

Lessepsian migration and parasitism: richness, prevalence and intensity of parasites in the invasive fish *Sphyraena chrysotaenia* compared to its native congener *Sphyraena sphyraena* off Tunisia

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Background Parasites can play various roles in the invasion of non-native species, but these are still understudied in marine ecosystems. This also applies to invasions from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean Sea via the Suez Canal, the so-called Lessepsian migration. In this study, we investigated the role of parasites in the invasion of the Lessepsian migrant *Sphyraena chrysotaenia* in the Tunisian Mediterranean Sea. **Methods** We compared metazoan parasite richness, prevalence and intensity of *S. chrysotaenia* (Perciformes: Sphyraenidae) with infections in its native congener *S. sphyraena* by sampling these fish species at seven locations along the Tunisian coast. Additionally, we reviewed the literature to identify native and invasive parasite species recorded in these two hosts. **Results** Our results suggest the loss of at least two parasite species of the invasive fish species. At the same time, the Lessepsian migrant has co-introduced three parasite species, during the initial migration to the Mediterranean Sea, that are assumed to originate from the Red Sea of which only one parasite species has been reported during the spread to Tunisian waters. In addition, we found that the invasive fish has acquired six parasite species that are native in the Mediterranean Sea. However, parasite richness, prevalence and intensity were overall much lower in the invasive compared to the native fish host in the Mediterranean Sea. **Discussion** These results suggest that the Lessepsian migrant may affect native fish hosts by potentially altering the dynamics of native and invasive parasite-host interactions via parasite release, parasite co-introduction and parasite acquisition. They further suggest that the lower infection levels in the invasive fish may result in a competitive advantage over native fish hosts (enemy release hypothesis). This study demonstrates that cross-species comparisons of parasite infection levels are a valuable tool to identify the different roles of parasites in the course of Lessepsian migrations.

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24 **Abstract**

25 **Background** Parasites can play various roles in the invasion of non-native species, but these are
26 still understudied in marine ecosystems. This also applies to invasions from the Red Sea to the
27 Mediterranean Sea via the Suez Canal, the so-called Lessepsian migration. In this study, we
28 investigated the role of parasites in the invasion of the Lessepsian migrant *Sphyræna*
29 *chrysotaenia* in the Tunisian Mediterranean Sea.

30 **Methods** We compared metazoan parasite richness, prevalence and intensity of *S. chrysotaenia*
31 (Perciformes: Sphyrænidae) with infections in its native congener *S. sphyraena* by sampling
32 these fish species at seven locations along the Tunisian coast. Additionally, we reviewed the
33 literature to identify native and invasive parasite species recorded in these two hosts.

34 **Results** Our results suggest the loss of at least two parasite species of the invasive fish species.
35 At the same time, the Lessepsian migrant has co-introduced three parasite species, during the
36 initial migration to the Mediterranean Sea, that are assumed to originate from the Red Sea of
37 which only one parasite species has been reported during the spread to Tunisian waters. In
38 addition, we found that the invasive fish has acquired six parasite species that are native in the
39 Mediterranean Sea. However, parasite richness, prevalence and intensity were overall much
40 lower in the invasive compared to the native fish host in the Mediterranean Sea.

41 **Discussion** These results suggest that the Lessepsian migrant may affect native fish hosts by
42 potentially altering the dynamics of native and invasive parasite-host interactions via parasite
43 release, parasite co-introduction and parasite acquisition. They further suggest that the lower
44 infection levels in the invasive fish may result in a competitive advantage over native fish hosts
45 (enemy release hypothesis). This study demonstrates that cross-species comparisons of parasite

46 infection levels are a valuable tool to identify the different roles of parasites in the course of
47 Lessepsian migrations.

48 **Introduction**

49 One of the potential explanations for the establishment and subsequent spread of invasive
50 species in marine and other ecosystems is the enemy release hypothesis (Elton, 1958; Keane &
51 Crawley, 2002). This hypothesis states that invasive species may gain a competitive advantage
52 over native species by losing all or part of their natural enemies, such as predators and parasites,
53 during the invasion process. For parasites, such a release or reduction has been documented for a
54 wide range of host taxa including marine species (Torchin, Lafferty & Kuris, 2001; Keane &
55 Crawley, 2002; Torchin et al., 2003; Torchin & Mitchell, 2004; Blakeslee, Fowler & Keogh,
56 2013). However, invasive hosts do not necessarily lose all their native parasites during an
57 invasion, but can often co-introduce parasites to their non-indigenous range (Lymbery et al.,
58 2014). The likelihood of this co-introduction depends, among others, on the host specificity and
59 life cycle of the respective parasite species. Generalist parasites which infect a larger range of
60 host species and parasites with direct life cycles are more likely to be co-introduced than highly
61 specific parasites or parasites with complex life cycles (i.e., depending on several sequential
62 different host species; Torchin, Lafferty & Kuris, 2002; Poulin & Morand, 2004; Lymbery et al.,
63 2014). In the new range, co-introduced parasites may also infect native hosts (parasite spillover;
64 Prenter et al., 2004, Kelly et al., 2009), with potentially serious impacts on native species and
65 ecosystems (emerging diseases; Daszak, Cunningham & Hyatt, 2000). Finally, invasive species
66 can also acquire native parasites from native host species. This parasite acquisition may have
67 deleterious effects on naïve invasive host species ('increased susceptibility hypothesis' *sensu*
68 Colautti et al., 2004), but may also ultimately amplify native parasite population sizes, resulting

69 in increased parasite loads in native hosts, a phenomenon which is referred to as parasite
70 spillback (Kelly et al., 2009). While many of these mechanisms may result in a competitive
71 advantage for invasive over native species, the magnitude of this advantage will depend on the
72 actual difference in parasite infection levels between invasive and native hosts. Several studies
73 comparing infection levels in invasive and introduced hosts (community studies or cross-species
74 comparisons; *sensu* Colautti et al., 2004; Torchin & Mitchell, 2004) have shown that infection
75 levels are often lower in invasive host species (Georgiev et al., 2007; Dang et al., 2009; Roche et
76 al., 2010; Gendron, Marcogliese & Thomas, 2012). However, such cross-species comparisons of
77 infection levels in invasive and native competitors are surprisingly scarce (Goedknecht et al.,
78 2017). In addition, our knowledge on the role of parasites in biological invasions in general is
79 still limited, especially in the marine realm (Vignon & Sasal, 2010; Goedknecht et al., 2016).

