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2 **Title: Changes in pathways and vectors of biological invasions in Northwest Europe**

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20

21 **Abstract**

22 We assessed how establishment patterns of non-native freshwater, marine and terrestrial species
23 into Northwest Europe (using Great Britain, France, Belgium and the Netherlands as the study
24 countries) have changed over time, and identified the prevalent pathways and vectors of recent
25 arrivals. Data were extracted from 33 sources on (a) presence/absence and (b) first year of
26 observation in the wild in each country, and (c) continent(s) of origin, (d) invasion pathway(s),
27 (e) invasion vector(s) and (f) environment(s) for 359 species, comprising all non-native Mollusca,
28 Osteichthyes (bony fish), Anseriformes (wildfowl) and Mammalia, and non-native invasive
29 Angiospermae present in the area. Molluscs, fish and wildfowl, particularly those originating
30 from South America, arrived more recently into Northwest Europe than other groups, particularly
31 mammals, invasive plants and species originating from North America. Non-deliberate
32 introductions, those of aquatic species and those from elsewhere in Europe and/or Asia increased
33 strongly in importance after the year 2000 and were responsible for 69%, 83% and 89% of new
34 introductions between 2001 and 2015, respectively. Non-deliberate introductions and those from
35 Asia and North America contributed significantly more to introductions of invasive species in
36 comparison to other non-native species. From the 1960s, ornamental trade has increased in
37 importance relative to other vectors and was responsible for all deliberate introductions of study
38 groups since 2001. Non-deliberate introductions of freshwater and marine species originating
39 from Southeast Europe and Asia represent an increasingly important ecological and economic
40 threat to Northwest Europe. Invertebrates such as molluscs may be particularly dangerous due to
41 their small size and difficulties in detection. Prevention of future invasions in this respect will
42 require intensive screening of stowaways on boats and raising of public awareness.

43 **Keywords:** freshwater; invasive; marine; non-native; pathways; terrestrial

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56 **Introduction**

57 Diverse strategies exist that aim at minimising the environmental and economic costs of Invasive
58 non-native species (INNS), i.e. those that “cause harm to biodiversity or ecosystem services”
59 (Convention on Biological Diversity definition of terms, www.cbd.int/invasive/terms.shtml).

60 These include horizon scanning and monitoring of the most likely future invaders to help prevent
61 introductions, the actual prevention of future introductions by reducing pathways, intercepting
62 movements at borders and assessing risk for intentional imports, and early warning, eradication
63 and long-term control measures when prevention fails (Simberloff et al. 2013). As eradication of
64 established INNS in natural habitats has proved impossible or extremely costly in most cases
65 (Myers et al. 2000; Zavaleta et al. 2001; Mack and Lonsdale 2002; Britton et al. 2011; Oreska
66 and Aldridge 2011; Pluess et al. 2012), implementation of proactive approaches that focus efforts
67 on preventing introductions has been shown to provide considerable conservation and economic
68 benefits (Simberloff et al. 2013). This approach has manifested in several recent trans-national
69 legislations, including the Convention on Biological Diversity’s Aichi biodiversity target for
70 2020 (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity 2011) listing the management of
71 introduction pathways in the key target #9 (Anderson et al. 2014), and the European Union
72 Regulation No 1143/2014 on the prevention and management of the introduction and spread of
73 INNS (European Commission 2014; Genovesi et al. 2015).

74 The successful prevention of future introductions of NNS requires a good understanding of the
75 history of previous introductions and invasions (Hulme 2009; Essl et al. 2015). For example,
76 information about the introduction pathways and donor regions of the most invasive species for a
77 particular region can help prioritise limited resources to managing particular vectors and
78 pathways. Consequently, quantifying the spatio-temporal changes in the importance of different

79 donor regions, vectors (i.e. “any means that allows the entry or spread of [...] alien species”
80 (FAO 2007)) and/or pathways of previously introduced NNS, and especially INNS, provides
81 evidence on which management approaches can be based (Essl et al. 2015). To this end, a
82 number of studies are available that quantify the contribution of specific vectors and pathways of
83 a specific environment, region and/or group of NNS. These include assessments of the
84 introduction history of freshwater taxa in Great Britain (Keller et al. 2009), Italy (Gherardi et al.
85 2008) and Lake Naivasha, Kenya (Gherardi et al. 2011), terrestrial plants in Brazil (Zenni 2014),
86 and eight vectors responsible for the introduction of non-native marine species to California
87 (Williams et al. 2013).

88 Whilst these and a number of similar studies are useful for developing more effective measures to
89 prevent new introductions to restricted environments or of taxonomic groups, wider assessments
90 across environments, taxa and international borders are needed to draw a more complete picture
91 of the most important pathways, routes and vectors of NNS (Essl et al. 2015). Moreover, as
92 transport networks have developed, global trade routes and regulatory structures have evolved,
93 and climatic conditions have changed at a rapid rate, the prevalent pathways, routes and vectors
94 of NNS have also changed (Galil et al. 2007; Hulme 2009; Keller et al. 2009). Consequently, it is
95 likely that the invasion histories of contemporary NNS differ to those historically, and this needs
96 to be reflected in policies and practises that also acknowledge that only a small proportion of
97 NNS will develop invasive populations (Wilson et al. 2009; Gallardo and Aldridge 2013). INNS
98 that are particularly harmful have been highlighted in a number of ‘blacklists’, such as those of
99 the DAISIE portal and the IUCN’s Invasive Species Specialist Group (Vilà et al. 2009; Invasive
100 Species Specialist Group ISSG 2016). These lists can be used to identify whether especially
101 harmful INNS are characterised by particular donor regions, pathways and vectors.

