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5 **Two volatiles from anthracnose-infected blueberries trigger**  
6 **electrophysiological and aversive behavioral responses in *Drosophila***  
7 ***suzukii* (Diptera: Drosophilidae)**

8

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28 Native to Southeast Asia, the spotted-wing drosophila (*Drosophila suzukii* Matsumura) is  
29 an economically important invasive pest of thin-skinned fruits such as raspberries,  
30 blueberries, and strawberries worldwide. To reduce the reliance on insecticides for  
31 managing this pest, alternative strategies like behavioral manipulation are needed.  
32 Previous studies have shown that *D. suzukii* adults avoid blueberry fruits infected with  
33 the fungal pathogen *Colletotrichum fioriniae* Marcelino & Gouli, which causes  
34 anthracnose fruit rot, leading to the identification of nine potential repellent compounds.  
35 In this study, we further investigated the two most potent of these compounds—ethyl  
36 butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate—to assess their repellent properties on the antennal  
37 and behavioral responses of *D. suzukii*. Electroantennogram (EAG) assays revealed that  
38 both esters elicited similar dose-dependent responses in male and female *D. suzukii*,  
39 which were often stronger than those triggered by 2-pentylfuran, a known repellent of  
40 this species. Additionally, we examined the behavioral responses of adult *D. suzukii* to  
41 these three repellent compounds under semi-field and field conditions using outdoor  
42 cages containing potted and planted blueberry bushes, respectively. Results from the cage  
43 studies showed that all three tested compounds can significantly reduce *D. suzukii*  
44 oviposition and adult emergence from blueberry fruits, with ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate  
45 sometimes outperforming the other compounds. Our findings indicate that the esters ethyl  
46 butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, which are induced by *C. fioriniae*-infected  
47 blueberries, elicit dose-dependent effects on *D. suzukii* antennae and act as effective  
48 oviposition deterrents. This supports their potential as promising tools for managing this  
49 pest through behavioral strategies.  
50

- 51 *Key words:* spotted-wing drosophila, invasive pest, volatiles, EAG, oviposition
- 52 deterrents, semiochemicals

## 53 **Introduction**

54 The spotted-wing drosophila, *Drosophila suzukii* Matsumura (Diptera: Drosophilidae), is  
55 an invasive and highly destructive pest of soft-skinned fruits, including berries, cherries,  
56 and grapes (Walsh et al. 2011, Lee et al. 2011, Asplen et al. 2015, Tait et al. 2021).  
57 Females of this species have a serrated ovipositor, which allows them to penetrate the  
58 skins of ripening and ripe fruits for oviposition (Atallah et al. 2014). Currently, *D. suzukii*  
59 is primarily managed through frequent insecticide applications (Diepenbrock et al. 2016,  
60 Joshi et al. 2023), which can be costly for growers and may lead to the development of  
61 resistance (Gress and Zalom 2019, Disi and Sial 2021, Ganjisaffar et al. 2022, Tabuloc et  
62 al. 2024). An alternative method of control that may reduce insecticide use is behavioral  
63 manipulation using semiochemicals (Tait et al. 2021). Previous efforts to manage *D.*  
64 *suzukii* with semiochemicals have shown some success (Hampton et al. 2014, Rice et al.  
65 2017, Wallingford et al. 2017, Wallingford et al. 2018, Cloonan et al. 2018),  
66 demonstrating the potential of this approach. However, discovering new repellent  
67 chemicals could further improve this strategy by increasing aversion, enhancing  
68 specificity to *D. suzukii*, or identifying more affordable compounds to produce.

69 Like many insects, *D. suzukii* interacts with microbes in its environment, and  
70 these interactions can potentially be exploited to control this pest. Adults of *D. suzukii* are  
71 known to be attracted to fermentation odors (Cha et al. 2012, Hamby and Becher 2016)  
72 and other microbial volatiles, such as those associated with the symbiotic yeast  
73 *Hanseniaspora uvarum* (Niehaus) Shehata, Mrak & Phaff (Hamby et al. 2012, Bueno et  
74 al. 2020, Kleman et al. 2022). Many of these fermentation and microbial odors, such as  
75 acetic acid, ethanol, methionol, acetoin, isoamyl acetate, and isobutyl acetate, have been

76 used in lure-baited traps for monitoring this pest in the field (Iglesias et al. 2014, Cha et  
77 al. 2017, Swoboda-Bhattari et al. 2017, Cha et al. 2018, Cloonan et al. 2019, Spitaler et  
78 al. 2022). However, not all microbial associations elicit positive responses. Pathogenic  
79 microbes can provide sources of repellent or oviposition deterrent compounds. For  
80 example, 1-octen-3-ol and geosmin, associated with contamination and spoilage of stored  
81 food products, respectively, are known repellents against *D. suzukii* (Wallingford et al.  
82 2017). Another microbial volatile, 2-pentylfuran, isolated from fermenting wheat bread  
83 dough has also been identified as having oviposition deterrent properties (Cha et al.  
84 2021). Among the three previously identified repellents for *D. suzukii*, 2-pentylfuran has  
85 shown the most promise due to its effectiveness under field conditions and environmental  
86 friendliness. Additionally, Cha et al. (2020) discovered that *D. suzukii* females were less  
87 likely to oviposit in raspberries infected with *Botrytis cinerea* Pers., the causative agent  
88 of gray mold disease; however, the volatiles responsible for this deterrence remain  
89 unidentified. Moreover, *B. cinerea*-infected raspberries significantly reduced larval  
90 survival and adult size in *D. suzukii* (Cha et al. 2020). These findings suggest that other  
91 plant diseases might similarly influence *D. suzukii* behavior and development.

