

1 Olfactory responses of *Drosophila suzukii* parasitoids to chemical cues from SWD-infested fruit

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7 **Abstract**

8 Since *Drosophila suzukii* (Diptera: Drosophilidae; SWD) became a worldwide pest of soft-skinned  
9 fruits, multiple mitigation strategies alternative to insecticides have been explored. Among these, the  
10 search for biological control agents has prompted the assessment of drosophilid parasitoids for  
11 SWD control. Olfactometer bioassays with drosophilid parasitoids have shown that host substrate-  
12 related complex olfactory cues are relevant during host search. No information is available,  
13 however, on which fruit volatiles may be used as host-related cues. Here, we used gas  
14 chromatography coupled to electroantennography (GC-EAD) to evaluate the antennal detection of  
15 ecologically relevant fruit odours by two drosophilid parasitoids, *Leptopilina boulardi* (Hymenoptera:  
16 Figitidae) and *Trichopria anastrephae* (Hymenoptera: Diapriidae). We found that females of both  
17 wasp species are capable of detecting the main volatile compounds emitted by SWD-infested  
18 strawberries, five and ten days after oviposition by SWD females. The EAD-active fruit compounds  
19 were identified by GC-MS analysis as the common fruit esters ethyl butanoate, methyl hexanoate  
20 and ethyl hexanoate. The relative proportions of these fruit esters vary over time, with potential  
21 ecological significant for larval and pupal parasitoids. Our study is the first to report GC-EAD  
22 responses of microhymenopteran wasps of drosophilid flies. Understanding the sensory ecology of  
23 host-related chemical cues may be useful to optimize the biological control of *D. suzukii* by  
24 parasitoid wasps.

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31 **Introduction**

32 Plants structure and support multitrophic interactions in nature. Among other aspects, plants are  
33 conspicuous in their contribution to the chemical landscape of ecosystems. Plant phenological  
34 changes under herbivory are often accompanied by changes in associated volatile chemistry,  
35 changes that can be exploited by both herbivorous insects and natural enemies. Changes in volatile  
36 chemistry may provide cues about the suitability of a given substrate, as well as spatial and  
37 temporal information of a potential feeding or oviposition resource (De Moraes et al., 1998).

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38 Parasitoids exploit volatile semiochemicals from plants to find their insect host (Lewis & Martin,  
39 1990; Vet & Dicke, 1992). Indeed, the detection of specific compounds may be an essential pre-  
40 requisite for modulating host-searching behavioural responses, within the complexity of  
41 environmental and internal inputs (Anton et al., 2016).

42 A frugivorous species that gained worldwide notoriety for its negative impact on soft-skinned fruits is  
43 *Drosophila suzukii* (Diptera: Drosophilidae), also known as the spotted wing drosophila (SWD).  
44 Females use ripening berries and cherries as oviposition substrate, damaging the fruits close to  
45 their harvest (Walsh et al., 2011). The short time window between damage and consumption limits  
46 the use of insecticides for SWD control, highlighting the need for alternative management  
47 strategies. In the context of biological control and integrated pest management, the search for  
48 effective parasitic wasps against SWD received significant attention (Wang et al., 2020). Drosophilid  
49 parasitoids evaluated as SWD controllers have included larval parasitoids from the genera  
50 *Leptopilina* or *Ganaspis* (Hymenoptera: Figitidae), as well as pupal parasitoids from the genera  
51 *Trichopria* (Hymenoptera: Diapriidae) and *Pachycrepoideus* (Hymenoptera: Pteromalidae) (Rossi-  
52 Stacconi et al., 2015, Daane et al., 2016, Ibouh et al., 2019, Lee et al., 2019). SWD parasitoids  
53 need to find SWD-infested fruit and presumably exploit fruit volatiles as cues, a tritrophic interaction  
54 that is not well understood and may be key for successful biological control. The study of these  
55 interactions have included the behavioural assessment of wasps in olfactometer tests in response  
56 to natural volatile blends from infested fruit (Biondi et al., 2021; de la Vega et al., 2021; Wolf et al.,  
57 2020). Because these are complex and dynamic volatile blends, separating its components and  
58 evaluating their ecological significance may be useful to further characterize these interactions.

