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1 **Advances in understanding and predicting the spread of invading insect populations**

2

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9

10

11 **Highlights**

12 Spread is a critical stage of the biological invasion process

13 Novel uses of data sources facilitate our ability to estimate spread rates

14 Advances in modeling aids in understanding the factors affecting spread dynamics

15 Understanding and predicting spread enhances decision-making in management

16

17 **Abstract**

18 Understanding and predicting the spread of invading insects is a critical challenge in
19 management programs that aim to minimize ecological and economic harm to native ecosystems.
20 Although efforts to quantify spread rates have been well studied over the past several decades,
21 opportunities to improve our ability to estimate rates of spread, and identify the factors, such as
22 habitat suitability and climate, that influence spread, remain. We review emerging sources of data
23 that can be used to delineate distributional boundaries through time and thus serve as a basis for
24 quantifying spread rates. We then address advances in modeling methods that facilitate our
25 understanding of factors that drive invasive insect spread. We conclude by highlighting some
26 remaining challenges in understanding and predicting invasive insect spread, such as the role of
27 climate change and biotic similarity between the native and introduced ranges, particularly as it
28 applies to decision-making in management programs.

29

30 **Introduction**

31 Spread: the process by which a species moves from one area to another. Animals have been
32 on the move for millennia, sometimes as part of migratory behavior, more often in search of food.
33 Insects, the first group of organisms to evolve flight capability more than 300 million years ago, have
34 been constantly on the move in search of resources to exploit. Owing to their small size and
35 persistence, they are also adept at hitchhiking on products moved by humans, a pathway at least as
36 old as the ancient Silk Route that linked Asia with Africa and Europe. Nowadays, with globally
37 connected economies and transportation networks, products are continuously moved around the
38 world, occasionally leading to the unwanted arrival of new species into new areas. This arrival stage,
39 as the first stage of the biological invasion process, is often the product of long distance,
40 anthropogenically-mediated spread. Upon establishment, species spread to new areas through both
41 short- and long-range movement, with the latter often human-assisted. Attempts to predict and
42 understand the spread of invading insects, from the mechanisms that facilitate arrival to the
43 processes that affect spread post-establishment, have a long history dating at least to the late 1800s
44 given the economic importance of invasive insects as agricultural pests. In this review, we examine
45 recent methods in understanding and predicting invasive insect spread. We first focus on data
46 sources that can be used to quantify spread rates. We then discuss advances in modeling methods
47 that enhance understanding of the factors mediating and affecting invasive insect spread. We
48 conclude by highlighting the importance of understanding invasive insect spread in the development
49 of management programs, and the effect that climate change could have on spread dynamics.

50

51 **Data sources to estimate invasive insect spread**

52 The spread of any invading organism is defined by the spatial displacement in its distribution
53 through time. Thus, any attempt to quantify spread requires knowledge of where an organism is over

54 at least two time periods. Earlier methods to quantify spread relied on crude approximations of
55 spatial boundaries, and whatever methods were available to detect the organism [1]. The
56 identification and synthesis of species-specific semiochemicals facilitated the development of more
57 sensitive insect trapping devices that more precisely defined spatial boundaries. Methods to use
58 space-time data to estimate spread rates have been refined over the years, from linear regression
59 techniques to spatially-explicit approaches that can account for anisotropic spread [2]. Regardless of
60 the method to estimate spread, distributional data collected through time is still required. In this
61 section, we highlight the use of Digital Earth data, citizen-science collected data, and genetic data
62 derived useful in estimating distributional ranges for quantifying spread rates (Fig. 1).

63

64 *Digital Earth Data*

65 Digital Earth data have increased dramatically over the past several years, facilitating many
66 avenues of research [3]. An early use of such data to estimate insect presence was reported by
67 Rousselet et al. [4], who used Google Street View to map the distribution of pine processionary,
68 *Thaumetopoea pityocampa* (Denis & Schiffermüller). Using drone technology to assess insect presence
69 or damage levels to guide pest management decisions [5] could also be useful in estimating the
70 space-time distributions needed to quantify spread. Remote-sensed data in ecological applications is
71 now several decades old, but there are still opportunities to apply this technology for smaller
72 organisms such as insects [6*]. For example, Park et al. [7] used a drone equipped with a
73 multispectral camera to detect trees suspected to be infected with pine wilt disease, which is caused
74 by a nematode vectored by *Monochamus* species. Due to the labor and resources required to monitor
75 an invading species across a landscape using trapping devices, Digital Earth Data could facilitate
76 efforts to delineate spatial boundaries through time needed to estimate spread. However, limitations
77 in microclimatic data, which are particularly important in affecting poikilothermic organisms, could

