Nematode Temperature Responses: A Niche Dimension in Populations of Bacterial-feeding Nematodes¹

RICHARD V. ANDERSON² AND DAVID C. COLEMAN³

Abstract: The optimum temperatures for population development were determined for six species of bacterial-feeding nematodes from among eight temperatures, ranging from 5 to 40 C. Four of the species are cohabiting species. The range of temperatures over which population development occurs (temperature niche breadth) is different for the cohabiting species. This difference may be a means of reducing competition between species, thus increasing temperatures over which habitats can be exploited. Key words: bacterial feeding, nematodes, temperature re-Journal of Nematology 14(1):69-76. 1982.

Soil nematode communities usually are much more diverse than those of other soil mesofauna (22,38,40,41), indicating that cohabiting species of nematodes must occupy different niches by partitioning resources (niche dimensions) between species and within trophic groups or through different tolerances of environmental conditions (niche breadths).

The ecological niche of an organism is both the space occupied by the organism and its functional role in the community. Thus, there are spatial, trophic, habitat, and other aspects of the niche. The niche is defined by all of the different factors (niche dimensions) affecting the organism. The niche is multidimensional in space and time. Thus, the complexity of the nematode community depends on the number of niche dimensions and differences in niche breadths between cohabiting species. The most obvious niche dimension is food source. Nematodes occupy almost every trophic level, from primary consumer to higher order predator (34). Another niche dimension, soil texture, affects nematode movement and size and the availability of prey (2,8, 37,40). Moisture, a third dimension, is closely linked to texture and temperature but also directly affects anabiotic responses of nematodes (26,30,34). Other niche dimensions are pH and the oxygen and organic matter content of the soil. Because the niche is n-dimensional (16), evaluating niche hypervolume at a resolution sufficient

to observe responses of species is difficult. However, dimensions with easily observed mechanisms for species coexistence may be examined. Temperature is such a dimension because it can easily be regulated.

Nematodes are subjected to a wide range of temperatures. Temperatures near the soil surface may fluctuate greatly, both daily and, in the top 20 cm, by as much as 20-30 C seasonally. Various nematode responses to temperature have been investigated (reviewed in 21,23). Temperature has been shown to affect rate of development (5,6,14, 15,24,31,39), generation time (9,15,24), egg production and hatching (4,5,9,10,14,18,24, 25,29,31,33,35,39; also see Table 1 in 29 for optimum hatching temperatures of plantparasitic nematodes), sex ratio (9,10,11,13, 17,20), size (9,19), chemical tactile responses (7), movement (7,27), respiration (1,18,28), and infectivity (12,26,36). The effect of temperature on these responses varies. For example, generation time may be shortened and survival of eggs and larvae may be greatly reduced at high temperatures (usually greater than 30 C), but more males may be produced. Consequently, even though generation time is shorter, the size of the developing population may be smaller. Thus, the population response may be the most suitable measure of optimum temperature because it reflects the summation of several processes affected by temperature. We examined population densities and rates of population growth to determine the optimum temperature ranges for population development for six nematode species, then compared the overlap of the optimum temperatures of cohabiting species. Our primary hypothesis was that cohabiting species have different optimum temperatures for

Received for publication 29 June 1981.

Research supported by NSF grants 78-11201 and 80-04193 to Colorado State University. The authors thank K. Ramsey for laboratory assistance and Drs. D. Freckman and G. W. Yeates for review comments.

²Present address: Department of Biological Sciences, Western Illinois University, Macomb, IL 61455.

³Natural Resource Ecology Laboratory and Department of Zoology and Entomology, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO 80523.

