

1 Hellenic Centre for Marine Research, P.O. Box 712, 19013, Anavissos, Greece
2 Departamento de Biología Animal, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad de Málaga, E-29071 Málaga, Spain
3 DiSTAV (Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra, dell’Ambiente e della Vita), University of Genoa, Corso Europa 26, I-16132 Genova, Italy
4 Dipartimento di Scienze Biologiche Geologiche e Ambientali, Sezione Scienze della Terra, Laboratorio Paleoecologia, Università di Catania, Corso Italia, Italy, 55- 95129 Catania, Italy
5 Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra, Università di Torino, via Valperga Caluso 35, 10125 Torino, Italy
6 Ege University, Faculty of Fisheries, Department of Hydrobiology, 35100 Bornova, Izmir, Turkey
7 Geological Survey of Israel, 30 Malchei Israel St., Jerusalem 95501, Israel
8 Department of Hydrobiology, Faculty of Marine Sciences and Technology Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, 17100, Çanakkale, Turkey
9 ISPRA, National Institute for Environmental Protection and Research, Piazzale dei Marmi 2, 57123 Livorno, Italy
10 Centre d’Estudis Avançats de Blanes (CSIC), Acc. Cala, Sant Francesc 14, 17300, Blanes, Girona, Spain
11 Adnan Menderes University, Faculty of Arts & Sciences, Department of Biology, 09010 Aydın, Turkey
12 Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn, Villa Comunale, 80121 Naples, Italy
13 Dipartimento di Scienze e Tecnologie Biologiche ed Ambientali, Università del Salento, CONISMA, Via Prov.le Lecce Monteroni, 73100 Lecce, Italy
14 Department of Zoology, School of Biology, Aristotle University, Box 134, GR-54124, Thessaloniki, Greece
15 European Commission, Joint Research Centre, Institute for Environment and Sustainability, Water Resources Unit, Ispra, Italy
16 Marine Biology Station, National Institute of Biology, Fornace 41, 6330 Piran, Slovenia
17 Department of Biology, University of Bari, Via Orabona 4, 70125 Bari, Italy
18 Aix-Marseille University, UMR7294 MIO Mediterranean Institute of Oceanography, 13288 cedex 9, Marseille, France
19 Centro de Investigación Marina de Santa Pola, Universidad de Alicante, 03080 Alicante, Spain
20 Departamento de Biología (Zoología), Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Canto Blanco, Calle Darwin, 2, E-28049, Spain
21 Department of Environmental Sciences, Informatics and Statistics, University of Venice, Calle Larga 2137, 30123 Venice, Italy

Abstract

More than 60 marine non-indigenous species (NIS) have been removed from previous lists and 84 species have been added, bringing the total to 986 alien species in the Mediterranean [775 in the eastern Mediterranean (EMED), 249 in the central Mediterranean (CMED), 190 in the Adriatic Sea (ADRIA) and 308 in the western Mediterranean (WMED)]. There were 48 new entries since 2011 which can be interpreted as approximately one new entry every two weeks. The number of alien species continues to increase, by 2-3 species per year for macrophytes, molluscs and polychaetes, 3-4 species per year for crustaceans, and 6 species per year for fish. The dominant group among alien species is molluscs (with 215 species), followed by crustaceans (159) and polychaetes (132). Macrophytes are the leading group of NIS in the ADRIA and the WMED, reaching 26-30% of all aliens, whereas in the EMED they barely constitute 10% of the introductions. In the EMED, molluscs are the most species-rich group, followed by crustaceans, fish and polychaetes. More than half (54%) of the marine alien species in the Mediterranean were probably introduced by corridors (mainly Suez). Shipping is blamed directly for the introduction of only 12 species, whereas it is assumed to be the most likely pathway of introduction (via ballasts or fouling) of another 300 species. For approximately 100 species shipping is a probable pathway along with the Suez Canal and/or aquaculture. Approximately 20 species have been introduced with certainty via aquaculture, while >50 species (mostly macroalgae), occurring in the vicinity of oyster farms, are assumed to be introduced accidentally as contaminants of imported species. A total of 18 species are assumed to have been introduced by the aquarium trade. Lessepsian species decline westwards, while the reverse pattern is evident for ship-mediated species and for those introduced with aquaculture. There is an increasing trend in new introductions via the Suez Canal and via shipping.

Keywords: Biological invasions, marine aliens, biogeography, trends, pathways, Mediterranean Sea.
Introduction

An up-to-date inventory of the alien species in the Mediterranean apart, from its scientific merits can fulfil the needs of the regulatory requirements and environmental management options. This is of particular importance considering the current emergence of the new generation of EU political actions covering major maritime strategic objectives, such as the newest EU Biodiversity Strategy (EU, 2011), the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD) (EU, 2008a), and the European Strategy for Marine and Maritime Research (EU, 2008b). Alien species are of major importance in those policies. In the MSFD the descriptor D2: “Non-indigenous species introduced by human activities are at levels that do not adversely alter the ecosystems” is actually one of the eleven qualitative descriptors for determining Good Environmental Status (GES).

The two criteria for assessing GES in relation to D2 are: a) abundance and state characterisation of non-indigenous species, in particular invasive species [criterion 2.1], and b) Environmental impact of invasive non-indigenous species [criterion 2.2] (EU, 2010).

With regards to the criterion 2.1, proposed indicators include Trends in abundance, temporal occurrence and spatial distribution in the wild of non-indigenous species, particularly invasive non-indigenous species, notably in risk areas, in relation to the main vectors and pathways of spreading of such species.

With regards to criterion 2.2 it must be pointed out that the ecological impacts of invasions are often inferred from distribution data under the assumption that the more abundant the alien species, the more severe the impact (Vilà et al., 2010). There have been more than 1300 marine species introduced in European Seas (Katsanevakis et al., in press) but the impact on local ecosystems has been studied for fewer than 100 species.

The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) has recognized the urgent need to address the impact of Invasive Alien Species (IAS) and has included “Trends in invasive alien species” in the trial indicators to be developed and used for assessing global progress towards the 2010 target. However, due to lack of data on invasive species, the cumulative number of all aliens is used as an alternative. An indicator based on the cumulative number of alien species was used to identify progress toward the 2010 targets (Butchart et al., 2010), and was included in the third edition of the CBD’s Global Biodiversity Outlook (Secretariat of the CBD, 2010).

At the 2011 CBD meeting operational IAS indicators and their associations within the indicator framework, for assessing progress towards the implementation of the Strategic Plan for Biodiversity 2011–2020 and achievement of the Aichi biodiversity target 9 were discussed (CBD, 2011). ‘Trends in number of invasive alien species’ (decisions VII/30 and VIII/15) was proposed as a priority tool to be developed at global level, and ‘Trends in invasive alien species pathways management’ was proposed for consideration at sub-global level respectively (EEA, 2012).

The present work addresses marine Non-Indigenous Species (NIS) in the Mediterranean Sea (non EU countries included) and attempts to assess trends in: 1) temporal occurrence per MSFD area and introduction rate per major group; and 2) pathways of spreading per MSFD area. Trends in pathways of introduction in the Mediterranean per decade should tell us a story when combined with management policies implemented over the last decades. This work also serves as an updated list of alien species in the Mediterranean accommodating recent findings and latest nomenclatural changes since Zenetos et al. (2010; 2011).

Materials and Methods

The study area

In this work the Mediterranean is divided into the four subregions described under the MSFD, namely: (i) the Western Mediterranean Sea (WMED); (ii) the Central Mediterranean Sea (CMED); (iii) the Adriatic Sea (ADRIA); and (iv) the Eastern Mediterranean Sea (EMED). With WMED we include the whole basin lying between Gibraltar and the Straits of Sicily. The borders of CMED are hereby defined as the Kythira-Anti-Kythira Straits (Greece) and Libya-Egypt borders to the east, Otranto Straits (Italy, Albania) to the north, Cap Bon (Tunisia) and Cape Libeloo (south-west Sicily) to the west. ADRIA goes from the Gulf of Trieste to the north to Otranto Straits to the south. The EMED is also commonly referred to as the Aegean-Levantine basin, but in this work the Marmara Sea, bearing more similarities to the Aegean than to the neighbouring Black Sea, is also included. The coastal areas of the countries included in these subregions are listed in Table 1. This division imposes some difficulties in the case of countries whose waters are included in more than one of these subregions such as Albania (CMED + ADRIA), Greece (EMED+CMED), Tunisia (WMED + CMED) and Italy (WMED + CMED + ADRIA).

The data set used in the following analyses was based on the Zenetos et al. (2010) inventory, updated and checked to October 2012. Scientific literature (2010-2012) was also taken into account for taxonomic issues and revised distribution ranges. Following criticism that questions their status as aliens (Galil, 2012), we excluded species of tropical Atlantic origin that have expanded their distribution range and vagrant species. In the Mediterranean literature (e.g. Golani, 2010; Orsi-Relini, 2010) the term ‘vagrant’ has been used for large species be-
longing to the offshore nekton (mainly perciform fishes, sharks, large cephalopods and marine mammals) recorded occasionally as isolated animals. Both established and non-established species were considered herein. Very old records reported as non-persisting in the literature were excluded. Cryptogenic species were excluded from the trends analyses.

Freshwater species reported in estuarine environments, such as the Louisiana crayfish Procambarus clarkii, the Nile tilapia Oreochromis niloticus niloticus, the mosquito fish Gambusia hoolbroki, and the zebra mussel Dreissena polymorpha, were not encountered as marine NIS.