80 This also applies to species invasions in the Mediterranean Sea, an ecosystem with an
81 extraordinarily high rate of species introductions, with more than 1000 alien species listed
82 (Bilecenoglu et al., 2013). Especially via the Suez Canal, which was opened in 1869, many
83 benthic invertebrates and fish species have migrated from the Indian Ocean over the Red Sea to
84 the Mediterranean Sea, a massive human-initiated invasion referred to as Lessepsian migration
85 (*sensu* Por, 1978). Despite this high migration rate and the resulting high number of species
86 introductions, parasitological investigations of invasive species have been surprisingly rare in
87 this region (Pérez-del-Olmo, Kostadinova & Gibson, 2016) and have only focused on a few host
88 species such as a portunid crab (Galil & Innocenti, 1999), the Lessepsian fishes *Siganus* spp.
89 (Diamant, 2010), *Fistularia commersonii* (Merella et al., 2016), *Etrumeus golanii* (Boussellaa et
90 al., 2016) and *Lagocephalus sceleratus* (Bakopoulos, Karoubali & Diakou, 2017). Initially, 18
91 species of parasites spread over four taxonomic groups (Monogenea, Crustacea, Protozoa and

92 Digenea) had been recognized as Lessepsian migrants which have been co-introduced with their
93 hosts to the Mediterranean Sea (Zenetos et al., 2008), and more recently this list has been
94 updated by the addition of many other parasite species (Diamant, 2010, Merella et al., 2016).
95 Given that there are many Lessepsian migrants that have never been under parasitological
96 investigation, the actual list of co-introduced parasite species is likely to be much longer. In
97 addition, invasive hosts may have acquired native parasite species but whether the resulting
98 parasite loads of hosts are actually lower, equal to or higher than the ones in native species in the
99 Mediterranean Sea has scarcely been studied to date.

100 In the present study, we investigated metazoan parasite infections in the Lessepsian
101 migrant fish *Sphyraena chrysotaenia* Klunzinger, 1884, along the Tunisian coast in the central
102 Mediterranean Sea. This fish species was first recorded in the eastern Mediterranean Sea in 1931
103 (Spicer, 1931) and has since then spread westwards, after which it was reported for the first time
104 at the Tunisian coast in 2002 (Bradai et al., 2002). It is now a relatively common piscivorous fish
105 of about 20-25 cm length, living in the pelagic and demersal zones to a depth of 50 m in inshore
106 waters where it is captured by local artisanal fisheries (Golani & Ben Tuvia, 1995; Wadie &
107 Riskhallah, 2001; Zouari-Ktari, Bradai & Bouain, 2009). A cross-species comparison of the
108 parasite communities was carried out considering the parasite richness and levels of infection in
109 the invasive fish and in the congeneric native one *Sphyraena sphyraena* Linnaeus, 1758. This
110 native fish species is usually larger than the invasive species (30-60 cm length) but has an
111 overlapping prey spectrum (Kalogirou et al., 2012), lives in the same habitats and is also used by
112 local fisheries (Relini & Orsi Relini, 1997; Allam, Faltas & Ragheb, 2005). By sampling
113 invasive (*S. chrysotaenia*) and native (*S. sphyraena*) fish hosts along the Tunisian coast and by
114 conducting an additional parasitological literature survey, we aimed to answer the following

115 specific research questions: 1) Is there evidence that *S. chrysotaenia* experienced a release from
116 its native parasites from the Red Sea?, 2) did *S. chrysotaenia* co-introduce parasites from the Red
117 Sea and/or did it acquire native parasites from the Mediterranean Sea? and 3) how do parasite
118 richness, prevalence and intensity in the invasive *S. chrysotaenia* compare with those in the
119 native *S. sphyraena*?

120 **Material and methods**

121 Fish sampling

122 Between October 2012 and July 2015, a total of 107 specimens of *Sphyraena sphyraena*
123 (native fish) and 148 specimens of *Sphyraena chrysotaenia* (invasive fish) were collected at
124 seven fishing localities along the Tunisian coast (off the cities of Sfax, Kerkennah, Skhira,
125 Chebba, Zarat, Zarzis and Sayeda; Fig. 1, Table 1). Fish were mostly bought from local
126 fishermen operating landing trawlers along the Tunisian coast at a depth of about 30 m. In
127 addition, some specimens were recovered from artisanal inshore fishery of Kerkennah and
128 Chebba. Only adult individuals were examined, with total lengths of 25.7-42.7 cm for *S.*
129 *sphyraena* and 18.5-26.2 cm for *S. chrysotaenia*. Samples were kept fresh or were deep-frozen in
130 individual plastic bags at -10°C, until examination in the laboratory. After defrosting, all fish
131 individuals were identified to species level using Whitehead et al. (1984) and Fisher et al. (1987)
132 and examined for parasites as described below. During our study, Faculty of Sciences of Sfax
133 provided full approval for this purely observational research.

134

135 Parasite sampling

136 We only checked for metazoans parasites, as this was the focus of our study. Fish skin, fins,
137 nasal pits, eyes and buccal cavities were thoroughly examined for the presence of ectoparasites

138 under a stereomicroscope with incident light. Gill arches were separated by incision, and then
139 placed in petri dishes filled with sea water and examined for the presence of ectoparasites.
140 Internal organs (stomach, pyloric caeca, intestines, heart, liver, spleen, gall bladder and gonads)
141 were separated and individually examined for the presence of endoparasites. Platyhelminthes
142 were fixed between a slide and coverslip with 70% ethanol. Fixed specimens were stained with
143 Semichon's acetic carmine, dehydrated using a graded ethanol series then cleared in clove oil
144 and mounted in Canada balsam. Other parasites (copepods, isopods, nematodes and annelids)
145 were directly fixed in 70% ethanol for later examination. Parasites were identified to the lowest
146 taxonomic level possible using Gibson et al. (2002) for Digenea, Neifar (1995) and Theisen et al.
147 (2017) for Monogenea, Euzet (1994) for Cestoda, Berland (1961) and Petter & Maillard (1988)
148 for Nematoda and the keys of Kabata (2003) for Copepoda.

149

150 Literature review

151 We searched literature databases (Host-Parasite database from the Natural History Museum in
152 London, Web of Science, Google Scholar) for published records of additional parasite species
153 from the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea. Search strings included the species names and the
154 different parasite taxa. In addition, we searched the reference sections of publications and our
155 own reference collections for potential further studies reporting parasite infections in the two
156 fish.

