Alien Species, Agents of Global Change

Ecology and Management of the Gypsy Moth in North America as a Case History

Andrew M. LIEBHOLD

USDA Forest Service, Morgantown, WV 26505 USA

Abstract - Through out evolutionary history, water and land barriers served to isolate the world's biota into distinct compartments. With the advent of greater human mobility and world trade, these barriers are breaking-down and alien species are increasingly being transported into new habitats. Many alien species have had devastating impacts on their environment resulting in huge changes in ecosystem processes and properties. In this paper I provide an overview of the population biology of invasions, highlighting the three principal phases of every invasion: arrival, establishment and spread. Furthermore, I demonstrate that for each invasion phase, there is a corresponding phase of management activities aimed at retarding the invasion. Finally, I illustrate the three invasion phases using the gypsy moth, Lymantria dispar, in North America as a case history.

I. Introduction

From an evolutionary perspective, humans are a small, and perhaps insignificant group. But despite this insignificance, our populations have grown to remarkably high levels on almost every continent and major landform. The increases in the world's human population have been quite closely linked to the ability of humans to alter their During the primordial phases of human environment. development, modifications of our habitat were fairly benign and had rather insignificant effects on the biotic and abiotic environments. However, over the last 100 years, we have begun to affect our surrounding in much more dramatic ways. Through out the world, we have left substantial effects on our surroundings and disrupted numerous ecosystems. These changes have drastically affected the immense services that natural ecosystems provide the world's population [1, 2].

When considered as a global aggregate, these anthropogenic effects are substantial and are referred to as "global change". These changes are of considerable concern and importance because they affect biological and abiotic properties at the global level and thus the entire world population is affected. Most interest in sources of global change involve anthropogenic changes to the atmosphere such as release of CFCs causing ozone depletion, increases in CO_2 and methane, but other major concerns include land use changes and habitat fragmentation [3]. These primary agents may result in secondary effects such as climate change and diminished biodiversity.

Only recently has the problem of biological invasions

become recognized as another important agent of global change [4, 5]. The concept that biological invasions might be considered a recurrent problem at all is something that was first recognized less than 50 years ago by Elton [6] who documented many instances in which species accidentally transported from one continent to another had erupted to very high densities, often at the expense of native species. Since then numerous studies of invasions by non-indigenous organisms have been shown to cause dramatic changes in ecosystem functions and properties (e.g., biodiversity, nutrient cycling, disturbance regimes) and these changes may manifest as important biotic and abiotic changes at the global level [4, 7, 8].

Though biological invasions are a problem through out the world, the deciduous forests of temperate northeastern N. America have been affected by alien insects and diseases particularly frequently and intensely effected over the last 75 years [9, 10]. During the early 1900's the chestnut blight, caused by the exotic fungal pathogen Cryphonectria parasitica, caused the virtual elimination of American chestnut, Castanea dentata, which was previously one of the most dominant species in the eastern U.S [11]. Similarly, Dutch Elm disease (caused by the fungal pathogen, Ophiostoma ulmi) and Beech bark disease (a disease complex caused by the beech scale, Cryptococcus fagisuga, and the fungal pathogen Nectria coccinea var. faginata) have greatly diminished their host tree species in N. America The gypsy moth, Lymantria dispar, was [12, 13]. introduced to N. America in 1869 and subsequently caused millions of ha of defoliation in oak-dominated forests [10]. Numerous other alien insects and diseases have arrived more recently and are likely to cause further changes to this forest region.

Considerable research has been conducted on the population biology of the invasion process and this work offers some useful concepts for the development of strategies for mitigating current and future invasions. Below we describe the invasion process and illustrate these processes using the gypsy moth in N. America as a case history.

II. The Invasion Process

We present here a conceptual overview of the population processes operating during biological invasions. At least

-71 -

three processes underly all invasions: arrival, establishment, and spread [14, 15]. The recognition of distinct phases of invasions is important because managing different aspcets of the invasion should use different approaches. Quarantines are the primary method of preventing new invasions. Detection and eradication are the primary approach to preventing or reversing population establishment. Barrier zones are the primary method used to limit range expansion after a population has established.

TABLE I The three principal invasion phases

Phase	Description	Management activities
Arrival	Founding members of the population are transported to the new area	Quarantine
Establishment	Founding population grows sufficiently such that extinction is no longer possible	Detection, eradication
Spread	Expansion of the species range into all portions of the new range	Barrier zones

A. Arrival

Many Paleontological studies indicate that as the world's climate has changed, species have typically shifted their ranges in order to track their optimal habitat [16]. But most historical range shifts were slow, occurring over thousands of years and large geographical features such as oceans and mountain ranges, served to isolate the world's biota. This fragmentation of the world's land masses is thought to have greatly enhanced global biodiversity.

