

## MINIREVIEW

# CELLULOSE DIGESTION IN INSECTS

MICHAEL M. MARTIN

Division of Biological Sciences, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor,  
MI 48109, USA

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**Abstract**—1. Cellulose digestion has been demonstrated in the Thysanura (Lepismatidae), Orthoptera (Cryptoceridae, Blattidae), Isoptera (Mastotermitidae, Kalotermitidae, Hodotermitidae, Rhinotermitidae, Termitidae), Coleoptera (Buprestidae, Anobiidae, Scarabaeidae, Cerambycidae), and Hymenoptera (Siricidae).

2. In all but the scarab beetles, cellulose digestion is brought about by a complex of three types of enzymes ( $C_1$ -cellulases,  $C_x$ -cellulases, and cellobiases), as in fungi.

3. Many insects are able to synthesize their own  $C_x$ -cellulases and cellobiases, but few (if any) can synthesize  $C_1$ -cellulases.

4. Insects compensate for their inability to synthesize  $C_1$ -cellulases by exploiting the cellulolytic potential of protozoa, bacteria, or fungi.

5. The maintenance of permanent populations of hindgut protozoa, the maintenance of permanent populations of hindgut bacteria, and the ingestion of fungal cellulases are described as three distinct mechanisms by which insects have been shown to use the cellulolytic potential of microorganisms.

6. A process in which ingested cellulolytic bacteria proliferate in one region of the gut at the expense of ingested cellulose, only to be digested and assimilated in a more posterior section, is a fourth possible mechanism by which insects might accomplish the digestion of cellulose with the help of microorganisms.

### INSECTS THAT DIGEST CELLULOSE

The ability of many insects to thrive on wood, foliage and detritus has naturally stimulated investigations of the extent to which such species are able to digest the structural polysaccharides in their food. Species that have been shown to possess a capacity to digest cellulose are listed in Table 1. Based upon the values of the approximate digestibilities or assimilation efficiencies that have been determined for a few species, it appears that termites are more efficient cellulose digesters than the wood-boring beetles and siricid wood wasps. The silverfish, *Ctenolepisma lineata*, and the American cockroach, *Periplaneta americana*, are omnivorous species that readily include both cellulosic and non-cellulosic items in their diets. The rest of the species listed in Table 1 are wood-feeders. Foliage and detritus-feeders are conspicuously absent. No evidence for significant digestion of cellulose by foliage-feeding Orthoptera, Coleoptera or Lepidoptera or by detritus-feeding Plecoptera, Coleoptera, Diptera or Trichoptera has been reported, although low levels of hydrolytic activity toward cellulose powder have been detected in the gut fluids of a few species of locusts (Evans & Payne, 1964; Morgan, 1975a, 1976). The grasshopper, *Melanoplus bivittatus*, is able to degrade hypocotyl cell walls of bean seedlings, but there is no evidence to indicate that cellulose is among the cell wall constituents digested (Talmadge & Albersheim, 1969). The absence of any enzymatic activity toward cellulose powder in the digestive fluids of a number of Lepidopteran larvae has been noted (Shinoda, 1930; Babers & Woke, 1937; Mathur, 1966; Chattoraj & Mall, 1969; Khan

& Kasting, 1969; Burton *et al.*, 1977; Dixit & Mall, 1978; Mall *et al.*, 1978). McGinnis & Kasting (1969) conclusively demonstrated the inability of the pale western cutworm, *Agrotis orthogonia*, to digest cellulose by observing that less than 0.5% of the carbon-14 from ingested labelled cellulose was respired in the form of  $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ . Although wood-feeders dominate the list of cellulose digesters, there are many species of insects which feed upon bark, phloem tissue, and wood that are unable to digest the cellulose they consume. Beetles from the families Bostrychidae, Curculionidae, Lyctidae and Scolytidae exemplify such species (Parkin, 1940; Chararas, 1979).

### THE CELLULOLYTIC ENZYMES OF INSECT GUT FLUIDS

Cellulose digestion in insects is generally accomplished by a collection of enzymes believed to be similar to the ones responsible for cellulolytic ability in fungi (Table 2). The "cellulase complex" includes three major classes of hydrolytic enzymes: endoglucanases ( $C_x$ -cellulases), cellobiohydrolases ( $C_1$ -cellulases), and  $\beta$ -glucosidases (cellobiases) (Reese & Mandels, 1971; Wood & McCrae, 1979; Ghose *et al.*, 1981). The digestion of native cellulose is believed to be initiated when endoglucanases attack isolated amorphous regions of the predominantly crystalline cellulose matrix, creating nick sites in the linear cellulose chains. The cellobiohydrolases attack at the nick sites liberating cellobiose, exposing additional potential sites for attack by the endoglucanase, and generally disrupting the highly ordered structure of the

cellulose aggregates. The continued combined action of the  $C_1$ - and  $C_x$ -cellulases results in the eventual complete degradation of the original cellulose and the production of cellobiose and a mixture of soluble linear oligosaccharides of varying chain lengths. The cellobiose, which is a potential inhibitor of the  $C_1$ - and  $C_x$ -cellulases, is hydrolyzed to glucose by cellobiase, and the various oligosaccharides are further degraded, ultimately to glucose, by the action of both the  $C_x$ -cellulases and the cellobiases. Thus, the utilization of cellulose is dependent upon the concerted and synergistic action of three types of enzymes. If any one of the three is missing, cellulose digestion cannot occur.

