

Assessing the relationship between pest density and plant damage: a case study with the belowground herbivore Delia radicum (Diptera: Anthomyiidae) on broccoli

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2 the belowground herbivore *Delia radicum* (Diptera: Anthomyiidae) on broccoli

3

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14 Abstract

15 For many crops, we have poor knowledge about the relationship between pest density 16 and damage. However, investigating pest harmfulness is particularly relevant currently in the 17 search for alternative crop protection strategies that are unlikely to totally suppress pest 18 populations. Here, we assessed the harmfulness of Delia radicum (L.) on broccoli (Brassica 19 oleracea var. italica Plenck). We worked inside insect-proof cages set up in the field with 20 additional pitfall traps to remove ground dwelling predators. Plants were manually infested with 21 10 levels of pest density ranging from 0 to 100 individuals per plant, following a natural 22 infestation pattern. Surprisingly, no plants died but almost 100% of the pests introduced died 23 over the course of the experiment. However, all broccoli development and growth traits were negatively correlated with pest density and broccoli head mass at harvest decreased linearly 24 25 with pest density. The observation over time of development and growth traits showed evidence 26 of plant compensation, suggesting that the head mass of individual plants may have reached 27 similar values if allowed to fully mature. The relationship between pest density and damage, 28 together with forecast models of pest population dynamics could be used to develop decision 29 support tools assessing the relevance of preventative treatments. 30

31 Keywords

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32 Crop losses; plant traits; plant injury; damage; plant compensation.

34 Introduction

35 Throughout the history of agriculture, the development of pest management strategies 36 has led to dramatic decreases in crop losses to pests (Oerke 2006). However, the predominant 37 crop protection method, that is pesticide usage, has various negative consequences, notably on 38 human health and the beneficial fauna of agro-ecosystems (Desneux et al. 2007; Geiger et al. 39 2010). Alternatives are therefore urgently needed, but in contrast to pesticides, most of these 40 alternatives (push-pull, insect netting, intercropping...) are likely to have partial efficiency. For 41 example, conservation biological control, based on the enhancement of natural enemy 42 populations, is thought to be an interesting method for reducing crop losses (Eilenberg et al. 43 2001) but is incompatible with the complete suppression of pest populations because by 44 definition, predators cannot maintain their populations without prey. It is therefore necessary to 45 reconsider the relationship between pest density, plant injuries (i.e. the symptoms of pest development on the physiology of the host; Pedigo et al. 1986) and damage (i.e. the decrease 46 in yield quantity or quality; Zadoks 1985; Pedigo et al. 1986). In this context, pest populations 47 48 should reach an intermediate size that is both i/ high enough to allow the build up of efficient 49 natural enemy communities, including several specialists depending on this specific resource 50 (Devictor et al. 2010) and ii/ low enough to result in acceptable losses for the farmer, a level 51 that is likely to depend on the production situation (sensu Aubertot and Robin 2013) 52 (International Conference on Global Crop Losses 2017). In many cases, plants are able to 53 tolerate moderate levels of pest infestation (Poston et al. 1983; Fenemore 1984; Pedigo et al. 54 1986), i.e. to withstand injuries without significant damage (Verdugo et al. 2016), so that this 55 intermediate pest population size could be innocuous in several pest/crop systems (e.g. Rogers 56 and Brier 2010).

57 In general, injuries and damage due to below ground pests have been less well studied 58 than those inflicted by above ground pests (Hunter 2001). This may be due to methodological 59 constraints because recording freshly caused injuries below ground necessarily involves 60 destructive sampling, thus preventing the evaluation of subsequent damage. However, the 61 effects of pest development below ground are not restricted to root tissue loss and indirect 62 effects of root injuries could also occur above ground (Teixeira et al. 1996; Murray et al. 1996; 63 Hunter 2001). Indeed, the physiological and morphological consequences of root injuries can include reduced leaf surface (Cardona et al. 1982), plant height and above ground biomass 64 65 (Boica Junior et al. 2015), as well as an increase in lignin content (Hopkins et al. 1995), and soluble nitrogen concentration in the sap (Gange and Brown 1989). Gange and Brown (1989) 66 67 suggested that due to root removal, below ground pests could have a similar effect as drought 68 on plants. These indirect effects which can be assessed by monitoring plant growth and 69 development above ground, may or may not lead to a significant decrease in final yield 70 (Rosenheim et al. 1997; Brandelero et al. 2016).

