Reintroduced native *Populus nigra* in restored floodplain reduces spread of exotic poplar species

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24 **1. Abstract**

25 Exotic *Populus* taxa pose a threat to the success of riparian forest restoration in floodplain 26 areas. We evaluated the impact of exotic *Populus* taxa on softwood riparian forest 27 development along the river Common Meuse after introducing native Populus nigra and after 28 the re-establishment of the natural river dynamics. We sampled 154 poplar seedlings that 29 spontaneously colonised restored habitat and assessed their taxonomy based on diagnostic 30 chloroplast and nuclear microsatellite markers. Furthermore, by using a paternity analysis on 31 72 seedlings resulting from six open pollinated P. nigra females, we investigated natural 32 hybridization between frequently planted cultivated poplars and native *P. nigra*. The majority 33 of the poplar seedlings from the gravel banks analyzed where identified as *P. nigra*; only 2% 34 of the sampled seedlings exhibited genes of exotic poplar species. Similarly, the majority of 35 the seedlings from the open pollinated progenies were identified as P. nigra. For three 36 seedlings (4%), paternity was assigned to a cultivar of P. x canadensis. Almost two decades 37 after reintroducing *P. nigra*, the constitution of the seed and pollen pools changed in the study 38 area in favour of reproduction of the native species and at the expense of the exotic poplar 39 species. This study indicates that, although significant gene flow form exotic poplars is 40 observed in European floodplains, restoration programmes of the native P. nigra can 41 vigorously outcompete the exotic gene flows and strongly reduce the impact of exotic 42 Populus taxa on the softwood riparian forest development.

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Key-words: European black poplar; floodplain ecosystem; hybridization; interspecific
 mating,; introgression; riparian forests

47 2. Introduction

The restoration and protection of riparian forests is one of the key priorities in biodiversity conservation and climate change adaptation strategies (e.g. EU Biodiversity Strategy 2030, EU Floods Directive 2007/60/EC). Riparian forests are biodiversity hotspots and provide a range of ecosystem services including flood protection, prevention of bank erosion, thermal regulation by forest canopy cover and water quality protection (e.g. Van Looy et al. 2013). They are therefore necessary for the ecological functioning of riparian corridors and are recognized as an important part of the world's natural capital.

55 After decades of ecological degradation caused by human activities, including impoundment 56 and straightening of rivers, cutting off meanders, drainage of floodplains and deforestation for 57 agriculture and plantations, several European countries have undertaken actions to restore 58 natural river dynamics (e.g. Mansourian et al. 2019; Schindler et al. 2016), and the European 59 Commission proposed a Biodiversity Strategy planning to restore at least 25,000 km of free-60 flowing rivers (UE COM Biodiversity Strategy 20/05/2020). Generally, restoration activities 61 involve dyke relocation, lowering of river banks and floodplains to restore the floodplain 62 habitat heterogeneity, an essential feature for the regeneration of riparian forests. However, 63 many restoration projects are poorly documented and written records on the outcome of 64 restoration projects are generally lacking (Palmer et al. 2007).

Revegetation of river margins is a widely applied technique for riparian forest restoration 65 (Palmer et al. 2007). However, exotic, invasive alien species can significantly undermine 66 67 efforts to protect and restore natural floodplain forests (Palmer et al. 2007). Exotic Populus 68 species have been introduced into Europe as well as into the US and Canada for wood 69 production in riparian landscapes and pose a threat to native *Populus* species. Poplar cultivars 70 are frequently planted in monoclonal plantations in the vicinity of wild relatives and may 71 contribute to a large extent to pollen and seed pools, thereby competing with the native 72 relatives in colonizing restored habitat. Furthermore, intercrossability among *Populus* species 73 is well-known (Eckenwalder 1984, 1996). In Europe, the native European black poplar 74 (*Populus nigra* L.) (hereafter referred to as black poplar) is threatened by Euramerican (P. × 75 canadensis Moench.), interamerican ($P. \times generosa$ Henry) hybrid poplar and black poplar 76 varieties such as the male Lombardy poplar (Populus nigra cv. Italica Du Roi) (e.g. Arens et 77 al. 1998; Cagelli and Lefèvre 1995; Chenault et al. 2011; Debeljak et al. 2015; Fossati et al. 78 2003; Ziegenhagen et al. 2008). Gene flow between cultivated and native poplar species may 79 result in the reduction of the effective population size, genetic swamping and ultimately the 80 replacement of populations of the native species (Arnold et al. 2001).

