

1 **Highly diversified crop systems can promote the dispersal and foraging activity of the**
2 **generalist predator *Harmonia axyridis***

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10

11 **Abstract:** High plant biodiversity and landscape food provision stability is known to have a
12 positive impact on biocontrol services provided by natural enemies. However, few studies have
13 assessed how differential spatial and temporal crop richness actually impact biocontrol services,
14 and notably how natural enemies may spill-over among crops. Within this framework, using a
15 four-cage maze system under laboratory conditions, we evaluated the effect of a diversified
16 crop system (four crops, namely cotton, tomato, squash and soybean) and low diversified crop
17 systems (one single crop), on the generalist predator *Harmonia axyridis* (Pallas) and its
18 predation capacity on aphids. The system varied food availability both in space, i.e. different
19 cages, and in time, i.e. different dates of resources implementation. In general, the effects of
20 crops on the natural enemies' traits observed in the diversified crop system resulted from the
21 average effects of the individual low diversified crop systems; the impact of the predator was
22 highly dependent on the plant. Low diversified crop systems actually proved to be either very
23 suitable for the predator's development (tomato and squash), or not at all (soybean and cotton),
24 but inversely suitable in reducing pest population with lower efficacy in tomato and squash and
25 higher efficacy in soybean and cotton. The spillover of the ladybird was strongest in the squash
26 low diversified crop system and lowest in the cotton one, other systems showing intermediate
27 spillover values. In the diversified crop system, the ladybird presence was always closely
28 related to plant presence, and aphid populations were maintained at a stable population increase.
29 Still, the predator was also found in cages lacking plants, as opposed to the low diversified crop
30 systems; this hinted at the potential of the highly diversified crop system to promote ladybird
31 dispersal and increase foraging activity. We demonstrate that increasing crop diversity in
32 agroecosystems may help promote biocontrol services provided by *H. axyridis* by promoting
33 its spillover between crops (e.g. while the plants are senescing and/or when they are harvested).

34 **Key words:** polyculture, monoculture, resource diversity, ladybird, generalist predator, aphid.

35 **Introduction**

36 Modern agricultural practices, such as using chemical control on insect pest populations, have
37 multiple side effects on other insect communities, including negative effects on natural
38 enemies, thereafter named “NEs” (Kareiva 1987; Desneux et al., 2007; Lew et al., 2009;
39 Hallmann et al., 2014; Tejada et al., 2015; Heimbach et al., 2017). By simplifying agricultural
40 landscapes, modern agriculture leads to a reduction in habitat stability which is defined by the
41 capacity of a habitat to maintain NEs, through the spatial and temporal continuum of its
42 resources, a key to maintain NEs efficiency (Rand et al., 2006; Woodcock et al., 2016; Gurr et
43 al., 2017). A growing body of evidence suggests that naturally occurring NEs could replace
44 chemical inputs to control pest populations in many cases (Lu et al., 2012; Wratten et al.,
45 2012; Jonsson et al., 2014; Karp et al. 2018; Jactel et al. 2019). The lack of habitat stability
46 and/or food sources may lead to a decrease in arthropod biodiversity and could reduce
47 biocontrol services provided by natural enemies (Veres et al., 2013; Martin et al., 2016).
48 Continuity of nutritional resources is a key aspect for maintenance of food-web stability
49 (Vasseur et al., 2013; Schellhorn et al., 2015). Habitat management to keep NEs in the fields
50 and increase biocontrol is a key aspect used in Conservation Biological Control (Eilenberg et
51 al., 2001). This technique consists in manipulating the habitats in order to make them suitable
52 for NEs and therefore increase their presence and their biocontrol efficiency in the fields.
53 A management method often used in conservation biological control is the provision of semi-
54 natural areas or ecological structures near or between crops (Rusch et al., 2016; Jankovic et
55 al., 2017; Perovic et al. 2018; Hatt et al. 2019; Jaworski et al. 2019). Landscape complexity
56 strongly enhances biocontrol through the provision of alternate food sources such as preys and
57 hosts as well as floral resources, e.g. nectar and pollen, and includes shelter from intrusions
58 (Rand et al., 2006; Rusch et al., 2013; Gagic et al., 2016; Rusch et al., 2016; Gurr et al.,
59 2017).

60 However, natural areas are time-consuming for farmers to manage and can trigger the
61 appearance of pests and weeds in adjacent fields and do not represent a direct source of
62 income, which often discourages farmers from adopting these techniques (Bianchi et al. 2006;
63 Burton et al. 2008; Brewer and Goodell, 2012).

64 Another concept of CBC that has proved efficient and does not use natural areas as the main
65 driving factor for biodiversity enhancement, is ecological engineering by increasing crop
66 diversity (Altieri 1999; Gurr et al. 2004; Letourneau et al., 2011). Ecological engineering
67 focuses mainly on maintaining continuous food source diversity in time and space in order to
68 enhance NEs performance and therefore reduce pest pressure (Altieri, 1999; Vasseur et al.
69 2013; Schellhorn et al. 2015). Studies undertaken on the effect on diversifying crop types on
70 NEs have largely proved efficient on a field scale (Moreira et al., 2016; Letourneau et al.,
71 2011). However, the underlying mechanisms leading to the positive interactions between
72 natural enemies and the different type of crops have scarcely been evaluated. In order to
73 complete their life cycle, some NEs may need continuous, diversified (Schellhorn et al., 2015)
74 and complementary food sources such as pollen, nectar, hosts and prey (Altieri, 1999; Gurr et
75 al., 2004; Langellotto and Denno, 2004; Letourneau et al., 2011; Rusch et al., 2013).

76 Natural enemies are very diversified in terms of needs. Plant diversity is known to have a
77 positive impact on most of NEs life history traits and performance (Poveda et al., 2008;
78 Letourneau et al., 2011) as majority of them may need alternative food sources to complete
79 their life cycle or for fitness increase. For example, some parasitoids need proteins coming
80 from preys at their larval stages and need pollen and nectar at their adult stages to increase
81 their fitness (Géneau et al., 2103; Chan and Godfray, 1995). Other natural enemies like
82 ladybirds also complete their diet with pollen and nectar which increase their longevity (De
83 Clerck et al., 2005). Therefore, by providing diversified resources through plant
84 diversification, biocontrol can be increased (Gurr et al., 2017).

85 Diversification of crops placed at close quarters and overlapping in time might therefore
86 ensure (i) the presence of different plant and prey blends and food sources in the polycultural
87 system might increase generalist predators' search behavior compared to monocultures and
88 therefore increase their spillover between crop patches and consequently (ii) increase their
89 offspring and survival rate, and (iii) the predation capacity of generalist predators by
90 increasing their fitness.

