

1 **Deep learning and computer vision will transform entomology**

2

3 Toke T. Høye^{1,*}, Johanna Ärje^{1,2}, Kim Bjerger³, Oskar L. P. Hansen^{1,4,5,6}, Alexandros Iosifidis⁷,

4 Florian Leese⁸, Hjalte M. R. Mann¹, Kristian Meissner⁹, Claus Melvad¹⁰, Jenni Raitoharju⁹

5

6 *1. Department of Bioscience and Arctic Research Centre, Aarhus University, Grenåvej 14, DK-*

7 *8410 Rønde, Denmark*

8 *2. Unit of Computing Sciences, Tampere University, Finland*

9 *3. School of Engineering, Aarhus University, Finlandsgade 22, 8200 Aarhus N, Denmark*

10 *4. Natural History Museum Aarhus, Wilhelm Meyers Allé 10, DK-8000 Aarhus C*

11 *5. Department of Biology – Center for Biodiversity Dynamics in a Changing World*

12 *(BIOCHANGE), Aarhus University, Ny Munkegade 116, DK-8000 Aarhus C*

13 *6. Department of Biology - Ecoinformatics and Biodiversity, Aarhus University, Ny Munkegade*

14 *116, DK-8000 Aarhus C*

15 *7. Department of Engineering, Aarhus University, Denmark*

16 *8. Aquatic Ecosystem Research, University of Duisburg-Essen, 45141 Essen, Germany*

17 *9. Programme for Environmental Information, Finnish Environment Institute, Jyväskylä, Finland*

18 *10. School of Engineering, Aarhus University, Inge Lehmannsgade 10, 8000 Aarhus C, Denmark*

19

20 **corresponding author, tth@bios.au.dk, phone: +4587158892*

21

22 *ORCID: TTH 0000-0001-5387-3284, JÄ 0000-0003-0710-9044, KB 0000-0001-6742-9504, OLPH*

23 *0000-0002-1598-5733, AI 0000-0003-4807-1345, FL 0000-0002-5465-913X, HMRM 0000-0002-*

24 *4768-4767, KM 0000-0001-6316-8554, CM 0000-0002-5720-6523, JR 0000-0003-4631-9298*

25 **Classification:** Biological sciences (major), Physical sciences (minor)

26

27 **Key words:** Automated monitoring, Ecology, Insects, Image-based identification, Machine learning

28

29 **Significance statement:** Insect populations are challenging to study, but computer vision and deep

30 learning provide opportunities for continuous and non-invasive monitoring of biodiversity around

31 the clock and over entire seasons. These tools can also facilitate the processing of samples in a

32 laboratory setting. Automated imaging in particular can provide an effective way of identifying and

33 counting specimens to measure abundance. We present examples of sensors and devices of

34 relevance to entomology and show how deep learning tools can convert the big data streams into

35 ecological information. We discuss the challenges that lie ahead and identify four focal areas to

36 make deep learning and computer vision game changers for entomology.

37 **ABSTRACT**

38 Most animal species on Earth are insects, and recent reports suggest that their abundance is in
39 drastic decline. Although these reports come from a wide range of insect taxa and regions, the
40 evidence to assess the extent of the phenomenon is still sparse. Insect populations are challenging to
41 study and most monitoring methods are labour intensive and inefficient. Advances in computer
42 vision and deep learning provide potential new solutions to this global challenge. Cameras and
43 other sensors that can effectively, continuously, and non-invasively perform entomological
44 observations throughout diurnal and seasonal cycles. The physical appearance of specimens can
45 also be captured by automated imaging in the lab. When trained on these data, deep learning models
46 can provide estimates of insect abundance, biomass, and diversity. Further, deep learning models
47 can quantify variation in phenotypic traits, behaviour, and interactions. Here, we connect recent
48 developments in deep learning and computer vision to the urgent demand for more cost-efficient
49 monitoring of insects and other invertebrates. We present examples of sensor-based monitoring of
50 insects. We show how deep learning tools can be applied to the big data outputs to derive ecological
51 information and discuss the challenges that lie ahead for the implementation of such solutions in
52 entomology. We identify four focal areas, which will facilitate this transformation: 1) Validation of
53 image-based taxonomic identification, 2) generation of sufficient training data, 3) development of
54 public, curated reference databases, and 4) solutions to integrate deep learning and molecular tools.

55 INTRODUCTION

56 We are experiencing a mass extinction of species (1), but data on changes in species diversity and
57 abundance have substantial taxonomic, spatial, and temporal biases and gaps (2, 3). The lack of data
58 holds especially true for insects despite the fact that they represent the vast majority of animal
59 species. A major reason for these shortfalls for insects and other invertebrates is that available
60 methods to study and monitor species and their population trends are antiquated and inefficient (4).
61 Nevertheless, some recent studies have demonstrated alarming rates of insect diversity and
62 abundance loss (5-7). To further explore the extent and causes of these changes, we need efficient,
63 rigorous, and reliable methods to study and monitor insects (4, 8).

64 Data to derive insect population trends are already generated as part of ongoing
65 biomonitoring programs. However, legislative terrestrial biomonitoring, e.g. in the context of the
66 EU Habitat Directive, focuses on a very small subset of individual insect species such as rare
67 butterflies and beetles because the majority of insect taxa are too difficult or too costly to monitor
68 (9). In current legislative aquatic monitoring, benthic invertebrates are commonly used in
69 assessments of ecological status (e.g. the US Clean Water Act, the EU Water Framework Directive,
70 and the EU Marine Strategy Framework Directive). Still, the spatiotemporal and taxonomic extent
71 and resolution in ongoing biomonitoring programs is coarse and does not provide information on
72 the status of the vast majority of insect populations.

73 Molecular techniques such as DNA barcoding and metabarcoding will likely become
74 valuable tools for future insect monitoring based on field collected samples (10, 11), but at the
75 moment high-throughput methods cannot provide reliable abundance estimates (12, 13) leaving a
76 critical need for other methodological approaches. The state-of-the-art in deep learning and
77 computer vision methods and image processing has matured to the point where it can aid or even
78 replace manual observation *in situ* (14) as well as in routine laboratory sample processing tasks

79 (15). Image-based observational methods for monitoring of vertebrates using camera traps have
80 undergone rapid development in the past decade (14, 16-18). Similar approaches using cameras and
81 other sensors for investigating diversity and abundance of insects are underway (19, 20). However,
82 despite huge attention in other domains, deep learning is only very slowly beginning to be applied
83 in invertebrate monitoring and biodiversity research (21-25).

84 Deep learning models learn features of a dataset by iteratively training on example
85 data without the need for manual feature extraction (26). In this way, deep learning is qualitatively
86 different from traditional statistical approaches to prediction (27). Deep learning models specifically
87 designed for dealing with images, so called convolutional neural networks (CNNs) can extract the
88 features of various aspects of a set of images or the objects within them, and learn to differentiate
89 among them. There is great potential in automatic detection and classification of insects in video or
90 time-lapse images with trained CNNs (20). As the methods become more refined, they will bring
91 exciting new opportunities for understanding insect ecology and for monitoring (19, 28-31).

92 Here, we argue that deep learning and computer vision can be used to develop novel,
93 high throughput systems for detection, enumeration, classification, and discovery of species as well
94 as for deriving functional traits such as biomass for biomonitoring purposes. These approaches can
95 help solve long standing challenges in ecology and biodiversity research and the pressing issues in
96 insect population monitoring (32, 33). This article has three goals. First, we present sensor-based
97 solutions for observation of invertebrates *in situ* and for specimen-based research in the laboratory,
98 which due to the volume of data generated, use or could benefit from deep learning models to
99 process data. Second, we show how deep learning models can be applied to obtained data streams to
100 derive ecologically relevant information. Last, we outline and discuss four main challenges that lie
101 ahead in the implementation of such solutions for invertebrate monitoring, ecology, and biodiversity
102 research.

103

104 **SENSOR-BASED INSECT MONITORING**

105 Sensors are widely used in ecology for gathering peripheral data such as temperature, precipitation,
106 light intensity etc., but have not yet been used much for gathering data on the insects. However,
107 solutions for sensor-based monitoring of insects and other invertebrates in their natural environment
108 are emerging (34). The innovation and development is primarily driven by agricultural research to
109 predict occurrence and abundance of beneficial and pest insect species of economic importance (35-
110 37), to provide more efficient screening of natural products for invasive insect species (38), or to
111 monitor disease vectors such as mosquitos (39, 40). The most commonly used sensors are cameras,
112 radar, and microphones. Such sensor-based monitoring is likely to generate big data, which require
113 efficient solutions for extracting relevant biological information. Deep learning could be a critical
114 tool in this respect. Below, we give examples of image-based approaches to insect monitoring,
115 which we argue has the greatest potential for integration with deep learning. We also describe
116 approaches using other types of sensors, where the integration with deep learning is less well
117 developed, but still could be relevant for detecting and classifying entomological information. We
118 further describe the ongoing efforts in the digitization of natural history collections, which could
119 generate valuable reference data for training and validating deep learning models.

