

Outbreaks of forest defoliating insects in Japan, 1950–2000

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Abstract

In Japan, several forest-defoliating insects reach outbreak levels and cause serious defoliation. Stand mortality sometimes occurs after severe defoliation. However, in general, tree mortality caused by insect defoliation is low because of the prevailing moist climate in Japan. Evergreen conifers are more susceptible to tree mortality as a result of insect defoliation whereas deciduous broad-leaved trees are seldom killed. Insect defoliation occurs more frequently in man-made environments such as among shade trees, orchards, and plantations than in natural habitats. Outbreaks of some defoliators tend to occur in stands of a particular age: e.g. outbreaks of the pine caterpillar, *Dendrolimus spectabilis* Butler (Lepidoptera: Lasiocampidae) occur more frequently in young pine plantations. In contrast, defoliation caused by outbreaks of lepidopterous and hymenopterous pests in larch plantations is more frequent with stand maturation. There is a relationship between outbreaks of some defoliators and altitude above sea level. Most outbreaks of forest defoliators were terminated by insect pathogens that operated in a density-dependent fashion. Since the 1970s, Japan has been prosperous and can afford to buy timber from abroad. More recently, there has been an increasing demand for timber in Japan, that coincides with a huge demand internationally, so that the country will need to produce more timber locally in the future. The increasing pressure on the forestry industry to meet this demand will require more sophisticated methods of pest control coupled with more sustainable methods of silviculture.

Introduction

Japan is a long, narrow country extending from the northeast to the southwest. The land area is 370,000 km², of which c. 70% is forested (Japan Forestry Agency, 2000). Except for Hokkaido, Japan's northernmost main island, forests are located mainly on the steep mountain slopes. Reforestation proceeded rapidly after the second world war, in which natural broad-leaved forests were replaced with coniferous plantations. Most of the plantations were monocultures. The major tree species planted were *Cryptomeria japonica* D. Don (Taxodiaceae), *Chamaecyparis obtusa* Endl. (Cupressaceae), *Pinus densiflora* Sieb. et Zucc. (Pinaceae), *Pinus thunbergii* Parl. (Pinaceae), *Larix leptolepis* Murray (Pinaceae), *Abies sachalinensis* Fr. Schm. (Pinaceae), and *Picea jezoensis* Carr. (Pinaceae). At present, only 30% of

the total forested areas are natural forests and the rest are plantations (Japan Forestry Agency, 2000). Insect damage in Japan has been monitored and recorded by the Forestry Agency since the 1870s. This paper summarizes the main features of forest defoliator outbreaks in Japan.

Forest type and insect outbreaks

Most defoliator outbreaks in Japan have occurred in plantations (table 1). Although there are some insects that cause defoliation in natural forests, most of these are mainly restricted to non-plantation tree species, e.g. the beech caterpillar, *Syntypistis (Quadricalcarifera) punctatella* (Motchulsky) (Lepidoptera: Notodontidae) (Igarashi, 1982; Nielsen *et al.*, 1996). In the case of insects that cause defoliation in both natural forests and plantations, outbreaks are most likely to occur in plantations. For example, outbreaks of the gypsy moth, *Lymantria dispar* Linnaeus (Lepidoptera: Lymantriidae) usually start in larch plantations

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Table 1. Major outbreak species of forest defoliators in Japan in relation to forest types (after Kobayashi & Taketani, 1994).

