

1 **Detection of novel and resident marine species using environmental DNA metabarcoding**  
2 **of sediment and water**

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27 **Abstract**

28 Environmental DNA (eDNA) surveys are an increasingly important tool for biodiversity  
29 monitoring, providing unprecedented levels of resolution and sensitivity. Nevertheless, eDNA  
30 studies focussing on the detection of novel and resident species remain rare, and little is known  
31 about the effects that different environmental sample types have on species detectability. Here  
32 we evaluated the ability of eDNA metabarcoding to detect marine species by collecting sediment  
33 and water samples and performing eDNA metabarcoding of 18S rRNA and COI genes. We  
34 detected vastly different species assemblages between the studied environmental samples; with  
35 sediment containing significantly higher number of operational taxonomic units than water. We  
36 then compared the obtained datasets with previously published biodiversity surveys and found  
37 excellent concordance among different survey techniques, as well as novel species  
38 introductions. We conclude that careful consideration of type of environmental sample is needed  
39 when conducting biodiversity monitoring using eDNA, especially for studies focusing on  
40 community change.

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## 53 **Introduction**

54 Anthropogenic activities are causing a global decrease in biodiversity<sup>1,2</sup> that negatively affects  
55 ecosystem services and function<sup>3</sup>. Such impacts create an urgent need for tools that rapidly and  
56 accurately monitor species diversity. Biodiversity surveys have been criticised for their lack of  
57 standardisation and taxonomic resolution<sup>4,5</sup>. One approach that has the potential to overcome  
58 these limitations is the use of nucleic acids found in environmental samples, such as water, soil  
59 or sediment, to infer presence or absence of living organisms in the local environment<sup>6</sup>. This  
60 genetic material, known as environmental DNA (hereafter eDNA), is a poly-disperse mixture of  
61 tissue, cells, subcellular fragments and extracellular DNA lost to the environment by  
62 organisms<sup>7,8</sup>. Studies using eDNA focus on targeted detection (single species) methods such as  
63 qPCR<sup>9-12</sup>, or community (multi-species) methods such as metabarcoding<sup>13-15</sup>. Samples can be  
64 collected with minimal training and once the methodology is optimised, surveys are highly  
65 amenable to automation<sup>16</sup>. Thus, eDNA surveys are highly informative (but see considerations  
66 for ensuring validity and replicability<sup>17</sup>) and can complement other biodiversity monitoring  
67 methods<sup>18</sup>. Recent work has identified a vast range of viable protocols for the collection,  
68 extraction and detection of target nucleic acids from different environmental samples<sup>19-21</sup>.  
69 Despite this, little is known about the effects that different environmental sample types have on  
70 species detectability using eDNA<sup>22</sup>.  
71 Biodiversity monitoring is normally performed by conducting surveys standardised by time and  
72 by reaching a species discovery asymptote<sup>23,24,25</sup>. The results of such surveys often restrict to  
73 species that are being targeted at the time, with no ability to retrospectively separate  
74 erroneously grouped species in light of new discoveries. This is a critically important aspect for  
75 biodiversity monitoring in the sea, mainly because between 9,000-35,000 marine species (2.7%  
76 of the total number of estimated marine species) are considered cryptic (i.e., morphologically  
77 similar but genetically distinct)<sup>26</sup>. Indeed, many widespread sessile marine species contain

78 cryptic lineages as revealed by genetic studies, highlighting the need for an integrated  
79 morphological and genetic approach to accurately detect these species<sup>27,28</sup>.  
80 Non-indigenous species (NIS) are those that have been transported from their native range  
81 through human action into a novel geographic location. The impacts of NIS pose a severe threat  
82 to agriculture, human health and the conservation of ecosystems and biodiversity<sup>29-32</sup>. Most  
83 marine NIS have spread globally via vectors such as transoceanic shipping or the construction  
84 of canals interconnecting large water bodies<sup>33,34</sup>. At fine (10s of km) geographical scales, other  
85 vectors such as intraregional boating significantly enhance the spread and subsequent impact of  
86 NIS<sup>35</sup>. Along coastal areas, studies have highlighted the importance of monitoring marinas and  
87 harbours<sup>23</sup>, as these are hotspots of NIS and together with other marine infrastructure (e.g.  
88 breakwaters, artificial reefs) promote the spread of NIS<sup>36</sup>. In these habitats, NIS often  
89 outcompete native species and dominate artificial hard substrata<sup>37,38</sup>. Marinas and harbours  
90 have distinct ecological and physico-chemical conditions compared to the surrounding natural  
91 environment<sup>39,40</sup>. Consequently, there is a need for specific sampling and surveying protocols to  
92 study both native and NIS in these ecologically distinct environments.  
93 Here we used eDNA metabarcoding to examine how species detection differs between  
94 environmental sample types collected in several distinct marinas. We first documented the  
95 differences in both alpha and beta diversity from sediment and water samples. We then  
96 compared the eDNA metabarcoding results with previously published biodiversity data to identify  
97 key NIS that are both introduced in the study region and / or elsewhere. Subsequently, we  
98 identified a number of previously unrecorded NIS in the study region. Finally we discuss the  
99 strengths and weaknesses of eDNA metabarcoding for detecting marine NIS, and how this  
100 technique can help conservation efforts for both preserving native biodiversity and mitigating the  
101 deleterious effects of NIS.

