

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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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.

25

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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
39 establishment of interventions in an agroecosystem that promote the regulation of pests by
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
47 agricultural systems and landscapes has created both the perfect environment for crop growth and
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
50 which support wider biodiversity, thereby suppressing natural pest control (Altieri, 1999; Woltz et
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
53 as a trophic resource, i.e., facilitating the natural provision of pest regulation services (Power, 2010;
54 Zhang et al., 2007). CBC is differentiated from other forms of biological control in that it aims to

55 promote natural enemies that already occur in the local environment rather than the introduction of
56 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
66 insecticides and likely to suffer non-target effects (Devine and Furlong, 2007), which would reduce
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).

83

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:

86

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).

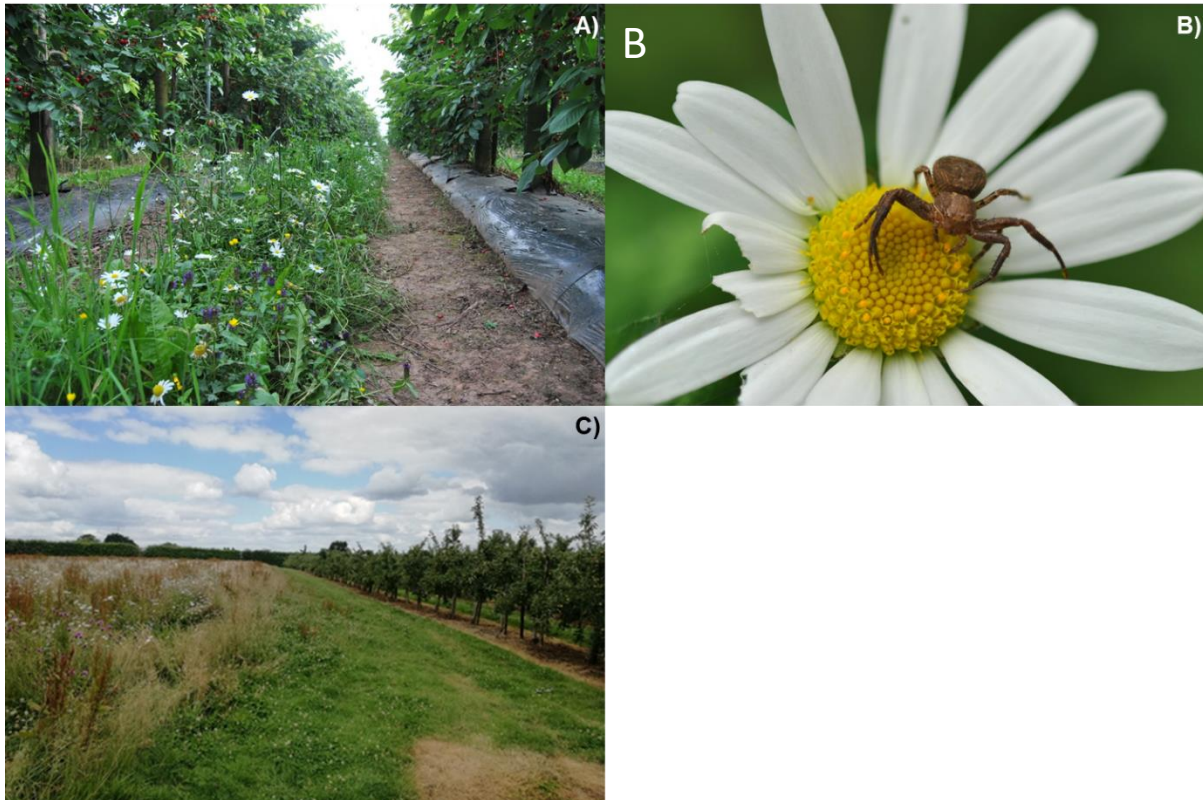
96

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 Tschardt et al., 2016; Tschardt 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).

111



112

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
 115 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
 119 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
 124 is strong evidence to suggest that uptake of CBC and other forms of ecological intensification is not
 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
 128 horticultural IPM?

