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Application of a wood pathway model to assess the effectiveness of options for reducing risk of entry of oak wilt into Europe†

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The oak wilt fungus, Ceratocystis fagacearum, is native to North America, and is a threat to oaks in Europe. Therefore, the European Union has regulated the importation of oak wood from the US into Europe. We developed a pathway model to calculate the exposure of oak trees in Europe to the fungus under different regulatory scenarios and thus evaluate the effectiveness of the measures. The model describes the import, inspection and treatments of wood, as well as the trade among European countries and processing to sawn wood, final product and residues. The model quantifies the frequency of escape of the fungus from wood with a vector, and the transfer to host trees. Existing regulations reduce exposure by a factor >30 000 compared with a scenario without regulation. Exposure is highest around European ports and during transportation of wood across Europe. Wood treatments and shipment to a restricted set of ports are effective measures, each reducing exposure by more than 90%. Pathway modelling is a promising tool to study entry pathways of alien tree pests and evaluate risk reduction options: it provides a systematic and transparent approach but is limited by availability of biological data.

Introduction

Biological invasions are increasing in frequency and importance across the world, especially of insects [\(Liebhold](#page-16-0) et al., 1995; [Vitousek](#page-16-0) et al., 1996; Mack et al.[, 2000](#page-16-0); [Roques, 2007;](#page-16-0) [Roques](#page-16-0) et al.[, 2009\)](#page-16-0) and plant pathogens ([Desprez-Loustau](#page-15-0) et al., 2010; Pyšek et al.[, 2010](#page-16-0); [Santini](#page-16-0) et al., 2013; Roy et al.[, 2014](#page-16-0)). This increase is due to the worldwide increase in volume and frequency of product movements (Levine and D'[Antonio, 2003](#page-16-0); [Westphal](#page-16-0) et al., 2008; [Hulme, 2009;](#page-15-0) [Eschen](#page-15-0) et al., 2014) and to the higher speed of movement, which supports high survival of pests during transport over long distances [\(Roques, 2010](#page-16-0)).

According to the international treaty on Sanitary and PhytoSanitary measures (hereafter SPS agreement) (adopted by the World Trade Organization in 1997; [FAO, 2011](#page-15-0)), national and supra-national policy makers may reduce the probability of pest entry by imposing regulations, but these should not create unnecessary trade barriers. According to the SPS agreement, regulations should be science-based, to avoid arbitrary decisions of importing countries or, worse, internal market protection in the guise of phytosanitary measures. However, pest risk assessments are usually made using decision trees and other pragmatic qualitative approaches, and a quantitative scientific underpinning is usually lacking. Given the increasing importance of invasive alien plant

pests, and the existing agreements on world trade, it is critical to build a better quantitative understanding of the role of trade and transport in biological invasions ([Hulme, 2009;](#page-15-0) Banks et al.[, 2015](#page-15-0)).

Over the last decade, researchers and pest risk assessors have begun analyzing entry quantitatively, using the so-called pathway models (Fowler et al[., 2006](#page-15-0); [Yemshanov](#page-16-0) et al., 2012; [EFSA, 2014](#page-15-0)). Pathway models describe quantitatively the entry process of a pest into an area of concern, up to the point(s) of contact with the susceptible host or receiving host habitat. They quantitatively describe product flows, e.g. by trade and processing, and take account of pest survival or multiplication at successive points in the pathway and calculate the exposure of hosts or host habitat to the pest. Pathway models add rigour to pest risk analysis by quantifying risks of pest entry and the effect of risk reduction options and by making explicit the assumptions that are made in these quantifications. There is as yet little experience with the application of pathway models in regulatory plant health and the benefits and limitations of this tool need to be further explored.

The oak wilt fungus, Ceratocystis fagacearum (Bretz) Hunt, is native to North America (Eastern US; [Liebhold](#page-16-0) et al., 1995). It causes rapid wilt and death of oaks in its native range [\(Appel,](#page-15-0) [1995](#page-15-0); [Liebhold](#page-16-0) et al., 1995; [Wilson, 2005;](#page-16-0) Juzwik et al.[, 2008;](#page-15-0) Koch et al.[, 2010;](#page-15-0) [Harrington, 2013](#page-15-0)). It can be transmitted to

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oaks by root connections between diseased and healthy trees and by insect vectors (e.g. sap beetles and bark beetles) ([Gibbs](#page-15-0) [and French, 1980;](#page-15-0) [Rexrode and Brown, 1983;](#page-16-0) [Juzwik](#page-15-0) et al., [2011](#page-15-0)). The insect vector gets contaminated when it feeds on mycelium mats of the fungus that grow between the bark and the cambium of affected trees. Healthy trees may become infected with the fungus when contaminated insect vectors feed on sap draining from fresh wounds. The fungus can then spread rapidly through the vascular system of the tree, causing a vascular wilt disease that may kill the tree, similar to the Dutch elm disease (caused by the fungus Ophiostoma ulmi) and the pine wilt disease (caused by the nematode Bursaphelenchus xylophilus).

North American red oaks (Quercus spp. subgenus Erythrobalanus) naturally or experimentally infected by C. fagacearum rapidly decline and die. In contrast, infected North American white oaks (Quercus spp. subgenus Lepidobalanus) generally display some declining branches but do not die of the disease ([EPPO, 2011;](#page-15-0) [Juzwik](#page-15-0) et al., 2011). Although most oaks in Europe are white oaks (Quercus robur, Quercus petraea, Quercus pubescens), experiments in North America have shown that European white oaks infected with C. fagacearum die rapidly (Pinon et al.[, 1997, 2003\)](#page-16-0). There are many European insect species that have the potential to act as vectors of C. fagacearum [\(Yates, 1981;](#page-16-0) [Yates, 1984](#page-16-0); [Anonymous, n.d.\)](#page-15-0) and among them, the oak bark beetle, Scolytus intricatus (Ratzeburg), could be an effective vector ([Haack, 2001](#page-15-0); [Juzwik](#page-15-0) et al., 2011). This bark beetle is present in almost all European countries ([de Jong](#page-15-0) et al., [2014](#page-15-0); <http://www.fauna-eu.org>). Ceratocystis fagacearum poses a major threat to European oaks, as European oaks are susceptible while a suitable vector is present in Europe. Ceratocystis fagacearum has not established in Europe yet. This pest has therefore been recommended for regulation by the European and Mediterranean Plant Protection Organization (EPPO) ([http://](http://www.eppo.int/QUARANTINE/listA1.htm) www.eppo.int/QUARANTINE/listA1.htm).

