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1 Could a freshwater fish be at the root of
2 dystrophic crises in a coastal lagoon?
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16 **Abstract**

17 Eutrophication has a profound impact on ecosystems worldwide. Grass carp *Ctenopharyngodon idella*,
18 an herbivorous fish, has been introduced to control aquatic plant overgrowth caused by eutrophication,
19 but could have other, potentially detrimental, effects.

20 We used the Po di Volano basin (south of the Po River delta, northern Italy) as a test case to explore
21 whether grass carp effects on canal aquatic vegetation could be at the root of historical changes in N
22 loads exported from the basin to the Goro Lagoon. We modeled the aquatic vegetation production and
23 standing crop, its denitrification potential, and its consumption by introduced grass carp. We then
24 examined whether changes in historical nitrogen loads matched the modeled losses of the drainage
25 network denitrification function or other changes in agricultural practices.

26 Our results indicate that introduced grass carp could completely remove submerged vegetation in the
27 Po di Volano canal network, which could – in turn – lead to substantial loss of the denitrification
28 function of the system, causing in an increase in downstream nitrogen loads.

29 A corresponding increase, matching both timing and magnitude, was detected in historical nitrogen
30 loads to the Goro Lagoon, which were significantly different before and after the time of modeled
31 collapse of the denitrification function. This increase was not clearly linked to watershed use or
32 agricultural practices, which implies that the loss of the denitrification function through grass carp
33 overgrazing could be a likely explanation of the increase in downstream nitrogen loads.

34 Perhaps for the first time, we provide evidence that a freshwater fish introduction could have caused
35 long-lasting changes in nutrient dynamics that are exported downstream to areas where the fish is not
36 present.

37 **Keywords:** invasive species; denitrification; grass carp; nitrogen loads; pre-post approach; species
38 introductions; submerged vegetation

39

40 **Introduction**

41 The human-mediated nutrient enrichment of natural ecosystems, commonly known as
42 eutrophication, has a profound impact on ecosystems worldwide (Garnier et al., 2010, Paerl, 2009).
43 Eutrophication affects freshwater ecosystems more directly, because they are closely connected to
44 agricultural landscapes, but eventually nutrients are carried by rivers to estuarine, coastal and gulf
45 areas, where they can also cause problems (e.g. the Gulf of Mexico, the Baltic Sea, Lake Erie: Rönnerberg
46 and Bonsdorff, 2004, Rabalais et al., 2002, Kane et al., 2014). Eutrophication can have a direct effect on
47 algal and aquatic vegetation communities, and cause loss of species and linked ecosystem services
48 (Glibert, 2017). Nutrient loading to freshwaters is strongly influenced by human population within the
49 watershed and by intensity and type of farming practices (Billen et al., 2013). However, eutrophication
50 could arise not only from increases in nutrient loading, but also from changes within the watersheds,
51 when these alter the watersheds' capacity to metabolize nutrient loads (Beaulieu et al., 2015, Pinay et
52 al., 2002).

53 Among watershed changes, the loss of natural buffers against the accumulation of excessive
54 nitrogen (N) loads could be of paramount importance (Hansen et al., 2018, Hill, 2019). Denitrification,
55 the reduction of nitrate (NO_3^-) to nitrogen gas (mostly N_2) performed by microbial communities under
56 anaerobic conditions, is one of the most important mechanisms of N removal and can take place
57 wherever an anoxic environment, and availability of substrates (NO_3^- and organic carbon) allow it. The
58 presence of aquatic vegetation boosts N processing by providing carbon and creating oxic-anoxic
59 interfaces in the rhizosphere, thus increasing the suitable habitats available to the denitrifying
60 microbiota and resulting in higher denitrification rates compared to bare sediment (2–4 folds higher for
61 sediments covered by submerged vegetation; see e.g. Pinardi et al., 2009, Alldred and Baines, 2016).
62 Aquatic vegetation is thus a key component of the buffer capacity of wetlands (Choudhury et al., 2018,

63 Bastviken et al., 2009) or agricultural ditches (Vymazal and Březinová, 2018, Castaldelli et al., 2015).
64 Therefore, human actions that disrupt aquatic vegetation could reduce denitrification buffers and
65 further contribute to eutrophication. For example, in-stream vegetation can be mechanically removed
66 to increase the flow of water through rivers and canals (Levavasseur et al., 2014, Pierobon et al., 2013).
67 However, in-stream vegetation could also be lost through biological control (i.e. the stocking of an
68 herbivorous species to control vegetation growth, Lodge (1991)).

69 Grass carp *Ctenopharyngodon idella* (Valenciennes, 1844) is a prime example of such an herbivorous
70 fish; originally from Asia, it has been widely introduced to control excessive or undesirable aquatic
71 vegetation (Kelly et al., 2011, Wittmann et al., 2014). The “ecosystem engineering” capabilities of grass
72 carp can provoke unwanted effects through altering the abundance of submerged vegetation,
73 decreasing available spawning habitats for native species, increasing turbidity and ultimately favoring
74 other introduced species (Milardi et al., 2018a). Furthermore, an increase of several dissolved N species
75 has been observed following vegetation control with grass carp, partly as a result of sediment
76 resuspension and fecal matter deposition (reviewed in e.g. Dibble and Kovalenko, 2009). These effects
77 not only cascade through the food web, but as long as the population survives (through long-life,
78 continued stocking or natural recruitment) and spreads (through natural or aided dispersion) these
79 effects can be magnified and have basin-wide consequences (Rabalais et al., 2002, Rönnerberg and
80 Bonsdorff, 2004). These ecosystem shifts might not have been investigated in the past but could be
81 reconstructed through modeling with modern techniques rooted in historical data (see e.g. Milardi et
82 al., 2016, Milardi et al., 2019b), arguably widening and strengthening our understanding of overlooked
83 ecosystem processes.

84 Grass carp was first introduced in Western Europe in the 1980s (FAO, 2016), as a mean of aquatic
85 weed control. In Italy, the first introduction to the wild was at the end of the 1980s (Melotti et al., 1987),
86 in the Po di Volano basin, in the southern part of the Po River delta, where it has recently been found to

87 reproduce naturally (Milardi et al., 2015). Large-scale grass carp introduction at the end of the 1980s
88 coincided with the onset of well-studied onset of massive algal blooms and anoxia in the Goro Lagoon,
89 downstream of the Po di Volano (Pugnetti et al., 1992, Viaroli et al., 1995, Viaroli et al., 1996). However,
90 the potential contribution of grass carp to those blooms has never been investigated.

91 We thus evaluated whether grass carp introduction could be at the root of historical changes in N
92 loads exported from the the Po di Volano drainage basin, a network of artificial and semi-artificial canals
93 in the Ferrara province (Northern Italy), to the Goro Lagoon. We focused on this area because grass carp
94 were recently found to recruit naturally there after their introduction (Milardi et al., 2015), and because
95 of the abundant historical information available on agricultural practices, nutrient loads (e.g. Castaldelli
96 et al., 2013b), aquatic vegetation (e.g. Piccoli and Gerdol, 1981), fish introductions (e.g. Lanzoni et al.,
97 2018) and their effects on biodiversity (e.g. Castaldelli et al., 2013a, Milardi et al., 2019a). We used this
98 information to model aquatic vegetation production and standing crop, its denitrification potential, and
99 its consumption by grass carp in the drainage network, with the aim to verify whether historical N loads
100 were affected by grass carp or other changes in agricultural practices. We hypothesized that, if the
101 denitrification function was lost due to grass carp overgrazing, a corresponding increase in N loads (in
102 particular NO_3^-) would be observed during the irrigation period. Our study is intended to shed light on
103 past broad-scale ecological dynamics, and to inform holistic management of these environments in the
104 future.

