

**Pervasive decline of subtropical aquatic insects over 20 years driven by water transparency, non-native fish and stoichiometric imbalance**

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Complete List of Authors:	Romero, Gustavo; Universidade Estadual de Campinas Moi, Dieison; State University of Maringá Nash, Liam; Queen Mary University of London Antiqueira, Pablo; State University of São Paulo, Zoology and Botany Mormul, Roger; State University of Maringá Kratina, Pavel; Queen Mary University of London, School of Biological and Chemical Sciences
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This paper has multiple authors and our individual contributions were as below

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G.Q.R. analysed the data, prepared the figures and tables, and wrote the Results and Discussion sections with inputs from R.P.M., and also helped revise the manuscript. L.N.N. and P.K. wrote the Introduction section and helped revise the manuscript. D.A.M. and R.P.M. participated in the study design and data collection. D.A.M., P.A.P.A. and R.P.M. wrote the Methods section and helped revise the manuscript. All authors contributed to data interpretations and critical manuscript revision, gave final approval for publication and are accountable for the work performed.

1 Pervasive decline of subtropical aquatic insects over 20 years driven  
2 by water transparency, non-native fish and stoichiometric imbalance  
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5 Gustavo Q. Romero<sup>1\*</sup>, Dieison A. Moi<sup>2</sup>, Liam N. Nash<sup>3</sup>, Pablo A.P. Antiqueira<sup>1</sup>, Roger P.  
6 Mormul<sup>2</sup>, Pavel Kratina<sup>3</sup>  
7  
8

9 <sup>1</sup> Laboratory of Multitrophic Interactions and Biodiversity, Department of Animal Biology,  
10 Institute of Biology, University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Campinas, SP 13083-862, Brazil.  
11

12 <sup>2</sup> Graduate Program in Ecology of Inland Water Ecosystems (PEA), Department of Biology  
13 (DBI), Center of Biological Sciences (CCB), State University of Maringá (UEM), Brazil  
14

15 <sup>3</sup> School of Biological and Chemical Sciences, Queen Mary University of London, Mile End  
16 Road, London, E1 4NS, UK.  
17  
18  
19

20 \* Corresponding author: Gustavo Q. Romero ([gqromero@unicamp.br](mailto:gqromero@unicamp.br))  
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33 Insect abundance and diversity are declining worldwide. Although recent research found  
34 freshwater insect populations to be increasing in some regions, there is a critical lack of data  
35 from tropical and subtropical regions. Here, we examine a 20-year monitoring data set of  
36 freshwater insects from a subtropical floodplain comprising a diverse suite of rivers, shallow  
37 lakes, channels and backwaters. We found a pervasive decline in abundance of all major  
38 insect orders (Odonata, Ephemeroptera, Trichoptera, Megaloptera, Coleoptera, Hemiptera  
39 and Diptera) and families, regardless of their functional role or body size. Similarly,  
40 Chironomidae species richness decreased over the same time period. The main drivers of this  
41 pervasive insect decline were increased concurrent invasions of non-native insectivorous fish,  
42 water transparency and changes to water stoichiometry (i.e., N:P ratios) overtime. All these  
43 drivers represent human impacts caused by reservoir construction. This work sheds light on  
44 the importance of long-term studies for deeper understanding of human-induced impacts on  
45 aquatic insects. We highlight that extended anthropogenic impact monitoring and mitigation  
46 actions are pivotal in maintaining freshwater ecosystem integrity.

47 **Keywords:** damming/reservoir construction fish invasion, freshwater ecosystems, human  
48 impacts, insect decline, neotropical

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## 50 **1. Introduction**

51

52 Globally widespread declines in insect populations have garnered much recent scientific and  
53 public attention [1,2]. However, nuanced analysis of these global trends revealed complex  
54 and divergent patterns among regions, different taxonomic groups and between freshwater  
55 and terrestrial insects [3,4]. Whereas freshwater ecosystems include some of the most  
56 threatened biota worldwide [5,6], a recent meta-analysis found freshwater insect populations  
57 to be increasing, in contrast to declining terrestrial insects [7]. This apparent recovery of  
58 freshwater insect populations is possibly driven by more effective policy and improving  
59 water quality in some temperate regions. Yet this work has suffered from a significant lack of  
60 data from tropical and subtropical regions [4,8,9].

61

62 Tropical and subtropical freshwater insects are threatened by multiple stressors [5]. These  
63 regions have some of the highest rates of human population growth, increasing resource  
64 demands and economic development, globally [10]. Consequently, rapid land-use changes for  
65 agricultural expansion and dam building for hydroelectric power and water extraction [11,12]  
66 have led to habitat degradation, changing hydrological regimes, disrupted nutrient dynamics

67 and the introduction of non-native species [6]. Although these regions contain the vast  
68 majority of global insect diversity [13], the impacts of these threats on tropical and  
69 subtropical freshwater insects are poorly understood, due to a paucity of long-term studies.