102 The aim of the present study was thus to provide a holistic assessment of the invasion histories of
103 NNS in Northwest Europe across major taxa and freshwater, marine and terrestrial habitats, and
104 with a focus on newly arrived and invasive non-native species, through systematic extraction of
105 information from literature, online databases and expert opinion. GB, France, Belgium and the
106 Netherlands were used as the study countries. The region is a recognised global NNS hot spot,
107 hosting 6,661 NNS (Zieritz et al. 2014). Reasons for this high number of NNS is the intensity of
108 travel and trade across borders with several ports of international relevance, high human
109 population density, dense transport network, intensively used landscapes and high vulnerability
110 of degraded ecosystems (MacDougall and Turkington 2005; Hulme 2009; Johnson et al. 2012;
111 Seebens et al. 2013; Gallardo et al. 2015). Objectives were to determine the patterns across
112 Northwest Europe and across groupings of NNS according to: (i) their time of arrival; (ii) their
113 continents of origin; and (iii) their pathways and vectors of introduction. These data were
114 analysed to (i) show whether taxa from different taxonomic groups, environments, continents of
115 origin and invasiveness established in the area at different times; (ii) show whether taxa from
116 different taxonomic groups and invasiveness originated from different continents of origin; and
117 (iii) reveal the spatio-temporal trends in the prevalent pathways and vectors used by taxa of
118 different taxonomic groups and invasiveness. Initial data gathering was performed in the course
119 of the project RINSE (Reducing the Impact of Non-Native Species in Europe; [www.rinse-](http://www.rinse-europe.eu)
120 [europe.eu](http://www.rinse-europe.eu)), which seeks to improve awareness of the threats posed by INNS, and the methods to
121 address them.

122

123 **Methods**

124 **Data gathering**

125 Data gathering methodology was designed to provide high-quality data on a maximum number of
126 taxa with different ecologies and life histories. Data were gathered on the following taxonomic
127 groups, each of which inhabit at least two different environments: (1) Angiospermae (i.e.
128 flowering plants; including terrestrial, freshwater and marine species), (2) Mollusca (including
129 terrestrial, freshwater and marine species), (3) Osteichthyes (i.e. bony fish; including freshwater
130 and marine species), (4) Anseriformes (i.e. wildfowl; including geese, ducks, swans and relatives,
131 all of which are terrestrial and aquatic (predominantly freshwater) species), and (5) Mammalia
132 (including terrestrial and freshwater species). For Mollusca, Osteichthyes, Anseriformes and
133 Mammalia, all NNS that were listed as established (i.e. producing viable populations) or
134 previously established (i.e. extinct) in at least one of the four countries of concern in a recently
135 compiled registry of NNS of the study region (Zieritz et al. 2014) were included in the dataset.
136 The Angiospermae dataset had to be treated differently due to the very high number (i.e. 3,470)
137 of non-native species recorded in the area and the fact that data sources consulted by Zieritz et al.
138 (2014) did not use standardised categories to describe the status of angiosperm species. As a
139 result, a considerable proportion of the 3,470 listed Angiospermae are garden escapes or casual
140 species rather than established species (i.e. only 15 out of 50 randomly selected species from the
141 database can be considered as established in the region; Johan Valkenburg, pers. obs.). To
142 circumvent this problem, the Angiospermae dataset was confined to only the 73 non-native
143 invasive species present in the area, as listed in a recently published meta-list comprising
144 information from 17 blacklists of the worst INNS (Gallardo et al. 2016).

145 For an in-depth analysis of patterns of introductions and invasion histories, the following data
146 were collected for each species: (a) presence/absence in each of the four study countries (i.e. GB,
147 France, Netherlands and Belgium), (b) first year of observation in the wild in each country as a
148 proxy for year of arrival, (c) continent(s) of origin, (d) invasion pathway(s), (e) invasion vector(s)
149 and (f) environment(s) of each species.

150 As a first step, all relevant data were extracted from 13 general web portals and print sources
151 (Suppl. Table 1, ‘Primary sources’). Secondly, three of the most relevant scientific journals
152 specialised in publishing first records, i.e. Neobiota, Aquatic Invasions and BioInvasions
153 Records, were systematically scanned for any further, potentially relevant information. This
154 recovered eight additional publications from which information was included in the database
155 (Suppl. Table 1, ‘Journal screening’). Finally, we performed targeted searches to fill in gaps in
156 the database, which resulted in inclusion of a further 12 sources in the database (Suppl. Table 1,
157 ‘Targeted search’). After completion of the data-gathering stage, the database was reviewed by
158 all co-authors and additional experts that participated in the RINSE project (see
159 Acknowledgements).

160 **Data analysis**

161 Following the data gathering exercise, the initial task was to highlight contradictory and other
162 problematic entries in the dataset. These were handled as follows: in cases where different
163 sources listed different years of first observation in the wild for a given country, only the earliest
164 year was considered in subsequent analyses. This was with the exception of values of “1500” in
165 the DAISIE portal that pre-dated records of other portals for the same species by several
166 centuries, and which were therefore considered unreliable and ignored, and the next earliest year

167 considered in subsequent analyses. In addition, any species recorded before the year 1500 was
168 excluded from the dataset.

169 Europe was considered the continent of origin of an NNS if it was native to a European territory
170 excluding the four study countries.

171 Classification of pathways, i.e. the processes that result in the introduction of species from one
172 location to another, and vectors of introduction was based on Hulme et al. (2008). However, due
173 to the different terminologies adopted by the 33 data sources included in the present work,
174 simplification of Hulme *et al.*'s (2008) system was necessary. In addition, due to a lack of
175 reliable data, vectors of accidentally introduced species were not analysed in the present study.
176 Consequently, the final categories of pathways were (1) deliberate import and release, (2)
177 deliberate import and escape, (3) accidental introduction (i.e. merging categories 'contaminant'
178 and 'stowaway' of Hulme et al. (2008)), and (4) dispersal from other introduced populations (i.e.
179 merging categories 'corridor' and 'unaided' of Hulme et al. (2008)). Final categories of vectors
180 of deliberately introduced species were (1) ornamental (e.g. horticulture), (2) leisure (e.g.
181 hunting, recreational angling), (3) industry (e.g. agriculture, aquaculture, fur farming), (4)
182 biocontrol and (5) research. If more than one continent of origin, environment, pathway and/or
183 vector was listed for a given species, all of these were considered in subsequent analysis (see
184 below for details).

