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1 **The role of biological records in understanding invasions**

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20 Running title: Biological records and invasions

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Abstract

The process of invasion and the desire to predict the invasiveness (and associated impacts) of new arrivals has been a focus of attention for ecologists over centuries. The volunteer recording community has made unique and inspiring contributions to our understanding of invasion biology within Britain. Indeed information on non-native species (NNS) compiled within the GB Non-Native Species Information Portal (GB-NNSIP) would not have been possible without the involvement of volunteer experts from across Britain. Here we review examples of ways in which biological records have informed invasion biology. We specifically examine NNS information available within the GB-NNSIP to describe patterns in the arrival and establishment of NNS providing an overview of habitat associations of NNS in terrestrial, marine and freshwater environments.

Monitoring and surveillance of the subset of NNS that are considered to be adversely affecting biodiversity, society or the economy, termed invasive non-native species (INNS), is critical for early warning and rapid response. Volunteers are major contributors to monitoring and surveillance of INNS and not only provide records from across Britain but also underpin the system of verification necessary to confirm the identification of sightings. Here we describe the so-called “alert system” which links volunteer experts with the wider recording community to provide early warning of INNS occurrence.

We highlight the need to increase understanding of community and ecosystem-level effects of invasions and particularly understanding of ecological resilience. Detailed field observations, through biological recording, will provide the spatial, temporal and taxonomic breadth required for such research. The role of the volunteer recording community in contributing to the understanding of invasion biology has been invaluable and it is clear that their expertise and commitment will continue to be so.

Keywords

Invasion biology, biological recording, citizen science, habitat, impact, early warning, surveillance

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Introduction

Non-native species (NNS) are being introduced into countries at unprecedented and unpredictable rates and those that become invasive threaten biodiversity by decreasing the uniqueness of ecosystems at genetic, functional and taxonomic levels (McKinney and Lockwood, 1999; Smart et al., 2006; Vila et al., 2011). The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (Anonymous, 2005) ranked invasive non-native species (INNS), alongside climate change, habitat destruction, pollution and overexploitation, as one of the main drivers of biodiversity loss globally. The recent dramatic increase in the rate of movement of species from their native geographic regions to new regions, in which they are considered non-native, aligns with increases in globalisation and associated rises in transportation by humans (Hulme, 2009).

The process of invasion and the desire to predict the invasiveness (and associated impacts) of new arrivals has been a focus of attention for ecologists over centuries (Elton, 1958). Indeed Charles Darwin evoked the “Naturalisation Hypothesis or Conundrum” (Darwin, 1859) predicting the importance of phylogenetic relatedness in determining invasiveness such that non-native species with close relatives in the invaded range will be less invasive than those which are only distantly related to species within the recipient habitats (Daehler, 2001; Jiang et al., 2010; Thuiller et al., 2010). Such traits-based approaches continue to fascinate ecologists and provide opportunities for exploring invasions.

Recent research recognises the inherent complexity of ecological systems and the influence of the evolutionary history of the interactions between species within a population in determining invasion success of new arrivals (Thuiller et al., 2010). Furthermore, the wider community context is also likely to play an important role in the invasion process (Shea and Chesson, 2002). The recently proposed unified framework for biological invasions reconciles and integrates characteristics across a range of established invasion frameworks and eloquently outlines the invasion process and specifically the stages and barriers to invasion from transport and introduction to establishment and spread (Blackburn et al., 2011). The volunteer recording community have made unique and inspiring contributions to our understanding of invasion biology within Britain.

GB Non-Native Species Information Portal: underpinning understanding

The GB Non-Native Species Information Portal (GB-NNSIP) is an on-line information system (www.nonnativespecies.org), involving a network of people including the volunteer recording schemes and societies alongside the Biological Records Centre (BRC) and other organisations

engaged in sharing information on NNS (Roy et al., 2014c). The GB-NNSIP covers species within England, Scotland and Wales (hereafter referred to as “Britain”) and comprises a register of NNS, together with supporting information including country of origin, arrival pathway, establishment status, occurrence within habitats, date of first record, human impact and environmental impact. The GB-NNSIP is being updated at least annually and is dynamically linked to the National Biodiversity Network (NBN) Gateway (<https://data.nbn.org.uk>) which provides maps of the distribution of the NNS within Britain. The role of volunteers, primarily through the recording schemes and societies, in providing both information on species and occurrence data, has been invaluable. Indeed compiling the information within the GB-NNSIP would not have been possible without the contributions of volunteer experts from across Britain.

Lists of NNS are seen as an essential tool in the management of biological invasions (McGeoch et al., 2012). The use of such lists is diverse and far-reaching. There have been many influential research studies based on NNS lists which have increased understanding particularly in relation to pathways of arrival (Hulme, 2009) and impacts on biodiversity (Vila et al., 2011), both acknowledged as critical elements within biodiversity strategy. Indeed implementation of policy and legislation is often based on NNS lists (Lodge et al., 2006) prioritising those species considered to be adversely affecting biodiversity, society or the economy which are termed invasive non-native species (INNS). Early warning, prevention and control measures for INNS rely on information such as identity, associated biology and distribution (McGeoch et al., 2012). Here we have examined NNS information available within the GB-NNSIP to describe patterns in the arrival, establishment and spread of non-native species within Britain.

Arrival

The arrival of a species within a new region is dependent on successful transport and introduction but survival and reproduction is essential for the species to become established (Blackburn et al., 2011). The mechanism of arrival can be difficult to determine (Eversham and Arnold, 1992). Recent advances have been made in harmonising the terminology used to describe pathways and information within the GB-NNSIP has been instrumental to these developments (CBD, 2014). Over the coming years it will be essential to prioritise research on pathways of arrival to inform strategies for preventing future INNS incursions. It is also necessary to understand the origins of NNS. Historically a large proportion of the NNS arriving in Britain were native within Europe indicative of the close transport and trade links throughout history (Preston et al., 2004). However, there has been a shift in the countries of origin of the NNS arriving within Britain which align with an increase in trade and travel from regions beyond Europe (Figure 2). Recently there has been a particular

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113 increase in the number of species arriving from temperate Asia; globalisation has facilitated and
114 intensified the intentional and unintentional introduction of NNS (Meyerson and Mooney, 2007).

115
116 *Establishment*

117 There has been a dramatic increase in the number of species arriving and becoming established
118 (founding reproducing populations) within Britain over the last 400 years and there is no
119 indication of this trend slowing (Figure 2). Indeed since 1950 there have been 10.5 additional
120 NNS arriving and establishing per year in contrast to 0.9 additional NNS per year from 1600-
121 1799. The number of established NNS deemed to have a negative ecological or socio-economic
122 impact (INNS) is also increasing with 1.1 of the new species per year causing an impact since
123 2000. There are more than 3,000 species listed within the GB-NNSIP but only 1919 are
124 considered to be established within Britain. Plant species dominate within the GB-NNSIP; the
125 1,919 established NNS comprise 1,494 established non-native plants, 420 established non-
126 native animals and 5 other species. The escalation in the rate of new arrivals is not unique to
127 Britain and has been reported across Europe (Pyšek et al., 2010) and, indeed, globally
128 (Meyerson and Mooney, 2007) and is widely attributed to an increase in trade and transport in
129 recent decades (Hulme, 2009).

130 *Spread*

131 The invasibility of communities, habitats and ecosystems has been the focus of invasion biology
132 research for decades (Lonsdale, 1999; Richardson and Pyšek, 2006). However, it is recognised
133 that invasion of a region by a non-native species involves complex ecological processes driven
134 by traits of both the invader and the invaded community (Shea and Chesson, 2002). Indeed
135 biological invasions represent an exciting opportunity to contribute to the understanding of
136 community ecology (Shea and Chesson, 2002). Biological records have underpinned the study of
137 establishment and spread of non-native species within Britain (Botham et al., 2009; Eversham
138 and Arnold, 1992; Manchester and Bullock, 2000). Non-native species occur across the British
139 landscape (Figure 3) but a greater number of non-native species are present within England
140 compared to either Scotland or Wales. The high number of non-native species within the south-
141 east of England is almost certainly related to climatic factors coupled with prevalence of urban
142 habitats and high population density; there are particularly high numbers of non-native species
143 within urban localities.

