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1 **Revealing hidden species distribution with pheromones: the case of *Synanthedon vespiformis***  
2 **(Lepidoptera: Sesiidae) in Sweden.**

3  
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18  
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MCL, LW, PM, NR & KOB conceived and designed the study. JB, MCL, IW, SO and FN collected most of the data. LW, JB, PM, SO & MCL analyzed the data. JB, MCL, NR, FN & IW contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools. JB, PM & MCL wrote the paper with assistance from all other coauthors.

## 39 **Abstract**

40

41 *Synanthedon vespiformis* L. (Lepidoptera: Sesiidae) is considered a rare insect in Sweden, discovered in 1860,  
42 with only a few observations recorded until a sex pheromone attractant became available recently. This study  
43 details a national survey conducted using pheromones as a sampling method for this species. Through  
44 pheromone trapping we captured 439 specimens in Southern Sweden at 77 sites, almost tripling the number of  
45 previously reported records for this species. The results suggest that *S. vespiformis* is truly a rare species with a  
46 genuinely scattered distribution, but can be locally abundant. Habitat analyses were conducted in order to test  
47 the relationship between habitat quality and the number of individuals caught. In Sweden, *S. vespiformis* is  
48 thought to be associated with oak hosts, but our attempts to predict its occurrence by the abundance of oaks  
49 yielded no significant relationships. We therefore suggest that sampling bias and limited knowledge on  
50 distribution may have led to the assumption that this species is primarily reliant on oaks in the northern part of  
51 its range, whereas it may in fact be polyphagous, similar to *S. vespiformis* found as an agricultural pest in  
52 Central and Southern Europe. We conclude that pheromones can massively enhance sampling potential for this  
53 and other rare Lepidopteran species. Large-scale pheromone-based surveys provide a snapshot of true presences  
54 and absences across a considerable part of a species national distribution range, and thus for the first time  
55 provide a viable means of systematically assessing changes in distribution over time with high spatiotemporal  
56 resolution.

57 **Keywords:** Ecology, saproxylic, moth, indicator of species richness, conservation, monitoring.

## 58 **Introduction**

59 Woodland habitats have undergone significant anthropogenic change in recent centuries, giving way to land use  
60 focused on agriculture and housing development (Eliasson & Nilsson, 2002). As well as habitat fragmentation,  
61 habitat alteration has also been an issue; whereby open, sunny woodland habitats have been transformed into  
62 shady, overgrown habitats less suitable for species dependent on sunlight (Kirby *et al.*, 2005). One such light-  
63 dependent species associated with oak woodland habitat and the focus of this paper is the clearwing moth  
64 *Synanthedon vespiformis* (L.) (Lepidoptera: Sesiidae), first recorded in Sweden in 1860 (Eliasson, 2007). This  
65 species is classified as Vulnerable on the Swedish Red List (Gärdenfors, 2010) and considered 'Nationally  
66 Scarce' in the United Kingdom (Greatorex-Davies *et al.*, 2003). The moth could potentially serve as a good  
67 indicator for the increasingly rare open woodland habitats. The location and distribution of clearwing moth  
68 populations are however difficult to assess, as the species of this family are relatively inconspicuous and  
69 frequently mistaken for members of the Hymenoptera due to their mimicry (Duckworth & Eichlin, 1974). As a  
70 result, knowledge of their true distribution and ecology remains relatively limited.

71 *S. vespiformis* is a particularly interesting example of a saproxylic clearwing, as its habitat preferences seems to  
72 vary significantly across its geographical range in Europe. In the southern part of its range it is thought to be  
73 fairly polyphagous and is in fact considered a pest, attacking numerous tree species including beech (*Fagus*  
74 *silvatica* L.), oak (*Quercus* spp.), poplar (*Populus* spp.), willow (*Salix* spp.) and fruit crops of blackberry (*Rubus*  
75 *fruticosus* L.), raspberry (*Rubus idaeus* L.) and peach (*Prunus persica* L.) (Szántóné-Veszélka *et al.*, 2010).  
76 However, in the northern part of its range where the species is considered threatened and does not occur as an

77 agricultural pest, the primary host of the larvae is assumed to be *Quercus robur* L. (pedunculate oak) with some  
78 suggestions of members of the Rosaceae and *Betula* spp. as secondary hosts (Eliasson, 2002; Waring &  
79 Townsend, 2003). However, the evidence is predominantly anecdotal or based on a small number of  
80 observations. Thus a better understanding of its ecology will aid in conservation of this species, particularly in  
81 places where it is considered to be in decline. These conservation efforts first require effective and accurate  
82 sampling and monitoring methods of the target species, something which has been identified as lacking in  
83 modern biodiversity management (Rademaekers *et al.*, 2010).

84 Identifying, protecting and monitoring key areas or habitat types that support a high number of rare or  
85 threatened species is essential in conservation (Henle *et al.*, 2013). However, broad systematic surveys are  
86 expensive, time-consuming and often reliant on a small number of taxonomic experts (e.g. Horak & Pavlicek  
87 2013). Saproxylic habitats in particular are significantly more difficult and expensive to monitor using standard  
88 methods, with the number of site visits for establishing species assemblage being at least twice that of  
89 equivalent grassland habitats (pers. comm. David Heaver, Natural England). Thus for determining species  
90 distribution, systematic surveys of this nature risk generating expensive data of relatively low accuracy and  
91 precision.

