

Title:

Native Fish Abundance and Habitat Selection Changes in the Presence of Nonnative Piscivores

Running Title: Nonnative predators impact native fishes

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Data availability:

Our data is publicly available and archived on the Open Science Framework (OSF): <https://osf.io/3j2kp/>

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No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors of this study.

Ethics statement:

No animals were subjected to handling and observations were carried out in a manner that caused minimal disturbance.

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ABSTRACT:

1 We compared abundance patterns and developed resource selection models for imperiled native  
2 southwestern (U.S.A.) fishes in the presence and absence of Black Bass (*Micropterus spp.*) to  
3 evaluate how fishes alter their selection for habitats when sympatric with a nonnative piscivore.  
4 We collected data using snorkel surveys and in-stream habitat sampling in Fossil Creek (AZ),  
5 upstream (native fish only) and downstream (native and nonnative fish) of a fish barrier. The  
6 abundance of all Roundtail Chub (*Gila robusta*), small ( $\leq 127$  mm total length (TL); vulnerable  
7 to predation) Sonora Sucker (*Catostomus insignis*), and Speckled Dace (*Rhinichthys osculus*)  
8 was significantly reduced, but the abundance of both small and large ( $>127$  mm TL; invulnerable  
9 to predation) Desert Sucker (*Catostomus clarkii*) was similar in sampling reaches with and  
10 without Black Bass. When sympatric with Black Bass, small Roundtail Chub increased their  
11 selection for riffles by 2.57 times and small Desert Sucker reduce their selection for pools by  
12 6.90 times while also selecting for faster flow velocity and finer substrates in lotic mesohabitats.  
13 Large native fishes altered selection least, notwithstanding an increased selection for canopy  
14 cover in sampling reaches with Black Bass. Observed shifts in resource selection are consistent  
15 with predator avoidance strategies. Our study highlights the behavioral consequences of  
16 nonnative piscivores on native fish communities and stresses the importance of maintaining lotic  
17 mesohabitats as potential refugia for vulnerable native fishes when nonnative piscivores are  
18 present.

Key words:

Native Fish, Stream Ecology, Desert Southwest, Roundtail Chub, Habitat Selection, Nonnative  
Species

19

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21 Freshwater ecosystems and the species they support are globally imperiled due to resource  
22 overexploitation, water pollution, flow regime modification, climate change, the widespread loss  
23 of habitat, and the proliferation of nonnative species (Xenopoulos et al. 2005; Dudgeon et al.  
24 2006; Tickner et al. 2020). Freshwater vertebrate populations have declined at more than twice  
25 the rate of terrestrial populations and wetlands are being lost at three times the rate of forest  
26 environments (Dudgeon et al. 2006; Comte et al. 2013; Tickner et al. 2020). Endemic freshwater  
27 fishes are particularly vulnerable and 28% of species investigated by the IUCN are at significant  
28 risk of extinction (IUCN 2019; Tickner et al. 2020).

29         Fundamental to the conservation of freshwater fishes is the identification of the physical  
30 features of the stream (e.g., depths, substrate, flow, cover, food) that collectively constitute  
31 habitat for a target species, and then to maintain that habitat in sufficient quantity to sustain  
32 viable populations (Rosenfeld and Hatfield 2006; Turner and List 2007). Assuming that higher  
33 quality habitats support a greater density of individuals (Mayor et al. 2009), increasing the  
34 spatiotemporal quantity of such habitats can increase the abundance and distribution of a target  
35 species (Fretwell and Lucas 1970; Rosenfeld and Hatfield 2006). A loss of habitat or reductions  
36 in habitat quality may force individuals to occupy suboptimal environments or disperse in search  
37 of new environments (McMahon and Tash 1988; Rosenfeld 2003), both of which would have  
38 negative fitness consequences (Mannan and Steidl 2013; Davis and Wagner 2016). The  
39 availability of suitable habitats is the major driver of species distribution, abundance, and  
40 diversity across spatial scales (Bunn and Arthington 2002) including the spatial distribution of  
41 individuals within a stream (Teresa and Casatti 2013). Under ideal free distribution, individuals  
42 arrange themselves in the spatial environment to maximize their fitness by selecting specific  
43 environmental features that provide adequate resources for survival, growth, and reproduction,

44 while minimizing external sources of mortality (e.g., predation; Fretwell and Lucas 1970;  
45 Rosenfeld and Hatfield 2006).