The presence of a complete cellulase complex in an insect's digestive juices is indicated by the capacity of the gut fluid or a cell-free extract of gut contents to liberate reducing sugars from, or to solubilize such forms of crystalline cellulose as, Avicell®, filter paper or cotton. The presence of the entire cellulase complex is generally taken as evidence for the presence of enzymes comparable to the  $C_1$ -cellulases of fungi, that is enzymes specific for crystalline cellulose. It is now common practice to refer to such enzyme from insect gut fluids as  $C_1$ -cellulases, although to date none has actually been shown to be a cellobiohydrolase. Digestive  $C_x$ -cellulases are conveniently detected in insects by assaying gut fluids for the capacity to degrade carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) or some form of swollen, amorphous, or reprecipitated cellulose. Cellobiase activity is readily assayed by measuring the capacity of gut fluid to hydrolyze cellobiose to glucose.

When subjected to the appropriate assay pro-

cedures, gut fluids from a number of cellulose digesting insects have been found to exhibit activity attributable to  $C_x$ -cellulases,  $C_1$ -cellulases, and cellobiases. One notable exception is the scarab beetle, *Oryctes nasicornis*, in which no soluble cellulases of any kind have been detected. In this insect, cellulose digestion is thought to be brought about by hindgut bacteria (Bayon & Mathelin, 1980). The cellulase complex of bacteria consists of only two principal components, endoglucanases or  $C_x$ -cellulases and  $\beta$ -glucosidases or cellobiases. Cellobiohydrolases or  $C_1$ -cellulases have been demonstrated in only a few species of bacteria (Ghose *et al.*, 1981). Furthermore, bacteria produce cell-bound as well as extracellular enzymes. The failure to detect any cellulases in the gut fluids of *O. nasicornis* could be explained if cellulose digestion is accomplished by the cell-bound enzymes of bacteria that are attached to the fragments of plant tissue present in the insect's hindgut, and not by soluble enzymes presented in the gut fluids. This species provides an emphatic reminder that the failure to detect cellulolytic activity in an insect's digestive fluids is not compelling evidence against the digestion of dietary cellulose, especially in species with abundant populations of bacteria housed in enlarged segments of the gut.

#### THE SECRETION OF THE ENZYMES OF THE CELLULOSE COMPLEX BY INSECTS

Table 3 is a comprehensive tabulation of insect species in which  $C_x$ -cellulase activity has been demonstrated in the gut fluids by assays using CMC or a

Table 1. Cellulose digesting insects

Order Family Species	Evidence for capacity to digest cellulose	References
<b>THYSANURA</b>		
Lepismatidae		
<i>Ctenolepisma lineata</i>	AD (72-87), $^{14}\text{C}$ , EN, NU	Lasker & Giese (1956)
<b>ORTHOPTERA</b>		
Cryptoceridae		
<i>Cryptocercus punctulatus</i>	EN, NU	Cleveland <i>et al.</i> (1934)
Blattidae		
<i>Periplaneta americana</i>	$^{14}\text{C}$	Bignell (1977)
<b>ISOPTERA</b>		
Mastotermitidae		
<i>Mastotermes darwiniensis</i>	EN	Veivers <i>et al.</i> (1981)
Kalotermitidae		
<i>Kalotermes flavicollis</i>	AD (74-91)	Seifert & Becker (1965)
<i>Neotermes hosei</i>	EN	Mishra (1979)
Hodotermitidae		
<i>Zootermopsis angusticollis</i>	AD (82), EN	Trager (1932); Hungate (1938)
Rhinotermitidae		
<i>Coptotermes formosanus</i>	$^{14}\text{C}$	Mauldin <i>et al.</i> (1972)
<i>Heterotermes indicola</i>	AD (78-89)	Seifert & Becker (1965)
<i>Reticulitermes flavipes</i>	AD (91), $^{14}\text{C}$ , EN, NU	Trager (1932); Esenther & Kirk (1974); Mauldin (1977)
<i>R. lucifugus</i>	AD (96-99), EN, NU	Seifert & Becker (1965); Orlova (1974)
<i>R. speratus</i>	EN, NU	Orlova (1974); Yamaoka & Nagatani (1975)
Termitidae		
<i>Macrotermes natalensis</i>	EN	Martin & Martin (1978, 1979)
<i>M. subhyalinus</i>	EN	Abo-Khatwa (1978)
<i>Nasutitermes ephratae</i>	AD (91-97)	Seifert & Becker (1965)
<i>Trinervitermes trinervoides</i>	EN	Potts & Hewitt (1973, 1974a,b)

