

1 **A winner in the Anthropocene: changing host plant**
2 **distribution explains geographic range expansion in the gulf**
3 **fritillary butterfly**

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21 **Abstract:**

- 22 1. The changing climate is altering the geographic distributions
23 of species around the world with consequences for population
24 dynamics, resulting in winners and losers in the
25 Anthropocene.
- 26 2. *Agraulis vanillae*, the gulf fritillary butterfly, has expanded its
27 range in the past one hundred years in the western United
28 States. We combine time series analysis with species
29 distribution modeling to investigate factors limiting the
30 distribution of *A. vanillae* and to predict future shifts under
31 warming scenarios.
- 32 3. In the western US, where we have time series and geographic
33 data, urban development has a positive influence (the host
34 plant is an ornamental in gardens), being associated with year
35 of colonization. Colonization was also associated to a lesser
36 extent with winter maximum temperatures, while a negative
37 impact of minimum temperatures and precipitation was
38 apparent on population growth rates.
- 39 4. Across the country, the butterfly is primarily limited by host
40 availability and positively affected by human presence.
41 Perhaps counter-intuitively for a largely tropical ectotherm,
42 current effects of a warming climate (in the years post-
43 colonization) are either negative (on population growth rate)
44 or indirect, likely mediated through availability of areas that
45 can support the host.

46 5. Under future climate scenarios, conditions are predicted to
47 become more suitable for *Passiflora* in many urban areas,
48 which would likely result in further expansion of *A. vanillae*
49 during the dispersive season. These results illustrate the value
50 of combining time series with spatial modeling to understand
51 and predict shifting geographic ranges in the Anthropocene.

52 **Keywords:** *Agraulis vanillae*, *Passiflora*, climate change,
53 expansion, distribution

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54 **Introduction**

55

56 Recent climate change has had numerous consequences for

57 species around the world, including shifts in geographic

58 distribution (Chen et al., 2011). In some cases, ranges are

59 expanding, while for many others geographic ranges are shifting

60 or contracting (Parmesan, 2006). Ectotherms, including

61 butterflies and other insects, are particularly sensitive to changes

62 in the climate and have often been exemplar species for the study

63 of these issues (Parmesan et al., 1999; Warren et al., 2001).

64 Recently, attention has been paid not only to changes in

65 geographic ranges, but also to declines in insect populations

66 around the world, which are driven by a combination of habitat

67 loss, pesticide use, climate change, and other factors (Hallmann et

68 al., 2017; Lister & Garcia, 2018; Salcido et al., 2019; Sanchez-

69 Bayo & Wyckhuys, 2019; Wepprich et al., 2019). We can expect

70 these factors will have different impacts on different species, and

71 even that some species will be "winners" under altered conditions

72 (McKinney & Lockwood, 1999). Identifying successful species

73 and the reason for their success in the face of change is important

74 for understanding the potential of individual species and

75 ecosystems to persist and thrive in future climates. In particular,

76 understanding how aspects of global change negatively impact

77 some species, while benefiting others, will improve our ability to

78 predict future species assemblages. One example of a butterfly

79 that appears to be benefitting from anthropogenic influence is the

80 gulf fritillary (*Agraulis vanillae*), which has recently expanded its

81 range in the western United States (Shapiro, 2007). In this study
82 we seek to better understand the drivers underlying this expansion
83 using a combination of spatial data and long-term population
84 records.

85 *Agraulis vanillae* is a neotropical butterfly associated with
86 riparian and weedy/disturbed habitats (Shapiro, 2009). Over its
87 entire distribution, from temperate North America to temperate
88 South America, there are eight identified sub-species. Previous
89 work has demonstrated genetic divergence between North
90 American and South American lineages (Runquist et al., 2012).
91 In the United States, *A. vanillae* is multi-voltine and in some areas
92 flies almost all year, however diapause has been observed in both
93 the larval and pupal stages in Florida (Sourakov, 2008). The
94 butterfly is sensitive to frost, which can be lethal to all life stages
95 (Shapiro, 2007). Eastern populations are known to undergo
96 northward dispersal in the spring (Walker, 1991), with sightings
97 as far north as North Dakota and New York (Scott, 1986). These
98 life history traits raise the possibility that the range of *A. vanillae*
99 may be limited by low overwintering temperatures, thus milder
100 winters could reduce the risk of extinction along the northern
101 range margin and explain the success of this butterfly.

