



Article (refereed) - postprint

Honek, Alois; Martinkova, Zdenka; Roy, Helen E.; Dixon, Anthony F.G.; Skuhrovec, Jiri; Pekár, Stano; Brabec, Marek. 2019. Differences in the phenology of Harmonia axyridis (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae) and native coccinellids in Central Europe. Environmental Entomology, 48 (1). 80-87. https://doi.org/10.1093/ee/nvy173

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1	Differences in the phenology of Harmonia axyridis and native
2	coccinellids in central Europe (Coleoptera: Coccinellidae)
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17 Abstract

18 Harmonia axyridis (Pallas), an invasive non-native species in central Europe, can outcompete 19 other aphidophagous species. The distribution and abundance of *H. axyridis* vary depending 20 on different host plants, and its effects on native coccinellid communities may change 21 accordingly. The distribution and abundance of coccinellids in central Europe (50°N, 14°E) 22 were investigated from 2010 to 2016. Coccinellids were counted at regular intervals on 23 cereals (Avena, Hordeum, and Triticum), herbaceous plants (Matricaria and Urtica) and trees 24 (Acer, Betula, and Tilia). Additionally, the occurrence over time of each species on these 25 plants was assessed and used as an index of persistence. Across all years, the adults and larvae 26 of H. axyridis were the dominant species of coccinellid on trees. However, H. axyridis was 27 less abundant on herbaceous plants and cereals than on trees. Populations of native 28 coccinellids and *H. axyridis* co-occurred on trees and persisted for the same length of time, 29 while native coccinellids persisted longer than H. axyridis on herbaceous plants and cereals. 30 Compared to 1976–1986, in the 2010s, the abundance of native species decreased on all 31 plants by 50-70%. The presence of H. axyridis could be considered as a factor driving 32 changes in the assemblages of native coccinellids.

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34	Keywords.	invasive	alien species,	adults,	larvae,	cereals,	herbaceous	plants,	trees
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37 Introduction

38 Harmonia axyridis (Pallas), an invasive alien species in many regions of the world (Roy et al. 39 2016), was first recorded in central Europe (Czech Republic) in 2006 (Sprynar 2008). By 40 2009, it had become abundant, principally on trees but also on herbaceous plants and crops 41 (Honek et al. 2014). This species can outcompete other aphidophagous species (Howe et al. 42 2016) and is an intraguild predator, principally consuming the immature stages of other 43 aphidophagous species (Lucas 2005, Ware et al. 2008a, Ingels et al. 2013). H. axyridis is 44 considered not only a threat to biodiversity but also a pest to viticulture and a nuisance to 45 humans because it forms large overwintering aggregations in buildings and occasionally bites 46 humans, which can lead to allergic reactions (Nakazawa et al. 2007, Chakir et al. 2016). The 47 general outline of its life cycle is well known (Honek et al. 2018).

48 There are a number of important determinants of coccinellid occurrence, including host 49 plant, prey abundance and microclimate (Iperti 1999). Some species occur on a wide range of 50 plant species (e.g., *Propylea quatuordecimpunctata* (L.)), while others are specialists on trees 51 (e.g., Adalia decempunctata (L.)) or herbaceous plants (e.g., Hippodamia variegata (Goeze)) 52 (Honek and Rejmanek 1982, Honek 1985). Studies in Western Europe have revealed that H. 53 axyridis has a preference for trees (Adriaens et al. 2008; Brown et al. 2008, 2011; Panigaj et al. 2014; Roy et al. 2016; Brown and Roy 2018), particularly those growing in urban areas 54 55 (Purse et al. 2015). In contrast, the abundance of H. axyridis is comparatively low on 56 herbaceous vegetation and cereals (Adriaens et al. 2008, Jansen and Hautier 2008). The global 57 distribution of *H. axyridis* is well documented (Roy et al. 2016) but detailed observations on 58 particular hostplants (e.g. Gardiner et al. 2009) are still incomplete. Such studies would not 59 only increase our understanding of the population dynamics of *H. axyridis* but also provide 60 empirical data to underpin predictive models specifically assessing the effects of this alien 61 species on coccinellid assemblages.

