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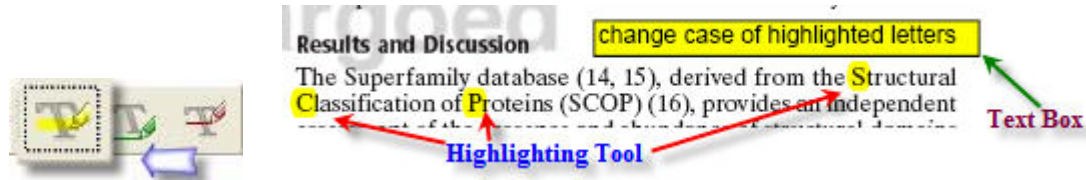
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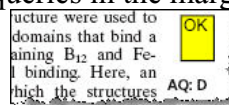
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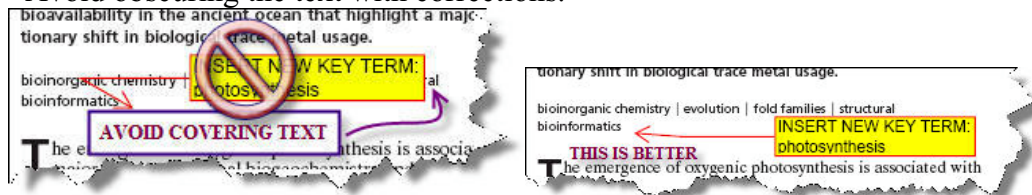
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Optimal Conditions to Rear Phorid Parasitoids (Diptera: Phoridae) of *Atta collenweideri* and *Acromyrmex lundii* (Hymenoptera: Formicidae)

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ABSTRACT Phorid flies have been considered viable options for biological control of leaf-cutter ants because they are highly specific to these hosts, producing direct mortality and also affecting the normal functioning of colonies. Designing protocols for mass rearing of these insects requires knowing the temperature and humidity conditions that optimize their development in terms of duration, survivorship and longevity of adults. We reared *Apocephalus setitarsus* Brown, *Eibesfeldtphora trilobata* Disney, and *Myrmosciarius brandaoi* Disney, which are specific leaf-cutter ant parasitoids of *Atta collenweideri* Forel, and *Apocephalus neivai* Borgmeier and *Myrmosciarius catharinensis* Borgmeier, which are parasitoids of *Acromyrmex lundii* Guérin-Méneville. Phorids were maintained under one of five different rearing conditions, 20°C high humidity (20HH), 24°C low and high humidity (24LH and 24HH), and 28°C low- and high humidity (28LH and 28HH). Flies from all species could complete their development under all the conditions tested. As expected, the 20HH treatment significantly lengthened all developmental periods in all species, whereas the shortest duration was achieved under 28HH. Although pupal survivorship was highest at 24HH, the greatest longevity of adults was achieved at 20HH. Percentage of pupae obtained and pupal survivorship also exhibited the highest values at 24HH. The rearing efficiency index was highest for all species at 24HH. Therefore, we suggest this temperature and humidity combination as the most suitable for rearing these species, whereas the 20HH treatment is ideal for maintaining adults for longer periods, which would be advantageous for synchronizing matings and mass releases of adults in the field.

KEY WORDS Phoridae, leaf-cutter ant, temperature, humidity, rearing efficiency

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Leaf-cutting ants in the tribe Attini harvest fresh plant material from a wide variety of plants (Cherret 1986), and are the most abundant herbivores in the Neotropics (Weber 1972, Hölldobler and Wilson 1990). Both genera in this tribe, *Atta* F. and *Acromyrmex* Mayr, have been regarded as some of the most harmful pests to a wide variety of crops, as well as forestry and rangelands (Cherret 1986).

Chemical control of these social insects, although the most popular pest control method used (Della Lucia 1993, Boaretto and Forti 1997), has proven to be ineffective in the long-term. Increasing evidence of resistance (Ouyang et al. 2010, Rodríguez et al. 2010) and undesired effects against nontarget organisms (Al-Deeb et al. 2001, Chauzat et al. 2006, Medina et al. 2007, Bagnères et al. 2009, Adán et al. 2011, Guillade and Folgarait 2013) have led environmental protection organizations to ban several agrochemicals, whereas many others are being restricted for different uses, most notably forestry (Forest Stewardship Council 2007). As the options for chemical control

became increasingly limited, researchers began focusing on other potential control agents.

After intensively studying several key aspects of their biology and ecology, mass rearing of several *Pseudacteon* species, which attack fire ants, became possible (Cónsoli et al. 2001; Folgarait et al. 2002a,b, 2005, 2006; Vogt et al. 2003). It was established that most species needed high humidity to successfully develop in the laboratory (80% or higher), and that below this limit rearing was difficult, if not impossible (P.J.F., unpublished data). The rearing temperature for this genus also needs to be high, with most species developing well on temperatures between 27 (Vogt et al. 2003) and 28°C (Folgarait et al. 2002a,b, 2005, 2006). Once the best rearing conditions had been determined, these parasitoids were successfully introduced and established in the United States for the control of the invading *Solenopsis invicta* Buren and *Solenopsis richteri* Buren fire ants (Vázquez et al. 2006, Porter 2010, Plowes et al. 2012). The favorable results obtained (Henne et al. 2007, Porter 2010) encouraged researchers to study phorid flies attacking leaf-cutter ant species. Among these, the parasitoid flies in the Phoridae family have been considered for leaf-cutter

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ant biological control programs (Elizalde and Folgarait 2011, Guillade and Folgarait 2011) because of many interesting features (Folgarait 2013).