But recently we have witnessed a rapid acceleration of range expansions among continents. Increased world movement by humans has facilitated the expansion of thousands of species to vastly new parts of the world. While some movement of species began during early periods of colonial expansion by Europeans, invasions have accelerated dramatically over the last 100 years [17].

Much of the acceleration of invasion rates can be attributed to increases in world trade. Increasingly, commodities are manufactured and consumed in different portions of the world and this has led to acceleration in rates of intercontinental shipping. The major invasion pathways for alien species arrival are thought to be infested commodities, ballast water, raw wood, packing material and shipping containers themselves [18]. Of course there are numerous examples of intentional introductions, especially for plants, birds and fish, that have resulted in damaging invasive pest species.

Quarantine regulations, that limit the movement of certain commodities are probably the most effective tool for limiting invasions. There has been considerable progress made in enacting important international quarantines. However some important invasion pathways, such as ballast water and solid wood packing material remain "open" and need to be addressed in future quarantine agreements. Unfortunately, global trade agreements often hinder efforts to enact new quarantines. Furthermore, there are some pathways that probably never can be stopped.

B. Establishment

Every seed that falls to the ground does not develop into a reproducing plant. Similarly, many invaders may arrive in a new habitat but few become established. Founder populations typically are small and consequently are at great risk of extinction. Generally, the smaller the founder population, the less likely is establishment. Two population processes are particularly important when considering establishment: Allee dynamics, and stochasticity.

Random processes affect the dynamics of virtually all populations. Demographic stochasticity is caused by chance realizations of individual probabilities of death and reproduction in finite populations and can have substantial effects in small populations. Environmental stochasticity arises from a nearly continuous series of random perturbations that similarly affect birth and death rates of all individuals in a population and is important to both large and small populations. Both types of stochasticity can contribute to population extinction when populations are at very low densities [19].

The "Allee effect" was first described by Allee and colleagues [20] and refers to any process whereby any component of individual fitness is correlated with population size [21]. There are a multitude of mechanisms that can cause this type of density dependence in plant and animal at low densities. populations, especially These mechanisms include failure to locate mates, inbreeding depression, failure to satiate predators, and lack of cooperative feeding [22]. In many cases, this pattern of decreasing per capita growth with decreasing density includes negative growth at very low densities and populations may thereby decline to extinction. Together, the combined influence of Allee dynamics and stochastic processes strongly influences the successful establishment of alien species [23, 24].

Recent studies indicate that by understanding the interaction between stochasticity and Allee dynamics, it is possible to optimize strategies to eradicate newly founded colonies of alien species [25]. This work demonstrates that eradication can typically be achieved simply by reducing populations below some threshold level rather than elimination of 100% of the population.

C. Spread

Once a population is established, its density typically will increase and individuals will disperse into adjoining areas of suitable habitat. The spread of, a species is driven by two processes: population growth and dispersal. As a result, most models of population spread have focused on these processes. The simplest and probably the most widely applied model of population spread was developed in 1951 by Skellam and combines random diffusion with exponential growth [26]:

$$N_{x,t} = \frac{N_{00} \ e^{rt \cdot x^2/4Dt}}{4 \ ?Dt} \tag{1}$$

where $N_{x,t}$ is the density of organisms distance, x, from the point of release and time, t, from the time of release of $N_{0,0}$ organisms at time 0, D is the "diffusivity" or "diffusion coefficient" which measures dispersal and r is the "intrinsic rate of natural increase" (birth rate - death rate under optimal condition; i.e., no crowding). The assumption of random movement in this model implies that the population will spread radially, at an equal rate in all directions (Fig. 1a). Skellam [26] showed that for any detection threshold, T, such that the infested area at any time t is restricted to points where $N_{x,t} > T$, the expansion velocity of the infested front (radial rate of spread), V, is constant and can be described:

 $V = 2 \sqrt{rD}$ (2) There has generally been good congruence between predictions of this model and observed rates of spread of most exotic organisms [27].



Fig. 1. Schematic representation of range spread between successive generations. The black dot represents the initial range at time 0. A. Spread according Skellam's [26] diffusion model; B. Spread predicted using a stratified dispersal model.

Skellam's model assumes a single, continuous form of dispersal and it predicts that range expansion should be a smooth, continuous process (Fig. 2a). However some species may be able to disperse in at least two ways. The existence of two forms of dispersal is referred to as "stratified dispersal" [28]; in those situations, range expansion will proceed through the formation of multiple discrete, isolated colonies established ahead of the infested front [15, 29]. These colonies in turn, will expand their range and ultimately coalesce (Fig. 2b). One consequence of this phenomenon is that range expansion may occur much faster than would occur under a more simple diffusion model.