Defoliator	Host plant*	Forest type**
Lepidoptera		
<i>Dendrolimus spectabilis</i> Butler	<i>Pinus densiflora</i>	P, N, S
	<i>Pinus thunbergii</i>	P, N, S
	<i>Pinus strobus</i>	P, S
<i>Dendrolimus superans</i> Butler	<i>Abies sachalinensis</i>	P, N, S
<i>Cyclophragma yamadai</i> (Nagano)	Fagaceae	N
<i>Lymantria dispar</i> (Linnaeus)	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P, S
	Broad-leaved	N
<i>Lymantria fumida</i> Butler	<i>Abies hondoensis</i>	N
	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P, S
<i>Lymantria mathura aurosa</i> Butler	Broad-leaved	N
<i>Calliteara argentata</i> (Butler)	<i>Cryptomeria japonica</i>	P, S
	<i>Chamaecyparis obtusa</i>	P, S
<i>Euproctis subflava</i> Bremer	Broad-leaved	N
<i>Ivela auripes</i> Butler	Broad-leaved	N
<i>Syntypistis punctatella</i> (Motschulsky)	<i>Fagus crenata</i>	N
<i>Phalerodonta manleyi</i> Leech	Fagaceae	N
<i>Clostera anastomosis</i> Linnaeus	<i>Populus, Salix</i>	P, S
<i>Milionia basalis</i> Walker	Broad-leaved	P, N
<i>Operophtera brumata</i> Linnaeus	Broad-leaved	P, N
<i>Venusia phasma</i> Butler	<i>Fagus crenata</i>	N
<i>Erannis defoliaria</i> Clerck	<i>Abies sachalinensis</i>	P
	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Ptycholomoides aeriferanus</i> (Herrich-Schaffer)	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Spilonota eremitana</i> Moriuti	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Cryptoblabes loxiella</i> Ragonot	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Coleophora obducta</i> Meyrick	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
Hymenoptera		
<i>Neodiprion sertifer</i> Geoffroy	<i>Pinus densiflora</i>	P, N
	<i>Pinus thunbergii</i>	P, N
<i>Neodiprion japonicus</i> (Marlatt)	<i>Pinus densiflora</i>	P, N
	<i>Pinus thunbergii</i>	P, N
	<i>Pinus ryukyuensis</i>	P, N
	<i>Pinus strobus</i>	P
	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Diprion nipponicus</i> Rohwer	<i>Pinus densiflora</i>	P, N
	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Cephalcia variegata</i> Takeuchi	<i>Pinus pumila</i>	N
<i>Pachynematus itoi</i> Okutani	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Pristiphora erichsoni</i> Hartig	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Anoplonyx orientis</i> Smith	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Pristiphora takagii</i> Wong	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
<i>Cephalcia isshikii</i> (Takeuchi)	<i>Picea</i> spp.	P, N
<i>Gilpinia tohi</i> Takeuchi	<i>Picea</i> spp.	
<i>Pristiphora ezomatsuvora</i> Togashi	<i>Larix leptolepis</i>	P
Coleoptera		
<i>Basilepta pallidula</i> Baly	<i>Pinus densiflora</i>	P, N
	<i>Pinus thunbergii</i>	P, N
	<i>Cryptomeria japonica</i>	P
	<i>Chamaecyparis obtusa</i>	P
<i>Agelastica coerulea</i> Baly	<i>Alnus hirsuta</i>	P, N
	<i>Alnus maximowiczii</i>	N
<i>Pyrrhalta fuscipennis</i> Baly	<i>Acer</i> spp.	N, S
<i>Pyrrhalta maculicollis</i> Motschulsky	<i>Ulmus davidiana</i>	N, S
	<i>Ulmus laciniata</i>	N, S
<i>Dactylispa subquadrata</i> Baly	Fagaceae	N
<i>Chujoa uetsukii</i> Chujo	<i>Fagus crenata</i>	N
<i>Rhynchaenus sanguinipes</i> Roelofs	<i>Zelkova serrata</i>	N, S
<i>Rhynchaenus japonicus</i> Hustache	Deciduous oaks	N

*Only host plants with outbreak records are listed.

**P, plantation; N, natural forest; S, shade trees.

and spread to natural broad-leaved forests in the second year of the outbreaks. Outbreaks of the pine caterpillar, *Dendrolimus spectabilis* Butler (Lepidoptera: Lasiocampidae), occur less frequently in natural pine forests than in plantations. Many insects on larch, *Larix leptolepis*, frequently cause defoliation in plantations but less often in natural larch forests. The situation is similar to defoliating insects whose outbreaks are restricted to orchards and urban areas. These include the tent caterpillar, *Malacosoma neustria testacea* Motschulsky (Lepidoptera: Lasiocampidae), the satin moth, *Leucoma salicis* Linnaeus (Lepidoptera: Lymantriidae), and the fall webworm, *Hyphantria cunea* Drury (Lepidoptera: Arctiidae). *Dendrolimus superans* Butler (Lepidoptera: Lasiocampidae) feeds on foliage of many species belonging to the Pinaceae. On Hokkaido Island, this insect reaches outbreak levels in *A. sachalinensis* stands and causes serious defoliation. However, on Honshu Island outbreaks of *D. superans* are restricted to *Picea jezoensis* Carr. var. *hondoensis* Rehd. (Pinaceae) and *Cedrus deodara* Loud. (Pinaceae), when these species are used as shade trees. It was proposed that differences in the frequency of outbreaks among different forest types were mainly due to the activities of natural enemies (Furuta, 1976, 1982).

