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1 **Predicting abundances of invasive ragweed across Europe using a “top-down” approach**

2 Carsten Ambelas Skjøth^{1*}; Yan Sun²; Gerhard Karrer³; Branko Sikoparija⁴; Matt Smith¹; Urs
3 Schaffner⁵; Heinz Müller-Schärer⁶

4 ¹School of Science and the Environment, University of Worcester, Henwick Grove, WR2 6AJ,
5 Worcester, United Kingdom

6 ²Plant Evolutionary Ecology, University of Tübingen, 72076 Tübingen, Germany

7 ³Department of Integrative Biology and Biodiversity Research, University of Natural
8 Resources and Life Sciences, Vienna, Austria

9 ⁴BioSense Institute - Research Institute for Information, Technologies in Biosystems,
10 University of Novi Sad, Novi Sad, Serbia

11 ⁵Centre for Agriculture and Biosciences International, Rue des Grillons 1 CH-2800 Delémont,
12 Switzerland

13 ⁶Department of Biology/Ecology & Evolution, University of Fribourg, 1700 Fribourg,
14 Switzerland

15

16 *c.skjoth@worc.ac.uk

17 **Keywords:** pollen; ambrosia artemisiifolia; inventory; biogeography; open-access

18 **0. Abstract**

19 Common ragweed (*Ambrosia artemisiifolia* L.) is a widely distributed and harmful invasive
20 plant that is an important source of highly allergenic pollen grains and prominent crop weed.
21 As a result, ragweed causes huge costs to both human health and agriculture in affected areas.
22 Efficient mitigation requires accurate mapping of ragweed densities that, until now, has not
23 been achieved accurately for the whole of Europe. Here we provide two inventories of common
24 ragweed abundances with grid resolutions of 1 km and 10 km. These “top-down” inventories
25 integrate pollen data from 349 stations in Europe with habitat and landscape management
26 information, derived from land cover data and expert knowledge. This allows us to cover areas
27 where surface observations are missing. Model results were validated using “bottom-up” data
28 of common ragweed in Austria and Serbia. Results show high agreement between the two
29 analytical methods. The inventory shows that areas with the lowest ragweed abundances are
30 found in Northern and Southern European countries and the highest abundances are in parts of
31 Russia, parts of Ukraine and the Pannonian Plain. Smaller hotspots are found in Northern Italy,
32 the Rhône Valley in France and in Turkey. The top-down approach is based on a new approach
33 that allows for cross continental studies and is applicable to other anemophilous species. Due
34 to its simplicity, it can be used to investigate such species that are difficult and costly to identify
35 at larger scales using traditional vegetation surveys or remote sensing. The final inventory is
36 open source and available as a georeferenced tif file, allowing for multiple usages, reducing
37 costs for health services and agriculture through well-targeted management interventions.

38

39

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Common ragweed (*Ambrosia artemisiifolia* L.) is an invasive species that occupies many
42 different ecosystems (Essl et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2013). The plant is a major weed in crop
43 fields, but has achieved notoriety for its world-wide impact on human health. *Ambrosia* is
44 anemophilous and its pollen is an important aeroallergen and significant cause of seasonal
45 asthma and rhinitis where the plant is recorded (Smith et al., 2013; White and Bernstein, 2003).
46 Common ragweed is particularly abundant in the Northern Hemisphere and its presence results
47 in high atmospheric concentrations of pollen in North America (Zhang et al., 2015), where it
48 is native, and regions outside of its native range such as China (Li et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2017)
49 and Europe (Essl et al., 2015; Sikoparija et al., 2017), where the plant has invaded vast
50 geographical areas covering thousands of kilometres. In Europe, sensitisation rates to *Ambrosia*
51 pollen allergens range from less than 2.5% in Finland to more than 50% in known centres of
52 ragweed infestation such as Budapest, Hungary (Burbach et al., 2009; Heinzerling et al., 2009;
53 Sikoparija et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2013).

54 A mature common ragweed plant can produce more than a billion pollen grains (Fumanal et
55 al., 2007) that, due to their small size, frequently undergo continental scale atmospheric
56 transport (Šikoparija et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2013). Common ragweed has been observed to
57 increase its pollen production under higher CO₂ concentrations (Rogers et al., 2006) and within
58 urban environments (Ziska et al., 2003). Under climate change, the plant is projected to expand
59 its range in Europe to the north and east (Sun et al., 2017). Airborne concentrations of *Ambrosia*
60 pollen are expected to increase due the plant's accelerated invasion into new ecosystems, its
61 increased pollen production, and enhanced atmospheric transport (Hamaoui-Laguel et al.,
62 2015). Similarly, recent findings suggest possible expansion of its range in North America at
63 the northern margins of its current distribution and contraction to the south (Case and Stinson,

64 2018), as well as towards north and east in East Asia (Sun et al., 2017). Suitable habitats and
65 distribution of common ragweed have been modelled for present and future conditions in
66 Europe (Essl et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2017; Y Sun et al., 2017), but inventories documenting
67 abundances across whole continents including Europe are largely absent.

68 Knowledge of abundances of common ragweed at the continental scale is important for pollen
69 forecasting (Prank et al., 2013; Zink et al., 2017, 2012) and for mitigation strategies that aim
70 at a sustainable reduction in plant density and pollen exposure. Unfortunately, the availability
71 of the required plant occurrence records of invasive species like common ragweed is often
72 limited (Müller-Schärer et al., 2018). Consequently, the spatial and temporal resolution of
73 abundance data for common ragweed in Europe is very heterogeneous, which hampers
74 mapping of the distribution and abundance of the plant. There have been several attempts to
75 model the distribution of common ragweed using either occurrence data [21] or ecosystem
76 models (Chapman et al., 2014; Rasmussen et al., 2017; Storkey et al., 2014), but all these
77 studies have limitations describing actual abundances (Matyasovszky et al., 2018; Thibaudon
78 et al., 2014). A main constraint is that the invasion of common ragweed is still ongoing in many
79 countries (Karrer et al., 2015; Onen et al., 2014) and management of the landscape often
80 increases invasion (Richter et al., 2013). However, most continental scale ecosystem models
81 do not contain information on nation-specific management of the landscape, as this is difficult
82 to obtain for all Europe when it comes to agriculture (Werner et al., 2015). Remote sensing
83 based methods used to detect common ragweed over large areas are also challenging, especially
84 since pollen-producing plants can be surprisingly small and usually occur in mixed herbaceous
85 vegetation (Essl et al., 2015). Other approaches for creating inventories are therefore needed.