III. The Gypsy Moth in North America, a Case History

The gypsy moth in North America represents an excellent example of the population biology of invasions. For most alien species, we rarely know the precise circumstances of its arrival, but for the gypsy moth there is very good documentation of its accidental introduction from Europe by an amateur entomologist in 1868 or 1869 near Boston Massachusetts [30]. Starting around 1880, efforts were made to eradicate the species but by 1900 it became clear that these efforts had failed and the species was permanently established in N. America. Since 1900, the gypsy moth has slowly expanded its range through much of eastern N. America but it is thought to currently occupy slightly less than 1/3 of its potential range (Fig. 2) [31, 32].



Fig. 2. Historical gypsy moth spread in N. America.

Females in European gypsy moth populations are known to be incapable of flight. Thus, range expansion by the gypsy moth only occurs via short distance dispersal of windborne 1st instar caterpillars and accidental long-distance movement of life stages by humans. This is an excellent example of the stratified dispersal mechanism proposed in theoretical studies [29]. Liebhold et al. [31] estimated that the formation of isolated colories causes gypsy moth to spread about 10 times faster than if spread only occurred only via 1st instar dispersal.

Sharov and Liebhold [33] used data from grids of pheromone traps placed along the expanding population front to quantitatively identify isolated colonies along the expanding gypsy moth population front in Virginia and West Virginia (Fig. 3). They developed a model of gypsy moth spread, which was based upon historical data that documented formation of isolated colonies and their growth. They used this model to identify an optimal strategy for slowing gypsy moth spread via identification of these isolated colonies using grids of pheromone traps and then suppressing them via aerial applications of *Bacillus thuringiensis* or mating disruption.



Fig. 3. Interpolated surface of counts of male gypsy moths from pheromone traps deployed on a 1 km grid along the expanding population front (horizontal line is the border between Virginia and North Carolina).

In 1999 a program was put in place by the US Forest Service for slowing gypsy moth spread using this strategy [34]. Results to date indicate that the program has been able to reduce spread to less than 50% of previous spread rates. Though millions of dollars are spent on the project every year, it has been shown to be economically beneficial because it postpones the dates at which land managers must begin to expend resources to protect forests from gypsy moth damages.

V. Summary and Conclusions

The population ecology of alien species represents a success story for the use of ecological theory. There are many instances in which theoretical models have provided useful information about both the establishment and spread of alien species. As the magnitude of the alien species problem escalates, there will be continued need to develop both analytical and empirical approaches to understanding invasion ecology.

Acknowledgements

The author thanks Sandra Raimondo for reviewing an earlier draft of this manuscript.

References

[1]R. Costanza, et al., "The value of the world's ecosystem services and natural capital." *Nature*.Vol. 387: pp. 253-260, 1997.

[2]D. Pimentel, et al., "Will Limits of the Earth's Resources Control Human Numbers?." *Environment, Development and* Sustainability.Vol. 1: pp. 19-39, 1999.

[3]T.J. Crowley, "Causes of Climate Change Over the Past 1000 Years." *Science*.Vol. 289: pp. 270-277, 2000.

[4]P.M. Vitousek, C.M. D'Antonio, L.L. Loope, R. Westbrooks, "Biological invasions as global environmental change.." *American Scientist*. Vol. 84: pp. 468-478, 1996. [5]D.S. Simberloff, et al., Biotic Invasions: Causes, epidemiology, global consequences and control. Issues in Ecology. Vol. No. 5: Ecological Society of America. 20. 2000,

[6]C.S. Elton, The ecology of invasions by animals and plants. London: Methuen and Co. 1958,

[7]M.C. Mack, C.M. D'Antonio, R.E. Ley, "Alteration of ecosystem nitrogen dynamics by exotic plants: a case study of C4 grasses in Hawaii." *Ecological Applications*. Vol. 11: pp. 1323-1335, 2001.

[8]D. Pimentel, L. Lach, R. Zuniga, D. Morrison, "Environmental and economic costs of nonindigenous species in the United States.." *BioScience*. Vol. 50: pp. 53-65, 2000.

[9]W.J. Mattson, P. Niemela, I. Millers, Y. Inguanzo, "Immigrant phytophagous insects on woody plants in the United States and Canada: an annotated list." USDA Forest Service General Technical Report. Vol. NC-169: pp. 1-29, 1994.

