

1 **Non-native fish community occupies broader isotopic niche than native fish community in**
2 **an impaired river system**

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26 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
27 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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33
34 **Data availability**

35 Data will be made available on request.

36

37 **Ethics approval**

38 The sampling, euthanasia, and transportation of organisms were authorized by the Ministério do
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41 ethics committee of the Federal University of Viçosa (number 7982018).

42

43 **Credit authorship contribution statement**

44 Daniel A. R. Silva: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Investigation, Writing
45 (original draft, review & editing); Débora R. Carvalho: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data
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48 Funding acquisition, Project administration, Writing (review & editing); Marcelo Z. Moreira:
49 Methodology, Writing (review & editing); Paulo S. Pompeu: Conceptualization, Methodology,
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58 **Abstract**

59 This study aimed to compare the trophic ecology of native and non-native fish species in the Doce
60 River basin, which has been subjected to various anthropogenic impacts, including Brazil's largest
61 environmental disaster: the rupture of the Fundão iron ore tailings dam. Using carbon and nitrogen
62 stable isotopes, we evaluated the isotopic niche and trophic position occupied by all fish species
63 sampled at eight sampling points along in the upper, middle, and lower reaches of the Doce River.
64 Currently, non-native species exhibit a broader isotopic niche than the native assembly, occupying
65 all trophic levels. Their establishment seems to have been favored both by "vacant" niche
66 positions and by the reduction of native species populations. The historically most impacted
67 points, which also received the tailings from the dam breach, presented a higher percentage of
68 non-native species. The higher this percentage, the greater the observed isotopic overlap with
69 native species. Non-native species occupied 'vacant' isotopic niches in most disturbed regions,
70 represented by more enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures. However, locally, their range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ compared to

71 native species was not different among least and most disturbed sites. Our results underscore the
72 urgent need for strategies to control non-native species populations in the basin.

73 **Keywords:** Stable isotopes; Introduced species; Trophic position; Trophic niche; Fundão dam.

74 **Introduction**

75 The introduction of species is a longstanding practice (Casimiro et al., 2010), and with the
76 process of globalization, it has been intensifying over time (Rahel, 2007; Ricciardi, 2007;
77 Leprieur et al., 2008; Vitule et al., 2012). Due to its significant impact on biodiversity (Azevedo-
78 Santos et al., 2015), species introduction is considered the second leading cause of fish species
79 extinction worldwide (Miller et al., 1989; Clavero & García-Berthou, 2005; Seebens et al., 2021).
80 The proliferation of non-native species in aquatic environments harms the entire native biota,
81 leading to negative impacts on both humans (Casimiro et al., 2010), and the established fish
82 community (Vitule et al., 2009). This, in turn, results in various economic, social, and
83 environmental complications (Becker & Grosser, 2003; Ricciardi et al., 2017). Global annual
84 costs of species introductions have been estimated exceeding 423 US billion dollars, where 92%
85 correspond to losses in ecosystem function affecting people and their quality of life, and only 8%
86 are related to management of these species (IPBES, 2023).

87 Estimating ecological modifications resulting from the introduction of non-native fish is a
88 complex process (Underwood, 1992), as impacts can vary from genetic changes to changes in the
89 trophic structure of aquatic ecosystems (Vitule & Prodocimo, 2012; Garcia et al., 2021) giving
90 rise to what are known as "cascading interactions" (Pinto-Coelho et al., 2008; Gozlan et al., 2010;
91 Flood et al., 2020). Concerning the most frequently observed damage to fish fauna, there is a
92 decrease in the diversity and richness of native species, alterations in population structure, the
93 spread of pathogens, pests, and parasites, stunting, ecosystem disturbances, hybridization,
94 competition, predation, biotic homogenization, changes in energy pathways, and possible
95 extinction of native species (Charles & Dukes, 2007; Vitule et al., 2009; Pelicice et al., 2023).
96 Numerous factors may be associated with the exclusion of native species due to the introduction
97 of non-native species, such as increased predation on juveniles and adults (de Souza et al., 2021),
98 competition for resources, and the overlap of trophic niches (Zaia Alves et al., 2020).

99 Identifying the main factors behind global invasions is essential for developing effective
100 conservation strategies (Hulme, 2003). Elton (1958) suggested that successful invaders are
101 frequently linked to habitats altered by human activity, and that those habitats susceptible to
102 invasion are typically experiencing human-induced disturbances. When species share similar
103 environmental needs, native species can inhibit the spread of nonnative species. However,
104 nonnative fishes that spread quickly usually fill "vacant" niche positions in the life-history
105 spectrum, a phenomenon linked to "niche opportunities" created by human-induced

106 environmental changes (Olden et al., 2006). In this scenario, disturbances are believed to free up
107 resources and create opportunities for invaders (Davis et al., 2000). Particularly when
108 disturbances happen too swiftly, many native species are unable to adapt, resulting in their
109 decreased numbers, local extinctions, and the creation of unoccupied niches that nonnative
110 species can then exploit (Havel et al., 2005; Clavero et al., 2013). The "human activity"
111 hypothesis, although only one of several explanations for the invasion process, has been supported
112 by research on freshwater fish invasions (e.g., Leprieur et al., 2008; Anas & Mandrack, 2021;
113 Milardi et al., 2022). Therefore, one of the potential ways to understand the drivers of invasion,
114 and estimate the effects resulting from the introduction of non-native fish species is through the
115 analysis of trophic niches (Pennock et al., 2021). This approach has also shown promise in
116 understanding trophic ecology in areas directly impacted by anthropogenic influences (e.g. de
117 Carvalho et al., 2019a, 2019b).

118 Through the use of stable carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) isotopes, it is possible to calculate
119 the isotopic niche, which can be considered a proxy for the trophic niche (Layman et al., 2007;
120 Jackson et al., 2011). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, due to its small variation from one trophic level to another
121 (between 0‰ to 1‰) (Peterson & Fry, 1987; Manetta & Benedito-Cecilio, 2003), can provide
122 information about the dietary resources assimilated by consumers (Fry, 2006). On the other hand,
123 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ exhibits an enrichment of approximately 3‰ between trophic levels (DeNiro & Epstein,
124 1981; Post, 2002; Kaymak et al., 2018) and can be used to estimate the trophic positions of
125 consumers (Minagawa & Wada, 1984; Albrecht et al., 2021). Therefore, since the isotopic
126 composition of fish reflects their feeding habits in a given system and season it is expected that
127 generalist species will exhibit greater variation in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, while specialist species
128 will show little variation in isotopic compositions (Bearhop et al., 2004). Consequently, these
129 variations will be reflected in the isotopic niche occupied by species, and stable isotopes of C and
130 N provide an alternative to estimate not only the breadth of these niches but also to assess their
131 overlap (Shiple & Matich, 2020).

132 The Doce River basin, due to their history of degradation and proliferation of non-native
133 species, provide opportunities to investigate the relationship between attributes of the trophic
134 niche of the native species pool and the local invasive species. The basin is notable for its high
135 incidence of species introduction, with 25.5% of its fish fauna (39 species) classified as non-
136 native (Bueno et al., 2021). The introduction of non-native species in this basin began in the 1970s
137 with the aim of improving the fishing system in the region (Alves et al., 2007; Marques et al.,
138 2013). These introductions were, for example, responsible for the local extinction of native
139 species (e.g. *Oligosarcus solitarius* Menezes 1990) in lakes within the most important
140 conservation unit in the basin, the Doce River State Park (Latini, 2001; Frago-Moura et al.,
141 2016). The Doce River basin is also noteworthy for its long history of environmental degradation
142 (Sánchez et al., 2018), which was exacerbated by the rupture of the Fundão iron ore tailings dam

143 on November 5th 2015, in Mariana, Minas Gerais . Considered the largest environmental disaster
144 in Brazil, this event had significant effects on the aquatic ecosystems of the region (Brasil, 2015;
145 Espindola et al., 2016), due to, among other factors, water contamination with tailings, riverbed
146 siltation, and destruction of riparian and aquatic vegetation.

