

ACCEPTED VERSION

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article:

Tao Wang, Michael Anthony Keller and Katja Hogendoorn

The effects of temperature on the development, fecundity and mortality of *Eretmocerus warrae*: is *Eretmocerus warrae* better adapted to high temperatures than *Encarsia formosa*?

Pest Management Science, 2019; 75(3):702-707

© 2018 Society of Chemical Industry

which has been published in final form at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ps.5169>

This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Use of Self-Archived Versions.

PERMISSIONS

<https://authorservices.wiley.com/author-resources/Journal-Authors/licensing/self-archiving.html>

Wiley's Self-Archiving Policy

Accepted (peer-reviewed) Version

The accepted version of an article is the version that incorporates all amendments made during the peer review process, but prior to the final published version (the Version of Record, which includes; copy and stylistic edits, online and print formatting, citation and other linking, deposit in abstracting and indexing services, and the addition of bibliographic and other material.

Self-archiving of the accepted version is subject to an embargo period of 12-24 months. The standard embargo period is 12 months for scientific, technical, medical, and psychology (STM) journals and 24 months for social science and humanities (SSH) journals following publication of the final article. Use our [Author Compliance Tool](#) to check the embargo period for individual journals or check their copyright policy on [Wiley Online Library](#).

The accepted version may be placed on:

- the author's personal website
- the author's company/institutional repository or archive
- not for profit subject-based repositories such as PubMed Central

Articles may be deposited into repositories on acceptance, but access to the article is subject to the embargo period.

The version posted must include the following notice on the first page:

"This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: [FULL CITE], which has been published in final form at [Link to final article using the DOI]. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Use of Self-Archived Versions."

The version posted may not be updated or replaced with the final published version (the Version of Record). Authors may transmit, print and share copies of the accepted version with colleagues, provided that there is no systematic distribution, e.g. a posting on a listserve, network or automated delivery.

There is no obligation upon authors to remove preprints posted to not for profit preprint servers prior to submission.

20 April 2020

<http://hdl.handle.net/2440/124198>

1 Title: The effects of temperature on the development, fecundity and
2 mortality of *Eretmocerus warrae*: Is *E. warrae* better adapted to
3 high temperatures than *Encarsia formosa*?

4 Running Title: Effects of temperature on *Eretmocerus warrae* and *Encarsia formosa*

5 Authors: Tao Wang^{a,b,*}, Katja Hogendoorn^b, Michael A. Keller^b

6 ^aState Key Laboratory of Biocontrol, Ecology and Evolution, School of Life Sciences, Sun
7 Yat-Sen University, Guangzhou 510275, P. R. China

8 ^bSchool of Agriculture, Food and Wine, Waite Campus, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, SA
9 5005, Australia

10 *Corresponding author: wangtao26@mail.sysu.edu.cn

11 Abstract

12 BACKGROUND

13 *Eretmocerus warrae* (Hymenoptera: Aphelinidae) is a parasitoid of the greenhouse whitefly,
14 *Trialeurodes vaporariorum* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae). Here, we compare its potential as a
15 biological control agent at high temperatures to that of *Encarsia formosa* (Hymenoptera:
16 Aphelinidae), a wasp which is widely sold for control of *T. vaporariorum*.

17 RESULTS

18 *E. warrae* attained the highest estimated developmental rate at 31.4 °C and the maximum
19 oviposition rate at 30.5 °C. Developmental times of *E. warrae* at fluctuating temperatures
20 that simulate night-day patterns were similar to those predicted based on constant

21 temperatures. Above the optimum temperature, *E. warrae* tolerated higher constant
22 temperatures than *En. formosa* during development and as adults. Using a ramping
23 temperature approach, the critical thermal maxima for adult *E. warrae* was significantly
24 higher than that of adult *En. formosa*.

25 CONCLUSION

26 *E. warrae* is better adapted to high temperatures than *En. formosa*, and could therefore be a
27 complementary or superior biological control agent during summer months in hot regions.

28

29 **Key Words:**

30 *Trialeurodes vaporariorum*; critical thermal maximum; ramping temperature; survival;
31 fluctuating temperature

32 **1. INTRODUCTION**

33 Greenhouse whitefly, *Trialeurodes vaporariorum* (Westwood) (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae),
34 attacks an extensive range of ornamental plants and vegetables, and causes severe damage to
35 greenhouse crops when present at high densities.¹ Although insecticides can suppress this
36 pest, resistance of greenhouse whitefly to insecticides has been demonstrated and biological
37 control is widely used. Among species of biological control agents, the release of *En.*
38 *formosa* has received much attention in the biological control of greenhouse whitefly.² It has
39 been one of the most widely used and effective parasitoids in control of whiteflies in
40 greenhouses in many parts of the world since the 1920s.³ However, there are some
41 weaknesses that can reduce the efficacy of *En. formosa* in biological control. For instance,
42 greenhouse whitefly colonies still grow in the hot summer when *En. formosa*'s activity and

43 population growth are decreased by extreme temperatures, and thus it cannot control this pest
44 effectively at high temperatures.⁴ Species that have a broader tolerance for extreme
45 temperatures are needed to replace or complement *En. formosa*.

