

PCR-based gut content analysis to identify arthropod predators of *Haplodiplosis marginata*

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28 *versicolor*, *Nebria brevicollis*, *Harpalus rufipes* and *Loricera pilicornis* were identified as
29 natural enemies of *H. marginata* for the first time. A higher proportion of positive results were
30 obtained at the end of *H. marginata* emergence (July) compared to the beginning (May). The
31 importance of understanding trophic interactions in the management of *H. marginata* is
32 discussed in addition to the potential uses for the newly designed assay and primers.

33

34

35 1. Introduction

36

37 Saddle gall midge *Haplodiplosis marginata* (Diptera: Cecidomyiidae) (von Roser) is a pest of
38 cereals that has been the focus of relatively little research in Europe due to the sporadic
39 nature of outbreaks. Recent outbreaks in the United Kingdom and elsewhere have
40 highlighted gaps in knowledge regarding the best options for its control and long-term
41 management. Recent reviews have consolidated existing literature on the biology and
42 ecology of this insect (Censier *et al.*, 2015; Rowley *et al.*, 2016). Briefly, *H. marginata* is a
43 univoltine insect that overwinters in the larval stage. Adults emerge in late April through May
44 and oviposit on the leaves of cereals and grasses (Censier *et al.*, 2015; Rowley *et al.* 2016).
45 Newly hatched larvae then feed on the stem of the plant until maturity, forming saddle-
46 shaped galls in the process (Golightly & Woodville, 1974). The larvae then drop from the
47 plant in late July and burrow down into the soil to enter diapause, which can extend to more
48 than one year when environmental conditions are not conducive for pupation to occur in
49 spring (Nijveldt & Hulshoff, 1968). Gall formation on the stems of cereal plants can lead to
50 inhibition of growth and yield loss, as well as increasing the risk of pathogen attack and stem
51 breakage (Nijveldt & Hulshoff, 1968; Woodville, 1970; Golightly, 1979; Popov *et al.*, 1998).
52 Application of pyrethroid insecticides, timed to coincide with adult emergence or the egg
53 laying stage, can be effective against this pest (Ellis *et al.*, 2014). Later applications may be
54 ineffective as larvae are protected from the insecticide by the leaf sheath whilst feeding

55 (Gratwick, 1992). It is widely accepted, however, that an over-reliance on chemical
56 pesticides is undesirable due to detrimental effects on human health and the environment
57 (Aktar *et al.*, 2009; Geiger *et al.*, 2010). In particular, pesticides such as pyrethroids can
58 have a negative impact on non-target organisms such as carabids (Holland & Luff, 2000; van
59 Toor, 2006). Integrated Pest Management (IPM) programmes aim to employ control
60 measures that minimise the impact on the wider environment (Kogan, 1998) and are
61 promoted by the EU Sustainable Use of Pesticides Directive as a means of minimising
62 chemical inputs in pest management (Directive 2009/128/EC). Such programs are based on
63 decision support systems that rely on knowledge of the biology and ecology of the target
64 organism, including interactions with other organisms in the crop environment (Kogan, 1998).
65 One strategy that may be adopted in IPM programs is to increase pest mortality from natural
66 enemies through conservation or augmentative biological control (Naranjo, 2001; Östman *et*
67 *al.*, 2003). Currently, the impact of predation on *H. marginata* population dynamics is poorly
68 understood and there is a clear lack of information on the natural enemies of this insect (see
69 below). Such knowledge would greatly benefit decision making in IPM programmes aimed at
70 this pest.

71

72 Predatory interactions involving invertebrates in the field can be difficult to study, often being
73 short-lived, inconspicuous, and unobservable without intervention (Stuart & Greenstone,
74 1990; Symondson, 2002). The problems are exacerbated with belowground interactions
75 (Juen & Traugott, 2004) which has led to a distinct lack of information on the arthropod
76 species that prey on primarily soil dwelling species such as *H. marginata*. An important
77 component of IPM programs is an understanding of the impact of natural enemies on pest
78 populations. In many cases, effective maintenance of natural enemy assemblages can help
79 to suppress pest populations (Symondson *et al.*, 2002; Wilby & Thomas, 2002; Cardinale *et*
80 *al.*, 2003). This is generally achieved by increasing numbers of existing predator populations
81 either artificially through introductions (augmentative biological control) or naturally through

82 beneficial environmental practices (conservation biological control). Generalist predators are
83 potentially less effective against dipteran pests due to a large proportion of their life cycle
84 being belowground or within the host plant (Symondson *et al.*, 2002). Nonetheless, the
85 presence of natural enemies has been shown to impact dipteran pests such as brassica pod
86 midge (Büchs & Nuss, 2000), onion maggot (Grafius & Warner, 1989) and cabbage root fly
87 (Mowat & Martin, 1981).