62 We studied the variations in the abundance of *H. axyridis* and the community of native 63 species of coccinellids. This is because invasive H. axyridis likely affects, by different mechanisms, many species constituting the native community of coccinellids (Bahlai et al. 64 65 2013, Diepenbrock and Finke 2013, Diepenbrock et al. 2016). The presence of invasive H. axyridis and native coccinellids was recorded on trees, herbaceous plants and cereals from 66 2010 to 2016. For comparison, we used an existing dataset containing the abundance of 67 coccinellids but spanning 1976 to 1986, before the arrival of H. axyridis. The temporal 68 69 changes in the abundance of coccinellids, including in the later time period, and *H. axyridis*, 70 on particular plants provides the basis for exploring the hypothesis that long-term declines in 71 the abundance of native coccinellids are correlated with the high abundance and wide 72 distribution of *H. axyridis*.

73

74 Materials and Methods

75 Field surveys

76 Harmonia axyridis and native species of coccinellids were sampled in 2010-2016, in the 77 western part of the Czech Republic in an 11 x 7 km area centred at 50.105°N and 14.264°E. 78 Surveys focused on trees (Acer platanoides L., A. pseudoplatanus L., Betula pendula Roth, 79 Tilia cordata Mill., and Tilia platyphyllos Scop.), herbaceous plants (Tripleurospermum 80 inodorum (L.) Schultz-Bip. and Urtica dioica L.) and small-grain cereals (Avena sativa L., 81 Hordeum vulgare L., and Triticum aestivum L.). These host plants were considered as three 82 distinct types: trees, herbaceous plants and cereal crops. The same locations were sampled 83 over the years for the trees and U. dioica stands, whereas because of crop rotation, cereal 84 stands and T. inodorum were sampled at different sites each year but all within close 85 proximity. Each year surveys on trees started in April and terminated in November. On 86 herbaceous plants and cereals, surveys started when the vegetation was ≥ 30 cm high and

87 terminated when plants became senescent. At particular sites surveys were repeated at 14-day 88 intervals. Sampling was conducted on sunny and calm days, between 08:00-18:00 h. On 89 trees, coccinellids were sampled from the canopy below 3 m in height, on herbaceous plants 90 and cereals, they were sampled from the upper 20-30 cm stratum of vegetation. Coccinellids 91 were sampled by sweeping with a standard entomology net (35 cm diam., 140 cm handle). 92 The same person (AH) carried out all the surveys and ensured similar sampling efficiency in 93 sweeping. Sampling intensity was quantified by the number of sweeps per survey. In each 94 survey, sampling coccinellid adults and larvae on a particular plant at a particular site, lasted 15-30 min. Adults and larvae of the 3rd and 4th instars were identified to species, counted, and 95 96 immediately released at the site. In total, there were 1588 survey visits, with a mean of $129 \pm$ 97 1.5 sweeps per survey (range 50-400 sweeps). Localities and dates of sampling are listed in 98 supplementary Table 1 and Table 2. To compensate for the different sampling intensities, in 99 terms of number of sweeps, the numbers of individuals recorded during a particular survey 100 were recalculated to numbers per 100 sweeps (further 'n/100') except for the GLM analyses 101 where raw data were used. The duration of persistence of adults and larvae on particular 102 plants was calculated as the difference (days) between the first and the last record in a 103 particular year. The term "persistence" for the native species means persistence at the 104 community level. This term indicates the amount of time for which each taxon, H. axyridis 105 and community of native species, was present at a given hostplant in a given year. This metric 106 is useful for understanding differential use of the various plant habitats. To establish long-107 term changes in the abundance of native coccinellids, the recent data were compared with the 108 data for 1976–1986 when the same surveys were used. In this period, there were 71 surveys 109 on trees, 94 on herbaceous plants and 150 on cereals.