120

121 **Image-based solutions for *in situ* monitoring**

122 Some case studies have already used cameras and deep learning methods for detecting single
123 species, such as the pest of the fruits of olive trees *Bactrocera oleae* (41) or for more generic pest
124 detection (42). The pest detection is based on images of insects that have been trapped with either a
125 McPhail-type trap or a trap with pheromone lure and adhesive liner. The images are collected by a
126 microcomputer and transmitted to a remote server where they are analysed. Other solutions have

127 embedded a digital camera and a microprocessor that can count trapped individuals in real-time
128 using object-detection based on an optimized deep learning model (37). In both these cases, deep
129 learning networks are trained to recognize and count the number of single pest species. However,
130 there are very few examples of invertebrate biodiversity-related field studies applying deep learning
131 models (23). Early attempts used feature vectors extracted from single perspective images and
132 yielded modest accuracy for 35 classes of moths (43) or used mostly coarse taxonomic resolution
133 (44). We have recently demonstrated that our custom-built time-lapse cameras can record image
134 data from which a deep learning model could accurately estimate local spatial, diurnal, and seasonal
135 dynamics of honey bees and other flower visiting insects (45; Figure 1). Time-lapse cameras are
136 less likely to create observer bias than direct observation and data collection can extend across full
137 diurnal and even seasonal time scales. Cameras can be baited just as traditional light and pheromone
138 traps or placed over ephemeral natural resources such as flowers, fruits, dung, fungi or carrion.
139 Bjerge, *et al.* (46) propose to use an automated light trap to monitor the abundance of moths and
140 other insects attracted to light. The solution is powered by a solar panel, which allows the system to
141 be installed in remote locations (Figure 2). Ultimately, true ‘Internet of Things’ enabled hardware
142 will make it possible to implement classification algorithms directly on the camera units to provide
143 fully autonomous systems in the field to monitor insects and report detection and classification data
144 back to the user or to online portals in real time (34).

145

146 **Radar, acoustic, and other solutions for *in situ* monitoring**

147 The use of radar technology in entomology has allowed for the study of insects at scales not
148 possible with traditional methods, specifically related to both migratory and non-migratory insects
149 flying at high altitudes (47). Utilizing data from established weather radar networks can provide
150 information at the level of continents (48), while specialized radar technology such as vertical-

151 looking radars (VLRs) can provide finer grained data albeit at a local scale (49). The VLRs can give
152 estimates of biomass and body shape of the detected object, and direction of flight, speed and body
153 orientation can be extracted from the return radar signal (50). However, VLR data provide little
154 information on community structure and conclusive species identification requires aerial trapping
155 (51, 52). Harmonic scanning radars can detect insects flying at low altitudes at a range of several
156 hundred meters, but insects need to be tagged with a radar transponder and must be within line-of-
157 sight (53, 54). Collectively, the use of radar technology in entomology can provide valuable
158 information in insect monitoring, for example on the magnitude of biomass flux stemming from
159 insect migrations (55), but requires validation with conventional monitoring methods (e.g. 56).

160 Bioacoustics is a well-established scientific discipline and acoustic signals have been
161 extensively and widely used in the field of ecology, for example for detecting presence and studying
162 behavior of marine mammals (57) and for bird species identification (58). Jeliazkov, *et al.* (59) used
163 audio recordings to study population trends of Orthoptera at large spatial and temporal scales,
164 demonstrating that bioacoustic techniques have merit in entomological monitoring. Machine
165 learning methods have proven a particularly valuable tool for deciphering noisy audio recordings
166 and detecting the signals of animals. Kiskin, *et al.* (60) demonstrated the use of a CNN to detect the
167 presence of mosquitoes by identifying the acoustic signal of their wingbeats. Other studies have
168 shown that even species classification can be done using machine learning on audio data, for
169 example for birds (58), bats (61), grasshoppers (62), and bees (63). Although, it has been argued
170 that the use of pseudo-acoustic optical sensors rather than actual acoustic sensors is a more
171 promising technology because of the much improved signal-to-noise ratio in these systems, which
172 may be a particularly important point for bioacoustics in entomology (64).

173 Other systems rely on sensor technology to automate the recording of insect activity
174 or even body mass, but without actual consideration of the subsequent processing of the data with

175 deep learning methods (65, 66). In (65) they use a sensor-ring of photodiodes and infrared LEDs to
176 detect large and small sized arthropods, including pollinators and pests and achieve a 95% detection
177 accuracy for live microarthropods of three different species in the size range of 0.5 – 1.1 mm. The
178 Edapholog (66) is a low-power monitoring system for real-time detection of soil microarthropods
179 where a pitfall trap is presented. Probe and sensing is based on detection of change in infrared light
180 intensity similar to (65) and it counts the organisms falling into the trap and estimates their body
181 size. The probe is connected via radio signals to a logging devices that transmits the data to a
182 central server for real-time monitoring. Similarly, others have augmented a traditional low-cost
183 trapping methods by implementing optoelectronic sensors and wireless communication to allow for
184 real-time monitoring and reporting (35). Since, such sensors do not produce images that are
185 intuitive to validate, it could be challenging to generate sufficient, validated training data for
186 implementing deep learning models, although such models could still prove useful.

187

188 **Digitizing specimens and natural history collections**

189 There are strong efforts to digitize natural history collections for multiple reasons including the
190 benefits of deep learning applications (67). The need for and benefits of digitizing natural science
191 collections have motivated the foundation of the Distributed System of Scientific Collections
192 Research Infrastructure (DISSCo RI, www.dissco.eu). DISSCo RI strives for the digital unification
193 of all European natural science assets under common curation and access policies and practices.
194 Most existing databases include single view digitisations of pinned specimens (68), while datasets
195 of insect specimens recorded using multiple sensors, 3D models, and databases on living insect
196 specimens are only just emerging (69, 70). The latter could be particularly relevant for deep
197 learning models. There is also a valuable archive of entomological data in herbarium specimens in
198 the form of signs of herbivory (71). The standard digitization of herbarium collections has proven

199 suitable for extracting herbivory data using machine learning techniques (72). Techniques to
200 automate digitization techniques will accelerate the development of such valuable databases and
201 enables tools for identification of non-pinned specimens and live insects *in situ* (67). The
202 BIODISCOVER machine (73) is a proposal towards the automatization of creating databases of
203 liquid preserved specimens such as most field collected insects. The process consists of four
204 automatized steps: 1) bin picking of individual insects directly from bulk samples, 2) recording the
205 specimen from multiple angles using high speed imaging, 3) saving the captured data in an
206 optimized way for deep learning algorithm training and further study, and 4) sorting specimens
207 according to size, taxonomic identity or rarity for potential further molecular processing (Figure 3).
208 Digitization efforts should carefully consider how image data of specimens can be leveraged in
209 efforts to develop deep learning models for *in situ* monitoring.

210

211 **POTENTIAL DEEP LEARNING APPLICATIONS IN ENTOMOLOGY**

212 The big data collected by sensor-based insect monitoring as described above requires efficient
213 solutions for transforming the data into biologically relevant information. Preliminary results
214 suggest that deep learning offers a valuable tool in this respect and could further inspire the
215 collection of new types of data (20, 45). Deep learning software, e.g. for ecological applications, is
216 mostly constructed using open source Python libraries and frameworks such as TensorFlow, Keras,
217 PyTorch, and Scikit-learn (24) and prototype implementations are typically publicly available e.g.
218 on www.github.com. This, in turn, makes the latest advances in other fields related to object
219 detection and fine-grained classification available also for entomological research. As such, the
220 existing deep learning toolbox is already available, but will need adaptation to entomology from the
221 domains for which the tools were developed. In the following, we provide a brief description of the

222 transformative potential of deep learning related to entomological data stored in images structured
223 around four main applications.

