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ANIMAL SCIENCE

Ectoparasite crustaceans of ten fish species from the upper Araguari River in northern Brazil

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Abstract: Fish parasites are an important part of aquatic biodiversity and knowing these species and their interactions with their hosts helps in monitoring the aquatic biota. The present study investigated the ectoparasite crustacean fauna of ten fish species from the upper Araguari River, in the state of Amapá, northern Brazil. A total of 508 fish were collected and analyzed from July to November 2014, of which 82.6% (109) were parasitized by one or more crustacean ectoparasite species. In the ten host fish species, a total of 308 ectoparasite specimens were collected, from 12 taxa, such as Argulus multicolor Stekhoven, 1937, Argulus spinulosus Silva, 1980, Argulus sp.1, Argulus sp.2, Argulus sp.3, Dipteropeltis sp., Dipteropeltis hirundo Calman, 1912, Dolops bidentata Bouvier, 1899, Dolops striata Bouvier, 1899 (Argulidae), Braga fluviatilis Richardson, 1911, Braga amapaensis Thatcher, 1996 (Cymothoidae) and Excorallana berbicensis Boone, 1918 (Corallanidae). Higher levels of prevalence and abundance were recorded for Hoplias aimara (Valenciennes, 1847) and Tometes trilobatus Valenciennes, 1850, respectively. These ectoparasites were found in the fins, integument, mouth, and anus of the host fish. Argulus sp.2 and D. bidentata were the most abundant parasites (65.1%), and had the highest species richness. This study registered 36 novel host-parasite interactions, and thus represents a new record for all host species here examined.

Key words: Branchiura, isopoda, freshwater fish, infestation, parasites.

INTRODUCTION

The state of Amapá has two great basins, the Amazon River basin system and the North Atlantic Ocean basin, which have high levels of connectivity through lakes, rivers channels and floodplains, with singular physical and chemical parameters pivotal for the maintenance of the fish community (Hoorn 1994, Latrubesse et al. 2010, Cavalcanti et al. 2013, Hurd et al. 2016, Santos et al. 2018). The Araguari River basin is the main basin in the state of Amapá, and acts as an estuarine drainage network between the Amazon River and North Atlantic Ocean, with an area of 38,000 km². The river rises from its headwaters in the Serra do Tumucumaque Mountains of the Guiana Shields, and discharges

into the Atlantic Ocean throughout the Amazon delta. Along its course, it crosses the Amapá National Forest, the Amapá State Forest, the Lago Piratuba (Piratuba Lake) Biological Reserve (REBio), the municipalities of Porto Grande and Ferreira Gomes, includes three hydropower plants (Coaracy Nunes, Ferreira Gomes and Cachoeira Caldeirão), and drains almost all of its water volume into the Amazon River and a small portion into the Atlantic Ocean (Santos et al. 2018). Moreover, is characterized by rocky outcrops and small waterfalls, precluding its navigation, which is restricted to small boats used by the riverine population in their daily activities.

Anthropogenic factors, such as the building of hydroelectrical dams in the Araguari River basin, have caused long-term alterations to the course flow and water quality, binding the natural patterns of this aquatic ecosystem, as well as the native vegetation cover, river discharge, turbidity and oxygen level of water, and the submersion of microhabitats, resulting in changes in ecosystems, which can lead to alterations in the diversity and complex network of parasite-host interaction (Fearnside 2001, Thatcher 2006, Morley 2007, Cavalcanti et al. 2013, Santos et al. 2014, 2018, Sá-Oliveira et al. 2015). Among parasites of fish, crustacean species comprise three main taxa: Branchiura, Copepoda, and Isopoda. In general, these parasitic crustaceans have been reported on all the external body surfaces of the host fish, i.e., the integument, opercula, fins, eyes, oral cavity, gills, and/or anus (Thatcher 2006, Lima et al. 2013, Gentil-Vasconcelos & Tavares-Dias 2015, 2016, Oliveira et al. 2019). Fish are important hosts in the biological cycle of crustacean ectoparasites (Tavares-Dias et al. 2015, Oliveira et al. 2017). Parasitic crustaceans are widely distributed in freshwater watersheds, and often affect host biology and fitness, playing a crucial role in the regulation of the fish community (Alberto et al. 2009, Tavares-Dias et al. 2014).

