

Jurnal Jurnal Biofluk. 2023

by Robin

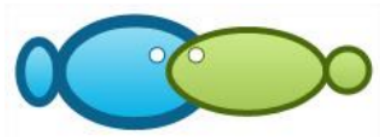
Submission date: 27-Mar-2023 10:50AM (UTC+0700)

Submission ID: 2047594129

File name: Jurnal_Biofluk._2023.pdf (394.33K)

Word count: 7426

Character count: 43547



Presence of non-native freshwater fish in Indonesia: A review - Risk and ecological impacts

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Abstract. The introduction of non-native species in various parts of the world negatively impacts biodiversity and the existence of native and endemic species through competition for resources, predation, hybridization, habitat modification, and disease transmission. This article aimed to describe the types of non-native fish that are currently spread in Indonesia. Fish data collection was based on literature studies that have been conducted in Indonesia. The impact of the presence of non-native fish on wild fish and their environment is presented. The bibliographic search was performed in all available databases using the following combinations of key words: non-native freshwater fishes in Indonesia and ecological impact of invasives freshwater fishes all over the world. Scientific articles were collected which were published online from three comprehensive databases of scientific publications, namely PubMed, Google Scholar and Scopus between January to August 2022. All the articles were assessed thoroughly to the existing information regarding the presence of invasive fish in Indonesia and information regarding the ecological impact of the presence of invasive fish in a habitat. Around 92 relevant research reports have been reviewed. From the collected references, the diversity of non-native fish species that spread across Indonesia were classified and the results were summarized. Moreover, further details on the non native species have been found: around 54 introduced freshwater fish species in Indonesia, 14 of which were invasive species and 4 potentially invasive, which could dominate an ecosystem and replace the diversity of the native species in nature and change the structure of freshwater ecosystems, especially the native species.

Key Words: alien fishes, endemic, freshwater fishes, invasive fishes, introduction, native species.

Introduction. The diversity of freshwater fish in Indonesia is very large (Allen 2000; Kottelat et al 1993; Muchlisin & Azizah 2009; Nurjirana et al 2020), currently there are 1,266 species of freshwater fish in Indonesian waters, the second largest after Brazil with 3,547 species (Fishbase 2022). However, the diversity of freshwater species is currently starting to be seriously threatened due to habitat and environmental damage caused by land conversion, pollution, and climate change (Kottelat & Whitten 1996; Thushari & Senevirathna 2020). In addition, the presence of non-native fish is also a threat to the existence of native fish (Wood et al 2017; Spikmans et al 2020).

Non-native fish are species living outside their natural habitat (encompassing exotic, non-indigenous, and alien) (Gozlan et al 2010). The introduction of non-native species is considered as a serious threat to biodiversity (Manchester 2000; Mooney & Cleland 2001; Dudgeon et al 2006; Pulkkinen 2013; Jeschke et al 2014; Guerin et al 2017; Dueñas 2018). Non-native species do not previously occur naturally in an area, but they spread (possibly introduced by humans) into that area (Sagoff 2005; Rahel 2007; Strayer & Dudgeon 2010; Guo et al 2020). The direct impacts of the presence of non-native species on native species occur through competition for resources, predation, hybridization, habitat modification, transmission of diseases (infection or parasitism) and

genetic effects (Brown & Moyle 1991; Correia 2001; Gozlan et al 2005; King et al 2006; Maguire & Gray 2006; McDowall 2006; Bampfylde & Lewis 2007; Blanchet et al 2007; Wagner and Van Driesche 2010; Ribeiro 2012; Insani et al 2020; Serdiati et al 2021). Usually, non-native species are tolerant to environmental changes, such as temperature fluctuations and low oxygen content, being able to invade an environment (Serdiati et al 2020; Hasan & Widodo 2021; Ihwan et al 2021). In addition, non-native fish are able to rapidly breed, reaching a large population (Hasan et al 2020a). This can lead to the extinction of local fish due to massive predation and competition for food and territory (Barriyah et al 2021). Besides, the presence of foreign fish can act as carriers of the disease to native species (Chinchio et al 2020).