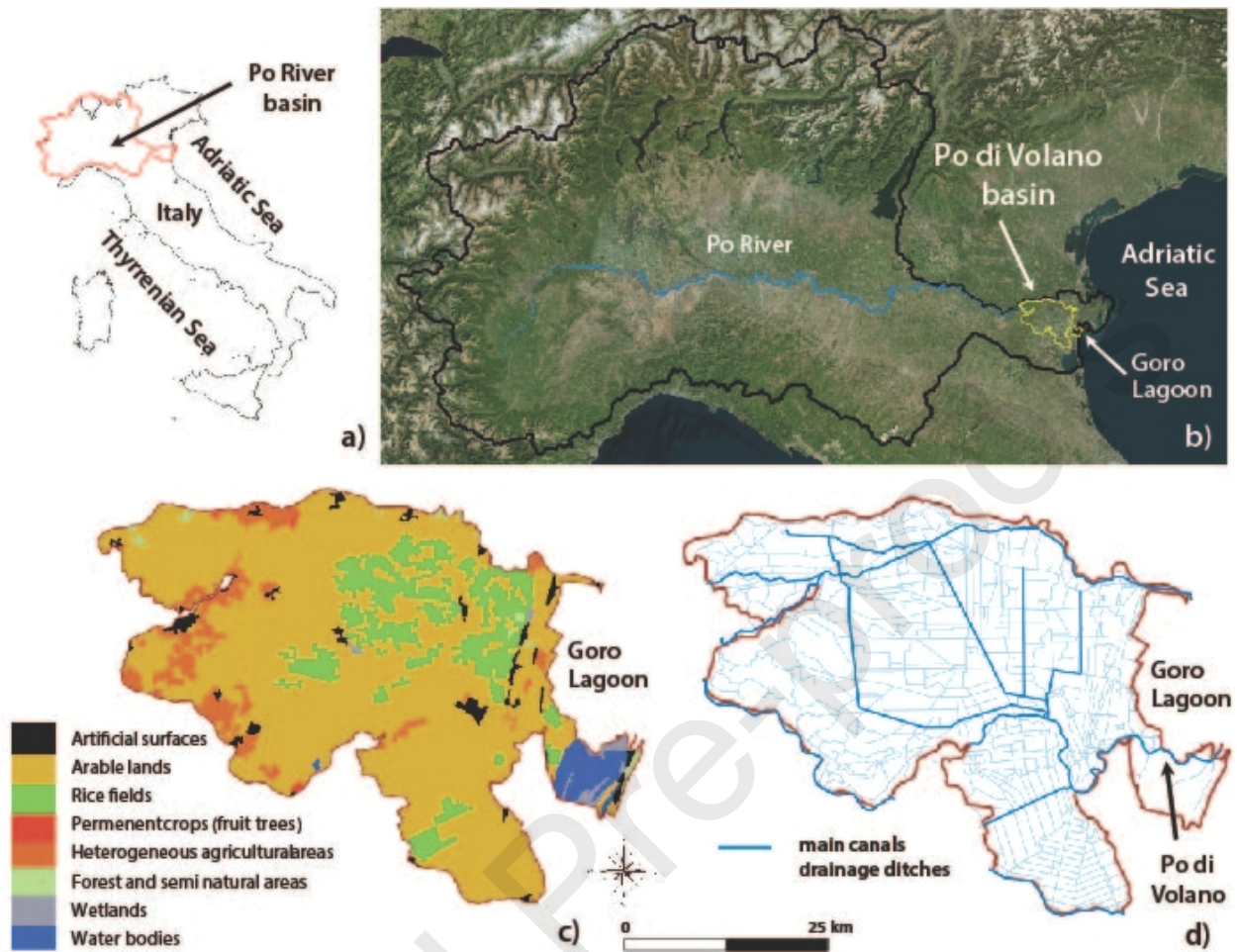
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106 **Materials and Methods**

107 *Study area*

108 The Po di Volano basin (~713 km²) constitutes the terminal part of the Po River floodplain, the
109 largest Italian alluvial plain (Fig. 1a and b). The Po River plain and the Po di Volano basin are heavily

110 cultivated, with >70% of the Po di Volano basin area classified as utilized agricultural land (mainly cereals
111 and industrial crops) and livestock farming is a minor component (Castaldelli et al. (2013b); Fig. 1c).
112 Surface water movement in this basin is artificially controlled, regulated by a capillary network of open-
113 earth canals and ditches (~1300 km of artificial waterways, Fig. 1d) serving for drainage and irrigation.
114 The complex network of canals was implemented along the centuries, but the hydrological structure of
115 the territory is the result of a long-term reclamation completed in the '60s. Bottom sediments are
116 usually a combination of mud and sand or silt, and vegetated buffer zones are completely absent. The
117 various drainage canals in the network contribute water to the Po di Volano, a large semi-artificial canal
118 that carries water to the sea. The Po di Volano is the main contributor of freshwater to the Goro Lagoon
119 (Fig. 1b), a shallow, eutrophic coastal lagoon where intensive mussel farming takes place. The Goro
120 Lagoon is a sheltered coastal lagoon that has little connection with the Adriatic Sea. Although the lagoon
121 can occasionally receive some freshwater inputs (and thus some nutrients) from the Po River plume, the
122 main nutrient contribution comes from the Po di Volano.



123

124 Figure 1 - Study area: a) location of the Po River basin in Italy; b) location of the Po di Volano basin
 125 within the Po River basin; c) land use of the Po di Volano between 1980s and 1990s (Corine Land Cover
 126 map 1990; [https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/copernicus-land-monitoring-service-](https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/copernicus-land-monitoring-service-corine)
 127 [corine](https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/copernicus-land-monitoring-service-corine)); and d) Po di Volano basin hydrographic network.

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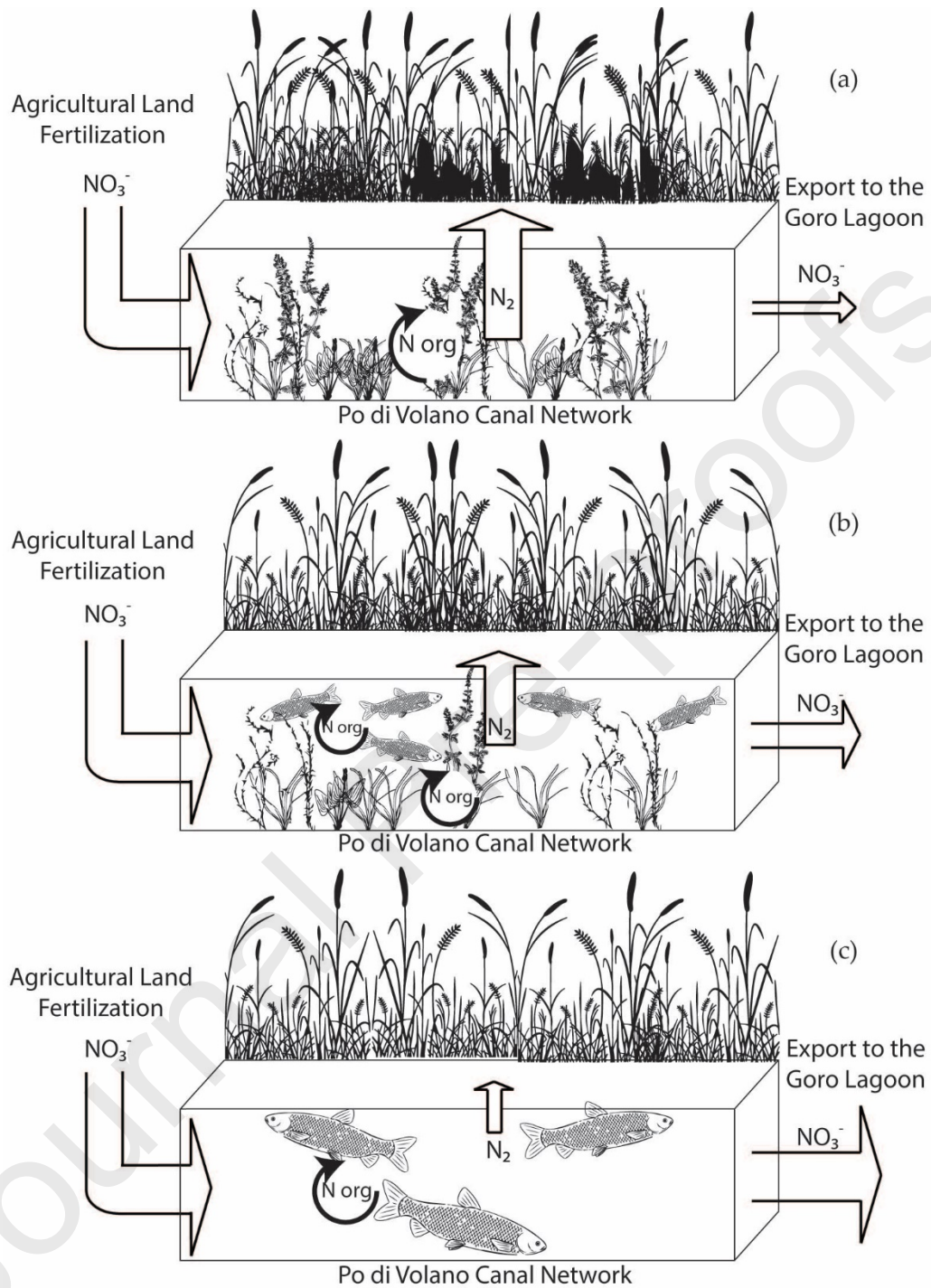
129 The irrigation season lasts from April to September, when the canals are flooded through a series of
 130 siphons that draw water from the Po River, which is a likely trigger for spawning by grass carp (Milardi et
 131 al., 2017). The water is delivered from irrigation canals to arable lands through a capillary ditch network;
 132 water level in the canals remains relatively stable through a complex management of the drainage
 133 system. The irrigation period overlaps with the vegetative phase and the warm season, when high water

