Tomorrow Never Dies: biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants

Crane, K., Cuthbert, R., Cunningham, E., Bradbeer, S. J., Eagling, L., Kregting, L., Dick, J. T. A., Dunning, A. M., Smith, E. R. C., Shannon, C., Caffrey, J., Lucy, F. E., Davis, E., & Coughlan, N. (2020). Tomorrow Never Dies: biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants. Management of Biological Invasions. https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2020.11.1.03

Published in:
Management of Biological Invasions

Document Version:
Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Queen's University Belfast - Research Portal:
Link to publication record in Queen's University Belfast Research Portal

Publisher rights
Copyright 2020 the authors. This is an open access article published under a Creative Commons Attribution License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the author and source are cited.

General rights
Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Queen's University Belfast Research Portal is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy
The Research Portal is Queen's institutional repository that provides access to Queen's research output. Every effort has been made to ensure that content in the Research Portal does not infringe any person's rights, or applicable UK laws. If you discover content in the Research Portal that you believe breaches copyright or violates any law, please contact openaccess@qub.ac.uk.
**Abstract**

Aquatic invasive alien species (IAS) negatively impact freshwater ecosystems worldwide. As suppression and eradication of established invader populations are often complex, costly and resource-intensive, the prevention of further invader spread is considered a key aspect of proactive management measures. Although broad-spectrum aquatic disinfectants have been suggested as a suitable decontamination mechanism to enhance invader spread-prevention strategies, inconsistencies concerning their effectiveness are reported within the literature. Here, we examine the use of two aquatic disinfectants, which were developed to kill damaging microbes, to induce substantial degradation of the apical fragmentary propagules of five invasive macrophytes: *Crassula helmsii* (Kirk) Cockayne; *Egeria densa* Planchon; *Elodea canadensis* Michx; *Hydrocotyle ranunculoides* Linnaeus; *Lagarosiphon major* (Ridley) Moss. Apical fragments were exposed to 0% (0 g L\(^{-1}\)), 2% (20 g L\(^{-1}\)) or 4% (40 g L\(^{-1}\)) solutions of Virkon® Aquatic and Virasure® Aquatic, for submergence treatments of five, fifteen, thirty or sixty minutes. After 28 days, degradation of treated fragments was significantly greater than that of control groups, particularly for 4% solutions and longer exposure times. Despite this, sustained viability in relation to shoot and/or root regrowth was exhibited by almost all plant species. However, new shoot growth rates were significantly reduced following exposure to all treatments. At matched concentrations, there was no significant difference between the two disinfectants. Overall, it appears that the examined aquatic disinfectants will not curtail the spread of these invasive macrophytes. Yet, longer submergence times, multiple applications and synergistic effects of different biosecurity treatments may enhance preventative measures against further spread and this requires investigation.

**Key words:** fragment degradation, invasive alien species, secondary dispersal, spread-prevention, Virasure® Aquatic; Virkon® Aquatic
Introduction

Globally, aquatic invasive alien species (IAS) have adversely altered the biodiversity, ecological functioning, and economic and social value of freshwater ecosystems (Ricciardi and MacIsaac 2010; Piria et al. 2017). Notably, invasive macrophytes can negatively impact the biotic and abiotic processes of freshwater systems, which frequently results in the detrimental modification of habitats, community dynamics and species assemblages (Schultz and Dibble 2012; Kuehne et al. 2016; Lu et al. 2018). Moreover, invasive macrophytes often represent a considerable management burden, as large stands can escalate flood frequencies, devalue adjacent properties, and inhibit recreational and commercial activities (Hussner et al. 2017). Although management options for effective suppression and eradication of established IAS populations are available, these are often complex, expensive and resource-intensive endeavours, which can be damaging to non-target species (Caffrey et al. 2010; Hussner et al. 2017; Coughlan et al. 2018b, 2019b).

Freshwater ecosystems are especially susceptible to the influx of damaging IAS due to the presence of numerous transport pathways and a plethora of associated vectors (Dudgeon et al. 2006; Ricciardi and MacIsaac 2010; Coughlan et al. 2017a). For example, anthropogenic activities such as angling and boating, and the ornamental plant and aquatic pet trades, have facilitated a substantial number of IAS introductions (Rothlisberger et al. 2010; Gallardo and Aldridge 2013; Anderson et al. 2014). Accordingly, as established invaders are notoriously difficult to control, the prevention of further IAS spread is now widely recognised as a vital means of reducing invader impacts (Coughlan et al. 2018a, 2019a; Crane et al. 2019; Cuthbert et al. 2018, 2019a; Shannon et al. 2018). Indeed, the concept of spread-prevention is integral to the Convention on Biological Diversity, and is now strongly emphasised in national, e.g. EC (Birds and Natural Habitats) Regulations SI 477/2011, and international policy and legislation, such as EU Regulation 1143/2014, New Zealand Biosecurity Strategy, Great Britain Non-Native Species Strategy (EC 2011; EU 2014; GBNNSS 2015; PGNZ 2016).

Biosecurity campaigns such as Check, Clean, Dry in New Zealand and Great Britain have attempted to prevent invader spread through increased public awareness and the provision of practical decontamination guidance (Anderson et al. 2015; Piria et al. 2017; Coughlan et al. 2018a, 2019a). In essence, the campaign promotes the use of systematic checks of potential vectors such as footwear, clothing, nets, watercraft, trailers and vehicles, which is then followed by the physical removal of adhering organisms through cleaning procedures. However, despite highlighting the need to thoroughly clean equipment, recommendations concerning appropriate methods of disinfection are deficient. Finally, following systematic decontamination, extended drying times are recommended as a best
practice protocol. Although simple and effective, extended drying times can be difficult to incorporate into daily working practices (Anderson et al. 2015; Sutcliffe et al. 2018). Additionally, the application of many proposed spread-prevention techniques are limited due to poor practicality, time restraints, lack of known efficacy, expense, and undesirable non-target effects (Barbour et al. 2013; Piria et al. 2017; Coughlan et al. 2018a, 2019a; Crane et al. 2019). Therefore, the further development of simple but expeditious spread-prevention protocols remain a management priority.

