



Tilapia venturing into high-salinity environments: A cause for concern?

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Abstract Invasive species are continuously introduced in several ecosystems from human activities. Aquaculture activities are noteworthy among the many different species introduction vectors currently in place, generating a pattern of constant, frequent or massive release of propagules into aquatic ecosystems, increasing species establishment success rates. Reported cases in marine or brackish

ecosystems, however, are still scarce. As aquaculture constantly generate propagules with the ability to employ these facilities as corridors to further spread to interconnected brackish and freshwater ecosystems, colonising high salinity systems, this study aimed to compile evidence of Tilapiines detected in Brazilian coastal marine and brackish ecosystems. Nineteen records were obtained, with the presence of this invader suggested as higher following rainfall

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seasons. The widespread distribution of Tilapiines is relatively well-known in Brazilian freshwater ecosystems but, up to now, its potential to use brackish and marine ecosystems as ecological corridors has been described only experimentally. Our findings highlight the potential for a typically freshwater invader to spread through marine ecosystems, raising concerns regarding the licensing of aquaculture projects within rivers and estuaries, as tilapia may significantly affect native Brazilian biota.

Keywords Cichlid · Estuaries · Invasiveness · Invasive species · Tilapiine

Introduction

Invasive species are recognised as one of the leading causes of biodiversity and ecosystem services losses (Cucherousset and Olden 2011; Bellard et al. 2022; Hogue and Breon 2022). These impacts are often closely associated with other human stressors, e.g., climate change (Fischer et al. 2021; Rahel and Olden 2008). The interactions between these events and the impacts caused by aquatic IAS are, however, still poorly understood, particularly in South America (Lowry et al. 2013). In this regard, increased establishment rates and more widespread distribution of non-native species can be expected due to climate-driven environmental changes (Rahel and Olden 2008). In this context, to better understand invasions and their effects, it is crucial to understand how these

interactions can change from simple additives to more extensive synergistic effects (Blois et al. 2013).

Economically important species, such as those employed in aquaculture, sport fisheries and stocking, exhibit distribution patterns closely related to other sources of human impacts (Leprieur et al. 2008). These activities increase local propagule pressures, consequently increasing ecosystem vulnerability to invasions at a regional level (Azevedo-Santos et al. 2011; Forneck et al. 2021). Although harbouring a lower number of non-native fish species, marine and brackish systems are often interconnected to richer freshwater ecosystems that act as propagule sources. Salinity-tolerant species (e.g., some cichlids, such as tilapias) are often introduced into freshwater systems and may survive and colonise brackish and marine ecosystems (Gutierre et al. 2014; Schofield et al. 2011).

Tilapias are representatives of the Cichlidae family, subfamily Pseudocrenilabrinae and tribe Tilapiini, which naturally occur in the African continent. They are widespread throughout Brazil, mainly in freshwater systems, in aquaculture production, representing 63.5% of all farmed fish in Brazil (Peixe 2022). Although the Brazilian government has not conducted an official fishery monitoring program since 2012, the Brazilian Fish Farming Association reports production of around 534 tons of tilapia in 2021, a 9.8% increase from 2020 (Peixe 2022). The expansion of aquaculture production based on non-native species is linked to several national regulations that aim to promote the installation of new facilities and protect those species from extermination

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(Charvet et al. 2021; Pelicice et al. 2013). These protective measures are misleading and completely disregard the numerous negative effects related to the presence of non-native tilapias in aquatic ecosystems (Occhi et al. 2021). Constant propagule pressure (*e.g.*, the number and frequency of individuals/units introduced into a new environment; *sensu* Lockwood et al. 2009) may promote adaptation to novel conditions and create new lineages with even greater invasive potential due to expanded environmental tolerance, with unknown impacts on marine ecosystems. This artificial selection pressure of non-native species is even more concerning considering the ongoing expansion of tilapia farming to brackish ecosystems (Setyawan et al. 2022). Considering the potential for adaptation to high salinity and increased distribution of tilapia species (Casemiro et al. 2018; Gutierrez et al. 2014; Schofield et al. 2011), this study describes records of tilapias found in coastal ecosystems from Brazil, also discussing the potential use of marine ecosystems as corridors for *Tilapia* dispersal.

