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# Modelling the spatio-temporal expansion of an exotic seed chalcid, Megastigmus schimitscheki, recently introduced in southeastern France 

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#### Abstract

An exotic, specialist seed chalcid, Megastigmus schimitscheki, has been introduced along with its cedar host seeds from Turkey to southeastern France during the early 1990s. It is now expanding in plantations of Atlas Cedar (Cedrus atlantica). We tested the efficiency of a reaction-diffusionadvection model to survey the spatio-temporal expansion of the insect populations and to study the influence of some biological and spatial criteria on the species dispersal. We assumed that the insect could not choose a particular direction of dispersal but was capable of changing the importance of the role played by random diffusion compared to that played by the advection term by modifying its flying altitude. Both qualitative and quantitative results were satisfactory. Thus, this work emphasizes the usefulness of such models, especially to increase our understanding of the role played by some biological and environmental traits.


Keywords: Insect dispersal; Reaction-diffusion model; Megastigmus; Cedar; Seed chalcid; Simulation

## 1 Introduction

As a result of technological advances and of globalization trade, forest products are moved around the globe with an ever-increasing speed and frequency. This movement has precipitated a substantial increase in biological invasions by allowing organisms to pass the natural barriers that limit their dispersal (Liebhold et al. 1995). This is especially true for the insects infesting tree seeds, whose cryptic way of life does not usually allow a detection easier than using X-rays, the more as phytosanitary regulations are limited or non existent in many countries. In the West Palearctic, 8 of the 21 species recorded in the seed chalcid genus Megastigmus Dalman (Hymenoptera: Torymidae) are exotic invasive species introduced through seed trade (A Roques and Skrzypczynska 2003). Fabre et al. (2003) just noticed a newly invasive seed chalcid, Megastigmus schimitscheki Novitzky (Hymenoptera: Torymidae) in southeastern France. The insect has probably been introduced from Asia Minor (Turkey) along with seeds of Cedar-of-Lebanon (Cedrus libani A. Rich.).

The major objectives of Fabre et al. (2003) were to define the impact of M. schimitscheki on the potential of natural regeneration of the cedar plantations planted in southern France, and to compare
the biological patterns exhibited by the chalcid populations in the area invaded in France with these observed in the native range of Asia Minor (Çanakçioglü 1990; Özkazanç 1979). Therefore, this study provides us with many useful data in order to build a model. Although little was known about the factors underlying the establishment process in the invaded area, the biological characteristics of $M$. schimitscheki in both native and invaded area appeared rather similar to these of other Megastigmus seed chalcids which have been extensively studied in Europe, North America and Japan (e.g. Hedlin et al. 1980; Kamijo 1962; A Roques 1983; A Roques and Skrzypczynska 2003). Thus, the chalcid is considered as specifically related to seeds of cedars (Cedrus spp.) but capable of developing in the seeds of all cedar species, like Atlas Cedar (Cedrus atlantica (Endl.) G. Manetti ex. Carr.) onto which it shifted in France. The host recognition is likely mediated by olfactory and visual cues emitted by the cones (Luik et al. 1999; A Roques 1998).

Previous studies developed in southeastern France also suggested that M. schimitscheki has been introduced during the period 1990-1994 (Fabre 1986, 1989; Fabre et al. 1994; Fabre et al. 2003). Hence, the invasion has occurred recently, and the spreading is still limited. Because of this recent introduction, M. schimitscheki did not recruit any predators in France yet. In addition, the insect is facing little competition for the exploitation of seed resources because the new host, Cedrus atlantica, is also introduced (but from North Africa) and its cones and seeds are still not colonized by the indigenous entomofauna. There is only one competitor, Megastigmus pinsapinis Hoffmeyer, an other Megastigmus seed chalcid which has been introduced half a century ago from North Africa (A Roques and Skrzypczynska 2003). However, M. pinsapinis seems dominated by M. schimitscheki (Fabre et al. 2003). These patterns make the study of the spatio-temporal dispersal processes from the source point easier than in the case of a species introduced since a longer time, distributed on a wider area, and facing a large cortege of natural enemies and competitors.