185 Differences in the completeness of datasets between taxonomic groups was tested using Chi-
186 square tests. To elucidate differences in invasion histories between different taxonomic groups as
187 well as INNS *vs.* other NNS, we also used Chi-square tests to analyse differences in the
188 proportion of different continents of origin, environments, pathways and vectors, respectively,

189 between species of different taxa, and INNS and other NNS, respectively. A species was thereby
190 considered an invasive non-native species (INNS) if it was listed in the meta-list of 17 blacklists
191 developed by Gallardo et al. (2016). We adopted this categorisation, as blacklisted species can
192 reasonably be assumed harmful although some invasive species in our dataset may not be
193 blacklisted (yet) and our invasive list is in this sense conservative. To avoid an artificial bias
194 towards Angiospermae, comparisons between INNS and other NNS excluded the Angiospermae
195 dataset, as this consisted exclusively of INNS (see above). To avoid a bias towards species with
196 multiple continents of origin, environments, pathways and/or vectors, for each category and
197 species, each cell count (i.e. 1 or 0) was divided by the sum of cell counts for each category. For
198 example, if a species' native range occupied three continents, each continent was given a value of
199 $1/3=0.33$.

200 Differences in the time of introduction between taxonomic groups, continents, environments,
201 INNS vs. other NNS, pathways and vectors were assessed by non-parametric (Kruskal-Wallis,
202 Mann-Whitney) tests of the first year of observation in the wild, followed by post-hoc Tukey and
203 Kramer (Nemenyi) tests. A bias towards species with multiple continents of origin, environments,
204 pathways and/or vectors was avoided by assigning each species the same number of data points
205 (i.e. year of first record). For example, since species native ranges' occupied one to four
206 continents, the year of first record of species with one continent was featured 12 times, of species
207 with two continents six times per continent, of species with three continents four times per
208 continent, and of species with four continents three times per continent.

209 Statistical analyses were performed in R v. 3.1.1.

210 **Results**

211 **Description and completeness of dataset**

212 The dataset comprised 359 NNS (73 Angiospermae [flowering plants], 96 Mollusca, 83
213 Osteichthyes [bony fish], 82 Anseriformes [wildfowl] and 25 Mammalia; Suppl. Table 2), of
214 which 126 species (73 Angiospermae [=100%], 17 Mollusca [=18%], 16 Osteichthyes [=19%], 8
215 Anseriformes [=10%] and 12 Mammalia [48%]) are INNS. The pathway of introduction for 55
216 species could not be determined nor the year of first record for 46 species (3 and 5
217 Angiospermae, 26 and 15 Mollusca, 16 and 24 Osteichthyes, 9 and 2 Anseriformes, and 1 and 0
218 Mammalia, respectively). The proportion of species for which at least one data point was missing
219 was significantly different between the five taxonomic groups (Chi-square test: $\chi^2=32.67$, $df=4$,
220 $P<0.0001$). Data were missing from significantly more fish and mollusc species than wildfowl,
221 mammal and invasive plant species (Table 1a).

222 **Differences in invasion histories**

223 The species within the five taxonomic groups were introduced to the study region from
224 significantly different sets of continents of origin both when analysing the whole dataset (Chi-
225 square test: $\chi^2=129.89$, $df=24$, $P<0.0001$) and when excluding Arctic, Australian and African
226 species due to low cell counts (Chi-square test: $\chi^2=90.63$, $df=12$, $P<0.0001$) (Fig. 1a). Non-native
227 invasive plants originated predominantly from North America, non-native molluscs and fish from
228 Europe, Asia and North America, mammals from North America and Asia, and wildfowl from all
229 six continents to almost equal proportions (Fig. 1a). In comparison to other NNS, INNS (dataset
230 excluding Angiospermae for reasons explained above) showed a significantly higher proportion
231 of species originating from Asia or North America, with 76% of introductions of INNS coming

232 from these two continents (Fig. 1a; Chi-square test; $\chi^2=23.16$, $df=6$, $P=0.0007$). Europe, on the
233 other hand, was relatively underrepresented as donor region of INNS when compared to other
234 NNS (Fig. 1a).

235 The dataset comprised 42% terrestrial, 41% freshwater and 17% marine species, with obvious
236 differences in the environment(s) inhabited by different taxonomic groups (Chi-square test:
237 $\chi^2=230.24$, $df=8$, $P<0.0001$) (Fig. 1b). Invasive non-native plants and non-native mammals were
238 exclusively or predominantly terrestrial, whereas all wildfowl were both terrestrial and
239 freshwater, fish were predominantly freshwater and molluscs were predominantly marine (plants:
240 55 terrestrial, 14 freshwater, 3 freshwater + terrestrial, 1 terrestrial + marine; molluscs: 45
241 marine, 30 terrestrial, 14 freshwater, 7 marine + freshwater; fish: 63 freshwater, 15 marine +
242 freshwater, 5 marine; wildfowl: 82 freshwater + terrestrial; mammals: 19 terrestrial, 6 freshwater
243 + terrestrial; Suppl. Table 2). INNS and other NNS did not significantly differ in this respect
244 (Chi-square test: $\chi^2=0.74$, $df=2$, $P=0.692$).

245 Taxonomic groups differed significantly in their pathways and vectors of introduction (Chi-
246 square tests; pathways: $\chi^2=196.44$, $df=12$, $P<0.0001$; vectors: whole dataset: $\chi^2=129.01$, $df=16$,
247 $P<0.0001$; excluding categories 'research' and 'biocontrol' due to low cell counts: $\chi^2=116.02$,
248 $df=8$, $P<0.0001$) (Figs 1c and d). Deliberate introductions were the cause for arrival of the vast
249 majority of the three chordate groups, i.e. fish, wildfowl and mammals (i.e. to 80, 98 and 94%
250 respectively; Fig. 1c). In contrast, deliberate introductions were responsible only for 57% of
251 invasive plants and 31% of non-native mollusc introductions, with accidental introductions
252 dominating in molluscs (i.e. 60%). Another 9% of molluscs as well as 27% of invasive plants
253 arrived through dispersal from other introduced populations through natural means or man-made
254 corridors. Dispersal from regions already invaded was also a significantly more important

255 pathway of INNS than other NNS, despite the omission of Angiospermae in this analysis (Fig.
256 1c; Chi-square test; $\chi^2=15.32$, $df=3$, $P=0.0016$). Combined, non-deliberate introductions
257 amounted to 41% of INNS introductions (excluding Angiospermae from the dataset for reasons
258 explained above) but only to 24% of other NNS introductions (Fig. 1c).

