

# Morphological variation of *Aphidius ervi* Haliday (Hymenoptera: Braconidae) associated to different aphid hosts (#15932)

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Dezene Huber / 20 Mar 2017

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# Morphological variation of *Aphidius ervi* Haliday (Hymenoptera: Braconidae) associated to different aphid hosts

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**Background.** Parasitoids are frequently used in biological control due to the fact that they are considered host specific and highly efficient attacking their hosts. As they spend a significant part of their life cycle within their hosts, feeding habits and life history of their host can promote specialization via host-race formation (sequential radiation). The specialized host races from different hosts can vary morphologically, behaviorally and genetically. However, these variations are sometimes inconspicuous and require more powerful tools in order to detect variation such as geometric morphometrics analysis.

**Methods.** We examined the case of *Aphidius ervi*, an important introduced biological control agent in Chile associated to a great number of aphid species which are exploiting different plant hosts and habitats. Several combinations (biotypes) of aphid/host plant originated parasitoids were analyzed in order to obtain measures of forewing shape and size. To show the differences among defined biotypes we chose 13 homologous landmarks on each individual parasitoid wing. The analysis of allometric variation calculated in wing shape and size over centroid size (CS) revealed the allometric changes among biotypes collected from different hosts. To show all differences in shape of forewings we made seven biotype pairs using the outline-based geometric morphometrics comparison.

**Results.** The biotype *A. pis\_pea* (*Acyrtosiphon pisum* on pea) was the extreme wing size in this study compared to the other analyzed biotypes. Aphid hosts have a significant influence in the morphological differentiation of the forewing, splitting biotypes in two groups. The first group consisted of biotypes connected with *Acyrtosiphon pisum* on legumes, while the second group is composed of biotypes connected with aphids attacking cereals with an exception of the *R. pad\_wheat* (*Rhopalosiphum padi* on wheat) biotype. There were no significant plant species effect on wing size and shape.

**Discussion.** Although there are indications that suggest that the genotype of parasitoids is of greater significance on the morphological variations of size and shape of wings, this study indicates that the aphid host for *A. ervi* alter in a significant way the structure of forewings, excluding variation between genotypes, due largely to the low genetic variability of *A. ervi* populations in Chile when comparing between geographical areas and aphid hosts. Bigger aphid host implied shape difference in the forewing explained as longer and broader wings of *A. ervi*, as well as the size differences.

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17

18 **Abstract**

19

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21 considered host specific and highly efficient attacking their hosts. As they spend a significant  
22 part of their life cycle within their hosts, feeding habits and life history of their host can promote  
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25 variations are sometimes inconspicuous and require more powerful tools in order to detect  
26 variation such as geometric morphometrics analysis.

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30 were analyzed in order to obtain measures of forewing shape and size. To show the differences  
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46 excluding variation between genotypes, due largely to the low genetic variability of *A. ervi*  
47 populations in Chile when comparing between geographical areas and aphid hosts. Bigger aphid 

48 host implied shape difference in the forewing explained as longer and broader wings of *A. ervi*,  
49 as well as the size differences. 

50

## 51 Introduction

52

53 Parasitoids are frequently used in biological control as they are considered as highly specialized  
54 natural enemies (Godfray, 1994). By being highly specialized, released parasitoids will be the  
55 most efficient at attacking the target pest species, reducing the possibility of environmental harm  
56 through spillover of rapidly-growing parasitoid populations from crops into adjacent natural  
57 habitats (Rand et al., 2006), as has been observed for generalist predators (Duelli et al., 1990;  
58 French et al., 2001). Although, many highly specialized parasitoid species have a great host  
59 range ( Mackauer and Starý, 1967) exploiting many hosts may not be consistent across an entire  
60 species, and different biotypes may be specialized to different host/environments (Stireman et  
61 al., 2006; Forbes et al., 2009). Previous studies have shown that host-associated biotypes of  
62 parasitoids from different host/environments can vary morphologically, behaviorally and  
63 genetically (Žikić et al., 2009; Feder and Forbes, 2010; Kos et al., 2012; Zepeda-Paulo et al.,  
64 2013). In terms of morphological features, the shape and size of their appendices have shown  
65 great promise for separating host-associated races of parasitoids. Among these, insect wings have  
66 been especially relevant as they are two dimensional structures with important characteristics, in  
67 terms of adaptation and function (Wootton, 2002; Žikić et al., 2009). ~~This is how~~ previous  
68 studies have shown that the size, shape and venation of the wings can be important features to  
69 separate species and characterize populations within a single species (Sadeghi et al., 2009).  
70 Geometric morphometrics approach is very useful for detecting minute variations on  
71 morphology of different parasitoid populations which otherwise cannot be identified easily  
72 (Villemant et al., 2007; Žikić et al., 2009; Kos et al., 2011). This can be of high importance  
73 because these morphological variations in wing shape could be associated to a specific  
74 environment or host-associated population of a parasitoid species.

