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Author-formatted, not peer-reviewed document posted on 21/03/2024

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.3897/arphapreprints.e123465>

Resolving the issues of translocated native species in freshwater invasions

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1 **Resolving the issues of translocated native species in freshwater invasions**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Biological invasions, driven by human-mediated species movements, pose significant threats
25 to global ecosystems and economies. The classification of non-native species is a complex
26 issue intertwining ecological considerations and ethical concerns. The need for nuanced and
27 less ambiguous terminology is emphasised, considering biogeographic, evolutionary, and
28 ecological principles. In-country translocations of native species into ecosystems they do not
29 naturally occur, are often overlooked and are the least regulated among species movements,
30 despite being increasingly common in conservation. Our case studies, spanning various
31 ecosystems and taxa, illustrate the diverse impacts of translocations on native species and
32 ecosystems. The challenges associated with translocated species underscore the urgency for
33 robust risk management strategies and rigorous monitoring. A comprehensive and adaptable
34 management framework that considers translocated species for evidence-based management
35 decisions is critical for navigating the complexities of translocations effectively, ensuring the
36 conservation of biodiversity and ecosystem sustainability.

37 **Keywords:** biological invasions, conservation, translocations, invasive species management

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44 **Introduction**

45 Biological invasions are where species are moved by human activities from their native range
46 to new areas where they have no evolutionary history and are a major global economic and
47 ecological concern (Simberloff et al. 2005). Biological invasions are recognized as a pervasive
48 threat to biodiversity and human well-being, especially in aquatic ecosystems (Cuthbert et al.
49 2021; Haubrock et al. 2021). Numerous pathways facilitate the spread of aquatic non-native
50 species (Ruiz et al. 2011), with human-mediated pathways involving global trade and
51 transportation (Avila et al. 2020). Once established in new habitats, aquatic non-native species
52 can disrupt local ecosystems by competing with native species for resources, modifying
53 habitats, and altering nutrient cycles, often with severe consequences for human well-being
54 (Piria et al. 2021; Hald-Mortensen 2023). Economically, these species can damage sectors
55 including fisheries and, among others, public welfare, leading to substantial financial costs
56 (Cuthbert et al. 2021; Warziniack et al. 2021).

57

58 Terminology of non-native species

59 The classification of non-native species is a complex issue intertwined with both ecological
60 considerations and ethical concerns (Richardson et al. 2011) and was recently reviewed and
61 discussed by Soto et al. (2024). Ethically, the language used in invasion science to describe
62 non-native species often mirrors societal views on foreignness, with terms for non-native
63 species such as “alien” reflecting and even reinforcing xenophobic attitudes (Soto et al. 2024),
64 paralleling language used against human immigrants. From an ecological perspective, the
65 current classification systems used for ‘invasiveness’ can differ substantially, where the focus
66 is the ecological impact of the species or its ability to establish and spread, but rarely both (Soto
67 et al. 2024).

68 In general, policies and management of non-native species rely strongly on national
69 boundaries (Piria et al. 2021), which can be highly problematic as these boundaries fail to
70 consider biogeographic principles on the evolutionary history and intricate ecological
71 interactions of the species being moved (Soto et al. 2024). This is especially true for freshwater
72 ecosystems, where nativeness and non-nativeness may even differ between adjacent river
73 basins within the same biogeographic realm (e.g Warren et al. 2024). This is then exacerbated
74 by ambiguous terminology with, for example, the EU Invasive Alien Species Regulation
75 (Regulation (EU) 1143/2014) definition of an “invasive alien species” being ‘*animals and*
76 *plants that are introduced accidentally or deliberately into a natural environment where they*
77 *are not normally found, with serious negative consequences for their new environment*’, with
78 the aim of the associated legislation to ‘*prevent, minimise and mitigate the adverse impacts*
79 *posed by these species on native biodiversity and ecosystem services*’. Accordingly, there
80 remains considerable ambiguity as to what constitutes the ‘*natural environment*’ and ‘*native*
81 *biodiversity*’ (Chew and Hamilton 2011). We thus argue the requirement for a more nuanced
82 and less ambiguous terminology for native species translocated within their native region that
83 combines the issues of the species’ biogeographic region of origin and ecosystems it naturally
84 occurs in, as well as its evolutionary history and ecological role(s), rather than just relying on
85 geo-political (often national) boundaries. More explicitly, we suggest that current terminology,
86 such as “native biodiversity” and “non-native species” when considered in the assessment of
87 biological invasions is too associated with national boundaries and their use must instead be
88 based on sound biogeographical, evolutionary and ecological principles (Nehring and
89 Klingenstein 2008; Wolter and Röhr 2010).