46 Modified flow regimes and other types of aquatic habitat degradation have decreased the  
47 quantity and quality of habitat available to native fishes and facilitated the spread and  
48 establishment of nonnative fishes (Bunn and Arthington 2002). Direct impacts of nonnative  
49 fishes include predation (Brown and Moyle 1991), competition (Rinne 1991), hybridization, and  
50 disease and parasite transmission (Tyus & Saunders 2000; Gozlan et al. 2010). Nonnative  
51 species can also indirectly affect native fishes. Native fishes avoid nonnative species to minimize  
52 predation risk and competition, potentially excluding individuals from previously selected  
53 resources (Brown and Moyle 1991; Bowers and Dooley 1993; Douglas et al. 1994; Mayor et al.  
54 2009). Many studies have documented shifts in native fishes' habitat selection resulting from the  
55 presence of nonnative species across freshwater fish taxa (Brown and Moyle 1991; Rinne 1991;  
56 Bohn et al. 2008). This illustrates the importance of understanding the habitat associations and  
57 requirements of native fishes and how those associations shift in the presence of nonnative  
58 fishes.

59 The native freshwater fish assemblage of the southwestern United States and northern  
60 Mexico (hereafter referred to as the Southwest) is one of the most imperiled faunal groups in  
61 North America (Minckley and Deacon 1968; Rahel 2000; Schade and Bonar 2005). More than  
62 two-thirds of the fishes endemic to the Southwest are listed as endangered, threatened, or a  
63 species of concern by state or federal agencies, one species has gone extinct, and multiple others  
64 have been locally extirpated (Rinne 1994; Minckley et al. 2002; Olden and Poff 2005; Turner  
65 and List 2007). The decline of the native Southwest fishes is primarily attributed to widespread  
66 habitat loss and expansion of nonnative fishes. Previous research has found that native Southwest

67 fishes face intense predation (Pilger et al. 2008), competition for resources (Rinne 1994), and are  
68 displaced from their trophic niche towards lower trophic positions by nonnative fishes (Marks et  
69 al. 2010; Rogosch and Olden 2020). The conservation and recovery of native Southwest fishes  
70 depends on a comprehensive knowledge of their habitat requirements and the ecological  
71 mechanisms that influence habitat selection (Rosenfeld and Hatfield 2006). Such efforts also  
72 require an understanding of how native species alter their selection for habitat in the presence of  
73 nonnative species, which are nearly ubiquitous within the Southwest (Clarkson et al. 2005;  
74 Schade and Bonar 2005).

75         In this study, we evaluated abundance patterns and modeled habitat selection via resource  
76 selection functions (RSFs) for native fishes of Fossil Creek, AZ in the presence and absence of  
77 nonnative Black Bass (*Micropterus spp.*) We used data collected upstream and downstream of a  
78 fish barrier which divided our study area into two sections, one exclusively occupied by native  
79 fish (upstream) and one in which Black Bass were present (downstream). We hypothesized that  
80 the abundance of fish occupying the ecological niche most similar to Black Bass would show  
81 significant differences in both abundance and habitat selection upstream and downstream of the  
82 barrier. Additionally, we hypothesized that species with less niche overlap with the nonnative  
83 Black Bass would be less impacted by its presence and would, therefore, have less need to alter  
84 their selection for habitat.

