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Al-Kindi, K., Kwan, P., Andrew, N., & Welch, M. (2017). Modelling spatiotemporal patterns of dubas bug infestations on date palms in northern Oman: A geographical information system case study. *Crop Protection*, 93, 113-121.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cropro.2016.11.033>

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1 **Modelling spatiotemporal patterns of Dubas bug infestations on Date palms in northern**
2 **Oman: A Geographical Information System case study**

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8 **Abstract**

9 The aim of this paper is to demonstrate how Geographical Information System (GIS) can be
10 used effectively to study Dubas bug (DB), *Ommatissus lybicus* Bergevin, infestations in date
11 palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*), **tree of palm family (Arecaceae or Palmae)** that occurred in northern
12 Oman during 2006-2015. The ability to produce geographical and spatiotemporal layers using
13 GIS is expected to serve an important role in both monitoring and surveillance of DB
14 infestation and its impact in the study area. By using of spatial analytic and geostatistical
15 functions in ArcGIS 10.3^{TM,1}, data that quantified the infestation levels of DB over a 10-year
16 period from 2006 to 2015 were used to map and model the risk of infestation spatiotemporally.
17 We modelled the spatiotemporal risk of DB infestation by performing hotspot analysis using
18 the Getis-Ord statistic, G_i^* . Our results show that annual hotspots over the study period were
19 mainly concentrated in the mountain plains, particularly where farms are located between
20 gradient elevations. Furthermore, the distribution pattern varied considerably with time and
21 space. These results demonstrated the usefulness in following annual DB infestation patterns
22 by studying the average seasonal infestation levels and distribution of hotspots as they can

¹ <http://www.esri.com/software/arcgis>

23 facilitate the allocation of resources for the treatment of infestations and allow for more
24 effective monitoring of its influence on date palm trees.

25 Keywords: *dates*, *Dubas bug*, *geographical information system*, *spatiotemporal*, *Oman*,
26 temporal hotspot, *Phoenix dactylifera*

27 1. Introduction

28 Date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*), a palm tree belonging to **Arecaeae family**, cultivation is
29 economically important in the Sultanate of Oman, with significant financial investments
30 coming from both the government and private sectors. However, a global Dubas bug
31 (*Ommatissus lybicus* Bergevin; referred to as DB) infestation has impacted regions including
32 the Middle East, North Africa, Southeast Russia, and Spain, resulting in widespread damages
33 to date palms (Abdullah, Lorca, & Jansson, 2010; Blumberg, 2008; Howard, 2001; Khalaf &
34 Khudhair, 2015). Dubas bug impacts are severe in Oman, Southern Iraq, and Southern Iran
35 while not as severe in other countries such as the United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, Egypt,
36 Tunisia, Libya, Algeria, and Morocco. Hussain (1963) reported that heavy infestations
37 occurred mostly along rivers, with both male and female date palms damaged equally.

38 The DB is a sap-feeding insect. Both adults and nymphs suck sap from date palms, causing
39 chlorosis. The honeydew of DB leads to accumulation of black sooty mould on foliage that
40 disrupts photosynthesis. Heavy infestations weaken plants and can even result in plant death
41 (Al-Khatri, 2004; Howard, 2001; Hussain, 1963; Kinawy & Al Siyabi, 2012; Mahmoudi,
42 Sahragard, Pezhman, & Ghadamyari, 2015; Mokhtar & Al Nabhani, 2010). Gassouma (2004)
43 reported that DB could reduce the crop yield by more than 50% during heavy infestations.

44 Two generations of DB occur annually. In the spring generation, eggs start hatching from
45 February to April where nymphs pass through 5 instars to become adults in approximately 6-7

46 weeks. The eggs aestivate or hibernate during hot season (i.e., summer) until the autumn
47 generation where they start hatching from late August to the last week of October. A nymph
48 takes about 6 weeks to develop into an adult, which lives for about 12 weeks. Each female can
49 produce more than 120 eggs, which are laid by insertion into holes in the tissue of date palm
50 fronds at the end of each season (Elwan & Al-Tamimi, 1999).

51 The DB has been recorded in Oman as early as 1962. The Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries
52 (MAF) has made huge efforts to control its infestation. Insecticides were evaluated for DB
53 management by air and ground spraying in spring 1980. However, the most appropriate
54 pesticides are restricted because of their side effects (e.g., irritation) (Al-Yahyai & Khan,
55 2015). In addition, these methods are expensive and can have negative environmental impacts
56 on non-target species (Al-Azawi, 1986; Hussain, 1963), in particular on natural enemies (H.
57 El-Shafie, 2012; Shah, Naeem, Nasir, Irfan-ul-Haq, & Hafeez, 2012) of the DB as well as on
58 human health . Furthermore, chemical control measures have had limited successes in Oman,
59 where DB continues to pose a major challenge for the agricultural industry (H. A. El-Shafie,
60 Peña, & Khalaf, 2015).

61 Although there are a number of studies on the biology and ecology of DB (Al-Deeb, 2012;
62 Jasim & Al-Zubaidy, 2010; Thacker, Al-Mahmooli, & Deadman, 2003), the use of geographic
63 information systems (GIS), remote sensing (RS) and spatial analysis of DB infestations in the
64 sultanate of Oman has been limited. Spatial analysis can be used to estimate the risk of diseases
65 and insect infestations across affected areas and offer insights into the nature of their spread
66 and clustering (Ai-Leen & Song, 2000).

