# Host genotype affects the relative success of competing lines of aphid parasitoids under superparasitism

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Running title: Superparasitism in Lyisphlebus fabarum

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- 1 **Abstract.** 1. In solitary parasitoids, only one individual can complete development in a given
- 2 host. Therefore, solitary parasitoids tend to prefer unparasitised hosts for oviposition, yet
- 3 under high parasitoid densities, superparasitism is frequent and results in fierce competition
- 4 for the host's limited resources. This may lead to selection for the best intra-host competitors.
- 5 2. Increased intra-host competitive ability may evolve under a high risk of
- 6 superparasitism if this trait exhibits genetic variation, and if competitive differences among
- 7 parasitoid genotypes are consistent across environments, e.g. different host genotypes.
- 8 3. These assumptions were addressed in the aphid parasitoid *Lysiphlebus fabarum*
- 9 (Hymenoptera: Braconidae: Aphidiinae) and its main host, the black bean aphid, Aphis fabae
- 10 (Scopoli) (Hemiptera: Aphididae). Three parthenogenetic lines of *L. fabarum* were allowed to
- parasitise three aphid clones singly and in all pairwise combinations (superparasitism). The
- winning parasitoid in superparasitised aphids was determined by microsatellite analysis.
- 4. The proportions of singly parasitised aphids that were mummified were similar for the
- three parasitoid lines and did not differ significantly among host clones.
- 5. Under superparasitism, significant biases in favour of one parasitoid line were
- observed for some combinations, indicating that there is genetic variation for intra-host
- 17 competitive ability. However, the outcome of superparasitism was inconsistent across aphid
- clones and thus influenced significantly by the host clone in which parasitoids competed.
- 6. Overall, this study shows that the fitness of aphid parasitoids under superparasitism is
- determined by complex interactions with competitors as well as hosts, possibly hampering the
- 21 evolution of improved intra-host competitive ability.
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- 23 **Keywords.** Aphis fabae, genotype-by-genotype interaction, Hamiltonella defensa,
- 24 Lysiphlebus fabarum, parasitoids, superparasitism, symbiosis

### Introduction

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In solitary endoparasitoids of insects, only one individual can successfully complete development within a single host. Under superparasitism, i.e. when a host is attacked by more than one individual of the same species (Godfray, 1994), fierce competition among parasitoid larvae ensues for the host's limited resources. This may take the form of physical combat when larvae are similar in age and size (Mackauer, 1990; Marris & Casperd, 1996), or else the younger parasitoid may succumb because its development is suppressed physiologically by the older conspecific (Fisher, 1963). In either case, superparasitism entails a high risk of death and should be avoided if a sufficient number of unparasitised hosts is available (van Lenteren, 1981). This prediction is supported by a number of studies demonstrating that parasitoids can identify already parasitised hosts and discriminate against them in favour of unparasitised hosts (e.g. Salt, 1961; Hubbard et al., 1987; Bai, 1991). Aphid parasitoids, the subjects of the present study, also appear to possess such a host discrimination ability. The aphidiine wasp Aphidius rhopalosiphi (De Stefani Perez), for example, tends to avoid attacking previously parasitised aphids shortly after the first attack based on external cues (Outreman et al., 2001a). At longer time intervals after the first oviposition, it may avoid oviposition based on internal cues perceived during stabs (Outreman et al., 2001a). But in either case, host discrimination is far from perfect, resulting in a substantial rate of superparasitism (Outreman et al., 2001a; 2001b). Anyway, if unparasitised hosts are in short supply, most solitary parasitoids readily superparasitise, and superparasitism may even be adaptive in some situations (Janssen, 1989; van Alphen & Visser, 1990). If superparasitism occurs frequently in a parasitoid population, selection is expected to favour the best within-host contestants. Improved competitive ability under superparasitism may evolve if there is sufficient genetic variation for traits affecting this ability, and if

