



**MARINA LOPES BUENO**

**BIOLOGICAL INVASIONS IN BRAZILIAN FRESHWATER  
ECOSYSTEMS: PRESENT SITUATION OF ALIEN FISH  
SPECIES AND ASSESSMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS  
AS INVASION DRIVERS**

**LAVRAS-MG  
2021**

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Tese apresentada à Universidade Federal de Lavras, como parte das exigências do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia Aplicada, para a obtenção do título de Doutora.

Prof. Dr. Rafael Dudeque Zenni  
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Ficha catalográfica elaborada pelo Sistema de Geração de Ficha Catalográfica da Biblioteca  
Universitária da UFLA, com dados informados pelo(a) próprio(a) autor(a).

Bueno, Marina Lopes.

Biological invasions in Brazilian freshwater ecosystems :  
present situation of alienfish species and assessment of  
environmental factors as invasion drivers / Marina Lopes Bueno. -  
2021.

95 p. : il.

Orientador(a): Rafael Dudeque Zenni.

Coorientador(a): Paulo dos Santos Pompeu.

Tese (doutorado) - Universidade Federal de Lavras, 2021.

Bibliografia.

1. Biological invasions. 2. Ichthyofauna. 3. Freshwater. I.  
Zenni, Rafael Dudeque. II. Pompeu, Paulo dos Santos. III. Título.

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**INVASÕES BIOLÓGICAS EM ECOSISTEMAS DULCÍCOLAS BRASILEIROS:  
SITUAÇÃO ATUAL DAS ESPÉCIES EXÓTICAS DE PEIXES E AVALIAÇÃO DE  
FATORES AMBIENTAIS COMO FACILITADORES DE INVASÃO**

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APROVADA em 10 de dezembro de 2021.

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*Á memória de Maria Eugênia e Maria Cristina Godinho Lopes.*

*Dedico*

## AGRADECIMENTOS

Agradeço aos meus pais, Maria Eugênia (*in memoriam*) e José Henrique, por todo apoio, incentivo e amor. À toda minha família, que sempre esteve ao meu lado, especialmente Maria Cristina (*in memoriam*), Elton, Anna Luíza e Anna Clara. Ao Luis, pelo companheirismo em todos os momentos e por me ajudar a seguir em frente.

Aos amigos do Laboratório de Ecologia de Invasões e Conservação (UFLA) e Laboratório de Ecologia de Peixes (UFLA) por todos esses anos de convivência e amizade, pela troca de conhecimento e colaboração. Aos meus orientadores, Dr. Rafael Zenni e Dr. Paulo Pompeu, que contribuiriam muito para minha formação profissional. Aos colaboradores dos artigos, que ajudaram a concretizar este trabalho. Aos colegas do *Centre of Excellence for Invasion Biology* (CIB) e *The Robinson Lab* (Stellenbosch University) que, mesmo em um momento caótico mundialmente, me receberam tão bem na África do Sul.

À banca avaliadora, pela revisão e sugestões para aperfeiçoamento do trabalho.

Ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia Aplicada. À Ellen, melhor secretária que o Programa poderia ter, sempre disposta a ajudar e incentivar todos os discentes.

O presente trabalho foi realizado com apoio da Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior – Brasil (CAPES) – Código de Financiamento 88882.446375/2019-01.

Muito obrigada!

*"It always seems impossible until it's done." (Nelson Mandela)*

## RESUMO

As invasões biológicas são uma consequência global de um mundo cada vez mais conectado e impactado pelas ações humanas. A expansão das atividades humanas, como construções de barragens, aquicultura, pesca e urbanização, vem transformando a estrutura, dinâmica e funcionamento dos ambientes dulcícolas e, conseqüentemente, favorecendo o estabelecimento e invasão de espécies exóticas de peixes. O número de espécies exóticas invasoras tende a aumentar indefinidamente ao longo do tempo, podendo causar inúmeros e severos impactos nos ambientes receptores como, por exemplo, mudanças nos ecossistemas e extinção de espécies nativas. Compreender os aspectos biológicos e ecológicos das espécies introduzidas, bem como identificar quais variáveis do habitat favorecem o estabelecimento destas espécies, são passos importantes para controlar futuras invasões biológicas e manejar aquelas que já aconteceram. Assim, os objetivos deste estudo foram: (I) preparar uma lista atualizada dos peixes introduzidos nas principais bacias do sudeste do Brasil (Alto Paraná, Paraíba do Sul, São Francisco, Jequitinhonha, Doce e Mucuri), informando seus status de invasão, categoria de impacto ambiental (EICAT/IUCN), vias de introdução, origem e atributos taxonômicos; (II) avaliar a importância relativa das variáveis físicas do habitat na presença e abundância do peixe invasor *Poecilia reticulata*, uma espécie amplamente distribuída no Brasil e em regiões tropicais e temperadas do mundo. Os resultados deste trabalho indicaram um crescente número de espécies de peixes introduzidas e estabelecidas nas bacias estudadas, comparado com estudos anteriores. Existem dados detalhados sobre a distribuição e status populacional destas espécies no Brasil, mas há uma carência de estudos ecológicos sobre os impactos de tais introduções. Este estudo também destacou a importância da urbanização no estabelecimento e invasão de *P. reticulata*. As áreas urbanas são vias relevantes para a introdução desta espécie exótica invasora, e as modificações no habitat causadas pela urbanização criam condições ambientais distintas que beneficiam esta espécie, assim como outros invasores oportunistas. Esse resultado reforça a importância da proteção da integridade biótica dos cursos d'água para o gerenciamento e prevenção de invasões biológicas.

**Palavras-chave:** Ictiofauna, Lista de espécies. Espécies não-nativas. Distúrbios humanos. Água doce.



## ABSTRACT

Biological invasions are a global consequence of a world increasingly connected and impacted by human actions. The expansion of human activities, such as construction of dams, aquaculture, fishing and urbanization, has been transforming the structure, dynamics and functioning of freshwater environments and, consequently, favoring the establishment and invasion of alien fish species. The number of invasive alien species tends to increase indefinitely over time, which can cause numerous and severe impacts on recipient environments, such as changes in ecosystems and native species extinction. Understanding the biological and ecological aspects of introduced species, as well as identifying which habitat variables are favorable to the establishment of these species, are important steps to control future biological invasions and manage those that have already taken place. Thus, the aims of this study were: (I) to prepare an updated list of fish introduced in the main watersheds of southeastern Brazil (Upper Paraná, Paraíba do Sul, São Francisco, Jequitinhonha, Doce and Mucuri), informing their invasion status, category of environmental impact (EICAT/IUCN), pathways of introduction, origin and taxonomic attributes; and (II) to evaluate the relative importance of physical habitat variables on the presence and abundance of the invasive fish *Poecilia reticulata*, a species widely distributed in Brazil and in tropical and temperate regions. The results of this work indicated an increasing number of fish species introduced and established in the studied watersheds, compared to previous studies. There were detailed data on the distribution and population status of these species in Brazil, but a lack of ecological studies on the impacts of such introductions. The present study also highlighted the importance of urbanization in the establishment and invasion of *P. reticulata*. Urban areas were relevant pathways for the introduction of this invasive species, and the changes in the habitat caused by urbanization created distinct environmental conditions that benefit this species, as well as other opportunistic invaders. This result reinforces the importance of protecting the biotic integrity of watercourses for the management and prevention of biological invasions.

**Keywords:** Ichthyofauna, Checklist. Non-native species. Human disturbance. Freshwater.

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## PRIMEIRA PARTE – INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

Espécies exóticas invasoras causam diversas mudanças ambientais, sendo consideradas uma das principais causas diretas de perda de biodiversidade global (IPBES 2019; PYŠEK et al. 2020). Espécies são consideradas exóticas quando são transportadas para além de seus limites e área geográfica nativa para um local em que elas não possuem distribuição natural (BLACKBURN et al 2011). Este processo é mediado, de maneira voluntária ou involuntária, por ações humanas (LEÃO et al. 2011). O número de espécies exóticas invasoras vem crescendo em todo o mundo devido às altas taxas de introduções por diversas vias e vetores, facilitadas pela globalização e aumento da população humana (SEEBENS et al. 2017; PYŠEK et al. 2020). No entanto, para que o processo de invasão biológica ocorra de fato, as espécies exóticas precisam passar por alguns filtros ambientais, biológicos e impostos pelo homem divididos em cinco estágios: nativo, transporte, introdução, estabelecimento e invasão (BLACKBURN et al. 2011; ZENNI et al. 2017). As primeiras barreiras a serem superadas são a geográfica e o cativeiro e/ou cultivo. Muitas espécies conseguem ultrapassar esses limites geográficos ou os impostos pelo homem, como as cercas dos cativeiros, e são introduzidas em novas áreas. Assim, estas espécies são denominadas exóticas. Se as espécies exóticas conseguirem sobreviver no novo habitat, serão classificadas como casuais ou introduzidas. Se houver reprodução com alta probabilidade de os descendentes sobreviverem, as espécies serão classificadas como naturalizadas ou estabelecidas. Portanto, para que este processo de estabelecimento ocorra, as espécies devem superar as barreiras de sobrevivência e reprodução. Caso as espécies estabelecidas consigam sair de sua área de introdução e expandam suas distribuições, haverá dispersão. Como os ambientes vão se diversificando ao longo do processo de dispersão, as populações precisam superar uma barreira ambiental para que ocorra a invasão. Somente após a superação de todas essas barreiras e estágios é que as espécies passam a ser classificadas como exóticas invasoras (BLACKBURN et al. 2011; LEÃO et al. 2011).

O processo de invasão biológica pode ser influenciado pelas características das espécies (traços de história de vida) e por outros fatores, como a pressão de propágulos, condições do ambiente, traços das comunidades receptoras e interações invasor-comunidade (CATFORD et al. 2019). A pressão de propágulos está relacionada com a frequência e a quantidade de organismos que são introduzidos no ambiente receptor (LOCKWOOD et al. 2005). Assim,

quanto mais propágulos em condições satisfatórias forem liberados, maior a chance do sucesso de estabelecimento e invasão (LOCKWOOD et al. 2005, 2009; SIMBERLOFF 2009). No entanto, os organismos precisam se ajustar às novas condições impostas pelo ambiente receptor para se estabelecerem, de modo que a semelhança entre o ambiente de origem e o invadido pode beneficiar o resultado da invasão (GARCIA et al. 2021). A degradação do ambiente causada pelo homem também pode favorecer as invasões biológicas e exacerbar seus impactos por meio de alterações nos habitats e nas interações ecológicas, abrindo assim novos nichos vagos para os invasores mais adaptáveis e tolerantes (GHERARDI 2007; RICCIARDI & MACISAAC 2011). Apesar disso, a maioria das espécies introduzidas não consegue se estabelecer e invadir qualquer ambiente (GARCIA et al. 2021), porém aquelas que obtêm sucesso frequentemente causam grandes impactos nos ecossistemas (VITULE et al. 2009).

Os impactos causados pelas invasões biológicas podem ser complexos e, muitas vezes, irreversíveis (BLACKBURN et al. 2014; PYŠEK et al. 2020). As espécies exóticas invasoras podem causar mudanças substanciais nos ecossistemas receptores (BLACKBURN et al. 2014; JESCHKE et al. 2014; MENDOZA & KOLLEF 2014), e conseqüentemente, podem alterar seus processos (CUCHEROUSSET & OLDEN 2011, VILÀ et al. 2011; KATSANEVAKIS et al. 2014; PYŠEK et al. 2020), ameaçar a biodiversidade nativa (VITULE et al. 2009, CUCHEROUSSET & OLDEN 2011, JESCHKE et al. 2014; ROSA et al. 2017), provocar prejuízos econômicos (ADELINO et al. 2021; HAUBROCK et al. 2021; HERINGER et al. 2021) e de saúde pública (NÚÑEZ et al. 2020; VILÀ et al. 2021). Estes impactos tendem a aumentar com o tempo em todos os tipos de habitat, mas são especialmente maiores nas ilhas e nos ambientes dulcícolas (IPBES 2019). Peixes exóticos invasores, por exemplo, têm causado impactos ecológicos e econômicos danosos nos ecossistemas aquáticos e na sociedade humana (HAUBROCK et al. 2021), mas muitos desses impactos ainda não são bem compreendidos tanto no meio científico, quanto pela população em geral (JESCHKE et al. 2014; COURCHAMP et al. 2017; BUENO et al. 2021).

Apesar do número crescente de trabalhos sobre invasões biológicas (REICHARD & WHITE 2003; HEGER et al. 2021), ainda existem lacunas de conhecimento que devem ser preenchidas. Além da falta de informação concreta sobre os reais impactos ambientais que as espécies podem causar nos ecossistemas receptores (BUENO et al. 2021), dados sobre as taxas de sucesso de invasão por espécie e por ambiente podem ser difíceis de serem obtidos, devido à maioria das introduções serem realizadas de forma clandestina (GARCIA et al.

2021). Também existem lacunas nos dados disponíveis sobre os impactos econômicos das invasões biológicas, indicando subestimação e a necessidade de aprimoração dos relatórios de custos (HAUBROCK et al. 2021; RENAULT et al. 2021). Na América do Sul e África, por exemplo, não existem relatos sobre prejuízos econômicos causados por espécies exóticas invasoras de peixes (HAUBROCK et al. 2021). Nesse sentido, as invasões biológicas devem receber mais atenção, e maiores esforços devem ser realizados para o preenchimento de lacunas desta área, possibilitando uma transferência de conhecimento entre ciência e gestão (FOXCROFT et al. 2020). Por outro lado, informações sobre a distribuição das espécies exóticas invasoras estão disponíveis em artigos científicos e vários bancos de dados (PYŠEK et al. 2020), como GRIIS (Global Register of Introduced and Invasive Species), CABI (Invasive Species Compendium), DIAS (Database on Introductions of Aquatic Species – FAO) e Base de Dados Nacional de Espécies Exóticas Invasoras. Através destas informações, um bom conhecimento foi gerado sobre o número de espécies exóticas estabelecidas e invasoras em várias regiões e ecossistemas (PYŠEK et al. 2020). No entanto, em um país como o Brasil, que possui extensas áreas e inúmeras bacias hidrográficas, ainda há dificuldades na obtenção destas informações sobre as espécies de peixes introduzidas (GARCIA et al. 2021), destacando a importância de novos inventários e listas de espécies exóticas.

Dado o cenário de aumento alarmante das invasões biológicas e degradação em ambientes dulcícolas, o objetivo geral deste trabalho foi avaliar a atual situação das espécies de peixes introduzidas em importantes bacias hidrográficas do Brasil, bem como avaliar como o habitat físico pode beneficiar estas invasões. A partir da compreensão destas questões, espera-se fornecer uma base para um maior conhecimento sobre o processo de invasão em ambientes dulcícolas, possibilitando a implementação de programas de manejo efetivos e de prevenção de futuras introduções.

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**SEGUNDA PARTE – ARTIGOS\***

**ARTIGO I****Alien fish fauna of southeastern Brazil: species status, introduction pathways, distribution and impacts**

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O presente manuscrito foi publicado no periódico científico *Biological Invasions* (ISSN 1573-1464)

DOI: 10.1007/s10530-021-02564-x

Received: 21 May 2020 / Accepted: 1 May 2021 / Accepted: 17 May 2021

## **Alien fish fauna of southeastern Brazil: species status, introduction pathways, distribution and impacts**

### **Abstract**

Compiled inventories with information on the distribution, status and impacts of invasive alien species are essential for the study, management and monitoring of biological invasions. Despite their great importance, such studies are lacking for alien freshwater fish species in Brazil. Therefore, our aim was to improve the knowledge of the regional richness of alien species, leading to the closing of existing regional data gaps. We performed extensive bibliographic research and consulted with experts to update the list of freshwater alien fishes of six watersheds in southeastern Brazil (Upper Paraná, Paraíba do Sul, São Francisco, Mucuri, Jequitinhonha and Doce), and provided information on species invasion status, environmental impact category, pathway of introduction, origin and species taxonomic attributes. We compiled a list of 201 alien fish species introduced in the six watersheds (to 2019) through six pathways: aquarium trade, geographical barrier breach (after the flooding of a natural barrier by the construction of a hydroelectric power plant), aquaculture, stocking for sport fishing, live bait and biological control. The invasion status of the species varied among watersheds, and it was possible to characterize the impact of only 11 species. Our results show there are detailed data on the distribution and population status of alien fishes in Brazil, but also a lack of ecological studies on the impacts of such introductions. Research on the impacts of alien fish species on recipient ecosystems are urgently needed owing to the present high number and wide distribution of invasive species and lack of knowledge on the consequences of these invasions.