110

111 Data analysis

112 Analyses only included surveys where ≥ 1 coccinellid was captured, i.e., one or more adults 113 of any species in the analysis of adult populations, or one or more larvae of any species in the 114 analysis of larval populations. For 2010-2016, the differences in the abundance of H. 115 *axyridis*, and all native species among three plant types (trees, herbaceous plants, and cereals) 116 were compared using generalized estimating equations (GEE). This method is an extension of 117 GLM for correlated data (Yan and Fine 2004). As the sampling dates were nested within 118 years, and an exchangeable correlation structure was used (Pekár and Brabec 2018). To 119 correct for the different sampling intensity each year, the natural logarithm of the total number 120 of sweeps per year was set as an offset in the model formula because we expected that the 121 mean value of abundance would be proportional to the sampling intensity. Total abundance 122 per year was used as a response variable. GEE with a Poisson error structure (GEE-p) was 123 used due to the counting process and heteroscedasticity. The differences in the length of 124 coccinellid occurrence (days between the first and the last record in a particular year) on 125 particular plants were compared using GEE with a normal distribution of errors (GEE). Plant 126 type and coccinellid species (H. axyridis and natives) were used as factors. Analyses of 127 abundance and occurrence were performed separately for the adults and larvae. Differences in 128 the abundance of native coccinellid communities among plant types and between two periods, 129 1976–1986 and 2010–2016, were also compared using GEE-p, with an offset of sampling 130 effort and exchangeable correlation structure. Post-hoc tests with Tukey adjustment were used 131 on pairwise comparisons of *H. axyridis* vs. native species for all factor combinations. All 132 analyses were performed in the R program (R Core Team 2015).

133

134 **Results**

135 The abundance of all coccinellids varied between host plants (Table 1). There was a 136 significant interaction between plant type and the abundance of adult coccinellid species

(GEE-p, $X^{2}_{2} = 361$, P < 0.0001). Adults of *H. axyridis* were dominant on trees (Fig. 1). 137 138 Indeed, the average abundance $(17.8 \pm 1.62 \text{ n/100})$ on trees was 7.5 times greater than on 139 herbaceous plants ($3.6 \pm 2.25 \text{ n/100}$) and 89 times greater than on cereals ($0.2 \pm 0.06 \text{ n/100}$). 140 The abundance of native coccinellids exhibited a markedly different pattern. The average 141 abundance of native coccinellids on trees (5.2 \pm 0.90 n/100) and cereals (9.1 \pm 1.92 n/100) 142 was lower compared to that on herbaceous plants ($16.7 \pm 2.38 \text{ n/100}$). The high abundance of 143 native coccinellids on herbaceous plants and cereals was attributed to the occurrence of 144 Coccinella septempunctata L., Propylea quatuordecimpunctata (L.) and, on herbaceous 145 plants in some years, also Ceratomegilla undecimnotata (Schneider) and Hippodamia 146 variegata (Goeze). There was also a significant interaction between plant type and larval 147 coccinellid species (GEE-p, $X^2_2 = 286.4$, P < 0.0001). The larvae of H. axyridis were on the 148 same host plants as the adults (Fig. 1). The average abundance of H. axyridis on trees (8.8 \pm 149 2.38 n/100) was approximately 3 times greater than that on herbaceous plants (3.4 ± 1.26) 150 n/100) and 44 times greater than that on cereals (0.2 ± 0.07 n/100). The abundance pattern of 151 the larvae of native species (Fig. 1) also mirrored that of the adults. The mean abundance on 152 herbaceous plants (17.4 \pm 3.45 n/100) was nearly two times greater than that on cereals (9.3 \pm 153 4.82 n/100) and 12 times greater than that on trees (1.4 \pm 0.23 n/100). In summary, H. 154 axyridis was dominant on trees, and native coccinellids prevailed on herbaceous plants and 155 cereals.

The persistence of coccinellid species on particular plants (Table 1) varied. There was a significant interaction between plant type and coccinellid species for adults (GEE, $X^2_2 = 74$, P < 0.0001, Fig. 2). Native species persisted longer than *H. axyridis*, particularly on herbs and cereals. On trees, the adults of native species were present for nearly the same period of time (182 ± 5.8 d) as those of *H. axyridis* (179 ± 5.7 d). The difference was greater on herbaceous plants where the adults of native species were present for 118 ± 12.5 d and those of *H.* 162 axyridis for 149 ± 11.6 d, and on cereals, where adult native species and H. axyridis were 163 present for 77 ± 6.2 d and 33 ± 5.8 d, respectively. There was also a significant interaction between the plant type and the larvae of coccinellid species (GEE, $X^2_2 = 63.9$, P < 0.0001). 164 The persistence of larvae was significantly shorter than that of adults (GEE, $X^2_2 = 47.5$, P < 165 166 0.0001). On trees, the larvae of H. axyridis persisted for 123 ± 21.0 d, which is longer than 167 that for the larvae of native coccinellids at 96 ± 16.8 d. On herbaceous plants, H. axyridis 168 larvae were present for 34 ± 8.9 d and native coccinellids for 94 ± 14.6 d, and on cereals, H. 169 *axyridis* and native coccinellids were present for 17.5 ± 2.5 and 35 ± 5.5 d, respectively.