Moreover, several biological traits facilitate the establishment of Megastigmus seed chalcids in exotic countries: (i) an ability to extend larval diapause in seeds for up to 4 years in most species, allowing them to bridge periods where seeds are unavailable because of masting phenomenon (Turgeon et al. 1994); (ii) parthenogenesis (the females can reproduce without males; A Roques 1983); (iii) an ability of some species to develop within unfertilized seeds, thus there is no need for the seed cones to be pollinated for the insect to survive (Rouault et al. 2004). These patterns contribute to the interest of modelling the spatio-temporal expansion.

Although seed chalcids constitute good models for the study of the expansion processes in newly invaded areas, there are few papers attempting at modelling such a process. Only Jarry et al. (1997) proposed a reaction-diffusion model to survey the colonization of Douglas-fir seed orchards by surrounding populations of a related seed chalcid introduced from North America, Megastigmus spermotrophus Wachtl. However, reaction-diffusion models are widely used in population dynamics, especially when one cannot follow the movement of each organism independently (for review see Murray 2002; Shigesada and Kawasaki 1997 or Turchin 1998).

The aim of our work was to build a model of the spatio-temporal dispersion of M. schimitscheki, and to study, through this model, the influence of some biological and spatial criteria on the species dispersal.

## 2 Study site and data collections

The location of the cedar plantations in Southeastern France was obtained from the French National Forestry Office as well as an estimation of the annual cone crop in each plantation. Then, standardized cone samplings were carried out annually by the Avignon Laboratory of the French National Institute of Agriculture (INRA) from 1994 to 2004. The number of cones collected per plantation varied between 8 to 139 according to the size of the annual cone crop.

Immediately after being collected the cones were brought back to the laboratory where they were individually disarticulated and all their seeds were X-rayed in order to calculate the proportion of filled, empty and chalcid-infested seeds. However, M. schimitscheki cannot be separated from M. pinsapinis through observations of larvae on X-ray plates. Therefore, the infested seeds were placed in emergence boxes until adult emergence in order to know the proportion of each species, and to estimate the
specific damage that can be attributed to M. schimitscheki.
The percentage of seed damage was calculated using the following formula:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\% \text { infestation }=\frac{\text { number of seeds infested by M. schimitscheki }}{\text { total number of seeds }- \text { unfertilized seeds }} \times 100 \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

assuming tentatively that larvae of M. schimitscheki cannot develop in unfertilized seeds unlike other Megastigmus spp.

Wind direction and speed was obtained from Météo-France stations, which are distributed throughout the studied area.

## 3 The model

### 3.1 Simplifying hypothesis and life cycle

The data obtained by Fabre et al. (2003) revealed a quite constant sex-ratio at emergence, with about the same proportion (50:50) of females and males. Moreover, fecundation is not necessary to produce an offspring because of a possible arrhenotokous parthenogenesis (A Roques and Skrzypczynska 2003). Therefore, we did not include the fecundation process and the interaction between males and females in our model. Moreover, we only studied the females dispersal. In addition, even if the variations of the emergence dates in function of the altitude could be included, we did not take them into account, for the sake of simplicity.

Each female lays the eggs in the seeds by inserting its long ovipositor through cone scales during the first year of cone development, and then the whole larval development occurs within the same seed. Adult emergence may occur two years later but emergence may also be delayed for one to four additional years (prolonged diapause, A Roques and Skrzypczynska 2003). A simplified life cycle of M. schimitscheki used for building the model is shown in Figure 1.

### 3.2 Behaviour

The female emergence occurs over a 6-11-day period, with a quite constant rate (Fabre et al. 2003). The individual flight period was assumed to last 10 days as for Megastigmus spermotrophus (Jarry et al. 1997); moreover, because Megastigmus are essentially day-active insects (A Roques 1981), the effective flight period was reduced to 7 days.

