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3 **Climatic and soil characteristics account for the genetic structure of the invasive**
4 **cactus moth *Cactoblastis cactorum*, in its native range in Argentina**

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22 **Summary**

23 **Background.** Knowledge of the physical and environmental conditions that may limit the
24 migration of invasive species is crucial to assess the potential for expansion outside their
25 native ranges. The cactus moth, *Cactoblastis cactorum*, is native to South America
26 (Argentina, Paraguay, Uruguay and Brazil) and has been introduced and invaded the
27 Caribbean and southern United States, among other regions. In North America there is an
28 ongoing process of range expansion threatening cacti biodiversity of the genus *Opuntia* and
29 the commercial profits of domesticated *Opuntia ficus-indica*.

30 **Methods.** To further understand what influences the distribution and genetic structure of
31 this otherwise important threat to native and managed ecosystems, in the present study we
32 combined ecological niche modeling and population genetic analyses to identify potential
33 environmental barriers in the native region of Argentina. Samples were collected on the
34 host with the wider distribution range, *O. ficus-indica*.

35 **Results.** Significant genetic structure was detected using 10 nuclear microsatellites and 24
36 sampling sites. At least six genetic groups delimited by mountain ranges, salt flats and
37 wetlands were mainly located to the west of the Dry Chaco ecoregion. Niche modeling
38 supports that this region has high environmental suitability where the upper soil
39 temperature and humidity, soil carbon content and precipitation were the main
40 environmental factors that explain the presence of the moth. Environmental filters such as
41 the upper soil layer may be critical for pupal survival and consequently for the
42 establishment of populations in new habitats. Whereas the presence of available hosts is a

43 necessary conditions for insect survival, upper soil and climatic characteristics will
44 determine the opportunities for a successful establishment.

45 **Keywords:** biological invasions, gene flow, Lepidoptera, migration, population genetics,
46 prickly pear cacti

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49 **Introduction**

50 Since Elton's book on the *Ecology of Invasions by Animals and Plants* (1958), the field of
51 invasion biology has grown exponentially (Ricciardi & MacIsaac, 2008), but our ability to
52 predict which physical and biotic factors will prevent the expansion of invasive species in
53 their non-native range is still poorly developed (Richardson, 2011). So far, rates of invasion
54 have increased during the last century despite control and management practices (Jaspers et
55 al., 2021), suggesting that being able to predict the invasion dynamic will open new
56 opportunities to cope this threat. A central element in predicting the potential migration of
57 invasive species in foreign regions is the analysis of the natural barriers that define the
58 spatial distribution in their native habitat (Sherpa et al., 2019). Thus, understanding native
59 spatial patterns of dispersal of individuals and genes is a first line of evidence to identify
60 potential environmental barriers as input for predictive models of invasion and population
61 management.

62 The simplest hypothesis about gene flow establishes that this is mainly determined
63 by the geographic distance that separates two or more populations (Isolation by Distance,
64 IBD) (Wright, 1943). However, to find a pattern of IBD, it is necessary that the flow

65 between populations is constant, that nothing interferes with the movement of genes in all
66 directions (neither physical nor environmental barriers), and that other evolutionary
67 processes like drift or selection are weaker than the intensity of gene flow (Bolnick &
68 Nosil, 2007, Epperson, 2010). Also, the IBD analysis does not provide information on
69 whether environmental factors are interacting with evolutionary processes (Manel et al.,
70 2003). To identify how the environment can contribute to facilitate or reduce the rates of
71 movement of genes between different populations, tools have been developed in recent
72 years to analyze various gene flow hypotheses (Anderson et al., 2010). Circuit theory has
73 been used to build testable hypotheses of gene flow based on the ecology of the species and
74 the presence of potential environmental and physical barriers (e.g., MacRae, 2009;
75 Andraca-Gómez et al., 2015; Dickson et al., 2019). This information is used to construct
76 resistance matrices that represent the probabilities of gene flow between all pairs of
77 populations. In areas of low resistance, movement of genes between populations is more
78 likely, while high-resistance areas represent geographic and environmental barriers
79 (Cushman et al., 2006; McRae, 2006). This methodological approach is essential to test
80 more realistic hypotheses of gene flow (Isolation by Environment, IBE) (Osrini et al., 2013,
81 Sexton et al., 2014). However, to our knowledge, there have been few attempts to identify
82 environmental barriers to gene flow of invasive species in their native range (Sherpa et al.,
83 2019; Acevedo-Limón et al., 2020; Poveda-Martínez et al., 2023). This kind of evidence is
84 essential for population management as input for invasion dynamic modeling to predict the
85 expansion range in non-native regions (Brown et al. 2016; Aguirre-Liguori et al., 2021;
86 Pilowsky et al., 2022).

