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8 **Special Issue IEIC6**

9 10 **Observations of parasitoid behaviour in both no-choice and choice** 11 **tests are consistent with proposed ecological host range**

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1 **Abstract**

2 The solitary larval endoparasitoid *Eadya daenerys* Ridenbaugh (Hymenoptera: Braconidae) is
3 a proposed biological control agent of *Paropsis charybdis* Stål (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae,
4 Chrysomelinae), a pest of eucalypts in New Zealand. *Eadya daenerys* oviposition behaviour
5 was examined in two assay types during host range testing, with the aim of improving
6 ecological host range prediction. No-choice sequential and two-choice behavioural
7 observations were undertaken against nine closely related species of New Zealand non-target
8 beetle larvae, including a native beetle, introduced weed biocontrol agents, and invasive
9 paropsine beetles. No behavioural measure was significantly different between no-choice and
10 two-choice tests. In sequential no-choice assays the order of first presentation (target–non-
11 target) had no significant effect on the median number of attacks or the attack rate while on
12 the plant. Beetle species was the most important factor. Parasitoids expressed significantly
13 lower on-plant attack rates against non-targets compared to target *P. charybdis* larvae. The
14 median number of attacks was always higher towards target larvae than towards non-target
15 larvae, except for the phylogenetically closest related non-target *Trachymela sloanei*
16 (Blackburn) (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae, Chrysomelinae). Most non-target larvae were
17 disregarded upon contact, which suggests that the infrequent attack behaviour observed by
18 two individual *E. daenerys* against *Allocharis* nr. *tarsalis* larvae in two-choice tests and the
19 frass of *Chrysolina abchasica* (Weise) was probably abnormal host selection behaviour.
20 Results indicate that *E. daenerys* is unlikely to attack non-target species apart from
21 *Eucalyptus*-feeding invasive paropsines (Chrysomelinae). Non-lethal negative impacts upon
22 less preferred non-target larvae are possible if *E. daenerys* does attack them in the field;
23 however, this is likely to be rare.

24 25 **Abbreviated abstract**

26 In host range tests the parasitoid *Eadya daenerys* (Hymenoptera: Braconidae) attacked equally
27 the beetle larvae of *Trachymela sloanei* and the target *Paropsis charybdis* (both leaf-feeding
28 paropsines of *Eucalyptus* trees; Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae). In these assays *Eadya daenerys*
29 spent more time searching, stinging larvae and frass. All other non-target beetle species feed
30 on unrelated plant species in New Zealand, and *Eadya daenerys* spent more time resting and
31 disregarding these larvae, and they were rarely attacked. [75 words]

32 33 **Graphic for Table of Contents**

34 Parasitoid Behaviour Graphical Abstract.tif

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Accurate prediction of a parasitoid's host range prior to its introduction into a new country as
3 a biological control agent is the most important aspect to ensuring only host specific natural
4 enemies are introduced (Barratt et al., 2010). Whereas phylogeny is an invaluable starting
5 point to predict parasitoid host range (Hoddle, 2004), other criteria such as ecological
6 similarities of the target to non-target organisms in the new country are also very important
7 (Kuhlmann et al., 2006; van Lenteren et al., 2006; Paynter et al., 2010). Although the safety of
8 biological control can generally be improved by only introducing parasitoids that are host
9 specific to the genus or species level (Van Driesche & Hoddle, 2016), how this specificity is
10 assured from laboratory testing remains a challenging area of research.

11 Assay testing designs can influence the outcome of host specificity tests with
12 parasitoids (Barton Browne & Withers, 2002; Van Driesche & Murray, 2004). A
13 methodological consensus exists to guide the compilation of a host testing list and how to
14 approach host testing from a risk assessment point of view (Kuhlmann et al., 2006; van
15 Lenteren et al., 2006). However, there still remain variable predictions of ecological host
16 range from comparing results produced by choice vs. no-choice test methods (Mansfield &
17 Mills, 2004; Murray et al., 2010). There is continuing interest in characterising chemically-
18 mediated responses from parasitoids to target and non-target cues during host range
19 assessment to help resolve these current uncertainties (Avila et al., 2016). However, not all
20 parasitoids respond to chemical cues in the laboratory. The parasitoid of Australian origin
21 *Eadya daenerys* Ridenbaugh (Hymenoptera: Braconidae) (Ridenbaugh et al., 2018) was one
22 such species that appeared to respond to both visual and chemical cues (T. Withers, pers.
23 obs.). Behavioural observations of host finding and acceptance when target and non-target
24 species are presented in more realistic arenas are, in this situation, a useful adjunct to
25 physiological host range tests. By observing the interactions, we can learn to what extent the
26 non-target plants are searched, whether or not the non-target species were contacted, and if
27 oviposition occurred.

28 To assess its potential as a biocontrol agent for release in New Zealand (NZ), realistic
29 arena assays were undertaken on *E. daenerys* with the aim to predict its ecological host range.
30 The target pest is the invasive *Eucalyptus* tortoise beetle of the subtribe (or clade) Paropsina,
31 *Paropsis charybdis* Stål (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae, Chrysomelinae), that has been
32 established in NZ since 1916 (Styles, 1970). Species in the Paropsina are primarily larval and
33 adult herbivores of *Eucalyptus* and *Acacia* from Australia and Papua New Guinea (Reid,
34 2006). *Paropsis charybdis* specialises on the flush adult foliage of *Eucalyptus*, subgenus

1 *Symphyomyrtus* species, which have economic importance as exotic forestry species in NZ
2 (Withers & Peters, 2017). *Paropsis charybdis* has two or three overlapping generations per
3 year, as adults are long-lived. In NZ, larvae are present in November and December and again
4 in February to April (Bain & Kay, 1989; Murphy & Kay, 2000; Jones & Withers, 2003). Field
5 collections and sentinel-larval trials in the field in the country of origin revealed *E. daenerys*
6 parasitizing larvae of four species within the closely related genera *Paropsis* and
7 *Paropsisterna* (Peixoto et al., 2018). These two genera are in tribe Chrysomelini and subtribe
8 or clade Paropsina (Reid, 2006). New Zealand has no native Paropsina species, only invasive
9 pest species (Withers et al., 2017); however, there are a number of other native beetles and
10 beneficial weed biological control agents in NZ in the same sub-family as the Paropsina, the
11 Chrysomelinae (Withers et al., 2015).

12 To assess the non-target species that may be at risk from an introduced parasitoid we
13 examined the Chrysomelidae sub-family relationships from Reid (1995) and Leschen & Reid
14 (2004). This resulted in close consideration of all NZ species of Galerucinae, the sister sub-
15 family to the Chrysomelinae, as well as NZ native and beneficial introduced Chrysomelidae
16 (Withers et al., 2015, 2020). Two methods of assessing non-target risk were compared to
17 ensure we had included the most appropriate species on the host testing list (Withers et al.,
18 2018). The most important requirements were (1) non-targets sharing important biological
19 traits with the target pest *P. charybdis*, and (2) including a range of species from closely to
20 less-closely related to the target, based on a proposed phylogeny that examined co-evolution
21 with host plant families derived from Australian chrysomelines (Jurado-Rivera et al., 2009).
22 The required biological traits for non-targets to be a high priority for testing were (1)
23 possessing soft-bodied, external leaf-feeding larvae; (2) having a generation of larvae active
24 in late spring (November-December in the southern hemisphere); and (3) possessing a
25 relatively large body (>6 mm long as an adult). This resulted in a host test list for which the
26 top 10 included: a close relative pest of *Eucalyptus* sharing the same niche (tribe Paropsina),
27 two large weed biocontrol agent Chrysomelinae beetles from Europe, a large Chrysomelinae
28 pest of *Acacia*, the larger of NZ endemic Chrysomelinae sub-alpine beetles, two Galerucinae
29 weed biocontrol agents, and two phylogenetically more distant weed biocontrol agents (in the
30 chrysomelid subfamilies Criocerinae, and Cassidinae) (Table 1). In terms of testing
31 galerucines, we chose to test exotic rather than endemic species, one from each of the two
32 tribes Galerucini and Alticini. This was a practical choice as galerucines are characterised by
33 soil-dwelling root feeders whereas alticine ‘flea beetles’ are usually miniscule but biologically
34 diverse (Withers et al., 2020). The two weed biocontrol agents were larger than any NZ

1 species, spring-time active, leaf feeders, and easily obtainable. In total, nine species of non-
2 target beetle larvae were presented to the parasitoid *E. daenerys* on their respective host plant
3 to enable behavioural observations of their interactions, whereas the invasive pest *P.*
4 *charybdis* was always the control target species.

