

HOW SAFE ARE BIOCONTROL AGENTS FOR WEEDS?

What are they going to eat next?

To some people biological control sounds highly risky. The introduction of biocontrol agents for weeds is often directly compared with the introduction of rabbits or ferrets, leading to fears of further ecological disasters. In reality biocontrol of weeds has an excellent safety record and has provided many benefits.

Safety issues are foremost in the minds of biocontrol of weeds researchers, and they usually only consider specialist feeders for introduction. These specialists have co-evolved with their host plants over a long period of time, and have developed adaptations that allow them to only utilise that host plant, and sometimes close relatives of that plant. This specialisation makes it difficult for them to change host, and the chance of this happening has been calculated at between one in ten million, and one in one-hundred million (the risk of native species unexpectedly becoming a problem is the same).

Biocontrol agents are unlikely to ever run out of food because they are unable to eradicate their host plants – this is because it is difficult for them to find or severely harm every plant. If biocontrol is successful, plants become increasingly less abundant and the agent populations reduce accordingly, so a new equilibrium forms between the abundance of agents and their host plants.

How can you be sure they won't eat anything else?

Researchers rigorously test all proposed agents to assess the risk of damage to non-target plants. It is not feasible to test every plant species in New Zealand, but a set of internationally accepted procedures has been developed to help researchers choose a suitable shortlist of test plants.



Plants that are closely-related to the target weed are most at risk of non-target attack and, therefore, are the first plant species to be tested, followed by increasingly more distantly related species until the limits of a species' host range are established. When there are potentially many related species to test, factors such as plant morphology, biochemistry and distribution may be used to select the best representative plant species.

Researchers carefully consider an agent's biology and behaviour when deciding on the most appropriate kinds of tests to use. For agents, such as fungi, that disperse passively no-choice tests (where they are given the option of feeding on an alternative host or starving) are considered appropriate, because they are continually exposed to no-choice situations in real life. For agents that actively disperse, choice tests (where they are given the option of feeding on their host and one or more alternative hosts) are considered more appropriate because the agents are able to choose in real life.

Some scientists believe that safety tests represent extreme and unnatural conditions and usually overestimate rather than underestimate the real host range of control agents. Often tests can give "false positives" when the agents attack plants under artificial experimental

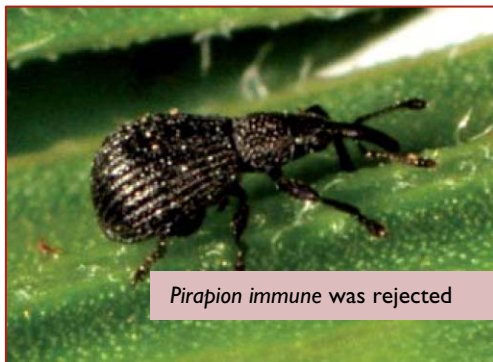
conditions that they have never actually been known to attack in real life. This was the case with the gorse spider mite (*Tetranychus lintearius*), which during testing laid eggs on dwarf beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*), although it never colonises bean plants under field conditions. For this reason both indoors and outdoors tests may be carried out in order to build up a more comprehensive picture of the likelihood of attack.

If the testing suggests that a potential control agent is likely to damage other beneficial plants then it is usually rejected. For example an extremely promising stem miner (*Pirapion immune*) for broom was abandoned when tests showed that they might damage kowhai (*Sophora microphylla*). In other cases some non-target attack may be acceptable if more damage may be caused by not controlling the weed. For example the broom leaf beetle (*Gonioctena olivacea*) and broom shoot moth (*Agonopterix assimilella*) were recently cleared for release despite the fact that it may cause some damage to other exotic legumes such as tree lucerne (*Cytisus proliferus*).

See *Conflicts of interest*.

Have they ever got it wrong?

