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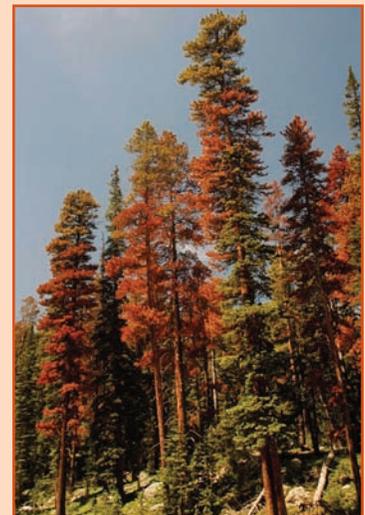
General Technical  
Report  
PNW-GTR-784  
April 2009



# The Western Bark Beetle Research Group: A Unique Collaboration With Forest Health Protection

Proceedings of a Symposium at the 2007  
Society of American Foresters Conference

October 23–28, 2007, Portland, Oregon



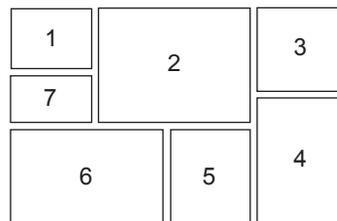
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Cover photographs: (1) white spruce in Alaska, by William M. Ciesla, Forest Health Management International; (2) western pine beetle (*Dendroctonus brevicomis*), by Erich G. Vallery, USDA Forest Service; (3) residential area in California, by Chris Fettig, USDA Forest Service; (4) lodgepole pine in Colorado, by William M. Ciesla, Forest Health Management International; (5) residential area in California, by Laura Merrill, USDA Forest Service; (6) Douglas-fir in Idaho, by Ladd Livingston, Idaho Department of Lands; (7) mountain pine beetle larvae (*Dendroctonus ponderosae*), by Scott Tunnock, USDA Forest Service. Photos 1, 2, 4, 6, and 7 courtesy of Bugwood.org.

# The Western Bark Beetle Research Group: A Unique Collaboration With Forest Health Protection

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U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service

Pacific Northwest Research Station

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## **Abstract**

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The compilation of papers in this proceedings is based on a symposium sponsored by the Insect and Diseases Working Group (D5) at the 2007 Society of American Foresters (SAF) convention in Portland, Oregon. The selection of topics parallels the research priorities of the Western Bark Beetle Research Group (WBBRG) (USDA Forest Service, Research and Development), which had been recently formed at the time of the symposium. Reflecting a unique partnership within the Forest Service, each paper was jointly prepared by a research scientist with the WBBRG and one or more entomologists with Forest Health Protection (USDA Forest Service, State and Private Forestry). Among these papers is a description of the currently elevated impacts of bark beetles in the Western United States; descriptions of the current state of knowledge of bark beetle response to vegetation management and also to climate change; discussions of the complex interactions of bark beetles and fire and of the complex ecological and socioeconomic impacts of infestations; an overview of the use of semiochemical (behavioral chemicals)-based technology for conifer protection; and a case study exemplifying efforts to assess risks posed by nonnative invasive bark beetles.

Keywords: Bark beetles, vegetation management, climate change, fire, socioeconomic impacts, semiochemicals, risk assessment.

## **Preface**

Making complex decisions about insect pests involving multiple objectives and multiple criteria is not new to forest managers, but the need for systematic and scientific methods of decisionmaking has never been greater. Nothing illustrates this need better than the strikingly elevated levels of bark-beetle-caused tree mortality in forests of the Western United States during the last decade. The increasing challenges of addressing this issue in an environment of shrinking resources spawned the formation of the Western Bark Beetle Research Group (WBBRG), which comprises the research entomologists from the three Western USDA Forest Service R&D research stations.

The compilation of papers in this proceedings is based on a symposium at the 2007 Society of American Foresters (SAF) convention in Portland, Oregon. The selection of topics parallels the research priority list of the WBBRG, which had been recently formed at the time of the symposium. The aim of the symposium was to describe the currently elevated impacts of bark beetles in the Western United States and to showcase the significant efforts by the Forest Service to understand, manage, and mitigate these impacts through basic and applied research. The symposium was sponsored by the D5 Insect and Diseases Working Group of the Society of American Foresters. It is a long-term objective of both the WBBRG and the SAF D5 Working Group to enhance communication with their partners and stakeholders. This symposium represents one step taken by both groups to achieve this common goal.

The WBBRG serves to enrich interactions among bark beetle researchers and their partners. Cooperative research and the team approach are integrated into the concept of this group. As a consequence, work of the WBBRG involves a variety of partners, primarily the Forest Health Protection (FHP) staff of the USDA Forest Service State and Private Forestry branch. Accordingly, for the symposium, a research station scientist was teamed up with an FHP entomologist and asked to describe current research and how it relates to current management issues. Similarly, the collection of papers from the symposium in this proceedings cut across a range of the current most rapidly advancing topics in bark beetle research and the most urgent management issues in pest management in the Western United States. The proceedings papers also illustrate some of the emerging challenges faced by forest entomologists.

We gratefully acknowledge the Society of American Foresters for its assistance in planning and presenting the symposium. We also acknowledge the Pacific Northwest Research Station, the Pacific Southwest Research Station, the Rocky Mountain Research Station, and the Forest Health Protection staffs from Regions 1, 2, 3, 4, and 10 for their assistance. All of the papers were peer reviewed, and we are especially thankful for the numerous people that served as reviewers. Most of all, we appreciate the perceptive insights and state-of-the-art knowledge generously shared by the authors.

Jane L. Hayes and John E. Lundquist, Compilers

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**WESTERN BARK BEETLE**

**RESEARCH GROUP**



# Bark Beetle Conditions in Western Forests and Formation of the Western Bark Beetle Research Group<sup>1</sup>

Robert J. Cain and Jane L. Hayes<sup>2</sup>

## Abstract

The recent dramatic impacts of bark beetle outbreaks across conifer forests of the West have been mapped and reported by entomology and pathology professionals with Forest Health Protection (FHP), a component of USDA Forest Service's State and Private Forestry, and their state counterparts. These forest conditions set the stage for the formation of the Western Bark Beetle Research Group (WBBRG), comprised of research scientists within the three western research stations of the USDA Forest Service Research and Development. Facing the increasing bark beetles impacts, the newly formed WBBRG, in concert with FHP professionals from the western Regions, developed research priorities. Building on a strong foundation of past and present research, WBBRG scientists in conjunction with their varied partners will investigate the complex interactions of bark beetles and their hosts. Interactions to be explored include those within vegetation management scenarios at the individual tree to landscape scale, those between wildland fire and bark beetles, the long-term impacts of bark beetle outbreaks on ecological and socioeconomic values, and importantly the response of bark beetle systems (i.e., bark beetles, their hosts and common associates) to climate change. This increased understanding of bark beetle behavior and population dynamics at multiple scales and with other agents of change will lead to the development and improvement of management tools. As in the past, WBBRG scientists will work closely with FHP entomologists to implement practical research products to prevent, retard, or suppress unwanted effects of native and nonnative invasive bark and woodboring beetles in the West.

Keywords: Aerial survey, Forest Health Protection, Western Bark Beetle Research Group.

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<sup>1</sup> The genesis of this manuscript was a presentation by the authors at the Western Bark Beetle Research Group—A Unique Collaboration with Forest Health Protection Symposium, Society of American Foresters Conference, 23-28 October 2007, Portland, OR.

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## **Introduction**

As background for the presentations given at the 2007 SAF Conference Symposium, Western Bark Beetle Research Group—A Unique Collaboration with Forest Health Protection and the collection of papers in this Proceedings of that session, we describe the current trends in bark beetle-caused tree mortality in western forests. The many research challenges presented by these conditions provided compelling motivation for establishing a new west-wide Forest Service research group focusing on this situation. We outline the priority research topics defined by the group at their inaugural meeting with consensus by Regional partners. Past and present research experience and accomplishments that helped shape these priorities are briefly described.

### **Bark Beetle Conditions in Western Forests**

Bark beetles have been causing dramatic tree mortality and making headlines across the West in recent years. Entomologists and pathologists with Forest Health Protection (FHP), a component of the USDA Forest Service State and Private Forestry (S&PF) and their state counterparts annually report insect and disease conditions. Acres affected by bark beetles across western forests are assessed through the creation of aerial survey sketchmaps. From fixed wing aircraft such as a Cessna 206, sketchmappers record polygons of insect activity in forest stands on USGS maps or on computer touch screens while the plane is flown along contours or predetermined flight lines. The tree species impacted, the damaging agent and the intensity are indicated for each polygon. When the damaging agent is a bark beetle, the intensity is determined by estimating the number of trees per acre that are currently fading. This becomes more difficult in large outbreaks with multiple years of damage and often multiple damaging agents active in the same area.

In recent years there have been widespread outbreaks of bark beetles across western North America. Outbreaks of native bark beetles have occurred across forest types from the low elevation pinyon-juniper woodlands to high elevation Engelmann spruce and subalpine fir forests (USDA 2005). Table 1 lists many of the bark beetles that have caused mortality over thousands of acres of their respective hosts. Native bark beetle populations are most influenced by stand conditions and weather conditions. Generally, older denser stands with larger trees and warmer, drier conditions are more favorable to bark beetles. Figure 1 shows the majority of the major forest cover types in the Rocky Mountain Region are over 100 years old and this is representative of conditions across the West.

**Table 1—Western bark beetle species that have caused significant tree mortality in the last 10 years**

Bark Beetle(s)	Host(s)
Spruce beetles, <i>Dendroctonus rufipennis</i> (Kirby)	Engelmann spruce ( <i>Picea engelmannii</i> Parry ex Engelm.), white spruce ( <i>P. glauca</i> [Moench] Voss), Sitka spruce ( <i>P. sitchensis</i> [Bong.] Carr.)
Pinyon ips, <i>Ips confusus</i> (LeConte)	Pinyon pine ( <i>Pinus edulis</i> Engelm. and <i>P. monophylla</i> Torr. & Frem.) and others
Pine engraver, <i>Ips pini</i> (Say), Arizona five spined ips, <i>Ips lecontei</i> Swaine	Ponderosa pine ( <i>Pinus ponderosa</i> C. Lawson)
Western pine beetle, <i>Dendroctonus brevicornis</i> LeConte	Ponderosa pine, Coulter pine ( <i>Pinus coulteri</i> D. Don)
Jeffrey pine beetle, <i>Dendroctonus jeffreyi</i> Hopkins	Jeffrey pine ( <i>Pinus jeffreyi</i> Balf.)
Mountain pine beetle, <i>Dendroctonus ponderosae</i> Hopkins	Ponderosa pine, lodgepole pine ( <i>P. contorta</i> Douglas ex Louden), white pines and others ( <i>Pinus</i> spp.)
Douglas-fir beetle, <i>Dendroctonus pseudotsugae</i> Hopkins	Douglas-fir ( <i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i> (Mirb.) Franco)
Fir engraver beetle, <i>Scolytus ventralis</i> LeConte	True firs ( <i>Abies</i> spp.)
Western balsam bark beetle, <i>Dryocoetes confusus</i> , Swaine	Subalpine fir ( <i>Abies lasiocarpa</i> (Hook.) Nutt.)

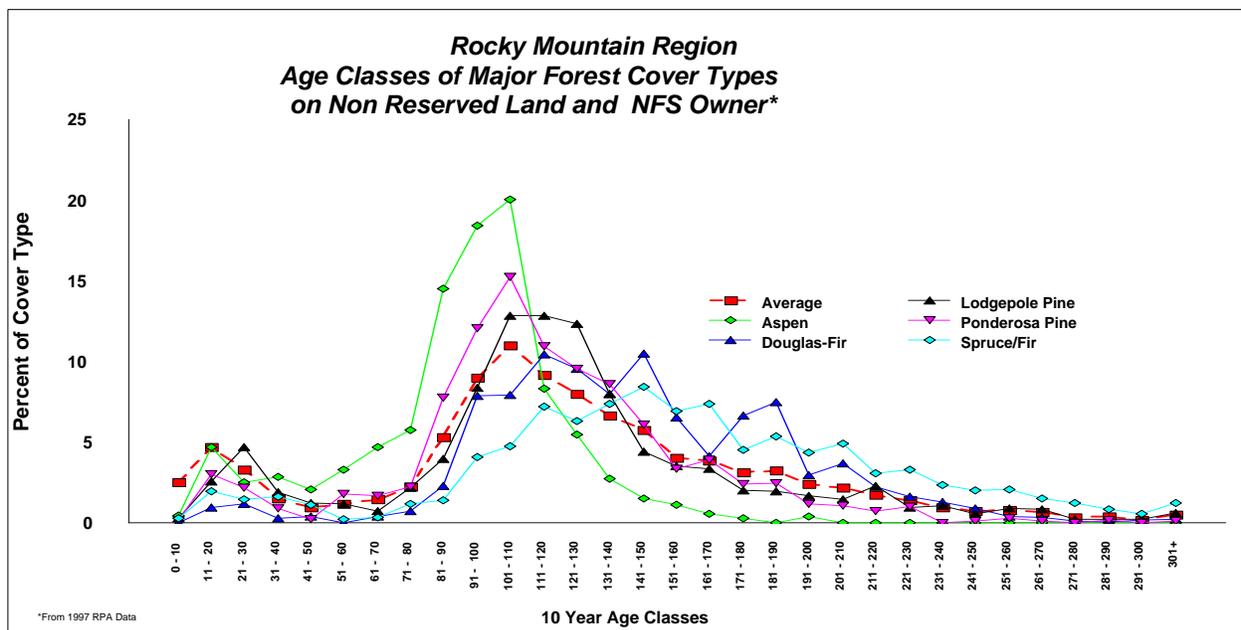


Figure 1—Age class distributions of forest types in the Rocky Mountain region based on 1990 FIA data.

*Spruce beetle*—Through the 1990s the largest spruce beetle epidemic ever recorded in North America eventually impacted to varying degrees over 3.2 million acres in Alaska including 1.4 million acres on the populated and extensively visited Kenai Peninsula (figure 2). This epidemic triggered some of the early widespread speculation in the media about the ecological impacts of warmer global temperatures (Juday 1998). Research has subsequently confirmed the connection between increased temperatures and spruce beetle population build-up (Hansen et al. 2001, Berg et al. 2006).

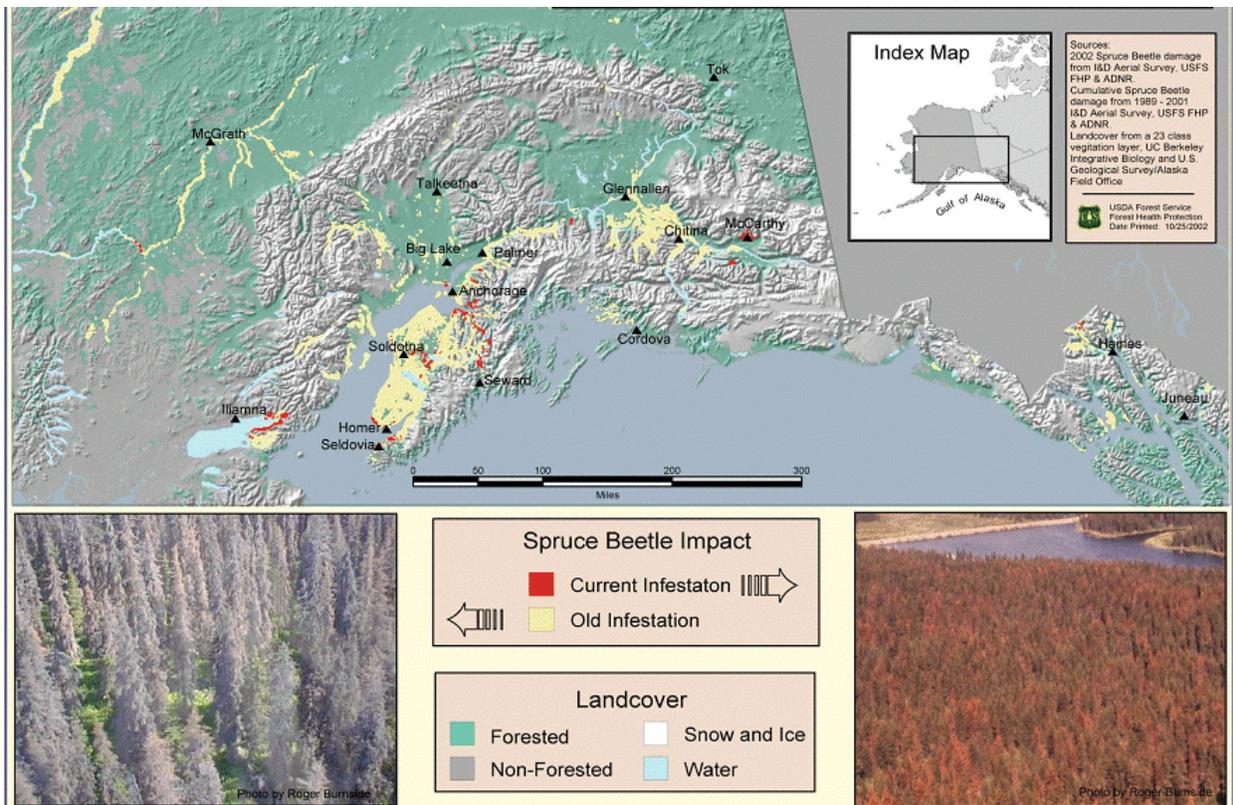


Figure 2—Spruce beetle outbreak in south-central Alaska 1989–2002 (1989–2001 in yellow, 2002 in red). Source: <http://www.fs.fed.us/r10/spf/fhp/Condrpt03/2003%20Web%20Maps/slides/Spruce%20Beetle%20Outbreak%20-%202003.html>.

Spruce beetle has been active in other western states as well. Strong winds that blew down high elevation stands of Engelmann spruce created suitable host material that favored the build-up of spruce beetle populations. Outbreaks were first noted throughout Utah, then Colorado and Wyoming in the 1990’s and 2000’s. Much of Utah’s spruce forests have been killed and areas of tree mortality continue to increase in Colorado and Wyoming.

*Pinyon ips and other bark beetles in southwestern pines*—The late 1990’s and early 2000’s brought extreme drought to the Southwest combined with warmer than average temperatures. Pinyon pines, although adapted to irregular moisture regimes and shallow soils, began to die in record numbers from pinyon ips and associated twig

beetles (Breshears et al. 2005). Although scattered references exist to another large die off in the 1950s, there were many areas of large pinyons that had survived the 1950s drought that succumbed in the 2000s. The impact was felt over six states and over 650,000 acres were affected. Improved moisture conditions by 2004 helped to end the pinyon ips epidemic.

During that same drought period in the Southwest, large areas of ponderosa pine forests in central Arizona were killed by the Arizona five-spined ips and associated bark beetles. Also, southern California's Angeles, San Bernardino and Cleveland National Forests and adjacent land experienced extremely high levels of tree mortality due to a complex of native bark beetles, dense stand conditions and severe drought. During 2003–2004, western pine beetles, Jeffrey pine beetles and mountain pine beetles all contributed to the dying trees that appeared on the landscape in and around resort communities like Arrowhead Lake. In 2003, massive wildfires driven by Santa Ana winds burned through chaparral, homes, and forested areas in which bark beetle killed trees were prevalent. Moisture conditions throughout the southwestern United States improved in many areas and bark beetle activity decreased.

*Mountain pine beetle*—Mountain pine beetle is currently making the most dramatic widespread changes on the landscape across the West. These beetles were first described at the turn of the last century in the Black Hills of South Dakota. A large outbreak was occurring at that time and the following unattributed quote was found on an archived slide at the USFS's Forest Health Office in Lakewood, CO. "At the time of their flight, they settled on cabins like swarms of locusts". Today, just over 100 years later the ponderosa pine forests of the Black Hills are again experiencing an intensifying mountain pine outbreak that is making dramatic landscape changes.

In recent years, mountain pine beetle has impacted millions of acres of lodgepole pine forests across the West at levels not previously recorded. If you look at the range of lodgepole pine in North America and the cumulative map of acres impacted from 2002–2006 you can see that most of the lodgepole pine cover type has been impacted (figure 3).

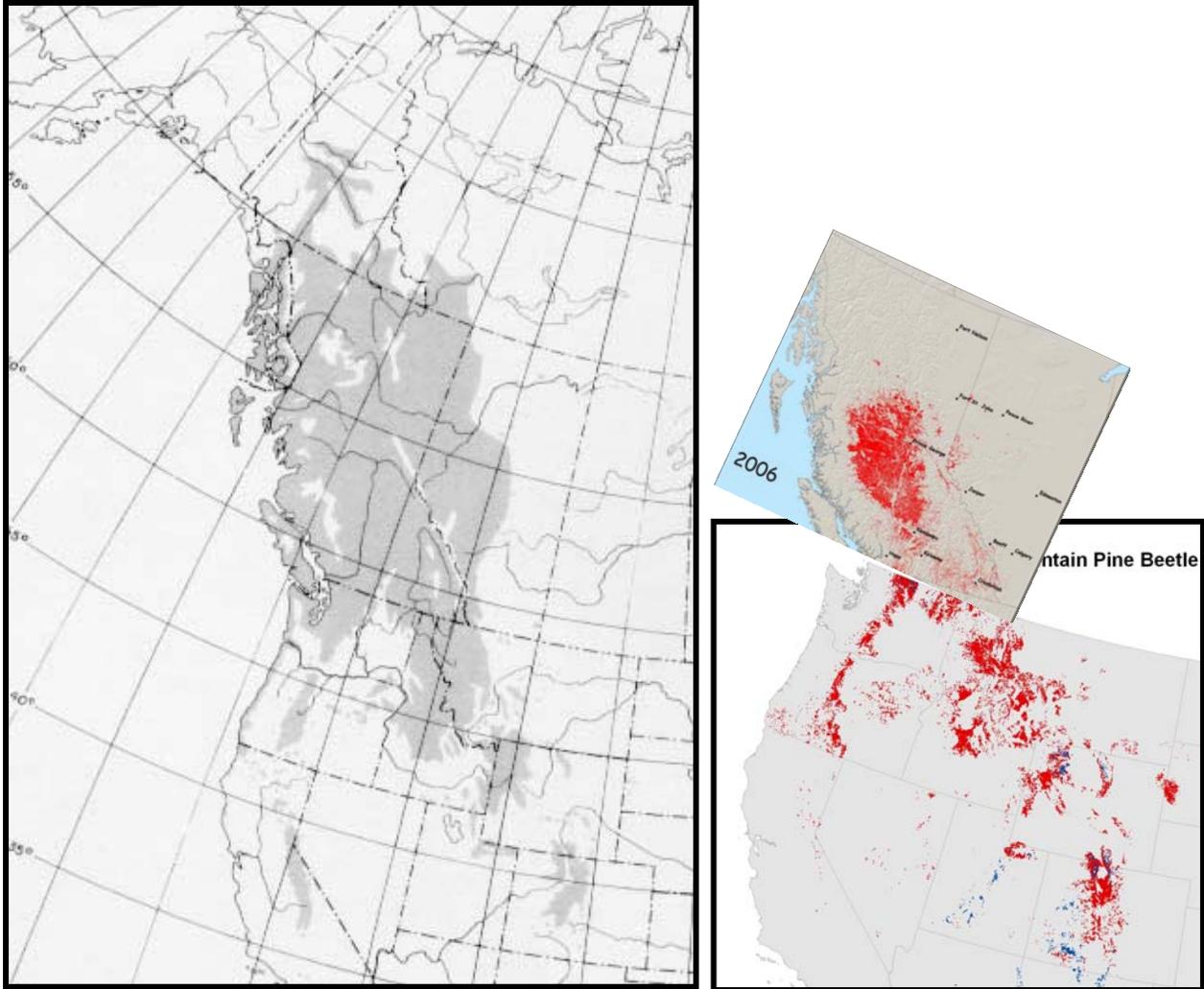


Figure 3—Range map of lodgepole pine in North America and mountain pine beetle impacted areas detected in aerial surveys. Canadian map is from the Canadian Forest Service website, [http://mpb.cfs.nrcan.gc.ca/map\\_e.html](http://mpb.cfs.nrcan.gc.ca/map_e.html), areas impacted by mountain pine beetle in 2006. The western U.S. map shows areas impacted by mountain pine beetle from 2004–2006.

The current epidemic has impacted stands at higher elevations and latitudes than have been previously recorded. In the Yellowstone corner of Montana, Wyoming and Idaho, high elevation white bark pines stands are being killed on sites previously considered to be too cold for serious mountain pine beetle epidemics (figure 4). Younger stands in old clearcuts, burns and avalanche runs remain green, but trees that are over five or six inches in diameter at the base are being killed by beetles attacking low on the trunk (figure 5). Twig beetles are also found attacking these smaller trees in regenerating stands in Colorado. Their populations may be building in the smaller diameter portions of trees attacked and killed by mountain pine beetle.



Figure 4—High elevation white bark pine killed in Idaho. Photo provided by Carl Jorgensen.



Figure 5—Mature lodgepole pine killed by mountain pine beetle in north central Colorado. Most of the trees regenerating in the old clearcut are too small for the beetles, however, many trees reaching five to six inches in diameter at the base are being killed by mountain pine beetles and twig beetles. Photo by Sheryl Costello.

The mountain pine beetle epidemic in northern Colorado illustrates how quickly beetle populations can increase and impact extensive areas. The first signs of a building beetle population occurred in 1997. By 1999, clearly defined epicenters were mapped during aerial surveys. These rapidly expanded and merged and by 2006 most of the cover type west of the Continental Divide had some level of mountain pine beetle activity. Cole and Amman (1980) reported that over the course of an outbreak, most of the large diameter trees will be killed by the time the outbreak subsides. They also reported that an outbreak averages six years to run its course in a given stand, but emphasized that once infestations build up, a large amount of dispersal may occur. This leads to more rapid tree losses in adjacent stands with beetle populations reaching outbreak levels and subsiding in a shorter time. Some newly infested areas are now being depleted of suitable host trees in only one or two years. Through 2006, the cumulative area of lodgepole pine forests in Colorado where mountain pine beetle activity was detected in aerial surveys was about 1 million acres. In 2007, that number increased to 1.5 million acres. The epidemic in British Columbia, where lodgepole forests are more contiguous than in the western U.S., is even more staggering. The B.C. Ministry of Forests and

Range reported over 24 million acres of lodgepole pine affected by mountain pine beetle in 2007 (Buxton unpublished).