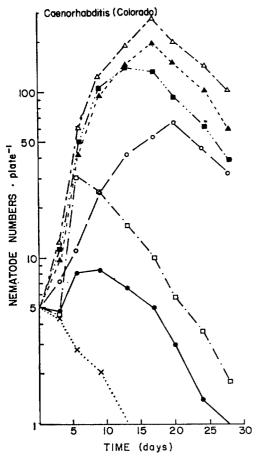


Fig. 1. Population development, including adults, juveniles, and eggs, at seven temperatures in Caenorhabditis sp. isolated from a shortgrass prairie in Colorado. The initial inocula consisted of five gravid adults for each temperature. Mean of five replicates.

maximum and most rapid population development.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Six bacterial-feeding nematode species were isolated from three habitats. Four of the species (Mesodiplogaster lheritieri,

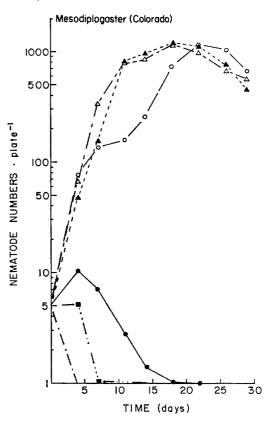


Fig. 2. Population development, including adults, juveniles, and eggs, at seven temperatures in *Mesodiplogaster* sp. isolated from a shortgrass prairie in Colorado. (Initial inocula and legend—same as in Fig. 1.)

Acrobeloides sp., Pelodera sp., Caenohabditis sp.) were from a shortgrass prairie in northeastern Colorado, one species (Pelodera sp.) was from a midgrass prairie in south-central Montana, and one (Rhabditis sp.) was from revegetated spent oil shale plots in western Colorado. All isolates were started from single gravid females (2), and cultures were maintained on 1½% agar plates with Pseudomonas cepacia as the food source. Stock cultures of each nematode species were maintained at room temperature for not less than 10 wk prior to the experiments.

From stock cultures, five gravid females of each species were placed on each of forty 52-mm agar plates with *P. cepacia* as the food source. Five plates of each species were then incubated in darkness at eight temperatures—5, 10, 15, 20, 24, 30, 35, and 40 C. Each replicate for each temperature was kept in plastic sleeves to prevent excessive

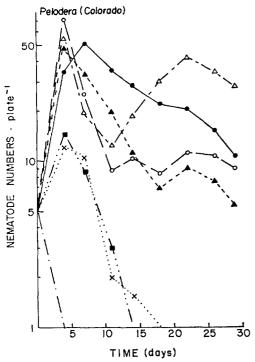


Fig. 3. Population development, including adults, juveniles, and eggs, at seven temperatures in *Pelodera* sp. isolated from a shortgrass prairie in Colorado. (Initial inocula and legend—same as in Fig. 1.)

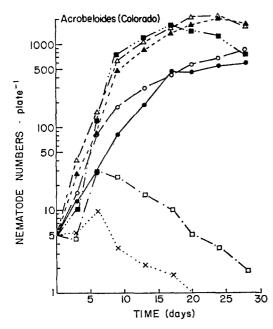


Fig. 4. Population development, including adults, juveniles, and eggs, at seven temperatures in *Acrobeloides* sp. isolated from a shortgrass prairie in Colorado. (Initial inocula and legend—same as in Fig. 1.)

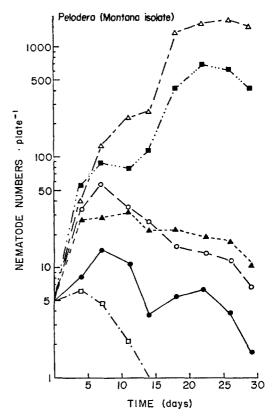
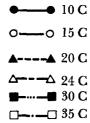


Fig. 5. Population development, including adults, juveniles, and eggs, at six temperatures in *Pelodera* sp. isolated from a midgrass prairie in Montana. (Initial inocula—same as in Fig. 1.)



water loss during the experiment. Direct counts of adults, juveniles, and eggs were made on each plate at 3-4-day intervals over a 29-day period.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Population development for each species at each temperature followed one of three patterns (Figs. 1-6). The most common pattern (Figs. 1, 3, 5), an independent growth curve and significantly different population densities for each temperature, was found for the *Caenorhabditis* sp. and

