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4 ***Tamarixia citricola* Hansson and Guerrieri sp. nov. (Hymenoptera:**
5 **Eulophidae): a new parasitoid of *Diaphorina citri* Kuwayamava (Hemiptera:**
6 **Psyllidae) found during a classical biological control program in Cyprus**

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30 **Short title:** *Tamarixia citricola* sp. nov. parasitoid of *Diaphorina citri* from Cyprus

31

32 **Abstract**

33 Asian citrus psyllid, *Diaphorina citri*, is a major global pest because it is the primary vector of *Candidatus*
34 *Liberibacter* spp., the causal agents of huanglongbing (HLB), a lethal citrus disease. Following the
35 detection of *D. citri* in Cyprus in 2023, the first record of this pest in the European Union, a classical
36 biological control program targeting this pest was initiated in spring 2024 using the parasitoid
37 *Tamarixia radiata* imported from California, USA. During field surveys in summer 2024, parasitized *D.*
38 *citri* nymphs were found in orchards where no *T. radiata* releases had been made. These findings
39 suggested the possible presence of native or unintentionally introduced parasitoids, or a rapid spread
40 of *T. radiata* into new areas. To determine the identity of parasitoids associated with *D. citri* in Cyprus,
41 an integrative approach was adopted combining field observations, molecular analyses of the COI
42 gene, and morphological analyses. *Tamarixia radiata* recovered from Cyprus field sites matched
43 reference sequences of parasitoids from California. However, other specimens were genetically and
44 morphologically distinct and represented a new species. The new species is described here as
45 *Tamarixia citricola* Hansson & Guerrieri sp. nov. Taxonomic diagnoses and characters for separating
46 both *Tamarixia* species associated with *D. citri* are provided. Results presented here indicate the
47 coexistence of both *T. radiata* (introduced) and *T. citricola* (likely autochthonous) in Cyprus citrus
48 orchards. This finding has important implications for future biological control strategies and quarantine
49 measures for *D. citri* in the Mediterranean basin.

50 **Keywords:** ACP, huanglongbing, classical biological control, integrative taxonomy, psyllid parasitoids
51 COI barcoding

52

53 **1. Introduction**

54 Huanglongbing (HLB), also known as citrus greening disease, is currently one of the most devastating
55 threats to global citriculture. The disease is caused by phloem-restricted bacteria of the genus
56 *Candidatus Liberibacter*, primarily *C. L. asiaticus*, *C. L. africanus*, and *C. L. americanus*, which are mainly
57 transmitted by two psyllid vectors: Asian citrus psyllid (ACP), *Diaphorina citri* Kuwayama (Hemiptera:
58 Psyllidae), and African citrus psyllid *Trioza erytrae* Del Guercio (Hemiptera: Triozidae) (Pérez-Hedo et
59 al., 2025b, 2025a). Of these two psyllid species, *D. citri* is recognized as the most efficient and widely
60 distributed vector, particularly of *C. L. asiaticus* (CLas), the most aggressive and globally prevalent
61 bacteria causing HLB (Qureshi and Stansly, 2020). CLas spp. cause severe symptoms in citrus trees,
62 including chlorosis, misshapen fruits, significant yield decline, and eventual tree death, leading to
63 major economic losses and severe restrictions on international trade (Bové, 2014). In the last decades,
64 *D. citri* has rapidly spread, invading citrus-growing regions across the Americas, Asia, and Africa, and
65 more recently, the eastern Mediterranean basin (Pérez-Hedo et al., 2025a). In August 2023, *D. citri*
66 was officially detected for the first time within the European Union (EPPO Global Database, 2023), in
67 a citrus orchard located in the Phassouri area of Limassol District, Cyprus (Melifronidou-Pantelidou et
68 al., 2025). This discovery in Cyprus followed a previous report of *D. citri* in Israel in 2021 (EPPO Global
69 Database, 2022), demonstrating the progressive spread of the pest across eastern Mediterranean
70 areas.

71 The detection of *D. citri* in Cyprus triggered an immediate and coordinated phytosanitary
72 response led by the National Plant Protection Organization (NPPO) of Cyprus. This response included
73 comprehensive island-wide surveillance, the establishment of demarcated *D. citri*-infested and *D. citri*-

74 free buffer zones, enforced restrictions on the movement of citrus, and insecticidal treatments
75 (Melifronidou-Pantelidou et al., 2025). However, due to the widespread distribution of citrus plants in
76 commercial orchards, private gardens, recreational areas, and commercial spaces, chemical control
77 measures alone were deemed insufficient to achieve a significant reduction of *D. citri* densities and
78 rates of spread. Consequently, a classical biological control program was initiated by the Cyprus NPPO
79 in collaboration with the Agricultural Research Institute of Cyprus, the Valencian Institute of
80 Agricultural Research (IVIA, Spain), the University of California, Riverside (UCR), and the California
81 Department of Food and Agriculture (CDFA). This program involved the importation, quarantine and
82 mass rearing of the parasitoid *Tamarixia radiata* (Waterston) (Hymenoptera: Eulophidae) from
83 California (USA) for targeted releases against *D. citri* populations. The California population of *T.*
84 *radiata* was originally sourced from Punjab Pakistan and used in a classical biological control program
85 against *D. citri* in California (Hoddle and Pandey, 2014).

86 *Tamarixia radiata* is a solitary ectoparasitoid, native to the Indian subcontinent that
87 specifically parasitizes fourth and fifth-instar nymphs of *D. citri* (Hoddle and Pandey 2014; Hoddle et
88 al., 2022). This parasitoid has been widely recognized for its potential in classical biological control
89 programs due to its high host specificity, short generation time, high rates of parasitism, and host
90 feeding behaviour. As a result, *T. radiata* has been intentionally introduced or reintroduced into
91 multiple regions invaded by *D. citri*, including Florida, Brazil, and Mexico (Qureshi and Stansly, 2020).

92 In California, *T. radiata* was introduced in 2011 as part of a coordinated classical biological
93 control initiative, following exploratory surveys and collections conducted in the Punjab region of
94 Pakistan, an area sharing a high climatic similarity to California's citrus production zones (Hoddle and
95 Hoddle, 2013; Hoddle and Pandey 2014). The parasitoid quickly established in urban citrus landscapes
96 and demonstrated high efficacy, with field studies reporting population reductions of *D. citri* up to 75%
97 following releases (Kistner et al., 2016a; Milosavljević et al. 2021). Parasitism levels exceeded 60% at
98 times, and the biological control effort was associated with a notable slowing of CLas spread in urban

99 environments because of significant reductions of vector densities (Milosavljević et al. 2021; Hoddle
100 et al., 2022).

101 Given its successful establishment and performance in California and the proven effectiveness
102 of *T. radiata* in this Mediterranean-like climate, Cypriot authorities selected, imported, and mass-
103 reared under controlled conditions the same Californian strain as the cornerstone of the Cypriot
104 biological control campaign targeting *D. citri*. Releases of *T. radiata* in Cyprus began in April 2024 at
105 four citrus-growing locations (Melifronidou-Pantelidou et al., 2025).

106 Here, results are reported of the first monitoring surveys conducted at the four *T. radiata*
107 release sites and at 12 control sites where no parasitoid releases occurred. This experimental design
108 was used to evaluate the rates of parasitoid dispersal into non-release areas and to assess the impacts
109 of autochthonous natural enemies, especially naturally-occurring parasitoid species, on *D. citri*
110 populations. Parasitoids recovered during field surveys were identified using an integrative taxonomic
111 approach that combined COI-based molecular analyses, alfa morphology and biological data. This
112 approach revealed the existence of two distinct parasitoid species of *Tamarixia*, with one being new
113 to science.

