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Effectiveness of *Torymus sinensis*: a successful long-term control of the Asian chestnut gall wasp in Italy

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1 **Abstract**

2 The biocontrol agent *Torymus sinensis* has been released into Japan, the USA, and Europe to suppress
3 the Asian chestnut gall wasp, *Dryocosmus kuriphilus*. In this study we provide a quantitative
4 assessment of *T. sinensis* effectiveness for suppressing gall wasp infestations in Northwest Italy by
5 annually evaluating the percentage of chestnuts infested by *D. kuriphilus* (infestation rate) and the
6 number of *T. sinensis* adults that emerged per 100 galls (emergence index) over a 9-year period. We
7 recorded the number of *T. sinensis* adults emerging from a total of 64,000 galls collected from 23
8 sampling sites. We found that *T. sinensis* strongly reduced the *D. kuriphilus* population, as
9 demonstrated by reduced galls and an increased *T. sinensis* emergence index. Specifically, in
10 Northwest Italy, the infestation rate was nearly zero 9 years after release of the parasitoid with no
11 evidence of resurgence in infestation levels. In 2012, the number of *T. sinensis* females emerging per
12 100 galls was approximately 20 times higher than in 2009. Overall, *T. sinensis* proved to be an
13 outstanding biocontrol agent, and its success highlights how the classical biological control approach
14 may represent a cost-effective tool for managing an exotic invasive pest.

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31 **Keywords**

32 *Torymus sinensis*, *Dryocosmus kuriphilus*, classical biological control, invasive exotic pests

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34 **Key messages**

35 - *Torymus sinensis* is a biocontrol agent used to control outbreaks of the Asian chestnut gall
36 wasp (*Dryocosmus kuriphilus*).

37 - Long-term monitoring between 2009 and 2017 in Italy was performed to provide a
38 quantitative assessment of the effectiveness of this parasitoid.

39 - Our data clearly demonstrated that *T. sinensis* effectively reduced the *D. kuriphilus*
40 population, as indicated by a reduced number of galls and by a large increase in the number
41 of *T. sinensis* adults emerging per gall.

42

43 **Author contribution statement**

44 CF and AA conceived and designed research. CF, EF, MP and MAS carried out field and laboratory
45 assays. All authors contributed to the writing of the manuscript and approved the final manuscript.

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47

48 **Introduction**

49 In recent decades, the number of invasive alien species (IAS) in Europe has increased significantly
50 and is considered to be a major cause of economic and biodiversity loss. The European IAS inventory,
51 reported by the Delivering Alien Invasive Species in Europe (DAISIE) project, clearly showed the
52 exponential growth of exotic species both into and within Europe (Roques et al. 2009). IAS devastate
53 forestry, agriculture, and nurseries (Calabria et al. 2010; EPPO 2014; Haack et al. 2010; Quacchia et
54 al. 2008a), threaten native biodiversity, impact ecosystem services, and cause damage and control
55 costs in excess of €12 billion per year (Shine et al. 2009).

56 There are several examples of invasive insect pests that have been accidentally introduced through
57 global trade and travel (Gerber and Schaffner 2016), and many of these pests may be controlled by
58 biocontrol agents (BCA) (Cock et al. 2016; DeBach 1964; DiTomaso et al. 2017; Stiling and
59 Cornelissen 2005). The Asian chestnut gall wasp (ACGW), *Dryocosmus kuriphilus* Yasumatsu
60 (Hymenoptera, Cynipidae), was first reported in Italy at the beginning of the 21st century and has
61 rapidly spread throughout Europe (Brussino et al. 2002; EPPO 2016). *D. kuriphilus* is native to China
62 and severely affects chestnut trees; it is responsible for a severe reduction in fruiting and negatively
63 impacts chestnut production (Battisti et al. 2014; Gehring et al. 2018). Chemical control and the use
64 of ACGW-resistant chestnuts proved ineffective to control the impact of ACGW (Moriya et al. 2003).
65 Thus, the BCA parasitoid *Torymus sinensis* Kamijo (Hymenoptera, Torymidae) was released to
66 suppress gall wasp population growth. *T. sinensis* was introduced into Japan in 1975 and in Georgia
67 (USA) in 1977 (Cooper and Rieske 2007, 2011; Moriya et al. 2003). In Italy, *T. sinensis* was imported
68 from Japan and released in 2005 in chestnut-growing areas as part of a biocontrol program funded by
69 the Piedmont region (Quacchia et al. 2008b). Classical biological control using *T. sinensis* was also
70 performed in Croatia, France, Hungary, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, and Turkey (Borowiec et al. 2014;
71 Āpekđal et al., 2017; Matošević et al. 2014; Pérez-Otero et al. 2017; RefCast 2015).