92 As a result, bioindicator species are often used as a proxy in place of complete surveys in order to locate sites  
93 with high species richness and/or conservation value (Fleishman & Murphy, 2009). The most commonly used  
94 indicators of terrestrial biodiversity are butterflies, grasshoppers and wild bees, mainly for open environments  
95 like grasslands (Rosenberg *et al.*, 1986; Nilsson *et al.*, 1995; Bazelet & Samways, 2011, 2012; Bommarco *et al.*,  
96 2012; Gerlach *et al.*, 2013). Bioindicator selection for assessing the quality of woodland or forest habitats is  
97 however heavily skewed towards saproxylic beetles due to their prevalence (Grove, 2002), meanwhile  
98 Lepidoptera are under-represented in these habitats despite their potential for assessing human impacts on  
99 biodiversity (Fiedler & Schultze, 2004). Some woodland moths are rather inconspicuous and are often under-  
100 reported in survey data despite being sampled regularly (Quinto *et al.*, 2013; Jonason *et al.*, 2013, 2014),  
101 possibly due to their predominantly nocturnal behavior, and sampling bias from recorders (Dennis & Thomas,  
102 2000). Thus an effective method of standardized recording for these potential bioindicators is highly desirable.

103 In order to provide greater levels of accuracy and sampling power at a lower cost, insect pheromones have been  
104 suggested as a supplement to existing sampling methods for insects (Larsson *et al.*, 2003; Tolasch *et al.*, 2007;  
105 Larsson *et al.*, 2009; Harvey *et al.*, 2010; Millar *et al.*, 2010; Musa *et al.*, 2013; Andersson *et al.*, 2014). Given  
106 their widespread availability already in pest management for Lepidoptera and particularly clearwing moths  
107 (Braxton & Raupp, 1995), these tools could be redirected to provide great benefits to biodiversity monitoring of  
108 saproxylics. Pheromone monitoring systems in insects are generally species-specific once optimized, although  
109 cross-attraction exists, e.g. in some other Lepidoptera (Löfstedt *et al.*, 1991) and some groups of saproxylic  
110 beetle species (Hanks *et al.*, 2012). Regardless, this selectivity would be advantageous for a focus on defined  
111 indicator species, whilst ultimately a guild of bioindicators would be desirable in order to reflect a wider range  
112 of microhabitats within a system. In the present study, we carried out pheromone monitoring of one potential  
113 indicator, the clearwing moth *S. vespiformis*, whose pheromone system has recently been characterized (Levi-  
114 Zada *et al.*, 2011).

115 The first general aim of the present study was to establish whether pheromone monitoring could provide more  
116 accurate information about the species' distribution than standard monitoring practices. Secondly, we wanted to  
117 establish whether the apparent rarity of the species in Sweden was a real phenomenon, or simply a result of poor  
118 detectability. Additionally, to conserve threatened species, knowledge of the species' habitat requirements is  
119 essential. The type of habitat a species uses can be found by relating particular habitat elements to species  
120 abundances or occurrences, with quantity of habitat required being assessed at multiple scales (Bergman *et al.*,  
121 2012; Musa *et al.*, 2013). Once the required type and quantity of that resource has been ascertained, an  
122 assessment of areas in the landscape suitable for a species is possible. The third aim of this study was therefore  
123 to establish the preferred habitat for *S. vespiformis* by correlating its abundance with habitat characteristics and,  
124 by extension, to establish whether it could be used as an indicator for the biodiversity potential of oak-  
125 dominated open woodlands with which it has traditionally been associated.

## 126 **Materials & methods**

### 127 **Site selection**

128 The study was conducted in the counties of Östergötland, Skåne, Blekinge and Kalmar where a number of sites  
129 with high density of old and/or hollow oaks were selected (Fig.1). These sites generally have high species  
130 richness (Nilsson *et al.*, 1995) but have suffered from severe decline and fragmentation over the last 200 years  
131 in Sweden, mainly due to the change in ownership of the oaks and shifts in farming and forestry practices  
132 (Eliasson & Nilsson, 2002). Included in the selection were a number of sites with lower proportions of oaks, and  
133 a higher number of other hardwood species and hollow trees for comparison, covering a total of 251 sites  
134 (numbers of traps per county are shown in table 1). Sites selection was also based on a minimum separation  
135 distance of 500m between traps, the closest two traps being separated by 512m in this study. In this survey, a  
136 total of eight traps had another trap within a 1000m radius, with the majority being separated by many  
137 kilometres. Our observations on the attractive range of similar moth pheromones in mark release recapture  
138 studies suggest that males may be able to detect lures at a maximum distance of 150-200m (unpublished data).  
139 Therefore these distances were maintained in order to rule out the effect of inter-trap competition.