71 Delia radicum (L.) (Diptera: Anthomyiidae) is the main pest of Brassica vegetables in 72 northwestern Europe. The main cause of damage due to this pest in leaf and flower vegetables 73 is early plant mortality, which can reach 40-60% without insecticides (Estorgues 2005). 74 Females lay their eggs on the ground, within a distance of 5cm from plant stems (Hughes and 75 Salter 1959). The larvae then develop by feeding on plant roots throughout three life stages. 76 They thereby inflict injuries to the roots with several potential consequences on the plants (see 77 above) among which the disturbance of water and nutrient uptake (Gange and Brown 1989). 78 Several studies have been performed to quantify the damage inflicted by this pest on two 79 Brassica crops: cauliflower and oilseed rape. Turnock et al. (1992) did not find a relationship 80 between injuries caused by root maggots and yield of oilseed rape, hence suggesting that cropped plants fully compensated for injuries, at least up to the maximal tested pest density (25 81 82 eggs per plant). In cauliflower, El Titi (1979) showed a correlation between egg density and 83 plant mortality for infestation levels ranging from 10 to 60 eggs per plant. This study was used 84 by Bligaard et al. (1999) to define an economic threshold of D. radicum on cauliflower, 85 suggesting that intervention was needed if more than one egg was found per felt trap (used for monitoring egg laying) and per day two to four weeks after planting. This threshold is still used 86 87 by farmers and advisors in France to evaluate the intensity of pest infestation, but it is no longer 88 relevant in terms of decision making because: i/ the chlorfenvinphos used by El Titi (1979) is now prohibited and ii/ the current protection strategy against the cabbage root fly is preventative 89 90 and consists of drenching the roots of all leaf and flower Brassica vegetables with spinosad 91 (SuccessTM 4) before planting. Also in cauliflower, Bligaard (1999) performed several 92 experiments with varying times of infestation and found that plant biomass decreased when egg 93 density rose from 0 to 25 eggs per plant, but final yield was not monitored. Only one study showed reduced production of surviving cauliflowers in response to D. radicum attack (El Titi 94 95 1977). Finally, a methodological limitation in these previous studies was that the eggs were always introduced all at once. This pattern is unrealistic compared to natural infestation 96 97 (Estorgues 2005) and may have had consequences on pest survival, plant-pest interactions and 98 therefore on the subsequent damage: Finch and Skinner (1988) showed increased D. radicum 99 survival for instant egg inoculation compared to protracted inoculation.

100 The objective of the present study was to assess *D. radicum* harmfulness on broccoli 101 *Brassica oleracea* var. *italica* Plenck (Brassicales: Brassicaceae), a crop for which we expected 102 a similar tolerance as that previously observed for cauliflower. For this, we worked on caged 103 plants grown in the field to ensure natural root development and we controlled pest density 104 using artificial egg infestations. We expected broccoli to show a tolerant response to *D. radicum* 105 (Poston et al. 1983), with compensation for low injury levels, hence no damage; and damage 106 resulting from greater levels of injury, ranging from yield reduction to plant mortality.

