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*Corresponding author



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Taxonomy, Biology, Symbionts, Omics, and Management of *Rhynchophorus* Palm Weevils (Coleoptera: Curculionidae: Dryophthorinae)

Mark S. Hoddle,^{1,*} Binu Antony,² Hamadttu A.F. El-Shafie,³ M. Lourdes Chamorro,⁴ Ivan Milosavljević,¹ Bernhard Löhr,⁵ and J. Romeno Faleiro⁶

¹Department of Entomology, University of California, Riverside, California, USA; email: mark.hoddle@ucr.edu, ivanm@ucr.edu

²Chair of Date Palm Research, Department of Plant Protection, College of Food and Agricultural Sciences, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia; email: bantony@ksu.edu.sa

³Sustainable Date Palm Pest Management Research Program, Date Palm Research Center of Excellence, King Faisal University, Hofuf-Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia; email: elshafie62@yahoo.com

⁴Systematic Entomology Laboratory, Agricultural Research Service, US Department of Agriculture, c/o National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC, USA; email: lourdes.chamorro@usda.gov

⁵Biocontrol Entomologist, Annweiler, Germany; email: blohr55@gmail.com

⁶Red Palm Weevil Specialist, Goa, India; email: jrfaleiro@yahoo.co.in

Keywords

biological control, dispersal, eradication, invasive species, integrated pest management, phylogeny

Abstract

Palm weevils, *Rbynchophorus* spp., are destructive pests of native, ornamental, and agricultural palm species. Of the 10 recognized species, two of the most injurious species, *Rbynchophorus ferrugineus* and *Rbynchophorus palmarum*, both of which have spread beyond their native range, are the best studied. Due to its greater global spread and damage to edible date industries in the Middle East, *R. ferrugineus* has received more research interest. Integrated pest management programs utilize traps baited with aggregation pheromone, removal of infested palms, and insecticides. However, weevil control is costly, development of resistance to insecticides is problematic, and program efficacy can be impaired because early detection of infestations is difficult. The genome of *R. ferrugineus* has been sequenced, and omics research is providing insight into pheromone communication and changes in volatile and metabolism profiles of weevil-infested palms. We outline how such developments could lead to new control strategies and early detection tools.

IMPORTANCE, NATIVE DISTRIBUTION, AND INVASION HISTORY OF PALM WEEVILS

Species of *Rhynchophorus* Herbst (100) (Coleoptera: Curculionidae: Dryophthorinae), commonly known as palm weevils, are pests of native, ornamental, and agriculturally important palm species (Arecales: Arecaceae) because of highly destructive feeding by larvae in meristematic regions of infested palms. Extensive larval feeding damage to meristem in offshoots or the palm crown frequently results in palm death, and damage permits entry of pathogens and other pest insects that may also be lethal (63, 79, 142). *Rhynchophorus* spp. all have native distributions confined to the tropics and subtropics (200). Palm weevils are naturally occurring in parts of Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, Mexico, Central and South America, the Caribbean, and the southeastern United States (79, 200). In some of these native ranges, weevil larvae, collected from infested palms or commercially farmed, are consumed by humans (101, 150, 181) or used as a protein source in animal feed (17).

Three species, Rhynchophorus ferrugineus (Olivier), Rhynchophorus vulneratus (Panzer), and Rhynchophorus palmarum (L.), have successfully colonized areas outside of their native ranges (73, 104, 105). The most successful invader, the red palm weevil, R. ferrugineus, first officially recorded outside of its native Asian range in the Middle East in 1985 (5, 73), was unintentionally moved via imports of weevil-infested palms (10, 79). Continued export of live palms infested with R. ferrugineus facilitated an extensive range expansion throughout the Middle East, the Mediterranean, the Canary Islands, the Maghreb region of North Africa, Japan, China, and the Caribbean (79). In 2022, populations of R. ferrugineus were confirmed from Uruguay. Invasive R. ferrugineus populations may threaten conservation of some native palm species (33), UNESCO World Heritage Sites (203), and ornamental landscape palms (142). Native and invasive R. ferrugineus populations can destabilize food and income security derived from economies based on edible dates (Phoenix dactylifera L.) (10, 79), oil palms (Elaeis spp.) (159), and coconuts (Cocos nucifera L.) (63). More than 50% of edible date-producing countries are infested with R. ferrugineus, in contrast with just 15% of coconut-producing countries (63). The first record of R. vulneratus outside of its native range, Indonesia, was made in 2010 in California, and it was later eradicated (105). Range expansion of R. palmarum in Mexico commenced around 2000, when established populations were detected in Baja California Sur for the first time (77). By 2014, R. palmarum had likely established in southern California. Prior to 2014, populations of R. palmarum had not been recorded elsewhere in the United States (104), despite collection records of dubious quality purporting collections in what was termed Lower California and in Texas (200).

Invasive *R. ferrugineus* and *R. palmarum* populations have established permanent populations in areas with desert, semiarid, and Mediterranean climates, which suggests that some tropical palm weevil species have broad ecological amplitudes, possibly due to cold tolerance (121) rather than desiccation resistance (201), and can thrive in climatically diverse habitats where palms grow. Conversely, *Rhynchophorus cruentatus* (F.), a subtropical species with a natural range spanning from Florida through to the coastal regions of South Carolina and Texas (110), has not expanded its

range despite extensive movement of plant material from its home range to other parts of the United States.