129

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
132 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
134 that the scope of CBC research to date is too limited, lacking detailed consideration of economic
135 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.

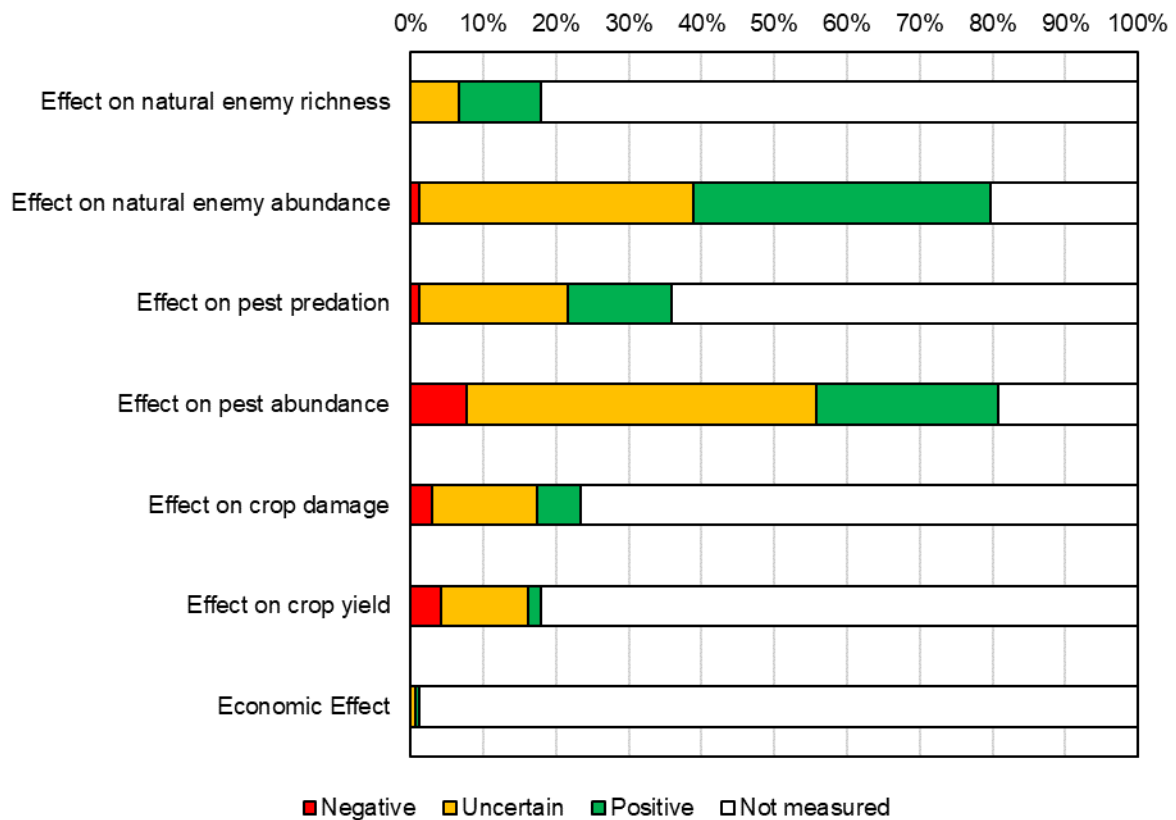
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138 To better understand whether the findings of the Johnson et al (2021) study were also
139 representative for horticultural production we used their published database, but removed all non-
140 horticultural crops and re-ran their analysis following the same methods, which investigated the
141 metrics measured and success of CBC studies. This resulted in a subset of 100 papers and 167
142 experiments, which were dominated by studies of Brassica (22%), apple (22%) and grape (11%). No
143 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

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

153



154

155 Figure 2. The percentage of positive, negative, uncertain and unmeasured outcomes for different
 156 metrics measured to monitor the effects of conservation biological control amendments in 100 field
 157 trial studies (including a total of 167 separate experiments) of horticultural crops. Based on a dataset
 158 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
 168 number of studies but that there may be other factors that contribute.