Few studies on parasite crustaceans of fish in the Araguari River basin have been carried out. Those that have, in a reservoir area of the Coaracy Nunes hydropower plant, reported the occurrence of *Excorallana berbicensis* Boone, 1918; Argulus chicomendesi Malta & Varella, 2000 and *Ergasilus turucuyus* Malta & Varella, 1996 in *Psectrogaster falcata* Eigenmann & Eigenmann, 1889 (Curimatidae); Ageneiosus ucayalensis Castelnau, 1855 (Auchenipteridae); Acestrorhynchus falcirostris Cuvier, 1819 (Acestrorhynchidae); Hemiodus unimaculatus Bloch, 1794 (Hemiodontidae); Serrasalmus *gibbus* Castelnau, 1855 (Serrasalmidae) and *Geophagus proximus* Castelnau, 1855 (Cichlidae) (Gentil-Vasconcelos & Tavares-Dias 2015, Gentil-Vasconcelos & Tavares-Dias 2016). However, no other study has been carried out of fish in the Araguari River basin, despite the importance of knowledge about the diversity of parasitic crustaceans in host fish. Thus, the aim of the present study was to investigate parasite crustaceans in ten fish species from the Araguari River, in the state of Amapá, northern Brazil.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Fish and collection site

The fish were collected in the upper stretch of the Araguari River, between the municipalities of Serra do Navio and Ferreira, in the state of Amapá, in northern Brazil, at geographic coordinates 1°4′26.11"N 51°59′1.94"W; 1°7′16.50"N 51°58′59.64"W; 1°12′43.59"N 52°0′8.70"W; 1°13′50.97"N 51°59′59.53"W; 1°16′52.75"N 51°59′47.51"W and 1°18′8.54"N 51°58′52.28"W (Figure 1). The fish were collected in July and November 2014. For fish collection, gill nets of different measures and hook lines were used. Afterwards, the weight (g) and total length (cm) were measured for each fish.

Collection procedures and analysis of parasites

Immediately after capture, each fish was transferred to a tray and the sites of infection, such as the mouth, gills, opercula, tegument, fins, and anus were analyzed to verify the presence of ectoparasite crustaceans. The crustaceans collected were then fixed in ethyl alcohol (70%) for 24 hours and preserved in ethyl alcohol (70%) with glycerin (10%). Parasites were clarified for analysis of morphological structures using potassium hydroxide 5%, as recommended by Oliveira et al. (2021). Small parasites (Branchiura)



Figure 1. Geographic location of fish collection sites in the upper Araguari River, in the state of Amapá, northern Brazil.

were clarified whole and mounted on temporary slides containing glycerin for morphological visualization. Larger parasites (Isopoda) were dissected and parts of taxonomic interest were clarified in potassium hydroxide 5% and temporary slides were mounted. The parasites identification was carried out according to Van Name (1925), Lemos de Castro (1959), Silva (1980), Malta (1982), Lemos de Castro (1985), Lemos de Castro & Loyola-Silva (1985) and Thatcher (2006). The parasitological descriptors of prevalence, mean abundance and mean intensity were measured as recommended by Bush et al. (1997). Abundance data were subjected to normality analysis using the Shapiro-Wilk test from the "RVAideMemoire" package (Herve 2023), which showed a non-normal distribution. Spearman's

correlation was used to assess the influence of fish length and weight on parasite abundance, using the tidyverse package (Wickham et al. 2019) in R software (R Core Team 2021). For this analysis, we considered three scenarios: (1) Isopoda abundance; (2) abundance of Branchiura and (3) the sum of the abundance of Isopoda and Branchiura, in order to evaluate the behavior of the results.

Ethics statement

Fish collection was authorized by ICMBio (№ 42203-1), and the procedures involving animals were approved by the Ethics Committee on Animal Use of the Fish Biology Laboratory of the Federal University of Amapá (UNIFAP) approved the procedures involving animals (Protocol number 47757715.5.0000.0003).