102 *Agraulis vanillae* utilizes most plants from the genus
103 *Passiflora* as hosts (May, 1992). The two most common species
104 in the United States are *Passiflora incarnata* and *Passiflora lutea*,
105 both of which are found across much of the southeastern United
106 States (Gremillion, 1989). *Passiflora* prefers well-drained soils

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107 and is often found in disturbed sites. In the west, *Passiflora* is not
108 present in natural areas, however various species have been
109 introduced to urban areas as ornamentals (Graves & Shapiro,
110 2003). Winter low temperatures likely limit the distributions of
111 wild populations, however survival can be improved by active
112 management in cultivated populations (McGuire, 1999). In
113 California, the introduction of *Passiflora* and its association with
114 *A. vanillae*, are well documented. In Southern California, these
115 species have been associated since 1875. It was first sighted in
116 San Francisco as early as 1908, however it did not permanently
117 establish until 1955 (Powell, 2000). In the 1960's and 1970's the
118 butterfly was seen in Sacramento, but was extirpated and has only
119 recently reestablished in the region. The presence of *Passiflora*
120 offers another, non-mutually exclusive, explanation for the
121 success of *A. vanillae*. It is possible that *A. vanillae* is currently
122 not limited by temperature, but instead by the distribution of
123 *Passiflora*. As this plant expands due to cultivation, so does the
124 gulf fritillary.

125 In this study, we address the following questions. First, using
126 data from a long-term observational study, we ask if climate or
127 urban development better explain the establishment and success of
128 the butterfly in recent years in the Sacramento Valley. Second,
129 using citizen science observational data, we ask if the current
130 distribution of the butterfly in the continental United States is
131 better explained by host plant or climate limitation. Finally, using
132 species distribution modeling, we ask if the butterfly is likely to

133 continue to expand its distribution under different climate change
134 scenarios.

135 **Materials and methods**

136 *Sacramento Valley time series data*

137 Observational data were collected every other week by a single
138 observer (AMS) across five sites in the Sacramento Valley. Count
139 data of individual butterflies at these five sites have been collected
140 since 1999 and presence/absence data have been collected since
141 the 1970's or 1980's, depending on the site. At these five low
142 elevation sites, data are recorded year round. Site descriptions
143 and additional details have been reported elsewhere (Forister et
144 al., 2010). *Agraulis vanillae* did not consistently appear at any of
145 these five sites until 2001 and did not appear at every site until
146 2012. Climate data in California were derived from 270m grid
147 climate maps of monthly and annual values for minimum and
148 maximum temperature and precipitation (Flint & Flint 2012; Flint
149 et al. 2013; Thorne et al. 2015). We extracted the values for grid
150 cells that overlapped with each of the sample sites in the
151 Sacramento Valley and averaged the values for each monthly
152 variable for each year. We calculated seasonal variables by further
153 averaging monthly values to season and converting to water year
154 (the start of September through the end of August).

155 *Sacramento Valley statistical analysis*

156 We approached the analysis of times series data in two phases.
157 First, we used annual presence/absence data to examine

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158 colonization, attempting to model the difference between years in
159 which the butterfly was absent across our focal sites and years in
160 which it was present (spanning 1984 through 2018). Specifically,
161 random forest regression was used with presence at a site in a
162 given year as the response variable and percent urban land cover
163 (at a county level), seasonal means of minimum temperature,
164 seasonal means of maximum temperature, and seasonal means of
165 precipitation as covariates. A total of 500,000 trees were made
166 with a node size of 5. Variable importance was determined by
167 examining the increased mean squared error of the model when
168 each variable was randomly permuted. The most influential
169 variables identified by random forest analysis were moved
170 forward into a Bayesian hierarchical model. While the random
171 forest is useful for judging the potential importance of a large
172 number of variables, including some that are highly correlated, the
173 Bayesian model allows us to estimate coefficients and associated
174 uncertainty in a hierarchical framework (simultaneously within
175 and across sites). Following a previous model used for data from
176 these study sites (Nice et al, 2019), presence was modeled both at
177 the individual site level and at a higher level across all sites using
178 a Bernoulli distribution. Uninformative priors were used for
179 means and variance, with means drawn from normal distribution
180 ($\mu = 0$, $\tau = 0.01$) and variances drawn from a gamma
181 distribution ($r = 0.01$, $\lambda = 0.01$). The Bayesian model was
182 comprised of four chains each run for 5,000,000 iterations with an
183 adaptive phase of 500,000 iterations.

184 As a second phase, we examined annual population dynamics
185 post-colonization at the same focal sites, using individual survey
186 count data summarized by year and transformed into population
187 growth rates. Population growth was calculated as the natural log
188 of the current year's total count divided by the previous year's
189 total count (Sibly & Hone, 2002). To determine the most
190 influential climate variables, population growth in a given year
191 was then modeled using a random forest regression. Covariates in
192 the model included abundance in the previous year, seasonal
193 means of minimum monthly temperature, seasonal means of
194 maximum monthly temperature, seasonal means of precipitation,
195 and these same variables lagged by one year to allow in particular
196 for effects mediated through host plants. Again, a total of 500,000
197 trees with a node size of 5 was used. Variable importance was
198 determined by examining the increased mean squared error of the
199 model following permutation of each variable, and this was done
200 both within and among sites. Like the colonization analysis, the
201 most influential variables identified by random forest analysis
202 were moved forward into a Bayesian hierarchical model in which
203 population growth was modeled both at the individual site level
204 and at a higher level across all sites using a normal distribution.
205 Means of covariates were drawn from an uninformed normal
206 distribution ($\mu = 0$, $\tau = 0.01$) and variances drawn from an
207 uninformed gamma distribution ($r = 0.01$, $\lambda = 0.01$). This
208 model was comprised of four chains each run for 100,000
209 iterations with an adaptive phase of 10,000 iterations. All

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210 analyses were conducted using the randomForest (RColorBrewer
211 & Liaw, 2018) and jagsUI (Kellner, 2019) packages in R Studio.