86 The ragweed beetle *Ophraella communa* LeSage has recently invaded Northern Italy and has
87 been shown to clear large fields of common ragweed (Müller-Schärer et al., 2018) thereby

88 affecting the overall pollen emission in the area (Bonini et al., 2017) and significantly reducing
89 airborne *Ambrosia* pollen concentrations (Bonini et al., 2016, 2015). If this beetle becomes
90 abundant locally or actively spreads into new areas with large infestations of common ragweed,
91 then this may have a large positive impact on human health (Moultet et al., 2018). It is therefore
92 important to have complete and up-to-date source maps for common ragweed showing levels
93 of *O. communa* infestation so they can be used for mitigation and pollen forecasting purposes.
94 In addition, the well documented populations of ragweed in France, Italy and on the Pannonian
95 Plain need to be extended to the less well known, but very important, source regions in Ukraine
96 and Russia. This is because atmospheric transport from these areas regularly contributes to
97 airborne *Ambrosia* pollen concentrations recorded in Europe and western Asia; e.g. Poland
98 (Bilińska et al., 2017; Kasprzyk et al., 2011), Denmark (Sommer et al., 2015) and Turkey
99 (Celenk and Malyer, 2017; Zemmer et al., 2012). Furthermore, such data should clearly
100 identify the invasion fronts of common ragweed as the level of infestation in a given area affects
101 the mitigation strategies that are likely to be successful (Milakovic et al., 2014). Finally, the
102 quality of the inventories should be validated, ideally using independent data.

103 The main aim of this study is to produce a validated inventory of ragweed abundance for
104 Europe. This was achieved by developing a new approach that allowed the plant's abundances
105 to be mapped over the entire European Continent and then validating this inventory using both
106 cross validations and independent plant-based occurrence data of common ragweed in Serbia
107 and Austria. The proposed approach is designed to be globally applicable for anemophilous
108 species that are otherwise difficult to map, not just ragweed. Finally, the inventory we present
109 here for ragweed abundances are available as open access in an easy to use format.

110 **2. Materials and Methods**

111 **2.1 Generalised method for generation of the European ragweed inventory using pollen**
112 **data**

113 Making inventories of flowering plants can be carried out using two approaches: 1) Bottom-up
114 approaches that typically are produced using statistical analysis of plant abundance or 2) top-
115 down approaches where a measured quantity of pollen as a starting point (Skjøth et al, 2013).
116 For an anemophilous species like common ragweed, spatial data of airborne pollen
117 concentrations can help to construct abundance maps (Müller-Schärer et al., 2018). It has been
118 shown that using pollen data to generate “top-down” inventories for France produced better
119 pollen forecasts than “bottom-up” inventories based on available occurrence data of common
120 ragweed plants (Zink et al., 2017). Top-down inventories based on pollen data have been made
121 available for the Pannonian Plain (Skjøth et al., 2010), Austria (Karrer et al., 2015) and Italy
122 (Bonini et al., 2017). These inventories provided data with different geographical resolutions
123 and as a result had compatibility problems near the boundaries where maps overlapped (Karrer
124 et al., 2015). Furthermore, gaps in available data have prevented the mapping of important
125 ragweed areas such as western Ukraine (Skjøth et al., 2010). Therefore, no European-wide
126 inventory has previously been produced.

127 Fig 1 illustrates the most important steps and the datasets needed for producing continental
128 wide inventories. Step 1 is to create a harmonised and geographically consistent dataset (Fig 1,
129 left column) that includes both the habitats that are populated by the plant (in the case of
130 ragweed this varies geographically, as seen in Table 1). This is then combined with information
131 known to restrict the presence of the plant. The approach for ragweed is described in detail in
132 section 2.1.1. The second step is to include the presence and absence of pollen data of the plant
133 in question (Fig 1, middle column). Favourable habitats may or may not be populated by a
134 plant and so the presence/absence of airborne pollen recoded at specific geographical locations

135 is important for determining the plant's coverage. Conceptually, the pollen data is a point based
136 dataset which can be used to calculate local abundance. The approach for ragweed is described
137 in detail in section 2.1.2. The last dataset is the station foot print area (Fig 1, right column).
138 This is used to calculate abundance within a region (e.g. Skjøth et al., 2010; Thibaudon et al.,
139 2014), which is termed the infestation level of the plant (e.g. invasive ragweed). The footprint
140 area can be based on simple circles (Skjøth et al., 2010), the concentric ring method (Oteros et
141 al., 2015) or footprint modelling - backwards modelling using tools such as the atmospheric
142 particle dispersion model HYSPLIT (Stein et al., 2015) or SILAM (e.g. Hernandez-Ceballos
143 et al., 2014). The abundance or infestation level found at the combined set of stations is then
144 interpolated to the entire model domain. This implicitly assumes that the infestation level of
145 the plant in nearby habitats is similar and that a suitable approach to estimate the abundance in
146 regions without observations is to combine the presence of habitats with the abundance of
147 pollen from the nearest observational points.

148

149 **2.1.1 Inventories of infested habitats**

150 We generated inventories showing the distribution of ragweed abundances in Europe using a
151 combination of airborne pollen data and land cover types identified as having the potential for
152 ragweed invasion – a so called infested habitat approach (Karrer et al., 2015; Skjøth et al.,
153 2010). Experts were consulted about which land cover types (habitats) have the potential to be
154 infested by common ragweed in different areas. This allowed the abundance of habitats that
155 could be infested in a specific region to be calculated. The degree of infestation was then
156 determined by the use of pollen data.

157 The combined region under investigation included Europe and parts of western Asia (Fig 2A),
158 which is termed 'Europe' for the purposes of this study. Two land cover datasets were used
159 with high spatial resolution: (1) The Corine Land Cover (CLC) 2012 version, which
160 encompasses the European Union and selected associated countries (Commission, 2005), and
161 includes countries such as Norway, Switzerland, Serbia and Turkey with a grid resolution of
162 100 m; (2) Globcover (Bicheron et al., 2008), a global land cover dataset that has a coarser
163 resolution (300m), fewer land cover classes and less detail with respect to management than
164 the CLC dataset, but that allowed us to analyse important ragweed areas like Ukraine and
165 Russia.