We found a significant effect of plant type (GEE-p, $X^2_2 = 40$, P < 0.0001) and time 170 period (1976–1986 (early) or 2010-2016 (late)) on the abundance of adults (GEE-p, X^{2}_{1} = 171 56.8, P < 0.0001). In the early time period, the average abundance of native coccinellid adults 172 $(31.9 \pm 1.48 \text{ n}/100)$ was 3.1 times greater than in 2010–2016 $(9.9 \pm 0.71 \text{ n}/100)$ (Fig. 3). In 173 174 both periods, coccinellids were most abundant on wild herbaceous plants. The native 175 coccinellids decreased in abundance mostly on trees between the two time periods; the 176 abundance in the early period was 4.4 times greater than that in the late period, and the 177 abundance was less (3.4 times) on herbaceous plants and least (2.1 times) on cereals. The 178 difference was mainly due to a decline in the abundance of the previously dominant species 179 (Table 2) A. bipunctata (abundance decreased 22 times on trees and 84 times on herbaceous 180 plants), C. septempunctata (abundance decreased 2-13 times) and P. quatuordecimpunctata 181 (abundance decreased 2-7 times). The order of dominance of the species in the communities 182 on particular plants changed over time. Among the most abundant species on trees were 183 Adalia bipunctata (L.) and Adalia decempunctata (L.), followed by P. quatuordecimpunctata 184 in the early period and C. septempunctata in the late period. On herbaceous plants, C. 185 septempunctata and H. variegata were dominant, followed by A. bipunctata in the early 186 period and P. quatuordecimpunctata in the late period. On cereals, C. septempunctata and P.

quatuordecimpunctata were dominant, followed by *Coccinella quinquepunctata* L. in the
early period and *H. variegata* in the late period.

189

190 **Discussion**

191 Harmonia axyridis was the most abundant coccinellid on trees, but it only occured at low 192 abundance (only a few individuals) on herbaceous and cereals. Other studies across Europe 193 that considered the abundance patterns of coccinellids on different host plants are consistent 194 with the findings from our study in the Czech Republic, with a high frequency of H. axyridis 195 on trees (Vandereycken et al. 2012) and Urtica (Alhmedi et al. 2007) and a low abundance on 196 most herbaceous plants and field crops except maize (Vandereycken et al. 2013a, b). 197 However, this scenario is not the case further afield. In North America, H. axyridis is abundant on cotton (Conway and Kring 2010), maize (Musser and Shelton 2003, Hesler and 198 199 Kieckhefer 2008), potato (Alyokhin and Sewell 2004), soybean (Hesler 2014) and wheat 200 (Nault and Kennedy 2003) while in Chile it occurs nearly exclusively on alfalfa (Grez et al. 201 2014, 2016). The variation in host plant preference globally may be a consequence of the 202 global genetic diversification of the populations (Lombaert et al. 2010), variations in flight 203 capacity (Lombaert et al. 2014), and opportunistic preferences for anthropogenic habitats 204 (Sloggett 2017). Within the native range of *H. axyridis*, there is also a considerable variability 205 in host plant associations, with a low relative abundance on field crops in eastern Siberia 206 (Kuznetsov and Pinsker 1973, Arefin and Ivliev 1988) but a high abundance on crops in Japan 207 (Komai and Hosino 1951) and China (Liu et al. 2012). In contrast, the occurrence of H. 208 axyridis on trees is consistently high across its native range (Osawa 2011, Dong et al. 2015, 209 Kuznetsov 1972) and in areas it has recently colonized (Brown 2002, Michaud 2002, 210 Frechette et al. 2008, Milleo et al. 2008, Johnson and Giliomee 2012, Torres-Acosta and 211 Sanchez-Pena 2015).

