Distribution, identification and range expansion of the common Asellidae in Northern Europe, featuring the first record of *Proasellus meridianus* in the Nordic countries

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Kemp JL, Ballot, A, Nilssen JP, Spikkeland I and Eriksen TE. 2020. Distribution, identification and range expansion of the common Asellidae in Northern Europe, featuring the first record of *Proasellus meridianus* in the Nordic countries. Fauna norvegica 40: 93–108.

Two out of the three common Asellidae species in Northern Europe are increasing their ranges, aided by human activities. Here we report the discovery of *Proasellus coxalis* (Dollfus 1892) in new areas in Norway and the discovery of *Proasellus meridianus* (Racovitza 1919) for the first time in the Nordic countries, verified with DNA barcoding. A new, detailed photo-identification guide to *Asellus aquaticus* Linnaeus 1758, *P. coxalis* and *P. meridianus* is presented. In addition to head pattern, attention is drawn to the female pleopods as an easy way to differentiate between the two genera. Then detailed examination of male pleopods 1 and 2 can differentiate between *P. coxalis* and *P. meridianus*. The origins, competitive relationships and potential dispersal mechanisms of the two introduced species and the native *A. aquaticus* are explored. By examining the shipping activity at the small, freshwater port where *P. meridianus* was found, we highlight the great connectivity between many European brackish and freshwater ports and possible pathways for species transfer. The risk of trans-oceanic freshwater to freshwater (not just brackish and saltwater) species transfer through ballast water needs to be better communicated. *Proasellus coxalis* may have been introduced to the river system of Lake Stokkalandsvatnet together with fish transported in microaquaria used as live bait for fishing.

doi: 10.5324/fn.v40i0.3353. Received: 2019-12-03. Accepted: 2020-04-14. Published online: 2020-08-12.

ISSN: 1891-5396 (electronic).

Keywords: *Asellus aquaticus*, *Proasellus coxalis*, *Proasellus meridianus*, invasive, identification key

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INTRODUCTION

The loss of regional biodiversity is widely acknowledged to be an ever-increasing problem (IPBES 2018). The world’s fauna appears to be becoming more homogeneous. Regional biodiversity is harmed not only by species extinction, but also by the arrival of non-indigenous species. In many cases it is not easy to predict the impact a newcomer will have on original species or systems (Nentwig 2007). While some non-native species undoubtedly have hugely harmful effects, the effect of others can be more subtle and even, from particular points of view, beneficial (Davis et al. 2011).

The dangers that some non-indigenous species pose to indigenous freshwater species and ecosystem functioning have been highlighted by several studies (e.g. Nentwig 2007). They stress the dramatic effects that some of these species can have in the recipient environment, such as altering and disrupting the biotic structure of ecosystems, affecting the ecology of other species and pushing species toward extinction.

Several species of freshwater crustacean are expanding their ranges in northern Europe (Galil et al. 2007, Nehring 2002b, Nehring 2005, de Vaate et al. 2002, van der Velde et al. 2002). Two Isopod species, within the genus *Proasellus* in the family Asellidae, are among these. These are *Proasellus coxalis* (Dollfus 1892) and *Proasellus meridianus* (Racovitza 1919) (Nehring 2005). They are expanding into areas where previously only *Asellus aquaticus* Linnaeus, 1758 has been found.

Past and present distribution

*Asellus aquaticus* probably has its ancient evolutionary origins around Siberia and has spread from there to western Europe (Grüner 1965, Valentino et al. 1983, Hidding et al. 2003, Verovnik et al. 2005). It is now the most common and widespread European species of the Asellidae (Vitagliano Tadini et al. 1988, Gregory 2009).

Until recently, *A. aquaticus* was the only freshwater isopod known from the Nordic countries (Økland 1978). It is widely distributed across Denmark and Finland and across the south and east of Sweden.
In Norway, it has been recorded frequently in the south east of the country (Økland 1978), with a further hotspot occurring in the Trondheim area (Økland 1978, Artsdatabanken 2019). Across the south and middle of the country, it has a more scattered distribution, predominantly found in lower altitude areas, areas of higher human impact or eutrophy, or reduced acidification (Økland 1978). It has been recorded infrequently in northern Norway (Økland 1978) and Sweden, although the known distribution pattern may in part reflect sampling effort.

Proasellus coxalis is thought to originate from the mid east, north African and southern Europe (Vitagliano Tadini et al. 1988, Hewitt 1999, Schmitt & Varga 2012). It is a very morphologically and genetically variable and widely distributed species, with many subspecies (Flasarova 1975, 1996, Stoch et al. 1996, Ketmaier et al. 2001, Ketmaier et al. 2002). Over the 20th century, it has spread from the Mediterranean northwards in continental Europe, using the many opportunities provided by the canal network to move between catchments and then disperse down rivers to estuaries (Grüner 1965, Heuss 1976, Herhaus 1977, Post & Landmann 1994, Tittizer 1996, Nehring 2005, Galli et al. 2007, Nentwig 2007). Populations are now well-established in German (1930s), Dutch (1948) and Belgian (1988) inland waters as well as in North Sea estuaries (1987) (Knoben & Peeters 1997, Nehring & Leuch 1999, Nehring 2002b, Gollasch & Nehring 2006, Wouters and Vercauten 2009, Buschbaum et al. 2012) and the Baltic sea region (Szczecin/Oder-lagoon, Witttoth & Zettler 2013). Its spread has been helped by being a euryhaline species, able to tolerate brackish water.

