

1 **Simulating land use changes, sediment yields, and pesticide use in the Upper Paraguay**
 2 **River Basin: implications for conservation of the Pantanal wetland**

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38

39 **Abstract**

40 As a consequence of accelerated and excessive use of pesticides in tropical regions,
41 wilderness areas are under threat; this includes the Pantanal wetlands in the Upper Paraguay
42 River Basin (UPRB). Using a Land Cover Land Use Change (LCLUC) modelling approach,
43 we estimated the expected pesticide load in the Pantanal and the surrounding highlands
44 region for 2050 under three potential scenarios: i) business as usual (BAU), ii) acceleration of
45 anthropogenic changes (ACC), and iii) use of buffer zones around protected areas (BPA).
46 The quantity of pesticides used in the UPRB is predicted to vary depending on the scenario,
47 from an overall increase by as much as 7.4% in the UPRB in the BAU scenario (increasing
48 by 38.5% in the floodplain and 6.6% in the highlands), to an increase of 11.2% in the UPRB
49 (over current use) under the AAC scenario (increasing by 53.8% in the floodplain and 7.5%
50 in the highlands). Much higher usage of pesticides is predicted in sub-basins with greater

51 agricultural areas within major hydrographic basins. Changing the current trajectory of land
52 management in the UPRB is a complex challenge. It will require a substantial shift from
53 current practices, and will involve the implementation of a number of strategies, ranging from
54 the development of new technologies to achieve changes in land use policies, to increasing
55 dialogue between farmers, ranchers, the scientific community, and local or traditional
56 communities through participatory learning processes and outreach.

57 **Keywords:** Land Cover Land Use Change, sedimentation, agriculture, biodiversity, Paraguay
58 River, agrochemical.

59

60 **1. Introduction**

61 Studies estimate that global agricultural expansion is expected to increase food production for
62 more than nine billion people by 2050 (Foresight, 2011). This increase will further risk
63 damaging environmental quality and food security (Phalan et al., 2011; Springmann et al.,
64 2018). Expanding agricultural land use will likely accelerate the excessive use of existing
65 pesticides as well as spurring the development and production of new pesticides (Popp et al.,
66 2012). In response to the negative ecological and human health impacts surrounding the use
67 of organophosphorus and organochlorine pesticides, new pesticides were developed in the
68 1990s, including neonicotinoids, which were rapidly adopted in agriculture (Thany, 2010;
69 Morrissey et al., 2015; Hunt et al., 2016). Unfortunately, the use of these substances has
70 increased globally in spite of compelling evidence of their detrimental ecological effects,
71 including alarming declines in terrestrial insect pollinators, with potentially catastrophic
72 implications for native vegetation and food crop production, and ultimately for animal and
73 human health (Brittain et al., 2010; Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys, 2019; Srivastava et al.,
74 2020). Due to their ability to persist in the aquatic or terrestrial environment, pesticides can
75 affect individuals through bioaccumulation, and may cause impacts throughout the trophic

76 chain through biomagnification, affecting animal and potentially human health. There is
77 evidence that some pesticide exposures are linked to acute (pesticide poisoning), and chronic
78 (fetal malformations and cancer) effects on human health conditions (Bonner and Alavanja,
79 2017; Kim et al. 2017, Pignati et al., 2017).

80 In Brazil, pesticide use has increased dramatically since 1990. Indeed, in 2017,
81 pesticide use in the country was three-times higher than the global average (Bombardi, 2019).
82 The pesticide market in Brazil is currently worth US\$10 billion per year (Gonzales, 2020). As
83 a result of this massive pesticide use, wilderness areas are under threat, including the
84 Amazonian frontier (Schiesari et al., 2013) and the Pantanal (Laabs et al., 2002). There are
85 also additional human health implications, with one in four municipalities in Brazil having
86 drinking water contaminated by pesticides (Aranha and Rocha, 2019), as well as threats from
87 consumption of contaminated fish and shellfish (Alho and Reis, 2017).

88 Many concerns have been raised about pesticide concentrations in the Upper
89 Paraguay River Basin that provides a major input of flood waters to the Pantanal, the world's
90 largest tropical wetland. Although concern is increasing about pesticide impacts on
91 environmental and human health in the Brazilian portions of the Amazon and Cerrado (the
92 Brazilian Savanna), the impacts on the Pantanal biome are still relatively unknown (Vieira et
93 al., 2001). More than 474,000 inhabitants live in the 16 municipalities that make up the
94 Pantanal (IBGE, 2010), and the region also hosts millions of visitors from all over the world
95 each year. The Pantanal's biodiversity includes globally significant threatened wildlife
96 species such as the jaguar (*Panthera onca*), giant armadillo (*Priodontes maximus*) and
97 hyacinth macaw (*Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus*) (Harris et al., 2005; Tomas et al., 2010;
98 Tomas et al., 2019). This extensive ecosystem also provides a wide range of ecosystem
99 services (e.g., providing water and food, and controlling sediment dynamics, among others),
100 which have been estimated to have a non-market monetary value greater than US\$ 59 billion