72 A major criticism of classical biocontrol is the lack of post-release impact evaluation measures.
73 Indeed, while researchers focus extensively on the identification, safety-testing, and release of control

74 agents, there has been relatively little assessment of post-release control success (Clewley et al. 2012).
75 Recently, the biology (e.g. diapause, reproductive traits, hybridization) and behavior (e.g. host range
76 expansion) of *T. sinensis* have been extensively studied due to the need to provide post-release
77 evaluation to assess the potential impacts of this BCA on non-target hosts (Ferracini et al. 2015a, b,
78 2017; Montagna et al. 2018; Picciau et al. 2017). The literature has reported a clear decrease in
79 ACGW infestations after *T. sinensis* release (Colombari and Battisti 2016a; Ferracini et al. 2015b;
80 Matošević et al. 2017; Quacchia et al. 2014). However, a quantitative assessment of the effectiveness
81 of *T. sinensis* in the reduction of the ACGW in Europe is still needed. To address this concern, we
82 present the results of long-term monitoring (between 2009 and 2017) of the infestation rate by *D.*
83 *kuriphilus* in response to *T. sinensis* introduction in different Italian chestnut-growing areas.

84

85 **Materials and methods**

86 *Sampling sites*

87 Investigations were carried out during a 9-year period between 2009 and 2017 in five Italian regions.
88 Surveys started in 2009 at six sampling sites in the Piedmont region (Northwest Italy), where the
89 parasitoid *T. sinensis* was first released and formed stable populations (Quacchia et al. 2008b). From
90 2014 until 2017, investigations were moved to four other Italian regions where the parasitoid was
91 released. Surveys were carried out in four sampling sites in Abruzzo and Aosta Valley (2014 to 2015),
92 and in three and six sites in Tuscany and Liguria, respectively (2016 to 2017). Table 1 lists the location
93 of the sampling sites.

94

95 *Infestation rate*

96 The chestnut infestation rate by *D. kuriphilus* was recorded once per year (in late August) from 2009
97 through 2016 at the six sampling sites in the Piedmont region. At each site 10 chestnut trees were
98 randomly selected, and from each tree 10 one-year old branches were randomly chosen at different
99 heights of the canopy for a total of 100 branches per site per year. For each branch, the infestation

100 rate was recorded on the shoots of the previous vegetative season with respect to the sampling date
101 [we refer to Gehring et al. (2018) for the description of the shoot] and expressed as the percentage of
102 total buds infested by the gall wasp, i.e., affected by the presence of galls.

103

104 *Gall collection*

105 Ten naturally growing chestnut trees (a new set different from the one used to record the infestation
106 rate) were randomly chosen from each of the surveyed sites, and from each tree, 100 galls that had
107 formed during the previous year were randomly collected (10 galls from each of 10 branches per
108 tree). Once per year (in January), galls were collected by hand from low branches (ground level to 2
109 m high) and with the aid of lopping shears from the medium–high tree crown (from 2 to 5 m high) in
110 chestnut orchards and/or coppices according to a protocol described by Moriya et al. (2003).

111

112 *Emergence index*

113 The collected galls were isolated inside cardboard boxes with removable skylights. The boxes were
114 kept outdoors until the emergence of *T. sinensis* adults was complete according to a method described
115 by Ferracini et al. (2015b). The number of *T. sinensis* adults emerging per 100 galls was recorded,
116 and is hereafter referred to as the emergence index.

117

118 *Identification of T. sinensis*

119 *T. sinensis* adults (5 males and 5 females per site and year; 640 total specimens) were morphologically
120 identified by comparison with voucher specimens deposited at the DISAFA-Entomology laboratory.
121 Additional *T. sinensis* adults (5 males and 5 females per site and year; 640 total specimens) were
122 submitted for DNA extraction and subsequently sequenced for the cytochrome oxidase I (COI) gene
123 to confirm morphological identification following a protocol from Kaartinen et al. (2010).

