1	Genetic and phenotypic displacement of an endemic Barbus complex by invasive European
2	barbel <i>Barbus barbus</i> in central Italy
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25 Abstract

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27 Invasions of alien fishes can result in considerable consequences for native biodiversity, including 28 local extinctions of native species through genetic introgression. In Italy, the alien European barbel 29 Barbus barbus was first detected in 1994. It has since undergone range expansion, raising 30 conservation concerns on their impacts on endemic Barbus species, including Barbus plebeius and 31 Barbus tyberinus. Here, the genetic and phenotypic consequences of B. barbus invasion in the 32 Tyrrhenian and Adriatic basins of central Italy were assessed by comparing 'invaded' with 33 'uninvaded' river sections that remain free of *B. barbus* due to barriers preventing their upstream 34 dispersal. In both basins, uninvaded sites were confirmed as B. barbus free, but the endemic populations had low genetic variability. In the invaded sections, haplotype and nucleotide diversity 35 36 was relatively high, with introgression skewed towards *B. barbus* genes, with the Barbus populations 37 comprising of only 4 % and 23 % of pure autochthonous *B. tyberinus* and *B. plebejus* respectively. 38 Relatively high morphological differentiation was apparent between pure B. tyberinus and hybrid 39 forms, whilst differences were less apparent between pure B. plebejus and their hybrid forms. Thus, 40 the endemic Barbus only persist in areas that remain free of invasive B. barbus, with this only due to 41 river structures that impede their upstream movements. As these structures also limit the effective 42 population size of the endemic Barbus, conservation plans must reconcile B. barbus dispersal 43 prevention measures with the need to increase the population connectivity of the endemics.

45 Introduction

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The invasion of freshwater ecosystems by alien fishes can result in considerable consequences for 47 48 native biodiversity, including local extinctions of endemic and native species (Gozlan et al. 2010; 49 Jackson et al. 2017; Mollot et al. 2017). These consequences can result from the trophic interactions 50 of the invader with native species that lead to increased predation and competition pressure (David et 51 al. 2017; Jackson et al. 2017), the foraging behaviours of the invader that modify the habitat 52 characteristics through ecological engineering (Mollot et al. 2017), and the transmission of novel 53 pathogens (Sheath et al. 2015). In addition, genetic introgression between the invader and native 54 species can result in the loss of genetic integrity of populations of ecologically important native 55 species (Hanfling et al. 2005; Hayden et al. 2010; Meraner et al. 2013; Geiger et al. 2016). 56 Consequently, invasive alien fish represent a considerable global challenge, requiring effective 57 management and regulation (Pimentel et al. 2000; Dlugosch and Parker 2008; Estoup and Guillemaud 58 2010).

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60 The management and regulation of invasive species can be strongly informed by their invasion 61 genetics (Hänfling 2007). Information on the introduction history of the invader, its biogeographic 62 source, population connectivity, and mixing of the species in both the native and invasive range can 63 inform knowledge on its genetic diversity in the invasive range, how this diversity varies spatially, 64 and help identify the introduction pathways (e.g. Lawson Handley et al. 2011; Bock et al. 2015; 65 Hardouin et al. 2018). A further genetic consideration is where the invasion process is being 66 facilitated by hybridization, where the invader is undergoing introgression with populations of 67 taxonomically similar native species. This can result in the rapid evolution of invasiveness, with a 68 consequent loss of native genetic diversity and locally adapted genotypes (Rhymer and Simberloff 69 1996; Brennan et al. 2014; Bock et al. 2015; Morais and Reichard 2018). This is particularly common 70 in fish, especially in species of the Cyprinidae family (Scribner et al. 2001), where the widespread

incidence of interspecific hybridization among closely related species has been widely observed (Scribner et al. 2001). This potentially leads to new invasive hybrid lineages that may out-compete native parental genotypes through the production of more vigorous hybrids (Hanfling 2007). It can also result in higher adaptive capacity to altered environmental conditions that are driven by anthropogenic exploitation of the freshwater resources (e.g. habitat fragmentation due to dam and weir construction, increased environmental pollution) (e.g. Oziolor et al. 2019).

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78 These issues of invasion hybridisation and genetic introgression are increasingly apparent in Italian 79 river basins where, during the last century, environmental degradation has increased dramatically at 80 a time when there has also been multiple and recurrent introductions of freshwater fishes, especially 81 of cyprinid fish species (Gherardi et al. 2008; Castaldelli et al. 2013; Bianco, 2014; Carosi et al. 82 2017a; Lanzoni et al. 2018). Introductions of cyprinid fishes have resulted in ecological impacts 83 including trophic niche overlap, habitat shifts, and extirpations of native populations (Vilizzi 2012). There have also been frequent events of genetic introgression between native and exotic species 84 85 (Kottelat and Freyhof 2007). This is especially the case between co-generic Barbus species, with the 86 recent introduction of the exotic European barbel Barbus barbus (Linnaeus, 1758) resulting in 87 introgression with endemic Barbus species (Meraner et al. 2013; Zaccara et al. 2014). The European 88 barbel, a fluvio-lacustrine cyprinid naturally distributed in central Europe (e.g. Danube basin), has 89 habitat preferences of medium-large flowing rivers that are characterized by laminar flows and relatively warm temperatures (Kottelat and Freyhof 2007). These habitat preferences are shared with 90 91 endemic Italian barbels (common barbel Barbus plebejus Bonaparte, 1839 and Tiber barbel Barbus 92 tyberinus Bonaparte, 1839). The natural distributions of these Italian endemic barbel vary; B. plebejus 93 inhabits the Adriatic basins of Padano-Venetian district (PV), while B. tyberinus is present in 94 Tyrrhenian basins within the Tuscany-Latium district (TL) (sensu Bianco 1995). Barbus barbus was 95 first reported in Italian waters in 1994 in the Po River, with the species surmounting the Alps through 96 'mixed cyprinid stocking' events (Meraner et al. 2013). Its subsequent range expansion and invasion of several Italian river basins has been assisted by unregulated releases by recreational anglers
(Zerunian 2002). In the Po River, impacts of hybridization between *B. barbus* and endemic *Barbus*species has been well documented (Meraner et al. 20013; Zaccara et al. 2014; Piccoli et al. 2017).
Since 1998, *B. barbus* has been present in the Tyrrhenian and Adriatic basins of central Italian
peninsula (Mearelli et al. 2000), where its hybridization with native *B. plebejus* and *B. tyberinus* is
considered likely (Buonerba et al. 2015; Carosi et al. 2017b).