Table 1—*continued*

Order Family Species	Evidence for capacity to digest cellulose	References
<b>COLEOPTERA</b>		
Buprestidae		
<i>Capnodis sp.</i>	EN	Rivnay (1945)
<i>Chalcophora mariana</i>	EN	Schlottke (1945)
Anobiidae		
<i>Anobium punctatum</i>	AD (33), EN	Parkin (1940); Spiller (1951)
<i>A. striatum</i>	AD (31)	Müller (1934)
<i>Ernobius mollis</i>	EN	Parkin (1940)
<i>Ptilinus pectinicornis</i>	EN	Parkin (1940)
<i>Xestobium rufovillosum</i>	AD (49), EN	Norman (1936); Parkin (1940)
Scarabaeidae		
<i>Oryctes nasicornis</i>	AD (68), <sup>14</sup> C	Rössler (1961); Bayon & Mathelin (1980)
<i>Sericesthis geminata</i>	EN	Soo Hoo & Dudzinski (1967)
Cerambycidae		
<i>Acanthocinus aedilis</i>	EN	Schlottke (1945)
<i>Aegosoma scabricornae</i>	EN	Ivanovic & Barbic (1966)
<i>Cerambyx cerdo</i>	EN	Ripper (1930); Müller (1934)
<i>Ergates faber</i>	EN	Schlottke (1945); Chararas & Libois (1976)
<i>Gracilia minuta</i>	AD (33)	Müller (1934)
<i>Hylotrupes bajulus</i>	AD (12–21)	Falck (1930); Becker (1942)
<i>Leptura rubra</i>	AD (33)	Müller (1934)
<i>Macrotoma palmata</i>	AD (14–47)	Mansour & Mansour-Bek (1934a)
<i>Morimus funerus</i>	EN	Ivanovic & Barbic (1966)
<i>Oxymirus cursor</i>	AD (49), EN	Müller (1934)
<i>Phymatodes testaceus</i>	EN	Parkin (1940)
<i>Plagionotus detritus</i>	EN	Schlottke (1945); Ivanovic & Barbic (1966)
<i>Rhagium bifasciatum</i>	EN	Ripper (1930); Müller (1934)
<i>R. inquisitor</i>	EN	Deschamps (1944); Schlottke (1945)
<i>R. mordax</i>	EN	Parkin (1940); Schlottke (1945)
<i>Saperda populinae</i>	EN	Schlottke (1945)
<i>Smodicum cucujiforme</i>	EN	Parkin (1940)
<i>Stromatium barbatum</i>	AD (30–57), EN	Mishra & Singh (1978)
<i>S. fulvum</i>	EN	Mansour & Mansour-Bek (1937)
<i>Xylotrechus rusticus</i>	EN	Parkin (1940)
<b>HYMENOPTERA</b>		
Siricidae		
<i>Sirex cyaneus</i>	EN	Kukor & Martin (1983)
<i>S. gigas</i>	AD (22)	Müller (1934)
<i>S. phantoma</i>	AD (31)	Müller (1934)

Abbreviations: AD, cellulose digestion demonstrated by comparing the cellulose contents of food and frass; the number in the parenthesis is the approximate digestibility of cellulose; <sup>14</sup>C, cellulose digestion demonstrated by noting the production of <sup>14</sup>CO<sub>2</sub> or the incorporation of <sup>14</sup>C into tissues following ingestion of U-<sup>14</sup>C-cellulose; EN, gut fluid demonstrated to possess the enzymatic capacity to degrade filter paper, cotton, Avicell<sup>®</sup> or some other form of crystalline cellulose; NU, ability to digest cellulose inferred from capacity to survive on a diet of pure cellulose.

suitable form of amorphous cellulose as the test substrate. It is a long list that includes not only familiar cellulose-digesting species, such as termites, wood roaches and cerambycid beetles, but also many species from groups which are not thought to be capable of assimilating cellulose. In a number of the investigations summarized in Table 3, C<sub>x</sub>-cellulase activity was found to be present in extracts of salivary glands and midgut tissues, indicating that the enzymes were produced by the insects and not by microbial symbionts residing in the gut. C<sub>x</sub>-cellulases of insect origin have been demonstrated in 17 species of roaches, 8 termites, and 31 aphids. To be sure, in many of the species listed, C<sub>x</sub>-cellulase activity is low may be due to enzymes which normally exert their catalytic action on non-cellulosic poly- or oligosaccharides. Nonetheless, it seems clear that the presence of enzymes with C<sub>x</sub>-cellulase activity is not unusual in insect gut fluids,

and that the rather restricted occurrence of the ability to digest cellulose in insects is not due to the restricted distribution of this class of enzymes.

Cellobiase activity has also been detected in the gut fluids of a diverse array of insect species, both digesters and non-digesters of cellulose, and has been demonstrated in extracts of salivary glands or midgut tissues from 2 species of locusts, 6 termites, one pyrrhocorid bug, the larvae of one sciarid fly, and even from silkworms (Table 4).  $\beta$ -Glucosidase activity has been detected in the gut fluids, gut tissues, and salivary glands of many additional species, and it is very probable that cellobiose would be hydrolyzed by the digestive fluids of many of these species as well. Thus, the presence of enzymes able to hydrolyze cellobiose are of common occurrence in insects, and the inability of most insects to digest cellulose cannot be attributed to the narrow distribution of the requisite cellobiases.