224

225 **Detecting and tracking individuals *in situ***

226 Image-based monitoring of insect abundance and diversity could rapidly become globally
227 widespread as countries make efforts to better understand the severity of the global insect decline
228 and mitigation measures. Similarly, tracking of individual insects *in situ* even for short periods of
229 time holds exciting research potential. For example, by estimating movement speed of individual
230 insects in their natural environments and relating it to observed microclimatic variation, more
231 realistic thermal performance curves can be established and contrasted to traditional lab-derived
232 thermal performance. However, tracking insect in their natural environment is currently a highly
233 challenging task, due to e.g. the cluttered scenes and varying lighting conditions. In computer
234 vision, such tasks are termed ‘detection-based online multiple object tracking’, and work under a set
235 of assumptions (74). These assumptions include a precise initial detection (initialization) of the
236 objects to be tracked in a scene, a good ability to visually discriminate between the multiple tracked
237 objects, and smooth motion, velocity, and acceleration patterns of the tracked objects (75). The
238 small visual differences among individual insects and frequent hiding behaviour violate the above
239 assumptions. Moreover, current state-of-the-art deep learning models typically use millions of
240 learned parameters and can only run in near real-time with low-resolution video, which constrains
241 the visual discrimination of the targeted objects in the scene. Possible solutions to these challenges
242 include the use of non-linear motion models (76) and the development of compact (77) or
243 compressed (78) deep learning models.

244 If we manage to solve the task of individual tracking of insects it could open the doors
245 for a new individual-based ecology with profound impacts in such research fields as population,

246 behavioural, and thermal ecology as well as conservation biology. Moreover, considering the recent
247 development in low-cost powerful graphical processing units and dedicated artificial intelligence
248 processor suitable for autonomous and embedded systems (e.g. NVIDIA Jetson Nano, Google Coral
249 Edge TPU, and the Intel AI USB stick), it may soon become feasible to detect, track, and decode
250 behaviour of insects in real-time and report information back to the user.

251

252 **Detecting species interactions**

253 Species interactions are critical for the functioning of ecosystems, yet as they are ephemeral and
254 fast, the consequences of a disruption for ecological function is hard to quantify. High temporal
255 resolution image-based monitoring of consumers and resources can allow for a unique
256 quantification of species interactions (79). The use of cameras allows for continuous observations of
257 species and their interactions across entire growing seasons such as insects visiting flowers,
258 defoliation by herbivores, and predation events. There is an urgent need to develop methods to
259 observe and quantify species interactions efficiently and at ecologically relevant spatial and
260 temporal scales (80, 81). To detect such interactions, image recording should be collected at the
261 scales where individuals interact, i.e., by observing interacting individuals at intervals of seconds to
262 minutes, yet they should ideally extend over seasonal and/or multi-annual periods, which at the
263 moment is difficult to fulfil. Our preliminary results have demonstrated an exciting potential to
264 record plant-insect interactions using time-lapse cameras and deep learning (28 and Figure 1).

265

266 **Taxonomic identification**

267 Taxonomic identification can be approached as a deep learning classification problem. Deep
268 learning-based classification accuracies for image-based insect identification of specimens are
269 approaching the accuracy of human experts (82-84). Applications of gradient-weighted class

270 activation mapping can even visualize morphologically important features for CNN classification
271 (84). Classification accuracy is generally much lower when the insects are recorded live in their
272 natural environments (85, 86), but when class confidence is low at the species-level, it may still be
273 possible to confidently classify insects to a coarser taxonomic resolution (87). In recent years,
274 impressive results have been obtained by CNNs (88). They can classify huge image datasets, such
275 as the 1000-class ImageNet dataset at high accuracy and speed (89). With images of >10,000
276 species of plants, classification performance of CNNs is currently much lower than for botanical
277 experts (25), but promising results in distributed training of deep neural networks (90) and federated
278 learning (91, 92) suggest that improvements can be expected.

279 In most ecological communities, it is common for species to be rare. This often results
280 in highly imbalanced datasets, and the number of specimens representing the rarest species could be
281 insufficient for training neural networks (86, 87). As such, advancing the development of
282 algorithms and approaches for improved identification of rare classes is a key challenge for deep
283 learning-based taxonomic identification. Solutions to this challenge could be inspired by class
284 resampling and cost-sensitive training (93) or by multiset feature learning (94, 95). Class
285 resampling aims at balancing the classes by under-sampling the larger classes and/or over-sampling
286 the smaller classes, while cost-sensitive training assigns a higher loss for errors on the smaller
287 classes. In multiset feature learning, the larger classes are split into smaller subsets, which are
288 combined with the smaller classes to form separate training sets. These methods are all used to learn
289 features that can more robustly distinguish the smaller classes. Species identification performance
290 can vary widely, ranging from species which are correctly identified in most cases to species that
291 are generally difficult to identify (96). Typically, the amount of training data is a key element for
292 successful identification, although recent analyses of images of the approximately 65,000
293 specimens in the carabid beetle collection at the Natural History Museum London suggest that

294 imbalances in identification performance are not necessarily related to how well-represented a
295 species is in the training data (87). Further work is needed on large datasets to fully understand
296 these challenges.

297 A related challenge is formed by those species that are completely absent from the
298 reference database on which the deep learning models are trained. Detecting such species requires
299 techniques developed for multiple-class novelty/anomaly detection or open set/world recognition
300 (97, 98). A recent survey introduces various open set recognition methods with the two main
301 approaches being discriminative and generative (99). Discriminative models are based on traditional
302 machine learning techniques or deep neural networks with some additional mechanism to detect
303 outliers, while the main idea of generative models is to generate either positive or negative samples
304 for training. However, the current methods are typically applied on relatively small datasets and do
305 not scale well with the number of classes (99). Insect datasets typically have a high number of
306 classes and a very fine-grained distribution, where the phenotypic differences between species may
307 be minute while intra-species differences may be large. Such datasets are especially challenging for
308 open set recognition methods. While it will be extremely difficult to overcome this challenge for all
309 species using only phenotype based identification, combining image-based deep learning and DNA
310 barcoding techniques may help to solve the problem.

311

312 **Estimating biomass from bulk samples**

313 Deep learning models can potentially predict biomass of bulk insect samples in a lab setting.
314 Legislative aquatic monitoring efforts in the United States and Europe require information about the
315 abundance or biomass of individual taxa from bulk invertebrate samples. Using the
316 BIODISCOVER machine, Ärje, *et al.* (73) were able to estimate biomass variation of individual
317 specimens of Diptera species without destroying specimens. This was achieved from geometric

318 features of the specimen such as the mean area from multiple images recorded by the
319 BIODISCOVER machine and statistically relating such values to subsequently obtained dry mass
320 from the same specimens. To validate such approaches, it is necessary to have accurate information
321 about the dry mass of a large selection of taxa. In the future, deep learning models may provide
322 even more accurate estimates of biomass. Obtaining specimen-specific biomass information non-
323 destructively from bulk samples is a high priority in routine insect monitoring, since it will enable
324 more extensive insights into insect population and community dynamics and provide better
325 information for environmental management.

326

327 **FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

328 To unlock the full potential of deep learning methods for insect ecology and monitoring, four main
329 challenges need to be addressed with highest priority. We describe each of these below.

330

331 **Validating image-based taxonomic identification**

332 Validation of the detection and identification of species recorded with cameras in the field pose a
333 critical challenge for implementing deep learning tools in entomology. Often it will not be possible
334 to conclusively identify insects from images and validation of image-based species classification
335 should be done using alternative, complimentary techniques. We suggest four approaches to this
336 validation: 1) Obtaining local knowledge about the identity and relative abundance of candidate
337 species, 2) catching and manually identifying insects in the vicinity of a camera trap, 3) identifying
338 insects by environmental DNA analysis of insect DNA traces left e.g. on flowers (100), or 4) by
339 directly observing and catching insects visible to the camera. The first three approaches are indirect
340 and each come with their separate problems such as the difference in trapping efficiency of a time-
341 lapse camera trap and e.g. a pitfall trap placed to capture the same insects. However, the subsequent

342 identification of specimens from pitfall trapping can serve as validation of image-based results and
343 can further help in production of training data for optimizing deep learning models (e.g. by placing
344 specimens back under the camera). DNA techniques be able to validate image-based identification
345 since DNA can give accurate information on species identity (11, 100, 101).

346 For specific purposes, validation of insects can be done through interfaces with online
347 portals and by involving citizen science. With integrated deep learning algorithms, online portals
348 provide instant candidate species when users upload pictures of observed insect species. The most
349 prominent examples of such portals of relevance to insects are the smartphone apps connected to
350 sites such as www.iNaturalist.org and www.observation.org. Another way of using deep learning
351 models to generate data on insect occurrence in their natural environment is by involving the public
352 in the annotation and quality control of images of insects uploaded to citizen science web portals
353 such as www.zooniverse.org (102).

