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Abstract *Ceratitis capitata* (Wiedemann) (Diptera: Tephritidae), known as Medfly, is a severe agricultural invasive pest in Argentinian fruit-producing regions. The native habitat disturbance and introduction and spread of exotic host plants strongly favored Medfly proliferation. This scenario is common throughout the northern subtropical citrus-growing region. Environmentally friendly strategies to suppress Medfly populations by the National Fruit Fly Control and Eradication Program have currently been taken. One of these actions involves augmentative biological control through releases of the exotic parasitoid *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* (Ashmead) (Hymenoptera: Braconidae). Consequently, the hypothesis that the effectiveness of *D. longicaudata* females, from two different population lines, in controlling Medfly larvae progressively increases as the density of released females increases was tested. One parasitoid line derives from larvae of a biparental Medfly strain. The other hails from irradiated larvae of the genetic sexing Temperature Sensitive Lethal Vienna-8 medfly strain reared at the “BioPlanta San Juan” biofactory. Parasitoids foraged for 24 h on peaches artificially inoculated with naked lab-reared biparental Medfly larvae. Peaches were placed near the roof or on the ground in field cages. Five treatments (20, 40, 80, 160, and 320 females released) and a control (no parasitoids) for each population line were carried out throughout summer and autumn 2016. Host density (200 larvae) remained constant. At 320 released parasitoid females, both *D. longicaudata* population lines highly increased the Medfly mortality in both testing seasons, and foraged skillfully on peaches at both fruit height levels. These data encourage the application of augmentative biological control against Medfly.

Keywords (separated by '-') Fruit fly biological control - Parasitoid effectiveness - Parasitoid foraging ability - Mediterranean fruit fly - South America

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2 **Augmentative Releases of Two *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata***
3 **(Hymenoptera: Braconidae) Population Lines Under Field-Cage**
4 **Conditions to Control *Ceratitis capitata* (Diptera: Tephritidae)**

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AQ1 Abstract

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19 San Juan” biofactory. Parasitoids foraged for 24 h on peaches artificially inoculated with naked lab-reared biparental Medfly
20 larvae. Peaches were placed near the roof or on the ground in field cages. Five treatments (20, 40, 80, 160, and 320 females
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22 density (200 larvae) remained constant. At 320 released parasitoid females, both *D. longicaudata* population lines highly
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25 **Keywords** Fruit fly biological control · Parasitoid effectiveness · Parasitoid foraging ability · Mediterranean fruit fly · South
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Introduction

Habitat degradation in Latin America could be linked with
persistence and population growth of invasive species such
as *Ceratitis capitata* (Wiedemann) (Diptera: Tephritidae),
commonly known as the Mediterranean fruit fly or Medfly.
This is mainly because extensive areas of native vegetation
was replaced with agricultural crops, which led to a mosaic
landscape in which natural habitats with different distur-
bance degrees persist between crops and inhabited rural
areas where mostly orchards with exotic fruit species are
found (Duyck et al. 2006; Aluja et al. 2012; Schliserman
et al. 2014). This environmental scenario is largely common
throughout both northwestern and northeastern subtropical
regions of Argentina. Several Medfly exotic host fruit spe-
cies, such as *Citrus aurantium* L. (sour orange), *C. sinensis*

42 L. (Osbeck) (sweet orange), *C. paradisi* Macfadyen (grape-
43 fruit), *C. reticulata* Blanco (mandarin orange) (Rutaceae),
44 *Prunus persica* (L.) Batsch (peach), *P. domestica* L. (plum),
45 *P. armeniaca* L. (apricot), *Eriobotrya japonica* (Thunb.)
46 Lindl. (loquat), *Rubus ideaus* L. (raspberry), *R. fruticosus* L.
47 (blackberry) (Rosaceae), *Vaccinium corymbosum* L. (blue-
48 berry) (Ericaceae), *Diospyros kaki* L. (Japanese persimmon)
49 (Ebenaceae), *Ficus carica* L. (fig) (Moraceae), *Mangifera*
50 *indica* L. (mango) (Anacardiaceae), and *Psidium guajava* L.
51 (common guava) (Myrtaceae), are cultivated commercially
52 in large areas or in backyard orchards for local consumption,
53 although they are also feral fruits that grow in patches of
54 disturbed natural vegetation (Ovruski et al. 2003; Schliser-
55 man et al. 2014; Funes et al. 2017). Consecutively, in those
56 Medfly host fruits, the natural control by guilds of native
57 parasitoids is scarce or null (Ovruski et al. 2004; Schliser-
58 man et al. 2016). Thus, all those alternative exotic feral fruit
59 species throughout Argentinean northern region make Med-
60 fly proliferation feasible, but concurrently make problematic
61 their control (Schliserman et al. 2016).

62 From an economic perspective, *C. capitata* is one of the
63 most severe agricultural invasive pests in all Argentinian
64 fruit-producing regions, and together with the native *Anas-
65 trepha fraterculus* (Wiedemann) or South American fruit fly
66 strongly affects Argentine fruit production and growth, mar-
67 keting, and export (SENASA 2017). Farmers from northern
68 Argentina use different techniques to control both fruit fly
69 pest species. This is subject to their level of education and
70 the economic power for purchasing farming inputs such as
71 synthetic pesticides, which can be used indiscriminately
72 (Ovruski and Schliserman 2012). Against this background
73 in Argentina, the National Agri-Food and Animal Health and
74 Quality Service (SENASA, Spanish acronym) has imple-
75 mented the National Fruit Fly Control and Eradication Pro-
76 gram (PROCEM, Spanish acronym). This achievement has
77 made the struggle against *C. capitata* one of the foremost
78 priorities in the country, but through more effective, friendly
79 to the environment and human health, integrated control
80 strategies (SENASA 2017). In consequence, the Provin-
81 cial Fruit Fly Control and Eradication Program of San Juan
82 (ProCEM-San Juan, Spanish acronym) incorporated biologi-
83 cal control using hymenopteran parasitoids in 2008 for the
84 control of Medfly populations at the fruit-growing region
85 of Cuyo, central-western Argentina (Suárez et al. 2019a).
86 Regarding this fact, open-field augmentative releases of the
87 Southeast Asian-native parasitoid *Diachasmimorpha longi-
88 caudata* (Ashmead) (Hymenoptera: Braconidae), produced
89 at “BioPlanta San Juan” mass-rearing facility, have been
90 successfully performed in a Medfly-infested fig crop located
91 in southeastern San Juan province to assess capacity of this
92 exotic parasitoid species to control the target pest (Sánchez
93 et al. 2016). The opiine braconid *D. longicaudata* mass-
94 reared at the “BioPlanta San Juan” is a solitary larval-pupal

fruit fly endoparasitoid, commonly used worldwide as a bio-
control agent in augmentative releasing programs (Ovruski
et al. 2000; Montoya et al. 2017; de Pedro et al. 2019; Garcia
et al. 2020).

Based on the growing progress in the *D. longicaudata*
mass production (Suárez et al. 2020; Carta Gadea et al.
2020) and the successful open-field pilot release tests
(Suárez et al. 2014; Sánchez et al. 2016), Medfly biological
control is currently considered a workable complementary
control strategy for other Argentinian fruit-growing regions
(Núñez-Campero et al. 2020). Therefore, an integrated
approach to fruit fly pest management involving biological
control throughout the northern Argentinian Citrus-produc-
ing areas is currently developed by the national PROCEM
(SENASA 2017). Taking into account the aforementioned
circumstance, the aim of this study was to assess the aug-
mentative biological control strategy against *C. capitata*,
albeit in a simulated way, under field-cage conditions in the
subtropical northwestern Argentina, by using *D. longicau-
data* from two different population lines: one from “Bio-
Planta San Juan” biofactory and another one originated in
Tucumán. Consequently, the hypothesis that females of *D.
longicaudata*, regardless of the population line, are progres-
sively more effective in finding and attacking Medfly larvae
infesting peaches as the density of released females in the
tested patch increases was tested. This prediction has been
based on previous studies (Ovruski et al. 2012; Suárez et al.
2019b) on the performance of *D. longicaudata* to develop on
C. capitata and for their foraging ability on diverse Medfly
host fruit species in northwestern Argentina.

