



# A Review of Suckermouth Armoured Catfish (Siluriformes: Loricariidae) Invasion, Impacts and Management: Is Its Invasion a Threat to Bangladesh's Fisheries Sector?

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## Abstract

Suckermouth armoured catfish of the genus *Pterygoplichthys* (Siluriformes: Loricariidae) are significant threats to aquatic biodiversity, ecosystems, habitats, and fishery production in different countries. Their unique characteristics and adaptive features help their successful invasion. These fish harm fish habitats, compete for food and space, prey on fish eggs, and displace the native fish populations. They erode river banks, alter benthic ecology, make holes in the river bank, and remove aquatic plants. Elimination, control, and intrusion prevention are possible management strategies. Utilising them as food and preparing value-added products and byproducts using them are viable ways to reduce their number. Management is challenging, owing to their tolerance and excellent adaptability. With severe dangers to Bangladesh's fisheries industry and aquatic environment, suckermouth armoured catfish have invaded natural waterbodies and aquaculture ponds. There is a lack of accurate information on invasion status, types of invading species, and potential dangers of invasion to create a management framework in Bangladesh. Therefore, this review introduces the key characteristics, habitats, invasion impacts, and management and utilisation aspects of suckermouth armoured catfish in different countries. The review may help in understanding how they affect native fish, aquatic organisms, habitats, and the aquatic environment globally. Finally, what kind of threats they may pose and how they can be managed sustainably in Bangladesh.

**Keywords:** aquatic biodiversity, ecosystem, habitat, invasion control, effects

## Introduction

Suckermouth armoured catfish (SMCF) of the genus *Pterygoplichthys* (Siluriformes: Loricariidae) are the most speciose family in the order Siluriformes. They are common aquarium pets because of their distinctive appearance and algae-cleaning nature (Wu et al., 2011). Members of the genus *Pterygoplichthys* have become invasive in many countries (Chaichana and Jongphadungkiet, 2012). They have reached five continents and twenty-one countries (Orfinger and Gooding, 2018). They can expand their population within 5-10 years of introduction into a waterbody (Mendoza-Alfaro et al., 2009). SMCF invasion affects ecosystem function, biodiversity, national economies, and public health (Mack et al., 2000). They threaten the native fish population in introduced waterbodies (Nico et al., 2009;

Capps and Flecker, 2013; Rubio et al., 2016).

SMCF invades natural waterbodies through three known pathways: escape from aquaculture facilities, release from aquariums, and exposure from biocontrol setups (Hoover et al., 2014). However, intentional release from aquariums is considered the primary cause of invasion (Mendoza-Alfaro et al., 2010). Several characteristics of SMCF lead to invasion success (Marchetti et al., 2004). Their unique feeding habits, reproductive behaviour, and population establishment help threaten native fish in introduced waterbodies (Hoover, 2004). They compete with similar-sized aquatic organisms for food and space and may disturb other animals in the same habitat (Englund, 2000). They erode banks, alter benthic habitats (Hoover et al., 2014), create deep

burrows on the river bank and bottom (Burgess, 1989), and displace other aquatic animals (Flecker, 1992).

Management strategies for invasion include eradication (Hoover, 2004), control, and prevention of intrusion (Hussan et al., 2021; Qasim and Jawad, 2022; Wei et al., 2022). However, their great tolerance and adaptability (Nico and Martin, 2001; MacCormack et al., 2003; Hoover et al., 2014) may create difficulties in management. They have some utilisation as food, fish and animal feed ingredients, value-added products, and byproducts (Hoover, 2004; Ariyaratne et al., 2016; Herath et al., 2020; Puspitasari et al., 2021) with safety issue consideration (Elfidasari et al., 2018).

Bangladesh is one of the most significant fish-producing countries in the world, with abundant freshwater and marine fishery resources. It holds the third position in inland open-water fish capture and fifth position in world aquaculture production (DoF, 2020). SMCF were imported to Bangladesh for the ornamental pet trade but were gradually introduced into aquaculture ponds, natural waterbodies, and critical aquatic habitats (Hossain et al., 2008; Newagebd, 2020; Newagebd, 2021) (Fig. 1). There is a lack of organised information in Bangladesh on the status of SMCF invasion, types of species invaded, and possible threats and impacts on aquatic ecosystems and biota.

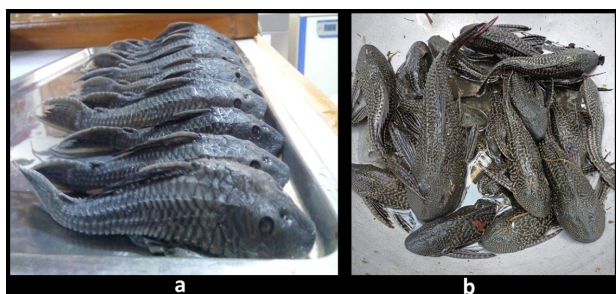


Fig. 1. *Pterygoplichthys* spp. collected from the a) Buriganga River, Dhaka, and b) aquaculture pond in Pirojpur, Bangladesh.

Governing authorities and policymakers in wetland and fisheries management require reliable data to form a comprehensive management framework. Moreover, people need to be aware of the threats and risks of SMCF invasion into the natural waterbodies of Bangladesh. Therefore, this review discusses the general characteristics, habitat and distribution, invasion impacts, and management and utilisation aspects of SMCF globally. This review aims to provide a thorough understanding of how SMCF affects aquatic biota and habitats, how they endanger native fishes, and how they can be managed sustainably and safely. This understanding may aid policymakers in managing the potential threats and consequences of the already invaded SMCF in Bangladesh. Finally, the review suggests some necessary steps to control the SMCF invasion in Bangladesh.