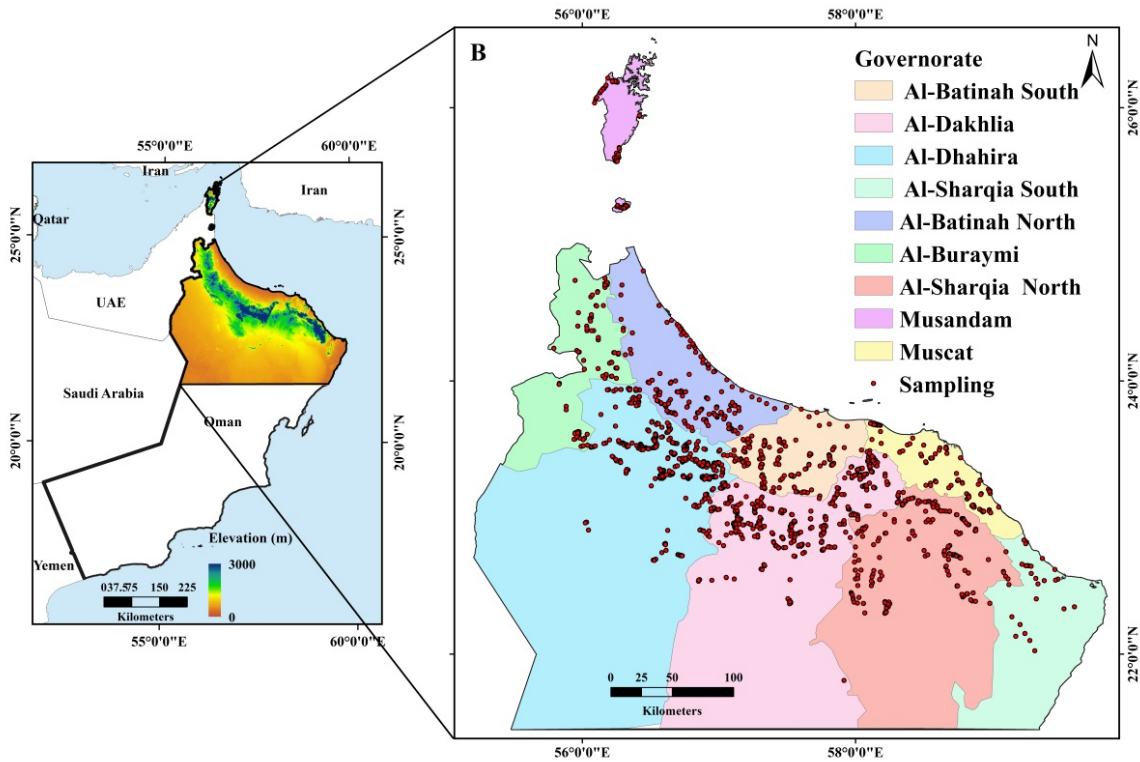
67 In our study, spatial clustering methods are of significant value in the identification of hotspots
68 of affected area. Until now, temporal aspects of DB infestation have largely been ignored,
69 leading to difficulties in assessing the infestation levels of DB outbreaks and decision making.

70 Understanding the historical and spatiotemporal patterns of occurrences of the DB infestation
71 at the landscape level is expected to provide invaluable insights into how outbreaks develop,
72 persist and subside. The main objectives of this paper are to (a) illustrate the spatiotemporal
73 changes of DB infestation risks based on annual data from 2006 to 2015, and (b) specify the
74 degree of change of their infestation levels. The findings are important for providing
75 spatiotemporal traces that could improve and develop management as well as surveillance
76 systems for DB infestations.

77 2. Materials and Methods

78 2.1 Study area

79 Oman has diverse topographical and climate eco-regions that allow for cultivation of several
80 types of date plants, particularly in the northern coastal and the interior governorates (Al-
81 Busaidi & Jukes, 2015). In this study, we focused on northern Oman (26°50N to 22°26N, and
82 55°50E to 59°50E) (Fig. 1). According to the Ministry of Agriculture (MAF) (Annual
83 Report,1990), this area contains the highest level of DB infestation and has resulted in many
84 direct and indirect damages to the infested date palms and nearby trees, causing up to 50% crop
85 loss during a heavy infestation (Al-Khatri, 2004; Al-Yahyai & Al-Khanjari, 2008b; Ali, 2010;
86 Mani et al. 2005). The study area covers a size of ~ 114,336 km² and includes nine
87 governorates. The plantation of date palms on the coastline plain approximates 49% of the total
88 **distribution** (Musandam 3%, Muscat 4%, Al-Batinah North and Al-Batinah South 41.87%)
89 while another 50% are distributed in the interior plain (Al-Dakhliyah 14%, Al-Dhahirah and Al-
90 Buraymi 17%, Ash-Sharqiyah North, and Ash-Sharqiyah South 19%) (Al-Yahyai & Al-
91 Khanjari, 2008a).



92

93 Fig 1. (a) Location of the study area with positions of samplings points (sites), and (b)
 94 governorates in northern Oman.

95 *2.2 Data*

96 Data on DB infestations and their impact determined by observations of palm trees from 2006
 97 to 2015 were obtained from the MAF. These data comprise spatial coordinates (longitude &
 98 latitude of sites), governorate, infestation level and the method of data collection for DB
 99 infestation. In Oman, two methods have been used to identify the economic threshold of DB
 100 infestation during autumn and spring generations. The first method involves counting the
 101 number of nymphs on each leaflet. The MAF considered a slight infestation with five nymphs
 102 (instars) on the leaflet, a moderate infestation with 5 to 10 nymphs per leaflet, and a heavy
 103 infestation with 10 or more nymphs per leaflet (Al-Khatri, 2004). The second method involves
 104 determining the infestation level is estimating the number of insects by counting the number
 105 of honeydew droplets from palm trees (Mokhtar & Al Nabhani, 2010).