Material and methods

Source of insects and rearing procedures

Parasitoids from a *D. longicaudata* population line reared
on third-instar larvae of a biparental *C. capitata* strain (from
now on: *DI_{BipCc}*) and Medfly adults were produced at the
Biological Control Section (BCS) of the Planta Piloto de
Procesos Industriales Microbiológicos y Biotecnología
(PROIMI) located in San Miguel de Tucumán, northwest-
ern Argentina. Both parasitoid and biparental *C. capitata*
adults were held in cubical acrylic glass-structured, voile-
covered cages (30 × 30 × 30 cm). The cages were kept in an
air-conditioned room at 25 ± 1 °C, 75 ± 5% relative humid-
ity (RH), and 12-h photoperiod. The biparental *C. capitata*
colony started from wild individuals recovered by harvesting
infested feral peaches from trees in a protected wildlife area
in Yerba Buena, Tucumán (26°55'S, 65°05'W, 600–800 m).
The *DI_{wildCc}* colony was originally established from individ-
uals imported from the Mexican Moscafrut Program, where
they were reared on irradiated *Anastrepha ludens* (Loew)

larvae. Parasitoids were provided ad libitum with water and honey every other day. Medfly adults were fed daily ad libitum with a mixture of yeast hydrolysate enzymatic (MP Biomedicals, LLC, Solon, OH) and common refined sugar (Ledesma®, Buenos Aires, Argentina) plus water. Fly larvae were reared on artificial diet based on wheat germ, sugar, brewer's yeast, citric acid, agar-agar, vitamins, minerals, and preserving agents. A second *D. longicaudata* population line was reared on 90 Gy-irradiated third-instar larvae of the genetic sexing Temperature Sensitive Lethal (*tsl*) Vienna-8 *C. capitata* (from now on: Dl_{tslCc}) at the Parasitoid Rearing Laboratory of the "BioPlanta San Juan" mass-rearing facility belonging to the San Juan Biotechnology Center of the Dirección de Sanidad Vegetal, Animal y Alimentos (DSVAA), San Juan, Argentina. The Dl_{tslCc} colony was held in rectangular iron-framed, voile-covered cages (50 × 50 × 60 cm). The Dl_{tslCc} colony was initially established from 200 individuals of the Dl_{BipCc} reared at the BCS-PROIMI's laboratory (Suárez et al. 2019a). Adults parasitoids were provided with honey and water ad libitum and kept at $24 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$; $65 \pm 5\%$ RH and 12 h photoperiod. The colony of *tsl* Vienna-8 *C. capitata* strain was reared at the Medfly Rearing Laboratory of the "BioPlanta San Juan" mass-rearing facility. Larvae of this Medfly strain were reared on an artificial diet based on wheat bran, sugar, yeast, poplar wood chips, hydrochloric acid, sodium benzoate, methyl p-hydroxybenzoate, and water (Suárez et al. 2019a). Puparia parasitized by Dl_{TSLCc} population line were sent from San Juan Biotechnology Center to PROIMI every 5 days between January and April 2016 to carry out the tests in Tucumán. Adult parasitoids of both Dl_{tslCc} and Dl_{BipCc} intended for testing were kept under controlled lab conditions ($25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, $75 \pm 5\%$ RH, and 12:12 L:D h) in a 6-m² room at the BCS-PROIMI's laboratory, and provided with water and honey every other day. Dl_{tslCc} and Dl_{BipCc} cohorts used in the trials were the 145th and 60th generations, respectively.

181 Experimental site and environmental conditions

182 The assay series were performed inside field cages under
183 uncontrolled environmental conditions at an experimental
184 citrus crop at the Instituto Nacional de Tecnología Agropecuaria-Estación Experimental Agropecuaria Famaillá (INTA-
185 EEA Famaillá) (27°03'S, 65°25'W, 363 m), in Famaillá,
186 Tucumán province. The climate is humid warm temperate,
187 with a rainy-warm season from October to April, and a dry-
188 cold season from May to September. The average annual
189 temperature is 19.4°C and the average annual rainfall is
190 close to 1000 mm. Percentage of RH and mean temperature
191 recorded during trial dates were provided by digital weather
192 stations (LUFT®, model WS80, China). For each field cage,
193 a weather station was placed inside, while outside of them
194

another weather station protected from the sun and rain was
situated. Both the RH and mean temperature inside and out-
side field cages were recorded every 30 min for 24 h, the
time that each replicate lasted.

199 Experimental setup

200 Tests were performed inside four cylindrical nylon field
201 cages (3.5 × 3.0 m, diameter × height) placed at the INTA-
202 EEA Famaillá's experimental citrus crop during two sea-
203 sons in 2016, summer (January–February) and autumn
204 (April–May). Field cages were sheltered from both the
205 sun by a 130-g/m² black-shade cloth, UV resistant net
206 (AGROREDES®, San Isidro, Buenos Aires, Argentina),
207 and the rain by a 100-μ translucent high density polyeth-
208 ylene protective cover (AGROREDES®). Both cloth and
209 plastic cover were placed 50 cm above the cage roof, which
210 allowed sunlight to pass through but not rainwater. Inside
211 every field cage were placed six small cylindrical cages
212 (0.5 × 2.0 m, diameter and height) made of white cotton
213 voile fabric. These internal experimental cages (from now
214 on: EC) were reinforced with two thick wire rings, one
215 located at the base and another at the top. Each EC also had a
216 1.5-m-long zipper in its middle part to enter. A potted peach
217 tree (~1.5 m high) was placed inside each EC to simulate
218 a natural environment. Four peaches, *Prunus persica* (L.)
219 Batsch (Flavor Crest cultivar), were placed within each EC
220 equidistant from each other; in this way, they formed a circle
221 in which each fruit was located towards a different cardinal
222 point. Two field cages contained four fruits in their upper
223 section, next to the roof, while in the other two field cages
224 four peaches were located in the cage floor. Overall, 16 sim-
225 ilar-size (50.6 ± 1.9 g and 69.1 ± 2.3 cm³ weight × volume)
226 and ripeness degree (ripe, reddish-yellowish) peaches were
227 selected for use in the trials per testing date. The fruit was
228 bought in a supermarket, washed first with a sodium benzo-
229 ate plus methyl p-hydroxybenzoate solution and then only
230 with water. After this, peaches were dried and individually
231 inoculated with 50 5-day-old lab-reared *C. capitata* larvae
232 from the BCS-PROIMI's laboratory. Artificial infestation
233 was carried out by cutting the fruit at its top, equivalent to
234 one-fourth of the total fruit, by using a sterilized scalpel and
235 the half of pulp plus the stone was removed; then the space
236 formed inside the fruit was filled with naked (i.e., without
237 artificial larval diet) lab-reared *C. capitata* larvae from the
238 biparental strain. About 50% of the total fruit volume was
239 engaged by *C. capitata* larvae. Once the fruit was inoculated,
240 both fruit sections, small upper cover and large lower piece,
241 were joined together with 2.5-cm-wide Parafilm "M"®
242 strips (Pechiney Plastic Packaging, Chicago, USA). Each
243 artificially infested fruit represented one oviposition unit.
244 Once inoculated fruits were placed inside the EC, in those
245 field cages whose treatments involved fruits in the upper

