This document is the accepted manuscript version of the following article: Cayetano, L., & Vorburger, C. (2015). Symbiont-conferred protection against Hymenopteran parasitoids in aphids: how general is it? Ecological Entomology, 40(1), 85-93. http://doi.org/10.1111/een.12161

1 Symbiont-conferred protection against Hymenopteran parasitoids in

- 2 aphids: how general is it?
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- 8 Running title: Generality of protection by symbionts
- 9 **Keywords:** Aphis fabae, coevolution, genotype-by-genotype interactions, Hamiltonella
- 10 *defensa*, host-parasite interactions, multispecies interactions, protective symbionts
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Abstract

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1. Hosts are often targeted by multiple species of parasites, leading to a confluence of selective pressures on them. In response, hosts may either evolve defences that act very generally, or specific defenses against particular parasites. Aphids are attacked by multiple species of endoparasitoid wasps, and there is clear evidence that heritable endosymbionts can confer resistance against some of these wasps. Less clear is how symbiont-conferred resistance in a single host acts against multiple parasitoid species. 2. We addressed this question in the black bean aphid, Aphis fabae (Scopoli). Unprotected aphids and aphids protected by three different strains of the defensive endosymbiont Hamiltonella defensa were exposed to four species of parasitic wasps: the parthenogenetic species Lysiphlebus fabarum (Marshall), which was represented by three different asexual lines, and the sexual species Aphidius colemani (Viereck), Binodoxys angelicae (Halliday) and Aphelinus chaonia (Walker). 3. Hamiltonella defensa provided strong protection against L. fabarum and Aphidius colemani, but there was no evidence that *H. defensa*-infected aphids were more resistant to the other parasitoid species. While Aphidius colemani was virtually unable to parasitize any aphids harbouring *H. defensa*, there was variation among the three asexual lines of *L. fabarum* in how susceptible they were to the defense provided by the different symbiont strains, resulting in a significant genotype-by-genotype interaction. 4. Our results suggest that symbiosis with *H. defensa* does not provide aphids with a general defense against parasitoid wasps, possibly because some species have evolved specific counter-adaptations or because biological differences preclude the symbiont's effectiveness against these species.

Particular host species are often targeted by multiple species of parasites (Schmid-Hempel,

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Introduction

41	2011; Starý, 2006). This can lead to complex coevolutionary outcomes in which a confluence
42	of selective pressures acts upon hosts and parasites (Caldarelli et al., 1998; Hackett-Jones et
43	al., 2009; Osnas & Dobson, 2012). Depending upon the frequency of encounter between these
44	organisms and the degree of competition between parasites, hosts can come to adopt a broad
45	defense against multiple parasites, or towards stronger defense against particular parasites
46	and weaker defense against others (Britton, 2009; Nuismer & Thompson, 2006; Pires &
47	Guimaraes, 2013; Poitrineau et al., 2003; Takasu, 1998; Taraschewski, 2006), while parasites
48	can continue to specialize on particular hosts or to target multiple hosts, albeit often less
49	effectively (Johnson et al., 2009; Krasnov et al., 2004; Poisot et al., 2011; Sato, 1995). The
50	degree of specificity in the host's defenses thus exerts an important influence on the evolution
51	of parasite host ranges.
52	Aphids are an important and well-studied example of hosts that must deal with attacks from
53	multiple species of parasites, most notably Hymenopteran parasitoids. Many aphid species are
54	known to be targeted by at least two and often very many species of parasitic wasps (e.g.
55	Hackett-Jones et al., 2009; Müer et al., 1999; Starý, 2006)The aphid considered in this
56	study, Aphis fabae (Hemiptera: Aphididae), is an important crop pest that is widely distributed
57	across temperate regions of the northern hemisphere (Blackman & Eastop, 2007). Based on
58	lists of aphid-parasitoid associations found in the field (Kavallieratos et al., 2004; Star, 2006),
59	it can be parasitised by more than a dozen species of parasitoid wasps from the subfamily
60	Aphidiinae (Hymenoptera, Braconidae). However, one species is clearly the most important
61	parasitoid of A. fabae: Lysiphlebus fabarum. In two field-based investigations in Europe this
62	species comprised 81% and 92% of primary parasitoids that emerged from A. fabae hosts,
63	respectively (R. Rouchet & C. Vorburger, unpublished data, 2009; Rothacher, 2014),. Like
64	other members of the Aphidiinae, <i>L. fabarum</i> is a koinobiont parasitoid, i.e. it does not arrest
65	host development. The larva hatching from the egg injected by the female wasp develops

