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2 **Learning from our mistakes: minimizing problems with invasive biofuel plants**

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6 Addresses

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12

13 **Abstract**

14

15 The use of alien plants to produce biofuel feedstocks is being considered in many parts
16 of the world. Among the environmental concerns associated with biofuel production is
17 the risk of feedstock species becoming invasive. Traits that make plants favourable for
18 biofuels also favour invasiveness. We whether derived from commercial forestry and
19 agroforestry could inform strategies to reduce future problems with invasive biofuel
20 plants.

21 The dynamics, dimensions, extent and trajectories of invasions of forestry species
22 can be largely explained using models incorporating traits of the species, features of the
23 environment, and stochastic factors associated with the extent and configuration of
24 plantings and the time since introduction. Economic driving forces are crucial. These
25 insights are slowly being incorporated into management strategies.

26 The availability of databases on invasive species and advanced tools for
27 screening species for invasiveness, the ability to design and configure plantations
28 to minimize spread risk, implementing biological control at the outset, adopting
29 certification standards are some of the important lessons to be drawn upon to
30 reduce problems with invasiveness of alien species for biofuel production.

31

32 **Introduction**

33

34 The current energy crisis, the need to reduce CO₂ emissions, and a range of geopolitical
35 issues leading to many nations needing to reduce their dependence on fossil fuels has
36 raised interest in the use of biofuels [1]. This new bioeconomy is responsible for strong
37 economic incentives to use plants, including transgenic cultivars, non-native species, and
38 taxa formerly confined to small geographical areas, as biofuel feedstock across large
39 areas [2]. Biofuel production is controversial because although it promises numerous
40 benefits, it holds considerable economic, social, and environmental risks [2-4].

41

42 Biofuel production is not new, but meeting the growing need for
43 environmentally-friendly fuels is driving a shift from current biofuel feedstocks to a new
44 suite of species. Most biofuel is currently produced from food plant species (e.g. maize,
45 sugarcane) which are well known, have been domesticated for centuries, and occupy
46 large areas of arable land [5]. Many of the alternative non-food plant species currently
47 being developed or under consideration for biofuels are known to be invasive (i.e. they
48 spread from sites where they are cultivated, often resulting in undesirable impacts)
49 somewhere in the world, or are very likely to be invasive if introduced to new regions
50 and cultivated in large numbers [6,7]. The characteristics that make them attractive as
51 biofuel crops (wide environmental tolerance, rapid growth, ease of establishment, low
52 water demand, ability to resprout when harvested, prolific seed production, etc) are
53 precisely those traits which predispose species to become invasive [8].

54

55 Potential problems with invasive biofuel plants have been addressed in many
56 publications in the peer-reviewed and grey literature recently. Among the topics that
57 have received attention are:

58

- 59 • General discussions about how biofuel production could exacerbate problems
60 with invasions [9,10];
- 61 • The development of guidelines to prevent invasive species from invading areas
62 outside sites set aside for biofuel production e.g. [11-13];
- 63 • The formulation of guidelines for integrating concerns about the invasiveness of
64 biofuel species into national environmental policies [14];
- 65 • The application of weed risk-assessment systems for screening potential biofuel
66 species for invasive potential in different regions [7,15];
- 67 • Elaboration of the dimensions of conflicts of interest between national
68 authorities responsible for fuel provision and environmental agencies [2];
- 69 • Discussion of various technologies to produce 2nd generation fuels and the
70 implication for new plant feedstocks [16];

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72 This article review problems with plant invasions associated with the cultivation of alien
73 plants for two purposes with a much longer history than biofuel production -
74 commercial forestry and agroforestry - and the evolution of approaches to manage these
75 problems. We extract key lessons and principles from the experience in these
76 endeavours that could be applied to reduce problems should alien plants be widely
77 disseminated and cultivated for biofuel production. Special attention is given to the
78 situation in the Southern Hemisphere.

79

80 **Commercial forestry**

81

82 Despite its long history, sustained, large-scale forestry was limited until the late 19th
83 century in Europe, and only expanded to other parts of the world in the 20th century

84 [17,18]. The rapid growth of the forestry industry can be linked to the growing demands
85 of human populations and evolving technology creating a close link between the
86 forestry, timber, pulp and paper (FTPP) industries of the world. These industries are
87 closely linked with consumer products traded on international markets, and thus are
88 increasingly subject to codes of conduct relating to sustainability. It is only recently that
89 environmental issues, including invasiveness, have emerged as important
90 considerations that are shaping the industry [19].

