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Corresponding Author: Dr. Francisco Bonet,

Corresponding Author's Institution:

First Author: María Suárez-Muñoz

Order of Authors: María Suárez-Muñoz; Francisco Bonet; José A Hódar; Javier Herrero; Mihai Tanase; Lucía Torres-Muros



Professor Brian D. Fath, Ph.D. Editor-in-Chief, *Ecological Modelling*

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"INSTAR: an Agent-Based model linking climate and the biological cycle of forest pests in Mediterranean ecosystems." by María Suárez-Muñoz, Francisco Bonet-García, José A. Hódar, Javier Herrero, Mihai Tanase and Lucía Torres-Muros.

Dear Editor and Guest Editors,

Thank you for your letter of 18 February 2019, in which you include your and the reviewers' comments of our paper. We are thankful for the opportunity to resubmit our manuscript. We greatly appreciate the input received and the opportunity to address your concerns. We have carefully taken the comments into consideration in preparing our revision, which has resulted in a paper that is clearer, broader and more compelling. We provide our detailed responses to your and the reviewer's criticisms on the pages below, with explanations of the changes we made and their locations in the text.

Reviews provided many useful comments and suggestions. The major concern, shared by editor and reviewers was the ambition on the work. We were definitely too ambitious by referring to the long-term goal of our project instead of presenting current state of the model and its capabilities. As the revised text reflects, *INSTAR* is not a predictive model but rather an open product which allows to identify gaps in our knowledge and is flexible enough to incorporate new knowledge in the future. This point has been thoroughly incorporated into the text in order to portrait a realistic perspective of the model state. Specifically, model purpose (line 227 and followings) has been fully rewritten to adjust it to this idea and avoid giving incorrect expectations of the model potentials. Moreover, the experiments are now introduced as an initial consistency test, which corresponds better to what we aimed with these tests, as reviewer #2 pointed out. The conclusions section now highlights which type of information can be extracted from *INSTAR*, and which are the future steps to follow. Thus, we considered that the test is now better contextualised and readers will have a better perspective of the model capabilities. The other major concern was related to the model assumptions and parameter estimation as there still exist big gaps of knowledge regarding the species biology. We agree that the level of knowledge regarding *T. pityocampa* is rather low or imperfect. We are aware that a lot of the available information about the species is not optimal for modelling purposes, as it is poorly reported and could be outdated (such as data from Dèmolin). However, we considered that as this is the available information, we would rather use it to build a functioning model which contains several interlinked processes that not building the model at all. Therefore, some of the parameters are given estimated values based on this information, but would require further parameterisation in the future. That is why the idea of *INSTAR* as an open product has been thoroughly highlighted in the new version of the manuscript. With these changes, we would like to avoid the readers to extract the wrong impression of *INSTAR* being a ready-to-use model. By building this model, we precisely would like to provide a tool which helps to identify gaps of knowledge. This idea was not properly reflected in the previous version of this manuscript, we hope that it is clearer now.

Apart from focusing on each of the editors and reviewers' comments, the whole text has been revised and minor changes have been made to improve the writing, understanding and flow: programming language has been avoided, unnecessary comments have been deleted, and model purpose, abstract and conclusions have been completely rewritten in order to adjust to the new focus.

We are grateful by the effort and thought that the reviewers have put into this manuscript, which definitely made a great improvement to our manuscript.

We hope you will now find our revised text suitable for publication in *Ecological Modelling* within the special issue entitled "Modelling forest ecosystems".

Yours sincerely,

Francisco Bonet-García

Revision notes

Response to reviewer #2:

Comment 1:

This study is very ambitious since it aims at developing a model to describe the phenology of the pine processionary moth (PPM) and its spatial distribution at local scale. Due to the amount of data needed to parametrize such a model, a lot of parameters are "self-defined" or based on historical reports in the 1960s ignoring the current changes.

Since the aim of this study is to provide a support for decision making related to pest outbreaks, the model should rigorously describe the processes and it should be carefully parametrized. Unfortunately, a lot of data is still missing and it would be necessary to collect biological data first to be able to parametrize correctly this model then.

Answer 1:

- The high number of parameters is a common characteristic of ABM (Kelly et al., 2013, mentioned in the text in line 382). As pointed out by the review, a lot of parameters are based on historical reports. We agree that this may be a problem as they may ignore current changes. We also agree with the reviewer that some parameter estimates do not have the quality to provide a model which can be directly used for decision making. However, at this stage our aim here is to present a fully functioning model which simulates several interlinked and complex processes rather that a fully parameterised model. Moreover, the model structure allows an easy integration of new updated information as this becomes available, as referred in the text (lines 57, 389, 508-509). Besides, the lack of guality information has been highlighted in the conclusions to encourage further research (line 900 and followings). Nevertheless, parameters have been better contextualised and the reasons for parameter estimate values are better explained now (lines 391-398 and Table 2).
- The model purpose has been revised and it is now in sound with the current model state, which aims to deepen our knowledge regarding *T. pityocampa* rather than assisting decision-making as this objective is far ahead the current situation (line 227 and followings).

In addition to this main concern, I have several questions or comments:

Comment 2:

Why is it a model for forest pests in Mediterranean ecosystems? I mean: 1) on one side, what is the validity beyond the PPM? but also 2) on the other side, what does restrict the application to forest pest in Mediterranean ecosystems only? In fact, the model is applied only to a small study area in Spain (not clearly defined). It seems very difficult to have data for the PPM, so it seems

likely impossible for less-documented forest pests. The title does not match the study.

Answer 2:

- The title of the manuscript has been modified from "INSTAR: an Agent-Based model linking climate and the biological cycle of forest pests in Mediterranean ecosystems" to "INSTAR: An Agent-Based Model that integrates existing knowledge to simulate the biological cycle of a forest pest", which is more accurate.
- As pointed out, there is no restriction in the application to the Mediterranean ecosystems and therefore such references have been eliminated.
- Regarding the of the model validity beyond *T. pityocampa*, this aspect was highlighted several times in the previous version of this manuscript, while now it is only mentioned as a possibility, as it is not the main goal of the model. Nevertheless, "Model description" section has been revised for clarification (lines 492-496: "Moreover, it could constitute a framework to build models simulating other forest pests in a wide variety of ecological systems, since it summarises the key biological processes that take place in them. As an example, movement submodels could be adjusted to simulate the dispersal and establishment of mistletoe, another common pest in pine plantations, by following Mellado and Zamora (2016)").
- Besides this, explanation about the study area has been revised (line 631 and followings: "A virtual experimental area was created using a combination of real and built-in datasets..."), and the description figure has been improved (Appendix E).

Comment 3:

The authors claim to reproduce three patterns: phenology, spatial distribution and response to temperature. This presentation is quite strange since temperature can affect both species phenology and distribution, and thus response to temperature cannot be seen as a 3rd "pattern".

Answer 3:

• Indeed, naming it as a third pattern is not fully correct. Phenology and spatial distribution are now the two identified patterns, while the temperature experiment is presented as what it was meant to be, a stress test (lines 37, 41, 56, 616-617, 731, 894-895, among others).

Comment 4:

Explanation about different estimates are too vague. For instance, line 169: "hatching occur after a month under optimal conditions". What are these conditions? This is just an example among others.

Answer 4:

- It should be noted that section "Ecological background" aims to give an overview of the pest biology for those unfamiliar with this species, and not an exhaustive literature review. For an in-depth review we refer to Roques (2015) (lines 152-154: "A complete outline on the biology of *Thaumetopoea* species in general, and of *T. pityocampa* in particular, can be found in Roques (2015)"). Nevertheless, vague or undefined expressions have been reviewed, modified and referenced as much as possible (e.g. lines 179-181: "higher survival rates are observed for pine trees not affected by defoliation during previous years" (Hódar et al. 2004), lines 206-207: "The conditions inducing extended diapause are still uncertain (but see Salman et al. 2019)").
- "Model description" section has been reviewed as well, as explained in answer 1.

Comment 5:

Models describing phenology cannot be based on a given duration. Phenology is closely linked to temperature. The authors calculate a given time (days) above a threshold of development (based on historical data) (page 31 lines 546-559), but do not accumulate degrees. This is a very basic approach that could hardly capture the real life and ongoing changes with climate warming. Why not considering more classical and sophisticated phenological models?

Answer 5:

- The duration of the cycle is given a fixed length since T. pityocampa is known to keep a univoltine cycle by controlling its pupae phase in order to emerge when environmental conditions are appropriate (Berardi et al., 2015). Although, indeed, a classical phenology model based on degree accumulation would be the ideal solution, such knowledge is not (yet) available. Therefore, we opted for a simpler approach that, nevertheless, is able to capture the complex relationship between development and temperature. By setting minimum length for each phase (*Egg_{min}*, *L1_{min}*, $L2_{min}$) and the temperature thresholds controlling how these phases are lengthened (*T_{egg_devel}*, *T_{larvae_devel_high}*, *T_{larvae_devel_internal}*, *T_{larvae_devel_low}*), a minimum degree accumulation is implicitly considered for each phase (e.g. in order to complete the egg phase, a colony needs 30 days reaching temperatures above T_{egg_devel}). It is not, obviously, a strict degree accumulation model, since thresholds are contrasted with daily minimum and maximum temperatures. However, this approach has other advantages:
 - It is based on easily obtained available behaviour observations in the field, such as temperature at which larvae leave the nests to feed or temperatures at which they look for shelter (both high and low temperatures), while data for degree accumulation models are difficult to obtain and sensitive to experimental conditions;
 - It can be calibrated for each study area, as we present in sections 4.1.1 and 4.2.1, as populations are expected to be adapted to local conditions;

 It requires less detailed input data (minimum and maximum daily temperature versus degree accumulation), decreasing significantly the computing power required to execute the model. Nevertheless, the architecture of the model does not impede, but rather it is open to incorporate this kind of calculations if data and functions become available and computing power is enough.

Comment 6:

Pinus spp is important for the PPM phenology and the pest density (PPM develops faster on some *Pinus* species; and PPM has preferred host trees although it may attack less preferred species when PPM level is high). The authors only refer to the pine species (*Pinus halepensis*) on line 430 regarding another study. The authors should mention on which *Pinus* their model is applied. It is all the more important that the model is dedicated to be used for decision making in pine plantations.

Answer 6:

INSTAR refers to *Pinus* spp. regarding the carrying capacity (*cc*) of the hosts and the cohort division of needles (QI_{threshold}). The carrying capacity is calculated based on data for *P. halepensis*, as explained in section 3.3.1, and it could be adapted if the model is executed on other pine species (lines 429-430: "This is the most important model assumption regarding *Pinus* species, and therefore in this study INSTAR is considered to apply on *P. halepensis* stands (see section 4.1). Nevertheless, the model could be applied to other pine stands, provided a carrying capacity equation for the corresponding species"). This is the most important model assumption regarding pine species. Besides this, the parameter **QI**_{threshold} is taken from Muukkonen (2005), based on data from P. sylvestris. Although ideally data from P. halepensis would be used, in the lack of data for *P. halepensis* we decided that it was better to use the data from Muukkonen instead of establishing an arbitrary threshold. In any case, as it has been highlighted through the text and mentioned above, the model has been designed to incorporate information and therefore allow the simulation of different Pinus sp., provided there is available information (lines 57, 389, 431-432, 508-509).

