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abstract/doi/10.1093/ee/nvz109/5584331?redirectedFrom=fulltext, and https://doi.org/10.1093/ee/nvz109

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*Tuta absoluta* (Lepidoptera: Gelechiidae) success on common solanaceous
 species from California tomato production areas

- Judit Arnó<sup>1</sup>, Rosa Gabarra<sup>1</sup>, Paula Molina<sup>1</sup>, Kristine E. Godfrey<sup>2</sup>, Frank G. Zalom<sup>3</sup>
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<sup>1</sup> IRTA Ctra. Cabrils km. 2, 08348 Cabrils (Barcelona), Spain

- <sup>2</sup> Contained Research Facility, 555 Hopkins Rd., University of California, Davis, CA
   95616
- <sup>3</sup> Department of Entomology and Nematology, One Shields Ave., University of California,
- 9 Davis, CA 95616
- 10

## 11 Abstract

Tuta absoluta (Meyrick) (Lepidoptera: Gelechiidae) is a devastating pest of tomato that 12 has invaded many regions of the world. To date, it has not been detected in North 13 America, but the pest reached Costa Rica in 2014, and seriously threatens the southern, 14 15 southwestern, and western United States including California. Although the primary host of T. absoluta is tomato, several other species of Solanaceae may serve as alternative 16 17 hosts. In our study, we aimed to assess the potential risk that other solanaceous crops 18 and wild species that are often present in and around California tomato fields could serve 19 as hosts. To accomplish this, we conducted greenhouse and laboratory studies to 20 determine if two common cultivars of fresh market tomato, two common cultivars of tomatillo, and the wild plants, Solanum nigrum L., S. sarrachoides (Sendtner) and Datura 21 22 stramonium L., are suitable hosts for reproduction and development of the pest. 23 According to our results, D. stramonium and tomatillo were unable to sustain T. absoluta 24 larval development in either greenhouse or laboratory studies, and therefore, they are 25 not likely to contribute to T. absoluta establishment during an invasion. On the contrary, the two other solanaceous weeds, S. nigrum and S. sarrachoides, share a similar 26 potential as tomato to be reproductive and developmental hosts of T. absoluta, and might 27 play an important role in the establishment of the pest in California. 28

29

## 30 Resumen

*Tuta absoluta* (Meyrick) (Lepidoptera: Gelechiidae) es una plaga devastadora del tomate
 que ha invadido muchas regiones del mundo. Hasta la fecha, no se ha detectado en

América del Norte, pero la plaga llegó a Costa Rica en 2014 y amenaza seriamente el 33 sur, suroeste y oeste de los Estados Unidos, incluida California. Aunque el huésped 34 principal de T. absoluta es el tomate, hay otras especies de solanáceas que pueden 35 36 servir como huéspedes alternativos. El objetivo de nuestro estudio fue evaluar el riesgo 37 de que otros cultivos y especies silvestres pertenecientes a la familia de las solanáceas, 38 que a menudo están presentes en los campos de tomate de California y sus alrededores, 39 puedan servir como hospedadores. Para ello, en estudios de invernadero y de laboratorio determinamos si dos cultivares comunes de tomate para mercado fresco, 40 dos cultivares comunes de tomatillo y las plantas silvestres Solanum nigrum L., S. 41 42 sarrachoides (Sendtner) y Datura stramonium L. son hospedadores adecuados para la 43 reproducción y el desarrollo de la plaga. De acuerdo con nuestros resultados, D. stramonium y tomatillo no permitieron el desarrollo larvario de T. absoluta y, por lo tanto, 44 no es probable que contribuyan al establecimiento de T. absoulta en caso de una 45 invasión. Por el contrario, las otras dos plantas adventicias, S. nigrum y S. sarrachoides, 46 presentan un potencial similar al tomate como huéspedes para el desarrollo y 47 48 reproducción de T. absoluta, y podrían desempeñar un papel importante en el 49 establecimiento de la plaga en California.