81 As a pioneer species, black poplar plays a key-role in the development of softwood forests in 82 Europe. In the lower parts of the floodplain, black poplar colonises bare moist soil and river 83 banks and is highly adapted to water dynamics and sediment movement (Debeljak et al. 2015; 84 Van Looy 2006). Due to their rapid growth and strong flow resistance, black poplar together 85 with species of Salicaceae (Salix alba and S. viminalis), contributes to raising bar and island 86 levels by retaining sand and gravel (Van Looy 2006). Consequently, these softwood forest 87 species pave the way for the development of the next forest succession stage, the hardwood 88 forests. Unfortunately, the European black poplar is one of the most threatened tree species in 89 Europe, mainly because of the loss of its natural alluvial habitats especially sand and gravel 90 banks that allow for successful reproduction, and because of competition and introgression

91 with exotic poplar species (Fossati et al. 2003; Meyer et al. 2018; Vanden Broeck et al. 2005;

92 Ziegenhagen et al. 2008).

93 Here, we report on the impact of exotic *Populus* taxa at the initial stages of softwood riparian 94 forest development of the river Meuse on the Dutch-Belgian border almost two decades after 95 introducing black poplar and after the re-establishment of the natural river dynamics. To our 96 knowledge, this is the first study reporting on the effect of re-introducing a native Populus 97 species on gene flow of exotic relative species. The specific objectives of this study are (i) to 98 study the taxonomy of the poplar seedlings that spontaneously colonised the river banks of the 99 Common Meuse and (ii) to determine the frequency of natural hybridization events between 100 male cultivated poplars (including *P. nigra* cv. Italica) and the female native black poplars in the study area. We hereto use a combination of diagnostic chloroplast and nuclear molecular 101 102 markers that have been proven useful in identifying the taxonomy of *Populus* seedlings 103 (Heinze 1998; Imbert and Lefèvre 2003; Ziegenhagen et al. 2008). We compare the results 104 with a similar study performed in 1999 -2001 at the same site and before the restoration 105 actions took place (Vanden Broeck et al. 2004). Finally, we discuss the implications for the 106 restoration and conservation of softwood riparian forests with black poplar along European 107 rivers.

108 **3. Material & Methods**

109 3.1 Study site

110 The area of interest was the riverside of the Common Meuse, a free-flowing middle course of 111 the river Meuse, which forms for 45 km the border between Belgium and the Netherlands 112 (Figure 1). Shipping and flow regulation are absent on this river stretch. The Common Meuse 113 is a rain-fed river with a gravel-bed, a strong longitudinal gradient (0.45 m/km) and a wide 114 alluvial plain (Van Looy et al. 2005). The Common Meuse valley consists of a gravel 115 underground with a loamy alluvial cover. Traditionally, meadows were created in the 116 floodplains. Cultivated poplars are frequently planted at the study site (Vanden Broeck et al. 117 2004). Large parts of the alluvial plain have been excavated for gravel mining, leaving large 118 gravel pits or lowered floodplain zones (Van Looy et al. 2005). The extreme high water levels 119 and floodings of 1993 and 1995, were the start of the development of a large scale, 120 transboundary river restoration project for the Common Meuse; called 'Living River 121 Strategy'. The concept of this plan was to restore hydrodynamics and morphodynamics and 122 related ecological characteristics in the primary river channel (Van Looy et al. 2006). The 123 restoration activities were performed during the period 2005-2008 and included removal of 124 dykes, excavation of the floodplain, channel widening and bank lowering. The restoration of 125 the morphological activity (erosion / sedimentation rates) of the river reach resulted in a 126 strong revitalisation of the elevation of bars and islands, creating suitable habitat for seedling 127 recruitment and the restoration of softwood riparian forest with willow, poplar and ash 128 communities (Van Braeckel 2007; Van Looy et al. 2008).

129 3.2 Reinforcement of the Black poplar population

A reintroduction project of *P. nigra* was performed in the period 2002-2005. The aim was to create seed sources and thereby to promote the colonisation of native *P. nigra* in newly restored habitat. This was the follow-up of a study performed in 1999-2000 on the restoration potential and constraints of the development on softwood riparian forests along the Common

Meuse (Vanden Broeck and Jochems 2002; Vanden Broeck et al. 2004). This former study emphasized the need for re-planting native *P. nigra* since natural populations were almost gone extinct in the study area and > 150 km further upstream in Northeast France (Vanden Broeck 2004). A few isolated relict trees of *P. nigra* in the study area suggested the presence of natural populations in the past. In contrast to the native poplar species, plantations of exotic poplars of *P. x canadensis* and *P. nigra* cv. Italica were common within the study area (Vanden Broeck et al. 2004).

