

Review

Heat stress and host–parasitoid interactions: lessons and opportunities in a changing climate

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Ongoing climate change is increasing the frequency and magnitude of high-temperature events (HTEs), causing heat stress in parasitoids and their hosts. We argue that HTEs and heat stress should be viewed in terms of the intersecting life cycles of host and parasitoid. Recent studies illustrate how the biological consequences of a given HTE may vary dramatically depending on its timing within these lifecycles. The temperature sensitivity of host manipulation by parasitoids, and by viral endosymbionts of many parasitoids, can contribute to differing responses of hosts and parasitoids to HTEs. In some cases, these effects can result in reduced parasitoid success and increased host herbivory and may disrupt the ecological interactions between hosts and parasitoids. Because most studies to date involve endoparasitoids of aphid or lepidopteran hosts in agricultural systems, our understanding of heat responses of host–parasitoid interactions in natural systems is quite limited.

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Introduction

Climate change has intensified in the past two decades [1,2]. Recent climatic studies have highlighted the increasing frequency of extreme climatic events, including extreme precipitation and high-temperature events (HTEs; Box 1). HTEs (and other extreme events) are

typically defined in terms of the frequency distribution of extreme values (e.g. daily maximum temperatures) for a given locale and the tails of that distribution [3]. For example, the frequency of daily high temperature records has increased dramatically in many regions during the past decade, and 2023 was by far the hottest year on record [4]. There are now abundant data available for heat tolerances of many insects and other ectotherms (e.g. critical thermal maximum [CT_{max}] and upper lethal thermal limit [Tu]) [5]. Similarly, there is a growing empirical literature on responses to climate change and HTEs in parasitoids and their hosts from the past decade [6–8,9••].

HTEs in nature occur within the context of fluctuating temperatures, and the consequences of temperature fluctuations for insects have been studied extensively [10]. The differing responses of organisms to constant versus fluctuating temperatures emerge directly from the nonlinear relationship between temperature and performance (e.g. rate of survival, growth, development or reproduction), and the nonlinear effects of fluctuations are greater when they span temperatures both above and below the optimal temperature [Topt] [11]. Here, we are particularly interested in cases where the HTE includes temperatures above the optimal temperature for a population or species of interest: i.e. stressfully high temperatures.

In this review, we explore the recent literature on heat stress and host–parasitoid interactions. One central insight is that because thermal sensitivity (including heat tolerance) and microenvironmental temperatures of insects frequently differ among life stages, understanding responses to climate change requires the integration of physiological responses through the life cycle [11,12]. We propose that HTEs and heat stress should be viewed in terms of the intersecting life cycles of host and parasitoid (Figure 1), such that the biological consequences of a given HTE may vary dramatically depending on its developmental timing. As a result, HTEs can disrupt the ecological interactions between hosts and parasitoids. We describe some lessons that we have learned from summarizing this recent literature; highlight key patterns, gaps, problems, and exemplary studies associated with each lesson; and propose opportunities for future directions that address some of these gaps and outstanding questions.

Box 1 Glossary and abbreviations

Acclimation: a form of phenotypic plasticity in which exposure of an individual to environmental conditions (e.g. temperature) causes developmental or physiological changes that improve performance or fitness to subsequent environmental conditions.

CT_{max}: Critical thermal maximum or the temperature at which an organism undergoes physiological failure (often measured as muscle spasms, loss of righting behavior, or knockdown).

Heat hardening: a rapid form of thermal acclimation in which prior exposure to heat increases survival of an individual to stressful high temperatures.

HTE: high-temperature event, for example, heat wave or heat shock.

Idiobiont: parasitoid that permanently paralyzes and halts development of its host.

Koinobiont: a parasitoid that allows its host to continue development after parasitization.

Parasitoid: an insect that completes its larval development within or on the body of another insect eventually killing it and is free-living as an adult.

PDV: Vertically inherited virus-like entities (also called viriforms) from the family Polydnaviridae that are endogenized in the genomes of ichneumonid and braconid wasps. Produce virion-like particles that do not contain the necessary mechanisms for viral replication. These virion-like particles encapsidate parasitoid DNA that is injected into the host during oviposition and serve as a template for parasitoid proteins that perform important functions in host manipulation such as immune suppression and hormone modulation (adapted from Ref. [81]).

