

## **Evaluation of the Effects of Light Source and Plant Materials on Asian Citrus Psyllid (Hemiptera: Psyllidae) Trapping Levels in the Transtrap for Citrus Shipping Containers**

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## EVALUATION OF THE EFFECTS OF LIGHT SOURCE AND PLANT MATERIALS ON ASIAN CITRUS PSYLLID (HEMIPTERA: PSYLLIDAE) TRAPPING LEVELS IN THE TRANSTRAP FOR CITRUS SHIPPING CONTAINERS

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### ABSTRACT

The Asian citrus psyllid (ACP), the principal vector of the pathogen of huanglongbing (HLB), has been reported to be transported in truckloads of oranges in Florida. Citrus, especially Key limes and lemons, are shipped to the U.S. from Mexican states that are heavily infected with HLB. Live, infected psyllids could spread the disease in orchards near inspection facilities or packing houses where trucks are unloaded. Experiments reported here tested the use of a sticky trap with light emitting diode(s) (LED) to detect possible contamination of fruit loads by ACP in containers. Experiments were performed in chambers maintained at temperatures and humidities similar to those in truck trailers arriving from Mexico. The effects of light intensity (no LED, 1 LED, 2 LEDs) and plant material (no material, fruit only, trees and fruit) were measured and analyzed to determine the relative efficacy of the trap types and to the role of plant material in a system to detect the ACP. Results showed that ACP could survive in containers with no plant material, fruit only, or a nursery tree as material. The majority of the insects were recovered from the traps with lower psyllid numbers surviving or dying in the container. The traps with 2 LEDs were the most effective, followed by 1 LED traps, then those with no lights. These results showed that the psyllids in these chambers were more likely to be trapped than to survive or die in the chamber. Thus, sticky traps with LEDs as a light attractant can be effective means to detect psyllid contamination in citrus shipping.

Key Words: *Diaphorina citri*, huanglongbing, detection, quarantine, light emitting diodes, citrus

### RESUMEN

Se ha informado que el psílido asiático de los cítricos (PAC), el vector principal del patógeno Huanglongbing (HLB), se ha transportado en camiones de naranjas en la Florida. Los cítricos, especialmente los limones verdes y los limones amarillos, se envían a los EE.UU. de los estados mexicanos que están infectados con HLB y los psílidos vivos infectados pueden transmitir la enfermedad en los huertos cercanos a las instalaciones de inspección o emparadoras donde se descargan los camiones. Experimentos reportados aquí probaron el uso de una trampa pegajosa con diodo emisor de luz (s) (DEL) para detectar la posible contaminación de las cargas de frutas por PAC en contenedores. Se realizaron los experimentos en cámaras mantenidas a temperaturas y humedades similares a las de remolques de camiones procedentes de México. Se midieron y analizaron los efectos de la intensidad de la luz (sin DEL, DEL 1, DEL 2) y material de la planta (sin material, sólo fruta, árboles y frutos) para determinar la eficacia relativa de las clases de trampas y el papel de material vegetal en el sistema para detectar el PAC. Los resultados mostraron que el PAC podría sobrevivir en recipientes sin material de plantas, sólo frutas, o fruta más material de la planta. La mayoría de los insectos fueron recuperados de las trampas con números más pequeños de psílidos supervivientes o muertos en el recipiente. Las trampas con 2 DELs fue la más efectiva, seguido de la trampa con 1 DEL, y luego aquellas sin luces. Estos resultados mostraron que los psílidos en estas cámaras tenían un mayor probabilidad de ser atrapados que para sobrevivir o morir en la cámara. Por lo tanto, las trampas pegajosas juntas con los DELs como un atrayente de luz puede ser un medio eficaz para detectar la contaminación por psílidos en el transporte de cítricos.

Palabras Clave: *Diaphorina citri*, huanglongbing, detección, cuarentena, diodos emisores de luz, cítricos

Large areas of the Yucatan states and western states of Mexico are infested by the Asian citrus psyllid (ACP) (*Diaphorina citri* Kuwayama; Hemiptera: Psyllidae), a vector of 'Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus', the pathogen thought to cause huanglongbing (HLB) which is also known as citrus greening disease (Trujillo-Arriaga 2010). This pathogen is lethal for *Citrus* (Sapindales: Rutaceae) (da Graça 1991). Lemons (*Citrus limon* (L.) Burm.f.) and Mexican Key limes (*Citrus aurantifolia* Swingle) are exported to the U.S. from Colima which one of the most heavily HLB infested states in Mexico (Flores et al. 2010). Mexican Key limes are grown along the Pacific coast in the states of Colima, Michoacán, Guerrero, and Oaxaca. This cultivar is not considered by USDA APHIS to be a host for fruit fly pests (*Anastrepha* spp.; Diptera: Tephritidae) infesting this region and quarantine treatments for internal pests are not required. Other citrus species including oranges (*Citrus sinensis* (L.) Osbeck), sweet limes (*Citrus limettoides* Tanaka), mandarins (*Citrus reticulata* Blanco) and grapefruit (*Citrus × paradise* Macfad.) require postharvest treatments for fruit fly pests; however, the security screens and procedures for protecting the fruit after treatment are designed for fruit flies, which could allow entry of the smaller adult psyllids

Halbert et al (2010) showed that untreated oranges, shipped by truck from orchards in ACP infested and HLB infected locations to juicing plants in Florida transported Asian citrus psyllids in all loads they examined; with counts ranging from 31 to 268 psyllids per load. Of the 116 psyllids tested, 4 were positive and 9 were suspected of being infected by 'Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus'. The reports from the west coast states of Mexico, which export lemons and limes to packing houses in Texas, suggest to us that trucks of untreated citrus could provide a mode of entry for psyllids infected with HLB.

'Eureka' lemons and Mexican Key limes are not treated or waxed and Persian (sweet) limes (*Citrus latifolia* Tanaka) are fumigated but not waxed. These practices, plus the frequent contamination of load with other plant material are likely to allow adult psyllids to be shipped in loads of lemons and limes to the Texas packing houses. These fruit are classified in trade records (provided to us by the U. S. Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA) under the Harmonized Tariff Schedule (HTS) 0805.5020.00. According to these records, Mexico exported 22,338 metric tons (MT) of these fruits during 2008-2009 season, and 21,555 MT during the 2009-2010 harvest season mostly to the USA. During the 2009 season, the USDA Marketing Service recorded that 48,770,000 pounds (22,121,700 kg) (= 1,219 truckloads) of lemons and 709,380,000 pounds (321,769,355 kg) (= 17,734 truckloads) of limes and that during 2010, 50,520,000 pounds (22,915,487 kg) (=