87 The invasive cactus moth, *Cactoblastis cactorum* (Berg) (Pyralidae: Phycitinae), offers a
88 unique opportunity to evaluate environmental barriers in the native range of an invasive
89 species because inhabits a wide range of environmental conditions. *Cactoblastis cactorum*
90 is a cactophagous. ~~This insect is distributed in tropical and subtropical regions in South~~
91 ~~America, between 0 and 1200 masl in Uruguay, south of Paraguay and Brazil, and in the~~
92 ~~central and northern part of Argentina (Mann, 1969; McFadyen, 1985; Varone et al., 2014),~~
93 ~~comprising the Chaco and Pampean biogeographical provinces (Morello et al., 2012;~~
94 ~~Oyarzábal et al., 2018, Arana et al., 2021, Morrone et al., 2022). Within this area, it uses~~
95 ~~several native host species of prickly pear cacti (*O. megapotamica*, *O. elata*, *O. anacantha*,~~
96 ~~*O. bonaerensis*, *O. cardiosperma*, *O. surphurea*, (R8) *O. quimilo*, *O. rioplatensis*, *O.*~~
97 ~~*penicilligera*) and the exotic *O. ficus-indica* (Marsico et al., 2010; Varone et al., 2014). The~~
98 ~~life cycle encompasses a gregarious larval stage within the cladodes, a pupal stage in the~~
99 ~~soil (approximately 5-10 cm in depth) and a free adult stage (Andraca-Gómez *personal*~~
100 ~~*observation*). The whole cycle lasts between 4-5 months and depends on environmental~~
101 ~~conditions (Dodd, 1940; Pettey, 1948; Mann, 1969). In particular, temperature determines~~
102 ~~the percent of hatches (Legaspi & Legaspi, 2007, Marti & Carpenter, 2008).~~

103 This insect was initially used as a biological control agent against *Opuntia* in
104 Australia, South Africa, and the Caribbean (Zimmermann et al., 2007). After being
105 introduced in the Caribbean in 1956 (Simmond & Bennett, 1966), the cactus moth was
106 dispersed to North America via commercial transportation and hurricanes (Simonsen et al.,
107 2008; Marsico et al., 2010; Andraca-Gómez et al., 2015, 2020), entering Florida in 1989,
108 and since then, representing a major threat to the biodiversity and commercial production of
109 *Opuntia* in Mexico (Soberón et al., 2001). Mexico is known to be one of the highest cactus

Deleted: herbivore that feeds on the stems (cladodes) of the prickly pear cacti (*Opuntia* spp.). *Cactoblastis. cactorum*

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112 biodiversity hotspots worldwide, as well as one of the main producers of *Opuntia*.
113 Therefore, identifying environmental conditions that constrain the presence of *C. cactorum*
114 in its native range can guide research on introduced ranges.

115 Previous studies in the native region (Argentina) using insect samples from seven
116 host species of *Opuntia* revealed the presence of four genetic groups based on
117 mitochondrial DNA (COI) (Marsico et al., 2010). Morphological differentiation of larvae
118 was detected among the four genetic groups, which also were associated with different host
119 usage, suggesting a possible host effect on ecotypic differences (Brooks et al., 2014).
120 Although some degree of preference to oviposit on the exotic *O. ficus-indica* rather than on
121 other native species was recorded, *C. cactorum* behave as a generalist with little host
122 preference (Varone et al., 2014). Recent analyses using genome wide SNPs and niche
123 modelling data indicated that past climatic changes during the Quaternary and shifts in host
124 use conditioned the actual distribution of genetic variation of *C. cactorum* in Argentina
125 (Poveda-Martínez et al., 2023). Ecological niche modelling using bioclimatic variables
126 indicated that environmental suitability increases since the last glacial maximum (ca. 21 ky)
127 from the west to the east, north and south of the present distribution (Poveda-Martínez et
128 al., 2023). During the Spanish settlement in South America, five centuries ago, *O. ficus-*
129 *indica* was introduced and likely colonized by *C. cactorum* since then (Ervin, 2012). The
130 genetic structure of *C. cactorum* estimated across seven native hosts species suggest no
131 evidence that the introduction of *O. ficus-indica* in the native range and the subsequent
132 human-commercial dispersal have promoted contemporary admixture between distant
133 populations (Poveda-Martínez et al. 2023). Within Argentina, *O. ficus-indica* occupies a
134 larger area and a wider environmental range than any of the other native *Opuntia* species

135 (Varone et al., 2014), representing a suitable system to examine possible contemporary
136 environmental effects on genetic variation and structure without strong historical effects
137 nested within native hosts distribution (e.g., Poveda-Martínez et al., 2023). To control these
138 sources of variation and to explore the contemporary environmental factors that affect the
139 genetic structure of the species, in the present study, species-specific nuclear microsatellites
140 were used to characterize the geographic pattern of genetic variation in *C. cactorum*
141 associated with the distribution of *O. ficus-indica*.

