Environmental DNA genetic monitoring of the nuisance freshwater diatom, *Didymosphenia geminata*, in eastern North American streams

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ABSTRACT

**Aim** Establishing the distribution and diversity of populations in the early stages of invasion when populations are at low abundance is a core challenge for conservation biologists. Recently, genetic monitoring for environmental DNA (eDNA) has become an effective approach for the early detection of invaders, especially for microscopic organisms where visual detection is challenging. *Didymosphenia geminata* is a globally distributed freshwater diatom that shows a recent emergence of nuisance blooms, but whose native versus exotic status in different areas has been debated. We address the hypothesis that the distribution and genetic diversity of *D. geminata* in eastern North America is related to the recent introduction of non-native lineages, and contrast that with the alternative hypothesis that *D. geminata* is cryptically native to the region (i.e. at low abundance) and only forms nuisance blooms when triggered by a change in environment.

**Location** The Mid-Atlantic region of North America.

**Methods** We analysed 118 stream samples for *D. geminata* eDNA, validated our results for a subset of sites using direct visual enumeration by microscopy and used molecular cloning to sequence *D. geminata* from two sites where eDNA was detected.

**Results** (1) *D. geminata* eDNA was detected at seven spatially unique sites, six of which were previously documented to contain recent *D. geminata* blooms. (2) Sites where *D. geminata* eDNA was detected exhibited no difference in environmental conditions compared to sites with no-detected *D. geminata* eDNA. (3) Sequencing of *D. geminata* eDNA showed that blooms were composed of multiple genetic lineages, closely related to those sampled elsewhere across the globe.

**Main conclusions** We interpret these results as most consistent with the hypothesis that *D. geminata* is an exotic invader in the Mid-Atlantic region, still in its early stages of invasion; thus, genetic monitoring and management efforts may still be effective at controlling its spread.

**Keywords** diatom, Didymo, environmental DNA, genetic diversity, harmful algal blooms, invasive species.

INTRODUCTION

The study of biological invasions is replete with examples of long-distance dispersal of a non-native species to a new biogeographic region, where it increases in abundance and expands its range (Wilson *et al.*, 2009; Blackburn *et al.*, 2011). While less common, it is also recognized that invasiveness may emerge in native species due to a change in
ecological conditions or interspecific interactions in its historical range, often the result of human-mediated environmental change (Valéry et al., 2008; Buczkowski, 2010; Carey et al., 2012). Distinguishing between these scenarios is key to understanding the biogeography of invasiveness and its ecological underpinnings, and may have direct impact on how invasions are managed.

The introduction of a non-native exotic versus the ecological release of a native endemic is likely to produce differences in the distribution, abundance and genetic diversity of newly emerging invasions. If invasiveness is due to the recent introduction of a non-native, we would expect established populations near the introduction site(s) as well as other suitable sites that have not yet been colonized, and genetic diversity at invaded sites that is shared with distant geographic regions. On the other hand, if invasiveness is due to a subset of native populations increasing in density or aggressiveness in response to a change in environment, we would expect a wider distribution of occupied sites where environments are suitable, with higher abundance ‘invasive’ populations at sites where environmental conditions promote the transition to invasiveness. Depending on the phylogeographic history of the species, a native species transitioning to higher abundance is also more likely to contain geographically restricted or endemic genetic diversity. Both scenarios underscore the need for distributional data coupled with genetic monitoring to identify the likely origins of invasiveness.

For newly emerging invasions, the ability to rapidly and accurately monitor the presence of the invader is essential. However, native populations at low abundance or introduced populations at the earliest stages of invasion can be difficult to detect with traditional monitoring such as visual assessments. Recently, the spread of invasive species has been facilitated by genetic monitoring for environmental DNA (eDNA; e.g. DNA sloughed off by organisms into their environment) (Lodge et al., 2012). Monitoring of eDNA has become an effective approach for the early detection of invaders such as the Asian carp in aquatic ecosystems (Jerde et al., 2011), as it can detect the presence of the invader even when the population is small and visual detection may be difficult (Darling & Mahon, 2011).

*Didymosphenia geminata* (Lyngbye) M. Schmidt 1899 is a globally distributed freshwater diatom that is an emerging invasive species in rivers and streams. Its invasiveness stems from the ability to form nuisance blooms in cool, nutrient-poor waters that are prime habitat for trout and other game and non-game fish (Spaulding & Elwell, 2007; Sundareshwar et al., 2011). Impacts to base trophic levels (Gillis & Lavoie, 2014) and primary consumers (Rost & Fritsen, 2014) have also been documented, which together represent a conservation threat to the diversity, functioning, and recreational use of aquatic ecosystems.

