Influence of foraging strip crops on the presence of leafhoppers and planthoppers associated to grapevines' phytoplasmas

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Abstract

The possible colonization of vineyards by leafhoppers, planthoppers and their allies, known or suspected vectors of phytoplasmas to vines, living on adjacent foraging strip crops seeded for pollinators was evaluated in Piedmont, NW Italy. Strip crops consisted in a seed mixture of Fabaceae and in rape (*Brassica napus* var. *oleifera* L.). Insects were collected with a sweep net on the strips, in the vineyard inter-row (close to and far from the strip), and in the surrounding habitat. DNA was extracted from single specimens, and PCR was performed to identify phytoplasmas of different groups, with a particular emphasis on groups 16SrV and 16SrXII. A one-way ANOVA was made for detecting differences in catches between strips and vineyards'inter-rows of the most abundant species. Among vectors, *Neoaliturus fenestratus* (Herrich-Schaffer), *Euscelis incisus* (Kirschbaum) and *Dictyophara europaea* (L.) were locally abundant as a consequence of the presence of weeds serving as host plants. Phytoplasmas of groups 16SrV and 16SrIX were identified in three specimens of *D. europaea* and one of *N. fenestratus*, respectively. *D. europaea* was more abundant on the strips, whereas the patterns of *N. fenestratus* changed from site to site. Concerning other species (not associated to 16SrV and 16SrXII phytoplasmas), high levels of *Psammotettix alienus* (Dalbholm) and *Philaenus spumarius* (L.) were observed. The presence of a flowering strip close to a vineyard does not seem to be a threat, if a good ground cover is achieved by the seed mixture. Otherwise, the development of certain weeds may cause an increase of leafhopper species known or suspected vectors of phytoplasmas.

Key words: agroecology, leafhoppers, phytoplasmas, PCR.

Introduction

Agroecology provides the basic ecological principles to study, design and manage agroecosystems that are both productive and natural resource conserving (Altieri, 2002). The functional biodiversity in agroecosystems may be increased by means of ecological compensation areas (ECAs) for the multiplication of both natural enemies (Burgio et al., 2004; 2006; Ponti et al., 2005) and pollinators (Nicholls and Altieri, 2013). In particular, pollinators are crucial in many ecosystems, including crops, as they permit plant reproduction, and many species may also act as bio-indicators (Kevan, 1999). Simplified ecosystems such as monocultural crops may not provide sufficient pathways for pollinator guilds, and have a heavy chemical input of pesticides that depresses pollinator communities. The input of adjacent non-food, foraging crops at field margins may overcome this problem at different levels of scale. Moreover, some cover crops may have other beneficial effects by increasing also natural enemies' populations (Burgio et al., 2016). In viticulture, one of the main problems is represented by phytoplasmas transmitted by leafhoppers and planthoppers (Hemiptera: Cicadomorpha and Fulgoromorpha) (Alma et al., 2015). In Europe, two grapevine yellows are associated to phytoplasmas: Flavescence dorée (FD), is associated to phytoplasmas of the 16SrV-C and 16SrV-D subgroups transmitted by Scaphoideus titanus Ball (Alma et al., 2015) and, to a lesser extent, possibly, also by Dictyophara europaea (L.) (Filippin et al., 2009) and Orientus ishidae (Matsumura) (Lessio et al., 2016), whereas Bois noir (BN) is associated to 'Candidatus Phytoplasma solani' (16SrXII-A) transmitted by Hyalesthes obsoletus Signoret (Lessio et al.,

2007), Reptalus quinquecostatus (Dufour) (Chuche et al., 2016), and Reptalus panzeri (Low) (Cvrković et al., 2014). Moreover, recently, a phytoplasma of the group 16SrIX has been identified in vines in Turkey (Bianco, 2013). From an Integrated Pest management (IPM) point of view, habitat manipulations with replacement of host plants for vector species with suitable cover crops may be a further mean of control. For instance, S. titanus lives strictly on Vitis spp., both wild and cultivated (Chuche et al., 2014), and it is a threat particularly in presence of many uncultivated areas colonized by wild grapevines (Pavan et al., 2012; Lessio et al., 2014). Therefore, the removal of wild grapevines has been proposed as a pest management measure (Alma et al., 2015). On the other hand, *H. obsoletus* is polyphagous and lives mainly on stinging nettle, Urtica dioica L. (Alma et al., 1988), and the removal of nettle from edges has a long-term beneficial effect in decreasing vector's populations (Alma et al., 2015). The use of side non-food crops may therefore be implemented in this direction.

