# UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE MINAS GERAIS 

Instituto de Ciências Biológicas
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia, Conservação e Manejo da Vida Silvestre

Fernanda de Oliveira Silva

MIGRAÇÃO DE PEIXES NO RIO JEQUITINHONHA: padrões migratórios e habitats
críticos para o recrutamento

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# MIGRAÇÃO DE PEIXES NO RIO JEQUITINHONHA: padrões migratórios e habitats críticos para o recrutamento 

Versão Final

Tese apresentada ao Curso de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia, Conservação e Manejo da Vida Silvestre da Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais como requisito parcial para obtenção do Grau de Doutora. Área de Concentração: Ecologia e Gestão de Ecossistemas Aquáticos

Orientador: Fernando Mayer Pelicice

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# PC <br> Ata da Defesa de Tese 

## FERNANDA DE OLIVEIRA SILVA

No dia 30 de novembro de 2020, às 14:00 horas, por vídeo conferência, teve lugar a defesa de tese de doutorado no Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ecologia, Conservação e Manejo da Vida Silvestre, de autoria do(a) doutorando(a) FERNANDA DE OLIVEIRA SILVA, orientando do Professor FERNANDO MAYER PELICICE, intitulada: "Migração de peixes no rio Jequitinhonha: padrões migratórios e habitats críticos para o recrutamento". Abrindo a sessão, o(a) Presidente(a) da Comissão, Doutor(a) FERNANDO MAYER PELICICE, após dar a conhecer aos presentes o teor das normas regulamentares do trabalho final, passou a palavra para o(a) candidato(a) para apresentação de seu trabalho. Estiveram presentes a Banca Examinadora composta pelos Doutores: Ângelo Antônio Agostinho (UEM), Paulo Dos Santos Pompeu (UFLA), Alexandre Lima Godinho (UFMG), Fernanda Dotti Do Prado (UNESP) e demais convidados. Seguiuse a arguição pelos examinadores, com a respectiva defesa do(a) candidato(a). Após a arguição, apenas os senhores examinadores permaneceram no recinto para avaliação e deliberação acerca do resultado final, sendo a decisão da banca pela:
(X) Aprovação da tese, com eventuais correções mínimas e entrega de versão final pelo orientador diretamente à Secretaria do Programa, no prazo máximo de 30 dias;
( ) Reavaliação da tese com avaliação pelos membros da banca do documento revisado, sem nova defesa, no prazo máximo de 30 dias, sob possibilidade de reprovação;
( ) Reformulação da tese com indicação de nova defesa em data estabelecida a critério do Colegiado em observância às Normas Gerais da Pós-graduação na UFMG a ao Regimento do PPG-ECMVS;

## ( ) Reprovação

A banca indica esta tese aos Prêmios CAPES e UFMG de teses? (X)SIM ()NÃO
Nada mais havendo a tratar, o Presidente da Comissão encerrou a reunião e lavrou a presente ata, que será assinada por todos os membros participantes da Comissão Examinadora.

Belo Horizonte, 30 de novembro de 2020.
11/12/2020 SEIUFMG - 0448950 - Ata de defesa de Dissertaçăo/Tese

Documento assinado eletronicamente por Fernando Mayer Pelicice, Usuário Externo, em $01 / 12 / 2020$, às 17:20, conforme horário oficial de Brasilia, com fundamento no art. $6^{9}$, $\S 1$, do Decreto $n^{2} 8.539$, de 8 de outubro de 2015 .

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Dedicado àquela que tem os lábios mais lindos do mundo: a Curimba!

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Núcleo de Estudos Ambientais (Neamb), Universidade Federal do Tocantins
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Laboratório de Ictiologia, Universidade Federal de São João del-Rei

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## Resumo

Investigamos o comportamento migratório e fatores que afetam a dinâmica de recrutamento da curimba nativa (Prochilodus hartii) do rio Jequitinhonha, uma bacia do semiárido, Brasil, em um contexto de regulação hidrológica e hibridização com espécies não nativas. Para isso, dividimos a tese em dois capítulos. No primeiro, investigamos a dinâmica reprodutiva e de recrutamento da espécie, sua relação com o regime hidrológico e distribuição espacial. Coletamos amostras de ovos, larvas e jovens do ano (YOY) em vários pontos amostrais distribuídos ao longo de 300 km do Rio Jequitinhonha, a montante e a jusante da UHE Irapé. Encontramos maiores densidades de ovos e larvas em locais sem influência do barramento, afetados principalmente pelas variações semanais e diárias no nível da água. A probabilidade de captura de YOY aumentou em $40 \%$ quando um riacho lateral estava presente, enquanto a probabilidade de ocorrência de YOY foi afetada pelo tamanho do trecho lótico. A abundância de subadultos não foi correlacionada com nenhuma variável vinculada ao regime de cheias. Esses resultados mostram que curimbas de um rio do semiárido e sem planície de inundação apresentaram relações distintas com o regime de cheias quando comparadas às curimbas de rios de planície. No segundo capítulo, investigamos a dinâmica migratória de $P$. hartii frente aos impactos de alteração de habitat e hibridização com espécies não nativas, por meio do uso de técnicas de telemetria (radio e acústica) e análises genéticas. No estudo de migração, o comportamento de curimbas foi avaliado em 4 grupos de peixes, sendo 2 em trechos a montante e 2 em trechos a jusante da UHE Irapé. A jusante, monitoramos peixes marcados e liberados no canal de fuga da UHE Irapé (RL1) e a 80 km abaixo da barragem, próximo ao seu principal tributário, rio Araçuaí (RL2). A montante, monitoramos peixes oriundos do reservatório (RL3) e transpostos para o reservatório (RL4), simulando um sistema de transposição de peixes. As maiores distâncias deslocadas foram detectadas nos peixes de RL2, e o rio Araçuaí, livre de barramento, mostrou-se como importante rota migratória. Os peixes sob influência direta da
barragem tenderam a mover distâncias mais curtas, tanto no reservatório (RL3) quanto imediatamente abaixo da barragem (RL1). Quase todos os peixes liberados no reservatório não conseguiram migrar para trechos lóticos a montante, especialmente aqueles transpostos (RL4). Detectamos uma alta proporção de hibridização no trecho de jusante, e peixes nativos e híbridos apresentaram comportamento migratório muito semelhante. Considerando os resultados dos dois capítulos, concluímos que existem duas populações independentes na região (uma acima e outra abaixo da barragem), autossustentáveis; no entanto, ambas as populações estão sendo impactadas por ação humana. A modificação e fragmentação do habitat alterou o comportamento migratório e o recrutamento em um longo trecho de rio, particularmente a montante. Além disso, a introgressão genética, principalmente no trecho de jusante, ameaça a permanência de $P$. hartii no Jequitinhonha. Isso indica que medidas de conservação, como a preservação de trechos lóticos, são urgentes para proteger as populações remanescentes a montante e a jusante da barragem.

Palavras-chave: Migração, peixes, rio Jequitinhonha


#### Abstract

Migration, spawning and recruitment dynamics of Neotropical migratory fishes are widely studied in river-floodplain systems, where the flood pulse and wetlands play a central role. In semi-arid systems, where the flow regime is less predictable and water-bodies intermittent, migratory fishes may employ different migratory behavior and recruitment strategies, although studies on these systems are scarce. Additionally, impacts of habitat fragmentation and species introduction can be intensified in semiarid river systems, making them a study priority. In this thesis, we investigated factors affecting the recruitment dynamics and migratory behavior of curimbas (Prochilodus hartii) in a semi-arid river basin (Jequitinhonha River, Brazil) subjected to river regulation and hybridization with non-native species. We sectioned the thesis into two independent studies, presented in two chapters. In the first chapter, we investigated the relationship between flood and recruitment. We sampled eggs, larvae and young of the year (YOY) over 2 years and sub-adult over seven years, at several sites distributed upstream and downstream of a hydroelectric dam, UHE Irapé, about 300 km of the Jequitinhonha River. We found higher densities of eggs and larvae at sites with no influence of river regulation, affected mainly by weekly and daily variations in water level. The probability of YOY detection increased by $40 \%$ when a lateral stream was present, and the probability of YOY occupancy was affected by the length of the lotic stretch. Sub-adult abundance was not correlated with any predictor related to the flooding regime. These results show that curimbas from a semi-arid river and without a floodplain had different relationships with the flood regime when compared to curimbas from lowland rivers. In the second chapter, we investigated the migratory behavior of $P$. hartii under impacts of habitat modification and hybridization using telemetry techniques (radio and acoustic) and genetic analysis. We studied four groups based in the release site. We monitored fish in the UHE Irape tailrace (RL1) and 80 km below the dam, near to the main tributary, Araçuaí River (RL2), downstream to the dam. In the upstream reach, we monitored


fish from the reservoir (RL3) and fish passed to the reservoir (RL4), simulating a fish passage system. The longest distances migrated were detected in RL2 goup, and the main free-flowing tributary proved to be an important migratory route. Fish under dam influence tended to move over shorter distances, both in the reservoir and immediately below the dam. Almost all fish released in the reservoir were unable to migrate to upstream lotic stretches, especially those passed from downstream sites. We detected a high proportion of hybridization in the lower reach of the river, and native and hybrids fish showed very similar migratory behavior. Considering all results together, we conclude that there are two segregated populations upstream and downstream the dam. However, both populations are been severely impacted by human interventions. The habitat modification and fragmentation imperiled migratory behavior and recruitment in a long river reach, particularly upstream the dam. Besides that, genetic introgression, especially downstream reaches, threatens the permanence of $P$. hartii in Jequitinhonha River Basin. This indicates that conservation measures, such as the preservation of lotic stretches, are urgent to protect the remaining populations upstream and downstream of the dam.

Key-words: Migration, fish, Jequitinhonha River

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## Introdução geral

A dependência de energia por fonte hidrelétrica se dá principalmente em países em desenvolvimento (Dugan et al., 2010), e o Brasil é o segundo maior produtor de hidroeletricidade no mundo, ficando atrás apenas da China (British Petroleum Company, 2020). Mais de 1.300 barramentos para fim de geração de eletricidade já foram instalados em diversas bacias hidrográficas brasileiras (Aneel, 2019). As espécies de peixes com comportamento reofílico migratório, que necessitam se deslocar entre diferentes tipos de ambientes para completarem seus ciclos de vida, são as mais sensíveis às alterações ambientais, no habitat e na conectividade fluvial, sendo as primeiras a desaparecer após a formação dos barramentos (Lucas and Baras, 2001). Isso acontece porque as barragens, em muitos casos, interferem no ciclo de vida dessas espécies de três formas principais: 1) interrompem os movimentos migratórios (Agostinho, Thomaz and Gomes, 2005), separando sítios de desova dos berçários e dos sítios de alimentação (Pompeu, Agostinho and Pelicice, 2012); 2) alteram o regime hidrológico e os padrões de cheias (Agostinho et al., 2004), os quais mantêm a conectividade lateral dos habitats, fornecem abrigo e alimento aos diversos estágios do ciclo de vida dos peixes (Junk and Wantzen, 2004), e funcionam como gatilho para processos biológicos; 3) modificam as características dos habitats por transformarem ambientes lóticos em lênticos, com condições inapropriadas para a sua residência e aquisição de recursos (Dudley and Platania, 2007; Pelicice, Pompeu and Agostinho, 2015).

Com relação à perturbação imposta a movimentos migratórios, sistemas de transposição para peixes (STPs) vêm sendo construídos com o objetivo básico de reconectar trechos separados pelo barramento (Pompeu et al., 2012). Essa tem sido a segunda medida mitigatória mais utilizada no Brasil (Agostinho, Gomes and Pelicice, 2007), tendo forte apelo popular e determinada por lei em alguns estados (Lei 12.488, de 9/4/1997 em Minas Gerais e Lei 9.798, de 7/10/1997 em São Paulo). No entanto, vários estudos têm questionado a eficácia dos STPs
na manutenção dos estoques de espécies migradoras (Agostinho et al., 2002; A. A. Agostinho et al., 2007; C. S. Agostinho et al., 2007; Lopes et al., 2007; Pelicice and Agostinho, 2012; Silva et al., 2012; Pelicice, Pompeu and Agostinho, 2015), inclusive em nível mundial (Kemp, 2016; Birnie-Gauvin et al., 2018; Wilkes, Mckenzie and Webb, 2018). Mais do que isso, em algumas situações esses sistemas podem atuar como armadilhas ecológicas (Pelicice and Agostinho, 2008; Brito and Carvalho, 2013), causando impactos negativos ao recrutamento, quando peixes são atraídos para regiões com piores condições para reprodução, sem possibilidade de retorno. As principais causas da instalação de STPs que causam impactos sobre a fauna são a ausência de estudos prévios que avaliem claramente os objetivos da transposição, o desconhecimento sobre limitaçães de funcionamento do STP, o contexto ambiental e a ecologia das espécies locais, além da falta de monitoramento e avaliações periódicas (Pompeu, Agostinho and Pelicice, 2012).

