Turkish Journal of Zoology

Volume 46 | Number 1

Article 1

1-1-2022

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ÇİÇEK, ERDOĞAN; EAGDERI, SOHEIL; and SUNGUR, SEVİL (2022) "A review of the alien fishes of Turkish inland waters," Turkish Journal of Zoology: Vol. 46: No. 1, Article 1. https://doi.org/10.3906/zoo-2109-13 Available at: https://journals.tubitak.gov.tr/zoology/vol46/iss1/1

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Turkish Journal of Zoology

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Review Article

Turk J Zool (2022) 46: 1-13 © TÜBİTAK doi:10.3906/zoo-2109-13

A review of the alien fishes of Turkish inland waters

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Received: 12.09.2021 Accepted/Published Online: 19.12.2021 **Final Version:** 18.01.2022

Abstract: Aquaculture, recreational fishing, restocking, biological control, and the ornamental fish trade have increased the number of nonnative fish in Turkish inland waters. This work reviews the history, current state, and tendencies of fish introductions into Turkish freshwaters. To date, it is known that a total of 34 exotic species (except two marine and three misidentified species) have been introduced deliberately or accidentally into Turkish inland waters, of which, only 19 species have been established in wild ecosystems. A total of five acclimatized species, viz. Coregonus lavaretus, C. macrophthalmus, Salmo salar, Salvelinus alpinus, and S. fontinalis and four species, viz. Hypophthalmichthys molitrix, Ictalurus punctatus, Oreochromis mossambicus, and Sarotherodon galilaeus that still live in closed systems were excluded from the ichthyofauna list of Turkey. The current presence of six species, viz. Acipenser baerii, Hemichromis letourneuxi, Heteropneustes fossilis, hybrid Morone (M. chrysops × M. saxatilis), Pangasius sanitwongsei, and Pygocentrus nattereri needs confirmation as to whether they have been surviving or not in the wild. Some established species, including Carassius gibelio, Gambusia holbrooki, Lepomis gibbosus, and Pseudorasbora parva are considered invasive, and Gymnocephalus cernua is also spreading into the Trachea region.

Key words: Exotic, introduction, invasive, bioinvasion, Anatolia

1. Introduction

Alien or exotic species are transported by human activity into an area outside of their natural range and can be introduced or established, i.e. those not yet established or established self-sustaining populations in the wild, respectively (Gozlan et al., 2010). Fishes are one group of aquatic organisms that have been widely introduced and translocated (Castaldelli et al., 2013; Esmaeili et al., 2013, 2014, 2017). Introducing nonindigenous fishes probably started with *Cyprinus carpio* for rearing in different regions of the world hundreds of years ago (Balon, 2004). During the last century, the introduction of fishes has increased by human activities all over the world, and the main vectors for these are aquaculture, restocking wild stocks, sport fishing, genetic manipulation, bio-control, bio-manipulation, and releasing ornamental fishes deliberately or unintentionally (Copp et al., 2005). Some of these species are threatening for native and endemic fish species (Top-Karakuş and Tarkan, 2021).

Fish biodiversity in many countries is significantly under threat due to the introduction of exotic fishes. Therefore, a better understanding of such an introduction is important for management and conservation of freshwater ecosystems (Castaldelli et al., 2013; KirubaSankar et al., 2018). The negative outcomes of fish introductions are sometimes disregarded because of the economic importance of the introduced species that enhance aquaculture production. However, they have negative impacts due to habitat degradation, pollution, overfishing, etc. (Moyle et al., 1987; Allendorf, 1991; Holcik, 1991; Welcomme, 1992; Cowx, 1998; Witkowski, 2002). In addition, the decline in biodiversity and/or extinction of native species (especially for endemic) also occurred due to hybridization, competition, predation, transferring parasites, and/or diseases, etc. (Uzunova and Zlatanova, 2007).

Carassius auratus (Deveciyan, 1926) was the first introduced fish into the Turkish inland water, followed by Gambusia holbrooki (erroneously given as G. affinis) in the 1930s for biological control of mosquitos (Geldiay and Balk, 2007). In previous studies, the introduction of exotic fish species and their distribution in freshwater habitats of Turkey were reviewed (Çetinkaya 2006; Innal and Erkakan, 2006; Innal, 2012; Tarkan et al., 2015), and additionally, recent introductions have been reported by Kuru (2004), Emiroğlu et al. (2016), Yoğutcuoğlu and Ekmekçi (2018), Türkmen (2019), Innal and Sungur (2019), Yerli (2019), Emiroğlu et al. (2020), Çiçek et al. (2021), and Kirankaya

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and Ekmekçi (2021), extending this inventory to 39 species; however, some of these species need to be excluded from the list. Turkish freshwater ichthyofauna consists of more than 400 species, including nearly 30 exotic species (Kuru et al., 2014; Çiçek et. al., 2015, 2016, 2018, 2020).

Although early reports of an invasive species in a given area are crucial (Holden et al., 2016), systematic surveys on invasive species are rarely performed in Turkey. In this regard, this work aimed to review the history and current state of the fish introductions (i.e. introduction reasons, establishment, success, and economic value in summarized categories) in the Turkish inland waters by providing an updated checklist.