92 Blueberries are susceptible to a disease known as anthracnose fruit rot, caused by  
93 species of the genus *Colletotrichum*, including *Colletotrichum fioriniae* Marcelino &  
94 Gouli (Damm et al. 2012, Pszczółkowska et al. 2016). *Colletotrichum fioriniae* is an  
95 ascomycete fungus that spreads to blooms and healthy berries via rain or wind dispersal.  
96 Symptoms of anthracnose in blueberries include the development of orange or salmon-  
97 colored droplets containing the fungus's conidia and the eventual collapse of the fruit,  
98 rendering it unmarketable (Miles and Schilder 2013). Early studies on the interaction

99 between anthracnose and *D. suzukii* have shown that, given a choice, sexually mature  
100 females are three times more likely to select healthy blueberry fruits over anthracnose-  
101 infected ones (Urbaneja-Bernat et al. 2020). Additionally, *D. suzukii* oviposited fewer  
102 eggs in infected berries, and anthracnose infection reduced adult emergence. More recent  
103 research by Rering et al. (2023) identified two esters—ethyl butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-  
104 2-enoate—from anthracnose-infected blueberries as being equally or more repellent than  
105 known *D. suzukii* repellents such as 1-octen-3-ol, geosmin, and 2-pentylfuran. Given  
106 these promising results, the present study aims to further investigate whether *D. suzukii*  
107 antennae can detect these esters and how these compounds influence the fly's oviposition  
108 behavior under semi-field and field cage conditions.

109 In this study, we evaluated the antennal responses of *D. suzukii* to ethyl butanoate  
110 and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate using electroantennography and assessed their oviposition-  
111 deterrent activity in outdoor cages. We hypothesized that *D. suzukii* can detect these  
112 compounds via their antennae and that they function as oviposition deterrents. These  
113 findings could contribute to the development of new compounds for the behavioral  
114 manipulation of this pest, offering alternative integrated pest management strategies for  
115 *D. suzukii*.

116

## 117 **Materials and methods**

### 118 **Insect rearing**

119 The *D. suzukii* colony used for experiments was established in 2013 and maintained on a  
120 standard artificial diet (Jaramillo et al. 2015) at the Rutgers P.E. Marucci Center  
121 (Chatsworth, NJ). The colony was kept under controlled conditions at  $22 \pm 2$  °C,  $55 \pm 5\%$

122 relative humidity (RH), and a 16:8 h L:D cycle. To maintain genetic diversity, wild flies  
123 were introduced into the colony every 2–3 years. The flies used in the experiments were  
124 5–10 days old, ensuring they were sexually mature (Revadi et al. 2015).

125

## 126 Synthetic Chemicals

127 Ethyl butanoate (99%, CAS No. 105-54-4), ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate (99%, CAS No. 623-  
128 70-1), and 2-pentylfuran ( $\geq 98\%$ , CAS No. 3777-69-3) were purchased from Sigma-  
129 Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA).

130

## 131 Electroantennogram experiments

132 Electroantennogram (EAG) assays were conducted to determine the antennal response of  
133 sexually mature male and female *D. sukukii* to ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate,  
134 and 2-pentylfuran. The antennal responses of male and female *D. sukukii* to each  
135 compound were tested at five doses (0.001 mg, 0.01 mg, 0.1 mg, 1 mg, and 10 mg)  
136 diluted in n-hexane. The stimulus cartridge preparations, antennal preparations, and EAG  
137 apparatus used were similar to those described in Cloonan et al. (2019). Stimulus  
138 applicators consisted of a 14.5-cm-long glass Pasteur pipette containing 20  $\mu$ l of each  
139 volatile dose (or n-hexane control) pipetted onto a 6  $\times$  0.5-cm strip of filter paper. The  
140 applicators containing the impregnated filter paper were placed under the fume hood for  
141 2 min to allow the n-hexane to evaporate. For the recording and base electrodes, a silver  
142 wire was inserted into a drawn capillary tube filled with phosphate-buffered saline (NaCl,  
143 4 g;  $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4$ , 0.57 g;  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 0.1 g; KCL, 0.1 g in 500 ml distilled water). To attach  
144 the base electrode to the fly, the fly's abdomen was removed, and the sharp tip of the

145 saline-filled capillary tube was pulled directly into the thoracic cavity. Once the fly  
146 preparation was mounted, the recording electrode was carefully moved toward the  
147 antenna using a micromanipulator until the antenna touched the pool of saline solution on  
148 the recording electrode. Antennal preparations were exposed to a constant stream of  
149 charcoal-filtered and humidified air at a rate of 1.5 L/min.

150         The EAG apparatus consisted of an IDAC-02 interface board for data acquisition  
151 and used Syntech software (Syntech Ltd., Hilversum, The Netherlands) for recording,  
152 storing, and quantifying EAG responses. Antennal preparations were primed with 1 mg  
153 of acetoin, a known attractant and antennally active compound (Cha et al. 2012, Cloonan  
154 et al. 2019), to ensure that the antennae were prepared correctly and responsive (positive  
155 control). Then, the antennae were exposed to an n-hexane control, followed by exposure  
156 to increasing doses of one of the volatiles. Each antenna was exposed to four rounds of  
157 each dose of a single compound before being discarded. Six antennae were tested daily:  
158 three from males and three from females. Test and control compounds were applied at  
159 10-s intervals at a pulse rate of 0.5 s, with a 1-min interval between each stimulus.  
160 Maximum amplitudes of depolarizations were measured (in millivolts) for each  
161 compound with the response from the n-hexane-only controls subtracted from the other  
162 doses to normalize the antennal response. In total, each dose of each compound was  
163 replicated 10 times for each sex.

164

### 165 Semi-field cage experiments

166 Semi-field cage experiments were conducted over a seven-week period, from 20 June  
167 until 9 August of 2023 at the Rutgers P.E. Marucci Research Center (mean  $\pm$  SE

168 temperature:  $23.5 \pm 0.27^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; RH:  $78.8 \pm 0.9\%$ ) to evaluate the oviposition deterrent  
169 effects of ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran against *D. suzukii*.  
170 These experiments are considered semi-field because they took place in an isolated open  
171 field surrounded by woods with potted plants inside outdoor cages. The cages were  
172 constructed using polyvinyl chloride (PVC) pipes (3.8 cm diameter) to construct 1.8 m  $\times$   
173 1.8 m  $\times$  1.8 m frames. Screen tents (*Lumite*<sup>®</sup> screen portable field cages; BioQuip, CA,  
174 USA) were placed over the PVC frames, and large nails were used to secure the tents to  
175 the ground (Fig. 1A). Cages were spaced 10 m apart.

176 To obtain blueberries for the experiment, prior to the start of the experiment,  
177 field-grown highbush blueberry (*Vaccinium corymbosum* L. var. ‘Bluecrop’) clusters  
178 were bagged early in the season with cloth bags when they were still green to prevent  
179 infestation from resident *D. suzukii* populations for use in the experiment. In addition, 80  
180 3–4-year-old potted blueberry bushes were stripped of their berries and used for the  
181 experiment.