101 (US\$ 3,932.05 per ha/year) (Moraes et al., 2009; Bolzan et al., 2020). However, only around
102 10% of the Pantanal is formally designated as protected areas despite the extensive evidence
103 showing that agricultural and other anthropogenic activities in the wetland and surrounding
104 highland areas are negatively impacting ecosystem functions and wildlife health (Harris et al.,
105 2005; Alho and Sabino, 2011; Schulz et al., 2019; Tomas et al., 2019).

106 Until recently, traditional production in the Upper Paraguay River Basin involved
107 raising cattle, and little or no pesticides were used. Pesticide use apparently increased
108 minimally after the introduction of exotic pasture grasses in the 1970s. Pesticides have
109 increased with the introduction of large-scale soy bean and corn production from 2015 to
110 2020. As more of the land in the Upper Paraguay River Basin is brought into agricultural
111 production and intensive cattle ranching, the impacts of pesticides and erosion are becoming
112 more widespread, posing an increased threat to ecosystem functions as well as to animal and
113 human health (Miranda et al., 2008; Hunt et al., 2016). Pesticides such as cypermethrin,
114 endosulfan, 2,4-D, atrazine, L-cyhalothrin, permethrin and glyphosate are now widely
115 applied in the highland drainage areas surrounding the Pantanal that broadly encompass the
116 Upper Paraguay River Basin (UPRB) (Pignati et al., 2017). UPRB streams and rivers drain
117 into the Pantanal floodplain, transporting both water and sediments (Laabs et al., 2002;
118 Albuquerque et al., 2016). However, Rezende-Filho et al. (2015) highlighted an increase in
119 SO_4^{2-} content that mainly affects areas developed on sandstone formations and some
120 calcareous areas north of the Pantanal. The increase in SO_4^{2-} content (by approximately ten-
121 fold) is likely from agricultural origin, and is reflected in the floodplain along the São
122 Lourenço Basin down to its confluence with the Cuiaba River. There is very little
123 information on the extent, magnitude or impact of contamination, making it challenging to
124 implement policies to regulate pesticide use; this includes the development of policies for
125 evaluation of environmental risks.

126 While pesticide transport mechanisms through the Pantanal are currently not well
127 understood, relative to the surface- and below-ground flow paths, agriculture and cattle
128 ranching are expected to continue to increase, mainly in the surround highlands, for the
129 coming decades (Guerra et al., 2020a), with direct implications for increasing pesticide use
130 and increased river bed sedimentation. Moreover, legally required buffer strips along streams
131 (Permanent Protected Areas – “Áreas de Preservação Permanente” in Portuguese [APP]) are
132 lacking around many streams in the highlands, due to the past conversion of native vegetation
133 for use in agriculture and for cattle ranches. This process took place in the region primarily
134 during the 1970s and 80s (Silva et al., 2011), and may increase the possibility of pesticide
135 transport into the freshwater ecosystem. In addition, in the last 30 years in many areas of the
136 Cerrado, land use conversion to croplands has affected soil hydraulic properties, soil pH and
137 phosphorus content, as well as surface water nitrogen and pesticide contamination (Hunke et
138 al., 2014). Many pesticides become bound to fine sediment (silt and clay), which readily
139 erodes from agricultural land or from over-grazed pastures into the drainage network (Nowell
140 et al., 1999). To identify strategies for reducing these impacts, it is essential to understand
141 and predict the effects of pesticide contaminants on this unique ecosystem. Scenario
142 modeling is an important tool for predicting how changes in land use influence different
143 pathways of future human development and policy choices (Rosa et al., 2017). This is
144 particularly true for land use scenarios which may be used to: (1) help evaluate the potential
145 impacts of environmental resource mitigation measures, (2) more clearly delineate protected
146 areas, and (3) more efficiently distribute financial incentives to farmers who implement
147 alternative practices (Vernier et al., 2017).

148 Given that the quantity of pesticides used in an area is directly related to the area’s
149 land use, we first used Land Cover Land Use Change (LCLUC) to predict the amount of
150 pesticides which will be used in the UPRB by 2050. We estimated the expected pesticide load

151 in the Pantanal and the surrounding highlands region under three potential scenarios: i)
152 business as usual (BAU), ii) acceleration of anthropogenic changes (ACC), and iii) use of
153 buffer zones around protected areas (BPA). Because pesticides can be bound to fine
154 sediments, we also modelled fine-sediment yields in the UPRB for the same three scenarios.
155 We then explored different strategies to reduce the impact of pesticides in the region, with an
156 emphasis on strategies applied at the landscape scale.