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51 Keywords: South American tomato leafminer, *Solanum lycopersicum*, jimsonweed,
52 nightshade, *Physalis ixocarpa*, tomatillo

53

#### 54 Introduction

The South American tomato leafminer, Tuta absoluta (Meyrick) (Lepidoptera: 55 Gelechiidae) is a devastating pest of tomato. After mating, the T. absoluta female lays 56 57 its eggs individually in the upper part of the plant. All four larval instars feed on the leaf 58 by mining the mesophyll limiting the photosynthetic capacity of the plant. At high density, 59 other plant organs such as buds, sepals, stems and fruits may also be damaged. Mature 60 larvae may drop to the soil or find a hidden place within the plant vegetation to pupate. (Biondi et al. 2018). The pest is thought to be native to the western part of South America. 61 It was reported only from South America until its 2006 detection in Spain (Urbaneja et al. 62 2007, Desneux et al. 2010). Since then T. absoluta has rapidly spread throughout the 63 Mediterranean basin and across Europe, Africa and Asia (Biondi et al. 2018). In the 64 Americas, the pest has expanded its range northward to Panama in 2010-2011 and to 65 Costa Rica in 2014-2015 (CABI 2018). The threat of T. absoluta reaching the tomato 66 production areas of the United States, including California, has prompted the 67

development of surveillance protocols and potential quarantine measures by the North
American Plant Protection Organization (Muruvanda et al. 2012). California produces
13,638 ha of fresh tomatoes and 104,409 ha of processing tomatoes with a total farmgate
value of \$1.3 billion USD (CDFA 2017).

72 Although pest invasions have always occurred, vastly expanded global trade has 73 intensified the problem (Pimentel et al. 2001). After an initial invasion, crop damage is 74 usually high and insecticide applications increase, in turn, causing disruption of 75 established integrated pest management (IPM) programs. This has been the typical pattern observed following previous T. absoluta introductions, and it can be assumed to 76 77 be the case in North America as well. Although the success of an insect pest invasion depends on many ecological factors, one of the most critical is the ability to find 78 79 alternative hosts for feeding, reproduction and development when the preferred host, 80 tomato, is not present.

At least 25 species of Solanaceae in the genera Atropa, Capsicum, Datura, 81 Lycium, Lycopersicum, Nicotiana, Physalis and Solanum have been observed or 82 experimentally evaluated for suitability as hosts of T. absoluta (Desneux et al. 2010, 83 84 Portakaldali et al. 2013, Bawin et al. 2015, 2016, Mohamed et al. 2015, Abbes et al. 85 2016, Smith et al. 2018, Sylla et al. 2019). However, the results of the alternative host 86 studies have not always been consistent. For example, although Desneux et al. (2010) 87 mentioned Datura stramonium L. and D. ferox L. as potential hosts for T. absoluta, Abbes et al. (2016) observed no development of the pest on these two species. Further, plant 88 species belonging to the families Amaranthaceae, Convolvulaceae, Malvaceae and 89 90 Fabaceae have been reported as hosts in two studies (Desneux et al. 2010, Biondi et al. 91 2018), while in another testing of six species belonging to these families Bawin et al. (2016) found none suitable for larval development. Despite these inconsistencies the 92 studies suggest that while tomato is the preferred host for T. absoluta development, 93 94 several other plant species may serve as alternative hosts. In addition to their role in 95 establishment, the recognition of alternative hosts that may serve as reservoirs for T. 96 absoluta must also be considered when attempting to detect its presence in a new 97 region.

The objective of our research was to determine if various Solanaceae species that are often present in and around California tomato fields could serve as hosts, thereby contributing to a successful invasion by this species. Greenhouse studies were conducted to determine the suitability of each host plant species for reproduction and development of *T. absoluta*, while laboratory studies were used to determine the effect,

103 if any, on adult survival, fecundity, adult host preference, and pre-imaginal development.

