

1 An eco-physiological model coupling plant  
2 growth and aphid population dynamics

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4 **Abstract**

5 Aphids alter plant development and can transmit viruses, thus representing a  
6 major threat for crops. Aphids may be controlled through cultural practices,  
7 however classical agronomic and ecological models are not suitable to explore  
8 their effects on plant pest interaction. Generally, the former do not explicitly  
9 consider the dynamics of pest, the latter have a too simplistic representation  
10 of the plant. In the present work, we extended a classical plant growth model,  
11 describing carbon and nitrogen assimilation and allocation, by integrating  
12 the population dynamics of an aphid population and the development of  
13 plant defences. We calibrate the model against data of peach *Prunus persica*  
14 subjected to different fertilization and irrigation regimes, infested by the  
15 aphid *Myzus persicae*. Our results suggest that aphid infestation induces  
16 the plant to produce defensive compounds that impair aphid ingestion and  
17 fecundity. Our model, parametrized for the peach-green aphid system, shows  
18 that all these apparently contrasting empirical evidences can emerge from

19 the same biological principles governing plant-pest dynamics and that both  
20 plant vigour and plant stress hypotheses can find support when observing a  
21 plant-pest system.

## 22 **Introduction**

23 **Aphids** are specialized herbivores that feed on the phloem of vascular plants.  
24 They are responsible for the depletion of the plant's yield, which affects plant  
25 growth and reproduction and eventually impacts crop production (Goggin,  
26 2007; Zvereva et al., 2010). Moreover, aphids can transmit viruses with  
27 detrimental effects on the plant and on the yield (Zust and Agrawal, 2016).  
28 In agriculture, aphids control mostly relies on the use of chemical pesticides  
29 with inherent environmental costs and whose efficacy decays in time due to  
30 the emergence of resistant strains (Matson et al., 1997).

31 In the last decades, **agroecology** developed as discipline to provide alter-  
32 natives to the use of chemicals in agronomy. The rationale is that ecological  
33 concepts and principles can be applied to control pest populations while  
34 reducing the use of pesticides (Gliessman, 2007). The concept of "**bottom-**  
35 **up**" **control**, on the basis of which population dynamics are driven by re-  
36 sources quantity and quality, is particularly interesting in agroecology. In  
37 fact, there exist a number of agricultural practices that can affect plant  
38 physiology and alter the level of resource offered by plants to pests (Gonthier  
39 et al., 2013; Kytö et al., 1996; Awmack and Leather, 2002; Coley and Bryant,  
40 1985). For example, fertilization modifies nutrient balance in plants, enhanc-  
41 ing plant tissue nutritional status, and influences the synthesis of defences

42 compounds (Awmack and Leather, 2002; Sauge et al., 2010). Similarly, irriga-  
43 tion controls plant vigour, phloem nutritional quality and viscosity, possibly  
44 regulating aphid abundance (Sevanto, 2014; Girusse et al., 1996). However,  
45 the way a pest is affected by the plant status is not obvious and empirical  
46 evidences provided support to different hypotheses. On the one hand, the  
47 **Plant Vigour Hypothesis** PVH (Price, 1991) argues that pest populations  
48 increase on vigorously growing plants (or organs), hence providing more re-  
49 sources for the pest. In support to this hypotheses, some authors observed  
50 that practices such as fertilization and irrigation, or favourable conditions  
51 for plant growth as organic soil fertility, were associated to abundant pest  
52 populations (Inbar et al., 2001; Huberty and Denno, 2006; Tamburini et al.,  
53 2018; Rousselin et al., 2016). On the other hand, the **Plant Stress Hy-**  
54 **pothesis** PSH (White, 1984) argues that pests better perform on stressed  
55 plants that would not have resources to deploy defences and whose nutritional  
56 quality might be enhanced in certain stressful conditions. This is the case  
57 for some aphid species feeding on plants subjected to controlled irrigation  
58 deficit (Tariq et al., 2012; Oswald and Brewer, 1997). In order to efficiently  
59 use the concepts of bottom-up control in agroecology, it is necessary to shed  
60 light on the mechanisms that are responsible for the observed patterns and  
61 ideally derive a **unified conceptual framework keeping together the**  
62 **different hypotheses**. This should imply both **field experiments** and  
63 mathematical modelling. The first are necessary to test the validity of the-  
64 oretical hypotheses, but they can be extremely costly and time consuming.  
65 The latter, particularly **mechanistic models**, represent a useful tool to in-  
66 vestigate which processes can be responsible of the observed patterns and

67 to explore the consequences of different agricultural practices (Thornley and  
68 Johnson, 1990).

69 Modelling approaches commonly used **in agronomy** empirically parametrize  
70 in the plant vital rates the detrimental effect of pests and they neglect the  
71 dynamical interaction between the plant (or some of its component parts)  
72 and the pest (see Aggarwal et al., 2006; Willocquet et al., 2008; Dietze and  
73 Matthes, 2014). That is, the impact of a pest on the plant is modelled  
74 by varying one or more plant parameters, according to the pest disturbance  
75 level. For instance, the presence of a defoliator herbivore have been modelled  
76 through a reduction in the net growth rate of the leaves; while the presence  
77 of a root rot have been modelled through an increase of root turnover rate  
78 (Dietze and Matthes, 2014). On the other hand, **in ecology**, a broad liter-  
79 ature of models on interactions (e.g. predation, consumption, competition  
80 etc.) between different species exists. These models have been widely used to  
81 study temporal and spatial dynamics also in plant-pest systems (see Bewick  
82 et al., 2016; Levins and Schultz, 1996; Lebon et al., 2014), yet they usually  
83 present a simplistic description of the plant, that limits the possibility to  
84 consider the effects of agronomic practices.

85 With the aim to **bridge the gap** between the classical agronomic and  
86 the ecological modelling approach, here we couple a plant growth model,  
87 that describes carbon and nitrogen assimilation and allocation to shoot and  
88 root compartments of a plant, with an aphid population model. With re-  
89 gard to **the plant**, we use the modelling framework proposed by Thornley  
90 in the early 70s (Thornley, 1972b,a), and refined in the following decades  
91 (Reynolds and Thornley, 1982; Thornley, 1996, 1998; Thornley and Cannel,

92 2000), which represents a cornerstone in plant and crop modelling (Thornley  
93 and Johnson, 1990). With regard to **the aphid**, we propose a population  
94 model with scramble competition where birth and mortality rates depend on  
95 the pest per-capita resource availability and quality. Moreover, we assume  
96 that the presence of the aphid can induce the plant to produce **defensive**  
97 **compounds** intended to decrease the aphid feeding and/or birth rate.

98 We **demonstrate the model** by applying it to a peach *Prunus persica*  
99 - green aphid *Myzus persicae* system, we **calibrate** model parameters and  
100 select model assumptions against field data obtained under different condi-  
101 tions of irrigation and fertilization. The resulting model has the ability to  
102 reproduce different system properties observed in field studies and provides  
103 insights to conceive new experiments and rethink the control of plant-aphid  
104 systems.

## 105 **The model**

### 106 **Model outline and assumptions**

107 The model, which describes the temporal variation, during a growing sea-  
108 son, of plant dry mass (partitioned into shoots and roots, in turn composed  
109 by structural dry mass, carbon and nitrogen substrates), its defensive com-  
110 pounds and the aphid population dwelling on the plant is schematically rep-  
111 resented in Fig.1

112 According to **Thornely et al's** seminal works (Thornley, 1972a; Thorn-  
113 ley and Johnson, 1990; Thornley, 1998, 1996), carbon is assimilated from

114 the atmosphere via photosynthesis and stored in shoots, as **shoot carbon**  
115 **substrate** ( $C_S$ ), or transported and then stored in roots as **root carbon**  
116 **substrate** ( $C_R$ ). Similarly, nitrogen is assimilated from the soil, stored in  
117 roots as **root nitrogen substrate** ( $N_R$ ), or transported and then stored in  
118 shoots as **shoot nitrogen substrate** ( $N_S$ ). Carbon and nitrogen substrates  
119 are utilized, in a fixed ratio, to constitute **structural shoot (S) and root**  
120 **(R) dry mass**. The assimilation of substrate ( $C_S$  or  $N_R$ ) per unit of plant  
121 organ ( $S$  or  $R$ ) decreases with organ mass due to shoot self-shading and root  
122 competition for nitrogen and it is inhibited by substrate concentration in the  
123 organ (Thornley, 1998).