RESULTS

A total of 558 specimens of fish distributed in 26 species were collected and analyzed (Table I). Of these, only 109 fish of 10 species were parasitized by crustacean ectoparasites (Tables I and II). Overall, 11.9% of Acestrorhynchus microlepis (Jardine, 1841), 14.7% of Ageneiosus inermis (Linnaeus, 1766), 4.6% of Boulengerella cuvieri, 3.7% of Charax sp., 14.7% of H. aimara, 6.4% of M. asterias, 9.2% of M. ternetzi, 8.2% of *P. rhomboidalis*, 11.0% of *S. rhombeus* and 15.6% of *T. trilobatus* were infested by one or more species of parasite crustaceans. Of the 109 fish specimens examined, 82.6% (n = 90) were infested by *Argulus multicolor* Stekhoven, 1937; *Argulus spinulosus* Silva, 1980; *Argulus sp.1*; *Argulus sp.2*; *Argulus sp.3*; *Dolops bidentata* Bouvier, 1899; *Dolops striata* Bouvier, 1899; *Dipteropeltis hirundo* Calman, 1912; *Dipteropeltis* sp. (Argulidae), *Braga fluviatilis* Richardson, 1911;

Table I. Fish species parasitized and not parasitized by Branchiura and Isopoda, collected from the upper Araguari River, Amapá, Brazil. N = Number of fish collected.

| Host fish | N | Length (cm) | Weight (g) | Parasitized |
|--|----|-------------|-----------------|-------------|
| Acestrorhynchus falcirostris (Acestrorhynchidae) | 2 | 26.7 ± 1.8 | 205.5 ± 17.7 | No |
| Acestrorhynchus microlepis (Acestrorhynchidae) | 13 | 21.8 ± 1.9 | 114.3 ± 23.1 | Yes |
| Ageneiosus inermis (Auchenipteridae) | 57 | 31.8 ± 6.0 | 484.3 ± 311.7 | Yes |
| Boulengerella cuvieri (Ctenoluciidae) | 21 | 47.5 ± 8.7 | 1008.9 ± 593.4 | Yes |
| Charax sp. (Characidae) | 29 | 17.1 ± 2.6 | 107.0 ± 41.3 | Yes |
| Cichla sp. (Cichlidae) | 3 | 38.1 ± 9.8 | 1297.0 ± 971.2 | No |
| Hoplias aimara (Erythrinidae) | 42 | 44.7 ± 11.7 | 2075.5 ± 1698.4 | Yes |
| Hoplias sp. (Erythrinidae) | 3 | 29.5 ± 2.8 | 475.0 ± 114.0 | No |
| Hypostomus sp. (Loricariidae) | 2 | 16.3 ± 1.1 | 136.0 ± 29.7 | No |
| Leporinus maculatus (Anostomidae) | 13 | 21.8 ± 3.3 | 245.1 ± 110.5 | No |
| Leporinus melanostictus (Anostomidae) | 1 | 22.5 | 268.0 | No |
| Leporinus pellegrini (Anostomidae) | 7 | 22.8 ± 10.9 | 337.7 ± 221.5 | No |
| Mylesinus paraschomburgkii (Serrasalmidae) | 4 | 21.3 ± 1.9 | 364.3 ± 117.3 | No |
| Prosomyleus rhomboidalis (Serrasalmidae) | 26 | 29.1 ± 3.0 | 1082.5 ± 285.5 | Yes |
| Myloplus asterias (Serrasalmidae) | 50 | 14.6 ± 2.7 | 152.5 ± 53.2 | Yes |
| Myloplus sp. (Serrasalmidae) | 12 | 21.7 ± 6.7 | 566.0 ± 446.9 | No |
| Myloplus ternetzi (Serrasalmidae) | 29 | 18.2 ± 2.2 | 259.0 ± 48.3 | Yes |
| Pimelodus sp.1 (Pimelodidae) | 1 | 28.0 | 378.0 | No |
| Pimelodus sp.2 (Pimelodidae) | 2 | 25.5 ± 2.1 | 285.5 ± 43.1 | No |
| Satanoperca sp. (Cichlidae) | 1 | 19.0 | 200.0 | No |
| Serrasalmus eigenmanni (Serrasalmidae) | 6 | 13.1 ± 2.7 | 82.3 ± 63.1 | No |
| Serrasalmus elongatus (Serrasalmidae) | 12 | 14.4 ± 3.7 | 104.4 ± 92.6 | No |
| Serrasalmus rhombeus (Serrasalmidae) | 25 | 30.9 ± 5.1 | 1045.8 ± 478.3 | Yes |
| Tometes trilobatus (Serrasalmidae) | 67 | 36.1 ± 6.6 | 2170.0 ± 883.3 | Yes |
| Triportheus angulatus (Triportheidae) | 98 | 18.0 ± 2.4 | 103.9 ± 41.5 | No |
| Triportheus brachypomus (Triportheidae) | 32 | 19.7 ± 2.8 | 141.9 ± 49.2 | No |

Braga amapaensis Thatcher, 1996 (Cymothoidae) and *E. berbicensis* (Corallanidae). A total of 36 host-parasite associations were recorded. High prevalence, mean intensity and mean abundance values were reported for *D. bidentata* and *E. berbicensis* (Table I).