*Douglas-fir beetle*—Visitors to Yellowstone National Park will notice old Douglas-fir trees killed by Douglas-fir beetle along the road from Cody, Wyoming to the east entrance of the park. Douglas-fir beetle outbreaks followed forest fires and drought and peaked in 2005 when over 670,000 acres were affected across the West. Acres of Douglas-fir tree mortality have been declining, but in 2007, increases in Douglas-fir beetle activity were recorded in the central and southern Rockies, intermountain west and the Pacific Northwest.

*Western balsam bark beetle and fir engraver beetle*—Western balsam bark beetle primarily attacks the high elevation subalpine firs and fir engraver beetles are most common on the other western true firs. Notable outbreaks have occurred in recent years across the West and are closely tied to local drought conditions. Outbreaks tend to subside when soil moisture improves.

There are also many areas in the West where more than one bark beetle species is active at the same time. On the Shoshone National Forest in northern Wyoming, uniquely pure stands of Rocky Mountain Douglas-fir are being killed by Douglas-fir beetle next to stands of Engelmann spruce killed by spruce beetle and limber and lodgepole pine being killed by mountain pine beetle. This scenario is being repeated throughout the West, in different types of host stands and with different beetle species.

Given these recent trends and present level of beetle-caused tree mortality, it is not difficult to see how the view out the window of a plane or even a car may lead one to the conclusion that western conifer forests are under attack. Certainly, vast areas of the western landscape have been affected by western bark beetle infestations—outbreaks involving several stands to epidemics encompassing a host type across multiple forests. Millions of acres are considered at risk (Western Forestry Leadership Coalition 2007). Whether the levels we see today are historically unprecedented is subject to debate. We lack sufficient records to adequately address the issue, although we know there were large-scale bark beetle infestations at the turn of the twentieth century when forest entomologists first began studying the insects of western forests (e.g., Wickman 2005) and other epidemics since then are well documented. Nevertheless, given the relationship of recent losses to changing climatic conditions, there exists a threat of increasing tree losses with projected climate changes. The current western bark beetle situation presents many opportunities for research to better understand changing western forest ecosystems and the management implications of this large disturbance, its source and interactions with other agents of change.

## **Formation of the Western Bark Beetle Research Group**

These conditions were a driving force in bringing together research entomologists of the three western Forest Service research stations to form the USDA FS R&D Western Bark Beetle Research Group (WBBRG). The leadership of the Pacific Northwest, Pacific

Southwest and Rocky Mountain Research Stations, which cover the 15 western states including Hawaii and Alaska, recognized the bark beetle situation in the West as a compelling problem that crosses station boundaries. The WBBRG is made up of 11 researchers located from Alaska to Arizona, whose work focuses on native and non-native insects of western forest and rangeland ecosystems. With many research challenges, the benefits of a tri-Station partnership include improved efficiency by leveraging resources and expertise, and enhanced communication and coordination.

The WBBRG serves as an ad hoc umbrella organization aimed at fostering communication, enhancing responsiveness and delivery of bark beetle research, and enriching scientific interactions among Forest Service bark beetle researchers in the western U.S. The objectives of this group include:

- Work with partners and stakeholders to identify western bark beetle priority research
- Pursue priority research and develop high impact products
- Promote the relevance of western bark beetle research for partners and stakeholders
- Increase overall quality, productivity and timeliness of research through cooperation and integration among stations
- Enhance communication and service to partners and stakeholders

To achieve the first of these objectives, the WBBRG invited forest entomologists from FHP representing the western Regions to participate in this endeavor (see also Negrón et al. 2008b). When the ideas were synthesized, the consensus was that among the numerous research topics raised, the following represent the highest ranked priorities:

- Describe, evaluate, and quantify long-term outcomes of bark beetle outbreaks on ecological, economic, and social services at various spatial scales.
- Evaluate bark beetle response to vegetation treatments at the tree, stand, and landscape levels.
- Determine the relationships between bark beetles and wildfire.
- Evaluate bark beetle, common associates, and host tree physiological responses to climate change.
- Develop new and improved chemical and semiochemical-based strategies for bark beetle management.
- Develop methods and strategies for detecting, monitoring, and eradicating or mitigating invasive bark beetles and woodboring insects.

### **Part of a Long History of Western Forest Entomology Research**

To accomplish these goals, the WBBRG is continuing to build on past research successes. Often teamed with FHP entomologists or other partners, FS R&D entomologists of the three western stations have a long history of conducting research that is relevant to land managers and owners. Forest insect research, especially bark beetle research, has had a prominent role in FS R&D in the West over the years and made significant contributions. Since the turn of the last century professional forest entomologists have been conducting research and sharing their findings and knowledge

with colleagues, partners, and clients. In 1899, A.D. Hopkins (commonly known as the father of forest entomology in the U.S.) made a 2-month trip to the Pacific Northwest. The “Preliminary Report of the Insect Enemies of Forests in the Northwest” from that trip arguably marks the beginning of forest entomological research in the West (Burke 1946 in Wickman 2005). Soon after this trip Hopkins, a bark beetle expert, became the first Chief of the Division of Forest Insect Investigation established in 1902. He made subsequent trips (1902–1905) to the bark beetle outbreak in the Black Hills, to Colorado, to the southwest, and other parts of the Pacific Slope, and eventually a visit in 1911 to the Northeastern Oregon Project, the first large-scale bark beetle control project in the West (Wickman et al. 2002).

It was in large part the dominant role of bark beetles in forests of the West and elsewhere that led to the creation of the Division of Forest Insect Investigation within the USDA Bureau of Entomology to work with the Bureau of Forestry, headed at the time by Gifford Pinchot. The Division established stations throughout the West including the Pacific Slope (eventually settling at UC Berkeley and Portland, OR), Fort Collins, CO, Coeur’d Alene, ID, and Missoula, MT. The Division pursued bark beetle and other entomological research until 1953 when it officially became a part of the USDA Forest Service and its functions were transferred to Forest and Range Experiment Stations, which eventually became Research Stations. Early activities of the Division naturally focused on identifying the insects of greatest concern, including studies of taxonomy and biology, and developing methods for control. Scientists with the Division played significant roles in cooperative bark beetle control projects with other agencies (e.g., Forest and Park Services) and private landowners in the West, such as the Northeastern Oregon Project (1910–11) and others into the 1930s, particularly in California and Oregon (Wickman et al. 2002). In later years, as more permanent laboratory facilities were established, the focus of bark beetle research shifted to ecological investigations and control of bark beetles through forest management practices.

*Bark beetles and vegetation management*—Studies by early researchers laid groundwork for the research of today. When it had become clear that direct control methods used in large-scale control projects were having little long-term impacts on reducing levels of bark beetle-caused tree mortality, they shifted their attention to silvicultural and forest management strategies. For example, a tree susceptibility classification system was developed in 1942 (Keen 1943), leading the way for considerable future research and development of stand hazard- or risk-rating systems that help managers identify stand susceptibility and the probability of bark beetle infestation (e.g., Schmid and Frye 1976, Stevens et al. 1980). Many of these systems, or updated successors, are still widely used at the project level to guide silvicultural and restoration treatments and some research work has continued in the area where gaps exist (Negrón 1997, 1998, Negrón and Popp 2004, Negrón et al. 2008a). Response of beetles to vegetation treatments has been a subject of past research (reviewed by Fettig et al. 2007); however, particularly in light of the current emphases on fuel reduction and forest restoration, sufficient knowledge gaps exist to be ranked as an

area of high priority research by WBBRG. For a more detailed description of this topic, see McMillin and Fettig in this Proceedings.

*Long-term consequences of bark beetles impacts on ecological and socioeconomic values*—Previously comprehensive reviews or annotated bibliographies of research on some of the most significant bark beetles were published (western pine beetle, Miller and Keen 1960; Douglas-fir beetle, Furniss 1979; mountain pine beetle, Lessard et al. 1986; spruce beetle, Linton and Safranyik 1987). As forest management has shifted to multiple resource management, bark beetle research has also become broader. Researchers then began looking at integrated management strategies for bark beetle-host systems (McGregor and Cole 1985, Waters et al. 1985). Syntheses of the state of knowledge of the cause and effect role of bark beetles and bark beetle management in the interior northwest have been published (Gast et al. 1991, Filip et al. 1996, Hayes and Daterman 2001). By the 1990s, ecosystem and landscape management demands called for different analytical systems that examined multiple resources and could handle greater complexity and scale. Landscape simulation models provide a means of projecting long-term and large scale changes from succession, management, and disturbance. Using many of the same attributes of the early classification systems, models such as the Douglas-fir beetle impact model (Marsden et al. 1997) and the Western Pine Beetle Model (Beukema et al. 1997) were developed as extensions to the Forest Vegetation Simulator, which when integrated with other submodels allows simulations of multiple processes (e.g., Ager et al. 2007, McMahan et al. 2008). At larger scales, coarser grain models, such as state and transition models, have been used to examine multiple resource variables along with bark beetles and other insects (Hessburg et al. 1999, Barbour et al. 2007, Hemstrom et al. 2007). Limited research has directly addressed societal reactions to bark beetle outbreaks (e.g., Flint 2006). Additional research and improvements in landscape simulation models that include socioeconomic components and permit robust analysis of tradeoffs for management options including no treatment alternatives are needed. This is an area of high priority research for the WBBRG. For a more detailed description of this topic, see Progar and others in this Proceedings.

*Bark beetle and fire interactions*—It is generally acknowledged that historically across western landscapes, particularly in dry interior forests, disturbance agents including wildland fire and insects influenced successional processes (Agee 2003). Fire suppression over the past 100 years has changed both the frequency and severity of wildfire and insect outbreaks (Hessburg et al. 1994). Stimulated in part by large fires at the beginning of this century, researchers have increasingly placed more emphasis on the apparent reciprocal and sometimes synergistic association between fire and bark beetles; previous research efforts are reviewed by McCullough et al. (1998) and more recently by Parker et al. (2006). Recent studies have begun to examine functional and numerical interactions between bark beetles and fire at the tree and stand level (e.g., Hood and Bentz 2007), and the relationship between beetle outbreak and fuel dynamics (e.g., Jenkins et al. 2008). Few quantitative studies have been carried out that consider the spatiotemporal dynamics of wildfire and bark beetle outbreaks at the landscape scale. Somewhat conflicting results to date are indications that the mechanisms are

complex, particularly over time and at large spatial scales. Given the number of forested acres affected by insects and wildland fire each year, it's clear why the interactions between fire and bark beetles continues to be an area of high priority research for the WBBRG. For a more detailed description of this topic, see Gibson and Negrón in this Proceedings.

*Responses of bark beetle systems to climate change*—Investigations of the role of historical or natural range of variation of bark beetles are limited, but are important for understanding when and how they function as natural disturbance agents in forest ecosystems. Understanding how landscapes respond over time to perturbations including climate change is key to the development of effective forest management strategies for the future. The response of beetles, their common associates and hosts is an area of active investigation by the FS R&D researchers and one of WBBRG's priority areas. Research is ongoing at the individual and mechanistic level (e.g., Bentz and Mullen 1999, Hansen et al. 2002, Six and Bentz 2007), as well as at the population and landscape level (e.g., Logan and Powell 2001, Logan et al. 2003, Regniere and Bentz 2006). For a more detailed discussion of this topic, see Lundquist and Bentz in this Proceedings.

*Chemical and semiochemical-based management tactics*—Research in the area of direct control of bark beetles and use of pesticides began in the mid-1900s and continues today (e.g., Negrón et al. 2001, Fettig et al. 2006). Direct control measures often have limited but important applications, particularly in high value areas. For example, research on viable replacements for carbaryl (Hastings et al. 2001), one of the most effective treatments for individual trees against attack by many bark beetles (Fettig et al. 2006), is likely to continue. Others have determined the amount of drift that occurs during these treatments and used this information to determine the potential risk that drift poses to fish and other taxa in nearby aquatic systems, a primary concern when treating trees in campgrounds in the West (Fettig et al. 2008).

Behavior- or semiochemical research has been a strong component and focus of research in FS R&D in the West since the early studies in the late 60s and 70s. New technologies in both experimental exploration and application continue to make this a productive area of research and development for detection and suppression tactics. Using techniques that are crude by today's standards, early researchers succeeded in identifying the attractant or aggregant, and anti-aggregant pheromones, along with synergistic compounds, produced by many major bark beetles (e.g., Furniss et al. 1972). Attractants have long been used in trapping technology for detection and monitoring. The relationship between trap captures and population dynamics and more specifically, levels of bark beetle-caused tree mortality in a given area remains an area of active research (e.g., Bentz 2006, Hansen et al. 2006). The role of host tree physiology and host-produced volatiles is also an area of ongoing research (e.g., Joseph et al. 2001, Kelsey and Joseph 2001, 2003, Kelsey and Manter 2004, Manter and Kesley 2008).

Similarly, development of semiochemical-based suppression tactics has been an active and effective area of research for FS R&D in the West. Development of individual tree to area-wide protection from infestation for some bark beetles such as Douglas-fir beetle (e.g., Ross and Daterman 1994, 1995, 1997) and mountain pine beetle (e.g., Progar 2005, Gillette et al. 2006) represent important tools for managers. Further improvements and development of similar tools for protecting single-tree to large-scale areas from other bark beetle species are needed, particularly for high value resources. This area continues to be an area of high priority research for the WBBRG. For a more detailed discussion of this research topic see Gillette and Munson in this Proceedings.

*Detection, monitoring, and management of bark and woodboring invasives*—Many of the same technologies used for native species are being applied to the research and development of detection and mitigation tools for non-native invasive bark and woodboring beetles. Non-native insects are not new to the conifer forests of the western U.S., but represent an increasing threat as global trade and human traffic brings increased opportunities for importation and exchange. Between 1985 and 1998, approximately 90% of the non-native insects intercepted on wood materials were Coleoptera, and of those introduced beetles, over 50% belong to the bark and woodboring Scolytinae (Haack and Cavey 2000, Haack 2006). Many of the most noteworthy introductions have been in the eastern U.S. (e.g., pine shoot borer, Asian longhorn beetle, emerald ash borer); however, by direct importation or spread from elsewhere within North America, the number of invaders continues to grow in the West (e.g., Lee et al. 2007). Surveys conducted only a few years apart reveal new non-native woodborer records for the Pacific Northwest and North America (Mudge et al. 2001, LaBonte et al. 2005). In the past, western forest entomologists have studied a number of invaders, particularly defoliating Lepidoptera (Hayes and Ragenovich 2001). One with potential for changing forest composition was the larch casebearer which spread from the East. A classic biological control treatment was developed by an FS R&D research entomologist for this defoliator (Ryan 1997). It is a textbook example; there have been no documented non-target effects of the non-native parasitoids released to control this invader, the control has been maintained for over a decade, and it appears to be self-sustaining. Detection, monitoring, and management for invasive bark and woodboring beetles is an area of current research (e.g., Negrón et al. 2005, Johnson et al. 2008, Lee et al. 2008, Liu et al. 2008) and a high priority area for the WBBRG. For a more detailed discussion of this research topic see Seybold and Downing in this Proceedings.

Working with our FHP partners and others, the WBBRG seeks to continue this legacy of relevant research, delivery and partnership. Exemplifying this spirit and representative of our mutual goals to work cooperatively and communicate with stakeholders, each of the informative papers in this Proceedings is a WBBRG and FHP collaboration.

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**WESTERN BARK BEETLE**

**RESEARCH GROUP**



# Bark Beetle Responses to Vegetation Management Treatments<sup>1</sup>

Joel D. McMillin and Christopher J. Fettig<sup>2</sup>

## Abstract

Native tree-killing bark beetles (Coleoptera: Curculionidae, Scolytinae) are a natural component of forest ecosystems. Eradication is neither possible nor desirable and periodic outbreaks will occur as long as susceptible forests and favorable climatic conditions co-exist. Recent changes in forest structure and tree composition by natural processes and management practices have led to increased competition among trees for water, nutrients and growing space thereby increasing tree stress. As trees become stressed, their insect resistance mechanisms are compromised and thus they become more susceptible to bark beetle attack. In this presentation, we reviewed tree and stand factors associated with bark beetle infestations and analyzed the effectiveness of vegetation management practices for mitigating the negative impacts of bark beetles on forest ecosystems. We described the current state of our knowledge and practical application of this knowledge; identified future research needs required to make informed decisions on proposed silvicultural treatments; and discussed ongoing research efforts led by the Western Bark Beetle Research Group. Our discussion concentrated on pine-dominated systems in the western US.

Keywords: Silviculture, thinning, prescribed fire, bark beetles, ponderosa pine.

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## Introduction

Bark beetles (Coleoptera: Curculionidae, Scolytinae), a large and diverse group of insects consisting of approximately 550 species in North America (Wood 1982), are commonly recognized as the most important mortality agent in coniferous forests (Furniss and Carolin 1977). Most bark beetles feed on the phloem tissue of woody plants and often directly kill the host influencing forest ecosystem structure and function by regulating certain aspects of primary production, nutrient cycling, ecological succession and the size, distribution and abundance of forest trees (Mattson 1977, Mattson and Addy 1975, Mattson et al. 1996). Attacks reduce tree growth and hasten decline, mortality and subsequent replacement by other tree species. Severe infestations may impact timber and fiber production, water quality and quantity, fish and wildlife populations, recreation, grazing capacity, biodiversity, endangered species, real estate values and cultural resources in a variety of ways.

Individual trees utilize growth factors until one or more factors become limiting (Oliver and Larson 1996). Therefore, a forest contains a certain amount of intangible growing space, which varies spatially and temporally. Disturbances can make growing space available to some tree species at the expense of others (e.g., selective herbivory), or alter the amount of growing space available to all trees (e.g., prolonged drought) (Fettig et al. 2007). As growing space diminishes, a tree's photosynthates are allocated to different uses in an order of priorities (Oliver and Larson 1996): (1) maintenance respiration (Kramer and Kozlowski 1979), (2) production of fine roots (Fogel and Hunt 1979), (3) reproduction (Eis et al. 1965), (4) primary (height) growth (Oliver and Larson 1996), (5) xylem (diameter) growth (Waring and Schlesinger 1985), and (6) insect and disease resistance mechanisms (Mitchell et al. 1983). This hierarchy is not absolute, but is often used to illustrate how production of insect resistance mechanisms may be compromised when growing space becomes limited by one or more factors (Fettig et al. 2007).

In order to reproduce, bark beetles must successfully locate and colonize suitable hosts. Once identified, using a variety of behavioral modalities, host colonization begins with the biting process. Given the cues received during this process and other factors, such as the beetle's internal physiology (Wallin and Raffa 2000), the host is either rejected or accepted. If the host is rejected, the beetle takes flight presumably in search of another host. If the host is accepted, colonization in the case of living hosts requires overcoming tree defenses that consist of anatomical and chemical components that are both constitutive and inducible (Franceschi et al. 2005). This can only be accomplished by recruitment of a critical minimum number of beetles, which varies with changes in host vigor (Berryman 1982). Most coniferous species, particularly pines, have a well-defined resin duct system, which is capable of mobilizing large amounts of oleoresin upon wounding and often drowns or encapsulates attacking beetles.

Factors such as stand density, basal area or stand density index, tree diameter and host density are consistently identified as primary attributes associated with bark beetle infestations. Therefore, efforts to prevent undesirable levels of bark beetle-caused tree

mortality must change stand susceptibility through reductions in tree competition and/or changes in tree species composition.

### **Bark Beetle Responses to Vegetation Management Treatments**

Based on a comprehensive review of empirical and anecdotal evidence concerning the effects of thinning and other vegetation management practices on host susceptibility and subsequent bark beetle infestation, Fettig et al. (2007) developed seven primary conclusions. These are paraphrased below and supplemented with additional supporting information.

1. *Bark beetles causing the majority of conifer mortality in the US are native insects and an integral component of forest ecosystems.* As such, eradication is neither possible nor desirable. Although bark beetles are native to conifer forests of the western US, conditions of many forest types have changed substantially over the past century (Cocke et al. 2005), resulting in increased inter-tree competition and subsequent landscape level outbreaks (USDA Forest Service 2005). Changing forest stand and tree conditions through vegetation management would sensibly decrease susceptibility to bark beetle-caused impacts.

2. *Forested landscapes that contain little heterogeneity promote the creation of large contiguous areas susceptible to insect outbreaks.* For example, the extensive mountain pine beetle, *Dendroctonus ponderosae* Hopkins, outbreak in British Columbia, Canada may be due in part to homogenization of forest stands over large geographic areas. In the early 1900s, ~17 percent of lodgepole pine, *Pinus contorta* Dougl. ex Loud., forests were in age classes susceptible to mountain pine beetle infestation, while today >50 percent of forests meet this classification (Taylor and Carroll 2004). When developing vegetation management strategies for bark beetles, susceptibility needs to be considered at both stand and landscape levels. Typically, the later is often not adequately addressed.

3. *Although an extensive body of research exists describing relationships among stand conditions, vegetation management practices, and host susceptibility for several bark beetle species (e.g., mountain pine beetle), we still have research gaps for some cover types and common bark beetle species (e.g., bark beetles attacking true fir species).* McMillin et al. (2003) related the extent of subalpine fir, *Abies lasiocarpa* (Hook.) Nutt., mortality caused by western balsam bark beetle, *Dryocoetes confusus* Swaine, to forest conditions in north-central Wyoming. Significant positive linear relationships were found between amount of fir mortality and percentage of subalpine fir trees, subalpine fir basal area, and subalpine fir stand density index. However, additional studies are required to more fully understand factors associated with bark beetle infestations in true fir forests, and to develop silvicultural prescriptions to minimize undesirable levels of western balsam bark beetle-caused tree mortality.

4. *Bark beetle infestations are consistently associated with certain forest stand and site conditions, such as tree density, basal area, stand density index, and site quality index.* These findings have implications for developing vegetation management strategies.

Although not all studies examining the effects of thinning have demonstrated significant treatment effects, no studies have shown that thinning resulted in significant increases in the amount of *Dendroctonus*-caused tree mortality. Furthermore, vegetation management treatments can have direct and indirect societal benefits in addition to reducing tree losses associated with bark beetle infestations. For example, thinning can redistribute growing space to desirable trees, utilize anticipated mortality resulting from stem exclusion, encourage regeneration, create early cash flows, and reduce risks associated with fire and diseases.

5. *Several bark beetles are attracted to thinning residues (slash), most notably several species in the genus Ips (Livingston 1979, Parker 1991).* The most damaging effects occur when fresh slash and weakened trees are present in an area for two or more years (Parker 1991). However, impacts caused by bark beetles infesting thinning residues can be minimized through the use of published guidelines (DeGomez et al. 2008, Kegley et al. 1997, Parker 1991), which include information regarding the timing of thinning, slash size, removal of thinning residues, and appropriate treatment of slash by burning, chipping, or burying (see “*Ips*-n-chips” section below for more on slash management and bark beetles).

6. *Sublethal heating of critical plant tissue can stress trees and increase their susceptibility to bark beetle attack.* Prescribed fires are increasingly being implemented to reduce the risk of catastrophic wildland fires (Agee and Skinner 2005); however, there is the potential for unintended increases in bark beetle activity to occur following relatively low-intensity prescribed fires (Parker et al. 2006). For example, Breece et al. (2008) found a significantly greater proportion of ponderosa pine, *P. ponderosa* Dougl. ex Laws., trees attacked by bark beetles in stands that were prescribed burned (13%) than in paired unburned stands (1.5%) at sites in Arizona and New Mexico. However, the authors stated that relatively small increases in tree mortality should be acceptable to many forest managers given the effects of such fuels management treatments on reducing surface fuel loads and the risk of severe wildfire.

7. *The effectiveness of direct control techniques varies among bark beetle species.* For example, direct control treatments (i.e., cut-and-remove, cut-and-leave) can be effective for managing southern pine beetle, *D. frontalis* Zimmermann, infestations because of its unique life cycle and attack behavior (Billings 1995). In general, these treatments are not as effective for management of bark beetle species in the western US, especially once an epidemic population phase has been reached. Most effective direct control treatments in the West are those that target increasing, but localized populations and those that are in response to discrete disturbance events (e.g., windthrow, mixed-severity fire).

### **Vegetation treatments currently implemented in southwestern ponderosa pine forests**

In the Southwest, few silvicultural treatments are implemented for the sole objective of reducing stand risk or susceptibility to bark beetles. Exceptions include Forest Health Protection (FHP)-funded projects (State and Private Forestry, USDA Forest Service) in

high value settings such as developed recreation (e.g., campgrounds) and administrative sites. The majority of federal funding for vegetation management is geared towards fuels reduction and forest health restoration projects.

### **Fuels reduction treatments in the wildland urban interface (WUI)**

Most funding for vegetation management in southwestern ponderosa pine forests is expended on fuels reduction treatments, such as thinning from below, particularly in the WUI. While the primary objective of these treatments is to reduce the risk of catastrophic wildland fires and damage to homes and other structures (National Fire Plan 2004), these treatments are also often advocated as a strategy to reduce the susceptibility of individual trees and forest stands to bark beetle attack. However, there has not been a critical examination of how these treatments actually affect the short- and long-term susceptibility of stands to bark beetles. As thinning and prescribed fire prescriptions to reduce fuels can vary widely, there is reason to believe their effects on bark beetles will also vary. Thinning treatments with diameter caps of less than 41–46 cm can result in residual basal areas that are still in the moderate to high stand susceptibility for bark beetles that typically attack ponderosa pine. These treatments can also result in the creation of even aged stands comprised of large-diameter, mature trees that may be highly susceptible to bark beetle species such as western pine beetle, *D. brevicornis* LeConte, particularly during periods of extended drought. It is recommended that land managers, in cooperation with forest health professionals, monitor how bark beetles respond to such treatments in both the short- and long-term with the intent that silvicultural prescriptions can be developed that successfully achieve multiple goals with limited additional cost.