147 We aimed to test the hypothesis that human-induced environmental changes in the Doce River
148 basin have favored the establishment of non-native fish species by the release of resources through
149 both "vacant" niche positions and the reduction of native species populations. We characterized
150 the isotopic niche of the pool of native and non-native species, and their respective trophic levels
151 in regions of the Doce River with different levels of degradation. We expect that: (i) the
152 historically most impacted sites in the basin, which also received the tailings from the dam
153 rupture, have a higher percentage of non-native species; and the higher this percentage, the greater
154 the isotopic overlap with native species; (ii) if the non-native species occupied 'vacant' niches in
155 most disturbed regions, their pool will use more resources diversity (wider range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$)
156 compared to non-native species. Information regarding the trophic ecology of fish in this basin,
157 which has been going through from environmental degradation for decades, is still limited.
158 Therefore, we hope that the information obtained will contribute to understanding the role that
159 potential measures for controlling non-native species will have in the basin's recovery.

160 **Material and Methods**

161 Study area

162 This study was conducted in the Doce River basin, a river entirely located in the southeastern
163 region of Brazil, spanning 225 municipalities in the states of Minas Gerais (86% of the territory)
164 and Esp rito Santo (14% of the territory). The Doce River flows for 853 kilometers from its
165 headwaters in the Mantiqueira Mountains to its mouth at the Atlantic Ocean (in the district of
166 Reg ncia Augusta, Linhares, Esp rito Santo) (Brasil, 2016) (Fig 1). The basin covers a drainage
167 area of 84.000 Km² and is mainly situated within the Atlantic Forest biome (Brasil, 2016).
168 Additionally, the Doce River basin plays a crucial role in the economy of eastern Minas Gerais
169 and northwestern Esp rito Santo by providing essential water resources for domestic, agricultural,
170 industrial, and energy generation activities (Brasil, 2016). The basin features rugged terrain and
171 is divided into three regional units (referred to as upper, middle, and lower Doce River) and has
172 ten hydroelectric power plants (UHEs) installed, being four of them, located on the Doce River
173 channel itself and six on its tributaries (Brasil, 2016).

174 The Doce River basin has undergone various anthropogenic modifications resulting from
175 industrial activities, particularly in the Vale do Aço region in the Middle Doce River, as well as
176 from agriculture, livestock farming, forestry, mining, energy production, discharge of untreated
177 domestic sewage from cities in its vicinity, and the introduction of non-native fish species
178 (Coelho, 2009; Brasil, 2016). In addition to these factors, in November 2015, the Fund o dam in

179 the municipality of Mariana, MG, which contained iron ore tailings from the SAMARCO
180 company, collapsed. Approximately 43 million m³ of tailings, possibly contaminated with metals
181 such as Iron (Fe), Arsenic (As), Mercury (Hg), and Manganese (Mn), were discharged into the
182 Doce River basin (Brasil, 2015, 2016). The mud carried from the upper part of the basin to its
183 mouth directly impacted the local fish community, not only by altering water quality, but also by
184 destroying breeding, nesting, and resting habitats and altering food availability, which, in turn,
185 was detrimental to the local population dependent on fishing (Brasil, 2015, 2016).

186 Sample design

187 Eight sampling points were distributed along the Doce River, covering the upper, middle, and
188 lower sections of the basin (Fig. 1, Table 1). Among these points, five were located along the
189 main channel of the Doce River and were affected by the rupture of the Fundão dam (M1-M5).
190 These sites were considered the most disturbed. The other three points were considered least
191 disturbed points (L1-L3) as they were not impacted by the dam breach and were also historically
192 less impacted. However, only one of them, the Santo Antônio River (L2), might be considered a
193 reference site (Vieira, 2006). Thus, the upper Doce River region included one most disturbed
194 point (M-1) and one least disturbed point (L1 - Piranga River), the middle course had two most
195 disturbed points (M2 and M3) and one least disturbed point (L2 - Santo Antônio River), and the
196 lower course had two most disturbed points (M4 and M5) and one least disturbed point (L3 -
197 Manhuaçu River). Sampling was conducted during the dry season between the months of August
198 and September 2020.

199

200 Sampling

201 For the stable isotope analysis, the collection was standardized to include at least five samples
202 per point (whenever possible) from each of the following compartments of the food web: I)
203 available food resources in the environment (filamentous algae, aquatic, and terrestrial
204 invertebrates, aquatic macrophytes, suspended matter, coarse particulate organic matter - CPOM,
205 and periphyton); and II) all fish species (including native and non-native ones). The collection
206 and processing of each compartment occurred as described below.

207 Fish - Collection and Processing

208 Fish sampling was conducted using two sets of gillnets with different mesh sizes (15, 20, 25,
209 30, 35, 40, 50, 60, 70, and 80 mm), totaling 20 nets at each point. The gillnets were set in the
210 water column during the night for 12 hours and retrieved at dawn. Additionally, in order to
211 complement the sampling of the fish assemblage and overcome the selectivity of gillnets (Šmejkal
212 et al., 2015), trawl nets (3 m and 10 m in length, with a 5 mm mesh) and hand sieves (80 cm in
213 diameter with a 1 mm mesh) were also employed for a 2-hour sampling period at each point. All

214 captured individuals were anesthetized in a Eugenol solution and were identified to the lowest
215 possible taxon. Samples of muscle tissues intended for isotopic analysis were taken in the field
216 and kept frozen until processing in the laboratory to prevent degradation. After tissue removal,
217 the collected specimens were fixed in formalin (10% formaldehyde) and sent to the laboratory,
218 where they underwent identification confirmation. In the laboratory, fish samples intended for
219 isotopic analysis were lyophilized for a minimum of 24 hours, ground using a mortar and pestle
220 to obtain a fine and homogeneous powder and stored in Eppendorf-type tubes for isotopic
221 analysis.

222 The collection, euthanasia, and transportation of organisms were authorized by the Ministry
223 of the Environment (MMA), Chico Mendes Institute for Biodiversity Conservation (ICMBio),
224 and the Biodiversity Authorization and Information System (SISBIO - number 80532-1) and the
225 ethics committee of the Federal University of Viçosa (number 7982018).

226 Food Resources - Collection and Processing

227 Filamentous algae (AL) were randomly collected from the riverbed using forceps.
228 Aquatic/benthic invertebrates (BE) were sampled using Kick-net and sieves (80 cm in diameter
229 with a 1 mm mesh) near the banks, in aquatic macrophytes, leaf banks, and rapids. Terrestrial
230 invertebrates (IT) were manually sampled at different points in the riparian forest and riverbanks.
231 Macrophytes (MA) were randomly collected from the riverbed, with a preference for collecting
232 distinct species whenever possible. Suspended matter (SM) was collected by towing a
233 phytoplankton net (45 μ m mesh) in the water column for a period of 3 minutes at each location.
234 Coarse particulate organic matter (CPOM), consisting of decomposing leaves deposited on the
235 riverbed, was randomly collected from the riverbed. Periphyton (PE), the biofilm that grows on
236 rocks, was collected by scraping rocks with brushes, which were then washed with distilled water,
237 and the obtained content was stored in plastic tubes (samples containing distilled water +
238 periphyton).

239 All samples collected in the field were stored in plastic containers or bags and kept in a cooler
240 with ice until subsequent freezing in the laboratory. In the laboratory, solid samples (filamentous
241 algae, aquatic and terrestrial invertebrates, aquatic macrophytes, and coarse particulate organic
242 matter - CPOM) were lyophilized for at least 24 hours, ground into a fine and homogeneous
243 powder, stored in Eppendorf-type plastic microtubes, and sent for isotopic analysis. Liquid
244 samples (suspended matter and periphyton) were filtered using a quartz filter (Whatman® QMA
245 quartz filters) and a filtration apparatus connected to a vacuum pump. Subsequently, the filtered
246 samples were dried in an oven at 40°C until their weight stabilized, ground into a fine and
247 homogeneous powder using a mortar and pestle, stored in Eppendorf-type plastic microtubes, and
248 sent for isotopic analysis.

249 Data Analysis

250 Isotopic Analysis

251 A total of 744 samples were submitted for stable isotope analysis of C and N, including 478
252 fish samples from 54 species, 40 filamentous algae samples, 40 aquatic invertebrate samples, 40
253 terrestrial invertebrate samples, 26 aquatic macrophyte samples (the only resource not found at
254 all points), 40 suspended matter samples, 40 coarse particulate organic matter (CPOM) samples,
255 and 40 periphyton samples.

