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Functional response and age-specific foraging behaviour of Necremnus tutae and N. cosmopterix, native natural enemies of the invasive pest Tuta absoluta in Mediterranean area

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4	cosmopterix, native natural enemies of the invasive pest Tuta absoluta in Mediterranean area
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20 Abstract

21	The native parasitoids <i>Necremnus tutae</i> Ribes & Bernardo and <i>N. cosmopterix</i> Ribes & Bernardo
22	(Hymenoptera: Eulophidae) are potential biocontrol agents of the exotic tomato pest Tuta absoluta
23	(Meyrick) (Lepidoptera: Gelechiidae) in Europe. We investigated the functional response of
24	parasitoid females to different densities of 3 rd -instar host larvae (from 3 to 40 hosts offered), as well
25	as some life history traits (longevity, lifetime fecundity, parasitism and host-feeding rate) of N.
26	tutae and N. cosmopterix. In functional response experiments, the rate of attack of both parasitoids
27	was positively correlated with host density, N. tutae and N. cosmopterix showing type III and type
28	II functional response, respectively; the latter species exhibited a higher maximum estimated host-
29	killing rate than the former. Both parasitoids showed high fecundity (> 50 eggs) during their
30	lifetime. The potential application of <i>N. tutae</i> and <i>N. cosmopterix</i> in conservation biological control
31	of T. absoluta is discussed.
32	
33	Keywords: Eulophidae, Gelechiidae, Larval parasitoids, Tomato leafminer, Lifetime fecundity,
34	Biological control
35	
36	Key message
37	• Functional responses for different attack behaviours (parasitism, host-feeding) and life history
38	traits of Necremnus tutae and N. cosmopterix, native larval parasitoids of the exotic tomato moth
39	Tuta absoluta in the Mediterranean area were investigated.
40	• Necremnus tutae and N. cosmopterix showed type III and type II functional responses,
41	respectively; both parasitoids demonstrated similar high fecundity and non-reproductive host-
42	killing behaviour, even if having different longevity.
43	• Our study provides useful information to improve exploitation of <i>Necremnus</i> spp. biological
44	control against T. absoluta.

45 Author Contribution Statement

- 46 NB, CF and LT conceived and designed the experiments. NB performed the experiments and
- 47 analysed the data. NB and CF wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

52 Introduction

53 Biological invasions are among the paramount threats of the XXI century for both natural and 54 human-modified ecosystems (Cameron et al. 2016; Guillemaud et al. 2011). Agricultural landscapes 55 are especially sensitive to invasions by exotic pests, with consequent severe economic losses, 56 besides the ecological risks (Pyšek and Richardson 2010; Vilà et al. 2010). Agricultural pests often 57 spread quickly in the invaded regions, usually favoured by the absence of efficient natural control 58 (Colautti et al. 2004; Letourneau et al. 2009). Nevertheless, some native natural enemies may adapt 59 to the exotic pests, therefore exploiting new food and/or reproductive resources (Berthon 2015; 60 Hokkanen and Pimentel 1989; Strauss et al. 2006). The use of indigenous natural enemies as 61 biocontrol agents of agricultural pests (often exotic) is one of the key points of conservation 62 biological control (Kean et al. 2003; Naranjo et al. 2015). 63 Native natural enemies have often been considered not very effective against exotic pests, compared 64 to exotic natural enemies that share a co-evolutionary adaptation with the target species (Hoddle 65 2004). Nevertheless, they may present no ecological or conservational problems (Hoddle 2004; 66 Zappalà et al. 2013), and their role as regulators of pests has been increasingly promoted over the 67 last years (Crowder and Jabbour 2014; Symondson et al. 2002). Several biological control 68 programmes have indeed demonstrated the importance in certain agroecosystems of native natural 69 enemies in controlling populations of exotic pests (Balzan et al. 2016; Bianchi et al. 2006; Hogg et 70 al. 2013; Jonsson et al. 2008; Letourneau et al. 2009; Wang et al. 2013; Zappalà et al. 2012). A 71 thorough evaluation of the indigenous natural enemies naturally attacking exotic species is therefore 72 important to identify promising biocontrol agents (Cornell and Hawkins 1993; Gabarra et al. 2014). 73 Functional response to host densities and foraging behaviours performed by biocontrol agents are 74 fundamental aspects to evaluate natural enemies' efficiency for pest control (Chen et al. 2016; 75 Dannon et al. 2010; Fellowes et al. 2005; Garay et al. 2015; Laumann et al. 2008). 76 The South American tomato leafminer Tuta absoluta (Meyrick) (Lepidoptera: Gelechiidae) has 77 rapidly spread in Eurasia and Africa following its accidental introduction into Spain in 2006,

78 becoming a major threat to tomato production in the Old-World (Biondi et al. 2018; Campos et al.