66	inside the still active aphid and only kills it at the end of its larval period. Notably, most
67	populations of L. fabarum are asexual, producing diploid daughters without fertilization
68	(thelytoky) (Belshaw et al., 1999). Apart from two very closely related taxa from the same
69	genus (L. cardui and L. confusus) that are likely to be conspecific with L. fabarum (Sandrock et
70	al., 2011b), the second most common aphidiine parasitoid of A. fabae in central Europe is
71	Binodoxys angelicae. It comprised 14% of aphidiines emerging from A. fabae in Swiss and
72	French populations (R. Rouchet & C. Vorburger, unpublished data, 2009). This species is
73	notable in that it uses special abdominal structures to facilitate more precise oviposition into
74	the host (Völkl & Mackauer, 2000). A third important parasitoid wasp of A. fabae is the
75	diminutive Aphelinus choania (Hymenoptera: Chalcidoidea: Aphelinidae). In the field
76	experiment of Rothacher (2014), this wasp comprised 2.3 % of all primary parasitoids
77	emerging from A. fabae, that is nearly a third of the parasitoids that did not belong to L.
78	fabarum.
79	Black bean aphids are often strongly protected against <i>L. fabarum</i> by the secondary
80	endosymbiont Hamiltonella defensa (Enterobacteriales: Enterobacteriaceae) (Schmid et al.,
81	2012; Vorburger et al., 2009), which is also found in numerous other aphids (Degnan & Moran
82	2008; Oliver et al., 2010). It also confers resistance to parasitoids in pea aphids
83	(Acyrthosiphon pisum Harris) (Ferrari et al., 2004; Oliver et al., 2005; Oliver et al., 2003), but
84	apparently not in grain aphids (Sitobion avenae) (Łukasik et al., 2013). This bacterium is
85	transmitted vertically with high fidelity (Darby & Douglas, 2003; Peccoud et al., 2014). With
86	much less frequency, it can also be transmitted horizontally, either via the contaminated
87	ovipositors of parasitoid wasps (Gehrer & Vorburger, 2012) or through sex (Moran & Dunbar,
88	2006). Despite the strong benefits conferred by H. defensa and its multiple means of
89	transmission, it does not typically reach fixation in natural populations of aphids and tends to
90	be found at moderate frequencies only (Chen & Purcell, 1997; Oliver et al., 2006; Oliver et al.,
91	2014; Russell et al., 2013; Tsuchida et al., 2002). In a collection comprising over 400
92	individuals from different locations in France and Switzerland (R. Rouchet, J. Herzog & C.
93	Vorburger, unpublished data), the symbiont was found in just over half of A. fabae individuals.
	This suggests that, in contexts in

94	which parasitoids are absent or rare, harbouring <i>H. defensa</i> imposes substantial life history
95	costs (Oliver et al., 2008; Simon et al., 2011; Vorburger & Gouskov, 2011). It is likely that a
96	variety of factors, some of which may play into this cost-benefit equation, result in the
97	moderate frequency of these symbionts, including interactions with host genotype (Vorburger
98	& Gouskov, 2011) and temperature (Bensadia et al., 2006; Russell & Moran, 2006), or co-
99	infections with other bacteria (Guay et al., 2009).
100	While it is known that <i>H. defensa</i> provides protection against <i>L. fabarum</i> in <i>A. fabae</i> and
101	against Aphidius ervi Haliday and Aphidius aedyi (Hymenoptera: Braconidae: Aphidiinae) in
102	the pea aphid (Hemiptera: Aphididae) (Ferrari et al., 2004; Oliver et al., 2005; Oliver et al.,
103	2003; Vorburger et al., 2009), no investigations have heretofore explicitly tested the defense
104	conferred by multiple variants of a particular symbiont against multiple species of parasitoid to
105	assess the generality of protection. Here we report such a test in which we exposed black
106	bean aphids harbouring one of three different strains of <i>H. defensa</i> to four species of
107	parasitoids. In addition to the aforementioned species, we included the aphidiine Aphidius
108	colemani, which is a less important natural enemy of A. fabae in the field populations we
109	study (R. Rouchet & C. Vorburger, unpublished data), but is an important biocontrol agent
110	used for greenhouse releases (Fernandez & Nentwig, 1997) that readily develops in A. fabae
111	(Vorburger <i>et al.</i> , 2010).
112	Determining whether <i>H. defensa</i> provides a general defense against various parasitoid species
113	or a more targeted defense against particular species in this important aphid/symbiont system
114	will contribute to a more holistic view of the selective pressures acting on <i>H. defensa</i> and <i>A.</i>
115	fabae, and perhaps offer insights into how these forces are driving the frequency of the
116	bacterium in the populations of this aphid.