169

170 Thus, these results pose two clear questions that researchers in the field must investigate in an
171 attempt to enhance both the efficacy and uptake of CBC in commercial horticulture:

- 172 1. The benefits of CBC on response metrics appear to be varied and uncertain, which factors
173 could be the primary causes of this variation?
- 174 2. Given the low number of studies looking at the impacts of CBC measures on the crops
175 themselves, are researchers measuring the appropriate metrics to promote the uptake of
176 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
180 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
185 al., 2016; Schellhorn and Sork, 1997; Tschardt 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
189 (McKerchar et al., 2020), intra guild predation (Finke and Denno, 2003; Müller and Brodeur, 2002),
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
193 provide supplemental food resources, nesting locations, and/or overwintering sites, supporting
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.

198

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 (Tscharrntke
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
211 improve pest control in apple orchards (Campbell et al., 2017). Similarly companion cropping
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

216 Landscape context surrounding crops in terms of the cover of non-cropped land (Chaplin-Kramer et
217 al., 2011; Dainese et al., 2019; Rusch et al., 2016b), and the arrangement and distribution of these
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

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

232 were established next to Kale fields in New Zealand, parasitism rates were enhanced, the abundance
233 of pests reduced and crop yield increased in fields in moderately simple landscapes, but not in those
234 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

258 Another temporal consideration when establishing habitat management approaches to increase
259 populations of locally abundant natural enemies is that interventions such as wildflower strips can
260 take time to establish and deliver benefits. It can take several generations for local populations of
261 beneficial organisms to respond with an increase in local abundance. A classic example concerns not
262 insect natural enemies but insect pollinators, where it has been shown that it takes several seasons
263 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

281 Successfully implementing CBC using habitat management, either through the protection of non-
282 cropped areas or the establishment of new resource rich habitats, is knowledge intensive in terms of
283 knowing which approaches will work and where. Importantly, it requires a specific recognition of the
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).

294

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
311 lack an assessment of the intervention costs, and almost all are based on simple 'before vs after'
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

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

327

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

335 **2.** *Calculate costs of CBC management:* Ideally these costs should be based on actual
336 management costs experienced in situ over the lifespan of the intervention. However, if this
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
341 handbooks (e.g. Redman (2020)) can provide this information, but direct discussion with
342 land owners is preferable. **(Critical)**

343 **3.** *Record counts of pests and predators:* If it is possible, ecological surveys of the abundance
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)**

