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45 **Keywords:** chemical ecology; Integrated Pest Management; *Lobesia botrana*; mating
46 disruption; pesticide-free farming; sex pheromones

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1 **49 Introduction**

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6 51 Currently, about 1.8 billion people are involved in agricultural activities
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8 52 worldwide, and most of them rely on pesticides to protect crops and livestock (Aktar et
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10 53 al. 2009; Alavanja 2009). Nowadays, the European Commission Directives are directed
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12 54 towards a significant reduction in pesticide use in the short to medium term (Hillocks
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14 55 2012), to produce residue-free foods and reduce the toxicological impact of pesticides
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16 56 on human health and the environment (Hicks et al. 2017; Silver et al. 2017). Therefore,
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18 57 growing research attention is devoted to the development of environmentally friendly
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20 58 and sustainable strategies to control insect pests of agricultural importance (Todd et al.
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22 59 2015; Gonzalez-Chang et al. 2016; Holland et al. 2016). Besides classical biological
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24 60 control programs, the manipulation of insect chemical ecology has also been considered
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26 61 to develop novel, effective and eco-friendly control tools (Witzgall et al. 2010; Kaplan
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28 62 2012; Pérez-Staples et al. 2013).

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35 63 In this scenario, a prominent role is played by pheromone-mediated mating
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37 64 disruption, which is based on the release of synthetic sex attractants into a crop, thus
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39 65 interfering with mate finding of a given pest species (Cardé 1990; Cardé and Minks
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41 66 1995; Suckling 2000; Millar et al. 2006). In Lepidoptera, mate finding is generally
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43 67 routed by female sex pheromones, which mediate scramble competition among males
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45 68 for access to females (Tcheslavskaja et al. 2005; Witzgall et al. 2008; Lance et al.
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47 69 2016). Moth females release small amounts of their sex pheromone and the males detect
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49 70 these plumes relying on their highly sensitive neurosensory structures (Cardé and
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51 71 Haynes 2004; Cardé and Willis 2005). Since moths strongly rely on sex pheromones to
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53 72 find their mates, dispensers releasing synthetic sexual pheromones can be efficaciously
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1 73 exploited in mating disruption programs to suppress pest reproduction in selected areas.
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3 74 This can be achieved by both non-competitive and competitive mechanisms, the first
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5 75 covering camouflage, desensitization, and sensory imbalance, the latter mainly due to
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7 76 false-plume following (Millar et al. 2006; Millar and Gut 2015). Notably, up to now, no
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9 77 negative effects on non-target organisms have been observed, making this method
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11 78 compatible with modern Integrated Pest Management strategies (Welter et al. 2005;
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13 79 Miller et al. 2006; Witzgall et al. 2010; Ioriatti et al. 2012; Ioriatti and Lucchi 2016).

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18 80 Concerning insect pests of vineyards, pheromone mating disruption was proven
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20 81 to be a reliable and effective tool for the control of the European grapevine moth,
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22 82 *Lobesia botrana* (Denis & Schiffermüller) (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) (Ioriatti et al.
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24 83 2008, 2011; Cooper et al. 2014). In mating disruption programs, a major issue to deal
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26 84 with – to allow large-scale use – is the optimization of the dispensers’ performances,
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28 85 their comparative assessment of efficacy and their cost-effectiveness, which is linked to
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30 86 the time required for field application. In particular, a reduced number of pheromone
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32 87 dispensers in the field allows a strong reduction in the time required for their
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34 88 deployment, thus in labor costs (Gut et al. 2004; De Lame et al. 2010). Moreover, the
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36 89 development of biodegradable pheromone dispensers will also allow to reduce
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38 90 operational costs in the field (potentially no removal and plastic disposal at the end of
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40 91 the season required), as well as environmental pollution (Guerrini et al. 2017).

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47 92 However, while the optimization of the above-mentioned features has been
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49 93 considered in researches on other insect pest species (e.g., Meissner et al. 2010; Funes
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51 94 et al. 2016; McGhee et al. 2016; Sharon et al. 2016, Vacas et al. 2016), limited research
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53 95 has been done on *L. botrana* (Hummel et al. 2017), despite the high economic
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55 96 importance of this pest. Most importantly, to the best of our knowledge, the use of
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1 97 biodegradable dispensers for *L. botrana* mating disruption programs has not yet been
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3 98 considered, with the unique exception of Ecodian (Isagro) dispensers – composed by
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5 99 Mater Bi[®] (Novamont, Novara) and cellulose – that have been tested with partial
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8 100 success (Anfora et al. 2008), without achieving substantial commercial interest.
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11 101 On this basis, Shin-Etsu Chemical Co. (Japan) and CBC (Europe) S.r.l, (Italy)
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13 102 developed the two new pheromone dispensers for the mating disruption of *L. botrana*,
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15 103 namely Isonet[®] LTT and Isonet[®] L TT BIO. Both products consist of two parallel
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17 104 capillary tubes filled with the main component [i.e., (7E,9Z)-7,9-dodecadien-1-yl
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19 105 acetate] of *L. botrana* sexual pheromone blend, joined and sealed at the ends. The gap
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21 106 in the middle allows each dispenser to form a loop that can be easily and quickly
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23 107 deployed by placing the dispenser over the end of spurs or by looping it around cordons,
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25 108 instead of twisting it around cordons as required for the commercially available
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27 109 reference product Isonet[®] L. Furthermore, both products can be applied at a lower rate
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29 110 than the conventional reference product Isonet[®] L (200-250 dispensers/ha vs. 500
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31 111 dispensers/ha, respectively). Notably, Isonet[®] LTT and Isonet[®] L TT BIO differ in the
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33 112 material of which the dispensers are made, which is polyethylene for Isonet[®] L TT and
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35 113 biodegradable polymers for Isonet[®] LTT BIO.
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42 114 The research herein reported aimed at evaluating the efficacy of the mating
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44 115 disruption products Isonet[®] L TT and the biodegradable Isonet[®] L TT BIO in reducing
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46 116 European grapevine moth (*L. botrana*) damage on grape in comparison to an untreated
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48 117 control and the reference mating disruption product Isonet[®] L. The trials were
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50 118 conducted in three different areas of grapevine cultivation, one located in Tuscany
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52 119 (Central Italy) and two in Emilia Romagna (Northern Italy) over three different years
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54 120 (2014, 2015 and 2016). Each year, the impact of the mating disruption products on the
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1 121 three generations of *L. botrana* was evaluated by determining the percentage of infested
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4 122 bunches and the number of nests per bunch. Furthermore, the tested dispensers were
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6 123 periodically collected during the grapevine growing season, extracted and analyzed by
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8 124 GC-MS. Evaluating their residual content of (7*E*,9*Z*)-7,9-dodecadien-1-yl acetate, we
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10 125 estimated the pheromone release in mg/ha/day during the whole grapevine growing
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13 126 season.

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18 128 **Materials and methods**

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23 130 Experimental sites

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27 132 All experiments were conducted in areas representative for grapevine cultivation
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29 133 in Italy. Three trials were carried out in the area of Bolgheri, Livorno province, Tuscany
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31 134 region, Central Italy, an area representative for high-value grapevine cultivation in Italy,
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33 135 while additional two trials were conducted in Emilia-Romagna region, Northern Italy,
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35 136 respectively one in Ravenna province (Campiano) and one in Forli-Cesena province
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37 137 (Villafranca di Forli). Details on the location of the study vineyards can be found in
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39 138 Table 1, and a detailed description of the characteristics of the crop in Table 2.
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47 140 Experimental design of mating disruption trials