124

125 **Results**

126 Chestnut infestation rates by ACGW (that is, percentage of buds with galls) averaged 62.5% during
127 the first year of the survey (2009), and varied little until 2013 (Online Resource 1) when they
128 decreased greatly, especially at Robilante (-95%), Boves (-87%), and Peveragno (-85%). After 2013,
129 the gall wasp infestation levels continued to drastically decline, to 0.500%, 0.300% and, 0.003% in
130 2014, 2015, and 2016, respectively.

131 In the 9-year-period of 2009 through 2017, a total of 64,000 galls were collected at the 23 sampling
132 sites, and 93,077 (49,756 females and 43,321 males) *T. sinensis* emerged. The mean sex ratio of *T.*
133 *sinensis* was 1:1 (53.5% female; Online Resources 2, 3).

134 In Piedmont, the average number of *T. sinensis* females emerging per 100 galls increased steadily,
135 from 4.08% in 2009, to 16.3%, 70.4%, 92.0%, and 81.6% in the subsequent years from 2010 to 2013.
136 Emergence rate was highest at Robilante in 2011 (249 *T. sinensis* adults per 100 galls) (Online
137 Resource 2). A slight decrease in the number of adults emerging per 100 galls was observed in 2013
138 at all sites except for Peveragno and Cervasca. The trends in mean parasitism by *T. sinensis* (2009
139 through 2016) and mean ACGW infestation rates (2009 through 2016) recorded in Piedmont are
140 shown in Figure 1. An increase in the emergence index by *T. sinensis* was also recorded for all the
141 other surveyed regions (Figure 2; Online Resource 3.)

142 All 1280 collected specimens were confirmed to be *T. sinensis* through morphological characteristics
143 (640 specimens) or by molecular methods, specifically COI gene sequencing and subsequent
144 comparison to the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) sequence database. A
145 minimum of 99% similarity with *T. sinensis*-related sequences was observed. The phylogenetic
146 analyses revealed the presence of 14 clusters. The COI sequence of a specimen for each cluster was
147 deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive under the accession numbers from MH121609 to
148 MH121622.

149

150 **Discussion**

151 Our study provides data that annual increases in *T. sinensis* emergence index corresponded to
152 concomitant decreased levels of *D. kuriphilus* infestation and demonstrates the efficacy of *T. sinensis*
153 as a classical biocontrol agent. Previous studies concluded that *T. sinensis* was an effective
154 management option for *D. kuriphilus* in chestnut-growing areas in Italy (Bernardo et al. 2017; Bosio
155 et al. 2013; Colombari and Battisti 2016a) and Europe (Borowiec et al. 2014; Matošević et al. 2017;
156 Quacchia et al. 2014), but provided no specific data on changes in *D. kuriphilus* infestation levels. In
157 Northwest Italy *T. sinensis* established a presence shortly after its release in Piedmont in 2005
158 (Quacchia et al. 2008b). Its emergence rate increased exponentially, and by 2012 the number of *T.*
159 *sinensis* females emerging per 100 galls was approximately 20 times higher than what was recorded
160 in 2009 (exponential growth $y=0$; $R^2=0.9448$). In 2011, at Peveragno, the number increased nearly
161 11-fold compared to the previous year, while the only decline was recorded at Robilante in 2012.
162 This reduction was likely due to a decrease in host density. As of 2014 the number of galls was
163 significantly reduced, and in some sites (Cervasca and Robilante), no galls were found.

164 Our observations are in agreement with Moriya et al. (2003), who reported that the introduction of *T.*
165 *sinensis* in Japan was a prominent and successful example of classical biological control. In Japan,
166 the parasitoid kept the population of the ACGW under the damage threshold of 30% shoot infestation
167 (Gyoutoku and Uemura 1985; Moriya et al. 1990). In the USA, Cooper and Rieske (2007) first
168 reported that successful establishment of *T. sinensis* appeared to play a major role in population
169 regulation of *D. kuriphilus*, but did not provide additional details. The time required for *T. sinensis* to
170 establish a population varied by location in Japan. In Central Japan, Moriya et al. (1990) reported a
171 decrease in *D. kuriphilus* chestnut infestation 6 years after *T. sinensis* introduction. Conversely, in
172 Southwest Japan, it took 18 years to establish a *T. sinensis* population. This delay was attributed to a
173 low female sex ratio and high mortality caused by native hyperparasitoids (Murakami and Gyoutoku
174 1995).