2. Materials and methods

This work is prepared on the basis of our fieldwork data, published sources, and restocking data of freshwater fish species provided by the General Directorate of State Hydraulic Works (DSI) staffs.

The reasons for introduction were divided into five categories as follows:

R1: Aquaculture/research,

R2: Fisheries: enhancement of wild stocks and sports fishing,

R3: Bio-control: to prevent eutrophication, aquatic plants, and pest control,

R4: Ornamental fish industry,

R5: Unknown: Inadvertently introduced by transboundary waterways for no known reason or method.

For establishment success, we partly follow Blackburn et al. (2011):

B1: Individuals have been transported outside of their native range and held in captivity or quarantine,

B2: Individuals have been transported outside of their natural range for cultivation,

B3: Individuals have been transported beyond the limits of their native range and are directly released into the novel environment,

C0: Individuals released into the wild in the location were introduced, but were incapable of surviving for a significant period of time,

C1: Individuals surviving in the wild in the location where they were introduced, but with no reproduction,

C2: Individuals surviving in the wild in the location where they were introduced; reproduction occurs, but the population is not self-sustaining,

C3: Individuals surviving in the wild in the location where they were introduced, reproduction occurring, and the population self-sustaining,

D1: A self-sustaining population in the wild, with individuals surviving a significant distance from the original point of introduction,

D2: A self-sustaining population in the wild, with individuals surviving and reproducing a significant distance from the original point of introduction,

E: Fully invasive species, with individuals dispersing, surviving, and reproducing at multiple sites across a greater or lesser spectrum of habitats and extent of occurrence.

The status of the introduced fishes in the wild was categorized into six groups as follows:

P0: Not found in the wild,

P1: Do not stay in the wild after being released or escaping,

P2: Unknown, needs to be confirmed,

P3: Can be discovered by restocking or fleeing,

P4: Residents of the area,

P5: Widespread,

P6: Invasive.

The establishment success of the previously recorded exotic species can be categorized into four groups as follows:

ES0: Only found in a closed system: never found in the wild, kept only in closed and/or controlled systems (B1, B2).

ES1: Unacclimatized: found in the wild but not reproducing or naturalized (B3, C0),

ES2: Acclimatized: found in the wild, naturalized, not reproducing and self-sustaining, occurrence depends on restocking or escape from closed systems (C1, C2),

ES3: Naturalized (C3, D1, D2),

ES4: Invasive (E).

According to the establishment success status, under the decisions made to be included or excluded from the checklist:

ES0-ES1: Excluded from the ichthyofaunal checklist,

ES2: Questionable to survive in the wild, needs confirmation and therefore excluded from the ichthyofauna checklist but kept on the exotic fish list,

ES3-ES4: There is no doubt about naturalization or continued restocking/escape; they are maintained on exotic and ichthyofauna lists.

To determine economic importance, the categorisation scheme was given as:

E0: Without economic value,

E1: Has economic importance to aquaculture,

E2: Has economic value for stock enhancement, commercial fishing, sport-fishing,

E3: Has economic value for the ornamental fish industry,

E4: Has economic value for bio-control/bio-manipulation,

E5: Has economic value for medical treatment,

E6: Has ecological significance.

3. Results

Previous research has reported that a total of 39 fish species have been reported from Turkey's freshwaters. Of these, two species are marine species, i.e. *Chelon carinatus* and *Planiliza haematocheila* and three others, i.e. *Ameiurus nebulosus, Gambusia affinis* were never transferred to Turkey and are misidentified or erroneously listed in checklists and *Tristramella simonis* was reported by Kuru (2004) but without giving any information on where and when it was introduced to Turkey.

The updated list of the alien fishes of Turkish inland waters is summarized in Table 1. The results revealed that there are 34 introduced fish species belonging to nine orders and 14 families in Turkey.

Aquaculture, as the main reason for introducing fish species with a relatively short history in Turkey, began with the farming of rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus mykiss) (Ergüden Alagöz et al., 2010).1 Then other species, viz. Salmo salar, hybrid Morone (M. chrysops \times M. saxatilis), Acipenser baerii, Ictalurus punctatus, and six tilapia species, including Coptodon zillii, C. rendalli, Oreochromis aureus, O. niloticus, O. mossambicus, and Sarotherodon galilaeus were transferred by investors for fish farming, and universities and governmental institutions for research to improve aquaculture production (Altun et al., 2006; Çetinkaya, 2006; Innal and Erkakan, 2006). Oreochromis niloticus was imported from Israel by the Adana Fish Breeding Centre of DSI (The General Directorate of State Hydraulic Works), then C. zillii, C. rendalli, O. aureus, and S. galilaeus were imported to Çukurova University's fisheries research station (Altun et al., 2006). All of these species were introduced into the wild, first in the Adana Province, and then spread to all the Mediterranean basins of Turkey (Dikel and Çelik, 1998; Celik and Gökçe, 2003; Gürlek and Turan, 2005; Ciçek, 2021; Arslan et al., 2021). In addition, to promote fishing in natural water bodies, economically valuable species, including Coregonus lavaretus and C. macrophthalmus (into Lake Iznik in 1954), Hypophthalmichthys molitrix, Salvelinus alpinus, and S. fontinalis were transferred by governmental organizations (Çetinkaya, 2006). Furthermore, eutrophication of the aquatic ecosystems by anthropogenic activities led to the introduction of some herbivorous fishes such as Ctenopharyngodon idella and H. molitrix by the state (Çetinkaya, 2006). Carassius auratus was introduced to Turkey in the 1900s as an aquarium fish (Deveciyan, 1926). In recent years, the occurrence of the ornamental species, including Clarias batrachus, Hemichromis letourneuxi, Pterygoplichthys disjunctivus, P. pardalis, Pygocentrus nattereri, Pangasius sanitwongsei, Poecilia reticulata, and Xiphophorus hellerii,