79 2017; Desneux et al. 2010, 2011; Tonnang et al. 2015). Natural enemy communities found attacking

80 *T. absoluta* in the Mediterranean area are quite abundant, and predators, especially predatory mirids

81 [e.g., Dicyphus errans (Wolff), Macrolophus pygmaeus (Rambur) and Nesidiocoris tenuis (Reuter)

82 (Heteroptera: Miridae)], are used in biological control programmes (Biondi et al. 2016; Ingegno et

83 al. 2013, 2017; Mollá et al. 2014; Urbaneja et al. 2012; Zappalà et al. 2013).

84 A diverse complex of native hymenopteran parasitoids has been found attacking *T. absoluta* in the

85 Mediterranean area, and some species have been tested for effectiveness on *T. absoluta* (Chailleux

86 et al. 2012; Gabarra et al. 2014; Zappalà et al. 2013). Necremnus tutae Ribes & Bernardo

87 [previously referred to as *N. artynes* or *N.* sp. nr artynes (Gebiola et al. 2015)] and *N. cosmopterix*

88 Ribes & Bernardo [previously referred to as *N. tidius* or *N.* sp. nr *tidius* (Gebiola et al. 2015)]

89 (Hymenoptera: Eulophidae) are among the most abundant larval parasitoids of *T. absoluta* in the

90 Mediterranean region (Cocco et al. 2015a; Gabarra et al. 2014; Zappalà et al. 2013), and potential

91 candidates for biological control programmes against the tomato pest (Calvo et al. 2013; Ferracini

92 et al. 2012; Urbaneja et al. 2012). Previous studies have assessed some biological and behavioural

93 characteristics of *N. tutae* on both the exotic host and the indigenous host *Cosmopterix pulchrimella*

94 Chambers (Lepidoptera: Cosmopterigidae) (Bodino et al. 2016; Chailleux et al. 2014a), whereas N.

95 *cosmopterix* has been seldom studied in relation to its activity on *T. absoluta* (Cocco et al. 2015a;

96 Ferracini et al. 2012). These two Necremnus species probably occur in the same environments (i.e.,

97 sympatric species) but in different periods (i.e., no syntopic species) (Cocco et al. 2015a), although

98 very little information is available on their biology and ecology. However, some biological traits of

99 *N. tutae* have been investigated to evaluate its use in an augmentative biological control perspective

100 (Calvo et al. 2016). Despite its promising attack capabilities against *T. absoluta*, this parasitoid

101 seems not to be suitable for augmentative release programmes because of high rates of host-killing,

102 resulting in a non-cost-effective mass rearing, and the intraguild predation exercised by predatory

103 mirids, already widely used in biocontrol programmes against *T. absoluta* (Calvo et al. 2016;

104 Chailleux et al. 2014b; Naselli et al. 2017). Nonetheless, the positive effect of other herbivorous
105 insects on population dynamics of parasitoid in tomato agroecosystem (Dong et al. 2018), as well as
106 the possible effective coexistence of an idiobiont parasitoid and a mirid predator (Chailleux et al.
107 2017) were already assessed.

108 *Necremnus* species naturally occurring in tomato agroecosystem could be exploited by conservation 109 biological control programmes, contributing to IPM strategies used to control T. absoluta in 110 Mediterranean area. Successful programmes of conservation biological control imply a good 111 knowledge of the biology and ecology of both pest and natural enemies, as well as the host-112 parasitoid dynamics and interactions between biocontrol agents and the ecosystem, with a particular 113 regard to the influence of intraguild predation and other biotic and abiotic factors on biocontrol 114 effectiveness (Dong et al. 2018; Duan et al. 2015; Naselli et al. 2017). Research on functional 115 response and foraging behaviour of natural enemies of *T. absoluta* has focused mainly on predatory mirids and egg parasitoids (Faria et al. 2000; Ingegno et al. 2017; Queiroz et al. 2015; van Lenteren 116 117 et al. 2016). However, no information is available yet on functional response of larval parasitoids of 118 this exotic pest, with the only exception of *Dineulophus phtorimeae* de Santis (Hymenoptera: 119 Eulophidae), a native parasitoid in Argentina (Savino et al. 2012). Therefore, the present study aims 120 to 1) determine the type of functional response of *N. tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* females to different 121 densities of *T. absoluta* larvae, and 2) evaluate the frequency of attack behaviours along the lifespan 122 of the female of both parasitoid species.