Methods

Data regarding tilapia records in coastal marine ecosystems in Brazil were obtained from aquatic ecology experts, online databases (*e.g.*, the Information System on Brazilian Biodiversity, SiBBr) and social media platforms. The use of publicly available digital information followed the ethics of using social media by Monkman et al. (2018) and Di Minin et al. (2021). A map was built using Quantum GIS (QGIS Development Team 2023) based on the coordinates of the records gathered and also on GBIF occurrence (GBIF 2023) data for *Oreochromis niloticus* (species that accounted for most of the records) in order to provide further evidence on the potential propagule pressure on upstream basins. To characterise the abiotic conditions of the systems where the Tilapiine individuals were observed, we extracted data on salinity (minimum, mean and range) from the Bio-Oracle database (Tyberghien et al. 2012; Assis et al. 2017).

Table 1 Locations with the reported occurrence of Tilapiines in Brazilian brackish and marine ecosystems. Photographs and videos are openly available and linked below

N	Locality	Lat/Long	Data source
1	Praia Grande, Arraial do Cabo, RJ	−22.976/−42.033	YouTube video 1
2	Praia Vermelha, Rio de Janeiro, RJ	−22.955/−43.16	Figure 2D; Franco et al. (2023)
3	Praia da Vila, Saquarema, RJ	−22.934/−42.512	Figure 2A; Franco et al. (2023)
4	Praia da Reserva, Rio de Janeiro, RJ	−23.014/−43.394	Franco et al. (2023)
5	Praia de Ponta Negra, Maricá, RJ	−22.958/−42.696	Franco et al. (2023)
6	Prainha, Arraial do Cabo, RJ	−22.956/−42.022	Franco et al. (2023)
7	Jericoacoara National Park, Ceará	−2.804/−40.454	GEA 5502 ^a
8	Guanabara bay, Rio de Janeiro, RJ	−22.802/−43.133	LBP 21417 ^b
9	Itanhaém, São Paulo, SP	−24.193/−46.781	YouTube Video 2
10	São Luís, MA	−2.477/−44.235	Franco et al. (2023)
11	Rodrigo de Freitas Lagoon, Rio de Janeiro, RJ	−22.973/−43.211	Hauser-Davis et al. (2010)
12	Lençóis Maranhenses National Park, MA	−2.43629/−43.068	CIUEMA2800 ^c
13	Jacarepaguá Lagoon, Rio de Janeiro, RJ	−22.986 /−43.399	Hauser-Davis et al. (2015)
14	Jaguarema river estuary, Maranhão, MA	−2.4739/−44.21624	CIUEMA2801 ^c
15	Apodi-Mossoró river estuary, RN	−4.9387/−37.1533	UFRN3469/UFRN3632 ^d
16	Canal do Linguado, Balneário Barra do Sul, SC	−26.4569/−48.6109	Franco et al. (2023)
17	Maricá lagoon, Maricá, RJ	−22.9486/−42.8223	Franco et al. (2022)
18	Cricaré river estuary, Conceição da Barra, ES	−18.599/−39.7323	Franco et al. (2023)
19	São José lagoon, Saquarema, RJ	−22.9496/−42.8755	Franco et al. (2023)

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^dFish collection of the Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Norte

Results

A total of 19 video, photographic, museum records and personal communications from researchers (as listed in Table 1) were obtained reporting the presence of *Tilapia* in sandy beaches and coastal lagoons from northern to southeastern Brazil (Fig. 1). Two of the records were from the Arraial do Cabo municipality, located in a typical marine region with a well-studied upwelling system. Three reports indicated numerous shoals (approximately 30 individuals) at the surf-zone of sandy beaches and near docks. One of the seven records for Saquarema was an individual captured with hook and marine shrimp as bait in the surf zone (Fig. 2). Brackish and marine ecosystems where the Tilapiine individuals were recorded had minimum salinities varying from 34.5 to 36.3, mean temperatures between 21.64 and 28.04 °C and mean

dissolved oxygen between 200.64 and 231.34 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^3$ (Table 2).