5 *Eadya daenerys* is a braconid wasp from Australia with a bright orange head and black
6 thorax and abdomen (Ridenbaugh et al., 2018). *Eadya* species approach host larvae while
7 antennating and quickly insert their ovipositor into any-sized host larva. Oviposition takes
8 approximately 1 s while a single egg is delivered directly into the haemocoel (Rice, 2005b).
9 *Paropsina* host larvae have a range of defensive behaviours; however, many are slow to
10 respond when densely aggregated on a host leaf. *Paropsis charybdis* larvae react aggressively
11 to parasitoid attack by everting dorsal glands from between their eighth and ninth dorsal
12 segments (Clark, 1930) and thrashing from side to side. This results in larger third and fourth
13 instars often effectively dislodging *E. daenerys*. This defence behaviour impacts on attack
14 rates as parasitoids contacted by dorsal gland secretions will stop searching to groom
15 themselves (Rice, 2005a). To minimise disruption from defence behaviour, second-instar *P.*
16 *charybdis* were consistently utilised. Following successful *E. daenerys* egg insertion,
17 combined egg and larval development occurs in approximately 25 days at 18 °C within the
18 host (Rice & Allen, 2009). A single fully grown *E. daenerys* larva emerges from the host's
19 prepupa within the soil, spins a brown silk cocoon, and then undergoes an obligate pupal
20 diapause until emergence the following summer (Rice, 2005b). *Eadya daenerys* is univoltine
21 in Tasmania, Australia, with adults present from November to January and phenological
22 knowledge suggests that *E. daenerys* could be effective against the spring larval generation of
23 *P. charybdis* in NZ (AR Pugh, unpubl.; Withers & Peters, 2017). The behavioural
24 observations during choice and no-choice tests were undertaken within Scion's insect
25 containment facility in Rotorua, NZ. Physiological host development assays were also
26 conducted (Withers et al., 2020), with both research studies completed prior to NZ
27 government approval for *E. daenerys* field release being granted in 2019.

29 MATERIAL AND METHODS

30 Parasitoid culture

31 Due to difficulties in establishing a laboratory colony of *E. daenerys* in NZ, field-collected
32 adults of unknown age were netted on the wing in *Eucalyptus nitens* (Deane et Maiden)
33 Maiden (Myrtaceae) plantations in Tasmania, Australia (Moina forest 41°32'27"S,
34 146°04'38"E, Runnymede Forest 42°38'08.9"S, 147°33'57.9"E, Ellendale Forest

1 42°38'07.24"S, 146°45'04.24"E) between 28 November and 12 December 2014-2017. Adult
2 female wasps were shipped within 7 days of collection in chilled boxes to the containment
3 facility in Rotorua, NZ. Parasitoids were maintained in a temperature-controlled room (14-18
4 °C), with a constant supply of honey for a maximum of 35 days before being used in
5 experiments. In 2014 and 2015 *E. daenerys* were kept individually in glass vials at 18 °C but
6 this reduced longevity to 14-18 days. In 2016 and 2017 they were maintained in individual
7 ventilated 500-ml plastic containers lined with a paper towel, moistened with a spray of water
8 droplets every 48 h, and kept at 14 °C and L14:D10. These conditions increased parasitoid
9 longevity to 35 days.

11 **Beetle cultures**

12 The target (*P. charybdis*) colony was established each November from adults collected from
13 various *E. nitens* plantations in the central North Island of NZ. All life stages were maintained
14 in the laboratory at 18 °C and L14:D10 in large ventilated Perspex cages (1.0 × 0.8 × 0.6 m).
15 Bases of cages were lined with paper towel and dead leaves. Twice per week adult beetles
16 were provided with freshly cut branches of *E. nitens* foliage bearing adult leaves and new
17 flush foliage, with their cut bases sitting in tap water. These foliage branches were stored for
18 up to 1 week prior at 4 °C with bases sitting in water, covered by a large plastic bag to reduce
19 transpiration. Egg laying commenced in late November and all egg batches were removed
20 daily into individual Petri dishes. As eggs hatched, groups of 10-12 larvae were transferred
21 onto cut flush foliage tips of *E. nitens* in 50-ml ventilated plastic containers for 4-5 days
22 before being used in experiments as second instars.

23 Non-target beetle colonies (Table 1) were reared in the laboratory under the same
24 conditions as *P. charybdis* to obtain larvae of the stage suitable for experiments (second-third
25 instar and of similar body length to second instar *P. charybdis*), each species with a method
26 adjusted slightly to optimise rearing success:

27 *Trachymela sloanei* (Blackburn) is a defoliating pest of *Eucalyptus* trees that invaded
28 NZ in 1976. Both the larval and adult stages of the beetle feed on a number of *Eucalyptus* spp.
29 (Selman, 1985). The eggs of *T. sloanei* are small and red-brown, and laid in a cluster stuck
30 together in bark crevices. Hatching larvae are initially gregarious and feed nocturnally on
31 young leaves of their host plants. *Trachymela sloanei* adults were collected in December of
32 2016 and 2017 from beneath the bark of large amenity eucalypts, in Napier city, Hawkes Bay,
33 NZ, and maintained on a foliage mix of *Eucalyptus leucoxylon* subsp. *leucoxylon* F.Muell.
34 and *E. nitens* in the form of freshly cut branches. Larvae hatching from egg batches laid

1 within corrugated cardboard or old leaves were transferred to unventilated 250-ml plastic
2 containers along with flush foliage and tissue paper to mature.

3 *Gonioctena olivacea* (Förster) was introduced from the UK in 2007 as a biocontrol
4 agent of the European legume scotch broom, *Cytisus scoparius* (L.) Link. Beetles are
5 univoltine, adults appearing in spring to early summer and laying eggs on the leaf surface of
6 host plants. Larvae feed on leaves and attain full growth through three instars. Adults were
7 collected in spring (November 2015) from the Army Training area, Waiouru, NZ, and
8 maintained in 4-l ventilated plastic containers on potted plants with the base of the container
9 covered in damp filter paper. Experimental larvae were reared in ventilated 50-ml plastic vials
10 with several sprigs of fresh *C. scoparius*, replaced every 2 days.

11 *Dicranosterna semipunctata* (Chapuis) is an invasive pest of the exotic tree species
12 *Acacia melanoxylon* R. Br. and has been in NZ since 1996 (Murray & Withers, 2011).

13 *Dicranosterna semipunctata* is probably univoltine in NZ, with oviposition beginning in
14 spring (October to December) with the onset of new *A. melanoxylon* phyllode growth. Eggs
15 are laid singly on the foliage, and larvae proceed through four instars, feeding solitarily.

16 Larvae of *D. semipunctata* originated from unhatched eggs or L1 larvae collected in
17 December 2015 and 2017 from the foliage of trees growing on Scion grounds, in Rotorua,
18 NZ. They were maintained on *A. melanoxylon* phyllodes cut fresh daily and maintained with
19 stems inserted into a water reservoir in a lower test chamber (535 ml) and held in place by a
20 folded paper wick.

21 *Allocharis* nr. *tarsalis* Broun (identified by R. Leschen, Manaaki Whenua Landcare
22 Research) is an uncommon endemic Chrysomelinae found feeding externally on leaves of
23 *Veronica albicans* (Pétrie) Cockayne, in Kahurangi National Park, Northwest Nelson, NZ. A
24 colony was started from 250 larvae collected in January 2017 from a number of sites between
25 1 200–1 400 m a.s.l. from near Mt Arthur (41°19'80"S, 172°69'51"E), maintained in 300-ml
26 ventilated plastic containers on small sections cut from potted, organically grown, *V. albicans*
27 with the base of the container covered in dampened *Sphagnum* spp. moss. The beetle is
28 thought to be univoltine with overwintered adults emerging from hibernation in leaf litter in
29 early summer. Eggs have never been seen but may be laid in leaf litter beneath the plant, the
30 black larvae feed diurnally on foliage during December and January, scraping oval feeding
31 holes, before pupating in the leaf litter and probably entering extended diapause (C.
32 Wardhaugh, pers. obs.).