1,260 truckloads) of lemons and 622,430,000 pounds (282,329,499 kg) (= 15,560 truckloads) of limes entered the Texas ports of entry. Post-harvest quarantine treatments are not required for the lemons. The lime cultivars were about 70% Persian limes, which are receive fumigation treatments for fruit flies, and 30% Mexican Key limes, which are not treated. Most of these shipments crossed into the USA at bridges in Pharr and Progresso, Texas, the citrus production zone of the Rio Grande Valley. Texas has been infested by ACP since 2001 (French et al. 2001) and as of the summer of 2011 no 'Candidatus Liberibacter asiaticus' infected trees or psyllids had been detected in Texas. South Texas has an area-wide program to manage psyllid populations. Arizona and California has had programs to eradicate outbreaks as they were detected. In January 2012 HLB was confirmed in San Juan, about 1.5 km from the Pharr International Bridge in Hidalgo County in Texas and in Apr 2012 an HLB infected tree was reported on private property in Los Angeles County, California.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experiments were conducted in three 223.5 × 156.2 × 152.4 cm controlled walk-in temperature and humidity chambers (Hotpack, SP Industries, Warminster, Pennsylvania) which had previously been used for tropical fruit storage experiments. Each chamber contained a cage (137.5 × 137.5 × 55.8 cm) with 6 sticky traps arranged with one trap on each end and 2 traps at the front and back sides. Prior to use the temperature and humidity systems were cleaned and calibrated under the maintenance contract. Each unit had controls and digital readouts of current, high and low humidity and temperature on a secure panel outside the door. The temperature was set at 24.4 °C (= 76 °F) and relative humidity at 40%. Temperature and humidity in each chamber were recorded at approximately 3 hour intervals during the working day (7:00 AM-4:00 PM) during the testing period. Psyllids for testing were collected from various host plants (mostly orange jasmine, *Murraya paniculata* (L.) which we maintained in screen cages. The colony cages were maintained in a glass greenhouse at 26 °C and about 80% RH. A total of 100 psyllids were placed in each cage on vegetation if present, otherwise on the bottom of the cage. Immediately after releasing psyllids, lights were extinguished, the doors were shut and sealed with duct tape around the edge of each door, and the control panel was locked. All tests were run for 48 h with no external lights. After the 48 h exposure, the 6 traps from each cage were removed and Asian citrus psyllids were counted. In addition, all live and dead psyllids in the cage were tabulated.

The commercial traps consisted of a sticky insert with a single light-emitting diode (LED) located in the center. This was mounted into a cardboard shallow container. The first models used in preliminary tests were labeled "Transtrops" provided by Alpha Scents (West Linn, Oregon) with which we performed preliminary testing for battery life and psyllid catching effectiveness. The box portion measured 32.5 cm wide  $\times$  20.5 cm high  $\times$  3 cm deep and the sticky insert sheet measured 30  $\times$  20 cm. A battery socket for 2 batteries (AA alkaline) was attached to the inside bottom of the trap. For our laboratory tests reported here, we used a second version smaller trap labeled "Trans Trap" having 22.5  $\times$  14  $\times$  3.5 cm box dimensions and a 20  $\times$  13.5 cm sticky panel. The battery socket was mounted on the right interior side of the box. Both trap boxes had lids with insertable tabs that could securely fasten the lid closed for transport to the lab or for shipping.

For our tests with the Trans Trap, we tested only the inserts and lighting system by removing the sticky card and battery mount from the box, and attaching the battery mount with batteries to the back of the card or directly to the side of the cage. The sticky panels were removed from the box and attached to the side frames of the cages with sticky tape in the first replicate, then with wire hooks in all following tests. Plant material tested included no plant material, a box of lemons, or a small nursery lime tree in each cage. The box of lemons was a commercial plastic field box, which typically contains about 18 kg (= 40 lb) of fruit. Lemons were harvested from the ARS orchard in Weslaco. The lime trees were purchased from nurseries and maintained in the plastic containers (2 gallon) and trimmed to about 90 cm tall (container + vegetation) and occupied about 25% of the cage.

#### Experiment 1

This experiment compared numbers of psyllids captured on traps, each with 0, 1, or 2 LED type lights, in cages containing no vegetation, a plastic field box of lemons, or a Mexican lime tree.

The traps at the ends of the cages each contained either unlit or contained a single LED. The back side of the cage had traps with either 2 or zero LED and the front side of the cage had traps with either 1 or 2 LED. In the first trial of Experiment 1 traps were attached to the sides of the cages with double sided sticky tape, in all subsequent trials traps were attached to the sides of the cages with metal hooks. For the 3 trap types in each cage, the positions were rotated clockwise by one position for each date replicate. The capture data were analyzed by SYSTAT 12 (2007), ANOVA procedure with total capture on each trap type as the dependent variable and plant material (box of lemons, lime tree, none) and trap type (1

light, 2 lights, no light) and the interaction (plant material  $\times$  trap type) as categorical factors. The experiments each with 3 chambers were replicated on 3 dates.

#### Experiment 2

This test compared trap capture of psyllids in a cage containing a field plastic box of 'Eureka' lemons. The 3 chambers used the same cages as experiment 1, but had identical plant material, and 2 of each trap type (1, 2, 0 LEDs). The experiments were performed in triplicate. Analysis was performed by the ANOVA procedure of SYSTAT 12 (2007) using the 3 trap types as categorical factors. This analysis compared trapping of ACP in traps with 3 levels of localized light in the same cage.

#### Experiment 3

This test compared trap capture of psyllids in the 3 cages with each containing the same plant material. In 3 replicates the cage contained a field plastic box of lemons and in 2 replicates the cage contained a Mexican lime tree. In all 5 replicates each cage had 6 identical traps each with either 0, 1, or 2 LEDs. The test was used to compare numbers of psyllids captured related LED numbers (total light in cage) from all the traps. Analysis was performed by the ANOVA procedure of SYSTAT 12 (2007) using the 3 trap types as categorical factors. This analysis compared total trapping among cages with the different total levels of light.

## RESULTS

The temperature controls in the chambers were set at 24.4 °C and maintained temperatures within 0.1 °C of this setting. Relative humidity was set at 40% but ranged from 31% to 60%. We could detect no temporal pattern in these fluctuations over the 48 h period, but we noted that the chambers with no plant material had consistently lower humidity, usually below 40%, than those with fruit or trees.

Results of the Experiment 1 are given in Table 1 for the concurrent comparison of 3 plant materials and 3 trap types. During these experiments, one trap containing 2 LEDs fell from the side of the Control (no plant material) and both traps with 2 LED lights fell in the cage with the Mexican lime tree in the first replication (Experiment 1-1). We could not determine when the traps fell but the LED's were still illuminated and the fallen traps collected some psyllids in both the cages. We performed ANOVA tests to determine the significance of the influence of plant material and numbers of LED per trap on numbers of captured psyllids. This analysis is shown at the bottom of

TABLE 1. NUMBERS OF PSYLLIDS TRAPPED IN SEALED, DARK CAGES PLACED IN ENVIRONMENTAL CHAMBERS CONCURRENTLY TESTING EFFECTS OF PLANT MATERIALS AND NUMBER OF LEDS PER TRAP. EACH CAGE CONTAINED 2 OF EACH TYPE OF TRAP. TRAPS WERE TESTED FOR 48 H WITH ABOUT 100 LIVE, UNSEXED ASIAN CITRUS PSYLLIDS PER CAGE.