91 The well-known generalist predator, *Harmonia axyridis* Pallas, depends on different types of
92 food sources, namely soft bodied insects such as aphids, their main food source, but also
93 pollen and nectar from flowers (Spellman et al., 2006; Mathews et al., 2016; Wolf et al.,
94 2018; Chen et al. 2019). Within this framework, under laboratory conditions, we targeted the
95 possible direct effects of increasing functional crop diversity, both in space and time, on the
96 population dynamics, the spillover, that we define in this study as the movement of the
97 predator from one cage to another for food search, and the predation performance of *H.*
98 *axyridis*. With regard to our small scale study, we compared a system with only one crop, so
99 called "Monoculture" in this study, to a more diversified one composed by four crops, so
100 called "Polyculture" in this study.

101

102 **Material and methods**

103

104 *Biological Materials*

105 Crop Plants

106 Four different crop plants were tested during the study: tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*, Nano
107 variety), soybean (*Glycine max*, Merrill variety), cotton (*Gossipium hirsutum*, Zongmian 49
108 variety) and squash (*Cucurbita moschata*, Butternut variety). These crop plants were chosen
109 for their complementary functional traits, i.e. flowering periods, nectar and pollen availability

110 (Table S1, Supplementary Material) and plant structure, as well as for their economic
111 importance in the agricultural world (source: FAO Statistic division, FAOSTAT 2018).
112 Tomato and squash plants were 3 weeks old, and soybean and cotton plants were 4 weeks old
113 when they were inserted into the experimental setup. As plants were too young to provide any
114 flowers, artificial nectar was administered on squash and soybean using a mixture of water
115 and honey with 1:4 honey for water (Hogg et al., 2011) applied on a cotton placed around the
116 stem during the entire experimental period. Tomato and cotton plants were not provided with
117 artificial nectar as the tomato plant does not produce nectar accessible to ladybirds whereas
118 cotton produced its own extrafloral nectar (on the mid-rib of the leaves) available for the
119 predator during the experimental period (Röse et al., 2006). All plants were grown under the
120 same conditions in a growth chamber maintained at $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$; LD 15:9; 70 % RH.

121

122 Pests

123 The pests species were selected according to two main criteria: 1) pest type naturally found on
124 the selected crops and 2) the pest best suited to the needs of the natural enemy. Therefore, all
125 the pests were aphids, namely: *Aphis gossypii* Glover on cotton and squash, *Aphis glycines*
126 Matsumura on soybean and *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* Thomas on tomato. The three aphid
127 species were reared under laboratory conditions on their respective host crop plants ($25 \pm$
128 2°C ; LD 15:9; 50 – 70 % RH).

129

130 Predator

131 The predatory ladybird, *Harmonia axyridis* (Pallas), was reared under laboratory conditions
132 and fed, at the same time, on both *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* and *Metopolophium dirhodum* on
133 tomato and wheat plants, respectively. A mixture of 1:4 honey:water solution was added on
134 small tubes in the cages ($25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$; LD 15:9; 50 – 70 % RH). Before starting the experiment,

135 one sexually mature male and one sexually mature female were selected seven days after
136 emerging from the pupae (Pervez and Omkar, 2006). After identifying males and females
137 (McCornack et al., 2007), couples were placed in separate boxes in order to check that eggs
138 were laid. When egg presence confirmed sexual maturity, one male/female couple was
139 introduced into one of the four experimental cages at the beginning of the experiment.
140 Therefore, one pair of male/female couple was present in one four-cage maze system.

141

142 *Experimental design*

143 The experimental system is composed by 4 inter-connected cages by means of mesh tunnels
144 in order to allow the predator spillover. Each cage was linked to six tunnels: two per side (one
145 up and one down) on three sides of the cages. This design facilitated predator spillover from
146 one cage to another (see Fig.1 for pictures and schemes of the experimental design). One plant
147 and its associated pests were placed in one cage following a chronological order.

148 In order to evaluate the impact of crop diversity and associated preys on the predator
149 population and its activity, the following treatments were used: (i) the polyculture system
150 consisting of four crop species, one crop per cages, in the following chronological order: the
151 first plant was introduced into cage 1 on day 1 and cut on day 10; the second was introduced
152 into cage 2 on day 5 and cut on day 15; the third was introduced into cage 3 on day 10 and cut
153 on day 20; and the fourth was introduced into cage 4 on day 15 and cut on day 25 (Fig.1 B);
154 (ii) monoculture systems with only one crop species in the four-cages system. In order to
155 allow the aphids to colonize the plant before being exposed to the predators, 100 aphids were
156 put on each plant 5 days before being introduced into the four-cage system. Simulation of the
157 crop harvest was carried out by cutting one plant every 5 days and pest population was
158 counted after plant cutting.

159 A couple of sexually mature male and female predators was introduced on the first day of the
160 experiment. The plants were physically separated in order to assess the position of the
161 predator individuals, i.e. adults, eggs, nymphs and larvae, at each sampling time throughout
162 the 25 days, which corresponds to the life cycle of the predator from egg to immature adults.
163 While cutting the plants, the predators on plants and cages, in each cage, were counted, thus
164 enabling assessment of predator numbers and spillover.

165 The control consisted of the same experimental system but without predators, which enabled
166 the evaluation of aphid population growth without predators in the tested systems. Each
167 polyculture system was replicated 16 times, with each monoculture replicated 4 times
168 (clustered Monocultures N=16).

169

170 *Variables measured*

171 During the experiment we sampled the number of eggs laid by the female predator, the
172 number of larvae on every stages, the number of pupae and the number of young and old
173 adults every 5 days in the entire four-cage system. The number of aphids was assessed when
174 the plant was introduced in the cage (before exposure to the predator) and when the plant was
175 cut (after exposure to the predator). Here is a short clarification for the example of
176 polyculture: the number of aphids on tomato was assessed at d0 and at d10; on soybean the
177 number of aphids was assessed on d5 and on d15; on cotton the number of aphids was
178 assessed on d10 and on d20; and on squash the number of aphids was assessed on d15 and on
179 d25.

180 In total, 3 variables were measured as a proxy of predator life history traits: (i) the fecundity,
181 which was evaluated by assessing the cumulated number of eggs laid by the female predator,
182 (ii) and two ways of measuring predator survival: the number of larvae, pupae and adults
183 present the last day of the experiment and the survival rate of the predator on an entire

184 experimental period (ratio between the number of young adults on day 25 and the number of
185 laid eggs between day 5 and day 10).