142 Genetic analyses were combined with ecological niche modelling to test the
143 hypothesis that environmental conditions affected the genetic structure of the species.
144 Given that the insect pupates in the upper soil layer (Zimmerman et al., 2004) and is
145 sensitive to temperature (Legaspi & Legaspi, 2007), we estimated its niche using soil and
146 climatic variables to identify environmental barriers to species distribution. In addition,
147 incorporating soil information in ecological niche models is known to reduce
148 overestimation of expected suitability (Coudum et al., 2006; Beauregard & de Blois, 2014).
149 The predictive model was used to build the Isolation by Environment (IBE) hypothesis
150 represented by the resistance matrix to gene flow between pairs of sampling sites. A
151 significant correlation between resistance and genetic differentiation matrices would
152 indicate the existence of environmental barriers limiting dispersal (Hernández-Leal et al.,
153 2022).

154 In the present study, we identified geographic and environmental (bioclimatic and
155 soil) characteristics that may function as barriers for gene flow. Specifically, we (1)
156 determined the existence of a significant genetic structure within the sampled region of
157 Argentina where *C. cactorum* is associated with *O. ficus-indica*, (2) identified climatic and

158 soil variables within the sampled region that better explain the distribution of *C. cactorum*
159 following a niche modeling approach, and (3) combined these two pieces of evidence to
160 test whether environmental conditions explain the geographic pattern of genetic
161 differentiation (McRae, 2009; Andraca-Gómez et al., 2015; Borja-Martínez et al., 2022).

162

163 **Methods**

164 **Data collection**

165 Between 2011 and 2012, 508 larvae were collected from 24 sites within the distribution
166 range of *C. cactorum* in Argentina; mainly in the Chaco and Pampa biogeographic
167 provinces and included three ecoregions (Sampling approved by the Servicio Nacional de
168 Sanidad y Calidad Agroalimentaria from Argentina) (Table 1, Fig. 1, Löwenberg-Neto,
169 2014). During two consecutive years, between February and March, one larva per cladode
170 was collected, georeferenced and deposited in 1.5 ml vials with alcohol (96%) until DNA
171 extraction. The samples were collected in the widely distributed exotic host, *O. ficus-*

172 *indica*. Since this species was introduced five hundred years ago in South America, it is
173 likely that it lacks a defensive mechanism against the cactus moth. Unlike native host
174 species, this source of variation in the exotic host is minimized, increasing the chance to
175 examine environmental effects on the genetic structure of the cactus moth. Sample sizes

176 varied between 10 and 30 individuals per site (Table 1, Fig. 1). DNA extraction was
177 performed with the DNEasy® blood & tissue kit (QIAGEN, Maryland, USA, cat.60504)
178 and the resulting product was diluted to 20 ng/μl to warrant PCR amplification. We used
179 microsatellites specifically developed for *C. cactorum* (Andraca-Gómez et al., 2020). The

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181 resulting PCR products were sent to the Core DNA Sequence Facility at the University of
182 Illinois and analyzed in an Applied Biosystems sequencer (3730 xl). The GeneMarker
183 program (version 2.20 demo) was used to genotype individual larvae.

184

185 **Genetic analyses**

186 The presence of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium and linkage disequilibrium at each location
187 was tested with *Genepop* (web version, Rousset , 2008) while null alleles among loci were
188 estimated with *FreeNA*. Loci with more than 20% of null alleles were eliminated from the
189 analyses (Chapuis & Estoup, 2007), as well as those that were out of the Hardy-Weinberg
190 equilibrium in more than 50% of the locations. *FSTAT* (version 2.9.3.2, Goudet, 2002) was
191 used to calculate the number of alleles, the allele richness, the observed and expected
192 heterozygosity, and differentiation between all pairs of sites and genetic groups (F_{ST}) (Weir
193 & Cokerman, 1996; Chapuis & Estoup, 2007).

194

195 **Genetic structure**

196 First, a Bayesian grouping approximation was implemented in *GENELAND* (version 4.0)
197 (Guillot et al., 2008) in R Core Team (2023), to determine the existence of significant
198 population genetic structure. *GENELAND* identifies groups of populations based on genetic
199 similarity and geographic proximity. The analysis was performed in 10 independent runs of
200 Monte Carlo Markov Chains (MCMC) with 100,000 chains, thinning of 100, burn-in of
201 100, and a minimum group value (K) of 1 and a maximum of 25. Assuming a significant
202 genetic structure, uncorrelated allelic frequencies were chosen. We also incorporated the

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203 possible genetic ambiguity (excess homozygotes) in the grouping algorithm, assuming the
204 existence of null alleles. The location of each individual in the analysis was included as a
205 geographic coordinate in decimal degrees with a minimum distance of 0.001°
206 (approximately equivalent to 100 meters).

