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5 **Plant Domestication Alters the Nutritional Content of**
6 **Guttation Droplets with Multi-trophic Consequences**

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35

36 **Abstract**

37 Domestication often alters plant traits, leading to cascading effects on ecological
38 interactions, particularly in tri-trophic relationships among plants, herbivores, and their
39 natural enemies. While recent studies have investigated the influence of domestication on
40 plant-derived food sources, its effect on guttation—a nutrient-rich exudate produced by
41 many plants—remains unexplored. In this study, we examined the effects of guttation
42 droplets from wild and cultivated highbush blueberries on the fitness (longevity and
43 fecundity) and feeding preferences of three insect species from different trophic guilds:
44 an herbivore (*Drosophila suzukii*), a parasitoid (*Trichopria drosophilae*), and a predator
45 (*Chrysoperla carnea*). Additionally, we analyzed and compared the size and nutritional
46 composition—specifically, total sugar and protein content—of guttation droplets between
47 wild and cultivated blueberry plants. Our results indicated that guttation from wild plants
48 enhanced the longevity of all three insect species, often surpassing that of cultivated
49 plants and diets containing only sugar or sugar plus protein. In choice assays, all three
50 insect species consistently preferred guttation from wild plants over that from cultivated
51 ones. Although the guttation droplets from cultivated plants were larger, those from wild
52 plants contained higher concentrations of sugars (six times more) and proteins (five times
53 more), which likely contributed to the insects' enhanced fitness and preference for wild
54 plant guttation. These findings indicate that domestication has reduced the ecological
55 functionality of guttation in blueberries by potentially influencing tri-trophic interactions.
56 Understanding how domestication affects plant-derived food sources like guttation could
57 have important implications for the conservation of natural enemies in agricultural
58 landscapes.

59

60 **Keywords** Highbush blueberry · *Drosophila suzukii* · *Trichopria drosophilae* ·

61 *Chrysoperla carnea* · nutrients

62

63

64 **Introduction**

65 Domestication—the process by which humans selectively breed and cultivate plants for
66 agriculture—alters the traits of many crop species. Through this process, wild progenitors
67 are transformed into cultivated crops with desirable traits such as increased yield,
68 improved taste, and enhanced resilience to environmental stress (Gasparini et al. 2021;
69 Krug et al. 2023). However, domestication also induces significant changes in plant
70 physiology, nutritional composition, and defense mechanisms, which can affect
71 interactions between domesticated plants and their surrounding environment, including
72 herbivorous insects (Chen et al. 2015). Research generally shows that domesticated plants
73 have lower defenses, often resulting in increased herbivore performance (Whitehead et
74 al. 2017; Fernandez et al. 2021).

75 The ecological effects of domestication extend beyond plant-herbivore
76 interactions, influencing higher trophic levels, including the natural enemies of herbivores
77 (Benrey 2023). For instance, domestication can modify volatile emissions from
78 herbivore-damaged plants, which serve as cues that natural enemies use to locate their
79 prey or hosts (Gish et al. 2015; Rowen and Kaplan 2016; Tamiru et al. 2017).
80 Additionally, natural enemies depend on various plant-derived food sources such as
81 nectar, extra-floral nectar, honeydew, pollen and other resources to meet their energy
82 requirements (Wäckers et al. 2005; Wyckhuys et al. 2008; Tena et al. 2016; Heil 2015).
83 Recent studies suggest that domestication can alter the chemical composition of these
84 food sources, potentially leading to significant ecological consequences (Glasser et al.
85 2023). For example, domestication has modified the chemical composition of nectar and
86 pollen in highbush blueberry (*Vaccinium corymbosum* L.), while reducing pollen
87 chemical diversity in cultivated plants (Egan et al. 2018). These changes may negatively

88 impact pollinator health (Egan et al. 2018) and potentially diminish the fitness of
89 herbivores' natural enemies.

90 Among plant-derived food sources, guttation—a process through which plants
91 exude droplets of xylem and phloem sap from the edges of their leaves—has traditionally
92 been associated with primary metabolism, particularly in regulating water balance (Singh
93 2016). However, recent evidence suggests that guttation fluid is often rich in nutrients
94 such as sugars and proteins (Singh 2020), and can play an important role in mediating
95 insect–plant interactions (Singh 2016; Urbaneja-Bernat et al. 2024). For instance, a recent
96 study in highbush blueberry revealed that guttation represents a reliable and nutrient-rich
97 food resource that enhances the fitness of various insect species, including herbivores and
98 their natural enemies (Urbaneja-Bernat et al. 2020a). However, whether domestication
99 has impacted the chemical composition of guttation, and the tri-trophic interactions
100 mediated by guttation, remains unknown.

101 Highbush blueberry, a perennial crop native to the Northeastern United States and
102 Canada, has a relatively short history of domestication. It was first domesticated just over
103 a century ago in New Jersey (USA), where wild and cultivated blueberries often grow
104 near each other (McCormick 1979). This domestication event led to the development of
105 modern blueberry cultivars with improved berry size and quality, higher plant vigor, and
106 greater yields compared to their wild counterparts (Moore 1965; Wang 2024). Research
107 has shown that the invasive pest *Drosophila suzukii* (Matsumura) (Diptera:
108 Drosophilidae), commonly known as spotted-wing drosophila, performs better on
109 cultivated than wild blueberry fruits (Rodriguez-Saona et al. 2019). This increased
110 performance correlates with larger fruit size, lower phenolic content, and reduced acidity.
111 Interestingly, *D. suzukii* is more attracted to volatiles emitted from wild fruits (Urbaneja-
112 Bernat et al. 2021). These findings demonstrate that domestication has altered the

113 physical and chemical traits of blueberry fruits, influencing their interactions with a
114 frugivorous insect. While our understanding of how blueberry domestication influences
115 insect–plant interactions is growing, the extent to which domestication affects plant traits
116 beyond fruit characteristics—such as guttation—and the resulting cascading effects on
117 herbivores and their natural enemies remains poorly understood.

