



**UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS**

This is a repository copy of *Biological control interventions reduce pest abundance and crop damage while maintaining natural enemies in sub-Saharan Africa: a meta-analysis*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/193509/>

Version: Accepted Version

---

**Article:**

Ratto, F, Bruce, T, Chipabika, G et al. (9 more authors) (Accepted: 2022) Biological control interventions reduce pest abundance and crop damage while maintaining natural enemies in sub-Saharan Africa: a meta-analysis. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences. ISSN 0962-8452 (In Press)

---

This item is protected by copyright, all rights reserved. This is an author produced version of an article, accepted for publication in Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences. Uploaded in accordance with the publisher's self-archiving policy.

**Reuse**

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) licence. This licence allows you to distribute, remix, tweak, and build upon the work, even commercially, as long as you credit the authors for the original work. More information and the full terms of the licence here:

<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

**Takedown**

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing [eprints@whiterose.ac.uk](mailto:eprints@whiterose.ac.uk) including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



[eprints@whiterose.ac.uk](mailto:eprints@whiterose.ac.uk)  
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

# Biological control interventions reduce pest abundance and crop damage while maintaining natural enemies in sub-Saharan Africa: a meta-analysis

Fabrizia Ratto<sup>1,2</sup> [Fabrizia.Ratto@rhul.ac.uk](mailto:Fabrizia.Ratto@rhul.ac.uk), [f.ratto@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:f.ratto@leeds.ac.uk)

Toby Bruce<sup>3</sup> [t.j.a.bruce@keele.ac.uk](mailto:t.j.a.bruce@keele.ac.uk)

Gilson Chipabika<sup>4</sup> [gilsonchipabika@gmail.com](mailto:gilsonchipabika@gmail.com)

Sithembile Mwamakamba<sup>5</sup> [smwamakamba@fanrpan.org](mailto:smwamakamba@fanrpan.org)

Rachel Mkandawire<sup>5</sup> [rmkandawire@fanrpan.org](mailto:rmkandawire@fanrpan.org)

Zeyaur Khan<sup>6</sup> [zkhan@icipe.org](mailto:zkhan@icipe.org)

Angela Mkindi<sup>7</sup> [angela.mkindi@nm-aist.ac.tz](mailto:angela.mkindi@nm-aist.ac.tz)

Jimmy Pittchar<sup>6</sup> [jpittchar@icipe.org](mailto:jpittchar@icipe.org)

Susannah M. Sallu<sup>8</sup> [s.sallu@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:s.sallu@leeds.ac.uk)

Stephen Whitfield<sup>8</sup> [s.whitfield@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:s.whitfield@leeds.ac.uk)

Kenneth Wilson<sup>9</sup> [ken.wilson@lancaster.ac.uk](mailto:ken.wilson@lancaster.ac.uk)

Steven M. Sait<sup>1</sup> [s.m.sait@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:s.m.sait@leeds.ac.uk)

<sup>1</sup> School of Biology, Faculty of Biological Sciences, University of Leeds, Miall Building, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK ORCID 0000-0001-8411-4379

<sup>2</sup> Department of Health Studies and Centre for Ecology, Evolution and Behaviour, School of Life Sciences and the Environment, Royal Holloway, University of London, Egham, Surrey, TW20 0EX

<sup>3</sup> School of Life Sciences, Keele University, Keele, ST5 5BG, UK

<sup>4</sup> Zambia Agriculture Research Institute, Mulungushi House, Independence Avenue, Lusaka, 10101, Zambia.

<sup>5</sup> Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources Policy Analysis Network (FANRPAN), 141 Cresswell St Weaving Park Pretoria, South Africa

<sup>6</sup> International Centre of Insect physiology and Ecology, PO Box, 30772-00100 Nairobi, Kenya

<sup>7</sup> School of Life Sciences and Bio engineering, Department of Sustainable Agriculture, Biodiversity and Ecosystem Management, The Nelson Mandela African Institution of Science and Technology, Box, 447- Arusha, Tanzania.

<sup>8</sup> Sustainability Research Institute, School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK

<sup>9</sup> Lancaster Environment Centre, Lancaster University, Lancaster LA1 4YQ, UK.

**Corresponding author:** Dr Fabrizio Ratto [Fabrizia.Ratto@rhul.ac.uk](mailto:Fabrizia.Ratto@rhul.ac.uk), [f.ratto@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:f.ratto@leeds.ac.uk)

1 ABSTRACT

2 Insect pests are a major challenge to smallholder crop production in sub-Saharan Africa, where  
3 access to synthetic pesticides, which are linked to environmental and health risks, is often limited.  
4 Biological control interventions could offer a sustainable solution, yet an understanding of their  
5 effectiveness is lacking. We used a meta-analysis approach to investigate the effectiveness of  
6 commonly-used biocontrol interventions and botanical pesticides on pest abundance, crop damage,  
7 yield and natural enemy abundance when compared with controls with no biocontrol and with  
8 synthetic pesticides. We also evaluated whether the magnitude of biocontrol effectiveness is  
9 affected by type of biocontrol intervention, crop type, pest taxon, farm type and landscape  
10 configuration. Overall, from 99 studies on 31 crops, we found that compared to no biocontrol,  
11 biocontrol interventions reduced pest abundance by 63%, crop damage by over 50%, and increased  
12 crop yield by over 60%. Compared to synthetic pesticides, biocontrol resulted in comparable pest  
13 abundance and yields, while natural enemy abundance was 43% greater. Our results also highlighted  
14 that the potential for biocontrol to be modulated by landscape configuration is a critical knowledge  
15 gap in sub-Saharan Africa. We show that biocontrol represents an effective tool for small-holder  
16 farmers, which can maintain yields without associated negative pesticide effects. Furthermore, the  
17 evidence presented here advocates strongly for including biocontrol practices in national and  
18 regional agricultural policies.

19

20 **Keywords:** conservation agriculture, agroecosystems, crop yield, predators, parasitoids, weeds,  
21 synthetic pesticides, botanical pesticides, insect pests, agricultural policy.

## 22 INTRODUCTION

23 One of the greatest global challenges of the twenty-first century is meeting the increasing demands  
24 for food production while minimising adverse impacts on biodiversity and ecosystem health [1]. This  
25 challenge is particularly critical in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) where the population is predicted to  
26 double over the coming decades [2] and food production is hampered both by climate change  
27 impacts [3], which exacerbates significant yield losses already caused by crop pests [4,5]. For  
28 example, the invasion of the fall armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*), which has caused crop losses  
29 of about \$3 billion a year in SSA, has become one of the most important threats to maize production  
30 [6]. The fall armyworm is also a cause of major damage to other crops including rice, sorghum,  
31 millet, cabbage, and tomatoes, demonstrating the vulnerability of smallholder farming to crop pests.

32 Conventional synthetic pesticides have severe limitations as a means of pest control in SSA  
33 because they are economically inaccessible for a large portion of smallholder farmers in the region  
34 [7]. Pesticide residues also put human and livestock populations at risk from contaminated food and  
35 forage [8,9]. Furthermore, synthetic pesticides may lead to resistance in pest populations [10], and  
36 have negative impacts on non-target organisms, such as pollinators and natural enemies, and the  
37 ecosystem services that biodiversity provides in the production of food [11–13]. If the reduction of  
38 natural enemy populations is greater than that of the pest, this may lead to the resurgence of pests  
39 following pesticide applications [14], which is a widely reported problem associated with synthetic  
40 pesticides[15].

41 Biological control methods (hereafter biocontrol), which employ natural enemies of crop  
42 pests, have been adopted globally as an alternative approach to synthetic chemical pest control, and  
43 are often used as part of an integrated pest management strategy [16,17]. Extensive evidence is  
44 available on the responses of natural enemies to the landscape configuration surrounding crop fields  
45 [18], which reveals that landscape effects, albeit giving inconsistent responses, may be a key driver  
46 of pest regulation by natural enemies. Recent syntheses show consistent positive responses of

47 natural enemies to landscape complexity [13], with higher natural enemy populations in complex  
48 versus simple landscapes [19] and a reduction of natural pest control in simplified landscapes [20]

49           However, meta-analyses of this kind are strongly biased in favour of the northern-  
50 hemisphere, or they are global in scope, and so lack the scale of analysis that might be useful to  
51 policy makers in the SSA region. Furthermore, inputs such as chemicals fertilizers and pesticides are  
52 typically much less in Africa, and we would expect the effectiveness of biocontrol strategies to be  
53 different. There is a recognised need to develop evidence-based, environmentally friendly biocontrol  
54 management strategies in SSA, which boost capacities for their implementation across farming  
55 systems, locations and scales. This is exemplified by the FAO, who recognise that coordination and  
56 collaboration on fall armyworm control will require the implementation of environmentally  
57 sustainable pest management practices and policies at the regional, national and farmer-level [21].