123

124 Material and methods

125 Insect rearing and plant cultivation

126 Colonies of *T. absoluta* were established starting from individuals provided by Bioplanet

127 laboratories (Bioplanet s.c.a., Cesena, Italy) and regularly enriched with individuals collected in

- 128 tomato greenhouses in Piedmont (Italy). A continuous mass rearing was maintained on potted
- tomato plants in cages with an insect-proof net (mesh 680 μ m) (BugDorm: 60 × 60 × 60 cm,

MegaView Science Co., Taichung, Taiwan). Tomato seedlings were initially sown in plastic pots (Ø 130 20 cm), and plants were transplanted individually in pots (\emptyset 10 cm) after three weeks. Tomato 131 132 plants of Marmande variety (Green Paradise s.r.l., Milano, Italy) were used for both mass rearing 133 and laboratory trials. Plants used in the experiments had 4-5 true leaves (14-15 BBCH-scale) and 134 were approximately 60 days old. 135 The two parasitoid species *N. tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* were initially provided by Bioplanet and 136 collected on C. pulchrimella larvae in Liguria (Italy), respectively. A separate mass rearing for the 137 two parasitoids was set up as follows: about 10 adults (sex ratio ~ 12:13) were released into a Plexiglas cage ($40 \times 40 \times 50$ cm) with 2-3 tomato plants infested by 3rd-instar *T. absoluta* larvae. 138 139 After four days, all parasitoids were removed and plants were transferred into a screen cage 140 (BugDorm: $47.5 \times 47.5 \times 47.5$ cm) for six days, allowing parasitoid larvae to conclude their development. Plants were then cut and placed in clean Plexiglas cages $(35 \times 35 \times 35 \text{ cm})$ with drops 141 142 of honey on cardboard, awaiting parasitoid emergence. Mass rearing of parasitoids was maintained 143 in a climate room (25±1°C, 60±5% RH, and L:D 16:8 h). Newly emerged adult parasitoids were 144 transferred daily from the rearing cages to glass vials (24×120 mm), supplied with small honey 145 drops, and placed in a climatic chamber (15±1°C, 60±5% RH, and L:D 16:8 h).

146 *Necremnus* spp. functional response on *Tuta absoluta* larvae

147 Females of the two parasitoids N. tutae and N. cosmopterix were individually exposed to different 148 densities of host larvae on a tomato plant. Females of each species were collected from mass rearing 149 within 48 h from their emergence, and transferred to plastic cages $(24 \times 15 \times 12 \text{ cm})$ together with males (sex ratio ~ 1 \bigcirc :1 \bigcirc). Tomato leaflets infested by two or three 3rd-instar *T. absoluta* larvae per 150 151 parasitoid female and honey drops on cardboard were supplied. Cages were kept in climatic 152 chambers (25±1°C, 60±5% RH and L:D 16:8 h), allowing parasitoid females to mate and oviposit 153 and/or host-feed on T. absoluta larvae for 24 h. The exposition to the host larvae prior to the assays 154 permitted to test parasitoid females with a definite experience on T. absoluta, since previous

155 experience can influence foraging behaviour efficiency (Bodino et al. 2016), as well as functional

156 response experiments of parasitoids (Yazdani and Keller 2016). Females were then individually 157 isolated in glass tubes $(24 \times 120 \text{ mm})$ with honey and humid cotton cap, and maintained in climatic 158 chambers (25±1°C, 60±5% RH, and L:D 16:8 h) for further 24 h before the assays. 159 The test cage ("microcosm") was set up as follows. A single tomato plant (40-50 days from 160 germination, 15-16 BBCH-scale), grown in a plastic pot (\emptyset 14 cm), was inserted inside a Plexiglas cage $(20 \times 20 \times 31 \text{ cm})$ with a wall and the lid of net (mesh 680 µm). Then, 3rd-instar *T. absoluta* 161 162 larvae were placed randomly on the tomato plant at different densities (3, 5, 8, 12, 17, 23, 30, 40 163 larvae plant⁻¹), 24 h before starting the functional response experiment. Therefore, larvae had time 164 to infest the plant creating new mines on the tomato leaves. Based on the preliminary results, the 165 maximum host density was established in 30 and 40 larvae for N. tutae and N. cosmopterix, 166 respectively, in order to approach the attack asymptote and better determine the functional response 167 parameters. 168 A single parasitoid female, previously isolated as described above, was then inserted into the

169 microcosm, together with drops of honey provided on a cardboard. The female was maintained in 170 the cage for 24 h in order to evaluate the attack response to host larvae densities. Afterward, the 171 parasitoid was removed, and all host larvae were immediately checked under a stereomicroscope 172 with transmitted light (12-25×, Wild M5A) to assess total mortality, i.e., parasitism and host-173 feeding on host larvae as well as number of eggs laid by the parasitoid female. Host larvae were 174 considered parasitised when they were found paralysed, with one or more eggs on or close to the 175 body in the same leaf mine, whereas they were considered killed by host-feeding when they 176 appeared somewhat "empty" and with a wound caused by the ovipositor of parasitoid female, 177 meaning that the parasitoid fed on their haemolymph. Total mortality included all the host larvae 178 found paralysed or dead. Results from cages where the parasitoid female was dead at the end of the assay were discarded. Overall, five successful replicates (i.e., females found alive) were performed 179 180 per each tested density. Functional response experiments were carried out in a climatic chamber 181 (25±1°C, 60±5% RH, and L:D 16:8 h).