Entender as características dos diferentes tipos de habitats utilizados por espécies migradoras e a disposição espacial dos mesmos em relação a barramentos é fator chave para a decisão acerca de implantação de STPs (Agostinho et al., 2002) ou qualquer outra forma de manejo. Se ambientes propícios à desova e crescimento são inexistentes a montante, por exemplo, um STP não deve ser considerado (Pompeu et al., 2012). Apesar de aparentemente simples, essas análises tornam-se complexas quando aspectos básicos do ciclo de vida das espécies afetadas são desconhecidos. Esse é o caso do rio Jequitinhonha, que tem elevado valor de conservação por estar situado em área de alto endemismo de peixes (Ribeiro, 2006), porém carece de estudos básicos de descrição de espécies (Pugedo et al., 2016). Consequentemente, são raras as informações sobre aspectos biológicos e ecológicos de peixes, mesmo daquelas espécies consideradas abundantes e comercialmente importantes (Andrade, 2018). Essas lacunas de informação tornam as análises sobre o uso de ferramentas de manejo ainda mais complexas,
podendo decretar o insucesso de uma medida (e.g. STPs) caso seja tomada sem informações técnicas suficientes e de qualidade.

O presente estudo, o qual embasa essa tese de doutorado, nasceu de uma demanda da Cemig Geração e Transmissão (Programa Peixe Vivo) em avaliar a necessidade de instalação de um STP na UHE Irapé, uma grande barragem instalada na calha do rio Jequitinhonha, um rio encaixado, sem planícies de inundação significativas, que atravessa parte do semiárido brasileiro. Essa demanda foi uma das condicionantes ambientais da renovação da Licença de Operação da usina. Para atendê-la, foi elaborado um projeto de pesquisa desenvolvido pela Fundação Biodiversitas e que contou com parcerias da Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, dando apoio aos estudos de ictioplâncton, Universidade Federal de São João del-Rei, apoiando nos estudos de telemetria de peixes, e Universidade Federal do Tocantins, dando apoio no delineamento e condução geral dos estudos. É um dos raros estudos que utilizou abordagem integrativa sobre migração, reprodução e recrutamento para avaliar empiricamente a necessidade de instalação de um STP (Lira et al., 2017), visto que empregou técnicas de telemetria para avaliar a migração, acompanhada de avaliações sobre sítios de desova e crescimento para avaliar o recrutamento. Embora a pergunta sobre a necessidade de transposição de peixes na UHE Irapé tenha sido o pano de fundo do projeto, ele não foi abordado como um dos objetivos na presente tese. Procuramos dar enfoque às características ecológicas da espécie de peixe estudada, suas relações com a hidrologia de um rio em um cenário de clima semiárido, e suas interações com os impactos do barramento e introgressão genética causada por espécies não nativas.

Nesse sentido, o objetivo geral deste trabalho foi avaliar o comportamento migratório e a existência de habitats críticos para o recrutamento (sítios de desova e crescimento) da curimba Prochilodus hartii Steindachner, 1875 no trecho de rio influenciado pela Usina Hidrelétrica de Irapé (UHE Irapé), rio Jequitinhonha - MG, a fim de produzir conhecimento acerca da ecologia
dessa espécie e, assim, subsidiar ações de manejo e conservação para os peixes migradores da região. O presente estudo foi estruturado em dois capítulos. No primeiro abordamos a dinâmica de recrutamento da curimba no rio Jequitinhonha (Recruitment dynamics of a migratory fish in a semiarid river system). Esse capítulo foi submetido e aceito para publicação no periódico Inland Waters. No segundo capítulo avaliamos o comportamento migratório de curimbas ( $P$. hartii e híbridos) em trechos do rio Jequitinhonha e seus principais tributários, acima e abaixo da UHE Irapé (Migratory behavior of a semiarid migratory fish under habitat fragmentation and hybridization impacts).

Considerando o escasso conhecimento sobre aspectos ecológicos de peixes migradores do rio Jequitinhonha, aliado aos impactos antrópicos já conhecidos na bacia, esperamos que estes estudos sirvam para subsidiar o manejo e a conservação dessa fauna que, além de possuir importância para a integridade ambiental do rio Jequitinhonha, possui relevância como fonte alimentar e de renda para comunidades ribeirinhas.

Capítulo 1: Recruitment dynamics of a migratory fish in a semiarid river system
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Jequitinhonha
Braço do mar
Leva esse canto prá navegar
traz do garimpo
pedra que brilha mais que a luz do luar
Jequitinhonha, jequitibarro
mete essa unha, tira da terra
vida talhada com as mãos
Paulinho Pedra Azul

# Recruitment dynamics of a migratory fish in a semiarid river system 

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## Recruitment dynamics of a migratory fish in a semiarid river system


#### Abstract

Recruitment dynamics of Neotropical migratory fishes are widely studied in riverfloodplain systems, where the flood pulse and wetlands play a central role. In semiarid systems, where the flow regime is less predictable and water-bodies intermittent, migratory fishes may employ different recruitment strategies. We investigated factors affecting the recruitment dynamics of a migratory fish (Prochilodus hartii) in a semiarid river basin (Jequitinhonha River, Brazil) subjected to river regulation. We sampled eggs, larvae, young-of-the-year (YOY), and sub-adults over multiple years and at several sites distributed along 300 km of the Jequitinhonha River. Biotic variables were investigated against 13 predictors through different modeling approaches to examine (i) spawning dynamics and its relationship to the flow regime, (ii) habitat features related to the presence of YOY, and (iii) the relationship between recruitment and floods. Higher densities of eggs and larvae occurred at sites with no influence of river regulation, affected mainly by weekly and daily variations in water level. YOY detection increased by $40 \%$ when a lateral stream was present, and occupancy was affected by the length of the lotic stretch. Sub-adult abundance was not correlated with any predictor related to the flooding regime. Our results show that spawning took place at multiple sites, affected mainly by flow variations, while development and recruitment occurred mostly within river channels and in the confluence of small intermittent tributaries, with little dependence on floods. Therefore, fish recruitment in this semiarid system showed different relationships with floods if compared with river-floodplain systems, highlighting the singularity of drylands.


## Introduction

Migratory fishes employ different strategies to explore variations in the environment and increase the survival of offspring (Winemiller 1989). Upstream migration is a common behavior for many species worldwide (Lucas and Baras 2001; Harvey and Carolsfeld 2003), and in South America, many potamodromous species migrate upstream to spawn in upper reaches and tributaries (Agostinho et al. 2003; Lopes et al. 2018). Eggs released in the current develop into larvae as they drift downstream, and larvae find suitable conditions to grow in floodplain areas, particularly lateral lagoons (Agostinho et al. 2004). This pattern is typical of river-floodplain systems, where predictable hydrological variations (e.g., seasonal variation in water level) drive migration and spawning dynamics (Agostinho et al. 2004; Godinho et al. 2007; Bailly et al. 2008). In these rivers, recruitment of migratory fishes is highly dependent on flood intensity and duration (Agostinho et al. 2004; Bailly et al. 2008) because floods carry larvae toward nursery areas (Suzuki et al. 2010; Reynalte-Tataje et al. 2013; Lozano et al. 2019).

Although this is a common pattern, Neotropical migratory fishes exhibit a diversity of behaviors concerning migration dynamics and habitat types used for spawning and young development (Makrakis et al. 2012; Barthem et al. 2017), since they evolved in systems with distinct flow regimes and habitat distribution. Some rivers (e.g., high gradient and intermittent systems) behave differently from perennial networks or river-floodplain systems (Thorp et al. 1998; Junk and Wantzen 2004). Hydrological regimes vary considerably around the world, with specific flow patterns in space and time (Puckridge et al. 1998; Datry et al. 2016). In general, rivers from drylands (arid and semiarid climates) have variable discharge patterns, with shortterm floods during the wet season and limited flow or even dry channels during the dry season (Walker et al. 1995; Puckridge et al. 2010). In addition, they are highly unpredictable, considering that rainfall is irregular, with wide inter-annual variation (Tooth 2000). Under these
conditions, fish must develop life-history traits and strategies to cope with unpredictable flow, limited habitats, and the absence of lateral connectivity (Humphries et al. 1999; Mallen-Cooper and Stuart 2003). One additional complication is that arid and semiarid rivers are highly vulnerable to anthrophogenic and environmental alterations (Stromberg et al. 2010; Datry et al. 2011; Zeroual et al. 2013; Mirzabaev et al. 2019), particularly river regulation for water provision and energy production. This activity affects several aspects of the flow regime (e.g., peaks, pulse frequency, duration and amplitude of floods) (Mims and Olden 2013; Ngor et al. 2018; Borba et al. 2019) and connectivity (Helfman 2007; Dudley and Platania 2007; Liermann et al. 2012; Winemiller et al. 2016). Semiarid ecosystems in Brazil, for example, have been subjected to intense environmental degradation (Attayde et al. 2011; Nestler et al. 2012; Sales et al. 2018).

Hydrological specificities and vulnerability to human impacts stress the need to understand how migratory fishes behave and recruit in large semiarid systems, particularly because population dynamics of Neotropical migratory fishes remain poorly known. Such information is crucial to develop management and conservation measures applied to tropical drylands, since most information comes from perennial rivers with predictable flow regime, particularly riverfloodplain systems (e.g., Agostinho et al., 2004; Bailly et al., 2008). In this context, this study investigated factors driving the recruitment dynamics of a migratory fish (Prochilodus hartii) in a semiarid river (Jequitinhonha River, Brazil) subjected to river regulation. Our objectives were to (i) investigate spawning dynamics and its relationship with the flow regime; (ii) analyze habitat characteristics related to the presence of young-of-the-year (YOY); and (iii) examine the relationship between recruitment and floods. We hypothesize that spawning is controlled by the hydrological regime, while recruitment occurs in the confluence of small tributaries, as floodplain areas and marginal lagoons are lacking in the Jequitinhonha River. In this river system, recruitment dynamics are less dependent on floods and occur in the main channel, being
negatively affected by river regulation. We investigated the following predictions: 1) Spawning occurs at river stretches without dam control, correlating positively with variations in water level, pulse intensity and duration. 2) YOY use the mouth of small tributaries (streams) as nursery grounds when the water level is increased, especially in stretches less affected by the dam. 3) Recruitment (abundance of sub-adults) is not affected by flood duration because lateral environments are absent; instead, flood intensity and number of pulses must explain recruitment, since they create ephemeral and determinant habitats in the littoral zone.

## Material and Methods

## Target species

Fishes of the family Prochilodontidae are characterized by having eversive and pronounced lips, equipped with tiny teeth used to scrape the bottom and hard surfaces, where they consume organic matter and periphyton (Castro and Vari 2004). Prochilodus is a genus of migratory fishes widely distributed in South America (Resende 2003; Zaniboni-Filho and Schulz 2003; Lopes et al. 2019). They reach medium to large size, employ long-distance migrations to reproduce, and are important for commercial and subsistence fisheries (Castro and Vari 2004). Besides their economic value, the feeding behavior of Prochilodus species makes them keystone species in tropical rivers, as they play important roles in the carbon flow and ecosystem functioning (Flecker, 1996; Taylor et al. 2006).

Prochilodus hartii Steindachner 1875 is the only species of the genus native to the Jequitinhonha River Basin, but congeneric species were introduced into this basin (Godinho et al. 1999; Pugedo et al. 2016). A genetic study developed by Sales et al. (2018) evidenced the hybridization between $P$. hartii and non-native species ( $P$. argenteus, $P$. costatus, and $P$. lineatus). Among these Prochilodus species, $P$. hartii is the smallest, indicating that non-native Prochilodus have higher fecundity and probably greater competitive advantage. The scenario
of introduced kin species and genetic introgression points to a serious conservation issue in the basin.

It is not possible to separate hybrids from the native species using only morphological characters (Sales et al. 2018), especially because morphological diversity is low among Prochilodus species (Castro and Vari 2004), and young are difficult to identify at the species level. Due to these limitations, we have decided to consider all individuals (larvae, YOY, and subadults) collected as Prochilodus hartii. This decision is biologically justified by the predominance of $P$. hartii in some river reaches (Sales et al 2018) and the similarity between the migration behavior of hybrids and $P$. hartii (unpublished data).