75 The Chilean populations of *Aphidius ervi* H. may be a good example where different host  
76 association and environment could have had some influence on morphology. This species is an  
77 oligophagous parasitoid associated with several aphids species, such as *Acyrtosiphon pisum* H.

78 on legumes, *Acyrtosiphon kondoi* Shinji on legumes, *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* T.,  
79 *Aulacorthum solani* K. on Solanaceae (Takada and Tada, 2000) and cereal aphids such are  
80 *Sitobion avenae* F., *Rhopalosiphum padi* L., *Schizaphis graminum* R. and *Metopolophium*  
81 *dirhodum* W. (Starý, 1993). *Aphidius ervi* was introduced in Chile in the 1970's as part of a  
82 classical biological control in order to minimize the damage provoked by the grain aphid (*S.*  
83 *avenae*) on cereals and maintain the pest population under low densities in the field (Zúñiga et  
84 al., 1986). Nowadays, *A. ervi* is the ~~most~~ predominant parasitoid species controlling *A. pisum* and  
85 *S. avenae* (more than 94% of prevalence on *A. pisum* on legumes and 38% of prevalence on *S.*  
86 *avenae* on cereals) and considered a highly efficient biological control example of aphids on both  
87 crops (Gerding et al., 1989; Starý et al., 1994; Zepeda-Paulo et al., 2013). The main goal of the  
88 present study is to analyze the shape and size of forewings of *A. ervi* collected in different  
89 plant/host/~~parasitoid~~ associations, on legumes and cereals.

90

## 91 **Materials & Methods**

### 92 *Sampled material*

93 Aphids were collected from fields of legumes and cereals in two different geographic regions of  
94 central Chile: “Región de los Ríos” (S 39° 51', W 73° 7') and “Región del Maule” (S 35° 24', W  
95 71° 40'). Parasitoids were obtained from presumably parasitized aphids collected in the field,  
96 and after ~~the~~ emergence carefully examined and identified. Reared samples were transferred in  
97 the growing laboratory and treated under following conditions: 20°C, 50-60 RH, D16:N8 of  
98 photoperiod. Parasitoid wasps were put in plastic microtubes with 96% ~~of~~ ethyl alcohol. The  
99 identification was done using ~~adequate~~ taxonomic keys (Starý, 1995).

100 A total of 131 females of *Aphidius ervi* were analyzed. All parasitoids are divided into eight  
101 biotypes according to their aphid hosts and to the plant species where the aphids were found  
102 (Table 1). The alfalfa biotype was reared from *Acyrtosiphon pisum* and sampled on alfalfa  
103 fields (*Medicago sativa* L.), the pea biotype from pea (*Pisum sativum* L.), and the clover biotype  
104 from red clover (*Trifolium pratense* L.). Biotypes reared on cereals are the bird cherry-oat aphid  
105 (*Rhopalosiphum padi*), the rose grain aphid (*Metopolophium dirhodum*) the green-bug  
106 (*Schizaphis graminum*), and the grain aphid (*Sitobion avenae* **F.**) sampled from wheat (*Triticum*

107 *aestivum* L.). Another cereal biotype is also the grain aphid (*Sitobion avenae* F.) which was  
108 collected from oat (*Avena sativa* L.) (Table 1).