182 On the day of testing, two bushes were placed in each cage (Fig. 1B). Each bush  
183 in the tent was surrounded by a metal tomato cage. The bagged blueberry fruit clusters in  
184 the field were clipped and brought inside the cages. Clusters of 10 berries were created  
185 and placed in water picks. Five berry clusters were distributed randomly and evenly on  
186 each tomato cage at different heights using green twist ties (Fig. 1B). The sachets used  
187 for the treatments were prepared according to the methods described by Gale et al.  
188 (2024). They were constructed from 8 cm strips of polyethylene tubing (5.1 cm width, 2  
189 MIL thickness; ULINE, Pleasant Prairie, WI, USA) and polyester felt (Grainger, Lake  
190 Forest, IL, USA). One end of the polyethylene tubing was sealed with an impulse sealer.

191 A 5 cm strip of felt was placed inside the sachet's open end, and a 2.5 mL aliquot of each  
192 treatment (neat compound) was pipetted onto the felt. The open end was then sealed shut  
193 with the impulse sealer, entirely sealing the saturated felt. A hole was punched at the top  
194 of each sachet, away from the treatment area to avoid damaging the sealed section, and  
195 green twist ties were used to hang the sachets in the center of a bush (Fig 1B). Before  
196 loading the sachets, the weights of the empty sachets were taken. The sachets were  
197 weighed again directly after loading with the compounds and then a final time after the  
198 24-hour test period to measure the emission rates of each volatile.

199 In each cage, one of the bushes contained a sachet with the test volatile, while the  
200 other contained a blank sachet (control). Sachets were hung in the bushes 30 minutes  
201 prior to the start of experiments. Choice tests included: 1) control versus control; 2)  
202 control versus ethyl butanoate; 4) control versus ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate; and 4) control  
203 versus 2-pentylfuran. Fifty flies (1:1 male: female) were released in each cage at 18:00  
204 hrs. After 24 hours, the berry clusters were collected and placed in 118 mL plastic cups.  
205 Berries were inspected under a dissecting microscope (AmScope SM-1) for the number  
206 of eggs laid and were then incubated in 236.6 mL (8-oz) deli containers lined with two  
207 cotton pads on a laboratory bench at  $22 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  and  $55 \pm 5\%$  relative humidity for two  
208 weeks to monitor for adult emergence. The study was replicated 10 times for each choice  
209 combination ( $N = 4$  choice combinations  $\times$  2 bushes each  $\times$  10 replicates = total of 80  
210 bushes;  $N = 50$  flies  $\times$  4 choice combinations  $\times$  10 replicates = total of 2,000 flies).

211

212 Field cage experiments

213 Field cage experiments were conducted over a two separate periods, from 24–27 June  
214 (mean  $\pm$  SE temperature:  $25.1 \pm 0.9^\circ\text{C}$ ; RH:  $76.1 \pm 5.9\%$ ) and 8–11 July ( $27.6 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ ;  
215 RH:  $80.3 \pm 2.1\%$ ) of 2024, at the Rutgers P.E. Marucci Research Center using highbush  
216 blueberries (*V. corymbosum* var. ‘Bluecrop’). The studies were carried out in 5.5 m long  
217  $\times$  2.7 m tall cages, constructed with a PVC pipe frame covered with No-See-Um mesh  
218 (Quest Outfitters Inc., Sarasota, FL, USA) (Fig. 1C). Cages were placed in separate rows  
219 within a blueberry field, with bushes spaced approx. 0.76 m apart within the rows and  
220 3.05 m between rows. Each row contained two cages at least 9 m in distance. To avoid  
221 interference between treatments, alternate cages were used during testing, ensuring that  
222 no adjacent cages contained sachets simultaneously.

223 Two, 3-m rebar poles were used to reinforce the mesh on the long sides of each  
224 cage as well as 10 cm long garden staples to hold mesh flush to the ground, while the  
225 shorter ends were secured with clips to allow access to the cage. Each cage contained five  
226 blueberry bushes approx. 1.5 m in height. Sachets containing ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-  
227 but-2-enoate, or 2-pentylfuran were prepared as described before. To test the effects of  
228 the repellents on the treated (focal) bush and in neighboring bushes at various distances,  
229 two sachets of the same compound were hung from one of the end bushes in each cage  
230 (Fig. 1D). There were four treatments: 1) ethyl butanoate, 2) ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, 3) 2-  
231 pentylfuran, and 4) control (no repellent). Each treatment was replicated four times, with  
232 each cage assigned to a single treatment, resulting in a total of 16 cages.

233 Twenty-four hours after deploying the sachets, 120 flies (approximately 60 males  
234 and 60 females) were released into each cage at 18:00 hrs ( $N = 120 \text{ flies} \times 4 \text{ treatments} \times$   
235  $4 \text{ replicates} = 1,920 \text{ total flies}$ ). To ensure even distribution within the cages, 30 flies

236 were released at four equidistant points between the bushes. A pre-sampling of the  
237 berries, conducted before the flies were released, confirmed the absence of any  
238 infestation. Berries were then collected 1-, 2-, and 3-days post-treatment. From every  
239 other bush (starting at the focal bush) in the cage, 50 berries from the top half and 50  
240 from the bottom half were collected into two separate 236.6 mL deli containers lined with  
241 two cotton pads. From each berry sample, a random subsample of 10 berries were  
242 examined and egg counts recorded before being returned to the original container. The  
243 blueberries were incubated on a light bench in the laboratory for up to two weeks, as  
244 previously described, and adult emergence was recorded. The sachets were weighed  
245 before deployment and 3 days after deployment to measure the emission rates of each  
246 compound.

247

## 248 Statistical analysis

249 To analyze the effect of dose of the three repellents on *D. suzukii* antennal responses, a  
250 generalized linear model (GLM) was used with a Poisson distribution and a log link  
251 function in SPSS Statistics 23.0 (IBM Corp, Armonk, NY, USA). The model included  
252 ‘Treatment’ (ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran), ‘Dose’, ‘Sex’,  
253 and their interactions as independent variables. This analysis, when significant, was  
254 followed by post hoc Bonferroni tests ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) to determine individual differences  
255 among groups. Prior to analysis, EAG data were normalized relative to the response to  
256 the n-hexane control.