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The aim of this study is, therefore, to use the river basins of central Italy that are populated by *B*. *plebejus* and *B. tyberinus* to assess their genetic and phenotypic responses to the invasion of *B. barbus*. Through molecular and morphological assessment of barbels in these basins, important knowledge on the impact of invasive *B. barbus* will be generated that can then be used by policymakers and practitioners to limit its further diffusion, including of its hybrid forms.

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110 Materials and methods

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112 Sampling locations and methods

113 Pure populations of *B. tyberinus* and *B. plebejus*, and populations in basins where *B. barbus* is present, 114 were sampled in the Tyrrhenian (Tiber River) and Adriatic (Metauro River) basins respectively (Fig. 115 1, Table 1). In these rivers, both uninvaded and invaded areas have recently been recorded (Zaccara 116 et al. 2019b). In both basins, one invaded and one uninvaded site was selected. In the Tiber basin, the 117 invaded B. tyberinus site was in the Paglia River (here after referred as TLi), where B. barbus has 118 been recorded since 1998 (Carosi et al. 2017b). The non-invaded site in the Tiber river was in the 119 Montacchione Stream (here after referred as TLp), a tributary of the Paglia River that is isolated from 120 the main channel by the presence of two weirs with a head of approximately 2 m that prevents the 121 upstream movement of B. barbus (Carosi et al. 2017b; Zaccara et al. 2019b). In the Metauro River 122 basin, invaded B. plebejus were collected from the Candigliano River, where B. barbus has been present since 2005 (Lorenzoni et al. 2006). The non-invaded site was the upper section of the Metauro River basin (i.e. Bosso Stream, here named PVp), that was isolated from *B. barbus* invasion by three weirs with heads of between 0.4 and 1 m (Zaccara et al. 2019b). In general, these tributaries are characterised by highly variable flow regimes, especially in summer where flows can be very low due to a combination of drought and abstraction (for irrigation and hydropower production).

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The *Barbus* populations were sampled at each site using electric fishing during July 2019. Following their capture, fish were held in aerated tanks of water. Then, under general anaesthesia (MS-222), fish were photographed (left side; Nikon D300 camera (24–85 mm lens) positioned by a tripod on a table with a millimetric scale), measured (total length, nearest mm), weighed, and a biopsy of the caudal fin taken from a sub-sample of each population (approximately 20 specimens per site). The fin clips were preserved in 90% ethanol and stored at 4°C prior to DNA extraction. Following their recovery to normal behaviour, the fish were released to their approximate location of capture.

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137 Morphological analyses

138 A total of 167 fish were used for morphological analyses. From their images, eight morphometric and 139 four meristic traits were analysed (sensu Zaccara et al. 2019a; Supplementary material: Fig. S1A), 140 with their phenotypic characters (spot/dot/pigmentation presence on the body, and all fins and fin 141 colour) also recorded. Twenty-eight landmarks (LMs) were used for geometric morphometric 142 analyses of body shape within the R Geomorph function "digitize2d" (Adams et al. 2018; Fig. S1B). 143 In the images, the positioning of caudal fin was important in ensuring their associated LMs could be 144 used in these analyses (17-28; see supplementary material Fig. S1B). Generalized Procrustes analysis, 145 as implemented in MorphoJ software (Klingenberg 2011), removed any non-shape variation that had 146 resulted from variation in fish position, orientation, and size. In the same software, shape variations 147 between the four populations were analysed by canonical variate analyses (CVA), with Mahalanobis 148 distances calculated using permutation tests (10,000 replicates). Morphometric traits were standardized to the overall mean standard length to reduce the effects of size and allometry (Beacham 1985). Pairwise comparison on morphological traits between the four populations was performed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey post hoc tests, as implemented in PAST software (Hammer et al. 2001).

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154 Molecular analysis and DNA polymorphism

155 Total genomic DNA was extracted from 102 individuals using a proteinase K digestion, salting-out 156 method (Aljanabi and Martinez 1997). Mitochondrial control region (D-loop) sequences were 157 amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using D-loopsxF and D-loopdxR (Antognazza et al. 158 2016) primer pairs, with an 869bp length fragment analysed. As Barbus species are tetraploid, we sequenced the nuclear DNA (nDNA) growth hormone paralog-2 (GH-2) using specific primers 159 160 developed for other European species of Barbus Luciobarbus (Fand 161 GTACTATAGTAAGCAGAAATGG and R-AGTGGSAGGGAGTCGTTC; Gante et al. 2011). The 162 GH-2 locus was selected as it is polymorphic and suitable for phylogenetic and population genetic 163 analyses (Moyer et al. 2009; Gante et al. 2011; Buonerba et al. 2015).

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165 Both PCR reactions were performed using Multiplex PCR kits (Qiagen) in 10 µl reaction volumes 166 that contained approximately 10 ng of template DNA and 0.25 µM of each primer pair. Thermal 167 cycling was performed as follows: denaturation of 15 minutes at 95 °C, followed by 30 cycles (Dloop) and 35 cycles (GH-2) of 30 s at 94 °C, 90 s at 55 °C and the extension step at 72 °C for 90 s, 168 169 with the final elongation at 72 °C for 10 min. PCR products were purified using ExoSAP-ITTM (USB) 170 and directly sequenced by MACROGEN Inc (http://www.macro gen.org) using a 3730XL DNA 171 Sequencer. The nucleotide sequences of mitochondrial D-loop haplotypes and nuclear GH-2 alleles 172 were deposited in the GenBank database (Accession numbers: MT385872-MT385896 for the D-loop 173 and MT385897-MT385938 for the GH-2).

