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Steel, Roderic, [Elmoultie, David](#), & [Hamilton, Grant](#) (2012) Geostatistical analysis of adult *Rhyzopertha dominica* (F.) (Coleoptera: Bostrichidae) in wheat stored at constant temperatures. *Journal of Stored Products Research*, 50, pp. 8-14.

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<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jspr.2012.03.003>

1 **Title**

2 Geostatistical analysis of adult *Rhyzopertha dominica* (F.) (Coleoptera:
3 Bostrichidae) in wheat stored at constant temperatures.

4

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1. Introduction

Insect pests of stored products are a major problem worldwide, resulting in both direct loss of production and indirect losses due to secondary infestation and trade restrictions (Oerke, 2005; Adam et al., 2006; Fornal et al., 2007). This can result in considerable economic impact to growers, bulk handlers, and distributors (Hagstrum and Subramanyam, 2006, pp14-21; Adam et al., 2010). Management practices for pests typically involve monitoring and sampling programmes for the detection of pest insects, or for estimation of the density of insects in grain bulks (Flinn and Hagstrum, 1990; Flinn et al., 2007). While practices vary worldwide depending upon country, region and producer (Kogan, 1998; Jefferies, 2000; Adam et al., 2006), a common requirement is that infestations be detected at low levels in order to minimise the costs of both insect damage and treatment (Adam et al., 2006).

The spatial distribution of insects influences detection and abundance estimates (Hagstrum et al., 1985; Trematerra et al., 2007; Elmouttie et al., 2010; Athanassiou et al., 2011), and this can be especially relevant at low infestation rates (Taylor, 1984; Hagstrum, 2000). As a result, infestations can remain undetected when abundances are low and sampling effort restricted (Gu and Swihart, 2004). As grain commodities are stored in large quantities, and sampling costs increase with the number of samples taken, generally only a small portion of a grain lot is sampled (Binns and Nyrop, 1992; Adam et al., 2010).

It is clear that a better understanding of the spatial distribution of pests in stored grain can help to improve both pest detection and treatment methods (Taylor, 1984; Hagstrum et al., 1985). However, the method used to resolve spatial distribution

27 impacts on the inferences that can be drawn (Stejskal et al., 2010). For example,
28 previous research in large grain bulks has found that spatial distribution is influenced
29 by factors such as seasonal variations in moisture and temperature (Hagstrum,
30 1987; Flinn et al., 2004), and interspecies associations (Nansen et al., 2009;
31 Hagstrum et al., 2010). While these studies have provided valuable information,
32 assessing exactly which factors are responsible for particular effects can be
33 challenging, as it is difficult or impossible to control for interactions between these
34 and other environmental factors (Athanassiou et al., 2011).

35

36 Conversely, previous laboratory-based studies have focussed on evaluating the
37 influence of individual environmental factors on insect movement. Largely, these
38 have used smaller 2-D systems (e.g. Flinn and Hagstrum, 1998; Jian et al., 2003;
39 Jian et al., 2005) or low sampling intensities in larger 3-D systems (e.g. Plarre, 1996;
40 Collins and Conyers, 2009; Jian et al., 2011). While these studies have also provided
41 valuable information, the restrictions of a 2-D environment or low sampling intensity
42 limit their ability to accurately define pest distributions in 3 dimensions, restricting the
43 understanding of spatial distribution in representative systems at a fine scale.
44 Combining the use of intensive sampling with a representative 3 dimensional system
45 would improve understanding of pest spatial distributions.

46

47 To fully understand the effect of individual environmental factors on the spatial
48 distribution of grains pests, establishing a 'baseline' spatial distribution for
49 comparison is highly useful. In this study, we develop new methods to create a 'null
50 model' using a geostatistical approach to spatial analysis (Davis, 1994). We then
51 apply this technique to examine the effect of a single environmental parameter (grain
52 temperature) on the spatial distribution of a typical stored product pest insect. This

53 knowledge may then be used as a reference for future studies examining the effect
54 of other factors on spatial distribution. Ultimately it is expected that the improved
55 understanding of these studies can be applied to the improvement of population and
56 detection sampling models, with the aim of enhancing pest management practices
57 (Phillips and Throne, 2010).

58

59 2. Materials and Methods

60

61 2.1 Insects and Grain

62 The lesser grain borer, *Rhyzopertha dominica* (F.) (Coleoptera: Bostrichidae), was
63 chosen for this study. Both larvae and adults are internal feeders, causing
64 considerable damage to grain. Due to its wide tolerance of environmental conditions,
65 it is an economically important pest worldwide (Osuji, 1982; Fields et al., 1993).

66

67 Insects for this study were obtained from the Department of Employment, Economic
68 Development and Innovation, Queensland, Australia. Cultures originated from a wild
69 strain collected during May 2010 near Surat in the western Darling Downs region.