144 The association of non-native species with urban habitats is widely recognised (Alston and
 145 Richardson, 2006; Botham et al., 2009; Pyšek, 1998). Indeed urban localities represent highly
 146 disturbed habitats which are also typified by high fertility and so highly suitable for ruderal
 147 species (Botham et al., 2009). Furthermore, the number of non-native species introduced into
 148 urban settlements, particularly in gardens and parks, is high and so constitutes considerable
 149 propagule pressure (Botham et al., 2009; Holle and Simberloff, 2005). Research using botanical
 150 data collected by the Botanical Society of Britain and Ireland confirms the strong association of
 151 non-native plants with urban habitats but suggests that there has been a reduction in the urban
 152 association of archaeophytes in recent decades (Botham et al., 2009). The GB-NNSIP includes
 153 information on the habitats occupied by non-native species within Britain, much of which comes
 154 from the detailed observations of the volunteer recording community. A qualitative and
 155 descriptive review of the habitat associations represented within the GB-NNSIP provides
 156 intriguing insights which stimulate the development of hypotheses for empirical testing (Figures
 157 4, 5 and 6). The botanical information is particularly comprehensive within the GB-NNSIP and
 158 exploring the habitat associations of non-native plants in terrestrial environments against date
 159 of first record highlights changes in patterns (Figure 4I and 4II). The strong association with
 160 urban environments (EUNIS category J) is apparent and the proportion of recent arrivals within
 161 urban environments is higher than for historic invasions. Interestingly there are no clear
 162 patterns between the habitat associations of the invasive non-native plants and date of first
 163 record although association with grasslands (EUNIS category E) is strong for both non-native and
 164 invasive non-native species of plants. Previous research has highlighted the importance of fertile
 165 grasslands as recipient habitats for non-native plants, particularly disturbed and fertile
 166 components of these habitats (Maskell et al., 2006).

167 Habitat associations between non-native species, beyond the plants, and in non-terrestrial
 168 environments have so far received limited attention. However, a few patterns emerge from
 169 examining the habitat associations of non-native animals against date of first record which are
 170 worthy of description (Figure 4 III and 4 IV; Figures 5 and 6). Interestingly, urban habitats do not
 171 appear to be the major recipient of non-native animals and it is possible that this reflects both
 172 the capacity of animals to disperse and spread rapidly, and the range of pathways through
 173 which they arrive. There appears to be an increase in the proportion of non-native animals,
 174 particularly those considered to be invasive, associated with marine habitats (EUNIS category A).
 175 This could reflect increased intensity of recording within these habitats in recent years but it
 176 would be valuable to investigate further. Inland waters (EUNIS category C) seem to be

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3 177 increasingly under pressure from new invasive arrivals. The number of freshwater invertebrates
4 178 arriving from the Ponto-Caspian region is a growing concern and it has been stated that Britain
5 179 might be on the brink of “Ponto-Caspian invasional meltdown” (Gallardo and Aldridge, 2014).
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7 180 The recent arrival of the quagga mussel, *Dreissena rostriformis bugensis*, is the latest of a
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9 181 number of new arrivals to freshwater habitats. Recreational use of water bodies for fishing and
10 182 boating are considered to be major pathways of introduction for NNS and highlight the
11 183 importance of biosecurity and raising awareness through campaigns such as “Check, Clean, Dry”
12 184 (Anderson et al., 2014).
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17 185 Clearly there is considerable scope for research on habitat associations of non-native species. It
18 186 would be particularly interesting to explore the interactions between habitat fragmentation and
19 187 invasion (Hoffmeister et al., 2005). While it is apparent that urban and disturbed habitats are
20 188 particular foci for invasion, it is critical to consider habitats as a heterogeneous matrix on a
21 189 landscape scale. For some species habitat fragmentation might limit spread while for others the
22 190 disturbance created through fragmentation might facilitate spread. It would be interesting to
23 191 explore this through modelling approaches using biological records alongside life-history traits
24 192 and land cover data. Investigating the vulnerability of protected areas to invasion by considering
25 193 their connectivity to hot spots of invasion could provide useful insights for conservation
26 194 management (Thomas et al. THIS SI).
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35 195 *Horizon scanning and early warning*
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37 196 Horizon-scanning to prioritise the threat posed by potentially new INNS which are not yet
38 197 established within a region is seen as an essential component of INNS management (Copp et al.,
39 198 2007; Shine et al., 2010). There have been a number of horizon-scanning exercises, based on
40 199 information from the literature coupled with risk assessment frameworks or modelling approaches,
41 200 for INNS in Britain involving discrete taxonomic groups, such as plants (Thomas, 2010) or animals
42 201 (Parrott et al., 2009), or distinct environments such as freshwater (Gallardo and Aldridge, 2013).
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48 202 More recently a horizon scanning approach was developed that combined the structured
49 203 approaches of literature review and risk assessment (Branquart et al., 2009) with dynamic consensus
50 204 methods (Sutherland et al., 2011) to deliver a ranked list of species that are likely to arrive, become
51 205 established and have an impact on native biodiversity within the next ten years (Roy et al., 2014b).
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206 Breadth of information across taxonomic groups and environments is essential for horizon scanning
 207 and the volunteer recording community in the UK provide an excellent example of “wisdom from the
 208 crowd” (Galton, 1907; Lorenz et al., 2011; Sutherland and Woodroof, 2009) whereby the
 209 complementary expertise within this community ensures the required collective knowledge (Roy et
 210 al., 2014b). The list of non-native species on the resulting horizon scanning list included a “top ten”
 211 and four of these species (*D. rostriformis bugensis* (Mollusca: Bivalvia), *Hemigrapsus sanguineus*
 212 (Crustacea: Brachyura), *Hemigrapsus takanoi* (Crustacea: Brachyura), *Procyon lotor* (Mammalia:
 213 Carnivora) were reported within six months following publication. The quagga mussel, *Dreissena*
 214 *rostriformis bugensis*, was unanimously agreed to constitute the highest risk of all the species
 215 considered (Roy et al., 2014b) and in October 2014 was reported as established in a reservoir in
 216 Surrey, UK (<http://www.nonnativespecies.org/alerts/index.cfm>). The quagga mussel is an ecosystem
 217 engineer and has a history of becoming the dominant benthic organism within invaded systems
 218 (Sousa et al., 2009) with a wide range of direct and indirect impacts (Cross et al., 2010; MacIsaac,
 219 1996; Schloesser et al., 2006; Sousa et al., 2009; Ward and Ricciardi, 2007).

221 *Monitoring and surveillance*

222 The volunteer recording community are major contributors to monitoring and surveillance of non-
 223 native species. It is essential that the species prioritised through risk assessment and horizon
 224 scanning are publicised to raise awareness and encourage reporting. Volunteers not only provide
 225 records from across Britain but also underpin the system of verification necessary to confirm the
 226 identification of sightings. The so-called “alert system” (Figure 7) promoted through the Non-Native
 227 Species Secretariat website (www.nonnativespecies.org) links to iRecord (www.brc.ac.uk/irecord), a
 228 website for managing wildlife records, and enables rapid reporting and verification of species
 229 considered as a priority for action. On-line capability enables people to register for notification of
 230 selected species of interest and ensures rapid data flow to support effective decision-making.

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3 231 The alert system includes species identified as high-risk through horizon scanning (Roy et al., 2014b).
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5 232 The Asian hornet, *Vespa velutina*, is one such species. This species arrived in France in 2005 and
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7 233 spread rapidly across the country and into Spain in 2010 (Perrard et al., 2009; Villemant et al., 2011).
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9 234 It is a predator of pollinating insects and so poses a threat to native biodiversity (Perrard et al., 2009;
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11 235 Villemant et al., 2011). There has been considerable publicity through the media on this species and
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13 236 also targeted promotion to the beekeeping community. Consequently many people have sent
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15 237 sightings of concern through iRecord (374 suspect Asian hornet records) and a designated e-mail
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17 238 account for alert species (1,162 suspected Asian hornet records received; Figure 8). To date there
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19 239 have been no confirmed sightings of the Asian hornet in Britain; most of the records have been
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21 240 identified as European hornets, *Vespa crabro*. However, the high number of records received
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23 241 through the e-mail alert (Figure 8) system is encouraging and highlights the role of volunteers,
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25 242 expert and non-expert, in surveillance and monitoring of non-native species. The peaks in numbers
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27 243 of records received (September 2013 and May 2014) coincide with reports in the national press and
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29 244 demonstrate the importance of effective communication to raise awareness.
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34 245 *Understanding impacts*
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37 246 INNS are widely stated to be one of the major drivers of biodiversity loss (Millenium Ecosystem
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39 247 Assessment, 2005), however there is a lack of empirical evidence for the impacts of many non-native
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41 248 species which are considered to be invasive. There is a clear need to increase understanding of the
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43 249 effects of non-native species on other wildlife to inform risk assessment and prioritisation of
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45 250 management strategies. However, invasions also provide opportunities to gain unique insights to
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47 251 advance understanding of processes within community ecology. It is essential that impacts are
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49 252 quantified using experimental approaches alongside field observations. Biological recording could
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51 253 play a critical role in the latter, however currently the interactions between species are rarely
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53 254 captured within biological records. There is considerable potential to encourage recorders to include
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255 such additional information and many naturalists document interactions as comments alongside the
 256 standard information (what, when, who and where) that constitutes a record.