Stand age and insect outbreaks

Outbreaks of some defoliators tend to occur in stands of a particular age. For example, outbreaks of the pine caterpillar, *D. spectabilis*, have been frequently reported in many localities prior to 1980 but only in a few stands after 1980 as forests aged (Kobayashi & Taketani, 1994). Because *D. spectabilis* outbreaks tend to occur in young plantations (< 20 years old) it is speculated that the decrease in frequency of incidence of pine tree defoliation caused by this species is due to the increasing age of pine stands planted mostly after the 1950s. The opposite trend is evident in larch plantations, where the frequency of defoliation increased after the 1980s. There are several lepidopterous and hymenopterous defoliators that attack mature larch stands. In Hokkaido and the northern Honshu islands, outbreaks of the larch sawfly, *Pristiphora erichsonii* (Hartig) (Hymenoptera: Tenthredinidae), have been reported in *Larix leptolepis* plantations older than 30 years since the late 1980s. Outbreaks of this sawfly usually continue for four to six years in a given area.

Elevation and insect outbreaks

There is a relationship between outbreaks of some defoliators and height above sea level. In beech forests in Japan, four insect species often reach outbreak levels and cause severe defoliation. These are the beech caterpillar, *S. punctatella*, a beech sawfly, *Fagineura crenativora* Vikberg & Zinovjevthe (Hymenoptera: Tenthredinidae) (Shinohara *et al.*, 2000), a gall midge, *Oligotrophus faggalli* Monzen (Diptera: Cecidomyiidae), and the chrysomelid beetle, *Chujoa uetsukii* Chujo (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae). These defoliations tend to occur at certain elevations (fig. 1). The altitudinal range depends on the region, but the outbreak zones tend to be lower at higher latitudes because microclimate (temperature regime) is similar. Defoliation by *S. punctatella* occurs at the highest elevations followed by *F. crenativora*. The gall midge, *O. faggalli*, and the chrysomelid beetle, *C. uetsukii*, cause severe defoliation at lower

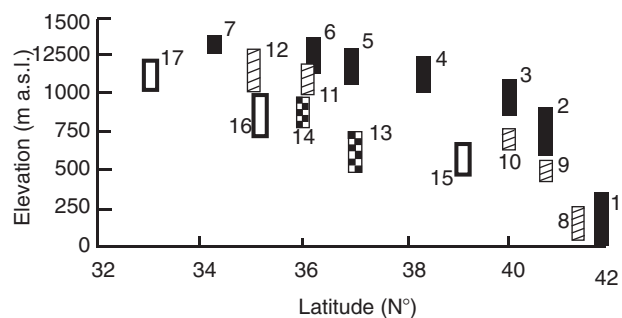


Fig. 1. Altitudinal and latitudinal gradients of incidences of insect defoliation on beech, *Fagus crenata* Blume, in Japan. ■, *Syntypistis punctatella*; ▨, *Fagineura crenativora*; ▩, *Oligotrophus faggalli*; □, *Chujoa uetsukii*; 1, Donann Area (K. Tachi, pers. comm.); 2, Hakkohda (Kamata & Igarashi, 1990), Mt. Iwaki (Kamata & Igarashi, 1994); 3, Hachimantai (Yanbe & Igarashi, 1983); 4, Sado (K. Nunokawa, pers. comm.); 5, Shiga Kogen (R. Watanabe, pers. comm.); 6, Hakusan (Togashi, 1984), 7, Mt. Gomadan (S. Hagiwara, pers. comm.); 8, Shimokita (M. Igarashi, pers. comm.); 9, Hakkohda (J. Kon, pers. comm.); 10, Hachimantai (N. Kamata, pers. obs.); 11, Mt. Tsukuba (I. Ohkoshi, pers. comm.); 12, Tanzawa (Yamagami *et al.*, 1997, 1998, 1999); 13, Naka-Uonuma (Kurashima, 1995); 14, Hida (Nohira & Ohashi, 1991, 1992, 1994; Nohira, 1993); 15, Waga (N. Kamata, pers. obs.); 16, Shimane (Uetsuki, 1955; J. Inoue, pers. comm.); 17, Mt. Sobo (K. Ito, pers. comm.).

elevations. Environmental factors relating to altitude, which include stand structure, natural enemies, competitors, host plant quality, and climate, are the likely cause of altitude-dependent outbreaks of these insects (Kamata, 2000).