166 The infestation of suitable habitats by common ragweed is favoured by soil disturbance and
167 can either be enhanced or suppressed by national agricultural schemes and local management
168 of the agricultural landscape and transport networks (Skjøth et al., 2010). The invasion of
169 common ragweed is ongoing and the plant has yet to colonise all favourable habitats in the
170 studied region, e.g. Austria (Karrer et al., 2015) and Turkey (Onen et al., 2014). The CLC
171 dataset was therefore separated into regions (at NUTS1 and NUTS2 levels) and each region
172 was given its own set of land cover classes following Karrer et al (2015). These regions that,
173 according to current scientific knowledge, might be infested by common ragweed (Table 1)
174 include: the Pannonian Plain (Skjøth et al., 2010), which we have extended to cover the Balkan
175 region and parts of Turkey (Onen et al., 2014); Austria/Switzerland (Karrer et al., 2015); parts
176 of Italy (Bonini et al., 2017; Celesti-Grapow et al., 2009; Gentili et al., 2017); France
177 (Thibaudon et al., 2014); Czech Republic (Skálová et al., 2017); Northern and Southern
178 Europe. Note that we assume that the main infestation of common ragweed in Northern and
179 Southern Europe is in the urban zone (McInnes et al., 2017; Sommer et al., 2015), an
180 assumption supported by the fact that most observations of common ragweed in these areas
181 have been associated with built environments (Sommer et al., 2015).

Table 1. CORINE land cover types with major ragweed infestation in the six regions in Europe described in this study

CLC Code	CORINE Land Cover Classifications (Label 3) currently considered to be major ragweed habitats within Europe (n = 19)	Major ragweed habitats Austria (East & West combined) (n = 17)	Major ragweed habitats France (n = 13)	Major ragweed habitats Italy (n = 11)	Major ragweed habitats Pannonian Plain (n = 7)	Major ragweed habitats Czech Republic (n = 6)	Major ragweed habitats rest of Europe (n = 4)
1.1.2	Discontinuous urban fabric	Yes	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	Yes	Yes
1.2.1	Industrial commercial units	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
1.2.2	Road and rail networks and associated land	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
1.2.3	Port areas	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	Yes	Yes
1.2.4	Airports	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
1.3.1	Mineral extraction sites	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
1.3.2	Dump sites	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
1.3.3	Construction sites	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>
1.4.1	Green urban areas	Yes	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
2.1.1	Non-irrigated arable land	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>
2.1.2	Permanently irrigated land	Yes	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
2.2.1	Vineyards	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
2.2.2	Fruit trees and berry plantations	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
2.3.1	Pastures	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
2.4.1	Annual crops associated with permanent crops	<i>No</i>	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
2.4.2	Complex cultivation patterns	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
2.4.3	Land principally occupied by agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
2.4.4	Agro-forestry areas	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>
3.2.1	Natural grassland	Yes	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>No</i>

184

185 The Globcover dataset was used outside the CLC region and separated into two regions in the
186 studied area: South and North (Fig 2A). According to the Interactive Agricultural Ecological
187 Atlas of Russia and neighbouring countries, common ragweed is found abundantly in southern
188 Russia, Georgia and parts of Ukraine (Afonin et al., 2008). To the East, this information is
189 limited as Kazakhstan was not covered by the Russian Atlas. The northern region covers
190 Belarus, the northern parts of Ukraine and central and northern Russia. In this northern
191 Globcover region, the urban zone (ID=190) was considered the only habitat for common
192 ragweed. In the southern region, the main agricultural land cover classes (ID=11,14,20,30) and
193 the urban zone were considered to be the only habitats for common ragweed following Afonin
194 et al (2008). The completed Globcover dataset was reprojected and re-gridded to 100 m x 100
195 m and combined with the CLC dataset.

196 As with previous studies (Bonini et al., 2017; Karrer et al., 2015; Thibaudon et al., 2014), an
197 elevation filter was used because common ragweed is known to mainly occupy lowlands and
198 permanent populations are only found below the climatological limit favouring the plant's
199 growth (Essl et al., 2009; Karrer et al., 2015). Studies have shown that this climatological limit,
200 where ~99% of stable populations are found below, ranges from 439m a.s.l. in France
201 (Thibaudon et al., 2014) to 745m a.s.l. in the Alpine region of Austria (Karrer et al., 2015).
202 Casual populations of common ragweed have been identified up to 1100 m a.s.l. in Europe
203 (Essl et al., 2009), but practically no *Ambrosia* pollen is observed above 1000 m (Matyasovszky
204 et al., 2018). Although it should be noted that Gentili et al. (2017) observed the plant growing
205 up to 1834 m a.s.l. in Italy. In this study, the altitudinal limit of 745 m was chosen as a general
206 filter for Europe, except for France where the more restrictive 439 m filter was used due to the
207 lower infestation in elevated terrain (Thibaudon et al., 2014).

208 The elevation filter is based on two datasets in order to cover all of Europe with sufficient
209 accuracy. The first, is the global void filled dataset from the NASA Shuttle Radar Topographic
210 Mission (Reuter et al., 2007) that was made available at 90 m resolution up to 60 degrees North
211 (Jarvis et al., 2008). The second, which we used beyond 60 degrees North, is the 225 m dataset
212 from USGS named the Global Multi-resolution Terrain Elevation Data 2010 (Danielson and
213 Gesch, 2011). Both datasets were reprojected and re-gridded to 100 m grid resolution defined
214 by the CLC dataset. The elevation filter was applied on the combined land cover data set with
215 ragweed habitats and this final dataset was re-gridded to 1 km for further manipulation
216 including the application of pollen data.

217

218 **2.1.2 Pollen data and calculation of infestation level**

219 Pollen data (2004-2012) obtained from published work were included in the study (Fig 2B).
220 An additional +/-2 years was allowed to ensure that sufficient data points in the vicinity of the
221 main invasion fronts of common ragweed were included, covering regions like Spain, the UK,
222 parts of France, North Western Europe and Northern Russia. The published work contained
223 pollen data collected using optical methods for identification and enumeration and displayed
224 with well-defined pollen integrals according to Galan et al. (2017). *Ambrosia* pollen data
225 obtained using this approach may include pollen from several species of ragweed that are
226 present on the European continent, while common ragweed is the most widespread of all
227 species (Smith et al., 2013).

228 The pollen data encompass all the main centres in Europe infested by common ragweed, i.e.
229 Italy (Bonini et al., 2017), Austria (Karrer et al., 2015), the Pannonian Plain (Skjøth et al.,
230 2010), France (Thibaudon et al., 2014) and parts of Ukraine. Additional published data from

231 18 countries were included from a European-wide trend study concerning *Ambrosia* pollen
232 (Sikoparija et al., 2017). Further data were included from studies conducted in Germany
233 (Buters et al., 2015; Höflich et al., 2016; Melgar et al., 2012), Croatia (Bokan et al., 2007; Liu
234 et al., 2016; Menut et al., 2014; Peternel et al., 2006; Puljak et al., 2016), Turkey (Acar et al.,
235 2017; Altıntaş et al., 2004; Bicakci and Tosunoglu, 2015; Tosunoglu and Bicakci, 2015),
236 Romania (Leru et al., 2018), Russia (Severova et al., 2015; Shamgunova and Zaklyakova,
237 2011), Serbia (Josipović and Ljubičić, 2012), Ukraine (Maleeva and Prikhodko, 2017;
238 Rodinkova, 2013; Turos et al., 2009), Bosnia (Turos et al., 2009) and Slovakia (Hrabovský et
239 al., 2016). All these sites are located within urban zones and data are collected from the top of
240 a building, typically 10m-20m above ground level.