257 Biological records collated through the UK Ladybird Survey (formerly the Coccinellidae Recording
 258 Scheme) have been instrumental in providing evidence that the harlequin ladybird, *Harmonia*
 259 *axyridis*, is contributing to the declines in distribution of native ladybirds (Brown et al., 2011; Roy et
 260 al., 2012). Linking this research with life-history traits, climate and land cover data highlights the role
 261 of *H. axyridis* coupled with urbanisation in causing local extinctions of native ladybirds (Comont et
 262 al., 2013; Comont et al., 2012). It will be intriguing to explore the extent to which such changes in
 263 ladybird community structure affect the ecological resilience of the network of aphidophagous
 264 insects (Roy and Lawson-Handley, 2012). A high degree of biodiversity is widely considered to
 265 enhance the resilience of ecosystems to invasion (Elmqvist et al., 2003) but few studies within
 266 invasion biology have included ecosystem-scale approaches to underpin this intuitive theory.
 267 Biological records have the potential to contribute to the understanding of ecological resilience and
 268 specifically to the assessment of the state of ecosystems following perturbation. The development of
 269 methods for constructing ecological networks from biological records is an exciting prospect and
 270 worthy of prioritisation going forward.

271 *Conclusions*

272 The contributions made by volunteers to our understanding of invasion biology have been
 273 invaluable. The GB-NNSIP (alongside the European inventory, DAISIE) is possibly one of the most
 274 comprehensive regional databases of information on non-native species worldwide. The wealth of
 275 information on British wildlife, both native and non-native, is inspiring, and the large-scale and
 276 long-term datasets comprising biological records compiled and collated by the volunteer
 277 recording community provide a unique resource for addressing questions of major ecological
 278 importance (Roy et al., 2014a). The information available through publications on life-history
 279 traits, such as PLANTATT (Hill et al., 2004), provide additional rich resources to inform analyses.

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3 280 The development of databases of life-history traits for other taxonomic and functional groups
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5 281 should be prioritised. Integrating detailed traits-based information with biological records across
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7 282 taxonomic groups and including relevant interactions will enhance understanding of biological
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10 283 invasions immeasurably.

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Figure 1. Origins of established non-native species (NNS) and the date of first record in Great Britain. The place of origin is shown at continent level, some species have a native range that covers multiple continents. The number of NNS indicates the total number of NNS within a native range including that continent and a GB first record in that date range. The innermost circle denotes the date range 1500-1549 and each further concentric circle refers to a 50 year time period with the outermost circle representing the most recent date range 1950-1999. The colour of the continent relates to the most recent time period displayed (1950-1999).

Figure 2. Number of established non-native species (black line) and the number that are designated as having a negative ecological impact, so called invasive non-native species (grey line), against date of first record.

Figure 3. Richness of invasive non-native species (number of species per 10km square).

Figure 4. Number of non-native and invasive non-native plants (I and II respectively) and non-native and invasive non-native animals (III and IV respectively) associated with terrestrial habitats against date of first record. Habitat information is included with the GB-NNSIP as EUNIS categories (www.eunis.eea.europa.eu/habitats.jsp).

Figure 5. Number of non-native and invasive non-native plants (I and II respectively) and non-native and invasive non-native animals (III and IV respectively) associated with marine habitats against date of first record. Habitat information is included with the GB-NNSIP as EUNIS categories (www.eunis.eea.europa.eu/habitats.jsp).

Figure 6. Number of non-native and invasive non-native plants (I and II respectively) and non-native and invasive non-native animals (III and IV respectively) associated with freshwater habitats against date of first record. Habitat information is included with the GB-NNSIP as EUNIS categories (www.eunis.eea.europa.eu/habitats.jsp).

Figure 7. Outline of the “alert system” in which a biological record is received either by e-mail or within iRecord. The record is checked by an expert and either confirmed (verified) or not. The database is updated and stakeholders are informed if the record is verified so that they can take appropriate action. In some cases stakeholders are notified prior to verification if rapid response is necessary.

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477 **Figure 8.** Number of reports of suspected *Vespa velutina* received through the designated e-mail
478 account for the “alert system”. Date range 2011 to 2014. Note that there have been no confirmed
479 sightings of *V. velutina* within Britain.

Supporting information: List of Invasive Non-Native Species considered to adversely affect biodiversity in Britain

Environment	Common name	Scientific name
Marine	a bryozoans	<i>Schizoporella japonica</i>
Marine	a bryozoans	<i>Tricellaria inopinata</i>
Marine	a bryozoans	<i>Watersipora subatra</i>
Marine	a coelenterate	<i>Cordylophora caspia</i>
Marine	a crustacean	<i>Dyspanopeus sayi</i>
Marine	a mollusc	<i>Ensis directus</i>
Marine	a mollusc	<i>Mytilopsis leucophaeata</i>
Marine	a tunicate	<i>Botrylloides diegensis</i>
Marine	a tunicate	<i>Botrylloides violaceus</i>
Marine	a tunicate	<i>Corella eumyota</i>
Marine	a tunicate	<i>Didemnum vexillum</i>
Marine	Algae	<i>Bonnemaisonia hamifera</i>
Marine	Algae	<i>Grateloupia turuturu</i>
Marine	Algae	<i>Heterosiphonia japonica</i>
Marine	Algae	<i>Neosiphonia harveyi</i>
Marine	American sting wrinkle	<i>Urosalpinx cinerea</i>
Marine	an acorn barnacle	<i>Austrominius modestus</i>
Marine	an amphipod	<i>Monocorophium sextonae</i>
Marine	an amphipod	<i>Gammarus tigrinus</i>
Marine	an annelid	<i>Ficopomatus enigmaticus</i>
Marine	an annelid	<i>Hydroides elegans</i>
Marine	an annelid	<i>Hydroides ezoensis</i>
Marine	Chinese Mitten Crab	<i>Eriocheir sinensis</i>
Marine	Compass Sea Squirt	<i>Asterocarpa humilis</i>
Marine	Dwarf Crab	<i>Rhithropanopeus harrisii</i>
Marine	Green sea fingers	<i>Codium fragile</i> subsp. <i>fragile</i>
Marine	Harpoon Weed (Algae)	<i>Asparagopsis armata</i>
Marine	Japanese kelp, wakame	<i>Undaria pinnatifida</i>
Marine	Japanese Skeleton Shrimp	<i>Caprella mutica</i>
Marine	Leathery Sea Squirt	<i>Styela clava</i>
Marine	Pacific Oyster	<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>
Marine	slipper limpet	<i>Crepidula fornicata</i>
Marine	swim-bladder nematode	<i>Anguillicoloides crassus</i>
Marine	Wire Weed	<i>Sargassum muticum</i>
Freshwater	a mollusc	<i>Corbicula fluminea</i>
Freshwater	a polychaete	<i>Hypania invalida</i>
Freshwater	African clawed frog	<i>Xenopus laevis</i>
Freshwater	American bullfrog	<i>Lithobates catesbeianus</i>
Freshwater	Bloody-red mysid	<i>Hemimysis anomala</i>
Freshwater	Canadian Waterweed	<i>Elodea canadensis</i>
Freshwater	Curly Waterweed	<i>Lagarosiphon major</i>
Freshwater	Demon shrimp	<i>Dikerogammarus haemobaphes</i>