Since 2000, the European Commission has issued several regulations for oak logs coming from the US (Council Directive 2000/ 29/EC, Commission Decisions 2005/359/EC, 2006/750/EC and 2010/723/EU). These regulations offer three options for importing oak logs from the USA into Europe: (1) imports of logs of red or white oak with or without bark, whereby the logs are fumigated (hereafter referred as option BF; with Bark Fumigated), (2) imports of logs of white oak with or without bark that are not fumigated (option BNF; with Bark Non-Fumigated), red oaks being excluded from this import option and (3) imports of red or white oak logs without bark (option DB; DeBarked). While the regulations have so far been successful in keeping Europe free from C. fagacearum, the comparative effectiveness of these three options has not been scientifically studied, and the contribution of different elements in each import option is unknown.

We developed and parameterized a pathway model to assess the exposure of oak trees in the European territory to C. fagacearum due to importation of oak logs from the US under different risk mitigation scenarios. The model keeps track of the volume of wood infested with the oak wilt fungus along the pathway, accounting for both the wood trade (from the US to Europe and then within Europe) and the wood processing chain within Europe, until the final use of the wood product and the disposal of waste. Post-entry transformations are considered

because derived products may also carry the pathogen. The model is used to calculate exposure (i.e. the amount of propagules of C. fagacearum that are transferred to a host tree), taking into account regulatory measures required under each import option.

The first objective of this study was to determine the effectiveness of the current EU regulation by estimating exposure to C. fagacearum under these three import options and to compare these estimates to exposure with a benchmark scenario without regulatory measures. We identified the parts of the pathway that have the greatest contribution to exposure in each case. The second objective was to determine the effectiveness of each component (i.e. each individual risk reduction measure) of the current import options. Thirdly, we determined vulnerability of European countries, irrespective of the difference between their import volumes, by determining exposure resulting from a standard import volume per country. Finally, we quantified uncertainty in the calculations. Using this case study, we explored the feasibility and benefits of developing a pathway model, as well as the data needs and major hurdles when pursuing this goal.

Methods

Model structure

The model for oak wilt is built on a generic pathway model for wood pests [\(Douma](#page-15-0) et al., 2015) and describes the movement of oak wood from the US to regions in Europe including wood processing to products and waste, as well as the escape of the vector from the wood in different parts of the pathway, and its transfer to hosts. The model follows the infested wood product from its origin to its final destination, including treatments, inspection, processing and transportation.

The model is spatially explicit. It partitions the wood flow from the US over the 93 ports in Europe that are known to import wood from the US (Figure [1](#page-2-0)). It further partitions the trade flow over countries in Europe and within each country to NUTS2 regions for wood processing. The model distinguishes a total of 266 NUTS2 regions (European Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics; [http://ec.europa.eu/](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/nuts/overview) [eurostat/web/nuts/overview](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/nuts/overview)). The average size of a NUTS2 region is 18 159 km² (standard deviation: 22 739 km²). At successive steps in the pathway, the wood flow and the escape and transfer of the pathogen to host trees are calculated. These points at which the flow is measured, and at which it may branch, and at which escape and transfer of the pathogen may happen, are called 'nodes' in pathway modelling (e.g. [Douma](#page-15-0) et al., 2015). The pathway ends when all wood has been processed into final product (FP) and waste, and transfer to hosts for all nodes in the pathway has been calculated. The pathway considers the volumes of the flows and accounts for probabilities (which are treated as proportions in the calculations) to calculate the partitioning and branching of the flows (Figure [1](#page-2-0)).

At different nodes in the pathway, and for each NUTS2 region, the model calculates the yearly exposure, E. This exposure is defined as the number of propagules that transfer to a host tree within a NUTS2 region in a year, in relation to a transfer from a given node (e.g. wood import in ports or wood storage at factories). This exposure is calculated as the product of the infested wood volume at a location, the density of propagules of the pest in the infested wood at this location, the probability that the pest escapes from the wood, the probability that it disperses in the environment, and the probability that it then encounters a host:

$$
E_{P,j,r} = V_{P,j,r} \; n_P \; w_{e,P} \; w_{d,j,r} \; h_{j,r} \tag{1}
$$

Figure 1 Spatial distribution of oak trees in Europe (background scale indicates the proportion of land covered by Quercus spp.), location of ports (small points) and location of the 35 ports where entry of wood with bark is allowed under the import options 'bark fumigated' (BF) and 'bark nonfumigated' (BNF) (big points with small dot inside). The dotted line indicates the latitude of 45°N which is the southern limit of the area allowed for wood transport under import option BNF. The map was generated with ArcMapTM Version 9.2.

where $E_{P,i,r}$ is the number of propagules that transfer to a suitable host from product P ('round wood' (RW), 'sawn wood' (SW), 'final product' (FP) or 'residues' (RES)) in country *j* in region *r*, *V_{P,j,r}* is the infested volume of product P that arrives at a given node of the pathway in country i in region r, *n*_p is the number of propagules per m³ of infested product P, *w_{e P}* is the probability that a propagule escapes from the infested product P, $w_{d,i,r}$ is the probability that an individual gets dispersed in country *i* in region r (given the flight period, which depends on climate), and *h_{ir}* is the proportion of land covered by host plants in country *j* in region *r*. The fungus may transfer to oak trees in Europe at seven nodes: during storage at ports, during storage at factories that transform RW to SW, during storage at factories that transform SW to FP, during transportation of RW and SW, and it can also transfer from FPs and wood residues (RES) (Table [1\)](#page-3-0).