Although broad-spectrum aquatic disinfectants have been confirmed to kill damaging pathogenic microbes within laboratory tests and under various field conditions, variability of in-field conditions can substantially reduce the known efficacy of recommended treatments (Tidbury et al. 2018). Despite such concerns, aquatic disinfectants have been suggested as a suitable method for preventing the spread of IAS, as disinfection through submergence in known chemical solutions can induce substantial invader mortality (Barbour et al. 2013; Cuthbert et al. 2018, 2019b). In particular, the provision of in-field biosecurity stations may provide effective decontamination of water users’ equipment (Coughlan et al. 2019a; Crane et al. 2019; Cuthbert et al. 2019a). For example, as a biosecurity procedure, small items of equipment such as nets, waders and paddles could be completely submerged in disinfection baths, while spray applications may be more suitable for larger items, e.g. boats and trailers. However, further experimentation is required to assess the efficacy of such an approach.

Broad-spectrum aquatic disinfectants, such as Virkon® Aquatic and Virasure® Aquatic, are generally used in aquaculture for the control of a wide range of bacteria, viruses and fungi (Stockton-Fiti and Moffitt 2017). Currently, however, these disinfectants are being increasingly used for decontamination of equipment by recreational water users and responsible authorities, such as government agencies. Accordingly, the legal issues concerning the use of broad-spectrum aquatic disinfectants as in situ biosecurity agents for non-microscopic and invasive organisms (e.g. herbicide or insecticide) will need to be addressed (Cuthbert et al. 2018, 2019a; Sebire et al. 2018). Yet the risk of toxicity to non-target aquatic organisms via residues and spills is considered to be low, with adherence to best-practice protocols (see Stockton-Fiti and Moffitt 2017). However, somewhat conflicting evidence is presented in the literature concerning the success of these oxidising agent-based disinfectants to inhibit the spread of invasive macrophytes at solution concentrations of 1% (10 g L\(^{-1}\)), 2% (20 g L\(^{-1}\)) or 4% (40 g L\(^{-1}\)) for exposure times of up to five minutes (see Cuthbert et al. 2018, 2019a). Accordingly, assessment of longer exposure times is required.

Numerous invasive aquatic macrophytes predominantly reproduce and spread through vegetative propagation, particularly via apical fragmentary propagules (Umetsu et al. 2012; Li et al. 2015; Redekop et al. 2016). Within aquatic environments, plant fragmentation frequently occurs through either
Table 1. Study species, source site locations and invaded range. See www.cabi.org/isc/ for further species specific information.

| Species                     | Common name                              | Source site                           | Invasion Range                                      |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| *Crassula helmsii* (Kirk) Cockayne | Australian swamp stonecrop/ New Zealand Pigmyweed | Lough Beg 54°47'28.6″N; 6° 28'27.1″W | Europe, North America, invasive in native range |
| *Egeria densa* (Planch.) Casp.      | Leafy elodea                              | Dominican College, Portstewart 55°10'54.1″N; 6°43'18.3″W | Central America, Caribbean, Oceania                |
| *Elodea canadensis* Michx.         | Canadian waterweed                        | Mill Pond, Tully Mill 54°15'32.34″N; 7°42'50.88″W | South America, Europe, Africa, Asia, Oceania, invasive in native range |
| *Hydrocotyle ranunculoides* L.f. | Floating pennywort                         | Aire and Calder Navigation 53°45'12.6″N; 1°25'57.9″W | Europe; Australia, invasive in native range       |
| *Lagarosiphon major* (Ridl.) Moss  | African elodea/ African curly waterweed   | Portadown Golf Club 54°24'14.6″N; 6°24'51.3″W | Europe, Australia, New Zealand, potentially invasive in native range |

self-induced self-induced autoautofragmentation or allofragmentation, whereby fragmentation is a result of disturbance, such as changes in water velocity, sediment mobility, animal or anthropogenic activity (Bakker et al. 2016). Although most fragments will likely be dispersed within hydrologically connected systems, overland dispersal is a frequent occurrence (Johnson et al. 2001; Rothlisberger et al. 2010; Coughlan et al. 2017b). In most cases, overland transport is facilitated through the adherence of fragmentary propagules to recreational equipment, boats, vehicles and trailers (Johnson et al. 2001; Rothlisberger et al. 2010). Currently, however, there is a lack of information concerning the efficacy of various biosecurity procedures that are thought to inhibit the spread of fragmentary propagules for a variety invasive aquatic macrophytes (Coughlan et al. 2018a; Cuthbert et al. 2018, 2019a). Therefore, to better inform spread-prevention practices, it is necessary to quantify the subsequent viability (i.e regeneration by production of new shoot or root growth) of invasive macrophyte fragmentary propagules following exposure to biosecurity treatments, including disinfection.

Here, we examine the efficacy of two aquatic disinfectants, Virkon® Aquatic and Virasure® Aquatic, to induce plant tissue biodegradation, reduce the number of new roots and shoots produced, and decrease new shoot growth rates of fragmentary propagules for five invasive macrophytes: *Crassula helmsii* (Kirk) Cockayne; *Egeria densa* Planchon; *Elodea canadensis* Michx; *Hydrocotyle ranunculoides* Linnaeus; and *Lagarosiphon major* (Ridley) Moss. Effects on apical fragmentary propagules of each species were examined with respect to disinfectant concentration and exposure time.

Materials and methods

Sample collection and cultivation.

