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- 1 **Can the ladybird predator *Scymnus nubilus* contribute to control of**
- 2 **the aphid *Aphis frangulae*, a pest threatening the Macaronesia endemic**
- 3 ***Frangula azorica*?**
- 4

5 **Abstract**

6 *Aphis frangulae* (Hemiptera: Aphididae) is a major pest of the laurel forest endemic
7 *Frangula azorica* (Rosales: Rhamnaceae) produced in nursery conditions by the Forestry
8 Services of the Azores (Portugal). The suitability of *A. frangulae* for the development and
9 reproduction of a potential biological control agent, *Scymnus nubilus* (Coleoptera:
10 Coccinellidae), was assessed under laboratory conditions ($25\pm 1^\circ$ C, $75\pm 5\%$ relative
11 humidity, 16L:8D light regime). The predation potential of *S. nubilus* was also assessed.
12 *Scymnus nubilus* 4th instar larvae and pupae successfully completed development in
13 9.0 ± 0.2 days. The 4th instar larvae ate 15.1 aphids per day, corresponding to 1.52 mg of
14 biomass ingested. On *A. frangulae*, *S. nubilus* females took 5.5 ± 0.3 days to start
15 oviposition and an average of 135 ± 12 eggs were laid per female over the first 15 days of
16 oviposition. Field tests showed that *S. nubilus* 4th instar larvae were more efficient in
17 controlling the pest in closed systems (isolated aphid colonies) and the effect was more
18 pronounced at high predator densities within 3 days. In open systems, the aphid natural
19 control was higher than initially expected. This work highlights the role of the large
20 aphidophagous guild present in forestry nurseries. The results of this study show that *A.*
21 *frangulae* is an essential prey species for *S. nubilus* and therefore the predator can be used
22 in pest management programs against this pest. However, further studies focusing on
23 different biological control tactics (inundative or inoculative) are required to assess more
24 accurately the effectiveness of *S. nubilus* as a biological control agent against *A.*
25 *frangulae*.

26

27 **Keywords:** Biological control; ladybird, aphid; *Scymnus nubilus*; *Aphis frangulae*;
28 *Frangula azorica*.

29 Introduction

30 *Aphis frangulae* Kaltentbach (Hemiptera: Aphididae) is an aphid species with a wide
31 distribution across Palearctic and Nearctic regions. This oligophagous aphid has species
32 of the genera *Frangula* and *Rhamnus* as primary host plants. However, it is polyphagous
33 with regard to secondary hosts, which includes *Capsella bursa-pastoris* (L.) Medik.
34 (Brassicales: Brassicaceae), *Cirsium monspessulanum* subsp. *ferox* (Coss.) Talavera,
35 *Eupatorium cannabinum* L. (Asterales: Asteraceae), *Chamerion angustifolium* (L.) Scop.
36 (Myrtales: Onagraceae), *Epilobium parviflorum* Schreb. (Myrtales: Onagraceae),
37 *Hypericum perforatum* L. (Malpighiales: Hypericaceae), *Lysimachia vulgaris* L.
38 (Ericales: Primulaceae), *Nigella arvensis* L. (Ranunculales: Ranunculaceae), *Rumex*
39 *crispus* L. (Polygonales: Polygonaceae) and *Solanum tuberosum* L. (Solanales:
40 Solanaceae) (Blackman and Eastop 2007).

41 *Aphis frangulae* has been recognized as a major phytosanitary problem to
42 *Frangula azorica* V. Grubow (Rosales: Rhamnaceae) when mass reared under nursery
43 conditions in the facilities of the Forestry Services of the Azores (Portugal). *Frangula*
44 *azorica* is an endemic plant species of the Laurel Forests from the Macaronesia region.
45 The mass reared plants are used under the scope of conservation projects, including the
46 restoration of endangered native Laurel Forests (e.g. Triantis et al. 2011; Norder et al.
47 2020), assisting the preservation of the Azorean bullfinch *Pyrrhula murina* Godman
48 (Passeriformes: Fringillidae), one of the most endangered bird species in Europe (SPEA
49 2007; Ceia et al. 2011).