To calculate the volume of infested product at each node (Table [1\)](#page-3-0), we first calculated the initial volume of oak RW that is exported each year from the US to Europe, V, from the reported tonnage and wood density. The infested volume was calculated by multiplying V with the infestation level of RW coming from the country of origin (the US) (w_{CO}), the probability that the pest survives treatments applied in the US (s_{TCO}),

and the probability that the pest that is in the bark (as opposed to in the wood) (w_b) to account for the effects of removing the bark in option DB. The imported product was allocated to European countries and distributed over ports in each European country according to wood import statistics of the ports where unloading is allowed (35 ports under import options BF and BNF, and 93 ports otherwise; Table [3](#page-7-0)). While exporters and importers aim to meet the European regulations of pest freedom, the wood may nevertheless contain the pathogen. RW is therefore subjected to phytosanitary inspection in the ports and infested RW is not admitted if infestation is detected. The probability of detection is defined as p_d . Only the part of the infested volume that is not intercepted during inspection enters into Europe. If the fungus is present but not detected, it may disseminate around ports of entry or further down along the pathway.

A proportion of the oak logs that are imported to a country in Europe are transported to other European countries (intra-European trade) and the pest may transfer during transportation. Another proportion of RW is transformed to SW at wood factories within the country of importation. At factories, the pest may transfer from RW during storage in the open

air at these factories. The RW is distributed over regions in a country in proportion to the number of factories in each region. The produced sawn wood has three different destinations. A first proportion of the sawn wood is transported to other countries in Europe (intra-European trade). During transport the pest can transfer to a host. A second proportion is for direct final use and is considered as a FP. A third proportion of sawn wood is transported to factories where it undergoes a second transformation into FPs. The pest can transfer from sawn wood around these factories, provided that it survives the preceding transformation and treatment, with probabilities s_{F1} and s_T , respectively. The pest can also transfer from wood residues produced in these factories during the first and second transformation, provided it survives processing, with probability *s*_{RES}. The pest can finally transfer to a host from the FPs. This requires survival of the second transformation and treatment, with probabilities *sF2* and *sT* . These FPs are distributed among NUTS2 regions within the country according to human population density in these regions.

Three sequential processes are considered in the calculation of the transfer to the host. These are escape of the fungal propagules from the infested wood, the dispersal of the infested vector from the wood into the environment, and finally the encounter with hosts. Escape requires a vector, either an exotic vector coming with the wood from the US or a European vector (potential European vectors being widespread; see SM[1](#page-1-0)). The escape probability $w_{e,P}$ (Eq. 1) is expressed per m^3 of infested wood. The calculation of dispersal takes into account that vector activity is required for dispersal. The dispersal probability is therefore calculated as the proportion of the year (w_{d,j,r} in Eq. [1](#page-1-0)) during which vectors are active. The probability of encountering a host (h_{j,r} in Eq. [1\)](#page-1-0) is determined by the proportion of the area of a NUTS2 region that is covered by host trees. When calculating exposure during storage at ports, the spatial coordinates of the port are taken into account, and the probability of host encounter ($h_{z,k,j}$ for port k in country j) is calculated as the proportion of land covered by host trees within a radius from the port corresponding to the flight capability of the vector, z (see SM2).

The pathway model takes spatial information into account at three levels: (1) national, (2) NUTS2 (i.e. regional within countries) and (3) finer resolution data. Country level datasets were used to calculate the pest transfer during transportation across Europe (since data about intra-European trade was available only at country level from Eurostat, [http://](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat) [ec.europa.eu/eurostat\)](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat). We used datasets at NUTS2 level resolution to distribute wood over regions according to the number of factories in each of the regions (the number of factories was available only at this spatial scale over Europe). NUTS2 level databases on human population were used to distribute the FPs over regions according to the number of inhabitants. Finally, precise georeferenced datasets of forest and tree cover were used to calculate pest transfer around ports.

Parameter estimation

The model has 21 parameters characterizing the wood, the wood processing and the wood trade, and 24 pest-specific parameters (Tables [1](#page-3-0)–[2](#page-5-0); see details in SM1 and SM2). Parameters of the first category are, for instance, wood density (to convert imported tonnage into a volume), wood flow among European countries, proportion of wood imported with bark, proportion of RW going to first transformation, proportion of sawn wood going to second transformation and host cover (Table [1](#page-3-0), SM2). Other parameters characterizing the wood and processing flow are the number of processing facilities in each NUTS2 region, human population density in each NUTS2 region, average transportation distances among EU countries and duration of transportation. The imported quantities and the intra-European trade flows were retrieved from Eurostat, a harmonized trade-database of members of the European Union [\(http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat](http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat)). The spatial distribution of oaks in Europe was obtained from the Joint Research Centre [\(Köble and](#page-15-0) [Seufert, 2001;](#page-15-0) Figure [1\)](#page-2-0).

Table 1 Continued

Continued

Table 2 List of pest specific parameters, their estimates and their uncertainty levels. Values in italics represent the minimum most likely, the most likely and the maximum most likely values. Some parameters (*) were log10-transformed for the beta-PERT distribution. Other parameters (**) were randomly sampled from a set of predefined values

Continued

Table 2 Continued

The pest-specific parameters were parameterized for the fungus C. fagacearum and for its North American or European vector, based on published data and expert knowledge. The uncertainty in parameter estimates was rated as low, medium or high based on available data to support the estimate (the guideline to rate uncertainty is shown in SM3, from [EFSA PLH, 2013\)](#page-15-0). Some parameters were parameterized without further supporting evidence, leading to high uncertainty in the absolute value of the parameter. In some cases, comparative differences in

parameter values between import options could be estimated with greater confidence than the absolute values of the parameters.