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Methods

Experimental lines

We utilized asexual lines of <i>L. fabarum</i> , sexual stocks of the other parasitoid species <i>B.</i>
angelicae, Aphidius colemani and Aphelinus chaonia, and asexual lines of the host, A. fabae.
With a uniform host genetic background, the effects of different endosymbiont strains can be
measured unconfounded by host genetic variation; for those lines of parasitoids that are also
asexual, the exact same combinations of hosts and parasitoids can be replicated, providing the
necessary power to test for <i>G x G</i> interactions.
Our experiment used four sublines of a single clone of <i>A. fabae fabae</i> , the nominal subspecies
of A. fabae. This clone (nr. 407) was collected in July 2006 in St. Margrethen, Switzerland, and
has been confirmed to be free of any known facultative symbionts of aphids (Vorburger et al.,
2009). It has since been maintained on broad bean plants (Vicia faba) under summer-like
conditions (20°C with a 16h photoperiod) that ensure continuous parthenogenetic reproduction
in black bean aphids. Clone 407 was chosen for the current investigation because it is known
to be highly susceptible to parasitoids when it is symbiont-free (Vorburger et al., 2009). The
other three sublines used here were each infected with a different isolate of <i>H. defensa</i> ,
acquired from the hemolymph of donor clones via microinjections as explained in Vorburger $\it et$
al. (2010). The injections were performed at least 30 generations before the sublines' use in
the current study. These sublines comprised stable, heritable symbiotic associations that were
corroborated by diagnostic PCR just prior to the experiment. The infected sublines were
designated 407 ^{H15} , 407 ^{H76} and 407 ^{H402} (with superscripts denoting the respective symbiont
isolates). The three <i>H. defensa</i> isolates represent different strains based on sequence
variation at three housekeeping genes (L. Cayetano, JC. Simon & C. Vorburger, unpublished
data) and they were chosen on the basis of their known range of effectiveness in conferring
resistance against different lines of <i>L. fabarum</i> (Cayetano & Vorburger, 2013). H15 was
originally obtained from a clone that was collected in Toscana, Italy, on 8 May 2006, the clone
from which H76 was sourced was collected in La Grande Motte, France, on 5 May 2006, and

the clone from which H402 was sourced was collected in St. Margrethen, Switzerland, on 1
June 2006. Despite their geographically widespread origin, the clones from which these
isolates were obtained should not be assumed to originate from truly independent populations.
Many aphid species have a high propensity for dispersal (Llewellyn et al., 2003; Loxdale et al.,
1993), including our study species A. fabae, for which a population genetic survey found very
low levels of genetic differentiation across Europe (Sandrock et al., 2011a).
Lysiphlebus fabarum was represented in this study as three asexual isofemale lines,
designated 07-64, 06-242, and 06-658. These were selected for their range of effectiveness in
successfully parasitizing different sublines of A. fabae (Cayetano & Vorburger, 2013; Rouchet
& Vorburger, 2012; Schmid et al., 2012). They were originally obtained from A. f. fabae in the
wild, making them appropriate for this study because of their evident adaptation to these
aphids in a natural setting. 07-64 was obtained in Wildberg, Switzerland in 2007, 06-242 was
obtained from Quartino, Ticino, Switzerland in 2006, and 06-658 was obtained from Madingley
Cambridgeshire, UK in 2006. Thelytokous lines of L. fabarum are able to restore diploidy using
central fusion automixis, thereby losing heterozygosity (Belshaw & Quicke, 2003). Our wasps
are thus largely genetically constant within lines, though they lack true clonality. Adult wasps
emerge at about two weeks after oviposition.
Aphelinus chaonia were collected in Steinmaur, Switzerland on August 2012, B. angelicae
were collected from aphid colonies in Oerlikon, Zurich, Switzerland in June 2013, and Aphidius
colemani was kindly provided by Nickolas Kavallieratos (Benaki Phytopathological Institute,
Kifissia, Greece) from a large sample obtained in Athens, Greece in April 2013. After being
acquired, the sexual species in this study were maintained as well-mixed mass populations in
order to avoid inbreeding.
While the sex of individual Aphidius colemani and B. angelicae can be clearly determined by
unaided visual inspection (with female abdomens being more bulbous and pointed than those
of males), such discrimination could not be reliably performed for the diminutive Aphelinus
chaonia, which had to be inspected carefully under a microscope. They were lightly

anaesthetized with ethyl acetate vapour and segregated by sex according to the distinct genital structures of females. They were placed into separate Eppendorf tubes and allowed to recover until they were visibly active again (judged by rapid movement) before use in the experiment.