In Sweden P. coxalis was first collected in the mid 1970s (Spikkeland et al. 2013) in Höje Å in Scania, and later the species has been found in Råån and Risebergabäcken in Scania and Halland (Ulf Bjelke pers. comm.). It has never been recorded in the British Isles (Dobson 2013). In 2019, P. coxalis was recorded for the first time in Denmark, in Jylland in the western part of the country (Siegel 2019).

In 2012, Spikkeland et al. (2013) recorded P. coxalis in Norway for the first time. It was found in Stokkalandsvatnet and its outlet (Sandnes, Rogaland), as well as two records from 2014 from the nearby Lusivatnet in south west Norway (Spikkeland et al. 2013, Artsdatabanken 2019). When Spikkeland et al. (2013) discussed how P. coxalis had arrived in Norway, they also saw ballast water as a possibility, with the arrival of animals, perhaps, to Sandnes Harbour and subsequent spreading upstream by, for example, mallard ducks. They felt, however, that P. coxalis was more likely to have arrived in that locality through the transport of live animals (fish, crustacea, molluscs) used as fish bait in microaqua from, for example, central Europe. These microaqua can contain sediment and plants and therefore the eggs, propagules and early stages of many types of aquatic organism.

In 2019, P. coxalis turned up in a completely different geographical area, from samples in a small stream (Hestehaven) flowing into the brackish lake, Landvikvannet, in southern Norway (Hobæk et al. in press) (Figure 1 and 3).

Proasellus meridianus is the original inhabitant of western Europe (Thienemann 1950) and from there it has spread to the northeast (Grüner 1965, Tittizer 1996, Nehring 2002a). Its spread has been aided by canal networks. In Germany, for example, it is thought to have arrived in the 1930s and to be introduced (Gollasch & Nehring 2006). Today’s range includes much of western and northern continental Europe (Portugal, Spain, France, Belgium, Netherlands, Germany) as well as Switzerland (Wittenberg 2005) and the British Isles (Gregory 2009) and now the first record in the Nordic countries. In the U.K. P. meridianus is present at numerous exposed western coastal and island sites, where A. aquaticus is absent (Gregory 2009). Over much of its western range it is endemic and it is thought to have arrived in U.K. after the last glaciation, even before the arrival of A. aquaticus (Williams 1962c).

Messiaen et al. (2010) mention disagreement as to whether the species is southern or western European in origin. However, the suggestion of southern origin appears to originate in a table in Josens et al. (2005), quoting Tittizer et al. (2000). However, it is a misquote. In the original Tittizer article it is described as originating in Western Europe.

**Identification**

The arrival of a new species to a country is easy to miss and the spread of the Asellidae demonstrates this. A. aquaticus was previously the only species found in many European countries, meaning that, in the order Isopoda, there was only one aquatic species, making identification possible with almost no examination of the specimen. Although P. coxalis was first recorded in the Netherlands in 1978, it was later discovered in samples retained from 1948 (Wouters and Vercauten 2009, Knoben & Peeters 1997). Similarly, Wouters and Vercauten (2009) discovered the species in Belgium in 2005 and subsequent analysis of stored samples showed it had been present in the country since at least 1998 (Messiaen et al. 2010, Thierry Vercauten pers.com.). In Denmark it took a determined amateur naturalist, unfamiliar with what she was “supposed” to see, to find P. coxalis (Siegel 2019). In Norway P. meridianus was missed in 2015, before being recorded in 2019.

If routine monitoring is to pick up new taxa, there needs to be both an awareness that new species may be arriving and a means to identify them. The Freshwater Biological Association’s guide to Identifying Invasive Freshwater Shrimps and Isopods does this for the U.K. (Dobson 2013). It mentions the isopods Jaera istri (Veuille 1979) and Caecidotea communis (Say 1818), but does not include P. coxalis. The currently available identification guides either do not cover all three species in detail or are not in English. None are photoguides. The otherwise detailed FBA MALACOSTRACI key does not include P. coxalis (Gledhill et al. 1993). Wouters and Vercauten (2009) provide a very useful summary table describing how to quickly separate the three species, but limited photos or diagrams, making it less accessible to people unfamiliar with the characteristics. Huwae and Rapp (2003) include the three taxa, but is not easily available and is in Dutch. Henry and Magniez (1983) published a detailed and informative key with excellent diagrams and ecological notes, covering over 20 species of the Asellidae (including rare and subterranean species) for French speakers. Grüner (1965) provides something similarly thorough for German speakers.

Flagging up anthropogenic species spread can help to inform policy and preventative action and the photoguide presented here (Appendix 1) will make this easier for the common Asellidae.