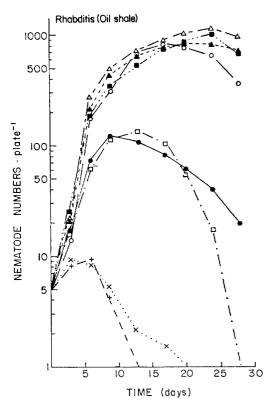
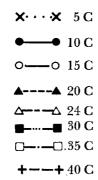


Fig. 6. Population development, including adults, juveniles, and eggs, at eight temperatures in *Rhabditis* sp. isolated from spent oil shale in Colorado. (Initial inocula—same as in Fig. 1.)



Pelodera sp. from the shortgrass prairie and the Pelodera sp. from the northern midgrass prairie. Population density was reduced at temperatures above or below an optimum 24 C for Caenorhabditis sp. and the northern Pelodera sp. and 15 C for the Pelodera sp. from the shortgrass prairie. This type of distinct temperature preference has also been reported for some species of tylenchorhynchids (19). Plotting the maximum population density at each temperature produces a slightly skewed bell-shaped curve

(Fig. 7b, d). The range of temperatures under the mode of this curve is the niche breadth for temperature measured by maximum population production.

In the second type of pattern, represented by Acrobeloides sp. (Fig. 4) and Rhabditis sp. (Fig. 6), high population densities occur over a relatively wide range of temperatures. At 10 and 15 C in Acrobeloides sp. and 10 and 35 C in Rhabditis sp., maximum population densities were lower and/or population development was much slower than at other temperatures, and populations declined rapidly at these temperature extremes. Only the Rhabditis sp. population increased at 40 C; 10 individuals occurred after five days. The temperature niche breadth for both of these species is very wide (Fig. 7c), population development occurring over a temperature range of 15-20 C. The curve of maximum population density vs. temperature (Fig. 7c) for these two species reached a plateau, with a large area under the curve. In general, a wide range of temperature tolerance is not common, although the optimum generation time was over a 12-degree range for Aphelenchoides besseyi (15) and over an 11degree range for Diplolaimella ocellata (14).

In the third pattern, produced only by Mesodiplogaster sp. (Fig. 2), populations developed at only a few temperatures, over a narrow temperature range, and when not increasing declined rapidly with no production of new individuals. Thus, the curve is much more narrow than that of the first pattern (Fig. 7a), and the area under the curve indicates that Mesodiplogaster sp. has a more narrow tolerance range than Acrobeloides sp. and Rhabditis sp. It should be noted that the species of Mesodiplogaster used in this study produce "dauer larvae" (3), which may be regarded as an adaptation to narrow tolerance. A narrow optimum temperature range is common for several nematode species (21,23), especially during the shortest generation time or period of maximum egg production, but a bell-shaped curve for population development is probably typical for most nematode species.

The amount of time required for population development is greatly affected by temperature (Fig. 8). Reaching maximum population density requires more time at

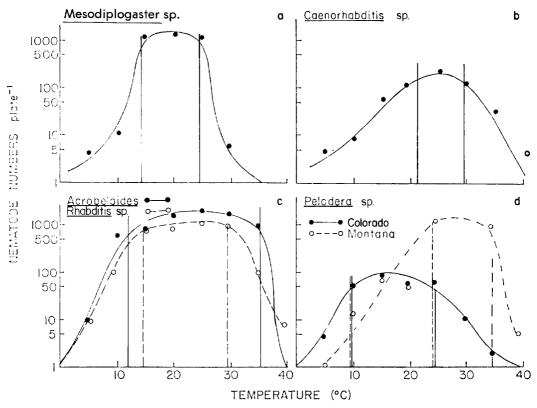


Fig. 7. Maximum population size (adults, eggs, and juveniles) for each species of nematode at each of eight temperatures: a) Mesodiplogaster sp. (Colorado), b) Caenorhabditis sp., c) Rhabditis sp. (oil shale), d) Pelodera sp. (Montana and Colorado). Vertical lines indicate mode of each curve.