70

71 Here, we examine one of the most comprehensive monitoring data sets of subtropical  
72 freshwater insects, spanning 20 years of data. We aimed to determine the long-term changes  
73 in species richness of Chironomidae (Diptera) and abundance of major functional feeding  
74 groups of insects inhabiting a suite of freshwater habitats from the Upper Paraná basin,  
75 including channels, backwaters, shallow lakes and rivers [12]. This system of diverse  
76 freshwater habitats, which drains much of south-central South America, has been impacted  
77 by the construction of over 150 dams across its tributaries [11,14]. Reservoir construction can  
78 impact insect communities from the bottom-up by disrupting hydrological and nutrient  
79 dynamics [12,15], and from the top-down by removing natural geological barriers, such as  
80 waterfalls, facilitating invasions of insectivorous fish [16]. Thus, we aimed to determine  
81 whether environmental factors associated with these changes negatively influence  
82 abundances of freshwater insects and species richness of a diverse family Chironomidae. To  
83 determine potentially different responses of functional and taxonomic groups to these  
84 anthropogenic impacts, we compared temporal changes in chironomid richness and  
85 abundances of seven major insect orders and eight insect families, comprising shredders,  
86 grazers, gatherers, scrapers, filter feeders and predators of varying body sizes. Taking into  
87 account that larger organisms from higher trophic levels (e.g., Odonata, Megaloptera) are  
88 among the most sensitive and vulnerable taxonomic groups [17,18], we predicted that their  
89 abundances will be more strongly impacted by human-induced changes compared to smaller  
90 organisms.

91

## 92 **2. Material and Methods**

93

### 94 *(a) Sampling and data description*

95 We analyzed a 20-year (2000-2019) dataset from a long-term ecological research program  
96 (PELD-Sitio PIAP), carried out in the Upper Paraná River Floodplain, Brazil (20°40'–  
97 22°50'S; 53°10'–53°24'W). The region is situated within a protected reserve with no  
98 agricultural areas in the surroundings. Physicochemical analyses of water did not detect  
99 heavy metals or other pollutants in the studied ecosystems (D.A. Moi, unpublished data). We  
100 took four annual samples, once during summer, spring, autumn, and winter (except for years

101 2001, 2003, 2016, 2017, 2018, and 2019, which were sampled twice annually, in summer and  
102 winter due to funding constraints), of insects, non-native fish and environmental variables.  
103 Samples were collected from 12 independent environments, comprising three rivers, six  
104 shallow lakes, two channels and one backwater (Figure S1). All sampling was performed  
105 simultaneously at the same sites, following a standard protocol.

106

107 Aquatic insect larvae were collected following a standard methodology [19]: three samples  
108 were obtained from each environment, including two samples at both sides and one in the  
109 center, using a Petersen sampler (0.0345 m<sup>2</sup>). The collected insects were identified to order  
110 (Coleoptera, Megaloptera, Hemiptera, Trichoptera, Odonata and Ephemeroptera) or family  
111 level (Ephemeroptera: Baetidae, Caenidae, Leptophlebiidae; Diptera: Dolichopodidae,  
112 Chaoboridae, Ceratopogonidae, Culicidae and Chironomidae) by expert taxonomists.  
113 Chironomidae larvae were additionally identified to morphospecies level by an expert  
114 taxonomist. We calculated insect abundance (order, family) and Chironomidae species  
115 richness per m<sup>2</sup> captured in each environment during each sampling over 20 years. These  
116 insect orders and families comprised all key functional feeding groups, including predators,  
117 shredders, scrapers, grazers, gatherers and filter feeders, and spanned a wide range of body  
118 sizes, from small (e.g., Culicidae, Chaoboridae, Chironomidae) to large organisms (e.g.,  
119 Megaloptera, Ephemeroptera, Trichoptera).

120

121 Time-matched with the insect collections, we took water samples from each aquatic  
122 environment to quantify nutrient concentrations (total phosphorus and total nitrogen;  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ )  
123 and turbidity (NTU). Total nitrogen (N) was analyzed through the persulfate method [20] and  
124 determined in a spectrophotometer in the presence of cadmium, using a flow-injection system  
125 [21]. Total phosphorus (P) was measured according to Golterman et al. [22]. Turbidity was  
126 measured using a turbidimeter (LaMotte, Chestertown, MD, U.S.A). We also measured water  
127 level (m) using a fixed water level ruler. All these variables can indicate human-induced  
128 disturbance, such as damming (low turbidity and depth) and underlying changes in nutrient  
129 dynamics.