SYSTEMATICS OF RHYNCHOPHORUS SPECIES

Taxonomy

Due to extensive variability in size and color, the taxonomy of *Rhynchophorus* species has been confused. In 1795, Herbst (100) established the genus Rhynchophorus for 22 species of weevil. Of these, three species remain valid: R. palmarum, R. ferrugineus, and R. cruentatus. The type species, R. palmarum, designated by Schönherr (184), was originally described by Linnaeus in Curculio in 1758 (123). The most comprehensive and detailed taxonomic study of Rhynchophorus was undertaken by Wattanapongsiri (200), who recognized 10 valid species, including two new species and eight junior synonyms. Of the 10 species of Rhynchophorus currently recognized, two (Rhynchophorus distinctus Wattanapongsiri from West Sumatra and Rhynchophorus lobatus Ritsema from Borneo) are each known from single specimens and are suspected to be variants of R. vulneratus (157). Rhynchophorus lobatus was not studied by Wattanapongsiri (200), and based on the original description, he was unable to determine if it was a synonym of R. ferrugineus or R. vulneratus. Based on the geographical occurrence of the species (173), R. lobatus is probably a junior synonym of R. vulneratus (157). However, whether unique morphological features, including the distinctive male genitalia (200) of R. distinctus, represent intraspecific variation of an aberrant male R. vulneratus (157) or a separate species altogether, as determined by Wattanapongsiri (200), remains to be confirmed. The remaining eight Rhynchophorus species include three from Australasia, Rhynchophorus bilineatus (Montrouzier), R. ferrugineus, and R. vulneratus; three from the New World, R. cruentatus, R. palmarum, and Rhynchophorus ritcheri Wattanapongsiri; and two from the Afrotropical region, Rhynchophorus phoenicis (E) and Rhynchophorus quadrangulus Quedenfeldt. A map showing the distributions of Rhynchophorus species in both native and invaded ranges is shown in Supplemental Figure 1.

Supplemental Material >

Morphology and Identification

The probable nonmonophyly of *Rhynchophorus* is apparent from efforts to determine diagnostic characteristics for adult specimens. Many features, such as the dorsal surface and the shape of the rostrum, the shape of mandibles and the scutellum, and the relative length of the dorsal margin of the metepimeron, are shared among *Dynamis* Chevrolat, *Omotemnus* Chevrolat, *Paratasis* Chevrolat, *Protocerius* Schoenherr, *Rhynchodynamis* Heller, *Rhynchophorinus* Günther, and *Rhynchophorus*. However, the following characteristics may serve to distinguish *Rhynchophorus* from similar-looking genera: The rostrum is usually cylindrical (except in *R. quadrangulus*), dorsally densely setose (except in *R. cruentatus*), and granulate or toothed in the male; the scutellum is long and broad at the base; the pronotum has a complete basal submarginal sulcus and is usually without a basal lobe (19, 120, 157); and the spermatheca is distally truncate (200).

In addition to adult *Rbynchophorus* (176, 200), the egg (11, 200), larva (20, 34, 37, 137, 195, 200), pupa (200), and fibrous cocoon (200) are well documented. Eggs of *Rbynchophorus* spp. are indistinguishable among species (200). Differences among the six species for which the larvae have been described lie mainly in the number, shape, and relative placement of setae on the labrum and sensory pores on the epipharynx; the location of medial epipharyngeal setae; and the morphology of dorsal malar setae on the maxillae (94, 195, 200). For the six species of exarate *Rbynchophorus* pupae studied, the presence or absence and relative placement of the tuberculate setae on the epicranium, rostrum, thorax, and abdominal tergites are diagnostic (200).

Identification of *Rbynchophorus* species is challenging, particularly for sympatric species of the Australasian region, which may exhibit high variation in body color and patterns, as well as morphology. Adults of allopatric *Rhynchophorus* species can be distinguished morphologically with examination of the armature of the endophallus (157). However, this characteristic is not consistently different between the Australasian *R. ferrugineus* and *R. vulneratus*, yet it differentiates *R. bilineatus* (157). Additional morphological features used to distinguish adults are primarily on the head: morphological variability of the shape of the apex of the submentum, subgenal sutures, and indentation of the mandibles (94, 157). *Rbynchophorus* males and females are subequal in size, color, and markings (200). Males have setose profemora and curved rostra with dorsal setae, as opposed to the straight and glabrous rostra in females, and male *R. ferrugineus* and *R. vulneratus* have a shorter rostrum and less pointed pygidia than females (200).

Morphometrics has been used with limited success to distinguish species (173, 182, 183); molecular-based methods may be more reliable when used correctly (51, 53, 128, 173, 178). Species-level identifications can be made using DNA sequences of the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI) gene and regions of the nuclear ribosomal genes (e.g., the D2 domain of 28S rRNA and the internal transcribed spacers, e.g., ITS2) (52–54, 173). However, molecular identification tools must be rigorously validated, and users should proceed with care and an awareness of potential pitfalls. Simple errors, like failure to trim primers or errors in checking the direction of sequence reads, or issues related to sampling small geographic populations (51–53, 94, 173) may result in incorrect species identifications, the outcomes of which could have significant negative implications for research findings and trade and quarantine decision makers.

Phylogeny

Higher-level phylogenetic studies necessary to understand the evolution and natural limits of *Rhynchophorus* and relatives are limited (35, 160). Phylogenetic studies of Curculionoidea, including *Rhynchophorus*, which originated 15–35 million years ago (35), have firmly placed the subfamily Dryophthorinae within Curculionidae and corroborated its monophyly (91, 120, 133–136, 141, 151, 185). Although the subtribe Rhynchophorina is monophyletic, the genus *Rhynchophorus* may be paraphyletic with respect to *Dynamis* and *Cyrtotrachelus* Schoenherr (35, 160).

