constraints (Vickers et al. 2009). Evidence provides support for a long-standing hypothesis that emissions of volatile  
40 organic compounds (VOCs) from plants vary substantially depending on changes in environmental factors (Hatano et  
41 al. 2008; Holopainen and Gershenzon 2010; Loreto and Schnitzler 2010). In fact, a plant reaction to pathogen or insect  
42 attack often results in development of different defense mechanisms, both direct, e.g. phytoalexins, reactive oxygen  
43 species (ROS) and indirect, e.g. mediated by VOCs (Maffei 2010). Induced resistance involves defense strategies, and  
44 results in the production and/or translocation of secondary products within plants, which might act directly and/or  
45 indirectly on plant attackers (Van Poecke 2007; Unsicker et al. 2009; Winter and Rostás 2010).

46 Abiotic factors can affect primary metabolism by changing photochemical or biochemical reactions of the  
47 photochemical cycle, or secondary metabolism by affecting VOC emissions (Holopainen and Gershenzon 2010; Loreto  
48 and Schnitzler 2010; Krasensky and Jonak 2012). For example, increasing drought stress inhibited isoprene emissions  
49 and photosynthesis in black poplar (*Populus nigra* L.) (Fortunati et al. 2008; Loreto and Schnitzler 2010). Vickers et al.  
50 (2009) proposed the “single biochemical mechanism for multiple stressors” hypothesis to explain how plants respond to  
51 abiotic stress. Based on this hypothesis, volatile isoprenoids are emitted from plants to prevent cell damage caused by  
52 many environmental factors as follows: (1) direct isoprenoid reactions with oxidizing species; (2) indirect ROS  
53 signaling changes; and/or (3) membrane stabilization (Vickers et al. 2009). Confirming this hypothesis, temperature,  
54 light, fertilization rate, soil and air humidity, salt concentration, and high ozone levels were found to change the  
55 quantity of VOC emissions in plants (Gouinguéné and Turlings 2002; Vuorinen et al. 2004; Pinto et al. 2010).

56 Feeding and oviposition by herbivorous insects are well-documented biotic factors involved in plant-biotic  
57 stress interactions (Dicke and Baldwin 2010; Holopainen and Gershenzon 2010; Kos et al. 2012). Herbivorous insect  
58 damage to vegetative organs has been reported to cause increased VOC emissions, particularly green leaf volatiles  
59 (GLVs) and terpenes (Mumm et al. 2003; Dudareva et al. 2006; Holopainen and Gershenzon 2010). Studies have  
60 demonstrated that plants respond to biotic stresses by emitting a specific blend of volatiles depending on the type of  
61 insect pests and experimental conditions (Mewis et al. 2006; De Vos et al. 2007; Snoeren et al. 2010; Huang et al.  
62 2012). Plant-insect relationships are regulated by plant responsive mechanisms resulting from long-term co-  
63 evolutionary processes, and pest survival adaptations due to plant defensive mechanisms (Van Poecke 2007; De Vos  
64 and Jander 2009). The establishment of induced systemic resistance (ISR) or systemic acquired resistance (SAR)

65 involves reactions regulated by signaling pathways, jasmonate (JA) and ethylene (ET) for ISR, or salicylate (SA) for  
66 SAR, which are major signals in the release of volatile compounds against elicitors (Vallad and Goodman 2004). Some  
67 studies demonstrated that in aphid infestations, plants induced SAR as a pest avoidance mechanism via the SA signaling  
68 pathway (Vallad and Goodman 2004; Van Poecke 2007). In addition, aphid feeding investigations found changes in the  
69 induction of plant volatile emissions, resulting in reduced tissue damage at aphid feeding sites (Louis and Shah 2013;  
70 Verheggen et al. 2013). Under natural conditions, stresses rarely occur individually; plants may be subjected to a  
71 combination of different biotic and/or abiotic stress factors affecting plant VOC emissions (Holopainen and Gershenzon  
72 2010; Winter et al. 2012). Much less is known regarding the emission of VOC blends during plant response to such  
73 multiple stress factors (Holopainen and Gershenzon 2010; Winter and Rostás 2010).

74 In the present study, we examined the combined stress effects of temperature and densities of the sucking  
75 aphid *Myzus persicae* (Sulzer) on *Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh ecotype Columbia (Col-0), primarily with respect to  
76 VOC emissions. The objectives of this study were as follows: (i) investigate *Arabidopsis* VOC emissions induced by  
77 different *M. persicae* leaf densities; (ii) evaluate the effects of environmental temperature regimes on volatile emissions;  
78 and (iii) assess the effects of temperature stress and aphid density interactions on *Arabidopsis* VOC emissions over  
79 different time periods.