130

131 Recent studies have reported a decrease of native fish diversity associated with accelerated  
132 invasions of the non-native fish over time [23,24]. We sampled these non-native,  
133 insectivorous fish in each aquatic environment using two gear types: seines and gillnets. We  
134 used two standard gillnets, which were 10-m long, each with 11 mesh sizes (2.4, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7,

135 8, 10, 12, 14, and 16 cm from knot to knot). The gillnets were stitched and tied together,  
136 making a 20 m-long set that was deployed from the margin to the middle of each  
137 environment for 24 hours. Simultaneously, a 20 m-long seine net with a mesh size of 0.5 cm  
138 was used in the littoral zone of the lakes for 24 hours. We identified the non-native fish to  
139 species level using their historical records according to specialized literature [25-27]  
140 (electronic supplementary material, Table S1).

141

#### 142 (b) Statistical analysis

143 To evaluate the temporal dynamics of each insect group in each environment, we applied  
144 generalized additive mixed effects models (GAMMs) with the Gaussian family, using  
145 restricted maximum likelihood (REML) as smoothness selection [28]. We used environment  
146 type and the sampling month nested within year as random factors, year as a continuous  
147 predictor, and insect abundance (all orders and families), chironomid richness, and  
148 environmental variables as response variables. Normality and homoscedasticity were verified  
149 using graphical inspections (QQ plots and residual plots). When necessary, we log-  
150 transformed the response variables prior to each analysis to achieve normality of the residuals  
151 and homogeneity of the variances. The analyses were conducted using the *gamm4* function of  
152 the package *gamm4* [28] and the graphs were built using the *stat\_smooth(method = 'gam')*  
153 function in *ggplot2*.

154

155 To determine the main drivers of insect decline, we used a model selection approach. We  
156 compared the set of candidate models consisting of every environmental driver individually  
157 or in combination (turbidity, nitrogen, phosphorus, water level, as well as abundance and  
158 richness of non-native fish) as predictor variables (Table S2), and insect abundance and  
159 chironomid richness as response variables. A null model was also included into the model  
160 selection (Table S2). We checked the multicollinearity between the environmental drivers by  
161 calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF) for each predictor.  $VIF > 3$  indicates possible  
162 collinearity but was not present in our data (all relationships had  $VIF < 2$ ). The set of  
163 candidate models was constructed using a linear model and contrasted using corrected Akaike  
164 Information Criteria (AICc) and AICc weights ( $w_i$ ) [29]. We considered an evidence ratio  $\geq 2$   
165 ( $\Delta AICc \leq 2$ ) to identify the most plausible model, using the function *ICtab* of the *bbmle*  
166 package [30] (Table 2). All analyses were performed in R [31]. Data are accessible in [32].

167

168

### 169 3. Results

170 All insect orders evaluated, regardless of their body size and functional group, decreased  
171 consistently in abundance over the last 20 years (Figure 1, Table 1). Abundance of all Diptera  
172 families, including Dolichopodidae, Chaoboridae, Ceratopogonidae, Culicidae and  
173 Chironomidae, also decreased over the 20-year period (Table 1, Figure S1). Similar results  
174 were observed for Chironomidae species richness (Table 1, Figure S1), and for the three  
175 Ephemeroptera families analyzed, namely Baetidae, Caenidae and Leptophlebiidae (Table 1,  
176 Figure S2). In contrast, the abundance and richness of insectivorous non-native fish increased  
177 over the same time-period (Figure 2, Table 1). While turbidity decreased, nitrogen  
178 concentration and N:P ratios of the water increased over time (Figure 2, Table 1). However,  
179 water depth and phosphorus concentration did not change over the same 20-year period  
180 (Table 1, Figure 2, Figure S3).

181

182 The model selection revealed that a combination of increased richness of non-native fish and  
183 water N:P ratio, and decreased turbidity, were the key drivers of decline of almost all insect  
184 groups (Table 2). Two exceptions included Trichoptera and Ceratopogonidae, which were  
185 largely influenced by an increase in N:P ratios and invasions of insectivorous fish (Table 2).

186

### 187 4. Discussion

188

189 This study revealed a pervasive decline of aquatic insect abundance (across all studied  
190 orders) and chironomid richness over a 20-year period, in a suite of subtropical freshwater  
191 ecosystems in the Upper Paraná floodplain. There were similarly strong declines for all taxa,  
192 comprising different functional feeding groups, including predators, filter feeders, scrapers,  
193 gatherers, grazers, and shredders. These findings, from a major South American waterway,  
194 contrast with a recent meta-analysis [7], suggesting a global increase in aquatic insect  
195 abundances over time, based primarily on temperate studies. The main drivers of the declines  
196 detected here were a combination of decreased turbidity, and increased invasions of non-  
197 native insectivorous fish and changes in N:P stoichiometry over time. All these drivers  
198 exemplify human impacts caused by reservoir construction [12,23,24].