Phylogeographic studies have focused mainly on understanding the species limits of Australasian *Rhynchophorus* (51–53, 94, 173, 174). Importantly, Rugman-Jones et al. (173) recognized three species in the region, *R. ferrugineus*, *R. bilineatus*, and *R. vulneratus*, the last of which was elevated from synonymy with *R. ferrugineus* (173). Each species has a distinct geographic distribution (173) (see **Supplemental Figure 1** for a species distribution map).

Supplemental Material >

DEVELOPMENTAL BIOLOGY, REARING, AND POPULATION DYNAMICS

Egg-to-adult development of palm weevils most commonly occurs in palm hosts, and the subset of genera and species that successfully support development is extensive. At least 40 palm species in at least 19 genera are known reproductive hosts for *R. ferrugineus* (79). Similarly, *R. palmarum* and *R. cruentatus* can develop in a diversity of palm species (93, 109, 110). Interestingly, *Phoenix canariensis* Chabaud is a highly preferred host for *R. ferrugineus* (85), *R. palmarum* (109), *R. cruentatus* (110), and *R. vulneratus* (105), none of which has a natural association with this species.

Oligophagy extends to nonpalm hosts such as sugarcane, which supports the development of *R. ferrugineus*, *R. palmarum*, and *R. cruentatus* (80, 93, 122). Additionally, mango, papaya, and bread-fruit are recorded as reproductive host plants for *R. palmarum* (93), and *R. cruentatus* can be reared on pineapple fruit (80). Artificial, semiartificial, palm, and nonpalm plant diets can be used to rear

palm weevils (7, 13, 58, 76, 115, 177). Food type may have significant impacts on larval development times and survivorship rates; the number of larval instars; and subsequent adult female reproductive parameters, which affect demographic rates and drive population growth (7, 12, 41, 114, 177).

Females oviposit eggs into holes that are excavated into suitable host material with mandibles located at the distal end of the rostrum, and eggs are covered with a rapidly drying secretion (79, 93). Gravid females can lay multiple eggs per day, which can amount to hundreds of eggs laid over the course of a several-months-long lifetime (93, 114). Daily egg laying and hatching rates decline as females age (93, 114). Weevil larvae build cocoons from palm fibers within which they pupate (200). Adult mating is frequent and promiscuous (64, 111, 194). Survivorship and development rates and population growth parameters are strongly influenced by temperature (41, 45, 122).

Degree-day models constructed from temperature-driven developmental rate data can be used to estimate the number of weevil generations under varying temperature scenarios (41, 42, 122), which can enable interpretation of phenology data (45) and development of ecological niche models to predict spread (73, 78). Use of ecological niche modeling to examine the effects of climate change on the distribution of *R. ferrugineus* in China, part of the invaded range, suggests that the overall distribution of this weevil will not change greatly. However, the suitability of different geographic regions within occupied areas could change, resulting in favorable areas becoming less suitable for *R. ferrugineus*, while marginal areas may increase in favorability (78). However, predicted changes in distribution resulting from climate change may be tempered by the cryptic lifestyles of immature and mature *Rhynchophorus* species, which protect weevils from extreme climatic conditions, possibly enabling persistence of populations across a wide range of climates (73).

Population dynamics of *Rbynchophorus* species can be tracked over time using baited pheromone traps, which can be used to assess effects of climate, location, host palm species, trap-type efficacy, and time of year on weevil densities (2, 38, 131, 161, 180, 202). Weevil density time series data derived from trap capture data can be correlated with palm mortality rates (110) and used to determine impacts of multiyear management programs (102) and to evaluate spatiotemporal factors influencing range expansion patterns following invasions into new areas (85) or infestation patterns in commercial palm plantations (49).

FLIGHT DISPERSAL CAPABILITIES

In the laboratory, flight mill studies indicate that individual weevils are capable of sustained flight over a 12-24 h period (28, 103, 106, 107) and that multiple flights over the course of a lifetime are possible (32, 108). Flight mill assays, regardless of *Rhynchophorus* species tested, indicate that test weevils exhibit a range of flight distances (zero to tens of kilometers flown), with a small proportion (<5%) of weevils, so-called superdispersers, being capable of flying >100 km in a 24 h period (103, 107). Cumulative lifetime distances flown by *R. ferrugineus* and *R. palmarum* can exceed 300 and 750 km, respectively (32, 108). Flight distances are not significantly correlated with weevil size, weight, sex, or mating status for *R. ferrugineus* (28, 106) or *R. palmarum* (107), and flight distances tend to decrease with increasing weevil age and number of repeat flights (32, 108). Flight data can be analyzed to determine the underlying probability distribution of distances flown. The tails of probability distributions (i.e., kurtosis) have important implications for dispersion models investigating rates and patterns of spread and for the development of monitoring and management plans (103, 106, 108). Flight mill data are generated under highly artificial conditions and should be viewed with caution, as it is unknown if *Rhynchophorus* spp. exhibit these types of flight activities outside of the laboratory.

Field studies in the invaded and native ranges of *R. ferrugineus*, *R. vulneratus*, *R. palmarum*, and *R. cruentatus* indicate that flight is predominantly diurnal (68, 93, 202), and flight activity is influenced by temperature, humidity, solar radiation, and wind speed (27, 68, 201). Mark-release-recapture studies indicate that *R. ferrugineus* can be recaptured up to 0.5–7 km from release sites after 3–7 days (2, 27). Mark-release-recapture data need to be interpreted carefully, as flights from release points to traps where weevils are collected are probably not linear, and distances flown are likely underestimated. Additionally, traps close to release points tend to catch more released weevils, and individuals that may have been capable of longer dispersal distances are inadvertently trapped. In addition, as distances from release points increase, the number of traps deployed per unit area decreases, which reduces the likelihood of capturing weevils, potentially resulting in underestimation of dispersal capabilities (204).

