1 2 3	A simple, rapid method for detecting seven common invasive fish species in Europe from environmental DNA
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10 11	
12 13	ABSTRACT
14 15	1. Biological invasions are a global threat to biodiversity, and many come from deliberate introductions
13 16 17 18 19 20	<ol> <li>The American freshwater fish <i>Micropterus salmoides</i> and <i>Ameiurus</i> sp (<i>A. melas</i> and <i>A. nebulosus</i>) were introduced to Europe for recreational fishing; <i>Gambusia holbrooki</i> and <i>G. affinis</i> for mosquito population control and <i>Lepomis gibbosus</i> as an ornamental species. The Asiatic <i>Pseudorasbora parva</i> was acquired inadvertently as an accompanying species of fish consignments.</li> <li>This paper part of the part</li></ol>
21 22 23 24 25 26 27	<ol> <li>This paper presents a novel approach for detecting these species directly from water samples based on a panel of five taxon-specific primers within the 16S rDNA.</li> <li>The primers were validated from tissue, in aquarium experiments, and from Ebro River water samples (Spain). With a simple PCR protocol followed by visualization in agarose gel or capillary electrophoresis it was possible to detect these species from environmental DNA concentrations as low as 0.89 to 100pg mL<sup>-1</sup>.</li> <li>This sensitive and economical tool can be useful to control the European invasions of</li> </ol>
27 28 20	these species and preserve the native biodiversity.
29 30 31 32	*Corresponding author: Laura Clusa, <u>lauraclusa@gmail.com</u> , orcid.org/0000-0002-3503-2331.
33 34	Keywords: river, biological control, fish, alien species, species-specific primers; eDNA; PCR; 16S rDNA.
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#### 46 Introduction

47 Biological invasions are an important threat to biodiversity (Chown et al., 2015), since they often result in local extinctions or extirpation of autochthonous species (Clavero & 48 García-Berthou, 2005). Aquatic species are translocated worldwide for various purposes, 49 from fishing to aesthetic pleasure (Havel, Kovalenko, Thomaz, Amalfitano, & Kats, 50 51 2015). In Europe, freshwater fish are the most frequently introduced aquatic species (García-Berthou et al., 2005). The north American largemouth black bass Micropterus 52 salmoides and bullhead catfish Ameiurus spp. (A. melas and A. nebulosus) were 53 54 introduced into many European waters for recreational fishing (Copp et al., 2016; Savini et al., 2010). The mosquitofish Gambusia holbrooki and G. affinis were widely introduced 55 to Europe for mosquito control (Pyke, 2008), from their native range in North America 56 (Sanz et al., 2013). Another cause of exotic fish spread is imports for aquarium trade that 57 are often released into the wild. An example is the introduction of north American 58 Lepomis gibbosus (pumpkinseed) to Europe as an ornamental species (Maceda-Veiga, 59 Escribano-Alacid, de Sostoa, & García-Berthou, 2013). An unexpected impact of non-60 native fish farming in Europe was the inadvertent introduction of highly invasive 61 accompanying species as contaminants in farm fish consignments. 62 For example the topmouth gudgeon (or stone moroko) Pseudorasbora parva was transported together 63 with Chinese carp from Asia to Romania in 1960, and today it is present in almost every 64 65 country in Europe (Gozlan et al., 2010; Simon, Gozlan, Britton, van Oosterhout, & Hänfling, 2014). The EU regulation No 1143/2014 of 22 October 2014 on Invasive Alien 66 Species (http://ec.europa.eu/environment/nature/invasivealien/index en.htm) states in its 67 Article 14 that Member States should establish a surveillance system to detect rapidly the 68 appearance of any invasive alien species in the environment of a Member State. Rapid 69 70 detection is indeed important because biological invasions are better controlled in the initial invasion stages (e.g. Blackburn et al., 2011). 71

Ecological impacts of the above mentioned species have been demonstrated in 72 Europe, where they compete with native species for habitat and food resources (Ribeiro 73 & Leunda, 2012). Lepomis gibbosus exhibits aggressive behavior when competing for 74 75 food and territory (Almeida, Merino-Aguirre, Vilizzi, & Copp, 2014). Gambusia species 76 affect native fauna such as invertebrates and amphibians through predation (Pyke, 2008; Remon, Bower, Gaston, Clulow, & Mahony, 2016). They alter the plankton communities 77 78 and subsequently the whole ecosystem (Hurlbert & Mulla, 1981; Hurlbert, Zedler, & 79 Fairbanks, 1972). Introduced black bass (M. salmoides), an aggressive predator, usually affects populations of small native fishes by predation, sometimes causing their decline 80 or extinction (Maezono & Miyashita, 2002; Weyl & Lewis, 2016). Ameiurus sp may also 81 have adverse ecosystem effects by increasing turbidity (Braig & Johnson, 2003). 82 Moreover, these invasive species are hosts of many parasites. For example, L. gibbosus 83 84 introduced new parasites (Onchocleidus sp) in Norway (Sterud & Jørgensen, 2006). 85 Pseudorasbora parva carries many parasites, such as the rosette agent (Sphaerothecum destruens) (Gozlan et al., 2010; Pinder, Gozlan, & Britton, 2005), being capable of 86 transmission to native fish species (Gozlan, St-Hilaire, Feist, Martin, & Kent, 2005). 87

