

**The effectiveness of non-native fish removal techniques in freshwater ecosystems: a
systematic review**

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22 **Abstract**

In aquatic systems, biological invasions can result in adverse ecological effects.

24 Management techniques available for non-native fish removal programs (including
eradication and population size control) vary widely, but include chemicals, harvest
26 regimes, physical removal, or biological control. For management agencies, deciding on
what non-native fish removal program to use has been challenging because there is little
28 reliable information about the relative effectiveness of these measures in controlling or
eradicating non-native fish. We conducted a systematic review, including a critical
30 appraisal of study validity, to assess the effectiveness of different non-native fish removal
methods, and to identify the factors that influence the overall success rate of each type of
32 method. We found 95 relevant studies, generating 158 data sets. The evidence base was
dominated by poorly documented studies with inadequate experimental designs (76% of
34 removal projects). When the management goal was non-native fish eradication, chemical
treatments were relatively successful (antimycin 75%; rotenone 89%) compared to other
36 interventions. Electrofishing and passive removal measure studies indicated successful
eradication was possible (58% each respectively) but required intensive effort and
38 multiple treatments over a number of years. Of these studies with sufficient information,
electrofishing had the highest success for population size control (56% of data sets).

40 Overall, inadequate data quality and completeness severely limited our ability to make
strong conclusions about the relationships between non-native fish abundance and
42 different methods of eradication and population control, and the factors influencing the
overall success rate of each method. Our review highlights that there is considerable
44 scope for improving our evaluations of non-native fish removal methods. It is

recommended that programs should have explicitly stated objectives, better data
46 reporting, and study designs that (when possible and appropriate) incorporate replicated
and controlled investigations with rigorous, long-term quantitative monitoring. Future
48 research on the effectiveness of non-native fish removal methods should focus on: (1) the
efficacy of existing or potentially new removal measures in larger, more complex
50 environments; (2) a broader range of removal measures in general, and (3) phenotypic
characteristics of individual fish within a population that fail to be eradicated or
52 controlled.

54 **Keywords:** alien invasive species, restoration, nonindigenous species, invasive species,
invasion biology, evidence-based policy.

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Introduction

68 In aquatic systems, biological invasions can result in adverse ecological effects (Gozlan
et al. 2009; Ricciardi and MacIsaac 2011). Invasive species threaten biodiversity
70 (Vitousek et al. 1997; Sala et al. 2000; Koel et al. 2005) and impose considerable
economic costs (Pimentel et al. 2005), placing increased demands on policy-makers,
72 resource managers, and scientists (Simberloff et al. 2013). The introduction and spread of
aquatic invasive species can occur by natural or human pathways, including: shipping
74 networks and canals (Ruiz et al. 1997; Levine and D'Antonio 2003), escapes from
aquaculture, aquaria and ornamental trade (Padilla and Williams 2004), stocking (Gozlan
76 et al. 2010), bait bucket transfers (Ludwig and Leitch 1996), and recreational boating
(Clarke Murray et al. 2011). Additionally, the secondary spread of introduced species
78 poses considerable challenges for resource managers (Fredenberg 2002; Lintermans
2004; Vander Zanden and Olden 2008).

80 Options for managing non-native fish species can include no action, control and/or
containment, population extirpation, and/or species eradication (Varley and Schullery
82 1995). Containment, such as implementing barriers, is used to prevent the spread of non-
native species into novel environments (Fausch et al. 2006; Finnoff et al. 2007; Peterson
84 et al. 2008; Britton et al. 2011a). However, where containment is not possible or has not
been successful, eradication has been proposed as a valid option for managing biological
86 invasions (Rinne and Turner 1991; Genovesi 2005). Eradication is the elimination of
whole fish populations or fish species from distinct habitats or bodies of water (Gresswell
88 1991), and is usually aimed at new introductions that are confined to localized spatial
areas (Britton et al. 2011b). Eradication approaches tend to be targeted, for example, by

90 exploiting vulnerable periods in the life cycle (Buhle et al. 2005; Syslo et al. 2013) or by
focusing on areas of high abundance (Meronek et al. 1996). When complete eradication is
92 infeasible or unsuccessful, control methods can be implemented to suppress the non-
native population either through selective removal or eradication of determinate
94 populations from lentic habitats where there is high risk of natural dispersal into lotic
habitats (Britton and Brazier 2006).

96 The types of fish management techniques available to resource managers to
implement fish eradication and population control programs for non-native species can
98 vary widely. Methods include chemical treatments, harvest regimes, physical removal, or
biological control (Meronek et al. 1996). The effectiveness of chemical treatments (e.g.,
100 rotenone, antimycin) depends on environmental conditions (e.g., water temperature,
depth, pH, discharge, target fish species, hydrology, substrate composition, and areas of
102 groundwater recharge; Finlayson et al. 2000); there are also concerns of unintended
consequences when non-target species are affected by chemical treatments (Vinson et al.
104 2010). Harvest regimes can include intentional over-fishing (e.g., gill netting and angling)
of target species (Paul et al. 2003; Syslo et al. 2011; Gaeta et al. 2015) or modification of
106 angling regulations (e.g., favour overharvest of target species). Physical removal
techniques can include traps, electrofishing, and/or netting programs, and biological
108 controls can include the introduction of predators, intraspecific manipulation, or targeted
pathological reactions (Davis and Britton 2015). When implementing fish management
110 programs, risk analysis assists selection of the commensurate strategy and its likelihood
of success (Britton et al. 2011a). The risk analysis includes identification and assessments

112 of hazards, including predicting the likelihood and severity of adverse effects (Koel et al.
2010; Copp et al. 2016).

114 The success of non-native fish management approaches can vary greatly depending
on objectives, such as whether control, eradication, or containment (amongst others) was
116 the ultimate goal of the project. As can be expected given the complexities of the natural
environment, success can be difficult to quantify and some approaches can be
118 unsuccessful despite best efforts (Simberloff et al. 2013; Rinne and Turner 1991;
Meronek et al. 1996). Failure of non-native fish management techniques can occur
120 because of a number of factors, including ineffective capture techniques (e.g., size-
specific efficiencies), habitat complexity (e.g., areas of refuge and plant density) and
122 water-body size, species-specific factors (e.g., size and habitat preferences), and physical
water properties (e.g., water chemistry, temperature, and water depth; Britton et al.
124 2011*b*). Determining the outcomes of management interventions, especially when
restoration of freshwater ecosystems is a goal (e.g., to eradicate non-native target fish
126 species from a specific waterbody or return the waterbody to its pre-invasion state),
requires long-term evaluation and assessment in relation to meeting the objectives (Rinne
128 and Turner 1991; Meronek et al. 1996; Britton and Brazier 2006). Post-program
evaluation and assessment is required not only to determine the effectiveness of
130 techniques but also to explore the cost-effectiveness and cost/benefit of each strategy.

There have been a number of traditional reviews conducted on the efficacy of fish
132 management measures (e.g., Corfield et al. 2007; Ayres and Clunie 2010; Halfyard 2010;
Kolar et al. 2010; Britton et al. 2011*b*). Some reviews have primarily focused on removal
134 of ‘undesirable’ (and not necessarily non-native) fish species (e.g., Schuytema 1977;

Meronek et al. 1996; Wydoski and Wiley 1999), a particular type of management
136 intervention (e.g., chemicals: Lennon 1970; Rinne and Turner 1991; Rowe 2001; Rayner
and Creese 2006; Clearwater et al. 2008), or on interventions for a particular management
138 objective i.e., prevention or containment of non-native fish (e.g., Elkins et al. 2009;
Sorensen 2015). While these reviews are valuable and may be reliable, they are also
140 susceptible to a range of biases that can reduce their reliability (Petticrew and Roberts
2008). Here, we use a ‘systematic review’ approach (Pullin and Stewart 2006) to evaluate
142 the existing literature base to assess the effectiveness of different non-native fish
eradication and population control methods. For the purpose of this review we
144 collectively refer to these methods as “removal measures”. What sets apart systematic
reviews from most traditional reviews in the field of applied ecology is that systematic
146 reviews provide a rigorous, objective, and transparent methodology to assess the impacts
of human activity and effectiveness of policy and management interventions (Roberts et
148 al. 2006; O’Leary et al. 2016; Cooke et al. 2017; CEE 2018).

Specifically, the objective of the systematic review was to evaluate the existing
150 literature base to assess the effectiveness of different non-native fish removal methods,
and to identify the factors that influence the overall success rate of each type of method,
152 in order to better inform management agencies who routinely have to decide when, where
and how non-native fish eradication programs should be implemented. The review also
154 aimed to identify knowledge gaps and suggest areas for new research.

Approach

156 Search strategy and study selection

158 The search strategy for this review was structured according to the collaboration for environmental evidence's guidelines (CEE 2013) and followed that published in the protocol (Donaldson and Cooke 2016), with changes stated in Text S1. The search

160 strategy was developed to include a variety of article types, including primary literature in peer-reviewed journals and grey literature (e.g., theses, government papers, organisation reports, and consultant reports, etc.) and used 5 online publication databases [(1) Waves (now the Federal Science Library), (2) ProQuest Dissertations & Theses

162 Global, (3) Science.gov, (4) ISI Web of Science Core Collection, and (5) Scopus; Nov 2016], and the search engine Google scholar (first 500 hits; Dec 2016). Whenever

166 possible, the following search string was applied throughout the searches (in Web of Science format): [(Fish*) AND (Invasive\$ OR "Non Native\$" OR NonNative\$ OR Alien\$ OR Exotic\$ OR introduced OR "non indigenous" OR Nonindigenous OR IAS OR "Invasive species" OR "Alien invasive\$") AND ("Fresh water" OR Freshwater OR Stream\$ OR Water\$ OR River\$ OR Lake\$ OR Reservoir\$ OR Pond\$) AND (Hydraulic OR Screen* OR Weir\$ OR Net OR Nets OR Netting OR Gill OR Trammel OR Hoop OR

170 Trap OR Cast OR Lift OR Sein* OR Trawl* OR Electrofish* OR Electric OR Cull OR Piscicide\$ OR Rotenone OR Antimycin OR Fintrol OR Explosive\$ OR Primacord OR Biocide OR Angl* OR Trotline\$ OR "Rod and reel" OR "Limb lin*" OR Limblin* OR "De water*" OR Dewater* OR "Drawn down" OR Drawndown OR Pump*) AND

172 (Restor* OR Rehabilitat* OR Remov* OR Eradicat* OR Control* OR Suppress* OR Reduc* OR Renovat* OR Exclusion OR Exclud*)]. Full details of the search strings used

178 and the number of articles found from each source are provided in Text S2. English
search terms were used to conduct all searches in all databases and search engines. No
180 date, language, or document type restrictions were applied during the searches.

We also searched for relevant information on 28 specialist organization websites
182 (see Text S3 for list of websites) in February 2017 using the abbreviated search terms
[i.e., search strings (1) fish AND eradication; (2) invasive AND eradication; (3)
184 introduced AND eradication]. Page data from the first 20 search results for each search
string were extracted (i.e., 60 hits per website), screened for relevance, and searched for
186 links or references to relevant publications, data and grey literature. Potentially useful
documents that had not already been found using publication databases or search engines
188 were recorded.

In addition, reference sections of accepted articles and 60 relevant reviews (see
190 Table S1 for a list of reviews) were hand searched to evaluate relevant articles that were
not found using the search strategy. Stakeholders and advisory team members were
192 consulted for insight and advice for new sources of information (i.e., Parks Canada,
Canadian Wildlife Federation, United States Geological Survey, and British and
194 Australian academics). We also issued a call for evidence to target sources of grey
literature through presentations at meetings and conferences (e.g., Ontario Biodiversity
196 Summit, Fisheries and Oceans Canada headquarters, American Fisheries Society –
Ontario Chapter Annual Meetings), relevant list serves (e.g., Canadian Conference for
198 Fisheries Research, American Fisheries Society), and social media (e.g., Twitter,
Facebook) and email, to alert the community of this systematic review and to reach out to

200 area experts for further recommendations and for provision of relevant unpublished
material (summer of 2016 & February 2017).

202 **Article screening and study inclusion criteria**

Articles found by searches in databases and search engines were screened in two distinct
204 stages: (1) title and abstract, and (2) full text. Articles or datasets found by other means
than database or search engine searches (i.e., specialist website or other literature
206 searches) were entered at the second stage of this screening process (i.e., full text). Prior
to screening the full set of results at each stage, consistency checks of reviewers were
208 undertaken on a subset of articles and discrepancies discussed (see Text S4A for further
details). A list of all articles excluded on the basis of full-text assessment is provided in
210 Table S2, together with the reasons for exclusion.

