

1 **Bridging Biotremology and Chemical Ecology: A New Terminology**

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26 **Highlights (MAX 900 chrs)**

- 27 • Living organisms utilize substrate-borne vibrations for interacting with their environment,
28 where vibrational signals and cues can evoke a diverse range of responses, leading to
29 benefits or detriments for the sender and/or receiver based on the context.
- 30 • Vibrational signals mediate a variety of animal behaviors, and notably, plants can gain crucial
31 information by detecting vibrations caused by herbivores, sometimes resulting in the
32 establishment of mutualistic interactions with insects.
- 33 • Drawing inspiration from the terminology established in chemical ecology, we propose the
34 introduction of the terms “pherodones”, for intraspecific interactions, and “allelodones” for
35 interspecific interactions.

36

37 **Abstract (MAX 120 Words)**

38 Living organisms utilize both chemical and mechanical stimuli to survive in their environment.
39 Substrate-borne vibrations play a significant role in mediating behaviors in animals and inducing
40 physiological responses in plants, leading to the emergence of the discipline of biotremology.
41 Biotremology is experiencing rapid growth both in fundamental research and in applications like
42 pest control, drawing attention from diverse audiences. As parallels with concepts and approaches
43 in chemical ecology emerge, there is a pressing need for a shared standardized vocabulary in the
44 area of overlap for mutual understanding. In this article, we propose an updated set of terms in
45 biotremology rooted in chemical ecology, using the suffix “-done” derived from the classic Greek
46 word “δονέω” (pronounced “doneo”), meaning “to shake”.

47 **Keywords (MAX 6)**

48 Vibrational communication, semiophysicals, pherodones, allelodones, chemical ecology

49

50 **Biotremology: studying a ubiquitous phenomenon**

51 A few years ago, biotremology was established as a distinct scientific discipline from bioacoustics
52 [1] because of unique characteristics of biotremological systems, including morphological, sensory,
53 and physiological aspects distinct from sound-based communication [2-3]. This distinction enables
54 us to integrate comparative studies into biotremology by considering plant-based physiological

55 responses to substrate-borne vibrations produced by both biotic and abiotic factors, and
56 phenomena like vibration-induced rapid hatching response, buzz pollination, and aquatic
57 biotremology [4-5].

58 Animals relying on vibrations have evolved specialized organs for emission and reception, with
59 physiology hinging on dedicated sensors and metabolic pathways. Furthermore, the use of
60 vibrations requires an adaptation to the constraints imposed by material properties and the limited
61 active space of vibrational signals, which primarily propagate through substrate continuity [6-7].
62 This has resulted in very strong associations between animals and their environment that maximize
63 the effectiveness of communication in their habitat.

64 Vibrational signals can mediate a wide range of behavioral interactions, and vibrational
65 communication networks involve a myriad of taxa [8], characterizing ecosystems and connecting
66 animal communities, including those previously considered poorly or not connected at all [9]. It is
67 widely used by both vertebrates and invertebrates, and it extends to plants and possibly fungi [10].
68 In fact, in contrast to the prevailing earlier view that considered them as passive entities, plants can
69 extract valuable information from vibrations [11].

70 **Evident parallelism with Chemical Ecology**

71 In 2022, the European market welcomed a bimodal trap for the brown marmorated stink bug,
72 *Halyomorpha halys*, representing a significant advancement in pest control by combining
73 aggregation pheromones, for long-range attraction, with vibrational signals, for short-range efficacy
74 [12]. Pheromones have been a cornerstone in pest management for over 50 years, since the 1970s
75 with the introduction of monitoring traps, while the registration of the first mating disruption
76 product took place in 1978 [13]. Nowadays, pheromone-based pest control strategies (e.g., mating
77 disruption, attract-and-kill) are widespread and well known. Vibrational behavior and
78 communication, though developed along with chemical signaling in the early Metazoa in ancient
79 times, only recently was formally termed “biotremology” by John Endler [14]. Chemical ecology, on
80 the other hand, has a long tradition dating back to the 19th century beginning with the first studies
81 by Jean-Henry Fabre [15].

