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Author post-print (accepted) deposited by Coventry University's Repository

Original citation & hyperlink:

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<https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.12953>

DOI 10.1111/1365-2664.12953

ISSN 0021-8901

ESSN 1365-2664

Publisher: Wiley

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Hulme, PE, Brundu, G, Carboni, M, Dehnen-Schmutz, K, Dullinger, S, Early, R, Essl, F, González-Moreno, P, Groom, QJ, Kueffer, C, Kühn, I, Maurel, N, Novoa, A, Pergl, J, Pyšek, P, Seebens, H, Tanner, R, Touza, JM, van Kleunen, M & Verbrugge, LNH 2017, 'Integrating invasive species policies across ornamental horticulture supply-chains to prevent plant invasions' *Journal of Applied Ecology*, vol (in press), pp. (in press), which has been published in final form at <https://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.12953>. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Self-Archiving.

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Integrating invasive species policies across ornamental horticulture supply-chains to prevent plant invasions

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This article is currently in press. Full citation details will be uploaded when available.

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This document is the author's post-print version, incorporating any revisions agreed during the peer-review process. Some differences between the published version and this version may remain and you are advised to consult the published version if you wish to cite from it.

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48

49

50 Running title: Integrating policies to curb ornamental plant invasions

51

52 Type of Paper: Policy Directions

53 Date: 1/05/2017

54 Total Word Count: 4500 (max 4500)

55 Summary 150 (max 150)

56 Number of Tables 0

57 Number of Figures 4

58 Number of references 52

59

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65 **Summary**

66 1. Ornamental horticulture is the primary pathway for invasive alien plant
67 introductions. We critically appraise published evidence on the effectiveness of
68 four policy instruments that tackle invasions along the horticulture supply-chain:
69 pre-border import restrictions, post-border bans, industry codes of conduct, and
70 consumer education.

71 2. Effective pre-border interventions rely on rigorous risk assessment and high
72 industry compliance. Post-border sales bans become progressively less
73 effective when alien species become widespread in a region.

74 3. A lack of independent performance evaluation and of public disclosure, limits
75 the uptake and effectiveness of voluntary codes of conduct and discourages
76 shifts in consumer preference away from invasive alien species.

77 4. *Policy implications.* Closing the plant invasion pathway associated with
78 ornamental horticulture requires government-industry agreements to fund
79 effective pre- and post-border weed-risk assessments that can be subsequently
80 supported by widely adopted, as well as verifiable, industry codes of conduct.
81 This will ensure producers and consumers make informed choices in the face
82 of better targeted public education addressing plant invasions.

83

84 **Keywords:** biological invasions, biosecurity, exotic, gardening, invasive species,
85 nurseries, legislation, non-native, trade, weed

86

87 **Introduction**

88 The global trade in ornamental nursery stock is the dominant pathway by which
89 invasive alien plants have been introduced worldwide (Lambdon *et al.* 2008; Jiang *et al.*
90 *et al.* 2011; Lehan *et al.* 2013; Dodd *et al.* 2015; Rojas-Sandoval & Acevedo-Rodriguez
91 2015; Faulkner *et al.* 2016). This is not surprising since the ornamental nursery trade
92 (comprising commerce in finished, bareroot and seedling trees, shrubs, ground
93 covers, grasses, vines and aquatic plants of sale size, bulbs and seeds) is largely built
94 around commerce in alien plant species, their hybrids, cultivars and varieties (Drew,
95 Anderson & Andow 2010). Alien species often represent a higher proportion than
96 native species in terms of what is cultivated, the available stock in retail outlets and
97 consumer purchases. For example, in both Great Britain and New Zealand, there is
98 an order of magnitude greater number of plant species in cultivation than native plant
99 species in the wild (Gaddum 1999; Armitage *et al.* 2016). In the USA, alien species
100 comprise as much as 80% of the stock held by nurseries (Brzuszek & Harkess 2009;
101 Harris *et al.* 2009) and account for up to 90% of nursery revenue (Kauth & Perez 2011).
102 While only a relatively small proportion of taxa escape cultivation, often less than 10%
103 (Hulme 2012), the sheer number of taxa cultivated results in the ornamental pathway
104 being the main source of naturalised and invasive alien plant species in natural areas
105 worldwide (Fig. 1).

