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1 Invertebrate Community Associated with the Asexual Generation of Bassettia pallida Ashmead (Hymenoptera: Cynipidae) 2 3 Kelly L. Weinersmith,^{1,4} Andrew A. Forbes,² Anna K.G. Ward,² Pedro F. P. 4 Brandão-Dias,¹ Y. Miles Zhang,³ and Scott P. Egan¹ 5 6 7 ¹Department of BioSciences, Rice University, Houston, Texas 77005, USA (klw5@rice.edu, pb21@rice.edu, scott.p.egan@rice.edu), ²Department of Biology, 8 University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52242, USA (andrew-forbes@uiowa.edu, anna-k-9 ward@uiowa.edu). ³Entomology & Nematology Department, University of Florida. 10 Gainesville, Florida, 32608, USA (yuanmeng.zhang@gmail.com), ⁴Corresponding 11 12 author, e-mail: klw5@rice.edu 13 14 Abstract 15 Cynipid gall wasps play an important role in structuring oak invertebrate communities. Wasps in the Cynipini tribe typically lay their eggs in oaks (Quercus L), and induce the 16 formation of a "gall", which is a tumor-like growth of plant material that surrounds the 17 18 developing wasp. As the wasp develops, the cynipid and its gall are attacked by a diverse community of natural enemies, including parasitoids, hyperparasitoids, and 19 20 inquilines. Determining what structures these species-rich natural enemy communities 21 across cynipid gall wasp species is a major question in gall wasp biology. Additionally, gall wasps are ecosystem engineers, as the abandoned gall is used by other 22 23 invertebrates. The gall-associated insect communities residing on live oaks (Quercus

24 *geminata* Small and *Q. virginiana* Mill.) are emerging as a model system for answering ecological and evolutionary questions ranging from community ecology to the evolution 25 of new species. Documenting the invertebrates associated with cynipids in this system 26 27 will expand our understanding of the mechanisms influencing eco-evolutionary 28 processes, record underexplored axes of biodiversity, and facilitate future work. Here, 29 we present the community of natural enemies and other associates of the asexual generation of the crypt gall wasp, Bassettia pallida Ashmead. We compare the 30 composition of this community to communities recently documented from two other 31 32 cynipid gall wasps specializing on live oaks along the U.S. Gulf coast, *Disholcaspis* quercusvirens Ashmead and Belonocnema treatae Mayr. B. pallida and their crypts 33 34 support a diverse arthropod community, including over 25 parasitoids, inquilines, and 35 other associated invertebrates spanning 5 orders and 16 families. 36

Key words: oak gall, Natural Enemy Hypothesis, crypt gall wasp, crypt keeper wasp

Shelter-building insects (including gall formers, leaf rollers, leaf miners, and other 39 40 insects that generate three-dimensional structures on their host plants) are ecosystem engineers, and are often associated with increases in arthropod richness and 41 abundance on their host plants (reviewed in Cornelissen et al. 2016). While residing in 42 43 their shelters, these insects are the target of parasitoids and predators, and are exploited by inquilines (i.e., organisms that typically do not make shelters themselves, 44 45 but move into shelters with variable fitness implications for the shelter-maker) (Sanver 46 and Hawkins 2000, Mendonça and Romanowski 2002, Hayward and Stone 2005,

Bailey et al. 2009). The shelters often remain after the ecosystem engineer has
abandoned it, and are subsequently settled by other arthropods (Cornelissen et al.
2016, Harvey et al. 2016, Wetzel et al. 2016).

50 Some of nature's most complex shelters are created by cynipid gall wasps 51 (Stone et al. 2002, Stone and Schönrogge 2003). Members of the Cynipini tribe lay their 52 eggs in *Quercus* oaks (or sometimes other trees in the family Fagaceae), and induce the plant to produce a structure called a "gall". The gall is lined with nutritious tissue, 53 and will support the wasp while it feeds and develops (Rohfritsch 1992). Galls vary in 54 55 appearance and structure, including those that exhibit exterior defenses that are sticky, hairy, or protruding spikes, or contain internal air sacs (Stone and Cook 1998, Csóka et 56 al. 2005, Bailey et al. 2009), and those that are more cryptic (Melika and Abrahamson 57 58 2007). The incredible structural diversity among galls is thought to be a defense against the speciose community of parasitoids and inquilines that are often associated with galls 59 (Abe et al. 2007, Askew et al. 2013), and which can have dramatic impacts on cynipid 60 61 population fitness (Price et al. 1987, Sanver and Hawkins 2000, Stone and Schönrogge 2003, Csóka et al. 2005, Bailey et al. 2009). An estimated ~1,400 described species of 62 63 cynipid gall wasps produce morphologically diverse galls in their respective host plants (Ronguist et al. 2015, Pénzes et al. 2018), making this system ideal for asking 64 guestions about the importance of factors such as host relatedness, phenology, and 65 66 natural enemy defense strategies on the structure of natural enemy communities (Cornell 1985, Stone et al. 2002, Stone and Schönrogge 2003, Price et al. 2004, Csóka 67 68 et al. 2005, Hayward and Stone 2005).

69 Many of the studies on the structuring of the communities of natural enemies 70 attacking cynipid gall wasps have been done in the Palaearctic (e.g., Schönrogge et al. 71 1996, Hayward and Stone 2005, Bailey et al. 2009, Nicholls et al. 2010, Stone et al. 72 2012, Bunnefeld et al. 2018). In North America, groundwork is being laid to conduct similar studies on the communities associated with the cynipid gall wasps that infect the 73 74 "live oaks" (subsection Virentes) - a monophyletic group of seven North American semi-75 evergreen oak species within the genus Quercus – where much of the focus has centered on two partially overlapping sister species along the U.S. Gulf coast, Quercus 76 77 virginiana and Quercus geminata (Cavender-Bares and Pahlich 2009, Cavender-Bares 78 et al. 2015, Hipp et al. 2018). These live oaks are home to at least six (Egan et al. 2013) 79 and potentially twelve (Egan, unpublished data) cynipid gall wasp species, which are in 80 turn attacked by a community of parasitoids and inquilines (Bird et al. 2013, Forbes et 81 al. 2016). The cynipid gall wasps and their communities of natural enemies associated with the live oak lineage are emerging as powerful systems for answering a broad set of 82 83 ecological and evolutionary questions on local adaptation (Egan and Ott 2007), natural selection (Egan et al. 2011), speciation (Egan, Hood, and Ott 2012, Egan, Hood, Feder, 84 et al. 2012, Egan et al. 2013, Zhang et al. 2017, 2019, Hood et al. 2019), developmental 85 86 plasticity (Hood and Ott 2010), and novel species interactions (Egan et al. 2017, Weinersmith et al. 2017, Ward et al. 2019). However, the extent to which these species-87 rich natural enemy communities on gall wasp host species overlap is currently unclear. 88 89 and even documentation of the species present in these communities is far from complete. Because of these limitations, the factors determining the overlap between the 90

91 natural enemy communities attacking cynipid gall wasps species residing on live oaks
92 remains unexplored.

After the host and/or its various natural enemies have exited the gall, the gall 93 94 itself often remains. Abandoned oak galls are settled by a variety of arthropods, including ants, spiders, mites, and beetles (e.g., Cooper and Rieske 2010, Wetzel et al. 95 2016, Giannetti et al. 2019). While a recent review found that insect-made shelters are 96 associated with increases in the abundance and diversity of arthropods that use the 97 shelter once it is abandoned (Cornelissen et al. 2016), increases in density and diversity 98 are not the rule. For example, the abandoned galls of the California gall wasp, Andricus 99 100 quercuscalifornicus (Bassett), are associated with a reduction in herbivore invertebrate 101 density and diversity, presumably because the galls are colonized by predatory spiders 102 which attack herbivore invertebrates (Wetzel et al. 2016). Additional work is needed to 103 better understand of the importance of abandoned galls on the local arthropod 104 community.