256 Stable isotopes of carbon and nitrogen were analyzed at the Center for Nuclear Energy in
257 Agriculture (CENA) at the University of São Paulo. For the determination of isotopic ratios, a
258 continuous-flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer (CF-IRMS) system was used with a Carlo Erba
259 elemental analyzer (CHN 1110) coupled to a Thermo Scientific mass spectrometer (Delta Plus).
260 The results were expressed as the relative difference from internationally recognized reference
261 standards for ^{13}C (Pee Dee Belemnite) and ^{15}N (atmospheric nitrogen), using the delta (δ ‰)
262 notation, and calculated based on the following formula: $\delta X = [(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}}) - 1] \times 10^3$,
263 where X corresponds to ^{13}C or ^{15}N , and R represents the isotopic ratio of $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ or $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$.
264 (Barrie & Prosser, 1996).

265 Statistical Analyses

266 To assess the trophic structure of the fish community at each sampled point in the Rio Doce
267 basin, bi-plot graphs were constructed using the isotopic compositions of the fish and resources
268 (x-axis: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and y-axis: $\delta^{15}\text{N}$). Each collected individual had its $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature
269 represented on the graph, while the resources were represented by the mean and standard
270 deviation.

271 The trophic position occupied by individuals of each species at each sampling point was
272 estimated using the method proposed by Vander Zanden et al. (1997): $\text{TP}_{\text{fish}} = [(\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{fish}} - \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{resources}}) \div 2.9] + 1$, where $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{fish}} = \delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of each fish individual, $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{resources}} =$ mean
273 values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of baselines (we considered CPOM and filamentous algae, since these baselines
274 represents allochthonous and autochthonous sources, respectively), 2.9 represents the fractioning
275 per trophic level according to McCutchan et al., (2003) (muscle tissue $\Delta^{15}\text{N}$: 15 values with an
276 average of $2.9 \pm 0.32\text{‰}$) and 1 is the position of producers within the food chain.

277
278 At each sampling site, and for the entire basin, the isotopic niches occupied by of native and
279 non-native fish species sets were estimated using the SIBER package (SEA, SEAc, and SEAb –
280 expressed in ‰^2). The standard ellipse area (SEA) represents the central isotopic niche space and
281 is a proxy for the richness and uniformity of resources consumed by the population (Bearhop et
282 al., 2004). Small sample size correction (indicated by the letter “c”) was applied to SEA to
283 increase the precision of comparisons, allowing the comparison of niche widths in communities
284 with different sample sizes. Bayesian estimates of SEAb (bootstrapped $n = 10000$ – indicated by

285 the letter “b”) were generated to test significant differences in the width of the isotopic niche of
286 native and non-native fish species, comparing their confidence intervals (Jackson et al., 2011).
287 Additionally, using the same package (SIBER), the degree of niche overlap (expressed in
288 percentage, where 100% indicates complete overlap) was estimated, representing a quantitative
289 measure of dietary similarity between native and non-native species sets.

290 The primary sources of carbon supporting fish communities at each site sampled along the
291 Doce River were inferred through a visual assessment of the similarities between the isotopic
292 compositions of the fish and their resources (i.e., fish exhibit ^{13}C isotopic compositions similar to
293 those of the resources they consume). We did not employ mixing model analysis, such as
294 MixSIAR (Stock & Semmens, 2016), because we found that the assumptions required by mixing
295 models to determine consumers' diets were not met at all sites, i.e., the isotope values of
296 consumers did not fall within the resource polygon (Phillips et al., 2014).

297 The sampled points are located in different regions of the river, where the richness and
298 composition of fish fauna are expected to be naturally different. Thus, we focused on compare
299 among least and most disturbed point local differences in attributes of the native and non-native
300 species pools. The percentage of non-native species in the fish assemblage was compared between
301 least disturbed and most disturbed points using the Kruskal-Wallis test. The difference between
302 the trophic position width of the pool of native and non-native species ($\Delta \text{TP native} - \Delta \text{TP non-}$
303 native) was compared between least disturbed and most disturbed points using the T test. The
304 relationship between the percentage of non-native species and niche overlap between native and
305 non-native fish assemblages was tested through simple linear regression. The difference between
306 the width of resources used by the pool of native and non-native species ($\Delta^{13}\text{C native} - \Delta^{13}\text{C non-}$
307 native) was compared between least disturbed and most disturbed points using the Kruskal-Wallis
308 test. All the statistical analyses were performed in RStudio 1.3.959 (R Core Team, 2021).

309 **Results**

310 Out of the 54 species collected, 36 were native to the Rio Doce basin, whereas 18 were non-
311 native (Table 2). The least disturbed points L1 and L2 had a higher percentage of native species
312 compared to non-native ones, with L2 (Santo Antônio River) having the highest relative richness
313 of native species (94.1%). Among the most disturbed points, the proportion of non-native species
314 ranged from 37% to 47%, significantly higher than in the least disturbed points (KW = 5.01; p =
315 0.03). Among the native species, *Astyanax lacustris* (Lütken 1875) was the most widely
316 distributed, being present in all sampling points. On the other hand, among the non-native species,
317 *Knodus moenkhausii* (Eigenmann & Kennedy 1903) was the most widely distributed, found in
318 seven out of the eight sampled points (Table 2).

319 For most of the sites, a significant isotopic similarity was observed between individuals of
320 native and non-native species. At the least disturbed sites, primarily aquatic invertebrates, but also
321 periphyton and filamentous algae, appear to be the most consumed resources by both native and
322 non-native species (Fig 2; Online Resource 1). These resources also appear to be the most relevant
323 at the most disturbed sites. However, in some points (M1, M2, and M3), non-native species
324 appeared to be exploiting not sampled more enriched ^{13}C sources (Fig. 2).

325 The estimated trophic positions occupied by each fish species reveal that non-native species
326 occupy positions from the basal to the top of the food web (Fig.3, Online Resource 2, 3). Among
327 them, *Poecilia reticulata* and *Pterigoplichthys pardalis* exhibited the lowest trophic levels, while
328 *Cichla kelberi* and *Crenicichla lepidota* exhibited the highest (Table 3). Moreover, similarly to
329 native species, most non-native species predominantly occupy intermediate trophic positions (TP
330 between 2 and 4) (Fig. 3). However, locally, native species occupied a broader range of trophic
331 levels at all sites (Fig. 4A). The greater diversity of trophic levels of native species was more
332 pronounced at some least disturbed sites (L1 and L2), but the differences in the range of trophic
333 levels between the native and non-native species pools, across most disturbed and least disturbed
334 sites, were not significant ($F = 4.18$; $P = 0.09$).

335 The niche overlap between non-native and native species was directly related to the
336 percentage of non-native species in the assemblage ($r^2 = 0.71$; $p = 0.02$) (Fig. 5; Table 4).
337 Moreover, for the entire basin, the set of non-native species ($\text{SEAc} = 24.20\% \text{‰}^2$) explores a wider
338 isotopic niche than native species ($\text{SEAc} = 18.87\% \text{‰}^2$) (Fig. 6; Table 4). Such a difference is due
339 to the exploration of a broader range of ^{13}C sources by the non-native species (Fig. 6).
340 Nevertheless, the difference between the breadth of resources used by the pool of native and non-
341 native species ($\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ native - $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$ non-native) when compared between the least disturbed and
342 most disturbed points was not significant ($\text{KW} = 2.69$; $p = 0.10$). However, only at some of the
343 most disturbed sites (i.e. M4 and M5) does the range of carbon signatures of the pool of non-
344 native species exceed that of the pool of native species, and the closer to the dam rupture region
345 (i.e. M1, M2 and M3), the greater the difference in favor of non-native species (Fig. 4B, Online
346 Resource 4).

347

348 **Discussion**

349

350 The main hypothesis of our study was supported, since non-native fish fauna currently
351 occupies a considerable portion of the isotopic niches in the Doce River basin, and their
352 establishment seems to have been favored both by "vacant" niche positions and by the reduction
353 of native species populations. Non-native species pool presented an isotopic niche wider to that
354 of the native assembly, occupying all trophic levels. Most predictions were also confirmed. The

355 historically most impacted points in the basin, which also received the tailings from the dam
356 breach, presented a higher percentage of non-native species. The higher this percentage, the
357 greater the observed isotopic overlap with native species. Non-native species occupied 'vacant'
358 isotopic niches in most disturbed regions, represented by more enriched $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signatures.
359 However, locally, their range of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ compared to native species was not different among least
360 and most disturbed sites.