## Study Area

The Jequitinhonha River Basin (JRB) has $70,315 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ of drainage area, flowing through sub-humid (upper reach) and semiarid regions (middle and lower reaches) (IBGE 1997). The channel is constrained, without floodplains, receiving several small intermittent tributaries along its course (MMA 2006). JRB drains the Brazilian East Coast, region with many endemic and endangered fish species (Ribeiro 2006; Rosa and Lima 2008; Camelier and Zanata 2014). Although JRB has a low degree of urbanization, it suffers impacts from siltation and sludge contamination (MMA 2006), flow regulation and fish introductions (Pugedo et al. 2016; Andrade et al. 2019). Two hydroelectric dams regulate the main course, Irapé Dam in the upper reach and Itapebi Dam in the lower reach.

The present study was conducted in a long river segment (ca. 300 km ) of the Upper-Middle Jequitinhonha River, covering stretches located upstream and downstream from Irapé Dam. This dam created a large accumulation reservoir with 100 km of extension and 280 days of water residence time. This segment includes two main tributaries: the Itacambiruçu River, which together with the Jequitinhonha River form the Irapé Reservoir, and the Araçuaí River, an undammed tributary, located 80 km downstream from Irapé Dam (Fig. 1).Sampling

We sampled ichthyoplankton (eggs and larvae) at five sites, being 2 located upstream from Irapé Reservoir: Jequitinhonha River (UPJ) and Itacambiruçu River (UPI). Other sites were located downstream from the dam: one in the tailrace (DAM), and two at the confluence of the Jequitinhonha (DNJ) with the Araçuaí River (DNA) (Fig. 1). All biological material was collected under license from the Brazilian Ministry of Environment (ICMBio/SISBIO No. 42416-4).


Figure 1. Study area in the Jequitinhonha River Basin. Sampling sites are indicated by symbols: Circles $=$ ichthyoplankton; Asterisks $=$ ichthyoplankton + YOY; Triangles $=$ YOY. UPJ, UPI, DAM, DNA, DNJ: Ichthyoplankton sampling sites (UPJ: 130 km upstream the dam, Jequitinhonha River; UPI: 50 km upstream the dam, Itacambiruçu River; DAM: 500 m downstream the dam, DNA: 80 km downstream the dam, Araçuaí River; DNJ: 80 km downstream the dam, Jequitinhonha River).

We sampled eggs and larvae between October and March (reproductive season) over two consecutive periods: 2014/2015 and 2015/2016. Because spawning is ephemeral and eventual,
we established an intensive sampling protocol. In this sense, sampling occurred every three days during each period, conducted by people from the local community trained by our research team. We used conical-cylindrical plankton nets ( 0.5 mm mesh) connected to a mechanical flowmeter (General Oceanics) to estimate the volume of filtered water. Sampling occurred at dusk by positioning the net at the subsurface for 10 minutes. Biological samples were preserved in formaldehyde and sorted under a stereomicroscope in the laboratory. Egg identification is challenging and recent genetic studies have evidenced high error rates (Ko et al. 2013; Becker et al. 2015). For this reason, we analyzed eggs generically as "fish eggs". We used this information with caution to discuss the reproduction dynamics of $P$. hartii. Larvae were identified according to Nakatani et al. (2001). Egg and larvae densities were standardized as individuals $/ 10 \mathrm{~m}^{3}$ of filtered water.

We sampled YOY at 16 sites distributed throughout the study area, including the reservoir and lotic stretches upstream and downstream from Irapé Dam (Fig.1). There is no information about length, age, and growth for $P$. hartii, therefore, we used information about $P$. lineatus as reference (Santana 2018). In this sense, we considered as YOY all individuals below 12 cm of standard length. We sampled YOY every 2 or 3 months between February and August, during 2015 ( $\mathrm{n}=4$ months) and $2016(\mathrm{n}=3$ months). We used 5 sets of gill nets (1.2, 1.5, 2 and 2.5 cm mesh sizes; 10 m long each) and seine ( 5 mm mesh size), which were efficient to catch juveniles in previous trials. We sampled 800 m stretches at each site until all available environments were covered. When a stream with water was present, the sampled area included the stream confluence. Some sites prevented the use of the two methods simultaneously (e.g., reservoir areas, with shores and substrate unsuitable for seining).

We also sampled sub-adults at 3 sites in the reservoir on May, August and November between 2011 and 2018, excepting 2014. Sub-adults are fish with fork lengths among 12 and 22 cm (equivalent to two years old), according to Santana (2018). The subadult data came from
experimental fisheries carried out in the Irapé Reservoir, which employed a set of 20 gill nets (2.4, 3, 4 and 5 cm mesh sizes).

## Abiotic data

Water level data (WL) were obtained from fluviometric stations located near sampling sites and provided by the Agência Nacional das Águas (ANA) and Cemig Geração \& Transmissão. From these data we calculated different spatial and hydrological predictors (Table 1).

Table 1. Predictors (name, meaning and method of calculation) used to explain variations in eggs/larvae, YOY and sub-adult density.

| Predictor | Meaning | Method of calculation |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ichthyoplankton |  |  |
| $\Delta$ day | Daily WL variation | Difference between WL in the sampling day and WL in the previous day |
| $\Delta w e e k *$ | Weekly WL variation | Average $\Delta$ day considering the seven days prior to the sampling day |
| PulseInt | Pulse intensity | Ratio between $\Delta$ week and average maximum WLs in the past 35 years |
| PulseDuration | Duration of the pulse | The number of days (within a one-week interval) where the WL remained above the monthly average of the wet season (historical of 35 years). |
| SS | Sampling site | Sites (UPJ, UPI, DAM, DNJ, DNA) |
| Young Of the Year - YOY |  |  |
| WL | $\begin{array}{\|ll} \hline \begin{array}{l} \text { Water } \\ \text { variation } \end{array} & \text { level } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | Ratio between WL on the sampling day and the WL average during the sampling period. |
| Stream | Stream presence | Binary variable. Presence (1) or absence (0) of stream with water at the sampling day. |
| LS | Length of the lotic stretch upstream from the sampling site | Distance from the sampling site until a barrier (dam) or the river source. If the sampling site was in the reservoir, the value was numbered zero. Measured with Geographic Information System - GIS. |
| Inf | Dam influence | Binary variable. Direct influence of Irapé HPP on river flow (1), or absence of influence (0). |
| Gear | Sampling method | Seine and/or gillnet. This covariate was used to control the difference in sampling effort |
| Subadults |  |  |
| FloodDuration | Duration of the flood | Number of days in the wet season (October to March) the WL remained above the historical average |
| FloodInt | Intensity of the flood | The ratio between maximum WL and the maximum WLs annual average (historical of 35 years). |
| Npulses | Number of pulses | The number of complete pulses during the flood period, when the water level reaches values above and below the historical average. Calculated using Pulso software (Neiff \& Neiff 2003). |

## Data analysis

## Eggs and larvae

Eggs and larvae density can be classified as semicontinuous data. This kind of data has two characteristics that make its analysis difficult: (i) Large percentage of zeros (zero inflated); (ii) Strong asymmetry, with many low and few high values (Ingram Jr. et al. 2010), which may deviate even from a log-normal distribution (Duan et al. 1983). Two-part models, or Hurdle models, have been used in different research areas to model semicontinuous data (Collins et al. 2002; Liu et al. 2010; Calama et al. 2011; Smith et al. 2014). These models consider two processes: the first, with binary structure and Bernoulli distribution, examines the occurrence of the event; the second, with log-normal, gamma, inverse Gaussian or other types of distribution, examines its intensity (Liu et al. 2010; Calama et al. 2011; Zuur and Ieno 2016; Nobre et al. 2017). In our study, these processes are represented by the presence and density of eggs/larvae, respectively.

To investigate the first prediction (i.e., flow regime affecting spawning dynamics), we used Two-part models to investigate the relationship between the incidence of eggs/larvae and the predictors SS, $\Delta$ day, $\Delta$ week, PulseInt and PulseDuration (Table 1). We used $\Delta$ week because environmental factors on the sampling day do not affect larvae density, which results from reproductive activity that took place in previous days (Ziober et al. 2012). In addition, we used an one-week window, because the full development of Prochilodus hartii larvae may occur within seven days after fertilization (Abdo et al. 2016). Periods were considered as a random variable. Since two-part models allow the use of different variables in each part of the model (Neelon et al. 2016), we removed the predictor SS from the second part, because of the restricted number of observations in the dataset. We used the Zero Adjusted Gamma - ZAGA model of the Generalized Additive Models for Location, Scale and Shape - GAMLSS (Stasinopoulos et al. 2017) in the $R$ software ( R Core Team 2018).

Young-of-the-year
Occupancy models are often used to evaluate the probability that a particular sampling locality is occupied by the target species (i.e., incidence of at least one individual) as a function of environmental characteristics (MacKenzie et al. 2002; Moore et al. 2017; Massara et al. 2018). These models are more robust concerning the assumption of imperfect detection, which results in false-zeros or sample zeros (Martin et al. 2005). Detection rates can be obtained by repeated samplings and the use of covariates at sampling ocasions, providing better estimates of occupancy (MacKenzie et al. 2017). Because of these characteristics, occupancy models are particularly relevant to analyze juvenile distribution (Rodtka et al. 2015; Weber and Brown 2018), due to sampling limitations related to this life stage (Ryer and Olla 2000; Benson et al. 2005).

To investigate the second prediction (i.e., high WL, stream confluence and long freeflowing river stretches as important nursery grounds), we used occupancy models to analyze the influence of several predictors on the detection and occupancy of $P$. hartti YOY across the 16 sampled sites. First, we evaluated possible changes in site occupancy between the two periods (2015 and 2016) by modeling the extinction and colonization parameters using the Robust Design Occupancy model. Using the Akaike Information Criterion adjusted for small samples (AICc), the model with static occupancy (without colonization and extinction) was the best supported $(\triangle \mathrm{AICc}=9.94$ of the model with extinction and colonization estimated $)$, meaning that we did not find difference between the two sampled periods.

In the absence of difference between periods, we used the Single Season Occupancy Estimation model considering seven occasions (both periods) to model the occupancy likelihood of YOY as a function of LS and Inf; the probabilities of detection was investigated in function of WL, Stream and Gear (Table 1). We considered Gear as a group; although this predictor is beyond our study question, it was used to control the difference in sampling effort,
since the assumption of constant detectability required in occupancy models was not met (MacKenzie et al. 2017). We started the model selection by varying the detection parameter and, from the best model ranked, we evaluated the most parsimonious for occupancy. We tested the existence of overdispersion (MacKenzie and Bailey 2004) using the Median c-hat test using the Software Mark (White and Burnham 1999), which was also used to run occupancy models.

## Subadults

To investigate the third prediction (i.e., relationship between recruitment and flooding regime), we performed Spearman correlation analysis between the number of $P$. hartii captured in each year and the predictors Npulses, Floodduration and FloodInt of the previous two years (Table 1). These predictors were calculated with data retrieved from the fluviometric station located in the Jequitinhonha River upstream from the reservoir.

## Results

## Eggs and larvae

The two spawning seasons (2014/2015 and 2015/2016) were the driest in the past 87 years, with the lowest WL mean and maximum values in the data series (Fig. 2). WL in freeflowing sites showed similar variations in the two spawning seasons, exceeding the maximum historical mean in the Araçuaí River (DNA). On the other hand, sites under dam influence presented small variation, with WL remaining between 47-70\% (DAM) and 20-62\% (DNJ) of the maximum historical mean (Fig. 3).


Figure 2. Water level variation (mean: solid line; range: grey area) over 87 consecutive hydrological cycles (spawning seasons: October to March) obtained from the Araçuaí River station, Middle Jequitinhonha River Basin. The maximum (triangle) and minimum (circles) values during the study period (2014/2015 and 2015/2016) are indicated


Figure 3. Daily variations in water level (\% of the maximum historical mean) from October 2014 to April 2016 at sites that are free-flowing (UPJ, UPI and DNA) and sites under the influence of Irapé Dam (DAM and DNJ).

Of the 557 samples collected, we captured 3,918 fish eggs and 1,266 larvae of $P$. hartii in both reproductive periods. No capture occurred at the DAM site. Higher densities of fish eggs were detected at DNJ, UPI and UPJ (Fig. 4). Larvae occurred in 49 samples (9\%) and only one larva was captured at UPI. The DNA and UPJ sites presented the highest larvae densities (Fig. 4).


## $\square$ P. hartii larvae $\square$ Fish eggs

Figure 4. Violin plot of fish egg and Prochilodus hartii larvae densities (per $10 \mathrm{~m}^{3}$ of water) at five sampling sites along the Jequitinhonha River.

