

## Neural coding merges sex and habitat chemosensory signals in an insect herbivore

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1 **Neural coding merges sex and habitat chemosensory signals in an**  
2 **insect herbivore**

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13 **Running title:** Pheromone and plant odour coding

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17 **Keywords:** chemical communication; reproductive isolation; magic trait; intracellular  
18 recordings; functional imaging; *Cydia pomonella*

19 **Abstract**

20 Understanding the processing of odour mixtures is a focus in olfaction research. Through  
21 a neuroethological approach, we demonstrate that different odour types, sex and habitat  
22 cues, are coded together in an insect herbivore. Stronger flight attraction of codling moth  
23 males, *Cydia pomonella*, to blends of female sex pheromone and plant odour, compared  
24 with single compounds, was corroborated by functional imaging of the olfactory centres in  
25 the insect brain, the antennal lobes (AL). The macroglomerular complex (MGC) in the AL,  
26 which is dedicated to pheromone perception, showed an enhanced response to blends of  
27 pheromone and plant signals, while the response in glomeruli surrounding the MGC was  
28 suppressed. Intracellular recordings from AL projection neurons that transmit odour  
29 information to higher brain centres, confirmed this synergistic interaction in the MGC.  
30 These findings underscore that, in nature, sex pheromone and plant odours are perceived

31 as an ensemble. That mating and habitat cues are coded as blends in the MGC of the AL  
32 highlights the dual role of plant signals in habitat selection and in premating sexual  
33 communication. It suggests that the MGC is a common target for sexual and natural  
34 selection in moths, facilitating ecological speciation.

## 35 **1. Introduction**

36 Odours typically are blends of several chemicals, in specific proportions, and the olfactory  
37 system decodes and discriminates these multidimensional signals rapidly and precisely. A  
38 current question is how odour blends are represented in olfactory circuits and to what  
39 extent the neural odour space reflects their ecological and evolutionary significance [1-4].

40 For reproduction, animals largely rely on two types of olfactory signals: sex pheromones  
41 distinguish conspecific mates, and habitat odours signal food sources for adults and  
42 offspring. Both sex and habitat odours are important mediators of premating reproductive  
43 isolation and speciation [5-7] and the neural circuitry underlying the integration of these  
44 two types of chemosensory cues is therefore an important target for sexual and natural  
45 selection. The interaction of sexual and natural selection is thought to be a powerful  
46 driver of speciation [8-10].

47 Insect herbivores are particularly suitable for studying the interaction between mating  
48 and habitat cues, especially host plant odours, due to the importance of these signals for  
49 their ecology and evolution. Host plant shifts have likely contributed to the remarkable  
50 diversification of plant feeding insects [11,12] and most of these rely on sex pheromones  
51 for mate finding [13,14].

52 Plant volatiles are recognized as sex pheromone modulators in many insect species  
53 [15,16]. Although the behavioural interaction between pheromones and host plant  
54 volatiles is well established, little is known about the neurophysiological correlates.  
55 Research on the processing of odour blends in the primary olfactory centre in the brain,  
56 the antennal lobe (AL), has focused mainly on sex pheromones or on plant volatiles, while  
57 the combination of these two classes of compounds is being investigated only since  
58 recently [17-19].

59 Separate investigation of pheromones and plant volatile stimuli has led to the idea of a  
60 functional specialization of sensory processing in the AL and that these two odour classes  
61 are represented in morphologically different regions of the AL of male moths. The  
62 macroglomerular complex (MGC) is considered to be dedicated to pheromone coding and  
63 the sexually isomorphic, ordinary glomeruli (OGs) to the coding of plant volatile  
64 information [20]. Recent studies in the silk moth *Bombyx mori* and the noctuid moth  
65 *Agrotis segetum*, however, do not corroborate a strict segregation of the two subsystems  
66 and indicate that the MGC receives lateral input from the AL [17-19].