186 The predator capacity to exert an efficient biocontrol on aphids was measured by calculating
187 the aphid population growth rate in the treatments with the predator and the associated
188 treatments without predator (controls). Aphid population growth rate per predator was
189 calculated as follow: the difference in aphid number recorded *after* and *before* exposure to the
190 predator was divided by aphid number recorded *before* this exposure; the value was then
191 divided by the total number of predators (larvae and adults) per four-cage system.

192 Difference in predator performance was assessed by comparing the aphid population growth
193 rate per predator individuals regarding the different treatments except the control where no
194 predators were present; difference of aphid population growth per treatment was assessed by
195 comparing the aphid population growth rate per treatment without the predator, i.e. in the
196 control treatments. The efficacy of biocontrol in each treatment was assessed by comparing
197 the aphid population growth rate with and without predator, each treatment separately.

198 Finally, in order to estimate the spillover of the predators, the presence of female adults, who
199 act as the main drivers of population spread (Evans, 2003), was recorded in each cage on each
200 sampling day (d5, d10, d15, d20, d25) throughout the entire sampling period. An index of
201 spillover was established. The spillover was considered effective when the female adult was
202 found in a cage containing a plant, that is to say: in cage 1 on day 5, in cage 1 or 2 on day 10,
203 in cage 2 or 3 on day 15, in cage 3 or 4 on day 20 and in cage 4 on day 25. If the adult was
204 found in a cage where no plant was present, then the spillover was considered ineffective.

205

206 *Statistical Analysis*

207 Predator life history traits, biocontrol efficiency and spillover were assessed comparing both
208 polyculture and monoculture treatments. The polyculture and monoculture systems were

209 compared following two different approaches: 1) by analysing polyculture (N=16) vs. all
210 monoculture systems clustered (N=16) , i.e. the average of each variable on cotton, tomato,
211 squash and soybean monoculture; and 2) by analysing polyculture vs. separate monocultures
212 (N=4), i.e. the actual results in each monoculture compared to polyculture in order to test the
213 effect of each crop on the predator features.

214 The effect of crop diversity on the cumulated number of eggs laid and on the number of
215 individuals was analyzed with a Generalized Linear Model (GLM) following a Poisson error
216 distribution. The effect of crop diversity on the survival rate was evaluated with a Linear
217 Model (LM) after verification of the Gaussian distribution of the data using a Shapiro test.
218 Tukey's post-hoc analysis (multcomp package [Hothorn et al., 2017]) in order to test
219 respective differences between polyculture and separated monocultures.

220 The effect of crop diversity on the aphid population growth rate per predator as well as the
221 aphid population growth rate in control treatments were evaluated with a LM after verification
222 of the Gaussian distribution of the data using a Shapiro test. A multiple comparison Tukey's
223 post-hoc analysis (multcomp package [Hothorn et al., 2017]) tested the respective differences
224 between polyculture and separate monocultures. Each treatment was compared with its
225 control treatment with a one-way ANOVA followed by a Chi² test.

226 Concerning the spillover, an index of 1 was attributed when the spillover was considered
227 effective, and an index of 0 was attributed when the spillover was considered ineffective. The
228 indexes were analysed in a binomial model as variable to explain called "spillover index",
229 regarding the explanatory variable "treatment". Spillover differences between the treatments
230 were evaluated with a GLM following a Binomial error distribution. Additionally, differences
231 between the presence of female adults per cage and per day were assessed with a GLM
232 following a Binomial error distribution in order to clarify the movement of the individuals
233 within each treatment.

234 Statistical tests were performed with the R 3.5.1 software (R Core Team, 2018).

235

236 **Results**

237 *Predator life history traits*

238 Predator fecundity was given with the cumulated number of eggs laid on an entire
239 experimental period, i.e. 25 days. On tomato, soybean and squash monoculture, the number of
240 eggs was always superior to 25. On the other hand, in polyculture and on cotton monoculture,
241 the number of eggs laid in an entire period varied from 0 to more than 200 showing the
242 potential unsuitability of cotton for the predator fecundity. The cumulated number of eggs laid
243 by the predator was similar in both treatments when polycultural systems were compared to
244 the clustered monoculture systems (Fig. 2 A; χ^2_1 : 2.893, $P = 0.088$). However, when
245 comparing the polycultural treatment to separate monocultures, the total cumulated number of
246 eggs laid during the entire experiment was significantly higher in the squash monoculture
247 compared to the others and the cumulated number of eggs laid was significantly lower in
248 cotton monoculture (Fig. 2 B; χ^2_4 : 2473, $P < 0.001$). The polyculture, the tomato monoculture
249 and the soybean monoculture showed a similar intermediate number of cumulated eggs laid
250 (Fig. 2 B).

251 In terms of survival, the number of individuals present the last day of the experiment
252 was first evaluated. Except in squash monoculture, in all other treatments the number of
253 individuals present the last day of the experiment varied from 0 to 31 showing the high
254 variability in crop suitability for predator survival. The number of individuals present in the
255 polycultural system on the last day of the experimental period was similar to the one in the
256 clustered monocultures (Fig. 3 A; χ^2_1 : 2.42, $P = 0.119$). However, when comparing polyculture
257 to the separate monocultures, the squash monoculture showed a significantly higher number
258 of individuals than the other treatments (Fig. 3 B; χ^2_4 : 272.54, $P < 0.001$). The polyculture had

259 an intermediate number of individuals, followed by the tomato monoculture, the soybean and
260 last of all, the cotton monoculture, which had a significantly lower number of individuals than
261 the other treatments (Fig. 3 B; all $P < 0.001$).

262 The other metric used to evaluate predator survival was the survival rate which, as
263 reminder, is ratio between the number of young adults on day 25 and the number of laid eggs
264 between day 5 and day 10. Similarly to the results showing the number of individuals present
265 the last day of the experiment, except in squash which show a survival rate varying between
266 6.5 and 16, the survival rate varied in other treatments between 0 (no survival at all) and 15.
267 The survival rate in cotton was the lowest with no survival at all. The survival rates of
268 predators in the polyculture and the clustered monocultures were similar (Fig. 4 A; $F_{1,34}$:
269 2.468, $P = 0.125$). However, when polyculture was compared to separate monocultures, there
270 was a significantly higher survival rate in squash monoculture (Fig. 4 B; $F_{4,31}$: 7.459,
271 $P < 0.001$). The survival rate of predators was significantly lower in polyculture, as well as in
272 soybean and cotton monocultures. The tomato monoculture rated second highest with high
273 variability, but no differences between the squash monoculture and the other treatments were
274 observed (Fig. 4 B).

275

276 *Spillover*

277 The spillover was evaluated by means of an index of movement (sp-index). The index was
278 equal to 1 when the predator was found in a cage with a plant, and an index of 0 was given
279 when it was found in a cage without plant, or in the corridor.

