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**Invasive *Drosophila suzukii* outnumber native
controphics and causes substantial damage to fruits of
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1 **Invasive *Drosophila suzukii* outnumbers native controphics and causes**
2 **substantial damage to fruits of forest plants**

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13 **Running title:** Impact of *Drosophila suzukii* on forests

14

15 **Author contributions:**

16 I.B. and M.M.G. developed the ideas for the manuscript, acquired the funding and defined the
17 design and methods used in the study; I.B. conducted the field assessments and identified the
18 species; M.M.G. analyzed the data; I.B. wrote the first draft of the manuscript, I.B. and
19 M.M.G. edited, revised and finalized it.

20 Abstract

21 Impacts of biological invasions are diverse and can have far-reaching consequences for
 22 ecosystems. The spotted wing drosophila, *Drosophila suzukii*, is a major invasive pest of
 23 fruits, which negatively affects fruit and wine production. However, little is known about the
 24 ecological impact of this fly species on the ecosystems it has invaded. In this study, we
 25 investigated the use of potential host plants by *D. suzukii* at 64 sites in different forest
 26 communities in Switzerland from mid-June to mid-October 2020. We examined more than
 27 12,000 fruits for egg deposits of *D. suzukii* to assess its direct impact on the plants. We
 28 recorded symptoms of fruit decay after egg deposition to determine if *D. suzukii* attacks
 29 trigger fruit decay. In addition, we monitored the drosophilid fauna with cup traps baited with
 30 apple cider vinegar, as we expected that *D. suzukii* would outnumber and potentially
 31 outcompete native controphics, especially other drosophilids. Egg deposits of *D. suzukii* were
 32 found on the fruit of 31 of the 39 potential host plant species studied, with 18 species showing
 33 an attack rate > 50%. Overall, fruits of *Cotoneaster divaricatus* (96%), *Atropa bella-donna*
 34 (91%), *Rubus fruticosus corylifolius* aggr. (91%), *Frangula alnus* (85%) and *Sambucus nigra*
 35 (83%) were attacked particularly frequently, resulting also in predicted attack probabilities
 36 that varied among forest communities. Later and longer fruiting, black fruit colour, larger fruit
 37 size and higher pulp pH all positively affected attack rates. More than 50% of the plant
 38 species showed severe symptoms of decay after egg deposition, with higher pulp sugar
 39 content leading to more severe symptoms. The high fruit attack rate observed was reflected in
 40 a high abundance and dominance of *D. suzukii* in trap catches, independent of forest
 41 community and elevation. *Drosophila suzukii* was by far the most abundant species,
 42 accounting for 86% (81,395 individuals) of all drosophilids. The abundance of *D. suzukii* was
 43 negatively associated with the abundance of the native drosophilids. Our results indicate that
 44 the invasive *D. suzukii* competes strongly with other frugivorous species and that its presence
 45 has far-reaching ecosystem-level consequences. The rapid decay of fruits attacked by *D.*
 46 *suzukii* leads to a loss of resources and may disrupt seed-dispersal mutualisms through the
 47 reduced consumption of fruits by dispersers such as birds.

48 Key words

49 alien species, drosophilid, ecological impact, frugivore, fruit decay, host plant range, insect

50 Introduction

51 Biotic exchange and subsequent invasions by non-native species in natural and human-
52 modified ecosystems are among the greatest threats to biodiversity worldwide (Wilcove et al.
53 1998, Pyšek et al. 2020). They can have far-reaching consequences for ecosystems (Vilà et al.
54 2010), including their functioning (Mack et al. 2000, Ehrenfeld 2010), and for human well-
55 being (Shackleton et al. 2019), and they can have extraordinary economic costs (Pimentel et
56 al. 2005, Diagne et al. 2021). The perception and recognition of impacts of biological
57 invasions, as well as how they are measured, are diverse and depend on the variables and
58 scales considered (Jeschke et al. 2014). While assessments of economic impacts are measured
59 in terms of economic costs, ecological impacts are evaluated as measurable changes to the
60 properties of an ecosystem by a non-native species. However, the ecological impact of an
61 invader is not easy to define or quantify, due to the context dependency of impacts, the
62 variation in the per capita effect within and across species, and the complex interactions
63 between invaders and their biotic and abiotic environments (Pyšek and Richardson 2010,
64 Ricciardi et al. 2013).

65 Invasive non-native species may affect native species on the level of individuals (e.g.
66 fecundity, mortality), populations (e.g. abundance, genetic diversity), communities (e.g.
67 species richness and composition, trophic structure) and ecosystems (e.g. nutrient cycling,
68 physical habitat, overall structure and function) (Parker et al. 1999). The impact of a non-
69 native species on native populations and communities varies greatly in temporal (Strayer et al.
70 2006) and spatial (Mollet et al. 2017) terms and depends critically on the abundance and
71 trophic position of the invasive species (Bradley 2019). This explains why the extent of
72 ecological impact varies greatly between invaders (Kumschick et al. 2015, Lapin et al. 2021).

73 Insects make up a large proportion of introduced species (DAISIE 2009, Seebens et al. 2017).
74 They are usually introduced accidentally, rarely reach large populations, and/or are often not
75 noticed. However, a small minority become highly abundant and ecologically significant
76 (Liebhold and Tobin 2008). Impacts of non-native insects on native species and ecosystems
77 have many potential mechanisms, but only a very small proportion of non-native insects have
78 been studied regarding their ecological impacts (Kenis et al. 2009). While direct impacts
79 through mechanisms such as predation or competition are more obvious, indirect impacts,
80 such as apparent and exploitative competition or alteration of interactions between native

81 species, often remain unexplored (Traveset and Richardson 2006, White et al. 2006). For
 82 example, a meta-analysis of the effects of the invasions of the Argentine ant (*Linepithema*
 83 *humile*) showed that areas with *L. humile* had 92% fewer native ant seed dispersers than areas
 84 where *L. humile* was not present. In addition, the meta-analysis indicated that *L. humile* did
 85 not replace native seed dispersers in their functional role, as rates of seed removal and
 86 seedling establishment were lower in the presence of *L. humile* (Rodriguez-Cabal et al. 2009).
 87 A disruption of seed-dispersal mutualisms affects seedling recruitment, species populations
 88 and distributions, plant-community composition, and gene flow (Howe and Smallwood 1982).
 89 Such indirect effects of non-native species on plant species can have far-reaching ecological
 90 consequences.

91 For frugivorous insects, the most significant effect on plants is thought to be indirect, namely
 92 the reduction of seed dispersal far from the mother plant by vertebrates (Sallabanks and
 93 Courtney 1992). Among frugivorous insects, *Drosophila suzukii* (Matsumura 1931; Diptera:
 94 Drosophilidae), also known as the spotted wing drosophila, is of particular importance. It is an
 95 invasive *Drosophila* species originating from Southeast Asia (Asplen et al. 2015). The
 96 presence of the species outside of its native range was first recorded in Japan (Matsumura
 97 1931), 1980 in Hawaii (Leblanc et al. 2009) and in 2008 synchronously in southwestern USA
 98 (Hauser 2011) and southern Europe (Cini et al. 2012). The species has spread rapidly and is
 99 now widespread on the Asian, European, and North and South American continents (dos
 100 Santos et al. 2017). The family Drosophilidae comprises more than 3,900 species, with more
 101 than 1,500 of the described species belonging to the genus *Drosophila*. These small flies are
 102 widespread in a variety of climates and environments throughout the world (Markow and
 103 O’Grady 2005, Bächli 2021). To date, around 36 species of the genus *Drosophila* and more
 104 than 30 species of other genera of the family Drosophilidae are distributed in Switzerland
 105 (personal communication G. Bächli 2021; Bächli et al. 2004). The habitat of most of these
 106 species is mainly restricted to forest areas (so-called wild species). In contrast, a few species
 107 of *Drosophila*, so-called domestic species, mainly occur in settlements and are mostly
 108 cosmopolitan in distribution (Atkinson and Shorrocks 1977, Shorrocks 1977, Burla and
 109 Bächli 1991). Oviposition and larval development of *Drosophila* are usually restricted to
 110 decaying organic resources such as slime flux, fruits, flowers and mushrooms (Markow and
 111 O’Grady 2008), but the degree of substrate specialisation varies widely, from generalists to
 112 obligate specialists (Mitsui and Kimura 2000, Markow and O’Grady 2005, Anholt et al.
 113 2020). This variability is also related to host location, host acceptance, and host use (Markow
 114 2019), with chemical recognition playing a crucial role (Anholt 2020). Most *Drosophila* show

115 some degree of fidelity in oviposition site selection, which often depends more on the decay
 116 state of the substrate, than on the identity of the plant or fungus (e.g. Kambysellis and Heed
 117 1971, Nunney 1990, Karageorgi et al. 2017). For example, *D. suzukii* prefers fruits that are
 118 more intact (Kienzle and Rohlf 2021), firmer (Sato, Airi et al. 2021) and in an earlier
 119 maturation stage (Dweck et al. 2021) compared with *D. melanogaster*, another frugivore.
 120 *Drosophila* species inoculate their oviposition substrate with microorganisms. They are
 121 considered important vectors, especially of yeasts but also of bacteria, and transport viable
 122 microbes to new substrates where they grow (Gilbert 1980, Rohlf and Hoffmeister 2005,
 123 Stamps et al. 2012, Hamby and Becher 2016). Adults and larvae feed mainly on the microbes
 124 that decompose organic material, but also on the decomposing material itself (Markow and
 125 O’Grady 2008). Flies additionally benefit from the dispersal of such microbes, as they obtain
 126 signals from their metabolic products for finding sugar resources (Madden et al. 2018).

127 *Drosophila suzukii* exploits resources that usually consist of small separate units and are
 128 patchy and ephemeral, i.e. they support only one generation. The temporal and spatial
 129 constraints of these unpredictable resources may favour generalists (Jaenike 1990). Niche
 130 breadth usually correlates positively with geographical range size (Slatyer et al. 2013), but
 131 does not necessarily explain invasion success (Carscadden et al. 2020). Following this general
 132 rule, the temporal and spatial niche breadth of the invasive *D. suzukii* have been shown to be
 133 relatively large compared with other *Drosophila* species in Japan (Yamamoto 1984). Besides
 134 using fruits as its preferred substrate for oviposition, it has also been found to develop on
 135 fungi (Kimura 1976) and can even complete development on chicken manure (Stockton et al.
 136 2019). Within its invasive range, *D. suzukii* can use the fleshy fruits of many crops and wild
 137 plants (e.g. Poyet et al. 2015, Arnó et al. 2016, Kenis et al. 2016). In the year 2020, 198 plant
 138 species representing 40 families were already confirmed as host plants (Little et al. 2020), so
 139 the fly can be considered extremely polyphagous (sensu Normark and Johnson 2011).