105 Here we describe the community of natural enemies of the asexual generation of 106 Bassettia pallida Ashmead (the crypt gall wasp), and discuss the overlap between the 107 natural enemies of *B. pallida* and the previously described natural enemy communites 108 of two gall wasps (Belonocnema treatae Mayr and Disholcaspis guercusvirens 109 Ashmead) specializing on the same two live oak hosts, Q. virginiana and Q. geminata. 110 The asexual generation of *B. treatae* creates leaf galls that contain one chamber, and 111 was recently found to be associated with 24 invertebrate species (Forbes et al. 2016). 112 The asexual generation of *D. guercusvirens* (which produces "bullet galls" on stems) 113 was associated with nine species of parasitoids and inquilines (Bird et al. 2013).

Additionally, to stimulate future studies examining how *B. pallida* influences the diversity and abundance of the invertebrate community residing on live oaks, we report observations of associates of *B. pallida* that are likely benign and facultative, and use the crypt once it has been abandoned.

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119 Study System

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121 The asexual generation of wasps in the North American genus *Bassettia* Ashmead (Hymenoptera, Cynipidae, Cynipini) produce stem galls in twigs, in which compartments 122 123 where the wasps develop run parallel to the bark (Melika and Abrahamson 2007). The 124 sexual generations of this genus – when known – make their galls in leaves, where they 125 produce swellings that are visible on both sides of the leaf (Melika and Abrahamson 126 2007). The crypt gall wasp, Bassettia pallida (Hymenoptera: Cynipidae) (Fig. 1), infects 127 both sand live oaks (Q. geminata) and southern live oaks (Q. virginiana) in the 128 southeastern United States (Melika and Abrahamson 2007, Egan et al. 2013). The stem 129 galls produced by the asexual generation of *B. pallida* are called "crypts", and the sexual generation galls of this species have not been definitively identified. The 130 131 community of natural enemies attacking *B. pallida* has not been described previously. 132 **Materials and Methods** 133 134

135 Collections and Characterization of Natural Enemy Community

136 The stem galls made by the asexual generation of *Bassettia* are concealed, and are 137 typically identified by finding emergence holes made by Bassettia which emerged previously (Melika and Abrahamson 2007). We collected Q. geminata stems with 138 139 evidence of *B. pallida* emergence holes from four locations in Florida: Inlet Beach 140 (Lat/Long: 30.273663, -86.001911), Lake Lizzie (28.227718, -81.179641), Topsail Hill 141 Preserve State Park (30.3675327, -86.2752784), and Camp Helen State Park 142 (30.270194, -85.991833). Collections made at Florida State Parks were made under 143 Scientific Research Collecting Permit #04301840 from the Florida Department of Environmental Protection. We also collected *B. pallida*-infected *Q. virginiana* stems from 144 145 two locations in Texas: Humble (29.998392, -95.184455) and Rice University's Campus 146 in Houston (29.717030, -95.401279). Collections occurred between August and March 147 in 2015, 2016, 2018, and 2019. Tables 1 and 2 summarize collection years, locations 148 sampled, host plant, and the number of invertebrates that emerged from each 149 collection.

150 Stems collected in the field were placed in plastic bags and transported to either Rice University (Houston, Texas) or Charlottesville, Virginia. Leaves and non-target 151 152 galls were removed from the stems, and stems were placed in clear plastic cups. The 153 cups were covered with a coffee filter, which was secured in place with a rubber band. 154 Cups were then placed outside, where they experienced natural light: dark cycles and 155 ambient temperatures and humidity. The stems were misted with tap water periodically 156 to mimic local precipitation. Abiotic differences between outdoor rearing conditions in Virginia and Texas may have influenced emergence success, but this is unlikely. After 157 158 emergences ceased, haphazard dissections of stems suggested that most of the

159 associates from the samples sent to Virginia had indeed emerged, and that no particular 160 natural enemy species remained in the crypts. Cups were checked for emergences five 161 days a week. Emerged insects were placed in 95% ethanol, and stored at room 162 temperature or -20 until further analysis. 163 Most emergent insects were Hymenoptera, which we identified using keys by 164 Mason (1993), Gibson et al. (1997), Weld (1952), Gillette (1896), and Wahl (2019). For 165 a subset of the associates, we extracted DNA using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit 166 (Qiagen) in accordance to the manufacturer's protocol with the adition of a pestle 167 crushing step prior to incubation. The mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase I (COI) region was amplified using the KAPA Tag ReadyMix (Sigma Aldrich) and the primers LEP F 5' 168 169 TAAACTTCTGGATGTCCAAAAAATCA 3' and LEP R 5' 170 ATTCAACCAATACATAAAGATATTGG 3' (Smith et al. 2008). Due to primer 171 incompatibility, for the Eurytoma sample we used the following primers: COI PF2 5' 172 ACC WGT AAT RAT AGG DGG DTT TGG DAA 3' and COI 2437d 5' CGT ART CAT 173 CTA AAW AYT TTA ATW CCW G 3' (Kaartinen et al. 2010). Thermocycling programs 174 included 35 cycles with 48°C as the annealing temperature. We cleaned the resulting PCR products using the QIAquick PCR purification KIT (Qiagen) or an EXO1 175 176 (exonuclease 1) and SAP (shrimp alkaline phosphotase) method (15 min at 37°C 177 minutes and then 80°C for an additional 15 min) prior to Sanger sequencing on an ABI 178 3730 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) in the University of Iowa's Roy J. Carver 179 Center for Genomics.

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182 Results

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184 Host Collection

185 B. pallida emerged from crypts in five of our collections, and emerged from both Q. 186 geminata in Florida and Q. virginiana in Texas (Table 1). The greatest number of B. 187 pallida emerged from crypts collected at Camp Helen State Park in Florida. Two B. 188 pallida sequences (MN935926, MN935927; Table S1) were obtained from this location. 189 The sequences were 98.98% identical, and multiple Cynipidae were ~90-94% similar in 190 GenBank. Most of the observed *B. pallida* emergences occurred in March, which is 191 consistent with previous collections in Florida (Melika and Abrahamson 2007), and 192 expectations from their natural history. Eight *B. pallida* emerged from late October 193 through mid-December from collections made in the fall (August through October) and 194 are likely responding to galled branches being removed from the tree.

195 Three specimens of an unidentified cynipid were found in the 2018-2019 196 collection. This cynipid appears to make crypt-like galls on stems and keys to the genus 197 Callirhytis Foerster using (Zimmerman 2018), but could not be identified or matched to 198 any currently described species. Upon further inspection, this 'new' species emerges 199 from a solitary crypt gall with little to no external and visible swelling found at branching 200 points within new stems, which is distinct from the cluster of crypt galls that generate a 201 subtle swelling of the lateral parts of new branches induced by *B. pallida* (Brandão et 202 al., MS in prep). We cannot rule out the possibility that some of the natural enemies and associates we describe below emerged from this galler. However, only 3 of the 590 203 204 (0.5%) cynipids that emerged from this collection were the non-target host species,

suggesting that the vast majority of the natural enemies we collected were likely
associated with *B. pallida*.

Associates from five orders and 16 families were reared from *Q. geminata* and *Q. virginiana* stems infected by the asexual generation of *B. pallida.* We present the Hymenopteran associates (Table 1) first, as they were the most abundant and diverse order present in our samples.

211

212 Hymenoptera

We collected one specimen (Table 1) that keys to the family Encyrtidae (Chalcidoidea) using Grissell and Schauff (1997). The sequence from this specimen (MN935918, Table S1) was 97.7% similar to an unclassified Hymenopteran in GenBank. Encyrtid wasps can be parasitoids and hyperparasitoids, and many known host associations are with scale insects or mealybugs (Noyes 1988, Noyes and Woolley 1994). This wasp may be an associate of *B. pallida* galls, and not a direct parasitoid of the galler.

219 Euderus set Egan, Weinersmith, & Forbes (Chalcidoidea: Eulophidae; Fig 2A) 220 emerged from Q. virginiana and Q. geminata at four sites. E. set is a recently described 221 parasitoid of *B. pallida* (Egan et al. 2017), and manipulates its host into excavating an 222 emergence hole from the crypt and then dying while plugging the hole with its head capsule (Fig. 1C, 2A) (Weinersmith et al. 2017). This behavior facilitates E. set's escape 223 224 from the crypt following completion of development (Weinersmith et al. 2017). Six other 225 cynipid gall wasp hosts of *E.* set have recently been identified, all residing on different oak species than *B. pallida*, and all of which appear to be manipulated to facilitate 226 227 parasitoid emergence (Ward et al. 2019).