However, a side-effect of these (partially) unmanaged ecosystems on adjacent crops may be expected also in terms of pests harmful to crops and which may take advantage of these new habitats. Many other species of leafhoppers and planthoppers are suspected to be vectors of phytoplasmas to grapevine, and many of them are actually vectors under laboratory conditions. The presence of a non-food crop close to vineyards must therefore be evaluated also concerning this aspect. The aim of this research was to investigate into communities of leafhoppers and planthoppers living on foraging strips and that may switch onto grapevines and cause phytoplasma transmission.

Materials and methods

Study area and strip composition

The research was conducted over a three-year period (2012-2014) in three sites placed in vine-growing areas of Piedmont (NW Italy), and belonging to the Operation Pollinator® Network (www.operationpollinator.com).

The first site was in the district of Canelli (AT), and was surrounded by a corn/wheat rotation crop, a hazelnut orchard, a meadow, and a vineyard of cv Moscato: the strip was seeded perpendicularly to the vineyard and parallel to the corn crop (figure 1A). The second was in La Morra (CN), and was settled between two vineyards of cv Dolcetto, whereas no other crops were present in the surroundings: the strip was settled parallel to the first and before the second vineyard (figure 1B). The third was in Serralunga d'Alba (CN) and was close to a vineyard of cv Chardonnay: in this case there were two strips, settled N and W of the vineyard, respectively (figure 1C). In all of the sites, both 16SrV and 16SrXII phytoplasmas were identified in grapevines, with an approximate proportion of 3:1. The main features of the experimental sites are listed in table 1.

Flowering strips were up to 70 m long, and 5-6 m wide. Two-thirds of the strip length was seeded with a mix of the following species: *Medicago sativa* L. (alfalfa), *Lotus corniculatus* L., *Hedysadrum coronarium* L., *Onobrychis viciifolia* Scopoli, *Trifolium pratense* L. (red clover), and *Trifolium repens* L. (white clover). The remaining part was seeded with rape, *Brassica napus* L. Legumes were seeded in 2012 during spring (March-April), and mowed twice a year, generally at the end of June and at the end of September-beginning of October; rape was seeded in autumn (September-October) and mowed in June.

The adjacent vineyards were subject to standard pest management, and in particular to mandatory insecticidal sprays against *S. titanus*, within the frame of FD control, with two sprays: the first with Thiamethoxam (end of June) and the second with organophosphates (end of July).

Field collections and surveys

Insects were collected using a sweep net with a diameter of 40 cm. The sweep-net method was chosen because it allows an unbiased collection of specimens, regardless of flight activity, morphs (e.g. brachypterous morphs), gender, etc. of the different species inhabiting

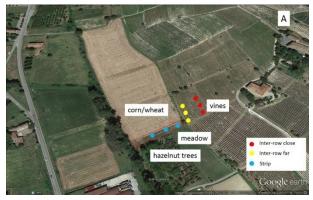






Figure 1. Map of the experimental sites: Canelli (A), La Morra (B) and Serralunga d'Alba (C).

the strip and the surrounding environments (Alma *et al.*, 2015). The samples were taken from the strip, in the vineyard inter-rows, and to some extent in adjacent plots. Inside the vineyard, two positions were sampled: close to (distance 3 m circa) and far from (minimum distance 30 m) the strip crop. Within different positions,

Table 1. Main features of experimental sites. BS: bare soil; DC: dicothyledons; MC: monocothyledons.