241 Additional calibration points outside the main centres for common ragweed were obtained by
242 conducting a literature review of published studies (e.g. pollen calendars) during the selected
243 time period taking into account both rural and urban locations. This was used to document the
244 minimal presence or absence of airborne *Ambrosia* pollen as an indication of the current
245 invasion front. Studies were included when they either reported full pollen calendars without
246 ragweed, thereby documenting low or no occurrence of *Ambrosia* pollen, or specific numbers
247 with respect to low amounts of ragweed pollen. This literature review, as well as the main data
248 collection of pollen integrals, took into account both English and non-English literature found
249 within the study region such as Norwegian, Serbian and Russian. This provided data of limited
250 or no presence of airborne *Ambrosia* pollen from the following regions: Porto, Portugal
251 (Ribeiro and Abreu, 2014), Funchal, Portugal (Camacho, 2015), Toledo, Spain (Garcia-Mozo
252 et al., 2006; Perez-Badia et al., 2010) Badajoz, Spain (Gonzalo-Garijo et al., 2006), Salamanca,
253 Spain (Rodríguez-de la Cruz et al., 2010), Nerja, Spain (Docampo et al., 2007), Moscow,
254 Russia (Volkova et al., 2016), Mornag, Tunisia (Hadj Hamda et al., 2017), Nicosia, Cyprus
255 (Gucel et al., 2013), Bodrum, Turkey (Tosunoglu and Bicakci, 2015), Konya, Turkey

256 (Kizilpinar et al., 2012), Kastamonu, Turkey (Çeter et al., 2012), Denizli, Turkey (Güvensen
257 et al., 2013), Van, Turkey (Bicakci et al., 2017), Hatay, Turkey (Tosunoglu et al., 2018), Perm,
258 Russia (Novoselova and Minaeva, 2015), 12 sites from Norway (e.g. Bicakci et al., 2017;
259 Tosunoglu et al., 2018) Finland (Manninen et al., 2014) and 5 sites from central/northern
260 Russia that documented no *Ambrosia* pollen deposition from the air (Nosova et al., 2015).

261 Note that the data from the Norwegian, Spanish, Turkish and Cyprus networks needed special
262 treatment. Common ragweed is sparse in these regions and in most cases *Ambrosia* pollen – if
263 present – is grouped together with pollen from other members of the Asteraceae family. If the
264 annual pollen integral from the Asteraceae group was near zero then data from these sites were
265 included as being without presence of *Ambrosia* pollen. Pollen stations with a low Asteraceae
266 pollen integral during the ragweed flowering period were also included, while stations with a
267 large Asteraceae pollen integral were excluded from the study.

268 The amount of ragweed habitats for each grid cell within a 30 km radius of the pollen
269 monitoring site was calculated using the function *focal statistics* provided with *Spatial Analyst*
270 *Tools*, which is an extension to ArcGIS. These values (henceforth amount of habitats) were
271 then extracted for the pollen monitoring sites. This is done simultaneously for all sites using
272 the function *Extract values to point* also found within *Spatial Analyst Tools*. This approach by
273 combining tools within *Spatial Analyst Tools* has shown to be much more computationally
274 efficient for continental scale calculations as compared to previous approaches that have
275 mainly been applied at the country level (Bonini et al., 2017; Karrer et al., 2015). This previous
276 approach handled the sites individually and operated with the data in shape-file format (Skjøth
277 et al., 2010; Thibaudon et al., 2014). The ragweed infestation level is then calculated at each
278 site according to Thibaudon et al (2014) and interpolated to the entire area of investigation,
279 where the infestation level varies from 0 % to 100 %. The final gridded ragweed inventory was

280 calculated at 1 km grid resolution by multiplying the gridded habitat map with the calculated
281 infestation level. The 1 km grid was aggregated to 10 km (Fig 3A) for comparison with plant
282 density data. The sensitivity of the gridded data was tested by cross validation and displayed
283 as a scatter plot (Fig 3B) and geographically on a map (Fig 3C) according to the
284 recommendations by US-EPA (US-EPA, 2004). The 10 km inventory is discussed at the
285 European level, while the higher detailed 1 km inventory is explored for selected areas and
286 compared with the 10 km inventory (Fig 4A to Fig 4D). Both European inventories given with
287 the 10 km and the 1 km grid are provided as supplementary information in form of tif files,
288 which enables easy application of the data by authorities, forecasters and other users.

289 **2.2 Inventories of plant density for Austria and Serbia and their comparison with the** 290 **pollen-based inventory**

291 Two plant density maps were produced for Austria (Karrer et al., 2015) and Serbia (Vrbničanin
292 et al., 2008) based on unified nation-wide observation campaigns on the presence, absence and
293 abundance classes of common ragweed for the same period as the pollen data (previous
294 section). These data included areas with both widespread infestation of permanent populations
295 of common ragweed and areas where the plant was absent. The data from Vrbničanin et al.
296 [102] were delivered as a 3-level categorical dataset of infestation of common ragweed with
297 10 km x 10 km resolution covering all of Serbia. The data from Austria were raw observational
298 values of the presence/absence of common ragweed (Karrer et al., 2015). The datasets were
299 converted into point-based shape files by calculating presence/absence on a 10 km x 10 km
300 grid covering both countries. The density of presence (grid points) within a 30 km zone is then
301 calculated for both Austria and Serbia at a 10 km resolution, i.e. the same distance and
302 resolution used for the pollen based inventory. This enabled the data to be gridded in the same
303 way as the pollen based inventory. The plant density maps were combined for both countries

304 (Fig 5A) and individual numbers in the grid cells were directly compared using linear
305 correlation analysis (Fig 5B).