182 Life history traits of *Necremnus* spp.

183 Females of the two parasitoids *N. tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* were individually exposed to a tomato 184 leaf infested by 10 host larvae per day during their entire adult lifespan. The number of host larvae 185 was determined through preliminary assays that demonstrated that the females of the two parasitoid 186 species were unable to attack more than 10 host larvae per day (unpublished data). Number of eggs 187 and attack behaviours like parasitism, host-feeding and host-stinging were registered. In particular, 188 host larvae were considered killed by host-stinging when they showed an ovipositor sting mark but 189 no eggs or haemolymph leaking from the wound. Host-killing (i.e., total mortality) was intended as 190 the overall number of host larvae parasitised or killed through host-feeding or host-stinging by the 191 parasitoid. Parasitoid females (emerged < 24 h) were collected and singly inserted into a Petri dish 192 (\emptyset 20 cm, "arena") containing a filter paper disc on the bottom and one tomato leaf (with 5 leaflets) 193 infested with 10 3rd-instar *T. absoluta* larvae 24 h earlier. One male of the same species was 194 introduced into the Petri dish, allowing the female to mate throughout its life. After 24 h, both 195 female and male were transferred to another arena, containing a filter paper disc and a new tomato 196 leaf infested with T. absoluta larvae, as described above. The tomato leaf exposed to the parasitoid 197 was immediately checked under a stereomicroscope with transmitted light (12-25×, Wild M5A) to 198 assess the attack behaviours by the parasitoid female during the previous 24 h. Parasitoid females 199 were provided with a new infested tomato leaf each day of their life, and a total of 10 replicates 200 were performed for each parasitoid species. Ten arenas without any parasitoid were set up as 201 control, and checked after 24 h to assess mortality of *T. absoluta* larvae not caused by the natural 202 enemy. Experiments were carried out in a climatic chamber (25±1°C, 60±5% RH, and L:D 16:8 h).

203 Statistical analyses

Number of host-killing, parasitism and host-feeding behaviours in relation to parasitoid species and
host density were analysed using a two-way ANOVA, whereas the difference between the attack
frequencies of the two parasitoid species at diverse densities was tested using Mann-Whitney U test.
Functional response type and parameters of attack rate and handling time for the different attack

208 behaviours were estimated using the general approach proposed by Okuyama (2012a). This 209 approach includes the application of a model selection index (i.e., Akaike information criterion, 210 AIC) directly to candidate models. We used the maximum likelihood approach to obtain parameters estimates of the Holling's type II (Eq. 1), Holling's type III (Eq. 2) and θ -logistic models (Eq. 3) 211 212 (Bolker 2008; Okuyama 2012b). Maximum likelihood method is less used than the typical 213 estimation method of least squares, but it has been recently accounted of better performances in 214 estimating functional response parameters (Okuyama 2012b). The three used models do not account 215 for prey depletion, since parasitoids do not completely consume their host/prey and hence could re-216 encounter formerly attacked hosts. The three functional response models were then used to fit the 217 data regarding the different attack behaviours, using the R package bbmle for maximum likelihood 218 estimation (mle) (Haddaway et al. 2012). The best model for each attack behaviour was selected 219 using the AIC test (lower AIC means a better model fit), from which the coefficients *a* (attack rate) 220 and Th (handling time) were obtained and compared using confidence intervals (95%). Mean values 221 of Th were used to calculate the maximum attack rate as T/Th (Hassell 2000), representing the 222 maximal number of *T. absoluta* larvae that could be attacked during the considered time interval (i.e., T = 1 day). 223

224 Differences between lifetime biological traits of the two parasitoid species were analysed using t-225 test, when assumption of normality (Shapiro-Wilk test) and homoscedasticity (Levene's test) were 226 verified, and GLM based on gamma distribution (inverse link function), when assumptions of 227 normality and/or homoscedasticity were rejected. The relationship between parasitoid female age and daily fecundity (no. eggs laid female⁻¹ day⁻¹) was fitted by both Bieri (Eq. 4) and Analytis (Eq. 228 5) models (Kontodimas et al. 2007; Lanzoni et al. 2004). The most appropriate model was selected 229 230 using the AIC test. Statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software R (R Core 231 Team 2013).