Teratocyte: Parasitoid cells released into hosts when parasitoid eggs hatch. Function in the disruption of host metamorphosis by reducing host juvenile hormone esterase (JHE) levels, though some evidence suggests they also function in immune evasion and damage of host cells to release nutrients for developing parasitoid larvae. Produced by Braconidae of the microgastroid complex and Platygastroidea (adapted from Ref. [82]).

Thermal mismatch: Phenomena when the thermal tolerances of the host organism and the parasitoid differ; this can change across the ontogeny of both host and parasitoid, as thermal tolerance is not static (e.g. the CT_{max} of the host is higher than the CT_{max} of the parasitoid).

Thermal safety margin: The difference between the maximum environmental temperature and an organism's CT_{max}.

Topt: Optimal temperature or the temperature at which an organismal trait is at its highest possible performance (e.g. walking speed, flight capacity, host handling).

Tu: Upper lethal thermal limit or the temperature at which an organism dies.

Lesson 1: Most data are from agricultural pest hosts and hymenopteran endoparasitoids that develop inside of the living host (koinobionts).

We summarized empirical studies of heat tolerance and HTE responses in parasitoids and their hosts published between 2014 and 2023 [7,13–62]. More than 90% of studies involved hosts that are agricultural pests, primarily Lepidoptera and aphids. More than 75% of the parasitoids (all endoparasitoids that develop inside the host) attack larval or nymphal host stages (Figure 1B, C); and more than 50% of the studies involve braconid or aphelinid parasitoids. Given the enormous diversity of parasitoids and of parasitoid life histories [63], our general understanding of heat stress and host–parasitoid interactions will be strongly limited by the habitat, taxonomic, and life history biases of the current literature (but see Ref. [61••] for a notable exception). The majority of these studies involve lab assays of heat tolerance or lab experimental manipulations of heat shocks, heat waves, or developmental temperatures, but a handful of recent studies explore heat responses in field conditions [17,23,36••,60,62].

Opportunities: Studies of parasitoids in natural (non-managed) systems and those that represent the phylogenetic diversity of parasitoids and hosts are needed. Studies that combine laboratory and field approaches may be particularly

valuable for understanding parasitoid heat tolerance and its ecological consequences.

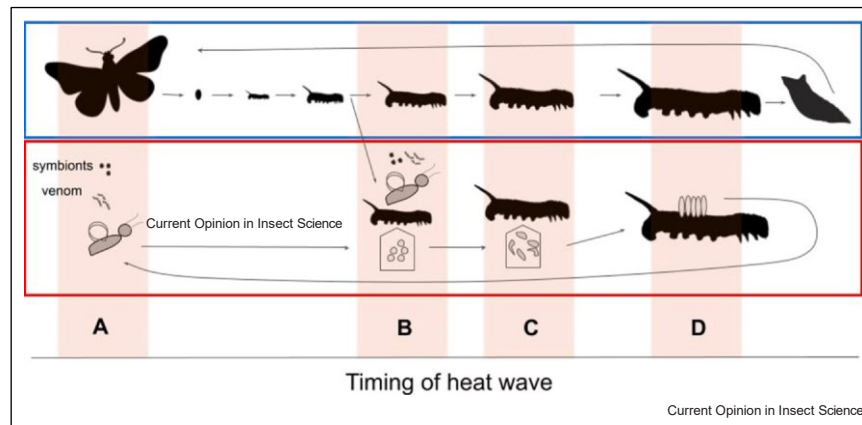
Lesson 2: The parasitoid life stage at which high-temperature events (HTEs) occur is crucial in determining the outcomes of the host/parasitoid interactions.

Parasitoid success relies on physiological mechanisms intrinsically tied to their own development and that of their hosts, which can be disrupted by HTEs [34,55•,63]. Thermal tolerance is not constant across development; the timing of HTEs, in terms of both host and parasitoid development, can dictate parasitoid success or failure [27,55•,64] (Figure 1).

Adult: Numerous studies show that HTEs in adult parasitoids can reduce survival, female activity, or oviposition success [14,39•,51,65]. Adult exposure to HTEs can also negatively impact offspring performance (development, emergence, survival, and parasitism success) via transgenerational effects [48,65].