306

307

308 **3. Results**

309 **3.1 The pollen based ragweed inventory and its accuracy assessment**

310 A total of 349 pollen monitoring sites were included in the study (Fig 2B). A high density of
311 stations was found in Italy, France and Hungary while a low density of stations was found in
312 Romania, Moldavia parts of Russia and Turkey. The geographical locations and the overall
313 pollen integral used in the calculation were stored within a point-based shapefile that also
314 includes meta data with a citation for each dataset. This shapefile is available as supplementary
315 information. The Rhône Valley, Northern Italy, the Pannonian Plain, parts of Turkey, most of
316 Ukraine, and parts of Russia were found to be the main areas with high pollen integrals. The
317 highest ragweed infestation was found in Ukraine followed by Russia and the Pannonian Plain,
318 which corresponded well with the highest pollen integrals that were found in Russia, Ukraine
319 and Croatia. These areas (Fig 3A) also contained the main invasion fronts towards the North
320 (e.g. Poland, parts of Russia and Ukraine), while the southern invasion fronts were found in
321 Turkey near the Black Sea coast, parts of Italy and parts of France.

322 Cross validation provided an overall R^2 value of 0.49 (Fig 3B) and a correlation of 0.74 and
323 RMSE of 10.2%. The mapping of the absolute error (Fig 3C) revealed that nearly all sites had
324 an absolute error of less than 20%, while a few had much larger errors. These uncertainties
325 were mainly related to areas with low densities of stations such as part of Ukraine, or near

326 invasion fronts like the transition from the western Balkans to the Adriatic coastline. The 10
327 km gridded dataset highlights well known areas of infestation such as the Rhône Valley in
328 France (Fig 4A) and parts of Ukraine and Turkey (Fig 4C) along the Black Sea coast. More
329 detail can be seen with the 1 km grid resolution, which displays narrow areas with high
330 infestation in Italy and France (Fig 4B) and is associated with narrow valleys found near
331 Roussillon, France, and part of the Alpine region in either southern Switzerland and northern
332 Italy. The 1 km inventory is also highly detailed around the Black Sea (Fig 4D). The most
333 highly infested areas in Russia and Ukraine are arranged in an arc around the northern coast of
334 the Black Sea (Fig 4D), corresponding to the location of Odesa. This is a combined effect of
335 homogeneous terrain with a very high density of agricultural land, i.e. a large number of
336 potential ragweed habitats and a lower density of pollen stations compared to areas such as the
337 Rhône Valley in France. This is also the area with the highest uncertainty according to the cross
338 correlation analysis.

339 **3.2 The plant based inventory of common ragweed and its comparison with the pollen** 340 **inventory**

341 The re-calculated plant-based inventory for Serbia (Fig 5A) identifies the northern part as being
342 heavily infested, while the southern part contains notably less common ragweed. Similarly, the
343 Austrian plant-based inventory shows high infestations around Vienna (Fig 5A) and in the
344 lowlands of the southern and eastern parts. Localised infestations, apparently in relation to
345 major road networks expanding from the East to the West, are consistent with previous findings
346 by Essl et al (2009) and Vitalos & Karrer (2009). A substantial fraction of the country has low
347 infestations coinciding with the Alpine region. The numerical comparison of the bottom-up
348 plant-based inventory with the top-down pollen-based inventory provided a highly significant
349 relationship ($r^2 = 0.64$ $P < 0.001$) (Fig 5B).

350

351 **4. Discussion**

352 This study provides, to our knowledge, the first complete inventory of flowering ragweed all
353 over Europe and western Asia showing both distribution and relative abundance. The inventory
354 has been validated using both cross validation and two plant-based inventories for Austria and
355 Serbia. The inventory substantially expands current methods used for developing top-down
356 based inventories and provides an approach that is generally applicable both for ragweed as
357 well as other anemophilous species. The new approach is demonstrably suitable across
358 continents and due to its design it can at the same time incorporate several types of geographical
359 data with varying detail along with other types of information. The new approach is therefore
360 both flexible and made for either local or global implementation. The results show large
361 variations in infestation levels throughout the European landscape – variations that, as far as
362 we know, have not previously been identified. These variations are in part related to the
363 regional distribution of ecosystems likely to be affected and partly associated with factors, such
364 as steep terrain or specific agricultural management schemes, that suppress the level of ragweed
365 invasion.

366 The inventory is a major synthesis from COST Action FA1203-SMARTER for the
367 “Sustainable management of *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* in Europe” (Müller-Schärer et al., 2018);
368 a large EU-funded network that operated from 2012 to 2016 with more than 250 active
369 scientists from over 30 countries (Müller-Schärer et al., 2018). The data collected within
370 SMARTER is, to the best of our knowledge, the largest amount of *Ambrosia* pollen data ever
371 collected. The dataset includes information from English and non-English sources, thereby
372 documenting ragweed infestations from regions not previously considered. The map of

373 ragweed abundance is also based on expert opinion, observations of plant abundances on the
374 ground, and a mathematical approach for connecting and analysing the data. As such, this
375 synthesis is arguably the most comprehensive and rigorous analysis of ragweed distribution
376 and abundance ever considered for Europe.

377 The approach for generating these maps is applicable for other anemophilous plant species that
378 release pollen to the air, to other periods of sampling, and other regions with different land
379 cover types. The approach is not restricted to the use of pollen data analysed with optical
380 microscopes, but can easily be applied to pollen data analysed with molecular techniques,
381 thereby expanding the usefulness. Molecular approaches as well as approaches using optical
382 microscopes can provide volumetric measures of pollen that are in fact directly comparable
383 (Müller-Germann et al., 2015). For instance, pollen and fungal pores collected with traps of the
384 Hirst design (Hirst, 1952), which are used by many national networks, have been analysed
385 using molecular approaches to produce time series of volumetric measures (Grinn-Gofroń et
386 al., 2016; Núñez et al., 2017). In fact, nationwide monitoring for airborne grass pollen using
387 molecular approaches has recently been demonstrated (Brennan et al., 2019). As such it is
388 possible to calculate the pollen or spore integrals (Galán et al., 2017) using molecular
389 techniques if the study involves standard or calibration curves (e.g. Müller-Germann et al.,
390 2015). Furthermore, the dataset can cover full seasons, which is the main requirement when
391 using molecular data for this mapping approach. The traditional analysis of aerobiological
392 samples by optical microscope is often limited in its ability to identify airborne pollen because
393 pollen or fungal spores are aggregated into groups such as genus (e.g. *Betula*), family (e.g.
394 Asteraceae) or even 'type' (e.g. *Taxus-Cupressaceae* type). On the other hand, molecular
395 approaches can identify pollen or spores that are morphological identical to other species when
396 analysed with a microscope such as the pollen from different members of the Poaceae family
397 (Brennan et al., 2019, Kraijveld et al., 2015), spores from the genus *Cladosporium* (Pashley et