Each study had to pass each of the following criteria in order to be included:

212 **1. Relevant subjects**

The relevant subjects of this review were non-native freshwater fish. We did not consider
214 articles that implemented a management technique with the goal of eradicating all fish
species, including native species, or when targets were only identified as 'undesirable',
216 'trash', or 'pan' fish species. The focus on non-native freshwater fish for this systematic
review primarily stemmed from its identification as a priority for the Parks Canada
218 Agency (stakeholders), a federal government agency in Canada mandated with protecting
the natural and cultural heritage of sites (i.e., national parks and reserves, national marine
220 conservation areas and national historic sites). The maintenance and restoration of
ecological integrity represent core principles of Parks Canada such that they employ
222 biologists and restoration specialists tasked with engaging in activities such as fish

eradication and population control of non-native species. We acknowledge that articles
224 reporting information on removal measure efficacy for non-native fish species may also
contain relevant information in certain contexts; however, they do not directly address
226 our main research question. We also only considered wild or stocked systems, excluding
articles related to management in aquaculture, hatcheries, and nurseries. Note, we
228 excluded articles on sea lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*) from the review for a number of
reasons: (1) there are extensive multi-national control programs ongoing (e.g., the
230 Laurentian Great Lakes) that are not rivaled for any other freshwater fish species
(reviewed in Siefkes 2017); (2) the amount of money that has been applied to their
232 control is not comparable to other species thus far, and (3) their taxonomy (as agnathans
– one of the few freshwater jawless fishes) and ecology (i.e., parasitic life style) is such
234 that it makes it difficult to compare to other fish species. In this regard, our search terms
were not developed to capture literature on lamprey specifically.

236 **2. Relevant types of interventions**

The intervention refers to a fish eradication or population control method. Measures
238 could include (but not limited to) one or more of: (1) chemical treatment; (2) harvest
regimes (i.e., intentional over-fishing of target species, or modification of angling
240 regulations); (3) physical removal; (4) biological control [e.g., introduction of predators,
intraspecific manipulation (i.e., adding competitor species), sterilization (i.e., chemical or
242 genetic manipulation), or targeted pathological reactions]; (5) environmental (e.g.,
lowering water level); (6) other (e.g., explosives), or (7) any combination of the above
244 methods. This review focused only on measures aimed at eradication or population
control of non-native fish. We excluded articles that implemented measures to prevent the

246 introduction of a non-native fish species or to contain the spread of non-natives (e.g.,
barrier screens, behavioural avoidance measures i.e., use of food/competitor/predatory
248 odors or chemosensory cues, lights). Furthermore, we excluded articles that only
presented preliminary test findings of a larger project or a stepping-stone project that was
250 used to determine whether a management technique or product could be used as a
removal measure in the field. For example, Schill et al. (2016) suggested a potential
252 alternative to manual or piscicide fish removal in the use of the Trojan Y Chromosome
(TYC) program in which hatchery-produced genetically YY male fish would be regularly
254 released into an undesired population over time, skewing the population towards 100%
males, theoretically resulting in wild population extirpation. However, this was just a
256 preliminary study in the development of TYC technology and did not evaluate the
method as an eradication technique. These types of excluded articles could also include,
258 for example, laboratory studies determining the toxicity level requirements (i.e., exposure
concentrations to chemicals) and/or environmental variables that may affect eradication
260 technique performance (e.g., Marking et al. 1983).

3. Relevant types of comparators/study designs

262 This review compared outcomes based on articles that used Before-After (BA), Control-
Impact (CI), or a combination of these comparisons Before-After-Control-Impact (BACI)
264 and randomized controlled trial (RCT) study designs. Relevant comparators included: (1)
similar sections of the same waterbody with no intervention (i.e., upstream condition); (2)
266 separate but similar waterbodies with no intervention (i.e., waterbodies with non-native
fish present but have not had any fish management projects conducted in them); (3)
268 before intervention data within the same waterbody, or (4) an alternative intervention

type conducted on the same or different waterbodies. Theoretical studies (e.g., individual-
270 based models or population viability analysis), review papers and policy discussions were
excluded.

272 **4. Relevant types of outcomes**

The outcome of interest consisted of qualitative and quantitative information on the
274 measured effect of treatment. Measured effect of treatment generally needed to indicate
some change in abundance of the target species relative to before treatment or control.
276 We used a broad definition of abundance to include population size (or relative size),
population density (or relative density), number of fish removed (with no estimate of
278 population size/density), removal efficiency, catch per unit effort (CPUE), biomass (e.g.,
total weight of fish removed), and species presence or absence from an area or
280 management unit (as an index of high vs. low abundance for population control, or the
success/failure of an eradication attempt).

282 Additionally, only full text articles written in English or French were included.

Critical Appraisal

284 All articles that had passed full-text screening were critically appraised to assess whether
the evidence was valid for answering our review question. This critical appraisal process
286 was used to assess the absolute and relative importance of different sources of bias and
data validity elements (e.g., temporal and spatial replication). Here and throughout this
288 review, we refer this assessment of susceptibility to bias, as study validity. This critical
appraisal was based on the entire evidence found on an individual removal *study*, not on
290 individual articles. In these situations, we cite the article (i.e., primary study source) with
the most comprehensive information (or in some cases, the most recent publication) and

292 identify supportive articles as supplementary articles (see Table S3 for a list of
supplementary articles and Text S4B for further details of critical appraisal). If a study
294 contained more than one project (i.e. differed with respect to one or more components of
critical appraisal; see Table 1), each project received an individual validity rating and was
296 labelled in the data extraction table with letters (e.g., Ertel et al. 2017 “A/B/C/D”).

Critical appraisal was conducted using a predefined framework developed to: (1) assess
298 the risk of bias across a range of variables for each study (see Table 1), and (2) assign
each project with a critical appraisal category based on these variables. The framework
300 was based on an evaluation of the following criteria: study design (BACI, BA, CI),
temporal and spatial replication (see Text S4C for definitions of pre-, during- and post-
302 removal periods), measured outcome (quantitative, quantitative approximation, semi-
quantitative, or qualitative), intervention application coverage (appropriateness of
304 intervention based on species/system), control matching (how well matched the
intervention and comparator sites were in terms of habitat type), and confounding factors
306 (environmental or other factors that differ between intervention and comparator sites).

Each criterion was scored at a ‘high’, ‘medium’, ‘low’, or ‘very low’ level based on the
308 framework outlined in Table 1. The project was given an overall ‘very low’ validity if it
scored very low for replication. The study was given an overall ‘low’ validity if it scored
310 low for one or more of the criteria. If the project did not score low for any of the criteria,
it was assigned an overall ‘medium’ validity. If the study scored only high for all of the
312 criteria, it was assigned an overall ‘high’ validity (see Table S4 for assessment for the
individual studies).

314 **Data extraction strategy**

316 Data on potential effect modifiers and other metadata were extracted from the included
primary study source or their supplementary articles whenever available. Data extracted
included: study location (e.g., country, longitude, latitude, waterbody name), and species
information, the applied intervention(s) and its frequency, the outcomes, the methodology
and other potentially confounding factors that were identified as possible reasons for
heterogeneity (i.e., waterbody type, area, depth, open or closed waterbody system, time
since invasion, seasonality of intervention application(s), presence of containment
measures prior to or during study (e.g., barrier screens), study design, duration of
outcome sampling). We also gathered general study summary information, i.e., brief
statement of study objective, categorized goal of the applied intervention(s) as stated by
authors, and summarized results (Table S5). See Text S4A for details of data extraction
consistency checks.

328 The data extraction form was piloted on a representative sample of studies, to
represent the range of available studies. At this stage, it became apparent that there was a
lack of studies reporting useful quantitative data for both the intervention group and the
comparator group. For example, it was common for studies to only have qualitative
information for the outcome measure prior to intervention (i.e., presence of a non-native
fish species) and then have a quantitative value after intervention (i.e., number of fish
killed). This precluded our ability to conduct formal synthesis of quantitative outcomes
across studies, i.e. meta-analysis. Therefore, regarding the assessment of intervention
effectiveness, each study (or data set within a study) was given an effectiveness rating by
the reviewer (Table 2). These ratings were based on: (1) a comparison of quantitative data

from the comparator group and the intervention group (when possible); or (2) author's
338 conclusions on the success/failure of the intervention(s) for the stated goal (Table 2). If
neither quantitative data, nor the author's conclusions on the success of the
340 intervention(s) were provided, the effectiveness rating was classed as undetermined. This
effectiveness rating was the basis for the intervention effectiveness variable used for
342 narrative synthesis.

344 **Findings**

Review descriptive statistics

346 *Literature searches and screening*

Fig. 1 shows the step-by-step results from the search and screening process. Our literature
348 search from the five scientific databases and Google Scholar yielded 2,561 unique
records after duplicate removal. After full-text screening, 56 relevant articles met our
350 inclusion criteria from the publication databases and search engine. Another 60 relevant
articles were included after full-text screening from specialist websites, bibliographies of
352 relevant reviews, and other searches. A further 24 articles were found from searching
included article bibliographies, resulting in 140 articles that underwent data extraction
354 and study validity assessment (Fig. 1). After exclusions and combining overlapping
articles, 95 'studies' were included in the review synthesis (see Table A1 and Table S3
356 for a list of the included primary study sources). These 95 studies generated 158 data sets
(i.e., studies could have >1 datasets if they targeted more than 1 non-native species,
358 and/or evaluated different removal measures in different waterbodies).

360 *Sources of articles used for data extraction and validity assessment*

The following descriptions are based on the primary (or only) source of the study
362 information (i.e., the most comprehensive source, in cases where supplementary articles
were identified).

364 Fifty-six of the primary articles reported on research that was directly or indirectly
related to removal of at least one non-native freshwater fish species and were published
366 in peer-reviewed journals. Twenty-five are better described as monitoring or project
reports from government or consultant groups. The remaining 14 articles were in the
368 form of conference proceedings (6), theses (3), newsletters (2), a book chapter (1), a
website (1), and a conference presentation (1).

370 Primary articles were published from 1939 to 2017. Only 10 of the 95 articles were
published before 1990. Years of publications were distributed fairly evenly over the
372 period of 1980–2004, after which an increase in the number of articles can be seen over
the more recent years (2005-2017) (see Fig. 2).

374

Study validity assessment

376 Validity assessments were conducted for individual removal projects, of which there
were 106 identified from the 95 studies (see Table S4). For the majority of the projects,
378 we found the validity of the available evidence to have very low (22 of 106 projects) or
low (58 projects) study validity (very high or high susceptibility to bias). Only 1 project
380 was classified as having high study validity (Closs et al. 2001). In the remaining 25
projects, we classified the susceptibility to bias as medium (see Table 3). Projects were
382 assessed as having very low study validity when there was only 1 before or after year
assessment period and that period was >5 years either prior to or following intervention,

384 or there was insufficient information on the before or after assessment period i.e., no pre-
intervention dates were provided. The majority of projects classified as having low study
386 validity had at least one qualitative outcome measure, lacked sufficient information on
the application coverage of the intervention, and/or had low spatial/temporal replication
388 (i.e., 1 BA or CI replicate) (Table 3). Projects of medium susceptibility to bias were
assessed as such primarily because they used a BA, CI, or incomplete BACI design [i.e.,
390 data is missing for certain components of the design (e.g., missing before data for control
sites), preventing the data from quantitative analysis using the full BACI design], had
392 moderate spatial/temporal replication, and/or used quantitative approximations for both
intervention group and comparator outcome measures (Table 3).

394 Based on our study validity assessments, the quality of the available evidence
seems to have improved during the late 1980's; however, the proportion of the lower
396 quality studies in a given time period has stayed relatively similar since then (Fig. 3).

398 **Narrative synthesis**

Study descriptions

400 **Project goal.** – Nearly half of the data sets included in this review had a goal of non-
native fish eradication (77 of 158 data sets). Control of non-native fish population size
402 (i.e., a reduction in abundance, density, and biomass) was the goal of 69 of the data sets
(44%). For 12 data sets (8%) either eradication or population control was stated as the
404 goal of the project, or it was unclear whether complete eradication was the actual goal
since partial removal was considered to be a beneficial outcome. In 55 of the data sets, a
406 change in species composition (i.e., a shift from non-native to native fish species, or an

increase in native species abundance) was also identified as a goal of the project.