175 Alignment of all sequences was carried out automatically by Clustal W (Thompson et al. 1994), as 176 implemented in Bioedit software (Hall 1999), and further checked manually to eliminate remaining ambiguities. For the nuclear locus, the individual fish that were exclusively characterised by single 177 178 nuclear polymorphisms (SNPs) (i.e. homozygotes for one barbel species) were solved by phasing the 179 sequences using DNAsp (Librado and Rozas 2009), while specimens with alleles of different lengths 180 due to insertions or deletions (indels) (i.e. interspecific heterozygotes) were manually phased by 181 analysing the forward and reverse sequences, as detailed in Flot et al. (2006). Genetic variability was 182 estimated for each species by calculating the number of haplotypes (h), the number of polymorphic 183 sites (S), the haplotype diversity (H), and the mean number of nucleotide differences (π) for both D-184 loop mtDNA and the GH-2 nDNA locus, using DNAsp software (Librado and Rozas 2009).

185

186 *Phylogenetic analyses*

187 Maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian inference (BI) methods were used for all phylogenetic 188 analyses inferred on both the D-loop and GH-2 datasets. The best-fit nucleotide substitution model 189 was selected by the corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc) in jModeltest 2.1.7 (Darriba et al. 190 2012). For the D-loop dataset, the model used was HKY+I+G, while HKY+I was employed for the 191 GH-2 dataset. ML analyses were performed using GARLI software (Zwickl 2006; Bazinet et al. 2014) 192 with 1000 bootstrap replicates (i.e. btp). The BI was applied using MrBayes v.3.2.6 (Ronquist et al. 193 2012), with four independent runs (10^6 generations with a sampling frequency of one tree for every 194 100 generations), each with four chains (three hot and one cold). All runs reached convergence 195 (average standard deviation of split frequencies below 0.01). The posterior distribution of trees was 196 summarized in a 50% majority rule consensus tree (burn-in of 25%), with statistical support expressed 197 as posterior probability (i.e. pp).

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To definitively establish the phylogenetic taxonomic attribution of the *Barbus* samples (i.e.
differentiating the native and non-native individuals) (Tsigenopoulos et al. 2002), diagnostic

201 sequences of native B. plebejus and B. tyberinus (Buonerba et al. 2015; Zaccara et al. 2019b), and of 202 the alien *B. barbus* (detected from pure allopatric populations from English basins (Antognazza et al. 203 2016) and Italian basins (Zaccara et al. 2019b)) were retrieved from GenBank. These data were 204 included in the analyses of both the mitochondrial and nuclear datasets (see supplementary material 205 Table S1 and Table S2 for D-loop and GH-2 sequences used respectively). This step also enabled 206 possible introgression between the endemic and invasive Barbus to be traced. Two rheophilic Barbus 207 species were selected as outgroups: Barbus meridionalis Risso, 1827 (AJ388417) for D-loop and 208 Barbus caninus Bonaparte, 1839 (KF963432) for GH-2. A minimum spanning network was also 209 created from both D-loop and GH-2 multiple alignment using a statistical parsimony criterion, as 210 implemented in PopART v 1.7 software (Leigh and Bryant 2015).

211

212 *Population genetic structure*

For each sampling site, allelic polymorphisms, expressed as nucleotide diversity index (π), were calculated for each species using DNAsp software. To compare the connectivity between populations within the Tyrrhenian and Adriatic basins (*B. tyberinus* and *B. plebejus* respectively), and between invaded Tyrrhenian and Adriatic sampling sites (*B. barbus*), the genetic differentiation was tested using the fixation index Φ_{ST} (Weir & Cockerham 1984). Its significance (p<0.05) was assessed by permuting haplotypes between populations 3,024 times, as implemented in Arlequin v 3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010).

220

221 **Results**

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223 Morphological analyses

The canonical variate analyses (CVA) plot revealed the four populations clearly separated along the CV1 axis, with TL*i* individuals distinct from individuals in the other three groups (Fig. 2). This axis explained shape variations associated with the head, caudal fin and body depth. In TL*i*, the specimens 227 (identified genetically as hybrids B. tyberinus x B. barbus) had deeper bodies and longer snouts with 228 a different mouth orientation (i.e. ventral) and longer tail lobes. Specimens from the pure *B. plebejus* 229 and B. tyberinus populations (PVp and TLp, respectively) were separated along the CV2 axis, where 230 shape variations were in head, caudal fin and body depth: TLp fish displayed more fusiform and 231 slender bodies, smaller heads and caudal lobes both smaller and more rounded compared to PVp fish. 232 Even here, the main source of variation referred to the fish head and caudal fin that was both shorter 233 and more rounded in TLp than in PVp individuals. The group of fishes from PVi partially overlapped 234 with the PVp group. The maximum Mahalanobis distance (9.4) was between the TLi and the other 235 three populations, while the minimum value (6.6) was recorded between PVp and PVi populations.

236

As morphometric traits, pre-orbital distance (POD) was significantly longer in PVi and TLi 237 specimens than in fish from the other two sites (Tukey, p<0.05; Table 2). The length of ventral fin 238 239 (LVF) and the height of the first dorsal fin ossified ray (HDOR1) differed significantly between all 240 the four populations (Tukey, p<0.05), with increasing values from TLp, PVp, and PVi, up to TLi fish. 241 The length of the pectoral fin (LPF) was significantly different in the TLp fish to the other sites 242 (Tukey, p<0.05), except those from TLi. The number of scales on the lateral line (NSLL) and above 243 the lateral line was significantly lower in TLp and TLi specimens (Tukey, p<0.05), while NSLL was 244 significantly higher in the PVp specimens (Tukey, p<0.05) (Table 2).

