

1 **Accepted in Fisheries Management and Ecology, 22/01/2016**

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3 *Management and Ecology Note*

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5 **Identifying critical periods of non-native fish dispersal from aquaculture sites**

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16 **Key words:** *Pseudorasbora parva*; natural dispersal, drain-down, invasion, risk management

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20 Global aquaculture activities tend to be highly dependent on culturing alien species, with
21 their voluntary and/ or accidental introduction into the wider environment an increasing
22 ecological concern (De Silva et al. 2010). The movement of fishes between countries and
23 biogeographic regions for aquaculture can also result in the accidental transfer of ‘hitch-
24 hiking species’ (Savini et al. 2010; Blakeslee et al. 2010), enabling the long-distance
25 dispersal of non-commercial alien species that would otherwise never be introduced into new
26 regions (Blakeslee et al. 2010). Following their introduction into aquaculture in a new region
27 then, depending on the ‘openness’ of the aquaculture facility, opportunities for their dispersal
28 into the wild potentially exist, particularly where the biosecurity of rearing facilities is low,
29 providing minimal barriers to natural dispersal (Marchini et al. 2008).

30

31 Freshwater aquaculture of cyprinid fishes is routinely completed in pond systems that usually
32 have some connection to adjacent water courses, at least for short-time periods, such as
33 during pond drain-down for fish harvesting (Horvath et al. 2002). This potentially provides
34 opportunities for the unintentional release of fishes of non-commercial interest that might
35 have been accidentally introduced to the site during fish movements. Indeed, this has been
36 implicated in the release of a number of alien fishes into the wild from aquaculture sites in
37 Europe, particularly the highly invasive topmouth gudgeon *Pseudorasbora parva* (Gozlan et
38 al. 2010). Their local dispersal from aquaculture sites has facilitated their colonisation of
39 freshwaters in at least 32 European countries and whose initial long-distance dispersal from
40 China was through being accidental contaminants of batches of Asian carps in aquaculture
41 (Gozlan et al. 2010).

42

43 The risk management of alien fishes is strongly reliant on preventing the initial introduction
44 (Davies et al. 2013) and then dispersal prevention (Britton et al. 2008, 2010). Although there

45 is extant knowledge on how to prevent *P. parva* being released accidentally into aquaculture
46 ponds via utilising auditing processes (Davies et al. 2013), there is little known about their
47 dispersal rates from sites following their release and how this is affected by on-site activities.
48 Consequently, the aim here was to assess the dispersal of *P. parva* from an aquaculture site
49 during normal operation and compare this to their dispersal during periods of pond drain-
50 down.

51

52 The study was completed on a former aquaculture facility in Southern England where *P.*
53 *parva* were licensed for holding and where previous work had revealed limited natural
54 dispersal (Pinder et al. 2005). As part of an ongoing eradication programme for *P. parva* from
55 the UK (Britton et al. 2010), this site of 42 ponds was being de-watered prior to chemical
56 treatment to extirpate the species. Each pond was at least 400 m² in area and 2 m depth, and
57 discharged into a rectangular overflow channel of 400 m length via an underground
58 connecting pipe (12 cm diameter) that was plugged during normal operation, i.e. there was no
59 water egress. This overflow channel then discharged into a settlement pond of approximately
60 200 m² via an un-screened outflow (50 cm width). Water then discharged from the settlement
61 pond into an adjacent stream via an un-screened pipe (30.5 cm diameter).

62

63 Assessment of the dispersal rates of *P. parva* was completed in two phases. Phase one was
64 completed in July 2012 and 2013, periods of the *P. parva* reproductive season when larvae
65 and juveniles were most likely to be present and drifting from the site (Pinder et al. 2005),
66 and was to assess drift under normal conditions when no ponds were being drained. A drift
67 net with a rectangular opening of 24 cm x 40 cm that lead to a 250 µm mesh net with a
68 removable end-cap (EFE & GB Nets, Bodmin, UK) was installed in front of the discharge
69 pipe of the settlement pond, so all water leaving the site passed through the net. This was set

70 for one hour starting at 09.00. As this captured no fish, it was re-set and fished continually
71 over a 24 hour period, with checking every 6 hours when the net was removed and contents
72 emptied into a sorting tray. Captured fish would be euthanized (anaesthetic overdose; MS-
73 222) and subsequently counted and measured in laboratory conditions (fork length, nearest
74 mm), enabling the number of dispersing fish per hour to be calculated. Concomitantly, the
75 flow of water passing through the net was measured using a Stream Flowmeter (NHBS Ltd.
76 Devon, UK)

77

78 The second phase was completed in July 2014 when two aquaculture ponds were being
79 drained down that were both known to contain *P. parva*. A drift net was again placed in front
80 of the discharge pipe, commencing three hours before the two ponds were drained, with
81 checking hourly. The plugs on the two ponds were then released, with the drift net then
82 checked hourly for the next 24 hours, using the same protocol as outlined above. For both
83 phases of the study, the volume of water passing through the drift net was determined from Q
84 $= A\bar{u}$ (Buchanan & Somers 1969), where Q is the discharge ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$), A is the cross section of
85 the drift net occupied by water (m^2) and \bar{u} is the water velocity (m s^{-1}).