104

## 105 Materials and Methods

#### 106 Plant and Insect Sources

The experiments were conducted at the facilities of the Institut de Recerca i Teconologia 107 108 Agroalimentaries (IRTA), Cabrils (Barcelona) Spain, using Solanaceae species 109 commonly found in California including tomato (Solanum lycopersicum L.), tomatillo 110 (Physalis ixocarpa Brot.), jimsonweed (D. stramonium), black nightshade (Solanum 111 nigrum L.) and hairy nightshade (Solanum sarrachoides (Sendtner)) grown from seed. 112 Tomato and tomatillo were represented in the study with two cultivars each. For tomato, 113 the cultivars were "Patio Princess" (W. Atlee Burpee and Company, Warminster, PA), a cultivar used by home gardeners, and "Qualit 23" (Lockhart Seeds Inc., Stockton, CA), 114 115 a common commercial cultivar. For tomatillo, the cultivars were "Purple" (W. Atlee 116 Burpee and Company, Warminster, PA), a cultivar used by home gardeners, and "Toma Verde" (Lockhart Seeds Inc., Stockton, CA), a cultivar used in commercial production. 117 118 Jimsonweed, black nightshade, and hairy nightshade seeds were collected by hand near 119 Davis, CA, USA. The T. absoluta used in the experiments were derived from a 120 permanent colony maintained in Bugdorm cages (MegaView Science Education Services Co., Ltd., Taichung, Taiwan) inside a growth chamber at 25 °C, 70% RH, and 121 122 16:8 (L:D) on tomato plants (cv. Roma V.F. Eurogarden) at IRTA (coordinates 41° 30'N; 123 2° 22' E). The colony was initiated in 2007 with individuals collected in nearby tomato 124 fields in Maresme County and annually refreshed with field individuals.

125

### 126 Greenhouse experiment

The suitability of each host plant species for *T. absoluta* growth and development was 127 128 investigated in a greenhouse study during April and May 2017. On April 19, a pair of T. 129 absoluta (male and female) adults were released on an individual plant of each species 130 or cultivar contained in a sleeve cage. Twelve plants of each species and/or cultivar were 131 used (n = 84). There were 7.1  $\pm$  0.19 (mean  $\pm$  SD) leaves per plant. The sleeve cages 132 were constructed of transparent micro-perforated film tied around the pot and secured at 133 the upper part to prevent escape. The adults were held in the cage for two days and 134 allowed to feed and reproduce. The adults were then removed, and the plants were 135 checked regularly for the presence of feeding galleries indicating that larvae were present on the plant. Greenhouse temperature and RH were measured hourly with a
data-logger 175-H2 (Testo SE & Co. KGaA, Lenzkirch, Germany). The mean
temperature and RH was 23.2 °C (max = 41.9 °C; min = 10.0 °C) and 66.7% (max =
99.9%; min = 24.8%), respectively.

140 When most of the galleries were empty (May 18), each plant was rated for larval 141 feeding damage as 0 = no visible galleries, 1 = galleries present in some leaves, 2 = 142 galleries present in most leaves, and 3 = galleries present in all leaves. After rating, the 143 plants were cut just above ground level, and the above-ground part of each plant was 144 transferred into a separate transparent plastic cage (4.5L) covered with a cloth to provide 145 aeration. Each pot with the substrate was enclosed again in the sleeve cage. Both pots and aerated cages were moved to a growth chamber at 25 °C, 70% RH, and 16:8 (L:D) 146 147 and checked regularly. The number of adults emerging from the plant material in the aerated cages (above-ground plant parts) and from the pots (substrate) was recorded. 148 The sex of the emerging adults was determined. 149

150

### 151 Laboratory experiments

These experiments were conducted in growth chambers at 25 °C, 70% RH, and 16:8 (L:D) photoperiod.

154

155 Adult Survival and Fecundity

156 To investigate *T. absoluta* adult survivorship and fecundity, one female and one male, 157 less than 24 h-old, were placed in a 2L transparent plastic container (22 cm x 15.5 cm x 158 8 cm) with a mesh-covered 9 cm-diameter hole in the lid for aeration. The base of the cage was lined with a moistened paper towel, and one leaf of each host plant (one leaflet 159 in the case of tomato) was placed on top of the paper. The petiole of the leaf or leaflet 160 was wrapped in a moist paper toweling to prevent desiccation. A test tube with a 10% 161 162 sucrose solution stoppered with cotton wool was attached to the wall of each tube to 163 provide additional food and water for the adults. Cages were checked daily and adult 164 survival recorded. Leaves and leaflets were changed three times a week and number of 165 *T. absoluta* eggs on each leaf or leaflet was recorded.

