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# **Mass invasion of the Ponto-Caspian amphipods in Masurian Lakeland associated with human leisure activities**

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7

8 Abstract

9 Non-indigenous species (NIS) contribute to the decrease of native species' diversity on a local  
10 and global scale. One of Europe's most significant donors of freshwater invasions is the Ponto-  
11 Caspian region. Following the construction of artificial canals connecting isolated water bodies  
12 and resulting heavy boat traffic, the Ponto-Caspian Amphipoda started to spread in Europe.  
13 Four species: *Dikerogammarus haemobaphes*, *Dikerogammarus villosus*, *Pontogammarus*  
14 *robustoides* and *Chaetogammarus ischnus* invaded Masurian Lakeland (North-Eastern Poland).  
15 Based on the literature and our data, we studied their distribution in 14 lakes in the region in  
16 the years 2001 - 2016. We analysed their distribution against several water quality parameters  
17 and levels of anthropogenic pressure. Our results are also the first records of two new invaders  
18 - *D. villosus* and *C. ischnus* in the studied area. We show that the relative abundance and  
19 frequency of these two species rapidly increase, and simultaneously the populations of the older  
20 invaders, *D. haemobaphes* and *P. robustoides*, decrease. The native species - *Gammarus*  
21 *lacustris* - seems to be negatively affected by NIS richness as well as by the proximity of cities.  
22 The NIS found in the lakes appear to be facilitated by boating and the lower complexity of the  
23 shoreline. Our study shows how anthropogenic pressure and tourism in the specific, may  
24 directly aid bioinvasion, mining the survival of native biodiversity without proper regulation.

25

26 Keywords: biological invasions; lakes; recreational boating; tourist pressure; propagule  
27 pressure; time series; assemblage succession

## 28 **Introduction**

29

30 Biological invasions are among the most significant threats to biodiversity on a local and  
31 global scale (eg. Sala et al. 2000; Kettunen et al. 2009; Lambertini et al. 2011; Mačić et al.  
32 2018). Many Non-indigenous species (NIS) cause a decline in abundance and diversity loss of  
33 native species, which is particularly witnessed in Europe and the USA (eg. Pinkster et al. 1992;  
34 Dick and Platvoet 1996; Ricciardi and Rasmussen 1998; Panlasigui et al. 2018) and is more  
35 prominent in freshwater ecosystems than in marine and terrestrial ones (Strayer and Dudgeon  
36 2010). Many studies show high economic costs incurred by biological invasions on a global  
37 scale (Pyšek and Richardson 2010; Cuthbert et al. 2021a; Cuthbert et al. 2021b; Kouba et al.  
38 2022). The average annual costs of preventing biological invasions and reversing their effects  
39 on the world reach \$76 billion (Bradshaw et al. 2016), including \$23 billion in aquatic  
40 ecosystems (Cuthbert et al. 2021b). However, the costs of pre-invasion management are 25  
41 times lower than post-invasion management (Cuthbert et al. 2021a). The global economic costs  
42 of aquatic crustacean bioinvasions were estimated at \$271 million, including around \$179,800  
43 for amphipods; nonetheless, it seems that the costs are underestimated (Kouba et al. 2022).

44 Despite the fact that surface freshwaters represent only 0.01% of the Earth's water  
45 resources and constitute 0.80% of the Earth's surface, they are inhabited by ca. 6% of the  
46 world's species (Dudgeon et al. 2006; Strayer and Dudgeon 2010). Therefore, freshwater  
47 ecosystems are precious from the environmental, economic, sanitary, cultural and scientific  
48 points of view (Dudgeon et al. 2006) and offer an especially important form of tourism (Hall  
49 and Härkönen 2006). Unfortunately, these ecosystems are in crisis, represented particularly by  
50 stronger biodiversity loss than in terrestrial ecosystems (Dudgeon et al. 2006). According to the  
51 Water Framework Directive (WFD, 2000) introduced in the European Union in 2000, until  
52 2015 every water body in the EU should have achieved a high or at least good ecological and  
53 chemical status. However, the latest reports assume that only 40% of the waters achieved  
54 satisfactory, healthy status (State of Water Report, EEA, 2018). Land use and agriculture are  
55 among the most important factors which cause the decreasing conditions of aquatic ecosystems  
56 globally (Foley et al. 2005; Feld et al. 2016). Bioinvasions are perceived as a second (after  
57 habitat degradation) of the strongest threats to global biodiversity (Dudgeon et al. 2006;  
58 Kettunen et al. 2009; Strayer and Dudgeon 2010). In particular, invasions by Ponto-Caspian  
59 fauna threaten freshwater ecosystems worldwide (Ricciardi and MacIsaac 2000).

60 The Ponto-Caspian region covers the coastal area of the Caspian, Black, Aral, and Azov  
61 Seas and their brackish limans and deltas of rivers discharging into them (Jażdżewski 1980).  
62 This region is one of Europe's biggest sources of invasive species for inland waters (Bij de  
63 Vaate et al. 2002; Galil et al. 2008; Panov et al. 2009; Copilaş-Ciocianu et al. 2023a). The  
64 Ponto-Caspian Basin constitutes the hotspot of crustacean diversity (Cristescu and Hebert 2005;  
65 Väinölä et al. 2008; Copilaş-Ciocianu and Sidorov 2022; Copilaş-Ciocianu et al. 2022) with the  
66 emphasis on Amphipoda, as evidenced by around 10% of freshwater invasive species in Europe  
67 coming from this region (Pöckl et al. 2011). One of the main significant causes fueling the  
68 bioinvasions of Ponto-Caspian species is the construction of canals that connect previously  
69 isolated drainages (eg. Jażdżewski 1980; Bij de Vaate et al. 2002; Galil et al. 2008;  
70 Arbačiauskas et al. 2010; Minchin et al. 2019; Jażdżewska et al. 2020). Another important  
71 factor is species translocations in ballast waters (Jażdżewski 1980; Pinkster et al. 1992; Bij de  
72 Vaate et al. 2002; Zhulidov et al. 2018), on the submerged parts of tourist boats and barges  
73 (Baćela-Spychalska et al. 2013; Anderson et al. 2014; de Ventura et al. 2016; Rewicz et al.  
74 2017) and with angling equipment (Anderson et al. 2014; Smith et al. 2020). Thus, although  
75 freshwater ecosystems occupy only a tiny fraction of Earth's surface, the high anthropogenic  
76 pressure results in a more pronounced negative impact of invaders on native species than in  
77 marine ecosystems (Ricciardi and Kipp 2008).