low temperatures, 24 C or lower, than at temperatures above 24 C. Generation time is also directly related to temperature, but egg production is inversely related (6,9,11, 14,24). Both species that tolerated high temperatures, Rhabditis sp. and the Montana isolate of Pelodera, require more time to develop maximum populations at high temperature but less time at low temperature than the species from the shortgrass prairie. Because cold temperatures usually persist longer in the midgrass prairie and high plateaus of the oil shale region than on the eastern plains of Colorado, these species may have adapted to respond quickly, with rapid population development, at low temperatures. Tolerance of high temperatures may increase the period of productivity of the species, thus maximizing the length of activity in a comparatively short season. For the species from the shortgrass prairie, the longest period of maximum population development was between 10 and 15 C; above 15 C population decreased. Frequently, however, adults either died or did not reproduce at the extreme temperatures—5, 10, 35, or 40 °C (Figs. 1–6); thus, the population density changed little. Adults at the extreme temperatures often survived for several days without laying viable eggs, a response reported for several other species (14).

As our primary hypothesis predicted, cohabiting species do have different temperature niche breadths (Fig. 9). Although optimum temperature ranges overlap, usually not more than three and frequently only two cohabiting species require the same specific optimum temperature. Thus, the difference in temperature optima may reduce competition between cohabiting species. Acrobeloides sp. has the greatest niche breadth but a longer generation time (11 days) than Mesodiplogaster sp., which has the narrowest niche breadth and a 4-day generation time (3). To compete successfully, a species with a long generation time may require a broader range of optimum

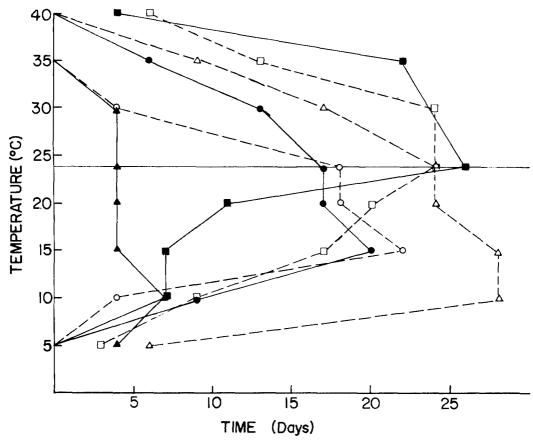
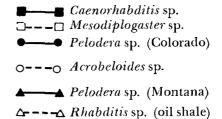


Fig. 8. Number of days required to produce the peak population for temperature and each species.



temperatures at which to remain active. This would provide a longer period of time during the year for the species to develop large enough populations to compete with species having a short generation time, particularly at temperatures where one species population development is reduced. The *Pelodera* species from the shortgrass prairie (Colorado) was active at colder temperatures than the *Pelodera* species from the midgrass prairie (Montana), perhaps because of selection resulting from the different temperatures in the habitats and different temperature requirements of the cohabiting species.

Sudhaus (32) found that species collected from the tropics always had higher lethal temperature tolerances than sibling species from temperate regions.

In conclusion, some cohabiting species of nematodes have distinctly different optimum temperature ranges (niche breadths) for population development. This difference may be a means of reducing competition by preventing overlap of periods of population development. The width of the niche breadth may reflect the difference in the length of generation time in cohabiting species.