166

167 Host Preference for Oviposition

A choice experiment was conducted to determine the oviposition preference among the two cultivars of tomato, *S. nigrum* and *S. sarrachoides*. A 4.5L transparent plastic cage similar to that previously described was used. One leaf of *S. nigrum* and *S. sarrachoides*and one leaflet of both tomato cultivars were placed inside each container. A pair of *T. absoluta* adults was caged for 48 h, and the number of eggs on each plant
species/cultivar recorded.

174

### 175 Pre-imaginal Development

Pre-imaginal development was measured using the methodology proposed by Bawin et 176 177 al. (2015). Twenty-five eggs (less than 24 h-old) were taken from each host plant and 178 placed individually on top of a leaf or leaflet of the same host plant in a 9 cm diameter 179 Petri dish. The dish was lined with a moistened paper towel and the ends were folded up to cover the end of the petiole to prevent desiccation. The dishes were checked daily 180 181 until egg hatch. Once larvae were present, a new leaf and/or leaflet was added to the 182 dish twice a week to assure that fresh food was available to the larvae, and water was 183 added to moisten the paper towel as needed until adult emergence. Daily observations 184 were made to record insect development.

185

### 186 Pupal Size

To measure pupal size, four to five plants of each species or cultivar (in the case of 187 tomato) were infested ad-hoc. Each group of plants were introduced in a Bugdorm cage 188 (47.5 cm x 47.5 cm x 47.5 cm) together with one pair of T. absoluta adults per plant. 189 190 Cages were placed in a growth chamber and insects were removed after 48 h. The plants were maintained under the same conditions as for the larval development study. Prior to 191 192 pupation, the plants were placed horizontally on top of a tray lined with paper toweling to facilitate collection of pupae. Pupae in the tray were collected every 72 h. The pupae 193 were sexed according to Coelho and França (1987). Eight female and eight male pupae 194 195 from each host plant were weighed individually using a precision Sartorius Analytic A2005 balance (Sartorius AG, Goettingen, Germany). 196

197

## 198 Data Analysis

Data from the greenhouse experiment, daily fecundity in the no-choice experiment, total number of eggs laid in the choice experiment and developmental time of eggs, larvae and pupae of *T. absoluta* were analyzed with Kruskal-Wallis test and the Chi Square approximation of the H-statistic because the data could not be normalized. Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon tests with Bonferroni-weighted test corrections (P < 0.05) were used to observe pairwise differences between treatments in each of the studies. Two-way
analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze square-root transformed longevity
data and log-transformed pupal weight data. When statistically significant differences
were detected, means were separated using Tukey's HSD post-hoc test (P < 0.05).</li>
Survivorship affected by host plant was evaluated using Kaplan-Meier survival platform
and log-rank tests were used to compare the survival curves. All analyses were
performed using JMP version 13.1.0 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

211

### 212 Results

#### 213 Greenhouse Experiment

No galleries were found on the two cultivars of tomatillo or on *D. stramonium* plants (Figure 1). The distribution of damage ratings was significantly different among the other plant species. The damage rating was more variable on *S. nigrum* with half of the plants having no visible galleries. The tomato "Patio Princess" had the greatest number of damaged plants with only one plant having no visible galleries (Figure 1).

There was no statistical difference in the number of progeny produced between the four host species on which *T. absoluta* reproduced ( $\chi^2 = 3.91$ ; df = 3; *P* = 0.27) (Table 1). The sex ratio was slightly female-biased for tomato cultivars averaging 63.2%, and slightly male-biased for *S. nigrum* and *S. sarrachoides* (56.7% and 50.8%, respectively). Given the methods used in this experiment, 67 to 80% of the *T. absoluta* adults emerged from the soil and the rest from the caged plant material, indicating that pupation occurred primarily in the soil (Table 1).

226

## 227 Laboratory Experiments

## 228 Adult Survival and Fecundity

No statistical differences were observed in the adult survival curves for *T. absoluta* females ( $\chi^2 = 11.42$ ; df = 6; *P* = 0.08) or males ( $\chi^2 = 4.15$ ; df = 6; *P* = 0.66) reared on the seven host plants tested (Figs. 2 and 3, respectively).