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## 104 **Results**

### 105 *Raw sequencing results and OTU generation*

106 Sequencing produced a total of 17.8 million paired end reads, with 15.2 million sequences  
107 remaining after paired end read merging and quality filtering. The average number of sequences  
108 per sample after filtering (excluding control samples) was  $200,185 \pm 64,019$  (s.d). No template  
109 control samples contained an average of  $811 \pm 3,402$  (s.d) sequences. One control sample  
110 contained ~15,000 sequences that mapped to an operational taxonomic unit (OTU) that had  
111 100% identity match to a sequence of a terrestrial fungi (Genbank: FJ804151.1), excluding this  
112 OTU gives an average of  $51 \pm 94$  (s.d) sequences per no-template control sample. Denoising  
113 produced 8,069 OTUs for COI and 2,433 for 18S with 6,435 and 1,679 remaining respectively  
114 after LULU curation. Taxonomic annotation identified 622 OTUs from the 18S rRNA dataset  
115 against the SILVA database and 481 OTUs from the COI dataset against the MIDORI database.  
116 Taxonomic data from World Register of Marine Species could be retrieved for 200 of the  
117 annotated COI OTUs and 190 of the 18S OTUs.

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### 119 *Biodiversity detection*

120 The effect of different water eDNA sample preservation techniques differed between the target  
121 amplicons. The 18S rRNA amplicon produced significantly more OTUs in samples preserved by  
122 freezing compared to Longmire's preservation method, while the COI amplicon showed no  
123 significant difference between preservation treatments (see Supplementary Information 2 for  
124 details). As a conservative approach all subsequent analyses used sample data from frozen  
125 samples. The minimum number of reads per sample was 137,624 for the COI dataset and  
126 117,915 for the 18S dataset and so samples were rarefied to this number of reads. More OTUs  
127 in total were detected in the sediment samples compared to the water samples across all sites  
128 and both markers as shown in Figure 1b,d. In all cases, both water and sediment samples  
129 detected unique OTUs but the mean proportion of unique OTUs detected in water was lower

130 (49.2%) in comparison to sediment (73.8%). A 2-way ANOVA testing the effect of eDNA type of  
131 environmental sample on number of OTUs generated indicated a significant effect ( $p < 0.001$ ) of  
132 sample type for both 18S rRNA and COI (See Supplementary Information 3 for full model  
133 output). Ordination plots of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (Fig. 1c,e) showed that OTUs in eDNA found  
134 in sediment and water differ in community structure as much as among sites in ordination space.  
135 Additionally, the PERMANOVA model indicated highly significant differences ( $p < 0.001$ ) between  
136 sites and eDNA medium in both the 18S rRNA and COI datasets. Furthermore, eDNA detection  
137 medium in the PERMANOVA model explained 23.2% and 32.5% of the variation in the 18S and  
138 COI data respectively, while the site explained 34.2% and 30.5% in the COI and 18S rRNA data  
139 (See Supplementary Information 4 for full model output). At phylum level (Figure 2), taxonomy  
140 does not perfectly predict medium of detection, however a binomial goodness of fit test showed  
141 non-random detection proportions in the Nematoda (Bonferroni corrected  $p < 0.001$ ), with eDNA  
142 detections mostly in sediment.

143

#### 144 *Detection of non-indigenous species*

145 In total 22 NIS to the study region and 29 species documented as NIS in other countries were  
146 detected across the four sites (see Supplementary Table 1 for full list). Out of the detected NIS  
147 seven were present in the list of 21 NIS previously detected in manual non-native invertebrate  
148 surveys at the sites. As shown in Figure 3 the results of the eDNA surveys closely matched  
149 those of the manual survey results. Four detections differed from the manual surveys, a single  
150 eDNA detection not seen in RA Surveys and three RA detections not seen in eDNA surveys  
151 (Figure 3). Remapping of cleaned reads from sites with incongruent detections to respective  
152 COI regions (Genbank Accessions: *Austrominius modestus* KY607884; *Bugula neritina*  
153 KY235450; *Ficopomatus enigmatus* KX840011) found hits for *Bugula neritina* only (5 reads from  
154 a single replicate). These reads were lost during data filtering and so did not feature in the final  
155 dataset. A detection of note was 199 reads from the sediment of Site TQ mapping to an OTU