Several phorid species in the genera *Apocephalus*, *Eibesfeldtphora*, *Myrmosicarius*, and *Neodohrniphora* are highly specific to leaf-cutter ants, with evidence pointing to parasitoids of *Atta* spp. not attacking *Acromyrmex* spp. and vice versa (Elizalde and Folgarait 2010). The flies develop within the body of their hosts, consuming living tissue and eventually killing them at the time of pupation; therefore, causing direct mortality to their targets (Erthal and Tonhasca 2000, Tonhasca et al. 2001, Guillade and Folgarait 2011). The host body part preferred for oviposition and pupation varies with each fly species (head, thorax, and abdomen), as well as the size of the host (Feener and Brown 1993, Tonhasca 1996, Bragança et al. 2009, Guillade and Folgarait 2011) and the site at which ants are attacked (nest entrances, foraging trails, and cutting sites; Erthal and Tonhasca 2000, Bragança et al. 2003, Elizalde and Folgarait 2011), which could allow different species of flies to have complementary effects, increasing the total parasitism rates under a biological control program (Folgarait 2013). Finally, phorids interfere with the normal functioning of the ant nests by eliciting both individual and colony-level responses in their hosts (Elizalde and Folgarait 2012), with ants abandoning their loads to retreat into the nest, and shifts in the size of ants allocated to foraging, to avoid the sizes preferred by the phorids (Orr 1992, Feener and Brown 1993, Tonhasca et al. 2001, **Guillade and Folgarait 2013**). The features discussed, plus several others, make them ideal candidates for biological control programs (Folgarait 2013).

Many key aspects of the biology, ecology, and behavior of several species of Phoridae attacking leaf-cutter ants have been revealed (Tonhasca 1996; Tonhasca et al. 2001; Bragança et al. 2003; Guillade and Folgarait 2011; Elizalde and Folgarait 2011, 2012), and the taxonomy of several genera has been revised (Disney et al. 2006, 2009; Brown et al. 2010). However, to date, no study has assessed the comparative efficacy of different combinations of temperature and humidity for rearing these parasitoids. In particular, humidity has always been set at very high values for rearing purposes, but many of these species are found in geographic regions where annual relative humidity is considerably lower than that artificially maintained in the laboratory. Several instances in which we needed to rear leaf-cutter phorids in the field, without the possibility of providing constant temperature and humidity conditions, have revealed that these parasitoids could complete their development under less than ideal circumstances, and were rather tolerant to low humidity and fluctuating temperatures (A.C.G., unpublished data). This speaks of a certain degree of physiological plasticity, and thus bears the question of whether the conditions generally accepted as optimal for rearing phorid parasitoids are indeed the best for phorids of leaf-cutter ants. To mass-rear these flies for biological control releases, it is indispensable to have the knowledge for optimal rearing efficiency. This

implies knowing the best temperature and humidity rearing conditions to obtain the optimal ones regarding several aspects of their life cycle, such as the length of the different developmental stages and their survivorship, as well as manipulating and synchronizing adult emergence for mass release programs (Thead and Streett 2006). Our study provides such information for *Apocephalus setitarsus* Brown, *Eibesfeldtphora trilobata* Disney, and *Myrmosicarius brandaoi* Disney, which are parasitoids of *Atta vollenweideri* Forel, as well as *Apocephalus neivai* Borgmeier and *Myrmosicarius catharinensis* Borgmeier, which are parasitoids of *Acromyrmex lundii* Guérin-Méneville.

Materials and Methods

Flies were obtained through passive sampling (Elizalde and Folgarait 2011), which consisted of collecting worker ants from foraging trails from 18 *A. vollenweideri* nests in San Cristobal, Santa Fe Province, Argentina (Chaco phytogeographic province; Cabrera 1994), as well as from 18 *A. lundii* nests in Villa Elisa, Parque Pereyra Iraola, Manuel B. Gonnet, and La Plata, Buenos Aires Province, Argentina (Pampa phytogeographic province; Cabrera 1994), during the springs of 2010 and 2011. From each nest (sampling unit) we collected five 300-ant batches, one per rearing regimen (~~see below~~).

Samples were taken to the laboratory, where ants were placed in plastic containers with water and sugar water ad libitum. These containers were kept under different temperature and humidity regimens, and were periodically inspected to remove dead ants. Dead ants were transferred to plastic containers with a plaster base and searched for phorid pupae, which were then removed and placed individually in smaller containers covered with a fine-mesh cloth until the emergence of the adult. Immediately after emergence, adults were moved to specially modified test tubes, with ventilation on one end, covered with fine-mesh cloth, and a cap adapted to provide sugar water ad libitum to the fly. We recorded date of collection of the ants, date of death of ants, date of pupation, date of emergence of adult, and death of adult. Dead adults were then inspected under a Nikon SMZ800 (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) stereoscopic microscope to determine species, gender, and size (width of mesonotum). We also measured the size of the host head each fly emerged from (width below the eyes of the ant head) for *M. brandaoi*, *M. catharinensis*, and *E. trilobata*; we could not measure host size for *A. setitarsus* and *A. neivai* because both species have free-living pupae.