58           In SSA, in addition to conventional biological control approaches that use live natural  
59 enemies such as predators, parasitoids and pathogens ,smallholder farmers have recently adopted  
60 conservation biocontrol methods and plant-based botanical pesticides for the control of crop pests  
61 [22]. Conservation biocontrol methods include intercropping, push-pull technology and the  
62 maintenance of plant-rich field margins (Table 1). Growing evidence highlights the potential of  
63 biocontrol interventions to reduce pest incidence and increase yield [23,24]. For example, push-pull  
64 technology has been shown to be effective against a range of crop pests, particularly maize  
65 stemborers [25], and botanical pesticides can reduce pest incidence and enhance yield in vegetables  
66 crops [26,27].

67           Although biocontrol interventions and botanical pesticides may provide sustainable and  
68 accessible alternatives to synthetic pesticides, their adoption by smallholder farmers has not been  
69 widespread [28]. This may be due to knowledge gaps relating to their effectiveness and the factors  
70 that lead to their success or failure, particularly in comparison to synthetic pesticides. Biocontrol  
71 techniques have been applied to numerous crops and targeted a wide variety of pests in the region,  
72 yet there is a lack of understanding of how the effectiveness of biocontrol varies across different

73 crop types and pest taxa [28]. Recent research in Tanzania found greater natural enemy diversity in  
74 fields surrounded by intercropped fields, suggesting spatial flow of potential biocontrol services  
75 across landscapes [29]. However, the established relationship between landscape configuration,  
76 natural enemies and pest regulation is almost entirely based on studies carried out in the global  
77 north and some global south regions [30] but very seldom in sub-Saharan regions where farmers are  
78 most exposed to food insecurity caused by crop pests [31]. More clarity is needed about the  
79 environmental factors affecting biocontrol and botanical pesticides performance in sub-Saharan  
80 Africa to better assist in smallholder farmer decision making, and to determine the broader indirect  
81 impact of pest management options on biodiversity compared to synthetic pesticides, both on a  
82 farm and at a landscape scale.

83 Quantitative analyses have been conducted on the performance of biocontrol agents [32],  
84 on the impact of landscape context on augmentative biocontrol [33] and pest and natural enemy  
85 responses [13]. However, none of these approaches have focussed specifically on the sub-Saharan  
86 region showing a severe geographical bias, nor have they evaluated the efficacy of different  
87 biocontrol interventions on crop pest populations and their damage to crops.

88 Here, we aim to better understand the key factors driving the success or failure of biocontrol  
89 interventions using quantitative meta-analysis. We broaden the definition of biocontrol  
90 interventions to encompass biological control using live organisms, as well as conservation  
91 agriculture and plant-derived botanical pesticides, which represent more recent pest control  
92 innovations. There has been very little assessment of their efficacy, especially botanical pesticides,  
93 as alternatives to synthetic chemical pesticides. Specifically, we posed the following questions:

94 (1) What are the effects of biocontrol interventions on the management of insect crop pests in sub-  
95 Saharan Africa? (2) Are these effects consistent across biocontrol techniques, crop types, target  
96 pests and farming systems? (3) How does the effectiveness and impact of biocontrol interventions  
97 on crop pests and non-target insects compare to synthetic pesticides? (4) Does the surrounding  
98 landscape configuration affect the efficacy of biocontrol interventions?

99           We hypothesised that pest abundance and crop damage would decrease, and yield would  
100 increase in crops subject to biocontrol interventions, that the impact on natural enemy abundance  
101 would be less than that of synthetic chemical pesticides, and that these effects would be enhanced  
102 in fields surrounded by greater landscape complexity.

## 103   **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 104   **Data collection and Inclusion criteria**

105   To identify candidate studies, we screened a dataset included in a systematic map review carried out  
106 by Ratto *et al.* (2022) that described the existing literature on biocontrol interventions for insect  
107 pests of crops in SSA. Ratto *et al.* (2022) systematically searched Web of Science All Databases and  
108 Scopus, using a combination of search terms relating to a wide range of biocontrol techniques and  
109 insect pests (e.g., “biocontrol”, intercrop\*”, “armyworm”), agricultural settings (e.g., “agri\*”,  
110 “farm\*”) and the target geographical location (e.g., “sub-Saharan Africa”, “Southern Africa”)(  
111 electronic supplementary material, table S1). The grey literature was captured by conducting  
112 additional searches on Google and Google Scholar and by searching websites of relevant institutions  
113 (electronic supplementary material, table S2). This mapping review covered a period between 2005  
114 and April 2021 and was summarised narratively, with no quantitative analysis performed.

115           We integrated this initial dataset (149 articles) [28] with a follow up search of relevant  
116 papers published between April 2021 and December 2021 using the same search term combination.  
117 This search yielded 146 articles potentially appropriate for our review. We used the RepOrting  
118 standards for Systematic Evidence Syntheses (ROSES) [34] (electronic supplementary material, figure  
119 S1). Only articles published after 2005 were included to reflect modern biocontrol practices and to  
120 determine biocontrol effectiveness within a short timeframe. We focused on the sub-Saharan  
121 region, which has a large population of smallholder farmers who depend on local food production,  
122 and who suffer substantial incidences of insect pest outbreaks and crop damage that threatens their  
123 food security.

124 We included in the definition of biocontrol interventions any practice that utilises natural  
125 enemies of pests, or chemical products derived from nature, for the control of pest populations.  
126 These include the augmentation, introduction, or inoculation of natural enemies (i.e., predators,  
127 parasitoids and entomopathogens, such as bacteria, viruses and fungi), and conservation biocontrol  
128 (table 1). Conservation biocontrol was defined as the manipulation of habitat to enhance natural  
129 enemy abundance and diversity [24] and included push-pull technology, intercropping and the  
130 maintenance of field margins. Botanical pesticides, defined as substances derived from natural  
131 materials (e.g. plant extracts), were also included.

132 To ensure biologically meaningful comparisons, we applied further inclusion criteria. Only  
133 articles that quantitatively measured biocontrol performance on the outcome measures were  
134 included in the analysis. Only studies with replicated treatments at one or more sites were included.  
135 We screened studies wherein pest abundance (PA), crop damage (CD), crop yield (Y) or natural  
136 enemy abundance (NEA) (hereafter “outcome measures”) were compared between crops following  
137 the implementation of a biocontrol intervention and untreated crops. We also extracted, where  
138 available, data on the outcome measures in crops treated with synthetic pesticides. Measures of  
139 crop damage included dead hearts (i.e., drying of the central shoot), damage to stems (e.g., stem  
140 tunnelling), pods, leaves, fruits, shoots that were specific to the target pests. Crop yield was  
141 reported as either kg/ha or tonne/ha, which was standardised to the latter for analysis.

142 We categorised the sites that had been exposed to a biocontrol intervention as “treatment”,  
143 with those that were left untreated as “negative control (-)” and those treated with synthetic  
144 pesticides as “positive control (+)”. The mean, standard deviation (SD) and sample size of outcome  
145 measures were recorded for both the treatment and controls. When data were presented only in  
146 figures, we extracted data using ImageJ software [35]. We contacted the lead authors of the studies  
147 that had incomplete data.

148 For articles that presented multiple years of data sampling at the same site, we used the  
149 most recent data to control for non-independence of temporal data [36]. When the study was



150 conducted in two or more spatially independent sites, we recorded them as independent  
151 observations. When a study presented outcome measures for several successive weeks, we  
152 averaged the means and recorded it as a single effect size. When different concentrations or  
153 different types of biocontrol agent were applied (e.g., entomopathogens, botanical pesticides), we  
154 used the highest concentration and recorded each biocontrol type as an independent observation.  
155 The screening resulted in a total of 99 articles and 512 studies included in the analysis (electronic  
156 supplementary material, table S3, figure S1)(figure. 1).