78 affect the ability to estimate changes in spatial distributions through time [8]. For example,
79 phenological predictions of the occurrence of life stages, some of which could be the stage sampled
80 in invasive insect management programs (i.e., pheromone-baited traps aimed at detecting adults),
81 might be over- or underestimated if broad-scale weather data do not sufficiently account for
82 microclimatic variation.

83

84 *Citizen-scientist collected data*

85 Many invasive insects have been first reported by the public. In fact, in a study of insect
86 eradication outcomes, programs that were initiated following passive detection methods (e.g., public
87 vigilance), were more successful than those that relied on host or habitat searches by management
88 agencies [9]. The widespread adoption of cellular phones over the past two decades has undoubtedly
89 facilitated the collection of space-time data from citizens, such as the use of Smartphone apps to
90 identify invasive species and provide the data needed to estimate spread [10*]. Not surprisingly,
91 citizen-scientist collected data has been used to monitor the spread of invasive insects [11] and can
92 be combined with climatic models to project invasive insect spread [12]. However, the potential for
93 misidentification, especially true for a group as speciose as insects, remains a challenge [13].

94

95 *Genetic techniques*

96 The use of genetic techniques, such as DNA barcoding [14], in invasive species monitoring
97 programs has greatly increased over the past several years. Biosurveillance based on genetic
98 techniques can be used to monitor all stages of the biological invasion process, including species
99 origins and spread [15]. DNA metabarcoding techniques can be used in multi-species identification
100 from specimens collected, for example, from trapping devices [16], which can provide insight into
101 the arrival stage and hence, the product of initial spread from a native area. The invasion history of

102 an organism may also be ascertained using genetic approaches. For example, Bras et al. [17] used the
103 genetic architecture of box tree moth, *Cydalima perspectalis* (Walker), in its native and invaded range to
104 ascertain primary and secondary introduction events. Ortego et al. [18] used genetic tools to
105 ascertain introduction frequency and spread of the North American boatman, *Trichocorixa verticalis*
106 (Fieber). Lastly, an emerging tool in invasive species detection is the use of environmental DNA
107 (eDNA) in which genetic material deposited by an organism is analyzed to ascertain presence, such
108 as from soil or plant samples [19**]. Although eDNA is useful for detection in space, it currently
109 lacks a precise temporal signature needed to estimate spread.

110

111 **Modeling invasive insect spread**

112 Insect spread is the result of interactions among various mechanisms, most importantly
113 population growth and dispersal [20]. Species with high dispersal capabilities but reduced growth
114 rates might be diluted in space and may not readily establish, while species with rapid growth but
115 low dispersal capabilities might spread slowly. Furthermore, waiting times between arrival and
116 establishment can be affected by environmental and anthropogenic variables [21]. Modeling each
117 mechanism individually (dispersal and growth), and describing spread at an integrated level, furthers
118 our understanding of the factors that affect the spread of invading species (Fig. 1). Here we review
119 recent innovative approaches to understanding population growth, dispersal, and integrated spread.

120

121 *Population growth*

122 Population growth factors, such as survivorship and reproductive rates, can provide a
123 potential indication of the spread of an invading species, regardless of dispersal capability. Among
124 insects, temperature and host availability are often the main drivers affecting population growth.
125 Insect phenological models describing the development rate of life-stages as a function of

126 temperatures can assess where a species could potentially establish [22]. Ecophysiological models
127 using spatially explicit growth rates and estimates of habitat suitability can also predict potential
128 distributions [23], as can models that use other environmental factors such as humidity [24]. Species
129 distribution models, which consider the correlation between bioclimatic variables and species
130 occurrence, can be populated with data, including with data collected through citizen science efforts
131 [12], to build niche models, and refined to consider habitat data from the native and invaded areas
132 [25], or microclimates in urban versus non-urban areas [26]. Combining evolutionary dynamics with
133 environmental data can substantially refine predictions from niche models [27*]; indeed, Gougherty
134 and Davies [28*] highlighted the importance of host tree phylogenetic diversity on the geographic
135 extent of non-native insects.

