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Climate Change and Invasion Expansion Jointly Reshape Geographic Ranges of Invasive Tephritid Fruit Flies

Zihua Zhao (Zzhzhao@cau.edu.cn)

China Agricultural University https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2353-2862

Yu Zhang

China Agricultural University

Gonzalo A Avila

New Zealand Institute for Plant and Food Research Mount Albert Campus: New Zealand Institute for Plant and Food Research Ltd

Peng Han

Sichuan University - Wangjiang Campus: Sichuan University

Xubin Pan

Chinese Academy of Inspection and Quarantine

Yujia Qin

China Agricultural University

Zhihong Li

China Agricultural University

Gadi V.P. Reddy

USDA-ARS-SRRC: USDA-ARS Southern Regional Research Center

Mark van Kleunen

Universität Konstanz: Universitat Konstanz

Cang Hui

Stellenbosch University

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 flies
- ³ Zihua Zhao^{1,*}, Yu Zhang¹, Gonzalo A Avila², Peng Han³, Xubin Pan¹, Yujia Qin¹, Zhihong Li¹, Gadi
- 4 V.P. Reddy⁴, Mark van Kleunen⁵, Cang Hui^{6,7}
- ⁵ ¹ Department of Plant Biosecurity, College of Plant Protection, China Agricultural University,
- 6 Beijing 100193, China;
- ⁷ ² The New Zealand Institute for Plant & Food Research Limited, Private Bag 92169, Auckland 1142,
- 8 New Zealand;
- ⁹ ³ Laboratory of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Yunnan University, Kunming 650504, Yunnan,
- 10 China;
- ⁴ USDA-ARS-Southern Insect Management Research Unit, 141 Experiment Station Road, PO Box
- 12 346, Stoneville, MS 38776, USA;
- ¹³ ⁵ Department of Biology, University of Konstanz, Konstanz 78464, Germany;
- ⁶ Department of Mathematical Sciences, Centre for Invasion Biology, Stellenbosch University,
- 15 Matieland 7602, South Africa;
- ¹⁶ ⁷ Mathematical and Physical Biosciences, African Institute for Mathematical Sciences, Muizenberg
- 17 **7945**, South Africa.
- 18
- 19
- 20 Corresponding author: <u>zhzhao@cau.edu.cn</u> (ZZ), +86-0162732068 (TEL)
- 21 Other email: zhangyu@alu.cau.edu.cn; gonzalo.avila@plantandfood.co.nz; penghan1394@163.com;
- 22 <u>xubin.hu.pan@gmail.com; qinyujia@cau.edu.cn; lizh@cau.edu.cn; gadi.reddy@usda.gov; mark.vankleunen@uni-</u>
- 23 konstanz.de; chui@sun.ac.za
- 24

Abstract: Human-mediated species introductions have greatly contributed significantly to the 25 current global alteration of the biosphere, with many invasive species rapidly expanding their 26 27 geographic ranges, leading to changes in biodiversity and disruptions of ecosystem functioning. With a modified SDM that considers both extensive data coverage and the distance to previously already 28 29 occupied areas, we show continued shifts and expansions of geographic ranges of two globally invasive tephritid pest species *Bactrocera dorsalis* and *Ceratitis capitata*). Both tephritid pests are 30 still expanding globally, with their geographic ranges estimated to have expanded by 65% and 22% 31 in the past three decades. The potential future geographic distributions of *B. dorsalis* and *C. capitata* 32 33 under four scenarios of Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) for 2050 highlighted some key changes when compared to their current occurrences. Under all four RCPs by 2050, the potential 34 geographic distribution of C. capitata was predicted to shrink by 5-14%, while the distribution of B. 35 36 dorsalis was predicted to increase by 12-15%. Under different climate scenarios for 2050, B. dorsalis could experience a notable poleward expansion with increasing connectivity in its future geographic 37 distribution. The two tephritids will continue to co-occur in Africa, with B. dorsalis experiencing 38 39 higher suitability in most regions where they overlap. Climate changes were estimated to contribute more, than non-equilibrial invasion expansion, to changes in the geographic ranges of the two 40 tephritid pests. The forecasted potential geographic distributions could enhance regional biosecurity 41 preparedness in future climates and mitigate proactively the economic loss from these fruit fly pests. 42 Key words: Biological invasions, invasion dynamics, non-native species, Oriental fruit fly, 43 occurrence probabilities, global warming. 44

45 Introduction

The spread of non-native organisms has been drastically on the rise over the last century, arguably accelerated by ongoing global climate change. Indeed, climate change has altered global gradients in environmental factors such as temperature and precipitation, and increased the frequency of extreme events (Urvois et al. 2021; Simberloff et al. 2013). These alterations of environmental gradients often drive range shifts in both native and non-native species, reducing ecosystem resistance and resilience to further invasions (Hulme 2006).

