1	Competition and parasitism in the native White Clawed Crayfish Austropotamobius
2	pallipes and the invasive Signal Crayfish Pacifastacus leniusculus in the UK
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1 Abstract

Many crayfish species have been introduced to novel habitats worldwide, often threatening 2 3 extinction of native species. Here we investigate competitive interactions and parasite infections in the native Austropotamobius pallipes and the invasive Pacifastacus leniusculus from single 4 and mixed species populations in the UK. We found A. *pallipes* individuals to be significantly 5 smaller in mixed compared to single species populations; conversely P. leniusculus individuals 6 were larger in mixed than in single species populations. Our data provide no support for 7 reproductive interference as a mechanism of competitive displacement and instead suggest 8 9 competitive exclusion of A. pallipes from refuges by P. leniusculus leading to differential predation. We screened fifty-two P. leniusculus and twelve A. pallipes for microsporidian 10 infection using PCR. We present the first molecular confirmation of Thelohania contejeani in the 11 12 native A. pallipes; in addition, we provide the first evidence for T. contejeani in the invasive P. leniusculus. Three novel parasite sequences were also isolated from P. leniusculus with an 13 14 overall prevalence of microsporidian infection of 38 % within this species; we discuss the identity 15 of and the similarity between these three novel sequences. We also screened a subset of fifteen 16 P. leniusculus and three A. pallipes for Aphanomyces astaci, the causative agent of crayfish 17 plague and for the protistan crayfish parasite Psorospermium haeckeli. We found no evidence for infection by either agent in any of the crayfish screened. The high prevalence of microsporidian 18 19 parasites and occurrence of shared T. contejeani infection lead us to propose that future studies 20 should consider the impact of these parasites on native and invasive host fitness and their 21 potential effects upon the dynamics of native-invader systems.

22

23 *Keywords: Austropotamobius pallipes*; competitive exclusion; differential predation;

24 invasion; microsporidia; Pacifastacus leniusculus; parasites

1 Introduction

2 Parasites can play important roles in biological invasions: invading species may bring with 3 them parasites or diseases which may detrimentally affect native species (Ohtaka et al. 2005; 4 Rushton et al. 2000), or may themselves acquire parasites from their new environment (Bauer 5 et al. 2000; Krakau et al. 2006). Alternatively invading species may lose their parasites, 6 potentially giving them an advantage over native species (Torchin et al. 2003; Torchin et al. 7 2001). Parasites have been shown to be important mediators of interspecific interactions 8 (Hatcher et al. 2006): they may confer a competitive advantage to the host species (Yan et al. 9 1998), alter dominance relationships and predation hierarchies (MacNeil et al. 2003a), and 10 may promote species exclusion or coexistence (MacNeil et al. 2003b; Prenter et al. 2004). 11 By mediating native-invader interactions, parasites can play a key role in the outcome of a 12 biological invasion (MacNeil et al. 2003a; MacNeil et al. 2003b; Prenter et al. 2004). For 13 example, in Northern Ireland, the acanthocephalan parasite *Echinorynchus truttae* reduces the 14 predatory impact of the invasive amphipod Gammarus pulex on the native G. duebeni celticus 15 (MacNeil et al. 2003b).

16

17 The North American Signal Crayfish, Pacifastacus leniusculus (Dana), has become 18 established throughout Britain as a result of escapes from farms (Holdich et al. 2004). The 19 species is highly invasive and commonly leads to the displacement of Britain's only native 20 crayfish Austropotamobius pallipes (Lereboullet) (Bubb et al. 2006; Kemp et al. 2003) As a 21 result, populations of A. pallipes are now concentrated in central and northern England 22 (Souty-Grosset et al. 2006) where they are of global importance, representing the densest 23 concentrations of the species within Europe (Holdich 2003). The mechanism by which A. 24 *pallipes* is displaced varies between populations. In some cases, the native species is 25 displaced through competitive interactions, (Bubb et al. 2006); however the exact mechanism

by which this occurs is unclear. In many water courses in the south of England, extinction of
 A. pallipes has resulted from crayfish plague (Kemp et al. 2003). The invasive crayfish, *P. leniusculus*, commonly acts as a reservoir for *Aphanomyces astaci* (the causative agent of
 crayfish plague), which is fatal to the native species (Holdich 2003).

