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The invasion history of *Elodea canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* (Hydrocharitaceae) in Italy from herbarium accessions, field records and historical literature

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1 The invasion history of *Elodea canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* (Hydrocharitaceae) in Italy from
2 herbarium accessions, field records and historical literature

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91 **Key words**

92 aquatic alien species, invasive species, freshwater, herbarium samples, floristic records, historical
93 records, macrophytes

94

95

96 **Abstract**

97 We analysed the invasion history of two North American macrophytes (*Elodea canadensis* and *E.*
98 *nutallii*) in Italy, through an accurate census of all available herbarium and field records, dating
99 between 1850 and 2019, and a rich literature collection describing the initial introduction and
100 naturalisation phase that supports the results obtained by the occurrence records. *Elodea canadensis*
101 arrived in Italy before 1866 and had two invasion phases, between the 1890s and 1920s and between

102 the 1990s and 2000s; *E. nuttallii*, probably arrived in the 1970s, started invading in 2000 and the
103 invasion is still ongoing. Botanical gardens and fish farming played a crucial role in dispersal and
104 naturalisation of both species.

105 The current invasion range of both species is centred in northern Italy, with scattered occurrences of
106 *E. canadensis* in central and southern regions. River Po represents a dispersal barrier to the
107 Mediterranean region and a strategic monitoring site to prevent the invasion in the peninsula.

108 The study detects differences in the niches of the two species during the introduction and
109 naturalisation phase and a habitat switch occurred after 1980 in *E. canadensis* and after 2000 in *E.*
110 *nuttallii*, during their expansion phases. For *E. canadensis* the switch corresponds to the second
111 invasion round. Further research can clarify whether the second invasion round is due to confusion
112 of the recently introduced *E. nuttallii* with *E. canadensis*, to a cryptic introduction of a new genotype,
113 to post-introduction evolution, or just to an increased scientific interest in biological invasions.

114

115

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118 further occurrence records (both herbaria and field data).

1. Introduction

Biological invasions are one of the great challenges that ecosystems are facing under a scenario of global climate change and increasing human pressure (Simberloff and Rejmánek 2012; Pyšek et al. 2020). This is especially true for freshwater ecosystems, which are among the most threatened of the Earth (Brundu 2015) and most affected by biological invasions (Pyšek et al. 2010; Bolpagni 2021). On a European scale, for example, out of 36 invasive plant species of European Union concern, 13 are hydro- or hygrophilous plants (EU Regulation no. 1143/2014; European Commission 2017, 2019). Aquatic invasions are associated with the almost total alteration of aquatic habitats and trophic conditions by human activities (Wärner et al. 2011; Brundu 2015). The most invaded areas are, in fact, the most economically developed and densely populated (Malavasi et al. 2018; Boscutti et al. 2022). Human pressure and disturbance provide windows of opportunity for which alien species are extremely competitive (Pyšek and Prach 1994; Pyšek et al. 1998; Brundu et al. 2012; Bolpagni 2021). Since 1945, the number and abundance of aquatic alien species have increased because of increased trade (mostly as ornamental and aquarium species, but also for scientific research and phytoremediation – Kay and Hoyle 2001; Brundu 2015), water eutrophication and global warming (Hussner 2009; Bolpagni et al. 2015; Lazzaro et al. 2020). Shifted species assemblages have profoundly modified aquatic biodiversity and ecosystem functioning in many European wetlands (Rodríguez-Merino et al. 2018).

Diversity changes in plant communities are generally well documented in herbarium collections, because the new incomers spark scientific interest for their systematic or environmental significance, especially in the early stage of invasion (Stinca et al. 2021, Spampinato et al. 2022). Herbaria are important sources of historical data, especially for ecosystems like wetlands that have undergone dramatic changes in the last centuries (Domina et al. 2020). Despite the many biases associated with opportunistic and non-systematic plant collections (Daru et al. 2018), herbaria can be considered as unique repositories of phytogeographical data and one of the most accurate data sources to reconstruct events that occurred in the past. Therefore, the role of herbarium records has widened in recent years, from cataloging the diversity of life to documenting biodiversity changes (Muller 2016; Nualart et al. 2017; Lang et al. 2019) and tracing spatio-temporal invasion patterns (Lavoie 2013; Muller 2015).

Elodea canadensis Michx. (Hydrocharitaceae; fig. 1) is a submersed macrophyte with a long invasion history in Europe, resulting in a large number of specimens in the European and Italian public herbaria. Its invasion history is particularly interesting because, about one century after its introduction, another closely related species, *E. nuttallii* (Planch.) H. St. John (fig. 2), was recorded in Europe and has ever since competed with *E. canadensis* for the same habitat, and even outcompeted it in many of the habitats previously invaded by the latter (Simpson 1990; Erhard and Gross 2006;

153 Greulich and Trémolières 2006; Zehnsdorf et al. 2015). The first records of these species in Europe
154 date back to 1836 (northern Ireland) for *E. canadensis* and 1939 (Belgium) for *E. nuttallii* (Wolff
155 1980; Simpson 1984). The more aggressive invasion by *E. nuttallii* suggests that *E. canadensis*
156 invasion should be slowing down or even declining (post-invasion status), whereas *E. nuttallii* should
157 be in a phase of exponential spread. *E. nuttallii* is in fact shortlisted among the invasive alien species
158 of European Union concern for which early eradication and/or control are mandatory (European
159 Commission 2017, 2019).

160 Both species are perennial rooting hydrophytes, native to stagnant to flowing freshwaters of North
161 America. The leaf shape can distinguish them: from ovate to linear-oblong (occasionally linear-
162 lanceolate) with apex broadly acute to obtuse in *E. canadensis*, linear or linear-lanceolate with apex
163 narrowly acute to acuminate in *E. nuttallii* (Simpson 1988). Apart from these slight morphological
164 differences, the two species have analogous ecological needs: there are no precise limits between the
165 functional niches of *E. canadensis* and *E. nuttallii*, so that they were defined as true ecological
166 redundants (Hérault et al. 2008; Bubíková et al. 2021). Both have fast growth and spreading ability,
167 due to their exclusively vegetative propagation (only female individuals are known in Europe, see
168 Walters 1980), and high phenotypic plasticity (Agrawal 2001; Riis et al. 2010; Hérault et al. 2008;
169 Kočić et al. 2014), excellent qualities for invasive species. In Italy, two morphotypes are known for
170 *E. nuttallii*, often co-occurring, and cases of intra-individual heterophylly were also reported; one
171 morphotype has short and curved leaves, the other has long and flat or more or less twisted leaves
172 (Banfi and Galasso 2010). In Europe, the latter was sometimes interpreted as a separate species, *E.*
173 *callitrichoides* (Rich.) Casp. (e.g. Wolff 1980; Vanderpoorten et al. 2000), but morphological and
174 genetic analyses demonstrated that these morphotypes are two different phenotypes of the same
175 species, *E. nuttallii* (Vanderpoorten et al. 2000). This phenotypic variability confounds the taxonomy
176 of the two *Elodea* species and contributes to their misidentification (cfr. Kočić et al. 2014 and
177 references therein).

178 Because of their large and dense monospecific populations, *E. canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* are
179 considered ecosystem-transforming species (Buccheri et al. 2019). Communities dominated or co-
180 dominated by *E. canadensis* and/or *E. nuttalli* are included in the *Potametea pectinati* Klika in Klika
181 & V. Novák 1941 syntaxonomic class, and represent about 10% of aquatic alien-dominated plant
182 communities in Italy (cfr. Viciani et al. 2020; Castello et al. 2021).

183

184 The aim of this study was to reconstruct the invasion history, dynamics and current distribution of *E.*
185 *canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* in Italy based on occurrences from herbarium specimens, field records
186 and historical literature.

187 Since many new alien species are continuously arriving in Europe and Italy, we aimed at
188 understanding *a posteriori* what happened in the first invasion phases of these two hydrophytes, to
189 learn from past invasions how to interpret, monitor and manage current and future introductions of
190 alien aquatic plant species.