Taxonomic identification of phorids was carried out according to the keys by Disney (1996), Brown (1997), Disney et al. (2006, 2009), and Brown et al. (2010). Ants were identified according to Bonetto (1959), Gonçalves (1961), and Kusnezov (1978). Given that during the samplings the ants were randomly assigned to one of the five batches that would then be kept under one of the five rearing regimens, the percentage of pupae obtained might be viewed in this assay as larval survivorship, if the assumption is

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made that every batch carried the same proportion of parasitized ants. Nonetheless, we chose the term percentage of pupae obtained because such assumption could only have been confirmed by dissecting every ant collected in search of phorid larvae. We calculated percentage of pupae obtained for each species and treatment from each 300-ant batch, whereas pupal survivorship was determined for each species under each rearing regimen as the ratio between the number of adults emerged and the number of pupae obtained per batch. We then multiplied percentage of pupae obtained by pupal survivorship, for each species under each rearing regimen, to calculate a rearing efficiency index (REI), to determine the best rearing regimen for each species studied (a greater REI indicating greater rearing efficiency).

Rearing Conditions. Ants collected from each nest of each species were separated into five batches of 300 individuals. Each batch was kept from the beginning to the end of the experiment in a climatically controlled rearing chamber with a photoperiod of 12:12 (L:D) h, and one of the following temperature and humidity regimens: 20HH: $20 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and $80 \pm 10\%$ relative humidity (RH); 24HH: $24 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and $80 \pm 10\%$ RH; 24LH: $24 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and $30 \pm 10\%$ RH; 28HH: $28 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and $80 \pm 10\%$ RH; and 28LH, $28 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and $30 \pm 10\%$ RH. Although it would have been desirable to test rearing at low temperature and RH, our low-temperature rearing chamber could not sustain constant relative humidity when set at 30%, resulting in an unacceptably wide fluctuation in this variable.

Statistical Analyses. After transformation the data met the assumptions required for parametric analyses. Developmental times and sizes of host ants and adult flies were LogN transformed, whereas for percentage of pupae obtained and pupal survivorship we applied square-root transformation; *t*-tests were conducted for comparisons between males and females for each life history trait studied. Because no significant differences were found between males and females for any of the species and parameters studied ($P > 0.05$ for all contrasts), we pooled data from both genders of each species. We then performed analyses of variance for all multiple comparisons, using Statistix 2.0 for Windows (Analytical Software 1998). We subsequently carried out Bonferroni's a posteriori contrasts, maintaining the significance level at 0.05. Pearson's correlations were also performed between size of adults and total developmental time, as well as size of adults and adult longevity, for every species under each rearing regimen, using Statistix 2.0 for Windows.

Results

Parasitoids of *A. vollenweideri*. Developmental times for *A. setitarsus*, *E. trilobata*, and *M. brandaoi* under the five rearing regimens tested are shown in Fig. 1A–C. We found significant differences in larval time between treatments for all the species tested (*A. setitarsus*: $F = 160.76$; $df = 4, 124$; $P = 0.0000$; *E. trilobata*: $F = 450.94$; $df = 4, 332$; $P = 0.0000$; *M. brandaoi*: $F = 123.46$; $df = 4, 131$; $P = 0.0000$). A posteriori

contrasts show that larval time was lengthened by the 20HH treatment for all three species, whereas the shortest time was always recorded under the 28HH treatment ($P < 0.05$ each). The only contrasts that did not exhibit significant differences were between the 24HH and 28LH treatments for *E. trilobata*, and between 24HH and 24LH for *A. setitarsus* and *M. brandaoi* ($P > 0.05$ each).

Pupal time varied for all species under different treatments (*A. setitarsus*: $F = 4.24$; $df = 4, 67$; $P = 0.0042$; *E. trilobata*: $F = 10.18$; $df = 4, 238$; $P = 0.0000$; *M. brandaoi*: $F = 16.68$; $df = 4, 88$; $P = 0.0000$). According to a posteriori contrasts, the longest time was achieved at 20HH for all species but *A. setitarsus*, for which pupal time was shortest at 24HH ($P < 0.05$ each). The shortest time was recorded at 28HH, although we found no significant differences between this treatment and 24HH except for *M. brandaoi* ($P < 0.05$).