Eradication of these invasive species, when possible, may allow the recovery of
native fauna. This happened in 11 small ponds from Oshu city, north-eastern Japan, after
eradication of *M. salmoides* (Tsunoda, Mitsuo, Ohira, Doi, & Senga, 2010). In one lake
from the Lake District in the north-west of UK, populations of native *Rutilus rutilus* and *Abramis brama* increased after *P. parva* eradication (Britton, Davies, & Brazier, 2009).
Early detection of non-native fish is crucial for a rapid and efficient response to prevent
further establishment or spread.

In the last few years, environmental DNA (eDNA) survey methods have proved a 95 promising tool for detecting and surveying invasive species in aquatic ecosystems. 96 Metazoans can be detected from their DNA released into the environment through skin 97 flaking and sloughed cells, mucus excretion and defecation (Goldberg, Strickler, & 98 Pilliod, 2014). This method seems to be sensitive and efficient, and unlike most classic 99 100 sampling methods (electrofishing, netting) it does not disturb the aquatic fauna (Blanchet, 2012; Ficetola, Miaud, Pompanon, & Taberlet, 2008; Thomsen et al., 2012). Specific 101 PCR primers used on eDNA have been successful in detecting a number of species from 102 water samples. Examples are molluscs (Ardura et al., 2015; Devloo-Delva et al., 2016; 103 104 Clusa et al., 2016), fishes (Furlan & Gleeson, 2016; Gustavson et al., 2015; Takahara, Minamoto, & Doi, 2013; Adrian-Kalchhauser & Burkhardt-Holm, 2016; Uchii, Doi & 105 Minamoto, 2016), amphibians (Ficetola et al., 2008; Pilliod, Goldberg, Arkle, & Waits, 106 2014), reptiles (Piaggio et al., 2014; Davy, Kidd, & Wilson, 2015) and mammals (Foote 107 108 et al., 2012; Ushio et al., 2017).

The aim of this study was to check the potential of a simplified PCR-based method 109 for early alert of seven common invasive fish species A. melas, A. nebulosus, G. affinis, 110 G. holbrooki, M. salmoides, L. gibbosus and P. parva from water samples. If successful, 111 the method could be applied by managers for river surveillance. For this purpose, new 112 specific primers were developed and tested experimentally in vitro and in aquarium, as 113 well as from field water samples. The seven species have been reported from many 114 European countries, including Spain (Elvira & Almodóvar, 2001; Leppäkoski, Gollasch, 115 & Olenin, 2002). They are in the Spanish official list of invasive alien species (Spanish 116 Royal Decree 630/2013 of 2 August 2013, https://www.boe.es/buscar/doc.php?id=BOE-117 A-2013-8565). They all occur in Ebro River (north-east Spain), as reported in the 118 119 webpage of the Regional Government of Aragón; thus, the new tool was field tested from Ebro River waters. The method could be also applied in other European waters for 120 121 surveillance of these invasive alien species.

## 122 Materials and Methods

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# 124 Species studied

For confirming the adequacy of the species choice an exhaustive search was performed 125 in three databases for invasive species: EASIN (European Alien Species Information 126 Network; http://easin.jrc.ec.europa.eu/ accessed in November 2016), DAISIE (Delivering 127 Alien Invasive Species Inventories Europe; http://www.europe-aliens.org/ accessed in 128 November 2016) Invasive Species 129 and the GISD (Global Database; http://www.iucngisd.org/gisd/ accessed in November 2016) of the IUCN (International 130 Union for Conservation of Nature). The criterion of choice used was species invasiveness 131 to European countries. The species selected were those invasive to a higher number of 132 European countries (the top five). The non-native species invasive to Europe were 133 compiled (Table S1) and the five taxa of choice in this study (Ameiurus sp, Gambusia sp, 134 L. gibbosus, M. salmoides and P. parva) are listed there amongst the commonest invasive 135 non-salmonid fish to European countries. In Spain there are 61 species from 24 fish 136 families officially listed as native to the Iberian Peninsula, and 36 non-native species from 137 138 15 families including the aforementioned ones (Table S2).