106 Annual sales of nursery stock amount to US\$430 million in Canada (Agriculture-
107 Canada 2015), US\$500 million in Australia (PHA 2015), US\$1,054 million in the United
108 Kingdom (Defra 2016) and US\$4,267 million in the USA (USDA 2014). Policymakers
109 could therefore argue that plant invasions are an unavoidable minor cost incurred to
110 support an industry that delivers significant economic benefits and brings pleasure to
111 millions of gardeners. But can appropriate policies be designed to target the

112 ornamental nursery industry supply-chain such that changes to operations to mitigate
113 invasions will be most easy to implement, cost-effective and acceptable?

114 **Integrating invasive species policy across the ornamental plant supply-chain**

115 The ornamental nursery supply-chain involves many different actors whose roles vary
116 depending on the types of plants sold and the relative importance of national and
117 international markets for their products (Kaim & Mueller 2009; Drew, Anderson &
118 Andow 2010). While no two supply-chains will be the same, most include the following
119 actors: importers of new and existing germplasm; plant breeders and propagation
120 nurseries; growers and plant production nurseries; wholesale suppliers; landscape-
121 industry trade outlets; public retail outlets (specialist nurseries, garden centres,
122 hardware stores etc.); and finally a wide range of public, business and government
123 consumers (Fig. 2). Vertical integration in the industry results in organisations playing
124 multiple roles in the supply-chain. For example, botanic gardens not only import new
125 germplasm but they are often also involved in plant breeding as well as retail to the
126 general public (Hulme 2011).

127 Actors within the ornamental nursery industry have different motivations, knowledge
128 of invasive plant species and enthusiasm for market change (Humair, Kueffer &
129 Siegrist 2014). Thus while several policies exist addressing plant invasions arising
130 from ornamental horticulture (Reichard & White 2001; Barbier *et al.* 2013), they have
131 seldom been viewed as an integrated suite of options targeting different actors (Drew,
132 Anderson & Andow 2010). Preventing the introduction or establishment of potentially
133 invasive alien species is often the most cost-effective and environmentally desirable
134 policy option to manage invasions (Keller, Lodge & Finnoff 2007). The ornamental
135 industry supply-chain can be used to assess the merit of four major policy instruments
136 targeting prevention: pre-border import restrictions; post-border plant sales bans (both

137 affecting breeders, propagators and producers); industry codes of conduct (adopted
138 by trade and public retail outlets); and tools to engender consumer behavioural change
139 through increased public awareness.

140 **Pre-border restrictions on the import of invasive plants**

141 Two contrasting approaches have been developed to restrict the importation of
142 invasive alien plant species: blacklists that treat all unlisted plant imports as innocent
143 until proven guilty versus whitelists that view all unlisted plants as guilty until proven
144 innocent (Dehnen-Schmutz 2011). Both New Zealand and Australia have adopted a
145 stringent whitelist approach in which species not recorded on a permitted list require
146 evaluation through a formal weed-risk assessment procedure (Auld 2012). European
147 nations often promote blacklists as a cost-effective means to limit the importation of
148 invasive alien plants (Essl *et al.* 2011). Under these circumstances weed-risk
149 assessments are used to support the listing of species on blacklists. However, due to
150 the large number of ornamental species available for import, cost of risk assessments,
151 and the frequent lack of consensus among stakeholders in relation to the listing
152 criteria, blacklists are rarely comprehensive and are generally less effective than a
153 whitelist of permitted species (Hulme 2015a).

154 Furthermore, without mechanisms to check compliance, particularly in the face of
155 increasing internet trade in invasive alien species (Humair *et al.* 2015) and poor
156 species identification (Thum, Mercer & Wcisel 2012), both blacklists and whitelists can
157 be easily bypassed. Whereas in New Zealand all incoming travellers, shipping
158 containers and mail items are screened for potential risk goods, this is not the case in
159 most other countries where national borders are more porous and the biosecurity
160 infrastructure less effective. As a consequence, legislation often has to be updated
161 retrospectively following the discovery that a previously introduced species has

162 become invasive in the territory. Under these circumstances, policy considerations
163 shift from prohibiting entry towards preventing the wider dissemination and spread of
164 species already in cultivation.