156 corresponding with *Arcuatula senhousia* (Asian date mussel), a novel NIS for the UK. Targeted  
157 visual surveys on tidal mudflats within two kilometres of Marina TQ confirmed the presence of  
158 this species in proximity to the sampling site. Furthermore, we generated COI sequences from  
159 these tissue samples (Genbank Accession: MH924820 and MH924821) and matched to known  
160 *A. senhousia* sequences confirming the eDNA detection of this species (see Supplementary  
161 Information 5 for details of DNA barcoding). Additionally, the nematode *Cephalothrix simula* and  
162 the oligochaete *Paranais frici* were also detected using eDNA at site TQ. Both are novel species  
163 introductions to the United Kingdom, previously undocumented in academic literature.

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## 165 **Discussion**

166 We demonstrated that eDNA from sediment and water samples reveal very different community  
167 composition, suggesting that the collection of multiple environmental sample types provides the  
168 most comprehensive assessment of community composition. We also found that eDNA  
169 metabarcoding shows concordance with published biodiversity surveys for the detection of NIS.  
170 Furthermore, we demonstrated that eDNA metabarcoding can detect novel species  
171 introductions, suggesting that eDNA surveys are an effective tool to significantly reduce the time  
172 between introduction and detection of NIS, and in turn increase the likelihood of successful  
173 control and eradication. Our study shows how different environmental sample types can affect  
174 our understanding of both whole community composition and particular species of concern (e.g.  
175 NIS).

176 The majority of research using eDNA to detect aquatic macrofauna has focused on the  
177 collection of water samples, while sediment samples have received comparatively less attention.  
178 Moreover, sediment has been shown to harbour 8-1800 times more eDNA compared to water  
179 samples in freshwater ecosystems<sup>41</sup>. Here we found dramatic differences in species richness in  
180 sediment and water samples, observing a consistently greater number of OTUs detected in  
181 sediment compared to water. However, our results indicated the opposite trend when

182 considering only fish species; with more fish being detected in seawater samples compared to  
183 sediment samples (6 in water, 1 in sediment and water). Similarly, Shaw *et al.*<sup>22</sup> found that  
184 sediment 12S rRNA metabarcoding detected fewer fish compared to water in a freshwater lotic  
185 environment. More broadly, taxonomy at the level of phylum did not predict if a species was  
186 detected in water, sediment or both environmental sample types (except the Nematoda, whose  
187 members are predominantly benthic inhabitants). Our study showed that at the level of phyla  
188 detection was not significantly different between sediment and water for most taxa. Similarly, we  
189 showed that for most NIS both water or sediment samples served as an excellent media for  
190 detection. Our study suggests that at lower taxonomic level the species-specific ecology of  
191 eDNA (*sensu*<sup>42</sup>) will result in convergent eDNA occupancy in different environmental sample  
192 types, as seen in the case of the fish above. However, further work is needed to clarify how  
193 eDNA partitions into adjacent environmental samples across the tree of life.

194 Current eDNA metabarcoding research has identified large variation in the detected biodiversity  
195 across small spatial scales in both sediment<sup>43</sup> and water<sup>44</sup>. Additionally fractionation of  
196 environmental samples (i.e. sorting samples by particle size class) can produce significant  
197 differences in the metabarcoding results between fractions<sup>45,46</sup> indicating significant variation can  
198 be found within sites. Here we found similar patterns, with site and environmental sample type  
199 containing approximately equivalent OTU biodiversity. Future research should explore how  
200 different sample types and eDNA extraction methods affect the detection of biodiversity,  
201 especially as eDNA metabarcoding moves from an experimental technique to a routine  
202 monitoring tool<sup>47,48</sup>.

203 We found that eDNA metabarcoding of water samples accurately detects many NIS species, as  
204 seen in previous work<sup>13-15</sup>. In comparing our eDNA data to those collected using existing  
205 methods we found close congruence in NIS incidence. The false-negative eDNA detection of *B.*  
206 *neritina* was found to be a result of bioinformatic parameters, identifying that choices made  
207 during sequence processing can have an effect on the detectability of species in eDNA samples.



208 Indeed, this has previously been shown in metabarcoding of bulk tissue samples<sup>49</sup> and work is  
209 urgently needed to determine the effects of bioinformatic parameters, variable primer binding  
210 sites and the role of DNA barcodes in reference databases for the detection of NIS in eDNA  
211 samples. The remaining incongruent detections may be as a result of community turnover  
212 among the survey dates or seasonal phenology. Indeed marine coastal communities have been  
213 shown to shift in community composition across seasons and reproductive cycles<sup>50,51</sup>. It is  
214 therefore recommended to combine eDNA metabarcoding with existing survey methods where  
215 possible, as both approaches provide reciprocal validation data. For example, important NIS  
216 may be missed in surveys based solely on eDNA<sup>e.g. 52</sup>, and eDNA metabarcoding may detect  
217 rare species that are often missed using other type of surveys<sup>53</sup>.

