A Summary of Invasive Species Risk Assessments, and Proposed and Existing Assessment Frameworks

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Introduction

Today’s extensive global trade and travel ensure that biogeographic barriers no longer function at keeping distinct flora and fauna separate between continents (Lowe et al. 2000; Mooney and Hobbs 2000). As a result, foreign species have the ability to become more vagile, prolific, and able to broaden distribution ranges that threaten integrity of native ecosystems. Foreign species are referred to by many terms, most common of which are alien, introduced, non-native, exotic, and invasive (Mack et al. 2000). An introduced species does not necessarily denote an invasive species, but the path from introduced to invader often involves a lag phase where an introduced species may go undetected, followed by a period of rapid growth and range expansion (Mack et al. 2000). An invasive species, as defined by the National Invasive Species Council (2006) is a species that is nonnative to the ecosystem under consideration and whose introduction causes or is likely to cause economic or environmental harm or harm to human health.

An estimated 10-20% of the vast number of introduced species that arrive at new locales are purported to become invasive (Williamson 1996, Arriaga et al. 2004). There are over 50,000 invasive species recognized in the United States alone, some of which are responsible for a wide range of problems from ecological damage to public health concerns, and often incur exceptionally high economic losses (Pimental et al. 2005, Williams and Grosholz 2008). Invasive species often undergo rapid exponential growth usurping space and resources vital for native species survival (Mack et al 2000). With over 21,000 threatened species in the world (IUCN Red List 2013) and 1,529 in the US (FWS 2014), a large proportion of species that are listed as threatened or endangered are considered to be at risk primarily because of impacts of invasive species (Wilcove et al. 1998, Pimental et al. 2005).

Invaders can drastically change food webs, alter hydrological systems, and affect ecosystem structure (Parker et al. 1999, Mooney and Hobbs 2000). Agricultural, forestry, and fishing industries are affected by invasive species in the form of pathogens and pests that reduce species health thereby diminishing yield at high costs (Ricciardi and Rasmussen 1999, Chornesky et al. 2005). A multitude of diseases are also brought in by invasive species and cross all taxa affecting plants, animals, and humans (Jenkins et al. 2007, Skerratt et al. 2007, Schleier et al. 2008, CDFA 2014). Combined detrimental effects that invasive species have had on the system require rigorous detection and enforcement to prevent further invasive species from becoming established and causing irreparable damage to ecosystems.

Prevention is always the best and least costly method of control and keeps an ecosystem free of invasive species (Leung et al. 2002, Rodgers, Figure 1). Once an introduced species is allowed to enter into a new area, small populations can begin to form in localized areas. At this stage, eradication, potential to remove all individuals from infested areas is still possible with time and effort. During the containment phase, an invasive species has rapidly reproduced and spread to large areas exceeding the possibility of eradication and increasing costly efforts must focus on
limiting boundaries of expansion. Beyond containment, a species has become widespread and abundant and efforts can only hope to curtail further population growth through management and to protect valued assets. Protection and management is the most expensive form of control and involves continual time investment (Rodgers, Figure 1). During the invasion process, there are important factors that affect probabilities at each stage. Socio-economic factors are proposed to be important at early stage of importation, release and/or escape; biogeographical and ecological factors affect the establishment stage. For invasion success, ecological and evolutionary factors such as ability to spread fast and having economic or ecological consequences are vital (Williamson 2006). There are stage-specific problems and challenges in the process of invasion, but precluding introduction of nonnative species into a system is the first step toward protecting native biodiversity and maintaining ecosystem integrity (Finnoff et al. 2007). Methods developed to target points of entry for incoming species are needed for prevention of invasive species to be effective. Simultaneously, tools to evaluate and identify potential invasive species, as well as proposed areas of spread will need to be applied at initial stages of prevention (Kareiva 1996, Byers et al. 2002). Australia and New Zealand provide good models for shifting management emphasis from costly eradication and control programs to proactive prevention (Williams and Grosholz 2008).