Sampling sites (SS) and weekly WL variation ( $\Delta$ week) were the main predictors explaining the presence of eggs and larvae; $\Delta w e e k$ correlated positively with the two life stages (Table 2). In addition, daily variation ( $\Delta$ day) was also positively related to the presence of larvae. The UPI, UPJ, and DNA sites were less likely to contain fish eggs when compared to DNJ. On the other hand, DNA and UPJ sites were about 7 times more likely to contain $P$. hartii larvae when compared to DNJ (Table 2). The predictor $\Delta$ week was responsible for most of the variation in egg and larvae density (Table 2). The predictor $\Delta$ day also correlated positively with egg density, while PulseInt and $\Delta$ day presented inverse relationships with larvae density (Table 2). Models explained 39 and $34 \%$ (Generalized $\mathrm{R}^{2}$ ) of variation in eggs and larvae data, respectively.

Table 2. Results of the Zero Adjusted Gamma models expressed as odds ratio and exponentiated coefficients (semi-continuous component) for fish eggs and $P$. hartii larvae. CI is the confidence interval and bold numbers represent significant relationship ( $\mathrm{p}<0.01$ ).

|  | Binary part |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | EGGS |  | LARVAE |  |  |  |
|  | OR | 95\% CI | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|\mathbf{z}\|)$ | OR | 95\% CI | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|z\|)$ |
| (Intercept) | 2.06 | 1.17\|3.64 | 0.10531 | 0.013 | 0.00\|0.04 | 1.9e-08 |
| SS_DAM | 4.4e-07 | 3.2e-100\|3.13e+86 | 0.89334 | $1.7 \mathrm{e}-08$ | $6.6 \mathrm{e}-86 \mid 3.4 \mathrm{e}+98$ | 0.9889 |
| SS_DNA | 0.15 | 0.07\|0.29 | $4.18 \mathrm{e}-08$ | 6.77 | 2.42 \| 18.9 | 0.00029 |
| SS_UPI | 0.13 | 0.07\|0.26 | 2.60e-08 | 0.11 | 1.25 \| 96.5 | 0.0763 |
| SS_UPJ | 0.36 | $0.17 \mid 0.76$ | 0.00748 | 7.3 | $2.28 \mid 24.3$ | 0.00093 |
| PulseInt | 0.32 | 0.13\|7.48 | 0.53919 | 91.1 | $3.2 \mathrm{e}-2 \mid 2.5 \mathrm{e}+5$ | 0.1598 |
| Sweek | 1.05 | 1.02\| 1.07 | 0.00061 | 1.05 | 1.02\|1.09 | 0.00112 |
| PulseDuration | 1.12 | 0.95\|1.31 | 0.28527 | 1.09 | 0.72 \| 1.63 | 0.6219 |
| day | 0.99 | 0.99\|1.00 | 0.61648 | 1.01 | 1.00\|1.02 | 0.00139 |
| Semicontinuous part |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | EGGS |  |  | LARVAE |  |
|  | Coeff. | 95\% CI | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|\mathbf{z}\|)$ | Coeff. | 95\% CI | $\operatorname{Pr}(>\|\mathbf{z}\|)$ |
| (Intercept) | 1.52 | 0.86\|2.69 | 0.1474 | 8.71 | 2.37 \|31.9 | 0.00116 |
| PulseInt | 8.9 | 0.38 \| 209 | 0.1728 | 0.001 | 3.4e-8\|0.26 | 0.02256 |
| Dweek | 1.07 | 1.04\|1.10 | $2.4 \mathrm{e}-07$ | 1.09 | 1.05\|1.12 | 2.2e-07 |
| PulseDuration | 1.03 | 0.88\|1.22 | 0.6885 | 1.47 | 0.98\|2.20 | 0.06189 |
| day | 1.01 | 1.00\|1.02 | 0.0003 | 0.97 | 0.96\|0.98 | 5.6e-05 |

## Young-of-the-year

The length of the lotic stretch upstream from the sampling site (LS) ranged between 0 and 295 km , WL ranged from 0.5 to 4.2 m , and flowing streams (Stream) were present from 1 (14\%) to $7(100 \%)$ of the sampling occasions. We sampled $P$. hartii YOY on $50 \%$ of the sampling sites (8/16), distributed both upstream and downstream from Irapé Dam.

We found no relevant overdispersion (Median chat $=1.12, \mathrm{SE}=0.011$ ), so adjustments were not made to the models. Stream was the only predictor that explained YOY detection, with the highest AICc weight (Table 3). According to the final model, the detection probability increased by $40 \%$ when a stream was present $(0.57 \pm 0.11$ and $0.17 \pm 0.5$ with and without Stream, respectively). LS was the most important predictor for occupancy (Table 3). The model estimated an occupancy probability of $0.50 \pm 0.26$ (standard error), similar to naïve occupancy.

The occupancy probability for each site ranged from $0.00 \pm 0.02$ (sites with no-flowing water located in the reservoir) to $0.99 \pm 0.005$ (sites with a lotic stretch above 235 km ; Fig. 5).

Table 3. Model structure and statistics for the 9 models that evaluated occupancy ( $\Psi$ ) and detection (p) probabilities of $P$. hartii YOY. AICc: Akaike's information criterion corrected for small sample size. $\triangle \mathrm{AICc}$ : for the ith model is computed as AICci - min (AIC). W: AICc weight. k : number of parameters. $-2 \log (\mathrm{~L})$ : is twice the negative log-likelihood value. WL: water level variation. Stream: stream presence. LS: length of the lotic stretch upstream from the sampling site. Inf: dam influence. Gear: sampling method.

| Models for occupancy probability hypothesis |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Model | - AICc | w | k | -2Log(L) |
| $\Psi(L S), p$ (stream) | 0.000 | 0.99655 | 4 | 100.7166 |
| $\Psi(),$.$p (stream)$ | 12.36 | 0.00205 | 3 | 115.8531 |
| $\Psi($ inf),$p$ (stream) | 13.15 | 0.00140 | 4 | 113.8677 |
| Models for detection probability hypothesis |  |  |  |  |
| Model | DAICc | w | k | -2Log(L) |
| $\Psi(\mathrm{LS}+\mathrm{inf}), p$ (stream) | 0.0000 | 0.84653 | 5 | 97.8247 |
| $\Psi(\mathrm{LS}+\mathrm{inf}), p(\mathrm{WL})$ | 4.0888 | 0.10959 | 5 | 101.9135 |
| $\Psi(\mathrm{LS}+\mathrm{inf}), p(\mathrm{gear})$ | 7.1393 | 0.02384 | 5 | 104.9640 |
| $\Psi(\mathrm{LS}+\mathrm{inf}), p($. | 7.4874 | 0.02003 | 4 | 108.3510 |



Figure 5. Prochilodus hartii YOY occupancy probabilities (mean $\pm 95 \% \mathrm{CI}$ ) in relation to the length of the lotic stretch upstream from the sampled site.

## Sub-adults

Subadults sampled in the Irapé Reservoir $(\mathrm{n}=172)$ ranged between 15 and 22 cm fork length, with a median of 20 cm . During the sampling period of 7 years, WL was higher than the historical mean in three years (2009, 2011 and 2013) (Table 4). The years with the highest (91 days) and lowest (14 days) numbers of days when the water level remained above the historical mean were 2011 and 2014, respectively (Table 3). Sub-adult abundance was not correlated (Spearman) with any predictor: FloodDuration $(S=58, \mathrm{p}=0.96)$, Npulses $(\mathrm{S}=43, \mathrm{p}=0.61)$ or FloodInt $(S=52, p=0.90)$.

Table 4. Duration of floods (FloodDuration), Number of pulses (Npulses) and Intensity of floods (FloodInt) during 7 hydrological cycles (spawning seasons) between 2009 and 2016.

| Spawning season | FloodDuration | Npulses | FloodInt |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2009 | 36 | 9 | 1,23 |
| 2010 | 60 | 11 | 0,70 |
| 2011 | 91 | 8 | 1,02 |
| 2013 | 38 | 3 | 1,31 |
| 2014 | 14 | 4 | 0,50 |
| 2015 | 17 | 2 | 0,98 |
| 2016 | 23 | 4 | 0,46 |

## Discussion

This study brings new information about the reproduction and recruitment of migratory fishes in semiarid rivers without floodplain areas. In general, we observed that spawning, rearing and recruitment dynamics of $P$. hartii in the Jequitinhonha River differ from patterns observed for Prochilodus in other Brazilian rivers (Reynalte-Tataje et al. 2008; Bailly et al. 2008; Godinho et al. 2017; Silva and Stewart 2017; Lopes et al. 2019). Results indicated the existence of multiple spawning sites, an activity apparently driven by water level fluctuations. Differing from river-floodplain systems, flood intensity/duration was not related to the abundance of larvae/sub-adult. Moreover, YOY seems to grow in the main channel, near the confluence with small tributaries. We also observed that Irapé Dam affected spawning and
rearing habitats, as no or few larvae and YOY were found in sites under flow regulation, supporting the notion that free-flowing stretches and tributaries work as breeding and nursery sites for migratory fish in catchments altered by dams (Gogola et al. 2010; Reynalte-Tataje et al. 2012; Suzuki et al. 2013). Therefore, recruitment dynamics (i.e., spawning and development) in this Neotropical semiarid river, where floodplains are absent, occur essentially within river channels that present lotic conditions.

In agreement with our first prediction (i.e., spawning in free-flowing stretches, with positive correlation with water level variation, pulse intensity, and duration), sites without dam influence were more suited for reproduction. Eggs and larvae were captured in the main channel and tributaries, but they were absent from sites under flow regulation, particularly at sites close to the reservoir and the dam. The absence of eggs and larvae at the DAM site, in particular, indicates that the reservoir acts as an ecological barrier fragmenting fish populations (Suzuki et al. 2011; Pelicice et al. 2015), especially because eggs were detected in sites located upstream. Also in agreement with our prediction, variations in water level (weekly and daily) correlated positively with both the presence and density of eggs and larvae. This finding may explain why sites with natural water variations (free-flowing), such as UPJ and DNA, had high occurrence and density of eggs and larvae. However, pulse intensity and duration did not correlate with eggs and larvae. Although water level elevation acts as a trigger for spawning (Godinho et al. 2017; Lopes et al. 2018), excessive levels may carry eggs and larvae to unfavorable environments. In the case of the Jequitinhonha River, the stretches studied do not present floodplain areas or lateral habitats such as marginal lagoons. In addition, the duration of peaks was short most of the time, and only once the water level remained 7 consecutive days above the average. Thus, over-bank flows followed by fast retraction may carry eggs and larvae to marginal areas without suitable conditions. We highlight that the investigation of drivers of reproduction is difficult. The low percentage of ZAGA model explanations may be a
consequence of the ephemeral and aggregate nature of ichthyoplankton data. It was demonstrated by Gómez, Calcagno and Fuentes (2011) who found high variability on a same day, among sites and at different depths. This characteristic may explain why some studies do not find relationships between environmental variables, like flow and water level, and ichthyoplankton density (da Silva et al. 2015). Another difficulty concerns with egg identification. Yet, we consider that our approach to using "fish eggs" as a proxy for $P$. hartii eggs was suitable to point out the spatial distribution of spawning sites in the study area. Furthermore, $P$. hartii larvae was the second most abundant taxon in all samples (unpublished data), indicating that our sampling methodology was appropriate for the target species.

In agreement with our second prediction (i.e., small tributaries as nursery grounds, especially in long free-flowing stretches during high water levels), the presence of streams was an important predictor of YOY presence. The mouth of small tributaries, naturally dammed by the Jequitinhonha River, seems to create a backwater environment suitable for larvae development and juvenile growth. There is some evidence of YOY growing in these environments, including migratory fish (Zaniboni-Filho and Schulz 2003; Godinho and Kynard 2009). We noted, however, that such streams in the Jequitinhonha Basin are highly ephemeral and remain dry for most of the time. Yet, in some of them, we collected YOY on all occasions when water flow was present, which indicates their importance as nursery grounds. Contrary to our expectations, the increased water level was not relevant for YOY detection. Humphries, King and Koehn (1999) found out that some semiarid Australian riverine fish are able to recruit within the main river channel during low flow periods. Breeding during more predictable situations (non-flood) can be an important strategy in highly variable systems such as the Jequitinhonha River. The occurrence of reproduction and recruitment in exceptionally dry years is evidence of this possible adaptation. We also observed that YOY occupancy probabilities increased with the length of the lotic stretch upstream, suggesting that free-flowing segments
are crucial for recruitment - as observed in other Neotropical basins (Nunes et al. 2015; Marques et al. 2018; Lopes et al. 2019). Downstream from Irapé Dam, probabilities of sampling YOY in the Jequitinhonha River increased after 100 km , especially after the confluence with the Araçuaí River. The relevance of lotic stretches for young fish was evidenced upstream from Irapé Reservoir, where larvae or YOY was not detected, even though fish eggs were collected in the Itacambiruçu River. The influence of Irapé Reservoir starts 10 km downstream from the UPI site, indicating that the lotic stretch available is too short for the drifting and development of young forms. These results demonstrate the importance of long free-flowing stretches and the presence of confluences to maintain habitat characteristics that are important for the reproduction of migratory fish in embedded river systems.