212 *National data*

213 For US-wide spatial analyses, geo-referenced data points for
214 both *A. vanillae* and *Passiflora* were acquired from “research
215 grade” observations on inaturalist. Additional observations of
216 *Passiflora* were obtained from Cal flora and additional
217 observations of *A. vanillae* from the Butterflies and Moths of
218 North America. Only observations with an uncertainty under 1km
219 were used for analysis. Both *Passiflora* and *A. vanillae* are
220 distinct and identification is likely not a concern, however a
221 random subset of 100 observations with photos were checked and
222 all were found to be correct IDs. Current climate data and future
223 projections were obtained from WorldClim (Hijmans et al., 2005).
224 A human population density raster was obtained from the
225 Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center, which used data
226 from the 2010 census (Center for International Earth Science
227 Information Network, 2018). All raster layers were cropped to
228 only include the 48 contiguous states, although *A. vanillae* is also
229 an exotic in Hawaii. Finally, *A. vanillae* points were separated
230 based on being from the dispersal season or before. Points from
231 January to March were labeled as pre-dispersal, which is earlier
232 than the earliest observed spring migrant from a study of this
233 movement in Florida (Walker, 1991). In this paper, dispersal will
234 refer to the maximum distribution that the butterfly achieves
235 during the year.

236 *National statistical analysis*

237 Species distribution models were built for both *Passiflora* and
238 *Agraulis vanillae*. All host plant models were built at the genus
239 level, however *Passiflora* species known not to be host plants
240 were excluded. The western and eastern distributions were
241 modeled both separately and together, to allow for the possibility
242 of different factors affecting range limits in the different regions.
243 For all models, we used the maxent algorithm, which models
244 presence only data by comparing observations with random
245 background points. For every model, 10,000 random background
246 points were taken within the continental United States. *Passiflora*
247 was modeled using temperature, mean precipitation, and human
248 population density as covariates. Models were built and evaluated
249 using mean temperature in the coldest month, mean annual
250 temperature, and max temperature in the warmest month as the
251 temperature variables. The best performing host plant model was
252 later used as part of the butterfly spatial model. Since the host
253 plant, especially in the western United States, is found almost
254 exclusively in urban environments, human population density was
255 used as a proxy for urban cultivation of the plant. For *A. vanillae*,
256 both the overwintering distribution and dispersal distributions
257 were modeled. The overwintering distribution was modeled using
258 the *Passiflora* distribution model and temperature variables. The
259 dispersal distribution was similarly modeled using the *Passiflora*
260 distribution model and temperature as covariates. As with
261 *Passiflora* analyses, various temperature variables were used for

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262 model building and comparison, and only the highest performing
263 model for both overwinter and dispersal distributions were used
264 for inference and projection. The models were trained on 70% of
265 the data and tested with the remaining 30%. For all models, data
266 were thinned in order to reduce overfitting due to sampling bias,
267 which was done by creating a grid that was overlaid onto the
268 study area. Individual grid cells were approximately 50 km² and
269 if more than five observations were located within a single grid,
270 only a random subset of five was kept for analysis. If a grid cell
271 had less than five observations all were kept. A sensitivity
272 analysis was also performed to examine the impacts of the
273 thinning method. All data used in models were thinned
274 substantially, often by over fifty percent (Table S1). Model
275 evaluation was performed by examining the AUC scores and
276 omission error rates of both the real model and 1000 permuted
277 null models. Methods and code for null model permutation are
278 described by Bohl et al. (2019), but briefly, observations from the
279 real model are randomly moved around the study area and
280 compared to the real model using the same covariates and testing
281 data. All analyses were performed in R Studio using the *dismo*
282 package (Hijmans et al., 2013).

283 **Results**

284 *Time Series*

285 For the first twenty-five years of the time series, *Agraulis vanillae*
286 only appeared as an occasional visitor, however beginning in 2001
287 it became a frequent visitor to all sites across the Sacramento

288 Valley. This rise in the presence of *A. vanillae* occurred during a
289 time of rising temperature and increasing urban development in
290 the area (fig. 1). The random forest model attributed high
291 importance to winter maximum temperatures and percent urban
292 land cover in predicting presence at a site (fig. 2). Both maximum
293 temperature and urban land cover have increasing trends over
294 time, especially land cover, which is highly correlated with year
295 (correlation coefficients for year and land cover range from 0.973
296 in Solano county to 0.989 in Yolo county). For the Bayesian
297 model, the model successfully converged (as judged by visual
298 inspection of posterior probability distributions) at both the
299 individual site level and at the higher across site level. The
300 Bayesian model confirms that both maximum winter temperatures
301 and development are positively associated with colonization at the
302 higher across site level. Specifically, the probability that
303 maximum temperature has a greater than zero effect is 0.98 and
304 the probability that urban development has a greater than zero
305 effect is 0.88. The coefficient estimate for urban development
306 shows high uncertainty for any particular value, however the
307 posterior distribution is almost entirely greater than the maximum
308 temperature posterior, thus there is support for a stronger effect of
309 urbanization.