Most of the non-native freshwater fish in Indonesia are introduced by humans to increase fishery production and meet world food needs, such as: tilapia, tilapia, pomfret, and others (Gozlan et al 2010; Dewantoro & Rachmatika 2016; Andriyono & Fitriani 2021). In addition, there are also those who are brought in by hobbyists as ornamental fish. These fish have been introduced a long time ago; some people consider them as native to Indonesia. An example is the Nile tilapia, which originates from Africa, but is often released into public waters for the conservation of aquatic biota, even if the presence of non-native fish or invasive species is very dangerous for the native fish. Among the introduced species there are predatory, such as alligators and piranhas, and some competitors. The research aimed to assess the types of non-native fish that exist in Indonesia, including invasive species, in order to better understand their impact on the aquatic ecology in Indonesia. A systematic literature review was conducted following the guidelines of Haddaway et al (2015) by collecting scientific reports that were published online through searches of three comprehensive databases of scientific publications, namely Pubmed, Google Scholar and Scopus between January and August 2022. A preliminary assessment of a subset of articles was conducted and their relevance was evaluated to avoid papers unrelated to the paper's focus. 92 relevant study papers were reviewed and became the reference in writing the current review articles.

Non-native freshwater fishes. Non-native fish are species living outside their natural habitat, while invasive fish are introduced non-native fish that have a negative impact on aquatic communities (Dewantoro & Rachmatika 2016; Andriyono & Fitriani 2021). The introduction of a species into the environment will go through several stages, becoming an invasive species (Kiruba-Sankar et al 2018; Andriyono & Fitriani 2021) (Figure 1).

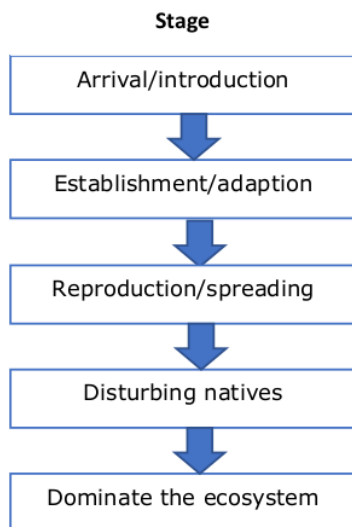


Figure 1. Stage of biological invasion (Kiruba-Sankar et al 2018).

The first stage is the introduction, intentional or unintentional, which is the process of the arrival of a species in a new habitat whose characteristics might be similar under certain aspects. The second stage is the adaptation process for non-native species to be able to live normally in a new environment, without showing symptoms of stress or disease, supporting the colonization of the new environment. After the adaptation process, the species is able to reproduce in a new habitat, allowing non-native species to replace native species, modifying the diversity of the habitat. And, at the last stage in this process, non-native species can shift the abundance of native species because they have dominated an ecosystem (McMahon 2002; Kinnison et al 2008, Phillips et al 2006; Keller et al 2011; Minchin et al 2013; Kiruba-Sankar et al 2018; Andriyono & Fitriani 2021).

Fish introduction in Indonesia. Introduced species are species extracted from outside their natural range (Macdonald et al 2007), which colonize the reference habitat. Artificial introduction could be due to hobbyists or cultivators, in order to increase fishery production (e.g. tilapia and carp). Based on the reviewed literature, it is estimated that a total of 54 introduced species have been recorded in Indonesia (Dewantoro & Rachmatika 2016). Those species are dominated by the Cichlidae family, representing as much as 30% of the estimated species currently circulating (Table 1). Cichlids are considered exotic and interesting fish, being preferred by hobbyists. Cyprinidae family represent the second most abundant introduced fish, for instance the Koi fish.

