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Weeds-beneficial entomofauna ecological relation in silvopastoral systems of western Cuba

Osmel Alonso-Amaro¹, Juan Carlos Lezcano-Fleires¹ and Moraima Suris-Campos²

¹Estación Experimental de Pastos y Forrajes Indio Hatuey, Universidad de Matanzas, Ministerio de Educación Superior Central España Republicana, CP 44280, Matanzas, Cuba

²Centro Nacional de Sanidad Agropecuaria. Mayabeque, Cuba

E-mail: osmel.alonso@ihatuey.cu https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1078-0605

Abstract

The objective of the study was to determine the species of weeds and beneficial entomofauna present in the silvopastoral systems (SPSs) evaluated in western Cuba, as well as their ecological interrelation in those animal husbandry agroecosystems. For such purpose, during one year eight SPSs composed by associations of *L. leucocephala* plus pasture grasses were sampled. The weeds were sampled at the beginning and end of the experiment; while the beneficial insects were collected every 15 days, for their identification in each case. A total of 34 weeds and 79 beneficial insect species were found. From the former, five are considered possible hosts of 27 beneficial insects that were captured (11 predators, 12 parasitoids and 4 pollinators). Among them, in the first group five ladybird beetles stood out as bioregulators of *Heteropsylla cubana* (main pest of *L. leucocephala* worldwide) and a thripcontrolling flower bug; while in the second group an ichneumonid and several chalcid wasps that regulate *Spodoptera frugiperda* stood out; and in the third group the bee *Apis melifera* stood out as pollinator. It was proven that it is necessary to determine which are the weed species whose presence is convenient in SPSs in order to enhance the ecological processes that occur in them, based on agrodiversity, the area covered by the prevailing pastures and the management of these productive systems; this would contribute to propitiate the regulation of the main associated pests and to maintain the biological balance, as occurred in the evaluated paddocks, in order to reach the economic and environmental sustainability of such agroecosystems in time.

Keywords: ecology, sustainability, useful insects, Leucaena leucocephala

Introduction

Silvopastoral systems (SPSs), with emphasis on the intensive ones, constitute an important innovative solution to increase animal production, mainly cattle and sheep-goat production (of milk as well as meat, and of other associated goods), and face the climate change in countries from Latin America and the Caribbean, and from other tropical and subtropical areas of the world (Murgueitio *et al.*, 2015).

The above-stated facts are based on the advantages of these systems (higher efficiency of the biological processes that occur in them, because the transformation of solar energy into biomass is maximized, soil fertility is favored with the biological fixation of atmospheric nitrogen, there is higher solubilization of phosphorus and accumulation of organic matter because of the animal dejections – urine and excreta), and on the agroecological principles that are applied to manage them, such as: use of rational-rotational grazing, with high instantaneous stocking rate of resistant animals adapted to certain climate conditions, in an environment

where there is adequate conservation of biodiversity, pastures and forages have the necessary resting time for them to reach the required nutritional quality, and the water resource is correctly managed, in order to guarantee animal welfare. This, as a whole, causes higher CO₂ sequestration in the soil and lower CH₄ emissions; and climate change resilience to increase, with minimum use of agrochemicals, hormones and antibiotics with regards to conventional systems.

Another aspect to be emphasized in SPSs with agroforestry arrangements, according to the criteria expressed by Murgueitio-Restrepo *et al.* (2016) and Sisa-Benavides (2017), is the inclusion of weeds within the herbaceous component (in addition to the pasture species of grasses and twining legumes, mainly), which interact with the tree stratum (forage trees and shrubs, fruit trees, timber trees, among others) and with the animals. Thus, in the animal husbandry sector the criterion that they are considered as indicators of inadequate management of the pastureland should be re-analyzed, according to Milera *et al.* (2014).

In addition, weeds play an important role in the trophic network of complex agroecosystems, because they interact directly and indirectly with others of their components and offer a broad spectrum of ecological and agronomic functions, such as pollination and pest regulation, by serving as refuge for natural and biological control agents (Caballero-López *et al.*, 2012). This enhances the management of agrobiodiversity, and their function is explained by the biotic regulation through the bottom-up and top-down mechanisms (Altieri and Nicholls, 2010; Ratnadass *et al.*, 2012), specifically the latter, because by having a reservoir of predators and parasitoids the pest control by its natural enemies would be achieved.