Argulidae presented the highest abundance and species richness (Figure 2). Among the host species, *A. microlepis* presented the highest species richness of the parasite crustaceans, followed by *H. aimara* (Figure 3).

There was positive correlation of branchiuran abundance with length and weight of the hosts (Figure 4). However, there was no correlation of isopod abundance with weight and length (Figure 5). There was also positive correlation of branchiuran + isopod with length and weight of the hosts (Figure 6).

DISCUSSION

Studies surveying the fauna of parasitic crustaceans and description of new species have revealed a richness of parasite crustaceans in the Amazon biome (Oliveira et al. 2017, Gaboardi et al. 2023). On the body surfaces of ten host fish species from the Araguari River we found ten species of Argulidae and three species of Isopoda, thus contributing 36 new records of host-parasite interactions. However, on the body surfaces of six fish species from an Araguari River reservoir, one species of Isopoda and two species of Argulidae have been reported (Vasconcelos & Tavares-Dias 2015).

Low (A. microlepis, A. inermis, B. cuvieri, M. asterias and S. rhombeus) to moderate (H. aimara and T. trilobatus) infestation of E. berbicensis occurred, with this parasite the most frequently occurring in the host fish studied herein. In the region of the present study, this species of isopod was previously reported in A. falcirostris, H. unimaculatus, P. falcata and S. gibbus, A. ucayalensis and G. proximus, with low infestation levels (Vasconcelos & Tavares-Dias 2016). Therefore, this parasite has no host specificity. Excorallana species are temporary parasites found in cryptic habitats and eventually parasitize fish species when emerging from

 Table II. Ectoparasite crustaceans of ten fish species collected in the upper Araguari River, in eastern Amazon,

 northern Brazil. P (%): Prevalence, MA: Mean abundance, MI: Mean intensity, TNP: Total number of parasites.

| Species of hosts and parasites | P (%) | MA | мі | TNP | Site of infestation | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-------|------|-----|-----|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| Acestrorhynchus microlepis (n = 13) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Braga amapaensis | 69.2 | 0.9 | 1.1 | 10 | Mouth | | | | | |
| Dolops striata | 7.7 | 0.3 | 4.0 | 4 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Argulus multicolor | 7.7 | 0.1 | 2.0 | 2 | Mouth | | | | | |
| Argulus sp.1 | 7.7 | 0.08 | 1.0 | 1 | Mouth | | | | | |
| Argulus sp.2 | 38.5 | 0.8 | 2.0 | 10 | Tegument and Mouth | | | | | |
| Dolops bidentata | 7.7 | 0.08 | 1.0 | 1 | Mouth | | | | | |
| Excorallana berbicensis | 7.7 | 0.08 | 1.0 | 1 | Mouth | | | | | |
| Ageneiosus inermis (n = 16) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Argulus sp.2 | 25.0 | 0.2 | 1.0 | 4 | Pectoral and caudal fins and tegument | | | | | |
| Excorallana berbicensis | 18.7 | 0.2 | 1.0 | 3 | Tegument | | | | | |

Table II. Continuation.