**Aim**

The aims of this study are to update the current known distribution of the three non cave-dwelling freshwater isopod species found in northern Europe (Asellus aquaticus, Proasellus coxalis and Proasellus meridianus) and report the first record of P. meridianus in the Nordic countries. We will examine the mechanisms and pathways by which the Proasellus species may have arrived in Norway from overseas. We provide, for the first time, a comprehensive photographic identification guide (appendix 1), to make it easier to follow the spread of these species.
MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study areas: Stokkalandsvatnet and Storåna; Hestehaven; Glomma (Figure 1)

Asellidae were collected from three study areas in southern Norway: one in the west, the lake Stokkalandsvatnet and its outlet stream Storåna; one in the south, the small stream Hestehaven and one in the east, the river Glomma.

Stokkalandsvatnet is around 1.5 km long with maximum depth around 16 m. The lake receives considerable amounts of nutrients and is eutrophic (Molversmyr et al. 2012). Oxygen depletion in hypolimnion occurs periodically (Åge Molversmyr, pers. comm.). It was sampled in September 2012, by bottom trawl, drawn from the littoral into the deepest part of the lakes, with a 250 µm mesh net. Several other lakes in the Stavanger area were sampled during the same study (Spikkeland et al. 2013) (Figure 2).

Storåna joins Stokkalandsvatnet to the ocean in the Sandnes region. It is a small stream, 1.5 – 2m wide, running through an urban area with parks, open areas, roads and buildings (Spikkeland et al. 2013). The bottom material was mostly sand, rocks and detritus, the water velocity moderate, and the river was surrounded by macrophytes. It was sampled at four locations in 2013 by kick sampling and sweeping of macrophytes and soft substrates (Spikkeland et al. 2013; 1mm mesh net) (Figure 2).

Hestehaven is a small (1 – 2 m wide), wooded, low-gradient stream flowing into a lake, Landvikvannet, Grimstad (Figure 3). Landvikvannet is unusual in that it contains both marine and freshwater fish and is the only non-marine lake in Norway to support herring (Clupea harengus L.). Water is fresh to around 2 m depth and becomes increasingly salty and deprived of oxygen below that. Three-minute kick samples were taken from one site on the Hestehaven stream in May and November 2019, with a 250 µm mesh net (Hobæk et al. in press). Several other streams in the area were sampled during the same study.

The Glomma is Norway’s largest river. The lower Glomma near Sarpsborg has suffered significant levels of industrial organic pollution and monitoring and improvement efforts are ongoing. Most sites were wide, deep and slow flowing, but the upstream sites had faster flow. The native species in Norway, A. aquaticus, had previously been recorded at a number of these sites. Three-minute kick samples were taken in March and December 2018, with a 250 µm mesh net, at the sites shown on Figure 4 and listed in Table 1 (Kile et al. 2019ab).

Small investigation into Glomma boat traffic

Data were obtained from the Marine Traffic website (www.marinetraffic.com) regarding the boats that recorded the small port of Sarpsborg (see Figure 4) as one of their destinations during the (arbitrarily chosen) 13 day period of 23.09.2019 – 05.10.2019. This port is well within the freshwater part of the river. The position of these boats was recorded on arrival/departure from a port and at midnight and noon each day during this time-window.

Morphological identification

Morphological identification of Asellidae was based on criteria given in Wouters and Vercauteren (2009), Spikkeland et al. (2013) and Gledhill et al. (1993). Specimens are deposited in the collections at Natural History Museum, University of Oslo (ZMO).

Genetic identification: DNA isolation, PCR and sequencing

Genomic DNA from two Proasellus specimens was isolated using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissues kit (Qiagen Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturers protocol. PCR for the cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 (cox1) gene was performed on a Bio-Rad CFX96 Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Oslo, Norway) using the iProof High-Fidelity PCR Kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Oslo, Norway). Amplification of the cox1
RESULTS

Stokkalandsvatnet and Storåna

Specimens of Asellidae were found in all investigated lakes. *P. coxalis* was only recorded from Lake Stokkalandsvatnet, whereas *A. aquaticus* inhabited all lakes. During the further studies in the river Storåna, the outlet of Stokkalandsvatnet, *P. coxalis* was common in all investigated sites.

Hestehaven

On 03.05.2019, 48 individuals of *P. coxalis* (including many females with eggs) were found in the Hestehaven kick sample and 480 individuals were found in the sample taken on 24.11.2019. A number of other streams in the surrounding area were sampled as part of the same project and no native or introduced Asellidae species were found in any of the other samples (Hobæk et al. in press). Figure 3 shows the location of the Hestehaven site and the nearby sites where no Asellidae were found.