part, inoculated peaches were hung from the center of the EC roof and positioned 1.5 m above EC floor at the canopy level of the potted tree. Each peach was hung from the EC roof by means of a strong nylon fishing rope tied to a metal clip, which in turn was inserted into the thin plastic strip that wrapped the fruit. A circular galvanized wire-framed, voile-covered basket (10×2 cm, diameter×height) filled with sterilized 2-mm-thick vermiculite Intersum® (Aislater S.R.L., Córdoba, Argentina) was positioned about 5 cm below the peach. This basket was held by four equidistant nylon fishing ropes and tied to the main string from which the peach was hung. In those field cages whose treatments involved fruits on the bottom, inoculated peaches were placed onto a plastic tripod stand (3×2 cm, diameter×height) positioned in a circle around the potted tree inside a square white plastic tray (34×34×19 cm) located on the EC floor. Each peach was oriented towards a certain cardinal point. The plastic tray had 1 cm of sterilized vermiculite on the bottom as a pupation substrate. Each field cage concurrently included five treatments and one control carried out in individual ECs. Naïve, i.e., non-exposed to host larvae or fruit or both, 7-day-old, mated females from DI_{BipCc} or DI_{IslCc} population line were used in tests. Treatments in cage 1 involved different release densities of DI_{BipCc} females inside ECs with peaches on the top. Treatments were as follows: T₁, 20 DI_{BipCc} females released; T₂, 40 females released; T₃, 80 females released; T₄, 160 females released; T₅, 320 females released; and a control, no parasitoids were released. Controls were conducted to determine natural *C. capitata* adult emergence rates for which involved inoculated peach but not exposed to parasitoids. Treatments in cage 2 involved the same parasitoid female release densities but from the DI_{IslCc} population line inside ECs with peaches on the top. Treatments in cages 3 and 4 involved the same parasitoid female release densities from the DI_{BipCc} and the DI_{IslCc} , respectively, inside ECs but with peaches on the bottom. The host-parasitoid ratio per treatment was 10, 5, 2.5, 1.25, and 0.63 *C. capitata* larvae per 1 *D. longicaudata* female either DI_{BipCc} or DI_{IslCc} . The host density remained constant in all treatments, 200 *C. capitata* larvae per EC. Parasitoid females were released into each EC on leaves of the potted tree's median portion, and they were allowed to forage fruit for 24-h period starting at 12:00 h. After tests were finished, both peaches and the vermiculite from the basket as well as both fruits and the vermiculite from the plastic tray were removed from each EC. In the laboratory peaches, either top or bottom were dissected to remove possible living *C. capitata* larvae, and host puparia were recovered from the basket or from the tray. Larvae recovered from the fruit located on the top and puparia recovered from the basket belonging to a particular treatment were placed into the same plastic cups (10×7 cm, diameter×height) with sterilized vermiculite on the bottom as a pupation substrate. Larvae recovered

from the fruit located on the bottom and puparia recovered from the tray belonging to a particular treatment were jointly deposited in plastic cups as described above. The top of each cup was tightly covered with a voile piece. The cups were kept in a room air-conditioned at $26 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, $80 \pm 5\%$ RH, and 10 h photoperiod until adult flies and parasitoids emerged. Both the number and sex of the parasitoids and the number of adult flies were recorded. Treatments and controls were replicated 10 times. For each replicate, new inoculated fruits, new pupation substrate, and new parasitoid females were always used. Tests were performed to comparatively assess the effectiveness of both *D. longicaudata* population lines, DI_{BipCc} or DI_{IslCc} , in parasitizing *C. capitata* larvae in a key host fruit species under a natural free-foraging condition and into a variation in parasitoid female release densities. In turn, the augmentative biological control tactic was also evaluated. Furthermore, the effect of infested fruit location, i.e., fruit located in the canopy and fruit fallen on the ground, on effectiveness of both parasitoid population lines was also taken into consideration.

Data analysis

Four biological parameters were considered: (1) percentage of parasitoid emergence was calculated as the number of emerged parasitoids divided by total exposed hosts per 100; (2) percentage of parasitism was calculated as the number of parasitoids emerged plus the number of non-emerged parasitoids (larvae, pupae, or adults) found inside puparia divided by total exposed hosts per 100; (3) percentage of effectiveness, that is the total host mortality inflicted by the parasitoid under natural environmental conditions, which was estimated through Abbot's corrected formula (Rosenheim and Hoy 1989); this formula relates the emerged Medfly population recovered from treatments, in which parasitoid releases were made, with the living host population recorded from the control test; and (4) sex ratio, as the percentage of emerged female parasitoids over the total number of emerged parasitoids per 100. The four parameters were estimated for each parasitoid population line and per testing date. Firstly, univariate two-factor general lineal models (GLMs) with type III error at $p = 0.05$ were performed to identify significant effects of the parasitoid emergence, parasitism, effectiveness, and sex ratio on two interacting fixed factors of the models, namely, parasitoid populations lines (DI_{BipCc} or DI_{IslCc}) and female parasitoid release densities with five levels (20, 40, 80, 160, and 320 parasitoid females). Models were distinctly used for the infested fruit localization (canopy or ground) and for both seasons (summer and autumn). Secondly, the effectiveness was analyzed using univariate two-factor GLMs to compare it through

349 the interaction of two fixed factors, namely, parasitoid
 350 population lines and fruit localization. These models were
 351 particularly applied for each treatment (female parasitoid
 352 release densities) and for both seasons assessed in the
 353 study. Thirdly, the effectiveness was analyzed by means
 354 of univariate two-factor GLMs to compare it through the
 355 interaction of parasitoid population lines and testing sea-
 356 sons. Models were run for each treatment and for both
 357 fruit located at canopy and ground levels. Furthermore,
 358 mean temperatures and RH percentages recorded inside
 359 each of the four field cages and outside of them were ana-
 360 lyzed using univariate one-factor GLMs by testing date
 361 and per studying season. A Pearson product moment cor-
 362 relation at $p=0.05$ was applied to determine the degree
 363 of association between RH and temperature during testing
 364 dates in both seasons, and to be able to choose if one or
 365 both environmental variables can be used as covariate in
 366 the statistical analyses on the parasitoid performance. In
 367 addition, t -student tests at $p=0.05$ were particularly used
 368 to compare both mean temperatures and RH percentages
 369 between both seasons. Mean partitioning was performed
 370 by Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test at
 371 $p=0.05$. Given lack of normality, data were rank trans-
 372 formed prior to analyses (Conover and Iman 1981), but
 373 untransformed means (\pm SE) were used in all tables and
 374 figures. Statistical analyses were performed using STA-
 375 TISTICA software, version 10.0 (StatSoft 2011).

Results

Environmental conditions inside and outside field cages

Both RH and temperature values did not differ significantly between field cages and outdoors by study date, taking into account both summer and autumn (raw and analyzed data are included as an appendix). There was a positive and significant correlation between mean temperature and RH ($r=0.60, N=4,800, p>0.001$). Therefore, the mean temperature outside field cages was only included as a covariate to assess a potential influence of environmental conditions on performance of both parasitoid population lines. There were significant differences between mean temperature and RH throughout the studied periods (temperature and RH in summer vs autumn; $28.5 \pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ vs $23.7 \pm 0.3^\circ\text{C}$, $t=280.747, df=79, p>0.001$; $73.1 \pm 0.4\%$ vs $57.1 \pm 1.0\%$, $t=39.444, df=79, p>0.001$).