82 The term “pheromone” was coined 80 years later by Karlson and Luscher [16]. Pheromones,
83 classified as “semiochemicals”, were soon applied for pest control [17], and a dedicated terminology
84 was subsequently developed. The term “pheromone” literally combines the classic Greek φέρειν

85 (pronounced pherein), meaning “to transfer”, and ὄρμαο (pronounced ormao, from which the suffix
86 “-mone” is derived) related to the concept of hormone, to refer to chemical compounds, usually
87 volatiles, emitted by a species to communicate with another individual of the same species.
88 Pheromones are classified based on their effects on behavior, e.g., sexual attraction, alarm, and
89 aggregation. Later, the suffix “-mone” was also extended to chemical compounds that mediate
90 interspecific interactions, termed allelochemicals [18]. These are classified based on the respective
91 benefit/detriment to the sender and/or receiver: “allomones” benefit the emitter; “kairomones”
92 benefit the receiver [19]; and “synomones” involve mutual benefit [20-21]. These categorizations
93 can easily be applied to other sensory modalities. Recently, vibrations and sounds that mediate
94 animal behaviors have been included in the category of “semiophysicals” together with light and
95 colors [22]. The time is now ripe to enrich the lexicon by introducing and aligning a compatible
96 terminology for biotremology, to promote collaboration with chemical ecology in areas of
97 associated behavioral interactions.

98 **The need for new Terminology in Biotremology**

99 To effectively communicate and bridge gaps between scientists within and across disciplines, it is
100 crucial to continue to establish a standardized terminology in biotremology (Box 1). A proper
101 nomenclature ensures clear and effective communication, by providing consistent terminology that
102 helps in expressing concepts with precision and clarity, while minimizing ambiguity. As experienced
103 in the field of chemical ecology, a standardized terminology facilitates more effective collaboration
104 among researchers from different fields. Moreover, in the case of applied biotremology, a
105 standardized terminology linked to terms already familiar in chemical ecology would also enhance
106 the comprehension and acceptance of vibration-based solutions for pest control by stakeholders,
107 such as policymakers, industries, farmers, and governmental institutions.

108

Box 1. Terminology and definitions of vibrational stimuli.

The new terminology proposed here for vibrational stimuli relevant in behavioral ecology is based on the established terminology utilized in chemical ecology. It incorporates the suffix “-done” from the classical Greek “δονέω” (pronounced “doneo”), which means “to shake”. Examples for each class are described in the main text and illustrated in Figure 1 (Key figure) and Figure 2.

Pherodones: Substrate-borne vibrational signals emitted by an organism and mediating intraspecific interactions. Examples include alarm, mating, territoriality, aggregation, and parental care.

Allelodones: Substrate-borne vibrations mediating interspecific interactions. Based on the effects on emitter and receiver, allelodones can be further categorized into the three following classes:

Kairodones: Substrate-borne vibrations emitted by an organism, which evoke a behavioral or physiological response in the receiver that is beneficial to the receiver but not to the emitter.

Allodones: Substrate-borne vibrations emitted by an organism, which evoke a behavioral or physiological response in the receiver that is beneficial to the emitter but not to the receiver.

Synodones: Substrate-borne vibrations emitted by an organism, which evoke a behavioral or physiological response in the receiver that is beneficial to both the emitter and receiver.

109

110 **Biological roles of Pherodones**

111 Similar to semiochemicals, vibrational signals act as semiophysicals to mediate many behaviors in
112 various animal taxa, including vertebrates and invertebrates. In the case of pherodones, such signals
113 are often species, sex or even caste-specific and slight variations in their spectral and/or temporal
114 pattern can dramatically affect the final outcome (e.g., male or female choice). Typical pherodones
115 have regular temporal patterns with regular duty cycles and harmonic structure. In contrast,
116 allelodones, which act interspecifically, are often endowed with a comparatively broader variability,
117 irregular temporal patterns, and broadband spectra. The literature on this subject is extensive,
118 although not exhaustive, and for more detailed information we refer readers to dedicated reviews
119 (e.g., [23]). Vibrational stimuli often operate in a multimodal manner combined with other sensory
120 modalities [24]. However, here, we will primarily focus on behaviors that are driven by substrate-

121 borne vibrations. The aim of this section is to provide a few illustrative examples that clarify the
122 association with the respective terminology.