245

All of the fish from PV*i* and TL*i* had scales with pigmentation on the edge and most also had dots (Table 3). In contrast, some fish from TL*p* had spots on the body and with the ventral and anal fins being different colours (Table 3); along with almost half of the TL*i* specimens, they also had a grey dorsal fin. Moreover, the caudal fin was mostly grey/orange in these TL*p* individuals, while it was orange in individuals from PV*p* (Table 3).

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252 *Phylogenetic attribution*

253 The complete D-loop alignment, obtained from 102 barbels, consisted of a total length of 869 bp that 254 identified 25 haplotypes. The multiple alignment of 188 GH-2 sequences, obtained from 94 barbels 255 (GH-2 sequencing failed for 8 fish), identified 42 haplotypes. Sequence analyses of the GH-2 nuclear 256 *locus* yielded a 1030 bp-long alignment, where several indels of different length (1 bp up to 95 bp) 257 were assumed to maximize base identity in flanking conserved sequence blocks (see Table 4). The 258 maximum likelihood and Bayesian phylogenetic analyses performed on the D-loop and GH-2 datasets 259 (including 'reference sequences' from GenBank of the native and non-native species; Tables S1, S2), 260 provided congruent tree topology. This revealed three evolutionary lineages that were attributed to *B*. 261 plebejus, B. tyberinus and B. barbus (Fig. 3a, b) and allowed the assignment of our novel sequences 262 to native and non-native barbels. Specifically, the B. plebejus, B. tyberinus and B. barbus clades were largely supported by both the mtDNA and nDNA data (pp > 0.9) (Fig. 3a,b). Among the 25 263 264 mitochondrial D-loop haplotypes, 7 and 3 haplotypes clustered as B. plebejus and B. tyberinus 265 respectively, and 15 as *B. barbus*; among the 42 GH-2 haplotypes, 17 were *B. plebejus*, 8 were *B.* 266 tyberinus and 17 were B. barbus.

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268 Genetic variability and Minimum spanning network

269 The mitochondrial and allelic diversity varied considerably among the species; B. barbus had the 270 highest levels of nuclear and mitochondrial polymorphism (H = 0.77 and π = 0.50%; H = 0.86 and π 271 = 0.31 respectively), whereas the lowest levels were recorded in B. tyberinus (H = 0.57 and π = 272 0.08%; H = 0.12 and π = 0.05 respectively) (Table 4). In the network analyses of *B. barbus* D-loop 273 and GH-2 haplotypes (n = 15 and 17 respectively), the most frequent haplotypes (Bbar01 and HBB01, 274 respectively) were shared in both the Adriatic (PVi) and Tyrrhenian (TLi) invaded sampling sites 275 (Fig. 4). This pattern was also reflected in two more D-loop haplotypes (Bbar09 and Bbar23) (Fig. 276 4). There were 4 and 5 private haplotypes detected at PV*i* in the GH-2 and D-loop dataset respectively 277 (Fig. 4A), whilst 12 and 7 private haplotypes were detected in these at TL*i*, all separated by up to 15 278 mutational steps (Fig. 4B).

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280 Status of B. barbus invasion within Tyrrhenian and Adriatic basins

281 The nuclear and mitochondrial genetic composition of each population are in Figure 1, with the 282 haplotype distribution and frequencies provided in Supplementary material (Table S3 and Table S4 283 for D-loop and GH-2 respectively). Mitochondrial and nuclear sequences obtained from PVp and 284 TL_p populations confirmed the absence of *B. barbus* haplotypes and the exclusive presence of *B.* 285 plebejus and B. tyberinus haplotypes respectively (Fig. 1, Table S3, Table S4). In contrast, in the PVi 286 and TLi populations, all of the D-loop sequences (i.e. 26 and 29 respectively) belonged to the B. 287 barbus clade, while the allelic frequency of GH-2 B. barbus sequences ranged between 46 and 79 % 288 respectively (Fig. 1, Table 5). The nuclear sequences thus revealed different admixture between 289 native and alien species, from hybrids (34 % B. barbus x B. tyberinus in TLi; 62 % B. barbus x B. 290 plebejus in PVi) to pure strains for B. barbus haplotypes (62 % and 15 % in TLi and PVi, 291 respectively). Only 4 % and 23 % showed both GH-2 alleles for B. tyberinus and B. plebejus 292 respectively (see Table 5).

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Values of molecular indices (haplotype and nucleotide diversity) were lowest in both native *B*. *plebejus* and *B. tyberinus* pure populations (i.e. PV*p* and TL*p* respectively), and were highest in mixed populations (PV*i* and TL*i*) for both native and exotic alleles (Table 6). Genetic differentiation between pure populations of the native species and introgressed populations were all significant: i) in *B. plebejus* between PV*p* and PV*i* ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.22$; p<0.001); and ii) in *B. tyberinus* between TL*p* and TL*i* ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.24$; p < 0.001). Major values of genetic differentiation were also recorded between *B*. *barbus* in PV*i* and TL*i* ($\phi_{ST}=0.51$; p<0.001).

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305 **Discussion**

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The morphological and genetic results confirmed hybridization between the endemic and alien *Barbus* species in the main watercourses of both the Tyrrhenian and Adriatic basins of central Italy. However, in areas of these watercourses that were considered inaccessible to *B. barbus* due to structures in the river preventing their upstream movement, the results revealed the persistence of 'pure' *B. tyberinus* and *B. plebejus* populations, so confirming the uninvaded status of these areas.