competitive differences among parasitoid genotypes are relatively consistent under different
environmental conditions, which are largely determined by the host and its physiology. It
would be difficult for increased intra-host competitive ability to evolve if the relative success
of competing genotypes changed in different hosts or even host genotypes. Here, these issues
are addressed in the black bean aphid, Aphis fabae, and its parasitoid Lysiphlebus fabarum.
Although little is known about natural rates of superparasitism in <i>L. fabarum</i> , it is clear that
this species readily superparasitises in laboratory cultures (C. Vorburger, personal
observation). This system is uniquely suited for such a study because unlike most other
parasitoids of aphids, L. fabarum reproduces by thelytokous parthenogenesis in the majority
of populations (Belshaw et al., 1999; Starý, 1999; Vorburger et al., 2009). Given that aphids
are also capable of parthenogenesis, it is possible to work with genetically homogeneous lines
of both host and parasitoid, and thus to replicate contests among the exact same parasitoid
genotypes and observe their outcome in several host genetic backgrounds (i.e. aphid clones).
This study took advantage of this possibility to address the following two questions: (i) do
different parthenogenetic lines of L. fabarum differ in their intra-host competitive ability
under superparasitism? and (ii) is the relative success of competing parasitoid lines consistent
across different genotypes of their host, Aphis fabae?

# **Material and methods**

Study organisms

The black bean aphid, *Aphis fabae*, is very common in temperate regions of the northern hemisphere. Based on the range of secondary host plants used, four subspecies of *Aphis fabae* are distinguished (Heie, 1986; Raymond *et al.*, 2001), but only the nominal subspecies *A. f.* 

fabae is considered here. In central Europe, A. f. fabae reproduces by cyclical
parthenogenesis. The parthenogenetic summer generations can cause major damage on broad
bean (Vicia faba) and sugar beet (Beta vulgaris) crops. In autumn, black bean aphids migrate
back to the primary host, the European spindle tree (Euonymus europaeus), where sexual
reproduction takes place. In the present study, three different, genetically distinct clones of A.
f. fabae were used: A06-404, A06-407 and Af6. All clones were collected in Switzerland and
used previously in a published study of susceptibility to parasitoids (Vorburger et al., 2009),
where more detailed collection information is available. For simplicity, they are referred to as
clone A (A06-404), B (A06-407) and C (Af6) hereafter.
Aphids may harbour facultative or secondary bacterial endosymbionts that can affect their
susceptibility to parasitoids (Oliver et al., 2003). This was not the case for clones A and B, but
clone C was infected with a strain of the endosymbiotic bacterium Hamiltonella defensa
which provides some, albeit limited, protection against parasitoids (Vorburger et al., 2009).
Lysiphlebus fabarum is the most important parasitoid of A. f. fabae (Starý, 2006). After
oviposition of a single egg by the female wasp, the parasitoid larva develops inside the still
active aphid. Upon completion of its larval development, the parasitoid kills the host and
pupates in a cocoon spun inside the aphid's exoskeleton. At this stage, parasitised aphids are
easily recognisable as 'mummies', from which the adult wasps emerge after several days.
Three different, parthenogenetic lines of L. fabarum referred to as lines 1, 2 and 3 were
used for the experiments described below. All were founded by a single female for which
collection details and microsatellite genotypes are provided as supplementary material in
Table S1. Unlike parthenogenesis in aphids, which is apomictic and thus results in truly clonal
progeny, parthenogenesis in L. fabarum occurs by central fusion automixis (Belshaw &
Quicke, 2003). Therefore, isofemale lines of parthenogenetic L. fabarum should not be termed
clones. Nevertheless, they can be regarded as genetically uniform, because central fusion

automixis rapidly leads to homozygosity distal to chiasmata, while leaving nonrecombining regions of the genome unaffected. This is evidenced by the fact that the microsatellite genotypes of the three experimental lines remained unchanged since their collection (C. Sandrock & C. Vorburger, unpubl. data).

### Experimental procedures

The experiment consisted in exposing all three aphid clones to all three parasitoid lines singly to obtain estimates of mummification rates in the absence of superparasitism, and to stage pairwise contests in all three aphid clones by letting aphids be attacked twice by different parasitoid lines to determine the outcome of intra-host competition.

Aphid nymphs (48-72 h old, mostly 2<sup>nd</sup> instar) were exposed to wasps in 3 cm Petri dishes and monitored. When an attack by the parasitoid was observed, the aphids were immediately removed from the dish and either placed on a plant (singly parasitised treatment) or moved to another dish containing wasps of a different parasitoid line (superparasitised treatment). When the aphids had suffered a second attack, they were also transferred to plants. The order of the first and second parasitoid line to attack the aphids was alternated, although survival of sameaged larvae was found to be independent of oviposition sequence (Mackauer *et al.*, 1992). The goal was to have 50 replicate aphids of each clone attacked by each parasitoid line and each pairwise combination of parasitoid lines. To keep the daily workload manageable, the experiment had to be temporally staggered such that approx. 10 replicates of each combination were done per day over five consecutive days. The five days were treated as temporal blocks in all analyses.