88

89 Larvae of *Haplodiplosis marginata* are most vulnerable to predation in April and early May,
90 when they move towards the soil surface to pupate, and in July and August, when mature
91 larvae drop from the plant to the soil. Predation of the larvae of another Cecidomyiid, orange
92 wheat blossom midge *Sitodiplosis mosellana* (Géhin), by Carabidae and Staphylinidae is
93 thought to occur in the soil stage (Speyer & Waede, 1956), during pupation (Floate *et al.*,
94 1990) and on return to the soil to overwinter (Basedow, 1973; Holland & Thomas, 2000).
95 Generalist arthropod predators active during these periods could therefore be exploited to
96 enhance the suppressive effects of regular crop rotations as a means of reducing the
97 frequency and severity of *H. marginata* outbreaks.

98

99 Current information on natural enemies of *H. marginata* or associated mortality at any life
100 stage is limited. The parasitoids *Chrysocharis amyite* (Walker) and various *Platygaster spp.*
101 are known to attack *H. marginata* larvae, but they have little impact on overall population size
102 (Nijveldt & Hulshoff, 1968; Baier, 1963; Skuhřavý, 1982; Rowley *et al.*, 2016). As with *S.*
103 *mosellana*, Carabidae and Staphylinidae have been reported to prey on larvae of *H.*
104 *marginata*, however, field observations are scarce and the exact species remain unidentified
105 (Golightly & Woodville, 1974; Skuhřavý *et al.*, 1993). Nothing is known about the species
106 that prey on adults. A study in Canada identified 14 species of carabid preying on *S.*
107 *mosellana* in the field (Floate *et al.*, 1990). This study utilized immunological markers to
108 identify evidence of predation from gut content analysis. In the past two decades, PCR-

109 based molecular gut analysis has been developed as an alternative to immunological assays
110 to identify predation through the detection of target organism DNA in the guts of predators
111 (Chen et al, 2000; Symondson, 2002; Garipey *et al.*, 2007). Given the relatively quick, cheap
112 and easily reproducible nature of this technology it has become a widespread and reliable
113 means of detecting trophic interactions in the field. PCR-based gut assays have been used
114 extensively in agroecosystems to identify the natural enemies of pest species such as cereal
115 aphids (Chen *et al.*, 2000), western corn rootworm (Lundgren *et al.*, 2009), cotton whitefly
116 (Zhang *et al.*, 2007), slugs (Hatteland *et al.*, 2011), and pollen beetle (Öberg *et al.* 2011),
117 including multiplex reactions with multiple target pest species (Harper *et al.*, 2005; King *et al.*,
118 2010). The method is highly suited to predator surveys such as this; where prey spend a
119 large proportion of the time belowground, making observational studies impossible. Despite
120 the potential for increased false negatives from soil contamination (Juen & Traugott, 2006)
121 this technique has been used successfully to identify trophic interactions of belowground
122 species in the field (Eitzinger *et al.*, 2013).

123

124 Here, we describe the development of species-specific primers for *H. marginata* for use in a
125 PCR-based gut assay. A field survey of natural enemies of *H. marginata* in the UK using the
126 assay identifies predators of this insect to species level for the first time. Knowledge of the
127 key species that prey on the larval stage of this insect will help to inform decisions aimed at
128 encouraging populations of beneficial insects as a means of aiding pest population
129 suppression. This work may also lead to future applications of molecular techniques in
130 further research efforts on this relatively understudied cereal pest.