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52 142 Since a randomized block design does not apply to large plots required for
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54 143 studies on mating disruption products (European and Mediterranean Plant Protection
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56 144 Organization, 2009), each treatment was applied to 1 large plot, and 10 subplots, big
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1 145 enough to allow for assessments on at least 100 bunches per subplot (32-40 plants in
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3 146 size), were selected within each large plot (=treatment). All mating disruption products,
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5 147 both test and reference items, were deployed before the beginning of the first flight of
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8 148 the target pest in spring. Details on the size of the plots and the date of application of the
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10 149 MD products in the different trials can be found in Table 3. The reference product
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12 150 Isonet[®] L, applied at a rate of 500 dispensers per ha, was included in 4 out of 5 trials.
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14 151 Both Isonet[®] L TT and Isonet[®] L TT BIO were tested at 200 dispensers per ha in 2014,
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16 152 and at 250 dispensers per ha in 2015 and 2016.
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24 154 Crop damage and *L. botrana* population density evaluation
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29 156 In all trials, crop damage caused by *L. botrana* was assessed at the end of the 1st
30 157 generation (=G1, BBCH 69-71), at the end of the 2nd generation (=G2, BBCH 79-81),
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32 158 and at harvest (=G3, BBCH 89). To assess the method effectiveness, we considered the
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34 159 following variables: (i) number of male captures per trap (Trap Test Isagro[®], 1 trap per
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36 160 sampling site) per week; (ii) rate of infested bunches; (iii) number of nests per
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38 161 inflorescence (G1) or number of larvae per bunch (G2 and G3), and (iv) number of
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40 162 damaged berries per bunch.
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45 164 Within each subplot and at each damage assessment, the number of flower
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47 165 clusters (G1) or bunches (G2 and G3) damaged by *L. botrana* was counted on 100
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49 166 flower clusters per subplot at G1 and G2, and on 50 bunches per subplot at G3. The
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51 167 percentage of *L. botrana*-damaged flower clusters or bunches at each assessment was
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53 168 then calculated. Furthermore, at each assessment, the number of *L. botrana* nests per
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1 169 In detail, G1 infestation was measured through on-site surveys on non-
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3 170 destructively sampled inflorescences. As to the two carpophagous generations (G2 and
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5 171 G3), an estimate of the infested bunches was made on samples collected in the
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8 172 vineyards and carefully dissected. This is necessary above all for the compact-bunch
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10 173 varieties, such as Sangiovese, Pinot and Chardonnay, for which a mere field inspection,
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12 174 would often lead to a marked underestimation of the infestation level.
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17 176 Pheromone release of the tested dispensers
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22 178 For all tested dispensers, evaluating the residual content of (7E,9Z)-7,9-
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24 179 dodecadien-1-yl acetate, we estimated the pheromone release in mg/ha/day during the
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26 180 whole grapevine growing season. Groups of Isonet[®] L, Isonet[®] L TT and Isonet[®] L TT
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28 181 BIO dispensers (n=5 per group) were periodically collected during the grapevine
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30 182 growing season and stored at -30 °C until chemical analysis. The dispenser residual
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32 183 content in (7E,9Z)-7,9-dodecadien-1-yl acetate was measured based on internal (SEC)
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34 184 standard GC-MS analysis. The analysis was achieved on an Agilent 6890 N gas
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36 185 chromatograph equipped with a 5973 N mass spectrometer (MS). MS settings were as
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38 186 follows: EI mode, 70 eV, mass to charge ratio (*m/z*) scan between 35 and 400. HP-5 MS
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40 187 capillary column (30 m x ID 0.25mm x 0.25 µm film thickness, J & W Scientific,
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42 188 Folsom, CA, USA) with He gas flow (1.0 ml/min) was used for separation. GC
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44 189 temperature program was as follows: initial 50 °C for 5 min, then increasing with 20
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46 190 °C/min to 300 °C. The injector temperature was 150 °C. The GC-MS estimate of the
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48 191 dispenser residual content, allowed us to calculate the pheromone release during the
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50 192 field exposure of the dispenser, as mg/ha/day. Each value was a mean of 5 replicates.
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8 196 Differences in the incidence of infested flower clusters or bunches (%) and nests

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10 197 per flower cluster or bunch (n) among treatments (i.e., tested pheromone dispensers and

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12 198 untreated control), years and study site were assessed using non-parametric tests

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14 199 (Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Steel–Dwass multiple comparison) at the 5%

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16 200 significance level, since data did not show homogeneity of variance (Shapiro-Wilk

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18 201 test, $P<0.05$). All statistical analysis was performed using JMP[®] 9 (SAS Institute).

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25 203 **Results**

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29 205 First generation trials

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35 207 Figure 1 summarizes the field efficacy of mating disruption against the first

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37 208 generation of *L. botrana*. Isonet[®] L TT BIO, Isonet[®] L TT and Isonet[®] L led to a

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39 209 significant reduction in the percentage of infested flower clusters if compared to the

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41 210 untreated control ($Z=5.756$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=5.156$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=4.811$, $P<0.0001$,

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43 211 respectively), while no significant differences were noted among the efficacy of the

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45 212 three tested dispensers (Figure 1a). Furthermore, also the number of nests per flower

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47 213 cluster was significantly lower in Isonet[®] L TT BIO, Isonet[®] L TT and Isonet[®] L than in

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49 214 the untreated control ($Z=5.681$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=5.238$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=4.792$, $P<0.0001$,

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51 215 respectively), while no significant differences were noted among the efficacy of the

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53 216 three tested dispensers (Figure 1a).

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1 217 Both the percentage of infested flower clusters and number of nests per flower
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4 218 cluster varied significantly among the years (Figure 1b). Concerning infested flower
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6 219 clusters (%), EGVM incidence was higher in 2014 and 2016 than in 2015 ($Z=4.534$,
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8 220 $P<0.0001$; $Z=-2.728$, $P=0.018$), while no significant differences were noted between
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10 221 2014 and 2016. The number of nests per flower cluster followed the same trend
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13 222 ($Z=4.561$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=-2.574$, $P=0.027$) (Figure 1b).

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15 223 The experimental site also played a significant role, showing varying *L. botrana*
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17 224 infestation levels (Figure 1c). Concerning infested flower clusters (%), EGVM
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19 225 incidence was highest in Campiano (RA, Emilia Romagna), followed by Bolgheri (LI,
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21 226 Tuscany) and Villafranca di Forlì (FC, Emilia Romagna), with significant differences
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25 227 among them ($Z=7.398$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=-4.669$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=-7.711$, $P<0.001$,
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27 228 respectively) A comparable trend was observed concerning the number of nests per
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29 229 flower cluster ($Z=7.141$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=-4.899$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=-7.741$, $P<0.0001$,
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31 230 respectively) (Figure 1c).

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37 232 Second generation trials

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42 234 Mating disruption achieved significant results also in controlling the second
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44 235 generation of *L. botrana*, as shown in Figure 2. In this generation as well, Isonet[®] L TT
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46 236 BIO, Isonet[®] L TT and Isonet[®] L significantly reduced the percentage of infested
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48 237 bunches compared to the untreated control ($Z=6.608$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=6.236$, $P<0.0001$;
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50 238 $Z=5.597$, $P<0.0001$, respectively), with not significant differences among the three
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52 239 tested dispensers (Figure 2a). Also, the number of nests per bunch was significantly
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55 240 lower in the Isonet[®] LTT BIO-, Isonet[®] LTT- and Isonet[®] L-treated plots than in the

1 241 untreated control ($Z=6.189, P<0.0001; Z=5.936, P<0.0001; Z=6.012, P<0.0001,$
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3 242 respectively), and no significant differences were observed among the three dispensers
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5 243 (Figure 2a).

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8 244 Infested bunches (%) and nests per bunch (n) varied significantly among the
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10 245 years (Figure 2b). *L. botrana* infested bunches were significantly more abundant in
11 246 2014 over 2015 and 2016 ($Z=-4.126, P=0.0001; Z=-4.993, P=0.018$), while no
12 247 significant differences were noted between 2015 and 2016. The number of nests per
13 248 bunch followed the same trend ($Z=-4.722, P<0.0001; Z=-5.554, P<0.0001$) (Figure 2b).

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15 249 Significantly different infestation levels of *L. botrana* were found in mating
16 250 disruption tests carried out in the three geographical sites (Figure 2c). The percentage of
17 251 EGVM infested bunches was significantly higher in Campiano (RA) than in Bolgheri
18 252 (LI) and Villafranca di Forlì (FC) ($Z= 6.956, P<0.0001; Z= -7.588, P<0.0001,$
19 253 respectively), while no significant differences were found between the latter two sites.
20 254 A comparable trend was observed concerning the number of nests per bunch ($Z= 5.958,$
21 255 $P<0.0001; Z= -7.650, P<0.0001$, respectively) (Figure 2c).