Discussion

Our findings are indicative of two alternative, albeit non-mutually exclusive hypotheses, that the tilapia individuals detected in brackish and marine ecosystems are, in fact, (i) part of established populations due to chronic propagule pressure that exported individuals to these systems, or (ii) originated from acute propagule pressure from nearby aquaculture facilities, probably due to stochastic climatic events, such as tank flooding (Fig. 3; and as also described by Woodford et al. 2013). Even though we cannot discard any of these hypotheses based on our data, further genetic studies would be able to disclose the origin of the

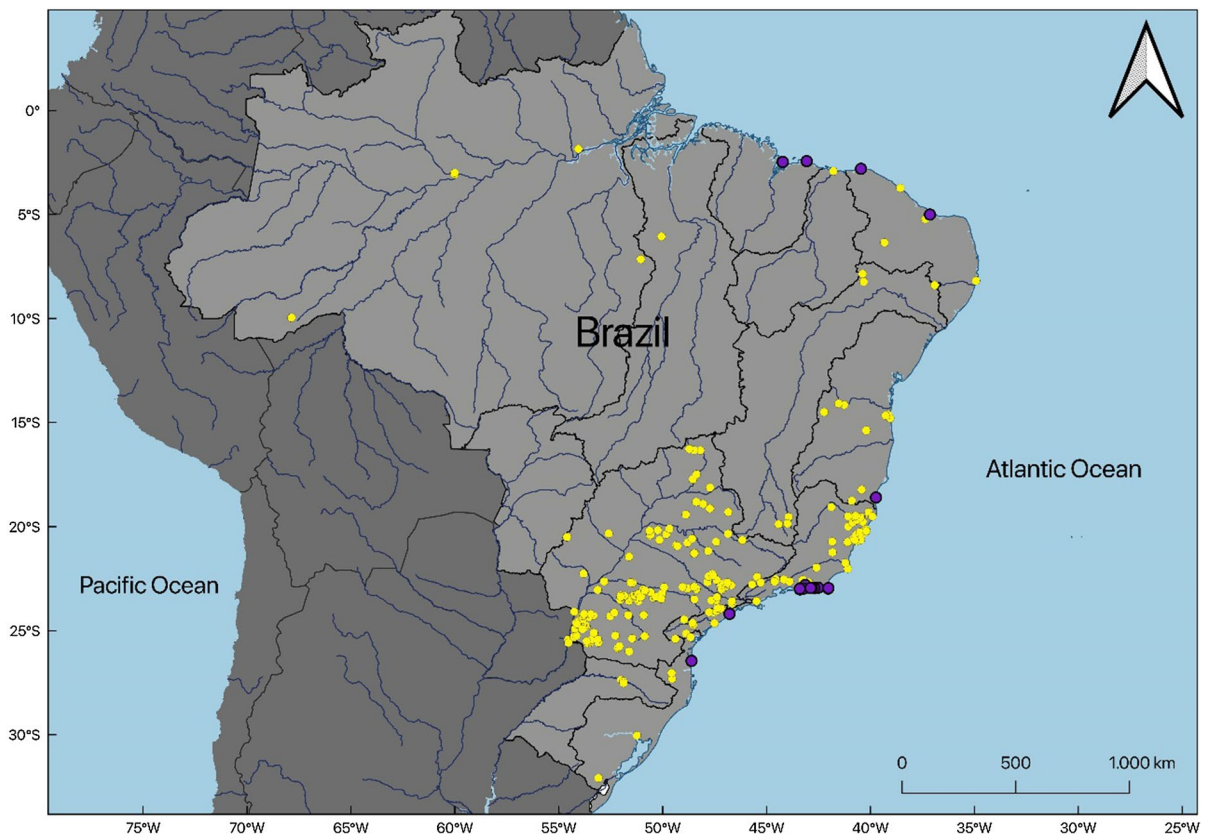


Fig. 1 Map depicting the distribution of tilapias: (i) recorded in brackish and marine environments throughout the Brazilian coast (in purple); and (ii) throughout Brazilian freshwater ecosystems according to the data available in GBIF for *Oreo-*

chromis niloticus ($N=273$ records in yellow). See Table 1 and Methods section for further details. Grey lines represent major rivers and black lines delimit Brazilian hydrographic basins

observed individuals. Nevertheless, the presence of these individuals and the new environmental licences for aquaculture in brackish waters in Brazil highlights the potential for the further spread of tilapias to marine ecosystems and also to freshwater systems interconnected to them [as described by Brown et al. (2007) for other fish species]. In fact, none of this is surprising, given that marine and freshwater ecosystems are separated in rather artificial ways and are largely connected and interdependent on each other.