5

6 Also of interest are two further parasites. The microsporidian parasite Thelohania 7 contejeani (Henneguy), infects Austropotamobius pallipes causing porcelain disease and is 8 the most widely recorded parasitic infection of this species (Alderman and Polglase 1988). 9 Whilst the pathology of T. contejeani is not as severe as that of crayfish plague it can be a 10 serious threat within crayfish aquaculture (Edgerton et al. 2002) and may cause changes in the 11 ecology of its host through changes in diet (Chartier and Chaisemartin 1983); however the 12 consequences of infection by many pathogen groups in European freshwater crayfish are 13 largely poorly understood (Edgerton et al. 2004). Microsporidia are widespread in crustacean 14 hosts (Edgerton et al. 2002; Terry et al. 2004) and can cause significant mortality (Alderman 15 and Polglase 1988). A second parasite, the protist *Psorospermium haeckeli* (Haeckel) infects 16 crayfish and has recently been isolated from A. pallipes (Rogers et al. 2003) and Pacifastacus 17 leniusculus (Dieguez-Uribeondo et al. 1993). The influence of these parasites upon 18 native/invasive interactions in crayfish is unknown.

19

In the UK, Yorkshire is a stronghold for *A. pallipes*: although *P. leniusculus* is present within the county in substantial numbers, it has not yet displaced many native populations and mixed populations do exist (Peay and Rogers 1999). Here we investigate possible competitive interactions by comparing the sizes of native and invading individuals in single species versus mixed species populations. Secondly we use PCR screening and sequence analysis to compare parasite diversity in the native and invasive crayfish, focusing on

- 1 microsporidian parasites.
- 2

3 Materials and Methods

4 Animal collection and measurement

5 A total of seven A. pallipes populations, four P. leniusculus populations and three mixed 6 species sites were surveyed between June and August 2005 (Table 1). Sites in the Wharfe 7 catchment were similar to each other and were typified by boulders and smaller stones 8 overlying gravel. Sites in the Dearne catchment (including Cawthorne Dike) were also 9 similar to each other and were typified by boulders and small stones overlying deep silt. Sites 10 were surveyed for crayfish using a standardised manual survey of selected refuges within a 11 site (Peay 2003). Selection of similar sized refuges at each site ensures no size bias during 12 collection (Peay 2003). For each crayfish individual captured we recorded the species, size 13 (carapace length) and sex. In addition any signs of disease, breeding or moult were recorded: 14 microsporidian infections when at high burden typically cause opacity of muscle tissues as a 15 result of spore replication and muscle pathology (Alderman and Polglase 1988); 16 Aphanomyces astaci can be identified by the appearance of brown melanisations on the 17 exoskeleton of the infected animal (Alderman and Polglase 1988). Following assessment, 18 crayfish were set aside to prevent duplication of records, until the population assessment of 19 the site had been completed. All Austropotamobius pallipes were then released; P. leniusculus 20 were stored at -20 °C.

21

22 Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were conducted using R version 4.2.1. (www.R-project.org). Linear mixed
effects models (LMM) were fitted to the size distribution data for each species separately
using Maximum Likelihood fits. Size was used as the dependent variable with population

- 1 (single vs. mixed species) and sex as fixed factors; site identity was included in the model as a
- 2 random factor to control for any inter-site differences in size composition.
- 3
- 4 <u>Table 1.</u> Field sites sampled during the study. All populations were surveyed for size
- 5

distribution; ^b denotes populations from which *P. leniusculus* or dead *A. pallipes* were

6

obtained for parasite screening

Site Name	Watercourse	Site Grid Reference	Population composition
Cawthorne South	Cawthorne Dike	SE299087	P. leniusculus
Road Bridge ^b	Cawthorne Dike	SE295088	Mixed
Haigh ^b	River Dearne	SE300116	P. leniusculus
Burnsall ^b	River Wharfe	SE025622	P. leniusculus
Lobwood	River Wharfe	SE077518	Mixed
Addingham	River Wharfe	SE082500	Mixed
Footbridge	River Wharfe	SE122484	A. pallipes
Riverside Gardens	River Wharfe	SE113480	A. pallipes
Denton Stones ^b	River Wharfe	SE132482	A. pallipes
Fenay ^b	Fenay Beck	SE179160	P. leniusculus
Adel Dam	Adel Beck	SE275407	A. pallipes
Meanwood ^b	Meanwood Beck	SE281385	A. pallipes
Grange Park	Wyke Beck	SE341363	A. pallipes
Gipton	Wyke Beck	SE342353	A. pallipes