70 Cultures were maintained on whole wheat at 30°C and 55% r.h. (Hagstrum and
71 Subramanyam, 2006; Flinn and Friesen, 2010). As adult *R. dominica* are difficult or
72 impossible to accurately sex without negatively affecting survival or reproductive
73 potential (Sinclair, 1981; Edde, 2012), no attempt was made to sex selected adults.

74 To maximise the probability of obtaining an optimum sex ratio while remaining within
75 the confines of typical economically important infestation rates (<2 adults / kg), 30
76 recently emerged (0-7 day old) adults were randomly selected for use in each
77 experimental replicate.

78

79 Certified organic, pesticide-free (CO₂-treated) Australian Prime Hard wheat (*Triticum*
80 *aestivum* (L.)) was used in all experiments. To ensure freedom from live pests and
81 viable eggs, all grain was frozen (-18°C) for 2 weeks, followed by storage at 5 ±1°C
82 until required for use (Fields, 1992). At the commencement of experiments, 80 litres
83 (~ 20%) of grain was randomly selected and inspected for pests using a 2mm
84 stainless steel mesh grain hand-sieve. No adult insects were found.

85

86 **2.2 Lot preparation**

87 Twenty litre food grade polypropylene containers (26w x 26d x 39h cm) were used
88 for all experiments. A rubber bung, used for the later introduction of CO₂ to euthanize
89 insects, was fitted near the base of each container. Grain was transferred from
90 refrigerated storage and 20 litres measured into each container. Containers were
91 then covered with a tight fitting polyester mesh to prevent insect ingress / egress
92 whilst allowing air circulation. These were then transferred to pre-conditioned
93 temperature controlled cabinets and allowed to acclimatise for 48 hours to ensure
94 even temperature distribution throughout the grain mass. Each container formed one
95 experimental lot.

96

97 **2.3 Experimental design**

98 Four experimental treatments were conducted, consisting of three replicates each. A
99 30°C 2 week control treatment was undertaken as a comparison baseline for other
100 treatments, based on a fixed known population and time. The three remaining
101 treatments were undertaken for 1 generation at 25, 30, and 35°C (Table 1).

102 Generation times for these treatments were calculated using existing population and
103 developmental time models (Wagner et al., 1984; Hagstrum and Milliken, 1988;
104 Driscoll et al., 2000) and published data (Hagstrum and Subramanyam, 2006, p. 98).

105

106 Thirty insects were introduced to the top centre of the grain surface, and each lot
107 incubated in temperature controlled ($\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$) cabinets for the duration of each
108 treatment. Humidity in the cabinets was controlled to $55\% \pm 5\%$ r.h. using a
109 saturated sodium bromide solution (Greenspan, 1977). Temperature and humidity
110 were monitored using environmental dataloggers.

111

112 **2.4 Sample Preparation**

113

114 After incubation, insects were euthanized by the introduction of CO₂ gas and
115 refrigeration (5 ±1°C) for a minimum of 10 days. Prior to sample preparation, lots
116 were frozen (-24 ±2°C) for a minimum of 48 hours to assist in preparation.

117

118 Granulated gelatine from a commercial supplier was used to prepare a liquid solution
119 (60g/L) according to the two-step process described in Schrieber and Gareis (2007,
120 pp. 138-141). Individual lots were removed from the freezer immediately prior
121 sample preparation, and the gelatine solution poured evenly to fill the container using
122 a mesh spreader to eliminate disturbance of the grain and insects. Once poured, lots
123 were frozen (-24 ±2°C) for two hours to rapidly set the gel before being held in
124 refrigerated storage (5°C ±1°C) for a minimum of 72 hours.

125

126 A wooden form with cutting guide slots spaced at 5cm intervals along opposing sides
127 was used to prepare samples. Once set, the lot was removed from the container and
128 placed in the form, aligned so that slice thickness was referenced to the top surface
129 of the grain, secured in place, and cut into 5cm lateral slices. Each slice was then
130 placed on a cutting board marked with a 5cm² grid, and cut into 5cm cubes. The
131 location of each sample was recorded in an X-Y-Z co-ordinate system before being
132 frozen (-24°C ± 2°C) until examination. A total of 200 samples, accounting for >95%
133 of the total volume, were produced from each lot.

134

135 **2.5 Sample Examination**

136 Samples were placed in a large plastic beaker, the gel dissolved with hot water,
137 and the grain transferred to an examination tray for visual inspection. Adult insects
138 recovered outside of grain kernels were counted as 'loose adults'. Individual grain
139 kernels were then examined for signs of internal insects, and kernels identified were
140 dissected and examined under a microscope. Adult insects (with mature abdominal
141 and elytra colouring) were recorded as "in-grain adults". The total count of all adults
142 within each sample was used for all analyses.