140 Polyphagous herbivores (or generalists) are more impacted by plant toxicity than specialists
 141 (Ali and Agrawal 2012), as specialisation in phytophagous insects is thought to assist in the
 142 evolution of adaptations to overcome plant defences (Ehrlich and Raven 1964). However, *D.*
 143 *suzukii* hardly needs to specialise to overcome plant defences. On the one hand, because
 144 fleshy fruits are generally intended to be eaten by vertebrates (Lei et al. 2021), the pulp of
 145 such fruits is often of low toxicity when ripe (Cipollini 2000). On the other hand, the
 146 association with microbes may help with detoxification and digestion (Douglas 2009, 2015).
 147 Fruits share particular volatiles across plant species (Prasanna et al. 2007). As a resource

148 specialist utilising particular plant structures, i.e. fruits, with predictable odour cues, it may
 149 not be crucial for *D. suzukii* to specialise on particular plant species in order to increase host
 150 location, because olfactory responses to substrate-relevant volatiles of a resource instead of a
 151 plant species enables coping with a much narrower range of odours (e.g. Becher et al. 2012,
 152 Cunningham and Zalucki 2014, Cunningham et al. 2016).

153 *Drosophila suzukii* attacks on the fruits of agricultural crops cause considerable economic
 154 damage to fruit growers through yield losses and the need to take measures to prevent attacks
 155 and minimise damage (Bolda et al. 2010, Knapp et al. 2020). Research on *D. suzukii* as a fruit
 156 crop pest is therefore ongoing and diverse. In recent studies, the occurrence of *D. suzukii*
 157 outside agricultural crops has been investigated to assess pest pressure from adjacent habitats.
 158 Woodlands have been shown to be suitable refugia and overwintering habitats (Briem et al.
 159 2016, Pelton et al. 2016, Thistlewood et al. 2018, Wallingford et al. 2018) and can provide a
 160 large reservoir of hosts that produce fruits, ensuring continuity of resource availability over
 161 time (Poyet et al. 2015, Arnó et al. 2016, Elsensohn and Loeb 2018, Thistlewood et al. 2019).
 162 Therefore, large numbers of *D. suzukii* can be expected in forests, as has also been shown in
 163 trapping case studies (e.g. Briem et al. 2018, Haro-Barchin et al. 2018, Santoiemma et al.
 164 2018), and population densities are likely to be more constant and higher than in semi-open
 165 habitats such as agricultural landscapes. So far, almost no research has been conducted to
 166 address the ecological impact of this fly on the ecosystems it has invaded. Roche et al. (2021)
 167 highlighted how *D. suzukii* may produce ecological changes to eastern forests in the USA.
 168 Invasion by *D. suzukii* may have consequences for food resources and, consequently, on
 169 species with which they compete for fruits. Competitive interactions, i.e. competition for
 170 shared resources or interference between species, generally increase with increasing
 171 phylogenetic relatedness (Li et al. 2015) and functional similarity (Dick et al. 2017) between
 172 the invader and the native species. Accordingly, *D. suzukii* could affect native drosophilids
 173 due to two main mechanisms. First, *D. suzukii* can use a wide range of substrates for
 174 oviposition, which gives it a competitive advantage over native drosophilids (Karageorgi et al.
 175 2017, Silva-Soares et al. 2017). Unlike other drosophilids that use damaged and overripe
 176 fruits, *D. suzukii* has an enlarged, serrated ovipositor which makes it possible for females to
 177 pierce the skin of fruits (Atallah et al. 2014). It thus can use undamaged fruit, i.e. it can
 178 occupy fruits earlier than other drosophilids. Second, according to the enemy release
 179 hypothesis, a lower parasitisation rate leads to a larger population size (Keane 2002, Shea
 180 2002), and parasitisation is an important cause of mortality for drosophilid larvae (Janssen et
 181 al. 1988, Fleury et al. 2009).

182 In this study, we assessed the use of potential host plants in forests by examining egg
 183 depositions of *D. suzukii*, reflecting its direct effect on the plants. Since there is a diverse
 184 abundance and varying availability of host plants within a plant community, which affects the
 185 choice of host plants for *D. suzukii*, we selected different forest communities and forest edges
 186 as study sites. We addressed the following questions: (1) Are there differences in the potential
 187 host plants of *D. suzukii* growing in different forest communities? (2) To what extent are the
 188 potential host plants attacked by *D. suzukii*, and what are the factors influencing the attack
 189 rates?

190 Due to the large numbers of *D. suzukii* trapped in previous studies, we expected that this
 191 species would outnumber and potentially outcompete native controphics, especially
 192 drosophilids. To test this hypothesis, we trapped drosophilids during the study period and
 193 addressed the following questions: (3) What proportion of drosophilid individuals are *D.*
 194 *suzukii*? (4) Does the proportion of *D. suzukii* differ among forest communities? (5) Does the
 195 abundance of *D. suzukii* affect the abundance of other drosophilids?

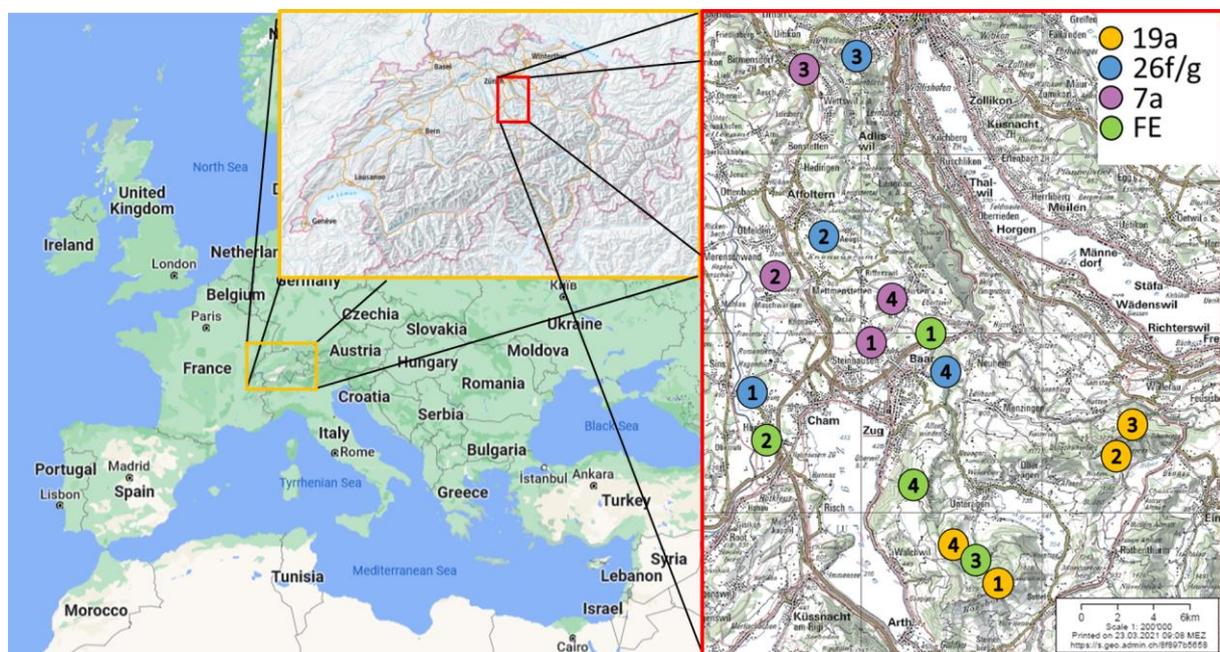
196

197 Materials and Methods

198 *Study area*

199 We conducted our study in the adjacent cantons of Zug (47.092440 – 47.218600 N, 8.407940
 200 – 8.680231 E; elevation 400-1200 m a.s.l) and Zurich (47.163290 – 47.365790 N, 8.424865 –
 201 8.687711 E; 440-1165 m a.s.l) in Switzerland from June to November in 2020 (Figure 1). In
 202 both regions, the annual average temperature ranges between 4-6°C at higher elevation sites
 203 to 10-12°C at lower elevation sites and the annual precipitation ranges between 1100-1300
 204 mm and 1700-2000 mm at sites in the canton Zug and 900-1100 mm and 1100-1300 mm at
 205 sites in the canton Zurich (climate norm values 1991-2020; Federal Office of Meteorology
 206 and Climatology MeteoSwiss; extracted from <https://map.geo.admin.ch/>). We selected the
 207 forest communities 7a (*GALIO ODORATI-FAGETUM TYPICUM*), 19a (*ABIETI-FAGETUM*
 208 *LUZULETOSUM*) and 26f/g (*ACERI-FRAXINETUM MERCURIALIDETOSUM*) (see
 209 Ellenberg and Klötzli 1972) for our study, as they include a comparable range of fruiting
 210 plants. In addition, we investigated forest edges, as they serve as important habitat for a large
 211 range of fruiting plants. We examined the three forest communities at four sites ≥ 1 km apart,
 212 from 400 to 1165 m a.s.l. At each site, we selected four 25 m \times 25 m plots of the particular
 213 forest community from the available grid cells (also 25 m \times 25 m) in a stratified random

214 design, using a vegetation mapping GIS in the canton of Zurich (Kanton Zürich 2020) and
 215 vegetation maps in the canton of Zug. We applied the following criteria in selecting plots: (1)
 216 distance between plots ≥ 150 m, (2) distance to the forest edge ≥ 150 m (due to the shape of
 217 the area, only a distance of ≥ 70 m was possible at the site “Zollischlag”). We measured the
 218 distances between sites, between plots and to the edge of the forest using the mapping
 219 platform of the Swiss Confederation (www.map.geo.admin.ch) and subsequently checked
 220 them in the field. We reviewed the forest community classification in the field based on
 221 indicator plant species. We defined the centre of the plots as the tree nearest to the actual
 222 centre point of the 25 m \times 25 m area. We moved a selected plot the adjacent grid cell if the
 223 area was temporarily unstocked (n=2), was covered with logging residues (n=1), or had no
 224 characteristics of the respective forest communities (n=3). We investigated forest edges at
 225 four sites with four plots each in the canton of Zug. We selected two sites at low elevations
 226 (400–600 m a.s.l.) and two at high elevations (800–1000 m a.s.l.). We defined these plots as
 227 areas of 12.5 m \times 50 m along the forest edge (instead of 25 m \times 25 m). Where possible, the
 228 forest edges were orientated in different cardinal directions. Forest edge sites were ≥ 1 km
 229 apart and plots were separated by ≥ 250 m. All sites were located in managed forests.



230
 231 **Figure 1.** Map showing the locations of the 16 sites (forest communities 7a, 26f/g and 19a;
 232 forest edges (FE)) (European map data 2021 © Google maps, Switzerland map data 2021 ©
 233 Swiss Confederation).

234

235 *Field surveys of potential host plants*

236 We considered any fleshy-fruited species, characterised by a high fruit water content, a
 237 potential host plant. We used the term “fruit” for all fruit types (i.e. berries, drupes, aggregate
 238 drupelets, aggregate nutlets and pomes), independent of the tissue of origin of the pulp. We
 239 also examined the aril of European yew (*Taxus baccata*) for egg deposition and included it
 240 under the term “fruit” below.

241 We carried out the field surveys in all plots during six observation sessions (interval of 20
 242 days) over the study period, starting on 22/06/2020 and ending on 15/10/2020: 4 plant
 243 communities (3 forest communities + forest edge) × 4 study sites × 4 plots (64 plots) × 6
 244 periods = 384 assessments.