33 *Chrysolina abchasica* (Weise) is a weed biocontrol agent introduced from Georgia
34 (Europe) in 2015 (Bieńkowski, 2011), against tutsan, *Hypericum androsaemum* L., an

1 evergreen or semi-evergreen shrub that grows to about 1.5 m tall (Groenteman, 2013). Adults
2 were obtained from Manaaki Whenua Landcare Research and were maintained in 4-l
3 ventilated plastic containers on numerous freshly cut sections of potted *H. androsaemum* with
4 the base of the container covered in dampened vermiculite. Larvae were transferred to
5 containers separate from adults to mature until at the stage suitable for experiments.

6 *Lochmaea suturalis* (Förster) was introduced in 1996 from Oakworth, northern UK, for
7 the biological control of heather, *Calluna vulgaris* (L.) Hull. The colony originated from
8 adults collected in spring (November 2015) from the Army Training area, Waiouru, NZ, and
9 maintained in 4-l ventilated plastic containers on numerous freshly cut sections of heather
10 with the bases sitting in damp florists foam. Larvae were transferred to containers separate
11 from adults to mature until at the stage suitable for experiments and maintained on small
12 cuttings replaced every 48-72 h.

13 *Agasicles hygrophila* Selman & Vogt is an Alticini flea beetle (Ge et al., 2012)
14 introduced in 1984 from Argentina as a weed biocontrol agent against the semi-aquatic rooted
15 weed *Alternanthera philoxeroides* (Mart.) Griseb, that grows in northern areas of NZ. Both
16 adults and juveniles feed on the leaves of *A. philoxeroides*. Although the weed is aquatic, it
17 can also spread to damp soil beyond the edges of infested water bodies. Three instars feed for
18 a short period of just 2 weeks before boring a hole in the stem to pupate. Adults supplied from
19 Manaaki Whenua Landcare Research were maintained in 1-l unventilated plastic containers
20 on numerous freshly cut sections of *A. philoxeroides*. The plants originated from rooted
21 cuttings which were maintained in a water trough in a glass house on Scion grounds, Rotorua,
22 NZ (with permission from Bay of Plenty Regional Council). These plants were supplemented
23 once every 2 months with phosphorous. Larvae were transferred to 250-ml plastic containers
24 separate from adults and maintained on small cut sections, replaced every 48-72 h, to mature.

25 *Neolema ogloblini* (Monrós) was introduced into NZ from Brazil in 2011 as a weed
26 biocontrol agent for *Tradescantia fluminensis* Velloso (Fowler et al., 2013), commonly
27 known as tradescantia. Adult beetles lay eggs in small clusters on the underside of leaves. The
28 larvae accumulate a faecal shield on their dorsal surface. Larvae of the first few instars
29 sometimes feed gregariously on the leaf surface, but separate when they are older, feeding
30 individually on the leaf. Multiple pairs of adults provided from the Manaaki Whenua
31 Landcare Research colony were held in a large mesh sleeve cage enclosing potted plants of *T.*
32 *fluminensis*. Larvae were removed from the infested plant upon the leaf on which they were
33 feeding and transferred to 250-ml plastic containers separate from adults and maintained on
34 small cuttings, replaced every 48-72 h, to mature.

1 *Cassida rubiginosa* Müller was introduced into NZ from Europe in 2008 as a weed
2 biocontrol agent against thistle pasture weeds, mainly *Cirsium arvense* (L.) Scop. The beetle
3 is univoltine with overwintered adults emerging from hibernation in early spring. Females lay
4 oothecae, containing about 10 eggs, on the undersides of thistle leaves during spring. Larvae
5 are leaf feeders, and pass through five instars, pupating attached to the leaf (Koji et al., 2012).
6 Larvae accumulate a faecal shield on their dorsal surface. Adults originating from an infested
7 site in Masterton, Wairarapa, were maintained in 4-l ventilated plastic containers on potted *C.*
8 *arvense*. Egg batches were removed upon sections of cut leaf and maintained on damp filter
9 paper until hatching. First instars were carefully transferred by camel hair brush to cut leaves
10 held in 300-ml plastic containers, with a fresh leaf provided every 48 h, to mature.

11 12 **Behavioural observations in no-choice sequential tests**

13 Experimental arenas were large glass Petri dishes (140 mm diameter, 22 mm high).
14 Experiments were conducted under both fluorescent and natural lighting within Scion's PC2
15 insect containment laboratory in Rotorua, NZ, at 20 °C and 75% RH. Eight second-instar
16 beetle larvae were pre-settled 1-2 h prior to the assays onto a 5-8 cm sprig of their host
17 foliage, in clean Petri dishes. In most cases (apart from the nocturnally active *T. sloanei*) an
18 hour was sufficient for larvae to settle into rest or begin to feed. No attempt was made to
19 remove frass associated with this feeding activity. For each replicate a reproductively active
20 (not used prior in the same assay type) but not naive female *E. daenerys* was selected. Pre-
21 screening involved holding a female in a cage within the 20 °C laboratory and introducing a *P.*
22 *charybdis* (target) larva near the female in the same cage on a fine paint brush. If the female
23 began to antennate or probe towards the larva it was considered to be in a suitable state for
24 testing. The parasitoid was then caught and introduced into one of the glass arenas, alternating
25 first contact with either the target host *Eucalyptus* leaves (on which eight *P. charybdis* larvae
26 were already settled) for 10 min (T). After 10 min the parasitoid was caught in a vial and
27 immediately moved by tapping the up-ended vial onto the non-target host (NT) foliage sprig
28 (upon which eight non-target larvae of 2-4 mm length were already settled) in the NT arena,
29 or vice versa, and observed for another 10-min period. Behavioural observations began the
30 instant the parasitoid contacted foliage. Observations were recorded to the nearest second by
31 coding the behaviour and location of the observed behaviour, as below.

32 33 **Behavioural observations in two-choice tests**

34 Experimental arenas were large glass Petri dishes (140 mm diameter, 44 mm high, i.e., double

1 the height of the no-choice arenas) with eight beetle larvae (second instar or 2-4 mm long)
2 previously settled on a 5-8 cm foliage tip or sprig of their respective host plant (Table 1). The
3 two sprigs were placed 4-5 cm apart. The female parasitoid was tapped from the vial into the
4 dish midway between both sprigs of foliage and recording began when she first contacted
5 either of the host plant sprigs. The same behaviours as listed below were recorded and
6 analysed on the basis of which larval species the behaviour was directed towards, and/or upon
7 which host plant the time foraging, attacking, or resting was spent. The two-choice assays ran
8 for 25 min. We conducted a minimum of 12 replicates on each species with the exception of
9 *T. sloanei*, for which insufficient larvae were obtained, and for *A. nr. tarsalis* with sufficient
10 larvae for only eight choice assays. The only assays discarded were those in which a female
11 never contacted or attacked a single *P. charybdis*.

12 At the conclusion of either type of behavioural assay, the eight target larvae were
13 reared in a plastic container (174 × 118 × 28 mm) with small ventilation holes punched in the
14 lid. The base of the container was lined with paper towel, and fresh foliage was supplied
15 every 48-72 h. *Paropsis charybdis* larvae cease feeding after approximately 12 days at 20 ±
16 0.5 °C. At this point, they were individually placed into a small (20 × 20 mm) Trace and Toile
17 fabric pouch (McCall's, China), with the ends sealed with two staples to ensure no gap larger
18 than 2 mm from which a pre-pupa could escape. This method had been developed to
19 encourage emergent *E. daenerys* larvae to spin complete cocoons (Withers et al., 2020).
20 Approximately 10 days later, pouches were opened and the contents recorded (an
21 unparasitized beetle, a dead *P. charybdis* prepupa, or an *E. daenerys* larva or cocoon).