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Experimental design and procedures

This experiment quantified the resistance provided by different isolates of *H. defensa* against six different lines of parasitoids, comprising three lines encompassing one asexual species (L. fabarum), and three sexual lines corresponding to one sexual species each (Aphidius colemani, B. angelicae, Aphelinus chaonia). The uninfected subline and the three H. defensainfected sublines of aphid clone 407 were exposed to each of the six parasitoid lines for a full factorial design with 24 different combinations (4 aphid lines x 6 parasitoid lines) that were replicated ten times. One replicate per combination was placed at random positions in each of ten different plastic trays that represented experimental blocks (randomized complete blocks design). Five blocks were processed on each of two consecutive days and all blocks were kept in the same climate chamber at a constant 20°C. The 240 aphid colonies from which replicates were derived were maintained for two generations prior to experimental treatments in order to prevent between-line variation arising from environmental maternal and/or grand-maternal effects carried over from the original stock culture. Fresh seedlings of broad beans grown in 0.07 litre plastic pots were used in each generation. For the test generation, three adult females were placed on new plants contained in 0.07 litre pots (encased in cellophane bags) and removed again after they had reproduced for 24 h. Aphid nymphs on each plant were counted 48 hours after the mothers had been removed, that is when they were 48-72 h old. These experimental colonies had a mean size of 18.2 ± 5.4 (S.D.) individuals. The juveniles were then exposed to a single wasp per cage for 24 h. Nine days after aphids were exposed to wasps, colonies were checked for 'mummies' (successfully parasitized individuals containing a cocoon with the parasitoid pupa). Mummies produced by Aphidius colemani, B. angelicae and L. fabarum are easily discernable due to

their brown colouration. The mummies were counted along with the surviving individuals from the initial batch of juveniles (now adults). *Aphelinus choania* develops more slowly than the aphidiine wasps and forms black and inconspicuous mummies that are difficult to recognize in a colony of black aphids. Therefore, we checked the number of aphids still present after nine days, i.e. when we scored all other replicates as well, but then counted the number of wasps produced in each replicate when they emerged approximately three weeks after exposure to the parasitoids. However, only two of the 40 replicates exposed to this parasitoid produced any wasps at all, precluding a meaningful analysis of this treatment. We suspected that females may require stimulation by the presence of males to oviposit more readily, so we repeated the exposures to *Aphelinus chaonia* in a follow-up experiment involving only this parasitoid species, using the same procedures but adding one female and one male wasp per cage. This produced a modest but appreciable increase in parasitization by this species (see Results).

Statistics

Two measures were used to quantify susceptibility to parasitoids: the proportion of all aphids exposed to parasitoids that became mummified, and the proportion of mummies among all individuals still present on the day of counting (minus the individuals that died in the 9 days between wasp exposure and mummy counting and were thus unaccounted for). With the exception of *B. angelicae* (see Figure S1 in Supplementary Material), the results for both measures were qualitatively the same, so we report only the results using proportion of mummies among all aphids exposed to wasps. The analysis of the alternative measure is provided as Supplementary material. Proportions were arcsin-square root transformed and analysed with linear models, testing for the effects of block, aphid subline, parasitoid line (comprising the three asexual lines of *L. fabarum* in addition to *Aphidius colemani and B. angelicae*) or parasitoid species (in which the asexual lines of *L. fabarum* were pooled together), and their interactions.

In 8 replicates, no mummies were formed and all aphids had died before scoring. These were
excluded from the analysis of the proportion of mummies among individuals still present on
day 9 after exposure (Table S1).
During the counting of mummies and surviving aphids, it became apparent that there was
variation for the mortality incurred by aphids among colonies exposed to different parasitoid
species. While comparing such mortality was not a motivation for the design of the experiment,
it was appreciated that such differences conceivably have implications for biocontrol (see
Discussion). Therefore, we decided to also analyse variation in mortality that was not due to
mummification. This was estimated as the proportion of individuals that did neither survive nor
get mummified, i.e. that must have died soon after exposure to parasitoids. For this colony size
was used as a covariate, while block was excluded as its effect was far from significant ($P =$
0.956) and its variance was therefore pooled into the residual term of the analysis. A simple
linear model is presented to capture the most striking and pertinent overall result, namely of
wasp species (see Results).
Replicates exposed to Aphelinus choania could not be included in the overall analyses
because this treatment had to be repeated. They were thus analysed separately. We also ran
separate linear model analyses for all other parasitoid lines, followed by post hoc comparisons
(Tukey's honest significant difference, or HSD) among aphid sublines to test which infected
sublines differed significantly from the uninfected control (to gauge whether there is significant
protection) and whether there were differences between infected sublines.
Data was entered and analysed with SPSS/PASW 18.