In that sense, the objective of the study was to determine the species of weeds and beneficial entomofauna present in the silvopastoral systems (SPSs) evaluated in western Cuba, as well as their ecological interrelation in those animal husbandry agroecosystems.

Materials and Methods

The experimental areas corresponded to SPSs (paddocks) composed by associations of the four commercial varieties of the tree legume *Leucaena leucocephala* (Lam.) de Wit –approved in Cuba, according to MINAG (2017)— and different pasture grasses, which had the particularities that are related in table 1.

The experimental period was one year, taking into consideration the months of higher presence of insects in these systems (March, May, October and November), previously determined by Alonso (2009).

Weed sampling was carried out at the beginning and the end of the evaluation period, in five spots of each paddock (envelope method), using a framework of 1 m². The collection of beneficial insects was performed every 15 days, before the animals entered to graze in all the areas, using two methods –based on the proposal made by Nielsen (2003) – to guarantee the highest possible capture of individuals present: the entomological net (in the tree as well as the herbaceous stratum), which was passed 100 times in five spots of the evaluated fields, which is equivalent to 25 m² according to Faz (1990); and the transparent nylon in the case of trees, with which a sample was taken of the organs present in the browsing zone (2 m of height, approximately) on the four cardinal points, according to the phenology of the L. leucocephala crop at the moment of sampling.

The functional subgroups of the captured insects were formed, according to the criterion expressed by Ruiz and Castro (2005) and the observations of their main feeding habit, conducted on site.

Among the main management indicators of productive systems that were taken into consideration in the performance of the weeds and beneficial

Table 1.	Characterization	of the	animal	husbandry	S	vstems.

Productive systems	Area (ha)	Location	YE•	Soil type (Hernández <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	Tree variety	Prevailing pasture (herbaceous stratum)
SPS-1	1,3			Lixiviated Ferralitic Red	Peru	Megathyrsus maximus (Jacq.) B.K. Simon & S.W.L. Jacobs
SPS-2	1,3	EEPFIH	6		Cunningham	M. maximus
SPS-3	1,3				CNIA-250	Natural pastures
SPS-4	1,1	EPGM		Brown with Carbonates	Cunningham	M. maximus
SPS-5	2,0	EPJM		Sandy	Peru	Digitaria eriantha Steud.
SPS-6	1,0	EPN	8	Grayish Brown	Ipil Ipil	Cynodon nlemfuensis Vanderyst.
SPS-7	2,0	EPVP		Brown with Carbonates	Ipil Ipil	Natural pastures
DPSPS	0,2	EEPFIH	16	Lixiviated Ferralitic Red	Peru	M. maximus

SPS: silvopastoral system, DPSSP: double-purpose SPS (cattle fattening-seed production), EEPFIH: Pastures and Forages Research Station Indio Hatuey, EPGM: Genetic Animal Husbandry Enterprise of Matanzas, EPJM: Animal Husbandry Enterprise José Martí (Matanzas province), EPN: Animal Husbandry Enterprise Nazareno (Mayabeque province), EPVP: Animal Husbandry Enterprise Valle del Peru (Mayabeque province), YE: years of exploitation; *: indicates from the second year of establishment to the moment of evaluation.

insects are: defoliation (pruning or cutting) in the feed (forage) shortage period; resting time of the paddocks after grazing (28-45 days in the rainy season and 49-66 in the dry season); and non-application of inorganic or organic fertilization, irrigation, chemical or biological pesticides. In addition, the percentage of area covered by the prevailing herbaceous pastures as part of the floristic composition was determined, through the step method EEPFIH (1980).

The identification of weeds and insects was made in the plant protection laboratories of the EEPFIH and in the insect taxonomy laboratory of the Agricultural Research Center (CIAP) of the Central University Marta Abreu of Las Villas (UCLV) –Villa Clara, Cuba–, using taxonomic keys (Borror and White, 1970; Sánchez and Uranga, 1993; Peck, 2005, among others), the revision and comparison with the insect collections of the UCLV, and the contribution of other specialists from different institutions of the country.

Results and Discussion

Weeds, after sampling in the eight animal husbandry systems under study, did not appear in two (SSP-1 and SSP-2); while in the other six 34 species, which are listed in table 2, were found and identified.