### **Forest health restoration treatments**

Prescriptions for improving overall forest ecosystem health and function are also being implemented in southwestern ponderosa pine forests. In general, these treatments work to restore historic patterns of stand structure, fire intensity and fire frequency (Fulé et al. 2007). The resulting stand structure is typically patchier, clumpier and comprised of more uneven-aged stands compared with stand structures produced as a result of fuels reduction projects. Being that many of the stand hazard rating systems for ponderosa pine were developed in even-aged stands, there is a question as to how bark beetle activity might vary in response to these silvicultural systems (Negrón et al. 2008). Mountain pine beetle-caused tree mortality in uneven-aged ponderosa pine stands in the Black Hills of South Dakota and Wyoming was found to be positively correlated with basal area and ponderosa pine stand density index, which is similar to previous findings in even-aged stands (Schmid and Mata 2005). However, in contrast to even-aged stands where it is the total contribution of ponderosa pine that affects stand susceptibility, Negrón et al. (2008) concluded that densities (basal area) comprised of mid- to large-sized trees make a stand more susceptible to bark beetle attack in uneven-aged stands. Thus, akin to the recommendation for short- and long-term monitoring of bark beetle activity following fuels reduction treatments, additional case history studies of bark beetle responses to forest health restoration treatments seem prudent.

## Research and Development

In a research context, bark beetle responses to vegetation management treatments must be considered at three spatial scales (i.e., individual tree, stand and landscape) and at least two temporal scales (i.e., short-term and long-term). Typically, research and development (R&D) efforts have concentrated on short-term (e.g., 1–5 years post-treatment) responses using small scale plots (e.g.,  $\leq 4$  ha) indicative of stand level conditions. Given today's resource constraints, this is most appropriate, but not without certain limitations. For example, Schmid and Mata (2005) suggested results obtained from 1-ha plots within their Black Hills thinning study may be confounded by the fact that plots were surrounded by extensive areas of unmanaged forest where bark beetle populations were epidemic. They stated that reductions in long-term tree mortality will be accomplished when an area of sufficient size is managed so that thinned stands are separated from unmanaged stands by natural buffers or those of lower tree density. Several studies are being conducted at larger spatial scales (e.g., 10–100 ha) that represent more realistic management scenarios, but while data from such studies are highly desirable they come at significant cost.

Forest health specialists recognize long-term reductions in stand susceptibility to bark beetle attack achieved through vegetation management practices often occur at the cost of short-term increases in bark beetle-caused tree mortality. For example, as previously indicated, several bark beetle species are attracted to slash and/or host volatiles produced during thinning operations. While describing short-term bark beetle responses to vegetation management treatments are important, more important is the determination of long-term impacts on the amount and distribution of bark beetle-caused tree mortality as this influences fuel reduction targets, forest productivity and forest sustainability. One caveat is that long-term studies require long-term commitments in funding and staffing generally with relatively few accolades over time (i.e., presentations and publications) for the individual scientists and sponsoring agents involved. While the tremendous value of long-term studies is fully recognized, few funding sources are available for maintaining them.

In preparation for this presentation, we polled several of our colleagues in FHP to determine what they considered to be primary needs for research. Among vegetation management treatments, responses concentrated on the application of mechanical thinning and prescribed fire and their effects on the amount and distribution of bark beetle-caused tree mortality at three spatial scales (Table 1).

**Table 1—Examples of research needs identified by Forest Health Protection, 2007**

<b>Research Question</b>	<b>Spatial Scale</b>	<b>Temporal Scale</b>
What are the benefits of “individual tree culturing” to reduce the risk of western pine beetle attack on large diameter ponderosa pine in the Pacific Northwest?	Tree	Short and long-term
What is the probability of bark beetle attack on individual trees following prescribed fire? What can be done to limit any negative impacts?	Tree	Short and long-term
How does the application of prescribed fire influence the amount and distribution of bark beetle-caused tree mortality?	Stand	Short and long-term
What specific thinning treatments best meet long-term bark beetle management objectives?	Stand and landscape	Long-term
Are thinning treatments implemented during a bark beetle outbreak effective in the short- and/or long-term?	Stand and landscape	Short and long-term
How much of a landscape needs to be treated? Where will treatments be most effective?	Landscape	Long-term
Are there combinations of treatments that also satisfy other resource objectives?	Landscape	Long-term

The tools and methods by which thinning is implemented are quite diverse, and their application can result in significantly different stand structures and compositions. Depending on the insect species of concern, each method would have a functionally different response on the abundance and distribution of preferred hosts as well as that of the insect herbivore. For example, Whitehead and Russo (2005) suggested that increases in resin production and tree vigor following thinning were not as important in reducing mountain pine beetle-caused tree mortality in lodgepole pine stands as reductions in the number of initiated attacks, which is more likely associated with inter-tree spacing. In western North America, thinning has long been advocated as a preventive measure to alleviate or reduce the amount of bark beetle-caused tree mortality (Fettig et al. 2007).

Prescribed fire is often used to reduce the buildup of hazardous fuels, enhance wildlife habitat, improve grazing, thin overstocked stands, control some insects and diseases, prepare sites for regeneration and restore fire-adapted forest ecosystems. Forest managers must plan and execute prescribed burns carefully in order to minimize injury

to desirable residual trees while still fulfilling management objectives. Bark beetles are often considered the most important mortality agent following prescribed fires, and mixed-severity wildfires, in coniferous forests (Parker et al. 2006). It has been our experience that gross generalizations concerning bark beetle responses to prescribed fire at the stand level are misleading as the bark beetle assemblages present within and adjacent to treated areas are of primary importance.

The research question “Are there combinations of treatments that also satisfy other resource objectives?” (Table 1) is particularly important and worthy of further discussion. In recent years, relatively few resources have been available to conduct thinnings specifically for bark beetle management (i.e., with consideration to residual tree distributions and densities within the context of lowering stand susceptibility to bark beetle attack). Therefore, it seems appropriate that forest health specialists should be working with fuel managers to determine if the application of SPLATs and SPOTs technology (i.e., Strategically Placed Landscape Area Treatments and Strategic Placement of Treatments as defined in firehatched assessments) used in fuels management could be adjusted to meet other forest health concerns. To our knowledge, this is not currently being done in the western US.

We polled several of our colleagues in the Western Bark Beetle Research Group (WBBRG) to determine what studies were currently being conducted to identify bark beetle responses to vegetation management treatments (Table 2). It is encouraging that several studies will provide answers to questions posed in Table 1 and/or fill research gaps identified elsewhere (Fettig et al. 2007). For example, Massey and Wygant (1954) first reported the mean diameter of attacked Engelmann spruce, *Picea engelmannii* Parry ex Engelm., decreased during a spruce beetle, *D. rufipennis* (Kirby), outbreak thereby suggesting a preference by spruce beetle for larger diameter trees. Today, stands growing on well-drained sites and with a mean diameter at breast height (1.37 m) of live spruce > 25.4 cm being > 40.6 cm (i.e., large-diameter trees), basal areas > 34.3 m<sup>2</sup>/ha and proportions of spruce > 65% are considered more susceptible to spruce beetle attack (Schmid and Frye 1976). However, no experiments have specifically been conducted to determine the effects of thinning on spruce beetle activity in Engelmann spruce stands. To generate such data within a completely randomized or randomized complete block design would take years or perhaps decades to establish the scientific infrastructure and await spruce beetle populations to challenge the experiment in a manner sufficient to determine differences in susceptibility among treatments. Alternatively, to address this knowledge gap Matt Hansen and Jose Negrón of WBBRG have recently initiated a retrospective study to determine the efficacy of silvicultural treatments in reducing stand-level spruce beetle-caused tree mortality, and to quantify post-outbreak stand characteristics among a variety of treatment types including unmanaged stands. Twenty-six pairs of previously treated and untreated plots have been installed in Arizona, Utah and Wyoming.

**Table 2—Examples of ongoing research led by the Western Bark Beetle Research Group, 2007**

<b>Research Projects</b>	<b>Primary Investigator(s)</b>
Effects of silvicultural treatments on levels of spruce beetle-caused tree mortality in the Rocky Mountains	Hansen and Negrón
Tools for analyzing landscape-level fuels treatment scenarios and their effects on bark beetle-caused tree mortality	Hayes
Impacts of silvicultural treatments on defensive chemicals in stressed ponderosa and lodgepole pines and impacts on bark beetle host tree selection	Kelsey; Seybold
Factors associated with bark beetle-caused tree mortality at multiple spatial scales	Bentz; Fettig; Hansen; Negrón
Interactions among bark beetles and other disturbances to improve management approaches	Lundquist; Negrón; Seybold
Development of management guidelines to help reduce tree mortality due to bark beetle infestations after the application of prescribed fire	Bentz; Fettig; Hansen; Hayes; Kelsey; Lundquist; Negrón; Niwa
Thinning strategies for reducing the risk of bark beetle attack in Eastside pine and Sierra Nevada mixed conifer forests	Fettig

### **The “Ips-n-chips” Study**

The *Ips-n-chips* study serves as a successful model for collaborative research between FHP and FS R&D (see Fettig et al. 2006). We share the genesis of this study as well as its results and impacts hoping that it serves as a model of success for similar studies conducted within the framework of WBBRG.

In recent years, unusually large and catastrophic wildfires have heightened public concern. Federal and state hazardous fuel reduction programs have increased accordingly to reduce the risk, extent and severity of these events, particularly in the WUI. Because sufficient markets have yet to be developed for small dimensional material in many locations, much of the tree biomass resulting from these treatments is not merchantable. In many areas, this material is cut and lopped (i.e., bole severed into short lengths and limbs removed) and/or chipped, and distributed on site. The amount of total biomass on the site may be unchanged, but the torching potential (i.e., the

initiation of crown fire activity) and rate of potential crown fire spread is significantly reduced. However, these actions result in increased amounts of host material (slash) and host volatiles (from slash and chips) that may concentrate certain bark beetle species in these areas.

In early 2002, Joel McMillin and John Anhold (Forest Health Protection, USDA Forest Service, Flagstaff, AZ) were contacted regarding what appeared to be excessive amounts of bark beetle-caused tree mortality resulting from the chipping of unmerchantable trees during fuel reduction treatments in the WUI surrounding Flagstaff, Arizona. Through several site visits and a preliminary study, they provided anecdotal evidence that several bark beetle species appeared to be attracted to stands where logging residues had recently been chipped (McMillin and Anhold, unpublished data). In 2003, FHP (McMillin and Anhold) and the Pacific Southwest Research Station (Fettig) joined forces to examine the effects of several mechanical fuel reduction treatments on the activity of bark beetles in ponderosa pine forests located in Arizona and California. Treatments were applied in both late spring (April-May) and late summer (August-September) and included: (1) thinned biomass chipped and randomly dispersed within each 0.4 ha plot; (2) thinned biomass chipped, randomly dispersed within each plot and raked 2 m from the base of residual trees; (3) thinned biomass lopped-and-scattered (thinned trees cut into 1–2 m lengths) within each plot; and (4) an untreated control. The mean percentage of residual trees attacked by bark beetles ranged from 2.0% (untreated control) to 30.2% (plots thinned in spring with all biomass chipped). A three-fold increase in the percentage of trees attacked by bark beetles was observed in chipped versus lopped-and-scattered plots. Bark beetle colonization of residual trees was higher during spring treatments, which corresponded with peak adult beetle flight periods as measured by funnel trap captures. Raking chips away from the base of residual trees did not significantly affect attack rates. In a laboratory study, the quantities of  $\beta$ -pinene, 3-carene,  $\alpha$ -pinene and myrcene eluting from chips greatly exceeded those from lopped-and-piled slash during each of 15 sample periods. These laboratory results may, in part, explain the bark beetle responses observed in chipping treatments as many of these monoterpenes are attractive, or enhance attraction in the presence of aggregation pheromone components, for several bark beetles.

Despite higher levels of bark beetle attack in chipped plots, no significant differences in tree mortality were observed among treatments during the first two years of this study. However, the authors commented that negative effects of prolonged and large numbers of red turpentine beetle, *D. valens* LeConte, attacks, among others, on individual tree health may not be realized for some time (Fettig et al. 2006), and continued monitoring these plots for bark beetle-caused tree mortality on an annual basis. During 2005 and 2006, a significant treatment effect was observed with significantly higher levels of bark beetle-caused tree mortality observed in plots chipped in spring than plots chipped in fall or those lopped-and-scattered in fall. Cumulatively (2003–2006), a significant treatment effect was also observed with significantly higher levels of bark beetle-caused tree mortality occurring in plots chipped in spring ( $6.1 \pm 1.7$  percent) than those lopped-and-scattered in fall ( $1.4 \pm 0.8$  percent).

Based on this study, guidelines were developed for minimizing tree losses due to bark beetle infestation following chipping (DeGomez et al. 2008). Again, we feel this study serves as a fruitful framework in which to conduct research within the context of WBBRG. We hope it serves as an example of one of many productive partnerships to come as a result of formation of the WBBRG.

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# Bark Beetles in a Changing Climate<sup>1</sup>

John E. Lundquist and Barbara J. Bentz<sup>2</sup>

## Abstract

Over the past decade, native bark beetles (Coleoptera: Curculionidae) have killed billions of trees across millions of hectares of forest from Alaska to Mexico. Although bark beetle infestations are a regular force of natural change in forested ecosystems, several current outbreaks occurring simultaneously across western North America are the largest and most severe in recorded history. Bark beetle ecology is complex and dynamic, and a variety of circumstances must coincide for a large scale bark beetle outbreak. While outbreak dynamics vary from bark beetle species to bark beetle species and from forest type to forest type, a combination of several factors appear to be driving current outbreaks, including a changing climate.

Keywords: Global warming, climate change, latitudinal gradient, climate models, climate normals.

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## Introduction

Over the past 100 years, global average temperature has risen by 0.74°C (0.56–0.92°C range). The greatest increase has occurred during the last two decades and experts say increases will continue (CIRMOUNT 2006). Predictions for increasing average global temperatures range from 1.0 °C to 4 °C over the next 100 years (Houghton et al. 2001).

There has also been a dramatic increase in the number of publications on climate change. An internet search of “climate change” finds over 60,000 hits in 2007 alone! Climate change may be one of the most focused topic areas in living history.

The amazing interest in this topic is not easy to explain. Most would agree that the biological understanding and science underlying the climate change phenomenon has existed for at least a couple of decades (Houghton et al. 2001). But science alone has been inadequate in evoking such a response. Politics and the media apparently lined up just right with science causing climate change to emerge from “science” to a truly popular phenomenon (Boykoff 2007).

### **What is climate change?**

“Climate” refers to the average state of the weather. Common weather phenomena are temperature, rain, snow, fog, wind, cloud, dust storms, and events such as tornadoes, hurricanes and ice storms. Weather usually refers to activity of these phenomena over short periods of time (hours or days) in localized areas. Climate refers to average atmospheric conditions over longer periods of time and involves broad areas. Although climate change is usually portrayed as increasing temperature, it actually expresses itself in many other ways as well; e.g., as changes in precipitation, UV-B radiation, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, nitrogen deposition, and others.

We see effects of climate change easier than we can experience a changing climate. These changes impact many things (Kolbert 2006, Parmesan 2006, Roy and Sparks 2000, Wohlforth 2002). We have heard about glaciers melting, flowers blooming earlier than in previous years, ocean levels rising and ocean-front villages washing to the sea, butterfly distributions migrating north (and one or two going south), and bark beetle outbreaks killing millions of hectares of forests. Climate is one of those unique phenomena that has the ability to effect nearly everything. It has been referred to as the “ultimate integrative field”.

### **Why should we be interested in the effects of climate on herbivorous insects, like bark beetles?**

Insects have short life cycles, resulting in dozens or hundreds of generations in the time it takes most higher plants to complete one generation. Because insect life cycles are environmentally driven, a change in climate can significantly influence insect population timing and density. Monitoring insect population trends can then be used as an indirect measure of climate change. Furthermore, insects occur nearly everywhere and many can be studied year round. Insect pests can shape or change ecosystem structure and function, and, in doing so, act as catalysts of change. Insects can help maintain or

sustain ecosystems; displace or remove components of ecosystems; or lead to replacement of existing ecosystems. Insects can respond to long-term subtle shifts in their environment that are commonly so subtle that they cannot be directly experienced by humans. In short, insects can serve as a convenient bioindicator of climate change.

Bark beetles, in particular, create the most visible of insect disturbances in a forest because they kill trees, lots of trees, and their impacts vary across all ecosystem services provided by a forest (Fettig et al. 2007). They influence nutrient cycling, energy flow, decomposition and other supporting services of ecosystems. They affect wood production and other provisioning services and goods of ecosystems. They influence water production, snow distribution and other regulating functions of ecosystems. They impact recreational experiences and other cultural services. They react quickly to changes in climate; much faster than higher plants including trees. Many bark beetle species have geographic distributions less extensive than their tree hosts (Ayres and Lombardero 2000), which suggests distributions could rapidly shift with climate change (Carroll et al. 2004).

Climate change can directly affect bark beetle phenology and winter mortality, resulting in shifts in length and number of annual life cycles. Bark beetle communities will also be affected including predator/prey relationships, interactions with symbiotic fungi, forest structure, and forest vigor. Changes in temperature, precipitation and atmospheric gases will undoubtedly affect host tree defenses as well, possibly resulting in changes to bark beetle host specificity and geographic distribution. Rapid changes in climate may also result in genetic adaptations that create metapopulations (Balanya et al. 2006, Bradshaw and Holzapfel 2006). Spatial and temporal synchrony of beetles and their host trees may also be disrupted.

### **Dramatic increase in outbreaks of bark beetles in the West**

Western U.S. states and Canadian provinces have recently seen a significant increase in bark beetle activity. Examples include pinyon ips (*Ips confusus* LeConte) on pinyon pine (mostly *Pinus monophylla* Torr. & Frem. and *P. edulis* Engelm.) in the southwestern U.S. (Breshears et al. 2005), spruce beetle (*Dendroctonus rufipennis* Kirby) in Alaska (Werner et al. 2006), mountain pine beetle (*D. ponderosae* Hopkins) along the Rocky Mountain Front Range in Colorado (Negrón and Popp 2004), in high elevation forests (Gibson 2006, Bentz and Schen-Langenheim 2007), and in interior British Columbia (Westfall and Ebata 2008). Climate change has been implicated as a major influencing factor (Berg et al. 2006, Breshears et al. 2005, Nijhuis 2004). Proving a direct correlation between climate and bark beetle outbreaks, however, is a difficult task.

### **Understanding how climate affects the mechanics of bark beetle outbreaks is a challenge**

Climate affects everything in an already complicated biological system. For a bark beetle outbreak to occur, there must be suitable climate for several years, an active beetle population, and an extensive area of host trees of appropriate age, size and species (Fettig et al. 2007). Temperature, moisture and other climatic elements

symbolic of a changing climate can affect these requirements for a bark beetle outbreak. Outbreaks are often non-linear, unpredictable, sometimes unexpected events (Logan et al. 2003). Bark beetle outbreaks result from a unique combination of conditions at a variety of scales (Raffa et al. 2008).

Elevated temperature and shifting precipitation patterns, in particular, appear to be influencing recent and current bark beetle outbreaks (Régnière and Bentz 2007, Shaw et al. 2005). Elevated temperatures can speed up reproductive and growth cycles and reduce cold-induced mortality during cold snaps (Bentz and Mullins 1999, Bentz et al. 1991, Logan and Bentz 1999). Although the relationship is nonlinear, prolonged drought can weaken trees, making them more susceptible to bark beetle attacks (Breshears et al. 2005, Mattson and Haack 1987, Waring and Cobb 1992).

Because bark beetles are one component of a rich community comprising forest ecosystems, to fully understand climate change effects on bark beetles and hence forest ecosystems, we need to consider how climate change influences biotic interactions of symbiosis, competition, predation and other dynamic disturbance processes (Botkin et al. 2007). For example, Six and Bentz (2007) observed that temperature determines the relative presence of symbiotic fungi associated with mountain pine beetle. Although relationships are unclear at this time, it is obvious that climate change effects on fungal populations will have a cascading effect on mountain pine beetle population success. Effects of climate change on other critical components of bark beetle communities, including predators and parasites, are also unclear.

### **Predicting climate and weather events of the future is a very difficult task**

Forecasts are less reliable the further out in time they project. Small, seemingly insignificant, changes can amplify to become major system shifts, which are unpredictable (Burkett et al. 2005). Because of a sensitivity to small changes, it will never be possible to make perfect forecasts (Holling 2001), although there still is much potential for improvement. Useful predictions of future insect activity will depend on reliable predictions of weather and a good understanding of cause/effect relations between weather/climate and insect physiology, behavior, and ecology (Stireman et al. 2005). Predicting the future involves some very complex mathematical models and very advanced, high capacity computers (McKenney et al. 2003, Rehfeldt et al. 2006, Williams and Liebhold 2002).

Mechanistic mathematical models have been developed to describe and predict mountain pine beetle phenology (Bentz et al. 1991, Gilbert et al. 2004, Jenkins et al. 2001, Logan and Bentz 1999, Powell et al. 2000, Safranyik et al. 1975) and cold tolerance (Régnière and Bentz 2007), and spruce beetle voltinism (Hansen et al. 2001b). These models have been implemented within the BioSim (Régnière and St-Amant 2007) modeling framework, enabling landscape-scale projections of population success given daily temperatures for the duration of a generation, one, two or three years depending on bark beetle species and geographic location.

Model results using climate-changed normals suggest that the probability of mountain pine beetle temperature-dependent survival in western U. S. over the next 25 yrs will generally increase. High-elevation forests will experience the greatest increase in probability of mountain pine beetle survival. The biggest increase in univoltine spruce beetle populations, and thus exponential population growth, is predicted to occur in Alaska and high-elevation areas of the western U.S. Historically, spruce beetle has had a two-year, or in some cases three-year, life cycle in these areas.

Our ability to predict western U.S. bark beetle response to climate change is limited by a lack of data on species-specific temperature-dependent developmental processes. As described above, we do have models for mountain pine beetle and spruce beetle, although additional research is needed to parameterize existing models to account for regional genetic differences in population response to temperature. For other bark beetle species, our current ability to forecast climate change effects on population dynamics is almost entirely qualitative.

### **What can we expect to happen to bark beetle populations as climate changes?**

Many possible scenarios have been proposed. In general, insect outbreaks are probably going to increase in number and severity (Ayres and Lombardero 2000, Stireman et al. 2005). Interactions between insects and their natural control agents (parasites, pathogens, predators, parasitoids) may be disrupted resulting in positive or negative effects on insect populations (Malmstrom and Raffa 2000). Host plant and insect phenological synchrony may be disrupted. Winter survival of insects may increase (Regniere and Bentz 2007, Williams and Liebhold 2002). Observed genetic adaptation to local environmental conditions (Bentz et al. 2001) suggest that bark beetles could rapidly respond to a changing climate. Exotic insects will have more opportunities to invade new areas and previously innocuous insects may shift hosts and become pests (Pernek et al. 2008). Distributions will shift northward in latitude and upward in elevation. Bark beetle species currently restricted to the southern U.S. and Mexico could expand northward. Northernmost forests will be affected first and most severely (Thomas et al. 2006).

### **Bark beetle management under a changing climate**

Managers want to know what can be done to hedge against future effects under such a cloud of uncertainty. Several management coping strategies have been proposed including a change in forest structure and age patterns across landscapes, altered species composition and diversity, reduction in invasive species populations, prompt action when new invasives are detected, planting late successional species, and many others (Spittlehouse and Stewart 2003). Most of these suggestions are based on logic alone, since unprecedented conditions are facing managers. Few are based on statistically rigorous experimental research. Managers must be willing to accept that climate change will result in novel environmental conditions never experienced by current forest ecosystems, and dynamic strategies that enhance ecosystem adaptability will be required (Millar et al. 2007).

## Conclusions

Management traditionally has been aimed at recreating the past using such concepts as historical range of variability (Choi 2007). We treat the past as a stable state. We are beginning to realize now that we have no such stable state under a changing climate. We are tremendously challenged to predict what future suitably resilient environments will look like. The future is a moving target. One thing that is highly probable... the climate will change. Which way it changes is a question on many researchers and practitioners minds. Extrapolating the climate versus time curve is a challenging effort, and some believe that taking actions in response to climate change can create a bigger risk than doing nothing (Spittlehouse and Stewart 2003).

There are many unanswered questions about potential effects of climate change on western bark beetle populations. Many will be difficult, perhaps impossible, to answer. Management of western U.S. forest ecosystems should be based on the best available science, a prospect facilitated by scientists within U.S. Forest Service Research and Development Western Bark Beetle Research Group.

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# Fire and Bark Beetle Interactions<sup>1</sup>

Ken Gibson and José F. Negrón<sup>2</sup>

## Abstract

Bark beetle populations are at outbreak conditions in many parts of the western United States and causing extensive tree mortality. Bark beetles interact with other disturbance agents in forest ecosystems, one of the primary being fires. In order to implement appropriate post-fire management of fire-damaged ecosystems, we need a better understanding of relationships between bark beetles and wildfire. Interactions can be one of two primary types: Fires can influence bark beetle populations directly by providing significant amounts of susceptible trees which may precipitate serious outbreaks; and effects of bark beetle outbreaks may influence likelihood and behavior of future fires. We examine various aspects of these interactions.

Keywords: Bark beetles, fire, fire-insect interactions.

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## Introduction

The collective wildfire seasons over past decade have been some of the most widespread and damaging in recorded history. As such, wildfires unquestionably have had both short- and long-term effects on management activities in forested stands of the intermountain West. Some of those effects may be initiation of bark beetle outbreaks. In other cases, existing outbreaks may be prolonged. Land managers need to determine, to the extent possible, which trees are likely to succumb to fire damage, which might survive fire effects but be killed by bark beetles, and which others may survive them both. The sooner those assessments can be made and preventive or corrective measures implemented, the more successfully adverse effects will be avoided (Missoula Field Office 2000). The relationship between bark beetle-caused mortality and resultant effects on fire behavior continue to generate questions. These relationships will also be discussed.

