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10 Water eDNA metabarcoding is effective in detecting non-native species in

11 marinas, but detection errors still hinder its use for passive monitoring

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24 Abstract

25 Marinas are high-priority targets for marine non-indigenous species (NIS), where 26 they compose a large portion of the biofouling communities. The practicality of water 27 samples collection makes environmental DNA (eDNA) metabarcoding an interesting tool for 28 routine NIS surveys. Here the effectiveness of water-eDNA-metabarcoding to identify 29 biofouling NIS, in ten marinas from western France, was examined. Morphological 30 identification of specimens collected in quadrats brought out 18 sessile benthic NIS beneath 31 floating pontoons. Water-eDNA-metabarcoding detected two thirds of them, failing to detect 32 important NIS. However, sampling and bioinformatics filtering steps can be optimized to 33 identify more species. In addition, this method allowed the detection of additional NIS from 34 neighboring micro-habitats. Caution should however be taken when reporting putative novel 35 NIS, because of errors in species assignment. This work highlights that water-eDNA-36 metabarcoding is effective for active (targeted) NIS surveys, and could be significantly 37 improved for its further use in marine NIS passive surveys.

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39 Keywords: biological invasions, environmental DNA, metabarcoding, morphology, ports,40 quadrats

41

42 Introduction

43 As the number of marine introductions is growing worldwide (Seebens et al. 2017), 44 much effort is directed towards non-indigenous species (NIS) management. The implemented 45 strategies can vary greatly from, limiting the spread of new species by applying regulation on 46 vectors of introduction, to eradication protocols to remove invasive species from a particular 47 area (Robertson et al. 2020). Nevertheless, vectors of introductions are not efficiently 48 regulated (Carney et al. 2017), and measures of eradication are difficult to apply when non-49 indigenous species (NIS) have become too abundant or widespread (Ojaveer et al. 2015). 50 Monitoring NIS to detect new arrivals or to evaluate the spread of already established species, 51 is thus crucial to support efficient management strategies (Robertson et al. 2020). It is 52 especially true in the primary introduction sites, such as ports or marinas. In such habitats, 53 fouling communities from artificial hard substrates are often targeted since they include many 54 NIS (Dafforn et al. 2009; Leclerc et al. 2020).

55 Diverse traditional approaches exist to monitor biofouling communities, from Rapid 56 Assessment Surveys or full species inventories (Lehtiniemi et al. 2015) to passive sampling 57 strategies using settlement plates (Dafforn et al. 2009; Outinen et al. 2021). Their inherent 58 issues, however, might prevent their broad use by practitioners and hinder their efficiency. 59 Most of the problems with traditional approaches arise from the morphological identification 60 of organisms. They require taxonomic expertise, and the time constraint of field sessions can 61 lead to erroneous identification for complex taxa (eg the ascidians Botrylloides spp., Viard et 62 al. 2019). Furthermore, these approaches do not allow the detection of introductions by 63 (pseudo-)cryptic species, common among NIS, especially in biofouling assemblages (Viard et al. 2016; Turon et al. 2020). Finally, they are not always sufficient to discriminate species atearly-settlement stages. There is thus a particular need for a new method solving these issues.

66 Molecular approaches, especially DNA metabarcoding, have been shown to overcome 67 these limitations (Zaiko et al. 2015; Rey et al. 2020). Metabarcoding has been successfully 68 applied to various types of samples in the context of NIS surveys (eg plankton: Couton et al. 69 2019, sediment: Shaw et al. 2019, water: Borrell et al. 2017, homogenized organisms: 70 Pearman et al. 2021), which provide different results, reflecting the composition of different 71 communities (Koziol et al. 2018; Fernandez et al. 2021). Rey et al. (2020) suggested that, for 72 NIS surveys, all types of samples (or a combination of several of them) should be 73 simultaneously processed (see also Holman et al. 2019). However, this might be hardly 74 feasible for regular monitoring, as it would require expensive sampling tools and expertise 75 that is not always available, and would be very time-consuming. In that context, water 76 environmental DNA (eDNA) would be the sample type of choice as seawater can be easily 77 and rapidly sampled in ports, even by non-experts with a minimal training, and the sampling 78 protocol can be highly standardized (Morisette et al. 2021). Moreover, being non-destructive, 79 water sampling can be conducted as often as required, allowing fine temporal surveys, which 80 is recommended as many NIS are short-lived and show seasonal patterns of abundance 81 (Couton et al. 2019). Finally, water might allow to get a broader picture of NIS present in a 82 given marina, encompassing at the same time species living in the water column or on the 83 bottom (Stat et al. 2017).

Very few studies investigated the reliability of water-eDNA-metabarcoding to study benthic communities, even less when considering hard-bottom, and they provided contrasting results. For example, while Leduc et al. (2019) and Antich et al. (2021) reported many false

87 negatives (only up to 15% benthic species/MOTUs retrieved in water-eDNA samples), West 88 et al. (2021) recovered 70% of coral taxa. Many authors thus preferentially used bulk samples 89 from scraping of either hard bottoms or settlement plates (Duarte et al. 2021). This approach, 90 however, is not free of bias, and requires processing a large amount of biomass, which is 91 time-consuming and destructive for the community (van der Loos and Nijland 2021). As an 92 example, von Ammon et al. (2018) did not recover 7 NIS out of 48 after metabarcoding of 93 bulk communities from settlement plates. On the other hand, the fact that several authors 94 identified DNA of benthic species in water samples (eg Borrell et al. 2017; Cordier et al. 95 2019), particularly with species-specific approaches (eg Ardura et al. 2015; Simpson et al. 96 2017), is encouraging. The practicality of water-eDNA sampling drives the need to determine 97 its reliability to monitor biofouling communities in marinas, to understand why 98 metabarcoding is not always able to detect benthic species and to evaluate how these 99 limitations could be overcome (Trebitz et al. 2017; Blackman et al. 2019; Darling et al. 2020; 100 Makiola et al. 2020).

101 Some of the limitations inherent to the use of water-eDNA metabarcoding are already 102 well known, and previous works made suggestions to circumvent them. One of these 103 limitations is the degradation of DNA in water over time which can be partially addressed by 104 using smaller marker regions (Taberlet et al. 2012). Others, such as DNA transport and 105 dilution or differential shedding rates between species can also be decreased by sampling as 106 close as possible to the target community (Antich et al. 2021). However, even when all these 107 factors are taken into account to maximize the chances of species detection, the likelihood of 108 false detections or non-detections is still not negligible. It is therefore crucial to evaluate the 109 remaining biases and investigate possible explanations. In addition, the whole process, from sampling to taxonomic assignment, has rarely been considered at once to determine whichsteps are the most critical to be optimized.