All species were collected throughout Northern Ireland (NI) from a variety of sites, other than *H. ranunculoides* which was collected in Great Britain (Table 1). All species obtained in NI were collected as whole plants, excluding the buried roots and rhizomes, and transported in source water to Queen’s
Biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants

Crane et al. (2020), Management of Biological Invasions 11(1): 26–43, https://doi.org/10.3391/MBI.2020.11.1.03

Table 2. Summation of species mean fragmentary propagule lengths and weights, and exposure times (minutes) to aquatic disinfectants, for 0% (0 g L⁻¹), 2% (20 g L⁻¹) and 4% (40 g L⁻¹) solutions of Virkon® Aquatic and Virasure® Aquatic. Degradation assessment points (i.e. recovery days post exposure) for each focal species are given. Control samples were not exposed to aquatic disinfectants.

| Species                  | Mean (± SE) length mm | Mean (± SE) weight g | Exposure times | Assessment point |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|----------------|------------------|
| Crassula helmsii         | 100 ± 0               | 0.15 ± 0.01          | 5 m, 15 m, 30 m | 7 d, 14 d, 21 d, 28 d |
| Egeria densa             | 100 ± 0               | 0.92 ± 0.04          | 5 m, 15 m, 30 m | 7 d, 14 d, 21 d, 28 d |
| Elodea canadensis        | 100 ± 0               | 0.39 ± 0.01          | 5 m, 15 m, 30 m | 7 d, 14 d, 21 d, 28 d |
| Hydrocotyle ranunculoides| 160 ± 0               | 0.49 ± 0.01          | 5 m, 15 m, 30 m, 60 m | 2 d, 7 d, 21 d |
| Lagarosiphon major       | 100 ± 0               | 1.62 ± 0.05          | 5 m, 15 m, 30 m | 7 d, 14 d, 21 d, 28 d |

Efficacy of Virkon® Aquatic and Virasure® Aquatic solutions

The efficacy of Virkon® Aquatic (Antec Int. DuPont) and Virasure® Aquatic (Fish Vet Group) was examined using 2% (20 g L⁻¹), 4% (40 g L⁻¹) disinfectant solutions, and a 0% (0 g L⁻¹) control. In all cases, submergent apical fragments were harvested from mature plants, and cut from unbranched sections of stem. Based on available plant material, an arbitrary fragment length of 100 mm was chosen. However, in the case of Hydrocotyle ranunculoides emergent apical fragments, of length 160 mm, were used. All fragments were harvested as required and briefly maintained (< thirty minutes) in de-chlorinated tap-water (circa 6–8 °C) prior to experimental use. Plant fragments were randomly selected from these holding aquaria and excess liquid was gently removed by manually spinning individual fragments, ten times in both directions, using a handheld centrifugal spinner. Fragment weight was recorded (Table 2).

Fragmentary propagules of each species were then independently submerged in 2% and 4% solutions of Virkon® Aquatic or Virasure® Aquatic for a period of five, fifteen or thirty minutes, and in the case of Hydrocotyle ranunculoides, due to the use of potentially more robust emergent apical fragments, sixty minutes. All treatment combinations were replicated in triplicate, i.e. \( n = 3 \). All solutions were made using dechlorinated tap-water. Control groups were likewise submerged in dechlorinated tap water (i.e. a 0% solution) for the same exposure times. Post-exposure, all samples were
Biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants

Crane et al. (2020), Management of Biological Invasions 11(1): 26–43, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2020.11.1.03

Table 3. Degradation scale describing visual tissue biodegradation stages and/or resumption of growth for aquatic macrophyte fragmentary propagules (see Crane et al. 2019). Colour codes relate to the graphical representation of results in Figures 1 and 2.

| Score | Description                                                                 | Colour code |
|-------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| 10    | Complete degradation.                                                       |             |
| 9     | No new shoot and/or root growth present with more than or equal to 90% stem degradation. |             |
| 8     | No new shoot and/or root growth present with more than or equal to 50% stem degradation. |             |
| 7     | No new shoot and/or root growth present with all leaves exhibiting paling or browning. |             |
| 6     | No new shoot and/or root growth present with paling or browning affecting any leaves. |             |
| 5     | No new shoot and/or root growth present with degradation at fragmentation site. |             |
| 4     | New shoot and/or root growth present with more than or equal to 90% stem degradation. |             |
| 3     | New shoot and/or root growth present with more than or equal to 50% stem degradation. |             |
| 2     | New shoot and/or root growth present with all leaves exhibiting paling or browning. |             |
| 1     | New shoot and/or root growth present with paling or browning affecting any leaves. |             |
| 0     | New shoot and/or root growth present with degradation at fragmentation site. |             |

Fragmentary tissue degradation and retention of viability, as evidenced by the presence of new shoot or root growth, was assessed at 7, 14, 21 and 28 days following exposure to disinfectants, excepting *H. ranunculoides*, which was examined at 2, 7 and 21 days. To accomplish this, the novel degradation scale described by Crane et al. (2019; see Table 3) was used. The scale is comprised of eleven distinct categories (0–10, inclusive). The categories are designed to allow simple visual assessment of fragment viability and degradation (score 0–4), fragment survival, whereby no meaningful degradation or indication of viability has occurred (score 5), and various levels of degradation without evidence of viability shown (score 6–10). In addition, to assess comparable differences in fragment viability, a count of new shoots and roots, and a measurement of new shoot lengths were recorded for *C. helmsii*, *E. densa*, *E. canadensis* and *L. major* upon completion of the experiment.

Statistical methods

All statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.4.4 (R Core Team 2018). Using the degradation scale (Table 3), we examined the visually-scored survivability and viability of plants using a mixed ordinal regression model facilitated through the *ordinal* package in R (Christensen 2018). The proportional odds assumption was satisfied. Plant tissue degradation scores were modelled with respect to treatment (5 levels: control, two

submerged in dechlorinated water and gently washed clean for a two minute period; this was repeated twice (see Cuthbert et al. 2019a). All fragments were then immediately placed within individual plastic magenta vessels containing circa 300 ml of locally sourced pond water or dechlorinated water in the case of *H. ranunculoides*. Excepting *H. ranunculoides*, the fragmentary propagules were then housed under standard growth conditions of 18 °C, with 16:8 hr light-dark regime. *H. ranunculoides* was kept at 14 °C under a 12:12 hr light-dark regime. In all cases, water loss due to evaporation was replenished as required.
aquatic disinfectants and two concentrations), exposure time (3 levels), plant species (4 levels) and observation period (4 levels). We integrated a random effects structure to account for repeated measures over the observation period (n = 4). Hydrocotyle ranunculoides degradation was analysed individually owing to its separate assessment and difference in predictor variable levelling, with respect to treatment (5 levels), exposure time (4 levels) and observation period (3 levels).