Comment 7:

Some figures are very difficult to read and/or understand (less realistic but more informative figures would be better). Improving the figures and the explanations in the legends is necessary. Besides, the names of the parameters look like names used in programming but not in mathematical modeling nor scientific articles.

Answer 7:

- Figures 1 and 2 and their corresponding legends have been modified in order to improve their readability.
- Parameter names, as well as state variables names, have been modified (see tables 1 and 2). Moreover, text has been fully revised and programming expressions has been rewritten for a more natural reading.

Comment 8:

Some information is also missing in the appendices. For instance, "procession distance": line 60-61, it would be good to provide the value of the average and maximum displacement. Line 117, where do the values (direction coefficients) come from? And so on...

Answer 8:

• Certainly, it would be good to provide the value of the average and maximum displacement, but we do not provide because in the reference (Robredo 1963) these data are not available. This is a common situation when working on *T. pityocampa*: a lot of classic papers give the impression that everything is known about the species, while the reality is that the level of knowledge is rather low or imperfect. This is also one of the reasons why we built the model in such a way that works even with rather deficient or incomplete data while it still allows identifying these knowledge gaps and incorporating new knowledge as this becomes available. Similar reasons apply to the moths' preference for oviposition on different tree orientations. Corresponding sections in Appendix A and B have been modified for clarification.

Comment 9:

The authors explore climate change considering $\pm 10^{\circ}$ C (page 38 lines 707-720), which is clearly unrealistic. IPCC scenarios predict a warming of 0.3 to 4.8°C by the end of the century, and a warming of +1.5°C could already have large effects on forest ecosystems following a recent report of IPCC (2018). Why considering so strong changes?

Answer 9:

• This experiment is not meant to be a climate scenario to observe what would happen under the expected climate change, but rather a stress test. The importance of stress tests has been highlighted through the text (lines 624-626: "Stress tests often help to identify errors in the model that would not be noted under normal conditions and therefore extreme unrealistic inputs are used in these tests (Railsback and Grimm 2011)"), the name of this section has been modified and more explanation has been included in the revised version of the text to avoid confusion (lines 732-733: "By exposing the model to extreme climate, we aim to test the model consistency in relation to temperature influence in development. [...], extreme unrealistic inputs are used in these tests in order to observe divergent behaviours in the model.").

Response to reviewer #5:

Comment 10:

This work is a magnificent example of how to mobilize relevant, ecological sound information into a modelling framework that allows to gain significant insight into the study object at question (in this case, the Processionary moth). The authors have made an enormous effort to synthesize and use available data and evidence about this forest pest and show their far-reaching knowledge of its dynamics and ecology. This is definitely a must and a pioneer study that should make its way to the public.

My main concern is actually related to the ambition of the work. The model is justified but to my opinion too ambitious, specially in some practical aspects. Although built with elegance, the different elements included in the model may lead to huge amounts of uncertainty that it will not be easy to quantify or assess. There is also a kind of divide between the model introduction and description and the actual test conducted. It looks to me that the ambition of the model (its scope and submodules) is actually much bigger than the actual test conducted over a very small spatial scale).

My suggestion is that the authors should better describe their approach and either they restrict the description of the model to the level of detail over it was tested or that this current mismatch is better explained.

Answer 10:

- Thank you very much for your nice words about our model. Indeed, we have made a big effort to integrate and mobilize the available information about *T. pityocampa*.
- As the review points out, our work showed a great ambition, which we have tried to reduce in the current version of the manuscript. This definitely came from a wrong explanation about the model capabilities and the misunderstanding between our long-term project goal and the current model state. In our opinion, one of the main interests of building such models is that it improves our understanding of the processes that result in a system behaving the way it does. This idea was not clearly stated before, but it has been underlined now. Thus, the importance of the model in deepening our knowledge regarding this species has been highlighted against the predictive objective, which does not apply at the current model stage. The model purpose has been specially revised and it is now in sound with the current state (line 227 and followings: "The overarching purpose of *INSTAR* is to generate a deeper understanding of the population dynamics of *T. pityocampa...*").
- Moreover, the experiments are now presented highlighting the fact that they constitute an initial consistency test, which will definitely require further work (lines 38-41, 45-47, 143-147, 603, 882-883). We hope that our approach is clearer now and expresses the model state and capabilities in a realistic way.

• Regarding model uncertainty, we agree with the review that *INSTAR* contains a high level of uncertainty which needs to be addressed. As Kelly et al. (2013) highlight, "it is still very difficult to address uncertainty in most ABMs and their simulation outputs". Nevertheless, it is possible and therefore we highlight this in our text as future analysis (lines 919-920).

Comment 11:

Second, the applicability of the model should be much better communicated and contextualized (there is no even an explicit discussion section now in the manuscript), because the predictive ability of the model is likely to be low for common practices (i.e. pest control) unless lots of contextual information, parametrization and initialization information is actually available and known with a level of detail unlikely for this study model (I think here the example of fire spread models and decision making may be good to mention).

Answer 11:

 We agree with this point and we have revised the text accordingly. We still have not included a discussion section as the manuscript is already relatively long, but rather we have reworked the conclusions section to make it more explicit and highlight the potential of the model (i.e. knowledge gaps identification). Moreover, the predictive aspect of the model has been discarded as, as the review pointed out, at the moment the predictive ability of the model is very low.

Comment 12:

Finally, the study claims that to generate a model which can be used in decision-making, it has to be able to reproduce high level patterns observed in the real system. However, I am not sure (or I do not understand) how the authors achieve this goal. It is not clear when they use real data (i.e. phenology) to validate some patterns emerging from the model, when the paper aims at calibration of the parameters to achieve sound values and when experiments are run as a kind of sensitivity analyses to get a sense of the potential of the model capabilities. Current, the results part reads more like a general consistency test of the submodules assemblage than a real model application. I think the authors should be more explicit about this and frame it in the context of either decision-making applications or further exploration of the pest dynamics to generate hypothesis about their dynamics that may be later tested in the field... and these two objectives are very different.

Answer 12:

- At this stage, the model helps us to explore pest dynamics, indeed, while it is our hope that it will have decision-making applications in the future. This idea is translated in the text as mentioned in answer 10 (lines 227 and followings), as well as in the conclusions section.
- Results are now presented as a consistency test of different submodels (Section 4 "Model consistency test", line 603).

• Table 3 has been included, as well as explanation through the text (lines 658-662) in order to clarify which data have been used for phenology calibration. Moreover, "Input data" and "Details" sections have been revised.

Minor comments:

Comment 13:

Why authors target pupae spatial distribution and not nest distribution in space (which is probably more likely to be detailed information obtained from the field)?

Answer 13:

The purpose of this experiment is to conduct a robustness analysis of the procession submodel, rather than a validation based on field observations, as we could do with nests observations. With this experiment, we aimed to answer the question: Is the submodel robust? In other words, if we deconstruct the submodel by neglecting its most important assumption (i.e. selection of burial spots based on minimum pine density), do we get the expected pattern? Nevertheless, a robustness analysis of the oviposition submodel could also be conducted. But, as this movement submodel is applied just after mating, which also implies movement, deconstruction of this submodel is not as direct and a validation based on observations would be more appropriate. The aim of the manuscript is to present the model and the initial testing performed and therefore no validation experiments have been conducted yet.

Comment 14:

Line 820. Extreme climate scenarios. This section is a good example of the mixture of calibration, validation, sensitivity analyses and future test evaluation (this section) in the paper. I think that the model is extremely powerful, but the different stages of model preparation and use should be better conveyed to the reader.

Answer 14:

 Indeed, it was not well explained. The name of the experiment has been modified and lines 732-735 ("By exposing the model to extreme climate, we aim to test the model consistency in relation to temperature influence in development. [...], extreme unrealistic inputs are used in these tests in order to observe divergent behaviours in the model") have been added for clarification. We hope that now it is clear that the purpose of this experiment was just a stress test to check that the population collapses under unrealistic extreme temperatures, as it is expected.



Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Jan Feb Mar Apr May

Highlights

- Agent-Based Models are a useful approach to simulate forest pests' dynamics
- *INSTAR* simulates the biological cycle of *Thaumetopoea pityocampa* in pine plantations
- Key patterns are reproduced: phenology and spatial distribution
- *INSTAR* has been designed to easily incorporate new information about the pest biology
- *INSTAR* has been designed in a modular way to allow an easy upgrade and reusability

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knowledge to simulate the biological cycle of a forest 2

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- 4 Suárez-Muñoz, María (1); Bonet-García, Francisco (2); Hódar, José A. (3); Herrero, Javier (4);
- 5 Tanase, Mihai (5); Torres-Muros, Lucía (6);

Affiliations 6

- 7 (1) iecolab, Grupo de Ecología Terrestre, Andalusian Institute for Earth System Research 8 (IISTA), University of Granada, Spain
- 9 (2) iecolab, Grupo de Ecología Terrestre, Andalusian Institute for Earth System Research
- 0 (IISTA), University of Córdoba, Spain
- 1 (3) Facultad de Ciencias, Departamento de Ecología, University of Granada, Spain
- 2 (4) Fluvial Dynamics and Hydrology Research Group, Andalusian Institute for Earth System
- 3 Research (IISTA), University of Córdoba, Spain
- 4 (5) Department of Geology, Geography and Environment, University of Alcala, C. Colegios 2,
 - 5 Alcala de Henares 28801, Spain; Center for the Study of the Biosphere from Space,
 - 6 University of Paul Sabatier, 18 av. Edouard Belin, Toulouse 2801, France
- 7 (6) Universidad Nacional de Educación del Ecuador (UNAE, Chuquipata, Ecuador)

18 Corresponding author

Francisco Bonet-García (fjbonet@gmail.com). Departamento de Botánica, Ecología y Fisiología
Vegetal, Área de Ecología, Universidad de Córdoba, Edificio Celestino Mutis (C-4), 14014
Córdoba, Spain

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24 Abstract

Pine plantations, very common in the Mediterranean basin, are recurrently affected by forest pests due to intrinsic characteristics (high density, low spatial heterogeneity) and external factors (consistent trend towards a warmer and drier climate). *INSTAR* is an Agent-Based Model designed to generate a deeper understanding of the population dynamics of the *Thaumetopoea pityocampa* forest pest.

The model has been designed using a modular approach: several interconnected modules (submodels) facilitate the incorporation of new knowledge about the pest biology and can serve as template for the design of other similar models. The model is spatially and temporally explicit and allows its implementation under different climate and land use scenarios. *INSTAR* is described in detail in this manuscript using the standardized ODD (Overview, Design concepts, and details) protocol.

In order to be coherent and structurally realistic, *INSTAR* reproduces two important patterns:
the observed timing of the different life stages, and the spatial distribution of the pupae within

the landscape. These requirements have been assessed here through a consistency test of the model and its submodules. This assessment is constituted by a calibration analysis of the pest phenology and a robustness analysis of the processes involved in the spatial distribution of the pest. Besides this, a stress test was performed by exposing the model to extreme climate inputs. The model successfully reproduces the phenology of the species in the study area. Moreover, the spatial distribution of the pest concurs with the literature, showing a higher emergence of moths in unshaded areas. The stress test confirmed that the model behaves as expected when exposed to extreme input values. The experiments presented in this manuscript constitute a first internal validation of the model, which can now be fully calibrated and parameterised.