### 139 **Design of species-specific primers**

140 The method applied is based on conventional PCR. The 16S rRNA gene was chosen for141 the design of the primers based on reference nucleotide sequences from GenBank

(www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) plus the sequences obtained in this study. 16S rRNA is a 142 mitochondrial gene, present in higher copy number than nuclear genes in eDNA samples 143 (Thomsen, & Willerslev, 2015), it does not show great variation within species but it 144 shows high variation between closely species, especially in fishes (Maretto, Reffo, Dalvit, 145 Barcaccia, & Mantovani, 2007; Vences et al., 2016) and the number of sequences for 146 147 fishes in databases is similar to other mitochondrial genes as COI or cytochrome b 148 (Machida, Leray, Ho, & Knowlton, 2017). Sequences of this gene (either individual 16S DNA sequences or complete mitochondrial genomes) for the target fish and other species 149 of a wide range of aquatic taxa were downloaded from GenBank and aligned with the 150 151 ClustalW application included in BioEdit (Thompson, Higgins, & Gibson, 1994). Polymorphisms were analyzed with DNASP software (Rozas, Sánchez-DelBarrio, 152 Messeguer, & Rozas, 2003). The different haplotypes were visualized employing BioEdit 153 Sequence Alignment Editor (Hall, 1999). Within the 600 nucleotide amplicon obtained 154 with the universal primers designed by Palumbi et al., (2002), regions conserved within 155 each of the target species (identical in all sequences of that species) but different in the 156 rest of reference species collected were located. These regions were used to design the set 157 of specific primers (Table 1). 158

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Table 1: Taxon-specific primers designed in this study. Primer's sequence, annealing temperature, Mg<sup>2</sup>
 concentration, expected amplicon size (in base pairs); initial DNA concentration employed for testing sensitivity of the
 primer pairs (stock), maximum dilution (last dilution) and corresponding DNA concentration (detection limit) for which
 is possible to obtain a PCR product visible in agarose gel with the primer pairs in the conditions assayed.

Species	Primer	Sequence (5'-3')	Annealing Temperatu re	[Mg <sup>2+</sup> ]	Amplic on size	Stoc k	Last dilutio n	Detectio n limit
Gambusia	Ga-16S-F	GRAACCAACTGACCCCTGC TT	68°C	1mM	117nh	0.535	1/600	0.89 pg
sp	Ga-16S-R	GTTTTGTGAGCTGCGGCTCT WTA	08 C	TIIIIVI	117po	μg mL <sup>-1</sup>	000	mL <sup>-1</sup>
Micropterus	MiSa- 16S-F	WCATCCCRAAACAAAGGGC Y	68°C	2mM	142nh	0.57	1/100	5.7 pg
salmoides	MiSa- 16S-R	AATTCTGTTCATTAGAGCGG AGG		211111	14200	mL <sup>-1</sup>	000	mL <sup>-1</sup>
Amaiurus sp	Am-16S-F	CGTCAAGAACYCAGTTRAA CT	65°C	1mM	134ph	0.7	1/5	140 pg
Ameiurus sp	Am-16S- R	GWTTCTGYGACTTAGAGTT GTCA	05 C	TIIIVI	15400	μg mL <sup>-1</sup>	000	mL <sup>-1</sup>
Pseudorasb	PsPa-16S- F	GTTTAAYCATGTTAAACAA CTTAT	5000	2.5m	10 <b>2</b> mh	0.5	1/5	100 pg
ora parva	PsPa-16S- R	TTCGTTGATCGACTATGTGT	38 C	М	19200	μg mL <sup>-1</sup>	000	mL <sup>-1</sup>
Lepomis	LeGi-16S- F	GGACACGGGGGCTAAACCAA AT	(0)Q		1 113pb	0.535 μg mL <sup>-1</sup>	1/600 000	0.89 pg mL <sup>-1</sup>
gibbosus	LeGi-16S- R	GGGCTCTTAGTTGTGGAATT GCA	68°C	ImM				

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#### 165 Fish tissue and water sampling in field and aquarium

Tissue samples were provided by Centro de Acuicultura Vegas del Guadiana. Genetic
barcoding was done using cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI) (Geller, Meyer, Parker,
& Hawk, 2013) and 16S rRNA genes (Palumbi et al., 2002) in order to confirm the species
of each tissue sample.

To sample eDNA, 1L of water was collected in sterile plastic bottles from each
 sampling point, in both aquariums and river. Water samples were vacuum filtered using

the Supor®-200 Membrane Filter (Pall Corporation) with 0.2 μm pore size (Turner et al.,
2014) and a filter holder. The filtration apparatus was cleaned with 10% bleach, rinsed
with distilled water and sterilized under UV light for 20 minutes between filtrations.
Filters were put individually within 15mL tubes and stored at -20°C until DNA extraction.