Our third prediction (i.e., no effect of flood duration on sub-adult abundance, and positive effects of flood intensity and number of pulses) was partially supported. The absence of relationships with all predictors suggests that sub-adults do not benefit from over-bank fluctuations in the water level. Apparently, the energy deriving from external sources is less relevant in these river systems, and offspring may depend especially on autochthonous resources (Thorp and Delong 1994). Some studies have indicated the importance of autochthonous production as a source of energy in large rivers (Thorp et al. 2006; Doi 2009; Thorp and Bowes 2017), and this may be especially true for the Jequitinhonha River and other systems with similar hydrology (Atlantic basins). In rivers that do not have floodable areas, the mosaic of environments formed by backwaters, rapids, and tributary mouths, may play a critical role for young fish (Ávila-Simas et al. 2014; Lopes and Zaniboni-Filho 2019). King (2004a) points to the relevance of food resources in backwaters and littoral environments (adequate for larvae and YOY development) with little dependence on floodable areas, even in some floodplain rivers. Intense insolation and shallow depths (important for benthic microalgae), for
example, are typically observed along the Jequitinhonha River, which may support instream primary productivity.

Prochilodus hartii from the Jequitinhonha River evolved in a semiarid system where perennial habitats are restricted to the main channel, with limited lateral connectivity (e.g., wetlands, lagoons and floodplains), temporary tributaries and unpredictable pulsing flows during the wet season. This particular flow regime and habitat structure seem able to trigger spawning dynamics, disperse eggs and larvae, and create habitats suitable for recruitment, stressing the importance of riverine conditions for the persistence of $P$. hartii populations. Such dynamics differ significantly from Prochilodus species living in other basins (e.g., Paraná, São Francisco, and Amazon basins), where they depend strictly on floods and wetlands to complete their life cycle (Gomes and Agostinho 1997; Lopes et al. 2018). Our study observed successful recruitment in the Jequitinhonha River even in exceptionally dry years, indicating that reproductive dynamics are largely unrelated to the ocurrence of floods, although recruitment seems to depend on the natural flow regime. Recruitment during more humid years remains as an open question, reinforcing our rudimentary knowledge about biological aspects and flow regime in drylands. In this scenario, recovering and conserving unregulated rivers with their natural flow regime may be the better strategy to maintain migratory fishes in semiarid rivers.

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Capítulo 2: Migratory behavior of a Neotropical fish under habitat fragmentation and hybridization impacts in a semiarid river system


Sou do Jequitinhonha,
Sou filho de vaqueiro
Sou da costa deste rio, onde o sol nasce primeiro
Também nascí vaqueiro,
Vaqueiro de cantorias
Levando por essa estrada, cantigas e poesias
Canto em versos e trovas,
Nossas matas tão devastas
Caviuna, pau brasil, e onde estão nossas cascatas

# Migratory behavior of a Neotropical fish under habitat fragmentation and hybridization impacts in a semiarid river system 


#### Abstract

Habitat fragmentation and species introduction are the main causes of fish population reduction and extinction. These impacts can be intensified in semiarid river systems. The aim of this study was to investigated the migratory behavior of the native fish Prochilodus hartii from a semiarid river (Jequitinhonha River, Brazil) in the context of habitat alteration by a large hydroelectric dam (Irapé Dam) and hybridization with non-native species. The study employed radio and acoustic telemetry techniques to investigate fish migration dynamics in the basin, and genetics analyses to differentiate hybrids and native fish. Fish behavior was evaluated for 4 groups: fish released downstream from the dam; near the confluence with the main tributary of the region (Araçuai River); in the reservoir; and fish passed to the reservoir, simulating a fish passage system. We detected a high proportion of hybridization in the lower reach of the river, and native and hybrids fish showed very similar migratory behavior. The longest distances migrated were detected in the lower reach studied, and the main free-flowing tributary proved to be an important migratory route for reproductive fish. Fish under dam influence tended to move over shorter distances, both in the reservoir and immediately below the dam. Almost all fish released in the reservoir were unable to migrate to upstream lotic stretches, especially those passed from downstream sites. Although we provided evidence about the existence of two independent populations in the region, we detected severe impacts of habitat modification and genetic introgression on this endemic migratory fish, indicating that conservation measures are urgent to protect remnant populations above and below the dam.


## Introduction

Upstream migration is a common behavior for many fish species worldwide (Lucas and Baras, 2001; Harvey and Carolsfeld, 2003). Many South American potamodromous species, for example, migrate upstream to spawn in the main river or in tributaries (Agostinho et al., 2003; Lopes, Alves, et al., 2018). These pelagic-spawning riverine fishes (pelagophils) spawn during high water levels (Dudley and Platania, 2007), they are total spawners, have high fertility and free eggs (Winemiller, 1989), which need turbulent and well oxygenated water for development and drift (Dudley and Platania, 2007). The migratory behavior of Brazilian fishes have been documented in large river systems, especially those with floodplains (Antonio et al., 2007; Godinho, Kynard and Godinho, 2007; Hahn et al., 2011, 2019; Lopes, Pompeu, et al., 2018). These fish show a diversity of behaviors and migrate from dozen to hundreds kilometers (Makrakis et al., 2012), but the main pattern entails upstream migration for spawning, with subsequent dispersal of adults and young to downstream reaches. Although still incipient, some concepts like partial migration (Lopes, Alves, et al., 2018; Hahn et al., 2019), homing (Godinho, Kynard and Godinho, 2007) and metapopulation (Godinho and Kynard, 2006) have been discussed for some fish at some areas.

In semiarid rivers of Brazil, the presence of migratory behavior in fish species have been assumed based on indirect evidence or extrapolations from other basins (Godinho, Godinho and Vono, 1999). The presence of some genera (e.g., Prochilodus, Megaleporinus) in these systems indicate that the migratory behavior is present. Semiarid rivers are hydrologically peculiar systems, where the flow regime is highly variable, with intense floods during few days of the cycle, and the occurrence of severe droughts (Walker, Sheldon and Puckridge, 1995; Leite and Fujaco, 2010). Rivers in the Brazilian semiarid region have constrained channels, without the presence of floodplains (Maltchik and Medeiros, 2006). Since semiarid rivers have different hydrology, migratory fish species may have developed specific behaviors and adaptations to cope with unpredictable flow patterns and the lack of critical habitats that are commonly found
in river-floodplain systems (Mallen-Cooper and Stuart, 2003). However, scientific information is significantly silent about the behavior of migratory fishes in semiarid rivers in Brazil. Understanding how migratory fishes behave in these systems is a fundamental step to make a broader picture of fish migrations in South America. Moreover, this information is crucial to set management and conservation actions, particularly because semiarid rivers have been significantly impacted by changes in water flow, fragmentation, regulation and habitat degradation (Maltchik and Medeiros, 2006).

Dams change hydrological patterns, river connectivity and habitat availability, being the main cause of migratory species reduction and collapse (Dudley and Platania, 2007; Helfman, 2007; Liermann et al., 2012). When implemented in cascade, the sum of their impacts has the potential to cause local extinctions (Ferguson et al., 2011; dos Santos et al., 2017; Loures and Pompeu, 2018; Oliveira et al., 2018). The consequences for migratory species in modified stretches are many, and include: the blockage of migratory routes (Haraldstad et al., 2019; van Puijenbroek et al., 2019); changes in the flow regime and environmental cues (Dudley and Platania, 2007); divergences between upstream (lacustrine) and downstream (riverine) habitats (Pelicice et al., 2015); segregation of populations (Lopes et al., 2019); extensive fish aggregations downstream (Gehrke, Gilligan and Barwick, 2002; Suzuki et al., 2017), changes in genetic diversity and behavior (Junker et al., 2012; Van Leeuwen et al., 2018). Migratory pelagophils fishes, in particular, are highly threatened by dams. The lentic environment created by large reservoirs works as a filter to drifting eggs and larvae, and creates a behavioral barrier for adults in upstream and downstream migration (Antonio et al., 2007; Pelicice, Pompeu and Agostinho, 2015; Lopes et al., 2019). Different scenarios can modulate the behavior of migratory fish in rivers affected by impoundments, including reservoir size (Lopes, 2017; De Fries et al., 2019), presence of tributaries (Brito and Carvalho, 2013; Ribeiro, 2013), and the morphological complexity of the water body (Pavlov, Mikheev and Kostin, 2019). This
information is unavailable for semi-arid rivers, although these systems, with variable flow and long dry periods, are usually under pressure for flow regulation. As consequence, migratory fish populations in these rivers must be severely impacted by river fragmentation and flow regulation.

Besides habitat alteration and fragmentation, introduction of alien species is another threat to migratory fish in Neotropical systems. The number of introduced fish species have increased over the past 200 years, and current rates surpass historical trends, without signs of decrease (Seebens et al., 2017). Fish introductions have occurred mainly via escapes from fish farms (Azevedo-Santos et al., 2015; FAO, 2020), and some basins are highly invaded (Garcia et al., 2018). In Brazilian semi-arid region, for example, official programs support aquaculture of alien species introduced several fish species in ponds and reservoirs built for water supply (Agostinho et al., 2007; (Attayde, Brasil and Menescal, 2011). including semi-arid systems (Attayde, Brasil and Menescal, 2011). The success of each introduction is dependent on a number of factors, including the receiving environment and ecological characteristics of the invader (Alves et al., 2007; Carvalho et al., 2014; Teixeira et al., 2019), and the ecological consequences are many. One of the consequences is the hybridization with native species (Vitule, Freire and Simberloff, 2009), which can result in genetic introgression and extinction (Todesco et al., 2016). Introgression has the potential to cause life-history and demographic changes in native populations when they reproduce with individuals from other species (Prado et al., 2012; Kovach et al., 2015) or with domesticated individuals from the native species (Horká et al., 2015; Bolstad et al., 2017; Glover et al., 2020). Migratory species from riverfloodplain systems, which are highly value by fisheries, have been successfully introduced in different watersheds in Brazil, including semiarid rivers (Godinho, Godinho and Vono, 1999; Alves et al., 2007; Silva et al., 2012; Sales et al., 2018). There is evidence that these species can hybridized with native species and induce introgressive mechanisms (Sales et al., 2018), but
little is known about their interaction with native populations. The occurrence of hybridization indicate the migratory behavior is syncronized between native and non-native populations, although no study investigated this question.

The combination of negative conditions (e.g., environmental degradation, vulnerability to impacts, knowledge gaps) makes Brazilian semiarid rivers a priority for research, particularly to understand how dams and species invasions impact native migratory fish (Silva et al., 2020). In this scenario, this study investigated the migratory behavior of the native Prochilodus hartii Steindachner 1875 in the Jequitinhonha River, semiarid region, in the context of habitat alteration by a large hydroelectric dam (Irapé Hydropower Plant - IHP) and hybridization with non-native Prochilodus species. The study employed radio and acoustic telemetry techniques to investigate fish migration dynamics in the basin, covering a long river segment (ca. 300 km ) above and below the dam, including the main channel and tributaries. In particular, we tagged fish in sites downstream (lotic) and upstream (impoundment) from the dam, and simulated a fish passage in the upstream direction by releasing tagged fish in the reservoir. Also, native and hybrid fish were differentiated by genotyping process. Based on information provided previously, we hypothesized that the stretch immediately downstream from the dam, with altered environmental conditions, is inhospitable for migratory fish. Fish move to regions located far downstream, where environmental characteristics preserve lotic conditions. The presence of a large free-flowing tributary (Araçuai River), in this case, attract fish and work as an alternative migratory route, where $P$. hartii complete its life cycle. Fish passed to the reservoir upstream, with lentic characteristics without directional flow, have erratic behavior and are not able to reach upstream reaches of the basin. In contrast, populations from the upstream section remain in the impounded area during non-reproductive periods, but use lotic stretches upstream to spawn. Finally, due to the high degree of genetic introgression between P. hartii and non-native Prochilodus, these fish use the same breeding sites and display the
same migratory behavior. Our predictions are: i) Fish in lotic stretches of the Jequitinhonha River, downstream of the IHP, will use the tributary Araçuaí River as the preferential route and will migrate over longer distances than upstream fish. ii) Fish from lotic stretches passed to the reservoir will present a higher diversity of movements than fish tagged in the reservoir, but they will not reach stretches upstream. iii) Hybrids and native fish will have the same migratory behavior (routes, distances and timing).