48 Key words

Thaumetopoea pityocampa; Agent-Based Model (ABM); forest pest; biological cycle; patternoriented; scenario

51 Graphical Abstract

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53 Highlights

- Agent-Based Models are a useful approach to simulate forest pests' dynamics
 - INSTAR simulates the biological cycle of Thaumetopoea pityocampa in pine plantations
 - Key patterns are reproduced: phenology and spatial distribution
 - INSTAR has been designed to easily incorporate new information about the pest biology
 - INSTAR has been designed in a modular way to allow an easy upgrade and reusability

59 1. Introduction

Pine plantations are very common in the Mediterranean basin, where they were used in the early decades of the 20th century as management tools to halt soil loss. In Spain alone, 2.5 million hectares were planted between 1940 and 1980 (Ministerio de Medio Ambiente 2002). Currently, their intrinsic characteristics (mainly low diversity and high stand density), together with external factors (i.e. climate change) cause pests to be a recurrent problem within these forests.

Forest pests receive great attention due to their relevance in ecosystems functioning and the economic impacts they cause on managed forests (see Wingfield et al. 2015). Numerous articles are published every year providing insights on species physiology, reporting outbreaks and first records of species and showing up-to-date occurrences (Higham et al. 2017, Valenta et al. 2017, Zanetti et al. 2017, Tanase et al. 2018). Researchers also highlight the potential impacts of forest pests under climate change scenarios, which are expected to be more acute in coniferous forests and the boreal biome (Seidl et al. 2017). In this regard, current knowledge confirms the lower resistance and thus higher vulnerability of single species forests to disturbances such as forest pests, among others (Fares et al. 2015).

The lack of integrative and synthetic knowledge makes it difficult to forecast pest behaviour under specific abiotic scenarios and landscape configurations. Although experiments are possible on a small scale (individuals, small areas), obvious restrictions exist when the goal is to understand the dynamics of large-scale systems, such as extensive plantations and/or long time periods. This situation reveals an important drawback when trying to design more effective and feasible management strategies that use up-to-date knowledge. Therefore, there is a need to generate tools that can help foresters to avoid or minimise pest damage and ensure sustainability among forests masses (Fares et al. 2015).

Modelling has demonstrated its usefulness when carrying out in silico experiments (Chowdhury and Stauffer 2005) and synthesising information from different scales, thus helping with acquiring more comprehensive and holistic knowledge. Our aim is to improve the general understanding of forest pest dynamics by studying specific cases, as suggested by Fares et al. (2015). Thus, our approach is to create a model which explicitly simulates the concatenated linkages between the abiotic configuration of the landscape (topography, climate, meteorology, etc.) and the performance of the ecosystem components (pine plantations and forest pests) in a global change scenario. The pine processionary moth (*Thaumetopoea pityocampa*) is especially suited for modelling purposes for several reasons:

i) The pine processionary moth lifecycle allows for simplification without neglecting crucial processes: its characteristic gregarious behaviour allows modelisation into groups of individuals that behave as fully functional units which constitutes an advantage in terms of computing power needs. Nevertheless, the lifecycle of this species is influenced by interacting abiotic and biotic factors, and therefore modelling such a complex system constitutes an interesting challenge. Winter climate and habitat (Démolin 1969a, Masutti and Battisti 1990, Hódar et al. 2002) are among the most important abiotic factors influencing these pest dynamics, while biotic factors such as parasitism or amount and quality of available pine biomass also play a key role in modulating T. pityocampa populations (Battisti 1988, Hódar et al. 2002, 2004, Charbonnier et al. 2014, Torres Muros 2015). The linkage between abiotic and biotic factors also presents an opportunity to couple climate and hydrologic models with ecological ones.

104 ii) The pine processionary moth lifecycle is representative of many forest pests: long
105 defoliating larval stage followed by pupation and short non-feeding moth stage (Dajoz
106 2000, Netherer and Schopf 2010, Barbosa et al. 2012), thus simulating its biological cycle
107 can serve as inspiration to model the behaviour of other forest pests. Similar to other
108 species, *T. pityocampa* is experiencing an expansion process fostered by the spread of the

above-mentioned pine plantations in which it feeds as well as climate change (Hódar and Zamora 2004, 2004, Battisti et al. 2005, Petrucco Toffolo et al. 2006, 2006). Modelling the biological cycle of this species can help in understanding the potential impact of global change on the functioning of pine plantations in the Mediterranean area. This is of high importance given the extent of such forests and since their potential growth decline due to the interaction between defoliation and drought stress (Linares et al. 2014, Sangüesa-Barreda et al. 2014). Besides, modelling the biological cycle of this species will also allow the study of the interaction between pests and land uses, therefore helping to improve management strategies in the long term (Régolini et al. 2014, Castagneyrol et al. 2014b).

118 iii) The pine processionary moth constitutes a forestry, ecological and public health problem
119 nowadays since affected trees reduce their growth and are more sensitive to other pests
120 (Markalas 1998, Kanat et al. 2005, Arnaldo et al. 2010, Jacquet et al. 2012). It also causes
121 stinging and allergic reactions to humans and animals due to its urticating hairs (Rebollo
122 et al. 2002, Vega et al. 2003, Battisti et al. 2017). Thus, simulating the population
123 dynamics of *T. pityocampa* could help manage its outbreaks to minimise health and
124 ecological impacts.

Some authors have modelled the distribution of *T. pityocampa* by means of equations-based models (Robinet et al. 2014) or statistical analysis (Seixas Arnaldo and Monteiro Torres 2005, Régolini et al. 2014). Most authors interested in this species highlight the importance of climate on the impact of the pest, and some have even attempted to model the effects of climate change on it (Robinet et al. 2007, 2014, Robinet et al. 2015, Seixas Arnaldo et al. 2011). However, no Agent-Based Model (ABM) model is available for *T. pityocampa*.

In this article, a spatial and temporally explicit ABM called *INSTAR* is presented. *INSTAR* has
been designed to provide a deeper understanding of the population dynamics of *T*. *pityocampa*. Specifically, it will help us to test whether our current knowledge on the species

 biology and individuals' behaviour explain the population dynamics patterns observed in selected forests. It has been conceived as an open product which allows the incorporation of new knowledge and further development. Once the model is fully calibrated and validated, simulations can be considered as in silico performed experiments that are not feasible in the real world. It will also allow us to forecast the probability of occurrence and intensity of the pest outbreaks on pine plantations under different climate and land use scenarios. Therefore, it will help improve planning and management activities on T. pityocampa outbreaks. This manuscript firstly provides an overview about the ecological background of the target species. The structure and functioning of INSTAR are then described in detail according to the ODD protocol ("Overview, Design concepts and Details") proposed by Grimm et al. (2010). Finally, we present a consistency test of the model and its submodules, constituted by a calibration analysis of the most important processes simulated in INSTAR, a robustness analysis of the processes involved in the spatial distribution of the pest and a stress test on the influence of extreme temperature on the model.

2. Ecological background of the species

T. pityocampa is present in the entire Mediterranean Basin, from North Africa to the South of Europe and from the Atlantic Coast to the western part of Turkey, and it is especially present in afforested areas. It is a univoltine oligophagous species feeding on *Pinus* sp., and more rarely on *Cedrus* sp. and planted *Pseudotsuga* sp. (Battisti et al. 2015). A complete outline on the biology of *Thaumetopoea* species in general, and of *T. pityocampa* in particular, can be found in Roques (2015). However, the detailed features of the *T. pityocampa* cycle widely vary between sites and between years.

The biological cycle of *T. pityocampa* is shown in **Figure 1B**. After mating, female moths lay between 150-350 eggs around pine needles or, more rarely, twigs. Eggs are exposed to predation and parasitism mainly caused by Ooencyrtus pitocampae and Baryscapus servadeii (Figure 1B). Parasites are temperature-limited, and therefore the parasitism rate shows an altitude gradient: the higher the altitude, the lower the parasitism rate (Torres Muros 2015). Hatching occurs in early summer in northern (and higher) locations and late summer in southern (lower) ones, thus avoiding high temperatures which are lethal for the larvae (Figure 1B) (Démolin 1969b, Seixas Arnaldo et al. 2011).

Larvae are mainly characterised by their gregarious behaviour. Just after hatching, larvae build silk nests, to protect against low temperatures and predators. Since T. pityocampa is a poikilothermic species, air temperature plays a key role during larval development (Démolin 1969b, Huchon and Demolin 1970, Robinet et al. 2007, Hoch et al. 2009), as well as in later stages. Moderately high temperatures (below 30 ºC according to Démolin (1969b)) accelerate larval growth, while cold temperatures delay development and can cause mortality due to freezing or starvation. Thus, T. pityocampa has a higher affinity for trees situated at the edge of the stands or around clear areas, since nests there receive more light and therefore are in a more advantageous situation in terms of temperature (Démolin 1969b). Moreover, larvae colonies can move within the tree to find the most exposed areas of the pines at each moment (Démolin 1969b, Hoch et al. 2009, Pimentel et al. 2011). Normally, larvae feed during the night and digest during the day inside their nests. In contrast to other defoliator species, the larval phase of *T. pityocampa* takes place during winter. Therefore, increasing temperatures due to climate change are expected to favour this species (Netherer and Schopf 2010).

Larval development requires five larval stages or "instars" (Figure 1B). Growth and survival of early development stages depend on food quality (Hódar et al. 2002) and higher survival rates are observed for pine trees not affected by defoliation during previous years (Hódar et al. 2004). On the other hand, late stages are more limited by the amount of food available

(Démolin 1969b, Huchon and Demolin 1970, Hódar et al. 2002, Robinet et al. 2007, Hoch et al. 2009). Full larval development cannot last less than 4 months under optimal conditions. For all stages, it is reported that optimal daily temperature is between 20-25 °C and mortality quickly reaches 100 % at 32 °C (Démolin 1969b). Apart from temperature, larval survival is also affected by predators (Barbaro and Battisti 2011) and parasites (Battisti et al. 2015), with the incidence of these factors being quite variable among studies.



Figure 1. Diagram showing the simplified version of the cycle implemented in *INSTAR* (**A**), as well as the biological cycle of the processionary moth (**B**). The modelled entities are shown in blue, while the real entities are shown orange. The biological cycle of the species is simulated in *INSTAR* by three types of submodels: development (bag, pupae and host development), mortality (bag and pupae mortality) and movement (procession, mating and oviposition).

When larvae complete their development, usually at the end of winter or beginning of spring,
they constitute the characteristic processions and search for a place to bury (Figure 1B). Once

the leading larva chooses a suitable spot, the whole group buries and pupal development starts. Pupation success rate depends on shading and parasitism and therefore optimal burial spots are characterised by high radiation and reduced vegetation cover (Robredo 1963, Dulaurent et al. 2011, Dulaurent et al. 2012, Torres-Muros et al. 2017). Moths select trees on the edge of the stand when laying their eggs. These behaviours generate a characteristic spatial pattern: the pest concentrates in low density stands or stand edges, and pupae are especially present in clear areas between trees.

Like all other Thaumetopoea sp., T. pityocampa is a univoltine species, but pupae can engage in extended diapause. In Mediterranean environments only 2.5 % of pupae show extended diapause (i.e. more than two years, Torres-Muros et al. (2017)), but in other environments the proportion of latent pupal population can be much higher (Aimi et al. 2006). The conditions inducing extended diapause are still uncertain (but see Salman et al. 2019). When pupation process ends, moths emerge and live between 1 and 2 days, during which time they mate and lay their eggs on a nearby pine (Zhang and Paiva 1998) ("Mating" and "Oviposition" in Figure 1B).

