

1 **Effect of landscape composition on the invasive pest *Halyomorpha halys* in fruit**
2 **orchards**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 The brown marmorated stink bug, *Halyomorpha halys* (Stål) (Hemiptera: Pentatomidae), native
18 to eastern Asia, has become one of the most serious pests of fruit orchards worldwide. This
19 invasive species is highly polyphagous and capable of moving across the agricultural matrix at
20 long distances. However, comprehensive studies exploring how landscape characteristics
21 influence *H. halys* colonization of orchards are still lacking. Here, we investigated the impact
22 of landscape composition on the trap captures of *H. halys* in 113 orchards of different fruit tree
23 crops (i.e., apple, pear, peach, walnut and kiwi) in northern Italy. We found that landscapes rich
24 in seminatural habitats and vineyards and poor in annual crops supported a higher abundance
25 of *H. halys* juveniles in traps. This pattern became more evident towards the end of the growing
26 season as the abundance of juveniles increased. Adults were instead not affected by the
27 landscape. The invasive stink bug best responded to landscape processes at large spatial scales
28 (3000 m) confirming its high dispersal ability. Moreover, *H. halys* did not display a strong
29 preference among fruit orchards, although fewer individuals were caught in walnut orchards.
30 Our findings suggest that the habitat composition of agricultural landscapes is a key factor
31 driving the dynamics of *H. halys* in agroecosystems and that seminatural habitats might be
32 important in supporting *H. halys* populations and crop colonization. These effects are however
33 limited to juveniles while adult density was similar even in landscapes with very contrasting
34 structures.

35 **Keywords:** alien species, brown marmorated stink bug, crop pest, insect monitoring,
36 seminatural habitats.

37 **1. Introduction**

38 The brown marmorated stink bug, *Halyomorpha halys* (Stål) (Hemiptera: Pentatomidae), native
39 to eastern Asia, has become one of the most harmful invasive pest in North America and Europe
40 (Leskey and Nielsen 2018). This stink bug is highly polyphagous and is characterized by a high
41 reproductive rate and dispersal ability (Wiman et al. 2015; Lee and Leskey 2015; Bergmann et
42 al. 2016). It feeds on a broad range of wild and cultivated plants, causing extensive damage to
43 orchard crops, vegetables, grapes, small fruits, row crops, ornamentals, and nursery crops (Lee
44 et al. 2013, Leskey and Nielsen 2018). Moreover, this species represents a serious household
45 pest, as it can use man-made structures as overwintering sites (Inkley 2012). Current control
46 strategies heavily rely on frequent applications of broad-spectrum insecticides, with potential
47 detrimental impacts on non-target organisms and the environment (Kuhar and Kamminga
48 2017). A better understanding on the main factors driving the dynamics of *H. halys* in
49 agroecosystems is fundamental to support innovative and more sustainable control management
50 strategies (Mazzi and Dorn 2012; Rusch et al. 2013; Mele et al. 2022).

51 Research on control strategies for *H. halys* have mainly focused on the local field scale
52 (Mathews et al. 2017; Kuhar and Kamminga 2017; Morrison et al. 2019). However, pest
53 occurrence in the field can be influenced by the characteristics of field's surroundings: insect
54 pests, and especially mobile ones that exploit resources from different habitats, can in fact move
55 across the agricultural matrix during their life cycle (Kennedy and Storer 2000). Moreover, the
56 biological control of crop pests often relies on the spillover of natural enemies from nearby
57 habitat patches into the fields (Thies et al. 2003; Tscharntke et al. 2005). Although pest response
58 to landscape composition is often inconsistent (Karp et al. 2018; Tamburini et al. 2020; Delaune
59 et al. 2021), studies that consider the characteristics of the agroecosystem at the landscape scale
60 are pivotal to better describe and forecast pest population occurrence in the field (Dainese et al.
61 2019; Martin et al. 2019).

