

1 **Forecasting insect dynamics in a changing world**

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11 **Abstract**

12 Predicting how insects will respond to stressors through time is difficult because of the diversity
13 of insects, environments, and approaches used to monitor and model. Forecasting models take
14 correlative/statistical, mechanistic models, and integrated forms; in some cases, temporal
15 processes can be inferred from spatial models. Because of heterogeneity associated with broad
16 community measurements, models are often unable to identify mechanistic explanations. Many
17 present efforts to forecast insect dynamics are restricted to single-species models, which can
18 offer precise predictions but limited generalizability. Trait-based approaches may offer a good
19 compromise which limits the masking of the ranges of responses while still offering insight.
20 Regardless of modeling approach, the data used to parameterize a forecasting model should be
21 carefully evaluated for temporal autocorrelation, minimum data needs, and sampling biases in
22 the data. Forecasting models can be tested using near-term predictions and revised to improve
23 future forecasts.

24 **Highlights**

- 25 ● Many models used to understand insect dynamics are never extended to prediction
- 26 ● Density-dependence and sampling biases are often present in long term data
- 27 ● Biodiversity metrics have tradeoffs in predictability, generalizability and scale
- 28 ● Simple statistics and more advanced integrated modeling can address biases directly
- 29 ● Forecasting models can be tested using near-term predictions and revised iteratively

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31 **Introduction**

32 Insect ecologists have generally approached forecasting insect dynamics in a piecemeal way,
 33 with individual solutions developed as needed to predict vital metrics for a few key species. Yet
 34 in an era of profound biodiversity loss, understanding and predicting long-term trends is key to
 35 mitigating functional losses [1]. The critical importance of insects to most ecosystems has led to
 36 dire projections, but also considerable scientific debate on the nature of these predictions has
 37 occurred [2]. At present, most attempts at modeling the insect decline phenomenon fall more
 38 accurately into explanatory modeling with implied extrapolation rather than predictive modeling.
 39 Indeed, most true forecasts of insect dynamics have focused on individual species of economic
 40 or cultural significance, that is, primarily pests and a few well-studied species of conservation
 41 concern [3,4]. Given controversies, modeling disagreements, data needs, and natural variability
 42 in insect population sizes, a fundamental question emerges: how forecastable are insect
 43 populations? **(Figure 1)**

44 ***Forecasting biodiversity dynamics***

45 In forecasting responses of biodiversity to environmental change, a wide variety of modeling
 46 techniques are commonly used, including combining correlative approaches (i.e. species
 47 distribution models), mechanistic approaches (i.e. demography and temperature dependence),
 48 and theory [5]. Predicting the behavior of ecological systems is a means to test scientific
 49 understanding, yet much of the field of ecology has often focused on explanatory models [6].
 50 Although some authors define ecological forecasting as a strictly quantitative endeavor [e.g. 7],
 51 more colloquially in biodiversity science, predictions yielded by modeling and synthesis may be
 52 qualitative, directional, or quantitative. Quantitative outputs are desirable from a hypothesis-
 53 testing standpoint because these predictions can be explicitly tested [6].

54 Because biodiversity processes are driven, in part, by environmental variables, the accuracy of
 55 the projection will depend on the accuracy and uncertainty of the projection of these covariates
 56 [8,9]. The uncertainty surrounding forecasts of biodiversity parameters inherently depends on
 57 the uncertainties associated with the information used in the models, including future
 58 uncertainties in driving variables, which variables are included, and the underlying model
 59 structure, and the interaction of these factors all ultimately drive how far a model may be used to
 60 predict into the future [10]. While understating uncertainty is not desirable, models which
 61 incorporate all possible uncertainties may produce unrealistic and unreliable predictions [11].