157

158 **2. Methods**

159 *2.1 Study area*

160 The Pantanal is a 150,880 km² floodplain that collects water and sediment from rivers
161 originating in the UPRB highlands, which includes part of the Central Brazil Shield extensive
162 wetlands (Harris et al., 2005; Assine et al., 2015) (Figure 1). As a result, there is a complete
163 functional and ecological interdependence between the highlands and the floodplain (Harris
164 et al., 2005; Assine et al., 2015; Roque et al., 2016). The highlands are mostly covered by the
165 Cerrado, with portions of Amazon, Atlantic forest and Chaco vegetation in the northern,
166 southeastern and southern regions, respectively (Figure 1). The UPRB and the Pantanal in
167 Brazil are located in the states of Mato Grosso (MT) and Mato Grosso do Sul (MS), with
168 65% of the Pantanal located in MS (Boin et al., 2019; Schulz et al., 2019).

169 The region underwent a major intensification of land use over the last 30 years,
170 mainly in the highlands, which by 2016 had 61% of the land under human use, in contrast to
171 only 13% on the floodplain (SOS-Pantanal et al., 2017; Padovani, 2017). Vegetation loss,
172 mainly in the highland, has resulted in large environmental impacts in the wetlands (Harris et
173 al., 2005; Tomas et al., 2019), such as an increase in sediment loads of up to 191%, and water
174 discharge of up to 82%, which can lead to significant changes in flood dynamics (Bergier,
175 2013). Natural sediment loads generally create complex habitats in sedimentary basins

176 (Assine, 2003, Zani et al., 2012); however, excessive sediment loads associated with human
177 activity are highly detrimental to aquatic ecosystems, as they infill and bury microhabitats
178 with fine sediments and silt (Assine et al., 2015). Increased sediment loads have had
179 disastrous impacts in the Taquari River basin (which flows from the highlands into the
180 Pantanal), with accumulation of sediments in some segments of the river and permanent
181 flooding over a large area used for cattle ranching (Harris et al., 2005; Galdino et al., 2006;
182 Bergier and Assine, 2016; Bergier et al., 2018).

183

184 *2.2 Scenarios*

185 To predict the amount of pesticides that will be used in the UPRB by 2050, we considered
186 three possible scenarios, corresponding to different approaches towards management
187 practices that affect land use and sustainability. We assumed that: i) the current
188 environmental laws will be in force, ii) no new protected areas will be created, iii) the rate of
189 land use conversion will not be higher than that experienced in the last 15 years, iv) levels of
190 pesticide use will be the same as levels used today, and v) climate change will not affect the
191 use of pesticides, land use changes or sedimentation processes. Clearly, these assumptions are
192 simplistic and were adopted for pragmatic reasons; therefore, it is important to highlight that
193 our scenarios represent conservative estimates of potential future outcomes, and that the
194 amount of pesticides predicted should be seen as relative values used for comparative
195 analysis between the three scenarios, rather than the actual quantities that will likely be used
196 in the future.

197 In the BAU (business as usual) scenario, we projected native vegetation loss
198 following the trend of recent years (between 0.5 – 1.5% per year; Figure A1), and assumed
199 full implementation of the primary Brazilian environmental legislation (Native Vegetation
200 Protection Law – NVPL; Law 12,651/2012). The NVPL aims to limit natural vegetation

201 conversion and protect valuable ecosystems on all rural properties in Brazil. Revised in 2012
202 by law 12615/2012 (Soares-Filho et al., 2014), the NVPL requires landowners to maintain
203 natural vegetation on at least 20% of their land under the conservation category, Legal
204 Reserves (LR), in the Cerrado, Pantanal, Caatinga, Pampa and Atlantic Forest biomes (35%
205 in MT state, and 80% in the Amazon rainforest) (Metzger et al. 2019). Additionally, riparian
206 forest buffer strips with specified widths and specific vegetation types must be fully protected
207 as Permanent Preservation Areas (PPA) along streams, rivers, springs, lakes and areas with
208 >45% slope (Law 12,651/2012). These criteria were used in our BAU scenario.

209 In the AAC (acceleration of anthropogenic changes) scenario, we posited that political
210 and institutional changes in Brazil related to global pressures for food production, and
211 weakening of environmental protection, increase the amount of land lost to agricultural
212 expansion. In this scenario, we assumed that the highest rates of native vegetation conversion
213 to agriculture recorded among municipalities in the UPRB over the last 15 years would be the
214 trend during the modelled period (according to IBGE, acronym in Portuguese for the
215 Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics), while ensuring full implementation of the
216 NVPL.