Counts of root and shoot growth were analysed separately using generalised linear models (GLMs) assuming a Poisson error distribution for all plants, excepting H. ranunculoides. Where residuals were found to be overdispersed relative to degrees of freedom, a quasi-Poisson family was employed. Root and shoot growth were modelled with respect to treatment (5 levels), exposure time (3 levels) and plant species (4 levels).

Viability of plants in relation to the length of new shoot growth, except H. ranunculoides, was analysed using beta regression with the betareg package in R (Cribari-Neto and Zeileis 2010), whereby relative growth rate (RGR; following Van Echelpoel 2016) was modelled with respect to treatment (5 levels), exposure time (3 levels), and plant species (4 levels). Data were transformed to adjust zero values in the dataset, where no resumption of growth occurred, in order to meet model assumptions:

\[ y_t = (y(n - 1) + 0.5)/n \]  

where \( y_t \) is the transformed output and \( n \) is the sample size. In all models, backward stepwise deletion was performed in order to satisfy the minimum adequate model, where non-significant terms and interactions were excluded via analysis of deviance ( Crawley 2013). Tukey’s comparisons were used for post hoc analyses using lsmeans (Lenth 2016).

**Results**

For C. helmsii, E. densa, E. canadensis and L. major, fragmentary propagules displayed viability post-treatment with both Virkon® Aquatic and Virasure® Aquatic (Figure 1). Complete degradation was only exhibited by E. densa fragmentary propagules, particularly where exposed to the highest concentration solutions for the maximum exposure duration (4% solutions for fifteen or thirty minutes). However, although sustained viability, as evidenced by shoot or root regrowth, was demonstrated by C. helmsii, E. canadensis and L. major, scaled degradation significantly increased with treatment (\( \chi^2 = 163.53, df = 4, P < 0.001 \)). Moreover, treated plants exhibited significantly greater degradation than control groups (0% solutions), irrespective of disinfectant concentration (all \( P < 0.001 \)). Overall, treatment at 4% concentrations of Virkon® Aquatic or Virasure® Aquatic induced significantly greater degradation than 2% concentrations (all \( P < 0.01 \)), and there was no difference between the two products at matched
Biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants

Crane et al. (2020), Management of Biological Invasions 11(1): 26–43, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2020.11.1.03

Figure 1. Median degradation score depicting visual biodegradation stages and/or resumption of growth for four different species of macrophyte fragmentary propagules at 28 days post exposure to aquatic disinfectants, for 0% (0 g L⁻¹), 2% (20 g L⁻¹) and 4% (40 g L⁻¹) solutions of selected aquatic disinfectants. Fragments were submerged for five, fifteen or thirty minutes (n = 3 per treatment). Bars signify minimum and maximum scores attained. The dashed line highlights a score of 5, which indicates no meaningful deterioration of the plant tissues or resumption of growth has occurred. Scores of 0–4 portray incremental levels of degradation, while noting the presence of sustained viability. Scores of 6–10 denote plant tissue degradation stages that lack viability in relation to the resumption of new growth. See Table 3 for description of the score categories. Cont. = Control; Virk = Virkon® Aquatic; Vira = Virasure® Aquatic.

Scaled degradation following treatment was significantly different among C. helmsii, E. densa, E. canadensis and L. major (χ² = 188.99, df = 4, P < 0.001). In particular, E. densa exhibited significantly greater degradation than any other plant species (all P < 0.001). In turn, E. canadensis was significantly more degraded than L. major (P < 0.001), whilst C. helmsii was significantly less degraded than either E. canadensis or L. major (both P < 0.001). Overall, greater exposure times increased degradation (χ² = 36.51, df = 2, P < 0.001), with degradation between each examined incremental exposure time increasing significantly (all P < 0.01). Degradation also significantly increased over the duration of the monitoring period (χ² = 56.30, df = 3, P < 0.001). Furthermore, a significant “treatment × species × time” interaction effect (χ² = 82.54, df = 24, P < 0.001) was recorded. This reflected various interactive complexities, such as high occurrence of total fragmentary propagule degradation (score of 10) exhibited by E. densa at 4% disinfectant treatments with an exposure of fifteen minutes or longer. All other plant fragmentary propagules demonstrated consistent survival and viability through resumption of growth over the observation period.

For H. ranunculoides, although complete degradation was not achieved following any treatment, the use of aquatic disinfectant significantly increased plant degradation overall (χ² = 91.04, df = 4, P < 0.001; Figure 2).
Biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants

Crane et al. (2020), Management of Biological Invasions 11(1): 26–43, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2020.11.1.03

Figure 2. Median degradation score depicting visual biodegradation stages and/or resumption of growth for fragmentary propagules of Hydrocotyle ranunculoides at 21 days post exposure to aquatic disinfectants, for 0% (0 g L⁻¹), 2% (20 g L⁻¹) and 4% (40 g L⁻¹) solutions of selected aquatic disinfectants. Fragments were submerged for five, fifteen, thirty or sixty minutes (n = 3 per treatment). Bars signify minimum and maximum scores attained. The dashed line highlights a score of 5, whereby no meaningful deterioration of the plant tissues or resumption of growth has occurred. Scores of 0–4 portray incremental levels of degradation, while noting the presence of sustained viability. Scores of 6–10 denote plant tissue degradation stages which lack of viability in relation to the resumption of new growth. See Table 3 for description of the score categories. Cont. = Control; Virk = Virkon® Aquatic; Vira = Virasure® Aquatic.

