



## Chapter 14. Summary

by Verdel K. Dawson

Many of the ecosystems in the southwestern United States, including those in the Gila River basin in Arizona and New Mexico, have been degraded by introductions of nonnative fishes, and the native fish species have been compromised. A significant complication in the attempts at

reclamation of these systems is the fact that many of the native fish species of concern have little recreational or commercial value, and therefore, lack the societal support enjoyed by native fish species in other regions of the country. For example, when sea lamprey began to destroy the multibillion dollar commercial/recreational lake trout fishery in the Great Lakes, there was considerable support from the United States and Canadian governments to develop a program for controlling this invasive species. On the other hand, the spikedace and loach minnow do not enjoy the same level of recreational or commercial value as the lake trout and therefore lack public support for their protection. Ironically, some of the nonnative species that are competing with and preying on the native species, were introduced to the area specifically because they were regarded as desirable in other regions of the country.

Usually the degraded aquatic systems in the southwestern United States will require reclamation of habitat that has been altered by human activity and removal or substantial reduction of nonnative fishes. In this report, characteristics of the life stages, habitat preferences, and physicochemical tolerances of native fishes of concern were compared with those of harmful nonnative fishes to aid in identification of vulnerable conditions for nonnative species around which control strategies could be developed. The geographic ranges of native and nonnative fishes of concern were mapped to identify areas inhabited solely by native or nonnative species, or to identify key intersection areas between native species of concern and nonnative species. This information could be critical in the development of integrated pest management strategies. Also, knowledge of life-history characteristics, such as spawning periods, may be valuable for timing of those management efforts.

Knowledge of the mode of action of candidate piscicides and structure-toxicity relationships can be useful for optimizing selectivity of chemicals or combinations of chemicals. The identification of specific energy production inhibitors may provide leads to the development of new chemical tools for selectively managing fish populations. While this field of endeavor is in relative infancy regarding piscicides, there are considerable advancements being made in the field of agricultural chemicals that may have application in the development of fishery chemicals.

Eradication of undesired fishes began almost 100 years ago. The use of piscicides has increased since then as more nonnative species were being introduced and as better toxicants were becoming available. At least 45 chemicals have either been used as piscicides, or are currently in various stages of development. A rating system was devised to evaluate the potential of these chemicals to be useful to fishery managers in resolving some of the problems caused by

nonnative fishes. The ratings were based on taxon selectivity, ease of application, toxicity to nontarget organisms, safety to humans, persistence in the environment, tendency to bioaccumulate, cost, and registration status. Only five of the chemicals achieved ratings of 75 or greater out of a possible score of 100. They included the four toxicants currently registered by the EPA for use as piscicides (antimycin, rotenone, TFM, and Bayluscide®) and the candidate selective piscicide, Squoxin.

Delivery systems have been developed to meet specific management needs and include a variety of formulations and application techniques. Piscicides are generally formulated as either liquids or solids that include inert ingredients to help make them soluble in water. Solid formulations include wetttable powders, soluble bars, and granules. Granules are designed either to release the active ingredient as it sinks through the water column or may contain an outer coating that allows for a delayed release of the chemical. Recently, toxic baits have been developed where a toxicant is impregnated into a bait that is consumed by target organisms that are congregated and actively feeding in an isolated area.

Fishery managers have come to realize that the piscicide “silver bullet” does not currently exist. Therefore, research and development of additional chemical tools would seem to be desirable. However, the use of piscicides is closely regulated by the EPA as mandated by Congress. It is estimated that development and registration of a pesticide can take 8 to 10 years and cost \$35 to \$50 million. Over 100 different tests can be required to register a pesticide; many tests must be conducted under the constraints of a Good Laboratory Practices program. In developing a new piscicide, it is important to have an understanding of the biology of the organism to be controlled. Then chemicals are selected for toxicity screening on the basis of prior knowledge of biological activity of structural classes of chemicals and safety to nontarget organisms. Once a chemical has been selected for development, a series of laboratory and field experiments must be conducted to determine efficacy, residue chemistry, environmental safety, product chemistry, etc., and the results must be submitted for EPA’s review. A manufacturer and sponsor must be identified, labels must be developed and approved, and registrations must be maintained.