Table 2. Enzymes of cellulose digestion in fungi and probably also in insects

Enzyme (Alternate designations)	Mode of action and products	Substrates
The cellulase complex	A combination of the three categories of enzymes designated below, which brings about the complete digestion of native cellulose to glucose.	Microcrystalline cellulose powder, Avicell®, cotton, and filter paper.
1,4- $\beta$ -D-Glucan 4-glucanohydrolase (EC 3.2.1.4) (Endo- $\beta$ -1,4-Glucanase) (Endoglucanase) (Carboxymethylcellulase) (CMCase) (C <sub>x</sub> -Cellulase)	Random attack on $\beta$ -1,4-glucosidic bonds, generating transient cellodextrins, cellobiose, and glucose.	CMC and other soluble derivatives of cellulose, phosphoric acid swollen cellulose, and cellodextrins (increasing activity with increasing chain length). No activity toward crystalline cellulose. Hardly any activity toward cellobiose.
1,4- $\beta$ -D-Glucan cellobiohydrolase (EC 3.2.1.91) (Cellobiohydrolase) (C <sub>1</sub> -cellulase)	Removal of cellobiose units from the non-reducing end of a linear chain by attack on penultimate $\beta$ -1,4-glucosidic bonds.	Microcrystalline cellulose powder, Avicell®, cotton, swollen cellulose, and cellodextrins (increasing activity with increasing chain length). Limited activity toward CMC.
1,4- $\beta$ -D-Glucoside 4-glucohydrolase (EC 3.2.1.21) ( $\beta$ -D-Glucosidase) (Cellobiase)	Hydrolysis of the $\beta$ -1,4-glucosidic bond of cellobiose to generate glucose.	Cellobiose, other $\beta$ -linked disaccharides of glucose, and cellodextrins. No activity toward cellulose.

Table 3. Insects with digestive C<sub>x</sub>-cellulases

Insect Order Family Species	Capacity to digest cellulose	Identified sources of C <sub>x</sub> -cellulases in digestive fluids	References
<b>ORTHOPTERA</b>			
Cryptoceridae			
<i>Cryptocercus punctulatus</i>	High	SG, HGP	Trager (1932); Wharton & Wharton (1965)
Blattidae			
<i>Blatta orientalis</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>Periplaneta americana</i>	Moderate	SG, GB	Wharton & Wharton (1965); Cruden & Markovetz (1979)
<i>P. australasiae</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>P. fuliginosa</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
Blaberidae			
<i>Blaberus craniifer</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>B. discoidalis</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>B. giganteus</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>Byrostria fumigata</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>Capucina patula</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>Diploptera punctata</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>Eublaberus posticus</i>	Unknown	SG, GB	Wharton & Wharton (1965); Cruden & Markovetz (1979)
<i>Gromphadorhina brunneri</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>Leucophaea maderae</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>Nauphoeta cinera</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>Phortioeca phoraspoides</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
<i>Pycnoscelus surinamensis</i>	Unknown	SG	Wharton & Wharton (1965)
Acrididae			
<i>Locusta migratoria</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Morgan (1976)
<i>Melanoplus bivittatus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Talmdage & Albersheim (1969)
<i>Schistocerca gregaria</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Evans & Payne (1964)
<b>ISOPTERA</b>			
Mastotermitidae			
<i>Mastotermes darwiniensis</i>	Presumably high	SG, MGT, HGP	Veivers <i>et al.</i> (1981)
Kalotermitidae			
<i>Neotermes bosei</i>	High	SG, MGT	Mishra (1980)