Tree mortality following insect defoliation

Many trees may die following severe defoliation, for example those caused by *Lymantria dispar* in North America (Gerardi & Grimm, 1979), by *Lymantria monacha* Linnaeus (Lepidoptera: Lymantriidae) in central Europe (Bejer, 1988), and by *Dendrolimus punctatus* Walker (Lepidoptera: Lasiocampidae) in China (Xiao, 1990). However, in Japan, tree mortality following insect defoliation is relatively low probably because water stress is less intense due to the country's oceanic climate. Annual precipitation is more than 1000 mm in most parts of Japan, ranging from 1000 to 5000 mm (Japan Meteorological Agency, 2000). For example, mortality of beech trees following *S. punctatella* defoliation is usually < 1% (Kamata, 1997). However, in the 1980s, there is a single record of a large number of beech trees dying as a result of defoliation by this species (Kamata *et al.*, 1988). In 1982, *S. punctatella* populations reached outbreak levels and beech trees were severely defoliated over 280 ha of natural beech forests in the Hakkouda Mountains in Aomori Prefecture (fig. 2a). The density of caterpillars decreased during 1983. In both 1984 and 1985, the summers were extremely hot and dry. Monthly precipitation in August during these two years was *c.* 40 mm, which was less than one-third of the average rainfall during the period (fig. 2b). More than 10,000 trees were killed and tree mortality reached *c.* 50% over *c.* 100 ha of beech forest inside the 1982 outbreak area (fig. 1a). The most severely affected areas were located on the hill tops, where trees suffered more severe

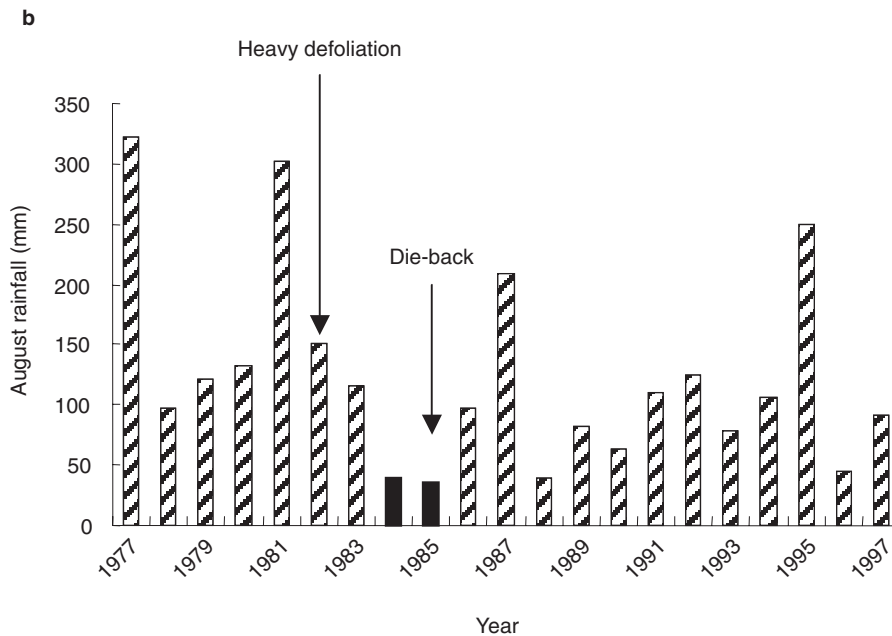
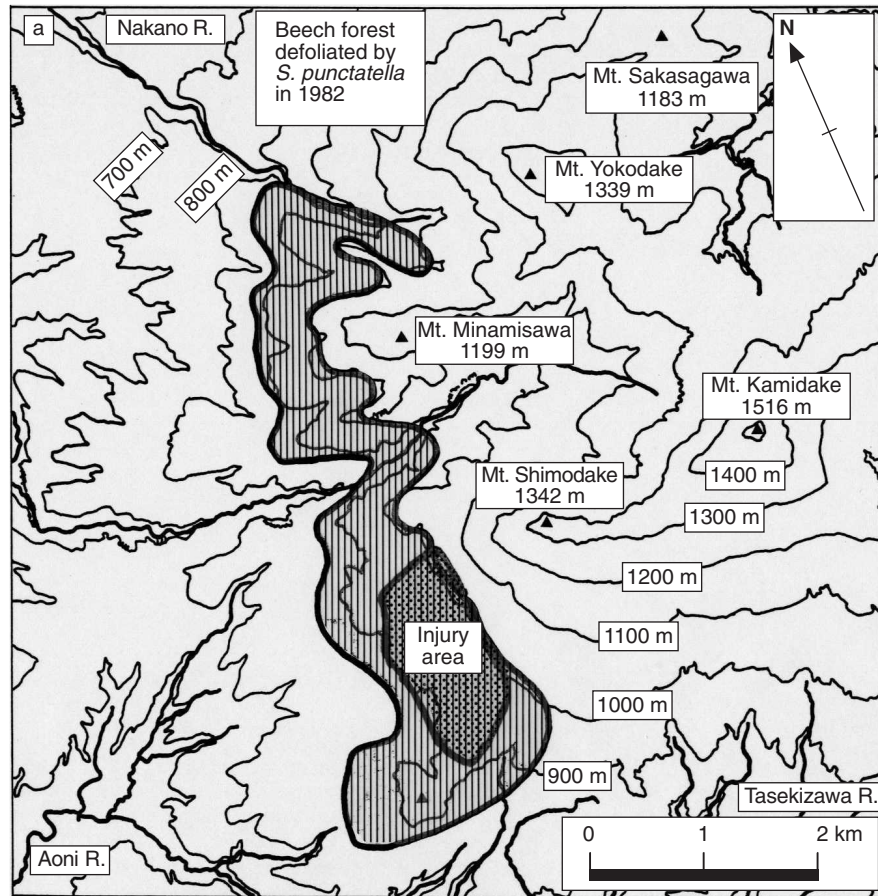