112 Here, the capacity of water-eDNA-metabarcoding to detect NIS from biofouling 113 communities in marinas was investigated. The goals were to 1) evaluate the extent of species 114 detection errors, and 2) explore the possible causes for these errors, and propose possible 115 solutions. To this end, water sampling was carried out along floating pontoons in ten marinas 116 and two seasons. This sampling strategy allowed to examine detectability at a regional scale 117 and over time, the latter being particularly important as many benthic sessile NIS display 118 short life cycles. Metabarcoding was performed using three markers (18S, COI, and 16S) to 119 increase the detection capacity. Simultaneously, a list of sessile benthic NIS present in the 120 study marinas was established by identifying morphologically and in situ species sampled 121 within quadrats beneath the same floating pontoons. This list was used to evaluate the number 122 of false negatives (species observed at the time of sampling but not recovered with eDNA), 123 and explore various causes for metabarcoding detection failures, such as sampling effort or 124 bioinformatics processing.

125

126 Materials and methods

127 Sampling

Biofouling communities immersed beneath floating pontoons (ie floating structures used as docks for mooring leisure boats) were sampled in ten marinas around Brittany (France; Fig. 1). These locations are known to harbour different fouling communities since they are spread over two ecoregions *sensu* Spalding et al. (2007), namely the Celtic seas and 132 the North European Atlantic Shelf, characterized by different hydrological and physical 133 parameters and species assemblages, and encompassing a biogeographic transition zone 134 between the Western English Channel and the NE Atlantic (Gallon et al. 2014). Although 135 native species should particularly differ between these two regions, differences were also 136 observed for NIS, as shown by previous Rapid Assessment Surveys (Bishop et al. 2015; FV 137 and LL, unpublished data). Since many biofouling species are short lived and seasonal, 138 sampling was performed in fall (October) 2017 and spring (May-June) 2018. Two pontoons 139 were selected in each marina, to include potential differences in environmental conditions 140 such as water flow, salinity or type of boats docked (long distance travellers vs. local boats).

141 Seawater was collected every 5 m along a 50-m transect per pontoon. At each 142 sampling point, 200 mL of seawater were collected in a plastic jar using a sterile 100-mL 143 syringe fixed to a sampling rod and immersed at 1 m below the surface. A total volume of 2 L 144 was thus collected per pontoon (after pooling all sampling points). To investigate the effect of 145 sampled volume, in spring 2018, an additional 2-L replicate was collected, resulting in a total 146 volume of 4 L per pontoon (the two 2-L replicates were processed separately). The seawater content of each jar was immediately filtered on site on a Millipore® SterivexTM filter unit 147 148 (0.22 µm) using a Masterflex® L/S® economy drive peristaltic pump. After filtration, 2 mL 149 of preservation buffer (sucrose 0.75 M, Tris 0.05 M pH 8, EDTA 0.04 M) were added before 150 storing the filter at -20°C in a portable freezer, until transfer to the laboratory. All 151 consumables not sold as DNA-free were previously immersed in 12.5 % commercial bleach 152 (ca. 0.65 % hypochlorite) for at least 30 min, rinsed with ultrapure water and placed under UV 153 light for at least 15 min. The sampling rod was immersed in 12.5 % commercial bleach for at 154 least 30 min before sampling in a given marina, and rinsed with tap water between each 155 pontoon. Six controls (ie one in three different marinas for each season) were performed by

156 sampling, for every control, 10 replicates of 200 mL of ultrapure water every 5 m along a 50-157 m transect on a pontoon, with the same equipment, and after applying the aforementioned 158 decontamination protocol, thus mimicking the seawater sampling protocol. The 10 replicates 159 from a pontoon were then pooled, as were the real samples, to reach a total volume of 2 L per 160 control.

161 A list of sessile benthic NIS present, at the time of water collection, in the biofouling 162 community was established. Four taxonomic classes were targeted, namely Gastropoda, 163 Bivalvia, Ascidiacea and Gymnolaemata known to include a substantial number of NIS in the 164 study region (Bishop et al. 2015) (see below for an explanation). Biofoulers were collected 165 beneath pontoons at the same points where water samples were collected, to maximize the 166 probability to sample the same taxa, as shown by Antich et al. (2021). At each of the ten 167 sampling points, all organisms within a 0.25-m² quadrat were scraped by divers and placed in 168 a closing bag. Importantly, the scrapping was performed after the water sampling to avoid any 169 contamination. Specimens (> ca. 5 mm) were morphologically identified on site, to the lowest 170 possible taxonomic level (family, genus or species). The identified organisms were not 171 systematically collected, nor barcoded but, as part of a previous work (Couton et al. 2019), 172 regular barcoding was carried out to get local references on the four taxonomic groups studied 173 here. In order to refine field identification for erected bryozoans from the class 174 Gymnolaemata, specimens were collected at each site for further laboratory identification.

175 DNA extraction

Caution was taken to avoid any contamination of DNA extracts, as recommended by
Goldberg et al. (2016). All equipment and bench surfaces were DNA decontaminated before
use and consumables not sold as DNA-free were processed as detailed above. DNA was

extracted from the Sterivex units using the NucleoSnap® Finisher Midi extraction kit
(Macherey-Nagel) following the manufacturer's protocol with a few modifications
(Supplementary Protocol 1).

182

Library preparation and sequencing

183 All steps were performed following strict rules for preventing contamination, such as 184 UV irradiation of all tips, plates and tubes, and use of filter tips. Libraries were prepared using 185 a dual-barcoded, dual-indexed two-step PCR procedure. Each DNA sample was amplified 15 186 times with each of the three primer pairs targeting a different marker: i) a 313-bp COI portion 187 amplified using primers designed by Leray et al. (2013), ii) a 350-bp to 450-bp portion of the 188 18S rDNA V1-V2 region amplified using primers designed by Fonseca et al. (2010), and iii) a 189 115-bp portion of the 16S rDNA amplified using primers designed by Kelly et al. (2016) 190 (fragment sizes excluding primers). Combining these markers would increase the detection 191 ability, as they differ in their taxonomic coverage and resolution, and conservation of primer 192 binding sites (Couton et al. 2019; Makiola et al. 2020). Detailed PCR protocols are available 193 in Supplementary Protocol 2. Five tagged PCR replicates were performed for each sample and 194 marker (Table S1). After this first PCR, the five tagged replicates from the same DNA 195 extraction sample were pooled according to their intensity on the agarose gel visualisation. A 196 second PCR was performed to complete Illumina® adapters and to tag samples with a unique 197 dual-index combination (Table S2). Sequencing was performed for each marker separately on 198 an Illumina® MiSeq sequencer. The COI and 18S markers were sequenced using a 600 cycles 199 v3 protocol and the 16S marker was sequenced using a 300 cycles v2 protocol, both with two 200 index reads.