165 **Post-border banning of invasive plant species from sale**

166 Following invasion by an ornamental plant species, one option for policymakers is to
167 legislate a ban on the sale of nursery stock, seeds or other propagating material and
168 place restrictions on its movement. Sales bans are generally based on formal risk
169 assessment procedures similar to those used pre-border and are usually only put in
170 place after a period of consultation with the ornamental plant industry. However,
171 industry opposition to sales bans can be strong and often results in species being
172 dropped from legislation. For example, in relation to a ban on the sale of five aquatic
173 ornamental plants in Great Britain in 2013, the Ornamental Aquatic Trade Association
174 (OATA) ensured three species worth over US\$4million in annual sales were not listed
175 and “campaigned long and hard to make the proposed prohibition list as short as
176 possible” (OATA 2013). While surveys often reveal the ornamental nursery industry
177 supports existing sales bans (Coats, Stack & Rumpho 2011; Vanderhoeven *et al.*
178 2011; Humair, Kueffer & Siegrist 2014; Verbrugge *et al.* 2014), such assessments may
179 underestimate the intense industry opposition and lobbying prior to any sales ban
180 being implemented. In the future, it would be valuable for surveys of industry attitudes
181 to new regulation to be undertaken before any agreement with government has been
182 reached in order to better capture motivations and concerns of horticultural
183 professionals. In addition, if mechanisms to enforce regulations are weak then
184 compliance with legislation is often poor. An assessment of over 1000 ornamental
185 nurseries in the USA indicated rates of compliance with invasive species regulations
186 to be less than 50% (Oele *et al.* 2015).

187 Sales bans can also be ineffective in limiting the negative impact of plant invasions if
188 the target species is already widespread in the region. The consultation on banning
189 plants from sale in Great Britain initially targeted 15 species, however, several of these
190 were already so widespread that the logic of any sales ban impacting on their future
191 spread was challenged by the ornamental industry and these species were not listed
192 (Fig. 3). Even for the five species that were subsequently banned from sale, the
193 legislation will have greatest impact on the two least common species: floating
194 pennywort *Hydrocotyle ranunculoides* and water primrose *Ludwigia grandiflora*. For
195 the remaining three species, a sales ban may be insufficient to prevent further spread
196 and thus, to be most effective, the legislation would need to be supported by a
197 coordinated eradication campaign. Even under this ideal scenario, escapes will
198 continue to occur through natural dispersal and illegal dumping of green waste from
199 existing plantings in public and private gardens.

200 **Codes of conduct and industry self-regulation**

201 Increasing governmental support for deregulation combined with industry opposition
202 to restrictive legislation has led to a progressive emphasis on corporate responsibility
203 and voluntary codes of conduct worldwide (Sethi 2011). Several voluntary codes of
204 conduct have been developed to address the management of invasive plant species
205 by the ornamental nursery industry (Baskin 2002; Heywood & Brunel 2009; Verbrugge
206 *et al.* 2014). These voluntary codes of conduct suffer from a number of drawbacks that
207 limit their contribution to preventing the import, propagation and sale of invasive plants.

208 An important aspect of any voluntary code of conduct is that there should be
209 consequences for non-compliance in terms of bad publicity and brand image. This
210 requires that suppliers and customers can readily identify actors participating in
211 voluntary codes of conduct and would involve procedures to audit compliance

212 reasonably frequently. Therefore, while it is crucial to monitor and evaluate the
213 performance of codes of conduct, and to ensure public disclosure, these actions have
214 never been included in voluntary codes of conduct for the ornamental nursery industry.
215 As there are no means of assessing how well the codes work, there is seldom sufficient
216 market incentive or social leverage to adopt voluntary codes of conduct. As a result of
217 these limitations, the uptake of voluntary codes of conduct is generally poor in the
218 ornamental nursery industry (Burt *et al.* 2007; Hulme 2015b).

219 In addition, voluntary codes of conduct need to be supported by evidence-based and
220 independent advice regarding which plant species currently on the global market are
221 potentially invasive in a particular region, so as to prevent their import, distribution and
222 sale. This requires risk assessments of many hundreds of species. Who should pay
223 for this? While risk assessment costs might be funded through an industry levy, the
224 industry can be resistant to such additional costs (Barbier *et al.* 2013). Furthermore,
225 unless an importer has exclusive rights to the sale and distribution of a plant taxon
226 there is no incentive for them to invest in costly risk assessment when their competitors
227 would also benefit from the introduction without any financial outlay.

228 Consequently, whether the cost of weed-risk assessment is borne by industry (as in
229 New Zealand) or by government (as in Australia) has a major influence on the
230 deliberate introduction of alien species by industry. Since the late 1990s, New Zealand
231 has approved fewer than 100 plant species for cultivation (EPA 2017), while over the
232 same period more than 1500 alien species have been permitted entry into Australia
233 (Riddle, Porritt & Reading 2008). While other models of funding exist, such as through
234 NGOs (PlantRight 2017), the contrast between New Zealand and Australia suggests
235 that when the cost of weed-risk assessment is borne by the ornamental industry it can
236 be a barrier to importing new plant species but not when governments are prepared

237 to cover the expense. However, government support is likely to be increasingly
238 dependent on either compulsory adherence or voluntary codes of conduct that are
239 widely supported, robust and verifiable. Can a change in consumer choice influence
240 the industry to be more compliant?