The native range of *D. geminata* is considered to be Asia, northern Europe and North America (Blanco & Ector, 2009), but its status as an introduced invader in different geographic regions is debated, with direct implications for how *D. geminata* is managed (Taylor & Bothwell, 2014, 2015; Bergey & Spaulding, 2015). In New Zealand, recent blooms are clearly the result of human introductions, possibly dispersed by anglers (Kilroy et al., 2009). In North America, species distribution models based on bioclimatic data support the Pacific Northwest and large regions of the Rocky Mountains as suitable habitat for *D. geminata*, but models predict a narrower suitable region in eastern North America (Kumar et al., 2009), calling into question whether *D. geminata* is historically native to this region or more recently introduced and spreading. Historical surveys and palaeolimnological evidence from sediment cores support the presence of *D. geminata* dating back to the late 19th and early 20th centuries in the Pacific Northwest and Rocky Mountains (Kumar et al., 2009; Taylor & Bothwell, 2014). Palaeolimnological records from Quebec show absence of *D. geminata* prior to ~1970, followed by rapid increase in abundance to present time (Lavery et al., 2014). In the Mid-Atlantic region, historical presence of *D. geminata* was noted from sediment deposits of the Delaware River in the vicinity of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania (Boyer, 1916, 1927). Modern blooms of *D. geminata* were first observed in 2006 in Virginia, and blooms have since been reported in Maryland (Gunpowder Falls, Lower Savage River, North Branch Potomac River, Big Hunting Creek), Pennsylvania (Delaware and Youghiogheny rivers, Pine Creek), Virginia (Smith, Jackson and Pound rivers) and West Virginia (Elk River, Glady Fork, Gandy and Seneca creeks).

In this study, we establish a genetic monitoring programme for *D. geminata* to determine the distribution and genetic diversity of this bloom-forming diatom in eastern North America, where its native status is unclear. Using a combination of eDNA monitoring and visual enumeration of *D. geminata* from benthic samples, we address the hypothesis that *D. geminata* invasion is caused by introduction of non-native populations that form nuisance blooms where they have established. This would indicate that the current distribution of *D. geminata* is not in equilibrium with the availability of suitable habitat, and thus has opportunity to continue spreading. We contrast this with the alternative hypothesis that *D. geminata* is native to the region and is widespread but at low abundance (i.e. below visual detection), and only forms nuisance blooms under favourable environmental conditions. In addition, we establish the genetic diversity of *D. geminata* in the region to assess whether blooms (1) contain diversity endemic to the region, (2) reflect the occurrence and spread of a clonal invasive genotype or (3) contain a diverse assemblage of genotypes that is shared with other *D. geminata* blooms globally.

**METHODS**

**Field sampling**

We collected stream water samples for eDNA analysis from mid-Atlantic streams in Maryland and Pennsylvania. Field
sampling of 76 Maryland stream sites occurred during March, April and May of 2014. We sampled first- through third-order streams across Maryland, spanning diverse physiographic regions (Appalachian Plateau, Ridge and Valley, Eastern Piedmont and Atlantic Coastal Plain geographic provinces). Among these were three-third-order streams known previously from visual surveys to currently or in the recent past contain D. geminata: Gunpowder Falls, Big Hunting Creek in Catoctin Mountain Park and the lower Savage River below Savage River Reservoir (R. Klauda, K. Hana, & T. Gardeur, unpublished data). Additional field sampling of 26 Pennsylvania stream sites (third through seventh order) occurred in 2014 (16 samples) and 2015 (26 samples). Sixteen of the 42 total samples collected in Pennsylvania were collected in April 2014 from sites in the Pine Creek watershed. Those same 16 sites were sampled in the Pine Creek watershed again in April 2015, as were eight additional sites spread throughout the Pennsylvania portion of the Susquehanna River drainage. We also sampled two sites in the Ohio River drainage in south-west Pennsylvania from the Youghiogheny River in July 2015.

Field sampling for eDNA consisted of deploying a plankton drift net with 35-µm mesh, fitted with a 250-µm-mesh pre-filter, in the centre of the stream channel for sufficient duration to filter a target volume of >10,000 L (Fig. 1) (Cary et al., 2006). Duration time was calculated based on flow velocity measurements taken at the depth of the sampling net. The resulting sample was preserved in 500 mL of 70% ethanol and brought back to the laboratory within 48 h where it was stored at –20 °C until extraction. The entire field sampling apparatus was disinfected between sites with 5% bleach following established standards (Cary et al., 2006), and waders were soaked in a 2% Virkon solution for at least 1 min.