259 Ornamental trade was the most common reason for deliberate introductions of wildfowl,
260 mammals and invasive plants (i.e. 90, 62 and 73% of deliberate introductions, respectively; Fig.
261 1d), while industry (i.e. aquaculture) was the main vector of deliberately introduced molluscs
262 and, together with leisure (i.e. recreational angling), fish (i.e. 81 and 34% of deliberate mollusc
263 and fish introductions for aquaculture; 31% of deliberate fish introductions for recreational
264 angling). Deliberate introductions for environmental control and research played only a minor
265 role. No significant differences were observed in the vectors for deliberately introduced INNS or
266 other NNS (Fig. 1d; Chi-square test; $\chi^2=6.70$, $df=4$, $P=0.152$).

267 **Temporal development of invasion characteristics**

268 Species from different taxonomic groups arrived to the region at significantly different times
269 (Kruskal-Wallis: $\chi^2=65.538$, $df=4$, $P<0.0001$) (Fig. 2, 3a). Invasive plants arrived on average
270 significantly earlier than molluscs, fish and wildfowl; and mammals arrived significantly earlier
271 than wildfowl (Table 1b). Half of the invasive plant species assessed in this study had been
272 reported in the region by 1882, whilst this was true in 1927 for mammals, in 1960 for bony fish,
273 in 1963 for molluscs and in 1980 for wildfowl (Fig. 2). As such, on average, invasive plants
274 arrived about 100 years and mammals about 30 to 50 years earlier than wildfowl, molluscs and
275 fish.

276 Species from different continents of origin arrived to the region at significantly different times
277 (Kruskal-Wallis: $\chi^2=208.77$, $df=5$, $P<0.0001$; excluding Arctic species due to low replicate
278 number) (Fig. 3b). Species from North America arrived significantly earlier than species from all
279 other continents, whilst South American species arrived significantly later than species from all
280 continents except Australia (Table 1c, Fig. 3b). While the importance of North America as a
281 donor continent to the region decreased notably after the 1920s, and no North American species
282 in the dataset was introduced after the year 2000, the relative importance of Asia and Europe in
283 this respect increased after 2000 (Fig. 4a). In fact, 89% of new introductions between 2001 and
284 2015 originated from Europe and/or Asia.

285 Species from different environments arrived at different times (Kruskal-Wallis: $\chi^2=37.493$, $df=2$,
286 $P<0.0001$) (Fig. 3c). Terrestrial species on average arrived significantly earlier than freshwater
287 and marine ones (Table 1d, Fig. 3c). 61% and 22% of introductions of analysed groups to the
288 region after the year 2000 were by freshwater and marine organisms, respectively (Fig. 4b).

289 INNS were shown to have arrived to the region significantly earlier than other NNS (dataset
290 excluding Angiospermae for reasons explained above; Mann-Whitney: $U=18205$, $P<0.0001$; Fig.
291 3d). Median arrival dates were 1884 for INNS and 1975 for other NNS.

292 Introductions by different pathways happened at different times (Kruskal-Wallis: $\chi^2=316.000$,
293 $df=3$, $P<0.0001$) (Fig. 3e). Deliberately introduced-released and dispersed species arrived
294 significantly earlier than accidentally introduced and deliberately introduced-escaped species
295 (Table 1e, Fig. 3e). The number of non-deliberate introductions (i.e. dispersal and accidental
296 introductions) increased strongly after the year 2000 relative to deliberate introductions and
297 represented 69% of introductions between 2001 and 2015 (Fig. 4c).

298 Deliberate introductions by different vectors happened at different times (Kruskal-Wallis:
299 $\chi=69.330$, $df=3$, $P<0.0001$; excluding “research” due to low replicate number) (Fig. 3f). Species
300 that were deliberately introduced for industrial, ornamental or research purposes arrived
301 significantly later than those introduced for leisure and biocontrol purposes (Table 1f, Fig. 3f).
302 Ornamental trade has become increasingly more important from the 1960s and was responsible
303 for all deliberate introductions of the study groups since 2001 (Fig. 4d).

304 **Discussion**

305 Our dataset revealed that recent years (i.e. between 2001 and 2015) experienced a relative but
306 marked increase of introductions by freshwater and marine species that originate from Europe
307 and Asia and arrived in Northwest Europe through accidental introductions or escape. Non-native
308 molluscs and fish are particularly prone to future introductions to the region, as indicated by the
309 relatively large proportion of recent arrivals observed. Particularly for molluscs, many of the
310 introductions were non-deliberate, which is related to their small size and difficulties in detecting
311 and monitoring in aquatic habitats (Hulme et al. 2008). In conclusion, non-deliberate
312 introductions of aquatic NNS from Asia and Europe are thus likely to represent a severely
313 increasing ecological and economic threat to Northwest Europe in the imminent future.

314 Recent non-deliberate introductions of aquatic INNS of European/Asian origin to Northwest
315 Europe in our dataset include a number of notorious Ponto-Caspian invaders, such as the western
316 tubenose goby (*Proteorhinus semilunaris* (Heckel, 1837)), the round goby (*Neogobius*
317 *melanostomus* (Pallas 1814)) and the quagga mussel (*Dreissena rostriformis bugensis* (Andrusov,
318 1897)). These INNS were introduced to the Netherlands through dispersal and/or ballast water
319 exchange in the early 2000s and within a few years, had spread to Belgium and France, and in the
320 case of *D. r. bugensis*, also Great Britain (van Beek 2006; Molloy et al. 2007; Mombaerts et al.
321 2010; Marescaux et al. 2012; Aldridge et al. 2014). The recent steep increase of Ponto-Caspian
322 mollusc, fish, crustacean and other INNS in Northwest Europe reflects the impact of man-made
323 connections between naturally unconnected river basins (Bij de Vaate et al. 2002; Gallardo and
324 Aldridge 2012; Rabitsch et al. 2013; Gallardo and Aldridge 2015), and the broad climatic and
325 environmental tolerance of these taxa (Gallardo and Aldridge 2012). Once established, Ponto-
326 Caspian species often become dominant, displace native species, and may severely affect

327 fisheries and whole ecosystem processes (Ojaveer et al. 2002). The eradication of aquatic INNS
328 is strategically difficult, rarely feasible, expensive and ultimately unlikely to be of considerable
329 ecological benefit (Mack and Lonsdale 2002; Britton et al. 2011). Ponto-Caspian species thus
330 constitute a group of high concern for environmental managers and stakeholders that requires
331 scientifically informed tools for their prevention and control.