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Freshwater	Duck-potato	<i>Sagittaria latifolia</i>
Freshwater	Floating pennywort	<i>Hydrocotyle ranunculoides</i>
Freshwater	Goldfish	<i>Carassius auratus</i>
Freshwater	Italian Alpine Newt	<i>Ichthyosaura alpestris</i>
Freshwater	Italian crested newt	<i>Triturus carniflex</i>
Freshwater	Jenkins' spire snail	<i>Potamopyrgus antipodarum</i>
Freshwater	Killer shrimp	<i>Dikerogammarus villosus</i>
Freshwater	Large-flowered Waterweed	<i>Egeria densa</i>
Freshwater	Least Duckweed	<i>Lemna minuta</i>
Freshwater	Marsh frog	<i>Pelophylax ridibundus</i>
Freshwater	New Zealand pigmyweed	<i>Crassula helmsii</i>
Freshwater	Northern River Crangonyctid	<i>Crangonyx pseudogracilis</i>
Freshwater	Nuttall's Waterweed	<i>Elodea nuttallii</i>
Freshwater	Parrot's Feather	<i>Myriophyllum aquaticum</i>
Freshwater	Pumpkinseed	<i>Lepomis gibbosus</i>
Freshwater	Quagga mussel	<i>Dreissena bugensis</i>
Freshwater	Rainbow trout	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>
Freshwater	Red swamp crayfish	<i>Procambarus clarkii</i>
Freshwater	Signal crayfish	<i>Pacifastacus leniusculus</i>
Freshwater	Spinycheek crayfish	<i>Orconectes limosus</i>
Freshwater	Sunbleak	<i>Leucaspis delineatus</i>
Freshwater	Topmouth gudgeon	<i>Pseudorasbora parva</i>
Freshwater	Turkish crayfish	<i>Astacus leptodactylus</i>
Freshwater	Uruguayan Hampshire-purslane	<i>Ludwigia grandiflora</i>
Freshwater	Virile crayfish	<i>Orconectes virilis</i>
Freshwater	Water Fern	<i>Azolla filiculoides</i>
Freshwater	Wels catfish	<i>Siluris glanis</i>
Freshwater	White river crayfish	<i>Procambarus acutus</i>
Freshwater	Zander	<i>Sander lucioperca</i>
Freshwater	Zebra mussel	<i>Dreissena polymorpha</i>
Terrestrial	a flatworm	<i>Australoplana sanguinea</i>
Terrestrial	a flatworm	<i>Kontikia ventrolineata</i>
Terrestrial	Aesculapian snake	<i>Zamensis longissimus</i>
Terrestrial	Alexanders	<i>Smyrnum olusatrum</i>
Terrestrial	American mink	<i>Mustela vison</i>
Terrestrial	American Skunk-cabbage	<i>Lysichiton americanus</i>
Terrestrial	an ant	<i>Lasius neglectus</i>
Terrestrial	Arrow Bamboo	<i>Pseudosasa japonica</i>
Terrestrial	Austrian Pin	<i>Pinus nigra</i>
Terrestrial	Bear's-breech	<i>Acanthus mollis</i>
Terrestrial	Berberis sawfly	<i>Arge berberidis</i>
Terrestrial	Bermuda-buttercup	<i>Oxalis pes-caprae</i>
Terrestrial	Biliary parasite	<i>Pseudamphistomum truncatum</i>
Terrestrial	Billard's Bridewort	<i>Spiraea alba x douglasii</i> = <i>S. x billardii</i>

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3	Terrestrial	Black rat	<i>Rattus rattus</i>
4	Terrestrial	Black-bindweed	<i>Fallopia convolvulus</i>
5	Terrestrial	Bladder-senna	<i>Colutea arborescens</i>
6	Terrestrial	Blotched Monkey Flower	<i>Mimulus luteus</i>
7	Terrestrial	Bluebell	<i>Hyacinthoides non-scripta</i> x <i>hispanica</i> = <i>H. x massartiana</i>
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9	Terrestrial	Brazilian Giant-rhubarb	<i>Gunnera manicata</i>
10	Terrestrial	Bridewort	<i>Spiraea salicifolia</i>
11	Terrestrial	Broad-leaved Bamboo	<i>Sasa palmata</i>
12	Terrestrial	Brown rat	<i>Rattus norvegicus</i>
13	Terrestrial	Buddleia	<i>Buddleja davidii</i>
14	Terrestrial	Canada Goose	<i>Branta canadensis</i>
15	Terrestrial	Canadian Goldenrod	<i>Solidago canadensis</i>
16	Terrestrial	Cherry Laurel	<i>Prunus laurocerasus</i>
17	Terrestrial	Common Michaelmas-daisy	<i>Aster novi-belgii</i> x <i>lanceolatus</i> = <i>A. x salignus</i>
18	Terrestrial	Comon Wall lizard	<i>Podarcis muralis</i>
19	Terrestrial	Confused Bridewort	<i>Spiraea salicifolia</i> x <i>douglasii</i> = <i>S. x pseudosalicifolia</i>
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21	Terrestrial	Dump fly	<i>Hydrotaea aenescens</i>
22	Terrestrial	Dutch Rose	<i>Rosa Hollandica</i>
23	Terrestrial	Eagle Owl	<i>Bubo bubo</i>
24	Terrestrial	Eastern Gray Squirrel	<i>Sciurus carolinensis</i>
25	Terrestrial	Edible Dormouse	<i>Glis glis</i>
26	Terrestrial	Egyptian Goose	<i>Alopochen aegyptiacus</i>
27	Terrestrial	Entire-leaved Cotoneaster	<i>Cotoneaster integrifolius</i>
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29	Terrestrial	European rabbit	<i>Oryctolagus cuniculus</i>
30	Terrestrial	Evergreen Oak	<i>Quercus ilex</i>
31	Terrestrial	Fallow Deer	<i>Dama dama</i>
32	Terrestrial	False-acacia	<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i>
33	Terrestrial	Feral Cat	<i>Felis catus</i>
34	Terrestrial	Feral Goat	<i>Capra hircus</i>
35	Terrestrial	Ferret	<i>Mustela furo</i>
36	Terrestrial	Few-flowered Garlic	<i>Allium paradoxum</i>
37	Terrestrial	Garden Lady's-mantle	<i>Alchemilla mollis</i>
38	Terrestrial	Giant Hogweed	<i>Heracleum mantegazzianum</i>
39	Terrestrial	Giant Knotweed	<i>Fallopia sachalinensis</i>
40	Terrestrial	Giant-rhubarb	<i>Gunnera tinctoria</i>
41	Terrestrial	Great Brome	<i>Anisantha diandra</i>
42	Terrestrial	Green Alkanet	<i>Pentaglottis sempervirens</i>
43	Terrestrial	Hairy Bamboo	<i>Sasaella ramosa</i>
44	Terrestrial	Harlequin Ladybird	<i>Harmonia axyridis</i>
45	Terrestrial	Heath Star Moss	<i>Campylopus introflexus</i>
46	Terrestrial	Himalayan Balsam	<i>Impatiens glandulifera</i>
47	Terrestrial	Himalayan Cotoneaster	<i>Cotoneaster simonsii</i>
48	Terrestrial	Himalayan Knotweed	<i>Persicaria wallichii</i>
49	Terrestrial	Horse chestnut scale	<i>Pulvinaria regalis</i>
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Terrestrial	Hottentot-fig	<i>Carpobrotus edulis</i>
Terrestrial	House mouse	<i>Mus domesticus</i>
Terrestrial	Japanese Knotweed	<i>Fallopia japonica</i>
Terrestrial	Japanese Rose	<i>Rosa rugosa</i>
Terrestrial	Juneberry	<i>Amelanchier lamarckii</i>
Terrestrial	Late Michaelmas-daisy	<i>Aster laevis x novi-belgii</i> = <i>A. x versicolor</i>
Terrestrial	Lesser Knotweed	<i>Persicaria campanulata</i>
Terrestrial	Lesser Periwinkle	<i>Vinca minor</i>
Terrestrial	Mandarin duck	<i>Aix galericulata</i>
Terrestrial	Maritime Pine	<i>Pinus pinaster</i>
Terrestrial	Monk parakeet	<i>Myiopsitta monachus</i>
Terrestrial	Montbretia	<i>Crocasmia aurea x pottsii</i> (<i>C. x crocosmiiflora</i>)
Terrestrial	Narrow-leaved Michaelmas-daisy	<i>Aster lanceolatus</i>
Terrestrial	New Zealand Flatworm	<i>Arthurdendyus triangulatus</i>
Terrestrial	Oak Processionary	<i>Thaumetopoea processionea</i>
Terrestrial	Pheasant	<i>Phasianus colchicus</i>
Terrestrial	Pirri-pirri-bur	<i>Acaena novae-zelandiae</i>
Terrestrial	Pitcherplant	<i>Sarracenia purpurea</i>
Terrestrial	plant hybrid	<i>Fallopia japonica x sachalinensis</i> = <i>F. x bohémica</i>
Terrestrial	Portugal Laurel	<i>Prunus lusitanica</i>
Terrestrial	Potato aphid	<i>Macrosiphum euphorbiae</i>
Terrestrial	Purple Dewplant	<i>Disphyma crassifolium</i>
Terrestrial	Red-legged Partridge	<i>Alectoris rufa</i>
Terrestrial	Red-osier Dogwood	<i>Cornus sericea</i>
Terrestrial	Reeve's muntjac	<i>Muntiacus reevesi</i>
Terrestrial	Rhododendron	<i>Rhododendron ponticum</i>
Terrestrial	Rhododendron Leafhopper	<i>Graphocephala fennahi</i>
Terrestrial	Rose-ringed parakeet	<i>Psittacula krameri</i>
Terrestrial	Rosy Garlic	<i>Allium roseum</i>
Terrestrial	Ruddy duck	<i>Oxyura jamaicensis</i>
Terrestrial	Rum Cherry	<i>Prunus serotina</i>
Terrestrial	Russian-vine	<i>Fallopia baldschuanica</i>
Terrestrial	Shallon	<i>Gaultheria shallon</i>
Terrestrial	Sika	<i>Cervus nippon</i>
Terrestrial	Snowberry	<i>Symphoricarpos albus</i>
Terrestrial	Spartina planthopper	<i>Prokelisia marginata</i>
Terrestrial	Spiraea	<i>Spiraea</i>
Terrestrial	Steeple-bush	<i>Spiraea douglasii</i>
Terrestrial	Thorn-apple	<i>Datura stramonium</i>
Terrestrial	Tree-of-heaven	<i>Ailanthus altissima</i>
Terrestrial	Turkey Oak	<i>Quercus cerris</i>
Terrestrial	Virginia-creeper	<i>Parthenocissus quinquefolia</i>
Terrestrial	Wall Cotoneaster	<i>Cotoneaster horizontalis</i>
Terrestrial	Water Deer	<i>Hydropotes inermis</i>
Terrestrial	Western green lizard	<i>Lacerta bilineata</i>