245 We mapped all potential reproducing host plant species in each plot (25 m × 25 m or 12.5 m ×
 246 50 m = 625 m²) and noted its occurrence. We used an estimated dominance value to
 247 determine the area (m²) covered by a plant species, and used this value and the recorded
 248 height to calculate the plant species’ volume. For each potential host plant at each field survey
 249 per plot, we estimated the seasonal phenology and the number of ripe fruits present, assigning
 250 maturation stage between 0 and 2, corresponding to the majority of plant individuals: 0 = no
 251 ripe fruits, 0.25–0.75 = before main fruit maturity (some ripe fruits), 1.0–1.25 mainly ripe
 252 fruits, 1.5–1.75 = after main fruit maturity (more overripe, fermented fruits than ripe fruits), 2
 253 = no more fruits. Since fruit ripening is usually associated with a change in colour, we used
 254 colour change as an indicator of the maturity of the examined fruits. In some species, such as
 255 European fly honeysuckle (*Lonicera xylosteum*), rowan (*Sorbus aucuparia*) or alder
 256 buckthorn (*Frangula alnus*), changes in fruit flesh firmness during ripening were not
 257 advanced at the time of colour change. We judged these fruits to be ripe when they also
 258 softened. After maturity, fruits enter senescence (period during which chemical synthesis
 259 pathways give way to degradation processes). As an indicator of the “overripe” stage, we used
 260 loss of moisture, which becomes visible as a loss of turgor. At the end of the field survey, we
 261 calculated the maturity period with the unit of half a month and estimated the amount of fruit,
 262 both per potential host plant species per plot. The exact method used for these estimates
 263 depended on the species and was based on counts (e.g. all observed fruits, fruits per square
 264 metre, fruits per individual plant, or infructescence). We then extrapolated counts to the plot
 265 level. The number of fruits was likely underestimated by this approach and was thus a rather
 266 conservative estimate. Fruits that were removed, destroyed or lost due to drought stress near
 267 the end of the ripening process were not subtracted from the estimated numbers.

268 Near the plots and in the same forest communities, we additionally examined native potential
 269 host plants that occurred in less than three plots (*Lonicera alpigena*, *Taxus baccata*, *Prunus*
 270 *spinosa*, *Crataegus laevigata*, *Lonicera periclymenum*, *Viburnum lantana*). We conducted
 271 this additional investigation to estimate the average attack rate of plants with infrequent
 272 occurrence on the plots, but we excluded these fruits from the statistical analyses.

273 European brambles (*Rubus* L. subg. *Rubus*) are taxonomically divided into three sections:
 274 *Rubus*, *Corylifolii* and *Caesii* (with one species, *Rubus caesius*). The most abundant species in
 275 our plots were *R. hirtus* agg. (sect. *Rubus*), occurring in the plots of forest community 19a,
 276 and *R. villarsianus* (sect. *Corylifolii*), occurring in the plots of forest communities 7a and
 277 26f/g. Especially at the forest edges, but also in the forest communities 26f/g and 7a, more
 278 than one species of the sections *Rubus* and/or *Corylifolii* occurred in the plots. We did not
 279 identify the described and named species of the sections *Rubus* and *Corylifolii* in the plots and
 280 therefore used the term *Rubus fruticosus corylifolius* aggr. as the taxonomic unit.

281 ***Investigation of fruit attacks by Drosophila suzukii***

282 We examined ripe fruits at an accessible height (up to 2 m) for egg deposition using a hand
 283 lens (10× magnification). If we observed at least one *D. suzukii* egg on the fruit, we
 284 considered the fruit “attacked”, regardless of the number of egg deposits or larvae. We
 285 examined at least 10 fruits per population or individual of a potential host plant per plot, and
 286 we removed the examined fruits from the plants. If multiple individuals of a plant species
 287 occurred in the plot, we examined several individuals. In the case of large populations of
 288 brambles (*R. fruticosus corylifolius* agg.) or bilberry (*Vaccinium myrtillus*), i.e. covering >
 289 25% of the plot area, we randomly selected ≥ 5 areas of 1 m² for investigating egg deposition.
 290 Egg deposition by *D. suzukii* is detectable for only a limited time, due to decay of the fruit
 291 substance, rotting, development of the larvae, feeding by other animals, or secondary
 292 infections such as grey mould. No larvae in a damaged fruit does not allow inference of non-
 293 infestation. Further, damaged fruits may in turn be used as egg-laying substrate by other
 294 drosophilids. Therefore, we used only ripe, undamaged fruits to study egg deposition on
 295 potential host plants.

296 We investigated the fruits of European holly (*Ilex aquifolium*) for egg deposition after the
 297 field surveys because they had not yet reached fruit maturity during the study period. To
 298 check the oviposition activity of *D. suzukii*, we simultaneously examined fruits of the
 299 European dwarf elder (*Sambucus ebulus*) and brambles (*Rubus fruticosus corylifolius* aggr.)

300 occurring near the European hollies under investigation. We did not examine European
 301 mistletoe (*Viscum album*) and common ivy (*Hedera helix*), which were also present in the
 302 plots, for *D. suzukii* attacks, as their fruit ripening period fell well outside our study period.
 303 The ripe fruits of the wild strawberry (*Fragaria vesca*) often showed numerous feeding marks
 304 and damage, such that egg deposition by *D. suzukii* could rarely be detected. We therefore
 305 decided not to investigate attacks further and excluded wild strawberry from the analyses. We
 306 could confirm its use as a host, however, as adults hatched from collected fruits and we found
 307 numerous drosophilid larvae in otherwise intact fruits.

308 ***Fruit and decay traits***

309 We compiled fruit traits of the investigated plant species from Herrera (1987), Snow and
 310 Snow (1988), Eriksson and Ehrlen (1991), and Stiebel (2003) and from databases (eFloras
 311 2021, TRY 2021). When the records of fruit traits were comparable or convertible, we
 312 included the data from several literature references and used the average value. We included
 313 the fruit traits: type, colour, diameter (mm), mass (g), water content of the pulp (%), sugar
 314 content of the pulp (glucose and fructose, % of dry mass), lipid content of the pulp (% of dry
 315 mass), protein content of the pulp (% of dry mass), pH, persistence of individual fruits (days)
 316 and “attacked by non-dispersal frugivores” (%). In addition, we used the amount of ripe fruit
 317 and the maturation start and duration, based on our field assessments (see section “Field
 318 surveys of potential host plants”), as fruit traits in the analyses.

319 Fruit decay is a complex natural phenomenon that is co-determined by numerous conditions.
 320 It occurs as a result of physical and chemical damage, enzymatic digestion, and especially
 321 microbial activity. The fruit skin, which serves as an external barrier, is damaged by the egg
 322 deposition of *D. suzukii*. We documented the fruit response to egg deposition, i.e. decay, to
 323 determine if attacks trigger fruit decay. We recorded the following symptoms of fruit decay:
 324 oviposition scar, denting, oozing of pulp, reduction of fruit substance/loss of shape, and
 325 colour change. We categorised the symptoms as mild (1), moderate (2) or severe (3).

326 ***Adult trapping***

327 At each site of the forest communities (including forest edges), we installed two baited (80–
 328 100 ml) transparent plastic cup traps covered by a red lid with 3 mm diameter entry holes
 329 (Profatec AG, Malans, Switzerland) to trap Drosophilidae including *D. suzukii*. As an
 330 attractant, we used a mixture of apple cider vinegar and water (3:1; apple cider vinegar IP-
 331 Suisse, Denner AG, 8045 Zurich, Switzerland; acetic acid 50 g/l) with 1–2 drops of liquid

332 soap (Oecoplan Abwaschmittel, Coop, 4002 Basel, Switzerland) per 5 dl. We positioned the
 333 traps at a height of 1.2–1.5 m on branches of plants that do not bear fleshy fruits, mostly
 334 beech (*Fagus sylvatica*), at a distance of 150–200 m from the field survey plots. We installed
 335 the traps from 22/06/2020 to 07/07/2020, during the first session of the egg deposition
 336 assessment. At the forest edges, we placed the traps approx. 3 m inside the forest (from the
 337 shrub belt). We kept the traps in the same positions throughout the experiment and visited
 338 them on the same dates as the egg deposition assessments. Therefore, each sampling period of
 339 adult drosophilids also lasted 20 days.

340 During each sampling session, we removed the contents of the traps and preserved them in
 341 ethanol, and we renewed the bait. We sorted the trap content into different taxa, which we
 342 identified to different taxonomic levels. We identified the non-native *D. suzukii* and other
 343 drosophilids to the species level using the identification key of Bächli et al. (2004). “Domestic
 344 species”, in particular *Drosophila simulans* and *Drosophila immigrans*, and other non-native
 345 species (e.g. *Drosophila curvispina* and *Chymomyza amoena*) were occasionally trapped.
 346 Other non-native drosophilid species accounted for < 1% of all trapped individuals.
 347 Therefore, we used the term “native drosophilids” for all drosophilids other than *D. suzukii*.
 348 We identified other Diptera to the family level following Oosterbroek (2006). See
 349 Supplementary Material Table S1 for a list of the trap catches.

350 *Statistical analysis*

351 We carried out all statistical analyses using R version 4.0.2 (R Core Team 2020). We tested
 352 all models for multicollinearity using the ‘check_collinearity’ function of the *performance*
 353 package (Lüdecke et al. 2021) . We performed a tests for dispersion, zero inflation and
 354 residual diagnostics with the *DHARMA* package (Hartig 2022).

355 *Differences in fruiting plant communities*

356 To test whether the composition of the plant communities differed between the forest
 357 communities with respect to the plants with fruits relevant for *D. suzukii*, we conducted non-
 358 metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on a Bray-Curtis distance matrix (function
 359 ‘metaMDS’, package *vegan*; Oksanen et al. 2020). We defined the abundance of plant species
 360 as the estimated number of fruits per study plot and season, square-root transformed. We used
 361 the ‘adonis’ function in *vegan* (permutational multivariate analysis of variance,
 362 PERMANOVA) to test for statistical differences between the forest communities.

363 *Attack rate and probability of fruits of different plant species*

364 We applied a binomial generalised mixed effects model (package *glmmTMB*; Brooks et al.
 365 2017) to test for differences in fruit attacks between forest communities (including forest
 366 edges) and plant species. The ratio of attacked to unattacked fruits per study plot and time of
 367 recording (cbind(N attacked, N not attacked)) was the response variable, whereas the forest
 368 community, the plant species, the elevation (m a.s.l.), the number of ripe fruits, the fruit
 369 maturity status, and the canton were the predictor variables. We included study plot as a
 370 random term to account for the nested study design. We used an additional observation-level
 371 random factor due to dispersion issues.

372 We simplified our model stepwise by excluding the factor with the highest *p*-value and
 373 comparing the two models with the *anova* function based on a CHI²-test. If the more complex
 374 model did not differ significantly in model performance from the simpler model, we used the
 375 latter. This procedure resulted in the exclusion of canton and elevation (height_NN) from the
 376 final model.

377 We calculated the attack probabilities (LS-means ± SE) of the different plant species in the
 378 forest communities and plotted them using the *emmeans* package (Lenth 2022) based on the
 379 final model.