157

158 Statistical analyses

159 As sampling effort differed between native ($n = 107$) and invasive fish hosts ($n = 148$),
160 we produced rarefaction curves to identify the level of dependence of species accumulation on

161 sampling effort. Sample-based rarefaction curves were computed based on sample sizes at the
162 different locations (Gotelli & Colwell 2001) using Estimates S 9.1.0 (Colwell, 2013). Based
163 recommendations by Walther & Morand (1998) in regard to parasites, we used the
164 nonparametric species estimator Chao2 for our rarefaction analyses. This species estimator
165 algorithm uses the frequency of unique species in samples to estimate the number of missing
166 species in a population (Chao, 2005).

167 We used general linear models (GLMs) to test for statistical differences between the fish
168 species and among locations in parasite richness of individual fish (Poisson distribution; $n =$
169 255), infection status of individual fish (infected or uninfected; binomial distribution; $n = 255$)
170 and intensity of infected fish (negative binomial distribution; $n = 127$). In each model, we added
171 host species and location as fixed factors and an interaction term. As the parasite fauna of the
172 two host species was very different, we used the total infection status and intensity of parasite
173 species per host species to compare infection levels between hosts. Although this procedure may
174 obscure the potentially different effects on hosts exerted by different parasite species, this
175 lumping procedure still allows for an approximate comparison of overall infection levels. We did
176 not add fish size as a covariate in the models because preliminary analyses using GLMs did not
177 show an effect of fish size on any of the response variables. All statistical models were run using
178 the statistical software environment R v3.3.0. (R Development Core Team 2016).

179

180 **Results**

181 After the dissections of 107 individuals of the native *Sphyraena sphyraena* and 148 individuals
182 of the invasive *S. chrysotaenia* caught along the coast of Tunisia, ten different parasite species
183 infecting the two fish were found. Our additional literature survey added another ten parasite

184 species records from the Mediterranean or Red Sea to the total parasite species list of both fish
185 species (Table 2).

186

187 Parasite release

188 In total, five parasite species were collected from the Lessepsian migrant *Sphyraena*
189 *chrysotaenia* in Tunisian coastal waters (Table 2). In addition, the literature survey indicated that
190 four other parasite species have been found in this invasive host species elsewhere in the
191 Mediterranean Sea (Table 2). Hence, *S. chrysotaenia* is infected by at least nine parasite species in
192 its invaded range. In its native range, the Red Sea, two parasite species of *S. chrysotaenia* have been
193 reported in the literature (Table 2). In addition, three of the parasite species found in *S. chrysotaenia*
194 in the Mediterranean Sea most likely originate from Red Sea, although published records are not
195 available. This suggests that the Lessepsian migrant harbours at least five parasite species in its
196 native range, the Red Sea (Table 2).

197

198 Parasite co-introduction and acquisition

199 The examination and the literature survey revealed that the Lessepsian migrant *S. chrysotaenia* is
200 infected by three parasite species in the Mediterranean Sea that are assumed to originate from the
201 Red Sea (Table 2). Our results further revealed that the Lessepsian migrant *S. chrysotaenia* has
202 acquired six native parasite species in the Mediterranean Sea (Table 2). Five of those species
203 were found in our survey in Tunisian coastal waters and a fifth species had been noted in *S.*
204 *chrysotaenia* elsewhere in the Mediterranean Sea (Table 2).

205

206 Comparison with the native congeneric species *Sphyraena sphyraena*

207 The native congeneric species *Sphyraena.sphyraena* was infected with six parasite
208 species in Tunisian coastal waters and four additional species have been described in the
209 literature (Table 2). Of all these parasite species, only one was shared with the introduced fish
210 host *S. chrysotaenia*, the presumably native isopod *Gnathia* sp.. None of the parasites that were
211 co-introduced by the Lessepsian migrant have been found to infect the native congeneric host
212 species (Table 2).

213 In general, the rarefaction curves did not reach asymptotic levels in the two congeneric
214 host species, indicating that a higher sampling effort may reveal more (albeit rare) parasite
215 species in Tunisian coastal waters (Fig. 2). The species accumulation curves further indicate that
216 the total parasite species richness at a given sampling effort could be higher in the native than in
217 the invasive host species. This was also reflected in the mean parasite richness per individual fish
218 found at the seven locations, which was generally significantly higher in the native *S. sphyraena*
219 than in the invasive *S. chrysotaenia* (GLM: $\beta = 0.705$, $SE = 0.586$, $\Delta_{Deviance} = 110.655$, $df = 253$, p
220 < 0.001 ; Fig. 3). However, at some locations this pattern was reversed, resulting in a significant
221 interaction term ($\Delta_{Deviance} = 3.470$, $df = 241$, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 3).

222 Likewise, the infection status of fish hosts was generally significantly higher in the native
223 *S. sphyraena* than in the invasive *S. chrysotaenia* (GLM: $\beta = 1.966$, $SE = 1.201$, $\Delta_{Deviance} =$
224 162.599 , $df = 247$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 4a). This was consistent over all locations as there was no
225 significant difference in overall infection status between locations ($p = 0.294$; Fig.4a). However,
226 due to the absence of infections at two locations, there was a significant interaction term
227 ($\Delta_{Deviance} = 168.19$, $df = 241$, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 4a). Mean intensity of infections also differed
228 between host species, with the native fish being infected with higher numbers of parasites than
229 the invasive fish host (GLM: $\beta = 0.337$, $SE = 0.586$, $\Delta_{Deviance} = 35.420$, $df = 119$, $p < 0.001$; Fig.

230 4b). There was also a significant effect of location on overall infection intensities ($\Delta_{\text{Deviance}} =$
231 26.295, $df = 120$, $p < 0.001$), with location 1 showing much lower values than the other locations
232 (Fig. 4b). However, there was no significant interaction between location and host species ($p =$
233 0.249).

234

235 **Discussion**

236 Based on samples from the Tunisian coast and additional literature data, our analyses indicate that
237 the invasive Lessepsian migrant *S. chrysothaenia* lost two parasite species during its introduction to
238 the Mediterranean Sea, but that the invasive fish also co-introduced parasites from the Red Sea
239 and acquired one generalist parasite from native fish hosts in the Mediterranean Sea (Table 2).
240 However, parasite richness and infection levels were overall much lower in the invasive
241 compared to the native fish host, suggesting a potential competitive advantage for the Lessepsian
242 migrant.