131

132 **2. Methods**

133

134 2.1 *Insects*

135 *Haplodiplosis marginata* larvae were collected from fields in Oxfordshire (51°55"N, 1°10"W)
136 and Buckinghamshire (51°37"N, 0°48"W), UK, between April and June 2015. Larvae were
137 maintained in plastic containers of moist, sterilised compost at 4°C until use. Adult *Nebria*
138 *brevicollis* (Coleoptera: Carabidae) (Fabricius) beetles were collected in pitfall traps at Harper
139 Adams University, UK, in June 2015. Beetles were maintained in clear plastic containers at
140 20°C, 16:8 L:D, 60% RH and fed on *Tenebrio molitor* (Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae) (Linnaeus)
141 larvae prior to the feeding assay. Insect specimens used in cross-reactivity tests were
142 collected by hand (Harper Adams University), pitfall traps and pan traps (Oxfordshire) and
143 stored at -80°C prior to DNA extraction.

144

145 2.2 DNA Extraction

146 DNA was extracted using a DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) in
147 accordance with the manufacturer's supplementary protocol for insect DNA extraction. Whole
148 insect specimens were washed in Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer prior to extraction, followed by
149 grinding with a sterile micro-pestle. Single whole *H. marginata* larvae and undissected
150 invertebrates were used for sequencing and assay cross-reactivity testing. For gut analyses,
151 the elytra of the beetles were removed and entire guts were dissected out, before being used
152 for DNA extraction. Following extraction, DNA was pelleted by centrifugation and
153 resuspended in 100 µL TE buffer before being stored at -20°C until use. One negative
154 control (no insect material) was included for every 20 extractions.

155

156 2.3 PCR amplification and sequencing of *H. marginata* COI region

157 A 521bp fragment of *H. marginata* DNA from the mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase subunit I
158 (COI) gene was amplified using the universal insect primers C1-J-1718 and C1-N-2191
159 (Simon *et al.*, 1994; King *et al.*, 2010). Individual PCR reactions (25 µL) comprised of; 1X
160 PCR master mix (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), 0.625 U *Taq* polymerase (Invitrogen), 4
161 mM MgCl₂ (Invitrogen), 2.5 µg bovine serum albumin (Sigma-Aldrich, Dorset, UK), 0.05 mM

162 dNTPs (Invitrogen), 0.1 μ M of each primer and 2.5 μ L of target DNA. PCR conditions
163 consisted of an initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 min 30 s, then 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 s,
164 50°C for 30 s and 72°C for 45 s, followed by a final extension period at 72°C for 10 min.
165 PCR products were separated on a 1.5% agarose gel stained with GelRed™ Nucleic Acid
166 Gel Stain (Biotium, Fremont, USA) and photographed under UV light (Sint *et al.*, 2011).
167 Unpurified PCR products were sequenced by Eurofins Genomics (Ebersberg, Germany) on a
168 3730xl DNA analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Sequences were
169 deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive (accession number LT852755).

170

171 2.4 *Primer design and PCR assay development*

172 Primers specific to *H. marginata* were designed from the sequencing products using the
173 program Primer-BLAST (Geer *et al.*, 2010). Individual primer pairs were synthesised by
174 Eurogentec Ltd. (Liège, Belgium) and validated for use using a T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-
175 rad, Watford, UK). Validation of the primer pairs consisted of specificity testing against *H.*
176 *marginata* and 40 non-target organisms from orders Diptera, Coleoptera, Hymenoptera,
177 Hemiptera, and Araneae (Table 1). PCR reactions proceeded as described in section 2.3.
178 Following this the primer pairs showing no cross-reactivity were selected and the optimum
179 PCR conditions examined by altering the annealing temperature across individual reactions
180 (55 °C to 77 °C) observing for a strong single band. The primer pair with the highest optimum
181 annealing temperature was selected for use in the assay. Assay sensitivity was determined
182 using a serial dilution of *H. marginata* DNA at concentrations from 10 ng μ L⁻¹ to 0.0001 ng μ L⁻¹,
183 with 10 replicates of each dilution.