90 The abuse of terminology in this regard is well illustrated by native species that can
91 become pests in their native region (previously named “native invasive”, Simberloff and
92 Rejmánek 2011; see also Soto et al. 2024) through human activities. This can occur through

93 anthropogenic driven environmental changes that result in the abundance of native species
94 rapidly increasing through shifts in life history traits, and through human-induced habitat
95 changes that create novel environments where some native species can form highly abundant
96 populations to the detriment of others (e.g. the transformation of lotic to lentic environments
97 through impoundment; Šmejkal et al. 2023). It can also occur as a direct result of human
98 actions, including intentional stocking, where a species considered native (according to
99 national boundaries) is moved into a new area within either their original biogeographical range
100 or into a new biogeographic range within the country (Carey et al. 2012). We argue this activity,
101 despite often practised by conservationists to e.g. protect a highly endangered species
102 (Ricciardi and Simberloff 2009; Olden et al. 2011; Bradley et al. 2022), represents the release
103 of a non-native species and potentially results in a biological invasion whose harm on the
104 receiving ecosystem is likely to be underestimated (Gilroy et al. 2017). It is these releases of
105 species within national boundaries, but between biogeographic areas that ignore evolutionary
106 histories and ecological roles, which we consider as being highly problematic for invasion
107 management (Usher 2000; 2020; Soto et al. 2024).

108

109 **The issue of in-country translocations: case studies from freshwater ecosystems**

110 Efforts to conserve biodiversity and the aim of invasion scientists to understand and mitigate
111 biological invasions are often perceived as a philosophical paradox due to synergistic overlaps
112 concomitant to differing priorities (i.e. species native in one region but invasive in another;
113 Pérez et al. 2006; Marchetti and Engstrom 2016). In recent years, the importance of in-country
114 translocations of native species have increased in conservation worldwide (Vitule et al. 2019),
115 yet are still largely overlooked by invasion scientists (see Glamuzina et al. 2017), despite being
116 particularly common in certain countries (Tarkan et al. 2017). However, while conservation

117 related translocations are often pre-planned and strictly regulated, movements of species for
118 use in fisheries, aquaculture and the ornamental trade are less regulated, leading to widespread
119 secondary spread (Vander Zanden and Olden 2008). Translocated native and non-native
120 species (*sensu stricto*) thus can pose a considerable threat to native species and ecosystems,
121 especially where the translocation has been poorly regulated (e.g. Hodder and Bullock 1997;
122 Glamuzina et al. 2017), which we demonstrate in the following case studies.

123

124 Translocated fishes

125 Translocations of freshwater fishes are commonplace, as this easily completed exercise can be
126 used to enhance aquaculture production, and catches in commercial, artisanal and recreational
127 fisheries. It has been used extensively in East Africa, with species such as Nile tilapia
128 *Oreochromis niloticus* moved extensively between lakes in Kenya to enhance fish catches and
129 improve food security (Geletu and Zhao 2023). These translocations have contributed to fish
130 diversity loss in recent years, including through their hybridisation with native congeners, with
131 the interaction of their translocation dynamics with aquaculture escapes also driving artificial
132 gene flow between different Nile tilapia stocks, impacting the integrity of local gene pools
133 (such as through outbreeding depression), impacting the sustainability of the species as a
134 resource for fisheries (Tibihika et al. 2022).

135 In England, fish species richness is naturally higher in eastern flowing rivers than those
136 flowing west. This resulted from a now drowned land-bridge with mainland Europe at the end
137 of the last glacial period that connected these eastern flowing rivers with the Rhine and Danube
138 systems, providing a route for fish recolonisation from glacial refuges further south (Wheeler
139 1977). In the last 100 years, there has been the frequent translocation of species, such as
140 European barbel *Barbus barbus*, from these eastern flowing rivers where they are indigenous