212 In North and South America, recently invaded H. axyridis apparently outcompetes 213 native species on crops (Diepenbrock and Finke 2013, Grez et al. 2016, Diepenbrock et al. 214 2016). One reason for this scenario could be the larger body size of H. axyridis compared to 215 that of the native species. A larger body size is advantageous in both competitive interactions 216 and intraguild predation. Crop habitats were populated by small native species (e.g., 217 Hippodamia convergens Guerin, H. auinauesignata (Kirby), and H. sinuata Mulsant in North 218 America). The large non-native species, C. septempunctata and H. axyridis, largely replaced 219 the small native species, which may survive and coexist only if they are temporally (Kajita et 220 al. 2000, Kajita and Evans 2010) or spatially segregated (Evans, 2004). In contrast, European 221 coccinellid communities on cereals are dominated by the large C. septempunctata (Honek and 222 Rejmanek 1982, Nedved 1999), which endured the competition from H. axyridis and 223 remained the dominant species in crops and most herbaceous stands even after the arrival of 224 H. axyridis. Similarly in the Eastern Palaearctic, these two species can coexist because of 225 spatial niche segregation: H. axyridis occupies trees and C. septempunctata herbaceous plant 226 stands (Takahashi 1987).

227 In contrast to the large differences in abundance, there was little difference in the 228 duration of persistence of H. axyridis and native coccinellids. Adults were present when the 229 plant foliage was lush and infested with prey. On trees, coccinellids persisted from leaf 230 appearance in late April-early May until leaf fall in late October-early November. Over the 231 course of a growing season, stands of herbaceous plants may be regenerated by cutting 232 (Urtica), or the development of plants may occur at different times during the vegetative 233 season (Tripleurospermum), and coccinellids can persist on such vegetation for long periods. 234 Native coccinellids, particularly C. septempunctata, move readily from patch to patch 235 throughout the vegetative season (Honek 1989), while H. axyridis only occupies low-growing 236 patches of vegetation when aphids are abundant on these plants, i.e., in late May to early July

(Honek et al. 2015). Consequently, native coccinellids remain longer in patches of wild
herbaceous plants than *H. axyridis*. On cereals, the abundance of prey depends to a large
extent on the stage of development of the crop. Coccinellids arrive following aphid
immigration (May) and leave when the crop matures (July).

241 Evaluating the effect of invasive alien species on native species is critical for 242 biodiversity conservation. Several mechanisms can explain the common persistence of native 243 species and H. axyridis: temporal and spatial segregation of native coccinellid and H. axyridis 244 populations and physical resistance of native species to intraguild predation or competitive 245 exploatation. On trees Adalia decempunctata (L.) and Calvia quatuordecimguttata (L.) were 246 able to persist following the arrival of H. axyridis but their abundance was reduced (Honek et 247 al. 2016). The survival of A. decempunctata populations may be an example of temporal 248 segregation. It appears to be facilitated by alternating temporal presence both species on trees 249 where A. decempunctata dominates coccinellid communities until early June and is then 250 replaced by *H. axvridis* (Honek et al. 2015). An example of physical resistance may be *C*. 251 quatuordecimguttata. This species may have thrived because the large and mobile larvae may 252 resist intraguild predation by *H. axyridis* (Ware and Majerus 2008); this endurance is further 253 supported by the chemical protection of its eggs (Ware et al. 2008b). An example of spatial 254 segregation was already addressed: C. septempunctata and P. quatuordecimpunctata 255 successfully resist competition of *H. axyridis* because their breeding takes place mostly on 256 crops and herbs (Honek and Rejmanek 1982, Honek 1985) where the latter species is not 257 abundant.

Native coccinellid communities were 2–4 times more abundant in the 1980s than in the 259 2010s (Fig. 2). The large decrease in the abundance of the native species communities was 260 apparent on all plants, regardless of the abundance of *H. axyridis*. However, the change in 261 abundance was most pronounced on trees where *H. axyridis* was abundant and least on

cereals where its presence was sporadic. These differences again show importance of overall
negative effect of *H. axyridis* on the abundance of native coccinellids.