201 Reads processing and filtering

202 After demultiplexing performed by the sequencing machine based on index 203 combination (defining the samples), reads were assigned to each of the five PCR replicates 204 according to their tag combination. Primers and tags were then removed using CUTADAPT v-205 2.8. A set of amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) was produced using DADA2 v-1.13.1 206 (Callahan et al. 2016); see Table S3 for detailed parameter values). When demultiplexing, 207 reads can be falsely assigned to a sample when an index combination is not correctly 208 recognized, which is referred to as 'index-jump' (Taberlet et al. 2018). To assess this 209 phenomenon, 12 index combinations, not used in the described PCR experiments, and chosen 210 among the 96 available, were added to the MiSeq sequencing sample sheet in order to get the 211 corresponding fastq files. For each ASV, the number of reads assigned to one of these internal 212 control index combinations was divided by the total number of reads in the complete dataset 213 for this same ASV. The maximal proportion occurring in an index control was recorded for 214 each marker (Table S3). Any ASV that did not account for more than this maximal proportion 215 in a sample was discarded from this sample. Furthermore, only ASVs found in at least two out 216 of the five PCR replicates per sample were retained.

217 Taxonomic assignment

A first taxonomic assignment was performed to assess the proportion of reads assigned to metazoans. For that purpose, each dataset was aligned against references retrieved from the GenBank nt database using the ecotag command from OBITOOLS v-1.2.11 (Boyer et al. 2016) with no minimum identity threshold. To perform taxonomic assignment at lower taxonomic levels, assignment was later performed by aligning all ASVs against a restricted reference database using the BLAST® command line tool (Altschul et al. 1990). This database was 224 composed of sequences retrieved from GenBank and sequences produced locally (Couton et 225 al. 2019), targeting ten metazoan phyla commonly found in marinas: Annelida, Arthropoda 226 (only Crustacea), Bryozoa, Chordata (only Actinopterygii, Chondrichthyes, and Tunicata), 227 Cnidaria, Echinodermata, Mollusca, Nemertea, Platyhelminthes, and Porifera. Only 228 alignments covering 99% of the subject sequence and displaying a minimum identity 229 threshold (18S: 99%; COI: 92%; 16S: 97%) based on barcoding gaps computed from 230 reference sequences (Figs. S1-S3), were considered. If one ASV matched with several 231 references, it was assigned to the one with the highest identity percentage. If two alignments 232 with different references had the same identity, the ASV was assigned to the lowest common 233 taxonomic rank. All assignments to a rank higher than the family were classified as 234 'unassigned'.

235 To evaluate the ability of water-eDNA-metabarcoding to retrieve species observed in 236 the field, the metabarcoding dataset was restricted to the four classes targeted in the quadrats 237 survey (ie Ascidiacea, Bivalvia, Gastropoda, and Gymnolaemata). These classes were chosen 238 because they are known to include a substantial number of NIS in marinas of the study region 239 (Bishop et al. 2015), and because the involved team members have a good expertise for their 240 morphological identification. This expertise is further reinforced by a number of previous 241 studies combining morphological and molecular approaches (Bishop et al. 2013; Bishop et al. 242 2015; Viard et al. 2019; Turon et al. 2020). In addition, for these four classes, local reference 243 data for native species and novel NIS were previously obtained (Couton et al. 2019). This 244 selection thus allowed minimizing issues due to the incompleteness of reference databases, 245 and better assess the effect of the taxonomic assignment step in the metabarcoding process (ie, 246 use of a curated database).

248 **Results**

249 NIS observed in the field

250 From the 400 quadrat samples collected, 93 taxa were identified, with differences 251 across sites and seasons (Table S4). Most (n=62) were identified to species, 20 to genus, 8 to 252 family, and 3 to higher levels. Forty-seven sessile or poorly mobile taxa belonged to the four targeted classes (ie Ascidiacea, Bivalvia, Gastropoda, and Gymnolaemata). In these, 15 NIS 253 254 (incl. two pairs pooled in the field: Botrylloides diegensis and B. violaceus, and Didemnum 255 vexillum and D. pseudovexillum) and three cryptogenic species were identified (Table S4), all 256 previously reported in the study area. Among the 47 taxa observed, only 43 were considered 257 for assessing the ability of metabarcoding to detect them. Ruditapes sp. was removed from the 258 positive control list because it lives buried in soft sediments and is thus likely to be 259 inconsistently recovered in quadrat surveys. Membraniporella nitida, Scruparia ambigua, and 260 Amathia gracilis were excluded because they usually did not fulfil the chosen size criteria of 5 261 mm, and thus the observed species list might also be biased across locations.

262 Taxonomic assignment of sequence reads

The MiSeq runs yielded 15,754,233 reads, 13,108,322 reads, and 13,396,162 reads for 18S, COI, and 16S, respectively, resulting in 3972, 4258, and 347 unique ASVs. After filtering, all samples (all tagged PCR replicates combined for each sample) contained a mean of 253,600 reads, 188,853 reads, and 199,910 reads for 18S, COI, and 16S, respectively. 267 Only a small proportion of reads were assigned to Metazoa for 18S (23%) and COI 268 (24%), contrasting with the results for 16S (98%; Fig. 2). The most abundant metazoan phyla 269 identified across markers were Arthropoda, Chordata, Cnidaria, Annelida, and Mollusca, 270 totalizing 88%, 35% and 76% of the reads for 18S, COI and 16S, respectively, with sharp 271 differences between markers. For instance, bryozoans accounted for 14% of 16S reads but for 272 less than 1% of 18S and COI reads. Differences were also observed when assigning ASVs to 273 the ten targeted metazoan phyla. For instance, almost three times more taxa were identified 274 with 18S, and almost four times more species were identified with COI, as compared to 16S 275 (Table 1). Overall (60 2-L samples), 557 taxa including 409 species were identified by at least 276 one marker, over the ten selected phyla (Table S5-S8). Among the 154 taxa from the four 277 classes compared with morphological data, 114 were identified at the species-level across all 278 markers (Table S5).