312

313 A complex of cryptic species, the Barbus complex in Italy has high morphological similarity that 314 prevents their straightforward taxonomic differentiation in the field (Geiger et al. 2016; Zaccara et al. 315 2019a). This similarity is likely to have resulted from an evolutionary lack of divergence that was 316 driven by the ecological uniformity of Italian rivers (Livi et al. 2013; Buonerba et al. 2015; Geiger et 317 al. 2016; Zaccara et al. 2019b). Introductions of the ecologically analogous and alien B. barbus, which 318 has high potential for genetic introgression with congeners, generated confusion in taxonomic 319 identification, especially when their hybrid morphological traits are rarely described (see Geiger et 320 al. 2016). While any descriptions of hybrid versus pure species morphologies should be treated 321 cautiously, as they were based on just on a mitochondrial marker and one nuclear genetic locus, there 322 was strong separation between the native fluvio-lacustrine barbel phenotypes that enabled an initial 323 and tentative morphological description of the hybrids to be made. These revealed that the *Barbus* 324 species inhabiting the Tyrrhenian slope (i.e. *B. tyberinus* in TLp) were characterized by more fusiform 325 and slender bodies with a smaller head, different mouth orientation (sub-ventral) and shorter and 326 more rounded tail lobes. These morphological variations also distinguished the hybrid phenotypes 327 from the endemic morphotypes (i.e. B. tyberinus, B. plebejus), with differences more marked for 328 hybrids in the Tiber River system than those inhabiting the Adriatic slope. Fish in TLi showed the 329 greatest morphological differentiation from that of the reference native species (i.e. B. tyberinus in 330 TLp), while barbels from PV*i* showed little differentiation from the corresponding endemic 331 morphotype (i.e. *B. plebejus* in PV*p*). For the other morphological traits, the pre-orbital distance and 332 the length of the first ossified dorsal ray and ventral fins were lower in *B. tyberinus* and *B. plebejus*, 333 with the highest values measured in the hybrid morphotypes. Correspondingly, across this 334 morphological gradient, the hybrids tended to have more extreme benthic specialized forms (e.g. 335 having longer snouts and ventral mouths, deeper bodies and longer dorsal, ventral and caudal fins). 336 Similarly, a cline was observed in the number of scales along the lateral line, a commonly used 337 meristic trait for discriminating between Barbus species (Bianco 2003a,b; Lorenzoni et al. 2006; 338 Kottelat and Freyhof 2007). The lowest scale number was in the Tiber pure population (i.e. 53-59) 339 and the highest in the *B. plebejus* populations (i.e. 61-67), with hybrids showing intermediate values 340 that match those for invasive *B. barbus* (from literature 53-62; Kottelat and Freyhof 2007). Finally, 341 hybrids were characterized by the pigmentation of the scale edge, a trait typical of the alien *Barbus*, 342 but that was absent in the Italian endemics.

343

344 The genetic pattern of both pure populations, characterised by low variability and dominated by just 345 one haplotype, suggest recent periods of low effective population size, promoting local genetic drift 346 (Grant and Bowen 1998). This is supported by general natural population reductions that have 347 resulted from angler exploitation and, especially, from hydrological fluctuations in summer when 348 scarce rainfall and excessive water abstraction cause widespread river droughts. Furthermore, the fish 349 populations in the upstream areas have become increasingly isolated due to the construction of 350 numerous barriers (mainly weirs) that impede their movements. This has limited their spawning 351 migrations and restricted geneflow between downstream and upstream areas, reducing the dispersion 352 of private haplotypes of native species that have remained confined to downstream populations, and 353 generally reducing the genetic variability of upstream populations. Nevertheless, these barriers have 354 also appeared beneficial by preventing the further upstream dispersal of *B. barbus*.

Conversely, the genetic signal of invasive *B. barbus* (high H and low π), which was similar in both Adriatic and Tyrrhenian populations, was consistent with a recent invasion history (started in the 1990s) that started with several haplotypes. The invasion of both basins probably occurred as a result of the general practice of 'multiple introductions' of fish for angling (i.e. multiple founder events) (Meraner et al. 2013). Although these anthropogenic actions initially favored the fast spread of *B. barbus*, its more recent range expansions have been through natural diffusion in the downstream areas of these rivers.

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364 Although evidence for introgression does not necessarily mean that there has been displacement of 365 one species by another one (or even that it shows the the ability to do so), we did detect that *B. barbus* 366 has invaded and largely displaced native congeners through introgression, and producing only small 367 - but distinct - morphological changes in the invaded populations (as described above). In contrast to 368 the Adriatic basin (i.e. Metauro River, PVi), B. barbus alleles in the Tyrrhenian basin (i.e. Paglia 369 river, TLi) strongly outnumbered the native alleles that were detected exclusively in a low number of 370 fishes. This nearly complete genotype and phenotypic displacement of the endemic Tiber barbel by 371 B. barbus may be due to several factors. The first is the hydrographic structure. The Tiber River basin, 372 for which Paglia (TLi) is one of the main tributaries, has a dendritic-shaped network extended on a 373 large surface area (17375 km²). This configuration may have favored the natural diffusion of B. 374 *barbus* by allowing the fish to spread more easily to large parts of the basin using the hydrographic 375 connections. In contrast, the Metauro River basin (PVi) has a relatively limited hydrographic network 376 (1325 km²) and, as with all Adriatic basins of central Italy, it flows independently to the sea, limiting 377 the ability of invasive B. barbus to disperse naturally between Adriatic rivers. A second factor may 378 relate to resident time of the alien *B. barbus* in the two basins. The higher number of introgressed fish 379 in PVi population is indicative of the more recent hybridization - after 2005 - where first generation 380 (F1) hybrids were dominant (Meraner et al. 2013), which tend to decrease in later hybrid generations 381 (Baack & Rieseberg 2007). Indeed, we detected the highest proportion of pure B. barbus in the Paglia

River, where the first record of *B. barbus* dated back to 1998. The final factor may relate to degraded water quality and habitat alteration that impacted the sustainability of the natural *B. tyberinus* populations in TL, providing the ecological niche space for the invasive *B. barbus* to utilize. It should be noted that it is likely that it was the interaction of these factors that resulted in these outcomes, rather than one factor acting in isolation.

