

1 **Different Invasibility of Permanent and Temporary Water Bodies in a Semi-arid**
2 **Mediterranean Island**

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9 **Abstract**

10 Non-indigenous species (NIS) represent a threat to aquatic biodiversity worldwide. However,
11 freshwater ecosystems in drylands are potentially more prone to biological invasions than
12 those located in temperate regions due to the higher number of artificial waterbodies generally
13 occurring in these areas, which might act as invasions hub for NIS. In this paper we review
14 the available information about NIS in Sicilian water bodies, discuss the role exerted by
15 artificial lakes and ponds in facilitating the establishment of NIS in arid and semi-arid areas,
16 and compare the invasibility of permanent and temporary water bodies in drylands. Artificial
17 waterbodies increase the target-area effect for disperser and provide a cosy environment to
18 NIS due to their recent origin and to the lack of efficient biological filters against newcomers,
19 thus acting as bridgeheads and invasion hubs favouring invasive species. Finally, we propose
20 a few actions to attenuate the threaten caused by NIS to the sensitive native biota of aquatic
21 ecosystems in drylands.

22 **Keywords:** NIS, dryland limnology, artificial lakes, biological invasions, Sicily

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24 **Introduction**

25 Biological invasions, i.e. the successful establishment of non-indigenous species (NIS) in a
26 given area, are considered one of the most serious threats to biodiversity conservation, both at
27 local and global scale (e.g. Gherardi 2007; Havel et al. 2015). Invasive species may threaten
28 the survival of native populations and communities through hybridisation, competition,
29 parasitism, and predation, and, more in general, they cause structural changes to the native
30 communities of invaded habitats (Ehrenfeld 2010; Strayer 2010; Simberloff et al. 2013);
31 furthermore, they can exert a negative impact on economic activities, and impair human
32 health (e.g. Pimentel 2011).

33 Apart from reports on the occurrence of single NIS, synoptic data on the animal
34 xenodiversity occurring in the inland waters of arid and semi-arid areas are scarce, and most
35 of the available literature focuses on temperate regions, where a longer limnological tradition
36 exists and more data are available (e.g. Gherardi 2007; Nentwig 2007; Leuven et al. 2017).
37 This is unfortunate, since freshwater ecosystems in drylands are potentially more sensitive to
38 biological alteration than those located in more humid, temperate regions. Actually, the cyclic
39 nature of the climate-driven disturbances they are subjected to (mainly water-level and
40 salinity fluctuations) is unpredictably altered by human impacts and global changes which can
41 reshape the composition of their biota (Jeppesen et al. 2015). Moreover, temporariness and
42 small dimensions further contribute to the deliberate destruction of these natural aquatic
43 ecosystems in arid and semi-arid areas (Fig. 1), in spite of their disproportionately high
44 biodiversity value (Naselli-Flores and Barone 2012). The disappearing or the rarefication of
45 these aquatic ecosystems may alter the connectivity among the local communities, and
46 ultimately impair the metacommunity dynamics by favouring local extinctions (Naselli-Flores
47 et al. 2016). The vanishing of small natural water bodies is generally accompanied by the
48 building of larger artificial reservoirs to fulfil agriculture (e.g. Ollivier et al. 2018), energetic

49 (e.g. Zarfl et al. 2015), and domestic needs. The mix of human alterations, direct destruction
50 of small natural ecosystems and their substitution with newly built reservoirs has a significant
51 impact on the composition and structure of the native biota of inland waters and can likely
52 offer, especially in semi-arid zones, new colonization opportunities to NIS.

53 Artificial lakes are actually known to facilitate the settlement of newcomers under a
54 variety of climatic conditions (Johnson et al. 2008; Alfonso et al. 2010; Havel et al. 2015),
55 and this can be particularly true for man-made lakes and ponds in drylands, due to their
56 placement on the territory, to their higher cumulative surface compared to that of natural
57 ecosystems, to the human-promoted disturbance they are subjected, and to the lack or to the
58 weakness of those biological filters that can hinder a successful establishment of newcomers
59 (Naselli-Flores 2003; Incagnone et al. 2015; Stoch et al. 2016).

60 In the present paper, based on data gathered in Sicily, we i) describe the xenodiversity
61 in Sicilian inland waters and attempt a chronology of its biological invasions; ii) discuss the
62 potential role of man-made aquatic ecosystems as bridgeheads facilitating the establishment
63 and spreading of NIS; iii) analyse the different susceptibility to the establishment of NIS in
64 natural aquatic ecosystems characterised by a permanent vs. a temporary hydroperiod.