To date there have been more than 1000 biocontrol programmes for more than 133 weed species worldwide, using nearly 500 different agents (insects, mites, and fungi), and for the vast majority no unpredicted host change has occurred. There are only eight reports of insect agents attacking non-target plants that were not predicted by safety-testing prior to release, (which was generally inadequate by modern standards), including two cases in New Zealand (Table 1). Most of these attacks were only transitory, 'spill-over' attack, a phenomenon that is occasionally seen when plant-feeding



Pirapion immune was rejected

There appear to be only two recent examples of potentially significant effects on native non-target plant species from biological control agents. The receptacle weevil (*Rhinocyllus conicus*) attacks native thistles (*Cirsium* spp.) in the USA. The potential impact on native thistles was anticipated in the 1960s but not considered important. This example highlights the fact that classical biocontrol is irreversible and values can change. A moth (*Cactoblastis cactorum*) attacks endangered native *Opuntia* spp. in Florida, which was also predicted by host-testing. The moth arrived in Florida either by natural dispersal following the deliberate release of the agent in several Caribbean islands, or was an accidental introduction, perhaps on ornamental *Opuntia*. This example highlights the need for cross-border effects of biocontrol releases to be considered.

species colonise a new habitat, and have not caused significant economic losses.

Of the 26 fungal pathogens that have been released for biocontrol worldwide none have caused unexpected non-target damage.

Overall the benefits gained from releasing biological control agents have far outweighed any damage caused. Biocontrol of weeds researchers are continually reviewing the knowledge gained from both past experience and new studies to refine best practice, develop more sophisticated tests that more accurately reflect real-life situations, and improve their interpretation of the results obtained.

There are from time to time cases of mistaken identity where damage to plants is not caused by biocontrol agents, but something that looks similar.

See *Insects commonly mistaken for biocontrol agents*, *Fungi commonly mistaken for biocontrol agents*.

Non-target surveys in New Zealand

In New Zealand extensive follow up surveys have been undertaken to check for non-target damage. So far 20 invertebrate agents and five fungal agents (including three self-introduced species) have been surveyed and results have provided additional assurance that current best

Table 1: Predicted and observed non-target attack in New Zealand

| Species | Predicted | Observed |
|--|-------------------|----------|
| Alligator Weed Moth, <i>Agasicles hygrophila</i> | None | No |
| Broom Seed Beetle, <i>Bruchidius villosus</i> | None | Yes |
| Californian Thistle Rust, <i>Puccinia punctiformis</i> | None | No |
| Gorse Pod Moth, <i>Cydia succedana</i> | None | Yes |
| Gorse Seed Weevil, <i>Exapion ulicis</i> | None | No |
| Hieracium Rust, <i>Puccinia hieracii</i> var. <i>piloselloidarum</i> | None | No |
| Mist Flower Gall Fly, <i>Procecidochares alani</i> | None | No |
| Mist Flower Fungus, <i>Entyloma ageratinae</i> | None | No |
| Mexican Devil Gall Fly, <i>Procecidochares utilis</i> | None | No |
| Nodding Thistle Crown Weevil, <i>Trichosirocalus horridus</i> | None | No |
| Nodding Thistle Gall Fly, <i>Urophora solstitialis</i> | None | No |
| Nodding Thistle Receptacle Weevil, <i>Rhinocyllus conicus</i> | None | No |
| Ragwort Seedfly, <i>Botanophila jacobaeae</i> | None | No |
| Scotch Thistle Gall Fly, <i>Urophora stylata</i> | None | No |
| Alligator Weed Moth, <i>Arcola malloi</i> | Potentially minor | No |
| Blackberry Rust, <i>Phragmidium violaceum</i> | Potentially minor | Yes |
| Cinnabar Moth, <i>Tyria jacobaeae</i> | Potentially minor | Yes |
| Gorse Spider Mite, <i>Tetranychus lintearius</i> | Potentially minor | No |
| Heather Beetle, <i>Lochmaea suturalis</i> | Potentially minor | No |
| Old Man's Beard Leaf Fungus, <i>Phoma clematidina</i> | Potentially minor | No |
| Old Man's Beard Leaf Miner, <i>Phytomyza vitalbae</i> | Potentially minor | Yes |
| Ragwort Flea Beetle, <i>Longitarsus jacobaeae</i> | Potentially minor | No |
| Greater St John's Wort Beetle, <i>Chrysolina quadrigemina</i> | Potentially major | No |
| Lesser St John's Wort Beetle, <i>Chrysolina hyperici</i> | Potentially major | Yes |
| St John's Wort Gall Midge, <i>Zeuxidiplosis giardi</i> | Potentially major | No |