124 We coupled the model of carbon and nitrogen assimilation and partition-  
125 ing in a plant with an aphid population model by assuming that **aphids**,  
126 which penetrate growing shoots of the host plant with a stylet and feed  
127 on the phloem (Zust and Agrawal, 2016), **intercept** a fraction of the sub-  
128 strates ( $C_S$  and  $N_S$ ) directed towards the shoot structural mass compartment  
129 (S) to support their growth (Goggin, 2007). We assume that aphids act in  
130 a **scramble competition** context (Dixon, 1998) and therefore any aphid  
131 ingests its maximum daily amount of food when the per-capita available re-  
132 source is enough, otherwise the available resource is evenly shared among all  
133 the individuals. The intrinsic aphid **birth rate** depends on the per-capita  
134 ingested food (Dixon, 1985) while the **mortality rate** is constant (Müller  
135 et al., 2001). Eventually, crowding can induce aphids to leave the system  
136 (Müller et al., 2001).

137 We assume that the plant can be induced by the aphid presence to pro-  
138 duce **defensive compounds** which can reduce aphid **accessibility** to the

139 resource (e.g. by phloem sealing) (Medina-Ortega and Walker, 2013; Will  
140 et al., 2013; van Velzen and Etienne, 2015) and/or decrease aphid **reproduc-**  
141 **tion** rate (e.g. by release toxic components in the sieve) (Lebon et al., 2014;  
142 Züst and Agrawal, 2016). The plant is assumed to implement both carbon  
143 (*e.g.* terpenes, phenolics) and nitrogen (*e.g.* alkaloids, non-protein amino  
144 acids, cyanogenic compounds, proteinase inhibitors) based defences (Herms  
145 and Mattson, 1992), with the latter being more effective (Schoonhoven et al.,  
146 2005). In fact, after having detected aphids saliva, plants can produce de-  
147 fensive compounds from the same substrates used for growth (Herms and  
148 Mattson, 1992; Will et al., 2013; Lebon et al., 2014; Züst and Agrawal, 2016).

## 149 **Model equations**

150 In quantitative terms, we describe the temporal variation of the eight vari-  
151 ables composing the plant-aphid system with the following system of ordinary  
152 differential equations.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l}
 \dot{C}_S = \sigma_C S \left[ \left(1 + \frac{S}{\nu}\right) \left(1 + \frac{C_S}{S_{tC}}\right) \right]^{-1} - \varphi_C \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S - \left(\frac{C_S}{S} - \frac{C_R}{R}\right) (SR)^q \cdot (S^q + R^q)^{-1} - \alpha \frac{C_S}{S} A \quad (1a) \\
 \dot{N}_S = \left(\frac{N_R}{R} - \frac{N_S}{S}\right) (SR)^q \cdot (S^q + R^q)^{-1} - \varphi_N \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S - \alpha \frac{N_S}{S} A \quad (1b) \\
 \dot{S} = \begin{cases} \Phi \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S \left(1 - \frac{\theta_{max} A}{\Phi \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S}\right) & \text{if } \theta_{max} \cdot A \leq \Phi \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S \frac{\beta \pi_1^{\delta_1}}{\pi_1^{\delta_1} + (\frac{D}{S})^{\delta_1}} \\ \Phi \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S \left(1 - \frac{\beta \pi_1^{\delta_1}}{\pi_1^{\delta_1} + (\frac{D}{S})^{\delta_1}}\right) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1c) \\
 \dot{C}_R = \left(\frac{C_S}{S} - \frac{C_R}{R}\right) (SR)^q \cdot (S^q + R^q)^{-1} - \varphi_C \kappa \frac{C_R}{R} \frac{N_R}{R} R \quad (1d) \\
 \dot{N}_R = \sigma_N R \left[ \left(1 + \frac{R}{\nu}\right) \left(1 + \frac{N_R}{R_{tN}}\right) \right]^{-1} - \varphi_N \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S - \left(\frac{N_R}{R} - \frac{N_S}{S}\right) (SR)^q (S^q + R^q)^{-1} \quad (1e) \\
 \dot{R} = \Phi \kappa \frac{C_R}{R} \frac{N_R}{R} R \quad (1f) \\
 \dot{D} = (\varepsilon_C \alpha \frac{C_S}{S} + \varepsilon_N \alpha \frac{N_S}{S}) A \quad (1g) \\
 \dot{A} = \begin{cases} (\xi \theta_{max} (1 - (\delta_2 \frac{D}{S})^{\pi_2}) - \mu - \omega \frac{A}{S}) A & \text{if } \theta_{max} \cdot A \leq \Phi \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S \frac{\beta \pi_1^{\delta_1}}{\pi_1^{\delta_1} + (\frac{D}{S})^{\delta_1}} \\ (\xi \Phi \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S \frac{\beta \pi_1^{\delta_1}}{\pi_1^{\delta_1} + (\frac{D}{S})^{\delta_1}} \frac{1}{A} (1 - (\delta_2 \frac{D}{S})^{\pi_2}) - \mu - \omega \frac{A}{S}) A & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1h)
 \end{array} \right. \quad (1)$$

153 where  $C_S$ ,  $N_S$ ,  $S$ ,  $C_R$ ,  $N_R$  and  $R$  are expressed in grams (g);  $D$  is expressed  
154 in an arbitrary defence unit (DU) and  $A$  in individuals (ind.);  $t$  represents  
155 the number of days (d) that have passed since the 1st of January of the year  
156 of the considered growing season;  $\Phi = \frac{\lambda^\eta}{\lambda^\eta + t^\eta}$  is a **time variant parameter**  
157 that we introduced to simulate the fact that perennial plants in temperate  
158 regions address substrates to reserves rather than to vegetative growth at  
159 the end of the growing season, when the day length starts decreasing (Heide,  
160 2008; Petterle et al., 2013).

161 In **equation 1a**,  $\sigma_C S \left[ \left(1 + \frac{S}{\nu}\right) \left(1 + \frac{C_S}{S_{tC}}\right) \right]^{-1}$  is the **carbon substrate as-**  
162 **simulated in shoots**,  $\varphi_C \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S$  is the shoot carbon substrate **allocated**  
163 to shoot growth or reserves,  $\left(\frac{C_S}{S} - \frac{C_R}{R}\right) (SR)^q \cdot (S^q + R^q)^{-1}$  is the shoot carbon  
164 substrate **transported** toward roots and  $\alpha \frac{C_S}{S} A$  is the shoot carbon substrate



165 **diverted** to defensive compounds, in a unit of time.

166 In **equation 1b**,  $(\frac{N_R}{R} - \frac{N_S}{S})(SR)^q \cdot (S^q + R^q)^{-1}$  is the nitrogen substrate  
167 transported from roots towards shoots;  $\varphi_N \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S$  is the shoot nitrogen sub-  
168 strate allocated to shoot growth or reserves, and  $\alpha \frac{N_S}{S} A$  is the shoot nitrogen  
169 substrate diverted to defensive compounds, in a unit of time.