were reported from the Turkish inland waters (Emiroğlu et al., 2016, Yoğurtcuoğlu and Ekmekçi, 2018; Turkmen, 2019; Innal and Sungur, 2019; Yerli, 2019; Emiroğlu et al., 2020; Kırankaya and Ekmekçi, 2021). The reasons for some introduced species such as *C. carassius*, *C. gibelio*, *Gymnocephalus cernua*, *Heteropneustes fossilis*, *Hypophthalmichthys nobilis* (for Maritza River population), *Lepomis gibbosus*, and *Pseudorasbora parva* are unknown.

Four out of 34 reported exotic fish species in Turkey have still been kept in closed systems and therefore have not been established, and their presence in natural water bodies needs to be confirmed. The other 30 species were introduced to the wild and are already established.

In addition, 11.8% of the exotic fishes in Turkey live in closed systems, i.e. they are not released or have not escaped into the wild, 14.1% are not acclimatized even if introduced into the wild, 11.8% need confirmation whether they still live in the wild, and 55.9% are reported as established.

Aquaculture is a major reason (32.4%) for introducing freshwater fish species into Turkey, and then ornamental fishes (26.5%), followed by stock enhancement (14.7%) and bio-control (8.8%). However, no reason is known for some species that are categorized as unknown (17.6%). Of the 34 exotic species, 5.0% have no economic value. Nearly half of the introduced freshwater fish species with economic value are used in aquaculture (45.0%), followed by fisheries (25.0%), ornamental industry (20.0%), and bio-control (10.0%).

According to the establishment success status, *H. molitrix, I. punctatus, O. mossambicus*, and *S. galilaeus* are categorised as ESO; however, they have been kept in closed systems in Turkey. *Coregonus lavaretus, C. macrophthalmus, S. salar, S. alpinus*, and *S. fontinalis* are categorised as ES1. The species categorised as both ESO and ES1 are excluded from the ichthyofauna list of Turkey. In addition, *H. molitrix, I. punctatus, O. mossambicus*, and *S. galilaeus. A. baerii, H. fossilis, H. letourneuxi, P. sanitwongsei* and hybrid *Morone (M. chrysops × M. saxatilis)* are categorised as ES2, and excluded from the ichthyofauna list of Turkey. However, they are kept on the exotic fish list of Turkey for further confirmation by specimens.

4. Discussion

Since the last century, the introduction and translocation of fish species have altered the composition of the fish fauna of Turkish freshwater bodies (Çiçek et al., 2020). The economy of Turkey has achieved outstanding performance with its steady growth over the last four decades, and in line with this development, many dams have been constructed

¹ FAO (2005). National Aquaculture Sector Overview Turkey. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Fisheries and Aquaculture Department, http://www.fao.org/fishery/countrysector/naso_turkey/en

Table 1. Chronologic exotic fish list of Turkey with their economic importance, the reason for introduction, establishment success, population and establishment success status. All definitions of abbreviation are explained in the materials and methods section.