8 In order to determine whether parasite prevalence differed between sexes or sizes of *P*.
9 *leniusculus*, a Generalized Linear Model (GLM) with binomial error distributions was fitted

to the data. Microsporidian presence or absence was used as the dependent variable with size
and sex as fixed factors.

3

4 Non-significant fixed factors were removed from the maximal models in a stepwise
5 fashion until only factors significant at the 5 % level remained.

6

7 Screening for microsporidian parasites

8 Fifty-two P. leniusculus from the field collection (Table 1) were screened for microsporidia 9 (Table 2). As A. pallipes is classified as vulnerable (IUCN 2004) and protected under 10 Schedule 5 of the Wildlife and Countryside Act (1981), we did not screen live animals 11 collected from the field; however twelve dead A. pallipes obtained from sites detailed in 12 Table 1 were screened for microsporidia. Sampling was carried out towards the end of the 13 breeding season when most young have hatched and dispersed (Holdich 2003). However, one 14 female *P. leniusculus* still had two eggs attached; as many microsporidia are vertically 15 transmitted (Dunn and Smith 2001) we also screened these to test for the presence of 16 vertically transmitted parasites.

17

18 Crayfish tissue (approximately 0.25g) was dissected from tail muscle between the 3rd 19 and 4th pleonites, being careful to avoid sampling gut tissue. Eggs from the single gravid 20 female sampled were collected and homogenised. DNA was extracted using a chloroform 21 extraction described by Doyle and Doyle (1987) with modifications described in McClymont 22 et al. (2005).

23

24

1 Table 2. Results of PCR screen for microsporidian infection in *P. leniusculus*. Summary of

Site	Number of individuals	Number of infected	Observed
	screened	individuals	Prevalence
Cawthorne Road	16	7	0.44
Bridge			
Burnsall	13	5	0.38
Haigh	4	3	0.75
Fenay	19	5	0.26
Total	52	20	0.38

2 PCR results for *P. leniusculus*; for site grid references refer to Table 1.

3

PCR of the host cytochrome C oxidase 1 (CO1) gene was used to confirm the quality of
the DNA extraction before PCR for microsporidian SSU rDNA was carried out. Primers used
for detection of host DNA were LCO1490 and HCO2198, which amplify a fragment of the
CO1 gene (Folmer et al. 1994). The CO1 PCR protocol was as described in McClymont et al.
(2005). Positive controls containing DNA extracted from microsporidium infected crayfish
muscle stored in ethanol and negative controls containing deionised water in place of DNA
were included for each reaction; the total reaction volume was 25 µl.

11

12 Three primer sets were used for detection of microsporidian SSU rDNA. V1f

13 (Vossbrinck and Woese 1986) and 1492r (Weiss et al. 1994) are specific for T. contejeani

14 (Lom et al. 2001), whilst both V1f and 530r (Baker et al. 1995), and 18sf (Baker et al. 1995)

15 and 964r (McClymont et al. 2005) are general microsporidian primers. The PCR reaction

16 mixture and protocols are as described by McClymont et al. (2005); annealing temperatures

17 and PCR product lengths are shown in Table 3.

1	Positive controls containing DNA extracted from microsporidium infected crayfish muscle
2	stored in ethanol and negative controls containing deionised water in place of DNA were
3	included for each reaction; the total reaction volume was 25 μ l for initial parasite detection.
4	PCR protocols were all carried out on a Hybaid Omn-E Thermal Cycler (Hybaid Ltd,
5	Waltham, Massachusetts, USA).