3. Model description

According to Gertseva and Gertseva (2004), *INSTAR* can be classified as a homomorphic (all components of the model have analogous components in reality, but not *vice versa*), timedependent, continuous (it represents continuous changes of an object over time) and deterministic Agent-Based Model (ABM). ABM has been chosen as the modelling technique, since this approach allows an easy integration of multiscale information, which is specially abundant in the case of *T. pityocampa*: physiological data based on observations of individuals under laboratory conditions (Hoch et al. 2009, Berardi et al. 2015), influence of environmental

factors based on observations of populations and field experiments (Démolin 1969a, Samalens and Rossi 2011, Castagneyrol et al. 2014a, Cayuela et al. 2014, Linares et al. 2014, Torres-Muros et al. 2017), and population history based on observations of outbreaks on a regional scale (Hódar et al. 2012, Li et al. 2015). The following sections describe INSTAR according to the "Overview, Design Concepts, and Details" (ODD) protocol proposed by Grimm et al. (2010), which is a very useful tool to characterise ABMs using a standard structure.

3.1 Overview

3.1.1 Purpose

The overarching purpose of *INSTAR* is to generate a deeper understanding of the population dynamics of Thaumetopoea pityocampa. In the short term, it aims to identify caveats and gaps in our knowledge about the species biology, and promote research aiming to fill these gaps. In the long term, it aims to forecast the probability of occurrence and intensity of the pest outbreaks at a landscape scale under different climate and land use scenarios, this way aiding environmental decision making in pine plantations affected by this pest. The first step in this process is the construction, documentation and initial testing of the model presented in this manuscript.

More specifically, and following Jakeman et al. (2006), the context of INSTAR refers to the following topics which help clarify our purpose. Firstly, it addresses questions such as: How well can INSTAR simulate the functioning of the processionary moth forest pest in a spatially and temporally explicit way? Is it possible to obtain landscape level metrics (defoliation rate per year and watershed) modelling the behaviour of individual agents? Is INSTAR able to reproduce natural patterns of the T. pityocampa cycle such as density-dependent restrictions?

How well does the coupling between a hydrometeorological model and an ecological ABM(*INSTAR*) work?

Moreover, *INSTAR* has been designed to satisfy the needs of two types of interest groups or users. On the one hand, scientists interested in simulating ecological processes and, specifically, *T. pityocampa* population dynamics, who would find in *INSTAR* a modular tool to conduct *in silico* experiments. On the other hand, and in the long term, *INSTAR* could be useful for the environmental decision makers in charge of managing the large area covered by pine plantations affected by this pest.

The model has two main forcing variables or drivers: climate and land use. Since this species is poikilotherm, the air temperature is very important to determine its performance. *INSTAR* uses daily temperature maps as inputs to simulate the biological cycle of *T. pityocampa*. Regarding land use, the distribution and density of pine plantation stands has been demonstrated to be a key factor explaining the population dynamics of the processionary moth (Dulaurent et al. 2011, Li et al. 2015, Torres-Muros et al. 2017).

3.1.2 Entities, state variables and scales

An overview of entities and state variables can be found in **Table 1**. *INSTAR* contains a simplified version of the biological cycle of *T. pityocampa*, represented by three entities: **colonies**, **cluster of pupae** and **moths**; the pine trees on which larvae feed are represented by the entity **hosts**; and the environment is constituted by **cells**.

Each **colony** represents all surviving individuals from the same egg laying and its *stage* defines the phase of the lifecycle in which the **colony** is, namely: "egg", larvae 1 ("L1", representing the first two instars: I and II) or larvae 2 ("L2", representing the last three instars: III, IV and V). This entity is also defined by the state variables *number of individuals* (i.e. the number of eggs, larvae 1 or larvae 2 contained in the **colony**), *days as egg, days as L1* and *days as L2* (days

remaining for the stage to be completed), and host (colonies develop on pine crowns, and therefore their location within the environment is described by the **host** they are linked to). Except for the host they are linked to, all colony variables values change throughout the simulation, i.e. they are dynamic state variables.

The entity cluster of pupae refers to all individuals from an egg laying that have reached the end of the larval stage and have successfully buried on a cell. This entity is used to model the development of pupae and is defined by similar state variables as the colonies: number of individuals, days as pupae and the static variable location.

Finally, the entity moth represents an individual moth in the real world. It has a static assigned sex and can be mated or not. Thus, in the transformation from cluster of pupae into moths there is an individualisation process, which is explained in detail in section 3.3.3.

Host entity represents trees (Pinus sp.) on which the larvae develop. Hosts are characterised by their static variables *height* (as surrogate of tree size), which defines its carrying capacity, i.e. how many colonies can feed on it before it gets defoliated, and *location*. Moreover, they also have the dynamic state variables quantity of available biomass, and quality, which indicates if the tree was defoliated in the previous season or not. INSTAR can be applied to any Pinus spp. affected by T. pityocampa by parameterising the state variables and submodels according to each species (see section 3.3).

INSTAR works with a 30 m spatial resolution at a temporal resolution of 1 day. The world in the model is constituted by cells, which represent 30 x 30 m, and have elevation associated as a static variable. Cells also have dynamic state variables referring to weather conditions, which change in every time step (1 day). These are the *minimum* and the *maximum air temperature*. Moreover, cells also have an assigned integrated temperature, an internal variable referring to the temperature of a **colony** which is exposed to the **cell** air temperature and the number of insolation hours per day, according to Démolin (1969b). This variable is calculated as:

integrated temperature = maximum temperature + (1.5 x insolation hours)

Table 1. Summary of entities and state variables within *INSTAR*.

ENTITY	STATE VARIABLE	DESCRIPTION	VALUES (units)
Colony	stage	Indicates in which phase the colony is.	"Egg", "L1", "L2"
	number of individuals	Number of individuals within the colony	0 - ~ 200 (ind.)
	days as egg	Number of days remaining before the colony in instar "Egg" will change to instar "L1".	0 - 30 (days)
	days as L1	Number of days remaining before the colony in instar "L1" will change to instar "L2".	0 - 30 (days)
	days as L2	Number of days remaining before the colony in instar "L2" will transform into a cluster of pupae.	0 - 90 (days)
	host	Pine on which the colony is located, to which it is linked.	Host ID
Cluster of pupae	number of individuals	Number of individuals within each cluster.	0 - ~ 200 (ind.)
	days as pupae	Number of days remaining before the cluster of pupae will become moths.	0 - 215 (days)
	location	Cell where it is located.	Cell coordinates
Moth	sex	Sex of the moth.	"Female", "Male"
	mated	Describes whether the moth is mated or not.	Boolean (true/false)
	location	Cell where it is located.	Cell coordinates
Host	height	Pine height.	1 - 20 (m)
	quantity	Relative amount of available biomass for larvae: 0% corresponds to a completely defoliated tree while 100 % corresponds to a tree in the best possible conditions.	0 - 100 (%)
	quality	Indicates whether a tree was defoliated the previous year or not.	"defoliated", "not defoliated"
	location	Position of the host in the world.	x and y coordinates
Cells	elevation	Elevation above sea level.	0 - 8000 (m.a.s.l.)
	probability of	Probability of emergence which defines the	0 - 12 (%)
	emergence	number of individuals from a cluster of pupae those survive and become moths (see	
		"Initialisation").	
	maximum air	Maximum air temperature each day.	-50 - +50 (ºC)

	temperature
	minimum air Minimum air temperature each day50 - +50 (°C)
	temperature
292	3.1.3 Process overview and scheduling
293	Figure 1A depicts a schematic overview of the submodels that take place in each time step as
294	well as the entities which perform them. After initialisation (see section 3.3.1.), every time step
295	consists of:
296	• Environment reading: cells minimum and maximum temperature are updated to the
297	current date.
298	• Colonies update: number of individuals is updated following the "colony mortality"
299	submodel and stage is updated following the "colony development". Then, "procession"
300	submodel is applied to colonies which have completed their development and will
301	become a cluster of pupae .
302	• Clusters of pupae update: number of individuals is updated following the "pupae
303	mortality" and the length of this phase is adjusted through the "pupae development"
304	submodel. Once a cluster completes its development it results in a number of moths .
305	• Moths update: moths become mated following the "mating" submodel and choose a
306	host on which to lay their eggs through the "oviposition" submodel.
307	• Hosts update: the available biomass, <i>quantity</i> , is updated every day based on growth and
308	larvae consumption through the "host development" submodel.
309	These submodels are explained in detail in section 3.3.3. Besides that, from the observer
310	perspective, in each time step several state variables values are stored. For a detailed
311	explanation of how model outputs are structured see details regarding observation in the
312	following section.

313 3.2 Design concepts

This section explains how some important concepts are implemented in *INSTAR*. These basic concepts describe characteristics of ABMs that are not common in other modelling approaches. Describing these concepts in a standard structured format can help transmit the key aspects of the model to others, either ABM experts or those not familiar with this approach (Railsback and Grimm 2011).

The basic principle of *INSTAR* model is that *T. pityocampa* population dynamics are strongly influenced by the environmental (mainly climate) conditions and therefore these define the impact of the forest pest, the timing of its outbreaks and the areas where it has the highest incidence.

The spatial distribution of the pest as well as the forest state (amount and quality of available biomass) emerges from the simulation as a result of an individual's behaviour. On the one hand, the selection of burial spots and the pines on which moths lay their eggs define the spatial location of the newly created agents, and thus their impact on the pines. On the other hand, timing and scale of the pest outbreaks is regulated through mortality and development. Literature shows a higher incidence of the pest on areas with low pine density (Régolini et al. 2014) and shifts in phenology due to climate changes (Hódar and Zamora 2004).

Colonies in *stage* "L2" adapt to increase their success probability by selecting the burial site
considering the number of hosts on the cells around them and choosing the one which
optimises the probability of survival.

T. pityocampa development is dependent on environmental conditions and adjusts its
biological cycle to keep it univoltine (Démolin 1969b, Berardi et al. 2015). *INSTAR* implements
this by indirect objective-seeking, constraining the total duration of the biological cycle to one
year by shortening and lengthening the colony and cluster of pupae phases depending on the
environmental conditions.

Colonies can sense the state variables of their host and the cell where they are located. Moreover, colonies are also able to sense the number of hosts within a certain radius to select a spot where to bury (see "procession" submodel in section 3.3.3.3.). Similarly to colonies, the clusters of pupae can also sense the state variables of the cells where they are, since it affects their mortality. Finally, at the end of the cycle, female **moths** can sense if there is a male **moth** within a certain distance and where the surrounding pines are (see "mating" and "oviposition" submodels in section 3.3.3.3). No prediction or learning mechanisms are implemented in INSTAR.

Agents interact with each other in an indirect way. Colonies within the same host compete with each other for their food. When the number of **colonies** on a **host** equals its carrying capacity, the biomass consumption will slowly lead to complete defoliation of the tree, and therefore to the death of larvae present on it (see "colony mortality" submodel in section 3.3.3.1.). Moreover, there are intra- and intergenerational interactions. The intragenerational interaction appears when colonies turn into clusters of pupae and these into moths as development takes place, inheriting state variables values. The number of individuals of the cluster of pupae is inherited from the number of individuals of the colony it comes from, and the number of **moths** that emerge from the burial site is defined by the number of individuals within the parent cluster of pupae. Moreover, the location of each agent is defined based on the location of its predecessor. On the other hand, the intergenerational interaction comes from the defoliation of one season defining the *quality* state of the **host** in the coming season and thus affecting the probability of survival of the coming generation of larvae.