67 In the codling moth *Cydia pomonella* (Lepidoptera, Tortricidae), a reconstruction of the  
68 glomerular structure of the AL, combined with electrophysiological recordings, suggested  
69 significant cross-talk between the pheromone and general odour subsystems [21].  
70 Codling moth is a key pest of apple and its sex pheromone and the behavioural role of  
71 host plant volatiles have been carefully studied [22].

72 We investigated the neurophysiological mechanisms regulating the interaction between  
73 female sex pheromone and behaviourally active host plant odorants, using functional  
74 imaging of the AL and intracellular recordings (IR) of projection neurons (PNs) that  
75 transmit olfactory signals to higher brain centres. The finding that the MGC is dedicated to  
76 blends of social and environmental odours adds to our understanding of the role of  
77 chemosensory cues in premating reproductive isolation and plant-insect ecology. It also  
78 provides a new incentive for the refinement of sustainable insect control methods based  
79 on behaviour-modifying chemicals.

## 80 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 81 **(a) Insects**

82 Experiments were done with 2- to 3-day-old unmated codling moth *Cydia pomonella*  
83 (Lepidoptera, Tortricidae) males, which were reared for several generations on an  
84 artificial diet (Andermatt Biocontrol, Grossdietwil, Switzerland). The males were kept at  
85 70±5% RH, 23°C, under a 16L:8D photoperiod and they were fed with sugar water.

### 86 **(b) Odor stimuli**

87 Test odours included the main component of codling moth female sex pheromone,  
88 codlemone, (*E,E*)-8,10-dodecadienol (>99.6% chemical and isomeric purity, Shin-Etsu  
89 Chemical Co., Tokyo) and three plant volatiles, (*E*)- $\beta$ -farnesene (93.4% pure), butyl  
90 hexanoate (97.8%, both from Bedoukian Research Inc., Danbury, USA) and pear ester,  
91 (*E,Z*)-2,4-decadienoate (87.4%, Sigma Aldrich).

92 For functional imaging and intracellular recordings, solutions of test compounds in 10  $\mu$ l  
93 re-distilled hexane were applied on filter paper (0.5 x 1 cm), ca. 1 h before tests. After  
94 the solvent evaporated during 1 min, one or two filter papers (compound blends) were  
95 inserted into a Pasteur pipette. Codlemone was tested at amounts of 1 ng to 1  $\mu$ g, plant  
96 compounds from 10 ng to 10  $\mu$ g, in decadic steps. A continuous charcoal-filtered and  
97 moistened airstream (500 ml/min) passed through a glass tube (10 mm ID) over the  
98 antenna. A stimulus controller (SFC-2/b, Syntech, Kirchzarten, Germany) injected a 0.5-s  
99 puff (500 ml/min) through the pipettes into this glass tube. Odours were presented in  
100 randomized order. Pipettes with filter paper loaded with 10  $\mu$ l of solvent were used as  
101 control.

102 For behavioural tests, synthetic compounds were released from a piezo sprayer [23].  
103 Compound dilutions were delivered at 10  $\mu\text{l}/\text{min}$  to a 20- $\mu\text{l}$  glass capillary tube with a  
104 drawn-out tip. A piezo-ceramic disc vibrated the capillary at ca. 100 kHz, producing an  
105 aerosol, which evaporated a few cm downwind from the capillary tip at a constant rate  
106 and known chemical purity. Codlemone was tested at 0.1  $\text{pg}/\text{min}$  and plant compounds at  
107 1 and 100  $\text{pg}/\text{min}$ .