398 al., 2012) or pollen from *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* (Müller-Germann et al., 2017). The use of
399 primers that either separate individual ragweed species or target individual species such as
400 *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* (Müller-Germann et al., 2017) will provide substantial new insight into
401 species diversity in the air and allow for studies into ecosystem behaviour or provide
402 background data for management. These diagnostic methods would be particularly powerful
403 when analysed spatially using the approach presented here. Pollen data are relatively simple to
404 collect and so this approach is especially useful when the species under investigation are
405 difficult and costly to map at larger spatial scales using other methods such as vegetation
406 surveys or remote sensing (e.g. the global invader *Parthenium hysterophorus* or the highly
407 allergenic species of *Parietaria judaica*). The background data and the final output data from
408 this study are available in a well-established digitized form at several geographical resolutions
409 (e.g. Fig 4B and Fig 4D). The inventory can therefore be easily updated and the data are
410 available for planning mitigation strategies, scenario studies, and forecasting; including use by
411 the atmospheric models used in the EU flagship Copernicus Programme. This enables
412 substantial impact within and outside academia – a primary objective of the SMARTER
413 network (Müller-Schärer et al., 2018).

414 The inventory presented here, thanks to the development of new methods, provides a
415 substantial new understanding of the level of ragweed invasion across Europe that has not
416 previously been identified. The inclusion of new regions, e.g. Turkey, provides a larger
417 geographical coverage of ragweed infestation than previous studies conducted by Bullock et
418 al. (2010), Prank et al. (2013) and Liu et al. (2016). Our inventory also shows much lower
419 infestation levels in much of Northern Europe than these other studies, e.g. for northern
420 Germany, Denmark, Belarus, the Baltic countries, Poland and Sweden. This is because the
421 inventory reflects the fact that common ragweed is mainly found near settlements and that
422 many regions in these countries are still free from common ragweed (Afonin et al., 2008;

423 Grewling et al., 2016; McInnes et al., 2017; Sommer et al., 2015). The results suggest
424 substantial spatial variations in infestation levels in key areas such as the Pannonian Plain and
425 in countries like Italy. Our inventory shows almost no infestation in large parts of Italy and, as
426 such, is in agreement with national assessments conducted by Celesti-Grapow et al. (2009) and
427 Gentili et al. (2017). Attempts of ecosystem modelling conducted by Chapman et al. (2014)
428 and Storkey et al. (2014) have some similarities with this study (e.g. in Russia and Ukraine),
429 but also contain major differences in Northern countries (e.g. the UK, Germany and Denmark)
430 as well as countries near to or on the Pannonian Plain (e.g. Romania, Bulgaria and the European
431 part of Turkey). In our inventory, ragweed is hardly present in the Northern countries (McInnes
432 et al., 2017), has either widespread but regional presence or patchy distribution in countries
433 such as France and Germany (Buters et al., 2015; Zink et al., 2012), and is found abundantly
434 in the European part of Turkey (Ozaslan et al., 2016) and along parts of the Black Sea coast
435 (Onen et al., 2014). The approach implicitly assumes that each region with considerable and
436 consistent amounts of ragweed pollen is predominantly influenced by local plants and that
437 atmospheric processes keeping pollen airborne have similar effects throughout the model area.
438 This is not necessarily the case, where a good example that can affect pollen dispersion is the
439 height of the planetary boundary layer (Smith et al, 2008, de Weger et al, 2016). It has been
440 shown that one of the important ragweed regions during the main ragweed season
441 systematically contain higher planetary boundary layers compared to other European regions
442 (Seidel et al, 2013). Nevertheless, the harmonised inventory presented in this study appears to
443 agree considerably better with existing literature than large scale maps created in previous
444 studies. This, combined with the cross validation and comparison with plant-based inventories,
445 suggests that the approach presented in this study provides high quality inventories from a
446 statistical point of view and is currently the most comprehensive method for estimating
447 ragweed abundance throughout Europe.

448 **5. Conclusion**

449 In summary, the map of ragweed abundance presented here is, to our knowledge, the first
450 complete assessment of ragweed invasion in Europe. Common ragweed is one of the most
451 economically important invasive species in Europe and so is considered a flagship species.
452 Mitigation is therefore highly needed. Our inventory can support successful mitigation
453 strategies, both at national and international levels, such as the use of biological control or the
454 implementation of new management schemes. As such, the inventory would need to be updated
455 when major changes are seen in the distribution, thereby underlining the importance of long
456 time series from pollen monitoring stations. Furthermore, the method produces superior results
457 to other mapping approaches when used for pollen forecasting , where the objective is to enable
458 hay fever sufferers to either reduce pollen exposure during high magnitude events or take
459 medication. Finally, the mapping of ragweed in this way can be used to document the effect of
460 climate change on vegetation as the northward expansion of common ragweed in Europe is
461 currently limited by cooler climates. A main challenge with the approach has been in securing
462 sufficient amounts of data on a continental scale and finding a method for handling regions
463 with poorer data coverage. Overall, the approach shows the high value of pollen data,
464 particularly when the data are applied to large spatial scales and combined with detailed land
465 use maps and expert knowledge of plant distribution and ecology. Consequently, the
466 production of inventories can help convince policy makers setting political and administrative
467 actions against invasive species such as common ragweed.

468

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487

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911 **FIGURES**

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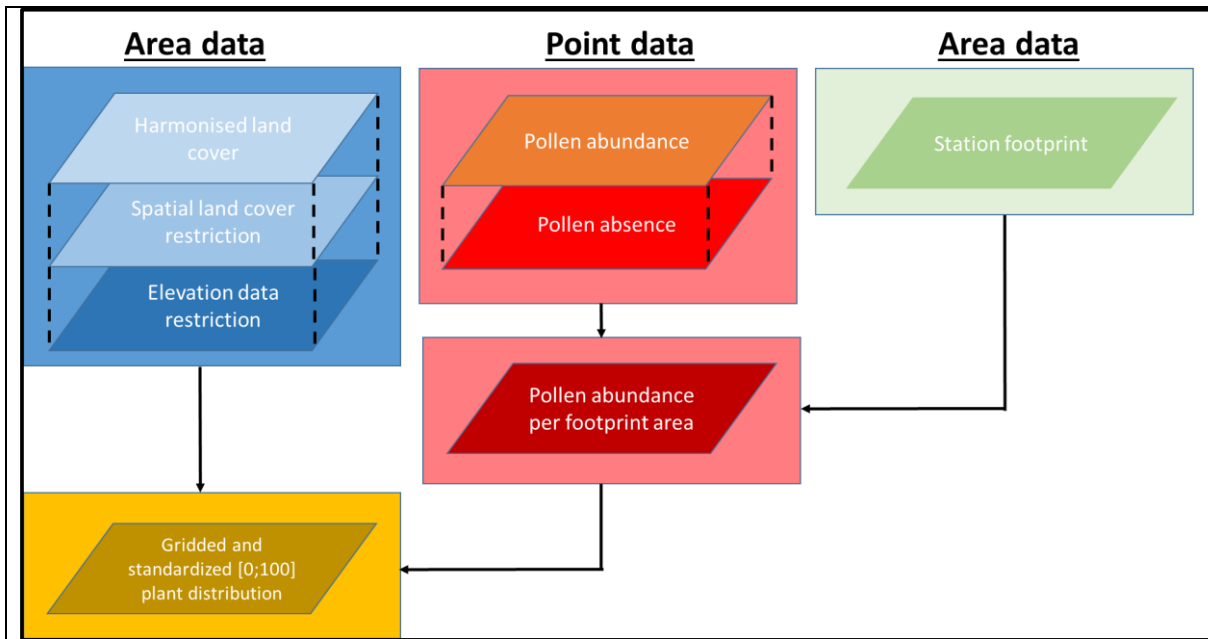