136

137 *Dispersal*

138 The spread of invasive insects often proceeds through stratified dispersal, which combines
139 short and long distance dispersal. Short distance dispersal is usually related to species dispersal
140 capabilities, while long-distance dispersal is more often associated with human-mediated dispersal.
141 Dispersal kernels are commonly used to quantify species movement, with various techniques, such
142 as mark-release-recapture, used to calibrate them. More recently, flight mill data [29] was used to
143 parameterize a model to estimate dispersal of the pine wood nematode vector, *Monochamus*
144 *galloprovincialis* (Olivier), in forest ecosystems. Genome-wide SNP markers have been used to infer
145 dispersal by analyzing colonization dynamics across an invaded range [30]. Other recent advances
146 include using least-cost path analysis to model dispersal trajectories in heterogeneous landscapes
147 [31], dynamic representations of landscape connectivity to better account for variation in dispersal
148 when the structure of habitats change over time [32], and using abiotic factors, such as temperature

149 and light conditions, to quantify flight probability [33], all of which can affect the diffusion
150 coefficient.

151 Long-distance movement of invading insects remains a challenge due to its stochasticity.
152 Efforts to consider long-distance movement include quantifying the role atmospheric-mediated
153 dispersal [34], and human-mediated dispersal such as the effects of spatial heterogeneity in human
154 population density at the source and destination [35]. Given the role of humans in moving invasive
155 species, attempts to understand long-distance movement continue to focus on trade [36] and
156 visitation networks [37] including the transportation of infested material [38]. Modeling spread
157 dynamics can also serve to test different dispersal scenarios and determine if spread is attributable to
158 human vectors [39].

159

160 *Integrated models*

161 Models that combine population growth given local bioclimatic conditions, innate dispersal
162 capabilities, and human-mediated movement hold promise for understanding invasive insect spread
163 [40]. However, given the complexity, relatively few models describe growth and dispersal
164 simultaneously [41**]. Combining components in an integrated model could be used to better
165 understand spread. For example, dispersal could be reduced to potential entry points (i.e., through
166 human-mediated dispersal) and combined with habitat suitability to assess invasion risk [42].
167 Considering phenology during the transportation stage along trade routes also informs the
168 probability of human-mediated long-distance movement [43]. Among herbivorous insects, it is
169 crucial to consider interactions between the insect and its host plant in terms of phylogeny [44] and
170 habitat connectivity [45]. Some models account for multiple interactions, such as the interactions
171 among the invading insect, its host plant, fire, and drought [46] or the interplay between insects and
172 fungal pathogens [47]. The effectiveness of control measures on spread can also improve

173 understanding of invasion dynamics; for example, Cacho and Hester [48] describe the dynamics
174 between an invading species and biological control agents to determine conditions needed for
175 biocontrol success.

176

177 **Remaining challenges**

178 Despite recent attempts to understand the effect of control measures on spread, more work
179 is needed in this area especially with regard to tactics that could be implemented in the near future.

180 Although insect phenology has been considered in efforts to predict the area of potential
181 establishment, its role in spread remains unclear. Furthermore, when considering climate change,
182 insect species could adapt either by shifting their seasonality to match changing thermal conditions,
183 dispersing to more favorable areas, or both [49*]. Phenology can also interact with spatial spread in
184 climate-driven range expansions [50]. Lastly, environmental resistance is an important factor in
185 spread that deserves greater attention, even though modeling species interactions to assess habitat
186 invasibility can be complex. Considering biotic similarity between species communities in the native
187 and invaded range could be useful in assessing environmental suitability [51*].

188

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192

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196

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350 This study proposed an alternative approach to predict the spread of non-native species by
351 considering the environmental resistance of the recipient region; although applied to global
352 avifauna, this study provides an important perspective for the spread of invading insects
353 species.

