### Click here to view linked References

1	Lobesia botrana males mainly fly at dusk – video camera-assisted pheromone traps and
2	implications for mating disruption
3	
4	Andrea Lucchi <sup>1</sup> , Paolo Sambado <sup>2</sup> , Anna B. Juan Royo <sup>2</sup> , Bruno Bagnoli <sup>3</sup> , Giovanni Benelli <sup>1,4</sup> *
5	
6	<sup>1</sup> Department of Agriculture, Food and Environment, University of Pisa, via del Borghetto 80,
7	56124 Pisa, Italy
8	<sup>2</sup> CBC Iberia S.A., Av. Diagonal 605, 08028 Barcelona, Spain
9	<sup>3</sup> Department for Innovation in Biological, Agro-food and Forest Systems, University of
10	Tuscia, via San Camillo de Lellis s.n.c., 01100 Viterbo, Italy
11	<sup>4</sup> The BioRobotics Institute, Sant'Anna School of Advanced Studies, viale Rinaldo Piaggio
12	34, 56025 Pontedera, Pisa, Italy
13	
14	* Corresponding author: G. Benelli. Tel.: +39-050.2216141. Fax: +39-050.2216087. E-mail
15	addresses: <u>benelli.giovanni@gmail.com</u>
16	

## 18 Abstract

19

20	Pheromone-mediated mating disruption (MD) is currently considered an effective strategy to
21	control the European grapevine moth (EGVM), Lobesia botrana, with a successful
22	interference on natural female calling during the male searching flight. However, little is
23	known on the impact of the hour of the day on EGVM male flight. While various models
24	forecasting the day of maximum presence of males per flight have been developed, field
25	research on the male flight activity over the hours of the day is scarce. Hence, we used video
26	camera-assisted pheromone traps to allow a continuous monitoring of EGVM flights over
27	daylight and night hours, quantifying captures of males. Experiments were carried out in three
28	vineyards located in northern Spain over two years (2016 and 2017). Results showed that
29	EGVM flight mainly occurred between 21:00 and 23:00 hours. Furthermore, male catches
30	significantly differed over the study year, annual flight period and vineyard. Most of the
31	dispensers used worldwide for L. botrana MD continuously release the main sex pheromone
32	component [(7E,9Z)-7,9-dodecadien-1-yl acetate], except for some automatic devices
33	releasing puffs of sex pheromones at selected time intervals. The findings presented here can
34	be useful to optimize the MD technique, identifying selected time intervals when the release
35	of EGVM synthetic pheromones can be concentrated, boosting MD efficacy against this
36	important pest, minimizing the release of synthetic sex pheromone molecules in the
37	environment and reducing application costs.
38	

39 Keywords: chemical ecology; European grapevine moth; Integrated Pest Management;

40 pheromone dispenser; Tortricidae

41

42

# 43 Key message

45	٠	Video camera-assisted pheromone traps allowed a continuous field monitoring of
46		EGVM male catches over 24 hours.
47	٠	EGVM male activity mainly occurred between 21:00 and 23:00 h; all catches
48		significantly differed over the annual flight period, study year and vineyard.
49	•	This study can help to optimize mating disruption programs, identifying time intervals
50		when the release of EGVM synthetic pheromones can be restricted.
51	•	Automatic devices releasing pheromone puffs at selected time frames can be tuned,
52		boosting mating disruption efficacy.
53		
54		

# 55 Introduction

57	Grapevine production is currently endangered by a number of important insect pests,
58	among which the European grapevine moth (EGVM), Lobesia botrana (Denis &
59	Schiffermüller) (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) plays a key role (Reineke and Thiéry 2016).
60	Nowadays, pheromone-mediated mating disruption (MD) is considered a reliable and
61	effective strategy to control L. botrana (Ioriatti et al. 2008, 2011; Witzgall et al. 2010; Cooper
62	et al. 2014; Lucchi et al. 2018). Currently, more than 249,000 hectares of vineyards are
63	managed using MD against EGVM in Europe, with about 76,000, 60,000, 47,000 and 36,000
64	hectares in Spain, Germany, France and Italy, respectively (Lucchi and Benelli 2018). No
65	negative effects on human health and non-target organisms have been observed so far,
66	allowing researchers to claim this method as fully compatible with modern Integrated Pest
67	Management (IPM) criteria (Welter et al. 2005; Millar 2006; Miller et al. 2006; Ting and Eya
68	2010; Ioriatti et al. 2012).
69	In the latest decades, a rather wide array of pheromone dispensers and close-related
70	technologies have been proposed to boost the efficacy of MD, as well as to promote the
71	employment of biodegradable tools or to reduce the number of dispensers per hectare, thus
72	labour cost (Lance et al. 2006; Anfora et al. 2008; Brockerhoff et al. 2012; Miller and Gut
73	2015; Ioriatti and Lucchi 2016; Hummel 2017; Lucchi et al. 2018). The large majority of
74	dispensers currently used for L. botrana MD are "passive" reservoir devices, which
75	continuously release plumes of the main sex pheromone component [i.e., (7E,9Z)-7,9-
76	dodecadien-1-yl acetate], except for automatic "active" dispensers releasing puffs of sex
77	pheromones at selected time intervals (Ioriatti and Lucchi 2016). However, the MD efficacy
78	of synthetic sex pheromone plumes can be optimized concentrating the release of multiple
79	synthetic plumes in the hours of the day when EGVM male flights are most abundant.