143

144 **2.6 Data Analysis**

145 All data analysis was undertaken using the statistical application and programming
146 language R (R Core Development Team, 2011). The standardised Morista index I_p
147 (Smith-Gill, 1975; Krebs, 1999, pp. 216-217) was used to compare dispersion
148 between treatments and replicates. This index ranges from +1 (clumped) to -1
149 (dispersed), with ± 0.5 being the 95% confidence limits around random patterns ($I_p =$
150 0). Clusters were defined as spatially-contiguous groups of samples occupied by at
151 least one insect. Two-level mixed-model nested ANOVAs with post-hoc Tukey's
152 HSD tests were used to identify significant variations in mean sample abundance
153 between all experiments (top level, fixed effects) and replicates (level 2, random
154 effects). Similarly, to detect significant differences in insect vertical movement,
155 nested ANOVAs were used to identify significant variations in mean per-layer (Z-
156 axis) abundance between experiments and replicates. Figures were created using
157 R's 'lattice' (Sarkar, 2008) and 'graphics' (R Core Development Team, 2011)
158 packages.

159

160 Spatial correlations between sample abundance and inter-sample distance were
161 calculated using the 'gstat' package (Pebesma, 2004) in R. Correlation coefficients

162 between sample abundances were calculated in one 2-dimensional horizontal (H)
163 plane (X-Y), two 2-dimensional vertical (V) planes (X-Z and Y-Z), and in 3-
164 dimensional (X-Y-Z) space (D). Distances between samples were calculated as the
165 straight line (Euclidean) distance between sample centres; results that were fractions
166 of the sample size were grouped into 5cm categories. Correlation coefficients were
167 calculated between all occupied samples and those located a given distance class
168 away. For example, V(0,[5-10]) represents the correlation coefficient between
169 samples spaced from 5 to 10cm apart in the vertical direction, while D(0,[10-15])
170 represents the correlation coefficient between samples spaced 10 to 15cm apart in
171 any direction. Significance thresholds for correlation coefficients were determined
172 using the method outlined by Anderson (1942), which accounts for differing spatial
173 distances and sample abundances. As the extra dimension used in 3D analysis
174 influences the significance of correlations compared to 2D analysis, significance for
175 geostatistical analyses were determined at $p=0.10$.

176

177 **3. Results:**

178

179 A total of 2400 samples were examined across the four treatments. Abundance
180 varied with temperature, and the number of occupied samples increased with insect
181 abundance (Table 1). Between-replicate variance in abundance increased with
182 temperature (Table 1). Irrespective of treatment and replicate, spatial distributions
183 were clumped ($I_p > 0.5$). The number of discrete clusters identified within each
184 replicate was also similar (mean = 2.45, SE = 0.463) across all treatments, with the
185 exception of replicate 1 in the control experiment where 6 distinct clusters were
186 identified.

187

188 Sample abundance differed significantly between treatments ($F_{3,84} = 4.8574$, $p =$
189 0.004), but no difference was found between replicates within treatments ($F_{8,84} =$
190 0.4096 , $p = 0.912$). The 30°C treatment was significantly different in sample
191 abundance compared to both the control ($p = 0.004$) and 25°C ($p = 0.019$)
192 treatments (post-hoc Tukey's HSD). Mean sample abundance between treatments
193 varied significantly with sample depth ($F_{28,64} = 8.2274$, $p < 0.001$), with post-hoc
194 Tukey's HSD tests showing that the 35°C treatment was significantly different to the
195 control ($p = 0.005$), 25°C ($p = 0.045$), and 30°C ($p = 0.029$) treatments. Sample
196 abundance at 35°C and $>15\text{cm}$ from the top differed significantly ($p < 0.001$) from
197 the control, 25°C and 30°C treatments. In the control, 25°C , and 30°C treatments,
198 abundances were highest at $0\text{-}15\text{cm}$ from the grain surface, with insect numbers at
199 these depths accounting for $>80\%$ of total insects in each case. At 35°C , abundance
200 peaked at $15\text{-}30\text{cm}$ from the grain surface, with $> 70\%$ of insects found within this
201 range (Figures 1 & 2).

202

203 Examination of between-sample covariance was performed in both 2 and 3
204 dimensions. Across all treatments, in the horizontal [X-Y] plane there was a trend of
205 decreasing correlations with increasing distance, with results significant ($p \leq 0.10$) at
206 25°C ($10\text{-}15\text{cm}$) and 35°C ($0\text{-}5\text{cm}$ and $10\text{-}15\text{cm}$) (Table 2). This same trend was also
207 evident in the vertical [X-Z] and [Y-Z] planes (Tables 3 & 4). At 30°C and 35°C ,
208 significant ($p \leq 0.10$) positive correlations were found at distances of $0\text{-}10\text{cm}$, while
209 negative correlations were significant at distances $\geq 10\text{cm}$ in the 25°C , 30°C , and
210 35°C treatments. This pattern of decreasing correlations with increasing distance
211 was also evident when examined in 3 dimensions (Table 5). At 30°C and 35°C ,
212 significant ($p \leq 0.10$) positive correlations were found at distances of $0\text{-}10\text{cm}$.

213 Significant ($p \leq 0.10$) negative correlations were found at distances $\geq 10\text{cm}$ in the
214 25°C, 30°C, and 35°C treatments.