Orders	Families	Species	Year	Authors	Listed in CABI/ DIAS	Economic importance	Reasons of introduction	Establishment success	Population status	Establishment success status
Cyprinodontiformes	Poeciliidae	Gambusia holbrooki Girard, 1859	1930's	1,2,3,4,5	X	E4	R3	Е	P6	ES4
Cypriniformes	Cyprinidae	Carassius auratus (Linnaeus, 1758)	1950's	1,2,3,4,5	X	E3	R4	D2	P5	ES3
Salmoniformes	Salmonidae	Coregonus lavaretus (Linnaeus, 1758)	1954	1,2,3,4,5		E2	R2	C0	P0	ES1
Salmoniformes	Salmonidae	Coregonus macrophthalmus Nüsslin, 1882	1954	2,4		E2	R2	C0	P0	ES1
Salmoniformes	Salmonidae	Oncorhynchus mykiss (Walbaum, 1792)	1969	1,2,3,4,5,20	X	E1-E2	R1	C1	Р3	ES2
Cypriniformes	Cyprinidae	Ctenopharyngodon idella (Valenciennes, 1844)	1972	1,2,3,4,5,15		E1-E4	R3	C1	Р3	ES2
Cichliformes	Cichlidae	Oreochromis niloticus (Linnaeus, 1758)	1974	1,2,3,4,5,18,23	X	E1	R1	D2	P5	ES3
Cichliformes	Cichlidae	Coptodon zillii (Gervais, 1848)	1975	1,2,3,4,5,19,23	X	E1	R1	D2	P5	ES3
Cichliformes	Cichlidae	Coptodon rendalli (Boulenger, 1897)	1978	1,2,3,4,19,23		E1	R1	D2	P5	ES3
Cichliformes	Cichlidae	Sarotherodon galilaeus (Linnaeus, 1758)	1978	2,4,19		E1	R1	B1	P1	ES0
Cypriniformes	Cyprinidae	Pseudorasbora parva (Temminck Schlegel, 1846)	1982	1,2,3,4,5,13	X	E0	R5	Е	P6	ES4
Perciformes	Centrarchidae	Lepomis gibbosus Linnaeus, 1758	1982	1,2,3,4,5,13	X	E0	R4	Е	P6	ES4
Cypriniformes	Cyprinidae	Carassius gibelio (Bloch, 1782)	1987	3,4,5,14	X	E1	R5	Е	P6	ES4
Salmoniformes	Salmonidae	Salmo salar Linnaeus, 1758	1988	1,2,3,4,5	X	E1	R1	C0	P1	ES1
Cichliformes	Cichlidae	Oreochromis aureus (Steindachner, 1864)	1989	1,2,3,4,19,23	X	E1	R1	D2	P5	ES3
Cypriniformes	Cyprinidae	Hypophthalmichthys molitrix (Valenciennes, 1844)	1990	1,2,3,4,5,15,22	X	E1-E4	R3	B1	P0	ES0
Cypriniformes	Cyprinidae	Hypophthalmichthys nobilis (Richardson, 1845)	1990	1,2,4,15,27	X	E1	R5	D2	P4	ES3
Siluriformes	Ictaluridae	Ictalurus punctatus (Rafinesque, 1818)	1990	1,2,3,4	X	E1-E2	R1	B1	P0	ES0
Cypriniformes	Cyprinidae	Carassius carassius (Linnaeus, 1758)	1990's	1,2,3,4,5		E2	R5	D2	P5	ES3
Acipenceriformes	Acipenceridae	Acipenser baerii Brandt, 1869	1997	2,3,4,16,28		E1	R1	C2	P2	ES2
Moroniformes	Moronidae	Hybrid Morone (Morone chrysops (Rafinesque, 1820) × Morone saxatilis (Walbaum, 1792))	1999	1,2,3,4,5,17		E1	R1	C2	P2	ES2
Salmoniformes	Salmonidae	Salvelinus alpinus (Linnaeus, 1758)	1999	1,2,3,4,5		E1-E2	R2	C0	P1	ES1
Salmoniformes	Salmonidae	Salvelinus fontinalis (Mitchill, 1814)	1999	1,2,3,4,5	X	E1-E2	R2	C0	P1	ES1
Cichliformes	Cichlidae	Oreochromis mossambicus (Peters, 1852)	2000's	1,3,4	X	E1	R1	B1	P0	ES0
Characiformes	Serrasalmidae	Pygocentrus nattereri Kner, 1858	2006	4,5,21		E3	R4	C1	P2	ES2
Siluriformes	Heteropneustidae	Heteropneustes fossilis (Bloch, 1794)	2006	4,5,12		E2	R5	C3	P4	ES3
Siluriformes	Loricariidae	Hybrid Pterygoplichthys (Pterygoplichthys disjunctivus (Weber, 1991) × Pterygoplichthys pardalis (Castelnau, 1855))	2006	4,5,6,11		E3	R4	С3	P4	ES3

Table 1. (Continued).

Cichliformes	Cichlidae	Hemichromis letourneuxi Sauvage, 1880	2017	8	E3	R4	C1	P2	ES3
Siluriformes	Pangaciidae	Pangasius sanitwongsei Smith, 1931	2017	7	E3	R4	C1	P2	ES2
Cyprinodontiformes	Poeciliidae	Poecilia reticulata Peters, 1859	2019	9	E3	R4	C3	P4	ES3
Salmoniformes	Salmonidae	Coregonus albula (Linnaeus, 1758)	2019	10	E2	R2	C3	P4	ES3
Siluriformes	Clariidae	Clarias batrachus (Linnaeus, 1758)	2020	24	E3	R4	D2	P4	ES3
Perciformes	Percidae	Gymnocephalus cernua Linnaeus, 1758	2021	25	E2	R5	D2	P5	ES3
Cyprinodontiformes	Poeciliidae	Xiphophorus hellerii Heckel, 1848	2021	26	E3	R4	C3	P4	ES3

1) Geldiay and Balık (2007); 2) Çetinkaya (2006); 3) Innal and Erk'akan (2006); 4) Innal (2012); 5) Tarkan et al. (2015); 6) Emiroğlu et al. (2016); 7) Yoğurtçuoğlu and Ekmekçi (2018); 8) Innal and Sungur (2019); 9) Türkmen (2019); 10) Yerli (2019); 11) Yalçın Özdilek (2007); 12) Ünlü et al. (2011); 13) Erk'akan (1983); 14) Baran and Ongan (1988); 15) Erk'akan (1984); 16) Köksal et al. (2000); 17) Kızak and Güner (2014); 18) Sağat¹; 19) Altun et al., (2006); 20) Uysal and Alpbaz (2002); 21) Tarkan (2006); 22) Celayir et al. (2003); 23) Gürlek and Turan (2005); 24) Emiroğlu et al. (2020); 25) Çiçek et al. (2021); 26) Kırankaya and Ekmekçi (2021); 27) Akan²; 28) IHA³