Terrestrial	White Butterbur	<i>Petasites albus</i>
Terrestrial	Winter Heliotrope	<i>Petasites fragrans</i>
Terrestrial	Wireplant	<i>Muehlenbeckia complexa</i>
Terrestrial	Yellow archangel	<i>Lamiastrum galeobdolon subsp. argentatum</i>

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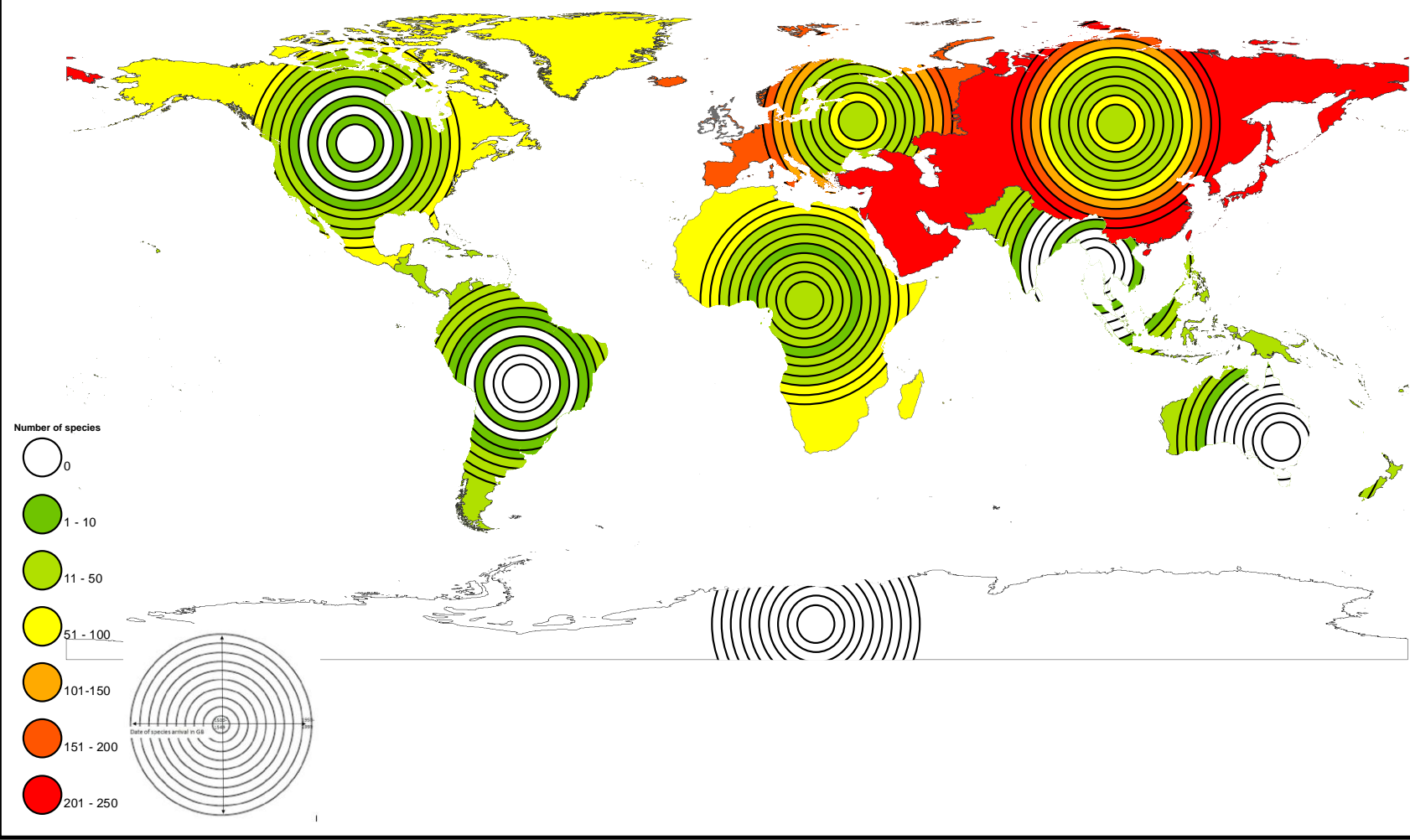
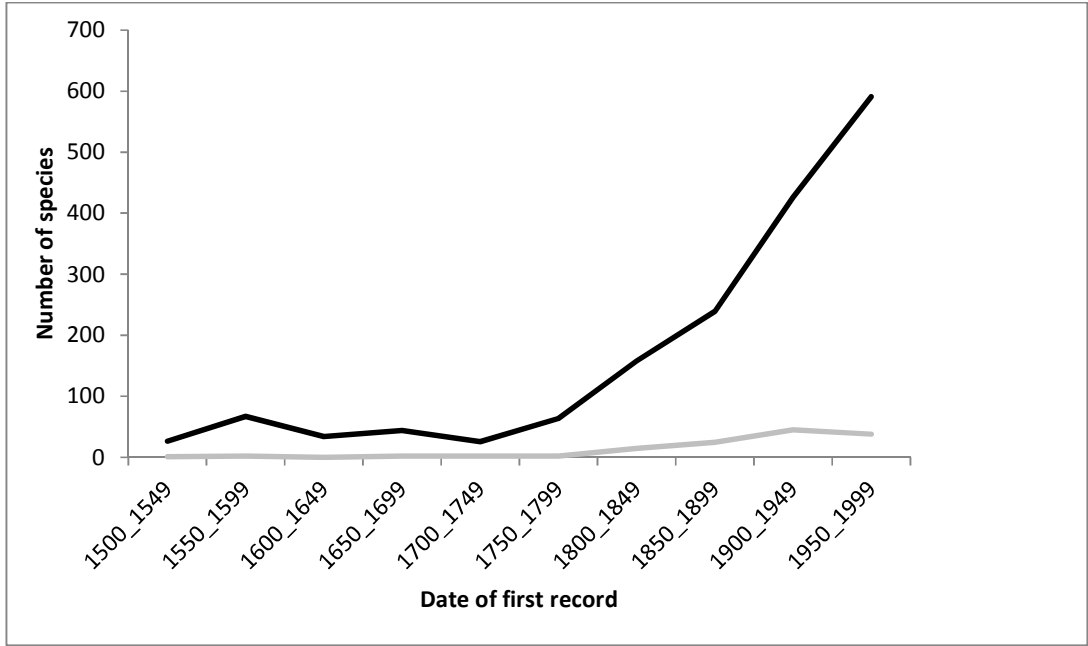


Figure 1. Origins of established non-native species (NNS) and the date of first record in Great Britain. The place of origin is shown at continent level, some species have a native range that covers multiple continents. The number of NNS indicates the total number of NNS within a native range including that continent and a GB first record in that date range. The innermost circle denotes the date range 1500-1549 and each further concentric circle refers to a 50 year time period with the outermost circle representing the most recent date range 1950-1999. The colour of the continent relates to the most recent time period displayed (1950-1999).