118 Given the importance of plant-derived food sources in sustaining insect
119 communities and mediating ecological interactions, it is crucial to understand how
120 domestication has influenced these resources and their consequences on tri-trophic
121 interactions. To address this gap, we hypothesize that domestication has reduced the
122 nutritional content of guttation in blueberries compared to their wild relatives, thereby
123 altering the fitness and preferences of *D. suzukii* and its natural enemies. To test this
124 hypothesis, we conducted a series of laboratory studies with the following specific
125 objectives: (1) to investigate the impact of guttation from wild and cultivated blueberries
126 on the fitness—measured by longevity and fecundity—of insect species representing
127 three feeding guilds: a herbivore (*D. suzukii*), a parasitic wasp [*Trichopria drosophilae*
128 (Perkins) (Hymenoptera: Diapriidae)], and a predator [*Chrysoperla carnea* (Stephens)
129 (Neuroptera: Chrysopidae)]; (2) to determine the preference of these insects for guttation
130 fluid from wild versus cultivated blueberries through behavioral choice assays; and (3) to
131 analyze and compare the nutritional composition—sugar and protein content—of
132 guttation fluids from wild and cultivated blueberries to identify factors contributing to
133 observed differences in insect fitness and preference. Through this research, we aim to
134 understand how domestication influences the ecological role of plant-derived food
135 sources, such as guttation, in agricultural crops.

136

137 **Material and Methods**

138 **Plant Material**

139 Experiments were conducted using two types of blueberry plants: cultivated highbush
140 blueberry (*V. corymbosum* cv. ‘Bluecrop’) and wild tetraploid blueberries. Both plant
141 types shared the same ploidy level. Plant material was collected in 2020 and 2021 by
142 propagating cultivated highbush blueberry bushes collected from a field at the P.E.
143 Marucci Center (Chatsworth, Burlington County, New Jersey, USA) and wild blueberry
144 bushes collected from the understory of an adjacent forest dominated by pitch pine (*Pinus*
145 *rigida* Mill.). The cuttings of the blueberry plants were collected from 4–5 individual
146 bushes within the local population. The propagated plants were used for both ‘cultivated’
147 and ‘wild’ blueberry treatments. Propagation involved taking approximately 10 cm stem
148 cuttings from the mother plants, which were initially planted in 7.6 L (2-gallon) pots filled
149 with a peat and perlite mix (ProMix BX, Quakertown, PA, USA). After rooting, which
150 took about a year, the cuttings were transferred individually to 10.2 cm (4-inch) pots.
151 They were later repotted into 3.8 L (1-gallon) pots containing a 50:50 mix of sand and
152 peat (Premier Pro-Moss, Red Hill, PA, USA; pH = 4–5). All plants were grown in a
153 greenhouse under controlled conditions ($20 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$, $70 \pm 10\%$ RH), fertilized twice per
154 week with a granular N:P:K (10:10:10) fertilizer, and irrigated three times per week. At
155 the time of the experiments, the plants were 2-3 years old.

156

157 **Guttation Sampling and Storage**

158 We manually collected guttation droplets from approximately 40 greenhouse-grown
159 blueberry plants per group (wild and cultivated) between March and June of 2022 and
160 2023. Groups of approximately five drops were removed from the leaves by gently
161 touching them with a 1×1 cm piece of Parafilm[®] (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA),
162 allowing the drops to adhere to the film. The Parafilm[®] pieces were then stored at -70°C

163 in Petri dishes, labeled by date, until used in experiments. In total, we collected
164 approximately 1,000 guttation droplets across 200 Parafilm[®] pieces.

165 Additionally, we estimated the amount of guttation provided to insects in the
166 fitness and preference experiments (see below) to ensure all insects received similar
167 quantities. The volume of each droplet was estimated using the formula $(4/3 \times \pi \times r^3) \times$
168 $1/2$, where r is the droplet's radius. Based on this calculation, the total daily amount of
169 guttation offered to insects per Parafilm[®] piece (1 cm²)—equivalent to approximately
170 three guttation droplets for cultivated plants and 15 droplets for wild plants—was
171 estimated to be $\sim 0.75 \pm 0.005$ μl , providing an *ad libitum* diet for all three insect taxa
172 studied. All samples were shipped overnight on dry ice to IRTA, Sustainable Plant
173 Protection Program in Cabrils (Barcelona), Spain, where bioassays were performed and
174 to the Universitat de València, Valencia, Spain for chemical analyses.

175

176 **Insects**

177 For the experiments, we used insect species from three distinct taxa commonly found in
178 blueberry fields: the herbivore *D. suzukii*; its proovigenic pupal parasitoid, *T. drosophilae*
179 (, which shows promise as a biological control agent for *D. suzukii* in Europe (Wolf et al.
180 2020); and a generalist predator, the common green lacewing *C. carnea* (, which preys
181 on eggs and first instar larvae of *D. suzukii*, particularly when these stages are not fully
182 enclosed within the fruit (Bonneau et al. 2019; Englert and Herz 2019).