¹ Celayir Y (2020). Personnel communication. DSI IXth Regional Directorates, Keban Dam Aquaculture Department, Fish Farming Facilities. Adana, Turkey

² Sağat Y (2020). Personnel communication. Retired from DSI VIth Regional Directorates, Fish Farming Facilities. Adana, Turkey

³ IHA (2021). https://www.iha.com.tr/haber-keban-baraj-golunde-ikinci-defa-goruntulendi-havyari-tam-2-milyon-liraya-alici-buluyor-993883

in all parts of Turkey. Dam construction was accompanied by intensive fish translocation, cage aquaculture, and restocking activities using both native and exotic fish species, with exotics as the dominant group.

Due to the rapid expansion of aquaculture in many countries, the number of consumed species has substantially increased in recent years. Aquaculture is the major vector for half of the introduced exotic fishes in the world (Shelton and Rothbard, 2006), and 34% (nine species) of those in Turkey, with a short history that started in the late 1960s (FAO 2005). The total aquaculture production of Turkey was 76.248 tons in 2009 and rose to 105.118 tons in 2018.2 Except for O. mykiss, other introduced species for aquaculture purposes are not commonly used, e.g., 12 tons of tilapia was produced in 2018 and A. baerii (2 tons in 2018) were cultured for caviar production (TUIK, 2019). Except O. mossambicus, eight other introduced species for aquaculture purposes are found in the wild. Oncorhynchus mykiss has been successfully established but has not been bred naturally, and its presence depends on escapes from trout farms or restocking. Five tilapia species were imported for research purposes to solve aquaculture problems such as acclimatization, feeding, disease, and hybridization by Cukurova University's fisheries research station. The station's rearing systems were connected to the Seyhan River; therefore, specimens from all five species have escaped into the wild. Among them, the presence of S. galilaeus is questionable because all specimens were lost because of the inability to keep them alive. Later, C. zillii, C. rendalli, O. niloticus, and O. aureus were reported from the waterbodies of Adana, Hatay, Mersin, Antalya, Burdur, and Eskişehir provinces (Dikel and Celik, 1998; Çelik and Gökçe, 2003; Gürlek and Turan, 2005; Emiroğlu, 2011; Ergüden Alagöz, 2013; Innal and Gianetto, 2017; Innal, 2019; Arslan et al., 2021). Interbreeding between the escaped tilapia species is possible and they have probably produced hybrids, reported as Tilapia spp. in the Seyhan River and Köyceğiz Lake (Akın et al., 2005; Buhan et al., 2017). The existence of a C. carassius × C. auratus hybrid has not been solved yet, along with the origin and validation of C. gibelio (Yerli et al., 2014). Recent findings showed a high genetic diversity of C. gibelio in Turkish freshwater habitats (Ağdamar and Tarkan, 2019).

The ornamental fish trade is also a source of accidental introductions of alien fish into the wild. The ornamental fish industry has developed in recent years and their introduction into the wild is not reflected in the scientific

literature as those aquaculture fishes. The most recent aquarium fish introduced into the Turkish inland waters are P. disjunctivus, P. pardalis, P. sanitwongsei, H. letourneuxi, P. reticulata, C. batrachus, and X. hellerii (Yalçın Özdilek, 2007; Emiroğlu et al., 2016, 2018, 2020; Yoğurtcuoğlu and Ekmekçi, 2018; Innal and Sungur, 2019; Türkmen, 2019; Kırankaya and Ekmekçi, 2021). The number of introduced ornamental fishes is limited, with a few individuals found locally and some of them naturalized in small habitats. The establishment of P. disjunctivus and P. pardalis in Eskişehir (Emiroğlu et al., 2016), of P. reticulata in İzmir and Malatya provinces (Turkmen 2019; Kırankaya and Ekmekçi, 2021), and of X. hellerii in Malatya province (Kırankaya and Ekmekçi, 2021) has been reported. However, it is probable that specimens of the genus Pterygoplichthys are hybrids of P. disjunctivus × P. pardalis (Wu et al., 2011). Emiroğlu et al. (2016) reported the presence of hybrid individuals in Eskişehir, likely reported by Godwin et al. (2016). Reevaluation of these established species is suggested to better understand their adaptation processes for further management measures.

Poecilia reticulate and X. hellerii are the most popular ornamental fishes in the world. Poecilia reticulate was reported from natural freshwaters in the aquifer of Çeşme-Ildır (İzmir) (Türkmen, 2017). Later, both of them were discovered in a hot spring habitat, namely a stream in the Tohma River drainage (Euphrates basin) (Kırankaya and Ekmekçi, 2021). These exotic species cannot tolerate cold waters. Therefore, they have limited distributions because of their thermal tolerance. Hence, it is recommend to eliminate them in the area where they were naturally introduced.