Fig. 2. Mass dieback of beech following defoliation by *Syntypistis punctatella* in Hakkoda Mountains, Aomori, Japan. (a) Sites where defoliation occurred in the summer of 1982 (280 ha) (▨) and tree mortality in 1985 (100 ha) (▩). In the main injury area (▧), mortality of canopy beech trees reached 47%. (b) Total monthly rainfall during August at Kuroishi, the nearest weather station of AMeDAS (Automated Meteorological Data Acquisition System by the Japan Meteorological Agency) was 15 km from the area of tree mortality. Heavy *S. punctatella* defoliation in 1982 was followed by two successive years of hot and dry summers (1984 and 1985).

Table 2. Pathogens known to terminate outbreaks of major forest defoliators in Japan.

Order	Defoliator	Disease	Pathogen*	**	Reference	
Lepidoptera	<i>Dendrolimus spectabilis</i>	Virus	CPV	1	Aruga <i>et al.</i> , 1963; Koyama, 1963, 1965; Katagiri & Takamura, 1966	
			NPV	2	Koyama, 1961, 1963; Aruga <i>et al.</i> , 1963	
			GV	3	Lian <i>et al.</i> , 1986	
		Bacteria	Bacillus thuringiensis	2	Katagiri & Iwata, 1976	
			Fungus	Beauveria bassiana	1	Katagiri & Iwata, 1978
				<i>Paecilomyces farinosus</i>	3	Kokubo, 1971
	<i>Dendrolimus superans</i>	Virus	CPV	3	Hasegawa & Koyama, 1937	
			NPV	3	Iwata, 1977	
			Fungus	<i>Paecilomyces farinosus</i>	1	Kobayashi & Taketani, 1994; Katagiri, 1995
	<i>Lymantria dispar</i>	Fungus	<i>Nomuraea rileyi</i>	3	Hasegawa & Koyama, 1941	
			<i>Entomophaga maimaiga</i>	3	Hasegawa & Koyama, 1937	
				1	Koyama, 1954; Sato & Takamura, 1975; Shimazu & Soper, 1986	
	<i>Lymantria fumida</i>	Virus	NPV	1	Aruga <i>et al.</i> , 1961; Koyama, 1954; Katagiri, 1969	
		Virus	NPV	1	Koyama & Katagiri, 1959; Katagiri <i>et al.</i> , 1971; Katagiri, 1977	
	<i>Lymantria mathura aurosa</i>	Virus	CPV	2	Katagiri, 1977	
			NPV	3	Koyama, 1963	
	<i>Calliteara argentata</i>	Virus	CPV	3	Martignoni & Iwai, 1981	
	<i>Euproctis subflava</i>	Virus	NPV	1	Kitamura, 1966; Shibata, 1983	
	<i>Ivera auripes</i>	Virus	NPV	1	Inoue, 1971, 1972, 1973	
			CPV	3	Katagiri, 1995	
	<i>Hyphantria cunea</i>	Virus	NPV	1	Hukuhara & Akami, 1987	
			NPV	2	Kunimi, 1982	
	<i>Syntypistis punctatella</i>	Fungus	GV	2	Hukuhara, 1972; Tomita & Ebihara, 1982	
			<i>Paecilomyces fumosoroseus</i>	2	Saito & Aoki, 1983	
			<i>Cordyceps militaris</i>	1	Yanbe & Igarashi, 1983; Kamata <i>et al.</i> , 1997	