380 *The role of fruit traits in fruit attack and decay*

381 We explored whether fruit traits could explain observed differences in attack rates. We first
 382 used NMDS to illustrate the fruit trait space of the 39 studied plant species. See the section
 383 “fruit traits” for a list of the fruit traits considered. We treated each plant species in each forest
 384 community separately to relate it to attack rate and phenology, which both differed between
 385 forest communities for a given plant species. We used the Gower dissimilarity coefficient
 386 (Gower 1971) with Podani’s (Podani 1999) extension for ordinal variables to create a distance
 387 matrix from our fruit trait data (‘gowdis’ function in the *FD* package (Laliberté and Legendre
 388 2010, Laliberté et al. 2014).

389 We performed NMDS (with two axes) on the Gower distance matrix using the ‘metaMDS’
 390 function in the *vegan* package (Oksanen et al. 2020). For illustration, we plotted attack rates
 391 of the fruits with different circle sizes and the phenology (month of maturation start) in
 392 different colours. We plotted traits post-hoc using the ‘envfit’ function in *vegan*, with 1000
 393 permutations.

394 We used a binomial generalised mixed effects model (package *glmmTMB*; Brooks et al. 2017)
 395 to test whether fruit attacks were related to fruit traits. The ratio of attacked to unattacked

396 fruits per study plot and time of recording (cbind(N attacked, N not attacked)) was the
 397 response variable, whereas fruit availability (amount of fruit per plot), start of ripe fruit
 398 availability and duration of ripe fruit availability (both 0.5 month resolution), fruit colour,
 399 fruit diameter, sugar content of the pulp, and pulp pH were the predictor variables. We
 400 excluded fruit type and mass as well as water content of the pulp because of multicollinearity
 401 issues, and lipid and protein content of the pulp, as well as persistence and “attacked by non-
 402 dispersal frugivores”, because they had too many missing values. We defined study plot and
 403 plant species as random terms to respect the nested study design and the repeated measures on
 404 plant species. We used an additional observation-level random factor due to dispersion issues.
 405 We standardised all quantitative variables to zero mean and unit variance using the
 406 ‘decostand’ function in the *vegan* package (Oksanen et al. 2020) to allow comparisons of
 407 effect sizes.

408 We used a general linear model (‘glm’) with a Poisson distribution to test whether fruit traits
 409 determined the decay status of the fruits after the attack by *D. suzukii*. We used the sum of
 410 decay traits (see section “fruit and decay traits”) as the response variable and fruit traits (fruit
 411 diameter, pulp pH, pulp water, sugar, lipid and protein content) as predictors. We excluded
 412 fruit type and mass because of multicollinearity issues. We standardised all quantitative
 413 variables to zero mean and unit variance using the ‘decostand’ function in the *vegan* package
 414 (Oksanen et al. 2020) to allow comparisons of effect sizes.

415

416 *Effects of D. suzukii on native Drosophilidae*

417 To test for the effects of forest community and canton on the abundance of *D. suzukii* adults
 418 captured in traps, we used a binomial generalised mixed effects model (package *glmmTMB*;
 419 Brooks et al. 2017) with the ratio of *D. suzukii* and native Drosophilidae (cbind(N *D. suzukii*,
 420 N native Drosophilidae)) as response variable and study plot as random term. We calculated
 421 the predicted proportions of *D. suzukii* (LS-means \pm 95% CI) of the Drosophilidae species
 422 caught in the traps in the forest communities and plotted them using the *emmeans* package
 423 (Lenth 2022) based on the above model. To predict the abundance of native Drosophilidae as
 424 a function of the abundance of *D. suzukii*, we used a generalised mixed effects model with a
 425 Poisson distribution (package *glmmTMB*; Brooks et al. 2017) and defined forest community
 426 and canton as additional fixed effect and study plot as random term. We then plotted the

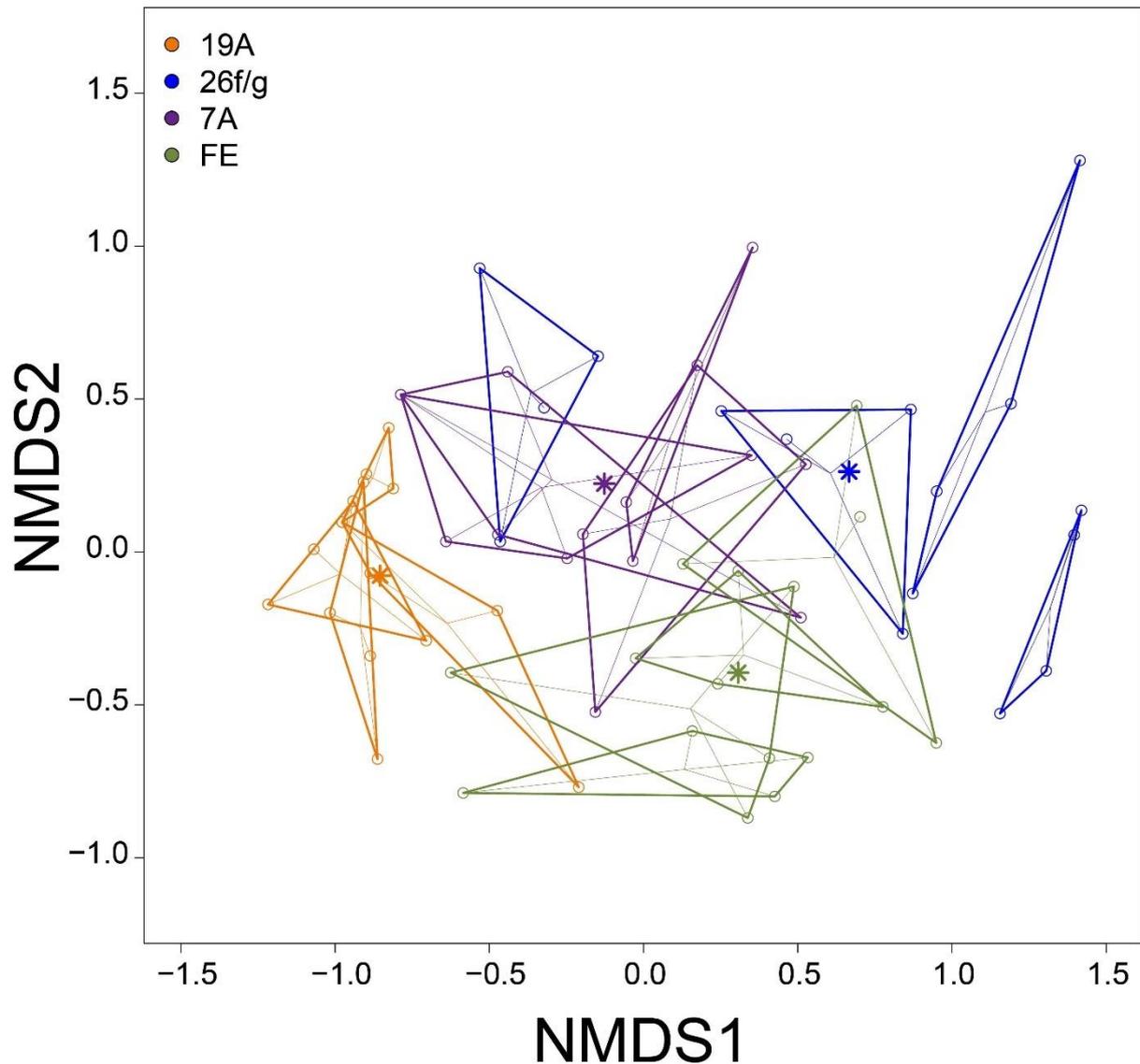
427 predicted effect of N *D. suzukii* on N native Drosophilidae using the *effects* package (Fox and
428 Weisberg 2018).

429 For all GLMs and GLMMS, we performed a type II Wald chi-square test using the R package
430 *car* (Fox and Weisberg 2019). For most analyses we plotted the standardised estimates (effect
431 sizes) using the 'plot_model' function in the sjPlot package (Lüdecke et al. 2021).

432 Results

433 *Attacks on potential host plants*

434 The composition of the potential host plants of *D. suzukii* differed among forest communities
435 (PERMANOVA, $F=5.432$, $R^2=0.22$, $P=0.001$). The effect of forest community in structuring
436 the plant communities is illustrated by the clustering of the forest communities in the
437 ordination plot, except for the plant community of the study site of a former alluvial forest
438 (site 26_1), which was more similar to forest community 7a than to 26f/g (Figure 2). The
439 greatest differences in the potential host plant composition were evident between forest
440 communities 19a and 26f/g (pairwise adonis, $R^2=0.21$, $P=0.001$). Forest community 26f/g and
441 the forest edge community were most similar ($R^2=0.07$, $P=0.08$).



442

443 **Figure 2.** Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) based on Bray-Curtis distances,
 444 showing the host plant composition with its estimated number of fruits for *Drosophila suzukii*
 445 at the study sites (four plots each) of the different forest communities. Different forest
 446 communities are indicated by different colours. Each dot represents the community in one
 447 plot. All the plots in a given site are connected by thick lines, and centroids are indicated by
 448 thin lines. The asterisks indicate the centroids of the forest communities. Stress=0.145 (k=3).
 449 Forest communities: 7a – *GALIO ODORATI-FAGETUM TYPICUM*, 19a – *ABIETI-*
 450 *FAGETUM LUZULETOSUM*, 26f/g – *ACERI-FRAXINETUM MERCURIALIDETOSUM*)
 451 (see Ellenberg and Klötzli 1972), FE = forest edge.

452

453 At the study sites of forest community 19a, 7 potential host plant species with an estimated
 454 34,000 fruits were recorded. At the study sites of the forest community 26f/g, there were 30
 455 potential host plant species and an estimated 60,200 fruits; in forest community 7a there were
 456 21 potential host plant species and 140,500 fruits, and at the forest edge study sites 32