## Materials and Methods

A thorough literature search was conducted to identify potential threats posed by the invasion of suckermouth armoured catfish and the impacts on aquatic biodiversity, human utilisation, and management options. The literature search was conducted using several academic databases, including Google Scholar, Clarivate's Web of Science, WorldWideScience, Science.gov, Refseek, and online government databases.

A combination of keywords and Boolean operators were used to define search terms. The search terms were related to suckermouth armoured catfish and included keywords such as "suckermouth catfish," "invasion," "introduction," "spread," "range expansion," "biological control," "ecological impacts," "habitat alteration," "Loricariidae" "suckermouth catfish invasion", "impacts of suckermouth catfish invasion", "*Pterygoplichthys*", "*Hypostomus*", "*Glyptoperichthys*", "*Liposarcus*", "sailfin catfish", "armoured catfish", "invasion of suckermouth", "suckermouth catfish distribution", "suckermouth catfish habitat", "Biology of suckermouth catfish", "different species of suckermouth catfish" and "management".

Boolean operators (AND, OR, NOT) combined or excluded terms were used to reduce bias and increase search efficiency. The search was limited to peer-reviewed scientific papers, technical reports, and government records on suckermouth armoured catfish (Siluriformes: Loricariidae) from various countries, focusing on papers published between 1990 and 2023. A total of 149 papers were included in this review. The results were screened by reading each article's title, abstract, and keywords.

The articles that did not meet the inclusion criteria were excluded. The criteria were: (i) the article was relevant to suckermouth catfish invasion, (ii) the article provided original research or a comprehensive review of existing literature, and (iii) the article was published in a peer-reviewed journal or was from a reputable source. The reference lists of relevant articles were searched manually to identify additional sources that were not captured in the initial search. The reliability of the sources was assessed prior to extracting any information. Data from selected articles were extracted and organised into relevant themes. A data extraction form was used to capture all relevant information, including study location, study design, invasive species impacts, and management strategies.

## Habitat, Distribution, and Invasion

There are 983 species of SMCF in the family Loricariidae (Roxo et al., 2019). They are distributed throughout tropical and subtropical areas of the world (Hoover, 2004; Orfinger and Goodding, 2018). Members of the genus *Pterygoplichthys* are native to

South America (Orfinger and Goodding, 2018). They are the most widely introduced Loricariids observed in Asia, North and Central America, the Caribbean, and Hawaii (Hussan et al., 2016).

Among the *Pterygoplichthys* members, *P. disjunctivus* (Weber, 1991) is native to Brazil, Bolivia's Rio Madeira drainage, *P. pardalis* (Castelnau, 1855) is native to the Amazon River basin, Brazil, and Peru (Page and Robins, 2006), and *P. multiradiatus* (Hancock, 1828) is native to the Orinoco River basin (Burgess, 1989). SMCFs can be found in habitats such as lakes, rivers, reservoirs, and waterways (Mendoza et al., 2009). They are found in narrow channels, river mouths, heavily contaminated water (Elfidasari et al., 2020), fast and slow-flowing streams, lowland rivers with warm water, and oxygen-depleted ponds (Chavez et al., 2006).

Although most of the available SMCFs come from the wild, they are also cultivated for aquarium trade by commercial farmers (Page and Robins, 2006). SMCFs can be divided into three ecotypes: suckers with terminal lips and a deep body that live in large lakes and slow-moving rivers; suckers with projecting plates on their lower lips that graze on algae and insects from rocks in streams; and suckers with subterminal mouths that live in a variety of hydrologic environments (Moyle, 2002). SMCFs shelter in burrows during winter (Nico and Martin, 2001). They dig holes along the river banks about the same width as the resident fish (Nico and Martin, 2001) and are 0.5 to 1.0 m in length (Devick, 1989). They can survive in the oligohaline and mesohaline waters of estuarine systems. They can stay at salinities as low as 10 PSU for up to 7 days, 1–3 days at salinities of 11–12 PSU, and up to 5 hours at salinities of 16–22 PSU (Capps et al., 2011). They can thrive in the pH range of 5.5–8.0 (Mendoza et al., 2009). Although bottom-dwelling, they breathe air at the water surface during dry seasons or at low dissolved oxygen levels (Nico et al., 2012).

SMCFs were introduced in Asia more than 30 years ago. They were observed first in the Philippines, then in Indonesia and Thailand (Weber, 1992). Different species of SMCF have been introduced in India (Seshagiri et al., 2021), Bangladesh (Hossain et al., 2008), Vietnam (Gusakov et al., 2018), Sri Lanka (Sumanasinghe and Amarasinghe, 2014), Thailand (Chaichana and Jongphadungkiet, 2012), Philippines (Chavez et al., 2006), Malaysia (Saba et al., 2020), China (Wei et al., 2017) and many other countries. Recently, *P. pardalis* was found in the Shatt al-Arab River of Iraq (Qasim and Jawad, 2022). Morphological and molecular identification of SMCF in the reservoirs and watercourses of Southern Vietnam revealed the presence of *P. pardalis*, *P. disjunctivus*, and an interspecific hybrid of these two species (Stolbunov et al., 2021).

The process of invasive fish invasion can be categorised into five distinct stages, which include: (a) the species being transported beyond its native range through human-mediated pathways, (b) the species being introduced to a new environment, (c) the establishment of a self-sustaining population, (d) the spread of the species, and (e) the impact that the invasive species has on the receiving ecosystem (Moyle and Light, 1996; Blackburn et al., 2011). Release from aquariums or escape from aquaculture facilities are the leading causes of SMCF invasion (Page and Robins, 2006). In Bangladesh, SMCFs have invaded the north and southwest floodplains of the Ganges-Brahmaputra River drainage (Hossain et al., 2018). They spread in large numbers in the Buriganga River (Newagebd, 2020), Kaptai Lake (Newagebd, 2021), and Halda River (Jugantar, 2022). They have possibly been introduced in Padma, Meghna, and many other important rivers and wetlands in Bangladesh (Newagebd, 2021). Different species of the genus *Pterygoplichthys* have been reported in 38 out of the 64 districts of Bangladesh (Mamun et al., 2023).