106 In this study, we selected the counting of nymphs method to create a geodatabase. The actual
107 observations included **presence** data. We classified the DB infestation levels into 4 groups (very
108 low, low, moderate and high) in ArcGIS 10.3 as follows: very low infestation (less than 5
109 nymphs per leaflet; low (5 to 7 nymphs per leaflet); moderate (8 to 9 nymphs per leaflet); and
110 high infestation (10 or more nymphs per leaflet. The samples were collected **in both seasons**
111 **(spring and autumn generations) from 2006 to 2015 pried**. However, we calculated the average
112 over the two seasons for analysis. All datasets and GIS layers that were collected from the
113 Sultanate of Omani Ministries and Departments were projected onto the WGS 1984 UTM zone
114 40.

115 2.3 Spatial Analytic Methods

116 *2.3.1 Measuring geographical distribution*

117 Measuring geographical distribution (MGD) toolset in ArcGIS was used to calculate the
118 characteristics of DB infestations (centre, compactness, track change), and to compare DB
119 infestation distributions among years. The mean centre of infestations in the landscape over the
120 period of 10 years was computed and mapped to show DB congregations annually. MGD can
121 also be used to determine or predict where DB infestation is spreading and to map centres of
122 infestation levels monthly.

123 MGD can help to generate plans, approaches and instruments to monitor the development,
124 absence, presence, and density of a set of features (Wong & Lee, 2005). The mean centre
125 geographical analysis method was used to decide whether or not DB distribution shifted
126 annually based on two generations per year. Data obtained from the MAF, such as DB
127 infestation levels, were used to calculate a mean centre and to investigate and calculate the
128 change in potential DB infestation areas. The mean centre can be computed in two dimensions
129 by:

130
$$\bar{X}_w = \frac{\sum_i (w_i X_i)}{\sum_i w_i}, \quad \bar{Y}_w = \frac{\sum_i (w_i Y_i)}{\sum_i w_i} \quad (2) \text{ where}$$

131 \bar{X}_w is the weighted mean X-coordinate, w_i is weight, \bar{Y}_w is the weighted mean Y- coordinate.
 132 We used the standard distance tool to calculate both the weighted difference in distance
 133 between the points and the mean centre of DB infestations (hotspot) in order to obtain the
 134 average deviation from the mean. Additionally, the calculated weighted mean centre is useful
 135 when analysing the distribution of values in the area. This method provides a better measure
 136 of DB infestations around the mean, instead of being clustered at opposite sides of the study
 137 area.

138 The standard deviational ellipse (SDE) tool was used to measure the orientation, direction and
 139 spatial tendency of the distribution of DB infestations. We calculated the orientation of the
 140 areas that have been infested to investigate if their orientation is associated with factors such
 141 as mountains, valleys, and date palm densities. The SDE can also be used to compare
 142 infestation levels between different seasons or years of DB generations (e.g. spring and
 143 autumn).

144 We used SDE to calculate and draw an ellipse up to one standard deviation for known
 145 observations in order to observe the occurrences of DB infestation within the study area over
 146 the 10-year period. SDE is termed a standard deviational ellipse because of the standard
 147 deviation of the x- and y-coordinates from their average values, called the mean centre (Wong,
 148 1999). The Euclidean approach was used to calculate the orientation of DB infestation
 149 distribution because it computes the shortest distance between values. The SDE is defined as:

150
$$SD_x = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}}, \quad SD_y = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2}{n}} \quad (3)$$

151 where SD_x is the standard distance for the x-axis, and SD_y is the standard distance for the y-
152 axis, n is the number of features, X and Y are the coordinates, \bar{X} and \bar{Y} are the mean X and Y -
153 coordinates.

154 2.3.2 Mapping hotspots

155 Many spatial statistics can be used to investigate the distribution of insect infestations. For
156 example, one can conduct spatial autocorrelation analysis using Moran's I to determine the
157 spatial distribution or dispersal pattern (i.e. random, clusters and clumped) of the subject (DB
158 in our study) by measuring the relationship between the population density (i.e. infestations
159 sites) and spatial factors such as distance between populations (Al-Kindi, Kwan, Andrew, &
160 Welch, 2016; Griffith, 1987). It can be used to measure the spatial autocorrelation of insect
161 infestations based on the infestation locations and magnitudes simultaneously. However,
162 Moran's I, either general or local, can only detect the presence of a cluster of similar values. It
163 cannot tell whether the cluster is made of high or low values.

164 Geary's index can be used to measure the similarity of nearby features or similar values
165 occurring together. However, like Moran's I, it cannot determine whether clusters are
166 composed of high or low values. The G-statistic can be used to separate clusters of high from
167 clusters of low values (Getis & Ord, 1992). The global G-statistic is based on a stated distance
168 d . The weight can be based on some $G(d)$ in order to evaluate its statistical significance. In
169 addition to the global G-statistic, which is similar to Moran's I, a local version of the G-statistic
170 (Anselin & Getis, 2010; Ord & Getis, 1995), denoted by $G_i(d)$, is often described as a tool for
171 *hot spot* analysis. A cluster of high positive Z scores suggests the presence of a cluster of *hot*
172 *spot* values. On the other hand, a cluster of low positive Z scores suggests the presence of a
173 cluster of *cold spot* values. The G_i^* of a hotspot can be computed by:

174

$$G_i^* = \frac{\sum_{j=i}^n w_{i,j} x_j - \bar{X} \sum_{j=1}^n w_{i,j}}{s \sqrt{\frac{n \sum_{j=1}^n w_{i,j}^2 - \left(\sum_{j=1}^n w_{i,j} \right)^2}{n-1}}} \quad (1)$$

175 Where G_i^* represents the value of G^* for feature i at a distance d . The value of each neighbour
 176 x_i is multiplied by the weighted target-neighbour pair w_{ij} . A G_i^* value close to 0 indicates that
 177 there is neither low nor high concentration of values nearby the target feature. This happens
 178 when the surrounding values are close to the mean, or when the target feature is bound by a
 179 mixture of low and high values. The use of G_i^* adds statistical significance to hotspot analysis
 180 by considering all values within distance d . Moreover, it is better at predicting spatial clustering
 181 patterns such as hot/cold spots over an entire study area based on the statistical significance of
 182 the risk factors (Kulldorff, Athas, Feurer, Miller, & Key, 1998; Neill, Moore, Pereira, &
 183 Mitchell, 2004). Statistical analysis using G_i^* is also particularly helpful for resource allocation
 184 and decision making, and can be combined with infestation level indices to produce a useful
 185 measure. This measure implies the risk of DB infestations.

186 For our analysis, a set of 616 sites that were randomly sampled across the study area, once for
 187 each of the two seasons, was used over the period 2006-2015. The G_i^* statistics was applied
 188 to examine the local level of yearly (two seasons per year) temporal risk in order to model both
 189 hot spot and cold spot sites, according to the values of DB frequency index, the infestation
 190 levels and degree of geographically homogeneity. The Euclidean distance was used to
 191 computer a z-score and a p-value for each site of the study. The GIS function calculates a z-
 192 score for each feature at the specified distance. We conceptualised the spatial relationships
 193 between locations of DB infestation in the nine governorates that are studied by utilizing fixed-
 194 distance bands. This allows for the accounting of DB infestation levels within the boundaries
 195 of the study area, while excluding irrelevant data from outside the boundaries. The proposed

196 method has been shown to be generally more appropriate than the inverse distance method
197 provided by spatial statistical tools for performing geographical cluster pattern analysis
198 (Mitchell, 2005, pp. 172-180).

199 Kernel density estimation method was used to calculate the total area at a high risk. It was
200 applied as the vectorization function (convert raster to vector) to get a polygon shapefile. This
201 approach can be used to calculate the size (area) per hectares of infestation levels of DB for
202 each year from 2006-2015.

203 3. Results

204 The results are presented on an annual basis from 2006 to 2015 in Figure 3. Locations of hotspot
205 with significant **infestation** levels are indicated. Spatiotemporally, the yearly hotspots are
206 distributed in most of the nine governorates in the northern part of Oman. However, some of
207 the regions that were identified as a high-risk area exhibited infestation level changes from low
208 to high over some of the 10-year period. For example, the northern parts of Al-Sharqia North
209 governorate in particular, was identified as a high-risk area with ($Z\text{-Score} \geq 4.80$; $p = 0.01$) in
210 both 2006 and 2015, but was a medium-risk area in 2011-2013, and a low and very low-risk
211 area in 2014 (see Figure 3).

212 Similarly, the north-eastern part of the Al-Dhahirah governorate was a high-risk area in 2007,
213 a medium-risk area in 2009, 2010 (NE), and 2013 (NW), but a low-risk area in 2006 (N and
214 NE), 2012 (NW), and a very low-risk area in 2011 and 2014 (refer to Figure 3). Figure 4 shows
215 the number of locations (or sites) of high DB infestation from 2006-2015 based on the
216 condition, $2.50 \leq Z\text{-score}$. For example, in 2006, 92 locations were identified as area of high
217 risk, while the number of sites at high risk decreased in 2007, 2008 and 2009 respectively. In
218 essence, the patterns of hotspots and high-risk areas were shifting and the DB infestation risks
219 increased as well as decreased over the 10-year period.

220 The average annual risk map for the 10-year period shows that most of the DB hotspots
221 occurred in the nine central governorates of northern Oman (see Figure 3). Based on the
222 average DB **infestation** level for the 10-year period, we identified northwest Musandam,
223 northern Ash-Sharqiyah, northern Al-Dakhliyah, and Southern Al-Batinah as high-risk areas for
224 most of the years, while the northern Al-Batinah governorate was identified as a very low-risk
225 area. The **infestation** levels also changed from one year to the next (refer to Figure 3). Our data
226 and analyses provided very useful insights into the understanding of spatiotemporal risk
227 variations during the last 10 years.