183 *Drosophila suzukii* adults were obtained from a laboratory colony, established in
184 2021 from wild specimens captured in Maresme County (Catalonia, Spain), and
185 maintained at IRTA (Cabrils, Barcelona, Spain). The colony was reared on a standard
186 *Drosophila* artificial diet (Jaramillo et al. 2015) in plastic cups (350 cm³, 50 mm diameter,

187 60 mm height) covered with fine mesh secured by a rubber band to allow ventilation, with
188 approximately 25 mL of diet per cup.

189 *Trichopria drosophilae* (TRICHOPRIA[®]) and *C. carnea* (CrisoPack[®]) were
190 sourced from a commercial supplier (Bioplanet Ibérica S.L, Almeria, Spain). Bottles
191 containing approximately 500 *D. suzukii* pupae parasitized by *T. drosophilae* and frames
192 containing approximately 500 *C. carnea* pupae were placed in separate 25 × 25 × 25 cm
193 methacrylate rearing cages until adult emergence. Emerged adults were provided with
194 wet cotton wool as a water source. All insects were maintained under controlled
195 conditions at 25 ± 1°C, 60 ± 5% RH, and a 16:8 h light-dark photoperiod.

196

197 **Effects of Guttation on Insect Fitness**

198 We followed the methods described by Urbaneja-Bernat et al. (2020a) to evaluate the
199 effect of guttation on the longevity and fecundity of *D. suzukii*, *T. drosophilae*, and *C.*
200 *carnea*. To assess longevity, newly emerged adults were isolated in 2 mL glass vials and
201 provided with one of five diets: (1) water droplets, (2) 1 M sugar droplets, (3) 1 M sucrose
202 + protein (5 mg/ml yeast extract) droplets, (4) wild guttation droplets, and (5) cultivated
203 guttation droplets. Since guttation droplets contain sugars and proteins (Urbaneja-Bernat
204 et al. 2020a), artificial sugar and protein diets were included as positive nutritional
205 controls to assess the general capacity of carbohydrate- and protein-rich food sources to
206 support insect performance. These diets were selected based on the concentrations used
207 in Benelli et al. (2017) and Urbaneja-Bernat et al. (2020a). Food sources were provided
208 on Parafilm[®] pieces and replenished daily. Each Parafilm[®] piece containing the food
209 treatment was gently folded and inserted at the bottom of the glass vial, ensuring that the
210 food source was accessible to the insects. The insects were able to feed directly from the

211 droplets adhered to the surface of the Parafilm®. Insect survival was monitored daily until
212 death, with 25 replicates per species, sex, and diet.

213 To assess fecundity, approximately 75 newly-emerged adults (2:1 female:male)
214 of each insect species were placed in transparent cylindrical polypropylene cups (946 mL)
215 and provided with one of five diets *ad libitum* for 24 hours to ensure mating. Following
216 this period, 15 females from each species and dietary group were euthanized and frozen
217 at -20°C (designated as day 1). An additional 30 females per species and diet were
218 individually placed in 25 mL glass vials (designated as day 3-, and 7), where they
219 continued to receive their respective diets *ad libitum*. This setup allowed for egg load
220 assessments at four distinct time points: newly emerged, and at 1-, 3-, and 7-days old. To
221 count mature eggs, frozen females were placed on a microscope slide with a drop of water
222 and gently covered with a coverslip. Light pressure was applied to the thorax using fine
223 entomological pins to expose the ovaries, which were then extruded from the posterior
224 abdomen. The number of mature eggs visible within the ovaries was recorded using a
225 stereomicroscope (Leica MZ16; Leica Microsystems Inc., Buffalo Grove, IL, USA).

226

227 **Effects of Guttation on Insect Preference**

228 Two-choice bioassays were conducted to test whether newly emerged *D. sukukii*, *T.*
229 *drosophilae*, and *C. carnea* females preferred guttation droplets from wild or cultivated
230 blueberry plants. The bioassays were performed in a 250-mm diameter glass Petri dish
231 arena (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), where the insects were given the following
232 choices: (1) guttation droplets from wild *vs.* cultivated blueberry plants, (2) wild plant
233 guttation droplets *vs.* water droplets, (3) wild plant guttation droplets *vs.* sucrose + protein
234 solution, (4) cultivated plant guttation droplets *vs.* water droplets, and (5) cultivated plant
235 guttation droplets *vs.* sucrose + protein solution. The droplets were randomly placed on

236 opposite sides of the Petri dish, approximately 12.5 cm apart, on Parafilm[®] pieces using
237 the same method as in the fitness experiments described above.

238 A single female *D. sukuzii*, *T. drosophilae*, or *C. carnea* was introduced into the
239 center of the arena, which was then covered with the lid. A choice was recorded when the
240 insect fed on one of the droplets for at least 5 seconds. Each individual was used only
241 once, and non-responders (those that did not make a choice) were excluded from data
242 analysis. Each observation lasted 10 minutes per individual, with the experiment
243 replicated 30 times for each choice.

244

245 **Guttation Size and Nutritional Composition**

246 To measure the diameter of guttation droplets from wild and cultivated plants, droplets
247 were photographed with a digital color camera (Leica DFC500; Leica Microsystems Inc.,
248 Buffalo Grove, IL, USA) mounted on a stereomicroscope (Leica MZ16). The diameter of
249 each droplet ($N = \sim 500$ per droplet type) was measured from the images using ImageJ, a
250 public domain Java-based image processing program (ImageJ: <http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij>).
251 Droplet volumes were calculated using the same procedure described above for
252 measuring the daily guttation available to insects.