207 Second, to detect the presence of potential barriers to gene flow, we used the
208 program *BARRIERS* (Version 2.2; Manni et al., 2004). This applies the Monmonier and
209 Delaunay methods of triangulation of spatial coordinates of sampled sites and generates a
210 map representing the relationship between the populations and the areas where the possible
211 barriers can be found. We allowed a maximum of five barriers based on the number of
212 genetic groups obtained by *GENELAND*. Genetic groups of populations were assigned a
213 significance value after bootstrapping a set of 100 distance matrices using Nei (1972)
214 genetic distance estimations. The 100 matrices required by the program were generated by
215 resampling individuals within the populations using the program *MSA* (version 4.051). To

216 examine the extent of genetic isolation of potential genetic groups a multivariate analysis of
217 molecular variance (AMOVA) was performed to decompose the total amount of genetic
218 variation among and within genetic groups (Arlequin 3.5; Excoffier & Lischer, 2010).

219

220 **Ecological niche modeling and environmental barriers**

221 To identify environmental barriers related to genetic grouping of sampled sites, niche
222 modeling and isolation by resistance analyses were combined (Manthey & Moyle, 2015)
223 (McRae & Beier, 2007; McRae et al., 2008). The MaxEnt algorithm executed in the ntbox
224 package in R (Osorio-Olvera et al., 2020) was used to build a niche model hypothesis for

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238 the sampled area of *C. cactorum*. To carry out the modeling, we used 40 sites in Argentina
239 where individuals of *C. cactorum* were observed during sampling. To build the model,
240 climatic and soil variables were gathered from WorldClim
241 (<https://www.worldclim.org/data/bioclim.html>), Soil (Biosoil)
242 (<https://zenodo.org/record/4558732>) (Lembrechts et al., 2021) and SoilGrids
243 (<https://www.isric.org/explore/soilgrids>) databases. We curated our occurrence data using
244 standard steps in ecological niche modeling literature and using the approach of Cobos et
245 al. (2018). We eliminated spatial duplicates by using a threshold distance of 0.04 grades (~
246 2.5 km at the equator). To avoid collinearity-related problems, we estimated the correlation
247 among each pair of predictors and kept only those with correlation values < 0.7. We ran
248 iteratively MaxEnt models using its auto features and explored variable contribution via the
249 Jackknife test on AUC values (area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC)
250 curve). After each run, we removed the least contributing variable from the list of non-
251 correlated environmental variables. After the selection model procedure, using AUC, we
252 ended up with the six best environmental variables that had the highest contribution in most
253 of the models. **The final model prediction (suitability map) expressed as a raster file was**
254 **used in CIRCUIITSCAPE (version 4.0, McRae & Shah, 2009) to construct the resistance**
255 **matrix (Andraca-Gómez et al., 2020).** Geographic points with low suitability delineate
256 areas of high resistance for establishment, suggesting the presence of a geographic or
257 environmental barrier. Multiple matrix regression with randomization (MMRR) was
258 performed using the genetic distance matrix based on $F_{ST}/(1 - F_{ST})$ values between pairs of
259 sites as the response variable against the geographic distance matrix (Log_{10}) and the
260 resistance (environmental) matrix **obtained in CIRCUIITSCAPE** following the niche model
261 prediction (Wang, 2013). The distance matrix was adjusted to control for the great-circle

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Deleted: in CIRCUIITSCAPE (version 3.5, McRae & Shah, 2009; Andraca-Gómez et al., 2020)

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266 distance (i.e., shortest distance between two points on the surface of a sphere) using the
267 package *sf* in R (Pebesma, 2018). The model parameters of the multiple regression were
268 obtained after 999 random permutations of rows and columns of the dependent genetic
269 distance matrix to generate a null distribution against which observed values were
270 contrasted (Legendre et. al., 1994).

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272 Results

273 *Genetic variation and structure.* After an initial study, 4 out of 14 nuclear microsatellite
274 loci were eliminated because they had a null allele frequency greater than 20%. A total of
275 10 microsatellites comprising 152 alleles were used in the final analyzes
276 (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24749082>). Among the 24 locations sampled, the
277 allele richness varied between 3.36 and 5.78 and the observed heterozygosity (H_o) between
278 0.36 and 0.63 (Table 2). All sites, except site 14 (Yuquerí), had fewer heterozygotes than
279 expected under the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium ($F_{IS} > 0$, Table 2). Significant paired
280 genetic differentiation among sites ranged from $F_{ST} = 0.0228$ between locations 22 and 24
281 to $F_{ST} = 0.3011$ between locations 4 and 12. The mean level of genetic differentiation for
282 the whole set of sampling sites was $F_{ST} = 0.178$. Within the sample region, the analysis of
283 genetic structure using *GENELAND* indicated that the most probable number of genetic
284 groups (k) was six (Fig. 1B). Genetic groups (hereafter populations) were defined by a
285 probability of assignment between 0.30 and 0.36 (Fig. 1A). The 15th collection site
286 corresponds to an isolated group in the northern Yungas ecoregion, within a mountain
287 forest near the Dry Chaco. On the east side of the distribution, within the Pampean
288 province, there is a group of six sampling sites (green dots in Fig. 1A) corresponding to the