- 6
- 7 <u>Table 3</u>. PCR annealing temperatures and approximate expected product length for primers

8	used in	parasite	detection	and	for s	equencing
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Primers	Annealing temperature/°C	Product length/bp
V1f-1492r	50	1500
18sf-964r	50	900
V1f-530r	60	600
350f-964r	60	800
18sf-350r	50	600
18sf-530r	50	700
HA3bf-HG4r	60	1500
HG4f-HG4r	50	1200
HG4f-1492r	50	600
Thelof-580r	50	1400
BACF-1492r	50	800

10 Sequencing and phylogenetic analysis of microsporidia

11 Different primer sets gave positive bands in different individuals suggesting the presence of

12 more than one microsporidian parasite within *P. leniusculus*. Therefore additional primers

13 were used in order to obtain longer sequences: these were 580r (Vossbrinck et al. 1993),

1	Ha3Bf (Gatehouse and Malone 1998), HG4r (Gatehouse and Malone 1998), 350f (Weiss and
2	Vossbrinck 1998), HG4f (Gatehouse and Malone 1998), 1342r (McClymont et al. 2005) and
3	350r (5'-CCAAGGACGGC-AGCAGGCGCGAAA-3'), together with new primers Thelof
4	(5'-TCGTAGTTCCG-CGCAGTAAACTA-3') and BACF (5'-
5	ATATAGGAACAGATGATGGC-3'). Annealing temperatures for all primer combinations
6	are given in Table 3. Where PCR products were to be sequenced the amounts of reagents in
7	the reaction mixture were doubled to give a total reaction volume of 50 μ l.
8	
9	50 μ l of each PCR product were electrophoresed through a 2 % agarose TAE gel in
10	standard TAE buffer, stained with ethidium bromide and visualised by UV light to ensure
11	successful amplification of the PCR product. PCR products were excised from the gel and
12	purified using a QIAQuick Gel Purification Kit (Qiagen, Crawley, UK) and were sequenced
13	on an ABI 3130xl capillary sequencer at the University of Leeds.
14	
15	The closest matching sequence to each sequence generated within this study was
16	determined using the NCBI-BLAST database (Altschul et al. 1997) and a percentage
17	sequence similarity calculated using the pairwise alignment function in BioEdit (Hall 2005).
18	
19	Screening for Aphanomyces astaci and Psorospermium haeckeli
20	In addition, a subset of fifteen Pacifastacus leniusculus and three Austropotamobius pallipes
21	from the field collection were screened for the presence of Aphanomyces astaci and of
22	Psorospermium haeckeli
23	
24	Tissue was dissected from the eye to screen for the presence of A. astaci as in the early
25	stages of the infection mycelium are known to be present within the cornea (Vogt 1999).

1	DNA extraction was performed and confirmed as described previously. Primers 525 and 640
2	were used to screen for A. astaci, with an expected product length of 115 bp (Oidtmann et al.
3	2004). The reaction mixture comprised 0.625 U of GoTaq Taq polymerase and 5µl 5 x
4	GoTaq buffer (giving a final concentration of 1.5 mM MgCl ₂ per reaction) (Promega,
5	Southampton, UK), 0.04 mM dNTPs, 10 pmol of each primer, 1 µl DNA and deionised water
6	in a total reaction volume of 25 μ l. No positive control material was available; a negative
7	control containing deionised water in place of DNA was included for each PCR reaction. The
8	PCR protocol is as described in Oidtmann et al. (2004).

To screen for Psorospermium haeckeli, tissue was dissected from the subepidermal 10 11 connective tissue as high parasite burdens have been reported from this tissue type (Henttonen 12 1996). DNA extraction was performed and confirmed as described previously. Primers Pso-13 1 (Bangyeekhun et al. 2001) and ITS-4 (White et al. 1990) were used to screen for P. haeckeli 14 with expected product lengths of 1300 or 1500 bp (Bangyeekhun et al. 2001). The reaction 15 mixture comprised 1.25 U of GoTaq Taq polymerase, 5 µl 5 x GoTaq buffer (Promega, 16 Southampton, UK), 2 mM MgCl₂, 0.08 mM dNTPs, 20 pmol of each primer, 1 µl of DNA 17 and deionised water in a total reaction volume of 25 µl. No positive control was available; a 18 negative control containing deionised water in place of DNA was included for each PCR. 19 The PCR protocol is as described in Bangyeekhun et al. (2001). 20 21 **Results**