175 Based on our personal observations, *T. sinensis* required approximately 7 to 8 years to noticeably
176 decrease the *D. kuriphilus* population in Italy. The success of this program was mainly due to a

177 coordinated national and regional effort, where institutions, associations, and private landowners
178 combined their efforts to achieve ACGW population control. Indeed, after being initially released in
179 the Piedmont region, *T. sinensis* was released in several other Italian regions. In 2012, the Italian
180 Ministry of Agricultural, Food and Forestry Policies (MiPAAF) actively pursued the national release
181 of the parasitoid due to the evident impact on the decline in ACGW population. This pursuit led to
182 funding of the Lobiocin and Bioinfocast projects. These programs released a total of 295,220 wasps
183 (approximately 120 females and 60 males per release) at 1,669 sites in 17 regions between 2012 and
184 2014 (Alma et al. 2014).

185 Since *T. sinensis* is not native to Europe, several studies have investigated myriad native parasitoids
186 of *D. kuriphilus* in Europe (Aebi et al. 2007; Kos et al. 2015; Matošević and Melika 2013; Palmeri et
187 al. 2014; Panzavolta et al. 2013; Quacchia et al. 2013; Speranza et al. 2009). However, none of these
188 native species effectively controls the ACGW population in the long term, most likely due to
189 incompatible life cycles. As opposed to what occurred in Southwest Japan, no native European
190 parasitoids negatively influenced the establishment of *T. sinensis*. Furthermore, *T. sinensis* so
191 effectively controlled *D. kuriphilus* in Italy that its introduction progressively reduced the number of
192 native parasitoids recruited since the establishment of the ACGW. Specifically, *T. sinensis* has caused
193 the loss of approximately 14% of native parasitoid species, and 32% of the native parasitoid
194 population density associated with the gall wasp, each year since its introduction (Ferracini et al.
195 2018).

196 *T. sinensis* may disperse over long distances through active flight or wind assistance to reach non-
197 release sites (Colombari and Battisti 2016b; Matošević et al. 2017; Moriya et al. 2003). Nevertheless,
198 a few regions in southern Italy exhibit variable *T. sinensis* distribution and/or recurrent ACGW
199 infestation (Armentano 2016). In the 25 years since the initial parasitoid release in Japan, there have
200 been three peaks in the *D. kuriphilus* population that were subsequently followed by peaks in *T.*
201 *sinensis* (Moriya, personal communication). These observations clearly fit the mathematical model
202 developed by Paparella et al. (2016) that describes the population pattern of *T. sinensis* and its host.

203 Indeed, according to the model, parasitoid dispersal drastically reduces the ACGW level. The model
204 also predicts that the pest population may increase in parts of the chestnut environment where *T.*
205 *sinensis* is no longer abundant due to the scarcity of *D. kuriphilus*. These dynamics promote a
206 population wave pattern, where a *D. kuriphilus* population increase will be followed by an increase
207 in *T. sinensis* parasitism.

208 There has been no reported evidence of ACGW infestation resurgence in North Italy 13 years after
209 release of *T. sinensis*. This parasitoid has been proven to effectively control ACGW outbreaks, and
210 its successful use highlights how classical biological control may represent a cost-effective tool for
211 managing an exotic invasive pest, balancing pest populations below damaging levels. Since
212 population changes and community responses induced by biological control programs often require
213 long periods of time, continuous monitoring is needed to track the host-parasitoid population
214 dynamics, and to verify the efficacy of this biocontrol agent over time.