Before conducting a piscicide treatment, a cost-benefit analysis of the treatment should be conducted. Not only should the cost of the chemical be considered, but also pre- and post-treatment surveys, environmental assessments and impact statements, travel, equipment, labor, permits, analytical support, on-site toxicity tests, advance notification, etc. The costs should be balanced against the benefits of the treatment. Benefits of a treatment are more difficult to assess, especially estimating the benefits of protecting or restoring a threatened or endangered species. This usually takes the form of evaluating the impact of various control options on the ecosystem.

New taxon-specific piscicides needed to help manage the environmental problems caused by nonnative fishes in the southwest are not available. The existing class of registered piscicides are all energy production inhibitors. They all have physicochemical properties that allow their rapid uptake by fish across the gills and subsequent rapid distribution and loss from the body. There are a number of new mitochondrial complex I inhibitor ligands that are possible candidate piscicides, however, fish toxicity data are needed to evaluate their potential. A possible option for developing selective piscicides would be to evaluate the relative toxicities of various combinations of existing general piscicides to target and nontarget fishes.

The concept of pharmacokinetic modeling has been proposed as a mechanism for predicting differences in toxicity between species by evaluating distribution or elimination characteristics of

chemicals. More complex models called physiologically based pharmacokinetic models have been used for risk assessment of toxicity. These models are based on the specific physiology of the species and physicochemical characteristics of the compound. However, pharmacokinetic data have not been developed for registered or candidate piscicides and development of physiologically based pharmacokinetic models in fish is in its scientific infancy, so the use of these models to identify species-specific piscicides is premature at this time.

The use of chemicals is still the most direct method of reducing pest numbers, and it is often one of the first methods considered for control. However, it is not likely that the present arsenal of approved selective piscicides would be effective for controlling nonnative fishes in the southwestern United States because the composition of native and nonnative species is different from most areas where selective piscicides are being used. The development and registration of a new selective piscicide specifically for use on nonnative fish species in the southwestern United States would be time-consuming and considerably expensive. That does not mean that fishery managers should just throw up their hands and concede defeat. We recommend that the problems resulting from the invasion of nonnative fishes should be divided into two categories: (1) short-term emergency situations that require immediate action, and (2) longer-term issues that have the luxury of being monitored while research and development are conducted on new and innovative management tools.

The emergency situations should be addressed primarily with the use of one of the currently registered piscicides (antimycin, rotenone, TFM, or Bayluscide®). On the basis of the limited data available, none of the four chemicals demonstrate a margin of safety sufficient to permit selective removal of nonnative fish without harming native species. Therefore, effective use of these chemicals would most likely be as general toxicants rather than as selective toxicants. If critical native species are present, then as many of the native fishes as feasible should be temporarily removed by electroshocking or other capture techniques and placed in refugia until after the reclamation treatment. Unfortunately, the lampricides, TFM and Bayluscide®, are not currently registered for general use outside of the Great Lakes region with the exception of Bayluscide® which is also registered for use in snail control. Therefore, additional permits would be required, such as an emergency exemption or a special local needs (Section 24[c]) permit to use either lampricide in the southwestern United States. Antimycin and rotenone, however, are currently registered as piscicides for use throughout the United States, and their treatment costs are similar. Unless complete eradication of nonnative species can be achieved and reinfestation can be prevented, piscicides probably will have to be reapplied indefinitely to keep nonnative populations in check.

Fish toxicants have long been considered the best rehabilitation tool available for fishery management (Prevost 1960, Hooper et al. 1964, Klar and Schleen 2000). However, there have been many treatment failures reported in the literature. Lopinot (1975) summarized the use of piscicides in the midwestern United States and reported that during 1963-72 about 82% of the treatments were considered successful. Meronek et al. (1996) reviewed 250 fish control projects and concluded 43% were successful, 29% unsuccessful, and 28% as having insufficient data to determine success or failure. There obviously needs to be improvements made in the piscicides, formulations, and methods of application that are available to fishery managers. Greater success in fishery management could probably be achieved if chemical control was considered only as one tool of many to be used in an integrated pest management approach. This would involve a system comprised of chemical, biological, and physical controls. Creative integration of multiple pest management techniques has been successfully used in agriculture and its importance is now being realized in management of aquatic pests. In addition to the use of piscicides, other management tools should be included as part of an integrated management program. Techniques

that should be considered include the use of water-level manipulations, barriers, targeted overharvest, stocking predators, sterilants, toxic baits, and gynogenesis.