199

200 Decreased turbidity, which translates to increased water transparency, is closely related to  
201 sediment and nutrient deposition upstream, trapped by reservoir cascades built in the Upper  
202 Paraná basin [12]. In concert with increasing water transparency, the upper Paraná River



203 floodplain underwent massive fish invasion caused by a hydroelectric power plant built  
204 downstream, which removed their natural geographical barrier (a set of waterfalls) separating  
205 the Lower from the Upper Paraná River [16,23,24]. The increase in non-native predators and  
206 water transparency likely strengthened the top-down control of insect prey which, bearing a  
207 dark integument, had reduced ability to camouflage. Freshwater transparency is a key factor  
208 mediating predator-prey encounter rates [33]. Therefore, increased encounter rates and  
209 predation pressure over 20 years must be considered as a potential underlying mechanism  
210 explaining the decline of aquatic insects in the Upper Paraná basin.

211

212 Changes in water stoichiometry was another important driver of insect decline. It is known  
213 that reservoir construction has strong impacts on river flow and nutrient dynamics [34]. In  
214 particular, reservoirs increase the N:P ratio of river discharge, largely due to increased  
215 in-reservoir N-fixation [15] and decreased P via upstream sedimentation [12]. Although we  
216 did not observe temporal shifts in P concentrations in pooled environments, such changes  
217 have been reported for several aquatic environments in the Upper Paraná floodplain [12].  
218 These changes result in a stoichiometric imbalance towards increasing N saturation [35] with  
219 consequent changes in ecosystem productivity [15,34,36]. This may lead to a change in the  
220 phytoplankton composition [36], and likely changed the availability of nutrients to primary  
221 producers [37], making them suboptimal resources for primary consumers. Changes in the  
222 elemental composition of primary producers can create elemental imbalances between  
223 consumers and their resources with negative consequences for energy transfer among trophic  
224 levels, including insects. Indeed, increased N:P ratios such as those observed here (N:P >>  
225 16) can cause P-limitations in phytoplankton and periphyton, thus reducing primary  
226 productivity in shallow subtropical lakes [35,38]. Thus, the inundation of adjacent lowlands  
227 by the Paraná river, connecting it with floodplain environments during the seasonal flood  
228 pulse [39], contributes to changing N:P ratios and productivity in the shallow floodplain  
229 environments. We show that these hydrodynamics have potential bottom-up cascading effects  
230 in the food web, leading to insect decline.

231

232 Aquatic insects underpin several key functions and services that freshwater ecosystems  
233 provide to tropical and subtropical regions. These include detritus processing and  
234 biogeochemical cycling, bioturbation, biological control, and food sources that fuel and  
235 stabilize aquatic and terrestrial food webs [40,41]. Therefore, long-term anthropogenic  
236 impact monitoring and mitigation strategies are pivotal in maintaining freshwater ecosystem

237 integrity. Here we showed that reservoir constructions resulted in less productive  
238 environment for aquatic insects and in habitats with stronger predation by non-native fish.  
239 This highlights the importance of more careful planning of reservoir construction and the  
240 need for long-term studies to evaluate impacts on aquatic insect abundances and diversity, as  
241 well as the drivers of such decline, which are still poorly understood [3]. Our findings from  
242 the Upper Paraná floodplain, which is among the biggest floodplains in South America,  
243 suggest that aquatic insects from subtropical ecosystems are likely more threatened by human  
244 activities than those from temperate regions [7].

245

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**Table 1.** Generalized additive mixed effects models (GAMMs) examining the temporal trends on abundance of several insect orders and families, on Chironomidae species richness, and on environmental variables. Year is the fixed effect, whereas environment type and month nested within year are the random factors.

Source of variation	F	P	R <sup>2</sup> <sub>adjusted</sub>
<b>Insect orders</b>			
Coleoptera	16.54	<0.001	0.42
Megaloptera	9.43	<0.001	0.31
Hemiptera	10.21	<0.001	0.24
Trichoptera	12.9	<0.001	0.09
Odonata	3.21	0.032	0.09
Ephemeroptera	9.68	0.002	0.11
<b>Diptera families</b>			
Dolichopodidae	21.19	<0.001	0.05
Chaoboridae	9.73	0.002	0.11
Ceratopogonidae	9.45	<0.001	0.19
Culicidae	9.07	<0.001	0.24
Chironomidae (abund.)	17.28	<0.001	0.26
Chironomidae (richness)	10.25	<0.001	0.39
<b>Ephemeroptera families</b>			
Baetidae	72.9	<0.001	0.37
Caenidae	47.02	<0.001	0.38
Leptophlebiidae	64.97	<0.001	0.4
<b>Environmental variables</b>			
Water depth	1.7	0.126	0.02
Turbidity	15.5	<0.001	0.04
Nitrogen concentration	15.61	<0.001	0.3
Phosphorus concentration	1.61	0.3	0.01
N:P ratios	8.69	<0.001	0.18
Invasive fish abundance	29.04	<0.001	0.13
Invasive fish richness	59.84	<0.001	0.11