Table 3—continued

Insect Order Family Species	Capacity to digest cellulose	Identified sources of C <sub>x</sub> -cellulases in digestive fluids	References
<b>Hodotermitidae</b>			
<i>Hodotermes mossambicus</i>	High	MGT	Botha & Hewitt (1979)
<b>Rhinotermitidae</b>			
<i>Coptotermes lacteus</i>	Presumably high	MGT, HGP	O'Brien <i>et al.</i> (1979)
<i>Reticulitermes speratus</i>	High	SG, HGP	Yokoe (1964); Yamaoka & Nagatani (1975)
<i>R. hesperus</i>	Presumably high	HGB	Thayer (1978)
<i>Zootermopsis sp.</i>	High	HGP	Yamin & Trager (1979)
<b>Termitidae</b>			
<i>Macrotermes natalensis</i>	Presumably high	SG, MGT, IFT	Martin & Martin (1978, 1979)
<i>M. subhyalinus</i>	Presumably high	MGT, IFT	Abo-Khatwa (1978)
<i>Microcerotermes edentatus</i>	Presumably high	Unknown	Kovoor (1970)
<i>Nasutitermes exitiosus</i>	High	MGT	O'Brien <i>et al.</i> (1979)
<i>Termes obesus</i>	Presumably high	Unknown	Misra & Ranganathan (1954)
<i>Trinervitermes trinervoides</i>	Presumably high	MGT	Potts & Hewitt (1973, 1974a,b)
<b>PLECOPTERA</b>			
<b>Pteronarcyidae</b>			
<i>Allonarcys proteus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Sinsabaugh <i>et al.</i> (1981)
<i>Pteronarcys californica</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Martin <i>et al.</i> (1981b)
<i>P. pictetei</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Martin <i>et al.</i> (1981b)
<b>PSOCOPTERA</b>			
<b>Pseudocaeciliidae</b>			
<i>Pseudocaecilius elutus</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Sinha & Srivastava (1970)
<b>HEMIPTERA</b>			
<b>Pentatomidae</b>			
<i>Palomena angulosa</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Hori (1975)
<i>Eurydema rugosum</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Hori (1975)
<b>Coreidae</b>			
<i>Coreus marginatus</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Hori (1975)
<b>HOMOPTERA</b>			
<b>Aphididae</b>			
<i>Acyrtosiphon caraganae</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>A. pisum</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Aphis fabae</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>A. helianthi</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>A. pomi</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Aulacorthum solani</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Betulaphis quadrituberculata</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Calaphis (?) betulaecolens</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Dactynotus cirsii</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>D. russellae</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>D. taraxaci</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>D. sp.</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Eriosoma lanigerum</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Hydaphis foeniculi</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Macrosiphon californicum</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>M. euphorbia</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>M. ptericoleus</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Metopolophium dirhodum</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Myzocallis walshii</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Myzus cerasi</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>M. persicae</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Nearctaphis bakeri</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Neomyzus circumflexus</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Pentatrachopus thomasi</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Periphyllus lyropictus</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>P. negundinus</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Prociphilus leselata</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Pterocomma bicolor</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>Rhopalosiphum sp.</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>R. padi</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<i>R. cerasifoliae</i>	Unknown	SG	Adams & Drew (1965)
<b>COLEOPTERA</b>			
<b>Scarabaeidae</b>			
<i>Sericesthis geminata</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Soo Hoo & Dudzinski (1967)
<b>Cerambycidae</b>			
<i>Ergates faber</i>	Presumably moderate	Unknown	Chararas (1979)

Table 3—continued

Insect Order Family Species	Capacity to digest cellulose	Identified sources of C <sub>x</sub> -cellulases in digestive fluids	References
<i>Phoracantha semipunctata</i>	Presumably moderate	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>Rhagium inquisitor</i>	Presumably moderate	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>Stromatium barbatum</i>	Moderate	Unknown	Mishra & Singh (1978)
<b>Curculionidae</b>			
<i>Cryptorrhynchus lapathi</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>Hylobius abietes</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>Pissodes barcyniae</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>P. notatus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<b>Scolytidae</b>			
<i>Carphoborus minimus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>Ips amitinus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>I. sexdentatus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>I. typographus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>Phloeosinus cedri</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>Scolytus intricatus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>S. multistriatus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>S. numidicus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<i>S. scolytus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Chararas (1979)
<b>MEGALOPTERA</b>			
<b>Sialidae</b>			
<i>Sialis lutaria</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Monk (1976)
<b>TRICHOPTERA</b>			
<b>Limnephilidae</b>			
<i>Eclipsopteryx guttulata</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Bjarnov (1972)
<i>Halesus sp.</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Monk (1976)
<i>Potomophylax sp.</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Monk (1976)
<i>Silo nigricornis</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Bjarnov (1972)
<b>Rhyacophilidae</b>			
<i>Rhyacophila septentrionis</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Bjarnov (1972)
<b>Brachycentridae</b>			
<i>Oligoplectrum maculatum</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Bjarnov (1972)
<b>Polycentropodidae</b>			
<i>Neureclipsis angustipennis</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
<i>Plectrocnemia geniculata</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Monk (1976)
<i>Polycentropus flavomaculatus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Monk (1976)
<b>Hydropsychidae</b>			
<i>Hydropsyche angustipennis</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
<b>Phryganeidae</b>			
<i>Agrypnia vestita</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Martin <i>et al.</i> (1981a)
<i>Phryganea sp.</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Martin <i>et al.</i> (1981a)
<b>DIPTERA</b>			
<b>Tipulidae</b>			
<i>Tipula abdominalis</i>	Limited or none	Unknown (WA)	Sinsabaugh <i>et al.</i> (1981)
<b>Chironomidae</b>			
<i>Chironomus anthracinus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
<b>Sciaridae</b>			
<i>Rhyncosciara americana</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Terra <i>et al.</i> (1979)
<b>HYMENOPTERA</b>			
<b>Siricidae</b>			
<i>Sirex cyaneus</i>	Moderate	IFT	Kukor & Martin (1983)
<b>Eurytomidae</b>			
<i>Eurytoma amygdali</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Ishaaya & Plant (1974)

Abbreviations: WA, weak activity; GB, gut bacteria; HGB, hindgut bacteria; HGP, hindgut protozoa; IFT, ingested fungal tissue; MGT, midgut tissue; SG, salivary glands.