Figure 2. Median degradation score depicting visual biodegradation stages and/or resumption of growth for fragmentary propagules of Hydrocotyle ranunculoides at 21 days post exposure to aquatic disinfectants, for 0% (0 g L⁻¹), 2% (20 g L⁻¹) and 4% (40 g L⁻¹) solutions of selected aquatic disinfectants. Fragments were submerged for five, fifteen, thirty or sixty minutes (n = 3 per treatment). Bars signify minimum and maximum scores attained. The dashed line highlights a score of 5, whereby no meaningful deterioration of the plant tissues or resumption of growth has occurred. Scores of 0–4 portray incremental levels of degradation, while noting the presence of sustained viability. Scores of 6–10 denote plant tissue degradation stages which lack of viability in relation to the resumption of new growth. See Table 3 for description of the score categories. Cont. = Control; Virk = Virkon® Aquatic; Vira = Virasure® Aquatic.

All disinfectant treatments significantly increased degradation in comparison to control groups (all \( P < 0.001 \)). Although treatment with disinfectant frequently inhibited new growth of \( H. \) ranunculoides, survival was often evidenced through sustained stem vitality (Table 3). Degradation was significantly influenced by treatment exposure time (\( \chi^2 = 16.55, df = 3, P < 0.001 \)); sixty minute exposures yielded significantly greater degradation than all other exposure times (all \( P < 0.05 \)), whilst there were no significant differences between shorter exposure times (all \( P > 0.05 \)). Degradation of \( H. \) ranunculoides also differed significantly over the course of the monitoring period (\( \chi^2 = 128.82, df = 2, P < 0.001 \)), demonstrating recovery via reduced degradation scoring of treated plants over the monitoring period overall (all \( P < 0.001 \)).

Viability in relation to shoot and root counts was also exhibited by all plant species irrespective of treatment and exposure time. Root counts were significantly affected by disinfectant treatments (\( F_{4, 175} = 6.52, P < 0.001 \)), and differed significantly between plant species (\( F_{3, 172} = 115.39, P < 0.001 \); Figure 3). Crassula helmsii displayed the greatest root production between the four focal plants. Contrastingly, only one \( E. \) densa replicate exhibited root regrowth following treatment for fifteen minutes or longer. Root
Biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants

Crane et al. (2020), Management of Biological Invasions 11(1): 26–43, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2020.11.1.03

Figure 3. Mean (± SE) count of new roots for macrophyte fragmentary propagules at 28 days post exposure to aquatic disinfectants, for 0% (0 g L⁻¹), 2% (20 g L⁻¹) and 4% (40 g L⁻¹) solutions of selected aquatic disinfectants. Fragments were submerged for five, fifteen or thirty minutes (n = 3 per treatment). Cont. = Control; Virk = Virkon® Aquatic; Vira = Virasure® Aquatic.

Generation was also significantly lower following longer exposures times ($F_{2, 170} = 7.96$, $P < 0.001$). In addition, there was a significant “treatment × species × time” interaction effect ($F_{24, 120} = 1.65$, $P < 0.05$). This reflected significant variation between plants amongst disinfectant treatment groups, whilst root counts across control plant species did not significantly differ following five and thirty minute exposures (all $P > 0.05$).

Overall, new shoot counts were not significantly affected by disinfectant treatment ($\chi^2 = 3.26$, $df = 4$, $P > 0.05$). However, new shoot counts differed significantly between plant species ($\chi^2 = 159.77$, $df = 3$, $P < 0.001$), with *C. helmsii* and *E. canadensis* producing the greatest number of new shoots of the four focal plants (all $P < 0.001$; Figure 4). Moreover, exposure time did not significantly influence shoot production ($\chi^2 = 4.14$, $df = 2$, $P > 0.05$). However, there was a significant “treatment × species” interaction effect ($\chi^2 = 38.91$, $df = 12$, $P < 0.001$), wherein the higher number of new shoots produced by *C. helmsii* was conditional to the disinfectant treatment. Specifically, although *C. helmsii* produced significantly more new shoots than *L. major* or *E. densa* under all disinfectant treatments (all $P < 0.05$), there were no significant differences compared to *E. densa* or *L. major* in control groups (both $P > 0.05$). On the other hand, new shoot growth for *C. helmsii* and *E. canadensis* did not significantly differ under any disinfectant treatment (all $P > 0.05$), but *E. canadensis* growth was significantly greater than *C. helmsii* in controls ($P < 0.01$). Further, new shoot growth of *E. canadensis* was significantly greater than *L. major* in all treatments ($P < 0.05$), except the Virkon® Aquatic 4% treatment ($P > 0.05$).
Biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants

Figure 4. Mean (± SE) count of new shoots for macrophyte fragmentary propagules at 28 days post exposure to aquatic disinfectants, for 0% (0 g L⁻¹), 2% (20 g L⁻¹) and 4% (40 g L⁻¹) solutions of selected aquatic disinfectants. Fragments were submerged for five, fifteen or thirty minutes (n = 3 per treatment). Cont. = Control; Virk = Virkon® Aquatic; Vira = Virasure® Aquatic.

Figure 5. Mean (± SE) relative growth rate for new shoot growth produced by macrophyte fragmentary propagules at 28 days post exposure to aquatic disinfectants, for 0% (0 g L⁻¹), 2% (20 g L⁻¹) and 4% (40 g L⁻¹) solutions of selected aquatic disinfectants. Fragments were submerged for five, fifteen or thirty minutes (n = 3 per treatment). Cont. = Control; Virk = Virkon® Aquatic; Vira = Virasure® Aquatic.

New shoot RGR was significantly reduced by treatment (F₄, 119 = 9.74, \( P < 0.001 \); Figure 5), reflecting lower regrowth across all disinfectant treated plant species relative to the controls (all \( P < 0.001 \)). Yet, there were no significant overall differences in shoot RGR amongst disinfectant treatments, regardless of concentration (all \( P > 0.05 \)). Relative growth rates also differed significantly between species overall (F₃,119 = 22.58, \( P < 0.001 \)).
wherein *C. helmsii* displayed significantly lower RGR of new shoots than all other species (all *P* < 0.001), and *L. major* exhibited greater regrowth than *E. canadensis* or *E. densa* (both *P* < 0.01). However, the lesser regrowth of *C. helmsii* was only consistently significant compared to all other plants across control groups (all *P* < 0.01), and was more similar under disinfectant treatments, driving a significant “treatment × species” interaction (*F*<sub>12, 119</sub> = 2.47, *P* < 0.01). Relative growth rates of new shoots were not significantly affected by exposure time (*F*<sub>3, 119</sub> = 2.16, *P* > 0.05).