50 Mass rearing of *F. azorica* is compromised after irreversible damage of young
51 shoots by *A. frangulae*. Additionally, the honeydew produced by aphids accumulating
52 over the leaves promotes mold growth which limits the photosynthetic capacity of the
53 plants. Due to certification requirements, pest chemical control is restricted and therefore

54 environmentally friendly alternatives are required to control aphid outbreaks. Biological
55 control of pest populations in forestry systems is a fundamental strategy for sustainable
56 production, providing a safe alternative to chemical control (Kenis et al. 2019).

57 The classical approach of introducing exotic species to control herbivorous pests,
58 commonly used in the past, poses important challenges for conservation biology (Soares
59 et al. 2018; Rondoni et al. 2021; Soares et al. in press). A possible alternative could be
60 the application of mass-reared native natural enemies, through an inoculative or
61 inundative strategy. During previous studies, we recorded a potential candidate to limit
62 *A. frangulae* populations, the aphidophagous ladybird predator *Scymnus interruptus*
63 (Goeze) (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae) (Rosagro et al. 2020). Of the two most abundant
64 aphidophagous species present in the Azores, *Scymnus nubilus* Mulsant (Coleoptera:
65 Coccinellidae) and *S. interruptus* (Soares et al. 2021a, b), previous experiments have
66 shown that the former is much more easily maintained under controlled conditions (e.g.,
67 Borges et al. 2013; Sebastião et al. 2015). *Scymnus nubilus* is a widely distributed species,
68 recorded in Palearctic, Afrotropical, Australian and Oriental zoogeographical regions
69 (Kovář 2007). The species of the genus *Scymnus* are among the least studied ladybirds in
70 the world. However, a few studies have demonstrated the potential of this group as natural
71 enemies and important biological control agents in their native regions (e.g., Tawfik et al.
72 1973, Rosagro et al. 2020).

73 Considering the biological and ecological similarity of these phylogenetically
74 closely related species, *S. nubilus* was selected for testing as a biological control agent
75 against aphids infesting the endemic plant species produced in the forestry nurseries.
76 However, no information is available on the suitability of *A. frangulae* as a food source
77 for *S. nubilus*. From the ecophysiological point of view, the suitability of prey can be
78 divided into two main groups (sensu Hodek and Evans 2012): (i) essential foods ensure

79 the completion of larval development and oviposition and (ii) alternative foods serve only
80 as a source of energy and thus prolong survival in comparison to starvation. This study
81 aims: (1) to determine the seasonal abundance of the aphid *A. frangulae* on *F. azorica*
82 reared in forestry nurseries, (2) to assess the ecophysiological suitability of *A. frangulae*
83 as prey for the ladybird predator *S. nubilus*, and (3) to test the efficacy of the 4th larval
84 stage of *S. nubilus* as a biological control agent.

85 **Materials and Methods**

86 Laboratory experiments

87 *Laboratory stock population*

88 A laboratory stock population of *S. nubilus*, collected in coastal prairies (37°44'38"N
89 25°42'42"W) of S. Miguel Island (Portugal), was maintained and renewed each year
90 during the spring season with new field-collected individuals. The ladybirds were
91 provided with a mixed diet of the fresh aphids *Aphis fabae* Scopoli and *Myzus persicae*
92 (Sulzer) (Hemiptera: Aphididae) reared on *Vicia faba* L. (Fabales: Fabaceae) and
93 complemented with honey and pollen. The laboratory stock population was reared at
94 25±1°C, 75±5% relative humidity and a light regime of 16L:8D.

95 *Development and reproduction*

96 To test the suitability of *A. frangulae* for *S. nubilus*, in the laboratory we first attempted
97 to set-up the trophic chain of *F. azorica* – *A. frangulae*. However, this task was
98 unsuccessful. We therefore provided an alternative aphid species, *A. fabae*, a highly
99 suitable prey species for the predator (Borges, I. pers. obs.), during the earlier stages of
100 larval development. In this way, it was possible to ensure sufficient *A. frangulae* for the
101 experiments by bringing infested plants from the forestry nurseries in Nordeste county