354

355 **Generating training data**

356 One of the main challenges with deep learning is the need for large amounts of training data, which
357 is slow, difficult, and expensive to collect and label. Deep learning models typically require
358 hundreds of training instances of a given species to learn to detect species occurrences against the
359 background (86). In a laboratory setting, the collection of data can be eased by automated imaging
360 devices, such as BIODISCOVER described above, which allow imaging large amounts of insects
361 under fixed settings. The imaging of species *in situ* should be done in a wide range of conditions
362 (e.g., background, time of day, and season) to avoid that the model learns a false connection
363 between the species and the background, with resulting lower ability of the model to detect the
364 species against another background. Approaches to alleviate the challenge of moving from one
365 environment to another include multi-task learning (103), style transfer (104), image generation

366 (105), or domain adaptation (106). Multi-task learning aims to concurrently learn multiple different
367 tasks (e.g., segmentation, classification, detection) by sharing information leading to better data
368 representations and ultimately better results. Style transfer methods try to impose properties
369 appearing in one set of data to new data. Image generation can be used to create synthetic training
370 images with, for example, varying backgrounds. Domain adaptation aims at tuning the parameters
371 of a deep learning model trained on data following one distribution (source domain) to adapt so that
372 they can provide high performance on new data following another distribution (target domain).

373 The motion detection sensors in wildlife cameras are typically not triggered by insects
374 and species typically only occur in a small fraction of time-lapse images. A key challenge is
375 therefore to detect insects and filter out blank images from images with species of interest (102,
376 107). When it is difficult to obtain sufficient samples of rare insects, Zhong, *et al.* (108) proposed to
377 use deep learning only to detect all species of flying insects as a single class. Subsequently, the fine-
378 grained species classification can be based on manual feature extraction and support vector
379 machines, which is a machine learning technique that requires less training data and solves the
380 problem of insufficient training data.

381 The issue of scarce training data can also be alleviated with new data synthesis. Data
382 synthesis could be used specifically to augment the training set by creating artificial images of
383 segmented individual insects that are placed randomly in scenes with different backgrounds (109).
384 A promising alternative is to use deep learning models for generating artificial images belonging to
385 the class of interest. The most widely approach to date is based on generative adversarial networks
386 (110) and has shown astonishing performance results in computer vision problems in general, as
387 well as in ecological problems (111).

388

389 **Building reference databases**

390 Publicly available reference databases are critical for adapting deep learning tools to entomological
391 research. Initiatives like DISSCO RI and IDigBio (<https://www.idigbio.org/>) are important for
392 enabling the use of museum collections. However, to enable deep learning-based identification,
393 individual open datasets from entomological research and monitoring are also needed (e.g. 85, 96,
394 112). The collation of such research datasets will require dedicated projects as well as large
395 coordinated efforts that drive the open-access and reuse of research data such as the European Open
396 Science Cloud and the Research Data Alliance. Building a large insect reference dataset is laborious
397 and, therefore, it is important to maximize the benefits. To do so, non-collection datasets should
398 also use common approaches and hardware and abide to best practices in metadata and data
399 management (113-115). Further, dataset collectors and deep learning model developers should work
400 closely together and make data accessible. All the possible metadata, such as camera settings and
401 hardware, sampling location, date, and time of day, should be saved for future analysis. Similarly,
402 characteristics of the specimen, such as species identity, biomass, sex, age class, and possibly
403 derived information like dry weight should be recorded if such information exist. In particular,
404 correct labelling of species in images is critical. Using multiple experts and molecular information
405 about species identity to verify the labeling or performing subsequent validity checks through DNA
406 barcoding will improve the data quality and the performance of the deep learning models. This can
407 be done, for instance, by manually verifying the quality and labeling of images that are repeatedly
408 misclassified by the machine learning methods. Standardized imaging devices such as the
409 BIODISCOVER machine could also play a key role in building reference databases from
410 monitoring programs (73). Training classifiers with species that are currently not encountered in a
411 certain region but can possibly spread there later will naturally help to detect such changes when
412 they occur. Integration of such reference databases with field monitoring methods forms an

413 important future challenge. As a starting point, we provide a list of open access entomological
414 image databases (SI Appendix).

415

416 **Integration of deep learning and DNA-based tools**

417 For processing samples in the lab, molecular methods have gained increasing attention over the past
418 decade, but there are still critical challenges which remain unresolved: specimens are typically
419 destroyed, abundance cannot be accurately estimated, and key specimens cannot be identified in
420 bulk samples. Nevertheless, DNA barcoding is now an established, powerful method to reliably
421 assess biodiversity also in entomology (11). For insects, this works by sequencing a short fragment
422 of the mitochondrial cytochrome-c-oxidase I subunit gene (COI) and comparing the DNA sequence
423 to an available reference database (116). Even undescribed and morphologically cryptic species can
424 be distinguished with this approach (117), which is unlikely to be possible with deep learning. This
425 is of great importance as morphologically similar species can have distinct ecological preferences
426 (118) and thus distinguishing them unambiguously is important for monitoring, ecosystem
427 assessment and conservation biology. However, mass-sequencing based molecular methods cannot
428 provide precise abundance or biomass estimates and assign sequences to individual specimens (12).
429 Therefore, an unparalleled strength lies in combining both image-recognition and DNA
430 metabarcoding approaches: i) When building reference collections for training models for insect
431 classification, species identity can be molecularly verified and potential cryptic species can be
432 separated by the DNA barcode. ii) After image-based species identification of a whole bulk sample,
433 all specimens can be processed via DNA metabarcoding to assess taxonomic resolution at the
434 highest level. A further obvious advantage of linking computer vision and deep learning to DNA is
435 the fact that even in the absence of formal species descriptions, DNA tools can generate distinctly
436 referenced taxonomic assignments via so-called “Barcode-Index-Numbers” (BINs) (119). These

437 BINs provide referenced biodiversity units using the taxonomic backbone of the Barcode of Life
438 Data Systems (<https://boldsystems.org>) and represent a much greater diversity of even yet
439 undescribed species. For instance, it is typically clear that a new species belongs to the genus
440 *Astraptes* in the butterfly family Hesperidae, but also that it represents a genetically distinct, new
441 entity (120). These units can also be directly used as part of ecosystem status assessment despite not
442 yet having Linnean names. BINs can be used for model training. Recent studies convincingly show
443 that with this more holistic approach, which includes cryptic and undescribed species, the
444 predictions of environmental status as required by several legislative monitoring programs actually
445 improve substantially (e.g. 121). For cases of cryptic species with great relevance e.g. for
446 conservation biology it is also possible to individually process specimens of a cryptic species
447 complex after automated image-based assignment to further validate identity and frequency of
448 these. Combining deep learning with DNA-based approaches could deliver detailed trait
449 information, biomass, and abundance with the best possible taxonomic resolution.

450

451 **CONCLUSION**

452 Deep learning is currently influencing a wide range of scientific disciplines (88), but has only just
453 begun to benefit entomology. While there is a vast potential for deep learning to transform insect
454 ecology and monitoring, applying deep learning to entomological research questions brings new
455 technical challenges. The complexity of deep learning models and the challenges of entomological
456 data require substantial investment in interdisciplinary efforts to unleash the potential of deep
457 learning in entomology. However, these challenges also represent ample potential for cross-
458 fertilization among the biological and computer sciences. The benefit to entomology is not only
459 more data, but also novel kinds of data. As the deep learning tools become widely available and
460 intuitive to use, they can transform field entomology by providing information that is currently

461 intractable to record by human observations (18, 33, 122). Consequently, there is a bright future for
462 entomology, with new research niches opening up and access to unforeseen scales and resolution of
463 data, vital for biodiversity assessments.

464 The shift towards automated methods may raise concerns about the future for
465 taxonomists, much like the debate concerned with developments in molecular species identification
466 (123, 124). We emphasize that the expertise of taxonomists is at the heart of and critical to these
467 developments. Initially, automated techniques will be used in the most routine-like tasks, which in
468 turn will allow the taxonomic experts to dedicate their focus on the specimens requiring more in
469 depth studies as well as the plethora of new species that need to be described and studied. To enable
470 this, we need to consider approaches that can pinpoint samples for human expert inspection in a
471 meaningful way, e.g., based on neural network classification confidences (82) or additional rare
472 species detectors (125). As deep learning becomes more closely integrated in entomological
473 research, the vision of real-time detection, tracking, and decoding of behaviour of insects could be
474 realized for a transformation of insect ecology and monitoring. In turn, efficient tracking of insect
475 biodiversity trends will aid the design of effective measures to counteract or revert biodiversity loss.

476

477 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

478 David Wagner is gratefully thanked for convening the session “Insect declines in the
479 Anthropocene” at the Entomological Society of America annual meeting 2019 in St. Louis, USA,
480 which brought the group of contributors to the special feature together. TTH acknowledges funding
481 from the Villum Foundation (grant 17523) and the Independent Research Fund Denmark (grant
482 8021-00423B), Kristian Meissner acknowledges funding from the Nordic Council of Ministers
483 (project 18103, SCANDNAnet). Jenni Raitoharju acknowledges funding from Academy of Finland
484 (project 324475).