218 In this study we identified several NIS currently unrecorded in the United Kingdom and  
219 confirmed the eDNA detection with targeted local surveys. The case of *A. senhousia* is  
220 particularly relevant as this species is spreading globally<sup>54</sup> and has the potential to dramatically  
221 alter benthic biodiversity when invasive<sup>55,56</sup>. Coincidentally, field surveys along the south coast  
222 of the United Kingdom have recently confirmed the presence of *A. senhousia*<sup>57</sup>. The use of  
223 routine eDNA surveys has the potential to accurately assess the magnitude of the spread of *A.*  
224 *senhousia* along this coast, providing key information for coastal biodiversity managers. Moving  
225 forwards, the detection of NIS could be facilitated through autonomous sampling and eDNA  
226 surveys<sup>16</sup> to provide live species introduction data in introduction hotspots. Additionally combing  
227 these techniques with eDNA biobanking<sup>58</sup> could provide an eDNA reference database for  
228 specific geographical regions that have high biosecurity risk, providing an invaluable resource  
229 for biodiversity managers and researchers to examine the process of invasion through time.

230 Taken together, our study shows how effective eDNA metabarcoding is as monitoring tool of  
231 novel and resident marine species and how it allows for an unprecedented sampling replicability  
232 and accuracy of different environmental sample types.

233

## 234 **Methods**

### 235 *Study sites*

236 Four marinas were selected from around the United Kingdom to represent variation in modelled  
237 invasion potential<sup>59</sup>, known NIS present<sup>60</sup> and surrounding benthic habitat type<sup>61</sup>. Importantly, all  
238 chosen marinas have been surveyed previously for NIS and so there is a good understanding of  
239 the expected NIS in these areas<sup>62,63</sup>. Marina access was contingent on anonymity and so marina  
240 names and exact locations are not presented, Fig. 1a shows approximate locations. Marina *TQ*  
241 is an open marina subject to tides and varying salinity located in Southampton Water on the  
242 north coast of the English Channel. Marina *PQ* is a loch marina open during high tide to the  
243 Bristol Channel and the Celtic Sea. Marina *TB* is located at the mouth of the River Blackwater  
244 open to the North Sea. Marina *HH* is located on the Isle of Anglesey and is open to the Celtic  
245 Sea.

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### 247 *Environmental DNA sampling*

248 Surveys were conducted during May 2017. A total of 24 sampling points were randomly selected  
249 within each site. At each point 50ml of water was collected from 10cm below the surface using a  
250 sterile 60ml Luer lock syringe and filtered through a 0.22mm polyethersulfone Sterivex filter  
251 (Merck Millipore, Massachusetts USA). After collecting seawater from eight locations (400ml  
252 total volume) the filter was changed, resulting in a total of three filters per site. To test the effect  
253 of different sample preservation methods sampling was performed in duplicate. One set of three  
254 filters had ~1.5ml sterile Longmire's solution (100mM Tris, 10mM EDTA, 10mM NaCl, 0.5%  
255 SDS) applied in the inlet valve<sup>64</sup>. The second set of three filters were kept on ice for no longer  
256 than eight hours before being frozen at -20°C. During the surveys, a sediment sample was  
257 collected at the first water sampling site and then after every 3rd water sample, for a total of 9  
258 per site. We used a UWITEC Corer (UWITEC, Mondsee, Austria) to collect a sediment core  
259 (600mm tall x 60mm diameter). Using a sterile disposable spatula, a subsample of 10-20g of

260 sediment was taken from the top 2cm of the core, taking care to avoid sampling the sides of the  
261 core. The subsample was stored in a sterile plastic zip container and kept on ice for no longer  
262 than eight hours before begin frozen at -80°C. Due to equipment malfunction no sediment  
263 sample could be taken for Site HH. Disposable gloves were changed after collection of each  
264 sample. All reused equipment was washed thoroughly and soaked in 10% bleach between sites,  
265 before rinsing in DNase-free sterile water.

266

### 267 *eDNA extraction*

268 DNA extractions were performed in a PCR-free cleanroom, separate from main laboratory  
269 facilities. No high copy templates, cultures or amplicons were permitted in this sterile laboratory.  
270 DNA extractions from water samples followed Spens *et al.*<sup>20</sup> using the SX<sub>CAPSULE</sub> method. Briefly,  
271 preservative solution was removed from the outlet and filters were dried at room temperature for  
272 two hours, 720µl Qiagen buffer ATL (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and 80µl Proteinase K was  
273 added to the filter and all samples were digested overnight at 56°C. After digestion, samples  
274 were processed using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit as per manufacturer  
275 instructions. The final elution was 200µl PCR grade water.

