

Advancing conservation biological control as a component of IPM of horticultural crops

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¹ Advancing conservation biological control

² as a component of IPM of horticultural

3 Crops

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5 Robbie D. Girling*, Tom D. Breeze and Michael P. Garratt

- 6 University of Reading, UK
- 7 *Corresponding author: r.girling@reading.ac.uk
- 8

9 Abstract

10 Conservation biological control is commonly considered to be a key component of IPM because it is

11 compatible with and complementary to many other approaches available in the IPM 'toolbox'.

12 However, despite significant study of conservation biological approaches in horticultural systems,

13 uptake has been limited. Furthermore, whilst there are many studies that provide examples of

14 positive implementations, there are as many studies in which the evidence for benefits to pest

15 control is either inconsistent or absent. We suggest that careful consideration needs to be given to

16 the scale at which studies of conservation biological control are conducted (both spatial and

17 temporal) and the metrics that are recorded. To-date there has been a bias towards ecological

18 studies, with relatively scant consideration of the economic impacts of conservation biological

19 control measures. We propose a framework for the future study of conservation biological control

20 approaches, which centres around economic costs and benefits.

21

22 Keywords

23 Natural enemies, invertebrate pests, metrics, spatial scale, temporal scale, economic measures,

24 cost:benefit analysis, co-benefits.

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36 1. Introduction

37 What is Conservation Biological Control?

38 Conservation Biological Control (CBC) of invertebrate pests can be considered as the application or establishment of interventions in an agroecosystem that promote the regulation of pests by 39 40 enhancing the fitness of their natural enemies (Ehler, 1998). Pest outbreaks occur with much greater 41 frequency in agricultural systems than in nature, and within agroecosystems the frequency of 42 outbreaks has increased with increasing intensification (Singh and Satyanarayana, 2009; Woltz et al., 43 2012). In natural systems the inherently greater biodiversity results in more interspecific 44 competition for resources and these diverse habitats ensure many different niches exist, facilitating 45 the survival of natural enemies, ensuring no one species dominates and that a dynamic balance is 46 achieved (Gutierrez-Arellano and Mulligan, 2018). The development of intensive commercial agricultural systems and landscapes has created both the perfect environment for crop growth and 47 48 for pest development, removing competition and limitations on the resources pest species require; 49 furthermore, the decreased diversity and complexity in these systems has removed many habitats which support wider biodiversity, thereby suppressing natural pest control (Altieri, 1999; Woltz et 50 51 al., 2012). Therefore, the aim of CBC is to use interventions, particularly habitat modification, to 52 support the establishment and maintenance of natural enemy populations, which use pest species as a trophic resource, i.e., facilitating the natural provision of pest regulation services (Power, 2010; 53 54 Zhang et al., 2007). CBC is differentiated from other forms of biological control in that it aims to

promote natural enemies that already occur in the local environment rather than the introduction of
novel control agents (Helyer et al., 2014).

57

58 As discussed in earlier chapters of this book. there is a clear environmental need, increased political 59 will, increasing need for alternatives to synthetic pesticides, and a strong social argument for a shift 60 in the management of cropping systems towards a more ecologically sustainable approach (Pretty et 61 al., 2018; Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys, 2019; Tilman et al., 2011). It is considered that CBC, as a 62 component of an IPM approach, is a key method with which to address the challenges that face 63 current agricultural production (Birch et al., 2011). One of the key principles of IPM is the reduction 64 in and more targeted use of insecticides (Barzman et al., 2015); therefore, CBC is especially 65 compatible with this approach, in particular because many natural enemies are more susceptible to insecticides and likely to suffer non-target effects (Devine and Furlong, 2007), which would reduce 66 67 the effectiveness of any CBC measures.

68

69 How is Conservation Biological Control Employed in Horticulture?

70 Measures employed in CBC of arthropod pests focus on the provision of food and shelter for natural 71 enemies. Holland and Ellis (2008) proposed the acronym SAFE (Shelter, Alternative Prey, Floral 72 resources, Environment) as a method of communicating the key resources that are required to 73 promote natural enemies within cropping environments. Shelter or refugia are required because the 74 life cycle of most natural enemies means that they require other habitats, besides the cropping 75 environment, in which to overwinter, forage or reproduce. Alternative Prey are particularly 76 important in systems where the pests are an ephemeral resource and therefore natural enemies 77 require alternative prey or hosts on which to survive during the intervening periods when pests are 78 not present. Floral resources are important for those natural enemies which require either pollen or 79 nectar during at least one part of their life cycles to survive, for example the adult stage of both 80 parasitoid wasps and hoverflies. The term Environment in the SAFE acronym refers to the provision 81 of diverse vegetation untreated by insecticides, which is required by many natural enemies to 82 support different life stages (Holland and Ellis, 2008).

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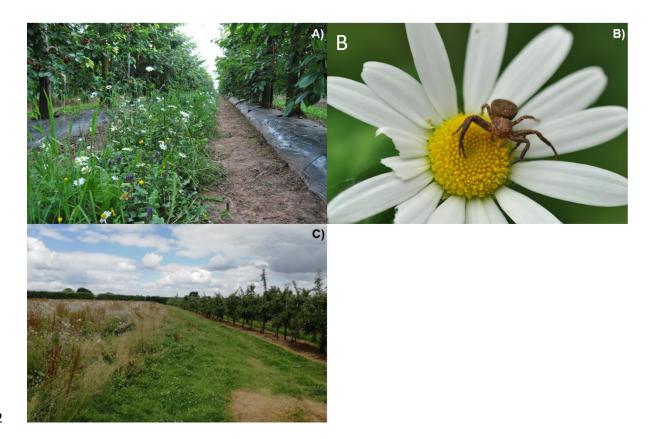
- 84 Within this framework, a range of different interventions have been trialled and tested for
- 85 horticultural crop production, which can be broadly classified as:

87 1) In-field approaches i.e., changes to the management of the cropping system itself to provide a 88 greater diversity and the resources that natural enemies need to persist and survive in the system 89 (e.g. intercropping, companion planting, polycultures, within field flower strips etc.; see figure 1 A 90 and B). Examples of where such approaches have been investigated in horticultural systems include, 91 amongst others, cabbage (Adati et al., 2011; Balmer et al., 2014; Balmer et al., 2013) tomato (Abad 92 et al., 2020), bell pepper (Bickerton and Hamilton, 2012), fennel (Ramalho et al., 2012), citrus 93 (Aguilar-Fenollosa et al., 2011a; Aguilar-Fenollosa et al., 2011b; Aguilar-Fenollosa and Jacas, 2013; 94 Aguilar-Fenollosa et al., 2011c; Kong et al., 2005), apple (Albert et al., 2017; Brown and Mathews, 95 2007; Brown et al., 2010; Brown and Mathews, 2008) and pear (Song et al., 2010; Song et al., 2011). 96