253 The concentrations of total sugars and proteins in the guttation samples from both
254 wild and cultivated blueberry plants were measured following methods described by
255 Urbaneja-Bernat et al. (2020a). The overall sugar concentration in the guttation droplets
256 was determined using a modified quantitative anthrone assay (Morse 1947). The same
257 collection method for guttation droplets, as described above, was followed for this assay.
258 To analyze the sugar content, three samples from both cultivated and wild blueberry
259 plants were processed by adding 150 μ l of phosphate-buffered saline (8 mM Na₂HPO₄, 2

260 mM KH₂PO₄, and 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4) to each sample to dilute the guttation droplets.
261 Further dilutions were made if necessary, depending on the sugar concentrations.

262 Ten microliters of each diluted sample were placed in a 96-well plate and mixed
263 with 90 µl of anthrone reagent (1.5 mg/ml in 95% sulfuric acid). The plate was stirred for
264 10 seconds and then incubated for 2 hours at 65°C (hot anthrone test). After incubation,
265 the absorbance at 620 nm was measured using a 96-well plate reader (Tecan Infinite
266 M200Pro; Tecan Austria GmbH, Grödig, Austria). The total sugar concentration was
267 estimated using known concentrations of glucose as standards.

268 Protein quantification in the same three guttation samples was performed using
269 fluorimetry with a Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (Thermo Fisher, Hercules, CA, USA). One
270 microliter of each sample was analyzed using the Qubit Protein Assay Kit (Thermo
271 Fisher, Hercules, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions.

272

273 **Statistical Analyses**

274 Kaplan–Meier survival analysis, followed by a log-rank test of equality, was used to
275 assess differences in survival curves across the five diets for each insect species, with
276 separate analyses conducted for each sex. To analyze differences in the number of mature
277 eggs among diets for each insect species at different time points (1-, 3-, and 7-days post-
278 emergence), we employed generalized linear models (GLM) with a Poisson distribution
279 and log link function. A goodness-of-fit test was performed to confirm the suitability of
280 the models. Significant GLM results were followed by Bonferroni pairwise tests.
281 Behavioral bioassay choice test data, and size (diameter and volume) and nutritional
282 composition (sugars and proteins) of plant guttation were analyzed using Student's *t*-tests.
283 All statistical analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 23.0 (IBM Inc.,
284 Armonk, NY, USA).

285

286 **Results**

287 **Effects of Guttation on Insect Fitness**

288 The longevity of adult males of *D. sukukii*, *T. drosophilidae*, and *C. carnea* was enhanced
289 when fed on wild and cultivated plant guttation or a sugar-only diet compared to diets of
290 sugar plus protein or water only (Fig. 1a,c,e). Additionally, the longevity of females from
291 all three different taxa was the highest when they fed on wild plant guttation, followed by
292 cultivated plant guttation and a sugar-only diet, with the sugar plus protein diet resulting
293 in lower longevity (Fig. 1b,d,f). The water-only diet led to the shortest lifespan.

294 In general, mated females of *D. sukukii* and *C. carnea* had a higher egg load when
295 given a diet of wild and cultivated plant guttation or the sugar plus protein diet, compared
296 to sugar-only, protein-only, or water-only diets at 1-, 3-, and 7-days post-emergence (Fig.
297 2a,c). For *T. drosophilidae*, females fed on wild and cultivated plant guttation matured
298 their eggs faster within 1-day post-emergence than when fed on other diets (Fig. 2b). By
299 3-days after emergence, egg load in all diet treatments were higher than in the water-only
300 group, and no significant differences in egg load were observed among the different food
301 sources when insects were 7 days old (Fig. 2b).

302

303 **Effects of Guttation on Insect Preference**

304 Choice tests demonstrated that adult *D. sukukii*, *T. drosophilidae*, and *C. carnea*
305 consistently preferred feeding on wild plant guttation over cultivated plant guttation or
306 any other tested diets (Fig. 3). Moreover, cultivated plant guttation was favored over
307 water by all three taxa, and was preferred over the sugar-plus-protein diet by *T.*
308 *drosophilidae* (Fig. 3b), though not by *D. sukukii* (Fig. 3a) or *C. carnea* (Fig. 3c).

309

310 **Guttation Size and Nutritional Composition**

311 Guttation droplets produced by cultivated plants were significantly larger than those from
312 wild plants, both in diameter ($t = 10.69$, $df = 357$, $P < 0.001$) and volume ($t = 10.69$, $df =$
313 357 , $P < 0.001$) (Fig. 4a,b).

314 Chemical analyses showed that total sugar concentration in guttation from wild
315 plants was approximately six times higher than in cultivated plants ($t = 3.32$, $df = 4$, $P =$
316 0.029) (Fig. 4c). Similarly, protein concentrations were estimated to be five times higher
317 in guttation droplets from wild plants compared to those from cultivated plants ($t = 4.38$,
318 $df = 4$, $P = 0.012$) (Fig. 4d).

319

320 **Discussion**

321 Domestication is widely recognized as a key driver of changes in plant traits (Gasparini
322 et al. 2021; Krug et al. 2023). It is also well-established that domestication can alter
323 plant chemistry, thereby influencing interactions among plants, herbivores, and their
324 natural enemies (Chen et al. 2015; Benrey 2023). Our study provides new evidence that
325 insects from three feeding guilds—the herbivore *D. suzukii*, the parasitoid *T.*
326 *drosophilae*, and the predator *C. carnea*—exhibited improved fitness, measured by
327 greater adult longevity (Fig. 1), when fed guttation droplets from wild blueberry plants
328 compared to those from cultivated varieties. Furthermore, when given a choice, all three
329 species preferred to feed on guttation from wild plants. This fitness–preference
330 relationship was associated with the higher sugar and protein content found in the
331 guttation of wild blueberries. These findings align with broader trends observed in other
332 plant-derived food sources, such as nectar and pollen, where domesticated crops often
333 exhibit altered nutritional profiles—sometimes to the detriment of beneficial insects like
334 pollinators (Egan et al. 2018).