### 157 Statistical analysis

158 In our meta-analysis, the log of the response ratio ( $\ln RR$ ) represents the influence of biocontrol  
159 interventions on the outcome measures and expresses the proportional difference between the  
160 treatment and the control groups [37]:

$$161 \quad \ln RR = \ln(x_1) - \ln(x_2)$$

162 where  $x_1$  is the mean of the outcome measure when biocontrol is applied (treatment) and  $x_2$   
163 is the mean of the outcome measures under the untreated condition (control -) or after synthetic  
164 pesticide application (control +).

165 All outcome measures were analysed separately (pest abundance, crop damage, crop yield,  
166 natural enemy abundance). Fitted random effects models were used to calculate the overall means  
167 and 95% confidence intervals for each outcome measure to determine if biocontrol interventions  
168 significantly affected the outcome measures when compared to control areas (both untreated and  
169 pesticide treated). Random effect models do not assume that any variation in the effect size is due  
170 only to sampling error, and, instead, allow for a real random component of variation in effect size  
171 between studies (e.g., regional differences in study location). An effect of biocontrol intervention  
172 was considered significant if the 95% biased-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals (C.I.) of the  
173 effect size did not overlap zero [38].

174 Meta-regression was used to explore sources of heterogeneity across each dataset. Our  
175 analysis focussed on the following ecological, environmental, and experimental parameters: (1)

176 biocontrol technique; (2) crop type; (3) target pest taxon; (4) farming system. However, we could not  
177 use landscape complexity as a moderator as we found too few studies that investigated landscape  
178 context. To elucidate the variability of biocontrol efficacy across biocontrol techniques, we grouped  
179 studies according to whether they applied botanical pesticides, intercropping, field margins (border  
180 planting including legumes, sorghum or wild grasses), push-pull or augmentation/introduction  
181 methods. To determine if the effectiveness of biocontrol was dependent on crop type, we classified  
182 the study focus crops into cereal, fibre, fruits, vegetables, and pulses. We did not include stimulants  
183 (e.g., coffee, cocoa) and nuts due to small sample sizes. To establish whether biocontrol  
184 effectiveness varied across different pest insect taxa, we classified studies according to taxon of the  
185 targeted pest (Coleoptera, Hemiptera, Lepidoptera and Blattodea). Lastly, we classified studies into  
186 two field types: small farm (real smallholder farming conditions) and research farm (experimental  
187 field within a research centre), to identify any difference between these systems. Large commercial  
188 horticulture farms were not included in the meta-analysis as we primarily focussed on smallholder  
189 farmers and their food security. The above parameters were tested one by one as a sole moderator  
190 (i.e., fixed effects) for each outcome measure. To account for multiple comparisons from the same  
191 article, each model included “Study” nested within “Article” as random effects. The mean log  
192 response ratios and upper and lower bounds of 95% confidence intervals around the mean were  
193 back-transformed with the formula  $(e^{\ln R} - 1) * 100$  and expressed as percent change relative to the  
194 controls to facilitate interpretation.

195 We assessed publication bias in a number ways. We first visually assessed funnel plots for  
196 strong asymmetries (electronic supplementary material, figure S2) and ran Egger’s regression test  
197 [39,40] and the trim-and-fill test [41]. Visual inspection of the funnel plots revealed symmetrical  
198 distribution of effect size around the meta-analytical mean of all outcome measures apart from pest  
199 abundance. Egger’s test indicated that publication bias was significant for the pest abundance ( $z = -$   
200 2.1065,  $p = 0.0352$ ), which was inconsistent with the trim-and-fill tests that showed no missing  
201 studies for all datasets. Furthermore, we evaluated the sensitivity of our analysis by computing an

202 influential case diagnostic and comparing fitted models with and without influential effect sizes;  
203 influential outliers were defined as those effect sizes whose hat values were two times larger than  
204 the average hat value and standardized residual values exceeding 3.0.[42] (electronic supplementary  
205 material, figure S3-4).We also estimated Rosenberg fail-safe number on all datasets, which is the  
206 number of non-significant unpublished studies required to eliminate a significant overall effect size  
207 (Rosenberg 2005). All statistical analysis was performed using the “metafor” package in R (version  
208 4.1.2) [43].

## 209 RESULTS

### 210 Comparison with no pest control

211 Overall, relative to farms without any pest control method, biocontrol interventions had a strong  
212 negative effect on pest abundance and crop damage, which were reduced by 55% and 60%,  
213 respectively (figure 2). Crops subject to biocontrol exhibited a 62% increase in yield However, we  
214 found no significant overall effect of biocontrol on natural enemy abundance (-19%) (figure 2). There  
215 was substantial heterogeneity for all outcome measures, suggesting unexplained variation (Pest  
216 abundance,  $I^2 = 54.98\%$ ; Crop damage,  $I^2 = 51.35$ ; Yield,  $I^2 = 69.20\%$ , Natural enemy abundance,  $I^2 =$   
217  $92.35$ ) (figure 2). Hence, we used meta-regression to elucidate the effect of potential moderators.

### 218 Factors affecting biocontrol effectiveness

#### 219 *Biocontrol intervention technique*

220 Overall, the most tested biocontrol approaches were botanical pesticides (n = 244), followed by  
221 intercropping (n = 163) and push-pull (n = 46), followed by both field margins (n = 38) and  
222 augmentation/introduction (n = 38). We found that crop yield was significantly affected by the  
223 nature of the biocontrol intervention, with botanical pesticides and push-pull increasing yield by 92%  
224 and 80% , respectively (figure 3c). In contrast, the specific biocontrol technique adopted had no  
225 significant effect on pest abundance, crop damage, or contrasting effects on natural enemy  
226 abundance.

227 *Crop type*

228 Across all outcome measures, the impact of biocontrol was measured predominantly in  
229 cereal crops (n = 457), followed by pulses (n = 155), vegetables (n = 207), fruits (n = 28) and fibres (n  
230 = 43). Biocontrol had an overall significant negative effect on pest abundance across all crop types,  
231 with cereal pests showing a 61% reduction, followed by vegetable pests with a 54% reduction  
232 (figure 4a). Pest abundance in pulses and fruits showed a 52% and 39% decrease in pests respectively  
233 (figure 4a).

234 We found that biocontrol had a strong negative effect on crop damage in all crop types  
235 tested: cereal: 60%, vegetables: 46%, pulses: 44%, fruits: 38% (figure 4b). Yield was positively  
236 affected by biocontrol, but this varied according to crop type; yields in vegetables increased by 57%  
237 and pulses by 61% while cereals and fibres showed an increase of 36% and 29% respectively (figure  
238 4c). The specific crop type in which biocontrol interventions were tested did not influence the  
239 abundance of natural enemies (NEA,  $p = 0.06$ , figure 4d).

240 *Target pest taxon*

241 Biocontrol interventions had a significant negative effect on the abundance of all pest taxa,  
242 with lepidopteran pests showing the greatest decline (-63%) (figure 5a). The crop damage of all taxa  
243 was strongly negatively affected by biocontrol interventions, with damage caused by Blattodea  
244 showing a 79% reduction with biocontrol implementation (figure 5b). We found that exposure to  
245 biocontrol interventions had a significant positive effect on yield where Coleoptera, Lepidoptera and  
246 Blattodea were the targeted pests (figure 5c, Coleoptera: 157%; Lepidoptera: 65%; Blattodea 51%).  
247 There was no detectable effect of pest taxon on NEA response to biocontrol (figure 5d).

248 *Comparison of research and farmers' fields*

249 Across all outcome measures, effect sizes did not differ significantly between farming types.  
250 In terms of cropping systems, the size of the negative effect of biocontrol on pest abundance was  
251 marginally higher in smallholder farms (66%) than in research farms (48%) (figure 6a). Crop damage  
252 showed a similar pattern, where reduction in small holder farms (-69%) marginally exceeded that of

253 research farms (45%) (figure 6b). With regards to yield, the proportional increase was almost equal  
254 in the two cropping types (small farm: 59%, research farm 67%). in neither case was NEA affected by  
255 biocontrol interventions.