215

Compliance with ethical standards

All the insect rearing and experiments were conducted in accordance with the legislation and guidelines of the European Union for the protection of animals used for scientific purposes (http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/lab_animals/legislation_en.htm). All experimental protocols using insects were approved by the *ad-hoc* Committee of DISAFA of the University of Torino.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Table 1 – Sampling sites monitored in the present study

Region	Province	Site	Geographic coordinates	
			N	E
Piedmont	Cuneo	Boves	44°19'06.1"	07°33'18.3"
		Caraglio	44°24'31.7"	07°24'05.9"
		Cervasca	44°22'15.3"	07°26'57.2"
		Chiusa di Pesio	44°16'52.2"	07°40'21.8"
		Peveragno	44°18'57.1"	07°35'08.2"
		Robilante	44°18'09.6"	07°31'07.4"
Abruzzo	L'Aquila	Canistro I	41°55'10.2"	13°24'49.8"
		Canistro II	41°55'54.6"	13°24'13.2"
		Civitella Roveto I	41°54'22.2"	13°25'45.0"
		Civitella Roveto II	41°54'19.8"	13°24'55.2"
Aosta Valley	Aosta	Aosta	45°45'23.9"	07°19'59.2"
		Montjovet	45°42'10.4"	07°40'47.7"
		Pondel	45°40'22.1"	07°13'41.4"
		Verres	45°39'06.9"	07°40'35.9"
Liguria	Genova	Masone	44°30'47.0"	08°44'22.0"
		Neirone	44°26'50.1"	09°11'16.4"
		San Colombano Certenoli	44°23'14.1"	09°18'23.0"
	La Spezia	Biassa	44°06'00.6"	09°46'13.3"
		Carro	44°15'43.3"	09°37'18.1"
		Sesta Godano	44°15'25.5"	09°40'56.3"
Tuscany	Firenze	Marradi I	44°04'52.5"	11°35'19.7"
		Marradi II	44°04'42.0"	11°39'39.7"
		Marradi III	44°06'40.6"	11°37'52.5"

Online Resource 1 – Mean infestation rate (percentage of buds infested per tree) of Asian chestnut gall wasp (\pm SE) recorded in the sampling sites of Piedmont region from 2009–2016 (n = 100 branches per site per year).

Site	Year															
	2009	SE	2010	SE	2011	SE	2012	SE	2013	SE	2014	SE	2015	SE	2016	SE
Boves	59.85	± 2.55	79.56	± 2.81	68.97	± 5.08	66.65	± 6.32	8.34	± 2.63	0.92	± 0.47	0.50	± 0.50	0.00	± 0.00
Caraglio	65.50	± 3.76	65.67	± 4.71	60.08	± 4.14	61.02	± 4.26	17.16	± 4.28	0.20	± 0.20	0.00	± 0.00	0.00	± 0.00
Cervasca	63.09	± 3.14	56.53	± 4.00	83.80	± 3.28	50.55	± 7.12	8.28	± 3.17	0.00	± 0.00	0.00	± 0.00	0.00	± 0.00
Chiusa di Pesio	59.75	± 2.74	59.75	± 2.74	45.89	± 4.76	51.97	± 7.58	24.89	± 6.91	0.68	± 0.37	0.17	± 0.17	0.02	± 0.73
Peveragno	75.66	± 3.19	66.81	± 4.02	69.39	± 3.58	77.05	± 6.43	11.51	± 2.61	1.22	± 0.73	1.20	± 0.96	0.00	± 0.00
Robilante	51.30	± 4.79	60.94	± 3.85	76.96	± 5.08	37.51	± 4.85	1.92	± 1.28	0.00	± 0.00	0.00	± 0.00	0.00	± 0.00
Mean	62.53	± 3.28	64.88	± 3.32	67.51	± 5.42	57.46	± 5.65	12.02	± 3.27	0.50	± 0.21	0.31	± 0.19	0.0033	± 0.003

Online Resource 2 – Mean number of *Torymus sinensis* adults emerged from 100 galls recorded in the sampling sites of Piedmont region

Region	Site	<i>T. sinensis</i> first release (year)	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
			♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	♂♂
Piedmont	Boves	2005	0.3	0.2	3.1	2.7	47.5	41.5	84.1	71.2	80.9	72.7
	Caraglio	2006	3.6	2.7	13.2	12.0	82.3	74.5	99.8	85.6	64.6	93.6
	Cervasca	2006	0.8	0.5	5.6	3.4	9.3	7.6	68.1	66.0	83.5	102.1
	Chiusa di Pesio	2006	1.4	1.6	7.7	5.8	43.7	43.2	80.2	69.4	63.9	73.9
	Peveragno	2005	3.3	2.6	8.7	8.0	98.9	77.7	110.3	99.3	106.0	122.0
	Robilante	2005	15.1	14.2	59.0	53.8	141.0	108.1	109.6	104.5	90.7	114.5