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Results

Susceptibility to parasitism

There was significant variation among aphid sublines in the susceptibility to parasitism (Table 1a, left), largely due to Hamiltonella-free sublines experiencing higher rates of parasitism overall than infected sublines ($F_{1.181}$ = 49.549, P < 0.001; Fig. 1). Parasitoid lines also differed significantly in the rates of parasitism they achieved and importantly, there was a significant aphid subline x parasitoid line interaction (Table 1a, left), indicating that the relative susceptibilities of the different aphid sublines depended on the parasitoid line they were attacked by. This is clearly evident in Fig. 1, which also reports the post-hoc comparisons among aphid sublines for each line of the parasitoids. *Aphidius colemani*, for example, successfully parasitized approximately 40% of the aphids uninfected with Hamiltonella but almost none of the infected aphids, indicating strong protection by the symbiont. Binodoxys angelicae and Aphelinus chaonia, on the other hand, achieved lower rates of parasitism on Hamiltonella-free aphids, but they also parasitized similar proportions of the aphids harbouring Hamiltonella, hence there was no evidence for protection against these two parasitoids. Lysiphlebus fabarum achieved similar or slightly higher rates of parasitism on symbiont-free aphids as Aphidius colemani, and there was – as expected – clear evidence for protection by Hamiltonella. However, the level of protection provided by the different isolates of the symbiont depended on which asexual line of L. fabarum was considered. All isolates of Hamiltonella increased the resistance against line 06-658, but against each of the other two lines, one isolate did not provide significant protection (H402 against line 07-64 and H15 against line 06-242, respectively; Fig. 1). This is the reason why the effects of aphid subline and the aphid subline x parasitoid line interaction remained significant when the analysis was restricted to Hamiltonella-infected sublines only (Table 1a, right). The interaction is driven by a strong genotype-by-genotype interaction between the Hamiltonella isolates and the asexual lines of L. fabarum ($F_{4.72}$ = 6.486, P < 0.001 for the aphid subline x parasitoid line interaction in an analysis restricted to the three *L. fabarum* lines and aphids harbouring *Hamiltonella*).

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277	<table 1="" goes="" here=""></table>
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280	When the analysis of parasitism rates was carried out at the level of parasitoid species by
281	pooling the three asexual lines of <i>L. fabarum</i> (Table 1b, left), there was a significant effect of
282	parasitoid species as well as significant variation among aphid sublines and a significant aphid
283	subline x parasitoid species interaction. The latter two effects reflect that the aphids harbouring
284	Hamiltonella were more resistant, but only against two of the four parasitoid species tested.
285	When the analysis at the level of parasitoid species is restricted to aphids with Hamiltonella,
286	these two effects are no longer significant (Table 1b, right).
287	Variation in mortality not due to mummification
288	Parasitoids differed in the mortality they inflicted on aphids that were not mummified (Table 2;
289	Fig. 2). Binodoxys angelicae was clearly the most harmful species, leaving relatively few
290	survivors to count in colonies exposed to the wasp. The mortality apparently inflicted by B.
291	angelicae did not differ among aphid sublines ($F_{3,35}$ = 1.181, P = 0.331). Aphidius colemani and
292	L. fabarum imposed relatively little, if any, harm on non-mummified aphids and did not
293	significantly differ from one another (Fig. 2).
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298	It cannot be ruled out that the overall pattern was partially driven by colony size (Table 2),
299	which may have introduced competition for resources on these small plants. Indeed there was

a weak but significant positive correlation between number of aphids and death rate (r = 0.186, P = 0.004). However, colony size did not differ significantly among colonies exposed to different parasitoids ($F_{2,197} = 1.240$, P = 0.292), lending credence to a genuine effect accruing from wasp species itself.

Aphelinus choania, not included in the main analysis, seemed to be no more harmful than either Aphidius colemani or L. fabarum (Fig. 2).

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Discussion

Here we asked how generally the defense conferred by *H. defensa* acts under a realistic scenario that any given host species is exploited by a community of multiple parasitoid species. Does symbiont-conferred protection to A. fabae extend to parasitoid species other than the most important one, L. fabarum? The answer is not straightforward. Our results showed that the bacterium provides A. fabae with very strong protection also against Aphidius colemani, a frequently used biocontrol agent, but evidently not against the more distantly related species B. angelicae and Aphelinus choania, which commonly attack A. fabae as well. To find protection against *Aphidius colemani* was not surprising given that this species is known to be susceptible to another protective symbiont of aphids, Regiella insecticola (Vorburger et al., 2010), and that its congeners A. ervi and A. eadyi are known to be susceptible to *H. defensa*-conferred protection in the pea aphid (Ferrari et al., 2004; Oliver et al., 2005; Oliver et al., 2003). Aphidius colemani was also the species most closely related and biologically similar to L. fabarum (Kambhampati et al., 2000; Shi & Chen, 2005). The observed strength of protection against Aphidius colemani was nevertheless striking. We do not have a mechanistic explanation as to why the three isolates of *H. defensa* we tested did not protect against B. angelicae and Aphelinus chaonia. In pea aphids, H. defensa-conferred protection has been shown to be mediated by phage-encoded toxins that are released by the symbiont and appear to kill the parasitoid's egg or early larva (Degnan & Moran, 2008; Moran et al.,