335 Guttation from both wild and cultivated blueberry plants enhanced the longevity
336 of *D. suzukii*, *T. drosophilae*, and *C. carnea* adults, performing comparably to a sugar-
337 only diet and surpassing the benefits of a sugar-plus-protein diet. These results suggest
338 that while sugar is essential for insect survival, the artificial protein source (yeast extract)
339 was less beneficial than the natural protein present in guttation droplets. Furthermore, the
340 fecundity of all three insect species increased when fed guttation or a sugar-plus-protein
341 diet, indicating that protein is essential for egg production. Although artificial diets served
342 as positive nutritional controls and were not designed to replicate the exact composition
343 of guttation, the fact that wild guttation performed as well as—or in some cases better
344 than—these controls highlights its value as a naturally occurring, high-quality food
345 source. These findings build upon those of Urbaneja-Bernat et al. (2020a), who reported
346 that *D. suzukii*, the parasitoid *Aphidius ervi* Haliday, and the generalist predator
347 *Chrysoperla rufilabris* (Burmeister) exhibited enhanced fitness when fed guttation from
348 cultivated blueberries. As guttation is secreted from leaves throughout the growing season
349 (Urbaneja-Bernat et al. 2020a), it may provide a more consistent food resource for insects
350 in natural habitats than pollen or floral and extrafloral nectar.

351 Natural habitats surrounding agricultural farms often serve as refuges and
352 overwintering sites for insects, offering protection from both biotic and abiotic stressors,
353 such as pesticide exposure (Rusch et al. 2010; Clem and Harmon-Threatt 2021). These
354 habitats also contain wild plants that can provide shelter and alternative food sources for
355 insects (Tschardt et al. 2007; Gardiner et al. 2009; Chaplin-Kramer et al. 2013; Redlich
356 et al. 2018; Feit et al. 2021). For instance, non-crop habitats near farms are a source of *D.*
357 *suzukii* adults, which migrate into crops during the growing season (Urbaneja-Bernat et
358 al. 2020b; Buck et al. 2023). They also provide essential food sources for beneficial
359 insects, such as pollen and extrafloral and floral nectar (Wäckers et al. 2007). This study

360 provides further evidence that these natural habitats may also supply guttation from wild
361 plants, such as wild blueberries, which benefit insects.

362 Interestingly, our study demonstrates that guttation benefits both herbivores and
363 their natural enemies. Wild blueberries have been shown to serve as reservoirs for *D.*
364 *suzukii* during fruit ripening, acting as potential sources of infestation for nearby highbush
365 blueberry fields (Urbaneja-Bernat et al. 2020b). Additionally, Urbaneja-Bernat et al.
366 (2021) reported that blueberry domestication reduces fruit volatile emissions, which in
367 turn diminishes *D. suzukii* attraction to cultivated fruits relative to wild ones. Despite
368 these lower volatile emissions, domesticated blueberries are more susceptible to *D.*
369 *suzukii* infestation (Rodriguez-Saona et al. 2019). The present study extends these
370 findings by showing that domestication has also shaped tri-trophic interactions. Natural
371 enemies of herbivores, such as those targeting *D. suzukii*, benefit from feeding on
372 guttation from wild blueberries. In fact, a previous field study (Urbaneja-Bernat et al.
373 2020a) found that plants producing guttation droplets attracted significantly more
374 parasitoids and predators than herbivores, suggesting that the net ecological effect of
375 guttation may favor biological control. This suggests that non-crop habitats containing
376 wild blueberries may enhance biological control and help mitigate pest pressure in
377 adjacent cultivated fields.

378 Our study demonstrates that domestication influences both the quantity (i.e., size)
379 and quality (i.e., nutrient content) of plant guttation. Cultivated blueberry plants produce
380 larger guttation droplets than their wild counterparts, potentially providing greater
381 resource availability for insects in the field. However, this increase in droplet size is
382 accompanied by a reduction in nutritional quality, with guttation from cultivated plants
383 exhibiting lower content of sugars and proteins compared to those from wild plants. This
384 suggests that insects may need to spend more time feeding on guttation from cultivated

385 plants to obtain the same amount of nutrients as they would from wild plants. A similar
386 domestication syndrome was reported by Rodriguez-Saona et al. (2019), where cultivated
387 blueberry bushes produce significantly larger fruits compared to wild bushes, resulting in
388 lower sugar and phenolic content per unit of weight.

389 The sugar concentration in guttation from wild blueberry plants (Fig. 4c) falls
390 within the lower range of values reported for floral nectar, which typically contains 10–
391 50% sugar by weight, depending on plant species and ecological context (Wäckers et al.
392 2007; Nicolson and Thornburg 2007). Sugars serve as rapidly metabolized energy sources
393 and are essential for daily activity and metabolic maintenance in insects (Wäckers et al.
394 2005). They are especially critical for flight in insects with high wing-beat frequencies,
395 such as members of the Diptera and Hymenoptera (Behmer 2009). These insects rely on
396 the rapid oxidation of sugars to power their flight muscles (Wäckers et al. 2008), which
397 likely explains the greater longevity and strong feeding preference exhibited by *D.*
398 *suzukii*, *T. drosophila*, and *C. carnea* when offered guttation from wild plants, which
399 had higher sugar content than cultivated counterparts. This reliance on sugar-rich food
400 highlights the ecological importance of wild plants in sustaining insect populations and
401 supporting tri-trophic interactions in agroecosystems.