215

216 **4. Discussion:**

217

218 Field based studies of large grain lots are useful to examine the spatial distribution of
219 grain pests in real systems (Hagstrum et al., 1985; Lippert and Hagstrum, 1987).

220 Nonetheless, the spatial resolution of data in such studies are typically limited by
221 factors such as available sampling methods, difficulty in accessing all parts of the

222 grain bulk, and relatively low sampling intensity. Additionally, the effect of individual
223 factors such as temperature and moisture gradients or inter- and intra-species

224 competition on pest spatial distribution has been difficult to isolate. For these

225 reasons, high resolution laboratory studies allow for the collection of data by isolating

226 single factors and gathering data at an appropriate resolution for the particular

227 question at hand. In a recent study, Jian et al. (2011) examined insect movement

228 and spatial structure in a large (1.5 tonne) laboratory volume. The high sampling

229 intensity (~15% of the total volume) employed in that study was sufficient to show

230 spatial structuring of the pest population occurred, but large sample sizes (~15kg)

231 restricted the ability to examine the spatial structure in detail. Again, while this design

232 was appropriate for the questions Jian et al. (2011) were examining, fine-scale

233 spatial structuring of populations could not be assessed.

234

235 In the current study, adult *R. dominica* were found to establish a spatially

236 heterogeneous distribution pattern in grain within 2 weeks of introduction. The

237 observed pattern of horizontal dispersion was similar across all treatments, but

238 vertical dispersion was found to differ considerably at 35°C (Figures 1 and 2), with

239 the majority of insects being found further down in the grain mass. Such spatial
240 structuring, found consistently across replicates in each experiment, is unlikely to
241 occur due to random insect movement. This suggests that behavioural variations
242 due to environmental conditions are an important influence on spatial distribution.
243 Flinn et al. (2011) showed that *R. dominica* tends to avoid temperatures above 35°C,
244 favouring areas where the temperature was below 32°C. In the current study, such
245 avoidance was not possible as grain temperature was constant throughout the
246 volume. Our results suggest that where avoidance is impossible vertical dispersion is
247 increased, with insects moving further into the grain mass. *R. dominica* is known to
248 move deeper into bulk-stored grain than other grain pest species (Flinn et al., 2010).
249 This behaviour appears to be enhanced at higher temperatures, potentially
250 increasing the difficulty of detection and estimation of infestations. While higher
251 temperatures such as these are close to the limit of *R. dominica*'s environmental
252 tolerance (Longstaff, 1999; Hagstrum and Subramanyam, 2006), such temperatures
253 can be found inside bulk grain storages in warmer grain producing regions (Flinn et
254 al., 2004).

255

256 Insect abundance had little effect on patterns of spatial distribution. Observed
257 dispersion patterns were consistent within each treatment and at insect densities
258 ranging from approximately 1.5 insects / L to more than 8 insects / L. Abundance in
259 each treatment was found to be lower than predicted by the population model used
260 (Driscoll et al., 2000). This model assumes a stable age structure, which would not
261 be the case within one generation of initial pest introduction, and hence is likely to
262 over-estimate populations in this scenario. However, the low abundance found at
263 25°C indicated an unexpectedly low population growth rate of only ~50% per
264 generation. Conversely at 35°C there was higher variation in abundance between

265 replicates. While the model used does not predict population variance, it is
266 occasionally accounted for in other models (e.g. Hagstrum, 1996). In cases where
267 accurate estimation of population after one generation is required, a population
268 growth model accounting for variable age structure would be required.

269

270 It was found that analysis in 3 dimensions allowed for the easy identification of
271 strong correlations between sample abundances at varying distances. However, in
272 the absence of a directional component to individual correlations, it was not able to
273 describe the variations from a basic spherical diffusion pattern found. It was also
274 found that correlations in one plane tended to oppose those in other planes, reducing
275 the significance of the overall result. For example, negative correlations at 10-15cm
276 in the vertical direction of the 30°C treatment affected the positive correlations found
277 at this distance in the horizontal direction, reducing the significance of both.

278 Conversely, performing individual 2 dimensional analyses in the X-Y, X-Z, and Y-Z
279 planes, while slightly more complex to undertake and interpret, allowed for the
280 identification and evaluation of the wide horizontal but limited vertical dispersion
281 pattern found. In cases where the direction of dispersion or shape of aggregations is
282 unknown, performing 2 dimensional correlations in multiple planes may provide a
283 more accurate description of the observed spatial pattern when compared to 3
284 dimensions.

285

286 There is little available data on the movement rates of *R. dominica* in stored grain.
287 Field-validated modelling studies (e.g. Flinn et al., 2004) have suggested a dispersal
288 rate of approximately 1.2 meters per week at 29°C in a 3-dimensional storage.
289 Laboratory studies under controlled conditions (Surtees, 1964a; Surtees, 1964b) in
290 a 3D volume have suggested a rate of more than 15cm per week (at 25°C), and a

291 spatial distribution approaching homogeneity. In contrast, this study shows
292 considerable difference in insect movement rates in the vertical and horizontal
293 directions, with variations in the resultant spatial structure occurring over distances
294 as short as 10-15cm. This results in a significantly non-random spatial distribution,
295 which in turn can influence the results of sampling and predictions based on an
296 underlying assumption of random spatial distribution.