Total developmental time varied between treatments for all species (*A. setitarsus*: $F = 11.39$; $df = 4, 67$; $P = 0.0000$; *E. trilobata*: $F = 156.42$; $df = 4, 238$; $P = 0.0000$; *M. brandaoi*: $F = 74.46$; $df = 4, 88$; $P = 0.0000$). A posteriori contrasts show that, for all species, the shortest time was obtained under the 28HH treatment ($P < 0.05$). The times at 20, 24, and 24LH were shortest for *A. setitarsus*, whereas the 28LH treatment resulted in an intermediate value. For *E. trilobata* the shortest time was recorded at 28HH, the longest at 20 and 24LH, with 24HH and 28LH yielding intermediate values ($P < 0.05$). For *M. brandaoi*, the shortest time was obtained at 28HH, followed by 28LH, then 24°C (with no significant differences between HH and LH), and finally 20HH ($P < 0.05$).

Adult longevity also varied across treatments (*A. setitarsus*: $F = 11.46$; $df = 4, 66$; $P = 0.0000$; *E. trilobata*: $F = 82.79$; $df = 4, 237$; $P = 0.0000$; *M. brandaoi*: $F = 31.44$; $df = 4, 95$; $P = 0.0000$), with a posteriori contrasts showing that it was always longest at 20HH ($P < 0.05$). Both higher temperature and lower humidity significantly decreased longevity. We found significant differences ($P < 0.05$) within the same temperature between high and low humidity for *A. setitarsus* (24°C), *E. trilobata* (24°C), and *M. brandaoi* (24 and 28°C).

Within each species, the size of adults was not significantly different between treatments (Table 1). However, we found significant differences across treatments for host ants of *E. trilobata* ($F = 13.72$; $df = 4, 332$; $P = 0.0000$), which were larger under the 24°C treatment (both 24HH and 24LH). Size of hosts did not vary significantly under our treatments for *M. brandaoi*.

The percentage of pupae obtained varied across treatments for all species (*A. setitarsus*: $F = 10.28$; $df = 4, 85$; $P = 0.0000$; *E. trilobata*: $F = 4.81$; $df = 4, 85$; $P = 0.0016$; *M. brandaoi*: $F = 9.05$; $df = 4, 85$; $P = 0.0000$), being in all cases significantly higher at 24HH (Fig. 2A). We also found differences across treatments for pupal survivorship (*A. setitarsus*: $F = 8.9$; $df = 4, 40$; $P = 0.0000$; *E. trilobata*: $F = 10.12$; $df = 4, 44$; $P = 0.0000$; *M. brandaoi*: $F = 3.45$; $df = 4, 39$; $P = 0.0165$), with a

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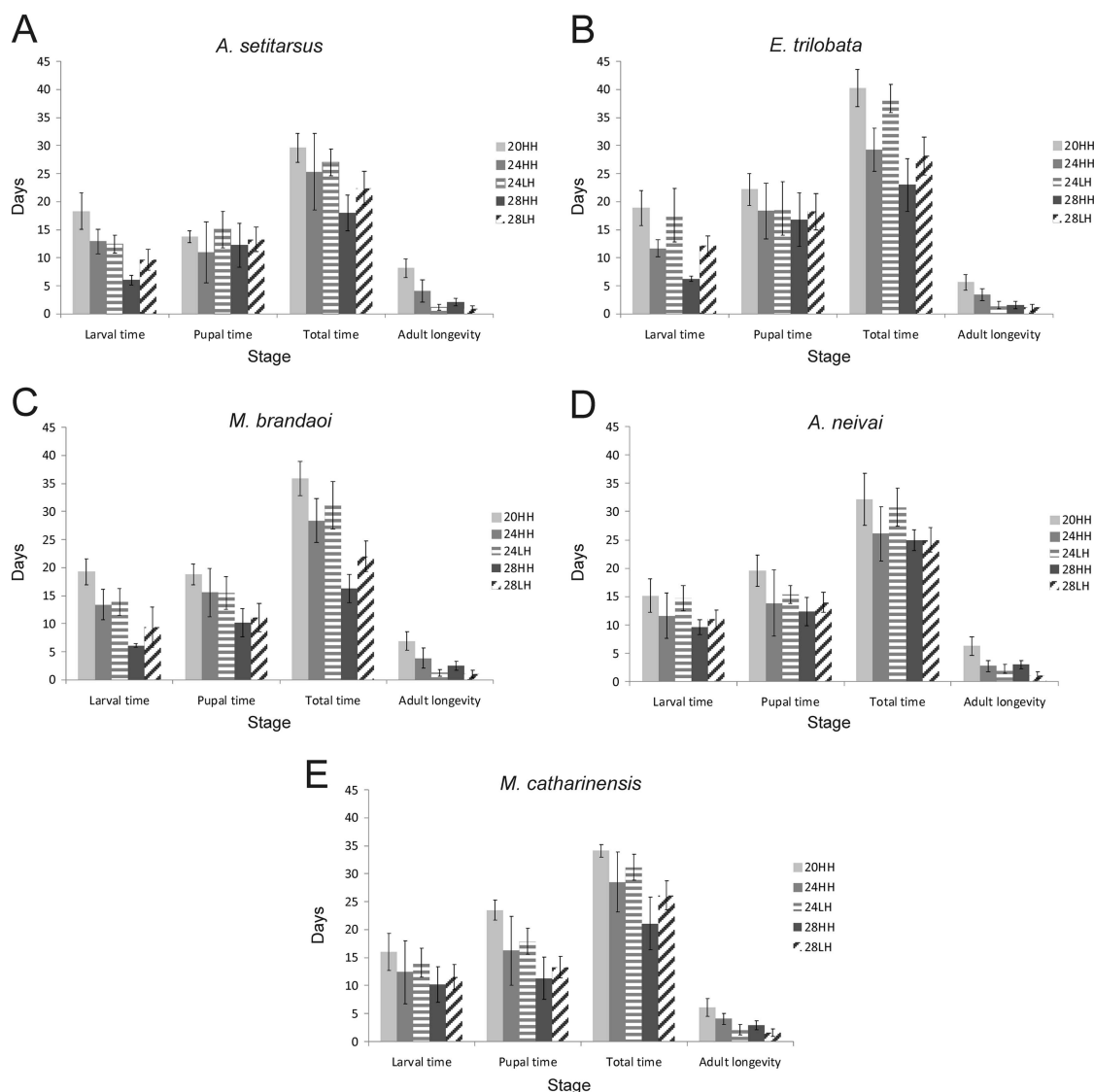