## Material and methods <br> Species

Prochilodus is a genus of migratory fishes widely distributed in South America (Resende, 2003; Zaniboni-Filho and Schulz, 2003; Lopes, Pompeu, et al., 2018). They reach medium to large size, employ long-distance migrations to reproduce, and are important for commercial and subsistence fisheries (Espinach Ros et al., 1998; Castro and Vari, 2004). Besides their economic value, the feeding behavior of Prochilodus makes them keystone species in tropical rivers, as they play important roles in the carbon flow and ecosystem functioning (Flecker, 1996; Taylor et al. 2006).

Prochilodus hartii Steindachner 1875 is endemic to the Pardo and Jequitinhonha basins, the only native Prochilodus species in these catchments. Prochilodus is among the most studied migratory fish in Brazil, but the migratory behavior for $P$. hartii remains unknown. Its eggs are non-adhesive with large perivitelline space (Abdo et al., 2016), similar to other migratory species (Rizzo et al., 2002), indicating that $P$. hartii also employs similar behavior concerning migration (upstream movements) and spawning (pelagophils).

Some Prochilodus species were introduced to the Jequitinhonha River Basin (Godinho, Godinho and Vono, 1999; Pugedo et al., 2016). A genetic study developed by Sales et al. (2018) evidenced the hybridization between $P$. hartii and non-native species ( $P$. argenteus, $P$. costatus, and $P$. lineatus). Among these Prochilodus species, $P$. hartii is the smallest, indicating that non-
native Prochilodus have higher fecundity and probably some competitive advantage. The scenario of introduced kin species and genetic introgression points to a serious conservation issue in the basin. Due to the impossibility of separating hybrids from the native species using only morphological characters (Prado et al., 2012; Sales et al., 2018), we used the generic term "curimba" (local name for Prochilodus) to refer to hybrids and native fish indistinctly. We referred to $P$. hartii and hybrids separately only when genetic data identified each group (see below).

## Study area

The Jequitinhonha River Basin (JRB) drains the East Atlantic Basin complex, a region with many endemic and endangered fish species (Ribeiro, 2006; Camelier and Zanata, 2014; Reis et al., 2016). The watershed is home to different vegetation and biomes, such as savanna, xeric and rainforests (Ferreira, 2011), with climate changing from sub-humid (Upper reach) to semi-arid (Middle and Lower reaches) (IBGE, 1997). The Jequitinhonha River is 920 km long, and its drainage is strongly affected by geological features, with steep valleys and embedded channels (IBGE, 1997).

This study was conducted in the Upper and Middle reaches of the JRB, in the area directly and indirectly affected by Irapé Hydropower Plant (IHP). It included lotic stretches of the Jequitinhonha River upstream and downstream from the dam, the impoundment and main tributaries (Itacambiruçu, upstream; Araçuai, downstream). Irapé Reservoir flooded a segment of approximately 100 km of the Jequitinhonha River and 45 km of the Itacambiruçu River (Fig. 1). It is a large storage reservoir, and depths reach more than 200 m near the dam. The lotic stretch downstream IHP is drained by small tributaries and the Araçuaí River, the main tributary in the region, distant 80 km from Irapé dam (Fig. 1).

## Fish capture, tagging and releasing

During the tagging period, curimbas were captured with cast net, gillnet and drift nets in the beginning of two breeding seasons: Oct/15 to Feb/16 and Oct/16 to Feb/17. Fish were
captured in three sites: TG1 - up to 2 rkm (river kilometers) downstream from Irapé dam; TG2

- Jequitinhonha River 12 rkm downstream from the Araçuaí River confluence; TG3 - Irapé

Reservoir, up to 5 rkm upstream from Irapé dam (Fig. 1).


Fig1: Map of the study area in the Jequitinhonha River Basin. Squares indicate acoustic stations upstream from Irapé Dam, and triangles indicate radio stations downstream from Irapé Dam. R: stations at the reservoir, J: stations at the Jequitinhonha River, A: stations at the Araçuaí River. In detail (bottom, right) are the locations of tagging (TG) and releasing (RL) sites close to the dam, upstream and downstream from IHP.

Fish were initially anesthetized with eugenol solution ( $0.05 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{l}$ ). After weighing and measuring, fish received in the gills a solution of $0.035 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{l}$ eugenol during the surgery for the implantation of the transmitter in the body cavity, following procedures outlined by Lopes et al. (2016). Fish were tagged with radio (Lotek Wireless Inc., MST-930, weight in air $=4 \mathrm{~g}$; pulse rate $=12,12.5$ and 13 s ; minimum lifetime $=476$ days) or acoustic transmitters (Lotek Wireless Inc., JSATS L-AMT-8.2, weight in air $=2 \mathrm{~g}$; pulse rate $=7 \mathrm{sec}$; minimum lifetime $=$ 681 days), depending on the release site. A small incision was made in the lateral side of the body, posterior to the pelvic fins, and the transmitter was inserted in the body cavity. Sex was assigned for mature individuals during surgery, based on macroscopic characteristics of the
gonads. It was not possible to determine the sex of non-reproductive fish, and they were classified as unidentified sex - NI. The incision was sutured with monofilament nylon sutures. Fish were also marked with external tags (Hallprint©, model PDS small tipped dart tags) with returning information in case the fish was caught by fishermen. A small fragment of the caudal fin was taken for genetic analysis. After tagging, fish were transferred to a tank with river water, to recover prior to release.

We used radio transmitters in the segment downstream from the dam, and acoustic transmitters in the segment upstream. Fish were released at 4 distinct sites (Fig. 1):

RL1: Fish captured and released in TG1, to investigate migratory dynamics downstream from the dam;

RL2: Fish captured and released in TG2, to investigate migratory dynamics near the confluence with the Araçuai River;

RL3: Fish captured and released in TG3, to investigate migratory dynamics in the impoundment and upstream sites;

RL4: Fish captured in TG1 and released in the Irapé reservoir, to investigate the behavior of fish passed upstream, simulating a fish passage system.

Fish capture, handling and tagging procedures were licensed by the Brazilian Ministry of Environment (ICMBio/SISBIO: 42416-4).

## Fish monitoring

Curimbas movements along the study area were determined using acoustic telemetry in the Irapé reservoir and upstream sites, and radio telemetry in the long segment downstream from IHP dam. Different techniques were chosen according to the best detection efficiency found after tests at each environment (impoundment versus river channel). We installed acoustic and radio fixed stations along 220 rkm of the study area, at 13 sites (Fig. 1). We installed 17 acoustic receivers (Lotek WHS 4000L) at 6 sites along the Irapé reservoir (R1 to

R6, Fig. 1), using arrays of 2 to 4 receivers depending on reservoir width. Additionally, one acoustic receiver was installed 1 rkm downstream from the Irapé HP, in order to record fish released at RL3 and RL4 that eventually passed downstream through the turbines. Each acoustic receiver stayed submerged approximately 15 meters below the surface, attached to a system of 12 mm polypropylene rope, mooring and buoys. The system was designed to follow variations in the water level of the reservoir.

Seven fixed radio stations were installed on the riverbank at 6 locations downstream from the Irapé Dam (Fig. 1). Each station consisted of one radio receiver (Lotek SRX800-D) connected to 2 four-elements Yagi antenna (one directed upstream and another downstream). Fixed stations at Araçuaí (A1) and Jequitinhonha (J3) were installed close to the Araçuaí River confluence, but with independent receivers and antennas (Fig. 1).

Radio and acoustic fixed stations were operational from September 2015 to March 2018. We downloaded data from the fixed stations (radio and acoustic) every month on the reproductive season (October to March) and bimonthly on the non-reproductive season (April to September). Additionally, we tracked radio tagged fish by boat and airplane in the reach downstream from the dam to complement passive monitoring by fixed stations. We covered 370 rkm of the Jequitinhonha River and 120 rkm of the Araçuaí River by airplane, and 280 rkm of the Jequitinhonha River by boat, totalizing 6 tracks for each method. We did not track fish in the reservoir due to the large size of the area and the small detection range of the acoustic receiver. However, bi-monthly tracks were made between the R1 station and the dam.

## Genetic analysis

Methodology was performed as described by Pimentel et al., (2018). Fragments of fish fin ( $12.5-\mathrm{mm}^{2}$ ) from samples previously collected and stored in $70 \%$ ethanol ( $\mathrm{v} / \mathrm{v}$ ) were washed with ultrapure water, incubated with $50 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of $\mathrm{NaOH}(50 \mathrm{mM})$, vortexed for 10 s , incubated at $95{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 min , and vortexed again for 10 s . Then, 7.5 mL of $\mathrm{Tris}-\mathrm{HCl}(0.5 \mathrm{M}, \mathrm{pH} 8.0)$ were
added to each sample and vortexed for 15 s . We purified DNA from the supernatants using Agencourt AMPure XP magnetic beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, United States), according to the manufacturer's protocol. DNA was quantified using Qubit 2.0 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, United States) and its purity was evaluated using NanoDrop 2000 (ThermoScientific, Waltham, MA, United States). For genotyping, Illumina's overhang adapter complementary to the 'index' was added to the primers (Forward: 5'TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGC locus-specific forward primer-3', and Reverse: 5'-GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAGC locus-specific reverse primer sequence- $3^{\prime}$ ). The primers with the overhang adapters were incorporated into the target DNA through 30 PCR cycles (10 ng of DNA, pre-mix 4B (Phoneutria Biotecnologia e Serviços LTDA, Brazil), 5 pmol of each primer, $5 \%$ of DMSO, final volume of $20 \mu \mathrm{l}$. Cycling: $95^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $2 \mathrm{~min}, 30$ cycles at $95{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $30 \mathrm{~s}, 58{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 20 s and $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 30 s . Final step was $72{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 min .). A specific primer (index) containing the MiSeq adapter (which individualizes samples in the NGS procedures) was attached to amplicons through 10 PCR amplification cycles. We used PrcF6 5'-ACTCCCACCACTAACTCCC and PrcR2 5'TCATATTGTGCGACCCCCAC to amplify the mitochondrial DNA of Prochilodus sp., and 08F 5'-GGGATGCAAAGGGACATGAC and 08R 5'-AAAGCCATGCGTCCATTGAG, 10F 5'-TGACGCCTCGCTATATCAGG and 10R 5'- GACCCATCATCTGTGCAAGG, 21F 5'AGGTTGGGTGTGCTAGAGAG and 21F 5'-CTCAGCCACAGATGCATGAC, 31F 5’CACAGTAAGGACATCGCTGC and 31R 5'-AGGACTGGAGTTGTGCACC, primers that preferentially amplify $P$. argenteus and $P$. constatus, in special loici 16,10 and 21 . The nonamplification of two or more loci, characterized the genomic sample as being $P$. hartii. The amplification and sequencing process was repeted to confirm the results. After 3 repetitions of amplification and sequencing, samples with inconclusive results were not considered in this study. Locus 38, with primers 38F 5'-AAGAGATGGGTGACTGCGTG and 38R 5'-

TCAGCACTTCACTCCCTTGG was used as a positive control for amplifying the genomic DNA of Prochilodus argenteus, costatus and hartii. Genotyping libraries were diluted using the Illumina buffer to attain the final concentration of 10 pMol DNA in a final volume of 1 ml . Sequencing was performed with $600 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of the final solution using a nano kit (v. 2, 1M) and the MiSeq platform (Illumina). Bioinformatics analysis was performed essentially as described by Pimentel et al. (2018) and made by Phoneutria Biotecnologia e Serviços LTDA.

## Data processing and analysis

Data from radio receivers were validated considering at least 2 consecutive records within the pulse rate range and within an interval of 300 seconds. Data from acoustic receivers were processed using the JSATS Autonomous Receiver Data Filtering Software, developed by Pacific Northwest National Laboratory, Richland, Washington (PNNL), due to the high frequency of false detections in these datasets. First, we analyzed the dataset from receivers that remained in the study area for 2 months prior to the release of tagged fish. We used this dataset to set the most parsimonious configuration of the filtering process, i.e., the number of records within a pulse rate range necessary to eliminate all of the false positive detections (Deng et al., 2017). After that, we filtered the dataset from all the receivers during the study period.

We applied GLM (Gamma distribution) to test the effects of type of fish (hybrids and native) and release site on distance migrated. This test was applied to investigate the first (fish downstream from the dam migrate over longer distances) and third (hybrids and native fish migrate the same distances) predictions.