22 In the case of non-target larvae, those groups of larvae on which *E. daenerys* attacks had
23 been observed were reared. Each week they were transferred to clean containers and any
24 premature mortality, successful pupation to a beetle, or emergence of an *E. daenerys* larva
25 was recorded. Transformation into a beetle pupa was indicative of not having been parasitized
26 by *E. daenerys*. Any larvae or prepupae that died prior to pupation were frozen individually
27 and then dissected under a microscope at increasing magnification (8×, 25×, and then 50×) to
28 inspect for incomplete parasitism. Any larval parasitoid remains were noted, described in
29 detail, and stored for future reference.

31 **Recorded behaviours**

32 Time of each behaviour was recorded to the nearest second, as well as the time *E. daenerys*
33 moved onto or off foliage, whether by flying or walking. From this the total time each
34 parasitoid spent on each plant species foliage was obtained. Once a larva was encountered by

1 the wasp the following behaviours were recorded:
2 - 'attack insertion' = a probe that involved the wasp inserting its ovipositor into a larva (target
3 or non-target noted) for at least 1 s, previously reported as sufficient time for an egg to be
4 laid, though we had no way of tracking if this occurred in each instance (Rice, 2005a).
5 - 'attack-fail' = unsuccessful ovipositor probing attempt resulting in either no ovipositor
6 insertion into a larva (target or non-target noted) or for a shorter duration than the 1 s needed
7 for egg deposition. This tended to occur most when larvae were moving rapidly.
8 - 'attack object' = ovipositor probing at beetle frass, an exuvia, or a piece of host plant such as
9 a cut stem end.
10 - 'disregard' = encountering a larva but either ignoring its presence or actively rejecting it and
11 moving away.

12 To summarise the propensity of *E. daenerys* to attack larvae in relation to time in
13 contact with a beetle's host plant sprig we defined the parameter 'attack rate on plant' as the
14 no. attack insertions / total time (min) on that host's plant.

15 No female parasitoid was tested more than once against any one non-target species in
16 the same assay type but may have repeatedly been used on a different day against another
17 non-target, and to oviposit into *P. charybdis* larvae for colony rearing (Withers et al., 2020).

18 19 **Statistical analysis**

20 To determine whether the number of attack insertions or other scored behaviours on the plant
21 differed between beetle species, the Wilcoxon signed rank test was applied. This non-
22 parametric test was used in favour of the t-test because sample distributions were not
23 normally distributed. The null hypothesis was that the median difference between pairs of
24 behavioural observations was zero (i.e., equal medians). A 95% confidence interval was
25 applied. The Wilcoxon statistic W , in the comparison of 'T' vs. 'NT', is the numerator in the
26 estimated probability of the number of pairs of 'T' being lower than 'NT'. The denominator is
27 simply the product of the two sample sizes. Because measures of central tendency – such as
28 the median, for which rates of attacks were identically zero for all non-targets, or mean (more
29 subject to outliers further from zero, but still low for all non-targets) – fail (by definition of
30 measures of central tendency) to identify behavioural extremes, we used box and whisker
31 plots to visually express the range of behaviours exhibited by all parasitoids. This approach
32 allowed us to identify behavioural extremes in activity in addition to behavioural 'norms'.
33 Cases where boxes show a high degree of separation (i.e., no overlap), also demonstrate
34 significant differences in sample medians. All analyses and data visualisation were performed

1 in R (R Core Team, 2019).

3 RESULTS

4 *Oviposition behaviour*

5 No-choice. The order of presentation (T-NT vs. NT-T) of no-choice sequential tests had no
6 effect on the overall number of attack insertions (Wilcoxon test: $W = 7699$, $P = 0.33$), or the
7 attack rate on plant ($W = 7463$, $P = 0.61$). Overall, the mean (\pm SE) number of attack
8 insertions that occurred in 10 min towards target *P. charybdis* larvae was 6.0 ± 0.8 , and the
9 mean attack rate per min on that plant was 1.9 ± 0.3 with the order T-NT. With the order NT-
10 T, the mean number of larval ovipositor insertions on *P. charybdis* was 5.4 ± 0.8 and the
11 mean attack rate on plant was 2.4 ± 0.2 . In contrast, the overall mean number of larval attack
12 insertions towards all non-target larvae in 10 min was considerably lower at 0.7 ± 0.3 and a
13 mean attack rate on plant of 0.4 ± 0.2 for the order T-NT. For the order NT-T, the
14 corresponding mean values for non-targets were 0.2 ± 0.1 and 0.3 ± 0.2 for attack insertions
15 and attack rate on plant, respectively.

16 The only non-target species that did not differ from *P. charybdis* in the median
17 number of attack insertions received in no-choice tests was *T. sloanei* (median *T. sloanei* vs.
18 *P. charybdis* = 1.5 vs. 2.5; Wilcoxon test: $W = 42.5$, $P = 0.28$); the box-and-whisker plots
19 show a clear overlap of boxes only for *P. charybdis* compared with *T. sloanei* (Figure 1). All
20 other paired non-target species received an identical median of zero attack-insertion counts,
21 compared to the sometimes very high oviposition activity directed towards *P. charybdis*
22 larvae, i.e., >30 attack-insertions in 10 min in one no-choice test (Figure 1). The same trend
23 was reflected in the parameter of attack rates on plant, with no significant difference in
24 median attack rates while *E. daenerys* was on *E. nitens* leaves, whether that was towards *T.*
25 *sloanei* or *P. charybdis* larvae (Figure 2). Two-thirds of *E. daenerys* (62.5%) undertook at
26 least one attack insertion on *T. sloanei* larvae. Whereas in all other non-target species in the
27 no-choice assays, only a mean of 8% (range 0-25.0%) of female *E. daenerys* undertook an
28 attack insertion on a non-target larva. Despite the close contact with all other non-target larvae
29 when *E. daenerys* contacted their host plant sprig, median attack rates were all much less than
30 towards *P. charybdis* larvae (Figure 2).

31
32 Two-choice. Unfortunately, with no *T. sloanei* larvae available for two-choice tests, direct
33 comparison of *E. daenerys* behaviour towards both *Eucalyptus*-feeding species is not
34 available. The median number of attacks on *P. charybdis* larvae was invariably higher than

1 against any non-target species (Figure 1), although there was no significant difference in the
2 two-choice tests between *A. nr. tarsalis* and *P. charybdis*.

3 The attack rate of *E. daenerys* against *P. charybdis* larvae when on *E. nitens* foliage was
4 higher than the attack rate on plant against most non-target species on their host plants (mean
5 no. ovipositor insertions per min was 2-5 vs. 0-0.8; Figure 2). The observations showed that
6 most of the time when *E. daenerys* was in contact with non-target plants bearing non-target
7 species, the parasitoid predominantly sat, rested, or groomed. The only exception was with *E.*
8 *daenerys* behaviour towards *A. nr. tarsalis* while on *V. albicans* foliage in two-choice tests
9 (Figure 2). In this case, just two female parasitoids were responsible for a high attack rate on
10 plant towards *A. nr. tarsalis* and in both cases these two individuals undertook more attack
11 insertions against *P. charybdis* larvae than they did against *A. nr. tarsalis* larvae.

12 In two-choice assays (recall these did not include *T. sloanei*) only 15% of *E. daenerys*
13 females on average undertook an attack-insertion against a non-target larva, compared to
14 100% undertaking attack insertions on *P. charybdis*, and this was despite all but two
15 individual females making contact with non-target plants during the assays.

16 17 *Other parasitoid behaviours*

18 No-choice. We also recorded other relevant host-finding and acceptance or rejection
19 behaviours undertaken by *E. daenerys* towards larvae in the two test types. Attack-fail counts
20 (attempts to oviposit that did not result in successful insertion of the ovipositor) followed an
21 identical pattern to attack insertion counts. This behaviour occurred significantly more
22 frequently towards *P. charybdis* and *T. sloanei* larvae than against all other non-target species.
23 The median number of attack-fails against all other non-target species was zero (Figure 3).

24 In stark contrast to successful and unsuccessful attack attempts on larvae, a different
25 trend was apparent with *E. daenerys* attacking objects. This was ovipositor probing into either
26 frass pellets, shed larval exuviae, or cut ends of plant sprigs. Object attacks occurred equally
27 frequently within the assays in the presence of *T. sloanei*, *C. abchasica*, *G. olivacea*, and *P.*
28 *charybdis*, but in other assays they occurred significantly more frequently in the presence of
29 *P. charybdis* (Figure 4).