217 In the BPA (buffered protected areas) scenario, we considered the same trends
218 assumed in the BAU scenario, with the addition of the creation of buffer zones (5 km in
219 width in accordance to the NVPL) around protected areas and indigenous lands, considering
220 that protected areas are a cornerstone of biodiversity conservation and uphold the rights of
221 indigenous peoples. The rationale behind the implementation of buffer zones is that native
222 vegetation in these areas of land can help prevent pollutants, including pesticides, fine
223 sediment and nutrients, from being delivered to streams, and thus can decrease the exposure
224 of wildlife, humans, and the wider ecosystem to pesticides (Hunt et al., 2017).

225

226 *2.3 Native vegetation loss model*

227 We used a validated spatially explicit model (Rosa et al. 2013; Guerra et al. 2020a) to
228 generate a prediction of the loss of native vegetation by 2050 under the three scenarios. This
229 model predicts the loss of vegetation by taking into account legal requirements, such as areas
230 where land use is restricted by the presence of legal reserves and protected areas. The model
231 involves two steps: the first step identifies the variables that explain vegetation loss in the
232 past, and the second step involves projecting the loss through time based on a probability
233 function (see all steps in Supplementary Methods). The key variables involved were
234 previously identified by Guerra et al. (2020a) (see Table A1) for the same region. It is
235 important to note that to be consistent with the previous models developed by Guerra et al.
236 (2020a), we used the SOS Pantanal data set, which differs in some aspects (land use
237 classification, Pantanal delineation) in relation to other land use data sets, such as IBGE and
238 MapBiomas.

239 For all scenarios, we considered the LR required under the NVPL, specifically 20%
240 for the Cerrado and 80% for Amazonia. For the floodplain region located in MS we
241 considered the value of LR using the State decreed (#14,273/2015) level of 40%. The
242 definition of LR values for the Pantanal wetland is still under debate, including in the context
243 of the new Pantanal Law that is under discussion in the Brazilian Congress. Therefore, the
244 level of 40% LR used in our study is only an indicative value. Previous scenario modelling
245 (Guerra et al., 2020a) predicted that most properties in the Pantanal will not reduce native
246 vegetation to the legislated threshold of having 20% LR (considering the LR of Cerrado in
247 the Pantanal established in the NVPL; Law 12,651/2012) over the next 30 years. As such, we
248 believe that using a value of 40% will not change the general outcomes of our study. For the
249 BPA scenario, we used a 5 km buffer around protected areas and indigenous lands and
250 assumed that within the buffer zones, the loss of native vegetation has been limited (Bellón et

251 al., 2020), and that pesticides have not been (and will not be) applied on these lands,
252 according to the Brazilian National System of Nature Conservation Units, or SNUC (Law
253 #9,985/2000; Decree #4340/2002).

254 We did not include the possible conversion of pasture into crops in calculating the
255 loss of vegetation probabilities. Although this is an important current trend, we were unable
256 to reliably predict future conversion rates, because they depend largely on unpredictable
257 trends in international demand for beef and/or crops. To characterize the pasture-crop mosaic,
258 we further assumed that agriculture corresponded to 36.8% of the highlands and 6.4% of the
259 Pantanal floodplain, following current trends (SOS-Pantanal et al., 2017). This assumption
260 means that our model likely underestimates pesticide use in the BAU scenario, because there
261 has been a trend of large areas of pasture being converted into agriculture in the UPRB over
262 the last 15 years (MapBiomass, 2019)

263

264 ***2.4 Pesticides***

265 To calculate the amount of pesticides used, we employed the average liters of pesticides per
266 hectare applied to different crops in Brazil, based on the study by Pignati et al. (2017). We
267 only considered soybean (17.7 L/ha) and corn (7.4 L/ha) crops, as they are the most common
268 crops in the study area, representing 58% and 30%, respectively, of the region's land used for
269 agriculture (IBGE, 2018). We then multiplied the average number of liters used per hectare
270 (12.55 L/ha) by the total estimated agricultural area that resulted from each scenario. Thus,
271 our estimates consider that the increase in the use of pesticides is proportional to the increase
272 in agricultural areas. To build the scenarios, we developed a baseline estimation of the
273 quantity of pesticide currently used (Pignati et al., 2017). This assumption is simplistic, and
274 is likely a gross underestimate, because hundreds of new pesticide products have been
275 approved recently in Brazil. However, because we have little information about the extent of

276 use of these new products, or about future technological developments, we believe that our
277 approach is sufficient to allow us, using the best information currently available, to increase
278 our understanding of the potential scope of pesticide-related problems under the three
279 different scenarios.