232

233 **Results**

234 *Necremnus* spp. functional response on *Tuta absoluta* larvae

The number of host larvae killed, parasitised or host-fed by both N. tutae and N. cosmopterix 235 236 increased with the host density offered (Tab. 1 and Fig. 1), whereas the percentage of host larvae 237 killed, parasitised or host-fed decreased, although differently between the two parasitoid species (Fig. 2). The interaction effect between parasitoid species and host density on host mortality and 238 239 parasitism highlighted relevant differences between N. tutae and N. cosmopterix (Host-killing: F = 3.68, df = 6,60, P = 0.003; Parasitism: F = 5.70, df = 6,60, P < 0.001), with the latter parasitoid 240 attacking more host larvae, especially when provided at the highest densities (23-30 host larvae) 241 242 (Tab. 1). Indeed, the highest host density supplied to N. cosmopterix was increased to 40 larvae in 243 order to approach the upper asymptote of the functional response curve. Number of host-feeding 244 attacks also increased with host density (F = 48.40, df = 7,60, P = 0.009), but without significant 245 difference between the two parasitoid species (F = 0.61, df = 1.60, P = 0.638) (Tab. 1). 246 The calculated AIC values for *N. tutae* by the Holling's type III equation (Eq. 2) were lower than 247 the ones calculated by Holling's type II equation (Eq. 1) and theta-logistic (Eq. 3) for total killed 248 larvae, parasitism and host-feeding (Tab. 2). On the contrary, AIC values for N. cosmopterix fitted 249 by Holling's type II equation (Eq. 1) were lower than the ones calculated by the Holling's type III 250 equation (Eq. 2) and theta-logistic (Eq. 3) for the total killed, parasitised and host-fed larvae (Tab. 251 2). Thus, N. tutae functional responses were better modelled by type III model, whereas N. 252 *cosmopterix* functional responses were better modelled by type II model (Fig. 1). Host-killing rate of N. cosmopterix was higher than the one estimated for N. tutae, comparing 95% 253 254 confidence intervals, whereas both parasitism and host-feeding rates were similar in the two 255 parasitoid species (Tab. 3). Host-killing and parasitism handling times of N. cosmopterix were lower than those ones of *N. tutae*. Hence, the maximum estimated host-killing rate per day $(1/T_h)$ 256 was higher for *N. cosmopterix* (23.66 larvae day⁻¹) than for *N. tutae* (8.23 larvae day⁻¹). In the same 257 way, the maximum number of parasitised larvae (*N. cosmopterix*: 12.5 larvae day⁻¹; *N. tutae*: 3.12 258 larvae day⁻¹) was higher for the former species than for the latter one. Handling time of host-feeding 259

260 was instead similar between the two *Necremnus* species, leading to not significantly different

261 maximum number of host-fed larvae (*N. cosmopterix*: 6.25 larvae day⁻¹; *N. tutae*: 3.03 larvae day⁻¹).

262 Life history traits of *Necremnus* spp.

263 Lifetime fecundity experiment showed some differences in biological traits between N. tutae and N. cosmopterix (Tab. 4). Specifically, N. cosmopterix females lived significantly longer than N. tutae 264 265 ones, but with a lower number of daily ovipositions. Therefore, the total lifetime fecundity was not 266 different between the two parasitoid species. The shorter lifespan of N. tutae females caused both a 267 shorter pre-oviposition period and a shorter oviposition period compared to the ones observed for N. 268 cosmopterix. Parasitism and host-killing (i.e., parasitism + host-feeding + host-stinging) followed 269 the same pattern of ovipositions, with *N. tutae* parasitizing and killing a higher number of larvae per day than N. cosmopterix, leading to not significant differences between the total lifetime number of 270 271 parasitised or killed larvae between the two parasitoid species. Conversely, both lifetime and daily 272 host-feeding activities were not different between the two parasitoid species. Likewise, both lifetime and daily host-stinging activities were not different between N. tutae and N. cosmopterix 273 274 (lifetime *t*-test: t = 0.98, df = 18, P = 0.340; daily *t*-test: t = 1.50, df = 18, P = 0.151). No mortality 275 of *T. absoluta* larvae was observed in control arenas, thus all dead larvae recorded in experimental 276 arenas were assumed to be caused by the foraging activity of the parasitoid female. 277 Comparing the age-specific fecundity of the two parasitoid species, a different pattern could be 278 recognized; the ovipositions of *N. tutae* were slightly better described by the Analytis model (AIC: 279 Analytis = 1009.93; Bieri = 1011.39), whereas the ovipositions of *N. cosmopterix* were slightly better fitted by Bieri model (AIC: Analytis = 672.72; Bieri = 670.91) (Fig. 3). The highest daily 280 mean oviposition value was at the 6th day of life for *N. tutae*, whereas was between the 15th and the 281 18th day of life for *N. cosmopterix*. Hence, *N. tutae* had a higher age-specific fecundity during the 282 283 first days of adult life, until 10-12 days old, then the number of daily ovipositions steadily declined

205 Inst days of addit file, diffinite 12 days old, then the number of daily ovipositions steadily deenned

to zero. Conversely, *N. cosmopterix* exhibited a lower daily fecundity, especially during the first

days of adult life, reaching the maximum number of eggs later, reflecting the higher longevity of thefemales of this species.

287

301

288 Discussion

The results of the present study provide novel information on biological traits and foraging
behaviour of the two parasitoid species *N. tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* on the exotic host *T. absoluta*.
This is also the second study, after Ferracini et al. (2012), investigating on several biological traits
of *N. cosmopterix* and comparing the efficiency of the two *Necremnus* species on *T. absoluta*. Both
these natural enemies demonstrated a good capability in killing and parasitising 3rd-instar *T. absoluta* larvae in laboratory conditions. However, the two parasitoid species showed marked

295 differences regarding their functional response and lifetime foraging behaviours.