Fig. 1. Developmental times and adult longevity (mean and SD) of parasitoids of *A. vollenweideri* (A–C) and *A. lundii* (D–E) under five different rearing regimens.

posteriori contrasts showing the highest survivorship recorded at 24HH and the lowest at 28LH, whereas the differences between all other treatments were not significant (Fig. 2B). Interestingly, for *M. brandaoi*, the highest survivorship was recorded at 24HH and the lowest at 20HH, whereas differences between all other treatments were not significant.

REIs for all three species under the five rearing regimens are given in Table 1. Although the highest REIs were obtained at 24HH for all species, *E. trilobata* also showed good rearing efficiency at 28HH.

We found a positive correlation between size of adults and total developmental time only for *M. brandaoi* at 24HH ($r = 0.49$; $P = 0.003$). However, size of adults and adult longevity were positively correlated only for *A. setitarsus* at 24LH ($r = 0.51$; $P = 0.03$). All

other correlations were not statistically significant ($P > 0.05$).

Parasitoids of *A. lundii*. Developmental times for *A. neivai* and *M. catharinensis* under the five rearing regimens tested are shown in Fig. 1D and E. Larval time varied significantly for *A. neivai*, ($F = 18.06$; $df = 4, 123$; $P = 0.0000$), being longer at 20HH and 24LH and shorter under the rest of the treatments ($P < 0.05$). *M. catharinensis* also showed significant variations ($F = 9.47$; $df = 4, 157$; $P = 0.0000$), with a posteriori contrasts revealing that the longest time was recorded at 20HH and the shortest at 28HH ($P < 0.05$), whereas the other contrasts showed no significant differences.

Pupal time varied across treatments for *A. neivai* ($F = 8.57$; $df = 4, 95$; $P = 0.0000$), being shortest at 24 and 28HH and longest at 20HH according to a poste-

Table 1. Size (mm) of host ants and adult phorids (mean ± SD) and REI, product of multiplying natural percent parasitism by pupal survivorship, for phorids of *A. volleneideri* and *A. landtii* under all treatments

Treatment	<i>A. seittarsus</i>			<i>E. trilobata</i>			<i>A. volleneideri</i>			<i>M. brandaoui</i>			<i>A. neivai</i>			<i>A. landtii</i>			
	Size of adults	REI	Size of hosts	Size of adults	REI	Size of hosts	Size of adults	REI	Size of hosts	Size of adults	REI	Size of adults	REI	Size of hosts	Size of adults	REI	Size of hosts	Size of adults	REI
20HH	0.54 ± 0.02 9	0.25	1.95 ± 0.29b 81	0.53 ± 0.04 65	0.36	1.62 ± 0.25 37	0.46 ± 0.04 17	0.17	0.59 ± 0.01 15	0.53	1.58 ± 0.15 33	0.41 ± 0.02 15	0.27	1.49 ± 0.21 60	0.42 ± 0.04 44	0.95	0.21	0.41 ± 0.02 20	0.28
24HH	0.53 ± 0.04 29	1.59	2.08 ± 0.26a 94	0.54 ± 0.04 94	1.40	1.78 ± 0.30 41	0.43 ± 0.04 39	1.17	0.49 ± 0.05 29	1.11	1.56 ± 0.15 38	0.41 ± 0.02 11	0.21	1.58 ± 0.15 33	0.41 ± 0.02 11	0.11	0.21	0.42 ± 0.02 9	0.11
24LH	0.54 ± 0.04 18	0.14	2.10 ± 0.25a 63	0.55 ± 0.03 36	0.48	1.81 ± 0.32 27	0.42 ± 0.05 23	0.32	0.52 ± 0.02 10	0.09	1.58 ± 0.15 33	0.41 ± 0.02 11	0.21	1.59 ± 0.16 22	0.42 ± 0.02 9	0.11	0.21	0.41 ± 0.02 9	0.11
28HH	0.51 ± 0.03 13	0.33	1.86 ± 0.22b 73	0.53 ± 0.04 49	0.87	1.58 ± 0.15 20	0.42 ± 0.04 15	0.40	0.50 ± 0.06 15	0.27	1.58 ± 0.15 33	0.41 ± 0.02 11	0.28	1.59 ± 0.16 22	0.42 ± 0.02 9	0.11	0.21	0.41 ± 0.02 9	0.11
28LH	0.51 ± 0.03 8	0.06	1.79 ± 0.19b 31	0.54 ± 0.03 15	0.12	1.56 ± 0.16 16	0.42 ± 0.05 11	0.18	0.52 ± 0.02 9	0.05	1.59 ± 0.16 22	0.42 ± 0.02 9	0.11	1.59 ± 0.16 22	0.42 ± 0.02 9	0.11	0.21	0.42 ± 0.02 9	0.11