310 For annual population dynamics (represented by the natural log
311 of the current to previous population density), the random forest
312 analysis attributed high importance to abundance in the previous
313 year, winter minimum temperature in the current year, winter

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314 precipitation in the current year, and summer precipitation in the
315 current year for predicting population growth (fig. 2, fig. S1).
316 Urbanization, while one of the covariates in the model, was not
317 found to be important for population growth rates. Coefficients in
318 the Bayesian model for population growth converged at both the
319 across site and individual site level. Previous year's abundance,
320 winter minimum temperature, and winter precipitation all had
321 negative effects on population growth. The model is confident in
322 the negative impacts of previous year's abundance, winter
323 minimum temperature, and winter precipitation (fig. 3).
324 Specifically, the probability that previous year's abundance has a
325 negative effect is 0.84, the probability that winter minimum
326 temperature has a negative effect is 0.80, and the probability that
327 winter precipitation has an effect is 0.88. There does not appear
328 to be a strong effect of summer precipitation in the Bayesian
329 hierarchical regression, despite the importance attributed to it in
330 the random forest. All three variables have approximately equal
331 estimated effect sizes. At the individual site level, there is
332 variation in estimated effects, however negative density
333 dependence is observed at all sites. Winter climate is also
334 important at all sites, however some sites have higher estimated
335 impacts of winter precipitation while others more heavily weight
336 winter minimum temperatures (fig. S4).

337 *Species Distribution Models*

338 Overall, the geographic distribution of *Passiflora* is best
339 predicted by mean annual temperature and human population

340 density, with the former being the most important variable (Table
341 S2, Table 1). When examining regions (eastern and western US)
342 separately, urban density is a more important predictor in the
343 west, while minimum temperature is more important in the east
344 (Table 1). All models, both combined and regional, achieved high
345 AUC values and performed exceptionally well when compared to
346 permuted null models (Table 1, fig. S5). Under the RCP 4.5 and
347 8.5 scenarios, suitable habitat along *Passiflora*'s, northern range
348 boundary is predicted to expand. The expansion is especially
349 strong in urban areas, with much of the urban mid-Atlantic and
350 Northwest predicted to become more suitable (fig. 4 a,b; fig. S6
351 a,b).

352 The current overwintering range of *A. vanillae* is primarily in
353 Florida and Texas, and is best explained by both *Passiflora* and
354 winter temperature lows, as can be seen in the best-performing
355 model with minimum temperature (Table S2). Like the host plant
356 model, all models performed well in regards to AUC scores and in
357 comparison to permuted null models (Table 1, fig. S5). The
358 importance of minimum temperature in the east is greater,
359 however in both regions host plant is more important, although it
360 is not clear if the differences in variable importance between the
361 east and west are meaningful given different sample sizes in the
362 two areas (Table 1). Future climate scenarios project a slight
363 increase in the suitability of some areas in the southeast for
364 overwintering, but not a major expansion into new urban areas
365 (fig. 4 c,d). The results from the models of dispersal distribution

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366 tell a different story. Models for dispersal range using different
367 temperature variables all performed equally well, with little
368 importance being attributed to any temperature variable in any
369 model (Table S2). Again, models performed well using both the
370 AUC metric and permuted null model comparison (Table 1, fig.
371 S5). The dispersal range of the butterfly is almost entirely limited
372 by the host plant (Table 1). This is reflected in the fact that
373 models predict expansion in areas that closely match areas of
374 *Passiflora* expansion (fig. 4 e,f). Thus while overwintering gains
375 appear marginal under future warming, expansion of the range
376 during dispersal in the summer is potentially substantial.
377 Projections under RCP 8.5 show a slightly greater expansion,
378 however do not dramatically vary from RCP 4.5 predictions (fig.
379 S6 e,f).

380 **Discussion**

381 Species are currently encountering novel biotic and abiotic
382 conditions, which can positively or negatively impact population
383 dynamics and geographic distributions (McKinney & Lockwood,
384 1999). Building models that parse these various stressors furthers
385 our understanding of these impacts and allows for better
386 prediction of future assemblages. In this study, we found that
387 years in which the butterfly had colonized our focal sites were
388 characterized by warmer winter maximum monthly temperatures,
389 while winter minimum temperatures had a negative impact on
390 population growth rates in the years after colonization. In
391 particular, if the previous winter was cooler and drier the butterfly

392 was found in higher abundance the next year. It is possible that
393 the negative impact of winter climate on *A. vanillae* that we have
394 observed is mediated through interactions with host plants or other
395 insects. It could be the case that warmer and wetter winters
396 negatively impact *Passiflora*, but another and perhaps more likely
397 explanation is that wetter and warmer winters increases parasitoid
398 pressure and/or disease leading to reduced adult emergence the
399 following year (Harvell et al., 2002; Stireman et al., 2005).
400 Additionally, *A. vanillae* is known to host nucleopolyhedrovirus
401 (Rodriguez et al., 2011), which could be one mechanism that
402 generated the observed negative density dependence (fig. S1),
403 however this is not known to impact California populations.
404 Finally, at our focal sites there is a slight positive trend over time
405 in winter precipitation and winter minimum temperature (fig. S7),
406 suggesting that if anything the butterfly is persisting and
407 expanding in the Sacramento Valley despite of climate, not
408 because of it.