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2005; Oliver et al., 2009). It is possible that the relatively large eggs produced by parasitoids of the genus Aphelinus (Le Ralec, 1991) are less susceptible to these toxins than the minute eggs of the aphidiines. On the other hand, B. angelicae also belongs to the Aphidiinae, but its more elaborate oviposition method might result in a more precise choice of oviposition site such that its eggs may be less accessible to the host's defenses, including the symbiontproduced toxins. It is known that parasitoids of Drosophila selected for increased infectivity avoid host resistance by embedding their eggs in host tissue rather than injecting it into the hemolymph (Kraaijeveld et al., 2002). Notably, B. angelicae was also the parasitoid that inflicted the highest level of harm on aphids that was due to reasons other than mummification, as gauged by the high death rates of non-mummified aphids – possibly also a consequence of its peculiar oviposition behaviour. From a biocontrol standpoint, the fact that this parasitoid left few survivors is obviously significant, especially given that it inflicted high mortality irrespective of symbiont presence or variant. An important caveat for the interpretation of our results is indicated by the differences among the three thelytokous lines of L. fabarum in how they were affected by the presence of the different isolates of *H. defensa* in their host. There is clearly substantial genetic variation in this species in the ability to overcome different strains of the defensive symbiont, as already indicated by earlier work (Cayetano & Vorburger, 2013; Rouchet & Vorburger, 2012; Schmid et al., 2012; Vorburger et al., 2009). It is entirely plausible that such genetic variation is also present in the other parasitoids we tested. Although we worked with sexual mass cultures of stocks that were founded by many individuals and should therefore have comprised some genetic variation, the original collections were made at a single location only. We cannot be sure, therefore, whether the strong protective effect of *H. defensa* against *Aphidius colemani* and the apparent lack of protection against B. angelicae and Aphelinus chaonia are representative of these parasitoid species as a whole. A second caveat that applies particularly to parasitism by Aphelinus chaonia is that a moderate level of protection by H. defensa would have been difficult to detect due to the very low rates of parasitism overall, even in H. defensafree aphids. The reason for their poor success is unknown. The fact that we counted emerging

wasps rather than mummies in this species may have led to a slight underestimation of the

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true rate of parasitism, e.g. if some wasps died at the mummy stage or were overlooked due 355 356 to their tiny size, but this alone cannot explain the low rates. It is possible that the laboratory conditions under which the experiment took place, or the aphid life stage offered, may simply 357 have been suboptimal for this parasitoid. 358 These caveats notwithstanding, a clear verdict of our simple experiment remains that 359 symbionts do not protect equally well against all parasitoids. The defense by H. defensa 360 exhibits specificity with respect to parasitoid species and even genotypes within species. 361 Similar specificity is observed in the bacterial endosymbiont *Regiella insecticola* that protects 362 pea aphids against some but not all species of fungal pathogens (Parker et al., 2013; 363 Scarborough et al., 2005). The benefit a symbiont provides will thus be conditional on the local 364 community of parasitoids and pathogens. As discussed by Oliver et al. (2014) and Vorburger 365 (2014), this may have important consequences for the frequency and the dynamics of infection 366 with defensive symbionts in natural aphid populations. On one hand, the observed specificity 367 provides the ingredients for negative frequency-dependent selection driven by natural 368 enemies, and such symbiont-mediated coevolution can contribute to the maintenance of 369 symbiont diversity (Kwiatkowski et al., 2012). On the other hand, the possession of H. defensa 370 is also associated with costs to the host, such as a reduction in lifespan or lower competitive 371 ability in the absence of parasitoids (Oliver et al., 2008; Vorburger & Gouskov, 2011). 372 Depending on the relative frequencies of different parasitoids, this cost-benefit equation may 373 look different in different places, selecting for or against infection with particular strains of the 374 symbiont. The symbiont composition of aphid populations may thus be highly dynamic, 375 mediated by variation in local selection. Inversely, the symbionts in the host have the potential 376 to influence the parasitoid community that establishes on it. Depending on the degree of 377 symbiont-conferred protection of the aphid hosts, the relative fitness of different parasitoid 378 species or even different genotypes of the same species may change (see the variable 379 performance of *L. fabarum* lines when faced with different strains of the symbiont). There is 380 indeed evidence from a field experiment that symbiont-protected aphid populations are not 381

only less parasitized, they also differ in the parasitoid community they support (Rothacher,