228 Two species of Tetrastichinae (Chalcidoidea: Eulophidae) emerged in our 229 collections. The first species keyed to the genus Galeopsomyia Girault (Fig. 2B) using 230 Schauff et al. (1997). This species emerged from three of our collections (Table 1), with 231 the majority emerging mid-March through mid-April from the stems collected from Q. 232 geminata at Camp Helen State Park (FL). We acquired a COI sequence (MN935919; 233 Table S1), which was ~84% similar to unclassified Eulophidae in GenBank. The second 234 Tetrastichinae species was collected from Q. virginiana in Texas, and the sequence 235 collected from this species (MN935910; Table S1) was only 79.9% similar to the 236 Galeopsomyia species sequences. The tetrastichine wasp was 96.1% identical to an 237 early release sequence from an Eulophidae in BOLD. In GenBank, this sequence was 238 ~86% identical to Eulophidae specimens in the subfamily Tetrastichinae. 239 Forbes et al. (2016) observed Galeopsomyia nigrocyanea (Ashmead) emerging 240 from *B. treatae* on *Q. virginiana* in Texas. Based on sequence data, we suspect that the 241 Galeopsomyia emerging from B. pallida are not G. nigrocyanea. The two G. 242 nigrocyanea sequences deposited in GenBank from Forbes et al. (2016) are 84% 243 similar to our Camp Helen specimen (from Q. geminata in Florida), and our Tetrastichinae specimen from Rice University (from Q. virginiana in Texas) shares only 244 245 ~83% similarity. Wasps in the genus Galeopsomyia are parasitoids of cynipid gall 246 wasps (e.g., Belonocnema treatae (Forbes et al. 2016)), gall-forming dipterans (e.g., 247 Cecidomyiidae (Stiling et al. 1992)), and are hyperparasitoids of other wasps, including 248 some genera represented in our samples (e.g., *Eurytoma* Illiger (Herting 1977)). The Galeopsomyia that emerged from our samples could be a parasitoid, hyperparasitoid, or 249 250 both (i.e., a facultative hyperparasitoid).

251 Brasema Cameron (Chalcidoidea: Eupelmidae: Eupelminae; Fig. 2C) were 252 reared in our collections (Table 1), and were identified according to Gibson (1997). We 253 obtained one sequence (MN935905; Table S1), which was 97.7% similar to "Brasema 254 sp. GG5" (GenBank Accession HQ930308.1), which was collected by freehand sampling from a mesic hammock at Kissimmee Prairie Preserve State Park in Florida 255 256 (BOLD Barcode Index Number BOLD:AAN7976). Based on sequence identity, the two 257 Brasema species collected by Forbes et al. (2016) may be different species than that 258 emerging from *B. pallida*. The sequences for *Brasema* sp. 1 and *Brasema* sp. 2 259 emerging from *B. treatae* (Forbes et al. 2016) are ~89% and ~91% similar to the 260 sequence we collected from Brasema emerging from B. pallida. Brasema have a wide 261 host range, with primary hosts including cynipid gall wasps, dipterans, and orthopterans, 262 and a range of parasitoid hosts as well (including Pteromalids, Eurytomids, and 263 Eulophids) (Noves 2019). The exact relationship of *Brasema* to *B. pallida* is unknown. 264 Eurytoma (Chalcidoidea: Eurytomidae: Eurytominae; Fig. 3A) were reared from 265 three collections (Table 1). Morphological ID of these specimens was done using DiGiulio (1997). We were unable to obtain sequence data for the one Eurytoma that 266 267 emerged from two of the collections (one from Q. virginiana from Rice University in TX, 268 and one from Q. geminata from Topsail Hill Preserve State Park in FL). Eurytoma parasitoid species also emerge from galls of B. treatae and D. 269 270 quercusvirens. Forbes et al. (2016) identified Eurytoma furva Bugbee and Eurytoma 271 bugbeei Grissell, as well as one unidentified Eurytoma species emerging from B. treatae. Sequence comparisons between the Eurytoma specimen from B. pallida 272

273 (MN935909; Table S1) and *E. furva* and *E. bugbeei* sequences collected from *B.*

274 treatae (Forbes et al. 2016) are an ~88% match, suggesting that the species collected 275 from *B. pallida* is distinct. DNA could not be extracted from the unidentified *Eurytoma* 276 species from *B. treatae*, so it is possible that this species emerges from both *B. pallida* 277 and B. treatae. Eurytoma hecale Walker and an unidentified Eurytoma species were identified as parasitoids of *D. guercusvirens* by Bird et al. (2013). Our specimen is 278 279 unlikely to be *E. hecale* based on morphology, and it is not possible to know if the 280 unidentified Eurytoma species reported in Bird et al. (2013) is the same as that 281 emerging from *B. pallida*.

Four morphospecies of Sycophila Walker (Chalcidoidea: Eurytomidae: 282 283 Eurytominae, Fig. 3B-E) were reared from three collections (Table 1). The specimens 284 were identified using Balduf (1923). The interpretation of the color variations in Balduf's 285 key is problematic, and the current species concepts are dubious until the taxonomic 286 revision of the genus is conducted (Zhang et al., unpublished data). The first Sycophila 287 morphospecies in our samples keys to S. foliatae (Ashmead) (Fig. 3B), which has 288 previously been recorded from "live oak" in Jacksonville, FL, and is associated with a variety of oak gall parasitoids (Balduf 1923). The female specimens have varying 289 degrees of black and yellow across the body and a small forewing infumation band. 290 291 while males are mostly black with similar wing band patterns (Fig. 3B). These coloration 292 characters also fit the description of S. quinqueseptae (Balduf), but this species is 293 currently only known from California and is associated with *Plagiotrochus* 294 quinqueseptum Ashmead (Balduf 1923). The second species identified was S. nr. dubia (Fig. 3C), although this species might be a synonym of S. varians based on morphology 295 296 (large angular forewing infumation band, body color mix of yellow and black) and

297 preliminary molecular studies (Zhang et al., unpublished data). S. nr. nubilistigma (Fig. 298 3D) is reared from Q. virginiana. They can be identified by their mostly yellow coloration 299 with a dorsal black band on the mesoma and metasoma. The wing band is rectangular 300 with a constriction near stigma vein (Fig. 3D). Finally, S. nr. disholcaspidis (Fig. 3E) was reared. The specimen is orange in coloration, and has the characteristic jug-shaped 301 302 wing band and a secondary band near the parastigma similar to that of S. disholcaspidis 303 Balduf which are parasitoids of Disholcaspis cinerosa (Bassett) in Texas. However, one 304 key difference from S. disholcaspidis is the presence of multiple setae radiating from the 305 secondary band (Fig. 3E), but more specimens are needed to better understand the 306 species limits.

Three species of *Sycophila* (*S. texana* (Balduf), *S. varians* (Walsh), and *S. dorsalis* (Fitch)) were recently reared from the asexual generation of *D. quercusvirens* (Forbes et al. 2016), and one unidentified *Sycophila* species was reared from the asexual generation of *B. treatae* (Bird et al. 2013). While more work is needed to clarify the identities of these *Sycophila* species, it seems likely based on morphology that very little overlap occurs between the *Sycophila* species attacking *B. pallida, B. treatae*, and *D. quercusvirens*.