102 (S. Miguel Island). For the development experiments, *S. nubilus* adults from the
103 laboratory population were sexed and coupled. Each couple was kept in a plastic box (2
104 cm Ø x 1 cm height) with *A. fabae* to obtain eggs. Newly hatched larvae were transferred
105 individually into new boxes and fed with *A. fabae ad libitum*. Every day the boxes were
106 checked for the presence of exuviae, as evidence of moulting. When larvae moulted into
107 the 4th larval stage, a single diet of *A. frangulae* was provided from that point on (n=30).
108 The developmental time from the 4th larval stage to the adult stage was determined, as
109 well as the sex ratio and the weight of males (N=13) and females (N=13) upon emergence.
110 To assess the reproductive performance, newly emerged adults were coupled (N=10
111 couples), kept in plastic boxes (2 cm Ø x 1 cm height) and fed with *A. frangulae*. Daily
112 observations were carried out to determine the pre-oviposition time and the number of
113 eggs laid in the first 15 days of oviposition. The eggs were checked on a daily basis for
114 egg hatching to determine the fertility, that is, the number of hatched larvae.

115 *Feeding parameters*

116 Predators of the 4th larval stage were obtained as described in the previous section. Newly
117 moulted larvae were fed for 12 hours with *A. fabae* then starved for the next 12 hours,
118 prior to performing the 24 hours consumption test. Because the rates of dehydration and
119 mortality of the aphid in 24 hours were considerably high, it was decided to establish two
120 12-hour feeding periods in which 10 fresh aphids with an average of 2 mg of biomass
121 were provided to the larvae. According to Borges (2008) the food quantity provided was
122 *ad libitum*. Additionally, a control test was performed to determine aphid weight loss due
123 to dehydration (PW_d) to correct the prey biomass ingested (BI) and assess aphid natural
124 mortality. For this purpose, 10 *A. frangulae* apterous females were kept in plastic boxes
125 for 12 hours. The initial and final weights of the aphids were recorded, as well as a count
126 of remaining aphids alive at the end of the control test. The feeding method of *S. nubilus*

127 larvae allowed easy identification of the preyed-upon aphids because they are sucked in
128 rather than chewed (i.e. in contrast to larger aphidophagous ladybirds). Aphid prey may
129 still be alive after being injured by predator feeding activity. Thus, in this study, the
130 voracity was assessed not as the number of dead aphids but instead, as the number of
131 predated aphids that were readily identifiable. The initial and final weights of the aphids
132 (PW_i and PW_f , respectively) and predator larvae (LW_i and LW_f , respectively) in the
133 consumption test (N=12) were recorded to determine the biomass ingested ($BI = PW_i -$
134 $PW_f - PW_d$), relative growth rate (RGR: percent weight growth of predator compared to
135 initial weight) and conversion efficiency (CE: percent weight growth of predator
136 compared to biomass ingested) according to Borges (2008).

137 Field studies

138 *Population dynamics of A. frangulae*

139 The abundance of *A. frangulae* was recorded every week, from March to September, in
140 the Nordeste county forestry nurseries in 2014 and 2015. Fifty 10 to 50 cm plants of *F.*
141 *azorica* were randomly selected from all trays with potted plants, and carefully checked
142 for the presence of the aphid *A. frangulae*. The number of aphids (observation dates) on
143 each plant was recorded and a total value was calculated per sampling event. The
144 infestation levels were calculated as the number of plants infested with aphids divided by
145 the total number of plants observed. To determine the lifespan of *A. frangulae* colonies,
146 ten colonies at an early stage of their development were selected and followed until their
147 collapse. The number of aphids in each colony was recorded on a weekly basis.

148 *In situ efficacy of S. nubilus against A. frangulae*

149 *In situ* experiments were designed to assess the potential of the ladybird predator 4th larval
150 instar to control *A. frangulae*. The experiments were done in the nurseries of the Forestry