- 107 Materials and methods
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- 109 Study site and experimental design
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111 The experiment was conducted in an 850m² plot at INRA's experimental station 112 (UE0787, Domaine expérimental de la Motte au Vicomte), in Le Rheu, France (48°06'N; 1°47'W) during spring 2016. The field used for this study has a deep soil (80-120cm), 113 114 hydromorphic from the surface, originating from shale and wind deposited loam (classified as 115 luvisol following the international soil classification system of the IUSS Working group WRB 116 2015). Previous crops were maize in 2012, 2013, 2014; fava beans in 2015 and meadow for seven months before this study started. Six insect-proof cages ($6m \log \times 3m \text{ wide} \times 2m \text{ high}$; 117 300 * 300µm mesh; Diatex ®) were set up on the plot. On the 5th of April 2016, 30 untreated 118 119 broccoli plants (cv. 'Marathon') at the stage of two true leaves were planted in each cage, every 120 0.50m in rows 0.75m apart. Insect-proof cages prevented plant colonization by flying insects, 121 whether they were females from surrounding cabbage root fly populations, other Brassica pests 122 or D. radicum natural enemies. PET barriers (Greenborder, Nortene®) buried all around the 123 cages (60cm high, 40 of which below ground) prevented hypogeic and epigeic organisms from 124 gaining access. Two sticky panels (29.7 * 42cm), a yellow and a blue one, were hanged inside 125 each cage in order to catch flying arthropods that could emerge from the soil. Twenty four 126 pitfall traps were also set up in each cage (i.e. 1.3 per m²) to reduce predation by ground 127 dwelling arthropods on immature fly stages. Pitfall traps were half-filled with water and a few 128 drops of odorless detergent. Barriers and traps were set up 13 days before planting, and the 129 cages, the day before planting.

- 131 Artificial plant infestation
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133 Eggs were manually deposited on plants inside insect-proof cages. The timing of egg additions 134 was designed to mimic the natural egg laying dynamics of *D. radicum*, which is generally 135 centered on a peak that represents about 40% of the total amount laid (calculation based on 136 previous experiments performed under natural infestation conditions). The first natural egg 137 laying peak is quite stable over the years in north-western France and typically occurs between 138 early and mid-May when transplanting is done at the beginning of April (Estorgues 2005). We 139 hence spread the infestation out over three consecutive weeks with a peak on the 2nd of May representing 40% of the total amount of eggs applied on each plant. The two other inputs were 140 made on the 25th of April and on the 9th of May, each representing 30% of the total amount of 141 142 eggs applied per plant. We defined ten pest densities, summarized in Table 1, ranging from 0 143 (control) to 100 eggs per plant, a range similar to egg counts made in production fields from 144 the same region (Josso et al. 2013).

145 The eggs were obtained in the laboratory from a strain of D. radicum originally collected 146 in fields of the same experimental station in early summer 2015 and reared as described in 147 Lamy et al. (2017). Females were offered slices of swede placed on a filter paper for egg laying. 148 The eggs were then brought to the field and directly used for infesting the plants. They were 149 deposited at the base of plant stalks with a fine paintbrush. At each date of plant infestation, an 150 additional batch of about 300 eggs was placed in a Petri dish, on a moistened filter paper and 151 kept in a climate-controlled room (16:8h photoperiod and 20°C). After seven days, natural egg 152 mortality was estimated as the proportion of unhatched (i.e. dead) eggs. Infestation levels were 153 distributed to broccoli plants in a randomized complete block design: inside each cage, egg 154 density was attributed randomly to each plant; there were three broccoli plants for each egg 155 density in each cage, thus a total of 18 plants per egg density in the experiment.

156 At broccoli harvest, i.e. on June 21 and 22, a soil sample (12cm in diameter and 13.5 \pm 157 0.4cm (mean \pm SE) in depth, ensuring the collection of more than 70% of the pupae; Hughes 158 1960; Finch et al. 1978) was taken around each broccoli root with a motorized auger. The 159 number of *D. radicum* larvae and pupae was counted after washing the samples through a 1mm 160 * 1mm mesh sieve.