141 P. nigra was successfully planted on two locations; location Groeskens (Dilsen-Stokkem, 142 51°01'01N, 05°46'02E) and location Negenoord (Dilsen-Stokkem, 51°01'36 N, 05°46'16E) 143 on 0.77 ha and 2 ha, respectively. In total, 275 two-year old bare-root P. nigra trees were 144 planted, with plant distances of 9 m x 9 m and 4 m x 8 m, in Groeskens and Negenoord, 145 respectively. The distance from the centre of the plantings to the river bank was about 140 m 146 for Groeskens and 5 m for Negenoord. The selection of the plant locations was based on the 147 close connection to the river and on locations indicated close to potential sites for riparian forest development by a habitat model developed for the Common Meuse by Van Looy et al. 148 149 (2005). The plant material originated form the national P. nigra gene bank collections at the 150 Research Institute for Nature and Forest (INBO, Belgium; 57 genets) and at Alterra (The 151 Netherlands; 21 genets) supplemented with 23 genets from a natural population located along 152 the river Rhine in Germany (location Kühkopf, FA Groß-Gerau, 48° 484 56,62 N, 8° 7' 38,60 153 O) and about 90 seedlings of controlled crosses performed at INBO with genotypes of P. 154 *nigra* from the gene bank collection. All the plant material, was identified as pure *P. nigra* by 155 molecular markers (Smulders et al. 2008b; Storme et al. 2001). Trees started to produce 156 pollen and seeds, ten to fifteen years after planting.

157 3.3 Plant material sampled

158 3.3.1 Poplar seedlings from the gravel banks

159 Poplar seedlings that naturally colonized the gravel banks of the natural floodplains of the 160 river Common Meuse were sampled on the banks along a 28 km-river section. We collected 161 leaf samples of 52 and 102 poplar seedlings in late summer of 2018 and 2019, respectively. 162 The geographical location of each sampled seedling was recorded. In 2018, poplar seedlings 163 were sampled randomly within the 28 km-section. In 2019, a more systematic survey was 164 performed within part of the same route, of about 9 km along the riverside; each gravel bank 165 was inspected by walking along the river. In case rejuvenation was present on a site, one to 166 twenty-tree seedlings were sampled across the rejuvenation site (mean: 1.6), depending on the 167 area of the colonized location. Only individuals that most likely originated from seed 168 germination and not from vegetative reproduction by root suckers were sampled. One young 169 leave was collected from each seedling and dried in silica gel for DNA-analyses. The 170 estimated height of the majority of the sampled individuals was between 10 and 50 cm, 171 corresponding with the seedling or establishing stage (2-3 years) of riparian forest 172 development (Van Looy et al. 2005). The location along the river of the seedlings sampled is 173 given in Figure 1. The poplar seedlings were visually identified by their leaf morphology. One 174 young leave was collected from each seedling and dried in silica gel for DNA-analyses.

175 3.3.2 Open pollinated progenies of *P. nigra*

176 *Populus* species are predominantly dioecious and thus obligatory outcrossers. Seeds of adult 177 open pollinated (OP) European black poplar females located in the study area were collected

178 in two successive years. In June 2018, seeds were collected at the location Groeskens from the 179 lower branches of the crown of six European black poplars. In June 2019, seeds were 180 collected on in total nine European black poplar females; six trees from location Groeskens 181 and three trees from location Negenoord. Seeds were collected from mature catkins, sown in 182 trays in the greenhouse (50% white peat / 50% black peat) within one week after collection. 183 For the seeds collected in 2019, germination percentage was determined. One young leave 184 was collected from each seedling and dried in silica gel for DNA-analyses. The number of 185 seeds collected per open-pollinated *P. nigra* female is given in Table 1.

186 3.3.3 Reference material

187 In Europe, poplar species frequently used in breeding programmes in order to produce hybrids 188 are the European P. nigra, the North American cottonwoods P. deltoides W. Bartram ex 189 Marshall. and P. trichocarpa Torr. & A. Gray., and to a lower extent P. maximowiczii Henry 190 native to northeast Asia. The unit of cultivation and breeding in poplars is a clone, and 191 individual cultivars are normally represented by a single clone. We included 76 reference 192 samples with known taxonomic identity of frequently used pure poplar species and hybrids as 193 positive controls for verifying the species-specificity of the molecular markers. Furthermore, 194 reference samples of *P. nigra* and of frequently planted commercial male poplar cultivars 195 were included as potential fathers in the paternity-analyses. Reference material was obtained 196 from the clone collection of INBO located in Geraardsbergen, Belgium. The following taxa 197 were included: section Aigeiros with P. deltoides (4 samples), P. nigra (18 samples), P. x 198 canadensis (P. deltoides x P. nigra) (37 samples), section Tacamahaca with P. trichocarpa (4 199 samples), P. trichocarpa x P. maximowiczii (3 samples) and the intersectional hybrid; P. x 200 generosa (P. trichocarpa x P. deltoides) (10 samples). The list of reference material is given 201 in Supplementary Table S1.