184

185 2.5 *Rate of digestion of H. marginata DNA in predator guts*

186 The digestion half-life of *H. marginata* DNA in the guts of a predator was determined under
187 controlled conditions using the carabid *N. brevicollis*. The half-life is the time at which *H.*
188 *marginata* DNA can only be detected in 50% of the predators following feeding (Greenstone

189 & Hunt, 1993). Prior to feeding, *N. brevicollis* specimens were separated into individual clear
190 plastic containers (10 cm diameter x 6 cm height) with moist cotton wool and starved for 5
191 days to ensure guts were empty prior to the experiment. A single live larva of *H. marginata*
192 was placed into each container at time 0h and beetles were observed feeding. Beetles that
193 did not consume the larva within 15 minutes were excluded from the experiment. Beetles
194 were maintained at 20°C, 16:8 L:D, 60% RH for the duration of the trial. Groups of beetles
195 were killed by freezing at 0h, 2h, 4h, 8h, 12h, 24h and 36h post-feeding. All groups
196 comprised 10 beetles with the exception of the 24h group which had 9 beetles. Five beetles
197 were left unfed and killed at 0h. All specimens were stored at -80 °C and entire guts were
198 dissected from each beetle prior to DNA extraction (see section 2.2). PCR reactions
199 proceeded as described in section 2.3. Positive results were expressed as a percentage of
200 the total insects screened at each time point and a probit model was fitted to the data to
201 determine the time post-feeding at which the detection half-life occurred (Greenstone *et al.*,
202 2014). Statistical analysis was performed in R v.3.3.1 (R Core Team, 2016).

203

204 2.6 Field survey

205 Carabidae were collected using live pitfall traps from the field in Oxfordshire which was
206 planted with spring wheat. Five pitfall traps were positioned in a cross-shaped array
207 connected with barriers (10 cm h x 30 cm l) made from galvanised lawn edging to improve
208 the catch rate (Hansen & New, 2005). Each trap was comprised of a plastic beaker (8 cm
209 diameter x 10.6 cm height) with small rocks placed in the bottom as refugia (Sunderland *et*
210 *al.*, 2005). A corrugated plastic cover (12 cm x 12 cm) on wire supports was positioned 5 cm
211 above the trap. On each sampling date, six arrays were set up making 30 traps in total,
212 positioned in various field locations with at least 30 m between arrays. Traps were set in the
213 late afternoon or early evening and collected before noon on the following day. Live
214 specimens were immediately placed on ice at the point of collection, prior to storage at -80

215 °C. Trapping took place in early May 2016 on 2 occasions, 10 days apart, with an additional
216 collection made in late July using just 20 traps (4 arrays).

217

218 **3. Results**

219 *3.1 Primer design and PCR assay development*

220 The selected primer pair amplified a fragment of 348bp and had an optimum annealing
221 temperature of 65°C which was used for all subsequent reactions. The sequences of the
222 selected primers were as follows: F-COI-12 5'-GAGCACCCAGATATAGCATTTCC and R-COI-
223 360 5'-CCAGCCAATACTGGTAAAGAAAG. No cross-reactivity of the primers was observed
224 with any of the non-target species tested, which included representative individuals from 8
225 different orders including the Cecidomyiid *S. mosellana*. Using the newly designed primers,
226 it was possible to detect pure *H. marginata* DNA at concentrations as low as 0.001 ng μL^{-1} .

227

228 *3.2 Rate of digestion of H. marginata DNA in predator guts*

229 Digestion time had a significant effect on the probability of detecting *H. marginata* DNA from
230 the guts of *N. brevicollis* ($F_{1,5}=16.297$, $P<0.01$). The detectability half-life of *H. marginata*
231 DNA in this scenario was determined to be 31.07 h (Figure 1). The assay was successful in
232 100% of individuals killed immediately after feeding, while the unfed beetles did not produce
233 any positive results. The greatest decline in probability of detection in the time points tested
234 occurred between 12 h and 24 h post-feeding.

235

236 *3.3 Field survey*

237 From all trapping occasions, 110 individual carabid specimens of 11 different species were
238 trapped. The majority of beetles (47%) were caught in the central traps of the arrays.
239 Positive results for the presence of *H. marginata* DNA were found in 7.2% of specimens and
240 were obtained from 4 different species (Table 2). Beetles trapped late in the season (July)
241 represented only 15% of all specimens tested, but had a much higher rate of positive results

242 (23.5%) compared to beetles trapped in May (4.3%). This is despite the activity density of
243 the beetles being almost identical in May and July (0.84 and 0.85 beetles per trap per day
244 respectively).