**Discussion**

In the present study, the ability of two aquatic disinfectants, Virkon® Aquatic and Virasure® Aquatic, to induce plant tissue degradation, decrease the number of new roots and shoots produced, and reduce the RGR of new shoots, was examined for fragmentary propagules of selected prolific invasive macrophytes. Although 2% and 4% solutions of both aquatic disinfectants induced substantial degradation of the original fragmentary propagule, all species retained viability in relation to shoot and/or root regrowth, even following submergence in 4% solutions for exposure times of thirty minutes or longer. Although 1% solution of Virasure® Aquatic has previously been observed to induce complete degradation and prohibit viability of *L. major* fragmentary propagules following a two minute submergence (Cuthbert et al. 2018), the present study indicates that the examined broad-spectrum aquatic disinfectants will not be capable of curtailing its resumption of growth.

Similarly, Cuthbert et al. (2019a) observed that, whilst different propagule stages of *Elodea nuttallii* (Planchon) H. St. John, 1920 (i.e. apical tip and mid-stem) displayed substantial and sustained degradation following a five minute submergence in 1% and 4% solutions of both Virkon® Aquatic and Virasure® Aquatic, all *E. nuttallii* fragments subsequently demonstrated viability through resumption of shoot or root growth. Interestingly, complete necrosis of *L. major* was recorded by Cuthbert et al. (2018) for fragmentary propagules of a smaller size (50 mm) than those examined by the present study (100 mm). Although both studies examined fragment lengths of a size range considered capable of surviving overland transport (Barrat-Segretain et al. 1998; Coughlan et al. 2018a), larger fragments are known to display a greater capacity for retention of viability (Jiang et al. 2009; Hoffmann et al. 2015). Therefore, this may have enabled resumption of growth by the longer fragmentary propagules examined by this study. Although the examined oxidising agent-based disinfectants adversely impacted treated fragments, it appears that only outer cell integrity was negatively affected in most cases, with regrowth being produced from meristematic cells.

Morphological and physiological differences among the examined species may have influenced resumption of growth following exposure to aquatic disinfectant treatments. For example, *E. densa* was noticeably less
robust than the other examined species, which all displayed more rigid stem and leaf structures. These morphological differences could explain the lower levels of degradation shown by fragments of *C. helmsii*, *E. canadensis*, *H. ranunculoides* and *L. major*. Although only submerged fragments of *C. helmsii* were used in this study, this species is capable of producing emergent stems. These emergent shoots are more robust than the submerged leaves and have a thicker outer cuticle. As such, this ability may explain the greater numbers of new roots and shoots produced by *C. helmsii*. Conversely, this greater investment in the number of new growth structures produced coincided with a lower overall RGR for shoots. Although the number of new growth structures produced may increase the likelihood of establishing a new plant, beyond the indicators of viability documented in this study, a further assessment of subsequent colonisation abilities is still required. Interestingly, while apical fragments of *H. ranunculoides* were less structurally rigid than those of *C. helmsii*, *E. canadensis*, and *L. major*, *H. ranunculoides* generally displayed lower degradation scores than *E. canadensis*. As apical fragments of *H. ranunculoides* are emergent, while those produced by *E. canadensis* are submerged, the observed rates of degradation may reflect additional morphological (e.g. permeability of cuticle layer) or physiological-related differences between these species.

As discussed by Cuthbert et al. (2019a), abiotic conditions such as nutrient-rich pond water may promote sustained fragment viability in comparison to dechlorinated tap-water. This may, in part, explain why more substantial degradation of *L. major* was observed by Cuthbert et al. (2018), and demonstrates important context-dependencies which may influence the efficacy of biosecurity protocols. However, this phenomenon was not observed in the present study in relation to the placement of *H. ranunculoides* in dechlorinated tap-water following chemical exposure. In addition, a more favourable light intensity of 200–250 μmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹ and warmer temperature conditions (18 °C) used by Cuthbert et al. (2019a), and for the present study, may have promoted greater resumption of growth by certain macrophytes. Accordingly, further examination of the effect of biotic and abiotic conditions on the survival and resumption of growth of different sized fragmentary propagules, following exposure to broad-spectrum aquatic disinfectants, is needed.

Although higher disinfectant concentrations and extended exposures times may result in a further reduction of fragment viability, an observed lack of disinfectant solubility beyond a 5% solution may inhibit achievement of these increased concentrations in the field (Cuthbert et al. 2019a). Moreover, such solutions may also potentially represent an environmental or user health concern, as the highest concentration of a 4% solutions of Virasure® Aquatic is only recommended for thermal fogging purposes by the manufacturer (Cuthbert et al. 2019a). Currently, the use of 1% solutions are recommend by both manufactures for surface disinfection.
and submergence treatments, such as footbaths. However, solutions at double and quadruple this recommendation did not necessarily inhibit the production of new growth following maximum exposure of thirty or sixty minutes. In addition, as biosecurity applications should be non-time-consuming to encourage maximum participation (Sutcliffe et al. 2018), exposure times beyond thirty minutes may not be practical.