257       Semi-field cage data were analyzed using paired *t*-tests to determine differences  
258 between the number of eggs laid and adults that emerged from treated berries compared

259 to control berries, and survival data were analyzed using two-way analysis of variance  
260 (ANOVA) (R statistical software version 4.1.1; R Development Core Team, Vienna,  
261 Austria). In addition, a deterrence index (DI) was calculated for each treatment as  
262 follows:

$$263 \quad DI = \frac{(n_{control} - n_{volatile})}{n_{total}}$$

264 Where  $n_{control}$ ,  $n_{volatile}$ , and  $n_{total}$  are the number of eggs laid in the control fruits,  
265 treatment fruits, and total number of eggs laid in the control and treatment fruits,  
266 respectively. The DI values were compared among treatments using ANOVA (R  
267 statistical software). Before the analysis, data were checked for normality and equal  
268 variance using an Anderson-Darling test and Levene's test, respectively.

269 Field cage data for both oviposition and adult emergence were non-normal, so  
270 non-parametric tests were applied using R statistical software. The effects of 'Treatment'  
271 (untreated control, ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran) across  
272 'Bush Position' (focal, center, end) and 'Day After Treatment' (1, 2, 3 DAT) were  
273 assessed using the Kruskal-Wallis Test. When significant Treatment effects were found,  
274 post-hoc separation was performed using Dunn's Test. Initial analyses showed no  
275 significant differences in oviposition or adult emergence based on location on the bush  
276 (top vs. bottom); therefore, the data were averaged and analyzed at the bush level.

277 Finally, the emission rates of compounds in the semi-field and field cage studies  
278 were calculated by subtracting the final weight of the sachets from the initial weight and  
279 dividing by the time interval (24 h or 3 days). These rates were then compared across  
280 repellent treatments using ANOVA, with Tukey pairwise comparisons conducted when  
281 significant differences were found.

282

## 283 **Results**

### 284 Electroantennogram experiments

285 Both male and female *D. suzukii* exhibited dose-dependent antennal responses to ethyl  
286 butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran (Table 1; Fig. 2). The strength of the  
287 EAG responses varied among treatments, with ethyl butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate  
288 eliciting stronger antennal responses than 2-pentylfuran (Table 1; Fig. 2). There was no  
289 significant effect of sex on the antennal responses to these compounds, nor was there a  
290 significant interaction between treatment and sex (Table 1), indicating that the antennal  
291 responses of male and female *D. suzukii* to ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-  
292 pentylfuran were similar. Although the EAG responses increased with rising doses of the  
293 compounds, the antennae of *D. suzukii* responded more strongly to ethyl butanoate and  
294 ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate than to 2-pentylfuran at higher doses (Fig. 2), as indicated by the  
295 significant treatment-by-dose interaction (Table 1).

296

### 297 Semi-field cage experiments

298 Semi-field cage assays using potted blueberry plants were used to test the efficacy of  
299 ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran on *D. suzukii* oviposition.

300 There were no differences in the emission rates of the three compounds ( $F = 1.66$ ;  $df =$   
301  $2,12$ ;  $P = 0.231$ ; mean emission rates ( $\pm$  SE) were  $70.4 \pm 14.2$  mg/h for ethyl butanoate,  
302  $54.9 \pm 8.9$  mg/h for ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and  $82.3 \pm 7.6$  mg/h for 2-pentylfuran).

303 *Drosophila suzukii* consistently laid fewer eggs in berries paired with the treatments in  
304 comparison to control berries (Fig. 3A). Flies laid 54% fewer eggs in ethyl butanoate-

305 treated berries ( $t = 2.29$ ,  $P = 0.047$ ), 75% fewer berries in ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate treated  
306 berries ( $t = 3.76$ ,  $P = 0.005$ ), and 67% fewer eggs in 2-pentylfuran treated berries (Fig.  
307 3A).

308         When comparing the emergence of adult progeny (Fig. 3B), more flies emerged  
309 from the control berries compared to the berries treated with the two anthracnose-  
310 associated compounds, with 59% fewer flies emerging from ethyl butanoate treated  
311 berries ( $t = 4.07$ ,  $P = 0.003$ ) and 78% fewer flies emerging from ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate  
312 treated berries ( $t = 2.81$ ,  $P = 0.02$ ). The difference in adult emergence between untreated  
313 berries and 2-pentylfuran treated berries was nonsignificant ( $t = 2.06$ ,  $P = 0.069$ ).

314         The percentage of eggs that survived to adulthood ranged from 57% ( $\pm 14\%$ ) to  
315 83% ( $\pm 8\%$ ) across all treatments (Fig. 3C). A two-way ANOVA showed no significant  
316 differences in offspring survival among the treatments or between treatments and controls  
317 (all  $P$  values  $> 0.05$ ), indicating that the treatments only affected *D. suzukii* oviposition  
318 behavior which resulted in reduced adult emergence.

319         After calculating the DI based on the number of eggs laid within each cage, ethyl  
320 butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran all performed similarly and were  
321 significantly different from the control ( $F = 4.85$ ;  $df = 4,36$ ;  $P = 0.005$ ) (Fig. 4).

322

### 323 Field cage experiments

324 Field cage assays using cultivated blueberry bushes tested the efficacy of ethyl butanoate,  
325 ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran on *D. suzukii* oviposition. In these trials, the  
326 emission rates differed significantly among the three tested compounds ( $F = 16.29$ ;  $df =$   
327  $2,27$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). The emission rates for ethyl butanoate (mean  $\pm$  SE =  $697.97 \pm 7.96$

328 mg/day) and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate ( $679.23 \pm 17.73$  mg/day) were significantly higher  
329 than those for 2-pentylfuran ( $559.73 \pm 23.54$  mg/day).

330 Egg counts were higher in the control than all the treatment groups regardless of  
331 bush position or DAT (Fig. 5A). Among the three repellent treatments, the response  
332 varied depending on the bush position and DAT. At 1 DAT, all repellent treatments  
333 reduced egg counts in the focal bush compared to the control ( $\chi^2 = 222.01$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P <$   
334  $0.001$ ), but there were no differences among them; 2-pentylfuran was lower at the central  
335 bush ( $\chi^2 = 206.70$ ;  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ); and 2-pentylfuran and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate had  
336 the fewest eggs at the end bush ( $\chi^2 = 143.43$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 5A). At 2 DAT, the  
337 treatments again demonstrated similar oviposition repellency at the focal bush ( $\chi^2 =$   
338  $174.37$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ), but ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate had the lowest egg counts at both  
339 the center ( $\chi^2 = 151.81$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and the end bush ( $\chi^2 = 148.01$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P <$   
340  $0.001$ ) (Fig. 5A). By 3 DAT, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate had the lowest egg count at all three  
341 bushes sampled (focal:  $\chi^2 = 91.26$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ; center:  $\chi^2 = 91.31$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P <$   
342  $0.001$ ; end:  $\chi^2 = 85.12$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 5A).