Invasive pest species have been increasing at an unprecedented rate in agricultural ecosystems 52 worldwide in recent decades (Seebens et al. 2019). Although many insect species are not considered 53 54 as pests in their native habitats, some can cause serious ecological and economic impacts once established in other regions (Diagne et al. 2021). For example, most tephritid fruit flies are part of the 55 non-pest components of native biota (Aluja and Mangan 2008), but some have become important 56 57 global invasive pests that feed on a wide range of fruits and vegetables. These pests include the Oriental fruit fly (Orifly), Bactrocera dorsalis (Hendel) and the Mediterranean fruit fly (Medfly), 58 Ceratitis capitata (Wideemann) (both species belongs to Diptera: Tephritidae), which both can be 59 easily transported as larvae or pupae in infested fruits. Orifly originated in the tropical area of Asia 60 and to date has invaded many parts of Africa, Oceania, Europe, North America, and West Australia 61 (Zeng et al. 2019). Medfly originated in Africa and has spread to South America, North America, and 62 63 Europe (Vera et al. 2002). Before 2020, Medfly and Orifly had already been transported to more than 70 and 100 countries, respectively, and both species are listed as important guarantine insect pests by 64 the USA, Australia and China (De Meyer et al. 2008; Zeng et al. 2019). Countries with invasive 65 tephritid pests have suffered export restrictions on their fruit products, requiring costly quarantine 66

67	treatments before export (Follett and Hennessey, 2007; Holmes et al. 2010; Beaury et al. 2020).
68	Furthermore, the co-invasion by Orifly and Medfly has caused infestations of multiple fruits and
69	agricultural products especially in Africa. Intriguingly, the Orifly and Medfly, which share the same
70	hosts, have co-invaded some areas (e.g., Kenya and parts of Africa), resulting in severe economic
71	loss due to mixed infestation (Hussain et al. 2015).
72	Invasive species typically have not fully explored their niche opportunities in the invaded range and
73	are thus experiencing non-equilibrial invasion dynamics (Hui and Richardson 2017). Consequently,
74	for risk assessment and management planning, it is essential to consider the role of invasive spread
75	(Low et al. 2021) when forecasting the potential geographical distribution (PGD) of non-native
76	organisms. That is, invasion risk is a composite result of both habitat suitability and the likelihood
77	that it will arrive from already occupied areas (Bertelsmeiera et al. 2018; Williams et al. 2021).
78	The acceleration of global warming will likely further shift or even expand the PGDs of non-native
79	species (Cornelissen et al. 2019; Thomas 2010). Climate change, especially global warming, may
80	make these remaining areas also suitable for these two invasive fruit flies, exacerbating their global
81	progression into currently uninvaded areas (Zhao et al. 2020). Species distribution models (SDMs),
82	also called ecological niche models, are classic techniques for estimating habitat suitability and the
83	PGD of non-native species (Elith et al. 2011). It is an effective method to identify suitable but
84	unoccupied areas that could also emerge in future climates and thus face potential invasion risks of
85	non-native species (Godefroid et al. 2020; Pouteau et al. 2021). A key challenge to this method is
86	model transferability when predicting species distributions in novel environments (Peterson et al.
87	2007). Such models normally rely on realized niches (species-environment relationships), together
88	with occurrence records and environmental data, and can project the joint effects of dispersal, biotic

89	interactions, and environmental filtering (Peterson et al. 2011; Puchałka et al. 2021).
90	By assessing the likely changes in the PGDs of Orifly and Medfly, we can examine the relative
91	sensitivity of predicted invasion risks of these non-native species under different climate change
92	scenarios (Kriticos et al. 2017). Here, we use a modified procedure of SDMs that considers both
93	factors of climate change and arrival probability and assess the current and future PGDs of Orifly
94	and Medfly under different climate conditions. We explore the potential invasion risks and processes
95	of these species in both co-occurring and separately occurring areas. This study provides an early
96	warning signal for collective management by identifying future susceptible regions to the invasions
97	of these two globally invasive fruit fly pests (Maino et al. 2016).
98	
99	Methods