There was no significant interaction between sex and host plant on longevity ( $F_{6,154} = 1.13$ ; P = 0.35) (Table 2). *Tuta absoluta* males survived significantly fewer days than females (9.64±0.73 vs. 12.79±0.73 (mean±SE), respectively; ( $F_{1,154} = 11.25$ ; P < 0.01)), but no differences were observed among the different host plants ( $F_{6,154} = 0.10$ ; P = 0.43). All the females laid eggs on tomato leaflets, whereas 50% of those that were offered "Purple" tomatillo leaves did not lay eggs at all (Table 3). The number of females that did not lay eggs on leaves of the other host plants varied from 1 to 4 (Table 3). Daily fecundity of females over their lifespan was significantly higher for both tomato varieties  $(\chi^2 = 27.26; df = 6; P < 0.01)$  while the daily fecundity for the other species varied from 0.81 ± 0.61 eggs per day for adults on the "Purple" tomatillo to 3.23 ± 1.01 eggs per day on *S. nigrum* (Table 3).

244 Host Preference for Oviposition

When *T. absoluta* females were presented a choice of hosts on which to oviposit, the number of eggs laid in the tomato leaflets was significantly more than the number on *S. sarrachoides* ( $\chi^2$  = 15.31; df = 3; *P* < 0.01) (Table 4).

248

### 249 Pre-imaginal Development

Percent egg hatch was similar and fairly high on all host plants, ranging from 78 to 88% of the eggs that were laid (Table 5). However, the mean developmental time to egg hatch was significantly longer on *D. stramonium* than on *S. sarrachoides*, "Toma Verde" tomatillo and "Qualit 23" tomato ( $\chi^2 = 23.06$ ; df = 6; *P* < 0.01), with almost a full day difference between the longest and shortest hatch time (Table 5).

None of the larvae that hatched from T. absoluta eggs on D. stramonium and the 255 two tomatillo varieties were able to develop in these hosts plants (Table 5). In fact, few 256 257 larvae survived more than 24 h. The survival rate for larvae feeding on "Qualit 23" tomato 258 was the greatest (67%), whereas the lowest survival rate was recorded for larvae feeding on "Patio Princess" tomato (32%). Larval developmental time was significantly shorter 259 on S. sarrachoides and "Qualit 23" tomato than on S. nigrum ( $\chi^2$  = 20.75; df = 3; P < 260 0.01) (Table 5). Between 61% and 83% of pupae successfully developed into adults. 261 Pupal duration was not significantly different among the different hosts ( $\chi^2 = 1.76$ ; df = 3; 262 263 P = 0.62) (Table 5).

264

Two-way ANOVA revealed that pupal size (Table 6) was significantly influenced by sex ( $F_{1,56}$  = 46.28; P < 0.01) and by host plant ( $F_{3,56}$  = 3.68; P = 0.02) but the interaction between these factors was not significant ( $F_{3,56}$  = 2.14; P = 0.11). Analysis of pupal weights by sex reared on different host plants showed that no significant differences were found for the females ( $F_{3,28}$  = 0.86; P = 0.48), but in males, size was significantly

<sup>265</sup> Pupal Size

affected by plant species ( $F_{3,28}$  = 6.40; P < 0.01). Male pupae from *S. nigrum* and "Patio Princess" tomato were significantly heavier than those from "Qualit 23" tomato (Table 6).

273

## 274 Discussion

In our experiments with four host plant species other than tomato, *D. stramonium* and tomatillo were unable to sustain *T. absoluta* larval development in either greenhouse or laboratory studies. Neonate larvae died as they began to feed on the leaves of these two species, and never lived longer than 48 h. As a result, feeding galleries were never observed on the leaves.