### 140 **Historical records of *S. vespiformis***

141 Pre-existing records were taken from Sweden's nationwide repository for animal, fungi and plant distribution  
142 data, the "Swedish Species Gateway" ([www.artportalen.se](http://www.artportalen.se)). In order to compare historical records with our own  
143 more recent survey efforts, we used data dating back to 1976 when the first database entry for this species  
144 occurred from a site in Stockholm. These sightings (often recorded using standard observational methods such  
145 as larval/pupal searches) (Fig. 1a, b) were then compared to recent inventories we carried out using pheromone  
146 lures in 2011-2012 (Fig. 1c, d). Artportalen also included a small number of historical pheromone-based  
147 sightings between 2005 and 2013 which were excluded from our analyses, but are shown in Figure 1.

### 148 **Biology of *S. vespiformis***

149 Very little is known about the biology of *S. vespiformis*, although it is considered to be saproxylic; feeding on  
150 the cortex of its various suggested host plants (Levi-Zada *et al.*, 2011). The adult moth is considered to have a

151 'moderate' flight range (Van der Meulen & Groenendijk, 2005) taking flight in the afternoon through into the  
152 early evening when male moths can be caught by pheromone lure (Levi-Zada *et al.*, 2011). In Sweden the flight  
153 period begins in the last week of June and can last until the first week of August, with peak activity taking place  
154 in the second week of June in both northern and southern counties (Artportalen, 2015). This species is also  
155 known to have an association with the gall-inducing bacterium *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*, which likely  
156 facilitates larval feeding in some host plants (Audemard & Vigouroux, 1982).

### 157 **Pheromone lures**

158 We used a modified version of the pheromone blend for *S. vespiformis*, that has been found to be more attractive  
159 to Swedish populations than the blend from Levi-Zada *et al.*, (2011) (Ryrholm *unpublished*). Pheromone lures  
160 were produced using a pre-prepared blend of four pheromone components dissolved in hexane. The blend was  
161 prepared so that 200µl hexane solution contained 300µg E3Z13-18:Ac, 90µg E3Z13-18:OH, 30µg Z3Z13-18:Ac  
162 and 3µg E2Z13-18:OH. A blend volume of 200µl was then pipetted onto the surface of a 20mm diameter grey  
163 rubber septum (PheroNet, Sweden) and left in a fume cupboard to allow the solvent to fully evaporate. Septa  
164 were subsequently stored in the freezer until further use in order to preserve the attractiveness of the lure.

### 165 **Trap methodology**

166 The whole rationale of the present study was to use a viable and consistent sampling effort to obtain the first  
167 semi-quantitative data on presence and abundance across a large number of sites over a wide geographical  
168 range, in contrast to the scattered records previously available. For this purpose, we considered sticky traps as  
169 the best available option. Lures were hung 2 cm from the roof of a clear plastic delta trap sourced from  
170 CSalomon pheromone traps, Budapest, Hungary. Instead of the original sticky bottom inserts, we used  
171 cardboard sticky inserts from Oecos Ltd, UK, which preserved the morphology of the wings more effectively for  
172 subsequent species identification. Studies on destructive sampling have shown that insect populations are robust  
173 against lethal sampling methods even when multiple killing traps are used per hectare (Haniotakis &  
174 Koutroubas, 1999; Yamanaka *et al.*, 2001; Gezon *et al.*, 2015). Although we did not expect our sampling to  
175 affect the populations sampled significantly, we used a reduced sticky area in our traps (about 50% compared to  
176 their original size, or 80cm<sup>2</sup>) to reduce catches. This was a precaution considering that we were working with a  
177 rare species and a pheromone of unknown attractiveness. At each site, one trap was placed 1 - 2 m above ground  
178 from a nearby tree. Tree selection was based on availability of trees and not individual tree species. Traps were  
179 placed throughout the ten day period which commenced on 1st July 2012, and were brought down in a ten day  
180 period after 6th August 2012 ensuring that all traps had been placed in the field for a minimum of four weeks.  
181 Traps were also left for four weeks during July of 2011 (for a small pilot study in the Västervik region), with the  
182 majority of the survey work being carried out in 2012. Subsequent catches were identified and recorded after  
183 traps and sticky inserts were removed at the end of this sampling period. Only data from 2012 were used for  
184 subsequent habitat analyses.

### 185 **Statistical analyses**

186 In order to test the relative efficacy of pheromone lures compared to standard historical methods logged on  
187 Artportalen, a Kruskal-Wallis test was performed on the catch abundance data. The test was carried out in order

188 to determine whether the median number of individuals caught by standard methods from historical survey was  
189 significantly different from the median number of catches made through the use of a pheromone lure.

190 The study of habitat characteristics was carried out only in Östergötland, which had the largest proportion of  
191 occupied sites. This county also had the largest and most consistent set of tree data in Sweden whilst tree data  
192 were partially incomplete in other counties. Thus the 102 sites in this region were deemed most suitable for  
193 study of habitat characteristics preferred by *S. vespiformis*. Tree data used for this study were derived from the  
194 most recent survey, which was a 10 year old survey of the region commissioned by the County Administration  
195 Board of Östergötland. From these data, tree groups were categorized as oaks or non-oaks in order to test the  
196 hypothesis that *S. vespiformis* is associated more strongly with *Quercus spp.* in this northern part of its range.  
197 European aspen (*Populus tremula* L.) and silver birch (*Betula pendula* Roth.) were excluded from the study due  
198 to incomplete survey data as well as the following coniferous trees: Norway spruce (*Picea abies* (L.) H.Karst),  
199 larch (*Larix sp.*), common juniper (*Juniperus communis* L.), and scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.).