264 In summary, the data from 2010–2016 provide quantitative evidence of the abundance 265 and persistence of adult and larval coccinellids on different plants. While H. axyridis occurs 266 mainly on trees, native coccinellids were most abundant (in terms of individuals) on 267 herbaceous plants, followed by cereals and trees. A comparison with data from 1976–1986 268 revealed a general decrease in the abundance of native coccinellids but with variation in the 269 extent of the decrease in particular plants, which is inversely correlated with the abundance of 270 H. axyridis. It is clear that coccinellids and other insects are undergoing rapid large-scale 271 changes in distribution and abundance (Hickling et al. 2006) as well as small-scale changes 272 within habitats and on particular plants. Such changes are likely to be due to a number of 273 interacting factors. The spread of invasive alien species is one such threat. However, the 274 decrease in the overall abundance of native coccinellids, as outlined here, is unlikely to be due 275 solely to the presence of *H. axyridis*. The decline in the abundance of *A. bipunctata* on 276 planted (Honek et al. 2016) and forest trees (Nedved 2014) and of C. septempunctata on 277 herbaceous plants and cereals (Honek and Martinkova 2005, Bianchi et al. 2007, Honek et al. 278 2016) was apparent before the arrival of H. axyridis. Other changes in native coccinellid 279 communities are also not explained by the arrival of *H. axyridis*, e.g., the extinction of 280 *Coccinella undecimpunctata* L. in the area of this study, the general decline in the abundance 281 of Coccinella quinquepunctata L. or, in contrast, the increased abundance of the 282 thermophilous Ceratomegilla undecimnotata (Schneider) and H. variegata. (Honek et al. 283 2014). The changes indicated that climate and habitat change (for example, through 284 agricultural intensification) may also influence the dynamics of coccinellids (Honek et al. 285 2017). Therefore, the importance of considering multiple, interacting factors when assessing 286 the potential effects of an alien species on biodiversity cannot be overstated.

288 Acknowledgements

AH was supported by grant QJ 1530373 of The Ministry of Agriculture of the Czech Republic, ZM and JS by grant 17-06763S of GACR and RO0418 of The Ministry of Agriculture of the Czech Republic, AFGD by grant no. CZ.1.05/1.1.00/02.0073 of The Ministry of Education of the Czech republic, MB was supported by the long-term strategic development financing of the Institute of Computer Science (Czech Republic RVO 67985807) and HER received support from NERC National Capability Funding.

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2 Legends to Figures and Tables

503

Fig. 1. Comparison of the abundance of adults and larvae of *H. axyridis* and native coccinellids on trees, low growing herbaceous plants (Herbs) and cereals. Statistically significant differences (Tukey post-hoc tests, P < 0.05) between *H. axyridis* and Native species within each plant type evaluated separately for adults and larvae are indicated by different letters. Bars are means (± SE).

509

Fig. 2. Duration of persistence of coccinelllid populations (the number of days elapsed from the date of capture of the first individual to the day of capture of the last individual) of adults and larvae of *H. axyridis* and native coccinellids on particular plants, trees, low-growing herbaceous plants (Herbs) and cereals. Statistically significant differences (Tukey post-hoc tests, P < 0.05) between *H. axyridis* and Native species within each plant type evaluated separately for adults and larvae are indicated by different letters. Bars are means (± SE).

516

Fig. 3. Abundance of adults of native coccinellids on trees, low-growing herbaceous plants (Herbs) and cereals in two periods, 1976–1986 and 2010–2016. Statistically significant differences between plants within periods (Tukey post-hoc tests, P < 0.05) are indicated by different letters. Differences between the periods for particular plants are all significant. Bars are means (± SE).

522

Table 1. The occurrence of adults and larvae of *H. axyridis* and native coccinellids on trees, low-growing herbaceous plants (Herbs) and small grain cereals in 2010–2016. For each plant and year, the table indicates number of samples and species collected; for *H. axyridis* and the community of native coccinellids, the number (n) of individuals, mean abundance (number of 527 individuals * 100 sweeps⁻¹ [n/100]) and the characteristics of temporal persistence, date of the 528 first catch (Start), date of the last catch (End) and number of days (d) from the first to the last 529 catch (Length) are indicated. Mean values of Abundance (Fig. 1) and Length (Fig. 2) are 530 presented in graphs. Each sample represents a set of individuals collected on a particular date 531 on a group of trees, a herb stand or in a field.

532

Table 2. Composition of native coccinellid communities sampled in the early (1976–1986) and late (2010–2016) periods on trees, low-growing herbaceous plants (Herbs) and cereals (for a list of species see Methods). Total number of adults (n) and average abundance (n individuals * 100 sweeps⁻¹, n/100) is in brackets, and bold figures indicate dominant species in terms of abundance.

538

Table 1. The occurrence of adults and larvae of *H. axyridis* and native coccinellids on trees, low-growing herbaceous plants (Herbs) and small grain cereals in 2010–2016. For each plant and year, the table indicates number of samples and species collected; for *H. axyridis* and the community of native coccinellids, the number (n) of individuals, mean abundance (number of individuals * 100 sweeps⁻¹ [n/100]) and the characteristics of temporal persistence, date of the first catch (Start), date of the last catch (End) and number of days (d) from the first to the last catch (Length) are indicated. Mean values of Abundance (Fig. 1) and Length (Fig. 2) are presented in graphs. Each sample represents a set of individuals collected on a particular date on a group of trees, a herb stand or in a field.