409 The local impact of climate on the population dynamics of
410 *Agraulis vanillae* in the Sacramento Valley also has implications
411 for explaining the limiting factors for its current distribution in the
412 west. The western United States species distribution model places
413 almost all of the variable importance on the distribution of the
414 host plant. One explanation for the recent colonization of the area
415 by the butterfly is thus the increasing urbanization of the
416 Sacramento Valley. Over the past twenty years the suburbs of
417 Sacramento have expanded at a steady rate (Forister et al., 2010),

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418 which has likely resulted in an increase in *Passiflora* in the region.
419 Random forest analysis ranked urban land cover over climate
420 when predicting colonization and the Bayesian model found a
421 much greater effect of urbanization (fig. 2a; fig. 3). In the eastern
422 United States, the impacts of temperature, specifically minimum
423 temperatures, are apparent in geographic distribution models. In
424 the east, the distribution of *Passiflora* extends further north in the
425 winter compared to *A. vanillae*, while in the west the
426 overwintering distribution closely resembles that of *Passiflora*.
427 Once the weather warms in the east, the butterflies can then
428 expand to cover the distribution of the host plant. Thus, while
429 minimum temperature plays an important role in the
430 overwintering locations of the eastern gulf fritillary, its maximum
431 extent appears to be host plant limited in both the eastern and
432 western United States.

433 By understanding these current limits on *A. vanillae*, it is clear
434 that any major expansion in geographic distribution will be the
435 result of a host plant expansion. Models using the RCP 4.5 and
436 8.5 climate scenarios both predict geographic expansion for the
437 host plant, and thus an expanding dispersal distribution for the
438 butterfly. In particular, the host is predicted to have a greater
439 presence in urban areas on both the east and west coasts,
440 presumably through more frequent plantings into gardens that will
441 become more suitable to the plant over time in a warming climate.
442 If this occurs, the dispersal distribution of *A. vanillae* will also
443 expand, as the butterfly currently tracks *Passiflora* very

444 successfully. Dispersal ability may be an issue in the Pacific
445 northwest, as major metropolitan areas are further apart, however
446 given how far the butterfly currently disperses in the east each
447 summer, it is likely this area will also be included in its
448 distribution. Increasing temperatures may also impact the
449 overwintering distribution of the butterfly, but given the impact of
450 minimum temperature from the temporal analysis and the lack of
451 major shifts from the SDM projections, this is much more
452 uncertain. Although the full distribution of the butterfly does not
453 appear to be directly limited by temperature, there is an indirect
454 effect mediated by its host plant, which is limited by temperature.
455 Projected rising temperatures will still have a major impact on the
456 distribution of this butterfly through this indirect interaction.

457 Thus far, this butterfly is a notable example of a “winner” in
458 the Anthropocene. While insect declines are occurring on a large
459 scale (Hallmann et al., 2017; Lister & Garcia, 2018; Salcido et al.,
460 2019; Sanchez-Bayo & Wyckhuys, 2019; Wepprich et al., 2019),
461 altered conditions create opportunities for some insects to prevail.
462 The intricacies of each success story are different; but an
463 overarching theme of increasing temperature is playing a vital role
464 in facilitating the distributional expansion of many of these insect
465 winners. This has occurred directly by increasing the
466 overwintering survival along a northern range margin for some
467 species (Streifel et al., 2017), by increasing access to food
468 resources for others (Raffa et al., 2013), or by increasing diet
469 breadth (Pateman et al., 2012). In the case of the gulf fritillary,

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470 expansion has thus far been driven by human-mediated host plant
471 propagation and future warming will allow this process to
472 continue further north in the United States. While not all insect
473 expansions will be due to temperature, ectotherms continue to be
474 prime candidates for temperature driven distributional change, for
475 better or for worse. Continuing to observe these phenomena and
476 developing methods by which to understand them is critical. Here
477 the combination of long-term time series data and large-scale
478 citizen science spatial data allowed for a detailed examination of
479 the underlying causes for such an expansion. As these types of
480 data continue to become more widely accessible, the common
481 themes behind insect distributional change in the Anthropocene
482 will continue to become more apparent.

483

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492

493 **Contribution of authors**

494 A.M.S. collected the Sacramento Valley observational data.
495 J.H.T. and D.P.W. provided the climate data. C.A.H. conducted
496 the statistical analyses. C.A.H. and M.L.F. wrote the manuscript
497 with input from co-authors.