Other authors in these proceedings have discussed current bark beetle conditions, in western coniferous forests, where extreme tree mortality occasionally occurs due to elevated insect populations (see Cain and Hayes 2008). If we want to develop and implement appropriate post-fire management of fire-damaged forest ecosystems, we will need a better understanding of relationships between bark beetles and wildfire. This interaction can take two primary forms: Fires can have a significant impact on population dynamics of bark beetles which in turn can cause tree injury; and occurrence of bark beetles have many effects in coniferous forest ecosystems—one of which may be influencing the likelihood and behavior of future fires through changes in stand structure, transformation of live fuels into dead fuels, and fuel arrangements. In this paper, we examine two commonly held assumptions—fires have a significant impact on population dynamics of beetles; and that bark beetle-caused mortality, likewise, has a significant impact on wildfire behavior.

### **Post-fire tree survivability and bark beetle interactions**

Recently obtained research results can make prognoses of tree survival and appropriate management responses to both fire and threats from bark beetles more effective. Ryan (1982, 1989) has shown that the probability of tree survival is related to damage to crown, stem, or roots. Furthermore, amount of damage individual trees can sustain and still survive is dependent upon characteristics of its species (needle length and bark thickness), its size (diameter and height), and site factors on which it is growing. Research by Ryan, Harrington and Reinhardt has provided helpful means of predicting post-fire mortality based on species-specific characteristics (Harrington 1996, Reinhardt and Ryan 1989, Ryan and Amman 1994). Studies recently completed by Hood et al. (2007) and Sieg et al. (2006) have greatly helped answer survivability questions for two coniferous tree species—Douglas-fir and ponderosa pine, respectively.

In some cases, effects of earlier fires and management responses to bark beetle-induced mortality have served as valuable information sources. Included here are summaries of pertinent research results, useful historic precedents, and projects

involving management activities implemented during previous post-fire evaluations. We have learned that recommendations must be general enough to have widespread applicability, yet specific enough to be locally worthwhile. Still, recommendations are subject to site-specific conditions that are often difficult to predict: fire effects on bark beetle hosts, weather one or two years post-fire, extant populations of host-specific bark beetle species, and interactions between all three.

Within the past decade, forested stands in the West, of all ownerships, have been both extensively and intensely affected. Fire damage, of varying severity, has extended to several million acres in each of the past ten years. Yearly, fires rage in some parts of the West from April through November. Even as fires burn, post-fire planning to deal with their aftermath must proceed. There is, and will continue to be, a need to address wildfire effects in forested stands, and perhaps even more critically, in the more-populated wildland-urban interface. What short- and long-term management decisions will be implemented and how; and how bark beetles will interact with fire-damaged trees are questions that must be answered—and the sooner the better.

### **Bark Beetle Considerations**

Following wildfires, land managers are naturally concerned about tree survivability. We have also learned, in some situations, there is a high likelihood of bark beetles infesting fire-weakened trees (Parker et al. 2006). Bark beetle outbreaks following wildfires are not unprecedented, but neither are they certain. Several conditions must exist for bark beetles to take advantage of fire-damaged hosts:

1. There must be a sufficient supply of undamaged inner bark in fire-affected trees. If beetles' food supply, the bark and inner bark (phloem), becomes dry or scorched—often the case in stand-replacing fires or in thin-barked tree species—beetles will neither feed nor lay eggs in it.
2. Fires must occur at a time when beetles either are, or soon will be, in the adult stage and capable of infesting susceptible trees. Fires in late summer or early fall may occur after beetles have flown or may be colonized by wood borers and may therefore not be as suitable to bark beetles the following year. A recently killed tree's inner bark remains usable to beetles for a relatively short time. If not attacked while still "green," phloem may become too dry or otherwise unusable before the next flight season.
3. There must be a population of beetles within a reasonable distance to take advantage of weakened trees which become available.
4. Post-fire weather must be conducive to beetle survival and propagation.

### **Fire Survivability Case Studies**

Because several conditions must be met for outbreak development, beetle epidemics following wildfires are not a foregone conclusion; but a few such outbreaks are well-documented. Douglas-fir beetle (*Dendroctonus pseudotsugae* Hopkins), spruce beetle (*D. rufipennis* (Kirby)), and pine engraver beetle (*Ips* spp.) outbreaks following wildfires in 1988, 1994, and 2000 became extensive and quite damaging in parts of Yellowstone National Park and Montana (Amman and Ryan 1991; Rasmussen et al. 1996; Ryan and Amman 1996; FHP, Northern Region, unpublished office reports).

Following 1988 Yellowstone National Park fires, Amman and Ryan (1991) concluded “The 1988 fires in the Greater Yellowstone Area killed many trees outright. Many more were subjected to sublethal injuries resulting in increased susceptibility to insect attack. Still other trees escaped fire injury but are exposed to the spread of insect attack from nearby injured trees.” Rasmussen et al. (1996) showed “that bark beetle and delayed tree mortality due to fire injury significantly alter mosaics of green and fire-injured trees, that insect infestation increases with the percent of basal circumference killed by fire, and that bark beetle populations appear to increase in fire-injured trees and then infest uninjured trees.”

Ryan and Reinhardt (1988) demonstrated that post-fire mortality can be predicted as a function of crown scorch and bark thickness for most western conifers and that probability of mortality increased with percentage of crown killed and decreased as bark thickness increased. Weatherby et al. (1994) used those relationships in an effort to evaluate tree survivability following the 1989 Lowman, ID fire. They found 82% of the ponderosa pine and 52% of the Douglas-fir survived the fire; but a significant portion was killed by bark beetles as opposed to direct fire effects.

Observations made following wildfires in western Montana have shown that Douglas-fir is likely to be killed by Douglas-fir beetles if cambium has been killed on half or more of the bole circumference. Occasionally, that damage may occur on large, lateral roots at or below the duff (Hood et al. 2007). Amman and Ryan (1991) showed that 71% of the Douglas-fir on their Yellowstone plots died—over twice as many as predicted by the model using crown scorch and bark thickness characteristics. They surmised, “... unmeasured root injury may have contributed to the higher than expected mortality. However, because several of the dead Douglas-firs received minimal heating, insects appear to be responsible for part of the additional mortality.” Ryan and Amman (1996) showed after Yellowstone Park fires of 1988, 77% of the Douglas-fir; 61% of the lodgepole pine; 94% of the Engelmann spruce and 100% of the subalpine fir had been killed by a combination of fire injury and/or bark beetles.

Weatherby (1999) established a study to follow the fate of selected trees in two areas burned in 1994 on the Payette National Forest, Idaho. Her work illustrated the feasibility of predicting survivability based on breast-height diameter, percent crown scorch, and percent of circumference of bole (or roots) charred. In one area (French Creek), of 121 grand fir and 82 Douglas-fir monitored following the 1994 wildfire, 41% of the grand fir and 13% of the Douglas-fir had died. Of these, about half the mortality for each tree species was attributed to bark beetles. In another (Pony Creek), 36% of the Douglas-fir and 16% of the ponderosa pine had died by 1998. Bark beetles killed slightly more than two-thirds of the dead Douglas-fir (67%) and one-fourth (27%) of the dead ponderosa pines.

### **Burn Intensity Categories and Bark Beetle Responses**

Previous post-fire evaluations in the Northern Region have varied somewhat from area to area, but most are similar to ones developed following the Little Wolf Fire (Tally Lake

Ranger District, Flathead National Forest) in 1994. Fire-affected forested areas were assigned “burn intensity” categories using aerial photographs taken soon after the fire and knowledge of pre-fire stand conditions. They were refined by post-fire surveys and field verification within burned areas. Ground-char classes were based on ones described by Ryan and Noste (1985). Burn intensity (BI) classes were as follows:

*BI 1:* All vegetation blackened—foliage destroyed, boles deeply charred and understory vegetation burned. Approximate distribution of ground char: Unburned 0%, Light 15%, Moderate 70%, Deep 15%.

*BI 2:* Stems predominantly blackened, some foliage only scorched. Understory vegetation mostly burned. Ground char: Unburned 0%, Light 25%, Moderate 60%, Deep 15%.

*BI 3:* Most vegetation scorched with few blackened stems; small amounts of green vegetation. Ground char: Unburned 0%, Light 40%, Moderate 50%, Deep 10%.

*BI 4:* Predominantly, but temporarily green with scorched or blackened areas. Ground char: Unburned 15%, Light 65%, Moderate 15%, Deep <5% (Anonymous 1996).

In order to help define the likelihood of bark beetle population buildups in those areas, Gibson (1994) made the following assessments according to identified burn intensity categories:

*BI 1:* Few severely burned trees will be infested by bark beetles which will later damage uninjured trees. Some may attract wood wasps (horntails, family Siricidae) or wood borers (families Cerambycidae [longhorned beetles or roundheaded wood borers] and Buprestidae [flatheaded or metallic wood borers]) but they are of little threat to adjacent green trees. Where charring has destroyed or dried the phloem, no bark beetle food remains. Even most wood borers which ultimately feed within the sapwood, require relatively fresh inner bark for newly hatched larvae. Thin-barked tree species burned to the extent that inner bark is destroyed will provide little food for insects. Thicker barked species may attract some wood-inhabiting insect species or bark beetles, depending on depth and height of charring.

*BI 2:* Some thicker barked species—such as Douglas-fir, western larch and ponderosa pine—may survive immediate effects of fire. In the case of Douglas-fir, however, bole scorch on more than about half of the tree’s circumference will likely produce a strong attraction for Douglas-fir beetles. Large-diameter, and older ponderosa pines in this category may be attacked by western pine beetles (*D. brevicornis* LeConte), or red turpentine beetles (*D. valens* LeConte); however, outbreak development of these beetles in this situation would not be expected. Severely weakened western larch may be infested by several species of wood borers. Thin-barked species in this group—lodgepole pine, Engelmann spruce, and subalpine fir—may have been burned too severely to attract bark beetles or wood borers.

*BI 3:* This group likely will attract the most bark beetles. Douglas-fir in this category may be less affected, depending upon degree of bark and root collar scorch, as noted

earlier. Most second-growth ponderosa pine, lodgepole pine, Engelmann spruce and subalpine fir will almost certainly be attacked by bark beetles or wood borers. Smaller diameter ponderosa pines and lodgepole pines will be infested by one or more species of engraver beetles (*Ips* spp.), other secondary bark beetles (*Pityogenes* spp. and *Pityophthorus* spp.) and wood-boring beetles. We have learned that mountain pine beetles (*D. ponderosae* Hopkins) are seldom attracted to fire-weakened trees. Engelmann spruce will be attacked by spruce beetles and subalpine fir will support populations of several beetles, the most dominant being western balsam bark beetle (*Dryocoetes confusus* Swaine).

*BI 4:* In this latter group, bark beetle attraction will be dependent mostly upon amount of root collar damage. Most Douglas-fir, western larch and ponderosa pines will survive and not attract beetles unless smoldering ground fires significantly damaged roots or root collars. Other tree species are more likely to be infested, even though severe damage may not be readily apparent. Observations in other burned areas have shown thin-barked trees can withstand only a small amount of damage at ground level without becoming so weakened they eventually succumb to bark beetle attacks. In these areas, it is common to find trees with little apparent bole or crown damage that have been completely girdled at the root collar.

### **Tree Responses to Fire and Management Alternatives**

Beyond the likelihood of individual trees dying directly from fire damage, there is great interest in determining which trees are at risk of subsequently being killed by bark beetles—both dependent upon, and independent from, fire effects. Ryan and Reinhardt (1988) have described the survivability of seven coniferous species, relative to crown scorch and bark thickness. Except for ponderosa pine and grand fir, they have provided a basis for defining the probability that any particular tree would survive fire injury. As noted, however; some trees “predicted” to survive might be subsequently attacked by bark beetles. On the other hand, trees directly killed by fire, may be too severely damaged to be infested by bark beetles.

Scott et al. (2002) developed a method for determining post-fire probability of survival of several coniferous species in the Blue Mountains of Washington and Oregon that has been useful as a tree-marking guide for post-fire salvage operations. Sieg et al. (2006) reported on a multi-year study, following a series of wildfires in the West. They determined the best predictors of post-fire ponderosa pine mortality—specifically, crown scorch and consumption volume. Hood et al. (2007) demonstrated the relationship between fire-damaged Douglas-fir and subsequent attack by Douglas-fir beetles. Their model can help determine not only what fire-affected Douglas-fir may ultimately die; but more importantly, which ones are most likely to attract Douglas-fir beetles within the next year or so.

Gibson et al. (1999) documented buildups of both spruce beetle and Douglas-fir beetle populations following a wildfire, and expedient management responses used to forestall significant outbreaks on the Flathead National Forest, Montana. In most cases, timing of treatments is important. Damaged trees may be infested from shortly after fires are out (within a few days) until trees either recover or phloem becomes unsuitable (as long as

1-2 years post-burn). Some treatments, such as the use of anti-aggregative pheromones, may provide critical protection for injured trees until beetle populations decline or tree vigor improves. The availability and use of these techniques are discussed in this volume by Gillette and Munson (2009). In determining what actions may be most appropriate, an estimate of tree survivability and susceptibility to bark beetles will be essential.

## **Fire Survivability and Likelihood of Beetle Infestation of Common Coniferous Species in the Intermountain West**

**Douglas-fir:** Reporting results from a multi-year, post-fire study in the Greater Yellowstone Area, Ryan and Amman (1996) showed that four years following the fires, 79% of 125 Douglas-fir in their survey plots had been attacked by one or more species of insects, and 77% were dead. Seventy-one percent of the insect attacks were by Douglas-fir beetles. Dead trees had suffered greater crown scorch and bole injury; however, trees attacked by Douglas-fir beetles had more than 50% basal girdling, ample green phloem, and less than 75% crown scorch. Beetles initially attacked severely injured trees, then attacked more lightly injured trees in subsequent years. Mortality immediately following fires occurred in trees with both severe crown scorch and bole injury. The majority of subsequent mortality, however, was found in trees with little crown injury but more than 50% basal girdling. Of dead Douglas-fir, 83% had been infested by insects. In a similar survey of fire-damaged trees in central Idaho, Weatherby et al. (1994) showed that Douglas-fir which died from fire effects had 74% crown scorch, whereas those that were killed by beetles had 39% crown scorch.

**Ponderosa Pine:** Burns and Honkala (1990) noted, "Survival and growth of ponderosa pine usually are little affected if 50 percent or less of the crown is scorched in a fire. Six years after a fire in Arizona, however, no poles and only 5 percent of the sawtimber-size trees were living if more than 60 percent of the crown had been destroyed. Low tree vigor and cambium damage increase the likelihood of mortality." Wagener (1961) noted that extent of fire damage in ponderosa pines was at least partly a function of time of burn. Early season fires were more damaging than ones which occurred in late summer or early autumn. Likewise, time of year greatly affected subsequent bark beetle activity; and both directly affected a tree's probability of survival. He showed young, fast-growing trees on good sites were more likely to survive than old, overmature trees on poor sites. He also noted that trees with complete crown scorch will likely survive if buds and twigs are not damaged extensively and are thus capable of producing foliage the following year. An additional criterion was damage to bark and cambium—trees with both heavy foliage scorching and moderate to severe cambium kill were more likely to die later from bark beetle attacks. Though mature ponderosa pine has thick, fairly fire-resistant bark; permanent damage and death will be influenced by amount and distribution of fuels on the forest floor and other site and stand conditions. In uneven-aged stands, injury to the cambium will vary considerably from site to site. Resultant cambium damage will greatly determine tree's survivability, and cambium killing which extends for more than a few feet up the trunk will significantly reduce a tree's probability of survival. In their study, Weatherby et al. (1994) showed that few ponderosa pines greater than 4 inches

diameter-at-breast-height (d.b.h.) died if crown scorch was less than 80%. Seig et al. (2006) noted the probability of a tree's survival was predominantly associated with percent of crown scorch and amount of crown consumed; but when bark beetles and d.b.h. were considered, predictive ability increased significantly.

**Lodgepole Pine:** According to Burns and Honkala (1990), lodgepole pine is more susceptible to fire than Douglas-fir and some of its other associates, because of its relatively thin bark. But it is less susceptible to fire than either Engelmann spruce or subalpine fir. On the other hand, success of lodgepole pine is directly affected by the role fire plays in its regeneration. Overmature lodgepole pine's susceptibility to mountain pine beetle, a beetle-killed stand's proclivity to burn, and fire's role in opening serotinous cones, has made the lodgepole pine/mountain pine beetle/fire/stand replacement cycle a well-established relationship throughout the tree's range. Although attracted to overmature and slow-growing individuals, mountain pine beetles infrequently colonize fire-damaged lodgepole pine. Ryan and Amman (1996) showed of 151 lodgepole pine surveyed, 62% were attacked by insects and 61% (of the total) had died. Most dead trees had been extensively girdled by fire (greater than 75% of bole circumference) and had been infested by beetles. Majority of the beetles were engraver beetles (*Ips* spp.); but a few had been infested by secondary bark beetles and wood borers. Engraver beetles preferentially attacked trees with more than 75% basal girdling, but less than 50% crown scorch.

**Engelmann Spruce:** Probably because of their typically wetter habitats, fewer fire-effects studies have been done in Engelmann spruce stands than many other species. In their study following the 1988 fires in Yellowstone National Park, Ryan and Amman (1994) found only 17 spruce on their plots. By 1991, however, 83% of them were dead. They noted that as might be expected for thin-barked species, mortality did not vary by tree diameter. Trees which received most apparent damage, in the form of crown and bole injury, were ones most likely to die. Sixteen of 17 trees had been more than 90% girdled by fire and 82% of them had been infested by spruce beetles. In addition, because spruce is a shallow-rooted species, slow-burning fires causing significant root damage create trees which are easily windthrown. In turn, windthrown spruce on which there is little bole charring are quite likely to be infested by spruce beetles.

**Subalpine Fir:** Ryan and Amman (1994) noted that subalpine fir is known for its lack of fire resistance, primarily because of thin bark. They commented, "Virtually any fire vigorous enough to scorch the bark will cause cambium injury, followed by sloughing of the dead bark." In their study they found 17 subalpine fir, all of which died following the fires. Eighty-eight percent were eventually infested by woodborers, although bark damage was initially significant enough to preclude bark beetle infestations. We have noticed, however, subalpine fir with root damage is easily windthrown, as previously noted for spruce. Such trees, with little additional bole damage, are quite susceptible to western balsam bark beetles. Beetle populations building in downed trees are then likely to infest nearby green trees not affected by fires (K.E.G. and J.N. personal observations and unpublished data).

**Western Larch:** Ryan and Reinhardt (1988) described conditions most often affecting tree survivability following prescribed burns. They concluded that coniferous species in the northwestern United States vary widely in their resistance to fire injury, and that deeper-rooted trees tend to have thicker bark which renders them relatively resistant to fire-related damage. Burns and Honkala (1990) recorded, “Larch develops a deep and extensive root system...” and further, “Mature larches are the most fire-resistant trees in the Northern Rockies because of their thick bark, their high and open branching habit, and the low flammability of their foliage.” Mature western larch is relatively fire resistant, wind firm, and have few insect pests—particularly bark beetles—which take advantage of weakened individuals or stands. Younger larch, with thinner bark and growth habits, may be more susceptible to fire injury; especially cambial damage and crown scorch, as described by Ryan and Reinhardt (1988).

**Grand Fir:** Little research has been conducted on the effects of wildfire in grand fir stands; however, its morphological characteristics are similar to white fir which is rated moderate in fire resistance, becoming more resistant as it ages. In both species, fire injuries may provide entry courts for significant decay organisms (Parker et al. 2006). Burns and Honkala (1990) rate grand fir as “medium” in fire resistance—less resistant than larch, ponderosa pine and Douglas-fir; but more resistant than subalpine fir and spruce. They note that its resistance to fire is based largely on habitat. On moister sites it is readily killed by ground fires. On drier sites grand fir is more fire resistant due to deeper root systems and thicker bark which develop in those environments.

## **Bark Beetles and Fire Interactions in Western Conifer Forests**

Little is known about the topic of bark beetle outbreaks and the likelihood or fire behavior of a subsequent fire in western forest ecosystems. Most information available on this topic comes from anecdotal information and few scientific studies. This is an issue of great relevance at the present time when we consider the extensive eruptive populations of bark beetles that we have observed in recent years. Wildland-urban interface and the proliferation of private property in these areas further exacerbate the problem as fire control operations are of utmost necessity to protect residents from personal injury and loss of assets.

As indicated above, few studies have addressed this problem. Kulakowski and Veblen (in press) indicated that a 2000 spruce beetle outbreak did not appear to influence fire extent or severity in a subsequent fire in 2000 in spruce-fir forests in northern Colorado. Bebi et al. (2003) reported that a 1940s spruce beetle outbreak in central Colorado outbreak did not affect subsequent fire susceptibility. However, Bigler et al. (2005) working in the same areas as Kulakowski and Veblen (in press) concluded that the spruce beetle outbreak slightly increased the probability of high severity fire in 2002. In Alaska, Berg and Anderson (2006) concluded that there was no relationship between spruce beetle-caused tree mortality and subsequent wildfire occurrence. Lynch et al. (2006) working in lodgepole pine after the 1988 Yellowstone Fire indicated that a 1972–1975 mountain pine outbreak increased probability of burning but a 1980–1983 mountain pine beetle had no effect. Page and Jenkins (2007) suggested rates of fire

spread and intensity were higher in lodgepole pine stands currently infested by mountain pine beetles, but lower in post-epidemic stands when compared to non-infested stands. Jenkins et al. (2008) described varying fire behavior with length of time following bark beetle outbreaks. It can be seen that most of the available studies come from spruce-fir and lodgepole pine forests. Forest types such as ponderosa pine and piñon-juniper woodlands remain unaddressed. It should be mentioned that in some forest types such as lodgepole pine and spruce-fir forests, infrequent high-intensity fires are part of the ecology of these forests with bark beetles not being needed for these fires to occur. Bark beetle outbreaks, however, can and do influence both fire hazard and behavior in areas where they have occurred.

Here we present some characteristics that may influence fire<sup>3</sup> and how bark beetles may influence those factors using examples from a mountain pine beetle outbreak in lodgepole pine forests of north-central Colorado and from a roundheaded pine beetle outbreak, *D. adjunctus* (Blandford), in south-central New Mexico. The Colorado outbreak has been causing extensive mortality in these forests since about 2001. Mortality levels are so extensive that stands normally considered less susceptible to mountain pine beetle, less than 80 ft<sup>2</sup>/acre, are being decimated.

Here we briefly discussed some of the changes in foliar moisture, effects in stand structure, and the accumulation of downed woody debris during and after a bark beetle outbreak. These are factors known to influence fire in forest ecosystems. We discuss some preliminary modeling efforts underway.

**Foliar Moisture:** Dry needles play a role in crown fires (Van Wagner 1977, Chrosiewicz 1986, Agee et al. 2002). One of the short term effects of bark beetles is altering foliar moisture caused by the simple death of the tree.

We have conducted foliage sampling of beetle-killed trees and live trees to determine foliar moisture content. Reduction in foliar moisture is evident already in the early spring and by the middle of the summer is very pronounced (Table 1). The dry needles that are on trees, in effect, lower the crown base height of the tree facilitating transition to a crown fire under a lower flame length and fire line intensity (Keyes 2006).

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<sup>3</sup> Hereafter in this paper when discussing “fire” we mean likelihood of fire occurrence or potential fire behavior.

**Table 1—Percent foliar moisture content in live and beetle-killed trees in 2005 at different sampling dates, Fraser Experimental Forest, Fraser, CO**

Sampling Date	Live Trees	Beetle-killed trees
mid-May 2006	104	64
end-July 2006	127	9
early-December 2006	114	14

**Stand Structure:** Among other studies, Lentile et al. (2006), and Jain and Graham (2004) discuss how forest structure influence fire severity. Bark beetles effect changes in forest structure in a variety of ways including changing stocking levels and diameter classes of remaining live trees in the affected forest. These changes directly influence canopy bulk density and can stimulate the development of fuel ladders. In north central Colorado, about 6 years into a bark beetle outbreak, we are seeing reductions in mean tree diameters of lodgepole pine from about 20 cm down to about 12 cm (fig. 1) and in stocking levels from about 28 m<sup>2</sup>/ha down to 9 m<sup>2</sup>/ha (fig. 2).

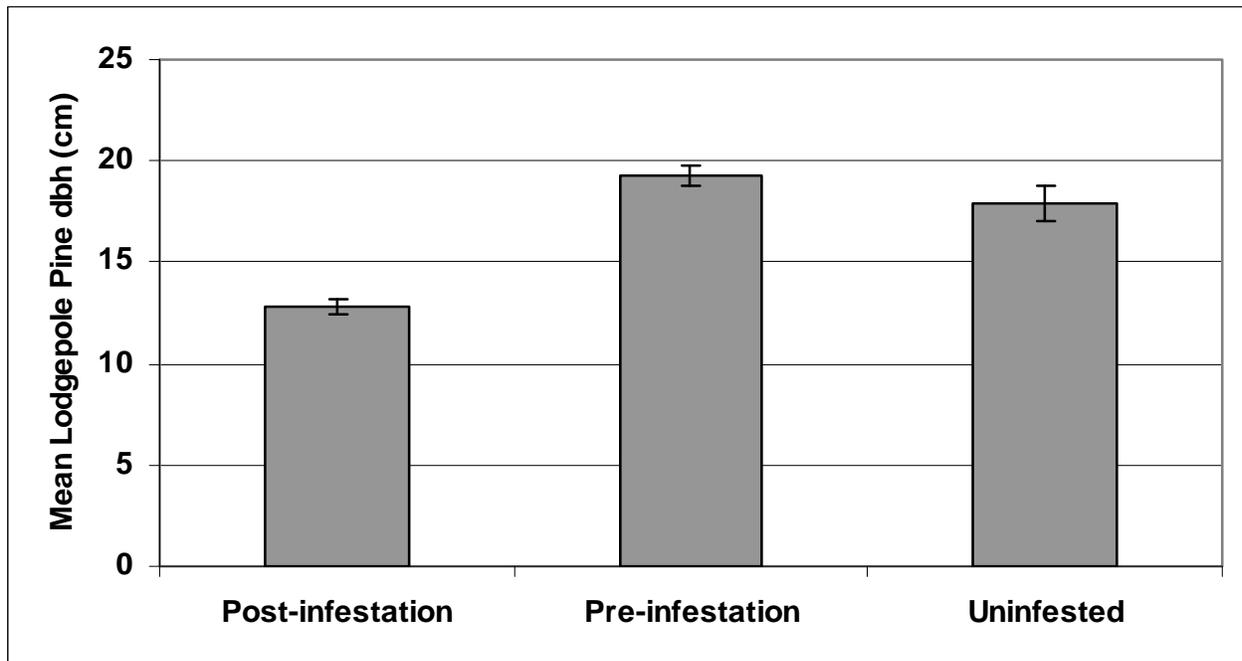


Figure 1—Mean dbh of lodgepole pine in post-infestation, pre-infestation, and uninfested, Arapahoe NF, Colorado. Error bars are standard errors.