For all reported marine NIS in the Mediterranean, we investigated the year of first record and the potential pathway of introduction in all four Mediterranean subregions. The major groups analysed by order of decreasing contribution were: 1) Mollusca; 2) Crustacea; 3) Polychaeta; 4) Macrophyta; 5) Fish; 6) Foraminifera; 7) Cnidaria; 8) Bryozoa; 9) Ascidiaeae; and 10) Miscellaneous (i.e. Chaetognatha, Ctenophora, Echinodermata, Nematoda, Platyhelminthes, Porifera, Pycnogonida, Sipuncula). Uncellular organisms were not considered except for Foraminifera. Species names have been extracted from WoRMS, the World Register of Marine Species (Appeltans et al., 2012). Against all rules, the authorities are not listed for species due to confusion with the NIS record or reference but these authorities are included in the species tables.

C. Trends in introduction rates

The rate of introduction is represented as the number of marine and brackish waters alien species introduced per decade since 1950. Results are given for the entire Mediterranean Sea and per each MSFD subregion (including non EU member state waters).

Year of introduction is based on reported first collection dates but does not necessarily imply true year of introduction, which may have occurred years earlier. When the exact date of the alien record is not reported, the year of the first relevant publication has been used.

D. Trends in pathways

This trend is represented by the number of new alien species per decade and per pathway of first introduction to the Mediterranean Sea since 1950. The classification of introduction pathways was based on the frameworks proposed by Hulme et al. (2008) and Molnar et al., (2008), as adopted by the European Alien Species Information Network (EASIN; 2013; Katsanevakis et al., 2012). We focus on the pathways of the first introduction in the Mediterranean and have not considered pathways of subsequent transfers to other areas. In this analysis we have used the following categorization of pathways: ‘aquaculture’ (including both target species and others occurring as contaminants); ‘shipping’ (including ballasts and fouling); ‘corridors’: (Suez and inland canals); ‘aquarium trade’ (releases and escapes), and ‘other’ (including live food/ bait trade; floating manufactured objects).

The link between species and pathways was based on scientific literature, i.e. on published justification by experts. In cases of uncertainty or diverging opinions among experts, literature was critically evaluated by the authors to reach a decision. In some cases, the pathway was defined by expert judgment as the best plausible alternative. A modification of the approach proposed by Minchin (2007) was applied, according to which for each species one of the following is true:

1) There is direct information of a pathway (uncertainty category 1). The species was clearly associated to a specific vector(s) of a pathway at the time of introduction to a particular locality. This is the case in intentional introductions (i.e. aquaculture/target species, wholesale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Western Mediterranean (WMED)</th>
<th>Central Mediterranean (CMED)</th>
<th>Adriatic Sea (ADRIA)</th>
<th>Eastern Mediterranean (EMED)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ligurian Sea</td>
<td>Greek Ionian Sea</td>
<td>Italian Adriatic Sea</td>
<td>Greek Aegean Sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monaco</td>
<td>Italian Ionian Sea</td>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>Turkish Aegean Sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Albanian Ionian Sea</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Sea of Marmara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corsica</td>
<td>South-east Sicily</td>
<td>Montenegro</td>
<td>South Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sardinia</td>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>Albanian Adriatic Sea</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tyrrhenian Sea</td>
<td>Libya</td>
<td></td>
<td>Syria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balearic Islands</td>
<td>South Tunisia</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Palestine Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gibraltar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Israel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Egypt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Tunisia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Sicily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
importation of shellfish products) and in many examples of Lessepsian immigrants, when there was direct evidence of a gradual expansion along the Suez Canal and then in the localities around the exit of the Canal in the Mediterranean.

2) One most likely pathway can be inferred (uncertainty category 2). The species appeared for the first time in a locality where a single pathway is known to operate and there is no other rational explanation for its occurrence. In many cases, inference is based on known examples of introductions elsewhere for the same or similar species, the biology and ecology of the species, the habitats and locales it occupies in both the native and introduced range, and its pattern of dispersal (when known). For example, for a fouling species frequently recorded in ports, shipping has been assumed to be the most probable pathway/vector.

3) One or more possible pathways can be inferred (uncertainty category 3). The species cannot be convincingly ascribed to a single pathway. Inference is based on the activities in the locality where the species was found and may include evidence about similarly occurring species reported elsewhere. Species of Indo-Pacific origin found in the EMED, but not yet reported from the Red Sea are assumed to have been introduced via Suez either through the canal or by shipping with uncertainty category 3.

4) Unknown: There is doubt as to any specific pathway explaining the arrival of the species.

More than one pathway were assigned to a species when: (a) different introduction events by different pathways occurred within the Mediterranean; and (b) species been classified in the literature as ‘Lessepsian’, yet they are suspected to have been (also) transferred with ships (for a few species of Indo-Pacific origin, mainly sessile polychaetes, molluscs and macroalgae). Of the 986 assessed species, 799 have been assigned to a single pathway and 114 have been assigned to two or more possible pathways. The remaining 73 species have been classified as ‘unknown’.

Results and Discussion

A. Updates in species records

A total of 986 marine species are reported as NIS in this work. The full list is accessible in the Marine Mediterranean Invasive Alien Species (MAMIAS) database (UNEP RAC/SPA, 2012).

In comparison to previous inventories (Zenetos et al., 2010; 2011), and in the light of new literature and reconsideration of introduction pathways, 35 taxa have been excluded as natural range expansion, six as vagrant and 21 for other reasons (Table 2). Eighty-six species (among which 48 new records since January 2011) have been added (Table 3). The dominant group among alien species is Mollusca (with 215 species), followed by Crustacea (159) and Polychaeta (132) (Fig. 1).

Of the 215 alien molluscs, 76 of which are new additions, 120 form established populations, 14 are questionable, 4 are cryptogenic and the remaining 77 have been recorded only once or twice. Molluscs remain the most species-rich group, in term of NIS, also when ignoring many records based on single shells collected long ago and not qualified as aliens.

Crustaceans increased by eight species. Decapods are the prevalent group, followed by copepods. The latest records are the shrimp Palaemon macrodactylus (Torres et al., 2012) in the WMED, and two parasitic copepods, Caligus fugu and Taeniacanthus lagocephali, caught on a Lessepsian puffer fish in the EMED (Özak et al., 2012). We have added the unusual finding of the brine shrimp Artemia franciscana in the saltworks of Margherita di Savoia, Apulia (Mura et al., 2006).

Only 52 polychaete NIS (out of the 132 recorded up to now) have formed established populations in at least one of the subregions. The NIS established in the entire basin include species such as Ficopomatus enigmaticus, Hydroides dianthus and H. elegans, which represent long dated established introductions and are sometimes considered as natural component of Mediterranean habitats: see for instance Ficopomatus reefs in many Italian lagoons (Bianchi & Morri, 1996). Phylloidoce longifrons has been known from the EMED since 1976 (Ben Eliahu, 1976), but has been just recognised as an alien by Cinar & Dagli (2012). As Serpula hartmanae is morphologically similar to the native species S. concharum (the main difference is the presence of an asymmetric proximal boss (swelling) in the operculum of S. hartmanae), the previous records of S. concharum from the region should be re-examined. Nainereis setosa, Parapionosyllis cf. macaronesiensis, and Syllis cf. mauretanica, which were previously thought to be probable alien species, have not been included in the present list. N. setosa was reported from an aquaculture facility in 2003 near Brindisi (Adriatic Sea), where it was one of the most abundant polychaetes, attaining a population density of 500 individuals m⁻² (Blake & Giangrande, 2011); at present, it has been eliminated naturally from the area. Del Pilar-Ruso & San Martin (2012) recently reported the syllid species P. cf. macaronesiensis and S. cf. mauretanica from the coast of Alicante (Spain), close to Gibraltar: as there is doubt about their taxonomic status, a possible natural range expansion from the nearest Atlantic cannot be excluded.