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40 257 Third generation trials

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45 259 The third generation of EGVM was effectively controlled by the application of
46 260 mating disruption dispensers, irrespective of the type of dispenser tested (Figure 3).
47 261 Isonet[®] L TT BIO, Isonet[®] L TT and Isonet[®] L resulted in a significant reduction in the
48 262 percentage of infested bunches in comparison to the untreated control ($Z=4.783,$
49 263 $P<0.0001; Z=4.271, P<0.0001; Z=3.470, P=0.029$, respectively), and no significant
50 264 differences emerged among the three tested dispensers (Figure 3a). The same trend was
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1 265 observed for the number of nests per bunch: significantly lower values were recorded in
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3 266 plots treated with Isonet[®] L TT BIO, Isonet[®] L TT and Isonet[®] L than in untreated
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6 267 control plots ($Z=5.014$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=4.379$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=3.612$, $P=0.0017$,
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8 268 respectively), with differences among treated plots not being significant (Figure 3a).

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11 269 Infested bunches (%) and nests per bunch (n) varied significantly among the
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13 270 years (Figure 3b). The percentage of *L. botrana* infested bunches was significantly
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15 271 higher in 2014 than in 2015 and 2016 ($Z=-5.554$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=-4.608$, $P<0.0001$),
16
17 272 while no significant differences were noted between 2015 and 2016. The number of
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19 273 nests per bunch followed the same trend ($Z=-5.213$, $P<0.0001$; $Z=-4.112$, $P<0.0001$)
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21 274 (Figure 3b).

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25 275 Also at harvest, significantly different EGVM infestation levels were observed
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27 276 in the mating disruption trials carried out in the three geographical sites (Figure 3c).
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29 277 Percent EGVM infestation was significantly higher in Campiano (RA) than in Bolgheri
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31 278 (LI) and Villafranca di Forlì (FC) ($Z= 9.356$, $P<0.0001$; $Z= -7.671$, $P<0.0001$,
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33 279 respectively), with the latter two sites differing from each other ($Z= 4.959$, $P<0.0001$).
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35 280 A comparable trend was observed concerning the number of nests per bunch ($Z= 9.355$,
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37 281 $P<0.0001$; $Z= -7.639$, $P<0.0001$, and $Z= 4.433$, $P<0.0001$, respectively) (Figure 3c).
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42 282 In all mating disrupted vineyards, *L. botrana* males were not captured by Trap
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44 283 Test Isagro[®] during the whole grape growing seasons, providing a further evidence of
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46 284 proper (7E,9Z)-7,9-dodecadien-1-yl acetate dispersion within the tested fields. Lastly,
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48 285 Figure 4 showed the continuous release (mg/ha/day) of synthetic (7E,9Z)-7,9-
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50 286 dodecadien-1-yl acetate, by the three mating disruption products Isonet[®] L , Isonet[®] L
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52 287 TT and Isonet[®] L TT BIO.
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1 289 **Discussion**

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6 291 The development of effective and environmental sustainable control strategies
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8 292 against agricultural insect pests is a crucial challenge nowadays, considering that more
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10 293 than two million tons of pesticides are employed each year in agricultural activities
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12 294 worldwide (De et al. 2014), of which more than 400,000 tons are currently used in
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14 295 European countries (Eurostat 2016). In this framework, the frequent overuse of
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16 296 insecticides rapidly led to the development of resistance in targeted insects (Bourguet et
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18 297 al. 2000; Frank et al. 2007; Thomas and Read 2016; European Food Safety Authority et
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20 298 al. 2017), including moth pests (Reyes et al. 2007; Zhao et al. 2002, 2007).

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23 299 Furthermore, the third generation of the European grapevine moth, which is the
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25 300 most dangerous for late grapevine varieties, is difficult to control, since farmers are
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27 301 experiencing a lack of authorized reliable pesticides characterized by short pre-harvest
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29 302 interval, to avoid pesticide residues in grapes and wine. Mainly, they are toxins from
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31 303 *Bacillus thuringiensis* subsp. *kurstaki* and *aizawai*, acting as microbial disruptors of
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33 304 insect midgut membranes and emamectin benzoate (Muccinelli 2017).

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35 305 Therefore, developing eco-friendly and reliable control tools is crucial. Our
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37 306 results highlighted the high efficacy of the mating disruption programs carried out
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39 307 against *L. botrana* populations in Northern and Central Italian vineyards. The approach
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41 308 proposed minimize the use of chemical pesticides, since it is based on the employ of
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43 309 different dispensers releasing multiple plumes of (7E,9Z)-7,9-dodecadien-1-yl acetate –
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45 310 the main sex pheromone component of *L. botrana* females (Ioriatti and Lucchi 2016;
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47 311 Lance et al. 2016).

1 312 Notably, our mating disruption approach testing the efficacy of Isonet[®] L TT
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4 313 BIO, Isonet[®] L TT over the standard product Isonet[®] L allowed a reliable control of the
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6 314 three generations of this moth pest during the whole growing season. The field efficacy
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8 315 of the tested approach was validated in three different geographic sites over a study
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10 316 period of three years. As expected, we observed significant differences among
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12 317 experimental sites, mostly due to different pest population sizes in early season in the
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14 318 tested vineyards. In particular, concerning the first generation, we detected a high
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16 319 incidence of *L. botrana* damage to grapes in Campiano (Emilia Romagna, Northern
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18 320 Italy), highlighting the presence of a larger pest population, if compared to the other
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20 321 sites. Thus, in this context, random encounters between mates may occur, leading to a
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22 322 decreasing efficacy of mating disruption (Millar 2006). In these scenarios, an effective
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24 323 strategy can be the integration of mating disruption with low-impact microbial
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26 324 insecticides (e.g. *B. thuringiensis*-based ones), since it is well recognized that mating
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28 325 disruption gives its best efficacy on starting pest populations characterized by medium-
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30 326 low densities (Ioriatti and Lucchi 2016).

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37 327 Regarding experiments conducted against the first generation of *L. botrana*, we
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39 328 noticed a significant reduction in the number of infested flower clusters, and number of
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41 329 nests per flower cluster as well, if compared to the untreated control. Besides, when
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43 330 mating disruption tests were conducted against the second and third generation of *L.*
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45 331 *botrana*, a strong reduction in the number of infested bunches and number of nests per
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47 332 bunch was achieved. Earlier, Anfora et al. (2008) observed a significant field efficacy of
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49 333 mating disruption carried out against *L. botrana* using Ecodian[®] dispensers, showing a
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51 334 reduction in the overall attractiveness of traps lured with calling females and monitoring
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53 335 baits. However, the authors tested 1600 dispensers/ha (Anfora et al. 2008), while in the
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1 336 present study the biodegradable dispenser was tested at 200-250 dispensers/ha, still
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3 337 allowing an adequate release of synthetic (7E,9Z)-7,9-dodecadien-1-yl acetate, and
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5 338 achieving a substantial reduction of the incidence of *L. botrana* damage on grapes.
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8 339 As a general trend, the efficacy of Isonet[®] L TT BIO, Isonet[®] L TT and Isonet[®]
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10 340 L was comparable. Indeed, the performances of all the tested dispensers did not differ in
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12 341 terms of infested flower clusters/bunches and nests per flower cluster/bunch. This was
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14 342 noted in all experimental sites over three years of field experiments. As indicate by the
15
16 343 curves showing the release of (7E,9Z)-7,9-dodecadien-1-yl acetate over time (Figure 4),
17
18 344 the three dispensers tested here can protect treated vineyards from *L. botrana* infestation
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20 345 during the whole growing season, ensuring a continuous release of sex pheromone
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22 346 plumes.
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27 347 To our mind, there are three practical implications arising from these findings.
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29 348 First, the comparable field performances of Isonet[®] L TT BIO and Isonet[®] L TT vs.
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31 349 Isonet[®] L allow reducing the number of pheromone dispensers needed per hectare (200-
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33 350 250 vs. 500 dispensers/ha), thus direct costs for buying them, the labor cost to apply the
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35 351 dispensers in the vineyard, as well as waste disposal contributing to environmental
36
37 352 pollution, which nowadays represent a serious environmental concern (Rochman et al.
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39 353 2013, 2016; Vegter et al. 2014; Jambeck et al. 2015).
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43 354 Second, a lower number of sex pheromones dispensers has a direct impact on
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45 355 farmers' economy, reducing labor cost. Indeed, the time needed to apply sex pheromone
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47 356 dispensers is 3 h/ha for Isonet[®] L, while it drops to 1-1.5 h/ha using Isonet[®] L TT or
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49 357 Isonet[®] L TT BIO, due to the lower number of required dispensers per hectare. When
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51 358 designing this study, we considered that testing a lower number of dispensers per
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53 359 hectare, can lead to reduced efficacy of mating disruption, as earlier outlined by several
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1 360 authors studying the effective rate of mating disruption dispensers per hectare in the
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3 361 fight against other moth pests of economic importance, such as *Cydia pomonella* (L.)
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5 362 (e.g., Epstein et al. 2006; Stelinski et al. 2006b; Patanita 2007; Grieshop et al. 2010).
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7
8 363 However, the present results showed that this was not the case, since the tested numbers
9
10 364 of dispensers allowed a reliable control of the *L. botrana* three generations in all the
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12 365 experimental sites.