191

192

193 **2. Materials and Methods**

194 **2.1 Data sources**

195 Occurrence records of *E. canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* dating between 1850 and 2019 were collected
196 from June 2019 to November 2020 from 41 independent sources, including 36 Italian herbaria owned
197 by Italian universities or scientific museums and 4 private herbaria (hereafter mentioned as
198 «herbarium records»; herbarium identification codes follow Thiers 2022). Additional data were
199 collected from published sources (floristic checklists, local floras or other floristic records; hereafter
200 «published records») and from unpublished floristic or vegetation data (observations, relevés etc.)
201 collected in the field by the authors in the period 1990-2020 (hereafter «field records»).

202 Herbarium specimens were searched through the currently accepted names and their synonyms; in
203 particular, for *E. canadensis* we searched for *Anacharis alsinastrum* Planch., *A. canadensis* (Michx.)
204 Planch., *Elodea canadensis* Michx., *Philotria canadensis* (Michx.) Britton, while for *E. nuttalli* we
205 searched for *Anacharis nuttallii* Planch. and *Philotria nuttallii* (Planch.) Rydb. Species identification
206 was checked and corrected, whenever necessary, by the authors and herbarium curators.

207 In total, our database included 1131 records (877 of *E. canadensis*, 254 of *E. nuttallii*), of which 506
208 herbarium records, 584 published records and 41 field records (Supplementary material).

209 A parallel historical literature search, describing the introduction history of *E. canadensis* and *E.*
210 *nuttallii* to Italy until their inclusion in the Italian flora, served as a reference to crosscheck
211 introduction pathways, dates, and localities (hereafter «historical literature»). For *E. canadensis* we
212 searched on Google Books (<https://books.google.com>) in October 2020, using the key words «*Elodea*
213 *canadensis*» and the previously mentioned synonyms. We selected only Italian sources dating
214 between 1850 and 1900. For *E. nuttalli*, that was introduced in more recent times, we also screened
215 grey literature accompanying the first field records of the species in Italy, between 1985 and 2005.

216

217 **2.2 Standardising and georeferencing data**

218 For each occurrence record we retained the following information: coordinates (when available)
219 and/or location (i.e. described locality), collection date, habitat and collector.

220 When coordinates were not available, the occurrences were georeferenced based on the locality
221 description using *Google Hybrid* maps available in QGIS (Imagery 2021, © Google) and the toponym
222 layer repository available on the Geoportale Nazionale
223 (http://wms.pcn.minambiente.it/ogc?map=/ms_ogc/WMS_v1.3/Vettoriali/Toponimi_2011.map). If
224 a locality corresponded to an administrative division (municipality, province, region), the coordinates
225 were referred to the centroid of that unit. For this purpose, the ISTAT (National Institute of Statistics,
226 www.istat.it) polygon layers of the administrative boundaries chronologically closest to the collection
227 date of a record were used. ISTAT layers are available about every 10 years from 1861 to 2001 and
228 every year from 2002 to today. Overall, for 632 records the coordinates were already available; for
229 314 records the coordinates were obtained by finding the locality using *Google Hybrid*; 170 records
230 were referred to the centroid of the administrative unit: 109 to the municipality level, 48 to the
231 province level, 13 to the region level. Only 14 records had no spatial data. The reference system used
232 for all coordinate pairs was WGS84 (EPSG 4326). A radius was associated to each pair of coordinates
233 in order to measure the uncertainty of a locality linked to the georeferencing procedure.

234

235 Concerning collection date, 755 records had a complete date (day, month and year), 52 had only
236 month and year, 255 had only the year, 68 had no date.

237 After removing records missing spatial and/or temporal information, the final dataset consisted in 805
238 records of *E. canadensis* and 248 records of *E. nuttallii*.

239 Finally, habitat information derived from the herbarium specimen labels, which was reported in a
240 wide range of formats, was classified into the following 13 habitat types: BAS (basins, fountains,
241 troughs and small artificial water bodies with still water), BGA (botanical gardens), BOG (bogs and
242 peatlands), CAN (artificial canals, including city canals, wastewater canals, agricultural ditches and
243 any man-made canals with running water), LAK (natural lakes), MAR (marshes and swamps), PIS
244 (pisciculture ponds), PON (natural ponds), RIV (natural rivers), RFI (rice pads and associated
245 ditches), SPR (springs), WET (wet meadows, flooded forests) and OTH (other habitats, occasional in
246 frequency or poorly described, like woodlands, fields, filtering systems, etc.).

247

248 **2.3 Data analysis**

249 **2.3.1 Occurrence mapping**

250 For each of the two *Elodea* species, we mapped the occurrence records in different time periods in
251 order to observe different invasion phases. Four distribution maps were produced for *E. canadensis*
252 (periods 1850-1900, 1901-1950, 1951-1980 and 1981-2019) and two for *E. nuttallii* (1980-2000 and
253 2001-2019).

254 In order to avoid redundancy and reduce the bias associated with different collection efforts in
255 different areas, while maintaining spatial information (Antunes and Schamp 2017), the georeferenced
256 records of each species were thinned by overlaying a grid and extracting only one record per grid-
257 cell per year. For this purpose we used the Italian 177 cells of the 10 km × 10 km grid by Cervellini
258 et al. (2020), that follows the requirements of article 17 of the Habitats Directive (92/43/EEC). Each
259 grid-cell is assigned to one European biogeographical region and indicates Nature 2000 habitats that
260 it contains (Cervellini et al. 2020). We used gridded data for the period 2000-2019, to test differences
261 between the two species in biogeographic distribution, habitats threatened by the occurrence of the
262 species within the cell, and main land use. For land use we extrapolated the amount of urban and
263 agricultural areas in cells where the two species occur or co-occur by intersecting the grid cells with
264 the 2012 CORINE Land Cover layer (www.isprambiente.gov.it). Differences between agricultural
265 and urban areas were tested between species with a one way-ANOVA (PAST 4.03; Hammer et al.
266 2001). Data mapping and spatial analysis were performed with QGIS version 3.12.2 (www.qgis.org).
267

268 2.3.2 Invasion curves

269 Invasion curves based on cumulative numbers of occurrence records over time can define three main
270 invasion phases: lag, exponential growth and plateau (Pyšek and Prach 1993; Blackburn et al. 2011;
271 Antunes and Schamp 2017). The temporal length of these three phases and the rate of spread, defined
272 by the derivative of the curve, can vary from species to species (Crawford and Hoagland 2009;
273 Antunes and Schamp 2017; Ceschin et al. 2018) and can be useful to understand, *a posteriori*, how
274 invasions evolved. We used the thinned and gridded dataset of records to construct the invasion
275 curves of *E. canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* in Italy and calculate the curve slope of their linear models.
276

278 3. Results

279 3.1 Invasion history from occurrence records and historical literature

280 A herbarium specimen of *E. canadensis* with a hypothetical date (1880?) from the Province of
281 Mantova in northern Italy (*Leg. F. Masè, s.d., in MSPC; Table 1*) might be the most ancient specimen
282 on a national scale if the collection date could be confirmed. The first certain herbarium accessions
283 are two samples of 1888 collected in northern Italy, around Lake Como (*Leg. M. Longa, 7-1888, in*
284 *FI; Leg. M. Longa, det. G. Camperio, 7-1888, in FI; Table 1*). The first Italian published record that
285 we could trace in the historical literature, documenting the occurrence of *E. canadensis* in the wild,
286 dates back to 1873 (Goiran 1897: San Michele Extra, near Verona, northern Italy), but However, for
287 some years before 1873 the species had been the object of an intense samples' exchange for scientific

research: in 1866 *E. canadensis* was sent to Mantova botanic garden, in 1867 it was introduced in the Botanic Garden of Padova and, shortly thereafter, then it started naturalising in the Italian territory (Paglia 1879; Bozzi 1888; Banfi and Galasso 2010). The species was included in the Italian national flora in 1908 (Fiori and Paoletti 1896-1908). The historical literature shows that the species was present in Europe in the XIXth century and was cited for the first time in Italian literature by Antonio Stoppani (1873), who reported a possible introduction to northern Europe from North America with timber rafts and documented the invasive spreading in European freshwater causing problems to river navigation. Between 1873 and 1908, the species was used in fish farming and its response to carbon and light was tested experimentally (Tolomei 1893). Some scientists even suggested its introduction in malarial wetlands (Gasperini 1890) as a natural remedy against mosquitoes (note that in Italy malaria was eradicated only in the 1950s).