With 128 NIS, macrophytes rank fourth. Newcomers are comparatively few, the latest being Solieria sp. (Miner et al., 2012), Ascophyllum nodosum (Petrocelli et al., 2012), and Uronema marinus (Sfriso et al., 2012a). Many macrophytes are especially worrying because they may alter ecosystem structure and functioning by monopolizing space and acting as ecosystem engineers.
Table 2. Species from previous inventories (Zenetos et al., 2010; 2011), here removed. Abbreviation for groups: Fi=Fish, Mol=Mollusca, Cru=Crustacea, For=Foraminifera, Misc=Misscellanea, Mac=Macrophytes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>species</th>
<th>reasoning</th>
<th>group</th>
<th>species</th>
<th>reasoning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Acanthurus monroviae</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Amphotegina lessonii</td>
<td>native</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Aluterus monoceros</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Agglutinella arenata</td>
<td>fossil record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Anarhichas lupus</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Agglutinella soriformis</td>
<td>fossil record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Beryx splendidens</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Amphithestina madagascariensis</td>
<td>synonym</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Dicologloosa hexophthalma</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Miliolinella cf. M. hybrida</td>
<td>fossil record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Diplodus bellotii</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Operculina ammoniodes</td>
<td>unsupported record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Enchelycore anatina</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Planorbulinella larvata</td>
<td>unsupported record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Fistularia petimba</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Pyramidalina catesbyi</td>
<td>fossil record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Gephyroberyx darwini</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Palleniatina obliquiloculata</td>
<td>fossil record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Gymnammodyes semisquamaus</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Schackoinella imperatoria</td>
<td>fossil record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Halosaurus ovenii</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Sorites orbiculus</td>
<td>fossil record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Kypchosus incisor</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>Sorites orbiculus</td>
<td>fossil record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Microchirius boscanion</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Mol</td>
<td>Echinolitortina punctata</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Pagellus bellotii</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Mol</td>
<td>Spondylus multisetosus</td>
<td>unsupported record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Pisolodonophis semicinctus</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Mol</td>
<td>Siphonaria belcheri</td>
<td>unsupported record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Scorpaena stephanica</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Mol</td>
<td>Septifer bilocularis</td>
<td>unsupported record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Seriola fasciata</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Cru</td>
<td>Pseudocalanus elongatus</td>
<td>native?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Solea senegalensis</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Cru</td>
<td>Scaphocalanus amphius</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Spheeroides marmoratus</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Cru</td>
<td>Scaphocalanus brevirostris</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Spheeroides pachygaster</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Cru</td>
<td>Scoletichirus valens</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Synapora lusitanica</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Cru</td>
<td>Sphaeroma venustissimum</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Sygnathus rostellatus</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Cru</td>
<td>Synalpheus tumidomanus africanus</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Trachytorus cristulata echinata</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Cru</td>
<td>Synalpheus tumidomanus africanus</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Cephalopholis taeniops</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Pol</td>
<td>Pherusa saltanda</td>
<td>Re-identified as Styliarioides grubei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Diodon hystrix</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
<td>Pol</td>
<td>Pherusa parmata</td>
<td>Re-identified as Semiodera cinari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Seriola carpeniri</td>
<td>native?/range expansion</td>
<td>Pol</td>
<td>Pherusa parmata</td>
<td>Re-identified as Semiodera cinari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Seriola rivoliana</td>
<td>native?/range expansion</td>
<td>Pol</td>
<td>Pherusa parmata</td>
<td>Re-identified as Semiodera cinari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Carcharhinus altimus</td>
<td>vagrant</td>
<td>Misc</td>
<td>Neothoracocotyle acanthocybii</td>
<td>parasite on Atlantic fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Carcharhinus falciformis</td>
<td>vagrant</td>
<td>Misc</td>
<td>Hiradinella ventricosa</td>
<td>parasite on Atlantic fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Galeocerdo cuvier</td>
<td>vagrant</td>
<td>Misc</td>
<td>Clitia mccradyi</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Isurus paucus</td>
<td>vagrant</td>
<td>Misc</td>
<td>Eirene viridula</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Rhizoprionodon acutus</td>
<td>vagrant</td>
<td>Mac</td>
<td>Polysiphonia stricta</td>
<td>misidentification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fi</td>
<td>Sphyra mokarran</td>
<td>vagrant</td>
<td>Mac</td>
<td>Osmundea oederi</td>
<td>range expansion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Thresher, 2000): major examples include Stypopodium schimperi, Caulerpa taxifolia, and C. racemosa (Bianchi, 2007 and references therein).

Fish rank fifth, although close to macrophytes. Of the 126 fish NIS, 124 are actinopterygians, whereas only two (Himantura uarnak and Torpedo sinuspersici) belong to the elasmobranchs. Twenty-seven species of tropical Atlantic origin have been removed from our previous list because their presence can be explained by a natural range expansion via Gibraltar rather than as human mediated introductions (Table 2). The Guinean amberjack Seriola carpenteri and the Almaco jack Seriola rivoliana have been eliminated because they were probably present in the Mediterranean but overlooked in the past (D. Golani, pers. comm.). Six additional species of sharks (Carcharhinus altimus, C. falciformis, Galeocerdo cuvier, Isurus paucus, Rhizoprionodon acutus and Sphyra mokarran) have been excluded because the Mediterranean records are based on vagrant individuals. Invasive fish can have significant ecological and economical impacts and cause profound damage to natural habitats, as recently demonstrated for Leslieian siganids in the EMED (Sala et al., 2011).
Table 3. New Additions to the alien species inventory by Zenetos et al., (2010; 2011). Grey shaded are species reported <2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxon</th>
<th>Species/Author</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mollusca/Bivalvia</td>
<td><em>Mimachlamys sanguinea</em> (Linnaeus, 1758)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Shefer et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mollusca/Bivalvia</td>
<td><em>Teredothyra dominicensis</em> (Bartsch, 1921)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Müller, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mollusca/Gastropoda</td>
<td><em>Marginella glabella</em> (Linnaeus, 1758)</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Luque et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mollusca/Gastropoda</td>
<td><em>Pseudorhaphitoma iodolabiata</em> (Hornung &amp; Mermod, 1928)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Öztürk, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mollusca/Gastropoda</td>
<td><em>Sparilla major</em> (Eliot, 1903)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Türk &amp; Furlan, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crustacea/Anostraca</td>
<td><em>Artemia franciscana</em> (Kellogg, 1906)</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Mura et al., 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crustacea/Copepoda</td>
<td><em>Lernanthropus callionymicola</em></td>
<td>Israel, Egypt</td>
<td>El Rashidy &amp; Boxshall, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crustacea/Copepoda</td>
<td><em>Caligus fugu</em></td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Özak et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crustacea/Copepoda</td>
<td><em>Taeniacanthus lagocephali</em> Pearse, 1952</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Özak et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crustacea/Copepoda</td>
<td><em>Pseudodiaptomus marinus</em> Sato, 1913</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>De Olazabal &amp; Tirelli, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crustacea/Decapoda</td>
<td><em>Elamena mathoei</em> (Desmarest, 1823)</td>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>Zaouali et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crustacea/Decapoda</td>
<td><em>Palaeon macrodactylius</em> Rathbun, 1902</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Torres et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annelida/Polychaeta</td>
<td><em>Laonice norquensis</em> Sikorski, 2003</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Dagli et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annelida/Polychaeta</td>
<td><em>Phyllocoche longifrons</em> Ben Eliahu, 1976</td>
<td>Israel, Turkey</td>
<td>Ben Eliahu, 1976; Çinar &amp; Dugli, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annelida/Polychaeta</td>
<td><em>Perkinsyllis augeneri</em> (Hartmann-Schröder, 1979)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Faulwetter et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annelida/Polychaeta</td>
<td><em>Serpula hartmanae</em> Reish, 1968</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Ben Eliahu &amp; Ten Hove, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annelida/Polychaeta</td>
<td><em>Spirophanes algidus</em> Meißner, 2005</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Dagli et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annelida/Polychaeta</td>
<td><em>Stylioides gruebi</em> Salazar-Vallejo, 2011</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Salazar-Vallejo, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chlorophyta</td>
<td><em>Codium arabicum</em> Kützing, 1856</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hoffman et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chlorophyta</td>
<td><em>Uronema marinum</em> Womersley, 1984</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Sfriso et al., 2012a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ochrophyta</td>
<td><em>Microspongium globosum</em> Reinke, 1888</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Taşkin et al., 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ochrophyta</td>
<td><em>Ascophyllum nodosum</em> (Linnaeus) Le Jolis</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Petrocelli et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhodophyta</td>
<td><em>Pulisada maris-rubri</em> (K.W.Nam &amp; Saito) K.W. Nam</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Serio et al., 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhodophyta</td>
<td><em>Solieria sp.</em></td>
<td>France</td>
<td>Mineur et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td><em>Champsodon capensis</em> Regan, 1908</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Dalyan et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td><em>Stolephorus insularis</em> Hardenberg, 1933</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Frickel et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
Table 3. (continued). New Additions to the alien species inventory by Zenetos et al. (2010, 2011). Grey shaded are species reported <2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxon</th>
<th>Species/Author</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Chaetodon australis</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Goren et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Chaetodon larvatus Cuvier, 1831</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Salameh et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Chanos chanos (Forsskål, 1775)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Özvarol &amp; Gökoğlu, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Epinephelus fasciatus (Forsskål, 1775)</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Bariche &amp; Heemstra, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Epinephelus merra Bloch, 1793</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>Lelong, 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Equilites elongatus (Günther, 1874)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Golani et al., 2011a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Holacanthus ciliaris (Linnaeus, 1758)</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Dulčić &amp; Dragičević, 2012b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Ostracion cubicus (Linnaeus, 1758)</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Bariche, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Paranthias furcifer (Valenciennes, 1828)</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Dulčić &amp; Dragičević, 2012a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Scatophagus argus (Linnaeus, 1766)</td>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>Zammit &amp; Schembri, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish/Actinopterygii</td>
<td>Synanceia verrucosa Bloch &amp; Schneider, 1801</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Edelist et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Articulina mayori Cushman, 1922</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Oflaz, 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Articulina pacifica Cushman, 1944</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Cibicides mabahethi Said, 1949</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Cycloforina quinquecarinata (Collins, 1958)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Lagena oceanica Albani, 1974</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams, 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Loxostomina cf. L. africana (Smitter, 1955)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Loxostomina costulata (Cushman, 1922)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Pararotalia cf. P. socorrensis McCulloch, 1977</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Pararotalia spinigera (Le Calvez)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Bresler &amp; Yanko, 1995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Pararochammina madeira Bronniman, 1979</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Planispirinella exigua (Brady, 1879)</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Wiesner, 1911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Pseudohauerinella dissidens McCulloch, 1977</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Pseudomassinina australis (Cushman, 1932)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams, 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Pseudoatriolina subgranulata (Cushman, 1918)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Quinqueloculina cf. Q. multimarginata Said, 1949</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
Table 3. (continued). New Additions to the alien species inventory by Zenetos et al. (2010, 2011). Grey shaded are species reported <2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxon</th>
<th>Species/Author</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Quinqueloculina milletti (Wiesner, 1923)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Oflaz, 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Septiloculina rotunda El-Nakhal, 1990</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Oflaz, 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Septiloculina tortuosa El-Nakhal, 1990</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Oflaz, 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Sigmoihauerina bradyi (Cushman, 1917)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Oflaz, 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Siphonaperta distorquata (Cushman, 1954)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Siphonaperta pittensis (Albani, 1974)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Spiroloclina acicularis (Batsch, 1791)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Meriç et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Spiroloculina aff. S. communis Cushman &amp; Todd, 1944</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Spiroloculina attenuata Cushman &amp; Todd, 1944</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Spiroloculina nummiformis Said, 1949</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Tretomphaloides clara (Cushman, 1934)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Triloculina asymmetrica Said, 1949</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Oflaz, 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foraminifera</td>
<td>Varidentella cf. V. neostriatula (Thalmann, 1950)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ascidiacea</td>
<td>Didemnum vexillum Kott, 2002</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Tagliapietra et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryozoa</td>
<td>Catenicella paradoxa Rosso, 2009</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Rosso, 2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryozoa</td>
<td>Celleporaria fusca (Busk, 1854)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>d’Honfd, 1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryozoa</td>
<td>Hippodopina irrifiensis Tilbrook, 1999</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Eitan, 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryozoa</td>
<td>Microporella browni Harmelin et al., 2011</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Harmelin et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryozoa</td>
<td>Microporella genisii Harmelin et al., 2011</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Harmelin et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryozoa</td>
<td>Microporella harmeri Hayward, 1988</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Harmelin et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryozoa</td>
<td>Parasmittina protecta (Thornely, 1905)</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>d’Honfd, 1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryozoa</td>
<td>Scorpiodinipora costulata (Canu &amp; Bassler, 1929)</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Harmelin et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cnidaria/Hydrozoa</td>
<td>Aequorea globosa Eschscholtz, 1829</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Turan et al., 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cnidaria/Hydrozoa</td>
<td>Campanularia morgansi Millard, 1957</td>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Piraino et al., 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cnidaria/Hydrozoa</td>
<td>Euchelota ventricularis McCrady, 1859</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Lakkis &amp; Zeidane, 1985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cnidaria/Hydrozoa</td>
<td>Fabienna oligonema (Kram, 1953)</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Goy et al., 1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cnidaria/Hydrozoa</td>
<td>Haliscera bigelowi Kramp, 1947</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Schmidt &amp; Benovic, 1977</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(continued)
Table 3. (continued). New Additions to the alien species inventory by Zenetos et al. (2010, 2011). Grey shaded are species reported <2010.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxon</th>
<th>Species/Author</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cnidaria/Hydrozoa</td>
<td><em>Halittara inflexa</em> Bouillon, 1980</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Goy et al., 1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cnidaria/Hydrozoa</td>
<td><em>Sphaerocoryne bedoti</em> Pictet, 1893</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>Goy et al., 1991</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Echiura</td>
<td><em>Arhynchite arhynchite</em> (Ikeda, 1924)</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>Saiz Salinas &amp; Amouroux, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Echiura</td>
<td><em>Ochetostoma erythrogrammon</em> Leuckart &amp; Ruppell, 1828</td>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>Saiz Salinas &amp; Amouroux, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sipuncula</td>
<td><em>Nephasoma eremita</em> (Sars, 1851)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Açik, 2011</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1: Contribution of marine alien taxa in the Mediterranean Sea.