Nevertheless, broad-spectrum aquatic disinfectants, which are widely used within aquaculture, may still provide an effective umbrella decontamination treatment for multiple taxonomic groups, such as invertebrates, bacterial, fungal and viral pathogens (Barbour et al. 2013; Cuthbert et al. 2019b). However, the susceptibility of all IAS transportable life history stages to biosecurity treatments requires further examination. Yet, if a treatment can induce complete invader mortality at its most robust life stage, it will also likely do so at more vulnerable growth phases (Coughlan et al. 2019a). Despite the clear need for further assessment, the use of disinfectants as part of biosecurity practices, which incorporate the procedural steps of visual inspection and the physical removal of any adhering organisms, may synergistically provide improved decontamination of equipment (Cuthbert et al. 2019a; Joyce et al. 2019), particularly as plant material will often become noticeably entangled around equipment as a large clump (e.g. nets, outboard motors and boat anchors). In such scenarios, chemical applications alone will not be capable of causing mortality of adhering plants, which will need to be physically removed. However, as other damaging invaders can contaminate equipment and even plant material, e.g. invertebrates and pathogens, chemical decontamination procedures will be an advantageous edition to spread-prevention strategies. Moreover, as small fragmentary propagules or a single invertebrate or pathogen can be exceedingly difficult to visually detect, but sufficient to establish new invader populations (Bickel 2015; Coughlan et al. 2017c), further examination of the effectiveness of broad-spectrum aquatic disinfectants to achieve complete decontamination of equipment is required. In particular, the use of chemical disinfectants in combination with other approaches merits consideration. For example, the efficacy of disinfection treatments could possibly be improved by incorporating additional cleaning protocols, such as immersion in hot water (≥ 45 °C; Anderson et al. 2015), direct steam exposure (Coughlan et al. 2019a; Crane et al. 2019; Joyce et al. 2019) and extended drying times (Coughlan et al. 2018a; Shannon et al. 2018). In doing so, future evaluation of alternative treatments should provide for more effective and practical decontaminating procedures. Further, the synergistic effects of various applications could possibly provide for greater efficacy.

Despite a lack of common approaches to biosecurity, spread-prevention of invaders has become integral to both national and international IAS management strategies (Caffrey et al. 2014; Piria et al. 2017). Yet, although
national and international legislation concerning spread-prevention has been implemented (e.g. EU Regulation 1143/2014) invaders continuing to spread at an unprecedented rate, even between unconnected waterbodies (Caffrey et al. 2016; Seebens et al. 2017). Therefore, innovative biosecurity protocols that maximise prevention of further invader spread remain an urgent priority to protect biodiversity in aquatic systems (Crane et al. 2019; Cuthbert et al. 2019b; Joyce et al. 2019). Ideally, in order to engage maximum participation by all water users, biosecurity protocols should, *inter alia*, utilise materials that are readily available, be relatively easily applied with no specialist training required, be non-time-consuming, inexpensive, and environmentally friendly (Stebbing et al. 2011; Anderson et al. 2015; Coughlan et al. 2018a, 2019a; Crane et al. 2019; Sutcliffe et al. 2018). Although disinfectants, such as Virkon® Aquatic and Virasure® Aquatic, have been developed to induce mortality of bacterial, fungal and viral pathogens, confirmation of their ability to kill damaging parasites, such as the invasive salmon fluke *Gyrodactylus salaris*, under in-field conditions is required (Tidbury et al. 2018; Cuthbert et al. 2019a). Finally, whilst the findings presented here indicate that aquatic disinfectants can induce substantial degradation of fragmentary propagules, confirmation of the concentrations and exposure times needed to prevent resumption of fragment growth is still required.

**Acknowledgements**

KC is supported through contributions from Queen’s University Belfast, the University of Windsor, McGill University and Waterways Ireland. RNC is supported by the Department for the Economy, Northern Ireland. JTAD, JC, FEL, ED and NEC gratefully acknowledge support from the Irish Environmental Protection Agency project “Prevention, control and eradication of invasive alien species” (2015-NC-MS-4). JTAD also acknowledges funding received from the Natural Environment Research Council. We graciously thank Dr Matthijs Metselaar at Fish Vet Group for providing Virasure® Aquatic. We also thank Emma Healey, Simon Exley and Gina Vong for their helpful contributions. In addition, we thank Dr Amos Quito and Briar Dick for stimulating input. Thanks also to two anonymous reviewers and the Deputy Editor-in-Chief, Dr Calum MacNeil, for helpful comments.

**Author contributions**

KC and NEC proposed the study; KC, NEC and RNC designed the experiment; KC, NEC, RNC, EMC and SJB conducted the experiment; LE, ERCS and CS provided substantial technical support; RNC performed data analysis; all authors contributed to the interpretation of results and the writing of the manuscript, which was led by NEC.

**References**

Anderson LG, Rocliffe S, Haddaway NR, Dunn AM (2014) The role of tourism and recreation in the spread of non-native species: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *PLoS ONE* 10: e0140833, https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0140833

Anderson LG, Dunn AM, Rosewarne PJ, Stebbing PD (2015) Invaders in hot water: a simple decontamination method to prevent the accidental spread of aquatic invasive non-native species. *Biological Invasions* 17: 2287–2297, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10530-015-0875-6

Bakker ES, Wood KA, Pagés JF, Veen GFC, Christianen MJA, Santamaría L, Nolet BA, Hilt S (2016) Herbivory on freshwater and marine macrophytes: a review and perspective. *Aquatic Botany* 135: 18–36, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquabot.2016.04.008

Barbour JH, McMenemy S, Dick JTA, Alexander ME, Caffrey JM (2013) Biosecurity measures to reduce secondary spread of the invasive freshwater Asian clam, *Corbicula fluminea*
Biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants

Coughlan NE, Cuthbert RN, Potts S, Cunningham EM, Crane K, Caffrey JM, Lucy FE, Davis E, Niven A, Coughlan NE (2016) First record of the Asian clam Corbicula fluminea (Müller, 1774) (Bivalvia, Cyrenidae) in Northern Ireland. BiolInvasions Records 5: 239–244, https://doi.org/10.3391/bir.2016.5.4.08

Barrat-Segretain MH, Bornette G, Hering-Vilas-Bôas A (1998) Comparative abilities of vegetative regeneration among aquatic plants growing in disturbed habitats. Aquatic Botany 60: 201–211, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-3770(97)00091-0

Bickel TO (2015) A boat hitchhiker’s guide to survival: Cabomba caroliniana desiccation resistance and survival ability. Hydrobiologia 746: 123–134, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10530-014-01979-1

Caffrey JM, Millane M, Evers S, Moran H, Butler M (2010) A novel approach to aquatic weed control and habitat restoration using biodegradable jute matting. Aquatic Invasions 5: 123–129, https://doi.org/10.3391/ai.2010.5.2.01