109

### 110 *Geometric morphometrics*

111 To conduct the Geometric morphometrics analysis, we applied two dimensional landmark-based  
112 methods (Bookstein, 1986; 1991). Right forewings of each female parasitoid was removed and  
113 mounted in the Neo Mount (Merck) following procedure as described in Žikić et al. (2009). Such  
114 prepared, forewings were recorded using OPTIKA SZN (45x) stereoscopic compound  
115 microscope with a mounted 5 Mpixel photographic camera using software Optika Vision Pro  
116 v2.7. Using Geometric morphometrics method (Zelditch et al., 2004) we tried to determine and  
117 quantify morphological variation of different *Aphidius ervi* biotypes such as wing size and shape.

118 Eight different aphid-hosts/plant-host associations were used for morphological characterization  
119 of *A. ervi* biotypes (Table 1). To analyze the variation in wing shape on parasitoids, 13  
120 homologous landmarks were scored for each analyzed forewing. Positioned landmarks were  
121 digitized using software TpsDig v2.16 (Rohlf, 2010) (Figure 1, Table 2). In order to analyze and  
122 visualize the variations, software MorphoJ v1.06b was used (Klingenberg, 2011).

123 

## 124 **Results**

125 To test variability of the forewings from the different *A. ervi* biotypes a Principal Component  
126 Analysis (PCA) was carried out. According to PCA the variability explained by the first three  
127 axes was rather low; all three explain 50.6% of the total variability.  However, after testing for  
128 variance, the results were statistically significant (Procrustes ANOVA:  $F = 17.30$ ;  $df = 7$ ;  $P <$   
129  $0.000001$ ). Beside the forewing size, even multivariate analysis of shape using PC scores showed  
130 statistical significance (MANOVA: Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.112737$ ;  $F = 1.74$ ;  $df = 154$ ;  $P < 0.000001$ ).  
131 Considering that all statistical tests of variance were statistically significant, we performed  
132 Canonical Variant Analysis (CVA) in order to observe the variability among the *A. ervi* biotypes.  
133 However, still there was no conspicuous grouping of the biotypes.  The first canonical axis (CV1)  
134 explains 38.4%, while the second axis (CV2) explains only 23% of the total variability. To see if



135 there was some correlation between the wing size and shape we performed the regression test  
136 between the Centroid size and PC scores. ~~From the graph (Fig. 2) it is evident that the wing~~  
137 shape is clearly correlated with the wing size (P-value: < 0.0001). The percentage of the  
138 variability explained by this regression test is 6.78 % (% predicted: 6.7783%). ~~On the graph (Fig.~~  
139 ~~2) it seems obvious that the~~ biggest wings were of the specimens from the biotype *A. pis\_pea*.  
140 Considering that the regression result was statistically significant (P-value: <0.0001) we  
141 performed **Discriminant Analysis (DA) using the residuals**. This particular analysis showed that  
142 none of the Procrustes distances were statistically significant (P-value: >0.05), and therefore the  
143 changes of the wing shape are due to the change of the wing size. Therefore, we wanted to  
144 visualize how the wings of all other *A. ervi* biotypes change in relation to this particular biotype  
145 (*A. pis\_pea*) using outline-based geometric morphometric methods (Fig. 3). The changes  
146 between the biotype *A. pis\_pea* and the other six can be ~~tracked from the~~ Figure 3.

147 The least changes of the wing shape and size are in the following relations: *A. pis\_pea/A.*  
148 *pis\_alfalfa*, *A. pis\_pea/A. pis\_clover* and *A. pis\_pea/R. pad\_wheat*. More conspicuous changes  
149 are visible in the relation *A. pis\_pea/S. ave\_oat*, ~~than~~ *A. pis\_pea/S. ave\_wheat*. These changes are   
150 due to the narrowing of the wing in the two biotypes (*S. ave\_oat* and *S. ave\_wheat*). The greatest  
151 difference is between the biotype *A. pis\_pea* and *S. gra\_wheat* where this biotype has the  
152 narrowest wing in relation to *A. pis\_pea*.