Foraminifera include 68 alien species, thus ranking sixth. Eleven out of the 50 foraminiferan NIS listed by Zenetos et al. (2010; 2011) were based on fossil records (Tapiero, 2002; Milker & Schmiedl, 2012) and were thus excluded (Table 2). On the contrary, 29 more foraminifers were included in our inventory (Table 3) based on new reports (Bresler & Yanko, 1995; Ofìaz, 2006; Hyams-Kaphzan et al., 2008).

Cnidarians, represented by 53 NIS, rank seventh. They show an increase of seven species (13.2 %) compared to the inventory by Zenetos et al. (2010). All these seven species belong to the Hydrozoa (Table 3). The recent record of the jellyfish *Aequorea globosa* is considered dubious by S. Piraino (pers. comm.).

With a total of 31 aliens, bryozoans rank eighth. Eight species (more than 25%) represent new additions to the previous list (Zenetos et al., 2010). Nevertheless, none of these introductions actually took place in the last few years as all records relate to a critical re-examination of past literature. *Celleporaria fusca* and *Parasmittina protecta* were reported by d’Hondt (1988) for the Israeli coast, whereas *Hippopodina iririikiensis* was added according to Tilbrook (1999; and pers. comm.). Three species, all belonging to the genus *Microporella*, were recorded by Harmelin et al. (2011), two of them described as new taxa.

Ascidians include 17 aliens, and rank therefore ninth. Except for *Distaplia bermudensis*, they are mostly established or even invasive species such as *Microcosmus squamiger*. What will happen to the NIS ascidian recently recorded, such as the cryptogenic *Ecteinascidia thurstoni* in Israel (Shenkar & Loya, 2009) and the invasive *Didemnum vexillum* in the Venice Lagoon (Tagliapietra et al., 2012) cannot be foreseen.

B. Distribution of aliens across the Mediterranean

The number of aliens across the four Mediterranean MSFD subregions (including non EU state waters) is illustrated in Figure 2 and the detailed contribution of major groups in Figure 3. The vast majority of aliens occur in the EMED (775), whereas a lower number of species is
known for the WMED (308) and CMED (249), and even lowest for the ADRIA (190). Since the areas of WMED, CMED and EMED (760,000 to 860,000 km²) are roughly comparable, the differences in numbers are meaningful. The ADRIA is much smaller (138,000 km²) and appears heavily impacted by aliens if numbers are scaled (Fig. 2).

The decreased number of NIS in the WMED and CMED in relation to the 2010 figures is due to the removal from previous lists of species (mostly fishes) originating from the tropical Atlantic and of those classified as vagrant. On the other hand, in the EMED the NIS number has climbed to 775 (from 718 in 2010), as a result of the continuous influx of Indo-Pacific species found mainly along the Turkish and Israeli coasts (Table 3).

The number of alien molluscs is one order of magnitude higher in the EMED than in the remaining sub-regions. Several of the 76 newly reported species are already well established and spreading. Such is the case for the invasive opistobranch *Aplysia dactylomela* currently established in the EMED, CMED and ADRIA (Zenetos et al., 2010); its latest record is from Montenegro (Kljajić & Mačić in Thessalou-Legaki et al., 2012). Other introduced opistobranchs are also expanding their geographic range. *Polycerella emertoni* is now established in the WMED (Tunisia: Antit et al., 2011); *Polyvexa hedgpethi* is well established in the ADRIA (Lagoon of Venice: Keppel et al., 2012); *Bursatella leachii* in the WMED (Izquierdo-Muñoz et al. in Nicolaidou et al., 2012; Ibañez-Yuste et al., 2012).

The highest proportion of crustacean NIS occurs in the EMED. The highest proportion (78%) of crustacean NIS occurs in the EMED, being 28% in the WMED, 23% in the CMED, and 14% in the ADRIA. The mud crab *Dyspanopeus sayi*, hitherto known only from the ADRIA, has been found in the WMED (Alfacs Bay, Ebro River Delta, Spain) (Schubart et al., 2012).

Also in the case of polychaetes, most NIS occur in the EMED, as is especially obvious in the case of serpulids. Numbers in the WMED, CMED and ADRIA are comparable.

It is worth noting the dominance of macrophytes among NIS in the ADRIA and the WMED, where they reach 26-30% of all aliens, whereas in the EMED they hardly add up to 10% of the introductions. This pattern is related to the introduction of macrophytes in coastal lagoons (Boudouresque et al., 2011). Many macroalgae have expanded considerably their distribution range within the whole Mediterranean Sea. *Scytosiphon dotyi*, previously reported from the ADRIA and the WMED only, is now established in the Marmara Sea (EMED) (Taşkin, 2012). *Botryella parva*, hitherto restricted to the ADRIA, was recently found on the shore of the Dardanelles Straits (EMED) (Taşkin & Pedersen, 2012). *Polysiphonia morrowii*, already established in the lagoon of Thau (WMED) and in the Venice Lagoon (ADRIA), has also colonized the Mar Piccolo of Taranto (CMED) (Petrocelli et al., 2012). Although seaweeds are particularly prone to becoming invasive in the shallow areas they colonise, this does not seem to be the case throughout the Mediterranean. Up to 14 species have so been reported in the Medi-

---

**Fig. 2:** Species-area plot of the number of NIS in the 4 MSFD subregions of the Mediterranean Sea as compared with the whole basin.

**Fig. 3:** Number of marine alien species per major groups in the MSFD subregions of the Mediterranean Sea.
terrestrial but only one (*Caulerpa racemosa* var. *cylin-
draca*) displays an invasive trait in all the subregions. Other species, such as the *Rhodophyta Womersleyella setacea*, *Lophocladia lallemandii*, *Asparagopsis taxiformis*, and the *Chlorophyta Codium fragile*, and *Caulerpa taxifolia*, occur in all the subregions but are not invasive everywhere. Such differences between subregions may have multiple explanations (e.g. time between introduction and observation, differences in climate conditions or competitive ability of native assemblages, etc.).

The vast majority of fish (106 species - 84.1%) has been reported from the EMED. Of these, 70 species have not been reported, to date, from any other subregion of the basin. The CMED is second in number of recorded NIS fish (34 species - 27.0%), with five exclusive records, whereas the WMED and the ADRIA have almost the same number of total records (18 species -14.3% and 19 species -15.1%, respectively) and of exclusive records (6 and 5, respectively). In all subregions the majority of NIS consists of casual records (WMED: 13 - 72.2%; CMED: 12 species - 35.3%; ADRIA: 15 species - 78.9%; EMED: 42 species - 39.6%), followed by the NIS that have been successfully established in their new environments (WMED: 4 species - 22.2%; CMED: 10 species - 29.4%; ADRIA: 4 species - 21.1%; EMED: 40 species - 37.7%).

Foraminifera play an important role among newcomers in the EMED. Warm tropical to subtropical amphisteginids (e.g. *Amphistegina lobifera*) have become very abundant locally in the Levantine Basin and along the northern coasts of Africa and are expanding their range northwestward as a consequence of the recent warming (Langer et al., 2012). In the ADRIA the number of aliens is also increasing due to the spreading of species introduced and already established in the EMED and CMED, as predicted by Katsanevakis et al. (2011).