Assessment of summer parasitoid releases

Results from the field cages in which peaches were located in the upper portion of each EC, which can be associated with the canopy of the potted tree, are provided first. Female parasitoid release densities (from now on: FPRD) and their interaction with parasitoid population lines (from now on: PPL) had a significant effect on both parasitoid emergence and parasitism (Table 1). Both FPRD and PPL, and their

Table 1 Summary of univariate two-factor GLMs with a covariable (outdoor mean temperature) on the effect of female parasitoid release densities, parasitoid population lines, and their interactions on *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* adult emergence, parasitism, effective-

ness, and female offspring proportion (sex ratio) recorded from third instars of a biparental *Ceratitis capitata* strain inside peaches located at the canopy of potted tree and on the ground under field-cage conditions in summer (January–February 2016); Tucumán, Argentina

Source of variation/fruit location	Biological parameters (dependent variables)									
	df	Error df	Parasitoid emergence		Parasitism		Effectiveness		Sex ratio	
			F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
<i>Fruit at the canopy</i>										
Categorical variables:										
Parasitoid release densities (FPRD)	4	389	190.532	<0.001*	353.404	<0.001*	418.378	<0.001*	2.770	=0.027*
Parasitoid population lines (PPL)	1	389	0.929	=0.335	2.996	=0.084	4.578	=0.033*	1.152	=0.284
FPRD × PPL	4	389	4.543	=0.001*	2.725	=0.029*	4.053	=0.003*	0.284	=0.888
Covariable: temperature (outdoor)	1	389	0.044	=0.507	0.044	=0.834	0.087	=0.768	0.008	=0.976
<i>Fruit on the ground</i>										
Categorical variables:										
Parasitoid release densities (FPRD)	4	389	227.124	<0.001*	364.633	<0.001*	424.039	<0.001*	1.868	=0.115
Parasitoid population lines (PPL)	1	389	4.129	=0.043*	2.611	=0.107	3.654	=0.057	0.002	=0.968
FPRD × PPL	4	389	5.935	=0.001*	4.098	=0.003*	2.652	=0.033*	0.721	=0.578
Covariable: temperature (outdoor)	1	389	0.052	=0.305	2.686	=0.102	2.067	=0.151	0.017	=0.896

*Statistically significant

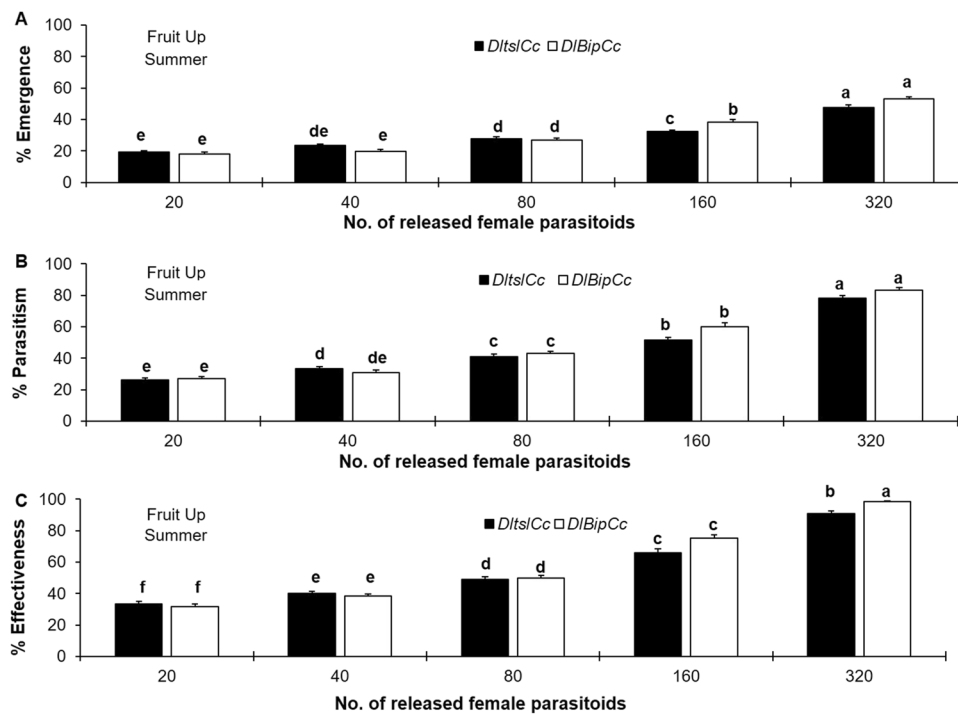


Fig. 1 Mean (\pm SE) percentage of individuals emergence (A), parasitism (b), and effectiveness (C) recorded from artificially inoculated peaches (*Prunus persica*) with 200 lab-reared third-instar *Ceratitis capitata* larvae from a biparental strain and located at the upper section, next to the roof of field cages, that were parasitized by different *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* female release densities of two

population lines throughout summer 2016; Tucumán, Argentina. Bars with dissimilar letter indicate significant differences (Tukey HSD test, $p=0.05$). Notations: *DltslCc*, *D. longicaudata* lineage reared on irradiated larvae of the Temperature Sensitive Lethal Vienna-8 *C. capitata* strain; *DIbipCc*, *D. longicaudata* lineage reared on non-irradiated larvae of a biparental *C. capitata* strain

401 interaction also, had a substantial influence on effective-
 402 ness (Table 1). Only FPRD had a considerable effect on
 403 offspring sex ratio, but the interaction between both cat-
 404 egorical factors did not (Table 1). Adult emergence from
 405 both *DIbipCc* and *DltslCc* significantly increased concurrently
 406 with FPRD (Fig. 1(A)). The same pattern described above
 407 was recorded for parasitism (Fig. 1(B)). Similarly, the
 408 effectiveness increased notably, but gradually, with FPRD
 409 growth, although the maximum significant effectiveness
 410 was recorded in the *DIbipCc* population line (Fig. (C)). Both
 411 *DIbipCc* and *DltslCc* exhibited a slightly female-biased sex
 412 ratio (1.2:1 and 1.1:1 females:male, respectively). When
 413 sex ratios among different FPRD were compared, regard-
 414 less of the PPL and their interaction, there was a slight trend
 415 towards a greater female offspring emergence at low FPRD
 416 (20, 40, and 80 females) than at high FPRD (160 and 320
 417 females), which was 55.9% vs 51.2% daughters on total off-
 418 spring, respectively. Regarding results from the field cages in
 419 which fruits were placed on the ground of each EC, both the
 420 FPRD and the PPL, and their interaction, had a significant
 421 influence on parasitoid emergence (Table 1). The FPRD and
 422 their interaction with PPL had a considerable effect on both
 423 parasitism and effectiveness (Table 1). There was no sig-
 424 nificant effect on sex ratio by the two categorical factors or

425 their interaction (Table 1). Parasitoid emergence displayed
 426 a gradual increase with a greater number of released female
 427 parasitoids; *DIbipCc* significantly peaked at 160 and 320
 428 released females, while *DltslCc* did at 320 released females
 429 (Fig. 2(A)). A similar trend was recorded for parasitism,
 430 with substantially higher values for both PPLs at the maxi-
 431 mum parasitoid release density (Fig. 2(B)). The same pattern
 432 of increase described above was recorded for the effective-
 433 ness, which was notably higher in both *DIbipCc* and *DltslCc* at
 434 320 released females, although the effectiveness achieved
 435 by *DIbipCc* at 160 released females was particularly similar
 436 to that of 320 females (Fig. 2(C)). Both *DIbipCc* and *DltslCc*
 437 exhibited a similar and slightly female biased sex ratio
 438 (1.2–1 female:male) in fruit in the canopy like fruit on the
 439 ground. The covariable (outdoor mean temperature) did not
 440 have a significant effect on outcomes of all statistical analy-
 441 zes. In all treatments, the *D. longicaudata* females' effec-
 442 tiveness was significantly influenced by fruit location (FL),
 443 with varied outcomes (Table 2). There was a very slight
 444 trend to attack infested peaches in the top in treatments 2
 445 and 5, while in the remaining treatments the trend was to
 446 attack fruit located on the ground (Fig. 3). However, the
 447 interaction between PPL and FL did not significantly affect
 448 the effectiveness of *D. longicaudata* females, except only in