Glomma

Nine sites were sampled in spring and winter of 2018 on the river Glomma and *P. meridianus* was found at two of them. In the spring *A. aquaticus* was also found at both of these sites. Only *A. aquaticus* was found at the more upstream (faster-flowing) sites (Table 1, Kile et al. 2019ab). A number of sites in the same area had also been sampled in 2015 and one of these (site 7B, which had the highest abundances of gene region was conducted using the newly designed primers PM 77f (gcgttacgctcgaacacagcagtc) and PM 1441r (artargtraadacrtcnggrt). The following cycling protocol was used: one cycle of 5 min at 95 °C, and then 35 cycles each consisting of 50 s at 95 °C, 50 s at 55 °C, and 1 s at 72 °C, followed by a final elongation step of 72 °C for 3 min. PCR products were visualized by 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis with GelRed staining and UV illumination. For sequencing the same primers and the intermediate primers PM687F (cctcccagtdttagcrggggca), PM655r (cwgaccawacraaaagtggga), PMint1f (gctattcgtgcctgga), PMint2f (gccagttcaatcttagggtcag), PMint3f (attattgcagtgccaactggt), PMint4r (ggtatccctcccaaccctaag) and PMint5r (acttcaggatggccaaaaatc) were used. Sequences were analysed and aligned using Seqassem (version 04/2008) and Align (version 03/2007) MS Windows-based manual sequence alignment editor (SequentiX - DigitalDNA Processing, Klein Raden Germany) to obtain DNA sequence alignments, which were then corrected manually. For each PCR product, both strands were sequenced on an ABI 3730 Avant genetic analyser using the BigDye terminator V.3.1 cycle sequencing kit (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific Oslo, Norway) according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

The sequence data were deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) under the accession numbers given in Table 2.

Phylogenetic analysis

Segments with highly variable and ambiguous regions and gaps, making proper alignment impossible, were excluded from the analyses. In addition to two *Proasellus* samples collected from the river Glomma site “NP 5 Nordic Paper” (Table 1) in December in 2018, a cox1 set containing 63 other *Proasellus* sequences, and 531 nucleotide positions were used for phylogenetic analysis. *A. aquaticus* (GU130252) was used as an outgroup taxon in the cox1 tree. The dataset was analyzed using the maximum likelihood (ML) algorithm in MEGA version 7 (Kumar et al. 2016). The method selected T92+G as the best-fitting evolutionary model for the cox1 gene region. ML analyses were performed with 1000 bootstrap replicates in MEGA version 7 (Kumar et al. 2016).

| Site | Latitude (DD) | Longitude (DD) | Asellus aquaticus | Proasellus meridianus | Asellus aquaticus | Proasellus meridianus |
|------|---------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| B7   | 59.2721835    | 11.0915496     | 7                 | 16                   |                   |                      |
| B1   | 59.2798057    | 11.1340354     | 10                | -                    | -                  | -                    |
| B4   | 59.264923     | 11.1061592     | -                 | -                    | -                  | -                    |
| B5   | 59.2670841    | 11.101997      | 1                 | 1                    | 1                  |                      |
| B8   | 59.2661606    | 11.0839686     | -                 | -                    | 1                  | -                    |
| NP 1 | 59.266095     | 11.0593        | -                 | -                    | -                  | -                    |
| NP 2 | 59.265722     | 11.052885      | -                 | -                    | -                  | -                    |
| NP 3 | 59.267916     | 11.026556      | 1                 | 1                    | -                  | 8                    |
| NP 4 | 59.259329     | 11.02514       | -                 | -                    | -                  | -                    |
| NP 5 | 59.249077     | 11.04561       | 1                 | 16                   | -                  | 20                   |

Figure 1. Sites near Landvikvannet. Blue circle – *Proasellus coxalis* (Hestehaven DD 58.31732 8.50894). Grey cross no Asellidae found.
Asellidae in 2015) was re-examined to look for *P. meridianus* (Table 1). Therefore, we know that *P. meridianus* was established in the river in 2015 but was overlooked at that time.

**Investigation into Glomma boat traffic.**

During the 13-day period of 23.09.2019 – 05.10.2019, nine boats recorded Sarpsborg among their destinations. One of these stayed within the confines of the Glomma river and estuary, another remained around the Oslo fjord, but the other seven ranged widely, including visiting other European fresh and brackish water ports (Figure 5).

Two boats visited ports where it is possible that *P. coxalis* and/or *P. meridianus* are present, Lübeck in Germany (freshwater) and Harlingen in the Netherlands (brackish with probable freshwater areas/times).

Boats also visited freshwater ports further east in the Baltic, where only *A. aquaticus* is thought to be present, Klaipeda in the Curonian lagoon, Lithuania and Ventspils in Latvia. The boat that went to Ventspils went about 4 km up the Venta river and also later visited the freshwater port of Randers on the river Gudenå in Denmark.

Numerous brackish water ports on Norwegian fjords were also visited (e.g. Etnefjord, Porsgrunn) along with others in Denmark (Odense) and Germany (Vierow, Herre). Brackish water is of lower risk for the transport of exclusively freshwater species such as *P. meridianus*, but *P. coxalis* is known to tolerate brackish water. (Note that salinity information was not readily available for many ports so in some cases their freshwater or brackish status has been estimated, based on aerial photographs and other information.)

**Barcoding of *Proasellus meridianus***

The sequencing analysis of both Norwegian *Proasellus* specimens confirmed their assignment to the species *P. meridianus*, as both cox1 sequences obtained grouped together with other *P. meridianus* sequences in a pure *P. meridianus* cluster, which was supported by a bootstrap value of 100% (Figure 6a). *P. meridianus* Glomma 1 was most closely related to *P. meridianus* specimens from France. *P. meridianus* Glomma 2 was grouped in a subcluster together with *P. meridianus* specimens from France, U.K. and Netherlands (Figure 6b).