296 In functional response assays, N. tutae exhibited density-dependent (type III) parasitism and host-

killing of *T. absoluta*, whereas *N. cosmopterix* exhibited inversely density-dependent (type II)

attack behaviours. Type III functional response is often considered to have a stabilizing effect on

299 host-parasitoid interactions, potentially leading to a successful regulation of the pest population

300 (Fernández-Arhex and Corley 2003; Hassell 2000; Yazdani and Keller 2016). However, the low

maximum attack rate exhibited by N. tutae in this study highlights a moderate capacity of this

302 parasitoid to efficiently respond to a strong increase of pest density. Nonetheless, parasitoids

303 showing a type III functional response should be more efficient at low host densities, and thus *N*.

304 *tutae* could usefully control *T. absoluta* populations at the beginning of the growing season, when

305 their infestation level is still low, even though augmentative releases of *N. tutae* alone are probably

306 not sufficient to keep pest density lower than the economic threshold (1-3% damaged fruits) (Calvo

307 et al. 2016; Cocco et al. 2015b; Desneux et al. 2010).

308 Conversely, *N. cosmopterix* exhibited an inversely density-dependence functional response of

309 parasitism and host-killing (type II), characterized by a constant increase of number of larvae

310 attacked with an augmentation of larvae offered (Juliano 2001). Type II functional response is

311 usually associated with the incapability of a natural enemy to modulate its response to different 312 prey/host densities, and has often been considered less stable in regulating the host-parasitoid 313 dynamics (Hassel 2000). Nonetheless, several natural enemies showing this type of functional 314 response have become successful biocontrol agents, and the supposed host-parasitoid population 315 instability arising from this type of functional response is still debated (Fernández-Arhex and 316 Corley 2003; Kidd and Amarasekare 2012). Furthermore, both higher values of attack rate and 317 smaller values of handling time estimated for N. cosmopterix, compared to those ones estimated for 318 *N. tutae*, reveal the capability of the former to quickly attack high numbers of host larvae even at 319 high densities, thus showing an important requisite for controlling the pest also in case of high 320 infestation levels.

321 In lifetime fecundity assays, the two parasitoid species attacked similar amounts of host larvae, but 322 *N. tutae* showed a significantly shorter adult life and consequently higher daily rates of parasitism, 323 host-feeding and host-killing compared to N. cosmopterix. Thus, despite some biological differences, both Necremnus species killed high number of hosts during their lifetime (~ 100 324 325 larvae), that is an important characteristic for biological control agents. Host-feeding and host-326 stinging were important components of attack activities of the two parasitoids during both 327 functional response and lifetime assays. These types of attacks are possibly advantageous for pest 328 control (Jervis et al. 1996, 2008) but can lead to non-cost-effective massive production of these 329 natural enemies to be used in augmentative or inundative biological control programmes (Calvo et 330 al. 2016).

Our results about *N. tutae* biology are consistent with those ones previously achieved for *N. artynes* or *N.* near *artynes* (Calvo et al. 2013; Chailleux et al. 2014a; Ferracini et al. 2012), which are now considered to belong to the same species (Gebiola et al. 2015). Longevity, fecundity and hostkilling of *N. tutae* observed in our study are also very similar to those ones observed at the same temperature (25°C) by Calvo et al. (2013), who however recorded a higher frequency of hostfeeding behaviour compared to our results. Such a difference could be due to the fact that in those

337 experiments host-stinging behaviour was not accounted and/or that larger arenas were used. 338 Conversely, Chailleux et al. (2014a) and Ferracini et al. (2012) reported a lower overall efficiency, 339 i.e., both lower number of eggs laid and of host larvae killed. These differences are likely due to the 340 experimental setup, but it should not be overlooked also that those studies were conducted before 341 the systematic revision by Gebiola et al. (2015), and therefore, some other cryptic species of 342 *Necremnus* may had been used. Despite the promising host attack capabilities of *N. tutae*, in a study 343 on augmentative release of N. tutae in semi-field conditions, the parasitoid alone was not able to 344 reduce the damage caused by T. absoluta below the economic threshold (Calvo et al. 2016). 345 Furthermore, larval ectoparasitoids, such as Necremnus species, are prone to intra-guild predation 346 or kleptoparasitism by predatory mirids, which are already widely used in biological control 347 programmes on tomato, and can significantly reduce parasitoids' efficiency (Chailleux et al. 2014b; 348 Naselli et al. 2017). However, in a recent study the ectoparasitoid Stenomesius japonicus 349 (Ashmead) proved to coexist successfully with the mirid *M. pygmaeus* and contribute with an 350 additive effect to lower T. absoluta population (Chailleux et al. 2017). 351 Given the few works dealing with the biology of larval parasitoids of *T. absoluta* in Mediterranean 352 region, it is useful to compare our results also to those ones achieved in studies on larval parasitoids 353 in South America. Pseudoapanteles dignus (Muesebeck) (Hymenoptera: Braconidae), a larval 354 endoparasitoid attacking T. absoluta in South America, is a promising candidate for augmentative 355 and conservation biological control of this tomato pest in Argentina (Luna et al. 2007; Sánchez et 356 al. 2009). In our study, Necremnus species showed higher functional response and lifetime 357 fecundity-attack parameters, but lower fecundity and parasitism levels than those reported for P. 358 dignus in both laboratory and field experiments (Nieves et al. 2015; Savino et al. 2012). Despite 359 some methodological differences between the studies, biological parameters observed for P. dignus 360 and *Necremnus* spp. are somehow comparable, suggesting *N. tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* as possibly 361 successful biological control agents.

