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insect pests

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- 5 For over 100 years it has been recognized that insect pests
- ⁶ evolve resistance to chemical pesticides. More recently,
- 7 managers have advocated restrained use of pesticides, crop
- ${\scriptstyle 8}$ $\scriptstyle \ \ \, rotation,$ the use of multiple pesticides, and pesticide-free
- 9 sanctuaries as resistance management practices. Game theory
- 10 provides a conceptual framework for combining the resistance
- strategies of the insects and the control strategies of the pest
- ¹² manager into a unified conceptual and modelling framework.
- Game theory can contrast an ecologically enlightened
- application of pesticides with an evolutionarily enlightened one.
- 15 In the former case the manager only considers ecological
- 16 consequences whereas the latter anticipates the evolutionary
- response of the pests. Broader applications of this game theory
- 18 approach include anti-biotic resistance, fisheries management
- ¹⁹ and therapy resistance in cancer.

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32 Introduction

Game theory is the field of mathematics devoted to 33 solving conflicts of interest between two or more players. 34 It solves problems where your best action (strategy) 35 depends upon the strategies of others. In nature, game 36 theory is particularly suited for understanding adaptations 37 emerging from evolution by natural selection [1[•]]. "The 38 deer flees and the wolf pursues" [2] succinctly describes 39 games between predators and prey. The evolution of 40 pesticide resistance represents a special and economically 41 crucial case of predator-prey games. Here, we illustrate 42

how classical game theory and evolutionary game theory 43 can be conjoined to produce bioeconomic games of pesticide resistance. Game theory and pest management thus 45 become part of integrated pest management [3,4]. 46

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The evolution of biocide resistance marks the most 47 dramatic, damaging and rapid manifestations of natural 48 selection. Examples of rapid evolution in response to 49 humans attempts to chemically control pests include 50 herbicide resistance [5-8], antiobiotic resistance (e.g., 51 MRSA [9]), drug resistance by parasites (e.g., malaria, 52 [10,11]), and at the most personal level, the evolution 53 of therapy resistance in human cancers [12,13]. Here we 54 shall focus on the use of pesticides to control insect 55 damage to agricultural crops, but the concepts and models 56 can be extended to these other examples of disease and 57 pest control. 58

We shall review the problem of pesticide resistance as a 59 bio-economic game. The game has insect players that 60 may evolve pesticide resistance, and the farmers in addi-61 tion to the manufacturers and regulators represent players 62 with economic and social interests. Such games can 63 consider human health and environmental consequences 64 of pesticides, and they can be added as costs and exter-65 nalities. With the aim of sharing the contexts of pesticide 66 games, we shall introduce a simple model for illustrating 67 concepts. We shall emphasize the comparison between 68 ecologically versus evolutionarily enlightened [14] 69 approaches to pesticide applications [15[•]]. Throughout, 70 we shall discuss parallels in such systems as fisheries 71 management [16], anti-biotic resistance in infectious dis-72 eases [17[•]], and therapy resistance in cancer [18]. In 73 conclusion, we advocate greater use of game theory in 74 developing resistance management practices [19]. 75

Pesticide management as game

The interacting players in the game can be diverse and 77 include society at large, regulators, biocide manufac-78 turers, seed companies breeders, the birds or spiders that 79 consume the pest, and of course, the farmers and the 80 insect pest [20]. The insects and other species within the 81 ecosystem find themselves in an *eco-evolutionary game* 82 where ecological dynamics occur through changes in 83 population size and evolutionary dynamics involve heri-84 table changes in the species. In an evolutionary game the 85 individuals (players come and go through births and 86 deaths), their strategies are inherited, and their payoffs 87 take the form of increased survivorship and breeding [21]. 88 The solution to such games are often evolutionarily stable 89

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2 Pests and resistance

strategies (ESS) [22]. An ESS is a strategy (or coexisting set
of strategies) that when common cannot be invaded by
any rare alternative strategies.