**DISCUSSION**

**Ecology and co-existence of the three species**

The three species of Asellidae, *A. aquaticus*, *P. coxalis* and *P. meridianus*, have similar ecological niches and are known to co-occur pairwise in many localities (e.g. Holthuis 1956, Fano 1974, Moon 1957, 1968). The co-occurrence of these taxonomically closely allied species may seem to challenge the Gause’s principle or the principle of competitive exclusion (Hardin 1960). The competitive relationship between *A. aquaticus* and *P. coxalis* appears to be complex and to change according to locality and environmental conditions.

Fano (1974) reported the two species *A. aquaticus* and *P. coxalis* could be found co-occurring in nature, although they are normally found allopatrically (in separate locations). An experimental laboratory set-up was performed to study competition between the two species, and *P. coxalis* regularly displaced *A. aquaticus*. Fano (1974) added that in polluted waters the species *P. coxalis* probably had a greater adaptive capacity than *A. aquaticus*. Costantini & Rossi (1998) also found *P. coxalis* to be ecologically dominant under laboratory conditions.
Figure 6. Maximum Likelihood tree of the cox1 gene of Proasellus spp. Bootstrap values above 50 are included. a) phylogenetic tree including 65 Proasellus cox1 sequences. Scale bar indicates 10% sequence divergence, b) subcluster including 9 Proasellus meridianus cox1 sequences. Scalebar indicates 0.2%. Specimens investigated in this study are marked in bold.
In nature, Sket (2011) reported that \textit{P. coxalis} outperformed \textit{A. aquaticus} on the Adriatic coast, but this pattern has not been generally seen across northern Europe. Burmeister (2003) observed in Germany that \textit{A. aquaticus} could displace both \textit{P. coxalis} and \textit{P. meridianus}. Henry & Magniez (1983) observe that \textit{A. aquaticus}, coming from the north, has been displacing \textit{P. coxalis} in the lower Rhone and Camargue.

In a German study, Flössner (1987) found that the two species differed in their timing and size at reproduction. The reproduction of both species was mainly between spring to autumn. \textit{Proasellus meridianus} started reproducing at a lower size class than \textit{A. aquaticus}, but \textit{A. aquaticus} was more fecund than \textit{P. coxalis} at higher sizes. At higher autumn temperatures the proportion of \textit{P. coxalis} females that were reproducing was higher than when autumn temperatures were low. This is unsurprising, given that \textit{P. coxalis} is originally a southern species. The author concluded that neither had a clear competitive advantage. In Sweden, \textit{P. coxalis} has not greatly increased its range since its arrival (Cecilia Holmström, pers. comm.). Similarly, several studies have searched for ecological differences between \textit{A. aquaticus} and \textit{P. meridianus}, but the relationships are not completely resolved.

According to Holthuis (1956) and Grüner (1965), \textit{P. meridianus} occupies the same habitat as \textit{A. aquaticus}; in many cases the two species are found together. The life cycles of both species appear nearly identical, apart from minor differences in seasonal timing (Williams 1960, Steel 1961). The same was true for their reproductive capacity (Williams 1960). He also confirmed, both experimentally and in the field, that the two species do not interbreed (Williams 1962a). Williams (1960, 1962b) found no important differences between the two taxa regarding food, micro-habitat, vertical distribution, tolerance for low oxygen concentrations, for high temperatures, or for desiccation. Williams (1960, 1963) also investigated the possibility of competition between these species and concluded that \textit{A. aquaticus} and \textit{P. meridianus} compete and that the latter species is gradually being replaced by the former, especially under more eutrophic conditions. In France, \textit{A. aquaticus} is seen as a relatively recent arrival and spreading thanks to canals. It is described as driving back the endemic \textit{P. meridianus} in the west (Henry & Magniez 1983).

In the Netherlands, the population ecology of the two taxa was studied in a reed bed in Tjeukemeer from March to October. Densities of the two species were similar at the start and at the end of the reproductive season, whereas \textit{P. meridianus} was up to 3 times more abundant in between. Egg production in both species was positively correlated to body length, and summer brood sizes were smaller than those in spring. \textit{P. meridianus} began reproduction at smaller body-sizes than \textit{A. aquaticus} and was also the more fecund for comparable size classes. Over the season as a whole, both species had similar reproductive output. The life cycle of the two species was similar, with three main periods of reproduction and the populations being replaced twice during the year. Despite the minor differences between the species, no single factor was identified which would give one species an obvious competitive advantage over the other Chambers (1977).

Overall, \textit{A. aquaticus} is thought to have a greater tolerance to organic pollution, higher salinities, low pH and high metal concentrations than \textit{P. meridianus} (Gledhill et al. 1993).

**Dispersal**

The three species of Asellidae, \textit{A. aquaticus}, \textit{P. coxalis} and \textit{P. meridianus}, have different zoogeographical origins, but increasingly overlapping ranges.