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294 Espinal ecoregion with humid flats between the Paraná and Uruguay rivers. On the west
295 area of the distribution within the Dry Chaco ecoregion, there are four genetic groups: a
296 northwestern group (yellow dots in Fig. 1A), a southwestern group (blue dots in Fig. 1A),
297 and two groups in the middle, one on the east border (purple dots in Fig. 1A) and another
298 on the west border (red dots in Fig. 1A). The results of AMOVA indicated that the
299 variation within sites accounted for most of the genetic variation (81.8%) followed by the
300 variation among sites within genetic groups (9.9%) and the variation among genetic groups
301 (8.26%). Genetic differentiation among genetic groups was $F_{CT} = 0.078$ (Fig. 1D).
302 Heterozygosity for each genetic group estimated using the pooled sample of sites was
303 similar to the average H_o when using each site as a replicate (Fig. 1C). The presence of
304 potential barriers to gene flow with a probability of more than 50% existence strongly
305 matched the clustering proposed by *GENELAND* (Fig. 1A). The barriers with higher
306 probability delimited the four genetic groups within the west region of the distribution
307 range, while less intense barriers separated the north and east regions (Fig. 1A). Clusters 1,
308 2, 3, and 5, correspond to the Dry Chaco ecoregion, while cluster 6 corresponds to the
309 Yungas ecoregion close to the Dry Chaco. Cluster 4 is located within the Pampean
310 province, in a humid flat, within the Espinal ecoregion. Clusters 1, 2, 3, and 5 within the
311 Dry Chaco are separated by mountain ranges, salt flats, and wetlands in arid or semi-arid
312 conditions. Group 1 in the north (yellow dots in Fig. 1A) corresponds to forests and
313 shrublands, to the north of Salinas Grandes and south of the wetlands of the Salado river.
314 Group 2 is located in salt flats within the Monte ecoregion surrounded by the Sierra de
315 Ancasti to the north and Salinas Grandes to the west (red dots in Fig. 1A). Group 3
316 corresponds to dry forests and shrublands in a zone of low mountains, south of Salinas
317 Grandes and west of Sierra Grande (blue dots in Fig. 1A). Group 5 is located within an area

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329 surrounded by Salinas de Ambargasta (East), Sierra de Ambargasta and Sierra de Sumampa
330 (South), Salina del Saladillo (North) and delta of the Dulce River and Mar Chiquita
331 (National Park Ansenusa Lagoon (Northeast) (black dots in Fig. 1A).

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333 *Niche modeling.* The niche model of *C. cactorum* had an AUC value of 0.875 and an
334 omission rate of zero under a five percentile threshold corresponding to a suitability value
335 of 0.074. The main environmental variables that better explained the distribution of the
336 moth were related to precipitation and temperature on the soil surface and within the upper
337 soil layer (10 cm depth), as well as the soil carbon content. These correspond to: average
338 temperature of the driest quarter (relative contribution to the model, 30%), maximum soil
339 temperature of the warmest month (relative contribution to the model, 16.1%), annual
340 temperature range (relative contribution to the model, 14.6%), precipitation seasonality
341 (relative contribution to the model, 14.3%), mean soil temperature of the wettest quarter
342 (relative contribution to the model, 13.7%), and soil organic carbon density (relative
343 contribution to the model, 9.9%). A higher environmental suitability was detected in the
344 west region where more genetic groups were found. From the west to the north and east
345 areas of the distribution, the environmental suitability declines consistently (Fig. 2).

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346 *Environmental-genetic association.* The MMRR analysis showed that the environmental
347 distance matrix (based on the prediction of the niche model) was significantly related to the
348 genetic distance matrix ($\beta_E = 0.506$, $P = 0.032$) supporting the hypothesis of Isolation by
349 Environment (IBE). On the contrary, the same analysis rejected the hypothesis of Isolation
350 by Distance (IBD) ($\beta_D = 0.053$, $P = 0.793$) (that is, there is no significant association
351 between genetic and geographic distance matrices. **The data better support the hypothesis**

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354 of environmental filters influencing the genetic structure and dispersal of *C. cactorum* than
355 geographic distance.