SYMBIONTS

Microbiome and Endosymbionts

Palm weevils host a diverse assemblage of protozoan, fungal, viral, and bacterial species, the majority of which have been documented in *R. ferrugineus* (18, 29, 113, 145, 152, 191). A γ -proteobacterial endosymbiont lineage, *Nardonella*, an intracellular obligate specialist, is found in symbiotic organs called bacteriomes in *R. ferrugineus*. *Nardonella* provisions tyrosine, a key component for cuticle formation and hardening in weevils (18). Interestingly, *Wolbachia*, a sexratio-distorting rickettsia-like organism commonly associated with weevils (147), has not been isolated from *Rhynchophorus* spp. (15, 29). Gut microbiome studies of larval *R. ferrugineus* are dominated by metagenomes of proteobacteria. At least seven bacterial species have been identified from *R. ferrugineus* gut microbiome studies, of which two dominate and, together with one yeast isolate, exhibit cellulolytic and probiotic functions (23, 113, 145, 152, 153, 191). These endosymbionts may contribute to the digestion of palm material or have immune-related functions for maintaining homeostasis by mediating the production of antimicrobial peptides targeting pathogens (92, 145, 152, 154).

A complete understanding of the contribution of microbial endosymbionts to weevil physiology, reproduction, and detoxification of plant secondary metabolites in palm weevils, and *R. ferrugineus* in particular, remains elusive. Improved understanding of the identities and functions of microbial endosymbionts may provide insights into coevolutionary relationships with palm weevils and processes affecting weevil interactions with palm hosts.

Macrosymbionts

Phoretic mite associations with dryophthorine weevils are at least 19 million years old (39). In native and invaded ranges, phoretic mites have been recorded in association with adults of all known species of *Rhynchophorus* (200), and they tend to be primarily species belonging to the infraorder Uropodina (Acari: Mesostigmata) (86).

At least 30 mite species representing at least 23 genera in approximately 14 families have been recorded from *R. ferrugineus*, *R. palmarum*, and *R. phoenicis* pupae and adults in 12 countries (**Supplemental Table 1**). Limited mite surveys have been conducted in weevil native ranges (48, 118, 129, 172). The majority of mite faunistic studies have examined invasive *R. ferrugineus* populations, primarily in the Middle East and the Mediterranean Basin (3, 9, 60, 71, 98, 117, 163, 186). A commonly encountered phoretic mite, *Centrouropoda almerodai* Hiramatsu and Hirschmann, lays eggs on rotting palm fibers. Deutonymphs associate themselves with prepupal larvae and are enclosed within cocoons made by weevil larvae. Prior to adult weevil emergence, deutonymphs cluster onto teneral adults and attach themselves, most commonly under the elytra, with an anal

Supplemental Material >

pedicel, which remains under the elytra after the deutonymphs abandon their hosts (163). Dispersing weevils introduce mites into new palms. In contrast to *C. almerodai, Fuscuropoda marginata* (Koch) (often listed as *Uroobovella marginata*) preferentially attaches to exposed surfaces of the sternum, pygidium, head, and legs (86); thus, attachment site may be a good indicator of mite species (163). Adult Uropodina are primarily saprophytic and seldom form phoretic associations with weevils (4).

Centrouropoda almerodai and *Centrouropoda rbynchophorus* (El-Bishlawy and Allam) have deleterious impacts on the fitness (e.g., reduced life span) of adult weevils, possibly due to feeding on pupae, indicating that these mites may function as facultative parasites (4, 138). Invasive *Rbynchophorus* spp. can introduce new mite species into areas where they did not previously exist. Consequently, phoretic mites may act as biomarkers that provide insight into invasion pathways, patterns of spread, and temporal changes in mite species compositions over the course of an invasion (86).

Numerous nematode species associated with R. palmarum, R. cruentatus, and R. ferrugineus have been identified. Individual weevils can simultaneously harbor more than one nematode genus, and the ecological niche occupied by weevils influences the nematode community (40). Generally, little is known about the biological (e.g., parasitic effects) and ecological (e.g., commensal saprobionts) relationships that nematodes have with palm weevils. Notable exceptions are the effects that entomopathogenic nematodes used as biological control agents have on weevil survivorship and the well-documented association of R. palmarum with the red ring nematode (RRN), Bursaphelencus cocophilus Baujard (Nematoda: Aphelenchoididae), the causative agent of a lethal palm malady, red ring disease (RRD). RRN, an obligate palm specialist, is restricted to parts of Mexico, Central and South America, and the Caribbean. Annual mortality rates of approximately 15% attributable to RRN in coconut and oil palm plantations cause significant economic impacts (81). RRN is acquired by weevil larvae feeding on infested palm material, and heavy nematode loads significantly reduce adult weevil size, fat body content, and fecundity (88). RRN cannot multiply within weevil hosts; approximately 16% of female R. palmarum vector RRN; and during oviposition, infective third-stage dauer juveniles move from the hemocoel via the ovipositor into oviposition wounds in palms (88, 116). As few as 10-50 infective dauer juveniles inoculated into oviposition wounds can cause RRD (87). Weevils are attracted to palms infested with RRN, further intensifying rates of attack, RRN acquisition and spread, and subsequent RRD incidence (82). It is possible that all *Rhynchophorus* spp. can vector RRN, and the potential destructiveness of RRD will be greatly enhanced if additional species of Rbynchophorus come into contact with infected palms and acquire RRN (81). This situation likely exists now in the Caribbean and Uruguay, where R. ferrugineus, R. palmarum, and B. cocophilus are sympatric; this possibility warrants research attention.