The introduction of grass carp, *C. idella* allows applying the so-called "top-down control" to improve water quality (Uzunova and Zlatanova, 2007). This species is mainly stocked in some dams and irrigation channels in Adana and Gaziantep provinces, the southern parts of Turkey, to prevent aquatic weed growth.³,⁴ Additionally, *H. molitrix* and *H. nobilis* were used as bio-manipulators to prevent eutrophication. Introduction of these two species previously reported, but probably *H. molitrix* transferred by DSI and no information available regarding transferring of *H. nobilis* to Turkey and also their artificial propagation and rearing programs as warm water candidates were unsuccessful.⁵ Recently, *H. nobilis* has been caught from the Maritza River (41°06′40.84″N-26°19′54.18″N) by sport fishing.⁶ This species was reported from Greece and

² TUIK (2019). Turkish Statistical Institute. Fishery Statistics; Available from http://www.tuik.gov.tr/PreHaberBultenleri.do?id=30697, 20.12.2019

³ Celayir Y (2020). Personnel communication. DSI IXth Regional Directorates, Keban Dam Aquaculture Department, Fish Farming Facilities. Adana, Turkey

⁴ Sağat Y (2020). Personnel communication. Retired from DSI VIth Regional Directorates, Fish Farming Facilities. Adana, Turkey

⁵ Celayir Y (2020). Personnel communication. DSI IXth Regional Directorates, Keban Dam Aquaculture Department, Fish Farming Facilities. Adana, Turkey

⁶ Akan E (2021). Personnel communication. Balik Yurdu. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iJnZSppwwI8

Bulgaria as an exotic species (Uzunova and Zlatanova, 2007; Barbieri et al., 2015) and it probably entered the Trachea Region by transboundary waterways.

A total of six salmonid-like species, viz., *C. lavaretus*, *C. macrophthalmus*, *S. alpinus*, *S. fontinalis* for enhancement of fisheries, and *O. mykiss* and *S. salar* for aquaculture purposes, have been introduced (Çetinkaya 2006; Innal and Erkakan, 2006; Innal, 2012; Tarkan et al., 2015). However, except for *O. mykiss*, their successful establishment was not reported, and their current survival has not been confirmed yet by specimens. Furthermore, the establishment of *C. albula* has been reported from the Aktaş Lake, located on the border of Georgia and Turkey (Yerli, 2019), probably introduced accidentally by the Georgian part.

The introduction reasons of *C. carassius*, *C. gibelio*, *G. cernua*, *H. fossilis*, *H. nobilis* (Maritza population), *P. parva*, and *L. gibbosus* are unknown (Özcan, 2007a, Özcan, 2007b; Innal, 2011, 2012; Tarhan et al., 2012, 2015; Özcan and Tarhan, 2019; Çiçek et al., 2021). The first five species have low economic value, and the two latter species have no economic value. *Carassius gibelio* and *P. parva* have been successfully naturalized, extending their distribution range in Turkish inland waters (Özcan, 2007a; Tarkan et al., 2012; Yerli et al., 2014; Özcan and Tarhan, 2019) and probably introduced with the restocking of *C. carpio* or other Chinese carps, i.e. *C. idella*, into dams (Radkhah et al., 2016; Eagderi and Moradi, 2017; Eagderi et al., 2018).

The presence of *G. cernua* has also been documented in several aquatic ecosystems outside of its native range in Europe. This species is considered an efficient invader due to its adaptability to tolerate a high range of environmental conditions related to salinity, eutrophication, temperature, turbidity, etc. (Petriki et al., 2014). Recently, this species was observed in some lakes in the Maritza-Ergene Basin (Çiçek et al., 2021). However, this species was also reported by Deveciyan (1926) as *Acerina cernua*. Therefore, it is debatable whether this species is exotic or natural.

4.1. Effects of introduction

The introduction of some exotic fishes, particularly into inland waters, has had catastrophic ecological and economic consequences such as competition, predation, habitat change, genetic change, and transmission of pathogens (Elvira, 2001; Cambray, 2003; Cucherousset and Olden, 2011; Garcia-Berthou and Moyle, 2011). Introductions of exotic fish are always considered risky for the native fish fauna. Some species such as *C. gibelio*, *P. parva*, and *L. gibbosus* are dominant biomass in some lakes and reservoirs of Turkey (Çetinkaya, 2006; Innal and Erkakan, 2006; Özcan, 2007a, Özcan, 2007b; Innal, 2011, 2012; Tarkan et al., 2012, 2015; Ekmekçi et al., 2013; Yerli et al., 2014; 2019; Mangıt et al., 2018; Kurtul and Sarı, 2019a; Özcan and Tarkan, 2019). Furthermore, they are reported

from new localities every year, nearly distributed in all the freshwater basins of Turkey. The wide environmental tolerances of these species are their advantages in this regard. After the introduction and translocation of the exotic fishes, the fish compositions are significantly changed, as seen in the Beyşehir, Eğridir, and Çıldır lakes where C. gibelio is the main component of fishing activities in these lakes. In addition, these introductions have increased taxonomic and functional faunal similarity among regions in the Mediterranean climate region (Marr et al., 2013). Studies regarding the impact of introduced fishes on native fishes and fish biodiversity are rare in Turkey, and adverse consequences of exotics have been ignored due to their economic significance in other countries (Elvira and Almodovar, 2001; Cucherousset and Olden, 2011). Peculiarly, despite a great number of the introduced fishes, those with economic values had not established in Turkish freshwater aquatic ecosystems.