| Boulengerella cuvieri (n = 5) | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|------|----------|---------|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| Excorallana berbicensis | 20.0 | 0.6 | 3.0 | 3 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Dolops bidentata | 60.0 | 6.2 | 10.3 | 31 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Argulus sp.1 | 20.0 | 0.2 | 1.0 | 1 | Mouth | | | | | |
| Charax sp. (n= 4) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Argulus sp.2 | 50.0 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 2 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Braga fluviatilis | 25.0 | 0.2 | 1.0 | 1 | Anal fin | | | | | |
| Dipteropeltis hirundo | 25.0 | 0.2 | 1.0 | 1 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Dolops bidentata | 25.0 | 0.2 | 1.0 | 1 | Tegument | | | | | |
| | Hoplias aimara (n = 16) | | | | | | | | | |
| Dolops striata | 37.5 | 0.6 | 1.7 | 10 | Mouth | | | | | |
| Excorallana berbicensis | 75.0 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 20 | Anal and caudal fins, anus, mouth, and tegument | | | | | |
| Dipteropeltis sp. | 6.2 | 0.1 | 1.0 | 2 | Pectoral fin | | | | | |
| Dolops bidentata | 12.5 | 0.2 | 1.5 | 3 | Dorsal fin and tegument | | | | | |
| Argulus sp.2 | 93.8 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 73 | Caudal fin | | | | | |
| | Myloplus asterias (n = 7) | | | | | | | | | |
| Excorallana berbicensis | 14.3 | 0.1 | 1.0 | 1 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Dolops bidentata | 28.6 | 0.3 | 1.0 | 2 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Argulus sp.3 | 28.6 | 0.4 | 1.5 | 3 | Pectoral fin | | | | | |
| Braga fluviatilis | 28.6 | 0.4 | 1.5 | 3 | Adipose fin and tegument | | | | | |
| | | Mylo | oplus te | ernetzi | (n = 10) | | | | | |
| Dipteropeltis sp. | 40.0 | 0.4 | 1.0 | 3 | Pelvic fin | | | | | |
| Argulus spinulosus | 10.0 | 0.1 | 0.25 | 1 | Pelvic fin | | | | | |
| Dolops bidentata | 60.0 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 6 | Caudal fin and tegument | | | | | |
| Braga fluviatilis | 50.0 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 5 | Adipose fin e tegument | | | | | |
| | Prosomyleus rhomboidalis (n = 9) | | | | | | | | | |
| Dolops bidentata | 55.6 | 2.7 | 4.8 | 24 | Pelvic and anal fin, mouth, eye and tegument | | | | | |
| Serrasalmus rhombeus (n = 12) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Excorallana berbicensis | 25.0 | 0.25 | 1.0 | 3 | Mouth and tegument | | | | | |
| Braga fluviatilis | 8.3 | 0.08 | 1.0 | 1 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Dolops bidentata | 25.0 | 0.4 | 1.3 | 5 | Mouth and tegument | | | | | |
| Dolops striata | 8.3 | 0.08 | 1.0 | 1 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Tometes trilobatus (n = 17) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Excorallana berbicensis | 56.25 | 0.7 | 1.2 | 11 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Dolops bidentata | 100 | 3.4 | 3.4 | 54 | Tegument | | | | | |
| Dipteropeltis sp. | 6.25 | 0.06 | 1.0 | 1 | Pectoral fin | | | | | |

these habitats to feed (Delaney 1989). Hence, it is believed that *E. berbicensis* is found in host fish when it performs vertical migrations in the water column (Gentil-Vasconcelos & Tavares-Dias 2015).

Cymothoidae species are obligate parasites from freshwater, brackish and marine teleost and chondrichthyan fish (Smit et al. 2014) and possess 46 genera and 386 valid species (WoRMS 2023). Thatcher (1996) described *B. amapaensis* in *A. microlepis* from the state of Amapá; however, since then, no record of this parasite species has been carried out, until now. Therefore, this second report of *B. amapaensis* shows a high prevalence and low abundance and represents the first study on parasitic infestation, which was similar to that reported for other Cymothoidae species (Oda et al. 2015, Tavares-Dias et al. 2015, Oliveira et al. 2017). Therefore, it seems that *B. amapaensis* has a high host specificity, emphasizing the need for further studies to elucidate this issue. Moreover, we found low



Figure 3. Parasite species richness in ten fish species from the upper Araguari River, in the eastern Amazon, northern Brazil.

infestation of *B. fluviatilis* on the body surface of M. ternetzi, M. asterias, S. rhombeus and Charax sp., but with a higher prevalence in *M. ternetzi*. Low infestation by B. fluviatilis has been reported for Leporinus friderici Bloch, 1794 from the Jari River basin, in the state of Amapá (Oliveira et al. 2017). B. fluviatilis has been also reported for Pimelodidae gen. sp.; Serrasalmus spilopleura Kner, 1858 (Hamann 1998), Loricariichthys anus Valenciennes, 1835, Salminus brasiliensis Cuvier, 1816 (Lemos de Castro 1959), C. temensis (Brasil-Lima & Barros 1998), Cichlasoma sp., Hypostomus sp., Salminus spp. and Sorubim lima Bloch & Schneider, 1801 (Thatcher 2006). However, this was the first report of *B. fluviatilis* for *M. ternetzi*, M. asterias, S. rhombeus and Charax sp.