100 Occurrence and bioclimatic data

101 Current geographical distribution data for both Orifly and Medfly were compiled from existing databases, including the CABI Invasive Species Compendium (www.cabi.org/isc; retrieved on 102 Febrary-17-2020), the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (www.gbif.org; retrieved on January-103 15-2020) and the literature (De Meyer et al. 2008; De Villiers et al. 2016; Stephens et al. 2007; see 104 Table S1). We classified all occurrence records into three categories: presence, absence or eradicated 105 106 in a particular year. A 'presence' record represents a confirmed detection or a positive finding after an eradication program. An 'eradicated' record represents a negative finding from surveillance after an 107 eradication program. An 'absence' record represents no further detections after continuous 108 surveillance after having been reported of a temporary presence but without any specific eradication 109

110	programs. For the species distribution modelling (see below), we only used data of 'presence'
111	records. In particular, for each tephritid species, we created a binary raster map of infestation, in
112	which each infested grid cell (approximates 50 by 50 km in size $(0.5^{\circ} \text{ by } 0.5^{\circ}))$ could have more
113	than one presence record. Globally, we have 838 and 622 infested cells for Orifly and Medfly,
114	respectively, covering a period from 1900 to 2020 (Figure 1, S1 and S2).
115	Past and future bioclimatic data were extracted from the WorldClim database (version 2.1;
116	www.worldclim.org) at a resolution of 50 by 50 km under the Behrmann Equal Area Cylindrical
117	projection. We used the future climate data for 2050 that includes the average of 2041 to 2060
118	predictions of the earth system model MIROC-ESM-CHEM (MI) under four representative
119	concentration pathways (RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0 and RCP8.5), representing future scenarios of
120	low to high greenhouse gas emissions (Meinshausen et al. 2011). To identify bioclimatic variables
121	that are strongly collinear, we did principal component analyses and pairwise correlation analyses in
122	SPSS 20 (Table S2).
123	To optimize the environmental variables, a back and forth, stepwise method was used to screen the
124	bioclimatic variables. The variables with a high contribution rate (>0.8) were selected to conduct
125	further model analyses. Specifically, we selected temperature (temperature seasonality, mean
126	temperature of warmest quarter, and mean temperature of the coldest quarter) and precipitation
127	(precipitation of the wettest quarter and precipitation of the driest quarter) for the subsequent species
128	distribution modelling. These selected environmental variables have been widely used as important
129	drivers of the physiological performance and thus population dynamics for insects (Puchałka et al.

2021).

131 **Dynamic species distribution modelling**

We used the well-developed species distribution model (SDM) Maxent but followed a novel
procedure to explore the range dynamics. Maxent is a machine learning algorithm for predicting the
PDGs with presence-only records. A large number of publications have been dedicated to explain,
test and improve Maxent in species distribution modelling (e.g., Pearson et al. 2007; Phillips and
Dudik 2008; Elith et al. 2011; Warren and Seifert 2011; Merow et al. 2013; Muscarella et al. 2014).
Specifically, we used Maxent v3.3.3k (www.ipp.mpg.de/maxent2019) for predicting the PGDs of
Orifly and Medfly.

We first prepared the Orifly data based on accumulated 'presence' records for three periods: 1900-1960, 1960-1990, 1990-2020, denoted as $y_{1960}^{i,o}$, $y_{1990}^{i,o}$ and $y_{2020}^{i,o}$, respectively, for grid cell *i*. We then created a spatial layer using the Spatial Analyst function of ArcGIS10.2, representing the distance between grid cell *i* to the nearest presence records (distance to infested area) in the three presence layers, denoted as $d_{1960}^{i,o}$, $d_{1990}^{i,o}$ and $d_{2020}^{i,o}$. Similarly, we define the variables of the Medfly (e.g. $y_{1990}^{i,m}$ and $d_{2020}^{i,m}$). We also prepared the layers of each bioclimatic variable (See Table S1) for each of the three periods ($x_{j,1960}^{i}$, $x_{j,1990}^{i}$, $x_{j,2020}^{i}$).