**Keywords** Checklist, non-native species, ichthyofauna, freshwater, invasion status, invasive species

## **Resumo**

Inventários compilados com informações sobre a distribuição, status e impactos das espécies exóticas invasoras são essenciais para o estudo, manejo e monitoramento de invasões biológicas. Apesar da grande importância, tais estudos são escassos para espécies exóticas de peixes de água doce no Brasil. Portanto, nosso objetivo foi aprimorar o conhecimento da riqueza regional de espécies exóticas, visando a diminuição das lacunas de dados regionais existentes. Realizamos uma extensa pesquisa bibliográfica e consultamos pesquisadores especializados para atualizar a lista de peixes exóticos de seis bacias hidrográficas no sudeste do Brasil (Alto Paraná, Paraíba do Sul, São Francisco, Mucuri, Jequitinhonha e Doce), adicionando informações sobre o status de invasão das espécies, categoria de impacto ambiental, vias de introdução, origem e atributos taxonômicos das espécies. Compilamos uma lista com 201 espécies exóticas de peixes introduzidas nas seis bacias hidrográficas (até 2019) por seis vias: comércio de peixes ornamentais, quebra de barreira geográfica (após o alagamento de uma barreira natural pela construção de uma usina hidrelétrica), aquicultura, estocagem para pesca, isca viva e controle biológico. Os status de invasão das espécies variaram entre as bacias hidrográficas e foi possível categorizar o impacto de apenas 11 espécies. Nossos resultados mostram que existem dados detalhados sobre a distribuição e status populacional de peixes exóticos no Brasil, mas também há uma carência de estudos ecológicos sobre os impactos de tais introduções. Pesquisas sobre os impactos de espécies exóticas de peixes nos ambientes receptores são urgentemente necessárias devido ao alto número e disseminação de espécies invasoras e à falta de conhecimento sobre as consequências dessas invasões.

**Palavras-chave:** Lista de espécies, espécies não-nativas, ictiofauna, água doce, status de invasão, espécies invasoras

## Introduction

Invasive alien species can cause changes in recipient ecosystems (Blackburn et al. 2014; Jeschke et al. 2014; Mendoza and Kollef 2014) and, consequently, can alter ecological processes (Cucherousset and Olden 2011; Katsanevakis et al. 2014; Ricciardi et al. 2017), threaten native biodiversity (Vitule et al. 2009; Jeschke et al. 2014; Ricciardi et al. 2017) and cause socioeconomic and public health problems (Ricciardi et al. 2017; Lima-Junior et al. 2018). The deliberate introduction of freshwater alien fishes is a historical practice that has become common worldwide since the end of the 1800s (Welcomme 1988; Padilla and Williams 2004; Mandrak and Cudmore 2010, Pelicice et al. 2017). Fishes have been transported and introduced outside their native ranges for many reasons, including aquaculture, aquarium trade, biological control, stocking, sport fishing and bait (Alves et al. 2007; Pelicice et al. 2017; Vitule et al. 2019). Despite being a great threat to native freshwater fishes (Vitule et al. 2009), the rate of alien fish introduction has been increasing rapidly in South America, including Brazil (Lima-Junior et al. 2018; Magalhães et al. 2019; Vitule et al. 2019 and references therein).

Fish introductions started in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century in Brazil, when escapes from reservoir stocking programs resulted in the establishment of many alien species in rivers (Gurgel and Oliveira 1987; Alves et al. 2007; Brito et al. 2020). By the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century, fish introductions occurred mainly due to the production and release of alien species by hydroelectric power companies that invested in the development of fish production technology to minimize the impacts of their dams to migratory species (Alves et al. 2007; Pelicice et al. 2017; Lima-Junior et al. 2018). During this period, there was a significant removal of a geographic barrier in southeastern Brazil (Upper Paraná River basin) that resulted in massive fish introductions after the construction of Itaipu Hydroelectric Power Plant (Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Vitule et al. 2012). More recently, in the early 21<sup>st</sup> century, fish production for the aquarium trade has stimulated the transport of fish species (mostly from the Amazon region) to new watersheds within Brazil (Alves et al. 2007; Vitule et al. 2019; Magalhães et al. 2019, 2020). Aquaculture and fish stocking also played a significant role throughout the 20<sup>th</sup> and early 21<sup>st</sup> century (Pelicice et al. 2017; Lima-Junior et al. 2018; Nobile et al. 2019; Magalhães et al. 2020).

There are many studies on biological invasions in freshwater environments in Brazil (e.g. Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Britton and Orsi 2012; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013a; Sales et al. 2018; Magalhães et al. 2019), but comprehensive reviews of the invasion status of alien

fishes, their distribution and impacts are lacking, despite being essential for the study, monitoring and management of biological invasions (Latombe et al. 2016). Species inventories are very important for testing theories on the distributions, causes, and consequences of biological invasions (Olden 2006; Pyšek et al. 2018). The knowledge about regional fauna and floras obtained from these inventories and databases may be used in macroecological analyses in order to provide insights into the invasion process dynamics (Dawson et al. 2017; Vinogradova et al. 2018; Pyšek et al. 2018, 2019; Vitule et al. 2019). For southeastern Brazil, the most invaded region in the country, the last published compiled inventory comprising more than one watershed was a state list of freshwater alien fishes published by Alves et al. (2007).

The southeastern region is the most populous and economically developed in Brazil (IBGE 2020); consequently, it suffers many anthropogenic impacts, and its watersheds are highly impacted by the introduction of alien species, construction of hydroelectric plants, land-use changes, and sewage pollution (Agostinho et al. 2008; Martins 2008; Andrade 2010; Pompeu 2010; Vieira 2010; Fernandes et al. 2016; Carvalho et al. 2017). Commercial (e.g. fish farming) and ornamental (e.g. aquarium trade) aquaculture is a common practice in southeastern Brazil (Britton and Orsi 2012; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013). Furthermore, the largest center of ornamental fish farming in South America is located in this region, resulting in a high number of species established due to aquarium dumping (Alves et al. 2007; Pelicice et al. 2017; Lima-Junior et al. 2018; Nobile et al. 2019; Magalhães et al. 2017, 2020).

The objective of our study was to prepare an updated comprehensive list of freshwater alien fishes established in the main watersheds in the southeastern region of Brazil. Information was compiled on fish species invasion status (casual, naturalized, invasive), categories of environmental impact (massive, major, moderate, minor, minimal, deficient data, no alien populations, not evaluated), pathways of introduction, origin and taxonomic attributes (family and order). Based on this information, the main research questions investigated for the study region were: i) what alien fish species are introduced?; ii) does the compiled information vary among the studied watersheds?; and, iii) do origin and pathways influence alien species distributions? By improving our knowledge of the alien species in the study region, we provide basis for improving the management of alien fish species and preventing future introductions (Pelicice et al. 2017; Pyšek et al. 2018; Vitule et al. 2019).

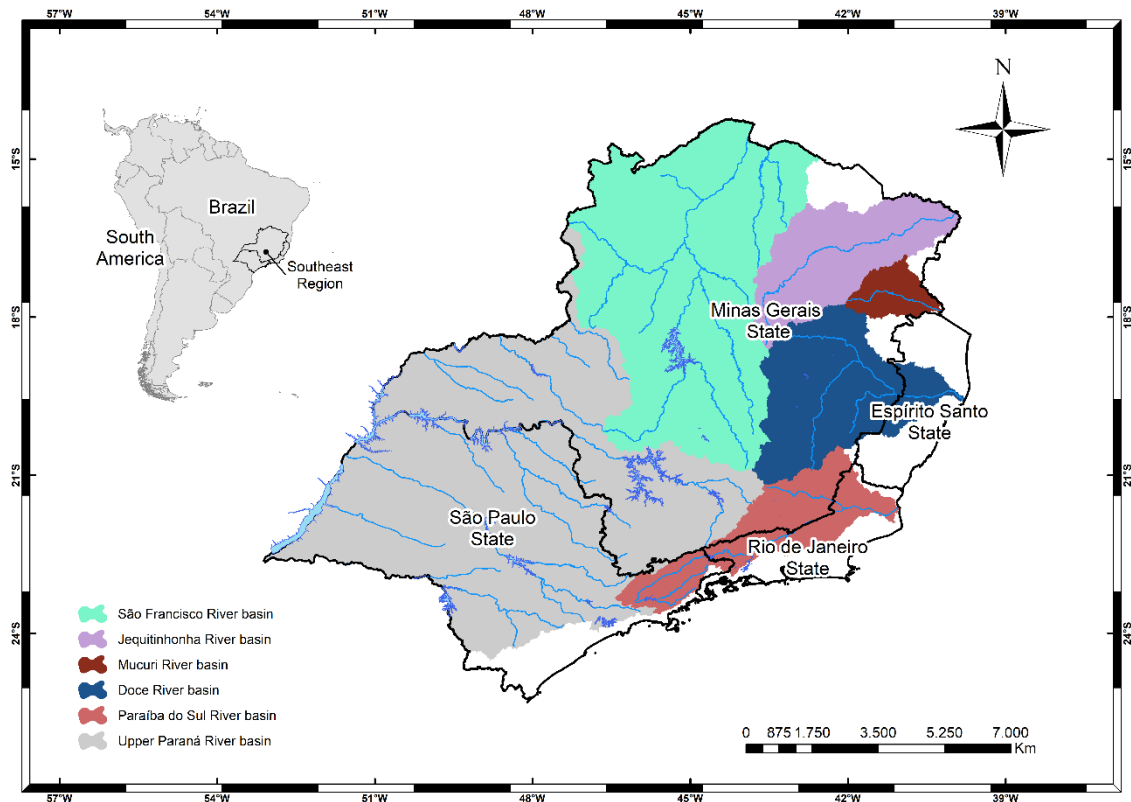
## Methods

### *Study region*

Our study comprised six watersheds draining from the southeast of Brazil to different freshwater ecoregions (numbers following the ecoregion refer to Abell et al. 2008): Ecoregion Northeastern Mata Atlântica (328), including Doce, Jequitinhonha and Mucuri basins; Ecoregion Paraíba do Sul (329); Ecoregion São Francisco (327); and, Ecoregion Upper Paraná (344) (Fig. 1). The data were collected only for the states of southeastern Brazil (Minas Gerais, São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, and Espírito Santo). This region has an area of approximately 924,565 km<sup>2</sup> and is one of the most economically developed and anthropogenically impacted regions of Brazil (Pelicice et al. 2017; IBGE 2020). Consequently, these watersheds suffer from stressors such as introduction of alien species, construction of hydroelectric plants, land-use changes, and sewage pollution (Agostinho et al. 2008; Martins 2008; Andrade 2010; Pompeu 2010; Vieira 2010; Fernandes et al. 2016; Carvalho et al. 2017).

The Upper Paraná basin has a total area of approximately 900,000 km<sup>2</sup> and its southeastern portion drains the states of Minas Gerais and São Paulo. This river basin is situated upstream of Sete Quedas Falls, an ancient natural barrier flooded by the construction of the Itaipu Hydroelectric Power Plant, which allowed the spread of several species from Lower Paraná to Upper Paraná (Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Pelicice et al. 2017). The São Francisco River basin has approximately 645,000 km<sup>2</sup>, and its source is located in the state of Minas Gerais (Godinho and Godinho 2003; Kohler 2003; Silva et al. 2003). About 37% of its area is located in Minas Gerais, covering the entire portion of the Upper and part of the Middle São Francisco basin (Godinho and Godinho 2003). The Jequitinhonha and Mucuri River basins are located in the southeast and northeast of Brazil, with more than 94% of each basin within the southeast region (Pompeu 2010; Cemig 2019a, b). The Jequitinhonha area is 70,315 km<sup>2</sup> and drains the states of Minas Gerais and Bahia (Cemig 2019a). The Mucuri basin is smaller and drains an area of 15,400 km<sup>2</sup>, passing through the states of Minas Gerais, Espírito Santo and Bahia (Cemig 2019b). The Doce River basin, 83,400 km<sup>2</sup>, is entirely within the southeast region, draining the states of Minas Gerais and Espírito Santo (Cemig 2019c). The Paraíba do Sul River basin is also located entirely in the southeast region, in the states of Minas Gerais, São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro (Vieira and Rodrigues 2010), draining an area of approximately 57,000 km<sup>2</sup> (Cemig 2019d). This river basin is located in one of the largest urban-industrial centers in Brazil and, consequently, it is

impacted by several anthropogenic actions (Teixeira et al. 2005; Vieira and Rodrigues 2010). The largest center of ornamental fish farming in South America is in this river basin, especially in the region of the municipality of Muriaé (Vieira and Rodrigues 2010; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013a; Magalhães et al. 2019). The center provides more than 70% of the Brazilian demand for aquarium fishes (Magalhães and Jacobi 2017).



**Fig. 1** Watersheds of southeastern Brazil included in this study.

### *Lists of alien fish species and their attributes*

An updated list of fish species introduced in southeastern Brazil was compiled based on extensive bibliographic searches, empirical knowledge of experts (academics and private consultants in environmental projects in the region) and unpublished records (see Electronic Appendix S1 for data sources). For this, we had the support of alien fish experts who contributed and validated the data in a workshop at the Universidade Federal de Lavras (UFLA), July 9 – 10, 2018. The list contains information on species invasion status: casual (individuals that survive in the location where they were introduced, but do not reproduce), naturalized (individuals that survive, reproduce, and have a self-sustaining population) or invasive (species that have survived, spread, and are reproducing at multiple sites) (Blackburn et al. 2011); impacts on recipient environments (based on the EICAT scheme; see Blackburn



et al. 2014); pathways of introduction; the region of native distribution (termed ‘origin’: Africa, Asia, Central America, North America, South America, and Europe); and taxonomic order and family.

Searches were conducted in Google Scholar (<https://scholar.google.com>), Web of Science (<https://mjl.clarivate.com>) and Fish Base ([www.fishbase.org](http://www.fishbase.org) – Froese and Pauly 2019) and included books and journal articles/manuscripts published up to 2019. We used combinations of the following search terms, in English and Portuguese: “fish species”, “ichthyofauna”, “alien”, “non-native”, “introduced”, “Doce River”, “Jequitinhonha River”, “Mucuri River”, “Paraíba do Sul River”, “São Francisco River” and “Upper Paraná River”. Each expert also contributed publications and personal data collected in field surveys.

The invasion status of each species was defined according to Blackburn et al. (2011), and the impacts (massive, major, moderate, minor, minimal, deficient data, no alien populations, not evaluated) caused by them were categorized according to Blackburn et al. (2014) and the Environmental Impact Classification of Alien Taxa (EICAT / IUCN) (IUCN 2020). For the EICAT classification, there must be strong evidence of the impacts caused by alien species in the recipient environments. For example, when there is evidence that a species leads to the replacement and local extinction of native species and produces irreversible changes in the structure of communities and the abiotic or biotic composition of ecosystems, its impact is classified as massive (Blackburn et al. 2014). However, if the environmental impact caused by the species is reversible, its impact is classified as major. For a species to be classified as moderate, there must be evidence that it causes declines in the population densities of native species, but no changes to the structure of communities or to the abiotic or biotic composition of ecosystems, and has no impacts that would cause it to be classified in a higher impact category (see all impact categories in Blackburn et al. 2014). The status and impact of each species were categorized for each watershed at the UFLA workshop, based on data collected in the literature and field experience of fish experts.

Origin, taxonomic order and family, and pathways of introduction were compiled/obtained from the literature. The pathways found included aquarium trade (ornamental freshwater fish trade), aquaculture (commercial aquaculture to obtain animal protein), biological control (e.g. introduction of poeciliids to control malaria-vector mosquitoes), sport fishing, live bait and anthropogenic breaching of geographic barriers (e.g. Sete Quedas Falls flooded by the construction of the Itaipu Hydroelectric Power Plant) (Alves et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Britton and Orsi 2012).

The numbers of native species for each watershed were based on literature (Bizerril 1999; Ingenito and Buckup 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Pompeu 2010; Vieira 2010; Vieira and Rodrigues 2010; Oyakawa and Menezes 2011; Gomes et al. 2015; Pugedo et al. 2016; Barbosa et al. 2017; Reis 2018, Salvador et al. 2018; Econservation 2019; Ribeiro et al. 2019; Fricke et al. 2020) and on unpublished data collected by the authors. These numbers were adjusted to include only the native species that occur in their respective watersheds in the southeastern region of Brazil.