485 REFERENCES

- 486 1. G. Ceballos, P. R. Ehrlich, R. Dirzo, Biological annihilation via the ongoing sixth mass
487 extinction signaled by vertebrate population losses and declines. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*
488 **114**, E6089-E6096 (2017).
- 489 2. M. Dornelas *et al.*, BioTIME: A database of biodiversity time series for the Anthropocene.
490 *Global Ecol. Biogeogr.* **27**, 760-786 (2018).
- 491 3. S. A. Blowes *et al.*, The geography of biodiversity change in marine and terrestrial
492 assemblages. *Science* **366**, 339-345 (2019).
- 493 4. G. A. Montgomery *et al.*, Is the insect apocalypse upon us? How to find out. *Biol. Conserv.*
494 **241**, 108327 (2020).
- 495 5. C. A. Hallmann *et al.*, More than 75 percent decline over 27 years in total flying insect
496 biomass in protected areas. *Plos One* **12**, e0185809 (2017).
- 497 6. S. Seibold *et al.*, Arthropod decline in grasslands and forests is associated with landscape-
498 level drivers. *Nature* **574**, 671-674 (2019).
- 499 7. R. van Klink *et al.*, Meta-analysis reveals declines in terrestrial but increases in freshwater
500 insect abundances. *Science* **368**, 417-420 (2020).
- 501 8. D. L. Wagner, Insect declines in the Anthropocene. *Annu. Rev. Entomol.* **65**, 457-480
502 (2020).
- 503 9. S. Pawar, Taxonomic chauvinism and the methodologically challenged. *Bioscience* **53**, 861-
504 864 (2003).
- 505 10. T. W. A. Braukmann *et al.*, Metabarcoding a diverse arthropod mock community. *Mol Ecol*
506 *Resour* **19**, 711-727 (2019).
- 507 11. V. Elbrecht *et al.*, Validation of COI metabarcoding primers for terrestrial arthropods. *PeerJ*
508 **7** (2019).
- 509 12. V. Elbrecht, F. Leese, Can DNA-based ecosystem assessments quantify species abundance?
510 testing primer bias and biomass-sequence relationships with an innovative metabarcoding
511 protocol. *Plos One* **10** (2015).
- 512 13. H. Krehenwinkel *et al.*, Estimating and mitigating amplification bias in qualitative and
513 quantitative arthropod metabarcoding. *Scientific Reports* **7** (2017).
- 514 14. H. Yousif, J. Yuan, R. Kays, Z. He, Animal Scanner: Software for classifying humans,
515 animals, and empty frames in camera trap images. *Ecol Evol* **9**, 1578-1589 (2019).
- 516 15. J. Ärje *et al.*, Human experts vs. machines in taxa recognition. *Signal Processing: Image*
517 *Communication* **87**, 115917 (2020).
- 518 16. M. S. Norouzzadeh *et al.*, Automatically identifying, counting, and describing wild animals
519 in camera-trap images with deep learning. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **115**, E5716-E5725
520 (2018).
- 521 17. N. MacLeod, M. Benfield, P. Culverhouse, Time to automate identification. *Nature* **467**,
522 154-155 (2010).
- 523 18. R. Steenweg *et al.*, Scaling-up camera traps: monitoring the planet's biodiversity with
524 networks of remote sensors. *Front. Ecol. Environ.* **15**, 26-34 (2017).
- 525 19. R. Steen, Diel activity, frequency and visit duration of pollinators in focal plants: in situ
526 automatic camera monitoring and data processing. *Methods Ecol Evol* **8**, 203-213 (2017).
- 527 20. L. Pegoraro, O. Hidalgo, I. J. Leitch, J. Pellicer, S. E. Barlow, Automated video monitoring
528 of insect pollinators in the field. *Emerging Topics in Life Sciences* 10.1042/etls20190074
529 (2020).
- 530 21. J. Wäldchen, P. Mäder, Machine learning for image based species identification. *Methods*
531 *Ecol Evol* **9**, 2216-2225 (2018).

- 532 22. N. Piechaud, C. Hunt, P. F. Culverhouse, N. L. Foster, K. L. Howell, Automated
533 identification of benthic epifauna with computer vision. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* **615**, 15-30
534 (2019).
- 535 23. B. G. Weinstein, A computer vision for animal ecology. *J. Anim. Ecol.* **87**, 533-545 (2018).
- 536 24. S. Christin, É. Hervet, N. Lecomte, Applications for deep learning in ecology. *Methods Ecol
537 Evol* **10**, 1632-1644 (2019).
- 538 25. A. Joly *et al.* (2019) Overview of LifeCLEF 2019: identification of amazonian plants, South
539 & North American birds, and niche prediction. (Springer International Publishing, Cham),
540 pp 387-401.
- 541 26. D. Xia, P. Chen, B. Wang, J. Zhang, C. Xie, Insect detection and classification based on an
542 improved convolutional neural network. *Sensors* **18**, 4169 (2018).
- 543 27. D. Bzdok, N. Altman, M. Krzywinski, Statistics versus machine learning. *Nat. Methods* **15**,
544 233-234 (2018).
- 545 28. D. T. Tran, T. T. Høye, M. Gabbouj, A. Iosifidis, IEEE, "Automatic flower and visitor
546 detection system" in 2018 26th European Signal Processing Conference (Eusipco). (2018),
547 10.23919/EUSIPCO.2018.8553494, pp. 405-409.
- 548 29. R. A. Collett, D. O. Fisher, Time-lapse camera trapping as an alternative to pitfall trapping
549 for estimating activity of leaf litter arthropods. *Ecol Evol* **7**, 7527-7533 (2017).
- 550 30. I. Ruczyński, Z. Hafat, M. Zegarek, T. Borowik, D. K. N. Dechmann, Camera transects as a
551 method to monitor high temporal and spatial ephemerality of flying nocturnal insects.
552 *Methods Ecol Evol* **11**, 294-302 (2020).
- 553 31. S. E. Barlow, M. A. O'Neill, Technological advances in field studies of pollinator ecology
554 and the future of e-ecology. *Current Opinion in Insect Science* **38**, 15-25 (2020).
- 555 32. P. Cardoso, T. L. Erwin, P. A. V. Borges, T. R. New, The seven impediments in invertebrate
556 conservation and how to overcome them. *Biol. Conserv.* **144**, 2647-2655 (2011).
- 557 33. J. Hortal *et al.*, Seven shortfalls that beset large-scale knowledge of biodiversity. *Annual
558 Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics* **46**, 523-549 (2015).
- 559 34. I. Potamitis, P. Eliopoulos, I. Rigakis, Automated remote insect surveillance at a global
560 scale and the internet of things. *Robotics* **6** (2017).
- 561 35. I. Potamitis, I. Rigakis, N. Vidakis, M. Petousis, M. Weber, Affordable bimodal optical
562 sensors to spread the use of automated insect monitoring. *Journal of Sensors*, Article ID:
563 3949415 (2018).
- 564 36. D. J. A. Rustia, J.-J. Chao, J.-Y. Chung, T.-T. Lin (2019) An online unsupervised deep
565 learning approach for an automated pest insect monitoring system. in *2019 ASABE Annual
566 International Meeting* (ASABE, St. Joseph, MI), p 1.
- 567 37. Y. Sun *et al.*, Automatic in-trap pest detection using deep learning for pheromone-based
568 *Dendroctonus valens* monitoring. *Biosys. Eng.* **176**, 140-150 (2018).
- 569 38. T. M. Poland, D. Rassati, Improved biosecurity surveillance of non-native forest insects: a
570 review of current methods. *J. Pest Sci.* **92**, 37-49 (2019).
- 571 39. D. A. A. Santos, L. E. Teixeira, A. M. Alberti, V. Furtado, J. J. P. C. Rodrigues (2018)
572 Sensitivity and noise evaluation of an optoelectronic sensor for mosquitoes monitoring. in
573 *2018 3rd International Conference on Smart and Sustainable Technologies (SpliTech)*, pp
574 1-5.
- 575 40. J. Park, D. I. Kim, B. Choi, W. Kang, H. W. Kwon, Classification and morphological
576 analysis of vector mosquitoes using deep convolutional neural networks. *Scientific Reports*
577 **10**, 1012 (2020).
- 578 41. R. Kalamatianos, I. Karydis, D. Doukakis, M. Avlonitis, DIRT: The dacus image
579 recognition toolkit. *Journal of Imaging* **4**, 129 (2018).