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388 In both the Tyrrhenian and Adriatic basins, introgression was skewed toward *B. barbus* mtDNA. This 389 situation has been described as a 'mother species' effect (sensu Wirtz 1999), which can be explained 390 by the unequal size between the invader and the native species, where the larger females (i.e. B. 391 *barbus*) are favoured in spawning rather than smaller ones (*B. plebejus* and *B. tyberinus*). Indeed, in 392 other hybrids of the *Barbus* genus, the prevalence of mtDNA was observed for the larger females (B. 393 barbus x B. meridionalis (Chenuil et al. 2004); B. barbus x B. carpathicus (Lajbner et al. 2009). This 394 might be a consequence of a sexual selection mechanism that allows only the larger females to be 395 fecundated or also by a higher relative fecundity of the larger species, given *B. barbus* females may 396 produce more eggs than the native species (Banarescu et al. 2003; Bianco 2003a,b; Meraner et al. 397 2013).

398

399 The pattern of hybridization that resulted from B. barbus invasion can lead to adaptation through the 400 establishment of novel genotypes and morphologies, in which the hybrids (especially in Tyrrhenian 401 basin) are showing phenotypic traits outside of the trait range of the endemic parental species, which 402 can be a consequence of an adaptative allele introgression (Whitney et al. 2006), or a transgressive 403 segregation that has resulted in new traits (Rieseberg et al. 1999). The observed morphological 404 changes may be a response to different river characteristics (i.e. level of degradation, flow regime) 405 (e.g. Corse et al. 2009; Samways et al. 2010; Corse et al. 2015) and might be indicative of different 406 trophic resource and habitat uses (Costedoat et al. 2007; Cunha et al. 2009). This potentially results 407 in introgressed Barbus populations having a greater adaptive capacity and higher resilience to the 408 anthropogenically altered rivers than the pure endemic fish, especially as the non-native genes are 409 derived from an ecologically analogous congener. This could help ensure the Barbus genus can 410 continue to persist in these modified rivers in future. Indeed, many recent studies allude to the 411 adaptive role of hybridisation (Costedoat et al. 2007; Pfennig et al. 2007; Reyer 2008; Hayden et al. 412 2010) that can drive biodiversity responses to environmental variation (Scribner et al. 2001). 413 Therefore, it is also possible that the introgression is leading to a species erosion process where the 414 phenotype and genotype of the alien are prevalent when compared to the native ones due to the higher 415 fitness of the invader driving a species substitution process (Ward et al. 2012).

416

417 In conclusion, our results emphasize the importance of combining morphological (both with 418 traditional traits and using geometric morphometrics) and genetic (analyzing both mitochondrial and 419 nuclear DNA) approaches in the analysis of cryptic species complexes of cyprinid taxa such as Barbus 420 spp., especially when a co-generic invader is present. It was likely that the morphologies recorded in 421 the two populations invaded by alien B. barbus (PVi and TLi) may reflect initial and final 422 displacement stages of the endemic morphotypes and genotypes in the Adriatic and Tyrrhenian basins 423 respectively. This suggests that reliance on using fish body shape to identify the initial invasion stages 424 of B. barbus is insufficient, as phenotypic differences might not be evident until the later stages of 425 the invasion. This has important implications for the effective management for this cryptic invasive 426 species, as it suggests it requires the use of molecular tools for its detection in the early invasion 427 stages. Future studies should always analyse the invasion mechanisms, as these shed light on the 428 ecological and trophic factors which facilitate widespread hybridisation. Then, the improvement of 429 detailed morphological and genetic studies should help in identifying the parental hybrid taxa and 430 allow the mapping of the distribution of gene flow between the endemic species and invader. This 431 knowledge could then provide the basis of an adaptive management tool to limit *B. barbus* invasion 432 and contribute to the long-term conservation of endemic barbels.

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631 Tables

632 Table 1: Sampling sites of *B. tyberinus* (uninvaded TL*p* and invaded TL*i*) and *B. plebejus* (uninvaded

633 PVp and invaded PVi) populations, collected in Tyrrhenian (TL) and Adriatic (PV) basins

634 respectively (see Fig. 1). For each site, water course and geographic coordinates are reported. Sample

- 635 size for morphological and genetic (nDNA and mtDNA) analyses are also indicated.
- 636

			Pop	Geographic coordinates	Morp	mtDNA	nDNA
Basin		Water course	ID		hology		
Adriatic	Metauro	Bosso	PVp	43°31'3.14"N 12°33'17.89"E	41	25	25
	Metauro	Candigliano	PVi	43°38'8.59"N 12°42'41.32"E	40	26	26
Tyrrhenian	Tevere	Paglia	TLi	42°43'38.88"N 12° 7'43.00"E	42	29	29
Total	Tevere	Montacchione	TLp	42°42'44.39"N 12° 5'37.88"E	44 167	22 102	14 94

Table 2. List of the measured morphometric and meristic traits, and the mean (±standard deviation)

values per site for the pure B. plebejus (PVp), pure B. tyberinus (TLp) and their hybrids (B. barbus

x B. tyberinus in TLi and B. barbus x B. plebejus in PVi). Sample size is reported.