114

115 **2. Materials and methods**

116 **2.1. Mass rearing and field releases of *Tamarixia radiata* in Cyprus**

117 In March 2024, the Agricultural Research Institute (ARI) of Cyprus established a *T. radiata* colony from
118 250 individuals provided by the California Department of Food and Agriculture (CDFA). These
119 parasitoids originated from a colony maintained at the CDFA biological production facility in Riverside,
120 California, which was originally founded from individuals collected in Pakistan by the University of
121 California, Riverside (Hoddle and Hoddle, 2013; Hoddle and Pandey, 2014). To support the rearing of
122 *D. citri* for parasitoid propagation, seeds of curry leaf (*Murraya koenigii* L., Rutaceae), a preferred host

123 plant for *D. citri* that does not harbour *C. Liberibacter* spp., were provided by the CDFA in December
124 2023 and grown at ARI facilities. The use of plants grown from seed further ensured the absence of
125 CLas infection.

126 The *T. radiata* colony was maintained on *D. citri* nymphs reared on *M. koenigii* plants under
127 controlled environmental conditions ($25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, 60–70% relative humidity, 14L:10D photoperiod).
128 These rearing conditions enabled the continuous propagation of parasitoids which were used to
129 maintain colony production and for field releases. Exemplar specimens from the established ARI colony
130 were preserved in 96% ethanol and used as reference material for both molecular and morphological
131 analyses in the present study. The first releases of *T. radiata* in Cyprus were made in April 2024 in the
132 Phassouri area (Limassol district, 60 parasitoids), followed by additional releases in the districts of
133 Nicosia (Potamia, April 2024, 60 parasitoids), and Ammochostos (Frenaros, April and June 2024, 40 and
134 60 parasitoids, respectively, and Avgorou, June 2024, 40 parasitoids) (Figure 1). All *T. radiata* releases
135 were made in citrus orchards exhibiting active *D. citri* infestations at the time of parasitoid release.
136 This biological control program in Cyprus is ongoing, with monitoring efforts in place to assess
137 establishment, field dispersal, and parasitism levels of *T. radiata*.

138 **2.2. Field surveys and sample collection**

139 To assess the establishment and spread of *T. radiata* across Cyprus, field surveys were conducted
140 between July 2 and 5, 2024. A total of 16 citrus orchards (Table 1), distributed across the main citrus-
141 producing districts of Cyprus, were selected for evaluation. In four orchards *T. radiata* was released
142 during spring 2024, while the remaining 12 served as non-release control sites.

143 In each orchard, the following parameters were recorded: citrus variety, presence of spring
144 and summer flush (i.e., immature leaf and twig growth used by *D. citri* for oviposition and feeding by
145 nymphs), and percentage of shoots infested by *D. citri*. The percentage of shoot infestation was
146 determined in each orchard by the presence or absence of *D. citri* nymphs or adults on 20–30 shoots
147 randomly selected on 5–8 trees that were randomly selected for sampling. *Diaphorina citri* nymphs on

148 infested stems were examined for evidence of *T. radiata* parasitism. Parasitism was determined
149 visually by detecting either parasitoid eggs, nymphs, or pupae under the ventral surfaces of fourth and
150 fifth instar *D. citri* nymphs or circular exit holes in the anterior part of mummified nymphs (Kistner et
151 al., 2016b, 2016a; Milosavljević et al., 2021).

152 Where possible, in orchards where active parasitism was observed, parasitized nymphs were collected
153 for laboratory-based confirmation of parasitoid species identity. *Diaphorina citri* nymphs exhibiting
154 signs of parasitism were sampled from eight study orchards. Individual field-collected parasitoids were
155 preserved in 96% ethanol for molecular analyses.

156 **2.3. Molecular analyses**

157 Molecular analyses were conducted to enable unambiguous determination of the presence *T. radiata*
158 in orchards and the geographic origin of parasitoid strain (i.e., from California or some other location).
159 The correct identification of collected parasitoids provided baseline information on dispersal from
160 release sites. To achieve this, a molecular barcoding approach using the mitochondrial cytochrome
161 oxidase subunit I gene (COI) - formerly *COX1* gene - was conducted. Parasitoids were obtained from
162 multiple locations across Cyprus and included both adult and pupal stages of eulophid parasitoids
163 morphologically identified as *Tamarixia* sp.

164 Specifically, COI fragments 1A-1, 2A-1, and 11A-1 (were amplified from adult parasitoid specimens,
165 while COI fragments 1B-1, 2B-1, and 5B-1 were obtained from *Tamarixia* sp. pupae collected from
166 parasitized *D. citri* nymphs. In addition, a consensus COI fragment of *T. radiata* was generated from
167 adults recovered from both field-collected specimens and from the laboratory colony established in
168 Cyprus using parasitoids sourced from the California Department of Food and Agriculture (samples C1,
169 C2, and C3). For comparative purposes, COI sequences of closely related species within the subfamily
170 Tetrastichinae (Hymenoptera: Eulophidae), retrieved from GenBank, were incorporated into
171 alignments.

172 Total mitogenomic DNA (mitgDNA) was extracted from each specimen using a modified
173 salting-out protocol optimized for small arthropods (Monzó et al. 2011). A fragment of approximately
174 825 base pairs from the 3' region of the COI gene was amplified from the specimens of *Tamarixia* sp.
175 collected in the field using the primers C1-J-2183 (5'-CAACATTTATTTTGATTTTTGG-3') and TL2-N-3014
176 (5'-TTGCACTTTTCTGCCATTTTA-3') (Simon et al., 1994). Given that most *T. radiata* COI gene sequences
177 available in GenBank correspond to the 5'-end of its coding region (positions +106 to +676 relative to
178 the translation start codon), the oligonucleotides LCO2 (5'-GGGCAACAATCATAAAGATATTGG-3') and
179 HCOoutout (5'-GTAAATATATGRTGDGCTC-3') (Folmer et al., 1994; Prendini, 2005, respectively), were
180 also used as primers to amplify a COI fragment of 1487 bp from *T. radiata* specimens derived from the
181 laboratory colony established in Cyprus. Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) were performed in a final
182 volume of 20 µL using Platinum II Hot-Start Taq DNA Polymerase (ThermoFisher), 1× Platinum II buffer
183 (containing 1.5 mM MgCl₂), 0.2 mM of each dNTP, and 0.2 µM of each primer, with 2 µL of mtDNA as
184 template. The thermal cycling protocol consisted of an initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 minutes,
185 followed by 10 cycles of 94°C for 15 seconds, 45°C for 15 seconds, and 68°C for 15 seconds, and then
186 40 additional cycles using the same parameters. PCR products were visualized on 1.5% agarose gels
187 and purified using the High Pure PCR Cleanup Kit (Roche, Germany).

188 Purified amplicons were sequenced in both directions using the same primers. Forward and
189 reverse reads were assembled into consensus sequences using Sequencher software (Gene Codes
190 Corporation) and trimmed to remove primer sequences. The final high-quality consensus sequences
191 (825 bp) were used as queries in BLASTn searches against the GenBank nucleotide database to assess
192 species identity and similarity to known *Tamarixia* sp. species sequences. Alignments were performed
193 using DNASTAR software, and the alignment of COI sequences used for phylogenetic analysis.

194 Phylogenetic reconstruction was performed using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method
195 implemented in MEGA12. The Tamura and Nei (1993) model of nucleotide substitutions was selected
196 as the best-fit model. The initial tree for the heuristic search was chosen based on the best log-
197 likelihood value obtained by comparing a Neighbor-Joining (NJ) tree, generated from a pairwise

198 distance matrix using the same model, and a Maximum Parsimony (MP) tree. The MP analysis included
199 10 independent tree searches from randomly generated starting trees, and the shortest resulting tree
200 was used for comparison. The tree with the highest log likelihood (-2,539.32) was selected as the final
201 topology.