62 Stink bug pests have been shown to benefit from the presence of semi-natural habitats in the
63 landscape, that provide alternative feeding, reproduction, and overwintering sites (Taki et al.
64 2014; Rice et al. 2016). In some cases, semi-natural habitats also support higher control by
65 parasitoids (González et al. 2017, 2020). Studies focusing on *H. halys* response to landscape
66 composition are, however, still scarce. Wallner et al. (2014) found that *H. halys* density in New
67 Jersey, USA, was higher in landscapes rich in urban areas (2 km radius around traps) during
68 the initial invasion and establishment phase. During a later phase of population growth and
69 range expansion, the pest abundance was positively correlated to urban areas, semi-natural
70 habitats and agricultural fields. In the mid-Atlantic USA, damages caused by stink bugs (most
71 probably by *H. halys*) in tomato fields were higher in landscapes with larger forest edge (250
72 m buffer zone) (Rice et al. 2016). Finally, in northern Italy, higher abundance of *H. halys* adults
73 and also higher egg parasitism rates were recently found in kiwifruit orchards located close to
74 riparian areas (distance range 0.3 – 4.5 km) (Mele et al. 2022). These findings show that *H.*
75 *halys* is capable of dispersing across the agricultural matrix (Wiman et al. 2015; Lee and Leskey
76 2015) and indicate that landscape structure is likely to influence its occurrence in the field. Non-
77 crop habitats in agricultural landscapes such as forests, grasslands and urban sprawls, might
78 provide alternative hosts, overwintering sites or support communities of natural enemies.
79 Nevertheless, comprehensive studies on the impact of landscape composition on the population
80 dynamics of *H. halys* in different agricultural settings and crops, are urgently needed.

81 Here, we investigated the impact of landscape composition on the abundance of *H. halys* in
82 Veneto region, northern Italy. *Halyomorpha halys* was first reported in Italy in 2012 (Maistrello
83 et al. 2016) and is now present all over the country and considered as a key pest of fruit orchards
84 (Maistrello et al. 2017, 2018; Moore et al. 2019; Zapponi et al. 2021; Francati et al. 2021). We
85 sampled 113 orchards of different fruit tree crops (i.e., apple, pear, peach, walnut and kiwi).
86 We hypothesized that i) landscapes characterized by a high proportion of semi-natural habitats

87 and urban areas would favour *H. halys*, especially at the beginning and at the end of the season,
88 when the adults disperse from and to overwintering sites, respectively; ii) landscapes
89 characterized by a high proportion of arable land (i.e., annual and/or perennial crops) would
90 generally favour *H. halys*. We also tested *H. halys* preference for fruit tree crop and whether
91 adults and juveniles responded differently to landscape characteristics.

92 **2. Material and methods**

93 *2.1 Sampling sites and landscape analyses*

94 The study was conducted in Veneto region, northeast Italy (centered on latitude 45°22'27"
95 N, longitude 11°45'43" E). This region presents an extensive lowland area characterized by
96 temperate climate with a mean annual precipitation of c. 700 mm and a mean annual
97 temperature of c. 14 °C. The agricultural landscapes in the study area are dominated by annual
98 crops (55%; mainly wheat, corn and soybean), perennial crops (18%; mainly fruit orchards and
99 vineyards), and urban sprawls (18%). Semi-natural habitats (4%) generally include pastures
100 and small patches of mixed broadleaf forests. *Halyomorpha halys* was reported for the first time
101 in the study region in 2014, rapidly expanding its distribution area in the subsequent years
102 (Cesari et al. 2018).

103 The sampling took place in 113 fruit orchards mainly located in the southwestern part of the
104 region (Fig. 1; elevation range: from 6 to 98 m a.s.l.). The survey was carried out in 2020 and
105 included 34 apple, 33 pear, 19 peach, 18 walnut and 9 kiwifruit orchards. Most of the monitored
106 orchards were conventionally managed (85%), whereas only 15 were organic. Walnut orchards
107 were all conventionally managed. Because of the imbalance between conventional and organic
108 sites, local management was not further considered in this study. We quantified the landscape
109 composition around each orchard within a 250, 500, 1000, 1500, 2000 and 3000-m radius buffer
110 as, to our knowledge, scale dependency has never been tested for *H. halys* before. Within each
111 buffer, we measured the cover of annual crops, orchards, vineyards, grasslands, forests, and

112 urban areas by analyzing regional land use maps (<https://idt2.regione.veneto.it>) in GIS (QGIS
113 2022). Since we found considerable correlation among landscape factors (Table S1), we used
114 principal component analysis to extrapolate two independent variables (i.e., principal
115 components) that described landscape characteristics surrounding the monitored sites at each
116 spatial scale (250 – 3000 m radii) (Gardiner et al. 2009). PC1 (numeric; principal component
117 1) and PC2 (numeric; principal component 2) explained 70.7% of the total variance of the
118 dataset, contributing 49.0 and 21.6%, respectively (Fig. 3a). Sites characterized by positive
119 values on PC1 were correlated with the variables seminatural habitats and vineyards, while PC1
120 negative values were correlated with annual crops. Sites with positive values on PC2 were
121 correlated with urban areas, while PC2 negative values were correlated with fruit orchards.