200 Additionally, trees were classed by a further six groupings as follows; (i) all trees, (ii) trees > 450 cm  
201 circumference, (iii) hollow stage > 3 (where stages 1 - 3 have no significant hollows and 4 - 7 have hollows of  
202 increasing size categories larger than 10cm in diameter) (Claesson & Ek 2009), (iv) trees located in open areas,  
203 (v) trees > 450 cm circumference located in grasslands, (vi) hollow stage > 3 located in grasslands. These  
204 groupings would allow us to further determine preferences for different types of oak woodland/semi pasture. A  
205 national database on semi-natural grasslands (TUVA) was used to locate targeted trees situated in semi-natural  
206 grasslands. The “open areas” category included targeted trees with open canopy cover and open surrounding  
207 vegetation. Further explanations of the canopy cover and surrounding vegetation categories can be found in  
208 Claesson & Ek (2009).

209 Since saproxylic insect populations can respond to a wide range of geographical scales (Bergman *et al.* 2012),  
210 28 radii, ranging from 30 m to 6,000 m (Fig.2), were used to calculate tree densities around each site (Quantum  
211 GIS 1.8.0-Lisboa 2013). The reasoning behind selecting 30 m as the minimum scale was that it needed to be  
212 small while still maintaining variation in tree densities among sites. The maximum scale of 6,000 m was  
213 selected based on the maximum dispersal range of other moths as well as to retain enough sites without the  
214 largest radii overlapping.

215 The scale(s) at which the species responds most strongly to the habitat variables (characteristic scale of  
216 response) was estimated for each tree group separately. At each scale, a negative binomial general linear model  
217 was run with abundance of *S. vespiformis* as response and tree counts as predictor variable. The computer  
218 program Focus (Geomatics and Landscape Ecology Research Lab, Canada) was used to extract 500  
219 combinations of non-overlapping buffers at each radius: no radii overlapped below 500m. The median of the  
220 regression results were used to condense the results for one scale and tree group. The characteristic scale of  
221 response for a tree group was defined as the scale with the largest absolute Z-value. It is possible to use other  
222 variables, and rings instead of circle as buffers, to determine the characteristic scale of response. Tree content in  
223 ring buffers are less correlated between scales, and regression coefficients on standardized explanatory variables  
224 make comparisons of effect size easier. However, the connection between response to circle buffers and  
225 ecological processes is easier to understand. Furthermore, the interpretation of standardized coefficients need a

226 measure of variance which the Z-value already provides. Results from ring buffers were also similar to circle  
227 buffers and standardized coefficients scaled with Z-value, thus the alternatives did not change the interpretation.  
228 There was generally a weak correlation between oak and non-oak trees which was negative ( $r = -0.1$ ) for small  
229 radii and positive for larger radii ( $r = 0.1$ ) while correlations within tree-groups of oak or non-oak were higher  
230 and positive. Running multiple correlations reduces the pseudoreplication of data points because each iteration  
231 uses spatially independent sites (Holland *et al.* 2004). However, the repeated analysis uses the same data so  
232 pseudoreplication may not be entirely avoided. The Focus program therefore allows for optimization of the data  
233 available and an increase in the power of the analysis. All analysis and data management was done in the  
234 statistical software R (R core team, 2014).

## 235 **Results**

236 In total 439 individual specimens of *S. vespiformis* were caught across the four counties, accounting for 77  
237 newly identified localities (Fig.1c, d). We also recorded a total of 174 sites where the species was not found.  
238 The breakdown of records per county is shown in Table 1. The sampling effort from this study almost tripled the  
239 number of reported localities for this species during only two field seasons (47 previously reported sites found in  
240 Artportalen were increased to 124 occupied sites in total as a result of sites located by pheromone lure), after  
241 decades of reports by classical methods of surveying (Fig.3). The result is a slight apparent expansion of *S.*  
242 *vespiformis* range due to increased sampling effort/accuracy, and a much higher density of occupied sites noted  
243 within the existing range (Fig.1).

244 The new inventory of the species revealed a scattered pattern of distribution amongst woodland habitats sampled  
245 in southern Sweden. In some cases moths were locally abundant, but their absence is notable across significant  
246 areas of most counties despite the extensive and systematic sampling effort and high efficacy of the traps.  
247 Comparison of the median number of individuals caught by standard vs. pheromone methods however showed  
248 significantly higher numbers to be observed via pheromone trapping overall ( $H = 18.58$  d.f. = 1  $p < 0.001$ ).  
249 The median catch using standard method was one individual, compared to a median of two individuals for  
250 pheromone method.

251 Habitat analyses in Östergötland (Fig.4), showed no significant relationship between the numbers of individuals  
252 caught in traps, with any of the habitat variables included at any scale. No absolute median Z-values were larger  
253 than 1.96 which is the 5% significance level. Focusing on effect size there was a relatively larger positive  
254 response to hollow oaks close to the trap (30-200m), while other tree species in general, and hollow trees in  
255 particular, seemed to have a negative effect on species presence. The reversed relationship between oak and  
256 non-oak was not a result from explanatory variables being highly correlated at lower scales ( $r$  was  
257 approximately -0.1 between 30 and 200 m).