Argulidae is the richest and most abundant taxon of parasitic crustaceans, and this may be associated to the lifestyle of these ectoparasite crustaceans. This pattern has also been reported in previous studies in fish from central Amazon (Malta 1984) and eastern Amazon (Oliveira et al. 2017, Neves & Tavares-Dias 2019). Among argulids, low to moderate infestations by D. bidentata occurred on the body surface of A. microlepis, B. cuvieri, Charax sp., H. aimara, M. asterias, M. ternetzi, P. rhomboidalis, S. rhombeus and T. trilobatus, all new hosts for this argulid species. Dolops bidentata is known to parasitize the body surface of Anostomidae, Serrasalmidae, Prochilodontidae and Cichlidae fish species (Malta 1982, Lugue et al. 2013). Therefore, D. bidentata has no host-specificity, as well as other fish lice species found herein. Moreover, D. striata occurred only in A. microlepis, H. aimara and Hoplias aimara, and had a low infestation level. This argulid species has also been reported infesting other species of fish with this same pattern of infestation on the body surface, due to lack of host-specificity (Malta & Varella 1983, Malta 1984, Lugue et al. 2013, Pereira et al. 2017). Argulus sp. infested only A. microlepis and B. cuvieri, while Argulus sp.2 infested A. microlepis,



Figure 4. Spearman correlation to evaluate the relationship between Branchiura abundance and host length and weight.

Charax sp., A. inermis and H. aimara, and Argulus sp.3 infested only M. asterias.

The Dipteropeltis genus has only three valid species, and is found exclusively in Neotropical region, namely, Dipteropeltis campanaformis Neethling, Malta & Avenant-Oldewage (Neethling et al. 2014), *Dipteropeltis* longicaudatus Gaboardi, Reeves, Morey, Stanton & Carney, 2023 (Gaboardi et al. 2023) and D. hirundo (Calman, 1912). Dipteropeltis *hirundo* occurred only in *Charax* sp. and with low infestation and was a new host for parasite species. A new species of *Dipteropeltis* sp. (which will be described in another study) was found infesting H. aimara, T. trilobatus and M. ternetzi. Low infestation levels of *D. hirundo* have also been reported for Acestrorhynchus sp.; Astyanax fasciatus Cuvier, 1819; Brycon melanopterus Cope, 1872; Luciopimelodus pati Valenciennes, 1835; Mylossoma aureum Spix & Agassiz, 1829; S. brasiliensis; Salminus franciscanus Lima & Britski, 2007 and *Pygocentrus piraya* Cuvier 1819, which

were the only host fish known for this argulid species (Lemos de Castro 1985, Luque et al. 2013). Carvalho 1941 reports *D. hirundo* in two species of lambarí, the yellowtail (*Tetragonopterus aureus*) and the redtail (*Tetragonopterus rutilus*). However, *Tetragonopterus aureus* was possibly misnamed by this author, and based on reclassifications of the group, it is possible that the hosts mentioned are actually *Astyanax lacustris* (yellow-tailed lambari) and *Astyanax rutilus* (red-tailed lambari). Therefore, the present study enlarged the host fish species for *D. hirundo*.

Aspects inherent to the host, such as size and weight, are important variables that explain part of the abundance of parasites in host fish population (Poulin 2007, Poulin & Leung 2011, Baia et al. 2018). Our results clearly show this, since there was a positive correlation between the abundance of crustacean ectoparasites and the length and weight of the host fish. Therefore, fish size plays an important role



Figure 5. Spearman correlation to evaluate the relationship between Isopoda abundance and host length and weight.



Figure 6. Spearman correlation to evaluate the relationship between Branchiura + Isopoda abundance and host length and weight.

in the abundance of parasites in a host population, and as the fish grows, either in length and/or weight, it becomes a potential target for the colonization of new crustacean parasites. This is probably because larger fish have a greater surface area to establish a larger population of these ectoparasites. We observe positive correlation between the abundance of branchiurans and the size host fish, similar correlation was reported for ectoparasites in Amazonian fish (Baia et al. 2018).

In conclusion, 308 parasite crustaceans were found on the body surfaces of the ten host fish species examined, being argulids the richest taxa in the community of these ectoparasites. Furthermore, most fish examined had a low abundance of ectoparasites, except for *A. microlepis* and *H. aimara*, which were the most parasitized hosts. Lastly, the present study reports new hosts for parasite crustacean species.

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