91

92 In the Southern Hemisphere, afforestation with alien trees increased dramatically
93 in the second half of the 20th century, and plantations of trees, mainly pines and
94 eucalypts, are now a dominant feature of landscapes in many countries. For pines, the
95 expansion of plantations in Chile (early 1970s) Australia (early 1960s) and New Zealand
96 (late 1960s) has been phenomenal: by 1996 roughly 4 million ha had been planted to
97 *Pinus radiata* alone.

98

99 The invasive spread of pines from planting sites in the Southern Hemisphere was
100 first noted in the mid 1800s in South Africa, and widespread invasions were reported by
101 the 1920s. Widespread invasions were noted somewhat later in Australia and New
102 Zealand [20]. Large-scale plantings took place much later in South America than in the
103 aforementioned regions, and widespread invasions there are consequently more recent
104 [21]. At least 17 *Pinus* species, out of the >100 species in the genus (most of which have
105 been planted to some extent), are now well established as invaders of natural
106 ecosystems in the southern hemisphere, and 8 species are weeds of major importance.
107 Four of the most widespread invasive pine species have been widely planted (*P.*
108 *halepensis*, *P. patula*, *P. pinaster*, and *P. radiata*).

109

110 Pine invasions in the Southern Hemisphere can be explained by a model
111 incorporating information on species attributes, residence time, the extent of planting,
112 ground-cover characteristics, locality (latitude), disturbance regime, and the resident
113 biota in the receiving environment [22]. The syndrome of traits that separate invasive
114 from non-invasive pine species [23] has been shown to be useful for separating invasive
115 from non-invasive taxa in other conifers [24] and indeed in woody plants in general
116 [25], underscoring the value of the natural experiment of pine afforestation and
117 subsequent invasions in the Southern Hemisphere in unravelling the determinants of
118 invasive success. The understanding of the interacting roles of species traits, planting
119 history, and environmental factors in determining whether or when invasions will
120 occur, reinforced by modelling studies [26] has paved the way for the provision of
121 guidelines on how to minimize the extent and impacts of invasions in new areas [21,27-
122 30]. Options for switching to less invasive species for plantations are very limited, since
123 less invasive or non-invasive pine species (or other species) are not productive enough
124 to sustain commercial forestry. Given the obvious role of prolific seed production in
125 driving invasions, an obvious solution is to reduce seed production. Options for reducing
126 seed production in commercial pine forestry through seed-attacking biological control
127 agents have been explored. At present this strategy has limited application since the best
128 bio-control candidates are also implicated in disease transmission, making the risk to
129 commercial forestry too onerous [31]. Further research is urgently needed. Research is
130 underway to explore options for producing sterile trees, and this option seems to hold
131 promise [28]. In the interim, the most effective management strategy seems to be to
132 integrate the following (listed in decreasing order of the spatial scale of the
133 intervention): spatially-explicit risk assessment at a national scale as a basis for
134 objective demarcation of areas suitable for plantations [30]; at the landscape scale,
135 attention to plantation design (e.g. orientation in relation to prevailing wind), species

136 composition, and optimum land management around plantations to reduce the
137 incidence of invasions [32]; at the scale of individual management units, the
138 incorporation of mechanical control measures to curb spread at the edge of plantations
139 as part of standard silvicultural operations; and the application of appropriate landscape
140 management (system dependent, including fire and grazing management) to prevent
141 establishment and spread of invading plants in surrounding land. The global
142 significance of the forestry industry and the well developed international markets have
143 helped to introduce best-practice procedures and certification standards, e.g. through the
144 Forest Stewardship Council and the International Standards Organization [33]. Such
145 developments are potentially important for reducing the effectiveness of commercial
146 forestry operations as a pathway for alien trees and shrub invasions. These
147 interventions are relatively recent and it is too early to assess whether these, in
148 combination with other interventions, will substantially reduce problems. The formal
149 integration of such approaches into national legislation, e.g. in South Africa, is however
150 encouraging.