As regards cnidarians, Gravili et al. (in press) have recently reviewed the biodiversity of Mediterranean hydrozoans, alien species included. Most NIS were found exclusively in the EMED, but the number is comparatively high also in the WMED. In the ADRIA and the CMED alien cnidarians are less species-rich.

NIS bryozoans follow the general distribution trend, with the highest numbers reached in the EMED (22 species - 71%). Seven species have been found in both the WMED and the CMED. The EMED and the WMED were the only subregions from where alien bryozoans had been reported before 1950, often already recognised as such (Hastings, 1927). Only three bryozoans NIS are known from the ADRIA subregion. Several records in time exist for different aliens in the EMED, attesting of their establishment. In contrast, this does not occur usually in other subregions, except for *Tricellaria inopinata*, a species repeatedly recorded from the Venice Lagoon, whose spread in CMED and WMED has been well documented in recent times (Occhipinti Ambrogi & d’Hondt, 1994; Corriero et al., 2007). A further species, *Electra tenella*, first recorded from the CMED, seems to be currently established, though not invasive, and also spreading in the WMED (Rosso in Thessalou-Legaki et al., 2012).

Ascidians are similarly represented in the EMED, the CMED and the WMED, whereas their number is distinctly lower in the ADRIA. Five species seem to have spread to other areas from the original settlement: *Microcosmus squamiger* spread from the WMED to the CMED (Malta) (Izquierdo et al., 2009); *Phallusia nigra* spread from the Levantine basin to the North Aegean Sea within the EMED (Koutsogiannopoulos et al. in Thessalou-Legaki et al., 2012); *Herdmania momus* and *Symplegma brakenhielmi* from the south to the north Levantine basin (Çinar et al., 2006); and *Microcosmus exasperatus* from the Gulf of Gabes in the CMED to the EMED (Izquierdo et al., 2009; Ramos-Esplá et al., in press).

**C. Trends in introduction rates**

The introduction rate per major group and per decade is depicted in Fig. 4. By 1950 there were already 176 introduced species, limited mostly to the Levantine basin. An overall increasing rate is evident since the 1970s, which however is variable among major groups. In the period 2001-2010 the introduction of molluscs, crustacean and fish is prominent. Many foraminiferal species have been added to the list since the 1980s, but it is unclear whether this reflects a real process, or an artefact due to an increase in taxonomic studies. Furthermore, this group does not have a pre-1950 baseline as detailed for groups such as molluscs, fish or crustaceans decapods. On average, the number of macrophytes, molluscs and polychaetes increases by 2-3 new species per year, that of crustaceans by 3-4 species per year, while 6 fish species are introduced every year. The rate of introductions which was calculated to be ca. 1 species per 1.5 weeks between 2005 and 2010 (Zenetros, 2010), appears to slow down more recently. In the period January 2011 to October 2012, 48 new species have been reported (Table 2), which corresponds approximately to one new introduction every 2 weeks.

Overall, 211 new alien species have been collected during the last decade in the Mediterranean Sea, the majority of them in the EMED. Many more have been reported but some of them refer to earlier collections. In addition to the newcomers, established NIS appear to have expanded their distribution range considerably from one MSFD area to another. Thus there are 63 new find-

ings in the WMED, 90 in the CMED, 52 in the ADRIA and 182 in the EMED. The temporal and spatial distribution of the main taxa is shown in Figure 5.

The number of alien molluscs has increased by 54.7% in the last decade; 215 species at present vs 139 reported in Gofas & Zenetos (2003). Of the 76 newly reported species, 46 were collected for the first time after 2001 and
some of them are already well established and spreading. Only 37 alien crustaceans were known before 1950s in the Mediterranean. Between the 1950s and the-2000s, further 122 species were recorded, which represents an increase of 327%. The highest increase in decapod NIS occurs in the EMED. The analysis of the temporal trend of NIS belonging to small crustaceans (e.g. copepods, mysids, cumaceans and others) is for the moment unreliable, because information is scarce, and sometime too recent. For instance, the copepods are the most abundant group in ballast waters (adult specimens very abundant and common), but only 12 NIS have been reported in the WMED, and 10 of these since the 1970s. This is a low value when compared with other groups of larger sizes (e.g. decapods, with 22 species in the WMED).

Among the recent introductions of polychaetes, *Branchiomma luctuosum* became established in most of the Mediterranean areas in a relatively short period of time. It was introduced into the Mediterranean Sea, probably from the Red Sea, in 1983 and is at present observed in dense populations in many sheltered areas. Another *Branchiomma* species, *B. bairdi*, recently intro-
duced from the Caribbean Sea (Cinar, 2009; Arias et al., pers. commun.), also forms dense populations on many submerged structures, appearing even more invasive than the co-generic B. luctuosum. Mediterranean polluted sediments are densely colonized by NIS spionid polychaetes (i.e. Polydora cornuta, Prionospio pulchra and Streblospio gynobranchiata) that can now be accepted as new pollution indicators (Cinar et al., 2012).

The number of introduced macrophytes has steadily increased over time. Their pattern of introduction is different in the four MSFD subregions. Among NIS, they dominate the benthic ecosystems in the WMED reaching more than 58 species in the French lagoon of Thau (a Japanese biological enclave in the Mediterranean Sea), which represent 32% of the species diversity and 48–99% of the macrophyte biomass on hard substrates (Boudouresque et al., 2011). The situation in the ADRIA is similar: the increasing naval exchanges with extra-Mediterranean countries, for the import of fish products or aquaculture activities, introduce new species every year, mainly macroalgae (Sfriso & Curien, 2007; Cecere et al., 2009). In particular, the Venice Lagoon with 35 NIS macrophytes (ca. 70% of the algal flora, Sfriso et al., 2012b), out of the 52 reported in the ADRIA, confirms to be the major NIS hot spot of the Adriatic Sea.

Fish invasions have dramatically increased in the last decade: 51 fish NIS (40.5%) were recorded for the first time in the Mediterranean Sea after 2001 i.e. during a period of 11 years, whereas the remaining 75 species (59.5%) were recorded in a span of 118 years (1882 to 2000). The early settlers have expanded their first ranges, and both the number of species and the affected areas have been increasing since 1950. Some recent immigrants, such as Lagocoelophalus sceleratus and Fistularia commersonii, are showing an unprecedented invasive character in terms of both abundances and geographical expansion, reaching rates of spread of approximately 1,000–1,500 km year⁻¹ in the case of Fistularia commersonii (Azzurro et al., 2012). The list of NIS fishes continues to increase, especially due to the influx of Lessepsian migration, with the Indian Ocean anchovy Stolephorus insularis as the latest published of these records (Fricke et al., 2012).

Fewer than 8% of the alien foraminifers were reported before 1950s, all from ADRIA. The majority of the species, 42%, was reported in the 1990s, and 33% since 2000. All species reported since the 1980s were from the EMED. The sharp increase in reports on foraminifera is partially related to the increasing awareness of foraminiferal specialists and to the publication of the Atlas on Recent Foraminiferida from the Gulf of Aqaba, Red Sea by Hottinger et al. (1993).

The majority of alien cnidarians were recorded in the 1980s, with an apparent decreasing trend in the subsequent decades.

As regards bryozoans, a total of 24 aliens, of the 31 recognised as NIS in the Mediterranean, has been recorded in the last 6 decades. This means a mean number of four new NIS per decade. Two peaks in the introduction rate, involving a new introduction every 2 to 3 years, can be observed in the 1970s and the 1990s, with seven and eight introduced species, respectively. In both periods, and especially in the 1990s, most bryozoans NIS were found in the EMED.

The majority of ascidian NIS has been recorded in the 1990s. However, ascidians are a taxonomically difficult group, which hampers monitoring the introduction of aliens in the Mediterranean Sea, especially in the case the introduced species appears superficially similar to a native one. Ascidians therefore include many cryptogenic species (e.g., Cystodytes philippinensis, Trididemnum cf. savignyi, Distaplia bermudensis and Perophora multicilathrata). The list could be further enlarged considering newly described or still undescribed species, such as Botrylloides pizoni, which is suspected to be an introduced species (Brunetti & Mastrototaro, 2012).

D. Pathways

In addition to the MSFD, the EU Biodiversity Strategy (EU, 2011) specifically stresses the need to assess pathways of biological invasions through its Target 5: ‘By 2020, invasive alien species and their pathways are identified and prioritized, priority species are controlled or eradicated, and pathways are managed to prevent the introduction and establishment of new invasive alien species’. Ideally, a pattern in pathways is related to policy actions and the indicator is sensitive enough to convincingly demonstrate this kind of change. Trends in NIS related to pathways will be a tool towards this, particularly in hot spot areas such as ports, lagoons and aquaculture sites. Efforts to manage pathways should be reflected in the short and medium term in a declining trend of new introductions. A levelling off of the current increase in cumulative numbers of NIS, a reduction in their rate of establishment in new countries and subregions, and/or a shrinking distribution of these within European Seas would be a signal that this target is addressed successfully.

More than half (54%) of the marine NIS in the Mediterranean Sea were probably introduced by corridors (mainly Suez). In addition to the many Indo-Pacific species introduced via the Suez Canal, two crustacean mysids, Hemimysis anomala and Neomysis integer, were presumably introduced via inland canals (Wittmann & Ariani, 2007). Shipping is the second most common pathway of introduction, followed by aquaculture and aquarium trade (Fig. 6).

The Suez Canal, as a pathway of NIS, is believed to be responsible for the introduction of 493 alien species into the Mediterranean, approximately 11% being invasive (55 species), in good agreement with the “tens
However, only 270 of these species are definitely classified as Lessepsian immigrants (uncertainty category 1). Of these 270 Lessepsian immigrants, 71 consist of casual records (based on one or two findings) while 175 are successfully established. 126 out of them (including 17 invasive ones) are limited to the EMED, whereas the others are progressively spreading in the neighbouring MSFD subregions.