Experimentally, a large amount of insects could be found far (e.g. 20 km ) from the front observed the year before (Chalon, unpublished data). Hence, a passive dispersal by wind can be ruled out. Indeed, in the case of a totally passive dispersal of tree seeds by wind, the recorded dispersal distance are in most cases less than 200 meters (Nathan et al. 2002). Experiments conduced by A Roques (unpublished data), using video recording, showed that when they are isolated from cedar seeds the insects slowly move up above the top of the canopy.

Thus, we made the following assumption: inside a forest the insects move by diffusion, and when the diffusion processes bring them to a boundary of the forest, they fly to move upwards and therefore be subject to stronger winds. When they are again close to a forest, say at a distance $d_{a}$, they may reduce their flying altitude in order to be subject to weaker winds and to approach the forest by diffusion (visual and olfactary attractiveness of cones, Luik et al. 1999; A Roques 1998). This hypothesis did not presuppose that the insects were capable of orienting themselves towards a specific direction and seemed more relevant from a biological point of view.

During this flying period, we assumed that the mortality rate was constant.
We used two coupled models. One simulated the laying of eggs and the larval stage whereas the other simulated the movements of the adults. The former was a reaction-diffusion-advection model.

### 3.3 Model for the flying period

In order to model the adult dispersal, we used the following reaction-diffusion-advection equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(\mathbf{x}, t)=D \Delta u(\mathbf{x}, t)-v_{*} V(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \nabla u(\mathbf{x}, t)+f(\mathbf{x}, t)-X(\mathbf{x}, t) u \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $t \in\left[0, N_{d}\right]$ ( $N_{d}$ is the total period where one can find living adults, expressed in days), where the unknown $u(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is the female adult population density at time $t$ and spatial coordinate $\mathbf{x}=(x, y) \in \Omega$, where $\Omega$ is a sufficiently big open set of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$, and

$$
u \equiv 0 \text { on } \partial \Omega
$$

Let us explain each term of (3.2) and give its value.
The function $f(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is a source term that models the progressive emergence of the adults. The results of Fabre et al. (2003) (Fig. 2) showed a female emergence that was quite constant over a period $N_{e m}$. Let $m(\mathbf{x})$ be the total density of female adults that are going to emerge during the period $\left[0, N_{e m}\right]$, at the position $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$. Then,

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\mathbf{x}, t)=\frac{m(\mathbf{x})}{N_{e m}} \text { for } t \in\left[0, N_{e m}\right], \text { and } f(\mathbf{x}, t)=0 \text { for } t>N_{e m} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The term $X(\mathbf{x}, t)$ corresponds to the daily mortality rate during the flight period. Assuming that this rate is constant, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
X(\mathbf{x}, t)=\frac{1}{\text { mean flight period }} \text { for } \mathbf{x} \text { outside a cedar plantation } \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

moreover, we assume that $X(\mathbf{x}, t)=0$ when $\mathbf{x}$ is inside a cedar plantation.
Let us now turn to the diffusion term $D$. It is difficult to estimate its value since the insects are too small to be marked and recaptured. Moreover, it is likely that its value is almost the same inside and outside the plantations (see Section 4). Therefore, it did not appear useful to take a space-varying or time-varying diffusion coefficient. Moreover, similar models for other insect species turned out to be efficient with a constant diffusion coefficient (Banks et al., 1988).

We chose a space-varying and time-varying advection term. The time variations correspond to the daily changes of the winds. For the space variations, in addition to the sampled wind speed and direction, we took into account a new criterion. Indeed, we assumed that the advection's role was more and more important as the insects were far from a plantation whereas the role of diffusion was predominant near and inside the plantations. This hypothesis was motivated by the insects'behaviour (see Section 3.2). We assumed that the flight altitude was proportional to the distance to the forest, up to a maximal distance $d_{a}$. Nathan et al. (2002), analyzing the mean horizontal windspeed at different heights, showed that in open landscapes, over a low vegetation, this wind profile was typically logarithmic. In our case, the flying altitude being quite high, the environment is rather a low vegetation than a dense forest. Therefore, we used the following formula for $V$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
V(\mathbf{x}, t)=V_{r}(\mathbf{x}, t) \min \left\{\ln \left[d(\mathbf{x}, \text { forest })(e-1) / d_{a}+1\right], 1\right\} \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V_{r}$ is the recorded wind, and $d(\mathbf{x}$, forest $)$ is the distance to the closest cedar forest. However, even if the dispersal range of the insects it much higher than the passive "long distance dispersal" of seeds (Tackenberg et al., 2003), it remains smaller than the total distance covered by the wind. Therefore, we added another coefficient $v_{*}$. This coefficient is estimated in Section 4.