65

66 **A brief account on the inland waters of Sicily**

67 The Mediterranean Basin, located between 32° and 42° latitude N, covers portions of three
68 continents (Europe, Africa and Asia) and, since about 3 million years, is subjected to a
69 peculiar semi-arid climate characterized by a strong seasonality of rainfall and air
70 temperature, which are out of phase and determine the alternance of rainy, cool (winter) and
71 dry, warm (summer) periods (Naselli-Flores 2011). The length of the dry period can vary, and
72 recurrent periods of prolonged drought and water shortage are also typical. Thousands of
73 islands, with a surface ranging from 25,711 km² to a few hectares, are scattered in the

74 Mediterranean Sea and have been hosting human populations since thousands of years. In
75 these islands, natural streams and ponds (including temporary ones) were often insufficient to
76 fulfil the needs of the human populations and man-made canals and standing water collections
77 were therefore built since at least 3,000 years ago (Zahar 2011). However, human impacts on
78 natural freshwaters were quite limited until about 10 centuries ago. Since then, a progressive
79 change in agriculture all around Europe brought to the intensification of cereal production and
80 to the capillary diffusion of watermills, even in the largest islands of the Mediterranean Sea
81 (Bresc and Di Salvo 2001). The higher food availability further fuelled human growth and
82 contributed to change the characteristics of European inland waters. Watermills, in particular
83 contributed to create ponds and lakes where none had existed before, and these lentic artificial
84 ecosystems favoured the transfaunation of several aquatic species across Europe (for an
85 historical account of the transformation experienced by European inland waters in the
86 Medieval Period see Hoffman 1995).

87 Sicily is the largest and most populated island of the Mediterranean Sea. It represents a
88 paradigmatic example of Mediterranean island due its prevailing climate ranging from semi-
89 arid to temperate-dry conditions, with temperate-humid and humid zones limited to the
90 highest mountain ranges (Naselli-Flores 2011). Sicilian landscape shows a physiography
91 dominated by a hilly landscape (61%) and a fair amount of mountain range (25%, including
92 the Mount Etna, the highest European volcano), the remaining surface (14%) being
93 characterized by lowlands. Aquatic lotic ecosystems in this region include a river network
94 mainly formed by torrent-like systems, and a few permanent lowland rivers whose discharge
95 is strictly dependent on precipitation. Several of these streams are temporary and/or saline due
96 to the presence of evaporite outcrops dating back to the Messinian salinity crisis.

97 As regard natural lentic waters, permanent and temporary brackish waterbodies are
98 mainly located along the southern coast of the island, with the exception of the endorheic

99 Lake Pergusa, the largest Sicilian natural lake (surface 1.4 km²), which is located in the
100 middle of the island. Permanent, shallow freshwater lakes and ponds are generally found at
101 elevation above 1,000 m a.s.l. Conversely, freshwater temporary ponds, i.e. those waterbodies
102 alternating a wet and a totally dry phase, represent the most common type of natural aquatic
103 ecosystem in this, as well as in the others, Mediterranean island (Marrone et al. 2006a;
104 Marrone et al. 2019). These ecosystems host quite a peculiar aquatic biota, adapted to
105 overcome complete desiccation, and representing the bulk of Sicilian inland waters native
106 biodiversity (Marrone et al. 2006a; 2009).

107 In Sicily, until the beginning of the XX century, man-made reservoirs were mainly
108 represented by small tanks made of stones, cement and lime collecting a few cubic meters of
109 water, locally called “ggèbbia” (Alvarez-Cobelas et al. 2005). After the World War II, several
110 much larger reservoirs, with a storing capacity higher than 10⁶ m³, were built by damming
111 natural, often temporary, streams all around the island. In addition, both the Regional and the
112 Italian governments have been encouraging the building of thousands of smaller artificial
113 lakes to promote agriculture development (e.g. Guggino Picone et al. 1960; Uzzani 2012).
114 The effects that these newly built aquatic ecosystems exert on the autochthonous aquatic biota
115 have never been carefully evaluated.