280

281 **2.5 Sediment yield**

282 Pesticides can contaminate the environment through direct application (Wauchope et
283 al., 1994) or from movement through the landscape in association with runoff or, more likely,
284 the transport of soils and sediment. Therefore, we estimated the amount of sediment that will
285 be produced in the highland drainage basins and in the wetlands, through the SDR (Sediment
286 Delivery Ratio) module of the InVEST 3.7.0 (The Natural Capital Project: Stanford, USA),
287 which is based on the Universal Soil Loss Equation: (USLE) Eq. (1) (Wischmeier and Smith,
288 1978). The USLE is a widely used empirical modeling approach, with known limitations that
289 have been addressed in several studies. In particular, the equation was not designed to erosion
290 from concentrated flow, such as from gullies, and it simplifies the complex and highly
291 heterogeneous hydrological and soil erosion processes that delivery sediment to rivers
292 (Trimble and Crosson, 2000; Belyaev et al., 2005; Quinton, 2013; Evans and Boardman,
293 2016a, 2016b;). Despite these limitations, USLE is considered a good instrument for
294 predicting soil losses due to laminar erosion, and it requires relatively little information when
295 compared to more complex models (Amorim et al., 2009).

296

297

$$298 \quad A=R*K*LS *C*P \quad (1)$$

299

300 where: A is the average soil loss per unit of area ($\text{t ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$); R is the rainfall erosivity

301 factor ($\text{MJ mm ha}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$); K is the soil erodibility factor ($\text{t h MJ}^{-1} \text{ mm}^{-1}$); LS is the
302 topographic factor (dimensionless); C is the soil use and management factor (dimensionless)
303 and P is the conservation dimension factor (dimensionless). A description of the variables
304 used is presented in the Supplementary Methods. The sediment yield in the basin is indicative
305 of the potential sediment that will reach the river network and potentially carry pesticides
306 with them, increasing the capacity of pesticides to reach the Pantanal floodplain. Clearly, it is
307 also a simplistic approach because the transport of pesticides through runoff depends on the
308 solubility, K_{ow} , and other characteristics. Thus, our scenario modelling only provides an
309 overview of the system.

310

311 **3. Results**

312 The agricultural area of UPRB currently represents 12% of its area (0.67% of the floodplain
313 and 19.9% of the highlands) (Table 1). In the BAU scenario, this area is predicted to
314 comprise 12.95% of the UPRB in 2050 (0.99% of the floodplain and 21.25% of the
315 highlands), while in the ACC scenario it could cover 13.06% in 2050 (1.07% of the
316 floodplain and 21.38% of the highlands). On the other hand, in the BPA scenario, the
317 agricultural area in 2050 may reach 12.93% of the UPRB (0.98% of the floodplain and
318 21.23% of the highlands) (Table 1).

319 The quantity of pesticides used in the UPRB is predicted to increase overall by as
320 much as 7.7% over current usage (directly proportional to predicted increases in agricultural
321 area) under the BAU scenario (increasing by 46.0% in the Pantanal floodplain and 6.8% in
322 the surrounding highlands) (Figure 2, Table 1). Under the AAC scenario, models predict
323 there will be a further increase in pesticides of 8.6% in the UPRB over current use (increasing
324 by 53.8% in the floodplain and 7.5% in the highlands), and the BPA scenario predicts an

325 increase of 7.4% in the UPRB (increasing by 38.5% in the floodplain and 6.6% in the
326 highlands) (Figure 2, Table 1).

327 For the AAC scenario, models predict increases in pesticide use (and agricultural land
328 area) of up to 0.8% in the UPRB over and above the increases that are predicted for the BAU
329 scenario (increasing to 7.0% in the floodplain and 0.6% in the highlands). For the BPA
330 scenario a 0.2% decrease in agricultural land area and pesticide quantities used was predicted
331 in the UPRB in relation to BAU (decrease to 1.3% in the Pantanal floodplain and 0.2% in the
332 surrounding highlands) (Table 1 and Figure 2).

333 According to the BAU scenario, the watersheds of the UPRB with the greatest
334 increase in agricultural area, and consequently, the greatest increase in pesticide use (Figure
335 3), will be Taquari 1 (46,892 ha), Miranda (41,343 ha), Paraguai Pant 01 (39,078 ha) and São
336 Lourenço (30,405 ha) (see the values of increase of agriculture of each basin in Figure 4).
337 However, in the BAU scenario, if we consider the proportional expansion of agriculture in
338 relation to the area of each watersheds, those most affected will be Cuiabá 2, Miranda,
339 Sepotuba, Paraguai 1 and Taquari 1 (considering the BAU scenario) (Figures 4 and 5).