86

87 During Phase 1, no fish were captured in the drift net in either 24 hour period when mean
88 flow rate of water passing through the drift net was $0.08 \pm 0.01 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ in 2012 and 0.07 ± 0.01
89 m s^{-1} in 2013. This was despite *P. parva* being observed in the aquaculture ponds on site,
90 including larvae and young-of-the-year. In Phase 2, no fish were captured in the drift net in
91 the initial three hours of fishing when the two ponds were still full and the mean flow was
92 $0.07 \pm 0.01 \text{ m s}^{-1}$. The water from the two ponds was then released, discharging their contents
93 initially into the overflow pond, then the settlement pond, and then through the drift net prior
94 to being discharged into the stream. Over the next 22 hours, the flow of water through the net

95 was increased to a mean of $0.47 \pm 0.13 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, with *P. parva*, plus other fishes, captured in the
96 drift net during each subsequent hour of monitoring. A total of 196 *P. parva* (42.1 ± 0.72
97 mm), 42 three spined stickleback *Gasterosteus aculeatus* (34.8 ± 1.3 mm), 6 bullhead *Cottus*
98 *gobio* (48.1 ± 2.2 mm) and 2 tench *Tinca tinca* (114.5 ± 6.5 mm) were captured. In the hours
99 when more than 5 *P. parva* were captured, whilst there were some significant differences in
100 *P. parva* lengths, these were not significantly related to mean flow per hour or time since the
101 drain-down started ($R^2 = 0.04$, $F_{1,13} = 0.55$, $P = 0.47$; $R^2 = 0.05$, $F_{1,13} = 0.53$, $P = 0.49$). The
102 relationship between the number of dispersed fish per hour, the mean flow rate in that hour
103 and time since drain-down commenced was also not significant ($R^2 = 0.04$, $F_{1,13} = 0.55$, $P =$
104 0.47 ; $R^2 = 0.05$, $F_{1,13} = 0.53$, $P = 0.49$, respectively; Fig. 1a,b). During the period of pond
105 discharge, a calculated 2,377,842 litres of water passed through the drift net, with the
106 cumulative number of fish dispersing from the site since the commencement of the drain-
107 down being significantly related to the cumulative volume of water released ($R^2 = 0.94$, $F_{1,17}$
108 $= 313.74$, $P < 0.01$; Fig 1c) and cumulative time since the drain down commenced ($R^2 = 0.83$,
109 $F_{1,17} = 51.4$, $P < 0.01$; Fig. 1d).

110

111 Thus, under the normal activities of the aquaculture site, no *P. parva* were detected drifting
112 out of the site, but this altered during the drain-down operation when relatively high numbers
113 of *P. parva* were captured passively dispersing from the site following their displacement by
114 elevated flows. Moreover, their lengths indicated they were primarily mature fish, not larvae
115 or juveniles, and thus their potential release into the wider environment during their
116 reproductive season could have implications for the subsequent establishment of populations,
117 particularly given this relatively high 'propagule pressure' (Britton & Gozlan 2013). It
118 suggests that pond aquaculture must increase biosecurity during key husbandry and
119 harvesting processes in order to minimise dispersal opportunities on sites where non-native

120 fish are present, especially those that are small bodied like *P. parva* (Gozlan et al. 2010). This
121 should assist prevention of the small-scale dispersal of non-native fishes into the wild that
122 often occurs following a long-distance dispersal event, and thus help prevent secondary
123 invasions from developing.

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159

160 **Figure captions**

161

162 Figure 1. Relationship of the number of fishes dispersed from aquaculture site with (a)
163 discharge velocity and (b) time and just before and during drain down exercise; and
164 cumulative number of fish dispersed from the aquaculture site versus total volume of water
165 released (c) and time (d). Flow is in $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$; ● *P. parva*; ○ *G. aculeatus*. Dashed line denotes
166 the flow rates pre- (left) and post-pond draining (right).

167

168

Figure 1.