80	Unfortunately, little is known on the impact of the hour of the day on L. botrana
81	flight. Earlier research focused on EGVM male flight responses to calling females,
82	pheromone gland extracts and synthetic sex pheromones in wind tunnel assays (Witzgall and
83	Arn 1990; El-Sayed et al. 1999), as well as on their flight trajectories, which have been deeply
84	investigated in laboratory using computer-based devices (El-Sayed et al. 2000). Besides,
85	remarkable attempts have been done to develop models forecasting the day of maximum
86	flight of males per EGVM generation (also known as "peak flight") (Götz 1939; Gabel and
87	Stockel 1988; Gallardo et al. 2009; Amo-Salas et al. 2011).
88	Several attempts have been made in the past to use sophisticated mechanical trapping
89	devices (Metcalf et al. 1962). Some of them were driven by clockworks; by opening and
90	closing slits at predetermined times, it was determined at which time flying insects would
91	enter in the trap (Götz 1939, 1943). However, such devices were too expensive to produce in
92	large numbers, to install and to monitor daily, thus they have been never used on a wide scale.
93	In addition, field research on the occurrence of male flight over 24 hours of the day has never
94	been conducted. However, in laboratory, Hurtrel and Thiéry (1999) pointed out that the
95	circadian flight activity of females showed a peak before the onset of scotophase and
96	sustained activity occurred during 6 hours around this peak. Notably, validating this
97	information on male moths in the field can be crucial to understand selected time intervals on
98	which the release of EGVM synthetic pheromones in vineyards can be concentrated, boosting
99	mating disruption efficacy against this important pest, minimizing the release of L. botrana
100	synthetic sex pheromone molecules in the environment, and reducing the MD application
101	cost.
102	Therefore, in this study, we used video camera-assisted pheromone traps to allow a
103	continuous monitoring of the EGVM male activity for 24 hours a day, providing a detailed
104	quantification of male catches in the field for the three flights. Experiments were carried out

105	in three different vineyards located in northern Spain, over two years (growing seasons 2016
106	and 2017).
107	
108	Materials and methods
109	
110	Field experimental sites and study period
111	
112	The field trials were carried out in Zaragoza prefecture (Aragon region, Spain) over
113	two consecutive years (2016 and 2017). Three vineyards located nearby Lucena de Jalón town
114	were selected for monitoring L. botrana male flight from the end of April till the end of
115	August, covering the three annual flights normally recorded in this area in previous years. The
116	selected vineyards (Testigo, La Noría, El Navarro, respectively, 41°31'24.06"N -
117	1°17'17.78"O, 41°35'16.69"N - 1°16'29.82"O, 41°32'13.18"N - 1°15'14.43"O) were 1 ha min
118	surface, managed with a conventional IPM strategy, not based on MD. They were isolated
119	(i.e., not surrounded by other vineyards) to avoid possible influences from vineyards relying
120	to MD for EGVM population management.
121	The pest daily flight was monitored with three camera traps deployed in the centre of
122	each vineyard. The traps were baited with standard pheromone lure produced by Trécé
123	Incorporated for L. botrana, code 3104-25 EGVM. The lure was changed every 4 weeks, as
124	for producer instructions, during all the trial period.
125	In 2016, the three pheromone traps were deployed in the vineyards on April 20 <sup>th</sup> and
126	removed on September 8th; in 2017, the traps were installed on April 8th and removed on
127	August 31 <sup>th</sup> . In both years, the three flight periods were determined by the first and the last
128	catch registered in at least one of the traps. Dates and duration of each flight period of $L$ .
129	botrana in 2016 and 2017 are reported in Table 1.