361 Introduced species often exhibit greater success in invading degraded environments
362 (Hermoso et al., 2011; de Carvalho et al., 2017; de Moraes et al., 2017). In fact, the Doce is among
363 the southeastern Brazilian basins with the highest number of invasive fish species (Bueno et al.,
364 2021). Dominance of non-native species and high abundance of hyper-tolerant species were
365 observed in the Guadiamar River (Spain), affected by the dam breach at the Los Frailes mine in
366 1998 (De Miguel et al., 2014). Phenotypic plasticity of non-native species has been considered as
367 a key trait for invasion success, allowing them to establish in habitats distinct from their place of
368 origin (Kaymak et al., 2023). Such seems to be the case of *Knodus moenkhausii*, which was
369 captured in most locations in the Rio Doce basin, and for which opportunistic feeding behavior
370 and high trophic plasticity has already been reported (de Carvalho et al., 2019b).

371 The patterns of isotopic niche occupation observed for the fish fauna of the Doce River basin
372 suggest that its historical degradation process, exacerbated by the tailings dam rupture, may have
373 favored invasion processes through both local species extinction and the weakening of local
374 communities. The broader $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature range of non-native species is a strong indication that
375 there are resources exclusively consumed by some of these species. Thus, it is possible that non-
376 native species has occupied "niche opportunities" provided by human-created environmental
377 conditions, as proposed by the biotic resistance hypothesis (Olden et al., 2006). Moreover, the
378 closer to the rupture area, the greater the difference in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signature amplitude in favor of non-
379 native species. However, both the removal of species from a community and the removal of
380 resources seem to have similar effects on increasing invasion success (Byers & Noonburg, 2003).
381 The high overlap between the two groups of species at all evaluated points, coupled with the fact
382 that non-native species occupy all trophic levels of the food web, suggests the utilization of the
383 same trophic resources with significant potential for competition with non-native species.

384 Competition with native species has been widely reported in the literature (Pilger et al., 2010;
385 Lima & Chagas, 2019; Britton, 2022), and is likely to be particularly important in a basin with a
386 high degree of degradation. The tailings released by the dam breach in Mariana, for example,
387 could potentially have reduced the input of locally important energy sources, such as periphyton
388 and filamentous algae (Brasil, 2015), both by siltation and increased turbidity. The importance of
389 these items as autochthonous primary producers that sustain fish assemblages has also been
390 reported for rivers with different conservation status, draining the southeastern Brazil (de
391 Carvalho et al., 2020; 2023). This recent impact has also accrued the historical degradation of

392 riparian forests in the basin and its negative impacts on the input of allochthonous energy sources
393 (Coelho, 2009).

394 Predation by non-native species is another crucial factor in modifying the trophic structure
395 (Pelicice & Agostinho, 2009; de Souza et al., 2021), often leading to cascading effects. In this
396 study, we recorded 15 piscivorous species (27.7% of the total richness) in the Doce River basin,
397 including six non-natives (*Cichla kelberi*, *Cichla monoculus*, *Lophiosilurus alexandri*,
398 *Pygocentrus nattereri*, *Salminus brasiliensis* e *Serrasalmus brandtii*). These non-native
399 piscivorous are reported to negatively impact original native communities, causing caudal fin
400 mutilation (Andrade et al., 2018) and even local extinctions (Vitule et al. 2009; Brito et al., 2020;
401 de Souza et al., 2021), raising concerns about the potential intensification of competitive
402 exclusion (Pompeu & Lima Godinho, 2001; Britton et al., 2019; Mofu et al., 2019). Therefore, it
403 is likely that non-native species are not only a consequence but also a cause of the simplified
404 trophic structure in the most disturbed points, as indicated by previous studies (de Carvalho et al.,
405 2023).

406 Our experimental design has a hierarchical structure, since most disturbed sites are located in
407 the main channel, and the least disturbed (control sites) in tributaries. We sought to control the
408 known effects of the hierarchical structure of river networks on biodiversity distribution, by
409 comparing only local differences in trophic attributes of the pool of native and non-native species.
410 Nevertheless, the causal relationship between the effects of the dam breach and the results of the
411 comparison between least and most disturbed impacted sites should be addressed with caution.
412 Especially important is to consider that of the three least disturbed sites, only one can be
413 considered a true reference regarding the history of basin degradation. The Santo Antônio River
414 (L2), in its upper stretch, has high richness and harbors most of the threatened and endemic
415 species of the Doce River Basin (Vieira, 2006). This river not only had the lowest percentage of
416 non-native species but also is the one where these species consume the least variety of resources.
417 On the other hand, the other two least disturbed sites, for some of the parameters evaluated,
418 showed values comparable to the most disturbed sites. While the Piranga River (L1) receives a
419 significant load of domestic and pig farming sewage (De Melo et al., 2017), the Manhuaçu River
420 (L3) has several dams along its course, besides flowing into the reduced flow section of the
421 Aimorés Hydroelectric Plant (Marques et al., 2013). Thus, in addition to pointing out possible
422 effects of the rupture of the tailings dam, our results also indicate that the current invasion status
423 is also the result of the historical degradation process of the basin.

424

425 **Conclusion**

426 Despite the well-known presence of non-native species in the Rio Doce basin (Alves et al.,
427 1999; Barros et al., 2012; Jankowsky et al., 2021), our results point to the potential impact of this
428 biological invasion process on the use of available trophic resources. Both local extinctions and

429 the weakening of the community through the change and reduction of resources may have favored
430 their success, especially in the more degraded areas of the basin. In these points, non-native
431 species not only overlap with the isotopic niches of native species and occupy the same trophic
432 levels, but also explore resources that are not currently utilized by the pool of native species.
433 Therefore, considering the impacts of the Fundão tailings dam disaster, along with the long history
434 of degradation and species introductions in the Rio Doce basin, our results emphasize the urgent
435 need for population control strategies for non-native species to preserve the integrity and
436 conservation of the native fish community in the basin.