46 *Eretmocerus warrae* (Nauman & Schmidt) (Hymenoptera: Aphelinidae) is a parasitoid of
47 the greenhouse whitefly that is suspected to be effective as a biological agent.⁵ The solitary
48 parasitoid *E. warrae* was first found in New Zealand in 1997,⁶ and studied in Australia by De
49 Barro et al.,⁷ who presented the morphological and molecular characteristics of this wasp.
50 Because of its potential in suppressing greenhouse whitefly, *E. warrae* is being reared for
51 release in commercial greenhouses in Australia.⁸ Observations suggest that *E. warrae*
52 actively parasitizes greenhouse whitefly at higher temperatures than *Encarsia formosa*
53 (Gahan) (Hymenoptera: Aphelinidae) (James Altmann, personal communication). If this
54 proves to be true, then *E. warrae* should be a complementary biological control agent to *En.*
55 *formosa*, and might be a better control agent when the temperature is high during summer.
56 This study was carried out to study the effects of temperature on the biology of *E. warrae* and
57 determine whether it is able to tolerate higher temperatures than *En. formosa*.

58 Temperature is a key environmental factor that affects all aspects of arthropod life, from
59 physiology to behavioural patterns.⁹ Therefore, the effect of temperature on development,
60 longevity and behaviour of *E. warrae* is significant for its utilization in greenhouses. The
61 development of insects shows a non-linear response to temperature, with the highest
62 developmental rate achieved at an intermediate optimum temperature. Basic parameters, such
63 as lower developmental threshold temperature, developmental rates under different
64 temperature conditions and critical lethal maxima are needed to predict the generation time,
65 which affects the effectiveness of parasitoid populations. The determination of these
66 parameters should enable an advanced release strategy to be formulated in consideration of
67 expected temperature conditions in greenhouses. The effects of fluctuating temperatures on

68 *E. warrae* need to be studied because daily fluctuations in temperature are inherent in the
69 operation of greenhouses.

70 For biological control, the upper threshold temperatures may be more critical than the
71 optimum temperature.¹⁰ When the temperature exceeds the maximum, this can cause death or
72 irreversible injury, or severely limit development and behaviour.^{10,11} Insects may also
73 terminate diapause when the temperature is extreme.¹² Therefore methods to estimate the
74 upper lethal threshold are valuable in understanding a species' response to temperature. The
75 dynamic method for estimating upper lethal temperatures uses ramping temperatures to
76 assess the critical upper limit.¹³ It is widely used and thought to be more ecologically-relevant
77 than the static method, which uses a range of fixed constant temperatures to estimate the
78 upper lethal temperature.¹³

79 We conducted experiments to assess the influence of constant and fluctuating
80 temperatures on the development, mortality and oviposition of *E. warrae*. Furthermore, to
81 investigate the potential of *E. warrae* as a complementary biological control agent of *En.*
82 *formosa* in greenhouses at high temperatures, we compared the developmental rate and
83 survival of *E. warrae* and *En. formosa* at a range of high temperatures. Both constant
84 temperature and ramping temperatures were used. These results will facilitate rearing and
85 effective deployment of *E. warrae* in greenhouses.

86 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

87 2.1. Rearing parasitoids and host

88 Greenhouse whiteflies were collected from eggplant, *Solanum melongena* L.
89 (Solanaceae), in the greenhouses at the Waite Campus of The University of Adelaide and
90 used to initiate a culture. Tobacco, *Nicotiana tabacum* L. (Solanaceae), plants with at least

91 five fully expanded leaves and approximately 30 cm high were used to rear the whitefly
92 culture because they can support high densities of these insects. A greenhouse whitefly
93 culture was kept at 26 °C, 40 – 80 % RH and a photoperiod 14 L: 10D.