### *Statistical analysis*

To test if observed richness of alien fish species across the six studied watersheds in southeastern Brazil varied significantly by origin, pathway, and family we used  $\chi^2$  goodness-of-fit tests. The expected number of alien species in each category for each watershed was the mean number of alien species from all watersheds ( $\sum_{i=0}^n K/n$ ), where  $K$  is the number of alien species in each category and  $n$  is the number of watersheds). In the  $\chi^2$  goodness-of-fit test for family, only families with more than one species were used to conform with the assumptions of the test.

A matrix of origin ( $c$ )  $\times$  pathways ( $r$ ) was built to determine the influence of interacting factors on the distribution of alien fish species. Each cell corresponded to the sum of alien species with both  $r$  and  $c$  attributes. Pearson's chi-square test of independence was used to explore the relationship of the matrix. All analyses were based on the methods used by Zenni (2014) and were done in R 3.6.1 (R Development Core Team 2019).

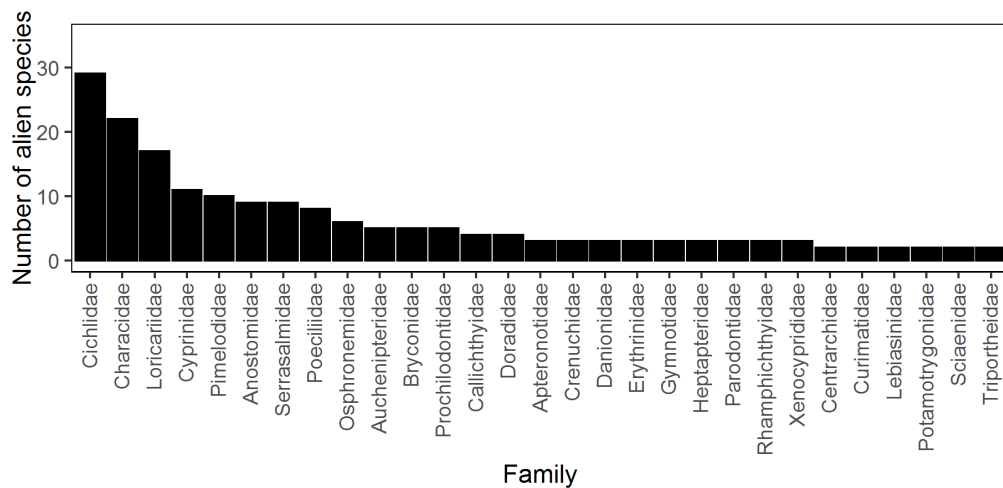
## **Results**

The alien fish fauna in the southeastern Brazil watersheds consisted of 201 species, belonging to 16 orders and 48 families. There was an increase from the 104 species introduced throughout Brazil reported by Alves et al. (2007), and compared to other reviews for specific watersheds (e.g. Vieira and Rodrigues 2010; Britton and Orsi 2012; Garcia et al. 2018). The Upper Paraná River basin had a higher number of alien species ( $n = 116$ ), but Paraíba do Sul had the highest percentage of alien species relative to the regional native species pool (43.0%) (Table 1). The invasion status of species varied among river basins: Upper Paraná, Mucuri, Paraíba do Sul and São Francisco had more casual species; while

Doce and Jequitinhonha had more invasive species. The families that were most represented were Cichlidae (n = 29), Characidae (n = 22), Loricariidae (n = 17), Cyprinidae (n = 11), Pimelodidae (n = 10), Anostomidae (n = 9), Serrasalminidae (n = 9) and Poeciliidae (n = 8). The representation of families significantly differed among regions ( $\chi^2 = 182.91$ , df = 28, p < 0.01; Fig. 2).

**Table 1** The numbers of native and alien fish species and invasion status of alien species in each of the watersheds studied in southeastern Brazil.

Watershed	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Native species	Alien species	Invasion status			Proportion of alien species (%)
				casual	naturalized	invasive	
Doce	83,400	114	39	14	10	15	25.5
Jequitinhonha	70,315	68	20	5	6	9	22.7
Mucuri	15,400	47	14	6	3	5	22.9
Paraíba do Sul	57,000	127	96	50	27	19	43.0
São Francisco	645,000	190	39	20	9	10	17.0
Upper Paraná	900,000	265	116	60	21	35	30.4

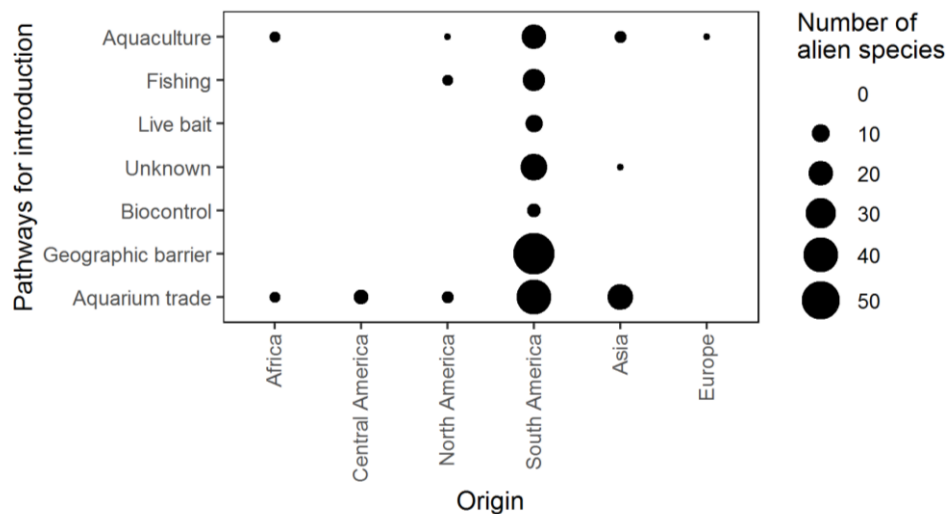


**Fig. 2** Number of alien fish species found in the six watersheds in southeastern Brazil, by family.

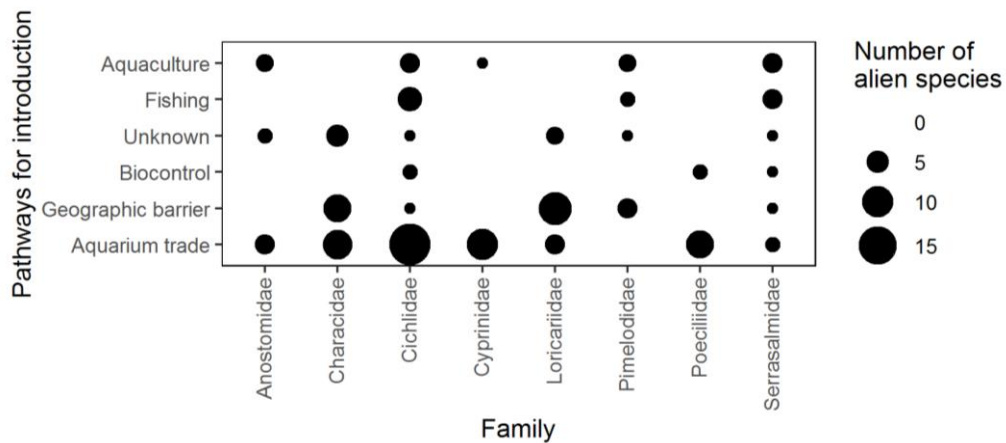
The numbers of alien fish species of different origins differed significantly across the six watersheds ( $\chi^2 = 550.88$ , df = 5, p < 0.01). Most species originated from South America (n = 159), the figures for other continents were much lower: Asia (n = 26), North America (n = 8), Africa (n = 6), Central America (n = 6) and Europe (n = 1). We found the following six

main pathways of introduction of alien fish to southeastern Brazil: aquarium trade ( $n = 71$ ), geographical barrier breach ( $n = 58$ ), aquaculture ( $n = 29$ ), fishing ( $n = 19$ ), live bait ( $n = 13$ ) and biological control ( $n = 5$ ). For 23 species, there was no explicit information on pathway of introduction in the literature. The differences among pathways were statistically significant, with aquarium trade and geographical barrier breach being the most common ( $\chi^2 = 117.36$ ,  $df = 6$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). All occurrences of geographic barrier breach were recorded in the Upper Paraná River basin and the majority of aquarium trade records occurred in the Paraíba do Sul River basin ( $n = 59$ ).

The association between origin and pathway for introduction was significant ( $\chi^2 = 81.76$ ,  $df = 30$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; Fig. 3). Most species were introduced from Africa for aquaculture, from Central America and Asia for the aquarium trade, from North America for fishing and aquarium trade, and from South America because of geographical barrier breach, biocontrol and live bait. The number of alien species from the families most represented also differed significantly across pathways, introduced specifically for aquarium trade and aquaculture, and by geographical barrier breach ( $\chi^2 = 101.82$ ,  $df = 35$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ; Fig. 4).



**Fig. 3** Interactions of pathways and origin of alien fish species present in southeastern Brazil watersheds.



**Fig. 4** Interactions of pathways and the most representative taxonomic families of alien fish species present in southeastern.

Regarding the impact categories, we were able to classify only 11 species for which there were available data. *Cichla kelberi* and *Pygocentrus nattereri* were classified as having massive (MV) impact; *Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*, *Carassius auratus*, *Pethia conchonius*, *Danio rerio*, and *Poecilia sphenops* were classified as having major (MR) impact; *Prochilodus argenteus*, *P. costatus*, *Serrasalmus brandtii*, and *S. marginatus* were classified as having moderate (MO) impact (Latini and Petrere 2004; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Pelicice and Agostinho 2009; Kovalenko et al. 2010; Pelicice et al. 2015; Bueno et al. 2016; Fragoso-Moura et al. 2016; Andrade et al. 2018; Sales et al. 2018; Magalhães et al. 2020). Most impact studies on species in the study watersheds only discussed impacts in a speculative manner; therefore, there was insufficient information to classify the remaining 190 species and they were placed in the Data Deficient (DD) category. Species classified as DD\* based on expert opinion probably cause damage to the recipient environments, but there are no data regarding their impacts in the study watersheds. Further studies (e.g. field studies) are required to determine the impacts of these species (see Electronic Appendix for the complete list of species and their attributes).

## Discussion

The richness of the alien fish fauna of six watersheds in Brazil is greater than previously reported (e.g. Alves et al. 2007, Langeani et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Pompeu 2010; Vieira 2010; Vieira and Rodrigues 2010). Most new records were from the Upper Paraná and Paraíba do Sul River basins. The pathways that explain the alien fish community in each river

basin also varied, but there was a striking pattern of fish species being transported and released across watersheds within South America (Gubiani et al. 2018; Vitule et al. 2019). Most fishes originated from other watersheds in South America and were introduced mostly via the aquarium trade and as a consequence of geographical barrier breach. The invasion status of fish species varied among watersheds, but four species were invasive in all of them. We classified 11 fish species as having massive, major or moderate impacts; however, most species could not be classified, which reveals an information gap regarding the impacts of most invasive fish species in southeastern Brazil.

The high number of alien fish species in the Upper Paraná River basin can be explained by successful spread from Lower Paraná River basin after construction of the Itaipu Hydroelectric Power Plant, completed in 1982 (Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Vitule et al. 2012). The filling of the reservoir and the inundation of the Sete Quedas Falls allowed the spread of fish species, which were previously separated by the natural barrier, causing the biotic homogenization of the fish fauna (Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Vitule et al. 2012). These species can also disperse, to a lesser degree, through a fish pass built in the Itaipu Dam in 2002 to allow the spawning migration of native species (Makrakis et al. 2007). Thus, it further increases the propagule pressure in the Upper Paraná River and, consequently, increases the probability of alien population establishment (Lockwood et al. 2009; Simberloff 2009; Cassey et al. 2018).

The high number of alien species in the Paraíba do Sul River basin, one of the smallest watersheds in our study, is the result of the high propagule pressure of several pathways that occur in the region. Most of the introductions come from the aquarium trade, especially escapes from Muriaé Ornamental Aquaculture Center ponds (Magalhães and Jacobi 2013a; Magalhães et al. 2019). Most ponds do not have screens on the effluent pipes, which allows ongoing fish escapes into the wild (~ 36,000 release events per year, A.L.B. Magalhães pers. obs.) and, consequently, led to the establishment and spread of several species (Magalhães and Jacobi 2013a and references therein; Magalhães et al. 2019, 2020). In the last 10 years, the aquarium species reared have increased in volume and in number from 60 to more than 200 species (Magalhães et al. 2020). Escape from aquaculture is a global problem that can result in biological invasions, which consequently result in impacts on native ecosystems (FAO 2016; Ju et al. 2019). Nevertheless, many countries do not have strong laws for aquatic biosecurity despite aquaculture being a serious problem (FAO 2016; Patoka et al. 2018; Ju et al. 2019).

Geographical barrier breach and the aquarium trade were the most prevalent pathways of introductions. The notable difference between these two pathways is that the first is like a unique catastrophic event (Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009), but the second is a consequence of recurring introductions (i.e., high propagule pressure) based on the high demand for aquarium species because this geopolitical region is the main center of the aquarium industry in Brazil (*sensu* Magalhães et al. 2017). The latter can be avoided by education (e.g., awareness campaigns to educate people who work at ornamental fish farms), enforcement (releasing alien species, even unintentionally, is an environmental crime according to the National Law on Environmental Crimes 9.605 of 1998 and the Decree 6.514 of 2008), inspection policies, state trade and transportation control (Magalhães et al. 2019).

South America was the main source of alien fish species. The great diversity of native fish fauna in the continent (Reis et al. 2016; Pelicice et al. 2017) enables all types of introduction. Moreover, one of the most significant pathways of introduction was geographical barrier breach that facilitated the spread of many species within the continent. The high number of species from the South American Characidae, Loricariidae and Pimelodidae families is mainly related to high propagule pressure from the introductions in Upper Paraná River. The Serrasalminidae family has many species of interest to commercial fishing and aquaculture, mainly the Amazon species (Jégu 2003; Ribeiro et al. 2014), explaining the high number of serrasalmids introduced in the southeastern watersheds. Species in the Anostomidae family also have high commercial importance - the smaller species for the aquarium trade and larger species for aquaculture (Melo and Röpke 2004; Lima Junior et al. 2018; Nobile et al. 2019).

Asia was an important source of alien fish species, mainly for the aquarium trade. The international aquarium trade is a worldwide hobby that has increased in popularity since the early 1980s (Livengood and Chapman 2011; Teletchea 2016; Magalhães et al. 2017; Lima-Junior et al. 2018). Asian species are known by their potential for the aquarium trade (Ng and Tan 1997), and southeast Asia is a traditional export site for freshwater aquarium fishes (Livengood and Chapman 2011; Ng 2016). Many of these species were introduced to Brazil from aquarium fish farms, mainly in the Paraíba do Sul River basin (Magalhães and Jacobi 2013a; Electronic Appendix). Many of the Asian species belong to the Cyprinidae family, which was one of the most highly represented families in the watersheds studied. Many species in the Cichlidae and Poeciliidae families have been introduced mainly due to aquarium trade as well. Species in these families are commonly kept as ornamental fishes

because they are usually colorful, and easy to breed, and have various body shapes and moderate sizes (Kullander 2003; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013b). Consequently, they are very popular in stores and are likely introduced into the wild more frequently and in greater numbers than species in families less common in the aquarium trade (Duggan et al. 2006; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013b). Models for invasion risk of ornamental alien fishes predicted that some species from these three families are potential invaders of rivers in region of Brazil and Australia (Bomford and Glover 2004; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013b).

The invasion status of species varied among watersheds. Many of the species were classified as casual and were the result of escapes from ornamental fish farms (e.g. Paraíba do Sul) and geographical barrier breach (Upper Paraná). If these casual species reproduce and spread into the new habitats, they become potential invaders (Blackburn et al. 2011, Magalhães et al. 2020). Four species were considered invasive in all of watersheds (*Coptodon rendalli*, *Oreochromis niloticus*, *Knodus moenkhausii* and *Poecilia reticulata*). Besides the high propagule pressure, these species are opportunistic and are able to tolerate degraded environments (Casatti et al. 2009; Vitule et al. 2009 and references therein, Carvalho et al. 2017; Carvalho et al. 2019a, Carvalho et al. 2019b), which increases the probability of their establishment and spread.