280 Regarding *D. stramonium*, our results agree with those of Abbes et al. (2016) who also reported no larval development. In addition, Bawin et al. (2015) reported larval 281 development on this species when eggs were laid by tomato-reared females, but found 282 283 little survival from egg to adult and no adult females were produced in their experiment. 284 Both papers suggest that poor quality of *D. stramonium* as host for *T. absoluta* is due to 285 the presence of tropane alkaloids in this plant species that are implicated in herbivore 286 resistance. By contrast, this plant species has been mentioned as a host plant in 287 Argentina, Chile (as chamico azul), and Sudan (García and Espul 1982, Larrain 1987, Mohamed et al. 2015). The various results obtained among these studies regarding the 288 289 suitability of D. stramonium as a host may be due to variable biotic and abiotic conditions 290 (e.g. Moore et al. 2014, Han et al. 2016) or to the different geographical origins of T. 291 absoluta populations (Sylla et al. 2019). It is notable that our study results were similar to those reported by Bawin et al. (2015) and Abbes et al. (2016) who also conducted 292 293 studies with populations from the Mediterranean, where this plant species is broadly 294 distributed (CABI 2019).

The two tomatillo varieties tested were not able to sustain larval development. This may be due to the presence of pyrrolizidine alkaloids in species of the genus *Physalis* (Pomilio et al. 2008) that are considered important in plant defense (Hartmann and Ober 2000). Tropea-Garzia (2009) reported *P. peruviana* as a host of *T. absoluta* in a Sicilian greenhouse close to a tomato crop. However, there are no other records of *Physalis* spp. infestation by *T. absoluta*, although the genus is widely distributed in areas infested by this pest (CABI 2019).

Although *T. absoluta* larval development was not successful on *D. stramonium* and tomatillo, both species were suitable for egg-laying. Daily fecundity on these species was numerically lower, but not statistically different, from that on the two tomato cultivars 305 and the two Solanum species in our study. These results differ from those of Proffit et al. 306 (2011) who reported that T. absoluta preferred tomato over the wild Solanum 307 habrochaites Knapp & Spooner, a species that does not support larval development. 308 Adult T. absoluta females search for host plants by responding to a blend of volatile 309 compounds released by suitable host plants. However, oviposition also depends upon additional stimuli like leaf surface morphology and chemistry (Proffit et al. 2011, Caparros 310 311 Megido et al. 2014). In our study, T. absoluta females laid eggs on plants that were not 312 suitable for larval development. This mismatch between adult preference and larval 313 performance is not unusual (Hilker and Fatouros 2015), and it has been observed for 314 other Lepidoptera-plant associations. For example, Barbarea vulgaris (R. Br.) is very 315 attractive to Plutella xylostella (L.) (Lepidoptera: Plutellidae) for egg-laying, yet the plant does not sustain the development of larvae and therefore, acts as a "dead-end" trap crop 316 for the pest (Shelton & Badenes-Perez 2006). 317

Hatchability of eggs laid in all the tested plants, even in those that are unsuitable 318 319 for larval development, was high (>78%). Although some differences in the duration of 320 embryonic development were recorded, these differences did not appear to be related 321 to the host plant that was provided as oviposition substrate. For example, one of the shortest embryonic developmental periods leading to egg hatch was on the tomatillo 322 323 "Toma Verde", a cultivar on which the larvae did not develop in our studies. In 324 Lepidoptera, oogenesis is largely influenced by nourishment during the larval stages of the parental female (Wheeler 1996). However, although the main role of the leaf is to 325 326 provide a suitable microclimate where eggs may develop, some leaf chemicals may alter 327 egg development (Hilker and Meiners 2011), and this might also influence embryonic 328 development time on different plants. In our studies, adult survival was not affected by 329 the plant species on which adults lived suggesting that the moths did not feed on the 330 plant. Hence, plant characteristics did not negatively influence the survival of the adults. 331 Rather, T. absoluta, as do many moths, feed on nectar and other sugary substances to survive (Balzan and Wackers 2013, Arnó et al. 2018). 332

333 The results of our greenhouse experiment documented that the two tomato 334 varieties and the two other solanaceous weeds, S. nigrum and S. sarrachoides, share a 335 similar potential as reproductive and developmental hosts of T. absoluta. Previous 336 studies have documented that T. absoluta can develop on the nightshade species S. 337 nigrum (Desneux et al. 2010) and S. sarrachoides (Salas Gervasio et al. 2016) and may 338 therefore serve as alternative host species. Daily oviposition on S. sarrachoides was less 339 than half that on tomato, and this observation may be due to previous experience of the source insects on tomato. However, larval development on S. sarrachoides was 340