202 3.4 Identification of hybrids

203 3.4.1 DNA extraction

Total genomic DNA was extracted from the sampled leaves with the QuickPick Plant DNA kit (Bio-Nobile) using the MagRo 96-M robotic workstation (Bio-Nobile). For a subset of the samples (10%), the integrity of the DNA was assessed on 1% agarose gels. DNA quantification was performed with the Quant-iT PicoGreen dsDNA Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Massachusetts, USA) using a Synergy HT plate reader (BioTek, Vermont, USA).

209 3.4.2 Chloroplast DNA marker

210 The chloroplast DNA (cpDNA) locus *trnDT* shows interspecific variation between *P. nigra*, 211 P. deltoides and P. trichocarpa (Heinze 1998; Meyer et al. 2018). Because of its maternal 212 inheritance and the female contribution of *P. deltoides* to the poplar clones frequently planted 213 in Europe, this marker offers a tool to identify the maternal contribution of P. deltoides / P. x 214 canadensis, P. nigra and P. trichocarpa in the poplar seedlings collected from the gravel 215 banks (e.g. Csencsics and Holderegger 2016; Heinze 1997; Ziegenhagen et al. 2008). We used 216 the conserved PCR primer pair trnD/trnT (Demesure et al. 1995) in combination with the 217 restriction enzyme Hinfl. Genomic DNA (~20 - 50 ng) was used as template in the PCR 218 reactions. The PCR reaction conditions and restriction reactions were as described by Heinze 219 (1998). Reaction products and a 100 bp ladder were analysed by agarose gel electrophoresis.

220 3.4.3 Microsatellite analysis

221 We selected nine microsatellite loci that were found useful in former studies for the analysis 222 of natural hybridization events between cultivated poplars and their wild relative P. nigra 223 (Liesebach et al. 2010; Smulders et al. 2001; van der Schoot et al. 2000), and that were found 224 reliable for clonal fingerprinting in several species and hybrids of the sections Aigeiros and 225 Tacamahaca (Dayanandan et al. 1998; Liesebach et al. 2010; Rahman et al. 2000). All 226 markers are unlinked (Cervera et al. 2001; Gaudet et al. 2008). According to former studies, 227 five loci produce species-diagnostic alleles for P. deltoides and/or P. trichocarpa: PMGC14 228 (Fossati et al. 2003; Liesebach et al. 2010), PMGC456 (Liesebach et al. 2010), PMGC2163 229 (Liesebach et al. 2010), WPMS09 (Fossati et al. 2003; Liesebach et al. 2010) and WPMS20 230 (Liesebach et al. 2010). SSR analysis was performed on the OP progenies, the seedlings from 231 the gravel banks and the reference samples as described by Smulders et al. (2001) and van der 232 Schoot et al. (2000). Ten samples were replicated twice starting from a second DNA-extract 233 to calculate the genotyping error rate. PCR products were run on an ABI3500 Genetic 234 Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) and genotypes were analysed with the GeneMapper v.6.0 235 software package. Samples with fewer than 8 scored loci were discarded from the data 236 analysis. Details on the microsatellite loci are given in Table 2.

237 3.4.4 Data analysis

The maternal origin of the poplar seedlings sampled on the gravel banks was investigated using the cpDNA locus *trnDT*. The poplar seedlings from the gravel banks and the OP progenies were analysed for the presence of diagnostic alleles of *P. deltoides* and *P. trichocarpa* on the five diagnostic SSR loci. A diagnostic allele for *P. deltoides* in *P. nigra* maternal offspring indicates a backcrossed individual with *P.* x *canadensis* paternity as a result of a natural hybridization event between a cultivar of *P.* x *canadensis* and a native *P. nigra*.

245 We also performed a paternity analysis on the OP progenies using the microsatellite data to 246 determine pollination events of frequently planted male poplar cultivars included in the 247 reference samples. We used a likelihood-based approach implemented in the program 248 CERVUS 3.0.7 (Marshall et al. 1998) with the reference samples described above (48; 249 females excluded) as potential fathers, given a known mother. The paternity assignment 250 technique used by CERVUS requires the knowledge of the total number of candidate males in 251 the population and the proportion of the candidate males sampled for the simulation-based 252 approach to assess the confidence of the assignments. For the simulation, we used the LOD 253 distribution and we assumed 50 candidate fathers and a proportion of 0.3 candidate fathers 254 sampled, allowing an error rate of 0.01 and allowing a mismatch between parent and offspring 255 on one locus taking into account somatic mutations and null alleles.