Figure 2



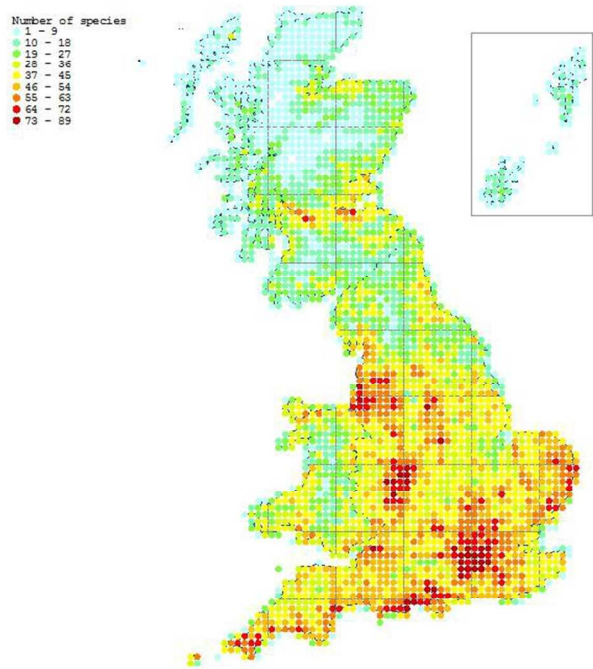
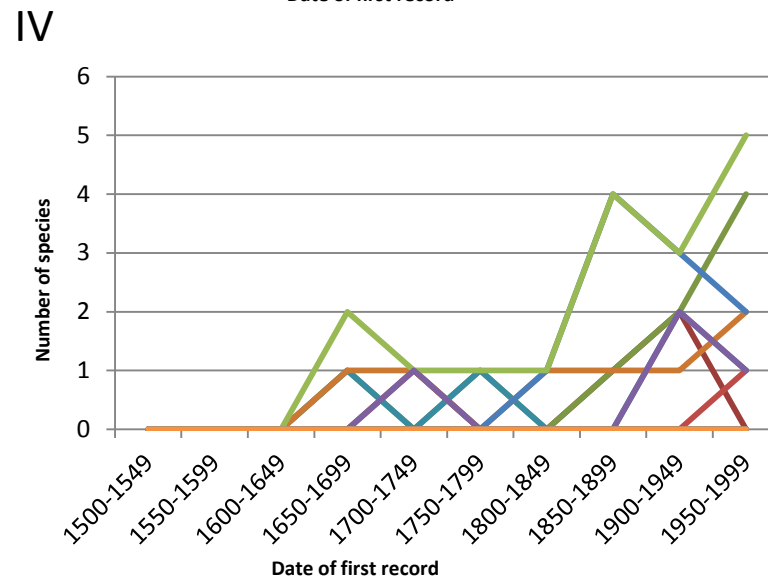
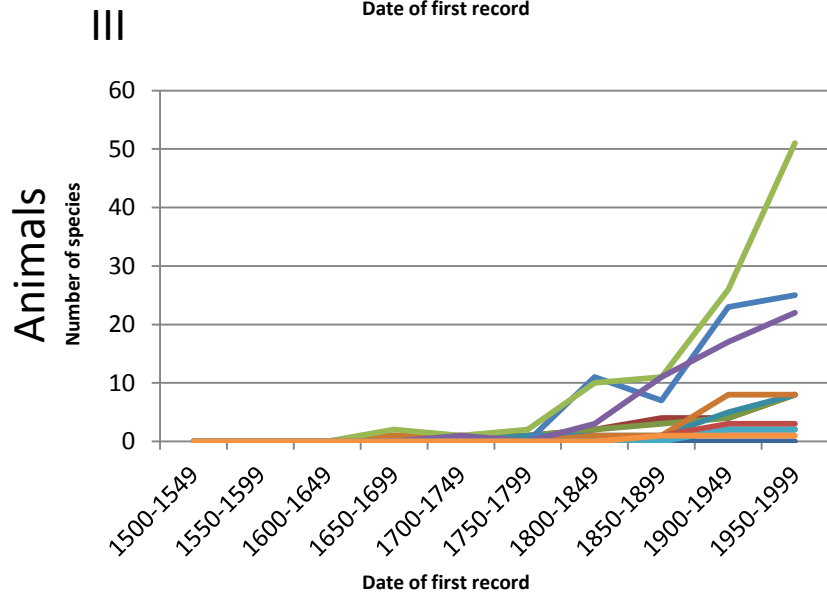
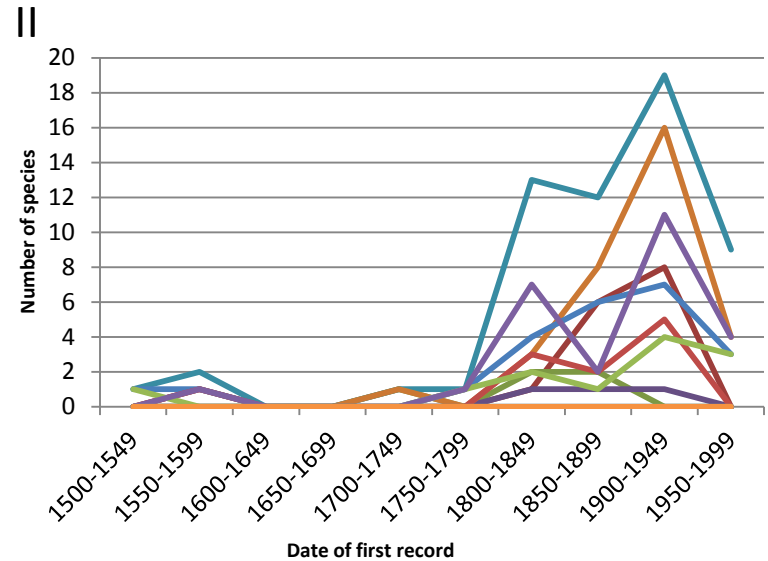
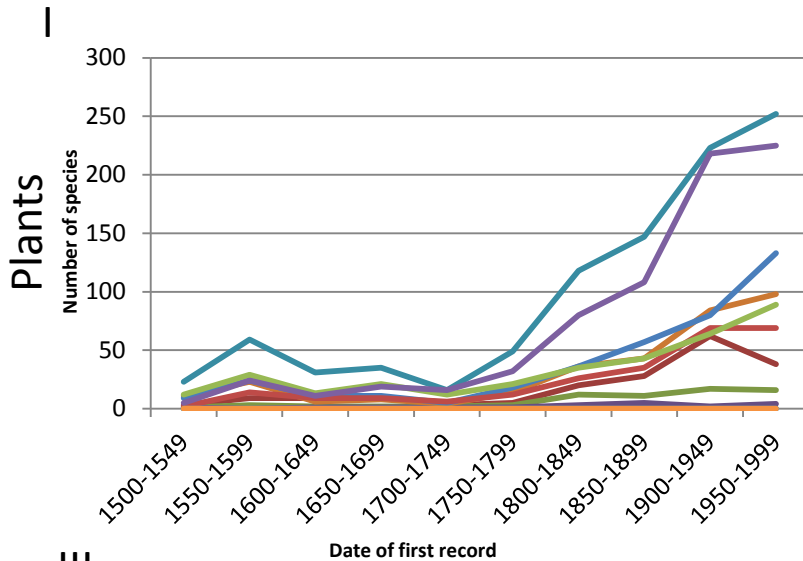