356

357 Discussion

358 Among plant-natural enemy interactions, environmental conditions and host species affect
359 the distribution of the genetic variation of consumers (Mopper & Strauss, 1994; Whitham
360 et al., 2003; Wand & Bradburd, 2014; Wang et al., 2017). Our analyses demonstrate the
361 existence of a significant genetic structure of *C. cactorum* in Argentina associated with soil
362 and climatic variables besides the presence of the exotic host *O. ficus-indica* (introduced in
363 this region about 500 years ago). While the western part of the distribution comprises more
364 genetic diversity (four genetic groups) and has higher environmental suitability, the genetic
365 groups in the east and north correspond to areas with lower environmental suitability. The
366 environmental suitability of the western region corresponds to an area with high
367 environmental heterogeneity (Oyardazabal et al., 2018) but climatically more stable during
368 the Quaternary (Poveda-Martínez et al., 2023) representing a Pleistocene refuge for
369 biodiversity during the last glaciation (Baranzelli et al., 2017; Robbiati et al., 2021).
370 Furthermore, the suitability for *C. cactorum* in the sampled region seems to be highly
371 influenced by temperature and precipitation above and below ground, in combination with
372 other soil characteristics. Genetic analyses, allowed us to identify barriers corresponding to
373 mountain ranges, salt flats, wetlands, and the largest lagoon in central Argentina (Mar
374 Chiquita). These barriers delimited areas with significant variation in temperature and
375 precipitation that influenced the genetic clustering of prickly pear moth populations and

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378 may represent major environmental filters for its distribution, dispersal, and genetic
379 variation.

380 The levels of genetic diversity estimated by heterozygosity showed deficiency (F_{IS}
381 > 0) in most of the samples of *C. cactorum*, excepting sampling site 14 (Yuquerí).
382 Deficiency of heterozygotes and a high proportion of null alleles ($> 20\%$) are a common
383 phenomenon among Lepidoptera (Malausa et al., 2007; Sinama et al., 2011; Guillemaud et
384 al., 2015). This condition is associated with high rates of mutation in genetic regions
385 flanking microsatellites, as well as the presence of transposable elements (Sinama et al.,
386 2011). Other factors like gene flow, genetic drift, and the genetic structure of populations
387 (Wahlund effect) can also account for lower-than-expected levels of heterozygotes
388 (Haldane, 1948; Kimura, 1968). When the average heterozygosity for each genetic group
389 was compared with the observed heterozygosity for the entire genetic group, no differences
390 were observed. This suggests that possible Wahlund effects were not likely related to the
391 genetic structure of populations (Waples, 2015). The heterozygosity was rather uniform
392 among the sampling sites, suggesting that there were no strong effects of genetic drift.
393 Furthermore, the east genetic group had the lowest F_{IS} values and is less differentiated from
394 the other groups. Despite significant paired genetic differentiation between sampling sites,
395 the low amount of variance explained by genetic groups suggests that gene flow has been
396 moderate. Levels of paired genetic differentiation among sampling sites (range $F_{ST} = 0.022$
397 $- 0.301$) fall within the range detected using nuclear SNPs across a pooled sample of seven
398 hosts within the same region ($F_{ST} = 0.023 - 0.448$) (Poveda-Martínez et al., 2023). **Ongoing**
399 **genomic analyses will provide more information on selection pressures, demographic**

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400 history and potential barriers to gene flow to explain positive F_{IS} values and to unravel the
401 intricate mechanism shaping genetic variation in the cactus moth.

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402 Our results indicate the presence of a significant genetic structure of the cactus moth
403 on the exotic *O. ficus-indica*, a species introduced about five centuries ago during the
404 Spanish arrival to South America (Ervin, 2012). The recent history of the host shift to *O.*
405 *ficus-indica* suggests that the environmental heterogeneity within the sampled region plays

Moved down [2]: Disentangling the effect of the host and the environment is particularly challenging when consumers interact with various hosts inhabiting different environmental conditions (Wang et al., 2017). For this reason, in the present study, the host species with the wider environmental range was selected to increase the power of molecular markers to examine environmental effects upon genetic variation.

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406 a more important role than the host on the genetic structure of the cactus moth. This is
407 further supported because since its introduction to South America, *O. ficus-indica* likely
408 had little chance to evolve specific defensive mechanisms against the cactus moth. The

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409 west sampled region (within the Dry Chaco) contained the highest genetic diversity and
410 suitability represented by four genetic groups (1, 2, 3, 5), which are delimited by mountain
411 ranges, salt flats, and wetlands in arid or semi-arid conditions. This finding mirror previous

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412 research indicating that Dry Chaco corresponded to a biodiversity refuge during the
413 Quaternary climate changes (Poveda-Martínez et al., 2023), and suggest an association
414 between genetic diversity and environmental suitability (Ochoa-Zavala et al., 2022).