78 There are six Ponto-Caspian gammarids (Amphipoda, Gammaroidea) already recorded  
79 in Polish freshwaters: *Chaetogammarus ischnus* (Stebbing, 1899), *Dikerogammarus*  
80 *haemobaphes* (Eichwald, 1841), *Dikerogammarus villosus* (Sowinsky, 1894), *Obesogammarus*  
81 *crassus* (G.O. Sars, 1894), *Pontogammarus robustoides* (Sars, 1894) and *Spirogammarus*  
82 *major* (Cărăușu, 1943) comb. & stat. nov. (Konopacka 1998; Gruszka 1999; Jażdżewski and  
83 Konopacka 2000; Konopacka and Jażdżewski 2002; Jażdżewski et al. 2005; Grabowski et al.  
84 2007; Rachalewski et al. 2013, Copilaş-Ciocianu et al. 2023b). These species are already widely  
85 distributed in the European inland waters, where they arrived through one of three well-defined  
86 migration corridors: the northern, the central and the southern ones (*sensu* Bij de Vaate et al.  
87 2002). Not only did they colonise the major rivers and the canals constituting the invasions  
88 corridors, but also spread to the river systems and many European lakes, e.g. the Alpine Lakes  
89 (Rewicz et al. 2017) and the Great Masurian Lakes in Poland (Jażdżewski 2003; Jażdżewska  
90 and Jażdżewski 2008). An extensive up-to-date description of the distribution of alien  
91 freshwater amphipods in Europe can be found in Copilaş-Ciocianu et al. (2023a). As the  
92 dynamics of invasion in terms of species and the ecosystem vulnerability varies and the impact

93 of NIS depends on their invasion process (i.e. propagule pressure, species interactions), there  
 94 is a constant need for monitoring and estimating the bioinvasion trends and threats. Their  
 95 introduction leads to drastic changes in the macroinvertebrate community structure and affects  
 96 the whole ecosystem's functioning (Jones et al. 1997; Lambertini et al. 2011). The lakes seem  
 97 to be particularly impacted by biological invasions, as many of them are under high tourist  
 98 pressure, resulting in a higher chance of introducing alien species, even if the lakes are not  
 99 directly connected with the invasion corridor (Bącela-Spychalska et al. 2013; Bącela-  
 100 Spychalska 2016; Rewicz et al. 2017).

101 The Masurian Lakeland is the most popular area for yachting in Poland and one of the  
 102 main inland yachting regions in central Europe. Except for yachting, the region is extensively  
 103 used by tourists for associated recreational activities (particularly angling and camping)  
 104 (Kistowski and Śleszyński 2010; Ulikowski et al. 2021). In 2020, in the Warmian-Masurian  
 105 Voivodeship (to which the Masurian Lakeland belongs) there were around 900,000 tourists  
 106 served (Local Data Bank of the Warmian-Masurian Voivodeship, 2021, available at  
 107 <https://bdl.stat.gov.pl/bdl/dane/teryt/jednostka/2889>). Between 2004 and 2008 the number of  
 108 tourists was even three times higher than the number of inhabitants in the region (Kistowski  
 109 and Śleszyński 2010). The Masurian Lakeland belongs to one of the five regions in Poland with  
 110 the highest tourist pressure (Kistowski and Śleszyński 2010). Unfortunately, the knowledge  
 111 about the spreading of the invasive Amphipoda in this region is poor and out of date  
 112 (Jażdżewski 2003; Jażdżewska and Jażdżewski 2008).

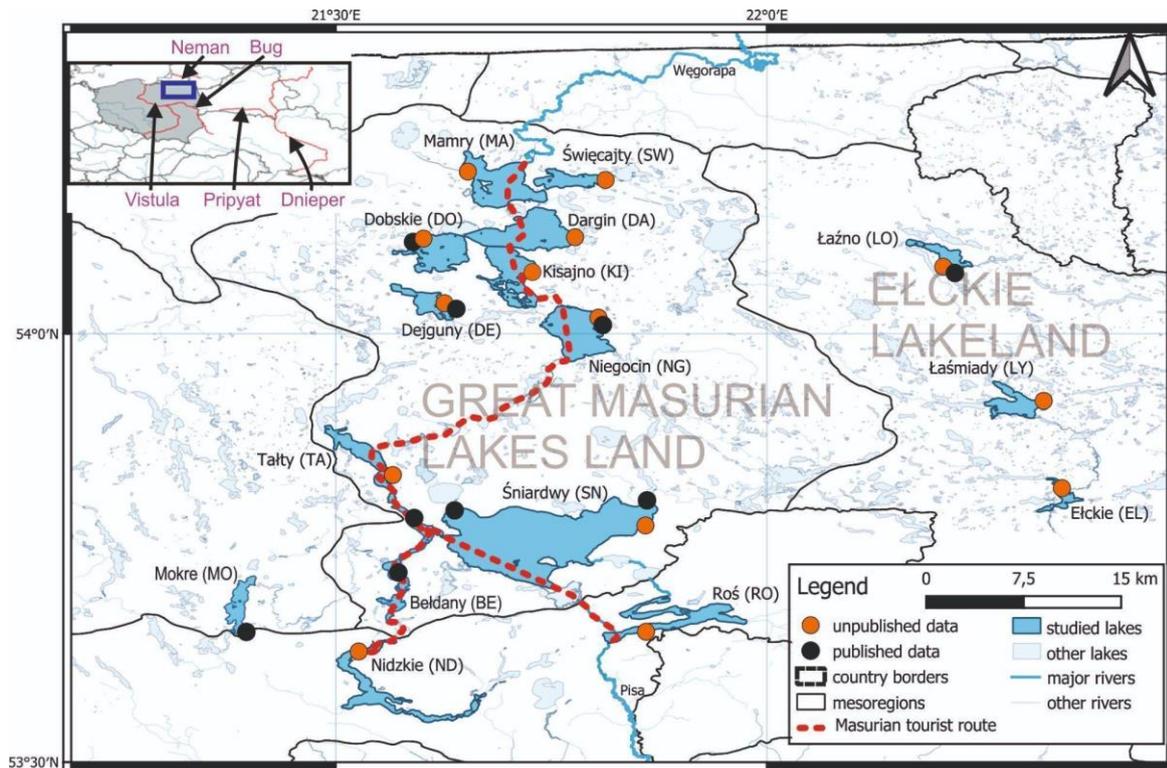
113 The aims of our study were: i) to update the knowledge on the distribution and expansion of the  
 114 Ponto-Caspian amphipod fauna in the Masurian Lakeland; ii) to assess the distribution of native  
 115 vs. invasive Ponto-Caspian gammarids in the context of biotic and abiotic characteristics of the  
 116 lakes and anthropogenic pressure in this region, by using both historical and newly obtained  
 117 data. Based on observed trends in other regions (Dick and Platvoet 2000, Grabowski et al. 2006,  
 118 van Riel et al. 2006, Van der Velde et al. 2009), we assumed that some invasive gammaridean  
 119 species are replaced by others and that native species are not able to coexist with the invasive  
 120 ones. We hypothesise that the presence of invasive gammaridean species results from high  
 121 tourist pressure while the existence of the native ones is associated with isolated and natural  
 122 lakes. We tracked the distribution of invasive gammaridean species in the Masurian Lakeland  
 123 since 2001 based on the literature and our data. To explore the relationship between the structure  
 124 of amphipod assemblages and lake characteristics, including human tourist pressure in the years

125 2014 and 2016, we collected data on the relative abundance of amphipods, measured basic  
126 water parameters and estimated the tourist pressure.