134 temperatures enhance N dissipation, supported by the action of macrophytes and microbial
135 communities (Soana et al., 2015, Choudhury et al., 2018). In October, at the end of the irrigation season,
136 little water is let through the siphons and large portions of the canal network are dry until the next
137 irrigation season, occasionally serving as flood controls in case of intense rainfall. These hydraulic
138 management practices have been in place, and have not significantly changed, over more than 50 years.

139 Aquatic vegetation overgrowth created hydraulic problems during the peak eutrophication period of
140 the 1970s, with extensive effort by the local water management authority to mechanically remove it
141 (Melotti et al., 1987). This led to experiments in biological control through introduction of grass carp in
142 the mid-1980s, and to large-scale grass carp stocking in the whole area beginning in the early 1990s.
143 Currently, submerged aquatic vegetation is almost nonexistent in the canals, and emergent vegetation
144 has been actively managed since the mid-1990s (e.g. mechanical removal; Castaldelli et al., 2013b,
145 Pierobon et al., 2013) and is now present only in stretches of the canal network at low flood risk,
146 representing less than 5% of the total length (Soana et al., 2019).

147 *General study setup*

148 We designed a simple model to reconstruct changes in nutrient output from the Po di Volano
149 drainage to the Goro Lagoon. We assumed that changes in nutrient loads in the lagoon would be mostly
150 dependent on the Po di Volano system balance between inputs/outputs. We also assumed that the
151 causes of changes in nutrient load could be inferred through their magnitude, by comparing it with
152 different estimates of nutrient reduction/increase in load and denitrification processes. We focused on a
153 period of two decades (1980-1999) that includes the time of grass carp introduction, and divided each
154 year into two 6-month periods corresponding to the irrigation and non-irrigation seasons. We focused
155 our investigation on N load, as it was identified as the most relevant component of algal blooms in the
156 area. We used these models to explore changes in N balance, tallying the dynamics of N input in the
157 system and transfer to the lagoon, with a pre/post approach (Fig. 2).



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Figure 2 – A schematic representation of our model setup showing the system at theoretical baseline (a), initial invasion (b) and secondary invasion (c) conditions. White arrows represent the main input (fertilization) and permanent sinks (denitrification and downstream transport) of N, while black

162 arrows represent temporary sinks of N (in organic tissues), in the Po di Volano canal network. The
163 relative size of the arrows in each figure shows the expected changes in fluxes within the system.

164

165 We modeled the effect of grass carp introduction through a bioenergetic model of their vegetation
166 consumption, following a reconstructed historical timeline, to identify a precise time when grass carp
167 consumption would collapse submerged vegetation and thus define a pre-post period. We used a plant
168 growth and denitrification model to estimate the whole-basin vegetation nutrient sink, at baseline
169 conditions (i.e. prior to grass carp introduction). We focused on submerged rather than emerged
170 vegetation, because there was no historical data available on the abundance of the latter, and because
171 grass carp tend to feed predominantly on this type of vegetation (Melotti et al., 1987, Filizadeh et al.,
172 2004). We also reconstructed historical N loads from measured nutrient concentrations and water
173 discharge rates and used agricultural surveys to reconstruct past changes in agricultural practices and to
174 account for the possibility that changes in N load could stem from an increase in N release (i.e. from a
175 switch to more intensive practices).

176 We used non-parametric tests (the Mann-Whitney U test and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test on the
177 mean and shape of the distributions, respectively) to verify changes in the N load before and after the
178 modeled introduction effects (pre/post periods, 1980–1989/1990–1999). Statistical analyses were run
179 with the PAST 3.06 software (Hammer et al., 2001).

180 *Submerged vegetation growth and denitrification modeling*

181 In the 1980s, submerged macrophyte communities in the Po di Volano basin were mostly
182 represented by *Myriophyllum* spp., *Ceratophyllum* spp., *Potamogeton* spp., *Elodea* spp., and *Vallisneria*
183 *spiralis*, which were reported to cover the entire area of the basin during the irrigation period (Piccoli
184 and Gerdol, 1981, Piccoli and Gerdol, 1983, Melotti et al., 1987). The average density of submerged

185 vegetation, prior to grass carp introduction, was 1 kg (wet weight) per square meter (0.2–1.95 kg per
186 square meter; Melotti et al., 1987). Knowing canal surface areas, we used this value to estimate the
187 total biomass of submerged aquatic vegetation in the basin at baseline conditions and the N pool of the
188 standing stock by means of the vegetation N content, based on literature (i.e. a maximum 0.25% of wet
189 biomass, see e.g. Pinaridi et al., 2009, Nizzoli et al., 2014). A detailed map of the canal and ditch network
190 was created in QGIS 2.18 by merging vector data obtained from the Emilia-Romagna Region
191 (<http://geoportale.regione.emilia-romagna.it/it>) and Po River Basin Authority within the framework of
192 the water management plan of the Po River Basin (<http://pianoacque.adbpo.it/piano-di-gestione-2015/>)
193 geoportals.

194 We also used the reported density to model the growth of submerged macrophytes through the
195 irrigation season, by fitting a Gompertz curve to the existing information (i.e. a daily average vegetation
196 growth rate of around 2%; Larson, 2007, Nizzoli et al., 2014; Supplementary Fig. 1, Saunkaew et al.,
197 2011). We estimated that, during winter when little water is present in the canals and temperatures are
198 low, a 90% reduction to the standing crop of submerged vegetation would occur due to senescence and
199 drying out of ample portions of the canals (Westlake, 1973). We also estimated that, when grass carp
200 were present in the system, submerged macrophytes would also be grazed outside of the irrigation
201 season, causing an additional 5% winter reduction.

202 We then modeled the denitrification function in the Po di Volano basin, taking into account the total
203 surface of the canals and the seasonal evolution of denitrification rates for bare sediments and for
204 sediments colonized by submerged macrophytes. Bare sediments were assigned denitrification rates
205 based on experimental studies performed in the Po di Volano basin (average 53.5 (47–60) mg N per
206 square meter per day; Castaldelli et al. 2015). Sediments colonized by submerged macrophytes were
207 assigned rates measured in freshwater environments of the Po River plain similar to the Po di Volano
208 canals for trophic conditions (in particular water NO_3^- availability) and substrate and accounting for

209 seasonal variations (average 133 (98–168) mg N per square meter per day in April–May and average 259
210 (140–378) mg N per square meter per day in June–September; Nizzoli et al., 2014, Pinardi et al., 2009,
211 Racchetti et al., 2017). We used this model to estimate the magnitude of the bottom sediment
212 denitrification sink at baseline conditions during the 6-month period when the ditch network is active
213 for irrigation (a period overlapping with the vegetative phase of submerged macrophytes) and for the
214 1986–1989 period. Because grass carp feed by pulling on the whole plant rather than nibbling at it, we
215 assumed that a reduction in vegetation biomass would translate to a corresponding reduction in
216 vegetated area and increase of bare sediment. As denitrification rates are higher in vegetated areas
217 compared to bare sediments, this also corresponds to a reduction in the denitrification capacity of the
218 system.

219 *Grass carp consumption modeling*

220 Grass carp is a specialized herbivorous fish, that can survive on alternative prey such as aquatic
221 invertebrates or small fish (Shireman and Smith, 1983). We used the Wisconsin model (Hanson et al.,
222 1997), a well-known and relatively simple bioenergetic model, to model grass carp consumption of
223 submerged vegetation.