As indicated in Table 1, the gut fluids of a number of insects, including the silverfish, the wood roach, several termites, and quite a few beetles, are able to effect the degradation of microcrystalline cellulose. Therefore, C<sub>1</sub>-cellulases or comparable enzymes must

be present. In contrast to the numerous reports of C<sub>x</sub>-cellulase and cellobiose production by insects, data suggesting that insects are able to secrete their own C<sub>1</sub>-cellulases exist for only three species, and even in these the evidence is not completely unam-

Table 4. Insects with digestive cellobiases

Insect Order Family	Capacity to digest cellulose	Identified sources of cellobiases in digestive fluids	References
<b>THYSANURA</b>			
Lepismatidae <i>Ctenolepisma lineata</i>	Moderate	Unknown	Lasker & Giese (1956)
<b>ORTHOPTERA</b>			
Blaberidae <i>Byrostria fumigata</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Fisk & Rao (1964)
Acrididae <i>Locusta migratoria</i>	Limited or none	MGT	Morgan (1975b)
<i>Schistocerca gregaria</i>	Limited or none	SG, NGT	Evans & Payne (1964)
<b>ISOPTERA</b>			
Mastotermitidae <i>Mastotermes darwiniensis</i>	Presumably high	SG	Veivers <i>et al.</i> (1981)
Kalotermitidae <i>Neotermes bosei</i>	High	MGT	Mishra (1980)
Rhinotermitidae <i>Coptotermes lacteus</i>	Presumably high	HGP	McEwen <i>et al.</i> (1980)
Termitidae <i>Macrotermes subhyalinus</i>	Presumably high	MGT	Abo-Khatwa (1978)
<i>Microcerotermes edentatus</i>	Presumably high	Unknown	Kovoor (1970)
<i>Nasutitermes exitiosus</i>	High	Probably MGT	McEwen <i>et al.</i> (1980)
<i>N. walkeri</i>	Presumably high	Probably MGT	McEwen <i>et al.</i> (1980)
<i>Trinervitermes trinervoides</i>	Presumably high	MGT	Potts & Hewitt (1973)
<b>PSOCOPTERA</b>			
Pseudocaeciliidae <i>Pseudocaecilius elutus</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Sinha & Srivastava (1970)
<b>HEMIPTERA</b>			
Miridae <i>Stenotus binotatus</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Takanona & Hori (1974)
Pyrrhocoridae <i>Dysdercus fasciatus</i>	Unknown	SG	Khan & Ford (1967)
<b>COLEOPTERA</b>			
Carabidae <i>Brosus cephalotes</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Nielsen (1962)
<i>Pterostichus oblongopunctatus</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Nielsen (1962)
Staphylinidae <i>Philonthus decorus</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Nielsen (1962)
Scarabaeidae <i>Sericesthis geminata</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Soo Hoo & Dudzinski (1967)
<b>TRICHOPTERA</b>			
Sericostomidae <i>Crunoecia irrorata</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
<i>Sericostoma pedemontanum</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
Limnephilidae <i>Eclipsopteryx gutturala</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
<i>Chaetopteryx villosa</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
<i>Potamophylax nigricornis</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
<i>Silo nigricornis</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
Rhyacophilidae <i>Rhyacophila septentrionis</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
Brachycentridae <i>Oligoplectum maculatum</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
Polycentripodidae <i>Neureclepsis himaculata</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
Hydropsychidae <i>Hydropsyche angustipennis</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
<b>LEPIDOPTERA</b>			
Bombycidae <i>Bombyx mori</i>	Limited or none	SG	Mukaiyama (1961)
<b>DIPTERA</b>			
Chironomidae <i>Chironomus anthracinus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
<i>C. plumosus</i>	Limited or none	Unknown	Bjarnov (1972)
Sciaridae <i>Rhyncosciara americana</i>	Limited or none	MGT	Ferreira & Terra (1980)
<b>HYMENOPTERA</b>			
Tenthredinidae <i>Diprium pini</i>	Unknown	Unknown	Schulze & Ehrhardt (1963)

Abbreviations: HGP, hindgut protozoa; MGT, midgut tissue; SG, salivary glands.

biguous and compelling. The silverfish, *Ctenolepisma lineata*, is the best candidate for a genuine  $C_1$ -cellulase producer. Silverfish have simple guts with no enlarged segments or blind sacs which might function as fermentation chambers. Lasker & Giese (1956) were unable to culture any cellulolytic bacteria from these insects, and were also able to demonstrate efficient cellulose digestion in nymphs which were presumed to be symbiont free, having been reared from surface sterilized eggs on a diet of sterile, dried rolled oats. Lasker and Giese were unable to culture any bacteria from the guts of their presumed symbiont-free nymphs, but they did not perform total direct counts of bacteria in the gut. Thus the possibility is not absolutely ruled out that the presumed symbiont-free specimens still contained cellulolytic microbes of a type which could not be isolated as viable colonies using the culturing methods employed. Also, the diet of sterile, rolled oats was assumed to be free of cellulolytic microbes and enzymes, although that assumption appears not to have been tested experimentally. Thus, while the case for  $C_1$ -cellulase secretion by the midgut of *Ctenolepisma lineata* is quite convincing, it falls just short of being absolutely air-tight.