62 Explanatory predictions tend to be based in mechanistic hypotheses: they can be used to
 63 describe the behavior of individual systems under testable conditions which can then be
 64 corroborated by data. Anticipatory predictions are forecasts (also referred to as projections and
 65 scenarios): they represent the extension of a hypothesis into the future, assuming a theory
 66 holds [5]. Forecasts may be conditional rather than explicitly temporal, that is, their results
 67 depend on certain driver conditions occurring, rather than explicitly predicting a given metric at a
 68 point in time. For example, models can be used to forecast the likelihood that animals
 69 experience mortality during extreme heat events [12], or the locations where invasive insects
 70 are most likely to be detected [3]. However, these predictions have an inherent temporal aspect:

71 the implication being that should the modeled conditions be realized at some time in the future,
72 the projected outcomes would (or could) occur at that point in time. In fact, many forecasts are
73 not necessarily intended to predict the next state of the system under study, but may be used in
74 an anticipatory way, to extrapolate explanatory models to possible scenarios, given uncertainty
75 in driving parameters [5].

76 Quantifying the change in biodiversity metrics (whether for a single species population or a
77 broader taxon) is difficult because the data needs to adequately characterize temporal
78 processes [9]. Simply detecting temporal trajectories of population processes (much less
79 extrapolating from them) may require more than a decade of annual data when no underlying
80 structure of the data is assumed, especially in environments with high inherent thermal
81 variability [13]. Given the challenges of simply measuring trends in many biodiversity systems
82 and the peculiarities of insect biology, explicit efforts to forecast the dynamics of a system are
83 relatively rare in insect ecology.

84 ***Explaining insect dynamics is challenging***

85 Prediction of insect population responses, even to a single stressor, is not necessarily
86 straightforward [14]. It is likely that, as a general rule, anthropogenic change will negatively
87 affect insect abundance and biodiversity [15]. However, insect herbivore populations may be
88 negatively, neutrally or positively affected by a stressor, depending on the nature of the
89 disturbance [16]. Responses to stressors may have immediate population effects or more
90 idiosyncratic physiological effects [17], and may be mediated by behavioral adaptations [18,19].
91 Insect biology can present a particular challenge because responses can be non-uniform, even
92 within a single species, at different life stages [20,21]. Specific taxa may be sensitive to lesser-
93 documented stressors [22]. Furthermore, given their rapid generation time, eco-evolutionary
94 dynamics will inevitably affect range and population sizes of insects over time [23]. Ultimately,
95 forecasting insect dynamics relies on an understanding of these complex biologies: they
96 increase the complexity of the task of predicting future dynamics in insect taxa, and undermine
97 researchers in their quest for generality. Due to the complexity of these interactions, some
98 authors have argued that knowledge gaps remain too great and that understanding and
99 predicting insect decline cannot be achieved without directed experimentation [24], while others
100 have argued that extremely large scale observational approaches are key to understanding and
101 ultimately testing forecasts of insect dynamics [25].

102 ***Impediments to forecasting insect dynamics***

103 A major impediment to forecasting biodiversity dynamics in insects is the sheer difficulty in
104 collecting insect species data: taxonomic expertise needed to process biodiversity samples to
105 species is rare [26]. Even in situations where standardized sampling approaches are employed
106 [e.g. 27], significant lags may hinder the timely production of data, and thus, the viability of
107 forecasts [28]. Another major hindrance to forecasting is that insect biodiversity data may not be
108 collected at the scale of the process being modeled, leading to biased inferences or inflation of
109 observed precision [29]. However, recent advances in automated identification show promise in

110 increasing capacity and speed for insect monitoring data, which may soon increase our ability to
111 meaningful quantify insect variability across space and time [30].

112 Trends observed in insect dynamics also depend highly on how they are monitored. Estimates
113 of extent and area of occupancy may differ dramatically when predicted using different data
114 sources [31]. Data may be taken from locations biased by their attributes to be more inviting to
115 insects, like gardens or preserves [32]. Similar biases are likely present in the data that the
116 community considers the highest quality: much of the long-term, systematic data taken for
117 insects comes from areas under protection [e.g. 33], with less monitoring undertaken from areas
118 under increasing disturbance [34]. Biases may also be present in unstructured and untargeted
119 records (like those produced by community scientists), with less experienced users contributing
120 more observations of larger species with more striking visual traits [35] **(Box 1)**. The increasing
121 reliance on unstructured community science to estimate biodiversity trends may increase the
122 likelihood of misleading results [36,37] **(Box 2)**.