80

## 81 **Materials and Methods**

82

### 83 **Plants and insects**

84

85 Five-week old *Arabidopsis thaliana* (L.) Heynh (ecotype Columbia (Col-0), Lehle Company, Texas, USA) were used  
86 for all experiments. The plant seeds were sown in plastic pots (0.20 l) with potting soil, and cultivated in a growth  
87 chamber at  $22 \pm 0.6$  °C, 16L: 8D (LED lighting:  $43 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photosynthetically active radiation during the light  
88 period), and  $64.5 \pm 2.6\%$  relative humidity. Plants were watered twice a week (tap water, 10-20 ml/pot) for five weeks,  
89 before starting the experiments at different temperatures. The green peach aphid *Myzus persicae* (Sulzer) was reared on  
90 broad bean plants (*Vicia faba* L.), under controlled environmental conditions in a room at  $20 \pm 2$  °C with a 16L: 8D  
91 photoperiod.

92

### 93 **Experimental design and protocols**

94

#### 95 *Arabidopsis* plant treatments

96 Five-week old *Arabidopsis* plants, including root balls (9-10 leaves, 0.25-0.40 g/plant) were carefully removed  
97 from the plastic pots, individually wrapped in aluminum foil around the root balls to reduce the detection of soil  
98 volatiles. Three plants were carefully placed in the same reaction vessels (100 ml, Duran Group, Germany) and  
99 submitted to each stress treatment. Reaction vessels were carefully cleaned by methanol, milli-Q water and put in the  
100 oven at 180 °C during 24 h before the plants were put into them.

101

102 Temperature regimes

103

104 Temperature regimes were applied using a thermostat water bath (IKA®-Werke GmbH & Co. KG, Germany),  
105 and the reaction vessels containing three plants were immersed in water. The temperature treatments inside the  
106 collection reaction vessels were 17 °C, 22 °C, 27 °C, and 32 °C, and controlled using a HOBO Pro temp/RH/light/text  
107 channel data logger (Onset Computer Corp., Bourne, MA 02532, USA). Plants were kept 18 h at such temperatures  
108 before collecting VOCs. Light intensity was kept constant during all collections (600-800 Lux, HOBO Pro  
109 temp/RH/light/text channel data logger). Three replications were conducted for each treatment.

110

111 *Myzus persicae* infestation

112

113 *Arabidopsis* were either untreated, as a control, or infested with aphids (Online resource 1). Plants were  
114 infested by exposure to adult aphids under controlled conditions. In a preliminary trial (Exp. 1), 30, 70 and 100 adults  
115 were released onto randomly selected *Arabidopsis*, and the volatiles were collected from plants maintained at 22 °C  
116 during 48 h. The samplings were carried out from 42-48 h. In order to test temperature and aphid interaction (Exp. 2),  
117 70 aphids were placed on plants at different temperatures (17 °C, 22 °C, 27 °C, and 32 °C) over three time periods (0-24  
118 h, 24-48 h, and 48-72 h). Plants without aphids were subjected to the same temperature. Population growth rate of  
119 aphids was measured at the end of each test. Both experiments were replicated three times.

120

121 Plant volatile collection and analysis

122

123 To select the best SPME fibers suitable to extract VOCs from *Arabidopsis*, preliminary experiments were conducted on  
124 control plants with different stationary phases and various film thicknesses: carboxen-polydimethylsiloxane  
125 (CAR/PDMS, 75 µm), polydimethylsiloxane-divinylbenzene (PDMS/DVB, 65 µm) and divinylbenzene-carboxen-  
126 polydimethylsiloxane (DVB/CAR/PDMS, 50/30 µm) (Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA). The results (data not shown)

127 demonstrated that 65  $\mu\text{m}$  PDMS/DVB fibers were most efficient for *A. thaliana* VOC sampling. Our results were  
128 consistent with Rohloff and Bones (2005) who profiled volatiles in *Arabidopsis*.

129 Volatile collection was conducted from *Arabidopsis* under stress treatments during three time courses (0-24 h,  
130 24-48 h, and 48-72 h). Collections started after an 18 h period treatment of each time course and lasted 6 h. Prior to the  
131 onset of VOC collection, the fibers were conditioned at 225  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 min to avoid contaminations.