131	Camera	video	trans
1.7.1	Camera	VIUCO	uaps

132

133 Camera video traps used in the research were provided by Trapview (Hruševje, 134 Slovenia) and customized for the trials. They were fitted with higher capacity batteries and 135 larger solar panels, so they were able to take up to 48 photos per day (one every 30 minutes). 136 Each automated trap placed in the field was equipped with a high-resolution camera to take 137 pictures of the trap sticky plate in which insects were being caught, and with the temperature 138 and relative humidity sensor. The traps used cellular network to send the data and images to 139 the cloud for processing, where image recognition algorithms were deployed to identify and 140 mark targeted pests. Based on the automated image processing, some basic frequency 141 statistics were calculated by the Trapview system. Even though the insect images were 142 processed automatically, the authors were able to access all images on a computer (through a 143 web application, http://www.trapview.com/en) and visually review and verify the collected 144 insects.

145

146 Data collection

147

The sticky plate pictures were revised on daily basis by one of us through the web application (http://www.trapview.com/en). The high-resolution images, taken every 30 min by the traps, were checked for a visual identification of the insects caught to confirm or refuse the identification performed by the automated image processing data provided by Trapview. The number of adult male and the time of the day when they were caught was registered. In addition, the traps were inspected in the field every week to re-confirm the record achieved with the web application (total *L. botrana* weekly catches) while cleaning the sticky plate.