116 Altogether, natural lentic ecosystems (both the permanent and temporary ones,
117 excluding the small ground and rock pools), although abundant and widespread ($\approx 2,000$
118 according to a rough estimate), generally show small dimensions (surface area ranging
119 between less than 10 m² to a few hectares; average depth between 0.1 and 2 m), a quite
120 limited cumulative surface (≈ 5 km²), and store a relatively limited amount of water (≈ 5.5
121 Mm³). These values represent a small fraction of those shown by the 29 major dam reservoirs
122 and the $\approx 20,000$ agriculture ponds built in the island in the last 60 years (total surface ≈ 140
123 km²; water stored ≈ 1 km³) (Calvo et al. 1993; Naselli-Flores 1999; Naselli-Flores and Lugliè

124 2014). These artificial lakes were mainly built in the hilly part of the island and in the
125 lowlands, where most of the agriculture activities are concentrated, and where the need for an
126 easy-to-access and abundant source of freshwater was more pronounced. At the same time,
127 due to the lack of any awareness of the biological importance of these natural aquatic
128 ecosystems, several temporary ponds lying in these areas have been drained, incorporated in
129 the cultivated areas, and eventually replaced by brand-new, agriculture reservoirs (Fig. 1),
130 more conveniently located at the side of the cultivated fields (Stoch and Naselli-Flores 2014).
131 [Figure 1 near here]

132

133 **Occurrence and habitat preferences of NIS in Sicilian inland waters**

134 A checklist of the NIS occurring in Sicilian inland waters was compiled based on literature
135 data; conversely, the NIS occurring on small circum-Sicilian islands and on the Maltese
136 Islands are not discussed here. Google Scholar (<https://scholar.google.com/>), PubMed
137 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/>), and the “Biodiversity Heritage Library”
138 (<http://www.biodiversitylibrary.org/>) were used as the main source of information. The used
139 keywords were “NIS”, “Non indigenous species”, “Invasive species”, “biological invasions”
140 “allochthonous species” “Sicily”, “inland waters”, “reservoirs” “ponds” and different
141 combinations of them. The search was carried out in Italian and English. Moreover, grey
142 literature (local journals, theses, congress abstracts and websites) was explored as well.
143 Attention was paid to review all the references that include relevant systematics, as well as
144 biogeographical and distributional data. All obtained occurrence data were critically revised
145 and, when possible, checked through dedicated sampling surveys. The checklist produced by
146 Marrone and Naselli-Flores (2015) was used as a baseline dataset, which was critically
147 reviewed and implemented with the available new records. The nomenclature applied to the
148 reported NIS has been checked and amended according to the most updated available

149 literature, so that following Vecchioni et al. (2017), the planorbid gastropod reported as
150 *Ferrissia fragilis* (Tryon, 1863) by Marrone et al. (2011) is here reported as *Ferrissia*
151 *californica* (Rowell, 1863), and the gastropod reported as *Haitia acuta* (Draparnaud, 1805) by
152 Marrone and Naselli-Flores (2015) is here ascribed to the genus *Physella* following the
153 opinion of Vinarski (2017). Following Miracle et al. (2013), the cyclopoid copepod reported
154 as *Acanthocyclops trajani* Mirabdullayev and Defaye, 2004 by Schifani et al. (2019) is here
155 ascribed to *A. americanus* (Marsh, 1893).

156 In comparison with the checklist produced by Marrone and Naselli-Flores (2015), the
157 checklist of Sicilian NIS is here pruned from the brown rat *Rattus norvegicus* Berkenhout,
158 1769, which is not strictly aquatic, and from the European pond turtle *Emys orbicularis*
159 (Linnaeus, 1758), which did not establish self-sustaining populations on the island (but see
160 Vamberger et al., 2015). Conversely, new occurrence localities were published for the red
161 swamp crayfish *Procambarus clarkii* Girard, 1852 (Faraone et al. 2017; Deidun et al. 2018),
162 and three new NIS were reported for the island: the crayfish *Cherax destructor* Clark, 1936,
163 the copepod *Acanthocyclops americanus*, and the jellyfish *Craspedacusta sowerbii* Lankester,
164 1880 (Deidun et al. 2018; Schifani et al. 2019). Since the possible non-native status of the
165 leech *Placobdella costata* (Fr. Müller, 1846) and the apicomplexan *Haemogregarina*
166 *stepanowi* Danilewsky, 1885 has not been ascertained to date (see Arizza et al. 2016; Marrone
167 et al. 2016), these taxa are not included in the present work. [Table 1 near here]

168 Some emydid taxa belonging to the genera *Trachemys* and *Pseudemys* occur in aquatic
169 ecosystems throughout the island. Although no data are currently available on the actual
170 occurrence of successful breeding events in Sicily, *Trachemys scripta* (Thunberg in Schoepff,
171 1792) is known to regularly breed in southern peninsular Italy (e.g. Ficetola et al. 2009;
172 Crescente et al. 2014) and was observed to breed in the Botanical Garden of the University of
173 Palermo and other open-air private ponds, so that its establishment in the wild in Sicily is

174 likely. Accordingly, we here opted to include the family Emydidae (excluding *Emys trinacris*
175 Fritz et al., 2005) among the non-native taxa occurring in Sicily, although we refrain from
176 indicating which taxa actually breed in the wild on the island. These new observations bring
177 the total number of animal NIS occurring in Sicily to 32 (Table 1). The Chordata are the most
178 represented taxon, followed by arthropods and molluscs, and the vast majority of the recorded
179 NIS are of Palearctic origin.