### 108 **(c) Behavioural assay**

109 Wind tunnel experiments were conducted according to Knight *et al.* [24]. A fan pulled air  
110 through a charcoal filter, through a series of screens, at 0.25 m/s into the tunnel (1.6 x  
111 0.6 x 0.6 m). Exhaust was expelled outside of the building. Room lighting was computer-  
112 controlled to gradually decrease during a 60 min dusk period, between full light level  
113 (1330 lux) and the dark period (25 lux). Ten batches of five moths were flown  
114 consecutively to each lure, during the first 3 h of the scotophase. Male moth behaviour  
115 was recorded for up to 6 min. The following types of behaviour were recorded: wing  
116 fanning, take-off, upwind flight and contact with the screen. Proportional data were  
117 adjusted with Bartlett's correction for small sample size. An angular transformation was  
118 used to normalize proportional data prior to analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Statistix 9,  
119 Analytical Software, Tallahassee, USA). An  $\alpha$ -level of 0.05 was used to establish  
120 significance, Tukey's method was used to compare means.

### 121 **(d) Functional imaging**

122 Individual moths were secured in a 1 ml plastic pipette, with the head protruding from the  
123 narrow end, and fixed by dental wax (Surgident, Heraeus Kulzer Inc). The head capsule  
124 was opened between the antenna and the eyes; muscle, glands, trachea, neural sheath  
125 and the oesophagus were removed to expose the antennal lobes [25]. A calcium sensitive  
126 dye (Calcium green-2-AM dye) was dissolved in 20% Pluronic F-127 in dimethyl sulfoxide  
127 (Molecular Probes, Eugene, USA) and diluted in moth Ringer solution to 30  $\mu\text{M}$  and then  
128 applied to the brain, leaving the preparation in a dark and cold (5°C) environment for 3 h.

129 Recordings were made in vivo after incubation and washing, using an Olympus  
130 microscope (20x air objective NA 0.50; filter settings: dichroic 500 nm, emission LP 515  
131 nm). The preparation was illuminated at 475 nm. Stimulation started at frame 12 and  
132 lasted 1 s. Images were binned twice (320 x 240 pixel) to increase signal-to noise ratio.  
133 TILL Photonics imaging software (Gräfelfing, Germany) was used to record sequences of  
134 40 frames (4 Hz, 200 ms exposure time) and noise was removed by a Gaussian filter. The  
135 response magnitude was calculated as the average  $\Delta F/F$  for each frame, where F was  
136 estimated using a linear function fitted to the parts of the calcium fluorescence decay  
137 curve outside the potential response. The onset of the signal was set to the time of the  
138 first frame with a positive average  $\Delta F/F$ . For statistical analysis, a Kruskal-Wallis test was

139 followed by a Mann-Whitney U test with Holm-Bonferroni correction. A 3-D map of the  
140 codling moth AL [21] was used to link the active area to AL glomeruli.

### 141 **(e) Intracellular recordings**

142 Insect preparation and recordings were done as described by Trona *et al.* [21]. During  
143 recordings, the brain was super-fused with a pH 6.9 ringer solution delivered from a flow  
144 system. A silver ground electrode was in contact with the ringer solution. Using a  
145 micromanipulator, the AL was randomly penetrated with an electrode which was drawn  
146 from a heated glass capillary (0.5 mm i.d., Sutter Instrument Co., Novato, USA) with the  
147 tip filled with 1% neurobiotin (Vector Labs, Burlingame, USA) dissolved in 0.25 mM KCL  
148 and the remaining part was filled with 1 mM KCl.

149 After recordings, the AL interneuron was stained with a depolarizing current (0.5-0.7 nA,  
150 15 min). The brain was dissected from the head capsule and stained following the  
151 protocol of Trona *et al.* [21]. Stained neurons were viewed in a laser scanning confocal  
152 microscope (Zeiss LSM 510, Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany) with a 40x1.4 oil-immersion DIC  
153 objective. Alexa Fluor 488, fluorescein Avidin and Alexa Fluor 546 labelled structures were  
154 excited with an argon laser 488 nm (with a 505 nm long-pass filter) and a HeNe laser  
155 (with a 560 nm long-pass filter). Stacks of X-Y confocal images (1024 x 1024 pixel) were  
156 scanned at 0.7  $\mu\text{m}$  step size.