415 Colonization of *C. cactorum* to *O. ficus indica* followed an historical phylogeographic
416 pattern seen in other species, promoted by more recent environmental conditions. This is
417 supported by two previous findings: (1) the generalist feeding habit of the cactus moth
418 (Varone et al., 2014) that likely allowed the colonization of *O. ficus-indica* since its

419 introduction, (2) the absence of a long coevolutionary history of *O. ficus-indica* and the
420 cactus moth, and (3) the absence of human-mediated dispersal of *O. ficus-indica* related to
421 agroindustry that promote admixture among distant populations (Poveda-Martínez et al.,
422 2023). Since its introduction in the Dutch Antilles in 1956 (Simmonds & Bennett, 1966), a

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435 similar pattern was found in the invaded region of North America (Florida) and the
436 Caribbean (Andraca-Gómez et al., 2020), where the moth followed the phylogeographic
437 pattern recorded for other native species of turtles, birds, crabs, and beetles (Avisé, 2000).

438 ~~Thus, the presence of *C. cactorum* on *O. ficus-indica* in Argentina represents a useful~~
439 ~~natural setup to disentangle the effect of the host and the environment in a species that~~
440 ~~interacts with various hosts inhabiting different environmental conditions (Wang et al.,~~
441 ~~2017).~~

442 Ecological niche models in herbivorous insect species have shown that the host
443 plays an important role in their distribution range (Giannini et al., 2013; Simões and
444 Peterson, 2018). For example, an important improvement in the model performance was
445 detected for the tortoise beetle *Eurypedus nigrosignatus* when including host information in
446 their niche models. Besides the presence of the host species, our results indicate that

447 temperature (above and below ground), precipitation (seasonality), and soil organic carbon
448 content can be the most relevant variables to predict the distribution of the cactus moth in
449 the sampled region. Our results add to previous results of niche modeling for *C. cactorum*
450 in North (Soberón et al., 2001) and South America (Poveda-Martínez et al., 2023) using
451 only bioclimatic variables as soil characteristics significantly contributed to the model
452 prediction. Since the moth pupates approximately in the top 10 cm of soil, temperature
453 below the growth level, moisture and organic carbon content probably play a major role in
454 pupal survival. Other species of lepidopteran have a high mortality rate during the pupal
455 stage when soil humidity increases (Wang et al., 2017; Shi et al., 2021; Thian et al., 2021),
456 but a low content can also affect pupal survival and emergence (Wang et al., 2017).
457 Experimental studies and demographic analyses in different populations of *C. cactorum* in

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476 South Africa and under experimental conditions in Florida, found a lower development of
477 larvae at $<18^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $>34^{\circ}\text{C}$ (Zimmermann & Moran, 1991; Legaspi & Legaspi, 2007). In
478 the present study, the greater environmental suitability in the drier western region suggests
479 that pupae are probably more vulnerable to high soil moisture during the summer as
480 precipitation is drastically reduced from the eastern plains of the Pampean region to the
481 semi-arid shrublands and dry forests of Dry Chaco (Oyarzabal et al., 2018). The lower
482 number of populations and the environmental suitability of the eastern group support the
483 expectation that this region is under less benign conditions for moth development on *O.*
484 *ficus-indica*. Ecological niche theory proposes that more populations will be found at the
485 center of the ecological niche (Martínez-Meyer et al., 2013; Osorio-Olvera et al., 2020),
486 corresponding to the area with optimal conditions for survival, growth, and reproduction
487 (Lira-Noriega & Manthey, 2014; Osorio-Olvera et al., 2016). Our results support this
488 expectation, as the region with higher environmental suitability following the niche model
489 also corresponds to the region where *C. cactorum* was more abundant and where more
490 genetic groups were detected. As environmental suitability is not homogeneously
491 distributed within the sampled region, patterns of dispersal and genetic differentiation
492 would be affected by environmental filters (e.g., Acevedo-Limón et al., 2020; Valdez et al.,
493 2020; Hernandez-Leal et al., 2022).

494 In particular, the isolation by environment hypothesis (IBE) following the principles
495 of electric resistance has helped to identify potential environmental barriers to species
496 distribution and gene flow (MacRae, 2006; Wang & Bradburd, 2014). This approximation
497 has increased the predictive power to account for the spatial distribution of genetic
498 variation (McRae & Shah, 2009; McRae & Beier, 2007; Wang & Bradburd, 2014;