245

246 **4. Discussion**

247 The development of species-specific primers for *H. marginata*, as described here, increases
248 the potential for research on this cryptic insect at a molecular level. Here, we have applied
249 this to the development of a viable gut analysis assay, enabling highly specific and reliable
250 detection in the guts of predatory natural enemies. The field survey has identified four
251 carabid species feeding on this pest in the wild for the first time, with implications for its
252 effective management.

253

254 The COI region of the genome is commonly used for species-specific primer design as it is
255 less highly conserved than other regions (King, 2008). It is particularly appropriate for gut
256 analysis studies as it is located in the mitochondria, therefore each cell will have multiple
257 copies making the probability of detection greater than for nucleic DNA (Hoy, 1994). The
258 target amplicon is 348bp, which slightly exceeds the recommended maximum length of
259 300bp (King *et al.*, 2008) based on the idea that shorter fragments will be subject to less
260 digestion in the gut. The work done by Sint *et al.* (2011) however, suggests that this
261 recommendation might be too conservative. For example, Juen and Traugott (2006) found
262 no difference in the amplification success of 463bp and 127bp amplicons of *Amphimallon*
263 *solstitiale* (Linnaeus) DNA in the guts of *Poecilus versicolour* (Sturm) larvae. Furthermore,
264 no significant relationship was found between fragment length and the detectability half-life
265 taken from a range of studies (Greenstone *et al.*, 2014). The primers described here
266 performed well at a high annealing temperature of 65 °C which reduces the chance of
267 erroneous base matching at the primer sites (King, 2008), but was not the highest
268 temperature at which an amplicon was obtained to ensure the sensitivity of the assay (Sint *et*

269 *al.*, 2011). The specificity of the assay was supported by the lack of cross reactivity with
270 DNA from non-target species commonly found on agricultural land including the Cecidomyiid
271 *S. mosellana*.

272

273 The assay was able to reliably detect *H. marginata* DNA at concentrations of 0.001 ng μL^{-1}
274 which is comparable to other insect primers used in gut analysis (e.g. Ekbohm *et al.*, 2014).
275 The effects of digestion or inhibitors present in the guts of the predator may further reduce
276 assay sensitivity in some instances. Nonetheless, the ability of the assay to detect the DNA
277 from a single *H. marginata* larva in starved predator guts was repeatedly demonstrated in the
278 feeding assay giving confidence in the reliability of the test. The feeding assay further
279 demonstrated that the half-life of detection for this assay was 31 h post-consumption, which
280 is comparable to assays for other predator-prey interactions (e.g. Juen & Traugott, 2004,
281 Waldner *et al.*, 2013) and is well within the range so far reported for other carabids of 18 –
282 88.5 h (Monzó *et al.*, 2011). A long detectability half-life is vital if the assay is to be used on
283 field-caught specimens particularly when predators are mainly nocturnal, as with many
284 carabids (Kromp, 1999). The results suggest the assay was more than adequate for the field
285 survey described here where traps were in place for no more than 18 h. Additionally, the
286 feeding trial was conducted at 20°C which is higher than typical field temperatures, and may
287 reflect an underestimation of detection half-life in the field (Hoogendoorn & Heimpel, 2001).
288 The carabid species used in this trial, *N. brevicollis*, is a common predator in arable
289 environments (Luff, 2007) however detection half-life will vary depending on the predator
290 species (Greenstone *et al.*, 2007). For example, the detectability of aphid DNA was higher in
291 *N. brevicollis* compared to another common carabid, *Pterostichus melanarius* (Illiger),
292 independent of the effects of ambient temperature or target amplicon size (von Berg *et al.*,
293 2008). Detectability appears to vary less between species of the same taxa than between
294 taxa however (Waldner *et al.*, 2013), which suggests that the data shown here represent a
295 reasonable benchmark for carabids of a similar size. Detection half-life can, however, vary