Table 1

Introduced freshwater fish in Indonesia

<i>Species</i>	<i>Popular name</i>	<i>Family</i>	<i>Origin</i>
<i>Cochlasoma urophthalmum</i>	Mexican mojarra	Cichlidae	Central America
<i>Cichla temensis</i>	Speckled pavon	Cichlidae	South America
<i>Cyphotilapia frontosa</i>	Humphead cichlid	Cichlidae	East Africa
<i>Gymnogeophagus balzanii</i>	Argentine humphead	Cichlidae	South America
<i>Heros severus</i>	Banded cichlid	Cichlidae	South America
<i>Microgeophagus ramirezi</i>	Ram cichlid	Cichlidae	South America
<i>Neolamprologus brichardi</i>	Fairy cichlid	Cichlidae	Africa
<i>Parachromis dovii</i>	Guapote	Cichlidae	Central America
<i>Pelvicachromis pulcher</i>	Rainbow krib	Cichlidae	Africa
<i>Pterophyllum scalare</i>	Freshwater angelfish	Cichlidae	South America
<i>Pseudotropheus zebra</i>	Zebra mbuna	Cichlidae	Africa
<i>Symphysodon discus</i>	Discus	Cichlidae	South America
<i>Uaru amphiacanthoides</i>	Uaru	Cichlidae	South America
<i>Andinocara rivulatus</i>	Green terror	Cichlidae	South America
<i>Esomus metallicus</i>	Flying barb	Cyprinidae	Thailand
<i>Carasius auratus</i>	Goldfish	Cyprinidae	Asia
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	Koi	Cyprinidae	Western Europe
<i>Epalzeorhynchus frenatum</i>	Rainbow Shakminnow	Cyprinidae	Asia
<i>Myxocyprinus asiaticus</i>	Chinnese sucker	Cyprinidae	China
<i>Protopterus aethiopicus</i>	Marbled lungfish	Protopteridae	Africa
<i>Prototerus annectens</i>	West African lungfish	Protopteridae	Africa
<i>Polypterus palmas</i>	Shortfin bichir	Protopteridae	Africa
<i>Polyodon spatula</i>	Mississippi paddlefish	Protopteridae	South America
<i>Pharactochepalus hemiliopterus</i>	Retail catfish	Pimelodidae	South America
<i>Pseudoplatystoma corrucans</i>	Spotted sorubim	Pimelodidae	South America
<i>Pseudoplatystoma fasciatum</i>	Barred sorubim	Pimelodidae	South America
<i>Osteoglossum bicirbosum</i>	Arwana	Osteoglossidae	South America
<i>Scleropages leihardti</i>	Spotted Australian Arwana	Osteoglossidae	Australia
<i>Chalceus erythrus</i>	Tucan fish	Characidae	South America

<i>Species</i>	<i>Popular name</i>	<i>Family</i>	<i>Origin</i>
<i>Paracheirodon axelrodi</i>	Cardinal terra	Characidae	South America
<i>Synodontis angelicus</i>	Angel squeaker	Mochokidae	Africa
<i>Synodontis ocellifer</i>	Ocellated synodontis	Mochokidae	Africa
<i>Oxydoras sifontensi</i>	Black talking catfish	doradidae	South America
<i>Pterodoras granulosusi</i>	Granulated catfish	doradidae	South America
<i>Melanotaenia maccullochi</i>	Macculloch's rainbowfish	Melanotaeniidae	Osenia
<i>Melanotaenia splendida</i>	Eastern rainbowfish	Melanotaniidae	OSenania
<i>Botia lobacata</i>	Reticulate loach	Cobitidae	Pakistan, India
<i>Chilodus punctatus</i>	Spotted Headstander	Chilodontidae	South America
<i>Schizodon fassciatus</i>	Aracu comum	Anostomidae	South America
<i>Ctenolucius hujeta</i>	Gar charancin	Ctenoluciidae	South America
<i>Pangasianodon hypophthalmus</i>	Striped catfish	Pangasiidae	Asia
<i>Clarias gariepinus</i>	North African catfish	Claridae	Africa/Asia
<i>Corydoras aeneus</i>	Bronze corydoras	Callichthyidae	South America
<i>Sternopygus macrurus</i>	Longtail knifefish	Sternopygidae	South America
<i>Apteronotus albifrons</i>	Black ghost	Apteronotidae	South America
<i>Poecilia sphenops</i>	Molly	Poeciliidae	Central America
<i>Monodactylus sebae</i>	African moony South America	Monodactylus	Africa
<i>Potamotrygon motoro</i>	freshwater stingray	Dasyatidae	South America
<i>Gymnarchus niloticus</i>	Aba	Gymnarchidae	Africa
<i>Monocirrhus polyacanthus</i>	Amazon leaf fish	Polycentridae	South America
<i>Betta splendens</i>	Simese fighting fish	Osphronemidae	Thailand
<i>Trichogaster pectoralis</i>	Snakeskin gourami	Belontiidae	Asia
<i>Colisa lalia</i>	Dwarf gourami	Osphronemidae	Asia
<i>Pogoneleotris heterolepis</i>	Greek	Eleotridae	Malaysia

Source: Dewantoro & Rachmatika (2016); Hasan et al (2020b); Serdiati et al (2020); Valen et al (2022).