340 The sediment yield within the UPRB will increase 402% by 2050 according to the
341 BAU scenario to over 75 t ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (increase of 458% in the floodplain and 398% in the
342 highlands). The AAC scenario predicts an increase of 460% in the UPRB (increase of 608%
343 in the floodplain and 449% in the highlands), while the BPA scenario predicts an increase of
344 223% in the UPRB by 2050 (increase of 191% in the floodplain and 226% in the highlands)
345 (Figure 6). For the AAC scenario, models predict an increase of 12% in the UPRB in relation
346 to BAU (increase of 26% in the floodplain and 10% in the highlands), and the BPA scenario
347 may decrease sediment yields to the UPRB by 36% in relation to BAU (decrease of 47% in
348 the floodplain and 34% on the highlands) (Figures 6 and 7).

349

350 **4. Discussion**

351 *4.1 Estimation and spatial heterogeneity of pesticide increase*

352 Transformation towards sustainability is needed to address many of the current and future
353 environmental and societal challenges that we are facing, and moving toward decreasing
354 pesticide use is clearly one of those challenges. Our analyses indicate that if the current
355 trajectory of land use change continues in the Pantanal and surrounding highland regions, the
356 level of pesticide use will increase by 8% (4.3 million liters) in the UPRB by 2050. Modeling
357 predictions have shown that if current trends continue, it is expected that in the next 30 years,
358 14,000 km² of native vegetation will be converted, primarily into agricultural use, in the
359 UPRB (Guerra et al., 2020a). In the Pantanal, the main motivation to replace the native
360 vegetation is the development of pastures containing African grasses, in order to increase
361 cattle production (Tomas et al., 2019).

362 Even taking into account the uncertainties associated with the global food market in
363 the aftermath of the coronavirus pandemic, it is expected that Brazilian commodity
364 production (e.g., soy bean, cattle, and corn) will continue to rise in response to international
365 demands for food production, particularly from China (CEPEA, 2020). In addition, even in
366 the face of the pandemic, the Brazilian government recently approved new pesticides (Ato N^o
367 31, de 4 de maio de 2020, Diário Oficial da União). This situation makes our scenario
368 “acceleration of anthropogenic changes” the most likely one. Therefore, it is critical to
369 promote and implement a range of policies and practices geared towards the reduction of
370 pesticide use.

371 BAU and ACC are similar in terms of predicted quantity of land/pesticide, and
372 sediment produced and their general spatial pattern. However, BAU and ACC are markedly
373 different in their implications for specific hydrographic basins. Much higher usage of
374 pesticides is predicted in the sub-basins with greater agricultural area within major

375 hydrographic basins such as the Taquari 1, Miranda, Paraguai Pant 01 and São Lourenço. In
376 particular, the floodplain is projected to see a 46% increase in pesticide application based on
377 the BAU scenario; however, this value is uncertain and dependent on the potential expansion
378 of agriculture in this region.

379 In addition to the increase in pesticide use that will occur in critical regions of the
380 floodplain, modelling also indicates that sediment production on the surrounding highlands
381 will increase substantially, but with marked spatial heterogeneities depending on the slopes,
382 and soil types. Areas with high potential for sediment production such as the Taquari River
383 basin also have high sediment yield. The passage of river water through the floodplains
384 results in sedimentation, accounting for the observed 43-69% losses observed among the
385 tributaries of the Paraguay River (Oliveira et al., 2019). High sediment production areas (>
386 200 t/ha/yr) are spatially clustered; this is concerning, as these sediments will likely move
387 downstream into the floodplain, causing river channel changes, such as that observed in the
388 Taquari River. Because many contaminants in aquatic systems become bound to sediments,
389 this increase in sediment load entering these waterways will likely be linked to increased
390 contaminants (including pesticides) in the Pantanal floodplain, thus compounding pesticide
391 impacts. These effects may be particularly the case in the Pantanal Vegetation Loss Arc
392 (Guerra et al., 2020a), a critical transitional region between the highlands and the Pantanal
393 floodplain, where less extensive flooding allows conversion of native habitat and
394 pasturelands into crops. Another important consideration is that despite being one of the
395 largest continuous wetlands on the planet (Alho, 2008) which hosts the most intact
396 contemporary mammal fauna in South America (Bogoni et al., 2020), less than 10% of the
397 Pantanal comprises formally protected areas, such as indigenous lands and national parks
398 (Tomas et al., 2019). Thus, as a result of increased, direct application of pesticides in the
399 floodplain, coupled with increased sedimentation derived from UPRB highland pesticide

400 application, pesticide levels in the region are substantial and continue to increase. More
401 pesticide exposure in the floodplain is of particular concern, given the global ecological
402 significance of the Pantanal wetlands.