180 Among the 18 invertebrate NIS up to now recorded in Sicily, 3 were exclusively found
181 in lotic environments, 9 exclusively in lentic ones, and 6 were able to colonise both standing
182 and flowing waters (Table 1). The three species only found in rivers and streams [i.e.
183 *Anguillicola crassa* Kuwahara, Niimi and Itagaki, 1974, *Melanoides tuberculata* (Müller,
184 1774), and *Cherax destructor*] were exclusively observed in natural ecosystems. Conversely,
185 the 13 species occurring in lentic environments were all observed in artificial lakes, whereas
186 only 8 of them are also occurring in natural, permanent ponds. More in general, no species
187 was found to occur exclusively in natural lentic aquatic ecosystems and, with the exception of
188 *Physella acuta*, no species proved to be able to colonise natural temporary waters.

189 Vertebrate taxa, with the exception of the rainbow and brown trouts, which only occur
190 in natural rivers, proved to be able to colonize any type of permanent aquatic ecosystem in the
191 island originating from the reservoirs they were originally introduced into.

192

193 **A tentative chronology of the biological invasions in Sicilian inland waters**

194 No precise data are available on the date of first introduction of each NIS in Sicily; however,
195 a coarse-grained time frame could be produced (Tab. 1).

196 Among the NIS recorded on the island, only few species occurred in Sicilian inland
197 waters earlier than the XX century (Table 1); the tench, *Tinca tinca* (Linnaeus, 1758), is the
198 first NIS known to be introduced in Sicily. This fish was likely introduced in Medieval times

199 as a source of food (Bresc 1986; Duchi 2018). Among the invertebrates, the gastropods *Radix*
200 *auricularia* (Linnaeus, 1758) and *Physella acuta* were introduced on the island possibly along
201 with ornamental aquatic plants in the XIX century, or even earlier. In fact, in the first half of
202 the XIX century, *R. auricularia* specimens were collected in the Botanical Garden of Palermo
203 and at the mouth of the River Simeto, close to Catania (Liberto et al. 2010). *P. acuta* was
204 reported to be present in streams close to Syracuse by Philippi (1844, sub “*Physa rivularis*”;
205 see also Vinarski 2017).

206 In the second half of the XX century, man-made water bodies were intensively built
207 throughout the island (Naselli-Flores 1999) and, due to the paucity of autochthonous
208 freshwater fish, they were routinely stocked with non-indigenous fish for recreational or
209 utilitarian purposes (Faranda 1977). About 70% of the fish species currently present in the
210 inland waters of the island (excluding the diadromous taxa) are NIS, which were introduced
211 in the course of the XX century (Gandolfi et al. 1991; Marrone and Naselli-Flores 2015). As
212 an example, at the end of the second decade of the last century, land reclamation works were
213 accompanied by the massive, intentional introduction of the eastern mosquitofish, *Gambusia*
214 *holbrooki* Girard, 1859, to fight malaria in those few wetlands that had escaped reclaiming
215 (Consoli 1928); this North American Poeciliidae, quite effective in controlling mosquitos’
216 larvae, but also notorious for its detrimental impact on native biodiversity (Margaritora et al.
217 2001; Vannini et al. 2018), has been later on deliberately introduced in the majority of
218 agriculture lakes and dam-reservoirs and is nowadays among the most widespread fish in
219 Sicilian waterbodies. Along with non-native fishes, their parasites [e.g. *Neoergasilus*
220 *japonicus* (Harada, 1930), *Anguillicola crassa*, possibly *Sinanodonta woodiana* (I. Lea, 1834)
221 glochidia), and some ‘hitchhiker’ invertebrates [e.g. *Daphnia* spp., *Acanthocyclops*
222 *americanus*, possibly *Dreissena polymorpha* (Pallas, 1771) veliger larvae] were likely
223 introduced (see Duggan and Pullan 2017), although the occurrence of some of these taxa was