157 Only complete recording sessions of the entire set of test stimuli were evaluated.  
158 Responses were calculated from the number of net-spikes during 500 ms (number of  
159 spikes 500 ms before stimulus onset subtracted from the number of spikes 500 ms after  
160 stimulus onset). Net-spikes in response to control were subtracted from the net-spikes in  
161 response to odour stimuli; blend responses were considered to be synergistic/suppressive  
162 when the number of net-spikes in response to blends was significantly higher/lower than  
163 the sum of net-spikes in response to the single compounds (G-test).

## 164 **Results**

### 165 **(a) Behavioural assay**

166 Blends of the main sex pheromone component, codlemone, and host plant volatiles  
167 attracted significantly more codling moth males than single compounds (figure 1). All  
168 three plant volatiles tested, (*E*)- $\beta$ -farnesene, butyl hexanoate and pear ester, elicited  
169 upwind orientation flights. Blending codlemone at 0.1 pg/min and plant volatiles at 100  
170 pg/min significantly increased landings at the source, compared to codlemone alone  
171 (figure 1).

172 **(b) Functional imaging**

173 Calcium signals revealed distinct glomerular activity patterns for each odorant tested  
174 (figure 2). A threshold dose of codlemone (10 ng) elicited a significant response in the  
175 MGC, including the cumulus (Cu) and nearby satellite glomeruli (20 and 37; figure 2b).  
176 Plant volatiles alone did not elicit any response in the Cu, they instead activated satellite  
177 glomeruli and glomeruli outside the MGC (figure 2c-e). A threshold dose of pear ester  
178 (100 ng) was active in the satellite glomeruli 20 and 37, which also responded to  
179 codlemone (figure 2c) plus glomerulus 11 outside the MGC.

180 Blends of 10 ng codlemone plus 100 ng of each plant volatile compound produced a  
181 strong synergistic interaction in the Cu (figure 3a,e). This synergistic effect was not seen  
182 at a 10-fold higher dose (figure 3a). Although several of the glomeruli surrounding the Cu  
183 responded to plant volatiles and codlemone (figure 2b-e, 3e), there was no synergistic  
184 interaction in these glomeruli: outside the Cu, the activity elicited by blends was  
185 significantly lower than the sum of the activity elicited by the single compounds (figure  
186 3b-d).

187 **(c) Intracellular recordings**

188 Figures 4 and 5 show the blend response of AL output neurons. Based on a dose-response  
189 test with single compounds (figure 4a), codlemone and individual plant volatiles were  
190 combined in a 1:10 ratio and 1:1000 ratio. The number of synergistic, suppressive and  
191 additive responses of AL neurons to blends of codlemone and plant volatiles, in the Cu  
192 and surrounding glomeruli is shown in figure 4b,c.

193 Analysis of 69 successful recordings demonstrates that odour blend interaction was not  
194 merely additive ( $p < 0.05$ , G-test). Of the neurons showing a synergistic blend response,  
195 52% responded to blends only, and not to single compounds. Suppressive responses  
196 comprised both a decreased excitatory phase (53%) and complete response suppression  
197 (47%) (figure 4b).

198 Twenty-nine neurons were successfully stained: 11 PNs arborizing in the Cu, 5 PNs in  
199 satellite glomeruli surrounding the Cu, 10 PNs in glomeruli outside the MGC and, in  
200 addition, 3 local interneurons (LNs). The Cu was innervated by uniglomerular PNs (figure  
201 5a), and by one multiglomerular PN that also arborized in the satellite glomerulus 20  
202 (figure 4d). Spike frequency histograms for selected PNs in response to compound blends  
203 are shown in figure 5. A statistical comparison of the blend effects in stained PNs revealed  
204 a significant difference: synergism occurred almost exclusively in the Cu, while blend  
205 stimulation of glomeruli outside the MGC mostly had a additive or suppressive effect  
206 (figures 4c, 5c).