Online Resource 3 - Mean number of *Torymus sinensis* adults emerged from 100 galls recorded in the sampling sites of Abruzzo, Aosta Valley, Liguria, and Tuscany regions

Region	site	<i>T. sinensis</i> first release (year)	2014		2015		Region	site	<i>T. sinensis</i> first release (year)	2016		2017	
			♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	♂♂				♀♀	♂♂	♀♀	♂♂
Abruzzo	Canistro I	2011	0.04	0.09	3.50	2.00	Liguria	Masone	2010	140.80	115.20	80.60	65.90
	Canistro II	2011	1.70	2.00	62.50	81.00		Neirone	2010	131.40	107.50	224.30	195.70
	Civitella Roveto I	2011	3.40	2.50	20.00	20.50		San Colombano Certenoli	2010	128.10	104.80	183.00	142.00
	Civitella Roveto II	2011	0.08	0.30	48.00	43.00		Biassa	2011	120.40	98.50	319.00	261.00
Aosta valley	Aosta	2012	37.20	35.00	42.40	33.70	Tuscany	Carro	2011	127.70	141.30	87.40	100.50
	Montjovet	2012	99.60	95.80	125.30	65.20		Sesta Godano	2011	105.60	86.40	89.10	72.90
	Pondel	2012	20.00	12.40	70.80	37.90		Marradi I	2010	128.70	105.30	203.50	166.50
	Verres	2012	22.40	15.40	41.20	33.80		Marradi II	2010	209.00	171.00	179.70	147.00
							Marradi III	2010	95.70	78.30	191.10	156.40	