123 *Sexual behavior: mating pherodones and rivalry pherodones*

124 The use of vibrational signals for sexual communication is widespread and can involve the
125 establishment of a male-female duet. In pherodones, duets are often characterized by strict
126 temporal rules that confer high species-specificity to the communication. For example, in
127 leafhoppers, such as *Scaphoideus titanus*, a male and a female engage in a vibrational duet after the
128 initial male calling signal. Such a duet begins with the initial identification duet, progresses through
129 the female's location duet, and concludes with mating following the courtship duet. Intriguingly,
130 when a male eavesdrops on the duet of another pair, it assumes the role of a rival and emits a
131 different pherodone, called disturbance noise, which interrupts the ongoing communication [25].
132 Behaviors parallel to the male-female courtship duet in biotremology have also been observed in
133 chemical ecology. For example, in various Lepidoptera and Hymenoptera species, one gender emits
134 a sex attractant pheromone to lure the other from distance and, then, the latter releases a short-
135 range courtship pheromone, initiating the courtship process [26-27].

136 *Territorial pherodones*

137 Possession of territory, whether it is a piece of land, a leaf, or a spider web, can be determined by
138 the emission of vibrational signals that inform antagonists about the strength and quality of the
139 signaler. Such pherodones function to discourage potential antagonists from staying in the area
140 delimited by the signal active space. Examples include kangaroo rats (*Dipodomys phillipsii*)
141 drumming the ground with their feet to repel potential intruders [28], female black widows
142 (*Latrodectus hesperus*) emitting abdominal vibrations as warning signals to maintain a respectful
143 distance between individuals, thus avoiding physical combat [29], and male red-eyed tree frogs
144 (*Agalychnis callidryas*) tremulating to send threatening plant-borne vibrations to other males to
145 maintain calling territories [30].

146 *Alarm pherodones*

147 The rapid transmission of an alarm signal through a group of conspecifics is crucial and can mean
148 the difference between life and death. Examples are numerous across animals, and include the
149 following: the stingless bee, *Axestotrigona ferruginea*, which emits guarding vibrations to alert
150 companions when encountering non-nestmates [31]; ants of the genus *Camponotus* that emit

151 vibrations by drumming their mandibles and abdomen on the plant surface [32]; elephants
152 (*Loxodonta africana*) that can even discriminate between familiar and unfamiliar seismic alarm
153 signals, the latter perceived as a non-reliable source of information [33].

154 *Food recruitment and aggregation pherodones*

155 Cooperative food signaling after an individual locates a profitable food site allows for rapid
156 recruitment with high benefit for the whole community. This phenomenon is present in eusocial
157 insects such as ants, which stridulate when encountering a food source [34] and in honeybees, which
158 perform a “tremble dance” as a counterpart to the “waggle dance”. Unlike the 'waggle dance' that
159 increases recruitment, the 'tremble dance' serves to limit the number of recruitments [35]. It also
160 applies to gregarious and subsocial species such as treehoppers that emit specific vibrational signals
161 at a suitable feeding site [36]. Other examples are found in sawfly larvae and other gregarious
162 caterpillars that advertise to conspecifics [37-38].

163 *Adult – offspring interactions*

164 Vibrational signals can be an important element of communication between parents and offspring.
165 In treehoppers, nymphs signal to call adults in the presence of potential threats (e.g., predator
166 wasps) [39]. Parent-embryo communication in the true bug, *Parastrachia japonensis*, mediates egg
167 hatching synchronization to avoid cannibalism [40]. Egg hatching can be also regulated by the
168 cracking of eggshells, which triggers the immediate hatching of the neighboring eggs [41]. In the
169 case of the red-winged blackbird (*Agelaius phoeniceus*), nests constructed from flexible substrates
170 enable nestlings to readily express begging behaviors in response to vibrational cues that can
171 indicate the arrival of a parent bearing food [42]. Similarly, in hornets (*Vespa orientalis*), the “hunger
172 signal” is a vibration produced by hungry larvae scraping the nest surface to summon workers for
173 food provision [43].