Potts & Hewitt (1973, 1974a,b) have suggested that the midgut of the higher termite, *Trinervitermes trinervoides*, secretes a single enzyme with both  $C_x$ - and  $C_1$ -cellulase activity. This proposal rests upon the claim that the  $C_1$ - and  $C_x$ -cellulolytic activity present in a chromatographic fraction obtained during the purification of a homogenate of worker abdomens was due to a single enzyme, the same  $C_x$ -enzyme that had previously been detected in an extract of midgut tissue.

Veivers *et al.* (1981) detected low levels of  $C_1$ -cellulase activity in an extract of the salivary glands of the primitive termite, *Mastotermes darwiniensis*. Only 10% of the total  $C_1$ -activity assayed in this termite was present in the salivary extract, however. Most of the activity (73%) was in the hindgut, which houses an abundant protozoan population. The proposal that the  $C_1$ -cellulase activity in the salivary extract is due to enzymes secreted by the termites rests upon the assumption that no contamination of the salivary gland preparations occurred during dissection.

It is often stated that the wood-boring anobiid and cerambycid beetles secrete all of their own cellulases. While there is no evidence to preclude this possibility, neither is there any to support it. The assumption is based entirely upon the lack of any correlation between a capacity to digest cellulose and the presence of intracellular symbionts (Mansour & Mansour-Bek, 1934b; Parkin, 1940). The origins of the  $C_1$ -cellulases of these insects remain completely unknown at the present time.

In summary then, while additional research may confirm the ability of a few insects to produce  $C_1$ -cellulases, this ability is certainly not widespread, and should be regarded as the exception rather than the rule. Thus it seems evident that it is the inability to synthesize and secrete  $C_1$ -cellulases that explains the inability of most insects to digest cellulose. With the possible exception of the silverfish, insects which are able to assimilate cellulose do so by exploiting the cellulolytic potential of protozoa and fungi which

produce soluble  $C_1$ -cellulases or of bacteria which digest cellulose without the necessary secretion of such enzymes.

#### CONTRIBUTIONS OF PROTOZOA, BACTERIA AND FUNGI TO CELLULOSE DIGESTION IN INSECTS

Three distinctly different types of insect-microbial interactions have been shown to serve as mechanisms by which insects digest cellulose using the cellulolytic potential of microorganisms. Termites and wood roaches maintain permanent populations of cellulolytic protozoa in their hindguts. Scarab beetles and the American cockroach house permanent populations of bacteria in their hindguts, presumably including cellulolytic strains. The fungus-growing termites and the siricid wood wasps culture cellulolytic fungi and ingest cellulolytic enzymes when they consume their symbiont along with their food. A fourth mechanism which has not yet been demonstrated in insects, but which may prove to be important in certain species, is the rapid proliferation in the gut of cellulolytic bacteria ingested along with a cellulosic substrate, followed by the digestion of the bacteria in a more posterior section of the alimentary tract. Endosymbiotic bacteria or yeasts, housed in specialized cells (mycetocytes) or organs (mycetomes), represents a fifth type in insect-microbial interaction which is quite widespread. It was once thought that such symbionts might also be involved in cellulose digestion, but no evidence in support of that idea has ever been presented. The significance of such intracellular symbionts lies in their provision of B-vitamins, sterols, and essential amino acids.

The obligatory dependence of the lower termites and of the wood roach upon hindgut protozoa for cellulose digestion has been widely recognized since the classic investigations of Cleveland (1924), Cleveland *et al.* (1934), Trager (1932) and Hungate (1938, 1943), and has been thoroughly reviewed (Honigberg, 1970; O'Brien & Slaytor 1982; Breznak, 1982). The protozoan symbionts are anaerobic species from unique genera of oxymonad, trichomonad and hypermastigote flagellates restricted to the four families of lower termites and to the wood roach family. Trager (1932) demonstrated that cellulolytic enzymes, including  $C_1$ -cellulases, were produced by intestinal flagellates present in the roach, *C. punctulatus*, and in two species of termites, *R. flavipes* and *T. angusticollis*. For many years it was not certain whether the enzymes were actually produced by the protozoa or by bacteria invariably present in the protoplasm of the protozoa. That uncertainty has recently been resolved by the successful cultivation of bacteria-free protozoa (Yamin & Trager, 1979), and the clear demonstration that cellyolytic enzymes, including  $C_1$ -cellulases, are produced by the protozoa themselves and not by intracellular bacterial symbionts. Considering the impressive efficiency with which the exploitation of protozoan  $C_1$ -cellulases has allowed the lower termites to digest and assimilate cellulose, it seems surprising that this mechanism for acquiring cellulolytic capacity is not more widespread among wood-feeders. Perhaps a better understanding of the biochemical requirements of these unique protozoa,



which should be possible to attain now that successful culturing methods have been developed, will explain the narrow phylogenetic distribution of this type of insect-microbial symbiosis.