243 Parasite release

244 In its native range (the Red Sea), the invasive *S. chrysothaenia* harbours at least five parasite
245 species (Table 2). Of these five parasite species, only three species have been recorded in the
246 Mediterranean Sea and only one in Tunisian coastal waters (Table 2). Hence, two parasite
247 species, the digenean *Bucephalus sphyraenae* and the monogenean *Pseudolamellodiscus*
248 *sphyraenae* have been lost in the process of the initial invasion to the Mediterranean Sea. Two
249 other species, the copepod *Nothobomolochus denticulatus* and the isopod *Cymothoa indica*, have
250 been observed elsewhere in the Mediterranean Sea, but not in Tunisian coastal waters (Table 2),
251 suggesting a loss of these parasite species in the course of the spread to the Tunisian coast. This
252 loss of several natural parasite species is consistent with the enemy release hypothesis (Torchin

253 et al., 2003; Blakeslee, Fowler & Keogh, 2013) and has previously been observed in other
254 Lessepsian migrant fish, the rabbitfish *Siganus rivulatus* (see Diamant, 1989) and partially
255 reported from the bluespotted cornet fish *Fistularia commersonii* (see Merella et al., 2016).

256

257 Several processes may be responsible for a loss of parasites in the course of passing the Suez
258 Canal “filter” or “bottleneck” (Por, 1978). First of all, parasites may not be able to cope with the
259 environmental conditions in the canal or in the Mediterranean Sea and do not survive to the
260 migration the new ecosystem. This negative impact of environmental conditions should be
261 particularly relevant for ectoparasites, which are more exposed to the external environment than
262 endoparasites, and may explain the loss of the monogenean *Pseudolamellodiscus sphyraenae*.
263 Second, parasites may survive the passage through the canal, but, in the case of parasites with
264 complex life cycles, they may be unable to find suitable intermediate hosts in the recipient
265 ecosystems. In general, parasite co-introductions seem to be more common in parasites with
266 simple life cycles as the necessity for all hosts being present for parasites with complex life
267 cycles makes invasions less likely (Lymbery et al., 2014; Goedknecht et al., 2016). Such a lack of
268 suitable hosts may explain the loss of the trematode *Bucephalus sphyraenae* as trematodes are
269 generally very host specific in respect to their first intermediate gastropod host (Poulin & Cribb,
270 2002; Galaktionov & Dobrovolskij, 2003). The respective gastropod host species that serves as
271 first intermediate host for *B. sphyraenae* is not known, but a (co-)introduction of snails is
272 unlikely because of their relatively reduced mobility. Finally, even in the case that all potential
273 hosts are present in the new environment, the number of introduced parasite individuals may be
274 too low to maintain a viable population. In general, propagule pressure is known to be a strong
275 determinant of invasion success in biological invasions in general (Wonham et al., 2000; Forsyth

276 & Duncan, 2001; Rouget & Richardson, 2003; Colautti et al., 2004). In the case of parasites,
277 propagule pressure may be low if infection levels are low in the native region, reducing both the
278 chances for a co-introduction and for developing viable populations after introduction to the
279 Mediterranean Sea. This could explain the loss of infections with the monogenean
280 *Pseudolamellodiscus sphyraenae* as this species may show only very low infection levels in its
281 native range. These different mechanisms are not only acting during the passage of Lessepsian
282 migrants through the Suez Canal, but also during the spread in the Mediterranean Sea after the
283 initial introduction. This is illustrated by the copepod *Nothobomolochus denticulatus* and the
284 isopod *Cymothoa indica* which have both been co-introduced into the Mediterranean Sea and
285 have been found on *S. chrysotaenia* in the eastern Mediterranean Sea (Trilles & Bariche, 2006;
286 El-Rashidy & Boxshall, 2012), but not in Tunisian waters (our study).

287

288 Parasite co-introduction

289 The present results and literature review revealed that the Lessepsian migrant *S.*
290 *chrysotaenia* is infected by three parasite species in the Mediterranean Sea that most likely
291 originate from the Red Sea (Table 2). One of these species, the monogenean parasite
292 *Pseudempleurosoma* sp., was recorded in our study in Tunisian waters. There are several reasons
293 why we believe that this parasite species has been co-introduced to the Mediterranean Sea
294 (although this still needs to be confirmed by records from its presumed native range).
295 First of all, the species has not been recorded in any native fish species in the Mediterranean Sea
296 in earlier studies, although fish parasites are relatively well studied in this coastal ecosystem
297 (Oliver, 1987; Neifar & Euzet, 2007; Pérez-del-Olmo, Kostadinova & Gibson, 2016; Chaabane
298 et al. 2016a; Chaabane et al. 2016b). Second, the genus *Pseudempleurosoma*, represented by four

299 species in the literature, seems to have a strict specificity to its host (Santos, Mourão &
300 Cárdenas, 2001), suggesting that it can only be co-introduced with its host. Finally, with their
301 direct life cycles, monogeneans are likely to be introduced and persist in a new environment.
302 Especially in gregarious fish such as the Sphyraenidae, the transmission of parasites with a direct
303 life cycle can easily take place so that the lifecycle can be maintained in the new environment
304 after an initial introduction.

305

306 The two other parasite species, the copepod *Nothobomolochus denticulatus* and the isopod
307 *Cymothoa indica* are less host specific and have also been found on other fish species from the
308 Red Sea (El-Shahawy & Desouky, 2010). These two species have not been recorded in our study
309 in Tunisian waters but have been reported elsewhere in the Mediterranean Sea (Trilles &
310 Bariche, 2006; El-Rashidy & Boxshall, 2012). Both species have not been recorded in any native
311 fish before their invasion but are considered to be co-introduced by the describing authors
312 (Trilles & Bariche, 2006; El-Rashidy & Boxshall, 2012). However, as there are no published
313 records of the two species available from the native range of the host, their invasive status still
314 has to be confirmed. Both species have not (yet) been co-introduced into Tunisian coastal waters
315 in the course of the spread of their hosts after the initial introduction in the Mediterranean Sea,
316 probably due some of the mechanisms discussed above.