499 Andraca-Gómez et al., 2015). Whereas the IBE hypothesis can be constructed using natural
500 history information, niche models can provide a quantitative more precise estimation of
501 environmental suitability (see Andraca-Gómez et al., 2015 and Poveda-Martínez et al.,
502 2023). The significant effect of the environment on the distribution of genetic variation
503 allowed us to successfully identify important geographic and environmental barriers for
504 gene flow and/or genetic differentiation in *C. cactorum*. Our results extend previous
505 findings that the central Dry Chaco region comprises the ancestral genetic lineage (Poveda-
506 Martínez et al., 2023), indicating that this area also present high diversity of genetic groups
507 and the presence of significant environmental barriers. One of the strongest barrier
508 separated the westerns groups within the Dry Chaco from sites located in the Pampean
509 province (e.g., Poveda-Martínez et al., 2023). Barriers represented by mountain ranges, salt
510 flats, wetlands, and soil conditions translate to different combinations of humidity and
511 temperature of the upper soil layer where the moth pupates. Therefore, this stage of the life
512 cycle seems to be critical for the environmental tolerance of the moth. Although the
513 presence of a suitable host is a prerequisite for survival, it is not a sufficient condition for
514 the presence of *C. cactorum*. In fact, during sampling, the moth was not detected at several
515 sites where *O. ficus-indica* was present (Andraca-Gómez, ~~personal observations~~). Given the
516 climatic and soil differences among the genetic groups, phenological asynchrony is
517 expected, reducing the opportunities for effective gene flow (Zimmer & Emlen, 2013) and
518 probably a higher heterogeneity in the life history traits of the cactus moth. This may
519 explain the presence of at least four genetic groups within the western region. Overall, our
520 results provide a new piece of evidence to understand the relevance of contemporary
521 environmental conditions on the genetic structuring of this invasive species within its
522 native range.

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524

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788 **Legends**

789 **Table 1.** List of 24 sampling sites of *Cactoblastis cactorum* in Argentina.

790 **Table 2.** Statistics of genetic diversity of *Cactoblastis cactorum* in 24 sampling sites from

791 Argentina for 10 **nuclear** microsatellite loci: number of alleles (NA), allelic richness (AR)

792 (estimated from 9 diploid individuals), expected heterozygosity (H_E), observed

793 heterozygosity (H_O), inbreeding coefficient (F_{IS} (*non-significant values)). [Raw data for](#)

794 [genetic analyses can be found in https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24749082](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24749082).

795 **Figure 1. A.** [Geographic location of the 24 sampling sites of *Cactoblastis cactorum* used](#)

796 [for genetic analyses. Samples are distributed in the Chacoan and Pampean biogeographic](#)

797 [provinces \(Löwenberg-Neto, 2014\). The numbers correspond to those of Table 1. The six](#)

798 [genetic groups defined by GENELAND are indicated in colored dots.](#) Sampling sites: 9, 11,

799 12, 13, 14, 16 (green dots), 1, 6, 18, 20, 22, 23, 24 (yellow dots), 7, 8, 10 (blue dots), 17, 21

800 (purple dots), 2, 3, 4, 5 (red dots), Letters correspond to Salinas Grandes, **SG**, Salinas de

801 Ambargasta, **SA**, Laguna Mar Chiquita, **LA**, **Sierra de Ancasti, MN, Sierra de Ambargasta,**

802 **MN, Sierra de Sumampa, MS, Sierra Grande, MG.** Brown lines indicate the geographic

803 location of the barriers proposed by the **BARRIERS** program [\(the barriers depicted are those](#)

804 [with a percentage of existence greater than 70 % after bootstrapping 100 random \$F_{ST}\$](#)

805 [matrices\).](#) **B.** [Output of GENELAND analysis of the number of genetic clusters obtained](#)

806 [from the 10,000 iterations with the larger likelihood \(left panel\).](#) [Analysis was performed](#)

807 [with the uncorrelated allele frequency model option and 100,000 steps, thinning of 100, and](#)

808 [burn-in of 100. The index of MCMC iteration indicate that Markov chains converged](#)

809 [around six classes \(genetic groups\). Thus, the higher posterior probability was obtained for](#)

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919 $K = 6$ in all 10 independent runs (right panel) (R2 y R14). **C.** Observed heterozygosity (H_o
920 \pm std) for each genetic group calculated as the average H_o for the 10 loci within each group
921 (colored bars) and as the average H_o of sampling site within a given genetic group (white
922 bars). **D.** Matrix of paired genetic distances between genetic groups (all values are
923 significant). The numbers and colors in figures A, C and D are equivalent and represent the
924 six genetic groups.

925 **Figure 2.** Suitability map for *Cactoblastis cactorum* as predicted by the consensus niche
926 model (AUC = 0.875). The best model had an omission rate of zero under a five percentile
927 threshold corresponding to a suitability value of 0.074
928 (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24749082>). Colors indicate the model predicted
929 suitability within the sampled region. Regions with high suitability indicate a higher
930 probability of detecting *C. cactorum* in *Opuntia ficus-indica*.

932 Supplementary Material

933 **Table S1.** Genetic differentiation values (F_{ST}) between pairs of sampling sites.

934 Database.

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Deleted: Density distribution of the number of clusters along the chain with a burn period of 200 iterations and 1,000,000 steps of MCMC.

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Moved up [1]: Figure S1. Suitability map for *Cactoblastis cactorum* as predicted by the consensus niche model. Colors indicate the model predicted suitability within the sampled region. Regions with high suitability indicate a higher probability of detecting *C. cactorum* in *Opuntia ficus-indica*.

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