94 Pupae of *E. warrae* and *En. formosa* were provided by Biological Services, Loxton,
95 South Australia. A breeding culture of the parasitoids was set up on greenhouse whiteflies
96 feeding on tomato plants, *Solanum lycopersicum* L. (Solanaceae), at 26 °C. Pupae of the two
97 species of parasitoids were harvested from the breeding culture and kept in two separate
98 incubators at 8 °C, 70 – 80 % RH to arrest development. For each species, when adult
99 parasitoids were needed, pupae were moved from 8°C at 20:00 h to another incubator which
100 was set at 26 °C to allow them to emerge. Most adults emerged during the morning when
101 experiments commenced. Adults were kept in cages and honey drops were provided as food.

102 Six to seven week old tomato plants were used in experiments as a host plant for
103 greenhouse whitefly. The tomato plants had six fully expanded leaves and were
104 approximately 50 cm high. The cultivar ‘*Improved Appolo*’ was used in moderate
105 temperature conditions (15 – 36 °C) whereas ‘*Summerstar*’ was used at higher temperatures
106 (30 - 37.5 °C) because it can better withstand temperatures up to 37.5 °C.

107 Second instar *T. vaporariorum* were provided as hosts in experiments. Cohorts of 2nd
108 instar nymphs were obtained by exposing tomato plants to adult whiteflies for six hours, and
109 then removing the adults first by blowing them off with a cool hair-dryer and then removing
110 the remaining adults with an aspirator. These cohorts were held in incubators at 26 °C, 70 –
111 80 % RH until they reached the 2nd instar. If necessary, other stages of nymphs were removed
112 with a pin before experiments.

113 2.2. Experimental materials

114 Temperature experiments were conducted in five incubators (Adelab Scientific,
115 Thebarton, South Australia, Model 1390D) that were calibrated to means within 0.1 °C of set
116 temperatures with a precision thermometer (E-MIL, H. J. Elliott Ltd, Treforest, U.K.) and had
117 measured variation of ± 0.3 °C. The rearing temperatures were set according to the
118 experiments and the photoperiod was 14L : 10D.

119 Clip cages were used to confine insects on tomato leaves.¹⁴ They were made of two rings
120 of 12 mm thickness of polyethylene foam that had inside and outside dimensions of 40 mm
121 and 55 mm, respectively, which were held together over a leaf with wire staples pushed into
122 the edges. There was a transparent cellulose acetate sheet on the bottom of each cage which
123 allowed wasps to be observed and fine organza on top for aeration. An aspirator made of
124 plastic tubing was used to handle wasps. Honey drops were placed on the organza of clip
125 cages as food for *E. warrae*.

126 2.3. Effects of temperature on the developmental rate of *E. warrae*

127 To investigate the effects of constant temperatures on the development of *E. warrae*,
128 three clip cages containing a minimum of 100 2nd instar greenhouse whiteflies were attached
129 to selected leaves of each of five tomato plants.. The plants were transferred to experimental
130 incubators that were set at 15, 20, 25, 30 and 33 °C, 70 – 80 % RH. The whitefly nymphs
131 were exposed to newly-emerged adult *E. warrae* for six hours, after which the adults were
132 removed from the clip cages using an aspirator. In the temperature range 15 - 33 °C, the wasp
133 numbers within each clip cage were 13, 4, 3, 2 and 2, respectively. Greater numbers of wasps
134 were used at lower temperatures to compensate for their lower activity levels. The parasitised
135 greenhouse whitefly nymphs were kept in the clip cages, and the emergence of *E. warrae* was
136 monitored daily using a hand lens. There were four replicate plants at each temperature.

137 The Briere model was used to analyse the developmental rate of *E. warrae*.¹⁰ It is
138 described as

$$139 \quad R(T) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } T \leq T_0 \\ aT(T - T_0)(T_L - T)^{\frac{1}{m}}, & \text{if } T_0 \leq T \leq T_L \\ 0, & \text{if } T \geq T_L \end{cases}$$

140 (1)

141 where R is the rate of development, T is the temperature, T_L is the upper threshold
142 temperature, T_0 is the lower threshold temperature, and a and m are empirical constants.

143 This model has advantages compared to other non-linear models.¹⁵⁻¹⁷ It has few
144 parameters, is biologically descriptive and incorporates both high and low threshold
145 temperatures. Unlike a degree-day model which does not work for the nonlinear relationship
146 between developmental rate and temperature at extreme low and high temperatures, this
147 model fits the broad non-linear relationship across all temperatures.¹⁰ The lower (T_0) and
148 upper (T_L) temperature threshold parameters have biological meaning. The model of Briere et
149 al. has a form that can potentially fit the relationship between temperature and other
150 biological rates.¹⁰ It was also used to evaluate the relationship between temperature and
151 oviposition rate.

152 The effects of temperature on the developmental rate of *E. warrae* were analysed using
153 non-linear regression in R version 3.2.0 (2015-04-16) to estimate the parameters of the
154 model.¹⁰ Mean developmental rates from each replicate were used as data to balance the
155 analysis.