174 *Sociality*

175 Social insects rely heavily on communication to maintain and coordinate their complex social
176 organizations. Recent research has revealed the important role of pherodones in several species
177 [44-45]. In honeybees, sexually immature drones are subject to vibrational signals from workers,
178 possibly to promote development and mating performance [46]. In *Polistes* wasps, adults emit
179 vibrations by drumming their antennae on the paper nest, which inhibits diapause in larvae that will
180 develop into workers. This action contributes to caste determination, influencing gene expression

181 in developing individuals [47-48]. Therefore, pherodones can have both ‘primer’ (long-lasting
182 physiological changes) and ‘releaser’ (immediate behavioral responses) functions, much like
183 analogous pheromones [49].

184 **Biological roles of Allelodones**

185 For many animals, survival depends on interactions with individuals of different species. To this end,
186 non-conspecifics can mimic vibrational signals or eavesdrop on incidental vibrational cues (e.g.,
187 walking or grooming) as they play a predator role, or avoid predation. In these contexts, these
188 signals or cues, serve as allelodones. However, when the same signals and cue are used in a
189 conspecific role to disrupt courtship or sneak matings, they can simultaneously function as
190 pherodones.

191 *Kairodones*

192 Interspecific interactions where the benefit accrues to the receiver at the expense of the emitter
193 are quite common in the fields of predator/prey and host/parasitoid relationships. Examples are
194 found in parasitoids and predators that determine the exact position on the plant (i.e., leaves, fruit,
195 bark) of their hosts and preys, eavesdropping on the vibrations produced while chewing or moving
196 [50]. It has also been demonstrated that the chewing of caterpillars can induce activation of
197 metabolic responses in plants associated with chemical defenses [51]. Notably, pherodones can be
198 also exploited as kairodones by specialized receivers: both predators and parasitoids can locate their
199 targets by eavesdropping on their mating signals [9, 52]. Alarm signals can also be classified as
200 kairodones, as observed with ants attacking mammalian browsers, which emit vibrations while
201 feeding on acacia plants [53] or snakes biting anuran eggs, thereby triggering an earlier hatching in
202 an attempt by the embryos to evade predation [54]. A similar hatching trigger has been observed in
203 reptiles [55]

204 *Allodones*

205 Typical examples of allodones, where the emitter benefits but not the receiver, are lycaenid
206 caterpillars that infest ant nests, mimicking queen signals to gain acceptance and nourishment from
207 the workers [56] or kangaroo rats that footdrum at snakes as a means of deterrence [57]. In general,
208 all distress signals aimed at deterring hostile organisms [23] belong to this category. The
209 “echolocation”, typical of parasitoids that drum the surface of a plant tissue to detect the presence
210 of larvae and pupae of the host species [58] can therefore also be considered an allodone.

211 *Synodones*

212 A textbook case of a synodone is “buzz pollination”, where vibrations are produced by certain
213 bumblebees during their “buzz” when attached to a flower [59]. This mechanism is particularly
214 beneficial for flowers with tightly packed or enclosed anthers, as the vibrations induce a substantial
215 release of pollen. The mutualism arises from the efficient release by the flower and its subsequent
216 collection by the bumblebee. Another example of a mutualistic relationship involving synodones
217 occurs when ants respond to specific vibrational signals emitted by female treehoppers during
218 encounters with predators. This prompts the ants to provide protection for the female and her
219 offspring, and they ultimately receive honeydew as a food reward [60].