132 At the end of each treatment of the sample periods (24, 48 and 72 h), the fibers were desorbed in the injector of  
133 a gas chromatograph coupled to a mass spectrometer (SPME-GC/MS). GC/MS analyses were performed using a Trace  
134 GC Ultra (Thermo-Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA, USA) gas chromatograph coupled to a quadrupole-type mass  
135 spectrometer Trace Finnigan (Thermo-Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA, USA). The GC was equipped with an apolar  
136 column (Optima-5-MS, 30 m; 0.25 mm i.d.; 0.25  $\mu\text{m}$  film thickness, Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany). The oven  
137 temperature program was from 40  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  to 220  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  (1-min hold) at 4  $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ , then from 220  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  to 320  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  (10-min hold) at  
138 100  $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ . Carry over and peaks originating from the fibers were regularly assessed by running blank samples. After  
139 VOC collections, fibers were immediately thermally desorbed in the GC injector for 5 min at 220  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  to prevent  
140 contamination. The injections were performed in splitless mode using SPME liner (1 min). The carrier gas was helium  
141 at a constant flow rate of 1.5 ml/min. The mass spectra were obtained using a mass selective detector operating in  
142 electron impact mode at 70 eV, a multiplier voltage of 275 V, and a scanned mass range from 39 to 400 amu at a rate of  
143 1 scan  $\text{s}^{-1}$ . The transfer line to the mass spectrometer was maintained at 230  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and the ion source temperature was set  
144 at 250  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The volatile components were identified based on retention times, and by careful examination of their main  
145 spectra in comparison with the Wiley and NIST MS 2.0 computed spectral databases.

146

147 Statistical analyses

148

149 The relative abundances of each detected volatile were calculated as the ratio between their area and the total area of all  
150 detected VOCs from plants subjected to each treatment. In a second step, the proportions of the main chemical families  
151 [alcohols, terpenes, ketones, aldehydes, isothiocyanates (ITCs), esters, nitriles and sulfides] were calculated.

152 In order to reveal the patterns of variation and clustering among treatments, and identify the volatile chemicals  
153 responsible for variation in volatile profiles among *Arabidopsis* subjected to different treatments, a principal component  
154 analysis (PCA) followed by hierarchical clustering analysis on principal components (HCPC) was performed  
155 respectively using R 3.0.1 software (R-Development-Core-Team 2013) and FactoMineR 1.25 package (Husson et al.  
156 2013). Multivariate analyses (PCA and HCPC) were performed on a dataset containing the mean relative abundances of  
157 either the individual compounds or eight groups for each treatment. Principal components (PCs) were calculated using a  
158 correlation matrix. The optimal group number defined by hierarchical clustering on principal components was chosen

159 automatically by the statistical software, and was between 3 and 10 clusters. Equality of variances among clusters for  
160 each chemical family was tested using a Bartlett test ( $P < 0.05$ ). For each chemical family, the variation in emitted  
161 proportions between clusters was analyzed by one-way ANOVA ( $P < 0.05$ ) using Minitab® 16.2.2 software (State  
162 College, Pennsylvania, USA). Data used for multivariate analyses were plotted with heatmap 2 functions in the gplots  
163 2.11.3 package (Warnes et al. 2013) using R 3.0.1 software. Heatmap was constructed using standardized mean values.  
164 In the final heatmap, stress factors were ordered according to a dendrogram calculated with the Ward algorithm (R-  
165 Development-Core-Team 2013).

166 ANOVAs (one-way and three-way), and subsequent *post hoc* Tukey's test were also applied to analyze the  
167 variation in volatile blends among treatments and compare mean relative abundance in VOC classes as well as the  
168 specific compounds. For each subset, data were  $\log(x + 1)$  transformed when necessary to meet assumptions of  
169 normality and homogeneity of variances. These tests were conducted with Minitab® 16.2.2 software.

170

## 171 **Results**

172

173 Volatile emission changes in *Arabidopsis* following aphid density treatments

174

175 PCA resulted in a spatial visualization of volatile profiles from *Arabidopsis* infested with different *M. persicae* densities  
176 (0, 30, 70 and 100 adult aphids/plant) at 22 °C for 24-48 h. The first two principal components (PC1 and PC2)  
177 explained 88.5% of the variance, i.e. PC1 69.9% and PC2 18.6% (Fig. 1A). Analysis of the score plots constructed with  
178 PC1 and PC2 revealed the VOCs responsible for differences among experimental conditions. According to statistical  
179 analyses, the correlations between variables on first two principal components (PCs) indicated that PC1 was positively  
180 correlated with terpenes (0.98), ITCs (0.82), aldehydes (0.74), but negatively correlated with ketones (-0.64) and  
181 alcohols (-0.96). PC2 was positively correlated with alcohols (0.24), ITCs (0.21) and terpenes (0.06), whereas  
182 negatively correlated with aldehydes (-0.59) and ketones (-0.69).