			<i>Paecilomyces farinosus</i>	2	Kamata <i>et al.</i> , 1997	
			<i>Paecilomyces fumosoroseus</i>	2	Kamata <i>et al.</i> , 1997	
			<i>Metarhizium anisopliae</i>	2	Kamata <i>et al.</i> , 1997	
	<i>Clostera anastomosis</i>	Virus	<i>Beauveria bassiana</i>	2	Kamata <i>et al.</i> , 1997	
			NPV	3	Martignoni & Iwai, 1981; Lian <i>et al.</i> , 1986	
			CPV	3	Martignoni & Iwai, 1981	
	<i>Milionia basalis</i>	Virus	GV	3	Martignoni & Iwai, 1981	
CPV			3	Katagiri & Iwata, 1978		
NPV			3	Martignoni & Iwai, 1981		
<i>Operophtera brumata</i>	Virus	EPV	3	Martignoni & Iwai, 1981		
		CPV	3	Martignoni & Iwai, 1981		
		NPV	1	Ozawa, 1971; Katagiri & Iwata, 1978		
<i>Erannis defoliaria</i>	Virus	NPV	1	Ozawa, 1971; Katagiri & Iwata, 1978		
<i>Ptycholomoides aeriferana</i>	Fungus	<i>Erynia radicans</i>	3	Okada, 1993		
<i>Cryptoblabes loxiella</i>	Fungus	<i>Paecilomyces farinosus</i>	3	Hasegawa & Koyama, 1941		
		<i>Paecilomyces heliotis</i>	3	Okada, 1993		
Hymenoptera	<i>Pristiphora erichsonii</i>	Fungus	<i>Beauveria bassiana</i>	3	Ozawa, 1981	
	<i>Neodiprion japonicus</i>	Fungus	<i>Beauveria bassiana</i>	3	Okada, 1993	
	<i>Diprion nipponicus</i>	Fungus	<i>Paecilomyces farinosus</i>	3	Aoki, 1957	
	<i>Cephalcia issaikii</i>	Fungus	<i>Beauveria bassiana</i>	3	Okada, 1993	
			<i>Metarhizium anisopliae</i>	3	Okada, 1993	
		<i>Paecilomyces farinosus</i>	3	Okada, 1993		
Coleoptera	<i>Basilepta pallidula</i>	Fungus	<i>Beauveria</i> sp.	2	Okuda, 1970	
	<i>Agelastica coerulea</i>	Fungus	<i>Beauveria</i> sp.	3	Okuda, 1970	
	<i>Pyrrhalta fuscipennis</i>	Fungus	<i>Beauveria</i> sp.	3	Okada, 1993	
			<i>Paecilomyces farinosus</i>	3	Aoki & Yanase, 1975	

* Bold letters indicate the pathogens that have been used as control agents (after Kobayashi & Taketani, 1994; Katagiri, 1995).

** Numbers indicate the pathogen is the important mortality agent terminating the population outbreak (1), the pathogen was observed during the population outbreak (2), and the insect was recorded as a host of the pathogen (3).

drought stress. Historical records of the incidence of defoliation caused by *S. punctatella*, in the northern prefectures of Japan from 1910 to 1993 indicate a cyclical pattern of outbreaks every 8–11 years (Liebhold *et al.*, 1996). Outbreaks of this species continue to occur.