241 **Shifting consumer values towards native and non-invasive alien plant species**

242 The majority of ornamental plants are purchased by the general public (Barney 2014).
243 Governmental and non-governmental organisations are important procurers of
244 ornamental plants but they generally account for a relatively small, and often specialist
245 (e.g. native species) share of the market (Fig. 2). Thus, educating the general public
246 to make informed choices towards purchasing native or non-invasive plant species is
247 often seen as the main mechanism through which consumers can reduce the risk of
248 alien plant invasions (Reichard & White 2001). Conservation NGOs are increasingly
249 working with the ornamental nursery industry to remove potentially invasive plants
250 from sale and promote native or non-invasive alternatives through programmes such
251 as PlantRight in the USA and “Grow Me Instead!” in Australia (Niemiera & Von Holle
252 2009; Drew, Anderson & Andow 2010). Nevertheless, many consumers have a
253 preference for alien plant species over natives (Brzuszek & Harkess 2009; Kauth &
254 Perez 2011) making choices based on flower size, colour and foliage attributes
255 (Kendal, Williams & Williams 2012; Verbrugge *et al.* 2014). Promoting non-invasive
256 alien plants as alternatives can also be problematic since the attributes the public look
257 for in ornamental plants (e.g. consistent performance, generalist growing requirement,
258 resistance to pests or diseases and requiring little maintenance) are traits that can
259 also facilitate plant invasions (Hulme 2011). Consumers are sensitive to price, and
260 preferences for native and alien plants may shift where cost differentials are sufficiently
261 large (Yue, Hurley & Anderson 2011). However, differential pricing would either require

262 governments to impose some form of environmental tax or for the industry to agree to
263 consistent minimum pricing of potentially invasive alien plants, neither of which
264 appears a particularly viable option (Barbier *et al.* 2013).

265 Booklets promoting alternative species, popular magazine articles highlighting
266 invasive ornamentals, factsheets describing appropriate disposal of green waste, and
267 even endorsements from celebrity gardeners all have a role to play in raising
268 awareness about invasive ornamental plants (Marchante & Marchante 2016).
269 However, behavioural change is more likely where the public have hands-on
270 experience in the removal of invasive alien species from native ecosystems
271 (Merenlender *et al.* 2016). If such activities could be sponsored by local ornamental
272 nursery businesses and mobilise a volunteer workforce drawn from gardening clubs,
273 horticultural societies and landscape professionals, this may be the groundswell
274 needed to shift attitudes across the supply-chain.

275 **Integration: can the whole be more than the sum of the parts?**

276 The examination of four major policy instruments targeting the ornamental industry
277 supply-chain highlights that while each has the potential to contribute to reducing the
278 risk of plant invasions, none is sufficient on its own to stem the problem. However,
279 integrating these policy instruments along the ornamental industry supply-chain would
280 progressively reduce the risk more effectively. For most countries, there are few
281 mechanisms to screen potentially invasive plant species before they enter the
282 ornamental trade. This could be facilitated if the tracking, labelling and monitoring of
283 plant imports were better harmonised with national regulations addressing plant
284 health. Such activities would need to be supported by impartial and independent weed-
285 risk assessment (Fig. 4).

286 While weed-risk assessment aims to determine whether a species should be accepted
287 or rejected from import and/or sale, approximately 20% of species screened cannot
288 usually be categorised with certainty (Riddle, Porritt & Reading 2008). Clear protocols
289 need to be followed to deal with Accepted, Rejected and Uncertain species (Fig. 4).
290 Accepted species, whether assessed pre- or post-border, should be added to a
291 national whitelist and, upon entering the market, labelled as having a low likelihood of
292 invasion (“Green” labelling) in order to reinforce public opinion regarding such risks.
293 At the border, uncertain and rejected species should be prohibited from entry. For
294 uncertain species, data gaps that might help reduce uncertainty should be identified
295 and communicated to the industry, while rejected species are added to an appropriate
296 blacklist (Fig. 4a). An increasing proportion of ornamental trade involves sales of
297 cultivars and varieties yet a key area of uncertainty is whether subspecies and
298 varieties should be assessed at the infraspecific or specific level. While weed risk
299 assessment approaches are suitable for screening species at the infraspecific level
300 that are true to type (Gordon *et al.* 2016) they do not account for the fact that non-
301 invasive cultivars may revert back to invasive forms (Brand, Lehrer & Lubell 2012).