Figure 3. Richness of invasive non-native species (number of species per 10km square).
254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)

Non-Native Species

Invasive Non-Native Species

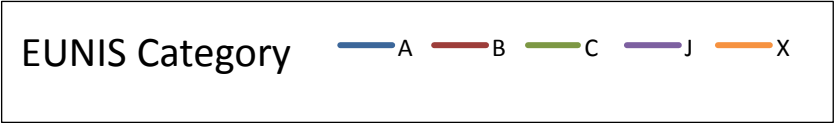
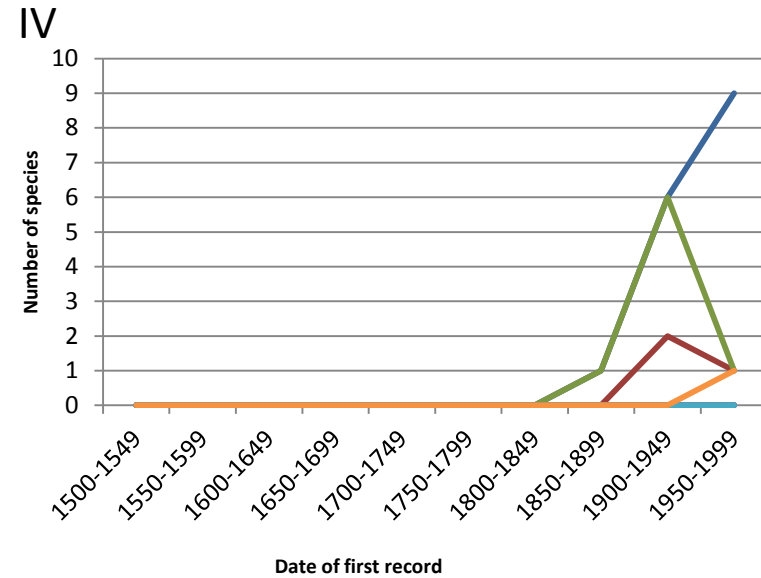
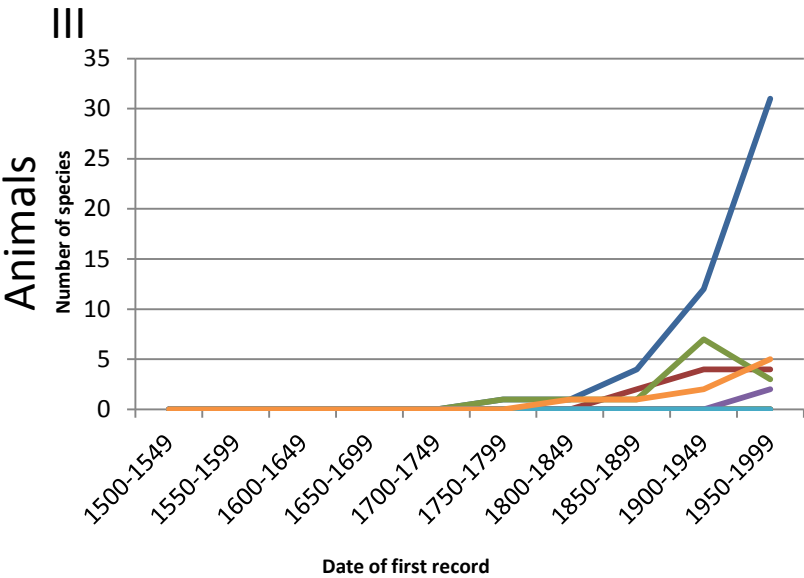
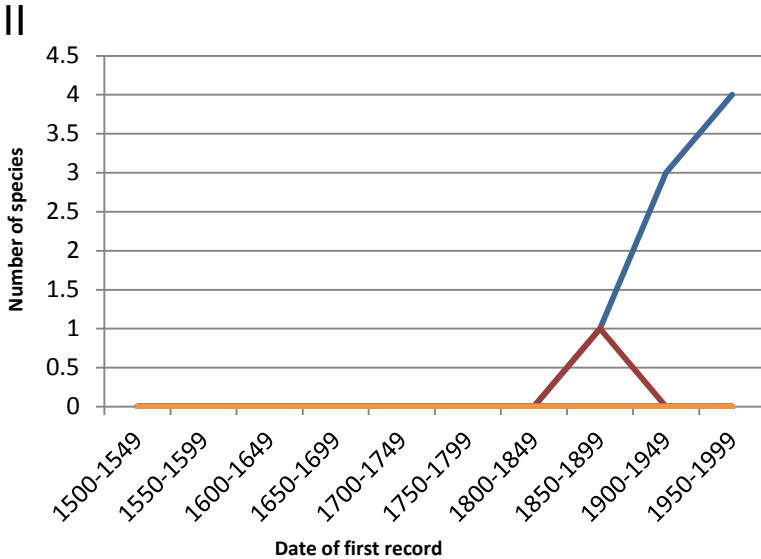
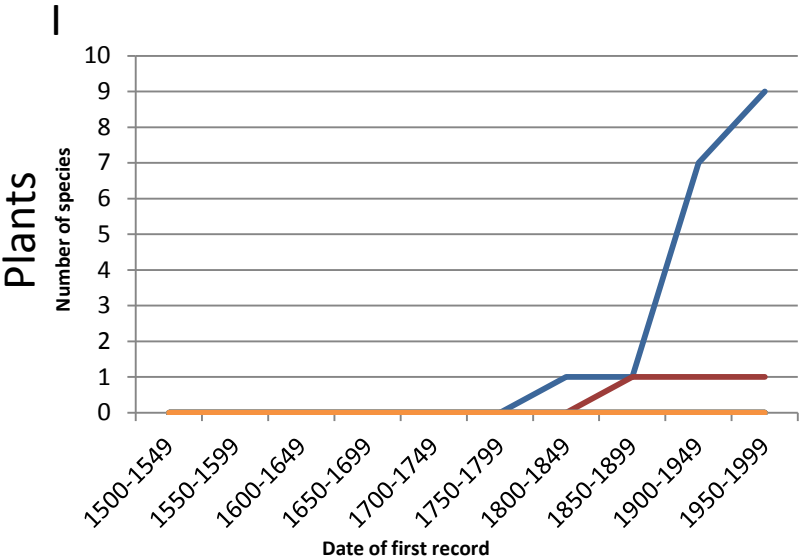