In addition to plankton drift net samples for eDNA, we collected water chemistry data that included total phosphorus, soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP), pH, nitrate, sulphate, chloride and specific conductance, which are thought to be predictive of D. geminata distribution or abundance (Kilroy & Bothwell, 2011; Bothwell et al., 2014; Bray et al., 2016). At Maryland sites, a 1 L grab sample of stream water was collected for laboratory chemical analyses at the Appalachian Laboratory (University of Maryland Center for Environmental Science), using standard protocols for each analyte (American Public Health Association (APHA), 2005). At most Pennsylvania sites, depth-integrated water samples were collected across a transect perpendicular to flow. Samples were composited into a churn-splitter, bottled and sent to ALS Environmental Laboratory (Middletown, Pennsylvania) for chemical analysis within 24 h. Specific conductance was measured using a YSI 6600 data sonde. For compatibility with the Maryland water chemistry data, we restricted analysis of Pennsylvania water chemistry to the sampling that occurred closest in time to the D. geminata eDNA sample for a given site.

All eDNA samples were processed at the Appalachian Laboratory using a strict QC pipeline and implementing a D. geminata-specific eDNA protocol based on quantitative real-time PCR (hereafter, qPCR) (Cary et al., 2014). The D. geminata qPCR protocol is highly sensitive and capable of detecting D. geminata abundance as low as 1 cell per mL of plankton tow net sample (Cary et al., 2006). We implemented stringent procedures designed to minimize the risk of both false positives (D. geminata being detected when it was in fact absent) and false negatives (failure to detect D. geminata when it is in fact present) in eDNA testing. Samples were assigned internal tracking codes for blind processing without regard to sample origin, and each round of extraction included a ‘reagent blank’ negative control. We also controlled for variation in the efficiency of DNA extraction from environmental samples and the presence of PCR inhibitors (Uyua et al., 2014; Jones et al., 2015) by including the addition of exogenous control DNA, which allowed us to

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**Figure 1** Images of field sampling for *Didymosphenia geminata*. Upper: plankton drift net deployed to sample 10,000 L of water for eDNA (photo credit: S. Keller); lower: substrate colonized by *D. geminata* in stream (photo credit: M. Shank).
assess the efficiency of the extraction procedure (Cary et al., 2014). After testing several protocols, we used the MoBio PowerSoil DNA isolation kit for all samples, which produced 100% amplification efficiency of exogenous control DNA in all reactions (see section “Results”). During extraction, eDNA samples were homogenized by shaking, and a 1 mL aliquot was transferred to a 1.5-mL microcentrifuge tube. Tubes were spun at 8000 g for 4 min to pellet cells, and residual ethanol was decanted. Pellets were washed with 1 mL of sterile water, re-centrifuged and decanted as above and resuspended in 100 μL of sterile water. The sample pellet was mixed thoroughly and then transferred to a MoBio bead tube for disruption by vortexing for 20 min at maximum speed. eDNA was then extracted following the manufacturer’s instructions, with two additional modifications. First, we spiked each sample with control plasmid DNA mixed in with the MoBio C1 buffer solution. Following Cary et al. (2014), this control DNA consisted of 300 ng per sample of pGEM-3Z plasmid vector (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). Second, to obtain optimal cell lysis following disruption, we added 20 μL of proteinase K (20 mg mL⁻¹) and incubated with shaking (170 rpm) at 55 °C for 60 min. Extracted samples were quantified for total eDNA concentration using the Qubit BR assay (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), and stored at −80 °C until further analysis.

Extracted eDNA was used as template for qPCR using D. geminata-specific primers and probe based on the nuclear 18S ribosomal RNA gene (rDNA) (Cary et al., 2014). All qPCR assays were performed using two technical replicates for each target (D. geminata and pGEM; a total of four qPCRs per sample), which consisted of duplicate reactions originating from the same eDNA extraction. Reactions were performed in 20 μL volumes consisting of 10 μL 2X TaqMan Fast Universal PCR Master Mix, 1.8 μL of 10 μM forward primer D602F (5'-GTTGGATTGTTGAGCAATTTGAA-3'), 1.8 μL of 10 μM reverse primer D753R (5'-AATAGATCCATCGACGTAAGTC-3'), 0.5 μL of 10 μM custom TaqMan D. geminata probe D641FAM (5'-FAM-CACCCAGGGATGACGTTTTCTGA-MGB-3'), 0.4 μL ROX dye and 2 μL of purified DNA template. Equivalent reactions were set up for the pGEM exogenous DNA controls, substituting the following primers: forward primer M13 (5'-CCCAGTCAGGACGTTGGTAAACG-3'), reverse primer pGEMR (5'-TGTGTGGAGATTGTTGAGGCGGA-3') and a custom TaqMan pGEM probe (5'-RFAM-CACCCAGGGATGACGTTTTCTGA-MGB-3'). Primer and probe sequences were based on Cary et al. (2007).

Each qPCR was run on a StepOnePlus qPCR thermal cycler (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) using the following settings: 50 °C for 2 min, 95 °C for 20 s, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C for 3 s and 60 °C for 30 s. Negative controls (sterile water) were included for each run, as well as a positive control stream sample (SAVA-REF1-14) that showed amplification of D. geminata eDNA during initial testing. A site was considered as D. geminata-positive based on eDNA detection when the relative fluorescence ($R_S$) of the reporter exceeded the baseline threshold ($R_S > 0.1$ on a log scale; Fig. 2).

