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1 **Title:**

2

3 Land use alters the abundance of herbivore and predatory insects on crops: the case of
4 alfalfa

5

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19 **Key message**

- 20 • Intensively managed orchards in the landscape decrease alfalfa predators.
- 21 • Alfalfa predators and herbivores are more abundant in landscapes with more
- 22 proportion of alfalfa
- 23 • Proportion of forest cover decreases some predatory taxa in alfalfa
- 24 • Noncrop habitats, winter cereals, and the landscape Shannon index have minor
- 25 effects.
- 26 • Insect abundance in alfalfa varies with the plant growth stage

27 **Abstract**

28

29 We assess the effects of changing land use and crop management on alfalfa insect

30 abundance by comparing it in 50 alfalfa fields when they were inserted in landscapes

31 with different proportions of arable crops and orchards. Land use in a buffer of 500m.

32 was assessed and alfalfa insect abundance was estimated with sticky yellow traps.

33 Numbers of catches of several herbivores and predators were related to the proportion

34 of landscape components and several field variables. Results indicated that the

35 proportion of orchards in the buffer negatively affected the abundance of predators on

36 alfalfa; likely because orchards treated with pesticides are a sink for predators moving

37 in the landscape, among other possible causes. Other landscape variables such as

38 noncrop habitats, winter cereals, and landscape diversity analyzed by the Shannon index

39 had a minor influence. Among field variables, field size influenced positively the

40 abundance of insects on alfalfa whereas alfalfa growth stage and age affected positively

41 or negatively the different herbivores and predators. Of course, abundance of predators

42 and prey was affected by the abundance of prey and predators, respectively. These

43 findings suggest that a high proportion of intensively managed crops (orchards) in the

44 landscape interferes with the role of alfalfa as a reservoir of predatory insects for

45 adjacent crops and that the responses to local and landscape structures are temporal and

46 species-specific as previously concluded for maize. Consequently, landscape and field

47 management strategies to improve pest control must consider both types of variables as

48 well as their changing influence when we modify them.

49

50 **Keywords:** Agricultural landscape structure, Local variables, Alfalfa herbivores and

51 predators, orchards, noncrop habitats.

52

1. Introduction

53 In recent decades, agriculture has intensified at local and regional scales worldwide,
54 increasing the proportion of monocultures, field sizes, and the degrees of fragmentation
55 of natural and seminatural habitats, causing fundamental changes in agricultural
56 landscapes (Tscharntke et al. 2005; Baessler and Klotz 2006). These landscape changes
57 are considered to be important factors modifying the abundances of both insect pest and
58 natural enemy populations in agroecosystems (Ali et al. 2020). However, a meta-
59 analysis showed that crop pests and predators can also exhibit inconsistent responses to
60 the composition of landscapes and that these responses might result from variations in
61 how habitat and biocontrol are measured (Karp et al. 2018). Many studies investigating
62 the impacts of natural enemies on pest suppression have focused on short-term effects
63 and have rarely considered the effects of spatial and temporal changes in the use of land
64 (Jonsson et al. 2018). Different natural enemies can respond to landscape variables at
65 distinct scales (Chaplin-Kramer et al. 2011), and a lack of stability due to factors such
66 as high levels of pesticide application in some crops (e.g., orchards) can affect their
67 continuous recolonisation from the surrounding landscape (Happe et al. 2019). In many
68 cases, naturally occurring natural enemies could largely replace chemical inputs to
69 control pests (Karp et al. 2018; Jactel et al. 2019). Most landscape and biocontrol
70 studies mainly focus on the importance of natural and seminatural habitats as providers
71 of arthropods and services, but few studies look at the importance of other crops. A
72 deep understanding of landscape effects on insect pests and/or natural enemies could
73 help to modify the environment at the within-crop, within-farm or even landscape levels
74 and the existing pesticide application practices. Such an understanding could then be
75 used by farmers, pest control advisers and researchers to adjust the spatiotemporal

76 structure of crops and to design successful pest management programmes that could
77 help to mitigate pests and minimise risks associated with insecticide spraying (Meisner
78 et al. 2017; Ali et al. 2020).

79 In the Ebro Basin, alfalfa is one of the most common crops in the landscape. The alfalfa
80 produced in this region represents more than 40% of Spain's total alfalfa production
81 (MAPA 2020). During the last two decades, several studies have described the
82 composition, abundance and ecological role of insects that live in alfalfa, concluding
83 that alfalfa is an important reservoir of natural enemies in the Ebro Basin (Núñez 2002;
84 Pons et al. 2005) and a source of predators that colonise neighbouring maize fields (di
85 Lascio et al. 2016; Madeira et al. 2014, 2018; Madeira and Pons 2016). This role of
86 alfalfa has been studied at both the field and farm scales, but it may also be modulated
87 by the characteristics of the landscape (Rusch et al. 2010). In **the study** region, the
88 proportions of alfalfa crops in the landscape surrounding maize fields have been found
89 to influence the abundances of herbivores and predatory insects in maize (Clemente-
90 Orta et al. 2020), but less is known about the inverse effect: how landscape composition
91 affects herbivore and predator abundance on alfalfa.

92 In recent years, the transformation of dryland areas to irrigated land, along with changes
93 in market demands, have led to modifications of agricultural land use in our region. The
94 most significant modifications occurred at the relative proportions of cultivated surface
95 devoted to alfalfa and stone fruits; alfalfa has decreased in favour of orchards (IEC
96 2020). A relevant consequence of the expansion of fruit tree cultivation is the increase
97 in the amount of chemical pesticides sprayed in the area. These changes may have
98 modified the abundances of pests and their natural enemies in alfalfa and other crops **as**
99 **in the case of maize (Clemente-Orta et al. 2020)**. An increase in pesticide use has been
100 signalled as a main cause of landscape-wide natural enemy reduction, affecting both

101 their behaviour and habitat recolonisation (Rusch et al. 2010). In addition, landscapes
102 dominated by stone fruit orchards have been reported to negatively affect the richness of
103 beneficial arthropod species in adjacent fields (Samnegård et al. 2018; Clemente et al.
104 2020).

105 In a previous study, the authors examined the effects of landscape composition on the
106 abundances of pests and predators in maize fields (Clemente et al. 2020). To enhance
107 the understanding of landscape effects on conservation biological control in the whole
108 agroecosystem, we further evaluated whether changes in landscape composition or crop
109 management practices could contribute to the design of more sustainable pest
110 management programs for alfalfa. Surveys were performed in alfalfa fields over three
111 consecutive years in spring and summer to test whether the increase in orchard surface
112 together with their associated intensive management has negative consequences for the
113 abundance of natural enemies and biological control functions in neighbouring alfalfa
114 fields; we also tested whether those negative impacts change during the spring vs. the
115 summer season.

116

117 **2. Material and methods**

118 **2.1. Study area**

119 This present study was conducted in three consecutive years in commercial alfalfa fields
120 located in an area of the Ebro basin in which altitude was between 120 and 346 m,
121 annual rainfall between 200 and 400 mm, T_{\min} between 8 and 24 °C and T_{\max} between
122 18 and 38 °C (Fig. 1A and Appendix A1 Table S1). In this study, we were interested in
123 crop-dominated landscapes (approximately 80% of crops). For this reason, the study
124 area where alfalfa fields were selected comprised 700 km², formed mainly by a mosaic
125 of irrigated crop land with non cultivated patches (older fallows, natural habitats,

126 margins, irrigation Canals and roads) and forest repopulated by *Pinus halepensis* (Mill).
127 The prevalent arable crops are alfalfa and a crop rotation that mostly includes winter
128 and summer cereals. Land use in the area has changed significantly in the recent 30
129 years with more surface devoted to orchards to the detriment of arable crops (IEC
130 2020), leading to a mixed landscape mosaic with fields of different shapes and sizes.
131 The survey was conducted in 50 alfalfa fields. Some of the fields were the same over
132 the three years, but others, due to crop rotations, remained in the study for only one or
133 two years (Fig. 1A). Alfalfa fields were selected in a gradient of landscape composition
134 ranging from landscapes with predominance of arable crops to others with a high
135 percentage of orchards (Fig. 1B, Table S2). The size of selected fields varied between
136 1.3 and 28.5 ha, a common range in the area (Appendix A1 Table S1). To avoid
137 potential spatial autocorrelation, the minimum distance between alfalfa fields was ≥ 2
138 km.

139 Alfalfa is a perennial crop that remains in the field for 4 to 5 years and normally
140 undergoes 5 to 6 cuttings during the growing season (March–October). When needed, a
141 single insecticide treatment in April against the main pest, the alfalfa weevil (*Hypera*
142 *postica* Gyllenhal), is applied (Madeira et al. 2014). However, in orchards, pesticide
143 applications are more frequent and may include 7 to 14 chemical sprays (insecticides,
144 fungicides and bioregulators), mowing of the herbaceous cover in the inter-rows
145 (approximately once per month), herbicide applications and tree fertilisation (Cantero-
146 Martínez 2013; Bosch 2018; Teulon et al. 2018). Such intensive management practices
147 in orchards are also common in other European countries (Happe et al. 2019). In both
148 winter cereals and maize, pre- and postemergence herbicides are applied and seeds are
149 treated with fungicides and/or insecticides.

150

151 **2.2. Landscape structure variables**

152 Landscape structure was quantified using ArcGIS software 10.3.1 (ESRI 2015). Every
153 year, we characterised the landscape surrounding each sampled alfalfa field in a circular
154 buffer area (0.5-km radius). The landscape composition was described by direct field
155 inspection, orthophotos of the Plan Nacional de Ortografía Aérea (PNOA,
156 <https://pnoa.ign.es/>), and geographical information maps of the Instituto Geográfico
157 Nacional of Spain (<https://www.ign.es>). To incorporate seasonal variations in the
158 landscape, two characterisations were performed every year, first in spring and then in
159 summer. The elements initially identified in the landscape with the field inspection were
160 grouped into eight categories: alfalfa, winter cereals, maize, orchards, forest, noncrop
161 habitats and margins (Table 1 and Appendix A1 Table S2).