362 *Necremnus tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* should be considered as potential effective natural enemies in 363 conservation biological control programmes against T. absoluta, rather than in augmentative release 364 strategies. An early establishment of these species in tomato agroecosystem, with a consequent increase of their resident populations, could help keeping T. absoluta populations under economic 365 366 threshold, preventing the pest populations to increase uncontrolled. However, to achieve a 367 successful conservation biological control programme, more information about biology, ecology 368 and multitrophic interactions at agroecosystem and landscape level should be acquired (Jonsson et 369 al. 2008; Tscharntke et al. 2007). For example, understanding possible effects of native plants as 370 bankers of alternative hosts or providers of food supplies (nectars), as suggested for *N. tutae* by 371 Balzan and Wäckers (2013), can lead to attraction and establishment of native parasitoids in tomato 372 agroecosystem. Studying similar ecological dynamics, as well as multitrophic relationships in the 373 field with other native enemies like predatory mirids (e.g., *N. tenuis* and *D. errans*) (Ingegno et al. 374 2013; Mollá et al. 2014; Naselli et al. 2017), would help to achieve a more efficient natural control 375 of *T. absoluta* in Mediterranean areas. Furthermore, also the coexistence and possible competition 376 of *N. tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* in tomato crop should be investigated, as this aspect could have 377 important consequences on conservation biocontrol efficiency. Until now, experiments have in fact 378 focused on microcosm or semi-field assays, but further research is needed to evaluate these natural 379 enemies in field conditions, where the intra-guild competition/predation with predatory mirids could 380 be less severe than the one registered in artificial assays, and the coexistence of different natural 381 enemies could lead to a more efficient pest control.

383 Ethical approval

- 384 All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and use of animals
- 385 were followed. All procedures performed in studies involving animals were in accordance with the
- 386 ethical standards of the institution or practice at which the studies were conducted.

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 $N_a = \frac{aN}{1+aN}$ Eq. 1 Holling's type II functional response model $N_p = \frac{aN^2}{1+aN^2}$ Eq. 2 Holling's type III functional response model. $N_p = \frac{aN^{\theta}}{1+aN^{\theta}}$ Eq. 3 θ-logistic functional response model. $y = [P_1(x - P_2)] / \{\exp[\ln(P_3)(x - P_2)]\}$ **Eq. 4** Bieri model, where x = age of female (days), and P_1 , P_2 and P_3 are coefficients. $y = P_1((x - x_{min})^{P_2}.(x_{max} - x)^{P_3})$ Eq. 5 Analytis model, where x = age of female (days), x_{min} and x_{max} are the first and final age of oviposition, and P₁, P₂ and P₃ are coefficients.

Tab. 1 Mean number (\pm SE) of *Tuta absoluta* larvae killed, parasitised or host-fed by *Necremnus tutae*591(*N.t.*) and *N. cosmopterix* (*N.c.*) females at different host densities in functional response assays. At592each host density, means followed by asterisk are significantly different between the two parasitoid593species (Mann-Whitney U test, P < 0.05).</td>

Host density	No. killed larvae		No. parasit	ised larvae	No. host-fed larvae	
(larvae plant ⁻¹)	N.t.	<i>N.c.</i>	<i>N.t.</i>	<i>N.c.</i>	<i>N.t.</i>	<i>N.c.</i>
3	$2.4~\pm~0.75$	$2.2~\pm~0.37$	1.4 ± 0.4	1.6 ± 0.51	1.2 ± 0.2	0.8 ± 0.2
5	$4.0~\pm~1.98$	$4.0~\pm~0.4$	$2.8~\pm~0.6$	$2.6~\pm~0.51$	$2.0~\pm~0.3$	1.2 ± 0.49
8	$6.4~\pm~2.50$	5.2 ± 0.63	3.6 ± 0.6	$4.0~\pm~0.55$	$2.6~\pm~0.4$	0.4 ± 0.24 *
12	$8.0~\pm~2.00$	7.2 ± 0.45	4.4 ± 1	4.2 ± 1.11	$2.8~\pm~0.7$	$3.0~\pm~1.05$
17	$7.8~\pm~2.74$	$11.6~\pm~0.86$	$2.8~\pm~1.6$	$6.8~\pm~1.46$	3.2 ± 0.8	$2.6~\pm~0.81$
23	$7.0~\pm~2.43$	$11.8~\pm~0.51$	2.4 ± 1.1	7.4 ± 1.54 *	$2.4~\pm~0.5$	3.4 ± 1.17
30	8.0 ± 1.44	$18.0 \pm 1.07 *$	2.2 ± 1	12.6 ± 2.64 *	$2.2~\pm~0.6$	$3.8~\pm~0.86$
40	_	11.4 ± 1.05	_	$5.8~\pm~0.73$	_	3.2 ± 0.86

596	Tab. 2 Akaike information criterion (AIC) of the functional response models tested for <i>Necremnus</i>
597	tutae (N.t.) and N. cosmopterix (N.c.) females. Functional response models that fitted better the data
598	(lower AIC) are underlined.