### 176 **DNA extraction and PCR conditions**

DNA from tissue samples was extracted using Chelex resine as described by Estoup, 177 178 Largiader, Perrot, & Chourrout, (1996). DNA from water samples was extracted directly 179 from the filters with the PowerWater® DNA Isolation Kit (Mobio laboratories) following manufacturer's recommendations. The eDNA extractions were done under sterile 180 181 conditions, in a laboratory unit where there were no other tissue samples, inside a PCR laminar flow cabinet treated with ultraviolet light to avoid any contamination of the 182 environmental DNA. As a negative control for extraction (blank sample) 1L of distilled 183 water was treated equally as the samples for all the processes and included in each 184 analytical step to be sure that contamination did not occur, as described in Clusa, Ardura, 185 Fernández, Roca & García-Vázquez (2017). 186

For positive control samples, DNA extracted from tissue of *A. melas, G. holbrooki, L. gibbosus, M. salmoides* and *P. parva* was PCR-amplified with the newly developed primers (Table 1). For confirming that cross-amplification negative results were not due to PCR failure, universal primers for the 16S rRNA gene (Palumbi et al., 2002) were employed for PCR amplification on the same samples.

The amplification reaction with the taxon-specific primers from tissue DNA was 192 193 performed in a total volume of 20µL, including Green GoTaq® Buffer 1X, MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 194 0.25mM dNTPS, 1µM of each primer, 2µL of template DNA and 0.65 U of DNA Taq polymerase (Promega). The PCR conditions were the following: an initial denaturation 195 step at 95°C for 5min, 35 cycles at 94°C for 30s, annealing at the temperature of choice 196 197 for 30s and elongation at 72°C for 30s. A final step of elongation was set at 72°C for 10min. Different annealing temperatures and MgCl<sub>2</sub> concentrations for each pair of 198 199 primers were assayed (Table 1). PCR products were visualized in 2% agarose gels with 200 2.5µL of SimplySafe<sup>™</sup>.

In the case of DNA extracted from water samples, the PCR conditions were the same as described above with some minor modifications. Fifty cycles were used instead of 35 and  $6\mu$ L of DNA template. BSA (200ng mL<sup>-1</sup>) was added in the PCR mix to avoid the effects of inhibitors in the sample (Jiang, Alderisio, Singh, & Xiao, 2005). In addition to the blank sample, negative controls containing only PCR reagents and distilled water were included in every PCR.

### 207 In silico and in vitro validation of designed primers

208 The new taxon-specific primers were tested first in silico with the BLAST tool in the 209 NCBI webpage (Altschul, Gish, Miller, Myers, & Lipman, 1990) to confirm they aligned significantly only with the target species. To validate the marker in vitro, cross-210 amplification tests were performed using tissue DNA of different fish species occurring 211 in Spanish waters. False positives may occur from native species of the same genus, 212 perhaps of the same family. Three of the four families containing the species considered 213 in this study (Centrarchidae, Ictaluridae and Poeciliidae) are non-native to Europe 214 (Freyhof & Brooks, 2011), thus native species of such families do not occur from Spanish 215 waters and false positives are not expected. However, there are Iberian native species 216 217 from the Cyprinidae family, although not from the same genus considered in this study (Pseudorasbora), and other exotic Cyprinidae genera as well (Table S2). Thus for cross-218

amplification two native cyprinids (*Phoxinus phoxinus, Squalius pyrenaicus*) and two
 non-native cyprinids (*Carassius auratus, Leuciscus idus*), and native species
 representative of three families common in Spanish waters: *Salmo trutta* (Salmonidae),
 *Platichthys flesus* (Pleuronectidae) and *Dicentrarchus labrax* (Moronidae) were tested.

The primers developed were tested for cross-amplification with the seven species above and the five target species of this study (*Ameiurus melas*, *Gambusia holbrooki*, *Lepomis gibosus*, *Micropterus salmoides*, *Pseudorasbora parva*).

The detection limit of PCR with taxon-specific primers, visualized in agarose gels, was determined from serial dilutions of a known DNA concentration for each species. The concentration previous to that where no amplification was observed in agarose gel was considered the detection limit. DNA concentration was measured with a fluorometer Qubit® dsDNA BR Assay.

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#### 232 In situ validation of designed primers

The method was also validated in environmental DNA from controlled aquarium water samples provided by Zaragoza's city Aquarium and Ebro's Delta Ecomuseum. Water samples (1L) from tanks containing individuals of each of the studied taxa and other fish were analyzed with the five newly designed primers (Table 2). The five sets of primers were used for each tank.

For validation with field environmental samples the method was applied in Ebro River as a case study. The seven species have been reported at several places in the Ebro basin (Ministerio de Medio Ambiente 2007). At 930 kilometers it is the second longest river in the Iberian Peninsula, and the second as well by flow rate, with an average discharge of 400 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Confederación Hidrográfica del Ebro, 2016).