The attacked aphids were reared at 20°C and a 16 h photoperiod on seedlings of *Vicia faba* (var. Scirocco) covered with cellophane bags. When the mummies had formed, they were

isolated in gelatine capsules until the parasitoids emerged. The wasps were then dried at 56°C
for 22 h and weighed to the nearest microgram on a Mettler MX5 microbalance (Mettler-
Toledo GmbH, Greifensee, Switzerland) to obtain an estimate of body size. Which parasitoid
won the larval competition in superparasitised aphids was determined by genotyping the
wasps at six microsatellite loci, Lysi02, Lysi03, Lysi05, Lysi06, Lysi07 and Lysi08 (Sandrock
et al., 2007), amplified in one multiplex PCR reaction. DNA extractions and PCR conditions
followed the protocols described in Sandrock et al. (2007).
Because of the generally low rates of mummification observed in the experiment, a small
follow-up experiment was conducted to test whether parasitoid attacks in the rather artificial
environment of a Petri dish indeed resulted in oviposition. For this, $2^{nd}$ instar nymphs of $A$ .
fabae were placed singly into a Petri dish containing approx. 15 female L. fabarum and
removed after they were observed to have been attacked either once or twice. Nine singly and
nine doubly attacked aphids were subsequently dissected under a microscope at $100 \times$
magnification to search for parasitoid eggs. The aphids used in this follow-up experiment
belonged to clone B, and the parasitoids we used belonged to a parthenogenetic line of $L$ .
fabarum that was not included in the main experiment (line 06-533, collected on 2 July 2006
in Hessen, Germany).
Statistical analyses
Statistical analyses were carried out in R 2.7.1 (R Development Core Team, 2008).
Mummification rates of singly parasitised aphids were analysed at the level of individual
aphids (1 = mummified, 0 = not mummified), using a generalised linear model with a logit
link and binomial errors, testing for the effects of block, aphid clone, parasitoid line and the
aphid × parasitoid interaction. Mummification rates of superparasitised aphids were analysed

with a similar model, but testing for the effect of pairwise combinations rather than individual lines of parasitoids.

For each host clone and pairwise combination of parasitoid lines, the frequencies of wasps of each line emerging from superparasitised aphids were compared with expected frequencies using  $\chi^2$ -tests. Two different tests were carried out. One simply compared the observed frequencies with a 1:1 ratio (Test 1 in Table 1), which was justified given that the variation among parasitoid lines in mummification rates of singly parasitised aphids was non-significant (see Results). The second test (Test 2 in Table 1) compared the observed frequencies with expected frequencies when nevertheless accounting for the (nonsignificant) variation in mummification rates of singly parasitised aphids on the different aphid clones. From these, the probabilities that only the larva of the first parasitoid line developed ( $p_1$ ), that only the larva of the second line developed ( $p_2$ ), and that both larvae developed initially in the host ( $p_{1+2}$ ) were calculated. The expected numbers for each line under the null hypothesis that the two lines are equal competitors when both larvae develop was then obtained as follows:

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$$N_1 = \frac{p_1 + 0.5 p_{1+2}}{p_1 + p_2 + p_{1+2}} \times N \qquad N_2 = \frac{p_2 + 0.5 p_{1+2}}{p_1 + p_2 + p_{1+2}} \times N$$

using Fisher's exact test (Test 3 in Table 1).

where N is the total number of wasp obtained from each pairwise combination, and  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  are the expected numbers of these belonging to the first and second line, respectively. Finally, it was tested whether the relative numbers of wasps of the two lines emerging from superparasitised aphids were independent from the aphid clone in which they developed,

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Proportion mummified

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Overall, the rates of successful parasitism were rather low in our experiment. Of totally 824 aphid nymphs that were attacked either once or twice, only 200 were mummified (24%). From these, 170 wasps emerged. No adult parasitoid emerged from 30 mummies, but in all but two of these cases it was possible to identify the line that pupated (i.e. the 'winner' in superparasitised aphids) by genotyping the mummy. The low rates of mummification are only partially explicable by observed attacks that did not result in oviposition. Of nine singly attacked aphids dissected in the follow-up experiment, two parasitoid eggs were found in one individual, one egg in five individuals and no egg was detected in three individuals. In the nine aphids attacked twice, two contained three eggs, two contained two eggs and five contained one egg. Based on these numbers, a crude estimate can be derived that about 30% of observed attacks may not have resulted in oviposition in our main experiment (33% when calculated from the singly attacked aphids, 28% from the doubly attacked aphids). This is likely to be an upper bound, because it cannot be excluded that some of the small and unpigmented eggs were overlooked in dissections. The follow-up experiment also showed that what looks like a single attack may sometimes result in the deposition of more than one egg. The proportions of singly parasitised aphids that were mummified are illustrated in Figure 1a. These proportions did not differ significantly among the three aphid clones used (GLM,  $\chi^2_2 = 1.66$ , P = 0.44), nor among the three parthenogenetic lines of L. fabarum ( $\chi^2_2 = 0.34$ , P = 0.85). The aphid clone × parasitoid line interaction was also not significant ( $\chi^2_4$  = 4.42, P =