Functional response	No. killed larvae		No. parasitised larvae		No. host-fed larvae		
	<i>N.t</i> .	<i>N.c.</i>	<i>N.t.</i>	<i>N.c.</i>	<i>N.t.</i>	<i>N.c.</i>	
Type II	171.59	204.45	155.06	195.47	114.18	142.70	
Type III	169.80	205.69	153.39	196.76	<u>113.23</u>	143.99	
Θ-sigmoid	171.69	204.70	153.76	196.67	114.97	144.58	

601	Tab. 3 Attack coefficient (a), handling time (Th) estimates (\pm SE) and confidence intervals from
602	functional responses of attack behaviours displayed by Necremnus tutae and N. cosmopterix to
603	increasing densities of Tuta absoluta larvae.

Species	Attack type	\boldsymbol{a} (larvae day ⁻¹)		Th (day)		
		Estimate (± SE)	95% C.I.	Estimate (± SE)	95% C.I.	
N. tutae						
	Host-killing	0.37 ± 0.11	(0.216-0.745)	0.12 ± 0.01	(0.101-0.145)	
	Parasitism	0.46 ± 0.31	(0.172-1.436)	0.31 ± 0.04	(0.248-0.402)	
	Host-feeding	0.27 ± 0.18	(0.103-7.932)	0.36 ± 0.05	(0.275-0.472)	
N. cosmopter	ix					
	Host-killing	0.95 ± 0.15	(0.709-1.309)	0.04 ± 0.01	(0.023-0.054)	
	Parasitism	0.67 ± 0.14	(0.461-1.046)	0.07 ± 0.02	(0.039-0.102)	
	Host-feeding	0.26 ± 0.08	(0.151-0.558)	0.16 ± 0.06	(0.046-0.292)	

- **Tab. 4** Mean lifetime biological traits (±SE) of *Necremnus tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* on the host *Tuta*
- *absoluta*. Differences between biological traits of the two parasitoids were tested by *t* test or GLM
- 608 with Gamma distribution.

Parameter	N. tutae	N. cosmopterix	t test(18)	F(1, 18)	Р
Longevity (days)	14.00 ± 1.96	24.50 ± 3.11	2.86		0.011
Pre-oviposition (days)	$0.30~\pm~0.15$	1.30 ± 0.39		6.54	0.019
Oviposition (days)	12.80 ± 1.99	22.00 ± 2.52	2.86		0.011
Fecundity (eggs female ⁻¹)	53.50 ± 8.09	59.50 ± 11.98	0.41		0.683
Oviposition rate (eggs female ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	$3.89~\pm~0.32$	2.32 ± 0.37	3.21		0.005
Host-killing (larvae)	95.40 ± 13.25	125.60 ± 23.59		1.38	0.255
Host-killing rate (larvae day ⁻¹)	6.82 ± 0.35	$4.90~\pm~0.68$		5.03	0.038
Host-feeding (larvae)	21.70 ± 2.83	34.60 ± 7.30		3.51	0.077
Feeding rate (larvae day ⁻¹)	1.61 ± 0.10	1.32 ± 0.21		1.35	0.261
Parasitism (larvae)	47.50 ± 7.12	55.70 ± 10.97	0.63		0.539
Parasitism rate (larvae day ⁻¹)	3.44 ± 0.25	2.17 ± 0.33	3.07		0.007

611 **Fig. 1** Functional response of *Necremnus tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* for total host-killing (a, b),

612 parasitism (c, d) and host-feeding (e, f). Points represent mean number of *Tuta absoluta* larvae

613 attacked (±SE) for the different larval densities offered to the parasitoid female. Solid lines

614 represent type II functional response and *dashed lines* represent type III functional response.

615

Fig. 2 Functional response of *Necremnus tutae* and *N. cosmopterix* for host-killing (a, b), parasitism
(c, d) and host-feeding (e, f). Points represent mean percentage of *Tuta absoluta* larvae attacked

618 (±SE) for the different larval densities offered to the parasitoid female. Solid lines represent

619 quadratic polynomial function and *dashed lines* represent cubic polynomial function.

620

621 Fig. 3 Age-specific fecundity as a function of age of *Necremnus tutae* (a) and *N. cosmopterix* (b)

622 females fitted using Bieri (*solid line*) and Analytis (*dashed line*) models.



Fig. 1