Shipping is blamed directly for the introduction of 12 species only, whereas it is assumed to be the only pathway of introduction (via ballasts or fouling) of further 300 species (uncertainty category 2). Finally, for approximately 100 species shipping counts as a parallel possible pathway along with the Suez Canal or aquaculture (uncertainty category 3).

About 20 NIS have been introduced with certainty via aquaculture, either as escapees of imported species, mostly molluscs, or associated as contaminants: parasites such as *Myicola ostreae*; epibionts; endobionts; or in the packing materials (sessile animals, macrophytes). Many macroalgae occurring in the vicinity of oyster farms are assumed to be introduced accidentally via aquaculture activities: 56 NIS were retained as ‘likely’ or ‘very likely’ to have been introduced into the Europe from the north western Pacific through oyster trade (F. Mineur *et al.*, unpubl.data).

Aquarium trade, although currently limited to 2%, is gaining points as a pathway of introduction. A total of 18 species are assumed to have been introduced by aquarium trade, the only certain case (uncertainty level 1) is that of *Caulerpa taxifolia*. With the exception of four species, for which aquarium trade is suspected to be a parallel mode of introduction, the remaining 13 species are all tropical fish species kept in marine aquaria. The most plausible explanation for their presence appears to be accidental release (uncertainty category 2), though unaided introduction via the Suez Canal cannot be ruled out for those occurring in the Red Sea.

The contribution of the different pathways, expressed as percentage, is presented in Figure 7. NIS introduced via corridors (essentially the Suez Canal) are the majority in the EMED, and their proportion declines towards the western basin. The reverse pattern is evidenced for ship-mediated species and for those introduced with aquaculture. Here we show separately those species linked to both the Suez Canal and to shipping (uncertainty level 3); some of these Indo-Pacific species might have actually been introduced by shipping and not by natural means via the Suez Canal but there is insufficient information. They constitute a considerable portion ranging from nearly 9% in the EMED to ~6% in the WMED.

### E. Pathway per group

**Mollusca.** Corridors (i.e. the Suez Canal) rank as the first pathway for their introduction. However, this is driven by the situation in the EMED where they achieve the largest number of species and where most of those came across the Canal, aided or not by shipping. In the ADRIA and WMED, shipping and aquaculture are the main vectors: there molluscs lag behind macrophytes and crustaceans. The sharing of different pathways is more balanced in the CMED, where the input from corridors is in the same order of magnitude as that from other sources (Antit *et al.*, 2011). With the natural expansion of many species first arrived in the EMED, the contribution of corridors to the CMED and WMED is expected to increase.
Crustacea. Their principal pathway of introduction varies according to the subregion. In the EMED almost 80% are derived from the Indo-Pacific through the Suez Canal, although in some cases these inputs can be dual (corridors and shipping, either in ballast water or among hull fouling) or even caused by aquaculture. In the WMED the situation is different, as a considerable proportion of NIS (between 57% and 71%) has been introduced by shipping, 24% to 33% used corridors as a primary pathway (Suez Canal, and in a few cases inland canals), and only 10% to 14% can be linked to aquaculture. The increase of maritime traffic is an important pathway for introduction and dispersal of alien decapod species, since larvae can survive long periods in ballast water: such is the case for *Dyspanopeus sayi* (Mizzan, 1999; Occhipinti Ambrogi, 2000). The presence of NIS populations in some Mediterranean areas can also be related to their trade: *Necora puber* and *Paralithodes camtschaticus* (Faccia et al., 2009) are quite frequently found alive in the markets. The introduction of *Marsupenaeus japonicus* has been attributed to escapes from aquaculture activities. Parasites such as *Myicola ostreae* are also the result of aquaculture activities.

Polychaeta. A recent analysis of alien polychaete species worldwide indicated that shipping is the major vector for species introduction (Çinar, 2013). Sessile species belonging to the Sabellidae and Serpulidae have been mainly transferred on ship hulls, whereas mud-dwelling species belonging to the Spionidae and Syllidae have become dominant components of the harbour environments due to ballast water discharges (Çinar, 2013). The step by step migration through the Suez Canal is a major pathway for species that have planktotrophic larval stages. In the Mediterranean Sea, the majority of species are of Red Sea or Indo-Pacific origin (almost 80% of alien polychaete species) and the main vector for species introduction largely depends on the sub region. As a whole, almost 50% of the species (including questionable species) have been introduced to the region via the Suez Canal corridor and the rest by ships. Species introduction via the other vectors such as aquaculture or sea-bait trade which are important in the Atlantic coast of Europe and some Indo-Pacific areas (Çinar, 2013) have not been reported in the Mediterranean so far. In general, Lessepsian immigrants mainly dominate the shallow-water habitats in the Levantine Sea, whereas many species carried by ships abundantly occur in harbours and lagoons of the WMED, ADRIA and other EMED basins (Aegean Sea and Sea of Marmara). While the Levantine Sea hosts 51 Lessepsian species (64% of the total number of alien species), the Aegean Sea hosts seven Lessepsian species (17%) and the Sea of Marmara only two (*Nereis persica* and *Metasychis gotoi*). Lessepsian immigrants comprise almost 51% of the alien polychaete species on the Levantine coasts of Turkey (Çinar et al., 2011), but only 6% on the Italian coast (Occhipinti Ambrogi et al., 2011).

Macrophyta. Unlike for most other groups, the main vector of introduction for macrophytes are not corridors or shipping but aquaculture and trade (import of shellfish products). It is not a coincidence that the hot spots of the new findings are not the coastal areas but lagoons such as the lagoon of Thau (WMED), the lagoon of Venice (ADRIA) and the Mar Piccolo of Taranto (CMED) where important oyster, Manila clam and mussel plants are located. Many species of macroalgae are used for keeping the imported fish and molluscs fresh and at the end of the working day they are discharged: in Venice Lagoon the greater part of the NIS have been reported from canals adjacent to fish markets. In this way the majority of large species were introduced and many small epiphytes associated with them. This is also the case of *Ascophyllum nodosum* for the Mar Piccolo of Taranto (Petrocelli

![Fig. 7: Percentages of marine NIS known or likely to be introduced by each of the main pathways by MSFD subregion. Percentages add to more than 100% as some species are linked to more than one pathway.](image-url)
et al., 2012). However, *A. nodosum* has been present for many years in the fish markets of Venice and Chioggia to keep fresh *Pecten jacobaeus* but has not yet been found attached to the canal banks as was the case for many other species. The lagoon of Thau is the Mediterranean area with the highest macroalgal introductions and this is mainly associated with the oyster farms that cover ca. 30% of the lagoon surface. Different pathways are likely for *Uronema marinum* (Sfriso et al., 2012a; b), a very small species that can grow on multiple substrates (macrophytes, shells, hulls ...).

**Fish.** Corridors are the main pathway for alien fish introduction in the Mediterranean Sea, followed by relatively low percentages of aquarium trade and shipping. In cases of single records, it may be uncertain how the species arrived, and only research may resolve doubts; for example, the pathway of introduction for *Platax teira* has been unclear (Bilecenoglu & Kaya, 2006) until additional individuals were captured from the Levantine Sea indicating Suez Canal as the probable pathway (Golani et al., 2011b). Similar substantiations are required for some recent fish records from EMED, such as *Epinephelus fasciatus* (Bariche & Heemstra, 2012) and a few more NIS including *Ostracion cubicus, Pomacanthus imperator* and *Pomacanthus maculosus*, all species purchased for the aquarium trade. Also the occurrence of *Epinephelus merra* in the WMED and of *Selene dorsalis* and *Scaphophagus argus* in the CMED is attributed to aquarium trade. Aquarium-related NIS are not related to geographical regions, since records are sparsely spread within all MSFD subregions, but rather to the increasing exchange of marine species between aquaria. Shipping-mediated fish introductions have quite similar proportions in the four subregions: latest introductions, such as *Paranthias furcifer* (Dulcic & Dragicevic, 2012a) and *Holacanthus ciliaris* (Dulcic & Dragicevic, 2012b), have been reported from ADRIA. Shipping and aquaculture transfers should be of great concern, since they reveal that (a) in the case of shipping, the current regulations regarding ballast water exchange clearly seem to be inadequate to prevent translocation of species and (b) public awareness about the impact on the environment of releasing NIS in the wild is not sufficient.

**Foraminifera.** The main pathways for the diffusion of alien foraminifera in the Mediterranean are inferred to be the Suez Canal and shipping. Most of them are Indo-Pacific species, common or also originally described in the Red Sea (i.e. *Cibicides mabahethi*). The highest taxa diversity and abundance occur in the EMED, mainly along the Israeli and Turkish coasts, so suggesting that many species act as Lessepsian immigrants. Direct invasion through embryos diffusion is likely for the well established amphisteginids: shipping most probably favoured the introduction of many rare species collected in harbour areas only (*Articulina mayori, Septiloculina spp.*, and others in Iskenderun Gulf; *Planispirinella exigua*, along the Croatian coast).

**Cnidaria.** Most NIS were found exclusively in the EMED, and are either Indo-Pacific or circumtropical in origin; this distributional pattern may suggest they penetrated through the corridor of the Suez Canal, thanks to their free-swimming medusa stages. However, species having a hydroid stage are often important component of ship hull foul-

![Fig. 8: Temporal trends in the numbers of newly recorded marine NIS in the Mediterranean in relation to the pathway of introduction. Some species that were linked to more than one pathway were given a value of 1/k for each of the k associated pathways so that the overall contribution of each species to the total number of new NIS per decade was always 1.](image-url)
ing (Morri & Boero, 1986; Shoukr, 1987), so that a corridor pathway for these species cannot be taken for granted, and shipping may be also involved (Morri et al., 2009). Shipping is the second vector of introduction for cnidarians species, whereas aquaculture possibly has a role.