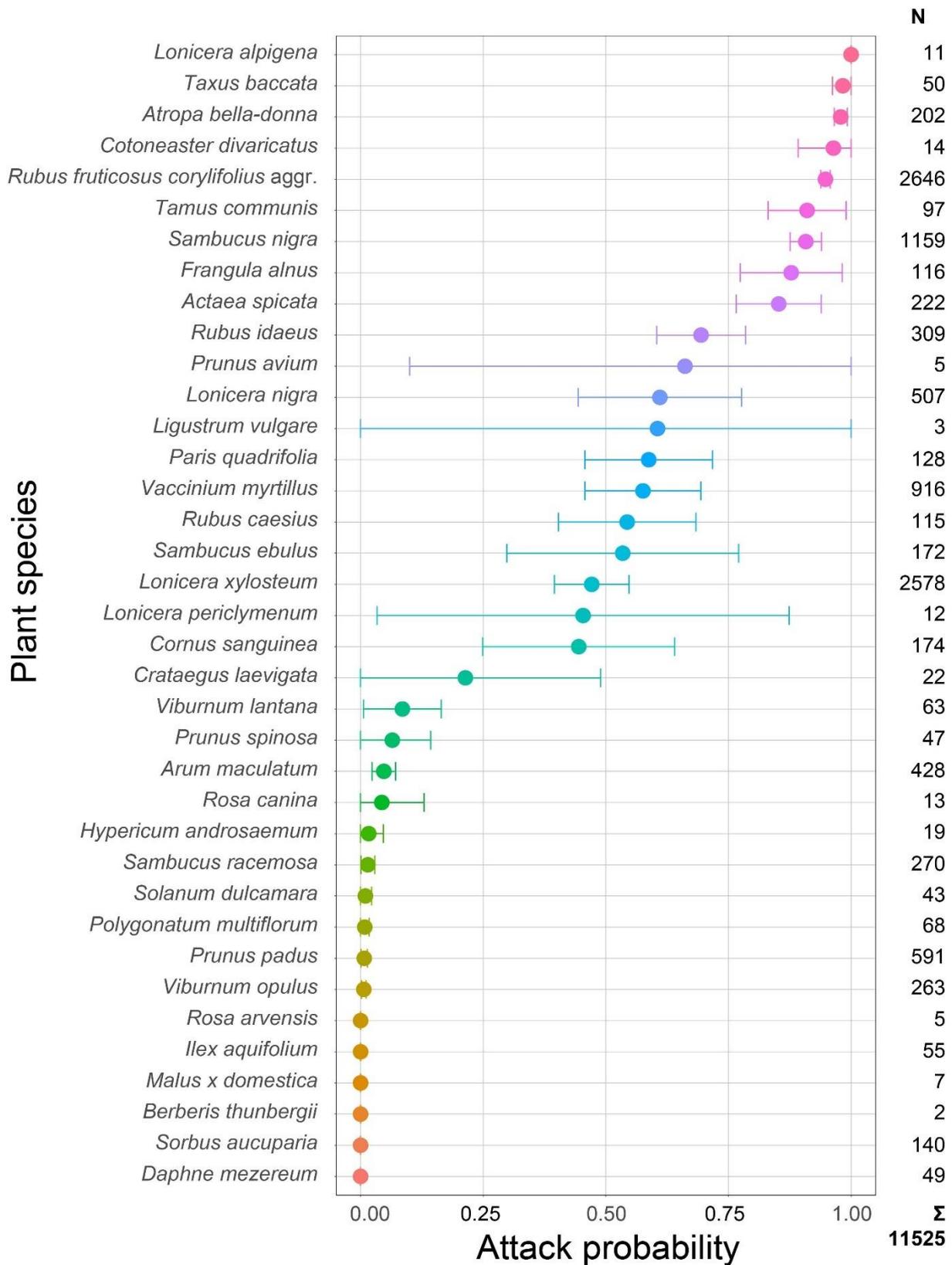
457 potential host plant species and 161,000 fruits were observed (Supplementary Material Table
458 S1).

459 Of the 39 potential host plants investigated, attacks were observed on 31 species. Overall,
460 fruits of *Cotoneaster divaricatus* (96%), *Atropa bella-donna* (91%), *Rubus fruticosus*
461 *corylifolius* aggr. (91%), *Frangula alnus* (85%) and *Sambucus nigra* (83%) were attacked
462 particularly frequently (Supplementary Material Figure S1, proportions of fruits attacked by
463 *Drosophila suzukii* per plant species, separated by forest community). Based on the
464 standardised assessments within the plots, the attack rates differed significantly between plant
465 species and forest communities (**Table 1**), with forest edges exhibiting particularly high rates,
466 followed by 7a. *Lonicera alpigena*, *Taxus baccata* and *Atropa bella-donna* had the highest
467 probability of being attacked (Figure 3). Larger numbers of ripe fruits and fruits in a later
468 maturation stage corresponded to higher attack rates (**Table 1**). Canton and elevation did not
469 have a significant effect on the attack rate and were dropped during model simplification.

470 **Table 1.** Results of the binomial generalised mixed effects model (glmmTMB) testing the
471 drivers of attack rates of fruits by *Drosophila suzukii*. Plot nested in study site was defined as
472 a random term. Results of the Wald Chi-square test are given. For continuous variables the
473 direction of the effect (+) is given.

	<i>Chi</i> ²	Degrees of freedom	<i>P</i>
Forest community	34.385	3	<0.001
Plant species	396.861	36	<0.001
Number of ripe fruits	7.513	1	<0.01 (+)
Status of maturation	69.353	1	<0.001 (+)
R ² conditional	0.840		
R ² marginal	0.826		

474



475

476 **Figure 3.** Attack probabilities of fruits of different plant species by *Drosophila suzukii*.
 477 Model-derived (for model results, see **Table 1**) probability estimates are shown (LS-means \pm
 478 SE, back-transformed from the logit scale to the original probability scale). Only fruits
 479 observed within the plots were considered. For average attack rates per species, including
 480 fruits outside the plots, see Supplementary Material Figure S1.

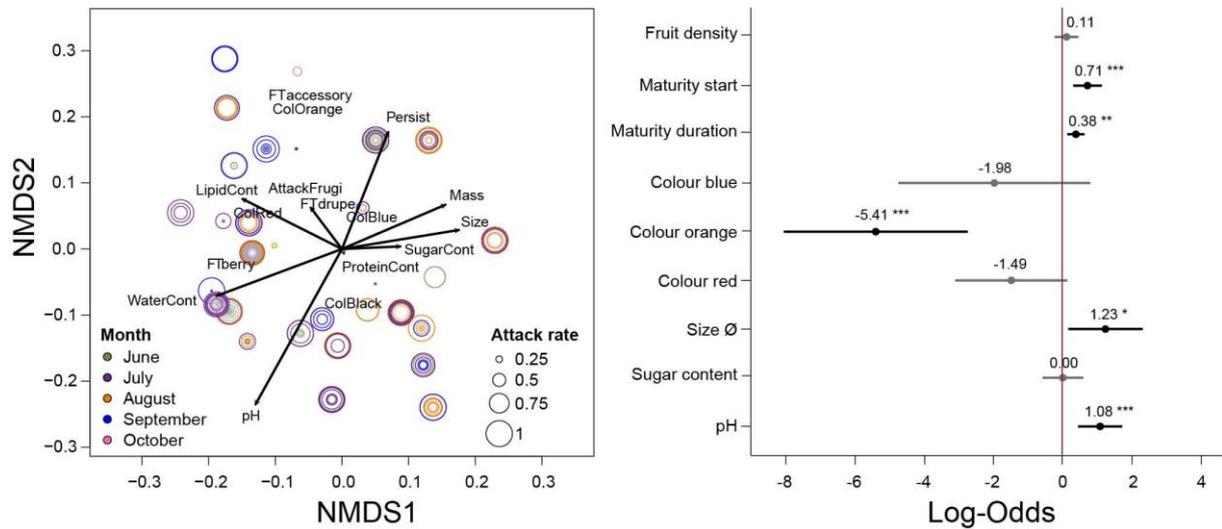
481

482 The fruit trait space covered by the studied fruits was quite large (Figure 4, left). The
 483 ordination plot illustrates that the attack rate differed greatly among plant species and was
 484 determined by the maturation start. Later maturation and longer availability of ripe fruits had
 485 a positive effect on attack rate (Table 2, Figure 4 right). In addition, fruit colour affected
 486 attack rate, with orange fruits having a lower attack rate than black fruits, and blue and red
 487 ones tending to be attacked less than black fruits. In addition, larger fruits and fruits with a
 488 higher pulp pH had higher attack rates.

489 **Table 2.** Results of a binomial generalised mixed effects model (binomial glmmTMB) testing
 490 the effects of fruit traits on the attack rates of fruits by *Drosophila suzukii*. Plot nested in
 491 study site, as well as plant species and an observation-level random factor, were included as
 492 random terms. Results of a Wald Chi-squared test are given. For continuous variables the
 493 direction of the effect (+) is given.

	Chi^2	Degrees of freedom	P
Amount of ripe fruit	0.375	1	0.540
Maturation start	11.334	1	<0.001 (+)
Maturation duration	8.967	1	<0.01 (+)
Fruit colour	16.944	3	<0.001
Fruit size \emptyset	5.024	1	<0.05 (+)
Pulp sugar content	<0.001	1	0.996
Pulp pH	11.090	1	<0.001 (+)
R ² conditional	0.678		
R ² marginal	0.461		

494



495

496 **Figure 4.** Left: Ordination plot of a non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis
 497 illustrating the fruit trait space of the 39 studied plant species (stress-value 0.198). The centre
 498 of each circle represents the position of a plant species in the fruit trait space. Attack rates by
 499 *Drosophila suzukii* are represented by the size of the circles, and the maturation start month of
 500 a plant species in a forest community is illustrated by the colour. FT = fruit type, Col = fruit
 501 color, Cont = content of the pulp, Persist = persistence of individual fruits (days), AttackFrugi
 502 = “attacked by non-dispersal frugivores” (%). Right: Effect size plot of a generalised linear
 503 mixed effects model (binomial glmmTMB) testing the effects of fruit traits, including fruit
 504 density and maturation start and duration (both 0.5-month resolution), on the attack rate by *D.*
 505 *suzukii*. Please note that some traits shown in the figure were excluded from the model due to
 506 multicollinearity issues or a large number of missing values (see Materials and Methods). The
 507 asterisks indicate significance levels: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

508

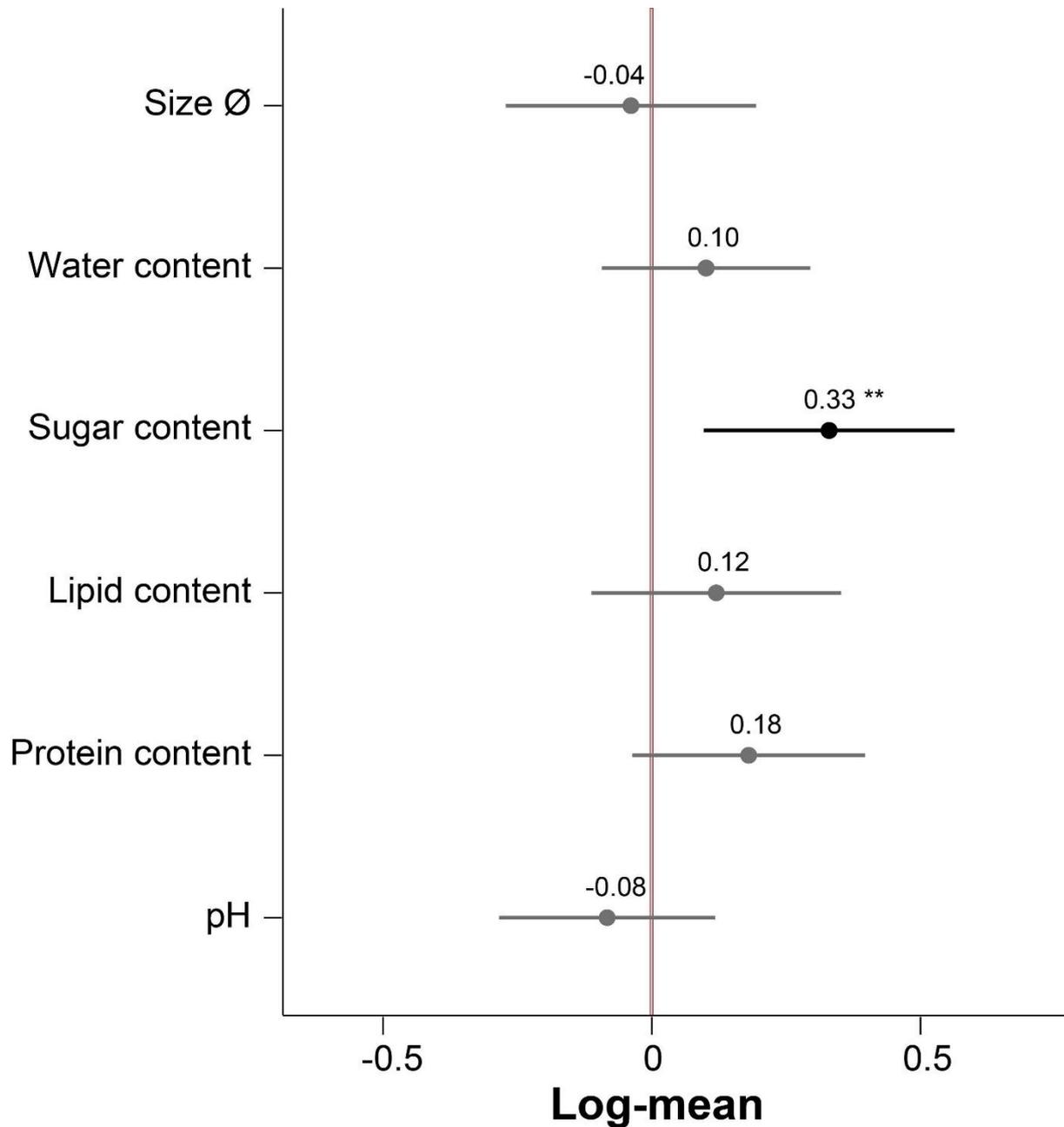
509 Of the studied fruit traits, only pulp sugar content affected fruit decay status after an attack by
 510 *D. suzukii*, with a higher sugar content leading to more severe symptoms of decay (Table 3,
 511 Figure 5).