We were unable to obtain relevant and reliable information regarding the impacts caused by most species, which highlights the knowledge gaps in this area. Of the 11 species for which we had sufficient data, we classified the impacts caused by *Cichla kelberi* and *Pygocentrus nattereri* as massive. The peacock bass, *Cichla kelberi*, is a voracious predatory fish introduced for sport fishing in four of the six basins (Doce, Paraíba do Sul, São Francisco and Upper Paraná), especially in reservoirs and ponds. The introduction of this species has been related to fish community disassembly and the native diversity loss, indicating that this species is a great driver of impacts (Pelicice and Agostinho 2009; Kovalenko et al. 2010; Pelicice et al. 2015). The red piranha, *P. nattereri*, has a predatory behavior (Giacomini et al. 2011) and was introduced for fishing in some Brazilian watersheds (Latini 2016), especially in the lakes of the Middle Doce River (i.e. Rio Doce State Park, state of Minas Gerais), where it was introduced for biological control of other alien fish populations (Latini 2001). Consequently, the abundance of red piranha increased in these lakes over the years, leading to a progressive decrease in the richness and relative abundance of native species and local extinction (Latini 2001; Latini and Petrere 2004; Pinto-Coelho et al. 2008; Bueno et al. 2016; Fragoso-Moura et al. 2016).



*Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*, *Danio rerio*, *Pethia conchonius*, *Poecilia sphenops*, and *Carassius auratus* were classified as having major impact. The ongoing introduction of these ornamental fishes and associated environmental degradation, in the headwater creeks of Paraíba do Sul River basin in the 2010s, has caused biotic differentiation and the extinction of some native species in the region (Magalhães et al. 2020). The environmental impacts caused by these species are reversible as long as the propagule pressure is stopped and the environments recovered. This can be done by applying sustainable aquaculture principles to reduce escapes from ornamental fish farming facilities (e.g. use of barriers for effluent discharge and the construction of retention ponds) and through habitat restoration activities (Magalhães et al. 2020 and references therein).

The impacts caused by *Prochilodus argenteus*, *P. costatus*, *Serrasalmus brandtii* and *S. marginatus* were classified as moderate. The alien *Prochilodus* species impact the native *P. hartii* in Jequitinhonha River basin, due to genetic introgression (Sales et al. 2018); however, the fundamental ecosystem services provided by Prochilodontidae (Flecker 1996; Winemiller and Jepsen 1998), which may present low functional redundancy even in diverse ecosystems (Taylor et al. 2006), are thought to not be affected. *Serrasalmus brandtii* successfully colonized the Jequitinhonha river after at least two introduction events (Teixeira et al. 2020). One of these events took place in the Irapé hydropower plant reservoir, which *S. brandtii* rapidly colonized. Although the effects of this introduction are evident after years of monitoring the region (e.g. netted fish mutilation increased, *S. brandtii* population growth and dominance), no local extinctions of native species have been observed (Andrade et al. 2018). *Serrasalmus marginatus* was introduced to the Upper Paraná after the construction of the Itaipu Dam. It has become invasive and affected the native species in the region, mainly the native congener *S. maculatus* (Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009). There was an increase in the invasive population to the detriment of native populations in areas affected by Itaipu Dam and in the Upper Paraná floodplain (Agostinho and Júlio-Júnior 2002).

In summary, there has been an increase in the number of alien fish species in southeastern Brazil watersheds compared to previous studies. Efforts to prevent future introductions in these river basins should be undertaken, because once species were established, it is almost impossible to eradicate them (Vitule et al. 2009). Although there are some normative approaches to control or prevent introductions in Brazil (e.g., National Law on Environmental Crimes 9.605 of 1998, Decree 6.514 of 2008), they are not effective (Azevedo-Santos et al. 2015). Conversely, the cultivation of alien fish species is supported for

economic reasons, potentially threatening biological diversity and ecosystem services (Pelicice et al. 2014; Brito et al. 2018; Garcia et al. 2018 and references therein). Better education of all stakeholders in all pathways would result in a better-informed society that, in turn, would result in better management of alien fish species (Azevedo-Santos et al. 2015; Magalhães et al. 2019). Enforcement carried out by officials of the Brazilian Institute of Environment and Renewable Natural Resources (IBAMA) is also important in order to prevent escapes/releasing based on the National Law of Wildlife Protection 5.197 of 1967. Furthermore, it is essential to assess the risk of biological invasions (e.g. species and pathway risk assessments) in freshwater environmental impact studies, mainly in dam constructions (Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Daga et al. 2015).

This study highlights the necessity of more effective efforts in collecting data about the impacts that alien fish species have on recipient ecosystems. Such studies are very important for better communication among scientific community, managers and population, enabling the implementation of effective management programs (Simberloff et al. 2013; Jeschke et al. 2014; Courchamp et al. 2017; N'Guyen et al. 2018; Vitule et al. 2019; Magalhães et al. 2020).

### **Acknowledgments**

The authors thank CAPES (Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior) for financial support of this research. We are thankful to Dr Nicholas E. Mandrak and Dr Daniel Simberloff for providing important comments and helping to improve the language. We also thank Dr Francisco Langeani for reviewing the list of alien species from Upper Paraná River basin, Dr Luis Clepf Passos and Dr Gustavo Heringer for the support and suggestions, and Gustavo R. Rosa (PUC Minas) for preparing the map.

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## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Table 1 List of freshwater alien fish species introduced in southeastern Brazil watersheds (Upper Paraná, Doce, Jequitinhonha, Mucuri, Paraíba do Sul, and São Francisco), with information on species invasion status according Blackburn et al. 2011 (C = casual, D = naturalized, E = invasive, N = native, A = absent), environmental impact category according to Blackburn et al. 2014 and EICAT (MV = massive, MR = major, MO = moderate, DD = data deficient, DD\* = data deficient, but the species probably impacts the recipient environment), pathways of introduction, origin and species taxonomic attributes.

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>ANABANTIFORMES</b>										
<b>Helostomatidae</b>										
<i>Helostoma temminckii</i> Cuvier 1829	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Magalhães 2007; Latini et al. 2016
<b>Osphronemidae</b>										
<i>Betta splendens</i> Regan 1910	A	A	A	A	C	C	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Magalhães and Jacobi 2008; Latini et al. 2016; Magalhães et al. 2016
<i>Macropodus opercularis</i> (Linnaeus 1758)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Trichogaster chuna</i> (Hamilton 1822)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007, Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Trichogaster lalius</i> (Hamilton 1822)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007, Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Trichopodus pectoralis</i> Regan 1910	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Latini et al. 2016, Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Trichopodus trichopterus</i> (Pallas 1770)	A	A	A	A	C	C	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007, Moraes et al. 2017
<b>ATHERINIFORMES</b>										
<b>Atherinopsidae</b>										
<i>Odontesthes bonariensis</i> (Valenciennes 1835)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD*	geographical barrier	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Santos 2010

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>CENTRARCHIFORMES</b>										
<b>Centrarchidae</b>										
<i>Lepomis gibbosus</i> (Linnaeus 1758)	A	D	A	A	A	A	DD	fishing	North America	Magalhães and Rattón 2005; Alves et al. 2007; Vieira 2010
<i>Micropterus salmoides</i> (Lacepède 1802)	C	D	A	A	D	A	DD	fishing	North America	Bizerril and Primo 2001; Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007, Santos 2010; Rocha et al. 2011
<b>CERATODONTIFORMES</b>										
<b>Lepidosirenidae</b>										
<i>Lepidosiren paradoxa</i> Fitzinger 1837	A	A	A	A	A	C	DD	unknown	South America	Alves et al. 2007
<b>CICHLIFORMES</b>										
<b>Cichlidae</b>										
<i>Aequidens plagiozonatus</i> Kullander 1984	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Aequidens</i> sp.	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Bizerril and Primo 2001; Teixeira et al. 2005
<i>Apistogramma commbrae</i> (Regan 1906)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	aquarium trade and geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Astronotus crassipinnis</i> (Heckel 1840)	D	D	A	A	A	A	DD*	aquarium trade and biological control	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Astronotus ocellatus</i> (Agassiz 1831)	A	D	C	A	C	D	DD*	aquarium trade and biological control	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Vieira 2010; Rocha et al. 2011; Barbosa et al. 2017; Magalhães et al. 2019
<i>Chaetobranchopsis australis</i> Eigenmann & Ward 1907	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Cichla kelberi</i> Kullander & Ferreira 2006	E	E	A	A	D	E	MV	fishing	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Sanches et al. 2014; Moraes et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Cichla monoculus</i> Spix & Agassiz 1831	A	A	A	A	A	D	DD*	fishing	South America	Pompeu and Alves 2003; Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<i>Cichla ocellaris</i> Bloch & Schneider 1801	A	A	A	A	D	D	DD*	fishing	South America	Moraes et al. 2017; Bartolette et al. 2018; Pers. Com. Pessali TC



Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Cichlidae</b>										
<i>Cichla piquiti</i> Kullander & Ferreira 2006	E	A	A	E	E	E	DD*	fishing	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014; Barbosa et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Cichla temensis</i> Humboldt 1821	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	fishing	South America	Bizerril and Primo 2001
<i>Cichla</i> sp.	A	A	D	A	A	A	DD	fishing	South America	Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<i>Cichlasoma dimerus</i> (Heckel 1840)	A	A	A	A	E	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Bartolette et al. 2019
<i>Cichlasoma portalegrense</i> (Hensel 1870)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Honorio and Martins 2018
<i>Coptodon rendalli</i> (Boulenger 1897)	E	E	E	E	E	E	DD*	aquaculture	Africa	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Santos 2010; Vieira 2010; Rocha et al. 2011; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014; Barbosa et al. 2017; Moraes et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018; Bartolette et al. 2018
<i>Crenicichla macrophthalmia</i> Heckel 1840	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquaculture	South America	Latini et al. 2016
<i>Crenicichla semifasciata</i> (Heckel 1840)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Roa-Fuentes et al. 2015
<i>Geophagus sveni</i> Lucinda, Lucena & Assis 2010	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD*	aquarium trade	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Sanches et al. 2014; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Hemichromis bimaculatus</i> Gill 1862	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Africa	Alves et al. 2007; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Heterotilapia buttkoferi</i> (Hubrecht 1881)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD*	aquarium trade	Africa	Sampaio et al. 2017
<i>Laetacara araguaiae</i> Ottoni & Costa 2009	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Laetacara curviceps</i> (Ahl 1923)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Mikrogeophagus altispinosus</i> (Haseman 1911)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Magalhães 2007; Latini et al. 2016
<i>Mikrogeophagus ramirezi</i> (Myers & Harry 1948)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Moraes et al. 2017

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Cichlidae</b>										
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> (Linnaeus 1758)	E	E	E	E	E	E	DD*	aquaculture	Africa	Teixeira et al. 2005; Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Pompeu 2010; Santos 2010; Vieira 2010; Rocha et al. 2011; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014; Barbosa et al. 2017; Moraes et al. 2017; Honorio and Martins 2018; Ota et al. 2018; Bartolette et al. 2018
<i>Parachromis managuensis</i> (Günther 1867)	A	D	A	A	C	D	DD	aquarium trade	Central America	Barros et al. 2012; Barbosa et al. 2017; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Pelvicachromis pulcher</i> (Boulenger 1901)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Africa	Magalhães 2007; Latini et al. 2016; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Pterophyllum scalare</i> (Schultze 1823)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Satanoperca pappaterra</i> (Heckel 1840)	E	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquaculture	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014; Bartolette et al. 2018
<b>CHARACIFORMES</b>										
<b>Acestrorhynchidae</b>										
<i>Acestrorhynchus pantaneiro</i> Menezes 1992	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<b>Anostomidae</b>										
<i>Abramites hypselonotus</i> (Günther 1868)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Teixeira et al. 2005
<i>Leporinus geminis</i> Garavello & Santos 2009	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014
<i>Leporinus octofasciatus</i> Steindachner 1915	N	A	A	A	A	C	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Moreira-Filho et al. 2006
<i>Leporinus taeniatus</i> Lütken 1875	A	A	D	A	A	N	DD	unknown	South America	Andrade-Neto 2010, Pugedo et al. 2016
<i>Leporinus tigrinus</i> Borodin 1929	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Megaleporinus macrocephalus</i> (Garavello & Britski 1988)	E	D	C	C	C	C	DD	aquaculture	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Pompeu 2010; Santos 2010; Vieira 2010; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014; Moraes et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018; Pers. Com. Pessali TC

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Anostomidae</b>										
<i>Megaleporinus obtusidens</i> (Valenciennes 1837)	N	D	A	A	A	N	DD	aquaculture	South America	Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<i>Schizodon borellii</i> (Boulenger 1900)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	aquaculture	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Synaptolaemus latofasciatus</i> (Steindachner 1910)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Bartolette et al. 2019
<b>Bryconidae</b>										
<i>Brycon amazonicus</i> (Agassiz 1829)	C	C	A	A	C	C	DD*	aquaculture	South America	Oyakawa and Menezes 2011; Barbosa et al. 2017 ; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Brycon hilarii</i> (Valenciennes 1850)	C	A	A	A	A	C	DD*	aquaculture	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Barbosa et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Brycon orbignyanus</i> (Valenciennes 1850)	N	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquaculture	South America	Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Brycon vonoi</i> Lima 2017	A	A	C	A	A	A	DD	aquaculture	South America	Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<i>Salminus brasiliensis</i> (Cuvier 1816)	N	E	A	C	E	A	DD*	fishing and aquaculture	South America	Teixeira et al. 2005; Alves et al. 2007; Vieira 2010; Moraes et al. 2017
<b>Characidae</b>										
<i>Aphyocharax anisitsi</i> Eigenmann & Kennedy 1903	N	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Magalhães et al. 2019
<i>Aphyocharax dentatus</i> Eigenmann & Kennedy 1903	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Bryconamericus exodon</i> Eigenmann 1907	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007, Ota et al. 2018
<i>Bryconamericus iheringii</i> (Boulenger 1887)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	unknown	South America	Honorio and Martins 2018
<i>Cynopotamus kincaidi</i> (Schultz 1950)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007
<i>Gymnocorymbus ternetzi</i> (Boulenger 1895)	C	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Hemigrammus ora</i> Zarske, Le Bail & Géry 2006	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Hyphessobrycon eques</i> (Steindachner 1882)	E	E	A	A	E	D	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Vieira 2010; Moraes et al. 2017; Honorio and Martins 2018; Ota et al 2018 ; Bartolette et al. 2018

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Characidae</b>										
<i>Hyphessobrycon flammeus</i> Myers 1924	C	A	A	A	N	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Langeani et al. 2007
<i>Hyphessobrycon herbertaxelrodi</i> Géry 1961	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Magalhães and Carvalho 2007
<i>Hyphessobrycon moniliger</i> Moreira, Lima & Costa 2002	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Hyphessobrycon reticulatus</i> Ellis 1911	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Santos and Esteves 2014
<i>Knodus moenkhausii</i> (Eigenmann & Kennedy 1903)	E	E	E	E	E	E	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Ota et al. 2018; Salvador et al. 2018 ; Magalhães et al. 2019
<i>Mimagoniates microlepis</i> (Steindachner 1877)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Pers. Com. Magalhães ALB
<i>Moenkhausia australis</i> Eigenmann 1908	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Moenkhausia costae</i> (Steindachner 1907)	D	A	E	A	C	N	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Andrade-Neto 2010; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014; Magalhães et al. 2019
<i>Moenkhausia forestii</i> Benine, Mariguela & Oliveira 2009	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Odontostilbe microcephala</i> Eigenmann 1907	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Carmassi et al. 2012
<i>Psellogrammus kennedyi</i> (Eigenmann 1903)	C	A	A	A	A	N	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Pseudocorynopoma heterandria</i> Eigenmann 1914	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	unknown	South America	Salgado et al. 2015; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Roeboides descavadensis</i> Fowler 1932	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Sanches et al. 2014, Ota et al. 2018
<i>Serrapinnus calliurus</i> (Boulenger 1900)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Crenuchidae</b>										
<i>Characidium lagosantense</i> Travassos 1947	C	A	A	A	A	N	DD	unknown	South America	Ribeiro et al. 2016
<i>Characidium laterale</i> (Boulenger 1895)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007
<i>Characidium pterostictum</i> Gomes 1947	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	unknown	South America	Honorio and Martins 2018
<b>Curimatidae</b>										
<i>Cyphocharax gillii</i> (Eigenmann & Kennedy 1903)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007
<i>Steindachnerina brevipinna</i> (Eigenmann & Eigenmann 1889)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<b>Erythrinidae</b>										
<i>Erythrinus erythrinus</i> (Bloch & Schneider 1801)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier and live bait	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Hoplerythrinus unitaeniatus</i> (Spix & Agassiz 1829)	E	A	A	A	A	N	DD	geographical barrier and live bait	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Hoplias mbigua</i> Azpelicueta, Benítez, Aichino & Mendez 2015	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<b>Hemiodontidae</b>										
<i>Hemiodus orthonops</i> Eigenmann & Kennedy 1903	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Ota et al. 2018
<b>Lebiasinidae</b>										
<i>Nannostomus beckfordi</i> Günther 1872	A	A	A	A	E	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Magalhães and Jacobi 2008; Latini et al. 2016; Magalhães et al. 2019
<i>Pyrrhulina brevis</i> Steindachner 1876	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Magalhães and Carvalho 2007; Latini et al. 2016