To simulate the intrinsic variability of natural processes, several stochastic processes are included during *INSTAR* initialisation: assigning *quantity* to **hosts**; assigning *number of individuals* to **colonies**; assigning *days as egg* to **colonies**; and selecting which are the initial infected **hosts.** Moreover, pseudorandom numbers are also used during the model running to: assign **moth** *sex* (1:1 ratio); decide whether a female **moth** becomes *mated* or not once it finds

a male **moth** and choose the **hosts** where **moths** lay their eggs, following a weighted random selection based on distance to the moth. These functions are explained in details in the corresponding submodels descriptions (section 3.3.3).

The representation of T. pityocampa biological cycle in three agent types, responds to a necessity to simulate the behaviour and characteristics of each development phase. Colonies and clusters of pupae are, in a way, collectives since they represent a group of individuals. This assumption does not constitute an oversimplification of the real system considering the characteristic gregarious behaviour of this species, where **colonies** behave as fully functional units (Démolin 1969b). Besides, defining them as collectives is an advantage since it reduces computing power needs, thus allowing the simulation of larger areas.

To observe the pest evolution and **hosts** state, *INSTAR* provides several outputs. At systemlevel, average hosts quantity, percentage of infected pines and number of individuals of T. pityocampa at each life stage are stored for each day. Moreover, monthly averages of all these state variables are also stored at cell level. This allows the evaluation of the forest pest development over time for a whole landscape unit (i.e. a specific forest, a basin, etc.) as well as within the simulated area (stand edges, distribution and movement of each phase, most affected hosts, etc.).

3.3 Details

ABMs often require a high number of parameters and detailed information is needed to fully parameterise the model (Kelly et al. 2013). Thus, as any other ABM, INSTAR parameterisation requires an exhaustive review of literature as well as testing. Our model is based on local data from Sierra Nevada (SE Spain) whenever possible. When unavailable, data were taken from scientific literature elsewhere. The parameters used by INSTAR are listed in Table 2 and decisions for parameter estimation are fully explained in Appendix A. It should be noted that

INSTAR was built as a customisable model in which parameter values can be changed to fit
biological information to local conditions as well as to incorporate new information when it
becomes available, constituting one of its potential.

Some of INSTAR parameter values are well referenced pest traits (CS_{meany} CS_{sdv} Procession_{max_distance}, Mating_{prob}) or have been based on best available knowledge considering certain assumptions (Eggmin, L1min, L2min, Pupaemax, NPP, QIthreshold, see section 3.3.3.2 and Appendix A). Other parameters require calibration for each study area (*T_{egg_devel}*, *T_{larvae_devel_high}*, Tlarvae devel internale Tlarvae devel low, as presented in this manuscript). Finally, another set of parameters are required for model functioning and can serve in the future for purposes such as scenario setting (Qtmean, Qtsd, L1mort, L2mort, L2mort, L2mort, threshold) or pest expansion experiments (Mating_{max_distance}, Flight_{max_distance}, T_{lethal_max}, T_{lethal_min}).

399 Table 2. INSTAR parameters

PARAMETER	VALUE (units)	DESCRIPTION AND REFERENCES	More details in
Qt _{mean} , Qt _{sd}	50, 20	Mean and standard deviation used to assign	3.3.1
	(%)	initial values of <i>quantity</i> to the hosts , following a	
		normal distribution with such parameters.	
		Reference: This study, assuming an intermediate	
		health state of the simulated pine stand.	
CS _{mean} , CS _{sd}	193.2,	Mean and standard deviation used to assign	3.3.1
	4.5	initial values of number of individuals to the	
	(ind.)	colonies, following a normal distribution with	
		such parameters. Reference: Torres Muros	
		(2015).	
QI _{threshold}	57.16	Threshold used to define the <i>quality</i> of the host	3.3.1
	(%)	based on their <i>quantity</i> at the end of the	
		defoliating season. Reference: Muukkonen	
		(2005).	
Egg _{min}	30	Minimum time needed for colonies at stage	3.3.1
	(days)	"egg" to become "L1". Reference: Démolin	
		(1969b).	
L1 _{min}	30	Minimum time needed for colonies at <i>stage</i> "L1"	3.3.1
	(days)	to become "L2". Reference: Démolin (1969b).	
L2 _{min}	90	Minimum time needed for colonies at <i>stage</i> "L2"	3.3.1

	(days)	to become cluster of pupae . Reference: Démolin (1969b).	
L1 _{mort}	10 (%)	Percentage of individuals which die in a colony at	3.3.3.1
		stage "L1" if its host was defoliated the previous	
		season. Reference: This study, to be	
		parameterised with real data when available.	
L2 _{mort}	2 (%)	Percentage of individuals which die daily in a	3.3.3.1
		colony at stage "L2" if its host has a quantity	
		below L2 _{mort_threshold} . Reference: This study, to be	
		parameterised with real data when available.	
L2 _{mort_threshold}	20 (%)	Threshold defining the <i>quantity</i> of hosts below	3.3.3.1
		which individuals of colonies at <i>stage</i> "L2" die	
		due to food scarcity. Reference: This study, to be	
		parameterised with real data when available.	
T _{lethal_max}	32 ºC	Maximum temperature above which colonies die.	3.3.3.1
		Reference: Démolin (1969b).	
T _{lethal_min}	-12 ºC	Minimum temperature below which colony die.	3.3.3.1
_		Reference: Démolin (1969b).	
NPP	28 (%)	Net Primary Production rate defining the daily	3.3.3.2
		increase of <i>quantity</i> in the hosts during the	
		growing season. Reference: self-defined based on	
		QI _{threshold} , assuming constant growth rate and	
		according to the growing season described by	
		Alcaraz-Segura et al. (2016).	
T _{egg_devel}	20 ºC *	Maximum temperature above which colonies at	3.3.3.2
		stage "egg" develop. Reference: based on	
		Démolin (1969b).	
T _{larvae_devel_high}	25 ºC *	Maximum temperature below which colonies at	3.3.3.2
		stage "L1" or "L2" develop. This parameter is	
		used in combination with T _{larvae_} devel_internal and	
		T _{larvae_devel_low} . Reference: based on Démolin	
		(1969b).	
T _{larvae_devel_internal}	20 ºC *	Minimum integrated temperature above which	3.3.3.2
		colonies at stage "L1" or "L2" develop. This	
		parameter is used in combination with	
		T _{larvae_devel_high} and T _{larvae_devel_low} . Reference: based	
		on Démolin (1969b).	
T _{larvae_devel_low}	-10 ºC *	Minimum temperature below which colonies at	3.3.3.2
		stage "L1" or "L2" stop their activity. This	
		parameter is used in combination with	
		$\mathbf{T}_{larvae_devel_high}$ and $\mathbf{T}_{larvae_devel_internal}$. Reference:	
		based on Démolin (1969b).	
Pupae _{max_}	215	Maximum time needed for cluster of pupae to	3.3.3.3
	(days)	become moths . Reference: Démolin (1969b).	

Procession _{max_distance}	1.23	Maximum distance that colonies can	3.3.3.3
	(cells)	processionate to find a suitable place to bury.	
		Reference: Robredo (1963).	
Mating _{max_distance}	3 (cells)	Maximum distance that moths can fly to find a	3.3.3.3
		suitable partner to mate. Reference: This study,	
		see Appendix A for a detailed explanation.	
<i>Mating</i> _{prob}	95 (%)	Probability for a "female" moth to become <i>mated</i>	3.3.3.3
		when a "male" moth is found within	
		Mating _{max_distance} . Reference: Rhainds (2010).	
Flight _{max_distance}	3 (cells)	Maximum distance that mated moths can fly to	3.3.3.3
		find a suitable host to lay their eggs. Reference:	
		This study, see Appendix A for a detailed	
		explanation.	

*Parameter values before calibration analysis presented in section 4.

401 3.3.1 Initialisation

INSTAR is initialised by creating **cells** and **hosts** and assigning their state variables values for 403 the simulated area. *Elevation*, **host** *location* and *height* are loaded as input data (see section 404 3.3.2.). **Moth** *probability of emergence* is then calculated for each **cell** based on number of 405 **hosts** on it. Below 3 **hosts** per **cell** *probability of emergence* remains constant at 0.12 and 406 above 10 it equals 0. Between 3 and 10 **hosts** per **cell** *probability of emergence* is calculated 407 based on the following linear regression:

408 probability of emergence = 0.1636 - 0.0169 x (number of **hosts** in **cell**)

This function assumes that the number of **hosts** per **cell** is a good surrogate of shaded surface, which affects soil moisture and temperature. These seem to be the main factors explaining the **cluster of pupae** emergence rate according to Torres-Muros et al. (2017), who reported mortality and emergence rates of **cluster of pupae** based on vegetation cover and soil moisture.

414 After this, *quantity* and *quality* values of **hosts** are assigned. The *quantity* assigned to each **host** 415 **is** based on a normal distribution with mean Qt_{mean} and standard deviation Qt_{sd} , therefore

allowing the user to setup the initial state of the pine stand. *Quality* is defined as "defoliated"
or "not defoliated" according to a threshold value *Ql*_{threshold}. Three extra internal variables are
calculated for **hosts**:

The carrying capacity (cc) of each **host**: the number of **colonies** that a pine can host. It is calculated based on observations relating to number of colonies on highly defoliated trees (below 10% of biomass remaining) and tree height (unpublished data from J.A. Hódar). Briefly, within the framework of a different study on T. pityocampa, 20 trees of P. halepensis were checked during two consecutive winters in Sierra Nevada Protected Area. The number of winter colonies in the trees suffering a severe (~90% defoliation) were related to the height of the tree. In this way, we obtained an estimate of how many colonies are needed to completely defoliate a tree depending on its size (*height*):

$$cc = 11.63 \text{ x} \ln(height) - 4.60 \quad (R^2 = 0.65)$$

This is the most important model assumption regarding *Pinus* species, and therefore in this study *INSTAR* is considered to apply on *P. halepensis* stands (see section 4.1). Nevertheless, the model could be applied to other pine stands, provided a carrying capacity equation for the corresponding species.

The daily consumption per colony (consumption): the relative amount of biomass consumed per day by one **colony** in "L2" stage, given the carrying capacity (cc) of the host on which it is feeding. It is calculated by assuming that all colonies consume the same amount of biomass per day, independently of the number of individuals in it; it also assumes that colonies feed during the minimum number of days needed for a colony in "L2" stage to develop into a cluster of pupae (i.e. 90 days) and considering full consumption a defoliation of 90%, in agreement with observations used for the carrying capacity calculations which are as follows:
• and moth suitableness (*mu*) of each **host**, which is calculated as:

 $mu = \Sigma(\text{count x coefficient})_i$

Where *i* corresponds to the cardinal and intercardinal directions (i.e. north, northeast, east, etc.), the count is the number of trees in each direction *i* at a radius of 1 **cell** (30 m) and each coefficient provides a weighting (see **Appendix B**) for the influence on each direction of the suitableness of a tree for the **moth**. This weighting creates an initial distribution of **colonies** in which there are more colonies on more exposed trees, which is what happens in the real world since burials occur in clear spots and moths choose a host based on the distance to their emergence point.