341 significantly shorter than that on S. nigrum in our study, but was similar to that found for 342 S. nigrum by other authors (Bawin et al. 2015, Abbes et al. 2016). Since S. nigrum is 343 considered one of the most suitable plant species for *T. absoluta* development (Biondi et 344 al. 2018), our results suggest that S. sarrachoides has the potential to play a similarly important role as an alternative host in the potential invasion and establishment of 345 T. absoluta in new regions such as California where both species are very common 346 weeds (Aegerter et al. 2011). Total survival from egg to adult was similar for both weed 347 species (between 22% and 24%). Total survival on tomato "Patio Princess" (23%) was 348 similar to these nightshade species, but numerically lower than those reared on tomato 349 "Qualit 23" (39%). This suggests that both Solanum weed species might be as suitable 350 as some tomato varieties for larval development. Differences in T. absoluta fitness 351 among tomato cultivars have been reported in several studies (e.g. Silva et al. 2015, 352 353 Ghaderi et al. 2017, Krechemer and Foester 2017).

354 The potential for an invasive herbivore to survive in an environment it has invaded 355 is strongly linked to the availability of host plants. Host plant availability in open fields, 356 greenhouses and nurseries has surely contributed to the rapid spread and establishment 357 of T. absoluta in Europe and Asia (Biondi et al. 2018). In addition to commercial crops 358 where pest sampling and control protocols are routinely implemented, wild vegetation 359 and home gardens may pose an additional and important risk. Tomatillo is produced in small plots in many parts of Mexico, the United States, and Central America (Smith et al. 360 361 1999). Our laboratory and greenhouse experiments indicate that tomatillo is not likely to 362 pose a risk in the event of a North American invasion by *T. absoluta*, since neither of the 363 two cultivars tested were able to sustain larval development, and as previously 364 mentioned, tomatillo has not been reported as a potential host despite wide distribution 365 in *T. absoluta* infested areas. Similarly, *D. stramonium* would not likely contribute to the 366 establishment of *T. absoluta* in the event of an invasion with Mediterranean populations 367 because our results and as well as those of Bawin et al. (2015) and Abbes et al. (2016) 368 indicate that it is not a host, or a poor host at best. In contrast, S. nigrum and S. 369 sarrachoides, along with crops such as potatoes and eggplants that are known to be 370 hosts could play an important role in the establishment of T. absoluta in California and 371 elsewhere where these plants are common.

372

## 373 Acknowledgements

This study was supported by the Specialty Crop Block Program of the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) through Grant 14-SCBGP-CA-006. Its contents are solely the 376 responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views of the 377 USDA. JA, PM and RG were funded by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (AGL2016- 77373-C2-1-R project) and the CERCA Programme 378 379 (Generalitat de Catalunya). Judit Arnó acknowledges the receipt of a fellowship from the OECD Co-operative Research Programme: Biological Resource Management for 380 Sustainable Agricultural Systems in 2016. We would like to thank Pilar Hernández and 381 382 Víctor Muñoz for their technical assistance, and the two anonymous reviewers whose comments and suggestions greatly improved the manuscript. 383

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# **Figure Captions**

Fig. 1. Number of plants rated in each class according to the damage inflicted by *T*. *absoluta* infestation.

**Fig 2.** Kaplan–Meier estimates of proportional survivorship for *T. absoluta* females on 509 different host plant material. Time was measured in days.

**Fig 3.** Kaplan–Meier estimates of proportional survivorship for *T. absoluta* males on 512 different host plant material. Time was measured in days.

**Table 1.** Progeny resulting from a mating pair of *T. absoluta* over 48 hours (mean number of adults  $\pm$  SE), percentage of females in the offspring and percentage of individuals emerging from the soil. Calculations have included zeros from plants that yielded no progeny.