296 between life stages of the same species (Ingels *et al.*, 2013) and therefore further work will
297 need to be done to extend this assay to predatory carabid larvae.
298
299 This field survey shows for the first time the species of carabid beetle that are feeding on *H.*
300 *marginata*. Of the 12 species caught on the surveyed site, four tested positive for the
301 presence of *H. marginata* DNA. All of the species which tested positive are relatively
302 common, highly generalist feeders of medium to large size (above 5 mm long). A number of
303 these species are known to prey on dipteran adults and larvae (Penney, 1966; Allen &
304 Hagley, 1990; Lys, 1995; Sunderland *et al.*, 1995; Luff, 2002; King *et al.* 2010) and species
305 identified as predators of *S. mosellana* in Canada belong to two of the genera identified as
306 containing predators of *H. marginata* in this study (Floate *et al.*, 1990). Although many
307 species display burrowing behaviours, belowground predation by adult carabids has not
308 been well studied. Many carabid larvae are active belowground predators (Lövei &
309 Sunderland, 1996) and have been shown to feed on *S. mosellana* in the field (Floate *et al.*,
310 1990). While not surveyed here, they are potentially a significant source of predation for *H.*
311 *marginata* larvae. The proportion of positive assays was higher in July, despite the activity
312 density being comparable between early and late season sampling. Drier soil in the late
313 season may have prevented *H. marginata* from burrowing into the soil, or enabled carabids
314 easier access to larvae belowground via the formation of fissures. Basedow (1973) reported
315 from field observations of the Cecidomyiids *Dasineura brassicae* (Winnertz), *Contarinia tritici*
316 (Kirby) and *S. mosellana* mortalities of up to 65%, 58% and 43% respectively from predation
317 of larvae returning to the soil to overwinter. This was supported by the findings of Floate *et*
318 *al.*, (1990) and Holland & Thomas (2000) who found that larvae were more likely to be
319 preyed upon when returning to the soil to overwinter rather than during pupation. The
320 results presented here suggest that the same is true of *H. marginata* larvae.
321

322 As with other predator surveys using PCR-based gut analysis, there is the chance that a
323 positive result could have resulted from scavenging or secondary predation of adult or larval
324 *H. marginata* (Juen & Traugott, 2004; Foltan *et al.*, 2005; Sheppard *et al.*, 2005). Carabid
325 beetles frequently exhibit intraguild predation (Snyder & Wise, 1999; Lang, 2002) and will
326 feed on carrion, sometimes in preference to fresh prey (Mair & Port, 2001; Foltan *et al.*,
327 2005). In this scenario, the surveyed predators will not be affecting *H. marginata* populations
328 directly, and may indirectly benefit them by consuming pest predators. Partially decayed
329 organisms are harder to detect in the gut however (Foltan *et al.*, 2005), therefore it seems
330 reasonable to assume the positive results obtained here are as a result of predation. This
331 has implications for pest management, as these predatory arthropods could be contributing
332 to suppression of *H. marginata* populations. As pitfall traps are only effective at sampling
333 surface active arthropods, of which only carabids were surveyed here, the actual range of
334 organisms preying on *H. marginata* could be much larger. Dipteran larvae are a primary food
335 source of Staphylinidae (Good & Giller, 1991) and dipteran species are an important dietary
336 component for many spiders (Harwood *et al.*, 2007; Schmidt *et al.*, 2012).

337

338 The primers developed for this study provide a useful resource for further molecular research
339 on this insect. They could be used in the identification of this species in traps, which is
340 particularly useful when specimens are partial or degraded (Frey *et al.*, 2004). This could be
341 of value not only in monitoring tools, but also in expanding current knowledge on the
342 distribution of *H. marginata* in the UK which at present is based on limited data (Rowley *et*
343 *al.*, 2016). The assay described here could also be used as a tool in field-based predation
344 experiments (Furlong, 2015) or included in multiplex PCRs to simultaneously screen for
345 many pest species at once (King *et al.*, 2010). The detectability half-life of DNA in the guts of
346 fluid feeders such as centipedes, heteropterans and spiders is generally much longer than
347 that described in carabids (Harwood *et al* 2007; Greenstone *et al* 2007; Waldner *et al.*,
348 2013), therefore we are confident that this assay would be suitable for use in other predator