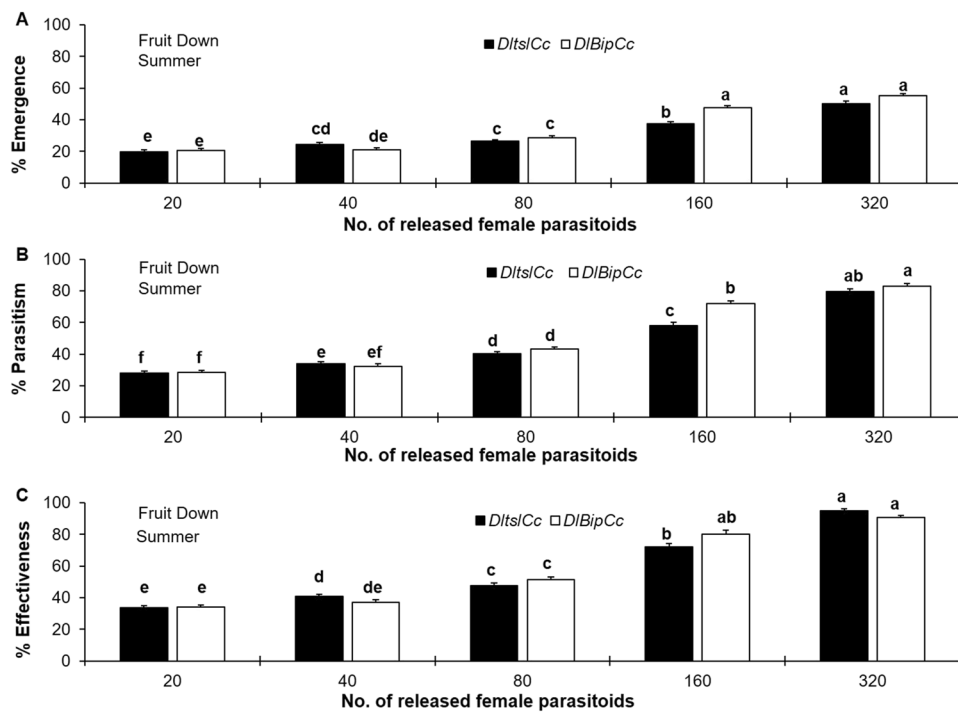


Fig. 2 Mean (\pm SE) percentage of individuals emergence (A), parasitism (b), and effectiveness (C) recorded from artificially inoculated peaches (*Prunus persica*) with 200 lab-reared third-instar *Ceratitis capitata* larvae from a biparental strain and located on the ground of field cages that were parasitized by different *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* female release densities of two population lines through-

out summer 2016; Tucumán, Argentina. Bars with dissimilar letter indicate significant differences (Tukey HSD test, $p=0.05$). Notations: *DltslCc*, *D. longicaudata* lineage reared on irradiated larvae of the Temperature Sensitive Lethal Vienna-8 *C. capitata* strain; *DLBipCc*, *D. longicaudata* lineage reared on non-irradiated larvae of a biparental *C. capitata* strain

449 treatment 4 (Table 2) in which *DltslCc* females tended more
 450 to parasitize host larvae in peaches located on the ground,
 451 but the same did not happen with *DLBipCc* females.

452 **Assessment of autumn parasitoid releases**

453 In coincidence with summer results, both the FPRD and
 454 their interaction with PPL had a noteworthy influence on
 455 parasitoid emergence, parasitism, and effectiveness recorded
 456 from both peaches located in upper and lower sectors of ECs
 457 (Table 3). The interaction between both categorical factors
 458 had no influence on offspring sex ratio (Table 3). The emer-
 459 gence (Fig. 4(A)), parasitism (Fig. 4(B)), and the effective-
 460 ness (Fig. 4(C)) recorded for both *DLBipCc* and *DltslCc* from
 461 peaches in the upper portion of each EC increased gradu-
 462 ally concurrently with FPRD. A similar pattern of increase
 463 was also recorded from fruit in the lower portion of each EC
 464 for the emergence (Fig. 5(A)), parasitism (Fig. 5(B)), and
 465 the effectiveness (Fig. 5(C)). However, the emergence was
 466 significantly analogous at both low parasitoid release values
 467 and high release densities (Fig. 5(A)). The effectiveness of
 468 *DLBipCc* was substantially similar at higher release densities
 469 (160–320), although this did not occur with *DltslCc* since its

470 maximum value was recorded at 320 released parasitoids
 471 (Fig. 5(C)). Both *DLBipCc* and *DltslCc* had a slightly female-
 472 biased sex ratio (1.3–1.2:1 and 1.3–1.1:1 females:male,
 473 respectively) in fruit in the canopy like fruit on the ground. In
 474 all treatments, the effectiveness was considerably affected by
 475 FL, but the interaction between PPL and FL did not signifi-
 476 cantly influence it (Table 4). In the first four release densities,
 477 *D. longicaudata* females were more effective on fallen fruit,
 478 but it was the reverse at 320 released parasitoids (Fig. 6). The
 479 comparison between the effectiveness of both *DLBipCc* and
 480 *DltslCc* based on the testing seasons and their interaction with
 481 PPL did not show significant differences between summer
 482 and autumn (Table 5). In coincidence with summer results,
 483 the covariable did not have a significant effect on variable
 484 responses in overall used GLMs.

485 **Discussion**

486 Earlier research carried out in Tucumán under field cage
 487 during middle spring, November, and early December
 488 2011, assessed the capability of the *DLBipCc* population line
 489 in parasitizing *C. capitata* larvae under a free-foraging

Table 2 Summary of univariate two-factor GLMs on the effect of parasitoid population lines and fruit location, and their interactions on *Dichasimorpha longicaudata* effectiveness recorded per treatment from a third instar of biparental *Ceratitidis capitata* strain inside peaches located at the canopy of potted tree and on the ground under field-cage conditions in summer (January–February 2016); Tucumán, Argentina

Source of variation (Categorical variables)	df	Error df	Treatments					F	P	T ₅ (320 released parasitoids)	F	P
			T ₁ (20 released parasitoids)	T ₂ (40 released parasitoids)	T ₃ (80 released parasitoids)	T ₄ (160 released parasitoids)	T ₅ (320 released parasitoids)					
Parasitoid population lines (PPL)	1	156	0.219	1.835	2.795	0.263	13.530	<0.001*				
Fruit location (FL)	1	156	35.505	56.462	137.764	45.656	2039.840	<0.001*				
PPL × FL	1	156	0.220	0.911	2.457	10.132	2.570	= 0.002*				

*Statistically significant

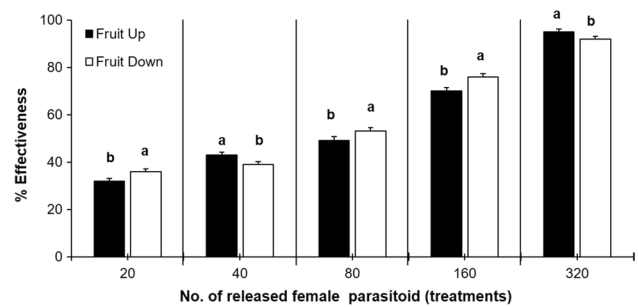


Fig. 3 Comparison between the mean (\pm SE) effectiveness of *Dichasimorpha longicaudata* females released at five different densities to suppress medfly larvae infesting peaches located either in the upper (near to roof) or lower sector (on the ground) of field cages throughout summer 2016; Tucumán, Argentina. Data of both *D. longicaudata* lineages were pooled. Letters show comparisons between fruits up and down within the same parasitoid density. Bars with dissimilar letter indicate significant differences (Tukey HSD test, $p=0.05$)