498

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675 Figure 1. (a) Change in detection probability (the ratio of days
676 observed to total visits) over time across all sites. (b) Annual ratio
677 of urban land cover to total land cover at a county level for the
678 three counties containing long-term study sites: North Sacramento
679 and Rancho Cordova are in Sacramento County; Suisun Marsh
680 and Gates Canyon are in Solano County. (c) Mean monthly
681 maximum winter temperature over time.

682 Figure 2. (a) Variable importance of model covariates in
683 predicting the presence of *A. vanillae* at a site in the Sacramento
684 Valley over time. (b) Variable importance of model covariates in
685 predicting the annual population growth after establishment.

686 Figure 3. Bayesian posterior distributions for important
687 coefficients (as determined by random forest). Y-axis shows
688 scaled coefficient estimates. (a) Estimates of coefficients for
689 establishment. (b) Estimates of coefficients for population growth.

690 Figure 4. The expanding gulf fitness landscape. (a) Current
691 distribution of suitability for *Passiflora*. (b) 2050 distribution of
692 suitability for *Passiflora* under RCP 4.5. (c) Current distribution
693 of suitability for overwintering *A. vanillae*. (d) 2050 distribution
694 of suitability for overwintering *A. vanillae* under RCP 4.5. (e)
695 Current distribution of suitability for dispersal *A. vanillae*. (f)
696 2050 distribution of suitability for dispersal *A. vanillae* under RCP
697 4.5.

Table 1. Variable importance and model fit of all species distribution models. Rows represent different regional models and columns are the different variables in the model. AUC (area under the curve) is the performance metric of model fit.

		Temperature	Population	Precipitation	AUC	OR	<i>P</i> -value
Host plant	Combined	48.8	41.5	9.7	0.915	0.127	0.013
	East	53.9	39.9	6.2	0.891	0.115	0.004
	West	12.5	79.9	7.8	0.983	0.167	0.020
Overwintering	Combined	29.0	71.0	N/A	0.979	0.112	0.024
	East	30.5	69.5	N/A	0.978	0.067	0.026
	West	17.8	82.2	N/A	0.992	0.200	0.047
Dispersal	Combined	1.8	98.2	N/A	0.925	0.113	0.030
	East	7.3	92.7	N/A	0.925	0.066	0.025
	West	4.9	95.1	N/A	0.985	0.061	0.057