WEEVIL AND HOST PALM OMICS

Palm weevil and host palm omics (e.g., genomics, metabolomics, phenomics, proteomics, transcriptomics, and volatilomics) are emerging new research areas with potential applications for management (**Figure 1**).

Transcriptomics

Palm weevil research on transcriptomics commenced in 2013 with the release of the first largescale transcriptome data set for *R. ferrugineus* (199). Subsequently, the annotation of numerous genes involved in important biological functions, such as chemoreception, detoxification, digestion, reproduction, neurobiology, and immunity, has been achieved (21, 23, 25, 61, 168, 199, 205–207). Importantly, peripheral chemosensory gene families have been identified and coupled

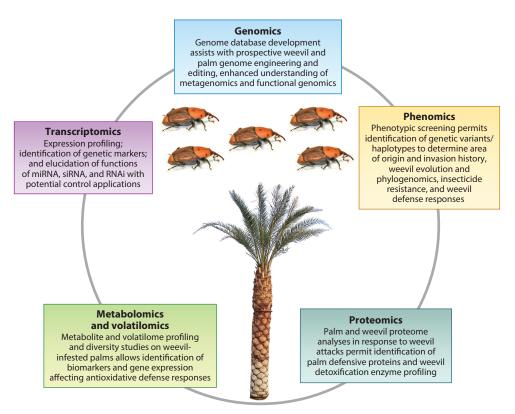
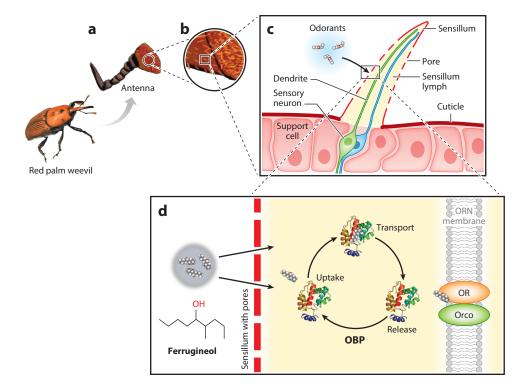
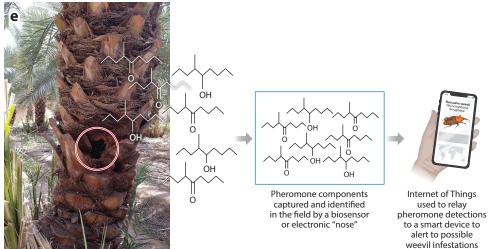


Figure 1

An overview of the potential integration of omics research for management of palm weevils. Data on weevil and palm genomics and transcriptomes may help with the development of gene editing of palms and potentially weevils and permits investigation of RNAi for the production of potential biopesticides targeting weevils. Metabolomics and volatilomics research can identify biomarkers produced by palms in response to weevil attack that may be of use for early detection of weevil infestations. Proteomics provides insight into production of defensive secondary metabolites by palms that may have use in developing next-generation biopesticides. Phenomics exploits phenotypic and haplotype variations that are used to elucidate invasion histories and pathways and to identify insecticide-resistant populations and mechanisms underlying resistance development. When taken together, information from omics research may provide new avenues for detecting, monitoring, and managing palm weevils. Abbreviations: miRNA, microRNA; RNAi, RNA interference; siRNA, small interfering RNA.

with functional studies (22, 24, 112, 187). This has enabled the deciphering of the molecular basis of *R. ferrugineus* chemoreception, especially pheromone communication (22, 24, 25, 187). Functional genomics studies include loss-of-function experiments with RNA interference (RNAi), which can be used to induce disruption of pheromone communication (187) by impairing the function of odorant-binding proteins and odorant receptors in antennae (22, 24) (**Figure** 2a-d). Furthermore, work using the heterologous expression for functional characterization of odorant receptors identified a receptor of a nonhost volatile that repels palm weevils (112), as well as a pheromone receptor that responded selectively to ferrugineol and ferrugineone, the two components of the *R. ferrugineus* male-produced aggregation pheromone (24). Practical applications of this latter finding could result in the development of biosensors for the early detection of *R. ferrugineus* infestations (**Figure** 2e).





Release of red palm weevil aggregation pheromone, a two-component blend of ferrugineol and ferrugineone, from an infested date palm

(Caption appears on following page)

Figure 2 (Figure appears on preceding page)

(*a,b*) Graphical representation of the antennal sensilla and (*c*) peripheral odor detection of the red palm weevil, *Rbynchophorus ferrugineus*. (*d*) Based on results from functional genomics studies, the putative binding of the odorant binding protein (OBP) to one component of the aggregation pheromone, ferrugineol, results in transportation to receptors and subsequent interaction of ligands with the odorant receptor (OR) and the odorant coreceptor (Orco) proteins housed within the odorant receptor neuron (ORN) membrane. (*e*) Application of findings from panels *a*–*d* could result in the development of biosensors based on the function of the OBP and OR that respond to interaction with a ligand(s), ferrugineol and/or ferrugineone, the two components of the *R. ferrugineus* aggregation pheromone. Detection of palm weevil aggregation pheromone by the biosensor results in the transmission of an alert via cellular networks to an app on a smart device warning of a potential weevil infestation. This field detection method using palm weevil aggregation pheromones would be species specific and potentially highly sensitive and amenable to automation.