**Benthic diatom sampling and direct cell counts**

To determine the correspondence between D. geminata detection based on eDNA versus direct cell counts under microscopy, we collected diatom samples using a modified Rapid Bioassessment Protocol (Barbour & Gerritsen, 1999). At each site, 11 pieces of natural substrate were removed from the stream across a transect perpendicular to flow. Benthic algae within a 12-cm² section from each substrate piece (132 cm² in total) was disturbed using a soft brush, rinsed into a composite sample bottle, and sample volume was recorded. A 50 mL subsample was then extracted and preserved with formaldehyde. All diatom sample processing procedures followed The Academy of Natural Sciences protocol (Charles et al., 2002), and presence/absence of D. geminata was determined for each sample using microscopic examination. Benthic sampling overlapped eDNA sampling at 19 sites, consisting of 23 samples collected in the Susquehanna drainage in Pennsylvania in 2014 and 2015. While eDNA and benthic samples were spatially co-located at these sites, the sampling time often differed for logistical reasons; time between eDNA and benthic sampling ranged from 0 to 187 days, with a mean of 122 days. This effect would be expected to decrease any association between eDNA and microscopic analysis of D. geminata, making an observed association conservative.

**Molecular cloning and DNA sequencing of positive sites**

We cloned and sequenced D. geminata eDNA from two Maryland samples (Lower Savage River and Gunpowder Falls) that successfully amplified D. geminata during qPCR. The objective here was to confirm the genetic identity of D. geminata in eDNA samples that tested positive, and estimate their diversity.

Diversity was assessed by molecular cloning and sequencing of D. geminata for the 18S and 5.8S subunits of rDNA, including the internal transcribed spacer (ITS1 and ITS2) variable regions. We followed the protocol of Cary et al. (2007) and used the primers D602F (5'-GTTGGATTGTTGAGCAATTTGAA-3') and ITS4R (5'-TTCCTCGGATTGATATGC-3') to PCR-amplify from DNA extractions that tested positive during qPCR. PCR products were then cloned using the TOPO-TA cloning kit (Invitrogen). Positive clones were selected, PCR-amplified, cleaned with ExoSAP and sequenced on an ABI 3130xl at the West Virginia University genomics core using the pair of PCR primers as well as two additional internal sequencing primers (D1659F: 5'-GC TGGGATTGAGCACTAAGAGGCA-3'; and D1670R: 5'-CACCAGTTAGCGCTAAGGCAATTGCTG-3') to generate a maximum overlapping region of approximately 1700 bp.
Analysis of the sequences proceeded by trimming all reads of low-quality bases. Contigs were assembled among overlapping reads, and multiple sequence alignment was carried out using the Muscle algorithm (Edgar, 2004) implemented in GENEIOUS v.7.1.7 (Kearse et al., 2012). Singleton (polymorphisms present in only a single sequenced clone) and alignment gaps due to indels were treated as missing data. We used maximum likelihood (ML) in the MEGA7 software (Kumar et al., 2016) to construct a phylogeny of our D. geminata sequences that overlapped with previously published sequences of Didymosphenia and closely related diatom species used as outgroups (Table 1). Of the 1700 bp sequenced, a 951-bp section of the alignment overlapped with the accesses listed in Table 1 and was analysed for phylogenetic relationships. We selected the Tamura 3-parameter + gamma model of molecular evolution based on the minimum Bayesian Information Criterion from model testing. Support for nodal relationships was assessed with 500 bootstrap replicates. We also assessed relationships among sequences using haplotype networks constructed with the statistical parsimony method using the PEGAS package in R (Paradis, 2010). We made one network on the same 951-bp alignment used above for phylogeny building, but restricted our inclusion of outgroups to the closely related Cymbella proxima (GenBank accession AM502017). A second network was constructed using 662 bp of the more highly variable 3’ end of the alignment, for which only data from sequenced clones generated during this study were available. Lastly, nucleotide diversity within D. geminata-positive sites from the Lower Savage River (SAVA) and Gunpowder Falls (GUN) was computed on the 662-bp alignment in MEGA based on the Tamura 3-parameter + gamma model, with standard errors estimated from 1000 bootstrap replicates. All new sequences have been submitted to GenBank (accession numbers KY421425-KY421452).