In a typical Maxent analysis, the model explains the presence records (y^i) by a set of explanatory variables $(x_1^i, x_2^i, ...)$ and predicts the occurrence probability (e.g. $p_{1990}^{i,o}$) as the model output:

148
$$p_{1990}^{i,o} = \text{Maxent}(y_{1990}^{i,o} | x_{1,1990}^i, x_{2,1990}^i, ...).$$
 (1)

Effectively, this is an estimate of habitat suitability, whereas the occurrence probability at a location might additionally depend on how likely it is that the species will arrive there. The latter is likely to depend on how distant the location is to currently occupied locations. Moreover, the occurrence 152 probability of a species could depend on the distribution of other species that may interfere with it.

153 Therefore, we added to two distance predictors to the Maxent model.

That is, we followed an alternative procedure to predict the occurrence probability of Orifly for twoperiods:

156
$$p_{1990}^{i,o} = \text{Maxent}(y_{1990}^{i,o}|d_{1960}^{i,o}, d_{1960}^{i,m}, x_{1,1990}^{i}, x_{2,1990}^{i}, ...),$$
 (2)

157
$$p_{2020}^{i,o} = \text{Maxent}(y_{2020}^{i,o}|d_{1990}^{i,o}, d_{1990}^{i,m}, x_{1,2020}^{i}, x_{2,2020}^{i}, \dots).$$
 (3)

The contribution of $d_{1960}^{i,o}$ in Maxent model (2) represents the contribution of distance to infested area (invasion expansion) from 1960 to 1990 in the geographic range of Orifly; $d_{1960}^{i,m}$ the interference from Medfly, if any, to the range changes in Orifly (Medfly and Orifly share the same niche of host ranges); $x_{j,1990}^{i}$ the contribution of climate characteristics in variable *j* to the geographical distribution of Orifly. The fitted model (3) was then used to predict the occurrence probability in 2050:

164
$$p_{2050}^{i,o} = \text{Maxent}(-|d_{2020}^{i,o}, d_{2020}^{i,m}, x_{1,2050}^{i}, x_{2,2050}^{i}, ...).$$
 (4)

Similarly, we also modelled the occurrence probability of Medfly $(p_{1990}^{i,m}, p_{2020}^{i,m})$ and $p_{2050}^{i,m})$. The Jackknife method was selected for measuring the contribution of different predictors in the model to occurrence probability; a receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve, averaged over multiple runs, was calculated, and the area under the ROC curve (AUC) was used for model performance evaluation (Radosavljevic and Anderson 2014).

170

171 Post-SDM analyses

Occurrence probabilities predicted from the Maxent model were converted into raster files using 172ArcGIS10.2. For better discussion and visualization, we divided the model predictions of occurrence 173probability ($p^{i,o}$ and $p^{i,m}$) into four levels: negligible (0.00-0.10), low (0.10-0.25), medium (0.25-1740.50) and high (0.50-1.00). The area and perimeter of the PGDs in each continent (defined for 175176 occurrence probability ≥ 0.1) were calculated using Spatial Analyst in ArcGIS10.2 under the Behrmann Equal Area Cylindrical projection. For each continent, we calculated the relative change 177in the area and connectivity of PGDs from 2020 to 2050. In particular, we calculated the relative 178change in the area with occurrence probability ≥ 0.1 (e.g. for Orifly): 179

180
$$\Delta P_{2050}^{o} = (P_{2050}^{o} - P_{2020}^{o})/P_{2020}^{o}$$
(5)

181 Connectivity depicts the functional relationship among habitat patches of PGDs and was calculated 182 as the perimeter divided by the area, $C_{year}^{sp} = \text{Perimeter}(p_{year}^{sp} \ge 0.10)/\text{Area}(p_{year}^{sp} \ge 0.10)$. Thus, 183 the relative change in PGD connectivity can be calculated as:

184
$$\Delta C_{2050}^{o} = (C_{2050}^{o} - C_{2020}^{o}) / C_{2020}^{o}$$
(6)

The co-occurring PGDs of Orifly and Medfly were estimated using the Intersect and Symmetrical Difference tool in ArcGIS10.2. The occurrence probabilities of Orifly and Medfly in the co-occurring areas were compared to indicate potential local dominance by one tephritid species. The species with the highest occurrence probability is assumed to be dominant in our analysis. In addition, we tested the fixed effect of different RCPs on predicted occurrence probability (p_{2050}^{i}) with a generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) with continents as the random effect, using the function *glmer* from the package 'Ime4' (Bates et al. 2015) in R 4.0.3 (R Core Team 2016).