183 A one-way ANOVA was conducted on VOC classes to identify significant differences between *Arabidopsis*  
184 volatile blends (Fig. 1B). The proportion of terpene significantly increased, and was the highest with 100 adults per  
185 plant ( $F_{3,8} = 54.39$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). In contrast, total alcohol percentage significantly decreased according to aphid densities  
186 in infested plants ( $F_{3,8} = 25.73$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Significant differences were observed for total aldehyde proportion between  
187 control and infested plants, irrespective of aphid numbers ( $F_{3,8} = 51.62$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). The percentage of 4-methylpentyl  
188 isothiocyanate significantly increased with the number of aphids feeding on plant leaves ( $F_{3,8} = 25.74$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). This  
189 compound has not been detected in uninfested plants. However, based on the aphid densities no significant difference in  
190 the emission of 6-methyl hept-5-en-2-one was observed ( $F_{3,8} = 3.64$ ,  $P = 0.064$ ) (Table 1).

191 With respect to the specific terpenes showing significant differences between treatments, the proportions of  
192 limonene ( $F_{3,8} = 10.58$ ,  $P = 0.004$ ) and menthol ( $F_{3,8} = 15.78$ ,  $P = 0.001$ ) generally increased in infested *Arabidopsis*  
193 plants. Moreover,  $\alpha$ -terpineol ( $F_{3,8} = 731.93$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and (*E,E*)- $\alpha$ -farnesene ( $F_{3,8} = 745.26$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) were only  
194 detected in highly infested *Arabidopsis* (100 aphids/plant) (Table 1).

195 With respect to the single alcohol compounds, decan-3-ol ( $F_{3,8} = 158.69$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) was only observed in  
196 highly infested plants, while the levels of two major molecules from this class: 4-methyl-1-penten-3-ol ( $F_{3,8} = 64.86$ ,  $P$   
197  $< 0.001$ ) and 2-ethyl-hexan-1-ol ( $F_{3,8} = 40.23$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) generally showed a significant decrease in infested plants  
198 (Table 1).

199

200 Changes in *Arabidopsis* volatile profiles due to combined effects of temperature and aphid density

201

202 Twenty compounds divided into eight VOC classes were recorded in the headspace of *A. thaliana* exposed to different  
203 temperatures (from 17 °C to 32 °C). When aphids were present a total of 29 compounds were detected. Volatile  
204 analyses were performed for the three time periods (0-24 h, 24-48 h, and 48-72 h) (Fig. 2; Online resource 2). First, a  
205 PCA using the mean proportion of each individual compound was conducted. The first two principal components (PCs)  
206 showed 43.6% of the observed variation, i.e. PC1 29.9% and PC2 13.7% (Online resource 3). In addition, PCA and  
207 HCPC using the mean percentage of each VOC class were applied to reveal patterns of variation and clusters among  
208 treatments. The goal also was to identify the chemical families responsible for volatile profile variation among  
209 *Arabidopsis* under different stress treatments. PCA results showed that the first two components accounted for 65.0% of  
210 the total variance, with PC1 and PC2 explaining 47.6 and 17.4% of the total chemical composition variation,  
211 respectively (Fig. 2A). Correlations between variables with the first two principal components indicated that PC1 was  
212 positively correlated with the emission of esters (0.80), ITCs (0.78), and aldehydes (0.75), but negatively correlated  
213 with ketones (-0.43) and alcohols (-0.80). PC1 and PC2 were equally positively correlated with nitriles (PC1: 0.62;  
214 PC2: 0.62) and sulfides (PC1: 0.60; PC2: 0.64). Terpenes were positively correlated with PC1 (0.66), but negatively  
215 correlated with PC2 (-0.55).

216 HCPC on principal components using the eight VOC classes defined four clusters corresponding to the four  
217 groups already identified by PCAs (Fig. 2A-B). A careful examination of the data clearly indicated differences between  
218 cluster 1 and cluster 4 (Group 1 and 4 in PCA). Indeed, for the former, it corresponded to treatments at low  
219 temperatures without insects and for the later to the most stressful conditions (highest temperature with the occurrence  
220 of aphids). Cluster 2 (Group 2 in PCA) represented the effects of temperature increase (from 22 °C to 32 °C) on the  
221 VOCs emitted by uninfested plants. It is noteworthy that this cluster also grouped the chemical profiles observed when  
222 infestation occurred at low temperatures (17 °C and 22 °C). That brought out both effects (temperatures and occurrence

223 of *M. persicae*) on the VOC profiles. This tendency was the same and well depicted in cluster 3 (Group 3 in PCA) for  
224 higher temperatures (with infested plants at 27 °C during the three sampling durations, at 32 °C after 24 h, and with  
225 uninfested plants stressed at 32 °C).