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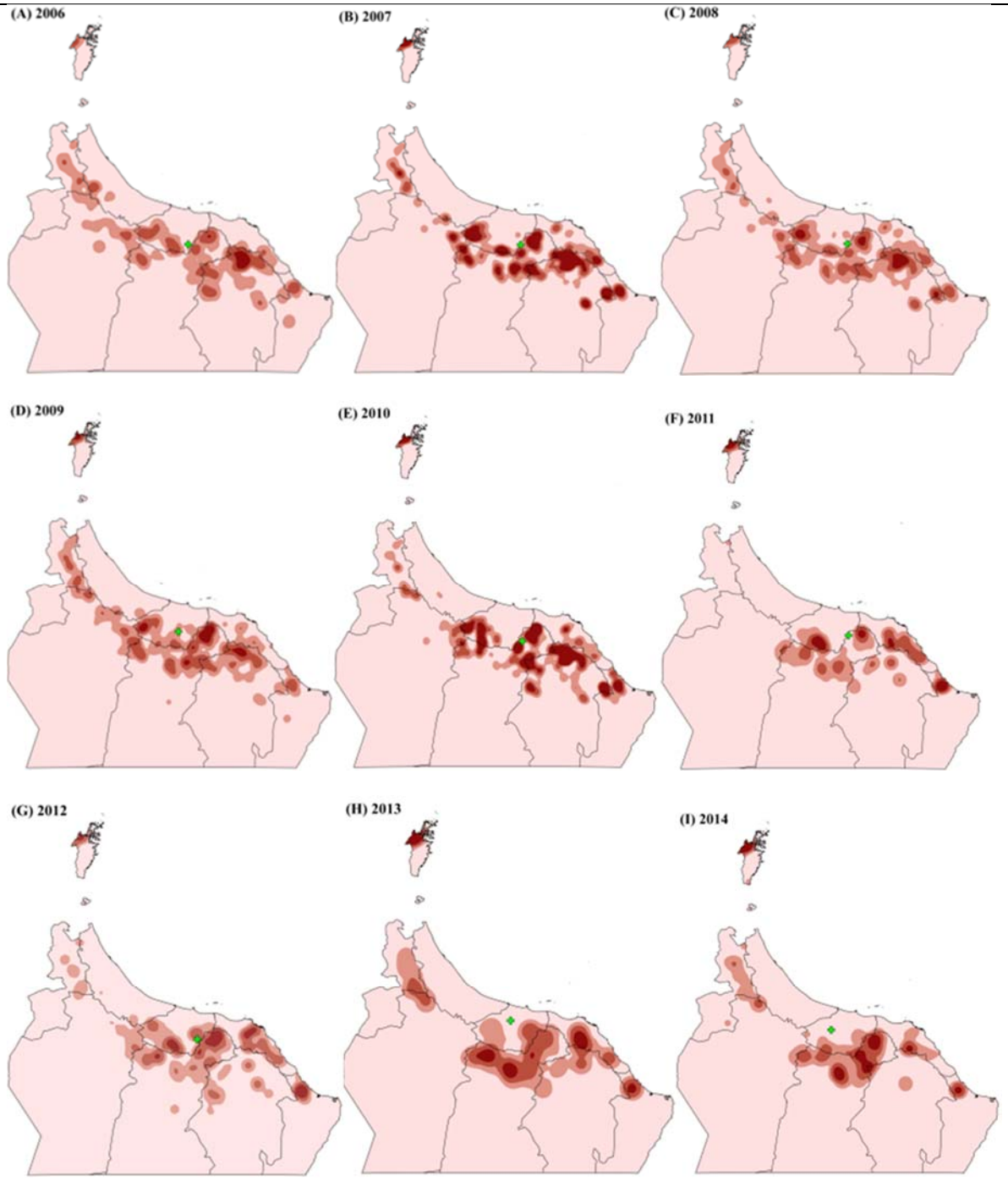
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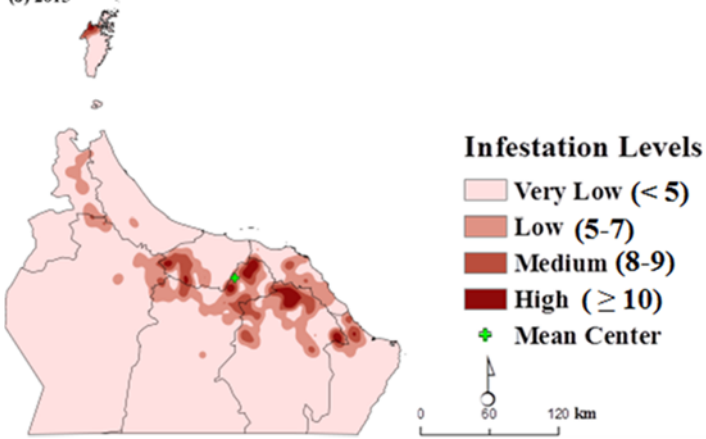
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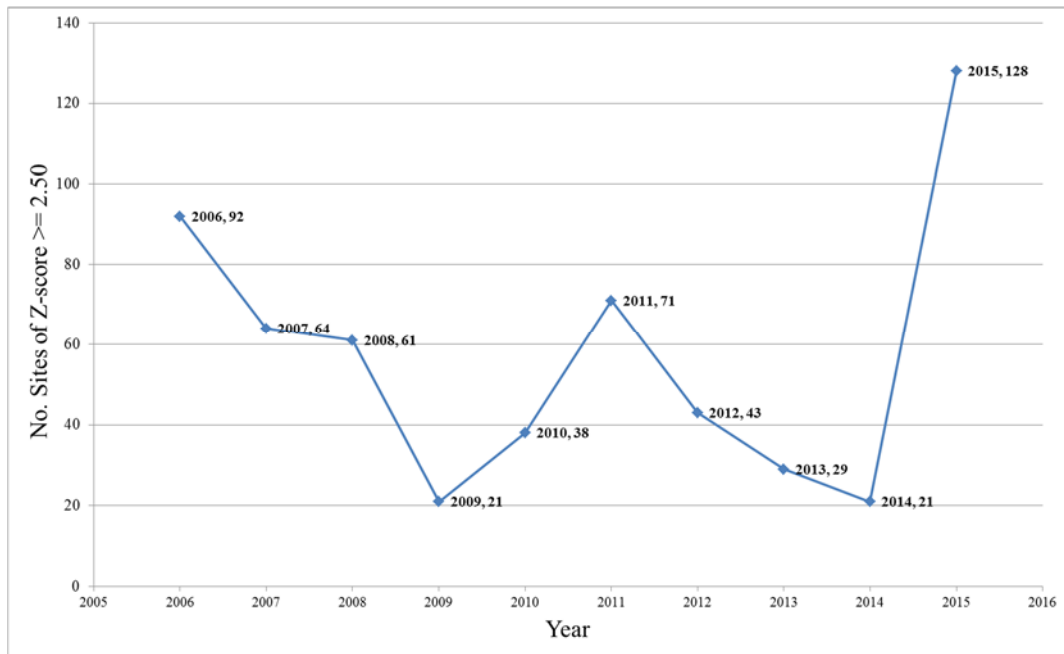
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239

240 Fig3. Density and distribution of hot- and cold spots of DB infestation levels observed in date

241 palms from 2006 to 2015. The scale in all maps is the same.