Didymosphenia presence in relation to water chemistry

We used the eDNA results to determine whether D. geminata-positive sites were characterized by differences in water chemistry. Due to the small number of sites containing D. geminata, we implemented a bootstrap resampling approach to test for associations with water chemistry. We ran 10,000 iterations that randomly subsampled the D. geminata-negative sites with replacement to extract a sample size equal to that of Didymosphenia-positive sites, and calculated the mean value of each variable per iteration. This generated...
a distribution of 10,000 mean values for the randomly subsampled sites. If the observed mean value for D. geminata-positive sites fell within the 95% quantiles of the randomized distribution, we concluded that D. geminata-positive sites did not differ in water chemistry from negative sites.

RESULTS

Distribution of D. geminata eDNA

We collected 118 samples of stream water from 102 unique sites across our study region (Table S1). This represented > 1.8 million L of filtered stream water (range across sites: 8494–29,620 L; mean per site = 15,681 L) to test for the distribution of D. geminata eDNA in Mid-Atlantic streams. From this extensive regional assessment, we identified only seven positive sites (i.e. where D. geminata eDNA was detected) (Fig. 3). Of these, six sites were known previously to form visual blooms (Klauda et al., 2013; Shank et al., 2016), while one site tested positive for eDNA with no prior history of observed blooms (Trout Run; see below). An additional site, Big Hunting Creek, MD, was known to form blooms previously (2012), but was negative for D. geminata eDNA in 2014; importantly, visual blooms were also not observed at Big Hunting Creek during 2014 (L. Donaldsen, personal communication).

Two of the sites that tested positive for D. geminata eDNA were in Maryland, and both were in streams where visual blooms have been observed: the Lower Savage River below the Savage River reservoir, and Gunpowder Falls below Prettyboy Reservoir (Klauda et al., 2013). Within Pennsylvania samples, we detected D. geminata eDNA at Pine Creek 13.7 km upstream from the town of Blackwell (2014 and 2015), the West Branch of Pine Creek (2014 and 2015) and two samples from the Youghiheney River: (1) downstream of the dam in Confluence, PA, and (2) the Ramcat boat launch downstream of the confluence with the Casselman River (both sampled in 2015 only). An additional Pennsylvania site, Trout Run (only sampled in 2015), tested positive for eDNA in one of two sample duplicates. The qPCR assay was repeated for Trout Run a second time and similarly resulted in one of two sample duplicates testing positive (for a total of two out of four reactions amplifying across both rounds of analysis). We interpret this as presence of D. geminata in Trout Run at very low abundance, given the stringent QC procedures to ensure lack of false positives, but also emphasize that this result should be interpreted cautiously until further sampling can confirm D. geminata presence.

Didymosphenia presence in benthic samples

Of 23 benthic samples from 19 sites collected across the Susquehanna drainage in Pennsylvania, D. geminata was detected in four samples from two sites in the Pine Creek watershed, all of which also tested positive for D. geminata eDNA (Table S1). In 22 of the 23 samples (96%), benthic and eDNA techniques were in accordance, either both positive or both negative for the presence of D. geminata. The exception was Trout Run, where eDNA suggested D. geminata presence, but benthic sampling was negative.

Didymosphenia geminata association with water chemistry

Sites positive for D. geminata eDNA did not differ from negative sites for any water chemistry variables (Fig. 4). Unlike previous findings that showed an association between D. geminata blooms and SRP levels < 1–2 ppb (Bothwell et al., 2014), our analysis showed that total phosphorus and SRP levels of D. geminata-positive sites were near the middle of the randomized distributions, and ≫2 ppb. Sulphate was the only variable in D. geminata-positive streams that was near the tail of the randomized distribution, but the location of the observed mean in the lower quantile was opposite to the prediction that D. geminata benefits from sulphate during blooms (Rost et al., 2011).

Genetic diversity of D. geminata-positive sites

We sequenced a fragment of the rDNA locus from two sites positive for D. geminata eDNA in MD (Lower Savage River, SAVA, and Gunpowder Falls, GUN). For each site, we used molecular cloning to isolate and sequence samples (e.g. 'clones') of amplified D. geminata eDNA, totalling 28 sequenced clones across both sites. We obtained full-length sequences of 1700 bp for six clones from each sampling site.
Figure 3  Map of sampling sites with *D. geminata* present (red squares and labelled) and absent (yellow circles). Drainage basins and major rivers within the study region are indicated. Sites labelled as ‘Didymo Present’ (red squares) indicate where *D. geminata* eDNA was detected. In all such sites, *D. geminata* has also been observed forming visual blooms, except for Trout Run (eDNA detected, but no visual blooms).
We compared these sequences to a *D. geminata* sequence deposited in GenBank (accession number KT072999) for the 951-bp where there was sequence overlap. The average pairwise identity between our sequences and the GenBank accession was 99.99%, whereas the average identity between our sequences versus an outgroup (*Cymbella proxima*; AM502017) was 97.86%, confirming that our eDNA samples are most likely *D. geminata* and not another related diatom.