Many live animals are intentionally and legally imported annually into the US, and governed by federal agencies. US Department of Agriculture is responsible for wildlife imports that pose risks to livestock and plants, Center for Disease Control has authority over human disease vectors, and US Fish and Wildlife Service is responsible for “injurious” wildlife listed under the Lacey Act (1900). Lacey Act is the country’s oldest wildlife protection statute instated in 1900 and amended in 2008 to reinforce state, federal, tribal, and international wildlife protection laws and requires wildlife shipments to be accurately labelled and illegal trafficking to be persecuted. Illegal trade includes live specimens and wildlife parts (feathers, eggs, skins, horns, etc.,) that are often mislabeled or concealed and transported commercially or by individuals. This illegal wildlife trade is continuously fueled by collectors and dealers willing to pay exorbitant prices to sustain the market (Anderson 1995). In addition to Lacey Act, several federal statutes prohibit trade of protected wildlife and wildlife parts, including Endangered Species Act (1973), and the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES 1993). Other statutes include, but are not limited to Migratory Bird Treaty Act (1988), Marine Mammal Protection Act (1988, 1993), and African Elephant Conservation Act (1988, 1993) prohibit specific wildlife trade and impose penalties for violations.

Despite statutes and regulations, the greatest challenge to wildlife protection has been lack of coherent policies to address species trade, lack of implementation of regulations, inadequate funding for research and management, and absence of a screening process that accounts for cross-border wildlife trade (Simberloff et al. 2005, Jenkins et al. 2007). As such the “broken screens” of inefficient regulations and lack of implementation allow for a vast majority of non-
native species to enter the US unchecked at borders, or checked and permitted without cause (Jenkins et al. 2007). Illegal wildlife trade contributes to decline of global biodiversity, is characterized by high mortality rates of live specimens, aids in transmission of disease, and introduction of injurious pest species (Anderson 1995). To effectively combat these growing issues, wildlife trade must be monitored and risk assessments evaluating threats posed by new species need to be implemented. Risk assessment explores characteristics of a species to determine threats and potential for invading new areas (Burgman et al 1993); and provides necessary information for proper regulations (Ruesink et al. 1995), however, risk assessments can only be implemented at entry stage of invasion (Andersen et al 2004, Rodgers, Fig. 1). Risk of spread can be assessed but it is more strategic to be able to prevent a potential invasion instead of planning how to manage an established invasion (NISC 2003, Finnoff et al. 2007). Risk assessment is an objective evaluation that forces one to think of unintended effects of a species before being persuaded by its potential benefits (i.e., beauty, profit) (Ruesink et al. 1995). Consequently, there may be substantial utility to adopting a policy that keeps all nonnative species out of the country until they have been evaluated and are demonstrated to be safe (Ruesink et al. 1995).

In a first effort of its kind, the complete list of US animal imports were screened using a global database search to identify risky species. Consortium on Conservation Medicine and Defenders of Wildlife identified 2,241 nonnative animal imports using US Fish and Wildlife Service data from 2000 to 2004 and evaluated each species based on known threats from other countries (Jenkins et al. 2007). Collaborating scientists agreed that the single best predictor of invasiveness of a nonnative species in a given location is if it already has invaded somewhere else (Reusink et al. 1995, Jenkins et al. 2007). Of identified species, reptiles (N = 799), birds (N = 653), and invertebrates (N = 579) comprised the largest proportion of species imports, but amphibians were the most imported animal with over 23,780,548 individuals imported during the five year period. Several animals were only identified to class level (N = 340) or could not be reviewed because of lack of information, but 13% of all imports were termed “risky species” (Jenkins et al. 2007). Though a “coarse screening” process, this report provided a useful tool for evaluating species before they are permitted for import into the US. Here, we review history of risk assessments and summarize proposed and implemented methods for evaluating threats presented by a novel species.

History

Ecological risk assessments originated with inception of National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) of 1969 which was designed to address public concern regarding environmental degradation. NEPA required federal agencies to conduct environmental impact assessments, and established the Council on Environmental Quality, but despite original objectives, NEPA produced a series of incomplete, outdated reports that were largely not peer-reviewed raising
concerns about scientific credibility of NEPA’s assessments (Schindler 1976). Primary concern in integrating ecological risk assessment into NEPA’s process was that ecological risk assessments would merely become a new name for traditional environmental impact assessments (Schindler 1976, Bartell 1998). While ecological risk assessments were integrated into NEPA’s process, it became evident to outline the next transition in environmental assessment capabilities. Operationally linking ecological risk assessment methods with formal decision models appeared as a worthwhile objective in beginning this transition (Bartell 1998). This presented opportunities for environmental impact assessors to team up with ecologists to address basic questions of “What can go wrong?” “How likely is it to happen?” and “So, what if it does?” (Kaplan and Garrick 1981). As such, an ecological risk assessment is a process of estimating probabilities of often negative specified ecological events and evaluating subsequent consequences using a quantitative approach (Bartell 1996, Bartell 1998). Human health industry (NRC 1983) served as a model for ecological risk assessment and as needs for baseline risk assessments were required symposia, workshops, funding, and simulation models stimulated in-depth research for assessing ecological risk across taxa (Bartell 1998) using guidelines put forth by USEPA framework (1992, 1996).