### 3.4 Model for the larval stage

Let $u_{f}(\mathbf{x})$ be the (female) adult population density at the end of the flying period of the year $n$. Each insect that has managed to get into a cedar plantation lays $\varepsilon$ eggs, depending on the amount of available resources. Thus,

$$
o(\mathbf{x})=\min \left\{g(\mathbf{x}), \varepsilon u_{f}(\mathbf{x})\right\}
$$

where $o(\mathbf{x})$ is the density of new-laid eggs and $g(\mathbf{x})$ is density of available seeds. Let $d_{1}(n)$ be the 1 year larval prolonged diapause rate of and $d_{2}(n)$ be the rate of insects that emerge after a 2 -year prolonged diapause (we assumed in this work that the duration of the prolonged diapause period was at most of 2 years). Namely, from the eggs which were laid during year $n$, a proportion $1-d_{1}(n)-d_{2}(n)$ of adults will emerge in May of year $n+2$, whereas $d_{1}(n)$ will emerge during year $n+3$ and $d_{2}(n)$ during year $n+4$.

Thus, the total density of (female) adults that are going to emerge in May of year $n+2$ is

$$
m(x)=\left[o(\mathbf{x})\left(1-d_{1}(n)-d_{2}(n)\right)+o_{-1}(\mathbf{x}) d_{1}(n-1)+o_{-2}(\mathbf{x}) d_{2}(n-2)\right] / 2
$$

where $o_{-1}$ and $o_{-2}$ are the number of eggs that have been laid respectively during year $n-1$ and $n-2$ (with a sex-ratio of 50:50 at emergence, see Section 3.1).

During the larval stage, we assumed that the mortality rate was 0 , as it has been proved for a closely-related species (Jarry et al. 1997). Indeed, at present, the larvae do not have parasite nor predators in the invasion zone.

## 4 Parameters estimates

Some parameters could be directly estimated whereas others needed to be numerically computed.
Jarry et al. (1997) have shown that $D=1 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day for $M$. spermotrophus. Andow et al. (1990) estimated its value for the cabbage butterfly, which is a better flyer, to $D=0.08-0.46 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day.

Here, it would seem natural to take two different values for $D$, say $D_{i}$ and $D_{e}$ within and outside the plantations.

In order to estimate the value of $D_{i}$ that best corresponds to our experimental data, we used a formula of Shigesada and Kawasaki (1997), which is valid when $D_{i}$ is the only parameter that has an influence on insects dispersal (in our model the advection term vanishes inside the plantations) and with an initial distribution concentrated on one point:

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{i}=\frac{<r>^{2}}{\pi T} \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\langle r\rangle$ is the mean distance from the source point, during the period $T$. Using data from the Luberon's forest, the mean displacement of the insects was estimated: $<r>=0.3-0.9 \mathrm{~km} /$ day. Thus, formula (4.6) gives $D_{i}=0.03-0.26 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day.

In order to estimate $D_{e}$, we would need to know a period during which the wind direction is constant. Then, formula (4.6) would give the value of $D_{e}$, with $<r>$ replaced by the mean distance crossed orthogonally to the wind direction. Unfortunately, such an information was not included in our data. However, with a similar method, we obtained an upper bound $<r>\leq 1.7 \mathrm{~km} /$ day, and, from formula (4.6), $D_{e} \leq 0.9 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day. Therefore, it was possible to take $D_{e}=D_{i}=0.26 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day without making an important error.