258 In addition to catches of *S. vespiformis*, some traps in Skåne and Östergötland also caught another clearwing  
259 species, *Pennisetia hylaeiformis* Laspeyres. This species was present at fifteen sites in Skåne and nine in  
260 Östergötland, with the number of individuals totaling 128 and 23 across all traps in these regions respectively.

261



## 262 Discussion

263 *S. vespiformis* is considered a rare insect in Sweden, first recorded in 1860, and with just a few observations  
264 logged until the sex pheromone was identified and its synthetic constituents became available more recently. To  
265 our knowledge, our approach to addressing this situation represents the first systematic application of  
266 pheromones for any regional survey of a lepidopteran conservation target species, although large-scale  
267 pheromone surveys have previously targeted pests among the Lepidoptera (e.g. Tobin *et al.*, 2007) and other  
268 orders, and also the threatened click beetle *Elater ferrugineus* (Kadej *et al.*, 2015). This study shows that  
269 pheromone-based monitoring of woodland moths can provide a significant increase in accuracy and sampling  
270 effort of surveys targeting saproxylic insects. By use of sex pheromones an additional 77 sites with *S.*  
271 *vespiformis* were found; thereby increasing the known localities from 47 to 124. This represents a near tripling  
272 of the number of reported sites in just two field seasons. In addition, the number of individuals caught represents  
273 a significant increase in sampling efficiency. Previous site visits often report single insects, whereas we  
274 uncovered a total of 439 individuals across our survey sites, with the highest number of individuals at one site  
275 being 41 (a site in Västervik municipality, Kalmar county). This increased efficiency is further supported by a  
276 significant difference noted in the median number of insects caught when comparing recording based on  
277 observation to recording using a pheromone lure.

278 A minor limitation which was noted during this study was the tendency for this pheromone blend to cause cross-  
279 attraction to *Pennisetia hylaeiformis*; a similar looking sesiid which could potentially lead to misidentification of  
280 *S. vespiformis* sites. It was also noted that some potential predation had occurred in traps left for a period of time  
281 longer than a few weeks, which may have even led to an under-sampling at certain sites. Thus is suggested that  
282 for the inventory of this species, voucher specimens should be retained for taxonomic determination, and traps  
283 checked at regular intervals where possible.

284 We have not yet studied the specific accuracy of our pheromone lures in detecting populations of *S. vespiformis*,  
285 e.g. through recapture experiments or repeated sampling of known populations, but we would argue that empty  
286 pheromone traps in our study usually represent truly unoccupied sites, lacking reproducing populations. The  
287 generally high efficiency of these types of classical female-produced sex pheromones in detecting their target  
288 species has been well established in lepidopteran pest species (Zhang & Schlyter 1996) and in many other insect  
289 groups (Östrand & Anderbrant, 2003), including the threatened click beetle *E. ferrugineus* (Svensson *et al.*,  
290 2011; Zauli *et al.*, 2014). In most cases it appears highly unlikely that a monitoring trap would fail to detect any  
291 males over a full flight season at a site with a local reproducing population. Absence data generated from sex  
292 pheromone lures have been shown to be much more reliable than stochastic methods such as unbaited pitfall or  
293 window traps in establishing presence or absence (Andersson *et al.*, 2014; Zauli *et al.*, 2014). The data  
294 generated by this methodology can therefore allow for better resolution in ecological studies, which rely  
295 strongly on accurate presence and absence data to characterize not only the species' habitat, but also its 'non-  
296 habitat'. Future studies of the use of pheromones would benefit from a full assessment of their monitoring  
297 accuracy in order to assess exactly how precise moth pheromone systems are for determining absence, similar to  
298 studies on emerging eDNA technology for species assessment of great crested newt (Biggs *et al.*, 2015).

299 Under-reporting of occupancy is a significant issue in biodiversity monitoring where sampling methods show  
300 low detection probability (Pellet & Schmidt, 2005), but this could be easily resolved with the high levels of  
301 detectability that pheromones provide (Andersson *et al.*, 2014). The previous lack of occupancy records are  
302 likely contributors to our view of *S. vespiformis* as a species with a very sparse distribution in Sweden. Our  
303 findings suggest this species is perhaps a little less rare than previously thought, and occasionally abundant  
304 locally despite notable long-term declines in the type of Swedish oak forest considered to be its primary habitat.  
305 The slight expansion of the species range, and higher density of known sites within its range seen in Figure 1 is  
306 likely to be reflective of increased sampling efficacy rather than actual recent expansion of the species itself.  
307 However, the distribution of *S. vespiformis* is still relatively sparse, with a large proportion of sites where the  
308 species was absent despite an apparent abundance of saproxylic resources, suggesting the species may still be  
309 under threat or that very little is known about its ecological requirements.