Initial studies were aimed at understanding general schemes of how species invade, various stages of invasion (arrival, establishment, spread, and persistence), and different types of models associated with each phase (Mollison et al. 1986). Once stages of invasion were understood, research focuses turned to invasive abilities of species. Researching invasibility allows for prioritizing which species to address first for control/intervention (Byers et al. 2002). Earlier studies highlighted pathways species use to invade and marine systems made for good examples of how corridors can be affected by environmental changes and presented some difficulties in predicting invasions (Carlton 1996). Studies were based on aquatic species, particularly in the Great Lakes system that had been highly susceptible to invasions with extent of transoceanic boat traffic. Populations of zebra mussel, *Dreissena polymorpha*, one of many species introduced from Europe were already established when invasion studies began, thus, research focused on their distribution and how their spread could help in predicting future invaders (Ramcharan et al. 1997, Ricciardi and Rasmussen 1998, Ricciardi and Maclsaac 2000). Zebra mussel studies transitioned to exploring areas at risk for invasions (Riccardi 2003) and provided a better understanding of ecosystem effects of a species, and outlined necessary information for assessing risk of other species (Ricciardi 2001). Use of recreational boats as a mode of invasion into other inland lakes near the Great Lakes system was investigated (Johnson et al. 2001) and prompted spread of awareness about precautionary boat use and preserving lake systems.

Pioneering work on zebra mussels led to fish species targets and risk of introduction into the Great Lakes and models for risk assessment (Kolar and Lodge 2002). Here species that would cause most damage were pinpointed and prevention measures were proposed (Kolar and Lodge 2001, 2002). Other taxa were added to invasive species lists and included crayfish (Wilson et al.
Aquatic studies transitioned from Great Lakes research to include global cases, many of which continued to explore species with establishment potential and associated risks (Branch and Steffani 2004, Moyle and Marchetti 2006, Colnar and Landis 2007). Central to these continuing studies was need for regulation of transportation of aquatic species (Floerl et al. 2005). Cost of these species invading was a driving force in support of increased regulations. Numerous studies measured costs associated with invasive species (Pimental et al. 2000, Buhle et al. 2005, Pimental et al. 2005, Burnett et al. 2007) as added support that prevention efforts were optimal to control efforts (Keller et al. 2007, Burnett et al. 2008). However, despite obvious costs, there has been an inherent human preference for control measures over prevention efforts (Horan et al. 2002, Leung et al. 2002, Finnoff et al. 2007). Preference to use control measures coupled with technological limitations are what determine what actions have been and will be taken to aid in the ongoing crisis of invasive species (Margolis et al. 2005, Finnoff et al. 2007, Sims and Finnoff 2013).

As aquatic studies developed further, research on insects started to surface, focusing on pest management. Investigating population dynamics of insect species was key to determining establishment stage of invasion and understanding that size of original colony greatly influenced success of invasion (Grevstad 1999). Holway and Suarez (1999) studied fire ant colony behavior as a way to explore effects of animal behavior on invasion capability. Specific behavioral traits are suited for different stages of invasion, i.e., high dispersal ability, omnivory, gregariousness, and asexuality are usually associated with an enhanced probability of colonization and establishment, but may have no influence on competitive ability, or rate of spread after establishment (Holway and Suarez 1999). Species biological data began to be incorporated in assessing species risk. Similarly, by using trade routes and historical data of establishment rates of invaders to predict future invasion rates there was an improved ability to forecast biological invasions (Levine and D’Antonio 2003), and illustrating that resources are better spent on prevention tactics rather than control efforts (Leung et al. 2002). However, because insect invaders can be introduced via a variety of hosts, it has been difficult to design preventative regulations to controlling insect invasions, thus pest management has historically been more prevalent (Bartell and Nair 2004, Evans et al. 2013).