122 The insect monitoring was performed from the 6th of April to the 2nd of November 2020 by
123 the personnel of the University of Padova, AGREA S.r.l. Centro Studi, phytosanitary services
124 of the Veneto region and by field technicians belonging to different fruit grower associations,
125 following a common protocol defined by the personnel of the University of Padova.
126 *Halyomorpha halys* populations were monitored using one clear sticky trap per site baited with
127 the commercial aggregation pheromone lure Trécé (Trécé Inc., Adair, OK, USA). This type of
128 trap and lure has been proven to effectively attract both adults and juveniles of *H. halys* and to
129 reliably monitor the relative population abundance of the stink bug (Acebes-Doria et al. 2018,
130 2019). Traps were placed at the outer margins of the orchards to avoid increasing stink bug
131 infestation into the orchards, and they were attached to non-crop vegetation, wooden stakes or
132 to fruit tree branches, at c. 1.5 m above the ground. Traps were exposed on average $173.5 \pm$
133 35.0 consecutive days per site and checked weekly, where adults and juveniles were counted
134 separately. The lure was replaced every two months.

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136

137 2.2 Statistical analyses

138 We used linear mixed-effects models to explore the effects of landscape composition on *H.*
139 *halys*. Abundance of adults and juveniles was averaged at the site level for each month and log-
140 transformed to improve model residuals. We run six models to test the effect of landscape
141 factors at different spatial scale (250, 500, 1000, 1500, 2000 and 3000-m radius). Each model
142 included PC1 and PC2, sampling month (numeric; from April to October), development stage
143 (categorical; juveniles, adults), their interactions, and fruit tree crop (categorical; pear, kiwi,
144 peach, apple, walnut) as fixed effects. We also included the quadratic and cubic terms of
145 sampling month to better fit the temporal dynamics of *H. halys* populations. We did not consider
146 four-ways interactions to limit model complexity. Site ID was included as random factor. The
147 best landscape scale was then identified based on model AIC (Akaike 2011). Tukey multiple
148 comparison test was applied to determine significant differences among fruit tree crops. To
149 assess potential multicollinearity among the explanatory variables, we calculated the variance
150 inflation factor (VIF) for all models without interactions and quadratic or cubic terms. VIF
151 scores were always below 1.5, indicating low collinearity in our dataset (Dormann et al. 2013).
152 We also tested for potential spatial autocorrelation of model residuals using Moran's I-statistic.
153 We did not find significant spatial autocorrelation in the residuals for any of the six models
154 examined. Sixteen orchards were located in the central and eastern part of the region and were
155 distant more than 40 km from the majority of the sites, situated instead in the southwestern part
156 of the region (Fig. 1). Nevertheless, excluding those sites did not qualitatively affect the results
157 of the analyses (see Table S2). Finally, analyzing abundance data for adults and juveniles
158 separately, produced qualitatively similar results for all the models (see Table S3). Normality
159 and homoscedasticity of the model residuals were validated graphically. We performed the
160 analyses using the 'lme4' package (Bates et al. 2017) implemented in R (R Core Team 2021).