226 To identify the differences between clusters of the HCPC, a one-way ANOVA was carried out for each VOC  
227 class, followed by a *post hoc* Tukey's test (Fig. 2C). The results showed that the emission of alcohols was highest for  
228 plants from Cluster 1 (without aphids at 17 °C and 22 °C) ( $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 2C). In contrast, the ketone proportion  
229 significantly increased from plants exposed to stresses in Cluster 2 (with aphids at 17 °C and 22 °C; without aphids at  
230 27 °C and 32 °C) ( $P < 0.001$ ), whereas terpene emissions showed a significant increase in their proportions from plants  
231 subjected to treatments in Cluster 3 (with aphids at 27 °C) ( $P < 0.01$ ). The proportions of esters ( $P < 0.001$ ), ITCs ( $P <$   
232  $0.001$ ) and aldehydes ( $P < 0.001$ ) significantly increased when *Arabidopsis* plants were exposed to stress treatments  
233 described in Cluster 3 and 4. Finally, plants infested by aphids and kept at the highest temperature (32 °C) emitted  
234 significantly higher proportions of nitriles ( $P < 0.001$ ) and sulfides ( $P < 0.001$ ) (Cluster 4) (Fig. 2C). These observations  
235 have been summarized in the heat-map (Fig. 2B) which clearly demonstrated the effects of treatments on volatile  
236 chemicals.

237 A three-way full crossed ANOVA model was carried out for both VOC classes and each individual compound  
238 to identify differences between *Arabidopsis* volatile profiles. Alcohol proportions exhibited a significant decrease in  
239 plants exposed to combined temperature and aphid density ( $F_{6,42} = 17.10$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Online resource 2). Considering  
240 individual compounds, the percentage of 2-ethyl-hexan-1-ol significantly decreased according to the conditions of  
241 experimentations ( $F_{6,42} = 13.19$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), whereas 4-methyl-1-penten-3-ol generally increased ( $F_{6,42} = 74.65$ ,  $P <$   
242  $0.001$ ). (Z)-3-hexen-1-ol ( $F_{6,42} = 7.18$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and decan-3-ol ( $F_{6,42} = 513.31$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) were only detected from  
243 infested samples at the three highest temperatures during the three sampling times (Online resource 2).

244 Most of the emission of esters ( $F_{6,42} = 65.44$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), aldehydes ( $F_{6,42} = 26.24$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and 6-methyl-  
245 hept-5-en-2-one, the only detected ketone, ( $F_{6,42} = 21.61$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) were affected by high temperature – aphid  
246 interactions on *Arabidopsis* plants. With respect to the individual ester compounds, 1-methylcyclopentyl acetate ( $F_{6,42} =$   
247  $39.27$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), methyl 2-ethylpentanoate ( $F_{6,42} = 7.10$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and (Z)-3-hexenyl acetate ( $F_{6,42} = 47.60$ ,  $P <$   
248  $0.001$ ) generally showed a significant increase in infested plants at high temperatures (27 °C and 32 °C) (Online  
249 resource 2).

250 Considering aldehydes, the release of phenylacetaldehyde only appeared above 17 °C in uninfested and  
251 infested plants ( $F_{6,42} = 41.70$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). While benzaldehyde ( $F_{6,42} = 34.85$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) was only detected from  
252 *Arabidopsis* infested by aphids at all temperatures after 0-24 h, 24-48 h, and 48-72 h, (Z)-2-heptenal ( $F_{6,4} = 60.72$ ,  $P <$   
253  $0.001$ ) was found in uninfested and infested plants at highest temperatures over the second and the third time periods  
254 (Online resource 2).



255 The combined effects of temperature and occurrence of aphids led to an increase of the terpene proportion  
256 when compared to temperature effects alone (17 °C, 22 °C, and 27 °C) during three sampling periods ( $F_{6,42} = 25.53$ ,  $P <$   
257 0.001) (Online resource 2). With respect to the specific compounds, (*E,E*)- $\alpha$ -farnesene ( $F_{6,42} = 40.38$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) was  
258 only found in the case of temperature and aphid interaction. Nevertheless, when compared to the same temperature, the  
259 release of menthol was generally lower in infested leaves than in uninfested ones over the three periods ( $F_{6,42} = 19.78$ ,  $P$   
260  $< 0.001$ ). Increasing temperature led to the emission of  $\alpha$ -terpineol ( $F_{6,42} = 15.88$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). The same observation has  
261 been made for 2,3,6-trimethyl-1,5-heptadiene ( $F_{6,42} = 75.67$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) in the presence or absence of aphids after 24-48  
262 h and 48-72 h at 27 °C and 32 °C (Online resource 2).