Plants, as a group, have been studied as pests as well as ecological invaders and early studies began with what affects invasiveness, various steps of invasion, predicting invasions (Reichard
and Hamilton 1997), and errors of predicting invasions (Heger and Trepl 2003). Accounting for errors in and finding ways to lower error rates would be vital to obtaining accurate prediction estimates (Heger and Trepl 2003). Invasive plants have ability to spread quickly, largely due to dispersal mechanisms, thus calculating invasion speeds can be a helpful variable when assessing species’ invasibility (Neubert and Caswell 2000, Neubert et al. 2000). Unveiling risky species is very important, however, knowing areas at risk can allow for focused prevention and preparation for an invasion (Apte et al. 2000, Andersen et al. 2003). A case study on buffel grass (Cenchrus ciliaris) in Mexico identified risky areas that were suitable for invasion using spatial modeling validated by a case study in an area of known distribution (Arriaga et al. 2004). Several climate match studies followed providing information on areas at risk and accounting for different stages of invasion (Williamson 2006, Bomford et al. 2008, Bates et al. 2013). Niche-based models, delved deeper and used observations of species in native ranges and associated climatic variables to predict a species potential to invade new areas with similar climatic conditions (Broennimann et al. 2007, Beaumont et al. 2009), however this does not preclude a species’ ability to spread into areas that are climatically different than their home range (Apte et al. 2000, Broennimann and Guisan 2008, Wearne et al. 2013). Studies on risky species were less frequent but Daehler et al. (2004) proposed a three-part scoring system for experts to identify invasive plant pests and rank species by risk.

More recent areas of invasive species interest have focused on wildlife, particularly with increased animal trade. “Broken Screens” Report (Jenkins et al. 2007) has illustrated poor regulations in place, and when coupled with negligence animal species are a real threat to native fauna (Drake and Williamson 1986, Levine and D’Antonio 2003). Invasive wildlife studies included work done with birds (Herring and Gawlik 2007, Zwiernik et al. 2007), mammals (Watari et al. 2011, Corin 2014, Murphy et al. 2014), and reptiles and amphibians (Bomford et al. 2005, Kraus 2007, Bomford et al. 2008, Fujisaki et al. 2009, Krause 2009, Kraus 2011, Krysko et al. 2011, Meshaka 2011). Invasive mammalian species have been responsible for significant environmental and economic damage but because populations were established studies have largely been aimed at control efforts (Blackie et al 2014). Reptiles and amphibians, however, have become more visible in risk assessment studies that attempt to eradicate, prevent, and predict exotic species.

Assessments of introduced amphibians and reptiles began with identifying modes of introduction. Intentional human introduction via pet trade and accidental import in cargo shipments were primary pathways for species introductions (Kraus 2003). Additional modes of introduction were for human consumption, for biocontrol, for aesthetic purposes and accidental introductions in nursery trade (Krause 2003). With identification of pathways of introduction, research moved into assessment based studies in live animal trade (van Wilgen et al. 2010), global impacts of invasive herpetofauna (Kraus 2009, 2010) and designing rapid response methods to invasive herpetofauna (Kraus and Duffy 2010). Hawaii and Australia provided
examples of rising exotic species invasions and research focused on risk assessment models suitable for taxon groups (Bomford 2003, Bomford et al. 2005, Bomford et al. 2008). Potential preventative measures for exotic herpetofauna were put forward (Burnett et al. 2008, Chiavernao et al. 2014) and use of a scoring system to rank invasiveness of a species began to be implemented in modelling species risk (Bomford et al. 2005, Bomford et al. 2009). Models will be discussed in methods section.

Performing risk assessments is fraught with social and political issues affecting efficacy of management and prevention (Margolis et al. 2005, Simberloff 2005). One way to regulate transfer of species among countries is to impose new trade tariffs (Margolis et al. 2005), though difficult to achieve, development of risk assessment frameworks and models can help aid in policy initiatives (Horan et al. 2002, Simberloff et al. 2005, Keller and Perrings 2011, Rickhus 2013). It will continue to involve much discussion to influence political views to be more open to cooperate with management and prevention plans with proof of economic benefits of risk assessment plans. Though many introduced species have had positive economic effects, costs of invasive species either as inflicted damage or costs of removal or control are exorbitant (Burnett et al. 2007). There is a general consensus that it is more cost-effective to invest in prevention methods, however implementing such prevention methods is an often non-preferred risk (Leung et al. 2002, Finnoff et al. 2007). Here we present proposed, and in some cases, implemented methods of risk assessment of exotic species.

Methods

Federal agencies, USDA, FWS, and EPA have applied risk assessments to introduced species to regulate species importation (Simberloff 2005). Proposed frameworks and guidelines on conducting ecological risk assessment present relevant components of the process that identify risk and effects, outlines expected outcomes (USEPA 1998), and involves necessary partnerships (Presidential/Congressional Commission 1997). A general strategy for risk analysis adapted from ecological risk assessment developed by USEPA (1992, 1998) and applied to invasive species include 1). identifying the problem, 2) analysis of biological data of species, 3) characterizing risk accounting for potential spread, impacts and costs, and 4). risk management by evaluating containment potential and associated costs (Stohlgren and Schnase 2006, Table 1).