317

318 Parasite acquisition

319 Besides being infected with co-introduced parasites, our study also revealed that the
320 Lessepsian migrant *S. chrysotaenia* has acquired six native parasite species in the Mediterranean
321 Sea. Four of those species were found in our survey in Tunisian coastal waters and a fifth species

322 had been noted in *S. chrysotaenia* elsewhere in the Mediterranean Sea (Table 2). We consider
323 these acquired parasite species to be native species from the Mediterranean Sea due to the
324 following reasons. The digenean *Lecithochirium* sp. has not been reported from the invasive *S.*
325 *chrysotaenia*, neither in the Mediterranean Sea nor in the Red Sea (Fischthal, 1982; Nahhas, Sey
326 & Nakahara, 2006). Given the complex life cycle of the Hemiuridae that need at least one
327 intermediate host species, and the fact that this genus now contains at least more than 100
328 species (Surekha & Lakshmi, 2005) which at least 10 are reported from Mediterranean Sea with
329 scarcely life cycles (Table 3) and that the genus *Lecithochirium* is very specific to its first
330 intermediate gastropod host (Gibson & Bray 1994), *Lecithochirium* sp. is most likely of
331 Mediterranean origin and has been acquired after the introduction of *S. chrysotaenia* to the
332 Mediterranean Sea. Specimens of the copepod *Caligus* sp. reported from *S. chrysotaenia* were in
333 poor condition and their identification to the species level was impossible. According to the
334 literature, no caligidids were collected from *S. chrysotaenia* in the Red Sea but these parasitic
335 copepods have been recorded in native Mediterranean fish (Benmansour & Ben Hassine, 1998;
336 Raibaut, Combes & Benoit, 1998). Although many species are highly host specific there are also
337 many *Caligus* species with low host specificity (Yuniar, Palm & Walteret, 2007), making a host
338 switch to the invasive host likely. However, further studies will be needed to ascertain the native
339 status of *Caligus* individuals found on the invasive host. Annelids of the family Piscicolidae are
340 considered to be generalists with a broad host specificity and are regularly reported from many
341 native fish hosts from Tunisian coasts and the Mediterranean Sea in general (Châari & Neifar,
342 2015). According to the literature, no gnathiids were reported previously from *S. chrysoteania* in
343 the Red Sea. In contrast, this isopod genus is very common in the Mediterranean Sea and along
344 the Tunisian coasts, particularly on the skin of Sphyaenidae host species so that it is most likely

345 native to the area. However, the native status of gnathiids found on the invader. The native
346 Cymothoid *Anilocra physodes* has been reported from many native hosts of the Mediterranean
347 Sea (Innal et al., 2007) and was only observed from the invasive fish *S. chrysotaenia* off Turkish
348 (Innal et al., 2007). Finally, the trematode *Bucephalus labracis*, which was not found in the
349 Lessepsian migrant elsewhere in the Mediterranean Sea (Fischhal, 1982), is considered to be
350 native as it uses a native bivalve (*Ruditapes decussatus*) as first intermediate host, a native fish
351 (*Atherina boyeri*) as second intermediate host and a native fish (*Dicentrarchus labrax*) as
352 definitive host (Paggi & Orecchia (1965); Maillard (1976); Gargouri-Ben Abdallah & Maamouri
353 (2005); Dhrif et al., 2015). The acquisition of these native parasites may generally have
354 potentially adverse effects naïve invasive host species, but also on native species, as the invasive
355 additional hosts can potentially elevate infection levels in native species via parasite spill back.
356 However, whether significant parasite spillback occurs in Tunisian waters remains to be studied.

357

358 Cross-species comparison

359 Our comparison of parasite infections in the Lessepsian migrant with the native
360 congeneric *Sphyraena sphyraena* revealed considerable qualitative and quantitative differences
361 between the parasite communities of the two fish species. The native fish was infected with six
362 parasite species in Tunisian coastal waters and three additional species have been described
363 elsewhere in the Mediterranean Sea (Table 2). Of all these parasite species, only one was shared
364 with the invasive fish host, the presumably native isopod *Gnathia* sp.. As only larval stages of
365 gnathiid parasite can infect fish and all larvae are morphologically very similar, identification to
366 species level was not possible. Native *Gnathia* species have been reported from the study area
367 (Châari & Neifar, 2015) and we assume that the species found in our study is native but without

368 further genetic work the native-invasive status in the invader cannot be fully clarified.
369 Interestingly, none of the parasites that were co-introduced with the Lessepsian migrant has been
370 found to infect the native congeneric host species. While the total number of parasite species
371 found in the two fish hosts in the Mediterranean Sea was similar (nine in the invasive and ten in
372 the native fish), the mean number of parasite species found in an individual fish was significantly
373 higher in the native compared to the invasive fish. Although the rarefaction analyses suggested
374 that further sampling would likely reveal more rare parasite species for each fish host, this
375 general pattern of a lower richness of the more common parasite species in the invasive host
376 species would remain at higher sampling efforts. In general, the parasite fauna of the invasive
377 fish was mainly composed of generalist native parasites acquired in the new environment and
378 one co-introduced parasite species, while the parasite community in native fish included more
379 specialist parasites. This is consistent with the general idea that invasive hosts often lose specific
380 parasites (especially with complex life cycles) in the course of the introduction and acquire
381 mainly native generalist parasites in the new range (Blakeslee, Fowler & Keogh, 2013; Lymbery
382 et al., 2014).

383 In addition to parasite species richness, also total parasite prevalence (parasite infection
384 status in the models) and total infection intensity were generally higher in the native than in the
385 invasive fish. Hence, despite the acquisition of native parasites by the invasive host *S.*
386 *chrysaena*, the native *S. sphyraena* still showed higher total infection levels. This suggests that
387 the invasive host is experiencing lower parasite infection levels compared with the native host
388 species. Several factors may explain the lower infection levels of the invasive compared to the
389 native host species. First, the relatively small size of the invasive fish (20-25 cm length)
390 compared to the native fish (30-60 cm) may cause a space constraint and reduce exposure of the

391 invasive fish to native parasites. However, the lack of a significant effect of fish size on infection
392 levels in our analyses suggests that body size may only play a minor role. Second, differences in
393 the feeding behaviour of the two fish hosts might explain why their parasite infection levels are
394 different. While the invasive *S. chrysotaenia* narrows its food spectrum to pelagic fish species,
395 the native *S. sphyraena* extended their feeding to supra-benthic species (Kalogirou et al., 2012).
396 The broader food spectrum of the native fish may result in a relative higher exposure to parasites.
397 Third, host suitability of the two fish species may differ and in particular invasive hosts may be
398 less suitable for native parasites due to compatibility issues. Finally, phylogenetic niche
399 conservatism (Wiens & Graham, 2005; Mouillot et al., 2006) and a variety ecological factors
400 such as microhabitat use and life history strategies (Poulin, 2010) may play a role.

401 The presumably native isopod *Gnathia* sp. was the only parasite genus shared by the two
402 fish hosts in Tunisian coastal waters, with a higher prevalence and intensity in the native *S.*
403 *sphyraena* than in the invasive *S. chrysotaenia*. However, for both fish species there was only a
404 single record (at location 1 in the invasive host and at location 7 in the native host),
405 compromising a formal statistical comparison, rendering a solid discussion on the subsequent
406 host and parasite populations.