Invasive freshwater fishes in Indonesia. Invasive fish are introduced as non-native fish that have a negative impact on aquatic communities (Cucherousset & Olden 2011). Currently, the invasive fish that dominate Indonesian waters come from the Cichlidae family (Table 2), such as *Aequidens pulcher*, *Amphilophus alfari*, *Astronotus ocellatus*, *Hermichromis elongatus*, *Parachromis managuensis*, *Oreochromis niloticus*, *Amphilophus labiatus*. Especially *A. labiatus* are dominant in some lakes and rivers. This species is native to Central America: Atlantic slope of Nicaragua, in Nicaragua and Managua Lakes, coming from tropical waters and lives in water temperature 21-26°C with a pH of 7.0, although adaptable to pH 6.0–8.0. *A. labiatus* dominates the catches of in several reservoirs and lakes in Indonesia, reaching 40-60%. In Jatiluhur Reservoir in 2003 and 2004, the catches proportion was around 40%, and in 2011 it was around 30%. In Kedung Ombo about 60% and Lake Sentani around 45% and even higher (Kartamihardja & Umar 2006; Umar et al 2015). Other invasive fish species found in Indonesia are from the Lepisostidae, Charcadidae, and Poeciliidae families (Dewantoro & Rachmatika 2016).

Freshwater fish that are potentially invasive. Invasive fish have high adaptability, are able to reproduce quickly, and are able to live with the types of food that are available around them; sometimes there is no competition so they become top predators. Some of the most ecologically disastrous introductions have involved the transfer of predatory fishes (Gozlan et al 2010). There are several types of introduced fish in Indonesia, which are potentially invasive and become top predators in the wild, including *Arapaima gigas*. In 2018, this species has been found in the Brantas River (Syafei &

Sudinno 2018; Fadjar et al 2019). *A. gigas* has been introduced for a long time in Indonesia and is very likely to become invasive and a top predator if it is released into a natural habitat (Table 3).

Table 2
List of the occurrence of the invasive freshwater fish species introduced into Indonesia

<i>Species</i>	<i>Popular name</i>	<i>Family</i>	<i>Origin</i>
<i>Aequidens pulcher</i>	Blue acara cichlid	Cichlidae	Central America
<i>Amphilophus alfari</i>	Pastel cichlid	Cichlidae	Central America
<i>Amphilophus labiatus</i>	Red devil	Cichlidae	Central America
<i>Astronotus ocellatus</i>	Oscar	Cichlidae	South America
<i>Hermichromis elongatus</i>	Banded jewel cichlid	Cichlidae	Africa
<i>Parachromis managuensis</i>	Jaguar guapote	Cichlidae	Central America
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>	Nile tilapia	Cichlidae	Africa
<i>Mozambique tilapia</i>	Mozambique tilapia	Cichlidae	Africa
<i>Atractosteus spatula</i>	Aligator gar	Lepisostidae	North America
<i>Lepisosteus osseus</i>	Longnose gar	Lepisostidae	North America
<i>Lepisosteus oculatus</i>	Spotted gar	Lepisostidae	North America
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i>	Amazon sailfin catfish	Loricariidae	South America
<i>Pygocentrus nattereri</i>	Red piranha	Characidae	South America
<i>Gambusia affinis</i>	Mosquitofish	Poeciliidae	North America