Exp. site	Canelli	La Morra	Serralunga d'Alba
Year sampled	2012-2013	2012-2014	2012-2014
Grapevine cv	Moscato	Dolcetto	Chardonnay
Soil texture	Medium/silty	Medium/silty/loam	Medium
Inter-row composition	BS, DC	DC, MC	BS, DC
	Corn/wheat		
Surrounding crops	Hazelnut trees	Meadow	None
	Meadow		
Grapevine yellows' symptoms	5%	2%	9%

three blocks of 9 m 2 (3 × 3 m) each were identified. At each sampling date, each block was swept following a scheme with 4 replicates of 20 sweepings each, consisting in a strike and a counter-strike on vegetation. Captured insects were collected with a mouth aspirator, placed into glass tubes (8 × 20 mm), and killed by freezing them. The sampling started at the middle of May and was repeated at 20-30 days intervals until the beginning of October. Only one sampling per season was made on rape, which was mowed in June; since no (or very negligible numbers of) specimens were captured, these data were excluded from analyses.

The ground cover of the strips was evaluated visually at the end of June, before grass cutting, by observing three replicates of a square (100×100 cm). Three categories of soil coverage were considered: OP seed mixture, weeds, and bare soil. The different species of dicothyledon weeds that developed on the strip were also reported; we omitted to identify Gramineae as they are quite difficult to determine. Plant species were determined according to Pignatti (1982).

Laboratory analyses

Insect specimens were identified in the laboratory using morphological features, up to the genus level. Identification of adults to species (or species complex) level was made either through morphological features or following the extraction of male genitalia, according to Holzinger *et al.* (2003) and Biedermann and Niedringhaus (2004). When doubtful, the identification of females was left at genus level.

Molecular analyses were conducted on specimens belonging to acknowledged or suspected vectors of group 16SrV and 16SrXII phytoplasmas. For each species, at least 20% of the total specimens captured was tested. Total DNA from single insects was extracted following a CTAB method as described by Bertin and Bosco (2013) and resuspended in 100 µl TE buffer. Phytoplasma detection was carried out through nested PCR with the universal phytoplasma primer pairs P1/P7 and R16F2n/R16R2 (Gundersen and Lee, 1996). Then, species already known to be vectors or suspected vectors of phytoplasmas to grapevine were analyzed also with specific primers. In particular, Agallia consobrina Curtis, Anaceratagallia spp., D. europaea, Euscelis incisus (Kirschbaum), H. obsoletus and Reptalus spp. were tested in SYBER Green RealTime PCR with the primers StolFw/StolRev (Galetto et al., 2005) for 'Ca. Phytoplasma solani', D. europaea, Euscelidius variegatus (Kirschbaum) and E. incisus were tested in SYBER Green RealTime PCR with the 16SrV-group specific primers fAY/rEY (Marcone et al., 1996); while Neoaliturus fenestratus (Heirrich-Schaeffer) was tested in direct PCR with 16SrIX-group semi-specific primers ALWF2/ALWR2 (Abou-Jawdah et al., 2003).

Statistical analyses

A one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey test was performed on the data of single vector species captures in different positions (within the strip, inter-row close to the strip, inter-row far from the strip, and adjacent plots) in different sites. The analysis was run pooling captures

from different years of sampling and keeping sites separated. Data were square root transformed to meet the assumption of normality and variance homogeneity. ANOVA was calculated with the SPSS 21.0® statistical software.

Results

Ground cover of flowering strips

The rate of ground cover due to seed mixture and weeds changed in different years and sites (figure 2). Generally, weeds increased over time due to a decrease in seeded species. The best rate of cover with the seed

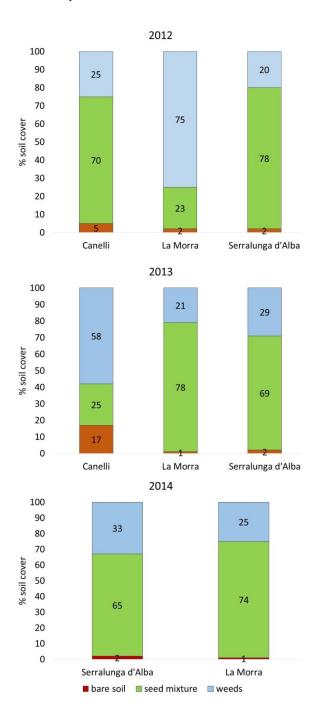


Figure 2. Percentage of ground cover of strip crops in different sites and years.