Afterwards, colonies are initialised. The number of colonies to be created is defined by the percentage of infected pines, which can be set by the user as a model input. In this study, real data from a defoliation monitoring programme within the Andalusia region (southern Spain) are used. This programme assigns a defoliation value from 0 (no defoliation) to 5 (complete defoliation) to each forest plot at the end of every defoliating season. These data are used to define the percentage of infected pines and thus the number of colonies present in the landscape. Colonies are then distributed among the hosts by weighted random selection based on moth suitableness: the higher the moth suitableness, the less probability for the host to be infected (i.e. to have colonies on it). Colonies are initialised as "egg" stage with days as egg corresponding to a random number between 0 and Egg_{min}.

3.3.2 Input data

INSTAR uses a set of input data as follows:

Map of elevation for the simulated area, obtained from the Andalusian Network of
 Environmental Information (REDIAM) in a raster format and 30 x 30 m resolution.

Daily maps of meteorological variables (maximum and minimum temperature) for the
 simulated area. These maps are raster files generated by a hydrometeorological model
 (WiMMed, (Herrero et al. 2009) at 30 x 30 m resolution (see Appendix C).

Map of the pines present in the simulated forest. This map is a vector file derived from
 Airborne Laser Scanning data, which contains the location and height of trees (more
 details about this processing in Appendix D). All identified trees are considered to be
 pines (i.e. hosts).

Initial percentage of infested pines. In this study, this percentage was based on
defoliation data from Andalusian defoliation monitoring programme. This dataset
provides an infestation rate based on observed defoliation for each plot within the
region, on a 0-5 scale. The initial percentage of infested pines is calculated based on the
defoliation assigned by the monitoring programme to the plot where the simulated area
is located. This dataset is fully documented by Ros Candeira et al. (forthcoming).

477 3.3.3 Submodels

INSTAR uses a series of submodels to simulate the development of the pest, as well as its interactions with the hosts and the cells (Figure 1A). These submodels make use of best available current knowledge about T. pityocampa, but have been built in such a way that will allow an easy integration of new information as knowledge on this pest increases. As an example, if new information on pupae distribution is found, the "procession" submodel could be adjusted to follow such distribution by including a kernel function. These submodels can be classified into three types: mortality, development and movement. The classification of submodels into a reduced number of classes has some important advantages. ABMs have been criticised due to the difficulties of reproducing them, standardising structures and defining guidelines to design, calibrate and evaluate them (DeAngelis and Grimm 2014). The modular

structure of *INSTAR* eases the exchange of information among modellers as well as the comparison between models. Thus, such structure improves the understanding of the model and facilitates communication with non-modellers. Moreover, it could constitute a framework to build models simulating other forest pests in a wide variety of ecological systems, since it summarises the key biological processes that take place in them. As an example, movement submodels could be adjusted to simulate the dispersal and establishment of mistletoe, another common pest in pine plantations, by following Mellado and Zamora (2016).

495 3.3.3.1 Mortality submodels

496 Mortality submodels simulate the death of organisms due to abiotic or biotic conditions. Since 497 some of *INSTAR* agents represent groups of organisms, mortality submodels may apply to the 498 agent as a whole (i.e. death of the **colony**), or just to a portion of the individuals that the agent 499 represents (i.e. reduction in the *number of individuals*). *INSTAR* applies mortality submodels to 500 **colonies** and **clusters of pupae**, while **moth** mortality is already included in pupae mortality 501 and **hosts** do not have an associated mortality submodel since *T. pityocampa* rarely causes 502 pine death.

The submodel "colony mortality" affects the variable *number of individuals* of the **colonies** or kills whole **colonies** to simulate mortality rates due to different abiotic and biotic factors. Such mortality rates differ between each *stage*. At the beginning of *stage* "egg", when the **colony** is created, a mortality factor due to parasitism is applied. This mortality is calculated based on Torres Muros (2015) and causes the original *number of individuals* to be reduced as follows:

 $p_i = e^{ni} / (1 + e^{ni})$

509 where

and

At *stage* "L1", two mortality factors are applied. The first one is related to *quality* of the **host** and is applied at the beginning of this *stage*, when "eggs" become "L1". If *quality* is "defoliated", *number of individuals* is reduced by a certain percentage $L1_{mort}$. The second factor is due to lethal temperatures and is applied every day: a **colony** dies if *maximum temperature* is higher than $T_{lethal\ max}$ or *minimum temperature* is below $T_{lethal\ min}$.

At *stage* "L2", two mortality factors are applied every day. The first one is related to scarcity of food: if *quantity* of the **host** is below a certain threshold $L2_{mort_threshold}$, *number of individuals* is reduced by a certain percentage $L2_{mort}$. The second factor is the same as for *stage* "L1": a **colony** dies if *maximum temperature* is higher than T_{lethal_max} or *minimum temperature* is below T_{lethal_min} .

The submodel "pupae mortality" affects the variable *number of individuals* of the **cluster of pupae** to simulate mortality rates due to shading (Torres-Muros et al. 2017), which is assumed to be related to the number of **hosts** on a **cell**. A mortality factor is applied at the beginning of this phase, when **colonies** in *stage* "L2" become a **cluster of pupae**. The state variable *probability of emergence* defines the percentage of *number of individuals* which remain alive and results in the number of **moths** which are created (see "pupae development" submodel, section 3.3.3.2.).

530 No mortality submodel is applied to **moths**' agents, since it has been included in the *probability of emergence* of "pupae mortality" submodel.

532 3.3.3.2 Development submodels

533 Development submodels are used to simulate how an organism increases its biomass over 534 time or how it changes to the next stage of its life-cycle. These submodels are depicted in **Figure 1A**. In *INSTAR*, **hosts**, **colonies** and **clusters of pupae** have an associated development

submodel, while a moths' development submodel is not required based on the assumption that moths live one day.

The submodel "hosts development" defines how quantity and quality state variables change over time. The *quantity* of a **host** on a given day is defined as:

 $quantity_{(t)} = quantity_{(t-1)}$ - consumption + growth, where

consumption = daily consumption per colony * number of "L2" colonies on the host

growth = **NPP** between April and August and 0 % the rest of the year

Regarding quality, this variable is assessed before the growing season starts (i.e. on the 31st March). Quality will be defined as "defoliated" if quantity at that moment is below Ql_{threshold}, and "not defoliated" otherwise.

The submodel "colonies development" sets the time that is needed for a colony to change its stage. Colonies in stage "egg" will become "L1" and days as L1 will be set to L1min when days as egg become 0. Similarly, colonies in stage "L1" will become "L2" and days as L2 will be set to L2min when days as L1 become 0. Finally, colonies in stage "L2" will perform the "procession" submodel when days as L2 become 0. As the time that a colony needs to change between stages increases, the length of the following pupae phase is decreased (see "pupae development" submodel, section 3.3.3.2) in order to maintain a univoltine cycle as literature refers (Berardi et al. 2015). Days as egg, days as L1 and days as L2 are adjusted by applying the following rules:

days as egg is decreased by 1 each day if maximum temperature is above $T_{egg devel}$. Otherwise days as egg remains the same and the following pupae phase will be increased by 1 day. Thus, INSTAR halts the development of eggs on those days where temperature is lower than the threshold ($T_{eqg devel}$).

days as L1 is decreased by 1 each day if *maximum temperature* is below *T_{larvae_devel_high}* and the integrated temperature is above *T_{larvae_devel_internal}*. When these conditions are not
 met, if *minimum temperature* is above *T_{larvae_devel_low}*, *days as L1* remains the same and the
 following pupae phase increases by 1 day. Otherwise, *days as L1* increases by 1 and the
 following pupae phase increases by 2 days.

• *days as L2* follow the same rules as *days as L1*.

The submodel "pupae development" sets the length of the phase cluster of pupae within the lifecycle of the processionary by adjusting the days as pupae state variable. Days as pupae are decreased by 1 in every time step. When it becomes 0, the cluster of pupae disappears and becomes a certain number of moths. The number of moths which are then created is defined by number of individuals. For the sake of simplicity, INSTAR does not consider extended diapause, as our study area is located in the Mediterranean area, where T. pityocampa rarely engage in extended diapause (see Section 2). Nevertheless, a submodel implementing this phenomenon could be easily integrated.

573 3.3.3.3 Movement submodels

574 Movement submodels are used to describe processes where an agent selects a place to move 575 to based on information from its surroundings. Three movement submodels are defined in 576 *INSTAR*: "procession", which simulates the search for a burial spot, performed by **colonies** in 577 "L2" *stage*; "mating", which simulates the search of a male **moth**, performed by female **moths**; 578 and "oviposition", which simulates the selection of a **host** to lay the eggs on (i.e. creation of a 579 new **colony**), and is performed by mated "female" **moths**.

580 The "procession" submodel defines the place where **colonies** at *stage* "L2" and *days as L2* 581 equal to 0 become a **cluster of pupae**. Agents performing this submodel search among the 582 surrounding **cells** within *Procession_{max_distance}* and select the ones with the smallest pine density 583 (i.e. number of pines in **cell**). If several **cells** have the smallest pine density, they choose the

closest one among them. A cluster of pupae is created in that cell and the colony disappears. The state variables of the newly created cluster of pupae are inherited from the parent colony: number of individuals corresponds to the number of individuals of the parent colony and days as pupae equals Pupaemax minus the number of days that the parent colony was extended (see "colony development" submodel description).

The "mating" submodel defines which moths will become mated and where they will be located. If there is a "male" moth within *Mating_{max distance}*, "female" moths become mated with a probability *Mating*prob. When this happens, mated moths move halfway towards their partner.

The submodel "oviposition" selects the host on which a new colony will be created (i.e. the host to which the new colony will be linked to). After "mating", mated moths choose a host to lay their eggs within *Flight_{max distance}*. Weighted random selection is used to define which will be the selected **host**. This selection gives a higher probability of being chosen the closer the **host** is to the moth. If no host is found, no colony is created. The state variables of the newly created **colony** are defined as: number of individuals corresponds to a random number within a normal distribution with mean CS_{mean} and standard deviation CS_{sd}, stage is "egg" and days as egg equals Egg_{min} . The other state variables are set to 0.

4. Model consistency test

INSTAR has been written in NetLogo language (Wilensky 1999) and reviewed in an iterative process by a multidisciplinary team consisting of a computer scientist, and various modellers and ecologists. An independent implementation of each individual submodel has been used to check that the model agrees with the conceptual model initially proposed by Torres Muros (2015) or, in other words, for model verification in the sense of Findeisen et al. (1978). The

process of writing and testing has been documented using a version control tool (Github). This allows for easy and systematic access to different versions of the code, as well as tracking of changes. The last INSTAR stable version can be freely downloaded from GitHub (http://sl.ugr.es/github_instar) and under NetLogo free licence run а (https://ccl.northwestern.edu/netlogo). Besides this, a demo execution of INSTAR can be run at <u>https://vlab.geodab.eu</u>, a virtual laboratory promoted by ECOPOTENTIAL project.