162 Landscape diversity was characterised with the Shannon index (hereafter SHDI-L)
163 where the different landscape elements were expressed as a function of the proportional
164 abundance (roads and buildings not included), L_i , and was calculated with FRAGSTAT
165 (McGarigal et al. 2012) as follows:

$$166 \quad SHDI - L = - \sum_{i=1}^{32} L_i \times \ln L_i$$

167

168 **2.3. Field variables**

169 These included alfalfa age, alfalfa growth stage, perimeter/area ratio of the field, and
170 abundances of predatory (for the study of the herbivores) or of prey taxa (for the study
171 of predators) (Table 1 and Appendix A1 Table S3). Alfalfa age was provided by the
172 respective farmer, and the alfalfa growth stage was recorded at each sampling date using
173 a measuring tape. The perimeter/area ratio of the alfalfa fields was calculated using
174 ArcGIS software.

175

176 **2.4. Insect sampling and processing**

177 The insects (herbivores and predators) in alfalfa fields were sampled with yellow sticky
178 traps (30×25 cm, Serbios, Badia Polesine, Italy). Three sticky traps were left for 1 week
179 in each field; each trap was mounted on a metal bar and placed inside alfalfa fields
180 starting at 30 m from the field border, with a distance of 15 m between traps along a line
181 transect **approximately parallel to the field border**. Traps were positioned just above the
182 crop canopy and were raised as alfalfa plants grew. Sampling was carried out **about**
183 once a month, in the first year, 1 sample in spring and 3 samples in summer in the
184 second year, 2 samples in spring and 3 samples in summer **and** in the third year, **2**
185 **samples in spring and 2 samples in summer**. Therefore, the number of samples was **6,**
186 **23, and 21 in the first, second, and third year (Appendix A1 Table S1)**. Once the traps
187 were collected, they were kept at 6-8 °C until catch identification at the family, genus or
188 species level depending on their state of conservation. The abundance of trapped insects
189 in the field was then averaged over the **three** yellow sticky traps.

190

191 **2.5. Statistical analyses**

192 We used Spearman rank correlations (Dormann et al. 2013) to test the degrees of
193 correlation between landscape structure and field variables (Appendix A1 Table S4).
194 **Despite** a few variables were moderately correlated (Spearman's rho 0.4-0.59)
195 (Campbell and Swinscow 2009), they were not excluded to build the models, as done by
196 Schmidt et al. (2019).
197 To analyse the effects of the landscape structure and local variables on alfalfa herbivore
198 and predator abundances in spring and summer, we used a linear mixed-effects model
199 where year was a random factor using the 'nlme' package (Pinheiro et al. 2018) in R

200 software (R Development Core Team, 2018). Mean insect catches per trap in each field
201 and sampling date were log transformed [$\log_{10}(x+1)$] to achieve as normal a
202 distribution of the model residuals as possible. Spatial autocorrelation among fields of
203 mean catches in spring and summer was tested using Moran's I statistic (Paradis 2019)
204 (Appendix A1 Table S5). Landscape metrics for each model was standardised (mean
205 centred and scaled) using the 'caret' package (Max et al. 2018). We applied a
206 multimodel inference approach to obtain a robust parameter estimate using the
207 'MuMIn' package (Bartoń 2018). The dredge function of the models was used to
208 describe the effects of independent variables on each dependent variable. Models were
209 selected by comparing the Akaike information criterion corrected for small sample sizes
210 (AICc) with the values of the full model. Model averaging was performed on the model
211 set with $\Delta AICc < 2$ (Burnham and Anderson 2004). The model residuals were
212 graphically inspected with Q-Q plots and histogram graphics to ensure there were no
213 violations of normality and homoscedasticity assumptions (Zuur et al. 2010). Finally,
214 we used the 'effects' package (Fox et al. 2016) to represent the effects in partial residual
215 plots.

216

217 **3. Results**

218 **3.1. Herbivore and predator abundances**

219 A total of 54,934 predators (17,102 in spring and 37,832 in summer) and 1,513,673
220 herbivorous insects (456,547 in spring and 1,057,126 in summer) were collected in the
221 50 sampled alfalfa fields in the three years. Although the species of predators and
222 herbivores trapped on traps in spring and summer were the same, their abundance varied
223 from one season to the other (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). The predators were collected and
224 identified as *Aeolothrips* spp. (Thysanoptera: Aeolothripidae) (predators of small
225 arthropods mainly thrips but facultatively also feeding on pollen), *Orius* spp.

226 (Hemiptera: Anthocoridae), Staphylinidae, Miridae, Nabidae (generalist predators),
227 Cantharidae (rather generalist predators of small arthropods), Stethorus spp. (predators
228 of red spider mites), and several predators of aphids namely Chrysopidae, Syrphidae
229 and the coccinellids Propylea quatuordecimpunctata L., Hippodamia variegata Goeze,
230 Coccinella septempunctata L. (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae) (Fig. 2). Aeolothrips spp. was
231 the most abundant predator in both seasons, representing 61 and 57% of predators
232 collected in spring and summer, respectively. In the case of herbivores, the following
233 taxa were collected and identified: Frankliniella occidentalis Pergande (Thysanoptera:
234 Thripidae) and other Thripidae, Empoasca vitis Göthe (Hemiptera: Cicadellidae),
235 Aphididae, Zyginidia scutellaris Herrich-Schäffer (Hemiptera: Cicadellidae),
236 Laodelphax striatellus Fallén (Hemiptera: Delphacidae) and other planthoppers (Fig. 3).
237 Frankliniella occidentalis was the most abundant herbivore, representing 80 and 88% of
238 the total herbivores in spring and summer, respectively.

239

240 3.2 Abundance of alfalfa insects in relation to landscape variables

241 The most parsimonious models for predators and herbivores are shown in Appendix A2
242 (Tables S6 and S7, respectively), and the significant landscape variables are presented
243 in Tables 2 and 3 for predators and herbivores, respectively. Although models of
244 Nabidae and Miridae were represented, they were not considered in the results and
245 conclusions, in the case of Nabidae due to their low abundance and in the case of
246 Miridae due to the common omnivory of the family.

247 The landscape structure surrounding alfalfa fields affected the abundances of both
248 predators and herbivores found on this crop. However, the effect of landscape variables
249 varied with the season (Tables 2 and 3).

250 The landscape variables that most affected predator and prey abundances were the
251 proportions of orchards, forests, alfalfa, maize and margins. The most significant results
252 are summarized in the following paragraphs. Abundances of predators significantly
253 related to the surrounding landscape are shown in Figures 4-8. Only in a few cases, the
254 proportion of alfalfa was positively related to Chrysopidae in spring and to Syrphidae
255 and Staphylinidae in summer. On the contrary, the abundance of predators was
256 negatively related mainly to the proportion of orchards and forest for several predatory
257 species in spring, as well the proportion of margins in summer for *Orius* spp.,
258 *Aeolothrips* spp. and *Stethorus* spp. Maize in spring was negatively related to
259 Cantharidae and in summer, but positively related to *P. quatuordecimpunctata* and
260 *Aeolothrips* spp.

261 In the case of herbivores (Figs. 4-8), orchards were positively related to almost all
262 herbivores (*E. vitis* and Aphididae in spring and summer, *F. occidentalis* and *Z.*
263 *scutellaris* in spring and *L. striatellus* in summer, except the other species of Thripidae,
264 which were negatively related in spring. The abundances of *F. occidentalis* and other
265 Thripidae in spring was positively and negatively related to the proportion of forest,
266 respectively. Alfalfa was positively related with other Thripidae in spring and with
267 Aphididae in summer. Margins were positively related to the herbivores Aphididae
268 (spring) and other Thripidae (summer). Maize in spring was negatively related to *E.*
269 *vitis* and positively related to Aphididae in summer.

270

271 3.3. Abundance of alfalfa insects in relation to field variables

272

273 The effects of alfalfa field variables on predators and herbivores recorded on alfalfa are
274 shown in Appendix A2 (Tables S6 and S7, respectively). Tables 2 and 3 show only the

275 significant variables. The variables prey and predators in the field and the alfalfa growth
276 stage were the field variables that most affected insect abundances (Fig. 9-11).

277 **Abundances of predators and herbivores (prey) were mostly positively related as**
278 **expected in most of predator-prey relationships particularly for generalist predators.**

279 The alfalfa growth stage was positively related to the herbivore *E. vitis* and other
280 planthoppers in spring and to the predator *Orius spp.* (spring and summer), *H.*
281 *variegata*, Chrysopidae and *Stethorus spp.* in summer. The opposite effect was observed
282 for the herbivores Aphididae (spring), other Thripidae and other planthoppers (summer)
283 and for the predators *Aeolothrips spp.* (spring and summer) and Staphylinidae
284 (summer).

285

286 **4. Discussion**

287 In the northeastern Iberian Peninsula, natural enemies are a crucial component of
288 integrated pest management (IPM) approaches for pest control in alfalfa (Pons et al.
289 2005). These natural enemies are important biological control agents of alfalfa pests, not
290 only because they reduce the damage caused by pests but also because alfalfa is a
291 source of the most abundant predators for other crops such as maize (Clemente-Orta et
292 al. 2020; Madeira et al. 2014, 2018; di Lascio et al. 2016) and orchards (Batuecas et al.
293 2021). Our results demonstrate that the proportions of orchards, forest, margins, **maize**,
294 and alfalfa in the surrounding landscapes were the landscape variables that most
295 influenced predator and herbivore abundances in alfalfa.

296 The proportion of orchards in the landscape had negative effects on some alfalfa
297 predators in spring, such as *Orius spp.* (the most abundant generalist predators recorded
298 in alfalfa), Chrysopidae, Syrphidae, Cantharidae and Staphylinidae. Similar negative
299 effects were reported in maize in our previous study in the area (Clemente-Orta et al.