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Parodontidae</b>										
<i>Apareiodon affinis</i> (Steindachner 1879)	N	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Honorio and Martins 2018
<i>Apareiodon itapicuruensis</i> Eigenmann & Henn 1916	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	live bait	South America	Salgado et al. 2017
<i>Apareiodon piracicabae</i> (Eigenmann 1907)	N	A	A	A	D	N	DD	live bait	South America	Salgado et al. 2017; Bartolette et al. 2018
<b>Prochilodontidae</b>										
<i>Prochilodus argenteus</i> Spix & Agassiz 1829	A	C	E	C	A	N	MO	aquaculture	South America	Alves et al. 2007
<i>Prochilodus costatus</i> Valenciennes 1850	A	E	E	D	C	N	MO	aquaculture	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Pompeu 2010; Vieira 2010; Salvador et al. 2018
<i>Prochilodus lineatus</i> (Valenciennes 1837)	N	A	D	A	N	C	DD*	aquaculture	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<i>Prochilodus nigricans</i> Spix & Agassiz 1829	A	A	A	A	A	C	DD	aquaculture	South America	Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<i>Prochilodus</i> sp. "hybrid"	A	C	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<b>Serrasalminidae</b>										
<i>Colossoma macropomum</i> (Cuvier 1816)	C	C	C	C	C	C	DD	fishing and aquaculture	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Vieira 2010; Rocha et al. 2011; Barbosa et al. 2017; Moraes et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018; Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<i>Metynnis lippincottianus</i> (Cope 1870)	E	E	A	A	D	E	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Sanches et al. 2014; Moraes et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018; Bartolette et al. 2018; Pers.Com. Pessali TC
<i>Metynnis mola</i> Eigenmann & Kennedy 1903	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007
<i>Piaractus brachypomus</i> (Cuvier 1818)	A	A	A	A	C	C	DD	fishing and aquaculture	South America	Latini et al. 2016; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Piaractus mesopotamicus</i> (Holmberg 1887)	N	C	A	A	C	E	DD	fishing and aquaculture	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Vieira 2010; Barbosa et al. 2017; Latini et al. 2016; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Pygocentrus nattereri</i> Kner 1858	C	E	A	A	A	A	MV	biological control and fishing	South America	Alves et al 2007; Vieira 2010; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014
<i>Serrasalmus brandtii</i> Lütken 1875	A	A	E	A	A	N	MO	unknown	South America	Andrade-Neto 2010

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	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Serrasalminidae</b>										
<i>Serrasalmus marginatus</i> Valenciennes 1837	E	A	A	A	A	A	MO	geographical barrier	South America	Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Colossoma macropomum</i> x <i>Piaractus mesopotamicus</i> "hybrid"	A	C	A	A	C	A	DD	aquaculture	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Moraes et al. 2017; Bartolette et al. 2018
<b>Triporthidae</b>										
<i>Triporthus nematurus</i> (Kner 1858)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Sanches et al. 2014; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Triporthus signatus</i> (Garman 1890)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	live bait	South America	Rocha et al. 2011
<b>CLUPEIFORMES</b>										
<b>Clupeidae</b>										
<i>Platanichthys platana</i> (Regan 1917)	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Ota et al. 2018
<b>CYPRINIFORMES</b>										
<b>Cobitidae</b>										
<i>Misgurnus anguillicaudatus</i> (Cantor 1842)	A	A	A	A	E	A	MR	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013; Moraes et al. 2017
<b>Cyprinidae</b>										
<i>Barbodes semifasciolatus</i> (Günther 1868)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Carassius auratus</i> (Linnaeus 1758)	A	A	A	A	D	A	MR	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Magalhães & Jacobi 2013; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i> Linnaeus 1758	E	E	D	C	E	C	DD*	aquaculture	Asia and Europe	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Pompeu 2010; Santos 2010; Vieira 2010; Rocha et al. 2011; Barbosa et al. 2017; Moraes et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Dawkinsia tambraparniei</i> (Silas 1954)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Magalhães and Jacobi 2008; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013; Latini et al. 2016; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Oliotius oligolepis</i> (Bleeker 1853)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Magalhães and Jacobi 2008; Latini et al. 2016; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Pethia conchonius</i> (Hamilton 1822)	A	A	A	A	E	A	MR	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013; Moraes et al. 2017

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	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Cyprinidae</b>										
<i>Pethia nigrofasciata</i> (Günther 1868)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Pethia ticto</i> (Hamilton 1822)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Magalhães and Jacobi 2008; Latini et al. 2016; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Puntigrus tetrazona</i> (Bleeker 1855)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Puntius sachsii</i> (Ahl 1923)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Magalhães and Carvalho 2007; Latini et al. 2016
<i>Puntius titteya</i> Deraniyagala 1929	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Magalhães and Jacobi 2008; Latini et al. 2016; Moraes et al. 2017
<b>Danionidae</b>										
<i>Danio rerio</i> (Hamilton 1822)	A	A	A	A	E	A	MR	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Danio rerio</i> "transgenic" (GloFish®)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD*	aquarium trade	Asia	Pers. Com. Magalhães ALB
<i>Devario malabaricus</i> (Jerdon 1849)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Magalhães and Jacobi 2013; Moraes et al. 2017
<b>Tanichthyidae</b>										
<i>Tanichthys albonubes</i> Lin 1932	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Moraes et al. 2017
<b>Xenocypridae</b>										
<i>Ctenopharyngodon idella</i> (Valenciennes 1844)	C	C	A	A	A	C	DD	aquaculture	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Vieira 2010; Santos 2010; Barbosa et al. 2017; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Hypophthalmichthys molitrix</i> (Valenciennes 1844)	A	C	C	A	A	A	DD	unknown	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Vieira 2010
<i>Hypophthalmichthys nobilis</i> (Richardson 1845)	C	C	A	A	C	A	DD	aquaculture	Asia	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Vieira 2010; Moraes et al. 2017



Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>CYPRINODONTIFORMES</b>										
<b>Poeciliidae</b>										
<i>Poecilia latipinna</i> (Lesueur 1821)	A	A	A	A	C	C	DD	aquarium trade	North America	Magalhães and Jacobi 2008; Barbosa et al. 2017
<i>Poecilia reticulata</i> Peters 1859	E	E	E	E	E	E	DD*	aquarium trade and biological control	South America	Teixeira et al. 2005; Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Pompeu 2010; Santos 2010; Vieira 2010; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Barbosa et al. 2017; Magalhães and Jacobi 2017; Moraes et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Poecilia sphenops</i> Valenciennes 1846	A	A	A	A	E	D	MR	aquarium trade	Central America and South America	Alves et al. 2007; Magalhães and Jacobi 2017; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Poecilia velifera</i> (Regan 1914)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	Central America	Magalhães and Jacobi 2008; Latini et al. 2016; Magalhães and Jacobi 2017; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Poecilia vivipara</i> Bloch & Schneider 1801	C	N	A	N	N	C	DD	aquarium trade and biological control	South America	Santos 2010; Barbosa et al. 2017
<i>Xiphophorus hellerii</i> Heckel 1848	D	C	A	A	E	C	DD	aquarium trade	Central America and North America	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Vieira 2010; Magalhães and Jacobi 2017; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Xiphophorus maculatus</i> (Günther 1866)	C	A	A	A	E	A	DD	aquarium trade	Central America and North America	Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Magalhães and Jacobi 2017; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Xiphophorus variatus</i> (Meek 1904)	A	A	A	A	E	D	DD	aquarium trade	North America	Alves et al. 2007; Barbosa et al. 2017; Magalhães and Jacobi 2017; Moraes et al. 2017
<b>Rivulidae</b>										
<i>Atlantirivulus santensis</i> (Köhler 1906)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Santos and Esteves 2014

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	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>GYMNOTIFORMES</b>										
<b>Apteronotidae</b>										
<i>Apteronotus albifrons</i> (Linnaeus 1766)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Apteronotus brasiliensis</i> (Reinhardt 1852)	C	C	A	A	A	N	DD	live bait	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Langeani and Rêgo 2014
<i>Apteronotus caudimaculosus</i> de Santana 2003	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Langeani and Rêgo 2014; Ota et al. 2018
<b>Gymnotidae</b>										
<i>Gymnotus pantanal</i> Fernandes, Albert, Daniel-Silva, Lopes, Crampton & Almeida-Toledo 2005	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD*	geographical barrier and live bait	South America	Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al 2018
<i>Gymnotus paraguayensis</i> Albert & Crampton 2003	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier and live bait	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al 2018
<b>Hypopomidae</b>										
<i>Brachyhypopomus gauderio</i> Giora & Malabarba 2009	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	live bait	South America	Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al 2018
<b>Rhamphichthyidae</b>										
<i>Gymnorhamphichthys britskii</i> Carvalho, Ramos & Albert 2011	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier and live bait	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Gymnorhamphichthys hypostomus</i> Ellis 1912	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009
<i>Rhamphichthys hahni</i> (Meinken 1937)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier and live bait	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018

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	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>MYLIOBATIFORMES</b>										
<b>Potamotrygonidae</b>										
<i>Potamotrygon amandae</i> Loboda & Carvalho 2013	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Potamotrygon falkneri</i> Castex & Maciel 1963	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<b>OSTEOGLOSSIFORMES</b>										
<b>Arapaimidae</b>										
<i>Arapaima gigas</i> (Schinz 1822)	D	A	A	A	C	C	DD*	aquaculture	South America	Moraes et al. 2017; Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<b>PERCIFORMES "sedis mutabilis"</b>										
<b>Polycentridae</b>										
<i>Polycentrus schomburgkii</i> Müller & Troschel 1849	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Bartolette et al. 2018
<b>Sciaenidae</b>										
<i>Plagioscion auratus</i> (Castelnau 1855)	A	A	A	A	A	C	DD*	fishing	South America	Barbosa et al. 2017
<i>Plagioscion squamosissimus</i> (Heckel 1840)	E	C	A	A	C	E	DD*	fishing	South America	Teixeira et al 2005; Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Rocha et al. 2011; Barros et al. 2012 Sanches et al. 2014; Barbosa et al 2017; Moraes et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018; Bartolette et al. 2018
<b>PLEURONECTIFORMES</b>										
<b>Achiridae</b>										
<i>Catathyridium jenynsii</i> (Günther 1862)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<b>SALMONIFORMES</b>										
<b>Salmonidae</b>										
<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i> (Walbaum 1792)	D	A	A	A	D	A	DD*	fishing	North America	Bizerril and Primo 2001; Magalhães et al. 2002; Alves et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Casarim et al. 2012

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>SILURIFORMES</b>										
<b>Ariidae</b>										
<i>Ariopsis seemanni</i> (Günther 1864)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	Central America and South America	Latini et al. 2016
<b>Auchenipteridae</b>										
<i>Ageneiosus inermis</i> (Linnaeus 1766)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Ageneiosus ucayalensis</i> Castelnau 1855	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Auchenipterus osteomystax</i> (Miranda Ribeiro 1918)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Trachelyopterus coriaceus</i> Valenciennes 1840	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Rocha et al. 2011
<i>Trachelyopterus galeatus</i> (Linnaeus 1766)	E	A	A	A	A	N	DD*	geographical barrier	South America	Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009
<b>Callichthyidae</b>										
<i>Hoplosternum littorale</i> (Hancock 1828)	N	E	D	D	D	E	DD*	live bait	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Vieira 2010; Latini et al. 2016; Moraes et al. 2017; Bartolette et al. 2018
<i>Lepthoplosternum pectorale</i> (Boulenger 1895)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Megalechis thoracata</i> (Valenciennes 1840)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	live bait	South America	Langeani et al. 2007
<i>Scleromystax barbatus</i> (Quoy & Gaimard 1824)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Alves et al. 2007
<b>Clariidae</b>										
<i>Clarias gariepinus</i> (Burchell 1822)	D	E	D	D	D	D	DD*	aquaculture	Africa and Asia	Alves et al. 1999; Teixeira et al. 2005; Alves et al. 2007; Langeani et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Pompeu 2010; Santos 2010; Vieira 2010; Barbosa et al. 2017; Moraes et al. 2017; Ota et al. 2018

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Doradidae</b>										
<i>Ossancora eigenmanni</i> (Boulenger 1895)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Platydoras armatulus</i> (Valenciennes 1840)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Pterodoras granulatus</i> (Valenciennes 1821)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Trachydoras paraguayensis</i> (Eigenmann & Ward 1907)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<b>Heptapteridae</b>										
<i>Heptapterus mustelinus</i> (Valenciennes 1835)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Imparfinis longicauda</i> (Boulenger 1887)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Fagundes et al. 2015
<i>Pimelodella taenioptera</i> Miranda Ribeiro 1914	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Ota et al. 2018
<b>Ictaluridae</b>										
<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> (Rafinesque 1818)	C	C	A	A	C	A	DD	aquaculture	North America	Alves et al. 2007; Vieira 2010; Ota et al. 2018
<b>Loricariidae</b>										
<i>Ancistrus</i> sp.	A	C	A	A	C	C	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Honorio and Martins 2018; Magalhães et al. 2019
<i>Farlowella hahni</i> Meinken 1937	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Farlowella oxyrryncha</i> (Kner 1853)	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007
<i>Hypostomus cochliodon</i> Kner 1854	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Hypostomus commersoni</i> Valenciennes 1836	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Hypostomus dlouhyi</i> Weber 1985	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007
<i>Hypostomus microstomus</i> Weber 1987	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Loricariidae</b>										
<i>Hypostomus ternetzi</i> (Boulenger 1895)	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Loricaria simillima</i> Regan 1904	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007
<i>Loricariichthys platymetopon</i> Isbrücker & Nijssen 1979	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Loricariichthys rostratus</i> Reis & Pereira 2000	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Parancistrus aurantiacus</i> (Castelnau 1855)	D	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Araújo and Tejerina-Garro 2009
<i>Parotocinclus maculicauda</i> (Steindachner 1877)	A	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Latini et al. 2016
<i>Peckoltia multispinis</i> (Holly 1929)	A	A	A	A	D	A	DD	aquarium trade	South America	Latini et al. 2016
<i>Pogonopoma wertheimeri</i> (Steindachner 1867)	A	D	A	N	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Vieira 2010
<i>Pterygoplichthys ambrosettii</i> (Holmberg 1893)	D	D	A	A	A	D	DD	aquarium trade and geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018; Pers. Com. Pessali TC
<i>Pterygoplichthys joselimaianus</i> (Weber 1991)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Sanches et al. 2014

Taxon (by Fricke, Eschmeyer & Fong 2020)	Species status in each watershed						Impact	Pathways of introduction	Origin	References
	Upper Paraná	Doce	Jequitinhonha	Mucuri	Paraíba do Sul	São Francisco				
<b>Pimelodidae</b>										
<i>Hypophthalmus oremaculatus</i> Nani & Fuster de Plaza 1947	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Iheringichthys labrosus</i> (Lütken 1874)	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	unknown	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Pimelodus fur</i> (Lütken 1874)	C	A	A	A	E	N	DD	fishing	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Santos 2010; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Pimelodus maculatus</i> Lacepède 1803	N	E	A	A	E	N	DD	fishing	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Vieira 2010; Moraes et al. 2017; Honorio and Martins 2018
<i>Pimelodus ornatus</i> Kner 1858	E	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<i>Pseudoplatystoma corruscans</i> (Spix & Agassiz 1829)	N	A	A	A	C	N	DD	aquaculture	South America	Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Pseudoplatystoma fasciatum</i> x <i>Pseudoplatystoma corruscans</i> "hybrid"	C	D	E	C	C	C	DD*	aquaculture	South America	Alves et al. 2007; Andrade-Neto 2010; Vieira 2010
<i>Pseudoplatystoma punctifer</i> x <i>Leiarius marmoratus</i> "hybrid"	C	A	A	A	C	A	DD	aquaculture	South America	Sanches et al. 2014; Moraes et al. 2017
<i>Pseudoplatystoma reticulatum</i> Eigenmann & Eigenmann 1889	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Ota et al. 2018
<i>Sorubim lima</i> (Bloch & Schneider 1801)	C	A	A	A	A	A	DD	geographical barrier	South America	Langeani et al. 2007; Júlio-Júnior et al. 2009; Ota et al. 2018
<b>Pseudopimelodidae</b>										
<i>Lophiosilurus alexandri</i> Steindachner 1876	A	E	A	A	C	N	DD	fishing	South America	Bizerril and Primo 2001; Alves et al. 2007; Vieira 2010; Salvador et al. 2018
<b>Trichomycteridae</b>										
<i>Trichomycterus brasiliensis</i> Lütken 1874	C	A	A	A	A	N	DD	unknown	South America	Langeani et al. 2007

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**ARTIGO II****Physical habitat variables importance in the presence and abundance of a globally  
invasive fish**

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O presente manuscrito foi preparado de acordo com as normas do periódico científico Austral  
Ecology (ISSN 1442-9993)

## Physical habitat variables importance in the presence and abundance of a globally invasive fish

### Abstract

The stream habitat comprises all biotic and abiotic variables that influence or provide sustenance to aquatic biota. Changes in physical habitat characteristics associated with anthropogenic disturbances can benefit the establishment and expansion of exotic species in receiving environments. Here, we aimed to evaluate the relative importance of physical habitat variables for the presence and abundance of the invasive fish *Poecilia reticulata*. We sampled fish species and assessed environmental variables through a physical habitat protocol in 231 streams located in southeastern and midwestern Brazil. This protocol measured 258 variables that describe the physical characteristics of streams. We therefore implemented dimensionality reduction methods to limit redundancy, resulting in a smaller set containing the most representative variables. Subsequently, we used two random forest models to assess the relative importance of these variables for the presence and abundance of *P. reticulata*. The presence of this invasive fish in the sampled streams was mainly explained by human disturbance variables related to urbanization (total impact, trash and landfill, pipes, influent and effluent, and pavement), whereas the channel morphology (mean bank full height and mean bank full depth) and fish cover (natural fish cover and aquatic macrophyte areal cover) variables were important predictors for the abundance of this species at the sites where it was introduced. Identifying which habitat variables are favorable to the establishment of exotic species is an important step in preventing future biological invasions, as well as managing those that have already taken place.