279 Recovery of species known to be present by water-eDNA-metabarcoding

280 Half of the 43 taxa (n=21) observed in quadrats were unambiguously recovered by 281 water-eDNA-metabarcoding (Fig. 3, column Tot). A higher number were identified with 18S 282 (14) as compared to COI (10) and 16S (5), with 18S being more efficient for Ascidiacea, and 283 the two latter being more suited for Bivalvia and Gymnolaemata (Fig. 3). Four species could 284 not be recovered because reference sequences were lacking for any of the three markers. Five 285 taxa were not identified because of identical reference sequences (ie lack of taxonomic 286 resolution with the markers used). For example, Ascidiella aspersa and A. scabra were 287 distinguished in the quadrats sampling, based on morphology, when metabarcoding only 288 identified them at the genus level, because of identical 18S references for the two species, and 289 amplification failure for this genus with COI and 16S (Figs. S4-S5).

290 Focusing on the 18 NIS and cryptogenic taxa known to be present, a large proportion 291 (66.7 %) were detected in eDNA with at least one marker (Table 2). Out of the six taxa not 292 recovered, four (Botrylloides violaceus, Crassostrea gigas, Bugulina stolonifera, and B. 293 *simplex*) had reference sequences identical to sequences of closely related species, resulting in 294 the assignment to the genus. For instance, *Bugulina stolonifera* and *B. simplex* share the same 295 sequence for the only marker able to retrieve them (16S). The other two NIS (Didemnum 296 *vexillum*, and *Tricellaria inopinata*) remained undetected despite the availability of references 297 for at least one marker, their large abundance in some locations, and their presence in almost 298 all localities at both seasons, suggesting PCR amplification biases with the markers used.

The recovery rate of NIS by water-eDNA-metabarcoding was much lower when examining in details the distribution of taxa, across localities and seasons, with only 23.9 % overlap (119 out of 498 cases; Fig. 3). Focusing on NIS or cryptogenic species, out of the 239 occurrences in quadrats, only 73 (30.5 %) were successfully recovered with water-eDNAmetabarcoding (Fig. 3).

304 Additional detections with water-eDNA-metabarcoding

Within the four targeted classes, 114 species were detected with water-eDNAmetabarcoding. All species identified were classified as 'expected' *vs.* 'unexpected', based on previous knowledge on their presence/absence in the study area, as reported in the Roscoff biological species inventory (http://abims.sb-roscoff.fr/inventaires/) and in the literature, or as reported before by the team members involved in this study. Eighteen species were 'unexpected' species, and thus might be novel NIS for the study area. Sixteen of them were assigned with more than 99% identity (Table S9). All were, however, identified with only one marker, except *Mytilus trossulus*, identified with COI and 16S. None of them were seen in thequadrats.

314 Regarding the distribution of taxa across localities, water-eDNA-metabarcoding 315 identified taxa in localities where they were not reported based on quadrats sampling in eight 316 cases (eg Ascidia mentula in SM and BLO during spring; Fig. 3). Of these eight cases, only 317 three are associated to a NIS or a cryptogenic species (Crepidula fornicata in MB, 318 Watersipora subatra in ET, and Bugulina fulva in ET). Moreover, water-eDNA-319 metabarcoding efficiently identified three Molgula species (Molgula socialis, M. bleizi, and 320 *M. complanata*) when only the genus could be confidently recovered in the field. Finally, this 321 method allowed the identification of two additional NIS, Mya arenaria and Ruditapes 322 philippinarum, known to be present in the study region but living buried in soft sediments.

323 Effect of the sampling strategy on taxa detection by water-eDNA-metabarcoding

324 Less than half of the taxa from the ten metazoan phyla (42.5 %) were shared between 325 the two pontoons sampled in a given locality with water-eDNA-metabarcoding (Fig. 4). The 326 proportion of shared taxa ranged between 22.6 % (CAM, fall) and 50.8 % (PG, fall). 327 Similarly, the total number of taxa was slightly higher when merging the results obtained with 328 the two 2-L replicates (482 taxa) than when using only one of them (436 and 428, for the two 329 series analysed separately), over all marinas, in the spring sampling. This result is consistent 330 at every pontoon, with a significantly higher number of taxa when using 4 L of water than 331 when using one of the two 2-L samples (Wilcoxon tests for paired data: V = 0, P < 0.001 for 332 the two series). When focusing on the four targeted classes, the number of taxa unique to one 333 2-L replicate ranged from 0 to 8 for 16S and 18S and 0 to 7 for COI (Fig. 5). The proportion 334 of reads assigned to these unique taxa was very low for 16S (ranged from 0 to 24 %; mean

335 value: 1.6 %), but was substantially higher for 18S (ranged from 0 to 66.1 %; mean value: 6.8 336 %), and even higher for COI (ranged from 0 to 100 %; mean value: 29.5 %). This proportion 337 was largely influenced by the total number of reads associated to all species from the four 338 target groups within each replicate for the different markers. These numbers ranged from 339 5,439 to 381,749 reads with 16S (mean: 116,582.1), 109 to 37,921 reads with 18S (mean: 340 8,370.6), and 1 to 6,191 reads with COI (mean: 1,764.7). For example, in the replicates of the 341 pontoon 2 from AW, only two species from the four groups were identified with COI, one 342 different in each replicate associated with 13 and 51 reads respectively (Fig. S6), leading to 343 the proportion of 100% (Fig. 5).