280 The spillover index was not significantly different when polyculture was compared to
281 clustered monocultures, and the index revealed that the predator was present equally both in
282 cages with plants and in cages without plants (Fig 5 A; χ^2_1 : 0.42, $P = 0.51$). When
283 monocultures were compared separately to polyculture, the index of spillover was

284 significantly different between the treatments (Fig. 5 B; χ^2_4 : 14.7, P=0.005). The presence of
285 the female predator in cages with plants in cotton monoculture was very low (mean sp-index:
286 0.2); on the other hand, in squash the female predator strongly followed the presence of plant
287 in the cage (mean sp-index: 0.7). The female predator was equally present in both cages with
288 and without plant in the polyculture treatment (mean sp-index: 0.5) with however no
289 differences in spillover with the other treatments. More data about the female predator
290 spillover within each treatment in each cage and on each sampling date has been given in the
291 Supplementary figures (Fig. S1 for polyculture and Fig. S2 for monocultures). Discussion of
292 differences in the behavior of the female predators has been provided hereunder.

293

294 *Predation activity*

295 Aphid population growth rate was calculated as a proxy of predation activity. The higher the
296 growth is, the less efficient was the predation. When each treatment with predator was
297 compared to its control without predator, the analysis showed in each case a significant
298 reduction in the aphid population growth when the predator was present, implying that aphid
299 control was effective in each treatment (Fig. 6; all P<0.001).

300 When the different treatments were compared in the presence of the predators, polyculture
301 and clustered monocultures showed a similar aphid population growth rate per predator
302 individuals ($F_{1,158}$: 0.63, P=0.42). However, when polyculture was compared to separate
303 monocultures, significant differences between treatments were noted (Fig. 6; $F_{4,155}$: 7.07,
304 P<0.001). The lower aphid population growth rates were observed in soybean monoculture,
305 followed by cotton monoculture and polyculture then tomato and squash monocultures,
306 showing therefore a higher control efficacy by the predators in these treatments.
307 Finally, when aphid population growth rate was assessed per treatment in the controls, aphid
308 population growth rate was significantly more important in squash monoculture compared to

309 the other treatments. On the other hand, the aphid population growth rate was significantly
310 lower in cotton monoculture but not different from the one in tomato monoculture and
311 polyculture (Fig. 5; $F_{4,155}$: 10.5, $P < 0.001$).

312

313 **Discussion**

314 Crop diversification in space and time is likely to increase natural enemies'
315 reproduction rates, survival and/or predation efficiency. In our experiment, results showed
316 that in terms of population dynamics, the squash monoculture was systematically and
317 significantly better for predator development, showing significantly higher numbers of
318 cumulated number of eggs laid by the predator, higher numbers of predator individuals
319 present on the last day of experiment and higher predator survival rates. Soybean and cotton
320 monocultures showed significantly lower performance for these three variables and
321 polyculture and tomato monoculture were almost similar. Predation performance, evaluated
322 through the aphid population growth rate in the presence and in the absence of the predator,
323 showed that predation was significantly higher in the presence of the predator. However,
324 when treatments were compared, predation was significantly higher in cotton and soybean
325 monocultures followed by polyculture whereas the lowest predation was found in tomato and
326 squash monocultures. Spillover of female predators was found to be significantly higher in
327 squash monoculture and significantly lower in cotton monoculture, while spillover in
328 polyculture, tomato and soybean monocultures was similar but was not different from the one
329 in squash monoculture or in cotton monoculture.

330 When assessing predator population dynamics, the predation efficiency and the
331 spillover, our results suggest that polyculture is a result of the average effects of the clustered
332 monocultures. The differences in performance of the predator in the various treatments
333 considered may be explained by two main phenomena: firstly, the indirect effect of the plant

334 modulating aphid nutritional value, and secondly prey availability to the predator (Kagata et
335 al., 2005; Mooney et al., 2012).

336 As the number of aphids was higher in squash, as shown in the control treatment, the
337 female predator may tend to lay more eggs on that plant (Koch, 2003) as it gives more food
338 resources for the predator population to grow than the other treatments. Consequently, the
339 number of eggs laid (Evans and Dixon, 1986) and predator survival are higher on this crop. A
340 previous study showed that the presence of aphids boosts mating by olfactory and visual
341 stimulation of the adult ladybirds (Obata, 1997). In the squash monoculture, the aphids were
342 strongly aggregated on the leaves because the plants were adapted to their development. In so
343 doing, ladybird larvae were able to search for their food intensively and easily find the
344 aggregated aphids on the leaves. Therefore, this increased their chances in reaching the
345 different development stages. However, the increased aphid population growth might have
346 reduced the predation efficacy of the predator in comparison to the predation observed in
347 cotton and soybean. Indeed, predators, unlike parasitoids, are limited by their satiation state
348 (Symondson et al., 2002). The high number of aphids might not have been compensated by
349 the number of predators too low to reduce the aphid population.

350 The reduced number of aphids in cotton relative to squash may have diminished the
351 reproductive stimulation of the predator (Obata, 1997) and therefore reduced the number of
352 eggs laid. In cotton monoculture the number of predator was sufficient to drastically reduce
353 the number of aphids, which developed less efficiently on this last crop, and lead to increased
354 predation efficiency. However, the nutritional value of the aphids developing on the cotton
355 plant was not adapted for predator survival. Indeed, on the cotton plant, we observed that the
356 aphids developed a small morph called the “dwarf morph” (Watt and Hales, 1996) which can
357 be produced by the aphid population due to the presence of natural enemies (Mondor et al.,
358 2004). This morph develops at a lower rate than other morphs (Watt and Hales, 1996) which

359 explains the lower population growth in the control treatment. Interestingly, the same aphid
360 species was used on squash and cotton crops, *Aphis gossypii*, but developed very differently
361 on different crops. The direct influence of the crops on the aphid development underlined the
362 indirect effect of crops on predator population development.

363 The aphid population growth in soybean was relatively high and associated control of
364 aphids in the presence of the predator was also high. However, the predator population
365 survival rate on soybean monoculture was low, showing that despite the high nutritional
366 intake from predation on aphid, the ladybird larvae hardly reach the adult stage. This might be
367 explained by one particular phenomenon that was observed during the experimental period.
368 The eggs in soybean monoculture were systematically laid on the cages and not on the plant,
369 which differed from the other treatments where eggs were laid both on cages and plants. This
370 phenomenon could explain how difficult it was for the small larvae hatching on the cage to
371 find food quickly enough to survive as the soybean plant at the plant's early stage of
372 development was thin and barely touching the cage. Added to this fact, the thin branches of
373 the soybean plant and its leaf softness might have reduced the capacity of the female ladybird
374 to lay eggs on it. In the case of tomato and squash, which are wider than cotton or soybean
375 plants and therefore touching the cage with their leaves, when eggs were laid on the cages,
376 larvae were more likely to find the plant (Kareiva and Perry, 1989).