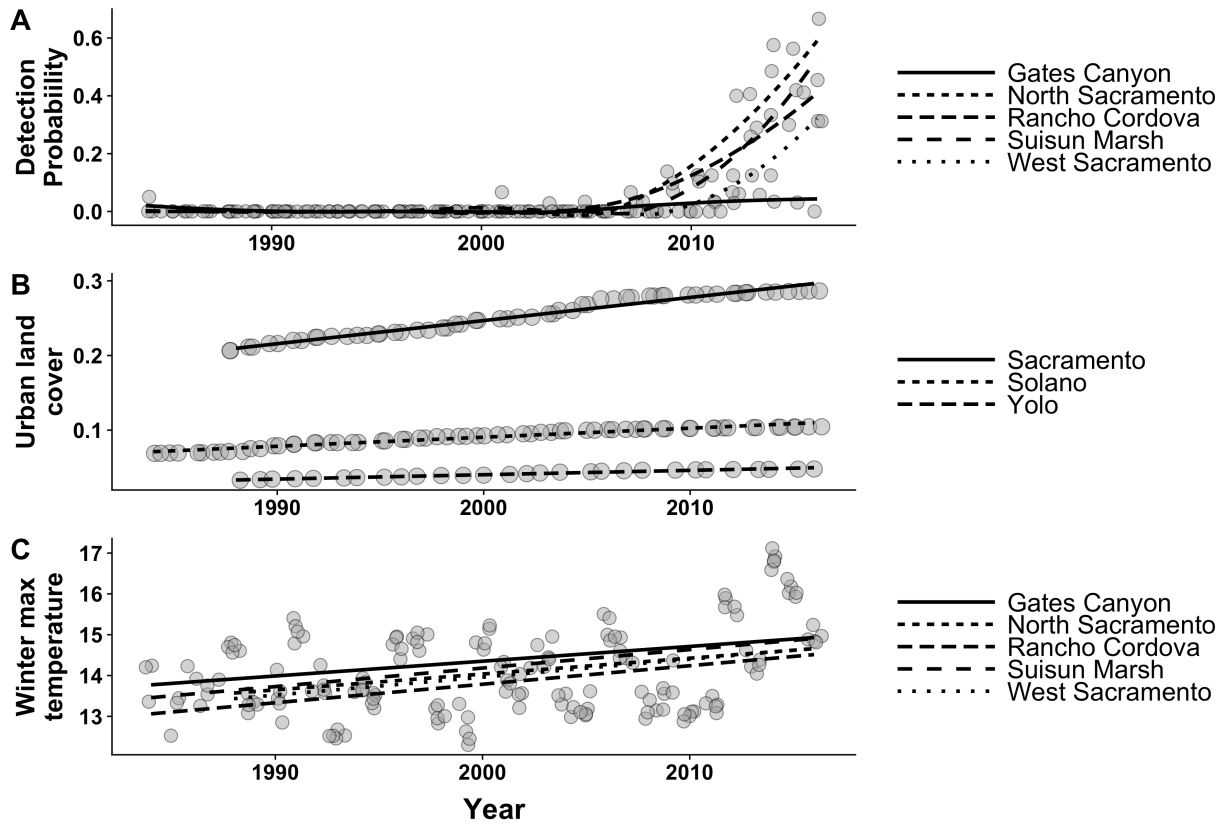


Figure 1

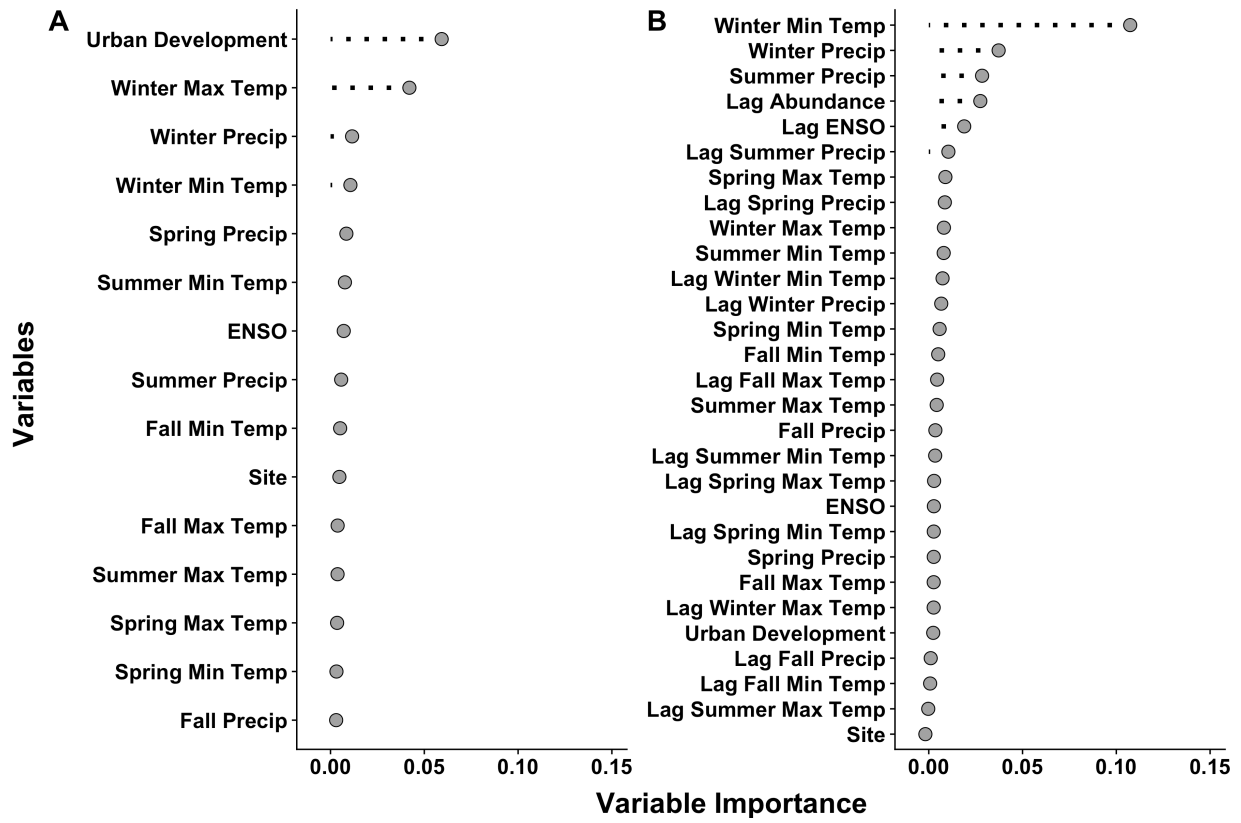


Figure 2