158	Goodness of fit tests evaluating the distribution of L. botrana male catches (n) per trap
159	every 30 minutes for 24 hours a day showed that data were not normally distributed (Shapiro-
160	Wilk test, P>0.05), due to the high abundance of zero values during daylight hours. Thus, we
161	employed non-parametric statistics, analysing the significance of differences in L. botrana
162	male catches per trap every 30 minutes for 24 hours a day (Steel-Dwass test), vineyards,
163	generations and years (Wilcoxon test). The same statistics was carried out on male catches per
164	trap every 30 minutes from 21:00 to 23:00, since we noted that >90 % of the catches falls in
165	that time frame. P=0.05 was selected as threshold to assess significant differences.
166	
167	Results
168	
160	In the second since the site of the second site of the second s
109	In our experiments, significant differences in L. botrana male catches per trap every
170	30 minutes for 24 hours a day were detected ( $\chi^2$ =3442.763; <i>d.f.</i> =47; <i>P</i> <0.001) (Figure 1).
170 171	30 minutes for 24 hours a day were detected ( $\chi^2$ =3442.763; <i>d.f.</i> =47; <i>P</i> <0.001) (Figure 1). Analysing data from field trials conducted in 2016 and 2017, it was observed that EGVM
170 171 172	30 minutes for 24 hours a day were detected ( $\chi^2$ =3442.763; <i>d</i> , <i>f</i> .=47; <i>P</i> <0.001) (Figure 1). Analysing data from field trials conducted in 2016 and 2017, it was observed that EGVM male catches were significantly higher from 21:00 to 23:00, if compared to early morning
170 171 172 173	30 minutes for 24 hours a day were detected ( $\chi^2$ =3442.763; <i>d.f.</i> =47; <i>P</i> <0.001) (Figure 1). Analysing data from field trials conducted in 2016 and 2017, it was observed that EGVM male catches were significantly higher from 21:00 to 23:00, if compared to early morning (from 6:00 to 12:00) ( <i>Z</i> =1.896; <i>P</i> <0.001), early afternoon (from 12:00 to 16:00) ( <i>Z</i> =9.842;
<ul> <li>170</li> <li>171</li> <li>172</li> <li>173</li> <li>174</li> </ul>	30 minutes for 24 hours a day were detected ( $\chi^2$ =3442.763; <i>d</i> , <i>f</i> .=47; <i>P</i> <0.001) (Figure 1). Analysing data from field trials conducted in 2016 and 2017, it was observed that EGVM male catches were significantly higher from 21:00 to 23:00, if compared to early morning (from 6:00 to 12:00) ( <i>Z</i> =1.896; <i>P</i> <0.001), early afternoon (from 12:00 to 16:00) ( <i>Z</i> =9.842; <i>P</i> <0.001) and late afternoon (from 16:00 to 21:00) ( <i>Z</i> =11.904; <i>P</i> <0.001), with the only
<ul> <li>170</li> <li>171</li> <li>172</li> <li>173</li> <li>174</li> <li>175</li> </ul>	30 minutes for 24 hours a day were detected ( $\chi^2$ =3442.763; <i>d.f.</i> =47; <i>P</i> <0.001) (Figure 1). Analysing data from field trials conducted in 2016 and 2017, it was observed that EGVM male catches were significantly higher from 21:00 to 23:00, if compared to early morning (from 6:00 to 12:00) ( <i>Z</i> =1.896; <i>P</i> <0.001), early afternoon (from 12:00 to 16:00) ( <i>Z</i> =9.842; <i>P</i> <0.001) and late afternoon (from 16:00 to 21:00) ( <i>Z</i> =11.904; <i>P</i> <0.001), with the only exception of catches recorded during the first flight period of 2017 ( <i>P</i> >0.05) (Figure 1).
<ol> <li>170</li> <li>171</li> <li>172</li> <li>173</li> <li>174</li> <li>175</li> <li>176</li> </ol>	30 minutes for 24 hours a day were detected ( $\chi^2$ =3442.763; <i>d.f.</i> =47; <i>P</i> <0.001) (Figure 1). Analysing data from field trials conducted in 2016 and 2017, it was observed that EGVM male catches were significantly higher from 21:00 to 23:00, if compared to early morning (from 6:00 to 12:00) ( <i>Z</i> =1.896; <i>P</i> <0.001), early afternoon (from 12:00 to 16:00) ( <i>Z</i> =9.842; <i>P</i> <0.001) and late afternoon (from 16:00 to 21:00) ( <i>Z</i> =11.904; <i>P</i> <0.001), with the only exception of catches recorded during the first flight period of 2017 ( <i>P</i> >0.05) (Figure 1). Significant differences among EGVM catches over the three annual flights were detected
<ul> <li>170</li> <li>171</li> <li>172</li> <li>173</li> <li>174</li> <li>175</li> <li>176</li> <li>177</li> </ul>	30 minutes for 24 hours a day were detected ( $\chi^2$ =3442.763; <i>d</i> , <i>f</i> .=47; <i>P</i> <0.001) (Figure 1). Analysing data from field trials conducted in 2016 and 2017, it was observed that EGVM male catches were significantly higher from 21:00 to 23:00, if compared to early morning (from 6:00 to 12:00) ( <i>Z</i> =1.896; <i>P</i> <0.001), early afternoon (from 12:00 to 16:00) ( <i>Z</i> =9.842; <i>P</i> <0.001) and late afternoon (from 16:00 to 21:00) ( <i>Z</i> =11.904; <i>P</i> <0.001), with the only exception of catches recorded during the first flight period of 2017 ( <i>P</i> >0.05) (Figure 1). Significant differences among EGVM catches over the three annual flights were detected ( $\chi^2$ =127.030; <i>d</i> , <i>f</i> .=2; <i>P</i> <0.001). Male catches per trap every 30 minutes were higher in the
<ol> <li>170</li> <li>171</li> <li>172</li> <li>173</li> <li>174</li> <li>175</li> <li>176</li> <li>177</li> <li>178</li> </ol>	30 minutes for 24 hours a day were detected ( $\chi^2$ =3442.763; <i>d.f.</i> =47; <i>P</i> <0.001) (Figure 1). Analysing data from field trials conducted in 2016 and 2017, it was observed that EGVM male catches were significantly higher from 21:00 to 23:00, if compared to early morning (from 6:00 to 12:00) ( <i>Z</i> =1.896; <i>P</i> <0.001), early afternoon (from 12:00 to 16:00) ( <i>Z</i> =9.842; <i>P</i> <0.001) and late afternoon (from 16:00 to 21:00) ( <i>Z</i> =11.904; <i>P</i> <0.001), with the only exception of catches recorded during the first flight period of 2017 ( <i>P</i> >0.05) (Figure 1). Significant differences among EGVM catches over the three annual flights were detected ( $\chi^2$ =127.030; <i>d.f.</i> =2; <i>P</i> <0.001). Male catches per trap every 30 minutes were higher in the third flight, if compared to those of flights 1 and 2. EGVM catches were higher in 2016 over