The six fully sequenced clones overlapped for 951 bp with other published sequences from *Didymosphenia* and closely related diatoms (Table 1). The ML phylogeny for this set of samples returned a monophyletic *Didymosphenia* group with strong bootstrap support (98%; Fig. 5a). Intraspecific diversity within *Didymosphenia* was present, but topological relationships were not strongly supported (bootstrap values 64–65%). Mid-Atlantic samples (GUN and SAVA) clustered with sequences from Colorado, Italy and New Zealand (Fig. 5a). These relationships were also seen in the haplotype network, in which a *D. geminata* accession from Italy shared a haplotype with eight clones, while *D. geminata* accessions from New Zealand and Colorado, USA, shared a haplotype with three clones (Fig. 5b). Haplotypes of *D. geminata* and *D. dentata* from Russia were not shared with any other samples.

For all 28 GUN and SAVA clones, we were able to obtain sequence for a 662-bp subset of the alignment. Genetic diversity for this subset consisted of four single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) present in >1 sequence, with minor allele frequencies ranging from 0.107 to 0.429. These SNPs defined a network of six haplotypes, which showed that *D. geminata* does not occur as a single, clonal strain in our region, but rather constitutes multiple genetic strains across the two sites (Fig. 6). Sites had similar levels of haplotype richness (five haplotypes per site; four haplotypes shared across both sites; Fig. 6) and nucleotide diversity (GUN: $\pi = 0.002 \pm 0.001$; SAVA: $\pi = 0.001 \pm 0.001$).

**DISCUSSION**

In eastern North America, recent nuisance blooms have called into question whether *D. geminata* is a human-introduced exotic or a native member of the indigenous diatom community that has recently become problematic due to a change in environment or emergence of a novel genetic strain. We conducted an extensive sampling of
streams to determine the distribution, environmental associations and genetic diversity of *D. geminata* in the Mid-Atlantic. Our dual approach of eDNA analysis for rapid determination of *D. geminata* presence, along with more traditional but labour-intensive microscopic analysis of benthic samples, returned highly consistent results. We have shown that *D. geminata* is not currently widespread at low abundance, nor does it generally occur in streams that lack evidence of blooms, as would be predicted for an indigenous species that only increases in abundance under favourable conditions. Rather, *D. geminata* is confined to a few sites mostly known previously from visual detection of nuisance blooms, and its absence from sites where conditions appear favourable (cool, nutrient-poor waters) suggests its distribution is not at equilibrium in the region. Furthermore, we demonstrate that *D. geminata* consists of multiple strains that are phylogenetically related to *D. geminata* sampled in Colorado, Italy and New Zealand. We discuss these results in the light of how genetic monitoring and diversity data can help inform questions about the distributional status of newly emerging nuisance species.

**Is *D. geminata* an exotic invasive species in eastern North America?**

While not definitive on the question of invasive status, we interpret our results as most consistent with *D. geminata* being an exotic invader in the Mid-Atlantic. Both eDNA and benthic data clearly indicate that *D. geminata* is not widespread in the region, despite availability of environmental conditions within its tolerance levels (Kumar et al., 2009; Bothwell et al., 2014). This is less consistent with the hypothesis that *D. geminata* is a native species that only forms blooms when triggered by a shift in environment. Rather, eDNA, microscopic analysis of benthic samples and previous visual surveys all are highly congruent in showing that *D. geminata* occurs sporadically at present, and when it does occur, it generally forms nuisance blooms.

![Figure 5](image-url) Genetic relationships among *Didymosphenia* lineages and closely related taxa based on a 951-bp alignment of rDNA (18S, 5.8S and ITS1 and 2). (a) Maximum-likelihood phylogeny for the tree with the highest log likelihood (−1726.58) showing relationships between *D. geminata* sequences from this study (SAVA and GUN), previously published sequences obtained from GenBank, and outgroup taxa. Support values are from 500 bootstrap replicates. (b) Haplotype network of *Didymosphenia* samples and outgroup *Cymbella proxima*.

![Figure 6](image-url) Haplotype network of 28 *Didymosphenia geminata* clones from a 662-bp alignment of rDNA sequences. Sites are Gunpowder Falls (GUN) and the Lower Savage River (SAVA).
The sequencing of clones from two positive sites in Maryland showed that *D. geminata* occurs as multiple genetic strains within sites rather than as a single clonal strain, and that haplotypes are shared between sites. Thus, nuisance blooms do not appear to result from the spread of a novel genetic variant. Rather, shared genetic diversity and lack of endemism may indicate high propagule pressure into the Mid-Atlantic from elsewhere. The identity of the source population(s) is not known, and *Didymosphenia* lineages were phylogenetically related to *D. geminata* collected from across the globe. One group of Mid-Atlantic samples was most closely related to *D. geminata* from Colorado, USA, and New Zealand, while the other set of Mid-Atlantic samples was associated with *D. geminata* from Italy (Fig. 5a,b). These two groups formed unique haplotypes in the haplotype network; however, bootstrap values in the ML phylogeny provided only moderate support.