It has often been presumed that cellulose digestion by the higher termites is accomplished by hindgut bacteria, since the Termitidae lack the xylophagous protozoa typical of the lower termites. However, evidence in support of this presumption is meager. Bacterial isolates with cellulolytic activity have been obtained from a few termite species, but there are no data to suggest that such bacteria are of any quantitative importance to cellulose digestion *in vivo* (Lee & Wood, 1971; Breznak, 1975, 1982; O'Brien & Slaytor, 1982). Cellulolysis by resident hindgut bacteria has been proposed in the rhinoceros beetle, *O. nasicornis* (Bayon, 1980; Bayon & Mathelin, 1980), and may occur in other scarabs as well (Wiedmann, 1930; Couturier, 1961), although cellulolytic bacteria have not actually been isolated from the intestinal tracts of these species. Gut bacteria, both from the midgut and hindgut, have been implicated in cellulose digestion in two species of roaches, *P. americana* (Bignell, 1977; Cruden & Markovetz, 1979) and *E. posticus* (Cruden & Markovetz, 1979). Many insects harbour abundant gut floras, and it is quite possible that further research will identify other species which exploit the cellulolytic capacities of their gut bacteria. However, it should be borne in mind that hindgut bacteria have also been shown to ferment sugars, fix nitrogen, degrade uric acid, synthesize amino acids, and participate in a host of biochemical processes besides cellulose digestion. Thus, the mere presence of an abundant gut flora from which cellulolytic strains of bacteria can be isolated does not constitute sufficient evidence to conclude that an insect derives any benefit from the cellulolytic potential of the bacteria it harbors within its alimentary tract.

Recently it has been demonstrated that the fungus-growing termites *Macrotermes natalensis* (Martin & Martin, 1978, 1979) and *M. subhyalinus* (Aba-Khatwa, 1978), and the larvae of the siricid wood wasp, *Sirex cyaneus* (Kukor & Martin, 1983) acquire a capacity for cellulose digestion by ingesting fungal enzymes. The termites are able to produce some of their own cellobiases and  $C_x$ -cellulases, but the  $C_1$ -cellulases and some of the  $C_x$ -cellulases in their midgut fluids are derived from the conidiophores of a symbiotic fungus, *Termitomyces* sp., which the termites culture in their nests and consume in small quantities along with the wood and other cellulosic substrates which make up the bulk of their food. In like manner, wood wasps are associated with a symbiotic fungus which is the source of digestive  $C_1$ - and  $C_x$ -cellulases, as well as hemicellulases and probably also pectinases, which allow the larvae to digest plant cell wall polysaccharides (Kukor & Martin, 1983). The fungal symbiont of *S. cyaneus* is *Amylostereum chailletii*. It is introduced into timber along with the wood wasp's egg during oviposition, and grows on the surfaces of the galleries produced by the feeding larvae. The larvae consume a mixture of wood and fungal mycelium. It is not known at present whether the ingestion of fungal cellulases is a common mechanism by which insects acquire a capacity to digest cellulose, or whether it is a process restricted

to species involved in complex, highly coevolved symbiotic associations with fungi. It may prove to be very common (Martin, in press). Indeed, it is possible that many of the cerambycid beetles, which have been assumed to produce the entire complex of cellulases present in their digestive juices, acquire the  $C_1$ -cellulases in their midgut fluids by ingesting fungal associates. Cellulases of fungal origin have been reported in the amphipod, *Gammarus fossorum*, an aquatic detritus-feeder (Bärlocher, 1982).

The proliferation in the gut of ingested bacteria has been demonstrated in the rhinoceros beetle, *Oryctes nasicornis* (Bayon & Mathelin, 1980), and in several soil-feeding invertebrates, including the termite, *Pro-cubitermes aburiensis* (Bignell *et al.*, 1980), the millipede, *Glomeris marginata* (Anderson & Bignell, 1980), and the isopod *Tracheoniscus rathkei* (Reyes & Tiedje, 1976a). This proliferation of bacteria is accompanied by the degradation of hemicellulose and the assimilation of microbial cells in *Tracheoniscus* (Reyes & Tiedje, 1976b). Thus, the indigestible constituents of the ingested detritus are transformed into microbial biomass which is digestible by the isopod. Although to date there has been no demonstration that the proliferation of ingested bacteria occurs at the expense of ingested cellulose, that possibility clearly exists, and needs to be considered as an additional mechanism by which insects might accomplish the digestion of cellulose by exploiting the metabolic capabilities of microorganisms. It is even possible that this process is responsible for the digestion of a portion of the ingested cellulose in the midgut of the rhinoceros beetle.

## CONCLUSION

The investigation of insect-microbial interactions, pioneered with such elegance and insight by Buchner and Cleveland over a half a century ago, is experiencing something of a renaissance at the present time. Recent studies continue to uncover an ever growing number of ways by which insects exploit the biochemical characteristics of microorganisms, including their capacity to digest cellulose. These studies not only contribute to a greater understanding of the nutritional ecology of insects, but also promise to provide basic insights into the biochemical processes which mediate interactions between insects and microorganisms, and perhaps to help identify some of the factors which determine whether an interspecific interaction evolves into one of mutualism, commensalism or parasitism.

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