202 The robustness of the inferred phylogeny was assessed by bootstrap analysis with 1,000
203 replicates. The final dataset included 12 coding COI sequences from both adult-derived fragments (1A-
204 1, 2A-1, 11A-1) and pupal-derived fragments (1B-1, 2B-1, 5B-1) of *Tamarixia* specimens collected from
205 different locations in Cyprus. COI fragments from individuals of the *T. radiata* colony (samples C1, C2,
206 C3) and field-collected adults were included as references. Additionally, COI sequences from related
207 species within the subfamily Tetrastichinae (Hymenoptera: Eulophidae), retrieved from GenBank
208 (PQ310511, PQ059861, NC_079567, MN123622, NC060368), were incorporated into the phylogenetic
209 analysis. Codon positions included 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and non-coding sites, and all positions containing gaps
210 or missing data were excluded, resulting in 825 aligned positions in the final dataset. All evolutionary
211 analyses were conducted in MEGA12 using up to four parallel computing threads.

212 **2.4. Morphological (alpha) characterization**

213 *Tamarixia* specimens were prepared and mounted on card points and slide mounted. For card
214 mounting, specimens freshly killed in 70% ethanol were transferred to 96% ethanol, then to absolute
215 ethanol, and finally to hexamethyldisilazane (HMDS), where they were left until the HMDS completely
216 evaporated. Once dried, specimens were mounted on cards using a water-soluble glue. For slide
217 mounting, the protocol described by Noyes (1982) was followed. In brief, after detaching fore and hind
218 wings, specimens were macerated in a 10% KOH solution on a hot plate for 3 minutes, immersed in
219 acetic acid for 5 minutes, then dehydrated by placing in a series of increasing concentrations of ethanol
220 from 70 %to 100%. Upon completion of this dehydration sequence, a drop of clove oil was added to
221 the absolute ethanol and specimens were left until the ethanol evaporated. Specimens were removed
222 from clove oil and mounted on glass slides in Canada balsam with the aid of a stereomicroscope (20x

223 magnification). The morphological characterization of card and slide mounted *Tamarixia* specimens
224 was initially performed using the key prepared by Graham(1991). Species identities were confirmed
225 by comparing mounted specimens with type specimens and authoritatively identified material hosted
226 at the Biological Museum in Lund and at the Natural History Museum in London.

227 Abbreviations used in the description of the new species:

- 228 • C1–C3: clavomeres 1–3 (in antennae),
- 229 • F1–F4; flagellomeres 1–4 (in antennae),
- 230 • Gt7: gastral tergite no. 7
- 231 • OOL: shortest distance between one posterior ocellus and eye
- 232 • POL: shortest distance between posterior ocelli
- 233 • T1–T4: tarsomeres 1–4 (of tarsi)

234 All measurements in the description of the new species are from card mounted specimens. These
235 measurements do not always match measurements from slide mounted body parts because these
236 might have been distorted when compressed between the slide glass and the cover slip.

237 **3. Results**

238 **3.1. Field detection of parasitism by *Tamarixia* species**

239 A total of 16 citrus orchards across five districts of Cyprus were surveyed for the presence of *D. citri*
240 (Table 1). *Diaphorina citri* nymphs were detected in 15 out of 16 sites (93.7%), with infestation levels
241 ranging from 1% to 100% of sampled flush (Table 1) (Figure 1A). Only one site, located in the Green
242 Zone (site 7), showed no evidence of *D. citri*. Evidence of parasitism of *D. citri* nymphs was observed
243 at 12 sites, based on abovementioned signs of parasitism. Among these, four sites (sites 1, 2, 13, and
244 16) had received intentional *T. radiata* releases (Figure 1B), while the remaining 8 sites (sites 3, 4, 6, 8,
245 11, 12, 14, and 15) had not received *T. radiata* (Figures 1C and 1D).

246 Adult *Tamarixia* spp. emerged successfully from field collected nymphs. A total of five sites
247 yielded *Tamarixia* spp. adults, including *T. radiata* and an unknown *Tamarixia* species. Notably, adult

248 *Tamarixia* emerged from samples collected in sites without any known history of parasitoid releases,
249 confirming parasitism activity in those areas. Importantly, evidence of parasitism was detected during
250 summer in several orchards located at more than 40 km from known release sites, including Acheleia,
251 and Anarita (Table 1). This indicated early-season parasitism activity on *D. citri* in regions with no
252 history of *T. radiata* introductions.

253 **3.2. Molecular identification: COI analyses**

254 A COI fragment of approximately 825 base pairs (bp) was successfully amplified and sequenced from
255 all analyzed specimens, including individuals from the *T. radiata* laboratory colony and field-collected
256 *Tamarixia* specimens recovered from parasitized *D. citri* nymphs collected across multiple field sites in
257 Cyprus. The consensus sequences obtained from the laboratory colony (samples C1–C3) and field-
258 collected *T. radiata* adults were identical and showed 99–100% similarity to *T. radiata* sequences
259 deposited in GenBank (Supplementary Figure 1), including accessions from the USA (FJ152417 and
260 FJ152420) and China (MZ558501), and 91% similarity to the *T. radiata* mitochondrial genome
261 (MN123622). Importantly, molecular analyses confirmed recovery of *T. radiata* haplotypes introduced
262 from California indicating that parasitoids deliberately introduced as classical biological control agents
263 had established in Cyprus.

264 In contrast, COI sequences obtained from six field-collected *Tamarixia* specimens from Cyprus,
265 three derived from adults 1A-1, 2A-1, 11A-1 (PV779178, PV779176, PV779180), and three from pupal
266 stages 1B-1, 2B-1, 5B-1(PV779179, PV779177, PV779181), differed markedly from *T. radiata*, showing
267 only 91–92% similarity to introduced *T. radiata* haplotypes and *T. triozae* (PQ310511). These
268 sequences were highly homogeneous with minimal intraspecific variation, and were consistently
269 distinct from all known *Tamarixia* sequences available in public databases suggesting detection of a
270 previously unknown species.

271 Alignment of the full 825 bp COI fragment (Figure 2) highlighted numerous nucleotide
272 differences between the field-collected Cyprus specimens and *T. radiata*, as well as with other

273 members of the subfamily Tetrastichinae (Eulophidae). Phylogenetic reconstruction based on this
274 alignment, using the Maximum Likelihood method and the Tamura–Nei model, revealed the existence
275 of two well-supported and genetically distinct clades (Figure 3). The first clade included all *T. radiata*
276 samples from the Cyprus laboratory colony and field collected material, and reference sequences from
277 GenBank. (MN132622). The second clade consisted exclusively of field-collected Cyprus specimens
278 (both adult- and pupa-derived), which formed a monophyletic group strongly supported by bootstrap
279 values ranging from 78 to 100.

280 These findings provide robust molecular evidence for the presence of a genetically distinct
281 lineage within the genus *Tamarixia* in Cyprus, which is clearly separated from *T. radiata* and other
282 closely related species. This finding was interpreted as representing a new unidentified species, here
283 named *Tamarixia citricola* sp. Nov. The corresponding COI sequences have been submitted to
284 GenBank, with the following accession numbers: PV779178, PV779176, PV779180, PV779179,
285 PV779177, PV779181.

286 **3.3. Morphological identification and species description of *Tamarixia citricola* sp.nov.**

287 **Hansson and Guerrieri**

288 *Tamarixia citricola* sp.nov. Hansson and Guerrieri (Figure 4)

289 **ZooBank registration:** urn:lsid:zoobank.org:pub:26374181-2414-4C54-893B-0565F64F5A56

290 **Diagnosis.** Fore wing (Figure 5A) with marginal vein short and thick, 5.4× as long as wide and only 0.16×
291 as long as length of fore wing and 3.5× as long as stigmal vein; speculum relatively large, extending
292 below marginal vein. Head, meso- and metasoma black, femora black with apex yellowish-white.
293 Female antenna (Figure 5B) with F1 1.8× as long as wide and 0.8× as long as pedicel, F2 1.2× and F3
294 0.9× as long as wide; male antenna (Figure 5C) with plaque situated in basal ⅓; both sexes with scape
295 black.