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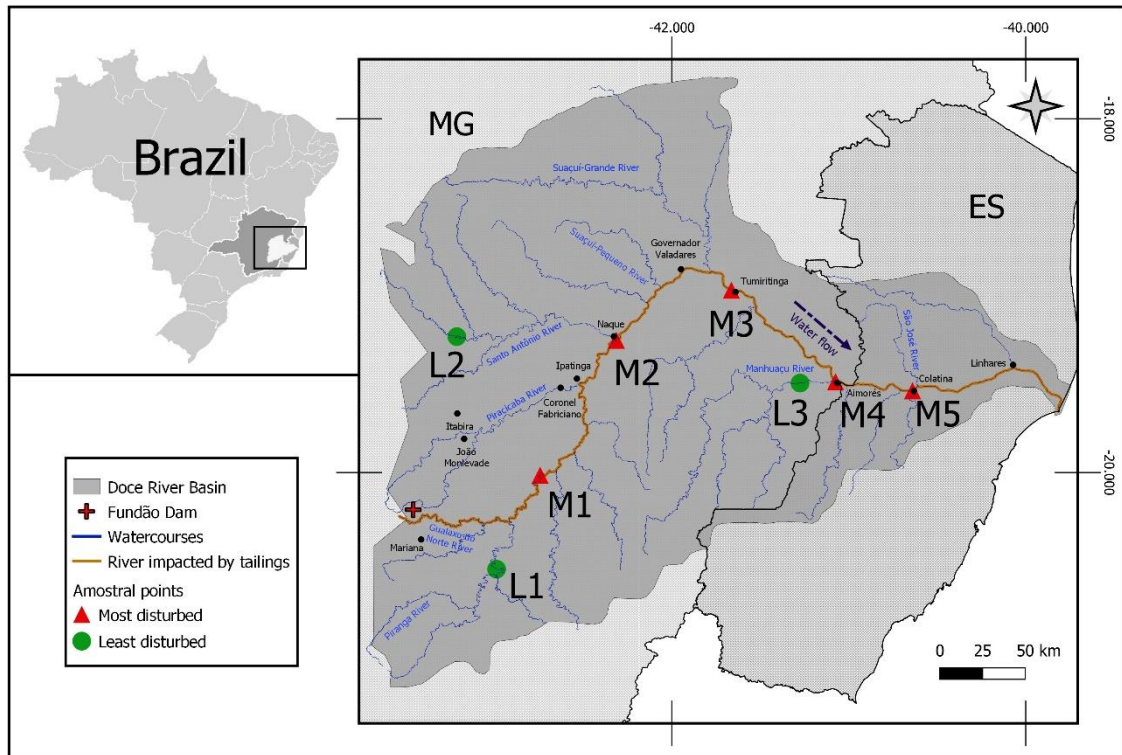
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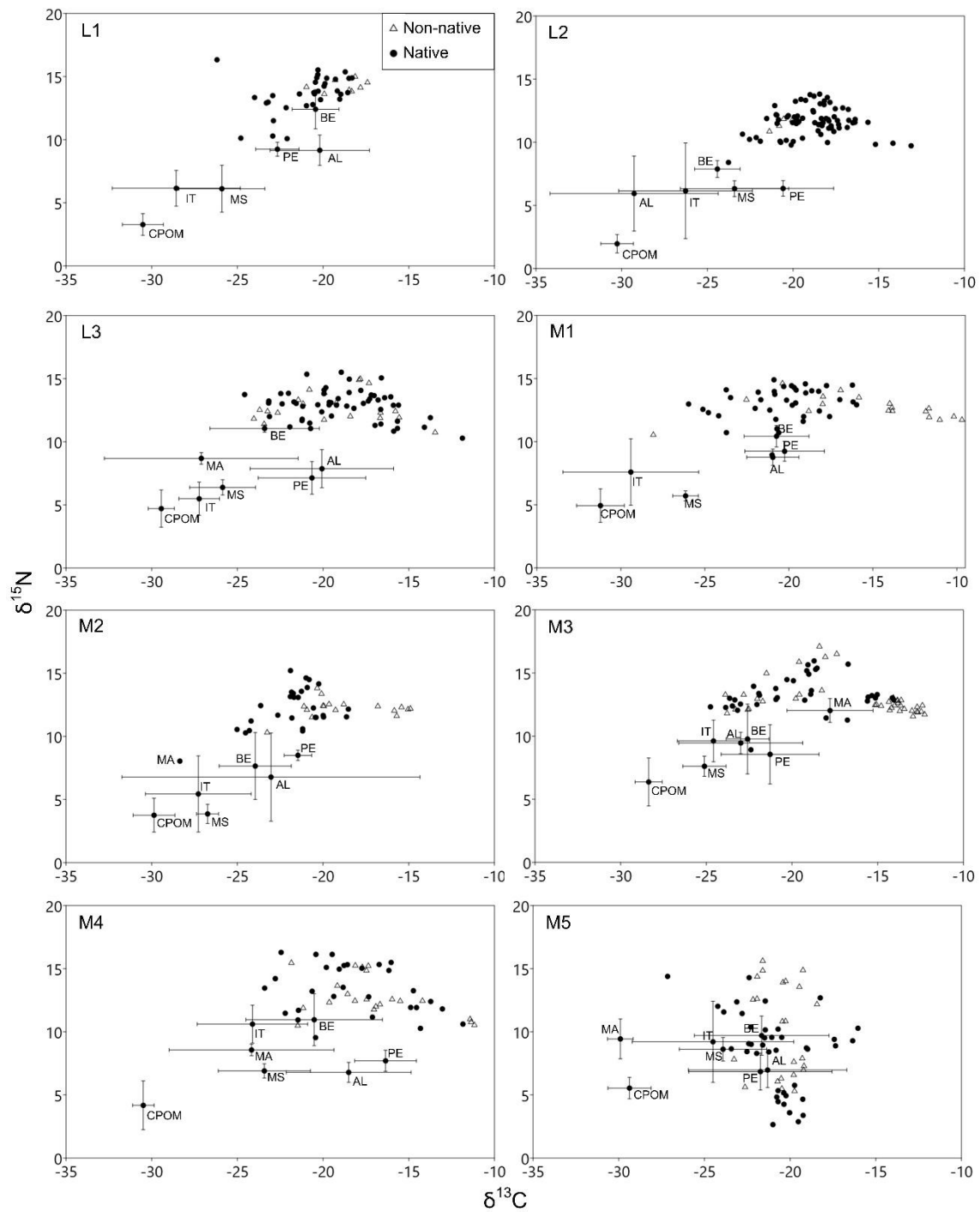


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694 **Fig. 1** Least disturbed points (L1 to L3) and most impacted points (M1 to M5) sampled along the
 695 Doce River basin. MG = Minas Gerais. ES = Espírito Santo. L1 = Piranga River; L2 = Santo
 696 Antônio River; L3 = Manhuaçu River; M1 = Doce River (UHE Risoleta Neves); M2 = Doce
 697 River (Naque); M3 = Doce River (Tumiritinga); M4 = Doce River (Aimorés); M5 = Doce River
 698 (Colatina)

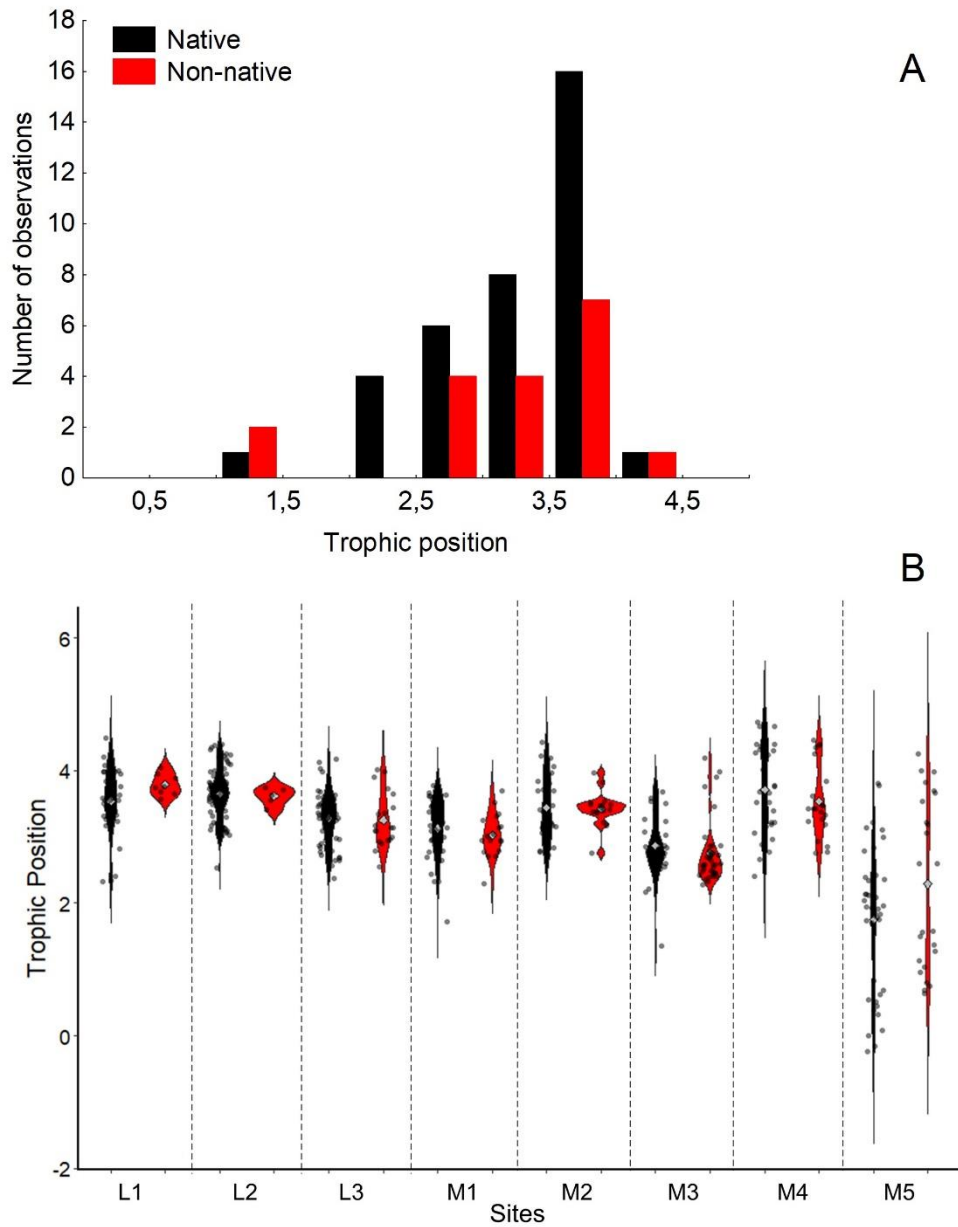
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702 **Fig. 2** The trophic structure (represented by the bi-plot graph) of the fish community from the
 703 eight sampled points in the Rio Doce basin. Least disturbed sites: L1 = Piranga River; L2 = Santo
 704 Antônio River; L3 = Manhuaçu River. Most disturbed sites: M1 = Doce River (Risoleta Neves
 705 Dam); M2 = Doce River (Naque); M3 = Doce River (Tumiritinga); M4 = Doce River (Aimorés);
 706 M5 = Doce River (Colatina); AL = Filamentous algae; BE = Aquatic invertebrates; CPOM =
 707 Coarse particulate organic matter; IT = Terrestrial invertebrates; MA = Aquatic macrophytes; MS
 708 = Suspended matter; PE = Periphyton.