402 We also found that protein content was significantly higher in guttation droplets
403 from wild blueberry plants compared to those from cultivated ones (Fig. 4d). Protein
404 levels in wild guttation exceeded those typically found in floral nectar, which often
405 contains negligible or trace amounts of amino acids (Heil 2011; Nepi et al. 2018).
406 Although protein-rich diets are known to support insect growth and reproduction under
407 certain conditions (Maklakov et al. 2008; Behmer 2009; Benelli et al. 2017; Espinosa et
408 al. 2021), the elevated protein content in wild guttation did not lead to increased egg
409 production in our study. Egg load measurements revealed no significant differences

410 between insects fed on wild or cultivated guttation and those provided with an artificial
411 sugar-plus-protein diet. This suggests that, although wild guttation contained more
412 protein, both guttation types likely provided sufficient protein to support reproductive
413 output under laboratory conditions. Nevertheless, the higher protein content in wild
414 guttation may offer advantages in more nutritionally variable or stressful field
415 environments.

416 In conclusion, our study demonstrates that blueberry domestication has notable
417 ecological consequences by altering the chemical composition of plant guttation.
418 Guttation from wild blueberries—rich in both sugars and proteins—more effectively
419 supports the longevity and feeding preference of an herbivore, a predator, and a parasitoid
420 compared to guttation from cultivated plants and artificial diets. These findings
421 underscore the complex effects of domestication: while reduced volatile emissions in
422 cultivated blueberries may decrease pest attraction, increased susceptibility to *D. suzukii*
423 and the reduced nutritional quality of guttation for natural enemies could present
424 challenges for pest management. In contrast, wild blueberries in non-crop habitats may
425 help sustain populations of beneficial insects, potentially enhancing biological control in
426 adjacent fields. However, because the more nutritious guttation from wild plants also
427 benefits *D. suzukii*, further research is needed to understand how domestication-driven
428 changes in guttation influence the balance between herbivores and their natural enemies,
429 and ultimately, the efficacy of biological control in agroecosystems.

430

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434

435 **Author Contributions** PU-B and CR-S contributed to the study conception and design.
436 PU-B conducted all insect bioassays and measured guttation size. PS-M collected
437 guttation droplets. JG-C measured sugar and protein content. Data collection and analyses
438 were performed by PU-B. The first draft of the manuscript was written by PU-B with
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440

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443

444 **Data Availability** All relevant material was included in the manuscript.

445

446 **Code Availability** Not applicable.

447

448 **Declarations**

449 **Ethics approval and consent to participate** Not applicable.

450

451 **Consent to Participate** Not applicable.

452

453 **Consent for Publication** All authors agreed to submission of final manuscript.

454

455 **Conflicts of Interest/Competing Interests** The authors declare that they have no conflict
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457 **References**

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602 **Figure Captions**

603 **Figure 1.** Survival curves for the spotted-wing drosophila *Drosophila suzukii* (a,b),
604 *Trichopria drosophilae* (c,d), and *Chrysoperla carnea* (e,f) females and males fed on five
605 different diets: wild guttation droplets, cultivated guttation droplets, sugar only, sugar
606 plus protein, and water. Different letters indicate significant differences among diet
607 treatments according to log-rank test of equality. $N = 25$ per species, sex, and diet.

608

609 **Figure 2.** Egg load (mean number of eggs \pm SE) of *Drosophila suzukii* (a), *Trichopria*
610 *drosophilae* (b), and *Chrysoperla carnea* (c) fed on five different diets: wild guttation
611 droplets, cultivated guttation droplets, sugar only, sugar plus protein, and water. Counts
612 were taken 1-, 3-, and 7-days after adult emergence. Different letters indicate significant
613 differences among diet treatments according to the Bonferroni pairwise tests. $N = 15$
614 females from each species and dietary group.

615

616 **Figure 3.** Percent response (mean \pm SE) of *Drosophila suzukii*, *Trichopria drosophilae*,
617 and *Chrysoperla carnea* females to four different diets: wild guttation droplets, cultivated
618 guttation droplets, sugar plus protein, and water. Asterisks indicate significant differences
619 between diet choices based on t -test. Each bar represents the mean of 30 replicates, with
620 one female from each insect species tested per replicate.

621

622 **Figure 4.** Mean (\pm SE) for the diameter (a), volume (b), sugar content (c), and protein
623 content (d) of guttation droplets from wild and cultivated plants. Asterisks indicate
624 significant differences between wild and cultivated plants based on t -tests. For (a) and
625 (b), $N = \sim 500$ per droplet type; for (c) and (d), $N = 3$ per droplet type.

626

Fig 1.