The mortality rate, $X(\mathbf{x}, t)$, was directly computed with the formula (3.4), using a mean flight period of 10 days (Jarry et al 1997). The value of $N_{e m}$ was also known to be between 6 and 11 days (Fabre et al. 2003). Actually, the computations were made with the $2 / 3$ of the mean flight period and the $2 / 3$ of the emergence period, since the insect's activity is only diurnal (A Roques 1981). The fecundity rate $\varepsilon$ was assumed to be close to the one observed in M. spermotrophus by Jarry et al. (1997), 10 eggs/female. Experiments still under way tends to confirm this value (Chalon, unpublished results). In a first approximation based on the data provided by Fabre et al. (2003), we fixed the rates of prolonged diapause as $d_{1}=15 \%$ and $d_{2}=5 \%$. Indeed, these rates seemed much more variable both among plantations and years, depending on yearly cone abundance, and could be higher (see Section 6.2.2). Concerning the advection term 3.5, the value of $V_{r}$ and the direction of $V$ were given by Meteo-France stations. The parameter $d_{a}$ corresponds to the distance from which the forests have no more influence on the insects flying altitude. Basing ourselves on the observations of Jarry et al. (1997), we set $d_{a}=10 \mathrm{~km}$.

Computing the quotient between the maximal recorded distance crossed by the invasion front during one year and the maximal distance covered by the wind, in the same direction during a 15-day
period (effective flight period of $6.5 \%$ of the insects, from formula (3.4), which supposedly correspond to whose who could cross the longest distance) we made an initial guess on the value of $v_{*}$. We obtained $v_{*}=0.012$. We then numerically computed the results of the model, and compared them to the data (of the harvest 2001), in order to adjust the value of $v_{*}$. We finally obtained the following range: $v_{*}=0.04-0.08$.

## 5 Numerical simulations

In this section, we studied the influence of some biological characteristics of M. schimitscheki on its expansion, under several hypothesis on winds and cedar plantations. Hence, we were concerned with (i) the influence of the length of the emergence period, (ii) the role of prolonged diapause, and (iii) the effects of the presence of small isolated plantations between the forests. With the help of numerical tests, we have discussed the above questions. These tests also allowed us to appraise the realism of the model.

In each of the following numerical experiments, the real configuration of the winds and cedar plantations was replaced by some "laboratory cases", which allowed an easier interpretation of the tests. Besides, we allowed some biological characteristics to vary (such as diffusion coefficient and diapause rate).

The initial infestation rate was always supposed to be 0 everywhere, except on one plantation, which was marked on the figures with an arrow, and corresponded to the place of introduction (with an infestation rate of $10 \%$ ).

The numerical tests are made over a 6 -year period.

### 5.1 Test 1: length of the emergence period

We were concerned here with the role of the emergence period's length on the insects spreading, as predicted by our model. The size of the plantations is $3.7 \mathrm{~km} \times 3.7 \mathrm{~km}$.

Test 1.1 The winds are assumed to be constant over the emergence period. The cedar plantations and the wind directions are distributed as in Figure 3 (1.a) (wind directions are given by the arrows), and the fructification is homogeneous and positive. One has $D=0.26 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day and $v_{*}\left\|V_{r}\right\|=4 \mathrm{~km} /$ day. Figure 3 (1.b), (1.c), illustrates the dispersal of the insects in function of the length of the emergence period. Conclusion: the emergence period's length does not have a significative influence on the insects spreading under constant winds.

Test 1.2 The wind's strength is assumed to be constant but its direction varies. Namely, it is oriented to the north during the first 7 days of emergence and then to the south. The plantations are given by Figure 3 (2.a). One assumes that $D=0.26 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day and $v_{*}\left\|V_{r}\right\|=4 \mathrm{~km} /$ day. The results of the simulation are presented on Figure 3 (2.b), (2.c). In the case of an emergence over 10 days, 7 plantations become attacked, whereas in the case of a 5 -day emergence period, only 4 plantations are colonized.

Test 1.3 The wind direction is constant (to the North) but its strength is variable. The plantations are distributed as in Figure 3 (3.a). During the first week of emergence $v_{*}\left\|V_{r}\right\|=3 \mathrm{~km} /$ day whereas $v_{*}\left\|V_{r}\right\|=6 \mathrm{~km} /$ day after (see Figure 3 (3.b) for plantations distribution). Moreover, $D=$ $0.26 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day. Simulations results are given on Figure 3 (3.b), (3.c). The insects with a 5 -day emergence period do not manage to reach the northern plantations whereas whose who emerge over 10 days colonize two additional plantations on the northern part of the map.