**Table 2. Contrasting the impacts of ecological drivers on insect decline.** Detailed outcomes of the model selection performed using corrected Akaike Information Criteria (AICc) to assess the different contributions of water depth, turbidity, nitrogen, phosphorus, N:P ratio, invasive fish abundance, invasive fish richness and combinations of these predictors (the full models are presented in the Table S2) on decline of insect orders and Diptera families. Model selection was performed using function ‘*ICtab*’ in ‘*bbmle*’ package.  $\Delta$ AICc = difference between the model with the lowest score and subsequent models. Only the best subset models ( $\Delta$ AICc  $\leq$ 2) are presented.

Response	Models	AICc	$\Delta$ AICc	df	Weight
<b>Insect orders</b>					
Coleoptera	(i) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	720.7	0	6	0.84
Megaloptera	(i) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	650	0	6	0.65
	(ii) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	651.2	1.3	5	0.35
Hemiptera	(i) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	637.1	0	5	0.72
	(ii) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	639.1	1.9	6	0.28
Trichoptera	(i) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	649.9	0	5	0.74
Odonata	(i) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	629.9	0	5	0.58
	(ii) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	630.6	0.6	6	0.42
Ephemeroptera	(i) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	751.3	0	6	0.55
	(ii) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	752.1	0.7	5	0.38
<b>Diptera families</b>					
Dolichopodidae	(i) Invasive fish richness	533.4	0	3	0.23
	(ii) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	533.7	0.2	5	0.203
	(iii) Invasive fish abundance	533.7	0.3	3	0.197
	(iv) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness	534.3	0.8	4	0.151
	(v) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	534.3	0.8	6	0.15
Chaoboridae	(i) Invasive fish richness	676.1	0	3	0.301
	(ii) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	676.2	0.1	5	0.287
	(iii) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	677	0.9	6	0.189
	(iv) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness	677.5	1.4	4	0.15
Ceratopogonidae	(i) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	667	0	5	0.64
Culicidae	(i) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	619.8	0	6	0.5
	(ii) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	619.8	0	5	0.5
Chironomidae (abund.)	(i) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	798.4	0	5	0.465
	(ii) Invasive fish richness	799.8	1.4	3	0.236
	(iii) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	800.3	1.8	6	0.185
Chironomidae (richness)	(i) Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	461	0	5	0.503
	(ii) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	461.2	0.2	6	0.449
<b>Ephemeroptera families</b>					
Baetidae	(i) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	600.5	0	6	0.961
Caenidae	(i) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	579.7	0	6	0.97
Leptophlebiidae	(i) Turbidity + Invasive fish richness + N:P ratio	577.7	0	6	0.996

## Figure captions

Figure 1. Average abundance of Coleoptera (a), Megaloptera (b), Hemiptera (c), Trichoptera (d), Odonata (e), and Ephemeroptera (f) over 20 years in 12 different environments (backwater, channels, lakes and rivers) in the Paraná floodplain. Solid orange lines and orange shadings are the model fitting (using 'gam' function) and 95% confidence intervals, respectively.

Figure 2. Average water depth (a), turbidity (b), nitrogen concentration (c), nitrogen to phosphorus (N:P) ratio (d), invasive fish abundance (e), and invasive fish richness (f) over 20 years in 12 different environments (backwater, channels, lakes and rivers) in the Paraná floodplain. Legend indicating the environments is presented in the Figure 1b. Solid orange lines and orange shading are the model fitting (using 'gam' function) and 95% confidence intervals, respectively.