Fig 1: Conceptual figure illustrating data flow and needed data sets for producing continental-wide inventories using the top-down approach.

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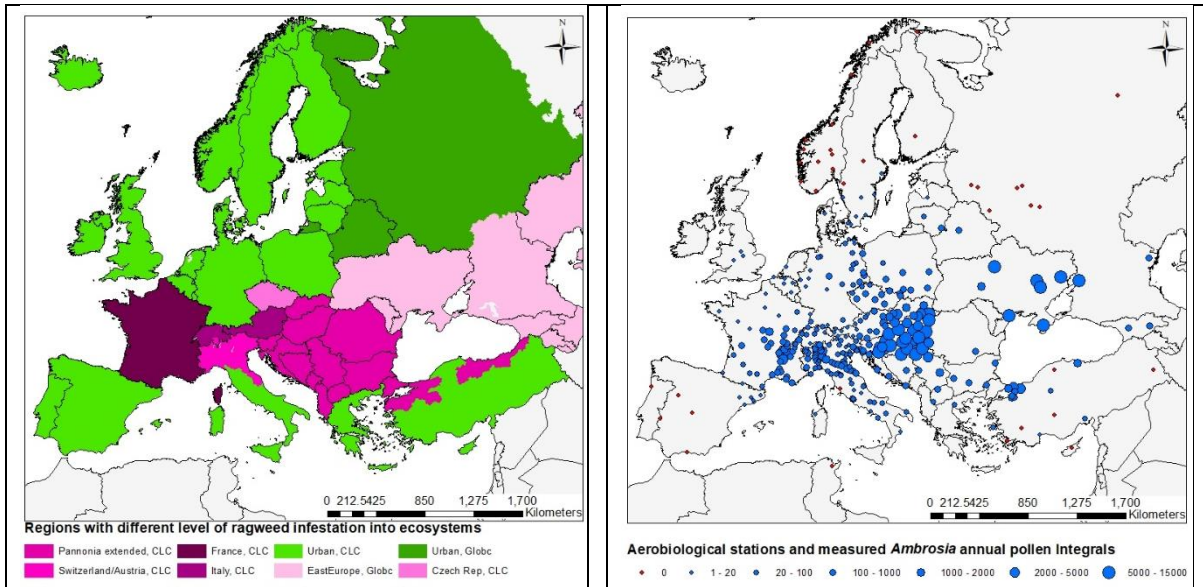


Fig 2A: Geographical regions with different invasion levels of common ragweed in described land cover classes within the Corine Land Cover (CLC) classification separated into the following six zones as described in Table A1: **(1)** The Pannonian Plain extended to cover part of the Balkans and parts of Turkey, **(2)** France, **(3)** Austria extended to cover Switzerland, **(4)** Czech Republic, **(5)** Parts of Italy and **(6)** areas with limited invasion and mainly in the urban zone (Sommer et al, 2015; McInnes et al., 2017). The coarser Globcover classification is separated into two regions with ragweed invasion found in the rural landscape covering mainly Ukraine and southern Russia and northern parts where ragweed is only expected to be found in the urban landscape. **Fig 2B:** Pollen-monitoring sites included in this study with a defined pollen integral and additional sites with no records of ragweed pollen.

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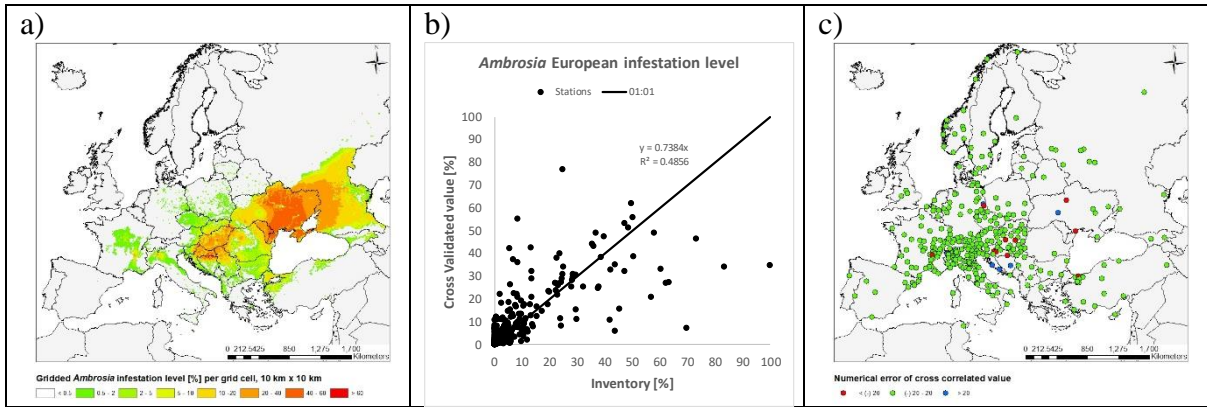


Fig 3A: Infestation [%] of *Ambrosia* in Europe combining airborne *Ambrosia* pollen data with land cover and elevation filter, aggregated to 10km x 10km. **Fig 3B:** Cross validation at each point using the geographical distribution. **Fig 3C:** Scatter plot showing cross validation results incorporating all sites in the study.