407

408

409 **Conclusion**

410 Our study found evidence for the loss of parasite species of the Lessepsian migrant in the course
411 of the introduction as well as for co-introduction of parasites and the acquisition of native
412 parasites. These results suggest that the Lessepsian migrant has the potential to affect native fish

413 hosts by altering the population dynamics of native parasite species via parasite release, parasite
414 co-introduction and acquisition of native parasites, resulting in increased infection levels in
415 native hosts. They further suggest that the lower infection levels in the invasive host may give
416 them a potential competitive advantage over native hosts. Further studies will be needed to
417 investigate the resulting effects on native parasite dynamics and well as on native fish stocks.
418 This study demonstrated that community studies or cross-species comparisons such as the one
419 presented here, are valuable tools to identify the role of metazoan parasite in Lessepsian
420 migration.

421

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Table 1 (on next page)

Information on the sampling design of fish hosts collected for this study in Tunisian coastal waters.

Given are the location numbers used in Figure 1, location name, geographic coordinates, sampling dates and sample sizes (per sex) for the two fish host species (*Sphyraena sphyraena* and *Sphyraena chrysotaenia*).

1

2

| Location number | Location name | Geographic coordinates | Sampling dates | <i>Sphyraena sphyraena</i> (native) | | <i>Sphyraena chrysotaenia</i> (invasive) | |
|-----------------|---------------|--------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|-------|--|-------|
| | | | | Females | Males | Females | Males |
| 1 | Sfax | 34° 44' 26" N 10° 45' 37" E | 22/10/2012 08/03/2013 | 3 | 3 | 9 | 9 |
| 2 | Kerkennah | 34° 39' 29" N 11° 04' 07" E | 10/02/2013 10/03/2013 10/09/2013 | 20 | 11 | 18 | 15 |
| 3 | Skhira | 34° 17' 57" N 10° 04' 11" E | 06/11/2014 04/07/2015 | 10 | 8 | 7 | 10 |
| 4 | Chebba | 35° 14' 14" N 11° 6' 54" E | 05/11/2012 | 8 | 1 | 5 | 14 |
| 5 | Zarat | 33° 39' 59" N 10° 20' 59" E | 07/02/2014 | 6 | 1 | 15 | 6 |
| 6 | Zarzis | 33° 30' 14" N 11° 06' 43" E | 11/05/2015 19/06/2015 | 11 | 6 | 9 | 7 |
| 7 | Sayada | 35° 40' 7" N 10° 53' 32" E | 07/02/2014 03/06/2014 | 15 | 4 | 7 | 17 |
| Total | | | | 73 | 34 | 70 | 78 |

Table 2 (on next page)

Parasite species of *Sphyraena sphyraena* and *Sphyraena chrysoteania* found in this study and recorded in the literature.

Information on the life cycle and the invasive/native status in the Mediterranean Sea and occurrence in the two host species and regions (Mediterranean Sea and Red Sea). If quantitative data were available, mean prevalence and intensity (\pm SE) in a host species and region are given. + denotes published records of specific parasite species in a host species in a region; (+) denotes an assumed occurrence in a host species and region without published records.

| Parasite taxa | Parasite species | Life cycle | Host specificity | Status Med Sea | <i>Sphyraena sphyraena</i> (native range - Med Sea) | <i>Sphyraena chrysotaenia</i> (invasive range - Med Sea) | <i>Sphyraena chrysotaenia</i> (native range - Red Sea) | Reference |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|------------|------------------------|----------------|---|--|--|-------------------------------------|
| Annelida | <i>Piscicolid</i> sp. | complex | generalist | native | | 0.7% (1 ± 0) | | This study |
| Cestoda | Tetraphyllidea | complex | generalist | native | 3.7% (16 ± 0.4) | | | This study |
| Copepoda | <i>Caligus</i> sp. | direct | Specialist/generalist? | native | | 3.8% (1 ± 0) | | This study |
| | <i>Bomolochus unicirrus</i> | direct | specialist | native | 29% (2 ± 0.1) | | | This study |
| | <i>Nothobomolochus denticulatus</i> | direct | specialist | invasive | | + | (+) | El-Rashidy and Boxshall, 2012 |
| | <i>Pennella filosa</i> | complex | generalist | native | + | | | Ramdane et al. 2009 |
| Digenea | <i>Lecithochirium</i> sp. | complex | generalist | native | | 12.2% (1.4 ± 0) | | This study |
| | <i>Didymozoon sphyraenae</i> | complex | specialist | native | 85% (5.5 ± 0.4) | | | This study |
| | <i>Bucephalus sphyraenae</i> | complex | specialist | not present | | | + | Nahhas et al. 2006 |
| | <i>Bucephalus labracis</i> | complex | specialist | native | | + | | Fischthal, 1982 |
| | <i>Plerurus digitatus</i> | complex | generalist | native | + | | | Looss, 1899 |
| Isopoda | <i>Gnathia</i> sp. | complex | generalist | native | 0.9% (13 ± 0.1) | 0.7% (2 ± 0) | | This study |
| | <i>Cymothoa indica</i> | complex | generalist | invasive | | + | (+) | Trilles and Bariche, 2006 |
| | <i>Anilocra physodes</i> | complex | generalist | native | | + | | İnnal et al. 2007 |
| | <i>Pseudempleurosoma</i> sp. | direct | specialist | invasive | | 4 % (1 ± 0) | (+) | This study |
| Monogenea | <i>Chauhanea mediterranea</i> | direct | specialist | native | 5.6% (1.4 ± 0.1) | | | This study |
| | <i>Pseudolamellodiscus sphyraenae</i> | direct | specialist | not present | | | + | Yamaguti, 1953; Kritsky et al. 2000 |
| | <i>Cotyloatlantica mediterranea</i> | direct | specialist | native | + | | | Euzet and Trilles, 1960 |
| | <i>Rhinecotyle crepitacula</i> | direct | specialist | native | + | | | Euzet and Trilles, 1960 |
| Nematoda | <i>Anisakis</i> sp. | complex | generalist | native | 1.9% (3 ± 0) | | | This study |
| Total species richness | | | | | 10 | 9 | 5 | |
| 1 | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | | | | | | | | |
| 4 | | | | | | | | |

Table 3 (on next page)

Parasite species of the genus *Lecithochirium* recorded in the literature, with information on the life cycle (Intermediate host and Definitive host) in the Mediterranean Sea.