59 Coupled gas chromatography/electroantennographic detection (GC-EAD) is a widely used  
60 technique for identifying specific insect olfactory stimulants in complex volatile organic compound  
61 (VOC) blends. Briefly, the insect antenna acts as a selective biological detector in parallel with the  
62 output obtained from the normal GC detector, usually a flame ionization detector (FID) (Sullivan &  
63 Slone, 2007). Multiple studies have evaluated GC-EAD responses of braconid parasitoids of true  
64 fruit flies (Tephritidae) to host-related cues (Benelli et al., 2013; Ngumbi et al., 2009). To our  
65 knowledge, however, no previous studies using GC-EAD have been conducted with drosophilid  
66 parasitoids such as *Trichopria*, *Leptopilina* or *Ganaspis* species. Uncoupled electroantennogram  
67 (EAG) studies were conducted in *Leptopilina heterotoma* (Hymenoptera: Figitidae) (Vet et al.,  
68 1990), mostly focusing on the effect of wasp pre-exposition to host food odours on the wasp's EAG  
69 response.

70 Here we report the use of GC-EAD to investigate the antennal responses of *Leptopilina bouhardi*  
71 (Hymenoptera: Figitidae) and *Trichopria anastrephae* (Hymenoptera: Diapriidae) to VOCs from  
72 SWD infested strawberries. These two drosophilid parasitoids attack larvae and pupae, respectively,  
73 so we performed our experiments at five and ten days after SWD oviposition to account for the  
74 presence of larvae or pupae inside the fruit (Tochen et al., 2014).

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## 76 **Materials and Methods**

### 77 **Parasitoids**

78 Adult wasps of *T. anastrephae* and *L. bouhardi* were obtained from *Drosophila melanogaster* Meigen  
79 (Diptera: Drosophilidae) breeding tubes maintained on artificial diet (500 mL distilled water, 50 g  
80 glucose, 20 g bread yeast, 4 g agar, 40 g corn-flour, 1.5 mL propionic acid, 3.5 mL nipagin) and  
81 kept under incubator conditions ( $21.5 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $65 \pm 5\%$  relative humidity, 12:12 h photoperiod). Adult

82 wasps were kept with access to a diet based on distilled water and honey (50:50) for 5 to 10 days  
83 prior to their use in experiments.

#### 84 **SWD oviposition and VOC collection**

85 SWD oviposition and VOC collection were performed in incubators set at 60% HR, 14:10 h D:L  
86 photoperiod and temperatures of 15 °C in darkness and 23 °C during daylight. Single clone  
87 strawberry plants were grown in pots under greenhouse conditions and transported to the laboratory  
88 with ripening strawberries. Individual strawberries still attached to their plants were enclosed with  
89 three mated SWD females during 24 h for oviposition. Five and 10 days after SWD infestation  
90 strawberries were individually enclosed in polyester oven bags (20 x 15 cm) attached to the  
91 peduncle with a plastic seal. An activated carbon filter was attached to the oven bag for incoming  
92 air, and a folded acetate sheet was placed inside the bag and around the fruit to prevent the bag  
93 from collapsing due the pump suction. Air with the fruit VOCs passed through a glass Pasteur  
94 pipette with 60 mg of HayeSep Q as adsorbent material, then suctioned by a portable pump  
95 (Casella, Apex2) set at 0.3 L/min. Retained compounds were desorbed with 1 mL of hexane, then  
96 100 µL of a solution of n-tridecane was added as internal standard and the mixture concentrated to  
97 100 µL under N<sub>2</sub> for GC-MS and GC-EAD analyses. After the second VOC collection, 10 days after  
98 oviposition, SWD infestation was confirmed and quantified by carefully immersing and mashing the  
99 fruit in a saturated sugar solution, according to Dreves et al. (2014).

#### 100 **GC-EAD analysis**

101 Wasp antennae were removed with dissecting scissors, and the apical flagellomere and the scape  
102 were severed. The electric circuit consisted of two silver (Ag/AgCl) electrodes immersed in Beadle-  
103 Ephrussi Ringer solution (NaCl 128 mM, KCl 4,7 mM and CaCl<sub>2</sub>.2H<sub>2</sub>O 1,9 mM) inside  
104 microcapillaries; the signal electrode was pre-amplified in a Syntech combi-probe (10x) and further  
105 amplified by a Syntech amplifier (IDAC-2). The GC system was a Hewlett-Packard gas  
106 chromatograph (5890 series II) equipped with a DB-5 column (30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 mm, Alltech,  
107 USA) and a flame ionization detector (FID). A Syntech Stimulus Controller (Model CS-55) delivered  
108 humidified air to direct the volatiles eluted by from the GC towards the antennal preparation, with a  
109 continuous flow (1.05 L/min). FID and EAD signals were integrated using Syntech's GC-EAD  
110 software (v.2014).