From these weeds *M. pudica* and *S. rhombifolia* stood out, present in five of the areas; *D. cinerea*, in four; and *S. geniculata*, *A. aspera* and *P. guajava*, in three, which are considered typical pastureland species in Cuba according to the reports of the animal husbandry.

Regarding the beneficial insects captured in the sampled areas, 79 species were identified (44 predators, 30 parasitoids and 5 pollinators), belonging to the orders Coleoptera, Hymenoptera, Diptera, Hemiptera, Orthoptera, Mantodea, Neuroptera, Dermaptera, Odonata and Thysanoptera. From them, 27 can find refuge or feed from five of the found weeds and regulate nine of the phytophagous pests also found in these silvopastoral systems, according to the criterion expressed by several authors about their interaction in the Cuban agricultural sector (table 3).

Nevertheless, in other crops in different countries the relation between the beneficial insects and weeds that were found in this study is reported, which is described below:

In the case of *I. trifida*, in zones close to rice, corn and cotton crops in Colombia, insects were hosted from the families Chalcididae (Hymenop-

tera), for example: *Conura* sp. and *Brachymeria* sp.; Anthocoridae (Hemiptera) (*Orius* sp.), Dolichopodidae (Diptera) (*Condylostylus* sp.), Syrphidae (Diptera), Coccinellidae (Coleoptera) (*C. maculata* and *Scymnus* sp.) and Reduviidae (Hemiptera) (*Zelus* sp.); in addition, along with *S. acuta*, they provided pollen and nectar for insects from the family Vespidae (Hymenoptera); while *C. diffusa* was host of insects from the family Syrphidae (Bedoya *et al.*, 2018). On the other hand, *B. pilosa*, considered in Peru as weed of the lucuma crop [*Pouteria lucuma* (Ruiz & Pav.) Kuntze], served as host for insects of the family Coccinellidae (Castillo *et al.*, 2015).

The weed-beneficial insect ratio in this study could have been influenced by the management of the productive systems, which is a response essentially to the covering of the area by pasture and forage species (table 4).

In paddocks 6 and 7, two of the ones that had lower AC PHP percentage, the highest number of weeds was found; which was also related to the fact that in the first paddock the pruning was not correctly performed according to the established rules, and in the second paddock no pruning was done and the animals did not rotate adequately due to problems with the perimeter fence. In turn, an increase of the presence of beneficial insects stands out, because the weeds serve as refuge or food (pollen or nectar) for the adults, as stated by Altieri and Nicholls (2007).

In paddock 3 the AC PHP percentage was even lower, because of the prolonged flooding before and during the experimental period, which caused the emergence of other plants, but in this case pastures (*Indigofera oxycarpa* Desv. (= *I. mucronata* Spreng. ex DC.), from the family *Fabaceae* and non-weed plants.

The presence of the higher number of beneficial species in SPS-1, DPSPS and SPS-4, where there was an adequate AC PHP percentage, was related to the tillering condition of Guinea grass, which generates a higher number of habitats where predator, parasitoid and pollinator insects take refuge, among other beneficial ones (Alonso, 2009); and, on the other hand, it coincides with the criterion expressed by Nicholls-Estrada (2008) concerning the fact that the higher surface covered by the pastureland favors the population dynamics of natural enemies, and that there is higher index of the biotic regulation potential.

The above-described results indicate that it is necessary to elucidate, in practice, the repercussion

Table 2. Weed species in the silvopastoral systems.