Qualitative evaluation frameworks use professional judgement to assign species to risk ranking categories such as low, medium, and high risk based on biological characteristics, often combined with climate information (USEPA 1998). Qualitative assessment often involves a series of yes/no questions where answers for each question have a numerical value (Yes = 1, No = 0); values are added and the final number is the score used to determine species rank for risk (Bomford et al. 2005), or a value is assigned to each parameter using a ranking system (1-5, lowest-highest likelihood) relative to a comparative group and scores are tallied for an overall value (Reed et al. 2012). Using decision theory, appropriate use of a screening system to predict
A multitude of biological parameters have been used to assess a species’ risk and generally include life history data, such as reproductive rates, longevity, dispersal size and rate, survival rates and genetic information (see Table 3 for species traits considered for risk analysis compiled from Reusink et al. 1995, Fujisaki et al. 2010, Reed et al. 2012). It should be noted that parameters that make a species a successful invader, are not necessarily accurate predictors of invasion (Williamson 2006). Phylogenetic information of target species and related species have been implemented in analyses and in some cases generated using genetic algorithm for rule-set production (GARP, Lodge et al. 2006). Climate data of native and potentially invaded ranges typically involve rainfall and temperature variables. These data are either statistically analyzed or entered into a climate matching system using programs such as CLIMATE, CLIMEX 3.0, and other emerging model-based programs (Peterson and Vieglais 2001, Arriaga et al. 2004, Bomford et al. 2009, Fujisaki et al. 2010). Climate matching systems use climate data to determine whether an area may have suitable conditions for an invasive species based on native or current species range. Use of determining effective population size of a species is also modelled using Population Viability Analysis (PVA, Andersen 2005). Niche-modelling that accounts for other environmental variables have also been incorporated to predict where invasive species may be able to spread to (Beaumont et al. 2009). Despite a variety of frameworks proposed or in place, the underlying function is to address: 1) factors that determine rate of entry, 2) biology and ecology of species, 3) availability of habitat and environmental factors that promote establishment in different geographical regions, 4) population dynamics of species, and 5) implications of uncertainties of risk estimates and risk reduction (Arriaga et al. 2004, Bartell and Nair 2004). These methodologies provide a baseline for assessment and prevention of introduced species that may become invasive under optimal environmental conditions.

In lieu of preventative measures to keep an invasive species from entering a novel area, species biological data have been used to assist with containment and management strategies of established species (ANSTF 2010) that account for original population size (Grevstad 1999), speed of spread (Neubert and Caswell 2000, Riccardi and Cohen 2006), and in some cases, targeting different life stages (Hastings et al. 2006) and adverse impacts once established (Fujisaki et al. 2010). Effective risk assessment will occur at prevention stages of invasion...
(Rodgers, Figure 1) and when that is not possible data can be used to reduce impact of invasion and associated ecological and economic damage.

Summary

- Invasive species is a species that is nonnative to the ecosystem under consideration and whose introduction causes or is likely to cause economic or environmental harm or harm to human health
- Stages of invasion include arrival, establishment, spread, and persistence
- Invasion curve illustrates methods of control: prevention, eradication, containment, and asset based protection and long term management
- Prevention is least costly method of control
- Risk assessment uses species characteristics to determine threats and potential for invading new areas at entry stage of invasion
- “Broken Screens” report used US FWS animal import records to conduct a coarse screening process to identify risky species
- Risk assessments began with NEPA
- Risk assessments estimate probabilities of negative events and evaluate consequences using decision models and quantitative approaches
- Risk assessments based on aquatic species in Great Lakes
- Invasion studies used species distribution and spread to help predict future invasions
- Studies measured costs of invasive species and proposed transportation regulations
- Insect species difficult to prevent, hence pest management is most used
- Plant studies incorporated spatial modelling, climate matching, and niche-based models to identify areas at risk of invasion
- Amphibian and reptile species introduced via pet trade, for human consumption, biocontrol use, aesthetic purposes, and with nursery trade
- Rank scoring system used for invasive herpetofauna
- Risk assessment: identifies problem, analyzes species bio-data, evaluates risk, proposes risk management
- Risk assessments can be performed using qualitative, semi-quantitative, and quantitative frameworks
- Qualitative framework uses professional decision rules and ranking to assign species risk
- Semi-quantitative framework statistically analyzes decision rule to assess species risk
- Quantitative frameworks uses raw data from case studies or compilations and model simulations to evaluate species risk
- Biological species data (life history, reproductive data, survival, population dynamics, and genetic information) used to evaluate species risk
- Phylogenetic information, climate range data, effective population size, and niche data used to identify and predict susceptible areas at risk of invasion
Future Directions