344

345 **Discussion**

346 The growing 'hardening' of marine coastal areas offers a wide range of new artificial 347 substrates for fouling organisms, many being non-indigenous species (NIS). Regular 348 monitoring of ports and marinas is thus critical for implementing efficient management 349 strategies (Trebitz et al. 2017). In that sense, species detection through water-eDNA-350 metabarcoding is an appealing approach promising fast and easy sampling, and reduced costs. 351 However, its reliability and the extent of its biases when focusing on benthic NIS are still 352 unclear (Holman et al. 2019; Antich et al. 2021). In particular, one need to assess the risks of 353 both false negatives (which species are not detected and why; eg Hansen et al. 2018) and false 354 positives (detecting species which are not truly present; Darling et al. 2021). Here, the 355 effectiveness of water-eDNA-metabarcoding to identify the presence of biofouling animals 356 (particularly NIS) over the study area was shown, as it correctly recovered half of the 43 taxa, 357 and two third of the 18 NIS or cryptogenic species observed in the field. In addition, as expected, water-eDNA-metabarcoding retrieved species from adjacent and non-targeted micro-habitats, refined the assignment at the species level for 2 taxa identified at higher taxonomic level in the field, and detected one previously unreported species, putatively a novel NIS, in the study area. However, others species remained undetected in eDNA, with important discrepancies locally. These limitations, and solutions to circumvent them, are discussed below.

364 Improving the quality of reference data and targeting several markers is needed to increase 365 the detection effectiveness

366 Half of the species observed in quadrats, and one-third of NIS, were not recovered 367 with water-eDNA-metabarcoding, including abundant ones. For instance, the solitary tunicate 368 Ascidiella aspersa, native in the study area, and invasive in other coastal areas in the world, was found in every quadrat sample, reaching up to 384 individuals m⁻² in MB (Table S4), but 369 370 remained unassigned with metabarcoding. The detection failure was due to both a lack of 371 resolution with 18S for this genus (same sequence as A. scabra), and amplification failures for 372 COI and 16S (Figs. S4-S5). Six other abundant NIS (tunicates: Botrylloides violaceus, 373 Didemnum vexillum; bryozoans: Tricellaria inopinata, Bugulina simplex, and Bugulina 374 stolonifera; bivalves: Crassostrea gigas) also remained undetected in the molecular dataset. 375 At a first glance, these results contrast with those by Antich et al. (2021) in which abundant 376 benthic MOTUs were more easily detected in water-eDNA than rare ones. However, in their 377 study, the benthic data were obtained from bulk metabarcoding, and abundant benthic species 378 might have also been missed because of amplification biases or low marker resolution.

379 The substantial proportion of false negatives observed highlights flaws that may still380 impede the routine use of water-eDNA-metabarcoding. Those include species-specific DNA

381 shedding rate and decay (Andruszkiewicz et al. 2021; Holman et al. 2021), differential primer 382 binding efficiency between taxa (Piñol et al. 2018), and issues related to taxonomic 383 assignment. As several studies targeting benthic species showed the occurrence of their DNA 384 in water using species-specific methods (eg Simpson et al. 2017) their shedding rate must be 385 sufficient for detection. This is why more effort should be dedicated to design new primers 386 targeting markers with high resolution, where the sensitivity of each primer should be 387 reported to identify easily species that cannot be detected with them (Xia et al. 2021). For 388 instance, although abundant in quadrats from every location, the invasive colonial ascidian 389 Didemnum vexillum, was not recovered in water-eDNA, whereas Simpson et al. (2017) 390 detected it in water samples from Australia using species-specific primers. Similarly, the 391 invasive tunicate B. violaceus remained undetected because of identical sequences with 392 congeneric species, although it can be distinguished from the introduced B. diegensis and 393 native B. leachii using genus-specific primers (Couton et al. 2021). Issues related to 394 taxonomic resolution/accuracy were here (partly) addressed by combining several markers, as 395 suggested by Zhang et al. (2018), and by producing reference sequences for at least one 396 marker for each NIS observed within quadrats.

397 The availability of reference sequences is another well-known problem, which 398 depends on the marker, COI being the most populated in public databases (Porter and 399 Hajibabaei 2018), or on the taxonomic group. For instance, a barcode search in BOLD 400 revealed that only 14% and 5% of the 2,925 and 5,651 accepted species, for the classes 401 Ascidiacea and Gymnolaemata, respectively, were associated to a COI sequence (WoRMS 402 and BOLD search in August 2020), a proportion that could even be lower when considering 403 quality (Paz and Rinkevich 2021). This proportion seems higher for NIS: Briski et al. (2016) 404 reported proportions of 59% and 72% of 45 and 36 NIS, for the same two classes and marker,

405 respectively. These higher values might be explained by the long-lasting and still increasing 406 use of DNA barcoding in the study of marine NIS (Duarte et al. 2020). Such an imbalance in 407 the proportion of sequences available for native and non-indigenous species might, in turn, 408 increase the risk of false detections of new introductions, as will be discussed below.

409

Improving sampling strategy, data production and data processing to overcome limitations

410 Increasing the sampling effort and optimizing data processing can substantially 411 decrease the detection failures of water-eDNA-metabarcoding. Sampling water at two 412 pontoons in each marina allowed increasing (sometimes doubling) the number of metazoan 413 taxa recovered. For example, in the three marinas where it was detected with water-eDNA-414 metabarcoding in spring (BL, CAM, and SM), Asterocarpa humilis was identified from one 415 pontoon only. Furthermore, doubling the volume of water filtered improved the detection of 416 rare species (ie low number of reads), which might be particularly useful for NIS early 417 detection. Although the sampling effort (volume and number of replicates) is within the range 418 of that recommended and/or mostly used in other studies (eg Grey et al. 2018; Holman et al. 419 2019; Duarte et al. 2021), it was not sufficient to recover all the species observed in the field. 420 The sampling standards (eg water volume, sampling points) should thus be increased 421 substantially when targeting specific benthic species, such as particular NIS, because their 422 DNA might be scarce in the water, especially those lacking pelagic stages (Leduc et al. 2019). 423 This would still keep reduced labor- and time-costs in the field as compared to traditional 424 methods (sampling and analyzing 400 quadrats in the field required eight people over two 425 weeks per season). The results also underlined the importance of seasonal sampling, a much 426 less addressed issue. Because many biofoulers, such as tunicates or erected bryozoans, are 427 short-lived, their abundance can vary greatly depending on the season. Their DNA shedding 428 and decay rates can also differ throughout the year (eg reproduction period; Salter 2018;

Wacker et al. 2019). The tunicate *Ciona robusta*, for example, would not have been identified
from spring samples only, which is congruent with what is known about its settlement period
(mostly in late summer/autumn) in the study area (Bouchemousse et al. 2017). In this regard,
sampling effort should be maximized, with an emphasis on spatial and temporal replicates.