Euryhaline fishes demonstrate a remarkable ability to adapt to opposing osmotic challenges, from hypoosmotic surroundings in freshwater to hyperosmotic surroundings in seawater (Laverty and Skadhauge 2012). Such facts are more acute when we know that tilapias are fish of primary marine origin, and therefore, extremely euryhaline and robust to different environmental conditions. Although the establishment of a sustainable population may be unlikely, although not impossible, in the long term, the constant propagule pressure imposed by aquaculture facilities and stocking programs creates a chronic impact due to the continuous arrival of novel individuals (Woodford et al. 2013). Studies have been demonstrating the key role played by anthropogenic

disturbances (e.g., climate change, salinisation processes, canals construction and hydrological regulation) in favouring the invasion process of non-native fish in coastal ecosystems since these systems are constantly subjected to several human activities creating acute and chronic disturbances and increasing the propagule pressure, allowing several freshwater species to establish (Woodford et al. 2013; Moyle and Stompe 2022).

Furthermore, brackish and estuarine ecosystems are already known for harbouring a large number of non-native fish species that are primarily freshwater, which colonise upper to middle portions of these systems, despite salinity conditions (Moyle and Stompe 2022). This highlights the potential use of these systems as stepping-stones or ecological corridors (or “salty bridges” sensu Gutierre et al. 2017) for further spread through other basins by species that can endure moderate to high salinities (e.g., *Pterygoplichthys*, Capps et al. 2011; swamp eels, Schofiel and Nico 2009; and also, the peacock bass *Cichla kelberi*, Catelani et al. 2021). The colonisation by a group of individuals, even though increasing through *per capita* effect, is per se a source of many negative effects through feeding and transference of parasites for