15 366 Third, the comparable efficacy of the biodegradable dispenser Isonet[®] L TT BIO
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17 367 over the widely adopted non-biodegradable Isonet[®] L ones, contributes to reducing
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19 368 waste disposal in agricultural systems, replacing them with more eco-friendly materials
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21 369 prepared from natural resources (Ashori 2008; Boghossian and Wegner 2008;
22
23 370 Castellano et al. 2008; Scarascia-Mugnozza et al. 2012; Bledzki et al. 2015). Our results
24
25 371 also support earlier findings by other authors, focusing on the employ of biodegradable
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27 372 dispensers for mating disruption of insect pests of agricultural importance, including the
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29 373 grape berry moth, *Paralobesia viteana* (Clemens) (Teixeira et al. 2000; Jenkins and
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31 374 Isaacs 2008), the codling moth, *C. pomonella* (Angeli et al. 2007), the Oriental fruit
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33 375 moth, *Grapholita molesta* (Busck) (Frédérique et al. 2007; Stelinski et al. 2005, 2006a,
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35 376 2007), the light brown apple moth, *Epiphyas postvittana* (Walker) (Brockerhoff et al.
36
37 377 2012; Suckling et al. 2012), the Asiatic rice borer, *Chilo suppressalis* (Walker) (Vacas
38
39 378 et al. 2010a), the California red scale, *Aonidiella aurantii* Maskell (Vacas et al. 2009,
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41 379 2010b, 2012), the grub beetle, *Dasylepida ishigakiensis* Nijima et Kinoshita (Arakaki
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43 380 et al. 2017), and the Oriental beetle, *Anomala orientalis* Waterhouse (Behle et al. 2008).
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52 381 Overall, the present research provides useful information for the optimization of
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54 382 eco-friendly mating disruption programs against *L. botrana* populations, highlighting
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56 383 the interesting potential of biodegradable pheromone dispensers that can be easily
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1 384 applied at low density in vineyards of high economic value, reducing the use of
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3 385 chemical pesticides to control moth pests.
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36 399 **Conflict of Interest**
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41 401 Authors declare no competing interests. Mention of trade names or commercial
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43 402 products in this publication is solely to providing specific information and does not
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45 403 imply recommendation or endorsement by the University of Pisa.
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Table 1. Location of study vineyards and year of mating disruption trials.

Trial	Site	Province	Region	Longitude	Latitude	Year
1	Villafranca di Forlì	Forlì-Cesena	Emilia-Romagna	12.0277° E	44.3111° N	2014
2	Campiano	Ravenna	Emilia-Romagna	12.2091°	44.3019° N	2014
3	Bolgheri	Livorno	Tuscany	10.602487	43.200687	2014
4	Bolgheri	Livorno	Tuscany	10.5693° E	43.1970° N	2015
5	Bolgheri	Livorno	Tuscany	10.5693° E	43.1970° N	2016

Table 2. Crop description of vineyards where mating disruption dispensers were tested.

Trial	Cultivar	Rootstock	Training system	Row spacing (m)	Spacing within row (m)	Plant age (years)
1	Trebbiano	Kober 5 BB	Pendelbogen	3.5-4.0	1.5-2.8	9-50
2	Trebbiano	Kober 5 B	Casarsa	3.5	2.0	16
3	Vermentino	3309	Guyot	2,5	1	20
4	Cabernet Sauvignon	101.14 and 3309	Low cordon	2.0-2.3	0.8	4-15
5	Cabernet Sauvignon	101.14 and 3309	Low cordon	2.0-2.3	0.8	5-16

Table 3. Size of study plots, number of dispensers applied and date of application of dispensers in the different mating disruption trials.

Trial	Plot size (ha)				Date of dispenser deployment
	(N. dispensers/ha)				
	Untreated control	Isonet [®] L TT	Isonet [®] L BIO	Isonet [®] L	
1	0.05	2.10 (200)	2.17 (200)	1.48 (500)	1 April 2014
2	0.65	2.98 (200)	2.98 (200)	2.38 (500)	1 April 2014
3	7.50	5.00 (200)	5.00 (200)	-	27 March 2014
4	1.50	8.50 (250)	7.8 (250)	7.20 (250)	18 March 2015
5	4.40	8.01 (250)	8.40 (250)	8.40 (500)	29 March 2016

Figures' captions

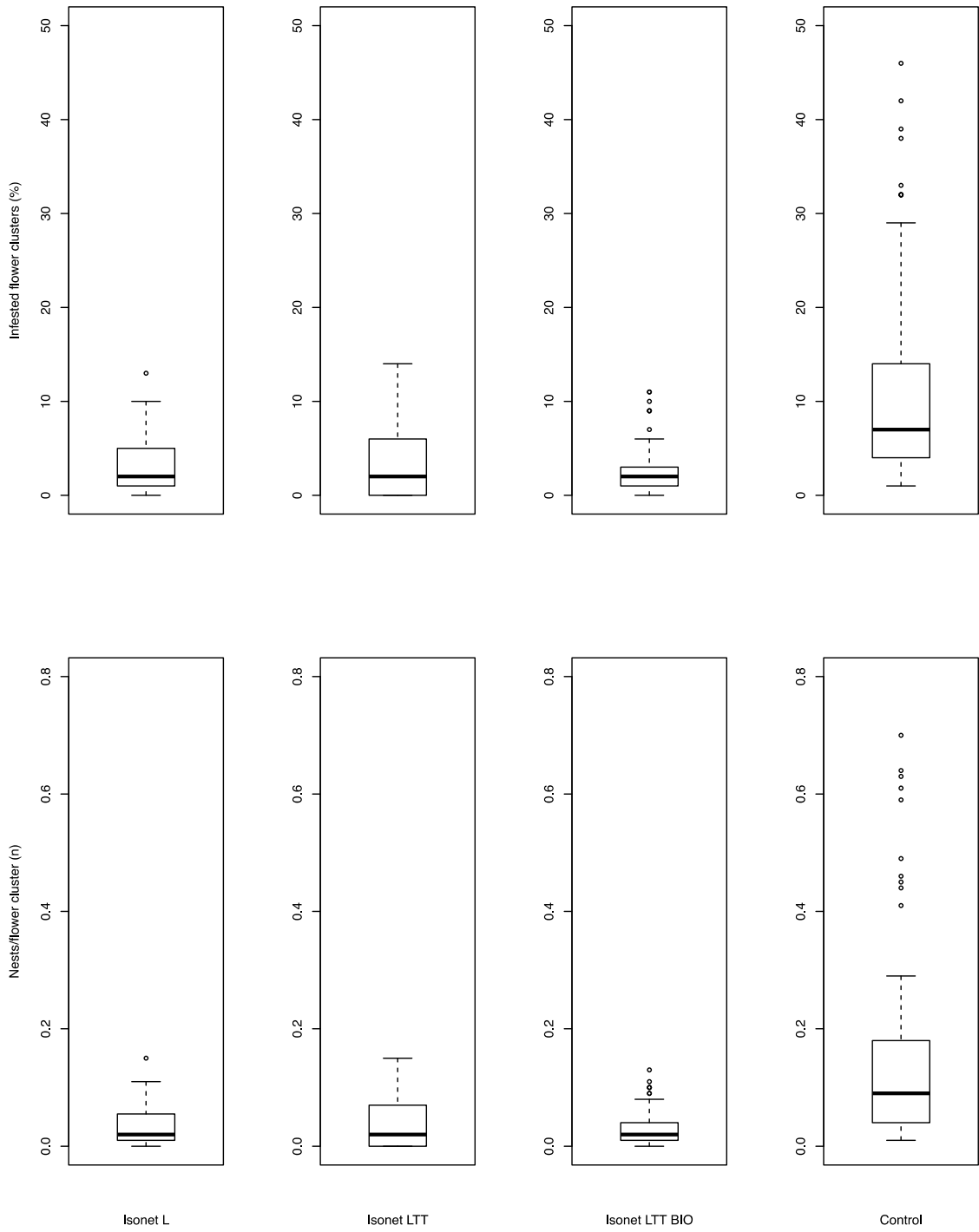
Figure 1. Field efficacy of mating disruption against the first generation of the European grapevine moth (EGVM) *Lobesia botrana*. Experiments were carried out over three different years and geographical sites. Box plots of infested flower clusters (%) and nests per flower cluster (n) of EGVM showing the effect of (a) the tested dispenser used for mating disruption, (b) the year and (c) the geographical site. Box plots indicate the median (solid line) within each box and the range of dispersion (lower and upper quartiles and outliers) of the median infestation parameter.