141 (usually in the Thames basin in southeastern England) to the western flowing rivers, where
 142 they are non-indigenous (e.g. Wheeler and Jordan 1990). A prominent example of this was the
 143 translocation of 509 adult fish from the River Kennet into the middle reaches of the River
 144 Severn in 1956, and completed by the fishery regulator of that time with the aim to enhance
 145 angling (Wheeler and Jordan 1990; Antognazza et al. 2016). These fish rapidly established a
 146 sustainable population which dispersed throughout the Severn basin and also resulted in further
 147 translocations in western Britain, with anglers moving these fish to neighbouring basins, such
 148 as the River Wye (Antognazza et al. 2016). In addition, translocations in the indigenous range
 149 involve the movement of hatchery reared barbel reared using broodstock from one basin (often
 150 the Thames again) and releasing them in different basins, with this already identified as
 151 impacting barbel genetic integrity in northeast England (Antognazza et al. 2016). Accordingly,
 152 barbel are now widespread through Great Britain, with populations in England, Scotland and
 153 Wales due to translocations, despite their native range being restricted to a small number of
 154 basins in eastern England (Wheeler and Jordan 1990; Antognazza et al. 2016).

155 European perch (*Perca fluviatilis*), known for its aggressive feeding behaviour that
 156 often results in the extirpation of native fish species, has been extensively translocated between
 157 different bodies of water within its native range by anglers from Thrace (European part of
 158 Turkey) to newly established water reservoirs in the Anatolian part (Tarkan et al. 2023b). The
 159 translocated perch exhibit higher aggression levels than native populations, impacting native
 160 fish communities (Tarkan et al. 2023a), and potentially lead to cascading effects throughout
 161 the food web, altering community structure and ecosystem dynamics, with implications for
 162 both ecosystem functioning and human well-being (Tarkan et al. 2023a). Similarly, the
 163 extirpation of two endemic fish species in lakes Egirdir and Beysehir (southern Anatolia) has
 164 been linked to the introduction of translocated piscivorous pikeperch *Sander lucioperca*
 165 (Tarkan et al. 2014).

166 A unique example in support of our argument relates to the existence of two distinctive
167 populations of racer goby (*Babka gymnotrachelus*) in Poland. In the mid-1990s, the species
168 was recorded in the Vistula drainage system, likely reaching it from the Dnieper through
169 Pripyat-Bug canals (Semenchenko et al. 2011). It has since been listed among other spreading
170 non-native species in Polish rivers (Grabowska et al. 2010). However, monitoring studies in
171 2009 in the Strwiąg River, a tributary of the upper Dniester River, identified an abundant
172 population of racer goby, suggesting its native status in Poland. As genetic analyses confirmed
173 the dual origin of the species (Grabowski et al. 2015), this creates an ambiguous situation
174 where, considering administrative borders, the species is simultaneously native to one and
175 invasive to another tributary within the same country, posing challenges from a legislative and
176 regulatory perspective.

177

178 Other translocated taxa

179 The issue of translocations is not limited to fish but is a cross-taxa issue involving amphibians,
180 reptiles and crustaceans. For crustaceans, the translocation of the freshwater shrimp (*Paratya*
181 *australiensis*) within the same drainage system in Australia to maintain and even increase
182 genetic diversity led to the extirpation of the resident genotype within seven years due to mating
183 preferences of females with translocated males and the low viability of crosses between
184 resident females and translocated males (Hughes et al. 2003). In Australia, the translocation of
185 three native freshwater crayfish species (*Cherax tenuimanus*, *C. destructor*, and *C.*
186 *quadricarinatus*) raised concerns due to the subsequent harmful impacts on native freshwater
187 ecosystems (Beatty et al. 2005) While Australia has established controls to manage the import
188 and export of these crayfish, the regulatory approach within the country lacked uniformity and,
189 ultimately, led to numerous impacts, including the introduction of diseases, disruption of local

190 ecosystems through competitive interactions with native species, habitat alterations, and
191 genetic dilution through hybridisation. Similar cases may also be found in North America,
192 where many crayfish species are widespread, but where the native regions and river basins do
193 not overlap with state boundaries (Taylor et al. 2007).

194 For other taxa, translocations often have negative outcomes for the released individuals
195 rather than resulting in invasions, which can be problematic if the driver of the translocation
196 was to relocate endangered animals (such as amphibians) that are under threat from habitat
197 destruction (Bradley et al. 2022). Such translocations for mitigation effects are a form of
198 assisted colonisation and mirror debates on using this as a climate change adaptation action for
199 protecting vulnerable species (e.g. Lunt et al. 2013). To reduce human-wildlife conflicts
200 reptiles are moved to new locations where they seem to experience elevated mortality rates
201 compared to resident individuals. This is frequently linked to unusual movement patterns,
202 stress, disease, and challenges in surviving winters, particularly for species that prioritise
203 locating suitable hibernation sites (summarised by Sullivan et al. 2015; Cornelis et al. 2021).