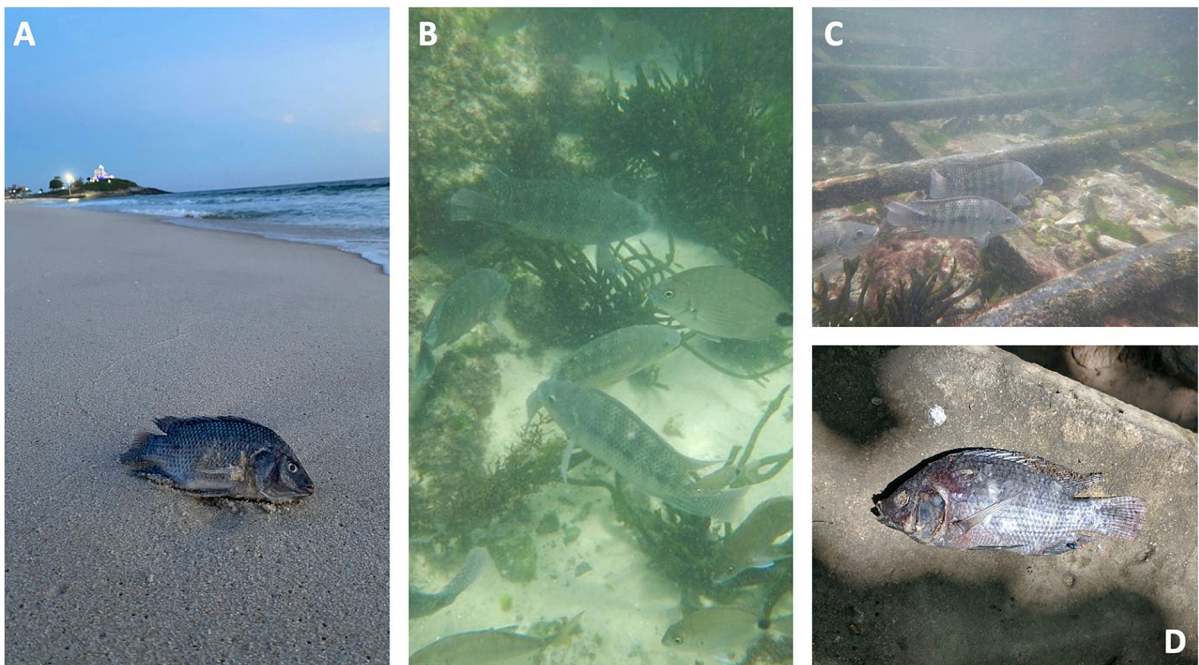


Fig. 2 Photographic records of the tilapias in: **A**—Squarema, Rio de Janeiro; **B** and **C**—Arraial do Cabo, Rio de Janeiro, and **D**—Praia Vermelha, Rio de Janeiro

Table 2 Abiotic variables of the Brazilian coastal ecosystems where *Tilapine* individuals were detected as available in the BioOracle database (Tyberghein et al. 2012; Assis et al. 2017)

N	Locality	Salinity			Temperature (°C)			Dissolved oxygen ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^3$)		
		Minimum	Mean	Range	Minimum	Mean	Range	Minimum	Mean	Range
1	Praia Grande, Arraial do Cabo, RJ	36.33	36.57	0.48	20.87	23.65	5.79	204.63	215.60	26.26
2	Praia Vermelha, Rio de Janeiro, RJ	35.98	36.22	0.47	20.43	23.52	6.91	207.45	218.90	24.78
3	Praia da Vila, Saquarema, RJ	36.30	36.55	0.52	19.64	22.20	5.43	207.42	216.92	18.91
4	Praia da Reserva, Rio de Janeiro, RJ	36.00	36.32	0.64	18.84	21.64	5.94	205.92	216.60	22.56
5	Praia de Ponta Negra, Maricá, RJ	36.11	36.42	0.43	20.83	23.76	6.27	204.68	215.60	26.26
6	Praia de Arraial do Cabo, RJ	36.33	36.57	0.48	20.87	23.65	5.79	204.63	215.60	26.26
7	Jericocoara National Park, Ceará	35.58	36.09	0.88	26.28	27.61	2.93	196.43	201.17	9.92
8	Guanabara bay, Rio de Janeiro, RJ	36.06	36.34	0.63	20.31	23.43	6.77	210.28	221.35	23.28
9	Itanhaém, São Paulo, SP	35.36	35.95	0.94	17.58	22.08	8.31	213.53	231.34	42.97
10	São Luís, MA	34.98	36.19	2.09	26.99	28.04	2.37	196.27	201.72	15.91
11	Rodrigo de Freitas Lagoon, Rio de Janeiro, RJ	35.94	36.19	0.47	20.59	23.66	6.85	206.95	218.32	25.20
12	Lençóis Maranhenses National Park, MA	34.81	35.96	1.58	26.75	27.87	2.59	196.42	200.64	8.90
13	Jacarepaguá Lagoon, Rio de Janeiro, RJ									
14	Jaguarema river estuary, Maranhão, MA	34.98	36.19	2.09	27.00	28.04	2.37	196.27	201.72	15.91
15	Apodi-Mossoró river estuary, RN	35.71	36.21	0.85	25.95	27.65	3.48	195.81	201.13	11.07
16	Canal do Linguado, Balneário Barra do Sul, SC	34.50	35.54	1.41	16.19	22.48	12.02	203.02	221.37	52.05
17	Maricá lagoon, Maricá, RJ	36.10	36.33	0.45	20.58	23.58	6.47	206.04	217.04	24.71
18	Cricaré river estuary, Conceição da Barra, ES	36.79	37.22	0.75	23.40	25.91	4.97	198.90	206.17	18.27
19	São José lagoon, Saquarema, RJ	36.10	36.33	0.45	20.58	23.58	6.47	206.04	217.04	24.71