Another negative effect of fish introduction is the spread of diseases or parasites. Large-scale international transfers of fish have been proposed as the source of exotic pathogen introduction that have caused enormous ecological and economic impacts in the receptor country. Many new parasites have been transferred and established in native fishes as a result of the introduction of exotic fish species into Bulgarian waters (Uzunova and Zlatanova, 2007; Cikova et al., 2004). There are few studies on this subject in Turkey, e.g., *Sphareothecum destruens*, a generalist pathogen, was reported from *P. parva* in Turkey (Sarıçay River, Milas, SE Turkey) (Gozlan et al., 2009), then transferred to sea bass farms (Ercan et al., 2015).

The introduction of exotic fishes can lead to the extinction of native species (Raikova-Petrova et al., 2004; Apostolos, 2005). The mosquito fish was introduced in various freshwater habitats of Turkey and there are many reports regarding its serious threat to Aphanius species (Wildkamp and Valkenburg, 1994; Kurtul and Sarı, 2019a). The negative effects of some exotic species such as *P. parva*, C. gibelio, L. gibbosus, and O. mykiss have been pointed out in some works without any real field experiments (Özcan, 2007a; Tarkan et al., 2012; Ekmekçi et al., 2013; Yerli et al., 2014; Özcan and Tarhan, 2019). Recently, Top-Karakuş and Tarkan (2021) represented the relationship between Capoeta aydinensis and L. gibbosus in an ex situ growth experiment. They revealed that the specific growth rate of *C*. aydinensis was the lowest, while the number of L. gibbosus increased. The possible impact of the introduced fishes in Turkey on the native fish biodiversity is still unknown and needs further studies. A control program has been initiated for P. parva in the UK, and bio-manipulation has been found to be a more effective and cheaper way than eradication (Britton et al., 2010). That could be a proper example to conduct in Turkey.

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Table 2. Recent status of previously reported exotic freshwater fishes of Turkey.

Species	Exotic fish list	Freshwater ichthyofauna of Turkey	Reason of exclusion
Chelon carinatus	Exclude	Exclude	The species is a pure marine species. Not found in the freshwater.
Planiliza haematocheila	Exclude	Exclude	The species is a pure marine species. Not found in the freshwater.
Ameiurus nebulosus	Exclude	Exclude	Probably never transferred to Turkey. Misidentified by Erençin et al. (1971)
Tristramella simonis	Exclude	Exclude	Probably never introduced to Turkey or misidentified. If introduced not established.
Gambusia affinis	Exclude	Exclude	Never transferred to Turkey. <i>Gambusia holbrooki</i> reported as <i>G. affinis</i> in the previous studies.
Ictalurus punctatus	Exclude	Exclude	Keep in closed system for research. Never introduced into the wild.
Sarotherodon galilaeus	Exclude	Exclude	Keep in closed system for aquaculture. Probably never introduced in the wild, If introduced not established.
Hypophthalmichthys molitrix	Exclude	Exclude	Not established in the wild. Keep in closed system for research.
Oreochromis mossambicus	Exclude	Exclude	Keep in closed system for research. Never introduced in the wild.
Coregonus lavaretus	Exclude	Exclude	Not established
Coregonus macrophthalmus	Exclude	Exclude	Not established
Salmo salar	Exclude	Exclude	Not established
Salvelinus alpinus	Exclude	Exclude	Not established
Salvelinus fontinalis	Exclude	Exclude	Not established
Acipenser baerii	Questionable	Exclude	Need to confirmation to still alive in the wild
Hemichromis letourneuxi	Questionable	Exclude	Need to confirmation to still alive in the wild
Heteropneustes fossilis	Questionable	Exclude	Need to confirmation to still alive in the wild
Hybrid <i>Morone</i> (<i>M. chrysops</i> × <i>M. saxatilis</i>)	Questionable	Exclude	Need to confirmation to still alive in the wild
Pangasius sanitwongsei	Questionable	Exclude	Need to confirmation to still alive in the wild
Pygocentrus nattereri	Questionable	Exclude	Need to confirmation to still alive in the wild
Carassius auratus	X	X	
Carassius carassius	X	X	
Carassius gibelio	X	X	
Clarias batrachus	X	X	
Coptodon rendalli	X	X	
Coptodon zillii	X	X	
Coregonus albula	X	X	
Ctenopharyngodon idella	X	X	
Gambusia holbrooki	X	X	
Gymnocephalus cernua	X	X	
Hypophthalmichthys nobilis	X	X	

Table 2. (Continued).