**Keywords:** Guppy, alien species, urbanization, physical habitat, stream.

## Resumo

O habitat dos riachos compreende todas as variáveis bióticas e abióticas que influenciam ou fornecem sustento à biota aquática. Mudanças nas características do habitat físico, juntamente com as perturbações antrópicas, podem favorecer o estabelecimento e expansão de espécies exóticas nos ambientes receptores. Portanto, o objetivo do nosso trabalho foi avaliar a importância relativa de variáveis de habitat físico na presença e abundância do peixe exótico invasor *Poecilia reticulata*. Para isso, nosso estudo foi realizado em 231 riachos localizados no sudeste e centro-oeste do Brasil, onde realizamos coleta de peixes e acessamos variáveis ambientais através de um protocolo de habitat físico. O protocolo produz 258 variáveis que descrevem as características físicas dos riachos. Assim, um processo de redução da dimensão dos dados foi conduzido a fim de limitar a redundância e produzir um conjunto menor com as variáveis mais representativas. Em seguida, nós utilizamos dois modelos de random forest para acessar a importância relativa dessas variáveis na presença e abundância de *P. reticulata*. A presença deste peixe invasor nos riachos amostrados foi explicada principalmente pelas variáveis de distúrbio humano relacionadas à urbanização (impacto total, lixo e aterro, tubulações, afluente e efluente, e pavimento), enquanto as variáveis de morfologia do canal (altura do leito sazonal e profundidade do leito sazonal) e abrigo para peixes (abrigo natural e macrófitas) foram importantes para determinar se esta espécie será abundante nos locais onde foi introduzida. Identificar quais variáveis do habitat são favoráveis ao estabelecimento de espécies exóticas é um passo importante para prevenir futuras invasões biológicas, bem como manejar aquelas que já aconteceram.

**Palavras-chave:** Guppy, espécies exóticas, urbanização, habitat físico, riacho.

## 1. Introduction

Human activities profoundly affect the global environment (Lewis and Maslin 2015), causing the degradation of natural ecosystem functions and services and consequently favoring biological invasions (Pelicice et al. 2021). For centuries, people have transported and introduced species outside their native ranges for a variety of reasons (Seebens et al. 2018; Bueno et al. 2021). However, the risk of biological invasions is increasing rapidly worldwide due to globalization, technological advancements, and the growth of the human population (Ricciardi et al. 2017; Pyšek et al. 2020). Invasive species affect the functioning of ecosystems, and these impacts threaten native biodiversity, human health, and the economy (Ricciardi et al. 2017; Adelino et al. 2021; Reynolds and Aldridge 2021; Vilà et al. 2021). The impacts of invasive species tend to increase over time in all habitat types (Leão et al. 2011); however, they are especially large in island and freshwater ecosystems (IPBES 2019). Freshwater systems are among the most threatened and invaded ecosystems in the world (Leprieur et al. 2008; Garcia et al. 2021), and fish are one of the most introduced species (Seebens et al. 2017). South America's freshwater ecosystems, for example, are threatened by several invasive species and other anthropogenic stressors, in addition to lacking adequate legislation for environmental conservation (Pelicice et al. 2017; Torremorell et al. 2021). Anthropogenic disturbances facilitate the introduction and dispersal of alien species by increasing propagule pressure; therefore, the number of alien species tends to be higher in areas that are more populated, environmentally degraded and economically developed (Dias et al. 2020; Guimarães Silva et al. 2020). A greater number of freshwater fish introductions may occur in more densely populated regions (Dawson et al. 2017), as has been reported in Brazil, where 201 alien fish species have been introduced in the main watersheds of a region with high human population density (Bueno et al. 2021).

The guppy (*Poecilia reticulata* Peters, 1859) is a fish species native to Venezuela, Barbados, Trinidad, northern Brazil and the Guianas that has been widely introduced and established throughout temperate and tropical freshwater systems worldwide, mainly due to the aquarium trade or for biological control (CABI 2021; Froese and Pauly 2021). While *P. reticulata* is native to northern Brazil, it has also been introduced to many Brazilian watersheds, and it is currently widely distributed in the country (Bueno et al. 2021; Base de Dados Nacional de Espécies Exóticas Invasoras 2021). *Poecilia reticulata* is an opportunistic species able to tolerate degraded environments (Cassati et al. 2009; de Carvalho et al. 2019). This livebearing alien fish species is omnivorous, feeding on algae, invertebrate larvae and



benthic detritus (CABI 2021), and can also consume sewage, which may facilitate its establishment in polluted sites (de Carvalho et al. 2019). Furthermore, other guppy characteristics, such as sperm storage and early reproductive maturity, may increase the success of establishment and invasion in recipient streams and, consequently, the species' potential impacts on native biota (Dias et al. 2020).

Physical habitat characteristics are important drivers of the structure and richness of ichthyofauna; therefore, changes in stream environments can also influence biological invasions (Cruz and Pompeu 2020; Peressin et al. 2020). Alterations in riparian vegetation, habitat complexity, channel morphology, and water quality can directly affect native biota, possibly benefiting alien species (Casatti et al. 2009; Cruz and Pompeu 2020). For instance, *P. reticulata* was the species which caused the most dissimilarity in the ichthyofauna structure between less and more disturbed streams in southeastern Brazil (Casatti et al. 2006), and it is associated to a poor biotic integrity (de Carvalho et al. 2017b). Furthermore, the density of *P. reticulata* populations tends to be higher in urban streams (Marques et al. 2020), indicating that habitat simplification could increase this species' chance of establishment and invasion in freshwater environments. Therefore, given this species' wide distribution, life history traits, and environmental impacts, understanding how physical factors influence its invasion is extremely important.

Habitat alterations from anthropogenic disturbances play an important role in the invasiveness of a species (Guimarães Silva 2020). Such processes are of particular concern in freshwater systems since they may result in dramatic changes to native communities by reducing or eliminating native competitors and predators, increasing watershed connectivity, or increasing habitat homogenization, which may provide new vacant niches for the most opportunistic invaders (Gherardi 2007; Ricciardi and MacIsaac 2011; Alexander et al. 2015). Given the current scenario of increasing habitat degradation and biological invasions, the aim of our study was to evaluate the relative importance of physical habitat variables of streams for the presence and abundance of the invasive fish *P. reticulata*. Our study utilized a large network of 231 streams in Brazil. *P. reticulata* is a known bioindicator of poor water quality and is associated with disturbed environments (Pinto & Araújo 2007; de Carvalho et al. 2017b; Dias et al. 2020), but it remains unknown which physical variables of streams affect their presence and abundance. By improving our knowledge of how the physical environment is related to biological invasions, we provide a basis for a greater understanding of the

invasion process and for improving the management of alien species and preventing future introductions.

## **2. Methods**

### **2.1 Study area**

We studied 231 stream sites with different conditions of biotic integrity and ranging from 1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup> Strahler order on a digital 1:100,000 scale map (Strahler, 1957). We sampled both streams minimally disturbed by human activities, which possess characteristics representative of the region where they are located, and severely disturbed streams (e.g., urban streams). All streams belonged to the Paraná (165 stream sites) or São Francisco (66 stream sites) river basins in the Brazilian states of Minas Gerais and São Paulo (Southeast) and Goiás (Midwest) (Fig. 1). The streams were randomly selected for sampling using a Generalized Random-Tessellation Stratified (GRTS) design, after standardizing the order, width, and depth dimensions of the water bodies (Macedo et al. 2014).

The Paraná River basin drains approximately 10% of the Brazilian territory (879,860 km<sup>2</sup>) and is the second largest watershed in the country (Zandonadi et al. 2016). The São Francisco River basin drains approximately 8% of the Brazilian territory (645,000 km<sup>2</sup>) (de Carvalho et al. 2017b; Bueno et al. 2021 and references therein). These watersheds drain one of the most economically developed regions of Brazil and are highly impacted by alien species, land-use changes, pollution, and other anthropogenic stressors (Bueno et al. 2021).

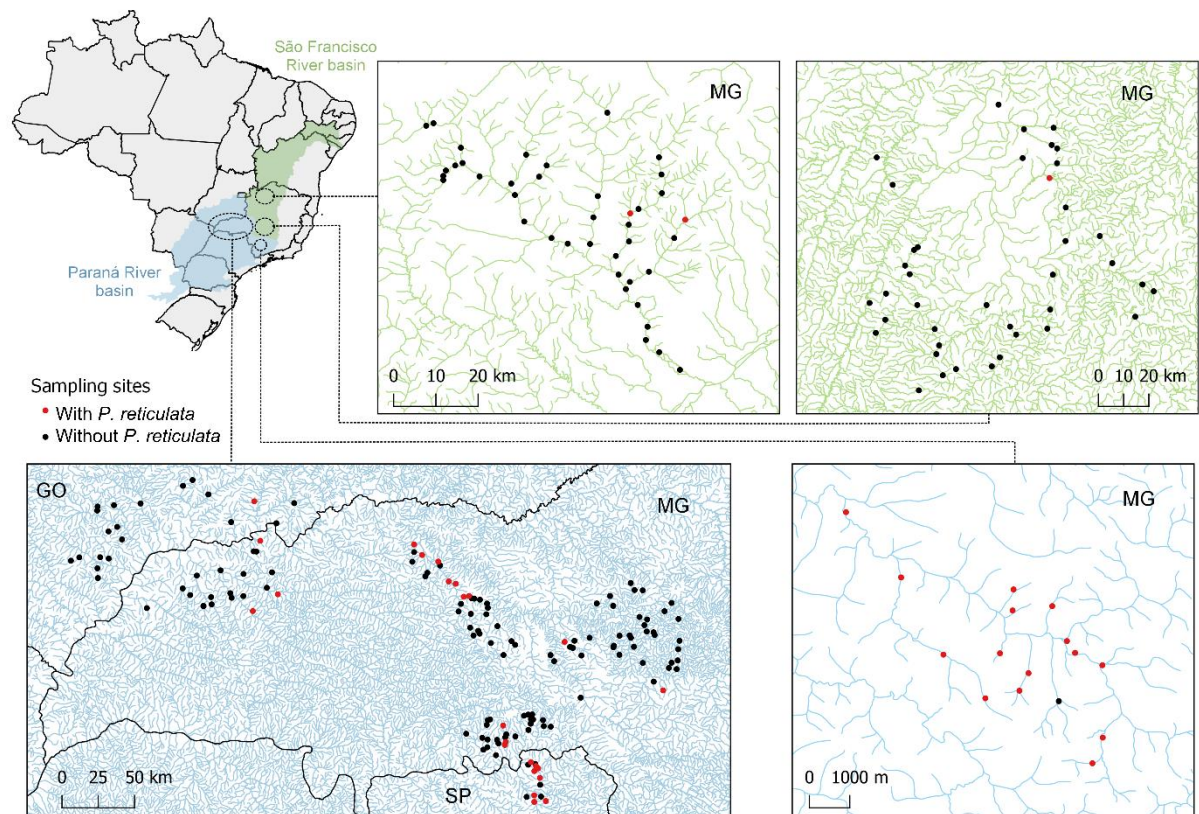


Fig. 1 Sampling sites distributed in the São Francisco (green hydrography) and Paraná (blue hydrography) River basins, in the Brazilian states of Minas Gerais (MG), São Paulo (SP), and Goiás (GO). Red dots represent stream sites with *Poecilia reticulata*.

## 2.2 Data sampling

Each stream site was sampled only once, between 2009 and 2019, during the dry season. The length of the sampled stretch in each stream was proportional to its width, defined by multiplying the average width of the stream by 40, and had a minimum stretch of 150 m (Kaufmann et al. 1999; Peck et al. 2006; Hughes and Peck, 2008). For fish sampling and characterization of physical habitats, the stretch was divided into 10 sections separated by 11 cross-sectional transects (A-K) (Macedo et al. 2014).

### 2.2.1 Fish sampling

In each section, two people sampled fish using semicircular hand nets (80 cm diameter, 1 mm mesh) and seines (4 m long, 2 m high, 5 mm mesh) when possible (de Carvalho et al. 2017b). Each section was sampled for 12 minutes, for a total of two daylight hours in each stream (Junqueira 2011; de Carvalho et al. 2017b). The specimens were killed with an

anesthetic solution of eugenol, labeled according to section and fixed in a 10% formalin solution. The collected material was transported to the Fish Ecology Laboratory (UFLA), where it was transferred to a 70% alcohol solution. Afterward, the fishes were identified to the species level.

### 2.2.2 Physical habitat characterization

Physical habitat variables were assessed at all sites using the physical habitat assessment protocol proposed by Peck et al. (2006) and Hughes and Peck (2008). The main groups of variables evaluated were channel dimensions, longitudinal gradient and sinuosity, substrate types, in-channel cover, riparian vegetation, interactions between the surroundings and the channel structure, and human disturbance. For each section, we measured the thalweg depth, the presence of fine substrate, channel bars, backwaters, side channels, and the channel type. We also measured the channel slope and sinuosity through compass bearings. For each transect, we measured depth and made visual observations to assess the substrate types and their immersion. The bank full width and depth, wetted width and mean depth, incision height, undercut bank distance, and bank angle were determined. The available fish cover was estimated visually in 10 m<sup>2</sup> plots inside the stream channel. We measured the vegetation canopy cover above the channel with a densitometer and the riparian vegetation types with visual estimates. We also assessed the frequency and extent of both in-channel and near-channel human activities and disturbances. From the data collected using the physical habitat protocol, it was possible to calculate the metrics (condensed values of the observations) for each stream (de Carvalho et al. 2017a). The following water quality variables were also measured at each site: the dissolved oxygen (mg/L), pH, temperature (°C), electrical conductivity (µS/cm), turbidity (UNT), total dissolved solids (mg/L), and dissolved nitrogen (mg/L).

### 2.3 Explanatory variables reduction

The physical habitat assessment protocol produces a list of 258 variables that describe the physical characteristics of streams. Furthermore, we include the variables of water quality for each stream and sampling region (site). Therefore, a process of reducing the number of variables was conducted in order to limit redundancy and produce a smaller set of the most

representative variables (Leal et al. 2016; Cruz and Pompeu 2020) (Fig. 2). Firstly, we used our specialist judgment to remove variables that were not relevant to our study. Secondly, we removed variables with missing values, and zero or near zero-variance predictors. Next, we excluded correlated variables ( $\rho_{Spearman} > 0.5$ ), considering the pair-wise correlations and keeping one of the variables with the highest biological representation (using *corrplot* package – Wei and Simko 2021; R Core Team 2021). Finally, a principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted for each group of physical habitat variables (channel morphology, substrate, channel flow, riparian vegetation cover, fish cover, and human disturbance) (*FactoMineR* package – Le et al. 2008; R Core Team 2021). We used the *paran* package, which performs Horn’s parallel analysis for evaluating the components retained in a PCA (Dinno 2018; R Core Team 2021), to determine the number of dimensions to extract. By inspecting the contribution of variables of the axis retained after Horn’s parallel analysis, we obtained the variables with contribution values higher than the mean and used them in the final dataset (the variable reduction process is visually detailed in Fig. 2). The plot with the contribution of variables was constructed using *fviz\_contrib* function in *factoextra* package (Kassambara and Mundt 2020; R Core Team 2021).