Family	Species	Common name	
Amaranthaceae	Achyranthes aspera L.	Chaff-flower	
Asteraceae	Bidens pilosa L.	Beggar's ticks	
	Emilia sonchifolia (L.) D. C.	Cupid's shaving brush	
	Parthenium hysterophorus L.	Santa Maria	
Bixaceae	Bixa orellana L.	Achiote	
Caesalpinaceae	Cassia occidentalis L.	Coffee senna	
Commelinaceae	Commelina diffusa Burm. F.	Climbing dayflower	
Convolvulaceae	Unidentified species	-	
	Ipomoea trifida (H. B. K.) D.	Wild sweet potato	
Cucurbitaceae	Cucumis anguria Lin.	Maroon cucumber	
	Momordica charantia Lin.	Bitter melon	
Cyperaceae	Cyperus esculentus L.	Yellow nutsedge	
Esterculiaceae	Waltheria indica L.	Sleepy morning	
Euphorbiaceae	Chamaesyce hyssopifolia (L.) Small.	Hyssoleaf sandmat	
	Croton lobatus L.	Rushfoil	
	Euphorbia heterophylla L.	Mexican fireplant	
Fabaceae	Centrosema lobatum (Britt. et Wils.) urb. H. C.	Centrosema	
	Crotalaria sp.	Rattlepods	
Labiadae	Mentha piperita Lin.	Peppermint	
Malvaceae	Unidentified species	-	
	Sida acuta Buró. F.	Common wireweed	
	Sida rhombifolia L.	Arrow leaf sida	
Meliaceae	Trichilia hirta L.	Broomstick	
Mimosaceae	Dichrostachys cinerea (L.)Wight & Arn.	Sicklebush	
	Mimosa pudica L.	Sensitive plant	
Myrtaceae	Psidium guajava Lin.	Common guava	
Poaceae	Bothriochloa pertusa (L.) A. Camus	Pitted beard grass	
	Setaria geniculata (Lam.) Beauv.	Knotroot foxtail	
	Sporobolus indicus (L.) R. Br.	Smutgrass	
Poligonaceae	Persicaria portoricensis (Bert.) Small.	Denseflower knotweed	
Solanaceae	Cestrum nocturnum Lin.	Night-blooming jasmine	
	Solanum nodiflorum Jacq.	Black nightshade	
Typhacea	Typha angustifolia Lin.	Lesser bulrush	
Verbenaceae	Priva lappulacea (L.) Pers.	Catstongue	

of the weeds-crops-insects (phytophagous and beneficial) complex in the different agroecosystems, with emphasis on animal husbandry ones; because, as reported by Blanco and Leyva (2009) when they studied weeds and their associated entomofauna in the corn crop after the competition period, they are highly important for agroecology. This allows to

deduce that, with such response, the reasons why a noxious agent considered harmful does not reach that condition from the economic point of view could be better known.

Thus, it is possible to consider the groups of weeds within agroecosystems as biological corri-

Table 3. Ecological relation among weeds, beneficial insects and phytophagous pests associated to the evaluated SPSs

Host weed	Associated beneficial insect (Order: Family)	Captured pest it regulates (Order: Family)	
	Bachyacantha decora Casey■		
	Chilocorus cacti Linnaeus	Heteropsylla cubana Crawford [△]	
	Coccinella maculata (De Geer)■	(Hemiptera: Psyllidae) Ascia monuste eubotea (Godart) [∆]	
	Cycloneda sanguinea limbifer Casey	(Lepidoptera: Pieridae) Spodoptera sp. [△] Diaphania hyalinata (Linnaeus) [△] (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae) Leafhoppers [△]	
	Diomus ochroderus (Mulsant)■	H. cubana	
	Diomus roseicollis (Mulsant)■	H. cubana	
	<i>Psyllobora</i> sp.■		
P. hysterophorus	Scymnus distinctus Casey (Coleoptera: Coccinelidae)		
	Apanteles sp. + (Hymenoptera: Braconidae)		
	Lasioglossum sp. (1)°		
	Lasioglossum sp. (2)° (Hymenoptera: Halictidae)		
	Campsomeris trifasciata (Fab.) ⁺ (Hymenoptera: Scoliidae)		
	Zanysson armatus (Cresson) (Hymenoptera: Sphecidae)		
	Pachodynerus nasidens (Latreille) (Hymenoptera: Vespidae)		
B. pilosa	Orius pumilio (Champion) (Hemiptera: Anthocoridae)	Frankliniella tritici Fitch (Thysanoptera: Thripidae) Podothrips sp. (Thysanoptera: Phlaeothripidae)	
P. hysterophorus C. hyssopifolia C. diffusa Asteráceas	Apis melifera L.° (Hymenoptera: Apidae)	-	
C. hysopifolisa	C. maculata	H. cubana	
C. hyssopifolia C. diffusa Asteráceas	Exomalopsis pulchella Cresson° (Hymenoptera: Apidae)	-	
C. diffusa	Rogas sp.+ (Hymenoptera: Braconidae)		

[■] predators, * parasitoids; ° pollinators, ^ pests regulated by *C. cacti, C. maculata* and *C. sanguinea limbifer*.
Source: Bruner *et al.* (1975), Fernández T. *et al.* (2001), Valenciaga (2003), Veitía (2004), Martínez *et al.* (2007), Milán *et al.* (2008), Vázquez *et al.* (2008), Alonso (2009).

dors, that is, they constitute natural biodiversity where beneficial insects find refuge and alternative food, and exert their dominance by attacking pest insects (Tapia-Mayer, 2013), which indicates direct trophic interaction (Norris and Kogan, 2000).