408 Furthermore, in 2 data sets, a change in target species size was stated as a goal in addition
to the suppression of non-native fish population size. For the purposes of this review, we
410 only focus our synthesis on information related to non-native fish eradication or
population control i.e., we do not summarize information on population structure (e.g.,
412 length, age, weight) or composition.

414 **Geographical location.** – Most of the studies in this review were performed in North
America (62% of data sets) – more than 80% of which were in the United States of
416 America (USA) –, with some carried out in Oceania (26%), Europe (11%), and Africa
(1%) (Fig. 4). When considering all studies across North America, there was nearly a
418 50/50 split between eradication and control goal-oriented projects. However, when
isolating Canadian from American projects, we found that the goal of most projects in
420 Canada was non-native fish eradication (73% of datasets), whereas, the focus was slightly
more on population control in the USA (54% of datasets) (Fig. 4). Within Europe, the
422 most frequently reported project goal was population control (58% of datasets); whereas,
eradication was most commonly stated as the goal of projects in Oceania (69% of
424 datasets).

Population. – Studies targeted 42 non-native fish species from 30 genera for removal.
426 The most common targeted non-native fish were brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*; 19
studies, 29 data sets), rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*; 13 studies, 22 data sets),
428 common or koi carp (*Cyprinus carpio*; 13 studies, 18 data sets), smallmouth bass
(*Micropterus dolomieu*; 7 studies, 8 data sets), northern pike (*Esox lucius*; 6 studies, 9

430 data sets), brown trout (*Salmo trutta*; 6 studies, 7 data sets), and European perch (*Perca*
432 *fluviatilis*; 6 studies, 6 data sets). Less than 19% of studies targeted more than 1 non-
native fish species for removal. The majority of studies implementing a removal measure
were conducted within lakes/ponds (43% of studies), and rivers/streams/creeks (42%),
434 with a few in reservoirs (11%), wetlands (3%), and canals (1%).

In the USA, studies targeted 24 non-native fish species from 17 genera, the most
436 common being rainbow and brook trout, and common carp (Table S6). Seven non-native
fish species were targeted for removal in Canada; the most frequently targeted were
438 brook trout (Table S6). Eight non-native fish species were targeted for removal in
Europe, the most common being the topmouth gudgeon (*Pseudorasbora parva*) (Table
440 S7). In Australia and New Zealand, 9 and 5 non-native fish species were targeted
respectively, with the majority of species including common carp, European perch, and
442 goldfish (*Carrasius auratus*) (Table S7).

444 **Intervention.** – The vast majority of studies implemented one main intervention to either
eradicate or control population size of a non-native fish species (70% of data sets; Fig. 5).

446 Of the studies that used one main intervention, the most commonly used removal
techniques included measures categorized as either physical (53% of data sets) or
448 chemical (38%). Studies that only used harvest, environmental, or biological type
measures were used less frequently (6%, 2% and 1%, respectively). Physical and
450 chemical measures were most frequently combined with another measure (55% and 20%
of data sets, respectively) either simultaneously or consecutively than other removal
452 measure categories.

Of the studies that implemented physical removal measures (either alone or in
454 combination with another measure), the majority used electrofishing by boat or back-
pack, or passive removal measures including hoop-, gill-, or fyke-nets, or traps (Table 4).
456 The majority of studies used chemical treatments for removal using rotenone, followed
by antimycin (trade name, Fintrol®) (Table 4). Only two types of harvest measures were
458 used and with the same frequency (i.e., angling and a combination of passive and active
netting; Table 4). For biological control measures, predator introduction was the only
460 measure utilized. Six studies used an environmental measure in the form of lake
dewatering, either alone (2 data sets) or in combination with another measure (5 data
462 sets). Only one study used an alternative form of removal through the use of explosives,
and only in combination with other measures (Table 4).

464 Just over 46% of data sets that implemented a removal measure, also included
containment measures (i.e., pre-existing measures before start of study, implemented
466 during study period, or natural barriers) to prevent/reduce the spread of non-native(s). For
studies that reported accurate information on the time since invasion (i.e., date of
468 discovery of a non-native in the study waterbody to the start of the removal program;
59% of data sets), 12% initiated removal attempts within the first year of discovery.

470

Study design and comparator. – The availability of outcome data from different
472 assessment periods of each of the included removal studies is shown in Fig. S1-S3, along
with study validity assessments. Of the 158 data sets, 136 used – in a broad sense – a BA
474 design. In 73 of these data sets, studies reported data collected before and during the
intervention, but not afterwards (BD designs); in nearly 44% of these BD data sets, the

476 actual before date period was either not stated or data were collected more than 5 years
prior to the start of the intervention (deficient BA comparison). In 63 other BA data sets,
478 outcome data were reported before, during and after intervention (BDA designs); 14% of
these BDA had a deficient BA comparison. Another 17 of 158 data sets used a BACI
480 design; 12 of which did not report outcome data after the intervention (BDCI design) and
5 which did report after data (BDACI design). The remaining 5 data sets (3 articles) in
482 the review employed a CI design (Control-Impact).

For designs that incorporated control sites (i.e., CI and BACI designs), most data
484 sets used control sites in the form of the up- or down-stream condition within the same
waterbody as the impact site(s) with the applied intervention (77% of CI and BACI data
486 sets). For the remaining CI and BACI data sets, control sites were different waterbodies
with no intervention (i.e., waterbodies with non-native fish present but had not had any
488 fish management projects conducted in them).

For study designs that reported before intervention data, the majority collected
490 outcome data ≤ 1 year prior to implementing a removal measure (81% of BA and BACI
design data sets). The available outcome data for the before period ranged from 1 to 11
492 years (Fig. S1-S3). For designs that collected 'true' after intervention outcome data, 49%
of data sets only did so ≤ 1 year after the intervention was applied. The available outcome
494 data for the 'true' after period ranged from 1 to 19 years (Fig. S1-S3). In all cases of the
CI designs, comparisons were made during the intervention periods i.e., there were no
496 'true' after monitoring periods.

The number of control sites used in CI and BACI designs ranged from 1 to 4; 55%
498 of data sets only used 1 control site. Although the number of impact sites used in these
studies had a greater range (1-13) most (55% of data sets) only used 1 impact site.

500

Outcomes. – The outcomes that we extracted from studies were dominated by semi-
502 quantitative observations (53% of data sets), whereby the outcome measure for the
comparator group was the presence of a non-native fish (a qualitative measure), and the
504 outcome measure of the intervention group was some form of a quantitative abundance
measure [e.g., the number of fish killed, abundance (or density), catch per unit effort
506 (CPUE), biomass]. For studies that collected quantitative outcome measures (39% of data
sets), nearly 43% of these reported more than one outcome measure indicating some
508 change in ‘abundance’ of target species with the intervention group relative to the
comparator group. The three most commonly reported outcome measures were: (1) the
510 number of fish killed (88 cases); (2) an estimate of population size (48 cases); and (3)
CPUE (32 cases). Relatively few studies reported outcomes in the form of abundance (or
512 density) (11 cases), percent removal efficiency (10 cases), or biomass (e.g., total weight
of fish removed/recovered) (5 cases). Qualitative observations were made in 9% of data
514 sets.

516 **Evidence of effectiveness**

Chemical treatment for eradication

518 Nearly 26% of all data sets used a fish toxicant alone for eradication attempts on non-
native fish (i.e., no other main interventions were used). The two toxicants used were

520 antimycin A (Fintrol[®]) (6 articles, 9 data sets) and rotenone (23 articles, 32 data sets),
both of which are considered general-use piscicides (i.e., toxic to all fish). Study
522 validities for effective antimycin data sets of eradication were distributed fairly evenly
over the very low, low, and medium assessments; whereas, the frequency of low validity
524 studies was higher than either the very low or medium assessments for effective rotenone
data sets (Fig. 6a and b).

526

Antimycin. – Antimycin was reported effective in eradicating a non-native fish in 75% of
528 data sets (Fig. 6a). Geographically, studies implementing antimycin alone were located in
a few US Rocky Mountain and Southwest states, and a single study in eastern Canada
530 conducted in the mid 1970s. Two studies applied the toxicant in lakes (Hooper and
Gilbert 1978; Baker et al. 2010); whereas, all others were implemented in perennial
532 creeks. Only a single study with 2 data sets used a BACI study design for evaluations of
antimycin (Marks et al. 2010); all others employed a BA study design. The number of
534 applications of antimycin varied from 1 to 3, with 78% of the antimycin data sets
applying more than 1 application, and over varying times of the year. The number of
536 ‘true’ post-monitoring years (not including the last during intervention year) ranged from
0 to 3 years after the last (or only) application of antimycin, most were ≤ 1 year after
538 treatment (56% of antimycin data sets). One study (Meffe 1983) was unsuccessful in
eradicating a non-native fish from a shallow spring after a single antimycin treatment.
540 See Table S8 for summary characteristics and results of studies implementing antimycin
alone for eradication of a non-native fish species.

542

Rotenone. – Rotenone was reported effective in eradicating a non-native fish in 89% of data sets (Fig. 6b). Rotenone was more widely and commonly used internationally than antimycin. The majority of rotenone treatments occurred in lakes (41 % of rotenone data sets), followed by ponds (25%), creeks (19%), rivers (6%), reservoirs (6%), and lagoons (3%). When looking at national trends, the number of successful eradications was greater than unsuccessful eradication attempts in all countries except Canada, where there was an equal number of each. For the countries that most commonly used rotenone, the percentage of effective eradication attempts with rotenone use was greater for USA than for Australia (87% vs. 44%, respectively). In one study, the eradication attempt was rated as partly effective since the rotenone did result in eradication in all 7 streams treated; however, the non-native later re-established in one creek and the lower reaches of another, as a result of a suspected deliberate re-introduction by anglers (Lintermans and Raadik 2003). Additionally, the eradication effectiveness was classified undetermined for one data set in another study (i.e., *Carrasius auratus*, Hall 1988), where two non-native fish species were targeted for complete eradication but post-treatment results were only presented for one of the two species.

There did not appear to be any patterns between rotenone effectiveness and the number or seasonality of application(s), species, or water-body type. Furthermore, there were no discernible patterns between rotenone effectiveness and the presence of containment measures (e.g., barrier screens), either implemented prior to or during the study, or those that occurred naturally (e.g., waterfall), or outcome category. All studies using rotenone employed a BA study design. Rotenone was applied most often only once to a waterbody (75% of data sets), but up to two times; however, for two studies,

566 insufficient details were provided on the number of applications (Swanson 1971;
Beamesderfer 2000). Although rotenone treatment was carried out at all times of the year,
568 fall was the most common season for application for studies both in the northern and
southern hemisphere (49% of reported applications). The number of ‘true’ post-treatment
570 sampling years ranged from 0 to 19 years after the last (or only) application of rotenone,
but the majority were conducted for ≤ 1 year after treatment (59% of data sets).
572 Information on area or length of the waterbody treated was often not reported in these
studies, limiting the assessment of the impact of this variable on rotenone effectiveness.
574 See Table S9 for summary characteristics and results of studies implementing rotenone
alone for eradication of a non-native fish species.

576

Chemical treatment for population size control. – Only three data sets from 2 studies
578 implemented a chemical intervention alone to evaluate the efficacy of population size
control of a target non-native fish (Fig. 6c and d). One study targeting Eurasian ruffe
580 (*Gymnocephalus cernuus*) treated two rivers in Minnesota, USA, with TFM (3-
triflouromethyl-4-nitrophenol), a taxon-specific chemical used for control of sea lamprey
582 (Boogaard et al. 1996). Comparison of pre-treatment and post-treatment CPUEs indicated
that the ruffe population was reduced by 97% (Brule River) and 54% (Amnicon River)
584 with the use of a single application of TFM. In both instances, post-treatment monitoring
was short term (i.e., Brule River: ~ 2 weeks and again 2 months after treatment; Amnicon
586 River: 5 days after treatment) and study validities were classified as low because of small
temporal repetition. In another study, Beamesderfer (2000) presented case studies, one of
588 which was not previously published that described – in very little detail – the chemical

treatment of the Tenmile Lakes system in Oregon in 1968 with rotenone for bluegill
590 (*Lepomis macrochirus*). Although it was reported that treatment had initially been
effective, 19 years of post-treatment monitoring showed bluegill quickly repopulated
592 (Beamesderfer 2000). Despite the long-term post-treatment monitoring, study validity
was classified very low because of the limited information reported in the study.