### 5.2 Test 2: Role of the prolonged diapause

We focused here on the influence of the prolonged diapause period on the spreading of the insects. The size of the plantations is $3.7 \mathrm{~km} \times 3.7 \mathrm{~km}$.

Test 2.1 The fructification is assumed to be constant in time and homogeneous in space. Even if this hypothesis is highly improbable it allows us to estimate the influence of the prolonged diapause on spreading speed, independently of the forests fructification. The winds and the plantations are
distributed as in Figure 3 (1.a). Here, one has set $D=0.26 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day and $v_{*}\left\|V_{r}\right\|=6 \mathrm{~km} /$ day. The numerical results of Figure 3 (4.a), (4.b) show that the invasion zone is slightly more important when there is no prolonged diapause.

Test 2.2 The fructification is initially positive and uniform, and then vanishes on every plantations for one or two years. The prolonged diapause rates are supposed to be $d_{1}=15 \%$ and $d_{2}=5 \%$. The winds and the plantations are again distributed as in Figure 3 (1.a). Moreover, the fructification is set to 0 during years 2 and 3. The results are shown on Figure 3 (4.c). Conclusion: the two years without fructification have a small influence on the spreading of the population whereas it would have disappeared in the case of a species without prolonged diapause.

Test 2.3 In this test, the fructification may vary with time for some plantations. The winds and the plantations are distributed as in Figure 3 (1.a). The fructification is assumed to be homogeneous and positive the first year, and then vanishes on some plantations the next years (Figure 3 (5.a)) (this hypothesis is experimentally relevant: see remark 5.1 below). $D=0.26 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day and $v_{*}\left\|V_{r}\right\|=$ $4 \mathrm{~km} /$ day. The numerical results are presented on Figure 3 (5.b), (5.c), showing a wider spreading in the case of the species with prolonged diapause.

Remark 5.1 Figure 5 shows some fructification data of two studied forest plantations. The fructification can vanish some years, even on large plantations like the Ventoux'forest (800 ha). It illustrates the interest of the preceding tests.

### 5.3 Test 3: Influence of the presence of small isolated plantations

Two different distributions of cedar plantations were analyzed (see Figure 4 (6.a), (6.b)). We studied the question of the influence of the presence of small isolated plantations between two large forest zones. The size of the largest northern forest zone is $378 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$, the southern forest has an area of $36 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ whereas the isolated plantations have an area of $0.01 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$.

The wind profile is given in Figure 4 (6.a), (6.b).
Test 3.1 The advection term is assumed to have a norm $v_{*}\left\|V_{r}\right\|=6 \mathrm{~km} /$ day, and the diffusion coefficient is $D=0.26 \mathrm{~km}^{2} /$ day. The obtained results are presented on Figure 4 (6.c), (6.d). The spreading is wider in the case without isolated plantations.

Test 3.2 This time, the advection term norm is $v_{*}\left\|V_{r}\right\|=3 \mathrm{~km} /$ day, whereas the diffusion is $D=3 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ /day. The results are presented on Figure 4 (6.e), (6.f). Here, the spreading is improved in the case with small isolated plantations, where the insects manage to reach the northern plantations, whereas they could not in the case without isolated plantations.

Remark 5.2 If the isolated plantations are too small, the "relay" effect observed above is not perceptible because of the quite small fecundity rate.

## 6 Model verification and validation

### 6.1 Interpretation of the tests results

All the numerical results of Section 5 can be associated to a logical biological interpretation. Moreover, these results were in accordance with our expectations. Therefore, it seems that the qualitative behaviour given by the model was not unreasonable. In the next section, the experimental data were compared with the model's forecasts.