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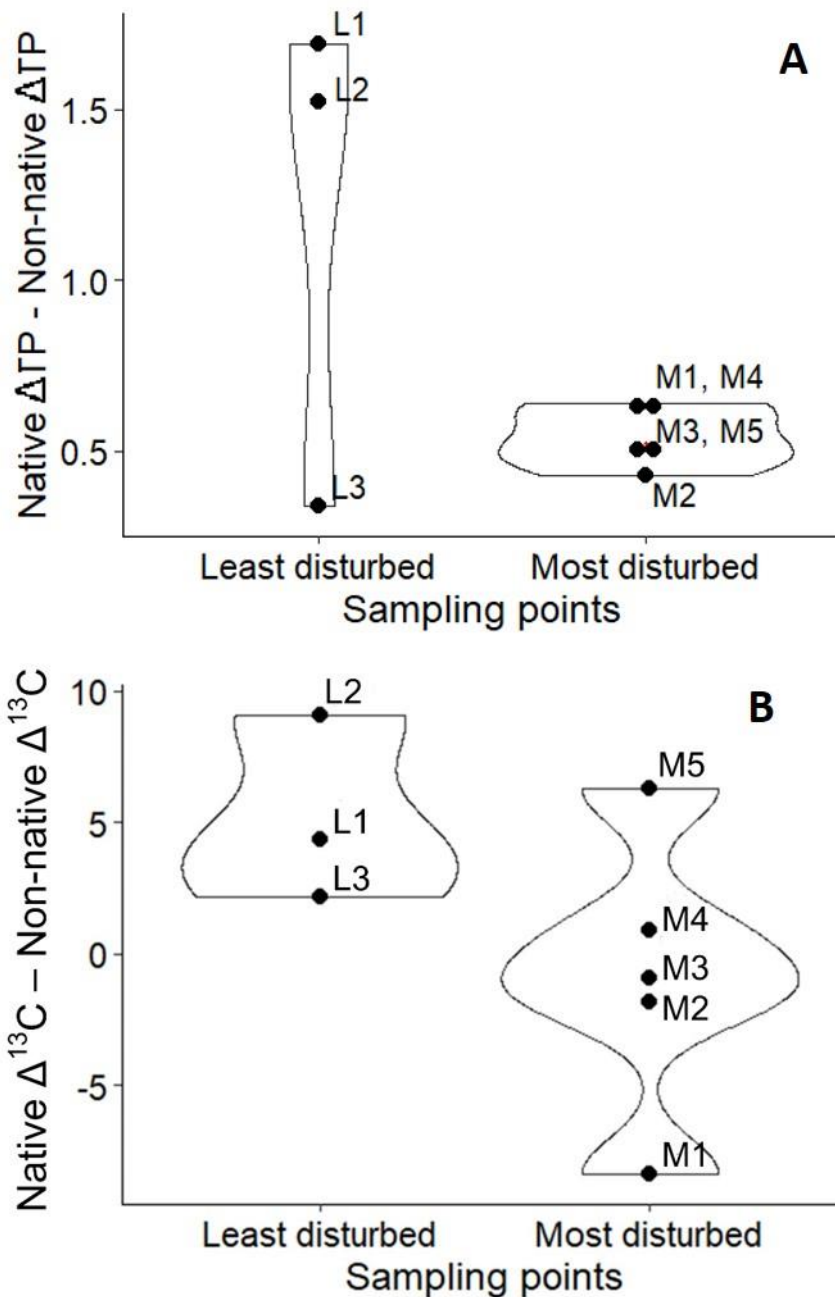
711 **Fig. 3** Trophic position occupied by native and non-native species in the Rio Doce considering

712 all sampling points together (A) and separately (B). L1 = Rio Piranga; L2 = Rio Santo Antônio;

713 L3 = Rio Manhuaçu; M1 = Rio Doce (UHE Risoleta Neves); M2 = Rio Doce (Naque); M3 = Rio

714 Doce (Tumiritinga); M4 = Rio Doce (Aimorés); and M5 = Rio Doce (Colatina).

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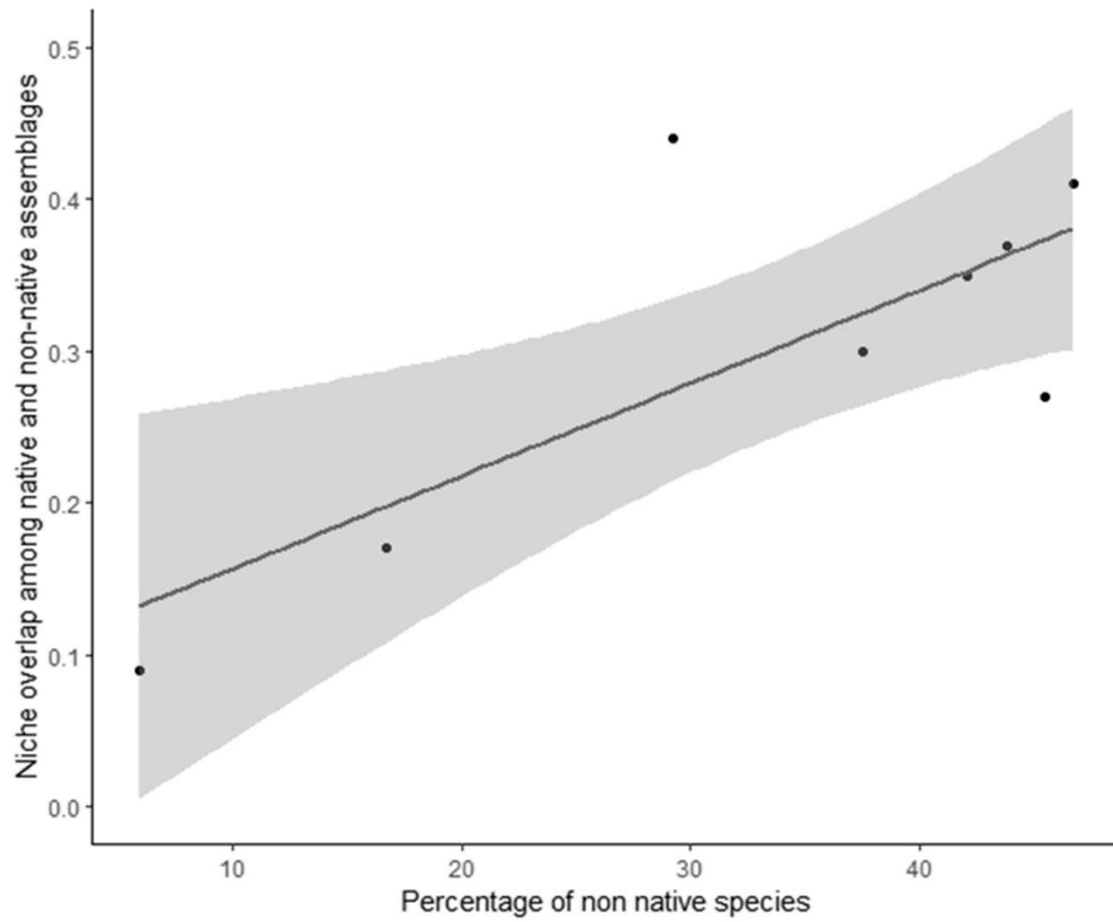