Pupal: The pupal stage of insects is a complex dance of precisely timed developmental events necessary for metamorphosis into adults. Several studies demonstrated that the pupal stage can exhibit increased thermal sensitivity to HTEs, resulting in decreased adult longevity, fecundity, and survival to adult eclosion

Figure 1



Graphical depiction of the interconnected life cycles of a parasitoid (red box) and its host (blue box), in relation to the timing of a heat wave (shaded pink regions). A gregarious larval koinobiont of a lepidopteran host is shown here as an illustration, but effects of HTEs on host and parasitoid can be generalized across other types of parasitoids (e.g. egg, solitary, etc.). HTEs can have important, divergent consequences for free-living versus independent parasitoid life stages. All parasitoids are typically free-living in the adult stage (A). The pupal stage (D) can also be free-living, but some parasitoid species remain attached to the host during pupation and manipulate host behavior to defend cocoons. The parasitoid is dependent upon the host body for egg (B) and larval (C) life stages, with distinct differences in life history traits at each stage. For endoparasitoid koinobionts, both life stages must ensure the internal host environment is hospitable for developing parasitoids, for example, via immunosuppression or developmental disruption of the host by venom or symbionts. Egg stages (B) are stationary and have limited energetic reserves, while larval stages (C) can be motile, able to feed, and are sometimes accompanied by specialized teratocyte cells, which aid in host manipulation. Because of these life cycle complexities, the fitness consequences of an HTE depend critically on its developmental timing.

[34,48]. In many insects, sperm development and maturation occur during pupation [66]. Sperm quantity in male seminal vesicles can decrease with heat stress, for example, in both *Microplitis rufiventris* and *Cotesia typhae* parasitoids, with the latter also displaying decreased sperm storage in mated females [42,58••].

Egg/larval: HTEs can negatively impact egg parasitoids [17], and multiple studies have shown detrimental effects of high-temperature stress throughout parasitoid larval development [19,45,67]. Some parasitoid larval instars may be more sensitive to thermal stress than others, so the timing and duration of HTEs also contribute to their impacts on parasitoid success (see Lesson 4) [34,55•]. There is also evidence that, unlike many insects, some parasitoids do not exhibit heat hardening during larval development, while their hosts do [68•].

These studies demonstrate how heat stress can reduce parasitoid fitness across multiple metrics and life stages, and these effects depend on the developmental timing of HTEs. However, the general importance of heat acclimation in different parasitoid species and life stages remains unclear [27,53,68•].

Opportunities: Most evidence of thermal tolerance across ontogeny comes from limited systems and taxa and focuses on singular life stages. Further exploration of how past temperature exposure, acclimation, and transgenerational effects

impact host-parasitoid interactions across ontogeny will be necessary for understanding the effects of HTEs beyond the organismal level.

Lesson 3: Viral endosymbionts, venom, and other host manipulation adaptations can limit the thermal tolerance of parasitoids.

Parasitoid death can result from the direct effects of high-temperature stress or indirectly from the disruption of their host manipulation mechanisms, which can complicate studies measuring CT_{max} or thermal limits of parasitic life stages. Experiments that differentiate between these distinct mechanisms of parasitoid death inside hosts at high temperatures are rare but useful for understanding the physiological and organismal drivers of parasitoid thermal tolerance, particularly for important biocontrol species. Here, we discuss recent literature concerning the impact of HTEs on parasitoid strategies for manipulation of hosts. Parasitoids often rely on highly specialized adaptations that allow for immobilization, immunosuppression, or other manipulation of the host body for successful reproduction [69–72]. Many of these adaptations involve temperature-dependent physiological reactions, which can be altered under HTEs. For example, endoparasitoids often use venom to subdue host mobility, immunity, or other aspects of their physiology and behavior [72]. Several recent studies document climatic gradients or effects of HTEs in

venom composition [41]. However, little is known about temperature effects on parasitoid venom function in host manipulation and parasitoid fitness.