## 127 **Materials and methods**

### 128 **Study area**

129 The Masurian Lakeland or Pojezierze Mazurskie [in Polish] is a lake district  
130 (macroregion) in northeastern Poland with a surface area of 52,000 km<sup>2</sup> including seven  
131 mesoregions i.a.: the Great Masurian Lakes Land and the Ełckie Lakeland (Kondracki 2002).  
132 The landscape was formed between 16,000-11,000 BP (at the end of the last glaciation) and is  
133 characterised by strong latitude differentiation, dominantly with moraine hills (Hillbricht-  
134 Ilkowska et al. 2000; Ulikowski et al. 2021) and with glacial tills as a dominant component of  
135 soil substratum (Hillbricht-Ilkowska et al. 2000). The lakes are mainly surrounded by a mosaic  
136 of agricultural areas and forests (Hillbricht-Ilkowska et al. 2000; Ejsmont-Karabin et al. 2020)  
137 giving similar input of allochthonous organic and mineral matter to every lake (Chróst and  
138 Siuda 2006). Most lakes of this region are dimictic with summer thermal stratification  
139 (Ulikowski et al. 2021) and are connected with main European watersheds via small rivers: the  
140 Pisa River (flowing into the Narew River and then into the Vistula River), and the Węgorapa  
141 River (flowing into the Pregolya River and then into the Vistula Lagoon) (Bajkiewicz-  
142 Grabowska 2008; Jażdżewska and Jażdżewski 2008; Ulikowski et al. 2021) and via the artificial  
143 canals (Ulikowski et al. 2021). This increase in the chance for invasive amphipods to spread in  
144 the region. For this study, we selected lakes with historical faunistic data based on Jażdżewski  
145 and Konopacka (1995) as well as along a gradient of tourist pressure, including also more  
146 natural and isolated lakes (Fig. 1).



147

148 Figure 1. The sites in the Masurian Lakeland. The two-letter acronyms for particular lakes were used in  
 149 further tables and figures.

150

151 **Sampling and data collection**

152 Our dataset consists of two types of data: (i) published, including the years between 2001  
 153 and 2007 (Jażdżewski 2003; Jażdżewska and Jażdżewski 2008) and (ii) new data coming from  
 154 field surveys in 2008, 2009, 2014 and 2016 (See Supplementary Table 1). The studies between  
 155 2001 and 2009 have only qualitative character (i.e., presence/absence of amphipod species),  
 156 while for 2014-2016 the species abundances are available. Generally, sampling was done  
 157 through “kick-sampling” with a benthic hand-net with a mesh size of 0.5 mm for 45 min at each  
 158 station, performed by two people with equal effort, from all available littoral habitats (sand,  
 159 mud, gravel, stones, and submerged macrophytes) at depths from 0.05 to 0.5 m to collect all  
 160 occurring Amphipoda species. Such a semi-quantitative method gives reliable and comparable  
 161 results (Jażdżewski et al. 2002; Grabowski et al. 2006). The amphipods were preserved in 96%  
 162 ethanol and then identified in the laboratory to the species level based on the available literature  
 163 (Mordukhaj Boltovskoj 1964; Eggers and Martens 2001).

164 To detect the potential role of biotic and abiotic factors as well as human pressure on the  
 165 presence of invasive amphipods in the lakes sampled between 2007 and 2016, we used

166 topological and anthropogenic variables, such as the surface-volume ratio or the distance from  
 167 the city listed in Table 1. As a proxy of lake naturalness, we used the water quality index  
 168 according to the Water Framework Directive 2000/60/EC. Environmental heterogeneity creates  
 169 more niches that can be occupied by co-occurring species (Chesson 2000). Thus, we used two  
 170 indexes: shoreline development and surface area to volume (A/V ratio). The shoreline  
 171 development index is the ratio between the actual shoreline length of a lake and the  
 172 circumference of a perfectly circular lake with the same area (Aronow 1982). High values  
 173 indicate a more complex shoreline, retaining a higher load of nutrients from land (Cole 1975)  
 174 and provide more niches for the biota (Chesson 2000). The surface area to volume ratio is  
 175 providing information about the depth and size of the lake and can be inversely correlated to its  
 176 productivity (Fee 1979). Smaller water bodies (lower A/V ratio) may play the role of refugia  
 177 for native species (Grabowski et al. 2009). The density of boats (i.e. the number of boats divided  
 178 by the lake surface in ha), assumed as a rough proxy of the maximum possible number of  
 179 moored boats in marinas, was used to describe tourist pressure in the region (Johnson and  
 180 Padilla 1996; Vander Zanden and Olden 2008, Bączela-Spychalska et al. 2013). Tourist  
 181 infrastructure is mainly localised in urban areas (Kulczyk et al. 2016). Thus, we used the  
 182 distance between the sampling point and the city (i.e., centroid) as an estimation of  
 183 anthropogenic pressure. As a city, we used the settlement units characterised by dense urban  
 184 development and non-agricultural functions, according to the Polish legislation (Dz. U. poz.  
 185 1612, z późn. zm., available at <https://isap.sejm.gov.pl/isap.nsf/home.xsp>). All spatial analyses  
 186 and their visualisation were conducted using QGIS 3.10.13.

187

188 Table 1. Lake variables used in the analyses. In brackets, the names of variables are given.

Variable	Source of data
Water quality index (water QI)	Soszka et al. (2016).
Surface area to volume ratio (A/V ratio)	Soszka et al. (2016).
Shoreline length to surface area ratio (shoreline development)	<a href="https://mojemazury.pl">https://mojemazury.pl</a>
No. of boats per ha of lake surface (density of boats)	<a href="https://mazury24.eu">https://mazury24.eu</a> ; <a href="https://skorupki.mazury.info.pl">https://skorupki.mazury.info.pl</a>
Distance of sampling point from urban area (distance from city)	Measured as linear distance in km from the closest city using QGIS software.

189

190

191 **Data analysis**

192 Using all the records since 2007, we modelled the presence of the only native gammarid  
 193 (i.e., *Gammarus lacustris*) according to the number of NIS (Non-indigenous species) and the  
 194 relative distance of each sampling site from a city. We included this variable as a proxy of the  
 195 anthropogenic propagule pressure (i.e., the introduction of NIS by human activities) of NIS on  
 196 the site (i.e., inversely correlated). We used generalised linear mixed models (GLMM) to  
 197 include also the random variable of the sampling year. To account for spatial autocorrelation  
 198 we included the product of Latitude x Longitude as a covariate. Given the presence/absence  
 199 nature of the data, we used a Bernoulli distribution fitted with *glmmTMB* (link = logit) with the  
 200 homonymous package (Brooks et al. 2017). The possible inclusion of the interaction between  
 201 NIS richness (i.e. number of species) and the distance from the closest city was also tested using  
 202 the Akaike information criterion (AIC; Bozdogan 1987). After fitting the model, we validated  
 203 it by simulating its residuals using the package *DHARMA* (Hartig 2022).