263 With respect to the emission of glucosinolate derivative volatile compounds, most of them were only found in  
264 the aphid-infested *Arabidopsis* at different temperatures for all sampling times. With respect to ITC, 4-methylpentyl  
265 ITC mainly increased continuously with time and temperature in the case of aphid infestation, but decreased from plants  
266 exposed to 32 °C ( $F_{6,42} = 37.85$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Among all different conditions, we only observed 5-(methylthio)  
267 pentanenitrile ( $F_{6,42} = 173.05$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and dimethyl trisulfide ( $F_{6,42} = 51.86$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) when the temperature was  
268 set to 32 °C for infested plants after the two last sampling periods (Online resource 2).

269

270 Population of aphids

271

272 The population of aphids was established at the end of each stress treatment. The results of Fig. 3 showed that  
273 temperature influenced the fecundity (population growth rate) and mortality of aphids. At 22 °C and 27 °C, the  
274 population significantly increased, whereas it decreased at 17 °C and 32 °C resulted in decreased growth rate ( $F_{(3,8)} =$   
275 54.31;  $P < 0.001$ ). These observations are in line with Ma et al. (2004) who found that the growth, development, and  
276 reproduction of aphids (*Sitobion avenae* and *Rhopalosiphum padi*) were strongly reduced by heat stresses.

277

## 278 Discussion

279

280 Herbivorous insects, especially when combined with abiotic stresses (e.g. temperature, drought, salinity) can alter the  
281 production of plant secondary metabolites (Vos et al. 2001; Van Poecke 2007; Holopainen and Gershenzon 2010).  
282 Some recent evidence indicates that drought stress and herbivore interactions cause changes in the emission of plant  
283 VOCs (Tariq et al. 2013; Copolovici et al. 2014). Our results found that simultaneous stress treatments by temperatures  
284 and *M. persicae* infestation led to VOC emission changes in *A. thaliana* after the three investigated time periods (0-24  
285 h, 24-48 h, and 48-72 h) (Fig. 2). In addition, it was also observed that VOC induction was dependent on aphid density  
286 on leaves (Fig. 1).

287 Changes in volatile emission from *Arabidopsis* upon aphid infestation have been studied previously (Mewis et  
288 al. 2005; Van Poecke 2007; De Vos and Jander 2009; Louis et al. 2012). So far little attention has been paid to the  
289 investigation of pest density effects on the release of volatile blends. Very recently, Cai et al. (2014) found that the  
290 density of the piercing-sucking leafhopper (*Empoasca vitis*) influenced the concentration of VOCs in tea plants. The  
291 results described herein demonstrate that aphid density has great effects on the composition of *Arabidopsis* volatiles,  
292 including alcohols, aldehydes, ketones, ITCs and terpenes (Fig. 1). Specifically, the relative abundance of 4-  
293 methylpentyl ITC and terpene (mainly (*E,E*)- $\alpha$ -farnesene) significantly increased with aphid density (Table 1).  
294 According to Blande et al. (2004) and Van Poecke (2007), ITCs and terpenes exert both direct defense effects  
295 (repellent, feeding deterrents, or toxicity) against herbivorous insects and indirect protection (natural enemies attractants  
296 and/or oviposition stimulants).

297 The combination of abiotic and biotic stresses led to either reduced or elevated VOC emission of plants in  
298 comparison to single stress treatments (Mewis et al. 2012; Winter et al. 2012). Here, we found variation in the induced  
299 volatiles emitted by *Arabidopsis* subjected to interaction between temperature regimes (17 °C, 22 °C, 27 °C and 32 °C)  
300 and *M. persicae* density over the three time periods (65.0% of the total variance, Fig. 2A).