153

## 154 Discussion

155 *Aphidius ervi* is known to attack economically important pests in the Chilean agricultural  
156 landscapes and is considered a successful example of classical biological control of legume and  
157 cereal aphids (Starý, 1993; Starý et al., 1993; Rojas, 2005). Although it is very efficient in  
158 parasitizing target aphid pests, it has little or no effect in attacking native aphid species in shared  
159 environments (e.g. *Uroleucon* species developing on native plants in and around agricultural  
160 valleys in Chile) (Zúñiga et al., 1986; Starý, 1993). ~~However,~~ many studies have shown heritable  
161 host fidelity and have hypothesized the possibility of different host associated biotypes. Recent  
162 studies of Bilodeau et al. (2013) and Zepeda-Paulo et al. (2013) using population genetics  
163 suggests that in both North America and Chile there are no specialized races or biotypes on

164 different aphid-host species, revealing high gene flow between aphid-host originated parasitoid  
165 populations.



166 However, in a recent study it has been shown that the parasitoid genotype can have a stronger  
167 influence on wing shape compared to the effect of developing on different parasitoid host species  
168 (Parreño et al. 2016). These authors used five asexual lines of *Lysiphlebus fabarum* and four  
169 aphid hosts, and using the Procrustes Coordinates on wings, found that the lineages were the  
170 better grouping factor compared to the parasitoid aphid-host variable. In this study we did not  
171 discover any drastic morphological features which could conspicuously differentiate the Chilean  
172 population of *A. ervi*. This is probably due to the very short period i.e. insufficient number of  
173 generations among these particular Chilean populations. ~~This is obvious from the fact that~~  
174 ~~analyzed specimens of *A. ervi* from various aphid hosts and different localities throughout Chile~~  
175 ~~exhibit a rather low genetic variability~~ (Zepeda-Paulo et al., 2016).

176 One of the most conspicuous differences among the eight biotypes of *A. ervi* analyzed is in the  
177 shape and size of forewings from the biotype *A. pis\_pea*. Specimens of this particular biotype  
178 have generally larger forewings than other biotypes and somewhat broader in the middle and the  
179 distal part (Figures 2 and 3). Of all investigated biotypes the most similar are those which were  
180 reared from *Acyrtosiphon pisum* (*A. pis\_alfalfa*, *A. pis\_clover* and *A. pis\_pea*) independent of  
181 the aphid clone (host-plant), which is at the same time the biggest aphid, when compared to all  
182 other aphid species mentioned here. The differences of the wing size and shape begin to appear  
183 in those biotypes reared on cereals, with the exception of the *R. pad\_wheat* biotype where the  
184 differences were small (Fig. 3). This could be probably the effect of the aphid host size, because  
185 the *Acyrtosiphon pisum* is rather a large aphid when comparing to *R. padi*. Analyzing the  
186 relation of wing shape and size between the biotypes *A. pis\_pea* and *Sc. gra\_wheat* (Fig. 3), there  
187 are clear differences. At the same time, the differences in the body size are probably the greatest  
188 between *Acyrtosiphon pisum* and *Schizaphis graminum* which is rather a small aphid host for  
189 *Aphidius ervi*. This suggests that beside the host plant, the aphid host has ~~primal mayor~~  
190 in the morphological differentiation of the forewing among the analyzed biotypes, as it has been  
191 shown in other studies with individuals of the genus *Eubazus*, a parasitoids of the conifer bark  
192 weevil (Villemant et al., 2007) and with the parasitoid *Lysiphlebus fabarum* (Parreño et al.  
193 2016). Additionally, the effect of plant species should not be neglected because there are clear



194 preference of *A. ervi* biotypes toward particular plant species i.e. its volatiles which will  
195 eventually lead them to the adequate aphid host (Daza-Bustamante et al., 2002).