## 207 Discussion

### 208 (a) Neural ensemble coding of sex pheromone and host plant odour in the MGC 209 of the male moth AL

210 Understanding how stimulation with a blend of odorants generates a unique perception in  
211 the brain is a current research question. What adds to the complexity of olfactory coding  
212 is the integration of separate, independent signals - sex and habitat odours - which are  
213 together required to generate appropriate behavioural responses during mate-finding.

214 We combined functional imaging and intracellular recordings to study odour blend  
215 processing in the codling moth *C. pomonella*, and show that the behavioural synergism  
216 between sex pheromone and host plant odourants is mirrored neurophysiologically. The  
217 MGC in the AL integrates signals from conspecific insects with habitat odours and  
218 synergistic interactions between these two classes of odours occur both at the input and  
219 output level. This demonstrates that processing of sex pheromone and plant volatiles,  
220 which insects encounter as an ensemble in nature, does not employ functionally separate  
221 pathways [17,18].

222 Blend enhancement and suppression in the AL may stem from odour interference in  
223 antennal sensory neurons [19,26] and ultimately at the olfactory receptor level [27].  
224 However, in codling moth, pheromone-plant volatile blends enhance the Cu response  
225 while they simultaneously suppress surrounding glomeruli in a "center-surround" fashion.  
226 Such complex coding may instead rely on lateral excitatory or inhibitory interconnections  
227 between glomeruli through local interneurons (LNs) [2,28]. Functional studies of LNs will  
228 be essential to understand olfactory processing in the AL.

229 Intracellular recordings of PNs, which connect the AL to higher brain centres, further  
230 corroborate that the MGC processes blends of plant volatiles and sex pheromone.  
231 Synergistic, blend-specific responses have been shown in the silk moth *B. mori* [17] and  
232 in codling moth, where PNs innervate the Cu and satellite glomeruli of the MGC [21].

233 An antagonistic interaction modality was shown in the black cutworm *A. ipsilon*. A floral  
234 volatile, which inhibits male attraction to pheromone, suppresses the pheromone  
235 response in the AL [18] and in PNs innervating the MGC [19]. This suggests that odours  
236 with different ecological roles may differently affect pheromone coding. A wiring diagram  
237 of input and output signals in the codling moth AL, based on a more complete panel of  
238 ecologically relevant odorants, from host and non-host plants or associated mutualistic  
239 microorganisms [29,30], will reveal whether glomerulus morphology and position in the  
240 AL correlates with the behavioural role of the respective key stimuli [31].

241 **(b) Behavioural and ecological physiology of pheromone-plant odour blend**  
242 **perception**

243 Mate recognition in insects, and especially in habitat-specific plant-feeding species,  
244 involves two main elements: sexual communication and recognition of larval and adult  
245 food plants, which frequently serve as rendezvous sites. Both mate and host finding  
246 largely rely on olfactory signals [14,32] which play a fundamental role in speciation  
247 [6,33].

248 In the codling moth, host plant odour is part of the mate finding signal. The plant volatiles  
249 chosen for this study are distinctive for the main hosts pear and apple, respectively. They  
250 mediate female attraction for oviposition [29,34-37] and they synergize male attraction to  
251 female sex pheromone. The MGC, in the olfactory centre of the moth brain, is the focal  
252 point for processing blends of pheromone and these plant signals.

253 Speciation is thought to be facilitated by multiple-effect or "magic" traits, which are subject  
254 to divergent selection and which contribute to nonrandom mating [9,10]. The MGC  
255 interconnects mate and host choice and would accordingly be considered as a multiple-  
256 effect trait. Host choice seemingly is under divergent selection in codling moth, which  
257 forms distinct host races on apple, pear, walnut, plum and apricot. These differ in spring  
258 emergence and diapause initiation, in close association with host flowering and fruit  
259 maturation [38,39], and the genetically distinct walnut strain is adapted to toxic walnut  
260 metabolites [40-42]. Females of several strains preferentially oviposit on their respective  
261 host fruit [29,38].