The farmers or other human players engage in a more 92 traditional, classical game. They choose rather than 93 inherit their strategies, and payoffs take the form of 94 monetary and/or utility rewards. Furthermore, the human 95 players can anticipate and plan for the responses of other 96 players [23]. Players in evolutionary games can never 97 evolve a response to something that has not yet hap-98 pened. The solution to classical games can be the Nash 99 Solution [24]. This is a no regret strategy. When all players are at a Nash solution no individual player can benefit 100 from unilaterally changing his/her strategy. 101

As humans we can anticipate the evolutionary conse-102 quence of our actions on nature. Yet in managing, we 103 often do not anticipate but merely respond to the evolu-104 tionary changes we cause. And so it is with much of pest 105 management. We respond to the ecological costs and 106 benefits of our biocides without regard to their evolution-107 ary consequences. We shall call this ecologically enlightened 108 management. Game theory explains the temptation to simply be ecologically enlightened stewards. Game 109 theory is also ideal for anticipating and incorporating 110 the eco-evolutionary dynamics that we cause. When both 111 the population and evolutionary dynamics of the species 112 of interest are incorporated into human decision making 113 we shall refer to this as evolutionarily enlightened manage-114 *ment* (sensu [25]).

To keep things simple, we will view pesticides as a game of the farmers versus the insect pests. The game may take

a general form of:

$$G(u, m, N) = F(u, N) - \mu(u, m)$$

Table 1

 Model basics

 Pests' perspective

 Dynamics of pests' density N

$$\dot{N} = \frac{dN}{dt} = NG(u, m, N)$$

 Fitness generating function
 $G(u, m, N) = r\frac{(1-u)K-N}{K} - \frac{m}{k+bu}$

 Optimal level of pesticide resistance u*
 $u^* = \arg\max_u G(u, m, N) = \sqrt{\frac{m}{rb}} - \frac{k}{b}$

 Equilibrium density of pests N*
 $N^* = K(1-u) - \frac{mK}{(k+bu)r}$

 Farmer's perspective
 $\Pi(m, N, Y) = Y(1 - aN^2) - cm - \gamma$

 Net profit of the farmer Π
 $\Pi(m, N, Y) = Y(1 - aN^2) - cm - \gamma$

 Ecologically enlightened pest control
 Evolutionarily enlightened pest control
 Neither

 $-2aYN\frac{\partial M}{\partial m} - c$
 $-2aYN[\frac{\partial M}{\partial u} + \frac{\partial N \partial u}{\partial u \partial m}] - c$
 $-2aYN - c$
 $-\frac{K}{r(k+bu)}$
 $-K\frac{\partial u}{\partial m} - \frac{rK(k+bu)-bmrK\frac{\partial u}{\partial m}}{r(k+bu)^2}$
 n.a.

(1)

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$$\Pi(u,m,N) = Y(u,N) - cm \tag{2}$$

where G is the per capita growth rate of the insect pest and 118 Π is the net profit to the farmers. The per capita growth rate of the insects is the difference between their growth 119 rate in the absence of pesticides, F, and the mortality rate 120 induced by the application of pesticides, μ . The farmers' 121 net profit is the difference between the crop harvest, Y, 122 and the cost of the pesticides. Each of these are functions 123 of the resistance strategy of the insects, u, the rate at 124 which pesticides are applied, *m*, and the density of 125 insects. N. 126

We can assume that the insect's per capita growth rate, F, 127 in the absence of pesticide declines with insect density, 128 N, and that their resistance strategy, $u: \partial F/\partial N < 0$ and $\partial F/\partial N < 0$ $\partial u < 0$ represent negative density-dependence from competition and the cost of resistance, respectively. The 129 insect's mortality rate from the pesticide declines with 130 their resistance strategy $(\partial \mu / \partial u < 0)$ and increases with 131 the dosage of pesticide $(\partial \mu / \partial m > 0)$. In this formulation 132 the population growth rate of the insects is given by 133 $\frac{dN}{dt} = NG(u, m, N)$. See Table 1 for more details regarding the model assumptions. 134

Crop yield will decline with the density of insects 135 $(\partial Y/\partial N < 0)$ and it may decline directly with the resistance strategy of the insects if this renders the insects less 137 efficient foragers (an additional cost of resistance; 138 $\partial Y/\partial u > 0$). The cost of pesticides is simply the product of their cost, *c*, and the rate at which pesticides are 139 applied, *m*. 140

In the absence of pesticide, or under some critical level of pesticide, the optimal level of pesticide resistance for the insects will be $u^* = 0$. As applications of pesticide increase, the optimal level of resistance will also increase.

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