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162 *Plant development and growth*

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164 We evaluated plant development and plant growth weekly for every broccoli plant from 165 April 12 to June 14 (i.e. during 10 weeks). The development of each plant was assessed by 166 recording the leaf numbers, the presence / absence of at least one lateral sprout and the presence 167 / absence of a visible inflorescence. These measurements match the three main stages of 168 broccoli development (Feller et al. 1995). Plant mortality was also recorded. Plant growth was 169 evaluated via two measurements: the product of the largest leaf length and width (thereafter 170 called "relative leaf area"), known to be highly correlated with leaf area in *Brassica* crops 171 (Olfati et al. 2010; Cargnelutti Filho et al. 2015; Tartaglia et al. 2016) and the height above 172 ground of the apical meristem (thereafter simply called "plant height" in the text), often used to give complementary information on plant growth (Kloen and Altieri 1990; Brandelero et al. 173 174 2016).

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176 Root injuries and final head mass

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As the first broccoli had reached their optimal development regarding marketable standards (buds tight and close to opening), we harvested every plant in a row on the 21^{st} and 22^{nd} of June. Stalks were cut about 1cm below the insertion of the first branch of the head and heads were weighed with a spring scale (precision = ± 5g).

Injuries caused by *D. radicum* larvae feeding on plant roots was assessed by visual examination using the scale defined by Dosdall et al. (1994): 0 = no injury; 1 = slight feeding, < 10% of tap root surface injured; 2, 3, 4 and 5 respectively 10-25%, 26-50%, 51-75%, 76-100% of root surface injured.

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187 Data analysis

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189 Generalized linear mixed models were used to analyze every dimension of plant 190 development, growth and production. We generated a model for every dimension of plant 191 development (i.e. number of leaves, proportion of plants with at least one lateral shoot and 192 proportion of plants with an inflorescence) and growth (i.e. relative largest leaf area, plant 193 height) including the number of eggs (quantitative), the sampling session (factor), and their 194 interaction as fixed effects as well as the cage and plant identifiers as random effects to account 195 respectively for potential spatial correlation among data obtained inside the same cage and for the fact that the same plants were monitored in each session (Faraway 2006). The analysis of 196 197 lateral shoots and inflorescences was restricted to the dates when shoots or inflorescences were 198 recorded, respectively. For the latter, only two measurement sessions were analyzable which 199 made it impossible to use the plant identifier as a random factor. This proportion was therefore 200 analyzed at the cage scale and the random effect set for the cage identifier to account for 201 repeated measures (Faraway, 2006). Pearson correlation coefficients were computed among all 202 development and growth traits over their respective period of analysis (Table S1 in 203 Supplementary materials).

The effect of the number of eggs on the proportion of plants displaying root injuries (injury class > 0) and on final head mass was assessed, using a random factor set for the cage identifier to consider potential spatial correlation among data obtained inside the same cage.

207 All statistical analyses were performed using R software (R core team 2017). The 208 models described above were fitted using generalized linear mixed modeling (functions 'lmer' 209 or 'glmer' of the package 'lme4'; Bates et al. 2015) with a distribution and link function adapted 210 to the data analyzed: identity-link Gaussian (response variables: log transformed number of 211 leaves; log transformed relative largest leaf area; square root transformed plant height; final 212 head mass) or logit-link binomial (response variables: proportion of plants with at least one 213 lateral shoot; proportion of plants with an inflorescence; proportion of plants with root injuries). 214 When necessary, an additional random factor set for the statistical individual was used to 215 account for data overdispersion. The significance of the fixed effects was tested using type II 216 Wald chi-square tests (function 'Anova', package 'car'; Fox and Weisberg 2011).

217 Post-hoc tests were performed on the models fitted on plant development and growth 218 traits. We studied the effect of egg density on plant traits as a function of time: for each date

(factor level), we estimated the marginal slope of the linear trend between egg density and plant traits (in cm/egg for plant height for instance; function 'emtrends' with back-transformation of the slopes to the response scale; package 'emmeans'; Lenth 2017). Then we extracted the slope of the steepest relationship between each plant trait and egg amount. These values provided estimates for the strongest effects of pests on plant traits observed in our experimental design.

Thirty plants (i.e. 17%) suffered from slug attack or lost their apical meristem so that it was not possible to record their largest leaf length and width or plant height on at least one occasion. All data collected on such plants were discarded.