[10] A.M. Liebhold, W.L. MacDonald, D. D.Bergdahl, V. Mastro, "Invasion by exotic forest pests : a threat to forest ecosystems." *Forest science. Monographs*.Vol. 30: pp. 1-49, 1995.

[11] M.K. Roane, G.J. Griffin, J.R. Elkins, Chestnut blight, other Endothia diseases, and the genus Endothia. St. Paul: APS Press. 1986,

[12] D.R. Houston, "Beech bark disease - the aftermath forests are structured for a new outbreak." *Journal of Forestry*.Vol. 73: pp. 660-663, 1975.

[13] C.M. Brasier, "Ophiostoma novo-ulmi sp. nov., causative agent of current Dutch elm disease pandemics." Mycopathologia.Vol. 115: pp. 151-161, 1991.

[14] A.P. Dobson R.M. May, Patterns of invasions by pathogens and parasites., in Ecology of Biological Invasions of North America and Hawaii., H.A. Mooney and J.A. Drake, Editors. 1986, Springer-Verlag: New York.

[15] N. Shigesada K. Kawasaki, Biological Invasions: Theory and Practice. New York, NY: Oxford University Press. 1997,

[16] M.B. Davis, "Pleistocene biogeography of temperate deciduous forests." *Geoscience and Man.*Vol. 13: pp. 13-26, 1976.

[17] A.W. Crosby, *Ecological Imperialism: The Biological Expansion of Europe*, 900-1900. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1986,

[18] R.A. Everett, "Patterns and pathways of biological invasions." *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*.Vol. 15: pp. 177-178, 2000.

[19] R. Lande, "Risks of population extinction from demographic and environmental stochasticity and random catastrophes.." *American Naturalist*. Vol. 142; pp. 911-927, 1993.

[20] W.C. Allee, A.E. Emerson, O. Park, T. Park, K.P. Schmidt, *Principles of Animal Ecology*. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders. 1949,

[21] P.A. Stephens, W.J. Sutherland, R.P. Freckleton, "What is the Allee effect?." *Oikos*. Vol. 87: pp. 185-190, 1999.

[22] P.A. Stephens W.J. Sutherland, "Consequences of the Allee effect for behaviour, ecology and conservation.." *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*. Vol. 14: pp. 401-405, 1999.

[23] P. Haccou Y. Iwasa, "Establishment probability in fluctuating environments: a branching process model." *Theoretical Population Biology*.Vol. 50: pp. 254-280, 1996.

[24] S.V. Petrovskii, A.Y. Morozov, E. Venturino, "Allee effect makes possible patch invasion in a predator-prey system." *Ecology Letters*. Vol. 5: pp. 345-352, 2002.

[25] A.M. Liebhold J. Bascompte, "The allee effect, stochastic dynamics and the eradication of alien species." *Ecology Letters*.Vol. 6: pp. 133-140, 2003.

[26] J.G. Skellam, "Random dispersal in theoretical poulations." *Biometrika*. Vol. 38: pp. 196-218, 1951.

[27] D.A. Andow, P.M. Kareiva, S.A. Levin, A. Okubo, "Spread of invading organisms." *Landscape Ecology*. Vol. 4: pp. 177-188,

1990.

[28] R. Hengeveld, Dynamics of Biological Invasions. London: Chapman and Hall. 1989,

[29] N. Shigesada, K. Kawasaki, Y. Takeda, "Modeling stratified diffusion in biological invasions." *American Naturalist*. Vol. 146: pp. 229-251, 1995.

[30] A. Liebhold, V. Mastro, P.W. Schaefer, "Learning from the legacy of Leopold Trouvelot." *Bull Entomol Soc Am*.Vol. 35: pp. 20-22, 1989.

[31] A.M. Liebhold, J.A. Halverson, G.A. Elmes, "Gypsy moth invasion in North America: a quantitative analysis." *Journal of Biogeography*. Vol. 19: pp. 513-520, 1992.

[32] A.M. Liebhold, K.W. Gottschalk, D.A. Mason, R.R. Bush, "Forest susceptibility to the gypsy moth." *J for*.Vol. 95: pp. 20-24, 1997.

[33] A.A. Sharov A.M. Liebhold, "Model of slowing the spread of gypsy moth (Lepidoptera: Lymantriidae) with a barrier zone." *Ecol appl*. Vol. 8: pp. 1170-1179, 1998.

[34] A. Sharov, D. Leonard, A. Liebhold, A. Roberts, W. Dickerson, ""Slow the spread": a national program to contain the gypsy moth." *Journal of Forestry*. Vol. 100: pp. 30-36, 2002.