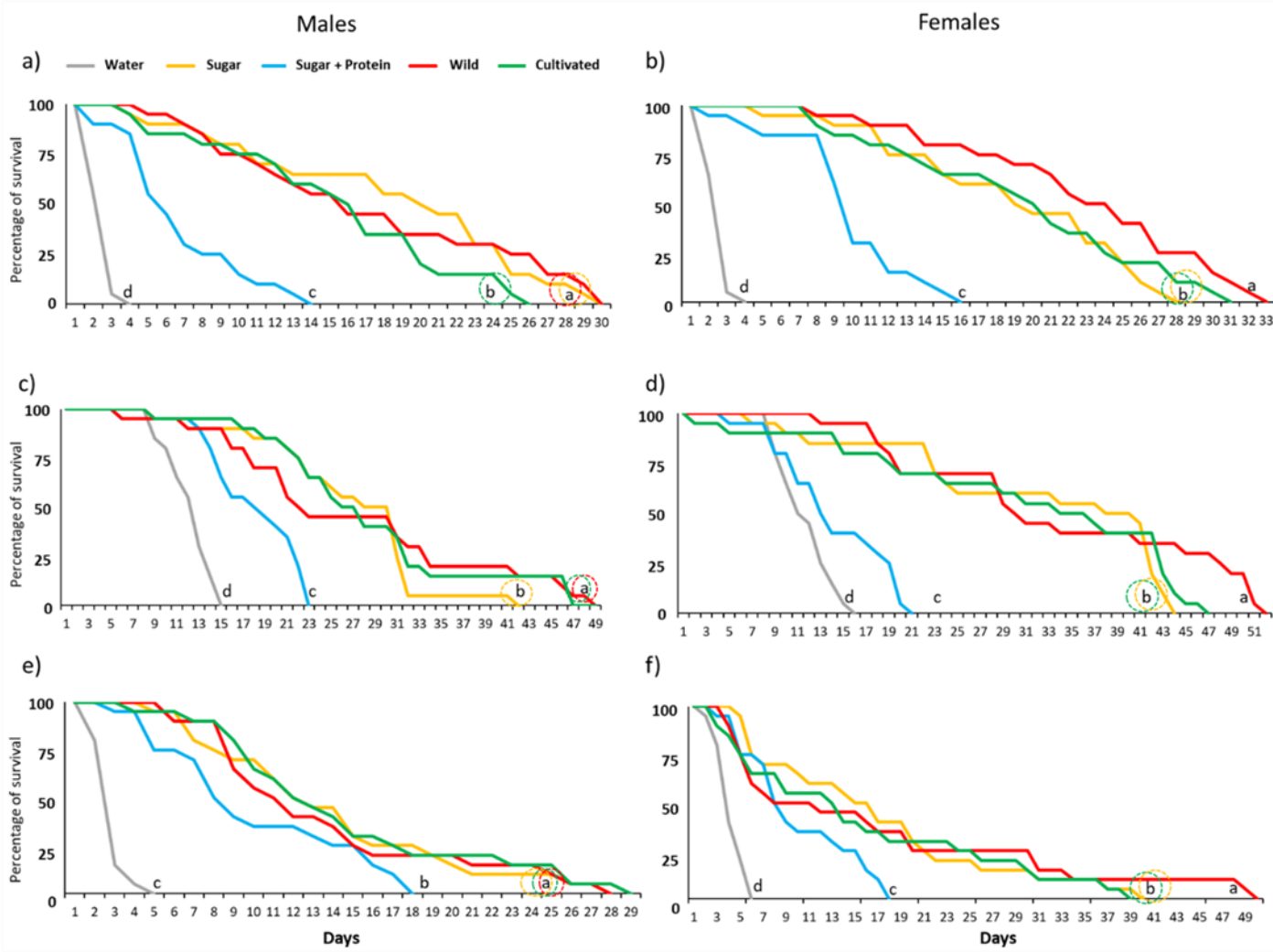
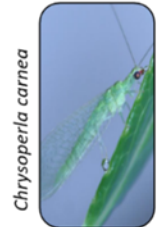


Fig 2.