- 227 **Results**
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229 Plant survival and mortality of D. radicum immature stages

The 150 broccoli plants survived the entire experiment. The proportion of unviable eggs among the three batches used for artificial infestations was similar with an overall mean of $18.9\% (\pm 1.3\%)$. At the end of the experiment, a total of only two pupae was recovered from the soil samples taken around the plant roots, suggesting a high mortality of the 6065 introduced eggs before reaching their final developmental stage.

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237 Plant development and growth

The relative largest leaf area, plant height and the number of leaves were highly correlated, with Pearson correlation coefficients exceeding 90%. In contrast, none of the data had a correlation coefficient exceeding 63% with the proportion of plants with an inflorescence and coefficients did not exceed 37% for correlations with the proportion of plants with at least one lateral shoot (Table S1 in Supplementary materials).

Except for the proportion of plants with at least one lateral shoot, all development and growth traits were negatively correlated with an increase in pest density (Table 2). The interaction between measurement dates and the number of eggs deposited was significant for growth traits, but not significant for development traits.

Plant trait responses to pest attack followed a similar pattern (Fig. 1) of 1) no pre-248 249 existing trend in development and growth traits prior to pest input; then 2) a transient negative 250 effect becoming significant after a delay varying from a couple of days to several weeks after the first infestation, depending on the trait, and finally 3) a waning of the effect with no 251 252 significant trend at the end of the experiment. Hence, even the highly infested plants recovered 253 and showed the same final development and growth states as those of non-infested plants, as 254 measured by our parameters. The exception was plant height, which remained negatively 255 correlated with egg density until the end of the experiment. All plants produced an inflorescence 256 and 73% produced at least one lateral shoot by the end of the experiment. The time course of 257 negative effects of egg density (Fig. 1) indicates that these organs appeared later when plants 258 suffered high pest densities.

The date at which the most negative trend between egg density and development or growth trait was observed varied depending on the trait considered. It ranged from 23 days to 50 days after the first artificial egg infestation for the proportion of plants with lateral shoots and the plant height respectively (Fig. 1). Focusing on this particular date, the models indicated 263 linear relationships between plant traits and egg density (Fig. 2), with only slight deviations 264 from linearity for the proportion of plants with at least one lateral shoot or with an inflorescence, which may simply be due to the binary nature of these response variables. 265

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267 Root injuries and final head mass

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269 All plants harvested were in injury class 0 or 1 (i.e. less than 10% of the tap root surface injured). The proportion of plants with root injuries due to D. radicum larvae feeding increased 270 271 linearly with the number of eggs deposited ($\chi^2 = 13.0$; df = 1; P < 0.001; Fig. 3).

272 All plants produced a broccoli head, with an overall mean yield of 295.9 ± 13.8 g per 273 plant. Plant production was negatively and linearly correlated with the amount of eggs deposited 274 on the plant ($\chi^2 = 11.1$, df = 1, P < 0.001; Fig. 3). For a rise from 0 to 100 eggs, the predicted 275 drop in broccoli mass was 136.1 g, for an attainable mass of 346.8 g, i.e. a loss of 39% of the 276 attainable mass.

277 Discussion

278 The two main results of this study are that 1) all plant development and growth traits, as 279 well as the final mass of broccoli heads, were negatively correlated, at least transitorily, with 280 D. radicum egg density and 2) no plants died and all produced a harvestable head despite a 281 maximum pest density expected to lead to plant death.