30 The only behaviour *E. daenerys* exhibited that occurred more often in tests with non-
31 target species compared with *P. charybdis* was the 'disregard' of larvae directly encountered
32 (Figure 5). Disregarding occurred significantly more often against *C. rubiginosa* larvae than
33 in the pairwise comparison against *P. charybdis*. In no-choice tests, although the difference
34 was not statistically significant, half the female *E. daenerys* either walked over or actively

1 avoided/disregarded *D. semipunctata* larvae that they encountered on *Acacia* foliage.

2
3 Two-choice. In two-choice tests, attack-fail counts were significantly higher in all assays
4 towards *P. charybdis* than the non-target species, apart from failed attempts to oviposit in *A.*
5 *nr. tarsalis* larvae (Figure 3). *Eadya daenerys* attacked objects consistently and significantly
6 more times against *P. charybdis* objects, than against any non-target objects (Figure 4).
7 Disregarding of larvae encountered during two-choice tests occurred significantly more often
8 towards non-targets than towards *P. charybdis* in over half of the assays. For example, more
9 than half of females tested disregarded all *D. semipunctata* larvae in choice tests, whereas less
10 than a quarter of the same females ever disregarded a *P. charybdis* larva it encountered in the
11 same test. The median number of times *P. charybdis* larvae were disregarded or ignored by *E.*
12 *daenerys* in choice assays was between zero and once in 25 min (Figure 5).

14 **Rearing of attacked larvae**

15 Rearing of target and non-target replicates when attack-insertions were observed, compared to
16 control larvae, was similar to the results of physiological host range assays reported in
17 Withers et al. (2020). Many *P. charybdis* larvae died following the behavioural assays,
18 potentially due to multi-parasitism (being over-stung) as the number of ovipositor insertions
19 at times exceeded 30 stings into just eight larvae (Figure 1). Observed ovipositor insertions by
20 *E. daenerys* against *C. abchasica* resulted in three larvae being internally parasitized, from
21 which no *E. daenerys* emerged, whereas another five attacked larvae showed no evidence of
22 parasitism. One of the *E. daenerys* larvae found in a *C. abchasica* larva was large, whereas
23 the remainder were small. A similar outcome occurred with *A. nr. tarsalis* larvae; observed
24 ovipositor insertions in behavioural assays resulted in some of the *A. nr. tarsalis* larvae failing
25 to pupate. These were eventually killed for dissection after double the period of time needed
26 for parasitoid development had passed. Four of the dissected larvae contained very small or
27 encapsulated *E. daenerys* larvae, and one contained a moderate-sized *E. daenerys*. Internal
28 parasitism of *A. nr. tarsalis* was not consistent, as another three attacked larvae were reared
29 and showed no evidence of parasitism (one died but was empty upon dissection, two became
30 adult beetles). No other species of non-target larvae were found to have been parasitized, not
31 even those observed to have been attacked in assays and examined by dissection (e.g., *N.*
32 *ogloblini*) (Table S1).

34 **DISCUSSION**

1 **Parasitoid behaviour**

2 We believe there is value in closely observing the interactions between potential biocontrol
3 agents and the novel non-target organisms that will be present in the new environment. In this
4 research we collected information to add to what we already knew about the parasitoid's
5 physiological host range. Our observations suggest cues from *Eucalyptus* must play a key role
6 in host location behaviour by *E. daenerys*. In the choice tests all but two *E. daenerys*
7 contacted the non-target plant sprig within the arena, on which the non-target larvae were
8 settled. However, *E. daenerys* females exhibited significantly different behaviour on non-
9 target host plants than on *E. nitens*, the plant of its host. On a non-target sprig, if they stayed
10 longer than a few seconds, *E. daenerys* were more likely to rest and groom. Significantly
11 more disregards of larvae were recorded on non-target plant sprigs. In many cases the
12 parasitoid walked right over the larva without any apparent recognition that the object was
13 actually a potential host. Occasionally non-target larvae appeared to be recognised and the
14 parasitoid immediately changed direction to avoid contact. Significantly fewer objects such as
15 frass and exuviae were mistakenly oviposited into on non-target plants compared to on *E.*
16 *nitens*. On *Eucalyptus*, presumably because the attractive 'objects' such as *P. charybdis* frass
17 or a *P. charybdis* exuvia did not undertake defensive behaviour (e.g., thrashing), many *E.*
18 *daenerys* did not move on after one attack but repeatedly attacked these objects, often in
19 excess of 20× within an assay. The only observed exception to the trend was when two *E.*
20 *daenerys* individuals exhibited object attacks on *H. androsaemum* in the presence of the non-
21 target *C. abchasica*. *Chrysolina abchasica* larvae produce round black frass pellets similar in
22 size to a first-instar paropsine larva, and this may have created a visually stimulating cue that
23 induced those *E. daenerys* females to attack. Some object attacks were also observed into the
24 darkly coloured cut end of a *H. androsaemum* sprig.

25 Overall, significantly less searching behaviour was observed on non-target plants
26 compared to on *E. nitens* and this is reflected in attack behaviour against larvae. In the no-
27 choice assays *E. daenerys* directed the same number of ovipositor insertions towards the two
28 *Eucalyptus*-feeding species *P. charybdis* and *T. sloanei*. Whereas *D. semipunctata* larvae
29 induced attacks from only one third of *E. daenerys* females. This non-target beetle *D.*
30 *semipunctata* feeds on *A. melanoxylon*, a tree often found growing within similar habitats to
31 *Eucalyptus* in their native ecosystems in Australia. In NZ, both tree species are often present
32 within small forestry plantations and urban landscapes, creating geographical overlap in
33 modified ecosystems. These trees are unrelated, must produce vastly different physical and
34 chemical cues, and the lack of larval attacks, attack-fails, and the high number of disregards

1 suggest *E. daenerys* have no innate behavioural attraction to *Acacia*-feeding paropsines.

2 The proportion of *E. daenerys* attacking the other Chrysomelinae (*A. nr. tarsalis* or *C.*
3 *abchastica*) was closer to one in five parasitoids. Apart from *T. sloanei*, all other non-target
4 species were significantly less likely to receive an attack insertion, to attempt any attacks, or
5 for their frass or exuviae to be probed (attack object), compared to *P. charybdis*. This was
6 consistent across both no-choice and two-choice assay types and suggests that *Eucalyptus*
7 plant and host cues are a pre-requisite to stimulate intensive host-searching behaviour in *E.*
8 *daenerys*.

9 We need to continue the dialogue to improve understanding on biological control
10 biosafety in our risk-averse regulatory environment, especially public perceptions on whether
11 parasitoids will change their behaviour over time and in a new environment (Barratt et al.,
12 2018). Descriptive data such as this are useful to help those less familiar with biological
13 control to visualise how the host plant on which a parasitoid alights has a significant impact
14 on subsequent behaviour. In this case reproductively active *E. daenerys* females were most
15 likely to rest and groom on a non-target plant, whereas on a *Eucalyptus* plant they will initiate
16 searching behaviour. This understanding feeds directly into and supports our risk assessments
17 on the safety of host-specific biocontrol agents (Barratt et al., 2010).

19 **Testing methods**

20 The debate also continues on the relative usefulness of no-choice or choice tests for assessing
21 the ecological host range of a parasitoid being proposed as a biological control agent (Van
22 Driesche & Murray, 2004). No-choice tests provide the greatest assurance that the assays have
23 revealed the limits of physiological host range (Kuhlmann et al., 2006; van Lenteren et al.,
24 2006) but if run for too long relative host preferences can be obscured. This was the case in
25 Mansfield & Mills (2004) where no-choice tests of the egg parasitoid *Trichogramma platneri*
26 Nagarkatti were poor at separating hosts that were similar in host preference. Multiple-choice
27 tests can produce more realistic results on host preference, especially for more host specific
28 agents. From previous research, *E. daenerys* was expected to prefer *Eucalyptus*-feeding
29 Paropsina species, as those species were completely physiological hosts (Withers et al., 2020).
30 In this research both assay types supported this hypothesis. The only differences potentially
31 observed were an increased propensity for some individual *E. daenerys* to repeatedly attack
32 non-target larvae of *A. nr. tarsalis* in two-choice assays, more so than in no-choice assays. We
33 agree with the recommendations of van Lenteren et al. (2006) that best practice in host
34 specificity testing is still to first conduct no-choice tests before running choice tests to

1 ascertain relative host preferences. In this way the likely ecological host range of the
2 biocontrol agent can be better predicted (Barratt et al., 2010).