276 Sediment extractions were performed using the Qiagen DNeasy Powermax Soil Kit using the  
277 manufacturer recommended protocol. For each site the nine samples were mixed to form three  
278 pooled samples; for each extraction, 10g of pooled sample was processed. A total of ten  
279 samples were processed, three each per site with a single no blank, as per manufacturer's  
280 instructions.

281

### 282 *Inhibition testing*

283 To ensure extracted DNA was free of PCR inhibitors a Primer Design Real-Time PCR Internal  
284 Control Kit (PrimerDesign, Southampton, UK) was used. qPCR reactions were performed  
285 following the manufacturer's protocol. Inhibition due to co-purified compounds from DNA

286 extraction protocols would produce an increase in cycle threshold number in comparison to no  
287 template controls. All samples were successfully processed and no samples showed indication  
288 of PCR inhibition.

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#### 290 *Primer selection and library preparation*

291 Two sets of primers were chosen for metabarcoding the environmental samples: a 313bp  
292 section of the standard DNA barcoding region of the cytochrome c oxidase subunit I gene (COI)  
293 using primers described in Leray *et al.*<sup>65</sup>; and a variable length target of the hypervariable v4  
294 region of the nuclear small subunit ribosomal DNA (18S) using primers from Zhan *et al.*<sup>66</sup>.  
295 Sequencing libraries were prepared using a 2-step PCR approach as detailed in Bista *et al.*<sup>67</sup>,  
296 this method amplifies the target region in PCR 1 annealing universal adapters onto which  
297 sample specific indices and sequencing primers are annealed in PCR 2. In contrast to Bista *et*  
298 *al.*<sup>67</sup> we used unique dual-matched indexes for PCR 2 to avoid index crosstalk associated with  
299 combinatorial indexing<sup>68</sup>. PCR 1 was prepared in a PCR-free room, separate from main  
300 laboratory facilities. Briefly, PCR 1 reactions were conducted in 20ml volumes containing 10µl  
301 Amplitaq GOLD 360 2X Mastermix (Applied Biosystems, California, USA), 0.8µl (5 nmol ml<sup>-1</sup>) of  
302 each forward and reverse primer and 2µl of undiluted environmental DNA extract. The reaction  
303 conditions for PCR were an initial denaturation step at 95°C for 10 minutes followed by 20  
304 cycles of 95°C for 0:30, variable annealing temp (46°C for COI 50°C for 18S) for 0:30, and  
305 extension at 72°C for 1:00. A final extension at 72°C was performed for 10:00 minutes. The  
306 PCR product was cleaned using AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, California, USA) at a 0.8  
307 beads:sample ratio as manufacturer's instructions. PCR 2 reactions were conducted in 20µl  
308 volumes containing 10µl Amplitaq GOLD 360 2X Mastermix, 0.5µl (10 nmol ml<sup>-1</sup>) of both forward  
309 and reverse primers and 5µl of undiluted cleaned PCR1 product. PCR conditions were an initial  
310 denaturation step at 95°C for 10 minutes followed by 15 cycles of 95°C for 0:30, annealing at  
311 55°C for 0:30, and extension at 72°C for 1:00. A final extension at 72°C was performed for 10:00

312 minutes. PCR 2 products were cleaned using Ampure XP beads as above and normalised  
313 according to their fluorescence using the Qubit HS Assay Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific,  
314 Massachusetts, USA). These normalised samples were pooled into the two PCR targets and the  
315 pools were then quantified as per manufacturer's instructions using the NEBNext Library Quant  
316 qPCR kit (New England Biolabs, Massachusetts, USA).  
317 Blank filters, DNA extraction kits and positive controls were collected, extracted and sequenced  
318 as the experimental treatments (detailed in Supplementary Information 1). Samples were pooled  
319 at an equimolar ratio and sequenced using the Illumina MiSeq instrument (Illumina, San Diego,  
320 USA) with a V3 2 x 300bp kit.

321  
322 *Bioinformatic analyses*  
323 Samples were demultiplexed using the Illumina MiSeq control software (v 2.6.2.1). The  
324 demultiplexed data was analysed using a custom pipeline written in the R programming  
325 language<sup>69</sup> hosted at <https://github.com/leholman/metabarTOAD> the steps are as follows.  
326 Forward and reverse paired end reads were merged using the -fastq\_mergepairs option of  
327 USEARCH v.10.0.240<sup>70</sup> with maximum difference of 15, percent identity of 80% and quality filter  
328 set at maximum expected errors of 1. Both the forward and reverse primer sequences were  
329 matched using Cutadapt v.1.16<sup>71</sup> and only sequences containing both primer regions were  
330 retained. Sequences were discarded if they were outside of a defined length boundary (303-  
331 323bp for COI, 375-450bp for 18S) using Cutadapt. Sequences were then pooled, singletons  
332 were discarded and sequences were quality filtered with a maximum expected error of 1 using  
333 the -fastq\_filter option of vsearch v.2.4.3<sup>72</sup>. Sequences were then denoised and chimeras filtered  
334 using the unoise3 algorithm implemented in USEARCH. The resultant operational taxonomic  
335 units (OTUs) were curated using the LULU package v.0.1.0 in R<sup>73</sup>. An OTU by sample table was  
336 produced by mapping the merged and trimmed reads against the curated OTUs using  
337 USEARCH, with the raw query read assigned to the OTU with the best match (highest e value)