Cinnabar caterpillar on *S. biserratus*

practice host-testing is a good indicator of what will happen in the field. Non-target attack was generally absent, even when some might have been expected (Table 1). Where minor non-target attack was anticipated none was found in four out of eight cases. In the remaining four cases minor non-target damage was expected and has been seen. Cinnabar moth (*Tyria jacobaeae*) larvae will occasionally 'spill-over' onto attack native fireweeds *Senecio minimus* and *S. biserratus* when they have defoliated ragwort (*S. jacobaea*). Eight native *Senecio* species

were tested before cinnabar moth was released in 1929, but recent advances in phylogenetics using molecular techniques have shown these plants to be quite distantly related to ragwort and inappropriate species to use for host-testing. Molecular plant phylogenetics has since revolutionised host-plant selection making such omission of key test plants unlikely nowadays.

Old man's beard leaf miner (*Phytomyza vitalbae*) will occasionally 'spill-over' onto a species of native Clematis (*C. foetida*) (and on one occasion *C. forsteri*) but the damage is not significant. This non target attack mostly occurred within 4 km of old man's beard (*C. vitalba*), which is further than you would normally expect for such 'spill-over' attack, owing to the exceptional dispersal abilities of this agent.

Minor non-target damage was predicted for the old man's beard fungus (*Phoma clematidina*) on closely-related ornamental Clematis. Studies have shown that fungi found damaging native and ornamental Clematis are not the fungus

deliberately released against old man's beard and in fact there is no evidence that this fungus is still present in New Zealand.

Blackberry rust (*Phragmidium violaceum*) has self-introduced to New Zealand. Testing carried out before the rust was released in Australia and suggested that native *Rubus* and some cultivated thornless blackberry species here might be attacked. However, some minor 'spill-over' damage has only been observed once on bush lawyer (*R. cissoides*).

Of the three instances where potentially major non-target attack was expected with the St John's wort agents, because of what had occurred with these agents in the USA, surveys have so far confirmed one case where this may be true. The lesser St John's wort beetle (*Chrysolina hyperici*) is feeding and laying eggs on the native *Hypericum japonicum*. Work to determine the impact of this attack is on-going. This agent was introduced in the 1940s without any testing of New Zealand plants beforehand, which would never happen now.

Only two agents have unexpectedly attacked other plants in New Zealand and we now understand the reasons why this occurred. Broom seed beetles (*Bruchidius villosus*) are attacking tree lucerne (*Cytisus proliferus*) seed, although again this is not significant to the plant. In New Zealand, tree lucerne produces pods before broom. This 'no choice' scenario was not tested in pre-release feeding trials, as 'choice' tests at the time were considered to be more useful. 'No choice' tests are always included now when is potential for such a 'no choice' situation to arise. The gorse pod moth (*Cydia succedana*) is attacking several introduced closely-related legumes including Scotch broom (*Cytisus scoparius*), French broom (*Genista monspessulana*), tree lupin (*Lupinus arboreus*) and trefoils (*Lotus* spp). Field studies have revealed that gorse pod moth activity in New Zealand is

often poorly synchronised with gorse flowering and non target attack was most prevalent when gorse flowers and pods were absent. Although original specificity tests were performed on moths sourced from England, moths of Portuguese provenance were also released into New Zealand to improve genetic diversity. Testing has since revealed that the Portuguese moths have a slightly wider host-range than the UK moths. As a result no agents would ever be released from a population that had not been thoroughly tested, even if it is the same species.

See *Cinnabar moth*, *Old man's beard leaf miner*, *Old man's beard leaf fungus*, *Blackberry rust*, *Broom seed beetle*, *Gorse pod moth*

Downstream effects

As well as direct effects (the biocontrol agent damages another plant) it is possible that there could be indirect non-target effects on ecosystems when the biocontrol agent becomes a food source, competitor, or disease vector. These are also referred to as 'ripple' or 'downstream' effects and may be positive or negative. Currently many believe that such intricate and often subtle effects are impossible to assess given the current level of knowledge of ecosystem function, but they are considered before biocontrol agents are released. Research into food webs is being undertaken and may allow predictive models to be developed in the future.

Successfully controlling a weed could be a negative outcome if it led to soil erosion or replacement by a worse weed. However, we know of no examples in New Zealand where this has occurred, and it has been rarely reported globally. The largest indirect effect caused by biocontrol agents is likely to be the restoration of native habitats as a result of a reduction in the problem weed.

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