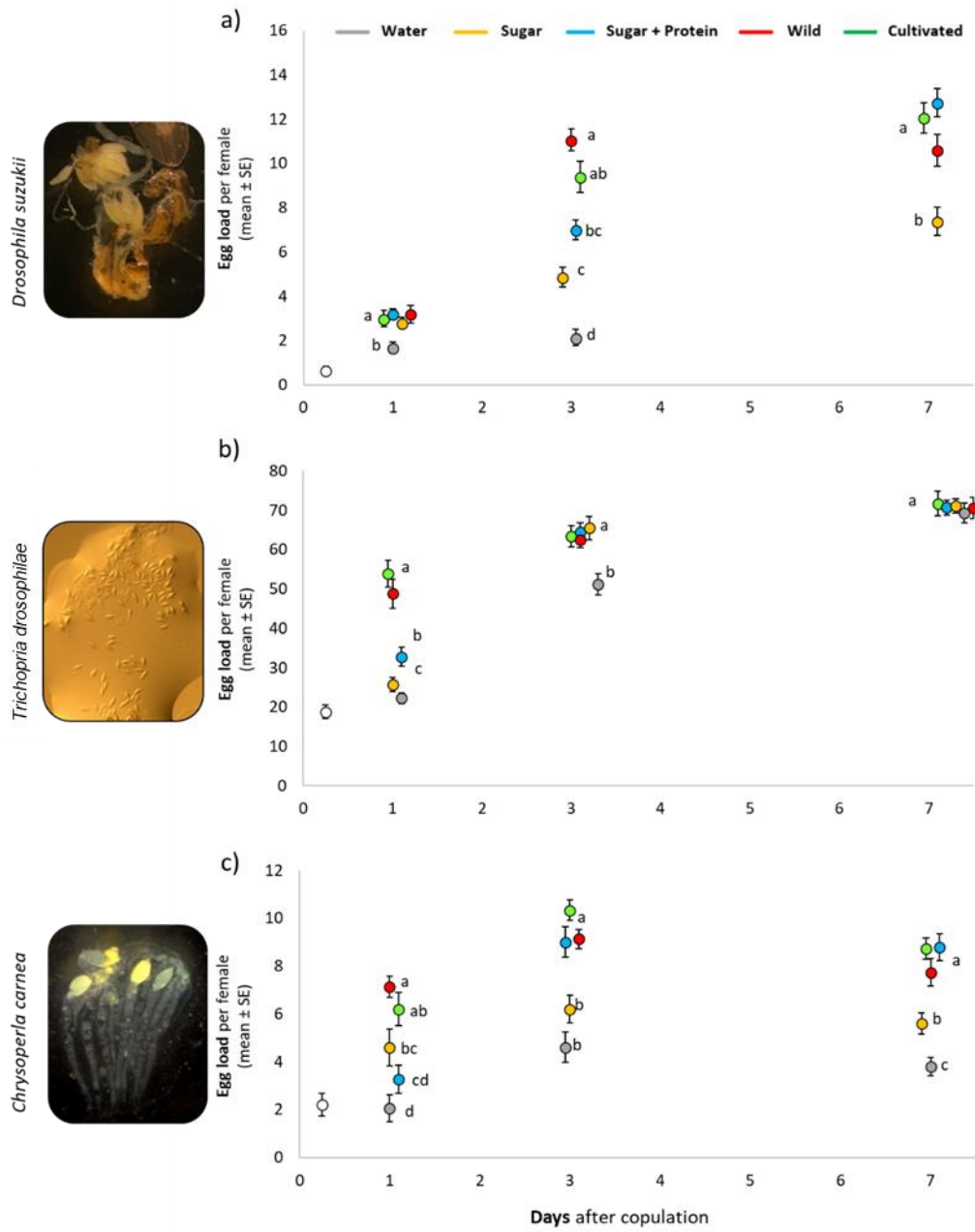


Fig 3.

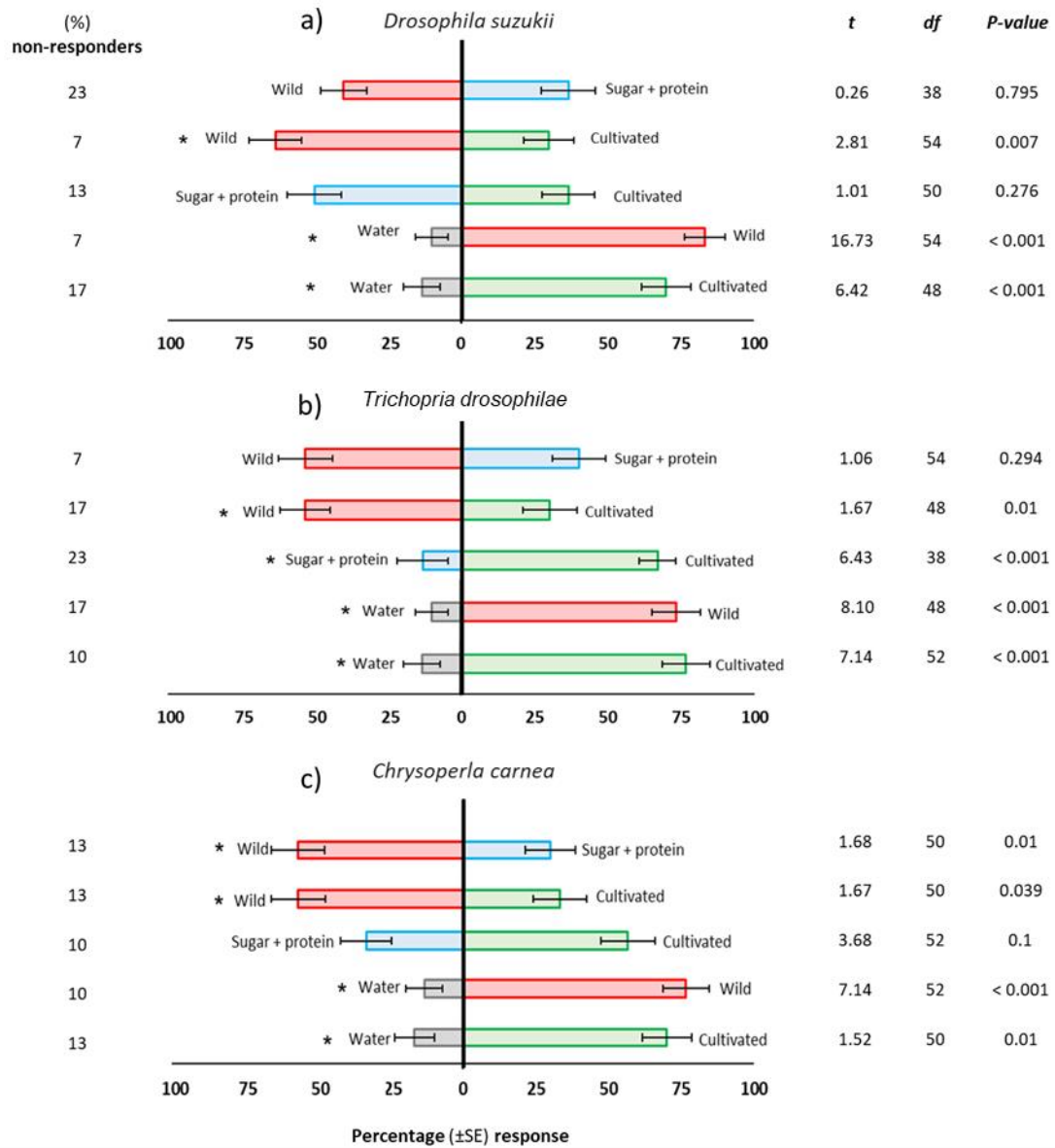


Fig 4.