433 Data filtering steps are crucial in any metabarcoding analysis, notably to avoid false 434 positives, but it may decrease detection sensitivity. Here, all taxa identified were retained after 435 index-jump and replicate filtering in the whole dataset, with three exceptions (Musculus sp., 436 Bugulina stolonifera, and B. simplex; Figs. S7-S8) but the detection capacity was much lower 437 at the unit level (ie 'species-site-date' combination). Before any corrections, water-eDNA-438 metabarcoding recovered a given taxon in 41% of all units. This number dropped to 22% after 439 corrections, with 106 units of water-eDNA-metabarcoding detection disappearing. 440 Considering NIS or cryptogenic species, this proportion decreased from 56% to 30% (Figs. 441 S7-S8). PCR replicate filtering, used to limit false positives due to PCR errors (Alberdi et al. 442 2018; Tsuji et al. 2020), resulted in 32% loss of detection (Figs. S4-S5), while most losses 443 (68%) occurred after index-jump filtering. Choosing filtering parameters is thus critical and 444 depends on the study aim. For example, von Ammon et al. (2018) kept all OTUs, even 445 singletons, to increase their chance of detecting rare species, advocating that the cost of 446 missing even one rare NIS would be higher than that of a false positive. This option might, 447 however, lead to a dramatic increase in the number of false detections due to index-jump. 448 Indeed, in the dataset, all index-jump controls exhibited reads belonging to several ASVs. 449 Index-jump is an important issue very delicate to account for in metabarcoding studies 450 (Taberlet et al. 2012), and more work needs to be done to find the right compromise between 451 the proportion of false positives and false negatives in the context of benthic NIS detection. 452 Another way to circumvent filtering issues would be to increase the proportion of reads 453 associated to the target species. Most filtering procedures indeed rely on the fact that errors 454 are in low abundance. In most studies, ours included, using universal primers (Cowart et al. 455 2015; Grey et al. 2018; Collins et al. 2019), the vast majority of either 18S or COI reads were 456 not assigned to metazoans (in this study, 77% and 76%, respectively). As a consequence, the 457 DNA from many biofoulers was likely not amplified in the first place. For example, each 458 species detected within the four targeted classes represented less than 1% of read abundances, 459 except for *Ciona intestinalis* with 18S (2.9%; Table S9). More effort should thus be directed 460 toward the development of new primer sets for more restricted groups of organisms that could 461 be multiplexed to increase the taxonomic range (Zhang et al. 2018; Corse et al. 2019; West et 462 al. 2020).

463 Erroneous species assignment challenges the opportunity to detect novel introduced species

464 One expected outcome of water-eDNA-metabarcoding is the detection of species new 465 to a given area, either introduced or expanding their current distribution range, and not 466 actively looked for (ie passive surveillance). Over the four targeted classes, 18 species yet 467 unreported in the study area were recovered (Table S9). Most were, however, likely the result 468 of erroneous assignments. For example, the ascidian *Clavelina meridionalis*, known from the 469 southern hemisphere and yet unreported in Europe, was identified by 18S only, with 99.16 % 470 identity. No reference sequence, however, was available for the closely-related native 471 C. lepadiformis, observed in the field and identified with COI (100% identity) that reliably 472 distinguishes these species (Pérez-Portela and Turon 2008). In total, eight species were 473 identified with 18S only, including six showing identity below 100%. Considering the low 474 taxonomic resolution of 18S, and that most of them have native congeners in the study area, 475 these eight species were not considered as novel introduced species, in the absence of other 476 evidence. Three other species were assigned with 100% identity with COI, and might thus be 477 true identifications, yet still not necessarily novel introduced species. Indeed, the tunicate 478 Polycarpa tenera might have been previously misreported in the study area as the 479 Mediterranean species P. gracilis (Monniot 1974; Vazquez et al. 1995). Similarly, the 480 gastropod Cerithiopsis petanii, described from the Croatian coast (Prkić and Mariottini 2009), 481 belongs to the C. tubercularis species complex (Modica et al. 2013), reported in the study 482 area. It could have thus been overlooked by previous surveys. The only likely new record 483 would then be *Haminoea orteai*, reported in the Mediterranean Sea and the southern part of 484 the Northeast Atlantic (Garabedian et al. 2017).

485 Knowing the evolutionary history of the targeted species is also important to avoid 486 false positives. In this study's dataset, ASVs from both mitochondrial markers were assigned 487 to Mytilus trossulus although very similar to M. edulis references (only one gap). The 488 reference sequences for *M. trossulus* corresponded to individuals from the Baltic Sea, a well-489 known hybrid zone between *M. trossulus* and *M. edulis*, where the mitochondrial genome of 490 *M. trossulus* has been fully introgressed by the mitochondrial genome of *M. edulis* (Kijewski 491 et al. 2006). Aligning the COI ASVs with sequences of *M. trossulus* from Scotland, which 492 have retained their ancestral mitochondrial genome (Zbawicka et al. 2010), led to 83.4% 493 identity only, confirming they were not *M. trossulus* but *M. edulis*.

These case studies demonstrate that passive detection of novel NIS by using watereDNA-metabarcoding could lead to false positives, as pointed by Darling et al. (2020). Therefore, results need to be confirmed using alternative methods, either traditional and/or more sensitive and targeted molecular approaches such as individual barcoding, qPCR or digital PCR (Borrell et al. 2018; Harper et al. 2018; Wood et al. 2019; Ardura et al. 2021).

499 Benefitting from metabarcoding of water samples to monitor a wider range of habitats

500 While water-eDNA-metabarcoding did not recover all species observed, it detected 501 many more taxa by encompassing a wider range of environments. Marinas are composed of 502 diverse micro-habitats, such as pillars, seawalls, floating pontoons, and soft-sediment 503 bottoms, displaying different faunal assemblages and NIS contributions (Leclerc et al. 2020), 504 which all contribute to the local pool of eDNA. Traditional standardized surveillance 505 protocols (eg Hewitt and Martin 2001; HELCOM and OSPAR 2013) usually target water, 506 sediment, and various hard substrates to encompass the whole diversity of marinas, but with 507 important time and labor costs. This study showed that water-eDNA-metabarcoding can 508 provide data over a wide range of habitats. Considering the 96 expected species identified 509 with water-eDNA-metabarcoding over the four target classes (Table S9), only 35 were 510 biofoulers, four might eventually live fixed (occasionally producing a byssus; Aequipecten 511 opercularis, Limaria hians, Mimachlamys varia, and Venerupis corrugata), 28 were soft-512 bottom species, and 30 were motile gastropods. Focusing on NIS, the bivalves Mya arenaria 513 and Ruditapes philippinarum, known from the study area, were recovered by water-eDNA-514 metabarcoding, while neither targeted nor expected in quadrats because of their burrowing 515 lifestyle.