193 **Results**

194 Distribution records

As of 2020, Orifly has currently infested 72 countries in South Asia and Africa. It is still largely 195 196 absent from South America (Fig. 1a, Table S1) but it has been repeatedly detected in Chile since 2014. It was already widely distributed in Southeast and South Asia before 2000. Orifly invaded 197 198 Africa in 2006 and has since been rapidly expanding across the continent (Fig. 1b, Fig. S1a-f). Most 199 of the 12 newly invaded countries in the past decade (2010-2020) are African nations. However, invasive Orifly populations have been effectively eradicated in the USA, Australia and Japan (Fig. 200 1a). The native range of Medfly is West Africa. It invaded Spain in 1842 and subsequently spread to 201 202 South America in 1930 (Fig. S2a-f). At present, it is mainly distributed in Europe, Africa, as well as 203 Central and South America, with 101 countries having confirmed cases (Fig 1c). Although Medfly is largely absent in Asia, it has expanded rapidly in Africa, Europe and South America during the past 204 205 several decades (Fig 1d, Table S1). The two species currently co-occur in Africa and Hawaii. Until 2020, both tephritid species were still expanding globally, with Orifly still at a high rate, while 206 Medfly close to saturation (Figure 1b and d). 207

208

209 Model performance

All five selected bioclimatic variables and distance to the most adjacent conspecific record (representing invasive spread) were chosen for the Maxent modelling of Orifly (Fig. 2a-f). For Medfly, mean temperature of the coldest quarter was dropped from the models due to trivial contribution (Fig. 2). Similarly, interspecific interference (i.e. distance to the most adjacent record of

214	the other species) was also dropped. The Maxent models for both tephritid pests performed well
215	(AUC > 0.9; Fig. S3a-d). Among the bioclimatic variables, precipitation of the wettest quarter was
216	found to contribute the most to explain the occurrence probability of Orifly (Fig. S3a-b), while
217	temperature seasonality was the most important predictor of Medfly occurrence probability (Fig.
218	S3c-d). For both 2020 and 2050, according to regularized training gain, temperature seasonality,
219	mean temperature of warmest quarter, precipitation of the wettest quarter, and distance to infested
220	area contributed most to predicting occurrence probabilities of Orifly (Table S3). The same variables,
221	with the exception of precipitation of the wettest quarter, also contributed most to occurrence
222	probabilities of Medfly (Table 1). The predicted occurrence probabilities of Orifly were overall
223	greater than those of Medfly under high temperatures (Figure 2b). The PGDs for both Orifly and
224	Medfly were greatly mediated by invasion expansion (i.e. distance to the most adjacent conspecific
225	record in the past three decades) (Table S3 and Figure 2).

227 *Current and future distributions*

Range shifts of PGDs in Orifly during 1990-2020 were well explained by invasion expansion from distance to the areas that were already infected in 1960-1990 (Fig. 3a, b; Table S3). Orifly has the largest PGD (1,486 million ha) in South America under the current climatic conditions, with 15.3% of the predicted PGD (for $p_{2020}^{i} > 0.1$) in this continent highly suitable ($p_{2020}^{i} > 0.5$; Table S4). There are also large PGDs for Orifly in North America (286 million ha), particularly in Mexico, California and Florida (Fig. 3b). Under RCP 8.5 (a scenario of high greenhouse-gas emissions), the PGD of Orifly would increase by 3% by 2050 in all continents (excluding Antarctica). Importantly,