#### 256 *Comparison with synthetic pesticides*

257 The effectiveness of biocontrol interventions compared to synthetic pesticides was  
258 measured mostly for botanical pesticides (n = 339), followed by intercropping (n = 26) and  
259 augmentation/introduction (n = 23). We found no studies comparing the effect of field margins or  
260 push-pull with pesticides on their ability to control crop pests.

261 Although biocontrol interventions showed marginally greater pest abundance and damage,  
262 and reduced yield compared to synthetic pesticides, we found no significant difference between the  
263 two treatments (figure 7, pest abundance: 23%; crop damage: 87%; yield: -7%). NEA: 43%).  
264 Conversely, the abundance of natural enemies was significantly greater following biocontrol  
265 implementation compared to the application of synthetic pesticides (43%) (figure 7).

#### 266 **Landscape configuration**

267 Our search yielded seven studies that explored the effect of landscape configuration on biocontrol  
268 delivered to crops in SSA. Four studies showed a positive effect of proximity to natural habitat, or  
269 proportion of natural habitat within a given buffer, on natural enemy activity (i.e., parasitism and  
270 predation) [44–47]. Only three studies explored the interactive effects of landscape complexity and  
271 farm management on pest control effectiveness [48–50]. All studies found an interactive effect of  
272 management and landscape configuration, though the low sample size did not allow for quantitative  
273 analysis here.

## 274 **DISCUSSION**

275 In this study we identified the overall effectiveness of biocontrol techniques in controlling insect  
276 pests of crops in sub-Saharan Africa, and identified patterns across biocontrol interventions, pest  
277 taxa, crop types and experimental design. Using a set of hierarchical meta-analyses, we found that

278 biocontrol interventions effectively reduced pest abundance and crop damage by over 50%, while  
279 increasing crop yield by more than 60%. The size of the yield increases highlights the great challenge  
280 posed by insect pests to smallholder crop production, which is in line with recent evidence  
281 estimating high crop losses to pests, especially in the absence of any control intervention [51,52].  
282 The substantial yield increase that biocontrol can provide could have an enormous impact on sub-  
283 Saharan food security if these practices are scaled up to regional level. Crucially, we showed  
284 comparable performance of biocontrol and synthetic pesticides on pest abundance, crop damage  
285 and crop yield, and a significant reduction in the loss of natural enemies, particularly following  
286 botanical pesticides application.

#### 287 Biocontrol effectiveness across biocontrol intervention techniques

288 Pest abundance and crop damage were negatively affected by biocontrol across all  
289 interventions. Push-pull and botanical pesticides had the greatest effect on crop yield, increasing  
290 production by 92% and 80% respectively. This may be due to the highly effective companion crops  
291 utilised in push-pull technologies, which release bioactive chemicals that repel pests and attract  
292 natural enemies, while also suppressing *Striga*, a parasitic weed which causes up to 100% yield  
293 losses across SSA [53]. The large yield increase observed in our synthesis may be due to a  
294 combination of the pest repellent and weed suppression abilities of push-pull implementation. Our  
295 findings indicate the potential of botanical pesticides to be an effective method of pest control in  
296 SSA. However, two thirds of the studies included here were carried out on research farms, which  
297 may be under more controlled settings compared to more realistic field conditions, potentially  
298 inflating the observed effect size.

299 Our review captured a small number of studies on classical biocontrol interventions,  
300 including augmentation, despite successful examples such as the control of the Cassava mealybug  
301 (*Phenacoccus manihoti*) by the Encyrtid wasp (*Anagyrus lopezi*) [54]. Conceivably these interventions  
302 may be hampered by the high costs involved in their research and production, such as insect rearing  
303 facilities [55], and the growing concerns on the environmental risks of releasing exotic species [56].

304 Therefore, they may only be implemented for highly widespread and devastating pests such as the  
305 Cassava mealybug or the Tomato leaf miner (*Tuta absoluta*).

#### 306 Biocontrol effectiveness across crop type and pest taxon

307 Cereals were the most studied crops in our meta-analysis, conceivably because they play a central  
308 role in the region's food security, accounting for about 50% of total crop area and caloric intake [57].  
309 Nonetheless, other crop types such as fruits, pulses and fibre should be included in future research  
310 in this area. Our study provides strong evidence of the effectiveness of biocontrol across all taxa,  
311 particularly against lepidopteran crop pests. The potential of biocontrol to reduce cereal crop  
312 damage by 60% is encouraging given the devastating damage caused, particularly on maize, by  
313 caterpillars including fall armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*), Diamondback moth (*Plutella*  
314 *xylostella*), Crambid cereal stemborer (*Chilo partellus*) and Maize stemborer (*Busseola fusca*).

#### 315 Biocontrol effect on natural enemies and non-target pests

316 Understanding the effect of biocontrol on natural enemy populations is crucial as they are both an  
317 indication of pest control potential and a measure of the impact of the pest control method on non-  
318 target species. Our results showed no overall change in NEA following biocontrol application when  
319 compared to untreated fields. Although, we found a significant decline in natural enemy abundance  
320 following botanical pesticides application. The most likely explanation for this is that the  
321 interventions have reduced prey availability for natural enemies, making them move to other more  
322 profitable foraging locations, which has been shown in previous studies on intercropping where pest  
323 number, not the interventions, influenced pest abundance [58,59] but the direct negative impact of  
324 some interventions, such as some broad-spectrum botanical pesticides, cannot be excluded [60].  
325 The existing evidence for the effect of botanical pesticides on non-target species is conflicting, with  
326 some research showing that plant extracts such as neem, garlic and eucalyptus may cause mortality  
327 and have sub-lethal effects on beneficial insects [61,62], while other studies found no detrimental  
328 effect of pepper and garlic extract on natural enemies populations [24,63]. More research is needed

329 to draw robust inferences on the repercussion of botanical pesticides on beneficial/non-target  
330 species before considering large-scale adoption.  
331 Evidence is more consistent on the positive response of natural enemy populations to biocontrol  
332 interventions such as push-pull and field margins [64,65], which is in line with evidence from the  
333 global north on the benefits of habitat enhancement on natural enemy density and diversity [66,67].  
334 However, we found that only 14% of the studies measured NE abundance following biocontrol  
335 application in sub-Saharan Africa. Natural enemy abundance should be measured more consistently  
336 in future studies to further elucidate direct and indirect effects of biocontrol on non-target species.

337 Furthermore, the most common outcome measures reported in the studies focussed on the  
338 abundance of pests and/or natural enemies, while we did not find studies measuring their species  
339 diversity or functional group diversity. However, it has been shown that biocontrol is strengthened  
340 by increased natural enemy richness [68,69] and this is consistent across temperate and tropical  
341 regions [70]. Ecosystem functioning can be stabilised by functional redundancy, by enabling  
342 functional groups to compensate for individual species fluctuations and increase the resilience of  
343 ecosystem against species loss [71,72]. This is particularly relevant to understand the long-term  
344 impact of biocontrol on natural enemy communities and their pest suppression ability and should be  
345 explored in future research.

#### 346 **Biocontrol effectiveness compared to synthetic pesticides**

347 When compared to synthetic pesticides, biocontrol interventions had a similar impact on  
348 pest abundance and crop damage, which is a critical finding for farmers who cannot access or afford  
349 chemicals. Crucially, natural enemy abundance was significantly reduced after synthetic pesticides  
350 application even over the short time scales of the studies examined. In the long term there could be  
351 greater reductions in pest and crop damage following biocontrol as a result of more abundant and  
352 diverse communities of natural enemies. In terms of a reduction in the negative environmental  
353 impacts associated with chemical pesticides, the benefits provided by more resilient natural enemy  
354 populations could be one of several indirect positive effects of opting out of conventional pesticide



355 use. It is worth noting that most comparisons with synthetic pesticides were measured against  
356 botanical pesticides, therefore inferences for other biocontrol methods should be made with  
357 caution. Future research should aim to determine the effectiveness of biocontrol approaches, such  
358 as push-pull, when compared to synthetic pesticides to fill this knowledge gap.