97 2) Field margins i.e., changes to the management of the spaces around the edges of fields or
98 cropping areas (e.g., field edge flower or grass strips, uncultivated areas, beetle banks and
99 hedgerows; see figure 1 C). Field margin manipulations have been studied in a range of horticultural
100 crops including, but not limited to, tomato (Balzan and Moonen, 2014), brassica (Geiger et al., 2009),
101 lettuce (Pascual-Villalobos et al., 2006), apples (Santos et al., 2018)

102

103 3) Landscape scale effects i.e., the management of non-crop vegetation in the wider farming 104 landscape to ensure refugia and food resources, and connectivity of resources are sufficient to 105 promote biodiversity and CBC. Research in this area focuses predominantly on the wider landscape 106 around all agricultural systems (Begg et al., 2017; Bianchi et al., 2006; Chaplin-Kramer et al., 2011; 107 Tscharntke et al., 2016; Tscharntke et al., 2005) although specific examples from horticulture 108 include, amongst other crops, apple (Happe et al., 2019; Happe et al., 2018), grape (Rusch et al., 109 2016a; Rusch et al., 2017; Thomson and Hoffmann, 2013; Thomson et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2015; 110 Wilson et al., 2017) and olive (Villa et al., 2020).



113 Figure 1. A: A flower strip between the rows of trees in a cherry orchard, grown under protected

114 cropping in the UK (Image: Zeus Mateos-Fierro); **B:** A crab spider on an oxeye daisy, one of the

natural enemy species promoted by, and found in, the flower strip shown in A (Image: Zeus Mateos-

116 Fierro); **C**: A Floristic margin next to an apple orchard in the UK (Image: Michael Garratt).

117

118 Why is uptake of CBC in horticultural production systems still limited and what are

some of the broader knowledge gaps?

120 As highlighted above, there has been significant research to date on many varied CBC approaches in 121 different horticultural cropping systems, and there is evidence of a clear need for such sustainable 122 approaches to be adopted in these cropping systems. However, despite the potential benefits of 123 CBC, its uptake on a commercial scale remains limited (Johnson et al., 2021) and more widely there is strong evidence to suggest that uptake of CBC and other forms of ecological intensification is not 124 125 as widespread as it could be (Kleijn et al., 2019). Therefore, given the potential benefits of CBC and 126 the clear need and political will to move towards more sustainable approaches to farming, what are 127 the barriers that have stopped the more widespread adoption of CBC measures as part of horticultural IPM? 128

130 A recent comprehensive study by Johnson et al (2021), identified 150 primary research papers

131 (comprising 247 separate experiments) from all types of agricultural crop, which have investigated

the application of CBC approaches using replicated field experiments, with the aim of understanding

133 why the uptake of CBC in all farming systems globally is currently low. Their key conclusions were

that the scope of CBC research to date is too limited, lacking detailed consideration of economic

benefits (only 10 of the 247 experiments investigated profitability) and overall, it is focused too

136 heavily upon metrics of pest and natural enemy abundance.

137

138 To better understand whether the findings of the Johnson et al (2021) study were also

139 representative for horticultural production we used their published database, but removed all non-

140 horticultural crops and re-ran their analysis following the same methods, which investigated the

141 metrics measured and success of CBC studies. This resulted in a subset of 100 papers and 167

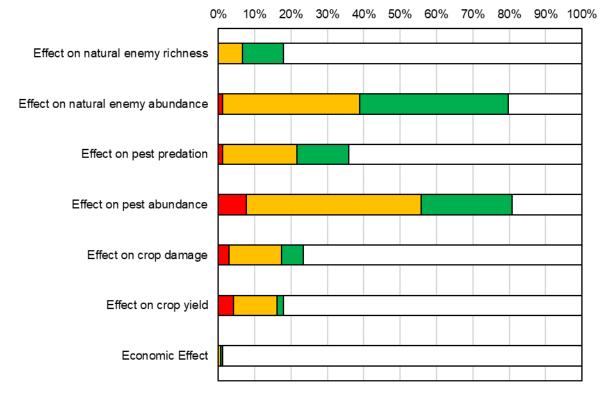
experiments, which were dominated by studies of Brassica (22%), apple (22%) and grape (11%). No

other single crop features in more than 8% of studies. Of these studies, 37% were from Europe,

144 although 84% were from temperate locations.

145

The most common metric measured in papers was the abundance of both natural enemies and
pests, both of which were measured in approximately 80% of all experiments conducted (Figure 2).
For all metrics used, a high proportion of the studies demonstrated 'uncertain' results. Surprisingly,
very few studies investigated the impacts of the CBC interventions on the crops themselves and only
a handful displayed a clear positive outcome for crop damage or crop yield, and of the two studies
that investigated an economic effect, only one showed a positive economic impact from the
intervention (the crop was clementine mandarin).



■Negative □Uncertain ■Positive □Not measured

Figure 2. The percentage of positive, negative, uncertain and unmeasured outcomes for different metrics measured to monitor the effects of conservation biological control amendments in 100 field trial studies (including a total of 167 separate experiments) of horticultural crops. Based on a dataset by (Johnson et al., 2021)

159

160 From their broader data set, Johnson et al (2021) demonstrated similar outcomes and concluded 161 that the potential barriers to wider adoption of CBC included the fact that levels of 'inconsistent' or 162 'no' effect were high for many response variables. As a result, they proposed that more research 163 should be conducted to provide a broader body of data from which to understand such inconsistent 164 or negative effects. However, there are already many studies, with some crops, for example those 165 on the brassicaceous crops and apple in this dataset (a total of 37 experiments on each), yet 166 inconsistent effects were still common (61% of all recorded effects for brassica were "uncertain" and 167 54% for apple). We propose that the inconsistency of effects may not simply be a result of a limited number of studies but that there may be other factors that contribute. 168

- 170 Thus, these results pose two clear questions that researchers in the field must investigate in an
- attempt to enhance both the efficacy and uptake of CBC in commercial horticulture:
- The benefits of CBC on response metrics appear to be varied and uncertain, which factors
 could be the primary causes of this variation?
- Given the low number of studies looking at the impacts of CBC measures on the crops
 themselves, are researchers measuring the appropriate metrics to promote the uptake of
 CBC amongst practitioners?
- 177

178 2. Effects of scale on the efficacy of Conservation Biological Control

179 Evidence of the potential benefits of CBC to reduce crop pest damage in horticultural systems have

been reported by many studies (Aguilar-Fenollosa et al., 2011c; Balzan, 2017; Balzan and Moonen,

181 2014; Brown et al., 2010; Cahenzli et al., 2017; Gómez-Marco et al., 2016; Irvin et al., 2006;

182 Salamanca et al., 2018), but as explained above, outcomes can often be mixed and there are many

183 examples where the results of CBC through habitat management are unclear or even have a

184 negative impact on crop damage (Aguilar-Fenollosa et al., 2011c; Brown and Mathews, 2007; Irvin et

al., 2016; Schellhorn and Sork, 1997; Tscharntke et al., 2016).