- 580 42. W. Ding, G. Taylor, Automatic moth detection from trap images for pest management.
581 *Comput. Electron. Agric.* **123**, 17-28 (2016).
- 582 43. M. Mayo, A. T. Watson, Automatic species identification of live moths. *Knowledge-Based*
583 *Systems* **20**, 195-202 (2007).
- 584 44. J. Wang, C. Lin, L. Ji, A. Liang, A new automatic identification system of insect images at
585 the order level. *Knowledge-Based Systems* **33**, 102-110 (2012).
- 586 45. T. T. Høye, H. M. R. Mann, K. Bjerge, Camera-based monitoring of insects on green roofs
587 [in Danish], Aarhus University, DCE – National Centre for Environment and Energy, pp.
588 18, Scientific report nr. 371 (2020).
- 589 46. K. Bjerge, M. V. Sepstrup, J. B. Nielsen, F. Helsing, T. T. Høye, A light trap and computer
590 vision system to detect and classify live moths (Lepidoptera) using tracking and deep
591 learning. *bioRxiv* 10.1101/2020.03.18.996447, 2020.2003.2018.996447 (2020).
- 592 47. J. W. Chapman, V. A. Drake, D. R. Reynolds, Recent insights from radar studies of insect
593 flight. *Annu. Rev. Entomol.* **56**, 337-356 (2011).
- 594 48. O. Hueppop *et al.*, Perspectives and challenges for the use of radar in biological
595 conservation. *Ecography* **42**, 912-930 (2019).
- 596 49. K. R. Wotton *et al.*, Mass seasonal migrations of hoverflies provide extensive pollination
597 and crop protection services. *Curr. Biol.* **29**, 2167-+ (2019).
- 598 50. J. W. Chapman, A. D. Smith, I. P. Woiwod, D. R. Reynolds, J. R. Riley, Development of
599 vertical-looking radar technology for monitoring insect migration. *Comput. Electron. Agric.*
600 **35**, 95-110 (2002).
- 601 51. J. W. Chapman, D. R. Reynolds, A. D. Smith, Migratory and foraging movements in
602 beneficial insects: a review of radar monitoring and tracking methods. *Int. J. Pest Manage.*
603 **50**, 225-232 (2004).
- 604 52. J. W. Chapman *et al.*, High-altitude migration of the diamondback moth *Plutella xylostella*
605 to the UK: a study using radar, aerial netting, and ground trapping. *Ecol. Entomol.* **27**, 641-
606 650 (2002).
- 607 53. W. D. Kissling, D. E. Pattemore, M. Hagen, Challenges and prospects in the telemetry of
608 insects. *Biological Reviews* **89**, 511-530 (2014).
- 609 54. R. Maggiora, M. Saccani, D. Milanese, M. Porporato, An innovative harmonic radar to
610 track flying insects: the case of *Vespa velutina*. *Scientific Reports* **9**, 11964 (2019).
- 611 55. G. Hu *et al.*, Mass seasonal bioflows of high-flying insect migrants. *Science* **354**, 1584-1587
612 (2016).
- 613 56. P. M. Stepanian *et al.*, Declines in an abundant aquatic insect, the burrowing mayfly, across
614 major North American waterways. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **117**, 2987-2992 (2020).
- 615 57. A. K. Stimpert, W. W. L. Au, S. E. Parks, T. Hurst, D. N. Wiley, Common humpback whale
616 (*Megaptera novaeangliae*) sound types for passive acoustic monitoring. *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.*
617 **129**, 476-482 (2011).
- 618 58. J. Salamon, J. P. Bellol, A. Farnsworth, S. Kelling, Fusing shallow and deep learning for
619 bioacoustic bird species classification. *2017 Ieee International Conference on Acoustics,*
620 *Speech and Signal Processing (Icassp)*, 141-145 (2017).
- 621 59. A. Jeliakov *et al.*, Large-scale semi-automated acoustic monitoring allows to detect
622 temporal decline of bush-crickets. *Global Ecology and Conservation* **6**, 208-218 (2016).
- 623 60. I. Kiskin *et al.*, Bioacoustic detection with wavelet-conditioned convolutional neural
624 networks. *Neural Computing & Applications* **32**, 915-927 (2020).
- 625 61. O. Mac Aodha *et al.*, Bat detective - deep learning tools for bat acoustic signal detection.
626 *PLoS Comp. Biol.* **14** (2018).

- 627 62. E. D. Chesmore, E. Ohya, Automated identification of field-recorded songs of four British
628 grasshoppers using bioacoustic signal recognition. *Bull. Entomol. Res.* **94**, 319-330 (2004).
- 629 63. S. Kawakita, K. Ichikawa, Automated classification of bees and hornet using acoustic
630 analysis of their flight sounds. *Apidologie* **50**, 71-79 (2019).
- 631 64. Y. P. Chen, A. Why, G. Batista, A. Mafra-Neto, E. Keogh, Flying insect classification with
632 inexpensive sensors. *J. Insect Behav.* **27**, 657-677 (2014).
- 633 65. E. Balla *et al.*, An opto-electronic sensor-ring to detect arthropods of significantly different
634 body sizes. *Sensors* **20**, 982 (2020).
- 635 66. M. Dombos *et al.*, EDAPHOLOG monitoring system: automatic, real-time detection of soil
636 microarthropods. *Methods Ecol Evol* **8**, 313-321 (2017).
- 637 67. B. P. Hedrick *et al.*, Digitization and the future of natural history collections. *Bioscience* **70**,
638 243-251 (2020).
- 639 68. V. Blagoderov, I. J. Kitching, L. Livermore, T. J. Simonsen, V. S. Smith, No specimen left
640 behind: industrial scale digitization of natural history collections. *Zookeys*
641 10.3897/zookeys.209.3178, 133-146 (2012).
- 642 69. B. Ströbel, S. Schmelzle, N. Blüthgen, M. Heethoff, An automated device for the
643 digitization and 3D modelling of insects, combining extended-depth-of-field and all-side
644 multi-view imaging. *ZooKeys* **759** (2018).
- 645 70. A. E. Z. Short, T. Dikow, C. S. Moreau, Entomological collections in the age of big data.
646 *Annu. Rev. Entomol.* **63**, 513-530 (2018).
- 647 71. E. K. Meineke, T. J. Davies, Museum specimens provide novel insights into changing plant-
648 herbivore interactions. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological*
649 *Sciences* **374**, 20170393 (2019).
- 650 72. E. K. Meineke, C. Tomasi, S. Yuan, K. M. Pryer, Applying machine learning to investigate
651 long-term insect-plant interactions preserved on digitized herbarium specimens.
652 *Applications in Plant Sciences* **8**, e11369 (2020).
- 653 73. J. Ärje *et al.*, Automatic image-based identification and biomass estimation of invertebrates.
654 *Methods Ecol Evol* 10.1111/2041-210X.13428 (2020).
- 655 74. Q. Wang, L. Zhang, L. Bertinetto, W. Hu, P. H. S. Torr (2019) Fast online object tracking
656 and segmentation: a unifying approach. in *IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and*
657 *Pattern Recognition*.
- 658 75. W. Luo, X. Zhao, T.-K. Kim, Multiple object tracking: a review. *ArXiv abs/1409.7618*
659 (2014).
- 660 76. B. Yang, R. Nevatia, Multi-target tracking by online learning of non-linear motion patterns
661 and robust appearance models. *2012 Ieee Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern*
662 *Recognition (Cvpr)*, 1918-1925 (2012).
- 663 77. D. T. Tran, S. Kiranyaz, M. Gabbouj, A. Iosifidis, Heterogeneous multilayer generalized
664 operational perceptron. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems*
665 10.1109/TNNLS.2019.2914082, 1-15 (2019).
- 666 78. D. T. Tran, A. Iosifidis, M. Gabbouj, Improving efficiency in convolutional neural networks
667 with multilinear filters. *Neural Networks* **105**, 328-339 (2018).
- 668 79. S. Hamel *et al.*, Towards good practice guidance in using camera-traps in ecology: influence
669 of sampling design on validity of ecological inferences. *Methods Ecol Evol* **4**, 105-113
670 (2013).
- 671 80. L. Estes *et al.*, The spatial and temporal domains of modern ecology. *Nature Ecology &*
672 *Evolution* **2**, 819-826 (2018).
- 673 81. A. Valiente-Banuet *et al.*, Beyond species loss: the extinction of ecological interactions in a
674 changing world. *Funct. Ecol.* **29**, 299-307 (2015).