Experiment	Date	Plant Material	Light Source (#LED)	Psyllids on trap	Psyllids live in cage	Psyllids dead in cage
1-1 Three materials 3 lights	02/15/11	Mexican Lime Tree	1	31	4	0
			2	24*		
		Box of Lemons	None	4		
			1	27	4	10
		No material	2	46		
			None	3		
		1	22	0	6	
		2	40**			
1-2 Three materials 3 lights	02/23/11	Mexican Lime Tree	None	4	27	10
			1	19		
		Box of Lemons	2	24		
			None	3		
		No material	1	22	0	40
			2	54		
		None	2			
		1	16	3	6	
		2	59			
1-3 Three materials 3 lights	05/02/11	Mexican Lime Tree	None	5	20	4
			1	19		
		Box of Lemons	2	54		
			None	4		
		No material	1	32	2	2
			2	62		
		None	1			
		1	26	0	3	
		2	72			
		None	5			

\* both traps with 2 LEDS fell off cage side; \*\*one 2 LED trap fell off cage side

Analysis of Variance

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F Ratio	P-value
Number of LEDS	9,094,296	2	4,547,148	56.604	< 0.001
Plant Material	332,519	2	166,259	2.070	0.155
LED x Plant	667,259	4	166,815	2.077	0.126
Error	1,446,000	18	80,333		



Table 1 and shows that the LED number per trap was significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) but the plant material and the plant material  $\times$  LED number interaction was not.

Experiment 2 for the repeated direct comparison of the numbers of LED per trap in competition among traps in the same cage is given in Table 2. In this series of experiments we had learned to attach the traps to the cage mesh fabric more securely and no traps fell. The performance of the traps as shown by the relative numbers of psyllids per trap was consistent over the tests. The single LED traps averaged 29.5 (SD 10.05) psyllids, traps with 2 LEDs averaged 54.83 (SD 10.11), and traps without lights averaged 5.17 (SD 1.94). This consistency is shown in the analysis at the bottom of Table 2 showing highly significant influence of the light number on the trap catches.

Experiment 3 tested cages with either a box of lemons or a lime tree in each cage with 6 traps of the same type so traps in each cage had the same level of light but different cages had different total levels of light. Table 3 shows that total numbers of psyllids on traps were highest for traps with 2 LEDs, then 1 LED and lowest for traps without LED lights. The numbers of psyllids on traps with lights exceeded those collected dead in the cage in both boxed lemon tests but trap capture was less than dead psyllids number for the no LED traps. However in the completely dark cages (Table 3, light source none) some psyllids ( $> 10$ ) were captured on the 6 traps with no lights. The analysis at the bottom of table 3 shows that the number of LED lights is a significant factor in psyllid capture rate, but there was no effect of type of plant material. This pattern agrees with experiments 1 and 2 (in which traps competed) and the lack of significance for plant material in psyllid capture shown in Table 1.

#### DISCUSSION

The 3 experiments demonstrated that the presence of light emitting diodes on the sticky board traps greatly increased numbers of ACP collected on traps. The results also showed that in the containers, the majority of psyllids moved to the traps in all 3 experiments, a much smaller proportion died in the cage, and in containers with adequate food (lime tree) a significant number of psyllids survived. These results are comparable to those of Hall and McCollum (2011) who found about 50% mortality ACP in cages with no host material after 2 days and much lower mortality in cages with fruit or leaves of a variety of different citrus species and cultivars.

The concurrent comparison of traps and plant material in experiment 1 showed that the plant material (or lack thereof) in the cage had little effect on numbers of psyllids trapped on any of the trap types. Experiment 1 also had a significant

effect of trap type despite the fact that the 2 LED traps fell in the first replicate. We did not know when the 2 traps fell on the lime tree cage or in the no material cage, but the 2 LED capture total was still much higher than the no-LED light trap capture indicating that either the traps fell near the end of the trial or were attractive while lying on the cage floor. The effects of light number in experiment 2 was clarified by using 2 different collections of psyllids and a total of 6 trials; and the 2 LED traps always captured the most psyllids and the traps with no lights captured the least.

In design of experiment 3 with each cage containing 6 traps with the same number of LEDs, each trap type was tested in a container with a different amount of total light. The no-LED trap cages were completely dark (or at least as dark as a transport container), and the 2 LED trap cages had twice (in total 12 LEDs) as much light as the 1 LED cage (in total 6 LEDs). Although the zero light cage caught the fewest psyllids in each trial, psyllids were apparently moving in the dark since all dark cages had more than 10 psyllids on the 6 traps. The traps and lights used in these tests were produced by a commercial supplier and their product contained a single white LED. These results showed that additional sensitivity is likely if more than one LED per trap were used. The commercial trap used the same yellow sticky card used in field sampling traps for psyllids, different colors of LEDs or sticky cards might have improved trapping rates.

Phototaxis as part of the orienting stimuli in Asian citrus psyllid is usually listed as an important factor in mating and host finding behavior (Patt & Setamou 2010; Wenninger & Hall 2007; Wenninger et al. 2009) and in other psyllid species (Samways 1977). Host recognition odors are probably strong stimuli (review in Patt & Setamou 2010) but in closed containers, such as our chambers tested here and in trailers used to transport commercial citrus with greater than 90% of the volume of the trailer packed with citrus, the air is likely to have been saturated with these odors. The failure of the type, or absence, of plant material to significantly influence trap catches suggests that these traps can be effective monitoring devices for detecting these psyllids in empty trucks, those with fruit, or those contaminated by plant debris or with leaves and stems attached to the fruit.

In all tests the numbers of psyllids on traps were higher than the numbers surviving after the tests, which could indicate a possible role of using light traps as a method to kill psyllids in transported fruit. However the rates of survival (Table 3) for either cage—each with a box of lemons or with a lime tree—were greater than 7% and as high as 45%. These survival (non-trapping) rates suggest that the trans trap, while reducing numbers, is not a solution for protection from transport and introduction of Asian citrus psyllids.

TABLE 2. TRAPPING TESTS IN SEALED, DARK ENVIRONMENTAL CHAMBERS. NUMBER OF PSYLLIDS CAPTURED IN CAGES CONTAINING FRESH HARVESTED LEMONS COMPARING NUMBERS OF PSYLLIDS CAPTURED ON TRAPS WITH EITHER 1, 2, OR 0 LEDS PER TRAP. EACH CAGE CONTAINED 2 OF EACH TYPE OF TRAP. TRAPS WERE TESTED FOR 48 H WITH ABOUT 100 LIVE, UNSEXED ASIAN CITRUS PSYLLIDS PER CAGE.

Experiment	Date	Plant Material	Light Source (#LED)	Psyllids on trap	Psyllids live in cage	Psyllids dead in cage
2-1 Trap competition	05/04/11	Box of Lemons	1	25	8	6
			2	47		
		Box of Lemons	None	4	1	6
			1	34		
			2	44		
			None	6		
2-2 Trap competition	05/09/11	Box of Lemons	1	24	5	24
			2	46		
		Box of Lemons	None	2	8	11
			1	33		
			2	65		
			None	7		
Analysis of Variance		Box of Lemons	1	45	1	20
			2	63		
		Box of Lemons	None	7	25	24
			1	16		
			2	64		
			None	5		
Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F Ratio	P-value	
Number of LED	7,401.333	2	3,700.667	53.624	<0.001	
Error	1,035.167	15	69.011			

TABLE 3. TRAPPING TESTS IN SEALED, DARK ENVIRONMENTAL CHAMBERS. NUMBER OF PSYLLIDS CAPTURED IN CAGES CONTAINING HOST MATERIAL, AND ONE TYPE OF TRAP (1, 2, OR 0 LEDS) WITH 6 TRAPS PER CAGE. TRAPS WERE TESTED FOR 48 H WITH ABOUT 100 LIVE, UNSEXED ASIAN CITRUS PSYLLIDS PER CAGE.