Two species of *Ormyrus* Westwood (Chalcidoidea: Ormyridae: Ormyrinae; Fig. 4A-B) emerged from crypts on *Q. geminata* from two of the Florida collections (Table 1), and were identified using the key in Hanson (1992). Two *Ormyrus nr. labotus* Walker (Fig. 4A) emerged from collections at Inlet Beach, FL. We obtained sequence data from one of these specimens (MN935904; Table S1), and the closest match in GenBank was to an unidentified Ormyridae. The sequence was also 91.5% to 93.6% identical to

320 sequences from four O. labotus infecting B. treatae galls (Forbes et al. 2016). O. 321 labotus is a generalist parasitoid, reported from more than 15 species of cynipid gall 322 wasps (Noves 2019). Additionally, six O. nr. thymus emerged (Fig. 4B, Table 1). A 323 sequence obtained from one of these specimens (MN935907; TableS1) was an ~89% 324 match with an unidentified Ormyridae in BOLD. This sequence was only 86-87% similar 325 to the O. labotus sequences associated with B. treatae. Ormyus hegeli (Girault) was 326 also reared from both the asexual and sexual generation of *D. guercusvirens* (Bird et al. 327 2013), and based on morphology appears to be a different species from the two 328 Ormyrus species reared from B. pallida. No known associates of O. thymus or O. hegeli 329 are listed in Noves (2019).

Acaenacis Girault (Chalcidoidea: Pteromalidae: Pteromalinae; Fig 4C) were
reared from four sites, including stem galls from both *Q. virginiana* and *Q. geminata*(Table 1). These specimens keyed to the genus *Acaenacis* using Gibson et al. (1997).
Three COI sequences (MN935908, MN935911, MN935912; TableS1) were 88.8% to
92.67% identical to each other, and the top hit for all three sequences in GenBank were
to an unidentified Pteromalidae (85.5 to 88.3% identical).

Species in the genus *Acaenacis* attack oak-dwelling insects. *Acaenacis agrili*(Rohwer) is a parasitoid of the oak twig girdler (*Agrilus angelicus* Horn), which infects
stems of *Quercus agrifolia* Nee in California (Rohwer 1919). Live oaks in the
southeastern U.S. also harbor twig girdling beetles (Egan, S.P., personal observation).
While associates of *Acaenacis taciti* (Girault) have not been identified (Noyes 2019), all
other known hosts of *Acaenacis* are cynipid gall wasps. An undescribed *Acaenacis*infects *Andricus quercuslanigera* (Ashmead) on *Quercus rugosa* Nee in Mexico

(Serrano-Muñoz et al. 2016). *Acaenacis lasus* (Walker) has been reared from leaf galls
of *B. treatae* from *Quercus fusiformis* Small and *Q. virginiana* in Texas (Forbes et al.
2016), and *D. quercusvirens* on *Q. virginiana* in Florida (Bird et al. 2013). The four *A. lausus* sequences in GenBank from Forbes et al. (2016) were only 80-86% similar to
the three *Acaenacis* sequences obtained from our collections. While *A. lasus* is infecting
cynipid gall wasps on the same host plant as *B. pallida*, sequence data suggests that *A. lausus* is a different species than that emerging from *B. pallida*.

350 One Ceroptres sp. Hartig (Cynipoidea: Ceroptresini; Fig. 5A) was reared from a 351 crypt collected at Inlet Beach, FL (Table 1), as was one Synergus walshii Gillette 352 (Cynipoidea: Synergini; Fig. 5B). The Ceroptres specimen (MN935928; Table S1) was 353 90.4% similar to Ceroptres sp. FSU 399 (Accession: DQ012636.1), which was reared 354 from an Andricus quercuscornigera gall from Kentucky (USA) (Ronquist et al. 2015). 355 The sequence from S. walshii (MN935929; TableS1) was 97.1% similar to Synergus sp. 356 1 from Forbes et al. (2016), which was one of three Synergus species associated with 357 *B. treatae* in that study. Three *Synergus* are also associated with the asexual generation of *D. quercusvirens*, but it is unclear if the species in our study is the same 358 359 as Synergus sp. 1 reported in Bird et al. (2013). Members of the genera Synergus and 360 Ceroptres are inquilines of cynipid gall wasps, which are not able to initiate galls, but 361 can maintain the production of nutritious tree tissue once inside a gall (Pénzes et al. 362 2012, Ronquist et al. 2015). S. walshii was reared from galls of several species of 363 Andricus on various white oaks in IA, MO, and KY (A.K.G.W and A.A.F, unpublished data). Previous S. walshii collections were from Andricus quercusflocci galls on white 364 365 oaks (Quercus alba) (Gillette 1896).

366 Ants (Formicidae) were observed twice during our samplings (Fig. 6, Table 1). 367 and were identified to genus using Fisher and Cover (2007). Ants in the genus 368 Brachymyrmex Mayr were observed and collected (N = 4 individuals; Fig. 6A) three 369 months after *B. pallida*-infected *Q. virginiana* stems were brought into the lab. The 370 sequence data from the Brachymyrmex (MN935915; TableS1) were 100% identical to a 371 Brachymyrmex obscurior Forel sequence in GenBank. Brachymyrmex obscurior is likely 372 an introduced species in North America (Devrup et al. 2000). We also collected 373 Crematogaster ashmeadi (N = 8 individuals; Fig. 6B), which were identified using 374 Morgan and MacKay (2017). Some cynipid gall wasps induce their plant host to produce 375 honeydew, which is consumed by ants who subsequently tend the gall (reviewed in 376 Pierce 2019). While other cynipid gall wasps infecting oaks are known to secrete 377 honeydew from their galls (e.g., *D. guercusvirens* on sand live oaks (Nicholls et al. 378 2017)), we did not observe honeydew on nor tending by ants of *B. pallida* crypts. Ants 379 are also "secondary occupants" of galls, settling in the galls once cynipids have 380 abandoned them (e.g., Giannetti et al. 2019). We suspect that *B. pallida*-abandoned crypts are occasionally settled by ants. 381

The genus *Allorhogas* Gahan (Ichneumonoidea: Braconidae: Doryctinae) includes both gall-formers and parasitoids or inquilines (Zaldívar Riverón et al. 2014). Eight *Allorhogas* (Table 1, Fig 7A) were reared from *Q. geminata*-infected stems from Camp Helen State Park (FL). A sequence was obtained from one of these specimens (MN935913; TableS1), and the sequence was 99.5% similar to a private *Allorhogas* sequence in BOLD. In GenBank, this sequence was 91.6% similar to the *Allorhogas* species reported from *B. treatae* in Forbes et al. (2016), and was 90.6 to 91.1% similar to an *Allorhogas* sp. 2 collected from South America (Zaldívar Riverón et al. 2014). No *Allorhogas* were reported to infect *D. quercusvirens* in Bird et al. (2013). Whether this *Allorhogas* is a parasitoid, inquiline, or other associate of *B. pallida* is currently
unknown, but the original description of the only *Allorhogas* species currently reported
from the U.S. suggested that it might be a parasitoid of gall-associated lepidoptera
burrowing through gall tissue (Gahan 1912).

395 Five Platygastroidea specimens (Fig. 7B-D, Table 1) were identified using Mason 396 (1993) and by Elijah Talamas (Florida Department of Agriculture and Consumer 397 Services) based on specimen images. Sequence data were obtained from one 398 specimen (MN935906; TableS1; Fig. 7B), which was ~89% similar to an undescribed 399 *Telenomus* Haliday species in BOLD and GenBank. The remaining four specimens 400 belongs in the genus *Calotelea* Westwood and *Synopeas* Foerster (Scelionidae) (Fig. 401 7C and D, respectively). No Platygastridae or Scelionidae were observed emerging 402 from the asexual generations of galls made by *B. treatae* (Forbes et al. 2016) or *D.* 403 quercusvirens (Bird et al. 2013). Platygastroidea are typically egg parasitoids, and while 404 specific Platygastroidea species often specialize, the range of hosts infected by parasitoids in this superfamily is broad (Murphy et al. 2007, Taekul et al. 2014). Both 405 406 *Telenomus* and *Calotelea* may be egg parasitoids of *B. pallida* or other gall inhabitants, while Synopeas attacks the gall midge associate. 407

408

409 Coleoptera

410 One beetle emerged from a Q. geminata stem in 2019 (Table 2, Fig. 8A), one month

411 after the stem was brought into the lab. The sequence obtained from this beetle