Dispersal of freshwater invertebrates is affected by many factors and vectors. Recently, human activities have played a very important role as vectors in their dispersal. In continental Europe, one of the major factors has been the construction of shipping canals, which disrupt natural barriers between catchments. Of particular significance to the Asellidae has been the “western invasion corridor” of the Rhine-Rhone canal. Opened in 1833, this created a direct freshwater connection between the Mediterranean and the North Sea. It is thought to have aided the spread of both \textit{P. coxalis} and \textit{P. meridianus} to the Rhine and neighbouring basins (Galil et al. 2007).

Inadvertent species introductions by fishermen are strongly suspected for introducing a number of species, including \textit{P. coxalis}, in the south eastern Jæren area of Norway. Fishermen from Germany may have introduced rudd (\textit{Scardinius erythrophthalmus}), used as live bait and carried over in microaquaria, into Storelva (Arnold & Lægård 1995). Small rudd were probably used as live bait for eels, with the water and bottom material from the microaquaria also emptied into the lake or river. This would also explain the appearance of their parasite, \textit{Argulus foliaceus} (common fish louse), not previously been found in the Jæren area. \textit{Haliaeetus color} (aka) may have been introduced the same way, or by local people emptying home aquaria, as it is commonly found on aquarium plants (Spikkel et al. 2013).

The microaquaria could also be responsible for arrivals in other areas, such as \textit{Daphnia ambigua} (originally American) in the Arendal area (Nilssen 2009).

This is the first record of \textit{P. meridianus} for the Nordic countries, including Denmark (Danmarks Miljøportal 2019), despite it being common in Germany. The dispersal mechanism of \textit{P. meridianus} to Norway is, of course, not certain, but ballast water or other water use by ships must be strongly suspected. In addition to ballast water, freshwater can be taken into or discharged from a ship for other purposes, such as maintenance or engine cooling. Since the nearest records of this species are in Germany, it has probably not reached the delta of the Norwegian river Glomma without the help of human vectors. The idea of the small study into shipping is a demonstration of principle, rather than to point the finger or to pinpoint exactly where the animals have arrived from.

Ships from Europe visit ports in the area frequently, as far upstream as the Breggado industrial complex, which is adjacent to the sites where \textit{P. meridianus} have been found and well within the freshwater part of the river. Some of these ships visit European ports with brackish and freshwater areas (Figure 5) and sail extensively on the European freshwater canal network. Transport via the boats’ surface-fouling (“aufwuchs”) is highly unlikely, due to the sensitivity of \textit{P. meridianus} to saltwater. An investigation from the Netherlands demonstrated that \textit{P. meridianus} was only found in oligo-haline waters (with a salinity from 28-1700 mg/L Cl), whereas both \textit{A. aquaticus} and \textit{P. coxalis} could tolerate salinities up to 3300 mg/L Cl (Boets et al. 2011), which is close to meso-haline waters.

Grigorovich et al. (2003) used shipping patterns, ballast water practices and species characteristics to identify species that are at risk of arriving in the American Great Lakes. They concluded that both \textit{P. coxalis} and \textit{P. meridianus} could both potentially be introduced from Europe.

Natural long-range dispersal by birds from mainland Europe to Norway is improbable, although theoretically possible (Figuerola & Green 2002).

**Are they invasive?**

Non-indigenous species can induce major changes to the recipient environment, such as altering and disrupting the biotic structure of ecosystems, affecting the ecology of other species to the extent of driving many species towards local extinction. “Invasive” is usually
reserved for species which establish themselves very rapidly, displace original species and have ecosystem-level effects.

Sandvik et al. (2019) recently published criteria for assessing the impact of alien species, as well as an updated assessment of 1,183 alien species currently reproducing in mainland Norway (Sandvik et al. 2020a,b). They used a risk assessment matrix. Proasellus coxalis was given an overall rating of “no known impact”, based on its invasiveness potential (defined in terms of population lifetime, expansion speed and % colonisation of ecosystems) and ecological effect (effects on threatened or keystone species, effects on other native species, effects on rare or threatened ecosystems, effects on other ecosystems, genetic contamination and transmission of parasites). They felt that climate change would help this species in Norway.

Experience from other countries (but not yet Sweden) shows that the invasion potential of P. coxalis, could be rather high, when judged over the long term. It has established new, healthy populations in Norway at least twice, with some expansion in the eastern population. The overall risk assessment, however, would still be “no known impact”, if we judge the likely ecological effect to be negligible. For Sandvik et al. (2019) ecological effect is partly based on the extent to which the new species is likely to displace native species. This is difficult to judge, as when the species of Asellidae have met previously, there has been no clear pattern of one dominating the others. They are unlikely to significantly change ecosystem processes, however, due to their ecological similarity.

Other studies have not considered P. coxalis and P. meridianus to be true invasive species, since they seem to have a small effect on other species and the total ecosystem (Wittfoth & Zettler 2013). In a recent study of risk factors of non-indigenous species in rivers and canals in Germany, both P. coxalis and P. meridianus were added to the “Grey List” and not the “Black List” (Panov et al. 2009). Josens et al. (2005) describe them as exotic, but not invasive, in the Netherlands.

Their ability to spread, establish themselves and negatively influence the ecological and socio-economical functioning of the recipient environment is not known according to Panov et al. (2009). Dobson (2013) did not mention P. coxalis in his guide covering invading and potentially invading freshwater organisms on the British Isles. Ironically, in Sweden, P. coxalis was listed as a strongly threatened species (EN) in ArtDatabanken (2015), elucidating the great paradox that newly migrated, unwanted species can be considered threatened while in an early phase of spreading and establishing themselves in the novel region (Nilsson 2009b).