Chi-square test was applied to evaluate the third prediction (hybrids and native fish will take the same routes). We tested if fish frequencies differed between type of fish (hybrids and native) and routes taken for fish at each release site. We assigned as a route the fish track between the release site and fixed stations, as well as fish movements between fixed stations, considering the most upstream and downstream fixed stations visited.

We also used Chord diagrams to investigate the first and second (fish passed to the reservoir present a higher diversity of movements, but they do not reach stretches upstream) predictions. Chord diagram displays the relationships between the proportion of fish at each release sites and their respective destinations (in this case, each fixed station). Chord diagrams were built using migest package (Abel, 2019).

We investigated possible differences in timing of migration between native and hybrids (third prediction) by calculating the number of fish detected by each fixed station, per day, during the study period. As fish have not moved over long distances in most sites, we used only fish from RL2 to investigate this question. All analyses were run in R software (R Core Team, 2018).

## Results

From 406 tagged fish, we had combined information about migration and genetics for 256 (63\%), being 48 from RL1, 100 from RL2, 47 from RL3 e 61 from RL4. A lower proportion of hybrids was found close to the dam: $20 \%$ at TG1 and $18 \%$ at TG3. Differently, $62 \%$ of the fish captured at TG2 were assigned as hybrids. The main species introduced and detected among hybrid fish was Prochilodus argenteus.

It was not possible to identify the sex of most of individuals tagged at TG1 and TG3. Also, the majority of fish at these points were smaller than 300 mm SL (Fig. 2). On the contrary, most of fish tagged at TG2 were larger than 300 mm , being 73\% males and $10 \%$ females (Fig. 2). Only $35 \%$ of tagged fish provided information for more than 100 days. RL3 was the environment where we followed fish for a shorter period of time (Fig 3).


Fig. 2: Standard length (cm) and proportion of sex (male, female or NI: non-identified) at each tagging site. TG1: tailrace of Irapé HP; TG2: downstream from Araçuaí River confluence; TG3: reservoir.


Fig. 3: Number of detections of tags over time, considering tags from each release site. Number of days is the time elapsed between tagging and the last detection.

The distance migrated was not different among hybrids and $P$. hartii, but differed at RL2 (Table 1). In general, fish did not show long displacements (RL1: $\bar{x}=9.3 \mathrm{~km}, \tilde{x}=0.7 \mathrm{~km}$; RL3: $\bar{x}=3.7 \mathrm{~km} ; \tilde{\mathrm{x}}=0.5 \mathrm{~km}$; RL4: $\overline{\mathrm{x}}=10.4 \mathrm{~km}, \tilde{\mathrm{x}}=0.5 \mathrm{~km}$ ), except fish tagged and released at RL2, which showed longer displacements (RL2: $\overline{\mathrm{x}}=71 \mathrm{~km} ; \tilde{\mathrm{x}}=53 \mathrm{~km}$ ) (Fig. 4).

Table 1: Results of GLM Gamma analysis that tested the effects of type of fish (native versus hybrid) and release site on distance migrated.

| Predictor | Coefficient | Std. Error | t -value | p -value |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Intercept | 2.28602 | 0.38862 | 5.882 | $1.29 \mathrm{e}-08^{*}$ |
| Hybrid | -0.05599 | 0.37724 | -0.148 | 0.8821 |
| Site_T2 | 2.01431 | 0.47676 | 4.225 | $3.35 \mathrm{e}-05^{*}$ |
| Site_T3 | -0.94918 | 0.53395 | -1.778 | 0.0767 |
| Site_T4 | 0.07789 | 0.50215 | 0.155 | 0.8769 |

Hybrids and $P$. hartii showed similar migratory behavior, since they have taken similar routes after released in each site $(R L 1: X=0.92, d f=3, p=0.82 ; R L 2: X=9.03, d f=14, p=0.83$; RL3: $X=2.17, d f=2, p=0.33 ; R L 4: X=9.87, d f=11, p=0.54)$. Overall, fish at RL1 remained close to the dam ( $\mathrm{d}<5 \mathrm{~km}$ ), 7 individuals migrate 6 to 15 km and only 2 fish migrated over long distances in the downstream direction (Fig. 4 and 5). One curimba passed by A1 and returned upstream to the release site. The other passed through A2 (Fig. 5), reaching 105 km upstream from the Araçuaí confluence, where it was detected for the last time 100 days after tagging. Fish at RL2 site showed a diversity of migratory behaviors, but as expected, most fish visited the Araçuaí River (Fig. 5). Some fish visited the Jequitinhonha River, remaining close to the confluence with the Araçuaí River, and a low percentage reached J2. No fish from RL2 migrated to the Irapé Dam (Fig. 5).


Fig.4: Total distance traveled by hybrids and $P$. hartii, considering each release site.

Fish from RL3 moved over shorter distances along the reservoir. All individuals passed the first station (R1) and the majority dispersed in the first third of the reservoir. Few fish reached the transition region of the Itacambiruçu (R3; $n=2$ ) and Jequitinhonha ( $\mathrm{R} 6 ; \mathrm{n}=1$ ) rivers (Fig. 6). Almost half of RL4 fish passed through R1 station and stayed in the first third of the reservoir. Third percent remained near to the dam and never approached the R1 station. Two percent $(\mathrm{n}=1)$ and 7\% ( $\mathrm{n}=4$ ) reached the final stretch of the reservoir in the Jequitinhonha and Itacambiruçu rivers, respectively (Fig. 6).


Fig. 5: Migratory routes of $P$. hartii and hybrids fish tagged at TG1 and TG2 and released at sites RL1 and RL2, respectively, dowsntream from Irapé Dam. Stations J2, J3 and J4 are located at the Jequitinhonha River, and A1 and A2 are stations located at the Araçuaí River.


Fig. 6: Migratory routes of $P$. hartii and hybrids fish tagged at TG3 and TG1 and released at RL3 and RL4, respectively, upstream from Irapé Dam. R1 is the station located 500 m upstream from Irapé dam; DAM is the area between the dam and R1 station; R2 and R3 are stations in the Itacambiruçu reservoir; R4, R5 and R6 are stations in the Jequitinhonha reservoir.

Timing of migration was evaluated using only J4 and A1 stations, since they were the most visited. Higher proportion of $P$. hartii and hybrid fish migrated on the same days (Fig. 7) to the Araçuaí River (A1) and to the downstream segment of the Jequitinhonha River (J4).


Fig. 7: Proportion of fish tagged at TG2 detected at A1 and J4 stations between December 2015 and January 2017. The figure shows daily records.

## Discussion

Our study is the first to investigate the migratory behavior of $P$. hartii (curimba) in the Jequitinhonha River, a species under impacts of biotic invasion, flow regulation and
fragmentation. We detected a high proportion of hybridization between native and introduced curimbas, especially in the lower stretch of the Jequitinhonha River. One important finding was that hybrid and native fish showed a very similar migratory behavior in all studied sites. A more diverse migratory behavior, which involved longest distances, were detected in the lower reach of the study area. The Araçuaí tributary, the main free-flowing river in the region, proved to be an important migratory route for reproductive fish. On the other hand, curimbas in stretches under dam influence tended to stay close to the release site, both in the reservoir and below the dam.

Our first prediction, that fish at lotic stretches downstream from the dam (RL1 and RL2) should migrate over longer distances and use the Araçuaí River as a main route, was partially confirmed. Most fish at RL1 stayed close to the dam, with only two fish migrating long distances downstream and visiting the Araçuaí River. In other basins, the behavior of Prochilodus spp. downstream from dams have shown varied patterns, ranging from a high proportion of sedentary fish in the tailrace (Godinho and Kynard, 2006; Ribeiro, 2013) to a large percentage of fish migrating downstream and/or using tributaries (Antonio et al., 2007; Ribeiro, 2013). These results show how habitat fragmentation, depending on dam position and operation, can disrupt the life cycle of migratory fishes (Agostinho et al., 2002; Van Leeuwen et al., 2018). In general, fish tagged at RL1 were smaller than fish at RL2, and sexually immature. These findings agree with those of Abdo, Marcon and Bazzoli (2018), which observed inactive $P$. hartii, or with gonads at initial maturation stages, close to the Irapé Dam. One possible explanation for this scenario is that individuals that come to the tailrace are dispersing with no reproductive motivation, probably young recruited downstream in the region of the Araçuaí River. Although there was no evidence of recruitment in the Jequitinhonha River upstream from the Araçuaí River, larvae were detected at the J3 site (Silva et al., 2020),
indicating that some curimbas spawn in this reach. These larvae can be from fish coming downstream from Araçuaí River, migratindg upstream to spawn (J3 and J2 sites).

Fish from RL2 migrated over longer distances and used the Araçuaí tributary as a main destination, supporting our first prediction. The use of tributaries as a migration route downstream from dams has been shown for other curimba species in different watersheds (Godinho and Kynard, 2006; Antonio et al., 2007; Ribeiro, 2013). Additionally, fish at RL2 showed a variety of behaviors, and a large proportion moved toward downstream reaches. Probably these fish used the Jequitinhonha River near the confluence with the Araçuaí River as spawning site. It is important to note that none RL2 fish reached Irapé PP tailrace, with the longest displacement reaching 30 km downstream from the dam. It reinforces that reaches downstream from dams have poor environmental quality and are not suitable for fish in reproductive activity. Some studies have reported curimbas presenting low fecundity and high levels of follicular atresia at the tailrace of dams (Agostinho et al., 1993; Arantes et al., 2010; Perini et al., 2013). The low water temperature and dissolved oxygen resulting from the deep water intake of some hydropower plants like IHP are likely responsible for negative effects on the reproduction of fish downstream from dams (Arantes et al., 2010; Abdo, Marcon and Bazzoli, 2018). A small proportion of RL2 fish (13\%) stayed close to the release site and there are many possible reasons for this behavior, including negative effects of the surgery, postrelease mortality, or sedentary behavior. The presence of sedentary and migratory behavior in the same population, also known as partial migration (Chapman et al., 2012), have been discussed for some Brazilian potamodromous fish (Lopes, Alves, et al., 2018; Hahn et al., 2019). In our study, one individual stayed in the release site for 2 years, then captured by a fisher, suggesting some resident behavior. We recorded long displacements in the Jequitinhonha River, showing that this fish can explore long lotic reaches when they are available. The migratory distances travelled by curimbas differ among studies, being shorter in
dammed rivers (Espinach Ros et al., 1998; Godinho and Kynard, 2006; Antonio et al., 2007; Brito and Carvalho, 2013; Ribeiro, 2013; Lopes, 2018). The life-history strategy of some migratory species may adjust in face of environmental change and habitat losses, with individuals changing migratory routes, distance travelled and spawning sites (Junge et al., 2014). However, migratory pelagophils need lotic stretches to spawn, requiring a minimum length of lotic habitats in the region (Agostinho et al., 2016, Silva et al., 2020; Lopes, Pompeu, et al., 2018). If these essential conditions are absent, recruitment is prevented and populations decline or collapse (Pelicice and Agostinho, 2008; Pompeu, Agostinho and Pelicice, 2012). At the scenario of habitat modification caused by Irapé dam, the Araçuaí River seems to be an important migratory route, providing spawning and nursery habitats for curimbas in the Jequitinhonha River Basin - together with other small watercourses that flow into the main channel (Silva et al., 2020). This show the relevance of free-flowing rivers for the conservation of migratory fish (Casarim et al., 2018).

In agreement with our second prediction, fish passed to the impoundment (RL4) presented a greater diversity of displacements than fish locally tagged in the reservoir (RL3), indicating that fish from lotic environments, when released in lentic environments, can become disoriented (Antonio et al., 2007; Lopes, 2017). Few fish from RL4 (8\%) reached the reservoir transition zone, differing from translocated fish at smaller reservoir, where a high proportion of fish can cross the entire water body (Brito and Carvalho, 2013; Ribeiro, 2013; De Fries et al., 2019), even immature fish (Ribeiro, 2013). Reservoir fish (RL3) stayed at the first third of the reservoir, with few reaching the transition zone. Fish that moved away from the reservoir, either RL3 or RL4, moved toward the Itacambiruçu River, which is closer to the dam. However, the length of the lotic stretch in the Itacambiruçu upstream from Irapé reservoir seems to be insufficient for ichthyoplankton drifting and development (Silva et al., 2020). Thus, those fish that reach lotic stretches with optimal conditions for reproduction find poor conditions for
recruitment. Also, only two RL4 and none RL3 fish returned to the dam region. These results show that crossing the water body in the upstream direction is only one of the problems faced by migratory fish in large reservoirs, because lentic waters create hydrological and limnological obstacles to downstream movements for different life stages (Pelicice, Pompeu and Agostinho, 2015). It is important to note that Irapé reservoir does not have expressive tributaries, where the Itacambiruçu is the larger, although flooded by the reservoir. Therefore, the Jequitinhonha River main channel, upstream from the reservoir, remains as the most appropriate site for migratory fishes (Silva et al., 2020). In this scenario, Irapé reservoir have the potential to work as a sink system (Pulliam, 1988) for RL3 and RL4 fish, since few fish migrated upstream, and they have not moved toward the Jequitinhonha River. Gilroy and Edwards (2017) stated that source-since dynamics are more neglected in the tropics, which can underestimate the impacts caused by human-driven habitat changes. In this context, it is very important to confirm this hypothesis in the Irapé Reservoir to set effective conservation efforts.