In situations where populations of native fishes are not imminently imperiled by nonnative species, there may be time for longer-term solutions to be developed. These situations should be monitored to evaluate the extent of any ecological impacts and the rates of resulting ecosystem decline. While these systems are being monitored, efforts should be directed toward development of potential future management techniques. These might include the development and use of selective piscicides, attractants and repellants, immuno-contraceptive agents, viruses, chromosomal manipulations, gynogenesis, and transgenics.

## Acknowledgments

This work was funded through an Interagency Agreement with the Phoenix Area Office of the Bureau of Reclamation (Number 01-AA-32-0040). The authors thank J. Rinne for photographs of fishes native to the Gila River basin and the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service and the Great Lakes Fishery Commission for providing figures and photographs relating to sea lamprey and their control in the Great Lakes. This report was greatly improved with the thoughtful reviews provided by Rob Clarkson, Paul Marsh, Brian Finlayson, Brad Shepard, and by several anonymous reviewers. We thank Georginia Ardinger for editorial assistance.

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## Glossary

<	less than
>	greater than
°C	degrees Centigrade
2,4-D®	(2,4-dichlorophenoxy)acetic acid
ADI	Acceptable Daily Intake
ADP	adenosine diphosphate
ATP	adenosine triphosphate
Bayluscide®	2-aminoethanol salt of 2',5-dichloro-4'-nitrosalicylanilide
Bt®	<i>Bacillus thurengsis</i>
CFR	Code of Federal Regulation
Complex I	NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase
Complex II	Succinate:ubiquinone oxidoreductase
Complex III	Ubiquinol:ferrocytochrome c oxidoreductase
Complex IV	ferrocytochrome c:oxygen oxidoreductase
Complex V	F0F1-ATP synthase/oxidative phosphorylation uncoupling agents
DANEX-80	80% dimethyl-1,2,2-trichloro-1-hydroxyethylphosphonate
dieldrin	1,2,3,4,10,10-hexachloro-6,7-epoxy-1,4,4a,5,6,7,8,8a-octahydro-endo-1,4-exo-5,8-dimethanonaphthalene
DDVP	Vapona® or Dichlorvos
DMF	dimethyl formamide
DDT	1,1,1-trichloro-2,2-bis(p-chlorophenyl)ethane
Endosulfan or Thiodan®	1,4,5,6,7,7-hexachloro-5-norbornene-2,3-dimethanol cyclic sulfite
EPA	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
ETS	electron transport system
EUP	end-use products
FDA	U.S. Food and Drug Administration
FAD	Flavin Adenine Diphosphate
FADH2	Reduced Flavin Adenine Diphosphate
FIFRA	Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and Rodenticide Act
GD-174	2-(digeranylamino)-ethanol
GLFC	Great Lakes Fishery Commission
GLP	Good Laboratory Practice
ha	hectare
HTH	calcium hypochlorite
km	kilometers
Juglone	5-hydroxy-1,4-napthoquinone
L	liter
L/s	liters per second
LC	lethal concentration
LC <sub>50</sub>	lethal concentrations to 50% of the test species
LC <sub>100</sub>	lethal concentrations to 100% of the test species
m	meter
m <sup>3</sup> /sec	cubic meter per second
mg/L	ppm (parts per million)
MMF	monomethyl formamide
MUP	manufacturing-use products
NADH	Reduced nicotinamide adenine diphosphate

OP	oxidative phosphorylation
PB	piperonyl butoxide
PCIP	polychlorpinene
PEG	polyethylene glycol
phosphamidon	dimicron
Phostoxin®	aluminum phosphine
P <sub>i</sub>	organic phosphate
Salicylanilide I	2',5-dichloro-3-tert-butyl-6-methyl-4'-nitrosalicylanilide
Squoxin	1,1'-methylenebis(2-naphthol)
Sumithion®	O,O-dimethyl-O-[3-methyl-4-nitrophenyl] phosphorodithioate
TFM	3-trifluoromethyl-4-nitrophenol
thanite	isobornyl thiocynoacetate
µg/L	microgram per liter (parts per billion)
UMESC	Upper Midwest Environmental Sciences Center
USDA	U.S. Department of Agriculture