Sundarban mangrove wetlands are at high risk of invasion due to the discovery of SMCF in the surrounding areas of this globally significant mangrove (Suresh et al., 2019). SMCF invasion in the Halda River and Kaptai Lake can be most unfortunate for the fisheries sector in Bangladesh. The Halda River is the natural spawning ground, and gene bank of native carp species (Saimon et al., 2016; Podder et al., 2017), and the Kaptai Lake is one of the largest man-made lakes in South Asia that is equally important for fish production, aquatic ecology, and the environment (Rahman et al., 2014). Hossain et al. (2008) reported the first record of *P. multiradiatus* in Bangladesh. Later, *P. anisitsi* and *P. pardalis* were found in natural waterbodies, aquaculture ponds, and wetlands (Newagebd, 2020; Newagebd, 2021). However, the actual scenario of SMCF invasion, species types, and distribution in Bangladesh has not yet been assessed. Thus, an invasion assessment is necessary for different waterbodies and areas. Areas of high abundance and risk should be determined, zoned, and categorised to ensure proper management.

## Morphological Features

The body shape of SMCFs is flat-bottomed (Walker, 1968) with a cover of three or more rows of bony plates (Page and Burr, 1991). They have a pair of subterminal barbells, sucking lips, and an adipose fin with spines on the front side. The mouth is smaller than the surrounding lips, forming a sucking disc. Ventrally, the caudal fin is usually longer than dorsally, and pectoral fins are solid and spinous (Walker, 1968). They have light-adjusting lunate pupils in their eyes (Page and Burr, 1991), an expanded iris operculum, and a retina devoid of double-cone cells (Douglas et al., 2002).

Species-level identification of SMCF is difficult because the taxonomy is very primitive, there is confusion among genera (Armbruster, 2004), and frequent hybridisation (Krishnakumar et al., 2009). Confusion may arise between the *Hypostomus* and *Pterygoplichthys* while identifying the introduced SMCFs in Bangladesh. Members of the *Hypostomus* and *Pterygoplichthys* differ significantly (Burgess, 1989). *Hypostomus* members have a short dorsal fin, fewer than nine dorsal fin rays, a smooth margin in the snout, a spotted pattern, and fused opercular bones. On the other hand, *Pterygoplichthys* members have a comparatively larger dorsal fin, more than 10 dorsal fin rays, a granular snout, and articulated interopercular bone with avertable spines (Burgess, 1989).

Species of the genus *Pterygoplichthys* are morphologically similar, but colouration varies among species (Page, 1994). Dorsal, ventral, and lateral marks can be used to differentiate among species (Page, 1994; Armbruster, 2004). The four species, *P. pardalis*, *P. multiradiatus*, *P. disjunctivus*, and *P. anisitsi*, have very similar appearances (Page and Burr, 1991; Page and Robins, 2006) but are distinguishable based on their abdominal patterns (Nico et al., 2012). *Pterygoplichthys pardalis* has spotted abdomens, whereas *P. disjunctivus* has vermiculated abdomens (Rao and Sunchu, 2017). Among these four related species, only *P. multiradiatus* has an uncoalesced dark spot pattern on a light background (Page and Robins, 2006). The mean total length of *P. pardalis*, *P. multiradiatus*, and *P. disjunctivus* was 25.2 cm (Bandara et al., 2021), 18.2 cm (Rao and Sunchu, 2017), and 28.8 cm (Meena et al., 2016) respectively. Proper identification at the species level is essential for creating a species database of SMCFs that have invaded Bangladesh. Because of hybridisation, molecular level identification is preferable to resolve confusion among different species.

## Biological Features

### Growth and reproduction

SMCFs can live for more than 10 years in their native range (Hussan et al., 2016) and mature at 12 months of age (Winemiller, 1989) at a size of 40–50 cm (Burgess, 1989). They grow rapidly in the first two years of life

and reach a total length of more than 35 cm (Devick, 1991). According to the gonadosomatic indices, the reproductive season of *Pterygoplichthys* spp. runs from May to September (Mazzoni and Caramaschi, 1997). They spawn multiple times, have a variety of oocyte sizes (Gibbs et al., 2008), and are highly fecund, with 472–1283 mature eggs/female (Devick, 1991). During the spawning season, adult females are often more vigorous and plentiful than adult males (Gibbs et al., 2008). They excavate 120–150 cm deep burrows in streams or pond banks (Burgess, 1989), where females deposit eggs and males guard the developing mass of eggs until they hatch free-swimming larvae (Hussan et al., 2016).

### Food and feeding

SMCFs are commonly known as herbivores and janitors based on their preference for food items (Hoover, 2004). Despite interspecific diversity in food preferences, detrital matter and plant components predominate the stomach of SMCF (Mendoza et al., 2009; Pound et al., 2011; Suresh et al., 2019). They have a consistent mouth and gut architecture, including a rasping mouth with numerous teeth and a long gut (Pound et al., 2011). With thick-lipped and toothy mouths, they eat benthic aquatic plants and phytoplankton, scrap off plant components or suck up fine sediments at the bottom of waterbodies. The stomach contents of SMCF are shown in Table 1.