186

187 Such examples could be due to specific factors that prevent CBC action delivering the benefits 188 intended, such as the impacts of pesticides not allowing natural enemy populations to increase (McKerchar et al., 2020), intra guild predation (Finke and Denno, 2003; Müller and Brodeur, 2002), 189 190 or that the target natural enemy population is not increased (Larentzaki et al., 2008). Fundamental 191 to CBC is that viable populations of the natural enemies that deliver pest control must exist in the 192 agroecosystem, which, as we state above, requires provision of the necessary habitat elements that provide supplemental food resources, nesting locations, and/or overwintering sites, supporting 193 194 every life stage of natural enemies (Gurr et al., 2017). Therefore, habitat interventions to promote 195 CBC as a pest control strategy are likely operate at a different spatial and temporal scales to more 196 conventional pest control approaches. This concerns both the application of a CBC intervention, but 197 also how the impacts of the intervention are assessed.

199 Spatial considerations

200 With regard to active management to improve CBC, such as through the provision of habitats in the 201 form of hedgerows, field margins or beetle banks, it is critical that habitats are both large enough, 202 and close enough to farm fields, to provide a sufficient increase in natural enemy abundance to 203 deliver pest control services. The abundance of natural enemies is known to decline away from 204 source habitats and depends on habitat quality (Albrecht et al., 2020; Garratt et al., 2017; Woodcock 205 et al., 2016). Furthermore the density, diversity, and function of natural enemies are sensitive to the 206 size of suitable habitats, such as wildflower plantings (Blaauw and Isaacs, 2012), and interventions 207 employed without sufficient coverage may not deliver pest control services effectively (Tscharntke 208 et al., 2016). Introducing in-field habitat interventions (i.e., within the crop itself), such as in the 209 alleyways of fruit orchards, is one way of mitigating these spatial limitations and ensuring uplifts in 210 populations of beneficials, even with only limited spill over of natural enemies. This was shown to improve pest control in apple orchards (Campbell et al., 2017). Similarly companion cropping 211 212 alongside cucurbit crops increased the populations of beneficial insects and spiders with the 213 potential to control key pest insects (Qureshi et al., 2009) although impacts on yield were not 214 measured in this case.

215

Landscape context surrounding crops in terms of the cover of non-cropped land (Chaplin-Kramer et 216 al., 2011; Dainese et al., 2019; Rusch et al., 2016b), and the arrangement and distribution of these 217 218 elements (Martin et al., 2019) are an important determinant of invertebrate communities and 219 resulting pest control. Therefore, the protection or restoration of these landscape elements are 220 recommended as a solution to improve CBC in agricultural systems (Garibaldi et al., 2019). However, 221 despite generally positive effects of less intensively managed landscapes being detected across 222 systems as a whole (Dainese et al., 2019), positive responses of natural enemies are not universal 223 and are highly context dependent (Karp et al., 2018). More research is needed to understand to 224 what extent non-crop areas effect CBC in horticultural crops and at what spatial scale this operates, 225 particularly in protected or semi-protected contexts.

226

Furthermore, landscape context and local CBC interventions, such as floral habitat creation, can
interact to determine the relative success of these interventions. Interventions often prove most
effective in intermediate landscapes compared to either very simple landscapes, where there are no
source populations of natural enemies, or in highly complex landscapes where the response
potential is already saturated (Tscharntke et al., 2005). For example, when floral strips of buckwheat

were established next to Kale fields in New Zealand, parasitism rates were enhanced, the abundance
of pests reduced and crop yield increased in fields in moderately simple landscapes, but not in those
in highly complex landscapes (Jonsson et al., 2015).

235 Ultimately the spatial scale at which CBC management is undertaken (e.g., habitat protection) or 236 interventions implemented (e.g., flowery field margins) depends on the crop system, and 237 importantly those species which have a role to play in CBC, either as protagonists or antagonists. The 238 traits of these different actors can be used to anticipate which approaches are likely to deliver better 239 pest control. For example, in a large scale meta-analysis, which included data on a number of 240 horticultural crops, it was found that natural enemies that can fly benefitted more from a high 241 density of field edges, which promoted spill-over into crop fields, in contrast to less mobile ground-242 dispersing natural enemies which are better able to persist in crop fields and were most abundant in 243 landscapes with few edges (Martin et al., 2019).

244

245 Temporal Considerations

246 Spatial components are not the only considerations when implementing management to exploit CBC 247 in horticultural crop systems. Considering the temporal availability of key resources is also critically 248 important. Very often the natural enemies that are relied upon to deliver CBC services are longer 249 lived than many pest species, living over several seasons and requiring different resources at 250 different times depending on their life stage. Therefore, it is not just about how much and where 251 resources are available, but also when they are available. Targeted measures that secure the 252 continuity of resources throughout the life cycle of service-providing organisms are therefore 253 needed (Schellhorn et al., 2015). For example, non-crop areas provided critical overwintering 254 habitats for natural enemies in Brussels sprout production systems with herbaceous non-crop 255 habitats, in particular, providing important refugia for predators important for CBC (Geiger et al., 256 2009).