In an effort to develop a risk assessment protocol to prevent the introduction or establishment of nonnative wildlife in Florida, biological profiles for invasive nonnative reptiles will be updated and new biological profiles will be created for additional risky species. Using available data of ecological correlates to identify potentially invasive species a coarse scale screening process using decision rules and professional expertise will be conducted for nonnative species currently present or in the process of being imported/introduced into Florida. Data will be analyzed in a semi-quantitative approach with plans toward developing finer scale analyses using appropriate quantitative techniques accounting for climate and niche variables in native species range and identifying potential areas at risk to invasion by nonnative species. Components necessary to conduct the risk assessment process will be evaluated and effective frameworks for implementation will be presented. The goal of the risk assessment process will be to identify risky species before they are introduced into Florida, to predict areas at risk, and to contain species spread beyond initial introduction. Risk assessment protocols will be used toward effective invasive species preventative efforts, science-based early detection, and rapid response to address nonnative species introduction into Florida.
Figure 1. The invasion curve illustrating an increase in infested areas by invasive species and associated costs at each stage of the invasion process. From Leroy Rodgers, South Florida Water Management District (Adapted from Invasive Plants and Animals Policy Framework, State of Victoria, Department of Primary Industries 2010).
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<th>Table I. Generalized steps in risk analysis and specific information needed for risk analysis for invasive species adapted from Stohlgren and Schnase (2006).</th>
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<td><strong>Problem Formation</strong></td>
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<td>Scoping the problem</td>
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<td>Defining assessment endpoints</td>
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<td><strong>Analysis</strong></td>
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<td>Information on species traits</td>
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<td>Matching species traits to suitable habitats</td>
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<td>Estimating exposure</td>
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<td>Surveys of current distribution and abundance</td>
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<td><strong>Risk Characterization</strong></td>
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<td>Understanding of data completeness</td>
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<td>Estimates of the “potential” distribution and abundance</td>
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<td>Estimates of the potential rate of spread</td>
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<td>Probable risks, impacts, and costs</td>
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<td><strong>Risk Management</strong></td>
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<td>Containment potential, costs, and opportunity costs</td>
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<td>Legal mandates and social considerations</td>
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<td>Information science and technology needs</td>
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Table 2. Biological and environmental parameters included in assessment of species risk and invasion. Compiled from Reusink et al. 1995, Fujisaki et al. 2010, Reed et al. 2012.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Parameter</th>
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<tr>
<td>Species detection</td>
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<td>Propagule pressure/introduction effort</td>
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<td>Age at reproductive maturity</td>
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<td>Adult body size</td>
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<td>Juvenile survival probability</td>
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<td>Adult survival probability</td>
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<td>Maximum longevity</td>
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<td>Fecundity</td>
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<td>Clutch size</td>
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<td>Generation time</td>
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<td>Level of parental care</td>
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<td>Dispersal size</td>
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<td>Dispersal distance</td>
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<td>Mobility</td>
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<td>Rate of spread/vagility</td>
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<td>Intrinsic rate of population growth</td>
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<td>Functional population size</td>
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<td>Possibility of parthenogenesis</td>
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<td>Competitiveness</td>
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<td>Gregariousness</td>
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<td>Dietary breadth</td>
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<td>Ability/ inability to be controlled</td>
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<td>Habitat compatibility</td>
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<td>Habitat breadth or generality/native range size</td>
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<td>Phenotypic plasticity</td>
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<td>Vulnerability to predation</td>
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<td>Response to human disturbance</td>
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<td>Association with humans</td>
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<td>Sale price/trade value</td>
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<td>Species Manageability</td>
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<td>Ability/proneness to escape</td>
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<td>Venomousness</td>
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<td>Prior establishment location</td>
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<td>Prior establishment rate</td>
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Table 1. Exotic animal risk assessment research with extracted methodologies used. Frameworks with associated target variables and analyses are presented for each paper reviewed.