123 The selection of drivers used in models also plays a profound role in how predictions of insect
124 populations manifest. For instance, using temperature extremes rather than average
125 temperatures in extinction risk models to account for thermal stress results in substantial
126 changes in predictions [38]. An additional element of complexity occurs due to the non-
127 uniformity of drivers of insect biodiversity trends through both time and space **(Box 3)**. Finally, it
128 is well-established that species are affected unequally by change: many species are negatively
129 impacted by human activities, but a few thrive under the conditions of continuous disturbance of
130 human altered environments [39]. This 'winners and losers' dynamic presents a barrier to
131 generalizability when it comes to selecting metrics that both authentically capture the broad
132 scale of the insect decline problem without masking the details through unwarranted statistical
133 lumping of very different groups of organisms.

134 **Predictability of different metrics**

135 The question of whether forecasting insect dynamics is possible depends greatly on the
136 specifics of both the question being asked, but also on the information available to support this
137 question, and, indeed, the inherent predictability of the biodiversity metric or property to be
138 modeled [40]. In most cases, the reliability of forecasting predictions decreases with time, while
139 it increases with the amount of historical data informing the predictions [41,42]. However, the
140 inherent predictability, and the scale at which prediction can occur, will ultimately dictate the
141 limitations on the accuracy of a forecast.

142 Aggregate and derivative measures may be more accurately predicted compared to more
143 simple metrics, however, this comes at a cost to characterization of drivers and precision of
144 estimates [28]. Whereas forecasting models for single species abundance or distribution are
145 common and offer detailed mechanistic explanations [e.g. 3], whole-community metrics like
146 diversity, evenness and richness may provide a more holistic picture of insect well-being. But
147 these metrics may also mask unequal responses across a community, particularly in groups of
148 insects with traits that cause widely divergent responses to environmental conditions [43]. The
149 temporal grain of the underlying data and the desired predictions inevitably interact with the

150 selection of the metric, with longer time spans (i.e. inter-annual variation vs intra-annual
 151 variation) representing both different processes and the integration of more short-term
 152 underlying processes, but metrics that can be used for nearer-term forecasts are more
 153 inherently testable [44]. Because most studies have a particular focus, most attempts to forecast
 154 insect well-being as a whole suffers from phylogenetic, functional, spatial and temporal biases; it
 155 has been argued that to optimize these broad scale predictions, standardized monitoring
 156 schemes focusing on net abundance and biomass were needed to capture authentic estimates
 157 of these processes. [45].

158 These more aggregated measures for biodiversity are often used to imply more general future
 159 predictions, or provide qualitative predictions associated with a management scenario [40]: for
 160 example, a recent study found that habitats with more rare plant species supported more rare
 161 insects, regardless of habitat size [46], implying that restoration efforts that focus on improving
 162 plant richness rather than protecting more habitat would result in better outcomes for insect
 163 richness. However, other authors caution against using richness as a measure for biodiversity
 164 change because this metric is highly sensitive to plot size, making it unreliable to measure,
 165 much less predict biodiversity change [47].

166 Functional and trait-based approaches to measuring biodiversity processes may yield some
 167 more generalizable, if often qualitative, predictions that offer a workable compromise from the
 168 highly stochastic species-focused metrics and limited mechanistic explanation of all-insect-level
 169 metrics [48]. For instance, functional trait approaches to measuring biodiversity may provide
 170 generalities beyond taxonomic classification: climatic niche breadth was associated with degree
 171 of range shifts under climate conditions, and this association held in both vertebrates (birds) and
 172 invertebrates (moths and butterflies) across a latitudinal gradient in Europe [49]. Thus, these
 173 approaches offer a viable compromise that may offer broad generalizability in prediction without
 174 the cost to mechanistic explanation, and some traits may be more conducive to building viable
 175 predictions than others [e.g. 50]

176 **What tools can we use and where are they appropriate?**

177 Several classes of tools hold promise for forecasting insect populations, depending on the
 178 desired scales and precision of predictions desired. A subset of the most commonly used
 179 current approaches are presented here.