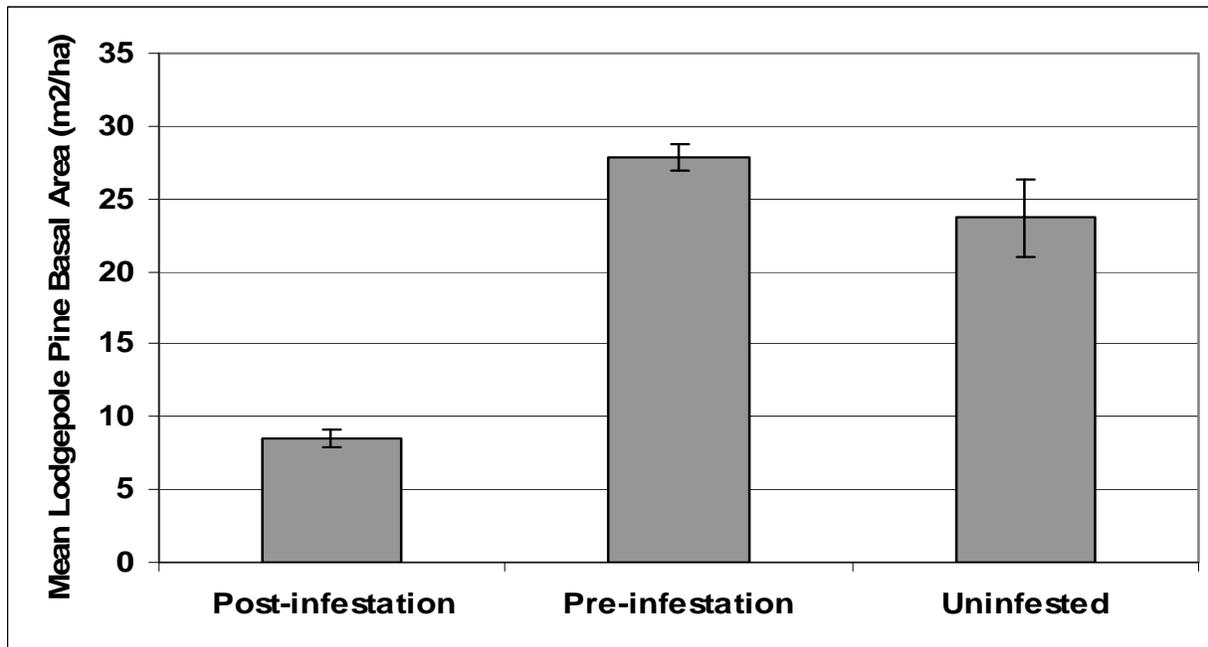


Figure 2—Basal area of lodgepole pine in post-infestation, pre-infestation, and uninfested, Arapahoe NF, Colorado. Error bars are standard errors.

**Downed Wood:** Another factor directly influencing fire is the type, amount, and distribution of forest fuels (Van Wagner 1977; Agee 1993). Bark beetles, through tree mortality, transform live fuels to dead fuels which will also vary spatially across the landscape following the spatial distribution of tree mortality. In the short term, less than 6 years, bark beetle-induced mortality increases the duff and litter depth, the accumulation of dead woody material less than ¼ inch but not downed wood greater than ¼ inch nor the total amount of downed woody debris.

A study by Mitchell and Preisler (1998) indicated that in an unthinned lodgepole pine stand, little tree fall occurs within the first 3 years after mortality, with about 10% and 80% of trees on the ground by 6 and 12 years, respectively. Similar fall rates have been reported for ponderosa pine, *Pinus ponderosa* (Keen 1955). The fall rate, however, can be strongly influenced by tree diameters, moisture availability in the site, and the occurrence of strong wind among others. Nevertheless the data presented by Mitchell and Preisler (1998) can be used to make some projections for the accumulation of large woody material over time. Projections made from tree mortality data by mountain pine beetle in lodgepole pine forests in Colorado result in large increases in total fuel loading 12 years after the outbreak (fig. 3). These increases in fuel accumulations may result in more intense fires with excessive soil heating.

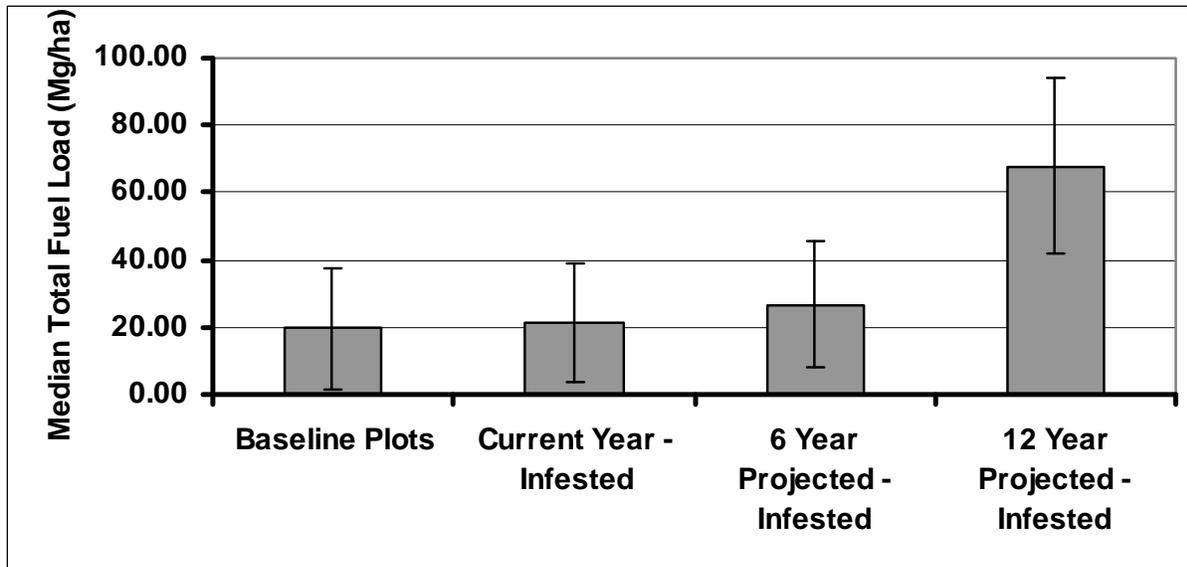


Figure 3—Median total downed woody debris accumulations in uninfested and currently infested plots, and 6- and 12-year projections, Arapaho NF, Colorado. Error bars are median absolute deviations.

During the late 1980s to early 1990s, eruptive populations of the roundheaded pine beetle caused extensive mortality in ponderosa pine. Stand susceptibility plots were established in 1994–1995. These plots were revisited 10 years after the original establishment, which represents approximately 14 years after the outbreak. Downed woody debris accumulations in mixed conifer and ponderosa pine forests increased from 6 to 40 and from 4 to 20 metric tons/hectare in mixed conifer forests and ponderosa pine forests, respectively (fig. 4).

**Fire Modeling:** Through preliminary modeling using the Forest Vegetation Simulator / Fire and Fuels Extention and fire models such as Behave, we have obtained projected increases in total flame length and the area affected by passive crown fires. Also obtained were decreases in crowning index, and the area affected by active crown fires. The increase in flame length may be associated with the increase in downed woody debris and the increase in passive crown fire is due to the nature of the patchy forests left after a bark beetle outbreak. A lower crowning index value means it takes a lower wind speed for fire to move within the crown. and the decrease of area affected by active crown fire may be due to the loss of crown continuity.

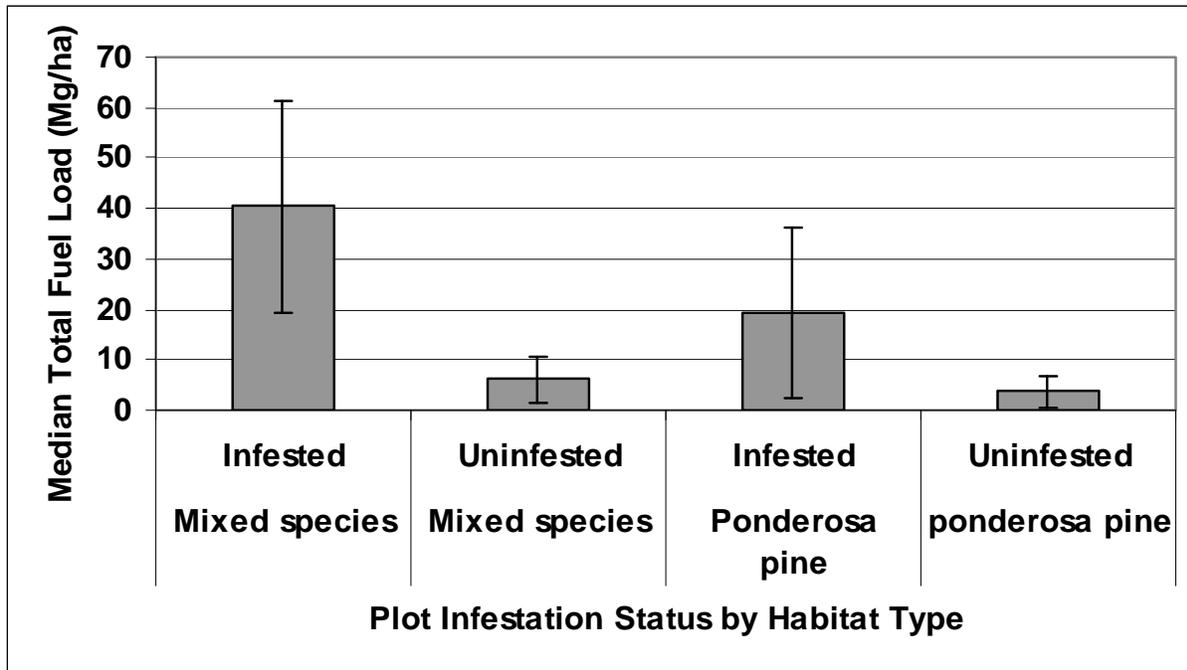


Figure 4—Median total downed woody debris accumulations in infested and uninfested plots about 14 years after a roundheaded pine beetle outbreak, Lincoln National Forest, New Mexico. Error bars are median absolute deviations.

Additional studies are underway to continue examination of downed woody debris after the occurrence of bark beetles in different forest types, to continue the study of foliar moisture dynamics, and to better clarify the changes in forest structure caused by bark beetles that can influence fire characteristics. Finally a particularly valuable resource is the availability of historical aerial detection flights of insect and disease conducted annually by Forest Health specialists and data on the location of historical fires. We are currently using GIS approaches combined with weather data to examine if and under what conditions fire may occur subsequently to a bark beetle outbreak. This information will provide the opportunity to include time since bark beetle outbreak and the occurrence of fire-conducive weather as potentially important considerations in assessing fire hazard.

## Summary

We note that much remains to be learned before we will be able to accurately predict which trees will succumb to effects of a wildfire or prescribed fire, which will survive, and which of those may ultimately be killed by bark beetles. Some of the more severely affected trees will unquestionably die; some of the least affected will no doubt survive. Trees between the two extremes are ones most difficult to predict because of their varying susceptibility to bark beetles, the effects of post-fire weather, and other site/stand factors difficult to measure and not well-understood.

As previously noted, a fire-damaged tree's susceptibility to bark beetles is determined by: (1) Amount of damage and tree's response, (2) time of year fire occurs, (3) populations of bark beetles in tree's vicinity, and (4) weather for several months both pre- and post-fire.

A complex of factors is involved in any one tree's survivability. Not the least of those are pre-fire physiological condition, an array of abiotic site factors, a host of potentially damaging biotic agents, and interactions between them all. We may never unfailingly predict either post-fire survival or death for fire-damaged trees. But reasonable estimates, sufficient for most management decisions, are possible if measurable parameters are adequately considered.

Because of the area burned throughout the West since 2000, total area in the millions of acres; dealing with fire effects on all affected resources will undoubtedly extend well into the future. Yet the need to assess as quickly as possible where site rehabilitation and stabilization is most critical, and in some cases where economic values can be captured in a timely manner, will be paramount.

Bark beetles could influence subsequent fire behavior if fire occurs and depending on time since bark beetle outbreak fire and weather conditions among other factors. Reductions in foliar moisture could facilitate movement of a fire into the crown. Changes in stand structure such as reduced stocking and tree diameters can change the availability of fuel ladders, changes in understory vegetation and arrangement of fuels. Bark beetles also transform fuels from live fuels in the canopy to dead fuels on the ground. These fuel accumulations can be of significance a decade after the mortality event which will result in different fire characteristics compared to unaffected stands.

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# Some Ecological, Economic, and Social Consequences of Bark Beetle Infestations<sup>1</sup>

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## Abstract

Bark beetles are powerful agents of change in dynamic forest ecosystems. Most assessments of the effects of bark beetle outbreaks have been based on negative impacts on timber production. The positive effects of bark beetle activities are much less well understood. Bark beetles perform vital functions at all levels of scale in forest ecosystems. At the landscape level they influence forest regeneration, and at the stand level they kill mature trees thus creating gaps and forest openings that are beneficial to wildlife. They also cause overall increases in forest and stand resiliency by promoting variability in sizes and ages of trees and in species compositions. The effects of bark beetles on forest ecosystems differ with beetle species, geographical location, host species, stand density and tree age. Whereas ecological consequences are normally beneficial to forest ecosystems, socioeconomic perceptions range from positive to negative. We provide several examples from western regions that illustrate ecological, economic, or social effects of bark beetle outbreaks. These examples include information on management of bark beetle outbreaks and identify research needs for the future.

Keywords: Bark beetles, beetle impact, socioeconomic perception.

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## Introduction

Forest ecosystems are comprised of complex labyrinths of plant, animal, and microscopic life interacting with the abiotic environment. When these systems are in good condition from a human perspective, they perform biogeophysical functions that, from the human perspective, maximize the flow of various services and benefits for society. These services include: water and food production; regulating services like flood control and cleaning air; providing cultural, recreational and spiritual benefits; and supporting services such as nutrient cycling that maintain the conditions of life on earth (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2003).

Bark beetles, other insect pests, and pathogens are among the most costly of all forest disturbance agents. Combined it is estimated that they cause losses exceeding \$2 billion on 20.4 million ha of forests per year (USDA 1997). Bark beetle infestations can have vast and long lasting socioeconomic and ecological consequences on our forest landscapes (Dale et al. 2001). Characterizing and quantifying these impacts on the value of forest goods and services to human society has been a puzzling problem, and remains a significant challenge to forest managers and pest specialists (Dale et al. 2001).

### **Ecological consequences of bark beetle infestations**

Forests are dynamic and constantly changing in response to biotic and abiotic influences generally referred to as disturbances. Disturbances play significant, even critical, roles in ecosystem functioning: both natural and human-induced disturbances shape forest systems at all spatial and temporal scales by influencing their composition, structure, and functional processes. Disturbances affect succession, net primary production, nutrient and hydrological cycling, habitat partitioning, and maintenance of species diversity. From an ecological perspective, disturbance in the forest ecosystem caused by bark beetle activity is commonly viewed as “beneficial”, especially when that disturbance is within its natural bounds (Samman and Logan 2000). Native insects have co-evolved with their host tree species for many thousands or millions of years and are important regulators of native systems.

At the landscape scale, some bark beetle infestations create mosaics of forest patches of various ages, densities, species compositions, and stages of succession. Larger trees with reduced vigor are especially attractive to bark beetles as sites for reproduction. At endemic levels, for instance, bark beetles beneficially remove older, larger, weaker, dominant trees, releasing understory vegetation and catalyzing stand development. Bark beetles impact structure and function (Amman 1977, Schmid and Hinds 1974), biogeochemical and hydrological cycling (Edmonds and Eglitis 1989, McGregor 1985), net primary production and maximal stand volume (Romme et al. 1986), and ecosystem species diversity and abundance (Martin et al. 2006, McMillin and Allen 2003). Bark beetles mine the wood and introduce decay fungi that accelerate decomposition, and increase nutrient release rates from fallen logs (Edmonds and Eglitis 1989); increase nitrogen mineralization and turnover; and contribute to carbon fluxes. Some studies indicate that bark beetle attacks increase stream flow (Mitchell and

Love 1973) though other studies question this. Much about the effects of bark beetles on watershed hydrology is not well-understood (e.g., McGregor 1985). Moreover, bark beetles can be more important than other disturbance agents, including fire, in modifying forest structure because of the scale of their activities (Veblen et al. 1994). The effect of disturbance scale must be considered as there are different ecological outcomes for stand-replacing versus canopy-gap-producing events (Lundquist and Negrón 2000). At the landscape scale, infestations create mosaics of forest patches of various ages, densities, species compositions, and successional stages (Kolb et al. 1999, Schowalter 2006). The beneficial ecological roles played by bark beetles have been much less studied than the negative impacts. Rather than combat bark beetles as pests, we may want to view their population swings as symptomatic of changing environmental and stand conditions and, rather than perceive the beetle as the problem, seek to address the causes of its population outbreaks.

### **Outbreak dynamics**

Insect populations are regulated by the interactions of many factors (Schowalter 2006). At times, beetle populations erupt into outbreaks that impact large tracts of forest at the landscape level. The causes of these sudden increases in beetle population are not well known. In general, however, several factors contribute to the occurrence of an outbreak: local populations of beetles are high; a sufficient number of suitable-sized host trees are present for breeding; host vigor may be reduced, and favorable environmental conditions exist for beetle survival. Abiotic factors like climate, weather related phenomena, geographic location, or natural disturbance, also influence the development of bark beetle populations. Biotic factors like species, age, and distribution of trees, affect bark beetle population development and spread. The likelihood of an outbreak increases when many trees are stressed and their defenses are inhibited by drought or injury.

*Significance of spatial scale.* The effects of bark beetle outbreaks vary with spatial scale. At the individual tree scale, bark beetles cause death, deformation, and reduced or foregone growth; at the stand scale, they change species composition and forest structure; at the landscape scale, they change patterns and enhance spatial heterogeneity. Because management objectives can occur concurrently at different scales, multiple objectives can be impacted by the same disturbance event (Erdle and MacLean 1999). Relative significance of management objectives determines which of these scales is most important.

*Landscape Analysis.* Sometimes, whole landscapes can be altered by bark beetles, creating mosaics of forest patches of various ages, densities, species composition, and successional stages (Kolb et al. 1999, Schowalter 2006). Geospatial analyses can highlight patterns of bark beetle effects at large spatial scales, making it possible to understand ecosystem component functions and interactions that may not be apparent at smaller scales (Gamarra and He 2008). Many spatial metrics have been developed to quantify landscape patterns, but much needs to be done on correlating changes in the values of these metrics to bark beetle activity (Keane et al. 2002, Smith et al. 2002).

## **Socioeconomic Impacts of Bark Beetle—Direct-Use Values**

### **Direct use values**

Pearce (2001) defines direct use values as “values arising from consumptive and non-consumptive uses of the forest”. The most obvious consumptive use is, of course, timber production. Less-obvious direct uses include tourism, mineral extraction, collection of pharmaceutical supplies, fuel wood harvest, and extraction of other non-timber forest products. Most bark beetle impact assessments have been based on timber production metrics.

### **Economic consequences**

Methods and metrics used for forest pest impact assessment of direct uses are reviewed by Stark (1987). Impact is commonly characterized as number of acres affected or number of trees killed. Sometimes percent of trees infested or destroyed within individual stands is assessed. Less often, wood volume loss is calculated and, less often still, these volume estimates are converted to monetary values.

### **Valuation of non-timber uses**

Healthy forests provide a range of values far more extensive than just those associated with timber and other exploitable resources (Chamberlain et al. 1998), and many of these resources are becoming increasingly scarce (Zhang and Li 2005). When forest health is challenged by bark beetles or other disturbances, these resources are impacted. Assessments based on timber production are inappropriate for most non-timber goods and services. Few nontimber direct uses can be adequately assessed using timber production metrics. Kline (2007) described some of the difficulties in developing metrics useful for measuring, assessing, and appraising various objectives, especially nontimber resources. Alternative value assessment techniques have been suggested for biodiversity (Nunes and van den Bergh 2001), scenic beauty (Rosenberger and Smith 1998), nontimber forest products (Chamberlain et al. 1998), and others. Buhyoff et al. (1982), Hull et al. (1984), Schroeder and Daniel (1981), and Vining et al. (1984), for example, used photos and computer generated view sheds of mountain pine beetle infested landscapes to assess impacts on scenic beauty in Colorado and Arizona. Daniel et al. (1991) conducted a similar study for spruce beetle infestation in Alaska.

### **Barriers to impact assessments**

Several factors complicate impact estimates for bark beetles on direct use values. Some of these include:

1. Forests are usually affected by multiple disturbance agents at the same time. Pests seldom act alone usually interacting sequentially or concurrently with other disturbances, partitioning out relative impacts of co-occurring disturbances presents a significant challenge.
2. Forests grow over large heterogeneous areas, much of which is often inaccessible.
3. Forests develop over long periods of time and go through many stages of development.

4. Forest components commonly respond to stresses and disturbances by compensatory development that mediates ecological impacts.
5. Pest impacts may manifest themselves at different places and different times for different forest resources.
6. Forests are managed for multiple objectives, and bark beetles have negative impacts on some resources but have no or positive impacts on others.

The factors listed above created a set of circumstances making it “extremely confusing to define forest damage” (Alfaro 1991).

### **Impact assessments involving multiple uses**

Impact assessments based on single variables inadequately portray the changes in complex systems. Methods based on multiple variables offer promising alternatives for characterizing pest impacts on multiple objectives. Lundquist and Beatty (1999) developed an impact assessment method and used it in mixed-conifer stands in the Blue Mountains of Oregon. This method was used to show how co-occurring objectives could be both positively and negatively affected simultaneously by the same disturbance (Lundquist et al. 2002). Unfortunately, because these types of analyses are usually abstract, they are seldom easily transferred to the end user. Much more needs to be done on impact assessment and valuation and technology transfer for complex systems associated with bark beetle outbreaks.

### **Community based perception of risk and loss**

Flint (2006) found that different communities differed in their perception of impacts and that different communities have a different “collective experience and community risk perception”. Following extensive outbreaks of spruce beetle in Alaska in the mid-1990s, the collective perception of some was that the spruce beetle was a natural component of the ecosystem and that human intervention was unnecessary. Others felt that the outbreaks were a disaster that greatly impacted their communities, socioeconomically and ecologically. Still others looked on it as an opportunity to generate income by selling and/or processing the dead standing trees. The sociological aspects of bark beetle activities are largely unexplored, and Flint’s (2006) result illustrate an exciting and important avenue for future research.

### **Existence values**

Pearce (2001) lists two additional types of values: nonuse and option. Nonuse values are values associated with a willingness to pay to conserve the forest without concern for future use. The option value is based on alternative choices or options. Option values are values associated with the “willingness to pay to conserve the option of making use of the forest even though no current use is made of it...” An option is a contract that gives its holder the right, but not the obligation, to make a choice among alternatives within a specified period of time (Brigham and Ehrhardt 2002). The concept is based on real option theory (Amram and Kuatilka 1999), which is similar to financial options, differing only in that the former involves real assets rather than financial ones. The price someone is willing to pay to retain this option is its value. Determining this value is not trivial. Black and Scholes (1973) were awarded a Noble Prize for

formulating an equation that calculates the value of financial options. Similarly, much work also has been done for real options.

### **The importance of perception and prediction**

Both nonuse and option values depend on the perceived future state of the forest. Bark beetles can alter the direction and rate of stand/forest development or succession or both, and thus the perception as well as the reality of a future condition. Both nonuse and option values seem applicable to bark beetle impact assessments, and will probably become increasingly important in the not too distant future, but to date these have been little studied and their linkages to bark beetle infestations and the impacts caused by other types of disturbances is little understood.

## **Management Perspectives on the Consequences of Bark Beetle Infestations**

The following examples of bark beetle outbreaks in various parts of the western USA show an array of impacts and identify specific needs that managers have encountered while addressing these impacts. In addition, some “success stories” are presented as examples to draw from for dealing with future outbreaks.

### **Mountain pine beetle— Idaho**

In 2004, the Idaho Department of Lands and the USDA Forest Service formed a partnership to help private landowners in southcentral Idaho (Sawtooth National Recreation Area) deal with the effects of a severe mountain pine beetle (*Dendroctonus ponderosae*) outbreak in lodgepole pine (*Pinus contorta*). Both agencies provided technical assistance and financial cost share grants for treating forested lands. The cost share program was based on educating homeowners and contractors in the identification of beetle-infested trees and in understanding the appropriate treatment options. Treatments included removal of infested trees, thinning stands to increase resistance to bark beetles, applying a preventive carbaryl insecticide spray to high-value trees, and applying naturally occurring repellent pheromones to individual trees.