332 The future threat of aquatic introductions from Asia has recently been confirmed by a horizon
333 scanning exercise for the study region, which placed three aquatic Asian species, i.e. the riverine
334 Amur sleeper (*Perccottus glenii* Dybowski, 1877), the marine Amur clam (*Corbula amurensis*
335 (Schrenck, 1861)) and the marine Japanese seastar (*Asterias amurensis* Lutken, 1871), among the
336 worst 10 species not yet introduced to the region (Gallardo et al. 2016). On the other hand, this
337 list does not feature a single species from North America, the continent of origin of one third of
338 INNS in our dataset. Similarly, the importance of North America as an NNS donor has decreased
339 markedly since the 1930s, without a single introduction from this continent since 2001. The
340 underlying factors for this shift in the relative contribution of Asia and North America as donor
341 continents of NNS to Northwest Europe might be rooted in their different histories of trade and
342 travel with Europe. Trade and travel between Europe and North America has been intense for
343 over a century, so that the most aggressive and dangerous invaders from North America have
344 long since crossed the ocean. Economic growth of Asia (most importantly China) and its trade
345 with Europe, on the other hand, has risen steeply since the early 1990s (Yueh 2012). Propagule
346 pressure of new Asian NNS in Europe is thus likely to continue in the future.

347 The contribution of deliberate introductions to Northwest Europe's NNS pool has decreased
348 markedly and made up merely 31% of new introductions between 2001 and 2015. This drop in
349 deliberate introductions in both absolute and relative numbers is likely a result of the tougher

350 legislation and controls in place due to and combined with an increased awareness of the
351 potential impact of NNS, as acknowledged, for example, by its recognition as a global challenge
352 in the UN Convention on Biological Diversity in 1992. The EU Regulation No 1143/2014
353 promises to reduce these numbers even further by essentially banning the keeping, sale and
354 transport of specific INNS of EU concern, with a focus on intentional release and escape
355 pathways (European Commission 2014; Essl et al. 2015). Our data indicate that efforts in this
356 respect should be placed on the ornamental/pet trade, which we showed to be the single most
357 important vector of deliberate NNS introductions into Northwest Europe today. Special attention
358 should be paid to Internet commerce, which has facilitated the import of plants and animals
359 (Duggan 2010; Lenda et al. 2014; Mazza et al. 2015).

360 Despite past and ongoing achievements in constricting deliberate introductions, preventing non-
361 deliberate introductions (i.e. accidental introductions and introductions by dispersal) is much
362 more challenging. This is particularly true for aquatic invertebrate species, such as molluscs,
363 which are especially difficult to detect. For this reason, the EU Regulation No 1143/2014
364 considers it crucial to manage the pathways of unintentional introduction more effectively, as
365 opposed to particular species, and refers to the International Ballast Water Regulation as an
366 example (International Maritime Organisation IMO 2004). Prevention of aquatic introductions
367 may indeed improve through more intense ballast water control, ship inspections and control of
368 imports. DNA barcoding using environmental DNA represents a promising new tool for a more
369 effective detection of small, aquatic NNS (Jerde et al. 2011; Dejean et al. 2012). Gathering data
370 and filling gaps in our knowledge on the prevalent pathways, vectors and continents of origin will
371 further help focus efforts towards preventing accidental aquatic introductions. As prevalent
372 patterns in this respect are changing over time, management strategies must take those changes

373 into account to be effective in the long term. In addition, educational outreach programs are
374 needed to raise awareness amongst the general public (in particular, boat-users and fishermen)
375 and to promote the early detection of newcomers. That said, halting the dispersal of aquatic NNS
376 through human-made connections of waterways such as the Rhine-Main-Danube canal is
377 challenging, though evaluation of the risks associated to new hydrological structures and
378 ecological restoration of natural flows might help to prevent the situation from deteriorating
379 (Panov et al. 2009).

380 In contrast to aquatic molluscs and fish, the threat of introductions of new mammal and wildfowl
381 species can be considered of less concern due to the following reasons. Since the year 2000, not a
382 single new non-native mammal species has established viable populations in the study region.
383 This follows a long history of deliberate mammal introductions for food, hunting, sport,
384 commercial enterprises, pest control, wildlife collections, pet trade and aesthetic reasons (Long
385 2003). It includes deliberate attempts to establish a range of mammals made by, for example, La
386 Société Impériale d'Acclimatation founded in France in 1854, and a similar society in the UK
387 from the 1860s (Long 2003). Against this background, it is likely that most of the obvious
388 candidates for introduction are already established or have failed in the attempt. Though a
389 considerable number of non-native wildfowl species arrived relatively recently to the region, the
390 threat of future introductions from this group is negligible. The majority of wildfowl species
391 described globally and not native to the region (i.e. 109 species in GB, British Trust for
392 Ornithology <http://www.bto.org/about-birds/birdfacts/bird-families>) are either already established
393 NNS (82 species) or listed as 'endangered or critically endangered' on the IUCN Red-List and
394 therefore unlikely to be introduced (17 species) (IUCN 2016). In addition, both mammals and

395 wildfowls are relatively visible and well-studied, and thus less likely to be accidentally
396 introduced.