Table 2. Weeds observed within the strip in the different sites.

Species	Canelli	La Morra	Serralunga d'Alba
Achillea millefolium L.	+		
Amaranthus retroflexus L.	+		+
Brassica nigra (L.)	+		+
Brassica oleracea L.		+	
Centaurea spp.	+		+
Chenopodium album L.	+		+
Cichorium intybus L.		+	+
Cirsium arvense (L.)	+	+	+
Convolvulus arvensis L.		+	
Crepis spp.		+	
grasses	+	+	+
Hieracium spp.			+
Knautia arvensis (L.)	+		
Leontodon spp.	+		
Leucanthemum vulgare (Vaill.)	+		
Lythrum salicaria L.	+		
Melilotus officinalis (L.)	+		+
Mentha piperita L.	+		+
Papaver rhoeas L.	+	+	
Picris hieracioides L.	+	+	+
Plantago lanceolata L.	+		
Polygonum persicaria L.	+		
Potentilla reptans L.	+		
Pulicaria spp.	+		
Rumex spp.	+		
Salvia pratensis L.		+	
Scabiosa spp.	+		
Taraxacum officinale Weber			+
Trifolium repens L.	+	+	
Urtica dioica L.	+		

mixture was noted in Serralunga d'Alba (65-78%). La Morra was badly covered during the first year of seeding, probably because of little rain during spring, and was seeded again in 2013 achieving a better result. Canelli had a good performance during the first year, but went down badly in the second and last year, and had the highest rate in bare soil.

Among the species seeded, alfalfa (*M. sativa*) and *O. vicifolia* were the most performant, whereas the others did not emerge in a considerable number. Concerning weeds, some important species such as *Convolvolus arvensis* L., *U. dioica*, *Amaranthus retroflexus* L., and *Picris hieracioides* L. (table 2), which are host plants for vectors and in some cases a source of phytoplasma inoculum, were identified.

Leafhopper captures and molecular analyses

On the whole, 1099 adult specimens were collected and 62 species were identified. The most abundant were *Psammotettix alienus* (Dalbholm) (288 specimens, 26% of the total captured) and *Philaenus spumarius* (L.) (168, 15%). Other numerous species, representing 4-5% of the total captured each, were *Laodelphax striatellus* (Fallen) (48), *N. fenestratus* (50), *Empoasca vitis* (Goethe) (48), and *D. europaea* (48). Among the species captured, 8 are acknowledged as vectors of 16SrV and/or 16SrXII phy-

toplasmas, the most abundant being *D. europaea* (48), *E. incisus* (44) and *E. variegatus* (36), whereas 9 are considered potential vectors, the most abundant being *N. fenestratus* (50). Data are shown in table 3.

On the whole, 157 specimens, belonging to 17 different species, were subject to DNA extraction and PCR for phytoplasma identification. Phytoplasmas of the 16SrV group were detected in three specimens of *D. europaea*, caught on the strips in the sites of La Morra (1 specimen) and Serralunga d'Alba (2 specimens) during 2014. Group 16SrIX phytoplasmas were detected in one specimen of *N. fenestratus* captured on the strip in Canelli during 2013. None of the other specimens showed positive signals (table 3).

Differences between strips and vineyard

Differences in abundance on different positions were calculated for the following: *D. europaea*, *E. variegatus*, *E. incisus*, *N. fenestratus*, *A. venosa*. In the site of Canelli, both *D. europaea* and *N. fenestratus* were more abundant on the strips, whereas *E. variegatus* showed no differences at all and *E. incisus* was more abundant in the surroundings. On the other hand, in the site of Serralunga d'Alba *N. fenestratus* was found only in the vineyard inter-row whereas *A. venosa* showed no differences. Data are illustrated in table 4.

Table 3. Captures and molecular analyses of species known or suspected vectors of phytoplasmas of groups 16SrV and XII (according to Alma *et al.*, 2015, unless differently specified). CAN: Canelli; MOR: La Morra; SRL: Serralunga d'Alba.