A wide variety of management strategies exists, depending on the targeted species but also on the phase of the introduction process this species has reached (Robertson et al. 2020). These include measures on transport vectors to limit new arrivals, containment measures to avoid the spread of already established NIS, or suppression or eradication measures to limit the impact of introduced NIS. Whatever the management strategy implemented, however, supporting activities (*sensu* Robertson et al. 2020) are required. In particular there is a dire need to identify NIS and monitor them over time and space, either to report new arrivals or to investigate their spread and putative impact of reported ones. According to the results, watereDNA-metabarcoding could be a perfect tool for monitoring species in this context. The wide
variety of targeted habitats and the ease of sampling allow both for the investigation of NIS
spread and putative impact on the communities, as well as allowing for regular sampling.

527 As a conclusion, the fact that two thirds of NIS present at the time of water sampling 528 were effectively recovered by water-eDNA-metabarcoding supports that this technique is a 529 valuable fast and cost-efficient monitoring method, although not yet ready to be used as a 530 unique tool for marine NIS passive surveillance programs. This results also show that species 531 detection errors (false positives or false negatives) can be limited thanks to the use of multiple 532 markers, the design of suitable primer sets (as performed in Westfall et al. 2020), an increased 533 sampling effort, and the building of reliable curated reference databases, including databases 534 specific to NIS (Darling et al. 2017).

535

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545 **Disclosure statement**

546 The authors report that there are no competing interests to declare.

547 Data availability statement

- 548 Raw sequences were deposited on NCBI SRA: BioProject PRJNA744352. The
- 549 metabarcoding and analyses scripts used in this study are available at
- 550 https://github.com/joarwrie/benthic_NIS_detection

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804 Tables

805 Table 1 Number and proportion (in parentheses) of ASVs and reads assigned to one of the 806 reference sequences from the restricted database targeting ten metazoan phyla, for each 807 marker (18S, COI, and 16S). The number indicated for 'Taxa' includes assignments to 808 species-, genus- and family-level. The last three columns indicate the number of species, 809 genera and families detected.

	ASVs	Reads	Taxa	Species	Genus	Family
<i>18S</i>	389 (9.8%)	1,881,029 (15.8%)	291	203	233	159
CO	943 (22.1%)	706,023 (7.0%)	286	235	221	177
Ι						
16S	173 (49.9%)	7,311,390 (54.6%)	104	65	78	70

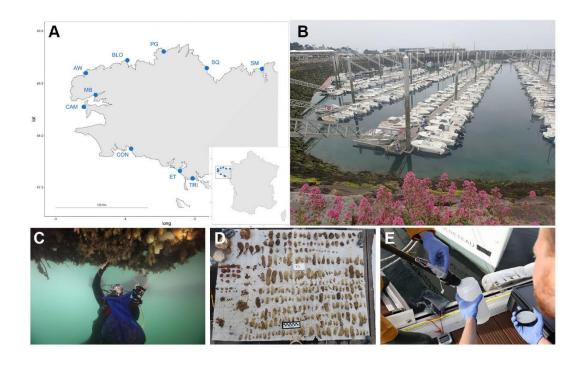
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Table 2 List of non-indigenous (NIS) and cryptogenic (Crypto) species within the four target classes,
known from the study area, and either observed in quadrats or identified in water-eDNA samples.
Stars indicate that, even if the species was not identified in the dataset, sequences were assigned either
to the genus because of a lack of resolution, or to another species of the same genus. When applicable,
the absence of reference sequence is indicated.

Class	Species	Status	Observed	Detected in eDNA samples		
			in quadrats	<i>18S</i>	COI	<i>16S</i>
Ascidiacea	Asterocarpa humilis	NIS	yes	yes	no	no
Ascidiacea	Botrylloides diegensis	NIS	yes	yes	yes	no
Ascidiacea	Botrylloides violaceus	NIS	yes	no*	no*	no
Ascidiacea	Botryllus schlosseri	Crypto	yes	yes	no	no
Ascidiacea	Ciona robusta	NIS	yes	yes	yes	no
Ascidiacea	Corella eumyota	NIS	yes	yes	no	no
Ascidiacea	Didemnum vexillum	NIS	yes	no	no	no
Ascidiacea	Diplosoma listerianum	Crypto	yes	no	yes	no
Ascidiacea	Perophora japonica	NIS	yes	yes	no	no
Ascidiacea	Styela clava	NIS	yes	yes	no	no
Bivalvia	Crassostrea gigas	NIS	yes	no*	no	no
Bivalvia	Mya arenaria	NIS	no	yes	no	no*
Bivalvia	Ruditapes philippinarum	NIS	no	yes	yes	yes
Gastropoda	Crepidula fornicata	NIS	yes	no	yes	no
Gymnolaemata	Bugula neritina	NIS	yes	yes	yes	yes
Gymnolaemata	Bugulina fulva	Crypto	yes	no	yes	yes
Gymnolaemata	Bugulina simplex	NIS	yes	no	no*	no*
Gymnolaemata	Bugulina stolonifera	NIS	yes	no	no*	no*
Gymnolaemata	Tricellaria inopinata	NIS	yes	no reference	no	no reference
Gymnolaemata	Watersipora subatra	NIS	yes	yes	yes	no reference *

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820 Figure 1 A. Location of the sampling sites. SM = Saint-Malo, SQ = Saint-Quay-Portrieux, 821 PG = Perros-Guirec, BLO = Bloscon-Roscoff, AW = L'Aber Wrac'h, MB = Moulin Blanc-822 Brest, CAM = Camaret-sur-Mer, CON = Concarneau, ET = Étel, TRI = La Trinité-sur-Mer. 823 **B**. Picture of one of the study marina (SQ), showing sampled pontoons. **C**. Sampling method 824 (ie, diving under the pontoons) for morphological identification. D. Picture showing all the 825 specimens scraped in a quadrat after sorting on site. E. Seawater sampling method, with 826 seawater collected in a plastic jar using a sterile 100-mL syringe fixed to a sampling rod. 827 Photo credits: Frédérique Viard (B), Wilfried Thomas (C), Laurent Lévêque (D), and Yann 828 Fontana (E).