262 A comparison of the female sex pheromones of closely related *Cydia* species further  
263 corroborates the role of plant volatiles in reproductive isolation. Only few species share  
264 the same pheromone, but these all feed on host plants belonging to different families. For  
265 example, pea moth *C. nigricana* (Leguminosae) and pear moth *C. pyrivora* (*Pyrus*), the  
266 sibling species of codling moth, use codlemone acetate (*E,E*)-8,10-dodecadienyl acetate,  
267 which is a strong pheromone antagonist in codling moth males [43].

268 Pheromone and host odour communication is highly integrated also in other insects, for  
269 example in *Drosophila* [44] and in bark beetles, where non-host volatiles, as opposed to  
270 host volatiles, have an antagonistic effect on host and mate finding [45]. In the two  
271 pheromone races of the European corn borer *Ostrinia nubilalis*, male preference for  
272 females of the same race leads to premating isolation [46,47], which is reinforced by  
273 preferential attraction to volatiles of their respective host plants, mugwort and maize  
274 [48,49].

275 Ecological speciation, following host plant shifts, has likely contributed to the remarkable  
276 diversity of phytophagous insects [11,33]. Our study provides physiological data that  
277 suggest that mate recognition systems evolve in concert with chemosensory adaptation to

278 new hosts and ecological niches, and that sexual selection cannot be separated from  
279 natural selection in male insect herbivores.

### 280 **(c) Practical implication**

281 Our knowledge of codling moth chemical ecology has led to the successful development of  
282 species-specific and safe population control by pheromone-mediated mating disruption. In  
283 spite of orchard applications on 200.000 ha [50], the behavioural mechanisms underlying  
284 the disruption of mating are still under debate [51,52] and a better understanding of  
285 them will give leads for improvement. Our study demonstrates that it will be useful to  
286 consider the physiological and behavioural effect of plant volatiles on mating disruption,  
287 since, in nature, pheromone and plant volatiles are perceived together.

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## 452 Figure Legends

453 **Figure 1.** Wind tunnel attraction of codling moth *C. pomonella* males ( $n=50$ ) to the main  
454 pheromone compound codlemone (released at 0.1 pg/min) and to plant volatiles butyl  
455 hexanoate (*a*), (*E*)- $\beta$ -farnesene (*b*), pear ester (*c*), at 1 pg/min and 100 pg/min. Grey  
456 lines show attraction to 1:1000 blends of codlemone with these plant volatiles. Landings  
457 at the source are significantly increased in response to each of these 2-component blends,  
458 compared to pheromone alone (\*\* $p < 0.001$ , two-way ANOVA; butyl hexanoate  
459  $F(4,45)=45.0$ ,  $\beta$ -farnesene  $F(4,45)=23.75$ , pear ester  $F(4,45)=24.08$ ). Empty circles in  
460 the codlemone response curve show significant differences between codlemone and single  
461 plant volatiles alone ( $p < 0.0001$ , two-way ANOVA; butyl hexanoate  $F(4,45)=23.35$ ,  $\beta$ -  
462 farnesene  $F(4,45)=53.96$ , pear ester  $F(4,45)=20.68$ ).

463 **Figure 2.** Calcium imaging of the codling moth male AL upon stimulation with single  
464 odorants, sex pheromone (codlemone) and three plant volatiles. Dose-response  
465 relationships of odor-evoked calcium signals, using an increasing dose of codlemone  
466 ( $n=19$ ), pear ester ( $n=23$ ),  $\beta$ -farnesene ( $n=14$ ) and butyl hexanoate ( $n=19$ ) (*a*).  
467 Glomerular activation patterns in response to 10 ng codlemone (*b*), to 100 ng of pear  
468 ester (*c*), (*E*)- $\beta$ -farnesene (*d*) and butyl hexanoate (*e*), respectively and in response to  
469 the solvent (hexane) (*f*). Data points show means and standard errors (SEMs), glomeruli  
470 numbers correspond to the 3D atlas of the codling moth AL [26].