512 **Table 3.** Results of a generalised linear model (poisson glm) testing for the effects of fruit
 513 traits on fruit decay status after an attack by *Drosophila suzukii*. Results of a Wald Chi-
 514 squared test are given.

	Chi^2	Degrees of freedom	P
Fruit size Ø	0.108	1	0.743
Pulp water content	1.0408	1	0.308
Pulp sugar content	7.967	1	<0.01 (+)
Pulp lipid content	1.004	1	0.316

Pulp protein content	2.591	1	0.107
Pulp pH	0.655	1	0.418
R ² Nagelkerke	0.547		

515



516

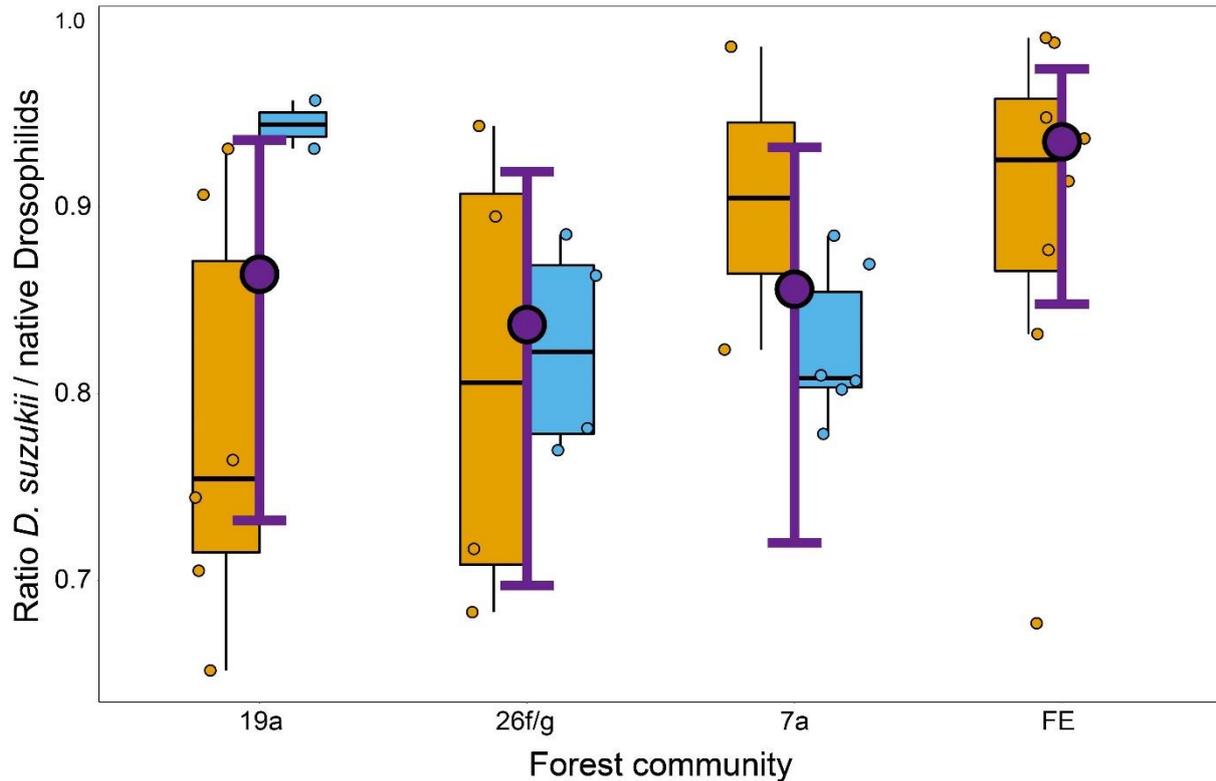
517 **Figure 5.** Effect size plot of a generalised linear model (poisson glm) testing the effects of
 518 fruit traits (size of the fruits and contents and pH of the pulp) on the decay status of fruits
 519 attacked by *Drosophila suzukii*. The asterisks indicate significance level: **p<0.01.

520

521 *Adult trapping*

522 During the investigation period, the traps captured 99,366 insects from four orders, each with
 523 at least 75 individuals (97,965 Diptera, 751 Hymenoptera, 552 Coleoptera, 75 Dermaptera)
 524 (160 traps). Hemiptera, Lepidoptera, Blattodea and Thysanoptera occurred less frequently.
 525 Within the Diptera, species from 27 families were found, with Drosophilidae accounting for
 526 almost all observed individuals (97%; 94,624 individuals), followed by Anisopodidae (1%;
 527 1399), Heleomyzidae (<1%; 486), Mycetophilidae (<1%; 310), Phoridae (<1%; 278),
 528 Scatopsidae (<1%; 247), Sciaridae (<1%; 127), Chloropidae (<1%; 118), and Dryomyzidae
 529 (<1%; 103) etc. *Drosophila suzukii* was by far the most abundant species (82% of all trapped
 530 insects, 81,395 individuals) and accounted for 86% of all drosophilids (Supplementary
 531 Material Table S2).

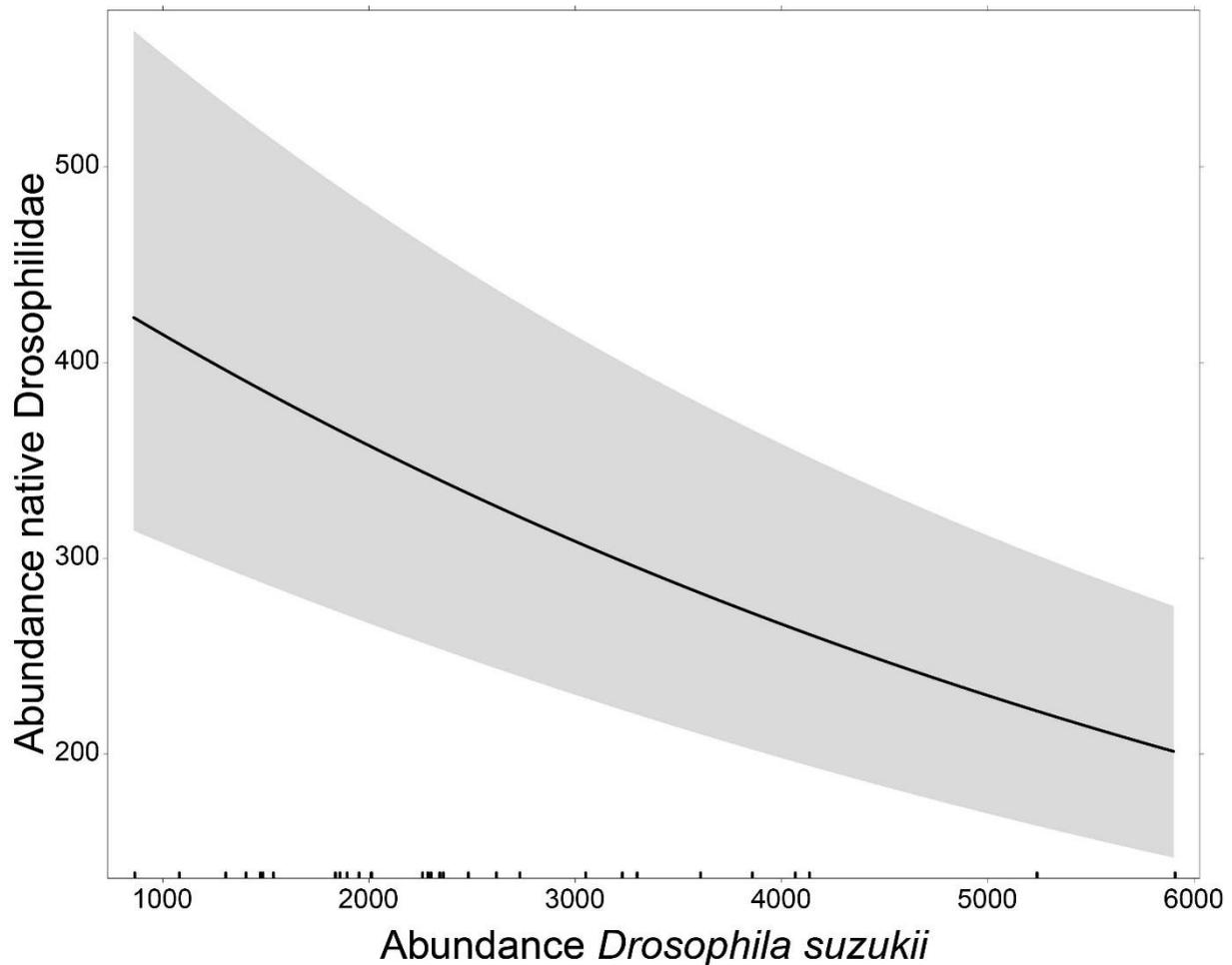
532 The species composition of drosophilids in the different forest communities differed, e.g. *D.*
 533 *alpina* was only found in forest community 19a and species of the genus *Amiota* were mainly
 534 caught in forest community 26f/g. However, the drosophilid assemblages were dominated by
 535 *D. suzukii*, independent of forest community (Figure 6). We trapped 21,758 (84%) *D. suzukii*
 536 and 4,117 (16%) native drosophilids in the forest community 19a, 17,031 (81%) and 4,054
 537 (19%) in 26f/g, 15,708 (86%) and 2,528 (14%) in 7a, and 26,871 (91%) and 2,530 (9%) at the
 538 forest edge. The ratio of *D. suzukii* to native drosophilids did not differ significantly between
 539 forest communities (Wald Chi-squared test, $Chi^2=3.053$, DF=1, $P=0.384$) and cantons
 540 ($Chi^2=0.036$, DF=1, $P=0.849$). The proportion of *D. suzukii* predicted by the models (purple
 541 symbols) was between 0.81 and 0.95 (Figure 6).