594

Physical removal for eradication

596 Of the included data sets, 15% implemented a single physical removal measure, not in
combination with any other main interventions, for eradication of a non-native fish. Two
598 general categories of physical removal measures, electrofishing (7 studies, 12 data sets),
and passive netting or trapping (6 studies, 12 data sets), were used. In general, the
600 distribution of study validities across effectiveness ratings were similar between
eradication attempts using electrofishing and passive netting/trapping measures (Fig. 6e
602 and f). The majority of studies, whether reporting effective and ineffective eradications,
were assessed as having low study validities.

604

Electrofishing. – Electrofishing was reported effective in eradicating a non-native fish in
606 58% of data sets (Fig. 6e). All studies applying electrofishing alone in an attempt to
eradicate a non-native fish species did so using backpack electrofishers. There were no
608 geographical differences in reported effectiveness between regions; most of these studies
were conducted in the USA (83% of data sets).

610 Successful eradications used a greater number of treatments to a waterbody (mean:
10.9 ± 2.57 SD) than unsuccessful eradication attempts (4.0 ± 2.34) (t-test: $t=2.15$, df

612 =10, $p= 0.057$). It should be noted that information on the number of times a waterbody
was treated with electrofishing was not always clearly reported, but the approximate total
614 number of times a waterbody was treated over the course of the intervention period (or
treated until the non-native fish species was no longer captured) varied widely from 3 to
616 24. Effective eradications were monitored from 1 to 3 years after the last treatment or
until fish were no longer captured. Unsuccessful eradication attempts were those that: (1)
618 were investigating the effectiveness of electrofishing for either eradication or suppression
of non-natives, or (2) it was unclear whether complete eradication was the actual goal
620 since partial removal was considered to be a beneficial outcome.

There were no apparent patterns between electrofishing effectiveness and the
622 number of during treatment years, the presence of a containment measure(s), or outcome
category. Furthermore, all electrofishing evaluations were conducted in small lotic
624 systems; only a single study occurred on a relatively larger river (Pacas and Taylor 2015).
In all cases, non-native targets were trout species, the majority of which were brook trout
626 (75% of data sets). Four data sets from two studies used a BACI study design for
evaluations of electrofishing (Thompson and Rahel 1996; Kulp and Moore 2000); all
628 others employed a BA study design. In all studies, electrofishing was applied for more
than 1 year (range: 2-8 years). Table S10 for summary characteristics and results of
630 studies implementing electrofishing alone for eradication of a non-native fish species.

632 ***Passive netting/trapping.*** – The frequency of data sets reporting successful eradication of
a non-native fish species using passive netting/trapping was similar as for electrofishing
634 (i.e., 58% of data sets each) (Fig. 6f). All but one study using passive removal measures

alone in an attempt to eradicate a non-native fish species used monofilament gill nets
636 with varying mesh sizes (i.e., 10-100-mm). Lozano-Vilano et al. (2006) was the only
study that used standard minnow traps to target spotted jewelfish (*Hemichromis guttatus*)
638 in Mexico. There were no differences in reported effectiveness among regions. Fifty
percent of the data sets were from a single study (Knapp et al. 2007) which targeted non-
640 native trout (*Oncorhynchus* sp., *Salvelinus* sp.) for removal from a series of mountain
lakes in California, USA. Other studies were conducted in alpine lakes in Alberta
642 Canada, Washington, USA, and another in California. Two other removal studies were
from a lake complex in Waikato, New Zealand and a pond in Coahuila Mexico.

644 There did not appear to be any patterns associated with reported factors and
eradication effectiveness using passive measures. Most passive netting/trapping studies
646 have been conducted in relatively small [i.e., <90000 m² (or 9 ha)], shallow [i.e., ≤11 m]
lentic systems. All studies employed a BA study design, and the passive netting/trapping
648 measure was applied for more than 1 year (range: 2-6 years). In most eradication attempts
using passive removal measures, intensive, continuous netting was conducted throughout
650 the year (75% of data sets). For the studies that did not conduct continuous
netting/trapping, the number of removal treatments was 2 (Neilson et al. 2004) and 17
652 times (Lozano-Vilano et al. 2006) with vague information reported in another (i.e.,
Hoffman et al. 2004: “gill nets were placed in the lake from one to three days, once to
654 several times a field season”). Post-treatment sampling ranged from 0 to 5 years after the
last treatment or until fish were no longer captured. Despite the variability in the number
656 of during and after treatment years, and the removal effort used for removals, there were
no obvious patterns between these variables and the effectiveness of passive removal

658 measures. Furthermore, containment measures were present in only 3 data sets, all in the
form of natural barriers (Cony Lake: Knapp et al. 2007; Maul Lake: Knapp and Matthews
660 1998). All outcome categories were semi-quantitative with the exception of two studies
that reported quantitative approximations (Parker et al. 2001) and quantitative (Neilson et
662 al. 2004) outcome information for comparator and intervention groups. See Table S11 for
summary characteristics and results of studies implementing passive netting/trapping
664 alone for eradication of a non-native fish species.

666 ***Physical removal for population size control***

Nearly 28% of data sets implemented a single physical removal measure for population
668 size control of a non-native fish. Three general categories of physical removal measures
were used: (1) electrofishing (15 studies, 34 data sets); (2) passive netting (4 studies, 4
670 data sets), and (3) active netting (3 studies, 6 data sets). Study validities for effective
electrofishing data sets for population control were mostly very low or low assessments;
672 however, there were a number of medium study validity assessments across effectiveness
ratings for electrofishing (Fig. 6g). All active netting data sets, and 50% of the passive
674 netting data sets, were assessed as low study validity (Fig. 6h and i).

676 ***Electrofishing.*** – Electrofishing was reported to be effective in reducing population size
of a non-native fish in 56% of data sets (Fig. 6g). Studies using electrofishing alone in
678 attempting to control non-native fish population size used either boat or back-pack
electrofishing equipment (41% and 56% of data sets, respectively). All but three studies
680 were conducted in the USA.

No discernible patterns were found between population control effectiveness and
682 factors that could cause variation. Evaluations were conducted in mostly lotic systems
such as rivers (53% of data sets) and creeks/streams (41%), and one study each in a weir
684 (Thuesen et al. 2011) and a canal (Smith et al. 1996). A variety of non-native species
were targeted for population control using electrofishing (14 species); the most common
686 being trout species (i.e., rainbow and brook trout with 21% of data sets each). Similarly, a
variety of study designs were used for evaluations of electrofishing, the most frequent
688 design being BA (65% of data sets). Two studies (7 data sets) used a BACI design
(Thompson and Rahel 1996; Propst et al. 2015), and three studies (5 data sets) used a CI
690 design (Coggins 2008; Firehammer et al. 2009).

Unlike eradication-oriented studies, we did not observe a positive relationship
692 between the number of effective data sets and the number of electrofishing treatments in
population control studies. Furthermore, for all studies but one, there were no post-
694 treatment sampling, meaning that there were always fish captured/ removed from each
electrofishing treatment and/or that a different main intervention was never used at a later
696 period to evaluate the effectiveness of electrofishing treatments in reducing population
size of the target species. In the single study that did include after treatment monitoring,
698 Meyer et al. (2006) returned to compare abundance and population dynamics of brook
trout present after 3 years after treatment to the population in the treatment years.

700 There were three studies (5 data sets) that investigated the effectiveness of
electrofishing for both eradication or population control, or that had unclear objective
702 statements. As previously noted, when eradication was considered as the primary goal in
these studies, all were found to be ineffective (see Table S10). However, when population

704 control was considered, two of these same studies (4 data sets) were found to be effective
in reducing populations size (Thompson and Rahel 1996; Caudron and Champigneulle
706 2011); only one study was found to be ineffective for both eradication and population
control (i.e., Meyer et al. 2006).

708 There were a number of electrofishing studies rated as partly effective in reducing
population size of a non-native fish (35% of the data sets). In a few of these cases,
710 reductions in abundance were observed in some but not all waterbodies (or sections)
(e.g., Franssen et al. 2014), or projects were still considered on-going (e.g., Scopettone
712 et al. 2012). For other studies, although a reduction in population size was reported, either
compensatory reproduction of mature fish that survived removal efforts from previous
714 years (e.g., Carmona-Catot et al. 2010) or immigration and recruitment pulses after
treatment, subsequently resulted in increased numbers of younger fish (e.g., Saunders et
716 al. 2015). Furthermore, although declines in non-native fish abundance with removal
efforts were observed in some studies, the efficacy of the electrofishing removal was
718 potentially confounded by external(s) systemic decline witnessed in comparator groups
(e.g., Coggins 2008). See Table S12 for summary characteristics and results of studies
720 implementing electrofishing alone for population control of a non-native fish species.

722 ***Passive and active netting.*** – Passive and active netting measures were reported effective
in reducing population size of a non-native fish in 25%, and 67% of data sets,
724 respectively. Both netting categories had relatively small sample sizes compared to the
number of electrofishing cases (Fig. 6*h* and *i*), severely limiting analysis of the
726 effectiveness of these measures for population control. Passive removal measures used to
reduce population size included fyke (8-16 mm), and gill nets (10-38 mm). Seining was

728 the only active removal measure used (i.e., 4.8 mm mesh sizes and conventional
commercial seining using 35-mm square mesh size guided by Judas fish). Seventy
730 percent of the data sets (4 studies) were conducted in the USA, with two studies in
Europe, and a single study on a lake complex in Waikato, New Zealand. Passive and
732 active removal measures have been investigated in a range of lake sizes (2500-120,000
m²), and in two rivers (80.5-km reach; and three 16-km long reaches; Trammel et al.
734 2004). Both ineffective population control data sets were from this single study on rivers
[93]. Only two studies employed a BACI study design (Trammel et al. 2004; Britton et al.
736 2010); all others used a BA design. Passive and active netting was applied for 1 to 20
years; however, this variable did not appear to be related to population control
738 effectiveness. None of the passive or active removal measures were used continuously
throughout the year, with 60% of the data sets conducted in a single season. From the
740 available information, the number of removal treatments ranged from 1-15; with limited
information reported in longest duration study (i.e., Bigelow et al. 2017). Interestingly,
742 the single study with the greatest number of treatments was found to be ineffective in
reducing population size. Trammel et al. (2004) suggested that although a reduction of
744 non-native cyprinids was observed, this reduction was quickly offset by reproduction and
that many smaller sized fish escaped through the seine nets. There were no apparent
746 patterns between passive or active netting effectiveness for population control and the
presence of a containment measure(s), or outcome category. See Table S13 for summary
748 characteristics and results of studies implementing passive or active netting alone for
population control of a non-native fish species.

750

Combinations of physical removals for eradication. – A few studies have combined
752 various physical removal measures in an attempt to eradicate a non-native fish (6
studies), with 50% of them reporting successful eradications. Most of the included
754 studies appear to be conducted in relatively larger lakes than the majority of the
previously discussed studies [range: 23,400 - 53,100,00 m² (or 2.34-531 ha)]. The
756 number of different types of measures used in combination was 2 or 5, both occurring in
three studies each. All of these studies used at least one form of passive netting (i.e.,
758 gill, fyke, seine nets) or trapping (i.e., minnow or plastic bottle traps), and
electrofishing.

760 Keeping in mind the small number of studies, there did not appear to be a pattern
between the number of measures used or the combination of measures and eradication
762 effectiveness. Reported information was limited on the number of applications and the
time between implementation of each of the measures. From what information could be
764 extracted, the combination of measures were implemented in relatively short duration of
each other, if not simultaneously. Note here again, however, the two studies that
766 investigated the effectiveness of a combination of physical removal methods for either
eradication or population control, or that had unclear objective statements, were both
768 found to be ineffective for eradication. See Table S14 for summary characteristics and
results of studies implementing combinations of physical removal measures for
770 eradication of a non-native fish species.