377 It is interesting to note that the aphid population growth rate was in average kept under
378 zero in polyculture treatment, showing a good control of the aphid population. In agricultural
379 systems based on biological control, it is important to keep a certain amount of pests in order
380 to feed the natural enemies (Schellhorn et al., 2015). Monocultures, like the squash one in our
381 experiment, might increase the presence of pests as this crop is suitable for their development.
382 On one hand, the continuous predator satiation in monoculture of squash has allowed the
383 predator population to grow and show higher life history traits performance than in other

384 treatments but did not ensure a higher control of aphid populations. On the other hand, the
385 polycultural system has allowed the predator to develop thanks to the presence of beneficial
386 crops like tomato and squash, and at the same time has allowed a better control of aphids
387 population than in these last two monocultures, thanks to the presence of less beneficial crops
388 for pests development, namely soybean and cotton in the framework of our experiment.
389 Defense mechanism of aphids and plant architecture are other mechanisms influencing the
390 capacity of the predator to get some nutritional intake from their preys (Omkar and Sahu,
391 2009). These are other variables that will be interesting to measure in the future in the
392 framework of a similar experimental protocol.

393 The spillover of the predator was influenced by the systems we exposed it to. When
394 measuring the spillover as defined by the presence of the female predator in cages where
395 plants were, a higher spillover in squash monoculture was shown, with almost 70% of the
396 females transferring to the new cage containing food sources. Transfers were also high on
397 tomato with more than a 60% transfer and in polyculture with a 50% transfer. The reduced
398 nutritional value of the aphids developing on the cotton crop as well as the low aphid
399 population development rate might have reduced the presence of the female predator in the
400 cages with cotton which was looking for other food sources. This has been confirmed by the
401 assessment of females present in each cage and at each sampling time where no differences
402 among the cages were observed throughout the whole experiment in cotton crops. However,
403 in squash monoculture, the female adhered more accurately to the presence of plants in space
404 and time, which can be explained by the attractiveness of the crop due to the increased
405 presence of aphids. Interestingly, the effect of the plant was different on soybean compare to
406 squash monoculture. Indeed, even if the aphids were developing well on soybean, biocontrol
407 was still high in soybean monoculture compare to the one in squash. As in cotton
408 monoculture, it is possible that the female, after eating most of the aphids, resulting in a low

409 aphid population growth, might have look for some other source of food in the other cages.
410 However, as no paper reported that *Aphis glycines* were of low nutritional value for the
411 ladybird *Harmonia axyridis*, the hypothesis considering the lack of accessibility of the aphid
412 resource for the larvae is the most suitable one to explain the low development of the predator
413 on this monoculture.

414 The behavior of the female predator in polyculture was different from the one in
415 monocultures. In the polyculture, the female predator was present in almost every cage, with a
416 preference for the cage containing food sources. This may be due to the presence of different
417 blends in different cages resulting from plant emissions as well as various aphid species.
418 These factors induce the production of Herbivore Induced Plant Volatiles (HIPVs) (Xiu et al.,
419 2019). Honeydew odors might also be cues for food location by *H. axyridis* (Obata, 1997;
420 Evans, 2003; Leroy et al., 2012). The presence of the female predator in other cages than the
421 one with food sources were lower in the monoculture treatments and might be due to reduced
422 olfactory stimulation.

423 The present study assessing the performance of the *H. axyridis* ladybird and its
424 spillover in a system offering varied food sources in space and time shows that predator
425 efficiency is highly dependent on the plant because of indirect effect on the prey, i.e. the
426 suitability of plant for prey development and its potential to feed the predator. Other indirect
427 effects associated to plant location for efficient food intake by the predator might also have
428 influenced the predator survival rate. The presence of multiple food source types present in
429 the polycultural system tested might have stimulated the foraging activity of the ladybird.
430 This resulted in an efficient predation activity, but with no more transfers than in simplified
431 systems with plants adapted to the predator survival. Monocultures have been shown to be
432 either very suitable for the predator development, i.e. in the case of squash and tomato
433 monocultures, or increasing the predation capacity, i.e. in the case of cotton and soybean. In

434 farming practices, increasing crop functional diversity might have a beneficial effect on
435 natural biological control by the predatory ladybird only if plants suitable for predator
436 development are present in the crop succession. The presence of plants beneficial for *H.*
437 *axyridis* development, as it was the case in our study for squash, could be cultivated during
438 the same period as a crop less beneficial for the ladybird development where however an
439 efficient biocontrol could be exerted. The positive effect of the first crop could induce a
440 predator population increase, which would therefore spill over into the adjacent field thanks to
441 volatile attractiveness and provide efficient biological control for the second crop. The
442 maintenance of such crop layouts would have to be ongoing in space and time in order to
443 stabilize the natural enemy population and increase the efficiency of biocontrol (Schellhorn et
444 al., 2015; Vasseur et al., 2013).

445

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648

649 **Figures legends**

650 Figure 1. Picture of the experimental design on the top and in front with the four cages of the
651 system as well as the tunnels visible (A), and schematic explanation of the system plant
652 succession in space and time, where the introduction of predators and pests are represented by
653 a logo corresponding to each species, and where C1 = cage of the system where the first plant
654 + aphids are introduced as well as the male/female predator couple, C2 = cage of the system
655 where the second plant + aphid are introduced, C3 = cage of the system where the third plant +
656 aphids are introduced, and C4 = cage of the system where the fourth plant + aphids are
657 introduced (B). Each polycultural system was replicated 16 times, with each monoculture
658 replicated 4 times.

659 Figure 2. Boxplots of the cumulated number of eggs laid during the entire experimental period
660 (25 days) in the polyculture treatment (N=16) compared to clustered monocultures (N=16) (A)
661 and compared to separate monocultures (N=4 for each crop) (B). The different letters indicate
662 significant differences in the number of eggs laid ($p < 0.001$, GLM with Tukey's post-hoc
663 analysis).

664 Figure 3. Boxplots of the number of individuals (larvae, pupae and adults) present the last day
665 of the experiment in the polyculture treatment (N=16) compared to clustered monocultures
666 (N=16) (A) and compared to separate monocultures (N=4 for each crop) (B). The different
667 letters indicate significant differences in the number of individuals ($p < 0.001$, GLM with
668 Tukey's post-hoc analysis).

669 Figure 4. Boxplots of the survival rates of the predator population on an entire experimental
670 period in the polyculture treatment (N=16) compared to clustered monocultures (N=16) (A) and
671 compared to separate monocultures (N=4 for each crop) (B). The different letters indicate

672 significant differences in the number survival rates ($p < 0.001$, LM with Tukey's post-hoc
673 analysis).