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283 D. radicum affects all development and growth traits and reduces plant production

285 All development and growth traits were negatively and linearly correlated with pest 286 density, at least for one measurement date. Additionally, broccoli mass decreased linearly with 287 the amount of eggs deposited, when the first plants were ready for harvest. Our results therefore 288 confirm that development delays and reduced plant growth during the growing season can lead 289 to significant drops in head mass at harvest, at least when all plants are harvested in a row 290 (Brandelero et al. 2016). This result is interesting because plant mortality is currently regarded as the main damage caused by the cabbage root fly on broccoli (El Titi 1979; Estorgues 2005). 291 292 Similarly, El Titi (1977) found a negative correlation between D. radicum pupae density and 293 vegetable mass in cauliflower, suggesting that this type of relationship between pest density 294 and yield might be found for other Brassica crops. Our results indicate that (at least when no 295 plant mortality occurs) the impact of D. radicum on plants is linear, with no threshold: even the 296 lowest pest densities limit plant growth and head mass. This is not exactly consistent with the 297 findings of Bligaard (1999), which suggested threshold effects in the relationship between the 298 biomass (a growth trait) of cauliflowers and D. radicum egg density. Our results therefore 299 suggest that *D. radicum* can be harmful even when it does not kill the plants.

300 However, all development and growth traits, except above ground plant height, were no 301 longer correlated with pest density at the time of the final measurement. Thus it appears that the plants were compensating for the injuries caused by the pest. We therefore suggest that the 302 303 production potential of each plant, i.e. the attainable yield if every plant had been harvested at 304 individual maturity, may not have been modified by pest density in our experimental conditions, 305 but that the plants had not yet fully compensated for the pest attack by the end of our experiment. 306 The plants may thus have been able to tolerate the pest attacks (Strauss and Agrawal 1999; 307 Verdugo et al. 2016), as shown in many non-crop plants (e.g. Heichel and Turner 1983; Fowler 308 and Rausher 1985; Karban and Courtney 1987; Maschinski and Whitham 1989) but also for 309 instance in Aphis gossypii infesting cotton (Rosenheim et al. 1997). In the latter study, 310 comparing infested and non-infested plants, the authors showed that leaf area was transitorily 311 reduced by 58% when plants were infested with aphids but then by harvest the cotton plants 312 had fully recovered so that yield was not affected (Rosenheim et al. 1997). In our crop/pest 313 system, the consequences of pest infestation in terms of damage are likely to depend on the 314 production situation. If the harvest is spread over several weeks, e.g. in the context of market 315 gardening where produce is harvested only in time for sale, plants may reach their potential and 316 D. radicum infestation may not affect final yield. In contrast, when the aim is to reduce the 317 number of harvests to limit the costs, e.g. in the context of field vegetable production where the 318 volumes are large and the associated costs for harvest are high, D. radicum is likely to add to 319 the natural variability of the time needed to reach plant maturity (Dufault 1997; Grevsen 2000; 320 Lindemann-Zutz et al. 2016). Thus, an infestation may lead to either additional harvests being 321 performed, thereby increasing production costs, or to an increased amount of unharvested plants 322 (because not fully mature at harvest), decreasing the income.

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4 The absence of plant mortality and D. radicum mortality

326 A surprising result of our experiment is that no plants died. Two hypotheses may explain 327 this: 1) the maximum egg densities were not high enough to kill plants in our growing 328 conditions or 2) the maximum egg densities should have killed the plants but the unexpected 329 high developmental mortality of D. radicum led to an underestimation of the real harmfulness 330 of this pest. In previous studies on cauliflower, El Titi (1979) and Bligaard (1999) reported 331 significant plant mortality with much lower egg densities (respectively 60 and 25 eggs per plant), introduced when plants were at a similar developmental stage (~ 4 leaves). However, 332 333 the link between pest density and damage is also likely to depend on plant growing conditions. 334 Generally, good growing conditions increase plant compensating abilities (Fenemore 1984; 335 Pedigo et al. 1986; Maschinski and Whitham 1989). More specifically, as root-feeding pests 336 induce symptoms similar to those of drought (Gange and Brown 1989; Foggo and Speight 1993), the availability of water may be a crucial factor determining the ability of plants to 337 338 tolerate a pest attack (Godfrey and Yeargan 1985; Dunn and Frommelt 1998). In the present 339 study, the spring was particularly wet: the meteorological station nearby (1.6km) recorded 340 181.5mm throughout the experiment. Such precipitation levels are very unlikely to induce water 341 stress in broccoli: in warmer conditions, Erdem et al. (2010) showed significant water stress 342 only when spring broccoli received as little as 130mm, but no stress when it received 193mm 343 or more. In addition, the windbreak effect of the cages probably limited desiccation. These 344 favorable conditions may partly explain the absence of mortality.