- 412 (MN935914; Table S1) was an ~93% match to three published *Petalium bistriatum*
- 413 (Ptinidae) sequences in BOLD. *Petalium* beetles are wood-boring (Ford 1973), and may
- 414 not be directly associated with *B. pallida* crypts.
- 415
- 416 Diptera
- 417 Two unidentified gall midge species in subfamily Cecidomyiinae (Sciaroidea:
- 418 Cecidomyiidae) were reared in our collections (Table 2). The first species emerged from
- 419 collections at Rice University's campus on *Q. virginiana,* and the one sequence
- 420 (MN935916; TableS1) obtained from this species is 99.9% similar to the unidentified
- 421 gall midge associated with *B. treatae* (Forbes et al. 2016). The second species
- 422 (MN935917; TableS1; Fig. 8B) was 91.9% similar to the first, emerged from Inlet Beach,
- 423 FL on Q. geminata, and is ~92% similar to Asteromyia euthamiae (subfamily
- 424 Cecidomyiinae) sequences in GenBank. Gall midges are both gall formers and
- 425 inquilines, including inquilines of cynipid gall wasps (Mamaev and Krivosheina 1992).
- 426

427 Psocoptera

Thirty-six Psocopterans from at least three species emerged from the stems in our collections (Table 2, Fig 9). We sequenced six of these specimens, which we suspected represented two specimens for each of the three species. The rest of the Psocopterans we reared are reported as "Unidentified Psocoptera" in Table 2. Each pair of sequences from putative conspecifics were 99% similar to one another, and putative congener sequences were only ~77-81% similar. Sequence data thus supports the presence of three Psocopteran species associated with *B. pallida* crypts. The sequences from the

435	first species (MN935922 and MN935924; Table S1; Fig. 9A) were ~98% similar to
436	Peripsocus madidus sequences in GenBank. Two sequences from the second species
437	(MN935923 and MN935925; Table S1; Fig. 9B) were ~94% similar to an classified
438	Psocodea in BOLD, and ~84% similar to an unclassified Psocidae in GenBank. Two
439	sequences (MN935920 and MN935921; TableS1) from the third species (Fig. 9C) were
440	~97-99.7% similar to private Lachesillidae sequences in BOLD, and 83.1% similar to an
441	unclassified Psocoptera in GenBank. These pscocopterans colonize abandoned crypts
442	and inhabit them for long periods of time. They move in and out of the crypts,
443	sometimes partially sealing the emergence holes with detritus.
444	
445	Thysanoptera
446	One thrips from the family Phlaeothripidae (Table 2, Fig. 8C) was associated with a
447	stem collected in 2015 from Q. geminata at Inlet Beach, FL. We identified the specimen
448	to family (Mound et al. 2009), but were unable to extract DNA.
449	
450	Discussion
451	A diverse and species-rich community of invertebrates is associated with the asexual
452	generation of the gall wasp, <i>B. pallida</i> , and the crypts they create. These included
453	Hymenoptera (21 species) (Table 1), Diptera (2), Coleoptera (1), Psocoptera (3), and
454	Thysanoptera (1) (Table 2). The associates included parasitoids, inquilines, and
455	secondary colonist that utilize the crypt after the emergence of <i>B. pallida</i> and/or its

456 natural enemies.

457

458 Putative Natural Enemies

459 Communities of natural enemies attacking cynipid gall wasps are structured by factors that include differences in gall structure and location on the host tree (e.g., leaf versus 460 461 stem; Bailey et al. 2009). The natural enemy communities of three cynpid gall wasps 462 residing on live oaks (Q. geminata and Q. virginiana) have been described recently (D. quercusvirens: Bird et al. 2013, B. treatae: Forbes et al. 2016, this study). The asexual 463 generation of two of these wasps (B. pallida and D. quercusvirens) reside in similar 464 465 locations (i.e., stems), while the asexual generation of *B. treatae* creates galls on 466 leaves. The number of Hymenoptera that are likely parasitoids, hyperparasitoids, or 467 inquilines was more similar between *B. pallida* (a stem-galler, ~19 Hymenopteran 468 natural enemies; this study) and *B. treatae* (a leaf-galler, ~21 Hymenopteran natural 469 enemies: (Forbes et al. 2016)), while the asexual generation of *D. guercusvirens* hosted 470 only 9 natural enemies (Bird et al. 2013). While differences in sampling methods could 471 explain this difference, it is also possible that D. guercusvirens had a low number of 472 natural enemies due to its mutualism with ants. Some gall wasps attract ants by 473 inducing the gall to produce honeydew, and these ants then defend the gall against 474 inquilines and parasitoids (Washburn 1984, Abe 1992, Seibert 1993, Fernandes et al. 475 1999, Inouye and Agrawal 2004). Bird et al. (2013) noted the presence of ants on bullet 476 galls created by *D. quercusvirens*, and these ants could have either excluded particular 477 parasitoid species or reduced parasitoid success to low enough levels that these natural 478 enemies were not observed during the collections.

479 While *B. pallida*, *D. quercusvirens*, and *B. treatae* all reside on live oaks, none of 480 the natural enemies identified to species were common across all three cynipid gall 481 wasp hosts. Additional natural enemies recorded for *D. guercusvirens* in Krombein et al. 482 (1979) and for *B. treatae* in Peck (1963) overlap very little with natural enemies reported from the more recent studies. For *B. treatae*, only 1 of the 8 natural enemies reported in 483 484 Peck (1963) was also reported by Forbes et al (2016), and, for *D. quercusvirens*, 7 485 natural enemies reported in Krombein et al. (1979) were not observed by Bird et al 486 (2013). This suggests either that community composition is changing over time, that species were misidentified or the use of synonyms is confounding comparisons, or that 487 488 no study has yet to sample these cynipid hosts with enough temporal and spatial 489 coverage to capture the entire natural enemy community. However, there is some 490 overlap between pairs of cynipid hosts. For example, Acaenacis lausus infects both B. 491 treatae and D. guercusvirens (Bird et al. 2013, Forbes et al. 2016), and the inquiline 492 Synergus walshii may be infecting both B. treatae and B. pallida (Forbes et al. 2016, 493 and this study). In general though, it is difficult to draw strong conclusions about the 494 degree of natural enemy overlap in these communities due to differences in sampling 495 effort (including sampling done at different sites in different years). What is clear is that 496 these galls support a diverse community of Hymenopteran natural enemies. As a rough estimation, if we assume that each of the 12 cynipid species on live oaks harbor about 497 498 15 host-specific natural enemies, that would yeild a community of 180 natural enemies 499 in this system. Future work to quanitfy this diversity, and understand factors that 500 influence the degree of overlap of these natural enemy communities across cynipid 501 hosts is greatly needed.

502 One area of high interest is the association between *B. pallida* crypt galls and the 503 recently described parasitoid *Euderus set*, which an example of a parasitoid species 504 that can manipulate the behavior of its insect host (Weinersmith 2019). Specifically, E. 505 set manipulates *B. pallida* into excavating an emergence hole from the crypt, which *B.* 506 pallida then plugs with its head before being consumed by the parasitoid (Egan et al. 507 2017, Weinersmith et al. 2017). The parasitoid subsequently emerges from the host's head capsule (Weinersmith et al. 2017). E. set infects and manipulates at least six 508 509 additional cynipid gall wasp hosts infecting other oak species (Ward et al. 2019). The 510 finding that E. set manipulates a broad range of cynipid gall wasps (Ward et al. 2019), 511 suggests that the mechanism *E. set* uses to manipulate its host either does not require 512 extreme specialization on host physiology or involves a mechanism common to many 513 gall wasp residents. A more careful look at the gallers, inquilines, and parasitoids 514 residing in live oak galls is warranted to determine if E. set is infecting and manipulating 515 more hosts than just *B. pallida* in this system. Additionally, it is unclear why *E. set* is the 516 only parasitoid that has been documented manipulating its hosts in this manner, while 517 none of the other parasitoids or inquilines attacking cynipid gall wasps appear to do the 518 same. Future work putting *E. set* in context with the other parasitoids infecting cynipid 519 gall wasps should address questions about the selective pressure for manipulation, 520 constraints on the evolution of this trait (including the costs paid by E. set as it 521 manipulates its host), and the fitness benefits accrued through manipulation. Finally, one common natural enemy that often attacks live oak galls was not 522 523 observed in our study. Birds often break open the galls of *D. guercusvirens*, *D. cinerosa*, 524 and *Callirhytis quercusbatatoides* (Ashmead) on live oaks to consume the wasps 525 developing within (Weaver et al. in revision). During our collections we did not directly 526 observe birds attacking *B. pallida* galls, nor did we see indirect evidence of predation on the stems. This suggests that the cryptic phenotype of *B. pallida* galls may to some
extent protect the galler (and its natural enemy community) from bird predation.