542

543 **Figure 6.** Ratio of *Drosophila suzukii* to native Drosophilidae species adults captured in traps
 544 in different forest communities. The boxplots (median, 25%/75% quantiles, min and max
 545 values) show raw values for the cantons Zug (orange) and Zurich (blue). Model-derived
 546 predicted estimates are shown in purple (LS-means ± 95% CI, back-transformed from the
 547 logit scale to the original probability scale). Forest communities: 7a – *GALIO ODORATI-*
 548 *FAGETUM TYPICUM*, 19a – *ABIETI-FAGETUM LUZULETOSUM*, 26f/g – *ACERI-*
 549 *FRAXINETUM MERCURIALIDETOSUM*) (see Ellenberg and Klötzli 1972), FE = forest
 550 edge.

551



552

553 **Figure 7.** Predicted abundance of other drosophilids as function of the abundance of
 554 *Drosophila sukukii* (LS-means \pm 95% CI) from a generalised linear model including forest
 555 community and canton as covariates.

556 The abundance of *D. sukukii* significantly affected the abundance of native drosophilids
 557 captured in the traps (Wald Chi-squared Test, $Chi^2=74.072$, $DF=1$, $P<0.001$). The higher the
 558 abundance of *D. sukukii*, the smaller the abundance of native drosophilids predicted (Figure
 559 7). The forest community ($Chi^2=2.445$, $DF=3$, $P=0.485$) and the canton ($Chi^2=0.192$, $DF=1$,
 560 $P= 0.661$) did not affect the abundance of native drosophilids.

561

562 Discussion

563 *Drosophila sukukii*, an invasive parasite of forest fruits, attacked 31 species from 15 different
 564 plant families (79% of all potential host plants investigated) in the forests of cantons Zug and
 565 Zurich. This not only confirms the broad host plant spectrum described in previous studies,
 566 but points towards a broad host use for reproduction. A broad host plant spectrum was to be
 567 expected, as *D. sukukii* is specialised on fruits and not on plant species per se. Furthermore, *D.*

568 *suzukii* has been shown to have high plasticity in its host choice (Kienzle et al. 2020, Little et
 569 al. 2020). Our results suggest that a large number of fruiting plant species in forests are
 570 affected by *D. suzukii*, with likely far-reaching consequences for ecosystem processes (e.g.
 571 plant recruitment, resource availability for frugivores) and services (e.g. berry picking).

572

573 ***What influences attacks on the forest plants studied?***

574 The observed broad host plant spectrum raises the question of what limits the host spectrum.
 575 Species of *Rosa* or *Sorbus*, which bear rather hard fruits, were hardly infested. We assume
 576 that the pulp and skin firmness act as a barrier to egg deposition, as insects have a limited
 577 ability to penetrate the skin of the fruit and to lay an egg in hard fruit flesh. It has been
 578 reported that the probability of oviposition increases as the force required to penetrate fruit
 579 skin decreases (Burrack et al. 2013, Lee et al. 2016). Further, within grape cultivars and single
 580 berries, berry skin resistance was found to explain the oviposition preferences of *D. suzukii*
 581 (Entling et al. 2019; Tonina et al. 2020). The fact that *Ilex aquifolium* was not infested was
 582 probably because its maturity coincides with the reproductive diapause of the fly (Grassi et al.
 583 2018). We found that the red or blue, soft-skinned fruits of *Polygonatum* (Asparagaceae) were
 584 hardly used as a host, although this genus is widespread in the fly's area of origin (eFloras
 585 2021). *Drosophila suzukii* may not detect all of the numerous potential host plants because its
 586 ability to process multiple sensory inputs is limited (Bernays 2001). Polyphagous herbivores
 587 have been shown to be attentive to the volatiles that are shared across host species (Silva and
 588 Clarke 2020). As the Asparagaceae are relatively distantly related to other host plants, the
 589 fruits and their microbial association with Asparagaceae species might not share certain
 590 volatiles with other host plants, making them undetectable to the fly.

591 The fruits of our 39 potential forest host plants differed in several characteristics that affect
 592 host location and oviposition site selection (Markow 2019), reflected by differences in
 593 observed attack rates in our study. Within the host plant range of *D. suzukii*, preferences
 594 (disproportionate use of potential host plants, i.e. egg deposits) have also been shown for
 595 crops in agricultural systems (Lee et al. 2011, Burrack et al. 2013, Olazcuaga et al. 2019) and
 596 for wild and ornamental non-crop hosts (Poyet et al. 2015) when fruits were exposed to flies
 597 in laboratory assays. These preferences may be due to numerous characteristics of the fruit,
 598 such as colour, diameter, shape, volatile compound content, firmness, skin texture, or
 599 chemical composition, such as sugar content. In the field, several plant characteristics and the

600 diverse abundance and fluctuating availability of host plants, as well as other biotic and
 601 abiotic factors of the host site, may also affect the choice of hosts, which makes comparisons
 602 of our findings with laboratory assays difficult.

603 Our non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) indicated high variability in fruit traits and
 604 phenology in relation to attack rate. The attack rate varied among fruit colours, with black
 605 fruits being most frequently attacked. *Drosophila suzukii* has previously been shown to use
 606 colour as visual cue, but that colour contrast rather than colour appearance may be of greater
 607 importance.(Little et al. 2019). While visual cues are of some importance, especially in
 608 behaviours such as courtship (Anholt et al. 2020), the olfactory and gustatory systems of
 609 *Drosophila* are crucial for host localisation and selection (Anholt 2020). We therefore expect
 610 that other factors correlated with colour might be decisive. For example, the fruit type “pome”
 611 or “hips, which usually has high pulp firmness, mostly had a low attack rate and was often
 612 orange or red in colour. Larger fruit size also had a positive effect on attack rate. This could
 613 be because a larger surface area, especially with aggregated fruits such as brambles, makes it
 614 is easier for *D. suzukii* to find a preferred substrate, e.g. one without damage (mechanical or
 615 due to infection) or in an earlier maturation state. We also found that the attack rate increased
 616 with higher pulp pH (from pH 2.89 to 6.48). During host location and selection, the fly can
 617 hardly detect a pH value, and thus this effect might be indirect. Microbes can act as the
 618 interface between insect herbivores and their hosts (Janson et al. 2008, Hansen and Moran
 619 2014, Ljunggren et al. 2019). *Drosophila suzukii*, like other *Drosophila*, is strongly attracted
 620 to volatiles produced by microorganisms in particular yeasts associated with fruits (Wright
 621 2015, Hamby and Becher 2016, Bueno et al. 2020). It has also been shown that yeast
 622 volatiles, not fruit volatiles, mediate attraction and oviposition in *D. melanogaster* (Becher et
 623 al. 2012). In general, within the range of the fruit pulp pH, yeast and bacteria thrive better at
 624 higher pH values (Barth et al. 2009, Howell 2016). Fruits with a higher pH may host more
 625 microbes and could therefore be more attractive and easier to locate. In addition, moulds
 626 (filamentous fungi), an important competitor of *Drosophila* larvae (Wertheim et al. 2002,
 627 Rohlf et al. 2005, Trienens et al. 2010), generally exhibit better growth in a lower pH
 628 environment (Zhao et al. 2020). This could have led to a lower attractiveness for *D. suzukii* in
 629 our study, as decreased egg deposition in response to grey mould (*Botrytis cinerea*) was
 630 observed in a recent study (Chakraborty et al. 2022).

631 Host preferences are considered evidence of specialisation (Loxdale and Harvey 2016). In this
 632 case, however, we would expect phylogenetic relatedness in the preferred hosts, which we did

633 not find, as the plant species with the highest observed attack rate belong to very distinct plant
 634 clades. Since the larvae feed in particular on microbes, host preferences, unlike those of
 635 folivorous insects, are determined more by the quality of the substrate in promoting the yeasts
 636 and bacteria associated with *D. suzukii* than by the phylogeny of the host plants. Our results
 637 suggest that *D. suzukii* responds to common cues from multiple host species, as well as
 638 specific cues from individual host species, as has been shown for other polyphagous
 639 herbivores (Silva and Clarke 2020). Other polyphagous herbivores also exhibit preference
 640 hierarchies for their hosts (e.g. Clarke et al. 2011, Wang et al. 2017), which may change
 641 through learning (West and Paul Cunningham 2002). Preferences should evolve toward
 642 maximising offspring fitness (Jaenike, John 1978), although preferences do not always
 643 correlate positively with offspring performance (e.g. Valladares and Lawton 1991, Clark et al.
 644 2011), because other ecological, behavioural and physiological factors additionally influence
 645 host choice and host use (Jaenike 1990). While *D. suzukii* deposited its eggs on fruits from 16
 646 different plant families in our study, we do not expect its offspring to perform equally well
 647 across the host spectrum, because preferences of insects with a broader host plant spectrum
 648 are less strongly associated with better offspring performance than insects specialised on
 649 plants within a certain family (Gripengberg et al. 2010). However, invasions are biologically
 650 unusual situations, and *D. suzukii* cannot be expected to show strong adaptive patterns of host
 651 use yet, as it was only recently introduced. Thus, some differences in larval performance
 652 might be expected and have also been shown between many non-crop hosts of *D. suzukii* (e.g.
 653 Poyet et al. 2015, Kenis et al. 2016, Olazcuaga et al. 2019)

654 Plant communities differ floristically and phytophysiognomically (Braun-Blanquet 1932)
 655 because species traits and an interacting milieu affect performance across environmental
 656 gradients such as temperature, moisture and soil chemistry (Mcgill et al. 2006). Therefore, the
 657 abundance and availability of host plants among forest communities must also differ. In our
 658 NMDS of available fruits of potential host plants in the plots, the forest communities were
 659 clustered. This finding and our model results indicated that the availability of different plant
 660 species determines the use of the host plants, as the forest community affected the attack rate.
 661 In addition to the diversity of host plants in an area, other associational effects, such as the
 662 density and frequency of neighbouring host plants, can influence the likelihood of a particular
 663 plant being used as a host, as can the density of the particular host plant (Underwood et al.
 664 2014). As stated by the resource concentration hypothesis (Root 1973), a high density of host
 665 plants may increase the likelihood that the fly will find the fruits and remain on the host plant.
 666 This was supported by our results, as the number of ripe fruits present in our plots strongly

667 affected the attack rate. Furthermore, since optimal oviposition behaviour depends not only on
 668 the suitability of the substrate, but also on the probability of finding a more suitable host in
 669 the time available (Jaenike, John 1978), adherence to a particular host plant species might be
 670 advantageous. A large amount of fruit may be more obvious to *D. suzukii* and thus increase
 671 the attack rate. A strong preference for more apparent resources in complex environments has
 672 also been shown for *D. melanogaster* (Verschut et al. 2016).