338 within 97% identity. The OTU x sample table was filtered in R as follows. To minimise the  
339 chance of spurious OTUs being included in the final dataset any record with less than 3 raw  
340 reads were changed to zero and any OTU that did not appear in more than one sample was  
341 removed from the analysis. OTUs found in negative controls were removed from the analysis.

342

#### 343 *Taxonomic assignment*

344 Assigning correct taxonomy to an unknown set of marine sequences can be challenging as  
345 large databases require vast computational resources for query matching; many databases  
346 contain errors and the taxonomy of some marine groups is uncertain. With such limitations in  
347 mind, we assigned taxonomy using a BLAST v.2.6.0+ search<sup>74</sup> returning the single best hit  
348 (largest e value) from databases within 97% of the query using a custom R script to parse the  
349 raw blast results. The MIDORI database (UNIQUE\_20180221)<sup>75</sup> was used for the COI data and  
350 the SILVA database (SSU r132)<sup>76</sup> was used for the 18S rRNA data. The match taxa tool from  
351 the World Register of Marine Species<sup>77</sup> was used to filter the data for marine species and check  
352 the classification. Remaining annotations were checked against the World Register of  
353 Introduced Marine Species<sup>78</sup> to determine non-indigenous status.

354

#### 355 *Statistical analyses*

356 All statistical analyses were conducted in R v3.5.0. The Vegan R package v.2.5.2<sup>79</sup> was used to  
357 rarefy samples to the minimum sample read depth for each amplicon. The number of OTUs per  
358 site/condition was calculated as the number of OTUs with a non-zero number of normalized  
359 reads after summing the reads across all three site level replicates. To test if there was a  
360 significant difference between the number of OTUs generated by sediment and water eDNA,  
361 individual non-summed replicate sample data was used to build a two-way ANOVA model with  
362 the formula *number\_of\_OTUs~sedimentorwater\*site* implemented in R using the function *aov()*.  
363 Non-metric multidimensional scaling ordination plots were generated from Bray-Curtis

364 dissimilarity values derived using Vegan. A Permutation Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA)<sup>80</sup>  
365 was performed using the Bray Curtis dissimilarity following the model  
366 *dissimilarity\_matrix~sedimentorwater\*site* implemented in R using the function *adonis* from the  
367 *vegan* package. OTUs with taxonomic assignment were separated into those found in sediment,  
368 water or both media and the OTUs were then collapsed at the Phylum level to explore  
369 taxonomic patterns of detection in water or sediment. Phyla with less than eight OTUs were  
370 combined. To test for non-random counts of species detection between water and sediment  
371 within taxa an exact binomial test was performed between counts of species detected in water  
372 and sediment. Half the number of counts for species detected in both water and sediment were  
373 added to water and sediment, with non-integer values conservatively rounded down to the  
374 nearest whole number. A Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons was applied across the  
375 p values from the exact binomial tests. Records from manual surveys previously conducted for  
376 non-native invertebrates at the sample sites<sup>60,62,81,82</sup> were compared with the detected species  
377 from metabarcoding data.

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601

602 **Competing Interests**

603 The authors declare no competing interests.

604

605 **Author Contributions**

606 L.E.H. and M.R. designed the experiment, L.E.H. collected samples, generated and analysed  
607 the data, designed all figures and wrote the first draft of the paper. All authors contributed  
608 critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