Size of hosts for *A. seittarsus* and *A. neivai* are not given (see Materials and Methods section). Number of individuals measured per species and treatment is shown in italics. Equal lowercase letters in a column indicate significant differences across treatments.

riori contrasts, with the low humidity treatments exhibiting intermediate values ($P < 0.05$ each). Significant differences were also found across treatments for *M. catharinensis* ($F = 8.6$; $df = 4, 97$; $P = 0.0000$), which according to a posteriori contrasts exhibited the longest pupal time at 20HH and the shortest at 28HH, with the other treatments showing intermediate values ($P < 0.05$ each).

Accordingly, total developmental time also varied significantly depending on the rearing regimen for both species (*A. neivai*: $F = 10.67$; $df = 4, 95$; $P = 0.0000$; *M. catharinensis*: $F = 15.9$; $df = 4, 97$; $P = 0.0000$). A posteriori contrasts showed that for *A. neivai* it was longest at 20HH and shortest at 28HH and 28LH, whereas *M. catharinensis* exhibited the longest time at 20HH and the shortest at 28HH ($P < 0.05$ each).

Adult longevity was also significantly affected by the rearing regimen for both *A. neivai* ($F = 36.18$; $df = 4, 85$; $P = 0.0000$) and *M. catharinensis* ($F = 44.62$; $df = 4, 97$; $P = 0.0000$). Adults of both species lived the longest at 20HH and shortest at 28LH, the treatments in between exhibiting intermediate values, according to a posteriori contrasts ($P < 0.05$ each).

We found no significant differences between sizes of adult flies under any treatment (Table 1) for both *A. neivai* ($F = 2.12$; $df = 4, 68$; $P = 0.08$) and *M. catharinensis* ($F = 0.04$; $df = 4, 89$; $P = 0.99$). Furthermore, we did not record significant differences for the size of host ants parasitized by *M. catharinensis* ($F = 12.32$; $df = 4, 176$; $P = 0.086$).

The rearing regimens tested significantly affected the percentage of pupae obtained for both *A. neivai* ($F = 6.12$; $df = 4, 62$; $P = 0.0004$) and *M. catharinensis* ($F = 4.49$; $df = 4, 77$; $P = 0.0027$). A posteriori contrasts showed that, for *A. neivai*, this percentage was greatest at 24HH and lowest at 24 and 28LH ($P < 0.05$ each), whereas for *M. catharinensis* the highest value was recorded at 20HH and the lowest at 24LH, 28HH, and 28LH (Fig. 2A), with the treatment 24HH resulting in intermediate levels of parasitism.

Pupal survivorship was significantly affected by the treatments for both species (*A. neivai*: $F = 3.98$; $df = 4, 56$; $P = 0.0066$; *M. catharinensis*: $F = 5.25$; $df = 4, 77$; $P = 0.0009$; Fig. 2b). For *A. neivai* survivorship was greatest at 24HH and lowest at 24LH, according to a posteriori contrasts ($P < 0.05$ each), whereas the differences among the other treatments for either species were not significant. However, a posteriori contrasts showed that survivorship was greatest at 24HH and lowest at 28LH for *M. catharinensis* ($P < 0.05$ each), with the other treatments showing intermediate values.

REIs for both species under the five rearing regimens are given in Table 1. The 24HH regimen was found to be the most adequate for both *A. neivai* and *M. catharinensis*.

We found a statistically significant correlation between size of adults and total developmental time for *A. neivai* at 24HH ($r = 0.61$; $P = 0.004$), 24LH ($r = 0.78$; $P = 0.01$), and 28HH ($r = 0.72$; $P = 0.003$), whereas for *M. catharinensis* these two variables were not significantly correlated under any of the rearing regimens. Neither *A. neivai* nor *M. catharinensis* showed signif-