**Bryozoa.** The main pathways for the introduction of alien bryozoans in the Mediterranean are shipping and corridors. The arrival through the Suez corridor has been documented or at least suggested for aliens occurring in the EMED (Harmelin et al., 2011, for instance) whereas shipping has been considered as the principal vector for CMED and WMED aliens, probably among hull fouling. In contrast, the introduction through aquaculture activities has been suggested only for *Crepidacantha poissoni* in the CMED, but the same vector cannot be excluded for other species. Finally, drifting plastics could represent a further vector for spreading inside the Mediterranean, as suggested for *Electra tenella* (Rosso in Thessalou-Legaiki et al., 2012).

**Ascidia.** Their lecitotrophic larval stages have a relatively short pelagic period (minutes to hours), so that the principal vector for ascidian introduction must be shipping (among hull fouling rather than in ballast waters). These NIS ascidians occur in harbours, and there is some dispersion mainly by colonization of degraded and/or artificial habitats. This notwithstanding, a few species may have been introduced through aquaculture (certainly *Styela clava* and, perhaps, *Botryllolides violaceus, Polyanthocarpia zorritensis* and *Didemnum vexillum*, associated to shellfish culture). *Ecteinascidia thurstoni* probably penetrated the EMED (Shendar & Loya, 2009) through the Suez Canal (Gab-Alla, 2008).

**F. Trends in pathways**

The dynamics of the invasion pathways since 1950 (Fig. 8) indicate a steady rise in numbers of NIS introduced via corridors and of those that are ship-transferred. Increasing trends of NIS with time are seen in all MSFD subregions, being more evident in the EMED and CMED (Fig. 9).

The rate of Lessepsian migration has been increasing particularly in the last decade. This is partly attributed to the continued enlargement of the Suez Canal. According to Rilov & Galil (2009) this is the main cause of the apparent acceleration in the rate of Lessepsian invasion over the last five decades. This trend is particularly evident for fish (Golani, 2010).

Increase in trade, tourism and maritime activities have provided new and enhanced pathways for the spread of marine NIS through shipping. Shipping has been reported to be responsible for the introduction (either among hull fouling or in ballast waters) of 54 NIS until 1950. The current rate (based on the last decade) of ship-mediated NIS in the Mediterranean is one new species every ~six weeks. The observed increased trend in new introductions by shipping is not expected to halt unless effective measures are taken. Trends in new introductions of alien species by shipping are expected to decrease only when the ‘International Convention for the Control and Management of Ships’ Ballast Water and Sediments’ (BWM Convention) becomes legally binding, by substantially reducing the transfer of marine species via ballast water. Nevertheless, introductions by hull-fouling will remain.


![Fig. 9: Trends of NIS introduction per decade by MSFD subregion. subregion. Some species linked to more than one pathway were given a value of 1/k for each of the k associated pathways so that the overall contribution of each species to the total number of new NIS per decade was always 1.](image-url)
lished a framework with which to assess and minimise the possible impacts of aliens and locally absent species used in aquaculture, including procedures for risk assessment, to ensure adequate protection of aquatic habitats from non-native species. However, since 2008 the whole European shellfish aquaculture is affected by severe and repetitive oyster mortalities and massive imports of non-European livestock are again being considered as a solution for the crisis, despite the risks of accidental NIS introduction associated with these imports.

In the WMED, shipping remains the most prominent pathway of introductions and its lower proportion in the two last decades reflects the increase of other sources rather than a genuine decline. Shipping at large may include species introduced with fishing discards, as documented for the gastropods *Bostryx capulus odites* and *Marginella glabella* in the fishing harbours of Alicante and Málaga, respectively. The decades of 1970 to 2000 represent the heyday of introductions through aquaculture, both intentional and accidental. The decline of native or anciently introduced commercial species such as the bivalves *Venerupis decussata* and *Crassostrea gigas* triggered imports of substitute species, or massive imports of spat for restocking (Mineur et al., 2007, and references therein). Nowadays, such imports have been considerably reduced as a consequence of the self-sustaining spat production, and also the stock of alien species most likely to become introduced is now established in the Mediterranean. The rise of corridors as a pathway to the WMED in the last decade is a consequence of the slow but steady progress of species, which first arrived in the EMED through the Suez Canal to successively spread throughout the whole basin. Among the forerunners, the opistobranch *Bursatella leachii* is the first Lessepsian species to have reached the Alboran Sea (Ibañez-Yuste et al., 2012).

The increasing importance of NIS is particularly evident for the CMED, which separates the western from the eastern sectors of the basin. In this subregion shipping is the main pathway that accounts for the introduction of most species. The incidence of this pathway has increased since the 1971-80 decade, and particularly in the last period from 2001 to 2010, roughly paralleling the general trend in increasing introductions, notwithstanding a light drop in the 1980s. But the corridor pathway seems to feed new aliens irregularly in this subregion, with no apparent correlation with the general trend or the trend of introductions in the nearby EMED. This is probably the result of dispersal mechanisms and pathways between the different areas within the Mediterranean; their timing has not been specifically investigated and still remain poorly known. Aquaculture is a subordinate source of introduction of alien species. However, it shows an increasing pattern, more evident in the last decade. Finally, other pathways are very subordinate. One of the last reported species is *Lagocephalus sceleratus* (Jribi & Bradai, 2012), a highly invasive fish, known for its toxicity and potential danger to humans. Only few decades ago, the CMED was basically not affected by Lessepsian immigrants (Por, 1978) and the Sicily Straits has been long considered as the ultimate western barrier to their dispersal (Quignard & Tomasini, 2000). Yet, the number of Lessepsian immigrants has dramatically increased in the central sectors of the basin, with an increasing number of established invaders such as *Fistularia commersoni* and siganids that have already migrated to the west. The CMED would deserve to be continuously monitored to detect recent colonization events, being a platform of dispersal to the WMED rather than a barrier to that.

The number of NIS currently recorded in the ADRIA is considerably lower than that in other subregions, but - as mentioned above - this must be qualified and scaled to the substantially smaller area involved. The majority of species have arrived through shipping, followed by aquaculture. The rate of ship mediated NIS in the ADRIA is constantly increasing as in the EMED and CMED. It has been estimated that 25 NIS have been introduced via shipping in the last decade. Aquaculture associated introductions peaked in the decade 1991-2000 with an average of 15 new NIS (the second highest rate after the WMED). However, this rate has been reduced to half (8 NIS in the period 2001-2010) presumably as a result of the Aquaculture Regulation. Among the NIS introduced through aquaculture, the most successful invaders are the bivalves *Arcuatuula senhousia*, *Crassostrea gigas* and *Ruditapes philippinarum*. The occurrence of *Gracilariia vermiculophylla* (Sfriso et al., 2012b), a species previously introduced in the NE Atlantic, may be attributed to the aquaculture activity or the shellfish trade via importations from the Atlantic. Corridors are also significant as a pathway (spreading of Lessepsian NIS), however, it is less important than in other MSFD subregions. The occurrence of Indo-Pacific fish has been documented mainly after the mid 1980s, when the Adriatic ichthyofauna was well known. To date, at least 16 NIS fish have been recorded in the ADRIA. Almost all of them are considered Lessepsian immigrants. However, very few Lessepsian immigrants can be considered as established, since most of them were, till now recorded only as single or few specimens. The rate of Lessepsian NIS extending their distribution in the ADRIA has doubled the last two decades. It seems that the changes in the patterns of water exchange between the Adriatic Sea and the Mediterranean as well as a rise in the eastern Adriatic Sea surface temperatures in 1985-1987 and 1990-1995 are correlated with the occurrence of Indo-Pacific species, some of them for the first time, others expanding their distribution from the neighbouring subregions where they are already established. The latest finding is that of *Lagocephalus sceleratus* (L. Lipec, 2012 unpubl. data), one of the most
invasive species in the EMED. The Gulf of Venice and other North Adriatic coastal lagoons are at the moment the areas the most colonized by NIS, as previously reported by Mizzan (1999) and Occhipinti Ambrogi et al. (2011). In the northern Adriatic Sea alien macroalgae, crustaceans and molluscs are more numerous than in the central and southern part. The majority of molluscs and macrophytes were introduced via aquaculture, whereas alien crustacean and polychaeta NIS were mostly related to the introduction by shipping ballast waters or as fouling organisms.

In the EMED subregion, the Levantine Sea ranks first in terms of NIS belonging to all groups, followed by the Aegean Sea and the Sea of Marmara. The main pathway of their introduction is the Suez Canal corridor but shipping plays an equally important role. The number of NIS introduced via either the Suez Canal or shipping has tripled since the 1950s (Figure 9), but the increasing pattern was not the same. For Lessepsian immigrants there was an abrupt increase in the 1960s which continued over the next decades and has remained steady during the last two decades, with an average of more than 70 introductions every 10 years. A decline in NIS was observed in the 1980s, which Galil (2009) attributed to the closure of the Suez Canal between 1967 and 1975, during the June 1967 six-day Arab-Israeli war, and the impact of the Arab Oil Embargo on oil shipping and international trade that limited the number of vessels entering in the Mediterranean. On the other hand, the contribution of shipping has steadily increased reaching approximately 78 species in the 2010s. Some international harbours, such as Port Said, Haifa, Iskenderun, Mersin, Alsancak and Peiraias, are the hot spot sites for NIS establishment. In these areas, species introduced by shipping, such as Polydora cornuta and Streblospio gynobranchiata, dominated the zoobenthic community, more or less removing the long-known pollution indicator species such as Capitella spp. and Scolelepis fuliginosus from the area (Çinar et al., 2012). In the Sea of Marmara, 69 alien species were reported (Çinar et al., 2011). The main vector is shipping (71% of the total number of species). In addition, 23% of the species were the Lessepsian immigrants, and 4% of the species were transferred to the area via aquaculture.