The herbarium records show that in 1900 *E. canadensis* was already naturalised and widespread in northern Italy, while in the Mediterranean region it was cultivated in the Botanic Gardens of Pisa (Leg. P. Pellegrini, 6-1892, in PI) and Rome (Leg. E. Chiovenda, 23-5-1899, in BOLO) and occurred in canals nearby and fishponds of the Royal Palace of Caserta, in southern Italy (Fiori 1895; fig. 31a). At the end of 1800 it was naturalised in ditches in the territory of Padova, in northern Italy: three herbarium specimens prove the occurrence of *E. canadensis* in the countryside ca. 25 km from Padova (Leg. U. Ugolini, 1892, in PAD), in town (Leg. Adr. Fiori, 6-1894, in FI), and in the ditches of Padova Agricultural Garden (Leg. L. Vaccari, 11-1895, in FI; Table 1). In the subsequent years the expansion was more intense in the continental (northern Italy) than in the Mediterranean region (figs. 31b-c-d). Additional herbarium specimens come from new streams close to Padova Botanic Garden and the Royal Palace of Caserta (1901-1950, fig. 31b) and from streams close to Pisa Botanic Garden (1901-2019, figs. 13b-c-d). According to our reconstruction, the most aggressive invasion phase was in the period 1980-2019 (fig. 31d), that counts 545 more herbarium records than in the period 1950-1980 (fig. 31c). In the most recent map (1981-2019, fig. 31d) it is possible to identify long river stretches invaded by *E. canadensis* along the north-south valleys of big Italian rivers that originate in the Alps (like River Adige), and scattered occurrences in the Mediterranean region that cannot be obviously connected to botanic gardens or other sources.

316

The first Italian herbarium record of *E. nuttalli* dates back to 1989 and comes from the Lake Idro, in northern Italy; it is preserved at the Herbarium of Rovereto (ROV) and was first cited in the literature some years later (Desfayes 1995; Selvaggi and Dellavedova 2016). The species was subsequently observed in nearby areas (Zanotti 2000) and was included in the checklist of the Italian vascular flora in 2005 (Conti et al. 2005). In Italy, the introduction of *E. nuttalli* was due to the trade of ornamental

species for artificial ponds and aquaria (Banfi and Galasso 2010). In other parts of Europe, the species was first found in Belgium in 1939, likely carried by migrating waterfowls (Verloove 2006); however, it is plausible that the species went unobserved for a long time, given the morphological and taxonomic similarity to *E. canadensis* (Walters 1980) and the presence of two different *E. canadensis* phenotypes (Banfi and Galasso 2010).

The invasion of *Elodea nuttallii* has been observed in northern Italy for the last 40 years (1980-2019). No occurrences were recorded in the Mediterranean biogeographic region of Italy so far (fig. 42).

3.2 Invasion curves

Elodea canadensis invasion curve shows a lag phase from 1866 to 1892, an expansion phase from 1893 to 1923, and a plateau phase from 1925 to 1971 (fig. 53). After this plateau, the curve has a second exponential rise, indicating a second phase of expansion that from 1977 to today, suggesting that the invasion has not come to a halt yet. However, since 2005 the slope of this second expansion has become less steep, suggesting that the invasion is approaching the second plateau phase. The slope of the whole curve from 1866 to 2019 is quite moderate (angular coefficient of the trend line 3.03).

Elodea nuttallii had a lag phase between 1989 and 2000 and is still in the expansion phase (fig. 53). The slope was most steep between 2000 and 2003 and the curve shows a breaking point around 2003, after which the expansion has been slowing down, suggesting that *E. nuttalli* is reaching the plateau phase too. The slope of the curve from 1989 to 2019 is quite steep (angular coefficient of the trend line 6.26). It has however to be noted that the cumulative record number remarkably differs between the two species: for *E. canadensis* it is 549, whereas for *E. nuttallii* it is only 152 (fig. 5).

3.3 Biogeography and habitats

Both species occur in the Continental and Alpine biogeographical regions within Italy, although with notable differences in the number of occupied cells (the Continental region is more invaded than Alpine one). *E. nuttalli* occurs in the same grid cells as *E. canadensis* and only 3 cells are occupied by *E. nuttalli* alone. Only *E. canadensis* occurs in the Mediterranean region, and the number of cells occupied in the continental region in northern Italy is an order of magnitude higher than that of *E. nuttallii* (deduced by the number of cells assigned to continental, alpine and mediterranean biogeographic regions occupied by the two species).

Artificial canals (including ditches; habitat code CAN), streams (RIV) and lakes (LAK) are the most common water bodies where *E. canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* herbarium specimens were collected (fig. 46). Until 1980, canals were the most frequent habitat for *E. canadensis* recorded in the herbarium

dataset. However, from 1990 onwards the number of *E. canadensis* occurrence records from rivers and lakes increased considerably, with river records exceeding canal records in 2000-2010. *E. nuttallii* occurred almost exclusively in lakes until 2000, but in the subsequent decade it was most frequently recorded in canals and rivers. In the last 10 years, *E. canadensis* was mostly found in canals, whereas *E. nuttallii* in rivers, however differences in the number of occurrences among channels, rivers and lakes became less evident in both species.

Natura 2000 habitats (*sensu* Habitats Directive 92/43/EEC) that are more frequent within *Elodea* occurrence cells are 91E0* (Alluvial forests with *Alnus glutinosa* and *Fraxinus excelsior* - *Alno-Padion*, *Alnion incanae*, *Salicion albae*), 3260 (Water courses of plain to montane levels with the *Ranunculion fluitantis* and *Callitricho-Batrachion* vegetation) and 3150 (Natural eutrophic lakes with *Magnopotamion* or *Hydrocharition*-type vegetation), both in the Continental and Alpine biogeographic regions (fig. 75). Peat bogs (habitat 7230: Alkaline fens) and petrifying springs (habitat 7220*: Petrifying springs with tufa formation - *Cratoneurion*) are also frequent in *Elodea*-invaded cells in the Alpine region.

In the Mediterranean regions, the most frequent habitats in *Elodea*-invaded grid cells are 3140 (Hard oligo-mesotrophic waters with benthic vegetation of *Chara* spp.), 3150 (Natural eutrophic lakes with *Magnopotamion* or *Hydrocharition*-type vegetation) and 3170* (Mediterranean temporary ponds). Current land use in the grid cells where the two species occur is primarily agriculture (in over 50% of each grid cell) for both species. Urbanisation accounts for only about 8% in each grid cell for both species, nevertheless urbanisation percentage is significantly higher (about 14%, $P < 0.001$) in cells where both species co-occur rather than in those where they occur alone (fig. 86).

377

378

379 4. Discussion

380 4.1 Invasion history from occurrence records and historical literature

The first record of *E. canadensis* in Europe dates back to 1836 in the British Isles (Simpson 1984), whereas in Italy the species appeared 30 years later in parks and botanic gardens. The published records document the cultivation in the Botanical Garden of Mantova in 1866, in that of Padova in 1867, later in that of Pavia (Bozzi 1888; Banfi and Galasso 2010). In the same period, *E. canadensis* was already widespread in many parts of central Europe and was becoming so invasive that it was the most common alien aquatic species in Europe for a while (Erhard and Gross 2006; Zehnsdorf et al. 2015). The first ascertained Italian herbarium samples were collected in 1888 from northern Italy, that is the Italian area of first introduction and most impacted by the invasion.

Up until 1890, in Italy *E. canadensis* was regarded as a useful plant for its ability to recover marshes from malaria, assist aquaculture and serve as a fertiliser (Quaglia and Soave 1886, 1889; Gasperini 1890); some authors even suggested its use to support the colonisation of Africa, where malaria fevers prevented Italian colonisers' success (Gasperini 1890). Even though it was already considered a water pest in Europe (Quaglia and Soave 1886), only in the last years of the XIXth century the signs of an invasion began to be reported by the Italian botanists (Pasquale 1894, 1896; Fiori 1895), associated with the first local extinctions of rare native aquatic plant species (mainly in the families Haloragaceae, Hydrocharitaceae and Najadaceae; Cavara 1894). We can therefore assume that the species needed about 20-30 years to establish before starting invading new territories, as also shown by the invasion curve.