156 2.4. Effects of temperature on the oviposition activity of *E. warrae*

157 The influence of temperature on the oviposition activity of *E. warrae* was assessed at 15,
158 20, 25, 30 and 33 °C, 70 – 80 % RH. Before an experiment, wasps were kept at 25 °C. Each

159 adult *E. warrae* was exposed to 2nd instar greenhouse whitefly for two hours to become
160 experienced in host searching. The wasps were then separated from hosts for one day. This
161 procedure ensured that *E. warrae* would lay eggs quickly when hosts were available. Tomato
162 leaves infested with 2nd instar greenhouse whitefly were placed into the incubators one hour
163 before the experiment. The greenhouse whitefly infested leaves were covered by clip cages,
164 making sure there was an excess of whitefly nymphs in each cage. Four experienced adult *E.*
165 *warrae* were released into each clip cage at the experimental temperature. The wasps were
166 removed from the cages after three hours to ensure that the availability of unparasitised hosts
167 was not limiting behaviour. Because *E. warrae* lays eggs under the ventral part of nymphs, all
168 the nymphs were turned over using a dissecting needle and the number of eggs laid was
169 recorded. Observations at each temperature were replicated four times. The analysis of the
170 effect of temperature on oviposition rate of *E. warrae* was the same as that of experiment 2.3.
171 There were four replicates at each temperature.

172 2.5. The effects of fluctuating temperature on the developmental times of *E. warrae*
173 To investigate whether the development of *E. warrae* under fluctuating temperature
174 conditions differed from that at constant temperatures, the same methods were used as in
175 experiment 2.3, except developing wasps were exposed to two fluctuating temperature
176 regimes. The temperatures were 33 °C in light and 26 °C in dark in the high fluctuating
177 temperature regime, and 25 °C in light and 15 °C in dark in the low fluctuating temperature
178 regime (70 – 80 % RH). The photoperiod was 14L: 10D. The numbers of adult *E. warrae*
179 that parasitized the nymphs were two and four in the high and low fluctuating temperature
180 regimes, according to the activity of the wasps. The developmental times of the parasitoids
181 from egg to adult were recorded and compared to development that was predicted based on
182 development at constant temperatures from the results of experiment 2.3. This experiment
183 had four replicates.

184 2.6. The effects of high temperature on emergence and development of greenhouse
185 whiteflies, *E. warrae* and *En. formosa*

186 The survival of greenhouse whitefly under the high temperature conditions was
187 investigated at 30, 33, 34.5, 36 and 37.5 °C, respectively (70 – 80 % RH). The effects of the
188 same temperatures on the development and survival of *E. warrae* and *En. Formosa* were also
189 assessed. The number of 2nd instar nymphs of greenhouse whiteflies in each clip cage at each
190 temperature was 100. Excessive numbers of nymphs were removed from the leaf with a pin.
191 The numbers of parasitoids of each species released into clip cages were 6, 6, 9, 18 and 36 at
192 temperatures 30, 33, 34.5, 36 and 37.5, respectively. The developmental times of parasitoids
193 and the numbers of adults of each species that emerged were recorded. This experiment was
194 replicated four times. Differences in developmental times between parasitoid species at each
195 temperature were analysed using analysis of variance with replicates treated as blocks, except
196 at 34.5 °C where a paired *t*-test was used due to no development by *En. formosa*.
197 Differences in numbers of parasitoids that emerged at each temperature were analysed with
198 paired *t*-tests by temperature. Statistical comparisons between temperatures were not
199 possible due to the differing numbers of adults that were used to initiate the experiment.

200 2.7. The mortality of adult *E. warrae* and *En. formosa* at constant high temperatures

201 The effects of constant high temperature on the mortality of adult *E. warrae* and *En.*
202 *formosa* were investigated. Adult *E. warrae* and *En. formosa* were placed into glass vials (18
203 mm diam x 50 mm) that had fine stainless steel mesh melted over a 10 mm hole in the plastic
204 lid to provide aeration. The vials rested in close-fitting semi-circular grooves in a dense
205 wooden block (12.5 × 10 × 2.5 cm³) that had been heated in an incubator to 36 °C or 37.5 °C,
206 70 – 80 % RH, which, according to the results of experiment 2.7, were stressful temperatures
207 for both wasp species. The wooden block was painted white and served as a thermal ballast to
208 maintain a constant temperature inside the vials during brief periods of observation when the

209 vials were removed from incubators. Pure honey and water were provided on a cotton dental
210 wick to ensure that the wasps did not die from starvation or dehydration. There were 10
211 wasps in each vial and five replicates at each temperature. The number of dead wasps was
212 recorded every three hours until all wasps died. The time of death was assumed to be the
213 midpoint between observations. The proportional hazards survival regression (Statistix
214 version 10.0, Analytical Software, Tallahassee, Florida, USA) was used to analyse of the
215 survival rate of the parasitoids.