Estimation of pest-specific parameters

Parameter *w*_{co}: The proportion of oak wood infested with *C. facagearum* was estimated by multiplying the proportion of the geographic range of American oaks in which the fungus is present with the proportion of

trees within the geographic range of oak wilt that is infested with the fungus (SM1). Since logs imported into Europe under the option BNF are necessarily white oaks and these species are generally less susceptible to oak wilt, the proportion of infected oaks was estimated to be lower in option BNF than in options BF and DB (Tables [2, 3\)](#page-5-0).

Parameter *s*_{TCO}: The chance of the fungus surviving treatments of the wood in the US depends foremost on whether or not the wood is fumigated and was therefore specific to each import option (Table [2](#page-5-0); SM1).

Parameter w_b : Mats of the fungus are found underneath the bark but not in the bark itself (SM1). Therefore, the probability that C. fagacearum is in the bark (compared with other parts of wood) was set to a low value.

Parameter p_d : The probability of detecting an infested log at entry in Europe was estimated by taking into account the proportion of incoming consignments which are inspected, the probability that an infested log is sampled within this consignment, and the probability of detecting the pest from an infested sample (SM1 and SM4).

Parameter *w_e*: The probability of escape of propagules from wood depends on the node along the chain. Seven parameter values related to this probability were defined. The pest can escape from RW around ports (w_{e, p, RW}), from RW or sawn wood (SW) during transportation ($W_{e,t,RW}$ and $W_{e,t,SW}$), from RW or sawn wood around factories ($W_{e,F1}$ and *w*_{e,F2}), from residues around factories (*w*_{e,RES}) and from FPs (*w*_{e,FP}) (details in SM1). These probabilities are expressed as the probability that propagules escape from 1 m^3 of infested wood product, except during transportation, where it is given per m3 and per day transport in a country. Since wood containing bark (options BF and BNF) is sent to certified factories contrary to wood without bark (option DB) (Table 3), the escape probability from this wood (w_{e,f,RW}) was considered lower in options BF and BNF than in option DB. The probability of escape during transportation across Europe ($W_{e,t,RW}$) was considered higher in option BF since (1) in option BNF, some restrictions apply when transporting wood (season and area; Table 3) and (2) in option DB, wood without bark cannot carry

Table 3 Description of the three import options. Regulation is different for logs with bark that have been fumigated (option BF), logs with bark that have not been fumigated (option BNF) and logs without bark (option DB) (see Commission Decisions 2005/359/CE, 2006/750/CE). Several model parameters differ among these three options. These parameters are given in the last column called 'Associated parameters' (see Tables [2](#page-5-0)–3 for their definition). When assessing the effect of individual regulation measure (on wood, bark, treatment, inspection, ports of entry, storage, seasons of export, areas of export and processing), we used the value given in brackets in the last column

^aThis import option is not applicable to Greece, Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Malta and Portugal as fumigation (option BF) is required for these countries. $^{\rm b}$ The logs shall not be introduced into or through areas south of 45° latitude. Wood can be unloaded in the port of Marseilles, even if below 45°N, provided that the wood is immediately moved to areas above 45°N.

List of the 35 ports where unloading oak logs with bark is allowed (Commission Decision 2006/750/CE): (1) Amsterdam, (2) Antwerp, (3) Århus, (4) Bilbao, (5) Bremen, (6) Bremerhaven, (7) Copenhagen, (8) Hamburg, (9) Klaipeda, (10) Koper, (11) Larnaca, (12) Leghorn, (13) Le Havre, (14) Lemesos, (15) Lisbon, (16) Marseilles, (17) Marsaxlokk, (18) Muuga, (19) Naples, (20) Nordenham, (21) Oporto, (22) Piraeus, (23) Ravenna, (24) Riga, (25) Rostock, (26) Rotterdam, (27) Salerno, (28) Sines, (29) Stralsund, (30) Valencia, (31) Valletta, (32) Venice, (33) Vigo, (34) Wismar, (35) Zeebrugge'. In option BNF, only ports in this list located above 45°N and Marseilles can effectively receive oak logs. ^d

^dList of countries considered in our simulations as above 45°N: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Switzerland, Czech Republic, Germany, Danemark, Estonia, Finland, France, Croatia, Hungary, Ireland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Montenegro, Macedonia, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Sweden, Slovenia, Slovakia, UK.

a native vector and there is little chance that a European vector would feed on the wood and assist the fungus in escaping.

Parameter w_d : Three parameters related to dispersal from wood were derived: probability of dispersal around the ports, $w_{d,p}$, probability of dispersal in each region r, $w_{d,r}$, and probability of dispersal in each European country *j*, $w_{d,i}$ (see more details in SM1). Except in option BNF, under which transportation is allowed only during the period of nonactivity of the vector, this probability was given by the proportion of the year during which the vector is active. This probability was assumed to be uniform across Europe.

Parameters z and z_{RFS} : The mean dispersal distance of the vector was used to calculate the probability that propagules of C. fagacearum encounter a host around ports. The rate of disease spread observed in the US (3.5 m/yr; Haight et al.[, 2011](#page-15-0)) and the maximal flight capability of S. intricatus (100 m at most; [Anonymous, n.d.](#page-15-0)) were below the spatial resolution of the host tree distribution dataset (1 km). Consequently, we considered that the vector could disperse at 1 km, allowing it to reach oaks when they were located in an adjacent grid cell. Since the fungus cannot be transmitted directly (without a vector) from wood residues to trees, we assumed that the dispersal distance related to wood residues (z_{RFS}) was the same as the dispersal distance related to other wood products (RW, SW and FP) (z).

Parameters s_{F1} , s_{F2} , s_{RES} : These parameters represent the probability that the fungus survives the first and second transformations and survives the generation of wood residues. These probabilities were set at high values since wood processing has negligible effects on fungus survival. Wood processing can however affect the vector if carried by imported wood but this impacts the probability of escape (*we*).

Parameter s_T : The probability that the fungus survives treatments applied in wood processing factories (s_T) was assumed to be low because the wood is dried, killing the fungus.