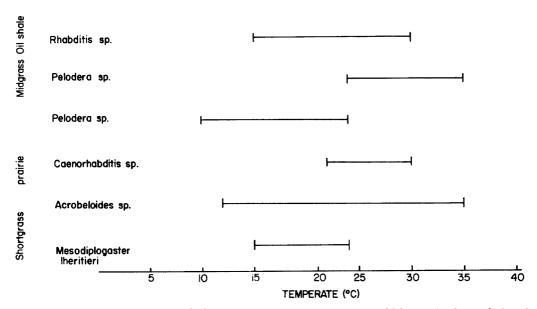


Fig. 9. Temperature niche breadth, based on temperature range over which sustained population development occurred, for each species of nematode.

LITERATURE CITED

- 1. Anderson, G. L. 1978. Responses of dauerlarvae of Caenorhabditis elegans (Nematoda: Rhabditidae) to thermal stress and oxygen deprivation. Can. J. Zool. 56:1786-1791.
- 2. Anderson, R. V., and D. C. Coleman. 1977. The use of glass microbeads in ecological experiments with bacteriophagic nematodes. J. Nematol. 9.319.399
- 3. Anderson, R. V., and D. C. Coleman. Population development and interactions between two species of bacteriophagic nematodes. Nematologica, in press.
- 4. Banyer, R. J., and J. M. Fisher. 1971. Seasonal variation in hatching of eggs of Heterodera avenae. Nematologica 17:225-236.
- 5. Bergeson, G. B. 1959. The influence of temperature on the survival of some species of the genus Meloidogyne in the absence of a host. Nematologica 5:344-354.
- 6. Bird, A. F. 1972. Influence of temperature on embryogenesis in Meloidogyne javanica. J. Nematol. 4:206-213.
- 7. Dusenbery, D. B., G. L. Anderson, and E. A. Anderson. 1978. Thermal acclimation more extensive for behavioral parameters than for oxygen consumption in the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans. J. Exp. Zool. 206:191-197.
- 8. Elliott, E. T., R. V. Anderson, D. C. Coleman, and C. V. Cole. 1980. Habitable soil pore space and microbial trophic interactions. Oikos 35:327-335.
- 9. Evans, A. A. F., and J. M. Fisher. 1970. Some factors affecting the number and size of nematodes in populations of Aphelenchus avenae. Nematologica 16:295-304.
 - 10. Greet, D. N. 1978. The effect of temperature

- on the life cycle of Panagrolaimus rigidus (Schneider). Nematologica 24:239-242.
- 11. Griffin, G. D. 1969. Effect of temperature on Meloidogyne hapla in alfalfa. Phytopathology 59: 599-602.
- 12. Griffin, G. D. 1974. Effect of acclimation temperature on infection of alfalfa by Ditylenchus dipsaci. J. Nematol. 6:57-59.
- 13. Hansen, E. L., E. J. Buecher, Jr., and E. A. Yarwood. 1972. Sex differentiation of Aphelenchus avenae in axenic culture. Nematologica 18:253-260.
- 14. Hopper, B. E., J. W. Fell, and R. C. Cefalu. 1973. Effect of temperature on life cycles of nematodes associated with the Mangrove (Rhizophora mangle) detrital system. Mar. Biol. 23:293-296.
- 15. Huang, C. S., S. P. Huang, and L. H. Lin. 1972. The effect of temperature on development and generation periods of Aphelenchoides besseyi. Nematologica 18:432-438.
- 16. Hutchinson, G. E. 1957. Concluding remarks. Cold Spring Harbor Symposia on Quantitative Biology 22:415-427.
- 17. Laughlin, C. W., A. S. Williams, and J. A. Fox. 1969. The influence of temperature on development and sex differentiation of Meloidogyne graminis. J. Nematol. 1:212-215.
- 18. Laybourn, J. 1979. The effects of temperature on the respiration and production of the freshwater nematode Anonchus sp. Oecologia 41:329-337.
- 19. Malek, R. B. 1980. Population response to temperature in the subfamily Tylenchorhynchinae. J. Nematol. 12:1-6.
- 20. Meyl, A. H. 1953. Beitrage zur Kenntnis der Nematodenfauna vulkanisch erhitzter Biotope—II. Z. Morphol. Oekol Tiere 42:159-208.
- 21. Nicholas, W. L. 1975. The biology of free-living nematodes. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