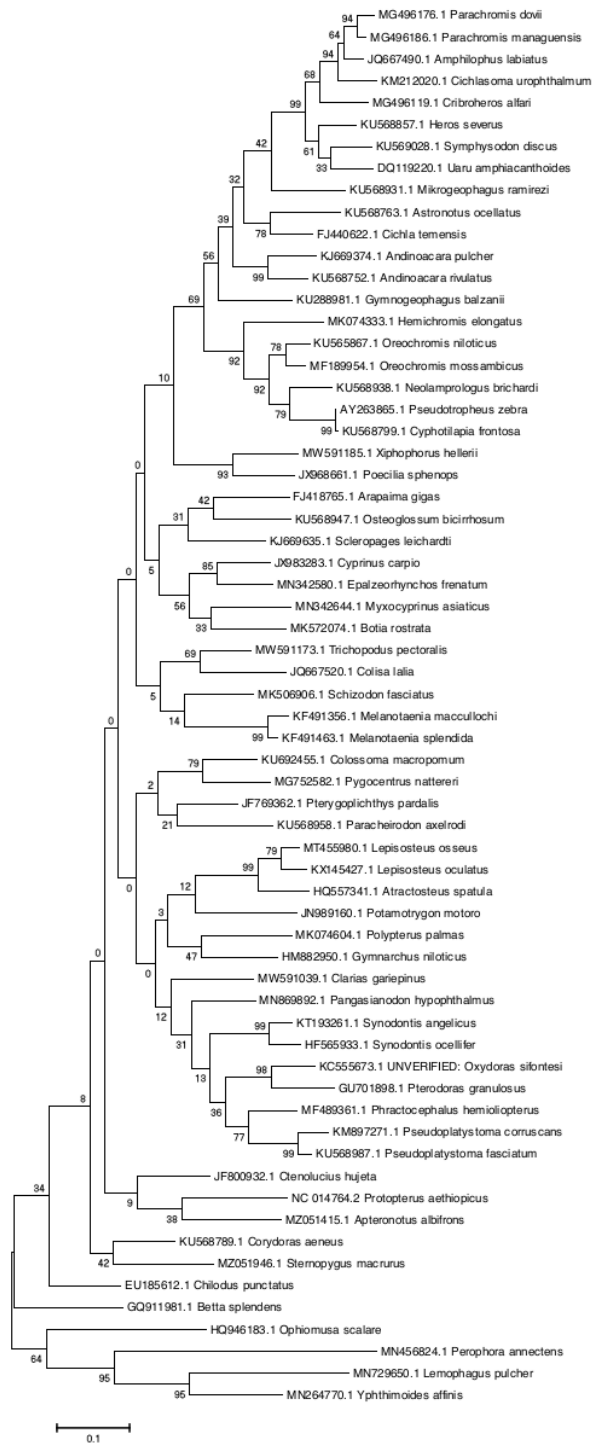
Source: Sentosa et al (2013); Umar et al (2015); Dewantoro & Rachmatika (2016); Hasan et al (2020a); Insani et al (2021); Hasan et al (2019); Mangitung et al (2021); Faqih et al (2020); Serdiati et al (2021); Hasan & Widodo (2022).

Table 3
Species that are potentially invasive

<i>Species</i>	<i>Popular name</i>	<i>Family</i>	<i>Origin</i>
<i>Arapaima gigas</i>	Arapaima	Osteolossidae	South America
<i>Colossoma macropomum</i>	Chacama	Characidae	South America
<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>	Guppy	Poeciliidae	Venezuela
<i>Xiphophorus hellerii</i>	Platy	Poeciliidae	North America

Source: Dewantoro & Rachmatika (2016); Fadjar et al (2019); Syafei & Sudinno (2018).