2020). Negative impacts of orchards in the landscape on the abundance of predators within other crops were also observed by Samnegård et al. (2018) and by Yang et al. (2018, 2019). In addition, the impact of orchards on the abundance and source-sink dynamics of predators can be related to orchard management (Lefebvre et al. 2016) since crop management practices (mainly intensity of pesticide use) have been shown to counteract the positive effects of landscape on higher predator abundances (Ricci et al. 2019, Saqib et al. 2020). Natural enemy abundance and diversity in orchards depend on orchard management, and in general, they were higher in organically managed orchards than in nonorganically managed orchards (Happe et al. 2019). In contrast, a higher abundance of intensively managed orchards in the surrounding landscape reduced the colonisation of vegetable crops by predatory mirid bugs (Yang et al. 2018, 2019; Samnegård et al. 2018; Aviron et al. 2016). Although the negative effects of pesticides on predators in orchards may be masked by continuous orchard recolonisation from surrounding arable crops (Markó et al. 2017; Batuecas et al. 2021), this does not seem to be the case in orchards close to our alfalfa fields, as alfalfa fields within landscapes with a high proportion of orchards had low abundances of the abovementioned predators. However, although orchards in this area are sprayed, a rich community of spiders can still be captured in pitfall traps (Barrientos et al. 2019). Conversely, except for other Thripidae, the abundances of herbivores were higher in landscapes with high proportions of orchards. This higher herbivore abundance could be due to both the lower abundance of predators in alfalfa fields close to orchards and because some alfalfa herbivores are shared with fruit trees and orchard ground covers. This is the case for the western flower thrips *F. occidentalis*, an important pest of peach orchards under our conditions (Teulon et al. 2018); therefore, alfalfa and peach orchards could exchange thrips populations that would look for the best environment to feed and

325 reproduce. Overall, the development of more sustainable orchard management practices
326 (Aparicio et al. 2021; Denis et al. 2021) may enhance the populations of beneficial
327 arthropods, which can later be a source for recolonization of arable fields after
328 disturbances (Jeanneret et al. 2016).

329 Forest was the second most influential landscape variable, showing five negative
330 relationships (four predators and one herbivore). A positive relationship was shown
331 only for the herbivore *F. occidentalis*. In the study area, forest habitats are small patches
332 mainly formed by *Pinus halepensis* and a low diversity herbaceous plant cover. This
333 low diversity of forest cover is likely to be the reason for the negative effect on
334 predators, in contrast to the key positive role of forest cover recorded in tropical
335 agricultural landscapes, where it increases natural enemy diversity and associated
336 biological control services (Medeiros et al. 2019).

337

338 Alfalfa cover in the landscape only showed positive effects. Three predatory groups
339 (Chrysopidae in spring and Syrphidae and Staphylinidae in summer) and two
340 herbivorous groups (other Thripidae in spring and Aphididae in summer) were more
341 abundant in landscapes with high proportions of alfalfa. Alfalfa has been described in
342 our area as a great reservoir for many generalist and specialist parasitoids and predators
343 during all seasons, including the predators described above (Núñez, 2002; Pons et al.
344 2005; Pons et al. 2013), which can move from different alfalfa fields to colonise other
345 adjacent crops (di Lascio et al. 2016; Madeira et al. 2016; Madeira et al. 2018; Batuecas
346 et al. 2021). Herbivores such as aphids and other Thripidae were favoured by a high
347 proportion of alfalfa in the landscape. Aphids are one of the most important pests of
348 alfalfa (Meissle et al. 2010; Pons et al. 2005). Since they are crop-specific (Blackman
349 and Eastop 2000), they do not switch between the main arable crops in spring and

350 summer (winter cereals and maize, respectively) in the study area. The positive
351 relationship between alfalfa and these herbivores, mainly for aphids, could be a
352 consequence of a resource concentration effect that occurs when high resource density
353 patches attract and support the most specialist insects, which are more likely to find,
354 remain on and reproduce on their hosts when these plants grow in such stands (Otway et
355 al. 2005).

356 Few effects of the proportion of maize in the landscape on the abundance of alfalfa
357 insects were found. Cantharidae and the herbivore *E. vitis* were negatively correlated
358 with maize in spring, and the predators *P. quatuordecimpunctata* and *Aeolothrips* spp.
359 and Aphididae were positively correlated in summer. The significant relationship
360 observed for *P. quatuordecimpunctata* confirms the results of previous studies that
361 concluded that maize plays a major role as a source of *P. quatuordecimpunctata* and *H.*
362 *variegata* for alfalfa after alfalfa cutting, some alfalfa individuals could move to maize
363 after cutting and recolonize alfalfa once this crop has regrown (di Lascio et al. 2016).

364 A more specific investigation would be necessary to explain the positive relationship
365 found between aphid abundance on alfalfa and the proportion of maize in the landscape
366 since these two crops do not share aphid species (Asín and Pons 1998; Pons et al. 2005;
367 Madeira et al. 2014). Contrary to expectations, the number of *Z. scutellaris* in alfalfa
368 was not related to maize, although it is one of the most abundant herbivores in maize.

369 Field margins and noncrop vegetation in agricultural landscapes are potential ecosystem
370 service providers because they offer seminatural habitats for arthropods (Mkenda et al.
371 2019), especially when they suffer less disturbance and can act as refuges of natural
372 enemies by providing them with important resources (Landis et al. 2000; Alomar et al.
373 2002; Hatt et al. 2018). Although these habitats have often been shown to increase the
374 abundance and diversity of natural enemies contributing to pest biological control in

375 adjacent crops (Alignier et al. 2014; Tschardt et al. 2016), their positive role depends
376 on how margins are managed by growers. However, in our study, we only observed
377 negative effects of margins for predators. *Aeolothrips* spp., *Orius* spp. and *Stethorus*
378 spp. decreased in abundance with an increase in margins in the landscape. In addition,
379 field margins enhanced the abundance of the herbivores Aphididae in spring and other
380 Thripidae in summer. The opposite result was recorded in the area by Clemente-Orta et
381 al. (2020) for maize and *Orius* spp.

382 The noncrop habitats were only related to the abundances of two predators. *Orius* spp.
383 increased their abundance (spring and summer) when the proportion of noncrop habitat
384 increased whereas, in parallel, Syrphidae decreased in spring. Veres et al. (2012)
385 attributed this role of noncrop habitats as refuges for *Orius* overwintering. However, the
386 opposite has been found in some publications that report a positive effect of seminatural
387 habitats on the abundance of hoverflies (e.g., Haenke et al. 2014; Schirmel et al. 2018).
388 The benefit of noncrop habitats in terms of pest biocontrol enhancement remains
389 inconclusive, as remarked by the meta-analysis of Karp et al. (2018). The different
390 nature and composition of noncrop or seminatural habitats are likely to explain at least
391 partially the different results found in the literature for their role in natural enemy
392 abundance.

393 Commonly, landscape diversity is expressed by the Shannon diversity index. In our
394 study, Shannon index of landscape cover types was not a variable that significantly
395 influenced predator abundance on alfalfa. However, significant negative relationships
396 found between the landscape Shannon index and the abundance of relevant alfalfa pests
397 (*F. occidentalis* and *L. striatellus*) could be explained by undetected increases in the
398 abundance or preying activity of predators. There are several studies that have remarked
399 that landscape diversity itself is not a meaningful characteristic that affects biological

400 control services and pest suppression (Martin et al. 2016; Rusch et al. 2016; Tscharncke
401 et al. 2016; Landis 2017; Karp et al. 2018), while others have reported a positive
402 relationship between landscape diversity and natural enemy abundance (Rusch et al.
403 2016; Aguilera et al. 2020).

404 Winter cereals was the landscape variable that affected the abundances of the fewest
405 alfalfa insects. Only two insects were affected: the predatory Staphylinidae were
406 negatively affected, and the leafhopper *E. vitis* was positively affected, both in spring. It
407 was expected that effects only occurred in spring because alfalfa and winter cereals only
408 overlap at that time, although the sowing and harvesting dates of winter cereals have
409 been more variable in recent years. In summer, winter cereals are already harvested.
410 Since it has been reported that both crops share many predatory species in our area
411 (Pons and Eizaguirre 2009), we expected more alfalfa-winter cereal mutual influences
412 in spring.

413

414 Landscape variables may explain part of the insect abundances in a crop, but local (field
415 and immediate surroundings) conditions may also contribute to determine insect
416 abundances. In our study, the predator-prey relationship in alfalfa was the most
417 influential local variable; all herbivore abundances and almost all predator abundances
418 were positively related to their predators or prey, respectively. This was to be expected,
419 as more predators would concentrate in fields with more pest abundances. Exceptions
420 were the planthopper *L. striatellus* and predatory Syrphidae, which were both shown to
421 be negatively related to predators or prey, respectively, in summer. The positive effects
422 of natural enemy abundance and prey abundance in alfalfa and other crops are
423 commonly found in the literature (Elliott et al. 2002; Pons et al. 2005; Albajes et al.
424 2011; Ardanuy et al. 2018; Clemente-Orta et al. 2020; Ali et al. 2020). Alfalfa growth

425 stage was the second most significant local variable. In the study area, alfalfa undergoes
426 five cuttings during spring and summer, causing disturbances to aerial insects that have
427 to find temporary refuge in adjacent habitats and later move back to alfalfa. In the
428 process of alfalfa recolonisation, insect movement dynamics are species-specific; some
429 species return earlier than others, as observed in some predators (Madeira et al. 2014,
430 2016, 2018; di Lascio et al. 2016). This could explain both the positive and the negative
431 relationships between **insect abundances** and alfalfa growth stage. **In fact, recent studies**
432 **show that landscape effects could be present but masked or conditioned by the effects of**
433 **local farm management (Begg et al. 2017; Petit et al. 2017; Karp et al. 2018).** Other
434 local variables, such as the field's area-perimeter relationship and the alfalfa field age,
435 play less **important** roles in **determining** the effects of local variables on alfalfa insect
436 abundances and are only noticeable in summer.

437

438 **Conclusions**

- 439 - Orchard, forest, margins, **maize**, and alfalfa are the most influential landscape
- 440 variables determining herbivore and predator abundances in alfalfa crops.
- 441 - A high proportion of orchards in the landscape has a negative impact on the abundance
- 442 of predators in alfalfa due to the intensive management of orchards.
- 443 - The occurrence of forest patches negatively impacts the abundance of some predators.
- 444 - Alfalfa cover has only positive effects on the abundances of a few predators and
- 445 herbivores on alfalfa.
- 446 - Contrary to expectations, noncrop habitats, other arable crops (winter cereals), and
- 447 landscape measured by the Shannon index only play minor roles in determining the
- 448 abundance of predators in alfalfa.