609

610 **Data accessibility**

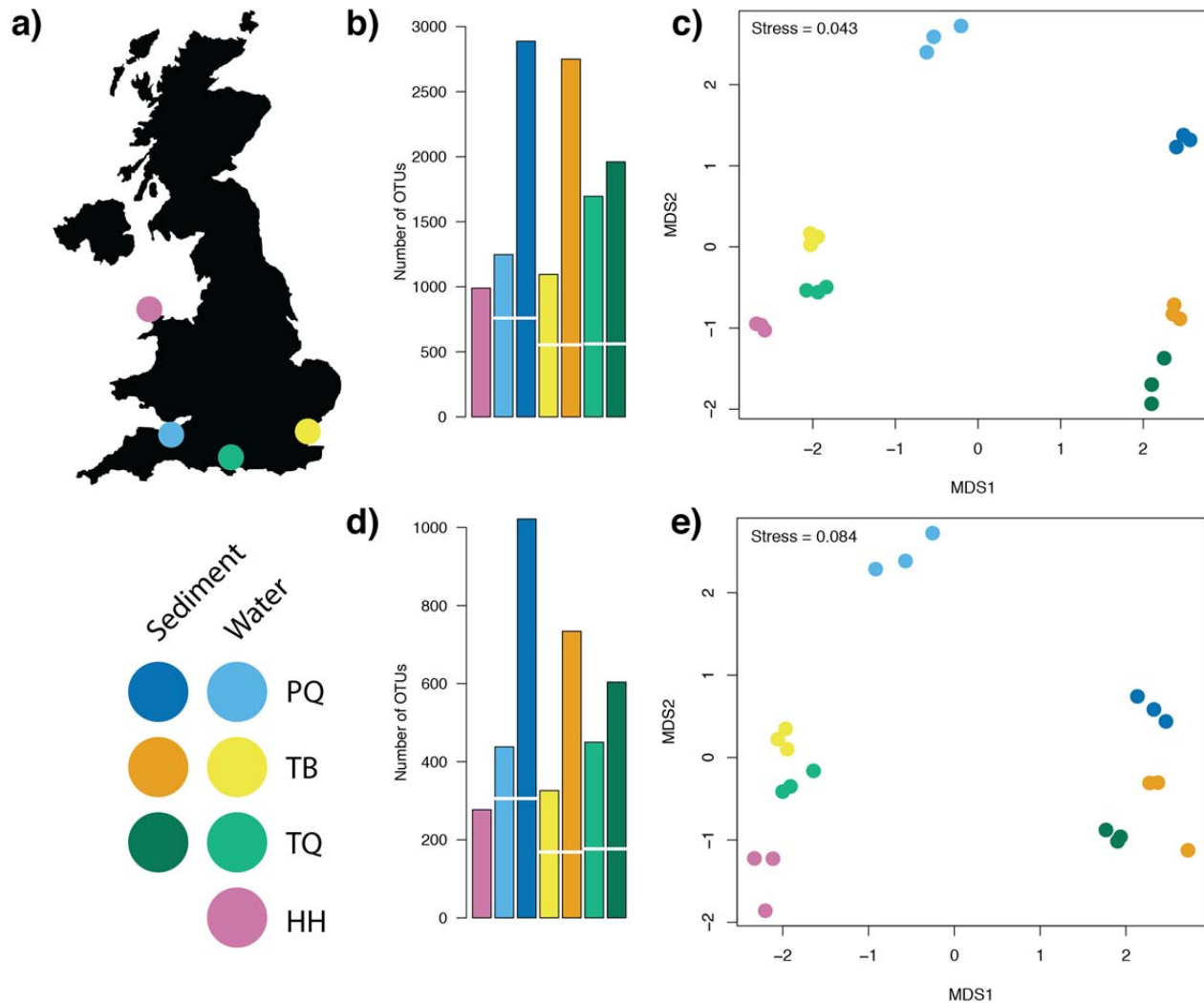
611 Raw Illumina sequencing data is available from the European Nucleotide Archive under  
612 accession number (data will be uploaded upon acceptance, available to reviewers upon  
613 request).

614 Associated metadata, script and intermediate files can be found on GitHub with the following

615 DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.1453959.

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619 **Fig. 1.** a) Map of United Kingdom indicating the geographic position of the sampled sites, a legend is

620 provided below indicating the four sites (PQ, TB, TQ and HH) and colours for water and sediment eDNA

621 samples for each site. Barplots detailing number of OTUs detected across sampling sites and eDNA

622 sample type for COI b) and 18S rRNA d) metabarcoding of UK marinas, the break in bars indicates the

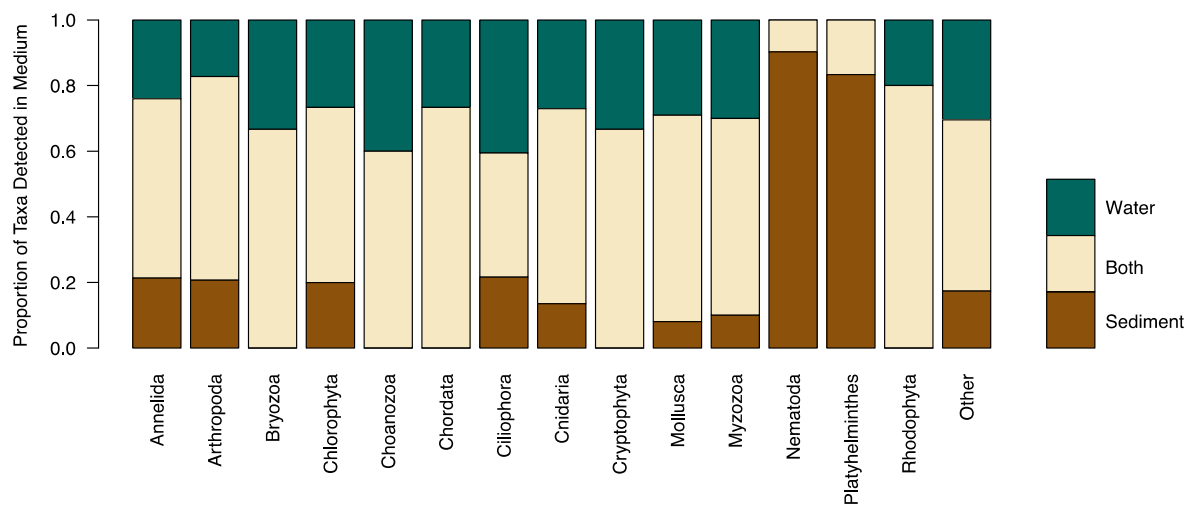
623 number of shared OTUs between sediment and water eDNA samples. Non-metric multidimensional