The effort to mitigate the impacts of mountain pine beetle in this one example have cost local, state, and federal land managers approximately 1.5 million dollars in implementation of a program comprising 71 projects over the 3-year period from 2004 to 2006. The program included the following actions: 28,000 beetle-infested trees removed over 486 ha; 32,000 trees sprayed with carbaryl on 400 ha; 17,000 pheromone bubble caps deployed on 243 ha; 149 ha thinned; and 18 ha replanted. The program is still ongoing and has received high praise from agency officials and the affected community. This program, and its grant coordinator, Jim Rineholt, recently received the Regional Forester’s Natural Resource Stewardship Award as an excellent example of the things that can be accomplished through collaboration and a strong commitment to sharing information and technology. Two overriding research and management needs that were identified by Rineholt were:

1. Improve the efficacy of verbenone or other bark beetle repellents in order to reduce the need for spraying carbaryl as a preventive treatment for bark beetles (This would also be useful for protecting high-elevation whitebark pine (*Pinus albicaulis*) stands where spraying is not an option).
2. The need to make USDA Forest Service, State and Private Forestry restoration funds available to prepare and implement vegetation management plans in developed areas.

### **Spruce beetle—Colorado**

Spruce beetle (*Dendroctonus rufipennis*) outbreaks typically occur in dense stands of mature hosts, and the resulting mortality levels are very high. High-elevation stands on the Rio Grande National Forest are currently being affected by the spruce beetle. One particular concern involves the Wolf Creek Pass Ski Area, a popular recreation site in southern Colorado. The forest around the ski area is almost entirely composed of mature Engelmann spruce (*Picea engelmannii*), and could experience major changes if the bark beetle outbreak follows its typical patterns for these kinds of stands. These changes could impact recreation and other cultural services based on the experiences at Brian Head Ski Resort in southern Utah. The forests surrounding this resort were of similar composition to those at Wolf Creek Pass. After removing beetle-killed trees at the Brian Head Resort, the ski runs were no longer well-defined. In addition, the loss of a protective tree cover increased wind through the area and led to early and rapid loss of snow owing to lack of shading. The quality of the ski experience has been compromised because of the beetle outbreak.

### **Pinyon ips—Arizona**

During a severe drought in 2002 and 2003, millions of pinyon pines (*Pinus edulis*) on more than 800,000 ha were killed in the Southwestern US by *Ips confusus* (pers. comm. J.D. McMillan 2007). Droughts have occurred in this area in the recent past, but the outcomes were never as extreme as they were in 2003. The direct and indirect effects of this particular outbreak were far-reaching. Of special concern were the effects on Navajo and Hopi tribal lands where traditional uses of the pinyon resource may be compromised. This loss of a major conifer species also raises concerns about future production of pinyon nuts as a food source for several wildlife species. Other important issues arising from the elevated pinyon mortality include potentially greater runoff and erosion in affected areas, increased near-ground solar radiation, an increased need for preventive sprays or repellants, and irrigation of pinyons on private lands. Several stand-replacing fires (<http://wildfirenews.com/archive/070704.shtml>) have already occurred across portions of the beetle killed forest and there are elevated fuel loads on other portions. Several management needs arose from this bark beetle outbreak, including the following:

- stand hazard rating systems for pinyon pine under drought and changing climate scenarios
- silvicultural prescriptions for pinyon/juniper woodlands
- information on fuel loading and potential fire behavior following *Ips* outbreaks

- new or improved preventative spray alternatives, or beetle repellents for protecting high-value pinyon and juniper
- techniques to address sociological impacts on traditional Hopi and Navajo uses of the pinyon/juniper resource

It is interesting to note that not everyone viewed the extreme pinyon mortality in a negative way. Some members of the local academic community advocated no management response and viewed the loss of pinyon in former grasslands as a positive outcome.

### **Western pine beetle—California**

A wet period from 1890 through 1960 led to the establishment of extremely dense forests throughout California. Subsequent droughts have had dramatic effects on these forests. The most recent drought in southern California (in 2003 and 2004) has resulted in the mortality of thousands of pine trees over more than 200,000 ha. Over \$500 million have been spent to remove dead trees, reduce fuels, and restore these forests. There have been numerous challenges to management of the drought-related mortality caused by the western pine beetle (*Dendroctonus brevicomis*). In particular, the public lacks an understanding of the problem. They think the forests are healthy again once the particular episode of bark beetle or fire-caused mortality has run its course. Nonetheless, there have been some successes including cooperative efforts in forming fire safe councils and area safety task forces that help address local stand thinning, fuels reduction, and restoration needs.

Research and management needs in this area include a continued look at the roles of air pollution and “pest complexes” in the health of pine forests, and making that information available to USDA Forest Service, Forest Health Protection staffs and the public. Funds for thinning treatments in southern California have practically disappeared because the forests are considered recreational rather than timber-producing.

### **Spruce beetle—Alaska**

An outbreak of spruce beetle began in the 1980s on the Kenai Peninsula and lasted for 20 years, with unprecedented levels of tree mortality. The primary concerns from forest management agencies included increased fuel loads from dead trees and rapid growth of invasive grasses (Flint and Haynes 2006). Concerns from affected communities were much broader and included various environmental and community values. This disparity of concerns was seen as a problem by the USDA Forest Service and led to a 3-year study that found communities differed in their perception of impacts (Flint 2006). In general, people acknowledged that spruce beetle is a natural component of the ecosystem, but some felt the outbreak was a disaster that greatly impacted their communities socioeconomically and ecologically. Meanwhile, others considered it an opportunity to generate income by selling or processing beetle-killed trees. The sociological aspects of bark beetle activities are largely unexplored, and Flint’s (2006) results illustrate an exciting and important avenue of research. This type of study should be carried out in other settings in order to identify those areas where public and local community perceptions do not mirror those of resource managers. The resultant

increased dialogue and understanding between communities and managers will lead to better decision making and more appropriate action in response to forest disturbances.

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**WESTERN BARK BEETLE**

**RESEARCH GROUP**



# Semiochemical Sabotage: Behavioral Chemicals for Protection of Western Conifers From Bark Beetles<sup>1</sup>

Nancy E. Gillette and A. Steve Munson<sup>2</sup>

## Abstract

The discovery and elucidation of volatile behavioral chemicals used by bark beetles to locate hosts and mates has revealed a rich potential for humans to sabotage beetle host-finding and reproduction. Here, we present a description of currently available semiochemical methods for use in monitoring and controlling bark beetle pests in western conifer forests. Delivery systems include hand-applied methods, such as semiochemical-releasing bubblecaps, pouches, and “puffers,” as well as products that can be applied by aircraft such as semiochemical-releasing flakes. Descriptions of both attractant-based (“pull”) and anti-attractant-based (“push”) strategies are provided. Examples are provided for the major bark beetle pests in western North America, including the mountain pine beetle (*Dendroctonus ponderosae* Hopkins), western pine beetle (*Dendroctonus brevicomis* LeConte), the Douglas-fir beetle (*Dendroctonus pseudotsugae* Hopkins), the spruce beetle [*Dendroctonus rufipennis* (Kirby)], and the red turpentine beetle (*Dendroctonus valens* LeConte),.

Keywords: Pheromones, allomones, kairomones, IPM, trap-out, trap trees, push-pull, pine, Douglas-fir, spruce.

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## Introduction

### Background

Bark beetles are the most damaging insect pests of conifer forests in western North America (Furniss and Carolin, 1977) and outbreaks are increasing (Hicke et al. 2006, Hicke and Jenkins 2008, Logan and Powell 2001). For example, a current epic outbreak of mountain pine beetle in British Columbia, Canada, has affected over 9.2 million hectares of ponderosa pine (*Pinus contorta* Dougl.) (Westfall 2007) and has breached the Continental Divide, spilling over into interior Canada (Wilent 2005). This bark beetle outbreak is the largest ever documented, and is expected to continue until either the host is depleted or severe cold weather reduces beetle populations (Ebata 2004). Outbreaks of this magnitude have the potential to convert large regions of boreal and temperate forest from carbon sinks to carbon sources, exacerbating global warming (Kurz et al. 2008a, 2008b). The MPB could infest millions of hectares of jack pine (*Pinus banksiana* Lamb.) in the vast boreal forests of Canada and the north central United States, and climate change may favor *D. ponderosae* range extensions into this habitat (Carroll et al. 2003, Logan and Powell 2001, Ono 2004). Heavily stocked or old growth stands are particularly at risk (Shore et al. 2000, Wood et al. 1985), with extensive outbreaks predicted for many locations in the western United States (Krist et al. 2007). Forest managers have therefore sought methods to mitigate the effects of these pests. To this end, efforts have focused on the development of better methods to prevent losses of forest trees to bark beetle outbreaks, particularly high-value trees in the urban-interface, recreation areas, and high elevation ecosystems.

Semiochemical-based bark beetle control has been the subject of a substantial research effort (summarized by Borden 1997, Skillen et al. 1997, and Wood et al. 1985) since the identification of the first bark beetle pheromones (Silverstein et al. 1966, 1968). Land managers have had high expectations for the development of pheromones and other behavioral chemicals for bark beetle control because of limitations encountered with other pest control methods. For example, it is widely accepted that maintenance of stand health and vigor through vegetation management is the most durable approach to “beetle-proofing” stands (Amman et al. 1991; Amman and Logan 1998; Fettig et al. 2006c, 2007; Negrón et al. 2001; Whitehead and Russo 2005), but management objectives sometimes require maintenance of high basal area (Andrews et al. 2005) and/or the creation of down woody material that increases stand susceptibility to bark beetle attack (Ross et al. 2006). Treatments to reduce stand density are also time-consuming and can incur regulatory obstacles that may delay the implementation of treatments until stands have already been compromised by bark beetle attacks. Sanitation and salvage may help mitigate the effect of bark beetles, particularly in small, isolated infestations (Bentz and Munson 2000), but these methods are often insufficient and/or of unproven efficacy for landscape-altering outbreaks. Biological control, while generally a desirable approach to pest management, is of limited use against native bark beetle pests using their native natural enemies. While biological control manipulations such as augmentation of native natural enemies or inundative release of parasitoids and predators are theoretically possible, it is unlikely that they would be implemented over large scales because of logistical constraints. Insecticides have been

tested for decades for bark beetle control (DeGomez et al. 2006; Fettig et al. 2006a, 2006b, Haverty et al. 1998; Naumann and Rankin 1999), but they are generally too toxic, time-consuming, expensive, and difficult to deploy in remote areas for widespread use on public lands, with the exception of high-value trees in the wildland-urban interface, campgrounds, ski resorts, and administrative sites. The development of semiochemicals, therefore, is an appealing alternative to other integrated pest management (IPM) methods for mitigation of damage by bark beetles. IPM is a systematic approach to pest control that incorporates monitoring to assess the need for treatments, then initiates treatments as needed, beginning with the most environmentally benign methods. Typically, cultural or mechanical control methods are attempted first, followed by biological control and/or semiochemicals, then use of insecticidal control only if other methods fail (Kogan 1998, Smith 1962).

Early attempts to control damage by bark beetles using semiochemicals were handicapped by insufficient information about the components of the semiochemical blends and by inadequate release devices. That is, the release devices either did not release sufficient quantities of semiochemicals or did not release the semiochemicals long enough to protect stands during the entire flight periods of the targeted pest species (Holsten et al. 2000). Because of the limitations of other pest control strategies and the urgent need to protect conifers from bark beetle attack, recent research has focused on the development of more effective active ingredients such as aggregation pheromones, synergists, and anti-attractants and on more effective release devices for dispersal of these semiochemicals. New information about behaviorally active semiochemical blends, newer release devices, and the integration of semiochemicals with silvicultural pest management methods have led to more effective strategies to minimize damage by these pests.

In describing case histories of semiochemical methods for controlling western bark beetles, we have organized the discussion by pest species. Although we discussed southern pine beetle (*Dendroctonus frontalis*) applications in our symposium presentation (Clarke et al. 1999, Salom et al. 1995), in keeping with the overall symposium theme, this article will be restricted to the major western bark beetle species. Likewise, we have not included discussions of the use of semiochemicals for monitoring invasive bark beetle species (see Seybold and Downing, this Proceedings) or for the control of ambrosia beetles or forest Lepidoptera, although the use of sex pheromones in mating disruption has been quite successful for reducing damage by forest moths. The resources described below are not intended as an exhaustive list; this is an active field of research and development, with new active ingredients and release systems being constantly developed and tested for efficacy.

### **Semiochemicals and Applied Chemical Ecology**

Semiochemicals are chemicals emitted by one organism that can affect the behavior of another organism; the term “semiochemical” is derived from the Greek “semeion,” meaning signal. The terminology for describing semiochemicals has changed over time, with multiple terms for the same phenomena (Nordlund and Lewis 1981). Terms used in the past, with some overlap in meaning, include

- Infochemicals
- Signalling chemicals
- Behavioral chemicals
- Behavior modifying chemicals
- Pheromones
- Semiochemicals

The term “semiochemical” has been widely accepted as an umbrella term for these chemicals. Semiochemicals that act within a species are called pheromones, and those that act between species are referred to as allelochemicals (fig. 1). Allelochemicals that benefit the sending organism are called allomones (from the Greek “allos,” other), and those that benefit the receiving organism are called kairomones (from the Greek “kairos,” opportunist). Those that benefit both the sender and receiver are called synomones.

For example:

- Bark beetles use aggregation pheromones to concentrate enough adult beetles of the same species to overcome tree defenses (acts within a species to enhance progeny survival).
- Humans infected with malaria exhale volatile allelochemicals that attract the Anopheline mosquito vectors of malaria (acts between species to the detriment of the human host but to the benefit of both the mosquito and the malaria parasite).
- Skunks use a noxious spray to repel predators (benefits the sender, thus an allomone).
- Ambrosia beetles use ethanol emanating from fermenting tree tissues as a cue in host location (benefits the receiver, thus a kairomone).

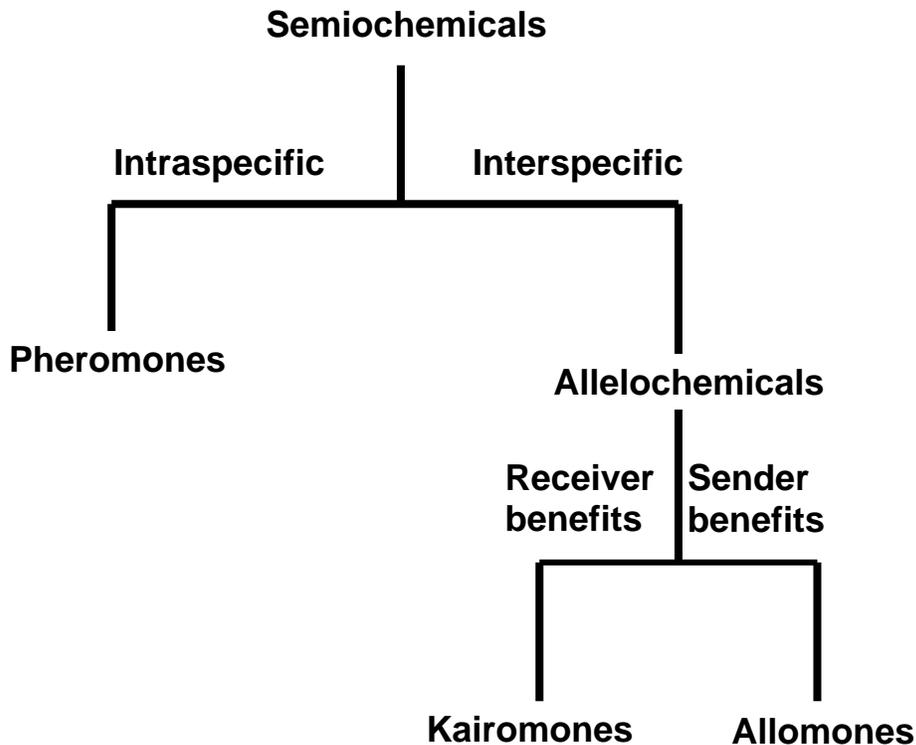


Figure 1—Diagram of semiochemical activity.

In practice, most semiochemicals used operationally in pest control are either pheromones or kairomones. There are several other issues that are important to keep in mind when using semiochemicals:

- Most semiochemicals are multifunctional
  - Their release rate can affect the behavior elicited
  - They can be attractive at low rates, repellent at high rates
- Most semiochemicals are multicomponent blends
  - The components of the blend may be inactive by themselves
  - Many aggregation pheromone blends include host volatile compounds with the beetle-produced pheromones, often as synergists
- Chiral pheromones and kairomones
  - Many semiochemicals are optically active and can exist in “mirror image” forms (enantiomers, “plus” vs. “minus,” “*R*” vs. “*S*,” or “*L*” vs. “*D*”), which have nearly identical physical properties but can result in different behavioral responses by the receiving insect
  - The “antipode” or opposite enantiomer of a semiochemical, for example, may be inactive or may even interrupt the response to the other enantiomer
- Insects can use different semiochemical “dialects” in different parts of their range
  - Therefore it is important to use semiochemicals that are regionally appropriate
  -

It is therefore crucial to have certain information before implementing a semiochemical-based strategy for bark beetle control. In other words, we must know

- All of the major semiochemical components, including synergists
- The most effective release rate
- The correct enantiomeric composition
- Whether there is variation in insect response across its geographic range (i.e., we need the right “dialect”)

Semiochemicals can influence insect behavior in myriad ways, but for the sake of simplicity we will treat just two generalized types: attraction (e.g., host attractants and aggregation and sex pheromones) and anti-attraction (e.g., interruptants, inhibitors, anti-aggregants, non-host volatiles (NHVs), “marking” pheromones, and repellants). All of the widely used semiochemical strategies employ attractants (“pull,” “attract-and-kill,” and “containment-and-concentration” strategies), anti-attractants (“push” strategy), or both (“push-pull”). Aggregation and sex pheromones typically provide a very strong cue, and they are hence effective at extremely low release rates (1 to 10 mg/day). Other attractants (e.g., host volatiles) and anti-attractants generally require much higher release rates and/or application rates (100 to 1000 mg/day) to affect beetle behavior. These traits have influenced the types of release devices that have been developed for the dispersal of semiochemicals in forest stands.

### **Commonly Used Semiochemical-Based Strategies**

- *Monitoring* is not intended to control bark beetle populations, but to detect and measure population levels of bark beetles using attractants (usually aggregation pheromones) in release devices such as bubblecaps, vials, or solid polymer tubing
- *Trap-out* removes bark beetles from the population by luring them with attractants released from bubblecaps, vials, or solid polymer tubing. These techniques include traps, trap-trees and attract-and-kill
- *Repellency* (interruption or inhibition of aggregation or host location) causes dispersal away from stands using repellents in release devices such as bubblecaps, pouches, puffers, or flakes
- *Push-pull* involves the use of an attractive pheromone at the perimeter of stands coupled with a repellent pheromone in the center of treated stands. This technique, combining both trap-out and repellency (Cook et al. 2007), has been shown to improve efficacy of repellents in some cases

### **Terminology and techniques**

Trap “lures” normally consist of aggregation pheromones combined with attractant or synergistic host volatiles (Seybold et al. 2006), and are meant to be attached to multiple-funnel, panel, or vane traps (fig. 2). Tree “baits,” on the other hand, consist of aggregation pheromones formulated without the host volatiles and are intended to be stapled or nailed to the host tree trunk. The host tree is presumed to release the monoterpene synergists. In some cases, host monoterpenes synergize the attraction of aggregation pheromones and are thus considered part of the pheromone blend.

A.



B.



Figure 2—A, multiple funnel trap (reprinted with permission from Pherotech International (now Contech International)); B, panel trap (reprinted with permission from Aptive, Inc.).

Non-host volatiles (NHVs), which include green leaf volatiles (GLVs) and angiosperm volatiles (i.e., non-conifer volatiles, collectively), have shown promise in increasing the efficacy of one of the two primary anti-attractants, verbenone, for some beetle species. The effective blend is often quite species-specific, so a single blend will probably not serve all needs.

Release devices such as bubblecaps, pouches, puffers, and vials range in size from about 2.5–10.2 cm and are meant to be manually attached to the substrate (e.g., traps or trees) (fig. 3A–C). Bubblecaps, pouches, vials, and flakes are “passive” releasers, so their release rate varies with changes in temperature and humidity. In practice these variations may not be important, because temperature changes also affect insect emergence and flight, often in ways that parallel the need for semiochemical emission. Puffers are small battery-activated reservoirs that emit frequent, measured puffs of semiochemical, thus overcoming the problem of depletion of the release device and variable release rates under fluctuating temperatures. Flakes are much smaller, usually 3–6 mm<sup>2</sup> in size, and are intended for aerial application over large areas. They can be applied dry, so that they fall to the forest floor, or with a liquid sticking agent that makes them adhere to the forest canopy. Flakes can also be applied using a hand-held

fertilizer spreader to cover smaller acreages. Flakes, like other passive releasers, are temperature-dependent in their release profiles.

A.



B.



C.



Figure 3A, DFB two-part lure; 3B, MCH bubblecap; 3C, verbenone pouch (all with permission of Synergy Semiochemicals).

### Baited traps

Baited traps are typically used to determine flight periodicity in order to time the implementation of suppression projects. Baited traps can also be used as a suppression tactic, in which sufficient numbers of insects are trapped to reduce local infestation levels. This tactic is often combined with other suppression treatments to enhance treatment success. When used for suppression, baited traps should be placed at least 25 meters from susceptible hosts, and generally in an elevated and/or shaded position. Multiple-funnel traps (with varying numbers of funnels) or panel traps (fig. 2 A-B) are both effective for monitoring bark beetles.

### **Trap trees for concentration or trap-and-kill**

When used as a suppression tactic (concentration or trap-and-kill), baited trees should be of fairly large diameter and in shaded sites. Adjacent hosts may also be attacked, so it is important to place baits carefully to avoid undesired tree mortality. All attacked trees are intended to be sacrificed, and once they are infested they should be removed, burned, or debarked.

### **Aerially applied flakes**

Semiochemical-releasing flakes have been used for decades in the Gypsy Moth Slow-the-Spread program (Sharov et al. 2002), but have been only recently developed for bark beetle pheromones (Gillette et al. 2006, 2009a, 2009b). Recent tests have demonstrated the promise of this technology for control of Douglas-fir beetle and MPB, and testing continues for other bark beetle species.

## **Semiochemicals for Major Western Bark Beetle Pests**

### **Mountain pine beetle (MPB)**

Effective techniques have been developed for most of the major hosts of MPB, including lodgepole pine, whitebark pine (*Pinus albicaulis* Engelm.), limber pine (*Pinus flexilis* James), and ponderosa pine. The primary anti-attractant for MPB, verbenone, has also shown behavioral activity for several other bark beetle species and is produced by a wide variety of organisms including bacteria, fungi, gymnosperms and angiosperms (Gillette et al. 2006). Combining verbenone with nonhost volatiles may provide better protection than verbenone alone (Huber and Borden 2001).

### **Monitoring and Trapping (Pull)**

A blend of *trans*-verbenol, *exo*-brevicomin, myrcene, and terpinolene is highly effective for attracting MPB when used as a trap lure. Earlier research suggested that the first three components comprised the aggregation attractant blend (Borden and Lacey 1985, Conn et al. 1983), but more recent work has shown that the addition of terpinolene greatly increases trap catch (Pureswaran and Borden 2005). If reduced attraction is desirable, for example where there is a risk of inducing attack on adjacent healthy trees, the two-component tree bait (*trans*-verbenol and *exo*-brevicomin) can be deployed instead (Borden et al. 1993). Attract-and-kill or concentration techniques have been tested for decades and were shown to be effective in reducing rate of attack on adjacent trees (Gray and Borden 1989, Smith 1986). The four-component aggregation semiochemical blend described above is presumably optimal for trapping-based methods. The earliest trap-based control methods utilized insecticide-treated trees that were baited with the aggregation pheromone (Smith 1986). Vandygriff et al. (2000) successfully used aggregation pheromones to focus beetle attacks in areas designated for fuelwood harvest, potentially improving stand health in baited sites. More recent studies have shown good control of adjacent stands by baiting “sacrificial trees” that are intended for immediate harvest as soon as they are attacked and fully colonized (Borden et al. 2003, 2006, 2007).

## **Push**

The interruptant verbenone has been widely tested for repellency of MPB. Early tests using lower-release rate bubblecapsules did not provide sufficiently high release (Holsten et al. 2000, Lister et al. 1990), but subsequent higher-release devices called pouches (Contech International, formerly Pherotech International, Delta, BC, Canada; Synergy Semiochemicals, Burnaby, BC, Canada; ChemTica USA, Durant, OK, USA; Aptiv, Portland, OR, USA; Alpha Scents, Bridgeport, NY, USA) generally have provided significant protection (Bentz et al. 2005; Borden et al. 2004, 2007; Gibson and Kegley 2004; Kegley et al. 2003; Kegley and Gibson 2004; Progar 2003). In some cases of extreme beetle pressure and/or stand susceptibility, efficacy appears less certain (Progar 2005), but newer formulations are registered to allow higher application rates, which may improve efficacy (Gillette et al. 2009a). The verbenone pouches contain 7.1–7.4 g verbenone (Pherotech International, Synergy Semiochemicals). The addition of NHVs to verbenone often improves efficacy of the repellent (Borden et al. 2003, 2006, Huber and Borden 2001), but in many cases sufficient efficacy is achieved with verbenone alone (Kegley and Gibson 2004, Kegley et al. 2003). Pouches are typically applied 3–4 m above the ground and are applied to the north sides of trees in a grid with roughly 50–100 pouches per hectare, with higher rates recommended for more challenging situations. Some verbenone treatments are applied at the rate of 50 pouches/hectare with replacement at mid-season. This approach is especially desirable where weather conditions indicate that pouches may become depleted before the end of the season. Area protection treatments using verbenone are significantly more effective if all the infested trees within the treatment area are removed before beetle flight. Increasing the verbenone grid to include a 25–30 m treated buffer may also enhance efficacy. Where individual trees, rather than stands, are intended to be protected, pouches are applied at the rate of two per tree on the northeast and northwest sides of the trees. In the case of whitebark pines, which often occur as mixed stands with other pine species, adequate protection can be achieved by placing pouches on both the whitebark pines and surrounding trees, to create an area effect that ensures that the pheromone plume encompasses the trees to be protected regardless of wind direction. Additional studies are underway to test ways of increasing the efficacy of this technique, particularly by adding NHVs to the anti-attractant verbenone.