Figure 2. Field efficacy of mating disruption against the second generation of the European grapevine moth (EGVM) *Lobesia botrana*. Experiments were carried out over three different years and geographical sites. Box plots of infested bunches (%) and nests per bunch (n) of EGVM showing the effect of (a) the tested dispenser used for mating disruption, (b) the year and (c) the geographical site. Box plots indicate the median (solid line) within each box and the range of dispersion (lower and upper quartiles and outliers) of the median infestation parameter.

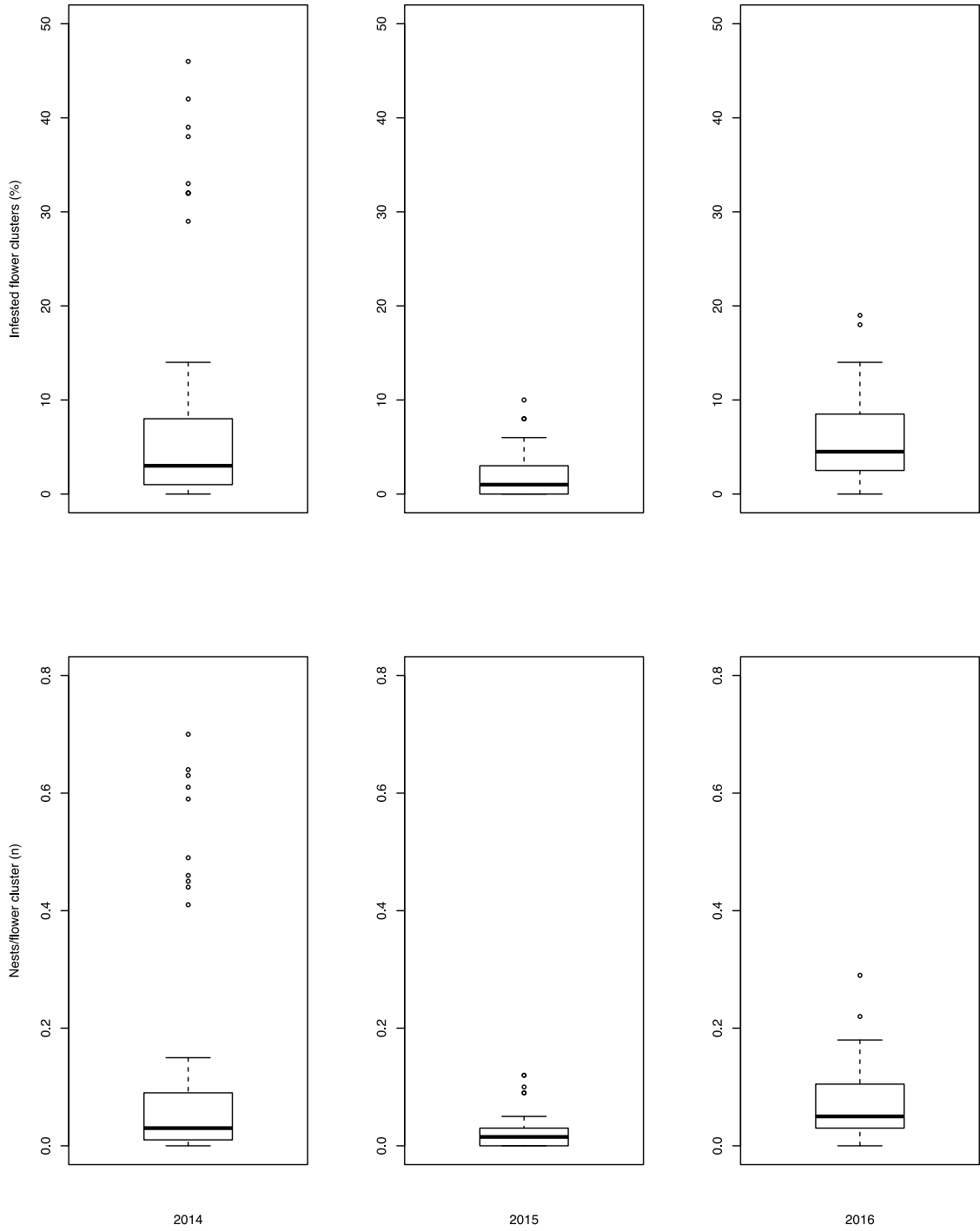
Figure 3. Field efficacy of mating disruption against the third generation of the European grapevine moth (EGVM) *Lobesia botrana*. Experiments were carried out over three different years and geographical sites. Box plots of infested bunches (%) and nests per bunch (n) of EGVM showing the effect of (a) the tested dispenser used for mating disruption, (b) the year and (c) the geographical site. Box plots indicate the median (solid line) within each box and the range of dispersion (lower and upper quartiles and outliers) of the median infestation parameter.

Figure 4. GC-MS results showing the continuous release (mg/ha/day) of synthetic (7E,9Z)-7,9-dodecadien-1-yl acetate, the main sex pheromone component of *Lobesia botrana* females, by the three mating disruption products Isonet[®] L, Isonet[®] L TT and Isonet[®] L TT BIO.

Figure 1.
(a)



(b)



(c)