Parameters n_{RW} , n_{SW} , n_{FP} , n_{RES} express the number of propagules per $m³$ of wood (RW, SW, FP and RES). We define a propagule as the mean number of spores carried by an insect vector visiting a host tree. Thus, one propagule is the average spore load of a single vector. Then, exposure is the number of propagules that can transfer to host trees in Europe.

Three import options under regulation and a scenario without regulation

We tested the three possible import options that are offered for import of oak wood from the US by the European Union (Table [3](#page-7-0)): option BF 'bark fumigated', option BNF 'bark non-fumigated', and option DB 'DeBarked' (Commission Decision 2006/750/EC; Table [3,](#page-7-0) Figure [1](#page-2-0)).

The option BF 'barked, fumigated' may be used for wood of white and red oaks. Fumigation of the wood is required, and a fumigation colour reaction test must be carried out on wood samples. Wood may be imported under this option to only 35 ports (Figure [1](#page-2-0); Table [3\)](#page-7-0), and processing is allowed only in certified locations in Europe. Residues must be destroyed.

The option BNF 'barked, non-fumigated' may only be used for white oak wood. No treatments are required in this option. However, at least 10% of the wood must be checked to confirm that the wood belongs to the white oak group by using another specific colour test. Furthermore, wood may only be imported under this option to 35 ports, and further transport from these ports is allowed only during the cold season (15 October-30 April) and to locations above the 45th degree Northern latitude. Storage at the port must be under continuous wet conditions at certified locations as soon as the local oaks start to flush. Processing is allowed only in certified locations and residues must be destroyed.

The option DB 'debarked' requires debarking and both white and red oak wood may be imported under this option. Wood should be treated by: (1) squaring, or (2) kiln drying (<20% moisture) or (3) disinfection with hot air or hot water. No further restrictions apply.

In addition, a reference scenario was tested simulating no regulation.

To simulate option DB, values of pest-specific parameters were adjusted to reflect the import conditions. To simulate option BF, in addition to changes in the parameter values, the ports of entry were restricted to the list of 35 allowed ports (Figure [1](#page-2-0); Table [3](#page-7-0)). In option BNF, in addition to this restriction and the changes in the parameter values (including a lower probability of escape and dispersal because transportation is restricted to the period of non-activity the vectors), we restricted the countries to which transportation is allowed (only above latitude 45°N) (Table [3;](#page-7-0) Figure [1\)](#page-2-0). In the scenario without regulation, we considered absence of restrictions on the ports of entry, storage conditions, the season of transportation, the countries where transportation is allowed and the factories where processing is allowed. For all other parameters we took the worst case of the three options.

Simulations

Estimating the exposure for three import options and the noregulation scenario

To compare import options and identify the nodes where exposure is highest, we simulated the exposure resulting from the tonnage of oak RW imported from the US to 28 countries in Europe between 2001 and 2009 (the latest year available when data were retrieved). We considered the 28 Member States of the European Union only (listed in SM3) as they are required to comply with the EU regulation. We assumed that a country did not import oak logs if no import data were reported in Eurostat. In this study, except when explicitly stated otherwise, the exposure was calculated for each country, each node along the pathway and each year. Then it was averaged over 2001–2009 for each country and each node, after which exposure was summed over the nodes for each country to calculate exposure per country and over all countries to calculate total exposure at the EU level. Simulations were done with trade data for individual years as available in Eurostat, to determine the variability in total exposure (sum of exposure over the nodes and countries). The proportion of wood that is imported under each import option is not known. For this reason, we calculated exposure for each option assuming that the entire tonnage of oak RW imported into Europe, as reported by Eurostat, was imported according to this option.

Estimating the effectiveness of individual risk reduction measures

Each import option prescribed by the European Union consists of a number of measures (Table [3](#page-7-0)). To get insight into which measures contribute most to a reduction in exposure, individual risk reduction measures were tested. We tested the following nine risk reduction measures: (1) effects of restricting imports to white oaks ('wood' option), (2) restricting imports to debarked wood ('bark' option), (3) restricting imports to fumigated wood only ('treatment' option), (4) increasing the detection efficiency ('inspection' option), (5) restricting imports to a limited set of ports ('ports' option), (6) adopting continuous wet conditions when appropriate during storage ('storage' option), (7) restricting transportation to the season when the vector is inactive ('season' option), (8) restricting transport to areas above 45°N ('areas' option) and (9) restricting processing of wood to certified locations only, including destruction of wood residues ('processing' option). The effects of these individual risk reduction measures were simulated, using the parameterization of the no-regulation scenario (Table [2](#page-5-0)) for the other parameters. The values associated with each risk reduction measure are reported in Table [3](#page-7-0). The reduction in exposure was compared with the 'no regulation' scenario. Trade data from 2001 to 2009 were used to do these simulations.

To compare vulnerability among countries for entry of oak wilt from imported oak wood, we calculated for each country exposure resulting from an imported quantity of 1000 tons of oak logs for each import option and the 'no regulation' scenario. The differences in exposure among countries are the result of differences in host cover, the distribution of wood processing factories among regions and the intra-EU trade patterns.

Uncertainty analysis

Uncertainty in exposure due to parameter uncertainty was assessed by running 500 simulations for random parameter sets drawn from beta-Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) distributions for each parameter ([Morgan and Henrion, 1990;](#page-16-0) [Vose, 2008](#page-16-0)). A minimum, most likely and maximum value for each parameter were used as input to the beta-PERT distribution. In the PERT distribution, the scale parameter was set to four by default, to have a normal like distribution ([Vose,](#page-16-0) [2008;](#page-16-0) see SM5, parameter values given Table [2\)](#page-5-0). After the calculation of total exposure in Europe between 2001 and 2009 for the 500 replicate simulations, we determined the 95% enclosure interval, defined as the interval that contains 95% of the exposure values. Parameters for which uncertainty ranges over at least two orders of magnitude for at least one import option (e.g. min = 0.1 , mode = 1 and max = 10) were drawn from a PERT distribution on a logarithmic scale of the parameter (i.e. min = -1 , mode = 0 and max = 1) and then back-transformed to the original scale. For the probability to encounter a host around ports $(h_{7,k,i})$, we drew from three predefined dispersal distances (1, 2 or 5 km; Table [2](#page-5-0)) for which the host cover was calculated beforehand.