Verbenone-releasing flakes, which can be applied to individual trees using hydroseeders or to stands using aircraft or broadcast spreaders, have recently been shown to provide good protection when applied at the rate of 15 g/tree (individual tree tests, described in Gillette et al. 2006) or 370 g/hectare (aerial application tests, described in Gillette et al. 2009a).

## **Push-pull**

Combining anti-attractants along with aggregation pheromones deployed in trap trees has been shown to provide increased protection of lodgepole pine trees from attack by MPB, with the caveats that the density of lodgepole pines should be greater than 400 stems/hectare, the mean diameter at breast height (dbh) should be equal to or less than 25 cm, the current attack rate should be less than 15%, and the tactic should be

combined with sanitation harvesting to remove infested trees (Borden et al. 2006, Lindgren and Borden 1993). One study, however, questioned the need for use of the anti-attractant (Vandygriff et al. 2000), and this hypothesis warrants further examination considering the costs of deploying the anti-attractants. Vandygriff et al. (2000) showed that baiting with the attractant was highly effective in removing sufficient numbers of beetles to reduce rate of attack in treated stands as compared to controls. They also demonstrated the utility of using the tree-baiting technique as a simultaneous sanitation effort, where mistletoe-infested stands were targeted for baiting and subsequent harvest, in order to remove both the bark beetles and mistletoe inoculum.

## **Douglas-fir Beetle (DFB)**

The DFB often builds up high populations in wind- and avalanche-thrown Douglas-fir [*Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirb.) Franco] trees or in fire-damaged stands (Furniss and Carolin 1977). It can be desirable to treat such areas to prevent population build-up and infestation of healthy adjacent stands (Furniss et al. 1981, 1982). The development of semiochemical methods for control of DFB has been one of the signal success stories in the history of semiochemical research and development, perhaps because DFB is reputed to be such an olfactory specialist (Campbell and Borden 2006), i.e., it relies more on olfactory cues than do some bark beetle species, and thus be more readily manipulated with semiochemicals.

### **Monitoring and trapping (Pull)**

Seudenol (3-methylcyclohex-2-en-1-ol) or MCOL (1-methylcyclohex-2-en-1-ol), with or without frontalol and ethanol, provides excellent efficacy for trapping DFB when used with multiple funnel traps, which are reported to work better than panel traps for this beetle species (Ross and Daterman 1998). Frequent lure replacement (every 4-6 weeks) may be necessary to maintain constant levels of release.

### **Push**

The anti-aggregation pheromone methylcyclohexenone (3-methylcyclohex-2-en-1-one or MCH) is extremely effective with several different release devices. Bubblecap release devices deployed at the rate of about 75–100/hectare to standing trees or wind- or avalanche-thrown trees have been used for decades with good success for relatively small areas, particularly in recreation sites or administrative areas (Ross and Daterman 1994, 1998; Ross et al. 1996, 2002). Individual high-value trees can be effectively protected with the application of two bubblecaps per tree. The primary limitations to the use of bubblecaps or verbenone pouches are the cost of labor for hand application and the inability to treat remote or steep terrain by hand. For these reasons, there have been several attempts to develop aurally applied products for treatment of large, remote, and/or steep areas. In the past, aurally applied granular controlled-release formulations were successful in area-wide tests (Furniss et al. 1981, 1982), and newer flake formulations (Hercon Environmental, Emigsville, PA) are showing similar promise for treatment of large areas using fixed wing aircraft or helicopters (Gillette et al. 2009b). Initial tests provided good results with 370 g of MCH/hectare, and preliminary results from ongoing tests suggest that lower application rates may provide equivalent

protection (Constance Mehmel, USDA Forest Service, Wenatchee, WA, personal communication).

### **Push-pull**

When beetle populations are very high, stands are extremely stressed, or windstorms, avalanches, or fire have resulted in many dead or damaged trees for beetle population build-up, it is probably advisable to combine the repellent technique with a trap-out technique (Ross et al. 1994, Blackford, 2007). In this scenario, the healthy stands are treated with MCH-releasing bubblecaps or flakes, while the perimeter, especially near fallen or damaged trees, is treated with 12-funnel traps baited with the three-component lure [Seudenol (or MCOL), frontalin, and ethanol]. Care must be taken, however, to place baited traps far enough from healthy trees to avoid spill-over attack from beetles attracted to the baited traps.

### **Spruce Beetle (SB)**

The SB normally attacks only weakened or windthrown spruce trees. Occasionally, however, large outbreaks develop in which healthy trees of all ages and diameters are attacked and killed (Furniss and Carolin 1977). The principal hosts are *Picea engelmannii* Parry, *P. glauca* (Moench) Voss, and *P. sitchensis* (Bong.) Carr.

### **Monitoring and trapping (Pull)**

The SB is effectively attracted by either a two-component (frontalin +  $\alpha$ -pinene) or three-component (frontalin +  $\alpha$ -pinene + MCOL) lure, with substantial increases obtained with the addition of MCOL (Ross et al. 2005). Werner et al. (1988) used baited trap trees that were treated with a silvicide and removed from the forest to reduce populations of SB and achieve a measure of damage control for experimental purposes. However, available silvicides are not registered in the United States for this use.

### **Push**

MCH and green leaf volatiles have been tested with some success for interruption of host location by SB (Poland et al. 1998, Werner et al. 1988), but the use of semiochemicals in a “push” strategy has only recently been shown to be successful for tree protection, probably because of the difficulty in achieving sufficient and/or sustained release in the cooler high elevation and sub-boreal regions where spruce beetle occurs (Borden et al. 1996, Holsten et al. 2000, Ross et al. 2004). Recently a type of puffer known as the Med-E-Cell, which is an active, battery-operated, timed-release device, was shown to provide significant protection for Lutz and Sitka spruce in Alaska (Holsten et al. 2003). However, other studies in Utah using MCH in the same releaser were not effective because the devices leaked and were not capable of retaining enough MCH to ensure efficacy throughout the beetle’s flight period. Further studies and product development are therefore required to achieve consistent repellency of SB with this technology.

## **Western Pine Beetle (WPB)**

The aggregation pheromone blend for WPB has been known for nearly four decades (Bedard et al. 1969, Browne et al. 1979, Silverstein 1968, Wood 1972, Wood et al. 1970) and an early trap-out study showed significant success in reducing beetle populations in ponderosa pine (*Pinus ponderosa* Laws.) stands (Bedard and Wood 1981, DeMars et al. 1980). Efforts to develop a fully operational methodology for semiochemical control of WPB has been somewhat stalled, however, probably for lack of a sufficiently effective anti-attractant semiochemical blend to deploy as a repellent strategy. Although verbenone showed some early promise as an anti-attractant for WPB (Bedard et al. 1980, Tilden et al. 1985), when used alone for tree protection its efficacy has been equivocal (Bedard and Wood 1981, Gillette et al. 2009a, 2009b). More recently, Erbilgin et al. (2007b, 2008) and Fettig et al. (2005, 2008a, 2008b) have demonstrated efficacy of adjuvants to verbenone and other active ingredients to enhance efficacy of a “push” or “push-pull” technique for WPB. The adjuvants (NHVs), which are largely those that have shown efficacy for MPB, are still being tested for area-wide use but have shown substantial efficacy in individual tree tests (Fettig et al. 2008a, 2008b).

### **Monitoring and trapping (Pull)**

The three component blend of *exo-brevicomin*, *frontalin*, and *myrcene* is an extremely effective lure used in multiple funnel or panel traps for monitoring WPB populations (Bedard et al. 1980, Wood 1972). While a large trap-out study using this pheromone blend suggested that the technique may have promise for control of WPB, further wide-scale testing has not been conducted. The recent advances made in finding effective anti-aggregation semiochemicals (Erbilgin et al. 2008, Fettig et al. 2008a, 2008b), however, may reinvigorate this line of investigation as part of a push-pull strategy.

### **Push**

An operational anti-aggregation method for the WPB is not presently available except for single-tree treatments (Fettig et al. 2008a), but research is active in this area and includes developmental testing of alternative active ingredients and tests of acetophenone and ipsdienol in broadcast dispenser applications for stand-level treatments (Gillette et al. 2009a, 2009b). Active ingredients such as those identified by Fettig et al. (2008b) warrant testing for area-wide stand protection as well as individual tree protection.

## **Red Turpentine Beetle (RTB)**

RTB is normally considered a secondary pest of all pine species (Furniss and Carolin 1977), but recent outbreaks have been reported where RTB acts as a primary tree killer (Rappaport et al. 2001). The introduction of RTB into China has raised concerns about its spread across the entire Holarctic region from Asia into Europe and North Africa, since it appears to attack all species within the genus *Pinus* L., and there is a corridor of pines westward from Asia to Europe (Erbilgin et al. 2007a). In Asia, consequently, there has been a concerted effort to control RTB populations and minimize the spread of this

invasive species (Yan et al. 2005). In North America there has been less emphasis on control of RTB than in China, but drought stress is known to exacerbate RTB damage (Smith 1961), leading to concerns that warming climates will result in increased damage and a need for control measures.

### **Monitoring and trapping (Pull)**

The standard commercial lure for RTB has been the three-component blend of  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -pinene, and  $\Delta^3$ -carene in a 1:1:1 ratio (Contech International, formerly Pherotech International) (Hobson et al. 1993). Recently, however, it was shown that  $\Delta^3$ -carene is the most attractive of these monoterpenes over the range of RTB in both North America and Asia (Erbilgin et al. 2007a), and  $\Delta^3$ -carene alone is a more effective lure for RTB than the blend in most cases. Although trap-out programs have not been conducted in North America, a regional trap-out program conducted in China, where RTB was accidentally introduced in the mid-1980s, was credited in part with a large reduction in RTB populations (J.H. Sun, Chinese Academy of Sciences, personal communication). RTB is widely polyphagous, so trapping programs are underway at ports in many pine-growing regions where accidental introduction of RTB is a concern.

### **Push**

Verbenone pouches (along with NHVs) (Fettig et al. 2005, 2008a, 2008b) and verbenone flakes (Gillette et al. 2006) have been shown to provide significant protection of individual pines from attack by RTB. The application of verbenone-releasing flakes at the rate of 3.57 oz (15 g) of flakes/tree reduced attack rate by RTB on individual trees to nearly zero compared to control trees (Gillette et al. 2006), so this method gives very good individual tree protection. The application of verbenone-releasing flakes may be warranted in campgrounds, ski resorts, and administrative sites to protect individual trees from attack by red turpentine beetle.

## **Conclusions**

Research and development of semiochemicals for bark beetle control has yielded many products and strategies that have recently come to fruition and are now being used to protect high-value stands on public and private lands. Recent developments with products for aerial application have provided tools that are appropriate over larger areas and sites that are inaccessible for hand-applied release devices. This is an active area of research, and new products—both active ingredients and new release devices—are constantly emerging for reducing bark beetle-caused tree mortality. It is therefore important to stay current with new developments and to contact extension entomologists and pheromone company representatives for the latest available information, as the field is rapidly and constantly changing. We wish to emphasize, however, that the use of semiochemicals to protect forest stands from bark beetle attack is really only a short-term solution to a long-term problem. While semiochemicals can provide significant protection over the short term, long-term vegetation management strategies are required to reduce susceptibility to bark beetle damage (Negrón et al. 2008). The need for semiochemical strategies can be significantly diminished by manipulating age class structure, encouraging species diversity and maintaining lower

tree densities. In the face of possible climate shifts, however, there may well be increasing need for semiochemicals to protect high-value areas until vegetation management can be implemented to reduce bark beetle risk. These methods may furthermore be helpful in protecting stands or individual trees during periods of temporary vulnerability such as the periods following wildfire, avalanches, and windstorms. They can also be used as part of an intensive management program that incorporates baited sacrificial trees to temporarily reduce bark beetle risk in climate-stressed stands.

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Note: Mention of a product does not constitute recommendation for its use by the USDA Forest Service or the authors.

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**WESTERN BARK BEETLE**

**RESEARCH GROUP**



# What Risks Do Invasive Bark Beetles and Woodborers Pose to Forests of the Western United States? A Case Study of the Mediterranean Pine Engraver, *Orthotomicus erosus*<sup>1</sup>

Steven J. Seybold and Marla Downing<sup>2</sup>

## Abstract

Recently reported, and likely to threaten the health of standing trees in the urban and peri-urban forests of the West, are at least five new subcortical insect/pathogen complexes [*Agrilus coxalis* Waterhouse (Buprestidae) and four species of Scolytidae: *Orthotomicus (Ips) erosus* (Wollaston), *Hylurgus lignipruderda* F., *Scolytus schevyrewi* Semenov, and *Pityophthorus juglandis* Blackman, which vectors the invasive fungus, *Geosmithia* sp.]. Through the Forest Insect and Disease Leaflet and Pest Alert series and other extension-type publications, personnel from USDA Forest Service Research and Development (R&D) have worked closely with USDA Forest Service Forest Health Protection (FHP) specialists in the western regions to disseminate information to the public on the distribution, identification, biology, and potential impact of these new pests to western U.S. forests. Because the Mediterranean pine engraver, *O. erosus*, has the most potential to have a strong impact on conifers in western U.S. forests and elsewhere in North America, we focus on this species as a case study for the development of a species-specific national risk map (=Potential Susceptibility map) to illustrate how USDA Forest Service R&D and USDA Forest Service FHP [in this case the Forest Health Technology Enterprise Team (FHTET)], can work cooperatively to address an issue of pressing national concern.

Keywords: Aleppo pine, bark beetles, invasive insect species, Italian stone pine, risk-mapping.

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<sup>1</sup> This manuscript was prepared at the request of the compilers to address the WBBRG priority area: Develop methods and strategies for detecting, monitoring, and eradicating or mitigating invasive bark beetles and woodboring insects, which was not included in the 2007 SAF Symposium because of time constraints.

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## Introduction

Native bark and ambrosia beetles (Coleoptera: Scolytidae, *sensu* Wood, 2007 and Platypodidae) and woodborers (broadly defined as Coleoptera: Anobiidae, Bostrichidae, Buprestidae, Cerambycidae, Curculionidae, Lyctidae, Oedemeridae; Hymenoptera: Siricidae; and Lepidoptera: Cossidae and Sesiidae) have historically represented a major threat to forests and wood products of the western U.S. (Furniss and Carolin 1977, Solomon 1995). Because these insect guilds feed on the most vital tissues of trees (phloem, cambium, and sapwood of the main stem, root, and root crown), they are considered to have the highest impact on host growth and reproduction, and thus, have been ranked as the most damaging among all forest insects (Mattson 1988). The impact of these endophytic insects is magnified further by their interactions with fungi (Goheen and Hansen 1993, Paine et al. 1997). With the evolution of multiple native complexes of tree-killing bark beetles (e.g., *Dendroctonus*, *Ips*, and *Scolytus* spp.) and, in rare cases, woodborers (e.g., *Melanophila californica* Van Dyke), these feeding groups of insects have reached the pinnacle of their impact in the drought- (Koch et al. 2007), fire- (Parker et al. 2006), and wind-challenged (Gandhi et al. 2007) coniferous forests of the western U.S.

Throughout much of the development of forest entomology in the West, these coniferous forests have been largely unchallenged by invasive insect species in these guilds. In western U.S. forests, Furniss and Carolin (1977) listed only two bark beetles [*Scolytus multistriatus* (Marsham) and *S. rugulosus* (Müller)], one curculionid stem borer [*Cryptorynchus lapathi* (L.)], and one cerambycid stemborer (*Saperda populnea* L.) as introductions from other continents. None of these insects feeds on conifers, and *C. lapathi* is now considered to be a native holarctic species (D.W. Langor, Canadian Forestry Service, personal communication). However, since the monograph by Furniss and Carolin, increasing numbers of invasive bark beetles and woodborers have been detected and have established populations in urban and wildland forests of the West (Haack 2006; Langor et al. 2008; Lee et al. 2005, 2006, 2007; Liu et al. 2007; Mattson et al. 1992; Moser et al. 2005) (Table 1). Notably, some of these additions to our subcortical forest insect fauna are well-documented pests of conifers on other continents (Table 2).

In this paper we briefly discuss the concept of new invasive subcortical insects in western U.S. forests from the perspectives of: (1) the resources threatened and (2) the risks posed by the invaders. We use the Mediterranean pine engraver, *Orthotomicus (Ips) erosus* (Wollaston), as a case study for the development of a species-specific national risk map to illustrate how USDA Forest Service Research and Development (R&D) and USDA Forest Service Forest Health Protection (FHP) [in this case the Forest Health Technology Enterprise Team (FHTET)] can work cooperatively to address an issue of pressing national concern.

**Table 1—Invasive bark and woodboring beetles first detected in the western U.S. between 1984 and 2008<sup>1</sup>**

Species	Family	State where initially detected
<i>Heterobostrychus brunneus</i> (Murray)	Bostrichidae	California
<i>Sinoxylon ceratoniae</i> (L.)	Bostrichidae	California
<i>Agrilus coxalis</i> Waterhouse	Buprestidae	California
<i>Agrilus prionurus</i> Chevrolat	Buprestidae	Texas
<i>Phoracantha recurva</i> Newman	Cerambycidae	California
<i>Phoracantha semipunctata</i> (F.)	Cerambycidae	California
<i>Dendroctonus mexicanus</i> Hopkins	Scolytidae	Arizona
<i>Hylurgus ligniperda</i> F.	Scolytidae	California
<i>Orthotomicus erosus</i> (Wollaston)	Scolytidae	California
<i>Phloeosinus armatus</i> Reitter	Scolytidae	California
<i>Scolytus schevyrewi</i> Semenov	Scolytidae	Colorado
<i>Trypodendron domesticum</i> (L.)	Scolytidae	Washington
<i>Xyleborinus alni</i> (Niisima)	Scolytidae	Washington
<i>Xyleborus similis</i> Ferrari	Scolytidae	Texas

<sup>1</sup>We consider Texas to be part of the continental western U.S.; these introductions were documented in Haack (2006), except for *P. semipunctata*, which was reported in Scriven et al. (1986); *D. mexicanus* (Moser et al. 2005); *H. ligniperda* (Liu et al. 2007); *A. coxalis* (Coleman and Seybold in press); and *T. domesticum* (R. Rabaglia, USDA Forest Service, Washington, D.C., personal correspondence).

## Recently Introduced Subcortical Insect/Pathogen Complexes in Western U.S. Forests

For a variety of historical, biological, and societal reasons, it appears that the conifer-dominated forests of the western U.S. have accumulated a relatively depauperate fauna of invasive subcortical insects. The situation is similar in Canada where a recent survey of all non-native terrestrial arthropods associated with woody plants revealed that only 12% of these invasive species were bark- and wood-feeders (and this guild was liberally defined to include external feeders on roots and gall makers on twigs) (Langor et al. 2008). Among all of the families of subcortical insects noted above, only one invasive cerambycid, nine invasive scolytids, and one invasive sesiid were listed for western Canada (provinces west of Manitoba). Factors such as species composition, abundance, and locations of native and adventive stands of trees and shrubs; diversity and abundance of competing native species of subcortical insects; historical patterns of trade and land use; historical working locations of collectors and survey entomologists; and locations of urban centers relative to forest lands may all have played a role in the relatively low number of subcortical insects recorded from western North American forests. Forests of the western U.S. have high levels of native biodiversity of conifers as well as bark beetles and woodborers (Bright and Stark 1973, Furniss and Johnson 2002, Little 1971, Wood 1982). Thus, although invading species have had a range of potential hosts at their disposal, they may also have faced greater competition for various niches by native subcortical species. Historically, the contraposition of these factors, and the societal factors listed above, may have made western U.S. forests less vulnerable to invasion by subcortical insects.

Cataloging invasive species is a dynamic process, and the lists developed in the literature are ephemeral (Langor et al. 2008). Nonetheless, of 25 bark and woodboring Buprestidae, Cerambycidae, and Scolytidae first reported to be established in the continental U.S. between 1985 and 2005, seven species were in the western U.S. (Haack 2006). Two other invasive species of woodboring Coleoptera (Bostrichidae), traditionally more associated with wood products, have also been reported from California (Table 1). Established populations of eucalyptus longhorned borer, *Phoracantha semipunctata* (F.) (Cerambycidae), were first discovered in southern California in 1984 (Scriven et al. 1986), but this species was not included in the survey by Haack (2006). In total, established western U.S. populations of at least 14 subcortical insect taxa have been reported in the literature since 1984 from Arizona, California, Colorado, Texas, and Washington (Table 1). Not all of these bark and woodboring taxa are likely to assume pest status in U.S. forests.

However, some of the more recently reported subcortical insect/pathogen complexes are likely to threaten the health of standing trees in the urban, peri-urban, and wildland forests of the West (Table 2).

**Table 2—Emerging threats posed by recently detected invasive bark beetles, woodborers, and/or pathogens in the western U.S**

Species	Hosts	Fungal associates in U.S. population	Observed levels of tree mortality in the western U.S.	References
<i>Agrilus coxalis</i> <sup>1</sup>	<i>Quercus</i> spp.	Unknown	Locally extensive, wildland urban interface (S. CA)	Coleman and Seybold, 2008a,b
<i>Dendroctonus mexicanus</i>	<i>Pinus</i> spp.	Unknown <sup>2</sup>	Locally extensive in a species complex of other <i>Dendroctonus</i> (S. Az)	Moser et al. 2005
<i>Hylurgus ligniperda</i>	<i>Pinus</i> spp.	<i>Ophiostoma ips</i> , <i>O. galeiforme</i> , and ten other ophiostomoid fungi	None	Lee et al. 2007, Liu et al. 2007, 2008, S. Kim and T.C. Harrington personal communication
<i>Orthotomicus erosus</i>	<i>Pinus</i> spp.	<i>Ophiostoma ips</i>	Minor levels, urban forests (CA)	Lee et al. 2005, 2007, 2008, T.C. Harrington personal communication
<i>Pityophthorus juglandis</i>	<i>Juglans</i> spp.	<i>Geosmithia</i> sp.	Westwide, urban forests, rural landscapes (CA, CO, UT)	N.A. Tisserat, personal communication
<i>Scolytus schevyrewi</i>	<i>Ulmus</i> spp.	<i>Ophiostoma novo-ulmi</i>	Locally extensive, urban forests (WY, CO)	Negrón et al. 2005; Jacobi et al. 2007; Johnson et al. 2008 ; Lee et al. 2006, 2007, In press

<sup>1</sup>(Coleoptera: Buprestidae); all other species in this table are (Coleoptera: Scolytidae).

<sup>2</sup>Fungal isolations from the U.S. population of *D. mexicanus* were in progress as of Nov. 2008 (K.D. Klepzig, USDA Forest Service, Asheville, NC, and D.L. Six, University of Montana, Missoula, MT, personal communication).

Two of these complexes are on pines in California [*O. erosus* and the redhaired pine bark beetle, *Hylurgus lignipruderda* F. (both Scolytidae)]; one is on pines in Arizona [the Mexican pine beetle, *Dendroctonus mexicanus* Hopkins (Scolytidae)]; one is on oaks in California [the goldspotted oak borer, *Agrilus coxalis* Waterhouse (Buprestidae)], and two are on other hardwoods across the West [the banded elm bark beetle, *Scolytus schevyrewi* Semenov, and the walnut twig beetle/thousand cankers complex, *Pityophthorus juglandis* Blackman (Scolytidae) and *Geosmithia* sp.]. *Agrilus coxalis*, *D. mexicanus*, and *P. juglandis* are not invasive insects from other continents, but the recent discoveries of *A. coxalis* and *D. mexicanus* in the U.S. appear to be range expansions or regional introductions (Coleman and Seybold 2008a, Moser et al. 2005); *P. juglandis* appears to be damaging native and adventive stands of walnut trees through an association with an invasive fungal pathogen (N.A. Tisserat, Colorado State University, personal communication). The occurrences of regional introductions or range expansions leading to “indigenous exotic species” may reflect either more lax intracontinental and interstate commercial regulatory enforcement (Dodds et al. 2004) or effects of climate change (Hicke et al. 2006) on native subcortical insect distributions. These subtly continuous or discrete geographical shifts in subcortical forest insect populations may be a challenging wave of the future in invasive species management.

Through the Forest Insect and Disease Leaflet and Pest Alert series and other extension-type publications, personnel from USDA Forest Service R&D have worked closely with specialists from the western regions of USDA Forest Service FHP in conjunction with University of California at Davis entomologists to disseminate information to the public on the distributions, identification, biology, and potential impacts of the new subcortical insect pests to western U.S. forests (Coleman and Seybold 2008; Lee et al. 2005–2007; Liu et al. 2007; Negrón et al. 2005). It appears that most of the invasive species in this ensemble of subcortical insects successfully colonize trees under some form of stress. However, based on the damage that it has caused to stressed pines in other continents, *O. erosus* has perhaps the most potential to have a strong impact on conifers in western U.S. forests and elsewhere in North America.

### **Orthotomicus erosus: Introduction, Establishment, Biology, and Behavior**

In May 2004, a new exotic bark beetle for North America was discovered in baited flight traps in Fresno, California, during an annual bark beetle and woodborer survey led by Richard L. Penrose of the California Department of Food and Agriculture. This bark beetle was identified as *Orthotomicus erosus* (Wollaston), the Mediterranean pine engraver, a well-documented pest of pines in its native range, which includes the Mediterranean region, the Middle East, Central Asia, and China (Eglitis 2000, Mendel and Halperin 1982, Yin et al. 1984). In July 2007, the widespread occurrence and host range of the pest in China was confirmed by one of us (SJS), through an examination of the holdings of the Chinese Academy of Sciences insect collection in Beijing. How the beetle entered the U.S. is unknown, but it may have arrived with solid wood packing material associated with imported goods. In a survey of records from the USDA APHIS Port Information Network (1985–2001) (Haack 2001), *O. erosus* was the second most frequently intercepted bark beetle species at U.S. ports with a total of 385 interceptions.

Beetles were most frequently associated with imports from the following countries in descending order: Spain, Italy, China, Turkey, and Portugal. Based on remnants of old galleries observed in dead standing trees and in weathered cut pine logs, this beetle was likely present in California for at least three years before its detection in 2004. The distances between the observation points of some of these remnant galleries, the widespread occurrence of *O. erosus* in the state (see below), and its marked abundance, all suggest that this is a minimum estimate of the initial introduction of the species to California.