449 - The abundance of alfalfa insects is mainly influenced by the amount of potential prey
450 or potential predators on the crop and by alfalfa growth stage.
451 This study provides evidence for the negative effects on alfalfa predators caused by the
452 increase in intensively managed orchards within areas previously dominated by arable
453 crops in the northeastern Iberian Peninsula. It also points out the importance of the
454 temporality of local and landscape effects on the abundance of insects in different crops.
455 In addition, the responses to local and landscape structure are highly species-specific.
456 For these reasons, management strategies to maximise natural biocontrol should be
457 designed at multiple spatial scales, including both local and landscape scales, also
458 considering temporality, all of which are factors that may contribute to maintaining and
459 increasing communities of natural enemies that can regulate crop pests in the study area.

460

461 **Acknowledgements**

462 This work was funded by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness
463 (MINECO) (grant numbers AGL2014-53970-C2-1-R, AGL2014-53970-C2-2-R and
464 **PID2019-107030RB-C21**). Funding acknowledgment also to the CERCA Programme /
465 Generalitat de Catalunya. F. Madeira was funded by the EU Horizon 2020 projects
466 EMPHASIS (Grant Agreement No 634179) and EUCLID (Grant Agreement No
467 633999). S. Sossai was funded by the EU Horizon 2020 projects EMPHASIS (Grant
468 Agreement No 634179). G. Clemente-Orta was funded by the grant BES2015-072378
469 and I. Batuecas was funded by the grant BES-2015-075700 from the Spanish Ministry
470 of Economy and Competitiveness. Sponsor organisms did not have any role in the study
471 design, data collection and analysis or on writing and submitting the article for
472 publication. The landowners of the fields are also acknowledged for allowing us access
473 to their fields. **We thank Verena Rösch for constructive criticism of the manuscript and**

474 for language edits. We also thank the two anonymous reviewers for their valuable
475 comments.

476

477 **Author contribution**

478 RA, OA and FM conceived and designed research. FM, GCO, SS, IB, OA and RA
479 collected the data. FM and RA analysed data. FM wrote the paper. RA, GCO and OA
480 revised the final version. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

481

482 **Compliance with ethical standards**

483 **Conflicts of interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

484 **Ethics approval:** This article does not contain any studies with human participants or
485 vertebrates performed by any of the authors.

486 **Informed consent:** The six authors of this manuscript accepted that the paper is
487 submitted for publication in the Journal of Pest Science, and report that this paper has
488 not been published or accepted for publication in another journal, and it is not under
489 consideration at another journal.

490

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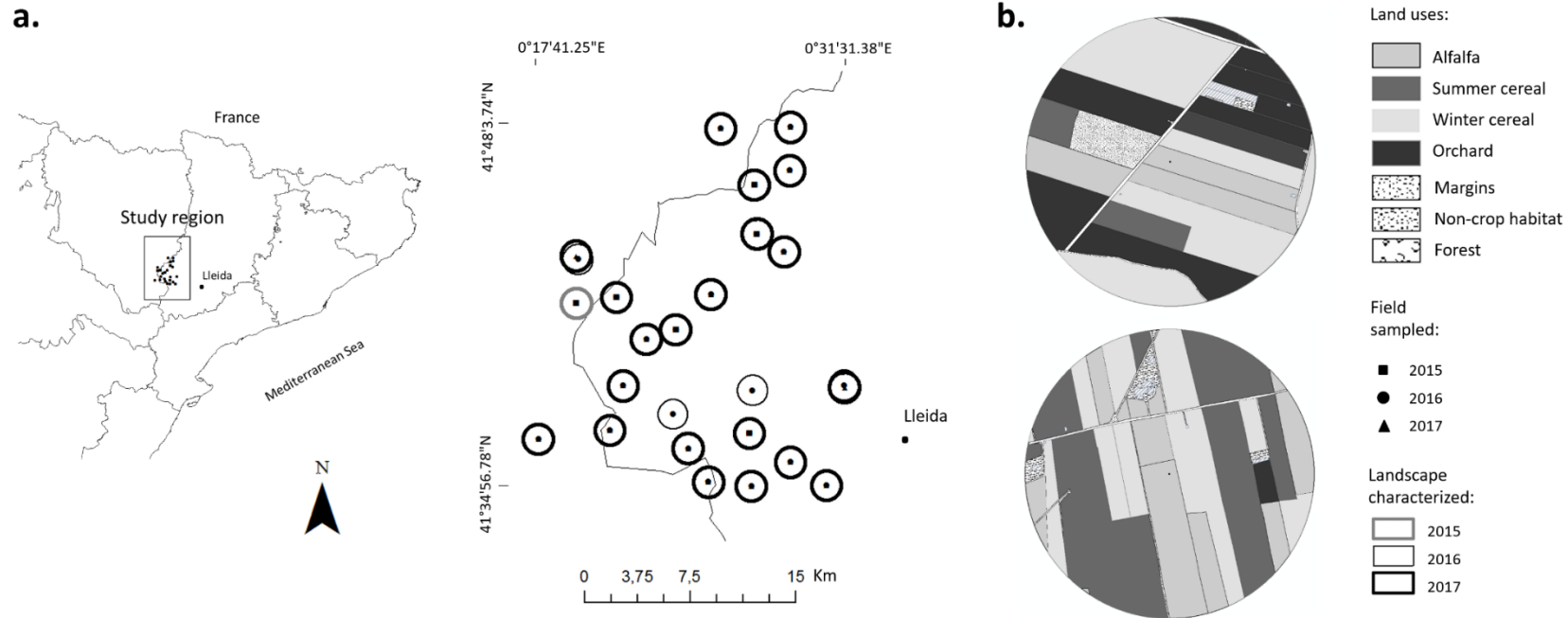
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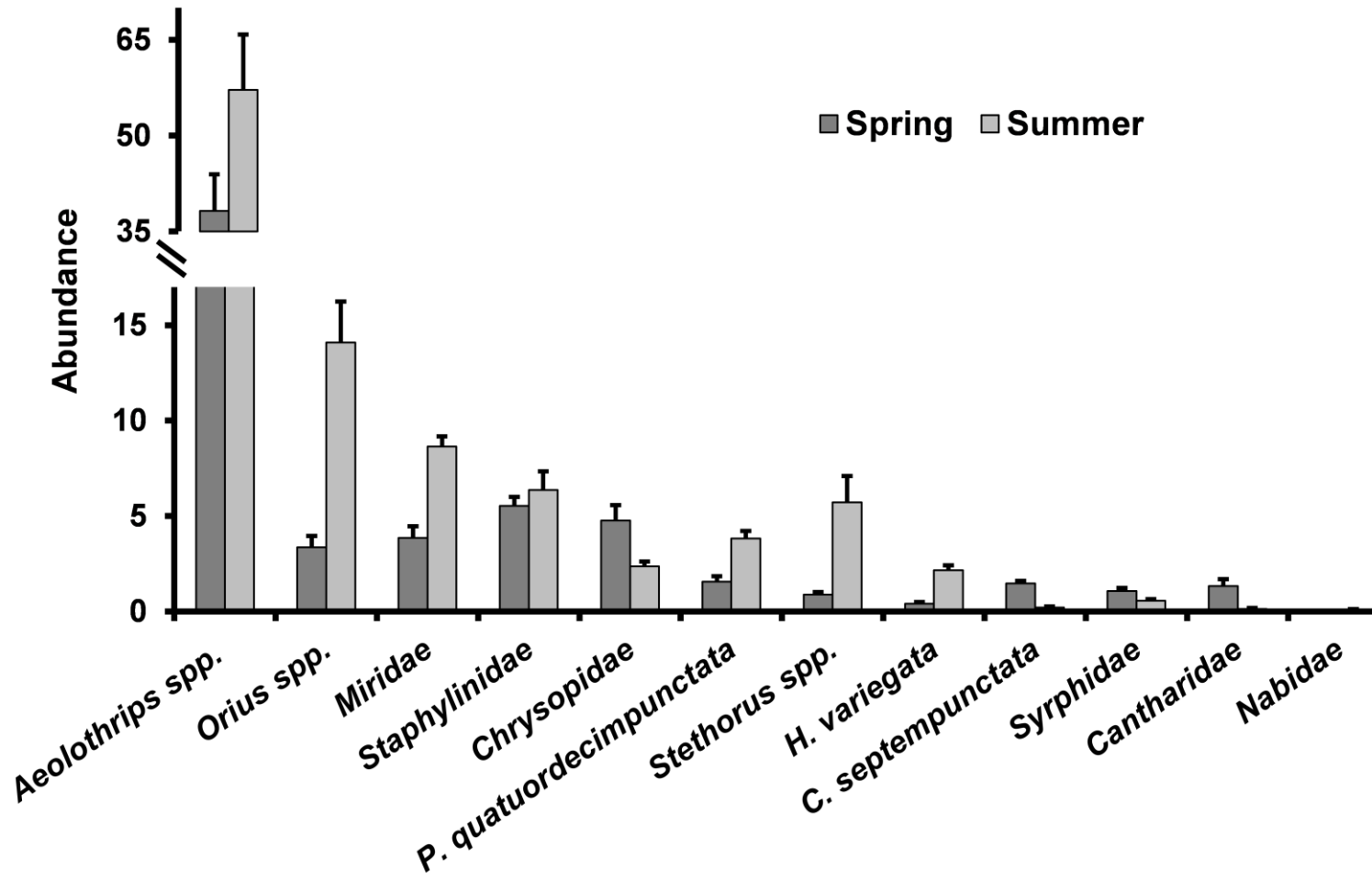
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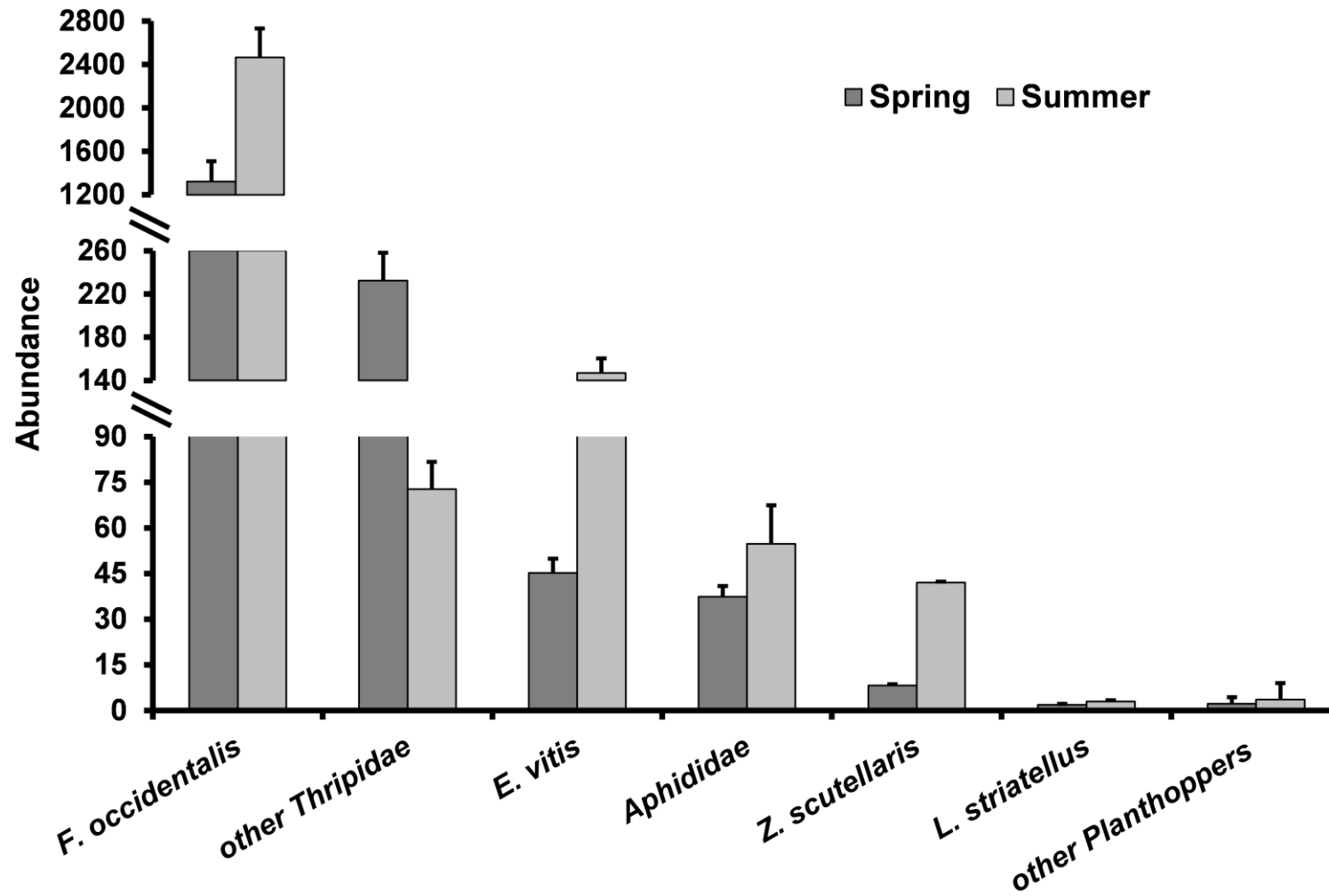
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Fig. 1. a. Location of alfalfa fields sampled in 1st, 2nd and 3rd years (2015, 2016 and 2017) in the Ebro Basin in the north-eastern Iberian Peninsula and **b.** Example of buffer description. Different shades indicate different crops in the landscape. The central point in the buffer indicates the middle sticky trap in the alfalfa field.