310 During the course of the study, *S. vespiformis* was found at a number of sites outside of its 'expected' habitat  
311 type. Singleton catches outside of the expected habitat may be a result of chance migrants caught nearby a 'true'  
312 locality. However, sampling bias has also been highlighted as a limiting factor in insect surveying particularly  
313 with Lepidoptera (Dennis *et al.*, 1999), and this may contribute towards the oak-biased recordings seen in  
314 previous survey data. Resource-limited county administrative boards and field entomologists can tend to focus  
315 their efforts on known sites, or sites similar to those where the species has been found already. This circular  
316 approach may obscure hidden biodiversity and niches that might otherwise be uncovered by a less biased search  
317 effort in the field. Our analyses of *S. vespiformis*' habitat further highlight this sampling bias when considering  
318 *S. vespiformis*' preferences in northern Europe. In Sweden, the species is considered to be reliant on oaks  
319 (Waring & Townsend, 2003; Eliasson, 2007), but our results showed only weak relationships with old oaks and  
320 oaks with holes for number of moths caught and oak and non-oak tree abundance (Fig.4). This is in stark  
321 contrast to results from the click beetle *E. ferrugineus* using similar methodology in relation to similar veteran  
322 tree habitats, which demonstrated a very strong association between the beetle and its nominal habitat (Musa *et*  
323 *al.* 2013). This casts some doubt on the previous assumptions made regarding host specificity and preference in  
324 *S. vespiformis*. Our findings were also echoed in a recent Swedish inventory, where it was noted that  
325 "Pheromone lures placed on several premises in Skåne and Öland and in eastern Småland have shown that the  
326 species is not as tied to large veteran trees as previously assumed, but is reliant on this habitat when others are  
327 not available." (Palmqvist 2014).

328 In the south of its range *S. vespiformis* is found to be rather polyphagous, yet its visibility in these regions is  
329 undoubtedly much higher due to its high population numbers in agricultural crops (Levi-Zada *et al.*, 2011), and  
330 thus the likelihood of observing the species on alternative hosts is higher. Based on these findings we suggest  
331 that Swedish *S. vespiformis* could be more polyphagous than previously expected, possibly in line with its  
332 southern siblings. This hypothesis could be further tested by using pheromones to survey in regions significantly  
333 outside of its known range (for example Småland), in habitats which are not typical oak woodland and contain  
334 higher numbers of "secondary" host species. Incidentally, a recent study on saproxylic beetles also showed that  
335 most were polyphagous (Milberg *et al.*, 2014), and the presumed oak-specificity was most likely due to  
336 sampling bias. It is therefore suggested that sesiids would benefit from a significant re-inventory in order to  
337 assess their true host relationships and conservation status.

338 In principle, the methods applied here could encompass all previous observations and attempts at surveying *S.*  
339 *vespiformis* in Sweden and surpass them several times over, in a single season, with comparably little effort. The  
340 high quality and potentially low bias of data generated by pheromone monitoring is also important, as  
341 knowledge on species distribution needs to inform decision making at both a local, national and international  
342 level (Pereira & Cooper, 2006). This increased sampling efficacy has the potential to solve a number of issues  
343 highlighted by the European Commission in their efforts to mitigate biodiversity loss by 2020. Firstly, it has  
344 been suggested that one of the major challenges in meeting this target is development of effective and  
345 standardized methods of monitoring for national or international biodiversity (Pereira & Cooper, 2006; Henry *et*  
346 *al.*, 2008). Additionally such international monitoring efforts must be viable within a restricted pool of resources  
347 (Bates *et al.*, 2007), since cost effectiveness is a significant consideration in any environmental monitoring  
348 system (Hauser *et al.*, 2006; Lovett *et al.*, 2006). In light of the reduced or unstable funding for  
349 conservation/biodiversity monitoring in many member states (Lindenmayer *et al.*, 2012), pheromone attractants  
350 could provide an essential tool for insect inventories across Europe. Not only are the pheromones relatively cost  
351 effective (costs are relatively low for these simple compounds where synthesis method is already established),  
352 but the relative sampling effort in terms of working hours for survey is also greatly reduced (Burman &  
353 Thackery, unpublished data). This is particularly promising, as time is also a limiting resource in biodiversity  
354 monitoring (Yoccoz *et al.*, 2001). Pheromones could allow those with limited resources the opportunity to  
355 spread their efforts further afield, and thereby improve the quality of data obtained. We demonstrate in this  
356 study that national level insect species surveys are feasible using sex pheromones, covering large spatial and  
357 potentially temporal scales to provide data relevant to international monitoring (Pereira & Cooper, 2006). Large-  
358 scale pheromone-based surveys provide a snapshot of presences and absences across a considerable part of a  
359 species national distribution range, and thus for the first time provide a viable means of systematically assessing  
360 changes in distribution over time with high spatiotemporal resolution.

361 In the present study destructive monitoring of *S. vespiformis* was a prerequisite for obtaining comparable semi-  
362 quantitative occupancy data with high resolution over an extensive geographical range, and was carried out in  
363 agreement with conservation authorities although neither the species nor many of the sites are protected. The  
364 species is believed to generally have a two-year life cycle in Sweden (Eliasson, 2007), which would mitigate  
365 any risk to individual populations. Whilst destructive monitoring of the kind carried out in this study should be  
366 avoided year on year, it does provide a new snapshot of species distribution previously unavailable to  
367 conservationists. This includes a significant number of previously unreported sites for this species, many of  
368 which receive no statutory protection or management at the time of writing, but which could now be considered  
369 for their conservation value. Repeated future monitoring of these sites over extended time intervals perhaps  
370 combined with more regular use of pheromone live-trapping at a limited number of sites, could provide regular  
371 insights into how these habitats are faring in the longer term in response to different management regimes.