Experiment-replicate	Date	Plant Material	Light Source (#LED)	Psyllids on traps	Psyllids live in cage	Psyllids dead in cage	Percent Psyllids Survival
3-1 same lights/cage	02/28/11	Box of Lemons	1	71	0	10	0.00
		Box of Lemons	2	71	2	16	2.25
		Box of Lemons	None	16	5	53	6.76
3-2 same lights/cage	03/02/11	Box of Lemons	1	60	7	33	7.00
		Box of Lemons	2	87	11	9	10.28
		Box of Lemons	None	22	9	65	9.38
3-3 same lights/cage	05/17/11	Box of Lemons	1	106	3	4	2.65
		Box of Lemons	2	96	6	12	5.26
		Box of Lemons	None	29	35	21	41.18
4-1 same lights/cage	03/07/11	Lime Tree	1	39	26	18	31.33
		Lime Tree	2	65	17	10	18.48
		Lime Tree	None	13	23	50	26.74
4-2 same lights/cage	03/09/11	Lime Tree	1	68	5	32	4.76
		Lime Tree	2	79	5	23	4.67
		Lime Tree	None	35	22	20	28.57

Analysis of Variance-Psyllids on Traps

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Number of LED	8,072.867	2	4,036.433	15.660	0.001
Plant Material	532.900	1	532.900	2.067	0.184
LED x Plant	443.267	2	221.633	0.860	0.455
Error	2,319.833	9	257.759		

Analysis of Variance-Percent Psyllids Survive

Source	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Number of LED	608.126	2	304.063	2.203	0.166
Plant Material	336.903	1	336.903	2.441	0.153
LED x Plant	52.881	2	26.440	0.192	0.829
Error	1,242.191	9	138.021		



## CONCLUSIONS

Trapping Asian citrus psyllids in a closed dark container indicated several patterns and conclusions concerning their activity. In the completely dark cage, psyllids were captured on traps indicating that they were moving and encountering the traps. Light from light emitting diodes (LEDs) greatly increased the rates of trap capture. In cages containing traps with 0, 1, or 2 diodes, those with the most diodes captured the most psyllids, indicating that psyllids responded to the localized intense light. In cages with different traps all containing the same number of LEDs, total trap capture was greatest in cages with the most LEDs, but some psyllids were trapped in cages with traps having no lights. Presence of plant material increased psyllid survival but some psyllids survived and were trapped in cages with neither fruit nor plant foliage.

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## Light Traps in Shipping Containers: A New Tool for the Early Detection of Insect Alien Species

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### Abstract

Insects are one of the most successful groups of invasive species, and the number of new introductions has been increasing in the last decades. Insect invasions are affected mainly by the increase in international trade, as most of them travel across the world inside shipping containers. The effectiveness of sticky light traps was tested for the interception of alien pests inside the containers. The tested hypotheses were that light traps have a valuable broad-spectrum attraction and their trapping performance differs between empty or loaded containers. The optimal trap density in a container was also investigated. Trapping tests were conducted on four model species: *Cadra cautella* Walker (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae), *Drosophila melanogaster* Meigen (Diptera: Drosophilidae), *Sitophilus zeamais* Motschulsky, and *Ips typographus* L. (Coleoptera: Curculionidae). Insects were released within a standard shipping container, in either empty or loaded conditions, where sticky light traps were deployed for 15 h. Traps were tested with light on (activated) or off (control). Activated traps captured more Lepidoptera and Diptera than control ones, with no differences between empty and loaded container. Instead, Coleoptera were rarely caught, probably because of their ability to escape from traps. Results show that higher trap density in the container (from 1 to 8) increases the probability of insect capture. In conclusion, positive results on *C. cautella* and *D. melanogaster* suggest a possible application of sticky light traps against some small Lepidoptera and Diptera species flying in containers and infesting seeds, grains, and fruits, while traps need improvement for application against beetles.

**Key words:** early warning, biological invasion, survey, innovative tool, interception

Arthropods are one of the most successful groups of invasive species in the world and the number of new introductions is increasing worldwide (Seebens et al. 2018). In Europe, the number of new species introduced annually is also increasing exponentially (Hulme 2009). Between 2000 and 2008, an average of 19.6 alien species have been established in Europe every year, while 10.9 were introduced between 1950 and 1974 (Roques 2010). In 2009, alien insects registered in Europe were about 1,300 species (Roques et al. 2009), but only 10 yr later, there were more than 3,000 non-native species of terrestrial invertebrates in Europe, and about 2,500 of these were insects (European Commission 2019). Biological invasions of arthropods are mainly and positively affected by the increase in speed and volume of international trade (Levine and D'Antonio 2003, Westphal et al. 2008, Hulme 2009) and, on a global scale, the historical accumulation curves of alien species introductions show an increasing trend (Brockerhoff and Liebhold 2017, Seebens et al. 2017). Furthermore, global warming assures insect survival also for tropical species arriving in temperate regions and affects their chances of settling permanently (Walther et al. 2009).

ISO standard shipping containers are largely used in international trade and are now considered one of the main drivers of economic globalization in the 20th century (Bernhofen et al. 2016). Containers on ships carry about 90% of global trade (IMO 2012). In the last 40 years, world maritime trade volumes tripled, and in 2015, they reached about 10 billion tons per year (UNCTAD 2016). Global containerized trade increased annually by 6.4% in 2015–2017, and future previsions for seaborne trade are still positive (UNCTAD 2018). With such a large volume of commodities transported in containers all around the world, even minimal percentages of container contamination can represent a serious risk of introductions of new alien pests. In this respect, shipping containers are well-known to easily lead to the introduction of alien species in new territories. For instance, in 1,174 containers inspected in Australia in the period between February and August 1996, more than 7,400 insects were found, belonging to 18 orders and at least 114 families, and 19% of them were still alive (Stanaway et al. 2001). In New Zealand, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry conducted a survey of about 11,200 containers arriving at four of their ports in 2001/2002. Live

insects, mainly belonged to Coleoptera, Psocoptera, Hymenoptera, and Hemiptera orders were found in 4.1% of loaded containers and in 3.6% of empty ones (MAF 2003). In general, the insect orders most commonly found in containers are Coleoptera, Diptera, and Lepidoptera, and they can be found in different life stages, from eggs to adults (Meurisse et al. 2019).

According to the European Council Directive, phytosanitary inspectors of the National Plant Protection Organizations have to check all cargos arriving from non-UE countries or suspected to contain quarantine pests. Nevertheless, no common and optimal survey strategy between all European member states exists yet (Surkov et al. 2008). Moreover, inspectors can sample only a small volume of total consignments of commodities arriving in the international ports (Everett 2000, Surkov et al. 2008). This problem does not just affect Europe; e.g., it is estimated that only 2% of all maritime cargos entering the United States is inspected, and at most 54% of insect species are detected (Work et al. 2005). Inspectors often use historical records from the interception databases to select shipments to be inspected, but this procedure reduces the number and types of new routes (pathways) checked, increasing the risk of new entries (Bacon et al. 2012). For example, most of the main insect alien species entering Australia in 1986–2005 went unnoticed by phytosanitary controls in the points-of-entry (Caley et al. 2015).