	Total			Native species								
					P	Persistence						
	Samples	Species	Individuals	Abundance	Start	End	Length	Individuals	Abundance	Start	End	Length
	n	N	n	n/100±SE			d	n	n/100±SE			ď
Adults												
Trees												
2010	56	15	839	15.5±2.70		08-Oct		465	8.5±1.02		08-Oct	
2011	120	15	2643	17.0±3.57	20-Apr	18-Oct	181	1049	7.3±1.06	20-Apr	18-Oct	181
2012	96	19	2412	18.0±2.84	09-May	19-Oct	163	994	7.2±1.26	09-May	19-Oct	163
2013	109	16	1707	12.3±2.34	04-May	16-Oct	165	478	3.7±0.85	04-May	16-Oct	165
2014	160	20	3716	14.6±3.12	19-Apr	04-Nov	199	756	3.1±0.55	19-Apr	05-Nov	200
2015	165	17	4807	24.0±3.07	22-Apr	03-Nov	195	654	3.2±0.41	22-Apr	03-Nov	195
2016	198	17	4070	23.0±1.96	06-May	08-Nov	186	678	3.3±0.43	06-May	09-Nov	187
Herbs												
2010	25	11	23	1.5±0.29		11-Aug		611	26.2±7.05		11-Aug	
2011	79	15	1271	17.1±3.54	19-May	23-Aug	96	1539	20.4±2.82	19-May	23-Aug	96
2012	67	12	90	1.5±0.57	24-May	15-Oct	144	1416	16.9±3.62	09-May	19-Oct	163
2013	62	14	32	0.4±0.13	20-May	04-Oct	137	683	7.1±1.69	15-May	04-Oct	142
2014	64	17	101	0.9±0.39	08-May	17-Sep	132	1043	10.2±2.81	08-May	04-Nov	180
2015	75	16	199	2.3±0.78	18-May	26-Oct	161	1076	11.2±3.38	05-May	26-Oct	174

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Cereals											
2010 1	9 8	3 3	0.1±0.09	09-Jul	16-Jul	7	221	9.0±1.02		22-Jul	
2011 5	7 1	0 31	0.3±0.16	29-Jun	03-Aug	35	1857	17.3±1.06	10-May	03-Aug	85
2012 3	57 8	3 7	0.1±0.09	02-Jul	26-Jul	24	688	11.6±1.26	09-May	26-Jul	78
2013 5	5 (6 3	0.0±0.03	20-Jun	17-Jul	27	342	3.1±0.85	13-May	16-Aug	95
2014 4	6 9	8	0.1±0.08	17-Jun	01-Aug	45	802	10.9±0.55	06-May	06-Aug	92
2015 1	9	7 2	0.1±0.07	26-Jun	01-Aug	36	236	8.6±0.41	02-Jun	01-Aug	60
2016 3	2 1	1 28	0.5±0.28	30-May	23-Jul	54	138	2.7±0.43	30-May	23-Jul	54
Larvae											
Trees											
2012 3	51 ;	5 114	3.3±0.77	21-May	09-Oct	141	69	1.8±0.80	09-May	27-Jul	79
2013 3	4	7 207	4.9±1.64	19-Jun	08-Sep	81	38	1.0±0.33	17-Jun	15-Sep	90
2014 6	4	7 953	8.6±3.72	19-May	05-Nov	170	80	0.8±0.29	21-May	19-Oct	151
2015 4	4 (5 519	10.0±3.01	18-May	23-Jul	66	113	2.3±0.74	18-May	07-Jul	50
2016 8	9	7 1303	17.0±3.43	27-May	02-Nov	159	106	1.1±0.32	06-Jun	23-Sep	109
Herbs											
2012 1	5	7 26	1.8±0.81	23-May	06-Jul	44	200	14.7±4.85	23-May	15-Oct	145
2013 1	8	7 8	0.3±0.22	08-Jul	27-Jul	19	305	8.6±4.70	28-Jun	24-Aug	57
2014 1	7	7 204	8.4±8.81	18-Jun	18-Aug	61	297	11.2±9.02	15-May	06-Aug	83
2015 2	3	7 122	4.9±2.08	11-Jun	16-Jul	35	697	21.0±5.18	04-Jun	26-Aug	83
2016 2	3	7 33	1.3±0.50	16-Jun	27-Jun	11	860	31.5±15.47	16-Jun	26-Sep	102
Cereals											
2012 1	5 3	3 6	0.3±0.34	05-Jul	05-Jul		808	32.0±15.27	29-May	11-Jul	43
2013 1	6 4	4 1	0.0±0.06	17-Jul	17-Jul		100	3.1±1.71	28-Jun	02-Aug	35
2014 2	2 4	4 11	0.3±0.21	02-Jul	17-Jul	15	78	1.9±0.77	17-Jun	27-Jul	40
2015 9	9 :	3 0	0.0±0.00				66	4.9±1.55	03-Jul	17-Jul	14
2016 1	8 3	3 12	0.4±0.31	23-Jun	13-Jul	20	188	4.8±5.97	10-Jun	23-Jul	43