2014).
Finally, returning to the biocontrol aspect, it is somewhat discouraging that protection by <i>H</i> .
defensa was most effective against the commonly used biocontrol agent Aphidius colemani.
Possibly, the exceptionally wide host range of this species (Starý, 2006) - certainly a desirable
trait when many pest aphids are to be targeted – may also entail that it can frequently rely on
unprotected hosts in the field and thus experience weaker selection for counter-adaptations to
overcome symbiont-conferred protection. It would be worth investigating whether the use of
more specialized parasitoids could be more effective for the control of aphids that are
frequently infected with defensive symbionts.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank Heidi Kaech, Lukas Rothacher, Alexandre Gouskov and Hannele Penson for their help with assays in this study, and especially Paula Rodriguez for her additional services in maintaining the insect lines. We also thank Nickolas Kavallieratos for procuring one of the sexual species used in this study from Athens, Greece. Two anonymous reviewers provided constructive comments on the manuscript. This study was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF professorship nr. PP00P3 123376 to CV).

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Rates of successful parasitism by parasitoid lines/species across multiple symbiont isolates. '-' denotes symbiont-free aphid subline. Same letters above error bars denote no statistically significant differences using Tukey honest significant difference (HSD) post-hoc tests after separate linear model analyses on each parasitoid line. Raw values shown.

Figure 2. Death rates of non-mummified aphids inflicted by different parasitoid species, averaged across aphid sublines. Same letters above error bars denote no statistically significant differences using Tukey honest significant difference (HSD) post-hoc tests after separate linear model analyses on each parasitoid line. *Aphelinus choania* was excluded from the main analysis but is shown for comparison.

Tables

Table 1. General linear model results for rates of parasitism achieved by parasitoids (*Lysiphlebus fabarum*, *Binodoxys angelicae* and *Aphidius colemani*) using parasitism rate calculated as the proportion of individuals mummified among the initial number of aphid nymphs exposed to parasitoids. Results for all parasitoid lines (a) and at the level of parasitoid species, with the three asexual lines of *L. fabarum* pooled together (b) are shown. The analyses were performed once with all aphid sublines, and once with only symbiont-infected sublines, because only in the latter case do the interactions between sublines and parasitoids in the latter case do the interactions between symbionts and parasitoids. 'MS' denotes mean square.

	all aphid sublines	;	Hamiltonella-infected sublines only					
Source	d.f.	MS	F	P	d.f.	MS	F	Р
(a) All parasitoid lines								
Block	9	0.202	2.630	0.070	9	0.113	2.094	0.035
Aphid subline	3	1.577	20.557	<0.001	2	0.193	3.583	0.031
Parasitoid line	4	0.997	12.998	<0.001	4	1.049	19.511	<0.001
A. subline x parasitoid line	12	0.328	4.278	<0.001	8	0.297	5.517	<0.001
Residual	171	0.077	-	-	126	0.054	-	-
(b) Parasitoid species								
Block	9	0.202	2.004	0.041	9	0.113	1.326	0.229
Aphid subline	3	1.006	9.987	<0.001	2	0.026	0.308	0.736
Parasitoid species	2	0.784	7.784	0.001	2	0.883	9.820	<0.001
A. subline x parasitoid species	6	0.242	2.399	0.030	4	0.118	1.389	0.241
Residual	179	0.101	-	-	132	0.085	-	-

Table 2. General linear model results for mortality that was not due to mummification. 'MS' denotes mean square.

Source	d.f.	MS	F	Р
Colony size	1	0.275	4.704	0.031
Aphid subline	3	0.060	1.019	0.385
Parasitoid species	2	2.631	44.982	<0.001
A. subline x parasitoid species	6	0.035	0.596	0.733
Residual	187	0.058	-	-

SUPPLEMENTARY ONLINE APPENDIX

Table S1. General linear model results for rates of parasitism achieved by different parasitoids using parasitism rate calculated as the proportion of mummies among mummies and surviving aphids, excluding individuals that died for reasons other than parasitism. Results for all parasitoid lines (a) and at the level of parasitoid species, with the three lines of *L. fabarum* pooled together (b) are shown. The analyses were performed once with all aphid sublines, and once with only symbiont-infected sublines, because only in the latter case do the interactions between sublines and parasitoid lines strictly reflect *G x G* interactions between symbionts and parasitoids. 'MS' denotes mean square.