302 Management of risks post-border are more complicated due to species often being
303 already under cultivation and/or established in the wild, which may result in industry
304 opposition to extensive sales bans. To ensure effective and targeted legislation,
305 legislated sales bans should focus on rejected species that have yet to become widely
306 established in the wild (Fig. 4b). Such action on its own would not be sufficient to stem
307 further spread and thus would need to be combined with an active eradication
308 campaign. Rejected species that are already widespread outside of cultivation may
309 best be targeted by voluntary sales bans supported by industry. Since voluntary bans
310 may not be met with full compliance, such species would also need to be labelled as

311 high risk species (“Red” labelling) to ensure purchasers could make informed choices.
312 Eradication of these species would be infeasible but a programme of containment or
313 control within high value environments would be recommended. Uncertain species
314 would continue to be sold but labelled as intermediate risk (“Amber” labelling) until
315 more information becomes available to point to higher or lower risk. Monitoring to
316 ensure there was no evidence of establishment in natural areas would be key to
317 species retaining “Amber” labelling.

318 While the important role of government, industry and the public in stemming the threat
319 from invasive alien plants is well recognised, there has been little guidance to date as
320 to how actions appropriate for each stakeholder could be better coordinated and more
321 complementary. The foregoing scheme (Fig. 4) proposes a clearer mechanism for
322 integration but its delivery will require the development of closer partnerships between
323 government, NGOs and industry, perhaps through a joint body that oversees the
324 outcomes of independent weed-risk assessment, advances the effectiveness of codes
325 of conduct, informs priorities for sales bans, endorses appropriate labelling, and
326 promotes consumer education. Closing the plant invasion pathway associated with
327 ornamental horticulture requires government-industry agreements to fund effective
328 pre- and post-border weed-risk assessments that can be subsequently supported by
329 widely adopted, as well as verifiable, industry codes of conduct. This will ensure
330 producers and consumers make informed choices in the face of better targeted public
331 education addressing plant invasions.

332 **Authors’ contributions**

333 PEH conceived the ideas and led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed
334 critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

335 **Acknowledgements**

336 Research was supported by COST Action TD1209 “Alien Challenge”. The authors are
337 grateful to John David and Franziska Humair for valuable discussions on this topic.
338 PP and JP were supported by project no. 14-36079G Centre of Excellence PLADIAS
339 (Czech Science Foundation) and RVO 67985939 (The Czech Academy of Sciences).
340 FE, SD, MC and MvK were supported by the ERA-Net BiodivERsA through the
341 Austrian Science Fund, German Research Foundation and French National Research
342 Agency. AN was supported by the Working for Water (WfW) Programme and the DST-
343 NRF Centre of Excellence for Invasion Biology. HS acknowledges support by the DFG
344 (grant SE 1891/2-1).

345 **Data accessibility**

346 Data have not been archived because all data presented are in the public domain.

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- 495

496 **Figure Legends**

497 **Figure 1.** The percentage of 450 alien plant species that are listed as established or
498 invasive in one or more regions of the world and that have been introduced through
499 ornamental horticulture. The term invasive refers to an alien species established in
500 natural or semi-natural ecosystems that is an agent of change threatening native
501 biodiversity. Data and definitions are from Weber (2003).

502

503 **Figure 2.** Schematic illustration of the ornamental nursery supply-chain identifying the
504 route of alien germplasm from import, through propagation, to retail and subsequent
505 use. The size and shading of the arrows represent the relative magnitude of the flows
506 between each component and are based on financial data from Great Britain (Barney
507 2014). The domain of four major policy instruments across the supply-chain is also
508 depicted.