151 Services of the Azores, in Nordeste county. Several colonies of *A. frangulae* of different
152 size were selected. Four treatments were established for the following aphid colony
153 typologies: i) aphid colony in a closed system using a sleeve cage (Insect Rearing Sleeve,
154 Dimensions: L70 x W30 cm, Net Weight: 66 grams, Main Material: Woven Mesh | Nylon
155 Mesh Size: 104 x 94 | 300 μm aperture), ii) aphid colony + predator larvae in a closed
156 system using a sleeve cage, iii) aphid colony + predator larvae in an open system and iv)
157 aphid colony in an open system (control). For each of the four treatments, the aphid
158 density effect was further tested on the basis of the results obtained in the consumption
159 tests under laboratory conditions. The number of larvae released in each aphid colony
160 aimed to ensure the following aphid/larvae ratios: i) low predator density (LPD) i.e., one
161 predator larva per number of aphids required for the development of the predator 4th larval
162 instar ($N_{\text{aphids/larvae}} = 60$), ii) high predator density (HPD) e.g. one predator larva per
163 number of aphids consumed in 24 hours ($N_{\text{aphids/larvae}} = 15$) and iii) medium predator
164 density (MPD) e.g. one predator larva per an intermediate number of aphids used in the
165 LPD and HPD treatments ($N_{\text{aphids/larvae}} = 30$). There were 10 replicates for each of the 12
166 treatments. The aphid colonies were tagged, and the number of aphids were counted
167 (observation dates) after 3 and 10 days. Twelve-hour old predator larvae in the 4th instar
168 were obtained as described in section 1.2.2 and similarly starved for 12 hours prior to
169 being used in the field trials. The larvae were transported to the Forestry Services and
170 inoculated carefully into the plants infested with aphids, using a fine brush.

171 Statistical analysis

172 To compare female and male weights, after normality of data was confirmed by the
173 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, the student t-test was performed assuming non-homogeneous
174 variances. To compare the variation of aphid colony size (%) for the three predator/prey
175 densities (LPD, MPD and HPD) and aphid colony typology, the Kruskal-Wallis

176 nonparametric ANOVA was used. Pairwise multiple comparisons, using the Mann-
177 Whitney U-test, were performed applying the Bonferroni correction. Mean values were
178 considered significantly different when $P < 0.05$. The values shown next to the means are
179 the standard errors. SPSS v. 25 was used to perform the statistical analyses (IBM Corp
180 2017).

181 **Results**

182 Laboratory experiments

183 *Development and reproduction*

184 *Scymnus nubilus* larvae fed *ad libitum* with *A. frangulae* took 9.0 ± 0.2 days to develop
185 from the 4th instar to the adult stage, and the duration of the 4th larval stage was 4 days.
186 Female ladybirds were heavier than males (1.29 ± 0.06 mg vs. 1.06 ± 0.03 mg) (t-test:
187 $t=3.849$; $df=17.2$; $p<0.05$). The proportion of males obtained was slightly higher than that
188 of females (F:M=43%). Adult females took 5.5 ± 0.3 days to start oviposition and laid an
189 average of 135 ± 12 eggs in the first 15 days of oviposition. Most of the eggs were fertile
190 (84.9%) but 2.7% of the larvae failed to successfully hatch.

191 *Feeding parameters*

192 The feeding parameters of *S. nubilus* larvae fed *A. frangulae* are presented in Table I. In
193 24 hours, larvae ingested 15.1 ± 1.0 aphids which corresponded to 1.52 ± 0.04 mg of prey
194 biomass ingested that, in turn, allowed larvae to increase their weight by approximately
195 50%.

196 Field studies

197 *Population dynamics of A. frangulae*

198 There was considerable variation in the abundance of *A. frangulae* between years. In
199 2015, an outbreak was observed in July, whereas in 2014 aphid population levels
200 remained at lower levels (Fig. 1). Over the course of this study, an average of 19.8% of
201 *F. azorica* plants were infested with *A. frangulae* and the aphid colonies lasted for 5.7 ± 0.7
202 weeks.