297

298 Several previous studies have examined the spatial structure of insects in grain
299 storages (Flinn et al., 2010; e.g. Athanassiou et al., 2011). While results from these
300 studies indicated similar patterns of insect spatial distribution at larger scales, the
301 relatively large sample sizes and low sampling intensity used did not allow for
302 analysis of variations in population structure over relatively short distances. As our
303 results show, these short distance variations in structure are an important feature of
304 insect clustering. The insect densities used in the current study (1.5 – 8 pests / L)
305 were similar to those required by phytosanitary regulations, commercial
306 requirements, or used in similar studies (Food and Environment Research Agency,
307 2009; Grain Trade Australia, 2011; Jian et al., 2011). The use of appropriately-sized
308 and regularly spaced samples to examine almost 100% of the grain volume
309 (ensuring an accurate population count) both enhances the ability to detect pest
310 aggregations and minimises the influence of sample edge effect (Stenseth and
311 Hansson, 1979; Davis, 1994).

312

313 An improved understanding of the factors affecting pest spatial distribution can be
314 used to inform not only spatially-explicit population models (Thorpe, 1997), but also
315 abundance and detection sampling models (Hagstrum et al., 1985; Flinn et al., 1992;
316 Elmoultie et al., 2010). The observed variation in spatial pattern with temperature, in

317 particular the differences in mean abundance versus depth found at higher
318 temperatures, potentially increases the difficulty of detection and estimation of
319 infestations. These results highlight the fact that temperature and other
320 environmental factors need to be explicitly considered when developing and
321 choosing methods and protocols for detection and abundance sampling of pests. As
322 such small-scale spatial structuring of populations was previously unknown in *R.*
323 *dominica*, this suggests that other pest species may also exhibit spatial structure at
324 similar scales. Further study of this aspect of behaviour in other grain pests is
325 required to determine if this may affect detection and abundance sampling for those
326 species.

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Table 1: Summary of experimental treatments and non-dimensional results. R1-3 are replicates within each treatment. lp is the scaled Morisita's index of dispersion, $Imor$ is the unscaled Morisita's index, with associated chi-sq and p values.

Treatment	Temp (°C)	Duration (days)	No. of adults recovered	Total Insect density (adults / L)	Population Mean & SE	No. of Clusters	No. of occupied samples	lp	$Imor$	Chi-sq (df = 199)	p
Control R1	30	14	26	1.3		6	19	0.5105	6.7692	343.2308	<0.0001
Control R2	30	14	29	1.45	$\mu = 28 \pm 1$	4	22	0.5037	3.9409	281.3448	<0.0001
Control R3	30	14	29	1.45		1	21	0.5087	5.9113	336.5172	<0.0001
25°C R1	25	59	43	2.15		3	27	0.5129	7.0875	454.6744	<0.0001
25°C R2	25	59	46	2.3	$\mu = 44 \pm 1$	2	22	0.5220	10.6280	632.2609	<0.0001
25°C R3	25	59	43	2.15		1	34	0.5012	2.4363	259.3256	0.0026
30°C R1	30	43	161	8.05		4	63	0.5172	8.0901	1333.41	<0.0001
30°C R2	30	43	163	8.15	$\mu = 143.67 \pm 18.342$	3	60	0.5135	6.6349	1111.847	<0.0001
30°C R3	30	43	107	5.35		3	50	0.5127	6.4186	773.3738	<0.0001
35°C R1	35	31	105	5.25		1	51	0.5065	3.9560	506.4286	<0.0001
35°C R2	35	31	45	2.25	$\mu = 91.7 \pm 24.037$	4	29	0.5089	5.4545	395	<0.0001
35°C R3	35	31	125	6.25		1	57	0.5071	4.1548	590.2	<0.0001

Table 2: Correlation coefficient of the insect densities at different locations in the 2-D horizontal X-Y plane.

Treatment	N _{adult}	H(0,[0-5])	H(0,[5-10])	H(0,[10-15])	H(0,[15-20])	H(0,[20-25])	H(0,[25-30])
Control R1	26	0.4132 *	-0.1679	-0.3246 *	-0.038	-0.2161	N/A
Control R2	29	-0.1936	0.0199	0.0131	0.2187	0.075	N/A
Control R3	29	0.1896	-0.2237	-0.0666	0.1081	-0.1941	N/A
25°C R1	43	0.2397	-0.153	-0.4156 *	-0.2769	-0.1884	N/A
25°C R2	46	0.2567	-0.3101 *	-0.3997 *	-0.0607	0.1786	N/A
25°C R3	43	0.0873	-0.0074	-0.2227 *	-0.1603	-0.2729	N/A
30°C R1	161	0.126	-0.1589	-0.0519	-0.0555	-0.1779	N/A
30°C R2	163	0.1	0.109	-0.0157	-0.0486	-0.0755	N/A
30°C R3	107	0.2233	-0.0512	-0.0121	-0.1259	-0.2751 *	N/A
35°C R1	105	0.2897 *	-0.1355	-0.3302 *	-0.3041 *	0.032	N/A
35°C R2	45	0.3873 *	-0.0846	-0.0399	-0.2448	-0.4438 *	N/A
35°C R3	125	0.3662 *	-0.0394	-0.27 *	-0.1994	0.0069	N/A

* significant at $p = 0.10$

N/A = no value calculated due to insufficient observations at this distance.