349 taxa. Such surveys could reveal further trophic links involving *H. marginata* in
350 agroecosystems which are at present unknown. These primers could also be used to
351 investigate parasitoid enemies of *H. marginata* (Rougerie *et al.*, 2011), providing information
352 to further enhance pest management strategies. The field survey identifies for the first time,
353 species which consume *H. marginata* in the field. Different rates of digestion and therefore
354 prey DNA degradation between species means that further data are required to quantify
355 rates of predation on *H. marginata*. The next step would be to obtain species-specific
356 digestibility data under controlled conditions and conduct further field surveys to identify the
357 most important predators of this pest. Quantification of predator density should be made
358 alongside such surveys to further inform potential biological control strategies. Similarly,
359 surveys should be extended over wider spatial and temporal scales to provide a more
360 comprehensive assessment of *H. marginata* natural enemies. Nonetheless, the information
361 presented here is vital in the management of this pest as it demonstrates that these and
362 other species of arthropod predators are likely to be having an impact on *H. marginata*
363 populations. This represents an important first step in understanding the predation pressures
364 exerted on *H. marginata* populations, which may be a key aspect in the development of an
365 effective IPM program for this insect.

366

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747

748 Figure 1. Proportion of positive assays for *Haplodiplosis marginata* DNA in the guts of *Nebria*
749 *brevicollis* at time post-consumption of a single prey larva. Fitted line represents probit model
750 with 95% CI.

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800

801 Table 1. Species tested using the *Haplodiplosis marginata* primers and general insect
802 primers to assess for cross-reactivity with non-target taxa. All species tested negative.

803

804 Table 2. Number of individuals of each carabid species tested for the presence of *H.*
805 *marginata* DNA during the field survey in Buckinghamshire, UK, and expressed as a
806 percentage of the total carabids tested (in brackets). Number of individual assays testing
807 positive for the presence of *H. marginata* for each carabid species tested and the percentage
808 positive for that species (in brackets).

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831 Table 1.

Order	Family	Species
Coleoptera	Nitidulidae	<i>Meligethes sp.</i>
	Coccinellidae	<i>Harmonia axyridis</i>
	Carabidae	<i>Poecilus versicolor</i>
		<i>Poecilus cupreus</i>
		<i>Nebria brevicollis</i>
		<i>Pterostichus melanarius</i>
		<i>Anchomenus dorsalis</i>
		<i>Bembidion deletum</i>
		<i>Bembidion tetracolum</i>
		<i>Harpalus rufipes</i>
		<i>Harpalus affinis</i>
		<i>Abax parallelepipedus</i>
		<i>Loricera pilicornis</i>
Diptera	Cecidomyiidae	<i>Sitodiplosis mosellana</i>
	Dolichopodidae	Undetermined sp. 1
		Undetermined sp. 2
		Undetermined
		Undetermined
	Tachinidae	Undetermined sp. 1
		Undetermined sp. 2
	Syrphidae	Undetermined sp. 3
		Undetermined sp. 4
		Undetermined
		Undetermined
	Tephritidae	Undetermined
	Calliphoridae	Undetermined
	Anthomyiidae	Undetermined
Drosophilidae	Undetermined sp. 1	
	Undetermined sp. 2	
Muscidae	Undetermined	
Undetermined	Undetermined	
Hemiptera	Aphididae	<i>Sitobian avenae</i>
		<i>Myzus persicae</i>
		<i>Aphis fabae</i>
		<i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i>
Hymenoptera	Undetermined	Undetermined sp. 1
		Undetermined sp. 2
		Undetermined sp.3
		Undetermined sp.4
Symphypleona	Undetermined	Undetermined sp. 1
		Undetermined sp. 2
Araneae	Undetermined	Undetermined sp. 1
		Undetermined sp. 2

833 Table 2.

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Species	Number tested (% of total carabids)	Number positive (% for species)
<i>Poecilus versicolor</i>	45 (40.9)	2 (4.44)
<i>Poecilus cupreus</i>	9 (8.18)	0 (0)
<i>Nebria brevicollis</i>	15 (13.64)	3 (20)
<i>Pterostichus melanarius</i>	6 (5.45)	0 (0)
<i>Anchomenus dorsalis</i>	1 (0.91)	0 (0)
<i>Bembidion deletum</i>	2 (1.82)	0 (0)
<i>Bembidion tetracolum</i>	1 (0.91)	0 (0)
<i>Harpalus rufipes</i>	19 (17.27)	2 (10.53)
<i>Harpalus affinis</i>	9 (8.18)	0 (0)
<i>Abax parallelepipedus</i>	1 (0.91)	0 (0)
<i>Loricera pilicornis</i>	2 (1.82)	1 (50)
Total	110 (100)	8 (7.27)

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