Host plant	No. individuals/plant	% of females	% individuals from soil
Tomato Patio Princess	4.58 ±1.64	63.64	72.73
Tomato Qualit 23	3.75 ± 2.02	62.79	66.67
S. nigrum	2.50 ±1.31	43.33	80.00
S. sarrachoides	5.00 ±1.55	49.15	80.00

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522 **Table 2.** Longevity (mean ± SE number of days) of *T. absoluta* adults when exposed to

523 different host plants and supplied with a 10% sugar solution (n = 12 females and 12

524 males).

Treatment	Females	Males		
Tomato Patio Princess	15.25±1.33	11.08±2.25		
Tomato Qualit 23	9.25±1.38	8.33±1.54		
Tomatillo Purple	12.83±2.13	8.58±2.18		
Tomatillo Toma Verde	14.00±2.19	11.08±2.03		
D. stramonium	13.08±1.09	8.00±1.21		
S. nigrum	15.17±2.55	8.75±2.48		
S. sarrachoides	9.92±1.96	11.67±1.94		

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528 **Table 3.** Daily fecundity (mean number of eggs laid per female ± SE) during a *T. absoluta* 

529	female's lifespan	and number	of unfertile	females	(n = 12)
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Treatment	No. unfertile females	Eggs/day/ female
Tomato Qualit 23	0	5.97±1.24 A
Tomato Patio Princess	0	5.06±1.16 A
S. nigrum	1	3.23±1.01 AB
Tomatillo Toma Verde	3	2.12±0.61 AB
S. sarrachoides	4	2.05±0.90 AB
D. stramonium	1	1.36±0.44 AB
Tomatillo Purple	6	0.81±0.61 B

530 Means followed by different letters are significantly different after Bonferroni correction

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was used to weigh the 21 pairwise comparisons done among plants (P < 0.05/21 =
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- 532 0.0024)
- 533
- 534

**Table 4:** Mean (± SE) number of eggs laid by a single *T. absoluta* female over 48 hours

in a choice experiment when the four plant species were provided at the same time (n =13)

Host plant	Eggs/female
Tomato Qualit 23	9.31±2.68 A
Tomato Patio Princess	7.46±2.05 A
S. nigrum	3.15±1.09 AB
S. sarrachoides	0.31±0.24 B

538 Means followed by different letters are significantly different after Bonferroni correction

539 was used to weigh the six pairwise comparisons done among plants (P < 0.05/6 =

- 540 0.0083)
- 541
- 542

**Table 5.** Percent survival of each *T. absoluta* life stage and mean development times

544 (days  $\pm$  SE) on the different host plant species.

545

Heat plant		EGGS		LARVAE		PUPAE	
Host plant	% survival	developmental time	% survival	developmental time	% survival	developmental time	
Tomato Qualit 23	84.31	4.16±0.07 B	67.44	12.79±0.34 B	68.97	6.95±0.15	
Tomato Patio	88.24	4.47±0.20 AB	31.58	13.00±0.51 AB	83.33	7.30±0.15	
S. nigrum	86.27	4.24±0.11 AB	40.91	15.17±0.47 A	61.11	7.36±0.88	
S. sarrachoides	88.24	3.98±0.10 B	35.56	12.13±0.30 B	75.00	7.17±0.24	
D. stramonium	78.43	4.85±0.18 A	0.00	-	-	-	
Tomatillo Purple	80.39	4.39±0.13 AB	0.00	-	-	-	
Tomatillo Toma Verde	86.27	4.11±0.10 B	0.00	-	-	-	

546 Within column means followed by different letters are significantly different after 547 Bonferroni correction was used to weigh the multiple pairwise comparisons done among 548 plants regarding the developmental time of eggs (P < 0.05/21 = 0.0024) and larvae (P < 0.05/6 = 0.0083).

- 550
- 551

552 **Table 6.** Mean ( $\pm$ SE) pupal weight (in mg) for *T. absoluta* reared on different host 553 plants (n = 8).

Host Plant	FEMALES	MALES
Tomato Patio	4.19±0.27	3.20±0.15 A
Tomato Quality 23	3.74±0.23	2.36±0.19 B
S. nigrum	3.93±0.46	3.29±0.19 A
S. sarrachoides	4.30±0.24	2.81±0.16 AB

554 For males, means followed by different letters are significantly differences between 555 treatments (P < 0.05, Tukey's HSD test).