220 **Concluding remarks and future perspectives**

221 Aligning terminology used in the same context among groups of non-conspecifics, even those using
222 vastly different mechanisms, is a prerequisite for a discipline to establish itself and gain interest and
223 eventual recognition within the scientific community. The approach employed in this article could
224 easily be extended to other semiophysicals, such as sounds and light. However, in biotremology,
225 this extension is particularly urgent in the applied component because of its aspiration to play a
226 significant role in the fields of plant protection and pest control [61]. The development of a new
227 vocabulary is crucial to facilitate the acceptance of various stakeholders, including policy makers
228 who require access to appropriate terminology to delineate clear objectives, formulate laws and
229 regulations, and prepare scientific calls. The success of pheromone-based strategies in sustainable
230 pest control can be partly attributed to the familiarity of the term “pheromone”, which immediately
231 identifies the nature and function of the releasing dispensers and associated methods (e.g., mating
232 disruption, monitoring). Therefore, the introduction of “pherodone” aims to facilitate the general
233 acceptance and comprehension of the mechanism of action of devices that transmit vibrations into
234 plants, simultaneously attributing a character of environmental safety. In addition, we acknowledge
235 the importance of pairing basic and applied research; therefore, we wish this vocabulary to be
236 ultimately adopted also in other fields of biotremological studies for a more nuanced understanding
237 of vibrational communication in insect-plant systems at multitrophic levels but also to underscore
238 the pivotal role of multidisciplinary in modern sciences. The intersection of biotremology with
239 digital agriculture is leading to the development of promising solutions applied to several crop pests
240 (e.g., leafhoppers, whiteflies, psyllids) [62-64]. This convergence exemplifies the synergistic
241 potential of merging language from otherwise seemingly diverse fields.

242

243 **Glossary (MAX 450 Words)**

244 **Biotremology:** the scientific discipline that studies organisms' interaction that are mediated by
245 substrate-borne mechanical waves (Rayleigh, Sholte, Love, and bending waves), which propagate
246 along the boundary between two media. The clear distinction between biotremology and
247 bioacoustics is that sound is carried as compressional mechanical waves, or pressure waves (P-
248 waves), and the sound signals stimulate an ear, which is essentially a pressure receiver, or pressure-
249 difference receiver [65]. In biotremology, the mechanical waves that carry signals and cues do so
250 through particle displacement that does not involve detection of pressure changes by the wide
251 variety of vibration-based receiving organs [1].

252 **Vibrational Signals:** mechanical oscillations or movements produced by an organism as a means of
253 communication with conspecifics or other species transmitted through a substrate along media
254 boundaries.

255 **Semiochemicals:** a class of chemicals that conveys information between organisms, influencing
256 their behavior or physiology. Such information-carrying chemicals are also called infochemicals,
257 although recently the latter term has been used more broadly to include hormones as information-
258 carrying chemical compounds within an individual [66].

259 **Semiophysicals:** a class of physical stimuli, such as substrate-borne vibrations, sounds and lights,
260 that convey information between organisms, influencing their behavior or physiology in a manner
261 parallel to semiochemicals.

262 **Pheromones:** Semiochemicals that convey information between individuals of the same species.
263 There are different types of pheromones, such as sex pheromones that are used between two
264 sexes. The first sex pheromone was identified in the silkworm *Bombyx mori*, a long-chain
265 hydrocarbon called bombykol [67].

266 **Allelochemicals:** Semiochemicals that mediate interactions between individuals of different
267 species. There are different types of allelochemicals depending on the costs and benefits for the
268 emitter and receiver. For example, kairomones are eavesdropping chemicals, where the receiver
269 exploits the chemical of the emitter who is using it intraspecifically. Egg parasitoids are known to
270 eavesdrop on (anti)sex pheromones of their hosts to locate host eggs, sometimes hitching a ride
271 on the host to reach oviposition sites [68].

272 **Outstanding questions (MAX 2000 Chrs)**

273 *Function*

274 1. What is the specificity level of the plants' response to substrate-borne vibrations?

275 2. Can pherodones of key pests elicit a specific response in their host plants?

276 *Evolution*

277 1. How have pheromones and allelodones evolved across different taxa?

278 2. How far back does the coevolution of synodones go?

279 3. What are the roles of the substrate and the individual in the evolution of substrate-borne
280 signals?