111 At least 10 replicates of VOC collections were obtained and analyzed 5 and 10 days after SWD  
112 oviposition. Of these, five representative samples of each VOC collection time were mixed in order  
113 to use an homogenous stimulus blend for GC-EAD replicates. For each GC-EAD run, one microliter  
114 of the VOC blend solution was injected in splitless mode with H<sub>2</sub> as gas carrier (2 mL/min). The  
115 oven temperature started at 40 °C for 1 min, increased to 150 °C at a rate of 5 °C/min and to 250 °C  
116 at 10 °C/min (held for 1 min). Injector and detector temperature were kept at 250 °C, and the EAD  
117 interface temperature at 220 °C (Syntech TC-02). The column effluent was split with a 1:1 ratio  
118 inside the GC oven, using nitrogen (20 mL/min) as additional make-up gas before the column  
119 splitter. VOC extracts from each post-infestation time (5 and 10 days) were analyzed with 20  
120 independent antennae from each parasitoid species, using left and right antennae equally.

#### 121 **Chemical identification**

122 Compounds that elicited an antennal response were identified by gas chromatography-mass  
123 spectrometry (GC-MS) using the same chromatographic conditions as detailed above on a QP5050  
124 Shimadzu GC-MS equipment. Identification of the compounds was based on EI-MS fragmentation  
125 patterns using the NIST 17 database run on a GC-MS solution software (Version 4.45 SP1).

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## 127 **Results and Discussion**

128 The antennae of female *L. boulandi* and *T. anastrephae* showed clear and consistent EAD  
129 responses to three fruit volatiles emitted by SWD-infested strawberries. These were identified by  
130 GC-MS as ethyl butanoate, methyl butanoate and ethyl hexanoate (Figs. 1 and 2). These three  
131 compounds are common fruit esters frequently found during the ripening process of strawberry (Yan  
132 et al., 2018), and they are associated with ripening in several fruits. While they ubiquitous  
133 compounds, infestation by *D. suzukii* may accelerate the change in volatile profiles towards a riper  
134 blend, so the ability of parasitoids to sense these fruity esters suggests that the compounds act as  
135 general cues for suitable habitats to find their hosts.

136 Interestingly, the relative composition of the fruit blends changed from the main methyl ester five  
137 days after SWD oviposition, to the ethyl esters later in the experiment. The antennae of both *L.*  
138 *boulandi* and *T. anastrephae* showed responses to all three esters, indicating that they are capable  
139 of detecting volatile cues associated with the early stages of SWD larval development. Indeed, five  
140 days after SWD oviposition methyl hexanoate triggered an EAD response (Fig. 1). Later on, ten  
141 days after oviposition, the relative amounts of both ethyl esters increased, triggering EAD responses  
142 even more pronounced than the response to methyl hexanoate (Fig. 2). As a whole, our results  
143 show that both parasitoids are capable of detecting infested fruit at different times during host  
144 development, with implications for biological control potential.

145 Our study with *L. boulandi* and *T. anastrephae* female antennae represent the first GC-EAD  
146 approach to understanding which chemical stimuli, within a complex fruit VOC blend, are drosophilid  
147 parasitoids cueing on for finding their prey. The detection of ethyl butanoate, methyl hexanoate and  
148 ethyl hexanoate esters agree with similar approaches conducted with *D. suzukii* itself and other  
149 *Drosophila* species (Stensmyr et al., 2003; Keeseey et al., 2015; Revadi et al., 2015). In this sense,  
150 natural enemies exploit plant-related chemical cues similar to those used by herbivorous host  
151 species, due to the evolutionary closeness of the trophic interaction (Đurović et al., 2021, Yang et  
152 al., 2022).

153 Among the multiple approaches investigated for SWD management, biological control with  
154 parasitoids has been extensively studied and it has consolidated in recent years (Lee et al., 2019).  
155 In fact, inundative biological control is currently applied against *D. suzukii* in Europe, where  
156 *Trichopria drosophilae* (Hymenoptera: Diapriidae) is the most promising and commercially available  
157 biocontroler (Gonzalez-Cabrera et al., 2019; Rossi-Stacconi et al., 2018). In the United States, as a  
158 result of quarantine studies in Switzerland and California (US), and given the specificity shown by  
159 the *Ganaspis brasiliensis* (Hymenoptera: Figitidae) groups, a petition submitted to USDA-APHIS  
160 was approved for the release of *G. brasiliensis* G1 group (Beers et al., 2022). *Trichopria*  
161 *anastrephae* has been proposed in Brazil as useful in greenhouses (Vieira et al., 2020). Finally,  
162 larval parasitoids such as *Leptopilina* spp., which did not perform well in *D. suzukii*, can still reduce  
163 the hatching of adults and thus contribute to its mitigation (Knoll et al., 2017).