Citrus species choice condition (Ovruski et al. 2012). Subsequently, renewed studies carried out between late spring (November) and early summer (December) 2014 and 2015 showed that both lab-reared *Dl_{BipCc}* and *Dl_{tslCc}* population lines were comparably effective in attacking *C. capitata* larvae in host fruits with different physical and chemical features, such as peaches and oranges (Suárez et al. 2019b). Outcomes of the present study verified now that progressively increasing the number of released parasitoid females considerably favored the effectiveness of both *Dl_{BipCc}* and *Dl_{tslCc}* population lines to control *C. capitata* infesting peach, while host larvae density was kept constant. These outcomes recorded in field cages suggest that augmentative releases of that *D. longicaudata*'s lineage reared on *tsl* Vienna-8 Medfly larvae at the “BioPlanta San Juan” biofactory substantially decreased *C. capitata* adult emergence in an ecological region with subtropical climatic conditions. This finding is in agreement with open-field augmentative releases of the *Dl_{tslCc}* population line performed to assess their effectiveness on the regulation of wild Medfly populations at ecologically isolated, irrigated, fruit-growing areas of San Juan (Suárez et al. 2014; Sánchez et al. 2016). Interestingly, the effectiveness achieved by both *D. longicaudata* population lines in the present study was congruent at different densities of released parasitoids. When comparing the maximum evaluated released female parasitoid density (320 parasitoids per replicate) throughout both testing seasons, *Dl_{tslCc}* was significantly more or equally or less effective than *Dl_{BipCc}* to parasitize *C. capitata* larvae, but always its effectiveness was higher than 90%. This happened even though both mean emergence and parasitism percentages were particularly lower. Host mortality inflicted by *D. longicaudata* females due to other causes may adversely

Table 3 Summary of univariate two-factor GLMs with a covariable (outdoor mean temperature) on the effect of female parasitoid release densities, parasitoid population lines, and their interactions on *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* adult emergence, parasitism, effective-

ness, and female offspring proportion (sex ratio) recorded from third instars of a biparental *Ceratitis capitata* strain inside peaches located at the canopy of potted tree and on the ground under field-cage conditions in autumn (April–May 2016); Tucumán, Argentina

Source of variation/fruit location	Biological parameters (dependent variables)									
	df	Error df	Parasitoid emergence		Parasitism		Effectiveness		Sex ratio	
			F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
<i>Fruit at the canopy</i>										
Categorical variables:										
Parasitoid release densities (FPRD)	4	389	231.409	<0.001*	299.519	<0.001*	436.957	<0.001*	4.272	=0.002*
Parasitoid population lines (PPL)	1	389	0.179	=0.673	0.409	=0.523	0.128	=0.720	3.554	=0.059
FPRD × PPL	4	389	2.616	=0.035*	3.569	=0.007*	5.099	<0.001*	1.936	=0.888
Covariable: temperature (outdoor)	1	389	0.184	=0.668	1.257	=0.263	3.115	=0.078	0.001	=0.971
<i>Fruit on the ground</i>										
Categorical variables:										
Parasitoid release densities (FPRD)	4	389	305.260	<0.001*	430.899	<0.001*	539.690	<0.001*	0.379	=0.823
Parasitoid population lines (PPL)	1	389	0.071	=0.789	0.005	=0.107	0.097	=0.756	0.086	=0.769
FPRD × PPL	4	389	3.684	=0.006*	6.459	<0.001*	3.835	=0.004*	2.327	=0.056
Covariable: temperature (outdoor)	1	389	2.606	=0.107	3.066	=0.081	0.958	=0.328	0.012	=0.913

*Statistically significant

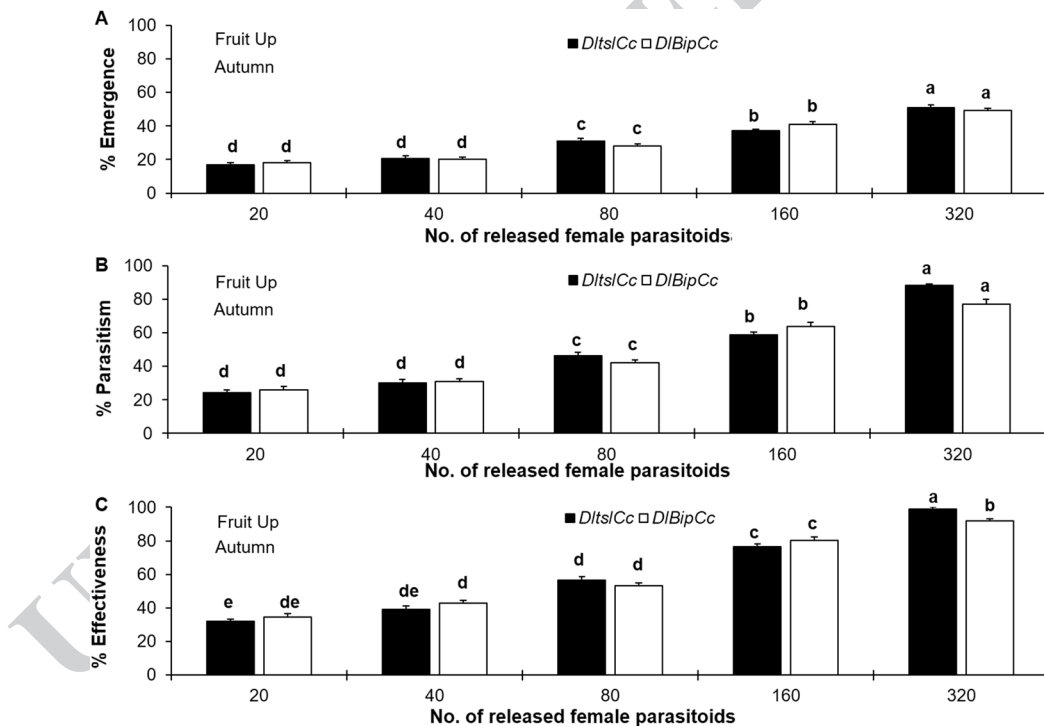


Fig. 4 Mean (±SE) percentage of individuals emergence (A), parasitism (b), and effectiveness (C) recorded from artificially inoculated peaches (*Prunus persica*) with 200 lab-reared third-instar *Ceratitis capitata* larvae from a biparental strain and located at the upper section, next to the roof of field cages, that were parasitized by different *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* female release densities of two

population lines throughout autumn 2016; Tucumán, Argentina. Bars with dissimilar letter indicate significant differences (Tukey HSD test, $p=0.05$). Notations: Dl_{tslCc} , *D. longicaudata* lineage reared on irradiated larvae of the Temperature Sensitive Lethal Vienna-8 *C. capitata* strain; Dl_{bipCc} , *D. longicaudata* lineage reared on non-irradiated larvae of a biparental *C. capitata* strain

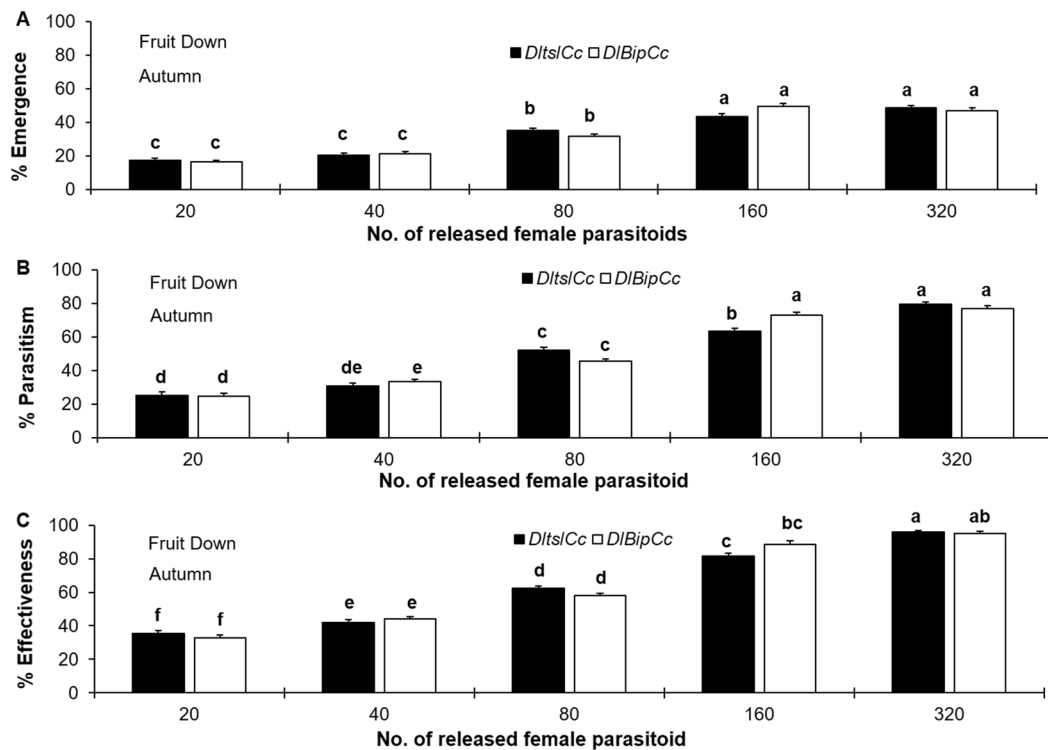


Fig. 5 Mean (\pm SE) percentage of individuals emergence (A), parasitism (b), and effectiveness (C) recorded from artificially inoculated peaches (*Prunus persica*) with 200 lab-reared third-instar *Ceratitis capitata* larvae from a biparental strain and located on the ground of field-cages, that were parasitized by different *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* female release densities of two population lines throughout