## 372 **Conclusions**

373 In this study we have shown that hidden biodiversity and species preferences can be substantial due to sampling  
374 bias and less effective sampling methodology. The vast majority of species sampled by standard observational  
375 methods are likely to be underreported, and as a result the drop in data quality can lead to problems in  
376 conducting ecological studies to uncover true habitat characteristics (Pellet & Schmidt, 2005). By comparison,

377 pheromone-based methods can significantly increase the sampling accuracy and give a much more reliable idea  
378 of a species' distribution. *S. vespiformis* appears to be genuinely quite rare still, despite a significant number of  
379 new sites being located. In addition, the increased resolution of data, showed no particular association for large  
380 oaks, despite previous assumptions.

381 We believe as a result, that pheromone-baited traps bring much promise for conservation, both for surveying  
382 and monitoring targeted species, and could be used as a powerful tool to achieve the EU's optimistic goals of  
383 halting insect biodiversity loss by 2020, as well as an invaluable resource for carrying out landscape level  
384 ecological studies.

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537 **Figure captions**

538 <sup>1</sup>**Fig.1** a) Map showing pre-2010 records ([www.artportalen.se](http://www.artportalen.se)) of *S. vespiformis* in Southern Sweden. b)  
539 Recordings of *S. vespiformis* as of 2013 without pheromone survey. c) Reported sites in 2013 after inclusion of  
540 pheromone survey data. d) Map showing the distribution of pheromone traps in southern Sweden in the Skåne,  
541 Blekinge, Kalmar and Östergötland counties (Swedish “Län” = county). Filled and empty circles indicate sites  
542 where *S. vespiformis*. was recorded and was not recorded, respectively

543 <sup>1</sup>**Fig.2** Map of *S. vespiformis* sampling area in Östergötland, Sweden. The black dots represent trees, the large  
544 grey circles represent the largest scale (6,000 m) used to determine tree abundance, and the small white circles  
545 with (occupied) and without (empty) black crosses represent trap locations

546 <sup>2</sup>**Fig.3** Frequency of site reports of *S. vespiformis* since 1976 ([www.artportalen.se](http://www.artportalen.se)). The implementation of  
547 pheromone lures contributes significantly towards the greatly increased numbers of reported sites in 2011 and  
548 2012

549 <sup>3</sup>**Fig.4** The relationship (median Z-value from 500 negative binomial regressions at each scale and tree group)  
550 between abundance of *S. vespiformis* and amount of a) oak trees with various characteristics at multiple scales  
551 and b) non-oak deciduous trees at multiple scales. Light and dark gray circles denote negative and positive  
552 relationships respectively, and ring size above 1.96 is significant at 5% level.

553 <sup>1</sup>Figure produced in ARCGIS

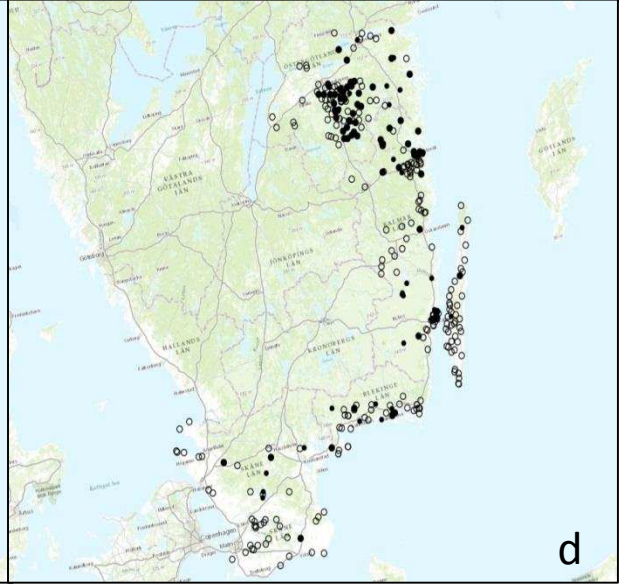
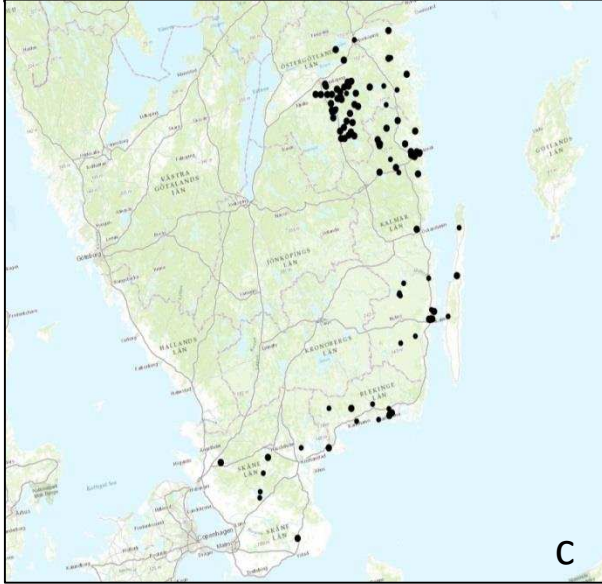
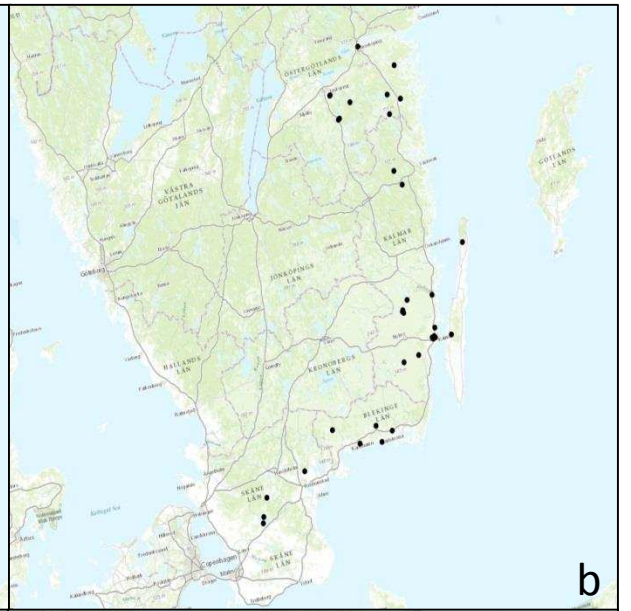
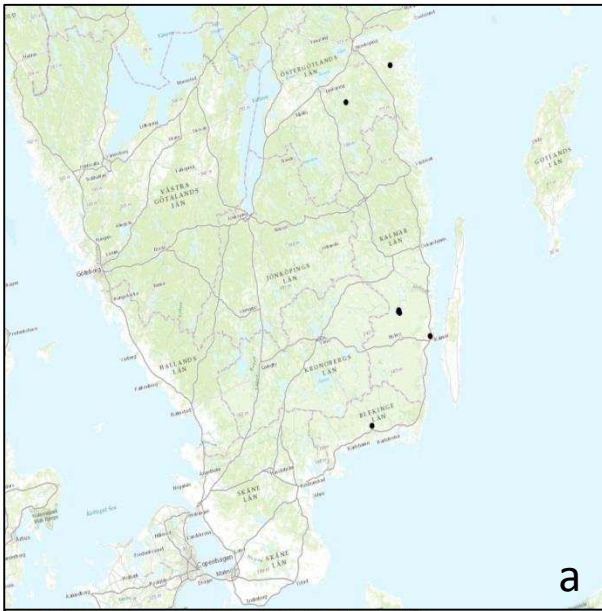
554 <sup>2</sup>Figure produced in Microsoft Excel