343 The emergence of adult progeny was also higher in the untreated control cages  
344 than any of the repellent treatments (Fig. 5B). At 1 DAT and 2 DAT, there were  
345 differences in adult emergence between the control and all the repellent treatments at the  
346 focal bush (1 DAT:  $\chi^2 = 25.01$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ; 2 DAT:  $\chi^2 = 25.48$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ )  
347 but no differences among them; ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate had the fewest adults emerge at  
348 the center (1 DAT:  $\chi^2 = 25.48$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ; 2 DAT:  $\chi^2 = 23.20$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ )  
349 and end bush (1 DAT:  $\chi^2 = 19.56$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ; 2 DAT:  $\chi^2 = 14.94$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P <$   
350  $0.001$ ) (Fig. 5B). At 3 DAT, 2-pentylfuran and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate had the lowest

351 adult emergence at the focal ( $\chi^2 = 19.20$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and center bush ( $\chi^2 = 15.72$ ;  
352  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) but, at the end bush, only ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate was significantly  
353 different compared to the other repellents ( $\chi^2 = 15.35$ ;  $df = 3$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 5B).

354

## 355 **Discussion**

356 This study demonstrated that: 1) both male and female antennae of *D. suzukii* can detect  
357 ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran in a dose-dependent manner;  
358 and 2) these repellent compounds reduce *D. suzukii* oviposition and adult emergence in  
359 blueberry fruits under semi-field and field cage conditions.

360         After anthracnose-infected blueberries were found to repel *D. suzukii* (Urbaneja-  
361 Bernat et al. 2020), Rering et al. (2023) screened 14 volatiles emitted at higher levels in  
362 infected berries compared to healthy ones for their repellent activity against this pest in  
363 laboratory studies. They found that nine of these volatiles had repellent properties.  
364 Among them, two esters—ethyl butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate—showed the  
365 strongest repellent effects, and as demonstrated in this study, these compounds also  
366 trigger strong dose-dependent antennal responses in adult *D. suzukii* and act as  
367 oviposition deterrents under semi-field and field cage conditions. These compounds are  
368 naturally present in the headspace of blueberries and are mainly associated with fruit  
369 ripening (Beaulieu et al. 2014, Farneti et al. 2017). Since anthracnose infections cause  
370 rapid ripening and collapse of the fruit (Miles and Schilder 2013), simultaneously the  
371 emission rate of these volatiles increases (Rering et al. 2023). Given that *D. suzukii* are  
372 typically attracted to ripening or ripe fruits for oviposition rather than overripe ones (Lee  
373 et al. 2011, Keeseey et al. 2015), the observed oviposition deterrent effects in this study

374 may indicate that the flies perceive the fruits as beginning to rot, thus discouraging them  
375 from laying eggs.

376 Ethyl butanoate has been previously identified as an antennally active compound  
377 in *D. suzukii* (Cloonan et al. 2019, Urbaneja-Bernat et al. 2021) and shown to reduce  
378 attraction to lures (Cha et al. 2012). However, its role as an oviposition deterrent under  
379 field conditions had not been confirmed until this study. Ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, while  
380 structurally similar to ethyl butanoate, has also not been previously identified as an  
381 oviposition deterrent. Both compounds elicited similar dose-dependent responses in EAG  
382 assays for both male and female *D. suzukii*. However, when compared to the known  
383 repellent 2-pentylfuran, these esters showed comparable or stronger antennal detection  
384 efficacy, especially at higher doses. A similar trend was observed in the semi-field cage  
385 studies, where ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran significantly  
386 reduced *D. suzukii* oviposition in treated berries compared to the control. In the field cage  
387 studies, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate tended to outperform both ethyl butanoate and 2-  
388 pentylfuran, particularly at longer distances from the focal plant and after at least three  
389 days of deployment, demonstrating greater oviposition deterrent activity.

390 Urbaneja-Bernat et al. (2020) demonstrated that only female *D. suzukii* were  
391 repelled or deterred from ovipositing by volatiles from anthracnose-infected fruits, likely  
392 because they are searching for suitable oviposition sites. Anthracnose infection likely  
393 reduces the quality of fruits for *D. suzukii* offspring development (Urbaneja-Bernat et al.  
394 2020), showing a positive relationship between female oviposition preference and  
395 offspring performance. However, when examining the antennal response of *D. suzukii* to  
396 ethyl butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, both males and females showed similar

397 responses, indicating that both sexes can detect these compounds. Although males may  
398 be less behaviorally responsive to anthracnose-infected fruits than females, both male and  
399 female *D. suzukii* were found to be repelled by these compounds in laboratory assays  
400 (Rering et al. 2023). The role of these volatiles in influencing male behaviors remains  
401 unclear.

402 Ethyl butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate have demonstrated equal or superior  
403 performance compared to other known *D. suzukii* repellents, such as 2-pentylfuran,  
404 geosmin, and 1-octen-3-ol (Rering et al. 2023; this study), showing promise as effective  
405 repellents and oviposition deterrents against this pest. Future research should explore  
406 whether ethyl butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate synergize with other *D. suzukii*  
407 repellents or with repellent compounds identified in anthracnose-infected blueberries  
408 (Rering et al. 2023). Combining these compounds could help maintain their repellent  
409 efficacy in the field, especially since ethyl butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate are more  
410 volatile than other known *D. suzukii* repellents. Further research is also needed to identify  
411 optimal deployment methods for these compounds. In the field cage study, ethyl  
412 butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate exhibited higher emission rates than 2-pentylfuran,  
413 with minimal amounts remaining in the sachets after 3 days. Employing slow-release  
414 technologies, such as the inert matrix SPLAT<sup>®</sup> (Specialized Pheromone and Lure  
415 Application Technology) (Wallingford et al. 2016a), aerosol diffusers (Stockton et al.  
416 2021), and nanoencapsulation (de Oliveira et al. 2018), could help sustain adequate  
417 emission rates of these compounds in the field.