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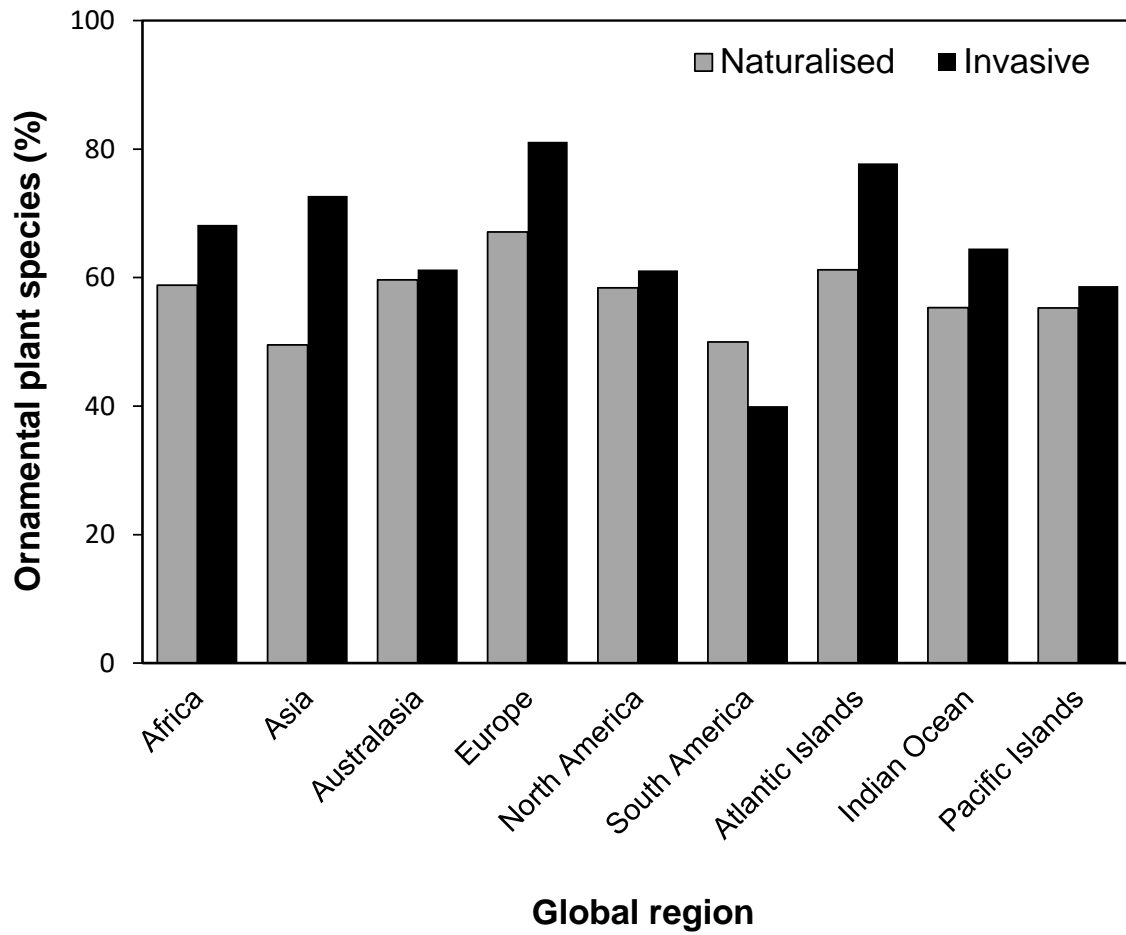
510 **Figure 3.** Fifteen plant species proposed for a sales ban (Defra 2007) and the
511 percentage of hectads (10 × 10 km grid cells) in which each occurs in Great Britain
512 (data.nbn.org.uk). Species finally banned from sale are highlight in by black bars with
513 the exception of *Ludwigia grandiflora* which is present in < 1% of hectads.