359 A possible limitation of this study is the potential selection bias towards significant results,  
360 causing an overrepresentation in the published literature, a criticism that could be levelled against  
361 all meta-analyses. The two tests we used to assess publication bias yielded conflicting results, hence  
362 it is hard to know with certainty the scale of publication bias towards results where an effect was  
363 found. However, we show that crop losses to pests are significantly higher in untreated fields,  
364 supporting the idea that any crop protection intervention has the potential to improve yields  
365 substantially. The size of the yield gains shown in the current meta-analysis suggest there is a big  
366 opportunity to raise yields with biocontrol interventions.

#### 367 Landscape configuration and biocontrol

368 Our study set out to answer the question, “does the surrounding landscape configuration  
369 affect the effectiveness of biocontrol interventions?”, which has led to positive responses of natural  
370 enemies to landscape complexity in studies outside of the SSA region [13]. However, we found a  
371 paucity of studies investigating either the effect of landscape configuration on biocontrol  
372 effectiveness, or the relationship between landscape configuration and natural enemy abundance.  
373 The research we found indicated a significant decrease of natural enemy density and  
374 predation/parasitism activity with isolation from natural habitat [e.g., 44,47]. This is in line with  
375 recent research showing a similar effect of landscape complexity on pollinators and natural enemies  
376 in sub-Saharan regions [73,74] and a larger body of research particularly in the global north  
377 [13,19,75].

378 Furthermore, the sparse evidence we found focusing on the effect of landscape  
379 configuration on biocontrol effectiveness showed inconsistent results. Midega *et al.* (2014) found  
380 that semi-natural habitat acted as a source of lepidopteran pests to the maize crop fields in Kenya,

381 while Kebede *et al.* (2019) demonstrated that landscape simplification overrode the effect of  
382 intercropping practices and was the main driver of pest infestation levels. A key avenue for future  
383 research would involve large scale studies to identify clear patterns in the relationship between  
384 landscape complexity and natural enemy activity and the ecosystem service delivered to sub-  
385 Saharan agricultural systems. Additionally, recent evidence from SSA showed that natural enemy  
386 diversity in crop fields is dependent on the land management of neighbouring fields [29]. This  
387 highlights the need for further multi-scale studies to identify potential variation in biocontrol  
388 effectiveness across different land management contexts.

## 389 CONCLUSIONS

390 Our findings provide the first quantitative synthesis of biocontrol effectiveness in SSA,  
391 indicating that biocontrol interventions have the potential to substantially reduce crop damage,  
392 increase crop yield while maintaining natural enemy populations within sub-Saharan agricultural  
393 systems. Our results further suggest that biocontrol has comparable performances to synthetic  
394 pesticides with reduced adverse impact on beneficial insects and ecosystems, which makes it an  
395 effective alternative intervention for farmers who do not have access to pesticides, while it can  
396 maintain crop yields without associated negative pesticide effects. Given the case against chemical  
397 use in Africa [9], the efficacy of biocontrol options demonstrated in this meta-analysis provides a  
398 strong regionally focused evidence base for policy- and decision-makers to be persuaded of their  
399 validity as an alternative to chemicals. Overall, our results encourage an update on national  
400 agricultural policies, which inconsistently feature biocontrol, and can support policy makers in the  
401 design of more resilient and sustainable pest management practices across the sub-Saharan region.

## 402 FUNDING

403 This work was supported by the Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council (EPSRC) project  
404 Scaling up Biocontrol Innovations in Africa (Grant Number EP/T024410/1), which was a UKRI Global  
405 Challenges Research Fund Clusters award to S.M. Sait, TB, GC, ZK, AM, SS, SW, and KW. The funder

406 had no role in the design of the study, the collection, interpretation of data, writing the manuscript,  
407 or in the decision.

#### 408 **AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION**

409 FR, SMS, KW and TB conceived the study. FR performed the literature search, collected and analysed  
410 the data, and wrote the first draft of publication. All authors contributed to the early draft of the  
411 manuscript. FR, SMS, KW and TB contributed substantially to revisions.

#### 412 **COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT**

413 The authors declare that there are no competing interests

#### 414 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY STATEMENT**

415 Data used in these analyses will be published on DRYAD upon acceptance of the manuscript

416 REFERENCES

- 417 1. Godfray HCJ *et al.* 2010 Food Security: The Challenge of Feeding 9 Billion People. *Science*  
418 (1979) **327**, 812–818. (doi:10.1126/science.1185383)
- 419 2. Rosegrant MW *et al.* 2009 Agriculture and Food Security under Global Change : Prospects for  
420 2025 / 2050.
- 421 3. Lobell DB, Schlenker W, Costa-Roberts J. 2011 Climate Trends and Global Crop Production  
422 Since 1980. *Science (1979)* **333**, 616–620. (doi:10.1126/science.1204531)
- 423 4. Lenné J. 2000 Pests and Poverty: The Continuing Need for Crop Protection Research. *Outlook*  
424 *Agric* **29**, 235–250. (doi:10.5367/000000000101293301)
- 425 5. Oerke E-C, Dehne H-W. 2004 Safeguarding production—losses in major crops and the role of  
426 crop protection. *Crop Protection* **23**, 275–285.  
427 (doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cropro.2003.10.001)
- 428 6. Stokstad E. 2017 New crop pest takes Africa at lightning speed. *Science (1979)* **356**, 473 LP –  
429 474. (doi:10.1126/science.356.6337.473)
- 430 7. Ahissou BR, Sawadogo WM, Bokonon-Ganta AH, Somda I, Verheggen F. 2021 Integrated pest  
431 management options for the fall armyworm spodoptera frugiperda in west africa: Challenges  
432 and opportunities. a review. *Biotechnology, Agronomy and Society and Environment* **25**, 192–  
433 207. (doi:10.25518/1780-4507.19125)
- 434 8. Nesser GAA, Abdelbagi AO, Hammad AMA, Tagelseed M, Laing MD. 2016 Levels of pesticides  
435 residues in the White Nile water in the Sudan. *Environ Monit Assess* **188**, 374.  
436 (doi:10.1007/s10661-016-5367-3)
- 437 9. Jepson PC, Murray K, Bach O, Bonilla MA, Neumeister L. 2020 Selection of pesticides to  
438 reduce human and environmental health risks: a global guideline and minimum pesticides  
439 list. *Lancet Planet Health* **4**, e56–e63. (doi:10.1016/S2542-5196(19)30266-9)

- 440 10. Sawadogo MW, Somda I, Nacro S, Legrève A, Verheggen FJ. 2020 Insecticide susceptibility  
441 level and control failure likelihood estimation of Sub-Saharan African populations of tomato  
442 leafminer: Evidence from Burkina Faso. *Physiol Entomol* **45**, 147–153.  
443 (doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/phen.12332>)
- 444 11. Kennedy CM *et al.* 2013 A global quantitative synthesis of local and landscape effects on wild  
445 bee pollinators in agroecosystems. *Ecol Lett* **16**, 584–599. (doi:10.1111/ele.12082)
- 446 12. Losey EJ, Vaughan M, Losey JE, Vaughan M. 2006 The economic value of ecological services  
447 provided by insects. *Bioscience* **56**, 311–323. (doi:10.1641/0006-  
448 3568(2006)56[311:tevoes]2.0.co;2)
- 449 13. Chaplin-Kramen R, O’ Rourke M, Blitzer EJ, Kremen C. 2011 A meta-analysis of crop pest and  
450 natural enemy response to landscape complexity. *Ecol Lett* **14**, 922–932. (doi:10.1111/j.1461-  
451 0248.2011.01642.x)
- 452 14. Janssen A, van Rijn PCJ. 2021 Pesticides do not significantly reduce arthropod pest densities  
453 in the presence of natural enemies. *Ecol Lett* **24**, 2010–2024. (doi:10.1111/ele.13819)
- 454 15. Guedes RNC, Smagghe G, Stark JD, Desneux N. 2016 Pesticide-Induced Stress in Arthropod  
455 Pests for Optimized Integrated Pest Management Programs. *Annu Rev Entomol* **61**, 43–62.  
456 (doi:10.1146/annurev-ento-010715-023646)
- 457 16. Giles KL, McCornack BP, Royer TA, Elliott NC. 2017 Incorporating biological control into IPM  
458 decision making. *Curr Opin Insect Sci* **20**, 84–89.  
459 (doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cois.2017.03.009>)
- 460 17. Baker BP, Green TA, Loker AJ. 2020 Biological control and integrated pest management in  
461 organic and conventional systems. *Biological Control* **140**, 104095.  
462 (doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocontrol.2019.104095>)
- 463 18. Karp DS *et al.* 2018 Crop pests and predators exhibit inconsistent responses to surrounding  
464 landscape composition. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **115**, E7863–E7870.  
465 (doi:10.1073/pnas.1800042115)