418 Previously, repellents against *D. suzukii* have shown some success in reducing  
419 infestations in raspberries in both greenhouse and field studies (Wallingford et al. 2016a,

420 Wallingford et al. 2016b, Stockton et al. 2021). However, repellents alone are typically  
421 insufficient to fully eradicate *D. suzukii* infestations, which is critical in crops like  
422 blueberries where there is zero tolerance for infested fruit (Rodriguez-Saona et al. 2019).  
423 Nonetheless, repellent or oviposition deterrent compounds can be valuable tools when  
424 used in combination with other behavioral manipulation methods. For example, they  
425 could be paired with attract-and-kill devices to develop push-pull systems for *D. suzukii*.  
426 Push-pull systems work by using a repellent or oviposition deterrent to “push” the pest  
427 away from the target crop, while the “pull” component attracts pests to a kill device  
428 (Cook et al. 2007). Push-pull systems using 1-octen-3-ol (Wallingford et al. 2018) or  
429 methyl benzoate (Gale et al. 2024) as the push component, combined with an attract-and-  
430 kill device as the pull component, have already shown some success in managing *D.*  
431 *suzukii* in raspberries and blueberries.

432         In conclusion, the current study provides additional evidence that the esters ethyl  
433 butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, derived from pathogen-infected fruit, could serve  
434 as promising oviposition deterrents for *D. suzukii*. While previous studies have shown  
435 that pathogen infections and isolated compounds can repel *D. suzukii* and deter  
436 oviposition (Urbaneja-Bernat et al. 2020, Cha et al. 2021, Rering et al. 2023), the  
437 physiological and behavioral effects of specific compounds remained largely unexplored.  
438 In this study, ethyl butanoate and ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate elicited dose-dependent antennal  
439 responses in *D. suzukii* and significantly reduced oviposition and adult emergence in  
440 semi-field and field trials, performing comparably to, or sometimes even better than, the  
441 known *D. suzukii* repellent, 2-pentylfuran. Further research is necessary to evaluate the  
442 spatial and temporal efficacy of these compounds, as well as optimal deployment

443 methods, under more realistic field conditions with natural levels of pest pressure.  
444 Additionally, their repellent effects on other pests, as well as their compatibility with  
445 other *D. sukuzii* management tactics such as biological control, need to be explored.  
446 Nevertheless, the strong antennal responses and oviposition deterrent effects observed  
447 suggest that these compounds could serve as valuable tools for managing *D. sukuzii*  
448 behavior in the field.

449

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459

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616 **Table 1.** Results of a generalized linear model (GLM) for the effects of ‘Treatment’  
 617 (ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran), ‘Dose’, ‘Sex’, and their  
 618 interactions on the electroantennogram (EAG) responses of *Drosophila suzukii*.

| Source of Variation    | Wald $\chi^2$ | df | <i>P</i> <sup>a</sup> |
|------------------------|---------------|----|-----------------------|
| (Intercept)            | 1578.21       | 1  | <b>&lt; 0.001</b>     |
| Treatment              | 91.72         | 2  | <b>&lt; 0.001</b>     |
| Dose                   | 477.87        | 4  | <b>&lt; 0.001</b>     |
| Sex                    | 0.05          | 1  | 0.817                 |
| Treatment × Dose       | 67.78         | 8  | <b>&lt; 0.001</b>     |
| Treatment × Sex        | 5.21          | 2  | 0.074                 |
| Dose × Sex             | 1.89          | 4  | 0.754                 |
| Treatment × Dose × Sex | 1.16          | 8  | 0.997                 |

<sup>a</sup> Significant P values are indicated in bold.

619

620 **Figure captions**

621 **Fig. 1.** Cage setups used in semi-field (A and B) and field (C and D) trials. In semi-field  
622 trials, each cage consisted of two potted blueberry bushes. In field trials, each cage  
623 contained five cultivated blueberry bushes. One of the bushes (focal bush) within the  
624 cage contained a polyethylene sachet with 2.5 mL of the repellent treatments: ethyl  
625 butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, or 2-pentylfuran (B, D). Control cages did not contain  
626 any repellent treatments.

627

628 **Fig. 2.** Electroantennogram (EAG) response curves of male (solid lines) and female  
629 (dashed lines) *Drosophila suzukii* antennae to ethyl butanoate (A), ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate  
630 (B), and 2-pentylfuran (C). EAG amplitudes are presented as antennal depolarizations  
631 (mV  $\pm$  SE) normalized relative to the response to the n-hexane control. Different letters  
632 indicate significant differences among doses.  $N = 10$ .

633

634 **Fig. 3.** Effects of ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran on  
635 *Drosophila suzukii* oviposition (A), adult emergence (B), and survival from eggs to adults  
636 (C) in semi-field cage studies. An asterisk indicates significant differences between the  
637 control (white bars) and the treated (gray bars) berries within each cage. n.s. = no  
638 significant differences between the control and treatment.  $N = 10$ .