301 Similarly to previous studies on plant – aphid interactions (Mewis et al. 2005; Van Poecke 2007; Ma and Ma  
302 2012), we found that the release of ITCs, including 4-methylpentyl ITC, 1-isothiocyanato-3-methylbutane and heptyl  
303 ITC, significantly increased with the population growth rate of aphids on plants (Figs. 2B-3; Online resource 2). The  
304 proportion of ITCs greatly increased under plant infestation at 27 °C and decreased at 32 °C after 48-72 h treatment.  
305 These molecules are generated by myrosinase-mediated degradation of GSs occurring when aphid stylet is inserted into  
306 the phloem (favoring enzyme-substrate contact) (Kim et al. 2008; Louis and Shah 2013). In addition the accumulation  
307 of indole GS of *Arabidopsis* has been shown to increase in response to aphid *M. persicae* feeding, which require the  
308 presence of two functional proteins: nonexpressor of pathogenesis-related proteins1 (NPR1) and ethylene receptor  
309 ethylene response 1 (ETR1) (Mewis et al. 2005; Kim and Jander 2007).

310 In contrast to ITC emissions, the total sulfide and nitrile releases significantly increased from *Arabidopsis*  
311 exposed to aphid feeding at 32 °C over 24-48 h and 48-72 h treatments (Online resource 2). Van Poecke (2007)  
312 proposed that degradation of GSs in plants infested by insects can lead to the production of either ITC or sulfides and  
313 nitriles according to the activity of ethiospecifier modifier1 (ESM1) and ethiospecifier protein (ESP), respectively.  
314 Moreover, it was noted that the activity of enzymatic ESP could be affected by temperature (Lambrix et al. 2001;  
315 Matusheski et al. 2004). Lambrix et al. (2001) demonstrated that the production of nitrile was contrasted to ITC.  
316 Therefore, the release of sulfides, nitriles and ITCs may be related to the combination of aphids and temperature  
317 stresses in this study.

318 In our findings, the proportion of terpenes in the volatile profile of infested *A. thaliana* significantly increased  
319 in comparison to uninfested plants at the same temperatures alone (Fig. 2). In particular, limonene, 2,3,6-trimethyl-1,5-  
320 heptadiene,  $\alpha$ -terpineol, menthol and (*E,E*)- $\alpha$ -farnesene showed significant changes (Online resource 2). Many studies  
321 found that aphid infestation led to altered terpene emissions in plants (Van Poecke 2007; Giorgi et al. 2012; Verheggen  
322 et al. 2013). In general, under abiotic and/or biotic stress commonly emitted terpenes come from the mevalonate (MVA)  
323 or 2-C-methyl-D-erythritol 4-phosphate (MEP) pathways (Van Poecke 2007; Loreto and Schnitzler 2010; Tholl and Lee  
324 2011). Moreover, Loreto and Schnitzler (2010) reported that under rising temperatures, enzymatic reactions in MEP  
325 pathway induced the release of terpenes.

326 Green leaf volatiles (GLVs), including C6 and C9 aldehydes, alcohols and associated acetate esters, are  
327 produced by the lipoxygenase/hydroperoxide lyase (LOX/HPL) pathway from plants damaged during abiotic and/or  
328 biotic stresses (Arimura et al. 2009; Holopainen and Gershenzon 2010; Loreto and Schnitzler 2010; Matsui et al. 2012).  
329 In *A. thaliana*, it has been demonstrated that the genome contains six LOX genes (Liavonchanka and Feussner 2006;  
330 Bannenberg et al. 2009; Nalam et al. 2012). Nalam et al. (2012) investigated that the LOX5-encoded 9-LOX-derived  
331 oxylipin(s) functions as a susceptibility factor in *Arabidopsis* – *M. persicae* interaction. From the present study, some  
332 products like (*Z*)-3-hexen-1-ol and (*Z*)-3-hexenyl acetate arising from LOX/HPL pathway occurred when *Arabidopsis*  
333 plants were subjected to both stresses (temperature and sucking insects) (Online resource 2). In addition, we observed a  
334 significant decrease of 2-ethyl-hexan-1-ol according to an increase of temperature. This is in line with Sung et al.  
335 (2003); Loreto and Schnitzler (2010) and Copolovici et al. (2012) who suggested that plant alcohol production is  
336 dependent on stomatal behavior under temperature changes.

337 Evidence indicated that plants stressed by aphids and temperature led to the release of benzaldehyde (Schade  
338 and Goldstein 2001; Staudt et al. 2010; Giorgi et al. 2012). Similarly to these observations, we found this molecule from  
339 infested *Arabidopsis* plants at different temperatures (Online resource 2). Staudt et al. (2010) proposed that  
340 benzaldehyde was produced by the enzymatic breakdown of prunasin, a cyanogenic glycoside often found in plant  
341 leaves.