224 The model uses a set of species-specific parameters that define metabolic levels to determine
225 consumption rates (Supplementary Table 1) as well as egestion (i.e. defecation) and excretion rates. Fish
226 being poikilotherms, the model relies on water temperature to assess metabolic rates and on food
227 energy content to model body mass gain. Water temperatures were not monitored on a regular basis in
228 the area before 1992, so we used daily measures of water and air temperatures from 1992–2002 to
229 derive a linear relationship between them (350 measures, $T_{\text{water}} = 0.9858 \times T_{\text{air}} + 2.404$, $R\text{-sq} = 0.94$). We
230 then used this relationship to infer daily average water temperatures, from measures of daily average
231 air temperatures recorded in the area between 1987 and 1989 (see Supplementary Fig. 2).

232 Both species-specific parameters and caloric content of submerged vegetation were taken from
233 published values (see sources reported in Supplementary Table 1). Because no historical information
234 was available on individual growth rates, we assumed that the individuals would grow at 89% of their
235 maximum growth potential, which is a value commonly found for immature grass carp (e.g. van der Lee
236 et al., 2017).

237 Official records on stocked grass carp total biomass and number of individuals are not available, but
238 we were able to reconstruct the introductions prior to the '90s through interviews with the local
239 administration and available grey literature (Melotti et al., 1987). In 1987, 5 tons of grass carp, with an
240 average size of 250 g, were stocked in the Po di Volano drainage (a total of 20,000 individuals) and were
241 subsequently able to spread throughout the system. A similar amount, with similar sizes, was stocked
242 there in 1988. We used these values to model the growth and total submerged vegetation consumption
243 of both cohorts between 1987 and 1989. The grass carp were not sexually mature in this timeframe,
244 thus we did not account for reproduction dynamics (egg-release weight loss or population increase), but
245 we assumed a conservative 10% yearly mortality in each cohort (native predators were few in the area
246 and grass carp individuals would quickly reach a refuge size, Melotti et al., 1987). Some of the N
247 temporarily stored in plant biomass would be transferred to fish biomass, as grass carp grow, so we also
248 accounted for this (2.5% N in fish wet biomass Penczak et al., 1985).

249 *N load calculation*

250 We modeled the N loads from the Po di Volano to the Goro Lagoon through a reconstruction of
251 historically measured dissolved inorganic N species concentrations ($\text{DIN}=\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NO}_3^-$) and water
252 discharges (monthly volumes, provided by the local water management authority). From 1980 to 1991,
253 the Ferrara province administration measured N species concentrations fortnightly to monthly at the
254 closing section of the Po di Volano basin (Ferrara, 1984, Ferrara, 1988, Ferrara, 1991). From 1992 to

1999, these measurements were made by the Regional Environmental Protection Agency (ARPA, Emilia-Romagna Region, Provincial Department of Ferrara; <https://www.arpae.it/index.asp?idlivello=112>). N species concentrations were not available for 1985 and 1986, so these years were excluded from the analysis of N loads. N loads were calculated by interpolating linearly the N species concentrations between measurements (Kronvang and Bruhn, 1996; Letcher et al., 2002). This method, previously applied to several watercourses of this basin (Castaldelli et al., 2013a), was the most sensitive for small lowland waterways characterised by sudden changes in hydrological regime.

Reconstruction of historical changes in agricultural practices

Because agriculture is the main land use in the studied area, changes in agricultural practices could result in possible changes in N loads in the Po di Volano drainage system. These changes were checked through agricultural survey data from 1987, 1990 and 1993 (National Institute of Statistics - ISTAT) at the basin scale. By using data at the provincial scale, we also verified possible changes in average N applications to utilized agricultural land over the same period. These data were retrieved from printed volumes of the Annals of Agrarian Statistics, published yearly by ISTAT for the whole national territory.

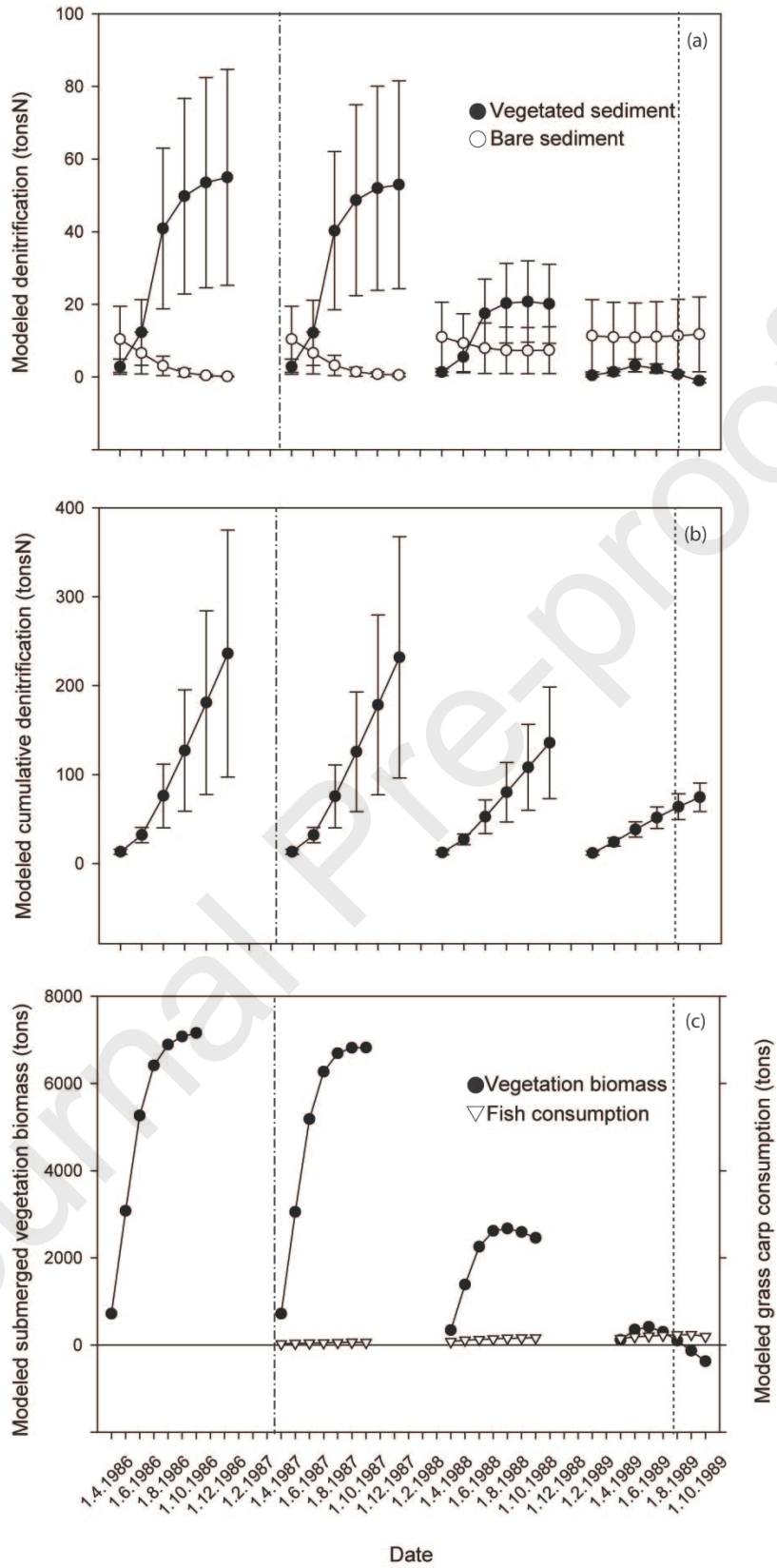
Results

Based on canal depth and total surface area and considering reported historical vegetation density we estimated that, at baseline conditions, the Po di Volano basin hosted a maximum of 7,156 tons of submerged macrophytes covering all the available sediment and sequestering 18 tons of N. In this vegetated environment, modelled denitrification reduced an average total of 220 tons of N (min-max 80-361 tons) during the irrigation phase of 1986 (Fig. 3a and b).