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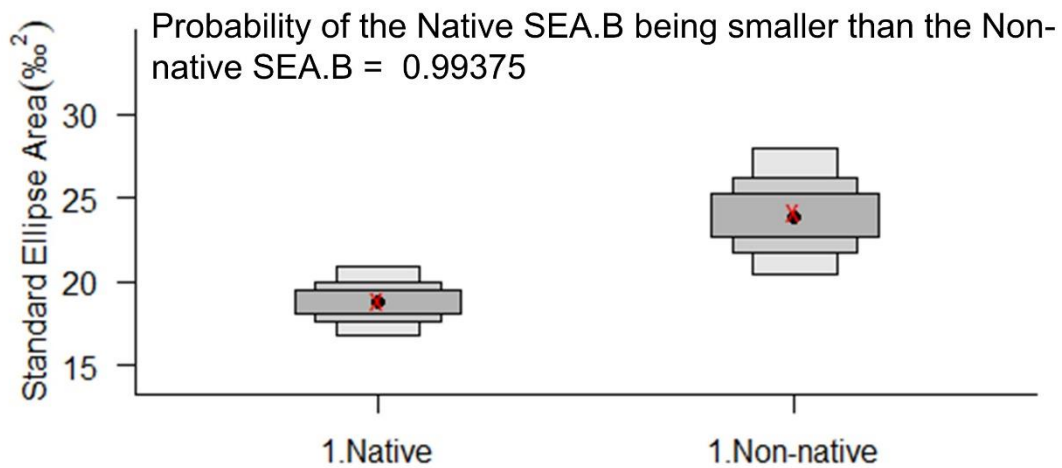
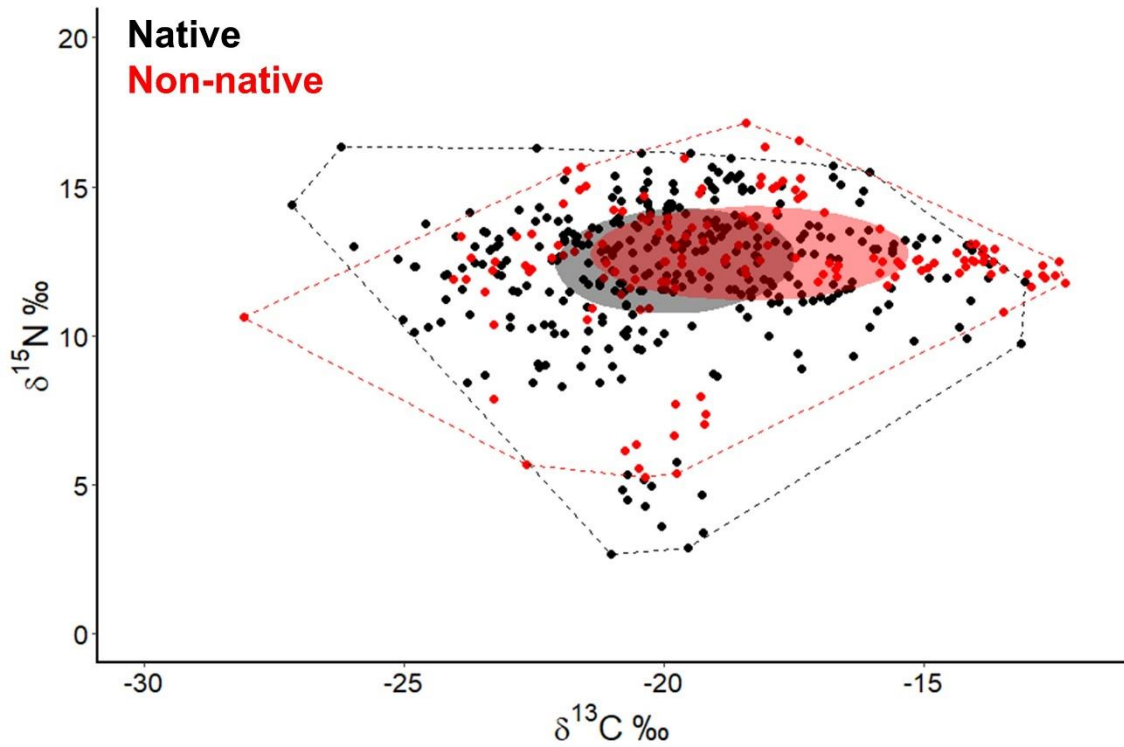
718 **Fig. 4** Difference between the trophic position width of the pool of native and non-native species
 719 (ΔTP native – ΔTP non-native) (A), and difference between the width of resources used by the
 720 pool of native and non-native species ($\Delta^{13}C$ native - $\Delta^{13}C$ non-native) (B), in least disturbed and
 721 most disturbed points. L1 = Rio Piranga; L2 = Rio Santo Antônio; L3 = Rio Manhuaçu; M1 =
 722 Rio Doce (UHE Risoleta Neves); M2 = Rio Doce (Naque); M3 = Rio Doce (Tumiritinga); M4 =
 723 Rio Doce (Aimorés); and M5 = Rio Doce (Colatina)

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Fig. 5 Relationship between the percentage of non-native species in the assemblages and the overlap of isotopic niches between native and non-native species in the Rio Doce basin.



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732 **Fig. 6** Ellipses (standard ellipse area - SEA, in ‰²) calculated using a 40% confidence interval

733 representing the isotopic niche of the native and non-native fish community considering all

734 sampled points together

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737 **Table 1** Geographic locations of the eight sampled points in the Doce River basin

Region	Point	Condition	Drainage	State	UTM	Coord. (E)	Coord. (S)
Upper	L1	Least disturbed	Piranga River	MG	23K	709518	7726784
Middle	L2	Least disturbed	Santo Antônio River	MG	23K	687610	7872625
Lower	L3	Least disturbed	Manhuaçu River	MG	24K	261172	7842938
Upper	M1	Most disturbed	Gualaxo do Norte River	MG	23K	688284	7754717
Middle	M2	Most disturbed	Doce River	MG	23K	782354	7869156
Middle	M3	Most disturbed	Doce River	MG	24K	219512	7900508
Lower	M4	Most disturbed	Doce River	MG	24K	282205	7844032
Lower	M5	Most disturbed	Doce River	ES	24K	327949	7838898

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740 **Table 2** Number of samples isotopically analyzed for each native and non-native fish species at
 741 the sampled points in the Rio Doce basin. L1=Rio Piranga; L2=Rio Santo Antônio; L3=Rio
 742 Manhuaçu; M1= Rio Doce (UHE Risoleta Neves); M2=Rio Doce (Naque); M3=Rio Doce
 743 (Tumiritinga); M4=Rio Doce (Aimorés); M5=Rio Doce (Colatina). Non-native species list was
 744 based on Bueno et al. 2021

Species	L1	L2	L3	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	Total
Native	32	71	53	38	27	36	29	40	326
<i>Astyanax lacustris</i> (Lütken 1875)	3	4	10	8	6	13	7	7	58
<i>Awaous tajasica</i> (Lichtenstein 1822)								3	3
<i>Brycon dulcis</i> Lima & Vieira 2017				1					1
<i>Brycon opalinus</i> (Cuvier 1819)		6							6
<i>Characidium timbuiense</i> Travassos 1946		3							3
<i>Crenicichla lacustris</i> (Castelnau 1855)			2						2
<i>Cyphocharax gilbert</i> (Quoy & Gaimard 1824)				1					1
<i>Delturus carinotus</i> (LaMonte 1933)	1	3	4						8
<i>Deuterodon cf. intermedius</i>			5		5				10
<i>Deuterodon intermedius</i> (Eigenmann 1908)			2						2
<i>Eleotris pisonis</i> (Gmelin 1789)								1	1
<i>Geophagus aff. brasiliensis</i> (Quoy & Gaimard 1824)	6	4	5	4		8		5	32
<i>Geophagus</i> sp.		7	5	2					14
<i>Henochilus wheatlandii</i> Garman 1890		5							5
<i>Hoplias intermedius</i> (Günther 1864)		2	3	6	4	2	6		23
<i>Hypomasticus copelandii</i> (Steindachner 1875)		1	1						2
<i>Hypostomus affinis</i> (Steindachner 1877)	4							6	10
<i>Hypostomus luetkeni</i> (Steindachner 1877)	3	5	2			2	1		13
<i>Loricariichthys castaneus</i> Castelnau 1855)			2		4				6
<i>Megaleporinus conirostris</i> (Steindachner 1875)	2		4			1	1	2	10
<i>Microphis lineatus</i> (Kaup 1856)								5	5
<i>Oligosarcus acutirostris</i> Menezes 1990					3	7	7		17
<i>Oligosarcus argenteus</i> Günther 1864	7	4	1	6	5	1			24
<i>Oligosarcus solitarius</i> Menezes 1990		3							3
<i>Pachyurus adspersus</i> Steindachner 1879	4	8				1		2	15
<i>Parotocinclus doceanus</i> (Miranda Ribeiro 1918)			1	3					4
<i>Parotocinclus</i> sp.		5	1					2	8