autumn 2016; Tucumán, Argentina. Bars with dissimilar letter indicate significant differences (Tukey HSD test, $p=0.05$). Notations: *Dl_{lsl}Cc*, *D. longicaudata* lineage reared on irradiated larvae of the Temperature Sensitive Lethal Vienna-8 *C. capitata* strain; *Dl_{Bip}Cc*, *D. longicaudata* lineage reared on non-irradiated larvae of a biparental *C. capitata* strain

Table 4 Summary of univariate two-factor GLMs on the effect of parasitoid population lines and fruit location, and their interactions on *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* effectiveness recorded per treatment from a third instar of biparental *Ceratitis capitata* strain inside

peaches located at the canopy of potted tree and on the ground under field-cage conditions in autumn (April–May 2016); Tucumán, Argentina

Treatments												
Source of variation (Categorical variables)	df	Error df	T ₁ (20 released parasitoids)		T ₂ (40 released parasitoids)		T ₃ (80 released parasitoids)		T ₄ (160 released parasitoids)		T ₅ (320 released parasitoids)	
			F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
Parasitoid population lines (PPL)	1	156	0.012	=0.913	1.521	=0.219	6.842	=0.010*	30.554	<0.001*	0.803	=0.371
Fruit location (FL)	1	156	24.661	<0.001*	81.940	<0.001*	423.889	<0.001*	375.391	<0.001*	292.182	<0.001*
PPL × FL	1	156	1.918	=0.168	0.006	=0.979	1.342	=0.248	1.249	=0.265	0.746	=0.389

*Statistically significant

524 influence both adult emergence and parasitism values.
 525 These mortality factors, such as both stinging activity
 526 without oviposition and superparasitism, may increase
 527 host larva and/or pupa mortality rates. This would explain
 528 the high effectiveness values recorded for both parasitoid
 529 population lines. *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* has
 530 an innate trend to superparasitize host larvae not only

531 under rearing conditions (González et al. 2010; Montoya
 532 et al. 2012a) but also in natural environmental situations
 533 (Ovruski et al. 2012; Montoya et al. 2013). Additionally,
 534 *D. longicaudata* females may cause severe damage to host
 535 larvae due to the numerous punctures on them as a result
 536 of ovipositor probing's or by excessive number of ovi-
 537 positions (Montoya et al. 2000a). Similar to that found

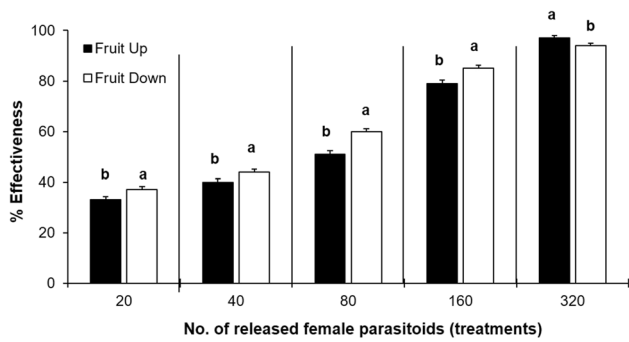


Fig. 6 Comparison between the mean (\pm SE) effectiveness of *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* females released at five different densities to suppress medfly larvae infesting peaches located either in the upper (near to roof) or lower sector (on the ground) of field cages throughout autumn 2016; Tucumán, Argentina. Data of both *D. longicaudata* lineages were pooled. Letters show comparisons between fruits up and down within the same parasitoid density. Bars with dissimilar letter indicate significant differences (Tukey HSD test, $p=0.05$)

in this study, Montoya et al. (2000b, 2007) recorded just over 70% of control on *Anastrepha ludens* (Loew) and *A. obliqua* (Macquart) populations by open-field releases of *D. longicaudata* females mass-reared on *A. ludens* larvae, but with only a 50% of parasitism caused by this opiine species in different fruit-growing regions of México. This enhanced mortality is highly relevant for those biological control programs using exotic parasitoid species that are not able to establish themselves or whose establishment is

doubtful in a particular area or region, because they can be used to control target pest outbreaks (de Pedro et al. 2019). The exotic *D. longicaudata* has been able to successfully establish in the subtropical areas of the northern Argentina as a direct result of early sporadic releases. However, it was recovered in low numbers from both *C. capitata* and *A. fraterculus* puparia 40 years after their first releases in that region (Schliserman et al. 2003; Oroño and Ovruski 2007). Distinctively, *D. longicaudata* was recovered from *C. capitata* puparia from different host fruit species a few weeks after its release in semi-arid and irrigated fruit-producing valleys of San Juan, but to date its establishment in the central-western region of Argentina has not been confirmed (Suárez et al. 2014; Sánchez et al. 2016). Regarding the offspring sex ratio, data of the present study agreed with Sánchez et al. (2016), due to the fact that in all treatments throughout both testing seasons *D. longicaudata* yielded a moderately female-biased offspring. Parasitism and progeny sex ratio are among the foremost quality control parameters used for *D. longicaudata* mass releases (Messing et al. 1993; Purcell 1998; Montoya et al. 2012b). This finding is relevant when taking into account future mass releases of this opiine parasitoid species under open-field conditions.

Results of this research showed that the females of both *DI_{BipCc}* and *DI_{IslCc}* comparably had the ability to forage infested peaches indistinctly over the tree canopy and on the ground beneath the tree. Similar parasitoid effectiveness rates were achieved in both host fruit location in both

AQ3 Table 5 Summary of univariate two-factor GLMs with a covariable (outdoor mean temperature = $T^{\circ}C$) on the effect of parasitoid population lines (=PPL) and testing seasons (=TS), and their interactions on *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* effectiveness recorded per treat-

ment from third instars of a biparental *Ceratitis capitata* strain inside peaches located at the canopy of potted tree and on the ground under field-cage conditions between January and February 2016, and April and May 2016; Tucumán, Argentina

Treatments												
Source of variation/fruit location	df	Error df	T ₁ (20 released parasitoids)		T ₂ (40 released parasitoids)		T ₃ (80 released parasitoids)		T ₄ (160 released parasitoids)		T ₅ (320 released parasitoids)	
			F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
<i>Fruit at the canopy</i>												
Categorical variables:												
PPL	1	155	0.012	=0.913	0.348	=0.556	10.436	=0.001*	7.117	=0.008*	0.992	=0.878
TS	1	155	0.023	=0.877	0.109	=0.741	0.243	=0.623	0.035	=0.853	0.024	=0.358
PPL × TS	1	155	3.016	=0.084	1.493	=0.223	1.424	=0.623	1.075	=0.301	0.848	=0.084
Covariable ($T^{\circ}C$)	1	155	0.992	=0.321	0.041	=0.838	1.014	=0.315	2.189	=0.141	0.992	=0.321
<i>Fruit on the ground</i>												
Categorical variables:												
PPL	1	155	0.138	=0.710	8.951	=0.003*	0.622	=0.432	18.172	<0.001*	0.254	=0.615
TS	1	155	0.993	=0.320	0.483	=0.488	1.757	=0.187	1.027	=0.313	1.458	=0.229
PPL × TS	1	155	0.755	=0.386	1.400	=0.239	2.381	=0.845	0.045	=0.833	1.127	=0.289
Covariable ($T^{\circ}C$)	1	155	0.958	=0.329	0.757	=0.386	0.621	=0.432	3.312	=0.071	2.342	=0.127