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

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

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

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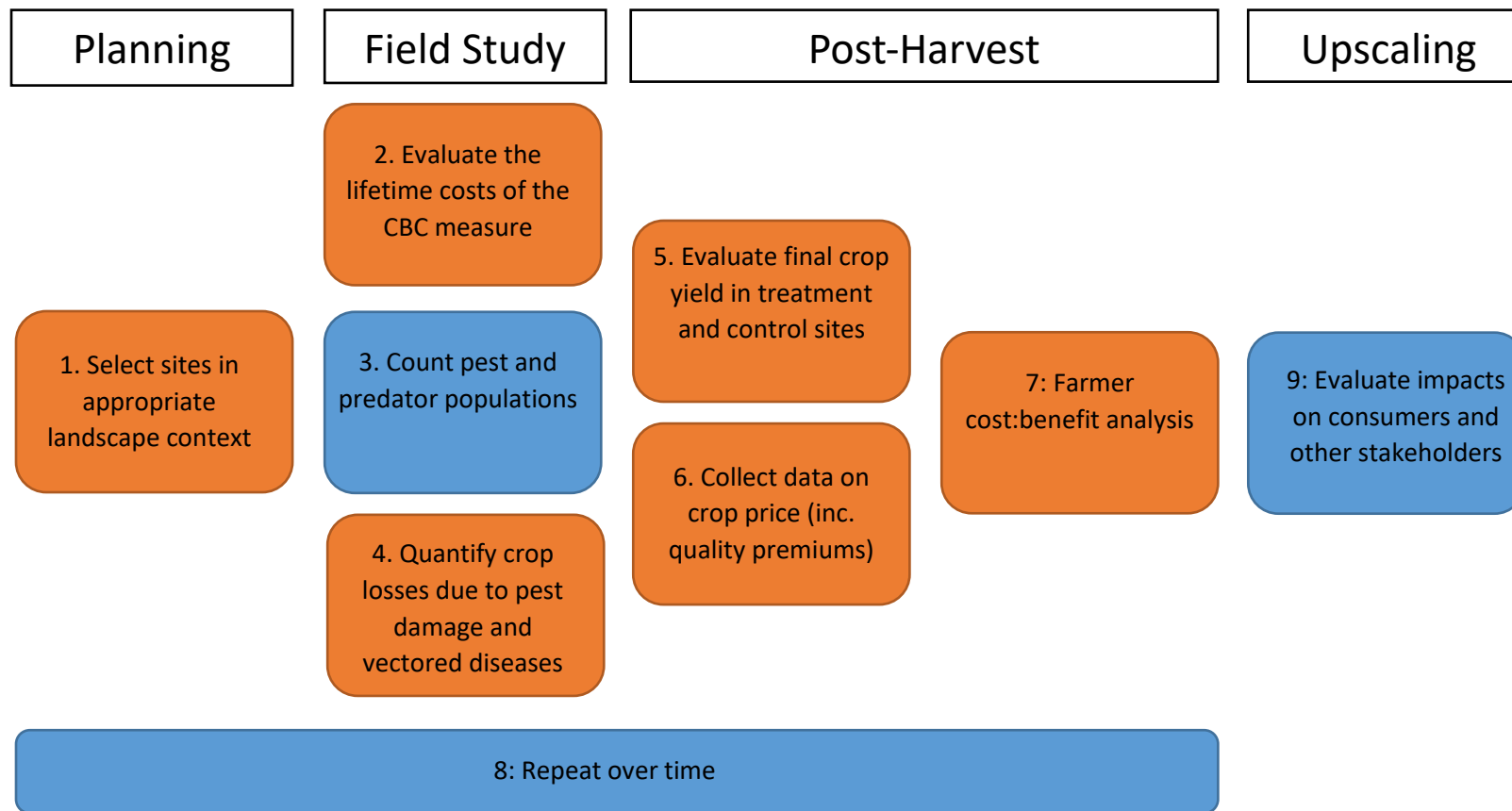


Figure 3. Process diagram for assessing economic benefits of CBC. Cells in orange are critical, while cells in blue are recommended but optional.

402

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

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

431 One area where there are clear synergies concerns management approaches to increase populations
432 of 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)
452 benefiting multiple soil physical, chemical and biological properties (Busari et al., 2015). Particularly
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

464 The application of CBC as a component of an IPM approach, is met with a range of challenges that
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
469 inclusion of CBC in commercial practice. These case studies highlight the application of CBC in an
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 they 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.

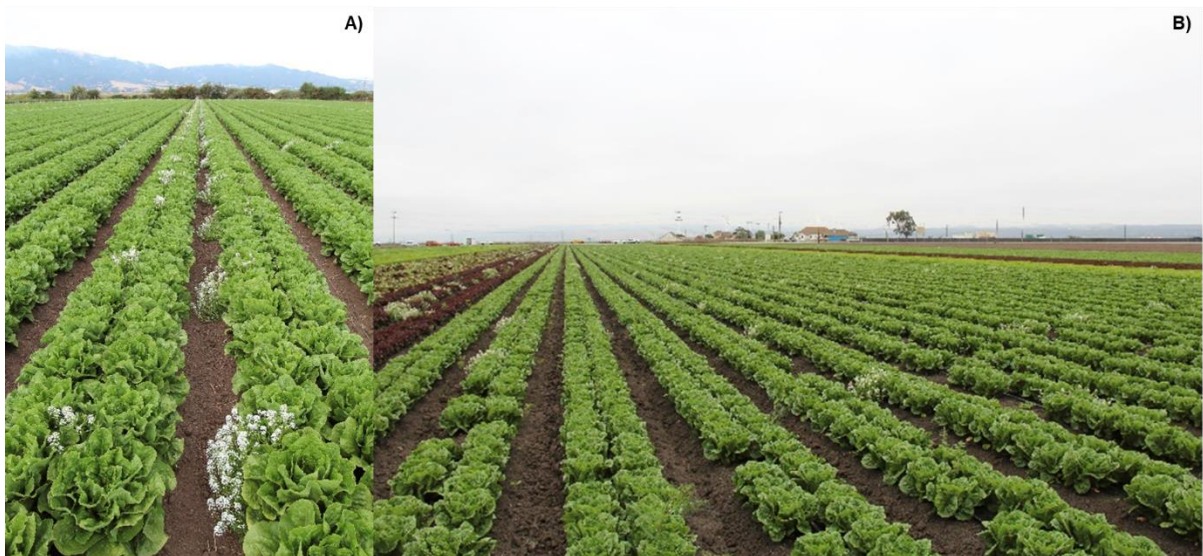
483 Conventional horticultural production systems have commonly relied upon insecticides to control
484 aphid populations, however their fast rate of increase has meant the development of insecticide
485 resistance in multiple aphid species (Foster et al., 2017). Furthermore, the effectiveness of using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