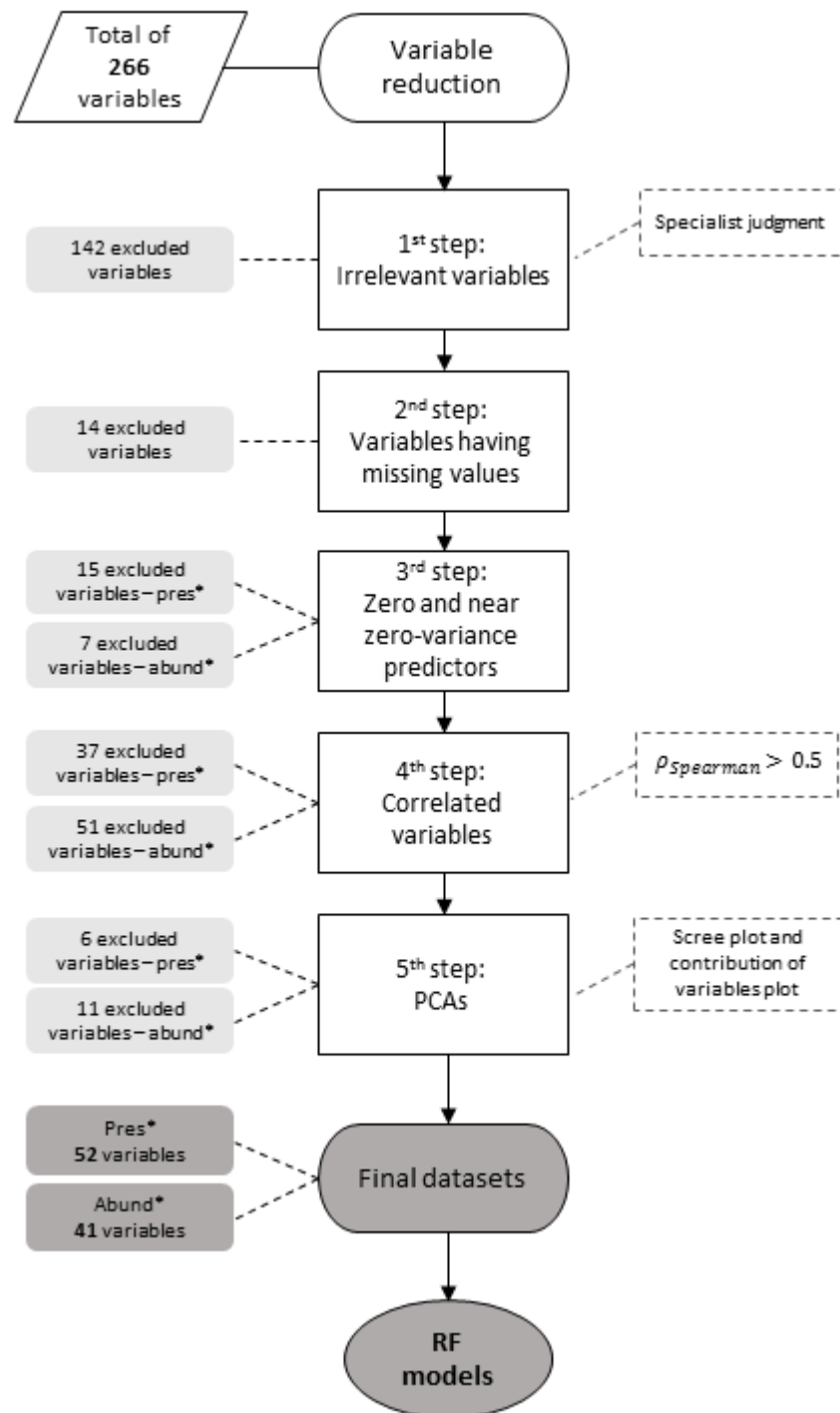


Fig. 2 Diagram showing the variable reduction criteria for building random forest models (RF). In the first and second steps, the excluded variables were the same for the two RF models. From the third step onwards, the excluded variables were different in each model. The complete list of variables used in RF models is available in the Table 1. ‘Pres’ = model with data of presence of *Poecilia reticulata*; ‘Abund’ = model with data of abundance of *P. reticulata*; ‘PCAs’ = principal component analyses.

## 2.4 Data analysis

We used two random forest (RF) models (Breiman 2001) to assess the relative importance of the retained physical habitat variables for both the presence and abundance of the invasive fish *P. reticulata* in Brazilian streams. Random forests are machine learning algorithms that combine many decision trees to produce more accurate classifications. They are an effective method of determining the importance of variables due to their high classification accuracy and their ability to model complex interactions among predictor variables (Cutler et al. 2007). Using the *randomForest* package (Liaw and Wiener 2002; R Core Team 2021), we built two RF models with data on the presence (data drawn from all sampled streams) and abundance (data drawn from streams where the invasive fish were sampled) of *P. reticulata*. We fitted two important parameters in the RF models: the number of trees used in the forest ( $n_{tree} = 1000$ ) and the number of variables randomly sampled as candidates at each split in each tree (the optimal  $m_{try}$  value). The optimal  $m_{try}$  value was found for each model by using the *tuneRF* function from the *randomForest* package (Liaw and Wiener 2002; R Core Team 2021). Using this procedure, we obtained the most important variables and built partial dependence plots to graphically demonstrate both the relationships between individual predictor variables and the predicted probabilities of *P. reticulata* presence and abundance obtained from the RF models (Cutler et al. 2007). Partial dependence provides a quantitative depiction of the relationship between the outcome and the predictors as detected by the RF model (Jones and Linder 2015).

## 3. Results

### 3.1 Variable selection

The variable selection process resulted in the exclusion of 142 variables that were irrelevant to our study and 14 variables with missing values. In the presence/absence model, 15 zero- and near-zero-variance predictors and 37 correlated variables were excluded. After performing the PCAs and obtaining the most relevant variables, 52 variables remained in the final dataset for building the RF. In the abundance model, dimensionality reduction resulted in the exclusion of seven zero- and near zero-variance predictors and 51 correlated variables. The final dataset to build the RF contained the 41 variables obtained through the PCAs (Table 1).

Table 1 The final datasets with the variables used in two random forest models. ‘Pres’ = model with data of presence of *Poecilia reticulata*; ‘Abund’ = model with data of abundance of *P. reticulata*.

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Model</b>
<b>Identification Variables</b>		
SITE	Watershed	Pres; Abund
<b>Channel Morphology Metrics</b>		
XDEPTH_T	Mean thalweg depth (cm)	Pres
XWIDTH	Mean wetted width (m)	Pres; Abund
PCT_FA	Percent falls	Abund
PCT_RA	Percent rapids	Pres; Abund
PCT_RI	Percent riffle	Pres; Abund
PCT_GL	Percent glide	Pres
PCT_PD	Percent impoundment pool	Pres
PCT_PL	Percent lateral scour pool	Abund
PCT_SB	Percent subsurface flow	Pres; Abund
PCT_SLOW	Percent glides + all pool types	Pres; Abund
PCT_POOL	Percent all pool types	Pres; Abund
SEQ_FLO_1	Sequence - rapids, glides and pools	Pres
<b>Channel Cross-section and Bank Morphology Metrics</b>		
XBKA	Mean bank angle (degrees)	Pres
XUN	Mean bank undercut distance (m)	Abund
XBKF_W	Mean bank full width (m)	Pres
XBKF_D	Mean bank full depth (m)	Pres; Abund
XBKF_H	Mean bank full height (m)	Pres; Abund
XBAR	Mean channel bars width (m)	Abund
<b>Channel Sinuosity and Slope Metrics</b>		
SINU	Channel Sinuosity = Reach length / Straight line distance between reach ends)	Pres; Abund
<b>Residual Pool Metrics</b>		
PCTRSED	Presence of thalweg small sediments (% of reach length)	Pres
<b>Substrate Size and Composition Metrics</b>		
PCT_RR	Substrate % rough bedrock (>4000mm)	Abund
PCT_BL	Substrate % boulder(250-4000mm)	Abund
PCT_CB	Substrate % cobble (64-250mm)	Pres
PCT_GC	Substrate % coarse gravel (16-64mm)	Pres
PCT_BIGR	Substrate % coarse gravel and larger (>16mm)	Pres; Abund
PCT_GF	Substrate % fine gravel (2-16mm)	Pres; Abund
PCT_SA	Substrate % sand (0.6-2mm)	Pres
PCT_FN	Substrate % fine (silt/clay < 0.6 mm)	Pres; Abund
PCT_SAFN	Substrate % sand + fines (<2mm)	Abund
PCT_WD	Substrate % wood	Pres; Abund
PCT_ORG	Substrate % wood or detritus	Pres; Abund
PCT_HP	Substrate % hard pan	Pres; Abund
PCT_OT	Substrate % miscellaneous other types	Pres



<b>Variable</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Model</b>
<b>Substrate Size and Composition Metrics</b>		
PCT_RT	Substrate % roots	Pres
PCT_SF	Substrate % fine litter	Pres; Abund
PCT_ALMA	Substrate % algae + macrophytes	Abund
<b>Fish Cover Metrics</b>		
XFC_ALG	Filamentous algae areal cover	Pres
XFC_AQM	Aquatic macrophyte areal cover	Pres; Abund
XFC_LWD	Large woody debris areal cover	Pres; Abund
XFC_OHV	Overhanging vegetation areal cover	Pres; Abund
XFC_HUM	Artificial structure areal cover	Abund
XFC_LIF	Sum of proportional areal cover from natural concealment features, including leaf bank and living roots	Pres; Abund
XFC_ANT	Anthropogenic fish cover areal cover	Pres; Abund
XFC_WD	Woody debris areal cover	Pres
<b>Riparian Cover (Densimeter) Metrics</b>		
XCDENBK	Mean % canopy density at bank	Pres
XCDENMID	Mean % canopy density mid-stream	Pres; Abund
<b>Riparian Vegetation Cover and Structure Metrics</b>		
XCL	Riparian canopy (> 5 m high) cover - trees > 0.3m DBH	Pres
XGW	Riparian ground-layer (< 0.5 m high) woody cover	Pres
XGH	Riparian ground-layer (< 0.5 m high) herbaceous cover	Pres; Abund
XC	Riparian canopy cover (XCL+XCS)	Pres
XG	Riparian ground-layer vegetation cover (XGW + XGH)	Pres; Abund
<b>Human Disturbance Metric Variables</b>		
W1H_WALL	Channel revetment (proximity-weighted index)	
W1H_PVMT	Pavement (proximity-weighted index)	Pres
W1H_PIPE	Pipes, influent and effluent (proximity-weighted index)	Pres; Abund
W1H_LDFL	Trash and Landfill (proximity-weighted index)	Pres; Abund
W1H_CROP	Row Crop Agriculture (proximity-weighted index)	Pres
W1H_PSTR	Pasture and Grass fields (proximity-weighted index)	Abund
W1H_LOG	Logging (proximity-weighted index)	Pres
W1_HALL	Riparian human disturbance index – All types (proximity-weighted sum index)	Pres; Abund
W1_HAG	Agricultural types (proximity-weighted sum index)	Abund
X_HALL	Proportion of human impact per stretch - Total (margin + < 10m + > 10m) (B+C+P)	Abund
X_HAG	Proportion of agricultural human impact per stretch - Total (margin + < 10m + > 10m) (B+C+P)	Pres
<b>Water quality variables</b>		
COND	Electrical conductivity ( $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ )	Pres; Abund

### 3.2 *Poecilia reticulata* invasion

A total of 14,816 *P. reticulata* individuals were collected in 43 of the 231 stream sites. The mean number of individuals collected per stream was 345 (range: 1-6,909 individuals/stream). The streams where the guppies were collected had some degree of disturbance and most were located near or within urban areas. A high abundance of guppies was recorded in the Paraná River basin, with the invasive species found in 24% of the sampled streams in this watershed. Conversely, a lower presence and abundance of guppies was recorded in the São Francisco River basin.

The predictor variables and their percentages of explanation varied between the two RF models (Fig. 3). In the presence/absence RF model (out-of-bag error = 0.11; area under the ROC curve (AUC) = 0.76), the presence of *P. reticulata* was explained mainly by human disturbance. Four of the five most important variables in the model were human disturbance variables: total impact (proximity-weighted sum) (mean decrease in accuracy (%IncMSE) = 16.02%), trash and landfill (proximity-weighted index) (%IncMSE = 14.63%), pipes, influent and effluent (proximity-weighted index) (%IncMSE = 9.66%), and pavement (proximity-weighted index) (%IncMSE = 8.61%). Specific predictor variables – total impact, trash and landfill, pipes, influent and effluent, and pavement – were positively related with the presence of *P. reticulata* (Fig. 4).

In the abundance RF model (% variance explained = 17.69;  $R^2 = 0.83$ ), the instream variables better explained guppy abundance, as the most important predictors were mean bank full height (m) (%IncMSE = 7.63%); natural fish cover, including leaf bank and living roots (sum of proportional areal cover from natural concealment features) (%IncMSE = 6.98%); mean bank full depth (m) (%IncMSE = 5.93%); and aquatic macrophyte areal cover (%IncMSE = 5.61%). Specific predictor variables – mean bank full height, natural fish cover, mean bank full depth, and aquatic macrophyte areal cover – were positively related with the abundance of *P. reticulata* (Fig. 5).

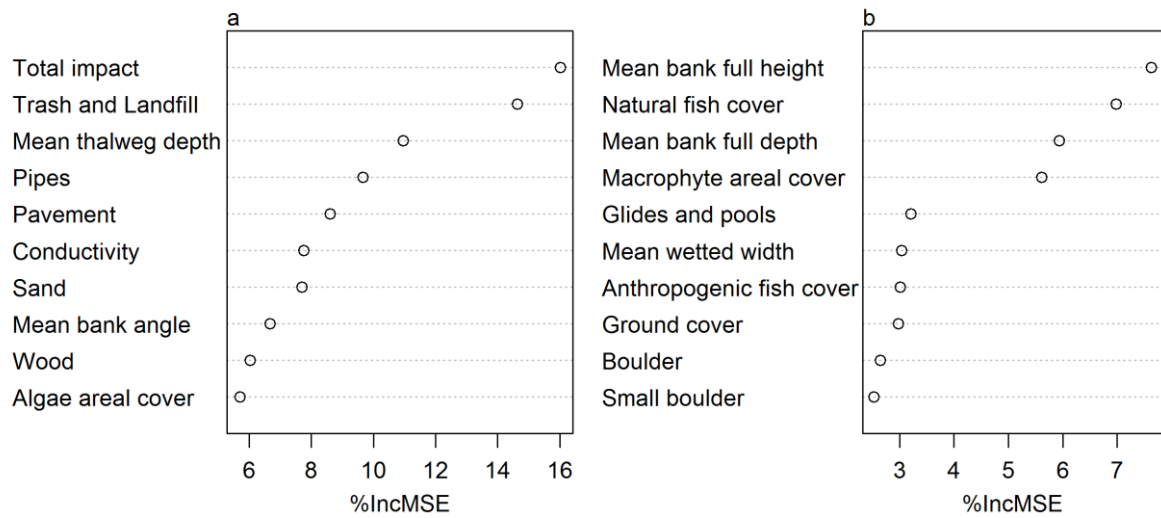


Fig. 3 Variable importance plots for predictor variables from the random forest models for predicting presence (a), and abundance (b) of *Poecilia reticulata* in Brazilian streams. Higher values of mean decrease in accuracy (%IncMSE) indicate higher importance of predictor variables.