196 Variations of the shape of insect wings are known to affect flight ability, which in turn could  
197 alter the host and mate allocation (Kölliker-Ott et al., 2003). Betts and Wootton (1988) studied  
198 the effects of wing structure on the flight of six butterfly species and showed that there was a  
199 correlation between flight performance and wing shape. Additionally, studies have described  
200 how the wing shape can alter predation success by dragonflies (Combes et a., 2010) and also, the  
201 ability of damselflies to avoid predation by passerine birds (Outomuro and Johansson, 2015).  
202 More specifically, parasitoids are also affected by the changes in wing size and shape. The wing  
203 size and shape of *Trichogramma brassicae* and *T. pretiosum* as egg parasitoids, increase the  
204 ability to locate host eggs. Differences in wing size and shape were found between parasitoid  
205 obtained from field conditions compared to those parasitoids that were reared in laboratory  
206 (Kölliker-Ott et al., 2003). Authors suggest that wing shape and wing size can be reliable  
207 predictors of field fitness for these parasitoid species. In the present study, the biotypes of *A. ervi*  
208 emerged from *A. pisum* encounter larger and broader forewings compared to the other studied  
209 biotypes. These differences of wing shape and size could be reflected on the fitness of *A. ervi* to  
210 control pest increasing the ability to find aphid host as size and shape of forewings increased.  
211 Further research to determine most suitable aphid host for *A. ervi* to increase its fitness will lead  
212 to enhance rearing conditions for *A. ervi* and consequently, to improve any inundative biological  
213 control strategies with this parasitoid.

214

## 215 **Conclusion**

216 Given that there is a low genetic variability of *A. ervi* in Chile and that there was little effect of  
217 plant species on morphological features in this study, the main factor affecting morphological  
218 variations of *A. ervi* forewings is the size of their aphid host.

219

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223

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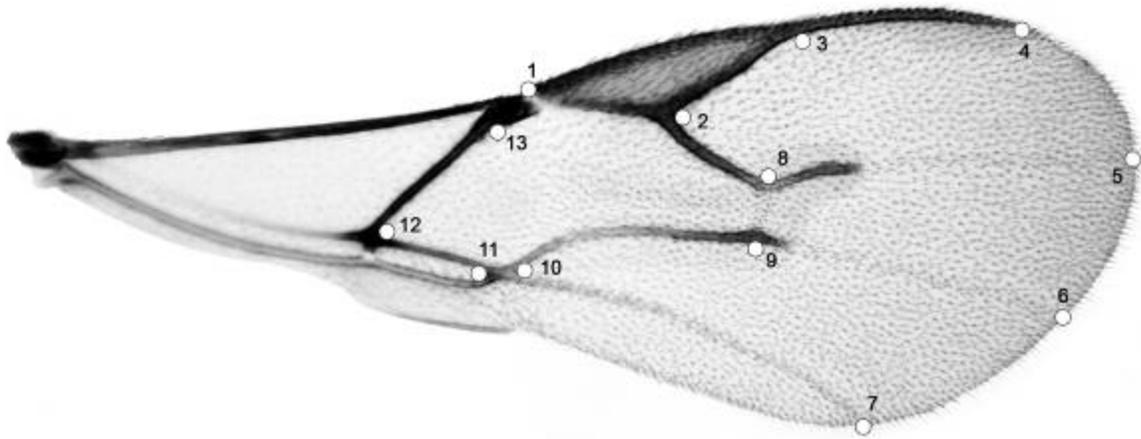
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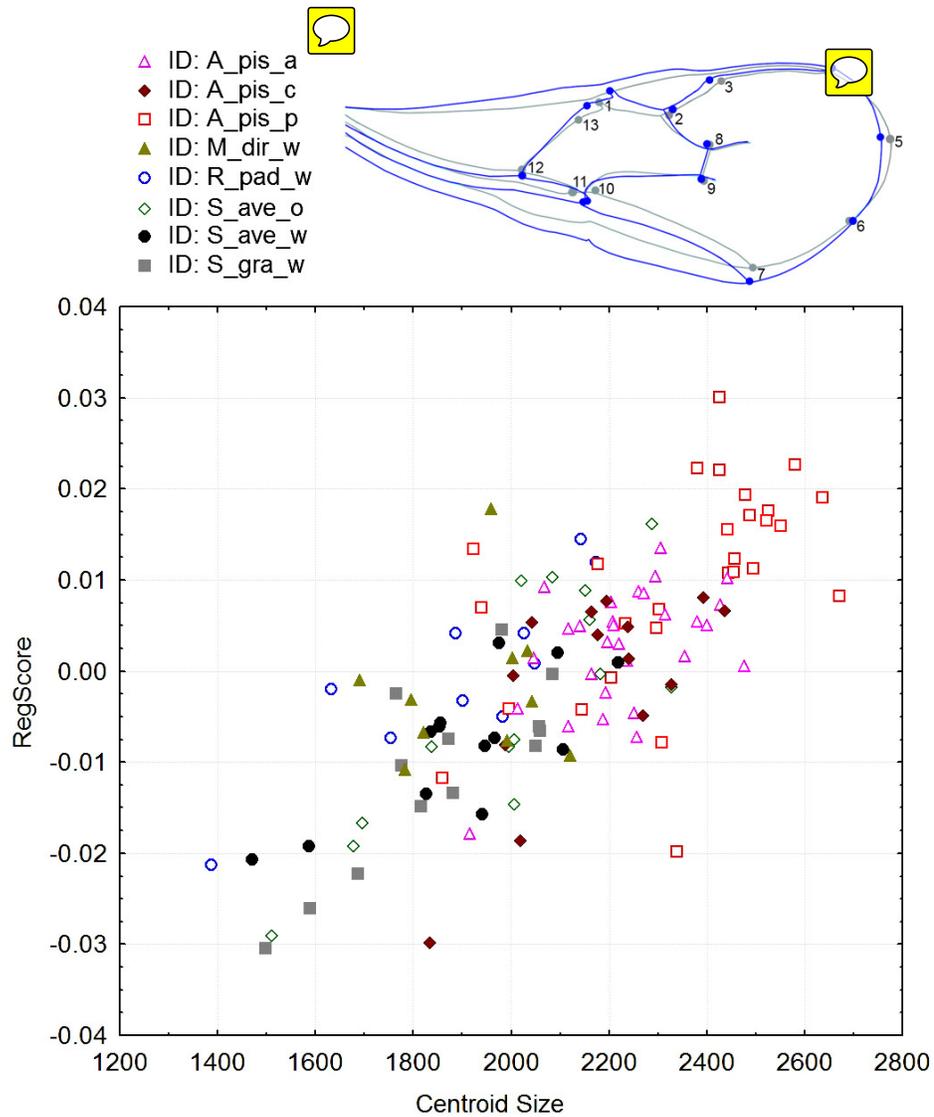
## 333 FIGURES