204 Using samples collected between 2014 and 2016, we first explored the variability of the  
 205 environmental parameters of the sites and lakes, grouping them according to their geographic  
 206 position and connectivity (i.e., A: northern, B: southern, C: eastern; Fig. 2 B and See  
 207 Supplementary Table 1). To explore and visualise the environmental variability of the study  
 208 area, we used a principal component analysis (PCA) with standardised values with *prcomp* of  
 209 the package *vegan* (Oksanen et al. 2022). We analysed the gammarid assemblage using a  
 210 permutational multivariate analysis of the covariance (PERMANCOVA) with an orthogonal  
 211 design with two fixed factors (i.e., lake groups with three levels; time with two levels), and five  
 212 covariates: water QI, A/V ratio, shoreline development, number of boats, and distance from the  
 213 city. To control the possible difference in sampling effort (i.e., the total number of individuals  
 214 collected in each event) before calculating Bray-Curtis dissimilarities, we used Hellinger  
 215 transformation on the abundances of the species. We used first *adonis2* of the package *vegan*  
 216 with 9999 permutations and *pairwise.adonis* of the package *pairwiseAdonis*, with Bonferroni  
 217 correction and 9999 permutations, for the postdoc analysis between levels of the significant  
 218 factors (Martinez Arbizu 2020). To visualise and corroborate the results of the  
 219 PERMANCOVA, we finally used a constrained ordination using distance-based redundancy  
 220 analysis (dbRDA; based on Legendre and Anderson (1999) with *capscale* (package *vegan*) and

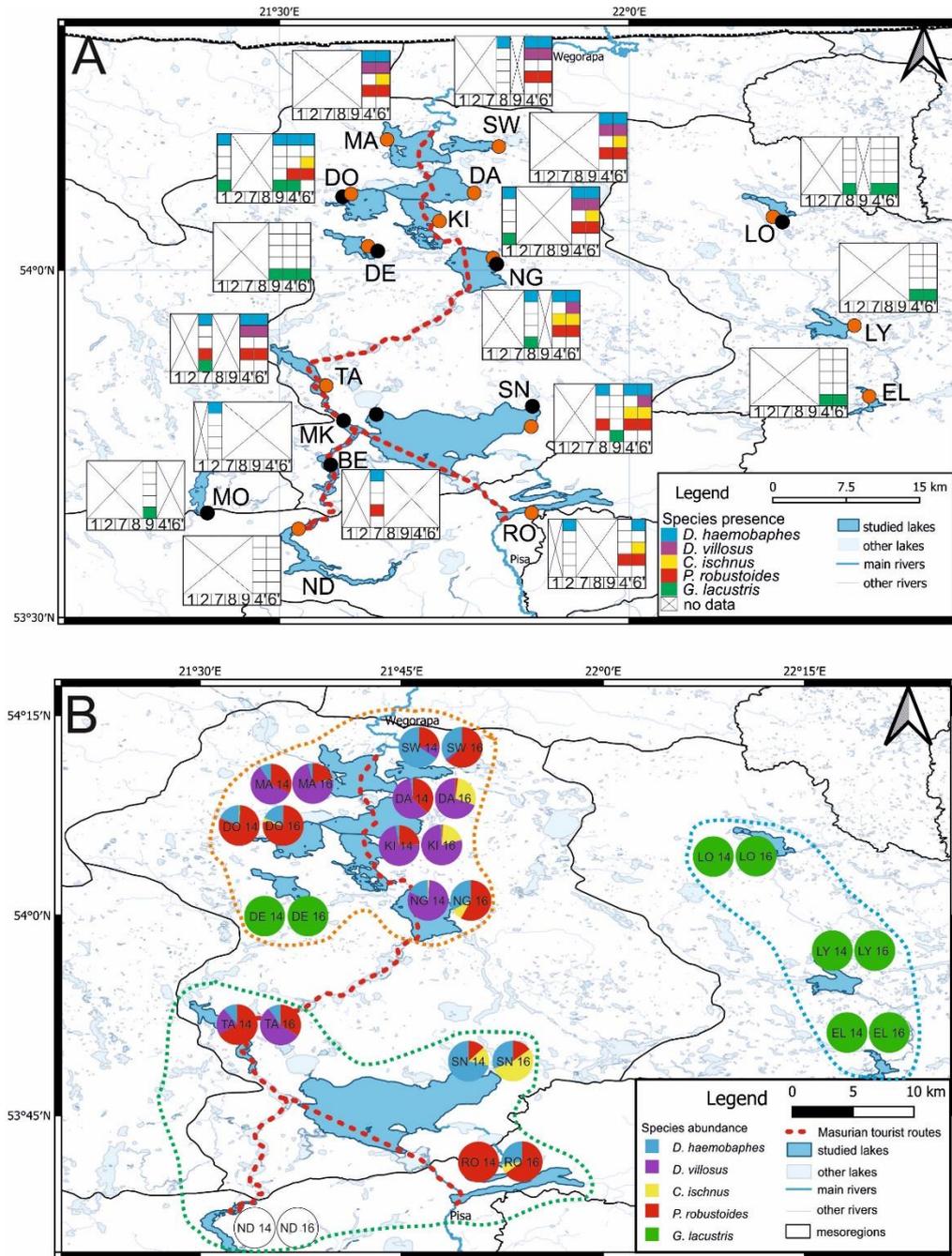
221 Bray-Curtis dissimilarities, including the covariates of the PERMANCOVA as constraining  
222 variables. All the analyses were performed in the R environment (R Core Team 2023).

223

## 224 **Results**

225 Generally, we found four invasive gammaridean species present in nine lakes and one native  
226 species present in five lakes. The first recorded invasive species was *Dikerogammarus*  
227 *haemobaphes* reported in 2001 (Jażdżewski 2003), and the second was *Pontogammarus*  
228 *robustoides* observed in 2007 (Jażdżewska and Jażdżewski 2008) (Fig. 2 A). The spread of  
229 invasive species can be observed over time. Between 2014 and 2016, *D. haemobaphes* spread  
230 to one more lake and is observed now in nine of them. *P. robustoides* did not colonise new  
231 lakes in 2016, compared to 2014. In 2014, we noticed the first appearance of the other two  
232 invaders: *C. ischnus* and *D. villosus*. *C. ischnus* was found in two lakes in 2014 and expanded  
233 to five further lakes in 2016. *D. villosus* was already found in five lakes in 2014 and expanded  
234 to two further lakes in 2016. Apart from Gammaroidea, another amphipod species -  
235 *Chelicorophium curvispinum* (G.O. Sars, 1895) - was recorded in 2014 and 2016 in one  
236 sampling point in the Narew River connected to the Masurian Lakeland. In Nidzkie Lake, we  
237 did not record any amphipod species.

238 Generally, the native species - *G. lacustris* - was not found in lakes inhabited by invasive  
239 species. Only in Dobskie Lake, the native and invasive gammarids co-occurred in 2014, but  
240 with a low number of *G. lacustris* (two individuals vs. 194 individuals of invasive species) (Fig.  
241 2 A).



