



Biochemical Warfare: Cyanogenic Glycosides and Herbivore Coevolution

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Cyanogenic glycosides (CNGs) are bioactive compounds found in numerous plant species, playing a crucial role in defense against herbivores by releasing hydrogen cyanide (HCN) upon tissue damage. This paper explores the biochemical pathways of CNG production, their detoxification mechanisms in plants and insects, and their evolutionary implications in plant-herbivore interactions.

Introduction

Plants produce Cyanogenic glycosides (CNGs) and glucosinolates as nitrogen-containing secondary metabolites crucial for defending against pests and environmental stresses rather than for essential growth functions. CNGs, such as β -glycosides of α -hydroxynitriles (cyanohydrins), originate from amino acids like L-valine, L-isoleucine, L-leucine, L-phenylalanine, L-tyrosine, and non-protein amino acids like cyclopentenyl-glycine. These compounds are found in over 2500 plant species and some arthropods, imparting bitterness and releasing toxic hydrogen cyanide (HCN) upon tissue damage to deter insect feeding and egg-laying. Some insects have evolved to both produce and sequester these compounds, thereby creating unique ecological interactions.

Evolution of insects

The insects feeding cyanogenic plants have acquired the ability to metabolize CNGs. They also sequester CNGs from their host plant and use it for predator defense e.g., Aphididae and Papilionidae

Examples of herbivore adaptations to Cyanogenic Glycosides

- Bird Cherry-Oat Aphid (*Rhopalosiphum padi*)**
 - Interaction:** Feeds on cyanogenic plants like bird cherry (*Prunus padus*).
 - Adaptation:** Possesses enzymes capable of detoxifying cyanogenic glycosides, allowing it to exploit bird cherry as a food source without adverse effects from cyanide poisoning.
- Monarch Butterfly (*Danaus plexippus*)**
 - Interaction:** Larvae feed on milkweed plants (*Asclepias* spp.), which contain cardiac glycosides related to cyanogenic glycosides.
 - Adaptation:** Monarch butterflies sequester these compounds, making them toxic to predators and contributing to their own defense against predation.
- Corn Leaf Aphid (*Rhopalosiphum maidis*)**
 - Interaction:** Feeds on sorghum plants containing dhurrin.
 - Adaptation:** Possesses enzymes that detoxify dhurrin-derived cyanide, allowing it to exploit sorghum as a primary host without cyanide poisoning.

Examples of Cyanogenic Glycosides in Plants

1. Amygdalin (Prunus species)

- **Plant:** Found in various species of the genus *Prunus*, including cherries, apricots, and almonds.
- **Function:** Acts as a deterrent against herbivores by releasing hydrogen cyanide upon tissue damage.
- **Interactions:** Some herbivores, such as birds and mammals, avoid consuming bitter almond seeds due to amygdalin content. However, insects like certain beetle species have evolved mechanisms to detoxify cyanide, allowing them to feed on these plants.

2. Dhurrin (Sorghum species)

- **Plant:** Present in sorghum species, including cultivated sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*).
- **Function:** Acts as a defense mechanism against herbivory, particularly by insects.
- **Interactions:** Specialist insects like corn leaf aphids (*Rhopalosiphum maidis*) have developed mechanisms to detoxify dhurrin, enabling them to feed on sorghum plants without succumbing to cyanide poisoning. In contrast, generalist herbivores may avoid sorghum due to its cyanogenic properties.

3. Linamarin and Lotaustralin (Cassava, *Manihot esculenta*)

- **Plant:** Cassava plants contain linamarin and lotaustralin in their roots and leaves.
- **Function:** Serve as defense compounds against herbivores, particularly insects and mammals.
- **Interactions:** Cassava is a staple food in many tropical regions, but its cyanogenic glycosides must be detoxified through proper processing (e.g., soaking, fermentation, and cooking) to make it safe for human consumption. Herbivorous insects like cassava hornworms (*Erinnyis ello*) have evolved detoxification mechanisms to feed on cassava leaves.

4. Prunasin (Prunus species)

- **Plant:** Found in various *Prunus* species, including cherry and peach trees.
- **Function:** Acts as a chemical defense against herbivory.
- **Interactions:** Insects such as the eastern tent caterpillar (*Malacosoma americanum*) can tolerate and even sequester prunasin from cherry leaves, utilizing it as a chemical defense against predators.