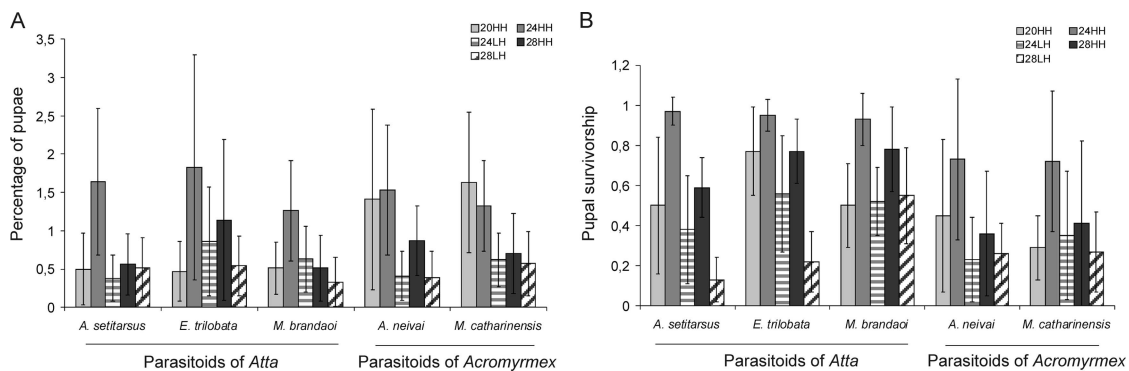


Fig. 2. Percentage of pupae obtained (A) and pupal survivorship (B) for *A. setitarsus*, *E. trilobata*, and *M. brandaoi*—parasitoids of *A. vollenweideri*—and *A. neivai* and *M. brandaoi*—parasitoids of *A. lundii*—under five different rearing regimens.

icant correlations between size of adults and adult longevity, under any of the treatments.

Discussion

Our results provide information on key aspects of the life history of the most important genera of leaf-cutting ant phorids, which may prove to be of great value for designing mass-rearing techniques for these parasitoids. Although flies from all five species studied here could develop under all the rearing regimens tested, immature performance in terms of developmental times differed significantly among treatments, and the same could be observed for adult longevity. Both percentage of pupae obtained and pupal survivorship were also affected, resulting in varying rearing efficiencies.

To our knowledge, few other works have been published on life cycles of leaf-cutter ant phorids under temperatures lower than 26.5°C and none under humidities lower than 65%, with the exception of our previous work, in which the rearing temperature was $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ (Guillade and Folgarait 2011), and only one study has been published in which leaf-cutting ant parasitoids were reared at 22°C (Elizalde and Folgarait 2011). Our findings differ from those reported by the latter authors, particularly regarding larval times, which were consistently longer in our study for all the species reared. These differences seem to suggest a great sensitivity of phorid species to even small changes in temperature or humidity. However, the fact that all five species studied here could successfully complete their development and survive at least 2 d as adults show the great plasticity and tolerance they have to varying environmental conditions, which is a highly desirable trait for organisms that will be released in the field under variable situations, given their wide geographic distribution (Elizalde and Folgarait 2010) and the variety of habitats occupied by their hosts (Farji Brener and Ruggiero 1994).

Both phorids of *A. vollenweideri* from Santa Fe Province and those of *A. lundii* from Buenos Aires province exhibited their best performance in terms of rearing efficiency at the 24HH treatment (Table 1). Interest-

ingly, the three *A. vollenweideri* phorid species exhibited very low coefficients of variation of pupal survivorship under this treatment, ranging from 0.07 to 0.14, whereas the coefficients of variation for *A. lundii* phorids at 24HH were circa 0.5. One factor that might explain the great variation observed in pupal survivorship across treatments between phorids of *A. vollenweideri* and *A. lundii* is the fact that *A. vollenweideri* ants deposit their litter in refuse chambers within the nest (Jonkman 1976). Ants are well-known for regulating the temperature within their nests to maintain optimal conditions for culturing their fungus gardens (Bollazzi and Roces 2010); therefore, if phorids develop within internal refuse dumps, then they are likely to do so, comparatively, under largely constant temperature and humidity conditions. However, *A. lundii* deposits litter in either external or internal refuse dumps, and thus phorids developing in them should be adapted to greater variations in climatic conditions. Nonetheless, the litter deposited in external refuse dumps might act as mulch, buffering the phorid pupae to an extent from the lower humidity in the surrounding air. For phorids that must complete their development under such varying circumstances it would likely not be advantageous, from an evolutionary point of view, to be adapted to a particular temperature and humidity regimen, but rather to achieve a reasonably high survivorship under a wider range of environmental conditions. A great genotypic variability regarding environmental tolerance during development would be an advantage to their populations, ensuring that enough individuals reach adulthood, adverse climatic conditions notwithstanding. This hypothesis seems to be consistent with the lesser variation across treatments observed for *A. lundii* phorids compared with the variation observed for phorids reared from *A. vollenweideri*. The mean coefficients of variation in pupal survivorship for each species across the five treatments was 0.55 for *A. setitarsus*, 0.39 for *E. trilobata*, and 0.43 for *M. brandaoi*, whereas for *A. lundii* phorids it was much greater with 0.81 for *A. neivai* and 0.78 for *M. catharinensis*. It would be interesting to test this hypothesis by contrasting the REIs obtained under different rearing regimens in this

study for phorids parasitizing *A. vollenweideri*, which deposits refuse in internal chambers, with those of *Atta colombica* Guérin-Méneville, a species with external refuse dumps.