216 2.9. The critical thermal maxima of adult *E. warrae* and *En. formosa* under ramping 217 temperature conditions

218 The critical thermal maxima of adult *E. warrae* and *En. formosa* were assessed using the
219 ramping temperature method.¹⁸ A water bath was used for this test and a precision
220 thermometer (E-MIL, H. J. Elliott Ltd, Treforest, U.K.) was used to measure the
221 temperature. Starting at 26 °C, temperatures were increased by 1°C every two minutes in
222 which the temperature increased gradually in the first minute and kept constant in the second
223 minute. Temperatures were controlled at ± 0.1 °C. *E. warrae* and *En. formosa* were put into
224 two separate small glass vials with closed lids. A shelf was made of iron wire to fix the vial in
225 the water bath. The vials were fixed in the shelf and they were easy to take out for quick
226 observation (<10 s). The shelf and vials were totally submerged into the water bath during the
227 experiment. A cotton wick saturated with 10 % honey solution was placed in each vial as a
228 water and food source. Ten one-day-old wasps were placed into each vial and this experiment
229 was replicated eight times. The number of dead wasps was recorded at the end of each
230 constant temperature exposure. Logistic regression (Statistix 10.0) was used to estimate the
231 critical thermal maxima of *E. warrae* and *En. formosa*, which was the temperature at which
232 50% of adults died. In all cases, parameter estimates are given as mean \pm standard error.

233 3. RESULTS

234 3.1. Effects of temperature on the developmental rate of *E. warrae*

235 The developmental rate of *E. warrae* increased as the temperature rose from 15 °C to
236 30 °C (Fig. 1). No development was completed at 36 °C, and this temperature was excluded
237 from the nonlinear regression analysis to fit the Briere model. The estimated optimum
238 temperature for the development of *E. warrae* was 31.4 °C and all parasitoids are predicted to
239 die when the temperature reaches 35.6 ± 1.1 °C. The lower threshold temperature of *E.*
240 *warrae* was 9.7 ± 0.8 °C; and the parameter “a” in Briere model was $6.41e^{-5} \pm 1.18e^{-5}$ and
241 “m” was 3.13 ± 0.82 . At 15 °C, it took more than two months for *E. warrae* to develop from
242 egg to adult, which is around four times longer than the developmental time at 30 °C.

243 3.2. Effects of temperature on oviposition of *E. warrae*

244 The oviposition rate of *E. warrae* increased as the temperature rose from 15 °C to 30 °C
245 (Fig. 2). No eggs were laid at 35 °C, and this temperature was excluded from the nonlinear
246 regression analysis to fit the Briere model. The estimated optimum temperature for
247 oviposition was 30.5 °C. The estimated lower critical temperature threshold for oviposition by
248 *E. warrae* was 13.7 ± 0.8 °C and the upper critical threshold was estimated at 34.9 ± 1.4 °C.
249 The empirical model parameters “a” and “m” in the model were estimated to be $0.00324 \pm$
250 0.00083 and 2.43 ± 0.95 .

251 3.3. The effects of fluctuating temperatures on developmental rate of *E. warrae*

252 The observed developmental times did not differ significantly from those predicted on
253 the basis of the calculated means of fluctuating day and night temperatures (high
254 temperatures: $t = 0.633$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.57$; low temperatures: $t = 0.917$, $df = 3$, $P = 0.427$;
255 Table 1).

256 3.4. The effects of high temperature on on emergence and development of greenhouse
257 whiteflies, *E. warrae* and *En. formosa*

258 The numbers of greenhouse whiteflies that emerged decreased markedly when the
259 temperature increased from 30 °C to 34.5 °C (Table 2). No successful development was
260 observed at 36 °C and 37.5 °C, while less than 5 % of adults on average emerged at 34.5 °C,
261 which is roughly 10 times fewer than at 30 °C.

262 Constant high temperatures had a greater negative influence on *En. formosa* than *E.*
263 *warrae* (Table 2). The numbers of adult *E. warrae* and *En. formosa* that emerged did not
264 differ at 30 °C and 33 °C. Some adult *E. warrae* emerged at 34.5 °C but no *En. formosa* did.
265 The developmental times of both parasitoids increased at the highest recorded temperature in
266 which they survived.