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335 **Figure 1.** Right forewing of *Aphidius ervi*; set of 13 homologous landmarks.

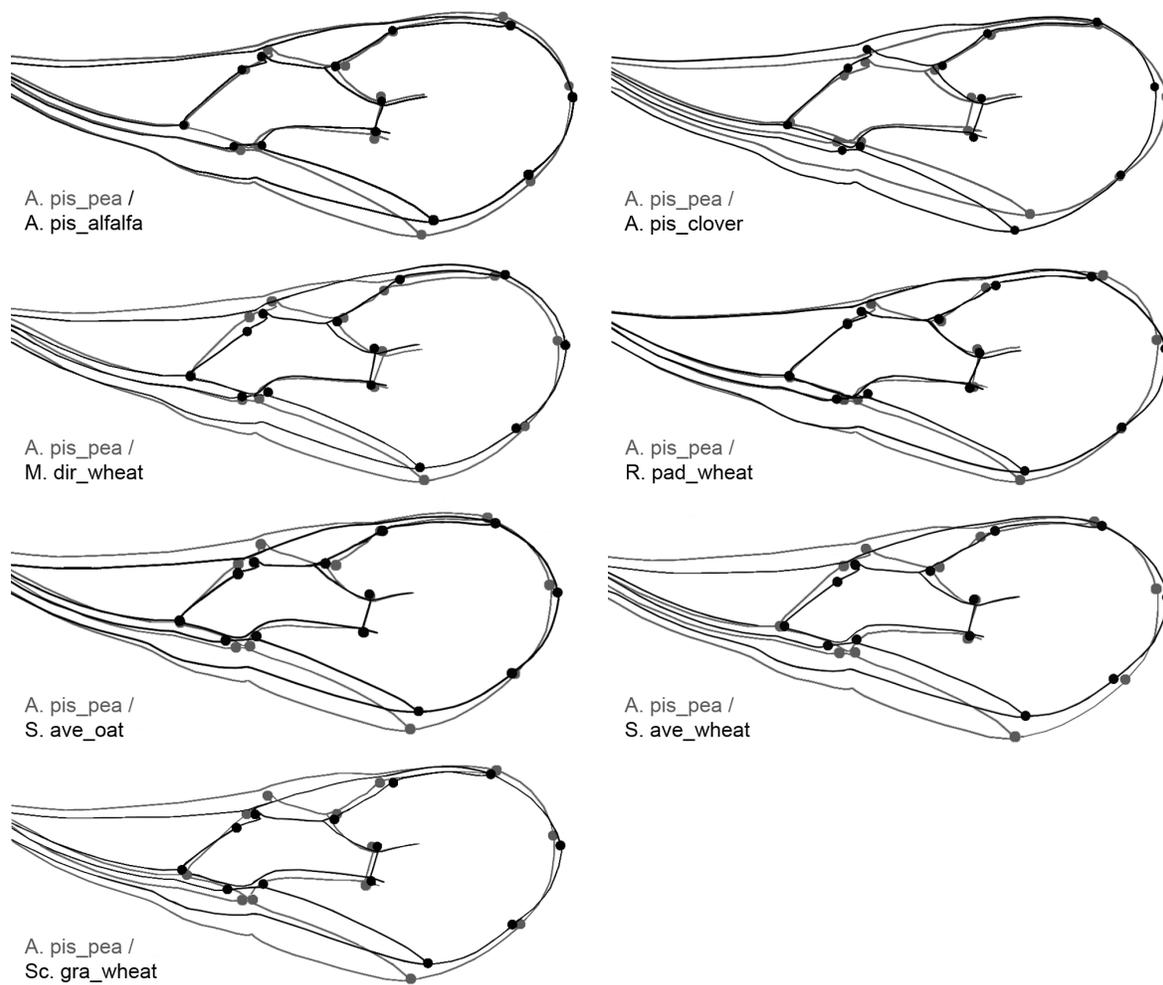
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338 **Figure 2.** The regression results of the Centroid Size (CS) and PC scores (Permutation test  
339 against the null hypothesis of independence, P-value: <0.0001).

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343 **Figure 3.** Outline-based comparison of the wing shape between the biotype *A. pis\_pea* and the  
 344 rest seven biotypes. Shape differences are the results of Discriminant Analysis (DA). The scale  
 345 factor is increased by 5. Grey color of outline represents the biotype *A. pis\_pea*; black color of  
 346 outline represent compared biotypes.

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351 **TABLES**

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353 **Table 1.** Sampled material of *Aphidius ervi* and defined biotypes.

354	<b>Aphid host</b>	<b>Host-plant</b>	<b>N° of specimens</b>	<b>Biotype</b>
	<i>Acyrtosiphon pisum</i>	alfalfa	29	<i>A. pis_alfalfa</i>
355	<i>Acyrtosiphon pisum</i>	pea	28	<i>A. pis_pea</i>
	<i>Acyrtosiphon pisum</i>	red clover	14	<i>A. pis_clover</i>
356	<i>Metopolophium dirhodum</i>	wheat	10	<i>M. dir_wheat</i>
	<i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i>	wheat	10	<i>R. pad_wheat</i>
357	<i>Schizaphis graminum</i>	wheat	13	<i>Sc. gra_wheat</i>

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371 **Table 2.** Description of homologous landmarks of forewing. Wing veins terminology follows  
372 Wharton et al. (1997).

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<b>Landmark number</b>	<b>Landmark definition</b>
1	beginning of stigma
2	corner at the middle of stigma and r vein
3	end of stigma
4	end of metacarpus
5	projection of RS vein on the edge of wing
6	projection of M vein on the edge of wing
7	projection of CU vein on the edge of wing
8	corner of RS and r-m veins
9	corner of M and r-m veins
10	corner of m-cu and 1CU veins
11	corner of 1CU and 1A veins
12	corner of 1M and 1CU
13	beginning of parastigma