257

Another temporal consideration when establishing habitat management approaches to increase populations of locally abundant natural enemies is that interventions such as wildflower strips can take time to establish and deliver benefits. It can take several generations for local populations of beneficial organisms to respond with an increase in local abundance. A classic example concerns not insect natural enemies but insect pollinators, where it has been shown that it takes several seasons for wild bee populations to increase in abundance following the establishment of flower plots

264 adjacent to blueberry crops (Blaauw and Isaacs, 2014). The same lag effect would be expected for 265 habitat effects on natural enemies, although a recent meta-analysis, incorporating data from many 266 different crop systems, demonstrated that while the age since establishment of flower strips 267 affected pollinators and pollination, no such effect was seen for pest regulation services (Albrecht et 268 al., 2020). This suggests that perhaps natural enemies are better able to respond to such 269 interventions in the short term, although more targeted research is required to establish this effect 270 and how broadly it applies to different groups of natural enemies. For example, the increased 271 abundance of natural enemies in apple trees in response to alleyway plantings of flowers were seen 272 after just one year post establishment in cider apple orchards, although benefits to yield and crop 273 quality were not observed (Campbell et al., 2017), but it is unclear whether these benefits would be 274 observed over a greater time period. Furthermore, CBC interventions, including hedgerows and 275 floral plantings, were employed in another study on orchard systems where they increased the 276 abundance of spiders, an important natural enemy in this system. However, the benefits of this were 277 not observed until the subsequent season after abundant spider populations in the previous autumn 278 had reduced the number of aphid fundatrices the following spring, a clear example of a lag effect of 279 an intervention (Cahenzli et al., 2017).

280

Successfully implementing CBC using habitat management, either through the protection of non-281 282 cropped areas or the establishment of new resource rich habitats, is knowledge intensive in terms of knowing which approaches will work and where. Importantly, it requires a specific recognition of the 283 284 spatial and temporal factors which will ultimately determine whether an approach is successful or 285 not. This includes the extent to which effects spill over from different habitats and whether these 286 habitats, in combination with other landscape elements, provide a continuous supply of the 287 necessary resources for beneficials. Both factors are likely to be determined by the ecological and 288 physical traits of natural enemies within the crop system (Martin et al., 2019) and can be used to 289 help target management approaches and floral species selection for horticultural crops (van Rijn and 290 Wäckers, 2016; Wäckers and van Rijn). The time it may take to realise benefits from natural enemy 291 abundance or crop production in response to CBC interventions must also be considered, 292 particularly when being compared with direct approaches with more immediate effects such as 293 pesticide use (Wilson and Tisdell, 2001).

295 3. Evaluating the effectiveness of Conservation Biological Control

296 management in multiple dimensions

297 Research to-date has therefore developed our understanding of the biological and ecological factors 298 that must be considered when designing CBC management options, but which other factors may 299 contribute to low uptake of CBC in many parts of the world? Several authors have suggested that 300 low uptake is largely due to the focus of much research on the strictly ecological aspects of CBC 301 interventions: changes in pest and predator density, alterations of species community compositions 302 or binary evaluations of changes in pest damage (Chaplin-Kramer et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2021). 303 Farmers are often highly risk averse and ultimately require a strong economic incentive to undertake 304 such major management changes, particularly if they do not perceive them to be effective (Zhang et 305 al., 2018b). As such, there are growing calls for greater study into the full economic impacts of CBC 306 methods, including formal cost:benefit analyses, to demonstrate the full benefits of CBC measures 307 (Chaplin-Kramer et al., 2019; Johnson et al., 2021; Shields et al., 2019).

308

309 A number of studies have undertaken some economic appraisal of the yield impacts observed 310 following CBC interventions in horticultural cropping systems (e.g. Colloff et al. (2013)), but many lack an assessment of the intervention costs, and almost all are based on simple 'before vs after' 311 312 comparisons of interventions, without an assessment of the baseline levels of pest control (but see 313 Rodríguez-San Pedro et al. (2020)). Furthermore, unlike some other ecosystem services that arise 314 due to natural ecological processes (e.g., carbon storage) or simple trophic interactions (e.g., 315 pollination), pest regulation by natural enemies is often dependent on a more complex trophic 316 system, involving a wide number of pests and their associated predators. Each of these is likely to 317 have different responses to the environment and to interact with one another at different times of 318 the year. As such, even if other factors can be controlled for, it can be very difficult to link 319 interventions to economic metrics of yield because links between interventions and predator 320 populations, predators and pests, and pests and damage all need to be accounted for separately.

321

Here, we present a simple best practice guideline for researchers to assess the economic costs and
benefits of CBC interventions (Figure 3). Steps are marked as either *Critical* or *Recommended*.
Crucial steps will give the researcher the data they need to assess costs and benefits without any
intensive economic background. Recommended steps allow for a deeper appraisal of these values
but may be resource limited.

Determine appropriate spatial scales: As highlighted in Section 2, the CBC treatment site
 should account for i) proximity to the CBC intervention and ii) the overall landscape context
 although the specific details of this are likely to vary between crops, systems, and regions.
 Within sites, sampling should be undertaken using a stratified random design to ensure that
 surveys of pest damage are representative of the whole field/orchard. The sites must be
 commercial, or have the aim of becoming commercial, in order to ensure relatively
 representative management. (*Critical*)

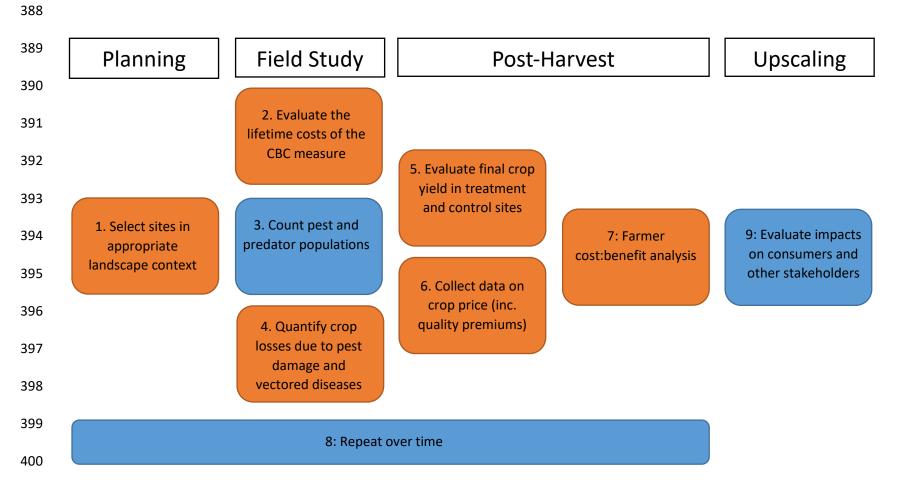
335 2. Calculate costs of CBC management: Ideally these costs should be based on actual management costs experienced in situ over the lifespan of the intervention. However, if this 336 337 is not possible then it is important to estimate these costs over time – specifically the initial 338 establishment costs (e.g. planting) and maintenance costs (e.g. cutting, re-sowing) of the 339 measures, including all relevant materials and labour. Cost assessment should also include 340 any cost reductions from the CBC method, such as reduced pesticide usage. Farming handbooks (e.g. Redman (2020)) can provide this information, but direct discussion with 341 342 land owners is preferable. (*Critical*)