	all aphid sublines			Hamiltonella-infected sublines only				
Source	d.f.	MS	F	Р	d.f.	MS	F	Р
(a) All parasitoid lines								
Block	9	0.561	2.798	0.004	9	0.296	1.798	0.076
Isolate	3	2.433	12.123	<0.001	2	0.114	0.696	0.501
Parasitoid line	4	3.396	16.922	<0.001	4	4.289	26.077	<0.001
Isolate x parasitoid line	12	0.750	3.736	<0.001	8	0.460	2.798	0.007
Residual	163	0.201	-	-	118	0.164	-	-
(b) Parasitoid species								
Block	9	0.560	2.366	0.015	9	0.298	1.394	0.198
Isolate	3	1.447	6.107	0.001	2	0.183	0.853	0.428
Parasitoid species	2	4.599	19.415	<0.001	2	6.217	29.050	<0.001
Isolate x parasitoid species	6	0.930	3.924	0.001	4	0.343	1.605	0.177
Residual	171	0.237	-	-	124	0.214	-	-

<Figure S1 goes here>

Figure S1. Rates of parasitism achieved by different parasitoid lines/species, calculated as proportion of mummies to mummies + surviving aphids. The result shown here for *Binodoxys* angelicae is clearly driven by the considerable mortality imposed by this parasitoid that was not due to mummification (see Fig. 2 in text), leaving few surviving aphids at the time parasitism was scored.

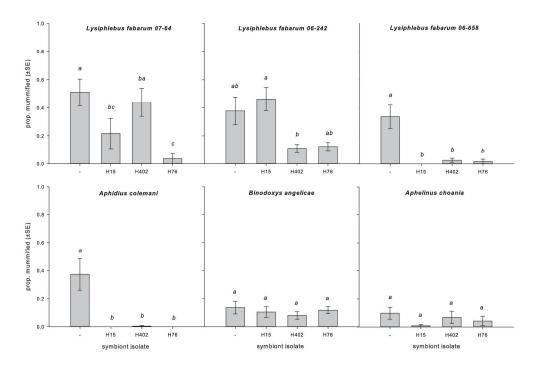


Figure 1. Rates of successful parasitism by parasitoid lines/species across multiple symbiont isolates. '-' denotes symbiont-free aphid subline. Same letters above error bars denote no statistically significant differences using Tukey honest significant difference (HSD) post-hoc tests after separate linear model analyses on each parasitoid line. Raw values shown.

222x154mm (300 x 300 DPI)

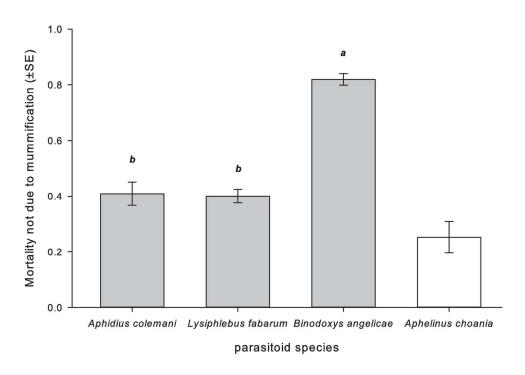


Figure 2. Death rates of non-mummified aphids inflicted by different parasitoid species, averaged across aphid sublines. Same letters above error bars denote no statistically significant differences using Tukey honest significant difference (HSD) post-hoc tests after separate linear model analyses on each parasitoid line. Aphelinus choania was excluded from the main analysis but is shown for comparison.

118x86mm (300 x 300 DPI)

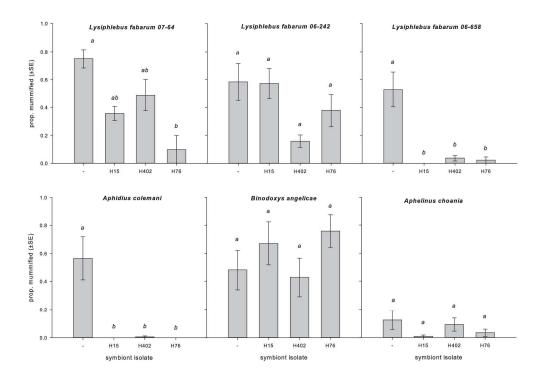


Figure S1. Rates of parasitism achieved by different parasitoid lines/species, calculated as proportion of mummies to mummies + surviving aphids. The result shown here for Binodoxys angelicae is clearly driven by the considerable mortality imposed by this parasitoid that was not due to mummification (see Fig. 2 in text), leaving few surviving aphids at the time parasitism was scored.

229x164mm (300 x 300 DPI)