				Captured	red				PCR		
Species	S	16Sr	CAN	MOR	SRL	Total	Tested	+F2n/R2	16SrV	16SrIX	16Sr XII-A
	Euscelidius variegatus (Kirschbaum)	>	28	5	С	36	19	0	0		1
OIS	Euscelis incisus (Kirschbaum)	XII	42	2	0	44	6	0	ı		0
ηοολ	Anaceratagallia ribauti (Ossiannlison)	XII	8	4	12	19	17	0	ı		0
geq	Aphrodes bicincta (Schrank)	XII	1	0	9	7	9	0			0
wled	Hyalesthes obsoletus Signoret	XII	0	1	0	1		0	ı		0
kuor	Reptalus quinquecostatus (Dufour)	IIX	0		0	1	1	0			0
э¥	Reptalus spp. (1)	XII	2	8	4	6	2	0			0
	Dictyophara europaea (L.)	V ; $(XII)^{(2)}$	32	8	13	48	10	0	8		0
	Anoplotettix fuscovenosus (Ferrari)	Λ	7	4	16	27	9	0	0		0
	Agallia consobrina Curtis	>	1	2	4	7	4	0			0
SIC	Anaceratagallia laevis (Ribaut)	XII	7	4	11	22	∞	0			0
vecto	Anaceratagallia venosa (Fourcroy)	$\mathrm{XII}^{(3)}$	4	9	23	33	16	0	ı	ı	0
ted v	Anaceratagallia spp.	${ m XII}^{(4)}$	33	9	5	14	12	0			0
əəds	Aphrodes makarovi Zachvaktin	$\mathrm{V}^{(5)}$; $\mathrm{XII}^{(6)}$	7	0	4	9	3	0	ı	ı	0
nS	Hyalesthes scotti Ferrari	$\mathrm{XII}^{(\prime)}$	14	0	0	14	3	0	ı		0
	Reptalus cuspidatus (Fieber)	XII	0	0	3	3	1	0	ı		0
	Neoaliturus fenestratus (Heirrich-Schaffer)	XII	24	9	20	50	39	0	ı	-	0

⁽¹⁾ Females, either R. quinquecostatus or R. panzeri. R. melanochaetus in Piedmont is quite rare (Luca Picciau, personal communication).
(2) Suspected vector of 16SrXII.
(3) Drobnjaković et al., 2010.

 $^{^{(5)}}$ Positive after microinjection (Bressan et al., 2006) but no transmission. (4) Either A. venosa or A. ribauti.

⁽⁶⁾ Positive after field collection (Sanna *et al.*, 2016). (7) Skorić, 2013.

Table 4. Abundance of leafhoppers (mean \pm s.d. per replication) on different positions in different experimental sites. Different letters indicate significant differences between positions (ANOVA + Tukey test, P<0.05).

Total species	Position	Canelli	Serralunga d'Alba
	inter-row (far)	$1 \pm 1 a$	-
Diatronava auronava (I.)	inter-row (close)	$1.7 \pm 1.5 \text{ a}$	-
Dictyopara europaea (L.)	strip	$7.3 \pm 3.5 \text{ bc}$	-
	surrounding	$0.7 \pm 0.6 a$	-
	inter-row (far)	$1.7 \pm 0.6 a$	-
Eugaslidius variagatus (Virsahhaum)	inter-row (close)	$0.3 \pm 0.6 a$	-
Euscelidius variegatus (Kirschbaum)	strip	$4.3 \pm 4 \text{ a}$	-
	surrounding	$3 \pm 1 a$	-
	inter-row (far)	0 ± 0 a	-
Euscelis incisus (Kirschbaum)	inter-row (close)	0 ± 0 a	-
Eusceus incisus (Kirschoaum)	strip	$3.3 \pm 1.2 a$	-
	surrounding	$10.7 \pm 2.3 \text{ b}$	-
	inter-row (far)	0 ± 0 a	$2.3 \pm 1.2 a$
Neoaliturus fenestratus (Heirrich-Schaeffer)	inter-row (close)	0 ± 0 a	$4.3 \pm 0.6 a$
Neoditiarus jenesiratus (Henrich-Schaemer)	strip	$8 \pm 1 \text{ b}$	$0.0 \pm 0.0 \text{ b}$
	surrounding	0 ± 0 a	-
	inter-row (far)	=	$2.0 \pm 1.0 a$
Anaceratagallia venosa (Fourcroy)	inter-row (close)	-	$3.6 \pm 6.4 a$
	strip	-	$2.0 \pm 3.5 \text{ a}$