161

162 3. Results

163 We collected a total of 14,354 adults and 8,960 juveniles of *H. halys* (mean individuals trap⁻¹
164 week⁻¹ = 6.2 ± 6.4 and 3.9 ± 5.6, respectively). The model at 3000-m scale yielded the lowest
165 AIC and explained 55% of the variance (conditional pseudo-R²; Table S4). Despite the worse
166 fit of the models at smaller scales, results were qualitatively similar to those at the 3000-m scale.
167 The abundance of *H. halys* peaked in August and September with an increase since the
168 beginning of the season that was stronger for juveniles than for adults (Month x Stage
169 interaction; Fig. 2). The effect of landscape composition on *H. halys* depended on both
170 development stage and time (PC1 x Month x Stage interaction): abundance of juveniles was
171 positively correlated to PC1 (i.e., more juveniles in landscapes rich in seminatural habitats and
172 vineyards) and this relationship was stronger at the end of the season (Table 1; Fig. 3). Adults
173 instead were not affected by landscape composition. Moreover, fruit tree crop influenced *H.*
174 *halys* abundance, since we found more individuals on traps placed in pear, kiwifruit, peach, and
175 apple orchards than in walnut orchards (Table S5, Fig. 4). We found no significant effects of
176 PC2 (i.e., urban areas and fruit orchards).

177 4. Discussion

178 We found landscape composition to influence the abundance of trapped *H. halys* in fruit
179 orchards. Landscapes rich in seminatural habitats and vineyards and poor in annual crops,
180 generally supported a higher abundance of *H. halys* juveniles, especially at the end of the
181 season. Adults were not instead affected by landscape composition. *Halyomorpha halys* did not
182 display a strong preference between fruit tree crops, although fewer individuals were caught in
183 walnut orchards. *Halyomorpha halys* best responded to landscape processes at large spatial
184 scale (3000 m) confirming its high dispersal ability. Our findings suggest that the composition
185 of agricultural landscapes is an important factor driving the dynamics of *H. halys* populations.

186 The populations of *H. halys* in our study peaked in August and September, with the number
187 of both juveniles and adults steadily increasing since the beginning of spring. It is hence difficult
188 to discern distinct generations in the dynamics of trap captures. Most probably, the pest
189 completed two generations, as previously reported in northern Italy, with the simultaneous
190 presence of all development stages and more than one generation, during summer (Bariselli et
191 al. 2016; Costi et al. 2017). Interestingly, the abundance of adults was already quite high at the
192 beginning of April, suggesting that, when the monitoring started, the overwintered individuals
193 already moved to the fields. Finally, our study indicates that in autumn, when the temperature
194 dropped and food resources were no longer available in the field, *H. halys* left the orchards
195 probably to reach overwintering sites (Bakken et al. 2015).

196 We found a higher number of juveniles in orchards located in agricultural landscapes
197 characterized by high cover of seminatural habitats and vineyards and low cover annual crops
198 (i.e., high values of PC1). This pattern became evident towards the end of the season as the
199 abundance of juveniles increased (i.e., from June to September, Fig. 3 and S1). Seminatural
200 habitats probably provide a more suitable environment for oviposition and development of
201 juveniles compared to annual crops, with more diverse and temporarily stable host plants and
202 refuges. The availability of multiple hosts has been shown to positively affect the growth of *H.*
203 *halys* populations. Funayama (2004) found lower nutritional status and fecundity when *H. halys*
204 fed apple compared to peanuts and soybeans. Acebes-Doria et al. (2016) reported that juveniles
205 reared on mixed-host diets displayed increased survivorship, decreased developmental duration
206 and greater size and weight as adults, compared to individuals that had access to single hosts.
207 Similarly, Stahl et al. (2021) reported that a mixed diet on tree crops in field can increase adult
208 female size. Moreover, seminatural habitats are probably more suitable reproduction and
209 oviposition sites for *H. halys* compared to annual crops, that are regularly disturbed by pesticide
210 applications and harvest operations. As previously suggested (Venugopal et al. 2014; Bergh et

211 al. 2021; Mele et al. 2022), our study indicates that seminatural habitats are important in
212 supporting *H. halys* populations, potentially increasing pest colonization and crop damage to
213 neighboring orchards. Whether the presence of vineyards in the landscape played a role in
214 sustaining *H. halys* juveniles in the monitored sites is uncertain, mainly for the lack of potential
215 explanations or evidence from previous studies supporting this hypothesis. Vineyards in fact,
216 although more stable than annual crops, are in terms of plant diversity and level of disturbance
217 similar to fruit orchards, which cover in the landscape was not found to influence *H. halys*
218 captures (Fig. 3). Our analysis does not allow to clearly identify the role of these three habitats
219 (i.e., seminatural habitats, vineyards and annual crops) in affecting stink bug populations.
220 Experiments designed to control for correlations among landscape variables will help
221 understanding the habitat preference and use of *H. halys*.