170 In **equation 1c**,  $\Phi \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S$  is the increase in structural shoot dry mass  
171 in the absence of any phloem withdrawal by the aphids. The term  $\theta_{max} A$  (or  
172  $\Phi \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S \frac{\beta \pi_1^{\delta_1}}{\pi_1^{\delta_1} + (\frac{D}{S})^{\delta_1}}$ ) represents the amount of phloem diverted from alloca-  
173 tion to plant growth because ingested by aphids. By definition, it cannot  
174 exceed the mass increase that would have occurred in absence of aphids (i.e.  
175 for  $A = 0$ ) and it is a function of  $i$ ) the maximum aphid ingestion capac-  
176 ity  $\theta_{max}$ ,  $ii$ ) the flux of substrates that the plant allocates to shoot growth  
177  $\Phi \kappa \frac{C_S}{S} \frac{N_S}{S} S$  and  $iii$ ) the concentration of defensive compounds in the shoots  
178  $\frac{D}{S}$ . The term  $\frac{\beta \pi_1^{\delta_1}}{\pi_1^{\delta_1} + (\frac{D}{S})^{\delta_1}}$  is the fraction of substrates allocated to shoot growth  
179 that can be intercepted by the aphids that is assumed to possibly decrease  
180 with the concentration of defensive compounds  $\frac{D}{S}$ .

181 The dynamics of the variables in the root compartments ( $C_R$ ,  $N_R$ ,  $R$ ) fol-  
182 low similar rules for substrates assimilation, transport and allocation to root  
183 growth and we assumed that they are not directly affected by the presence  
184 of aphids.

185 In **equation 1h**, we assume that the aphid birth rate is proportional to  
186 the per-capita ingested resource mass and that it can decrease, even attaining  
187 negative values if the defensive compounds turn to be lethal to the aphid, due  
188 to a possible chemical action of the defensive compounds. The parameter  $\omega$   
189 indicated the aphid sensitivity to crowding and hence their migration rate

190 induced by crowding.

191 Details on the model variables and parameters are reported in Table 1.

## 192 **Material and Methods**

### 193 **Study case and available data**

194 We apply the model to the peach-green aphid system. **Peach** is a cultivar of  
195 economic importance over all temperate regions (FAO, 2016) whose growth  
196 (and fruit production) has been extensively modelled in the last decades  
197 (Grossman and DeJong, 1994; Lescourret et al., 1998) and the **green aphid**  
198 is a main pest of fruit crops, it is responsible for decreased plant growth  
199 (Bevacqua et al., 2016) and transmission of lethal viruses (e.g. Plum Pox  
200 Virus) causing up to 100% of yield losses (Rimbaud et al., 2015). Observed  
201 data come from a **greenhouse experiment** where 44 peach plants were  
202 subjected to different levels of fertilization and irrigation and infested by  
203 green aphids. The plant growth and the abundance of the resident aphid  
204 population was then weekly recorded on every plant from the beginning of  
205 May to beginning of July corresponding to the end of the plant growing  
206 season. Details on the experiment are reported in Rousselin et al. (2016) and  
207 in the Supplementary Information (**SI.1**).

## 208 Model calibration and selection

### 209 Model calibration

210 According to the available data, we set **initial conditions** of the system at  
211 the first observation date (i.e. May 6th, 126th day of the year 2013) (see  
212 Supplementary Information **SI.2**).

213 We set the value of model **parameters** according to information avail-  
214 able from **peer-reviewed literature** whenever possible (See Table 1). On  
215 the other hand, **no information** was available to *a priori* derive reliable  
216 estimates for parameters  $\sigma_N$  (net N assimilation rate) and  $k$  (allocation of  
217 substrates to plant growth), which depend on environmental conditions that  
218 were varied in the considered experiment; parameter  $q$ , affecting substrates  
219 transport within the plant and depending on the plant architecture (Thorn-  
220 ley, 1998), and five parameters relevant to the production of defensive com-  
221 pounds (*i.e.*  $\alpha$ ) and their efficacy ( $\pi_1, \delta_1, \pi_2, \delta_2$ ). We estimated these unknown  
222 parameters by minimizing a **cost function**  $L$  expressed as the sum of two  
223 negative log-likelihood functions, computed with respect to observations of  
224 shoot dry mass and all aphids abundance:

$$\begin{cases} L = -(\ln(L_y) + \ln(L_x)) & (2a) \\ \ln(L_y) = -N_y \ln(\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_y^2}) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_y^2} \sum_{P=1}^{P=n_P} \sum_{i=1}^{n_i} (y_{i,P} - \hat{y}_i)^2 & (2b) \\ \ln(L_x) = -N_x \ln(\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_x^2}) - \frac{1}{2\sigma_x^2} \sum_{P=1}^{P=n_P} \sum_{j=1}^{n_j} (x_{j,P} - \hat{x}_j)^2 & (2c) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

225 Where  $y_{i,P}$  and  $x_{j,P}$  are the values of the variables  $y$  and  $x$  observed on

226 the plant  $P$  at time  $i$  and  $j$ , respectively (total samples size equal to  $N_y$   
227 and  $N_x$ , respectively ),  $\hat{y}_i$  and  $\hat{x}_j$  are the corresponding values simulated by  
228 the model. We assumed that the errors between each observation and the  
229 corresponding value estimated by the model follow a Gaussian distribution  
230 with mean 0 and unknown variance  $\sigma_y^2$  or  $\sigma_x^2$ . To derive the log-likelihood  
231 functions, we assumed that the error structure is additive. This is equivalent  
232 to pay attention to errors at bigger values of the variable which makes sense  
233 for agronomic applications. In our case,  $y$  is the average shoot dry mass of a  
234 plant and  $x$  is the average aphid abundance per shoot. Minimization of the  
235 of the cost function was performed using the Matlab function "fminsearch"  
236 (Nelder-Mead algorithm).

237 We assessed the empirical **probability distributions** of calibrated pa-  
238 rameters by making use of the moving block bootstrap, recommended to  
239 reconstruct time series of the observed variables (Kreiss and Lahiri, 2012).  
240 Namely, we reconstructed bootstrapped time series for each of the observed  
241 variable and we assessed the values of the unknown parameters. We repeated  
242 this process 1,000 times and we generated the 90% confidence intervals for  
243 each parameter via the percentile methods (Efron, 1979).

244 We examined the **sensitivity** of the predicted shoot production and aphid  
245 population peak to variation in model parameter estimates by varying each  
246 model parameter within the 90% confidence interval (CI) of its estimate  
247 (Table 1).

## 248 Model selection

249 The way a plant reacts to aphid infestation and the effect that such a reaction  
250 has on the aphid performance is likely to vary with plant and aphid species  
251 (Zust and Agrawal, 2016). In a given plant-aphid system, the plant can be  
252 induced to produce defences compounds or not. Also, defences compounds  
253 might affect the feeding rate of the aphid, its birth rate or have no effect  
254 (Herms and Mattson, 1992; Royer et al., 2013; Zust and Agrawal, 2017). To  
255 account for possible different **mechanisms regarding the plant reaction**  
256 **to infestation and the effect of defensive compounds**, we contrasted  
257 a **full version of the model** with a set of reduced models with less pa-  
258 rameters. Namely, the full model considers that the plant diverts substrates  
259 from growth toward defences ( $\alpha \neq 0$ ) which reduce both aphid ingestion  
260 ( $\delta_1 \neq 0$ ,  $\beta = 1$ ) and birth ( $\delta_2 \neq 0$ ) rate. Three **reduced models** consider  
261 defences production ( $\alpha \neq 0$ ), but with different consequences on the aphid  
262 i.e. no effect ( $\delta_1 = 0$ ,  $\beta = 2$  and  $\delta_2 = 0$ ), reduction of the aphid ingestion  
263 rate ( $\delta_1 \neq 0$ ,  $\beta = 1$  and  $\delta_2 = 0$ ), reduction of the aphid birth rate ( $\delta_1 = 0$ ,  
264  $\beta = 2$  and  $\delta_2 \neq 1$ ). Eventually, the most reduced model does not consider  
265 the production and therefore the presence of defences in the system ( $\alpha = 0$ ).