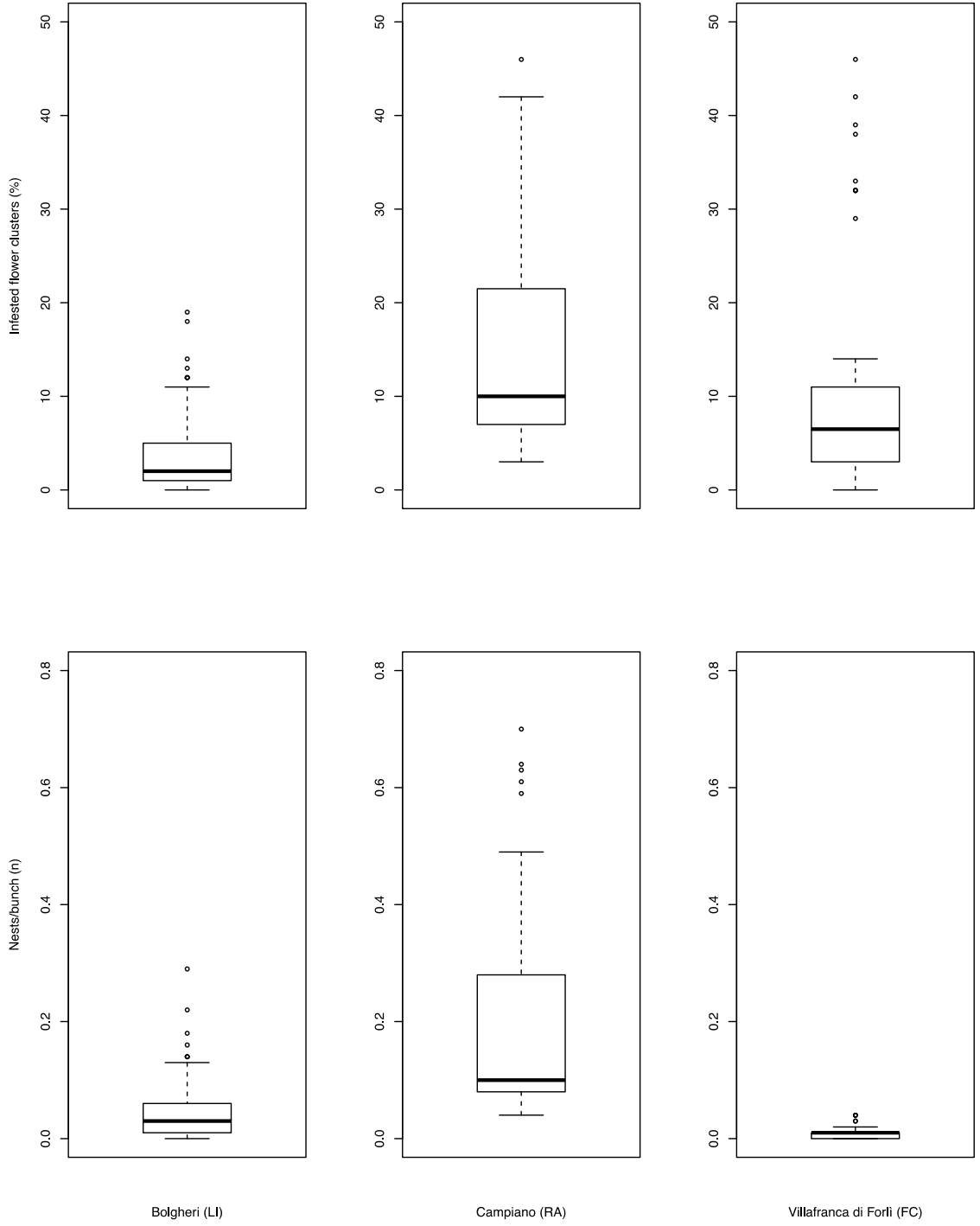
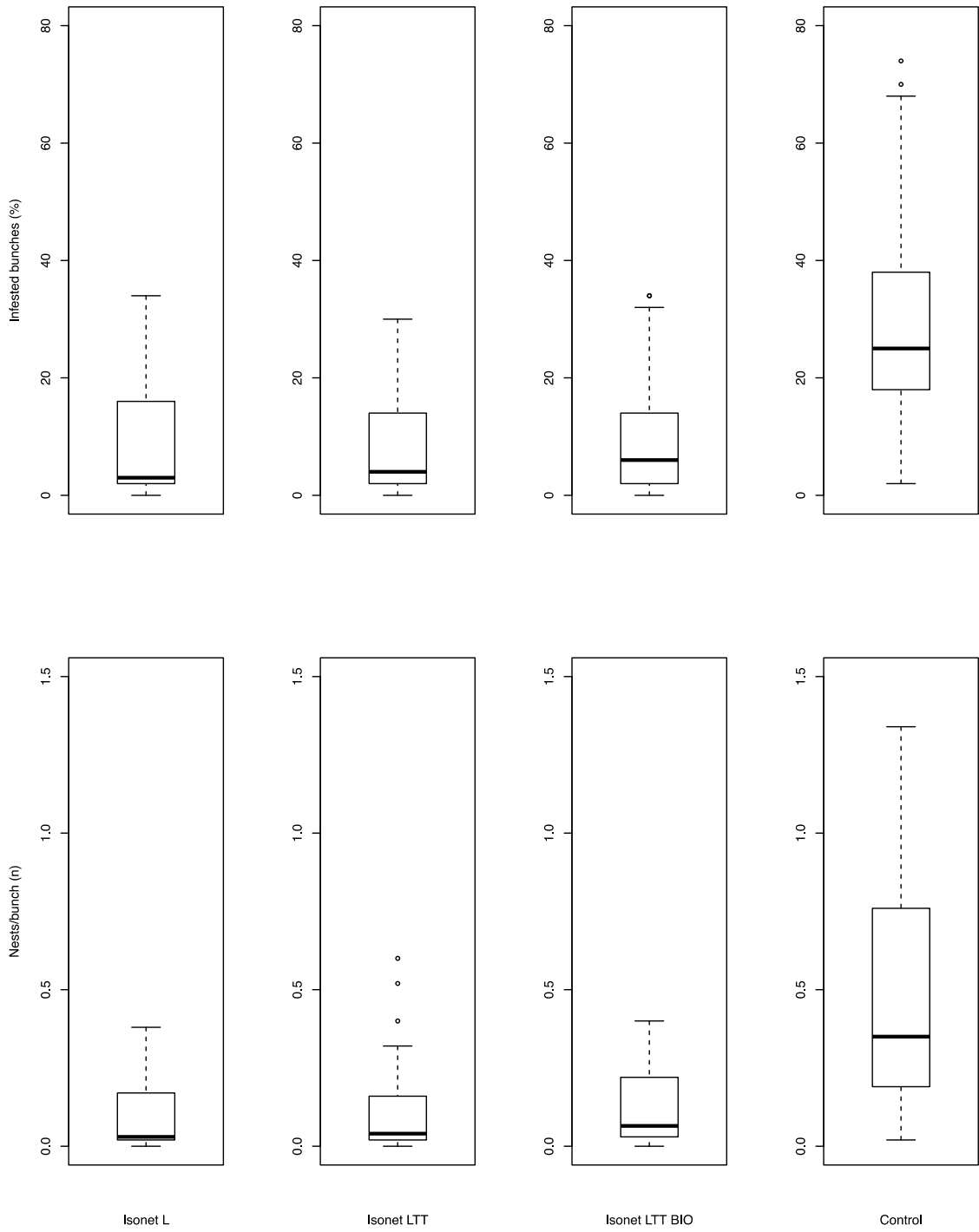
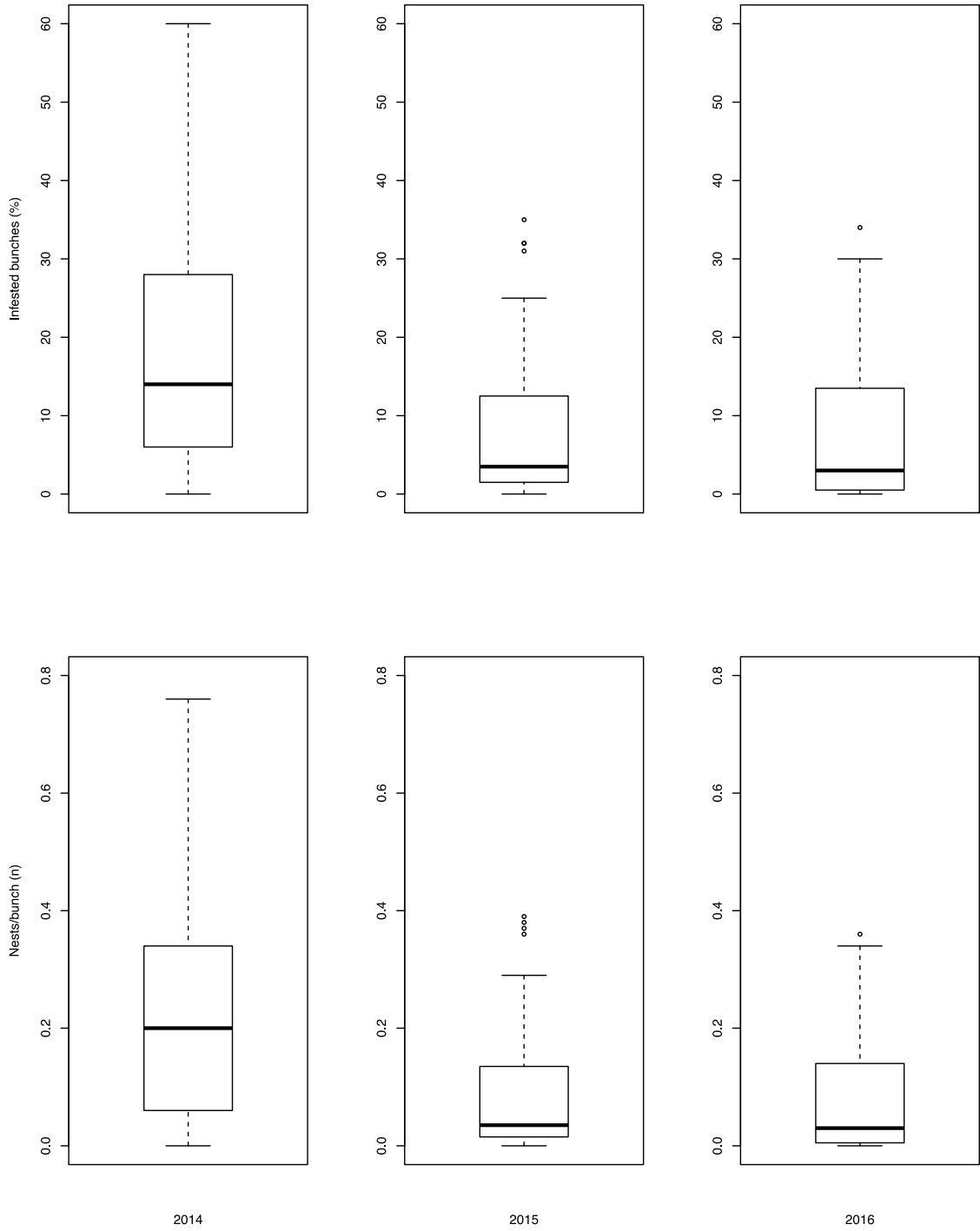