224 overlooked until the XXI century (Giannetto et al. 1990; Calvo et al. 1993; Marrone et al.
225 2005; Marrone and Naselli-Flores 2015, and references therein). Several other zooplanktic
226 species strictly linked to the open waters of permanent, deep lakes occur in Sicily only in the
227 largest man-made reservoirs, and it is likely that the branchiopods *Daphnia cucullata* Sars,
228 1862, *D. galeata* Sars, 1864 and *Diaphanosoma* spp., which are autochthonous in Peninsular
229 Italy, might in fact represent recently introduced elements in the Sicilian fauna. However,
230 getting data on the pattern of molecular diversity of these species is necessary in order to
231 clarify the local status of these taxa, which are thus here conservatively excluded from the list
232 of Sicilian NIS. Finally, the rodent *Myocastor coypus* (Molina, 1782) and the clawed frog
233 *Xenopus laevis* (Daudin, 1802) are known to occur on the island since the XX century, the
234 first being escaped from farming (Petralia 2008) and the second one possibly imprudently
235 released in the wild from laboratories or hobby breeders (Lillo et al. 2005; Lillo 2008a).

236 The most recent wave of biological invasions, which is currently underway, is taking
237 place in the XXI century: in less than 20 years, 12 taxa (11 invertebrates and 1 vertebrate, see
238 Table 1) were released by, or escaped from, hobby or professional breeders, likely thanks to
239 the increased global trade of aquarium pets (e.g. Padilla and Williams 2004; Nunes et al.
240 2015; Maceda-Veiga et al. 2014; Duggan et al. 2018).

241

242 **The role of man-made waterbodies on biological invasions in Sicily**

243 The first large Sicilian dam-reservoir (32.8 Mm³) was impounded in 1923 and several others
244 followed after the World War II (Calvo et al. 1993). All these water bodies were built in a
245 context where the only existing natural permanent water bodies were a few brackish coastal
246 shallow lakes and some high-altitude ponds located on the mountain chains. These natural
247 permanent ecosystems hosted no or few “pure lacustrine” invertebrate species and were rather
248 inhabited by local “pond species”, which opportunistically colonized these sub-optimal

249 environments (see Alfonso et al. 2010). Analogously, the few autochthonous non-diadromous
250 fish in Sicily are typical of flowing or of well oxygenated standing waters (Gandolfi et al.
251 1991), and most of the autochthonous Sicilian amphibians are not able to successfully breed
252 in fish-inhabited water bodies (Lo Valvo et al. 2017). A scarce contingent of autochthonous
253 taxa, none of them well adapted to this habitat typology, was therefore able to colonize the
254 eutrophic and highly astatic Sicilian reservoirs.

255 Unsaturated and poorly structured biological communities as these ones are characterized by
256 scarce resistance and resilience against biological invasions (Shurin 2000; Havel et al. 2005),
257 and Sicilian reservoirs could thus be readily colonized by both vertebrates and invertebrate
258 NIS. Soon after, most of the introduced fish species (e.g. *Rutilus rubilio* Bonaparte, 1837,
259 *Perca fluviatilis* Linnaeus, 1758, *Ameiurus melas* Rafinesque, 1820, and others) spread from
260 dam reservoirs to the upstream river network, further enlarging their distribution range in the
261 island. Moreover, both passively and actively dispersing invertebrates, once established their
262 first populations in the invaded water bodies likely benefited from the increased availability
263 of aquatic surface area provided by the building of artificial lakes and ponds. Actually, in arid
264 and semi-arid landscapes, the prevailing occurrence of water bodies in open habitats enhances
265 the so-called target-area effect (Lomolino 1990). In these areas, the realized dispersal was
266 actually found to be more efficient than in areas characterized by higher habitat complexity
267 (see Korn et al. 2010; Stoch et al. 2016).

268 A further, more recent, mechanism entailing the introduction and spreading of aquatic
269 NIS in Sicily is the intentional release of ornamental and aquarium organisms: several
270 gastropods, cnidarians, and isopods are known to having been introduced following this route
271 (e.g. see Patoka et al. 2016; Vecchioni et al. 2017; Duggan et al. 2018), and there are
272 evidences of multiple independent releases of NIS in distantly-located Sicilian man-made
273 water bodies (e.g. Faraone et al. 2017).

274 The evidences collected until now on NIS chronology and distribution in Sicilian inland
275 waters thus suggest that the largely unsaturated biological communities of man-made ponds
276 and lakes in Sicily were easily invaded by NIS, and artificial water bodies effectively acted as
277 bridgeheads for their establishment and spreading throughout the region through both
278 autogenous and man-facilitated dispersal events.