Although the level of *D. radicum* mortality is usually high (~ 80-90%; Hughes and Salter 1959; Meyling et al. 2013), it was extreme in our experiment as a hundred percent mortality has never been reported. First, it cannot be ruled out that some pupae were beyond the area covered by the auger used (i.e. 12cm in diameter). Following Hughes (1960) and Finch et al. (1978) the area prospected was enough to collect more than 70% of the pupae. Given that we collected only two pupae within this area, it is unlikely that the pupae missed would have 351 substantially changed the estimation of D. radicum mortality rate. Then, some mortality occurred during the egg stage: we showed that between 10 and 25% of the eggs were unviable, 352 which is consistent with previous studies conducted with this biological model (Neveu et al. 353 354 1997). Actual egg mortality in the field could have been higher due to one supplementary 355 handling, to deposit the eggs at the base of plant stems. Additional egg mortality could be 356 attributable to predation by ground dwelling arthropods. Indeed, Fig. S1 in Supplementary 357 materials shows that our exclusion setup did not completely suppress the ground dwelling 358 arthropod fauna, at least during the weeks of plant infestation. The carabid family, that 359 dominated this fauna, was essentially represented by two species Metallina lampros and Phyla 360 *obtusa.* These share functional traits which likely determine the efficiency of ground dwelling 361 predators on D. radicum: small body size and carnivorous diet (Purtauf et al. 2005). Metallina lampros is thought to be specialized on D. radicum and to contribute largely to its natural 362 regulation (Hughes 1959; Coaker and Williams 1963; Andersen et al. 1983). 363

364 On the other hand, the results discussed above concerning the decreased plant growth 365 and yield show that at least some of the eggs survived and produced harmful larvae. As almost 366 no pupae were found around broccoli roots, some pest mortality also appears to have occurred 367 during the larval stage. Based on previous studies performed in open fields, predation by ground 368 dwelling arthropods on buried materials (here, D. radicum larvae) seems rather unlikely (Finch 369 and Elliott 1994; Lee and Edwards 2012). However, using insect-proof cages meant that any 370 trapped ground dwelling predators had virtually no alternative resources on which to prey 371 besides the D. radicum eggs (no other Brassica herbivores were observed inside the cages). We 372 also recorded high numbers of ants at the beginning of May (Fig. S1, in Supplementary 373 materials), i.e. during larval development of the first introduced eggs. Several authors showed 374 that many ant species are significant predators of below ground pests (Carroll and Janzen 1973; 375 Yadav et al. 2012; Pacheco et al. 2017). For instance, Yadav et al. (2012) showed that ants 376 caused 60% mortality of Galleria mellonella larvae that were being used as below ground 377 sentinel prey. The unusually high mortality recorded here may therefore be related to the 378 unusual presence of ants. Also, as mentioned above, the spring when the study took place was 379 particularly wet and the soil was hydromorphic. High soil moisture is known to decrease larval 380 survival (Finch and Skinner 1988) and could have contributed to the high mortality observed. 381 Finally, the favorable growing conditions in our experiment may have increased the constitutive 382 and induced resistance mechanisms of the plant and caused additional larval mortality. 383 Induction of plant defense following infestation may explain some of the *D. radicum* mortality 384 as well as some of the effects on plant traits, through a trade-off between resistance (i.e. 385 mobilizing energy and matter to produce defensive compounds) and growth, i.e. an allocation 386 cost (Strauss et al. 2002).