The initial spread affected principally northern Italy, with isolated occurrences in the centre and south. Escapes from botanical gardens probably played an important role in the spreading of *E. canadensis*, as already supposed/proposed by Fiori (1895), and as documented by our temporal distribution maps in the areas surrounding the botanical gardens of Padova, Pisa and Rome (*Leg. U. Ugolini*, 1892, in PAD; *Leg. Adr. Fiori*, 6-1894, in FI; *Leg. E. Chiovenda*, 17-9-1901, in BOLO; *Leg. M. Savelli*, 16-10-1913, in FI). The Park of the Royal Palace in Caserta was probably another centre of spread for the invasion in southern Italy. *E. canadensis* was often introduced as an ornamental plant (Zehnsdorf et al. 2015) for fishponds or accidentally with exotic fishes (Thomson 1922) and quite likely it was also the case in the park of a Royal Palace.

Through the years, the expansion continued primarily in northern Italy. Occurrence records in central and southern regions between 1980 and 2019 (fig. 31d) were, as expected, centred around the older records associated with the botanical gardens and the Royal Palace of Caserta, but also included occasional new occurrences in regions that previously were not affected by the invasion, suggesting invasion corridors from North to South Italy or new introductions.

Elodea nuttallii invasion took place in the last 40 years (1980-2020), without any records in central and southern Italy so far. As its ecological requirements are very similar to those of *E. canadensis* (Kočić et al. 2014; Zehnsdorf et al. 2015), its more limited distribution compared to that of *E. canadensis* might be related to time rather than ecology. Since the first record of *E. nuttallii* dates back to 1989, the species has spread for only 33 years in Italy, compared to the 160 years of *E. canadensis* invasion. The central part of northern Italy is the most invaded region; the occurrence in the rest of northern Italy is sporadic.

Like *E. canadensis*, *E. nuttallii* is a cold-temperate species that found its climate niche within the European continental biogeographic region, that in Italy roughly extends up to the northern Apennine

423 watershed and follows the Apennines parallel to the Adriatic coasts for half of the peninsula
424 (European Environment Agency 2017).

425

426 4.2 *Invasion curves*

427 *Elodea canadensis* has been in Italy at least since 1866, and showed two invasion phases: the first in
428 the period 1890-1930 and the second, more aggressive, from around 1980 onwards. An
429 unprecedented effort in the recording of biodiversity and invasive species after 1980 might have
430 skewed the curve with an artifactual recent expansion phase (+33.3% accessions for *E. canadensis*,
431 +894.7% for *E. nuttallii* compared to previous period; see fig. 53). From the 1930s up to the end of
432 the century, in Italy there was a general decrease in systematics studies, with a consequent decrease
433 in herbarium accessions dating to that period. In addition, the Second World War imposed a forced
434 stop to nearly all field activities, at least in the years 1940-1945, and the contemporary destructions
435 caused by bombings led to the loss of some herbarium collections (see e.g. Taffetani 2012, pp. 734
436 and 743). All of this could have contributed to a further underestimation of the real presence of *E.*
437 *canadensis* in Italy in the period 1930-1980. However, it should be noted that the second invasion
438 round is accompanied by a switch in the habitat. In addition to canals, that were *E. canadensis*
439 preferential habitat until 1970 (registered in the herbarium specimen labels), also rivers and lakes
440 became important for the species after this period. In 2000-2010 the occurrences in rivers even
441 exceeded those in canals (fig. 64a). The colonisation of new habitats could be due to evolution which
442 occurred post-introduction in the new range or to a cryptic invasion of a second genotype of *E.*
443 *canadensis*. The trade of this species has never ceased and introductions of new, still undiscovered
444 genetic lineages may have been overlooked. The new genotype, better adapted to eutrophication and
445 the increasing temperatures of the early XXIst century, would preferably have occupied eutrophic
446 rivers and lakes, a hypothesis that can be confirmed by genetic analysis. In addition, the 1970s
447 witnessed a massive use of pesticides and herbicides that depleted biodiversity in agricultural areas
448 (Santini and Buldrini 2012): this phenomenon could have accounted for a reduced expansion of *E.*
449 *canadensis* in canals in agricultural areas until the 1980s and the subsequent colonization of other
450 water bodies (cfr. Bowmer et al. 1995; Glomski et al. 2005).

451 Other hypotheses concern the ability of *Elodea* sp. pl. to thrive in stressed environments, that might
452 have facilitated the expansion to new areas, and, not last, the initial misidentification of *E. nuttallii*
453 with *E. canadensis* when it first appeared in Italy. The two species are morphologically very similar
454 (Walters 1980; Vanderpoorten et al. 2000; Banfi and Galasso 2010) and the still imperfect knowledge
455 of the newly arrived *E. nuttalli* could have induced various botanists to erroneously identify it as *E.*
456 *canadensis*, causing an overestimation of the presence and spreading ability of the latter at the end of

the XX²⁰th century. Another still largely unexplored factor that could have had a role in the colonization of new habitats could be the co-occurrence of other invasive species, as documented for *E. nuttalli* in Ireland where patch extension was found to be positively correlated with the presence of *Dreissena polymorpha* Pallas, 1771 (Crane et al. 2022).

4.3 Biogeography and habitats

For both species, the invasion range in Italy is centred in the northern part, i.e. in the continental and Alpine biogeographical regions, with isolated occurrences of *E. canadensis* in central and southern Italy, i.e. in the Mediterranean region. Both species have never been recorded in Sardinia and Sicily and in the small islands around Italy (Celesti-Grapow et al. 2016). This fact is not surprising since the two species are native to northern America (Simpson 1984) and are typical of cold-temperate climates. Indeed, the trophic and thermic seasonal fluctuations in inland waterbodies could be the reason for the lower invasion pressure of *Elodea* species in the Mediterranean region compared to temperate ecosystems (Guarino et al. 2021). However, the complete absence (at least at the current state of the floristic knowledge) of *E. nuttallii* in the Mediterranean region suggests that the two species, even if regarded as ecological redundants (Hérault et al. 2008), have some different climatic requirements, with *E. nuttallii* being less thermophilous than *E. canadensis*. This fact was already reported by Pignatti et al. (2017-2019) and can also be observed in the habitats recorded for the first occurrences of the two species: mostly canals (i.e. shallow waters, with tendency to summer heating) for *E. canadensis*, from the beginning up to 1980; mostly lakes (i.e. deep, cold waters, with scarce or negligible summer heating) for *E. nuttallii*, from the introduction up to 2000. Variation in temperature-associated conditions could be more marked in waters at the margin of the temperate range. Anyway Irrespective of the species, in the last decades a shift from the original habitat to other types of waterbodies has been evident in the last decades for both species: this could be due to adaptation to the new environmental conditions (cfr. Allard 1988), or selection of the most resistant genotypes (Lambertini et al. 2010; Riis et al. 2010; Johnson and Munshi-South 2017), or simply the species had physical access to other habitats. Therefore, the distribution of *E. canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* might still change in coming years, especially in central and southern parts of Italy where the distribution range of these species is disjunct, and some areas are poorly investigated (Conti et al. 2016; Stinca et al. 2017; Rosati et al. 2020).

For the time being, the largest alluvial plain of Italy, i.e. the Po Plain, is the area with the highest number of records. The area is quite rich in permanent water bodies and one of the most impacted by human activities in Italy (Bolpagni et al. 2020). Here the probability of finding both species increases with increasing urbanisation and water exploitation independently of taxa (fig. 86).