4.1 Methodology

Pattern-oriented modelling led INSTAR design and helped decide which processes should be included in the model, as recommended by Wiegand et al. (2003). Two main patterns of the pine processionary population dynamics were considered: phenology and spatial distribution. In order to be coherent and structurally realistic, INSTAR should reproduce the observed timing of the different life stages in the study area, as well as the spatial distribution of the pupae within the landscape. Therefore, development and movement submodels are key processes. Considering these requirements, a calibration of the parameters involved in the development submodels and a robustness analysis of the procession submodel were performed. Besides this, a stress test was performed by exposing the model to extreme climate scenarios. Stress tests often help to identify errors in the model that would not be noted under normal conditions and therefore extreme unrealistic inputs are used in these tests (Railsback and Grimm 2011). A summary of the experiments and tests is shown in Figure 2. These experiments constitute a first internal validation, since they can help with confirming hypothesis and observing unexpected behaviours which cannot be detected when the model is run under normal conditions. After these tests, parameterisation and sensitivity analysis are needed before the model can be fully applied.

A virtual experimental area was created using a combination of real and built-in datasets (see Appendix E for more details). The area has been created for the sake of the consistency

analysis, since this is not a simulation experiment. This virtual area is 15 x 12 cells large, covering an area of 450 x 360 m² (16.2 ha). The location is real: Sierra Nevada Protected Area (south-eastern Spain) at an elevation of 1706 +/- 34 m.a.s.l. and contains 1128 pine trees, which have been extracted using an existing LIDAR dataset (see section 3.3.2). In this study, we assumed that the pine species is *Pinus halepensis*, since it is the species for which we have a carrying capacity equation. Finally, the climatic data needed to conduct the consistency analysis were generated by WiMMED hydrological model (see section 3.3.2).





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Figure 2. Diagram illustrating the consistency test presented in this manuscript, constituted by three experiments: phenology calibration, which consisted of two phases: egg development calibration through parameters T_{egg_devel} and larvae development calibration through parameters Tlarvae devel internal, Tlarvae devel high and Tlarvae devel low; pupae spatial distribution: analysed the effect of parameter Procession max_distance by executing the model with three different values; and extreme climate stress test: tested the effect of temperature change on model performance by comparing ±10 °C scenarios against the normal one.

4.1.1 Phenology calibration

Each phase in the life-cycle of T. pityocampa shows a characteristic phenology, which shifts each year within certain limits depending on climate conditions. This process is mainly controlled in INSTAR by the "colonies development" submodel. In order to produce realistic outcomes where the phenology of the model reproduces field observations, a calibration analysis was performed. The parameters involved in the "colonies development" submodel are the temperature thresholds regulating the length of each phase and the minimum lengths of each stage under optimal conditions (see Table 2). The aim of the calibration was to find the values of the parameters T_{egg_devel} , $T_{larvae_devel_high}$, $T_{larvae_devel_low}$ and $T_{larvae_devel_internal}$ that best reproduce *T. pityocampa* phenology in the study area.

For this calibration, field observations were used. They were provided by the Sierra Nevada Global Change Observatory (Bollullos and Aspizua 2014), and consist on a dataset including hatching, procession and egg laying dates recorded for several plots within the Sierra Nevada mountain range during 2009, 2010 and 2011. A summary of this dataset can be observed in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of hatching, procession and egg laying dates (in Julian dates) for
 Thaumetopoea pityocampa observed in Sierra Nevada. Data from Sierra Nevada Global Change
 Observatory (Bollullos and Aspizua 2014).

		EARLIEST DATE	LATEST DATE	
	EARLIEST DATE	FOR 95% OF	FOR 95% OF	LATEST DATE
		OBSERVATIONS	OBSERVATIONS	
Hatching date	204	211	256	288
Procession date	331 (year _x)	331 (year _x)	124 (year _{x+1})	139 (year _{x+1})
Egg laying date	99	167	261	275

Calibration was performed in a stepwise approach: egg development calibration followed by larvae development calibration. In the first step, the parameter T_{egg_devel} , which affects how long the stage "egg" takes by adjusting days as egg, was calibrated in order to obtain simulated hatching dates within the range of the above-mentioned observations. For this analysis, a systematic execution of the model was performed with values of $T_{egg_{devel}}$ ranging from 15-25 °C in 1 °C steps. Every run was initialised at Julian day 210 and lasted 4 months, since tests indicated that such a period was long enough for all eggs within the modelled world to hatch. Input data consisted of 13 datasets, corresponding to years 2001-2013 and runs were executed in triplicates. For each simulation, the hatching date of each colony was recorded.

Once the parameter T_{egg_devel} was calibrated, the second step of the calibration took place. The parameters T_{larvae_devel_high}, T_{larvae_devel_low} and T_{larvae_devel_internal} were calibrated to obtain procession dates within the range of the above-mentioned observations. These parameters affect how long the stages "L1" and "L2" take by adjusting days as L1 and days as L2 (see section 3.3.3.2). For this analysis, a new systematic execution of the model was performed. A range of values for each parameter was tested: 20-30 °C for Tlarvae_devel high, 15-25 °C for Tlarvae devel internal and -15--5 °C for Tlarvae devel low, in 1 °C step. Every execution was initialised with colonies at stage "L1", to avoid noise coming from the previous stage. Thus, executions started at Julian day 226 of the corresponding year (mean of the hatching dates derived from previous experiment for all T_{egg devel} values). Executions continued for 9 months and, as in the

previous experiment, input data consisted of 13 datasets, corresponding to years 2001-2013. For every combination of parameter values and input dataset, five executions were run.

In this case, the procession date of each colony was recorded in each simulation. Simulations in which at least one execution did not cause all colonies to processionate were discarded for the analysis. To avoid noise coming from other submodels, mortality submodels based on host quality and quantity were disabled and the procession submodel was unconstrained (colonies could bury in all cells around them). Since several parameters were calibrated in this step, an error metric "procession criteria" (PC) was used. The model was run for each combination of parameters until the error was minimised, given the objective function defined as:

 $PC = \Sigma(y_i)$

694	y _i = {	0	if $1 \le x_i \le 124$
695		0	if $331 \le x_i \le 366$
696		$(\frac{\frac{124+139}{2}-x_{i}}{\frac{124+139}{2}})^{2}$	if 124 ≤ <i>x_i</i> ≤ 139
697		$\left(\frac{\frac{139+331}{2}-x_{i}}{\frac{139+331}{2}}\right)^{4}$	if 139 ≤ <i>x</i> _i ≤ 331

Where x_i corresponds to the procession date of **colony** i and therefore y_i measures the deviation of the procession date from the field observations for each simulation. Note that this deviation is increased if the procession date falls outside the extreme values observed in the field. PC therefore increases as more procession dates within a simulation fall outside the ranges of the field observations.

4.1.2 Pupae spatial distribution

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To study how INSTAR reproduces the pattern of pupae distribution, the "procession" submodel was deconstructed to conduct a robustness analysis by neglecting its most important assumption. The experiment consisted in testing different designs of the submodel to check how such modifications affect the spatial distribution of the pupae over the landscape. Thus, the "procession" submodel was modified to disable the constriction of burial spots due to pine density (i.e. selection was set as random among all cells within Procession_{max distance}, rather than selecting the cell with the smallest pine density). With this modification, we aimed to verify that such constriction was responsible for the observed spatial distribution. In addition, two values for *Procession_{max distance}* were tested (6.15 and 12.3 cells) against the normal value of 1.23 cells. The reason why three values of **Procession**max distance were tested is based on the hypothesis that as **Procession**_{max distance} increases, the spatial distribution of the pupae becomes more explained by the *probability of emergence* and **host** location loses importance. One should note that since mortality due to probability of emergence is applied immediately after burial, the distribution of pupae over the landscape refers to the number of pupae that will actually emerge as moths when their development is completed (see section 3.3.1 and 3.3.3 for more details). Therefore, as *Procession_{max_distance}* increases, the selection of a cell to bury becomes more random and the pupae distribution will increasingly resemble the probability of emergence map and not a random distribution. Thus, we would expect a high correlation between probability of emergence map and modelled pupae distribution when **Procession**_{max distance} values are high.

For each **Procession**max distance value, triplicates were run for a 5-years period and the average number of cluster of pupae per cell was recorded each month. Maps showing the average number of pupae were calculated for each Procession max_distance value, considering only the months when a **cluster of pupae** were present. These maps were then compared with the map of *probability of emergence* through a correlation analysis.

 By exposing the model to extreme climate, we aim to test the model consistency in relation to temperature influence in development. As mentioned at the beginning of this section, extreme unrealistic inputs are used in these tests in order to observe divergent behaviours in the model. The following results are expected from this experiment. Firstly, larvae mortality rates will increase, even causing pest annihilation, due to the higher occurrence of extreme temperatures above or below the species survivability thresholds. Secondly, larval development will be accelerated if temperatures are higher and delayed if they are lower.

Three scenarios were used in this experiment: NORMAL, corresponding to the measured temperatures, MINUS10 and PLUS10. Scenarios MINUS10 and PLUS10 were generated by respectively subtracting and adding an offset (10 °C) to the measured temperatures, to reach lethal temperatures for the processionary moth and therefore test whether *INSTAR* simulates mortality rates as expected. The offset was applied equally to maximum and minimum temperatures, therefore maintaining the thermal range. Simulations were run in triplicate for the period 2001-2006.

745 4.2 Results and discussion

746 4.2.1 Phenology calibration

Results from the egg development calibration can be observed in **Figure 3**, which shows the mean hatching date, as well as the mean 2.5 % and 97.5 % quantile of the hatching dates for each tested value of T_{egg_devel} and input dataset. As long as T_{egg_devel} remains below 22 °C, hatching dates remain within field observation ranges. It can also be observed that, as T_{egg_devel} increases, the mean hatching date and the 97.5% quantile show increased spreading while the 2.5 % quantile remains almost constant for all simulations. The reason is that as T_{egg_devel}

increases its value, the probability of a **colony** delaying its development also increases. Therefore, the mean hatching date and the 97.5% quantile increase. The 2.5% quantile is defined by the **colonies** which were initialised with *days as egg* equal to 1 and therefore cannot be further reduced. Considering these results, the value of T_{egg_devel} was set to 20 °C, since no clear differences between values below 22 °C were observed.



Figure 3. Plot showing the mean, 2.5 % and 97.5 % quantile of the hatching dates for each simulation alongside the tested gradient in T_{egg_devel} values. Simulations were run in triplicate for each value of T_{egg_devel} and input dataset. Hatching dates observed in the field are plotted as horizontal lines: yellow dashed lines indicate the 2.5 % and 97.5 % quantile and red lines indicate the earliest and latest observed hatching date. Note that axes do not cross in the 0,0 coordinate.





Figure 4. Plot showing the maximum value of the procession criteria (PC) for each combination of parameter values: $T_{larvae_devel_internal}$ and $T_{larvae_devel_high}$ values (A); $T_{larvae_devel_low}$ and $T_{larvae_devel_high}$ (B) and $T_{larvae_devel_low}$ and $T_{larvae_devel_internal}$ values (C).

Once the egg phase was calibrated, larvae development calibration was carried out. **Figures 4A-C** depict the maximum value of the PC error metric in relation to two out of the three tested parameters in each plot. Zero PC values mean that all simulations resulted in processions dates falling within the range of the field observations. Similar figures depicting the mean and minimum value of PC can be found in **Appendix F**.