267 3.6. The mortality of adult *E. warrae* and *En. formosa* at high temperatures

268 Proportional hazards analysis indicated that survival of adult parasitoids at constant high
269 temperatures differed between species ($Z = 4.94$, $P < 10^{-4}$) and temperatures ($Z = 2.20$, $P =$
270 0.028). Adult *E. warrae* survived 5.4 h longer than *En. formosa* at constant 36 °C and 3.7 h
271 longer at 37.5 °C (Fig. 3).

272 Logistic regression indicated that ramping temperatures affected the species differently
273 ($Z = 5.787$, $P < 10^{-8}$; Fig. 4). The estimated critical thermal maximum temperature for *E.*
274 *warrae* is 42.6°C and for *En. formosa* is at 41.8 °C. One *E. warrae* in replicate three died
275 when the temperature was 35 °C; this single wasp was discarded from the data because it was
276 a statistical outlier.

277 4. DISCUSSION

278 The developmental rate of *E. warrae* in the range of 15 to 30 °C is broadly similar to *En.*
279 *formosa*, *Eretmocerus mundus* (Mercet) and *Eretmocerus eremicus* (Rose) (Hymenoptera:
280 Aphelinidae), which are widely used in biological control (Fig. 1).¹⁹ Its development at high
281 temperatures is constrained by the development of its host, which in our experiments also did
282 not occur at 36 °C (Table 2). The maximum rate of development of *E. warrae* is predicted at
283 31.4 °C, which is commonly exceeded during the summer months. The high developmental
284 rate of *E. warrae* at high temperatures indicates the potential of using *E. warrae* and *En.*
285 *formosa* in combination, as *E. warrae* should suppress greenhouse whitefly more effectively
286 during the hot summer while *En. formosa* is known to control whiteflies at lower
287 temperatures³. This is analogous to the complementary relationship between *En. formosa* and
288 *E. eremicus*, which are released for control of *T. vaporariorum* and *Bemisia tabaci*
289 (Gennadius) (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) in European greenhouses.¹⁹ The predicted relationship
290 between temperature and development is useful for optimising methods for the mass rearing
291 and deployment of this parasitoid. There is limited research on the effects fluctuating
292 temperature on parasitoids, but fluctuating temperatures are normal in production systems.
293 When *E. warrae* was reared in fluctuating temperatures, its developmental times were
294 virtually the same as those predicted based on rearing at constant temperatures with the same
295 mean (Table 1). This suggests that the model of the developmental rate based on
296 development at constant temperatures can be applied to predict the approximate timing of
297 developmental under moderate fluctuating temperatures in greenhouses.

298 *E. warrae* has a relatively high oviposition rate even when the temperature is 33 °C (Fig.
299 2), which should facilitate its controlling influence on greenhouse whitefly under such host
300 conditions. The effects of temperature on oviposition show a similar response to
301 developmental rate, but oviposition is predicted to occur over a more limited temperature

302 range. *En. formosa* is reported to mature 8-10 eggs per day, which is equivalent to the
303 maximum number laid by *E. warrae* in 3 h at 30.5 °C.²⁰ However, *E. warrae* exhibits
304 detrotoky, with rare production of males in culture, so it is likely to have much greater
305 reproductive potential than *En. formosa*.

306 The development of greenhouse whitefly was adversely affected by relatively high
307 temperatures and this was reflected in the development and survival of the two parasitoids
308 (Table 2). The impact of temperatures above 30 °C on survival of the host constrains the
309 potential development of its parasitoids, which was reflected in their observed developmental
310 rates and survival. The effects of high temperature were evident at a lower temperature for
311 *En. formosa* than for *E. warrae*. As *E. warrae* completed development at the same high
312 temperatures as its host, it has the potential to persist in greenhouses as long as immature
313 greenhouse whiteflies are present.

314 Adult *E.warrae* survived both constant and ramping high temperatures better than *En.*
315 *formosa* (Figures 3 and 4). Although the differences between the species are small, they may
316 still be significant in greenhouses where summer temperatures are extreme. Extreme high
317 temperatures typically occur in the afternoon hours. The evaporative systems that are used to
318 cool greenhouses have a maximum potential temperature reduction in the order of 12 °C,
319 which limit maximum temperatures.²¹ However, extreme temperatures do not last long
320 during a day and may not occur on many days of the year. Hence a species that can better
321 withstand high temperatures for short periods could be potentially better in applied biological
322 control programs in regions with high temperatures during summer months. This is consistent
323 with the observation that *E. warrae* can be found naturally parasitising greenhouse whiteflies
324 in greenhouses in the South Australian summer.