85

86 METHODS-

87 Study Site: -

88 Fossil Creek is a 23-km long spring-fed perennial river in central Arizona originating on  
89 the Mogollon Rim of the Colorado Plateau with a terminus at the Verde River (USFS 2011;  
90 Figure 1). The origin of the perennial reach of Fossil Creek, Fossil Springs, discharges 76  
91 m<sup>3</sup>/min, providing a steady year-round baseflow of 1.2 – 1.6 m<sup>3</sup>/s and a relatively constant  
92 temperature of approximately 21.1° C.

93 From 1909 – 2005, Fossil Creek’s flow was diverted to provide hydroelectricity. In 2005,  
94 the flow was restored to Fossil Creek and the river was federally designated as Wild and Scenic  
95 in 2009 (USFS 2011). As part of that restoration, a collaboration of management agencies  
96 removed nonnative fishes from the river, constructed a fish barrier 7 km upstream from the  
97 mouth of Fossil Creek, and repatriated native fishes. Two major washes (Sally May and Boulder  
98 Canyon; Figure 1) contribute loose alluvium into Fossil Creek and as a result, there is a transition  
99 from large deep pools upstream to shallower pools of finer substrates downstream of these  
100 inputs. As such, there are some differences to the physical features of the river upstream and  
101 downstream of these washes (Marks et al. 2006; Carter and Marks 2007; Marks et al. 2009).

102 Today, the upper 16.5 km of Fossil Creek retains an exclusively native fish community  
103 that consists of Roundtail Chub (*Gila robusta*), Desert Sucker (*Catostomus clarkia*), Sonora  
104 Sucker (*Catostomus insignis*), Longfin Dace (*Agosia chrysogaster*), Speckled Dace (*Rhinichthys*  
105 *osculus*), and Spikedace (*Meda fulgida*). Since restoration, nonnative fishes have recolonized  
106 Fossil Creek from the Verde River, but are not present above the fish barrier. The only nonnative  
107 fish observed in our study were Black Bass (likely Smallmouth Bass (*Micropterus dolomieu*) and  
108 Redeye Bass (*Micropterus coosae*) hybrids (Valente et al. 2021); however, additional species  
109 (e.g., Green Sunfish (*Lepomis cyanellus*), Red Shiner (*Cyprinella lutrensis*), catfishes  
110 (*Ictaluridae spp.*)) are likely present downstream of the barrier.

111 We conducted snorkel surveys in seventeen sampling reaches (mean length = 102.53 m;  
112 range = 90 – 130 m) in the summer (June–August) of 2019 and 2020 while Fossil Creek was at  
113 baseflow. Nine sampling reaches were upstream of the fish barrier where no nonnative fishes  
114 were present and eight were downstream of the fish barrier where native and nonnative fish were  
115 present. Four of the “upstream” sampling reaches, and all “downstream” sampling reaches were  
116 downstream of the aforementioned Sally May Wash and Boulder Canyon (Figure 1). Because  
117 sections of Fossil Creek are extremely remote and difficult to access, we restricted sampling site  
118 selection to accessible areas. Within accessible areas, we randomly selected the start of each  
119 sampling reach. To avoid beginning a survey in the middle of a mesohabitat unit, which could  
120 induce a fright bias, we walked downstream to the start of the nearest mesohabitat unit (pool,  
121 riffle, run) upon arrival at the random point. Each sampling reach extended ~100 m upstream  
122 from the established starting point. If we snorkeled 100 m and were in the middle of a  
123 mesohabitat unit, we either shortened or extended the reach to the end of the nearest mesohabitat  
124 unit. We removed two sampling reaches located downstream of the fish barrier due to high  
125 turbidity at the time of snorkeling.

126 *Habitat Use:* -

127 The water within Fossil Creek was exceptionally clear and daytime snorkel surveys were  
128 effective for estimating fish abundance and habitat use in this river (Marks et al. 2010). Two  
129 observers sampled each reach concurrently, beginning 5 m below the starting point of the survey,  
130 and proceeded upstream to the upstream terminus of the survey. We snorkeled in tandem to split  
131 the stream into two equal halves and maintained communication to ensure full observational  
132 coverage as per methods described in Strakosh et al. (2003).