		PVp	PVi	TL <i>i</i>	TLp
		N=41	N=40	N=42	N=44
Morphometric traits (cm)					
Total length	TL	17.3±4.0	14.9 ± 5.9	15.9±3.6	16.7±5.2
Eye diameter	ED	$0.7{\pm}0.1$	0.6 ± 0.2	0.6 ± 0.1	0.6±0.1
Pre-orbital distance	POD	1.3 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.5	$1.4{\pm}0.3$	1.3±0.4
Mouth-operculum distance	MOD	3.5 ± 0.8	3.1±1.2	$3.2{\pm}0.8$	3.3±1.0
Length of pectoral fin	LPF	$2.7{\pm}0.7$	2.2 ± 0.9	2.5±0.6	2.7 ± 0.8
Length of ventral fin	LVF	2.1 ± 0.5	$1.9{\pm}0.7$	2.1±0.5	1.9±0.6
Length of anal fin	LAF	2.3 ± 0.7	2.1 ± 0.8	2.2±0.6	2.5±1.0
Height of the first dorsal fin ossified ray	HDOR1	2.4±0.6	2.2 ± 0.9	2.5 ± 0.6	2.2 ± 0.7
Height of the third dorsal fin ossified ray	HDOR3	$1.9{\pm}0.4$	1.5 ± 0.6	1.7 ± 0.4	1.7±0.5
Meristic traits					
Number of dorsal fin branched rays	NDBR	8 ± 0	8 ± 0	8 ± 0	8 ± 0
Number of scales on the lateral line	NSLL	64±3	60±4	56±2	56±3
Number of scales above the lateral line	NSALL	13±1	13±1	12±1	11±1
Number of scales under the lateral line	NSULL	9±1	9±1	8±1	8±1

642	Table 3. List of phenotypic	characters con	cerning spot/	dot/pigmentation	presence and	fin	colour	for
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643	the barbel population	ns of the four sites	s sampled, expressed	d as percentages (%).
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Phenotypic traits		PVp	PV <i>i</i>	TL <i>i</i>	TLp
Date on body	no	100	100	100	100
Dots off body	yes	0	0	0	0
Spots on body	no	98	92	90	66
Spots on body	yes	2	8	10	34
Scale edge nigmentation	no	100	0	0	100
Seale edge pignentation	yes	0	100	100	0
Dots on scales	no	73	0	17	98
Dots on seales	yes	27	100	83	2
Dots on dorsal fin	no	17	35	45	89
	yes	83	65	55	11
Dots on anal fin	no	100	100	95	100
Dots on anal mi	yes	0	0	5	0
Dots on caudal fin	no	51	40	64	70
Dots off Caudai III	yes	49	60	36	30
	orange	100	100	100	27
Ventral fin colour	grey	0	0	0	52
	orange/grey	0	0	0	21
	orange	100	100	100	27
Anal fin colour	grey	0	0	0	41
	orange/grey	0	0	0	32
	orange	0	5	5	0
Dorsal fin colour	grey	0	5	43	86
	orange/grey	100	90	52	14
	orange	80	70	57	11
Caudal fin colour	grey	0	0	0	5
	orange/grey	20	30	43	84

Table 4 Sequence polymorphism at mitochondrial and nuclear loci per species. N: number of 648 sequences, h: number of haplotypes excluding gaps, H: haplotype diversity, π : nucleotide diversity 649 (expressed in %), S: number of polymorphic sites, SD: standard deviation.

Table 5. Introgression pattern of invaded populations (TLi and Pvi) detailing the mitochondrial (D-loop) and nuclear (GH-2 allelles) combinations

Population	n sample ID	hap Dloop	Dloop taxa	GB code	hap GH2_a	GH2_a taxa	GB code	hap GH2_b	GH2_b taxa	GB code	nDNA alleles
PVi	Mt1	Bbar09	B. barbus	MT385886	HBP01	B. plebejus	MT385915	HBP01	B. plebejus	MT385915	Bp/Bp
PVi	Mt3	Bbar22	B. barbus	MT385892	HBP03	B. plebejus	MT385916	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt4	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBP15	B. plebejus	MT385918	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt5	Bbar10	B. barbus	MT385887	HBP03	B. plebejus	MT385916	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt6	Bbar09	B. barbus	MT385886	HBB07	B. barbus	MT385915	HBB07	B. barbus	MT385915	Bb/Bb
PVi	Mt8	Bbar10	B. barbus	MT385887	HBP13	B. plebejus	MT385926	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt9	Bbar10	B. barbus	MT385887	HBP17	B. plebejus	MT385930	HBB10	B. barbus	MT385915	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt10	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
PVi	Mt11	Bbar03	B. barbus	MT385883	HBP05	B. plebejus	MT385918	HBB10	B. barbus	MT385915	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt12	Bbar23	B. barbus	MT385893	HBP01	B. plebejus	MT385915	HBP01	B. plebejus	MT385915	Bp/Bp
PVi	Mt16	Bbar23	B. barbus	MT385893	HBP06	B. plebejus	MT385919	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt21	Bbar09	B. barbus	MT385886	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	HBB14	B. barbus	MT385915	Bb/Bb
PVi	Mt24	Bbar09	B. barbus	MT385886	HBP03	B. plebejus	MT385916	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt25	Bbar15	B. barbus	MT385890	HBP02	B. plebejus	MT385915	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt26	Bbar22	B. barbus	MT385892	HBP01	B. plebejus	MT385915	HBP01	B. plebejus	MT385915	Bp/Bp
PVi	Mt29	Bbar10	B. barbus	MT385887	HBP03	B. plebejus	MT385916	HBP07	B. plebejus	MT385920	Bp/Bp
PVi	Mt30	Bbar15	B. barbus	MT385890	HBP09	B. plebejus	MT385922	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt31	Bbar22	B. barbus	MT385892	HBP02	B. plebejus	MT385915	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt32	Bbar10	B. barbus	MT385887	HBP10	B. plebejus	MT385923	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt33	Bbar24	B. barbus	MT385894	HBP11	B. plebejus	MT385924	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt34	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBP12	B. plebejus	MT385925	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt36	Bbar22	B. barbus	MT385892	HBP01	B. plebejus	MT385915	HBP01	B. plebejus	MT385915	Bp/Bp
PVi	Mt37	Bbar15	B. barbus	MT385890	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB10	B. barbus	MT385915	Bb/Bb
PVi	Mt38	Bbar22	B. barbus	MT385892	HBP08	B. plebejus	MT385921	HBP01	B. plebejus	MT385915	Bp/Bp
PVi	Mt39	Bbar10	B. barbus	MT385887	HBP14	B. plebejus	MT385927	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb
PVi	Mt40	Bbar10	B. barbus	MT385887	HBP16	B. plebejus	MT385929	HBB02	B. barbus	MT385914	Bp/Bb

653 of each sample. Haplotypes, taxonomic attribution and GenBank accession number are provided.