Table 3: Correlation coefficient of the insect densities at different locations in the 2-D vertical X-Z plane.

Treatment	N _{adult}	V(0,[0-5])	V(0,[5-10])	V(0,[10-15])	V(0,[15-20])	V(0,[20-25])	V(0,[25-30])	V(0,[30-35])	V(0,[35-40])
Control R1	26	-0.2719	0.0325	-0.0225	-0.1587	0.1153	N/A	N/A	N/A
Control R2	29	0.0287	-0.2894	-0.114	0.2239	0.071	N/A	-0.405 *	N/A
Control R3	29	0.073	-0.2418	-0.1837	-0.1015	0.3714	N/A	N/A	N/A
25°C R1	43	0.2596	-0.1175	-0.4312 *	0.0064	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
25°C R2	46	0.3361 *	-0.1375	-0.2497	-0.1845	-0.2223	N/A	N/A	N/A
25°C R3	43	0.0513	0.0098	-0.306 **	-0.2881 *	-0.2908	N/A	N/A	N/A
30°C R1	161	0.3256 *	-0.0391	0.0564	-0.0676	-0.2679 *	-0.2577	-0.3203	N/A
30°C R2	163	0.5075 *	0.2654 *	0.1016	-0.1298	-0.2193 *	-0.4179 *	-0.5473 *	N/A
30°C R3	107	0.2283	0.1633	-0.0924	-0.0771	-0.3247 *	-0.3204	-0.4483 *	N/A
35°C R1	105	0.4275 *	0.224 *	-0.215 *	-0.2934 *	-0.3413 *	-0.3294 *	N/A	N/A
35°C R2	45	0.2651	-0.0148	-0.042	-0.2716 *	-0.1791	-0.1112	N/A	N/A
35°C R3	125	0.2613 *	0.1426	-0.1885 *	-0.1862 *	-0.1498	-0.031	N/A	N/A

* significant at $p= 0.10$

N/A = no value calculated due to insufficient observations at this distance.

Table 4: Correlation coefficient of the insect densities at different locations in the 2-D vertical Y-Z plane.

Treatment	N _{adult}	V(0,[0-5])	V(0,[5-10])	V(0,[10-15])	V(0,[15-20])	V(0,[20-25])	V(0,[25-30])	V(0,[30-35])	V(0,[35-40])
Control R1	26	0.0819	-0.166	-0.1245	-0.1906	0.2923	N/A	N/A	N/A
Control R2	29	0.006	0.0363	-0.1663	-0.3511	N/A	-0.3472	-0.4777	N/A
Control R3	29	-0.0056	-0.2273	-0.1528	0.0261	-0.1905	N/A	N/A	N/A
25°C R1	43	-0.1017	-0.0381	-0.2015	-0.2981	-0.1902	-0.4359	-0.4324	N/A
25°C R2	46	0.2618	-0.2076	-0.2615	-0.1818	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
25°C R3	43	0.2574	0.1104	-0.2305 *	-0.3981 *	-0.3458 *	N/A	N/A	N/A
30°C R1	161	0.4218 *	0.3162 *	0.0691	-0.0571	-0.2749 *	-0.4603 *	-0.4742 *	-0.5913 *
30°C R2	163	0.3784 *	0.0481	-0.0513	-0.1508	-0.2741 *	-0.3997 *	-0.4517 *	N/A
30°C R3	107	0.4762 *	0.2162	-0.0039	-0.2369 *	-0.297 *	-0.3113	-0.3401 *	N/A
35°C R1	105	0.4404 *	0.1011	-0.2621 *	-0.3051 *	-0.2923 *	-0.4217 *	-0.3962	N/A
35°C R2	45	0.3733	0.1203	-0.0821	0.2412	-0.0507	0.2825	-0.0857	N/A
35°C R3	125	0.3342 *	0.0818	-0.067	-0.2863 *	-0.1339	-0.0461	0.1725	N/A

* significant at $p= 0.10$

N/A = no value calculated due to insufficient observations at this distance.

Table 5: Correlation coefficient of the insect densities at different locations in the 3-D X-Y-Z plane.