Lepomis gibbosus	X	X	
Oncorhynchus mykiss	X	X	
Oreochromis aureus	X	X	
Oreochromis niloticus	X	X	
Poecilia reticulata	X	X	
Pseudorasbora parva	X	X	
Hybrid Pterygoplichthys (P. disjunctivus × P. pardalis)	X	X	
Xiphophorus hellerii	X	X	

4.2. Legislative frames of the exotic fish introductions

There are national and international regulations to prevent the spread of alien fishes, the threat of biological diversity, and the destruction of native fish species' genotypes and genetic resources. Regulations, communications, and other relevant national legislation issued based on the fisheries law, as well as the legislation of the European Union and other international legislation and treaties, are relevant for the control of exotic fish introductions (Atalay and Toslak, 2013) that should be implemented by government institutions. The legal background for the introduction of exotic species into Turkey are; 1) Fisheries and Aquaculture Law (Official Gazette N 13799/04.04.1971), 2) Fisheries and Aquaculture Ordinance (Official Gazette N 22223/10.03.1995), 3) Biodiversity Act (State Gazette N 22860/27.12.1996), and 4) Prevention and Management of the Introduction and Spread of Invasive Alien Species (2013/0307/COD, Proposal for a Regulation of the European Parliament and the Council). Hence, there is an urgent need to prepare a legal regulation regarding the entry of foreign species into Turkey to control and prevent their effects on aquatic ecosystems.

4.3. Range extension

While some exotic species, such as *C. gibelio*, *G. holbrooki*, *L. gibbosus*, and *P. parva*, spread rapidly and colonized aquatic habitats in the Anatolia region, becoming invasive, others, e.g., *S. alpinus*, *S. fontinalis C. lavaretus*, and *C. macrophthalmus* have failed to establish self-sustaining populations. Tilapia are warm-water species naturally distributed in tropical areas. The Mediterranean coast of Turkey is relatively suitable for them to survive, as it is observed that they become invasive in some habitats (e.g. Lake Gölbaşı, Hatay). Previous studies carried out on *L. gibbosus* have shown that invasion success is greatest in warmer environments (Fobert et al., 2013) and further climate change will probably increase the establishment of new populations of the alien fish. Hence, invasive species such as *C. zillii*, *C. rendalli*, *O. niloticus*, *O. aureus*, and

L. gibbosus in Turkey will also be expected to expand their distribution ranges. Unwanted and uncontrolled expansion of alien fishes in Turkey can be illustrated by C. gibelio (Özcan, 2007b; Yerli et al., 2014), G. holbrooki (Kurtul and Sarı, 2019a, b), P. parva (Özcan and Tarkan, 2019), which are found in all basins of Turkey and L. gibbosus distributed in the Marmara and Aegean regions, and they have been spreading to new localities (Özcan, 2007a). Recently, the spread of G. cernua into the Trachea region has been reported (Çiçek et al., 2020).

5. Conclusion

As a conclusion, a total of 34 exotic fishes have been reported from Turkey, of which 19 species have successfully established in the wild (Table 2). The establishment success of some species in Turkish freshwater is controversial. Therefore, we decided to provide such a checklist to show further areas that need to be investigated by reevaluating them. In this list, species that have not been introduced into the wild and naturalized species are suggested to be excluded from the ichthyofauna list of Turkey (ES0/ES1). Questionable species need confirmation by specimens (ES2). According to the establishment success status, 20 species are excluded from the list of freshwater ichthyofauna of Turkey, and A. baerii, H. fossilis, H. letourneuxi, P. nattereri, P. sanitwongsei, and hybrid *Morone* (M. $chrysops \times M$. saxatilis) are kept on the exotic fish list as questionable until confirmation by specimen. However, two specimens of A. baerii were recently caught surprisingly by two different fishermen in Keban Dam Lake and are probably intentionally released from the fish farms. The status of this species should be clarified with further studies.7

The introduction of pathogens, habitat shifting, competition, predation, genetic changes, and effects of climate change on exotic species need more research. The introduction of exotic species is an extraordinarily complex issue, and understanding of their risks requires

⁷ IHA (2021). https://www.iha.com.tr/haber-keban-baraj-golunde-ikinci-defa-goruntulendi-havyari-tam-2-milyon-liraya-alici-buluyor-993883/

comparative studies. In international organizations, there is a lack of knowledge about the exotic freshwater fishes of Turkey. A total of 17 exotic species have been listed in CABI and GISD.^{8,9} However, erroneous reports of some species, e.g., *A. nebulosus* (Le Sueur, 1819) are found in their list. Therefore, country-specific data should be provided to CABI, GISD, Fishbase, and other international organisations. Furthermore, it is suggested that new introductions should not be permitted without any scientific evaluation, particularly those of hotspots.

Research, education, and strict control are the key tools to prevent the spread of alien fish species (Uzunova and Zlatanova, 2007).

Acknowledgments

The authors are thankful to Prof. Dr Hamid Reza Esmaeili (Shiraz University), Prof. Dr Deniz Ergüden (Iskenderun Technical University), Prof. Dr Deniz Innal (Mehmet Akif Ersoy University) and Burak Seçer (Nevsehir HBV University) for the valuable suggestions and help provided.

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⁸ CABI (2020). Invasive Species Compendium, Turkey. https://www.cabi.org/isc/datasheet/108587#tolistOfSpecies

⁹ GISD (2020). The global invasive species database. http://www.iucngisd.org/gisd/search.php

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