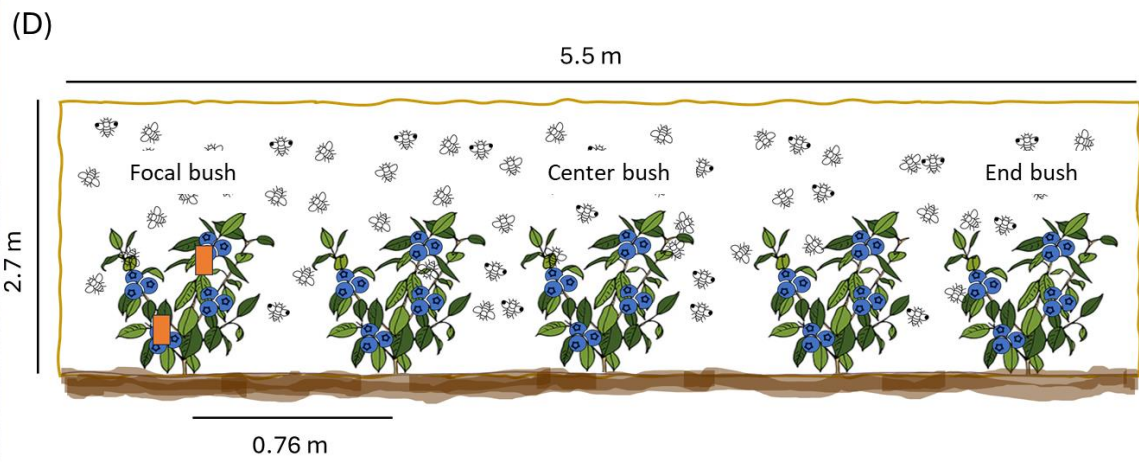
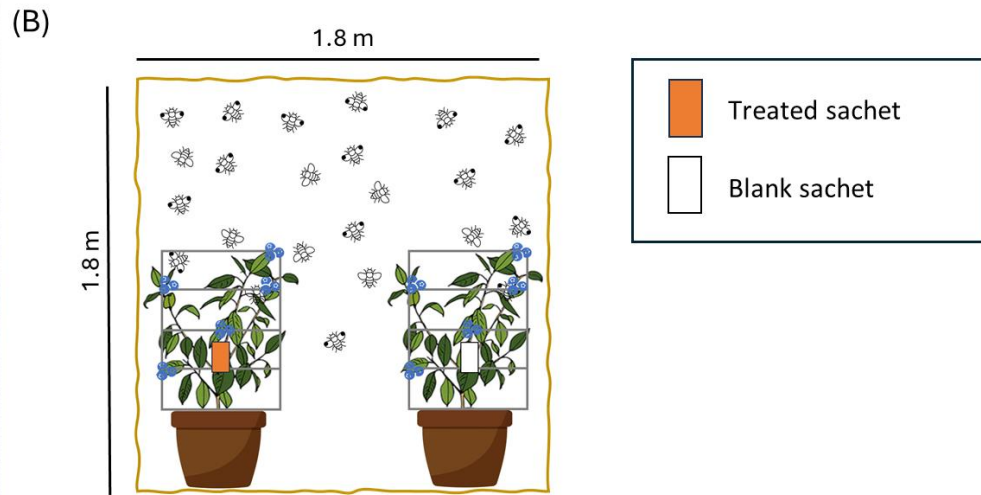
639

640 **Fig. 4.** Effects of ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-pentylfuran on the  
641 deterrence index of *Drosophila suzukii* in semi-field cage studies. The deterrence index  
642 was calculated as (number of eggs per berry in the control – number of eggs per berry in

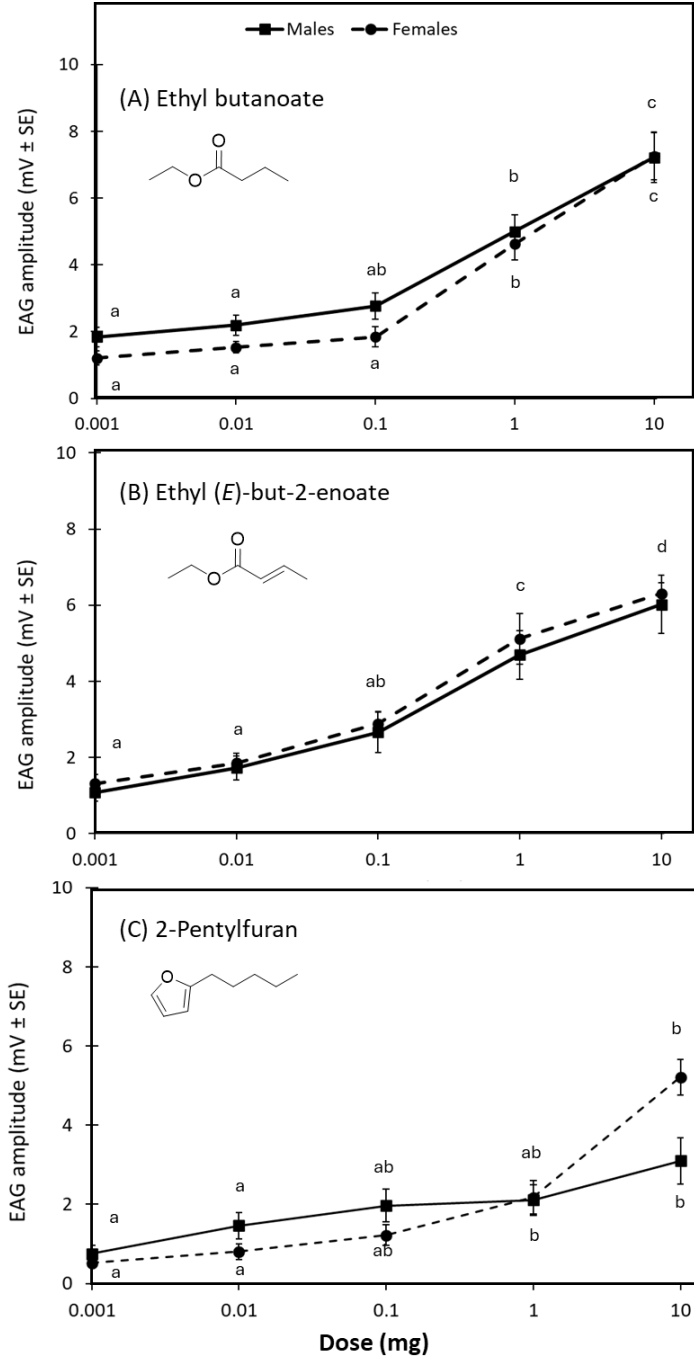
643 the treatment)/total number of eggs per berry. Different letters indicate significant  
644 differences among treatments.  $N = 10$ .

645

646 **Fig. 5.** Effects of an untreated control, ethyl butanoate, ethyl (*E*)-but-2-enoate, and 2-  
647 pentylfuran on oviposition (A) and adult emergence (B) of *Drosophila suzukii* in field  
648 cages. Egg counts represent the mean number of eggs from a 10-berry subsample, while  
649 adult emergence refers to the average number of *D. suzukii* adults emerging from a 50-  
650 berry sample.  $N = 4$ .