242

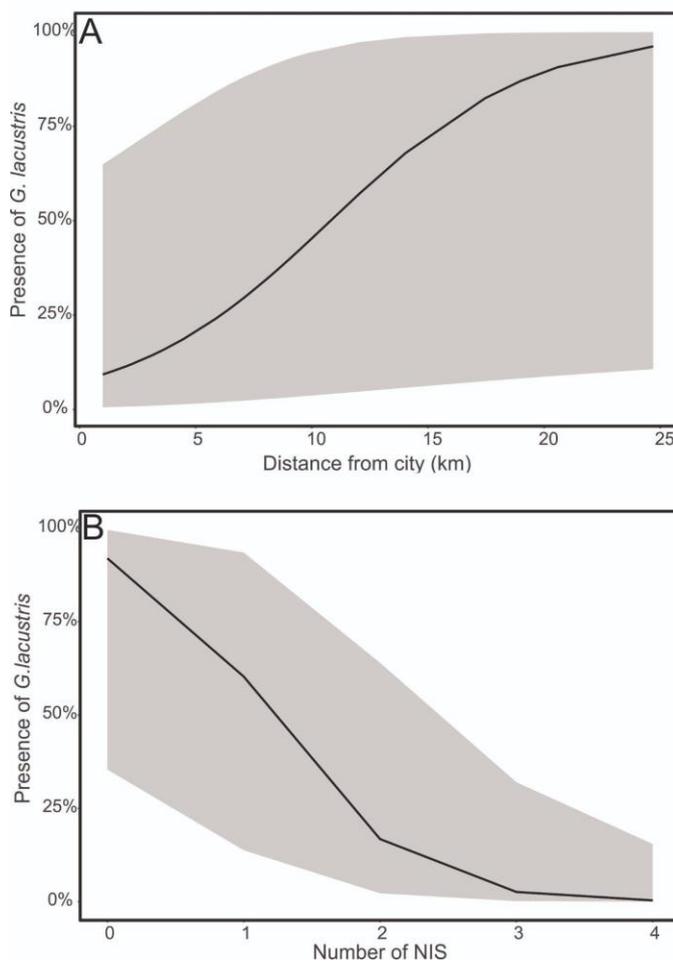
243 Figure 2. A. The distribution of invasive and native gammarid species in studied lakes since 2001 (based  
 244 on published and new data). Table at each lake showing the assemblage (colours in rectangles according  
 245 to different species, see legend) variation in time (symbols for sampling years: 1 - 2001; 2 - 2002; 7 -  
 246 2007; 8 - 2008; 9 - 2009; 4' - 2014; 6' - 2016). Circles corresponding to data points published (black)  
 247 or unpublished (orange). Dashed black line: country borders; dashed red line: the Masurian tourist boat  
 248 route. Black lines delimiting mesoregions according to Kondracki (2002). B. The assemblage  
 249 composition of the gammarid fauna in studied lakes in the years 2014 and 2016 (locality codes according  
 250 to Supplementary Table 1). Pie charts showing the relative abundances of each species. An empty circle  
 251 means no amphipods recorded. A dashed black line means country borders; a dashed red line means the  
 252 Masurian tourist boat route. Black lines delimiting mesoregions according to Kondracki (2002).

253 Coloured dotted lines surrounding the pie charts correspond to the lakes groups: orange – A, green - B,  
 254 blue – C.

255

256 The GLMM for the presence of *G. lacustris* showed the significant negative effect of NIS  
 257 richness (p-value=0.004) and the positive effect of the distance from an city (p-value= 0.042),  
 258 but not their interaction (Fig. 3). The inclusion of the year as a random effect increased  
 259 considerably the R<sup>2</sup> (Marginal 0.733 - Conditional 0.808), mostly because the sampling effort  
 260 was different each year and mostly opportunistic (Table 2).

261



262

263 Figure 3. Predicted probability of occurrence of *G. lacustris* dependent on the distance of sampling point  
 264 from a city (A) and richness of NIS (B).

265

266

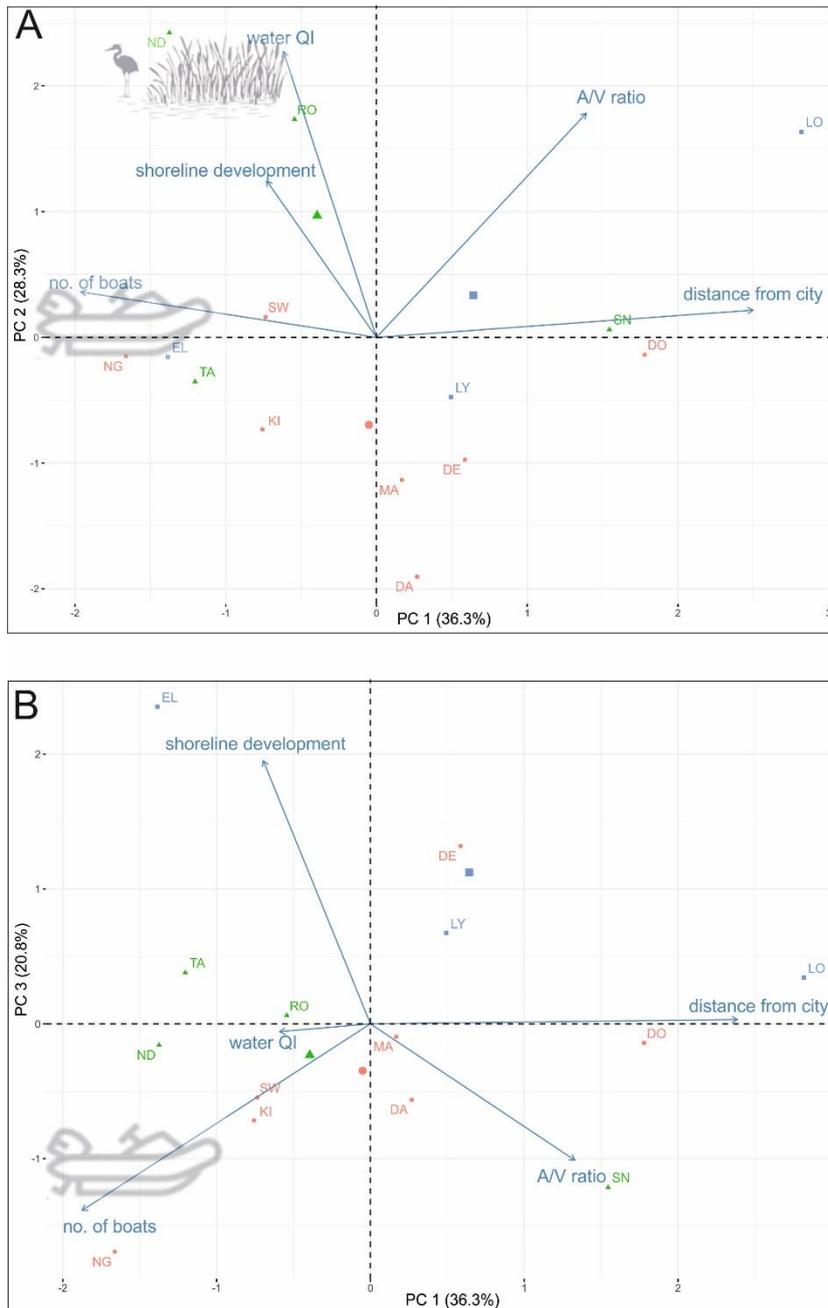
267 Table 2. Summary of the best-fitting Bernoulli GLMM for the presence of native gammarid -  
 268 *Gammarus lacustris*. A spatial variable representing the product between latitude and longitude,  
 269 distance from a city in km, number of NIS as integer (i.e., 0-4) and year of sampling fitted as a random  
 270 effect.