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Table 3	Continu	iation

Host weed	Associated beneficial insect (Order: Family)	Captured pest it regulates (Order: Family)		
	Brachymeria flavipes (Fab.)+			
	Brachymeria hammari (Cresson)+	Pupae from: <i>Apotomorpha rotundipennis</i> (Walsingham) (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae)		
P. hysterophorus	Brachymeria ovata (Say)+			
C. hyssopifolia	Brachymeria incerta (Cresson) ⁺ (Hymenoptera: Chalcididae)			
	Enicospilus purgatus (Say)* (Hymenoptera: Ichneumonidae)	Larvae from: Spodoptera frugiperda (Smith) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae)		
P. hysterophorus C. hyssopifolia Asteráceas	Conura feromata (Fabricius)+			
	Conura sp. (1)+	S. frugiperda		
	Conura sp. (2)+	S. frugiperda		
	Conura sp. (3)+	S. frugiperda		

[■] predators, + parasitoids; O pollinators.

Source: Bruner et al. (1975), Fernández T. et al. (2001), Valenciaga (2003), Veitía (2004), Martínez et al. (2007), Milán et al. (2008), Vázquez et al. (2008), Alonso (2009).

Table 4. Quantity of taxa of weeds and beneficial insects and percentage of area covered by the herbaceous pastures prevailing in the SPSs.

Productive system	Weeds			Insects		
	No. of families	No. of species	% AC PHP*	No. of species P + B	Beneficial	Pr + Pa
SPS-1	0	0	72	80	33	28
SPS-2	1	1	80	33	16	14
SPS-3	2	4	47	40	16	14
SPS-4	4	10	77	61	29	27
SPS-5	6	9	81	45	19	19
SPS-6	11	21	55	50	21	18
SPS-7	10	17	61	40	14	11
DPSPS	0	0	78	75	33	26

 $^{\% \} AC \ PHP: percentage \ of area \ covered \ by \ the \ prevailing \ herbaceous \ pasture, \ P+B: \ phytophagous + beneficial,$

In addition, it is necessary to take into consideration the report by Vázquez *et al.* (2004), who state that weeds constitute host or «alluring» plants, which influence the performance of beneficial organisms and, particularly, the type, abundance and colonization time of parasitoids (Waage and Greathead, 1986). At the same time, they offer many resources to natural enemies, such as: preys or alternative hosts, pollen or nectar, and microhabitats that are not available in the monocrop (Altieri

and Nicholls, 2007) and are available in complex (silvopastoral) systems, in which several plant and animals species converge.

Conclusions

Five weeds and an Asteraceae plant, which represented 15 % of the total, are considered as possible hosts of 27 of the captured biological controls (11 predators, 12 parasitoids and 4 beneficial ones, also pollinators). Among the predators the ladybird bee-

Pr + Pa: predators + parasitoids, * Indicates at the end of the experiment.

SPS: silvopastoral system, DPSSP: double-purpose SPS (cattle fattening-seed production).

tles *C. cacti*, *C. maculata*, *C. sanguinea limbifer*, *D. ochroderus* and *D. roseicollis* as bioregulators of *H. cubana* and the flower bug *O. pumilio*, controller of *F. tritici* and *Podothrips* sp, stood out. From the parasitoids, the ichneumonid *E. purgatus* and the chalcid wasps *Conura* spp., which regulate *S. frugiperda*, stood out; likewise, the bee *A. melifera* stood out as pollinator.

It was proven that it is necessary to determine which are the weed species that it is convenient to include in SPSs (perhaps as natural biological corridors) in order to enhance the biological processes that occur in them, based on agrodiversity, the area covered by the prevailing pastures and the management of these productive systems; this would contribute to propitiate the regulation of the main associated pests and to maintain biological balance, with the objective of reaching economic and environmental sustainability of such agroecosystems in time.

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