4 **Behavioural attraction to non-targets**

5 *Eadya daenerys* used in our tests were of unknown mated status and unknown age which may
6 have influenced parasitoid behaviour. A wide variability in activity was observed amongst *E.*
7 *daenerys* in all tests but it was only the occasional individual undertaking attack-insertions on
8 non-targets, whereas the majority of parasitoids did not. It is possible the less discriminating
9 individuals were either in a state of oviposition host deprivation (Barton Browne & Withers,
10 2002) or nearing the end of their lives. For instance, three female parasitoids that undertook
11 an attack-insertion on *N. ogloblini* almost all did so after more than 2 weeks of being held in
12 captivity in 2016, but with the level of replication undertaken there was no consistent
13 relationship between time held in captivity, and likelihood of non-target attack-insertions.

15 **Risk assessment conclusion**

16 Although phylogeny is the best initial starting point for predicting parasitoid potential host
17 range (Haye et al., 2005), assessments of the risk posed to non-target species also need to
18 include an examination of parasitoid behaviour towards more distantly related non-targets that
19 share ecological similarities. None of the beneficial or native non-target species tested against
20 *E. daenerys* share the same niche, even though they have exposed leaf-feeding larvae and
21 belong to the same family or sub-family. Only the pest non-target species *T. sloanei* feeds on
22 *Eucalyptus* and no other tested species have host plants in the Myrtaceae family. Four species
23 from the same sub-family as the target (Chrysomelinae: *D. semipunctata*, *C. abchasica*, *G.*
24 *olivacea*, and *A. nr. tarsalis*; Table S1) revealed some internal parasitism by *E. daenerys* in
25 physiological assays (Withers et al., 2020) even though those species did not support
26 complete development of the parasitoid. The results of rearing non-target larvae attacked in
27 these assays supported this evidence, i.e., incomplete internal parasitism in *C. abchasica* and
28 *A. nr. tarsalis* larvae (Table S1). We had previously concluded (Withers et al., 2020) that only
29 *Eucalyptus*-feeding Chrysomelidae pests in the subtribe Paropsina with a final larval body
30 size of at least 35 mg could be physiological hosts supporting complete development of *E.*
31 *daenerys*, i.e., *Paropsisterna* and *Trachymela* species (Withers et al., 2020). This prediction
32 still holds and is further strengthened by the attack rates and attack fails recorded here towards
33 *T. sloanei* but will need to be tested in post-release impact studies once *E. daenerys* is
34 confirmed to have established in the field (releases are planned for 2021). From the

1 observations now undertaken, we conclude it would be a very rare event that non-target
2 species that do not feed on *Eucalyptus* will be attacked by *E. daenerys*.

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10 (Braconidae). New Zealand Plant Protection 71: 221-231.

11 Withers TM, Todoroki C, Allen GR, Pugh AR & Gresham BA (2020) Host testing of *Eadya*
12 *daenerys*, a potential biological control agent for the chrysomelid pest *Paropsis*
13 *charybdis*, predicts host specificity to eucalypt-leaf feeding Paropsina. BioControl 65:
14 25-36.

17 **Figure captions**

18 **Figure 1** Box and whisker distributions of the total number of successful attack-insertions
19 counted for all *Eadya daenerys* in no-choice sequential and two-choice tests, lasting 10 and 25
20 min, respectively. Boxes represent the middle 50% of attack-insertions encompassed by the
21 interquartile range (from the 25th to the 75th percentile), with the whiskers extending to the
22 minimum and maximum values. The vertical line in each box represents the median, and the
23 circle the mean. Where no box is visible all values are either at, or close to, zero. *Paropsis*
24 *charybdis* target larvae are shown in grey, next to the non-target species they were paired
25 against: *Trachymela sloanei*, *Gonioctena olivacea*, *Dicranosterna semipunctata*, *Allocharis*
26 *nr. tarsalis*, *Chrysolina abchasica*, *Lochmaea suturalis*, *Agasicles hygrophila*, *Neolema*
27 *ogloblini*, or *Cassida rubiginosa*. N represents the number of replicates of each species (with
28 eight beetle larvae per replicate), and W the Wilcoxon test statistic. Asterisks indicate the
29 level of significance: *** $P < 0.001$, * $0.01 < P < 0.05$; ns, $P > 0.05$.

31 **Figure 2** Box and whisker distributions of *Eadya daenerys* ‘attack rate on plant’ observed
32 against a species of beetle larva in no-choice sequential and two-choice tests, lasting 10 and
33 25 min, respectively. The *Paropsis charybdis* target larvae are shown in grey, next to the non-
34 target species they were paired against. See Figure 1 for explanation of the box-and-whisker

1 parts and the genus names. N represents the number of replicates of each species (with eight
2 beetle larvae per replicate), and W the Wilcoxon test statistic. Asterisks indicate the level of
3 significance: *** $P < 0.001$, ** $0.001 < P < 0.01$; ns, $P > 0.05$.

4
5 **Figure 3** Box and whisker distributions of the total number of attempted attacks that failed
6 (attack fail) counted for all *Eadya daenerys* in no-choice sequential and two-choice tests,
7 lasting 10 and 25 min, respectively. The *Paropsis charybdis* target larvae are shown in grey,
8 next to the non-target species they were paired against. See Figure 1 for explanation of the
9 box-and-whisker parts and the genus names. N represents the number of replicates of each
10 species (with eight beetle larvae per replicate), and W the Wilcoxon test statistic. Asterisks
11 indicate the level of significance: *** $P < 0.001$, ** $0.001 < P < 0.01$, * $0.01 < P < 0.05$; ns, $P > 0.05$.

12
13 **Figure 4** Box and whisker distributions of the total number of attack objects counted for all
14 *Eadya daenerys* in no-choice sequential and two-choice tests, lasting 10 and 25 min,
15 respectively. The *Paropsis charybdis* target larvae are shown in grey, next to the non-target
16 species they were paired against. See Figure 1 for explanation of the box-and-whisker parts
17 and the genus names. N represents the number of replicates of each species (with eight beetle
18 larvae per replicate), and W the Wilcoxon test statistic. Asterisks indicate the level of
19 significance: *** $P < 0.001$, ** $0.001 < P < 0.01$, * $0.01 < P < 0.05$; ns, $P > 0.05$.

20
21 **Figure 5** Box and whisker distributions of the total number of times *Eadya daenerys*
22 disregarded (rejected and actively moved away from, or walked over) a larva in no-choice
23 sequential or two-choice test, lasting 10 and 25 min, respectively. The *Paropsis charybdis*
24 target larvae are shown in grey, next to the non-target species they were paired against. See
25 Figure 1 for explanation of the box-and-whisker parts and the genus names. N represents the
26 number of replicates of each species (with eight beetle larvae per replicate), and W the
27 Wilcoxon test statistic. Asterisks indicate the level of significance: *** $P < 0.001$,
28 ** $0.001 < P < 0.01$, * $0.01 < P < 0.05$; ns, $P > 0.05$.