The phylogeographic structure of *D. geminata* is not known, so it is unclear whether the shared relatedness of samples from distant geographic sources represents human-mediated dispersal or the natural pattern of diversity in different parts of *D. geminata*’s historical range. Biogeographic studies of diatoms have often assumed that species are ubiquitous in distribution with no obvious dispersal limitation (i.e., ‘everything is everywhere’), and thus are predicted to lack regional patterns of endemism or genetic structure. However, recent studies have challenged this notion by showing that appreciable rates of endemism, dispersal limitation and/or intraspecific phylogeographic structure exists in diatoms (Kilroy et al., 2007; Vanormalingen et al., 2008; Kermarrec et al., 2013). For example, the freshwater alga *Synura petersenii* is composed of regionally endemic yet cryptically diverse genetic populations, as well as one clade that is globally distributed (Boo et al., 2010), and a very similar pattern has recently been reported for the diatom *Gomphonema parvulum*, a relative of the *Didymosphenia* genus (Kermarrec et al., 2013). In the case of *D. geminata*, the pattern of few sites containing *D. geminata* coupled with multiple lineages co-existing within sites suggests one of three possible causes: (1) *D. geminata* is native to the region where it occurs sporadically as uncommon yet genetically diverse populations; (2) *D. geminata* is an exotic species early in its stages of invasion and its genetic diversity results from introduction from a high-diversity source region; or (3) it is an exotic species with diversity reflecting multiple introductions originating from genetically distinct sources. Additional sequencing from sites across the globe will greatly help clarify the biogeographic history of *D. geminata*, and potentially aid in identifying the source regions of introduced genotypes.

It is important to keep in mind the limitations of the current analysis for determining *D. geminata* genetic diversity and phylogenetic relationships. Here, we used molecular cloning and sequencing of nuclear ribosomal DNA (rDNA) to characterize *D. geminata* diversity. While the polymorphism we uncovered shows that *D. geminata* forms several haplotypes with global distributions, and that nuisance blooms are not restricted to a single clonal strain, the low levels of polymorphism limit additional insight into the genetic structure of *D. geminata*. Thus, inference of relatedness between Mid-Atlantic *D. geminata* samples and those from previous studies is necessarily constrained by analysis of a single locus. Future studies would greatly benefit from expanded sampling of geographic sites and additional sequence loci to produce a more refined picture of the phylogeographic structure of *D. geminata*.

**Didymosphenia geminata occurs as regionally rare, locally invasive nuisance blooms**

Contrary to our prediction if *D. geminata* is a widespread indigenous species at low abundance, we find evidence of only seven *D. geminata*-positive sites out of 102 spatially unique sites surveyed (6.8%). Our finding of *D. geminata* occurring rarely but at nuisance levels contrasts with other recent studies of *D. geminata* occupancy across regional watersheds. For example, in Alberta, Canada, 67 (88%) of 76 were *D. geminata*-positive sites with 34% of these showing bloom formation (Jackson, 2015). In New Zealand, Bray et al. (2016) report 45 (82%) of 55 sites positive for *D. geminata*, with 25% of sites occurring as blooms.

Of the seven Mid-Atlantic sites that tested positive for eDNA, six were already known to contain *D. geminata* from previous visual observations of nuisance blooms, while the remaining site (Trout Run) is a new record of *D. geminata* occurrence. Water chemistry at Trout Run was similar to other *D. geminata*-containing streams in our sample, except that pH (5.7) was relatively low relative to other streams (Fig. 4). Two benthic samples collected in Trout Run analyzed with microscopy failed to detect *D. geminata*, despite apparent presence of eDNA in the water column. Disparity between *D. geminata* presence on the substrate and in the water column has been documented in previous studies. For instance, in a recent study in New Zealand, 27% of sites confirmed *D. geminata* suspended in the water column, but not in benthic sampling (Bray et al., 2016). Additionally, Kilroy and Dale (2006) demonstrated an ability to detect *D. geminata* cells using drift net sampling techniques like those employed here at a distance up to 14 miles downstream of sparse colonies. Therefore, the most likely explanation is that *D. geminata* was present in the water column at Trout Run, yet not present on the substrate. Interestingly, another site where blooms have been previously documented, Big Hunting Creek, did not test positive for *D. geminata* eDNA during our sampling (April 2014). This corresponds with an absence of *D. geminata* blooms during monthly visual surveys conducted by National Park Service staff during 2014 at Big Hunting Creek (L. Donaldsen, personal communication), suggesting that local outbreaks may be episodic and possibly subject to extinction events (Simberloff & Gibbons, 2004).