235	the percentage of highly suitable area would increase by up to 50% in Asia, Africa and South
236	America (Fig. 3c). The predicted PGDs of Orifly in 2050 are visually similar to each other under the
237	four RCP scenarios (Figs. 3a-c, Fig. S4). Moreover, under climate scenario RCP 8.5, Orifly could
238	experience a notable poleward expansion (Fig. 4a), although its distribution in the Middle East was
239	predicted to shrink slightly; similar poleward expansions were also predicted under other milder
240	climate change scenarios (RCP 2.6, 4.5, and 6.0; Fig. S5). Overall, the worldwide PGD of Orifly was
241	predicted to have increased by 12-15% in 2050 (Table S6, Fig. S6a).
242	The PGDs of Medfly in 1990 was also a good predictor of its distribution during 1990 to 2020 (Table
243	1, Fig. 3d, e). Under the current climatic condition, 42.1% of the predicted PGD in Asia is of medium
244	or high suitability ($p_{2020}^{i} > 0.25$; Table S5). In the southern USA and Mexico, Medfly was estimated
245	to have an extensive suitable range (556 million ha, $p_{2020}^{i} > 0.1$; Fig. 3e). The PGDs of Medfly in
246	South America, Africa and Oceania were predicted to shrink and become more fragmented (Fig. 4b;
247	connectivity to decline 85% by 2050). For instance, under RCP 8.5, the highly suitable areas for
248	Medfly were predicted to shrink by 2% in Africa and 3% in South America by 2050 (Fig. 3f). The
249	worldwide PGD of Medfly was predicted to decrease by 5-14% in 2050, expanding only in North
250	America and Europe (Fig. 5, Fig. S6a and b, Table S6 and S7).

252 *Co-occurrence*

Under various climate change scenarios, Orifly and Medfly were predicted to jointly occur in many 253 areas of their current and future PGDs than they currently do (Figs. 6a-b). In these areas of potential 254 co-occurrence, Orifly dominance (higher occurrence probability) was 16% larger than Medfly 255

256	dominance. Under RCP 8.5 in 2050, Orifly dominance regions were predicted to increase by 29% in
257	Africa and 39% in South America due to greater occurrence probabilities in higher temperature
258	regions than Medfly (Fig. 2b). In Europe, Medfly was predicted to be dominant over Orifly in 58%
259	of the areas of predicted co-occurrence under future climate change scenarios. In contrast, Orifly
260	could be dominant in 71% of the potential co-occurrence areas in Asia, while Medfly only in 7%
261	under RCP 8.5 in 2050. Under other milder climate-change scenarios (RCP 2.6, 4.5, 6.0), Orifly was
262	predicted to be still dominant in more areas of potential co-occurrence than Medfly in South
263	America, Africa, and Asia (Table S8).

265 **Discussion**

Both tephritid pests have globally expanded their geographic ranges in the past several decades. We here showed that with further climate changes and invasion expansion, the PGDs of Medfly are predicted to expand in Europe and North America and to shrink in other continents. Furthermore, both species are still expanding their potential areas of high occurrence probability (habitat suitability), fuelling ongoing invasions and recurrences. Under future climate, South America and Asia would be highly vulnerable to invasions by Orifly and Medfly, respectively. Global warming, coupled with spread from the nearby already infected areas, will significantly

enhance the ability these tephritid pests to expand their geographic distribution. The risks and

impacts of these tephritid pests are also likely to increase due to climate change (Vera et al. 2002;

275 Szyniszewsha and Tatem 2014). Orifly will benefit more than Medfly from global warming, because

276 Orifly has a higher optimal performance temperature: the occurrence probability of Medfly peaked at

277	31°C in the warmest quarter, in contrast to 34°C for the occurrence probability of Orifly. This
278	explains why Orifly is expected to undergo large geographic expansion in a warming world (Hill et
279	al. 2016), and especially so in tropical regions (Armstrong et al. 2009).
280	Co-invasions of fruit flies have occurred in Africa and America, and could be a common
281	phenomenon for tephritid invasions as several individuals of multiple tephritid species often infest
282	the same orchards (Rodriguez-Rodriguez et al. 2018) and even fruits (Pieterse et al. 2020; Ganie et
283	al. 2013). Indeed, the co-habitation of Orifly and Medfly in a single fruit has been reported in cases
284	from Hawaii and Africa (Haramoto and Bess 1970; Hussain et al. 2016).
285	When estimating the PGD of an invasive species, it is essential to consider diverse predictors that can
286	affect the target species' recruitment and dispersal (Taylor and Kumar 2012). The previous research
287	also revealed that the PGDs of tephritid pest would be a critical indicator of invasion expansion
288	(Szyniszewska and Tatem 2014; De Villiers et al. 2016). Our prediction considered both bioclimatic
289	conditions, invasion expansion from adjacent occupied areas, and interferences from other species by
290	using the extensive data coverage and the distance to previously already occupied areas. An
291	immediate improvement of our model is to include host distributions and fruit trade networks as
292	covariates, which could change the roles of bioclimatic conditions and invasion expansion, as well as
293	predicted PGDs of these tephritid species (Zhao et al. 2019).