529

530 Other Associates

531 Associates reported in this study, which likely colonize *B. pallida* crypts after the galler, 532 inquilines, and parasitoids have emerged, included ants, a beetle, a thrips, and barklice. While barklice were fairly common (36 were observed over the course of the study), the 533 534 other associates were quite rare. Other reported colonizers of live oak galls include 535 spiny millipedes (*Polyxenus* sp), spiders, mites, and lepidopterans (Wheeler and 536 Longino 1988, Forbes et al. 2016). The lack of these associates in *B. pallida* galls could 537 be explained by our sampling procedure underestimating the number of associates 538 present, or because the small size of *B. pallida* crypts make them undesirable habitats 539 for would-be colonizers. Ants, for example, seem to prefer to colonize larger galls 540 (Almeida et al. 2014, Santos et al. 2017, Giannetti et al. 2019). The stem galls made by 541 B. pallida tend to be smaller than the other cynipid galls on live oaks, and invertebrates may choose to colonize larger abandoned galls first. 542

We anticipated seeing lepidopterans in *B. pallida* galls, as they are associates of many galls on oaks (Brown and Mizell III 1993), including *B. treatae* leaf galls (Forbes et al. 2016) and *C. quercusbatatoides* stem galls (Egan, personal observation). The lack of lepidopterans has possible implications for our understanding of the biology of the parasitoid *Allorhogas*, as the original description of *Allorhogas* postulated that this genus may be parasitoids of lepidopterans (Gahan 1912). While it is possible that the timing of our collections missed lepidopterans associated with *B. pallida* crypts, the current data suggest that the *Allorhogas* observed in our system are not parasitoids oflepidopterans.

552

553 Conclusions

554 While more detailed work may reveal some the associates we collected resided within the infected stem without actually associating with the crypt (e.g., this may be the case 555 556 with the wood-boring Ptinid beetle), it is likely that future work will also reveal additional 557 associates. In fact, our sampling may underestimate associate diversity in a number of 558 ways. First, we have not sampled the unknown sexual generation of *B. pallida*, which 559 remains to be discovered. This gall wasp generation will likely harbor some known 560 species that attack both generations, as well as some that are unique to the sexual 561 generation – as was found to be the case with the community attacking *B. treatae* on 562 these same host plants (Forbes et al. 2016). Second, we identified infected live oak 563 stems by looking for abandoned crypts, where these emergence holes were most likely 564 formed in current and previous years. This highlights an important and general challenge to sampling cynipid associated communities, which is that time of sampling 565 566 matters. We may have missed some parasitoids that emerge earlier - prior to the 567 emergence of *B. pallida* – and/or missed some that attack later. Third, our sampling did not include the entire geographic range of *B. pallida*, which matches the distribution of 568 569 its known host plant associations within the live oaks (Q. virginiana throughout the entire 570 coastal southeastern United States from Virginina to Texas, Q. geminata restricted to 571 xeric soils in Alabama, Mississippi, Florida, and Georgia, and Q. fusiformis in central 572 and south Texas; see detailed host plant distributions in Cavender-Bares et al. 2015).

573 We found that the asexual generation of *B. pallida* is associated with a diverse 574 arthropod community, including over 25 parasitoids, inquilines, and other invertebrates 575 spanning five orders and 16 families. There was very little overlap between the natural 576 enemy communities infecting two other live-oak infecting cynipid gall wasp species, 577 suggesting a species-rich community of parasitoids and inquilines attacking cynipid gall wasps on live oaks. Descriptive studies like this are a necessary first step towards 578 579 addressing broader ecological and evolutionary questions. In the future, we will use the 580 community of cynipid gall wasps residing on live oaks, and the communities of natural 581 enemies associated with these gallers, to address guestions about habitat 582 fragmentation and diversity (Maldonado-López et al. 2015), and the structuring of 583 natural enemy communities (e.g., Bailey et al. 2009). Additionally, studies which 584 guantify natural enemy communities and guantify the host range of parasitoids are 585 critical for more accurate estimates of species richness (Forbes et al. 2018) 586

587 Acknowledgements

Linyi Zhang, Gaston Del Pino, Rebecca Izen, and Sean Liu assisted in regular cup checks, and we greatly appreciate their help. We thank Elijah Talamas for identifying the Platygastroidea specimens based on images. Thienthanh Trinh, Biplabendu Das, and Ian Will provided excellent company as well as assistance in the field during the 2018 collections. We also thank Clayton Iron Wolf at Camp Helen State Park for his assistance in finding live oaks at this site. KLW was funded by a Huxley Faculty Fellowship in Ecology and Evolutionary Biology from Rice University.

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- 844

845 **TABLE LEGENDS**

846 **Table 1:** Hymenopteran associates (including putative parasitoids, hyperparasitoids, and

847 inquilines) of the asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*. The table presents the number of

specimens reared from live oak stems infected by *B. pallida* at various collection sites in Florida

and Texas from 2015 – 2019. Collection site abbreviations: IB = Inlet Beach, LL = Lake Lizzie,

- TH = Topsail Hill Preserve State Park, CH = Camp Helen State Park, Rice U. = Rice University
 in Houston.
- 852

Table 2: Associates of the asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*. The table presents the

number of specimens reared from live oak stems infected by *B. pallida* at various location sites

in Florida (FL) and Texas (TX) from 2015 – 2019. Host tree abbreviations: Qg = Quercus

856 *geminata*, *Qv* = *Quercus virginiana*. Collection site abbreviations: TH = Topsail Hill Preserve

857 State Park, CH = Camp Helen State Park, Rice U. = Rice University in Houston.

858

859 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

Fig. 1. The asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*, and their stem galls. (A) Female *B. pallida*.

(B) Male B. pallida. (C) A Quercus geminata stem infected by B. pallida, showing the

862 emergence hole from a crypt concealed with in the stem, and showing two *B. pallida* whose

heads are plugging an incomplete emergence hole following manipulation by the parasitoid

Euderus set. (**D**) Two crypt galls containing subadult *B. pallida*, revealed by removing the bark

- and some woody tissue using a razor blade. Photos A, B, and D originally appeared in
- Weinersmith et al. 2017, Proc Roy Soc B., and is available under a CC by 4.0 License.