30 **Supporting information**

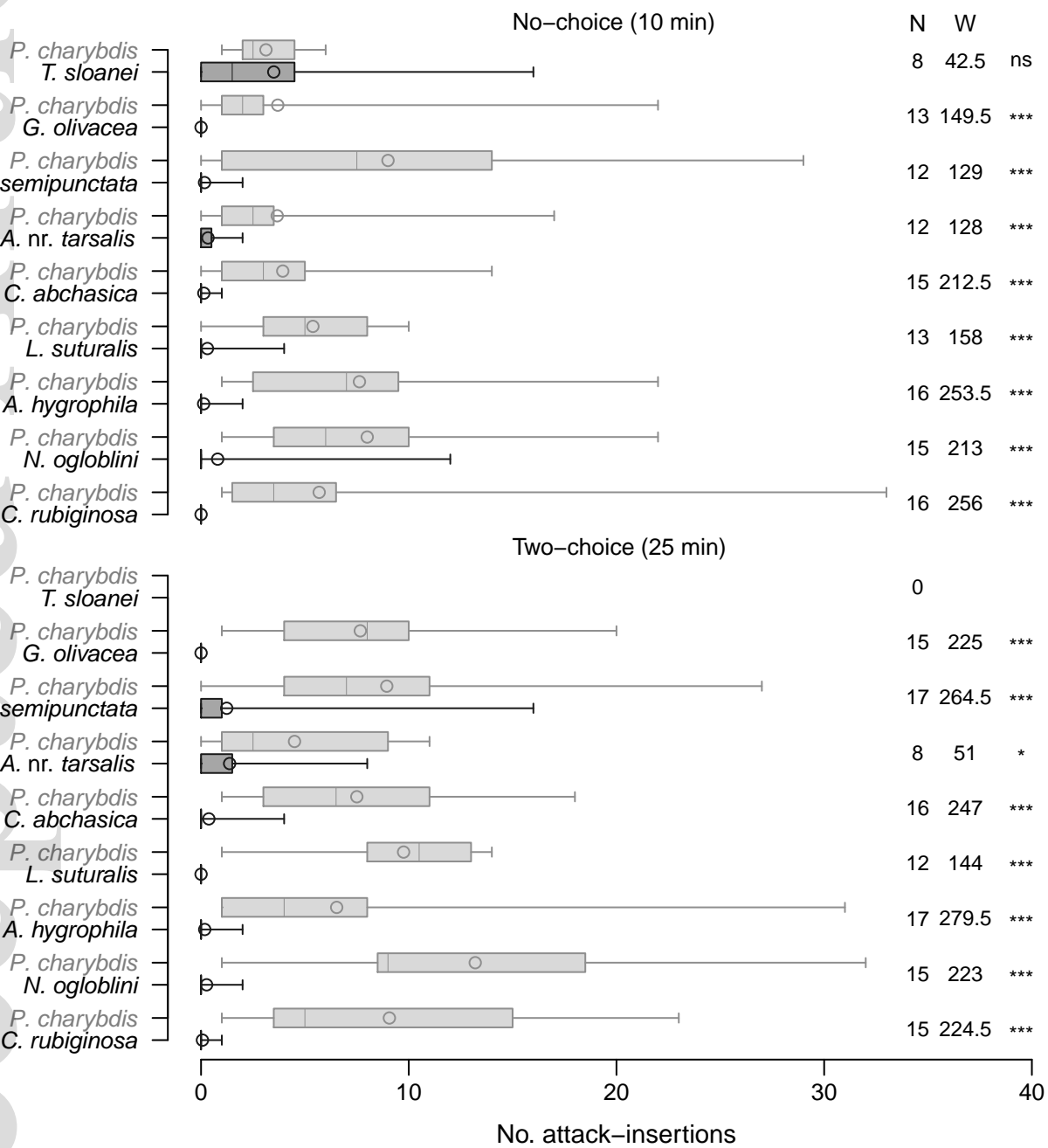
31 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

32
33 **Table S1** Summary of outcomes from rearing larvae observed to have been attacked by
34 *Eadya daenerys* from no-choice (NC) and two-choice (2) tests

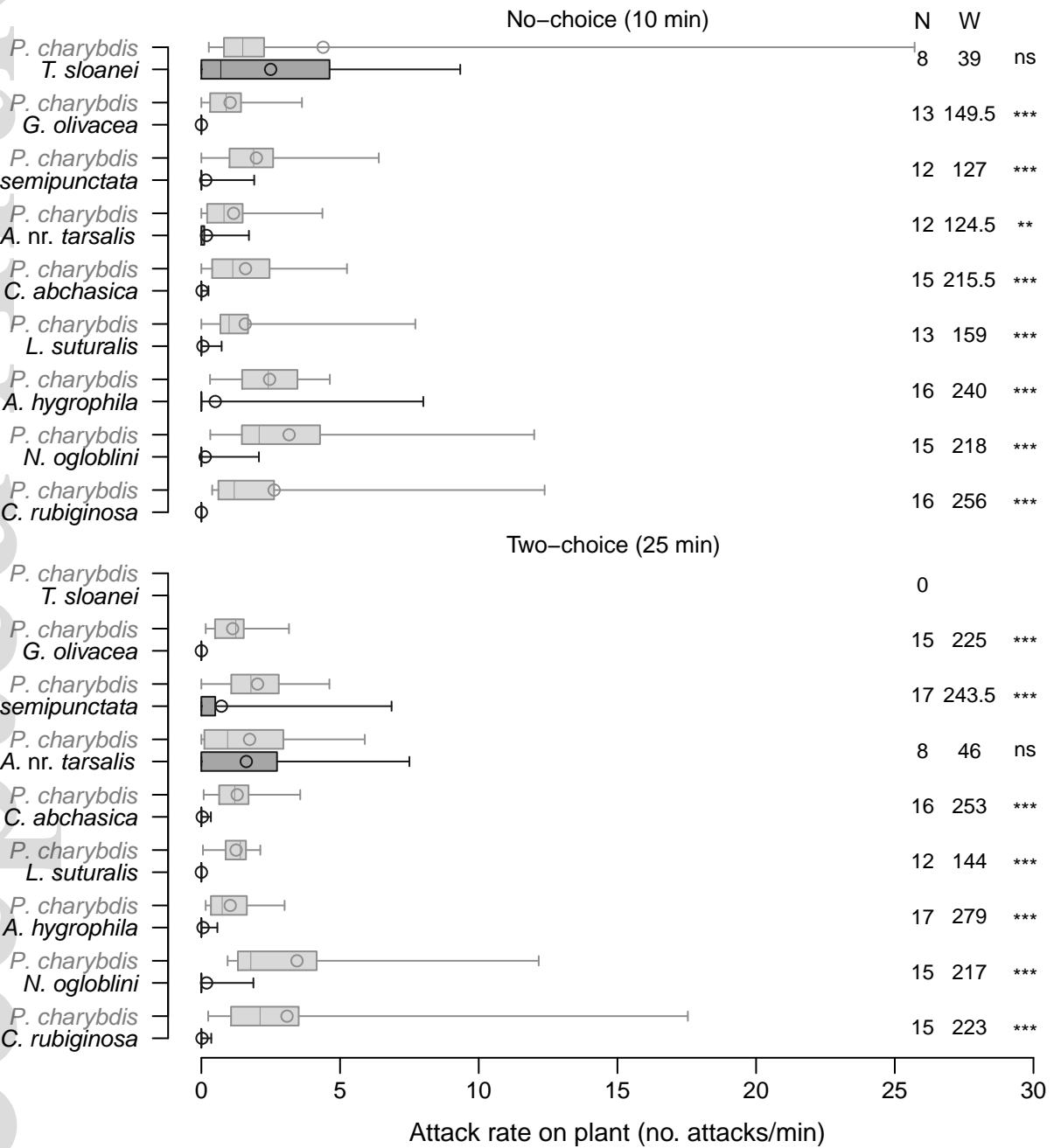
Table 1 Summary of target and non-target beetle hosts tested against the proposed *Paropsis charybdis* biocontrol agent *Eadya daenerys*, from phylogenetically most closely to least closely related to the target host, based on a proposed phylogeny of Chrysomelinae in relation to their co-evolution to host plant lineages (Jurado-Rivera et al., 2009). BCA = biological control agent

Sub-family	Chrysomelinae					Galerucinae	Criocerinae	Cassidinae
	Clade	Paropsina	Gonioctenina	Dicranosternina	Phyllocharina			
Species tested	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1
Genera	<i>Paropsis</i> , <i>Trachymela</i>	<i>Gonioctena</i>	<i>Dicranosterna</i>	<i>Allocharis</i>	<i>Chrysolina</i>	<i>Lochmaea</i> , <i>Agasicles</i>	<i>Neolema</i>	<i>Cassida</i>
Status in NZ	Exotic pests	Weed BCA	Exotic pest	Native	Weed BCA	Weed BCA's	Weed BCA	Weed BCA
Host plant	<i>Eucalyptus</i> spp. (Myrtaceae)	<i>Cytisus scoparius</i> (Fabaceae)	<i>Acacia melanoxylon</i> (Fabaceae)	<i>Veronica albicans</i> (Plantaginaceae)	<i>Hypericum</i> spp. (Hypericaceae)	<i>Calluna vulgaris</i> (Ericaceae), <i>Alternanthera</i> (Amaranthaceae)	<i>Tradescantia fluminensis</i> (Asteraceae)	<i>Cirsium</i> spp. (Asteraceae)