222 Contrary to our hypothesis, we did not find any response of *H. halys* adults to landscape
223 composition. In particular, seminatural habitats and urban areas did not affect its abundance in
224 early spring and autumn, when these habitats were expected to influence the dynamics of *H.*
225 *halys* being important overwintering sites. Also, the abundance of potential hosts in the
226 landscape (annual crops or orchards) did not affect adult abundance. A possible explanation is
227 that, having become well establish and overwhelmingly present in the study region (Cesari et
228 al. 2018), being able to disperse quickly and at great distance (Lee and Leskey 2015; Wiman
229 et al. 2015) and being able to exploit multiple habitat types and hosts (Bakken et al. 2015), *H.*
230 *halys* response to landscape remained hidden (i.e., complex landscapes are source of individuals
231 that quickly spread across the agroecosystem as adults). Moreover, the monitored agricultural
232 landscapes are generally characterized by urban sprawls interspersed within the agricultural
233 matrix, probably representing an optimal balance between presence of overwintering sites and
234 abundant food resources, and hence further promoting a spatially homogeneous distribution of
235 the adults. In our study we did not consider differences in local management (although the great

236 majority of fruit orchards were conventionally managed) that might have further masked the
237 impact of landscape on adults (Tamburini et al. 2016). Interestingly, as observed by Wallner et
238 al. (2014) in USA, the importance of different landscape factors can change at different phases
239 of the invasion process of *H. halys*. Long-term studies exploring the impact of landscape
240 composition on the population dynamics of this invasive stink bug over time and at larger scale
241 are need for Europe as well.

242 The effect of landscape composition on the abundance of *H. halys* in fruit orchards was
243 consistent across different spatial scales but stronger at 3000 m radius, confirming the available
244 information on the great dispersal ability of this stink bug and its capacity to move across the
245 agricultural matrix (Wallner et al. 2014; Wiman et al. 2015; Lee and Leskey 2015).
246 Interestingly, the models for adults and juveniles both presented the best fit at 3000-m scale
247 (Table S4). Although *H. halys* nymphs have high dispersal capacity compared to other species
248 (5th instars can walk 8 meters in 30 min in a mowed plot; Lee et al. 2014), their movements are
249 expected to be limited to the farmscape level. The strong response of juveniles to landscape
250 composition at large scales does not hence reflect the dispersal potential of the juveniles, but
251 probably landscape processes also involving *H. halys* adults (e.g., mating, oviposition) that,
252 however, did not appear in our analyses (i.e., no significant effect of landscape on adults). As
253 mentioned before, the response of *H. halys* adults to landscape composition might have
254 remained hidden. We found comparable levels of *H. halys* abundance in pear, kiwi, peach and
255 apple orchards, confirming previous findings regarding its polyphagy and potential to damage
256 these fruit tree species (Lee et al. 2013; Bergmann et al. 2016; Stahl et al. 2021). Walnut,
257 although recently recognized as a potential host (Bosco et al. 2020; Mityushev 2021), it is
258 probably less preferred by the stink bug (Scaccini and Pozzebon, 2021). However, it should be
259 noted that data used here refer to insects attracted by pheromone-baited traps located near the
260 orchards, and thus the real extent of *H. halys* infestation inside orchards – and reasonably the

261 related damage – may vary at both spatial and temporal scales. Indeed, in a previous study
262 performed in the same region where *H. halys* abundance was measured directly sampling
263 individuals on fruit trees within the orchards (Mele et al., 2022), both adults and juveniles
264 resulted influenced by landscape composition, being higher in orchards closed to semi-natural
265 areas than those situated far away.

266 Identifying the main factors driving the dynamics of *H. halys* populations is crucial to
267 support effective and more eco-friendly pest control. Our study shows that landscapes rich in
268 seminatural habitats and vineyards and poor in annual crops are more likely to harbor abundant
269 populations of *H. halys*. Seminatural habitats might hence be important for *H. halys*, supporting
270 population build-up in agroecosystems and acting as a season-long source for crop infestation.
271 Nevertheless, semi-natural habitats have been also shown to support natural enemies of several
272 stink bug pests (Abram et al. 2017; Conti et al. 2021) and to contribute to their control without
273 however reducing their abundance in the field (González et al. 2017, 2020). Moreover,
274 seminatural habitats promoted higher parasitism in fruit orchards by the adventive egg
275 parasitoid *Trissolcus mitsukurii* (Ashmead) (Mele et al. 2022) and can potentially play a
276 fundamental role in the success of classical biological control programs against the stink bug
277 (Ogburn et al. 2021). More studies are urgently needed to better understand the role of semi-
278 natural habitats in regulating the populations of *H. halys*.