491 River Po crosses northern Italy from west to east and appears as an important barrier for the spread
492 of *Elodea* species in the peninsula. This is likely because the Apennine catchments, south of River
493 Po, have a torrential regime and undergo a long lean period (and even drought) during the summer
494 months that reduces survival capacity and migration of aquatic species to the Mediterranean region.
495 The Alpine catchments, on the contrary, are supplied by Alpine glaciers all year around, and although
496 they may have lean periods in the summer, they never, or only exceptionally, experience drought.
497 Despite the drought barrier, the risk of spreading of the two species south of River Po is high, since
498 the artificial network of canals that brings irrigation water from River Po to the agricultural land south
499 of the river (Montanari et al. 2020, 2022) can provide dispersal corridors in the dry season. During
500 summer, in fact, these canals are maintained full of water (Dallai et al. 2015; Montanari et al. 2020),
501 and provide a suitable environment for the survival of both *Elodea* species exactly when natural
502 watercourses undergo lean or drought. The risk, in the near future, of a mass spreading of the two
503 species to the southern parts of the Po Plain, that at present are still not extensively invaded, is
504 therefore very high, also considering the intensive management of the canals networks (mowing of
505 the vegetation and dredging of the canals) and the more and more frequent flooding events that occur
506 in this area. In addition to the obvious ecosystemic impact, this an invasion in this area would have
507 negative consequences for canal maintenance and effectiveness in draining rainwaters
508 (hydrogeological risk is high in this region) and supplying irrigation water (cfr. Dallai et al. 2015).
509 Monitoring *Elodea* and other invasive aquatic species in this area is therefore strategic to prevent
510 invasions in the peninsula, as well as to plan eradication measures in advance that, in the case of *E.*
511 *nuttallii*, are mandatory (EU Reg. 1143/2014). An option that should be considered is that of
512 repriming occasional drought barriers that can interrupt the migration flow and have proved successful
513 in containing these invasions for the past 100 years. In any case, given that eradication and control
514 are obligatory for *E. nuttallii*, and were successful in other parts of Europe (Hoffmann et al. 2013;
515 Garland et al. 2020), it is also possible (and desirable) that containment actions have a positive effect
516 on the distribution of both species that largely occur in the same areas, thereby leading to a
517 contraction, rather than an expansion, in the ranges of both species in the coming years.

518

519 Natura 2000 habitats that occur within *Elodea* occurrence records cells are the ones that are most
520 threatened by the invasion of these species. Based on our field work, we can confirm that in the Po
521 Plain both species frequently occur in habitats 3150 (Natural eutrophic lakes with *Magnopotamion*
522 or *Hydrocharition*-type vegetation; see also Bolpagni 2013) and 3260 (Water courses of plain to
523 montane levels with the *Ranunculion fluitantis* and *Callitriche-Batrachion* vegetation), as well as in
524 temporary alluvial forests formed by the swollen rivers of the Alpine catchment, as detected by our

study, often together with other invasive elodeids like *Egeria densa* (Planch.) Casp. (native to South America) and *Lagarosiphon major* (Ridl.) Moss (native to South Africa). Elodeas and alien species are one of the major threats for the conservation of Natura 2000 habitats in Italy, both aquatic and terrestrial (Lazzaro et al. 2020; Viciani et al. 2020). Mediterranean habitats appear more resilient to *Elodea* invasion because of summer drought, but also because many rivers are dammed for the creation of water reservoirs, and artificial networks for drainage and irrigation are not as extended as in northern Italy. Nevertheless, there are various lakes (both natural and artificial) that provide suitable establishment sites to *E. canadensis* and *E. nuttallii*, in case of introduction in these zones. As a matter of fact, we have recently become aware of a few more lakes in internal areas of the peninsula where *E. canadensis* is currently present and could have occurred for a long time, like Lake Trasimeno in central Italy, where it has been known since the end of 1800 and whose presence could be linked to the various experiments of aquaculture that were discussed and performed in the 1880s (Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio 1886, 1887). The distribution of *Elodea* species could therefore be wider in the Mediterranean region than documented by this study, and the invasion risk should not be underestimated even in this area.

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542 **5. Conclusions**

This study reconstructed the invasion history of *E. canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* in Italy, two aquatic pests that occur in large parts of Eurasia. Herbarium specimens, occurrence records and historical literature provided insight into the introduction history and dynamics of two invasions by two closely related species. With this information we could identify a strategic area where to address monitoring and management, for the prevention of further spreading. The study also provides new perspectives on the invasion process of plant species. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that resolves the initial invasion phase of a plant species with such a detail, especially for *E. canadensis*. Interestingly, in the XIXth century the introduction pathways were not very different from those of today, i.e. deliberate human introduction (fish farming, botanical garden collections and applied research then, as documented by this study, aquarium and ornamental plants trade, living collections, cultivation, scientific research and phytoremediation today – Kay and Hoyle 2001; Hulme 2011; Brundu 2015; van Kleunen et al. 2018a, 2018b).

Compared to the invasion curve of *E. nuttalli* introduced 100 years later in the same area, *E. canadensis* had a longer lag phase and a less steep expansion in the first invasion round between 1890 and 1930. The steepness (i.e. spread rate) of the second expansion phase was, instead, more similar to that of *E. nuttallii* invasion occurring in the same period 1990-2005. *E. canadensis* invasion curve

559 also shows that invasions can have more than one expansion phase as previously suggested (Pyšek
560 and Prach 1993). More research is necessary to corroborate this new finding, i.e. to assess the
561 evolutionary change that was recorded by these occurrence records.

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816

817 **Statements & Declarations**

818

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824 The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

825

826 **Authors contributions**

827 All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Data collection was performed by all
828 authors and coordinated by Fabrizio Buldrini, material preparation and analysis were performed by
829 Martina Barbero, Carla Lambertini, Giovanna Pezzi and Fabrizio Buldrini. The first draft of the
830 manuscript was written by Fabrizio Buldrini, Giovanna Pezzi and Carla Lambertini and all authors
831 critically read, amended and commented the first version of the manuscript, contributing validly to
832 data interpretation. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

833

834 **Data availability statement**

835 All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article (and its
836 supplementary information files).

837

838 **Figure captions**

839

840 **Fig. 1** Close-up of the terminal part of a sterile branch of *Elodea canadensis*. Note the leaves with
841 apex obtuse or nearly rounded. Photograph taken by A. Moro – <http://dryades.eu> –, Madrisio
842 (municipality of Fagagnana del Friuli), 23-04-2005. Licence CC BY-SA 4.0