133           We placed a colored and numbered washer on the substrate directly below the location of  
134 an observed fish. We then recorded washer number and color, species common name, and an  
135 estimated fish total length (TL) on a SCUBA slate (Strakosh et al. 2003). We estimated fish size  
136 in imperial measurements and converted these measurements to metric, as technicians were more  
137 comfortable making estimations on this scale. We limited our analyses to fish with a TL  $\geq$  67  
138 mm (3 in) because smaller individuals, especially cyprinids, are difficult to identify while  
139 snorkeling (Li 1988). We included Speckled Dace in our analysis despite this species falling  
140 below the established size threshold as their distinctive coloration and pattern aided their  
141 identification. If a group of individuals ( $\geq 1$ ) was located within a 1 m<sup>2</sup> area with homogenous  
142 environmental conditions, we recorded the total number of individuals observed and an  
143 estimated size for each individual but placed only one washer in the group's central location.

144           We measured total depth (m), flow velocity (m<sup>3</sup>/s), substrate composition (modified  
145 Wentworth scale), canopy cover (proportion), and recorded the GPS coordinates at each washer  
146 location immediately after snorkeling. We measured water depth using a U.S. Geological Survey  
147 top-setting wading rod and flow velocity at approximately 60% of total depth using a Marsh-  
148 McBirney electromagnetic flow meter (Hach Company, Loveland, Colorado). We visually  
149 assessed the dominant substrate type within 1 m<sup>2</sup> of the washer using a modified Wentworth  
150 substrate classification (0 = silt < 0.062 mm; 1 = sand 0.62 – 2 mm; 2 = gravel 2 – 4 mm; 3 =  
151 pebble 4 – 64 mm; 4 = cobble 64 – 256 mm; 5 = boulder > 256 mm) and measured canopy cover  
152 with a spherical densiometer following methods in Lemmon (1956), in which four canopy  
153 measurements are taken (upstream, downstream, left bank, and right bank) and the mean canopy  
154 cover value recorded. Finally, we assigned each washer to a mesohabitat type (pool, riffle, or  
155 run).

156 *Available Habitat:* -

157 We measured the same five habitat measurements along transects set perpendicular to the  
158 stream thalweg within each sampling reach to characterize habitat availability. We placed the  
159 first transect one mean-stream-width upstream from the start of the sampling reach, with  
160 additional transects placed every 10 m upstream until the end of the sampling reach. We then  
161 acquired measurements at five equidistance points along each transect. If the width of the  
162 transect was greater than 10 m, we took the first measurement 1 m off the streambank and if the  
163 width of the transect was less than 10 m, we took the first measurement at 0.5 m from the stream  
164 bank. We alternated each transect's starting point between stream banks. To measure substrate,  
165 we placed a 1 m chain with demarcations every 10 cm on the streambed, perpendicular to the  
166 transect. We categorized the dominant substrate type (modified Wentworth Scale) by estimating  
167 substrate class at each 10 cm demarcation and calculating the mode of the ten substrate classes.

168 *Data Analysis:* -

169 We classified all fish  $\leq 127$  mm (5 inches) TL as small fish and all fish  $> 127$  mm TL as  
170 large fish. This classification was based on Gaeta et al. (2018), which found that cyprinids  $> 127$   
171 mm TL exceed the maximum prey size of most Black Bass  $\geq 300$  mm TL, which was the upper  
172 range of Black Bass TL observed within Fossil Creek. We assumed large fish to be invulnerable  
173 to predation by Black Bass.