Phylogenetic of non-native. 64 coding sequences of introduced fish that invaded Indonesia were retrieved from the genbank with registered access codes and then formed an evolutionary tree using MEGA6 (Tamura et al 2013). The purpose of making this phylogenetic tree is to classify species based on their kinship and show the relatives of invasive fish that dominate in Indonesia. There are several clades formed by the phylogenetic tree; the largest and dominating clade comes from the family Cichlidae, with as many as 20 species; *Cohlasoma urophthalmum* (Gunther 1862), *Cichla temensis* (Humboldt 1821), *Cyphotilapia frontosa* (Boulenger 1906), *Gymnogeophagus balzanii* (Perugia 1891), *Heros severus* (Heckel 1840), *Microgeophagus ramirezi* (Myers & Hary 1948), *Neolamprologus brichardi* (Pol 1974), *Parachromis dovii* (Gunther 1864), *Pelvicachromis pulcher* (Boulenger 1901) *Pterophylum scalare* (Schultz 1823), *Pseudotropheus zebra* (Boulenger 1899), *Symphysodon discus* (Heckel 1840), *Uaru amphiacanthoides* (Heckel 1840), *Andinocara rivulatus* (Gunther 1860), *Aequidens pulcher* (Gill 1858), *Amphilophus alfari* (Meek 1907), *Amphilophus labiatus* (Günther 1864), *Astronotus ocellatus* (Agassiz 1831), *Hermichromis elongatus* (Guichenot 1861), *Parachromis managuensis* (Günther 1867), *Oreochromis niloticus* (Linnaeus 1758), Mozambique tilapia (Peters 1852). The Cichlidae family is a monophyletic group of the Perciformes order (Kaufman & Liem 1982). Most of Cichlidae originate from America and Africa, and are currently also distributed to other continents (Ribbink 1991). The morphology of cichlid species has been studied for almost 100 years and various classification schemes have been proposed (Trewavas 1973, Greenwood 1987).



Cichlidae

Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree of the non-native freshwater fishes introduced to Indonesia, by the Maximum Likelihood method (sequences from the genbank).

Risk and ecological impacts. Freshwater fish invasions had an impact on operating at various levels of biological organization of the ecosystems. Case studies based on literature are provided to demonstrate the ecological impact of the presence of invasive fish. In general, the impacts of non-native species on the native species occur through competition for resources, predation, hybridization, habitat modification, transmission of diseases (infection or parasitism) and genetic effects (Cucherousset & Olden 2011). Some types of non-native freshwater species' ecological impacts on various levels of biological organizations are presented in Figure 3.

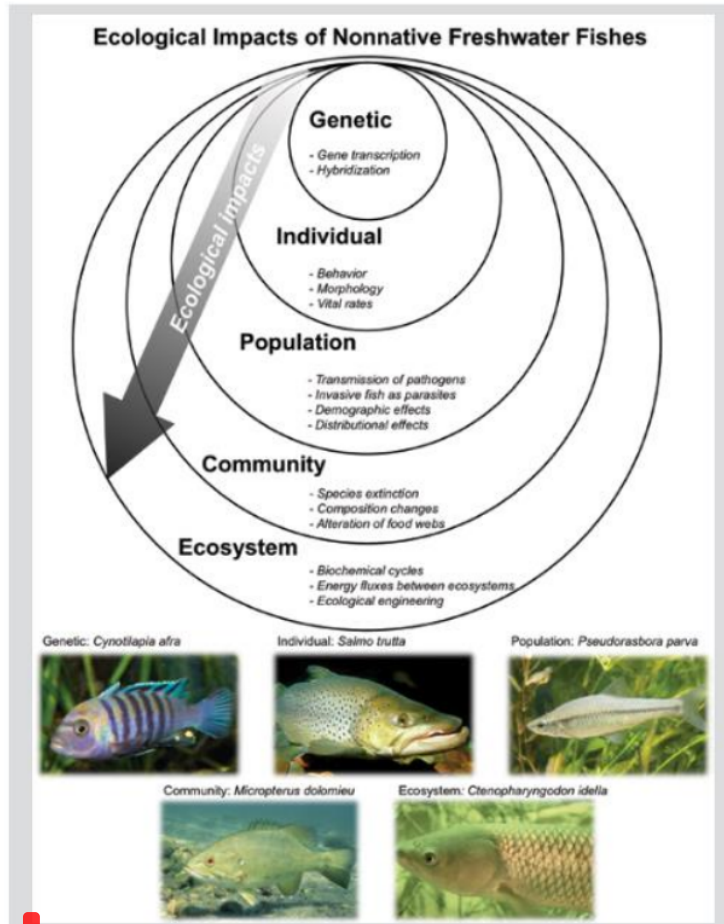


Figure 3. A schematic representation of the ecological impact of non-native freshwater fishes of the biological organization (Cucherousset & Olden 2011).