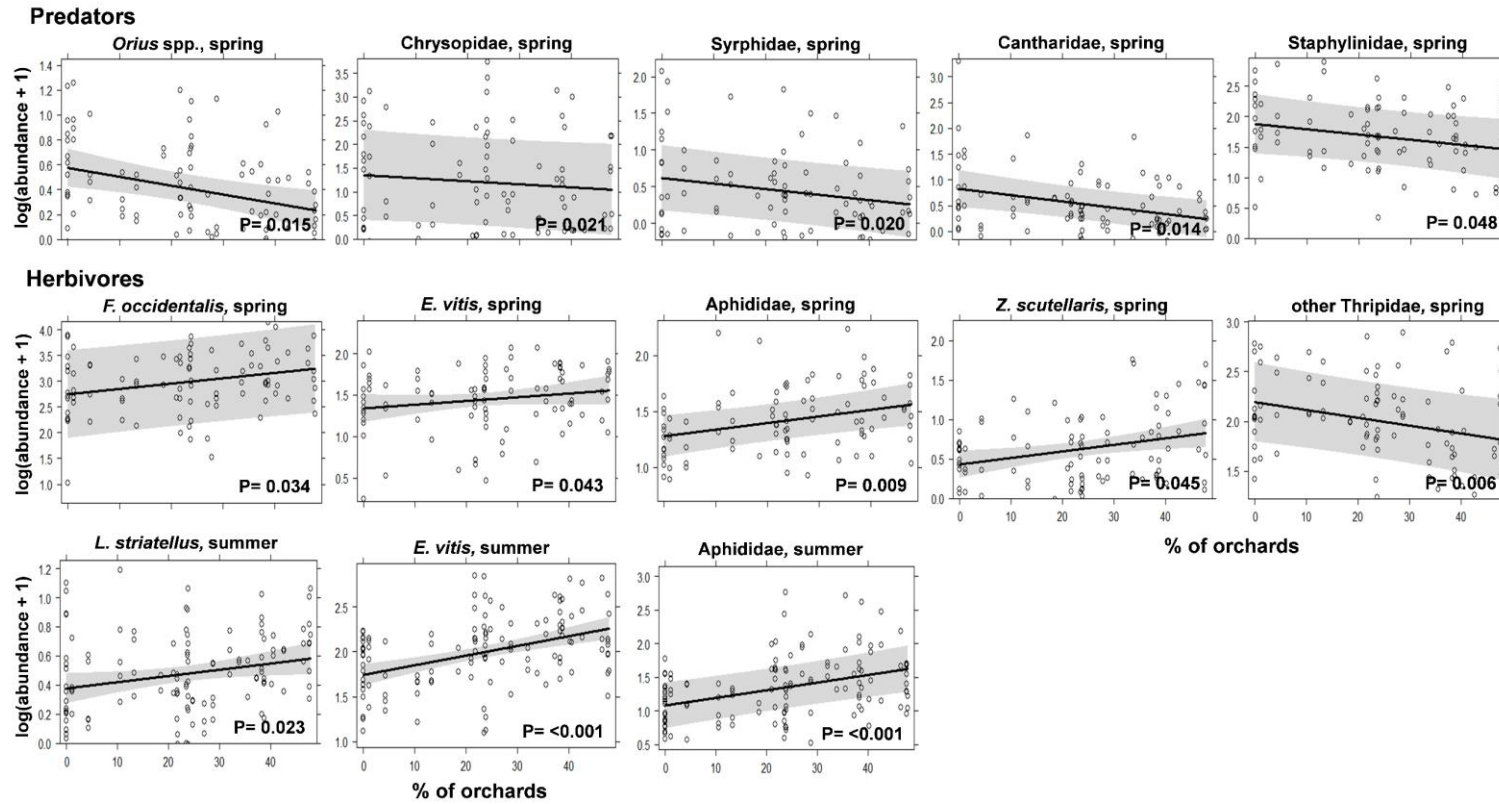
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779 **Fig. 2.** Abundance of predators (mean number of insects/trap ± SE) in alfalfa collected with yellow sticky traps in all samplings in spring and
 780 summer.



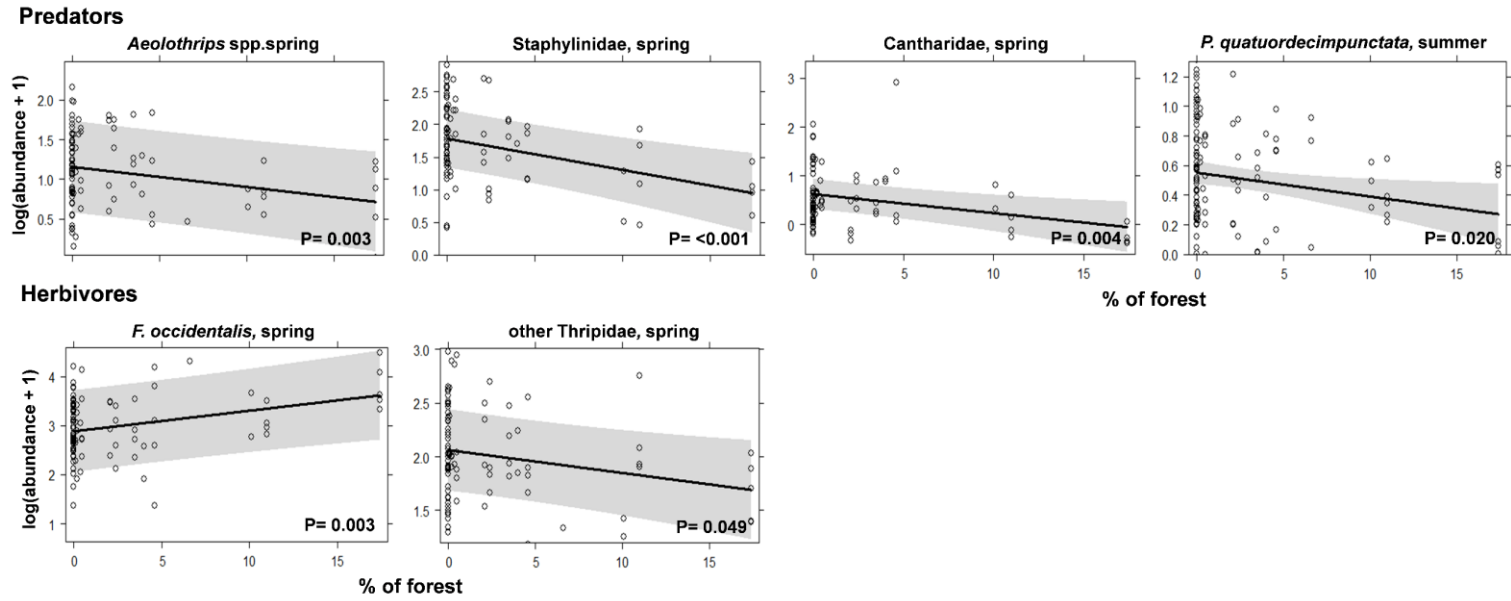
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Fig. 3. Abundance of herbivores (mean number insects/trap ± SE) in alfalfa collected with yellow sticky traps in all samplings in spring and summer.