403 The great loss of vegetation, especially in the highlands, is directly linked to impacts
404 on the Pantanal floodplain, particularly the movement and deposition of large quantities of
405 sediment. More than 90% of the sediment input onto the floodplain is produced in the
406 highlands (Guerra et al. 2020b), with a large proportion transported to the Taquari alluvial
407 megafan. Our study shows that some specific watersheds are more likely than others to
408 experience rapid land use changes, and they may be more affected by sediment transportation
409 in the coming years.

410 Areas with high potential for sediment production, such as the Taquari River basin,
411 also have high sediment yield. The sediment load of the Taquari River at the entrance to the
412 Pantanal is around 7.5 t/d and represents 50% of the sediment transported by the UPRB rivers
413 (Oliveira et al., 2019). The São Lourenço basin carries 20% of sediments, and the Miranda
414 and Aquidauana rivers around 10%. Although not all sediments produced in the highlands
415 reach the Paraguay River and its floodplain, most accumulate in the up-stream portions of
416 alluvial fans where inundation begins. This highlights the urgent need to improve land use
417 practices in all watersheds of the UPRB, including the Taquari watershed, which has a large-
418 scale influence on hydrological and sedimentological processes in the Pantanal (Assine et al.,
419 2015).

420 Our results showing the percent increase in agriculture in relation to basin area should
421 be evaluated by the heads of river basin committees, because they provide information on
422 how much native vegetation still exists and how much will be lost in the future in each
423 possible scenario, enabling prioritization of actions for the basins that avoid worst case
424 scenarios.

425

426 ***4.2 Implications for land use management and policy***

427 Changing the current trajectory of land management in the UPRB is a complex challenge. It
428 will require abandoning current practices, and introducing best practice, by developing new
429 technologies to improve land use, and increasing dialogue between farmers, ranchers, the
430 scientific community, and local or traditional communities through participatory learning
431 processes and outreach activities. Alongside these activities, many authors have already
432 identified that the first and crucial steps are stricter pesticide regulations and stronger
433 enforcement measures to decrease the illegal use of pesticides in Brazil. Moreover, given that
434 i) some municipalities in the highlands already use high levels of pesticides (up to 10⁷
435 L/ha/year) (Pignati et al., 2017); and ii) agrochemicals currently used on soy bean crops in
436 Brazil include 457 separate chemical formulations registered for use as pesticides, of which
437 219 are considered “extremely toxic” or “highly toxic” to humans, and 235 are “highly
438 dangerous” or “very dangerous” to the environment (Schiesari and Grillitsch, 2010), it is
439 essential that there is immediate implementation of Health Surveillance of Populations
440 Exposed to Pesticides (VSPEA), which involves applying the guidelines of the National
441 Worker Health Policy (Pignati et al., 2017).

442 The high agricultural productivity of Brazilian agribusiness underpins the high levels
443 of pesticide use in the UPRB; specifically, combined soybean, corn and cotton crops account
444 for more than 88% of all pesticides used in the region (Pignati et al., 2017). Therefore, any
445 solution which moves towards decreasing pesticide use must involve adoption of new
446 production strategies for these crops. Indeed, a number of recent studies have provided
447 evidence that lower use of pesticides has not resulted in any decreases in productivity or
448 profitability in arable farms in the temperate region (Lechenete et al., 2017); however, this
449 needs to be tested in tropical regions, such as the UPRB, to confirm that it is equally

450 applicable. Moreover, as land use changes in the UPRB are at least partially driven by
451 international demands for increased food production, there is a window of opportunity for
452 introducing international food safety management standards, involving global food supply
453 chains, and encouraging consumer-driven actions to support reduced pesticide use in the
454 UPRB.

455 Nature-based solutions at the landscape scale could contribute to the reduction of
456 sediment loads and pesticide impacts in the UPRB. As this study shows, buffer zones around
457 protected areas and streams, as well as proper soil management, can reduce the rate of
458 sedimentation, and consequently the amount of pesticides that would move from the
459 highlands into the Pantanal wetlands. Moreover, protecting native vegetation on private lands
460 beyond the minimum Legal Reserve requirements, and restoring non-compliance areas, as
461 specified by the NVPL would enhance ecological services provided by agricultural lands in
462 the Pantanal and UPRB highlands. This would help to decrease the rate of sediment
463 production (Guerra et al., 2020b) and promote greater ecological resilience (Stefanes et al.,
464 2016). These kinds of nature-based solutions can be particularly useful for this region,
465 because they can provide multiple benefits, such as food and water security, carbon
466 sequestration, protection of biodiversity and provision of space for recreation.