397 The threat of new Angiospermae introductions to the region, on the other hand, should not be
398 underestimated, despite what our data may suggest on the first glance. Whilst our dataset
399 revealed a very small number of first introductions of invasive plant species between 2001 and
400 2015, this refers to only the 73 invasive Angiospermae recorded in the region. An in-depth
401 analysis including non-invasive plants is likely to present a very different picture than that
402 obtained in the present study. Specifically, based on our findings on other taxonomic groups, we
403 would expect that non-invasive Angiospermae species present in the region are characterised by
404 considerably later dates of introduction and a greater proportion of non-deliberate introductions
405 than the set of invasive Angiospermae species we analysed here. Unfortunately, such an exercise
406 was out of the scope of this study, as it would need to include a thorough revision of the exact
407 status (i.e. established vs. garden escapes) of all 3,470 non-native Angiospermae species listed by
408 Zieritz *et al.* (2014) for the region. The value of a more comprehensive knowledge on the
409 prevailing pathways and vectors of plant invaders is, however, substantial. This has recently been
410 illustrated by Gallardo *et al.* (2016), who identified two invasive Angiospermae species, i.e.
411 Sosnowski's hogweed (*Heracleum sosnowskyi* Manden) and big sage (*Lantana camara*
412 Linnaeus), as the worst two species that have not yet been recorded from the region.

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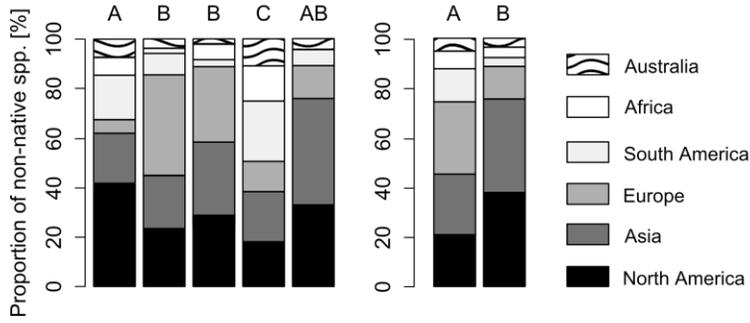
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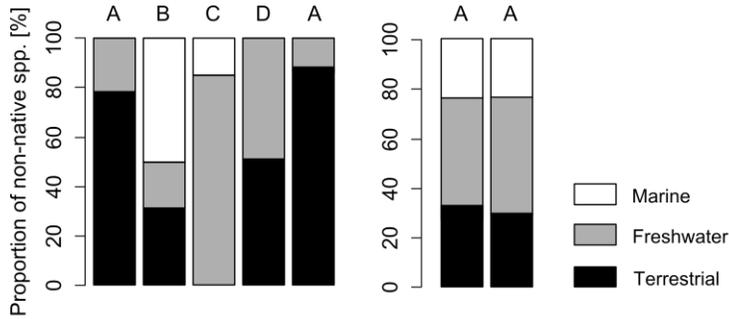
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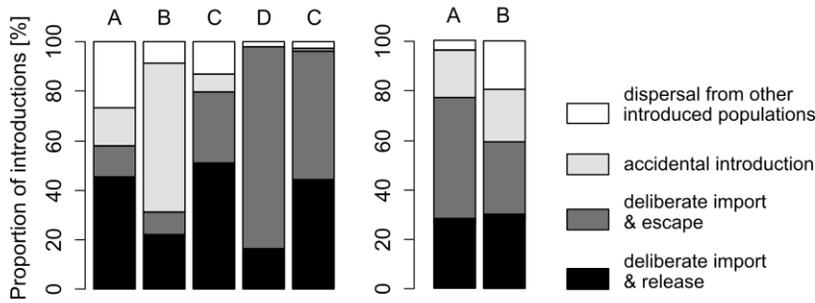
(a) Continents