22 Sizes of animals in single and mixed populations

23 Austropotamobius pallipes

24 Following stepwise deletion of non-significant fixed effects from the Maximal model,

25 population composition (single vs. mixed species) was the only significant term remaining in

1	the Minimum Adequate Model (LMM, $F_{1,73}$, p=0.025) indicating a significant difference in
2	size composition of single and mixed species populations. The mean size of A. pallipes was
3	28.5 mm in single species populations and 22.5 mm in mixed populations (Fig. 1).
4	

<u>Fig 1.</u> Size distributions of *Austropotamobius pallipes* in single species and mixed species
populations. *A. pallipes* individuals in single species populations were significantly larger
than those in mixed species populations (LMM, F_{1,73}, p=0.025)

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Pacifastacus leniusculus

Following stepwise deletion of non-significant fixed effects, population composition (single vs. mixed species) was the only significant term remaining in the Minimum Adequate Model (LMM, F_{1,72}, p=0.028). *P. leniusculus* individuals in mixed populations were significantly larger than their counterparts in single species populations with a mean size of 36.3 mm in single species populations and 46.0 mm in mixed species populations (Fig. 2). Very few
 juveniles were observed in the mixed species sites.

3

7

<u>Fig 2.</u> Size distributions of *Pacifastacus leniusculus* in single species and mixed species
populations. *P. leniusculus* individuals in single species populations were significantly
smaller than individuals in mixed species populations (LMM, F_{1,72}, p=0.028)



8

9 Microsporidian parasites

10 All twelve *A. pallipes* individuals tested showed clinical signs of microsporidian infection 11 through an opacity of the abdominal musculature; these all tested positive for microsporidian 12 infection through PCR screening. As we were only able to screen dead individuals from the 13 field, we were unable to estimate the prevalence of microsporidian infection for this species. 14

15 The prevalence of microsporidian infection in *P. leniusculus* ranged from 0.26 to 0.75,

1 with an overall prevalence across all populations of 0.38 (Table 2). Six of the twenty infected 2 individuals showed clinical signs of infection through an opacity of the abdominal 3 musculature; one of these was dead when collected. There was no significant difference 4 between the frequency of infection of males versus females (GLM, p₄₇=0.181) and there was 5 no significant difference in sizes of infected versus uninfected individuals (GLM, p₄₈=0.831). 6 7 *Parasite sequences* 8 We obtained multiple sequences from 4 distinct microsporidian parasite species (Table 4). 9 Three of these parasites, Bacillidium sp. PLFB32, Microsporidium sp. PLWB7A and 10 *Vittaforma* sp. PLDH3, had not previously been reported from crayfish hosts and represent 11 novel microsporidian sequences; the fourth, *Thelohania contejeani*, despite having been 12 previously recorded in crayfish, had not been sequenced from either of the two study species.

13

14 Forty-four sequences from 29 individuals were 98 % -100 % identical to T. contejeani isolated from the crayfish Astacus fluviatilis in France (Lom et al. 2001). These sequences 15 16 were obtained from 17 P. leniusculus and 12 Austropotamobius pallipes. We detected two 17 strains of T. contejeani within each crayfish species, corresponding to strains TcC2 and TcC3 18 described by Lom et al. (2001). We found strain TcC2 in 7 individuals: 3 A. pallipes and 4 P. 19 *leniusculus*. We sequenced strain TcC3 from 18 individuals: 8 A. *pallipes* and 10 P. 20 *leniusculus*. Four samples were not sequenced across the variable region and so could belong 21 to either strain. In three cases we sequenced both strains from the same host, twice in A.

22 *pallipes* and once in *P. leniusculus*.