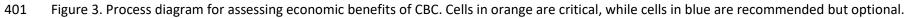
3. *Record counts of pests and predators:* If it is possible, ecological surveys of the abundance 343 344 and diversity of known crop pests and their predators should be undertaken throughout the 345 study and compared with suitable control sites. Unlike simple observations of pest 346 presence/absence, direct counts of pest and predator populations allow quantifiable links to 347 be drawn between the CBC measures and changes in pest damage (see point 4) arising from 348 altered natural pest regulation services. Although species level assessments are ideal, 349 responses may only be apparent when considering functional guilds (Gardarin et al., 2018; 350 Staton et al., 2021), which may be more practical for some researchers. (*Recommended*)

4. Evaluate pest damage: Levels of pest damage to the crop (e.g., fruit loss/damage or occurrence of disease vectored by pests) should be monitored throughout the growing period of the crop and either compared with damage in untreated fields or from past years of that field as appropriate. Distinction should be drawn between this observed loss and natural losses due to e.g. fruit abortion. Where possible, researchers should look for opportunities to separate out the impacts of specific pests, in case their responses differ (e.g., are either suppressed less or increase) as a result of the CBC measures. (*Crucial*)

5. Evaluate final crop yield: Evaluating final harvested crop yield should consider both the total
weight of marketable crop and any quality parameters (e.g. shape) that may affect the final
sale price. (*Critical*)

- Determine crop price: The market sale price of the crop should be as current as possible and
 account for any difference in prices due to crop quality. Ideally, this should draw from
 industry data, however national statistical agencies and FAO data (FAOSTAT, 2021) can be
 used if necessary. If the research is relatively short term, an average of the past 3-5 years
 prices can be used to account for price fluctuations. (*Critical*)
- Conduct a farmer Cost:Benefit analysis: Benefits are simply calculated as the total output
 (yield x quality x price) of the CBC system compared with an untreated control. From then, it
 is possible to subtract the costs of the CBC measures from the difference to give an initial
 estimate of net benefits. If projecting costs and benefits into the future, it is important to
 include a measure of variance in these values over time and apply a discounting rate (a
 projection of inflation in the future, representing the decreasing value of currency over time)
 to future years. (*Critical*)
- Determine the appropriate temporal scale: Many CBC measures are unlikely to have an
 immediate effect, as populations of predators may take some time to grow and habitat
 modification measures often take time to establish (see Section 2 above). It is preferable for
 a study to be undertaken over multiple years, ideally over the lifespan of the CBC measure;
 monitoring the change in cost:benefit each year can identify: i) when, if at all, the measure
 will become profitable; and ii) how the CBC measure affects the stability of economic output
 over time. (*Recommended*)
- 9. Evaluate consumer impacts: If the researcher is interested in upscaling the results to a
 national or regional scale then they may wish to consider evaluating the impacts on
 consumers as well as producers. This can be achieved using partial equilibrium modelling
 (see e.g. Zhang et al. (2018a)) wherein the change in total crop output resulting from the
 mass implementation of the CBC measure is translated to a change in consumer price. This
 requires more advanced economic modelling but can give a measure of the net societal
 benefits of the CBC measures, which may incentivise policy support. (*Recommended*)





403 Although income is a major concern for many farmers, economic arguments alone may not be 404 enough to fully promote CBC methods. A number of sociological factors have been identified as 405 potential barriers to alternative pest management in general. Farmers may be reluctant to deviate 406 too strongly from their neighbours for fear of becoming a pest reservoir (Wilson and Tisdell, 2001). 407 At the same time however, landscape scale management may not be beneficial to all participants, 408 particularly in mixed landscapes where some landowners, such as pasture or arable farmers, may 409 face little or very different pest pressures compared to horticultural growers. Landowners may also 410 find certain CBC measures, such as flower rich field margins, unsightly and poorly reflective upon 411 their abilities as farmers (Burton et al., 2008) or lack the knowledge to properly implement them 412 (Mankad et al., 2017).

413

414 Addressing these barriers requires additional data gathering outside of a standard ecological study. 415 Ideally, before any research is conducted, CBC measures should be co-developed with groups of 416 local stakeholders in order to maximise their collective willingness to take them up and identify 417 barriers (e.g. Giles et al. (2017); Husson et al. (2016)). On a wider scale, farmer surveys, using 418 psychological frameworks such as the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), can also help 419 identify wider perceived and observable barriers to wider uptake (Mankad et al., 2017). Finally, 420 additional economic analysis, drawing from the cost:benefit work outlined above, can also identify 421 the points at which subsidies will make otherwise unprofitable CBC systems more economically 422 viable, particularly in the earlier years when they are initially establishing (Yang et al., 2020).

423

424 4. Benefits of Conservation Biological Control beyond IPM

By their very nature CBC management approaches can change the nature of the cropping
environment either through adaptive management at the field scale (Larentzaki et al., 2008), habitat
creation in and around crop fields (Albrecht et al., 2020; Campbell et al., 2017) or larger scale
alteration to landscape context (Jonsson et al., 2015; Martin et al., 2019). These are put in place to
manipulate populations of natural enemies and pests to support sustainable crop production
through IPM, but can inevitably have impacts beyond this.

One area where there are clear synergies concerns management approaches to increase populationsof wild pollinators and the pollination services they provide to crops. Approaches to boost

433 pollinators are often equivalent to those for CBC, including reducing harmful inputs, establishment 434 of floral resources through flower margins, and protection and management of non-cropped 435 habitats such as hedgerows (Kovács-Hostyánszki et al., 2017). Numerous studies have highlighted 436 the co-benefits of such approaches to both pollinators and natural enemies of pests (Albrecht et al., 437 2020; Garratt et al., 2017; Wratten et al., 2012). In fact by considering these co-benefits and their 438 positive impact on the yield of tomato crops delivered by hedgerows, the economic return on 439 investment and breakeven point for hedgerow establishment was reduced from 16 to 7 years 440 (Morandin et al., 2016). Despite the similarities in the habitat requirements of wild pollinators and 441 many natural enemies, inevitably they are not exactly the same, and features, such as wildflower 442 plots, can be tailored to support different functional groups of beneficial organisms. As a 443 consequence, some compromises or trade-offs are likely when managing for both pest regulation 444 and pollination (Campbell et al., 2012; Campbell et al., 2017). However given the obvious similarities 445 and potential synergies that management of pollination and wider IPM practices offer, they can, and 446 should, be better integrated (Egan et al., 2020).