Transcriptome profiling and insecticide-induction analyses have identified a family of detoxifying enzymes, cytochrome P450–dependent monooxygenases (P450s), and identified two key P450s that might play a role in developing tolerance to neonicotinoid insecticides (21). This study demonstrated through RNAi that upregulation of P450 gene expression has evolved as an adaptation to insecticide stress arising from exposure to systemic insecticides like imidacloprid (21). Similarly, RNAi knockdown of the antioxidant enzyme catalase in *R. ferrugineus* larvae significantly increased larval mortality due to increased susceptibility to oxidative stress (6). These types of RNAi proof-of-principle studies demonstrating successful knockdown of target genes may guide development of novel methods for palm weevil management (6, 21, 22, 24, 169, 187).

Genomics

There are several online resources for the *R. ferrugineus* genome (see, e.g., https://bipaa. genouest.org/is/coleoptera/) (46, 99, 146). The two published *R. ferrugineus* genomes (i.e., the complete set of DNA) resulted in estimated genome sizes that differed: 590 Mb (46) and 720 Mb (99), respectively. This outcome is likely due to the number of individuals (single versus multiple males and females) and assembly method (nonhybrid versus hybrid) used to construct the genome sequences. The *R. ferrugineus* genome analysis revealed the duplication of gene families (i.e., genes with chemosensory, detoxification of secondary metabolites, insecticide resistance, digestion, and immunity functions) essential for weevil adaptation to palm trees (46, 99).

Volatilomics, Metabolomics, and Proteomics of Weevil-Infested Palms

Volatilomics, metabolomics, and proteomics have been used to generate information on palm responses to weevil infestations (83, 84, 126, 166, 167). The volatilome diversity of economically important palms such as date palm, coconut, and oil palm is well documented (47, 70, 74, 188) and provides insights into metabolic processes that can be indicative of internal physiological changes (e.g., defense responses) due to weevil infestations (30). Volatilomics identified airborne organic compounds (e.g., esters, acids, alcohols, and ketones) released by damaged palms (5), in contrast to the terpene hydrocarbons associated with healthy plant tissue (192).

Transcriptome analyses showed higher transcript abundances for fatty acid, tryptophan, and phenylpropanoid metabolism in weevil-infested palms (83). Weevil infestations induce a reprogramming of carbohydrate and organic acid metabolism and selective upregulation of genes involved in synthesis of secondary metabolites, especially terpenoids and alkaloids (84), which have larvicidal and growth-inhibiting activities (16).

Proteomics studies have identified 32 differentially expressed peptides related to plant stress, defense compounds, and protein degradation in association with *R. ferrugineus* infestations in date palm (166). Studies investigating *R. ferrugineus* infestation of coconut and date palm reported an

increase in enzymatic antioxidant activity and antioxidant production, suggesting induced activation of host antioxidative defense responses that increase weevil susceptibility to oxidative stresses (132). Proteomic analyses on oil palm artificially infested with *R. ferrugineus* showed abscisic acid hormone signaling to be the primary driver of responses to insect herbivory (97).

Signature compounds identified from volatilomics, transcriptomics, and proteomics research could enable early detection programs if rapid, accurate, and cost-effective technologies amenable to large-scale field use can be developed.

Phenomics and Invasion Pathways of Rhynchophorus ferrugineus

Analyses of the mitochondrial COI gene from *R. ferrugineus* populations throughout native and invaded ranges identified weevil lineages with strong geographically isolated and mixed haplotypes (54, 75, 173, 174, 190, 198). These studies suggest that the native range of *R. ferrugineus* is likely southeast Asia, from where it was introduced into Middle Eastern countries through Pakistan. A westward expansion out of India then followed (173). Invasive *R. ferrugineus* populations in the Mediterranean Basin, characterized by the H8 haplotype (54), may have been introduced from China, where this weevil is also invasive. COI analyses indicate that *R. ferrugineus* populations in the Mediterranean Basin are closely related to weevils that inhabit parts of the native range in Thailand and Malaysia and invaded regions in southern China (36, 173, 198). The invasive H8 haplotype is closely related to haplotypes (H17–H36) from Cambodia, Vietnam, and the Philippines (173). However, conclusive information on *R. ferrugineus* genetic variations in southeast Asian countries needed to confirm the origins of invasive populations remains elusive due to insufficient sampling in the native range.

PALM WEEVIL MANAGEMENT

Economic Impacts

Analyses of the economic impacts of *Rhynchophorus* spp. are limited. Weevil-induced mortality of palms results in economic losses due to yield reductions and costs to remove infested or dead palms and subsequent control expenditures associated with monitoring, trapping, and insecticide treatments. Additional expenses include replanting; decreased trade due to quarantine restrictions; adverse environmental impacts due to regular chemical treatments; and aesthetic damage and property value reductions in urban, recreational, and heritage landscapes due to mortality of ornamental palms, especially *P. canariensis* (142, 159; https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/RHYCFE).

Across the six nations that comprise the Gulf Region of the Middle East, annual losses due to removal of *R. ferrugineus*–infested date palms were estimated to range from US\$5.18 million to US\$25.92 million at 1% and 5% infestation levels, respectively (55). In Egypt, total losses due to *R. ferrugineus* infestations of date palms from 1992 to 2019 were estimated to be US\$400 million, with an estimated total annual management cost of approximately US\$20 million (1). Losses incurred by ornamental palm growers in Veracruz, Mexico due to *R. palmarum*–RRN infestations can cost oil palm producers in Costa Rica millions of US dollars per year (159). Furthermore, replacement costs for transplanting mature *P. canariensis* to replace palms killed by *R. palmarum* in California may exceed US\$5,000 per palm (104).