- 387
- 388 Conclusion
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In our experiment, the introduced *D. radicum* suffered high mortality rates, thus we could not establish a clear relationship between pest density and plant mortality. As a systematic insecticide treatment at planting (Spinosad, authorized in conventional and organic production) is currently used to prevent plant mortality, the re-assessment of this relationship is urgently needed. However, we showed that plant mortality is not the only cause of damage in this

- 395 crop/pest system and that sublethal effects can lead to a 40% decrease in broccoli mass at
- harvest even in conditions where the survival of the pest is not optimal. Based on our findings
- 397 concerning pest harmfulness coupled to forecast models of population dynamics (e.g. Collier
- et al. 1991) it should be possible to develop decision support tools evaluating the relevance of
- 399 the treatment, based on the expected pest infestation and its expected impact on crops. As
- 400 predation by ground dwelling arthropods was probably a mortality factor of prime significance401 in the present study, it may be very valuable to take them into account in such models.

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406 Author contribution statement

- 407 All authors conceived and designed research. MV, LD and XM performed the field work. XM
- 408 analyzed data. XM, ALR, AMC, VF and YT were involved in writing of the manuscript.

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412 **Conflict of interest**

- 413 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
- 414 **Compliance with ethical standards**
- 415 All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and use of
- 416 animals were followed.

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Table 1 Pattern of artificial infestation of the broccoli plants with cabbage root fly eggs

1 st infestation (3 weeks after planting)	0	1	3	6	9	12	15	18	24	30
2 nd infestation (4 weeks after planting)	0	3	4	8	12	16	20	24	32	40
3 rd infestation (5 weeks after planting)	0	1	3	6	9	12	15	18	24	30
Total	0	5	10	20	30	40	50	60	80	100

Table 2 Effect of the number of D. radicum eggs deposited per plant and its interaction with

612	the date of measurement	on the development	and growth traits	recorded for the broccoli	plants.
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Bold p-values show significant differences at $\alpha = 5\%$

	Number of eggs				Interaction "number of eggs: date"			
	χ^2	DF	P-val	Trend	χ^2	DF	P-val	
Number of leaves	6.61	1	0.010	7	15.17	9	0.086	
Proportion of plants with at least one lateral shoot	2.36	1	0.125		8.64	5	0.124	
Proportion of plants with a visible inflorescence	8.25	1	0.004	У	2.34	1	0.126	
Relative largest leaf area	13.66	1	< 0.001	7	24.16	8	0.002	
Height above ground of the apical meristem	5.09	1	0.024	7	54.82	8	< 0.001	

- 616 Fig. 1 Evolution through time of the linear trend between plant traits (a: number of leaves; b: proportion of plants with at least one lateral shoot; c: proportion of plants with an inflorescence; 617 d: height above ground of the apical meristem in cm and e: relative largest leaf area in cm²) and 618 619 the number of eggs deposited. Each point and associated error bar represents the estimate \pm 620 95% confidence interval of this trend, obtained with function 'emtrends' (Lenth 2017). A 621 negative value indicates that plant development or growth is negatively correlated with the 622 number of eggs deposited at the time of measurement. The trend is significant (i.e. the effect of 623 the number of eggs on plant trait is significant at a given time) if the error bar does not cross 624 the horizontal dashed line in 0. Vertical dotted lines represent the three artificial infestations of 625 broccoli plants
- 626

Fig. 2 Plant development (a: leaf number, mean \pm SE; b: proportion of plants with at least one lateral shoot, prop \pm SE and c: proportion of plants with a visible inflorescence, prop \pm SE) and

629 growth traits (d: height above ground of the apical meristem in cm, mean \pm SE; e: relative

- 630 largest leaf area in cm^2 , mean \pm SE) as a function of the number of *D. radicum* eggs deposited 631 per plant for the measurement date indicated above the graphs, corresponding to the time when
- the correlation between plant trait and egg density was the most negative (Fig. 1). The dashed
- 633 grey lines present the regression curves obtained with the coefficients of the models presented
- 634 in the text and in Table 2
- 635
- 636 **Fig. 3** Proportion of plants showing root injuries (prop \pm SE; a) and broccoli mass at harvest (in
- 637 grams, mean \pm SE; b) according to the number of *D. radicum* eggs deposited per plant