772 ***Combinations of physical removals for population size control.*** – There were greater
number of studies using a combination of physical removal measures for non-native fish

774 population control than for eradication (19 data sets, 15 studies). A combination of
physical removal measures was reported effective in reducing population size of a non-
776 native fish in 32% of data sets. Studies using multiple physical removal measures for
population control were widely conducted across locales and waterbody types, and
778 targeted a variety of non-native fish species; however, these factors did not appear to be
associated with effectiveness. The number of different types of measures used in
780 combination ranged from 2 to 5; the majority of which used two physical removal
measures (74% of data sets). Combinations of measures were applied simultaneously.
782 There did not appear to be a pattern between the number of measures used or the
combination of measures, and population control effectiveness. See Table S15 for
784 summary characteristics and results of studies implementing combinations of physical
removal measures for population size control of a non-native fish species.

786

788 ***Biological treatment***

Information on the effectiveness of biological control measures to eradicate or control
790 population size of non-native fish is very limited. Only a single study included in the
review used a biological control measure alone for removal of a non-native fish species.
792 Koenig et al. (2015) investigated the effectiveness of introducing sterile tiger
muskellunge (i.e., Northern pike *Esox lucius* x Muskellunge *E. masquinongy*) to eradicate
794 or suppress brook trout populations in alpine lakes in Idaho, USA. Using a BACI study
design, Koenig et al. (2015) compared CPUE from 13 stocked lakes – each stocked once
796 and at a constant density of 40 fish/ha – to four control lakes 4-5 years after predator

stocking. Complete eradication occurred in 4 of the 13 lakes within 2-5 years after
798 stocking, and declines in CPUE were seen for both treatment and control lakes, resulting
in partial effectiveness ratings for both eradication and population control (Fig. 6j and k).
800 This study was assessed as having medium study validity.

802 ***Harvest regime treatment***

Very few studies on harvest regime measures were included in the review (Fig. 6l). Two
804 forms of intentional over-fishing for population control of target species were evaluated
in relatively large water systems in the USA using: (1) gill, trammel and hoop nets, and
806 seine hauls (MacNamara et al. 2016), and (2) angling (Larson et al. 1986). During a 3-
year treatment period (c. 340 crew-days per year), MacNamara et al. (2016) reported that
808 the overall density of silver (*Hypophthalmichthys molitrix*) and bighead carp (*H. nobilis*)
decreased by over 40% and subsequently remained stable in different reaches of the
810 Upper Illinois River, USA. In a comparatively short-duration (9-week) evaluation of an
experimental fishery in Tennessee, USA, angling was found to reduce the density of non-
812 native rainbow trout (Larson et al. 1986). However, the fishery was found to have minor
immediate effect on the smallest size class of fish.

814

Environmental treatment

816 Two low validity studies used an environment measure alone, in the form of water body
dewatering, for removal of a non-native fish species (Fig. 6m and n). These studies found
818 that one attempt at pond dewatering was ineffective in eradicating the topmouth gudgeon
(*Pseudorasbora parva*) in North Yorkshire, England (Pond 3: Britton et al. 2008), but

820 effective in reducing the abundance of Eastern mosquitofish (*Gambusia holbrooki*)
within multiple ponds in New South Wales, Australia.

822

Combinations of different removal measures

824 Nearly 13% of the data sets are evaluations of various combinations of removal measures
(20 data sets from 16 studies). Comparisons of the effectiveness within, or across these
826 combinations are difficult because it is not always possible to determine whether
successful eradication or population control is a result of a single intervention or the
828 cumulative effects of two or more interventions within that combination. This is
especially true if applications are conducted simultaneously or in close temporal
830 proximity of each other, and/or if limited details are provided to determine otherwise.
Nonetheless, some general patterns can be seen from the studies. See Table S16 for
832 summary characteristics and results of studies implementing various combinations of
removal measures for population control or eradication of a non-native fish species

834 Although limited in number, there are studies showing effective eradication with
lake dewatering in conjunction with chemical treatment. Successful eradication of non-
836 native fish using the combination of dewatering of lakes/ponds followed shortly after by
one chemical application of lime was reported in two studies (David 2003; Britton et al.
838 2008). For both studies, post-monitoring was reportedly conducted shortly after liming
had been implemented. In a third study, Inland Fisheries Service (2005) reported the
840 ineffectiveness of two predatory fish species (rainbow and brown trout) to eradicate
Eastern mosquitofish in a reservoir in Tasmania. Although very little details are provided
842 – resulting in a very low study validity assessment–, after the biological control attempt

failed, the reservoir was subsequently dewatered and treated with a chemical (the type
844 unstated) that was reported to be successful in eradicating the non-native population.

Mixed results have been reported for the effectiveness of stocking predatory fish
846 for population control following unsuccessful eradication attempts using rotenone. Ward
et al. (2008) evaluated the effectiveness of utilizing Bear Lake cutthroat trout
848 (*Oncorhynchus clarkii utah*) to control Utah chub (*Gila atraria*) populations in a
reservoir in Utah, USA, and over a 16-year period, predacious cutthroat trout were
850 effective in controlling the chub population. Conversely, Michaels (2011) found that a
large piscivore population, primarily largemouth bass (*Micropterus salmoides*), were
852 ineffective in controlling common carp numbers in Illinois, USA. Both studies were
classified as very low study validity as a result of deficient BA study designs.

854 Studies implementing a combination of physical and harvest regime measures also
had mixed results for removal effectiveness. In all three cases, timing of applications for
856 the different treatments overlapped. Earle et al. (2009) reported decreased abundance of
brook trout after 11 years of selective harvest by anglers and electrofishing treatments.
858 Using these same treatments, Evangelista et al. (2015) found that removal effort did not
affect the total abundance of non-native North American pumpkinseed (*Lepomis*
860 *gibbosus*) in France. Furthermore, an intensive study in Miramichi Lake, New
Brunswick, Canada found that a combination of multiple physical removal measures and
862 harvesting reduced the size of a smallmouth bass population (*Micropterus dolomieu*), but
complete eradication was not achieved (DFO 2013).

864 The most frequent combination of removal measures included physical and
chemical treatments to eradicate a non-native fish species (50% of the combination data

866 set). Eradication was reported effective in 60% of these cases. Often physical removal
measure(s) were used prior to chemical treatment(s) to minimize injury or mortality to
868 native species present in the study waterbody, and/or remove as many non-natives as
possible (e.g., Lintermans and Rutzou 1990; Lintermans and Bourne 2011); most of these
870 attempted eradications were successful (but see Lintermans and Rutzou (1990) which
reported eradications in some but not all ponds due to dense submerged weed beds and
872 fringing emergent vegetation preventing mixing of rotenone). Buktenica et al. (2013), for
example, reported a successful eradication of brook trout from Sun Creek, Oregon, USA,
874 after 14 years of using electrofishing in the smaller headwaters of the creek, and the
combination of electrofishing and antimycin treatments (5 applications between 1992-
876 2005) in the larger downstream reaches. The use of trap-net electrofishing (i.e., custom-
designed net constructed of 0.95-cm nylon mesh including two wings directing fish,
878 herded by backpack electrofishers, through a fyke tunnel into a net bag) was reportedly
very effective for removing brook trout and salvaging the native bull trout (*Salvelinus*
880 *confluentus*) prior to chemical treatments (Buktenica et al. 2013). In another situation,
chemical treatment with rotenone was applied first to Elk Creek, Yellowstone National
882 Park, USA – a water system devoid of any native fish – and was followed by
electrofishing (Ertel et al. 2017). Both treatments were applied once a year for three years
884 resulting in the successful eradication of brook trout. Only one study reported an
ineffective eradication attempt using the combination of physical and chemical measures.
886 In a rapid response to round goby (*Neogobius melanostomus*) in Pefferlaw Brook,
Ontario, Canada, Dimond et al. (2010) reported a failed attempt at eradication after using
888 a single treatment of rotenone. Because an additional treatment of rotenone was not

possible because the permit was limited to a single application, monitoring and removal
890 intensified through the use of passive trapping, seining, electrofishing and angling;
however, their attempts at eradication were unsuccessful and efforts then shifted to
892 monitoring the spread of the non-native (Dimond et al. 2010).

Lastly, combinations involving physical and environmental measures have shown
894 mixed results. Beatty and Morgan (2017) reported complete eradication of European
perch from a reservoir in Western Australia using a combination of gillnetting and
896 seining, and reservoir dewatering. In a different reservoir in Western Australia, however,
Molony et al. (2005) reported unsuccessful eradication but effective reduction in
898 abundance of European perch using a combination of gillnetting to reduce abundance of
perch prior to dewatering, followed by a concussive technique using emulsion explosives.

900

Discussion

902 Implications for Management

Here, we present what we believe to be the first comprehensive review that
904 systematically evaluates the quality and quantity of the existing literature base on the
topic of the effectiveness of different non-native fish eradication and control methods.
906 Although much of the evidence is based on poorly documented studies with inadequate
experimental designs, and therefore considerable caution is warranted, our review
908 nevertheless highlights some general points of consideration for management agencies
and researchers.

910 First, when the goal of a management study is non-native fish eradication,
chemical treatments had relatively high success rates (antimycin 75%; rotenone 89%)

912 compared to other interventions applied. Rotenone, in particular, was more commonly
and widely applied globally than any other intervention measure for eradication, and
914 often only required one application (Table S9). Study evaluations of electrofishing and
passive removal measures showed successful eradication is possible (58% each
916 respectively); however, intensive effort is often required with multiple treatments over a
number of years (Table S10 and S11). Furthermore, effectiveness of electrofishing
918 studies may be improved by having explicitly stated management objectives with study
designs developed with those specific target objectives in mind. Although various
920 combinations of removal measures in an attempt to eradicate a non-native fish have been
used, many of these combinations have been applied in relatively few studies. The most
922 effective combination with the most available data is the combination of physical and
chemical measures (effective in 6 of 10 data sets; Table S16).

924 Second, when the goal of a management project is to control non-native fish
population size, the effectiveness of different removal measures was quite variable with
926 limited identifiable reasons for such variation. Of the studies with sufficient information,
electrofishing had the highest success for population size control (56% of data sets);
928 however, no discernible patterns could be found to explain variation in population control
effectiveness (Table S12). Relatively few studies have been conducted on single passive
930 and active netting measures, limiting adequate comparisons of effectiveness. Studies
using multiple physical removal measures for population control were widely conducted
932 across locales and waterbody types, and targeted a variety of non-native fish species;
however, results showed a relatively low success rate (32% of data sets).

934 Finally, other removal techniques besides physical and chemical measures have
been used in attempt to remove non-native fish from freshwater ecosystems, but they
936 were comparatively under-represented in the available literature base. These include, –
either alone or in combination with other techniques – biological control, harvest
938 regimes, or water-level management measures.

940 **Implications for Research**

We believe one of the most important implications for researchers (and managers) is that
942 many previously conducted projects have likely been undocumented. This failure to
document and/or share knowledge on past efforts has undoubtedly come at a cost of lost
944 learning opportunities, and wasted resources across jurisdictions. It became apparent
through discussions with our advisory team and public engagement that much of the
946 transfer of knowledge happens through informal discussion between networks of
colleagues. Transfer of knowledge through informal networks is most certainly of value
948 and should absolutely continue; however, knowledge transfer would be enhanced if the
information is disseminated in a manner that ensures it will be permanently archived (in
950 accessible formats) and more broadly distributed to those who require the information.

Failure to document and/or share knowledge on past efforts is not unique to our
952 review topic (e.g., Davis et al. 2008; Ramstead et al. 2012; Lintermans 2013), and further
underscores the need to make such information broadly available. One approach that
954 might be of benefit is the use of journals that encourage submission of papers that
document the outcomes of management practice (or field interventions) such as case
956 study reports (e.g., Journal of Fish and Wildlife Management, Restoration Ecology,

Environmental Management). Another approach could include forming collaborations
958 between practitioners and scientists from universities, government agencies, or other
organizations that may have more time and resources to help disseminate the information
960 (Ramstead et al. 2012).

Our review highlights that there is still considerable room for improvement in our
962 evaluations of non-native fish removal methods. The current evidence base is dominated
by poorly documented studies with inadequate experimental designs; an observation that
964 has been noted in previous reviews on this topic (Meronek et al. 1996; Corfield et al.
2007; Ayres and Clunie 2010). This may, in large part, be a result of the general approach
966 taken with non-native fish management which is based on site-specific problem solving,
and as such, relatively few studies incorporate replicated and controlled investigations
968 with rigorous, long-term quantitative monitoring. Because of time and resource
constraints, an adaptive management approach is often implemented, whereby the
970 performance metric becomes the reduction in non-native fish abundance. As Corfield et
al. (2007) noted, however, this approach is limited because measures of fish population
972 size or the response of impacted species/communities are rarely used, and the level of
control necessary to achieve desired goals remains unknown.