447

448 There are many other potential benefits arising from implementing CBC practices including direct 449 impacts from in-field crop management approaches such as reduced or more targeted pesticide 450 spraying to protect natural enemies (Ruberson et al., 1998) and the associated environmental 451 benefits (Aktar et al., 2009); to reduced tillage to improve biocontrol (Roger-Estrade et al., 2010) benefiting multiple soil physical, chemical and biological properties (Busari et al., 2015). Particularly 452 453 diverse benefits can be realised through the introduction of non-crop habitats such as flower plots 454 and hedgerows including species conservation (Requier and Leonhardt, 2020), improved soil and 455 water quality (Montgomery et al., 2020) and enhancing the rural aesthetics (Wratten et al., 2012). By 456 the same measure, management approaches implemented for other reasons can deliver CBC 457 benefits, for example field margins to support conservation of birds benefited natural enemies of 458 pests as an unintended side effect (Olson and Wäckers, 2007). When considering implementing CBC 459 actions these multiple benefits should be taken into consideration, particularly when comparing the 460 benefits against more conventional approaches such as pesticide application. Furthermore, these co-461 benefits should be factored into calculations of any economic analysis of CBC measures.

462

463 5. Case studies of conservation biological control in practice

The application of CBC as a component of an IPM approach, is met with a range of challenges that 464 465 are often specific to the growing system and crop. Therefore, detailed research is often required to 466 provide a clearer understanding of the challenges each system/crop faces and to optimise the 467 different CBC methods, both with respect to their efficacy and cost effectiveness, that can be 468 applied. Here we provide two case study examples of research that have contributed towards the inclusion of CBC in commercial practice. These case studies highlight the application of CBC in an 469 470 organic field vegetable horticultural production system and in a conventional protected-cropping 471 stone fruit orchard production system.

472

473 Case study1: Organic lettuce production in California

474 Globally, aphids are a key pest of field vegetable production. They can damage their host plants, 475 resulting in yield reductions, in a range of ways, including by depriving the plant of nutrients through 476 feeding on the plants phloem, by the transmission of viruses during feeding (Tomlinson, 1987), and 477 by the honeydew they produce while feeding encouraging the growth of sooty mould (Dedryver et 478 al., 2010). Their presence and the damage they cause can also reduce the marketability of produce 479 for a range of horticultural crops (AHDB, 2021). During the main growing season aphids reproduce 480 parthenogenically, meaning they reproduce asexually, and are viviparous, meaning that the give 481 birth to live young (Hardie, 2017). They therefore have a very fast rate of increase, which means that 482 their control is challenging.

Conventional horticultural production systems have commonly relied upon insecticides to control
aphid populations, however their fast rate of increase has meant the development of insecticide
resistance in multiple aphid species (Foster et al., 2017). Furthermore, the effectiveness of using
insecticides to control the transmission of viruses, through control of the vector, is mixed and often
ineffective (Perring et al., 1999). Therefore, there is increasing demand for alternative approaches to
controlling aphid pests, which can be adopted as part of an IPM approach (Dedryver et al., 2010).

Organic production has promoted the development of a variety of alternative approaches to pest control, including CBC, although for many of these pest management strategies there is a paucity of rigorous scientific evidence to substantiate their benefits (Zehnder et al., 2007). However, one case study in which the benefits of an organic pest management strategy has been successfully quantified is the application of CBC to control aphid populations in lettuce production on the central coast of California (Brennan, 2013). The predominant aphid pest in lettuce production in central California is the currant-lettuce aphid, *Nasonovia ribisnigri* Mosley (Smith et al., 2008). Controlling this aphid
species in lettuce production can be challenging because it aggregates and feed upon the interior
leaves of the lettuce plants (Liu, 2004).

498 In central California it is well established in the organic farming community that by intercropping 499 lettuce plants with sweet alyssum, Lobularia maritima (L.) Desv. (Figure 4), it is possible to control N. 500 ribisnigri (Gillespie et al., 2011). The mechanism for this control is that the intercropped alyssum acts 501 as an insectary plant, i.e. by having abundant flowers that produce pollen and nectar it attracts 502 beneficial insects, and in particular hoverflies, which feed on these floral resources (Colley and Luna, 503 2000). The adult hoverflies mate, and subsequently the females forage in the local vicinity of the 504 insectary plants, searching for patches of aphids in which to lay their eggs. The larvae that hatch 505 from these eggs are voracious predators and specialise on feeding on aphids, eating up to 168 506 currant-lettuce aphids per day (Hopper et al., 2011). Therefore, sweet alyssum has been used as an 507 insectary plant in organic lettuce fields on the Californian Central coast for many years (Bugg et al., 508 2008).



- 510
- 511 Figure 4. Additive intercropping of the white flowering plant sweet alyssum (*Lobularia maritima* (L.)
- 512 Desv.) into organic romaine lettuce fields in: A) the USDA-ARS organic research farm in Salinas CA; B)
- 513 A commercial organic farm in the region (Image: Eric Brennan, USDA-ARS)
- 514
- 515 A range of different approaches have been used by growers in the region to incorporate these
- 516 insectary plants, from strip cropping by interplanting full beds of sweet alyssum across the field of

517 lettuce, to interspersing plants within lettuce beds. As a result, the land used to plant these insectary 518 plants displaces lettuce plants, which reduces the cropping area by between 5-10 %. This means that 519 there is an economic cost through crop displacement, in addition to the costs of establishment and 520 maintenance of this CBC measure (Bugg et al., 2008; Colfer, 2004). Therefore, a study was conducted 521 by Brennan (2013) to investigate different methods that could be used to optimise the quantity and 522 arrangement of sweet alyssum and minimise the displacement organic romaine lettuce, by 523 investigating the effect of different methods of incorporating alyssum on plant biomass/yield. 524 Brennan trialled a series of different replacement intercropping approaches, i.e. various numbers of 525 lettuce transplants were replaced by alyssum transplants (replacing between 2-8% of lettuce 526 transplants), and novel additive intercropping approaches, i.e. alyssum transplants were added to 527 lettuce transplants without displacing them, in comparison to a lettuce monoculture (control). Over 528 two growing seasons the biomass of both lettuce and alyssum were recorded, as was the flower 529 production in the alyssum. All but one of the treatments (replacement with 4% of lettuce transplants 530 displaced in a symmetrical pattern) resulted in decreases in romaine lettuce head dry weight 531 biomass relative to those plants in the lettuce monoculture treatment, indicating that inclusion of 532 alyssum came at a yield cost. The additive treatments, where plants were at a greater density per 533 unit area and therefore under greater competition, resulted in a decrease in the dry weight biomass 534 of alyssum plants, however this was countered by an increase in the number of inflorescences per 535 gram (dry weight) of alyssum. The novel additive treatments appeared to offer the best option for 536 growers because there was no effect on the number of heads grown in comparison to the lettuce 537 monoculture control. Whilst there was a reduction in head dry weight of plants grown in the additive 538 compared to the replacement treatments it was proposed that in commercial production this may 539 have little impact after trimming and packing is considered.