271

<b>Bernoulli GLMM (Presence of <i>G.lacustris</i>)</b>			
<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Log-Odds</i>	<i>Conf. Int (95%)</i>	<i>P-value</i>
(Intercept)	-5.71	-141.99 – 130.57	0.935
Spatial	0.01	-0.11 – 0.12	0.931
Distance from cities	0.23	0.01 – 0.46	0.042
Number of NIS	-1.97	-3.31 – -0.63	0.004
<b>Random Effects</b>			
$\sigma^2$	3.29		
$\tau_{00}$ Year	1.27		
ICC	0.28		
$N_{Year}$	5		
Observations	58		
Marginal $R^2$ / Conditional $R^2$	0.733 / 0.808		

272

273 The first three components of the PCA explained 85.5% of the variance among the  
 274 environmental variables explored in the study (Fig. 4 A, B). According to PC1 and PC3 (~57%  
 275 variance explained), the lakes further from the tourist route (i.e., group C) are indeed  
 276 characterised by a lower number of boats, higher complexity of the shore, and a bigger distance  
 277 from a city. The PC2 was more related to the water quality index and the surface-volume ratio  
 278 showing a general trend of lower water quality and deeper waters for group A (highest quality  
 279 for group B).



280

281 Figure 4. PCA biplot displaying the first three axes of the PCA of the environmental variables of the  
 282 lakes sampled between 2014 and 2016 (A: PC1-2; B: PC1-3). The colours refer to the different lake  
 283 groups: orange (A), green (B), and blue (C). Arrows proportional to the loading of each variable, Dashed  
 284 lines = 0. Variables according to Table 1. The acronyms of lakes according to Fig. 1 and Supplementary  
 285 Table 1.

286

287 The PERMANCOVA results showed a significant effect ( $p$ -values $<0.05$ ) of shoreline  
 288 development, number of boats, and water quality on the assemblage of amphipods (Table 3).  
 289 Even though the relative abundance of new invaders (*D. villosus* and *C. ischnus*) increased with

290 time, while decreased for *D. haemobaphes*, *P. robustoides*, and *G. lacustris* (Fig. 2 B), the time  
 291 factor was not significant.

292

293 Table 3. Results of PERMANCOVA test using 9999 permutations. Two fixed factors: lake group (lake:  
 294 three levels) and year (time: two levels), and their interaction (time: lake). Five covariates: water quality  
 295 index (QI), lake surface-volume ratio (A/R ratio), the complexity of the shoreline (shoreline  
 296 development), and distance from the city. Significant p-values (<0.05) are in bold.

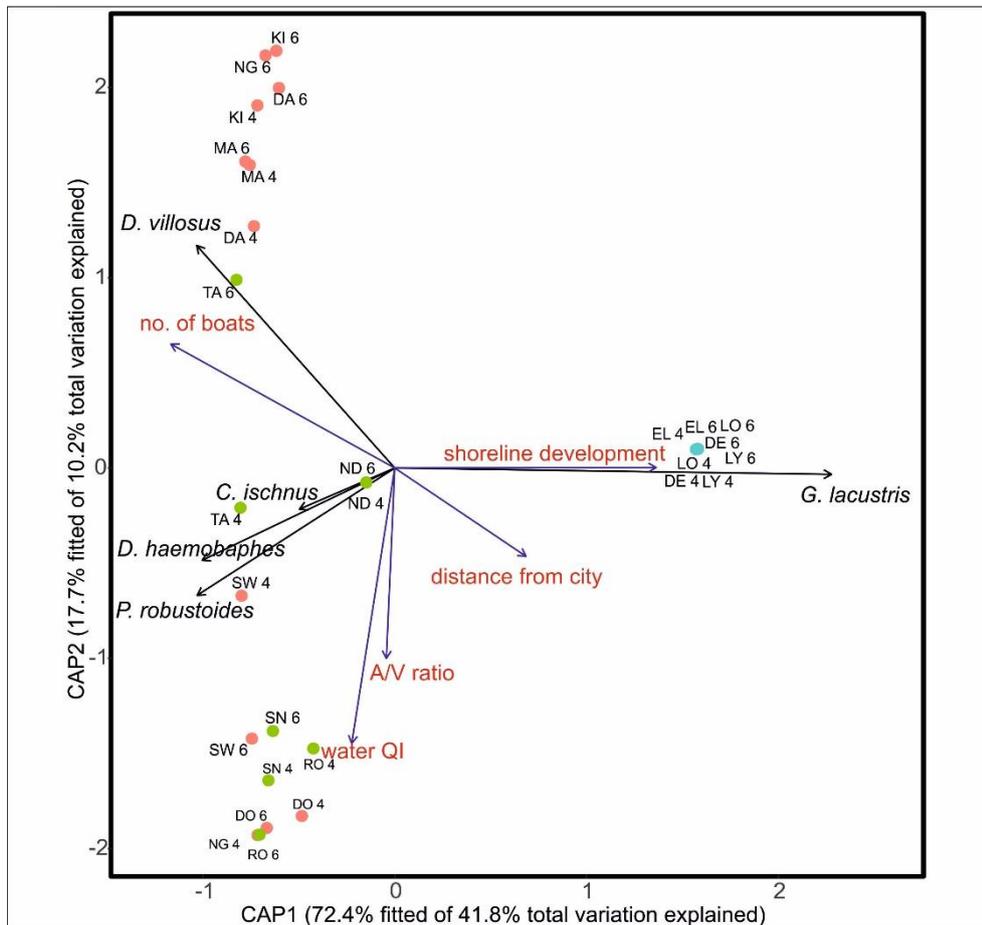
Predictor	Df	Sum of Sqs	R2	F	Pr(>F)
water QI	1	0.408	0.059	3.794	<b>0.035</b>
A/V ratio	1	0.179	0.026	1.661	0.195
shoreline development	1	2.376	0.346	22.096	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
number of boats	1	1.16	0.1699	10.788	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
distance from city	1	0.22	0.032	2.047	0.133
time	1	0.11	0.016	1.024	0.318
lake group	2	0.575	0.084	2.675	0.057
time: lake	2	0.016	0.002	0.075	0.991
residual	17	1.828	0.266		
total	27	6.871	1		

297

298

299 The first two axes of the dbRDA fitted 90.1% of 52.1% of the total variation explained. The  
 300 presence of the native *G. lacustris* appeared more correlated to lakes with more complex  
 301 shorelines (Fig. 5). The occurrence of *D. villosus* is mainly explained by the increasing number  
 302 of boats and proximity to the city. The other three species (i.e., *P. robustoides*, *D. haemobaphes*  
 303 and *C. ischnus*) seem to be related to simpler shorelines and average values for the other  
 304 variables, generally opposite to *D. villosus*.