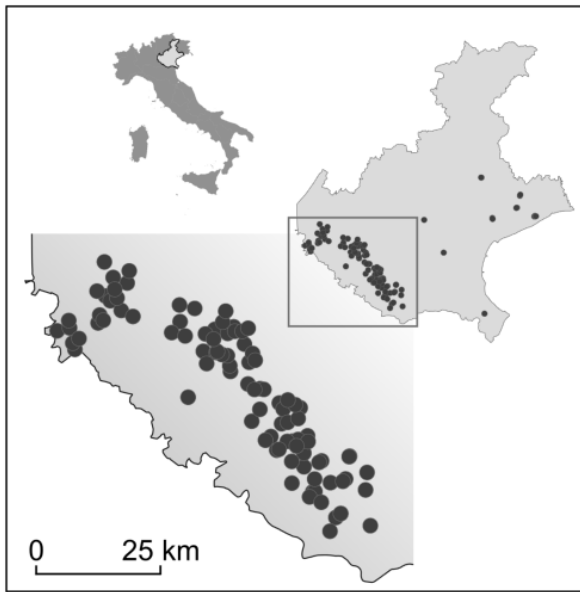
279 **TABLES**

280 **Table 1.** Results of the GLMM testing the response of *Halyomorpha halys*'s abundance to
 281 landscape composition (PC1 and PC2 at 3000 m scale), sampling month (Month; from April to
 282 October), development stage (Stage; juveniles, adults) and fruit tree crop (Fruit tree; pear, kiwi,
 283 peach, apple, walnut).

Variable	χ^2	<i>P</i>-value
PC1	1.99	0.158
PC2	1.73	0.189
Month	6.83	0.009
Stage	310.42	<0.001
Fruit tree	25.27	<0.001
Month²	7.62	0.006
Month³	7.91	0.005
PC1 x PC2	0.27	0.604
PC1 x Month	33.60	<0.001
PC2 x Month	2.74	0.098
PC1 x Stage	35.50	<0.001
PC2 x Stage	2.01	0.156
Month x Stage	64.90	<0.001
PC1 x PC2 x Month	0.06	0.805
PC1 x PC2 x Stage	1.46	0.227
PC1 x Month x Stage	16.03	<0.001
PC2 x Month x Stage	0.10	0.757

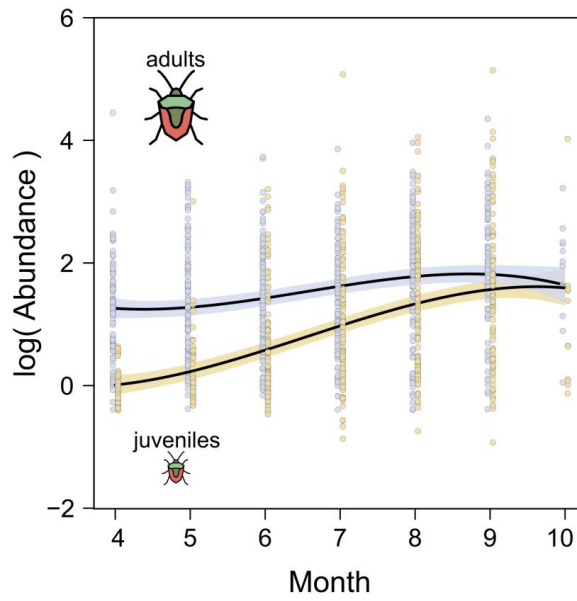
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285 **FIGURES**