342 The results presented herein demonstrated that the application of abiotic (temperature regimes) and biotic  
343 (feeding *M. persicae*) stresses simultaneously influenced volatile compound emissions from *Arabidopsis*. Interestingly,  
344 significant differences were observed in volatile profiles based on changes in aphid densities as well as temperatures  
345 over different time periods (Figs. 1-2). *Arabidopsis* microarray database and analysis toolbox sets with the  
346 Genevestigator tool (<https://www.genevestigator.com/>) (Zimmermann et al. 2004; Grennan 2006) indicated that abiotic  
347 stresses (like cold, heat and drought) relate to the expression of the AT-00120 gene. Moreover, some studies also  
348 proposed that green peach aphid infestation resulted in the expression of genes like *M. persicae*-induced lipase1  
349 (MPL1) and senescence associated genes (SAG) (Louis et al. 2012; Louis and Shah 2013). We suggest further research

350 to focus on gene and protein expression related to VOC emissions which could provide new insights on the role and  
351 pattern of VOC production in relation to multiple stresses.

352

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354

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359

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484

485

#### 486 **Table caption**

487

488 **Table 1** Major compounds released from *A. thaliana* infested by different densities of *M. persicae* over 24-48 h at 22 °C.  
489 Data show mean percentage ± SD of values of three replicates. Means followed by the same letter are not significantly  
490 different ( $P > 0.05$ , one-way ANOVA, *post hoc* Tukey's HSD test).

491

#### 492 **Figure captions**

493

494 **Fig. 1** (A) Principal Components Analysis (PCA) for PC1 and PC2 shows the chemical profile based on *A. thaliana*  
495 emissions resulting from the effects of different aphid densities on plant leaves. ○ uninfested plants; ▲ infested by 30  
496 aphids/plant; □ infested by 70 aphids/plant, and ◆ infested by 100 aphids/plant. (B) VOC classes from *Arabidopsis*  
497 uninfested and infested plants resulting from different aphid densities within 24-48 h under 22 °C temperature  
498 conditions. Uninfested = control plants; Infested\_30, Infested\_70, and Infested\_100 correspond to 30, 70, and 100 adult  
499 aphids feeding on individual plants. Means ( $n = 3$ ; ± SD) followed by the same letter are not significantly different ( $P >$   
500  $0.05$ , one-way ANOVA, *post hoc* Tukey's HSD test).

501 **Fig. 2** (A) Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for PC1 and PC2 shows the chemical profile based on *A. thaliana*  
502 emissions resulting from the effects of temperature regimes and aphid feeding on plant leaves over three time periods.  
503 Treatments were coded as follow: temperature (17 °C, 22 °C, 27 °C and 32 °C), Infested and Uninfested (Inf and  
504 Uninf), and Time periods (24, 48 and 72 correspond to 0-24 h, 24-48 h and 48-72 h, respectively). (B) Hierarchical  
505 Cluster Analysis on Principal Components (HCPC) for both stress treatments and defined groups of similar chemical



506 profiles based on PC1 and PC2. Heatmap colors represent the fold change, based on the provided color key scale; red  
507 for higher levels, green for lower levels. Uninf and Inf: uninfested and infested plants. (C) Relative abundance of VOC  
508 classes from total *Arabidopsis* expression profiles due to temperature stress (17 °C, 22 °C, 27 °C, and 32 °C) exposure  
509 in the absence and presence of *M. persicae* grouped based on HCPC. Means followed by the same letter are not  
510 significantly different ( $P > 0.05$ , one-way ANOVA, *post hoc* Tukey's HSD test).

511 **Fig. 3** Population growth rate of *M. persicae* at 17 °C, 22 °C, 27 °C and 32 °C over the last period of time treatments  
512 (48-72 h). Means followed by the same letter are not significantly different ( $P > 0.05$ , one-way ANOVA, *post hoc*  
513 Tukey's HSD test).

514

#### 515 **Supplementary data**

516

517 **Online Resource 1** *Arabidopsis* leaves (a) uninfested, and (b) infested by 70 *M. persicae* under 22 °C conditions for  
518 48-72 h.

519 **Online Resource 2** Mean percentage ( $n = 3$ ,  $\pm$  SD) of different compounds from *Arabidopsis* volatile emissions  
520 resulting from temperature stress (17 °C, 22 °C, 27 °C, and 32 °C) in the absence and presence of *M. persicae* over  
521 different time periods (0-24 h, 24-48 h and 48-72 h). Means followed by the same letter are not significantly different  
522 ( $P > 0.05$ , three-way ANOVA, *post hoc* Tukey's HSD test).

523 **Online Resource 3** Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the individual volatiles based on *A. thaliana* emissions  
524 resulting from the effects of temperature regimes and aphid feeding on plant leaves. The PCA shows the first and  
525 second components (PC1 and PC2).