867

868	Fig. 2. Natural enemies reared from <i>B. pallida</i> galls. (A) <i>Euderus set,</i> and examples of a <i>B.</i>
869	pallida head capsule plugging an emergence hole (right) and a head-plugged emergence hole
870	from which E. set has emerged (left). E. set photo originally appeared in Weinersmith et al.
871	2017, Proc Roy Soc B., and is available under a CC by 4.0 License. Photos of <i>B. pallida</i> head
872	capsules by Mattheau Comerford. (B) Galeopsomyia species. Female on the left, with wing
873	inset in top center. Male on the right, with wing inset in bottom center. (C) Unidentified Brasema
874	species. Female on the left, male on the right, with an inset of a male's wing in the center.
875	
876	Fig. 3. Eurytomidae natural enemies reared from galls made by the asexual generation of B.
877	pallida. Males, when present, are on the right. Wings are from female specimens. (A)
878	Unidentified Eurytoma species. (B) Sycophila nr. foliatae. (C) Sycophila nr. dubia, (D) Sycophila
879	nr. nubilistigma. (E) Sycophila nr. disholcaspidis.
880	
881	Fig. 4. Natural enemies reared from <i>B. pallida</i> galls, with wing insets from female specimens.
881 882	Fig. 4. Natural enemies reared from <i>B. pallida</i> galls, with wing insets from female specimens.(A) <i>Ormyrus nr labotus</i>, (B) <i>Ormyrus nr thymus</i>, (C) Unidentified <i>Acaenacis</i> species, with
882	(A) Ormyrus nr labotus, (B) Ormyrus nr thymus, (C) Unidentified Acaenacis species, with
882 883	(A) Ormyrus nr labotus, (B) Ormyrus nr thymus, (C) Unidentified Acaenacis species, with
882 883 884	(A) <i>Ormyrus nr labotus</i> , (B) <i>Ormyrus nr thymus</i> , (C) Unidentified <i>Acaenacis</i> species, with female on left and male on right.
882 883 884 885	 (A) Ormyrus nr labotus, (B) Ormyrus nr thymus, (C) Unidentified Acaenacis species, with female on left and male on right. Fig. 5. Inquilines reared from galls made by the the asexual generation of <i>B. pallida</i>. (A)
882 883 884 885 886	 (A) Ormyrus nr labotus, (B) Ormyrus nr thymus, (C) Unidentified Acaenacis species, with female on left and male on right. Fig. 5. Inquilines reared from galls made by the the asexual generation of <i>B. pallida</i>. (A)
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882 883 884 885 886 887 888	 (A) Ormyrus nr labotus, (B) Ormyrus nr thymus, (C) Unidentified Acaenacis species, with female on left and male on right. Fig. 5. Inquilines reared from galls made by the the asexual generation of <i>B. pallida</i>. (A) Unidentified <i>Ceroptres</i>. (B) <i>Synergus walshii</i>, with inset showing detail of wing. Fig. 6. Ants (Formicidae) associated with <i>B. pallida</i> crypts. (A) <i>Brachymyrmex obscurior</i>. (B)
882 883 884 885 886 887 888 888	 (A) Ormyrus nr labotus, (B) Ormyrus nr thymus, (C) Unidentified Acaenacis species, with female on left and male on right. Fig. 5. Inquilines reared from galls made by the the asexual generation of <i>B. pallida</i>. (A) Unidentified <i>Ceroptres</i>. (B) <i>Synergus walshii</i>, with inset showing detail of wing. Fig. 6. Ants (Formicidae) associated with <i>B. pallida</i> crypts. (A) <i>Brachymyrmex obscurior</i>. (B)

- female on the left and male on the right, (B) Unidentified *Telenomus* species, (C) Unidentified
- 894 Calotelea species, (D) Unidentified Synopeas species.
- 895
- 896 Fig. 8. Associates of galls made by the asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*. (A) Unidentified
- 897 Ptinidae beetle (Coleoptera: Bostrichoidea), (B) Unidentified Cecidomyiidae (Diptera), (C)
- 898 Unidentified Phlaeothripidae (Thysanoptera).
- 899
- 900 **Fig. 9.** Psocopterans associated with galls made by the asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*.
- 901 (A) Peripsocus madidus. (B) Unidentified Psocidae. (C) Unidentified Lachesillidae.

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	Collection State, Host Tree	Florida, Quercus geminata					Texas, Quercus virginiana				
	Collection Site	IE		LL	тн	СН		lumble		•	e U.
	Collection Year (20XX)	15	19	15	18	19	15	16	19	16	17
Family	Species or subfamily										
Cynipidae	Bassettia pallida (galler)	4	11	4		590			5		
Encyrtidae	Encrytidae sp.					1					
Eulophidae	Euderus set	154			5	19	6				
	Galeopsomyia sp.	3				146					
	Tetrastichinae sp.										3
Eupelmidae	Brasema sp.	2			1						
Eurytomidae	Eurytoma sp.	5			1					1	
	Sycophila (4 morphotypes)	13						1		2	7
Ormyridae	Ormyrus nr. thymus	5				1					
	Ormyrus nr. labotus	2									
Pteromalidae	Acaenacis sp.	8			1	43				1	
Cynipidae	Ceroptres sp.	1									
	Synergus walshii	1									
Formicidae	Brachymyrmex obscurior									4	
	Crematogaster ashmeadi			8							
Braconidae	Allorhogas sp.					8					
Platygastridae	Telenomus sp.	1									
·	Calotelea sp.				1						
	Synopeas sp.	3									

Table 1: Hymenopteran associates (including putative parasitoids, hyperparasitoids, and inquilines) of the asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*. The table presents the number of specimens reared from live oak stems infected by *B. pallida* at various collection sites in Florida and Texas from 2015 – 2019. Collection site abbreviations: IB = Inlet Beach, LL = Lake Lizzie, TH = Topsail Hill Preserve State Park, CH = Camp Helen State Park, Rice U. = Rice University in Houston.

Collection State, Host Tree Collection Site Collection Year (20XX)			TX, Qv						
		Inlet Beach TH				СН	Rice U.		
		15	18	19	18	19	16	17	
Order									
Family	Subfamily/Species								
Coleoptera									
Bostrichoidea	Ptinidae					1			
Diptera									
Cecidomyiidae	Cecidomyiinae sp 1	5		1					
	Cecidomyiinae sp 2							1	
Psocoptera									
Peripsocidae	Peripsocus madidus			1	1				
Psocidae	Unknown					2			
Lachesillidae	Unknown	1						1	
Various	UnIDed Psocoptera	3	2	7	13	2	2	1	
Thysanoptera									
Phlaeothripidae	Unknown	1							

Table 2: Associates of the asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*. The table presents the number of specimens reared from live oak stems infected by *B. pallida* at various location sites in Florida (FL) and Texas (TX) from 2015 – 2019. Host tree abbreviations: Qg = Quercus geminata, Qv = Quercus virginiana. Collection site abbreviations: TH = Topsail Hill Preserve State Park, CH = Camp Helen State Park, Rice U. = Rice University in Houston.

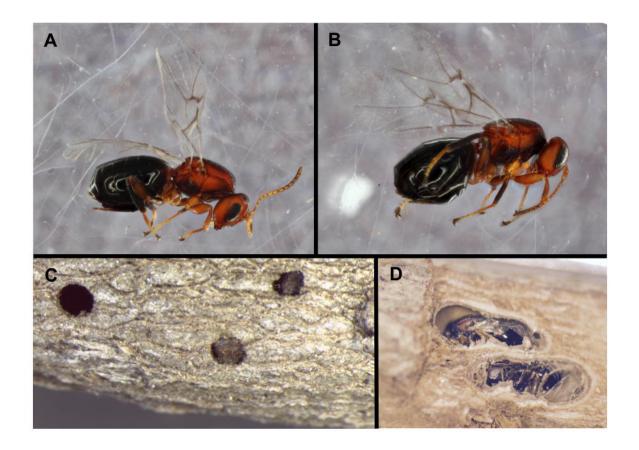


Fig. 1. The asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*, and their stem galls. (**A**) Female *B. pallida*. (**B**) Male *B. pallida*. (**C**) A *Quercus geminata* stem infected by *B. pallida*, showing the emergence hole from a crypt concealed with in the stem, and showing two *B. pallida* whose heads are plugging an incomplete emergence hole following manipulation by the parasitoid *Euderus set*. (**D**) Two crypt galls containing subadult *B. pallida*, revealed by removing the bark and some woody tissue using a razor blade. Photos A, B, and D originally appeared in Weinersmith et al. 2017, Proc Roy Soc B., and is available under a CC by 4.0 License.

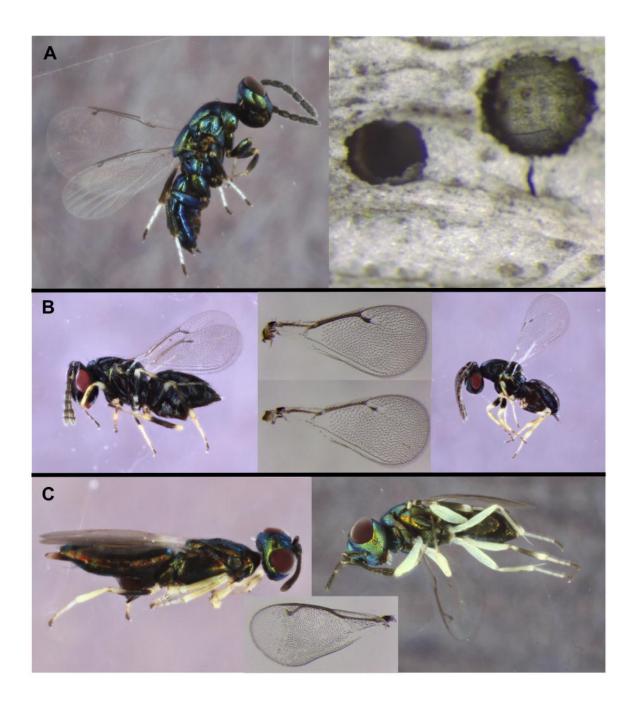


Fig. 2. Natural enemies reared from *B. pallida* galls. (**A**) *Euderus set*, and examples of a *B. pallida* head capsule plugging an emergence hole (right) and a head-plugged emergence hole from which *E. set* has emerged (left). *E. set* photo originally appeared in Weinersmith et al. 2017, Proc Roy Soc B., and is available under a CC by 4.0 License. Photos of *B. pallida* head capsules by Mattheau Comerford. (**B**) *Galeopsomyia* species. Female on the left, with wing inset in top center. Male on the right, with wing inset in bottom center. (**C**) Unidentified *Brasema* species. Female on the left, male on the right, with an inset of a male's wing in the center.