164 Beyond behavioural and performance studies, there is scant information regarding chemical stimuli  
165 used by drosophilid parasitoids. Most *Drosophila* species are not of agronomic concern, possibly  
166 explaining the somewhat delayed research on the sensory ecology of their parasitoids. The recent  
167 irruption of *D. suzukii* has placed them on the spotlight, and studies from different angles of  
168 parasitoid biology and ecology have become more common and will continue to grow, in view of  
169 developing efficient biological control tools. Foraging behaviour largely defines the beneficial impact

170 of natural enemies, and their applicability should be evaluated in a tritrophic context. Techniques  
171 such as EAG and/or GC-EAD identify which semiochemicals modulate and establish tritrophic  
172 systems in nature. In a broader view, semiochemicals may enhance parasitoid attraction through  
173 odours to preserve their presence in the agroecosystem, or they can be used to train generalist  
174 wasps and thus optimize the encounter of hosts. Conversely, identifying non-detected  
175 semiochemicals may contribute to selecting volatiles for trapping systems, without affecting the  
176 parasitoid populations.

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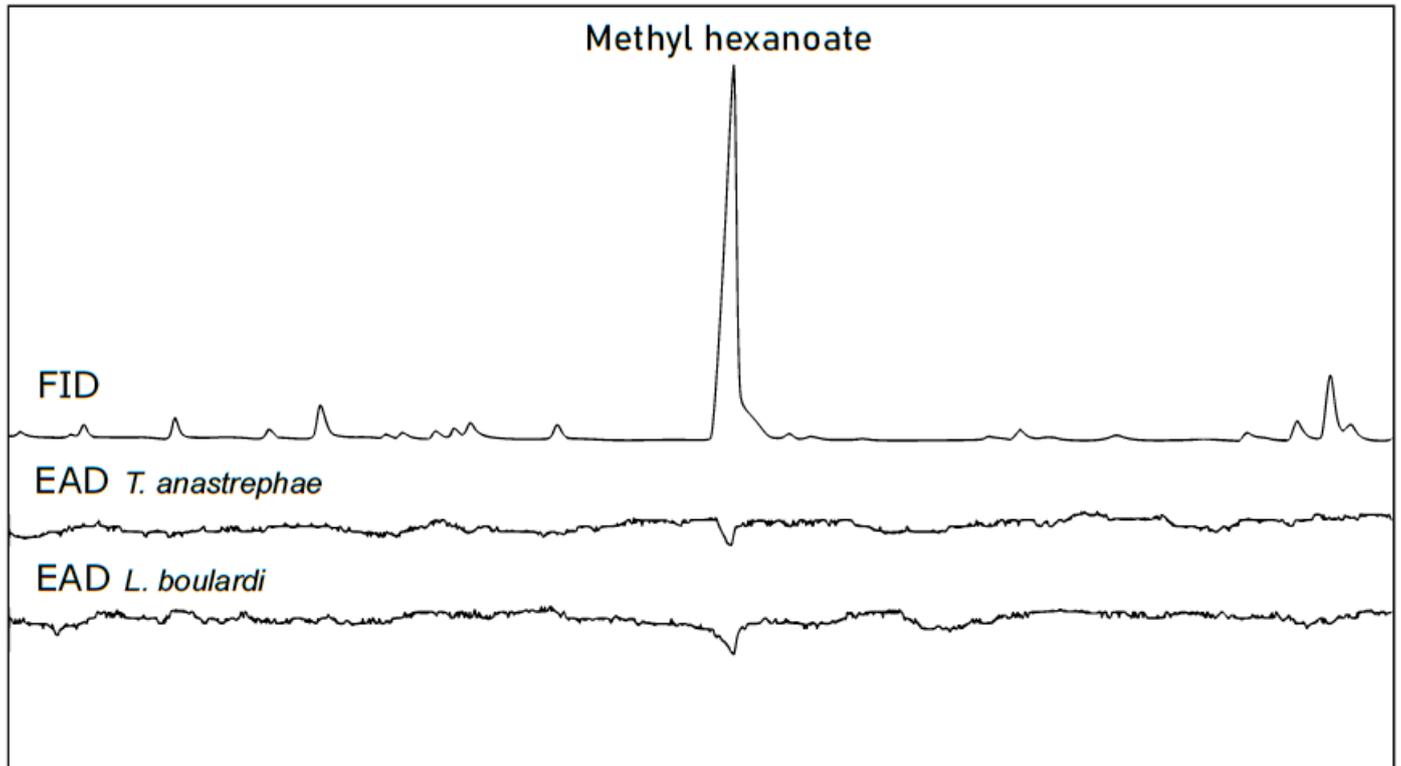


Figure 1. Antennal response of *T. anastrephae* and *L. boulardi* female wasps to VOCs of *D. suzukii*-infested strawberries five days post-infestation. First trace corresponds to FID signal and the following to *T. anastrephae* and *L. boulardi*, respectively. The main compound detected was identified by GC-MS as methyl hexanoate.