Genetic level. The ecological impact of non-native freshwater fish on genetics is at the level of gene transcription patterns and hybridization. It was reported that the inhibition between non-native fish and native fish increases the risk of extinction (Allendorf et al 2001). Hybridization between native and non-native species can reduce reproductive efficiency due to the wasted gametes of native species, especially if the population of native species is vulnerable (Cucherousset & Olden 2011). Furthermore, hybridization can replace native brood populations due to hybrid vigor. This occurs in hybrids of the native Pecos pupfish (*Cyprinodon pecosensis*) and the invasive sheepshead minnow (*Cyprinodon variegatus*) in North America, found to be superior in terms of growth and swimming endurance (Rosenfield et al 2004). Lastly, hybridization can reduce genetic

integrity in native populations such as non-native rainbow trout in Montana to native west slope trout (*Oncorhynchus clarki lewisi*), which reduces the native species' fitness (Muhlfeld et al 2009).

Individual level. At the individual level, non-native fish will affect the behavior, morphology, and vital rate of native fish. An example of an influence on behavior is that non-native fish can change the behavior of native species when they are numerically dominant and/or more aggressive than native species. Behavioral changes due to interspecific competition, such as changes in territory and feeding habits, can also inhibit the growth of native fish (Cucherousset & Olden 2011). For example, native Atlantic salmon fry has been more active during the day since rainbow trout were introduced, due to the interference competition for feeding areas (Blanchet et al 2008). When non-native species are introduced to a new environment, there will be new selection pressures on native fish, that require adaptation in order to be sustainable (Strauss et al 2006). This will change the morphology of native fish in order to compete with non-native species (Bourke et al 1999; Mooney & Cleland 2001; Fisk et al 2007; Latta et al 2007). Non-native fish can also affect the vital traits of local fish (i.e., growth and reproduction) through physical injury or reduced foraging activities, due to a predatory behavior of non-native fish. Predation on the embryos of native fish prevents their reproductive success, because native fish breeders will maintain the embryo until it depletes energy reserves for further reproduction (Segev et al 2009; Corkum et al 2004; Steinhart et al 2004; Steinhart et al 2005).

Population level. Invasive fish can affect the distribution of native species by reducing their abundance through predation and by displacing them from optimal habitats, through competitive exclusion (Cucherousset & Olden 2011; Hasan et al 2021). For example, the presence of red devil fish, released either intentionally or unintentionally, has dominated several reservoirs in Indonesia (Umar et al 2005), so it is reported that the catch of red devil fish reaches 40-60% in some reservoirs. In Jatiluhur Reservoir, the catch of red devil fish is generally higher than other catches, such as milkfish (*Channos channos*), congo (*Parachromis managuensis*), tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*), goldfish (*Cyprinus carpio*), bougainvillea (*Mystus nigriceps*), jambal (*Pangasionodon hypophthalmus*) (Kartamihardja & Umar 2006). The high number of catches of red devil fish in some public waters indicates that this invasive species became a dominant species and has shifted the presence of native fish.

Community level

Species extinction. The presence of invasive fish in the waters caused damage and decreased the biodiversity, consequently it changed the structure of freshwater ecosystems, especially the pre-existing local ones (Strayer 2010; Rahim et al 2013; Havel et al 2015). It was reported that invasive fish caused the extinction of 39% of the world's fish species in 400 years (Kiruba-Sankar et al 2018). Conservative estimates suggest that 150–200 (or 60%) of the endemic fish species (most of which are not fully described) are already extinct (Witte et al 1992). Invasive fish will affect the struggle for territory and the food competition. In addition, predatory invasive fish will affect the number and diversity of native fish (Parker et al 1999; Dudgeon 2006; Bohn et al 2008). It was estimated that 50% of 1205 fish introductions recorded for aquaculture have been established in the wild (Casal 2006). Extinctions and decline in fish diversity in Indonesia continue to arrive, for instance in the waters of Lake Towuti, which is recorded as the seventh deepest lake in the world. In 1993 there were still 52 endemic fish species (Kottelat et al 1993) and they almost halved 10 years later; in 2003, there were fewer than 28 remaining endemic fish species (Wirjoatmojo et al 2003). In Lake Poso, several endemic fish are declared extinct, one of which is *Adrianichthys kruyti*. In Jambi Province, three species are almost threatened with extinction, namely: lais kaca fish (*Kryptoperus minor*), crooked machete fish (*Macrochirichthys macrochirus*), and pearl sepat fish (*Trichopodus leerii*) (Sukmono et al 2013). The IUCN Red List reported seven freshwater fish species in Bangka Island which are endangered, including *Parosphromenus deissneri*,

wild *Betta schalleri*, *Encheloclarias tapeinopterus* (vulnerable), wild *Betta chloroparynx* (critically endangered), *Sundadanio gargula* (vulnerable), and *Parosphromenus julinae*.