151

152 **Agroforestry**

153

154 Agroforestry involves the integration of trees and shrubs with crops and/or animals
155 in the same area, either in a spatial mixture or in a temporal sequence, to derive the
156 combined benefits of all components. This form of silviculture has a much longer history
157 than plantation forestry, stretching back many centuries. The widespread availability of
158 thousands of species of non-native trees for the last century or so has, however,
159 revolutionized agroforestry and related “non-conventional” forestry activities, with
160 profound implications for this practice as a pathway for invasions. Hundreds of tree

161 species are now widely planted, especially in the tropics. Trees typically used in

162 agroforestry may be divided into the following groups:

163

- 164 • Fast-growing, nitrogen-fixing legume trees: (e.g., *Acacia* spp., *Calliandra*
165 *calothyrsus*, *Gleditsia triacanthos*; *Gliricidia sepium*, *Leucaena leucocephala*,
166 *Parkinsonia aculeata*, *Senna* spp.);
- 167 • Trees for dry zones (e.g., *Acacia nilotica*, *Azadirachta indica*, *Prosopis* spp.);
- 168 • Non-legume service trees (e.g., *Cecropia* spp.);
- 169 • Fast-growing timber trees (e.g., *Eucalyptus* spp., *Casuarina* spp.);
- 170 • High-value timber trees (e.g., *Cedrela odorata*, *Cordia alliodora*);
- 171 • Fruit trees (e.g., *Citrus* spp., *Psidium guajava*).

172

173 In all these cases, both the selection of trees and the conditions into which they are
174 planted favour invasive spread [34]. Agroforestry often strives towards multifunctional
175 landscapes in which many needs are met by numerous plant species and land uses. In
176 some cases, invasiveness of planted species is seen as beneficial, e.g. when spreading
177 plants provide additional resources such as fuel wood. Indeed the concept of
178 invasiveness as a problem in agroforestry is controversial in some situations as
179 proponents of agroforestry argue that overall benefits to communities greatly outweigh
180 potential damages through invasiveness. Nonetheless, many of the species listed above
181 are transformer species [35] that radically alter ecosystems and reduce the
182 sustainability of many forms of land use.

183

184 Many agroforestry enterprises are funded by international donor agencies and initiated
185 by regional cooperatives. However, local-scale management is usually done by small-
186 scale growers. Since products are generally for local consumption, international market

187 forces do not dictate best-practice management, and local, regional and national
188 authorities have little power to implement binding regulations to manage for invasions
189 originating from such ventures. The large number of tree species used for agroforestry
190 and the diversity of planting configurations and contexts (from highly degraded systems
191 to intact systems adjoining sensitive conservation areas), usually makes it impractical to
192 enact effective regional strategies to mitigate the problem. Biological control is a crucial
193 form of control in such situations and notable successes have been achieved but the
194 problem is escalating in severity in many areas. Successes have been reported in some
195 areas with substituting invasive alien species with less invasive alien, or native, species.
196 However, as with commercial forestry, a fairly small number of alien plants (including a
197 number of “wonder plants” that fulfil multiple objectives) are difficult or impossible to
198 replace.

199

200 **Ultimate causes of problems of invasiveness in forestry and agroforestry**

201

202 There are two fundamental components of the fundamental drivers of plant invasions
203 resulting from intentionally introduced and widely cultivated trees and shrubs. The first
204 relates to the traits of the species. For both forms of forestry, rapid growth rates, and
205 various properties associated with hardiness, and adaptability to a range of, often harsh,
206 conditions have been strongly selected for. These, and others, such precocious and
207 prolific seed production, desirable in many agroforestry situations, make these species
208 inherently weedy. Richardson [36]~~1998b~~ wrote of “invasive alien trees: the price of
209 forestry”. The second crucial driver of problems in this regard relates to dimensions of
210 the pathways forged by all aspects of the cultivation of non-native trees. Aspects that
211 strongly influence invasions include these:

212

- 213 • The alien species are often planted in massive numbers, ensuring huge sources of
214 propagules.
- 215 • The configuration of plantings creates good conditions for initiating invasions. In
216 the case of large plantations, there is often a long edge adjoining invadable habitat.
217 In most agroforestry ventures, rows of trees or scattered trees form effective foci
218 for seed dispersal.
- 219 • Plantings often adjoin natural or areas of semi-natural vegetation that are often
220 managed for other uses, creating acute conflicts of interest when invasions occur.
- 221 • Establishment of the trees is often accompanied by disturbance (to reduce
222 competition from native vegetation) and the intentional introduction of
223 mutualists such as mycorrhizal fungi for pines and rhizobia for legume trees. This
224 favours growth and recruitment of the alien trees, not only in areas identified for
225 silviculture but also in surrounding areas.