Programming code

The model was implemented in the programming language R [\(R Development Core Team, 2014](#page-16-0)) and the R code is given in [Supplementary Material \(SM5\)](http://FORESJ.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/forestry/cpw029/-/DC1). Datasets used to make the simulations are available at: <http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/supporting/pub/809e>.

Results

Comparing import options and the scenario without regulation and their uncertainties

Exposure was more than 30 000 times higher in the noregulation scenario (3.63 \times 10⁻¹ propagules per year) than under current regulation (1.09 \times 10⁻⁵ for option DB, 9.66 \times 10⁻⁶ for option BF and 1.37×10^{-7} for option BNF) (Figure 2a). Note that the predictions are in units of vector loads and one vector load may represent a large number of spores of the pathogen. Exposure varied only slightly over the years (Figure 2b). Importing non fumigated wood with bark (option BNF) gave the lowest exposure (Table [3](#page-7-0)). This is mainly because only white oaks may be imported under this option and they are far less susceptible to oak wilt than red oaks.

When considering uncertainty in the parameters, the comparisons of import options and no-regulation scenario gave broadly similar results. Despite large fluctuations between individual realizations, the no-regulation scenario provided the highest exposure (95% enclosure interval is 0.02–5.09), option BNF the lowest exposure (95% enclosure interval is 1.94 \times 10^{−9}−3.05 × 10−⁵), and options BF and DB intermediate exposure (95% enclosure interval is 1.64 \times 10⁻⁷-1.87 \times 10⁻⁴ for BF and 9.86 \times 10⁻⁷-4.09 × 10⁻⁴ for DB) (Figure 2a).

At which locations can a high exposure be expected?

When importing wood under option BF, exposure mainly arose from escape during transportation of infested RW (Figure 3g). Exposure was the highest in the UK, Germany, the Netherlands and France.

Option BNF resulted in a 70-fold lower exposure than option BF. Exposure due to transport of RW was strongly reduced under option BNF because of the geographical and seasonal

Figure 2 Exposure when considering three import options (BF: import of fumigated wood of red and white oaks, BNF: import of non-fumigated wood of white oaks, and DB: import of debarked wood of red and white oaks) and a scenario without regulation. For a more detailed description of the scenarios, see the text. Panel (a) describes the average exposure (propagules transferred to hosts per year) between 2001 and 2009, while panel (b) shows the variability of exposure over the years. The bar chart in panel (a) represents exposure for the most likely parameters' value and error bars represent the enclosure interval that contains 95% of exposure values when considering parameters' uncertainty. Y-axes are represented on a logarithmic scale.

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Figure 3 Exposure (E) at different points in the pathway and for each European country under import option BF (wood fumigated). Panel (a) shows the average exposure between 2001 and 2009 while panel (b) shows exposure resulting from importing 1000 tons of oak logs into every European country. Abbreviations for points of escape of the vector resulting in exposure: $RW =$ round wood; $SW =$ sawn wood; $RES =$ wood residues and FP = final products. Full country names are given in SM3.

Figure 4 Exposure (E) at different points in the pathway and for each European country under import option BNF (wood of white oaks not fumigated). Panel (a) shows the average exposure between 2001 and 2009 while panel (b) shows exposure resulting from importing 1000 tons of oak logs into every European country. Abbreviations for points of escape of the vector resulting in exposure: RW = round wood; SW = sawn wood; $RES = wood$ residues and $FP = final$ products. Full country names are given in SM3.

restrictions on the transportation of RW from ports under this option (Figure [4a](#page-10-0)). The transportation of infested sawn wood made the most important contribution to the total exposure under this import option. France, Germany and UK had the highest exposure.

Option DB (Figure 5a) resulted in similar exposure as option BF. Under option DB, exposure resulted roughly equally from RW around factories, from RW around ports and from wood residues. Although there is only a small chance that the pest could escape from wood without bark, exposure was higher than in option BNF because conditions for importing wood are less restrictive (e.g. no restrictions for ports to which imports are allowed). Exposure was highest in Portugal, Spain and France (countries importing large quantities of oak logs directly from the US).

Without regulation (Figure [6](#page-12-0)a), the highest exposure was in Spain, Portugal and France, resulting mainly from transfer from infested RW near ports.

Effects of individual risk reduction measures on exposure

There was substantial variation in the effectiveness of individual risk reduction measures. Treatment (fumigation) applied in the country of origin ('treatment' measure) gave the highest reduction in exposure (Figure [7](#page-12-0)). Debarking ('bark' measure) before import was the second most effective measure. This measure affects not only the volume of infested wood imported in Europe but also, and more importantly, the probability of escape from wood by insect vectors. The third most effective single measure was restricting the ports to which import of oak logs is

allowed ('ports' measure). Each of these three measures reduced exposure by more than 90%. The fourth most effective measure was restricting the storage conditions in the ports ('storage' measure). Restricting the imported wood to white oaks only ('wood' measure) had a moderate effect, reducing exposure by ~50%, and inspection reduced exposure by less than 30%. The other risk reduction measures had negligible effect.

Testing the vulnerability of the receptor countries across import options and the no-regulation scenario

The points along the pathway that were most important when considering the real historical import volumes were similar to the most important points identified when importing a standardized volume of imported wood across scenarios. However, the ranking of the countries differed for some scenarios (Figures [3](#page-10-0)–[6\)](#page-12-0).

In option BF, exposure mainly arose from transportation of infested RW among EU countries (Figure [3b](#page-10-0)). Since exposure at this node is not closely related to the volume of wood directly imported from the US but to the intra-EU trade, the ranking of EU countries did not differ considerably from the ranking for the historical import data, the top six countries differing by only one rank at most (UK, Germany, France, Netherlands, Poland and Belgium).