Composition change. In addition to causing species extinction, the presence of foreign fish can also change the composition of the waters or the composition of the main watershed (Leprieur et al 2008; Cucherousset & Olden 2011). For example, in Bali's Beratan Lake, several non-native fish species were introduced intentionally or unintentionally. Studies showed that in Lake Beratan there are 17 species of fish, 70% of which are introduced species (Sentosa et al 2013). Some of these introduced fish species have the characteristics of invasive foreign fish. In addition, Jatiluhur Reservoir, Senani Lake and Kedung Ombo Reservoir are dominated by invasive red devil fish as much as 40-60% of the total catch (Umar et al 2015).

Alteration of food webs. Introduced fish have often been able to disrupt the trophic relationships of native predatory fish and to shift their trophic niches, thereby profoundly altering the structure of food webs in lake ecosystems (Cucherousset & Olden 2011). For example, Smallmouth bass which has been widely introduced to parts of North America, acts as a top predator having a major impact on the diversity, abundance, and community structure of prey fish. It has disrupted the trophic relationship of native predatory fish, encouraging the lake trout to shift its trophic niche towards the, thus changing the structure of the food web in the lake ecosystem (Rahel 2000; MacRae & Jackson 2001).

Ecosystem level. At the ecosystem level, introduced fish can modify biochemical cycles such as the nutrient cycle (nitrogen and phosphorus), for example, the introduction of tilapia can increase nitrogen and phosphorus availability and promote algae growth (Figueredo & Giani 2005; Eby et al 2006). In addition, introduced fish can modify the energy fluxes between ecosystems, through the exchange of nutrients, energy and organisms, and they can also change the habitats (as ecosystem engineers). A number of case studies have reported that non-native fish species can act as ecosystem engineers, severely affecting the environment, once withdrawn from their native habitat (Cucherousset & Olden 2011).

Conclusions. Most of the non-native freshwater fishes were introduced to Indonesia by hobbyists or cultivators to increase fishery production. A total of 54 introduced freshwater fish species have been recorded in Indonesia, dominated by the Cichlidae family (an estimated 30% of the species currently circulating). As many as 14 of the non-native species are invasive and 4 species are potentially invasive, including *Arapaima gigas*. Impacts of the presence of non-native species on native species have occurred through competition for resources, predation, hybridization, habitat modification, transmission of diseases and genetic effects. Invasive fish can affect the distribution of native species by reducing their abundance through predation and by displacing them from optimal habitats through competitive exclusion. The presence of invasive fish also causes damage and decline in biodiversity and changes the structure of freshwater ecosystems, especially the local pre-existing ones. Invasive fish caused the extinction of 39% of the world's fish species in 400 years. The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) recorded 87 Indonesian endangered fish species, 57 of which being threatened with extinction due to various factors such as habitat change, loss, pollution, overexploitation of resources and introduction of invasive fish into a habitat. In addition to causing species extinction, the presence of foreign fish can also change the composition of the waters or the composition of the main watershed. For example, in Bali's Beratan Lake, where several non-native fish species were introduced, about 70% of population is currently composed of introduced species. In addition, Jatiluhur Reservoir, Senani Lake and Kedung Ombo Reservoir are dominated by the invasive red devil fish, at a level of 40-60% of the total catch.

Acknowledgements. The authors would like to thank the Bangka Belitung University for providing facilities and support.

Conflict of interest. The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Received: 23 September 2022. Accepted: 22 December 2022. Published online: 05 January 2023.

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How to cite this article:

Robin, Valen F. S., Nomleni A., Turnip G., Luhulima M. Y., Insani L., 2023 Presence of non-native freshwater fish in Indonesia: A review - Risk and ecological impacts. *AAFL Bioflux* 16(1):66-79.

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