974 We also acknowledge there can be operational realities that are not always
conducive to conducting robust research projects (e.g., repeated visits to isolated study
976 locations, finding suitable analogous controls in close proximity within a study area), or
ethical issues that might prevent activities that are harmful or inappropriate for species
978 conservation (e.g., monitoring control sites where non-native fish are known to be present
and possibly threatening native populations and not applying a removal measure).

980 Nevertheless, to improve our knowledge on when, where, and how non-native fish
removal programs should be implemented, we need to modify our approach to evaluating
982 the effectiveness of removal measures. In this regard, we provide a number of
recommendations for future studies (see Table A2). Overall, explicitly stated objectives,
984 better data reporting, study designs that (when possible and appropriate) incorporate
experimentation into the process, use of quantitative outcome measures, and long-term
986 assessments of removal methods are recommended. However, incorporating such
recommendations will require greater funding from management agencies.

988 There are a number of knowledge gaps on the effectiveness of non-native fish
removal methods that deserve further study. First, while previous studies have
990 underscored variables that can affect the success of different removal measures [e.g.,
habitat complexity, physical water properties, and species-specific factors (e.g., Kolar et
992 al. 2010; Britton et al. 2011*b*)], given the complexities of the natural environment,
interactions between numerous variables makes determination of relationships between a
994 single factor and outcome challenging. The lack of information reported on key
environmental and methodological variables precluded an assessment of the effect of
996 these sources of heterogeneity in a robust manner. Furthermore, even when reported,
there was often not enough variation in values of the variables to determine whether they
998 influenced the effectiveness of removal measures. For example, all electrofishing
evaluations were conducted in lotic systems, mostly smaller creeks/streams, and in one
1000 relatively larger, but simple in morphology, river study. Furthermore, most single passive
netting studies for non-native fish eradication have been conducted in relatively small
1002 [i.e., <90,000 m² (or 9 ha)], shallow [i.e., ≤11 m] lentic systems (Table S11). Second,

there was an insufficient number of studies that investigated the use of biological control,
1004 harvest regime measures, or water-level management to draw meaningful conclusions on
their effectiveness for non-native fish removal. To better inform management decisions,
1006 we need to improve research and data reporting for a broader range of removal measures.
Third, the majority of the research has focused on a small number of fish species. As we
1008 continue to become globalized, the potential for invasion of non-native fish is real via one
of the many invasion pathways. Being able to identify approaches that are most effective
1010 for a given species would be desirable. Similarly, there is little research on understanding
the phenotypic characteristics of individuals within a population that fail to be eradicated.
1012 Do those individuals exhibit a particular behaviour (e.g., preference for deep water; see
Sih et al. 2012) or have a particular physiology (e.g., metabolic rate or physiological
1014 capacity; see Lennox et al. 2015) that makes them less vulnerable to eradication or
control? Knowing such information could provide insight into how to potentially adjust
1016 eradication and control efforts to better target all individuals in a given target population.
These topics are at the fore of invasive species science and are being explored for sea
1018 lamprey in the context of pesticide resistance (Dunlop et al. 2017).

To facilitate the knowledge base required for developing more effective removal
1020 methods, we have the following recommendations for reporting of future studies. First,
authors should provide raw data in an appendix or data archiving site. Outcome data
1022 should be reported for each year before and after implementation of a removal measure,
and for each control and impact site *separately*. In other words, outcome data should not
1024 be combined across years and/or sites and authors should clearly distinguish before,
during, and after intervention implementation periods, for each intervention method

1026 applied. Outcome data should also be recorded separately for each species or species
group wherever possible. Second, authors should include information on: (i) study
1028 locations (e.g., waterbody type, waterbody area, depth, open or closed waterbody system,
pH, temperature, discharge, plant density or coverage, canopy coverage, waterbody
1030 accessibility, and presence of containment measures prior to or during study), (ii) species-
specific information (e.g., habitat preferences, time since non-native introduction or
1032 detection, vectors of introduction, and the extent that the population is established), (iii)
the study design (e.g., outcome sampling method, outcome measure used, and duration of
1034 outcome sampling), (iv) interventions (e.g., type of removal measure(s), number of
applications per intervention, number of different interventions, timing of application in
1036 relation to other applied interventions, if >1 intervention, method of application, and
seasonality of intervention application), and (v) the overall project (e.g., level of
1038 intervention maintenance, if applicable, and project costs). If this information is already
available in another published study, authors should direct readers to that information. If
1040 we are to further our understanding of removal measure effectiveness, it is essential we
make all monitoring data available and provide comprehensive information on study
1042 locations, study design, intervention types and details of their application, and the
outcomes used and how they were measured.

1044

Review limitations

1046 There were a number of limitations of this review. These limitations fall into three
general (but interrelated) categories: (1) lack of high quality (low bias) studies; (2) lack of

1048 information reported on key environmental and methodological variables; (3)
inaccessibility of data.

1050 First, there was a paucity of studies designed to address our primary question in a
robust, quantitative manner. Over 75% of removal projects were considered to have very
1052 low or low study validity, warranting considerable caution when interpreting removal
measure effectiveness. The major causes for these classifications were due to: (1) low
1054 spatial/temporal replication (i.e., 47% of the included data sets had measurements for
either one year before and one year after treatment for BA designs, or one control site and
1056 one impact site for CI designs); inadequate replication effectively limited effect size
estimation for meta-analytical purposes for these data sets; (2) the use of a qualitative
1058 outcome measure for the comparator group and/or intervention group (i.e., 53% of data
sets), limited our ability to use standard effect size estimates, and (3) relatively short
1060 duration of post-treatment monitoring (e.g., 54% of data sets did not conduct any ‘true’
post-treatment monitoring; of those that did, 49% only did so ≤ 1 year after the
1062 intervention was applied).

Second, missing information in relation to study methodology and environmental
1064 characteristics was a common issue. Key details were often not reported, or not easily
identifiable, in relation to the date of intervention application when more than one type of
1066 intervention was applied, the number of applications, and accurate information on time
since invasion. Similarly, information on various environmental variables related to the
1068 physical and chemical characteristics of the study location(s) were often not reported
(e.g., depth, temperature, and whether the study waterbody was open or closed were
1070 reported in 38%, 20%, 54% of data sets, respectively). Inadequate data reporting severely

limited our ability to address one of our main review questions: ‘What factors influence
1072 the effectiveness of each type of removal method and in what context is each technique
most effective?’.

1074 Lastly, we believe one of the greatest limitations of this review is that many
previous studies have not been documented. Despite our best efforts to retrieve as much
1076 published and grey literature as possible, including discussions with our advisory team
and public engagement over the course of this review, studies with limited, or a complete
1078 lack of documentation were common. It is difficult to speculate whether and how our
results may be biased without inclusion of these studies; however, we did observe a
1080 higher ratio of effective to ineffective removal attempts from published articles compared
to unpublished documents (6:1 and 3.6:1, respectively). If many ineffective removal
1082 attempts went unreported, our results may be biased by a tendency to report more
frequently on effective studies. Although the “file drawer effect” may be partly
1084 responsible for this pattern, another potential explanation is that most removal studies are
associated with management actions rather than research experiments. Furthermore, most
1086 management practitioners are not rewarded for publishing findings nor provided the
support to do so.

1088 In addition to possible publication bias, there were some geographical biases in the
data. The majority of studies were from North American (62% of studies), in a particular
1090 USA (51% of studies), potentially limiting interpretation of review results to other
geographic regions.

1092

Conclusions

1094 Our review highlights several key points of consideration for both the management of
non-native fish and research on non-native fish eradication and population control
1096 methods. First, the evidence base was dominated by poorly documented studies with
inadequate experimental designs. For proper evaluation and interpretation of the efficacy
1098 of non-native fish management techniques, programs should have explicitly stated
objectives, and study designs that (when possible and appropriate) incorporate replicated
1100 and controlled investigations with rigorous, long-term quantitative monitoring (i.e.,
measures of fish population size both before and after treatment sampling rather than
1102 presence/absence data) (Table A2). Second, insufficient data reporting on important
environmental and methodological variables severely limited our ability to make strong
1104 conclusions about the relationships between non-native fish abundance and different
methods of eradication and population control, or the factors that influence the overall
1106 success rate of each type of method. To facilitate the knowledge base required for
developing more effective removal methods, we need to improve data reporting by
1108 providing comprehensive information on study locations, study design, intervention types
and details of their application, and the outcomes used and how they were measured.
1110 Lastly, our review would have been stronger if the results of more evaluations of removal
measures had been made more widely available. Assessments of fish eradication and
1112 population control methods should be disseminated in a manner that ensures they will be
permanently archived and more broadly accessed by those who require the information.

1114

1116

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1524 Tables

1526 **Table 1.** Critical appraisal tool for study validity assessment. Reviewers provided a rating of high, medium, low, or very low for each of the specific data quality features. BA: Before-After; CI: Control-Impact; BACI: Before-After-Control-Impact.

Category	Bias and generic data quality features	Specific data quality features	Design of assessed study	Score	Validity
1	Selection and performance bias: study design	Design (i.e., well-controlled)	BACI		High
			BA, CI, or Incomplete BACI		Medium
		Temporal repetition	Continuous Before-after (BA) time series (>1 replicates before and after)	25	
			Interrupted BA time series (>1 replicates before and after but not consecutive)	20	
			BA comparison (1 before, >1 after)	15	
			BA comparison (>1 before, 1 after)	12	
			BA comparison (1 before, 1 after)	10	
			Deficient BA comparison	2	
			No BA comparison	0	
		Spatial repetition	Site comparison/control-impact (CI) (>1 replicates control and impact)	25	
			Site comparison/control-impact (CI) (1 control, >1 impact)	15	
			Site comparison/control-impact (CI) (>1 control, 1 impact)	12	
			Site comparison/control-impact (CI) (1 control, 1 impact)	10	
			Deficient CI comparison (e.g. control-data from archives or not from the same period)	2	
No CI comparison	0				
			Sum temporal and spatial repetition score =		
			>15/50		High
			12-15/50		Medium

				10/50 <10	Low very low
2	Assessment bias: measurement of outcome	Measured outcome	Quantitative		High
			Quantitative approximations (estimates)		Medium
			Semi-quantitative		Low
			Qualitative		Low
		Application coverage	Intervention was applied at an appropriate spatial and temporal scale relative to target species/waterbody		High
			Intervention was not applied at an appropriate spatial and temporal scale relative to target species/waterbody		Low
			Lacking sufficient information to judge		Low
3	Selection and Performance bias: baseline comparison	Habitat type	Intervention and comparator sites homogenous i.e. similar at baseline		High
			Intervention and comparator sites moderately comparable with respect to habitat characteristics		Medium
			Intervention and comparator sites hardly comparable due to different habitat		Low
			Lacking sufficient information to judge		Low
			N/A if BA design and before measurement taken immediately prior to eradication treatment		
		Other confounding environmental factors	Intervention and comparator sites homogenous		High
			Intervention and comparator sites moderately comparable with respect to confounding factors		Medium
			Intervention and comparator sites hardly comparable with respect to confounding factors		Low
			Lacking sufficient information to judge		Low
			N/A if BA design and before measurement taken immediately prior to eradication treatment		

1528 **Note:** Deficient BA comparison: (1) before-data is not from the same site(s); (2) >5 years
1530 between before or after replicates; or (3) when there is only 1 before or after replicate and
that replicate is >5 years either prior to or following intervention.

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Table 2. Criteria for rating intervention(s) effectiveness aimed at eradication and/or population control of non-native fish and respective rating.