### Adaptive Features

SMCFs have a variety of adaptations that allow them to survive in extreme environment, food scarcity, and predation risks (Graham and Baird, 1982). They can thrive in eutrophic conditions, high water velocities, and brackish water, and travel overland under harsh climatic conditions (Walker, 1968). SMCFs can survive under dewatered conditions. For example, SMCFs in the San Antonio River appeared "dead" in dry burrows but were alive and quickly recovered when released back into the water (Nico and Martin, 2001). They are tolerant of eutrophic environments and other forms of aquatic nuisance, as is evident in Florida's eutrophic Lake Thonotosassa, Lake Maggiore (Page,

Table 1. Stomach content of the members of the genus *Pterygoplichthys*.

Species	Stomach content	Reference
<i>Pterygoplichthys disjunctivus</i> (Weber, 1991)	56 % detrital matter, 11 % plant matter, 11 % fish eggs, 5 % polychaete worms, and other unidentified matters	(Suresh et al., 2019)
<i>Pterygoplichthys multiradiatus</i> (Hancock, 1828)	Plants and detritus with less than 1 % of crustaceans, insects, molluscs, and arachnids	(Gestring et al., 2010)
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i> (Castelnau, 1855)	Bacillariophyceae (41.19 %), Cyanophyceae (53.54 %), and small fishes	(Tisasari et al., 2016)
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i>	Detritus (28 %), algae (14.11 %), insect larvae (15.53 %), crustacea (14.12 %), fish (7.06 %), cyprinid eggs (7.06 %); other fish eggs and larvae (7.06 %) and rotifer (2.82 %)	(Qasim and Jawad, 2022)



1994), and the highly polluted and oxygen-poor Buriganga River in Bangladesh (Newagebd, 2020). They can withstand changes in water quality and even survive in effluent treatment plants (Nico and Martin, 2001). A large amount of yolk in their eggs helps them develop their embryos directly into juveniles without actual metamorphosis. This makes them more competitive with other aquatic animals in the early stages of life (Hoover et al., 2014). SMCF have a large, vascularised stomach that allows them to breathe air during hypoxia (Graham and Baird, 1982; da Cruz et al., 2009). They can use their stomach lining to carry oxygen during feeding (Hoover, 2004).

The cold tolerance of SMCF is not evident, but they can relocate their communities during winter (Nico and Martin, 2001). High glucose and lactate levels in the blood circulation help to maintain or enhance the heart rate during hypoxia (MacCormack et al., 2003). SMCFs show a visible defence posture when predators threaten them and can resist predators to swallow them by raising fin spines (Grier, 1980). They have external bony plates that protect them from predators (Liang et al., 2005). The lunate pupils in their eyes help them to camouflage (Douglas et al., 2002). Such adaptive features may allow them to dominate native and small indigenous species (SIS) of fish in the critical aquatic habitats of Bangladesh. These features may also pose challenges in managing SMCF invasion in the natural waterbodies and wetlands of Bangladesh.

## Threats and Impacts of Invasion

SMCF invasion can significantly affect aquatic ecosystems and habitats (Hoover, 2004; Hubilla et al., 2007; Nico et al., 2009; Capps and Flecker, 2013; Rubio et al., 2016), native fish and aquatic species (Hubbs et al., 1978; Hoover et al., 2004; Hastings et al., 2006) and fisheries sector (Escalera-Vázquez et al., 2019; Seshagiri et al., 2021). This review discusses some effects in the following sections.

### *Impact on aquatic ecosystem, habitat, and fauna*

Establishment of SMCF in any waterbody affects biogeochemical cycles, nutrient dynamics, and ecosystem functionality (Hoover, 2004; Rubio et al., 2016). They cause premature shifts in nutrients from the food web and reduce nutrient availability for essential consumers in aquatic ecosystems (Werner, 1982). Their thick bony plates serve as phosphorus sinks in oligotrophic environments and may reduce primary and secondary productivity (Englund, 2000). SMCF excavates stream bottoms, uproots aquatic plants, reduces native plant abundance, and creates surface covers that prevent sunlight penetration in waterbodies (Walker, 1968; Hubilla et al., 2007). They can alter aquatic insects and arthropods' food chains and natural environments (Inger and Chin, 2002).

Fast maturation, high population density, and long lifespan of SMCFs help them dominate over other aquatic lifeforms (Englund, 2000). They disturb aquatic biota through physical disturbances and reduce food availability by grazing on algae and detritus (Hoover et al., 2014). Their grazing behaviour hampers food sources and shelter for aquatic insects (Walker, 1968), causing turbidity (Hoover, 2004), sediment resuspension, and substrate size alteration (Walker, 1968). SMCFs burrow river banks for shelter and cause erosion, benthic habitat alteration (Hoover, 2004), and siltation (Nico et al., 2009). They form large spawning groups in the burrows, hamper shoreline stability, and increase the suspended sediment load in the water column (Nico, 2000). For example, the *P. multiradiatus* population was established in the Wahiawa Reservoir of Oahu, Hawaii, in 1986 and created thousands of burrows within two years of establishment (Devick, 1991).

### *Impact on other fish and aquatic species*

SMCFs can displace other aquatic species, decrease suitable habitats (Flecker, 1992) and endanger keystone predator populations (Hoover, 2004). Their invasion may affect aquatic prey-feeding organisms and fish (Englund, 2000). They have competitive advantages over smaller, short-lived, less tolerant, and low-fecund fish, threatening their abundance (Hubbs et al., 1978). Several studies have documented the role of SMCFs in native fish displacement both directly and indirectly through food and habitat competition (Bunkley-Williams et al., 1994; Chavez et al., 2006; Chaichana et al., 2011). They actively compete with native aquatic species and may accidentally consume fish eggs (Hoover, 2004). For example, *P. multiradiatus* was found to prey on cichlid eggs in Sri Lankan waterbodies (Amarasinghe et al., 2006). Their abundance in introduced waterbodies may negatively affect the growth, maturation, and reproduction of native fish (Wei et al., 2022).