174 *Fish Abundance*

175 We calculated relative abundance as the number of fish per 100 m of sampled stream ( $n =$   
176 15). We calculated relative abundance for both small and large fish individually. We used a  
177 Wilcoxon signed-rank test to test differences in the relative abundance of each native species in

178 the presence and absence of nonnative Black Bass. Our null hypothesis was that there was no  
179 difference in the mean abundance of species or size-classes between sampling reaches with and  
180 without nonnative fishes present. Additionally, we modeled fish abundance relative to  
181 mesohabitat (pool, riffle, run) for small and large fish, both in the presence and absence of Black  
182 Bass. We standardized observations to a single mesohabitat unit and calculated the number of  
183 fish present per mesohabitat unit in pools, riffles, and runs separately. We then compared the  
184 mean abundance of each species/size class among mesohabitats using a nonparametric Kruskal-  
185 Wallis test. Our null hypothesis was that there is no difference in the mean abundance of fish  
186 among mesohabitats: pool, riffle, and run. We conducted all analyses in Program R (v. 4.2.2, R  
187 Core Team 2022) and used  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

188 *Habitat Selection (Resource selection functions):*

189 We modeled habitat selection using resource selection functions (RSFs) which are  
190 proportional to the probability of selection and quantify the relative selection strength for habitat  
191 features (e.g., sampling points or raster pixels; Manly et al. 2002; Lele et al. 2013; Avgar et al.  
192 2013). We estimated RSF's using a used versus available study design, where habitat covariates  
193 are measured at units used by the study species and also at random units representing the range  
194 of habitat conditions available to the study species (Manly et al. 2002; Johnson et al. 2006). In  
195 our study, used units represented sampling units where fish were observed, and available units  
196 represented measurements from our transects. We used the exponential form of the RSF  
197 (generalized linear mixed model (GLMM); e.g., logistic regression; Johnson et al. 2006; Manly  
198 et al. 2002; Warton and Shepherd 2010). Under this form, the coefficients from the binomial  
199 GLM ( $\beta$ ) are selection coefficients describing the relative strength of selection for habitat

200 covariate  $X$  (Avgar et al. 2017; Fieberg et al. 2021) and  $W(x)$  describes the relative probability or  
201 intensity of use of a particular location within the stream:

$$202 \quad W(x) = \exp(\beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots + \beta_n X_n) \quad [1]$$

203 Prior to analysis, we  $z$ -score standardized continuous covariates to facilitate comparing  
204 the selection strength of each covariate. We weighted used points based on the count of  
205 individuals present at each sampling unit (e.g., washer location). We also assigned large weights  
206 (5000) to each available point because previous studies have demonstrated the equivalence  
207 between a binomial GLM with highly weighted available points and an inhomogeneous Poisson  
208 point process model which facilitates the interpretation of RSF coefficients as relative selection  
209 strength and provides better estimates of relative intensity of use (Warton and Shepherd 2010;  
210 Fithian and Hastie 2013; Fieberg et al. 2021). We used a mixed-modeling framework and  
211 specified random intercepts by sampling reach ( $n = 15$ ) to account for differences among  
212 sampling reaches and pseudo-replication (Gillies et al. 2006). We fit our RSFs using a GLMM  
213 with a binomial error distribution and logit link using the glmmTMB package (Brooks et al.  
214 2017) in R.

215 We used a hierarchical approach to modeling habitat selection. We first modeled  
216 mesohabitat selection, and then modeled selection of microhabitat resources within each  
217 mesohabitat. We modeled mesohabitat selection with a RSF model which included the  
218 categorical covariate (i.e.,  $X$ ) mesohabitat (pool, riffle, run with ‘run’ acting as the reference  
219 level in all models) and the random intercept for sampling reach. We then subset our used and  
220 available data by mesohabitat and modeled microhabitat (depth, flow velocity, substrate  
221 composition, canopy cover) selection within pools, riffles, and runs separately. For each of these  
222 two analyses we fit two models, one using data above the barrier (Black Bass absent) and one

223 using data below the barrier (Black Bass present). We identified significant differences to  
224 resource selection between sampling reaches with and without Black Bass with non-overlapping  
225 95% confidence intervals for a given coefficient. We were unable to evaluate changes in habitat  
226 selection for Sonora Sucker and Speckled Dace due to insufficient sample sizes.