296 **Female holotype:** length of body 1.0 mm.

297 Scape black with apico-ventral part white; pedicel with basal $\frac{1}{2}$ black, apical $\frac{1}{2}$ yellowish-white;
298 flagellum dark brown. Head, meso- and metasoma black. Legs with coxae black; fore trochanter white
299 with base black, mid and hind trochanters black; femora black with apex yellowish-white; fore and mid
300 tibiae pale testaceous, hind tibia pale testaceous in basal $\frac{1}{2}$, dark brown in apical $\frac{1}{2}$; fore tarsus with
301 T1–3 testaceous, T4 dark brown, mid and hind tarsi with T1–3 yellowish-white, T4 black. Wings hyaline,
302 veins testaceous.

303 Midlobe of mesoscutum with weak reticulation, meshes elongate, with a complete but weak median
304 groove. Mesoscutellum with distinctly weaker reticulation than mesoscutum and with smaller meshes;
305 anterior setae as long as distance between submedian grooves and attached in the middle of
306 mesoscutellum. Dorsellum with stronger reticulation than mesoscutum. Propodeum with weak
307 reticulation, with a complete median carina.

308 Petiole very short and wide, a narrow stripe. Gaster with very weak reticulation throughout.

309 *Relative measurements:* head length, dorsal view 13; head length, frontal view 25; distance toruli to
310 anterior ocellus 14; distance toruli to mouth margin 6; POL 9.5; OOL 3.5; lateral ocellus diameter 2;
311 head width 29; mouth width 9; malar space 9; eye length 13.5; scape length 12.5; scape width 3;
312 pedicel+flagellum length 27; pedicel length 5.5; pedicel width, dorsal view 2.5; F1 length 4.5; F1 width
313 2.5; F2 length 3.5; F2 width 3; F3 length 3.5; F3 width 4; clava length 10; clava width 5; C3 length 2.5;
314 spicule length 1; mesosoma length 32; mesosoma width 29; midlobe of mesoscutum length 15;
315 mesoscutellum length 12.5; mesoscutellum width 16; median part of mesoscutellum width (measured
316 medially) 6; median part of mesoscutellum, width in anterior part 6; median part of mesoscutellum,
317 width in posterior part 6; lateral part of mesoscutellum, width (measured medially) 4.5; dorsellum
318 length 2.5; propodeum length 4.5; hind femur length 24; hind femur width 6.5; fore wing length 85;
319 fore wing width 37; costal cell length 22; costal cell width (measured at widest part) 2; marginal vein
320 length 14; stigmal vein length 4; gaster length 40; gaster width 23; Gt₇ length (measured medially) 2;

14

321 Gt₇ width (measured at base) 2.5; longest cercal seta length 6.5; shortest cercal seta length 4.5;
322 hypopygium length 23.

323 *Variation.* Length of body 0.9–1.1 mm. No additional variation in material examined.

324 **Male.** Length of body of body 0.8–1.0 mm.

325 Colour similar to female except with antennal flagellum pale testaceous to testaceous.

326 Antenna with scape widest in basal $\frac{1}{3}$; plaque situated in lower $\frac{1}{3}$; antennae with F1–F4 and C1 with a
327 row of subbasal long setae. Otherwise as in female.

328 *Relative measurements:* head length, dorsal view 11; head length, frontal view 21; distance toruli to
329 anterior ocellus 9.5; distance toruli to mouth margin 6; head width 26.5; mouth width 9.5; malar space
330 7.5; eye length 11; scape length 11; scape width 5; plaque length 2; distance apical part of plaque to
331 apical part of scape 6; distance basal part of plaque to basal part of scape 3.5; pedicel length 4.5;
332 pedicel+flagellum length 36; F1 length 3.5; F1 width 3; F2 length 5; F2 width 3.5; F3 length 5.5; F3 width
333 3; F4 length 5.5; F4 width 3; clava length 11; clava width 3; longest subbasal seta on F1 length 17;
334 mesosoma length 29; mesosoma width 24; gaster length 34; gaster width 22.

335 **Hosts.** Parasitoid of Asian citrus psyllid (*Diaphorina citri* Kuwayama) (Hemiptera: Psyllidae).

336 **Distribution.** Cyprus.

337 **Material examined:** Holotype ♀ CYPRUS: Limassol, Eptagonia, 34°51'06.2"N 33°08'46.3"E, collected
338 30.x.2024 from the field, ex *Diaphorina citri* on *Citrus* sp. (emerged in cage 4.xi.2024) (deposited in
339 Natural History Museum, London UK - NHMUK). Paratypes: 5♀ 5♂ CYPRUS: Nicosia, Peristona,
340 35°08'04.3"N 33°04'52.3"E, collected 31.x.2024 from the field, ex *Diaphorina citri* on *Citrus* sp.
341 (emerged in cage 8.xi.2024) (deposited in NHMUK & Biological Museum (Entomology), Lund
342 University, Lund, Sweden). Types 1♀ 3♂ *Tamarixia tremblayi* Domenichini, no collecting data, other

343 than species name and « TYPE » on labels. (Domenichini Collection at Università Cattolica del Sacro
344 Cuore, Piacenza, Italy).

345 **4. Discussion**

346 This study has identified an undescribed parasitoid species, *T. citricola* sp. nov., associated with
347 nymphs of Asian citrus psyllid, *D. citri*, in Cyprus. This finding represents the first report of *T. citricola*
348 parasitizing *D. citri* and the first record of this species in Europe. The area of origin for *T. citricola*, is at
349 this time, assumed to be Cyprus.

350 Comparative analyses revealed clear genetic and morphological differences between *T.*
351 *citricola* and the introduced species, *T. radiata*. DNA barcode sequences (COI) showed only 91–92%
352 similarity between them, placing the field collected specimens from Cyprus in a separate clade in the
353 phylogenetic analyses. This level of divergence is significant and consistent with interspecific
354 differences within the genus (Om et al., 2017). Furthermore, distinct unambiguous diagnostic
355 morphological characters differentiate *T. citricola* from *T. radiata*: in *T. citricola* gaster is completely
356 black in both sexes, in *T. radiata* it is extensively yellow, more so in the female, in *T. citricola* femora
357 and scape are predominantly black in both sexes, but whitish in *T. radiata*. In the key to European
358 *Tamarixia* species by Graham (1991) both female and male *T. citricola* key out as *T. tremblayi*
359 (Domenichini) (Domenichini, 1965), to which it is very similar. However, male *T. citricola* differ from
360 that of *T. tremblayi* by the position of the sensorial plaque on the scape, situated in basal $\frac{1}{3}$ of scape
361 (in apical $\frac{1}{3}$ in *tremblayi*, see fig. 327 in Graham [1991]). Females of *T. citricola* have black femora with
362 a yellowish-white apex, gaster black, dorsellum 0.2× as long as mesoscutellum, and marginal vein 0.16×
363 as long as length of fore wing. Conversely, in the *T. tremblayi* female, fore and mid femora are
364 yellowish-white with basal $\frac{1}{4}$ – $\frac{1}{3}$ dark brown, hind femur with basal $\frac{1}{2}$ dark brown and apical $\frac{1}{2}$
365 yellowish-white, gaster largely yellow, dorsellum 0.3× as long as mesoscutellum, and marginal vein
366 0.13× as long as length of fore wing.