180 *Correlative/statistical approaches*

181 Often, projections in ecological systems are based on linear trends applied to time series data
 182 [9,13,51]. This is often statistically inappropriate based on the underlying autocorrelation
 183 structure of biodiversity metrics (i.e. the current state of the metric in question is dependent on
 184 both the environmental drivers and the previous state of that same metric), however, these
 185 linear trends are often essential for communicating change over time and provide more intuitive
 186 outputs to the model, such as expected change in population size. Thus, we can evaluate the
 187 length of time needed to establish a linear trend in the system under study, given the actual
 188 structure of historical data [52,53], but more importantly, it is essential that entomologists use

189 models which statistically manage for this underlying structure in their estimates of rates-of-
190 change. Weiss et al. 2023 provide an accessible approach for correcting annual data using
191 random year intercepts in generalized linear models (GLMs). Their approach was able to
192 produce more conservative, less biased estimates of rates of change for ground beetle
193 abundance over a 24 year study, and also demonstrated how sensitivity analysis could be
194 applied to identify influential observations [54].

195 In data-rich systems where there is limited functional understanding (e.g. data produced by
196 large distributed monitoring networks) other tools can be employed. Generalized additive
197 modeling (GAM) approaches can be use where the shape of the relationship between variables
198 is unknown: this suite of tools allows the estimation of smoothing functions between variables of
199 interest, allowing predictions to be 'data-led' and not necessarily relying on a fore-knowledge of
200 the mechanistic explanation of their relationships [55]. For example, GAMs were used to explain
201 patterns in carabid beetle richness relative to climatic variables, forecast the distribution of
202 biodiversity hotspots, and used this information to develop conservation recommendations for a
203 protected temperate steppe area in northwestern China [56]. Machine learning models such as
204 artificial neural networks may be used to take this data-driven approach further in cases where
205 system knowledge is limited, making it possible to forecast systems with very limited knowledge
206 of their ecology. For example, an early warning system for rice gall midge was developed using
207 an autoregressive neural network approach on time series data documenting abundance of the
208 midge, and the model outperformed more typical statistical approaches because the method
209 does not assume linear relationships in the data [57].

210 *Mechanistic and physiological population models*

211 Mechanistic and physiological population models come in a wide variety of scales. In applied
212 entomology, short-term forecasts of insects are commonly constructed, usually from
213 mechanistic models describing the phenology, population growth and immediate environmental
214 responses of a particular species or complex [58]. These models often include spatially-explicit
215 elements to indicate risk, and may include management information (i.e. economic injury levels,
216 action thresholds) often providing these forecasts at a weekly interval, aligned with how farmers
217 and foresters make pest management decisions [59]. Near-term forecasting models may be
218 extended (i.e. to the length of a growing season, for example) for a specific population of well-
219 studied insects using models that account for many of the major parameters, however these
220 models may have very limited transferability if the models incorporate site-specific information
221 and highly specific dynamics [e.g. 60]. Yet, mechanistic models can be used to gain more
222 general insights when applied to broader groups using trait- based approaches. Mechanistic
223 modeling essentially leverages very specific understanding of insect ecophysiological responses
224 to predict higher level phenomena in insect populations, and can be used under longer term
225 scenarios where statistical extrapolations are likely to break down [61] or explicitly link
226 physiological traits to ecological theory [62]. For instance, thermal sensitivity traits were used to
227 forecast insect community responses under future climate scenarios: these analyses suggested
228 greater extinction risk among insects in tropical environments without rapid adaptation or
229 migration [63]. Mechanistic approaches can be used to predict future selection patterns in plastic

230 or variable traits within their ranges: e.g. selection for lighter wing colors to avoid overheating in
 231 warming climates [64].