266 Although some authors suggest that crowding might induce aphid to  
267 abandon the host plant, there is no unanimous consensus (Müller et al.,  
268 2001). Thus, we also tested if **crowding** promotes ( $\omega \neq 0$ ) or not ( $\omega = 0$ )  
269 aphid migration from the plant.

270 Also, we tested if the effect of **irrigation and fertilization** can be rep-  
271 resented in the model thorough a variation in those parameters representing

272 allocation of substrates to plant growth  $k$ , which is expected to increase  
273 with irrigation (Muller et al., 2011; Sevanto, 2014), and nitrogen assimila-  
274 tion rate  $\sigma_N$ , which is expected to increase with fertilization (Connor et al.,  
275 2011; Thornley and Parsons, 2014). We then contrasted different versions of  
276 each model assuming that *i*)  $\kappa$  and  $\sigma_N$  respectively vary with irrigation and  
277 fertilization treatments; *ii*)  $\kappa$  varies with irrigation and  $\sigma_N$  does not vary with  
278 fertilization; *iii*)  $\kappa$  does not vary with irrigation and  $\sigma_N$  varies with fertiliza-  
279 tion; *iv*) neither  $\sigma_N$  nor  $\kappa$  vary with fertilization and irrigation. Therefore, we  
280 calibrated two values for nitrogen assimilation rate per unit of root ( $\sigma_N^+$ ,  $\sigma_N^-$ )  
281 in cases *i* and *iii* and a unique value ( $\sigma_N^\pm$ ) in cases *ii* and *iv*. Analogously,  
282 we calibrated two values for the allocation of substrates to plant growth ( $\kappa^+$   
283 and  $\kappa^-$ ) in cases *i* and *ii* and a unique value ( $\kappa^\pm$ ) in cases *iii* and *iv*.

284 Overall, we compared 40 different models, obtained by incorporating five  
285 hypotheses on plant defences, two hypotheses on aphids migration, and four  
286 hypotheses on the effect of irrigation and fertilization, to one another by  
287 evaluating the relative support in the observed data for each model. We  
288 selected the best model as the one that assured the best compromise between  
289 goodness of fit (estimated by the sum of the negative log-likelihood functions  
290  $L$ , eq. 2), and parsimony (estimated by the number of calibrated parameters  
291  $n_p$ ), according to Akaike information criterion (Akaike, 1974):

$$AIC = 2L + 2n_p \quad (3)$$

## 292 The role played by fertilization and irrigation

293 After having ascertained that parameters  $\sigma_N$  and  $k$  are likely to vary with  
294 fertilization and irrigation practices, respectively, we used the selected model  
295 to **simulate the temporal dynamics** of the system for different values of  
296 these parameters and to perform an *in silico* experiment to verify if the  
297 model was able to reproduce the observed empirical patterns that claimed  
298 support for the plant vigour or plant stress hypotheses. The *in silico* experi-  
299 ment is intended to test if the aphid abundance dwelling on an infested plant  
300 is affected by the fertilization (or irrigation) treatment. We considered five  
301 levels for the fertilization treatment (i.e.  $\sigma_N$  equals to **0.0014, 0.003, 0.014,**  
302 **0.07 and 0.14**  $d^{-1}$ ) and five levels for the irrigation treatment (i.e.  $k$  equals  
303 to **21, 41, 205, 1025 and 2050**  $d^{-1}$ ) corresponding to very low - low - aver-  
304 age - high - very high levels of fertilization (or irrigation). We varied the level  
305 of one treatment while keeping the other to its average value. To simulate  
306 the fact that in factorial experiments there are replicates (i.e. different plant  
307 individuals) for each scenario, we considered, *in silico*, 10 replicate trajec-  
308 tories of the system variables by running the model 10 times with the 10  
309 estimated parameters value drawn from the empirical distribution obtained  
310 in the estimation process.

311 Eventually, we compared pairwise differences of aphid abundances (i.e.  
312 variable  $A$  of the model) and aphid density (i.e. ratio  $A/S$  in the model)  
313 between scenarios using the Mann-Whitney U test, at different times (i.e.  
314 1<sup>th</sup> June and 15<sup>th</sup> June).

## 315 Results

### 316 Model calibration and selection

317 The ranking of the forty candidate models is reported in Table 2: the best  
318 model ("the model", hereinafter) assumes that *i*) the aphid presence induces  
319 the plant to divert resources from growth to defences, which reduce both  
320 aphid feeding and reproduction rates, *ii*) migration due to crowding can be  
321 neglected, *iii*) nitrogen assimilation ( $\sigma_N$ ) and plant growth ( $\kappa$ ) rates differ  
322 for different levels of fertilisation and irrigation, respectively. The modelled  
323 responses of aphid feeding and reproduction rates to an augment of the con-  
324 centration of defensive compounds are reported in **Figure 2**. The defensive  
325 mechanism that impair aphids fecundity starts being effective for value of  
326 defence concentration higher than 0.045 and it rapidly decreases aphids fe-  
327 cundity.

328 The model reproduces observed temporal variation of shoot mass, with  
329 plants growing more in the  $N^+$  treatments and with employed considered  
330 water treatments having little effect in the  $N^-$  cases. On the other hand,  
331 the negative effect of the employed lower watering on plant growth becomes  
332 visible in the  $N^+$  treatments. The model simulates this negative effect of  
333 lower irrigation over plant growth but it still overestimates plant growth in  
334 the  $N^+H^-$  case (**Figure 3A**). The model reproduces the temporal dynamics  
335 of aphid abundance, which peak in mid-June, are higher in the  $N^+$  cases and  
336 maximized in the case  $N^+H^+$ . The latest corresponding to the scenario with  
337 the highest shoot growth (Figure 3B). At the beginning of July, aphids abun-  
338 dance drops to zero for all the treatments, this is probably due to defensive



339 mechanism that impairs aphid fecundity.

## 340 **The role played by fertilization and irrigation**

341 **Shoot growth** follows a sigmoid pattern and it increases with fertilization  
342 and irrigation (Figure 4A-B). Concentration of **carbon** substrates vary be-  
343 tween 5-20 % during the growing season with peaks at the beginning, when  
344 the plant growth is limited by the nitrogen supply, and at the end, when  
345 plant growth is arrested in response to daylight shortening, but carbon as-  
346 similation continues. Carbon concentration is enhanced in the considered  
347 stressful conditions that limit plant growth rather than carbon assimilation  
348 (Figure 4C-D). Concentration of **nitrogen** substrates vary between 0.1-1 %  
349 during the growing season (Figure 4E-F). It decreases in the first weeks of  
350 growth, but, in the case of very high/high fertilization, or very low/low wa-  
351 tering, it increases. In fact, for high fertilization, nitrogen is not initially  
352 consumed by plant growth which is limited by carbon supply and, for low  
353 watering, nitrogen concentration increases as plant growth is impaired while  
354 N assimilation is not. Defences concentration peak is delayed in time with  
355 fertilization and irrigation (Figure 4 G-H). **Aphid abundance** peaks at the  
356 mid of June when plant growth is maximum. Interestingly, when plant is well  
357 watered, the time of aphid peak is delayed in time. This is due to the fact  
358 that defensive compounds need more time to reach significant concentrations  
359 in bigger plants (Figure **4I-J**). The positive effect of fertilization and irriga-  
360 tion over aphid abundance becomes evident in the end of May, a couple of  
361 weeks after the beginning of simulations. Similarly, **aphid density** peaks in

362 the mid of June and is delayed for high levels of fertilization (or irrigation).  
363 On the other hand, in the first part of the season, aphid density is enhanced  
364 by a low/average value of fertilization (or irrigation) while later in the season  
365 aphid density is higher in a well fertilized (irrigated) plant (Figure 4K-L).