- 466 19. Bianchi FJJA, Booij CJH, Tscharntke T. 2006 Sustainable pest regulation in agricultural  
467 landscapes: A review on landscape composition, biodiversity and natural pest control.  
468 *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* **273**, 1715–1727.  
469 (doi:10.1098/rspb.2006.3530)
- 470 20. Rusch A *et al.* 2016 Agricultural landscape simplification reduces natural pest control: A  
471 quantitative synthesis. *Agric Ecosyst Environ* **221**, 198–204. (doi:10.1016/j.agee.2016.01.039)
- 472 21. F.A.O. 2020 The Global Action for Fall Armyworm Control: Action framework 2020–2022. *The*  
473 *Global Action for Fall Armyworm Control: Action framework 2020–2022*.  
474 (doi:10.4060/ca9252en)
- 475 22. Sporleder M, Lacey LA. 2013 Chapter 16 - Biopesticides. In *Insect Pests of Potato* (eds A  
476 Alyokhin, C Vincent, P Giordanengo), pp. 463–497. San Diego: Academic Press.  
477 (doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-386895-4.00016-8)
- 478 23. Farsia Djidjonri P, Nchiwan NE, Koehler H. 2021 Comparative Experimental Effects of  
479 Intercropping and Cypermethrin on Insect Pest Infestation and Yield of Maize, Cowpea and  
480 Okra in Two Cameroonian Agro-Ecological Zones. *AgriEngineering* **3**, 383–393.  
481 (doi:10.3390/agriengineering3020025)
- 482 24. Amoabeng BW, Stevenson PC, Mochiah BM, Asare KP, Gurr GM. 2020 Scope for non-crop  
483 plants to promote conservation biological control of crop pests and serve as sources of  
484 botanical insecticides. *Sci Rep* **10**. (doi:10.1038/s41598-020-63709-x)
- 485 25. Midega CAO, Pittchar JO, Pickett JA, Hailu GW, Khan ZR. 2018 A climate-adapted push-pull  
486 system effectively controls fall armyworm, *Spodoptera frugiperda* (J E Smith), in maize in  
487 East Africa. *Crop Protection* **105**, 10–15. (doi:10.1016/j.cropro.2017.11.003)
- 488 26. Mpumi N, Machunda RL, Mtei KM, Ndakidemi PA. 2020 Insecticidal Efficacy of *Syzygium*  
489 *aromaticum*, *Tephrosia vogelii* and *Croton dichogamus* Extracts against *Plutella xylostella* and  
490 *Trichoplusia* on Brassica oleracea crop in Northern Tanzania. *AIMS Agriculture and Food* **6**,  
491 185–202. (doi:10.3934/agrfood.2021012)

- 492 27. Odewole AF, Adebayo TA, Babarinde SA, Awolokun GS. 2020 Insecticidal activity of aqueous  
493 indigenous plant extracts against insect pests associated with cucumber (*Cucumis sativus* L.)  
494 in Southern Guinea Savannah Zone of Nigeria. *Archives of Phytopathology and Plant*  
495 *Protection* **53**, 230–246. (doi:10.1080/03235408.2020.1741854)
- 496 28. Ratto F *et al.* 2022 Biological control interventions and botanical pesticides for insect pests of  
497 crops in sub-Saharan Africa : A mapping review. *Frontiers In Sustainable Food System*  
498 (doi:https://doi.org/10.3389/fsufs.2022.883975)
- 499 29. Tripathi HG *et al.* 2022 Climate-Smart Agriculture and Trade-Offs With Biodiversity and Crop  
500 Yield. *Front Sustain Food Syst* **6**, 1–12. (doi:10.3389/fsufs.2022.868870)
- 501 30. Gurr GM *et al.* 2016 Multi-country evidence that crop diversification promotes ecological  
502 intensification of agriculture. *Nat Plants* **2**. (doi:10.1038/NPLANTS.2016.14)
- 503 31. Steward PR, Shackelford G, Carvalheiro LG, Benton TG, Garibaldi LA, Sait SM. 2014 Pollination  
504 and biological control research: Are we neglecting two billion smallholders. *Agric Food Secur.*  
505 **3**, 1–13. (doi:10.1186/2048-7010-3-5)
- 506 32. Stiling P, Cornelissen T. 2005 What makes a successful biocontrol agent? A meta-analysis of  
507 biological control agent performance. *Biological Control* **34**, 236–246.  
508 (doi:10.1016/j.biocontrol.2005.02.017)
- 509 33. Perez-alvarez R, Brian AN, Poveda K. 2019 Effectiveness of augmentative biological control  
510 depends on landscape context. *Sci Rep* , 1–15. (doi:10.1038/s41598-019-45041-1)
- 511 34. Haddaway NR, Macura B, Whaley P, Pullin AS. 2018 ROSES RepOrting standards for  
512 Systematic Evidence Syntheses: pro forma, flow-diagram and descriptive summary of the  
513 plan and conduct of environmental systematic reviews and systematic maps. *Environ Evid* **7**,  
514 7. (doi:10.1186/s13750-018-0121-7)
- 515 35. Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW. 2012 NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image  
516 analysis. *Nat Methods* **9**, 671–675. (doi:10.1038/nmeth.2089)

- 517 36. Gurevitch J, Hedges L V. 1993 Meta-analysis: combining the results of independent  
518 experiments. In *Design and analysis of ecological experiments*, pp. 378–398. New York, USA:  
519 Chapman and Hall.
- 520 37. Hedges L V., Gurevitch J, Curtis PS. 1999 The meta-analysis of response ratios in experimental  
521 ecology. *Ecology* **80**, 1150–1156. (doi:10.1890/0012-9658(1999)080[1150:TMAORR]2.0.CO;2)
- 522 38. Koricheva J, Gurevitch J, Mengersen K. 2013 *Handbook of Meta-Analysis in Ecology And*  
523 *Evolution*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- 524 39. Nakagawa S, Santos ESA. 2012 Methodological issues and advances in biological meta-  
525 analysis. *Evol Ecol* **26**, 1253–1274. (doi:10.1007/s10682-012-9555-5)
- 526 40. Egger M, Davey Smith G, Schneider M, Minder C. 1997 Bias in meta-analysis detected by a  
527 simple, graphical test. *BMJ* **315**, 629–634. (doi:10.1136/bmj.315.7109.629)
- 528 41. Duval S, Tweedie R. 2000 Trim and Fill: A Simple Funnel-Plot–Based Method of Testing and  
529 Adjusting for Publication Bias in Meta-Analysis. *Biometrics* **56**, 455–463.  
530 (doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0006-341X.2000.00455.x)
- 531 42. Habeck CW, Schultz AK. 2015 Community-level impacts of white-tailed deer on understory  
532 plants in North American forests: a meta-analysis. *AoB Plants* **7**, plv119.  
533 (doi:10.1093/aobpla/plv119)
- 534 43. Viechtbauer W. 2010 Conducting Meta-Analyses in R with the metafor Package. *J. Stat. Softw.*  
535 **36**.
- 536 44. Soti V, Thiaw I, Debaly ZM, Sow A, Diaw M, Fofana S, Diakhate M, Thiaw C, Brevault T. 2019  
537 Effect of landscape diversity and crop management on the control of the millet head miner,  
538 *Heliocheilus albipunctella* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) by natural enemies. *BIOLOGICAL*  
539 *CONTROL* **129**, 115–122. (doi:10.1016/j.biocontrol.2018.10.006)
- 540 45. Kebede Y, Bianchi F, Baudron FF, Abraham K, de Valenca A, Tiftonell P, de Valença A, Tiftonell  
541 P. 2018 Implications of changes in land cover and landscape structure for the biocontrol