Species	L1	L2	L3	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	Total
<i>Poecilia vivipara</i> Bloch & Schneider 1801			3				4	5	12
<i>Prochilodus vimboides</i> Kner 1859				5		1			6
<i>Psalidodon</i> aff. <i>fasciatus</i> (Cuvier 1819)	1								1
<i>Psalidodon</i> sp.		5							5
<i>Rhamdia quelen</i> (Quoy & Gaimard 1824)	1								1
<i>Serrapinnus heterodon</i> (Eigenmann 1915)				2					2
<i>Synbranchus marmoratus</i> Bloch 1795							2	2	4
<i>Trachelyopterus striatulus</i> (Steindachner 1877)			2				1		3
<i>Trichomycterus</i> aff. <i>alternatus</i> (Eigenmann 1917)		6							6
Non-native	8	5	20	18	17	39	21	24	152
<i>Cichla kelberi</i> Kullander & Ferreira 2006			3						3
<i>Cichla monoculus</i> Spix & Agassiz 1831			1						1
<i>Clarias gariepinus</i> (Burchell 1822)			1	1					2
<i>Coptodon rendalli</i> (Boulenger 1897)			1	5		11			17
<i>Saxatilia lepidota</i> (Heckel 1840)							6	1	7
<i>Gymnotus sylvius</i> Albert & Fernandes-Matioli 1999	3		3	1			2	2	11
<i>Hoplosternum littorale</i> (Hancock 1828)			6	1					7
<i>Knodus moenkhausii</i> (Eigenmann & Kennedy 1903)	5	5	5	5	5	5	5		35
<i>Lophiosilurus alexandri</i> Steindachner 1876						1			1
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> (Linnaeus 1758)				5	6	13	5	5	34
<i>Pimelodus maculatus</i> Lacepède 1803					2		1	2	5
<i>Poecilia reticulata</i> Peters 1859							1	5	6
<i>Prochilodus argenteus</i> Spix & Agassiz 1829							1		1
<i>Prochilodus costatus</i> Valenciennes 1850					3	5			8
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i> (Castelnau 1855)								2	2
<i>Pygocentrus nattereri</i> Kner 1858						3		6	9
<i>Salminus brasiliensis</i> (Cuvier 1816)					1	1			2
<i>Serrasalmus brandtii</i> Lütken 1875								1	1
Total number of samples	40	76	73	56	44	75	50	64	478
Total richness	12	17	24	16	11	16	15	19	54
Relative richness – Native (%)	83.3	94.1	70.8	62.5	54.5	56.3	53.3	57.9	66.7
Relative richness – Non-native (%)	16.7	5.9	29.2	37.5	45.5	43.8	46.7	42.1	33.3

746 **Table 3** Estimates of the trophic positions (mean) occupied by native and non-native fish in the
 747 Rio Doce basin at each sampling point. L1 = Rio Piranga; L2 = Rio Santo Antônio; L3 = Rio
 748 Manhuaçu; M1 = Rio Doce (UHE Risoleta Neves); M2 = Rio Doce (Naque); M3 = Rio Doce
 749 (Tumiritinga); M4 = Rio Doce (Aimorés); and M5 = Rio Doce (Colatina)

Sites	L1	L2	L3	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	Mean TP species
Native									
<i>Astyanax lacustris</i>	2.36	3.00	3.17	2.94	2.96	2.58	3.49	2.65	2.91
<i>Awaous tajasica</i>								2.01	2.01
<i>Brycon dulcis</i>				3.11					3.11
<i>Brycon opalinus</i>		3.14							3.14
<i>Characidium timbuiense</i>		3.79							3.79
<i>Crenicichla lacustris</i>			3.63						3.63
<i>Cyphocharax gilbert</i>				2.79					2.79
<i>Delturus carinotus</i>	3.98	4.00	3.54						3.77
<i>Deuterodon cf. intermedius</i>			3.43		3.21				3.32
<i>Deuterodon intermedius</i>			3.68						3.68
<i>Eleotris pisonis</i>								2.14	2.14
<i>Geophagus aff. brasiliensis</i>	3.58	3.62	2.84	3.15		2.79		0.55	2.74
<i>Geophagus santosi</i>		3.72	3.37	3.18					3.52
<i>Henochilus wheatlandii</i>		3.16							3.16
<i>Hoplias intermedius</i>		4.36	3.22	3.37	3.72	2.90	3.65		3.53
<i>Hypomasticus copelandii</i>		3.70	3.34						3.52
<i>Hypostomus affinis</i>	3.69							1.08	2.13
<i>Hypostomus luetkeni</i>	3.98	3.68	3.42			3.54	3.68		3.69
<i>Loricariichthys castaneus</i>			3.03		3.07				3.05
<i>Megaleporinus conirostris</i>	3.24		3.54			2.89	4.32	2.47	3.28
<i>Microphis lineatus</i>								1.28	1.28
<i>Oligosarcus acutirostris</i>					4.28	3.28	4.34		3.89
<i>Oligosarcus argenteus</i>	3.58	3.99	4.02	3.27	3.84	3.41			3.63
<i>Oligosarcus solitarius</i>		4.30							4.30
<i>Pachyurus adpersus</i>	4.05	3.82				2.77		2.10	3.59
<i>Parotocinclus doceanus</i>			2.69	3.41					3.23
<i>Parotocinclus sp.</i>		3.53	2.84					2.53	3.20
<i>Poecilia vivipara</i>			2.93				3.01	1.99	2.56
<i>Prochilodus vimboides</i>				2.62		2.50			2.60
<i>Psalidodon aff. fasciatus</i>	2.82								2.82
<i>Psalidodon sp.</i>		3.71							3.71
<i>Rhamdia quelen</i>	3.59								3.59
<i>Serrapinnus heterodon</i>				3.68					3.68
<i>Synbranchus marmoratus</i>							3.05	1.74	2.40
<i>Trachelyopterus striatulus</i>			3.32				4.73		3.79
<i>Trichomycterus aff. alternatus</i>		3.61							3.61
Non-native	3.79	3.61	3.26	3.03	3.43	2.75	3.53	2.29	3.04
<i>Cichla kelberi</i>			3.97						3.97

Sites	L1	L2	L3	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	Mean TP species
<i>Cichla monoculus</i>			3.72						3.72
<i>Clarias gariepinus</i>			3.64	3.13					3.39
<i>Coptodon rendalli</i>			2.56	3.00		2.64			2.74
<i>Crenicichla lepidota</i>							4.11	3.82	4.07
<i>Gymnotus sylvius</i>	3.76		3.20	3.26			3.31	2.60	3.27
<i>Hoplosternum littorale</i>			3.03	2.29					2.93
<i>Knodus moenkhausii</i>	3.80	3.61	3.10	3.36	3.42	2.87	3.39		3.37
<i>Lophiosilurus alexandri</i>						3.77			3.77
<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i>				2.80	3.38	2.47	3.03	1.37	2.60
<i>Pimelodus maculatus</i>					3.89		4.46	3.20	3.73
<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>							2.75	0.82	1.14
<i>Prochilodus argenteus</i>							3.61		3.61
<i>Prochilodus costatus</i>					3.21	2.49			2.76
<i>Pterygoplichthys pardalis</i>								1.18	1.18
<i>Pygocentrus nattereri</i>						4.02		3.75	3.84
<i>Salminus brasiliensis</i>					3.47	3.46			3.47
<i>Serrasalmus brandtii</i>								3.69	3.69
Mean TP site	3.59	3.64	3.27	3.10	3.44	2.81	3.64	1.95	3.14

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752 **Table 4** Comparison between the isotopic niche size of native and non-native species, and their
 753 respective overlaps in all sampled points in the Rio Doce River. L1 = Rio Piranga; L2 = Rio Santo
 754 Antônio; L3 = Rio Manhuaçu; M1 = Rio Doce (UHE Risoleta Neves); M2 = Rio Doce (Naque);
 755 M3 = Rio Doce (Tumiritinga); M4 = Rio Doce (Aimorés); and M5 = Rio Doce (Colatina)

	L1	L2	L3	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5
Probability of the Native SEA being smaller than the Non-native SEA	0.00	0.00	0.76	0.91	0.28	0.81	0.15	0.11
Overlap SEA Native with SEA Non-native	0.21	0.10	0.98	0.75	0.50	0.82	0.71	0.61
Overlap SEA Non-native with SEA Native	0.97	1.00	0.80	0.50	0.59	0.68	0.95	0.83
Overlap with each other	0.17	0.09	0.44	0.30	0.27	0.37	0.41	0.35

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