366 The results of our **virtual experiment** show that one could draw very  
367 different conclusions depending on *i*) the observed variable (i.e. total aphid  
368 abundance or aphid density), *ii*) the considered factor levels and *iii*) the time  
369 of observations. For instance, one could infer that **fertilization enhances**  
370 aphid populations by observing aphid abundances in the mid-late part of the  
371 season (Figure 5-C-E); **decreases** them, by observing aphid density in the  
372 mid season for average and high values of fertilization (Figure 6-C); **has no**  
373 **effect**, by observing aphid abundance early in the season, for low to very  
374 high values of fertilization (Figure 5-A). Similarly, different conclusions can  
375 be drawn regarding the effect of irrigation: positive (Figure 5-D-F), negative  
376 (Figure 6-B) or null (Figure 5-B).

## 377 Discussion

### 378 Model calibration and selection

379 Zust and Agrawal (2016) report that infested plants can put in place phloem-  
380 sealing mechanisms to interfere with aphids access to plant resources and  
381 produce a number of secondary metabolites (e.g. cardenolides, glucosinolates  
382 and benzoxazinoids) which, if ingested, impair aphid fecundity. Our results  
383 suggest that both **defensive mechanisms** are likely to act in the peach-

384 green aphid system. According to our model calibration the one impairing  
385 phloem accessibility is the most effective at low defence concentration, while  
386 the one impairing aphids fecundity is most effective at high defence concen-  
387 tration.

388 The model application to a real system subjected to different irrigation  $\times$  fertilization  
389 treatments indicates that parameters relevant to **plant nitrogen assimila-**  
390 **tion** ( $\sigma_N$ ) **and plant growth rate** ( $\kappa$ ), originally proposed within a  
391 theoretical framework (Thornley, 1972b,a) can be linked to agronomic prac-  
392 tices. Particularly, the former increases with fertilization and the latter with  
393 irrigation. Although the model on the whole fitted experimental data (Fig.  
394 3), it overestimated peach growth in the  $N^+H^-$  treatment and underesti-  
395 mated aphid abundance in the  $N^+H^+$  treatment. The **overestimate**, might  
396 be due to the fact that nitrogen uptake, even if the soil is rich in nitrogen, is  
397 impaired by low water availability (Le Deunff and Malagoli, 2014). If true, it  
398 means that the irrigation treatment should affect also the nitrogen assimila-  
399 tion rate  $\sigma_N$ , and not only the plant growth rate  $k$ , as we assumed. However,  
400 in absence of any quantitative evidence, we could not test this assumption.  
401 **Aphid underestimate** might be due to the fact that aphid feeding rate is  
402 increased in well irrigated plants (Hale et al., 2003) due to a facilitated acces-  
403 sibility to a less viscose sap (Sevanto, 2014). If quantitatively measured, such  
404 a mechanisms would translate in an higher parameter  $\theta_{max}$  in those treat-  
405 ments with higher irrigation. yet, also in this case, we had no data to test  
406 this hypothesis. The drop in aphids abundance simulated at the beginning  
407 of July can be linked to high defence concentration (Fig 4 G-H-I-J). This is  
408 in accordance with Kim and Jander (2007); Kim et al. (2008); Mewis et al.

409 (2005) works on *Arabidopsis-Myzus persicae* system, which report reductions  
410 of aphids fecundity, up to 100%, in response to high concentration of some  
411 plant defensive compound.

412 Finding **correct numerical values for parameters** of biological mod-  
413 els is virtually impossible because many parameters cannot be directly mea-  
414 sured. On the other hand, good fitting does not guarantee unique parameter  
415 estimation, due to possible correlations among the parameters (Li and Vu,  
416 2013) and model identifiability problems can arise due to an imbalance be-  
417 tween model complexity and available data (De Pauw et al., 2008). **Overpa-**  
418 **rameterized models** are characterized by the fact that the **information**  
419 **content of the measured data is too low** to provide accurate estimates  
420 for all model parameters. Our simulations indicate that predicted plant  
421 growth and aphid population peaks are particularly **sensitive** to uncertainty  
422 in the estimate of parameters  $q$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\pi_1$  **and**  $\delta_2$  (Fig. S1 in the Supplementary  
423 Information) (see the model description for details on the meaning of these  
424 parameters). The proposed modelling framework would therefore enormously  
425 benefit from experimental works dedicated to the measure, or at least the  
426 assessment, of these four parameters. Interestingly, despite the importance  
427 of the parameter  $q$  in Thornley's models, we found no studies on the assess-  
428 ment of this parameter. Similarly, although it is well known that a plant can  
429 divert resources from primary to secondary compounds (Herms and Mattson,  
430 1992), we found no quantitative relationships relevant to the cost of making  
431 defences, in terms of growth loss, neither between the presence of secondary  
432 compounds and pest performances. We believe that our work could inspire  
433 future field experiments which are necessary to confirm our findings, deny

434 them and/or address to new hypotheses adding mechanisms responsible to  
435 the system functioning.

## 436 **The role played by fertilization and irrigation**

437 Variations in plant growth, and in the concentration of C and N substrates in  
438 plant tissues, for different levels of fertilization and/or irrigation are well ac-  
439 knowledged, from seminal to most recent works (White, 1937; Jia and Gray,  
440 2004; Muller et al., 2011) and they have already been shown to be **emerg-**  
441 **ing properties** of the original model for plant growth used in this work  
442 (Thornley, 1972b,a). Our **pest-plant model** maintains these properties re-  
443 garding the plant component (fig. 4 A-B-C-D-E-F) and sheds some light on  
444 the variations observed in aphid population.

445 Such an issue has been mostly dealt with in empirical works not providing  
446 a straightforward picture. Some authors observed no effect of fertilization and  
447 a negative effect of irrigation on aphid populations in the wheat-*Diuraphis*  
448 *noxia* and in the cotton-*Aphis gossypii* systems, respectively (Archer et al.  
449 (1995) and Matis et al. (2008)). Others observed the highest aphid abun-  
450 dance at an average level of fertilization and no effect of irrigation, in the  
451 chrysanthemum-*Aphis gossypii* system (Bethke et al. (1998)). Hale et al.  
452 (2003) reported that, for three grass species, irrigation had a positive effect on  
453 the aphid intrinsic rate of increase. On the other hand, aphid population was  
454 observed to be maximum for moderate water stress in the systems cabbage-  
455 *Myzus persicae* and cabbage-*Brevicoryne brassicae* (Tariq et al., 2012), and  
456 in one out of three genotypes tested for the poplar-*Phloemomyzus passerinii*

457 system (Dardeau et al., 2015).

458 Our model, parametrized for the peach-green aphid system, shows that  
459 all these apparently contrasting empirical evidences can emerge from the  
460 same biological principles governing plant-pest dynamics and that both plant  
461 vigour and plant stress hypotheses can find support when observing a plant-  
462 pest system evolving in time and subject to different changes in environment  
463 conditions. The aphid population dynamics reproduced by our model (Fig.  
464 5-6) indicate that the **effect of fertilization and irrigation on the pest**  
465 **population cannot be simply reduced as "positive" or "negative"**.

466 In fact, its sign and strength depends on the considered levels of fertil-  
467 ization/irrigation, the date of observation along the growing season and the  
468 observed variables.

## 469 Conclusions

470 In this work we demonstrated that embedding a mechanistic plant growth  
471 model, widely acknowledged in agronomy, in a consumer-resource modelling  
472 framework, widely studied in ecology is a promising approach for agroecol-  
473 ogy. We used this novel approach to study the consequences of irrigation  
474 and fertilization treatments in the peach-green aphid system. Yet, the pro-  
475 posed model has the ambition of being physiologically rigorous and general  
476 enough to be applied to **different plant-pest systems** and to incorporate  
477 the description of other **agronomic practices**.