279

280 **Different susceptibility of permanent and temporary natural ecosystems to the** 281 **establishment of NIS**

282 In Sicily, the few existing natural permanent water bodies have been steadily colonized by
283 NIS, so that they currently host a xenodiversity comparable to that observed in artificial water
284 bodies. Conversely, based on available data (Table 1), seasonal ponds and streams proved to
285 be nearly immune to such invasions. Actually, only two invertebrate species are to date
286 known to occur in Sicilian temporary ponds and pools, i.e. the dipteran *Aedes albopictus*
287 Skuse, 1894, occurring in artificial pools only (e.g. flowerpot dishes, abandoned exhausted
288 tires and containers), and the gastropod *Physella acuta*, which is quite common in long-
289 lasting natural temporary ponds. This obvious higher resistance of temporary water bodies
290 against biological invasions has to be ascribed both to abiotic and biotic factors. First, the
291 wide seasonal oscillations of all the physical and chemical parameters of temporary waters,
292 along with the actual presence of a dry phase, seem to act for several taxa as an efficient
293 barrier to the colonization of these water bodies. Then, temporary water bodies in the
294 Mediterranean Basin can efficiently resist against biological invasions thanks to their ancient,
295 species-rich and diversified biological communities (e.g. the communities of the
296 “*Hemidiaptomus* ponds”, see Sahuquillo and Miracle 2013; Alfonso et al. 2016), which
297 represent an effective biological hindrance against the establishment of newcomers
298 (Incagnone et al. 2015). Interestingly, the resistance against invasion of the native animal

299 communities inhabiting temporary water bodies is so high that it is also exerted against
300 “foreign” conspecific evolutionary lineages, which are not allowed to establish themselves in
301 those water bodies where conspecific lineages are already present, generating the so-called
302 dispersal-gene flow paradox (De Meester et al. 2002; Incagnone et al. 2015). As a rule, such
303 mechanisms generate a pronounced beta diversity at a regional level (e.g. Stoch et al. 2016),
304 and an unexpectedly high genetic structuring even at very small geographical scale (e.g.
305 Ketmaier et al. 2012, Marrone et al. 2013; Ventura et al. 2014; but see also Kappas et al. 2017
306 for a contrasting evidence).

307 However, although most invasive species are unable to permanently colonize temporary
308 water bodies, they are able to temporarily exploit them for trophic reasons. In Sicily, this is
309 the case of the amphibian *Xenopus laevis* and the fish *Gambusia holbrooki*. Both these
310 species take advantage of the ephemeral contacts between permanent and temporary wetlands,
311 which open them new feeding opportunities (F. Marrone and L. Naselli-Flores, *pers. obs.*).
312 This opportunistic behavior severely affects local communities which have not developed
313 adaptations against these vertebrate predators. In other semi-arid areas, *Procambarus clarkii*
314 specimens coming from populations inhabiting permanent waters are known to have a
315 significant effect on temporary water ecosystems, altering the structure and functioning of the
316 pre-existing communities (e.g. Pérez-Bote et al. 2004; Meineri et al. 2013). The higher
317 ecological resistance against NIS shown by temporary ponds could be therefore breached in a
318 given area depending on the proximity and number of artificial waterbodies which potentially
319 increase invaders’ pressure.

320

321 **Conclusions**

322 In semi-arid areas, artificial lakes and ponds are nowadays much more abundant than natural
323 ones (Oertli 2018). The relatively recent origin and the poor community structure of these

324 environments implicate a weak effect exerted by biological filters and facilitate the successful
325 establishment of NIS (Alfonso et al. 2010; Duggan and Payne 2017). Moreover, their number
326 and placement on the territory likely increase the biological connectivity among aquatic
327 habitats through the higher target surface they provide for dispersing organisms, thus further
328 facilitating NIS local dispersal. The increased number of artificial aquatic habitats can also
329 favour the spreading of some native species, and a positive effect in the distribution of insects,
330 amphibians and birds has been reported under more humid climatic conditions (Ruggiero et
331 al. 2008; Deacon et al. 2018); however, in semi-arid areas only the more euryecious and
332 widespread macroinvertebrates with a high dispersal capacity were found to successfully
333 colonize artificial waterbodies (e.g. Abellan et al. 2006). In fact, in Sicily, the distribution of
334 some autochthonous taxa such as the copepods *Copidodiaptomus numidicus* (Gurney, 1909)
335 and *Calanipeda aquaedulcis* Kritschagin, 1873, the cladoceran *Daphnia longispina* O.F.
336 Müller, 1776 or, among vertebrates, the amphibian *Bufo bufo* (Linnaeus, 1758), were
337 favoured by the building of permanent man-made reservoirs (Calvo et al. 1993; Marrone et al.
338 2005; Sicilia and Turrisi 2008; Alfonso et al. 2010; Vecchioni et al. 2019); these species are
339 nowadays much commoner in Sicilian man-made water bodies than in the natural ones.
340 Conversely, the more specialized invertebrate species or those typical of Mediterranean
341 temporary and permanent ponds were not able to colonize artificial lakes, and are currently
342 exiled in the natural ponds which survived to date (Marrone et al. 2006a, 2006b).