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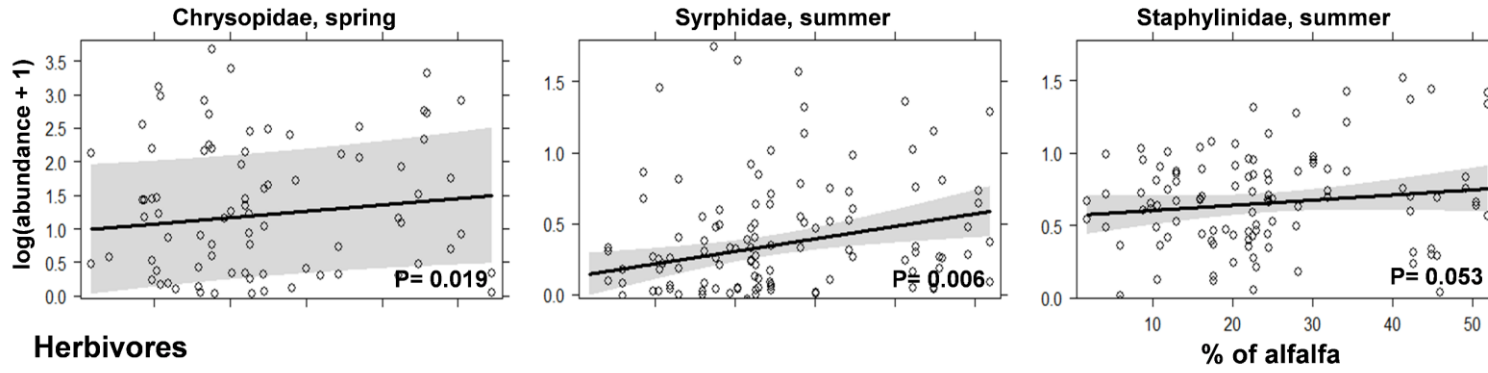
Fig. 4. Effects of the proportion of orchards (spring and summer) in the landscape on the abundances of predators and herbivores.



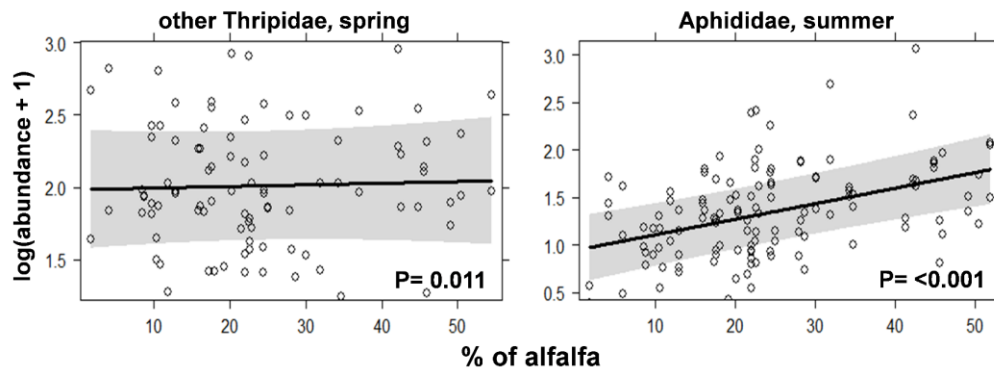
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Fig. 5. Effects of the proportion of forest (spring and summer) in the landscape on the abundances of predators and herbivores.

Predators

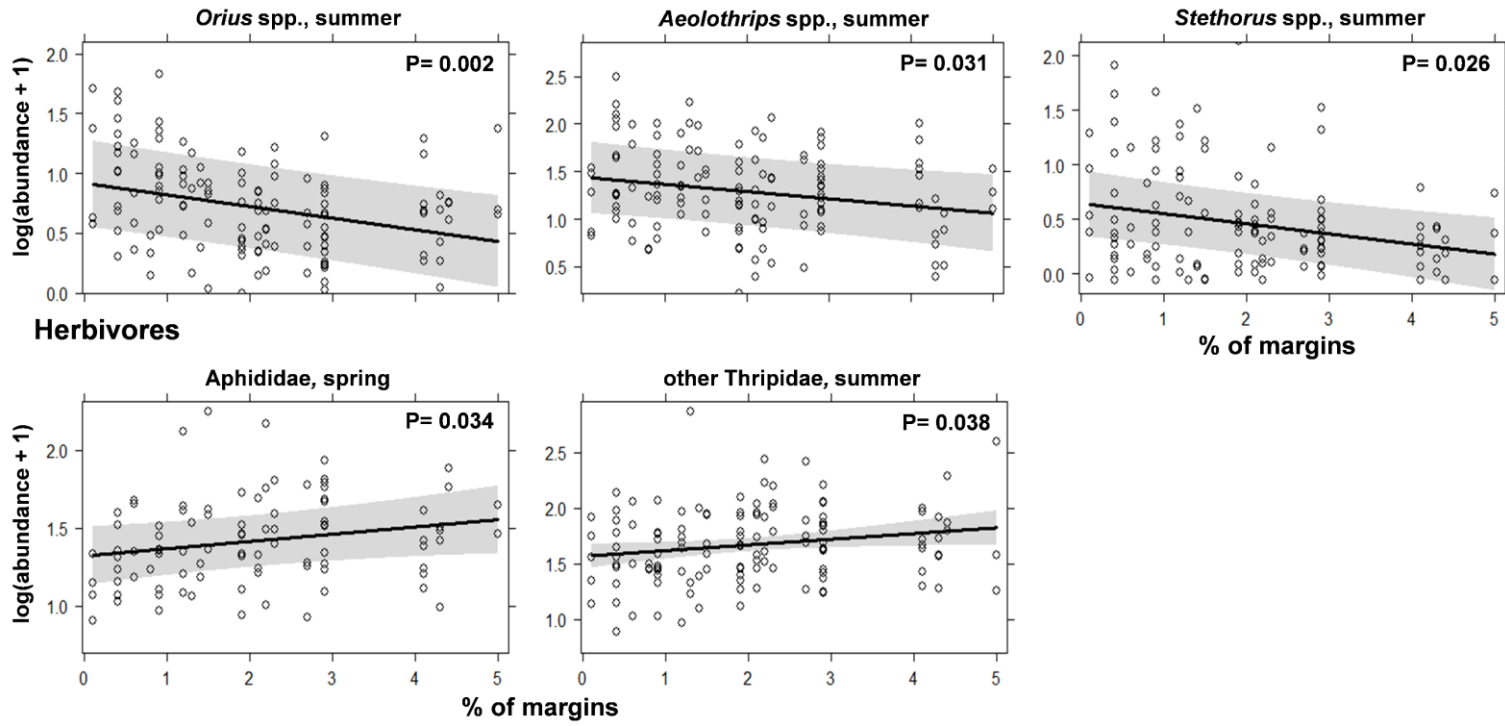


Herbivores



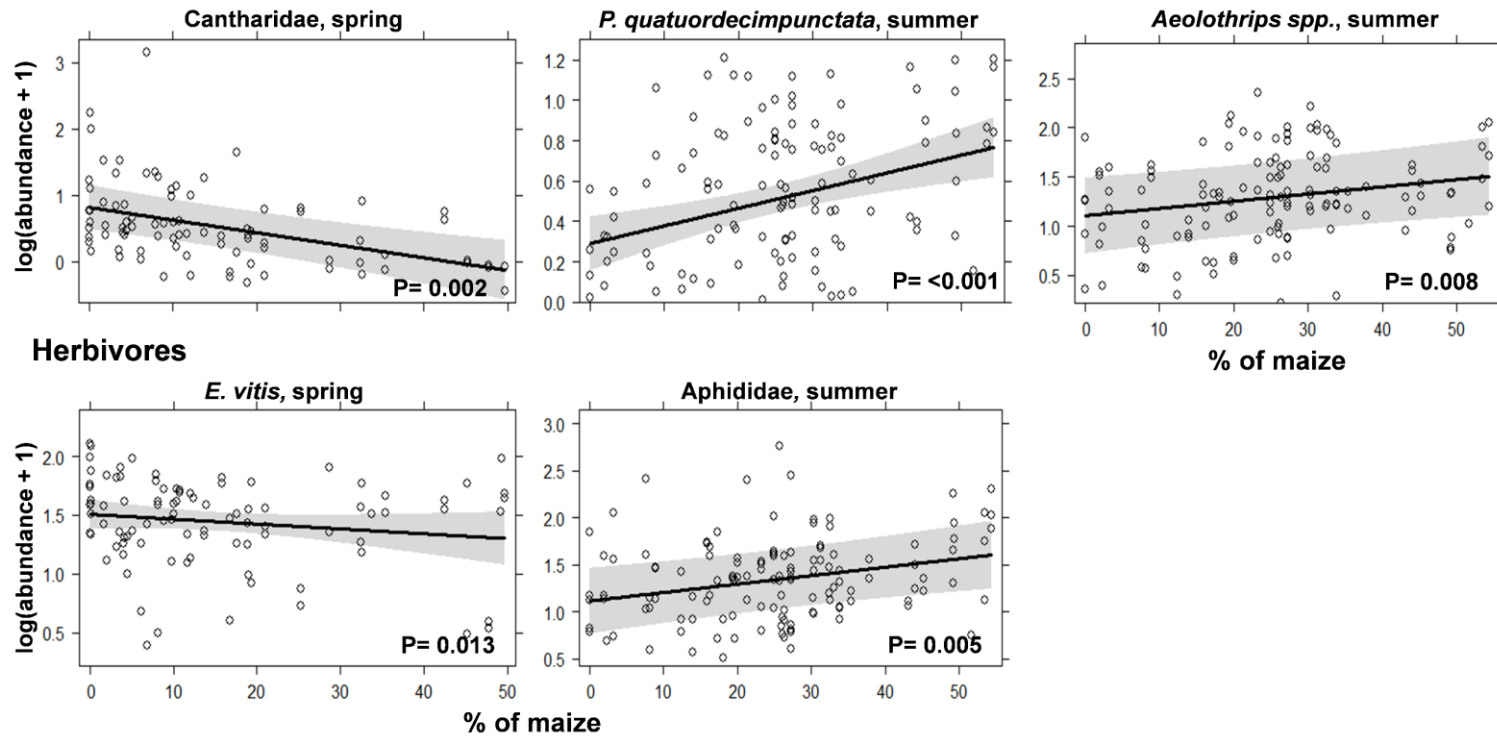
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Fig. 6. Effects of the proportion of alfalfa (spring and summer) in the landscape on the abundances of predators and herbivores.