TLi	PA01	Bbar11	B. barbus	MT385888	HBT01	B. tyberinus	MT385931	HBB11	B. barbus	MT385907	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA04	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB04	B. barbus	MT385900	HBB05	B. barbus	MT385901	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA05	Bbar16	B. barbus	MT385891	HBT01	B. tyberinus	MT385931	HBB06	B. barbus	MT385902	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA07	Bbar13	B. barbus	MT385889	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA08	Bbar05	B. barbus	MT385885	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA09	Bbar23	B. barbus	MT385893	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA10	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBT01	B. tyberinus	MT385931	HBB03	B. barbus	MT385899	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA11	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBT05	B. tyberinus	MT385935	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA12	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB08	B. barbus	MT385904	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA13	Bbar25	B. barbus	MT385895	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB09	B. barbus	MT385905	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA15	Bbar04	B. barbus	MT385884	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA16	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBT07	B. tyberinus	MT385937	HBB08	B. barbus	MT385904	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA17	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB03	B. barbus	MT385899	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA18	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA19	Bbar09	B. barbus	MT385886	HBT04	B. tyberinus	MT385934	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA20	Bbar04	B. barbus	MT385884	HBB17	B. barbus	MT385934	HBB05	B. barbus	MT385901	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA21	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBT04	B. tyberinus	MT385934	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA22	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB04	B. barbus	MT385900	HBB03	B. barbus	MT385899	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA23	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB15	B. barbus	MT385911	HBB03	B. barbus	MT385899	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA24	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBT08	B. tyberinus	MT385938	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA25	Bbar26	B. barbus	MT385896	HBT01	B. tyberinus	MT385931	HBT06	B. tyberinus	MT385936	Bt/Bt
TLi	PA27	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB16	B. barbus	MT385912	HBB06	B. barbus	MT385902	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA28	Bbar04	B. barbus	MT385884	HBT01	B. tyberinus	MT385931	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA33	Bbar16	B. barbus	MT385891	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA34	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB12	B. barbus	MT385908	HBB13	B. barbus	MT385909	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA38	Bbar09	B. barbus	MT385886	HBT05	B. tyberinus	MT385935	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bt/Bb
TLi	PA39	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA40	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb
TLi	PA42	Bbar01	B. barbus	MT385882	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	HBB01	B. barbus	MT385897	Bb/Bb

655	Table 6 Molecular indices calculated for the nuclear GH-2 alleles for pure B. plebejus (PVp), B.
656	tyberinus (TLp) and their hybrids (B. barbus x B. tyberinus in TLi and B. barbus x B. plebejus in
657	PVi): haplotype diversity (H), nucleotide diversity (π , expressed in %), with relative standard
658	deviations. N= number of total alleles for sampling sites; in brackets the number of alleles per species.

Species	Indices	РV <i>р</i> <i>N</i> =50	PV <i>i</i> <i>N</i> =52	TL <i>i</i> N=58	TLp N=28
D. plahaing	π (%)	0.02 ± 0.01 (50)	$0.30 \pm 0.05 \; (28)$		
Б. piebejus	Н	0.19 ± 0.01 (50)	$0.88 \pm 0.01 \; (28)$		
	π (%)			0.16 ± 0.02 (12)	0.03 ± 0.01 (28)
B. tyberinus	Н			0.90 ± 0.01 (12)	0.27 ± 0.01 (28)
	π (%)		0.43 ± 0.06 (24)	0.30 ± 0.06 (46)	
B. Darbus	Н		0.66 ± 0.01 (24)	0.69 ± 0.01 (46)	

660 Figure captions

661

Fig. 1. Sampling sites of *B. tyberinus* (uninvaded TL*p* and invaded TL*i*) and *B. plebejus* (uninvaded
PV*p* and invaded PV*i*) populations, collected in Tyrrhenian (TL) and Adriatic (PV) basins
respectively (see Table 1). Pie charts indicate the species frequency according to genetic attribution
(mtDNA inner circle and ncDNA outer circle).

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Fig. 2. Canonical variate analysis (CVA) output of the body shape comparison between *B. tyberinus*(uninvaded TL*p* and invaded TL*i*) and *B. plebejus* (uninvaded PV*p* and invaded PV*i*) populations.
Wireframe graphs indicate the shape changes along each axis (from grey to dashed black).

670

671 Fig. 3 (a) Bayesian tree for D-loop mtDNA, and (b) Maximum likelihood tree for GH-2 nDNA 672 haplotypes. Statistical support for the major clades is expressed as posterior probability (pp) and 673 bootstrap (btp) values, indicated in bold and italic respectively. Colored bars indicate current species 674 assignation. The haplotypes scored in this study are in bold, whereas the haplotypes retrieved from GenBank are indicated by their accession number (Supplementary material Table S1, S2); * indicates 675 676 haplotypes previously recorded). Morphology of each lineage is reported (i.e. *B. plebejus* in PVp; *B.* 677 tyberinus in TLp); B. barbus is represented by two hybrid forms with B. tyberinus and B. plebejus 678 (i.e. in TL*i* and in PV*i*, respectively).

679

Fig. 4. Minimum spanning networks of *B. barbus* mitochondrial (D-loop (A)) and nuclear (GH-2 (B))
recorded in Adriatic (PVi) and Tyrrhenian (TLi) invaded population. Circles represent haplotypes
and size is proportional to the frequency of each haplotype. Black dots represent missing haplotypes.