Economic Thresholds

Economic threshold levels define the relationship between pest densities and impacts on yield, which drives economics-based decisions on whether control measures are warranted (189). Economic thresholds are not well established for palm weevils. Because palms are high-value

agricultural and ornamental crops, and palm weevil infestations are lethal to palms, pest tolerance levels are very low. An economic threshold of a 1% infestation rate for *R. ferrugineus* is used in commercial date gardens (63), and use of statistically derived sampling plans is recommended to assess infestation levels to determine if control is needed (65).

Early Detection

Early detection of infested palms, combined with monitoring of adult weevils using pheromone traps, is key to successful palm weevil management (69; https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/RHYCFE, https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/RHYCPA). Although visual inspection to detect palm weevil infestation is difficult, it is recommended (10). Technologies for use in early detection include sniffer dogs, visual inspection of palm crowns by cutting observation windows or use of drones with high-resolution optics, acoustic detection, detection of key volatile chemicals and metabolomics signatures, use of infrared cameras, and thermal and satellite imaging (26, 50, 130, 156, 165, 170).

Cultural Practices

Decreasing planting density, precision irrigation methods, and use of weevil-free planting materials are important practices that affect success of palm weevil management (69, 179). Build-up of humidity within palm plantations because of closely spaced palms that are flood irrigated is favorable for the development of *R. ferrugineus* populations. Increased planting distances and use of precision watering systems can reduce environmental suitability to *R. ferrugineus* (179). Injury to palm tissue due to frond and offshoot removal releases volatiles that attract gravid females. Pruning during winter when weevil activity is low can mitigate risks associated with frond removal (41). Sanitation of infested material, by rogueing and destruction of infested palm trunks and fronds via shredding, chipping, or burial, are important management tactics that kill larvae, pupae, and adult weevils (69; https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/RHYCPA). Destruction of infested trunk material via shredding is costly. An alternative approach is to cut infested trunk parts into logs and treat with insecticides to kill emerging weevils or adults attracted to cut material (72). Interestingly, diversity and density of palms in ornamental nurseries and frequency of fertilizer and insecticide use affect *R. palmarum* phenotypes, potentially increasing pestiferousness (162).

Biological Control

More than 50 species of natural enemy (viruses, fungi, bacteria, nematodes, predators, and parasitoids) are known to attack *Rhynchophorus* palm weevils; of these, the natural enemy species associated with *R. ferrugineus* in native and invaded ranges are best documented (139, 155). The parasitoids *Billaea menezesi* (Guimarães) and *Billaea rhynchophorae* (Blanchard) (Diptera: Tachinidae: Dexiini) (127, 148, 149) are potentially important natural enemies associated with *R. palmarum*. Parasitism rates of up to 72% have been recorded for *B. menezesi* (148), while year-round parasitism by *B. rhynchophorae* averages 40% (149). In Spain, use of commercially available entomopathogenic nematodes, *Steinernema* sp., alone and in combination with neonicotinoid insecticides (43) and entomopathogenic fungi (44, 90) has demonstrated efficacy against *R. ferrugineus*. However, economically feasible management with natural enemies has not been achieved at a significant scale in the field, and concealed life stages increase the difficulty associated with this approach (10, 139, 155).

Insecticides

Insecticides are widely used to control palm weevils and are applied as sprays or paints to stipes, frond bases, and trunks; as soil and trunk injections; or as soil or crown drenches (42, 63, 124,

142). Insecticides can be applied prophylactically to protect uninfested palms from weevils or used curatively to kill weevils during the early stages of infestation. These procedures need to be carried out with caution and by trained professionals or under technical supervision (69). Overuse of insecticides can result in resistance development and unacceptable residue levels in edible palm crops (56, 102, 197).

Male-Produced Aggregation Pheromones and Mass Trapping

Male-produced aggregation pheromones are known for seven *Rhynchophorus* spp. and are critical components of trapping programs used for detecting, monitoring, and controlling populations of pest weevils, especially *R. ferrugineus* and *R. palmarum* (95, 96, 158, 159, 171). Interestingly, the alcohol and ketone components of the aggregation pheromone are the same for *R. ferrugineus* and *R. vulneratus* (31, 159). However, a minor male-specific compound, 3-methyloctan-4-ol, is produced only by *R. vulneratus* and differentiates this species from *R. ferrugineus* (31).

Aggregation pheromones attract both males and females, but females are attracted at significantly higher rates (102). Traps loaded with pheromone and baited with fermenting fruit are widely used to mass trap adult weevils that threaten date, coconut, and oil palm plantations (63, 96, 159). Windowed bucket traps are commonly used, but retention efficacy is low, approximately 30% (144). In comparison, cone-shaped ground traps are more efficient and retain >90% of weevils attracted to them (144). Olfactometer studies indicate that only 35% of *R. ferrugineus* adults are attracted to the pheromone alone, and attraction declines with mating and increasing weevil age (57). Therefore, pheromones must be combined with other volatile stimuli, like fermenting fruit bait, to enhance attractiveness (82, 143, 159, 196). Esters of ethyl acetate, ethyl propionate blends, acetoin, and ethanol improve captures in food-baited pheromone traps (89, 175, 193).