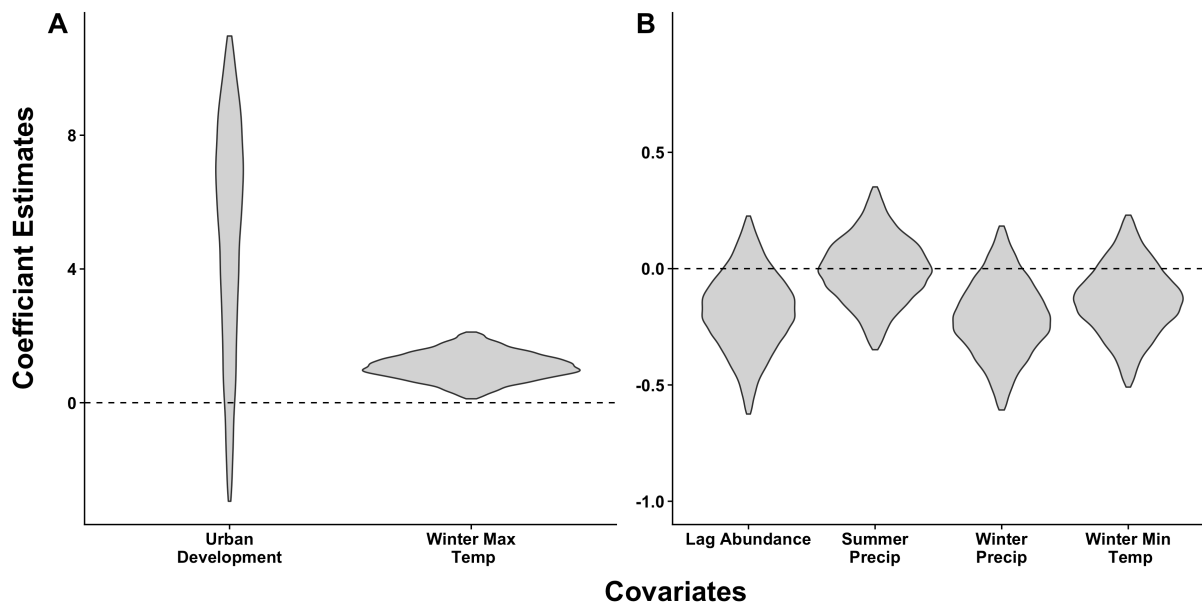


Figure 3

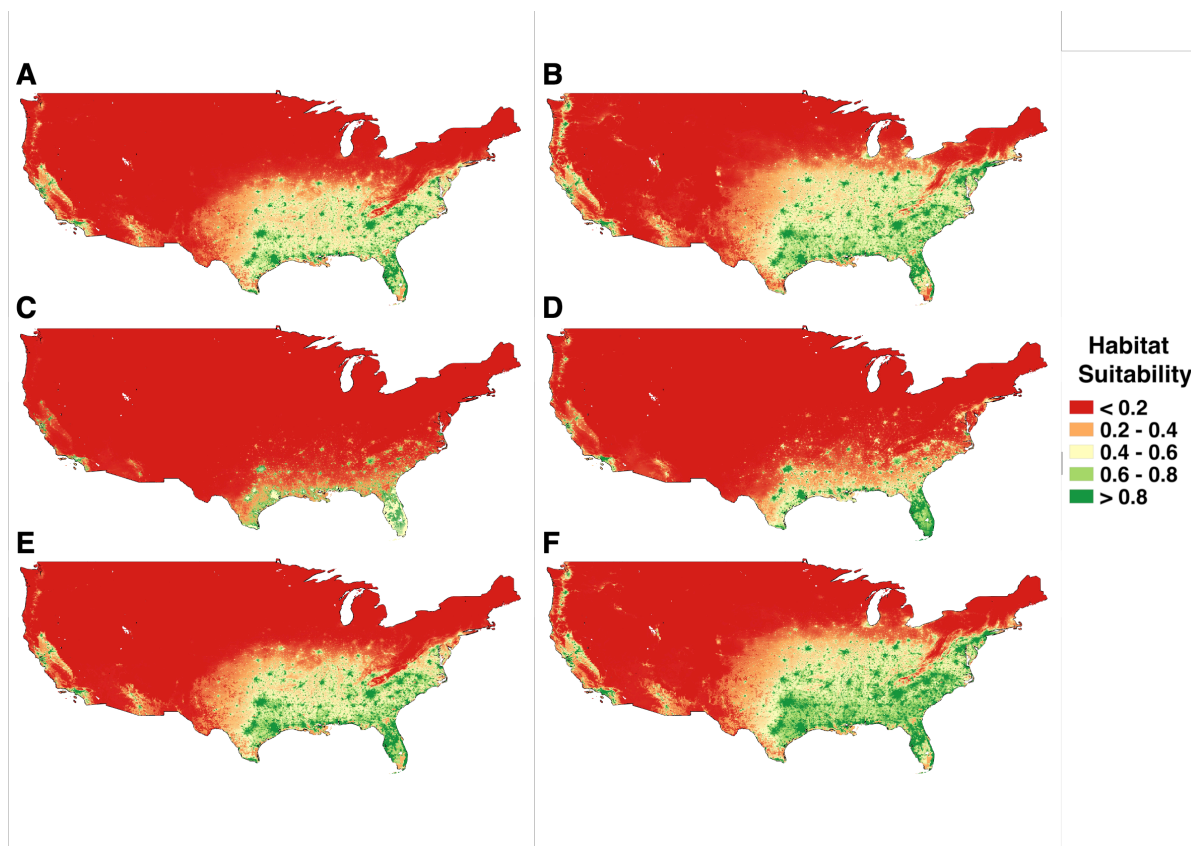


Figure 4