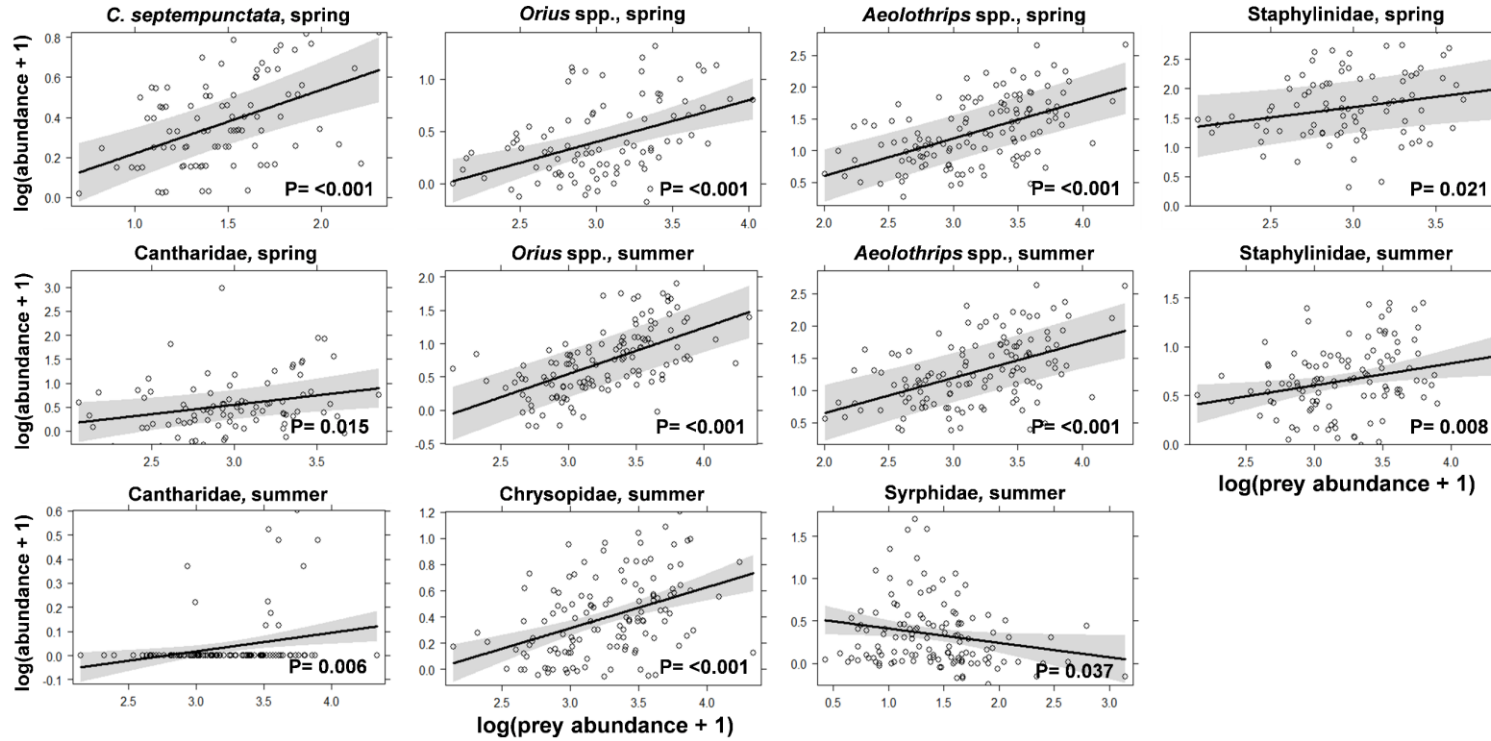
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Fig. 7. Effects of the proportion of margins (spring and summer) in the landscape on the abundances of predators and herbivores.



792 **Fig. 8.** Effects of the proportion of maize (spring and summer) in the landscape on the abundances of predators and herbivores.

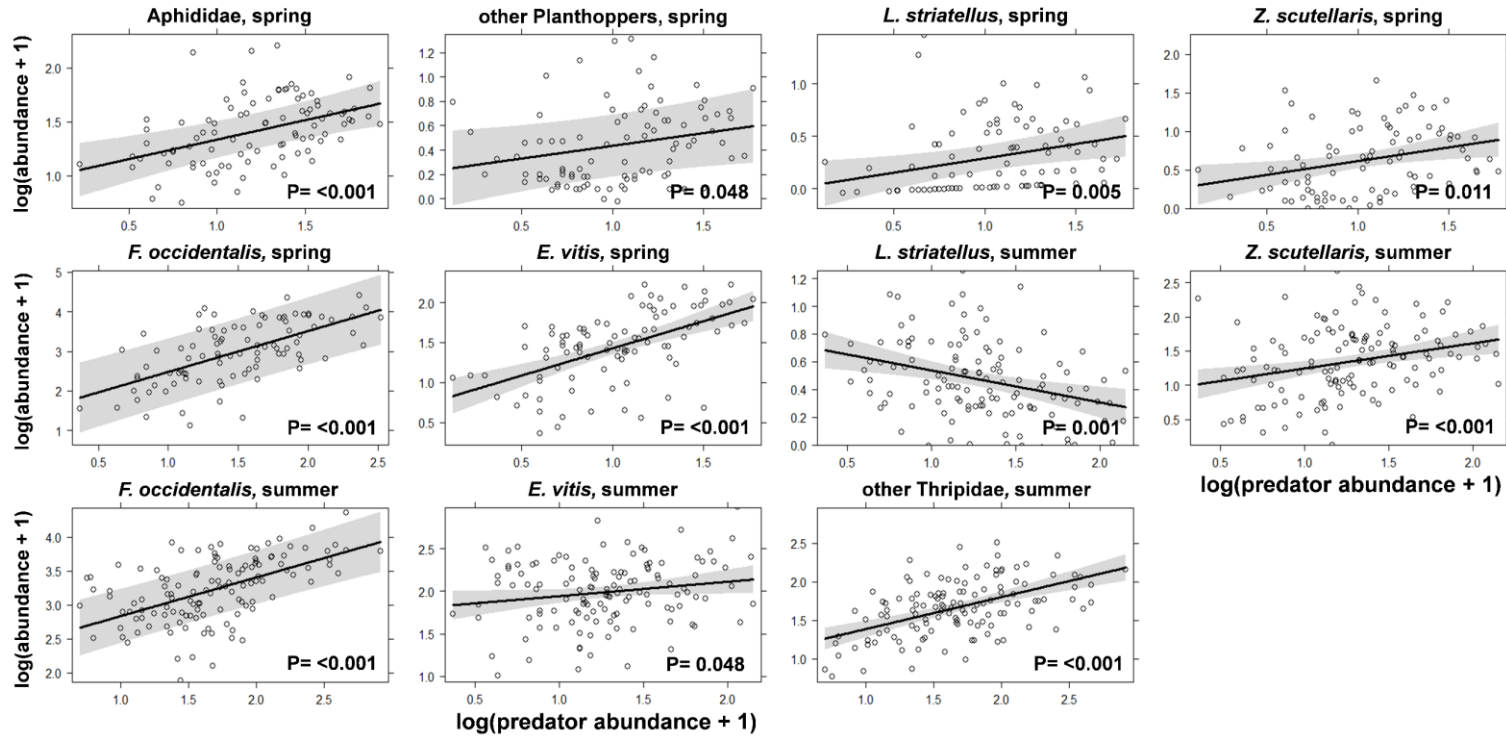
Predators



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Fig. 9. Effects of the abundance of prey on the alfalfa field (spring and summer) on the abundance of predators.