The grass carp population and its biomass were initially relatively small and consumed a modest amount of submerged macrophytes (a total of 393 tons during the irrigation phase of 1987), which was

278 readily replaced by plant growth (Fig. 3b). However, as further introductions were made and fish
279 biomass increased through natural growth, modelled total consumption nearly reached 1000 tons and
280 exceeded 1400 tons during the irrigation seasons of 1988 and 1989, respectively (a maximum monthly
281 consumption of 240.74 tons, Fig. 3c). Due to the combined effect of senescence and grazing, submerged
282 macrophyte biomass at the beginning of the irrigation season had been progressively lower. The model
283 indicated that, before the end of the 1989 irrigation season, grass carp consumption overtook the
284 macrophyte standing crop, leading to a progressive loss of the denitrification function from submerged
285 vegetation substrates, leaving only bare substrates denitrification (Fig. 3a). Less than 3 tons of N would
286 be temporarily stored in fish biomass (Supplementary Table 2). At baseline conditions, the system
287 denitrified an average total of 236 tons of N (min-max 138-334 tons of N). After the modelled
288 submerged vegetation collapse, we modelled that the system bare sediments denitrified an average
289 total of 69 tons of N (min-max 61-78 tons of N).

290 We thus estimated that grass carp introduction could have caused an increase in nutrient load of the
291 system corresponding to the sum of lost sink of N in submerged vegetation tissues (18 tons) and lost
292 denitrification function of submerged substrates i.e. an average of 185 tons of N (min-max 138-334 tons
293 of N), after 1989. The results of this model are also reported in greater detail in our Supplementary
294 Materials (Supplementary Table 2), in Microsoft Excel format.



296 Figure 3 –Modeled average denitrification operated on plant (black circles) and bare sediment (white
297 circles) (a), modeled average cumulative denitrification over the same period (b) and modeled
298 submerged vegetation biomass variations (black circles) and grass carp population vegetation
299 consumption (white triangles) (c) over 1986–1989. Error bars indicate minimum and maximum
300 denitrification values. Vertical dashed-and-dotted lines mark the date of grass carp introduction, the
301 vertical dashed line and the horizontal solid line mark the limit below which submerged vegetation (and
302 its denitrification function) was lost.

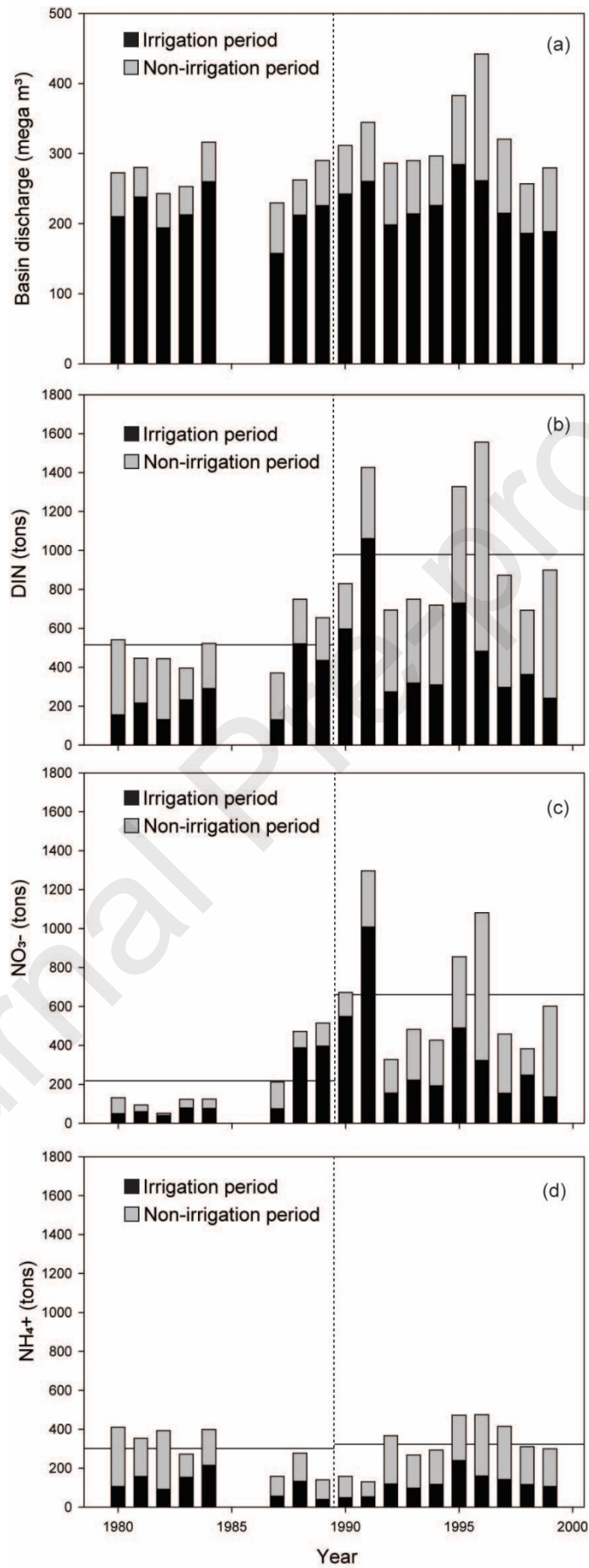
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304 Annual discharge in the basin showed an increase after 1989 (pre/post averages 199/314 mega m³,
305 Fig. 4a), which was largely driven by a significant increase in the non-irrigation period (pre/post averages
306 54/88 mega m³, Table 1), rather than in the irrigation period.

307 Overall, DIN loads showed a significant difference between pre/post periods (pre/post averages
308 515/977 tons, ~+190%, Fig. 4b, Table 1). This difference was largely driven by variations in NO₃⁻ loads
309 (pre/post annual averages 215/658 tons, ~+306%, Fig. 4c), which were particularly evident in the
310 irrigation season, but significantly different in both seasons (Table 1). NO₃⁻ concentrations in the non-
311 irrigation season were similar throughout the series, but increased discharges in winter after 1989 also
312 increased NO₃⁻ loads. Annual NH₄⁺ loads did not show significant variations during the two decades of
313 the study period (pre/post averages 300/319 tons, ~+6%, Fig. 4d), in either season (Table 1).

314 Interestingly, the average difference in NO₃⁻ loads in the irrigation season (pre/post averages
315 145/347 tons, a difference of 202 tons), roughly matches the modeled loss in the denitrification function
316 (i.e. an average of 185 tons of N, min-max 138-334 tons of N, over the same period).

317



319 Figure 4 – Historical annual discharge in the Po di Volano basin (a) and trends in N loads (dissolved
 320 inorganic nitrogen (DIN = $\text{NO}_3^- + \text{NH}_4^+$, b), NO_3^- (c) and NH_4^+ (d)) from the Po di Volano basin to the Goro
 321 Lagoon during the study period. Black and grey bars indicate discharges and loads during irrigation and
 322 non-irrigation periods, respectively. Dashed vertical lines mark the year when the denitrification
 323 function was lost according to our model, horizontal solid lines mark the average N load values pre/post
 324 the modeled loss of function.

325

326 Table 1 – Significance of differences between the periods pre/post the modeled denitrification function
 327 collapse (1980–1989/1990–1999) for discharge and N load variables in the Po di Volano basin.

Variable	Mann-Whitney P	Kolmogorov-Smirnov P
Discharge tot	<0.05	0.07
Discharge irrigation	0.36	0.67
Discharge non-irrigation	<0.01	<0.01
DIN tot	<0.01	<0.01
DIN irrigation	<0.05	<0.05
DIN non-irrigation	<0.01	<0.01
NO_3^- tot	<0.01	<0.01
NO_3^- irrigation	<0.05	<0.01
NO_3^- non-irrigation	<0.01	<0.01
NH_4^+ tot	0.75	0.73
NH_4^+ irrigation	0.96	0.98
NH_4^+ non-irrigation	0.62	0.73

328

329 According to our analysis of the potential changes in land use, the basin landscape was dominated
 330 by agriculture (50 – 53 *10³ ha of utilized agricultural land) and a slight decline in its utilization was
 331 observed from 1987 to 1993 (-5% in surface area). Within utilized agricultural land, arable land
 332 dominated the agricultural landscape (85% of total utilized agricultural land) and the extension of major
 333 crop types did not show important changes over the years: industrial and vegetable crops (mostly
 334 soybean and sugar beet) had the biggest share (42.4±1.5%), followed by wheat (23.7±1.3%) and maize

335 (12.7±0.4%). The shares of woody crops, mostly fruit trees (7.8±0.19%), rice (6.8±0.3%), fodder crops
336 (4.7±0.3%), other cereals (1.7±1.2) and permanent grasslands (0.08±0.002%) were all minor. Minor
337 variations were detected between 1987 and 1993 in N supply as fertilizer to different crops at the
338 provincial scale (average 91.7± 7.4 kgN ha⁻¹). N application slightly decreased over the period: 100 kg N
339 ha⁻¹ of arable land in 1987, 89 kg N ha⁻¹ in 1990 and 86 kg N ha⁻¹ in 1993 (a decrease of 11% and 14% kgN
340 ha⁻¹ in 1990 and 1993, respectively, compared to 1987). As arable land showed minor variations, this
341 indicates that the N load from agricultural land was either stable or declining in the study period.

