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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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352 avifauna, this study provides an important perspective for the spread of invading insects  
353 species.

354

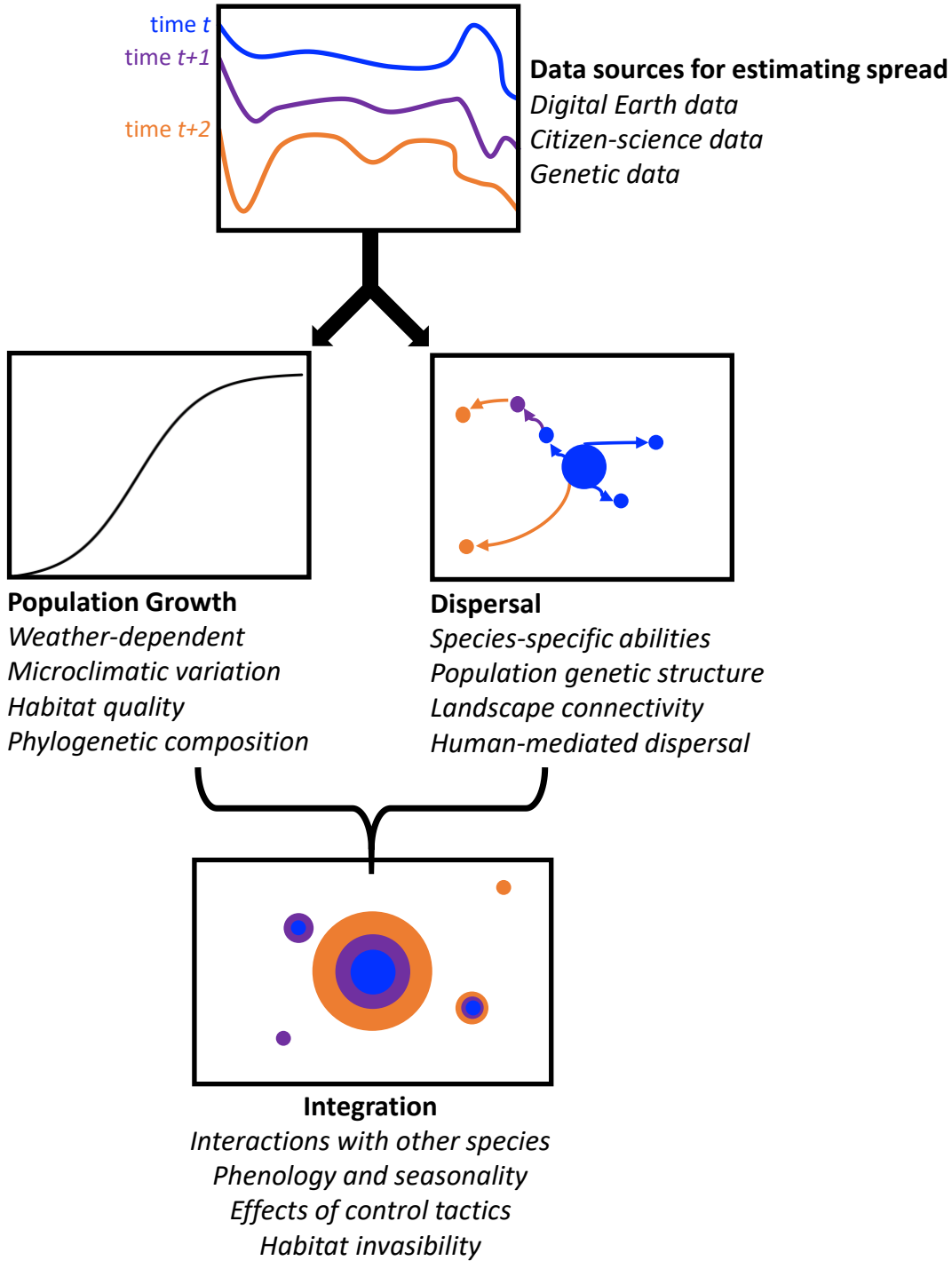
355 **Figure legend**

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.

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366 **Figure 1**