281 *Ecology and Conservation*

282 1. How do environmental vibrations (both natural and anthropogenic) influence pherodones
283 of single species or species communities?

284 2. What do pherodone profiles of species communities tell us about ecosystem health?

285 *Causation*

286 1. How do substrate-borne vibrations influence the metabolism and physiology of animals
287 and plants?

288 2. What is the mechanism by which substrate-borne vibrations elicit a priming effect on
289 plants?

290 *Development*

291 1. What are the physical limits to the production and application of pherodones?

292 2. Do pherodones change with individual development over time and what is the sensitive
293 learning stage of the receiver?

294 *Regulative aspects*

295 1. How could pherodones be included in the current regulations for crop protection?

296 2. What are possible risks, if any, for the environment, including side effects for non-target
297 organisms?

298

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451 **Figure Legends**

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453 **Figure 1 (Key Figure) – New terminology in biotremology.** Examples of pherodones and allelodones,
454 designating intraspecific and interspecific vibrational stimuli, respectively. Leafhoppers (e.g.,
455 *Scaphoideus titanus*) use (1) pherodones for mating communication. Another species (i.e., a spider
456 predator) may locate them by eavesdropping on their signals, which serve as (2) kairodones. Some
457 parasitoids (e.g., *Pimpla turionellae*) “echolocate” hosts hidden by drumming a plant surface,
458 emitting vibrations that bounce to the host as (3) allodones. In a mutualistic relationship, when
459 attacked by a predator, treehoppers (*Publilia concava*) emit vibrational signals serving as (4)
460 synodones to attract ants and ensure protection against predators. In the case of insect-plant
461 interactions, vibrations induced by chewing larvae can serve as (5) kairodones for plants, activating
462 defensive metabolic pathways. Drawing made by Rachele Nieri and Marco Valerio Rossi Stacconi

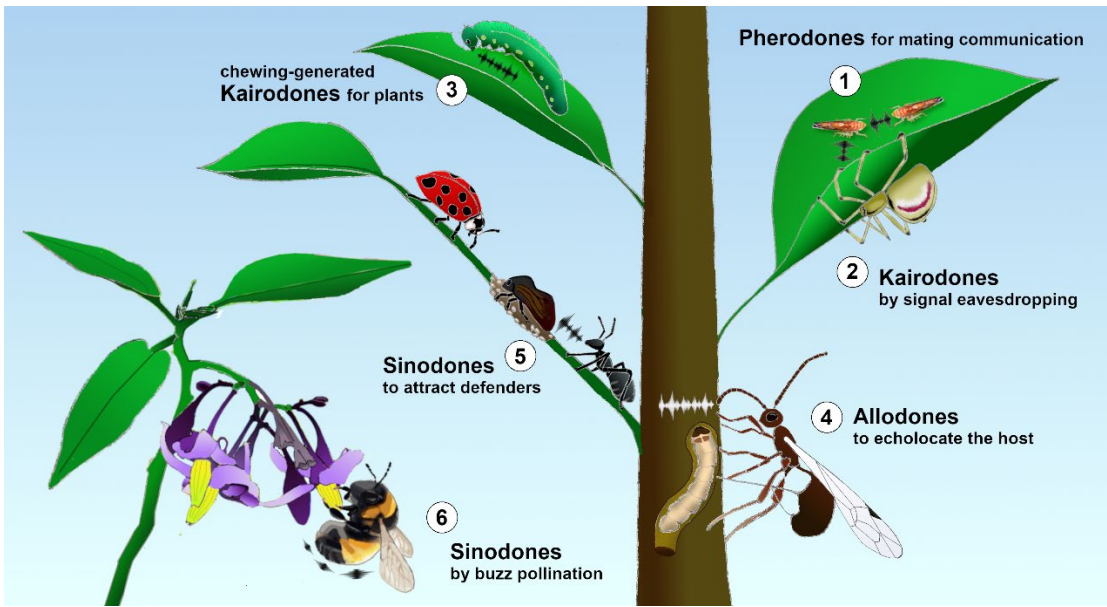
463 **Figure 2 – Biological role of Pherodones.** (1) Leafhoppers (e.g., *Scaphoideus titanus*) rely on
464 vibrational signals for mating and rivalry; (2) group-living caterpillars (e.g., *Drepana arcuata*) use
465 vibrations for aggregation and food recruitment; (3) drumming behaviors in paper wasps (*Polistes*
466 *fuscatus*) contribute to caste determination and sociality; (4) alarm behavior in ants (*Camponotus*
467 spp.) is communicated through drumming on nest walls; (5) black widows (*Latrodectus hesperus*)
468 use abdominal vibrations for territoriality to maintain distance; and (6) flexible nest material in red-
469 winged blackbirds (*Agelaius phoeniceus*) enables the transmission of vibrations indicating the arrival
470 of a parent with food. Drawing by Rachele Nieri and Marco Valerio Rossi Stacconi.