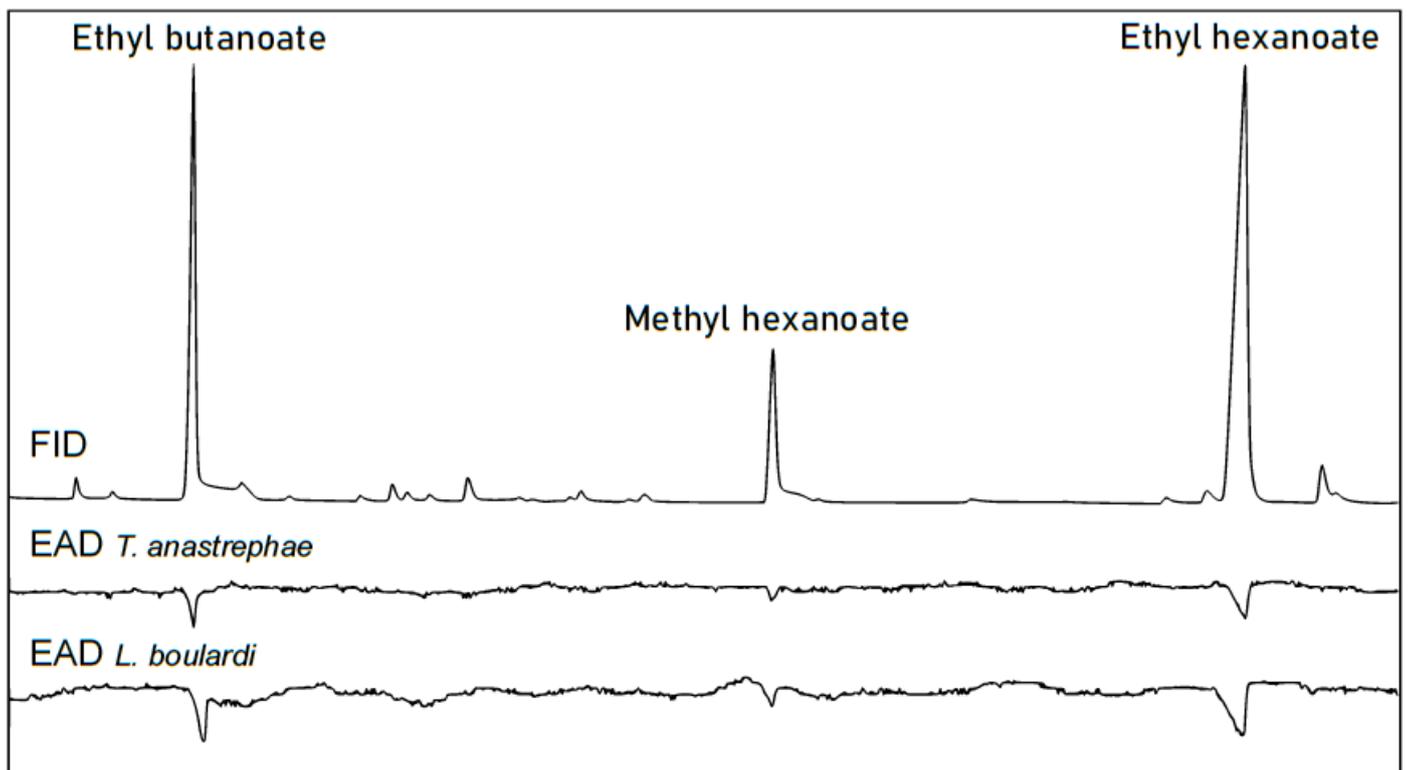


Figure 2. Antennal response of *T. anastrephae* and *L. boulardi* female wasps to VOCs of *D. suzukii*-infested strawberries ten days post-infestation. First trace corresponds to FID signal and the following to *T. anastrephae* and *L. boulardi*, respectively. The major compounds detected were identified by GC-MS as ethyl butanoate, methyl hexanoate and ethyl hexanoate (RT= 3.77, 6.28 y 8.32 min).