325 5. CONCLUSION

326 Our results indicate that *E. warrae* should be a complementary biological control agent to *En.*
327 *formosa* in greenhouses when the summer temperatures are high. At high temperatures, *E.*
328 *warrae* had a higher survival and emergence of adults than *En. formosa*, and this highlights
329 its potential as a biological control agent. *E. warrae* could be used alone or in combination
330 with *En. formosa*, notably in hot regions. This research should enable farmers to use *E.*
331 *warrae* as part of a pest management program to achieve more effective control of
332 greenhouse whitefly.

333 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

334 Financial support provided by the China Scholarship Council, the University of Adelaide
335 and Biological Services to Tao Wang. We thank Michael Nash for his suggestions for the
336 critical thermal temperature experiment and Maryam Yazdani and two anonymous reviewers
337 for their suggestions on the draft.

338 **REFERENCES**

- 339 1. Byrne, D.N., Bellows Jr., T.S., 1991. Whitefly biology. Annual Review of Entomology
340 36, 431-457.
- 341 2. Hoddle, M., Van Driesche, R., Sanderson, J., 1998. Biology and use of the whitefly
342 parasitoid *Encarsia formosa*. Annual Review of Entomology 43, 645-669.
- 343 3. Waage, J., Hassell, M., 1982. Parasitoids as biological control agents—a fundamental
344 approach. Parasitology 84, 241-268.
- 345 4. Gerling, D., 1990. Natural enemies of whiteflies: predators and parasitoids. Whiteflies:
346 their bionomics, pest status and management, pp. 147-185.
- 347 5. De Barro, P., Hart, P., Morton, R., 2000. The biology of two *Eretmocerus*
348 *spp.*(Haldeman) and three *Encarsia spp.* Forster and their potential as biological control

- 349 agents of *Bemisia tabaci* biotype B in Australia. *Entomologia Experimentalis et*
350 *Applicata* 94, 93-102.
- 351 6. Workman, P., Scott, I., Drayton, G., 2008. *Eretmocerus warrae*: a new whitefly
352 parasitoid found in New Zealand. *New Zealand Plant Protection* 61, 386.
- 353 7. De Barro, P.J., Driver, F., Naumann, I.D., Schmidt, S., Clarke, G.M., Curran, J., 2000.
354 Descriptions of three species of *Eretmocerus* Haldeman (Hymenoptera: Aphelinidae)
355 parasitising *Bemisia tabaci* (Gennadius) (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) and *Trialeurodes*
356 *vaporariorum* (Westwood) (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) in Australia based on
357 morphological and molecular data. *Australian Journal of Entomology* 39, 259-269.
- 358 8. Biological Services, 2018. *Eretmocerus*.
359 www.biologicalservices.com.au/products/eretmocerus-22.html [accessed 26 April 2018]
- 360 9. Ludwig, D., 1928. The effects of temperature on the development of an insect (*Popillia*
361 *japonica* Newman). *Physiological zoology* 1, 358-389.
- 362 10. Briere, J.F., Pracros, P., Le Roux, A.Y., Pierre, J.S., 1999. A Novel Rate Model of
363 Temperature-Dependent Development for Arthropods. *Environmental Entomology* 28,
364 22-29.
- 365 11. Tang, J., Ikediala, J., Wang, S., Hansen, J.D., Cavalieri, R., 2000. High-temperature-
366 short-time thermal quarantine methods. *Postharvest Biology and Technology* 21, 129-
367 145.
- 368 12. Tauber, M.J., Tauber, C.A., Nechols, J.R., Helgesen, R.G., 1982. A new role for
369 temperature in insect dormancy: Cold maintains diapause in temperate zone diptera.
370 *Science*, 218(4573) : 690-691.
- 371 13. Terblanche, J.S., Deere, J.A., Clusella-Trullas, S., Janion, C., Chown, S.L., 2007. Critical
372 thermal limits depend on methodological context. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B:*
373 *Biological Sciences* 274, 2935-2943.