180 Since 90% of L. botrana male catches were recorded from 21:00 to 23:00, we focused 181 on this time interval to analyse our data. Figure 2a showed significant differences in EGVM 182 male catches per trap every 30 minutes over hours of the main period of male activity (2016: 183  $\chi^2$ =68.604, d.f.=4, P<0.001; 2017:  $\chi^2$ =53.314, d.f.=4, P<0.001). In 2016, we observed a 184 significant difference between catches recorded at 21:00 over those achieved at 21:30 185 (Z=4.108; P<0.001), as well as between catches at 22:30 over those at 23:00 (Z=-3.891; 186 P < 0.001). On the other hand, male catches per trap every 30 minutes did not differ 187 significantly between 21:00 and 23:00 (Z=-1.637; P=0.473) as well as between 21:30 and 188 22:30 (Z=-2.202; P=0.179), outlining a rather constant male activity in the central period of 189 the selected time frame (Figure 2a). In 2017, the overall abundance of L. botrana male 190 catches was lower if compared to 2016. However, we still observed a significant difference 191 between catches recorded at 22:00 over those achieved at 21:30 (Z=4.112; P<0.001) and 192 23:00 (Z=-4.107; P<0.001) (Figure 2a). 193 Furthermore, Figure 2b showed significant differences among L. botrana catches per 194 trap from 21:00 to 23:00 in the three study vineyards (2016:  $\chi^2=138.109$ ; d.f.=2, P<0.001; 195 2017:  $\gamma^2=25.922$ ; d.f.=2, P < 0.001). In both experimental years, EGVM catches were higher in 196 the vineyard Testigo, if compared to El Navarro (2016: Z=5.108; P<0.001; 2017: Z=2.453; 197 P=0.038) and La Noria (2016: Z=11.769; P<0.001; 2017: Z=5.039; P<0.001). The difference 198 between catches recorded in El Navarro and La Noria was also significant (2016: Z=-7.277; 199 *P*<0.001; 2017: *Z*=-2.762; *P*=0.016). 200 Figure 3 provides an overall analysis of L. botrana catches per trap every 30 minutes 201 in the main period of male activity (21:00-23:00). EGVM catches showed significant 202 differences among the three flight periods (2016:  $\chi^2$ =122.109; d.f.=2, P<0.001; 2017: 203  $\gamma^2$ =46.516; d.f.=2, P<0.001). In the vineyard El Navarro, catches during 2016 were more 204 abundant during the third flight over the first (Z=8.884; P<0.001) and second one (Z=9.031;

205	P < 0.001). This trend was not confirmed in the vineyards La Noria and Testigo (Figure 3). On
206	the other hand, in all study vineyards, no differences in male catches were noted between the
207	first and second flight (Z=0.641; P=0.797). Both in El Navarro and Testigo, most of the 2016
208	male catches occurred between 21:30 and 23:00, with peaks reaching 69 male catches per trap
209	every 30 minutes (Figure 3). In 2017, catches in El Navarro and Testigo were lower during
210	the first flight over the second ( $Z=5.111$ ; $P<0.001$ ) and third one ( $Z=6.896$ ; $P<0.001$ ),
211	whereas no differences were noted between the second and third flight ( $Z=1.958$ ; $P=0.122$ ).
212	No differences were detected analysing catches from La Noria vineyard (Figure 3).
213	
214	Discussion
215	
216	Moth species show specific daily activity rhythms in their sexual activities. It has been
217	pointed out that some species are sexually active early at night, while others are sexually
218	active late at night (e.g., about Tortricidae, Bovey 1966; Batiste 1970; Batiste et al. 1973a,b;
219	see Groot 2014 for a recent review). It has been argued that the differentiation in daily activity
220	rhythms of sexual activities has been probably developed to reduce communication
221	interference among closely related moth species (Roelofs and Cardé 1974; Haynes and Birch
222	1986; Byers 2006; Groot 2014). When searching information about the effect of the hour of
223	the day on EGVM male flight, we experienced a severe lack of literature. Indeed, even if it
224	has been reported that EGVM females call during the first hours of the scotophase (Harari et
225	al. 2011, 2015; Navarro-Roldán and Gemeno 2017) and the circadian flight activity of
226	females in laboratory was mainly concentrated in the six hours around the onset of scotophase
227	(Hurtrel and Thiéry 1999), precise field data on flight daily activity of L. botrana males are
228	scarce. Substantiating a preliminary evidence by Götz (1943), our field experiments using

camera traps showed that male flights are mostly comprised between 21:00 and 23:00 h, with

significant differences over the study year, EGVM flight and vineyard. This substantiate
earlier studies showing that the *L. botrana* female calling activity is mainly concentrated in
these hours (Harari et al. 2011, 2015; Muller et al. 2016). Concerning the effect of the annual
flight period in Spanish vineyards on daily male catches, we observed a slight advance of the
daily flight period in the first flight (i.e., adults coming from the wintering generation)
compared to the second and third flights. This was due to the reduced length of daylight time
in late spring if compared to that of summer.