1

| Parasites | Intermediate host | Definitive host |
|--|--|--|
| <i>Lecithochirium fusiforme</i> Luhe, 1901 | <i>Gibbula cineraria</i> | <i>Conger conger</i> <i>Lophius piscatorius</i> <i>Anguilla anguilla</i> <i>Trachurus trachurus</i> |
| <i>Lecithochirium musculus</i> (Looss, 1907) | <i>Conger myriaster</i> <i>Conger japonicus</i> | <i>Serranus hepatus</i> <i>Crenilabrus cinereus</i> <i>Conger conger</i> <i>Atherina Hepsetus</i> <i>Serranus scriba</i> |
| <i>Lecithochirium physcon</i> Luhe, 1901 | - | <i>Lophius piscatorius</i> |
| <i>Lecithochirium rufoviride</i> (Rudolphi, 1819) | <i>Gibbula cineraria</i> <i>Blennius pholis</i> | <i>Anguilla anguilla</i> |
| <i>Lecithochirium texanum</i> (Chandler, 1941) | - | <i>Euthynnus alleteratus</i> <i>Trachinotus ovatus</i> <i>Epinephelus</i> sp. <i>Echeneis naucrates</i> <i>Pomatomus saltatrix</i> <i>Gobius cobitus</i> <i>Etrumeus golanii</i> |
| <i>Lecithochirium jaffense</i> Fischthal, 1982 | <i>Seriola dumerili</i> | |
| <i>Lecithochirium haifense</i> Fischthal, 1980 | - | <i>Atule djeddaba</i> |
| <i>Lecithochirium magnicaudatus</i> (Fischthal & Kuntz, 1963) | - | <i>Saurida undosquamis</i> <i>Labeo forskalii</i> |
| <i>Lecithochirium microstomum</i> Chandler, 1935 | - | <i>Trichiurus lepturus</i> |
| <i>Lecithochirium grandiporum</i> (Rudolphi, 1819) | - | <i>Muraena helena</i> <i>Lophius piscatorius</i> <i>Conger conger</i> <i>Saurida tumbil</i> |

Figure 1

Sampling locations (1-7) of the native *Sphyraena sphyraena* and the invasive Lessepsian migrant *Sphyraena chrysotaenia* in the central Mediterranean Sea (a) along the Tunisian coast (b) .

For location names, coordinates, sampling dates and sampling effort per species see Table 1.

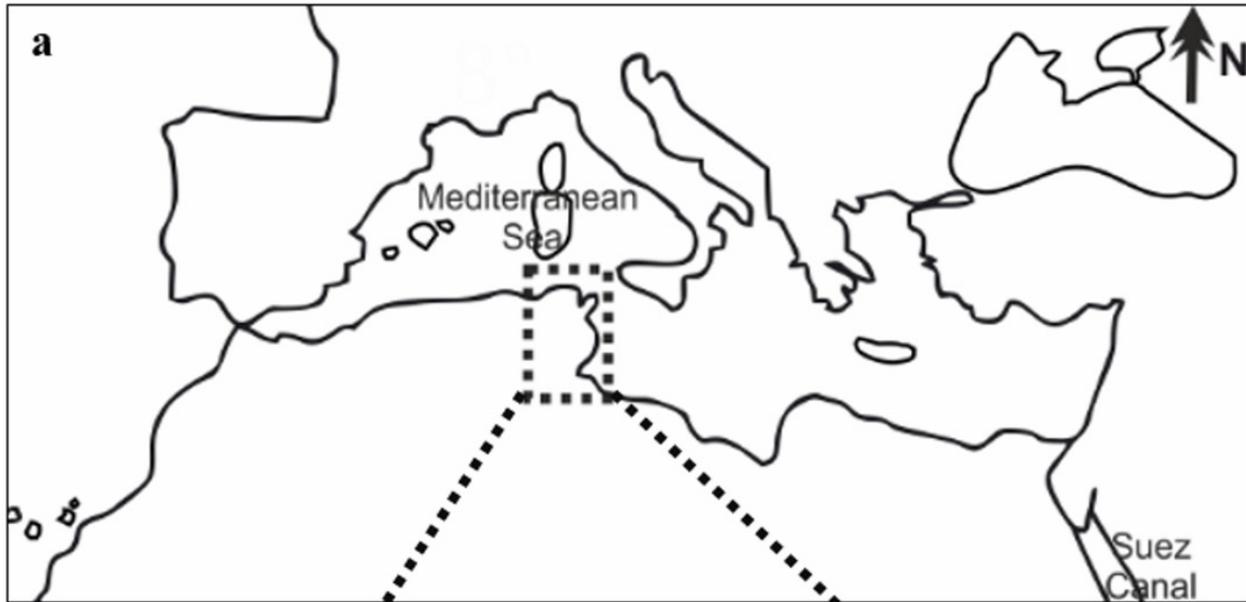


Figure 2

Rarefaction curves for parasite richness for a) the native fish *Sphyraena sphyraena* and b) the invasive Lessepsian migrant *Sphyraena chrysotaenia*.

Shown are the observed species richness accumulation curves (S_{obs}) which is the mean number of species among runs and the predicted number of species (\pm SE) based on the Chao2 estimator algorithm.