Figure 2.
(a)



(b)



(c)

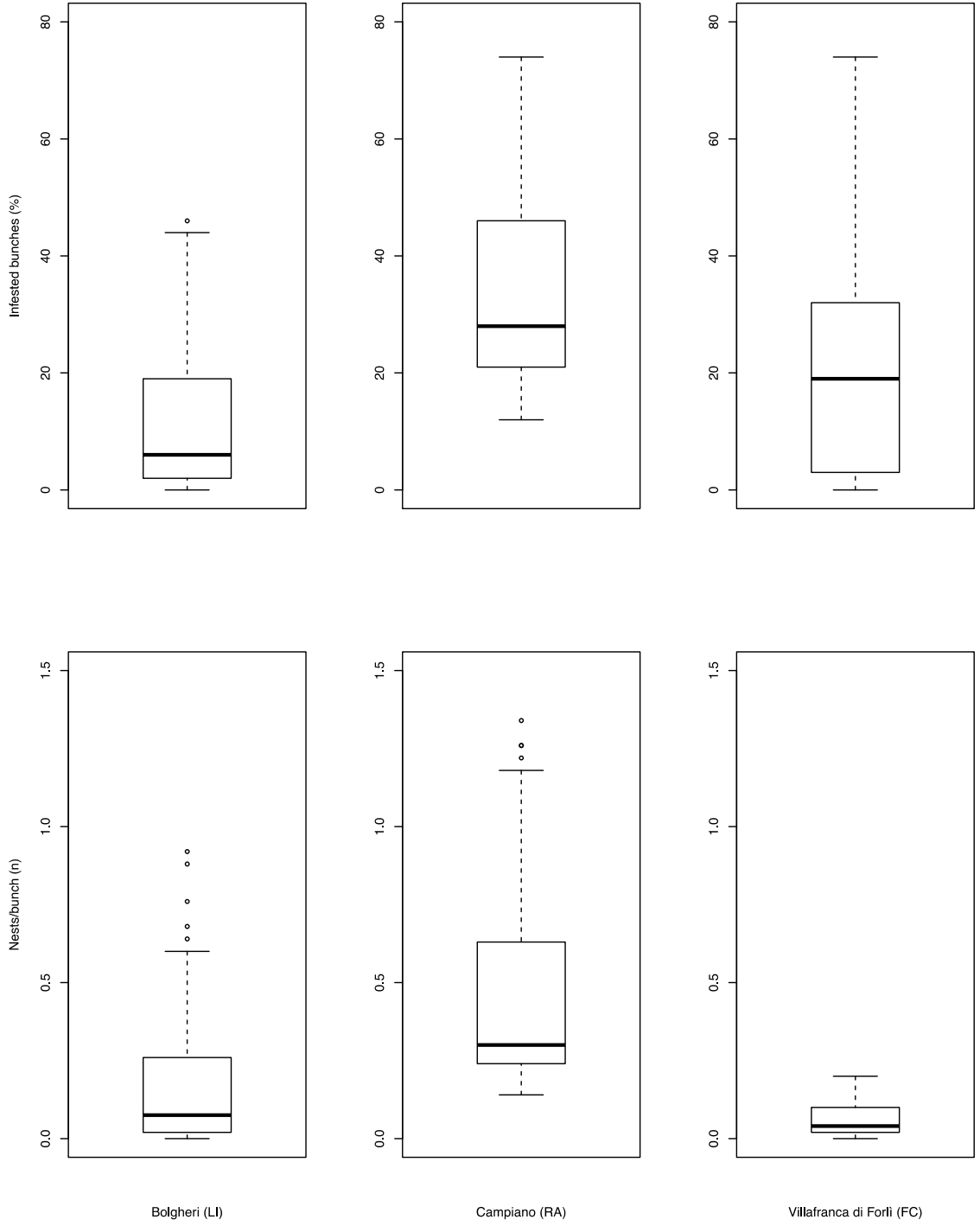
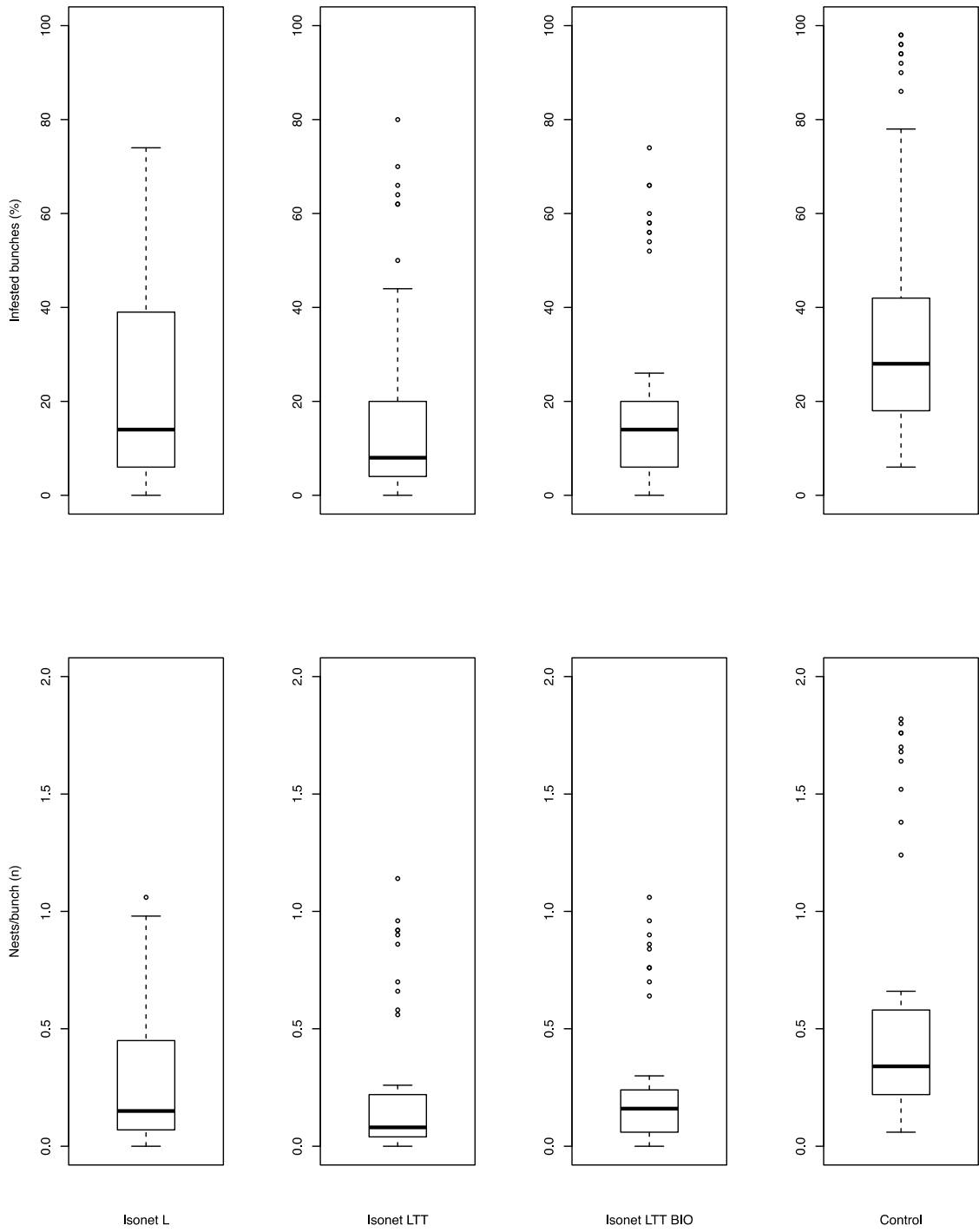
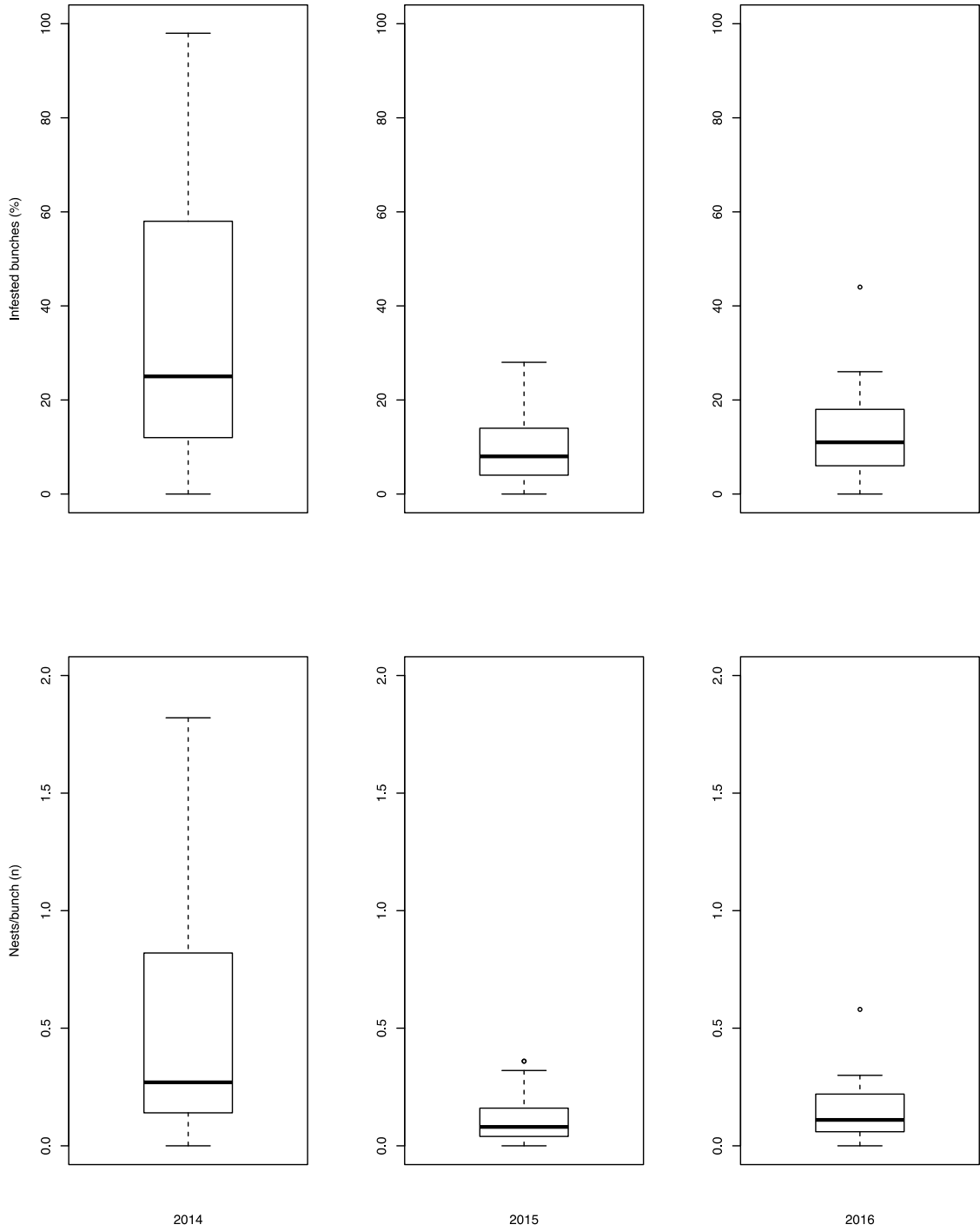