In option BNF, exposure arose mainly from transportation of infested sawn wood (Figure [4b](#page-10-0)). While the top two countries (France and Germany) remained the same as in the calculations with historical import data, the ranking of other EU countries slightly changed.

Figure 5 Exposure (E) at different points in the pathway and for each European country under import option DB (wood without bark). Panel (a) shows the average exposure between 2001 and 2009 while panel (b) shows exposure resulting from importing 1000 tons of oak logs into every European country. Abbreviations for points of escape of the vector resulting in exposure: RW = round wood; SW = sawn wood; RES = wood residues and FP = final products. Full country names are given in SM3.

Figure 7 Relative exposure calculated for each individual risk reduction measure when implemented in the scenario without regulation: effects of restricting imports to only white oaks ('wood'), allowing imports of only debarked wood ('bark'), allowing imports of only fumigated wood ('treatment'), increasing the detection efficiency ('inspection'), restricting imports to only a set of ports ('ports'), adopting particular storage conditions at the port ('storage'), restricting transportation to the cold season ('season'), restricting areas where wood can be transported to above 45° latitude ('areas') and restricting wood processing to certified locations with destruction of wood residues ('processing'). Parameter values used for these simulations are given in Table [3](#page-7-0). Default parameter values are taken from the no-regulation scenario (Table [2\)](#page-5-0).

In option DB, exposure mainly arose from RW around ports, from RW around factories and from wood residues (Figure [5b](#page-11-0)). As RW stored around ports were an important source of propagules in this option, the ranking of EU countries substantially differed from the ranking for the historical import data, though the top three countries (Portugal, Spain and France) remained the same.

In the scenario without regulation, the ranking between the standardized import and the historical import was very different. This result can be attributed to the exposure arising from the transfer of propagules from RW stored around ports (Figure [6](#page-12-0)b), which is in turn directly related to tonnages imported by each country.

Discussion

The oak wilt disease is one of the biggest threats for oak trees in Europe. Because of the possibility of entry with oak wood from the US, the EU has regulated this trade. This study is to our knowledge the first quantitative analysis of this pathway including an assessment of the efficiency of current import requirements. The current import regulation distinguishes three options for import of oak logs from the US, and each of these consists of a suite of measures, each varying in effectiveness. All three import options were found to be effective. This study illustrates how pathway modelling can be used to support pest risk analysis, even under high uncertainty.

Effectiveness of current European regulation on oak logs coming from the US

Each of the three import options described in the EU regulations (Table [3](#page-7-0)) reduced exposure by a factor of 30 000 (Figure [2](#page-9-0)). The import option with non-fumigated logs of white oaks with bark (BNF) resulted in the lowest exposure because white oaks have a much lower chance to contain the pest and because of restrictive and effective measures (Table [3](#page-7-0); Figure [7\)](#page-12-0). This result illustrates that a combination of several moderately effective measures: importing white oaks only, in a restricted set of ports and stored under continuous wet conditions when appropriate – imposed in the import option BNF - could perform better than applying a single highly effective measure, such as treatment in the country of origin (Figure [7\)](#page-12-0).

Transportation of infested wood across Europe made a large contribution to exposure (Figures [3](#page-10-0)–[4](#page-10-0)) but restrictions on transportation such as the season and areas where transportation is allowed had low efficacy (Figure [7](#page-12-0)). Consequently, exposure could be further reduced if more effective measures were developed to reduce exposure during transportation.

Where could the oak wilt fungus enter in Europe?

The highest exposure was predicted around ports of entry (scenario without regulation, Figure [5\)](#page-11-0). Countries importing a high tonnage of oak logs (see SM3) and with high host cover near ports, such as Spain, Portugal and France (Figure [1\)](#page-2-0), may expect relatively high exposure around the ports of entry. In contrast, even though Germany and Ireland import a high volume of oak logs (SM3), exposure is low because host trees are comparatively less abundant in the surroundings of their ports (Figure [1\)](#page-2-0).

Another important pathway of introduction of oak wilt disease is wood transportation from one European country to another (options BF and BNF). The UK and the Netherlands are examples: these countries had high exposure (options BF and BNF) while they did not directly import a high amount of wood from the US (SM3).

Model validation

Policymakers need predictive tools for potential invasive species before these species actually invade new territories [\(Hulme,](#page-15-0) [2015](#page-15-0)). The validation of predictive pathway models is fundamentally problematic, first of all because such models describe events that have not yet occurred, and secondly, because they describe rare events, for which realizations do not happen enough to allow quantitative evaluation of predictions vs data, even if a model is used for 'back-casting'. Validation of pathway models for pest entry is thus difficult if not impossible. A weak form of validation can be achieved by assessing model consistency, applicability and accuracy. Following [Dee \(1995\),](#page-15-0) we can distinguish four aspects of model testing: (1) correctness of the conceptual model formulation, (2) correctness of the mathematical model formulation, (3) correctness of the software code and (4) model accuracy ([FAO, 2003\)](#page-15-0). As mentioned, the evaluation of model accuracy against independent observations is difficult. However, regarding aspect (1), an earlier version of the pathway model was presented to seven European forestry experts in Brussels in September 2014. Most comments were related to assumptions made because of data limitations. For instance, it would be helpful to have data about inspection efficiency, more precise locations of wood factories throughout Europe, transportation distances, amount of RW used directly for final use, and distribution of host trees in urban areas, but also to include wood packaging materials as a pathway, and to consider time-explicit data on the wood trade and wood processing chain. Regarding aspects (2) and (3), mathematics and R code were cross-checked among co-authors and simulations were done in duplicate and then shared and compared via a shared folder in a Dropbox.

Pathway models: towards a quantitative assessment of the policy effectiveness?

Essl et al. [\(2015\)](#page-15-0) listed key priorities to improve research and management of biological invasion pathways. The most important challenge is to gather complete information associated with the pathways, taking into account interactions with environmental, socio-economic and management factors. This study takes a step forward by considering real-world data on the wood trade and the wood processing chain, their complex network, their relationships and different risk reduction options.