*Statistically significant

576 aforementioned microhabitats. This finding matches with
 577 *D. longicaudata*'s foraging behavior that involved differ-
 578 ent fruits infested by *A. ludens* (García-Medel et al. 2007;
 579 Miranda et al. 2015) and by *C. capitata* (Harbi et al. 2018;
 580 Suárez et al. 2019b). However, in the present study, there
 581 was a significant but slight trend to forage fruit in the canopy
 582 at the highest tested female release density (320 parasitoids)
 583 in both summer and autumn. These data do not agree with
 584 outcomes from previous reports on guava orchards infested
 585 by *Bactrocera dorsalis* (Hendel) larvae in Hawaii (Purcell
 586 et al. 1994) and on mango orchards infested by *A. ludens*
 587 and *A. obliqua* larvae in Mexico (Montoya et al. 2000b), in
 588 which *D. longicaudata* females showed a strong trend to for-
 589 age over fallen fruits. These varied preferences on the fruit
 590 location may be the result of either different or combined cir-
 591 cumstances that influence the female parasitoid stimulation
 592 in the host searching behavior. Examples of these factors
 593 may include suitable host sizes and ages commonly present
 594 in such fruit that generate enough vibration cues but also
 595 chemical cues that stimulate the female to lay eggs (Duan
 596 and Messing 2000). *Diachasmimorpha longicaudata* may
 597 be able to detect volatile emissions from *C. capitata* larvae
 598 during the host-location procedure from a short distance,
 599 and during egg-laying activity chemical cues from host lar-
 600 vae have an influence on female ovipositor-probing behavior
 601 (Buonocore Biancheri et al. 2019). It is well known that
 602 fruigivorous tephritid larvae, which includes *C. capitata*,
 603 release para-ethylacetophenone, a volatile that stimulates
 604 attraction of *D. longicaudata* females, and encourages both
 605 probing and oviposition behaviors (Stuhl et al. 2011). The
 606 fruit ripeness degree is another essential factor that may
 607 influence the preference of the *D. longicaudata* female to
 608 forage fruit on ground or at canopy level. The short-range
 609 orientation of *D. longicaudata* females to the host would
 610 be regulated by a blend of odors emanating from both the
 611 host larva and the ripe fruit (Messing and Jang 1992; Eben
 612 et al. 2000; Silva et al. 2007; Segura et al. 2012). Addition-
 613 ally, Stuhl et al. (2011) emphasized the diversity of chemical
 614 stimuli involved in the *D. longicaudata* female attraction to
 615 find the host larva and to oviposit in it.

616 Interestingly, the environmental conditions evaluated
 617 during the study dates in both testing seasons, mean tem-
 618 perature and RH, did not influence the effectiveness of both
 619 DI_{BipCc} and DI_{IslCc} to attack *C. capitata* larvae. Despite the
 620 significant difference in mean temperature and RH that
 621 was recorded between the release dates in the summer and
 622 the equivalent ones in the autumn, both *D. longicaudata*
 623 population lines were similarly effective to control Medfly.
 624 During testing dates in autumn, mean temperature and RH
 625 were 4.8°C and 16.0%, respectively, lower than the corre-
 626 sponding ones in summer. Different authors (Meirelles et al.
 627 2015; Harbi et al. 2018; de Pedro et al. 2019) pointed out
 628 that *D. longicaudata* seems to be highly resistant to extreme

629 climatic conditions, mainly to temperature variations. In
 630 turn, Meirelles et al. (2015) checked that individuals of *D.*
 631 *longicaudata* lab-reared from *C. capitata* larvae had a lower
 632 thermal threshold (~8°C) than those reared in *A. fratercul-*
 633 *us* (~13°C). In the present study, only the mean tempera-
 634 ture was tested as a covariate in the statistical models since
 635 there was a significant and high positive correlation with
 636 RH. The average temperatures recorded during the two test-
 637 ing seasons, which varied approximately between 24 and
 638 29°C, are included within a suitable temperature range for
 639 the *D. longicaudata* female's oviposition activity and for the
 640 development of the immature stages (Meirelles et al. 2015).
 641 Precisely, in seasons with mean temperatures above 25°C, *D.*
 642 *longicaudata* could develop more rapidly than at tempera-
 643 tures below 25°C (Meirelles et al. 2013).

644 To summarize, *D. longicaudata* releases at a ratio of
 645 less than one host larva inside the fruit per parasitoid
 646 female, which is equivalent to 320 released parasitoid
 647 females per EC, highly increased the *C. capitata* mortality
 648 in both testing seasons, early summer and middle autumn,
 649 under field-cage conditions in northwestern Argentina.
 650 Nevertheless, at a host:parasitoid ratio of about 1.3 Med-
 651 fly larvae per *D. longicaudata* female under infested fruit
 652 located on the ground conditions in both studying seasons,
 653 DI_{BipCc} females caused a host mortality similar to that
 654 ratio of 0.6:1 host:parasitoid. Either way, *D. longicaudata*
 655 females of both tested parasitoid population lines generally
 656 showed a linked effectiveness pattern to kill Medfly larvae
 657 when peaches were locating in both the upper and lower
 658 sectors of the field cages. This would be signaling that
 659 female foraging activity of both DI_{BipCc} and DI_{IslCc} may
 660 not be distinctly defined in view of the host fruit height
 661 level preference, which was canopy vs. ground. This fact
 662 increases the *D. longicaudata* action range based on the
 663 capacity of successful search for and locating the host in
 664 two different microhabitats. Furthermore, adults of both
 665 DI_{BipCc} and DI_{IslCc} were able to get a good performance as
 666 biological control agents of *C. capitata* in the trials under
 667 local climatic conditions at the testing times. This find-
 668 ing together with data published by Suárez et al. (2019b)
 669 clearly suggest that DI_{IslCc} reared under mass-rearing con-
 670 ditions at the "BioPlanta San Juan" biofactory may be
 671 very useful to control *C. capitata* through augmentative
 672 releases between middle spring and middle autumn, that is,
 673 during at least eight months of the year, in the subtropical
 674 region of northwestern Argentina. Throughout this period,
 675 both *C. capitata* and *A. fraterculus* accurately increase
 676 their natural populations by using feral fruits into both
 677 large and small wild forest areas with different degrees of
 678 disturbance surrounding commercial fruit crops, as well
 679 as in deserted citrus orchards (Schliserman et al. 2014,
 680 2016). In this regard, open-field augmentative releases
 681 from either DI_{BipCc} or DI_{IslCc} population lines within an

682 area-wide integrated Medfly management approach (Hen-
683 drichs et al. 2007; Montoya et al. 2007) should be encour-
684 aged. Finally, outcomes of the present study support the
685 use of augmentative biological control against *C. capitata*
686 in fruit-growing regions of Argentina, as in other Ameri-
687 can countries affected by this invasive pest. However, an
688 important step to be considered in the foreseeable future
689 is the use of Neotropical-native parasitoid species, such as
690 the figitid larval parasitoid *Ganaspis pelleranoi* (Brèthes)
691 (Buonocore Biancheri et al 2019) and the diapid pupal
692 parasitoid *Coptera haywardi* (Ogloblin) (Núñez Campero
693 et al. 2020), in combination with the exotic *D. longicau-*
694 *data* as a viable alternative to improve Medfly control.

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713 Declarations

714 **Conflict of Interest** The authors declare no competing interests.

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