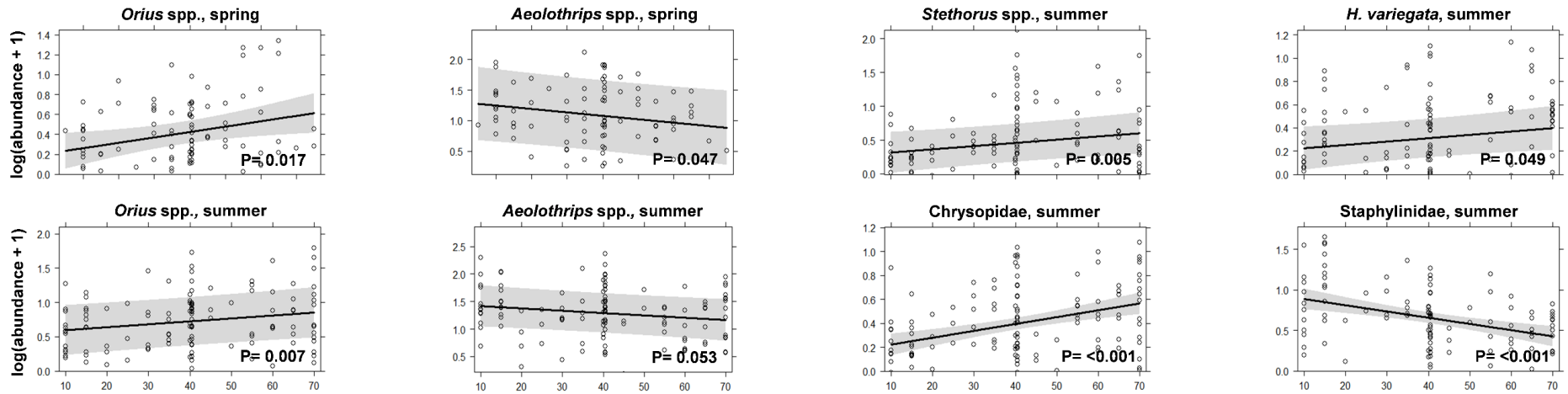
Herbivores



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Fig. 10. Effects of the abundance of predators on the alfalfa field (spring and summer) on the abundance of herbivores.

Predators



Herbivores

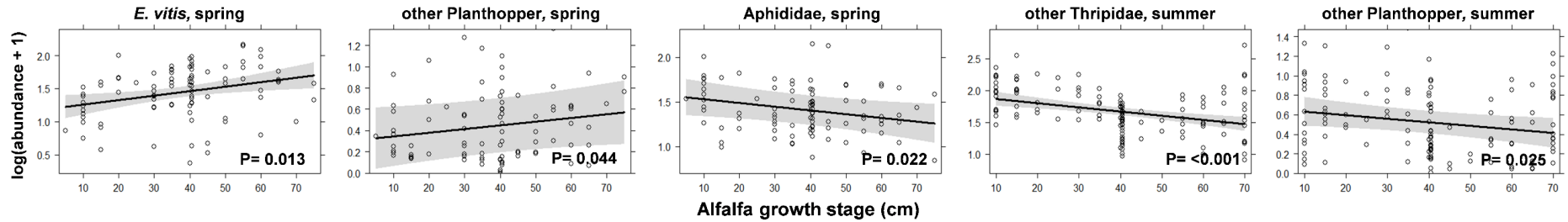


Fig. 11. Effects of the alfalfa growth stage (spring and summer) on the abundances of predators and herbivores.

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Table 1. Landscape structure and local variables around sampled alfalfa fields within 0.5-km radii in the north-eastern Iberian Peninsula used in this study.

Categories	Variables	Description
Landscape structure	Alfalfa	Proportion of alfalfa
	Winter Cereals	Proportion of winter cereals (mainly wheat and barley)
	Maize	Proportion of maize
	Orchards	Proportion of fruit orchards (mainly peach)
	Forest	Proportion of forest repopulated by <i>Pinus halepensis</i>
	Noncrop	Proportion of unproductive areas, older fallows, natural habitats and wetlands
	Margins	Proportion of margin strips (Marshall and Moonen, 2002)
	Shannon index	Shannon diversity index calculated as landscape diversity in the buffers
Local environment	Perimeter/Area	Perimeter to area ratio of the sampled alfalfa field (m ⁻¹)
	Alfalfa growth	Stage of alfalfa development (cm)
	Alfalfa age	Number of years of alfalfa in the field
	Prey/Predator	Abundance of main prey and predators by each insect group

802 **Table 2.** Significant variables (p values ≤ 0.05) in the best models ($\Delta AIC < 2$) relating predator abundance with landscape and field variables.
 803 Variables were standardised (mean-centred and scaled). Relative importance is the sum of Akaike's weight associated with the variables in the
 804 best models. Marginal R^2 values indicate the amount of variation explained by fixed factors only, while Conditional R^2 values represent the
 805 variance explained by both fixed and random factors in the model.

Species/Group	Spring							Summer										
	Variables best Model	Estimate	Std. Error	Adjusted SE	z value	Pr(> z)	Relative importance	R^2		Variables best Model	Estimate	Std. Error	Adjusted SE	z value	Pr(> z)	Relative importance	R^2	
								Marg.	Cond.								Marg.	Cond.
<i>C. septempunctata</i>	(Intercept)	-0.27	0.25	0.25	1.06	0.29090		0.24	0.37	(Intercept)	0.05	0.10	0.10	0.46	0.64600		0.23	0.37
	Prey	0.33	0.07	0.07	4.93	0.00000	1			Perimeter/Area	-0.05	0.03	0.03	1.99	0.04620	0.79		
<i>H. variegata</i>	n.a.									(Intercept)	0.75	0.23	0.23	3.19	0.00143		0.09	0.26
										Alfalfa growth	0.13	0.07	0.07	1.96	0.04990	1		
										Perimeter/Area	-0.14	0.07	0.07	2.08	0.03746	1		
<i>P. quatuordecimpunctata</i>	n.a.									(Intercept)	1.16	0.12	0.12	9.63	< 2e-16		0.07	0.38
										Alfalfa age	-0.17	0.07	0.07	2.36	0.01829	1		
										Forest	-0.17	0.07	0.07	2.32	0.02029	1		
										Maize	0.27	0.08	0.08	3.44	0.00058	1		
Chrysopidae	(Intercept)	1.03	0.56	0.57	1.81	0.07010		0.09	0.57	(Intercept)	-1.33	0.46	0.47	2.84	0.00450		0.07	0.54
	Alfalfa	0.21	0.09	0.09	2.35	0.01900	0.64			Alfalfa growth	0.25	0.06	0.06	4.33	0.00002	1		
	Orchards	-0.21	0.09	0.09	2.30	0.02130	0.39			Prey	0.30	0.06	0.06	4.82	0.00000	1		
Syrphidae	(Intercept)	0.24	0.32	0.32	0.73	0.46510		0.15	0.46	(Intercept)	0.58	0.12	0.12	4.84	0.00000		0.12	0.12
	Noncrops	-0.12	0.05	0.05	2.39	0.01700	1			Alfalfa	0.11	0.04	0.04	2.73	0.00637	1		
	Orchards	-0.12	0.05	0.05	2.32	0.02060	0.96			Prey	-0.07	0.04	0.04	2.09	0.03703	1		
<i>Aeolothrips spp.</i>	(Intercept)	-2.08	0.97	0.98	2.12	0.03367		0.22	0.69	(Intercept)	-1.31	0.75	0.76	1.72	0.08525		0.30	0.54
	Alfalfa growth	-0.20	0.10	0.10	1.99	0.04711	0.87			Alfalfa age	0.21	0.09	0.09	2.19	0.02874	1		
	Forest	-0.29	0.10	0.10	2.95	0.00317	1			Alfalfa growth	-0.17	0.09	0.09	1.94	0.05297	0.89		
	Prey	0.68	0.10	0.10	6.77	< 2e-16	1			Prey	0.59	0.09	0.09	6.74	< 2e-16	1		
										Maize	0.28	0.10	0.10	2.67	0.00766	1		
									Margins	-0.21	0.10	0.10	2.15	0.03136	0.89			
<i>Orius spp.</i>	(Intercept)	-2.04	0.64	0.65	3.15	0.00163		0.35	0.36	(Intercept)	-3.61	0.77	0.78	4.63	0.00000		0.36	0.65
	Alfalfa growth	0.21	0.09	0.09	2.38	0.01732	1			Alfalfa growth	0.21	0.08	0.08	2.68	0.00738	1		
	Prey	0.43	0.09	0.09	4.76	0.00000	1			Prey	0.70	0.09	0.09	8.08	< 2e-16	1		
	Noncrops	0.25	0.09	0.09	2.69	0.00714	1			Margins	-0.25	0.08	0.08	3.07	0.00212	1		
	Orchards	-0.25	0.10	0.10	2.41	0.01594	0.94			Noncrops	0.22	0.08	0.08	2.71	0.00673	1		
Staphylinidae	(Intercept)	0.58	0.52	0.53	1.10	0.27238		0.19	0.43	(Intercept)	-0.28	0.67	0.67	0.41	0.68262		0.28	0.28
	Forest	-0.21	0.06	0.06	3.34	0.00085	1			Alfalfa growth	-0.34	0.08	0.08	4.19	0.00003	1		
	Prey	0.16	0.07	0.07	2.30	0.02143	1			Prey	0.24	0.09	0.09	2.66	0.00778	1		
	Orchards	-0.15	0.07	0.07	1.97	0.04840	0.8			Alfalfa	0.18	0.09	0.09	1.93	0.05308	0.39		
	Winter Cereal	-0.16	0.07	0.07	2.09	0.03647	0.9											
Nabidae	n.a.									(Intercept)	0.07	0.07	0.07	1.08	0.28220		0.07	0.25
										Alfalfa growth	-0.04	0.02	0.02	2.08	0.03710	1		
Miridae	(Intercept)	-2.59	0.72	0.73	3.55	0.00039		0.21	0.70	n.a.								
	Prey	0.49	0.07	0.07	6.71	< 2e-16	1											
	Shannon	0.20	0.08	0.08	2.58	0.00983	1											
Cantharidae	(Intercept)	-0.58	0.48	0.49	1.19	0.23396		0.28	0.37	(Intercept)	-0.48	0.20	0.20	2.33	0.01990		0.12	0.12
	Forest	-0.18	0.06	0.06	2.87	0.00416	1			Prey	0.08	0.03	0.03	2.74	0.00620	1		
	Prey	0.16	0.07	0.07	2.42	0.01533	1											
	Maize	-0.25	0.08	0.08	3.15	0.00161	1											
	Orchards	-0.18	0.07	0.08	2.45	0.01440	1											
<i>Stethorus spp.</i>	n.a.									(Intercept)	1.06	0.33	0.33	3.21	0.00135		0.13	0.34
										Alfalfa growth	0.25	0.09	0.09	2.77	0.00569	1		
										Margins	-0.21	0.09	0.10	2.22	0.02643	0.95		