226

227 **Current biofuel trends**

228

229 The impetus for biofuel production to expand rapidly to contribute to national energy
230 security, rural-development and other priorities means that production is likely to grow
231 rapidly, posing special problems for planning to ensure sustainability and to minimize
232 environmental damage. To meet targets a combination of large-scale commercial
233 production and small scale farming opportunities may need to be realised [37]. On the
234 one hand, biofuels are expected to play a relatively large role in mitigating carbon
235 emissions in a short time which could result in the development of large scale
236 plantations mainly in developing countries [38,39]. Due to various technological and
237 feedstock limitations none of these scenarios have yet moved beyond experimentation.
238 Certification bodies and international conservation organisations have taken the

239 opportunity to caution against the lack of standardization and certification process. At
240 the other end of the spectrum, the biofuel boom has stimulated interest in developing
241 small-scale bioenergy production to uplift rural communities and improve livelihoods
242 without compromising food security or environmental integrity [38, 40]. However
243 history shows that 'wonder crops' often exceed their initial role and soon become pests
244 for the very reasons they were initially chosen. Robust strategies are needed *now*, to
245 avoid the problems with invasive species that now bedevil commercial forestry and
246 agroforestry (Figure 1).

247 The development of screening protocols and global databases of invasive species
248 are powerful tools for arriving at informed decisions regarding the introduction of new
249 species. The lessons from forestry and agroforestry are particularly useful in selecting
250 species and developing appropriate management options ([Table 1](#)). We have the
251 advantage of adopting existing management and legislative models to minimize the
252 impacts of using alien plants in new environments. The challenge will be to develop
253 standards that can be applied to both small and large-scale operations and in a range of
254 socio-political milieus.

255

256 **Conclusions**

257

258 Commercial forestry and agroforestry are the closest analogs to biofuel production
259 because of the types of plants that are used and the scale and configurations of plantings.
260 Hard lessons have been learnt in these fields, some of which can be applied to avoid some
261 of the pitfalls that have been experienced. There are, however, also other fields in the
262 emerging bioeconomy that rely on non-native species and where problems with
263 invasiveness of subject taxa cause problems - horticulture [41] and aquaculture [42]. The
264 socio-economic drivers of each of these enterprises are very different and much work

265 remains to be done to craft innovative solutions to such industries with inherent high

266 risks of exacerbating the escalating problems with biological invasions.

267

Table 1. Key lessons for dealing with invasions of alien plants used for biofuel production from the experience with invasions resulting from commercial forestry and agroforestry.

Key lessons	Details	Implications for biofuel production	Key references
Some species are inherently better invaders than others	Global lists of the most invasive taxa are now available. If a species are invasive in one region, they are likely to replicate this in similar environments elsewhere. This is useful for compiling “black lists” of known invasive species which should either not be used or which demand special attention if used.	High-risk species, e.g., <i>Arundo donax</i> , should ideally be avoided, or, when used special measures must be mandatory Biological control or other mitigation measures could potentially be applied.	[6,7]
Invasion success increases with increasing propagule pressure and time since introduction	Problems with invasions increase as the size of the propagule pool and the time since introduction increase. High propagules pressure can result in successful invasions, even if the environment is sub-optimal for establishment of the species.	Many biofuel plantations are likely to be established over large areas. Special precautions are needed to confine seeds and vegetative materials to the planted area and to minimize spread along transport routes. Location and configuration of the plantings in relation to the surrounding habitat are crucial for minimizing invasions (e.g., planting near riparian zones or degraded landscape that may be susceptible to invasion).	[12,43]
Prolific seed production spells trouble	Various aspects of seed biology are important determinants of invasiveness. Heavy seed production in the absence of natural enemies is a crucial factor in many plant invasions. Very large seed numbers can swamp regeneration microsites, resulting in invasion of even marginal sites. Heavy seed production also affects dispersal in several ways. More seeds usually result in more offspring further from parent plants. Biological control using seed-attacking insects can reduce seed production of some desirable species without affecting other features of the plant.	Some biofuel crops are dependent on high seed production with species being specially selected and bred to maximise this trait In such instances seed-attacking insects may not be a viable option in this industry and use of the biocontrol could be limited.	[44]
Genetic change due to the introduction and cultivation history can favour invasiveness -	Changes in the genetic make-up of introduced species can change their ability to invade. This may be as a result of the evolution of land races, increased genetic diversity as a result of the introduction of new genotypes, spontaneous hybridization in situ, or to human-mediated breeding programs aimed at genetic improvement. Spontaneous interspecific	Some species are chosen due to the range of genetic stock that can increase productivity, growth rates and pest resistance. The risks of genes escaping and causing hybridization in adjacent populations is a serious and unquantifiable risk.	[45-47]