367 *Tamarixia radiata* is a solitary ectoparasitoid of *D. citri* nymphs, initially described from
368 specimens reared from psyllids collected from lemons in Lyallpur, Punjab Pakistan in 1921 (Waterston,
369 1922) and widely used in classical biological control programs targeting *D. citri* (Étienne et al., 2001;
370 Qureshi and Stansly, 2020; Hoddle and Pandey 2014). In contrast, the origin of *T. citricola* remains
371 unclear. Its detection in orchards with no history of releases, suggests it may be a previously
372 unrecognized native species, or possibly, accidentally introduced from some other unknown area. It is
373 important to highlight that the parasitoid was not found during previous field observations carried out
374 in the same orchards in 2023. To distinguish between these two competing possibilities, it will be
375 crucial to identify psyllid host species (psyllid species native to Cyprus?) for *T. citricola* and to conduct
376 further surveys in Cyprus and neighboring mainland countries for *T. citricola*. This work can be
377 complemented with genetic studies to aid understanding of the area of origin, distribution patterns,
378 and genetic population structures of *T. citricola* attacking *D. citri*. Regardless of the area of origin for *T.*
379 *citricola*, currently available evidence confirms the coexistence in Cyprus of two eulophid species
380 associated with *D. citri*: *T. radiata* (deliberately introduced) and *T. citricola* (unexpectedly detected,
381 likely autochthonous, and a species new to science).

382 The simultaneous presence of *T. citricola* and *T. radiata* in the same agroecosystem raises
383 important and interesting questions about their ecological interactions and implications for the
384 biological control of *D. citri*. Although both are idiobiont ectoparasitoids that share the same host, they
385 may differ in key ecological traits that facilitate their coexistence. Differences in thermal tolerance or
386 seasonal activity may also exist. For example, one species may be better adapted to colder or warmer
387 periods. Such temporal segregation could reduce direct competition. Additionally, assuming that *T.*
388 *citricola* is native to Cyprus, this parasitoid may be opportunistically exploiting *D. citri*, a relatively new
389 resource. As *T. radiata* populations increase in density and spread, interspecific competition for *D. citri*
390 may result in the displacement of *T. citricola* and the host range of this parasitoid could regress to what
391 it was originally before the invasion of *D. citri*.

392 In other systems where *T. radiata* competed with other parasitoid species of *D. citri* provide
393 useful parallels for consideration. In Réunion, both *T. radiata* and the endoparasitoid *Diaphorencyrtus*
394 *aligarhensis* (Shafee, Alam and Agarwal) (Hymenoptera: Encyrtidae) were introduced. *Tamarixia*
395 *radiata* dominated, parasitizing ~70% of nymphs compared to <20% by *D. aligarhensis* (Aubert, 1990,
396 1987). Similarly, in Florida, *T. radiata* established successfully following releases between 1999 and
397 2001, whereas *D. aligarhensis* failed to persist, likely due to interspecific competition and unfavorable
398 environmental conditions (Rohrig et al., 2012). A similar outcome was observed in California, where *D.*
399 *aligarhensis* failed to establish whilst *T. radiata* established readily and rapidly spread (Milosavljević et
400 al., 2022). Laboratory studies suggested that *T. radiata* is more effective than *D. aligarhensis* at
401 procuring and exploiting *D. citri* nymphs (Vankosky and Hoddle, 2019, 2017).

402 To understand the impact of *T. citricola* and *T. radiata* on *D. citri*, as well as their long-term
403 population dynamics in Cyprus, it is essential to determine parasitism rates, host stage preferences,
404 and whether these two parasitoid species exhibit behavioral discrimination against previously
405 parasitized hosts. These parameters will help clarify whether the two parasitoid species are likely to
406 complement each other or compete. Consistent differences could be expected in the interaction
407 between these two congeneric species in respect to what has been so far reported for competing
408 parasitoids of *D. citri*. If *T. citricola* provides functional complementarity, for example, being active
409 when *T. radiata* is less effective for example, it may enhance biological control. Conversely, asymmetric
410 competition could result in one species dominating and providing effective control. These possibilities
411 warrant laboratory and field research.

412 From an integrated pest management (IPM) perspective, *T. citricola* holds considerable
413 promise as a biological control agent targeting *D. citri* in the Mediterranean basin. The presence of *T.*
414 *citricola* in Cypriot citrus orchards suggests good adaptation to local conditions, which could allow it to
415 suppress *D. citri* populations throughout the year. Unlike exotic agents such as *T. radiata*, *T. citricola* is
416 probably native and may already be present in other parts of the Mediterranean. If this possibility is

417 confirmed, *T. citricola* could be promoted or redistributed for biological control of *D. citri* without
418 facing regulatory constraints, a clear advantage when compared to importing and releasing non-native
419 natural enemies, like *T. radiata*. However, to fully understand the potential of *T. citricola* for biological
420 control of *D. citri*, the ecological role of this parasitoid needs to be better understood. In particular,
421 the non-*D. citri* psyllids hosts (native psyllid species?) of *T. citricola* need to be identified. Host range
422 and host specificity studies on *T. citricola* will be necessary too (see Hoddle and Pandey 2014; Bistline-
423 East et al. 2015; Urbaneja-Bernat et al., 2019). These insights will guide how best to support the use of
424 *T. citricola* against *D. citri* in the Mediterranean basin whether by conserving and enhancing natural
425 populations or, where *D. citricola* is absent, by introducing this species into areas newly invaded by *D.*
426 *citri*.

427 This study also highlights the critical role of integrative taxonomy (i.e., morphological and
428 molecular analyses) in classical biological control of invasive pests. When combined with field surveys,
429 molecular diagnostics and morphological analyses, enabled the detection of a second previously
430 unknown parasitoid species where at the start of this classical biological control program, only one, *T.*
431 *radiata*, was assumed to occur. Without this approach, *T. citricola* might have gone unnoticed or been
432 misidentified as *T. radiata*, potentially leading to misinterpretations of field parasitism dynamics. In
433 this case, an integrated multidisciplinary team approach has provided easy to use diagnostic tools for
434 field entomologists and quarantine officers to distinguish *T. citricola* from *T. radiata*, an essential
435 requirement for evaluating the identity, performance, distribution, and ecological roles of these
436 biological control agents in Cyprus, and possibly other Mediterranean countries.

437 Finally, the presence of at least three *Tamarixia* species associated with quarantine-relevant
438 psyllid species in Europe (*T. radiata* [*D. citri*], *T. dryi* [*T. erytrae*] and now *T. citricola* [*D. citri*]) illustrates
439 the dynamic nature of biological control programs that are developed in response to invasive
440 agricultural pests. Given the high invasion potential for *D. citri*, it is crucial to establish regional
441 monitoring networks in the Eastern Mediterranean and the Middle East to detect early incursions of

442 *D. citri* and to identify natural enemies associated with this pest if they exist. The invasion of *D. citri*
443 into Cyprus illustrates both the challenges and opportunities emerging in the classical biological control
444 of invasive pests. The discovery of a new parasitoid species during a classical biological control program
445 highlights the importance of vigilance, integrative science, and international collaboration. As the
446 Mediterranean citrus industry faces increasing HLB-related threats, identifying and integrating native
447 and non-native natural enemy species, such as *T. citricola* and *T. radiata*, respectively, needs to be
448 supported by sound pragmatic scientific principles. This approach will be key to building effective and
449 sustainable control strategies for *D. citri* and the *C. Liberibacter* spp. this citrus pest vectors.