For Review Only



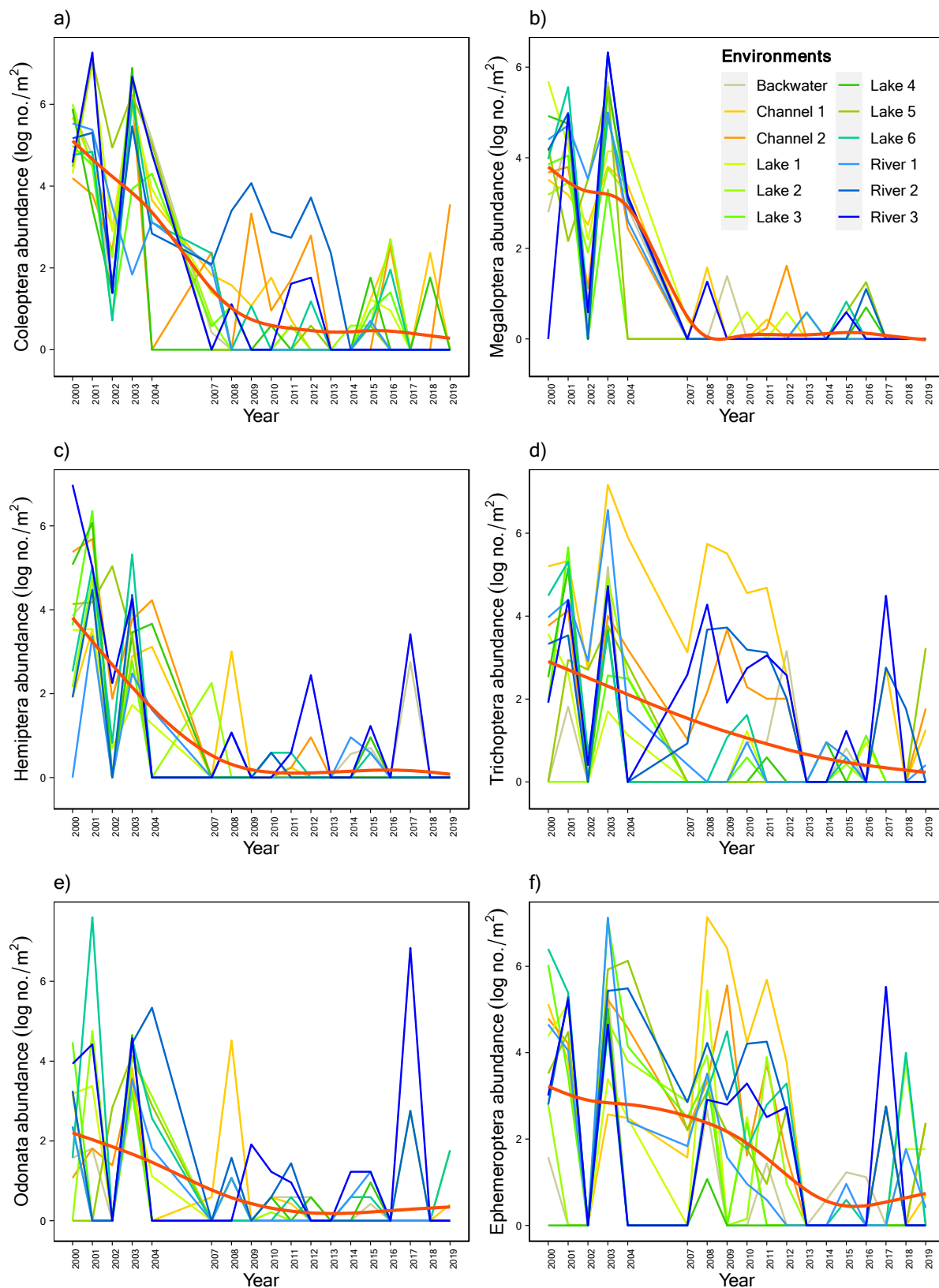


Figure 1

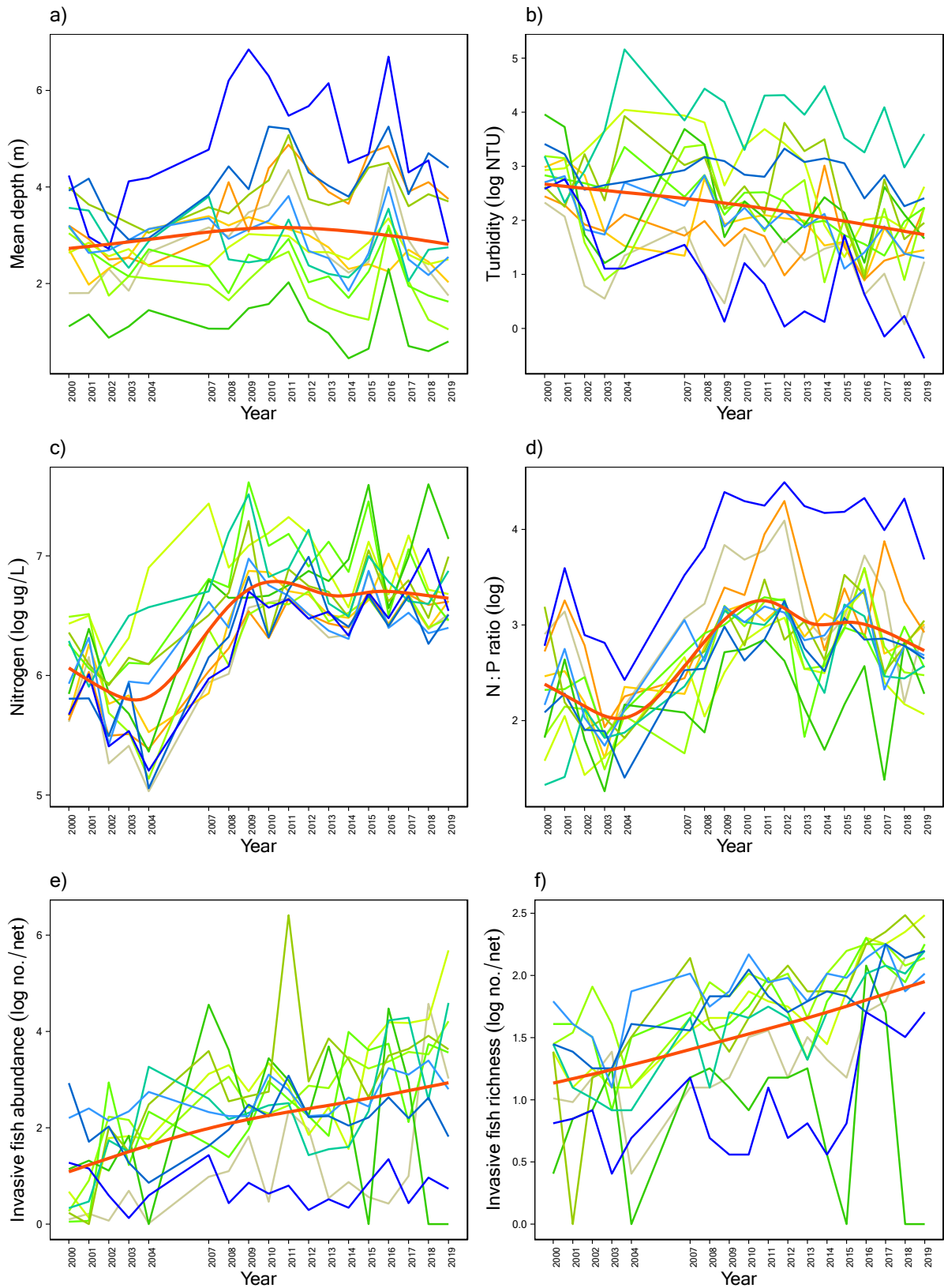