343 In Sicily, the building of artificial water bodies is driven by an alleged economic
344 development, which does not take in account its impact on native biodiversity. However, it is
345 now clear that the presence and numbers of artificial water bodies in arid and semi-arid areas
346 might have profound impacts on the local aquatic biota; these impacts are multi-faceted,
347 bringing direct advantages to NIS and to a few euryecious native taxa, but being noxious for
348 the majority of the more specialized native biota. As described above, the building and

349 spreading of such man-made ecosystems constitute an actual threat to the preservation of
350 local biodiversity due to their function as bridgeheads that facilitate biological invasions and
351 generate a significant pressure of NIS on natural ecosystems.

352 Furthermore, it has to be considered that ornamental and aquarium organisms trading
353 (mainly involving fish and aquatic plants) is a fast growing, billionaire industry (e.g. Padilla
354 and Williams 2004; Prathvi et al. 2014). This trading moves hundreds of species, a huge
355 amount of money, and potentially represents one of the most effective pathways for NIS
356 introduction, facilitating an easy exchange of species among distant regions of the world (see
357 Allen et al. 2017 for a comprehensive account). In fact, along with fish and/or aquatic plants,
358 several “hitchhikers” are likely transported into the water or on the traded organisms, and
359 eventually released in the environment (Marrone and Naselli-Flores 2011). To prevent this
360 risk, recommendations have been made to all countries in order to control the import and
361 export of species that may become invasive (Convention on Biological Diversity – COP 6
362 Decision VI/23 - <https://www.cbd.int/decision/cop/?id=7197> last accessed May 20, 2019).
363 However, these recommendations are often disregarded by policymakers of most countries
364 and the import and transport of NIS is still largely unregulated (Allen et al. 2017).

365 As highlighted by Oertli (2018), the physical characteristics of artificial lakes and ponds
366 and their placement in a given area should be carefully planned in order to facilitate the
367 colonization by autochthonous species (and thus their “naturalization”), and to effectively
368 inhibit the establishment of NIS. As an example, the possibility of scientifically-supervised
369 inoculation of the newly created artificial waterbodies with propagules from the local native
370 biota should be investigated as a possible approach to speed-up the process of “naturalization”
371 of man-made waterbodies. Such procedure should be thus addressed at inhibiting the
372 colonization of NIS through the establishment of invasion-resistant, native assemblages.

373 Moreover, restricting the access to invasion hubs proved to effectively work in the control of
374 an invasive vertebrate in arid Australia (Letnic et al. 2015).

375 In order to achieve the goal of a successful coexistence of economic development and
376 nature conservation, political decisions should be taken to make aware both the land-owners
377 and the relevant stakeholders of the risks and opportunities linked with the building of
378 artificial water bodies. Early-warning observatories on the occurrence and distribution of alien
379 species should be established, so that the arrival of new NIS could be faced and controlled in
380 the early stage of invasion, before they spread on the territory becoming difficult or
381 impossible to eradicate.

382

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714 Figure 1. An example of Sicilian landscape with natural and man-made water-bodies. **A:**
 715 Synoptic vision of a hilly rural area in western Sicily. Man-made waterbodies are easily
 716 recognizable by their geometric shape; **B:** An excerpt from the previous image showing the
 717 occurrence of relic temporary swamps close to artificial water bodies and greenhouses
 718 covered with solar panels (February 2013); **C:** The same area in April 2016. The spreading of
 719 the greenhouses destroyed half of the natural swamps pre-occurring in the area; **D:** Temporary
 720 pond close to an urban center in southern Sicily (March 2003); **E:** The same after its
 721 reclamation due to “public utilities” works.