Given the wide variety of alien insects that can easily be introduced in new areas through international trade and the gaps occurring in border phytosanitary controls, new early-detection tools helping inspectors' surveillance are badly needed. The development of nonspecific broad-spectrum traps to be used within shipping containers during the cargo travel could be a simple and effective way for prompt early detection of alien species at the points-of-entry. Species captured during travel, in fact, can help to determine in advance if the load is infested, to direct most efforts only on the lots deemed as riskier. The aim of this study was to test the effectiveness of a sticky light trap to capture different orders of insect pests inside shipping containers. We wanted to verify 1) if light could be an effective broad-spectrum attractant for pests belonging to different insect orders, and 2) if container status (empty or loaded with goods) affects the number of captures. We also wanted to investigate if there was an optimal traps density to maximize captures.

## Materials and Methods

### Tested Traps

The experimental trials were conducted using sticky light traps (TransTrap, Alpha Scents Inc., West Linn, OR) developed to capture pests potentially occurring inside shipping containers (Mangan and Chapa 2013). This trap model consists of a carton box (15 × 23 × 4 cm) made attractive to flying and walking insects by an LED (Light Emitting Diode) light powered by a long-life AA battery. These LEDs emit light that have two peaks, the main at 465 nm (indigo) and a second more broadband included between 525 and 600 nm (between green and yellow) (Alpha Scents Inc., personal communication 2020). The light is positioned in the center of a removable yellow sticky card fixed to the bottom of the box. In our experiment a second yellow sticky card was applied, attached to the inside of the box lid to increase the sticky surface and trap performance (Fig. 1). This trap model is simple to use, easily manageable, potentially attractive to a large number of different insect species, and does not require additional lures.

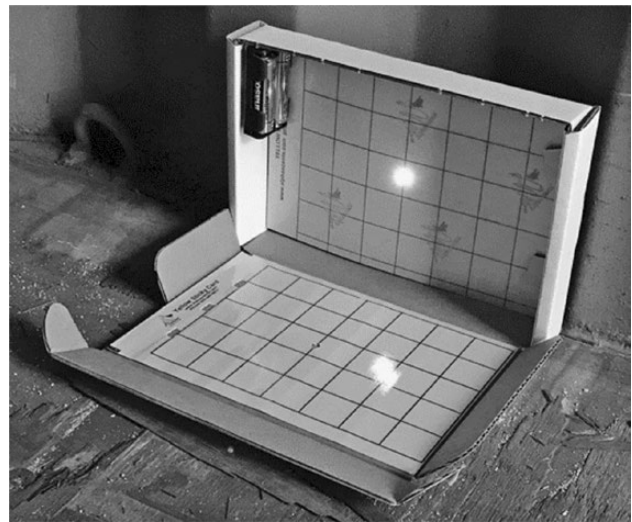


Fig. 1. The trap used for the experiment.

### Model Species

The tests were conducted on four model species, belonging to three different orders of insects. The almond moth, *Cadra cautella* Walker (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae), is a stored food products pest with larvae developing on cereal grains and flour, beans and other dried seeds and fruits (Sedlacek et al. 1995). *Drosophila melanogaster* Meigen (Diptera: Drosophilidae), is a common insect associated with fruits and vegetables (Mallis 1954, Birmingham et al. 2011). The maize weevil, *Sitophilus zeamais* Motschulsky (Coleoptera: Curculionidae), is considered one of the major pests of stored maize (Erenso and Berhe 2016, Nwosu 2018). The European spruce bark beetle, *Ips typographus* L. (Coleoptera: Curculionidae, Scolytinae), is the main European spruce pest developing in stressed or recently dead trees (Wermelinger 2004), and travels in containers used for the international spruce timber trade. These model species were chosen because beetles (Coleoptera), flies (Diptera) and moths (Lepidoptera) are the most common insect orders found inside shipping containers used in international trade (Meurisse et al. 2019).

*Ips typographus* adults were captured by Theysohn slot-traps (Salzgitter, Germany) set up in clear-cut areas of natural spruce forests of central Alps (Trentino, Italy) infested in 2019. Traps were installed at about 15–20 m from the forest edge, and baited with pheromone dispensers specific to *I. typographus* (Superwood Serbia, Italy). Traps were checked and emptied every second day, and all trapped adults of *I. typographus* were stored in darkness at +4°C in plastic jars containing wet paper and small pieces of spruce bark. The other species (*Cadra cautella*, *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Sitophilus zeamais*) were bought from a company (Entostudio s.r.l., Padua, Italy) specialized in rearing insects of various species and for different uses. Adults of *Cadra cautella* were bred in 5-liter glass jars measuring 16 cm in diameter and 25 cm in height. The jars were positioned upside down with the opening covered of a 2 mm mesh net. The jar was placed above a transparent plastic cup (12 cm in diameter and 6 cm in height) to collect the eggs. These eggs were moved daily into transparent plastic cup (11 cm in diameter and 9 cm in height) that contained a mixture of wheat and corn flour, oat, bran, dry fruit, glycerol, honey and yeast, where larvae can develop. Adults who emerged in these boxes were taken and put inside glass jars. The insects were reared at 25 ± 1°C and 50 ± 5% R.H. The exposure to light lasted 12 h during 24 h and the light intensity was

300 lux at 6,000 K. Adults of *Sitophilus zeamais* were bred in plastic cups measuring 12 cm in diameter and 6 cm in height, closed by a fine net, at  $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  and  $50 \pm 5\%$  RH. The photoperiod lasted 12 h at a solar spectrum artificial light of 6,000 K and 300 lux intensity. Insects were fed with grain. The colony originated in 2014 with insects collected in the field. Adults of *Drosophila melanogaster* were bred in BugDorme cages measuring  $32.5 \times 32.5 \times 32.5$  cm. The food and oviposition substrate consisted of a mixture of water, pieces of potatoes and fruit, powdered milk and sugar. The insects were reared at  $25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  and  $50 \pm 5\%$  of RH. The photoperiod lasted 12 h at a solar spectrum artificial light of 6,000 K and 300 lux intensity.

All insects were tested in the trials only once and within 2 d from their emergence (or trapping) to ensure the highest vitality. We used insects without discriminating between males and females and assuming a sex-ratio 1:1. The reared species *C. cautella*, *D. melanogaster*, and *S. zeamais* reproduce sexually, producing a sex-balanced offspring (Santos et al. 1994, Danho et al. 2002, Soffan et al. 2012). An aggregation pheromone was used to capture *I. typographus*, which attracts both males and females with a sex-ratio slightly unbalanced in favor of females (Faccoli and Buffo 2004).