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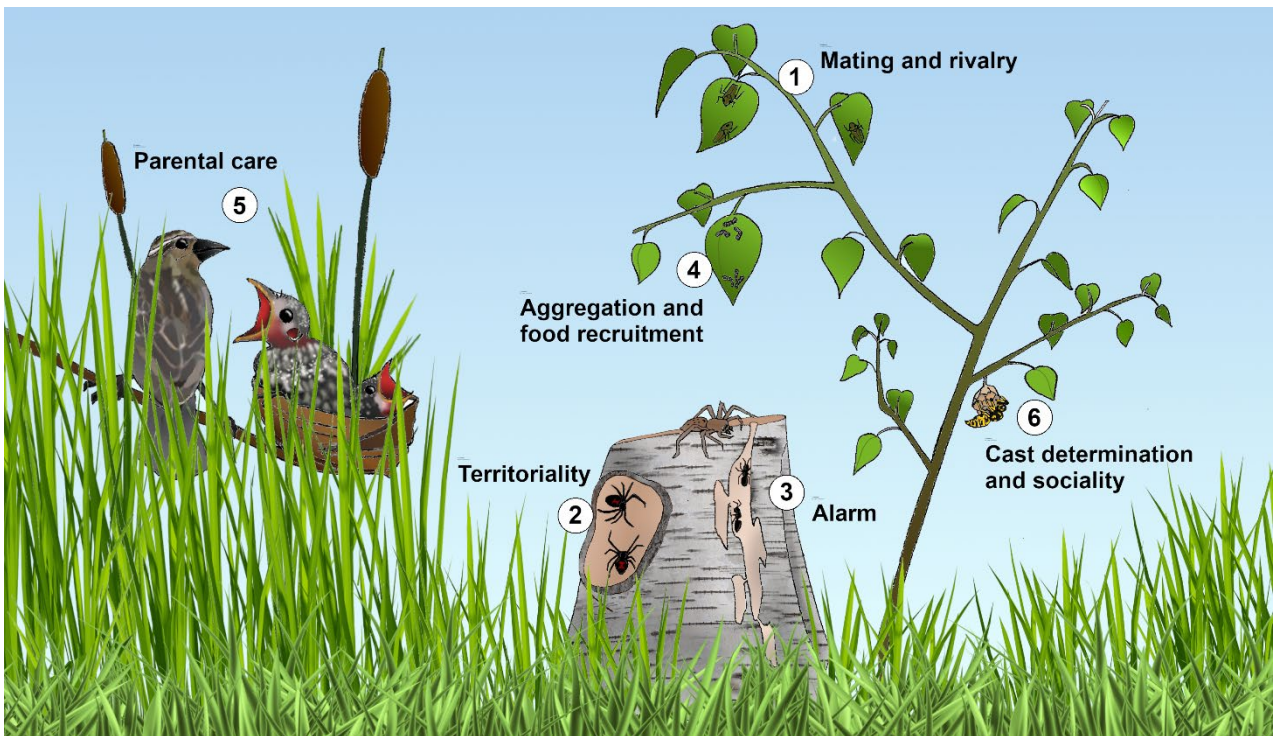
474 Fig. 1



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477 Fig. 2



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