When analysing the relationship between $T_{larvae_devel_internal}$ and $T_{larvae_devel_high}$ (Figure 4A), it can be observed that the whole range of $T_{larvae_devel_internal}$ values can result in PC equal to 0, as long as $T_{larvae_devel_high}$ value is 20 °C or 21 °C. Above this value, PC gradually increases as $T_{larvae_devel_internal}$ decreases and $T_{larvae_devel_high}$ increases. Regarding $T_{larvae_devel_low}$, it can be

observed that the whole range of tested values can result in a maximum PC equal to 0 if $T_{larvae_devel_high}$ remains between 20 °C and 22 °C (**Figure 4B**) although no $T_{larvae_devel_internal}$ value fulfils this condition (**Figure 4C**). In other words, no combination of parameter values ensures that all modelled procession dates will fall within 95% of the field observations for every year. Nevertheless, several combinations of parameter values result in at least some of the simulations reproducing the field observations.

Therefore, the parameter values were selected considering the combination which results in more simulations reproducing the observed in situ patterns and the species physiology as described in the literature. The selected values are 22 °C for Tlarvae_devel high, 20 °C for Tlarvae_devel_internal and -10 °C for Tlarvae_devel_low. These values seem in agreement with those previously reported in the literature. Démolin (1969b) reported normal larvae activity if maximum temperature remains below 25 °C and integrated temperature above 20 °C and colony survival if minimum temperature remains above -10 °C. Moreover, Hoch et al. (2009) established the supercooling point of individual larvae at -7 °C. Naturally, discrepancies are expected between the literature and our results. Demolin observations took place in France and correspond to thresholds defining the behaviour of larvae and colonies, and not the accumulative effect of such temperatures. Similarly, Hoch results correspond to survival thresholds, while our parameter $T_{larvae devel low}$ regulates the temperature below which larvae development stops, but is restored as temperatures raise again (note the difference between the parameters Tlarvae_devel_low and Tlethal_min). The stepwise calibration was based on hatching and procession dates within 1-cycle runs. Once the parameter values have been calibrated, it becomes necessary to test whether these parameters reproduce the right pattern over the years, i.e. if the model reproduces faithfully the hatching and procession dates as the simulation time passes or it shifts towards a non-realistic phenology. Moreover, egg laying dates should also fall within the observed range. To test these criteria, INSTAR was run for the period 2001-2014 with the calibrated value for each parameter (i.e. 20 °C for Tegg_devel, 22 °C

for $T_{larvae_devel_high}$, 20 °C for $T_{larvae_devel_internal}$ and -10 °C for $T_{larvae_devel_low}$). The modelled phenology shows a pattern similar to the one observed in the field (Figure 5). Modelled hatchings fall outside of the observations range in 0.6% of the data, while processions and egg laying dates fall within 95% of the field observations range in all cases. Thus, the stepwise calibration seems to provide realistic values for the parameters involved in the development submodel which reproduced the phenology pattern observed in the real system.



Figure 5. Histogram showing the frequency of procession (orange), egg laying (blue) and hatching (grey) dates for each day of the year. Data obtained from a simulation run for the period 2001-2014. Field observations are also depicted in the plot, differentiating between the central 95% of the observations (thick horizontal segments) and the extreme observations (thin horizontal lines).

818 4.2.2 Pupae spatial distribution

Regarding the distribution of the pupae, maps show a high correlation with the *probability of emergence* map. This indicates the relevance of this parameter in explaining the spatial

pattern. One should note that probability of emergence is calculated based on the number of hosts per cell, which constitutes a proxy for vegetation cover and, consequently, surface soil moisture (Zribi et al. 2010). Since the presence of shady habitats is considered the most important factor explaining pupae mortality, the relevance of this parameter within the model agrees with our current understanding of the system. Moreover, the correlation values increase as **Procession_{max distance}** increases, supporting our initial hypothesis. In other words, the probability of emergence map shows the highest similarity with the pupae distribution at higher *Procession_{max_distance}* values (Figure 6).

This simulation experiment has confirmed that the mechanism generating the spatial distribution of the pupae corresponds to the **cell** selection within the "procession" submodel, as we intended. Moreover, the importance of the *probability of emergence* map has been highlighted as an important aspect to consider when choosing areas to be simulated, since pupae spatial distribution is highly influenced by stand density, which is responsible for the generation of this map. Further work in this regard could be done in the form of a sensitivity analysis to quantify the influence of the "procession" submodel in the model outputs.



Figure 6. Correlation values between the emergence probability map and the average pupae
density map for each tested value of *Procession_{max_distance}*.

839 4.2.3 Extreme climate stress test

Pest dynamics for each scenario are shown in Figure 7. As expected, high larvae mortality rates resulted in a reduced number of individuals in both MINUS10 and PLUS10 scenarios compared to the NORMAL scenario. In the MINUS10 scenario, the population was greatly limited by low temperatures (Figure 7A). The fact that egg mortality is only due to parasitism explains the presence of eggs throughout the whole simulation. No references have been found reporting egg mortality due to extreme temperatures and therefore egg mortality within INSTAR is not influenced by this factor. However, parasitism probability could be assumed to increase as time passes since the probability of an egg getting infected by a parasite increases over time.

Thus, the model could be improved in further versions by applying an egg mortality submodelrelating survival rate and time.

Under the PLUS10 scenario, however, larvae mortality due to high temperatures was as high as to cause full annihilation of the pest before the first cycle was completed (Figure 7B). Our simulated area represents a warm region of the distribution area of the pest. Therefore, the population is probably closer to its higher temperature threshold than to its lower one. Thus, an extreme increase in temperature causes most cells in the landscape to reach $T_{lethal max}$ (32) ^oC). Conversely, a change towards lower temperatures does not cause many **cells** to reach the T_{lethal_min} (-12 °C). Nevertheless, these conclusions should be taken cautiously. The parameter values have been taken from literature, they refer to air temperatures and represent the general knowledge of T. pityocampa. The actual lethal values may differ for different populations and been influenced by other factors (e.g. wind speed, shading) which can modulate the actual temperature to which larvae are exposed.

Another reason for the difference between PLUS10 and MINUS10 scenarios can be that at higher temperatures, eggs develop fast and hatching is anticipated, causing the larvae to be exposed to the high summer temperatures. Literature suggests that T. pityocampa adapts to areas with warm summers by delaying the egg phase to late summer, thus avoiding lethal temperatures (Chapter 2 in Roques (2015)). At the moment, INSTAR does not possess a mechanism simulating this process, since initialisation is fixed at a certain date as it is commonly done in processes that deal with seasonal and annual patterns (such as hydrological models). This limitation, however, can be overcome by calibrating the initialisation date for the area to be simulated based on field data. The temperature stress test confirmed that the model behaves as expected when exposed to extreme input values.



and moths (pink pointed line) under three different scenarios: MINUS10 (A), PLUS10 (B) and
NORMAL (C), for the period 2001-2006.

5. Conclusions

To the best of our knowledge, INSTAR is the first ABM simulating the biological cycle of the processionary moth. The model aims to improve our understanding of the species population dynamics and identify gaps in our knowledge. Our model constitutes an effort to integrate and make use of the available knowledge about a forest pest. In this paper we present the model structure as well as a consistency test which constitutes a first internal validation of the model. The experiments presented here assess how the model reproduces the most important patterns of the pest: phenology and spatial distribution. As a general conclusion, INSTAR has demonstrated to be robust and internally coherent, since it reproduces the most important phases of the target species' biological cycle. More specifically, the main conclusions of this work are:

- The simulated phenology of the species agrees with field observations for a given area.
 This means that the submodels responsible for the phenology within *INSTAR* are well
 designed and implemented.
- Pupae spatial distribution is in accordance to what it is expected based on literature.
 Thus, the submodel responsible for simulating the pupae distribution reproduces
 reasonably well the pattern described from the field.
- The model behaves as expected when exposed to extreme input values through a
 climate stress test, i.e. extreme high temperatures cause full annihilation of the pest
 before the first cycle is completed and extreme low temperatures greatly limit the pest
 population.

INSTAR has been built with a modular structure to allow an easy integration of new knowledge.

900 Besides, *INSTAR* design, implementation and testing, helps in identifying gaps of knowledge 901 which can promote further advances in the research focused on *T. pityocampa*. In this regard 902 we have identified the following gaps:

It appears that there is a lack of theoretical knowledge about larval biomass consumption which has avoided a more realistic modelisation of the host-pest interaction. Forest pests are commonly monitored by assessing their impact as defoliation or other stress signals on the host. In the case of the pine processionary moth, the number of colonies is commonly reported, but data at a lower level (i.e. number of larvae per colony) are scarce. Such information would be particularly valuable to improve host-pest interaction modelling and to calibrate the mortality submodels.

Factors affecting egg, larvae and pupae development also appear as an important
 aspect to improve our understanding of *T. pityocampa* population dynamics. Although
 there is literature about the pest development, the level of detail of this information is
 low, and not enough knowledge is available to understand how *T. pityocampa* regulates its life cycle.

916 Due to the above-mentioned issues and the inherent characteristics of ABMs, there is a high 917 degree of uncertainty in the model. At this moment, our aim was to present a fully functioning 918 model which simulates several interlinked and complex processes and therefore no 919 uncertainty analysis has been performed so far. Further work should focus on model 920 calibration, sensitivity analysis and quantification of model uncertainty. Addressing these 921 topics will help us to create a predictive tool able to forecast the behaviour of the target forest 922 pest.

923 6. Author contributions

María Suárez-Muñoz leaded the manuscript writing process as well as the INSTAR code review and testing. She also designed the experiments showed in the text. Francisco Bonet-García contributed to the initial conception of the model and to write the manuscript. He supervised the whole process and contributed to the funding acquisition. José A. Hódar contributed to the conceptual model and provided basic data and knowledge regarding pine processionary moth natural history and ecology. He also participated in the model implementation phase, writing of the manuscript and the funding acquisition. Javier Herrero designed and executed the hydrometeorological model and contributed to the manuscript. Mihai Tanase pre-processed the LiDAR dataset and produced the LiDAR based metrics used in this study. He also contributed to the manuscript with the description of the LiDAR data analysis. Lucía Torres-Muros developed the initial conceptual model as well as to the collection of data needed to calibrate some INSTAR functions. The table shown below describes with more detail the specific contributions of each author.

Author name	Study conception	Methods	Computation	Formal analysis	Perform the experiments	Data collection	Data curation	Writing the manuscript	Data presentation	Supervision	Funding acquisition / project admin
María Suárez- Muñoz	3	3	4	3	4	1	5	5	4	0	0
Francisco J. Bonet-García	4	2	2	3	2	2	3	4	4	5	5
José Antonio Hódar	4	2	0	2	3	3	1	3	1	2	2
Javier Herrero- Lantarón	0	2	2	2	1	0	2	1	2	1	0
Mihai Tanase	0	2	2	2	1	0	1	1	2	0	0
Lucía Torres	4	2	0	2	2	3	3	1	0	0	0

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7. Declaration of interest

957 None

958 8. References

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Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Jan Feb Mar Apr May





Mean hatching date
Mean Q2.5
Mean Q97.5

Figure4A Click here to download high resolution image



Figure4B Click here to download high resolution image



Figure4C Click here to download high resolution image





Figure6 Click here to download high resolution image

















Location of the virtual experimental area

Host distribution1650 1800 Elevation (m.a.s.l.)

Location of the data used to calibrate the carrying capacity of *P. holepensis* stands Sierra Nevada protected area

N

20 Km

appendices_reviewed Click here to download Supplementary material for online publication only: ms_ODD_INSTAR_Appendices_reviewed.docx