237 From an applied point of view, the findings presented here can be useful to optimize 238 MD technique, identifying selected time intervals in correspondence of which the release of 239 EGVM synthetic pheromones can be restricted. Indeed, even if most of the EGVM mating 240 disruption dispensers spread continuous sex pheromone plumes, new automatic devices 241 releasing puffs of sex pheromones at selected time intervals (e.g., Checkmate Puffer<sup>®</sup> LB, 242 Suterra) were recently registered and commercially used in vineyards (Ioriatti and Lucchi, 243 2016). These aerosol formulations can be easily tuned to release pheromone plumes during 244 the hours where males really flight, searching for mates, providing a cost-effective alternative 245 to hand-applied dispensers. This may help boosting MD efficacy against EGVM, currently 246 recognized as a key pest of vineyards worldwide, and minimizing the release of synthetic sex 247 pheromone molecules in the environment.

248

## 249 Acknowledgements

250

The authors are grateful to Trapview (Hruševje, Slovenia) e CBC Iberia (Barcelona,
Spain) for their technical assistance, as well as for the tools and facilities kindly provided.

253

### 254 Conflict of Interest

256	The authors declare no competing interests. The mention of trade names or
257	commercial products in this publication is solely to providing specific information and does
258	not imply recommendation or endorsement by the University of Pisa.
259	
260	Author contributions
261	
262	All authors designed the research and conducted the experiments. AL and GB
263	analysed data. AL and PS contributed new reagents and/or analytical tools. All authors wrote
264	and approved the manuscript.
265	
266	References
267	
268	Amo-Salas M, Ortega-Lopez V, Harman R, Alonso-Gonzalez A (2011) A new model for
269	predicting the flight activity of Lobesia botrana (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae). Crop Prot
270	30:1586-1593
271	Anfora G, Baldessari M, De Cristofaro A, Germinara GS, Ioriatti C, Reggiori F et al (2008)
272	Control of Lobesia botrana (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) by biodegradable Ecodian sex
273	pheromone dispensers. J Econ Entomol 101(2):444-450
274	Batiste WC (1970) A timing sex-pheromone trap with special reference to codling moth
275	collections. J Econ Entomol 63(3):915-918
276	Batiste WC, Olson, WH, Berlowitz A (1973a) Codling moth: influence of temperature and
277	daylight intensity on periodicity of daily flight in the field. J Econ Entomol 66(4):883-
278	892

279	Batiste WC, Olson WH, Berlowitz A (1973b) Codling moth: diel periodicity of catch in				
280	synthetic sex attractant vs. female-baited traps. Environ Entomol 2(4):673-676				
281	Bovey P (1966) Super-famille des Tortricoidea. In: Balachowsky AS (ed) Entomologie				
282	appliqué à l'agriculture. Tome II. Lépidopterés, premier volume. Masson et Cie, Paris,				
283	pp 461-486, pp 859-887				
284	Brockerhoff EG, Suckling DM, Kimberley M, Richardson B, Coker G, Gous S, Kerr JL,				
285	Cowan DM, Lance DR, Strand T, Zhang A (2012) Aerial application of pheromones				
286	for mating disruption of an invasive moth as a potential eradication tool. PLoS ONE				
287	7(8): e43767, doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0043767				
288	Byers JA (2006) Pheromone component patterns of moth evolution revealed by computer				
289	analysis of the Pherolist. J Anim Ecol 75(2):399-407				
290	Cooper M, Varela LG, Smith RJ, Whitmer DR, Simmons GA, Lucchi A, Broadway R,				
291	Steinhauer R (2014) Growers, Scientists and Regulators collaborate on European				
292	Grapevine Moth program. Calif Agric 4:125-133				
293	De Lame FM, Epstein D, Gut LJ, Goldfarb H, Miller J R (2010) Effect of varying dispenser				
294	point source density on mating disruption of Grapholita molesta (Lepidoptera:				
295	Tortricidae). J Econ Entomol 103(4):1299-1305				
296	El-Sayed AM, Gödde J, Arn H (2000) A computer-controlled video system for real-time				
297	recording of insect flight in three dimensions. J Insect Behav 13:881-900				
298	El-Sayed A, Gödde J, Witzgall P, Arn H (1999) Characterization of pheromone blend for				
299	grapevine moth, Lobesia botrana by using flight track recording. J Chem Ecol 25:389-				
300	400				
301	Gabel B., Stockel J (1988) Studies of the flight behaviour of the European vine moth, Lobesia				
302	botrana Den. et Schiff. (Lep., Tortricidae). J Appl Entomol 105:205-211				