It is worth mentioning that, since 2001, the number of NIS fish introduced in the Mediterranean via shipping and aquarium trade has increased notably. Unlike other groups, to date, we do not know of any foraminifera that were introduced to the EMED via shipping.

The increase of marine NIS in the Mediterranean is certainly attributed to an increase of human activities but it is also a consequence of climate change. From 1985 to 2006 the temperature in the upper layer of the Mediterranean Sea has been increasing at an average rate of 0.03°C year⁻¹ for the WMED and 0.05°C year⁻¹ for the EMED (Nykjaer, 2009). Abrupt rising temperature since the end of the 1990s has modified the potential thermal habitat available for warm-water species, facilitating their settlement at an unexpectedly rapid rate, and it has been shown that the introduction of tropical alien species has been exacerbated by the warming of the EMED (Raitos et al., 2010).

G. Data-shortage and data-uncertainties: our Achilles’ heel

Data availability: The picture reflects the scientific effort including taxonomic expertise availability not only in discovering and reporting new species or mapping their distribution but even for compiling data at national levels.

Missing taxa: Our Mediterranean inventory of NIS is still incomplete since of the unicellular organisms only foraminiferans were considered. Bearing in mind that the diversity of marine unicellulars is scarcely known in wide areas of the Mediterranean Sea and that it can rarely be excluded that a suspected unicellular invader was already present as part of the rare, hidden and unsampled plankton, we refrain from citing a detailed list of plankton.

Uncertainty in taxonomy: In general, it is important to stress that recently strong efforts are being made for evaluating the real state of certain presumed widely distributed or cosmopolitan species. It is often demonstrated that such ‘species’ are actually complexes of species when carefully investigated using molecular tools or even fine morphological characters.

This applies to many groups including Bryozoa, Foraminifera, macroalgae and Polychaeta. For bryozoans, molecular analyses demonstrated a promising method for clade discrimination in some species belonging to Bugula, Celleporella and Electra. However, SEM analysis was also often revealed as a resolutive tool for distinguishing species showing close similarities (Rosso, 2004; Berning et al., 2008), or to state the actual conspecificity of populations (Harmelin et al., 2012), above all in concurrence with examination of species types. But, until now few taxa have been checked (see Harmelin et al., 2011, for instance) and uncertainties in managing literature data in the absence of figures/material have to be considered. Consequently, it is difficult to make inferences, especially when using literature data, when species have not been figured.

Uncertainty of natural range: Resolving natural ranges and marine invasions in globally distributed species requires molecular analyses. Mitochondrial (mtDNA) and nuclear (nDNA) sequence data from different populations may confirm the source of the introduced population (Concepcion et al., 2012; Schubart et al. 2012). Additional information and insights would be provided by past distributions, at least for species with the ability to be fossilized and whose fossil record is clearly
evident and known. For instance, the interpretation of the cryptogenic state of the bryozoan *Catenicella paradoxa*, recently described from the CMED but belonging to a genus presently absent from the Mediterranean, is partly supported by the presence of Pleistocene fossil representatives of the same genus in southern Italy (see Rosso, 2009).

**Uncertainty of introductions via Gibraltar:** The status of some species with an eastern Atlantic origin in the WMED is difficult to determine, because (1) intense fishing and transport activities (goods, commercial passengers, tourists) occur between Africa and Spain or France (e.g. the ports of Algeciras, Malaga, Barcelona, Marseille), which represents a potential and continuous source of introduction of NIS, via ballast water and transfers of organisms attached to ship hulls as fouling or fishing discards, as recently exemplified by the introduction of the West African gastropod *Marginella glabella* into Málaga harbour (Luque et al., 2012), (2) the Strait of Gibraltar is a boundary more or less permeable to Atlantic species that naturally increase their distribution range, and (3) there is a limited knowledge on the biodiversity from North African littoral. Therefore some of the species recently reported in the WMED and considered to have expanded their geographic range could be in fact introduced by man.

**Effect of climate:** Climate change can enhance establishment of some introduced NIS (see Por, 2010; Raitsos et al., 2010). Consequently, it skews the real magnitude of the phenomenon attributed solely to anthropogenic intervention.

**The way ahead**

Although the European states have a comprehensive regulatory framework to protect economic interests against diseases and pests, these are often inadequate to safeguard against species that threaten native biodiversity. Moreover, the regulatory system pertains to pathogens while large sized species that may have considerable impact on health or the economy are not considered to date.

Taking into account the aim of the MSFD to achieve Good Environmental Status but also the gap in our knowledge on the processes and impacts of marine biological invasions in the Mediterranean, important areas of action and further research should be initiated:

- To create and keep updated an inventory of all marine NIS in the Mediterranean. As Grosholz (2002) stated, perhaps the largest obstacle to understanding broader patterns of invasion is to identify the species, due to the global decline of taxonomy in research projects, and the uncertainty on which species are native and which are NIS for the less studied groups, such as some marine and estuarine invertebrates (e.g. zooplankton, foraminifers). It is crucial to know the identity and spatial distribution for each species. Towards that end, molecular tools have been proven very useful to identify possible sources of the NIS and their degree of hybridization with their native counterparts. This is particularly interesting for marine species, most of which have planktonic larvae that permit long-distance dispersal and consequently gene flow among different populations.

- To search ecological and economic consequences of NIS at community and ecosystem levels. The presence of one or more NIS can strongly modify the structure of an entire community (e.g. the case of alien engineer-species). These changes are usually related to changes in trophic levels. Diversity of certain recipient communities has recently been shown to influence invasion success with more diverse communities being less easily invaded (Stachowicz et al., 1999). However, this rule is still strongly debated. It seems to be necessary to have a base-line of the different native communities in the Mediterranean (e.g. algae, soft-bottom, litoral rocky bottom, etc.), including information on ecological and functional diversity, trophic webs, temporal dynamics, etc., in order to be able to assess the impact of any NIS on any particular community. In general there are few studies on the impact of NIS on ecosystem processes in marine and coastal ecosystems. This type of research must be multidisciplinary in order to take into consideration all the compartments related with the invader(s).

- Research on the NIS life cycles. A better understanding of the biological characteristics that favour or not the spread of NIS would help us to predict future invasions and to suggest management measures to mitigate their impact.

- Biological invasions are almost always large-scale processes, so tracking their onset followed by their subsequent spread is certainly challenging for the scientific community. To overcome this difficulty, one effective solution is to involve citizen-scientists and NGOs in the monitoring of NIS or in reporting historical information through national, regional, and European networks such as the CIESM JellyWatch Program, MAMIAS (UNEP-MAP-RAC/SPA, 2012), the European Alien Species Information Network (EASIN; Katsanevakis et al., 2012), etc. Recently, participative actions have started to be experimented in the Mediterranean Sea (see Azzurro et al., 2011 for fish species). These innovative methodologies can provide information that otherwise cannot be obtained and should be seriously taken into consideration due to our increasing need to be informed about the changing biodiversity.

- To develop species distribution models under present and future climatic conditions.
Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank G. Minos, P. Psomadakis, and D. Golani, for commenting on the nomenclature, distribution and establishment success of the fish and the anonymous reviewers whose comments substantially improved the quality of the manuscript. Sincere thanks are due to Mr N.J. Xentidis for preparing the figures. The research leading to these results was partly supported by funding from the European Community’s Seventh Framework Programme ([FP7/2007-2013]) under grant agreement n° 287600 - PERSEUS project (Policy-oriented marine Environmental Research for the Southern European Seas). MAMIAS has been developed for the Regional Activity Centre for Specially Protected Areas of the UNEP/ Mediterranean Action Plan under contracts No 67, 68, 69, 70 and 71 /2011/RAC/RPA.

References


Çinar, M.E., Katagan, T., Öztürk, B., Bakir, K., Dagli, E. et al.,


EU, 2008b. Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions - A European strategy for marine and maritime research : a coherent European research area framework in support of a sustainable use of oceans and seas. COM/2008/534. European Commission, Brussels.


teirus and distribution extension of Tylarius spinossimus in the Mediterranean. *Aquatic Invasions*, 6: S7-S11


Sfriso, A. & Curiel, D., 2007. Check-list of marine seaweeds re-
corded in the last 20 years in Venice lagoon and a compari-
son with the previous records. *Botanica Marina*, 50: 22-58.


Taşkin, E., 2012. First report of the alien brown alga *Scyto-

Taşkin, E. & Pedersen, P.M., 2012. First report of the alien brown alga *Botryella parva* (Takamatsu) H.-S. Kim (Chordariae-

Taşkin, E., Oztürk, M., & Wynne, M.J., 2006. First report of *Microspongium globosum* Reinke (Phaeophyceae, Myri-


Torres, A.P., Dos Santos, A., Cuesta, J.A., Carbonell, A., Matsu-


UNEP-MAP-RAC/SPA, Marine Mediterranean Invasive Alien Species (MAMIAS), 2012: http://www.mamias.org


Wiesner, H., 1911. Notizen über die Fauna der Adria bei Rovi-


Wittmann, K.J. & Ariani, A.P., 2007. Reappraisal and range ex-
tension of non-indigenous Mysidae (Crustacea, Mysida) in continental and coastal waters of eastern France. *Biologi-

Zammit, E. & Schembri, P.J., 2011. An overlooked and un-
expected introduction? Occurrence of the spotted scat *Scatophagus argus* (Linnaeus, 1766) (Osteichthyes: Scat-

Zouali, J., Ben Sousi, J. & Rifi, M., 2011. Native biota coloniza-