256 **4. Results**

257 4.1 Diagnostic microsatellite alleles

The percentage missing data for the total microsatellite data was 0.07%. Replicated samples resulted in identical multilocus genotypes. For the seedlings sampled from the gravel banks, two multilocus genotypes were shared by two and three sampled seedlings, respectively. It is possible that some individuals were sampled twice, in 2018 and 2019. Only one genotype among these replicates was kept in the final dataset. The microsatellite data confirm the

263 presence of species-diagnostic alleles reported in former studies by Liesebach et al. (2010) 264 and Fossati et al. (2003) for PMGC14, PMGC456, PMGC2163 and WPMS09 but not for 265 WPMS20. For PMGC14, the alleles 192 and 198 were typical for all reference clones of P. 266 deltoides and for P. x canadensis, and the allele 200 was typical for all reference clones of P. 267 trichocarpa. For WPMS09, allele 232 was present in the reference clones of P. deltoides and 268 of P. x canadensis, except for 16 P. x canadensis reference clones that were homozygote for 269 this locus. This can be explained by their genetic origin (i.e. F2 or back-cross clones) or by 270 the presence of a null allele. For WPMS20, the characteristic allele for *P. deltoides* (allele 271 200) also frequently occurred in *P. nigra*, which was also reported by Liesebach et al. (2010). 272 Furthermore, species-specific alleles were present at locus PMGC2163 (P. deltoides: allele 273 185, P. trichocarpa: alleles 199, 200) and locus PMGC456 (P. deltoides: allele 82, P. 274 trichocarpa: alleles 93, 109, P. nigra: allele 75).

4.2 Poplar seedlings from the gravel banks

276 From the 154 seedlings sampled on the gravel banks, 135 showed a clear banding pattern for 277 the cpDNA locus trnDT. From the latter, 133 (98.5%) poplar seedlings showed a P. nigra-278 specific trnDT marker-fragment (~880 bp). These seedlings also showed a P. nigra-like leaf 279 morphology. The typical gene variant of P. nigra observed on the maternal inherited 280 diagnostic cpDNA locus trnDT indicated that they originated from a female P. nigra. 281 Furthermore, two (1.5%) seedlings showed a P. trichocarpa-specific cpDNA fragment 282 (~1000bp). These two samples with a P. trichocarpa-like leave morphology were collected on 283 an upstream distance of 6 km from the nearest P. nigra. No seedlings were detected with a 284 fragment length specific of *P. deltoides* (~1135bp). The results of the diagnostic microsatellite 285 alleles confirmed the presence of species-specific P. trichocarpa alleles at loci PMGC147, 286 PMGC2163 and PMGC456 for the two seedlings with a P. trichocarpa-specific trnDT 287 marker-fragment. For one of these two seedlings, species-specific alleles of P. trichocarpa 288 were homozygous, suggesting that this seedling could have originated from two P. 289 trichocarpa or P. x generosa cultivars. Furthermore, two more seedlings sampled in the field 290 showed species-specific alleles of *P. deltoides* in heterozygous state at three and four 291 diagnostic loci, respectively. Given their P. nigra-specific trnDT marker-fragment, they likely 292 originated from a *P. nigra* x *P.* x *canadensis* back-cross. Summarised, four (2%) out of the 293 154 young poplars analysed from the gravel banks exhibited genes of exotic, cultivated poplar 294 species.

4.3 Identification of hybrids in open pollinated progenies

Viable seedlings were obtained from six and five black poplar trees in 2018 and 2019, respectively. The mother trees presented only two different genets. The mean germination percentage for the 1492 seeds sown in 2019 was low (2.9%; range of 0% to 6.6%). In total, we obtained 74 viable seedlings of which 72 were successfully genotyped (Table 1). We detected no alleles species-specific to *P. deltoides* or *P. trichocarpa* in the 72 analysed seedlings from the OP *P. nigra* progenies, suggesting the absence of backcrossed individuals with *P. x canadensis* or *P. x generosa* as potential fathers.

However, the paternity analysis revealed *P*. x *canadensis* a highly likely father for three seedlings from the OP progeny from seed harvested in 2018 on one mother tree (ID 2.16) at location Groeskens. Paternity was determined with 95% confidence for 27 (38%) seedlings.