673 Our results further show that a longer fruit duration of fruits present increased the attack rate.
 674 Plants with more fruits, and especially plants such as brambles that produce ripe fruits over a
 675 long period, ensure continuous availability of resources without the need to search for new
 676 hosts, thus promoting the presence of overlapping generations of *D. suzukii* on the same host,
 677 further increasing attack rate. In Switzerland, between four and eight generations of *D. suzukii*
 678 per year are expected (Wiman et al. 2014). In addition, prior experience with olfactory and
 679 visual cues can enhance host location (Silva and Clarke 2020). Furthermore, a later ripening
 680 date was related to a higher attack rate, which may occur when the peak of abundance of *D.*
 681 *suzukii* and the period of fruit maturity coincide. The predominant maturity status of the plants
 682 in the plots also affected the attack rate. The more advanced the maturity, the greater the
 683 attack rate of the ripe fruits investigated. An advanced maturity status attracts more flies
 684 (Keeseey et al. 2015), but also indicates overlapping generations on the same plant.

685 ***Adult trapping revealed Drosophila suzukii as a dominant species***

686 The high fruit attack rate observed in our study was also reflected in a high abundance and
 687 dominance of *D. suzukii* in trap catches, independent of forest community and elevation. This
 688 indicates the broad environmental tolerance of the fly. However, the frequent occurrence in
 689 mountainous regions does not necessarily mean that *D. suzukii* inhabits these regions all year
 690 round, as the fly has been demonstrated to show extensive movement between low and high
 691 elevations in Japan (Mitsui H. et al. 2010) and is able to cover distances of up to 9 km (Tait et
 692 al. 2018). However, it can be assumed that the fly can survive the winter at these sites, as *D.*
 693 *suzukii* is firmly established on the island of Hokkaido in Japan, where winters average -4 to -
 694 12°C (Kimura 2004).

695 Although our forest communities differed significantly in host composition, there were no
 696 differences in the proportion of *D. suzukii* between the forest communities. *Drosophila*
 697 *suzukii* accounted for 86% of the drosophilids caught during our study period. Recent
 698 snapshot studies of trap catches in forests also showed a high proportion of *D. suzukii*. In a

699 survey in native riparian and non-riparian chestnut forest patches in northwestern Spain in
 700 August, *D. suzukii* accounted for 30% and 27% of the drosophilids caught in beer traps
 701 (Maceda-Veiga et al. 2021). Kremmer et al. (2017) reported 56% *D. suzukii* of the summed
 702 trap catches across natural habitat and crops in February (baited with apple cider vinegar).
 703 Studies in agricultural areas similar to our sites in terms of trapping period, climate and
 704 sampling method do not confirm *D. suzukii* as the most abundant taxon: *D. suzukii* accounted
 705 for 7% in Apulia, Italy (Antonacci et al. 2017), 11% in Kansas, USA (but baited with mashed
 706 banana; Gleason et al. 2019), and 18% in Washington, USA) (but some unmanaged habitats
 707 included; Bahder et al. 2016). Several factors could have caused these differences. First,
 708 agricultural and forested areas differ in biotic and abiotic factors, and species composition
 709 thus also differs (Burla and Bächli 1991). The assemblages of drosophilids, excluding *D.*
 710 *suzukii*, trapped in these agricultural areas were dominated by domestic species (distributed
 711 worldwide), while native species dominated in our area. Similarly, the occurrence of
 712 controphics, such as other insects, vertebrates or mould, and the occurrence of predators
 713 differ. Second, competition between *D. suzukii* and native species might be different in the
 714 two habitat types, due to differences in the occurrence of ecologically related species and
 715 available resources. Third, different measures taken to control the fly in agricultural fields
 716 might have reduced the populations of *D. suzukii*. However, these measures usually also
 717 affect other drosophilids. Fourth, forests can be expected to be the preferred habitat of *D.*
 718 *suzukii*, resulting in high overall proportions. Numerous forest fruits are suitable for the
 719 development of *D. suzukii*, due to its wide host niche (Little et al. 2020), and forests may offer
 720 preferred climatic conditions for *D. suzukii*, especially higher humidity (Hamby et al. 2016,
 721 Tochen et al. 2016, Eben et al. 2018).

722 Unlike in our study, surveys of drosophilid assemblages from trapping studies in various
 723 habitats in Asia, where *D. suzukii* is native or has been established for many years, do not
 724 show *D. suzukii* to be a dominant species: its proportion in relation to other drosophilids is
 725 reported to be up to 0.02 (e.g. Kaneko and Tokumitsu 1969, Toda 1992, Hirai et al. 2000,
 726 Guruprasad et al. 2010) and reached a value of 0.05 in a study in Korea (Lee 1964).

727 Parasitisation is, however, an important mortality factor for drosophilid larvae (Janssen et al.
 728 1988, Fleury et al. 2009), and the abundance of potential hosts is one factor determining the
 729 evolution of parasitoid host use (Novković et al. 2012). The degree of parasitisation is much
 730 higher in native populations (Torchin et al. 2003). The expected lower parasitisation of *D.*
 731 *suzukii* could be one of the main factors contributing to its frequent occurrence outside its

732 native range, as escape from natural enemies can explain the success of introduced species
 733 (Keane 2002, Shea 2002).

734 ***Impact on native drosophilids***

735 Our trap catches revealed that the abundance of *D. suzukii* was significantly negatively
 736 associated with the abundance of other drosophilids. Its dominance indicates a superiority
 737 over the native species. The heavily sclerotised, serrated ovipositor serves as a competitively
 738 unique trait (Karageorgi et al. 2017, Silva-Soares et al. 2017). Besides the capability of using
 739 a wider range of substrates for oviposition, we propose that the broader temporal niche of
 740 resource use is a competitive advantage. *Drosophila suzukii* can use substrates for oviposition
 741 earlier than other drosophilid species. Consequently, oviposition by *D. suzukii* induces
 742 substrate decay, rendering the substrate time-limited for the larval development of other fruit
 743 pulp consumers. While ripe fruits are inherently a temporally limited resource, this limitation
 744 is probably enhanced in forests compared with agricultural areas, because the fleshy fruits of
 745 wild plants are usually much smaller, than those of cultivated plants. Furthermore, *D. suzukii*
 746 may outcompete native drosophilids, due to different development times. This might lead to
 747 different competitiveness in forests and agriculture. Cold adaptation in *Drosophila* to colonise
 748 temperate climates seems to be linked to longer development times (Santos et al. 2006,
 749 Kinzner et al. 2018), and domestic species such as *D. melanogaster*, which originate in
 750 warmer regions, have comparatively short development times (Markow and O’Grady 2005).
 751 In laboratory experiments, it has been found that the presence of *D. melanogaster* on the
 752 substrate significantly reduced adult *D. suzukii* emergence, reflecting a difference in minimum
 753 development time (7 days for *D. melanogaster* and 11 days for *D. suzukii* at 25°C; (Dancau et
 754 al. 2017, Shaw et al. 2018). Presumably, the presence of *D. suzukii* reduces native drosophilid
 755 emergence as well. Coexistence of drosophilids across food-limited resource patches is
 756 facilitated by aggregation over patches (eggs in clutches of more than one egg, as well as non-
 757 random distributions of ovipositing females), which creates partial refuges and allows inferior
 758 species to exist (Rosewell et al. 1990, Jaenike and James 1991, Sevenster and Alphen 1996,
 759 Rohlf and Hoffmeister 2003). In addition, parasitism facilitates the coexistence of
 760 drosophilid species (Mitsui and Kimura 2000). However, as an invasive species, *D. suzukii* is
 761 expected to be exposed to lower pressure from parasitoids (Torchin et al. 2003), resulting in
 762 larger populations. Unlike other drosophilids, *D. suzukii* has been shown not to aggregate over
 763 patches (Mitsui et al. 2006). Therefore, we suggest that it may exclude and outcompete other

764 drosophilids in the exploitation of resource patches, which is supported by our results: higher
 765 abundance of *D. suzukii* was associated with lower abundance of other drosophilids.

766 ***Potential impact on host plants***

767 Piercing of the skin of undamaged fruit by *D. suzukii* provides an entry point for infestation
 768 by pathogens, and inoculated microbes can act as a jump-start for decay. Microbes that infect
 769 fruits have been hypothesised to make fruits unattractive to vertebrate frugivores that
 770 potentially compete for fruit pulp (Janzen 1977, Ruxton et al. 2014). Just as humans respond
 771 to infested fruit with rejection, birds have been shown to prefer intact fruit to infested fruit
 772 (e.g. Manzur and Courtney 1984, Jordano 1987, Borowicz 1988, Buchholz and Levey 1990,
 773 Cipollini and Stiles 1993, Traveset et al. 1995, but see Valburg 1992). Attacks by *D. suzukii*
 774 alter the attractiveness of the fruit because it changes the chemical composition and visual
 775 cues, such as colour, shape and reflective patterns. Since the choice of fruits by birds depends
 776 on visual perception (Schaefer and Ruxton 2011), we assume that attacks on fruits by *D.*
 777 *suzukii* could reduce the attractiveness for birds, resulting in reduced seed dispersal. This is
 778 because many host plants of *D. suzukii* rely especially on frugivorous birds for dispersal
 779 (Garcia et al. 2010). Negative effects on seeds are unexpected because attacks occur after seed
 780 set.

781 In the field, when we observed symptoms of fruit decay after *D. suzukii* attacks, we noticed
 782 that fruit decay progressed at very different rates among plant species, which may be due to
 783 their different compounds and compositions. For example, the bright red fruits of *Lonicera*
 784 *alpigena* were found to change into dry, brown fruit mummies (rotten fruits) within a short
 785 time, while fruits of *Prunus padus* had hardly any symptoms of decay and hung intact on the
 786 bushes for more than 40 days without decaying. On *Prunus padus*, a significant reduction in
 787 the number of emerged *D. suzukii* adults and a significant delay in the larval-pupal
 788 development time was detected compared with on *Prunus avium* (Alhmedi et al. 2019), where
 789 oviposition by *D. suzukii* is known to trigger microbial development (Ayyanath et al. 2018).
 790 Because larval development depends on the development of microbes (Sang 1956, Schwarz et
 791 al. 2014, Hamby and Becher 2016), decay within a short time indicates a strong response of
 792 microbial growth and development and better host suitability to *D. suzukii* offspring
 793 development. Among the fruit traits we studied, we found that the pulp sugar content
 794 determined the severity of the symptoms of decay after an attack by *D. suzukii*. The rapid
 795 decomposition of simple carbohydrates leads to rapid microbial growth (Zhao et al. 2020),
 796 explaining why more severe symptoms of decay were evident at higher sugar levels. Nutrient

797 levels deplete over time as microbes and larvae consume the resources, so rapid fruit decay
798 after an attack by *D. suzukii* means a loss of resources for other frugivores.

799

800 **Conclusion**

801 Almost half of the 39 studied forest plant species showed attack rates by *D. suzukii* of > 50%,
802 with a high percentage showing severe symptoms of fruit decay after egg deposition. This
803 may lead to reduced fruit consumption by vertebrate seed dispersers. *Drosophila suzukii* is a
804 damaging agent for plants, and if the fly reproduces in large numbers, dispersal agents and
805 host plant may both suffer. Besides the direct effect of parasitism of forest fruits by *D. suzukii*,
806 leading to competition with other frugivorous species, the indirect effect of disrupting seed-
807 dispersal mutualisms can have far-reaching consequences for ecosystems. With ongoing
808 climate change, these potentially severe ecological impacts might be amplified, as higher
809 average and winter temperatures will most likely lead to shorter generation times and lower
810 winter mortality, which will eventually further increase the pressure on forest fruits and the
811 competitiveness of *D. suzukii* over native drosophilids.

812

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