**Table 2: Aquarium experiments.** Water volume in the aquarium (in L), number and size of individuals of the target species, other species present in each aquarium together with the target one (number of individuals in parenthesis).

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Experiment	Volume (L)	Target species	Number of individuals (length in cm)	Other species (Number of individuals)		
Aquarium 1	800	Gambusia holbrooki	10 adults (≤3cm)	Salaria fluviatilis (35)		
Aquarium 2	6500	Micropterus salmoides	2 adults (45cm)	Anguilla anguilla (27), Emys orbicularis (3)		
Aquarium 3	7640	Ameiurus melas	2 adults (23-25cm)	Barbus graellsii (17), Cyprinus carpio (1)		
Aquarium 4	2460	Lepomis gibbosus	4 adults (5-7cm)	Barbus graessi (8), Gobio lozanoi (10), Parachondrostoma arcasii (2)		
A quarium 5	200	Pseudorasbora parva	15 adults (8-12cm) and 7 juveniles (<8cm)	-		
Aquanum 5	200	Gambusia holbrooki	1 adult (2cm)	-		



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260 261	Figure 1. Map of Ebro River and its location in Iberian Peninsula. The Ebro River is highlighted in black and the five sampling points are shown (downloaded from Confederación Hidrográfica del Ebro).

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In December 2015, water samples were taken from five points along Ebro River. 263 Three of them were sampled from running waters, far away from reservoirs, and two 264 inside the river delta (Figure 1). The three samples from running waters were taken near 265 the largest city crossed by the river (Zaragoza): one upstream from the city in Utebo 266 (sampling point #1), another in the middle of Zaragoza city (sampling point #2) and the 267 third one in Movera downstream (sampling point #3). The two samples collected in the 268 Ebro River delta were point #4 and point #5 in two ponds, where Caiola and De Sostoa 269 (2002) reported the occurrence of *P. parva*. 270

Two replicates of 1L water were collected with sterile bottles from each sampling point, putting the bottle as close to the bottom substrate as possible. They were immediately transported to the laboratory on ice and then frozen. At point #1, a survey was carried out along the riverside using a landing net. In total, 100 m were surveyed from the riverside. At the rest of the locations manual netting was not possible owing to very high river flow and rapid currents.

The primers were assayed twice to confirm the results: two replicate PCRs were done on each eDNA sample. All the positive bands found were purified, sequenced and the species confirmed by BLAST against GenBank.

### 280 Phylogenetic analysis of the DNA fragment amplified from genus-specific primers

281 In the case of the two genus-specific primers (one for the genus *Gambusia* and the other for the genus Ameiurus) additional phylogenetic analysis was done in order to check if 282 the primers distinguish between the different species of a genus. Different reference 283 284 sequences of G. holbrooki, G. affinis, A. melas, A. nebulosus, A. bruneus, A. natalis and A. catus were downloaded from GenBank. The sequences obtained in this study as well 285 as the additional reference sequences were aligned with the ClustalW application 286 included in BioEdit (Thompson et al., 1994). A Neighbour-Joining tree (Saitou & Nei, 287 1987) was built using MEGA 6.0 (Tamura, Stecher, Peterson, Filipski, & Kumar, 2013), 288 with 10000 bootstraps. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Maximum 289 290 Composite Likelihood method (Tamura, Nei, & Kumar, 2004)

- 291 292
- 293 **Results**
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### 295 Design of specific primers and experimental validation

Taxon-specific primers were designed for the analyzed taxa (Table 1). For *Gambusia* sp
and *Ameiurus* sp the primers were genus-specific and amplified from the two species of
each genus listed as invasive to Europe: *G. holbrooki* and *G. affinis*, *A. melas* and *A. nebulosus*.

From *in silico* BLAST assays, the new primers retrieved significant alignments 300 301 only fwith the species for which they were designed. Consistently with these results, cross 302 amplification was not found for the assayed species and for each pair of primers positive PCR amplification occurred only from DNA of the target species (Figure 2). A single 303 clear band of the expected size was obtained with the primers designed for each target 304 305 species, and the sequence obtained from the bands corresponded to the targeted species and gene (Table S3). Positive amplification of 16S rRNA gene with universal primers 306 (Palumbi et al., 2002) was found for all the samples used in cross amplification tests 307 (Figure 2A), confirming that DNA was of sufficient quality for successful PCR analysis. 308 Sequences from genetic barcoding of COI and 16SrRNA genes of each tissue sample are 309 available in GenBank (accession numbers KU510486, KU510498, KU510509 and from 310 311 KY231824 to KY231835).