**Competition and future spread**

In some previous scenarios where A. aquaticus and P. meridianus have met, authors have thought that A. aquaticus had displaced P. meridianus, such as in the U.K. Williams (1962c, 1963) also thought that the eastward distribution of P. meridianus in Europe was checked when it met with A. aquaticus colonising westwards, from its Pleistocene ice refuge, and that A. aquaticus would continue to spread and replace P. meridianus.

The situation in Norway is the opposite, with P. meridianus arriving in well-established A. aquaticus populations. This arrival of P. meridianus into A. aquaticus populations has already been observed in a number of continental European countries. It will be interesting to see if P. meridianus spreads out from its new home and if it will have any effects on populations of A. aquaticus. As A. aquaticus is thought to be more tolerant of organic pollution, higher salinities, low pH and high metal concentrations than P. meridianus (Gledhill et al. 1993), A. aquaticus should retain the upper hand in certain situations.

The new arrival in the south west and south of Norway and Sweden, P. coxalis, has been reported to displace A. aquaticus in some cases but not in others (Fano 1974, Burmeister 2003). The fact that it has spread gradually northwards in Europe and established a number of healthy populations in Norway and Sweden suggests that the species can continue to spread. It now inhabits both lakes and running waters in Norway.

Watching the introduced populations of these species in Norway and Sweden may help to further understand their ecological differences. The relative competitive advantages of the different species may well vary over time and location, related to pollution levels, acidity and climate change.

These Proasellus species have now successfully established populations in Norway on at least 3 occasions, showing that current practices are ineffective at stopping freshwater species arriving from overseas. Looking at the shipping pattern from just one small port in Norway it is easy to see the potential for further spread both internationally and around Norway.

The potential for ballast water to transfer strictly freshwater species internationally may not have been fully realised by policy makers. The number and connectivity of freshwater ports around northern Europe is surprisingly high.

The subtleties of salinity, habit and water current barriers to species dispersal have not been appreciated by all of the shipping sector. Van der Meer et al. (2016) reported that 67% of shipping companies thought that there was no need to perform Ballast Water Management in the North Sea and 92% thought there should be exemptions from regulations, as they erroneously saw it as an ecologically homogeneous area.

It is inevitable that these and other, potentially harmful, species will continue to spread fairly frequently across what should be natural barriers, if current patterns of human behavior persist.

This paper provides, for the first time, a detailed photo guide to these three species (Appendix 1). By making this widely available, it will increase the knowledge and accuracy of information about them.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

Thierry Vercauterens provided identification verification and a great deal of help and support. Thierry Vercauterens, an anonymous reviewer and Torkild Bakken gave comments that substantially improved the manuscript. Cecilia Holmström, Ekologigrupen, provided Swedish P. coxalis information and specimens. Eivind Ekhol Andersen, NIVA, found P. coxalis in Hestehagen and Johnny Håll, NIVA, provided data. Ship location information was supported by MarineTraffic (www.marinetraffic.com). Borregaard and Nordic Paper funded the river Gломma project. Vest-Agder fylkeskommune funded the project that included the Hestehagen site. We would like to heartily thank them all!

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Editorial responsibility: Torkild Bakken.

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Appendix 1. Identification Guide to *Asellus aquaticus* Linnaeus, 1758, *Proasellus coxalis* Dolfus, 1892 and *Proasellus meridianus* Racovitza, 1919.

The known distribution patterns of the three species of non-cave-dwelling Asellidae in Europe, as of 2019, are shown in Figure A1. The new records of *P. coxalis* and *P. meridianus* in the Nordic countries are marked in the figure.

Figure A1. Distribution of Asellidae in Europe. From left: *Asellus aquaticus*, *Proasellus coxalis* and *Proasellus meridianus*. The figures are based on GBIF (2019). New information is added for *P. meridianus* (Spain: Zamora-Muñoz & Alba-Tercedor 1994, Switzerland: Wittenberg (ed.) 2005), *P. coxalis* (Denmark: Siegel 2019, Switzerland: Wittenberg (ed.) 2005) and *A. aquaticus* (Spain: Zamora-Muñoz & Alba-Tercedor 1994, Eastern Europe: Sworobowicz et al. 2015), in addition to information given in this paper. (Note that non-European records are not shown.)

The guide is based on Wouters and Vercauteren (2009), Spikkeland et al. (2013), Gledhill et al. (1993) and personal observations. (Note on body size – *A. aquaticus* and *P. meridianus* mature sexually above 5 mm in length (Gregory 2009), so this guide should be used with caution for specimens below this size). Individuals photographed for the identification guide in this paper originated from the rivers Glomma and Tista in Østfold (south east Norway) and Stokkarlandsvatnet (south west Norway).