540 Further research by Brennan (pers. comm.) has refined the additive methods (see Figure 4 A) so that 541 alyssum plants are only included in 'insectary beds', which are separated by ten lettuce only beds. 542 Alyssum plants are only planted in one line of each insectary bed at a density of one alyssum plant 543 between every five lettuce plants. This method has been shown to recruit sufficient hoverflies to 544 maintain good control of aphid pests, and it has been demonstrated that the insectary beds produce 545 yields of equal marketable weight to lettuce only beds. This suggests that it is possible to gain all the 546 benefits of pest control by using alyssum in a CBC approach, without having any negative effect on 547 yield, and therefore the only cost is in purchasing and maintaining the alyssum transplants. This is a 548 significant advance on the traditional replacement methods where up to 10% of the lettuce plants 549 were being substituted for alyssum and has resulted in adoption by a number of growers in the 550 region (Figure 4 B).

552 Case study 2: Conventional sweet cherry production in the UK

553 Sweet cherry (*Prunus avium* L.) presents several challenges for incorporating CBC as part of an 554 effective IPM programme. Firstly, it is a high value crop where little pest damage can be tolerated, 555 secondly it is often intensively produced under protected or semi-protected conditions (Lang, 2014) 556 where the influx of naturally occurring pest enemies may be constrained, and finally chemical pest 557 control options are widely used in cherry production (Daniel and Grunder, 2012), which may not 558 always be compatible with CBC.

559 As demonstrated in section 1, the introduction of wildflower habitats can increase both the 560 abundance of natural enemies and the pest regulation services they provide, including in apples 561 (Campbell et al., 2017; McKerchar et al., 2020) and blueberry (Blaauw and Isaacs, 2014). However, 562 such habitat interventions have rarely, if ever, been tested in semi-protected cultivation because of 563 additional barriers to their adoption including: i) increased watering and maintenance costs for flower 564 habitats under plastic, ii) changes in microclimate increasing the risk of pathogens, and iii) 565 inconvenience to grower operations including spraying and picking, for which alleyways are usually 566 kept mown short.

Effective CBC tools are needed in such intensive systems if they are to become less reliant on high inputs of pesticide, particularly in the face of increasing limitations due to changing legislation (e.g. thiacloprid for aphid control) (Daniel and Grunder, 2012). These CBC tools need to be compatible with grower operations, suitable in protected cropping systems, and deliver benefits that are important to growers, thus co-development with growers is essential (Cullen et al., 2008; Kleijn et al., 2019; Simon et al., 2017).

573 Working closely with growers, a recent study looked to address this challenge directly in sweet cherry 574 (Mateos-Fierro et al., 2021). The study investigated the feasibility of establishing wildflower habitats 575 in the alleyways of sweet cherry orchards, measure how cutting of these habitats effected their quality 576 as a CBC resource, and quantified to what extent wildflower habitats delivered, not only increases in 577 natural enemy numbers, but also improved pest regulation. Using relatively standard management 578 approaches, wildflower strips were successfully established in cherry orchards (Mateos-Fierro et al., 2018), achieving good coverage of a variety of sown flower species (Figure 1 A). Growers were engaged 579 580 in the development of the CBC amendments and suggested modifications for trial, for example in 581 season cutting of the flower strips.

582 Wildflower treatments almost doubled the abundance of natural enemies in alleyways, and increased abundance in cherry trees by ~15% compared to the standard alleyway management, although 583 importantly benefits were only seen from year two of study (Figure 5 A-D) (Mateos-Fierro et al., 2021). 584 585 Wildflower strips increased predation of aphids (measured using bait cards) in cherry trees by 25% 586 early in the season (Figure 5 E-F). No difference in natural enemy abundance, richness or pest control 587 was recorded between wildflower strips that were left uncut, and those that were actively managed 588 in a way preferred by growers, specifically involving regular cutting to maintain a sward height of 20cm. Furthermore, these differences in natural enemy abundance and predation rates between 589 590 wildflower and control treatments were detected despite the continued use of pesticides by growers.

591

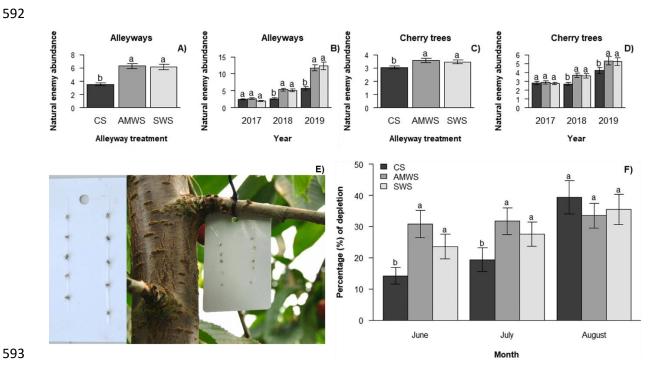


Figure 5. Mean of natural enemy abundance (±SE) recorded throughout the three-year study according to A) and C) alleyway treatment, and B) and D) year, and the effect of alleyway treatment in either the alleyways or the cherry trees. E) Shows bait cards with ten dead aphids glued to the surface to assess predation rate. F) Mean percentage (±SE) of *Acyrthosiphon pisum* aphids (dead) depleted from bait cards. The same superscript letters indicate no significant difference (Tukey test, P > 0.05). CS (Control Strips). AMWS (Actively Managed Wildflower Strips), SWS (Standard Wildflower Strips) (adapted from Mateos-Fierro et al., 2021).

This study demonstrated that even in intensive production systems habitat creation for CBC can be effective. Engaging with growers during the development of the CBC amendments aimed to encourage greater uptake of successful measures into commercial production. As with supporting CBC in any production system, identifying the link between ecosystem services and the factors that farmers view as most important may positively influence communication and potential of adoption (Bardenhagen et al., 2020).