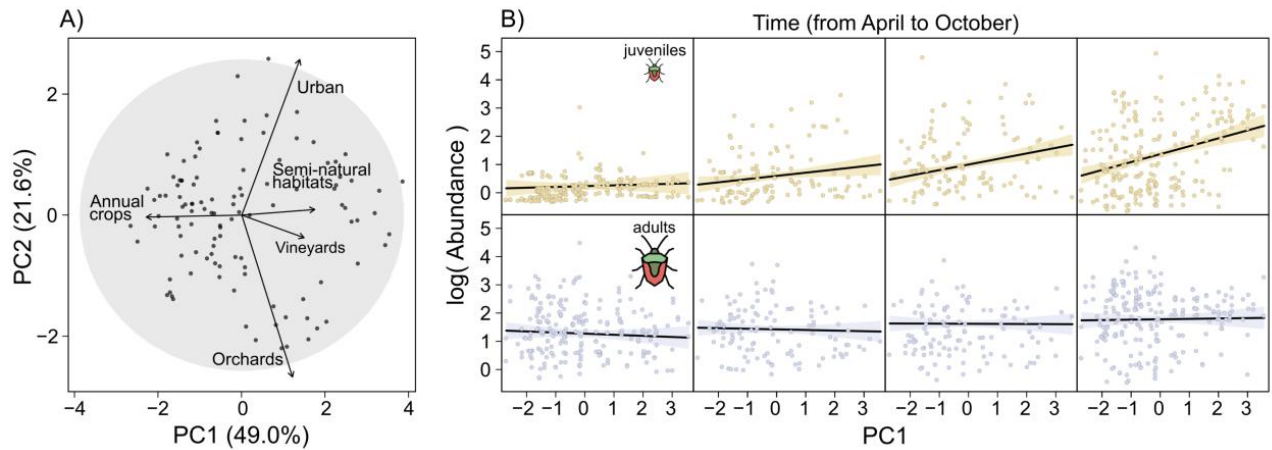
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287 **Fig. 1** Location of monitored orchards.



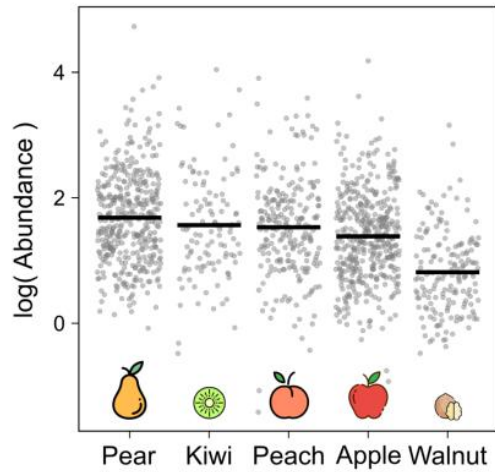
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289 **Fig. 2** Juvenile (in yellow) and adult (in light blue) abundance of *Halyomorpha halys* across
 290 the sampling season (from April to October). Plots display prediction lines, partial residuals
 291 and confidence bands (95%). Stink bug icons: Flaticon.com.



292

293 **Fig. 3 (A)** Landscape characteristics surrounding sampled orchards at a radius of 3000 m using
 294 principal component analysis. Sites characterized by positive values on PC1 were correlated
 295 with the variables seminatural habitats and vineyards, while PC1 negative values were
 296 correlated with annual crops. Sites with positive values on PC2 were correlated with urban
 297 areas, while PC2 negative values were correlated with fruit orchards. **(B)** Juvenile and adult
 298 abundance of *Halyomorpha halys* in response to landscape composition (PC1 at 3000 m scale)
 299 across the sampling season (from April to October). Plots display prediction lines, partial
 300 residuals and confidence bands (95%). Stink bug icons: Flaticon.com.



301

302 **Fig. 4** Abundance of *Halyomorpha halys* (both adults and juveniles) in different fruit orchards.

303 *H. halys* abundance is higher in pear, kiwifruit, peach, and apple orchards than in walnut

304 orchards (Table S5). Plots display prediction lines and partial residuals. Fruit icons:

305 Flaticon.com.

306 **Author contribution:** AM, DS, MP, AP and NM designed and supervised data collection. AM,
307 DS, AP defined the sampling protocol. GT, and LM conceived the research. DN elaborated GIS
308 data. GT and LM performed data analysis. GT and IL wrote the first draft of the manuscript.
309 All authors participated to results' interpretation and in reviewing the manuscript.

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318

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