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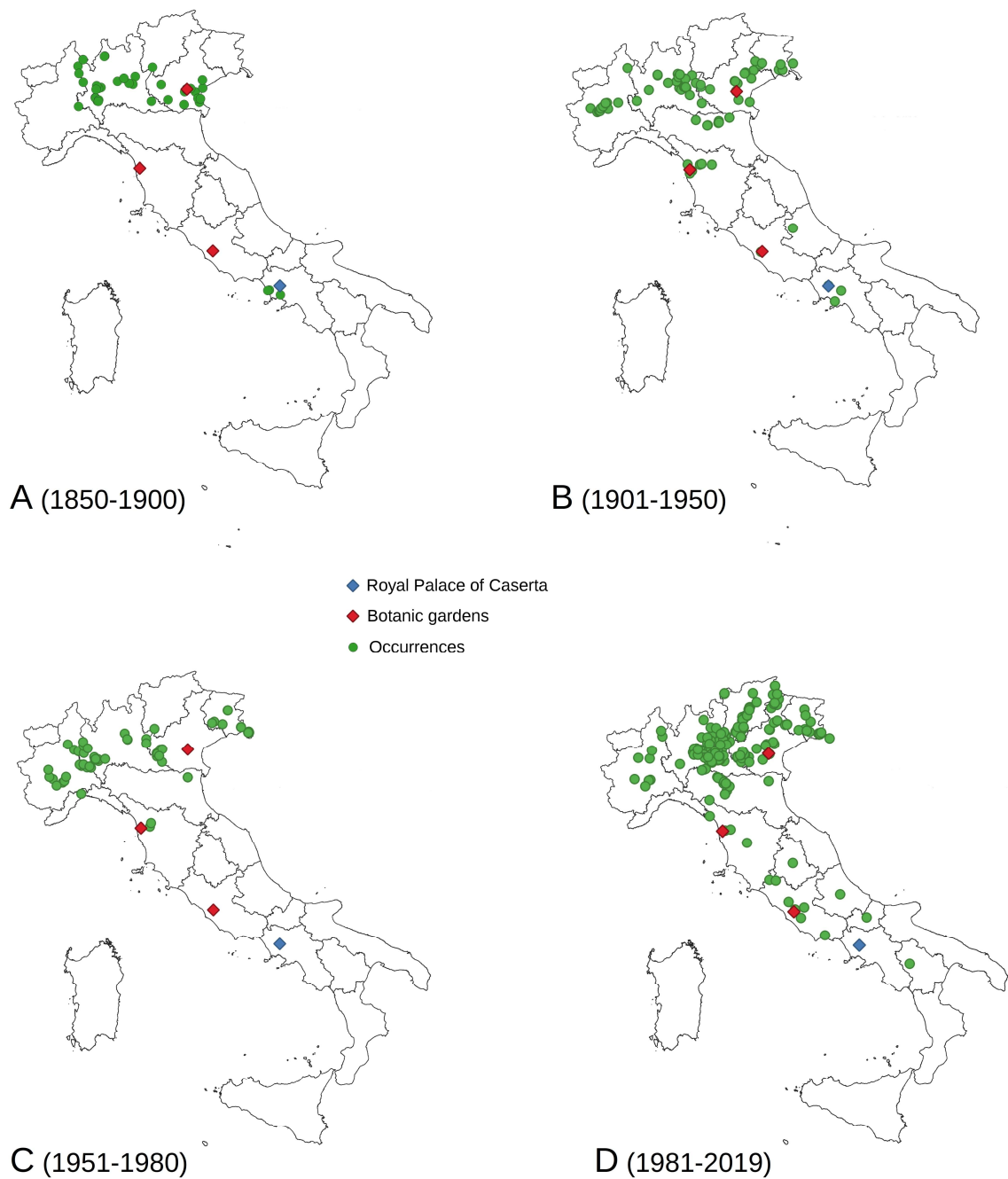
846 **Fig. 2** Some branches of *Elodea nuttalli*. Note the leaves linear-lanceolate, curved, with apex acute
847 and nearly acuminate. Photograph taken by Andrea and Riccardo Truzzi – <http://dryades.eu> –, Civico
848 Museo di Storia Naturale, Milano – La Flora Esotica Lombarda. Licence CC BY-SA 4.0
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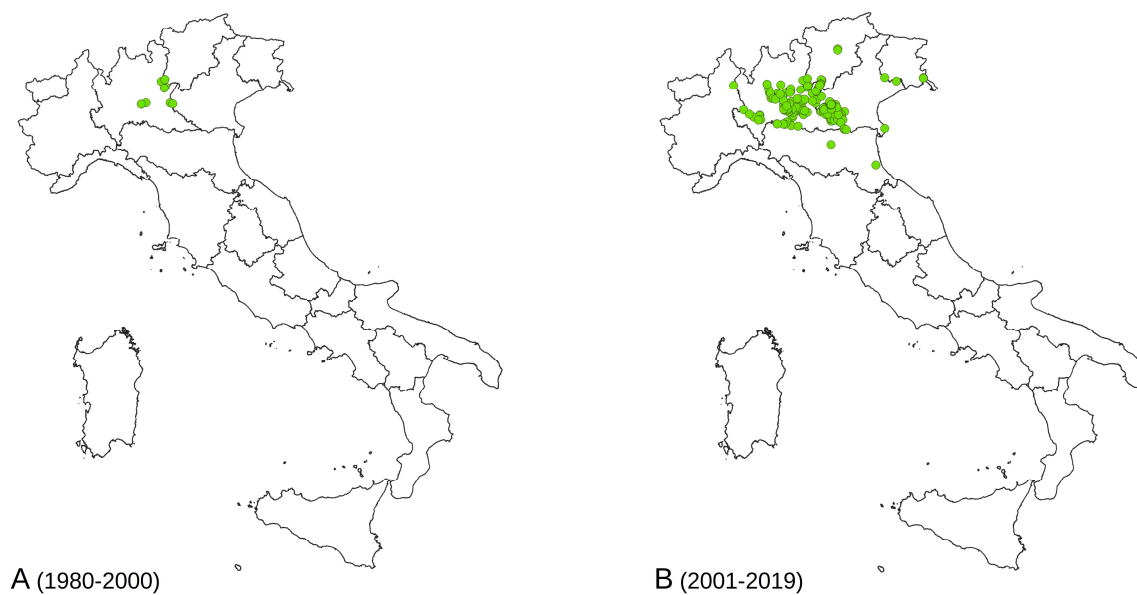
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852 **Fig. 3** Reconstruction based on herbarium records of the distribution of *Elodea canadensis* in different
853 temporal ranges. Botanic gardens and the Royal Park of Caserta, in which, according to the literature,
854 the species was cultivated, are also shown with red and blue diamonds respectively. NE is the Botanic
855 Garden of Padova, W-centre is the Botanic Garden of Pisa and SW is the Botanic Garden of Rome
856



858 **Fig. 4** Cumulative distribution of *Elodea nuttallii* records from 1980 to 2000 (A) and from 2001 to
859 2019 (B)