342 **Discussion**

343 Our results indicate that introduced grass carp could remove nearly all submerged vegetation of the
344 Po di Volano canal network. This could lead to substantial loss in denitrification capacity of the system,
345 causing an increase in downstream N load to the Goro Lagoon. A corresponding increase, matching both
346 timing and magnitude, was detected in historical N loads (particularly NO₃⁻ in the irrigation season, with
347 no significant variations in discharge), which were significantly different before and after the modeled
348 collapse of the denitrification function. According to our data, the N loads increase could not be
349 attributed to watershed use or agricultural practices (which did not change), and thus modeled grass
350 carp introduction effects on submerged vegetation are a more likely explanation. We provide evidence
351 that a freshwater fish introduction could have caused cascading and long-lasting changes in nutrient
352 dynamics, with detrimental ecological consequences exported downstream, far from where grass carp
353 were present.

354 Grass carp is a long-lived species (over 25 years, Clemens et al. (2016)) and our model indicates that
355 effects on submerged macrophytes would persist, as individuals grow larger and increase consumption,
356 even accounting for mortality losses (Osborne and Riddle, 1999), with a minimal effect on temporary N
357 storage. Further grass carp stocking took place in the early 1990s (Melotti et al., 1987; Milardi,

358 unpublished data) and could not be estimated during this study, but might have further contributed to
359 these effects until modern times. When first introduced, grass carp were believed to be unable to
360 reproduce in this area and thus were deemed an ideal candidate for biological control of vegetation,
361 because densities could be controlled through a balance between stocking and mortality (Melotti et al.,
362 1987). However, grass carp were recently found to recruit in this area (Milardi et al., 2015), which
363 implies that population control might be already lost and that grass carp grazing pressure would not
364 necessarily decrease through natural mortality.

365 Grass carp is considered to pose a substantial risk of invasion and detrimental effects elsewhere in
366 its introduced range (Maceina et al., 1992, Scarnecchia, 2000, Cudmore and Mandrak, 2011), but the
367 extent to which this risk applies to Italy is not yet clear (Milardi et al., 2015). In other invaded areas,
368 detrimental effects on the environment have been reported through the overgrazing of submerged
369 vegetation or bioturbation and nutrient resuspension (Cudmore and Mandrak, 2004, Cudmore and
370 Mandrak, 2011, Dibble and Kovalenko, 2009). In Italy, nutrient and sediment resuspension and
371 reduction of aquatic vegetation could have adversely influenced native species, which are mostly
372 adapted to clearer water conditions and require a plant substrate for spawning. Increased turbidity
373 would also favor exotic species that thrive in turbid environments (see Milardi and Castaldelli, 2018,
374 Lanzoni et al., 2018, Milardi et al., 2018a, Gavioli et al., 2018, Milardi et al., 2018b). Our bioenergetic
375 model suggested that egestion and excretion could contribute to the increase in N loads, but likely
376 played a minor role (see Supplementary Table 2). However, challenges in modeling these effects for the
377 entire time series and the entire fish community, as well as uncertainties on the biochemical pathways
378 of the egested/excreted N, prevented us from tallying them in our N estimates.

379 Our model shows that the submerged macrophyte standing stock would be progressively diminished
380 and ultimately eliminated, which is what was actually reported in this area (water management
381 authority, personal communication) but also elsewhere (see e.g. Bonar et al., 2002), leading to a

382 substantially diminished denitrification function of vegetated substrates and leaving only that of bare
383 sediments. Stocking in the early 1990s would have sustained, or heightened, this effect. Mortality could
384 have partly reduced this density, but was likely a minor factor in the study area, because fisheries for the
385 species were not yet established and no native bird or fish predators could feed on grass carp that
386 attained a refuge size (above 1 kg, reached during the first year according to our model). After the
387 modeled submerged macrophyte collapse, the grass carp population of the Po di Volano could have
388 survived on terrestrial vegetation and aquatic invertebrates (Terrell and Fox, 1974), which has also been
389 observed in the study area (Mattia Lanzoni, personal communication) as well as for other carp species
390 (Miller and Crowl, 2006). In narrow canals such as these, high ratios of water edge to surface area
391 maximize terrestrial vegetation and terrestrial invertebrate resources, but terrestrial vegetation feeding
392 could potentially cause bank degradation through the burrowing action of the carp (Kilgen and
393 Smitherman, 1971).

394 Large-scale environmental changes can have multiple effects on components of the food web and
395 on ecosystem functions (e.g. on organic material decomposition), making it hard to have a truly holistic
396 view of the ultimate consequences of environmental disruptions. In this case, the increase in N load to
397 the Goro Lagoon in the early 1990s caused dystrophic crises, which spurred research interest on
398 eutrophication (see e.g. Pugnetti et al., 1992, Viaroli et al., 1995). The macroscopic effect of these
399 dystrophic crises were massive algal blooms and, due to long water retention time in the Goro Lagoon,
400 these effects persisted through the 1990s and continue today. It is probably not a coincidence that
401 mussel (mainly the exotic *Tapes philippinarum*) farming and harvesting activities intensified in the Goro
402 Lagoon during this period, taking advantage of higher productivity in the lagoon but also suffering from
403 anoxic crises (Silvestri, 2013). Clam farming is now one of the main activities in the lagoon, with annual
404 revenues estimated at 52 million euros in 2006 (~60 million USD, COPEGO, 2007). Surprisingly, nearly all
405 past research was devoted to eutrophication consequences rather than causes. According to our data,

406 an increased concentration of NO_3^- during the irrigation season and an increased discharge in the non-
407 irrigation season led to an increased N transport from the Po di Volano system to the lagoon. However,
408 a more complex estimation of external (e.g. the Po River plume) and internal (e.g. nutrient regeneration
409 by clam farming) N loads to the lagoon would be needed to clearly attribute dystrophic crises to grass-
410 carp-induced ecosystem shifts.

411 Some benefits have also accrued from grass carp introduction and the induced ecosystem shift.
412 Grass carp has gained value in recreational fisheries in the area, becoming actively targeted by
413 specialized catch-and-release anglers (see e.g. Rossetti, 2013). The reduction in submerged vegetation
414 has reduced the costs of mechanical weed mowing, which was routinely performed to maintain
415 hydraulic transport in the system (Melotti et al., 1987) and subsequently discontinued for submerged
416 vegetation (water management authority, personal communication). At first glance, this might seem a
417 classic situation where the outcomes of an introduction have been mostly beneficial. However, a more
418 holistic perspective, considering loss of denitrification potential, might shift this perspective.
419 Denitrification is currently achieved through water treatment plants, which have a major infrastructural
420 and operational cost (Boerema et al., 2014). While fisheries for grass carp have been established, fishing
421 license sales in the region have actually declined by approximately 90% over this period (from 240,000
422 units in early 1980s to 25,000 units in early 2010s, Emilia-Romagna Region, personal communication),
423 perhaps due to the decline of preferred native fishes (Milardi et al., 2018a, Castaldelli et al., 2013a).
424 Future studies should strive to use modern tools to evaluate costs and benefits in a holistic framework,
425 which could be used by authorities to formulate improved management actions.

426 Grass carp have been introduced nearly worldwide, yet existing risk assessments (see e.g. Clayton
427 and Wells, 1999, Cassani et al., 2008, Cudmore et al., 2017) have not considered the potential effect of
428 denitrification function loss. This effect could be of substantial concern in North America's Laurentian
429 Great Lakes, where hazardous algal blooms are becoming more frequent in Lake Erie's western basin

430 (Kane et al., 2014). The Maumee and Sandusky Rivers are primary nutrient sources for this basin and
431 their associated estuaries host large vegetated areas. Grass carp spawning (Embke et al., 2016) and
432 recruitment (Chapman et al., 2013) have recently been identified in those rivers. Grass carp grazing in
433 these rivers might exacerbate eutrophication through denitrification function loss. No similar risk
434 assessments have been conducted in Europe.