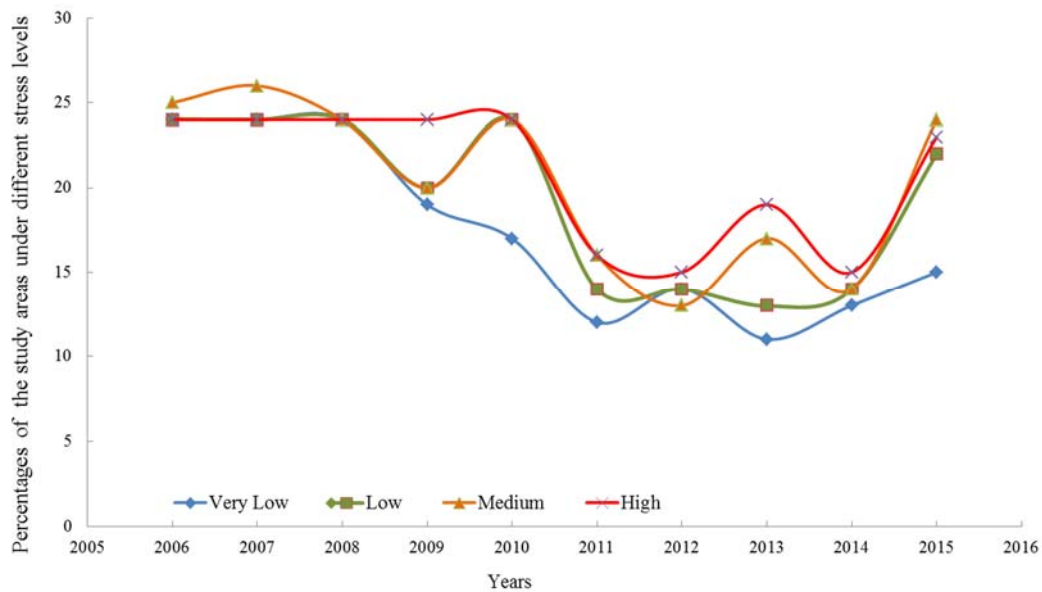


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243 Figure 4. Changes in number of DB hotspots, satisfying $2.50 \leq Z\text{-score}$, for the study area

244 from 2006-2015. Detailed Z-scores and p-values for each hotspot can be found in the

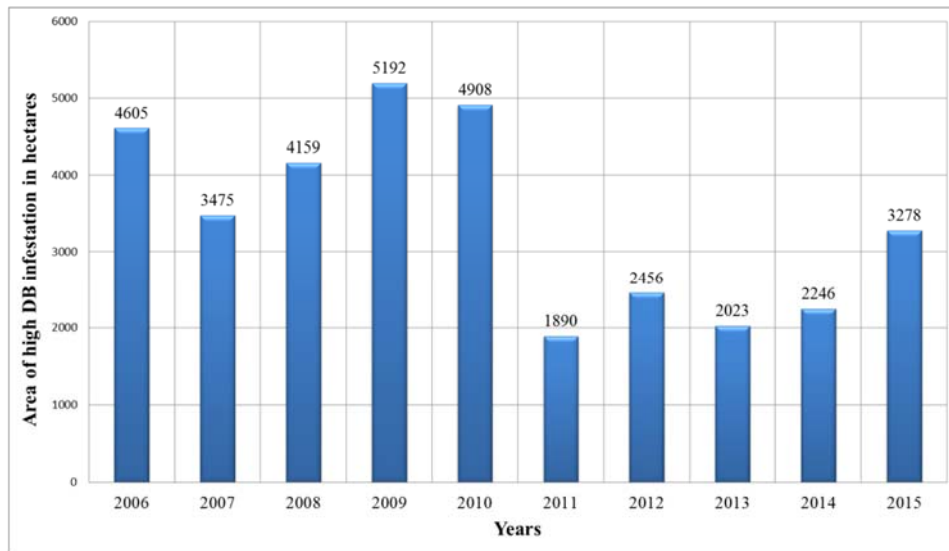
245 supplementary material.



246

247 Figure 5: Percentages of infested areas under different infestation levels from 2006-2015.

248 Our analysis revealed that the percentages of infested areas with high-risk ranged from 15% to
 249 24%, medium-risk areas ranged from 13% to 26%, and low-risk areas ranged from 11% to 24%
 250 in most years (see Figure 5). The percentage of high-risk areas increased from 2006 to 2010
 251 and then decreased from 2012 to 2013. However, it increased again in 2013 and decreased in
 252 2014, then appeared to increase again in 2015. The percentage of medium-risk areas also
 253 showed fluctuations: an increase in 2006 and 2007, a decrease in 2008 and 2009, an increase
 254 in 2010, a sharp decrease in 2011 and 2012, an increase again in 2013, a decrease in 2014, and
 255 lastly an increase in 2015 (refer to Figure 5). The raster map was used to calculate the
 256 infestation density and to obtain areas with hectares-sized infestations in the 10-year period
 257 (see Figure 6).