674 Figure 5. Bar plots of the female predator spillover index in polyculture ($N=16$) compared to
675 clustered monocultures ($N=16$) (A) and compared to separate monocultures ($N=4$ for each crop)
676 (B). The different letters indicate significant differences in the number of individuals ($p < 0.001$,
677 GLM with Tukey's post-hoc analysis).

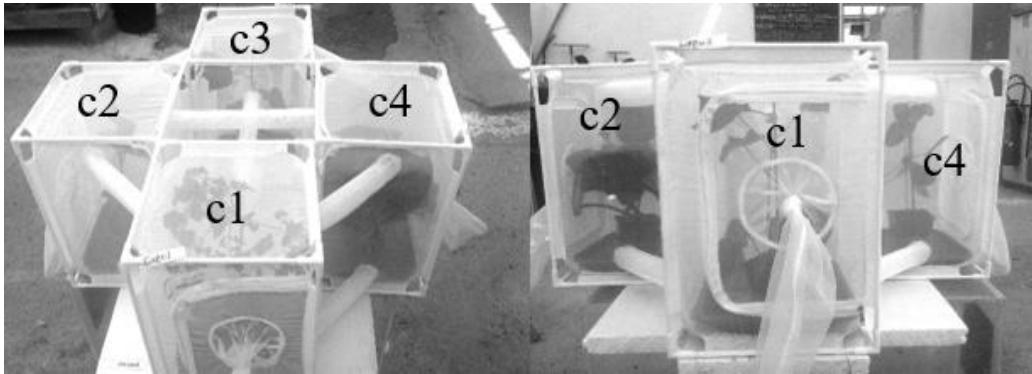
678 Figure 6. Boxplots of the aphid population growth rate in the polyculture treatment ($N=16$)
679 compared to separate monocultures ($N=4$ for each crop). The aphid population growth rate per
680 predator individuals (adults and larvae) is represented in solid color, and aphid population
681 growth rate in control treatment, i.e. without predator, is represented in spotted color. The
682 different letters indicate significant differences in the aphid population growth rate with the
683 predator in normal character ($p < 0.001$, LM with Tukey's post-hoc analysis), without the
684 predator in italic character ($p < 0.001$, LM with Tukey's post-hoc analysis). The stars indicate
685 significant differences in the aphid population growth rate between one treatment and its control
686 (*** $p < 0.001$, one-way ANOVA with χ^2 post-hoc analysis).

687

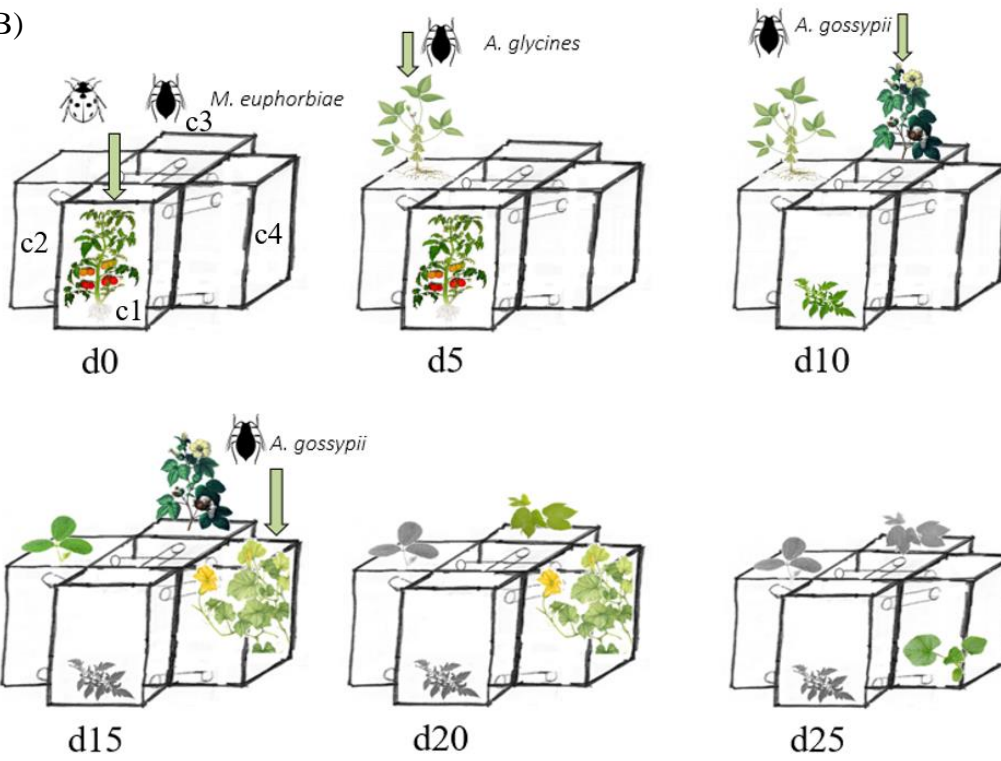
688 **Figures**

689 Figure 1.

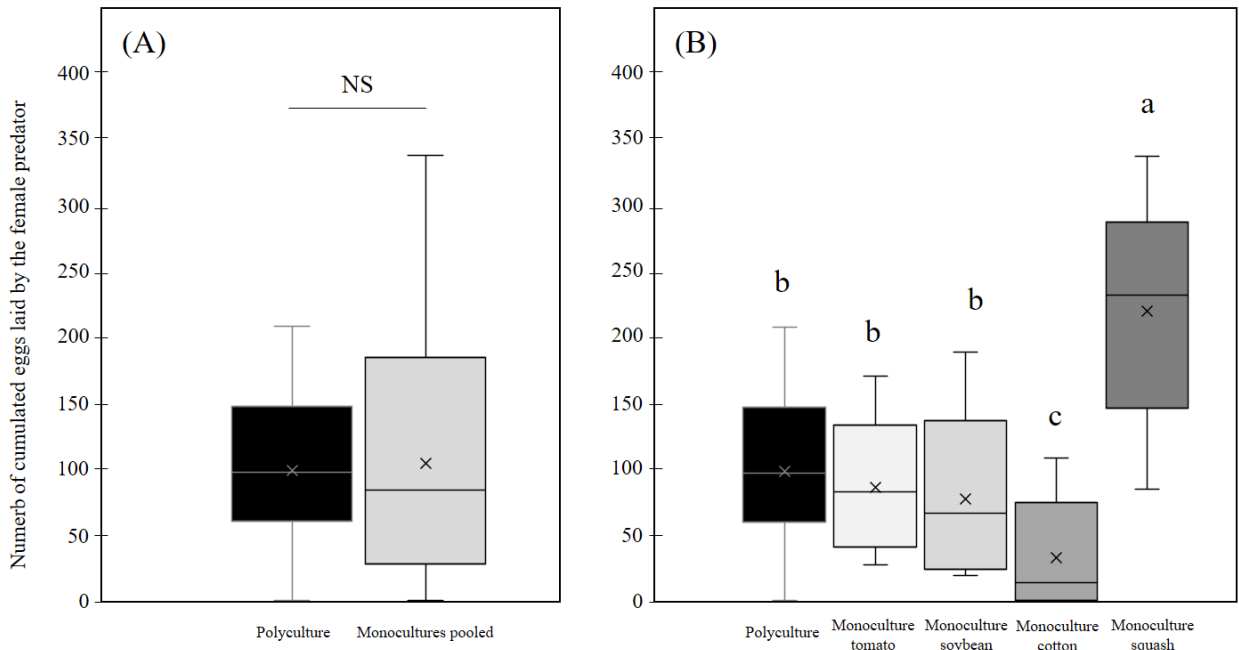
(A)