Caffrey JM, Baars J-R, Barbour JH, Boets P, Boon P, Davenport K, Dick JTA, Early J, Edsman E, Dick JTA (2019) No evidence for epizoochorous dispersal between aquatic environments. Freshwater Biology 64: 197–205, https://doi.org/10.1111/fwb.13190

Caffrey JM, Kelly TC, Davenport J, Jansen MAK (2017a) Up, up and away: bird-mediated ectozoochorous dispersal of aquatic macrophytes. Biological Invasions 19: 625–634, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10530-016-1293-0

Caffrey JM, Stevens AL, Kelly TC, Dick JTA, Jansen MAK (2017c) Zoochorous dispersal of freshwater bivalves: an overlooked vector in biological invasions? Knowledge and Management of Aquatic Ecosystems 418: 42, https://doi.org/10.1515/kmaec-2017037

Caffrey JM, Cuthbert RN, Kelly TC, Jansen MAK (2018a) First record of the invasive curly waterweed Elodea nuttallii (Müller, 1774) (Bivalvia, Cyrenidae) in Northern Ireland. BiolInvasions Records 5: 239–244, https://doi.org/10.3391/bir.2016.5.4.08

Coughlan NE, Cuthbert RN, Dickey JWE, Crane K, Caffrey JM, Lucy FE, Davis E, Dick JTA (2018a) Parched plants: survival and viability of invasive aquatic macrophytes following exposure to various desiccation regimes. Aquatic Botany 150: 9–15, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquabot.2018.06.001

Coughlan NE, Walsh DA, Caffrey J, Davis E, Lucy FE, Cuthbert RN, Dick JTA (2018b) Cold as Ice: a novel eradication and control method for invasive Asian clam, Corbicula fluminea, using pelleted dry ice. Management of Biological Invasions 9: 463–474, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2018.9.4.09

Coughlan NE, Cuthbert RN, Dickey JWE, Crane K, Caffrey JM, Lucy FE, Davis E, Dick JTA (2019a) Better biosecurity: spread prevention of the invasive Asian clam, Corbicula fluminea (Müller, 1774). Management of Biological Invasions 10: 111–126, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2019.10.1.07

Coughlan NE, Cuthbert RN, Potts S, Cunningham EM, Crane K, Caffrey JM, Lucy FE, Davis E, Dick JTA (2019b) Beds Are Burning: eradication and control of invasive Asian clam, Corbicula fluminea, with rapid open-flame burn treatments. Management of Biological Invasions 10: 486–499, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2019.10.3.06

Cranage M, Cuthbert RN, Dick JTA, Kregting L, Ricciardi A, Maatschaak HJ, Coughlan NE (2019) Full steam ahead: direct steam exposure to inhibit spread of invasive aquatic macrophytes. Biological Invasions 21: 1311–1321, https://doi.org/10.1007/s11350-018-1901-2

Crawley MJ (2013) The R Book, 2nd edn. Wiley Publishing, Chichester, UK, 437 pp

Cribari-Neto F, Zeileis A (2010) Beta regression in R. Journal of Statistical Software 34: 1–24, https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v034.i02

Cuffe et al. (2020), Management of Biological Invasions 11(1): 26–43, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2020.11.1.03

Dudgeon D, Arthington AH, Gessner MO, Kawabata Z-I, Knowler DJ, Lévêque C, Naiman RJ, Prieur-Richard A-H, Soto D, Stiassny MLJ, Sullivan CA (2006) Freshwater biodiversity: importance, threats, status and conservation challenges. Biological Reviews 81: 163–182, https://doi.org/10.1017/S1464793105006950

EC (2011) European Communities (Birds and Natural Habitats) Regulations, S.I. 477/2011, http://www.irishstatutebook.ie/eli/2011/si/477/made/en/print
Biodegradation and subsequent viability of invasive macrophytes following exposure to aquatic disinfectants

Crane et al. (2020), Management of Biological Invasions 11(1): 26–43, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2020.11.1.03
Tokarska-Guzik B, van Kleunen M, Walker K, Weigelt P, Yamanaka T, Essl F (2017) No saturation in the accumulation of alien species worldwide. *Nature Communications* 8: 14435, https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms14435

Shannon C, Quinn CH, Stebbing PD, Hassall C, Dunn AM (2018) The practical application of hot water to reduce the introduction and spread of aquatic invasive alien species. *Management of Biological Invasions* 9: 417–423, https://doi.org/10.3391/mbi.2018.9.4.05

Stebbing P, Sebire M, Lyons B (2011) Evaluation of a number of treatments to be used as biosecurity measures in controlling the spread of the invasive killer shrimp (*Dikerogammarus villosus*). Report C5256, Centre for Environment, Fisheries and Aquaculture Science.

Stockton-Fiti KA, Moffitt CA (2017) Safety and efficacy of Virkon® aquatic as a control tool for invasive Molluscs in aquaculture. *Aquaculture* 480: 71–76, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2017.08.005

Sutcliffe C, Quinn CH, Shannon C, Glover A, Dunn AM (2018) Exploring the attitudes to and uptake of biosecurity practices for invasive non-native species: views amongst stakeholder organisations working in UK natural environments. *Biological Invasions* 20: 399–411, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10530-017-1541-y

Tidbury HJ, Joiner CL, Rimmer GSE, Potter HV, Taylor NGH (2018) The effectiveness of fishery net dips: Advice for the improvement of biosecurity measures. *Journal of Fish Diseases* 41: 1625–1630, https://doi.org/10.1111/jfd.12868

Umetsu CA, Evangelista HBA, Thomaz SM (2012) The colonization, regeneration, and growth rates of macrophytes from fragments: a comparison between exotic and native submerged aquatic species. *Aquatic Ecology* 46: 443–449, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10452-012-9413-0

Van Echelpoel W, Boets P, Goethals PLM (2016) Functional Response (FR) and Relative Growth Rate (RGR) do not show the known invasiveness of *Lemna minuta* (Kunth). *PLoS ONE* 11: e0166132, https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0166132