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669 **FIGURES**

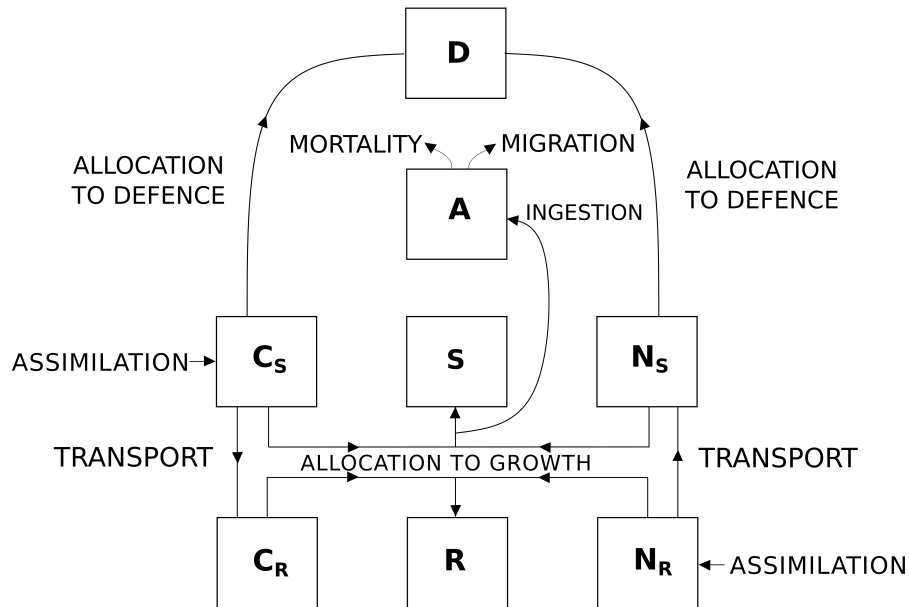


Figure 1: Schematic representation of the plant-aphid model where the plant is constituted by shoot ( $S$ ) and root ( $R$ ) structural dry mass, carbon ( $C_i$ ) and nitrogen ( $N_i$ ) substrates in shoots ( $i=S$ ) and roots ( $i=R$ ). The aphid population ( $A$ ) intercepts a fraction of substrates allocated to constitute shoot structural mass and the plant diverts shoot substrates (carbon and nitrogen) to produce defences compounds ( $D$ ). More details are given in the main text.



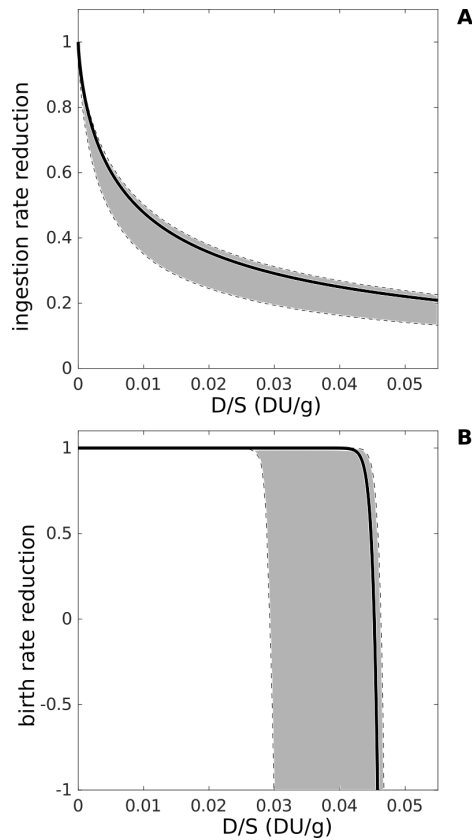


Figure 2: Regulation of the aphid ingestion rate (A) as a function of concentration of defensive compounds and its 90% C.I. due to the uncertainty in the estimate of parameters  $\pi_1$  and  $\delta_1$ . Regulation of the aphid conversion rate (B) as a function of concentration of defensive compounds and its 90% C.I. due to the uncertainty in the estimate of parameters  $\delta_2$  and  $\pi_2$ .

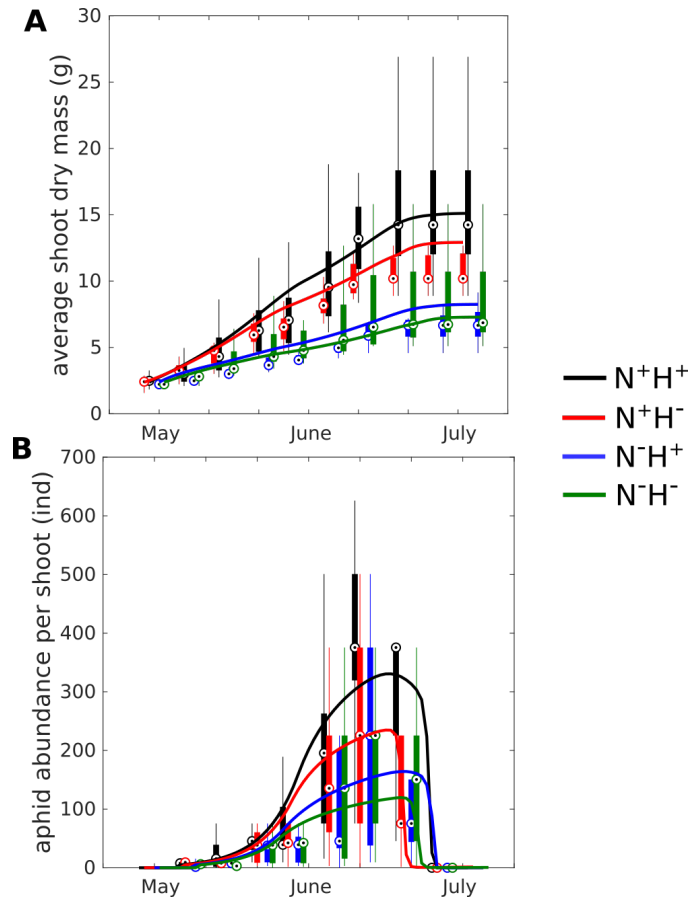


Figure 3: Temporal dynamics of A) average shoot dry mass and B) average aphid abundance per shoot. Circles and bars represent the median and the 50% CI of observed values, whiskers extend to the most extreme data points and continuous lines represent the simulated values. Colours (for both bars and lines) identify a treatment scenario (see legend)

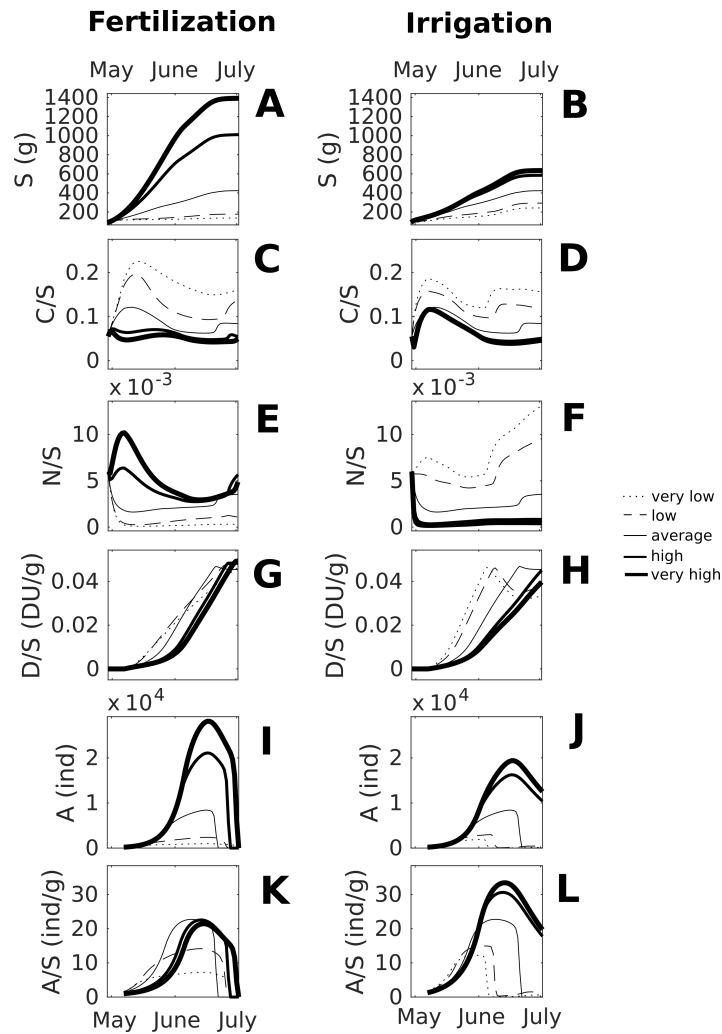


Figure 4: Simulated effect of fertilization (A-C-E-G-I-K) and irrigation (B-D-F-H-J-L) on the plant-aphid system: average shoot dry mass (A-B), carbon (C-D) and nitrogen (E-F) substrate concentration in shoots, defence (G-H) concentration in shoot, aphid abundance (I-J) and density (K-L). Lines style identify fertilization or irrigation level (see legend).