232 *Integrating heterogenous data into forecasting*

233 Integrated population modeling is an approach commonly used in wildlife conservation, where
 234 taxa under management, such as game species, are monitored using varied survey protocols,
 235 at different life stages, across different parts of their range, creating a highly heterogenous but
 236 very rich set of observational data [65]. Animals monitored across their ranges or lifecycles often
 237 yield discrepant patterns which can be difficult to resolve in isolation, often resulting from factors
 238 such as asynchronies between metapopulations and density-dependent demographic effects
 239 [66]. This approach allows researchers to identify which data and monitoring strategies provide
 240 the most informative estimates [67], and is generally applied to well-monitored species with
 241 complex life histories, but may be used to estimate and forecast a wide variety of metrics
 242 regarding that population at various points in its lifecycle [66]. This integrated modeling
 243 approach has recently been extended to integrated community occupancy modeling, which
 244 allows the integration of single species distribution models and hierarchical community
 245 occupancy models to forecast biodiversity dynamics of bird communities [68].

246 *Inferring temporal processes from spatial approaches*

247 Spatial processes may serve as a proxy for temporal processes in developing forecasts for
 248 insect decline, or as part of direct experiments to identify drivers that might be managed through
 249 time [69]. Distribution models can be used to estimate range size and occupancy to prioritize
 250 protections and listings of species with contracting or vulnerable populations within their ranges,
 251 based on projected extinction risks [70]. Spatial approaches may provide a means for
 252 forecasting other vital parameters in cases where abundance data are unavailable. For instance
 253 an extinction risk index was developed based on range size and was used to examine how
 254 species traits like thermal limits and body size affect extirpation risk in 600 Odonata species,
 255 using occurrence data [43].

256 Future ranges forecast through distribution modeling can be refined by combining this approach
 257 with dynamic evolutionary models that account for the genetic potential of the species to
 258 respond to changes in their environment [71], and may provide anticipatory predictions that go
 259 beyond interactions with the abiotic environment. Range dynamics models can be further
 260 refined beyond the niche-implicit aspects typical to species distribution models by the
 261 superimposition of process-explicit, mechanistic models (for organismal physiology, biotic
 262 interactions, and demography), helping to mitigate extrapolation issues created by distribution
 263 models based on correlative characteristics alone [72].

264 *Iterative forecasting methods*

265 With all methods described above, iterative, near-term forecasting approaches can be applied.
 266 In this case, the forecasts are made repeatedly and updated as new data becomes available,
 267 effectively re-running the model for each new system state as it is realized [40]. This approach

268 allows explicit testing not just the performance of predictive models, but would allow multiple
269 competing models to be evaluated in real time, and provide insights into situations where
270 relationships between drivers may not hold. This approach is currently under use for the NEON
271 Ecological Forecasting Challenge, a community-driven scientific networking activity designed to
272 bring about scientific interest in advancing approaches to ecological forecasting [7].The project
273 challenges users to develop forecasting models to predict the next state of data collected by the
274 National Ecological Observatory Network [73]. Among the challenges, users have been tasked
275 with developing models for the richness and abundance of Carabid beetles collected in pitfall
276 traps at all the sites [7]. At time of writing, the challenge was still ongoing.

277 **Conclusions**

278 Forecasting insect populations, as a whole, with simultaneous great generalization and
279 precision is unlikely due to the diversity of insects, ecologies, life histories, behaviors and
280 environments in which they occur, but also in the diversity of metrics, data sources, inherent
281 biases in monitoring strategies, and tools available. However, several approaches, including
282 integrated population monitoring for single species predictions, and near-term iterative
283 approaches to testing forecasts hold promise for developing novel insights into drivers,
284 particularly when underlying data are classified using relevant species traits. Yet, broader
285 generalities may not be needed when speaking of biodiversity trends as a whole: it is well
286 established that rates of anthropogenic change in the environment generally have negative
287 consequences for all but a handful of species that have traits that favor disturbed environments
288 and tend to be associated with humans. Because of the non-uniqueness of models, it is likely
289 that the quest for the ‘best’ (i.e. most precise) model to inform management is both ill-informed
290 and potentially dangerous[74]. Although a nuanced approach to predicting insect responses to
291 stressors is desirable from a scientific and management standpoint, core conservation and
292 policy efforts do not require this level of detail in order to enact positive changes for insects
293 more generally [75,76].