- 22. Nielsen, C. O. 1949. Studies on the soil microfauna. II. The soil inhabiting nematodes. Nat. Jutlandica 2:1-131.
- 23. Norton, D. C. 1978. Ecology of plant-parasitic nematodes. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- 24. Pillai, J. K., and D. P. Taylor. 1967. Effect of temperature on the time required for hatching and duration of life cycle of five mycophagous nematodes. Nematologica 13:512-516.
- 25. Popovici, I. 1973. The influence of temperature and of nutrient medium on populations of Cephalobus nanus (Nematoda, Cephalobiidae). Pedobiologia 13:401-409.
- 26. Rebois, R. V. 1973. Effect of soil temperature on infectivity and development of Rotylenchulus reniformis on resistant and susceptible soybeans, Glycine max. J. Nematol. 5:10-13.
- 27. Rode, H. 1969. Über verhalten und reaktionsempfindlichkeit von larven des kartoffelnematoden gegenüber thermischen reizgefallen in überoptimalen temperaturbereich. Nematologica 15:510-524.
- 28. Rohde, R. A. 1971. Respiration. Pp. 235-246 in B. M. Zuckerman, W. F. Mai, and R. A. Rohde, eds. Plant parasitic nematodes, vol. 2. New York: Academic Press.
- 29. Shepherd, A. M., and A. J. Clarke. 1971. Molting and hatching stimuli. Pp. 267-288 in B. M. Zuckerman, W. F. Mai, and R. A. Rohde, eds. Plant parasitic nematodes, vol. 2. New York: Academic Press.
- 30. Slack, D. A., R. D. Riggs, and M. L. Hamblen. 1972. The effect of temperature and moisture on the survival of Heterodera glycines in the absence of a host. J. Nematol. 4:263-266.
- 31. Sohlenius, B. 1968. Influence of microorganisms and temperature upon some Rhabditid nematodes. Pedobiologia 8:137-145.

- 32. Sudhaus, W. 1980. Vergleichende Untersuchungen zur oberen Grenztemperatur Saprobionter nematoden der Gattung Rhabditis. Nematologica 96-75-89
- 33. Taylor, D. P. 1962. Effect of temperature on hatching of Aphelenchus avenae eggs. Proc. Helminthol. Soc. Wash. 29:52-54.
- 34. Twinn, D. C. 1974. Nematodes. Pp. 421-465 in C. H. Dickinson and G. J. F. Pugh, eds. The biology of plant litter decomposition. New York: Academic Press.
- 35. Van Hoof, H. A. 1976. The effect of soil moisture content on the activity of trichodorid nematodes. Nematologica 22:260-264.
- 36. Wallace, H. R. 1969. The influence of nematode numbers and of soil particle size, nutrients and temperature on the reproduction of Meloidogyne javanica. Nematologica 15:55-64.
- 37. Wallace, H. R. 1971. The movement of nematodes in the external environment. Pp. 201-212 in A. M. Fallis, ed. Ecology and physiology of parasites. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- 38. Wasilewska, L. 1971. Nematodes of the dunes of the Kampinos Forest. II. Community structure based on numbers of individuals, state of biomass and respiratory metabolism. Ekol. Pol. 19:651-688.
- 39. Wong, T. K., and W. F. Mai. 1973. Effect of temperature on growth, development and reproduction of Meloidgyne hapla in lettuce. J. Nematol. 5:139-142.
- 40. Yeates, G. W. 1967. Studies on nematodes from dunes sands. 9. Quantitative comparison of the nematode faunas of six localities. N.Z. J. Sci. 10:927-948.
- 41. Yeates, G. W. 1970. The diversity of soil nematode fauna. Pedobiologia 10:104-107.