<table>
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<th>Species/Taxa</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Analyses</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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<td>Qualitative</td>
<td>Smooth shelled blue mussel (\textit{Mytilus galloprovincialis})</td>
<td>Data from worldwide distributions, climate</td>
<td>Species Identification (Nuclear DNA extraction)</td>
<td>Apte et al. 2000</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Nonindigenous species</td>
<td>Life history traits, and all known risks/facts of species</td>
<td>Directed Approach/Questionnaire</td>
<td>Byers et al. 2002</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Africanized honeybees (\textit{Apis mellifera}), Bamboo, \textit{Bambusa sp.})</td>
<td>Natural and human disturbances, and competition from exotics</td>
<td>Hierarchical Framework</td>
<td>Blundell et al. 2003</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mediterranean mussel (\textit{Mytilus galloprovincialis})</td>
<td>History, mode of dispersal, physiological performance, wave action preferences, influence on predators, effects of size and parasites, and effects on fauna</td>
<td>Invasion forecast based on set of predictors</td>
<td>Branch and Steffani 2004</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Feral pig (\textit{Sus scrofa})</td>
<td>Human values and ecological interactions</td>
<td>Multi-attribute utility analysis</td>
<td>Maguire 2004</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Fish, mammals, amphibians, reptiles</td>
<td>Rate of establishment, rate of spread</td>
<td>Spearman’s rank correlation of ranked impact</td>
<td>Ricciardi and Cohen 2006</td>
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<td>Giant reed (\textit{Arundo donax})</td>
<td>Location of individuals</td>
<td>Map comparison of previous years</td>
<td>Gallo and Waitt 2011</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Burmese python (\textit{Python molurus bivittatus})</td>
<td>15literature-based attributes (e.g., body size, reproductive potential, etc..) of the species, and of vulnerable habitats relative to comparative group</td>
<td>Rank scoring</td>
<td>Reed et al. 2012</td>
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<td>Asian oyster (\textit{Crassostrea ariakensis})</td>
<td>Ecological characteristics (habitat and food, increases and decreases in resources)</td>
<td>Relative Risk Model, Weight-of-Evidence Approach</td>
<td>Menzie et al. 2013</td>
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<td>Semi-Quantitative</td>
<td>Leaf-beetle (\textit{Deuterocampta quadrijuga})</td>
<td>Phylogenetic relatedness, biogeographic overlap, and ecological similarity</td>
<td>Centrifugal Phylogeny</td>
<td>Briese and Walker 2002</td>
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<td>Exotic vertebrates</td>
<td>Life history traits, and all known risks/facts of species</td>
<td>VPC Threat Category/Questionnaire</td>
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<td>Parasitoids, Predatory insects, Predatory</td>
<td>Potential establishment, ability to disperse, host range, and</td>
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<td>Mites, and Entomopathogens</td>
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<td>Modified Weed-Risk Assessment Questionnaire, and Decision Tree</td>
<td>Daehler et al. 2004</td>
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<td>~200 Plant species</td>
<td>Life history traits, and all known risks/facts of species</td>
<td>Multiple Class Ranking System/Predictive Risk Assessment</td>
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<td>Exotic reptiles and amphibians</td>
<td>Number of release events, climate match, history of establishing exotic populations elsewhere, taxonomic group, and life history traits</td>
<td>Classification Tree, and Ordinal Rank Scale</td>
<td>Floerl et al. 2005</td>
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<td>23 species of boas, pythons, and related snakes</td>
<td>Body size, fecundity, climatic variables of native range (latitude, elevation, temperature), Commercial variables (trade records)</td>
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<td>Camel (Camelus dromedaries)</td>
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<td>Quantitative Bacillus cereus UW85</td>
<td>Frequency of clusters in soil and rhizosphere habitats, bacterial communities from various habitats, and clusters most useful in discriminating among communities</td>
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<td>Gilbert et al. 1996</td>
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<td>Theoretical asexual species reproducing during discrete time periods</td>
<td>Demographic stochasticity (population size, number of offspring per individual, extinction and establishment probability) and fluctuating environments</td>
<td>Poisson Branching Process Model</td>
<td>Haccou and Iwasa 1996</td>
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<td>Pine Species</td>
<td>Life history characteristics (mean height, maximum height, minimum juvenile period, mean longevity, mean seed mass, seedwing loading index, avg. percentage of germination, mean interval between large seed crops, degree of serotiny, and fire tolerance index)</td>
<td>Discriminant Analysis</td>
<td>Rejmanek and Richardson 1996</td>
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<td>Acacia saligna</td>
<td>Presence in plant communities, and</td>
<td>Principal Component Analysis</td>
<td>Holmes and Cowling 1997</td>
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community composition of seed-banks

Discriminant Analysis and Classification, Regression Trees (CART), and Decision Tree

Reichard and Hamilton 1997

Mosquito (*Aedes albopictus*)