303	Gallardo A, Ocete R, Lopez MA, Maistrello L, Ortega F, Samedo A, Soria FJ (2009)
304	Forecasting the flight activity of Lobesia botrana (Denis & Schiffermuller)
305	(Lepidoptera, Tortricidae) in Southwestern Spain. J Appl Entomol 133:626-632
306	Götz B (1939) Untersuchungen über die Wirkung des Sexualduftstoffes bei den
307	Traubenwicklern Clysia ambiguella und Polychrosis botrana. Z. Angew Entomol
308	26:143-164
309	Götz B (1943) Freiland- und Laboratoriums-Untersuchungen über Ausschlüpfen, Eiablage
310	und Nahrungsaufnahme bei den Traubenwicklern Clysia ambiguella und Polychrosis
311	botrana. Wein und Rebe 25:135-153
312	Groot AT (2014) Circadian rhythms of sexual activities in moths: a review. Front Ecol Evol
313	2:43
314	Gut LJ, Stelinski L L, Thomson DR, Miller JR (2004) Behaviour-modifying chemicals:
315	prospects and constraints in IPM, In: Integrated Pest Management: potential,
316	constraints, and challenges. Eds. Koul, Dhaliwal and Cuperus, CABI Publishing,
317	Cambridge, MA, pp. 73-121.
318	Harari AR, Zahavi T, Steinitz H (2015) Female detection of the synthetic sex pheromone
319	contributes to the efficacy of mating disruption of the European grapevine moth,
320	Lobesia botrana. Pest Manag Sci 71:316-322
321	Harari AR, Zahavi T, Thiéry D (2011) Fitness cost of pheromone production in signaling
322	female moths. Evolution 65(6):1572–1582.
323	Haynes KF, Birch MC (1986) Temporal reproductive isolation between 2 species of plume
324	moths (Lepidoptera, Pterophoridae). Ann Entomol Soc Am 79:210-215
325	Hummel HE (2017) A brief review on Lobesia botrana mating disruption by mechanically
326	distributing and releasing sex pheromones from biodegradable mesofiber dispensers.
327	Biochem Mol Biol J 3:1-4.

328	Hurtrel B, Thiéry D (1999) Modulation of flight activity in Lobesia botrana Den & Schiff.
329	(Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) females studied in wind tunnel. J Insect Behav 12:199-211
330	Ioriatti C, Lucchi A (2016) Semiochemical strategies for tortricid moth control in apple
331	orchards and vineyards in Italy. J Chem Ecol 42(7):571-583
332	Ioriatti C, Anfora G, Tasin M, De Cristofaro A, Witzgall P, Lucchi A (2011) Chemical
333	ecology and management of Lobesia botrana (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae). J Econ
334	Entomol 104(4):1125-113
335	Ioriatti C, Lucchi A, Bagnoli B (2008) Grape Areawide Pest Management in Italy. In: Koul et
336	al. (Eds.) Areawide Pest Management: Theory and Implementation, CAB
337	International, pp. 208-225
338	Ioriatti C, Lucchi A, Varela L G (2012) Grape berry moths in Western European vineyards
339	and their recent movement into the New World. In: N.J. Bostanian et al. (Eds.)
340	Arthropod Management in Vineyards: pests, approaches, and future directions, doi:
341	10.1007/978-94-007-4032-7_14, Springer Science + Business Media B.V. 2012
342	Lance DR, Leonard DS, Mastro VC, Walters ML (2016) Mating disruption as a suppression
343	tactic in programs targeting regulated lepidopteran pests in US. J Chem Ecol
344	42(7):590-605
345	Lucchi A, Benelli G (2018) Towards pesticide-free farming? Sharing needs and knowledge
346	promotes Integrated Pest Management. Environ Sci Poll Res doi: 10.1007/s11356-
347	018-1919-0
348	Lucchi A, Ladurner E, Iodice A, Savino F, Ricciardi R, Cosci F, Conte G, Benelli G (2018)
349	Eco-friendly pheromone dispensers – a green route to manage the European grapevine
350	moth? Environ Sci Poll Res, doi: 10.1007/s11356-018-1248-3
351	Metcalf RL (1962) Destructive and useful insects, their habits and control. 4th edition,
352	McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York. pp. 403-404