In agreement with our third prediction, we did not detect differences between native and hybrid curimbas regarding the distance travelled, timing of migration and routes taken. Although introduced Prochilodus species are originated from river-floodplain systems, which differ from the Jequitinhonha River (Silva et al., 2020), their hybrids behaved in the same way as $P$. hartii. It indicates that introduced Prochilodus reproduce together with $P$. hartii, probably forming mixed shoals. In some situations, hybridization can produce individuals with reproductive and behavioral differences, even lower fitness, which can be negatively selected (Levin, 2002; Corsi, Eby and Barfoot, 2013; Pärssinen et al., 2020). However, in many cases hybridization and introgression can impair native/parental species (Taylor et al., 2006; Muhlfeld et al., 2009; Prado et al., 2012; Kovach et al., 2015). This seems to be the situation in the Jequitinhonha River, where hybridization, mainly with P. argenteus, has the potential to cause genetic erosion and the extinction of pure lineages of $P$. hartii, at least in some portions
of the basin. The same reproductive behavior among hybrids and native fish indicate that they will continue to hybridize, especially because they use the same spawning sites. The higher fecundity of $P$. argenteus (Arantes et al., 2013) is another factor that may impact $P$. hartii populations. The genetic introgression in $P$. hartii populations is spreading fast in the lower stretches of the basin. The native proportion of curimbas has been decreasing since the work of Sales et al. (2018). It is important to note that the proportion of hybrids in the Jequitinhonha River must be much higher than observed in this work, because we tagged only phenotypes similar to $P$. hartii. The morphological differentiation between native and hybrids is very difficult (Prado et al., 2012; Sales et al., 2018), and we released many captured fish because they seemed to differ from $P$. hartii, particularly pure introduced species.

This is the first study that investigated migratory patterns of $P$. hartti in the Jequitinhonha River, showing how migration interacts with impoundments and invasive species. The migratory patterns of curimbas in the studied area, when combined with the results of Silva et al. (2020), revealed the following scenario. There are two independent populations fragmented by Irapé Dam, one upstream and another downstream. These populations are selfsustainable, since there are reproduction and recruitment in both stretches, and the dam has no fish passage system. In the upstream reach, the Itacambiruçu River and the reservoir seemed inappropriate for recruitment. In this way, due to the absence of relevant tributaries, the reservoir stock seems to depend on recruitment that takes place in the Jequitinhonha River upstream. In the downstream reach, the Araçuaí River is the main reproductive stock, and this tributary proved to be a migration route, spawning and recruitment area. However, this reach also had the highest proportion of hybridization with non-native species, providing high introgression rates and threatening pure $P$. hartii lineages. Although some RL2 fish used the Jequitinhonha River for reproduction, none moved to the Irapé dam, indicating that it is unfavorable for spawning and recruitment (Abdo, Marcon and Bazzoli, 2018). Curimbas found
in this stretch are apparently young dispersing through the basin, and not adult fish engaged on reproductive dynamics. In addition, the Irapé HP tailrace can provide some risk of death and injury. Dam operations can affect fish in the tailrace through mechanical impacts or decompression (Andrade et al., 2012; Loures and Godinho, 2017). Dead curimbas were eventually observed floating downstream from Irapé Dam, probably because of interactions with the turbines (Silva, FO; personal information). However, it is still unclear whether injuries were caused to fish located upstream or downstream from the dam.

Prochilodus hartii populations are disturbed by habitat changes, especially in the impoundment and the upstream reach of Irapé Dam, and by hybridization pressure in the lower reaches of the basin. These impacts are of great magnitude, severe and difficult to solve. Due to the phenotypic and behavioral similarity between hybrids and native fish, the control of hybridization is virtually impossible. Regarding the impacts of habitat modification, fish passes have been recommended to restore the migratory flow in areas fragmented by dams, despite its ineffectiveness for the conservation of Neotropical fishes in the context of dams with large reservoirs (Pelicice and Agostinho, 2008; Pompeu, Agostinho and Pelicice, 2012; Pelicice, Pompeu and Agostinho, 2015). In the Jequitinhonha scenario, populations are self-sustainable in both upstream and downstream reaches, indicating that a fish passage system is not required for demographic purposes. Moreover, RL1 curimbas are not reproductive individuals looking for spawning sites, meaning that there is no fragmentation between spawning and feeding sites, as each population found these habitats in both upstream and downstream reaches. A fish pass could be justified to provide genetic flow and avoid isolation of populations and the loss of genetic diversity (Pompeu, Agostinho and Pelicice, 2012). However, fish passed upstream became disoriented and an exceedingly small proportion reached lotic stretches upstream. In addition, downstream stocks are more impacted by genetic introgression, and a fish passage system would allow the dispersion of hybrids to the upstream reach of the basin, threatening
the genetic structure of native curimbas. In this sense, alternative management actions must be pursued. We agree with Sales et al. (2018) that $P$. hartii is a threatened species and actions to protect native stocks are mandatory and urgent. For that, we recommend the following priority actions: 1) Studies about the origin of RL1 fish, in the way to understand if this stock is progressively hybridizing; 2) Protection and environmental recovery of reaches in the Jequitinhonha River upstream from Irapé Dam, where hybridization rate is lower and populations are recruiting; 3) Prioritize the restoration and conservation of the Araçuaí River due to its relevance for the maintenance of curimbas in the downstream reach. The Araçuaí River basin is intensely modified by eucalyptus plantations, soil erosion and intense water deficit (evapotranspiration greater than precipitation in the last 50 years), which is progressively reducing the Araçuaí River flow (Leite and Fujaco, 2010). As management actions like fish passes and hybridization control would be innocuous in the current scenario, we consider that protection of curimbas stocks, especially where they have lower introgression rate, should be priority. For this, conservation planning for free-flowing reaches must be associated with water and land use planning in a way to preserve a very particular semi-arid system and its endemic ichthyofauna.

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## Conclusão geral

Esse projeto de tese foi desenvolvido com o objetivo de compreender o ciclo de vida da curimba Prochilodus hartii no rio Jequitinhonha, um sistema fluvial com características diferentes dos rios de planície de inundação, para onde a maior parte dos estudos de migração e recrutamento de peixes são desenvolvidos. Embora seja o primeiro trabalho a descrever aspectos básicos relacionados a migração, reprodução e recrutamento de $P$. hartii, é importante salientar que ele foi desenvolvido em um ambiente já impactado pela fragmentação, alteração de hábitat e introdução de espécies, que colocam $P$. hartii em grau significativo de ameaça. Com isso, a informação gerada nesse documento se refere a um fragmento de uma história que não pôde ser contada por completo. Esta tem sido, infelizmente, a realidade dos estudos descritivos e ecológicos para muitas espécies de peixes, que só ocorrem após impactos instalados. Apesar dessa questão, nossos resultados representam avanço significativo no entendimento do comportamento migratório e recrutamento da curimba na área afetada pela UHE Irapé, e esperamos que nossos achados forneçam subsídio para conservação desse peixe migrador nativo do Jequitinhonha.

O atual cenário mostra que, apesar dos impactos, dois trechos significativos para a manutenção de curimbas ainda existem acima e abaixo da barragem da UHE Irapé. Eles são o (i) rio Jequitinhonha entre a sua nascente e o reservatório da UHE Irapé, e (ii) o seu principal tributário a jusante dessa usina, o rio Araçuaí. Esses segmentos apresentam características hidrológicas naturais, que funcionam como gatilhos para a migração e desova, e com trechos fluviais suficientes para a deriva e desenvolvimento dos ovos e larvas, além de locais para abrigo e crescimento de juvenis. Apesar de altamente relevantes, processos de assoreamento e redução do fluxo tem se intensificado, bem como a interferência da UHE Irapé na hidrologia do rio Jequitinhonha abaixo da barragem. Ações de recuperação ambiental e proteção dos trechos lóticos são indispensáveis para a manutenção de curimbas no Alto e Médio Jequitinhonha. O presente estudo não contemplou o trecho abaixo da UHE Itapebi, na região baixa da bacia, permanecendo importante lacuna sobre o recrutamento e persistência de populações de curimbas no segmento inferior do rio Jequitinhonha.

Nosso estudo também revelou que curimbas do Jequitinhonha, e provavelmente as curimbas das bacias do Atlântico Leste, não são dependentes da intensidade e duração das cheias como as curimbas de rios de planície de inundação (e.g., P. lineatus na bacia Paraná, ou P. costatus na bacia São Francisco). Esse resultado era esperado, visto que planícies não são ambientes comuns ou extensivos no Alto e Médio Jequitinhonha. No entanto, a dinâmica
reprodutiva da curimba estudada esteve associada ao regime hidrológico, uma vez que o aumento no nível da água se mostrou importante para desencadear o processo reprodutivo. Compreender como a ictiofauna se relaciona com a variação ambiental natural é primordial para a indicação de qualquer medida mitigadora ou de manejo. Entretanto, o manejo da ictiofauna no país tem se baseado em protocolos padronizados (e.g., STPs ou estocagem; Agostinho et al., 2007), os quais não levam em consideração a fauna e hidrologia do local alvo. No caso do rio Jequitinhonha, por exemplo, detectamos um trabalho de modelagem para a indução de cheias artificiais no trecho a jusante de UHE Irapé (Fernandes and Marques, 2011). Os autores propuseram um modelo de cheias artificiais sem utilizar qualquer informação biológica das espécies locais, apenas transferindo para o Jequitinhonha informações atreladas ao conceito de planície de inundação e sua importância para o recrutamento. A adoção de medidas de manejo sem critérios técnicos e sem monitoramento trazem riscos relevantes: 1) além de não serem efetivas, podem acarretar prejuízos às populações alvo do manejo. Exemplos são STPs construídos em trechos que não propiciam que as espécies completem o ciclo de vida, causando movimentação em via única ou depleção de estoques; o mesmo pode acontecer em atividades de peixamento, ocasionando perda da variabilidade genética de estoques nativos; 2) geram a falsa sensação de que qualquer impacto pode ser mitigado, e que as medidas tomadas, sem respaldo técnico, estão resolvendo o problema. Ao contrário disso, pesquisas vêm mostrando que as açães implementadas para mitigação de impactos por barramentos têm sido infrutíferas, por vezes danosas. Nesse cenário onde o manejo é aplicado de maneira indevida, os problemas ambientais persistem ou são agravados, como se registrou em muitos trechos das bacias do rio Paraná, São Francisco e Tocantins (C. S. Agostinho et al., 2007; Pelicice, Pompeu and Agostinho, 2015).

Como conclusão, ações de manejo e conservação devem considerar o atual cenário das populações de $P$. hartii recrutando nos fragmentos fluviais do rio Jequitinhonha, bem como os impactos causados pela barragem e peixes invasores. Não recomendamos a instalação de um STP na UHE Irapé, visto que existe recrutamento nos dois lados da barragem, e um STP poderia permitir a dispersão de curimbas não-nativas para o Alto Jequitinhonha. Uma melhor estratégia para a região é a conservação, proteção e recuperação ambiental de trechos com características fluviais naturais para assegurar a permanência de peixes migradores. Ainda, recomendamos a adoção de atividades fiscalizadoras e educativas de forma a inibir novas introduções e a implementação de medidas de remoção seletiva dos peixes não-nativos, de forma a diminuir pressões de propágulo no processo de invasão biológica. Ressaltamos que nenhuma medida será capaz de recuperar as populações de $P$. hartii ao nível anterior aos impactos, uma vez que
as populações estão terminantemente fragmentadas e reduzidas pelos efeitos da barragem da UHE Irapé. Além disso, essas populações estão sob risco de extinção genética devido ao rápido avanço do processo de hibridização na bacia. Dessa forma, as ações de conservação devem fomentar a manutenção de populações relictuais de $P$. hartii. Essas ações são mandatórias e urgentes, especialmente considerando o agravante que os poucos remanescentes lóticos estão cada vez mais impactados pela alteração por uso e ocupação do solo, além da invasão por múltiplas espécies não-nativas.

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