471 **Figure 3.** Calcium imaging of the codling moth male AL following stimulation with 2-  
472 component blends of sex pheromone (codlemone) and plant volatiles, butyl hexanoate,

473 pear ester and  $\beta$ -farnesene. Odour-evoked activity was measured in the cumulus (Cu)  
474 and other responding glomeruli. Response in the Cu (*a*), showing a synergistic blend  
475 interaction for 10:100 ng blends ( $*p < 0.05$ ,  $**p < 0.01$ , Kruskal-Wallis test followed by  
476 Mann-Whitney U-test with Holm-Bonferroni correction,  $n = 30$  males). At a higher dose,  
477 blends (100:1000 ng) were not significantly different from codlemone ( $p = 0.36$ , Kruskal-  
478 Wallis test,  $n = 30$  males). Response of glomeruli outside the cumulus (*b-d*) to plant  
479 compounds, codlemone, their blends and the summed responses to single compounds  
480 ( $\Sigma$ ): butyl hexanoate, satellite glomerulus 20 and glomerulus 23 ( $*p < 0.05$  and  $**p < 0.01$ ,  
481  $n = 26$ ) (*b*); pear ester, satellite glomeruli 20, 37 ( $*p < 0.05$ ,  $n = 30$ ) (*c*);  $\beta$ -farnesene,  
482 satellite glomeruli 20, 21 ( $***p < 0.001$  and  $*p < 0.05$ , one-sided t-test,  $n = 31$ ) (*d*). Bars  
483 show the standard error of the mean (SEM). Representative recording of codlemone, pear  
484 ester and their blend (*e*). Glomeruli numbers correspond to the atlas of codling moth AL  
485 [26].

486 **Figure 4.** Responses of AL neurons to single compounds and binary blends. Intracellular  
487 recordings of AL neurons with increasing doses of codlemone ( $n = 12$ ), butyl hexanoate  
488 ( $n = 10$ ), pear ester ( $n = 11$ ) and  $\beta$ -farnesene ( $n = 12$ ) (*a*). Histograms of synergistic,  
489 suppressive and additive responses of 69 physiologically characterized interneurons to  
490 blends of codlemone and plant volatiles (*b*). Number of synergistic, suppressive and  
491 additive responses of neurons innervating Cu and glomeruli outside the MGC ( $**p < 0.005$ ,  
492 Chi2-test) (*c*). 3D-reconstruction of a multiglomerular PN innervating the Cu and the  
493 satellite glomerulus 20, showing a synergistic response to a blend of codlemone and (E)-  
494  $\beta$ -farnesene. The horizontal bar shows the stimulus period (500 ms) (*d*).

495 **Figure 5.** Single confocal sections and spike frequency histograms (spikes/s) of  
496 physiologically and morphologically characterized PNs in the codling moth male AL.  
497 Synergistic responses of a PN innervating the Cu to blends of codlemone with pear ester  
498 and  $\beta$ -farnesene (*a*). Synergistic responses of a multiglomerular PN, innervating the  
499 satellite glomeruli 20 and 37, to blends of codlemone with pear ester and butyl hexanoate  
500 (*b*). Suppressive responses of a PN innervating the glomerulus 14, to a blend of  
501 codlemone and (E)- $\beta$ -farnesene at different blend ratios (*c*). Confocal sections: entrance  
502 of the antennal nerve (arrowheads), depth from anterior side of the AL (Z), scale bars (50  
503  $\mu\text{m}$ ), glomeruli numbers correspond to the 3D AL atlas [Trona 2010]. Histograms:  
504 stimulus period (bars, 500 ms).