### 6.2 Comparison with experimental data

The available data allowed us to check the predictions of the model between the years 2001 and 2003.
From the samplings of years 2000 (without prolonged diapause) and 1999 (prolonged diapause of 1 year), we knew the proportion of seeds from which adults of M. schimitscheki emerged in may 2001. The female emergence began between the $5^{t h}$ and $7^{t h}$ of may 2001; it took place within a period of 11 days. Using the fructification and infestation rates, we were able to estimate the total number
of emerging adults. These parameters, and the wind data, allowed us to compute the theoretical infestation rates of the harvest 2002. The experimental results were obtained in may 2003, during the adult emergence, which was measured in laboratory.

### 6.2.1 Position of the invasion front line

See Figure 6 for the comparison with experimental data.
The model predicted that the plantations of Sisteron and Lure were going to be infested. Indeed, the analysis of seed samples confirmed that Sisteron was the only plantation newly colonized by chalcids in 2001. In addition, a few chalcid-infested seeds were also collected at Lure during autumn 2002; i.e. corresponding to chalcid egg-laying having occurred in 2001. From the predictions of the model, the Gap, Saou, Barjac, Moulin and Saumon plantations were not supposed to become invaded. These results agreed with the experimental data. Moreover, the Ventoux, Aurel and Luberon plantations which were already infested before 2001 remained infested in both cases.

Thus, from the point of view of spreading, the model's results seemed to be coherent.

### 6.2.2 Attack rates

The only available data for the size of the cone crop were these of the plantations which were already colonized by M. schimitscheki in 1999 and 2001. Using the value of the size of the cone crop of 1999 and the infestation rates of 2001, we estimated the number of adults which were going to emerge in 2001. Implementing these data in the model, as well as the size of the cone crop of 2001, we computed the predicted infestation rates of the crop 2003. Figure 2 illustrates the numerical map which was used for the computations. The results of the model (M), the infestation rates of the seeds by adults of $M$. schimitscheki in 2003 (measured at emergence) (S), and the total rate of infested seed (R) (measured with X-rays) are plotted in Figure 7.

The curves corresponding respectively to the model's predictions $\mathbf{M}$ and to the infestation rates $\mathbf{S}$ of $M$. schimitscheki have a very similar behaviour. M corresponds to the total rate of infested seeds, including the insects in prolonged diapause. This could partly justify the inequality $\mathbf{M}>\mathbf{S}$. Moreover, $\mathbf{R}$ remain very large compared to $\mathbf{S}$, and even if the gap can partly be caused by the presence of $M$. pinsapinis, that may also be the consequence of a large amount of $M$. schimitscheki which remain in prolonged diapause. The curve $\mathbf{D}$ show the predicted infestation rates of the seeds by adults of $M$. schimitscheki in 2003, assuming that the prolonged diapause of the eggs of 2001 was $d_{1}+d_{2}=60 \%$. In that case, there is narrow relationship with the measured data.

## 7 Conclusions

Even if the results of Section 6 seemed encouraging, our model has some limits, especially in terms of forecasting. Indeed, the computation of the number of emerging insects on year $n$ requires to know (i) the size of the cone crop of the years $\leq n-2$ and (ii) the weather data of May of year $n-2$. Thus, the forecasts can only be done over two years. However, as in Section 5, the dispersion of the insects under various conditions of wind and fructification can be studied, and some deductions on the role of some biological characteristics of M. schimitscheki can be made.

Test 1 suggested that the duration of the emergence period had no influence on the insects dispersal independently of the winds; however, in the case of variable winds, it could have a great incidence. Thus, in a real situation, where the winds direction and strength are time-dependent, a longer emergence period can result in a wider dispersal.

Next, Test 2 suggested that the presence of a prolonged diapause period could be an advantage in terms of propagation and survival, in the case of a "non-constant" environment. However, in the highly unlikely case of a constant fructification the position of the insects front line could be slightly delayed by the prolonged diapause. Note that the mortality rate was assumed to be 0 during the larval stage. In the case of a positive mortality rate, a prolonged diapause period could also be detrimental for the species.

Furthermore, Test 3 showed that the presence of some small isolated plantations between two large plantations was not always an advantage in terms of species dispersal. It depends on the strength of the wind and on the insect's characteristics (diffusion).