467 New technologies, and new and more efficient methods for carrying out organic
468 agriculture can also be utilized to help decrease pesticide use. For example, rather than
469 applying the same amount of pesticides over an entire agricultural field, precision agriculture
470 helps by measuring specific pest control needs and adapting pesticide use accordingly.
471 Precision farming and biological control have already been implemented on some farms in
472 the region, particularly those that are large, highly productive and financially well established
473 (Silva et al., 2007). Providing financial incentives for organic food production throughout the
474 UPRB will also be important, and will encourage sustainable production approaches across

475 the entire watershed, although achieving scale and creating a market will be significant
476 challenges. At the federal level, the National Policy on Agroecology and Organic Production
477 (Pnapo, Decree #7,794/2012) could serve to stimulate more organic production.
478 Complementary state policies are also important for improving sustainable production in the
479 Pantanal. The state of Mato Grosso do Sul also has specific legislation to encourage
480 agroecological and organic production initiatives (Law #5279/2018), and in Mato Grosso, a
481 similar law is under discussion. Local policies and incentives should also be developed at the
482 municipal level, particularly in those watersheds that are expected to suffer the most
483 pronounced land use changes. Although it has been poorly documented, hundreds of small
484 and medium sized properties in the UPRB have already been involved in some initiatives for
485 organic production and agro-forestry systems. Therefore, it is important to avoid
486 unsupportive or conflicting incentives or regulations that could hinder ongoing efforts to
487 reduce pesticides in the UPRB, for example avoiding policies that promote substantial use of
488 pesticides (e.g. by reducing importation taxes), while simultaneously seeking to promote
489 organic food production in the same region.

490 In summary, among potential sustainability strategies to reduce sediment loads and
491 pesticide impacts, we highlight: 1) promotion of agroecology and sustainable cattle
492 production in the UPRB, using clear diagnostic systems based on indicators as those
493 developed by the Fazenda Sustentavel Program (Tomas et al., 2019); 2) increasing the
494 conservation of native riparian vegetation along streams and rivers in the highlands, which
495 will reduce fine sediments being washed into drainage networks (Guerra et al., 2020b); 3) the
496 introduction of buffer zones around protected areas, in order to specifically protect them from
497 increased agricultural activities and deposition of contaminated sediments (Hunt et al.,
498 2017); and 4) reducing the use of pesticides per hectare by using new technologies.
499

500 *4.3 Limitations of our models and windows of opportunity for improvements*

501 Models cannot incorporate the full complexity of natural systems. We made a number of
502 necessary assumptions during the modeling process that could lead to differences between
503 model predictions and reality. However, our model and the resulting projected scenarios are
504 the first attempt to take this kind of approach and apply it to the decision making process in
505 the UPRB and, as such, provides an important basis for future work and management. It has
506 also highlighted a number of challenges for future studies. First, a finer scale quantification of
507 pesticide use, and understanding of the different pesticide routes of contamination and spread,
508 are needed for the UPRB. Second, new models should consider the species specific impacts
509 of different pesticides in terms of their toxicological effects (in this paper we simply
510 considered the total amount utilized without considering possible impacts on different
511 species). Third, better land use classification is critical to improve the outcomes of LCLUC
512 models; for example, a better discrimination between native and exotic pastures. Fourth, our
513 modelling approach, although very useful to forecast general land use trends, is purely a data-
514 driven biophysical model. Consequently, the model is unable to consider or quantify changes
515 in: (a) policy, (b) trade in agricultural crops, such as import, export or changing intra-and
516 international consumer demand, (c) human behavior and (d) technological innovation.
517 Furthermore, the magnitude of effects of the estimated drivers may not remain constant in
518 upcoming decades. Finally, we need studies that consider the nexus between climate change
519 and land use change, which can then predict the current and future consequences of increased
520 pesticide use, as well as the introduction of new pesticides, on biodiversity, health of human
521 and animal populations, the economy, and ecosystem services provided by the Pantanal. This
522 integrated model will be particularly important for identifying those human populations
523 which are at risk of exposure to potentially hazardous levels of pesticides.

524 Despite the current limitations, the information derived from the model provides a
525 useful comparison among the different scenarios considered, and an indication of general
526 trajectories of change. This comparison can be used to inform the development and ongoing
527 monitoring of more sustainable land use policies, and influence decision makers and other
528 stakeholders to consider necessary changes in land use policies. Future scenarios can be
529 included in regional planning strategies, such as ecological-economic zoning of the UPRB,
530 and analyses of the cost-effectiveness of reductions in pesticide use, which should include
531 different long term landscape-level approaches for different types of pesticides.

532

533 **Acknowledgments**

534 This study was supported in part by the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de
535 Nível Superior - Brazil (CAPES) finance Code 001 and CAPES Print.

536

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