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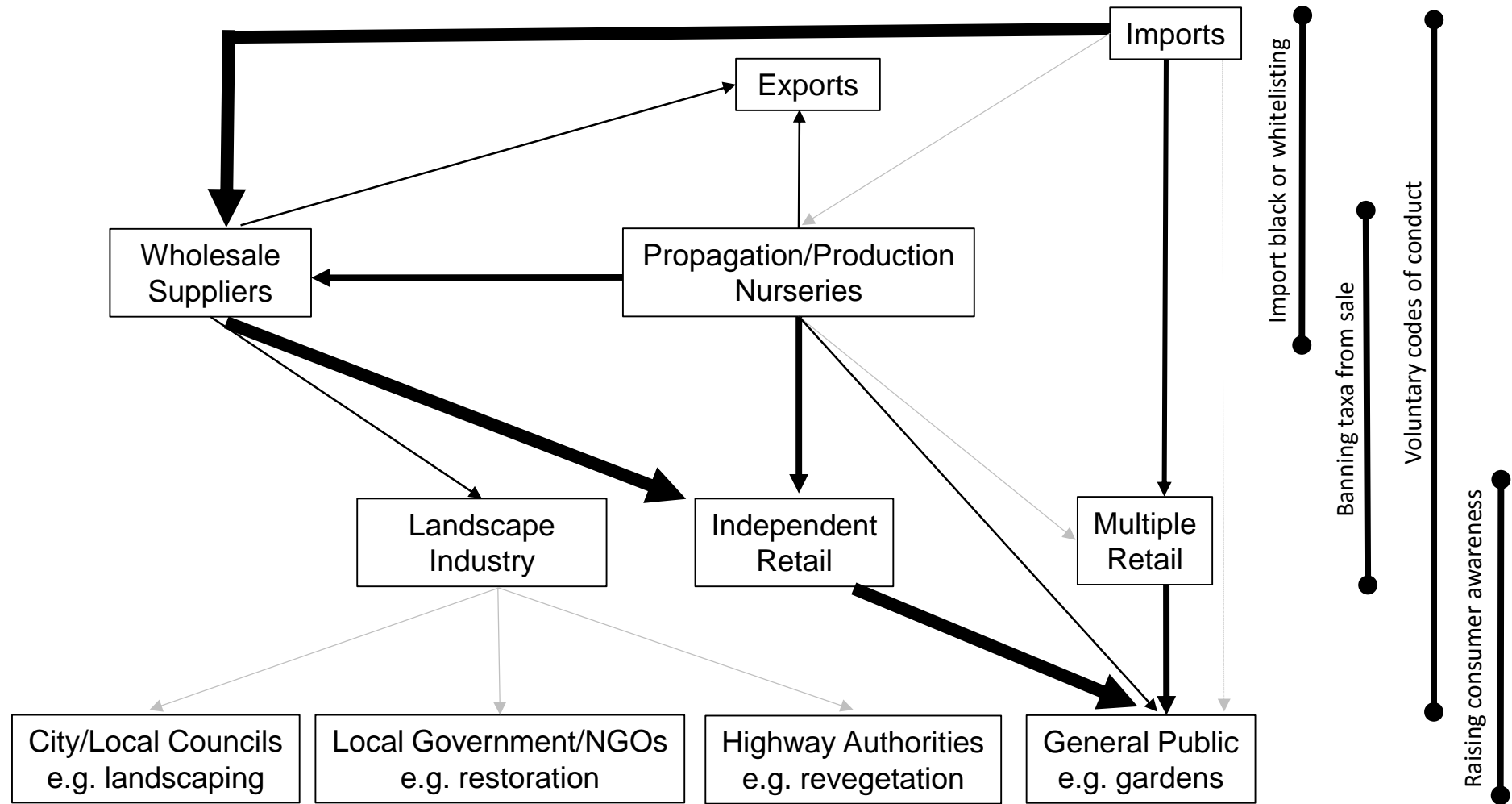
515 **Figure 4.** Schematic representation of how different policy instruments can be
516 integrated for different categories of plant species screened following weed-risk
517 assessment either a) pre-border or b) post-border.

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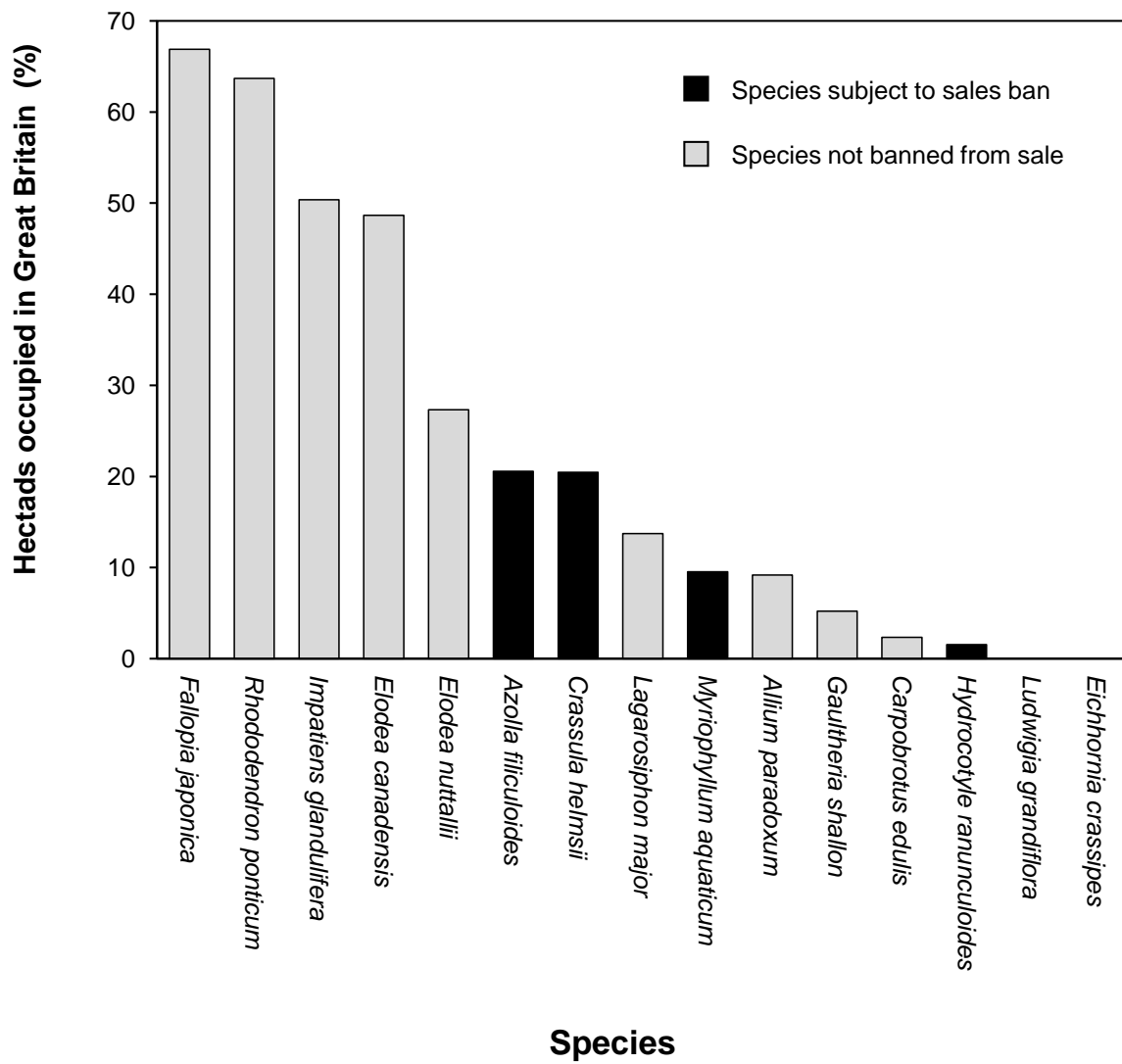