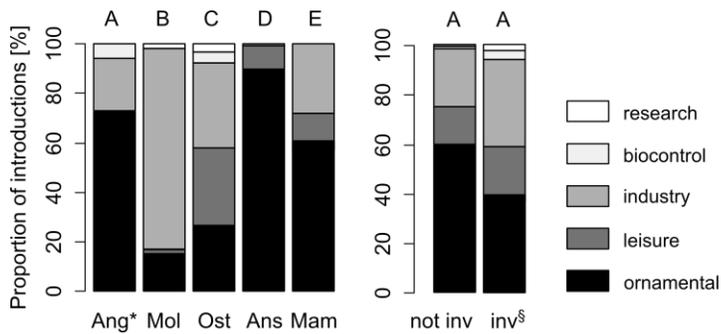
(b) Environment



(c) Pathways



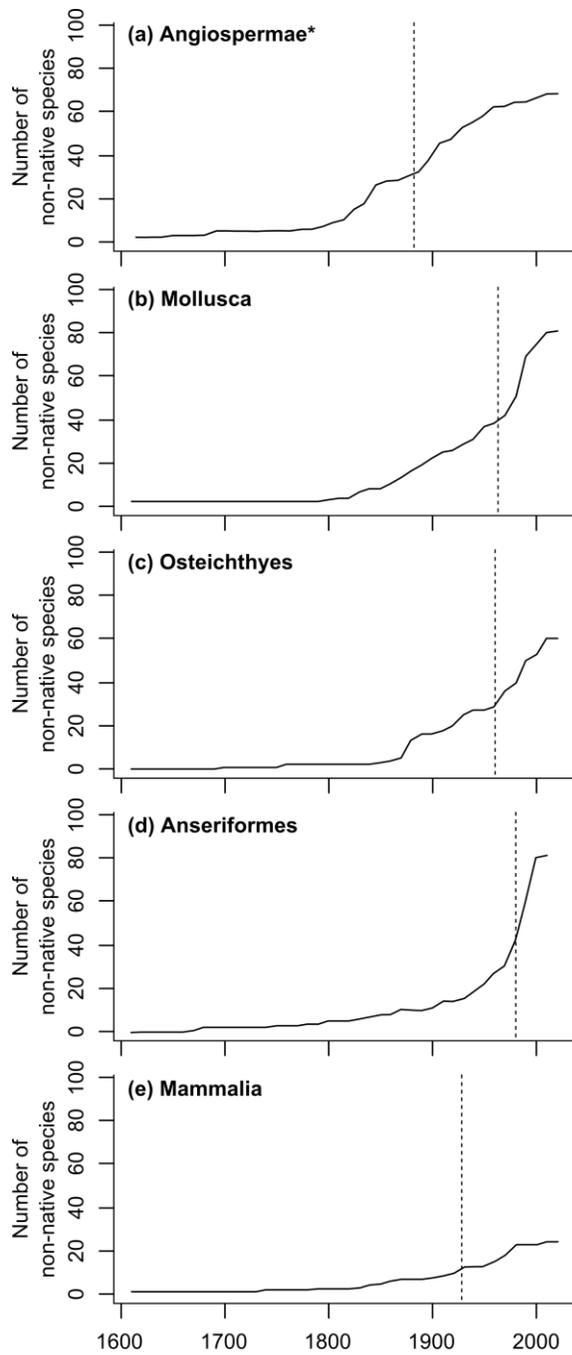
(d) Vectors



534

535 **Figure 1.** Relative proportion of (a) continents of origin, (b) environment inhabited, (c) pathways
536 of introduction and (d) vectors of deliberate introduction of non-native Angiospermae (Ang),
537 Mollusca (Mol), Osteichthyes (Ost), Anseriformes (Ans) and Mammalia (Mam) species to
538 Northwest Europe (i.e. GB, France, Belgium and the Netherlands). Different letters above
539 columns indicate significant differences between taxonomic groups, and INNS (inv) *vs.* other
540 NNS (not inv), respectively (see text for details). *Angiospermae represented by INNS only;
541 [§]excluding Angiospermae

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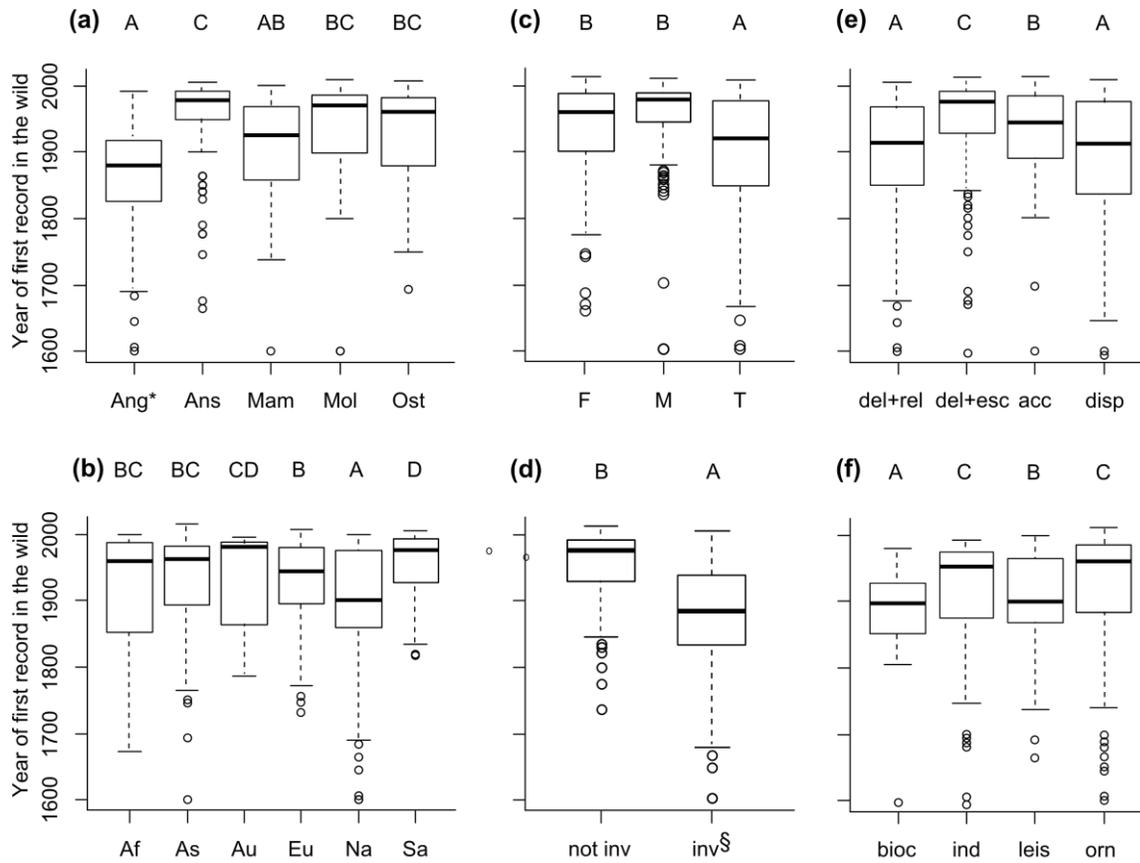


543

544 **Figure 2.** Rate of establishment of NNS from five taxonomic groups into Northwest Europe (i.e.
 545 GB, France, Belgium and the Netherlands) from 1600 to 2015. Dashed line indicates time at
 546 which 50% of NNS per group have arrived.