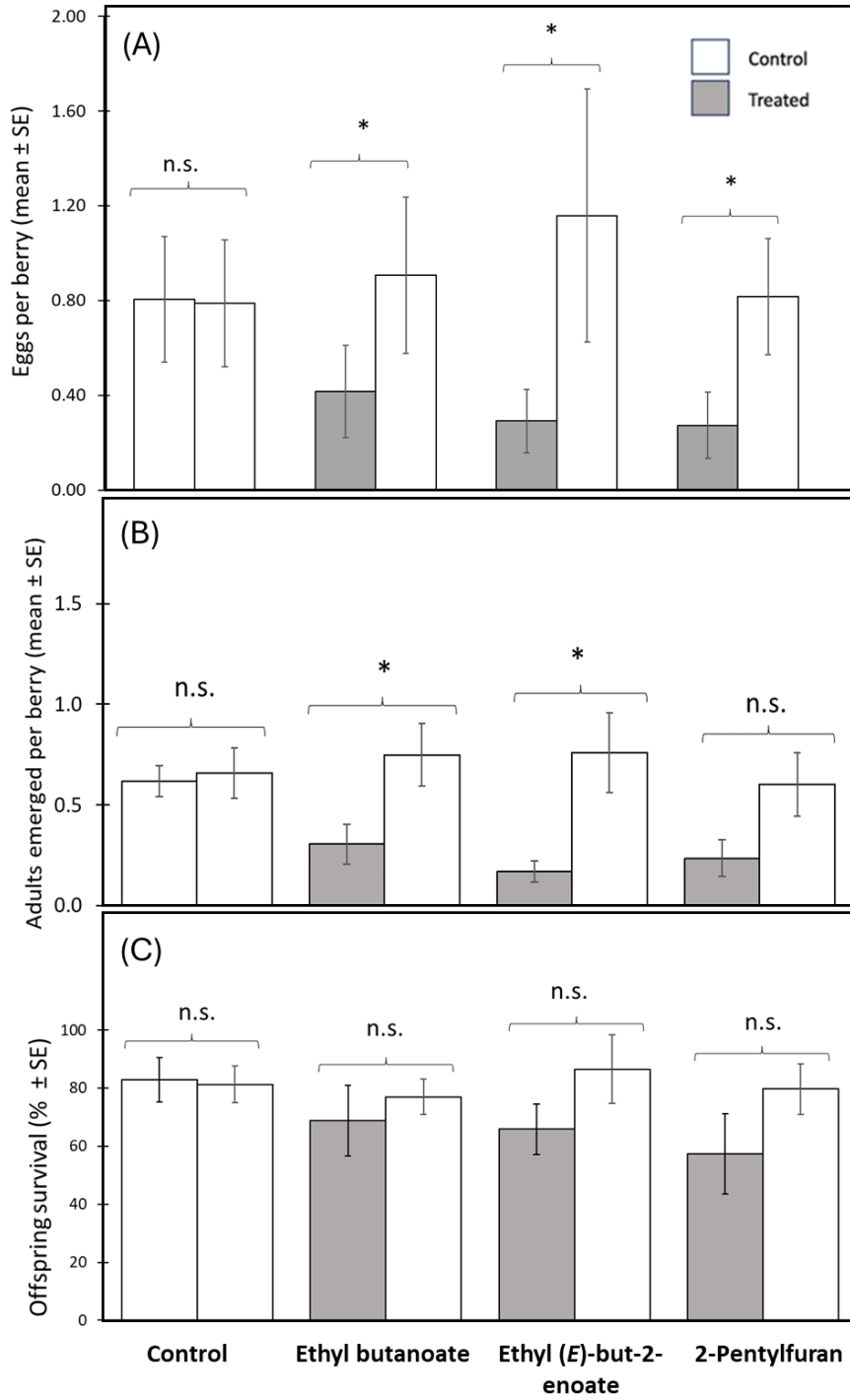
653 Fig. 2



654

655

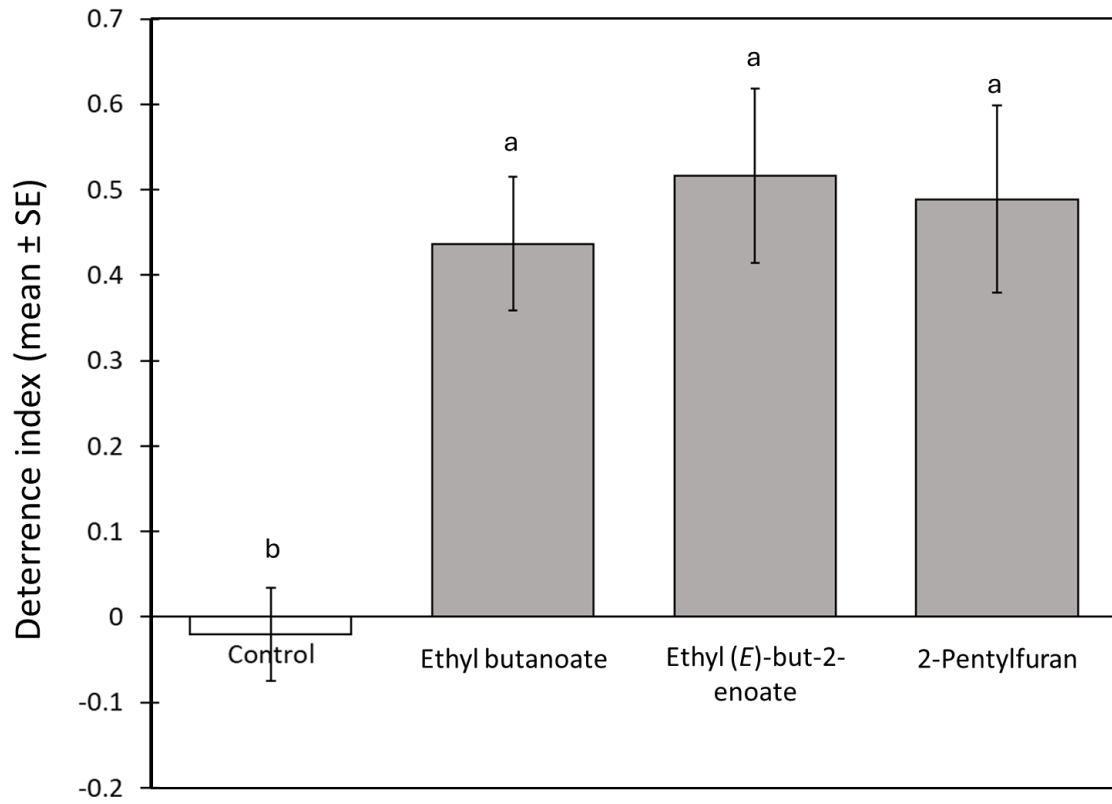
656 Fig. 3



657

658

659 Fig. 4



660

661