Discussion

In the present research, 17 species of leafhoppers or planthoppers known to be vectors (7) or potential vectors (10) of grapevine phytoplasmas were captured either on the flowering strip or in the vineyard inter-row. The presence and the abundance of a certain species depended mainly on the botanical composition of the crop considered, including weeds. In many cases, no significant differences between captures in the vineyard interrow were noted with respect to the distance from the flowering strip: it is likely therefore that no massive movement from the strip to the vineyard and vice-versa occurs. However, since different vectors have different ecological needs, the results concerning each species will be discussed separately.

One of the most abundant species was N. fenestratus, which lives mainly on Asteraceae (Landi et al., 2013; Minuz et al., 2013) but may also feed on grapevine as an adult (Bosco et al., 1997; Landi et al., 2013). High captures were observed on the strip in Canelli, where a high presence of P. hieracioides was noted, and also in the inter-rows in Serralunga d'Alba, where other weeds of the same family were abundant. In Europe, N. fenestratus is a vector of group 16SrII-E phytoplasmas to P. hieracioides (Mitrović et al., 2012), and it is also associated to phytoplasmas of subgroups 16SrI-B and -C (Landi et al., 2013), and group 16SrXII (Orenstein et al., 2003); in Iran it is an acknowledged vector of 16SrIX phytoplasmas causing lettuce and wild lettuce phyllodies (Salehi et al., 2007); in the present research, it was found positive to 16SrIX-group phytoplasmas, which however do not seem harmful to grapevine, although they were recently identified in vine leaves in Turkey (Bianco, 2013). Nevertheless, since N. fenestratus may be associated to Stolbur as well, a big population of this leafhopper close to vine growing areas may

become a problem, although its vector ability has not been proved yet.

D. europaea is another species of a certain concern: in the present research it was found positive to 16SrV, and it can transmit this phytoplasma from infected C. vitalba to grapevine (Filippin et al., 2009). It was also associated to Stolbur phytoplasmas in Serbia (Cvrković et al., 2011), but this aspect was not confirmed here. However, at present, it may be considered the most threatening species settled on the strips: in fact, D. europaea is common in xerothermic habitats with isolated grass patches and portions of bare soil, used for laying eggs (Nickel and Remane, 2002), and may move on shrubs such as vine (Lessio and Alma, 2008) and C. vitalba (Krstić et al., 2016) during the dry season. This species which is polyphagous and feeds on many weeds including pigweed, A. retroflexus (Lessio and Alma, 2008: Krstić et al., 2016) may have taken advantage of the presence of plant patches with bare soil in the site of Canelli, especially during the second year of study. Moreover, 3 specimens out of 10 were positive to 16SrV phytoplasmas. Such an infection rate (30%) is quite high if compared to data obtained from North-Eastern Italy and Serbia, where positive individuals were 3-4% of the total collected (Filippin *et al.*, 2009). On the other hand, it is consistent with (unpublished) data from specimens (N≈40) which we have collected from other vine growing areas of Piedmont, especially in the Asti Province. For these reasons, D. europaea may be considered as a harmful species, and therefore foraging crops along vineyards must be correctly managed in order to avoid this species to settle.

The species of the subfamily Agallinae were quite well represented, although not in very high numbers: association with 16SrXII phytoplasmas have been reported for the following: *A. laevis* (Orenstein *et al.*, 2003; Drobnjaković *et al.*, 2010), *A. venosa*

(Drobnjaković *et al.*, 2010) and *A. ribauti* (Riedle-Bauer *et al.*, 2008; Drobnjaković *et al.*, 2010), the last one being also a vector under laboratory conditions (Riedle-Bauer *et al.*, 2008). On the other hand, phytoplasmas of group 16SrI were detected in *A. laevis* (Drobnjaković *et al.*, 2010). However, Agallinae are mainly associated with weeds (Nickel and Remane, 2002) and do not seem up to now harmful to grapevines. *A. venosa* is reported on *L. corniculatus* in Germany (Nickel and Remane, 2002), which is a part of the seeding mixture.