Defensive spine erection of SMCFs presents serious threats to shorebirds attempting to ingest them (Bunkley-Williams et al., 1994). Their introduction affects fish and shrimp production, resulting in the loss of capital and people's livelihoods (Chavez et al., 2006; Krishnakumar et al., 2009). The presence of SMCF leads to unintentional entanglement in commercial gillnets and thus reduces the effectiveness of gillnets in catching target fish species (Wijesinghe et al., 2021). The introduction of SMCF could potentially pose risks of disease or parasite transmission. In a reservoir located on Okinawa Island in southern Japan, a dactylogyrid monogenean parasite known as *Heteropriapulus heterotylus* (Jogunoori, Kritsky and Venkatanarasaiah, 2004; Kritsky, 2007) was discovered in the gills of *P. disjunctivus* (Nitta and Nagasawa, 2013).

All of the abovementioned impacts of SMCF invasion may bring similar dangers to invaded rivers, wetlands, and aquatic habitats in Bangladesh. SMCF population establishment and expansion may threaten the existence of native and small indigenous species (SIS) of fish and the sustainability of fish production. Sixty-four freshwater fishes in Bangladesh are already threatened (IUCN, 2015). The invasive effects of SMCF

may lead to the extinction of these threatened species in important freshwater habitats. Aquatic habitats, nursing grounds, spawning grounds, ecologically critical areas, sanctuaries, and other crucial areas for fish and aquatic animals may be in peril if management measures are not implemented as soon as possible. Table 2 provides an overview of the impact of SMCF invasion in different countries.

Table 2. Effects of suckermouth armoured catfish invasion in different countries.

Introduced species	Place of introduction	Effects/ Concerns	Reference
<i>Pterygoplichthys</i> spp.	Andhra Pradesh, India.	Reduction of carp production by 18.88 % to 22.92 %, increased FCR (Feed Conversion Ratio) by 25.76 % in aquaculture ponds, and financial loss of fish farmers	(Seshagiri et al., 2021)
<i>Pterygoplichthys</i> spp.	Three southern provinces of Central Vietnam	Intrusion into major river basins was confirmed by capturing specimens from nine distinct waterbodies and channels across various locations	(Gusakov et al., 2018)
<i>Pterygoplichthys disjunctivus</i> (Weber, 1991)	Cauvery River System, Tamil Nadu, South India	Reduction of native fish availability, including Murrel ( <i>Channa striata</i> , Bloch, 1793) and other Carps ( <i>Cirrhinus cirrhosus</i> , Bloch 1795, <i>Catla catla</i> , Hamilton, 1822, <i>Labeo rohita</i> , Hamilton, 1822)	(Meena et al., 2016)
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i> (Castelnau, 1855)	Polgolla reservoir, Sri Lanka	Negative impact on the commercial production of Cichlids	(Sumanasinghe and Amarasinghe, 2014)
<i>Pterygoplichthys</i> spp.	Sri Lanka	Have become a common catch over native species in many inland reservoirs	(Wijesinghe et al., 2021)
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i>	Thailand	Found to consume the eggs and fry of Nile tilapia ( <i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> , Linnaeus, 1758) in aquaria	(Chaichana and Jongphadungkiet, 2012)
<i>Pterygoplichthys</i> spp.	Balsas Basin, Mexico	Observed burrowing the nests of blue tilapia ( <i>Oreochromis aureus</i> , Steindachner, 1864) and the resulting reduction in their population	(Hoover et al., 2014)
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i>	Philippines	Reduced abundance of native fish species	(Chavez et al., 2006)
<i>Pterygoplichthys</i> spp.	Estuarine regions of the South and West Shores of Oahu, Hawaii	Disturbed the existence of native species	(Englund, 2000)
<i>Pterygoplichthys multiradiatus</i> (Hancock, 1828)	Lake Okeechobee, Florida, USA	Caused a significant reduction in the native fish abundance	(Mendoza-Alfaro et al., 2009)
<i>Pterygoplichthys disjunctivus</i> (Weber, 1991)	Asi River, Turkey	Competition with cyprinid species and benthic grazers	(Özdilek, 2007)
<i>Pterygoplichthys</i> spp.	Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) member countries	Adverse effects on the native Cyprinid population	(Phillips et al., 2004)
<i>Pterygoplichthys</i> spp.	Infiernillo Reservoir, Mexico	Decreased abundance of a native catfish ( <i>Ictalurus balsanus</i> , Jordan and Snyder, 1899) and declined Tilapia production	(Mendoza-Alfaro et al., 2009)
<i>Pterygoplichthys</i> spp.	Florida, USA	Reduced catch per unit effort (CPUE) of recreational fishes	(Mendoza-Alfaro et al., 2009)
<i>Pterygoplichthys multiradiatus</i>	Fresh waterbodies, Puerto Rican, Caribbean Island	Twenty brown pelicans ( <i>Pelecanus occidentalis</i> , Linnaeus, 1766) were asphyxiated upon swallowing and many others died	(Bunkley-Williams et al., 1994)
<i>Pterygoplichthys disjunctivus</i>	Volusia Blue Spring, Florida	Stress the endangered "Florida Manatee" ( <i>Trichechus manatus latirostris</i> , Harlan, 1823) by attaching to them and disturbing their regular behaviour including respiration rate and activity level	Gibbs et al. (2010)

Table 2. Continued.