305



306

307 Figure 5. Canonical analysis of principal coordinates (CAPSCALE) derived from the Bray-Curtis  
 308 dissimilarities of the gammarid assemblages and the environmental variables of the studied lakes in the  
 309 years 2014 and 2016. Variables according to Table 1.

310

### 311 Discussion

312 Our study shows that between 2001 and 2016 the number of invasive amphipod species in the  
 313 study area increased from one to five (including *C. curvispinum* in the Narew River).  
 314 Simultaneously, the continuous decrease in the occurrence of *Gammarus lacustris* was  
 315 recorded. Our study reveals that the presence of Non-indigenous species (NIS) in lakes is  
 316 primarily facilitated by two key factors: recreational boating activities and simplified  
 317 shorelines.

318 According to our results, NIS richness has a significant negative effect on the presence of *G.*  
 319 *lacustris*. Indeed, this species seems to be one of the weakest competitors among European  
 320 freshwater amphipod species giving way to Ponto-Caspian species of genera:  
 321 *Chaetogammarus*, *Dikerogammarus* and *Pontogammarus* (Meßner and Zettler 2021). It occurs

322 in a wide range of habitats, nevertheless, in the last few decades, the species has been pushed  
 323 to the relict range of occurrence (Hesselschwerdt et al. 2008; Meßner and Zettler 2021).  
 324 Nowadays, the species is present almost exclusively in isolated waterbodies and continues to  
 325 decline (Meßner and Zettler 2021). The same tendency was observed in the study area. Once,  
 326 the species was vastly present in the Masurian Lakeland. Among the studied lakes, *G. lacustris*  
 327 was recorded in Mamry and Kisajno in 1975 (Jażdżewski and Konopacka 1995) but the last  
 328 records in Kisajno comes from 2001, while the species was already not observed in Mamry at  
 329 that time. The species' last records from Tały Lake come from 2007 and from Śniardwy Lake  
 330 from 2009. *G. lacustris* also disappeared from Dobskie Lake where the last record comes from  
 331 2014 (two individuals). The co-occurrence of *G. lacustris* with invasive species in 2014 in  
 332 Dobskie Lake may be explained by low invasion and tourist pressures via the narrow connection  
 333 of this lake with other lakes. In 2014, the invasion of this lake was still in its early stages.  
 334 Among the studied water bodies, *G. lacustris* was present in 2016 only in four isolated lakes.  
 335 Its presence in these lakes can be associated with low tourist pressure (low number of boats,  
 336 long distance from the tourist route), long distance from invaded lakes and from the city  
 337 (anthropogenic pressure). Instead, these lakes have higher shoreline complexity, which possibly  
 338 increases the heterogeneity of the coastal ecosystems. Lack of direct connections between these  
 339 lakes and Great Masurian Lakes (central part of the Lakeland), where all the invasive species  
 340 are present, and low level of tourist pressure, create refuge for native species.

341 Freshwater NIS can easily spread with tourist activities. NIS usually have a broad tolerance to  
 342 desiccation, improving their ability to overland invasion (Bącela-Spychalska et al. 2013;  
 343 Glisson et al. 2020). In Alpine lakes, a significant positive relationship between the number of  
 344 boats and the presence of *D. villosus* was observed (Bącela-Spychalska et al. 2013). Similarly,  
 345 *P. robustoides* spread in Hungary (Csabai et al. 2020). We observed a similar tendency in the  
 346 Masurian Lakeland. The density of boats had a significant effect on amphipod assemblage,  
 347 especially on *D. villosus*. Yachting is a very significant component of tourism in the Masurian  
 348 Lakeland, reaching 37% of total tourist activities in the region (Kulczyk et al. 2016). An  
 349 example can be Niegocin Lake, with high tourist pressure and a large number of invasive  
 350 species and rapid invasion of *D. villosus*, which was absent in 2014, while 2016 constituted  
 351 81% of all sampled gammarids. The lake is located between the other lakes with high tourist  
 352 pressure, and the Masurian tourist route runs through the lake. It can also be characterised by a  
 353 high number of car parks per km of shoreline and the highest number of beds in accommodation  
 354 establishments in 2014, reaching more than five thousand for the area (i.e., community

355 Giżycko) (Kulczyk et al. 2016). Most of the marinas are located in the city with well-developed  
 356 tourist facilities. We found a negative correlation between the number of boats and the distance  
 357 of sampling points from the city. Indeed, the proximity to the city explains mainly the  
 358 occurrence of *D. villosus*.

359 Distribution of other invasive species i.e. *P. robustoides*, *D. haemobaphes* and *C. ischnus*  
 360 concern mainly the lakes with less developed shoreline and rather good water quality. Mainly,  
 361 they are present in lakes with different conditions compared to those, where *D. villosus* was  
 362 found. Especially two of these species - *D. haemobaphes* and *P. robustoides* - are weaker  
 363 competitors than *D. villosus* and usually they occupy different niches (Baćela-Spychalska et al.  
 364 2012; Kobak et al. 2016). Records of *P. robustoides*, *D. haemobaphes* and *C. ischnus* in water  
 365 bodies with good water quality are incompatible with the previous studies suggesting high  
 366 ecological tolerance and the occurrence of invasive amphipods in polluted water bodies (Panov  
 367 et al. 2009). Invasive species exhibit a broad tolerance to water quality, however, they tend to  
 368 prefer waterbodies with high level of oxygenation and good overall water quality (Boets et al.  
 369 2010).

370

### 371 **Expansion of the Ponto-Caspian amphipod fauna in Masurian Lakeland**

372

373 One of the oldest Ponto-Caspian amphipod invaders in Europe and Poland is *Chaetogammarus*  
 374 *ischnus* (see Grabowski et al. 2007). The species started spreading to the east reaching the  
 375 Neman River and the Curonian Lagoon by the 1960s through the canal between the Bug and  
 376 the Pripyat rivers (Bij de Vaate et al. 2002). In the western direction, *C. ischnus* colonised the  
 377 Noteć River and the Oder River (Poland) before the 1970s (Grabowski et al. 2007). Our study  
 378 is the first record of this species in the Masurian Lakeland. We suppose that *C. ischnus* has  
 379 spread in this region from the Narew River and then from the Pisa River inasmuch as the species  
 380 was not present in the Węgorapa River. The distribution of this species in the Masurian  
 381 Lakeland is still low, similar to the general findings in Europe (Copilaş-Ciocianu et al. 2023a).  
 382 However, small body size, ability to avoid bigger competitors (e.g. *Dikerogammarus* spp.) and  
 383 occurring in different habitats may cause a further rapid expansion of this species (Borza et al.  
 384 2018). Interestingly, the abundance of *C. ischnus* is associated with *P. robustoides* and *D.*  
 385 *haemobaphes*, suggesting the overlapping of their niches.