- 675 82. J. Raitoharju, K. Meissner (2019) On confidences and their use in (semi-)automatic multi-
676 image taxa identification. in *2019 IEEE Symposium Series on Computational Intelligence*
677 (*SSCI*), pp 1338-1343.
- 678 83. M. Valan, K. Makonyi, A. Maki, D. Vondráček, F. Ronquist, Automated taxonomic
679 identification of insects with expert-level accuracy using effective feature transfer from
680 convolutional networks. *Syst. Biol.* **68**, 876-895 (2019).
- 681 84. D. Milošević *et al.*, Application of deep learning in aquatic bioassessment: Towards
682 automated identification of non-biting midges. *Sci. Total Environ.* **711**, 135160 (2020).
- 683 85. X. Wu, C. Zhan, Y. Lai, M. Cheng, J. Yang (2019) IP102: a large-scale benchmark dataset
684 for insect pest recognition. in *2019 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern*
685 *Recognition (CVPR)*, pp 8779-8788.
- 686 86. G. V. Horn *et al.*, The iNaturalist challenge 2017 dataset. *ArXiv* **abs/1707.06642** (2017).
- 687 87. O. L. P. Hansen *et al.*, Species-level image classification with convolutional neural network
688 enables insect identification from habitus images. *Ecol Evol* **10**, 737-747 (2020).
- 689 88. Y. LeCun, Y. Bengio, G. Hinton, Deep learning. *Nature* **521**, 436 (2015).
- 690 89. K. He, X. Zhang, S. Ren, J. Sun (2015) Delving deep into rectifiers: surpassing human-level
691 performance on ImageNet classification. in *2015 IEEE International Conference on*
692 *Computer Vision (ICCV)*, pp 1026-1034.
- 693 90. J. Dean *et al.* (2012) Large scale distributed deep networks. in *Proceedings of the 25th*
694 *International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems - Volume 1* (Curran
695 Associates Inc., Lake Tahoe, Nevada), pp 1223–1231.
- 696 91. H. B. McMahan, E. Moore, D. Ramage, S. Hampson, B. A. y. Arcas (2016)
697 Communication-efficient learning of deep networks from decentralized data. in *Proceedings*
698 *of the 20th International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*.
- 699 92. K. Bonawitz *et al.*, Towards federated learning at scale: system design. *ArXiv*
700 **abs/1902.01046** (2019).
- 701 93. C. Huang, Y. N. Li, C. C. Loy, X. O. Tang, Learning deep representation for imbalanced
702 classification. *2016 Ieee Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (Cvpr)*
703 10.1109/Cvpr.2016.580, 5375-5384 (2016).
- 704 94. F. Wu, X. Y. Jing, S. G. Shan, W. M. Zuo, J. Y. Yang, Multiset feature learning for highly
705 imbalanced data classification. *Thirty-First Aaai Conference on Artificial Intelligence*,
706 1583-1589 (2017).
- 707 95. X. Jing *et al.*, Multiset feature learning for highly imbalanced data classification. *IEEE*
708 *Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence* 10.1109/TPAMI.2019.2929166,
709 1-1 (2019).
- 710 96. J. Raitoharju *et al.*, Benchmark database for fine-grained image classification of benthic
711 macroinvertebrates. *Image Vision Comput.* **78**, 73-83 (2018).
- 712 97. M. Turkoz, S. Kim, Y. Son, M. K. Jeong, E. A. Elsayed, Generalized support vector data
713 description for anomaly detection. *Pattern Recognition* **100**, 107119 (2020).
- 714 98. P. Perera, V. M. Patel (2019) Deep transfer learning for multiple class novelty detection. in
715 *2019 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR)*, pp
716 11536-11544.
- 717 99. C. Geng, S. Huang, S. Chen, Recent advances in open set recognition: a survey. *IEEE*
718 *Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence* 10.1109/TPAMI.2020.2981604,
719 1-1 (2020).
- 720 100. P. F. Thomsen, E. E. Sigsgaard, Environmental DNA metabarcoding of wild flowers reveals
721 diverse communities of terrestrial arthropods. *Ecol Evol* **9**, 1665-1679 (2019).

- 722 101. M. F. Geiger *et al.*, Testing the global malaise trap program – how well does the current
723 barcode reference library identify flying insects in Germany? *Biodiversity Data Journal* **4**
724 (2016).
- 725 102. M. Willi *et al.*, Identifying animal species in camera trap images using deep learning and
726 citizen science. *Methods Ecol Evol* **10**, 80-91 (2019).
- 727 103. A. Kendall, Y. Gal, R. Cipolla, Multi-task learning using uncertainty to weigh losses for
728 scene geometry and semantics. *2018 Ieee/Cvf Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern*
729 *Recognition (Cvpr)* 10.1109/Cvpr.2018.00781, 7482-7491 (2018).
- 730 104. L. A. Gatys, A. S. Ecker, M. Bethge, Image style transfer using convolutional neural
731 networks. *2016 Ieee Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (Cvpr)*
732 10.1109/Cvpr.2016.265, 2414-2423 (2016).
- 733 105. J. M. Bao, D. Chen, F. Wen, H. Q. Li, G. Hua, CVAE-GAN: fine-grained image generation
734 through asymmetric training. *2017 Ieee International Conference on Computer Vision (Iccv)*
735 10.1109/Iccv.2017.299, 2764-2773 (2017).
- 736 106. E. Tzeng, J. Hoffman, K. Saenko, T. Darrell, Adversarial discriminative domain adaptation.
737 *30th Ieee Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (Cvpr 2017)*
738 10.1109/Cvpr.2017.316, 2962-2971 (2017).
- 739 107. P. Glover-Kapfer, C. A. Soto-Navarro, O. R. Wearn, Camera-trapping version 3.0: current
740 constraints and future priorities for development. *Remote Sensing in Ecology and*
741 *Conservation* **5**, 209-223 (2019).
- 742 108. Y. Zhong, J. Gao, Q. Lei, Y. Zhou, A vision-based counting and recognition system for
743 flying insects in intelligent agriculture. *Sensors* **18**, 1489 (2018).
- 744 109. H. Inoue, Data augmentation by pairing samples for images classification. *ArXiv*
745 **abs/1801.02929** (2018).
- 746 110. I. J. Goodfellow *et al.*, Generative adversarial networks. *ArXiv* **abs/1406.2661** (2014).
- 747 111. C.-Y. Lu, D. J. Arcega Rustia, T.-T. Lin, Generative adversarial network based image
748 augmentation for insect pest classification enhancement. *IFAC-PapersOnLine* **52**, 1-5
749 (2019).
- 750 112. M. Martineau *et al.*, A survey on image-based insect classification. *Pattern Recognition* **65**,
751 273-284 (2017).
- 752 113. T. Forrester *et al.*, An open standard for camera trap data. *Biodiversity Data Journal* **4**
753 (2016).
- 754 114. L. Scotson *et al.*, Best practices and software for the management and sharing of camera trap
755 data for small and large scales studies. *Remote Sensing in Ecology and Conservation* **3**, 158-
756 172 (2017).
- 757 115. A. Nieva de la Hidalga, M. van Walsun, P. Rosin, X. Sun, A. Wijers, Quality management
758 methodologies for digitisation operations, pp. 89, 10.5281/zenodo.3469521 (2019).
- 759 116. S. Ratnasingham, P. D. N. Hebert, BOLD: the barcode of life data system
760 (www.barcodinglife.org). *Mol. Ecol. Notes* **7**, 355-364 (2007).
- 761 117. M. Hajibabaei, D. H. Janzen, J. M. Burns, W. Hallwachs, P. D. N. Hebert, DNA barcodes
762 distinguish species of tropical Lepidoptera. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **103**, 968-971 (2006).
- 763 118. J. N. Macher *et al.*, Multiple-stressor effects on stream invertebrates: DNA barcoding
764 reveals contrasting responses of cryptic mayfly species. *Ecol. Indicators* **61**, 159-169
765 (2016).
- 766 119. S. Ratnasingham, P. D. N. Hebert, A DNA-based registry for all animal species: the barcode
767 index number (BIN) system. *PLOS ONE* **8**, e66213 (2013).