Treatment	N _{adult}	D(0,[0-5])	D(0,[5-10])	D(0,[10-15])	D(0,[15-20])	D(0,[20-25])	D(0,[25-30])	D(0,[30-35])	D(0,[35-40])
Control R1	26	0.0905	0.4404	-0.1606	-0.205	-0.1745	0.01874	N/A	N/A
Control R2	29	-0.3948 *	-0.0898	0.0142	-0.0068	0.1251	-0.1749	-0.2549	-0.189
Control R3	29	0.0942	-0.2804 *	0.0282	-0.013	0.0759	N/A	N/A	N/A
25°C R1	43	0.0152	-0.1131	-0.1169	-0.1182	-0.1208	N/A	N/A	N/A
25°C R2	46	0.3027	-0.0861	-0.2556 *	-0.22	-0.2977 *	-0.1348	N/A	N/A
25°C R3	43	0.1305	-0.0112	-0.1569 *	-0.1259	-0.076	-0.0857	N/A	N/A
30°C R1	161	0.2357 *	-0.005	-0.0495	-0.0471	-0.0718	-0.0234	N/A	N/A
30°C R2	163	0.1864 *	0.0256	-0.0193	-0.0211	-0.0658	-0.1493 *	N/A	N/A
30°C R3	107	0.101	-0.0714	-0.0091	-0.0595	-0.0732	-0.132	N/A	N/A
35°C R1	105	0.3297 *	0.0944	-0.1342 *	-0.2423 *	-0.2488 *	-0.2294 *	N/A	N/A
35°C R2	45	-0.1984	0.2743 *	-0.1006	-0.0719	-0.1422	-0.1015	N/A	N/A
35°C R3	125	0.2012*	0.0265	-0.0459	-0.0756	-0.1002 *	0.0213	N/A	N/A

* significant at $p= 0.10$

N/A = no value calculated due to insufficient observations at this distance.