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460 **Competing interests**

461 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
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463 **Author contributions**

464 AU, AT, MPH, NS, and AMP conceived the study and initiated the first contacts with MSH and DJWM to
465 launch the classical biological control (CBC) program in Cyprus. DJWM coordinated the shipment of
466 *Tamarixia radiata* from California, and both DJWM and MSH provided background information
467 essential for establishing the program. NS established the rearing of *Tamarixia radiata* in Cyprus and
468 conducted its release. AU, AT, MPH, AMP, MS, DJWM, MSH, and NS participated in the design of parts
469 of the study. AT, AMP, SG, MS, NS, CK, and LM contributed to field surveys, sampling, and data
470 collection. MPH designed and ORR carried out the molecular taxonomy analyses. EG and CH performed
471 the morphological characterization of parasitoid specimens, species identification, and species
472 description. AU and EG wrote the first draft of the manuscript, which was further developed and
473 completed by MPH and MSH. All authors read, reviewed, and approved the final version of the
474 manuscript.

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572

573 **Figure captions**

574 **Figure 1.** *Diaphorina citri* infestation and *Tamarixia radiata* presence across Cyprus in 2024. A) Density
575 of *D. citri* on summer flush of citrus in July 2024, expressed as the percentage of infested shoots per
576 site. The size of the red circles reflects infestation intensity, ranging from 1% to 100%, and can be
577 compared with the exact values provided in Table 1. The sites are numbered as follows: (1) Frenaos,
578 (2) Avgorou, (3) Meneou, (4) Meneou (2), (5) Agios Theodoros, (6) Peristerona, (7) Green Zone, (8)
579 Peristerona 2, (9) Avlona, (10) Avlona (2), (11) Pyrgos, (12) Monagroulli, (13) Phassouri, (14) Anarita,
580 (15) Acheleia, (16) Potamia. B) Locations where *T. radiata* was released in spring 2024. C) Recovery of
581 *Tamarixia* spp. from spring flush samples. D) Recovery of *Tamarixia* spp. from summer flush samples.

582 **Figure 2.** Multiple sequence alignment of mitochondrial COI gene fragments from *Tamarixia* spp.
583 collected at different developmental stages (adults and pupae) and locations in Cyprus. A consensus
584 sequence of *T. radiata* and COI sequences from related tetrastichine species obtained from GenBank
585 were included for comparison. Variable sites across the 825 bp alignment are highlighted.

586 **Figure 3.** Maximum Likelihood phylogenetic tree based on COI gene sequences (825 bp) from
587 *Tamarixia* spp. in Cyprus, including reference *T. radiata* sequences and closely related taxa from
588 GenBank. Bootstrap values (1,000 replicates) are shown next to the branches. The evolutionary history
589 was inferred using the Tamura–Nei model in MEGA12.

590 **Figure 4.** *Tamarixia citricola* Hansson and Guerrieri sp. nov. adult. (A) Female, lateral view, (B) Female,
591 dorsal view, (C) Male, lateral view and (D) Male, dorsal view.

592 **Figure 5.** Diagnostic morphological traits of *Tamarixia citricola* Hansson and Guerrieri sp. nov. Female
593 (A) Fore wing; (B) Antenna; Male (C) antenna.

594 **Table 1.** Sites surveyed for *Diaphorina citri* and parasitoid presence in Cyprus. The table describes the location (municipality, district, and GPS coordinates),
 595 citrus varieties present, percentage of flushing shoots infested by *D. citri* (ACP-infested flushed), seasonal presence of parasitoids in spring and/or summer,
 596 the number of releases of *Tamarixia radiata* conducted at each site, and the parasitoid species recovered, with the number of individuals collected in
 597 parentheses.

598

Site	Municipality	District	Coordinates	Variety	% ACP-infested flushed	Parasitism			
						Spring	Summer	# <i>T. radiata</i> releases	Species (n)
1	Frenaros	Famagusta	35°02'31.1"N 33°52'51.3"E	Valencia	100	No	Yes	2	<i>T. radiata</i> (25)
2	Avgorou	Famagusta	35°02'02.5"N 33°49'45.3"E	Iafa (Valencia type), clementines	100	Yes	No	1	<i>T. radiata</i> (4)
3	Meneou	Larnaca	34°51'32.6"N 33°35'47.8"E	Valencia, Lemon tree	10	Yes	Yes	0	
4	Meneou (2)	Larnaca	34°51'34.5"N 33°35'49.6"E	Different varieties	10	No	Yes	0	
5	Agios Theodoros	Larnaca	34°45'54.2"N 33°24'02.2"E	Navel, Clementines	100	No	No	0	
6	Peristerona	Nicosia	35°08'00.7"N 33°04'52.3"E	Different varieties	25	No	Yes	0	<i>T. citricola</i> (6) & <i>T. radiata</i> (2)
7	Green zone	Nicosia	35°09'47.0"N 33°03'02.3"E	Sour orange	0	-	-	0	
8	Peristerona 2	Nicosia	35°08'23.5"N 33°05'26.6"E	Tango	15	No	Yes	0	<i>T. citricola</i> (24)
9	Avlona	Nicosia	35°09'07.0"N 33°06'45.7"E	Valencia, Lemon	5	No	No	0	

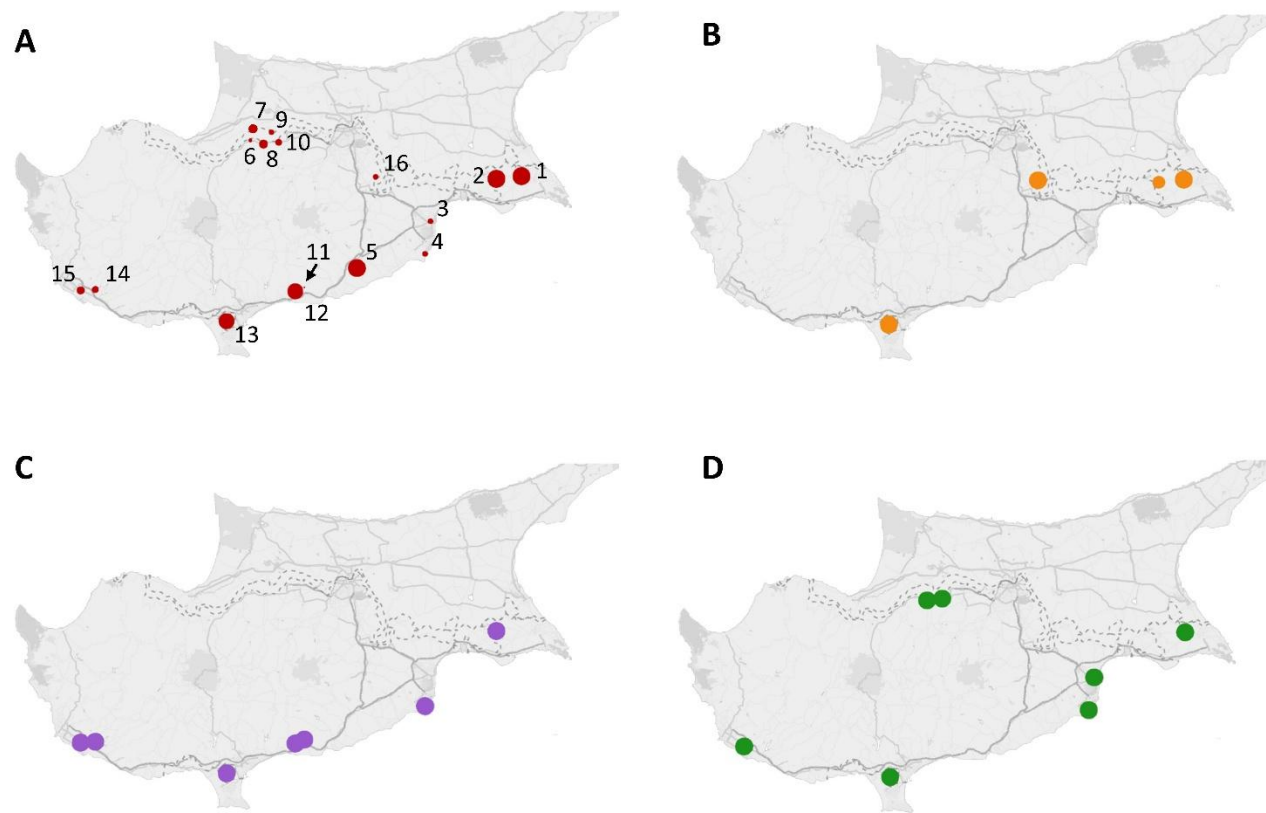
10	Avlona 2	Nicosia	35°09'19.4"N 33°06'27.9"E	Valencia, Lemon	10	No	No	0	
11	Pyrgos	Limasol	34°44'49.7"N 33°11'08.3"E	Clementines, Lemon	80	Yes	No	0	
12	Monagroulli	Limasol	XXXXX	Kaffir lime	1	Yes	No	0	
13	Phassouri	Limasol	34°38'09.1"N 32°56'54.4"E	Clementine	80	Yes	Yes	2	<i>T. citricola</i> (2) & <i>T. radiata</i> (1)
14	Anarita	Paphos	34°43'37.4"N 32°31'28.5"E	Orange trees, Clementines, Lemon	15	Yes	No	0	<i>T. citricola</i> (12)
15	Acheleia	Paphos	34°44'31.4"N 32°28'52.9"E	Lemon	20	Yes	Yes	0	<i>T. citricola</i> (10)
16	Potamia	Nicosia	35°03'54.6"N 33°27'27.9"E	Washington Navel	10	No	Yes	2	<i>T. radiata</i> (35)