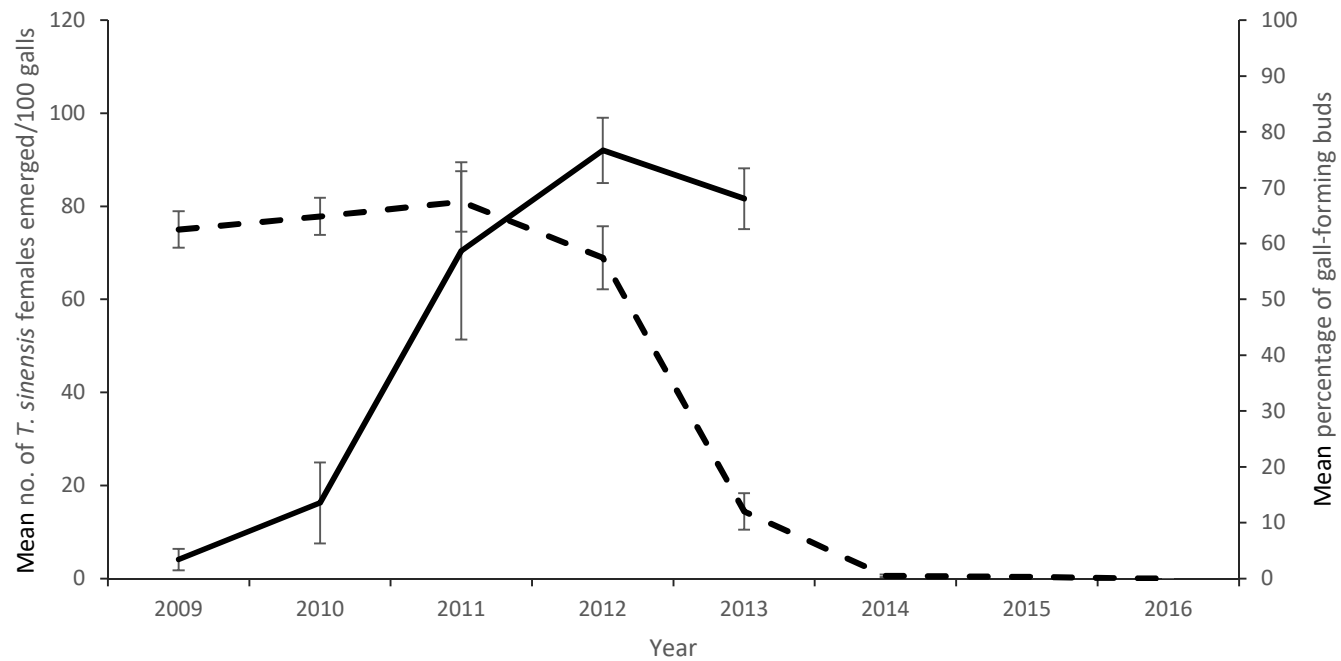


Figure 1 – Mean number of *Torymus sinensis* females emerged per 100 galls (solid line) and mean infestation rate (percentage of infested buds by the total amount of buds; dotted line) recorded in the sampling sites of Piedmont region. Lines represent mean \pm SE.

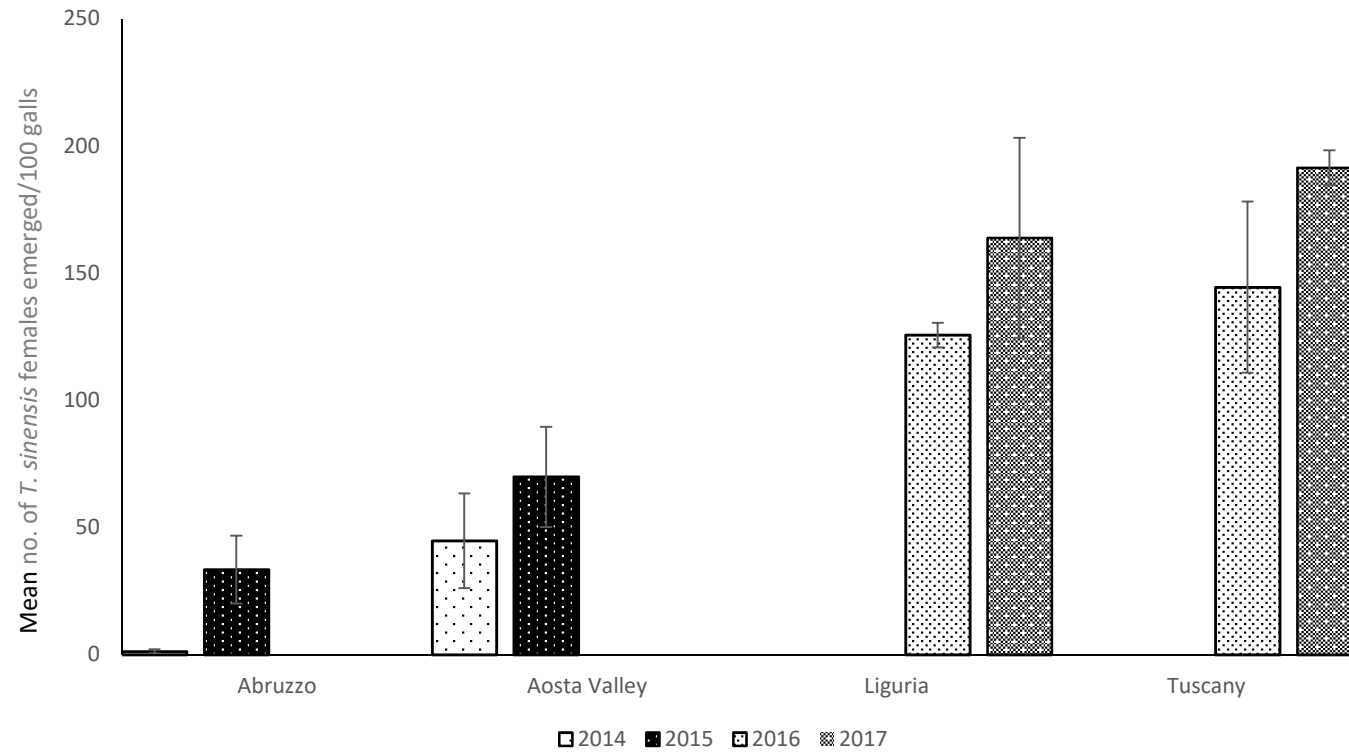


Figure 2 – Mean number of *Torymus sinensis* females emerged per 100 galls recorded in the sampling sites of Abruzzo and Aosta Valley regions in 2014-2015, and Liguria and Tuscany regions in 2016-2017. Bars represent mean \pm SE.