306 When using a relaxed confidence level of 80%, paternity was assigned to 48 (67%) seedlings. 307 For 24 (33%) seedlings, the paternity remained unresolved. For one seedling paternity was 308 assigned to P. x canadensis cv. Serotina de Champagne using a relaxed confidence level and 309 with no paternity-offspring mismatches. Also for a second seedling from the same mother 310 tree, P. x canadensis cv. Serotina de Champagne was the most likely father with a mismatch 311 for only one locus (PMGC14), possibly due to a somatic mutation. A third seeding from the 312 same OP progeny showed P. x canadensis cv. Serotina as the most likely father, although 313 mismatch was observed at two loci (PMGC14, PTR07). The other determined paternities 314 were assigned to trees of *P. nigra*. No offspring was assigned to the male cultivar *P. nigra* cv. 315 Italica, nor to the nearby planted male P. x canadensis cv. Robusta or to the reference 316 cultivars of *P*. x generosa.

318 5. Discussion

The results of this study illustrate the importance of in situ reinforcement of black poplar to reduce the potential impact of exotic poplar cultivars in European floodplains in case natural river dynamic processes are restored and adult black poplar trees are scarce. The numbers of young poplar seedlings that colonized the gravel banks of the river Meuse exceeded 100 fold the initial number of seedlings observed by Vanden Broeck et al. (2004). Additionally the number of seeds and seedlings with exotic poplar genes were diminished to a very low proportion compared to the situation before the restoration.

326 5.1 Limited interspecific matings

327 The majority (150, 98%) of the poplar seedlings from the gravel banks analyzed where 328 identified as 'pure' P. nigra seedlings; the typical gene variant of P. nigra observed in the 329 maternal inherited diagnostic cpDNA locus *trnDT* indicated that they originated from a 330 female P. nigra. They could not originate from cultivated first-generation (F1) P. x 331 canadensis hybrids, as cultivated clones of P. x canadensis are the result from artificial 332 crosses between a female P. deltoides and a male P. nigra, thus carrying the P. deltoides 333 haplotype (Heinze 1998; Zsuffa 1974). Furthermore, the absence of microsatellite alleles of P. 334 deltoides or P. trichocarpa suggests that they were fathered by P. nigra. Only a small number 335 (four; 2%) of young poplars analyzed from the gravel banks exhibited genes of exotic, 336 cultivated poplars. Of the latter, two seedlings showed P. trichocarpa genes while the other 337 two resulted from a first-generation back-cross (BC1) of a male P. x canadensis and a female 338 *P. nigra.* No gene variants of exotic poplar species were detected in the OP progenies. This 339 was largely confirmed by the paternity analyses, except for three seedlings (4%) of which two 340 were likely fathered by P. x canadensis cv. Serotina de Champagne and one seedling by P. x 341 canadensis cv. Serotina. It must be noted that these two cultivars are clearly different and not 342 related, although their names suggest otherwise. They show different alleles at seven out of 343 the nine microsatellite loci genotyped and also show differences in leaf morphology as was 344 noted by Broekhuizen (1960). No paternity was assigned to the male cultivar P. nigra cv. 345 Italica (Lombardy poplar), one of the most planted poplar cultivars. In Belgium, the 346 Lombardy poplar generally flowers before the majority of the native black poplars (Vanden 347 Broeck et al. 2003a), which may not be the case in more Southern regions (Chenault et al. 348 2011). Absence of flowering synchrony may explain why no paternity was assigned to this 349 cultivar or to the nearby planted male P. x canadensis cv. Robusta in this study.

350 To our knowledge, this is the first study combining diagnostic chloroplast and nuclear 351 molecular markers with a paternity analysis to detect interspecific hybridization events 352 between native black poplar and poplar cultivars. The probability to detect gene variants of P. 353 deltoides using four diagnostic nuclear microsatellite loci and according to Mendelian rules in 354 first-backcross generations (BC1) is 93.75%, but decreases to 68.36% for second back-cross 355 generations (BC2) (see Bialozyt et al. 2012). This could explain why gene variants of P. 356 deltoides remained undetected in three seedlings from the OP progenies to which a cultivar of 357 P. x canadensis was assigned as the most likely father. In this study, the paternity analysis 358 increased the reliability to identify further generation back-cross events in the OP progenies. 359 However, the power of a paternity analysis depends on the potential male parents included in 360 the analysis and the assumptions made on the proportion of potential fathers sampled. It is

361 possible that some second back-cross events remained undetected because of these sampling

362 limitations.