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416 This perspective piece highlights a particularly insidious bias associated with insect biodiversity
417 monitoring: insect populations are monitored in habitats that are “good” for insects like
418 conservation areas. This ignores the biodiversity dynamics occurring in impacted areas, even
419 while human activities encroach into more and more relatively pristine habitats. This effect
420 almost certainly has compromised our ability to measure insect dynamics across broader
421 scales.

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599 **Figure 1. Core elements required to forecast insect dynamics.** Researchers must consider
 600 the research question and context to select appropriate data, metrics models and validation
 601 approaches to be used for forecasting insect dynamics. Figure constructed using Canva.

602 **Box 1: Can natural history collection data be used to estimate and predict insect**
 603 **population trends?**

604 Using natural history collection data (and similarly, data produced by community science
 605 surveys like iNaturalist) in explanatory and forecasting models is a subject of ongoing concern in
 606 the quantitative ecology community because of the unstructured nature of these data [36,77].
 607 Yet, one of the principal challenges in understanding and predicting insect decline is the lack of
 608 historical baseline data [2]. If used with caution, these data represent an unprecedented
 609 resource for understanding how insect communities have changed over time [78]. A technique
 610 that could capitalize on this data resource is to use a community of specimens instead of single
 611 species from within the collection data, where multiple species with a similar probability of being
 612 captured are examined together, using total captures across the community to control for
 613 sampling effort over time. This approach allows relative, if not absolute abundance and thus
 614 long-term responses to historical drivers to be evaluated [79]. Similarly, researchers might use
 615 detection data of similar species within a given species' expected range, at a given date and
 616 time to infer non-detection for the construction of occupancy models [80]. Furthermore, these
 617 records can be brought into integrated modeling approaches which have the ability to couple
 618 these long term, but unstructured data with contemporary experimentally-produced data in a
 619 single analytical framework [77].

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621 **Box 2: Tool Highlight: Evaluating bias in time series**

622 Because of the high degree of temporal and spatial autocorrelation present in occurrence and
 623 abundance surveys, Boyd et al. [81] developed ROBITT: Risk Of Bias In Studies of Temporal
 624 Trends. ROBITT is a tool which provides a structured approach for a researcher to essentially
 625 'interview' their data in the context of bias assessment, focusing on explicitly defining the
 626 questions, scales, data reliability and provenance, as well as any apparent geographical,
 627 environmental and taxonomic biases. This tool is especially useful for assessing limitations of
 628 data from unstructured surveys and how these biases might manifest in any projection models
 629 [81].