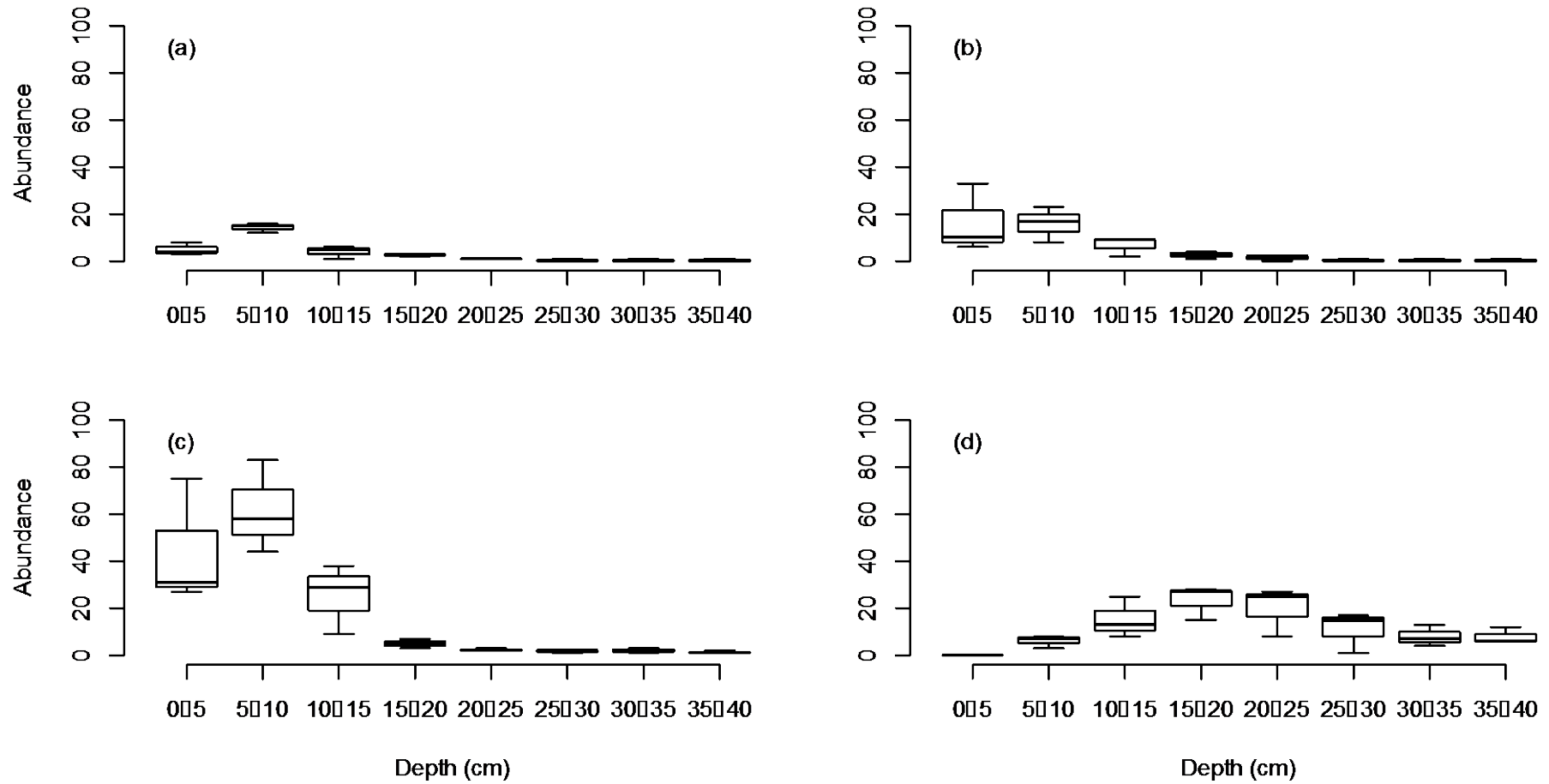


Fig. 1. Mean abundance of adult *Rhyzopertha dominica* in each 5cm layer, for (a) 30°C control, (b) 25°C, (c) 30°C, and (d) 35 °C treatments.

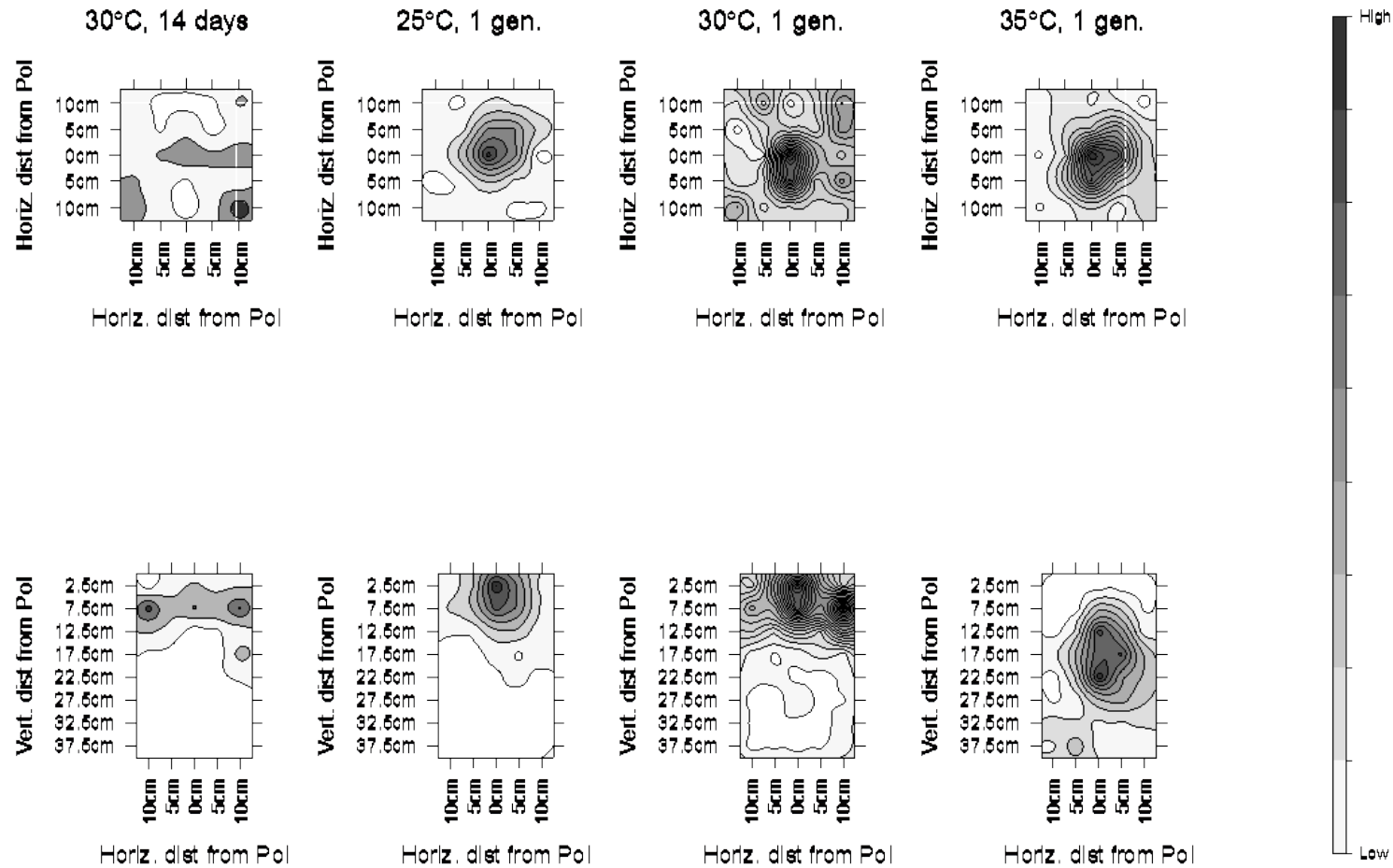


Fig. 2. Representative horizontal (top) and vertical (bottom) spatial distributions, based on the average of 3 replicates. Indicated

pest density is relative to the mean pest density of each treatment; darker areas indicate higher densities.