363 5.2 Pollen and seed pools affecting exotic gene flow

364 The contrast in the number of interspecific mating events before and after the river and 365 vegetation restoration activities is remarkable. In 1999 - 2001, the majority of the seedlings sampled on the gravel banks (27/29; 93%) showed a P. trichocarpa fragment at the cpDNA 366 367 locus trnDT and/or species-specific alleles of P. deltoides (Vanden Broeck et al. 2004). In 368 contrast to this study, gene variants of exotic poplar species were also detected in the majority 369 of the seedlings (32/34; 94%) of the OP progenies of an isolated female P. nigra in the study 370 area in 1999 - 2001 (Vanden Broeck et al. 2004). At that time, P. nigra was extremely rare in 371 the study area as a result of habitat reduction and fragmentation; the native species was only 372 represented by a few old trees, in contrast with the widely planted poplar cultivars (Vanden 373 Broeck et al. 2004). The strong decrease in population size combined with the habitat 374 fragmentation of the native P. nigra increased the opportunities for contact with cultivated 375 poplar clones and provided at that time excellent opportunities for the production of hybrid 376 seeds and seedlings. Poplars are prolific seed producers; one tree can produce over 50 million 377 of seeds in a single season (Oecd 2000). Nevertheless, poplar hybrids are generally 378 characterized by reduced fertility relative to parental species, with significant lower pollen 379 production and seed viability in F1-hybrids (Stettler et al. 1996). It is therefore likely that the 380 seed production and seed viability of *P. nigra* outperformed those of the cultivated poplars. 381 Also, pollen load composition and size could have been an important process in limiting the 382 production of hybrid progeny. The low frequencies of interspecific mating relative to 383 intraspecific mating using a pollen mixture of different taxa in controlled crosses suggest a 384 greater competitive ability for conspecific pollen (Benetka et al. 2002; Gaget et al. 1989; 385 Rajora 1989; Vanden Broeck et al. 2003b). As a result, the relative fertilization success of a 386 pollen tree depends upon the taxon constitution of the pollen mix and thus on the number and 387 taxon of the producing pollen trees in the study area.

388 In this study, the few seedlings showing exotic poplar genes were located at distances of > 1389 km from the nearest reintroduction sites of black poplar. This indicates that hybrid poplars 390 still reproduce in the study area, in particular on sites located further away from the 391 reforestation sites of black poplar. Establishing more seed sources of black poplar over the 392 river stretch could further reduce hybrid reproductive success along the Common Meuse. 393 Although conspecific siring of female *P*. x *canadensis* is enhanced by the presence of pollen 394 of black poplar (Vanden Broeck et al. 2012), the higher local density of male and female 395 black poplars appears to guarantee the establishment of mainly pure black poplar seedlings 396 nearby the parental stands. Considering the possibility of long distance gene flow (Imbert and 397 Lefèvre 2003), investigations of interspecific mating events would ideally cover the whole 398 river stretch where natural habitat is restored.

399 5.3 Conservation implications

400 The results of this study illustrate the importance of in situ reinforcement of black poplar 401 populations to reduce the potential impact of exotic poplar cultivars along European 402 floodplains where natural river dynamic processes are restored and adult black poplar trees 403 are scarce. The potential risks for gene introgression from exotic poplars into black poplar is

404 indeed highly variable between geographic locations and river sites, largely depending on 405 habitat fragmentation, flowering synchrony and the composition of the pollen and seed pool at 406 the specific site. While interspecific gene flow seems to be absent in large natural populations 407 of black poplar, like in France along the rivers Loire, Garonne and Drôme (Imbert and 408 Lefèvre 2003), significant gene flow from exotic poplars in riparian floodplains is reported 409 along the rivers Rhine and the Elbe in Germany (Meyer et al. 2018; Ziegenhagen et al. 2008), 410 the Morava River in the Czech Republic {Pospiskova, 2006 #832}, the Ticino river in Italy 411 (Fossati et al. 2003), the Rhine river in The Netherlands (Arens et al. 1998; Smulders et al. 412 2008a) and the rivers Thur and Reuss in Switzerland (Csencsics and Holderegger 2016). This 413 case study along the Common Meuse, demonstrates that reintroduction and reinforcement of 414 native black poplar populations can reverse the situation from high to low risk of 415 introgression with cultivated poplars on a relatively short time scale. By changing the 416 composition of the seed and pollen pool, black poplar nowadays has a competitive advantage 417 compared to the exotic poplars in colonizing the restored river banks along the Common 418 Meuse.