203 *In situ* efficacy of *S. nubilus* against *A. frangulae*

204 Predator larval impact on aphid colonies tended to increase with predator density and was
205 more pronounced after 3 days in closed systems (Fig. 2). It was in the open systems that
206 higher levels of aphid suppression were observed. Except for the HPD treatment after 10
207 days (HPD, after 10 days: $\chi^2 = 9.245$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.026$) no significant differences were
208 detected between treatments (HPD, after 3 days: $\chi^2 = 7.688$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.053$; MPD, after
209 3 days: $\chi^2 = 4.398$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.222$; MPD, after 10 days: $\chi^2 = 6.148$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.105$;
210 LPD, after 3 days: $\chi^2 = 1.534$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.674$; LPD, after 10 days: $\chi^2 = 2.025$, $df = 3$, p
211 $= 0.567$) (Fig. 2). Pairwise multiple comparisons between treatments of high predator
212 density (HPD), after 10 days, reveals significant differences between aphid colony size
213 variation (%) of the closed system without predator larvae and the open system with
214 predator larvae ($U = 14.2$, $p = 0.035$). No significant differences were found between the
215 other treatments (open system with predator larvae vs open system without predator
216 larvae: $U = 5.18$, $p = 1$; open system with predator larvae vs closed system with predator
217 larvae: $U = 2.13$, $p = 0.198$; open system without predator larvae vs closed system with
218 predator larvae: $U = 1.28$, $p = 1$; open system without predator larvae vs closed system
219 without predator larvae: $U = 1.90$, $p = 0.344$ and closed system with predator larvae vs
220 closed system without predator larvae: $U = -0.62$, $p = 1$) (Fig. 2).

221 **Discussion**

222 Our study provides evidence of the potential of *S. nubilus* as a natural enemy against *A.*
223 *frangulae*, under an inoculative/inundative IPM strategy. The most remarkable thing is
224 that these two species, with worldwide distributions, have been the subject of few studies
225 concerning their biology and ecology, especially in forest systems. Aphid pest outbreaks
226 compromise production of the endemic plants used for native habitat restoration. *Aphis*
227 *frangulae* showed considerable population density oscillation between years. The
228 outbreak of *A. frangulae* was more evident in 2015 than 2014, although, even in 2014 we
229 observed severe damage to the young shoots of the host plant and the presence of mold
230 covering the leaves. The population dynamics and lifespan of *A. frangulae* colonies
231 follows the shooting of the young leaves. Aphid colony growth was typically sigmoidal
232 and successful colonies were those that survived initial stages of slow growth to reach the
233 exponential growth phase. This occurs with other aphid species (Borges et al. 2011; Dixon
234 2000), including *Aphis spiraecola* Patch and *Cinara juniperi* (De Geer) (Hemiptera:
235 Aphididae) infesting, respectively, *Viburnum treleasei* Gand. (Dipsacales: Adroaceae),
236 and *Juniperus brevifolia* (Seub.) Antoine (Pinales: Cupressaceae), both endemic plants
237 reared in the same forestry nurseries (Rosagro et al. 2020). The lifespan of the colonies
238 of *A. frangulae* was 5.7 ± 0.7 weeks, similar to that of *A. spiraecola* and lower than that of
239 *C. juniperi* (Rosagro 2020). These lifespans are similar to those of other successful aphid
240 colonies which, in general, stand for 6–8 weeks (Dixon 1998).

241 The results of this study indicate that *A. frangulae* is an essential prey (sensu
242 Hodek and Evans 2012) for *S. nubilus* and therefore the predator has the potential to be
243 used in pest management programs. *Aphis frangulae* allowed predator 4th instar larvae to
244 successfully complete development and adults to reproduce. It is not possible to assert
245 that the aphid is equally suitable as a food source for all immature stages, as we did not
246 provide the first three larval stages of *S. nubilus* with *A. frangulae*. However, once our

247 goal was achieved to propose this natural enemy for use within the scope of an inundative
248 or inoculative strategy, we opted to mass rear the first larval stages under laboratory
249 conditions on *A. fabae*, a suitable aphid already tested, and then to release the 4th stage in
250 the forestry nurseries. Rosagro et al (2020) studied two other aphid pests present in the
251 forestry nurseries as food resource for *S. nubilus*, i.e., *A. spiraecola* and *C. juniperi*. With
252 the former, development from the 4th larval stage to the adult stage took 7.8 ± 0.2 days,
253 females weighed 1.19 ± 0.03 mg, and males weighed 0.99 ± 0.02 mg, whereas with the latter
254 the values were 8.2 ± 0.2 days, 1.24 ± 0.03 mg and 0.92 ± 0.03 mg, respectively. On either
255 of these diets, predator fertility in the first 15 days of oviposition was much lower than
256 with *A. frangulae*. Thus, considering the aphid species available for the ladybird predator
257 in the forestry nurseries, *A. frangulae* seems to be the most suitable prey. On
258 *Rhopalosiphum padi* (L.) (Hemiptera: Aphididae) (Borges et al. 2013), an aphid species
259 that *S. nubilus* is commonly associated with in Azorean corn field stands, the ladybird
260 took a similar time to complete development from the 4th larval instar to adult, i.e., 8.5 ± 0.1
261 days, but female adult weight was slightly higher (males: 1.05 ± 0.02 and females:
262 1.37 ± 0.03). Pre-oviposition time was slightly shorter, at 4.9 ± 0.3 days and females laid
263 considerably more eggs, 185.1 ± 13.4 eggs.