Trap deployment rates in mass-trapping programs for population-level suppression of *R. fer-rugineus* vary from 1 to 10 traps per hectare (66). However, regardless of program efficacy, maintaining trap densities greater than one trap per hectare in date gardens is not sustainable, as costs associated with biweekly servicing to replace food bait and record weevil capture data are not economical. In contrast, *R. palmarum*–RRN in oil palm plantations in Costa Rica can be managed effectively with 1 trap per 5 hectares (159). Smart traps, which exploit the Internet of Things (IoT), make it possible to automate monitoring, and wireless data transmission enables data visualization in near real time using smart devices (14, 164).

Sterile Insect Technique

Work on the sterile insect technique (SIT) for palm weevil control has focused on *R. ferrugineus*. Irradiation doses between 15 and 80 Gy cause a significant drop in sperm quality and egg hatch rates (8, 119, 140). Field application of the SIT against *R. ferrugineus* in India, where seven releases totaling >7,700 sterile *R. ferrugineus* males on an isolated island with a 2-ha coconut plantation, reportedly reduced population densities (119). An estimated ratio of 10 sterile males to 1 wild male was needed to reduce population densities. The expense of this approach dictates use only when weevil populations are low; thus, the SIT could be viable following effective trapping and insecticide treatment programs (119). Sterile *R. ferrugineus* males can be used to vector *Beauveria bassiana* (Balsamo-Crivelli), an entomopathogenic fungus, to weevil-infested palms (125).

Push-Pull and Attract and Kill

Semiochemicals that act as repellents (e.g., tumerone) have been identified that, in combination with attractants, such as aggregation pheromones, could be used to develop push-pull strategies in which repellents push weevils from areas of concern, and baited pheromone traps generate the

pull to lure weevils away from the area of concern. When used in combination, these chemicals provide control (67). Another way to exploit the chemical ecology of palm weevils is through attract and kill techniques, where an inert matrix infused with an aggregation pheromone attracts weevils, and upon interaction with the matrix, they obtain a lethal dose of a contact insecticide (59).

Population Eradication

Eradication of invasive palm weevil populations is possible if, at the time of program inception, populations are small and isolated; sensitive monitoring tools (i.e., pheromones) are available to detect very low-density populations; and there is sustained public, political, and regulatory support for the program. *Rhynchophorus vulneratus*, possibly originating from Bali, Indonesia (173), was detected in California in 2010 and declared eradicated in 2015 (105). Similarly, *R. ferrugineus* has been eradicated from the Canary Islands (62).

Combining Efficacious Management Tactics into Integrated Pest Management Programs

Combining different tactics, such as strict quarantine measures to prevent movement and propagation of infested planting material, good sanitation and orchard management practices, monitoring and early detection of infested palms, trapping, and judicious use of insecticides, forms the core of sustainable palm weevil management programs. Comprehensive management programs need to be applied area wide, and use of geographic information systems–based spatial and temporal maps and databases can assist with implementation, coordination among program participants, and long-term application of control methods (64). Various combinations of these tactics have been integrated to successfully manage *R. palmarum* and *R. ferrugineus* (62, 102, 158, 159, 196).

FUTURE CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

Technologies that are accurate, simple to operate, and amenable to automation; have long field durability; and are cheap enough for massive field deployments are needed for early detection of weevil infestations of palms and for population monitoring. Advances in omics and electronic sensing may potentially lead to the development of new tools for early detection. One possibility could be the deployment of arrays of electronic noses or biosensors in the crowns of individual date palms in commercial date gardens that detect species-specific aggregation pheromones. Pheromone detections in GPS-tagged palms reported via IoT could provide expeditious and precise tree-specific information on possible new infestations that could then be managed rapidly. IoT is being similarly applied to weevil monitoring through the use of smart traps, which could be improved with the development of highly attractive dry or bait-less traps. Proactive surveillance programs using new technologies in areas vulnerable to invasion would enable rapid detection and containment, making eradication of incipient populations more likely and control in commercial production areas more efficacious. Identification of additional odorant ligands may help identify new attractants or repellents with potential use as behavioral disruptors.

Classical and "new association" biological control of invasive *Rbynchophorus* weevils with tachinid flies, *Billaea* spp., about which very little is known, deserves significant research attention. Foreign exploration in the hotter, drier interior regions of Bahia State in Brazil may result in the discovery of flies adapted to environmental conditions that typify regions (i.e., the Middle East, Mediterranean, and North Africa) invaded by *R. ferrugineus*, a potential new association host. Similarly, *Billaea* spp. could have use in a classical biological control program targeting *R. palmarum* in California. Phylogenomic analyses, focusing on comprehensive taxon sampling of all species and relevant populations, are needed to bring a stable classification and natural limits to species and genera of Dryophthorinae. Findings from phylogenomics may result in improved predictions identifying future pest species and natural enemy associations with potential for use in biological control programs targeting pest *Rhynchophorus* species. Additional novel controls for palm weevils may result from ongoing research into the development of RNAi-based biopesticides. Gene editing of commercial and ornamental palm species could produce altered metabolomes and proteomes that increase resistance or tolerance to weevil and RRN infestations or altered volatilomes that make airborne semiochemicals produced by palms less attractive to adult weevils. As palm weevils continue to invade and potentially vector destructive palm pathogenic nematodes into new regions, demand for development and application of new management technologies will increase. Fortunately, significant innovative work, as outlined in this review, is already underway and may be utilized in the near future.

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The authors are not aware of any affiliations, memberships, funding, or financial holdings that might be perceived as affecting the objectivity of this review.

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