### Trials in Container

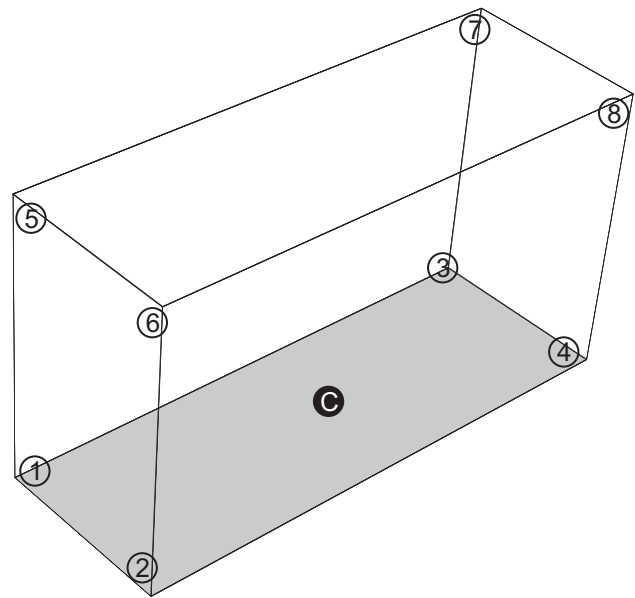
A blue ISO standard shipping container 1CC (interior size: 5.8 m length, 2.3 m wide, 2.3 m height) with a volume of  $32 \text{ m}^3$  (ISO-668 2013) was used for the experiments. The container was placed in a square of the Agripolis Campus, University of Padua (Legnaro, Italy), without any shelter from sun and rain. Specific tests were then conducted between June and August 2019 with the container both empty and loaded.

**Empty container.** Each model species was tested singly through seven tests, on seven consecutive days. In each test 50 individuals per species were released inside the container provided with two sticky traps: one with the light on (activated trap) and the other with the light off (control trap). Insects were put inside a plastic cup with a lid resting on the top and placed at the bottom of the container. With a rope tied to the cup and stretched to the door of the container, it was possible to overturn the cup, releasing the insects and closing the container doors before they escaped. The two traps were placed in corners of the door side of the container, on the floor. Each test, i.e., each repetition, lasted about 15 h (from 6:00 p.m. to 9:00 a.m.). At the end of each daily trial, before starting a new one, we ventilated the container for many hours and we made sure no survivor was left inside.

**Loaded container.** The same tests as those in the empty container were conducted in containers filled with empty cardboard boxes simulating a cargo. In this second group of tests only *C. cautella* and *D. melanogaster* were used (seven tests per species with 50 individuals released per species). We verified that the *S. zeamais* were able to escape the traps and decided not to use them in the following tests, while the *I. typographus* were not used because we did not have enough specimens. Each test lasted about 15 h (from 6:00 p.m. to 9:00 a.m.).

### Optimal Traps Density

Optimal trap number maximizing insect catches in the container was also tested in September, on one of the two species that had recorded the best number of catches in previous tests. The captures of *C. cautella* were recorded in loaded containers with four different trap densities, using one, two, four, or eight traps set up in the same container (Fig. 2). For each trap density, five tests of 50 insects each were conducted on five consecutive days. Each test lasted about 15 h, with an unlit trap used as a control.



**Fig. 2.** Position of the traps inside the container (doors were on the left side). One-trap trial: 1. Two-traps trials: 1–2. Four-traps trials: 1–4. Eight-traps trials: 1–8. C is the control trap, always present.

During each test in the container, air temperature was recorded every 15 min with three data loggers (RC-5 model, Elitech LTD, London, UK) one placed outside and two inside the container, one on the bottom and one at the top.

### Escape Test

After the first tests on *S. zeamais* in the empty container, given the few specimens captured, the hypothesis was tested that the insects could escape from the trap. Therefore, 10 living *S. zeamais* were placed in each of five traps, marking the insect positions on the sticky card with a circle. Two tests were conducted at 16 and at  $26^\circ\text{C}$  constant temperature inside climatic chambers. After 18 h traps were checked, looking for number and position of the insects placed on the sticky card.

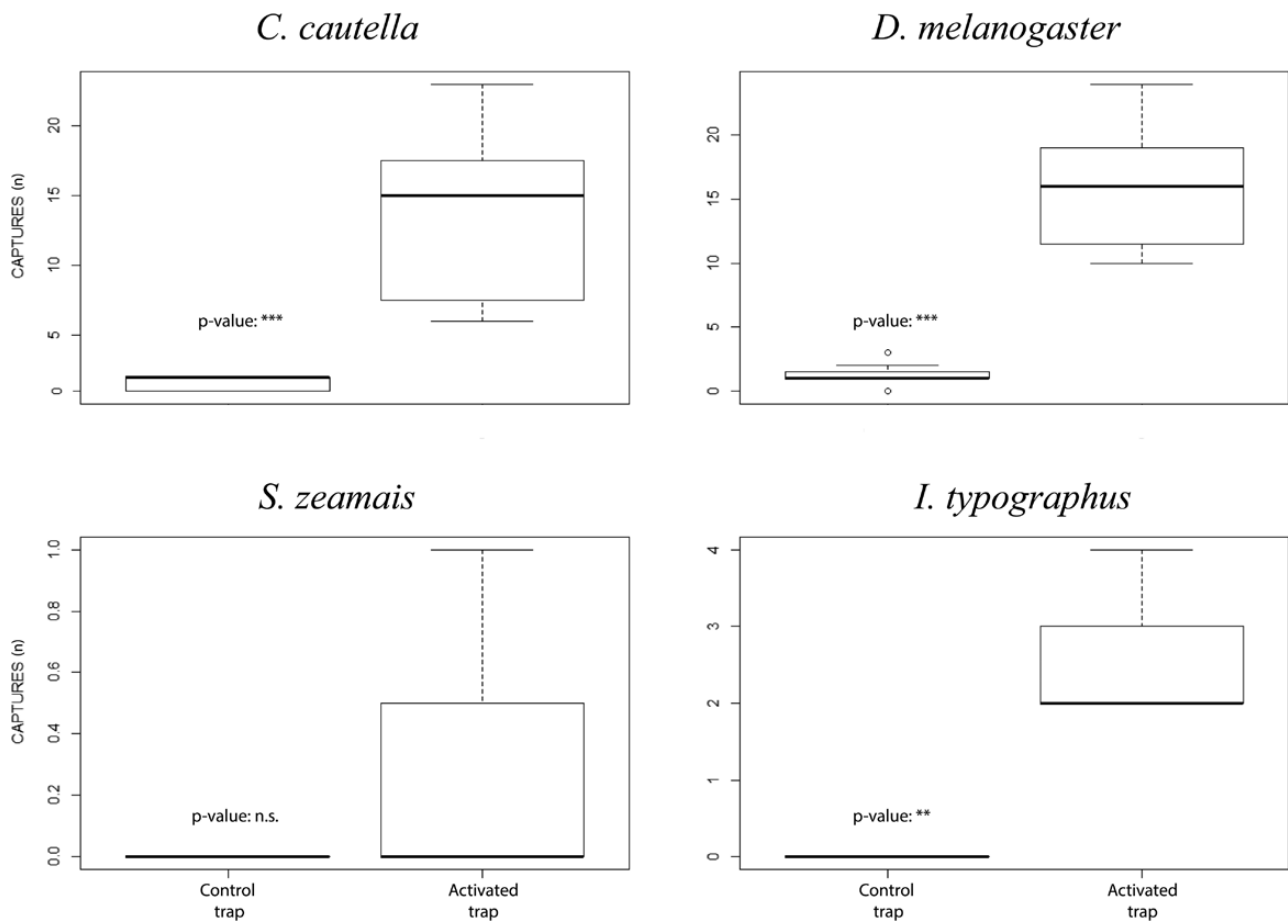
### Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted using R software, version 3.6.1 (R Core Team 2019). Mean catches of *C. cautella* and *D. melanogaster* with activated and control traps were compared using Poisson mixed-effect model, with trap type (activated or control) as fixed variable and tests as random variable. The model was fitted using the ‘glmer’ function in the lme4 package (Bates et al. 2015). For *S. zeamais* and *I. typographus*, for which the use of this model was impossible because catches in control traps were nil, the Wilcoxon test was therefore applied using the ‘wilcox.test’ function in the stat package (R Core Team 2019). Catches made with activated traps in the empty and loaded container were also compared for each single species using Poisson mixed-effect model and, in this case, the container status (empty or loaded) was the fixed variable while the tests were the random variable.