In addition to these theoretical results, we have carried out a new estimate of the diffusion coefficient.

Such reaction-diffusion models, but without advection term, have been successfully used in various situations of biological invasions (Kareiva 1983; Okubo 1980).

In the case of species which orient themselves toward external stimuli, or are carried by wind, the results obtained with models based on a reaction-diffusion-advection equation have given more mitigated results (Banks et al. 1987). However, in some situations, satisfactory results have been obtained in particular for the study of local dispersion phenomena. Banks et al (1988) have successfully fitted some data of Hawkes (1972) on a cabbage root fly with such a model. This model included an advection vector, which was in opposition to the wind, giving the expected pattern if cabbage root flies travelled upwind when presented with host odors.

In the case of a species closely related to M. schimitscheki, which was also showing "passive" downwind flights, Jarry et al. (1997), have also obtained good results on a wider area, when forecasting the importance of annual seed orchard infestation by immigrating populations, coming from a limited number of surrounding populations.

In our work, we show that interesting results can also be carried out by reaction-diffusion-advection models at a larger scale and for an entire invasive population. Our study also emphasizes that such an approach can provide a good tool to study the role of each characteristic of the species. Besides, we describe a new way of modelling the attractiveness of some regions. Here the individuals do not "consciously" orient themselves but are only capable of modifying the importance of the role played by random diffusion compared to that played by the advection term. Such an approach seems realistic in regard to our knowledge of this insect biology, which does not have the physical and cognitive abilities to achieve an exact flight control. Moreover, the qualitative results obtained here are encouraging.

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## 8 Figures legends

Figure 1: Simplified life cycle of M. schimitscheki
Figure 2: Numerical map which was used for the computations of the infestation rates.
Figure 3: Numerical simulations. (1.a): wind profile and distribution of the cedar plantations of tests 1.1, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3; (1.b): result of test 1.1 for a 2-day emergence period; (1.c): result of test 1.1 for a 10 -day emergence period; (2.a): wind profile and distribution of the cedar plantations of test 1.2 ; (2.b): result of test 1.2 for a 5 -day emergence period; (2.c): result of test 1.2 for a 10 -day emergence period; (3.a): wind profile and plantations distribution of test 1.3; (3.b): result of test 1.3 for a 5 -day emergence period; (3.c): result of test 1.3 for a 10-day emergence period; (4.a): result of tests 2.1 and 2.2 for an insect without prolonged diapause; (4.b): result of test 2.1 for an insect with prolonged diapause; (4.d): result of test 2.2 for an insect with prolonged diapause; (5.a): test 2.3, distribution of the plantations and fructification. On the shaded areas the fructification vanishes during the years 2 and 3 or $\leq 2$, as indicated on the figure; (5.b): result of test 2.3 for an insect without prolonged diapause; (5.c): result of test 2.3 for an insect with prolonged diapause.

Figure 4: Numerical simulations. (6.a): distribution of the cedar plantations and wind directions of tests 3.1, 3.2, case without isolated trees; (6.1): distribution of the cedar plantations and wind directions of tests 3.1, 3.2, case with isolated trees; (6.c): result of test 3.1, case without isolated trees; (6.d): result of test 3.2, case with isolated trees; (6.e): result of test 3.2, case without isolated trees; (6.f): result of test 3.3, case with isolated trees;

Figure 5: Variation in annual size of the cone crop (in hl) from 1983 to 1998 at the forests of (a) Mount Ventoux, and (b) Oppede.

Figure 6: (a): Experimental estimation of the insect dispersal in Mai 2001, (b): Result of the model for the same period. The plantations that are inside the shaded zones are infested by M. schimitscheki.

Figure 7: Comparison between the infestation rates forecasted by the model, the results of the X-ray analysis, the emergence rate of M. schimitscheki, and the results of the model for a total prolonged diapause rate of $60 \%$.

## $9 \quad$ Figures



Figure 1:


Figure 2:


Figure 3:


Figure 4:


Figure 5:


Figure 6:


Figure 7:

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