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Criteria for rating intervention(s) effectiveness when the goal was:		Effectiveness rating
Eradication	Population control	
Evidence exists to conclude that the intervention(s) was successful in eradicating or likely eradicating a non-native fish by comparison of quantitative data from the comparator group and the intervention group, or stated by author that a successful eradication or likely eradication had occurred.	Evidence exists to conclude that the intervention(s) was successful in reducing non-native fish population size (e.g., abundance, density, biomass) by comparison of quantitative data from the comparator group and the intervention group, or stated by author that a successful reduction of non-native fish population size had occurred.	Effective
Evidence exists to conclude that the intervention(s) was successful in eradicating or likely eradicating a non-native fish by comparison of quantitative data, or stated by authors that a successful eradication or likely eradication had occurred but: (1) only in some, and not all treated waterbodies; (2) a non-native was known (or thought) to be re-introduced illegally after treatment, or (3) the project was still on-going.	Evidence exists to conclude that the intervention(s) was successful in reducing non-native fish population size (e.g., abundance, density, biomass) by comparison of quantitative data from the comparator group and the intervention group, or stated by author that a successful reduction of non-native fish population size had occurred but: (1) the project was still on-going; (2) only for a particular size class, suggesting subsequent removal treatments were needed to sustain low population size; (3) only in some, and not all treated waterbodies, or (4) the	Partly effective

Evidence exists to conclude that the intervention(s) was not successful in eradicating a non-native fish by comparison of quantitative data from the comparator group and the intervention group, or stated by author that eradication had not occurred.	reduction in abundance was only initial, being followed by compensatory reproduction of mature fish that survived removal efforts or immigration and recruitment pulses soon after treatment.	Ineffective
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1560 **Table 3.** Study validity of the included removal projects. BA: Before-After; CI: Control-Impact; BACI: Before-After-Control-Impact.

	no. of projects
Very low	
Temporal repetition: Deficient BA comparison	22
Low or unclear	
Study design: Sum temporal and spatial repetition score (=10/50)	28
Measurement of outcome: Semi-quantitative or qualitative	52
Application coverage: Intervention was not applied at an appropriate spatial and temporal scale relative to target species/waterbody	3
Application coverage: Lacking sufficient information to judge	33
Baseline comparison: Intervention and comparator sites hardly comparable with respect to confounding factors	1
Baseline comparison: Lacking information to judge for either	5
Medium	
Study design: Well-controlled design (e.g., BA, CI, or Incomplete BACI design)	21
Study design: Sum temporal and spatial repetition score (=12-15/50)	12
Measurement of outcome: Quantitative approximations	11
Baseline comparison: Intervention and comparator sites moderately comparable with respect to habitat	2
Baseline comparison: Intervention and comparator sites hardly comparable with respect to confounding factors	1

1562 Note, the evidence for some projects has been assigned low or unclear, or medium study
1564 validity (i.e., high or medium susceptibility to bias) based on a combination of the data
quality features.

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Table 4. Number of cases of each intervention type within each intervention category in

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relation to the stated goal(s) of the study. Note, a data set could have >1 cases if >1

intervention types were applied, either from the same or different intervention category.

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Eradication/Population control: the stated goal was either eradication or population size control.

	Eradication	Population control	Eradication/ Population control	Total
Physical				
Passive netting	22	20	9	51
Active netting	3	8	1	12
Angling	1	3		4
Electrofishing	20	47	9	76
Unknown	1			1
Harvest				
Passive/Active netting		6		6
Angling	2	3	1	6
Chemical				
Rotenone	37	2	1	40
Antimycin	11			11
Other	6	2		8
Unknown	1			1
Biological				
Predator control	2	2	1	5
Environmental				
Dewatering	5	1	1	7
Other				
Explosives			1	1

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1592 **Figure captions**

1594 **Fig. 1.** Results of literature search and study selection process showing the final number
of studies included in the review synthesis. See Table S2 for details on exclusion
categories.

1596 **Fig. 2.** Year of publication of the 95 primary study sources.

1598 **Fig. 3.** Percentage of the total number of removal projects within a given time period in
relation to study validity. Number of removal projects per time period in brackets.

1600 **Fig. 4.** Number of included data sets per country in relation to the stated goal(s) of the
project. Eradication/control: the stated goal was either eradication or population size
control.

1602 **Fig. 5.** Percentage of data sets in relation to the number of main interventions applied for
removal of non-native fish.

1604 **Fig. 6.** The number of included data sets per intervention category used alone (i.e., no
other main interventions were used) to either eradicate or control population size of a
1606 non-native fish species in relation to the effectiveness rating and study validity.

Appendix

1608 **Table A1.** List of included primary study sources along with article ID. No. of data sets
per study: an article could have (1) data for more than one non-native fish species; (2)
1610 evaluated different removal measure in different waterbodies.

Supplementary material

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er-2018-0049.R1suppla

1614 **Text S1.** Variances between search outlined in the review protocol and the systematic review.

1616 **Text S2.** Description of database and search engine literature searches.

Text S3. List of specialist organization websites searched.

1618 **Text S4.** Additional methods.

er-2018-0049.R1supplb

1622 **Table S1.** List of relevant reviews hand searched to identify relevant articles that were not found using the search strategy.

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Table S2. List of articles excluded on the basis of full-text assessment and reasons for exclusion.

1628 **Table S3.** List of primary study sources for the included removal studies on the basis of full-text assessments, along with supplementary articles, that were selected for critical appraisal/data extraction.

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1632 **er-2018-0049.R1supplc**

Table S4. Study validity assessments.

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er-2018-0049.R1suppld

1636 **Table S5.** Data extraction sheet.

1638 **er-2018-0049.R1supple**

Table S6. Number of data sets for each targeted non-native fish species for the North

1640 American countries in relation to the stated goal of the project.

1642 **Table S7.** Number of data sets for each targeted non-native fish species in Europe,

Africa, Australia and New Zealand in relation to the stated goal of the project.

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Table S8. Summary characteristics and results of studies implementing antimycin alone

1646 for eradication of a non-native fish species.

1648 **Table S9.** Summary characteristics and results of studies implementing rotenone alone

for eradication of a non-native fish species.

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Table S10. Summary characteristics and results of studies implementing electrofishing

1652 alone for eradication of a non-native fish species.

1654 **Table S11.** Summary characteristics and results of studies implementing passive
netting/trapping alone for eradication of a non-native fish species.

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Table S12. Summary characteristics and results of studies implementing electrofishing
1658 alone for population control of a non-native fish species.

1660 **Table S13.** Summary characteristics and results of studies implementing passive or active
netting alone for population control of a non-native fish species.

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Table S14. Summary characteristics and results of studies implementing combinations of
1664 physical removal measures for eradication of a non-native fish species.

1666 **Table S15.** Summary characteristics and results of studies implementing combinations of
physical removal measures for population size control of a non-native fish species.

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Table S16. Summary characteristics and results of studies implementing various
1670 combinations of removal measures for population control (POPLN) or eradication
(ERAD) of a non-native fish species.

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Fig. S1. The availability of pre-, during- and post-removal outcome data from the
1676 included studies from Oceania, Africa, and Europe.

1678 **Fig. S2.** The availability of pre-, during- and post-removal outcome data from the
included North American studies.

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Fig. S3. The availability of pre-, during- and post-eradication/control outcome data from
1682 included projects for more American studies (continued from Fig. S2).

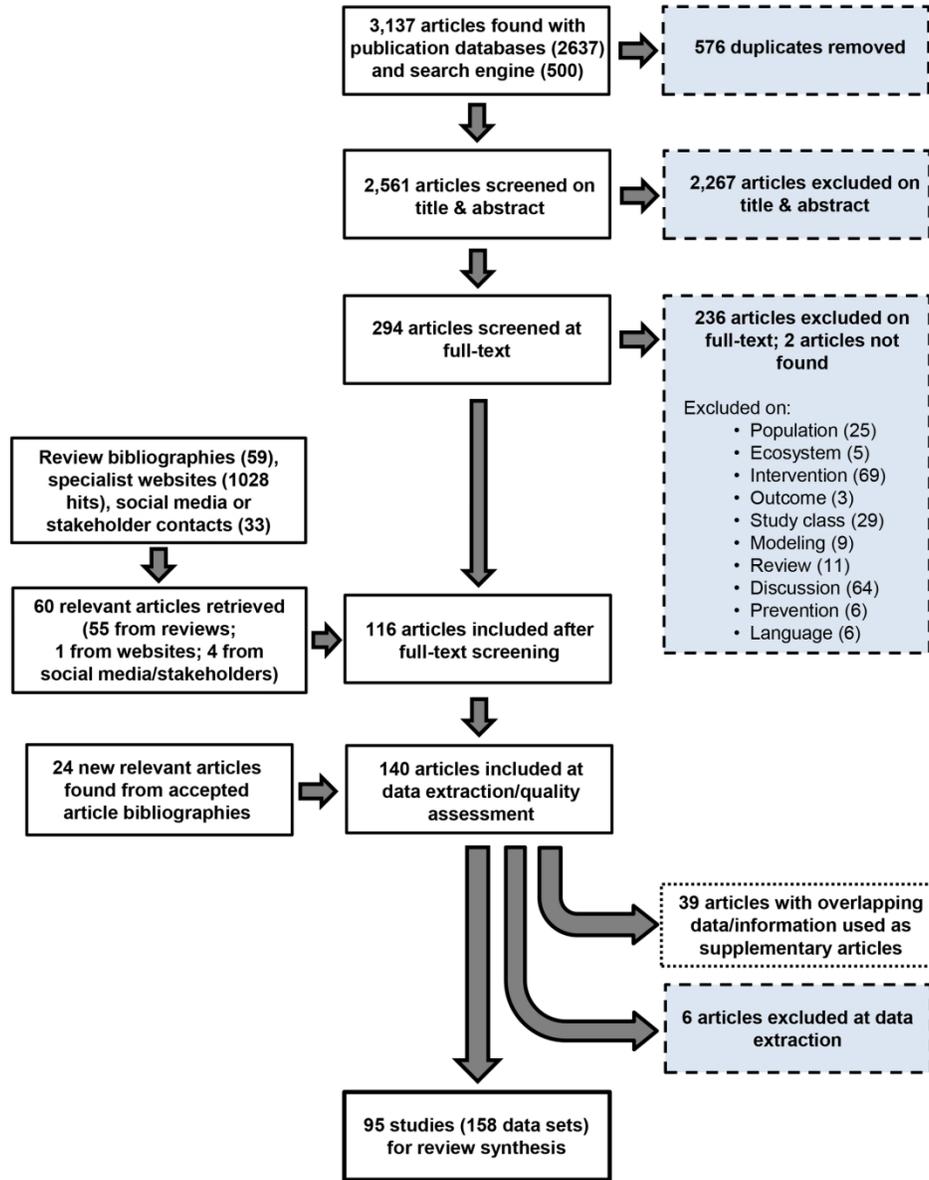


Fig. 1. Results of literature search and study selection process showing the final number of studies included in the review synthesis. See Table S2 for details on exclusion categories.

177x221mm (300 x 300 DPI)

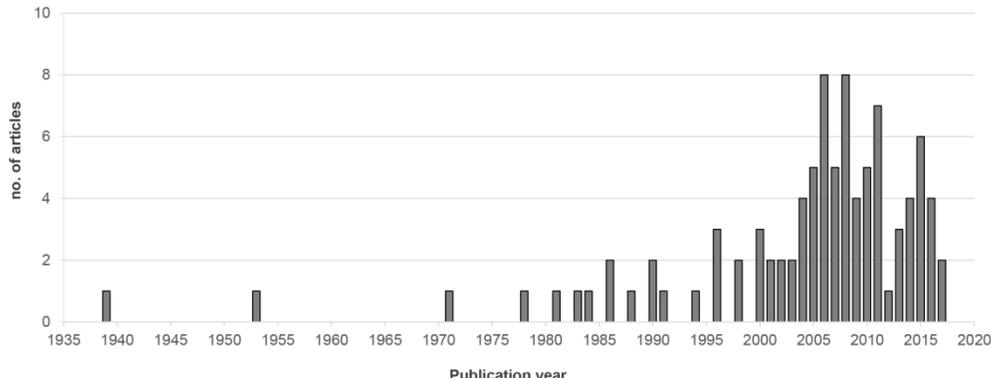


Fig. 2. Year of publication of the 95 primary study sources.