608

609 6. Summary and proposed future trends in research

610 Whilst CBC has been shown, by a number of studies, to be an effective method of pest control for a 611 range of horticultural crops, when considered as a whole, the effects measured to-date have been 612 inconsistent and furthermore uptake has been low. Understanding the cause of such inconsistency 613 in results is therefore crucial. It is clear that spatial and temporal scales matter for CBC because it 614 relies on existing biodiversity as opposed to conventional pest control approaches, which often have 615 rapid effects at a local scale (e.g. pesticide application). Habitat interventions for CBC need to be 616 employed with sufficient coverage and sufficiently close to the crop to ensure benefits are delivered, 617 as declining benefits at increasing distances from interventions are common. The local landscape is 618 critical as non-crop areas can provide important habitats for natural enemies in agroecosystems and 619 landscape context can modify the effects of habitat interventions, which often prove most effective 620 in landscapes with an intermediate amount of non-crop area. The effects of local landscape and 621 management interventions on CBC are very context dependent, depending on the cropping system, 622 and are influenced by the traits of the species involved (both pests and natural enemies). 623 Management interventions to improve CBC need to provide resources for all life stages of natural 624 enemies, which are often longer lived and have a more complex life history than pests. The time it 625 takes to realise benefits to natural enemy abundance or crop production from CBC interventions 626 must be taken into account, particularly when being compared to direct approaches with more 627 immediate effects such as pesticides.

628

We propose that in order to improve uptake of CBC measures, future studies could make use of the framework we set out in our simple best practice guideline (Figure 3), which will assist researchers in assessing the economic costs and benefits of CBC interventions. It is critical that, moving forwards, a clearer economic understanding is developed for all proposed CBC interventions. This is particularly important given the understandably risk averse nature of many farmers, especially with respect to making major system changes. In order to achieve wider uptake, particularly in the light of the many
inconsistent studies to date, which in itself is likely to result in farmers questioning the effectiveness
of such measures, it is important that evidence of strong and clear economic incentives of system
change are provided.

638

639 CBC management approaches often involve changing the nature of the cropping environment and so 640 inevitably have impacts beyond CBC alone. One area where there are clear synergies concerns 641 managing for CBC and managing for wild pollinators, and in particular those approaches used to 642 boost pollinator populations (e.g. reducing harmful inputs, establishment of floral resources, 643 protection of non-cropped habitats) often deliver benefits for CBC and vice versa. There are many other benefits that CBC practices can deliver, including reduced negative environmental impacts, 644 improved soil health and positive effects on the rural aesthetic. These multiple benefits should be 645 taken into consideration when deciding whether to implement CBC actions, particularly when 646 647 compared with more conventional approaches such as pesticide application, and should form a key 648 part of any economic analyses that are conducted to evaluate the cost effectiveness of CBC 649 approaches.

650

651 6. Where to look for further information

The following articles provide a good overview of the subject:

653	-	Begg, G.S., Cook, S.M., Dye, R., Ferrante, M., Franck, P., Lavigne, C., Lövei, G.L., Mansion-
654		Vaquie, A., Pell, J.K., Petit, S., Quesada, N., Ricci, B., Wratten, S.D. and Birch, A.N.E.
655		(2017), 'A functional overview of conservation biological control', Crop Protection, 97:
656		145-158.
657	-	Chaplin-Kramer, R., O'rourke, M., Schellhorn, N., Zhang, W., Robinson, B. E., Gratton, C.,
658		Rosenheim, J. A., Tscharntke, T. & Karp, D. S. (2019), 'Measuring What Matters:
659		Actionable Information for Conservation Biocontrol in Multifunctional Landscapes',
660		Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems, 3: 60.
661	-	Dainese, M. et al. (2019), 'A global synthesis reveals biodiversity-mediated benefits for
662		crop production. Science advances', 5 (10). doi: https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aax0121
663	-	Holland, J. M., Bianchi, F. J., Entling, M. H., Moonen, AC., Smith, B. M. & Jeanneret, P.
664		(2016), 'Structure, function and management of semi-natural habitats for conservation

665		biological control: a review of European studies' Pest Management Science, 72: 1638-
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667	-	Martin, E.A. et al. (2019), 'The interplay of landscape composition and configuration:
668		new pathways to manage functional biodiversity and agroecosystem services across
669		Europe', Ecology Letters, 22 (7): 1083-1094. doi: <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.13265</u>
670	-	Shields, M. W., Johnson, A. C., Pandey, S., Cullen, R., González- Chang, M., Wratten, S. D.
671		& Gurr, G. M. (2019), 'History, current situation and challenges for conservation
672		biological control', Biological Control, 131: 25-35.
673	Key researd	ch in this area can be found at the following organisations and sites:
674	-	Agricology (https://www.agricology.co.uk/)
675	-	Centre for Agri-Environment Research (http://www.reading.ac.uk/caer/)
676	-	Centre for Biological Control – SLU (https://www.slu.se/en/Collaborative-Centres-and-
677		Projects/centre-for-biological-control-cbc)
678	-	FAO Agroecology (http://www.fao.org/agroecology)
679	-	FiBL (https://www.fibl.org/en/index.html)

681 References

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684	Journal of Tropical Insect Science, 40 , 39-48.
685	Adati, T., Susila, W., Sumiartha, K., Sudiarta, P., Toriumi, W., Kawazu, K. & Koji, S. 2011. Effects of
686	mixed cropping on population densities and parasitism rates of the diamondback moth,
687	Plutella xylostella (Lepidoptera: Plutellidae). Applied Entomology and Zoology, 46, 247-253.
688	Aguilar-Fenollosa, E., Ibanez-Gual, M. V., Pascual-Ruiz, S., Hurtado, M. & Jacas, J. A. 2011a. Effect of
689	ground-cover management on spider mites and their phytoseiid natural enemies in
690	clementine mandarin orchards (I): Bottom-up regulation mechanisms. Biological Control, 59,
691	158-170.
692	Aguilar-Fenollosa, E., Ibanez-Gual, M. V., Pascual-Ruiz, S., Hurtado, M. & Jacas, J. A. 2011b. Effect of
693	ground-cover management on spider mites and their phytoseiid natural enemies in
694	clementine mandarin orchards (II): Top-down regulation mechanisms. <i>Biological Control</i> , 59,
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699	ground cover management as a conservation biological control strategy against Tetranychus
700	urticae in clementine mandarin orchards. Crop Protection, 30, 1328-1333.
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