435 **Conclusions**

436 The importance of our study lies in the detection of potential downstream consequences of a fish
437 introduction, reconstructed through modeling, supported by historical shifts in N loads. However, care
438 should be given to considering the ultimate outcomes of this balance disruption, in order to formulate
439 coherent restoration plans. Integrated basin management would be paramount in this case, where
440 choices would have to be made between different ecosystem services, estimating the socio-economic
441 impacts of these choices. The ecosystem services provided by aquatic vegetation (e.g. the denitrification
442 function or the spawning substrate for native species) are clearly paramount in this case. Our results
443 indicate that, in the Po di Volano system, a restored nutrient buffer capacity of inland waterways could
444 substantially reduce the nutrient load from human activities. Controlling grass carp numbers could
445 restore aquatic vegetation, but this in turn can cause hydraulic problems due to vegetation overgrowth.
446 Coupling grass carp removal with widening the most critical canal sections to aid hydraulic flow would
447 allow restoration of the N buffer capacity of the system without affecting its drainage properties.

448

449 **Authors' Contributions**

450 MM and GC conceived the idea and designed the methodology. ES, DC and MM collected and analyzed
451 the data. MM led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave
452 final approval for publication.

453

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460

461 **Data accessibility**

462 Data associated with this paper will be available as Supplementary Material upon acceptance

463

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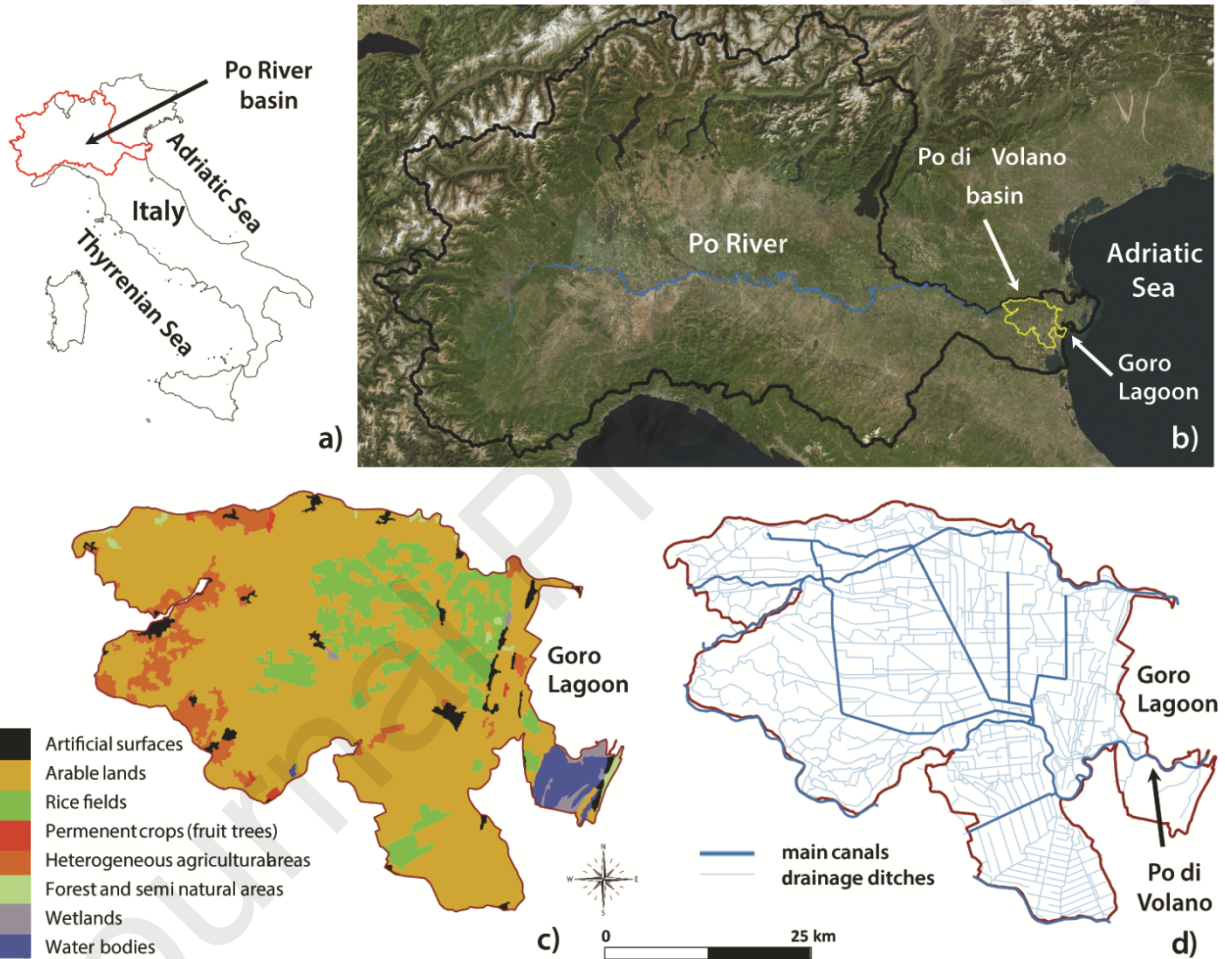
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663 **Highlights for the article “Could a freshwater fish be at the root of dystrophic crises in a**
664 **coastal lagoon?” by Milardi et al.**