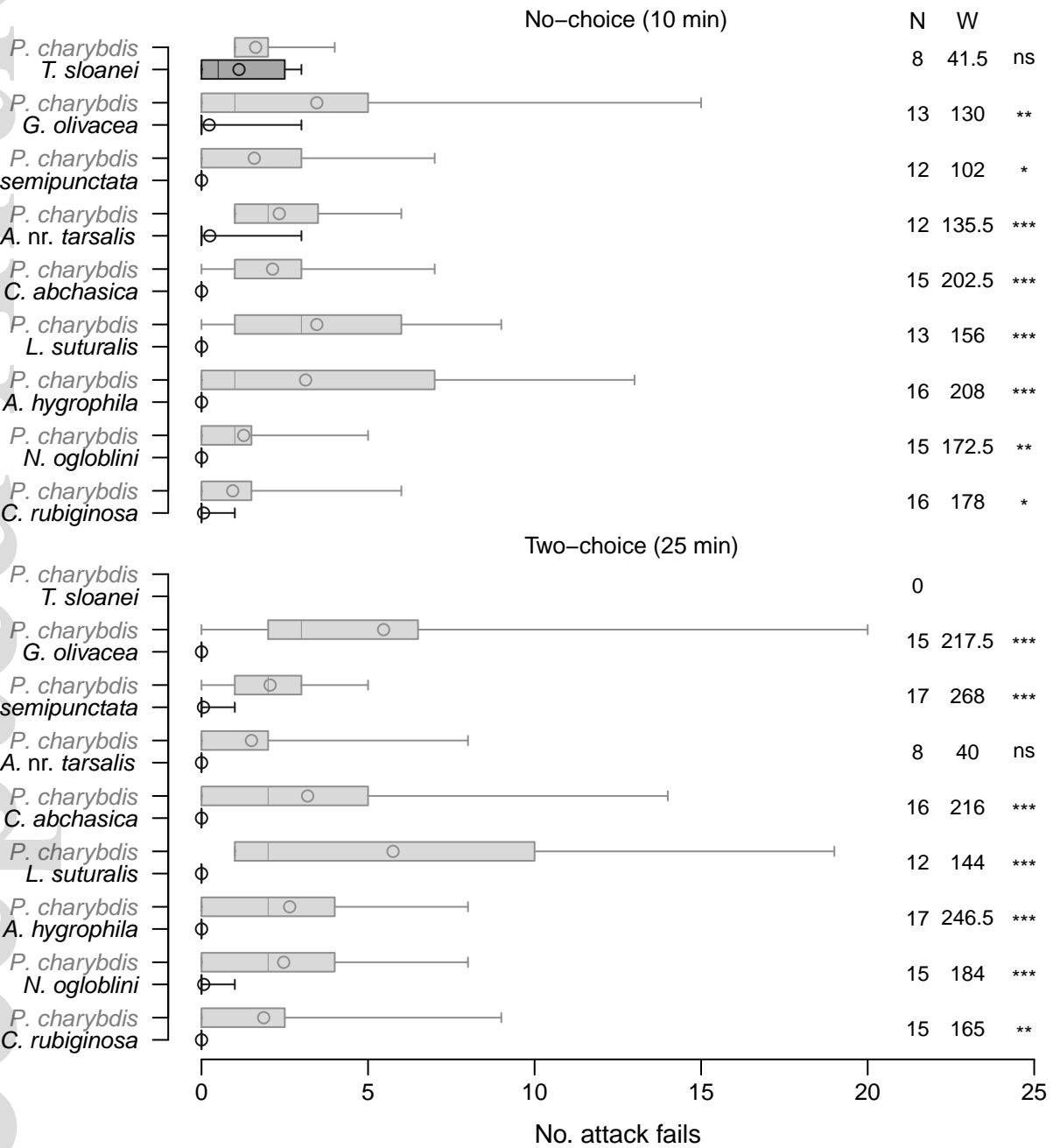
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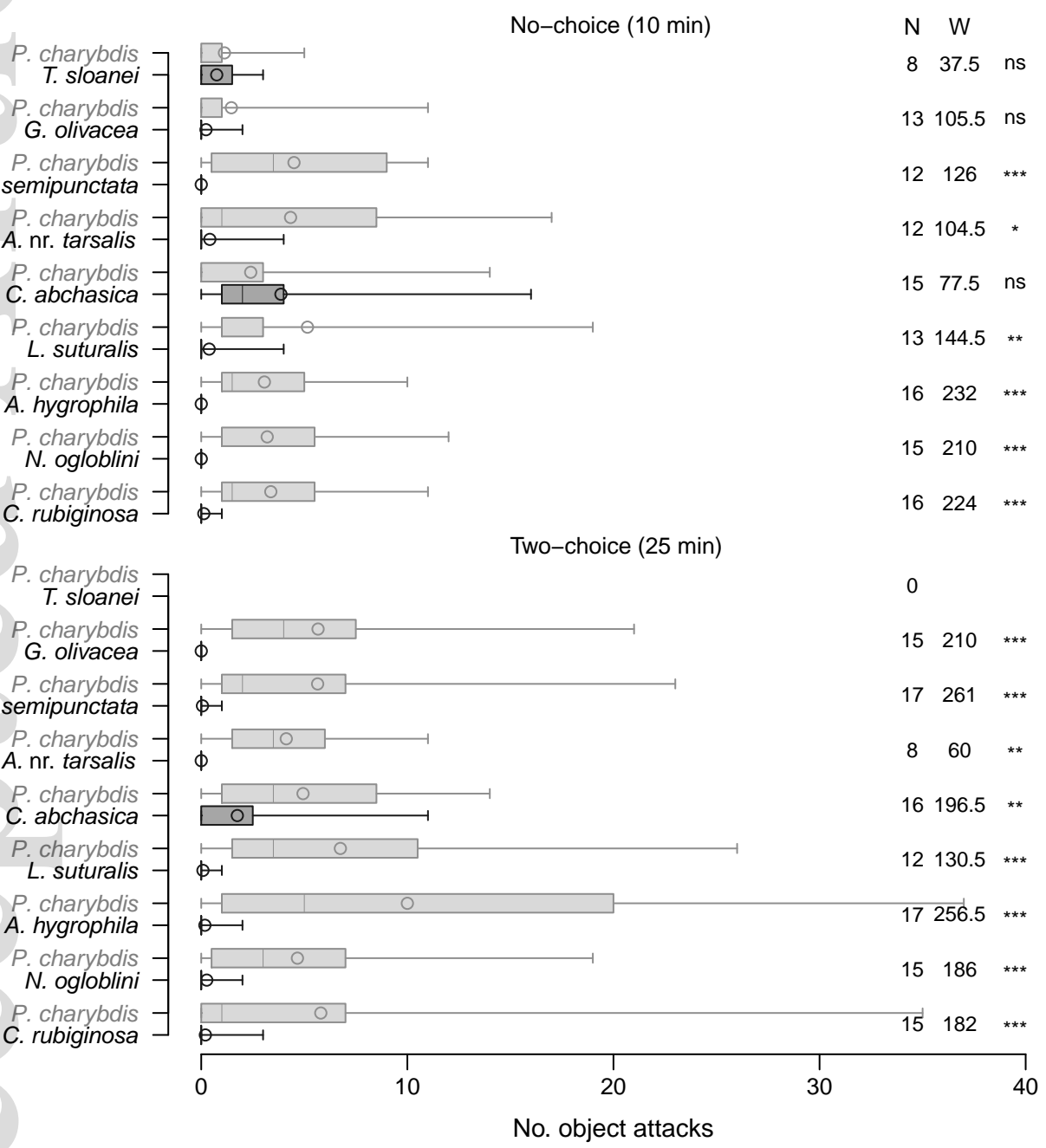
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