- 542 potential of stemborers in Ethiopia. *BIOLOGICAL CONTROL* **122**, 1–10.  
543 (doi:10.1016/j.biocontrol.2018.03.012)
- 544 46. Milligan MC, Johnson MD, Garfinkel M, Smith CJ, Njoroge P, Gar M, Smith CJ, Njoroge P. 2016  
545 Quantifying pest control services by birds and ants in Kenyan coffee farms. *Biol Conserv* **194**,  
546 58–65. (doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2015.11.028)
- 547 47. Henri DC, Jones O, Tsiattalos A, Thebault E, Seymour CL, van Veen FJFF, Thébault E, Seymour  
548 CL, van Veen FJFF. 2015 Natural vegetation benefits synergistic control of the three main  
549 insect and pathogen pests of a fruit crop in southern Africa. *Journal of Applied Ecology* **52**,  
550 1092–1101. (doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12465)
- 551 48. Midega CAO, Jonsson M, Khan ZR, Ekbohm B. 2014 Effects of landscape complexity and  
552 habitat management on stemborer colonization, parasitism and damage to maize. *Agric  
553 Ecosyst Environ* **188**, 289–293. (doi:10.1016/j.agee.2014.02.028)
- 554 49. Kebede Y, Bianchi FJAJA, Baudron FFF, Tittone P. 2019 Landscape composition overrides  
555 field level management effects on maize stemborer control in Ethiopia. *Agric Ecosyst Environ*  
556 **279**, 65–73. (doi:10.1016/j.agee.2019.04.006)
- 557 50. Tsafack N, Menozzi P, Brevault T, Soti V, Deconchat M, Ouin A. 2013 Effects of landscape  
558 context and agricultural practices on the abundance of cotton bollworm *Helicoverpa  
559 armigera* in cotton fields: A case study in northern Benin. *Int J Pest Manag* **59**, 294–302.  
560 (doi:10.1080/09670874.2013.852270)
- 561 51. Oerke EC. 2006 Crop losses to pests. *Journal of Agricultural Science* **144**, 31–43.  
562 (doi:10.1017/S0021859605005708)
- 563 52. Savary S, Willocquet L, Pethybridge SJ, Esker P, McRoberts N, Nelson A. 2019 The global  
564 burden of pathogens and pests on major food crops. *Nat Ecol Evol* **3**, 430–439.  
565 (doi:10.1038/s41559-018-0793-y)
- 566 53. Khan ZR, Midega CAO, Pittchar JO, Murage AW, Birkett MA, Bruce TJAA, Pickett JA. 2014  
567 Achieving food security for one million sub-Saharan African poor through push-pull

- 568 innovation by 2020. *Philosophical Transactions Of The Royal Society B-Biological Sciences* **369**.  
569 (doi:10.1098/rstb.2012.0284)
- 570 54. Norgaard RB. 1988 The Biological Control of Cassava Mealybug in Africa. *Am J Agric Econ* **70**,  
571 366–371. (doi:10.2307/1242077)
- 572 55. Neuenschwander P. 2004 Harnessing nature in Africa Biological pest control can benefit the  
573 pocket, health and the environment. *Nature* **432**, 801–802.
- 574 56. Van Lenteren JC, Bale J, Bigler F, Hokkanen HMT, Loomans AJM. 2006 Assessing risks of  
575 releasing exotic biological control agents of arthropod pests. *Annu Rev Entomol* **51**, 609–634.  
576 (doi:10.1146/annurev.ento.51.110104.151129)
- 577 57. Robinson S, Mason d’Croz D, Islam S, Sulser TB, Robertson RD, Zhu T, Gueneau A, Pitois G,  
578 Rosegrant MW. 2015 International Model for Policy Analysis of Agricultural Commodities and  
579 Trade (IMPACT) version 3.1. *International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI)* , 128.
- 580 58. Huss CP, Holmes KD, Blubaugh CK. 2022 Benefits and Risks of Intercropping for Crop  
581 Resilience and Pest Management. *J Econ Entomol* (doi:10.1093/jee/toac045)
- 582 59. CHI B jie, ZHANG D mei, DONG H zhong. 2021 Control of cotton pests and diseases by  
583 intercropping: A review. *J Integr Agric* **20**, 3089–3100. (doi:10.1016/S2095-3119(20)63318-4)
- 584 60. Ndakidemi B, Mtei K, Ndakidemi PA. 2016 Impacts of Synthetic and Botanical Pesticides on  
585 Beneficial Insects. *Agricultural Sciences* **07**, 364–372. (doi:10.4236/as.2016.76038)
- 586 61. Maia MF, Moore SJ. 2011 Plant-based insect repellents: a review of their efficacy,  
587 development and testing. *Malar J* **10**, S11. (doi:10.1186/1475-2875-10-S1-S11)
- 588 62. Simmonds MSJ, Manlove JD, Blaney WM, Khambay BPS. 2002 Effects of selected botanical  
589 insecticides on the behaviour and mortality of the glasshouse whitefly *Trialeurodes*  
590 *vaporariorum* and the parasitoid *Encarsia formosa*. *Entomol Exp Appl* **102**, 39–47.  
591 (doi:10.1046/j.1570-7458.2002.00923.x)
- 592 63. Fening KO, Amoabeng BW, Adama I, Mochiah MB, Braimah H, Owusu-Akyaw M, Narveh E,  
593 Ekyem SO. 2013 Sustainable management of two key pests of cabbage, *Brassica oleracea* var.

- 594 capitata L. (Brassicaceae), using homemade extracts from garlic and hot pepper. *Organic*  
595 *Agriculture* **3**, 163–173. (doi:10.1007/s13165-014-0058-2)
- 596 64. Midega CAO, Khan ZR, van den Berg J, Ogot CKPO, Dippenaar-Schoeman AS, Pickett JA,  
597 Wadhams LJ. 2008 Response of ground-dwelling arthropods to a 'push-pull' habitat  
598 management system: spiders as an indicator group. *JOURNAL OF APPLIED ENTOMOLOGY*  
599 **132**, 248–254. (doi:10.1111/j.1439-0418.2007.01260.x)
- 600 65. Koji S, Khan ZR, Midega CAO. 2007 Field boundaries of *Panicum maximum* as a reservoir for  
601 predators and a sink for *Chilo partellus*. *Journal Of Applied Entomology* **131**, 186–196.  
602 (doi:10.1111/j.1439-0418.2006.01131.x)
- 603 66. Blaauw BR, Isaacs R. 2012 Larger wildflower plantings increase natural enemy density,  
604 diversity, and biological control of sentinel prey, without increasing herbivore density. *Ecol*  
605 *Entomol* **37**, 386–394. (doi:10.1111/j.1365-2311.2012.01376.x)
- 606 67. Holland JM, Douma JC, Crowley L, James L, Kor L, Stevenson DRW, Smith BM. 2017 Semi-  
607 natural habitats support biological control, pollination and soil conservation in Europe. A  
608 review. *Agron Sustain Dev* **37:31**. (doi:10.1007/s13593-017-0434-x)
- 609 68. Griffin JN, Byrnes JEK, Cardinale BJ. 2013 Effects of predator richness on prey suppression: A  
610 meta-analysis. *Ecology* **94**, 2180–2187. (doi:10.1890/13-0179.1)
- 611 69. Katano I, Doi H, Eriksson BK, Hillebrand H. 2015 A cross-system meta-analysis reveals coupled  
612 predation effects on prey biomass and diversity. *Oikos* **124**, 1427–1435.  
613 (doi:10.1111/oik.02430)
- 614 70. Letourneau DK, Jedlicka JA, Bothwell SG, Moreno CR. 2009 Effects of natural enemy  
615 biodiversity on the suppression of arthropod herbivores in terrestrial ecosystems. *Annu Rev*  
616 *Ecol Evol Syst* **40**, 573–592. (doi:10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.110308.120320)
- 617 71. Rosenfeld JS. 2002 Functional redundancy in ecology and conservation. *Oikos* **98**, 156–162.  
618 (doi:https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-0706.2002.980116.x)