Introduced species	Place of introduction	Effects/ Concerns	Reference
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i> , <i>Pterygoplichthys disjunctivus</i> and their hybrids	Chumpan River, Southeastern Mexico	Raised concerns of dispersal to other waterbodies and subsequent adverse impacts on their ecosystem	(Álvarez-Pliego et al., 2015)
<i>Pterygoplichthys ambrosettii</i> (Holmberg, 1893)	Paraná River, South America	First documented in the floodplain of the Upper Paraná River in 2000 and has since spread to 118 different locations	(da Silva et al., 2022)
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i>	Gayathripuzha River, Kerala, India	Led to the alterations of the river ecosystem and disruptions in the composition of native fish species	(Veena et al., 2023)
<i>Pterygoplichthys</i> spp.	Agusan River, Philippines	Created numerous breeding burrows along the riverbank, leading to bank erosion, hydrology alterations, and river ecosystem disturbance	(Almadin et al., 2016)

## Management Strategies

The management of fish invasions involves a variety of techniques that depend on the stage of the invasion. Prevention, early detection, risk assessment, monitoring, eradication, containment, and suppression are successful strategies for controlling the invasion of non-native fish species (Robertson et al., 2020; Bernery et al., 2022). Prevention and early response are considered the most effective and economical ways to manage invasive non-native species (Leung et al., 2012). Control and eradication techniques become necessary when the invasion is at an advanced stage (Robertson et al., 2020). Various traditional techniques are available to prevent SMCF invasion into waterbodies. These techniques include netting, trapping, bank stabilisation of waterbodies, and diversion of waterways (Hoover, 2004).

Physical barriers such as screens and mesh fences can effectively prevent the movement of SMCF into new waterbodies (Hussan et al., 2021). Mesh fences can be installed to block waterways and hinder the movement of fish upstream or downstream (Scott et al., 2012). For aquaculture ponds, mechanical traps, strong and wired nets, screens, and dams can be used to prevent the intrusion of SMCF. Another effective technique is to expose the ponds to sunlight after dewatering them (Hussan et al., 2021; Qasim and Jawad, 2022). To reduce the intentional release of SMCF into natural waterbodies, strict regulations, and awareness generation are required (Hossain et al., 2008; Ishikawa and Trachihara, 2014; Mogalekar et al., 2017). It is necessary to educate the public on the hazards of releasing aquarium fish into natural waterbodies and encourage responsible disposal of unwanted aquarium fish. Public awareness campaigns, educational programmes in schools and public places, and social media campaigns can be useful in achieving this goal (Qasim and Jawad, 2022). It is essential to regulate their imports and sales in the pet trade industry to prevent the invasion of SMCF.

Countries and regions can establish regulations that prohibit the importation and sale of invasive species, including SMCF, and impose penalties for violators to reduce the likelihood of new introductions and limit the spread of existing populations (Leung et al., 2012). Regulations must be formulated by considering the risks associated with the ornamental trade, commercial practises, research, and import for human consumption. The regulations should specify a consistent and transparent process for evaluating a proposed new introduction, including a detailed biological background and risk assessment (ICES, 2005). Accurate species identification is crucial for effective monitoring, management, and understanding of the invasion strategies of exotic species in a new ecosystem. To achieve this, the standard DNA barcode approach effectively distinguishes invasive fish species with similar morphologies (Armstrong and Ball, 2005). This method is essential for comprehending the invasion strategies of exotics in a novel ecosystem (Jumawan et al., 2011).

Besides traditional identification, advanced methods like environmental DNA (eDNA) analysis can be used to detect invasion and identify the invaded species (Manfrin et al., 2019). The development of a comprehensive risk assessment protocol can ensure the development of an efficient invasion management strategy. The assessment protocol should consider the population parameters, reproductive features, and biomass status to determine the potential harm posed by the invader (Rueda-Jasso et al., 2013; Ju et al., 2020). Then, habitat-specific management steps should be designed for invaded ecosystems (N'Guyen et al., 2016; Wei et al., 2022). Public information from social media and online platforms may offer promising tools for early detection and rapid response to invasive fish species. For instance, the public can use mobile phone applications to monitor, track, identify, and obtain information about invasive species (Howard et al. 2022). Collaboration between scientists and journalists, as well as governmental

and organisational bodies, has the potential to enhance their ability to track the distribution of non-native species in Bangladesh. This could result in the development of cost-effective programmes that raise public awareness of the impact of SMCF (Mamun et al., 2023).

Intensive harvesting practises, regular removal in invaded areas, and harvesting smaller individuals are recommended to eradicate invasive species quickly (Chaichana and Jongphadungkiet, 2012; Raj et al., 2020). Negotiating with commercial fishermen, increasing sport fishing activities in invaded areas, and creating a financial reward system to motivate local people to catch SMCF can be possible management options (Hoover, 2004; Qasim and Jawad, 2022). For example, repetitive removal of SMCF by hand and spears effectively reduced the occurrence of SMCF in the Rainbow River, Florida (Hill and Sowards, 2015).

The use of ichthyocides, and the removal of egg masses and juveniles can also help to reduce the reproductive success and propagation of invasive fish (Power, 1984). Chemical treatments, such as rotenone, have been widely used for rapid and efficient eradication, but they can be toxic to non-target species (Dalu et al. 2015). Physical or nonphysical barriers can be used to contain species and suppression actions, such as selective capture, can be promoted through public awareness and incentives (Robertson et al., 2020). Increasing native fish populations in invaded waterbodies can also suppress the invaded fish (Hoover, 2004). Exploiting invasive fish as a food source can be an effective suppression technique (Seaman et al., 2022).

Harvesting suckermouth catfish from rivers has proven to control their invasion in various regions effectively (Hay et al., 2022). For example, in the San Marcos River, Texas, controlling the invasion of SMCF was attempted by increasing fishing pressure. This method resulted in a mortality rate of SMCF that was 1.50 to 1.75 fold higher than natural mortality (Blanton et al., 2020). However, implementing eradication approaches on a large scale is challenging (Havel et al., 2015). Therefore, it is preferable to use local and community-level control efforts to reduce the abundance of invasive fish. When eradication becomes impossible, the management should focus on mitigating the impacts of invasion (Frazer et al., 2012; Hill and Sowards, 2015).