624 scaling ordination plots based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarities between: c) COI and e) 18S rRNA

625 metabarcoding of marina sediment and water eDNA samples.

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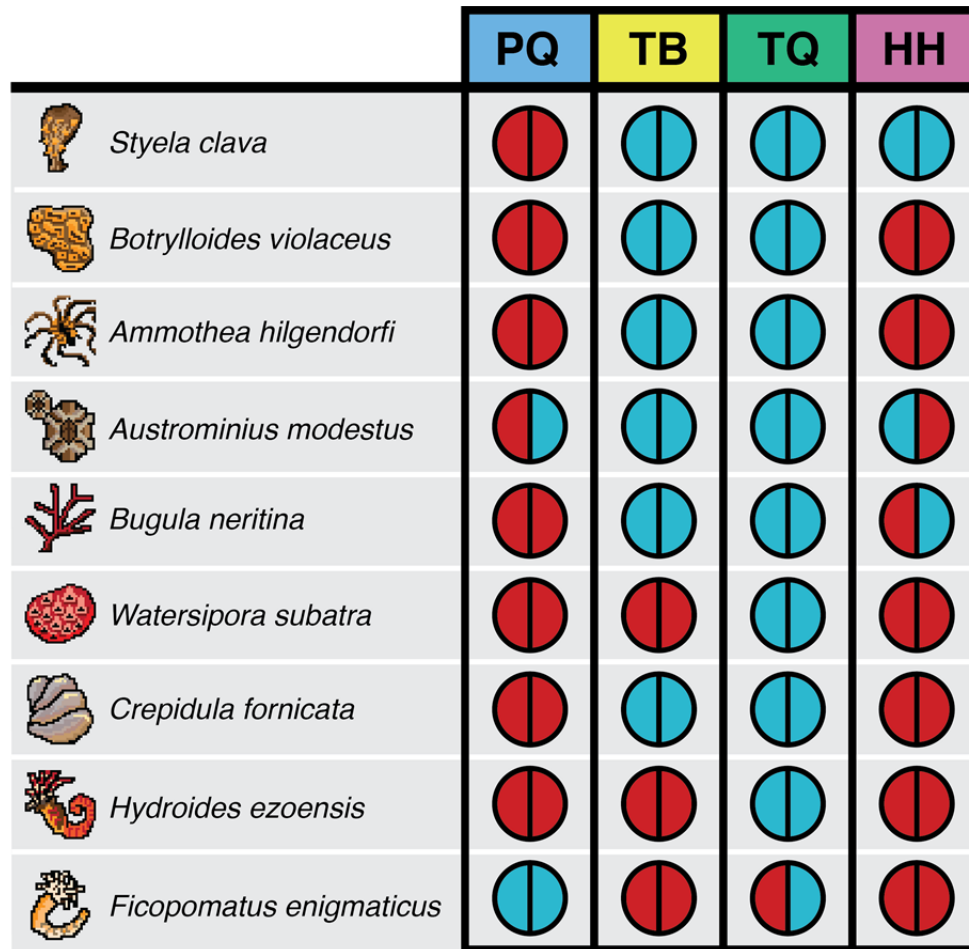
627



628  
629 **Fig. 2.** Horizontal stacked bar chart detailing proportion of OTUs detected in eDNA from sediment, water  
630 or both sediment and water across the top 14 phyla for pooled 18S rRNA and COI metabarcoding of UK  
631 marinas.

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636 **Fig. 3.** Presence absence diagram for seven non-indigenous species across four sampling sites. For each

637 species-location the left semi-circle indicates the detection using eDNA metabarcoding surveys of 18S

638 rRNA and COI fragments, and the right semi-circle indicates the detection from Rapid Assessment

639 surveys. Blue indicates a positive detection for that species-location and red indicates no detection.

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