- Millar JG (2007) Insect pheromones for integrated pest management: promise versus reality.
   Redia 90:51-55
- Miller JR, Gut L J (2015) Mating Disruption for the 21st Century: Matching technology with
   mechanism. Environ Entomol 44(3):427-453
- 357 Miller J R, Gut L J, De Lame F M, Stelinski L L (2006) Differentiation of competitive vs.
- 358 non-competitive mechanisms mediating disruption of moth sexual communication by
- point sources of sex pheromone (Part 2): case studies. J Chem Ecol 32(10):2115-2143
- Muller K, Arenas L, Thiéry D, Moreau J (2016) Direct benefits from choosing a virgin male
  in the European grapevine moth, *Lobesia botrana*. Animal Behav 114:165-172
- 362 Navarro-Roldán MA, Gemeno C (2017) Sublethal effects of neonicotinoid insecticide on
   363 calling behavior and pheromone production of tortricid moths. J Chem Ecol
- 364 43(9):881-890
- Reineke A, Thiéry D (2016) Grapevine insect pests and their natural enemies in the age of
  global warming. J Pest Sci 89:313–328
- Roelofs WL, Cardé RT (1974) Sex pheromones in the reproductive isolation of lepidopterous
  species. In: Pheromones (M. C. Birch Ed.), Amsterdam: North Holland Publishing, pp.
  96–114
- 370 Ting D, Eya DB (2010) Human Health Risk Assessment of Isomate®-EGVM. Report
- 371 reviewed by the Department of Pesticide Regulation, California Environmental
  372 Protection Agency and the California Department of Public Health, 39 pp.
- 373 Welter S, Pickel C, Millar J, Cave F, Van Steenwyk R, Dunley J (2005) Pheromone mating
- disruption offers selective management options for key pests. Calif Agric 59(1):16-22
- 375 Witzgall P, Arn H (1990) Direct measurement of the flight behavior of male moths to calling
- females and synthetic sex pheromones. Zeitsch Naturforsch 45:1067-1069

- 377 Witzgall P, Kirsch P, Cork A (2010) Sex pheromones and their impact on Pest Management.
- 378 J Chem Ecol 36(1):80-100.

**Figure 1.** *Lobesia botrana* male catches (n) per trap every 30 minutes for 24 hours a day; data from three study vineyards collected during the three flights in 2016 and 2017 were analysed. Box plots are given in red; quantiles and outliers are indicated by blue T-bars and black dots, respectively. 90% of male catches were from 21:00 to 23:00. Asterisk indicates significant differences in male catches over 24 hours a day (Steel-Dwass test, P<0.05); n.s.=not significant.



black dots, respectively. Within each year, different letters above boxplots indicate significant differences (Steel-Dwass test, P<0.05). to 23:00 analysed separately for the three study vineyards. Box plots are given in red; quantiles and outliers are indicated by blue T-bars and Data from three study vineyards collected during the three flights in 2016 and 2017 were analysed. (b) Male catches (2016 and 2017) from 21:00 Figure 2. (a) Lobesia botrana male catches (n) per trap every 30 minutes in the main period of male activity (21:00-23:00, >90% of catches).



**Figure 3.** (a) *Lobesia botrana* male catches (n) per trap every 30 minutes in the main period of male activity (21:00-23:00, >90% of catches) analysed separately to show differences among the three flight periods over two years and three study sites. Differences between years and study sites are significant (P<0.001). Box plots are given in green (flight period) or violet (hour of the day). Quantiles are indicated by blue (flight period) and red (hour of the day) T-bars. Outliers are indicated by black dots. Within each year, different letters above boxplots indicate significant differences among flight periods (green) and hours of the day (violet) (Steel-Dwass test, P<0.05).



consecutive years (2016 and 2017). Table 1. Dates and the duration of the three flight periods of Lobesia botrana in the study vineyards located in Aragon region (Spain) over two

3	2	_	flights	Lobesia botrana
July 29 <sup>th</sup>	June 11 <sup>th</sup>	April 26 <sup>th</sup>	Beginning of flight	2016
September 5 <sup>th</sup>	July 8 <sup>th</sup>	May 21 <sup>th</sup>	End of flight	
July 18 <sup>th</sup>	June 5 <sup>th</sup>	April 11 <sup>th</sup>	Beginning of flight	2017
August 30 <sup>th</sup>	June 28 <sup>th</sup>	May 29 <sup>th</sup>	End of flight	