Endosymbionts, such as polydnviruses (PDVs), are another important parasitoid adaptation for successful parasitism of hosts. PDVs function as gene delivery vehicles, allowing for expression of virulence genes used in host immunosuppression, altered development, and behavioral manipulation [69,72]. Several recent studies demonstrated HTEs altered PDV function, resulting in less effective suppression of host immune responses and increased (sometimes complete) parasitoid mortality [21,45,55,59]. These patterns suggest PDVs and potentially other symbionts can limit the thermal tolerance of some parasitoids, though the generality of these patterns remains unknown (but see discussion of facultative symbionts in Lesson 5).

Recent work also suggests HTEs can affect parasitoid physiology directly. Several studies demonstrate that parasitoids respond to heat stress via production of key antioxidant enzymes (superoxide dismutase, catalase, peroxidase, and glutathione-S-transferase) [47,54,67]; these enzymes increased resistance of parasitoids to high temperatures [54,67].

For koinobionts, parasitoid development is interconnected with that of the host (Figure 1). Parasitoids often disrupt hormones to manipulate host development [73], but the effect of HTEs on hormonal manipulation has, to our knowledge, not been previously examined. Likewise, teratocytes are important parasitoid cells, which aid in the disruption of host metamorphosis [74], but the impacts of HTEs on teratocyte function, or their interactions with venom and PDVs, have not been investigated.

Opportunities: *The impact of HTEs on mechanisms of host manipulation is largely unknown for the vast majority of parasitoid species. Further research is needed to determine how hormones, teratocytes, and venom mediate interactions with the host across thermal regimes and whether reduced PDV function at high temperatures is a generalizable effect across diverse parasitoid taxa which rely on these endosymbionts.*

Lesson 4: *Thermal mismatches in heat tolerance between hosts and parasitoids are common but not universal.*

Differences in thermal sensitivity between interacting species — ‘thermal mismatches’ — are critical ecological responses to climate change. Thermal mismatch at lower temperatures can cause phenological shifts between interacting species, including hosts and parasitoids [75]. At higher environmental temperatures, differences in optimal temperature (T_{opt}) and heat tolerance between hosts and parasitoids can similarly generate different fitness consequences of climate warming and HTEs

[6,8]. Multiple studies have documented that heat tolerance (CT_{max} or heat knockdown time) is lower for adult parasitoids than for their (unparasitized) hosts in a number of systems [24,26,27,29,61,62].

One limitation of these studies is that CT_{max} is generally measured for adult parasitoids in relation to adult or larval hosts; heat tolerance of the parasitoid itself, or parasitoid’s mechanisms of host control (venom, endosymbiont), may be limiting in other parasitoid life stages (Figure 1), and adult parasitoids have greater potential opportunity to avoid deleterious high temperatures by microhabitat selection. More generally, the difference between maximum environmental temperature and CT_{max} (thermal safety margin) is often more than 10°C for most insects, including parasitoids [5,61,62], so the ecological significance of small differences in CT_{max} is unclear. Additionally, CT_{max} is generally unknown for other parasitoid life stages (but see Ref. [55]), and whether high temperatures are limiting for the parasitoid or their endosymbionts, or both, will likely be species dependent.

An alternative approach is to use experimental heat shocks or heat waves on parasitized hosts to explore contrasting effects on host and parasitoid success [19,25,34,42,44,45]. These studies demonstrate HTEs generally reduce parasitoid fitness, but the magnitude of these effects can vary with their number, intensity, and development timing. Heat stress of larval parasitoids can also negatively impact adult survival, fertility, and fecundity [19,34,42,58,65], and heat stress of adult parasitoids can reduce offspring fitness [48,65]. It is clear that HTEs negatively impact parasitoid fitness, but the variability in timing of HTEs, and their magnitude/duration, render quantification and comparison of these results more difficult.

Unsurprisingly, heat stress frequently reduces survival of parasitized hosts, but there are noteworthy exceptions. For example, several studies showed that parasitism conferred increased resistance to heat shock [30,68] likely because parasitism can elicit stress responses in hosts (see Lesson 3). Several studies demonstrated HTEs facilitated clearing of parasitoids and increased host survival [20,59]. Further exploration of the fitness benefits of heat stress on parasitized hosts is warranted.