Table 2. Composition of native coccinellid communities sampled in the early (1976–1986) and late (2010–2016) periods on trees, low growing herbaceous plants (Herbs) and cereals (for list of species see methods). Total number of adults (n) and average abundance (n individuals * 100 sweeps⁻¹, n/100) in bracketts, bold figures indicate dominant species in terms of abundance.

			197	76–1986					201	0–2016		
	Tre	es	He	erbs	Ce	eals	Tre	ees	He	rbs	Cere	eals
	n	n/100	n	n/100	n	n/100	n	n/100	n	n/100	n	n/100
Adalia bipunctata	585	(9.81)	1290	(26.77)	10	(0.04)	416	(0.45)	130	(0.32)		
Adalia conglomerata							1	(0.00)				
Adalia decempunctata	209	(3.33)	11	(0.15)	2	(0.01)	1150	(0.98)	16	(0.04)	1	(0.00)
Anatis ocellata	7	(0.09)			1	(0.00)	8	(0.01)	1	(0.00)		
Aphidecta obliterata	4	(0.04)					83	(0.07)			1	(0.00)
Calvia decemguttata	9	(0.22)					443	(0.44)	2	(0.01)	1	(0.00)
Calvia quatuordecimguttata	19	(0.35)	11	(0.24)			287	(0.28)	38	(0.09)	5	(0.01)
Ceratomegilla undecimnotata									251	(0.72)	2	(0.00)
Chilocorus bipustulatus							38	(0.03)	1	(0.00)		
Coccidula rufa			6	(0.13)								
Coccinella quinquepunctata	54	(1.76)	58	(1.00)	295	(1.39)	29	(0.02)	425	(0.69)	57	(0.13)
Coccinella septempunctata	105	(1.32)	593	(12.27)	3603	(13.46)	1151	(0.99)	3617	(7.30)	2715	(5.87)
Coccinella undecimpunctata	1	(0.02)	164	(3.49)	19	(0.08)						
Coccinulla quatuordecimpustulata									3	(0.01)		
Exochomus quadripustulatus	2	(0.03)	1	(0.02)			269	(0.26)	2	(0.00)		
Halyzia sedecimguttata							138	(0.15)	5	(0.01)		
Harmonia quadripunctata							24	(0.02)				
Hippodamia septemmaculata									2	(0.01)	1	(0.00)
Hippodamia variegata	3	(0.02)	207	(4.34)	8	(0.03)	4	(0.00)	1657	(3.20)	105	(0.26)
Oenopia conglobata	34	(0.56)	16	(0.34)			358	(0.32)	3	(0.01)		
Propylea quatuordecimpunctata	259	(2.93)	192	(3.67)	1398	(5.09)	462	(0.42)	549	(1.14)	1264	(2.92)
Psyllobora vigintiduopunctata	2	(0.01)					117	(0.11)	391	(0.90)	10	(0.02)
Rhyzobius litura							5	(0.01)			2	(0.00)
Scymnus sp.			1	(0.02)			18	(0.02)	10	(0.02)	2	(0.00)
Subcoccinella								(0.05)	-			
vigintiquatuorpunctata							48	(0.03)	47	(0.11)	15	(0.04)

Tytthaspis sedecimpunctata	2	(0.00)	383	(0.97)	103	(0.22)







1976-1986

2010-2016