354

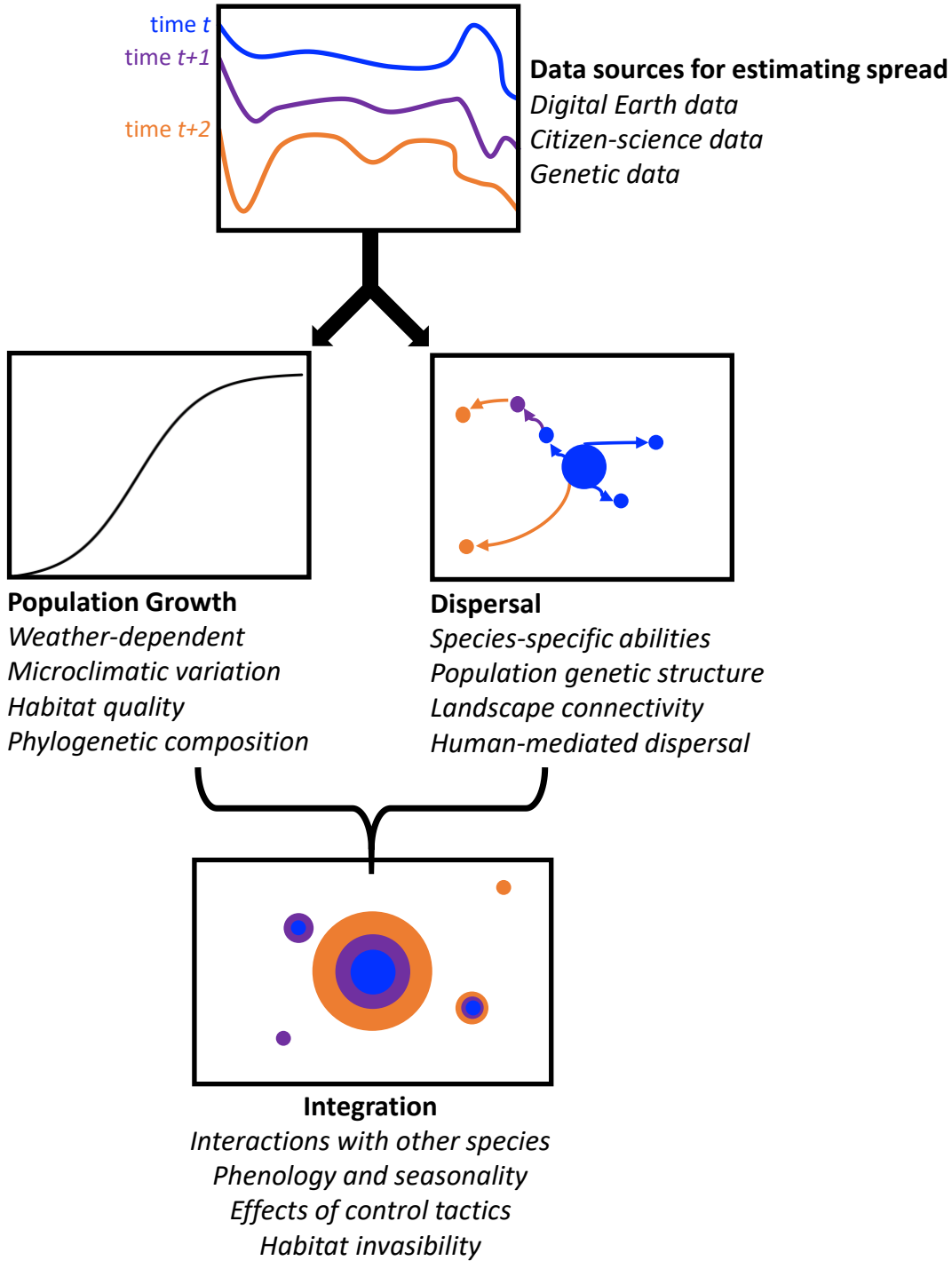
355 **Figure legend**

356

357 **Figure 1.** The spread of invasive insects involves quantifying the change in distributional ranges
358 through time, and innovative data sources can be used to delineate spatial boundaries. Spread itself is
359 largely a component of two processes: population growth and dispersal, each of which can be
360 considered separately and be affected by different factors, such as habitat quality for population
361 growth and landscape connectivity for dispersal. Models that integrate population growth and
362 dispersal provide an opportunity to better understand and predict spread.

363

364



365

366 **Figure 1**