182x73mm (300 x 300 DPI)

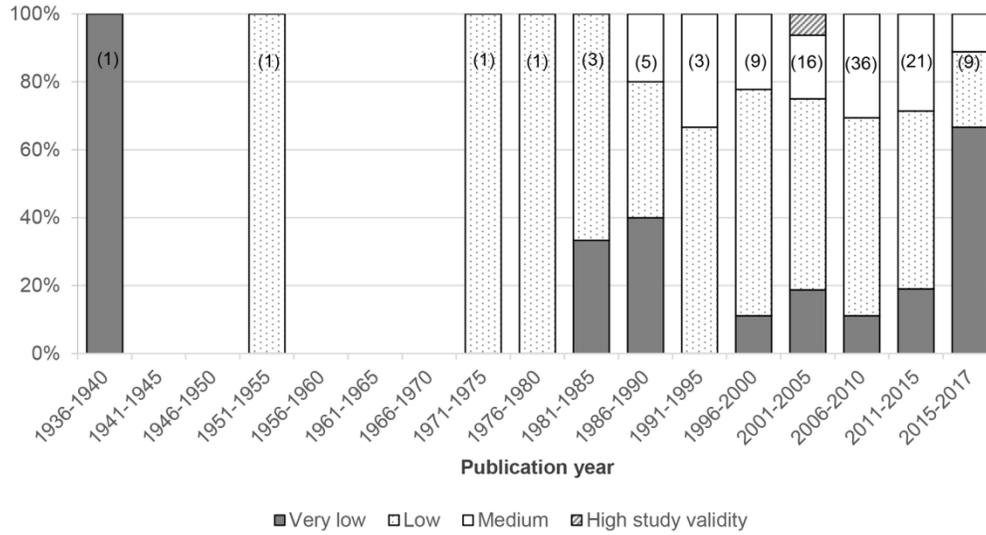


Fig. 3. Percentage of the total number of removal projects within a given time period in relation to study validity. Number of removal projects per time period in brackets.

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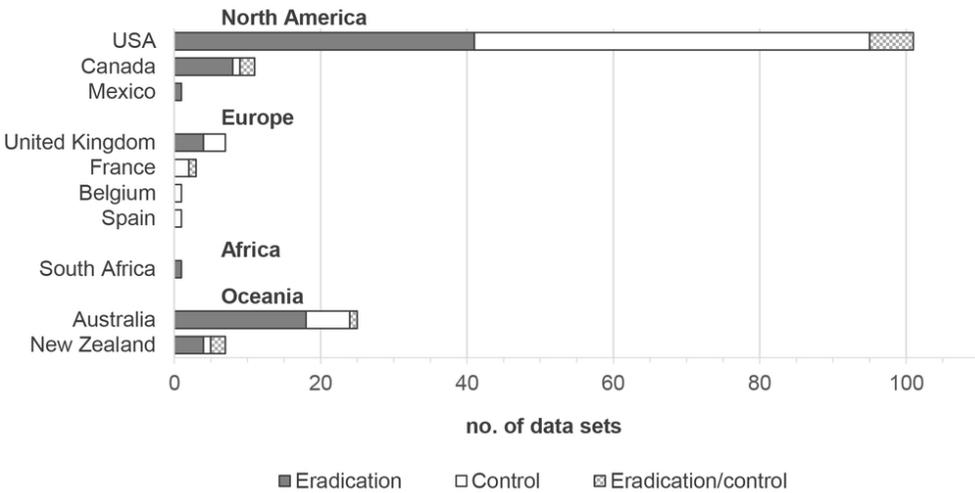


Fig. 4. Number of included data sets per country in relation to the stated goal(s) of the project. Eradication/control: the stated goal was either eradication or population size control.

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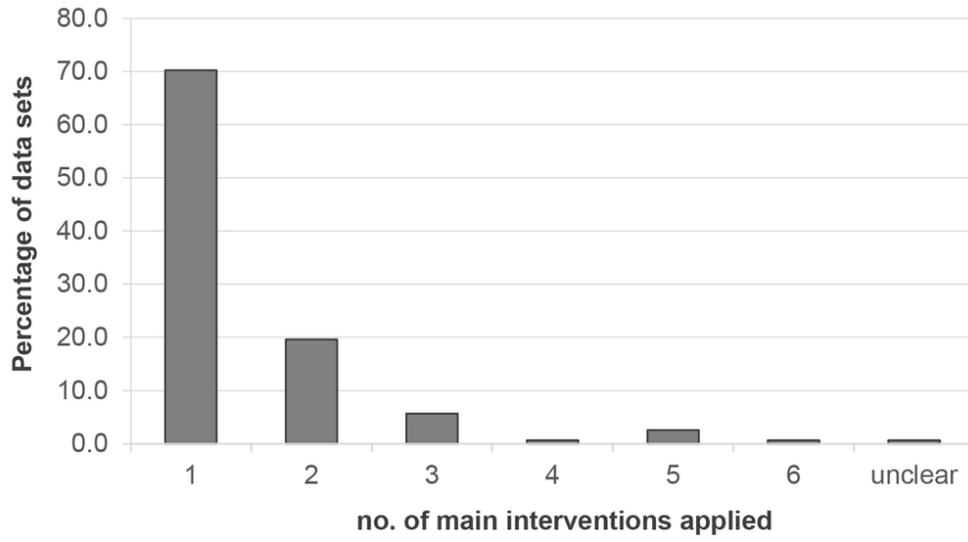


Fig. 5. Percentage of data sets in relation to the number of main interventions applied for removal of non-native fish.

86x47mm (300 x 300 DPI)

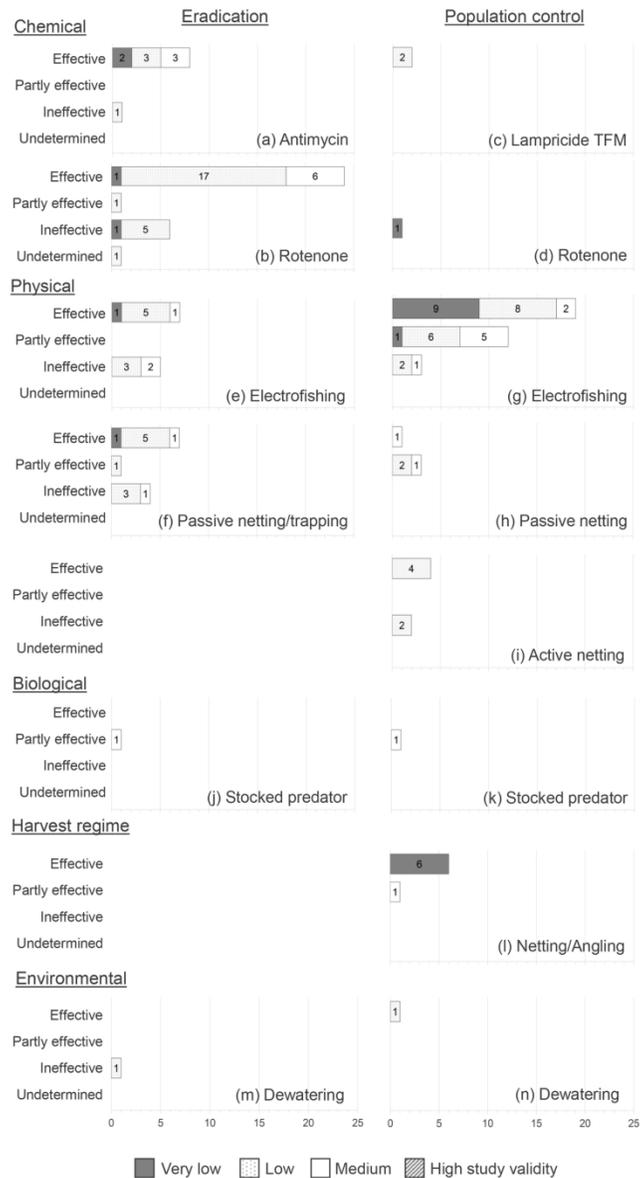


Fig. 6. The number of included data sets per intervention category used alone (i.e., no other main interventions were used) to either eradicate or control population size of a non-native fish species in relation to the effectiveness rating and study validity.

126x236mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Appendix

- 2 **Table A1.** List of included primary study sources along with article ID. No. of data sets per study: an article could have (1) data for more than one non-native fish species; (2) evaluated different removal measure in different waterbodies.

ID	Primary study source citation	No. of data sets per study
1	Lintermans, M., and Rutzou, T. 1990. Removal of feral fish from artificial ponds in the Australian National Botanic Gardens. Australian Capital Territory Parks and Conservation Service Wildlife Unit, Internal Report 90/12.	3
2	Lintermans, M., and Bourne, C. 2011. Keeping diseases and ferals out of Cotter Reservoir. Presentation to the Australian Society for Fish Biology annual conference, July 2011.	2
3	Lintermans, M. 2000. Recolonization by the mountain galaxias <i>Galaxias olidus</i> of a montane stream after the eradication of rainbow trout <i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> . Mar. Freshwater. Res. 51 (8):799-804.	1
4	Lintermans, M., and Raadik, T. 2003. Local eradication of trout from streams using rotenone: the Australian experience. <i>In</i> Proceedings of a workshop entitled "Managing invasive freshwater fish in New Zealand", Hamilton, New Zealand, 10-12 May 2001. Hosted Department of Conservation, New Zealand. pp. 95-111.	1
5	Pinto, L., Chandrasena, N., Pera, J., Hawkins, P., Eccles, D., and Sim, R. 2005. Managing invasive carp (<i>Cyprinus carpio</i> L.) for habitat enhancement at Botany Wetlands, Australia. Aquat. Conserv. 15 (5):447-462.	2
6	O'Meara, J., and Darcovich, K. 2008. Gambusia control through the manipulation of water levels in Narawang Wetland, Sydney Olympic Park 2003–2005. Aust. Zool. 34 (3):285–290.	1
7	Rayner, T.S., and Creese, R.G. 2006. A review of rotenone use for the control of non-indigenous fish in Australian fresh waters, and an attempted eradication of the noxious fish, <i>Phalloceros caudimaculatus</i> . New. Zeal. J. Mar. Fresh. 40 (3):477-486.	1
8	Burchmore, J., Faragher, R., and Thorncraft, G. 1990. Occurrence of the introduced oriental weatherloach (<i>Misgurnus anguillicaudatus</i>) in the Wingecarribee River, New South Wales. <i>In</i> Introduced and translocated fishes and their ecological effect. Edited by D.A. Pollard. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra. pp 38–46.	1
9	Pearce, M.G., Perna, C., and Hedge, S. 2009. Survey of Eureka Creek and Walsh River fish community following the removal of tilapia using rotenone. Queensland Primary Industries and Fisheries, Brisbane.	1
10	Thuesen, P.A., Russell, D.J., Thomson, F.E., Pearce, M.G., Vallance, T.D., and Hogan, A.E. 2011. An evaluation of electrofishing as a control measure for an invasive tilapia (<i>Oreochromis mossambicus</i>) population in northern Australia. Mar. Freshwater. Res. 62 (2):110-118.	1

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- 15 Donkers, P., Patil, J.G., Wisniewski, C., and Diggle, J.E. 2012. Validation of mark-recapture population estimates for invasive common carp, *Cyprinus carpio*, in Lake Crescent, Tasmania. *J. Appl. Ichthyol.* **28**(1):7-14. 1
- 16 Inland Fisheries Service. 2005. Inland Fisheries Service Annual Report 2004-05. Inland Fisheries Service, Moonah, Tasmania. 1
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Table A2. Recommendations for future study components to improve evaluations of non-native fish removal methods.

Project element	Description	Impact on assessment	Recommendations
Before data	often before data are not reported or a single before period > 5 years prior to intervention is reported	limits correct interpretation of intervention effectiveness	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. report all years for which before data were actually collected (including presence immediately prior to treatment); 2. collect continuous years of before data (when appropriate) or try avoid gaps in time longer than 5 years prior to intervention; 3. seek out existing monitoring data to supplement current projects
After data	often ≤1 year of post-treatment monitoring being conducted	limits correct interpretation of intervention effectiveness and recovery of the ecosystem	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. collect multiple years of after data; 2. strive for continuous years of data collection; 3. seek out collaborations with scientists from other agencies, or local universities for opportunities to extend post-treatment monitoring when resources are limited
Outcome measure	often a qualitative outcome measure was used for comparator and/or intervention group (e.g., the presence of a non-native before intervention and the numbers removed after)	precludes quantitative assessment of intervention effectiveness (i.e., standard effect size calculations)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. use quantitative outcome measures for both assessment periods (e.g., relative abundance/density both before and after)
Management objective	lack of explicit management objective(s) for the study	outcomes cannot be adequately compared against objectives for correct interpretation of intervention effectiveness	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. develop a clear statement of management objective(s) at the beginning of the project; 2. develop study designs with those specific target objective(s) in mind (e.g., use appropriate temporal scale for monitoring assessment periods)
Control site(s)	lack of control sites being incorporated into study designs	without comparison of control sites with treatment sites, there is no way to know whether apparent effects of removal interventions are in fact due to the intervention and not a confounding variable	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. locate and include suitable analogous control sites in close proximity within a study area