258

259

Fig.6 Area of high DB infestation in hectares from 2006-2015.

260

Table 1: Change in mean centre locations in the 10-year period (highlighted in green colour

261

in Figure 3).

From Year	Mean Centre-N	Mean Centre-E	To Year	Distance (km)	Mean Centre-N	Mean Centre-E	Degree/ Angle
2006	23.261680	57.775538	2007	9.04	23.277916	57.862190	10.61
2007	23.277916	57.86219	2008	2.25	23.285921	57.841882	158.49
2008	23.285921	57.841882	2009	21.63	23.378982	57.655222	153.50
2009	23.378982	57.655222	2010	30.22	23.250602	57.914436	-26.35
2010	23.250602	57.914436	2011	13.99	23.376899	57.926360	84.61
2011	23.376899	57.92636	2012	9.37	23.348342	57.838539	-161.99
2012	23.348342	57.838539	2013	38.55	23.583068	57.559798	139.90
2013	23.583068	57.559798	2014	12.44	23.510745	57.432013	-150.49
2014	23.510745	23.510745	2015	50.52	57.899768	57.899768	152.90

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Table 1 shows the changes in the weighted mean centre (highlighted in green colour in Figure

264

3) of DB infestations for the nine central governorates of northern Oman from 2006 to 2015.

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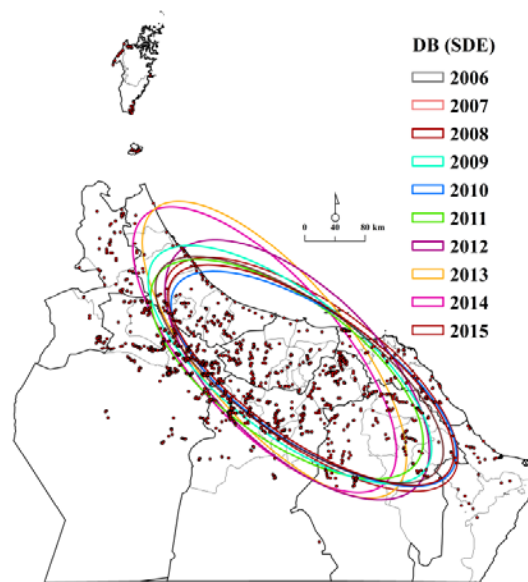
The population centre was initially located in the Al-Batinah South Governorate. However,

266

animation of the changes revealed an unsteady movement of the weighted mean centre for each

267 year. For example, in 2006 the weighted mean centre was located at (23.261° N, 57.775° E) but
268 shifted to (23.277° N, 57.862° E), which was 10.61° to the east and within 9.04 km. Another
269 example was a weighted mean centre shift of 30.22 km within -26° from 2009 to 2010 (see
270 Table 1).

271 An ellipse displayed in our results showed the DB infestation orientation (see Figure 7). We
272 observed that the distribution of DB infestations shifted between preferred habitat locations in
273 our study area while the orientation coincided with natural features, such as streams (i.e. dry
274 river) or valleys with surrounding mountains. Additionally, SDE showed that the DB
275 infestations have orientations and directions, which revealed a spatial trend in the 10-year
276 period. The magnitude of standard deviation differed from year to year (refer to Figure 7). For
277 example, the weighted size of the ellipse was 125.14 km (minor axis) and the length of the
278 ellipse was 320.84 km (major axis) in 2008, while the weighted size of the ellipse was 130 km
279 (minor axis) and the length of the ellipse was 322 km (major axis) in 2009 (see Figure 7).



280

281 Figure 7: Standard deviation ellipses (SDE) revealing DB infestation sightings.

282 4. Discussions

283 To understand the distribution and prevalence of DB infestations, highly detailed and
284 sophisticated information are needed to clarify complex gene-environmental interactions.
285 Spatial information technologies, such as GIS and remote sensing, are important tools for
286 visualising and analysing invasive insect infestations (in this study, DB) and associated
287 entomological and agricultural data, which together describe factors that can facilitate the
288 management and control of infestations.

289 Extraction of spatial patterns was the first step in understanding the phenomenon of DB
290 infestations. Our results shown in Figure 3, based on the 10-year period of 2006-2015, show
291 varying infestations (i.e., some regions/conditions led to more absence/presence of hot-or cold
292 spots than others). The results were able to reveal very active areas of infestations. In addition,
293 by applying procedures such as hotspot detection and kernel density estimation, we were able
294 to identify spatial regions showing infestation events with a higher likelihood. The hotspots
295 indicated potential outbreaks as well as revealing the underlying cause of infestation.

296 The weighted mean centres (marked with green colour) shifted during the 10-year period (see
297 Figure 3 and Figure 4). The ability to determine a weighted DB infestation centre is useful for
298 tracking changes in the distribution because it works well especially when analysing the
299 distribution of values associated with an area.

300 One reason for the continued occurrences of DB infestation, shifts, and changes between
301 governorates reported in this study is probably the failure of current control approaches that
302 have been used since the 1980's to limit the spread of DB infestation in spite of achieving some
303 successes in reducing their transmission. Another possible reason could be that DB breeding
304 sites may have been overlooked or may not have been identified as risk areas. In addition, the
305 annual data may not be sufficient enough to determine the real reasons behind the heavy
306 presence of DB.