The issue of detectability is a concern for determining occupancy when species are rare. If *D. geminata* is indeed non-native, then it is important to identify new infestations
before they become difficult to manage (Simberloff et al., 2013). The minimum detection threshold for the qPCR assay used here has been determined previously by Cary et al. (2007), Cary et al. (2014). They reported sensitivity down to 1 D. geminata cell mL⁻¹ of drift net sample. Given that we filtered an average of ~15,000 L per site concentrated into 500 mL, and then subsampled 1 mL for eDNA analysis, this equates to a lower detection limit of approximately 1 D. geminata cell per 30 L of unfiltered stream water. Thus, even with the relatively high sensitivity of our eDNA assay, it is possible that populations at low abundance went undetected. However, we also note the near-perfect correspondence between D. geminata detection based on eDNA and from microscopic investigation of benthic samples (22/23 samples in agreement, the exception being Trout Run), suggesting that the eDNA approach does not suffer from lower false-negative rates than would be expected from time-intensive microscopy investigation.

Environmental association with D. geminata occurrence

We found no association between D. geminata and water chemistry. Previous studies found that D. geminata is more likely to form blooms when SRP is low, generally < 2 ppb (Bothwell et al., 2014). Our seven positive sites were not biased towards streams with low total P or SRP (Fig. 4), nor were D. geminata-positive sites confined to cold tailwaters with regulated base flow, as has also been suggested (Bray et al., 2016). None of the Pennsylvania streams in the Susquehanna watershed containing D. geminata (Pine Creek, West Branch Pine Creek, Trout Run) are tailwater-influenced. D. geminata-positive sites trended towards lower sulphate, although the mean was still within the 95% confidence interval of the re-sampled distribution (Fig. 4). Previous studies hypothesized a connection between D. geminata abundance and sulphate, but in the opposite direction, with sulphate additions tending to increase D. geminata densities (Rost et al., 2011). The small number of streams containing D. geminata limits more precise inference of environmental associations; thus, further work is necessary to determine the environmental preferences and tolerances of D. geminata in these waters, and whether they differ from other regions where stream chemistry has been associated with D. geminata blooms.

It is interesting to note that many of the sites that tested negative for D. geminata eDNA seem to fall roughly within the habitat suitability model projected by Kumar et al. (2009), suggesting that the distribution of D. geminata may not be at equilibrium with the availability of suitable habitat. Other studies have similarly shown spread of D. geminata through time, and caution that environmental association analyses early during invasion often do not reveal the potential distribution of the species (Kilroy & Unwin, 2011; Montecino et al., 2016). Indeed, recent evidence of D. geminata expansion has been observed locally within the Pine Creek watershed. At the West Branch of Pine Creek at Crippen Run (WPIN CRIPPEN; Table S1), located ~1.2 km upstream of a known D. geminata population (WPIN RWQM), D. geminata was not observed in two eDNA samples (April 2014 and 2015; this study) and five benthic samples analysed by microscopy (November 2013–May 2015; Shank et al., 2016). However, D. geminata was later observed from benthic samples in November 2015 at this location (D. geminata density: 104.5 cells cm⁻²; Shank et al., 2016), suggesting that the species probably expanded its range during the period of observation.

CONCLUSIONS

Extensive sampling and analysis using both eDNA and microscopy revealed that D. geminata primarily occurs in the Mid-Atlantic where nuisance blooms have already been noted. We interpret its patchy occurrence in streams with blooms, along with DNA sequencing showing that Mid-Atlantic D. geminata are genetically diverse and closely related to lineages elsewhere across the globe, as most consistent with the hypothesis that D. geminata is an exotic species in our region. If correct, these results suggest that invasion by D. geminata is still in its early stages in the Mid-Atlantic region and not at equilibrium with the availability of suitable habitat, and that management efforts may still be effective at controlling its spread.

Our study also contributes to the general knowledge of biological invasions, and whether emerging nuisance species are native and responding to an anthropogenic change in environment, or rather are exotic and invasive due to recent introduction and spread. Genetic monitoring and population genetic analysis provide powerful additions to the suite of tools needed to address these conservation challenges.

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REFERENCES


**SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

**Table S1** Site data and results for Didymosphenia geminata monitoring in Maryland (MD) and Pennsylvania (PA), USA.

**BIOSKETCH**

Stephen R. Keller’s research focuses on the interaction between genomic variation in natural populations and environmental change, especially genetic aspects of species invasions and climate change adaptation (http://www.uvm.edu/~srkeller/). The interdisciplinary team of co-authors in this study reflect our individual backgrounds in genetics, aquatic ecology and the ecology and taxonomy of diatoms.

Author contributions: S.K. and R.H. conceived the idea and designed the sampling and analysis, with M.S. contributing additional samples; S.K., R.H., M.S. and M.P. collected the data; S.K. and R.H. conducted the statistical analyses; S.K. led the manuscript writing, with contributions from R.H., M.S. and M.P.

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