264 Although the voracity of *S. nubilus* is much lower than that of larger ladybird
265 species, its predation effect on aphid colonies can be enhanced firstly by arriving at earlier
266 stages of prey colony development, that is, with reduced aphid densities and, secondly,
267 by extending their predation effect in older colonies during the declining phase. Our
268 results indicate that a single 4th instar larva can eat 15 *A. frangulae* per day. On *R. padi*,
269 the predator larvae consumed fewer prey items, 8.7 ± 0.7 aphids (due to aphid species
270 larger size) but ingested a similar amount of prey biomass, 1.7 ± 0.2 mg (Borges 2008).

271 Larvae gained 0.45 ± 0.06 mg with a feeding efficiency of 25.8 ± 2.06 %, values lower than
272 the ones obtained with *A. frangulae*.

273 To our knowledge, there are no experimental studies on the potential of *Scymnus*
274 spp against pests of forestry systems in Europe, but they are recognized as useful natural
275 enemies (Wermelinger 2021). Our *in situ* experiments reveal that *S. nubilus* can play an
276 important role in these systems, at least in forestry nurseries. The results of our
277 experiments showed that after approximately one week, predator larvae pupated and in
278 the absence of predation pressure, the aphid colonies increased their size, mainly in the
279 closed systems, that is, in the treatments where sleeves were used. As field experiments
280 did not extend after the emergence of the adults, it is not possible to ascertain if *S. nubilus*
281 would be an efficient predator in an *A. frangulae* outbreak.

282 Pest control levels in open systems were higher than initially expected. This result
283 highlights the important role of the aphidophagous guild present in forestry nurseries.
284 However, the control of aphid populations in the nurseries can be supplemented by
285 additional natural enemies. Indeed, during our field work we have recorded other natural
286 enemies with the potential to be used in IPM programs, namely *Aphidius colemani*
287 Viereck, *Binodoxys angelicae* (Halliday) (Hymenoptera: Braconidae), *Aphidoletes*
288 *aphidimyza* (Rondani) (Diptera: Cecidomyiidae), and also syrphids that contribute to
289 natural control of aphid pests. Thus, further studies focusing on different biological
290 control approaches (inundative or inoculative), and on biological interactions among
291 aphidophagous guild members, are required to more accurately assess the potential role
292 of *S. nubilus* as a biological control agent against *A. frangulae*.

293

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375 Table 1. Feeding parameters of *S. nubilus* 4th instar larvae fed *A. frangulae*.

376	Parameter	Mean ± SE
377	Larval weight _{initial} (mg)	1.25 ± 0.06
378	Larval weight _{final} (mg)	1.83 ± 0.07
379	Weight gain (mg)	0.58 ± 0.06
380	Voracity (aphids consumed)	15.09 ± 0.27
381	Biomass ingested (mg)	1.52 ± 0.04
382	Relative growth rate (%)	48.35 ± 1.85
383	Conversion efficiency (%)	40.25 ± 1.04

384

385

386 **Fig. 1.** Population dynamics of *A. frangulae* at Nordeste county nursery in 2014 and 2015.
387 Total abundance (A) and mean number of aphids (\pm SE) of *A. frangulae* recorded on 50
388 plants of *F. azorica*.