227 We evaluated RSF models for mesohabitat selection using  $k$ -fold cross validation  
228 following Johnson et al. (2006), where we divided our data into  $k$  folds with each sampling reach  
229 serving as a fold. We then refit our RSF using  $k-1$  randomly selected folds (training data) and  
230 predicted relative intensity of use for both used and available points in the withheld fold (testing  
231 data) using Equation 1 and calculated the observed proportion of used observations within each  
232 suitability bin and the expected proportion of available observations within each bin. A well-  
233 calibrated RSF will show a 1:1 relationship between the observed and expected proportions. We  
234 repeated this process  $k$  times and used Lin's (Lin 1989) concordance correlation coefficient  
235 (CCC) to quantify the deviation of observed and expected proportions from a line with intercept  
236 = 0 and slope = 1. We considered models with a CCC value  $< 0.50$  to be a poor fit.

## 237 RESULTS

### 238 *Fish Abundance:*

239 We observed and recorded the location of 1,999 fish of five species: 1,793 native fishes  
240 (63.4 % small fish / 36.5 % large fish) and 206 nonnative Black Bass (75.2 % small fish / 24.8%  
241 large fish; Table 1). We observed no nonnative fishes upstream of the fish barrier and Black Bass  
242 was the only nonnative fish observed downstream of the fish barrier. Black Bass accounted for  
243 32.2% of total fish abundance downstream of the fish barrier.

### 244 *Roundtail Chub *Gila robusta**

245 Small Roundtail Chub were significantly more abundant in sampling reaches without  
246 Black Bass ( $P < 0.01$ ; Figure 2). In sampling reaches without Black Bass, small Roundtail Chub  
247 abundance was not different among mesohabitat units, and marginal evidence ( $P = 0.09$ )  
248 suggests that small Roundtail Chub abundance was greater in riffles with Black Bass present  
249 (Table 2). Small Roundtail Chub selected for pools and riffles more than runs and significantly  
250 increased their selection for riffles by 2.57 times when Black Bass were present (Figure 3; Table  
251 S1). Selection for microhabitat remained similar in locations with and without Black Bass,  
252 although small Roundtail Chub increased their selection for canopy cover in runs with Black  
253 Bass (Figure 4; Table S2). We were unable model small Roundtail Chub microhabitat selection  
254 in pools due to low abundance when Black Bass were present.

255 Large Roundtail Chub were significantly less abundant in sampling reaches with Black  
256 Bass ( $P < 0.01$ ; Figure 2). The abundance of large Roundtail Chub was not different among  
257 mesohabitats, and this distribution remained consistent regardless of Black Bass presence ( $P =$   
258  $0.38$ ; Table 2). In sampling reaches without Black Bass, we found no selection for mesohabitat;  
259 but marginal evidence suggests large Roundtail Chub increased their selection for pools by 4.10  
260 times when sympatric with Black Bass (Figure 5; Table S1). In general, large Roundtail Chub  
261 used microhabitats within pools in proportion to their availability, but selected deep water,  
262 avoided fast flow velocities, and used a range of substrates and canopy cover in riffles and runs.  
263 We only modeled change to microhabitat selection in riffles due to insufficient observations and  
264 poor model convergence in other mesohabitats. Microhabitat selection in riffles remained  
265 consistent regardless of Black Bass presence (Figure 6; Table S2).

266 *Desert Sucker Catostomus clarkii*

267           The abundance of small Desert Sucker was similar between sampling reaches with and  
268 without Black Bass ( $P \geq 0.95$ ; Figure 2). Small Desert Sucker abundance was not related to  
269 mesohabitat in sampling reaches without Black Bass, however; some evidence suggests ( $P =$   
270  $0.06$ ) that the abundance of small Desert Sucker was less in pools with Black Bass (Table 2).  
271 When Black Bass were absent, small Desert Sucker did not select for mesohabitat, but when  
272 sympatric with Black Bass, small Desert Sucker were 6.90 times more likely to avoid pools  
273 (Figure 3; Table S1). In general, small Desert Sucker selected for deep water of slower flow  
274 velocity in riffles and runs, selection that remained consistent regardless of Black Bass presence.  
275 Small Desert Sucker selected for smaller substrates in riffles, and larger substrates and increased  
276 levels of overhead cover in runs when sympatric with Black Bass (Figure 4; Table S2). Desert  
277 Sucker were generally not found in pools with Black Bass and microhabitat selection was not  
278 modeled in these environments due to insufficient sample sizes.