1 <u>Table 4.</u> Summary of microsporidian parasite diversity in *A. pallipes* and microsporidian diversity and prevalence *P. leniusculus*. It should be

2	noted that only dead individuals of	f A. pallipes we	ere screened for parasites,	, and so prevalence c	annot be estimated for this species.
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Parasite	% similarity	A. pallipes	P. leniusculus	Genbank Accession numbers
Thelohania contejeani	98-100% similarity to <i>Thelohania</i>	12/12	17/52	AM261747, AM261750,
isolates Tcc2PL, Tcc3PL,	contejeani (AF492593 and AF492594)			AM261751, AM261752,
Tcc2AP and Tcc3AP				AM261753
Vittaforma sp. isolate PLDH3	95% similarity to <i>Microsporidium</i> sp.	Absent	1/52	AM261754
	CRANFA (AJ966723)			
	93% similarity to Vittaforma-like			
	parasite (AY375044)			
Bacillidium sp. isolate	97% similarity to <i>Bacillidium</i>	Absent	1/52	AM261748
PLFB32	vesiculoformis (AJ581995)			
Microsporidium sp. isolate	75% similarity to <i>Bacillidium</i>	Absent	1/52	AM261749
PLWB7A	vesiculoformis (AJ581995)			

1	Two sequences isolated from one P. leniusculus had 97 % sequence similarity
2	to Bacillidium vesiculoformis, a species that has to date only been described from the
3	oligochaete worm <i>Nais simplex</i> in Scotland. One sequence isolated from a <i>P</i> .
4	leniusculus egg had 75 % sequence similarity to B. vesiculoformis; the parent crayfish
5	tested negative for microsporidian infection.
6	
7	Two sequences isolated from a single P. leniusculus host had 95 % sequence
8	similarity to Microsporidium sp. CRANFA isolated from the amphipod crustacean
9	Crangonyx floridanus in Florida (Galbreath 2005), and 93 % sequence similarity to a
10	Vittaforma-like parasite isolated from a human host (Sulaiman et al. 2003).
11	
12	We found no clinical/visible signs of Aphanomyces astaci infection in any of
13	the individuals sampled. No evidence was found for infection by either A. astaci or
14	Psorospermium haeckeli in any of subset the individuals screened for these parasites
15	by PCR.
16	
17	Discussion
18	Competitive interactions
19	In mixed populations the size distributions of both species differ from those in single
20	species populations. Austropotamobius pallipes tend to be smaller in mixed
21	populations (Fig. 1) whereas Pacifastacus leniusculus tend to be larger (Fig. 2).
22	Displacement mechanisms proposed in other native-invader crayfish systems include
23	reproductive interference (Westman et al. 2002); competitive exclusion from refuges
24	resulting in differential predation (Vorburger and Ribi 1999); and differential
25	susceptibility to diseases (Alderman and Polglase 1988).

2 In Finland, where *P. leniusculus* displaces the native *Astacus astacus*, it is 3 thought that reproductive interference by dominant P. leniusculus males results in the 4 majority of A. astacus females producing only sterile eggs (Westman et al. 2002). 5 Our data provide no support for this mechanism of displacement in our study system 6 as smaller Austropotamobius pallipes were more common in mixed populations (Fig. 7 1); this is in direct contrast to the pattern of fewer small A. pallipes in mixed 8 populations that would be predicted by reproductive interference (Westman et al. 9 2002). 10 11 Our data show large A. pallipes to be under-represented in mixed populations 12 (Fig. 1), which may reflect competitive exclusion by the larger (Lowery 1988) and 13 more dominant (Vorburger and Ribi 1999) invader from limited refuges (Bubb et al. 14 2006), since small P. leniusculus and large A. pallipes overlap in size (Fig. 1, 2). P. 15 *leniusculus* has been shown to oust other crayfish species from refuges (Söderbäck 1995) which would leave larger A. pallipes more vulnerable to predation (Söderbäck 16 17 1994, after Söderbäck 1992) and result in the reduction of large A. pallipes in the 18 mixed populations seen within our study. 19

1

The absence of juvenile *P. leniusculus* from mixed populations (Fig. 2) is interesting, and implies that *A. pallipes* may in fact be influencing the population structure of the invading species. The moulting of juvenile *P. leniusculus* is synchronized, resulting in reduced intraspecific cannibalism (referenced in Ahvenharju et al. 2005). However, interspecific predation by the native *A. pallipes* (Gil-Sánchez and Alba-Tercedor 2006) as well as other predators such as fish

1 (Söderbäck 1992) may underpin the observed reduction in juvenile *P. leniusculus* in

2 mixed populations.