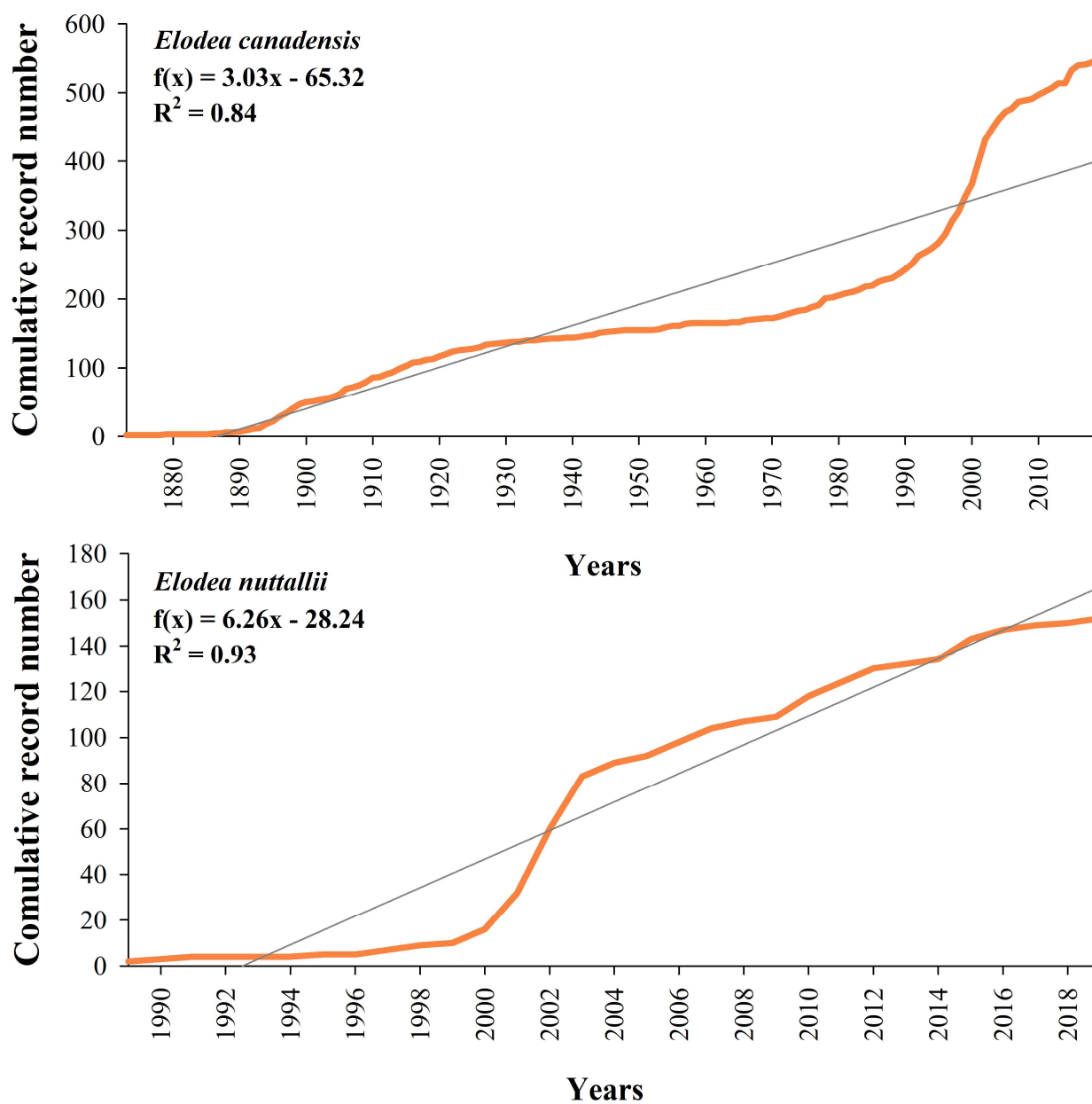
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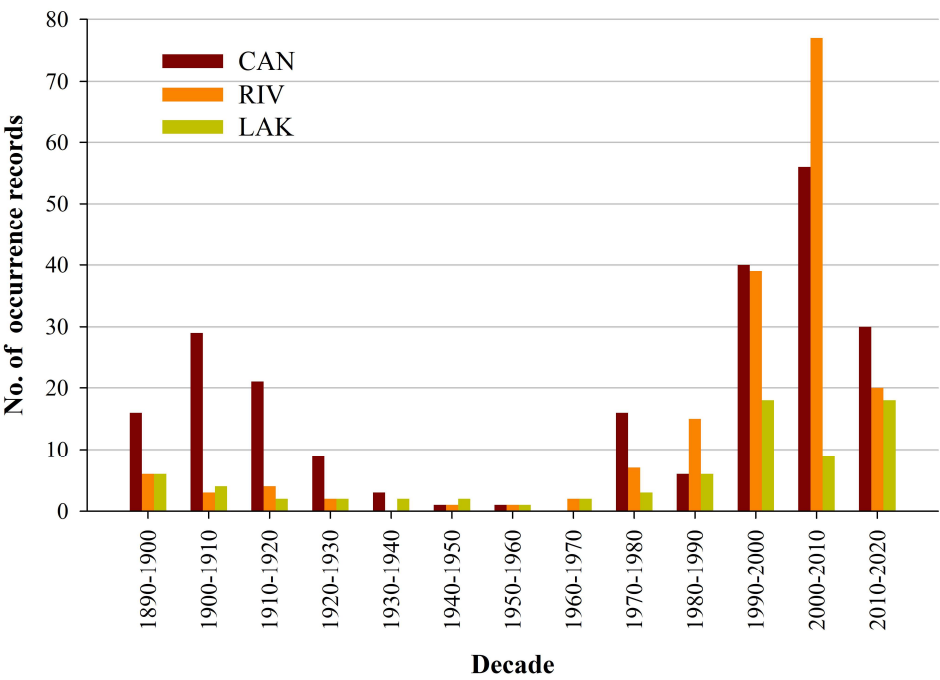
863 **Fig. 5** Invasion curves of *Elodea canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* in Italy, based on herbarium records,
864 published records and field records. Trend line and equation of the curve are also shown
865



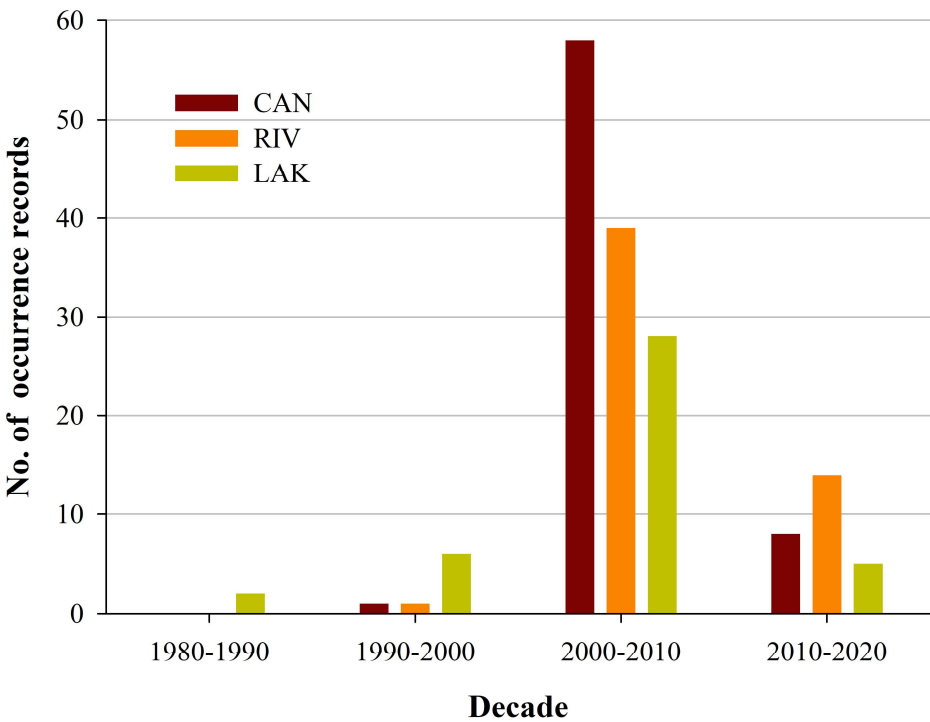
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868 **Fig. 6** Most frequent habitats of *Elodea canadensis* (A) and *E. nuttallii* (B) recorded in herbarium
869 specimen labels. Abbreviations: CAN: canals, RIV: rivers, LAK: lakes

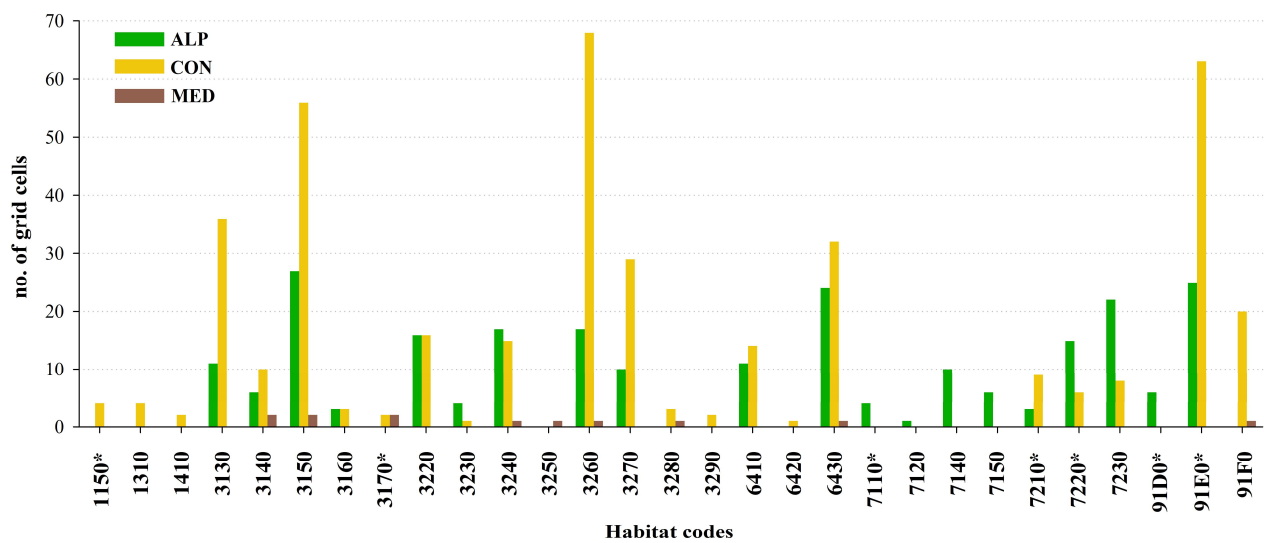
870
871 A)



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873 B)