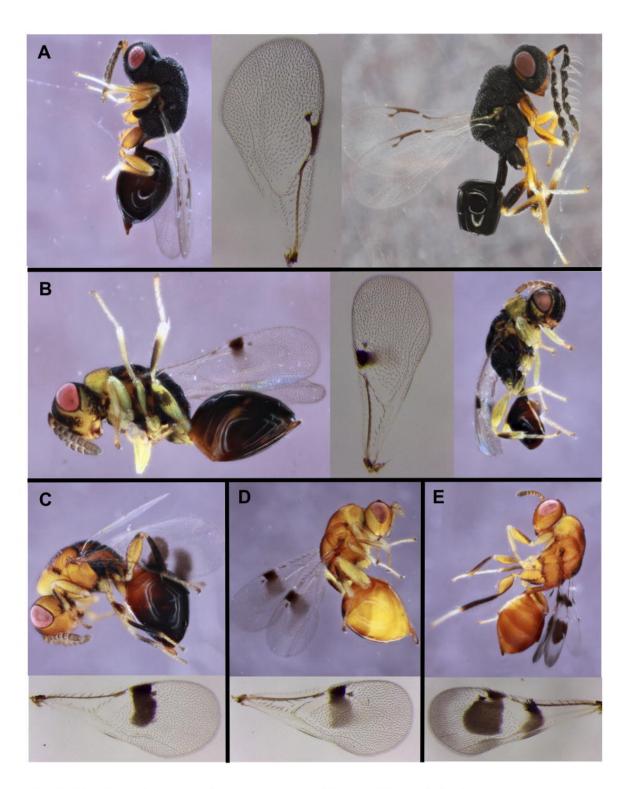


Fig. 3. Eurytomidae natural enemies reared from galls made by the asexual generation of *B. pallida*. Males, when present, are on the right. Wings are from female specimens. (**A**) Unidentified *Eurytoma* species. (**B**) *Sycophila nr. foliatae*. (**C**) *Sycophila nr. dubia*, (**D**) *Sycophila nr. nubilistigma*. (**E**) *Sycophila nr. disholcaspidis*.

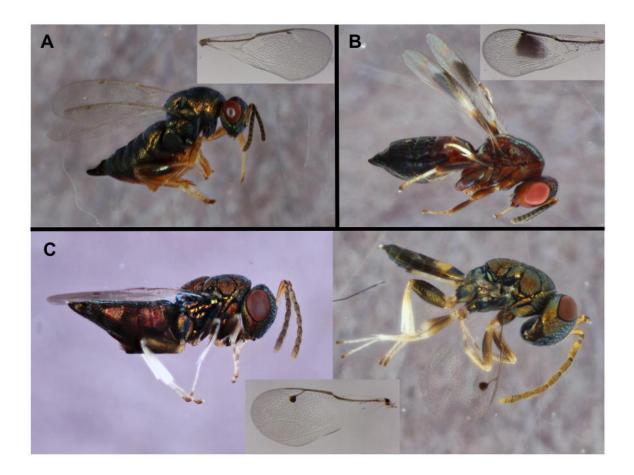


Fig. 4. Natural enemies reared from *B. pallida* galls, with wing insets from female specimens. (**A**) *Ormyrus nr labotus*, (**B**) *Ormyrus nr thymus*, (**C**) Unidentified *Acaenacis* species, with female on left and male on right.



Fig. 5. Inquilines reared from galls made by the the asexual generation of *B. pallida*. (A) Unidentified *Ceroptres.* (B) *Synergus walshii*, with inset showing detail of wing.



Fig. 6. Ants (Formicidae) associated with *B. pallida* crypts. **(A)** *Brachymyrmex obscurior*. **(B)** *Crematogaster ashmeadi.*

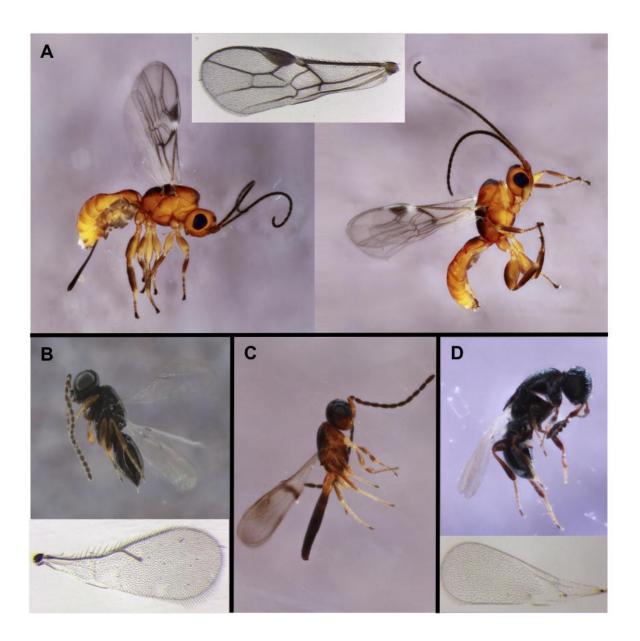


Fig. 7. Natural enemies reared from galls made by the asexual generation of *B. pallida*, with wing insets from female specimens when available. (**A**) Unidentified *Allorhogas* species, with female on the left and male on the right, (**B**) Unidentified *Telenomus* species, (**C**) Unidentified *Calotelea* species, (**D**) Unidentified *Synopeas* species.

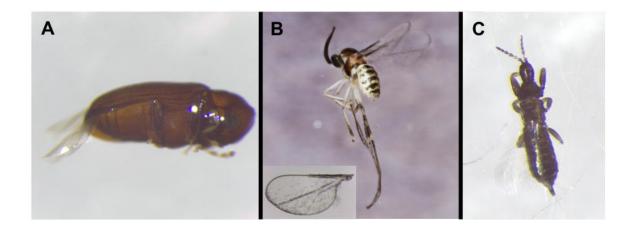


Fig. 8. Associates of galls made by the asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*. (A) Unidentified Ptinidae beetle (Coleoptera: Bostrichoidea), (B) Unidentified Cecidomyiidae (Diptera), (C) Unidentified Phlaeothripidae (Thysanoptera).

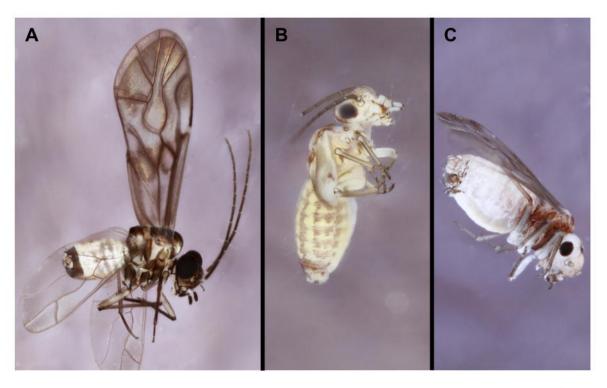


Fig. 9. Psocopterans associated with galls made by the asexual generation of *Bassettia pallida*. (**A**) *Peripsocus madidus*. (**B**) Unidentified Psocidae. (**C**) Unidentified Lachesillidae.