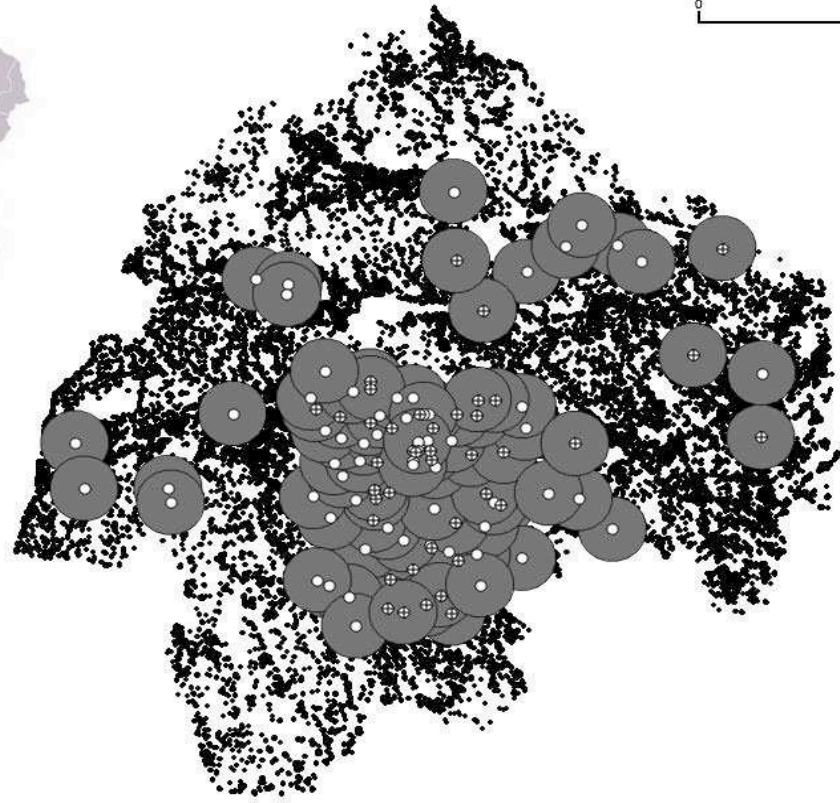
555 <sup>3</sup>Figure produced in R version 3.1.2

556

<b>County</b>	<b>Number of moths caught</b>	<b>Number of sites with species present</b>	<b>Number of sites with species not present</b>	<b>Number of traps placed</b>
Skåne	5	2	35	37
Blekinge	12	6	20	26
Kalmar	308	26	46	72
Östergötland	114	43	73	116
<i>Total</i>	<i>439</i>	<i>77</i>	<i>174</i>	<i>251</i>

**Table 1.** Pheromone based recordings of *S. vespiformis* across four counties in Southern Sweden.





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