Henne and Johnson (2007) reported, in an experiment conducted under laboratory conditions in an artificial setup, that *S. invicta* workers parasitized by *Pseudacteon tricuspis* Borgmeier remained within lateral tunnels in the nest, avoiding foraging, and that they only left the nest through lateral, secondary trails shortly before dying, a behavior they hypothesized to be dictated by the phorid parasitoid to keep it protected from unfavorable environmental conditions. These ants were incapable of biting because of the damage the parasitoids had inflicted to their mandibular muscles. If this was the case for leaf-cutting ants, very few parasitized workers would be collected during a passive sampling, and they would die shortly after capture because only those workers close to death by a few hours would leave the nest. We found that larval time from field-collected ants in our experiments fluctuated from ≈ 5 to 18 d, depending on the rearing regimen. Elizalde and Folgarait (2011) also found prolonged larval times for several phorid species reared from ants collected in the field. Moreover, although the percentage of pupae recovered in our experiment was rather low, this seems to be a result of the environmental conditions, as discussed below, because Elizalde and Folgarait (2011) reported parasitism rates as high as $\approx 30\%$ for *E. trilobata* in the same study site but from different years. Because both in our experiment and the latter authors' work, the ants were collected from foraging trails, the hypothesis that ants remain hidden in the nest until a few hours before their death seems to be contradicted, at least in leaf-cutter ants.

Because rearing conditions clearly affected the larval development for the species studied, we can compare our results to other studies assessing parasitism rates only when rearing conditions were similar to one of those tested here. Elizalde and Folgarait (2011) reported parasitism rates for *A. lundii* during 2005 that were similar to those we found. However, they reported much higher levels of parasitism for 2006. The opposite can be observed for *A. vollenweideri* parasitoids, which in their study were more abundant in 2005. Phorid abundance is markedly seasonal (Elizalde and Folgarait 2011, Guillade and Folgarait 2011), and climatic factors have been shown to also affect their richness to some extent (Elizalde and Folgarait 2010). Our samplings took place a year after one of the worst droughts to have ever affected Argentina, and phorid fly populations were only beginning to recover after their drop in abundance during 2008 and 2009. This caused the REIs to be particularly low; however, samplings from more favorable years, such as that of Elizalde and Folgarait (2011) would yield much higher values of this index. Considering the maximum parasitism rates these authors reported, the REI would be 5.82 at 24HH for *A. setitarsus*, 28.5 for *E. trilobata*, and 13.95 for *M. brandaoi*. As for parasitoids of *A. lundii*, the REI would be 4.38 for *A. neivai* and 4.32 for

M. catharinensis. Furthermore, we have reported a very high pupal survivorship for *A. setitarsus*, *E. trilobata*, and *M. brandaoi* at the 24HH treatment, much higher than what Tonhasca et al. (2001) reported for *Myrmosicarius grandicornis* Borgmeier or Bragança et al. (2009) reported for *Neodohrniphora elongata* Brown, both at 26.5°C. Such high pupal survivorship is a greatly desirable trait for any mass rearing program because it would ensure that $\approx 95\%$ of all the parasitoids brought into the laboratory would successfully complete their development.

Albeit not as high as that of *A. vollenweideri* phorids, mean pupal survivorship for *A. neivai* and *M. catharinensis* was also highest at the 24HH treatment; nonetheless, survivorship for these two species was highly variable across treatments, as indicated by the great coefficients of variation obtained, which ranged from 0.48 to 1, and were greater in comparison to those from *Atta* phorids (0.07–0.92). One possible hypothesis that may account for the lower pupal survivorship in *Acromyrmex* in comparison to *Atta* could be related to the presence of actinomycetes, in particular the alleged symbiont *Pseudonocardia* (Cafaro et al. 2011). The presence of the bacteria seems to protect these ants against pathogenic fungi (Currie et al. 2003). However, the existence of these symbionts in *Atta* ants has become the subject of much controversy, whereas its presence in *Acromyrmex* is undisputed (Fernández-Marín et al. 2009). If this is truly the case, it can be argued that antibiotics secreted by the aforementioned actinomycetes could have been coopted to negatively affect the coevolution with specific parasitoids, which would then lead to a lower parasitism success in *Acromyrmex* ants that have *Pseudonocardia* or other actinomycetes with similar roles. Obviously, as in any arms race, the parasitoids would have counter-evolved defenses against actinomycetes antibiotics, but in any case, they could still be less efficient in comparison to *Atta* parasitoids that do not have to deal with them. Future research should aim to study the effect of several coevolving factors that can interact in complex manners if the goal is to improve survivorship for these parasitoids under laboratory conditions, to maximize their rearing efficiency.

The high sensitivity that all species tested here exhibited to variations in both temperature and humidity could help explain the marked seasonality of these parasitoids in the field (Guillade and Folgarait 2011, Elizalde and Folgarait 2012). This should be taken into account when designing schedules for mass release programs of these flies, to ensure the survival and establishment of the parasitoids released. Our results should prove highly valuable for mass rearing programs, because such information is necessary, for example, for timing the emergence of adults or conserving them until the dates set for release (Thead and Streett 2006). We then conclude that the 24HH treatment is the most suitable for rearing the species of parasitoids studied here, and the 20HH treatment would be highly recommended for keeping emerged adults until their release in the field.

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Acknowledgments

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The reference is cited in page 2, the order of authors was inverted, it has been corrected in the text (SEE page 2)

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