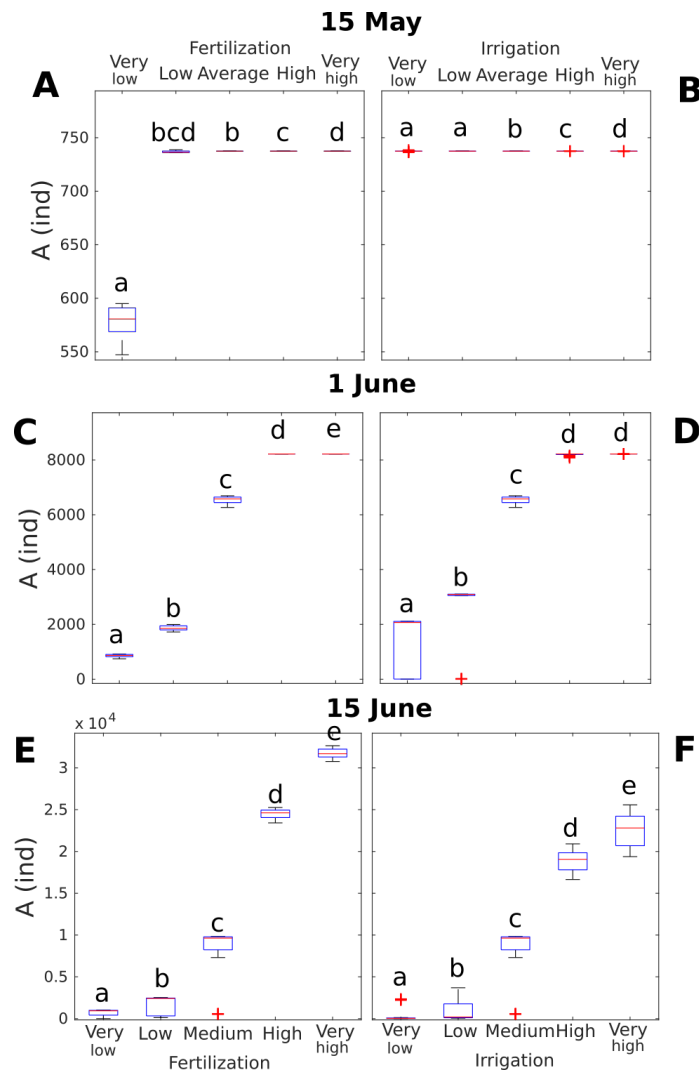


Figure 5: Simulated effect of fertilization (A-C-E) and irrigation (B-D-F) on aphids abundance on 15 May, 1 June and 15 June. Box represents the medians, lower and upper quartiles [25% and 75%] of 20 "virtual" replicates of each fertilization/irrigation treatments, whiskers extend to the most extreme values and outliers are plotted individually using the '+' symbol. Treatments with different letters are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ). For fertilization,  $\sigma_N = 0.0014, 0.003, 0.014, 0.07, 0.14$ . For irrigation,  $\kappa = 21, 41, 205, 1025, 2050$

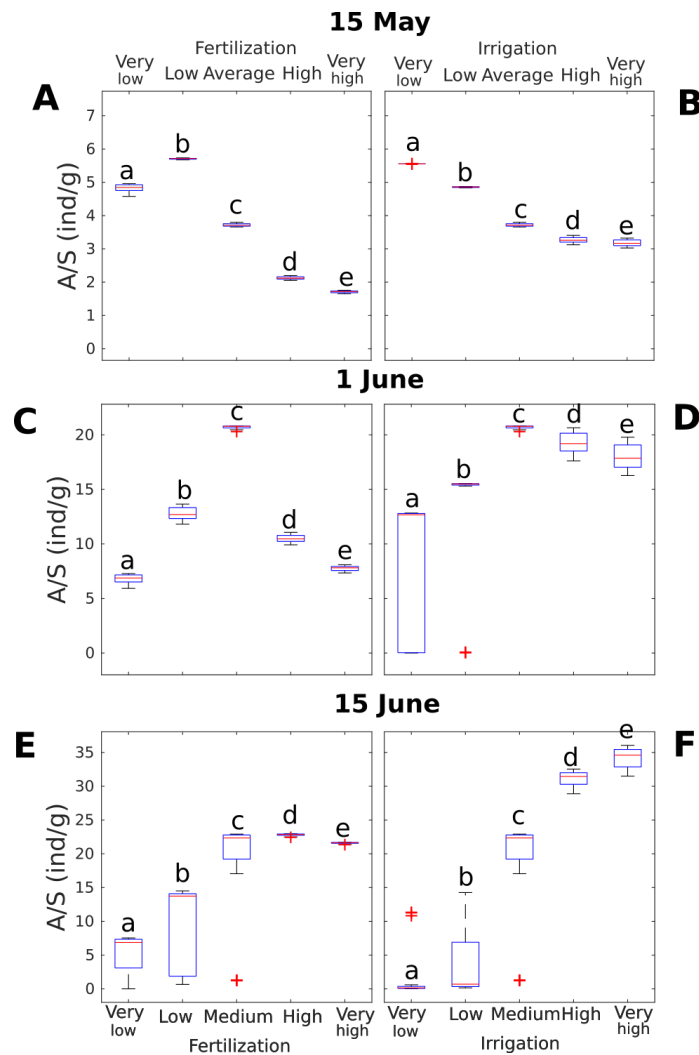


Figure 6: Simulated effect of fertilization (A-C-E) and irrigation (B-D-F) on aphids abundance on 15 May, 1 June and 15 June. Box represents the medians, lower and upper quartiles [25% and 75%] of 10 "virtual" replicates of each fertilization/irrigation treatments, whiskers extend to the most extreme values and outliers are plotted individually using the '+' symbol. Treatments with different letters are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ). For fertilization,  $\sigma_N = 0.0014, 0.003, 0.014, 0.07, 0.14$ . For irrigation,  $\kappa = 21, 41, 205, 1025, 2050$



Figure 7: Empirical probability distributions and correlations of parameters

$\sigma_N^+$ ,  $\sigma_N^-$ ,  $\kappa^+$ ,  $\kappa^-$ ,  $q$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\pi_1$ ,  $\delta_1$ ,  $\delta_2$ ,  $\pi_2$ .

## 670 Tables

Table 1: Model variables and parameters descriptions, values and sources. Variables initial values are reported in the Supplementary Information (SI.3). For those parameters calibrated in the present work, values are reported (in bold), along with a confidence interval of 90% (in brackets).