Biochemical pathways of Cyanogenic Glycoside production

Plants synthesize cyanogenic glycosides through complex biochemical pathways involving several enzymes. Initially, amino acids such as valine, isoleucine, and phenylalanine are hydroxylated and converted into α -hydroxynitriles. These compounds are then glycosylated to form cyanogenic glycosides, which are stored in plant vacuoles. Upon tissue damage caused by herbivore feeding or mechanical injury, β -glucosidases catalyze the hydrolysis of CNGs, releasing toxic hydrogen cyanide. This process acts as a rapid defense response against herbivory.

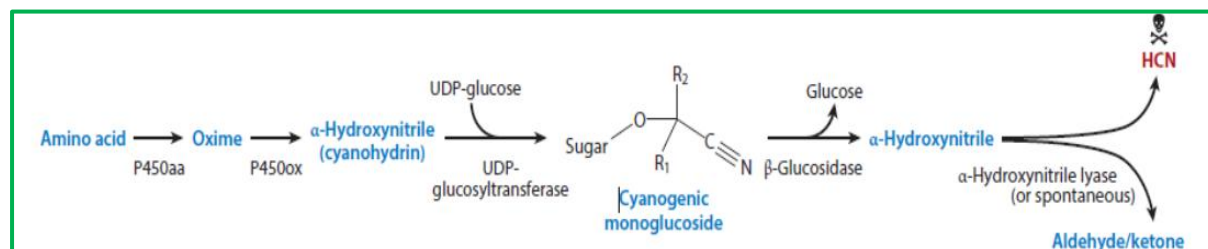


Fig. 1. Bio-synthesis of CNGs in plants, insects and higher animals

Detoxification mechanisms in plants and insects

While plants utilize β -cyanoalanine synthase to detoxify HCN into less toxic forms like asparagine, insects have developed sophisticated detoxification pathways. For instance, certain insect species possess enzymes similar to rhodanese, which convert HCN into thiocyanate, reducing its toxicity. This adaptation allows herbivorous insects to feed on cyanogenic plants without suffering adverse effects from cyanide poisoning.

Role of Cyanogenic Glycosides in Plant-Herbivore Interactions

The effectiveness of cyanogenic glycosides as a defense mechanism varies depending on factors such as the concentration of CNGs in plant tissues, herbivore feeding behaviour, and the ability of insects to detoxify cyanide. Specialist herbivores that co-evolve with cyanogenic plants often develop tolerance or detoxification mechanisms against CNGs, whereas generalist herbivores may avoid feeding on cyanogenic plants altogether.

- The concentration of CNGs in a host plant might be below a toxic threshold.
- Specialist insects may have evolved to tolerate higher levels of hydrogen cyanide (HCN) found in their diet.
- Generalist insects that consume cyanogenic plants as part of a mixed diet may dilute the toxicity below harmful levels.
- Some herbivores, like aphids which feed on phloem, may minimize tissue damage, thus reducing exposure to CNG-degrading enzymes like β -glucosidases.
- The breakdown of CNGs can lead to the accumulation of defensive compounds such as cyanohydrins, keto compounds, HCN, β -cyanoalanine, thiocyanate, and sulfite. These compounds have various defensive properties: bitter taste as feeding deterrent (CNGs), cytotoxic effects (aldehydes and ketones), respiration inhibition (HCN), neurotoxicity (β -cyanoalanine), and enzyme inhibition (thiocyanate and sulfite). The primary deterrent effect of CNGs is primarily attributed to their keto compounds.

Evolutionary Implications

The evolutionary dynamics between plants producing CNGs and herbivores adapting to these compounds drive co-evolutionary arms races. Plants benefit from deterring herbivory through CNGs, while herbivores that can detoxify or sequester these compounds gain a competitive advantage. Horizontal gene transfer and convergent evolution may explain how some insects acquire the ability to biosynthesize CNGs or enhance their detoxification capabilities, bypassing millions of years of co-evolutionary history between plants and herbivores.

Conclusion

Understanding the biochemical synthesis, detoxification pathways, and ecological roles of cyanogenic glycosides provides insights into plant defense strategies and herbivore adaptation. Future research should explore genetic approaches to manipulate CNG production in plants, potentially enhancing resistance against herbivory in agricultural crops. By elucidating the complex interactions between plants and herbivores mediated by CNGs, we can better manage pest damage and optimize plant defense mechanisms in agricultural and ecological settings.

References

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