- 374 14. Haas, J., Lozano, E. R., Poppy, G. M., 2018. A simple, light clip-cage for experiments
375 with aphids. *Agricultural and Forest Entomology* <https://doi.org/10.1111/afe.12278>.
- 376 15. Logan, J.A., 1988. Toward an expert system for development of pest simulation models.
377 *Environmental Entomology* 17, 359-376.
- 378 16. Schoolfield, R., Sharpe, P., Magnuson, C., 1981. Non-linear regression of biological
379 temperature-dependent rate models based on absolute reaction-rate theory. *Journal of*
380 *theoretical biology* 88, 719-731.
- 381 17. Sharpe, P., Schoolfield, R., Butler, G., 1981. Distribution model of *Heliothis zea*
382 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) development times. *The Canadian Entomologist* 113, 845-856.
- 383 18. Terblanche, J.S., Hoffmann, A.A, Mitchell, K.A., Rako, L., le Roux, P.C., Chown, S.L.,
384 2011. Ecologically relevant measures of tolerance to potentially lethal temperatures.
385 *Journal of Experimental Biology* 214, 3713-3725.
- 386 19. Qiu, Y., van Lenteren, J.C., Drost, Y.C., Posthuma-Doodeman, C., 2004. Life-history
387 parameters of *Encarsia formosa*, *Eretmocerus eremicus* and *E. mundus*, aphelinid
388 parasitoids of *Bemisia argentifolii* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae). *European Journal of*
389 *Entomology* 101, 83-94.
- 390 20. Kajita, H., van Lenteren, J.C., 1982. The parasite host relationship between *Encarsia*
391 *formosa* (Hymenoptera, Aphelinidae) and *Trialeurodes vaporariorum* (Homoptera,
392 Aleyrodidae). *Zeitschrift für Angewandte Entomologie* 93, 430-439.
- 393 21. Landsberg, J. J., White, B., Thorpe, M. R., 1979. Computer analysis of the efficacy of
394 evaporative cooling for glasshouses in high energy. environments. *Journal of*
395 *Agricultural Engineering Research* 24, 29–39.

396

397 Table 1. The developmental time (mean \pm SE) of *E. warrae* at two fluctuating temperature
398 regimes compared to model predictions. The predicted developmental time was obtained using
399 the Briere model fitted to constant temperature data (see Fig. 1).

400

Temperature regime (°C)		Developmental time (days)	
14 h Light	10 h Dark	Observed	Predicted
33.0	26.0	14.98 \pm 0.12	14.90
25.0	15.0	27.93 \pm 0.45	28.34

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422 Table 2. Adult emergence numbers and developmental times (mean \pm SE) of *E. warrae*
 423 and *En. formosa* at a range of high temperatures. One hundred *T. vaporariorum* were present
 424 at the start of each trial. The effect of high temperatures on adult emergence of *T. vaporariorum*
 425 was tested in the absence of parasitoids.

426

Temperature (°C)	No. of <i>T. vaporariorum</i> emerged	No. of <i>E. warrae</i> emerged /female	No. of <i>En. formosa</i> emerged /female	Developmental time of <i>E. warrae</i> (day)	Developmental time of <i>En. formosa</i> (day)
30.0	44.3 \pm 2.8	4.1 \pm 0.4	4.3 \pm 0.1 <i>ns</i>	14.52 \pm 0.11	14.33 \pm 0.11 <i>ns</i>
33.0	17.3 \pm 1.5	2.0 \pm 0.1	1.4 \pm 0.1 <i>ns</i>	14.36 \pm 0.14	15.65 \pm 0.21 ***
34.5	4.5 \pm 1.0	0.5 \pm 0.1	0 *	15.46 \pm 0.55	0 ***
36.0	0	0	0	0	0
37.5	0	0	0	0	0

427 Comparisons between parasitoid species: * $P < 0.05$, *** $P < 0.001$

428

429 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

430 Figure 1. Temperature-dependent developmental rate (\pm SD) of *Eretmocerus warrae*. In
431 the Briere model, $a = 0.00006$, $m = 3.07$, $T_0 = 9.62$, $T_L = 35.63$. Where no error bar is visible,
432 the standard deviations were ≤ 0.001 /day. 550 observations in total.

433 Figure 2. Temperature-dependent fecundity (\pm SD) of *Eretmocerus warrae*. In the Briere
434 model, $a = 0.004$, $m = 2.43$, $T_0 = 13.70$, $T_L = 34.94$. The standard deviation was 0.96 at 15 °C.
435 459 observations in total.

436 Figure 3. Survival analysis of *Eretmocerus warrae* and *Encarsia formosa* at 36 and
437 37.5 °C. Dotted line is the survival rate of *En. formosa* at 36 °C, dash- and dotted line is that
438 of *E. warrae* at 36 °C, dashed line is *En. formosa* at 37.5 °C and solid line is *E. warrae* at
439 37.5 °C. ($\chi^2=28.78$, $df = 2$, $P < 0.001$)

440 Figure 4. Survival of *Eretmocerus warrae* and *Encarsia formosa* using ramping
441 temperature. Curves fitted by logistic regression: a) Survival rate of *E. warrae*, the constant is
442 115.76, deviance 188.52, $P = 0.049$, $df = 158$; b) Survival rate of *E. formosa*, the constant is
443 155.98, deviance 143.99, $P = 0.71$, $df = 154$.

444