419 Hundreds of young black poplar seedlings colonized the gravel banks. With an estimated age 420 for the majority of the seedlings of two to three years old, they survived the germination stage 421 and currently present the establishment stage of softwood forest development with the 422 development of dense thickets (Van Looy 2006). The survival of poplar seedlings depends on 423 the combination of many factors broadly related to the availability of water and oxygen 424 (Hughes et al. 2001). As a result of the critical conditions required by seedlings, successful 425 establishment only occurs in some years, and within well-defined elevational bands (Hughes 426 et al. 2001). Furthermore, established seedlings at lower river levels are frequently subject to 427 later removal or damage by drought, flooding, sediment burial or mechanical disturbance 428 (Hughes et al. 2001; Jacquemyn et al. 2006). Seedling survival should therefore be monitored 429 over larger time scales to evaluate the success of this restoration project and to predict riparian 430 forest development along the river Common Meuse. Management and conservation plans 431 should include further monitoring of the seedling colonization and survival, the effective 432 population size and the introgression of foreign genes in black poplar across multiple 433 generations. Also, the vegetative spread of cultivated hybrids, which was not the focus of this 434 study, should be taken into consideration in predicting the development of riparian forest 435 ecosystems. The data can then be used for the construction of habitat models to identify 436 occupied or potential habitat and to predict riparian forest development in the restored 437 floodplain area (Debeljak et al. 2015; Van Looy et al. 2005).

438 6. Conclusions

439 Almost two decades after the reintroduction of black poplar along the river Common Meuse, 440 the constitution of the seed and pollen pool changed in the study area thereby benefitting the 441 reproduction of the native species at the expense of the reproduction capacity of the exotic 442 poplar species. Increasing the density of male and female black poplars appears to guarantee 443 the establishment of mainly pure black poplar seedlings nearby the parental stands. 444 Nevertheless, exotic poplar species still reproduce at larger distances from the revegetation 445 sites and colonize restored habitat thereby competing for resources with the native species. 446 Therefore, increasing the number of native black poplar seed sources along the river stretch 447 will help the native black poplar to maintain its competitive advantage over the exotic poplars

and will contribute considerably to the success of riparian forest development along theCommon Meuse.

450 **7.** Author statements

- 451 AVdB, KVL: conceptualization; AVdB: methodology, formal analysis, writing original
- 452 draft; KC, AVB, KVL: writing review & editing; SN, NDR: methodology, resources. All
- 453 authors have read and approved the final version.

454 **8. Declaration of competing interest**

455 The authors declare that they have no potential conflicts of interest.

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465 **11. Data profile**

466 Data will be made available after acceptance of the manuscript for publication by the data 467 repository DRYAD.

469 **12. References**

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13. Tables

Collection year	Location	P. nigra tree ID	# seeds	seed germination (%)	# seedlings analysed
2018	Groeskens	2.16	NA	NA	28
2018	Groeskens	5.20	NA	NA	1
2019	Negenoord	1	160	2.50	4
2019	Negenoord	2	300	3.00	9
2019	Negenoord	3	300	5.67	17
2019	Groeskens	5.25	300	3.00	8
2019	Groeskens	5.20	76	6.58	5
Total					72

Table 1. The number of seeds collected, seed germination percentage and the number of
 seedlings analyzed per open pollinated *Populus nigra* female.

	Locus	Linkage group	Repeat motif	Fragmentsize (bp)	Annealing Tempgeratur e (°C)	Reference
1	PMGC_14	XIII	CTT	179 - 227	52	PMGC
2	WPMS_05	XII	GT	263 - 291	52	van der Schoot et al. (2000)
3	PMGC_2163	Х	GA	198 - 220	52	PMGC
4	PMGC_456	II	GA	80 - 136	52	PMGC
5	WPMS_16	VII	GTC	128-167	52	Smulders et al. (2001)
6	WPMS_09	VI	GT	244 -294	57	Smulders et al. (2001)
7	PTR2	IX	TGG	207 -228	57	Dayanandan et al. (1998)
8	WPMS_20	XIII	TTCTGG	224 - 242	57	Smulders et al. (2001)
9	PTR7	XII	(CT)5AT(CT)	230 - 250	57	Rahman et al. (2002)

Table 2 Microsatellite loci used for taxonomic classification and paternity analysis.

688 14. Figure

Figure 1. A. Location of the river Common Meuse. B. Map of the study site and sampling
 locations. Nearby sampled poplar seedlings are clustered and the total number of clustered

- samples is given in the circles. Stars indicate the position of hybrid poplar seedlings sampled.
- 692 **C.** Location of the introduced *Populus nigra*.
- 693

694 **15. Supplementary material**

- Table S1. List of *Populus* species and poplar cultivars with known taxonomic identity used as
 reference samples. References to the cultivars were obtained from the International Register
- 697 of Poplar Cultivars (IPC FAO)





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