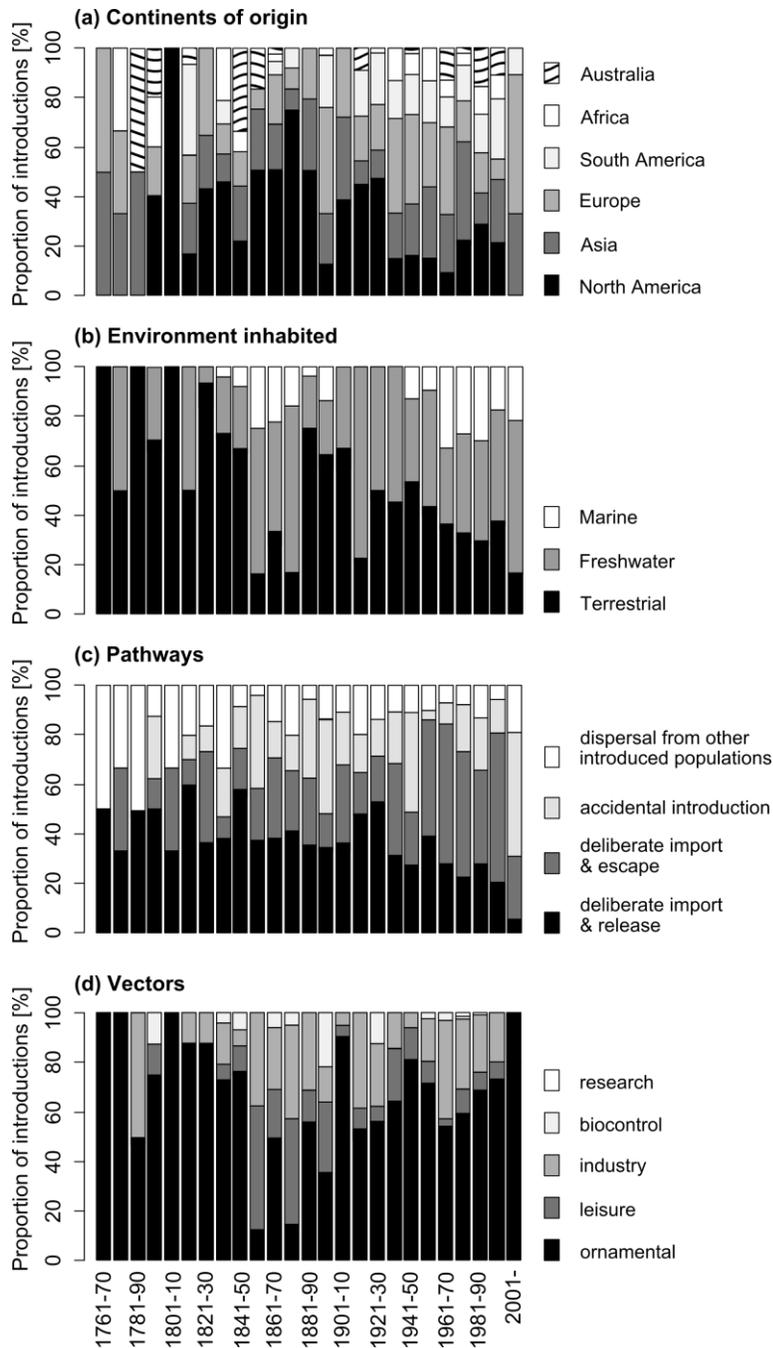
547 *Angiospermae represented by INNS only

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549

550 **Figure 3.** Boxplots of year of first record in the wild in Northwest Europe (i.e. GB, France,
 551 Belgium and the Netherlands), grouped by (a) taxa, (b) continents of origin, (c) environments
 552 inhabited, (d) INNS vs. other NNS, (e) pathways of introduction and (f) vectors of introduction.
 553 Different letters above columns indicate significant differences between groups (see text for
 554 details). Abbreviations: acc, accidental introduction; Af, Africa; Ang, Angiospermae; Ans,
 555 Anseriformes; As, Asia; Au, Australia; bioc, biocontrol; del+esc, deliberate import and escape;
 556 del+rel, deliberate import and release; disp, dispersal; ind, industry; Eu, Europe; F, freshwater;
 557 inv, invasive; leis, leisure; M, marine; Mam, Mammalia; Mol, Mollusca; Na, North America; not
 558 inv, not invasive; orn, ornamental; Ost, Osteichthyes; Sa, South America; T, terrestrial
 559 *Angiospermae represented by INNS only
 560 §excluding Angiospermae



561
 562
 563 **Figure 4.** Temporal changes in the relative proportion of different (a) continents of origin, (b)
 564 environments inhabited, (c) pathways of introduction and (d) vectors of deliberate introduction of
 565 non-native Angiospermae, Mollusca, Osteichthyes, Anseriformes and Mammalia to Northwest
 566 Europe (i.e. GB, France, Belgium and the Netherlands) per decade from 1761 to 2015.

567

568 **Tables**

569 **Table 1.** Results of (a) posthoc Chi-square tests ($\chi^2 \setminus P$) comparing the relative proportion of
 570 NNS with incomplete and complete datasets between higher taxa; and posthoc Tukey and Kramer
 571 (Nemenyi) tests (P) for Kruskal-Wallis tests comparing first year of observation in the wild (b)
 572 between higher taxa; between NNS (c) from different continents; (d) from different environments
 573 and (e) arriving through different pathways of introductions; and (f) between deliberately
 574 introduced NNS arriving through different vectors of introduction.

(a) Data completeness	Angiospermae*	Mollusca	Osteichthyes	Anseriformes	Mammalia
Angiospermae*	-	0.0001	0.0001	0.438	0.797
Mollusca	14.54	-	1	0.002	0.0058
Osteichthyes	14.44	0	-	0.002	0.0056
Anseriformes	0.60	9.35	9.27	-	0.345
Mammalia	0.07	7.62	7.69	0.89	-
(b) First year	Mollusca	Osteichthyes	Anseriformes	Mammalia	
Angiospermae*	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.218	
Mollusca	-	0.996	0.140	0.338	
Osteichthyes	-	-	0.092	0.546	
Anseriformes	-	-	-	0.0051	
(c) First year	Asia	Australia	Europe	N-America	S-America
Africa	0.974	0.581	0.561	<0.0001	0.023
Asia	-	0.066	0.764	<0.0001	<0.0001
Australia	-	-	0.004	<0.0001	0.849
Europe	-	-	-	<0.0001	<0.0001
North America	-	-	-	-	<0.0001
(d) First year	Marine	Terrestrial			
Freshwater	0.051	<0.0001			
Marine	-	<0.0001			
(e) First year	deliberate & escape	accidental	dispersal		
del. & release	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.98		

del. & escape	-	<0.0001	<0.0001
accidental	-	-	<0.0001
<hr/>			
(f) First year	Industry	Leisure	Ornamental
Biocontrol	<0.0001	0.012	<0.0001
Industry	-	0.0005	0.243
Leisure	-	-	<0.0001
<hr/>			

575 *Angiospermae represented by only INNS

576