0.35), but there was a marginally significant block effect ( $\chi^2_4 = 9.48$ , P = 0.05).

In superparasitised aphids, mummification rates were slightly but not significantly higher  $(\chi^2)_1 = 3.16$ , P = 0.08) (Fig. 1b). Again, there was no significant variation among aphid clones  $(\chi^2)_2 = 0.20$ , P = 0.90), nor was there a significant difference among the three pairwise combinations of parasitoid lines  $(\chi^2)_2 = 1.18$ , P = 0.55). However, there was a significant interaction between host clone and parasitoid combination  $(\chi^2)_4 = 17.30$ , P = 0.002), mainly because very few wasps emerged from aphid clone A when it was simultaneously attacked by the wasp lines 2 and 3 (Fig. 1b). The block effect on mummification was not significant in superparasitised aphids  $(\chi^2)_4 = 6.94$ , P = 0.14).

# Outcome of superparasitism

host in which larval competition takes place.

In three out of nine different superparasitism assays (three pairwise combinations of wasp lines × three aphid clones), the relative frequencies of competing lines among the emerging wasps differed significantly from the expectation under the null hypothesis, independent of whether variation in mummification rates of singly parasitised aphids was accounted for or whether simply tested against a 1:1 ratio (Table 1, tests 1 and 2). All three significant cases concerned aphid clone C (Table 1, Fig. 1b). Wasp line 1 was outcompeted by both other lines when larval competition took place within clone C, but this was not the case in the other two aphids. When wasp line 2 and 3 competed within C, most emerging adults belonged to line 3 (Table 1, Fig. 1b).

Generally, the outcome of larval competition in superparasitised aphids appeared relatively inconsistent across the three host clones. At least in one case, line 1 vs. line 2, this was supported by a significant test result from Fisher's exact test of independence (Table 1), indicating that the relative success of parasitoid lines under superparasitism depends on the

### Parasitoid size

The analysis of wasp dry masses indicated a highly significant effect of aphid clone and a marginally non-significant effect of parasitoid line, but there was no significant difference in mass between wasps emerging from singly or superparasitised aphids (Table 2). On average, wasps were heaviest when emerging from aphid clone C (Fig. 2). There was also a significant aphid clone × parasitoid line interaction, indicating that the relative sizes of wasps from the three lines depended on which aphid clone they developed in. To a limited extent, these size differences reflected the relative success under superparasitism. Parasitoid line 1, which was a poor intra-host competitor in aphid clone C, also produced the smallest wasps in this clone (Fig. 2). On the other hand, parasitoid line 3 produced by far the heaviest wasps on aphid clone A, but it was not more successful than the other lines in parasitising this clone (Figs. 1 & 2).

### Discussion

This study examined the outcome of superparasitism between parthenogenetic lines of the parasitoid L. fabarum in different clones of their host, A. f. fabae. It showed that although parasitoid genotypes appear to vary in their intra-host competitive ability, the outcome of superparasitism in any given instance is difficult to predict, because it may be influenced substantially by the host clone within which parasitoids compete. Thus, at least under a high risk of superparasitism, the genotypic composition of hosts as well as competitors may strongly influence a parasitoid's fitness. Similar to other forms of genotype  $\times$  environment or genotype  $\times$  genotype interactions, this is likely to contribute to the maintenance of genotypic