The species of the subfamily Aphrodinae were not caught in abundance. *Aphrodes makarovi* Zachvaktin is known to harbour 16SrXII phytoplasmas (Sanna *et al.*, 2016), whereas it was not able to transmit 16SrV phytoplasmas after micro-injections (Bressan *et al.*, 2006). Given also the few specimens captured on the strips, species in this subfamily may not be considered a threat to grapevine.

The presence of H. obsoletus and R. panzeri - two acknowledged vectors of 'Ca. Phytoplasma solani' (16SrXII) to grapevines (Lessio et al., 2007; Cvrković et al., 2014) - was quite low. H. obsoletus relies on weeds such as stinging nettle, U. dioica (Lessio et al., 2007), bindweed (C. arvensis) (Weber and Maixner, 1998), and lavender (Johannesen et al., 2008). U. dioica is not likely to become invasive in other plant communities, mainly because of its light needs (it grows better under half-shade conditions) (Olsen, 1921). Therefore, in the vineyard agro-ecosystem it is typical of field margins close to ditches and/or under tree vegetation (Mori et al., 2015), and is not likely to become invasive within strip crops. On the other hand, bindweed is common in vineyard inter-rows and has a wide distribution with little ecological needs (Lososova et al., 2003; Jurado-Exposito et al., 2004): its presence on the flowering strips should be therefore considered a risk factor. Without its host plants, H. obsoletus does not become a threat: similar results were obtained by Burgio et al. (2016), who did not find many specimens on sweet alyssum [Lobularia maritima (L.) Desv.]. Concerning R. panzeri, it is hosted mainly by trees and shrubs (Picciau et al., 2008), and does not seem to build up great populations in meadows (and therefore strip crops). Other Reptalus species associated to 16SrXII phytoplasmas are R. cuspidatus (Skorić, 2013), not acknowledged as a vector yet, and R. quinquecostatus, which is able to transmit to artificial feeding medium (Pinzauti et al., 2008), and to periwinkle (Chuche et al., 2016). Since R. quinquecostatus and R. panzeri females could not be distinguished by observing morphological features (along with R. melanochaetus) (Bertin et al., 2010), the presence of R. panzeri may have been underestimated. Anyway, very few individuals of Reptalus spp. were captured and should not be therefore deemed important in this context.

E. variegatus showed no differences between positions, probably because its high degree of polyphagia (Nickel and Remane, 2002) that has permitted its development on a wide range of host plants either in the strip or in the vineyard inter-row and in the surroundings. E. incisus, which lives mainly on Gramineae and Fabaceae (Nickel and Remane, 2002), was found in high

number only in the surrounding areas, especially on Gramineae (e.g. meadows and winter cereals). Both species are not usually caught in high numbers on the grapevine canopy (Bosco *et al.*, 1997), and their presence is therefore not considered a threat.

Finally, *A. fuscovenosus* was found in relatively high numbers on the strips: the results obtained are in accordance with the fact that this species relies on trees and shrubs for egg-laying, but develops and feeds on herbaceous plants (Alma, 1995). This species is able to transmit 16SrV phytoplasmas under laboratory conditions, following micro-injections on adults (Bressan *et al.*, 2006). However, its vector ability (especially concerning acquisition on host plants) has not been proved yet.

S. titanus was never found neither on the strips nor on weeds in the vineyard: this is not surprising, since it is a grapevine specialist (Chuche et al., 2014; Alma et al., 2015). This leafhopper is abundant on stands of wild grapevines in woods, which act as reservoirs and pathways when adults disperse moving into vineyards (Pavan et al., 2012; Lessio et al., 2014). Breaking its ecological corridors may result therefore in a decreased spread capability (Alma et al., 2015). For this reason, the application of agroecology by the use of strip crops to replace stands of wild vines may be applied in an area-wide IPM perspective, and this aspect calls for further investigation. At present, the settlement of foraging strips in the proximity of vineyards should not be considered a risk for the transmission of phytoplasmas to grapevine, provided strips themselves are correctly managed avoiding the development of dangerous weeds hosts of potentially harmful leafhoppers.

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