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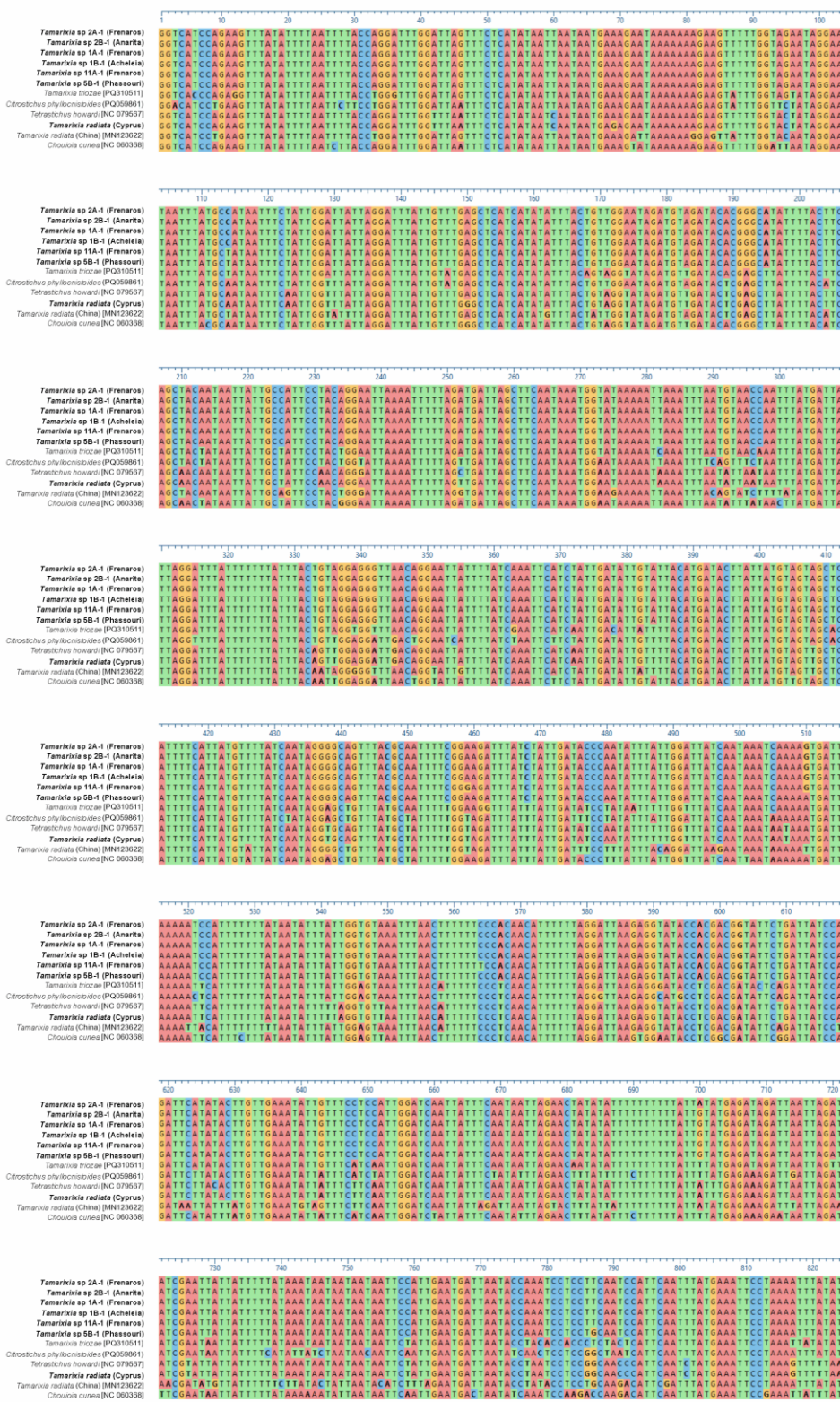
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602 **Fig 1.**



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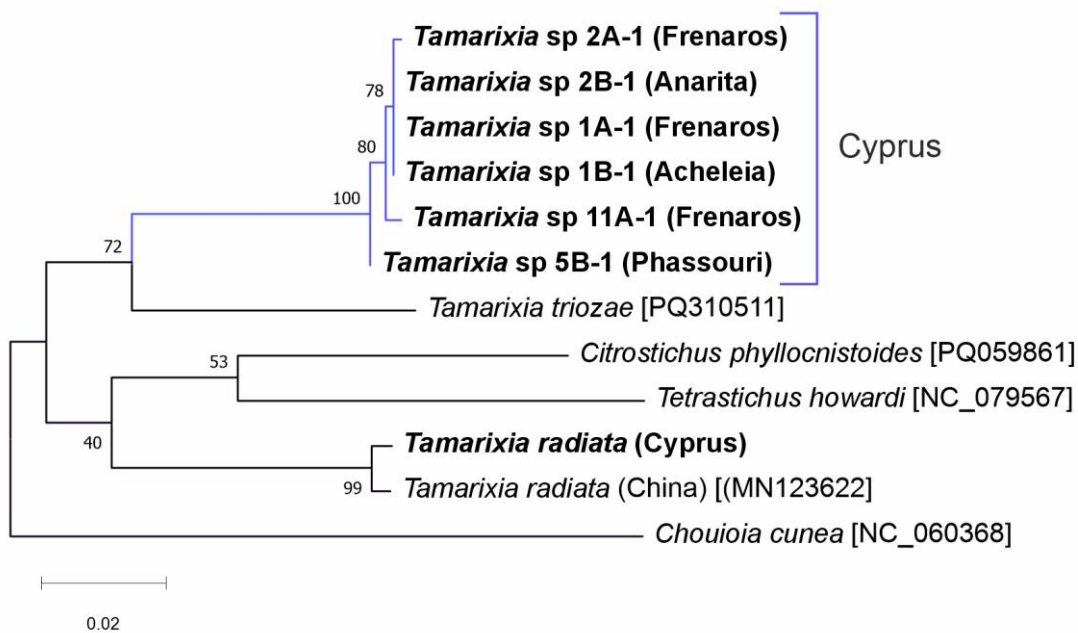
604 Fig. 2