(B)

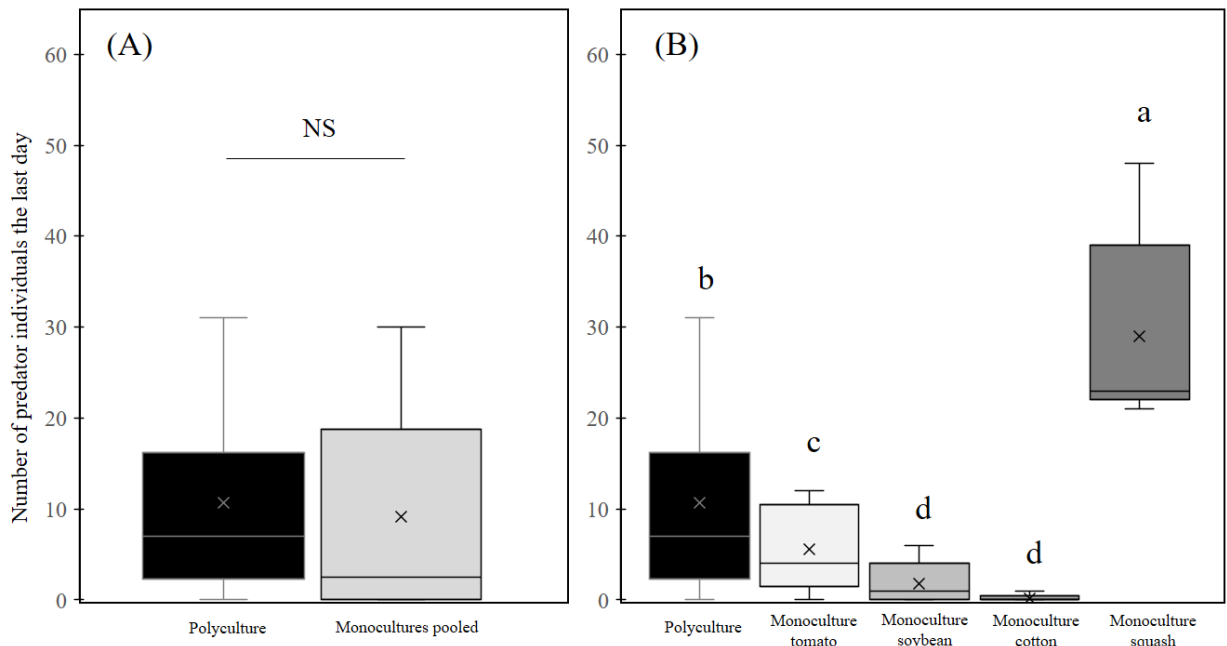


696 Figure 2.



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698 Figure 3.

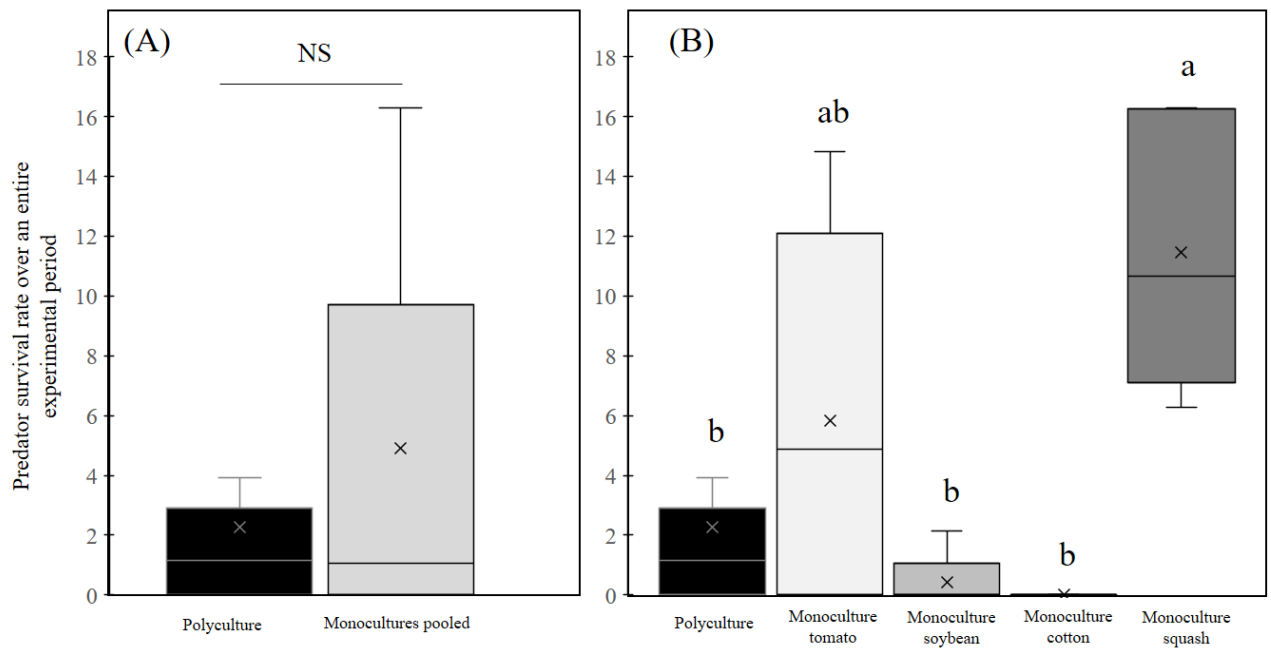


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702 Figure 4.