247	diversity (Maynard Smith & Hoekstra, 1980; Weeks & Hoffmann, 1998; Carius et al., 2001;
248	Niklasson et al., 2004; Tétard-Jones et al., 2007; Seppälä et al., 2009).
249	The strongest biases in genotype ratios of wasps emerging from superparasitised aphids
250	occurred in clone $C$ , the only aphid clone infected with the secondary endosymbiont $H$ .
251	defensa. Although the effects of aphid genotype and endosymbiont cannot be separated here,
252	it is worth considering that <i>H. defensa</i> might influence intra-host competition of parasitoids.
253	In the pea aphid (Acyrthosiphon pisum) as well as in the black bean aphid used here, H.
254	defensa can strongly increase resistance to parasitoids (Oliver et al., 2003; Vorburger et al.,
255	2009). This protective effect not only differs among isolates of <i>H. defensa</i> (Oliver et al., 2005;
256	Degnan & Moran, 2008), it is also differentially effective against different parasitoid lines
257	(Vorburger et al., 2009, R. Rouchet & C. Vorburger, unpubl. data), indicating that parasitoids
258	exhibit genetic variation their ability to overcome symbiont-conferred resistance. The strain of
259	H. defensa harboured by C clearly does not provide complete protection, as all three lines of
260	L. fabarum used here were able to parasitise it in the absence of competitors (Fig. 1a).
261	Nevertheless, it is possible that the presence of <i>H. defensa</i> might affect the parasitoid lines
262	unequally and thus put one competitor at a disadvantage under superparasitism. This could
263	have been the case for line 1 in our experiment. It was outcompeted in clone C and also
264	achieved the lowest mummification rates when parasitising this H. defensa-bearing clone
265	singly (Fig. 1). However, the generally low proportions of aphids mummified precluded a
266	decision whether the latter was a meaningful difference.
267	Mummification rates in this study were substantially lower than in another study on the
268	same system (Vorburger et al., 2009), but they cannot be directly compared, as in Vorburger
269	et al. (2009), the aphids are likely to have suffered multiple rather than just single or double
270	attacks by wasps. The small follow-up experiment suggested that up to a third of observed
271	attacks in the main experiment would not have resulted in oviposition by parasitoids. This

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cannot fully explain the low rates of mummification, especially not in the superparasitism treatment, becaused there the vast majority of aphids must have received at least one parasitoid egg. Most survivors thus seem to have successfully resisted the parasitoids. The follow-up experiment als showed that a substantial fraction of doubly attacked aphids would only have received one parasitoid egg, which means that some apparent 'winners' in the superparasitism treatment did in fact not have to compete with another parasitoid larva. While this has to be acknowledged, it is unlikely to explain the observed patterns in the results. Aphid parasitoids can use the presence of aphid cornicle secretions on an aphid's body as a cue of previous attacks and may thus have been less inclined to sting already parasitised aphids in the experiment (Outreman et al., 2001a). Yet attacks were visually observed in this experiment, and sting rejection, i.e. stinging but refraining from oviposition based on internal cues of superparasitism, is only expected to occur at longer time intervals after the first oviposition (Outreman et al., 2001a). Even if sting rejections had occurred, they should not have biased the results because the order of parasitoid lines attacking the hosts was alternated in the superparasitism treatment. Therefore, the conclusion remains that the host clone somehow modified the interaction between parasitoid lines attacking the same individual. The host clone did not only influence the outcome of intra-host competition, it also had a highly significant influence on the dry mass of emerging parasitoids. This is not surprising and might simply reflect host size. It is known that A. f. fabae exhibits clonal variation for adult mass, and there is some evidence that infection with *H. defensa* has a positive effect on aphid body size (Vorburger et al., 2009), which might explain why wasps were heaviest on average when they developed in clone C. One would also expect an effect of the wasp's own genotype on adult mass, which was only supported to a limited extent, because the variation among wasp lines was marginally non-significant. More interesting was the finding that the aphid clone × parasitoid line interaction had a significant effect on wasp dry mass, re-iterating

the point that relative fitness of parasitoid genotypes in this system is determined by complex
interactions with their hosts. The effect that superparasitism might have on parasitoid body
size is somewhat difficult to predict. On one hand, the winner might have incurred costs from
having to compete with a conspecific and therefore emerge smaller, on the other hand, there is
some evidence that the growth potential is higher in superparasitised aphids because they
ingest more food than singly parasitised ones (Bai & Mackauer, 1992; Mackauer & Chau,
2001). The present study detected no significant mass difference between wasps emerging
from singly or superparasitised aphids, suggesting that these effects have limited importance
in L. fabarum, or else that they counteract each other.

In summary, this study suggests that the aphid parasitoid *L. fabarum* exhibits genetic

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**Table 1.** Numbers of mummies produced by competing parasitoid lines under superparasitism for each pairwise combination, and tests against different null expectations (see Methods).