Moreover, there is a growing need for quantitative assessments as they generally allow greater transparency and objectivity in the justification of plant health policy (Leung et al.[, 2012;](#page-15-0) [Soliman](#page-16-0) et al., 2015). This case study is interesting because most of the measures defined in these import options were previously recommended by the EPPO according to the invasion risk of the pest (see EPPO data sheet related to C. fagacearum; [http://www.eppo.int/QUARANTINE/listA1.htm\)](http://www.eppo.int/QUARANTINE/listA1.htm), and have been implemented by the EU without – to our knowledge – the use of pathway modelling. This raises the question of what the benefits of a pathway model approach are for plant health compared with more qualitative approaches.

Building a pathway model forces the risk assessor to structure and formalize the wood pathway. Such a model may identify data and knowledge gaps and may quantify the uncertainty that arises from this lack of knowledge. The pathway model applied to

oak wilt clarified that important parts of the pathway were not documented. For instance, detection efficiency in the ports and pest density in infested wood, but also biological uncertainties resulting from new species associations, are important knowledge gaps (see next paragraph). This study contributed to the identification of data gaps and showed the importance of collecting additional data. Furthermore, this lack of knowledge became apparent in the variation in exposure when including parameter uncertainty. Exposure varied up to two to four orders of magnitude when including parameter uncertainty (Table [2\)](#page-5-0). While the predictions of the model are uncertain in an absolute sense, the analysis of effectiveness of risk reduction options is still useful, especially when comparing among different options and scenarios. This assessment was confirmed in interactions with stakeholders in the wood industry. It confirms the notion that risk assessments need not be completely parameterized to be informative (Leung et al.[, 2012\)](#page-15-0).

Data gaps

This study identified a number of parameters that were estimated with high uncertainty. Data is needed about the probability of escape and the number of propagules per unit of infested wood. There is also high uncertainty about the probability of detection, related to a lack of harmonized protocols at the EU level and shortage of documentation (SM4). Further progress can be made if monitoring is set up to collect such data.

In addition to uncertainties about parameter estimates, there are also biological uncertainties with respect to the potential vector. Experiments should be done to confirm that the insect S. intricatus can carry the fungus and transmit the fungus to oaks. It is suspected that this species could spread the oak wilt disease in Europe and, if introduced in the US, contribute to spread of the disease in the native range. The species is thought to be a more efficient vector than American species, although confirmation is lacking [\(Haack, 2001](#page-15-0); [Juzwik](#page-15-0) et al., 2011). Since this insect was intercepted several times between 1985 and 2000 at ports of entry in the US ([Haack, 2001](#page-15-0)), it is important not only for Europe but also for the US to study the relationship between this European insect and the oak wilt fungus to better anticipate the risk related to this potential new association.

Even if border controls constitute the first line of defense to prevent biological invasions, they have been proven to be highly inefficient in Europe (Bacon et al.[, 2012](#page-15-0); [Eschen](#page-15-0) et al., 2015) and in the US [\(Liebhold](#page-16-0) et al., 2012). Given a lack of harmonization and transparency among the pest detection procedures at the European border (beyond the general inspection rules defined in the European regulation), it was difficult to estimate the effectiveness of pest detection in ports. Despite this uncertainty at the border, this study illustrates that it is possible to act successfully on other levers before and after these border controls to reduce exposure (e.g. requesting pre-export treatments, restricting European ports where imports are allowed, storing the product in proper conditions).

Generic models in pest risk assessments

The pathway model presented here was conceptualized in a way to be generic and thus applicable to other wood pests (insects or pathogens). Its structure accounts for typical steps in

the trade and processing chain of wood ([Douma](#page-15-0) et al., 2015). Applying this model to pest species on quarantine lists (e.g. [EPPO, 2014\)](#page-15-0) or pest species identified as able to colonize European trees (e.g. [Roques](#page-16-0) et al., 2015) would be useful to estimate the risk of entry given import tonnage and current regulation measures. New, pest-specific parameters should be estimated to apply the model to these species, together with wood-specific parameters when considering other wood products than oak logs. Other aspects of structure and parameterization of the model may not need to be adapted.

More generally, a wood product could contain not only the targeted pest species but also other possible harmful species. There is now growing need to consider commodity-specific policy instead of individual pest-specific policies [\(Hulme](#page-15-0) et al., [2008](#page-15-0); Essl et al.[, 2015\)](#page-15-0). The wood pathway model presented here can be used to estimate exposure of host trees to any wood pests arriving with imported wood products, as it considers general patterns of the wood trade and wood processing chain. In this sense, this model could be useful to support commodity-specific policies.

The current model only accounts for imports of infested RW from a country of origin to Europe. To assess more generally the risk of introduction of forest pests, it is necessary to consider other possible commodities, especially imports of sawn wood and wood packaging material. Then, to complement this approach in the context of pest risk assessments, it is necessary to consider not only the probability of entry but also the potential establishment and spread, taking into account climate suitability and habitat distribution, and ultimately the economic impact of the pest species (e.g. [Soliman](#page-16-0) et al., 2015; [Venette, 2015](#page-16-0)). Some generic models to describe potential establishment (e.g. CLIMEX, [Sutherst](#page-16-0) et al., 2007; NAPPFAST, [Magarey](#page-16-0) et al., 2007), potential spread (e.g. generic spread module, [Robinet](#page-16-0) et al., 2012) and economic impact (e.g. [Waage](#page-16-0) et al., 2005; [Soliman](#page-16-0) et al., 2015) are already available and could effectively be combined in the future.

Conclusions

This generic pathway model is useful to assess the probability of entry of forest pests with imported wood in Europe in the context of plant protection and prevention of pest introduction. Data uncertainty limits the application of pathway models in plant health practice. However, when used to compare different scenarios of regulation, it is possible to explore and rank the effectiveness of risk reduction options.

Supplementary data

[Supplementary data are available at](http://FORESJ.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/forestry/cpw029/-/DC1) Forestry online.

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