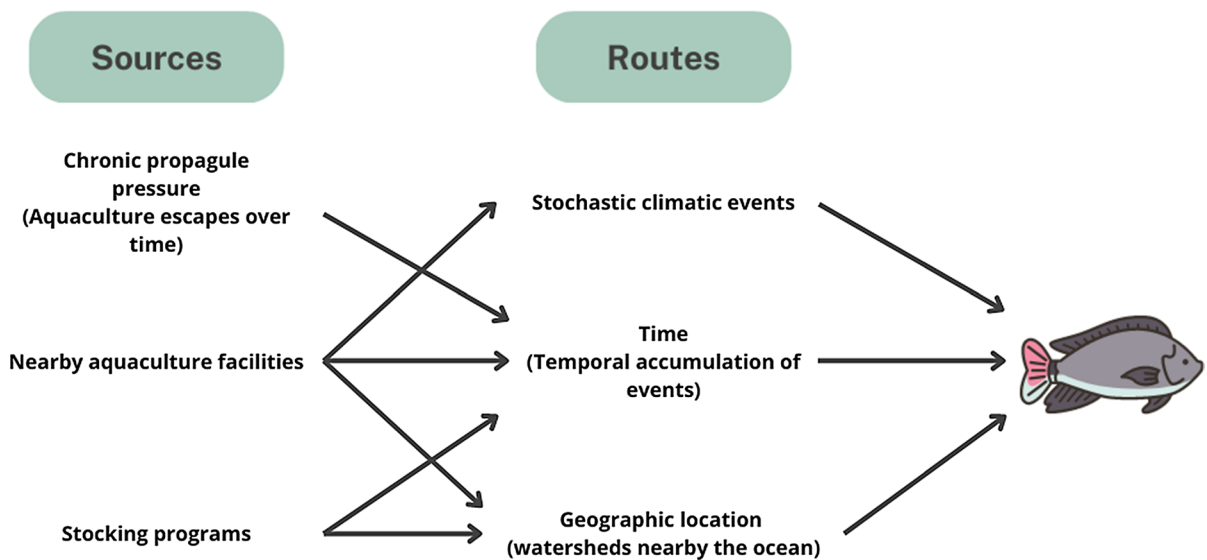


Fig. 3 Theoretical framework on the sources and routes taken by *Tilapia* introduced into marine and brackish Brazilian ecosystems

native species (Canónico et al. 2005; Starling et al. 2002). If we consider that a higher salinity does not act as a barrier to their spread, then the potential for the spread of an individual should be evaluated at a regional scale, considering the use of brackish and marine systems as corridors.

Tilapias have become widespread due to their use as a food resource in aquaculture (Naylor et al. 2000), often inside natural environments. Escapes are frequent, and established populations have been related to increased eutrophication and habitat modification. Even though their impacts are already known, tilapia farms are now being constructed in brackish conditions inside estuaries in Brazil (Tilápias Mangaratiba 2023). Considering the frequency of escapes from these facilities and their ability to tolerate salinities close to that of the sea (~30; Gutierre et al. 2014), it is likely that wild populations are already established around these systems (see Leal-Flórez 2007; Peterson et al. 2005 for examples of tilapia populations in estuarine-marine conditions). Moreover, tilapias are recognised for their rusticity and ability to tolerate harsh conditions, such as polluted environments, which can enhance their invasive potential.

Brazilian authorities promote tilapia farming as an important activity to ensure the protein intake for the population (Naylor et al. 2000), regardless of the risks and the enormous potential of the great number

of native fish species that have already been proven as farmable. Furthermore, novel structures have been installed in brackish regions with massive production and a greenwashing that says they have a “sustainable” production system with tilapias farmed free within cages. At the same time that the largest tilapia producer in the world, China, is turning on an alert and seeking to map and study the impacts of invaders to improve its legislation and reduce impacts (Xiong et al. 2023), Brazil, through governmental proposals attempted to naturalise tilapias by decree (Pelicice et al. 2013), so the environmental laws that regulate the spread of non-native species would not apply to them anymore. Finally, we highlight that our findings show a factual potential for a freshwater IAS to spread in marine ecosystems using freshwater facilities. These results add to the reality that new introductions are inevitable (Xiong et al. 2023), bring light to the urgent need for control and containment methods program for the species in natural environments and raise concerns regarding the licensing of running and new aquaculture projects inside rivers and estuaries.

Author’s contribution ACSF and JRSV contributed to the study’s conception and design. Data collection was performed by all authors. The first draft of the manuscript was written by ACSF. English review was performed by RAH-D. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors have no competing interests to declare that are relevant to the content of this paper.

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