Line 1 vs. Line 2:					
		Parasitoi	d		
	Aphid clone	Line 1	Line 2	Test 1 $(H_0 = 1 : 1 \text{ ratio})$	Test 2 ( $H_0$ = equal competitors)
•	A	6	7	$\chi^2_1 = 0.077, P = 0.782$	$\chi^2_1 = 0.169, P = 0.681$
	В	5	7	$\chi^2_1 = 0.333, P = 0.564$	$\chi^2_1 = 2.503, P = 0.114$
	C	0	13	$\chi^2_1 = 13.00, P < 0.001$	$\chi^2_1 = 8.556, P = 0.003$
	Overall	11	27		
	Test 3 (H <sub>0</sub> : Parasitoid success host-independent)	Fisher's exact test $P = 0.015$		_	
Line	e 1 vs. Line 3				
		Parasitoi	d		
	Aphid clone	Line 1	Line 3	Test 1 $(H_0 = 1 : 1 \text{ ratio})$	Test 2 ( H <sub>0</sub> = equal competitors)
•	A	8	11	$\chi^2_1 = 0.474, P = 0.491$	$\chi^2_1 = 2.998, P = 0.083$
	В	7	5	$\chi^2_1 = 0.333, P = 0.564$	$\chi^2_1 = 0.803, P = 0.370$
	C	1	8	$\chi^2_1 = 5.444, P = 0.020$	$\chi^2_1 = 3.423, P = 0.064$
	Overall	Test 3 H <sub>0</sub> : Parasitoid success Fisher's exact test			
	Test 3 (H <sub>0</sub> : Parasitoid success host-independent)				
Line	e 2 vs. Line 3				
		Parasitoi	d		
	Aphid clone	Line 2	Line 3	Test 1 $(H_0 = 1 : 1 \text{ ratio})$	Test 2 ( $H_0$ = equal competitors)
•	A	2	2	$\chi^2_1 = 0.000, P = 1.000$	$\chi^2_1 = 0.155, P = 0.693$
	В	4	10	$\chi^2_1 = 2.571, P = 0.109$	$\chi^2_1 = 0.087, P = 0.768$
	C	2	14	$\chi^2_1 = 9.000, P = 0.003$	$\chi^2_1 = 9.936, P = 0.002$
	Overall	8	26		
	Test 3 (H <sub>0</sub> : Parasitoid success host-independent)	Fisher's exact test $P = 0.178$		_	

Table 2. Analysis of variance results for parasitoid dry mass.

Effect	d.f.	MS (× 1000)	F	P
Block	4	0.061	1.024	0.397
Aphid clone	2	0.430	7.269	< 0.001
Parasitoid line	2	0.165	2.792	0.065
Treatment (single vs. super)	1	0.014	0.236	0.628
Aphid clone × parasitoid line	4	0.168	2.840	0.026
Aphid clone × treatment	2	0.022	0.379	0.686
Parasitoid line × treatment	2	0.141	2.388	0.095
Aphid $\times$ parasitoid $\times$ treatment	4	0.056	0.946	0.439
Residual	148	0.059		

# Figure legends

**Fig. 1.** Proportions of aphids mummified by each line of *Lysiphlebus fabarum* in (a) singly parasitised and (b) superparasitised aphids belonging to three different clones of *Aphis fabae fabae*. Numbers above bars indicate the number of aphids tested.

**Fig. 2.** Mean dry mass (± SE) of adult *Lysiphlebus fabarum* emerging from mummies of the three clones of *Aphis fabae fabae*.

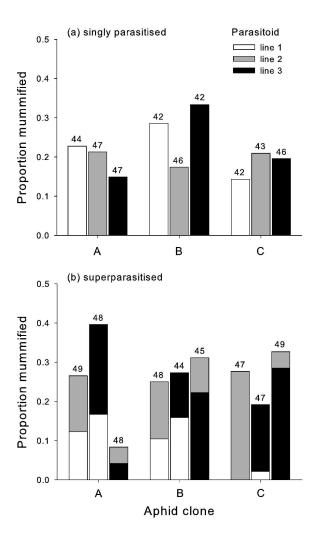


Fig. 1. Proportions of aphids mummified by each line of Lysiphlebus fabarum in (a) singly parasitised and (b) superparasitised aphids belonging to three different clones of Aphis fabae fabae. Numbers above bars indicate the number of aphids tested.  $259 \times 262 \text{mm} \ (600 \times 600 \ \text{DPI})$ 