204

205 **Redefining 'native area': a call for a biogeographic ecosystem approach**

206 These case studies indicate that the translocation of species between river basins may exhibit
207 diverse reactions based on the specific environmental conditions in which they are introduced
208 (Tarkan et al. 2017). This inherent variability emphasises the need for a nuanced understanding
209 of ecological dependencies, as not all translocated species respond uniformly to non-native
210 counterparts (Vitule et al. 2019). The underlying factor driving such varied responses lies in
211 the ecological dependency of species, whereby their behaviour is intricately influenced by the
212 environmental context (Strona et al. 2021).

213 Accordingly, we argue that the issue of translocated native species within national
214 boundaries demands a re-evaluation of the concept of 'native area' (Guichón et al. 2015) and
215 associated terminology (Soto et al. 2024), particularly in the contexts of fisheries, aquaculture,
216 and the ornamental trade. Traditional classification systems based on national boundaries are
217 insufficient for addressing the ecological complexities of species translocations (Pyšek et al.
218 2004). A bio-geographically informed approach, recognizing the ecological and evolutionary
219 contexts of species, is imperative. These could, among others, include river basin district
220 (RBD) type approaches as implemented in the Water Framework Directive (Nilsson et al. 2004)
221 and thus, we emphasise that our primary concern lies with the movements for fisheries,
222 aquaculture, and ornamental trade, areas where risk screening and regulatory measures are
223 more strictly adopted. The implementation of such an approach would involve considering the
224 historical distribution, ecological interactions, and evolutionary relationships of species to
225 define their nativity more accurately. This shift in perspective would enable conservationists
226 and policymakers to develop more effective and ecologically sound strategies for managing
227 non-native species and allow a more accurate risk screening and assessment process (Copp et
228 al. 2016; Tarkan et al. 2020). We then suggest the term 'translocated native species' is replaced
229 by 'introduced native species', bringing it in-line with invasion science terminology and
230 embedding biogeographic principles within policy and regulation.

231

232 **Conclusion**

233 The evident importance of species translocated within their native region in the context
234 of biological invasions, equivalent to that of non-native species, highlights the need for a
235 flexible management framework designed to fully incorporate and address the nuances of
236 species propagated for commercial sale. Such a framework should consider both the native

237 species natural ecosystems, biogeographic distribution, and evolutionary history when
238 outlining its natural occurrences. One such framework could be the Dispersal-Origin-Status-
239 Impact (DOSI) assessment scheme, introduced by (Soto et al. 2024) DOSI classifies
240 populations of non-native species at the population level. For this, it assesses non-native species
241 based on their dispersal methods (assisted or independent), origin (allochthonous or
242 autochthonous), current status (expanding, stationary, or shrinking), and impact (ecological,
243 economic, health, or cultural). DOSI's flexible and comprehensive approach supports objective,
244 data-driven decision-making for managing biological invasions, allowing for prioritisation of
245 interventions at various scales. This method represents an improvement over previous
246 strategies by addressing the needs of managers and stakeholders with limited resources. DOSI
247 could be expanded to include introduced species (i.e., species translocated within their native
248 range to ecosystems where they do not occur naturally) or native pests whose inclusion might
249 refine the management strategies under DOSI. DOSI only considers negative impacts (i.e.,
250 potential threats), acknowledging that negative impacts considerably outweigh and are distinct
251 from any potential benefits. However, the aim of DOSI is to prioritise populations of non-
252 native species for management interventions based on local risks, disregarding the feasibility
253 or existence of adequate approaches, and the species' ability to spread beyond current
254 confinements. While this is one possibility, the intricate challenges associated with translocated
255 species however stress the urgency for robust risk management strategies, complemented by
256 meticulous monitoring and centralised databases, to navigate the complexities of translocations
257 in more effective ways.

258

259 **Acknowledgements**

260 We dedicate this work to the memory of Prof Gordon H Copp who passed away on 8 July 2023
261 for his inspirational work and enthusiasm on invasion biology and risk management.

262

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