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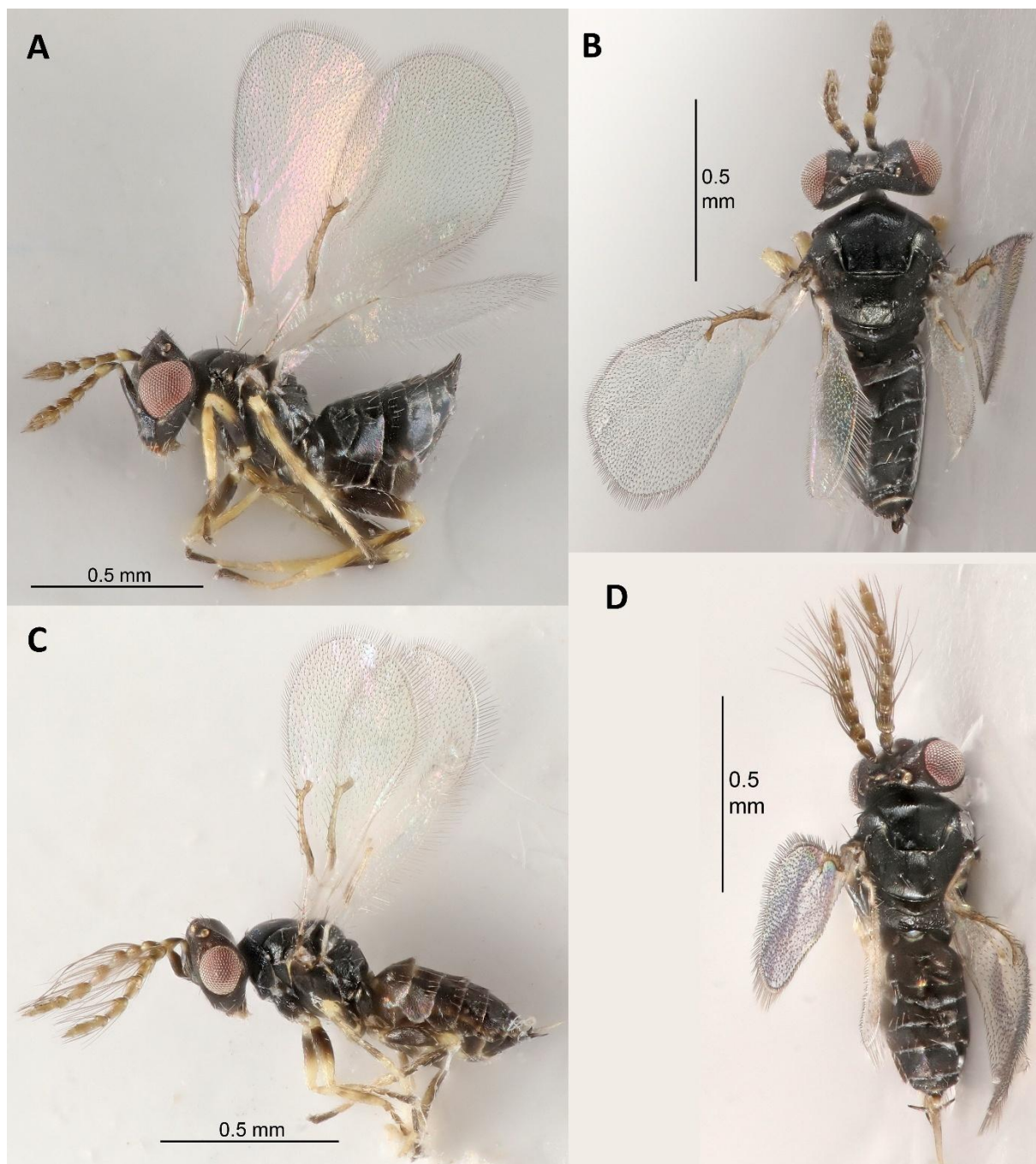
607 Fig. 3.



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610 Fig. 4



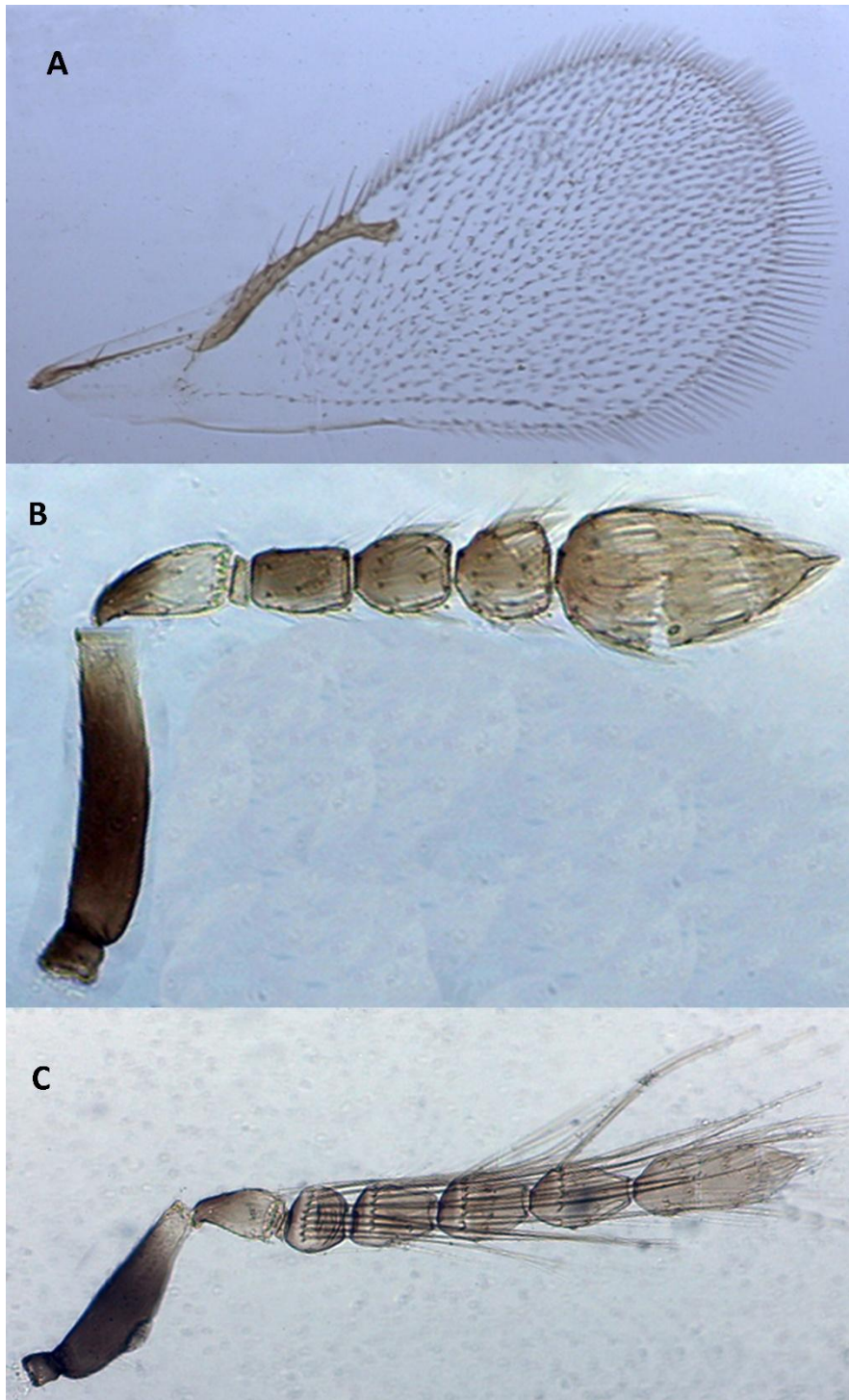
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615 Fig. 5



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