The threshold of detection for PCR product visualization in agarose gels ranged from 100pg mL<sup>-1</sup> for *P. parva* to 0.89pg mL<sup>-1</sup> for *Gambusia* sp and *L. gibbosus* (Table 1).





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Figure 2. Agarose gels (2%) showing the results of cross-amplification experiments for each specific marker.
 16S rDNA PCR amplified with: A) universal primers (Palumbi et al., 2002); specific primers for Ameiurus sp.
 (B); Gambusia sp. (C); Lepomis gibbosus (D); Micropterus salmoides (E); Pseudorasbora parva (F). Lanes
 (from 1 to 14) in all gels are: Ladder (ML), 1-Salmo trutta, 2-Dicentrarchus labrax, 3-Platichthys flesus, 4 Alburnus alburnus, 5-Ameiurus melas, 6-Carassius auratus, 7-Lepomis gibbosus, 8-Micropterus salmoides, 9 Pseudorasvora parva, 10-Gambusia holbrooki, 11-Phoxinus phoxinus, 12- Leuciscus idus, 13-Squalius pyrenaicus, 14- Negative control.



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Figure 3. Agarose gels (2%) showing PCR products from eDNA for each specific marker. A) Ameiurus sp; B) *Gambusia* sp; C) Lepomis gibbosus; D) Micropterus salmoides; E) Pseudorasbora parva. Lanes (from 1 to 15)
in all gels are: Ladder (ML), aquarium 1 (1), aquarium 2 (2), aquarium 3 (3), aquarium 4 (4), aquarium 5 (5),
Ebro River point 1 (6), Ebro River point 2 (7), Ebro River point 3 (8), Ebro River point 4 (9), Ebro River point 5 (10). Negative controls are indicated as (Nc1 and Nc2), negative control for extraction and negative control for PCR, respectively. Positive control with tissue DNA of each species (Pc).





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Figure 4. Phylogenetic trees reconstructed from sequences obtained in this work and references from GenBank
 (the accession number is indicated). Tissue positive samples are indicated with a yellow triangle, aquarium
 samples are indicated with a purple square and Ebro River samples are indicated with a blue circle. A) *Gambusia* (76 nucleotides), B) *Ameiurus* sp (94 nucleotides).

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For the experimental validation in the aquaria, each species was detected only in water from the tank where it was present. PCR from specific primers was successful even in the case of the tank containing only one small individual of *G. holbrooki* in Aquarium number 5 (Figure 3). All the bands marked with an arrow in Figure 3 were sequenced, and the species was confirmed by BLAST (Table S3 and DDBJ accession numbers LC198795- LC198812). The negative controls for extraction (Nc1 in Figure 3) were clean and contamination along the process could be discarded.

The phylogenetic analysis showed that the sequences obtained with the two genusspecific primer pairs could separate the two *Gambusia* species, but could not distinguish the two invasive species targeted within the genus *Ameiurus*. However, these two species (*A. melas* and *A. nebulosus*) clustered separately from the rest of *Ameiurus* species (*A. brunneus*, *A. natalis* and *A. catus*), that are exotic to Europe but not considered invasive (Figure 4A for *Gambusia* and 4B for *Ameiurus*).

#### 372 Assays in field water samples: Ebro River

The results of Ebro River (Table 3, Figure 3) revealed DNA of three of the target taxa from the water samples analyzed: *Gambusia* sp, *L. gibbosus* and *P. parva*. Positive detection was obtained in the two replicates of eDNA samples taken. *Gambusia* sp were found from all the sampling points. *Lepomis gibbosus* was found from sampling point #1, and *P. parva* from point #5, in Ebro River delta where it had been reported by Caiola & De Sostoa (2002). For *Ameiurus* sp and *M. salmoides*, positive PCR amplification was not found from any Ebro River sample.

The positive bands were sequenced and are available in Table S3. The sequences amplified with *Gambusia*-specific primers from river water samples corresponded to the species *G. holbrooki*. The sequences clustered together with *G. holbrooki* reference sequences KM435020, NC028274, KP013115, supported by a robust bootstrap of 87 (Figure 4A).

385 Six *G. holbrooki* individuals were caught manually from sampling point #1, the 386 only point where land nets could be used. Their physical occurrence confirmed the 387 validity of eDNA analysis for detecting this species from running waters.

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Table 3: Ebro River field eDNA results. Sampling points along the Ebro River and their coordinates, and PCR amplification results obtained with the taxon-specific primers designed in this study. Positive PCR amplification is marked with X. Negative PCR is indicated as "-".