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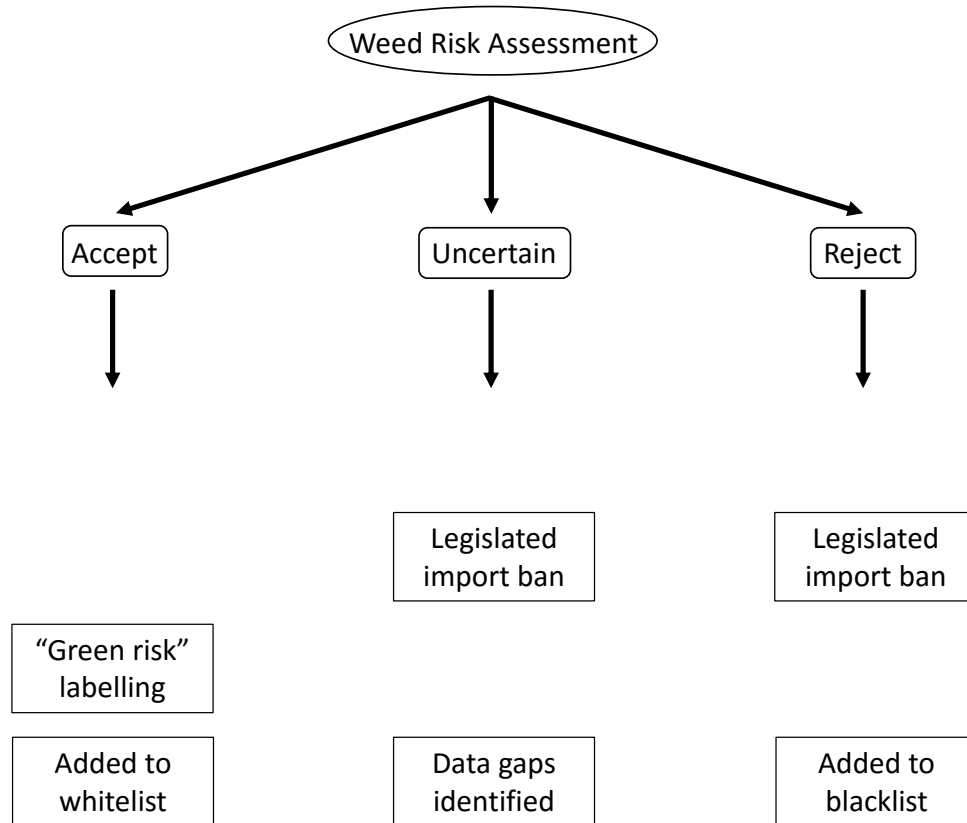
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a) Pre-border policy integration



b) Post-border policy integration