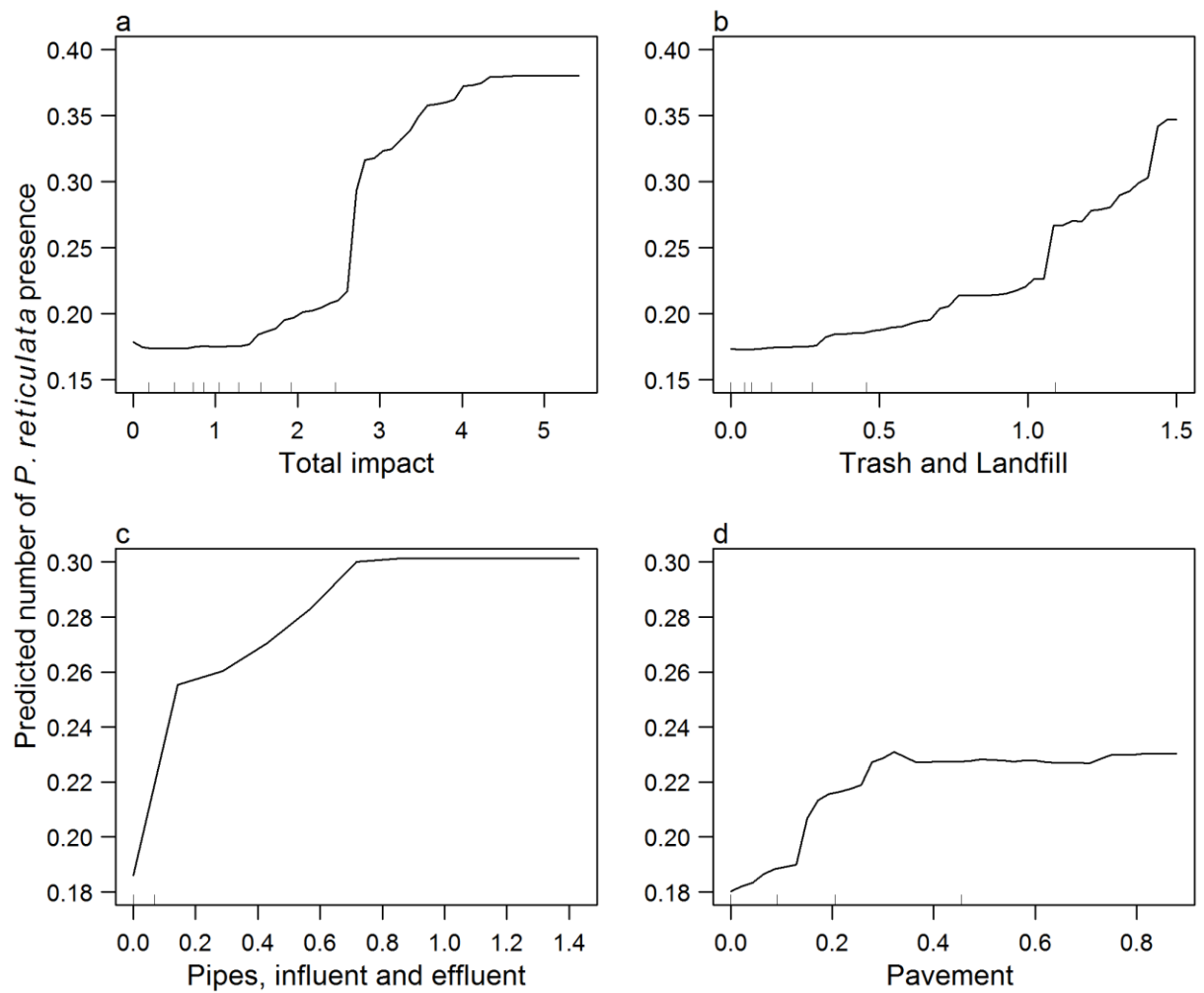


Fig. 4 Partial dependence plots for selected predictor variables for random forest predictions of *Poecilia reticulata* presence in Brazilian streams. The human disturbance metric variables were calculated by riparian human disturbance index: a) total impact = proximity-weighted sum; b) trash and landfill = proximity-weighted index; c) pipes, influent and effluent = proximity-weighted index; d) pavement = proximity-weighted index. Human disturbances indexes were calculated according Kauffman et al. 1999 and Peck, 2006. The tick marks on the x-axis indicate the min/max and deciles of the predictor distributions.

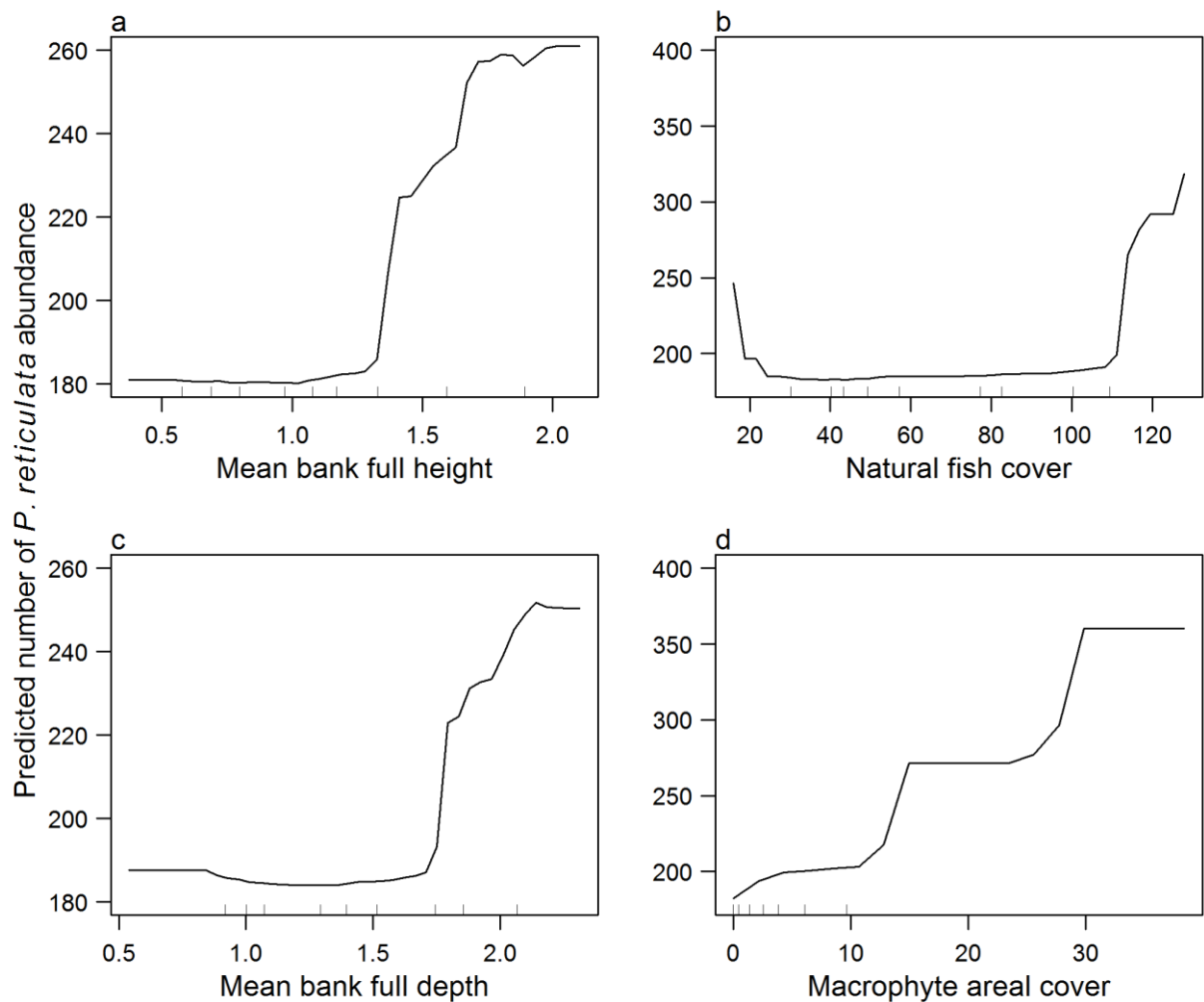


Fig. 5 Partial dependence plots for selected predictor variables for random forest predictions of *Poecilia reticulata* abundance in Brazilian streams. The channel morphology metrics (a; c) were measured in meters (m), and the fish cover metrics were measured by the percentage of areal cover of each features type: b) natural fish cover types (sum of proportional areal cover from natural concealment features: rocks and boulders, overhanging vegetation, brush, large woody debris, and undercut banks. The code calculates cover estimates of these combined cover types, whose summed cover may exceed 100%, i.e., proportional areal cover > 1.0); d) aquatic macrophyte areal cover proportion (see Kauffman et al. 1999). The tick marks on the x-axis indicate the min/max and deciles of the predictor distributions.

#### 4. Discussion

We identified which physical habitat variables were important in predicting the presence and abundance of the globally invasive fish *P. reticulata*. Our results demonstrated that human disturbance variables are important drivers of *P. reticulata* presence, while instream variables, mainly those related to channel morphology and fish cover, are important drivers of its abundance. The expansion of human activities has modified the structure, dynamics, history, and function of freshwater ecosystems (Pelicice et al. 2021). Simplified and disturbed habitats tend to favor alien species, which are more tolerant of human-modified conditions and have traits that enable them to persist in sites where native species are not able to (Casatti et al. 2006). These problems are accentuated in stream ecosystems, as they are small-scale environments that are extremely sensitive to human disturbance (Garcia et al. 2021). Therefore, our results reinforce the importance of protecting the biotic integrity of watercourses to manage and prevent biological invasions.

The human disturbance variables that predict *P. reticulata* presence (total impact, trash and landfill, pipes, influent and effluent, and pavement) are highly related to urbanization. Urbanization can transform the environment in drastic ways (Marques et al. 2020); for example, with increasing urbanization, natural areas are replaced by built structures and water and air pollution increase. Urban areas create distinct environmental conditions that benefit tolerant generalist taxa and reduce sensitive specialized taxa (Marques et al. 2020; Borden and Flory 2021). *Poecilia reticulata* is a tolerant species that can establish at sites that are disturbed, are highly polluted, and have poor water quality (de Carvalho et al. 2019; Gomes-Silva et al. 2020); thus, this alien species is commonly found in urban streams (Cruz and Pompeu 2020), confirming importance of human disturbance variables on its presence. Furthermore, the guppy's dietary flexibility is an important trait for surviving and flourishing in urban areas, since this alien species has the potential to compete with native biota in a wide range of conditions and resources (Ganassin et al. 2019). For example, guppies can assimilate carbon directly from sewage, which can facilitate their establishment in urban areas (de Carvalho et al. 2019).

Paved roads are also a key urbanization indicator that strongly affect freshwater environments across large spatial and temporal frames (Angermeier et al. 2004; Cui and Shi 2012). In human history, roads were one of the first ways of overcoming biogeographic barriers and connecting areas (Nentwig 2008); currently, they are relevant predictors for

explaining the occurrence of certain alien species in disturbed environments (Gallardo 2014). In addition to their impacts to stream habitat characteristics (Leal et al. 2016) and their biota (Angermeier et al. 2004), paved roads are important pathways for the introduction of alien fish species (Dias et al. 2020). These invasion routes also occur in terrestrial environments, where roads favor the dispersal and establishment of alien plants in new landscapes or regions (Guimarães Silva et al. 2020). Roads facilitate people's access to water bodies and, consequently, increase the chances of guppy release in urban streams (Dias et al. 2020), both for mosquito control and for disposal from the aquarium trade (Warbanski et al. 2017; Bueno et al. 2021). Therefore, urban environments tend to be points of introduction for *P. reticulata* as well as important hotspots for the entry of many alien species, which often flourish and become invasive in these areas (Marques et al. 2020; Borden and Flory 2021).

Once introduced in disturbed areas, *P. reticulata* often becomes numerically dominant (Dias et al. 2020), enhancing its invasive potential (Marques et al. 2020). Our results showed that there was a positive relationship between *P. reticulata* abundance and channel morphology variables (mean bank full height and mean bank full depth). This relationship may also be related to urbanization, as urban streams tend to have deep, wide, and slow channels (Angermeier et al. 2004). Guppies can occur in a wide range of habitats, but they are commonly found in shallow stream margins (CABI 2021). However, it has been reported that larger individuals are more likely to remain in deeper and more central areas and that guppies select shallow water when predatory fish are present (Meffe and Snelson 1989, and references therein). This is consistent with our results, as there is evidence that urban guppies have larger body sizes (Marques et al. 2020) and are thus able to occupy deeper waters. Furthermore, there is biotic homogenization in environments where invasive guppies are dominant (Cruz and Pompeu 2020), reducing their chance of predation and, consequently, expanding their occupation area in the water bodies.

The presence of natural fish cover and aquatic macrophytes were also important instream variables for predicting increased *P. reticulata* abundance. Natural cover structures are important components and regulators of freshwater ecosystems (Allouche 2002). Aquatic macrophytes, leaf banks, and living roots offer fish habitat refuge, with protection and isolation from predators and competitors (Allouche 2002; Smokorowski and Pratt 2007). In addition, these structures are important food items for freshwater fish and can also function as foraging sites, since they are a substrate for the growth of epiphytic algae and macroinvertebrates (Smokorowski and Pratt 2007). It should be noted that aquatic

macrophytes are also associated with stream degradation, as they are favored by water nutrient enrichment and by the removal of riparian vegetation, which increases the availability of light (Barendregt and Bio 2003). Therefore, *P. reticulata*, an omnivorous and opportunistic species (Bueno et al. 2021; CABI 2021), may benefit from these conditions and resources from natural fish covers and, consequently, this can facilitate their establishment and increase their populations in recipient streams.

Stream habitat comprises all the biotic and abiotic variables that influence or provide sustenance to aquatic biota (Kaufmann et al. 1999). Our study investigated which physical habitat variables are most important for predicting the presence and abundance of the invasive fish *P. reticulata* in recipient streams. Guppy presence in the sampled streams was explained mainly by the human disturbance variables; however, the instream variables were important in predicting species abundance. Our results highlight the importance of urbanization in the invasion and establishment of *P. reticulata*. Urban areas are a relevant pathway for guppy introduction, and modifications in stream habitat caused by urbanization create distinct environmental conditions that benefit this invasive species. Identifying which habitat variables are favorable to the establishment of alien species is an important step toward controlling future biological invasions and managing those that have already occurred.

### **Acknowledgments**

We thank our colleagues at the Fish Ecology Laboratory (UFLA) and Benthos Ecology Laboratory (UFMG) for their assistance in the collection and processing of samples over the years. We also thank João Pedro Gomes for providing some of the field data. M.L.B. thanks the Brazilian Federal Agency for Support and Evaluation of Graduate Education (Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior – CAPES) for providing a scholarship. We also thank the Robinson Lab (Stellenbosch University) and the Centre of Excellence for Invasion Biology (CIB).



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## CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

Invasões biológicas e a degradação de habitat são grandes ameaças à biodiversidade nativa. Estes distúrbios provocados pelo homem estão aumentando rapidamente, sem nenhuma evidência de diminuição. Ecossistemas degradados, como áreas urbanas, podem ser pontos críticos para a entrada e o estabelecimento de espécies invasoras. O número de espécies exóticas de peixes introduzidas em bacias hidrográficas do Sudeste, área mais desenvolvida economicamente e densamente povoada do Brasil, vem crescendo ao longo do tempo. Listamos 201 espécies de peixes que estão introduzidas nesta região, sendo muitas delas invasoras nas bacias hidrográficas estudadas. Além da modificação das características físicas dos cursos d'água, com a diminuição da integridade biótica, isso pode ser atribuído ao volume de introduções feitas pelo homem, bem como pelo aumento do número de vias e facilidade de introdução. Estas mudanças na estrutura, dinâmica e funcionamento dos ecossistemas dulcícolas podem favorecer o estabelecimento e invasão de espécies, como no caso da espécie *Poecilia reticulata*. Identificamos que a presença deste peixe invasor nos riachos receptores foi explicada principalmente pelas variáveis de distúrbio humano relacionadas à urbanização, enquanto as variáveis de morfologia do canal e abrigo para peixes foram importantes para determinar se esta espécie será abundante nos locais onde foi introduzida.

Estratégias para prevenção de futuras introduções de espécies de peixes devem ser tomadas, pois, uma vez estabelecidas, é quase impossível erradicá-las. Além disso, há uma necessidade de esforços mais eficazes na coleta de dados e classificação dos impactos que estas espécies invasoras de peixes causam nos ecossistemas receptores. O método EICAT (Environmental Impact Classification for Alien Taxa, IUCN), por exemplo, é uma importante ferramenta para obter uma melhor compreensão da magnitude destes impactos e para alertar as partes interessadas para as possíveis consequências da introdução de espécies exóticas. Assim, o conhecimento gerado por esses estudos é muito importante para uma melhor comunicação entre comunidade científica, gestores e população, possibilitando a implementação de programas de gestão eficazes.