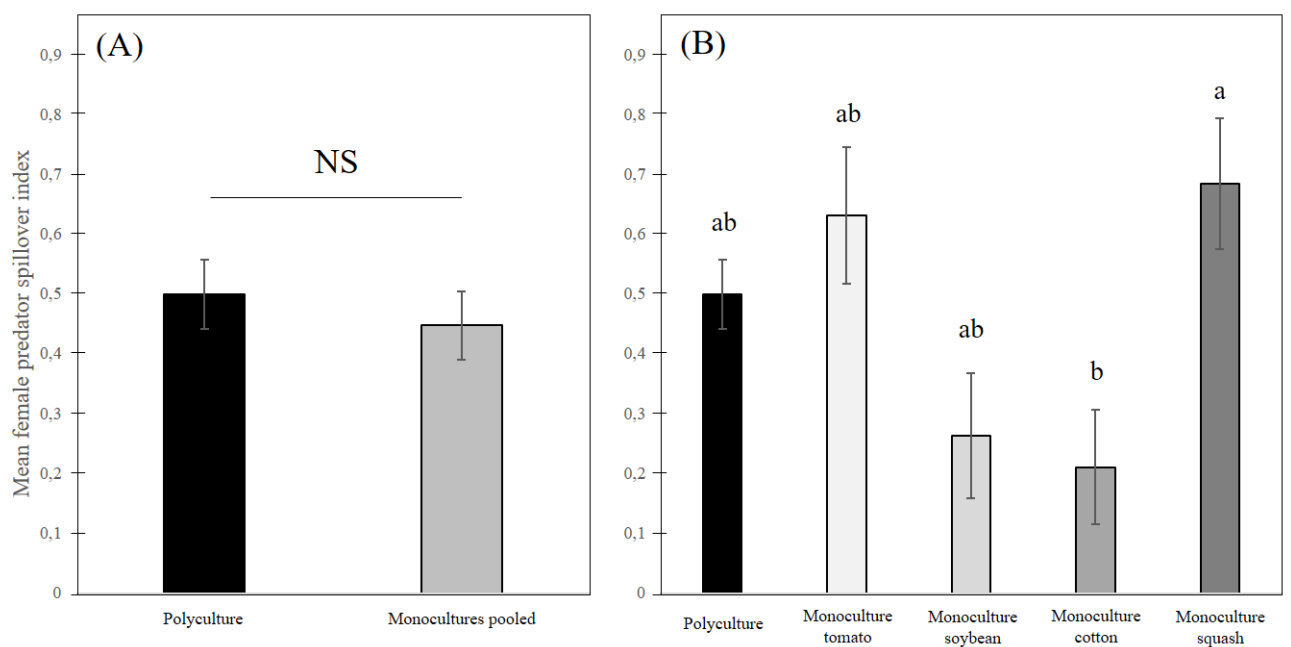


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704 Figure 5.

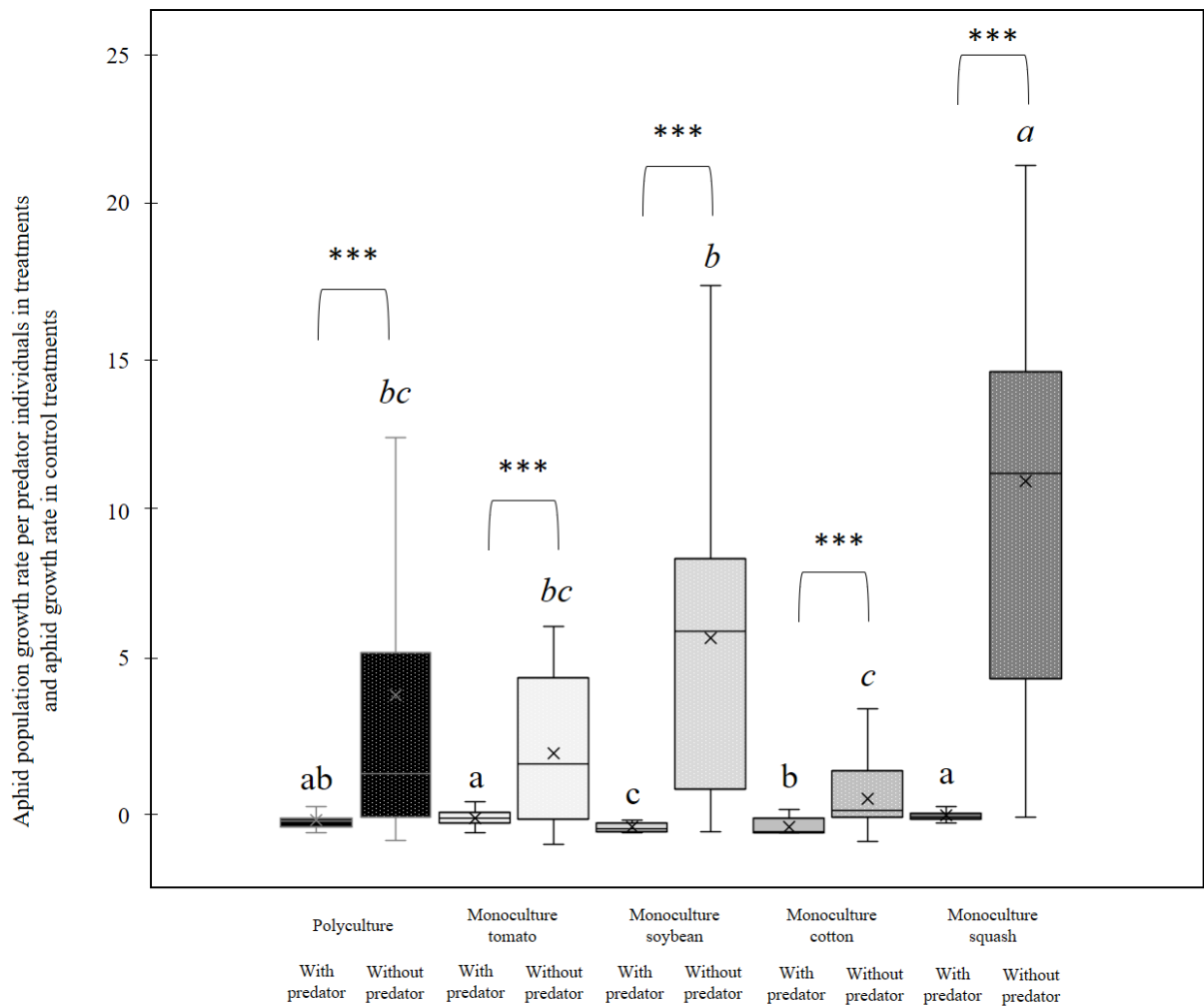
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708 Figure 6.



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