EUNIS Category

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Non-Native Species

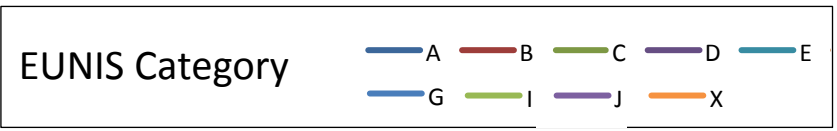
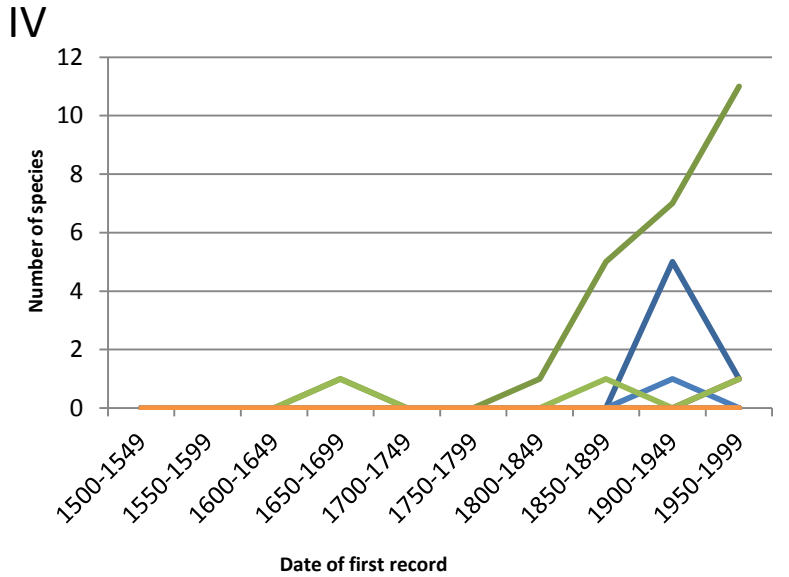
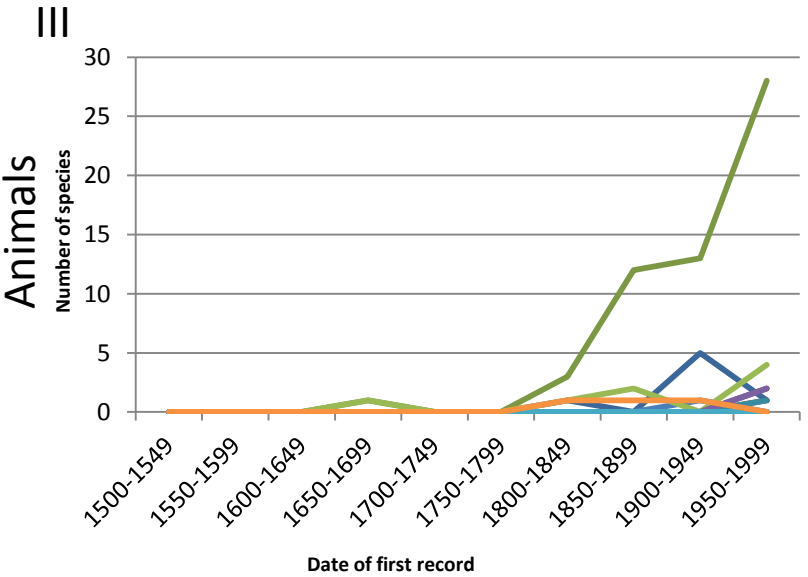
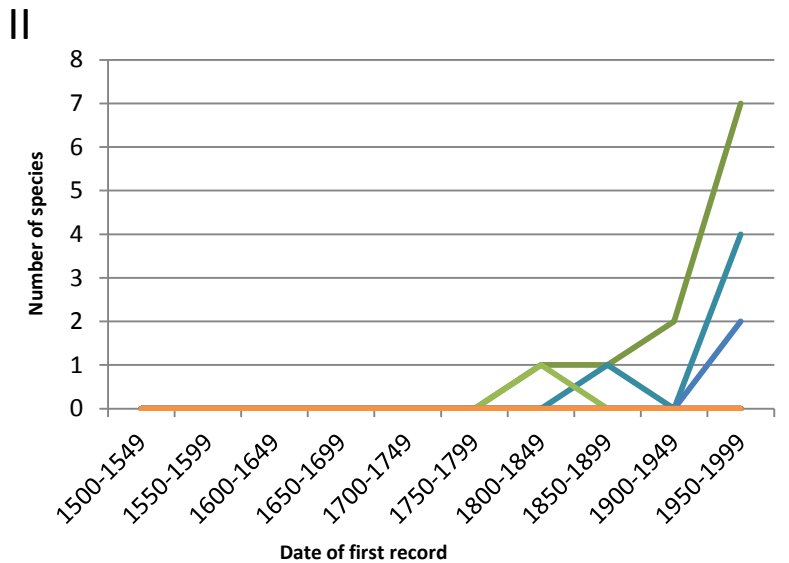
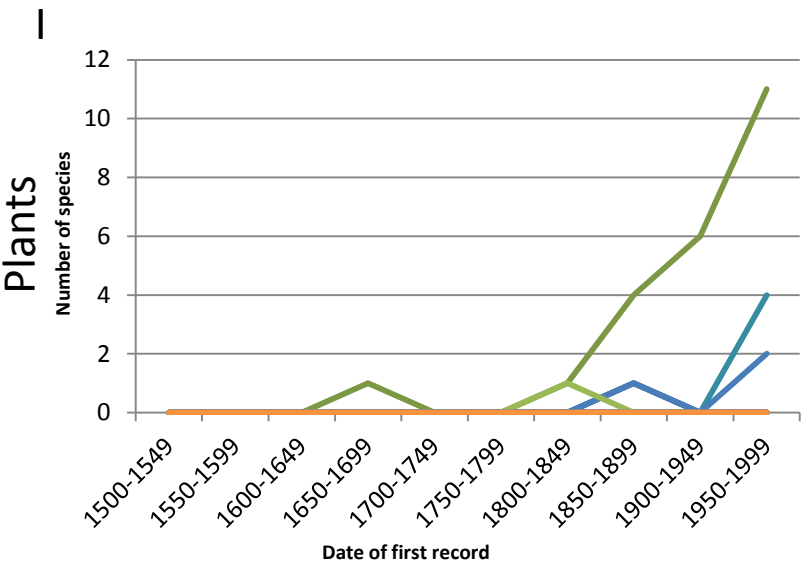
Invasive Non-Native Species



Non-Native Species

Invasive Non-Native Species

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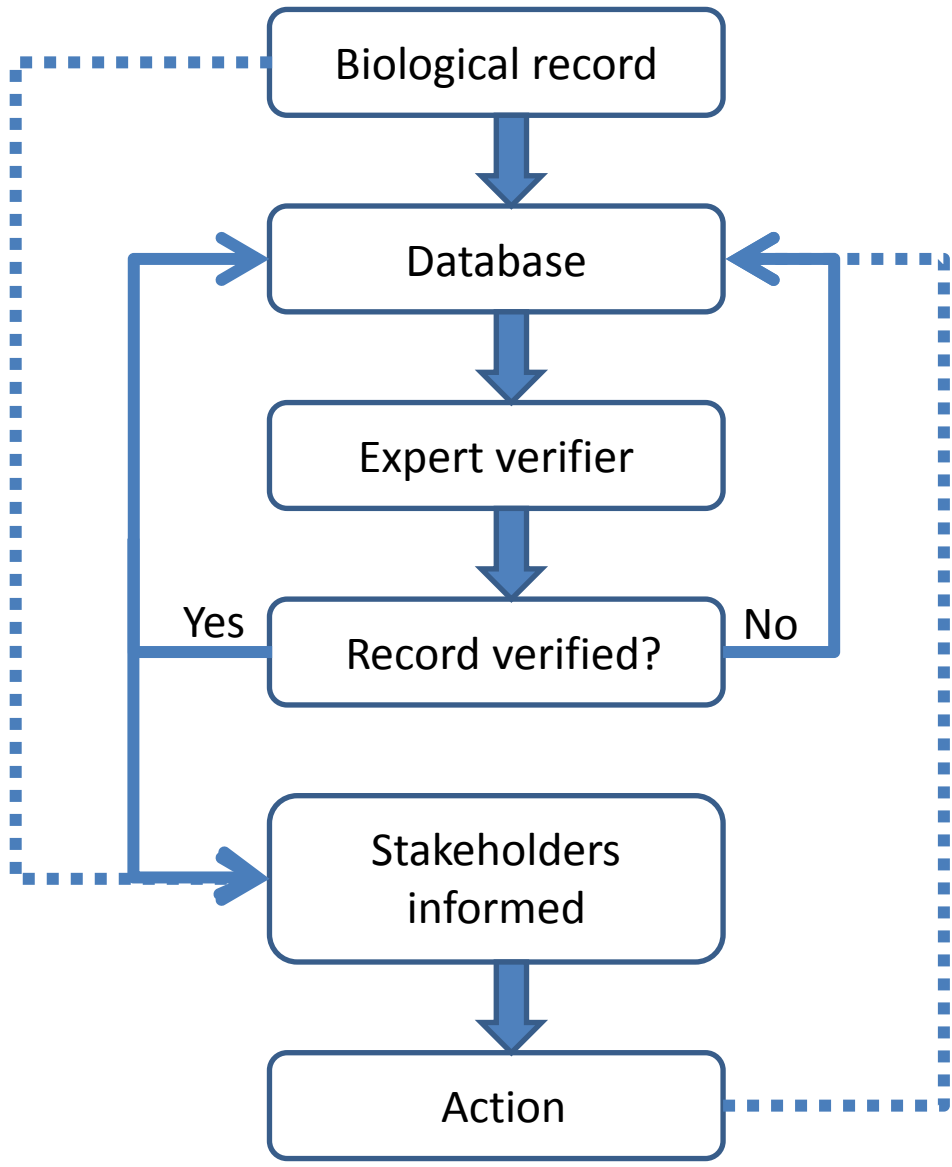


Figure 8