Samplin g points	Coordinates	Ameiurus sp	Gambusia sp	Lepomis gibbosus	Micropterus salmoides	Pseudorasbo ra parva
#1	41.736952N, - 0.992233W	-	Х	Х	-	-
#2	41.658574N, - 0.878066W	-	Х	-	-	-
#3	41.632217N, - 0.837865W	-	Х	-	-	-
#4	40.64336N, 0.7104704E	-	Х	-	-	-
#5	40.72397N, 0.721833E	-	X	-	-	Х

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## 394 **Discussion**

395 The set of specific primers designed and validated in this study has proved very sensitive for detection of seven of the commonest invasive species in Europe directly from water 396 397 samples, and can be used for direct species detection from field water samples. Other specific primers for P. parva and L. gibbosus have been assayed experimentally in 398 aquarium tanks (no running water), and in artificial ponds with known fish populations 399 (Davison et al., 2016). In addition, other specific primers for P. parva designed by Keskin 400 401 (2014) in the COI gene were successfully applied on river water samples. This study 402 contains several innovations. This is the first case of primers validated for detecting L. gibbosus from running water samples; the first primers designed within the 16SrDNA 403 404 gene for *P. parva*; and the first eDNA method at all, to our knowledge, for the other five 405 species (Gambusia sp, Ameiurus sp and M. salmoides).

Finding positive amplification results from Ebro River running water was encouraging because it confirms the power of eDNA-based methodology. Despite high flow and rapid current in this river, it was possible to detect three different species directly from small volumes of running water. Turner et al. (2014) demonstrated that smaller pore

filters (0.2µm) can recover eDNA quantities from small water volumes (similar to the 410 ones used in this study) equivalent to those obtained from filtration of larger water 411 volumes through larger pore filters. Other studies have employed from 250 mL up to 5 L 412 of water samples (Goldberg et al., 2016). The Gambusia primers enabled detection of a 413 G. holbrooki population in a zone (points #1-3) where the river is wide ( $133 \pm 24m$ ), and 414 415 where classic sampling is very difficult. The occurrence of *P. parva* in the river delta, 416 earlier reported by Caiola and De Sostoa (2002), was also confirmed using eDNA and revealed that the population is still there 15 years later. 417

Regarding the sensitivity of the five sets of primers, the detection limit was in the 418 419 range of pg mL<sup>-1</sup>, similar to that described by Davison et al. (2016) for L. gibbosus and P. parva specific primers. Therefore, the method would be useful for detecting these 420 species in early invasion stages, when the population size is still low and might be 421 overlooked from traditional sampling methods. Owing to its sensitivity, the method could 422 423 be applied to detect the seven invasive species in other European streams where they are 424 suspected. It could be especially useful in large streams, such as Rhine River, which is connected to nearly all the large rivers in south-western, southern, central and eastern 425 Europe and could be the entrance of these invasive species (Leuven et al., 2009). For 426 Centrarchidae, Ictaluridae and Poeciliidae, which are non-native families of European 427 rivers (Freyhof & Brooks, 2011), any positive result would indicate the occurrence of an 428 exotic species. Sequencing the amplicon would confirm the identification of the non-429 native species and differentiate between congeneric species, except between the two 430 431 Ameiurus species tested here.

The new tool developed here seems to be highly reliable from *in silico* and *in vitro* 432 results, being sensitive and, theoretically (at least from the current status of reference 433 434 databases) would not produce false positives from cross-amplification with other European fish species. However, more developments are recommended to completely 435 436 prevent false positives. Although the BLAST assay only retrieved significant match with the target species, in theory it would be possible to get such cross-amplification with other 437 438 species still not introduced in the databases. Expanding the current reference databases is necessary for adequate implementation of eDNA methodology for aquatic species 439 440 detection (Goldberg et al., 2016). On the other hand, false positives may be caused by DNA from dead animals, avian feces, farm discharges or fishing bait (Merkes, McCalla, 441 Jensen, Gaikowski, & Amberg, 2014; Hänfling et al., 2016; Clusa et al., 2017). eDNA 442 may still be detected when the individuals are gone because it is persistent in cold waters 443 (Ficetola et al., 2008). False positives may also be recorded because of contamination 444 during fieldwork or in the laboratory (Thomsen, & Willerslev, 2015). Sampling 445 446 replications, both temporal and from different places in a river, and the use of good 447 laboratory and field practices, including the use of a blank control sample during fieldwork, will help to solve these problems (Ficetola et al., 2015; Goldberg et al., 2016). 448

449 Another important issue to consider when working with eDNA is the possibility of obtaining false negatives from field samples. False negatives may occur in the field for 450 various reasons: when a species is scarce and its DNA has a low concentration (Ficetola 451 452 et al., 2008); the presence of inhibitors in the sample (Goldberg et al., 2014); or when the activity of a species changes seasonally (De Souza, Godwin, Renshaw, & Larson, 2016). 453 In the case described here, the absence of positive results for the Ameiurus sp and M. 454 salmoides in the Ebro River could be example of false negatives. It is possible that the 455 456 number of water sample replicates was insufficient, or that the populations were very 457 scarce. It is also possible that they were not at the sampling points examined, since these species seems to have a preference for reservoirs (Doadrio, 2001), and three of the 458 459 samples were taken far away from reservoirs.