Figure 2

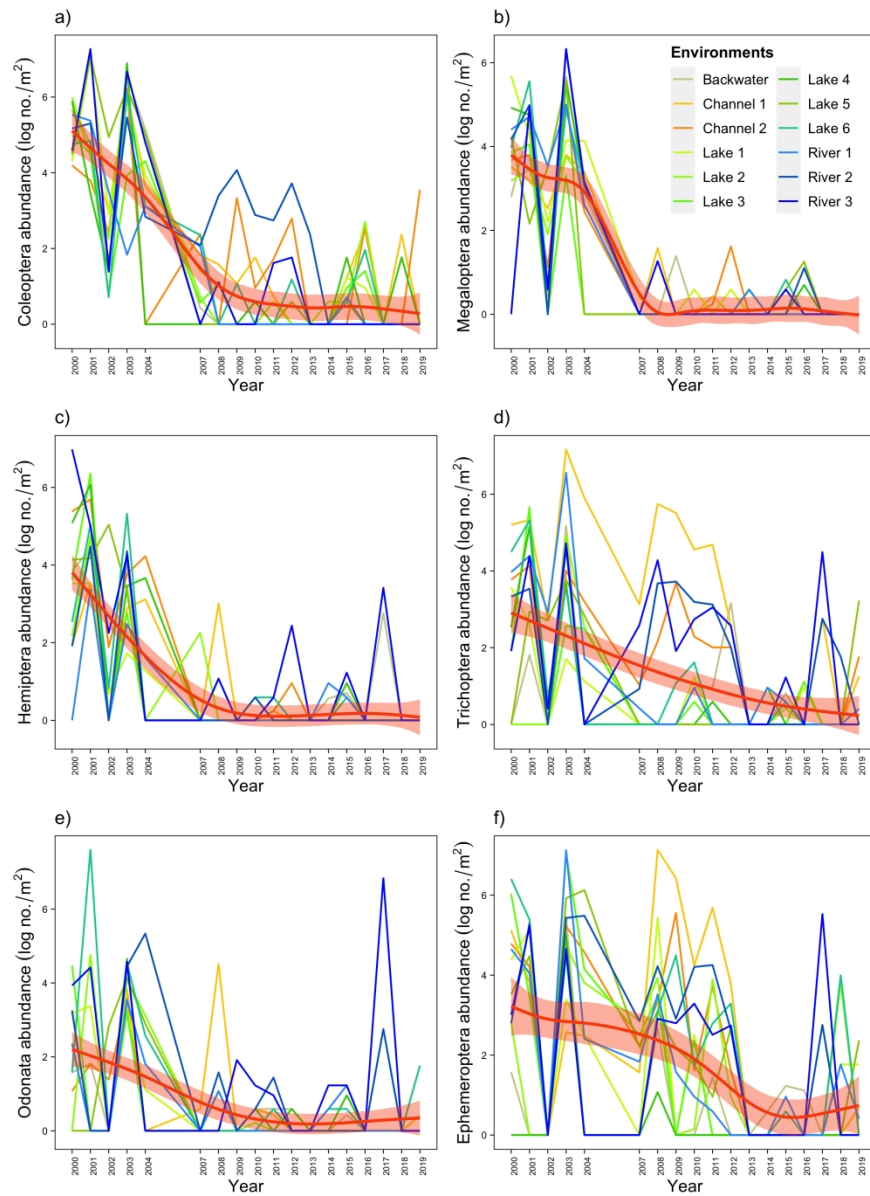


Figure1

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