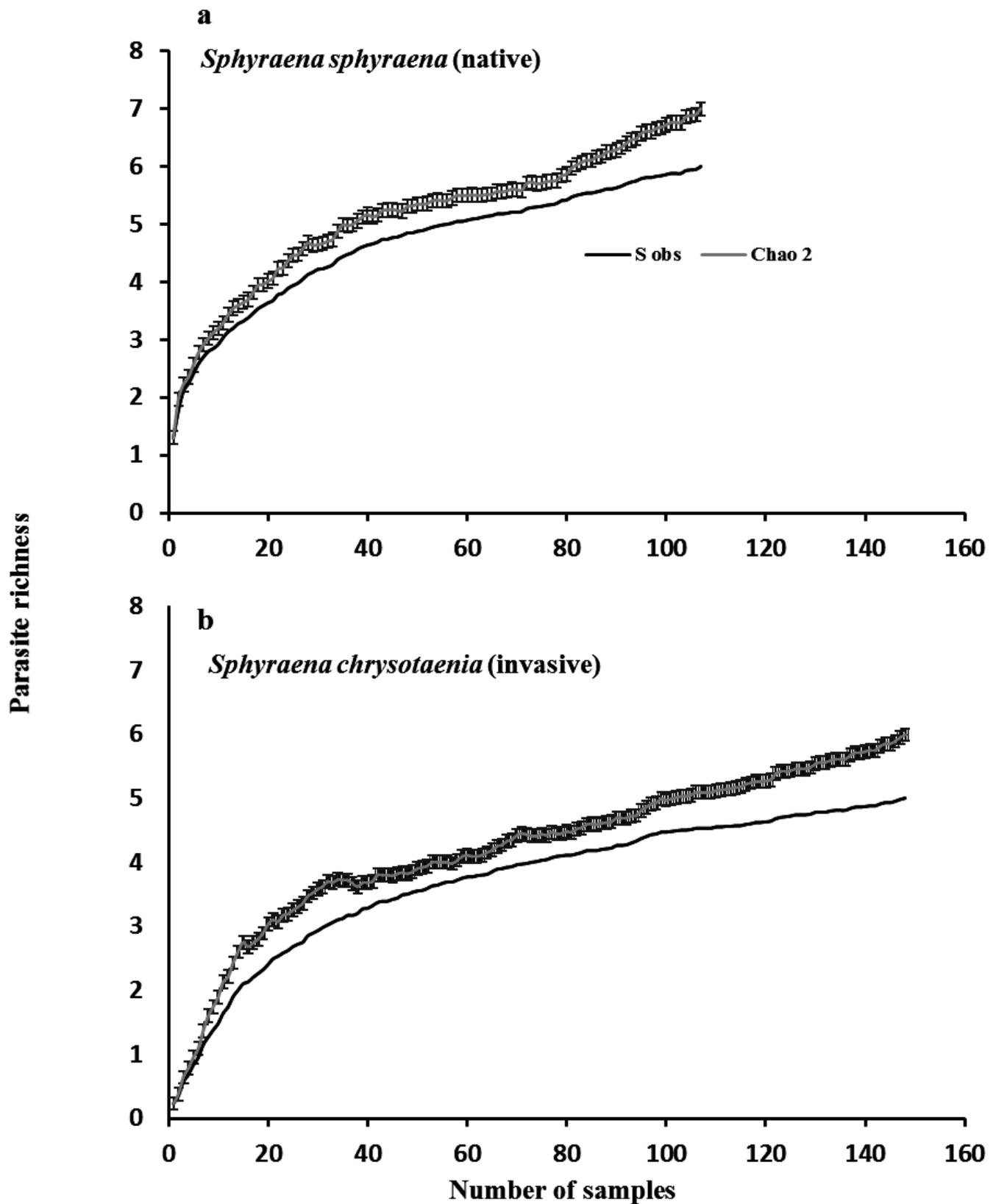


Figure 3

Mean parasite species richness per individual fish.

(including non-infected hosts; \pm SE) at the seven locations in the native fish *Sphyraena sphyraena* (n = 107) and the invasive congeneric *Sphyraena chrysotaenia* (n = 148).

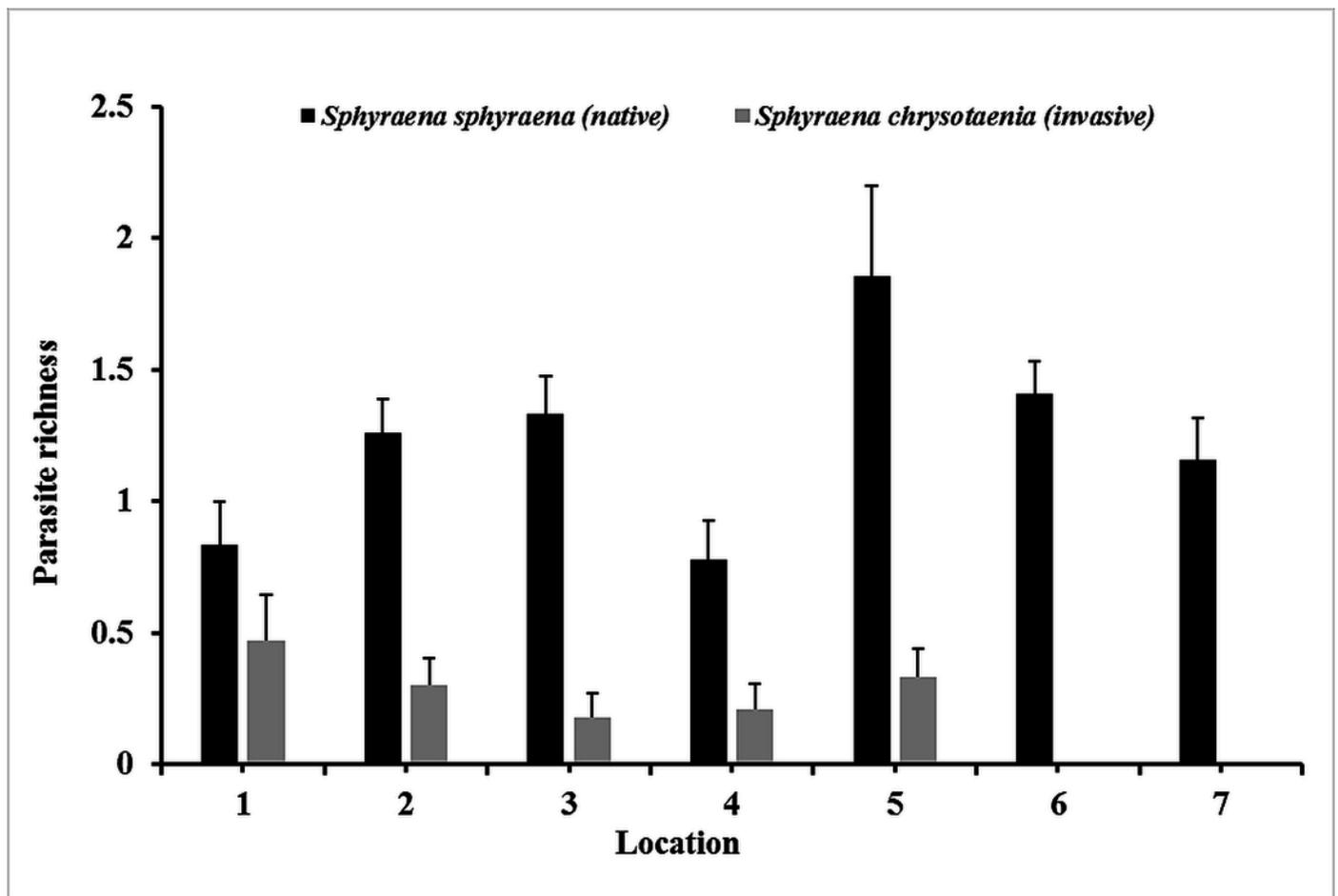


Figure 4

a) Mean total prevalence of all parasites in hosts and b) mean intensity of total parasite loads in native *Sphyraena sphyraena* and invasive *Sphyraena chrysotaenia* at the seven sampling locations.

Mean total prevalence (i.e. hosts infected by 1 or more parasite species); and mean intensity loads (i.e. sum of all parasite individuals found in a host) For sample size (n) per host species and location, see Table 1.