307 Our results showed that annual hotspots over the study period were mainly concentrated in the
308 mountain plains, particularly where farms are located between gradient elevations and that their
309 distribution patterns varied considerably with time and space. However, we believe that
310 climatological and environmental conditions, together with other factors, are very important in
311 determining the distribution and survival of any species, both plants and animal (Shah, Mohsin,
312 Hafeez, Naeem, & Haq, 2013). The same applies to the DB. For example, links between DB
313 hotspots, cold spots, density, presence or absence results can be useful in our further studies to
314 investigate the correlation with environmental factors, such as elevation, slope, water type, soil
315 type, soil salinity, geology, hillshade, (Al-Kindi et al., 2016) and solar radiation.

316 In addition, the results can also be used in studies to investigate the relationships between DB
317 infestations and climatological factors such as humidity, rainfall, temperature, wind directions
318 and speed (Payandeh, Kamali, & Fathipour, 2010). Environmental changes and socio-
319 economic factors may also play key roles in enhancing the development, survival and spread
320 of pests such as DB (Al-Marshudi, 2002) . In recent years, extreme weather conditions have
321 severely affected date palm productions in Oman such as cyclone Goun in 2007, Phet in 2010,
322 the Nanuk in 2014, and Ashobaa in 2015(Al-Yahyai & Khan, 2015). Drought, due to a lengthy
323 rainless period and the drying up of many wells, increased water and soil salinity may also
324 support increase and development of insects such as DB. Date palm cultivation in Oman
325 remains a traditional human practice and farmers face many problems such as traditional
326 irrigation, fertiliser, and application approaches (Al-Marshudi, 2002; Al-Yahyai, 2006). Biotic
327 problems are also of great concern to growers, particularly pests such as DB (El-Juhany, 2010).

328 SDE emphasises this trend because it conducts confidence analysis and provides results based
329 on a statistical technique and not just on visual interpretation of maps. For example, DB
330 distribution and orientation (ellipse) coincides with natural features, such as mountains, valleys
331 and dry rivers (refer to Figure 7). This may be due to quality water, quality soil, and valuable

332 shelters supporting DB's development. Water available in fronds make palms a breeding
333 ground for DB as well. As a result, in our next study we plan to use modern geostatistical
334 techniques and statistic available in ArcGIS packages to look at why DBs are clustered in
335 certain region/conditions. These techniques might help us to identify the most important
336 geographical combinations of variables that help DB develop, prosper and migrate. Once the
337 individual factors or combinations of factors have been identified we will then use these to
338 develop predictive models that will be able to give us the probability of occurrence, spatial
339 distribution and densities under different environmental, climatological and resource
340 availability conditions. These models might be able to forecast the spatial distribution and
341 densities of the bug under prevailing condition at the beginning of each season. These results
342 in-turn could be used to confirm/discard previous hypotheses and generate new working
343 hypothesis.

344 Identifying the potential causes of DB infestation is useful to help risk managers know where
345 to locate their resources. Figure 7 shows an elongated ellipse of DB distribution with a
346 particular orientation. We believe the identified patterns of DB infestation are not in part
347 artefacts of the study area boundaries, but are genuinely based on the distribution of palm trees
348 across the regions.

349 According to Blumberg (2008), DB typically avoids direct sunlight, and the density spread is
350 enhanced by transfer of infested offshoots and by wind. This study provides useful information
351 about hotspots in nine central governorates in northern Oman using an infestation level index
352 for spatiotemporal risks. The results indicate that entomologists can identify infestation clusters
353 when factoring in temporal properties such as number of adult and nymph cases occurring
354 within a specific time frame. Spatiotemporal risk details presented in this research confirm that
355 the use of temporal-risk and geographical analysis models, based on annual infestation level
356 index, can produce critical datasets to better understand changes.

357 Furthermore, this study recommends an agricultural policy that promotes the establishment of
358 an Intellectual Property (IP) program that implements GIS and remote sensing function tools
359 for conducting daily or monthly assessment of seasonal DB generations (i.e. autumn and
360 spring). This program is expected to provide improved DB surveillance systems and lead to
361 better intervention control in Sultanate of Oman.

362 5. Conclusion

363 This study is important for palm tree health especially in Oman, because no published research
364 exists on applying spatiotemporal analysis to detect diseases and infestations that attack palm
365 trees. The spatiotemporal distribution of DB infestations can be linked to environmental,
366 meteorological, climate change and human factors that promote the development and
367 prevalence of this pest. DB develops and inhabits areas with suitable environmental,
368 meteorological and cultural conditions. This is true for every single plant and animal species.
369 Organisms inhabit those sites that are most suitable to their needs and survival. This study also
370 generated data at fine scales that cover much larger areas of northern Oman than any of the
371 previous studies. It also benefits both the government and the farmers of Oman by identifying
372 suitable locations and optimal cultural practices for the planting of date palms and the
373 prediction of future infestations.

374 Hotspot and distribution analysis results of DB infestations can inform more targeted
375 insecticide applications. These approaches will save insecticide use, thereby lowering expenses
376 for farmers and the government. Farmers will be better informed about DB risks and impacts.
377 They will likely take actions earlier, thus reducing insecticide use. Spatial analysis, hotspot
378 analysis and distribution patterns will improve knowledge about DB distribution and risk areas,
379 which will in term support early intervention to limit damage.

380 MGD analysis can also be used to monitor and identify adult and nymph hotspots and their
381 distribution in order to eliminate DB breeding sites. The results of this study create a basis for
382 future research, especially with respect to control programs for identifying accurate locations
383 that can be targeted when applying management techniques.

384 6. Acknowledgement

385 We thank the Unit of Cultivations Protection of the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries in the
386 Sultanate of Oman for providing the annual data of Dubas Bug infestations.

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