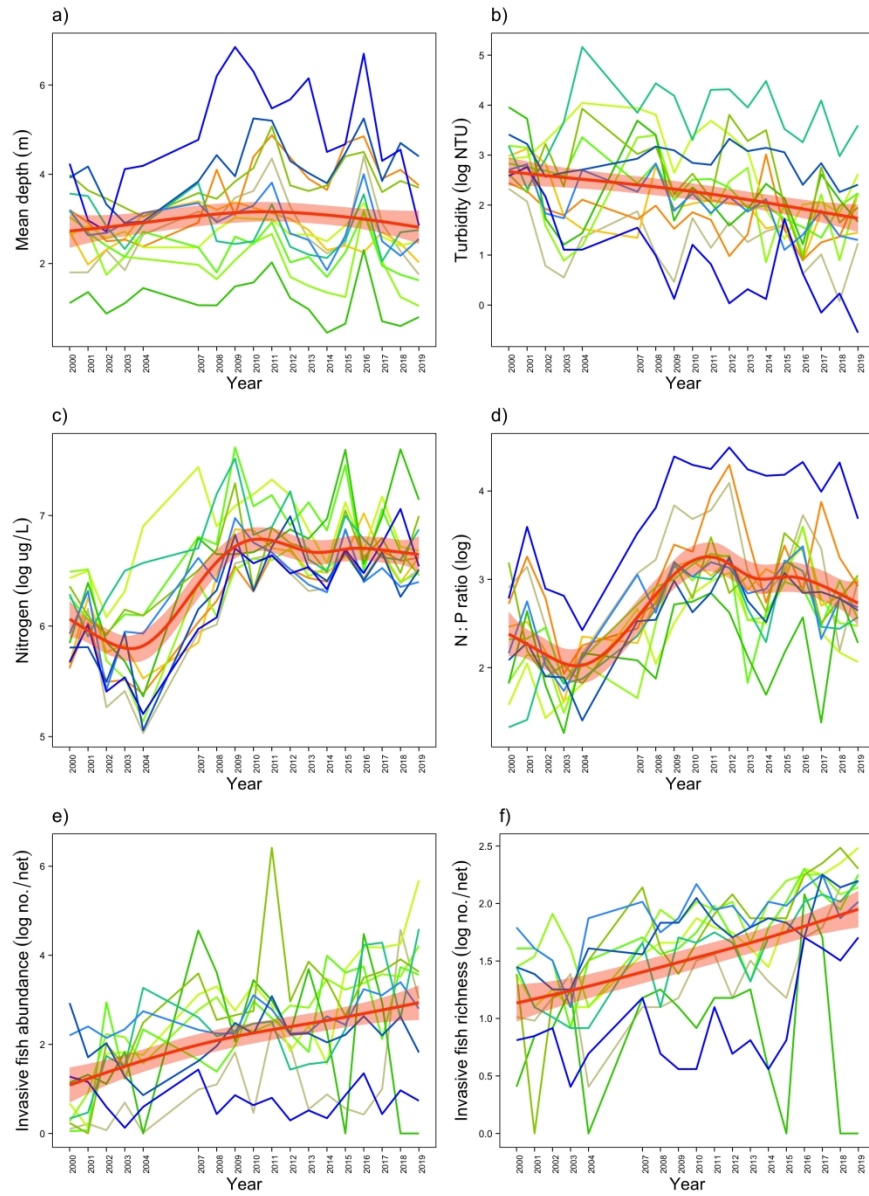


Figure2

916x1249mm (72 x 72 DPI)