- 619 72. Hooper DU *et al.* 2005 Effects of biodiversity on ecosystem functioning: A consensus of  
620 current knowledge. *Ecol Monogr* **75**, 3–35. (doi:<https://doi.org/10.1890/04-0922>)
- 621 73. Ratto F, Steward P, Sait SM, Pryke JS, Gaigher R, Samways MJ, Kunin W. 2021 Proximity to  
622 natural habitat and flower plantings increases insect populations and pollination services in  
623 South African apple orchards. *Journal of Applied Ecology* , 1–12. (doi:10.1111/1365-  
624 2664.13984)
- 625 74. Jordon MW, Hackett TD, Aboagye-Antwi F, Eziyah VY, Lewis OT. 2022 Effects of distance from  
626 semi-natural habitat on fall armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*, J. E. Smith) and its potential  
627 natural enemies in Ghana. *Bull Entomol Res* **112**, 343–353.  
628 (doi:10.1017/S0007485321000894)
- 629 75. Shackelford G, Steward PR, Benton TG, Kunin WE, Potts SG, Biesmeijer JC, Sait SM. 2013  
630 Comparison of pollinators and natural enemies: A meta-analysis of landscape and local  
631 effects on abundance and richness in crops. *Biological Reviews* **88**, 1002–1021.  
632 (doi:10.1111/brv.12040)
- 633

635 **Table 1.** Definitions of biological control interventions included in the meta-analysis

<b>Biocontrol Intervention</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>Botanical pesticides</b>	Insecticidal compounds in the form of water, oil or powder extracted from the leaves, seeds, pods, roots, bark, flower, or fruits, of plants known to have pesticidal properties either from cultural knowledge or laboratory experiment
<b>Augmentation/ Introduction</b>	Increase the number of parasitoids, predators or entomopathogens by releasing the natural enemy (introduction, inoculation, inundation) or by supplying their food resources
<b>Intercropping</b>	Simultaneous cultivation of plant species in the same field for most of their growing period. e.g., cereal and beans or other food plants
<b>Push-pull</b>	Intercropping of maize or other crops with perennial fodder legumes (e.g., <i>Desmodium spp</i> ) to repel (push) pests. A trap crop, a perennial fodder (Napier or <i>Brachiaria spp.</i> ) is planted around the plot to attract (pull) pests away from the crop
<b>Field margins</b>	Strip of land between the crop and the field boundaries sown with wildflowers and/or legumes, grass only or naturally regenerated
<b>Landscape effect</b>	The effect of distance of cultivated areas to natural habitat, non-crop habitat and/or landscape complexity on the delivery of biocontrol

**Table 2** Summary table of hierarchical meta-analysis models showing total heterogeneity, i.e., the effects of biocontrol interventions on the outcome measures without moderators (“All”), and heterogeneities explained by moderators: Biocontrol intervention technique (Botanical Pesticides, Field margins, Intercropping, Push-Pull; Crop type (Cereal, Fruits, Fibre, Pulses, Vegetables); Target pest taxon (Coleoptera, Hemiptera, Lepidoptera, Blattodea); and Farming type (Small farms, Research farms) with the respective residual heterogeneities.

	<i>df</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>p</i>
<b>Pest abundance</b>			
<i>All</i>	326	209370.95	< .0001
<i>Biocontrol intervention technique</i>	4	5.63	0.2133
<i>Residuals</i>	322	205390.18	< .0001
<i>Crop type</i>	5	2.08	0.8368
<i>Residuals</i>	321	58546.03	< .0001
<i>Target pest taxon</i>	5	3.61	0.6065
<i>Residuals</i>	321	65549.49	< .0001
<i>Farming type</i>	1	2.74	0.0976
<i>Residuals</i>	325	145118.45	< .0001
<b>Crop damage</b>			
<i>All</i>	239	13539.39	0.0120
<i>Biocontrol intervention technique</i>	4	4.87	0.3003
<i>Residuals</i>	235	11354.65	< .0001
<i>Crop type</i>	5	46.14	< .0001
<i>Residuals</i>	234	10586.19	< .0001
<i>Target pest taxon</i>	4	5.49	0.2402
<i>Residuals</i>	235	11998.69	< .0001
<i>Farming type</i>	1	2.82	0.0931
<i>Residuals</i>	238	13232.17	< .0001
<b>Yield</b>			
<i>All</i>	269	8706587.83	< .0001
<i>Biocontrol intervention technique</i>	4	23.13	< .0001
<i>Residuals</i>	265	8686621.24	< .0001
<i>Crop type</i>	5	1.26	0.9387
<i>Residuals</i>	264	8697271.27	< .0001
<i>Target pest taxon</i>	5	3.77	0.5823
<i>Residuals</i>	264	8691922.59	< .0001
<i>Farming type</i>	1	0.0679	0.7945
<i>Residuals</i>	268	8706137.58	< .0001
<b>Natural enemy abundance</b>			
<i>All</i>	69	711.5758	< .0001
<i>Biocontrol intervention technique</i>	3	6.33	0.0966
<i>Residuals</i>	66	626.78	< .0001
<i>Crop type</i>	4	8.94	0.0624
<i>Residuals</i>	65	297.49	< .0001
<i>Target pest taxon</i>	2	12.61	0.0018
<i>Residuals</i>	67	210.88	< .0001
<i>Farming type</i>	1	0.84	0.3580
<i>Residuals</i>	68	303.21	< .0001

637                    **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

638    **Figure 1.** Geographic distribution map of studies included in the meta-analysis; colour coded by  
639    number of studies recorded per country. The pie charts show the outcome measures for each  
640    country, with blue, orange, green and red in the pie charts show the proportion of outcomes for pest  
641    abundance, crop damage, yield and natural enemy abundance respectively.

642    **Figure 2.** Changes in pest abundance, crop damage, yield, and natural enemy abundance when  
643    biocontrol interventions are implemented compared to untreated crops (untreated/monocropping).  
644    The values are expressed in percentage with 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals. Results that  
645    cross zero indicate no significant difference between control and treatment groups.  $k$  = number of  
646    articles,  $n$  = number of effect sizes

647    **Figure 3** Changes in (a) pest abundance, (b) crop damage, (c) yield, and (d) natural enemy abundance  
648    when biocontrol interventions are implemented compared to untreated crops  
649    (untreated/monocropping). The values are expressed in percentage with 95% bias-corrected  
650    confidence intervals categorised as Botanical Pesticides (BP), Field margins (FM), Intercropping (Int),  
651    Push-Pull (PP). Results that cross zero indicate no significant difference between control and  
652    treatment groups,  $n$  = number of effect sizes

653    **Figure 4** Changes in (a) pest abundance, (b) crop damage, (c) yield, and (d) natural enemy abundance  
654    when biocontrol interventions are implemented compared to untreated crops  
655    (untreated/monocropping). The values are expressed in percentage with 95% bias-corrected  
656    confidence intervals categorised as Cereal, Fibre, Fruit, Pulses and Vegetable (Veg) where available.  
657    Results that cross zero indicate no significant difference between control and treatment groups;  $n$  =  
658    number of effect sizes

659    **Figure 5** Changes in (a) pest abundance, (b) crop damage, (c) yield, and (d) natural enemy abundance  
660    when biocontrol interventions are implemented compared to untreated crops  
661    (untreated/monocropping). The values are expressed in percentage with 95% bias-corrected

662 confidence intervals categorised as Coleoptera, Hemiptera, Lepidoptera and Blattodea where  
663 available. Results that cross zero indicate no significant difference between control and treatment  
664 groups; n = number of effect sizes

665 **Figure 6** Changes in (a) pest abundance, (b) crop damage, (c) yield, and (d) natural enemy abundance  
666 when biocontrol interventions are implemented compared to untreated crops  
667 (untreated/monocropping). The values are expressed in percentage with 95% bias-corrected  
668 confidence intervals categorised as small farms and research farms. Results that cross zero indicate  
669 no significant difference between control and treatment groups; n = number of effect sizes.

670 **Figure 7** Changes in pest abundance, crop damage, yield, and natural enemy abundance when  
671 biocontrol interventions are implemented compared to crops treated with synthetic pesticides. The  
672 values are expressed in percentage with 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals. Results that cross  
673 zero indicate no significant difference between control and treatment groups. k = number of articles,  
674 n = number of effect sizes.

675