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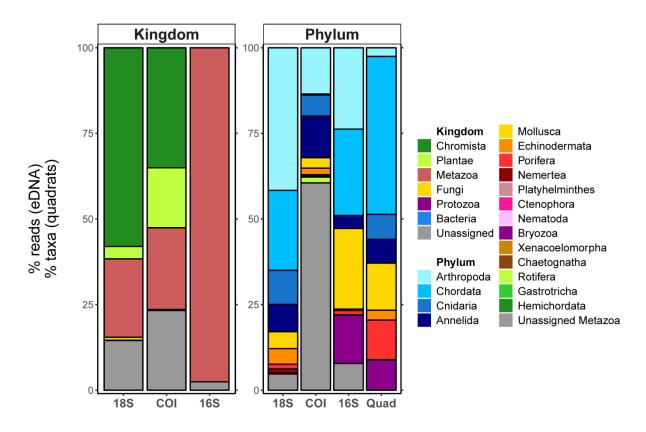
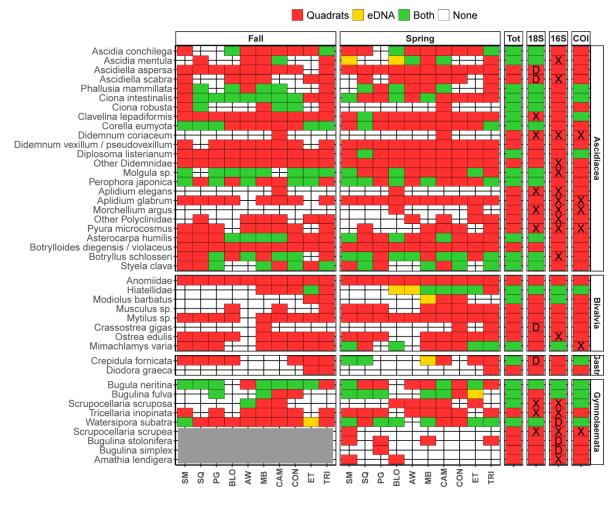


Figure 2 Percentage of reads assigned to different kingdoms (left) or metazoan phyla (right),over all samples, for each of the three markers, as well as for quadrats data (Quad).



834 Figure 3 Comparison between water-eDNA-metabarcoding and morphology-based detection. 835 Only the taxa observed within quadrats and belonging to the four targeted classes are 836 considered. Taxa found with both methods within the same marina are displayed in green, 837 those found only in quadrats are in red, and those only found in water-eDNA are in yellow. 838 The first two panels correspond to samples from fall 2017 and spring 2018, respectively. 839 Metabarcoding detection is recorded across all markers. The column Tot represents the 840 presence of each taxon in the whole dataset. The last three columns represent the presence of 841 a taxon in the whole dataset (all marinas and dates combined) for each marker separately. 842 Black crosses indicate the lack of reference sequences for a particular taxon and D indicates 843 that this marker was not able to discriminate a particular taxon. The grey area represents 844 species that were not isolated during morphological identification in fall 2017. They were all 845 pooled in a unique category called 'erected bryozoans'. See Fig. 1 for location codes.

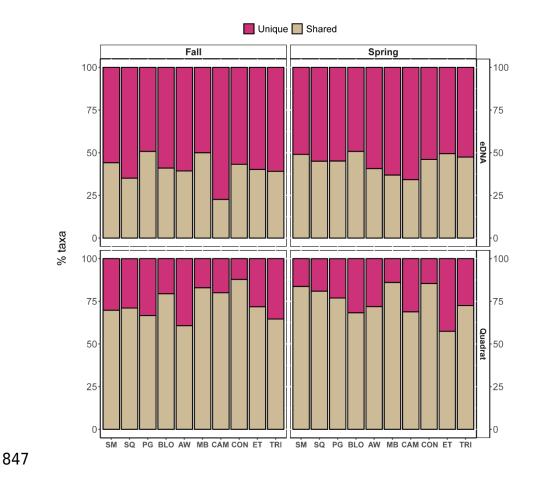


Figure 4 Proportion of taxa recovered with water-eDNA-metabarcoding across all markers or within quadrats, in samples from the two pontoons of a marina for a given season (shared) or

850 in samples from only one pontoon (unique). See Fig. 1 for location codes.

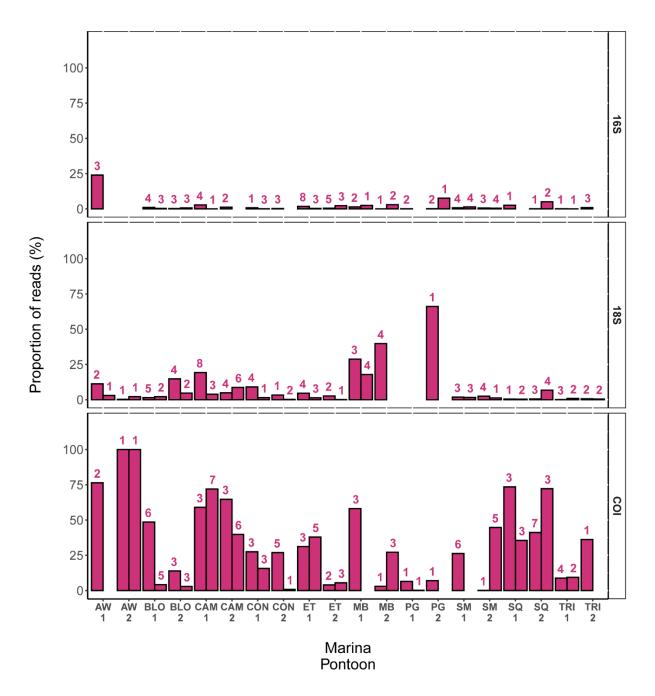


Figure 5 Proportion of reads associated to taxa found in only one of the two 2-L replicates (unique taxa) for each pontoon of each marina. This proportion is calculated by dividing the sum of reads for unique taxa by the sum of all reads for the four target groups in each replicate. The results for each replicate are shown separately (one bar per replicate). The number of unique taxa is indicated at the top of each bar. See Fig. 1 for location codes. Results are presented separately for each marker. Detailed and additional data (values per taxa unique to one replicate and for taxa shared between pontoons) are provided in Fig. S6.