489 Organic production has promoted the development of a variety of alternative approaches to pest
490 control, including CBC, although for many of these pest management strategies there is a paucity of
491 rigorous scientific evidence to substantiate their benefits (Zehnder et al., 2007). However, one case
492 study in which the benefits of an organic pest management strategy has been successfully quantified
493 is the application of CBC to control aphid populations in lettuce production on the central coast of
494 California (Brennan, 2013). The predominant aphid pest in lettuce production in central California is

495 the currant-lettuce aphid, *Nasonovia ribisnigri* Mosley (Smith et al., 2008). Controlling this aphid
496 species in lettuce production can be challenging because it aggregates and feed upon the interior
497 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).

509



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).

551

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.

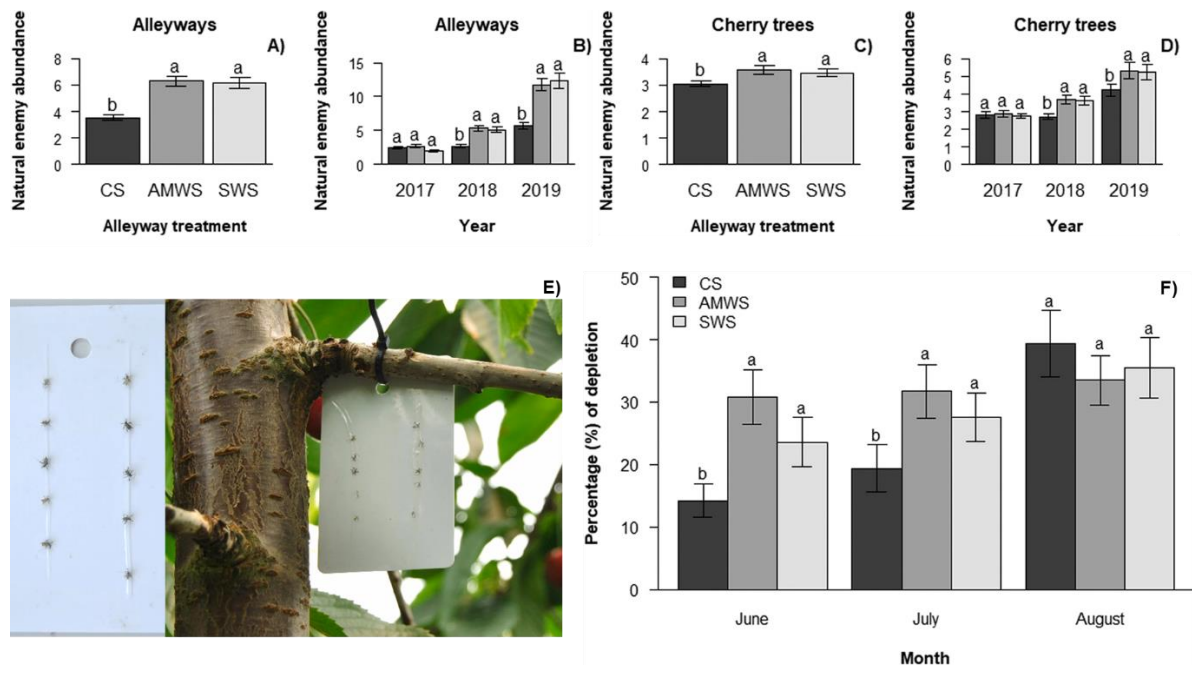
559 As demonstrated in section 1, the introduction of wildflower habitats can increase both the
560 abundance of natural enemies and the pest regulation services they provide, including in apples
561 (Campbell et al., 2017; McKerchar et al., 2020) and blueberry (Blaauw and Isaacs, 2014). However,
562 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.