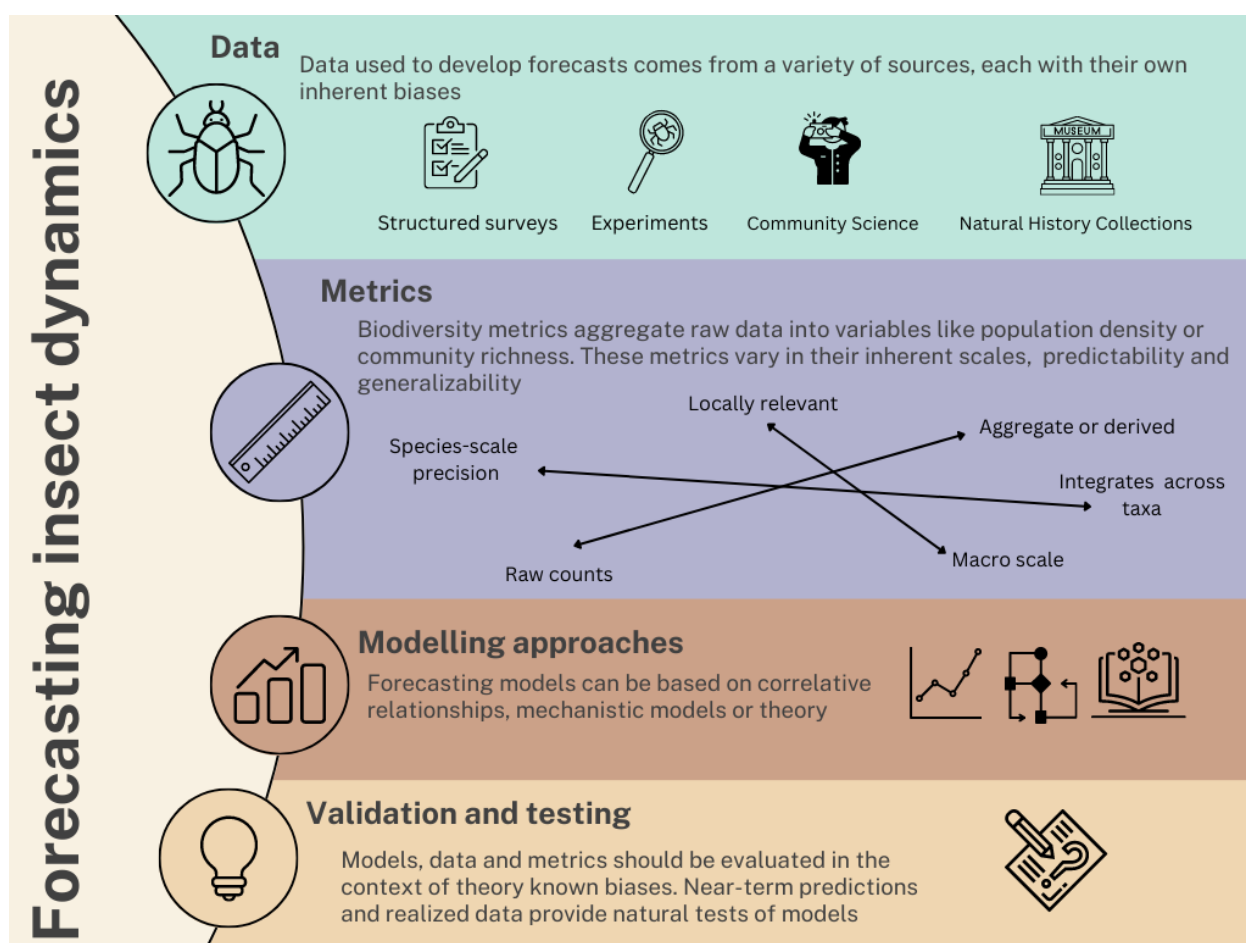
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631 **BOX 3: Case study: Forecasting the dynamics of complex insects**

632 In addition to different species being sensitive to different disturbances through their varied
 633 biologies, different stressors may act on populations at different times, and one stressor may
 634 predispose a species to sensitivity to another. In the iconic and well-studied Monarch butterfly, a
 635 number of conditions have been linked to the dynamics of this species, including pesticide use
 636 in breeding grounds, unfavorable conditions at migratory stopover points, or loss of integrity of

637 overwintering sites [82]. While time-series methods may be used to identify periods of change in
 638 internal rules of population regulation, providing insight into when the most changes have
 639 occurred historically [83], a hierarchical modeling approach used to integrate population data
 640 across the monarch lifecycle and isolate the effects of these potential drivers, disentangling
 641 those with historical effects from those currently driving the dynamics of this species [84]. This
 642 approach revealed that breeding season temperatures played a larger role in monarch
 643 dynamics than previously thought in recent years: when it was used in concert with climate
 644 projections to forecast future populations of the species, it highlighted particular vulnerability to
 645 monarch breeding in parts of the US Midwest experiencing higher rates of temperature increase
 646 [4].

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