279           The abundance of large Desert Sucker was not significantly different between sampling  
280 locations with and without Black Bass ( $P = 0.95$ ; Figure 2) and we found no significant  
281 differences to the abundance of large Desert Sucker among mesohabitats ( $P = 0.61$ ; Table 2).  
282 Large Desert Sucker selected for riffles, and some evidence suggests this selection for riffles  
283 increased by 3.40 times in sampling reaches with Black Bass (Figure 5; Table S1). We were only  
284 able to model change to microhabitat selection in riffles due to insufficient observations in runs  
285 and pools with Black Bass present. In riffles, large Desert Sucker selected for deep water of slow  
286 flow velocity and large substrates, selection that remained consistent in sampling reaches with  
287 and without Black Bass (Figure 6; Table S2). Large Desert Sucker did, however, significantly  
288 increase their selection for canopy cover in riffles with Black Bass.

289 *Sonora Sucker* *Catostomus insignis* and *Speckled Dace* *Rhinichthys osculus*

290 The abundance of small Sonora Sucker was significantly reduced in sampling reaches  
291 with Black Bass ( $P = 0.02$ ); however, the abundance of large Sonora Sucker was not different ( $P$   
292  $= 0.51$ ; Figure 2). The abundance of Sonora Sucker of either size-class was not different among  
293 mesohabitats with or without nonnative Black Bass ( $P \geq 0.14$ ; Table 2). The abundance of  
294 Speckled Dace was significantly reduced in sampling reaches with Black Bass present ( $P =$   
295  $0.01$ ). In sampling reaches with exclusively native fishes, the abundance of Speckled Dace was  
296 greatest in riffles than other mesohabitats ( $P = 0.01$ ; Table 2).

297 *Black Bass Micropterus spp.*

298 Black Bass were restricted to sampling reaches downstream of the fish barrier. Small  
299 Black Bass abundance did not differ among mesohabitats ( $P = 0.58$ ; Table 2); however, small  
300 Black Bass selected pools 3.33 times and riffles 2.08 times more than runs ( $CCC = 0.56$ ; Figure  
301 3; Table S1). Small Black Bass did not selectively use microhabitats in pools but selected deep  
302 and slow environments with smaller substrates and less canopy cover in riffles (Figure 4; Table  
303 S2). We could not model microhabitat selection in runs due to insufficient observations.

304 Large Black Bass abundance was unrelated to mesohabitat ( $P = 0.87$ ; Table 2), but large  
305 Black Bass selected pools 7.01 times more than they selected runs (Figure 5; Table S1). Large  
306 Black Bass did not selectively use microhabitats, notwithstanding a strong selection for canopy  
307 cover in pools and riffles (Figure 6; Table S2). We were unable to model large Black Bass  
308 microhabitat selection in runs due to poor model convergence and small sample sizes.

309 DISCUSSION: -

310 Our results support the hypothesis that native fishes alter their habitat selection in the  
311 presence of a nonnative predator (i.e., Black Bass) in a manner consistent with predator