## Results

### Tests in Empty Container

Activated traps captured significantly more individuals of *C. cautella* ( $P < 0.001$ ,  $z$ -value = 6.68) (Fig. 3), *D. melanogaster* ( $P < 0.001$ ,



**Fig. 3.** Catches ( $\pm$ SEM) of activated and control traps for the four model species tested in the empty container. Significant results are displayed within each box (\*\* $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ ).

$z$ -value = 7.27) (Fig. 3), and *I. typographus* ( $P < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 3) than control traps, while for *S. zeamais* activated and control traps showed similar captures ( $P = 0.173$ ), with only a very few specimens in activated traps and nil in control ones (Fig. 3). No abnormal temperature trends were found during the tests, which remained similar during each repetition. The average temperatures recorded during the trials inside the container ranged between 20 and 25°C, with no significant differences between tests.

#### Tests in Loaded Container

Activated traps captured significantly more individuals than control traps, for both *C. cautella* ( $P < 0.001$ ,  $z$ -value = 5.27) (Fig. 4) and *D. melanogaster* ( $P < 0.001$ ,  $z$ -value = 6.81) (Fig. 4). Furthermore, catches of the activated traps were similar in both the empty and loaded container, with no significant differences for either *C. cautella* ( $P = 0.237$ ,  $z$ -value = 1.18) (Fig. 5) or *D. melanogaster* ( $P = 0.424$ ,  $z$ -value = 0.80) (Fig. 5). Average temperatures recorded during the trials inside the container were about 22°C, with no significant differences between tests.

#### Optimal Trap Density

Densities of one, two, and four activated traps per container showed mean catches with no significant differences ( $P = 0.556$ ), whereas with eight traps per container the number of trapped insects more than doubled. Captures of the control traps were not affected by trap density, although they were negatively correlated with captures

in the activated traps ( $P < 0.01$ ). The catching trend of the activated traps increases with trap density, but starts to flatten with eight traps (Fig. 6). The average temperatures recorded during the trials inside the container were around 19–25°C, with no significant differences between tests.

#### Escape Test

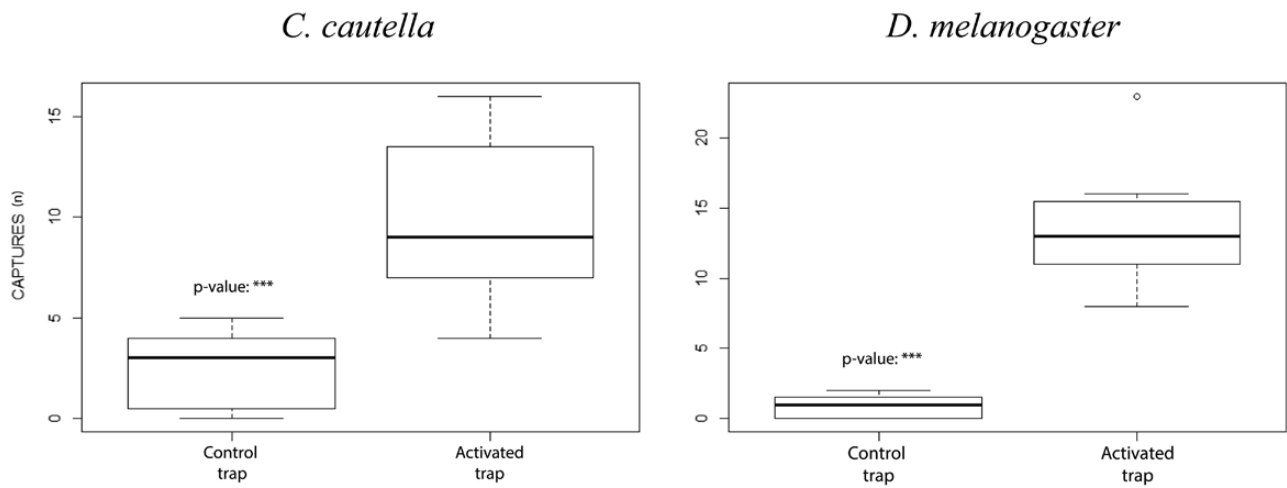
Considering the two temperatures separately, the mean proportion of *S. zeamais* escaped from sticky cards were 42 and 62%, for trials at 16 and 26°C, respectively.

#### Discussion

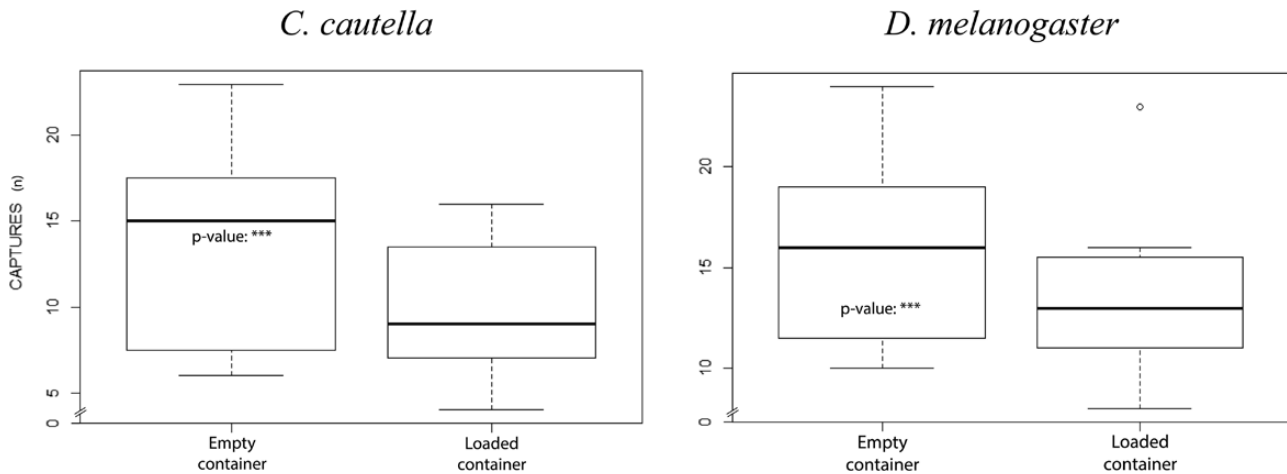
Results show that the tested trap model is effective in catching *C. cautella* and *D. melanogaster*, in both empty and loaded containers. For Coleoptera, instead, and in particular for *S. zeamais*, results are not satisfactory as beetles are able to escape from the sticky card of the trap.