386 *Dikerogammarus haemobaphes* expanded in Eastern Europe very rapidly (Mordukhai-  
 387 Boltovskoi 1964). Until 1980, the species was noticed in the lower and the middle Dnieper, the  
 388 Dniester, the Don and the Volga rivers (Jażdżewski 1980). Since the 1990s the fast expansion  
 389 of the species has begun (Jażdżewska et al. 2020). Species reached the Vistula River in 1997  
 390 (Konopacka 1998) and then the Oder River (Jażdżewski 2003). The species is currently present  
 391 in almost every big European river (Jażdżewska et al. 2020). Also in the Masurian Lakeland,  
 392 the species is common. Tourist activity could have promoted its further spread by sailing,  
 393 angling, and diving equipment (Baćela-Spychalska 2016). Despite the high invasive potential,  
 394 we observed a decrease in the abundance of this species in the studied area. For instance,  
 395 compared to 2014, in 2016 the species almost disappeared from Dargin Lake (only two  
 396 individuals found).

397 Another species, whose populations decline in the Masurian Lakeland, is *Pontogammarus*  
 398 *robustoides*. It has spread in Europe mainly by intentional introductions since the 1960s, e.g.,  
 399 in many Lithuanian and Ukrainian waters, including the Neman from where the species was  
 400 able to reach the Baltic Sea (Mordukhai-Boltovskoi 1964; Arbačiauskas 2002). Two hypotheses  
 401 exist regarding how the species arrived in Poland: one suggests it came from Lithuania through  
 402 Belarus's rivers (Mastisky and Makarevich, 2007), while the other proposes its origin from the  
 403 mesohaline coastal waters of the Baltic (see Grabowski et al., 2007). In 2007, Jażdżewska and  
 404 Jażdżewski (2008) recorded *P. robustoides* for the first time in the Masurian Lakeland. Three  
 405 hypothetical ways of invasion to this region were proposed - from Kaliningrad (Russia) via the  
 406 Pregel and the Węgorapa rivers; from Lithuania via the Augustów Canal; from the Baltic Sea  
 407 via the Vistula River and its affluents (Jażdżewska and Jażdżewski 2008). The appearance of  
 408 *P. robustoides* in 2007 in the Masurian Lakeland started rapid expansions of this species which  
 409 coincided with the significant decrease in the abundance of native *Gammarus lacustris*  
 410 (Jażdżewska and Jażdżewski 2008). However, the invasions of *D. villosus* in 2014 caused a  
 411 decrease in *P. robustoides* abundance. In 2016 this species disappeared from one lake compared  
 412 to 2014 as well as in Niegocin the population was eradicating (only two individuals were  
 413 found).

414 *Dikerogammarus villosus* seems to be the most successful invader in Europe (Rewicz et al.  
 415 2014; Rewicz et al. 2015) as well as in the studied area. The first records of the species beyond  
 416 its native range come from 1926 from the Danube River (Nesemann et al. 1995). In 1999 the  
 417 species was first time recorded in Poland in the Oder River (Gruszka 2000; Jażdżewski and

418 Konopacka 2002; Jażdżewski et al. 2002) and the Szczeciński Lagoon (Jażdżewski et al. 2005).  
 419 The species also spread via the central corridor promoted by the Soviet intentional introductions  
 420 to the artificial dam reservoirs on the Dnieper River (Rewicz et al. 2014). Next, it reached the  
 421 Pripyat River, the Bug River and in 2007 the Vistula River in Poland (Konopacka 2004; Bącela  
 422 et al. 2008). Our study shows the first species record in the Masurian Lakeland from 2014. The  
 423 species was not recorded in rivers connecting the Masurian Lakeland with the Central invasion  
 424 corridor (sensu bij de Vaate et al. 2002) i.e., the Vistula River, suggesting possible expansion  
 425 by overland transport. The species was shown to utilise submerged parts of boats, ropes and  
 426 diving gears (Bącela-Spychalska et al. 2013; Bącela-Spychalska et al. 2016; Minchin et al.  
 427 2019) to spread. *D. villosus* eliminates other invasive and native gammarids (Dick and Platvoet  
 428 2000; Platvoet et al. 2007, Bącela-Spychalska et al. 2012). Our results confirm these  
 429 observations. *D. villosus* has become the most abundant gammarid in the Masurian Lakeland  
 430 over two years. Between 2014 and 2016 the abundance of the species and area of occurrence  
 431 significantly increased. This phenomenon may be more common in the future as a result of  
 432 climate change (Hesselschwerdt and Wantzen 2018). Our study shows that new invaders in the  
 433 Masurian Lakeland (i.e. *C. ischnus* and, particularly, *D. villosus*) are spreading in the studied  
 434 area, while old invaders (*D. haemobaphes*, *P. robustoides*) possibly lose the competition with  
 435 the newcomers.

436 The impact of invasive species on aquatic ecosystems is profound (Kurashov et al. 2012). NIS  
 437 modify habitats as well as food chains. The presence of invasive amphipods, known to be  
 438 ecosystem engineers, worsens the ecological state of lakes through ecosystem transformation  
 439 (Jones et al. 1994; Jones et al. 1997). Invasions contribute to change in the energy flow - benthic  
 440 communities are transformed from being energy suppliers to upper trophic levels i.e., major  
 441 users of ecosystem energy (Nalepa et al. 2009; Kurashov et al. 2012).

442

## 443 **Conclusions**

444 The rapid expansion of the invasive Ponto-Caspian amphipods observed in this study aligns  
 445 with a general trend along European freshwater basins. The contraction of the range and niche  
 446 of native species when faced with more aggressive (e.g., *D. villosus*), generalist (e.g., *C.*  
 447 *ischnus*), and even environmental engineering species (e.g., *C. curvispinum*) is something  
 448 expected and confirmed by our findings. Even though many lakes seem to be still free from

449 amphipod invaders, this may be for a short time considering the abrupt increase we registered  
450 in just two years.

451 In conclusion, our study emphasises the need for a comprehensive approach to understanding  
452 and addressing the dispersion of alien species through human activity. To gain deeper insights  
453 into these dynamics, we recommend the establishment of an inter-lakes traffic registry. This  
454 registry would provide crucial data on the movement of boats and potential pathways for the  
455 introduction of invasive species. Furthermore, it is essential to raise awareness among lake users  
456 about the negative consequences of biological invasions and the necessity of implementing such  
457 a registry. By educating and engaging lake users, we can foster a sense of responsibility and  
458 cooperation in preventing the spread of invasive species. Implementing these measures  
459 collectively will contribute to better biosecurity practices and safeguard the ecological integrity  
460 of lakes against invasive species.

461

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469

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