Tree mortality following insect defoliation tends to be higher in conifers than in broad-leaved trees, and higher in evergreen species than in deciduous trees. Thus tree mortality of evergreen coniferous species is highest. For example, tree mortality following defoliation by *Calliteara argentata* (Butler) (Lepidoptera: Lymantriidae) was 12.5–58.2% for *Chamaecyparis obtusa* and 6.5–28.6% for *Cryptomeria japonica* (Shibata, 1983). Because foliage biomass is largest in evergreen coniferous trees, it may be difficult for these trees to recover lost foliage.

Role of mortality agents in controlling defoliating insect outbreaks

Table 2 indicates the role of insect diseases in terminating outbreaks of the major forest defoliators in Japan. Viruses are the most common mortality agents terminating outbreaks of lepidopterous insects followed by fungal diseases. Predation by small mammals and parasitoids are important mortality agents terminating sawfly populations (Buckner, 1959; Tachibana & Nishiguchi, 1984). It is noteworthy that in Japan the important disease agents terminating sawfly outbreaks were fungi, while in other countries viruses were commonly recorded (Bird, 1971; Neilson *et al.*, 1971; Kobayashi & Taketani, 1994). This difference could be due to the wetter climate in Japan favouring fungal infection.

Control strategies used against forest defoliating insects in Japan

Until the early 1960s, logging was an important industry in Japan and chemical insecticides were commonly used against defoliators to minimize damage. The use of chemical insecticides declined from the 1970s onward because timber prices dropped and because it was realized that defoliated trees seldom died and that the economic losses were not as great as originally assumed. Since the 1970s public opposition to the use of chemical sprays in Japan has increased as the negative impacts of chemical sprays on the environment have become known.

Latterly, several virus formulations have been applied against defoliators because viruses have a relatively narrow host range and consequently have a smaller impact on ecosystem than most chemical insecticides (table 2) (see Kobayashi & Taketani, 1994; Katagiri, 1995). Cytoplasmic polyhedrosis viruses (CPV) were applied against outbreak populations of *D. spectabilis*, *D. superans*, *Lymantria fumida* Butler (Lepidoptera: Lymantriidae), and *Euproctis subflava* (Bremer) (Lepidoptera: Lymantriidae) (Katagiri, 1995), and nuclear polyhedrosis viruses (NPV) against *L. dispar*, *L. fumida*, *E. subflava* (Inoue 1971, 1972, and 1973), and *H. cunea*. The entomopathogenic fungus *Beauveria bassiana* (Balsamo) Vuillemin (Clavicipitaceae) was applied experimentally to control outbreaks of *D. spectabilis* (Katagiri, 1995). Levels of control were satisfactory by modern standards, ranging from 45 to 100%.

Currently, the uses of insecticides and microbial products are restricted to the following special cases in forestry:

1. When defoliator outbreaks occur on valuable tree species whose susceptibility to mortality following defoliation is known to be high, e.g. *Chamaecyparis obtusa* and *Cryptomeria japonica* defoliated by *Calliteara argentata*.
2. When outbreaks of defoliating insects occur in urban areas on shade trees, in gardens, in parks or in woodland near residential areas requiring rapid remedial action.

Current status

Since the 1970s research funding and the interests of forest entomologists have shifted to pine wilt disease caused by pinewood nematode, *Bursaphelenchus xylophilus* (Steiner & Buhner) Nickle (Nematoda: Aphelenchoididae) (Kobayashi, 1988; Kishi, 1995) and the many wood-boring insects that reduce wood quality (Kobayashi & Taketani, 1994). Species of special concern currently include the bark borer *Semanotus japonicus* (Lacordaire) (Coleoptera: Cerambycidae), the twig borer *Anaglyptus subfasciatus* Picard (Coleoptera: Cerambycidae), the bark midge *Resseliella odai* (Inouye) (Diptera: Cecidomyiidae), and the bark moth *Epinotia granitalis* Butler (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae) (Kobayashi & Taketani, 1994).

During this period, Japan has been prosperous and could afford to buy timber from abroad. More recently there has been a continuing demand for timber in Japan, that coincides with demand internationally, so that the country will have to look more seriously in the future towards producing high quality timber for its own use. The increasing pressure on the forestry industry to meet this demand will require more sophisticated methods of pest control than previously implemented coupled with more sustainable methods of silviculture. Future global warming may also have an impact by increasing drought stress and mortality among defoliated trees. Now is therefore an opportune time to obtain basic data on new methods for controlling forest defoliating pests.

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The Biology of Wetas, King Crickets and their Allies

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