**Flow chart for Asellidae identification guide**

- **Asellus aquaticus**
  - Verify with ♀ (easier) or ♂ pleopods

- **Proasellus sp.**
  - **Proasellus coxalis**
    - ♂ 1st Pleopod – long feathered hairs
    - ♂ 2nd Pleopod exopodite – oval and wider than endopodite
  - **Proasellus meridianus**
    - ♂ 1st Pleopod – short unfeathered hairs
    - ♂ 2nd Pleopod exopodite – parallel-sided and narrower than endopodite

Figure A2. Flow chart of the most reliable features for identifying the three species of Asellidae.

Figure A3 shows the three species. (Note that a number of legs and other appendages have fallen off.) Although there are differences in body colour between the three species (Wouters and Vercauteren 2009), it is highly variable and is not a very useful diagnostic criterion, especially after preservation.
Head pattern

*Asellus aquaticus* – Lighter area at back of head sub-divided into **two patches** by median, darker, band.

*Proasellus coxalis* – Lighter area at back of head a **single light-coloured patch**. Border between darker and lighter areas **indistinct**, with the margin often having lighter spots.

*Proasellus meridianus* – Lighter area at back of head a uniformly **light-coloured patch**. Edge of patch of colour **sharply delineated**.

Head pattern (Figure A4) provides the most useful, quick clue to species identification, although it should not be relied on alone. The *A. aquaticus* head pattern is usually diagnostic. An undivided light patch at the back of the head, however, could belong to any three of the species (particularly in small or poor quality individuals) and the border of the light patch in *P. meridianus* is often indistinct, not sharply delineated, (Figure A5).

Figure A3. General appearance of the three species. *Asellus aquaticus* (left), *Proasellus coxalis* (middle) and *Proasellus meridianus* (right).

Figure A4. “Textbook” head pattern.

Figure A5. Head pattern variability in *Asellus aquaticus* (top) and *Proasellus meridianus* (bottom).
Female 2nd pleopod (first is missing in female)
A definitive and obvious difference between the very common *A. aquaticus* and the two *Proasellus* species is the female pleopod 2 (Figure A6 and A7) (see Figure A8 for the location of the pleopods and to compare with male). The female 2nd pleopods of *P. coxalis* and *P. meridianus* are very similar, however, and then the male pleopods must be examined.
There appear to be subtle differences between 2nd female pleopods in *P. meridianus* versus *P. coxalis*. In *P. meridianus*, it appears to be slightly blockier with a widely rounded tip, whereas in *P. coxalis* it has a more gracefully rounded and tapering appearance and a more narrowly rounded tip (Figure A7). In *P. meridianus* the inner-most hair is further round the inner edge than in *P. coxalis*, meaning that it points both rearwards and distinctly inwards. The inner hair of *P. coxalis* points rearwards with little or no inwards direction. These differences are also evident in the diagrams of Grüner (1965), although not mentioned in the text. However, the reliability and utility of these characters would need to be tested with a systematic examination of numerous individuals before they are proposed as a serious criterion to separate the species.

*Asellus aquaticus* – second pleopod round and left and right overlap
*Proasellus meridianus* and *coxalis* – second pleopod elongated and tapering. Left and right lie neatly side by side.

Figure A6. Female 2nd pleopods, in situ.

Figure A7. Female 2nd pleopods.
Male 1st and 2nd pleopods

Figure A8 shows the area of the animal where the pleopods are located and the pair of copulatory styles, which are only present in males and not females. Figure A9 shows the differences in between the pleopods of the three species. These are the most reliable criteria for species identification.

Figure A8. *Asellus aquaticus* - location of male reproductive appendages, appearance in situ.

**Male 1st pleopod** (Figure A9)

*Asellus aquaticus* – first pleopod large, predominantly covering 2nd pleopod. Distal and outer margin with long, feathered hairs. Notch on outer margin.

*Proasellus coxalis* - first pleopod small with long, feathered hairs on outer margin. Partially covering pleopod 2.

*Proasellus meridianus* – first pleopod small with shorter, unfeathered hairs on outer margin. Partially covering pleopod 2.
Male 2nd pleopod (Figure A9)

*Asellus aquaticus* – exopodite rounded and shorter than endopodite. Unfeathered hairs on outer edge of distal segment of exopodite. Longer, feathered hairs on inner edge. Each inner hair has the feathering pointing proximally in the proximal half and distally in the distal half. This is also clearly shown in a diagram in Grüner (1965). In Grüner (1965) these hairs are drawn straight, but in each specimen examined for this study these hairs had a tendency to kink near the middle (Figure A10). Whether this is also true in life is not known. Spur at base of inner margin of endopodite (Figure A9).

*Proasellus coxalis* – Exopodite oval, longer and wider than the endopodite and with long marginal feathered hairs. Fringe of dense, shorter, fine hairs on inner margin of exopodite visible at high magnification.

*Proasellus meridianus* – exopodite elongate and parallel-sided, rounded at the tip with long, feathered hairs. Endopodite always wider and shorter than exopodite.

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Male 1st pereopod (first thoracic leg) (Figure A11)

*Asellus aquaticus* – penultimate distal segment of leg with triangular-shaped outline to ventral margin. Note that this difference can be subtle, even in larger specimens.

*Proasellus meridianus* and *P. coxalis* – penultimate distal segment of leg with gently curved outline to ventral margin.