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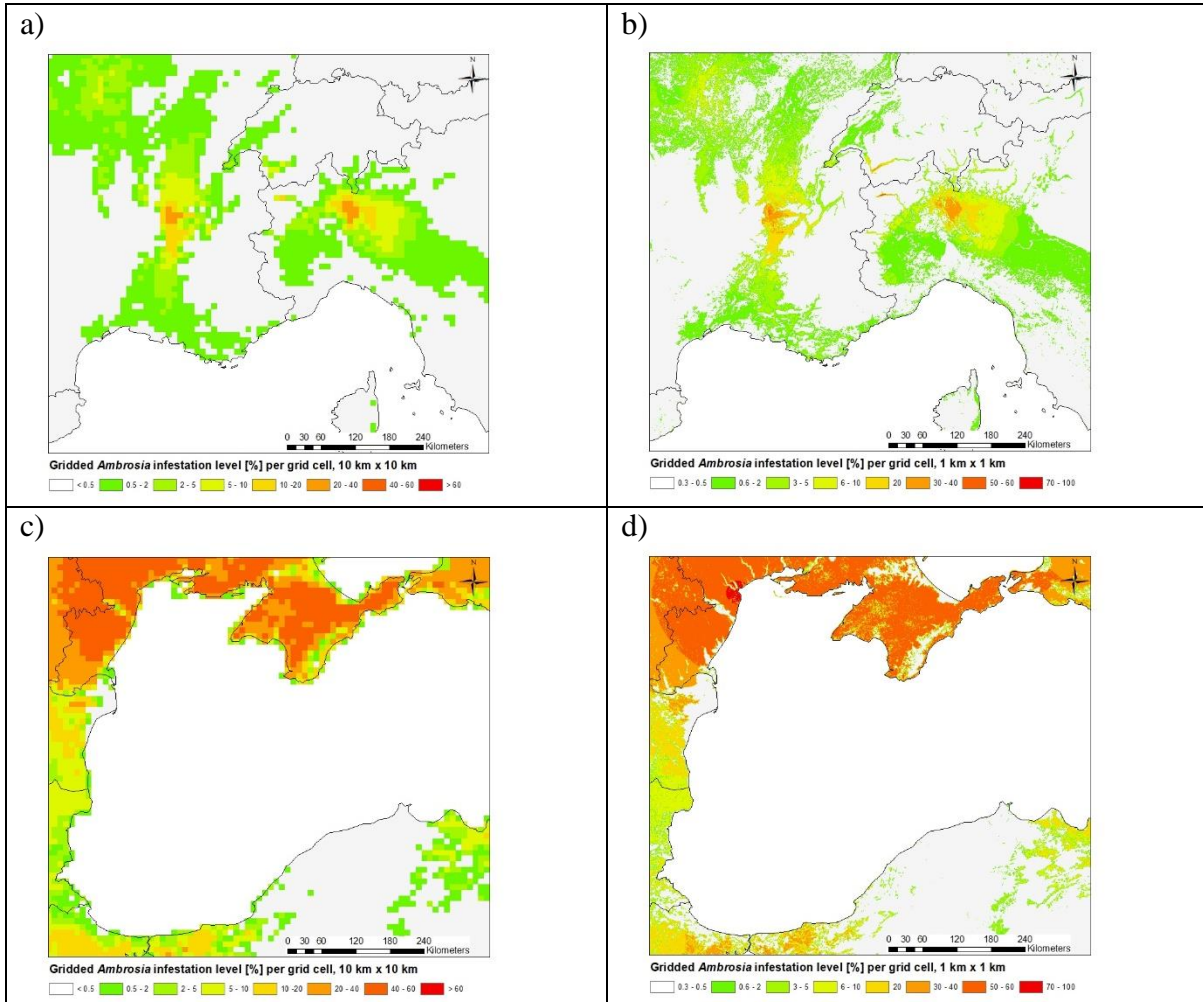


Fig 4A: Infestation level of *Ambrosia* pollen covering the Rhone valley and the Milan region at 10 km x 10 km. **Fig 4B:** Infestation level of *Ambrosia* pollen covering the Rhone valley and the Milan region at 1km x 1 km. **Fig 4C:** Infestation level of *Ambrosia* pollen covering part of the Black sea region and the coastal areas of Turkey, Bulgaria, Ukraine and Russia at 10 km x 10 km. **Fig 4D:** 1km x 1 km. Note the slightly different legends between 1 km and 10 km grid resolution.

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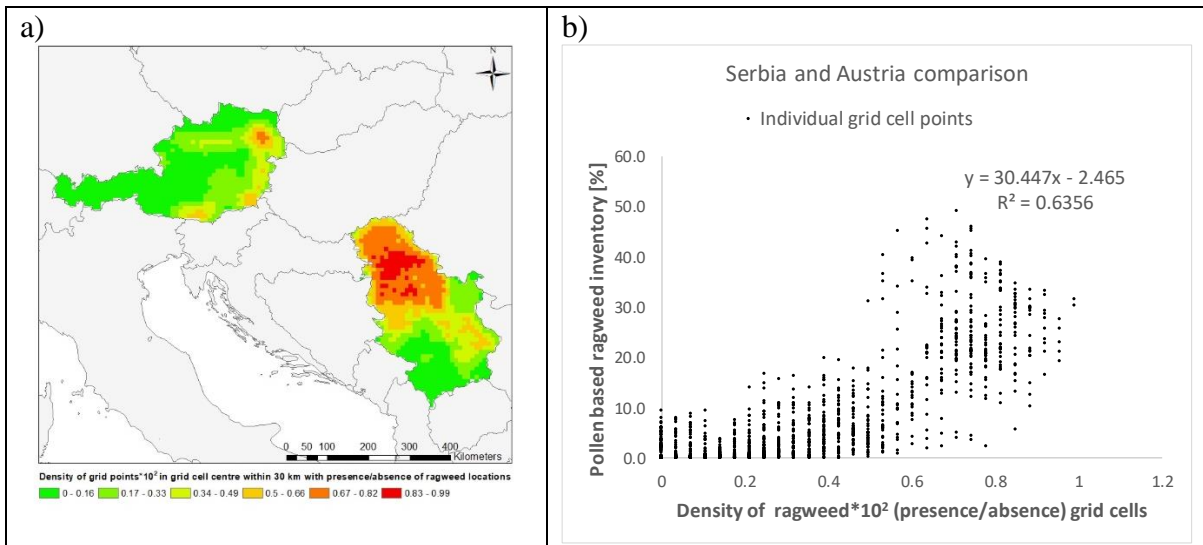


Fig 5A: Density of ragweed plants in Austria and Serbia based on unified nation-wide observation campaigns on the presence, absence and abundance classes of common ragweed for the same period as the pollen data, calculated using 10 km x 10km grid cells. **Fig 5B:** Scatter plot showing comparison of the ragweed plant density map with corresponding grid cells from the pollen-based inventory.

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