Realized per capita rate of population change, competition between species, mean masses of adult individuals-sex combination

Finite rate of increase, Kruskal-Wallis test, ANOVA

Juliano 1998

Chrysomelid beetles (*Galerucella pusilla* and *Galerucella calmaniensis*)

Population establishment and population growth rate

Multiple logistical regression

Grevstad 1999

Teasel (*Dipsacus sylvestris*) and *Calathea ovandensis*

Population growth and rate of spread

Discrete-time model (couples matrix population models with integrodifference equations

Neubert and Caswell 2000

Brown mussel (*Perna perna*)

Population-level genetic diversity

Wright’s hierarchical F-statistics, Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, and Net’s genetic distance

Holland 2001

Cattle egret (*Bubulcus ibis*), House finch (*Carpodacus mexicanus*), Asian longhorn beetle (*Anoplophora glabripennis*), and Japanese white-spotted citrus longhorn beetle (*A. malasiaca*)

Native distribution, geographic themes (aspects of vegetation, precipitation, temperature), ecological factors

GARP, Chi-square

Peterson and Vieglais 2001

Pea aphid (*Acyrthosiphon pisum*), and Parasitoid

Levels of resistance and virulence, as well as local adaptation

Mixed linear model (PROC MIXED)

Hufbauer 2002
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species/Environment</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
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<td><strong>Aphidius ervi</strong> (wasp)</td>
<td>13 life history characteristics, 5 habitat needs, 6 aspects of invasion history, and human use.</td>
<td>Discriminant Analysis, CART</td>
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<td><strong>Dreissena polymorpha</strong> (Zebra mussel)</td>
<td>Ecological (rates of recruitment, growth and survival structured by age or size, and seasonality) and Economic processes (reduced water intake efficiency caused by fouling)</td>
<td>Stochastic Dynamic Programming</td>
<td>Leung et al. 2002</td>
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<td><strong>Gleditsia triacanthos</strong>, <strong>Lithraea ternifolia</strong>, <strong>Ligustrum lucidum</strong>, <strong>Fagara coco</strong> (Native and nonnative flora of Argentina)</td>
<td>Life history traits considered determinant of plant spread</td>
<td>Interacting Multiple Cellular Automata (IMCA)</td>
<td>Marco et al. 2002</td>
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<td><strong>Heteromys anomalus</strong> (Spiny pocket mouse), <strong>Microryzomys minutus</strong>, and <strong>Carpodacus mexicanus</strong> (passerine bird)</td>
<td>Non-random associations between environmental characteristics (elevation, slope, aspect, soil conditions, geological ages, geomorphology, coarse potential vegetation zones, and a series of coverage for solar radiation, temperature, and precipitation) of localities of known occurrence versus those of the overall study region</td>
<td>GARP</td>
<td>Anderson et al. 2003</td>
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<td><strong>Acacia nilotica</strong> (Gum Arabic tree)</td>
<td>Climatic preference of the species and climate conditions (averages of rainfall, daily minimum and maximum air temperature, relative humidity, and soil moisture)</td>
<td>CLIMEX</td>
<td>Kriticos et al. 2003</td>
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<td><strong>Dreissena polymorpha</strong> (Zebra mussel)</td>
<td>Invaded habitat types, impact on benthic invertebrate abundance and diversity, invader abundance and environmental variables</td>
<td>Regression analysis, Empirical Modeling</td>
<td>Ricciardi 2003</td>
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<td><strong>Buffel grass</strong></td>
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<td>Arriaga et al. 2004</td>
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<td><em>Cenchrus ciliaris</em></td>
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<td>Propagule pressure (exposure) and risk of establishment</td>
<td>Stage-based stochastic matrix population model</td>
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<td>GARP</td>
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<td>Bayesian Network (BN)</td>
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<td>Beaumont et al. 2009</td>
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<td>468 invasive species in the US (crustaceans, fish, various invertebrates, mammals, and plants)</td>
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<td>Bates et al. 2013</td>
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<td>596 species of alien Amphibians and Reptiles</td>
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<td>Bates et al. 2013</td>
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<td>Fresh and marine fish, mollusks, echinoderms, bryozoans, tunicates,</td>
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<td>Fujisaki et al. 2010</td>
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<td>ascidians, arthropods, and annelids</td>
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<td>Chiaverano et al. 2014</td>
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State of Victoria, Department of Primary Industries. 2010. Invasive Plants and Animals Policy Framework in Victorian Auditor-General’s Control of Invasive plants and animals in Victoria’s parks.