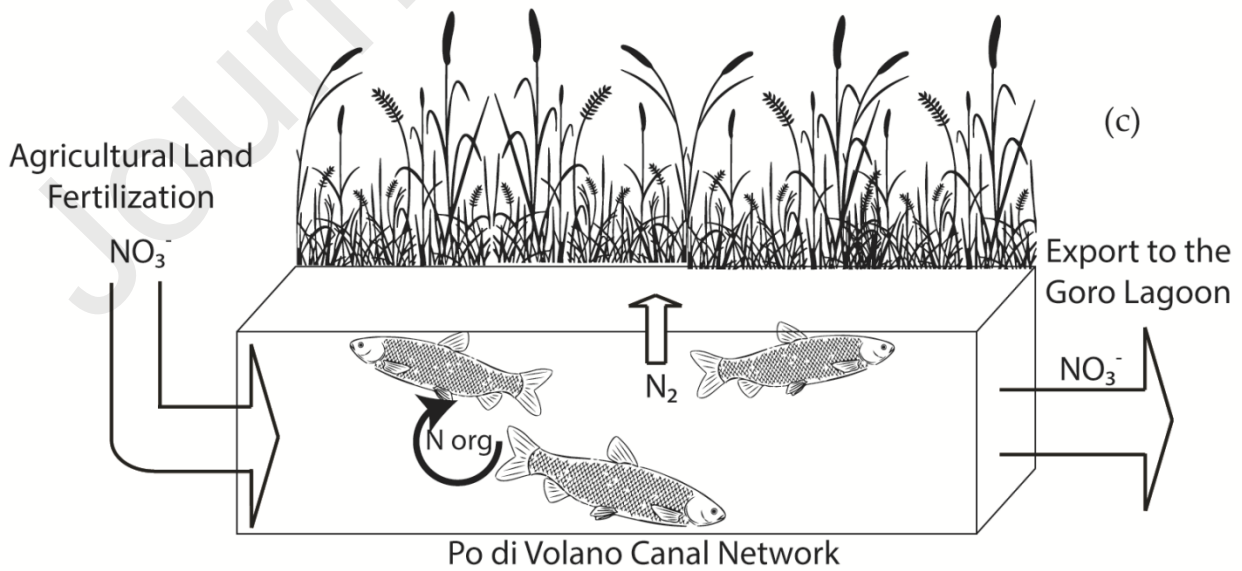
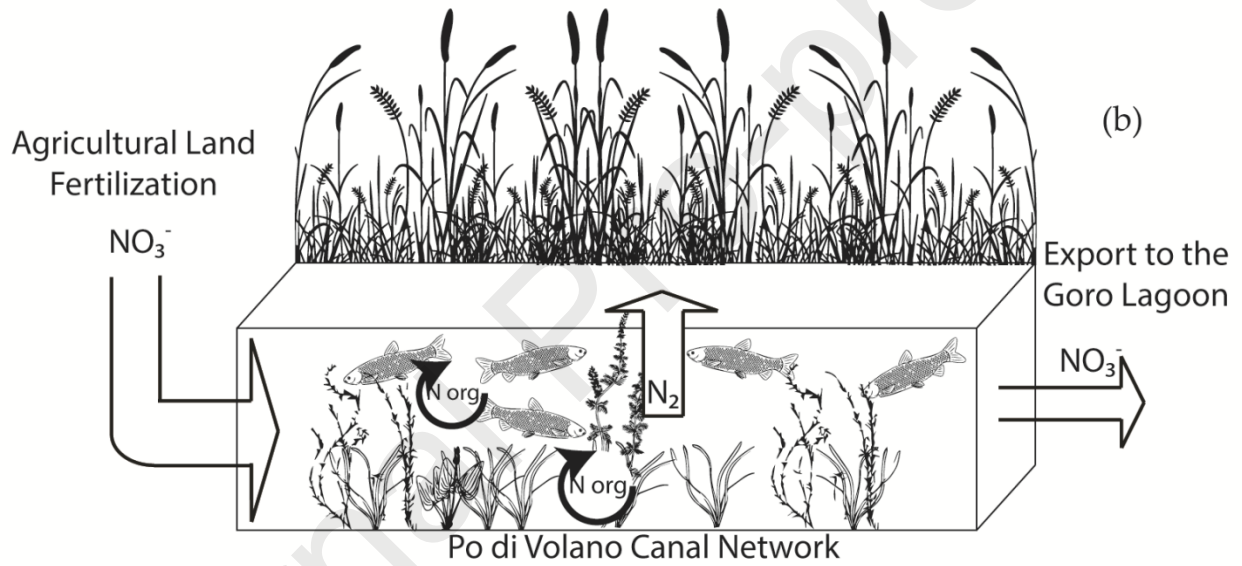
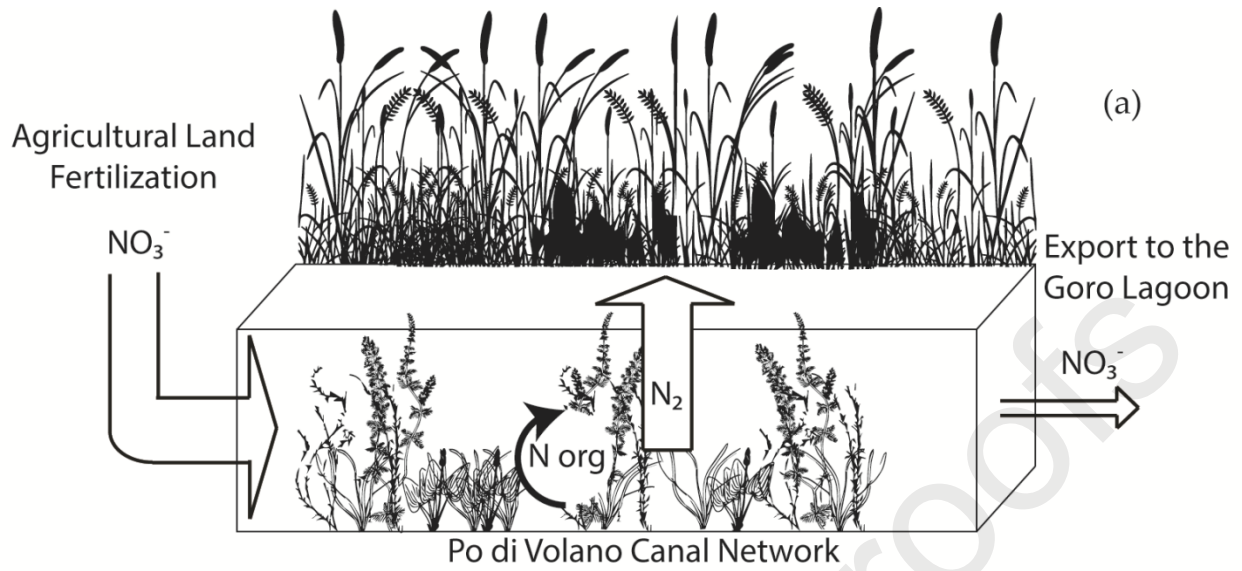
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- Introduced grass carp could remove submerged vegetation in a canal network
 - Submerged vegetation loss leads to a major decrease of the denitrification function
 - A following increase in downstream nitrogen loads to a coastal lagoon was detected
 - Watershed use or agricultural practices could not explain this increase
 - Processes resulting from grass carp introduction were a more likely explanation

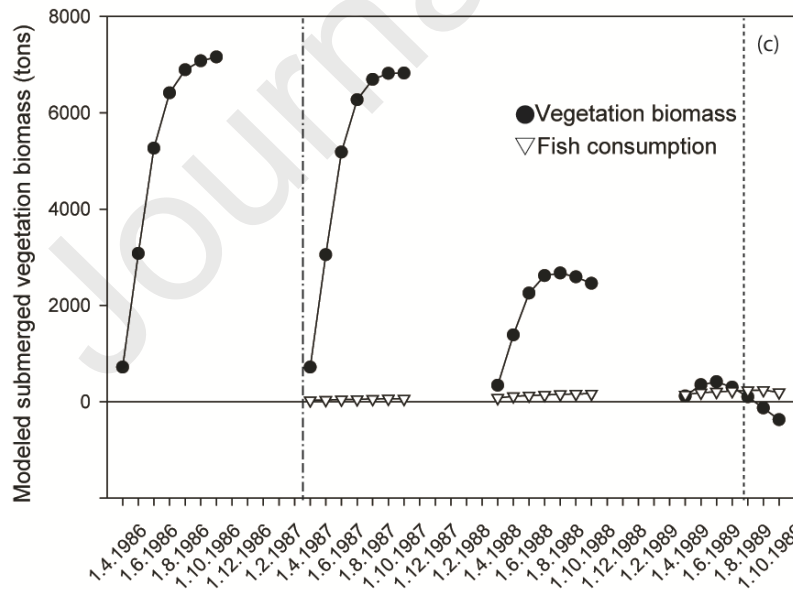
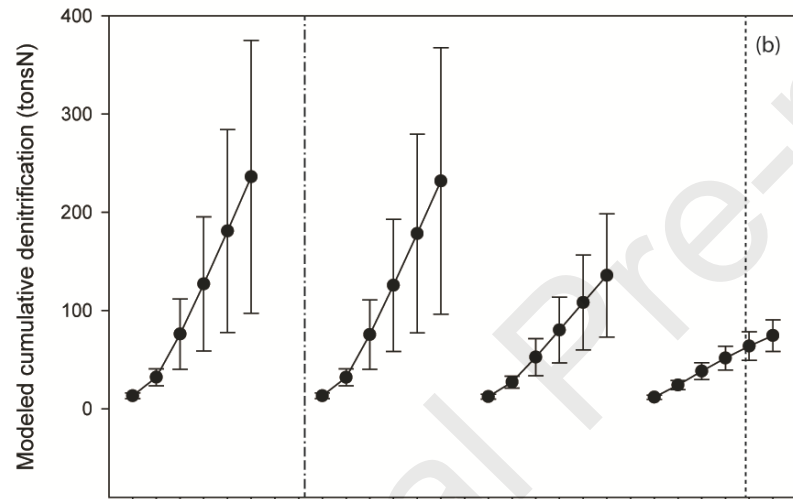
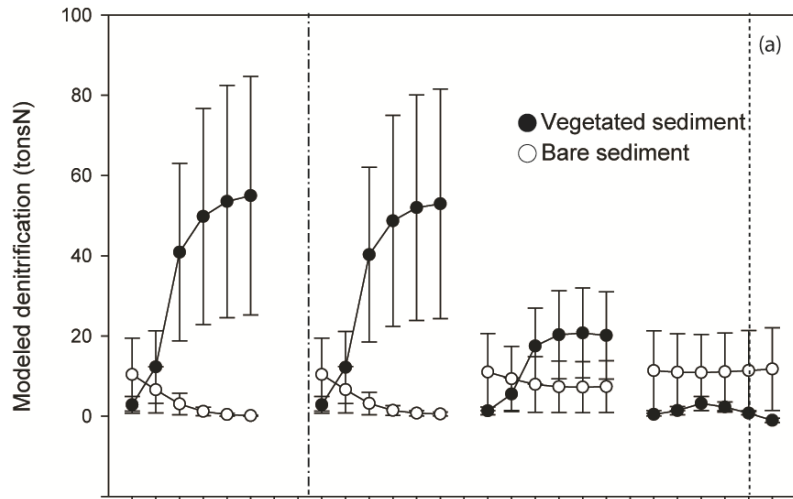
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Modelled grass carp consumption (tons)