- 768 120. P. D. N. Hebert, E. H. Penton, J. M. Burns, D. H. Janzen, W. Hallwachs, Ten species in one:
769 DNA barcoding reveals cryptic species in the neotropical skipper butterfly *Astraptes*
770 *fulgerator*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **101**, 14812-14817 (2004).
771 121. T. Cordier *et al.*, Supervised machine learning outperforms taxonomy-based environmental
772 DNA metabarcoding applied to biomonitoring. *Mol Ecol Resour* **18**, 1381-1391 (2018).
773 122. A. C. Burton *et al.*, REVIEW: Wildlife camera trapping: a review and recommendations for
774 linking surveys to ecological processes. *J. Appl. Ecol.* **52**, 675-685 (2015).
775 123. M. G. Kelly, S. C. Schneider, L. King, Customs, habits, and traditions: the role of
776 nonscientific factors in the development of ecological assessment methods. *Wiley*
777 *Interdisciplinary Reviews-Water* **2**, 159-165 (2015).
778 124. F. Leese *et al.*, Why we need sustainable networks bridging countries, disciplines, cultures
779 and generations for aquatic biomonitoring 2.0: a perspective derived from the DNAqua-Net
780 COST action. *Next Generation Biomonitoring, Pt 1* **58**, 63-99 (2018).
781 125. F. Sohrab, J. Raitoharju, Boosting rare benthic macroinvertebrates taxa identification with
782 one-class classification. *ArXiv* **abs/2002.10420** (2020).
783

784

785 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

786 **Figure 1**

787 We developed and tested a camera trap for monitoring flower visiting insects, which records images
788 at fixed intervals (45). (A) The setup consist of two web cameras connected to a control unit
789 containing a Raspberry Pi computer and a hard drive. In our test, ten camera traps were mounted on
790 custom built steel rod mounts c. 30cm above a green roof mix of plants in the genus *Sedum*. Images
791 were recorded every 30 sec during the entire flowering season. After training a convolutional neural
792 network (Yolo3), we detected >100,000 instances of pollinators over the course of an entire
793 growing season. (B) An example image from one of the cameras showing a scene consisting of
794 different flowering species. The locations of the insect detections varied greatly among three
795 common flower visiting species (C) the European honey bee (*Apis mellifera*), (D) the red-tailed
796 bumblebee (*Bombus lapidarius*), and (E) the marmalade hoverfly (*Episyrphus balteatus*). Across
797 the ten camera traps, the deep learning model detected detailed variation in (F) seasonal and (G)
798 diurnal variation in the occurrence frequency among the same three species. Figure adapted with
799 permission from (45).

800

801 **Figure 2**

802 (A) To automatically monitor nocturnal moth species, we designed a light trap with an on-board
803 computer vision system (46). The light trap is equipped with three different light sources. A
804 fluorescent tube to attract moths, a light table covered by a white sheet to provide a diffuse
805 background illumination of the resting insects, and a light ring to illuminate the specimens. The
806 system is able to attract moths and automatically capture images based on motion detection. The
807 trap is designed using standard components such as a high-resolution USB web camera and a
808 Raspberry Pi computer. (B) We have proposed a computer vision algorithm that, during offline

809 processing of the captured images, performs tracking and counting of individual moths. A
810 customized convolutional neural network was trained to detect and classify eight different moth
811 species. The algorithm can run on the on-board computer to allow the system to automatically
812 process and submit species data via a modem to a server. The system works off grid due to a battery
813 and solar panel.

814

815 **Figure 3**

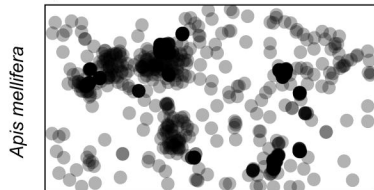
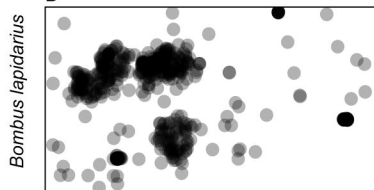
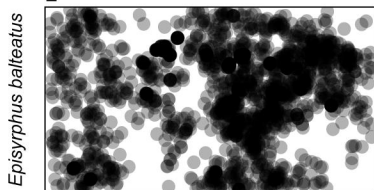
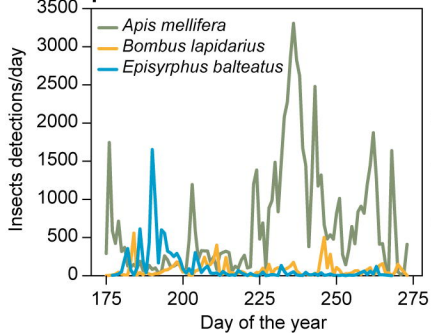
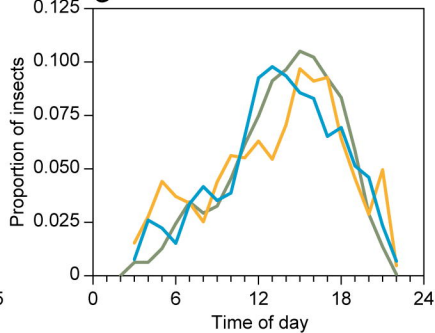
816 The BIODISCOVER machine, can automate the process of invertebrate sample sorting, species
817 identification, and biomass estimation (73). (A) The imaging system consists of an ethanol-filled
818 spectroscopic cuvette, a powerful and adjustable light source and two cameras capable of recording
819 images at 50 frames per second (B) The setup is mounted in a light proof aluminium box and fitted
820 with a pump for refilling the spectroscopic cuvette. (C) Each specimen is imaged from two angles
821 by the cameras as it is dropped into the ethanol-filled cuvette and geometric features related to size
822 and biomass are computed automatically. (D) The system has a built in flushing mechanism for
823 controlling which specimens should be kept together for subsequent storage or analysis. The results
824 for an initial dataset of images of 598 specimens across 12 species of known identity was very
825 promising with a classification accuracy of 98.0% (73). The system is generic and can easily be
826 used for other groups of invertebrates as well. As such, the BIODISCOVER machine pave the way
827 for cheap, fast, and accurate data on spatial and temporal variation in invertebrate abundance,
828 diversity and biomass. Figure adapted with permission from (73).

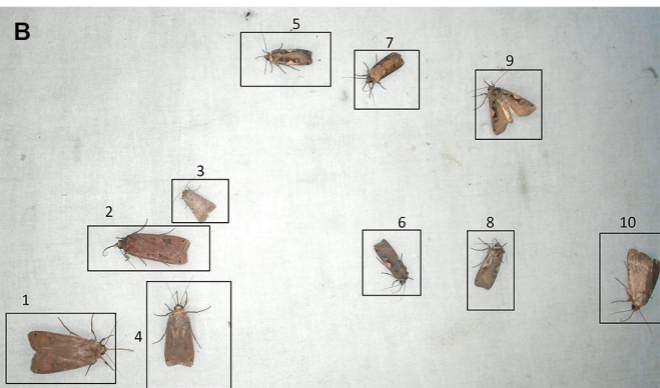
829 **TABLE 1**

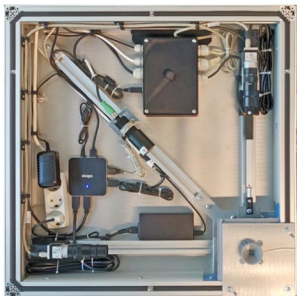
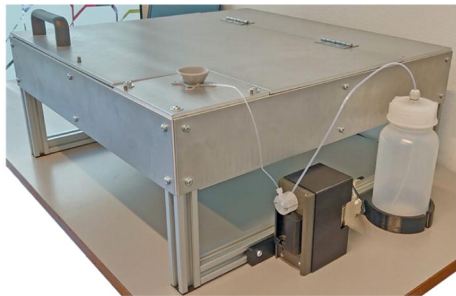
830 **Glossary**

- 831 • **Bin picking:** an industrial term for robots that pick up one of many objects randomly placed in a
832 container.
- 833 • **Convolutional Neural Network (CNN):** a deep learning algorithm in the family of neural
834 networks with several different layers commonly applied for image recognition and
835 classification. A CNN can be trained to recognize various objects and patterns in an image.
836 There are four main different operations in a CNN: convolution, activation functions, sub
837 sampling, and fully connected layer. During training the learnable parameters of each
838 convolutional and fully connected layer are adjusted so the CNN is able to recognize different
839 patterns of the training data and used for final image classification.
- 840 • **Data augmentation:** a technique that can be used to artificially expand the size of a training
841 dataset by creating modified images with objects of interest for classification.
- 842 • **Machine learning:** a subset of artificial intelligence associated with creating algorithms that can
843 change themselves without human intervention to get the desired result – by feeding themselves
844 through structured data.
- 845 • **Deep learning:** a subset of machine learning where algorithms are created and function
846 similarly to machine learning, but where there are many levels of these algorithms, each
847 providing a different interpretation of the data it conveys.
- 848 • **DNA barcoding:** Identification of a species using a short, standardised gene fragment.
- 849 • **Initialization:** description of an object to be tracked.
- 850 • **Training data:** classified images (e.g. images of known species identified by experts) that are
851 recorded to train a deep learning model.
- 852 • **Precision:** the number of true positives divided by the sum of true positives and false positives

- 853 • **Recall:** also called the true positive rate, is the number of true positives divided by the sum of
854 true positives and false negatives.
- 855 • **Classification accuracy:** the sum of true positives and true negatives divided by the total
856 number of specimens.
- 857

A**B****C****D****E****F****G**



A**B****C****D**