	hybridization is important for the evolution of invasiveness in plants . Hybridization potentially changes the “game rules” for an alien organism, and may enhance its ability to become established and invasive because of increased vitality of the hybrids compared with the parent species.		
Mutualisms are crucial, and reshuffling the world’s biota is making ecosystems more open to invasion by more species	Many invasions rely on mutualistic interactions between the introduced plant species and other organisms (e.g., animal-mediated pollination and seed dispersal, and interactions between plant roots and mycorrhizal fungi and nitrogen-fixing bacteria). Generalist vertebrate seed dispersers such as livestock are frequently a component of agroforestry systems, and provide a reliable mechanism for seed movement. Propagules of many agroforestry trees are widely disseminated by humans. These factors contribute to enhanced long-distance dispersal and the establishment of new foci for invasion. Potential barriers to establishment (and invasion beyond planting sites) are overcome for many agroforestry trees and shrubs when appropriate mycorrhizal symbionts and bacteria are introduced. Such inoculations enable the alien agroforestry species to grow productively in the new habitat, but also radically enhance the suitability of surrounding areas for establishment/invasion by the alien species.	Prior introduction of many mutualists for forestry, agroforestry and other uses will enhance invasibility of many ecosystems for species to be used for biofuels.	Traveset and Richardson (2011)
Potential impacts of invaders are often related to the functions and services that make these species desirable subjects for cultivation	Alien plant species for forestry and agroforestry are selected for the new functions and services that they bring to the system – functions and services that cannot be provided (as well) by native species. Often, it is exactly these functions/services (e.g. rapid biomass accumulation, nitrogen fixation) that cause harmful impacts when these species invade beyond sites intended for agroforestry.	In order for biofuels not to compete with food resources, marginal and degraded land is being targeted for production.	

Comment [DMR1]: Traveset, A. & Richardson, D.M. (2011). Mutualisms – key drivers of invasions... key casualties of invasions. In: Richardson, D.M. (ed.) *Fifty years of invasion ecology*. Wiley-Blackwell, Oxford (in press)

<p>The history of experimentation with many species worldwide ensures better species-site matching than in the past – fewer failures and more invaders</p>	<p>Improved R&D in many parts of the world has resulted in the rapid and widespread dissemination of news of highly successful agroforestry species (e.g. the many species of “wonder trees”). Such information, based on the natural experiment of the planting of hundreds of species across the world is, in effect, providing empirical evidence on species-site matching. Rather than needing to experiment with a large number of potential species, agroforesters are now able to select from a small number of species with a very high chance of success in their area. Species selection following this process is, in many cases, also selecting for invasiveness.</p>	<p>Biofuel crops may benefit from advanced site selection criteria crucial to maximise crop success and minimize expenditure. However, many plantations worldwide are not sufficiently based on scientific knowledge of species ecology which could increase the risk of crop abandonment if productive expectations are not met.</p>	<p>[6,48]</p>
<p>Unravelling the drivers of planting is crucial</p>	<p>The dimensions of planting of alien tree species are shaped by ecological, economic, cultural, and political factors that differ considerably in different parts of the world. These factors are totally different for different types of enterprises in commercial forestry and agroforestry. These drivers, together with a range of ecological factors that determine levels of invasiveness and invasibility, define the extent and magnitude of the problem and delineate options for intervention.</p>	<p>Biofuels are expected to play a diverse role in the future and is also shaped by ecological, economic, cultural, and political factors. The large significance to energy security, poverty alleviation and climate change are major drivers of biofuels in different parts of the world. Appropriate understanding of these drivers could balance the risks with adequate management options.</p>	<p>[1]</p>

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Figure 1: Schematic depiction of the main phases in the invasion process, potential barriers to invasion, ways in which likely scenarios for biofuel production using alien plants could influence the importance of barriers, and some lessons from the history of invasions in commercial forestry and agroforestry for limiting invasion problems in the plant biofuel industry. Barrier model adapted from Richardson et al. (2000). Three complementary strategies (prevent; detection and early response; and long-term management) from Chomesky et al. (2004).