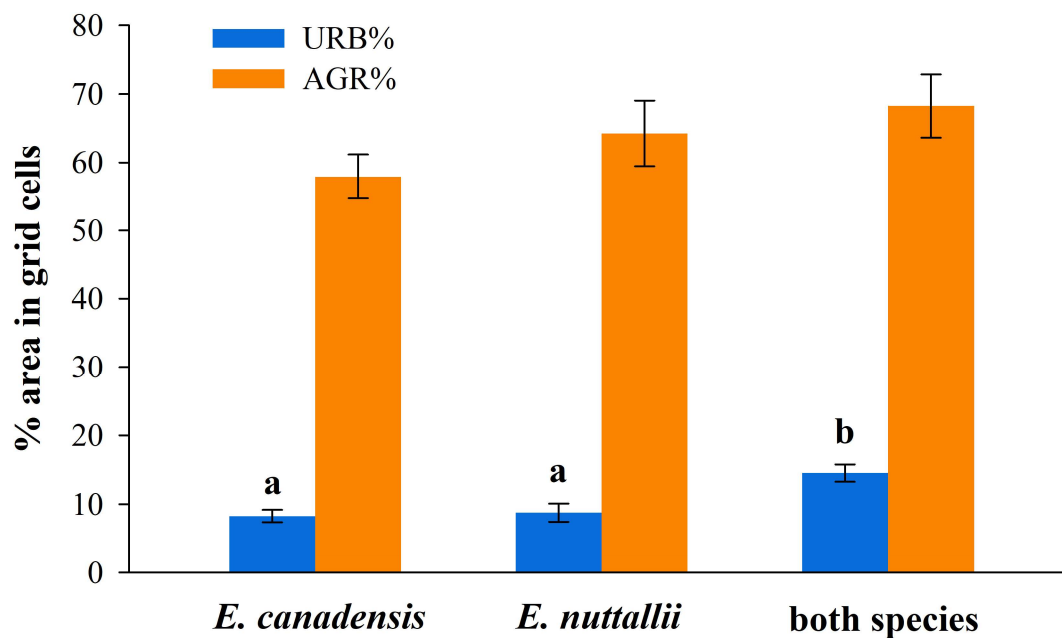
876 **Fig. 7** Natura 2000 habitats in *Elodea canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* occurrence cells in the Alpine,
 877 Continental and Mediterranean biogeographic regions. Biogeographical regions: ALP: alpine, CON:
 878 continental, MED: Mediterranean. Explanation of habitat codes: 1150*: coastal lagoons, 1310:
 879 Salicornia and other annuals colonizing mud and sand, 1410: Mediterranean salt meadows (*Juncetalia*
 880 *maritimi*), 3130: Oligotrophic to mesotrophic standing waters with vegetation of the *Littorelletea*
 881 *uniflorae* and/or of the *Isoëto-Nanojuncetea*, 3140: Hard oligo-mesotrophic waters with benthic
 882 vegetation of *Chara* spp., 3150: Natural eutrophic lakes with *Magnopotamion* or *Hydrocharition*-
 883 type vegetation, 3160: Natural dystrophic lakes and ponds, 3170*: Mediterranean temporary ponds,
 884 3220: Alpine rivers and the herbaceous vegetation along their banks, 3230: Alpine rivers and their
 885 ligneous vegetation with *Myricaria germanica*, 3240: Alpine rivers and their ligneous vegetation with
 886 *Salix eleagnos*, 3250: Constantly flowing Mediterranean rivers with *Glaucium flavum*, 3260: Water
 887 courses of plain to montane levels with the *Ranunculion fluitantis* and *Callitricho-Batrachion*
 888 vegetation, 3270: Rivers with muddy banks with *Chenopodion rubri* p.p. and *Bidention* p.p.
 889 vegetation, 3280: Constantly flowing Mediterranean rivers with *Paspalo-Agrostidion* species and
 890 hanging curtains of *Salix* and *Populus alba*, 3290: Intermittently flowing Mediterranean rivers of the
 891 *Paspalo-Agrostidion*, 6410: *Molinia* meadows on calcareous, peaty or clayey-siltladen soils
 892 (*Molinion caeruleae*), 6420: Mediterranean tall humid herb grasslands of the *Molinio-Holoschoenion*,
 893 6430: Hydrophilous tall herb fringe communities of plains and of the montane to alpine levels, 7110*:
 894 Active raised bogs, 7120: Degraded raised bogs still capable of natural regeneration, 7140: Transition
 895 mires and quaking bogs, 7150: Depressions on peat substrates of the *Rhynchosporion*, 7210*:
 896 Calcareous fens with *Cladium mariscus* and species of the *Caricion davallianae*, 7220*: Petrifying
 897 springs with tufa formation (*Cratoneurion*), 7230: Alkaline fens, 91D0*: Bog woodland, 91E0*:
 898 Alluvial forests with *Alnus glutinosa* and *Fraxinus excelsior* (*Alno-Padion*, *Alnion incanae*, *Salicion*
 899 *albae*), 91F0: Riparian mixed forests of *Quercus robur*, *Ulmus laevis* and *Ulmus minor*, *Fraxinus*
 900 *excelsior* or *Fraxinus angustifolia*, along the great rivers (*Ulmenion minoris*)



902

903

904 **Fig. 8** Land use in *Elodea canadensis* and *E. nuttallii* occurrence cells: urbanisation and agriculture
905 percentage per cell



911 **Table captions**

912

913 **Table 1** Herbarium specimens cited in the text. Collection places, original scientific names reported
914 on the labels and a translation of the collection place description are also provided

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920 **Supplementary materials**

921

922 **Supplementary material 1** Database of the occurrence records for *Elodea canadensis* and *E. nuttallii*
923 taken from herbarium specimens, literature and inedited field data. The second sheet contains the data
924 used in this study, the third the legend

925

Table 1

Locality	Herbarium specimen citation	Translation
Province of Mantova, 1880?	Leg. F. Masè, s.d., in MSPC: «Casteldario (Mantova)», sub <i>Anacharis alsinastrum</i>	municipality of Casteldario (province of Mantova)
Como Lake, 1888	Leg. M. Longa, 7-1888, in FI: «In aqua fluente et stagnante prope pagum Colico», sub <i>Elodea canadensis</i> Casp.	in running and stagnant waters near the village of Colico
	Leg. M. Longa, det. G. Camperio, 7-1888, in FI: «Colico, nei dintorni, in acqua corrente e stagnante», sub <i>Elodea canadensis</i> Rich.	Colico and nearby water bodies, in running and stagnant waters
Pisa Botanic Garden, 1892	Leg. P. Pellegrini, 6-1892, in PI: «Orto Botanico Pisano»	Pisa Botanic Garden
Province of Padova, 1892	Leg. U. Ugolini, 1892, in PAD: «Fossi di Vanzo, Padova»	ditches in Vanzo, [province of] Padova
Padova, 1894	Leg. Adr. Fiori, 6-1894, in FI: «Fossi entro Padova, inselvaticita», sub <i>Elodea canadensis</i> Michx.	naturalised in ditches within Padova town
Padova, 1895	Leg. L. Vaccari, 11-1895, in FI: «Orto Agrario Pat. fossi (Padova)», sub <i>Elodea canadensis</i> Rich.	Agricultural Garden ditches (Padova)
Rome, 1899	Leg. E. Chiovenda, 23-5-1899, in BOLO: «Nelle vasche del R. Orto Botanico di Roma», sub <i>Elodea canadensis</i> Rich.	in the ponds of the Royal Botanic Garden of Rome
Around Rome, 1901	Leg. E. Chiovenda, 17-9-1901, in BOLO: «Abbondantissima nel Collettore generale delle acque alte della bonifica di Maccarese», sub <i>Elodea canadensis</i> Rich.	very abundant in the General drainage canal of the high waters in the land reclamation area of Maccarese (Rome)
Around Pisa, 1913	Leg. M. Savelli, 16-10-1913, in FI: «Pisa: abbondante nei fossi d'acqua lentamente scorrente mista a <i>Vallisneria spiralis</i> Linn. subito fuori dalla porta a Lucca lungo la via di S. Giuliano», sub <i>Anacharis canadensis</i> (Michx.) Planch.	Pisa: abundant in the ditches of slowly flowing water, mixed with <i>V. spiralis</i> L., just out of the city door to Lucca along the road to S. Giuliano