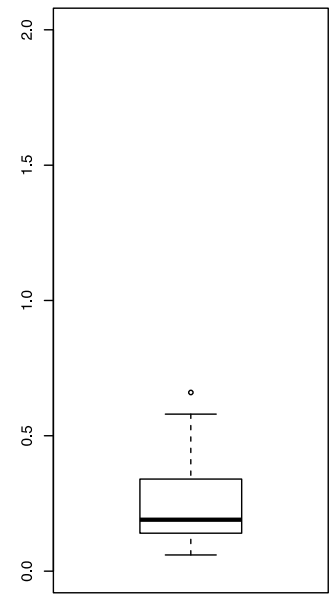
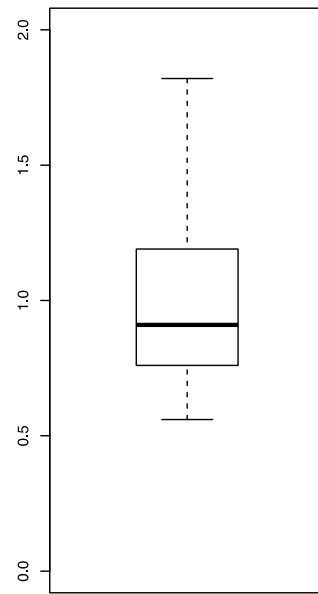
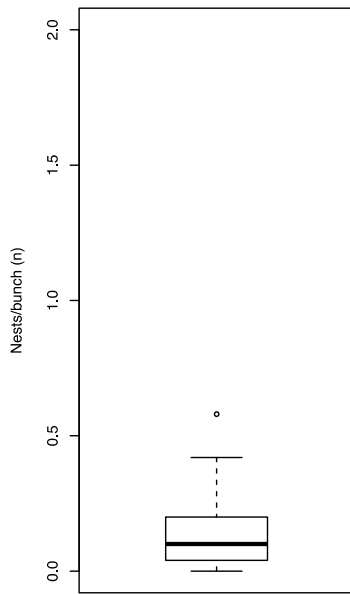
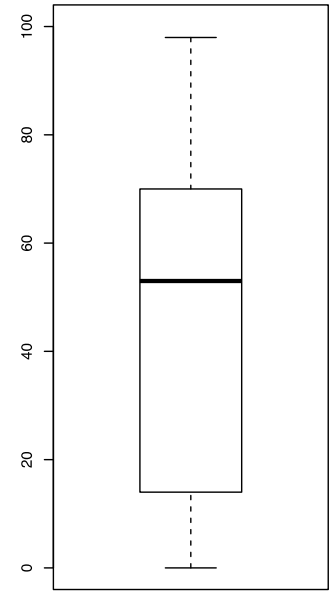
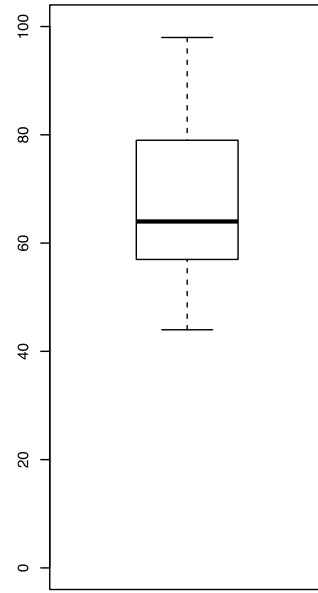
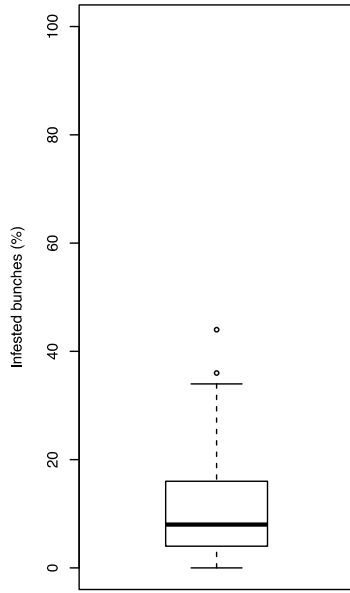
Figure 3.
(a)



(b)



(c)



Bolgheri (LI)

Campiano (RA)

Villafranca di Forlì (FC)

Figure 4.