It is not recommended to incentivise aquaculture and commercial production of SMCF due to their invasive nature and associated ecological and economic impacts (Haubrock et al., 2022). The FAO (1995) suggests a precautionary approach that would limit the use of alien species in aquaculture and promote the development of native stocks. The use of different alien species in aquaculture has been proven to be invasive, leading to adverse and

irreversible impacts on the native environment. Therefore, governments and regulatory bodies should evaluate the short-term benefits to society against the potential long-term impacts on economic, social, cultural, and natural environments when justifying the use of alien species in aquaculture (FAO, 1995; ICES, 2005). The escape of invasive fish, including SMCF, from aquaculture facilities is a global concern (FAO, 2016). Although limited statistics make assessing the number and magnitude of escapes challenging, many have occurred worldwide (Thorvaldsen et al., 2015), particularly in developing countries (Gao et al., 2017).

Invasive fish, including SMCF, can negatively affect the biodiversity and ecological functions of the native ecosystems (Vitule et al., 2009). Their invasion can lead to the loss of biodiversity, degradation of ecosystems, and even extinction of endemic species through direct competition or predation (Naylor et al., 2001). For example, the release of *Pterygoplichthys* spp. from fish farms in Thailand resulted in extensive harm to aquatic plants, a decline in water quality, and a decrease in native biodiversity (Hubilla et al., 2007; Chaichana and Jongphadungkiet, 2012). Invasion of alien species like SMCF can also cause genetic pollution, leading to a decrease in genetic diversity, changes in population structure, and ultimately, the extinction of native species (Ju et al., 2020). According to the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), the ecological impacts of invasion are often immense, insidious, and irreversible (IUCN, 2000).

Developing countries like Bangladesh must implement effective policy and management measures to promote sustainable aquaculture and protect biodiversity. This includes enacting comprehensive legislation, establishing agencies, and setting national standards for preventing, monitoring, and controlling invasive species (Ju et al., 2020). Integrated research and education are also necessary to enhance risk assessment, prevention, and management of invasive species to achieve these goals (Wei et al., 2019). It is essential to have a comprehensive understanding of available literature, life-history data, and control methods to develop a sustainable management plan for SMCF invasion. The effectiveness of each management strategy should be evaluated, and the best option should be selected (Donaldson and Cooke, 2016).

## Utilisation

SMCFs are widely imported into various countries because of their distinctive appearance, tolerance, and ability to remove algae from submerged surfaces (Hoover, 2004). Creating market demands for these invasive species may be a cost-effective solution for their invasion. However, utilisation should be targeted to reduce the number of invaded fish in waterbodies, not to culture them for revenue (Varble and Secchi, 2013). This review discusses the current and potential



uses of SMCF. These utilisation options may be helpful to managerial bodies and researchers in Bangladesh.

## Food

SMCFs are commercially beneficial for flesh and roe (Hoover, 2004). They are nutritious and high in protein, carbohydrates, and omega-6 fatty acids (Mengumphan and Saengkrachang, 2008). There are approximately  $30.62 \pm 2.98$  % edible flesh portion of the total weight of *P. multiradiatus*, 33.70 % polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA), and 12.99 % docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) in the fatty acid composition (Ariyaratna et al., 2014). *Pterygoplichthys disjunctivus* contains 81.14 % moisture, 16.1 % crude protein, 1.03 % crude fat, and 0.9 % ash in their chemical composition (Mohanty et al., 2017). The mature roe of *P. disjunctivus* has high protein ( $26.0 \pm 1.5$ ) and lipid ( $8.2 \pm 0.7$ ) percentages (Guillén-Sánchez et al., 2015). However, safety issues may arise when SMCF is used as human food.

Several studies analysed heavy metal concentrations in SMCF as a safety issue for human consumption. For instance, Elfidasari et al. (2018) found higher Pb, Hg, and Cd concentrations than the safe limit in *P. pardalis*, whereas Ariyaratna et al. (2014) found safe concentrations of Hg, Pb, and Cd in *P. multiradiatus*. Other concerns may be their irritating appearance, smell, and rigid bone formation (Sumanasinghe and Amarasinghe, 2014). There is a scope of research on proximate composition determination, heavy metal analysis, and acceptability issues of SMCF as foods in Bangladesh.

## Commercial fishmeal

SMCFs are suitable for preparing fishmeal alternatives (Sumanasinghe and Amarasinghe, 2014; Panase et al., 2018; Abesinghe et al., 2020) and protein sources (de Fonseka and Radampola, 2022) for fish (Panase et al., 2018), chicken (Intawicha et al., 2020) and duck feed (Indarsih et al., 2016). Processing SMCF to prepare fish meal may be an effective method to reduce their population in natural waterbodies (Mengumphan and Saengkrachang, 2008; de Fonseka and Radampola, 2022). There are sufficient nutrients in *P. pardalis* meal for fish growth (Abarra et al., 2017). Proximate composition of *P. multiradiatus* meal is quite similar to the commercial fish meal with  $69.5 \pm 0.04$  % crude protein,  $4.5 \pm 0.05$  % crude lipid,  $6.0 \pm 0.2$  % moisture, and  $10.6 \pm 0.2$  % ash content (de Fonseka and Radampola, 2022). SMCF meal can substitute a commercial fish meal with no statistically significant difference ( $p > 0.05$ ) in weight gain, average daily growth, specific growth rate, feed conversion ratio, feed efficiency, and protein efficiency ratio (Millamena, 2002).