3 Parasitism in native and invasive crayfish

4 Four species of microsporidia were detected in the invasive crayfish *P. leniusculus*. 5 In contrast, only one microsporidian parasite was detected from A. pallipes although 6 the sample size was small. The overall prevalence of microsporidian infection in P. 7 *leniusculus* was 38 % (Table 2). This prevalence is higher than previous reports of 8 visible microsporidiosis in A. pallipes in Britain (9%, (Brown and Bowler 1977); 26 9 % (Rogers et al. 2003); 30 % (Evans and Edgerton 2002)), France (0-8%, Chartier 10 and Chaisemartin 1983) and Spain (1%, Dieguez-Uribeondo et al. 1993), probably 11 reflecting a higher detection efficiency by PCR. 12 13 The *T. contejeani* sequences we obtained were identical to those previously

14 isolated from Astacus fluviatilis (Genbank accession numbers AF492593 and

15 AF492594, Lom et al. 2001). This is, to our knowledge, the first molecular

16 confirmation of *T. contejeani* infecting *P. leniusculus*, as well as the first report of the

17 parasite in an invasive species in Europe. Whilst *T. contejeani* has previously been

18 reported from *Austropotamobius pallipes* in the UK (Brown and Bowler 1977;

19 Edgerton et al. 2002; Rogers et al. 2003), these reports were based on light

20 microscopy and lack the ultrastructural or molecular information to confirm species

21 identity (Dunn and Smith 2001). This is the first molecular confirmation of the

22 presence of *T. contejeani* infecting *A. pallipes*.

23

The presence of *T. contejeani* in the invasive *P. leniusculus* leads to the question of how the parasite has come to infect this species. Firstly, *P. leniusculus* may have

1	brought the parasite with it from its native range. T. contejeani has been reported
2	from a number of crayfish hosts (Graham and France 1986; Quilter 1976), and there is
3	a single report of T. contejeani from P. leniusculus in its native range in California
4	(McGriff and Modin 1983); but identification is based on spore size, and molecular or
5	ultrastructural confirmation is lacking. The pattern of infection in the current study
6	leads us to suggest that it is more likely that <i>P. leniusculus</i> in the UK has acquired <i>T</i> .
7	contejeani from the native host. T. contejeani was detected in A. pallipes only sites,
8	in mixed sites and in sites where only P. leniusculus occurred. Furthermore, identical
9	sequences were found in the native and invading species (Table 4). These data fit a
10	pattern of transmission from the native A. pallipes to the invading species in mixed
11	sites. Detailed studies of the fitness effects of <i>T. contejeani</i> and its mode of
12	transmission within and between crayfish species are required.
13	
14	In addition, our T. contejeani sequences had 98-100 % sequence similarity to
15	the unclassified microsporidium, Microsporidium sp. JES2002H, which was detected
16	in three species of amphipod in France (Terry et al. 2004). We suggest that
17	Microsporidium sp. JES2002H and T. contejeani may be the same species, although
18	confirmation awaits ultrastructural analysis of Microsporidium sp. JES2002H.
19	
20	In one P. leniusculus we found a microsporidium sequence with 97 % sequence
21	similarity to Bacillidium vesiculoformis, a parasite previously described from the
22	oligochaete worm Nais simplex in Scotland, UK (Morris et al. 2005). The sequence
23	similarity indicates that the parasite is likely to be in the same genus as B .
24	vesiculoformis; however further molecular and morphological analysis would be
25	required to confirm this. This is the first record of a Bacillidium spp. in crayfish and

supports Morris et al's (2005) suggestion that *B. vesiculoformis* is a generalist
 parasite.

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- We also detected three novel microsporidian sequences in *P. leniusculus*. This raises
 the question of the effects of these parasites on host fitness as well as their potential
 influence on native invader interactions.
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6 Acknowledgements

7 Stephanie Peay provided advice and help with fieldwork. Qiu Yang provided advice

8 and assistance for the molecular work. Elizabeth Moodie provided positive control

9 material in the form of microsporidian infected crayfish muscle. Fieldwork was

10 carried out under licence from English Nature.

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