Despite the problems discussed above, the success of eDNA for detecting 460 populations was confirmed from different studies. Doi et al., (2017) found a relationship 461 462 between eDNA concentration and fish abundance in Saba river (Japan), where they detected *Plecoglossus altivelis* eDNA from all the places where visual detection was 463 positive, but not when individuals were not found. Adrian-Kalchhauser, & Burkhardt-464 465 Holm (2016) successfully detected invasive gobies in Rhine River in Switzerland. These and other examples demonstrate that eDNA methods applied in rivers can cover equal or 466 greater distances than traditional electrofishing (Evans, Shirey, Wieringa, Mahon, & 467 Lamberti, 2017). Notwithstanding, the application of eDNA to monitoring river systems 468 469 has some intrinsic limitations due to the nature of running waters. Goldberg et al. (2014) suggested that it is not possible to infer a spatial reference in lotic systems from eDNA, 470 because suspended DNA may be transported far away from the population source. Deiner 471 & Altermatt (2014) found eDNA from two target invertebrates 9-12 km downstream from 472 473 established populations. Other studies have found DNA transport over shorter distances. 474 Civade et al. (2016) showed downstream eDNA transport for only 2-3 km in low flow in the Tier River (France), and Jane et al. (2015) also found that eDNA travel was reduced 475 at low flow. In any case, eDNA can at least give an overview of the biodiversity in a river 476 system (Rius, Bourne, Hornsby, & Chapman, 2015; Deiner, Fronhofer, Mächler, Walser, 477 & Altermatt, 2016). A positive PCR for any of the seven species in this study could be 478 considered a signal of alert, and further investigation in the area, including conventional 479 sampling, would be strongly recommended, because these species are non-native to all 480 481 Europe (Leppäkoski et al., 2002). Amplicon sequencing to confirm the species would be necessary, as well as physical confirmation of the species occurrence (e.g. from 482 conventional sampling or photographs), before attempting control and management. 483

484 Besides early detection, the tool developed here could be useful to monitor the spread of these invasive species (such as checking colonization of upstream dam areas as 485 486 Yamanaka & Minamoto (2016) did on migratory fishes); for monitoring the efficacy of 487 eradication programs (Davison, Copp, Créach, Vilizzi & Britton, 2017); or in protected 488 areas to avoid disturbing wild populations (Civade et al., 2016). Methods based on eDNA may also be used for monitoring endangered species in their native range, similar to the 489 490 studies of Margaritifera margaritifera (Stoeckle, Kuehn & Geist, 2016; Carlsson et al., 2017), Lepisosteus oculatus (Boothroyd, Mandrak, Fox & Wilson, 2016) and Zearaja 491 maugeana (Weltz et al., 2017). A possible weakness of this non-quantitative method is 492 that it determines only presence or absence of a species; however, it is easy to apply in 493 routine surveys, since it does not require special technology. It is faster and more 494 economical than metabarcoding (Comtet, Sandionigi, Viard, & Casiraghi, 2015; Taberlet, 495 496 Coissac, Pompanon, Brochmann, & Willerslev, 2012) or qPCR (Darling & Blum, 2007), 497 since the reagents needed for one sample cost about 12€ in 2017. Bioinformatics analysis 498 is not necessary for interpreting the results, in contrast with Next Generation Sequencing methods such as metabarcoding (Coissac, Riaz, & Puillandre, 2012). The whole process 499 500 can be completed in one or two days, and it is possible to analyze many samples at the 501 same time.

As a result of the work described here, the set of taxon-specific primers developed is ready for detecting seven of the commonest invasive fish species in Europe directly from water samples, based on environmental DNA, even at very low densities. This powerful and economical method may be directly applied for early detection of all these species in European waters.

- 507
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- 509

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522

# 523 Supporting information

- Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the supporting informationtab for this article:
- 526 Table S1. List of non-native fish species present in Europe and countries where they527 occur, from different databases.
- 528 Table S2. List of native and exotic freshwater fish species occurring in the Iberian529 Peninsula by family.
- Table S3. Sequences of the amplicons obtained using species-specific primers from tissueand water samples.

# 532 Data Accessibility

533

Sequences of tissue for 16S rRNA and COI genes are available in GenBank with the
accession numbers: KU510486, KU510498, KU510509, and KY231824- KY231850.
Sequences of the amplicons obtained using taxa-specific primers from tissue and water
samples (both aquarium and Ebro River) are available in DDBJ (DNA Data Bank of
Japan) with the accession numbers: LC198795- LC198812 and in supplementary Table
S3

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