Since the initial detection, this species has been found in flight traps or has been collected in host material in ten counties in California, primarily in the southern Central Valley (R.L. Penrose, CDFA, unpublished data). Furthermore, in Fresno, Tulare, and Kern Counties, abundant overwintering populations of larvae, pupae, and adults have been found in cut logs of Aleppo, *Pinus halepensis*, Canary Island, *Pinus canariensis*, and Italian stone pine, *Pinus pinea*. These exotic trees are a frequent and esthetically important component of the urban forests of the southern Central Valley and the Los Angeles Basin (Seybold et al. 2006b). They are also widely planted along highway corridors and as shelterbelts in rural regions of California. The Mediterranean pine engraver has so far been detected in urban and peri-urban locations, particularly parks, golf courses, and green waste recycling facilities. The highest population density appears to be in the southeastern Central Valley along the somewhat industrialized State Highway 99 corridor.

*Orthotomicus erosus* adults generally behave as secondary pests. They are most likely to infest recently fallen trees, standing trees that are under stress, logging debris, and broken branches with rough bark that are at least 5 cm in diameter. Healthy trees have rarely been attacked. In Israel, beetles are often found on the main stem and larger branches of stressed trees that are over 5 yr old (Halperin et al. 1983). In California, this species, or evidence of its past activity, has been found in cut logs from 15 to 90 cm in diameter, on stumps from 10 to 90 cm in diameter, on declining branches of live standing trees, and on the main stem of moribund or dead standing trees. This species has two or more generations per year in its native range. In California, it has three to four generations per year and adults are active year round with the exception of a short period between mid-December and late-January (Lee et al. 2007, In press; R.L. Penrose, CDFA, unpublished data).

Males are the initial sex to colonize cut logs or fallen or standing trees. They construct a nuptial chamber, in which they are typically joined by two females (Mendel and Halperin 1982). Males produce an aggregation pheromone consisting of 2-methyl-3-buten-2-ol and (+)-ipsdienol, whose attraction is enhanced by the host monoterpene  $\alpha$ -pinene (Lee et al. In prep., Seybold et al. 2006a). The monoterpene co-attractant is important to the activity of this pheromone in contrast to related beetles in the genus *Ips* where monoterpenes play a relatively minor role (Seybold et al. 2006a). Once in the nuptial chamber, each *O. erosus* female mates and constructs an egg gallery in opposite directions and in longitudinal orientation with the grain of the wood. In the relatively rare (approx. 4%) instances when a third female joins the familial gallery, she excavates her

egg gallery parallel to one already established (Mendel and Halperin 1982). Each female lays 26 to 75 eggs and may leave the gallery to lay eggs in a second gallery (Mendel and Halperin 1982). The eggs hatch and larvae develop through three instars expanding the tunnels as they feed. As the tunnels expand, they may overlap with one another. When larvae are ready to pupate, they tunnel towards the bark, especially in cases where the phloem is thick such as *P. canariensis* and *P. pinea*. Observations in the Central Valley of California indicate that this species overwinters as larvae, pupae, and adults beneath the bark surface. Overwintered adult beetles start flying in January and February and establish brood galleries by mid-March. Subsequent broods are initiated in early June, late July, and over an extended period between early September and late November (R.L. Penrose, CDFA, unpublished data). Flight of parent and new adults continues until November and even early December (Lee et al. In press). In Israel, adults start brood production in early March and require a period of feeding before reaching sexual maturation (Mendel 1983). When beetles complete their development, the adults emerge, leaving a small round exit hole in the outer bark, approx. 1.5 mm in diameter. During the warmer parts of the season, there is a bimodal, diurnal pattern of adult flight dispersal with peaks in the morning and evening (Mendel et al. 1991). This has been noted in California as well (D.-G. Liu, SJS, personal observations). New adults may re-infest the same host material that they emerged from or may attack new material.

Laboratory studies in Israel have provided data on the lower temperature thresholds for various aspects of the life history of *O. erosus* (Mendel and Halperin 1982). Females oviposited between 18 and 42°C, but eggs exposed to lower temperatures did not hatch below 16–17°C. Larvae exposed to lower temperatures did not complete development below 18°C (they fed and developed, albeit not completely, for a short period at 14°C). Prepupal development was delayed at temperatures below 16 to 17°C, but individuals did continue to develop at 14°C and became adults after 30 d. In the field in Israel, *O. erosus* developed in areas where winter temperatures ranged from 7.8 to 14°C. As long as the adults initiated the life cycle during periods of warmer temperatures, the immature stages developed through the winter, likely during periods when daily temperatures exceeded 18 to 20°C. The cold temperature tolerances of *O. erosus* have not been studied in the field in California, but lower lethal temperatures and supercooling points of the California population are being investigated in laboratory studies in the Minnesota Department of Agriculture-University of Minnesota BL2 Quarantine Facility in St. Paul, Minnesota (Venette et al. 2009).

In addition to its native range and the recent introduction in California, *O. erosus* has also been introduced into Chile, South Africa, and Swaziland. In all of these locations, the beetle reproduces in a variety of pines, including some that occur in native stands or ornamental plantings in the U.S. (Eglitis 2000). Outside the U.S., *O. erosus* has also been found in Douglas-fir, *Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirb.) Franco, spruce, *Picea* sp., fir, *Abies* sp., cypress, *Cupressus* sp., and cedar, *Cedrus* sp., but these non-pine hosts were thought to be used mainly for maturation feeding or overwintering sites for adults (Eglitis 2000). Recently, in laboratory no-choice host range tests of 22 conifers, Lee et al. (2008) reported that *O. erosus* reproduced on four pines from its native Eurasian

range—Aleppo, Canary Island, Italian stone, and Scots pines; 11 native North American pines—eastern white, grey, jack, Jeffrey, loblolly, Monterey, ponderosa, red, Sierra lodgepole, singleleaf pinyon, and sugar pines; and four native non-pines— Douglas-fir, black and white spruce, and tamarack. Among non-pines, fewer progeny developed and were of smaller size on Douglas-fir and tamarack, *Larix laricina* (Du Roi) K. Koch, and the number of progeny did not replace the number of founder adults in tamarack. Beetles did not develop on white fir, incense cedar, or coast redwood.

Although *O. erosus* is not a tree-killing bark beetle under normal circumstances, it has demonstrated the capacity to kill trees following disturbances. These have included forest thinning followed by drought in Israel (Halperin et al. 1983; Mendel and Halperin 1982); forest thinning alone in Israel (Mendel et al. 1992); and fire in South Africa (Baylis et al. 1986). Bevan (1984) also provides anecdotal evidence of the reaction of populations of *O. erosus* to various pre-disposing factors in Swaziland; Zwolinski et al. (1995) suggest that in South Africa, *O. erosus* has a higher rate of infestation in pines that were previously wounded by hail and infected with fungi through the wounds. In one instance where *O. erosus* has killed trees in the apparent absence of any pre-disposing conditions, Jiang et al. (1992) reported that *O. erosus* colonized healthy *P. massoniana* and caused a 20% loss of standing pines in the Zhejiang University Forest in China. Seybold and colleagues have observed about 10 cases where *O. erosus* has colonized the main stem of standing ornamental or windbreak pines in the Central Valley of California, but in each instance it was not clear whether the trees were first declining due to some other factor perhaps related to moisture or root pathogens.

Besides direct injury to pine trees, *O. erosus* can vector fungal pathogens. In South Africa, spores of *Ophiostoma ips* (Rumb.) Nannf., the causative agent of bluestain fungus, were found on 60% of 665 adult beetles or galleries on trap logs of *Pinus elliottii* Engelm. and *P. patula* Scheide & Deppe ex Schlecht. & Cham.; spores of *Leptographium lundbergii* Lagerb. & Melin were also found on a few samples (Zhou et al. 2001, 2002). Spores of *Graphium pseudormiticum* Mouton & Wingfield have been found with *O. erosus* on unspecified pine logs (Mouton et al. 1994). In Spain a small proportion of a sample population of *O. erosus* were reported to carry the pitch canker fungus, *Fusarium circinatum* Nirenberg and O'Donnell (Romon et al. 2007). In California, the mycoflora of *O. erosus* overwintering in *P. canariensis* and *P. halepensis* was heavily dominated by *Ophiostoma ips* (S. Kim et al. unpublished data, Iowa State University), which agrees with phytopathological studies of *O. erosus* in South Africa (see above) and North Africa (Ben Jamaa et al. 2007).

Given this background, *O. erosus* presents a relatively high risk to pines in North America. It has been included in the ExFor database (<http://spfnic.fs.fed.us/exfor>) as one of many species of concern to North American forests. Its establishment in much of the U.S. seems highly probable; subsequent spread is likely to cover a large geographic area; and economic damage is likely to be severe (Eglitis 2000). Plantation pines in the southeastern U.S. are particularly vulnerable because both climate and hosts are likely to be favorable. The National Plant Board recognized the threat that *O. erosus* poses for U.S. pines, and USDA APHIS considers the insect as “actionable” (J.F. Cavey, USDA

APHIS, personal correspondence). Out of this regulatory climate, in February 2007 the USDA Forest Service, FHTET with the support of the FHP Early Detection-Rapid Response National Program Coordinators formed an advisory committee chaired by one of us (MD) to develop a U.S. national risk map (Potential Susceptibility Map) for *O. erosus*. Input into the mapping process and research data on the behavior of the invasive population in California was sought from Forest Service R&D, so SJS and Research Biologist R.C. Venette (Northern Research Station) were invited to participate on the committee<sup>1</sup>. What follows is a brief overview of the process, progress, and pitfalls encountered in the development of the *Orthotomicus erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map with an emphasis on the cooperative synergy achieved between R&D and FHP.

## **Development of the *Orthotomicus erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map**

The *Orthotomicus erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map describes the relative potential for introduction and establishment of *O. erosus* at any given location in the conterminous U.S. (USDA FS 2008). The map was constructed by using techniques developed for the 2006 National Insect and Disease Risk Map (Krist et al. 2007), and for susceptibility maps for the invasive subcortical insects, *Ips typographus* (L.) (Coleoptera: Scolytidae) and *Sirex noctilio* F. (Hymenoptera: Siricidae), as well as the invasive pathogen, *Phytophthora alni* Brasier & S.A.Kirk (USDA FS 2008). The techniques rely on a compilation of both expert opinion and research findings, which are synthesized into a series of interacting layers with Geographic Information Systems (GIS) technology (i.e., ESRI 2008, Table 3). Location and level of risk are mapped in 1 km pixels.

The first major component of the map is the Potential Introduction model, which describes where the pest is most likely to enter and escape into the U.S. The model contains information about major ports, markets (=municipalities), and inland distribution centers (Table 3). A dispersal function (Table 4) is used to predict the movement of *O. erosus* from each of these potential points of introduction.

The second major component is the Potential Establishment model, which describes where the pest can survive and reproduce should it be introduced (Table 3). The model contains data related to the temperature tolerances and the host range of *O. erosus*, and a disturbance layer, which is the most data intensive portion of the effort. The factors that go into this layer include ozone, drought (= moisture deficit), fire, hurricane, tornado, avalanche, lightning, and extreme wind events.

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<sup>1</sup>Other committee members include: D. Borchert, F.H. Koch, F. Krist, F. Sapio, W.D. Smith, S. Smith, B. Tkacz, and M. Tuffly.

**Table 3—Data layers included in the *Orthotomicus erosus* Potential Susceptibility Model**

Data Layer	Purpose
Introduction: Marine Ports <sup>1</sup>	U.S. marine ports that handle commodities and solid wood packing materials shipped from countries with established populations of <i>O. erosus</i> . These are locations where <i>O. erosus</i> may be released.
Introduction: Markets	Possible destination locations where <i>O. erosus</i> may be released.
Introduction: Inland Distribution Centers	Possible destination locations where <i>O. erosus</i> may be released.
Establishment: Temperature Tolerance	A limiting maximum coupled with a minimum temperature range within which <i>O. erosus</i> can survive.
Establishment: Host Range	The distribution of tree species, which are used by <i>O. erosus</i> , for growth and reproduction.
Establishment: Disturbance	Depicts locations where natural or anthropogenic events occur and potentially affect tree health and vigor; <i>O. erosus</i> population densities increase in stressed trees.

<sup>1</sup>The volume of imports into these ports was not considered in the analysis, but the types of imported goods (i.e., those with solid wood packing materials) were taken into consideration. Included in the analysis were all ports where previous USDA Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service interceptions of *O. erosus* had occurred.

**Table 4—Distance-Decay (Dispersal) Function for the Probable Flight Range of *Orthotomicus erosus***

Distance (km)	GRID Value
0 (Source)	10
GE 1 and LT or EQ to 2	10
GT 2 and LT or EQ to 3	3
GT 3 and LT or EQ to 4	1
GT 4	0

Abbreviations include GE: greater than or equal to; LT: less than; EQ: equal to; and GT: greater than.

The final Susceptibility Model is a weighted overlay of the Introduction and Establishment components. For every pixel location (i), the values of each spatially coincident Introduction pixel ( $I_i$ ) and Establishment pixel ( $E_i$ ) are multiplied by assigned weights ( $x_i$  and  $x_E$ , respectively), then these values are multiplied, and the product is applied to the Susceptibility pixel ( $S_i$ ).

$$S_i = I_i (x_i) \cdot E_i (x_E)$$

Without reason to do otherwise, the Susceptibility Map should be the result of an equally-weighted overlay of the Introduction and Establishment components (i.e.,  $x_i = x_E = 0.5$ ). Given sufficient reason though, it is possible to attribute more importance to one component by assigning different weights. For example, if the pest is not thought to already have been introduced and the dispersal distance of the pest is relatively limited, it may be more accurate to emphasize the Introduction component. Multiplying the Introduction pixel values by a greater weighting factor and the Establishment pixel values by the complementary factor (before multiplying the two products to create the Susceptibility Map) will prioritize areas where the pest is likely to first be released. On the other hand, if the pest is known to have already been introduced, prioritizing areas where the pest is most able to survive may be desired (i.e.,  $x_E > x_i$ ). In this case, the resulting Potential Susceptibility Map will allow pest specialists to focus detection efforts in areas where introduced populations of *O. erosus* may be expanding.

### **Contributions from Forest Service Research and Development (R&D) to the *Orthotomicus erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map**

Research on *O. erosus* in California has provided data for the Introduction and Establishment components on the physiological host range and life history of the insect, the current distribution of the invasive population in California, and the innate flight capacity of adults. The latter is being studied through mark-recapture flight experiments in extremely level and open agricultural fields located in Kings and Tulare Co., California. There are no trees, and specifically no host trees, located within the immediate study areas. Although it is less than half the size of a grain of rice, *O. erosus* is a relatively strong flier that can move at least 10 km in a matter of 24-48 hr with prevailing winds (D.-G. Liu et al., unpublished data).

In addition, Forest Service R&D personnel provided additional locations for a series of inland commercial distribution centers identified during field research and population surveys conducted in the zone of infestation in California. These additional locations were provided to FHTET for incorporation into the Introduction component and as a consequence, similar distribution center data were collected on a national basis and included in the process. R&D personnel also guided the interpretation of the scientific literature for the incorporation of the impact of temperature on developmental thresholds for *O. erosus* into the Establishment component (Mendel 1983, Mendel and Halperin 1982, NAPPFAST 2008). A lower critical development threshold between 0 and 10°C was chosen for the analysis. R&D personnel have also provided advice on weighting various potential hosts and the urban vs. wildland habitats in the Establishment component.

No new data were available from California to aid in the development of the disturbance layer. Likely because it is early in the invasion phase, surveys to date by Forest Service R&D personnel and CDFA cooperators have revealed that populations of the beetle are confined to urban and rural agricultural areas and have not invaded the National Forest system or commercial forest lands in California. Thus, observations of the impact of disturbances such as fire, wind, thinning, etc. could not be recorded. Nevertheless, R&D encouraged strong consideration of the potential interactive power of thinning, drought, and ozone on the health of host pines (Grulke et al. 2002) in the development of this data layer. Through administrative access provided by the USDA FS Southern Research Station, the committee was able to include expertise on drought impacts (Koch et al. 2007) and ozone damage bioindicator data in the modeling procedure.

Finally, research data on the current distribution of *O. erosus* in California and the dispersal function (Table 4) have been combined to test the predictive power of the *O. erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map at locations where the beetle has been flight trapped or hand collected in host material in California.

### **Contributions from the Forest Health Technology Enterprise Team to the *Orthotomicus erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map**

The role of FHTET is to develop technology that assists Forest Health Protection Staff and their cooperators in the management of North America's forests. The specific

purpose in developing invasive species tools such as the *O. erosus* Potential Susceptibility model and the resulting map is to provide geographic information for prioritizing detection efforts.

The construction of the *O. erosus* model has required extensive coordination and communication, which have been led by FHTET. Initially, FHTET identified individuals with expertise in risk assessment work, or who had particular knowledge and information about *O. erosus*. Once identified, the participating individuals were informed about the FHTET modeling methods and were invited to participate in the steering committee. Committee members and other experts were then regularly contacted for pertinent knowledge and information on both the biology and behavior of the pest as well as the pest hosts. The knowledge and information from the committee was collected from published research, unpublished documentation, or in the form of personal communication. These inputs were assimilated and essential parameters critical to developing the model were selected (see above).

Once the parameters were selected, an intensive data management effort was undertaken by the FHTET team (i.e., university cooperators and FHTET contractors). Datasets, which were not collected specifically for these purposes, had to be identified and investigated to determine whether they could be used to appropriately characterize the parameters necessary for the model. Often, myriad analyses were required to determine how a dataset can best be utilized to represent the input parameters. Once identified and acquired, representative datasets were processed and standardized and finally combined into Model Builder (ESRI 2008) for inclusion in the model by FHTET contractors.

The process frequently identified knowledge and data gaps, and to address these gaps, multiple versions of the model were provided to the committee. With each new iteration, new issues were discovered and resolved. Resolution of the issues sometimes required that weaknesses in the datasets had to be overcome. This is a difficult issue because it often required the expenditure of a large amount of FHTET resources to re-investigate, analyze, and process the existing data, or to find replacement data. Other issues elucidated the need to: 1) incorporate different and/or additional parameters; 2) set new and/or change parameter thresholds; and 3) make necessary assumptions.

In the development of the *O. erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map, FHTET was responsible for synthesis of information before, during, and after committee meetings; reporting outputs (e.g., loading products on web sites and maintaining web sites); coordination of expertise on the committee (driving the process forward); meeting deadlines; model construction; and hiring contracting and North Carolina State University personnel in order to obtain specific modeling expertise.

### **Limitations and Pitfalls of the *Orthotomicus erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map**

The process of developing a susceptibility map involves a large number of assumptions, such as 1) assigning the magnitude of weights for various factors (see description of this above); 2) developing a course of action when no representative data are available;

3) anticipation of changes in the behavior of *O. erosus* in its new environment; and 4) addressing temporal issues. These assumptions along with all methods and “metadata” for *O. erosus* are disclosed in detail in the “metadata” found on the FHTET website (USDA FS 2008). Some examples of the assumptions follow.

The creation of the urban host layer involved an assumption made to address the lack of available representative data. No comprehensive information exists regarding the presence of host species and the proportion of those species within U.S. urban boundaries. However, it is widely understood that pines are cultivated in nearly all U.S. cities. Therefore, it was assumed that all U.S. cities contain *O. erosus* host type and an urban host layer was created to reflect that decision. In order to capture the maximum number of sample detection points, an expanded definition of urban forest was used that created two levels of risk: 1) the ESRI city (urban) polygons, which introduced a risk level of 7 into the Introduction component; and 2) an urban boundary that begins at the edge of the ESRI polygons and extends outward based on measurements of the lighting footprint created by urban areas (collected from remote sensing imagery), which introduced a risk level of 3-4. An analysis with a dataset assembled by R&D in cooperation with the California Department of Food and Agriculture on the collection locations of *O. erosus* in California revealed that approx. 50% of the detection sample points were in the city lighting areas (= white space).

A number of urban host areas were excluded from the Establishment component because they fell outside the *O. erosus* survival temperature thresholds set by the Committee. Because some of the excluded southwestern urban areas (e.g., Las Vegas, Phoenix, etc.) maintain large ornamental plantings of Mediterranean pines (e.g., *P. canariensis*, *P. eldarica*, *P. halepensis*, and *P. pinea*) susceptible to *O. erosus*, urban areas located within USDA Plant Hardiness Zones of 8b-10b (Cathey 1990) were included in the spatial scope of the model. The Committee concluded that these zones were indicative of the potential of typical Mediterranean pine hosts to grow in these urban areas and that this constituted indirect evidence for potential survival of *O. erosus* in suitable urban microhabitats.

Other assumptions were made to address temporal matters, such as deciding whether more predictive power could be attained with historical datasets (e.g., the preceding 100 yrs) or with contemporary datasets that may reflect present and future conditions (particularly in the context of climate change). Often, the datasets available to the committee were two or three years old because of lags between the time when the data were collected and when they were processed and made available for dissemination. In general though, where relatively current data (e.g., the previous 5 yrs) were available, the committee opted to use these more recent datasets.

The availability and the maintenance of various datasets was also an issue that the committee had to contend with. For example, in the process of developing the disturbance layer, the committee realized that thinning or harvesting was not included as a factor. Given that outbreak activity of this pest on other continents has been correlated with thinning events (Halperin et al. 1983, Mendel and Halperin 1982, Mendel

et al. 1992), the absence of this information in the model is a considerable limitation. Unfortunately, the committee ascertained that there was no available national database that consolidates information from National Forests, or state, municipal, private, or Native American lands regarding harvests or thinning operations, so we could not include these data in the map. The committee also found that other datasets in the disturbance layer, e.g., those that document occurrence of tornadoes and hurricanes, were not frequently updated. At the time of this writing (Nov. 2008), the disturbance impact of Hurricane Katrina, which occurred in Aug. 2005, had not been incorporated into the tornado/hurricane database.

The committee also found several instances where the interaction of datasets had to be reconciled. For example, it was accepted by the committee that ozone affects trees that are stressed by drought to a greater extent than trees not experiencing a moisture deficit (Grulke et al. 2002). Therefore, Environmental Protection Agency data on direct ozone concentrations were combined with USDA Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) program plant damage data, as the latter were thought to better depict the locations where ozone would actually impact the health of pines. Thus, an indirect measure of ozone (i.e., ozone damage to plant bio-indicators) was incorporated into the disturbance layer. Unfortunately, all currently available ozone bioindicator maps had data gaps (i.e., states where bioindicator data were not collected). Although preliminary regional models that relate ozone injury to ambient ozone levels, moisture status, and other environmental variables were available, the committee decided to re-interpolate FIA bioindicator data to fill in the current gaps.

#### **Future Application of the *Orthotomicus erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map**

The *O. erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map was developed to understand where *O. erosus* may be entering the U.S. and where it is possible for *O. erosus* to sustain populations. The latter was accomplished by focusing on factors that affect distribution. It was intended that such predicted distributional information could be used by forest resource managers to better direct and pinpoint future monitoring and survey activities for *O. erosus*. In some instances, pest detection specialists may be more interested in using the Potential Introduction portion of the product (i.e., in those states that are far from the current area of infestation); in other instances (e.g., in California and neighboring states) resource managers may be more interested in using the Potential Establishment portion to guide their forest management decisions.

The models should be used with the knowledge that they are an approximation of the risk and the location of the risk posed by *O. erosus*. Local knowledge should always be considered when using these products. The relatively large knowledge and data gaps prevent these products from being completely precise. Indeed, they were constructed with data that was not entirely collected for these purposes and based on expert interpretation of incomplete knowledge about the invasive pest and its susceptible hosts. In addition, information as to where imports are coming from and ending up is not available. The applicability of the products is also limited in the scope of time; they describe risk in the short-term, and these risks may change with even the passage of a few years as environmental and societal conditions change.

## Summary

The *O. erosus* mapping project demonstrates the interdependence of R&D and FHP staff and provides a clear example of how the two groups can work both cooperatively and synergistically to:

1. conduct timely research;
2. attain needed population and biological information;
3. immediately implement research findings to develop tools; and
4. create tools that are useful to forest management personnel for taking appropriate actions in the field.

The project has also illustrated the benefit to government agencies of retaining some agility in directing resources toward developing problems. When the Washington Office FHP staff identified the need for tools to better understand the potential impact of *O. erosus*, the Pacific Southwest and Northern Research Stations were also identifying the need to improve the state of the science for *O. erosus* in North America. Research funding was in limited supply, so FHTET provided seed funds to the research cooperators to attain the needed population and biological information as well as to characterize the behavior of *O. erosus* in North America. In so doing, personnel with the appropriate support mechanisms and skill-sets, were brought together to develop needed tools.

The *O. erosus* Potential Susceptibility Map will be completed in early 2009, and the final products will be posted on the FHTET web site (USDA FS 2008), where the current and future status can be monitored by users. Final products will include three maps (the Potential Introduction, the Potential Establishment, and the Potential Susceptibility); a recommended survey sampling design for the U.S. (survey sample areas); links to the biological attributes of *O. erosus* (via the ExFor site, <http://spfnic.fs.fed.us/exfor>); links to key pieces of scientific literature (e.g., Lee et al. 2005, 2008, In press); a list of forest species (hosts) at risk; the methods used in developing the Susceptibility Potential Map; the metadata; and the membership of the steering committee.

For the first time in the history of forest insect investigations in the western U.S., invasive subcortical pests from other continents have established populations that threaten conifers. The appearance of *O. erosus* and *H. ligniperda* in the urban forests of California will likely impact our future management of urban and peri-urban pines in this state and beyond if the populations expand. The capacity of the new invaders to compete with native populations of bark beetles in pines will be a research question of considerable interest (Amezaga and Rodríguez 1998). This new period of invasion of western U.S. forests by exotic subcortical insects has presented and continues to present an opportunity for USDA Forest Service R&D and FHP to pool their talents and resources to address a problem of pressing national concern.

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