SMCF meal does not negatively affect fish growth, body weight, or food consumption (Asnawi et al., 2015). For example, a feeding trial of SMCF meal on Mekong giant catfish (*Pangasianodon gigas*, Chevey,

1931) showed a positive output without affecting growth performance and feed utilisation (Panase et al., 2018). In Thailand, replacing 25–50 % of fish meals with SMCF meals resulted in better growth performance and meat quality (Intawicha et al., 2020). Moreover, using SMCF meal in duck feed as a protein source can be beneficial (Indarsih et al., 2016).

Approximately 70 % of aquaculture production requires high-protein feed from fish meal and fish oil (Hua et al., 2019), and the feed cost is the highest in fish farming (Bakl and Yücel, 2017). Researchers and managerial bodies in Bangladesh can assess the suitability of SMCF for fishmeal preparation. Such efforts may be incredibly beneficial for reducing the dependency on traditional protein sources for fish feed. Most importantly, it may help increase the utilisation of invaded SMCF in Bangladesh.

## Value added products and byproducts

Several studies have suggested the preparation of value added products and byproducts from SMCF (Rueda-Jasso et al., 2013; Ariyaratna et al., 2016; Herath et al., 2020; Puspitasari et al., 2021; Wijesinghe et al., 2021). The invasion of SMCF in the natural waterbodies of Bangladesh is alarming and may have severe consequences. Therefore, preparing such products from SMCF may be helpful as a management option in Bangladesh. The safety issues and public acceptance in Bangladesh should be considered before making such products from SMCF. Some examples of value-added products and byproducts from SMCF are shown in Table 3.

## Wastewater biotreatment

Wastewater treatment is becoming increasingly important because of declining water resources and increasing industrial effluents (Dixit et al., 2011). SMCFs can be suitable candidates for the biotreatment of wastewater (Kumar et al., 2016; Karthiga et al., 2019). For example, the use of *P. pardalis* to biotreat sugar industry effluents showed good performance with a gradual reduction in total dissolved solids (TDS), total suspended solids (TSS), water hardness, total alkalinity, biochemical oxygen demand (BOD), chloride ions, ammonia, sulphates, nitrates, and phosphorus levels (Karthiga et al., 2019).

As a natural coagulant, meals of *Pterygoplichthys* spp. showed 30 % effectiveness in eliminating turbidity from fish farm effluent (Castillo et al., 2022). *Pterygoplichthys pardalis* effectively reduced dissolved solid levels, total alkalinity, and pH in dairy farm effluents (Geetha and Thatheyus, 2019). It is important to be cautious when using non-native species as biological control agents due to potential ecological consequences (Copp et al., 2005).

Common management strategies to reduce SMCF invasion in Bangladesh may be challenging without a

Table 3. Value-added products and byproducts from suckermouth armoured catfish.

Product Type	Comment	Reference
Fish biscuits	No noticeable difference in sensory properties with traditional flour-made biscuits. High protein and unsaturated fatty acid content, and safe for consumption	(Ariyaratne et al., 2016)
Bone flour from <i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i> (Castelnaud, 1855)	Contained 25.04 % protein, 10.48 % lipid, 0.66 % moisture, 59.46 % ash, and 4.35 % carbohydrates	(Puspitasari et al., 2021)
Acid-soluble collagen from <i>Pterygoplichthys disjunctivus</i> (Weber, 1991)	Collagen was extracted from skin, flesh, bone, and fin. Flesh and skin were recommended as good candidates for industrial uses	(Herath et al., 2020)
Bioactive fish protein hydrolysates from <i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i> (Castelnaud, 1855)	Found antioxidant activities, iron-binding function, and antimicrobial properties	(Wijesinghe et al., 2021)

proper record of invasion, current status, and risk assessment. Therefore, managerial bodies can adopt different utilisation options in addition to control measures. However, it is imperative to implement appropriate safety, monitoring, and control measures in SMCF aquaculture and seed production intended for both the ornamental trade and the food market in Bangladesh.

## Management Recommendations for Bangladesh

The Bangladesh Government has already imposed restrictions on the imports and sales of the suckermouth catfish group to prevent its further spread (MoFL, 2023). The Bangladesh Fisheries Research Institute (BFRI) has taken active measures, such as conducting public awareness campaigns and destroying illegal breeding sites, to control the population of the suckermouth catfish and prevent its spread. However, more pragmatic steps are necessary to reduce the impacts on the aquatic ecosystem and fisheries sector. Thus, the review recommends some necessary measures to minimise the threats of SMCF invasion in Bangladesh.

Figure 2 outlines various approaches for identifying, monitoring, and managing invasive species in aquatic ecosystems. The first step is to identify areas of invasion and categorise them based on risk and susceptibility. Geographic information systems can help map out these regions. The taxonomic identification of the invasive species using morphological and molecular methods is also important. Direct observation and periodic surveys in the invaded areas can provide critical information on the species' behaviour and potential impacts. Impact and risk assessments using predictive modelling can help understand the consequences of invasion in the ecosystem.

Creating a database of occurrences, types, and possible impacts can aid in decision-making for management strategies. Suitability analysis of the



Fig. 2. Management measures to reduce the effect of suckermouth armoured catfish invasion in Bangladesh.

invaded species for utilisation as food, value-added products, by-products can provide a potential economic benefit besides invasion control. Community-based teams can be formed to catch and destroy invaders and report any new invasions to the concerned authority. Fishermen can also be motivated to catch and destroy invasive species ethically through a reward system. Overall, these approaches can aid in managing the spread and impacts of invasive species in aquatic ecosystems.

## Conclusion

Suckermouth armoured catfish invasion is an emerging threat to aquatic ecosystems, native fish biodiversity, and fishery production. Understanding the worldwide impacts, management, and utilisation aspects of this review may be helpful for managers and researchers. This review's information may help them formulate a sustainable management framework to reduce the impact of the suckermouth armoured catfish invasion in Bangladesh.

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