722

Taxa	Native range	First evidence in Sicily (century)	First reference(s) for Sicily	NLT	ALT	NLP	ALP	LOT
CNIDARIA Hydrozoa								
<i>Craspedacusta sowerbii</i> Lankester, 1880	E-PAL	XXI	Schifani et al. 2019				X	
NEMATODA Secernentea								
<i>Anguillicola crassa</i> Kuwahara, Niimi and Itagaki, 1974	E-PAL	XX	Giannetto et al., 1990					X
MOLLUSCA Gastropoda								
<i>Potamopyrgus antipodarum</i> (Gray, 1843)	AUS	XXI	Zettler and Richard, 2003			X		X
<i>Radix auricularia</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	PAL	XIX	Aradas and Maggiore, 1841			X	X	X
<i>Physella acuta</i> (Draparnaud, 1805)	NEA	XIX	Philippi, 1844	X		X	X	X
<i>Ferrissia californica</i> (Rowell, 1863)	NEA	XXI	Marrone et al., 2011			X	X	
<i>Helisoma duryi</i> (Wheterby, 1879)	NEA	XXI	Zettler and Richard, 2003 (sub <i>Planorbella anceps</i> (Menke, 1830)). See also: Reitano et al., 2007			X	X	X
<i>Melanoides tuberculata</i> (Müller, 1774)	AFR & ORI	XXI	Reitano et al., 2007					X
Bivalvia								
<i>Dreissena polymorpha</i> (Pallas, 1711)	PAL	XXI	Colomba et al., 2013				X	
<i>Sinanodonta woodiana</i> (Lea, 1834)	E-PAL	XXI	Colomba et al., 2013				X	
ARTHROPODA Crustacea								
<i>Daphnia ambigua</i> Scourfield, 1947	NEA	XX	Calvo et al. 1993				X	
<i>Daphnia parvula</i> Fordyce, 1901	NEA	XX	Marrone et al. 2005				X	
<i>Acanthocyclops americanus</i> (Marsh, 1893)	NEA	XX	Calvo et al., 1993; Schifani et al., 2019				X	

			(sub <i>A. trajani</i> Mirabdullayey and Defaye, 2004)					
<i>Neoergasilus japonicus</i> (Harada, 1930)	E-PAL	XXI	Unpublished data				X	
<i>Proasellus banyulensis</i> (Racovitza, 1919)	PAL	XX	Stoch et al., 1996				X	X
<i>Procambarus clarkii</i> (Girard, 1852)	NEA	XXI	D'Angelo and Lo Valvo, 2003			X	X	X
<i>Cherax destructor</i> (Clark, 1836)	AUS	XXI	Deidun et al. 2018					X
Insecta								
<i>Aedes albopictus</i> (Skuse, 1894)	ORI	XXI	Liotta and Matranga, 2004, in: Bella et al. 2018		X			
CHORDATA								
Osteichthyes								
<i>Micropterus salmoides</i> Lacépède, 1802	NEA	XX	Tigano and Ferrito, 1996; See also: Russo et al., 1999				X	X
<i>Perca fluviatilis</i> Linnaeus, 1758	PAL	XX	Faranda et al., 1977				X	X
<i>Carassius auratus</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	E-PAL	XX	Faranda et al., 1977			X		
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i> Linnaeus, 1758	PAL	XX	Faranda et al., 1977			X	X	X
<i>Rutilus rubilio</i> Bonaparte, 1837	PAL	XX	Faranda, 1977 (sub <i>Alosa fallax nilotica</i> (Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire, 1809). See also: Tigano and Ferrito, 1986				X	X
<i>Tinca tinca</i> (Linnaeus, 1758)	PAL	XIII	Bresc, 1986			X	X	X
<i>Ameiurus melas</i> (Rafinesque, 1820)	NEA	XX	Russo et al., 1999			X	X	X
<i>Gambusia holbrooki</i> Girard, 1859	NEA	XX	Consoli, 1928			X	X	X
<i>Esox lucius</i> Linnaeus, 1758	PAL	XX	Ferrito and Tigano, 1995				X	X
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> Walbaum, 1792	NEA	XX	Ferrito and Tigano, 1995					X
<i>Salmo trutta</i> Linnaeus, 1758 "aquaculture strain"	PAL	XX	Tigano and Ferrito, 1996					X
Amphibia								
<i>Xenopus laevis</i> (Daudin, 1802)	AFR	XX	Lillo et al. 2005				X	X
Sauropsida								
Emydidae	NEA	XXI	Lillo, 2008b and Unpublished data			X	X	X
Mammalia								
<i>Myocastor coypus</i> Molina, 1872	NEO	XX	Petralia, 2008					X

725 **Table 1.** Checklist and distribution patterns of the observed NIS. Based on available data, temporary lotic habitats do not host NIS and were thus
726 excluded from the table. Moreover, man-made permanent lotic habitats are not present on the island. AFR: Afrotropical region; AUS: Australasian
727 region; E-PAL: East-Palearctic region; NEA: Nearctic region; NEO: Neotropical region; ORI: Oriental region; PAL: Palearctic region. NLT:
728 Natural, lentic, temporary water bodies; ALT: Artificial, lentic, temporary water bodies; NLP: Natural, lentic, permanent water bodies; ALP:
729 Artificial, lentic, permanent water bodies; LOT: lotic water bodies.

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