567 Effective CBC tools are needed in such intensive systems if they are to become less reliant on high
568 inputs of pesticide, particularly in the face of increasing limitations due to changing legislation (e.g.
569 thiacloprid for aphid control) (Daniel and Grunder, 2012). These CBC tools need to be compatible with
570 grower operations, suitable in protected cropping systems, and deliver benefits that are important to
571 growers, thus co-development with growers is essential (Cullen et al., 2008; Kleijn et al., 2019; Simon
572 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.,
579 2018), achieving good coverage of a variety of sown flower species (Figure 1 A). Growers were engaged
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
 583 abundance in cherry trees by ~15% compared to the standard alleyway management, although
 584 importantly benefits were only seen from year two of study (Figure 5 A-D) (Mateos-Fierro et al., 2021).
 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
 589 20cm. Furthermore, these differences in natural enemy abundance and predation rates between
 590 wildflower and control treatments were detected despite the continued use of pesticides by growers.

592



593

594 Figure 5. Mean of natural enemy abundance (\pm SE) recorded throughout the three-year study
 595 according to A) and C) alleyway treatment, and B) and D) year, and the effect of alleyway treatment
 596 in either the alleyways or the cherry trees. E) Shows bait cards with ten dead aphids glued to the
 597 surface to assess predation rate. F) Mean percentage (\pm SE) of *Acyrtosiphon pisum* aphids (dead)
 598 depleted from bait cards. The same superscript letters indicate no significant difference (Tukey test, P
 599 > 0.05). CS (Control Strips). AMWS (Actively Managed Wildflower Strips), SWS (Standard Wildflower
 600 Strips) (adapted from Mateos-Fierro et al., 2021).

601

602 This study demonstrated that even in intensive production systems habitat creation for CBC can be
603 effective. Engaging with growers during the development of the CBC amendments aimed to encourage
604 greater uptake of successful measures into commercial production. As with supporting CBC in any
605 production system, identifying the link between ecosystem services and the factors that farmers view
606 as most important may positively influence communication and potential of adoption (Bardenhagen
607 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

629 We propose that in order to improve uptake of CBC measures, future studies could make use of the
630 framework we set out in our simple best practice guideline (Figure 3), which will assist researchers in
631 assessing the economic costs and benefits of CBC interventions. It is critical that, moving forwards, a
632 clearer economic understanding is developed for all proposed CBC interventions. This is particularly
633 important given the understandably risk averse nature of many farmers, especially with respect to

634 making major system changes. In order to achieve wider uptake, particularly in the light of the many
635 inconsistent studies to date, which in itself is likely to result in farmers questioning the effectiveness
636 of such measures, it is important that evidence of strong and clear economic incentives of system
637 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
644 other benefits that CBC practices can deliver, including reduced negative environmental impacts,
645 improved soil health and positive effects on the rural aesthetic. These multiple benefits should be
646 taken into consideration when deciding whether to implement CBC actions, particularly when
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

652 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.
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 671 & Gurr, G. M. (2019), 'History, current situation and challenges for conservation
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673 Key research 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-Projects/centre-for-biological-control-abc>)
- 677 - FAO Agroecology (<http://www.fao.org/agroecology>)
- 678 - FiBL (<https://www.fibl.org/en/index.html>)
- 679

680

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