Variable	Dim.	Description	Source <sup>a</sup>
S	g	Shoot structural dry mass	(1)
R	g	Root structural dry mass	(1)
$C_S$	g	Shoot carbon substrate	(1)
$C_R$	g	Root carbon substrate	(1)
$N_S$	g	Shoot nitrogen substrate	(1)
$N_R$	g	Root nitrogen substrate	(1)
$D$	DU	Plant induced defence	(1)
$A$	ind	Aphid population	(1)
Parameter	Value	Description	Source <sup>a</sup>
C and N assimilation			
$\sigma_C$	0.1	Net C assimilation rate	(1)
$\sigma_N$	<b>0.007 - 0.02</b> [0.005-0.013] [0.014-0.03] <sup>b</sup>	Net N assimilation rate	(6)
$\nu$	1000	Self shading semi-saturation value	(1)
$\iota_C$	0.1	Photosynthesis product inhibition semi-saturation value	(1)
$\iota_N$	0.01	N assimilation product inhibition semi-saturation value	(1)
C and N allocation			
$\varphi_C$	0.5	Fraction of structural C in structural dry matter	(1)
$\varphi_N$	0.025	Fraction of structural N in structural dry matter	(1)
$\kappa$	<b>1.42 - 268</b> [88-241] [162-474] <sup>c</sup>	Allocation of substrates to plant growth	(6)
$\eta$	111	Allocation of substrates to plant growth sensitivity to time	(6)
$\lambda$	165.5	Time of equal allocation to growth and reserves	(6)
Transport			
$q$	<b>0.79</b> [0.78-0.86]	Plant architecture scaling parameter	(7)
defenses			
$\epsilon_C$	5 $10^{-2}$	Conversion efficiency of C substrate in defenses	(2)
$\epsilon_N$	1	Conversion efficiency of N substrate in defenses	(2)
$\alpha$	<b>1.7 <math>10^{-2}</math></b> [1.1-1.7] $10^{-2}$	Allocation of substrates to defences per unit of aphid	(6)
Aphid			
$\Theta_{max}$	1.12 $10^{-3}$	Maximum substrate uptake per unit of aphid	(3)
$\xi$	171	Maximum conversion efficiency of ingested substrates into descendants	(4)
$\pi_1$	<b>9.0 <math>10^{-3}</math></b> [4.4-10] $10^{-2}$	Midpoint of feeding defences concentration	(6)
$\delta_1$	<b>0.73</b> [0.71-0.76]	Sensitivity to feeding defences concentration	(6)
$\delta_2$	<b>22.6</b> [21.6-34.2]	Efficacy of reproduction defences concentration	(6)
$\pi_2$	<b>66.2</b> [38.6-105]	Sensitivity to reproduction defences concentration	(6)
$\mu$	0.04	Aphid mortality rate	(5)

<sup>a</sup>(1) Thornley (1998); (2) Schoonhoven et al. (2005); (3) Day and Irzykiewicz (1953); (4) Saguez et al. (2005); (5) Gange et al. (1999); (6) Calibrated in the present work.

<sup>b</sup>values refer to  $N = 2$  g/plant  $\sigma_N^-$  and  $N = 22.2$  g/plant  $\sigma_N^+$  supply, respectively.

<sup>c</sup>values refer to halved ( $\kappa^-$ ) and full ( $\kappa^+$ ) irrigation treatments, respectively.



Table 2: Comparison among candidate models for the plant-aphid system. Each model is based on different hypotheses about induced plant defences allocation ( $\alpha = 0$  if there is no induction to make defences,  $\alpha \neq 0$  otherwise); defences effects on aphid feeding ( $\delta_1 \neq 0$  if it is reduced,  $\delta_1 = 0$  if it is not affected) and reproduction rate ( $\delta_2 \neq 0$  if it is reduced,  $\delta_2 = 0$  if it is not affected); and dependence of model parameters to agronomic practices ( $\sigma_N$  varies between considered fertilization treatments or not;  $k$  varied between considered irrigation treatments or not). Model complexity is given by the number of calibrated parameters  $n_p$ ;  $L$  is the minimized value of the cost function;  $AIC$  is the Akaike score;  $\Delta_{AIC}$  is distance from the best model.

Model	def.alloc.	def. effect	migration	$\sigma_N$	$\kappa$	$n_p$	$L$	$AIC$	$\Delta_{AIC}$
M5d	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	12	3253	6529	0
M5dm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	13	3252	6531	2
M4d	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	10	3268	6556	26
M4dm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	11	3268	6557	28
M3dm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	11	3274	6571	41
M5cm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	12	3275	6574	45
M4c	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	9	3283	6584	55
M4cm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	10	3283	6587	57
M3d	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	10	3302	6625	95
M5c	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	11	3303	6628	98
M2dm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	9	3305	6628	99
M1dm	$\alpha = 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	8	3308	6632	103
M3c	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	9	3312	6641	112
M3cm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	10	3311	6642	113

Table 2: Comparison among candidate models for the plant-aphid system. Each model is based on different hypotheses about induced plant defences allocation ( $\alpha = 0$  if there is no induction to make defences,  $\alpha \neq 0$  otherwise); defences effects on aphid feeding ( $\delta_1 \neq 0$  if it is reduced,  $\delta_1 = 0$  if it is not affected) and reproduction rate ( $\delta_2 \neq 0$  if it is reduced,  $\delta_2 = 0$  if it is not affected); and dependence of model parameters to agronomic practices ( $\sigma_N$  varies between considered fertilization treatments or not;  $k$  varied between considered irrigation treatments or not). Model complexity is given by the number of calibrated parameters  $n_p$ ;  $L$  is the minimized value of the cost function;  $AIC$  is the Akaike score;  $\Delta_{AIC}$  is distance from the best model.

Model	def.alloc.	def. effect	migration	$\sigma_N$	$\kappa$	$n_p$	$L$	$AIC$	$\Delta_{AIC}$
M2cm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	8	3315	6646	117
M1cm	$\alpha = 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	7	3341	6696	167
M4bm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	10	3349	6718	189
M4b	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	9	3351	6719	190
M3bm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	10	3351	6722	192
M5bm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	12	3349	6722	193
M5b	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	11	3357	6735	206
M5a	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	10	3365	6751	222
M3am	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	9	3367	6752	222
M5am	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	11	3365	6753	223
M2d	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	8	3370	6756	227
M3b	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	9	3378	6773	244
M2c	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	7	3381	6775	246
M3a	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 \neq 0, \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	8	3385	6787	257

Table 2: Comparison among candidate models for the plant-aphid system. Each model is based on different hypotheses about induced plant defences allocation ( $\alpha = 0$  if there is no induction to make defences,  $\alpha \neq 0$  otherwise); defences effects on aphid feeding ( $\delta_1 \neq 0$  if it is reduced,  $\delta_1 = 0$  if it is not affected) and reproduction rate ( $\delta_2 \neq 0$  if it is reduced,  $\delta_2 = 0$  if it is not affected); and dependence of model parameters to agronomic practices ( $\sigma_N$  varies between considered fertilization treatments or not;  $k$  varied between considered irrigation treatments or not). Model complexity is given by the number of calibrated parameters  $n_p$ ;  $L$  is the minimized value of the cost function;  $AIC$  is the Akaike score;  $\Delta_{AIC}$  is distance from the best model.

Model	def.alloc.	def. effect	migration	$\sigma_N$	$\kappa$	$n_p$	$L$	$AIC$	$\Delta_{AIC}$
M4am	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	9	3388	6794	264
M1bm	$\alpha = 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	7	3390	6794	265
M2bm	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	8	3390	6796	266
M1am	$\alpha = 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	6	3393	6798	269
M2am	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega \neq 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	7	3393	6800	271
M4a	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = 0, \delta_2 \neq 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	8	3423	6863	333
M2b	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	7	3426	6865	336
M2a	$\alpha \neq 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	6	3430	6872	343
M1c	$\alpha = 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	6	3602	7216	687
M1d	$\alpha = 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ > \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	7	3607	7228	699
M1a	$\alpha = 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ = \kappa^-$	5	3616	7242	712
M1b	$\alpha = 0$	$\delta_1 = \delta_2 = 0$	$\omega = 0$	$\sigma_N^+ = \sigma_N^-$	$\kappa^+ > \kappa^-$	6	3625	7262	733