Although results concern only one model species for each tested order, we can assume that similar results would be expected for other species and genera belonging to the same family and having similar size and behavior. In fact, several researches demonstrate the effectiveness of light as an attractant both for Pyralidae (Kanno et al. 1985, Loganathan et al. 2001, Sambaraju and Phillips 2008) and other Lepidoptera families like Crambidae (Keszthelyi and Sáringer 2003, Haihua et al. 2016), and Hyblaeidae (Loganathan et al.

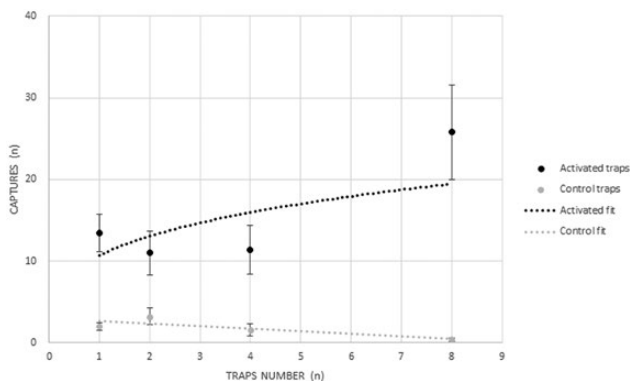




**Fig. 4.** Catches ( $\pm$ SEM) of activated and control traps for the two model species in the loaded container. Significant results are displayed within each box (\*\*\*)  $P < 0.001$ .



**Fig. 5.** Catches ( $\pm$ SEM) of activated traps for the two model species in empty and loaded container. There are no significant differences.



**Fig. 6.** Captures of *C. cautella* recorded in each test with increasing trap density.

2001). Light traps are already widely used to capture Diptera like Chironomidae (van Grunsven et al. 2014), Culicidae (Burkett et al. 1998, Silva et al. 2019b), Psychodidae Phlebotominae (Cohnstaedt et al. 2008, da Silva et al. 2019a), and other 14 families (Ndengué et al. 2019). Moreover, this light trap has already been tested on

other orders, like *Diaphorina citri* (Hemiptera: Liviidae) (Mangan and Chapa 2013).

Beetles show different results. Although the captures of *I. typographus* in activated traps were very low (only 5% of released insects were captured) they were significantly higher than those recorded in the control traps (no insect). Positive light-responses were also recorded in other scolytines where ethanol baited traps activated with green or UV light are more attractive to *Xylosandrus crassiusculus* than normal traps (Gorzlancyk et al. 2013, 2014). *Sitophilus zeamais*, lastly, shows no significant difference between activated and control traps, with only two insects trapped by activated ones and no capture in control traps over a total of seven replicates (i.e., 350 insects). The low trapping performance of beetles is probably related to the ability of these insects to escape from the traps, verified by the appropriate test showing that 42 and 62% of *S. zeamais* escape from sticky cards at 16 and 26°C, respectively. In this context, therefore, it is not clear if the low beetle captures are related to a non-attraction to the light or to their ability to escape. However, light traps are already used for catching beetles, like Tenebrionidae (Duehl et al. 2011), or Curculionidae, Pselaphidae, Silvanidae and other 33 families (Ndengué et al. 2019), and the attractiveness of light—in particular red wave-length (625 nm)—has



also been verified for *S. zeamais* in a double-choice test (Park and Lee 2017). The difference between moths/flies and beetles is likely due to their landing strategies. Moths and flies are glued by the wings whereas beetles are somewhat able to avoid wing contact and walk away. To check if the reduce trap performance in catching beetles is related to the ability of these insects to escape from traps, more powerful glues should be tested or the sticky card could be sprayed with contact insecticides to prevent insect's escape after their capture.

It was very difficult to check what happened to insects not captured by traps. We suppose that some of them died during the test, and some others remained alive but undetectable inside the container, which was ventilated and cleaned before running a new test.

In our experiment, the container status (empty or loaded) does not affect the number of captures of the light sticky trap. Trials conducted in the empty container recorded about 27 and 32% of captures versus 21 and 28% in the loaded container for Lepidoptera and Diptera respectively, with no significant differences. This is one of the most interesting results from this study, suggesting the useful application of the light sticky trap also in containers loaded with commodities and, hence, exposed to a major risk of movement and introduction of alien species across countries and continents.

Tests conducted on trap density in the container show that, although using eight traps (the highest number of traps during this study), the rarefaction curve built on the number of catches per number of traps has not yet reached flattening. So, the more traps that are used the more insects would be expected to be captured. However, the aim of the light sticky trap is not to capture as many insects as possible, but to capture the maximum number of alien species potentially traveling inside the container. In this way, traps could provide information on the status of cargo infestations and allow pre-delivery quarantine measures to prevent the introduction of new alien species in non-native countries. On the other hand, increasing the number of traps also increases the probability of catching species present in low numbers. However, placing a large number of traps inside a container loaded with cargo could be problematic logistically, and considerably increase the survey costs. In this respect, results show that the mean number of captures is similar among one, two, and four traps per container. For this reason, one or two traps per container seems to be a sufficiently high number to discover small and flying alien species traveling with the commodities.

This trap technology needs some improvement and more extensive testing, but the preliminary results are very encouraging, especially for small species of Diptera and Lepidoptera infesting seeds, grains, and fruits exported internationally in containers. Although in our tests only a white LED lamp was used, the type of light used to activate the trap could be an important variable to test, as the spectral composition is important to determine the attractiveness of the light to insects (van Grunsven et al. 2014). Insects sensitivity to UV, blue, and green light spectrum is well-known (Briscoe and Chittka 2001, Cohnstaedt et al. 2008) and, in some cases, also to red light (Peitsch et al. 1992, Park and Lee 2017). In particular, different studies demonstrate the major effectiveness of UV light for catching many different insect species (van Grunsven et al. 2014, Infusino et al. 2017). For example, insects of about 480 species belonging to 10 different orders were captured in a survey conducted in South Korea using UV light (Thein and Choi 2016).

Finally, new tests will be required during real shipments. Tests conducted up to now were in controlled conditions, which simulated reality. However, it is necessary to verify the effective performance of these traps in real situations, where weather, environmental conditions and species involved can be very different from those tested in our trials. The duration of the shipment can also play a key role; we

successfully used the light for 1 mo without interruption, so we are pretty sure that this trap is suitable for prolonged use in a container during shipment. In conclusion, light traps set up in containers represent a potentially effective tool for border surveillance and early detection against biological invasions. This study represents only a first preliminary work dealing with the early detection of alien species potentially traveling with commodities in containers. Further and deeper tests about light source and glue type are needed to improve trapping performance and the potential applications of this novel tool of pest interception.

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