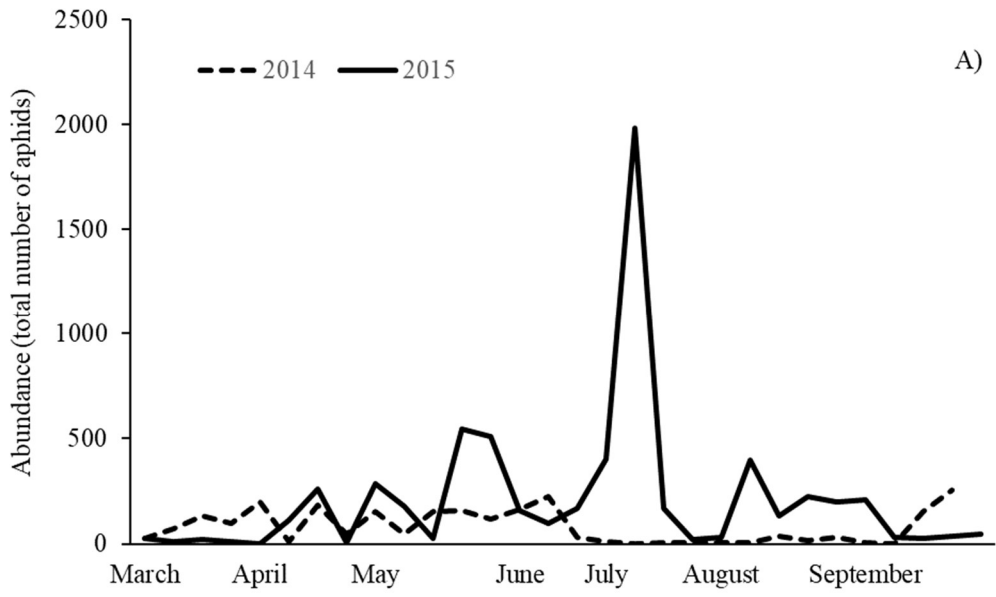
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390 **Fig. 2.** Aphid colony size variation (mean percentage \pm SE) in open and closed systems,
391 with or without predator larvae at low (LPD), medium (MPD) and high (HPD)
392 predator/prey densities after 3 and 10 days. For each treatment, different letters on the
393 upper part of the histograms indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$).

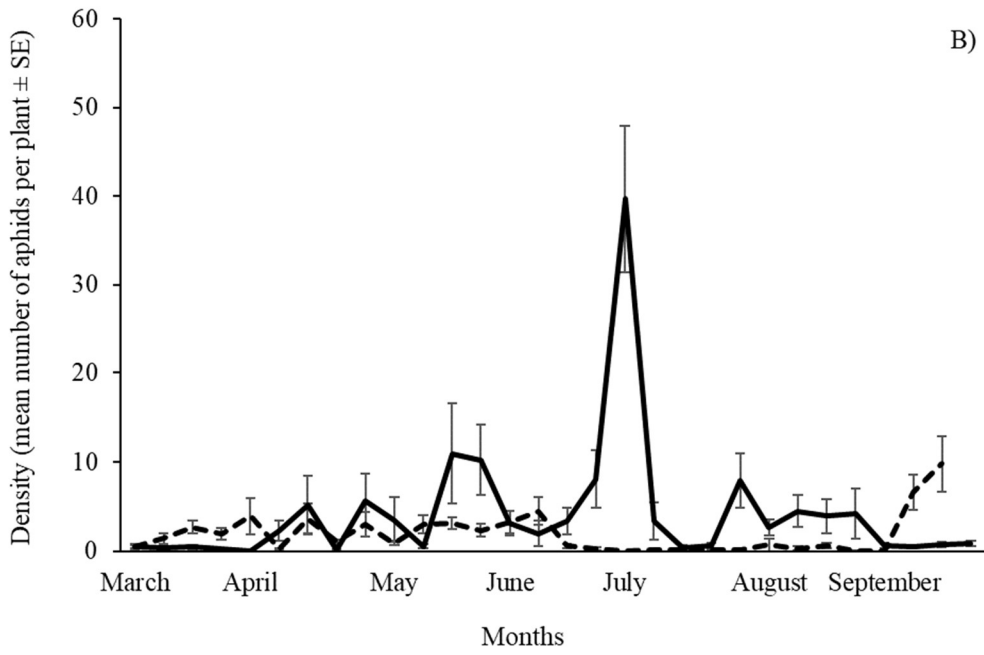
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Fig. 1



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Fig. 2