The ecological relevance of thermal mismatches depends critically on the body temperatures of host and parasitoids in field conditions. Microclimates and insect temperatures can differ dramatically from ambient air temperatures, especially at higher temperatures [76,77]. The few studies that quantify microclimate variation or operative (body) temperatures in the field suggest stressful sublethal and lethal high temperatures can occur regularly in both tropical and temperate systems [26,40,60], and that

microclimatic variation may be associated with variation in levels of parasitism and herbivory. In addition, the relative importance of heat stress and water loss in adult parasitoids in the field is largely unknown, but likely a key limiting factor for parasitoid success.

Opportunities: *Applying the concept of ‘thermal mismatch’ to specific host and parasitoid life stages will be fruitful. The potential fitness benefits of heat stress for parasitized hosts require further exploration. Data on microclimate variation and operative temperatures of hosts and parasitoids across their lifecycles in the field are sorely needed to evaluate the ecological relevance of heat tolerance, and to inform landscape management plans.*

Lesson 5: *HTEs can destabilize host–parasitoid interactions, thereby increasing herbivory of insect pests via reduced top-down control under climate change.*

The developmental outcomes of host–parasitoid interactions can have important implications for broader ecological networks. For example, HTEs increased herbivory levels fourfold in a hostplant–host–parasitoid system, driven by parasitoid failure to kill hosts at high temperatures [62]. HTEs and climate change can also alter the competitive outcomes of intraspecific parasitoid–parasitoid interactions [7,56•].

Recent work (primarily in aphids) highlights the important role of microbial symbionts in mediating insect thermal tolerances and interactions between hosts and parasitoids. For various aphid species, infection with bacteria [57] or viruses [38] increased survival or fecundity in response to HTEs [57]. In some cases, symbionts can confer host resistance to parasitoids, while heat stress generally lowers this protection; the overall adaptive benefit of hosting symbionts is greater under high temperatures than nonstressful temperatures [57]. Fitness consequences of microbial associations in non-aphid hosts and in parasitoids are understudied, but the evidence that facultative symbionts can limit or expand thermal tolerances in diverse insect taxa is substantial (reviewed in Ref. [78]), which suggests facultative symbionts are likely important mediators of parasitoid thermal tolerance.

Meta-analyses and large-scale field surveys have been particularly important for assessing the effects of HTEs on host–parasitoid outcomes and their cascading ecological consequences. These studies demonstrate a common result of HTEs generally reducing parasitoid prevalence or success, resulting in increased herbivory of hostplants [17,36••,56•,61••]. Conversely, warm summers in the arctic increased parasitism of Dipteran hosts, resulting in reduced Dipteran pollination of plants [36••]. This suggests that the effects of climate change on parasitoids may differ across climate regions, and host

taxa could be differentially impacted by climate change, yielding different types of cascading ecological responses; more research is needed to explore and characterize these effects.

Models that incorporate data from both lab studies and field surveys are particularly valuable for understanding how HTEs may alter ecological dynamics. A model for aphid–parasitoid abundances predicted HTEs lead to shortened and intensified host–parasitoid population cycling, resulting in destabilized host–parasitoid dynamics [13]. Several other models predict that climate warming will decrease the stability of herbivore food webs [61••]. Combined, these models and field surveys agree with a growing body of research suggesting HTEs disrupt host–parasitoid species networks, and herbivory of agricultural and natural hostplants is expected to increase under climate change as top-down control of insect pests is relaxed [79].

Opportunities: *Empirical studies examining the effects of temperature on host–parasitoid dynamics and their multi-trophic interactions with other species are incredibly valuable, but rare, especially in non-managed systems. While such studies are logistically challenging, they are an ideal staging ground for integrative and collaborative research across fields.*

The field of host–parasitoid thermal biology has expanded in scope in the past decade. Our understanding, which comes primarily from agricultural systems, indicates that high-temperature stress can disrupt parasitoid control of host insects, but this is highly dependent on both host and parasitoid life stage, and can be moderated by physiological mechanisms of host control. We have seen that with a few notable exceptions, host thermal tolerance exceeds that of their parasitoids, resulting in cascading trophic effects. Future studies should expand into non-agricultural systems and non-laboratory settings, investigate effects beyond the organismal level, and incorporate modeling approaches to produce generalizable predictions. These areas provide rich opportunities for novel, integrative research, and collaboration across scientific fields.

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Data Availability

No data were used for the research described in the article.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could

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