Conclusion

Both Orifly and Medfly have expanded their geographic ranges substantially in the past century
 through successful invasions of new regions, despite quarantines, eradication programs, and

298	suppressive management (Zeng et al. 2019). Asia, under both current and future climates, harbours
299	large unoccupied areas with high occurrence probabilities for Medfly, whereas Orifly can find large
300	unoccupied suitable areas in South America. Climate change, together with close vicinity of already
301	infested areas (d) , will likely drive continued expansions of tephritid species, causing co-invasions of
302	the two species in many areas. The combination of bioclimatic variables, distance to earlier occupied
303	areas and interaction facilitation, could improve the performance of Maxent modelling of invasion
304	dynamics. This modelling protocol, plus incorporating other relevant covariates (e.g. host
305	distributions and dispersal vectors) provide a reliable assessment on the risks and susceptible areas of
306	potential invasion from these fruit fly pests, boosting biosecurity preparedness and preventing future
307	economic losses (Aluja et al. 2008; Suckling et al. 2016; Zhao et al. 2020).
308	Author contributions
309	ZZ designed the experiments. ZZ and YZ collected the data and conducted the niche-based model
310	estimation using Maxent. ZZ and CH conducted the statistical analysis and wrote the first draft. ZZ
311	prepared and wrote the original draft manuscript. ZZ, YZ, GA, PH, XP, YQ, ZL, GVPR, MVK and
312	CH reviewed and edited the manuscript. All authors discussed and approved the final version.
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317	Ethical approval This article does not contain any studies with human participants and/or animals
318	(other than insects) performed by any of the authors.

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437 Legends

438	Figure 1. Current geographical distributions (up to 2020) of Bactrocera dorsalis (Orifly) and
439	Ceratitis capitata (Medfly): (a) current occurrence of Orifly; (b) infested countries for Orifly;
440	(c) current occurrence of Medfly, (d) infested countries for Medfly.
441	Figure 2. Response curves of bioclimatic variables from the Maxent species distribution models ((a)
442	Temperature Seasonality, (b) Mean Temperature of Warmest Quarter, (c) Mean Temperature of
443	Coldest Quarter, (d) Precipitation of Driest Quarter, (e) Precipitation of Wettest Quarter, and (f)
444	Distance to Infested Area (Invasion Expansion). All probability of presence for both species
445	were indicated with 95% Confidence interval).
446	Figure 3. Potential geographical distributions of Bactrocera dorsalis (Orifly) and Ceratitis capitata
447	(Medfly) under past (1990), present (2020) and future climates (2050 RCP8.5; Earth system
448	model MIROC-ESM-CHEM). (a) Orifly-1990; (b) Orifly-2020; (c) Orifly-2050 RCP8.5; (d)
449	Medfly-1990; (e) Medfly-2020; (f) Medfly-2050 RCP8.5.
450	Figure 4. Predicted changes in the potential geographical distributions of (a) Bactrocera dorsalis
451	(Orifly) and (b) Ceratitis capitata (Medfly) under future climate scenarios (2020-2050 RCP 8.5

452 of MIROC-ESM-CHEM).

Figure 5. Changes in PGD connectivity (Eqn.6) for Bactrocera dorsalis (Orifly) and Ceratitis 453 capitata (Medfly) in 6 continents by 2050 of RCP 8.5. 454

Figure 6. Dominance of Bactrocera dorsalis (Orifly) and Ceratitis capitata (Medfly) based on 455

- occurrence probabilities in the areas where they are predicted to co-occur currently 2020 (a) and 456
- in 2050 (b, under RCP8.5 of MIROC-ESM-CHEM). 457
- 458



461 Figure 1



466 Figure 2

(a) Orifly 1990



(b) Orifly 2020



(c) Orifly 2050 RCP 8.5



469

470 Figure 3

471

(d) Medfly 1990



(e) Medfly 2020



(f) Medfly 2050 RCP 8.5





(b) Medfly 2020-2050 RCP 8.5



474 Figure 4







(a) Co-occurrence 2020



(b) Co-occurrence 2050



481

482 Figure 6

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