312 avoidance. Additionally, the abundance of many species (e.g., Roundtail Chub, Sonora Sucker,  
313 Speckled Dace) was lower in the presence of Black Bass, presumably because of their  
314 susceptibility to Black Bass predation (Pilger et al. 2008). Black Bass are one of the most  
315 problematic nonnative species for native fishes of the Colorado River Basin (Johnson et al.  
316 2008). Roundtail Chub, Sonora Sucker, and Speckled Dace lack behavioral and morphological  
317 adaptations to avoid predation and are increasingly vulnerable to predation (Schlosser 1987;  
318 Marsh and Brooks 1989; Rees et al. 2005; Pilger et al. 2010; Arena et al. 2012; Ward and Figiel  
319 Jr. 2013). Additionally, predation risk is a strong determinant in habitat selection decisions  
320 because predation has more immediate and stronger fitness consequences than a temporary  
321 resource deficit (Hugie and Dill 1994; Mayor et al. 2009). Large Black Bass selected for pools  
322 over other mesohabitats, and as such, small (i.e., vulnerable) Desert Sucker reduced their  
323 selection for pools by 6.9 times (avoidance) and small Roundtail Chub increased their selection  
324 for riffles by 2.5 times in the presence of Black Bass. Predator-induced shifts in habitat selection  
325 can reduce the availability of suitable habitats by forcing individuals to occupy suboptimal  
326 environments (Brown and Moyle 1991; Douglas et al. 1994; Barret and Maughan 1995), which  
327 affects individual fitness and population viability (Werner et al. 1983; Werner and Hall 1988).

328         The abundance of both small and large Roundtail Chub was significantly reduced when  
329 Black Bass were present, which supports our initial hypothesis that species that were  
330 ecologically similar to Black Bass would be most impacted. Roundtail Chub and Black Bass  
331 often occupy the highest trophic level within their resident stream environment (Arena et al.  
332 2012); however, Roundtail Chub have been shown to reduce their trophic position when  
333 sympatric with nonnative fishes indicating a competitive inferiority (Marks et al. 2010; Rogosch  
334 and Olden 2020). Additionally, Black Bass become piscivorous within their first-year post-hatch.

335 Small Roundtail Chub likely experience high levels of predation from, and competition with,  
336 Black Bass. The reduced abundance of Roundtail Chub suggests that predator-induced shifts to  
337 habitat selection insufficiently offset negative interactions with Black Bass (Schlosser 1987;  
338 Schlosser 1988; Brown and Moyle 1991). Roundtail Chub might not have the capacity to alter  
339 their selection of resources or behavior to adequately segregate from Black Bass because of the  
340 species' ecological similarity. Vulnerable Roundtail Chub did, however, increase their selection  
341 for riffles when Black Bass were present. Bestgen and Propst (1989) similarly found that small  
342 Roundtail Chub were restricted to nearshore shallow environments when nonnative fishes were  
343 present but used midchannel environments when nonnative fishes were removed by a natural  
344 flow event. This highlights the importance of riffle habitat as potential refuge habitat when Black  
345 Bass are present. The low abundance of large Roundtail Chub likely reflects reductions in  
346 Roundtail Chub recruitment. Predation by nonnative fishes on young native fishes can result in  
347 recruitment failure and is a primary cause for the decline of native Southwest fishes (Tyus and  
348 Saunders 2000; Clarkson et al. 2005).

349         We were unable to compare Sonora Sucker and Speckled Dace meso- and microhabitat  
350 selection between sampling locations due to the significant reduction in abundance of both  
351 species in sampling reaches with Black Bass. Sonora Sucker were observed in a relatively low  
352 abundance regardless of sampling reach. The overall low abundance of Sonora Sucker might  
353 reflect their preference for slow and deep waters (Minckley 1973) which are characteristic of  
354 larger mainstem rivers. Sonora Sucker abundance was similarly low in neighboring tributaries  
355 (Wet Beaver Creek, West Clear Creek, Sycamore Creek; Gahl 2022, unpublished data).  
356 Nevertheless, the reduced abundance of small Sonora Sucker in sampling reaches with Black  
357 Bass is indicative of predation and/or competitive exclusion. The abundance of large Sonora

358 Sucker was not different between sampling reaches with and without Black Bass, suggesting that  
359 some Sonora Suckers are recruiting into larger size-classes or emigrating from locations  
360 upstream of the fish barrier where Black Bass are not present. Source-sink population dynamics  
361 of an artificially fragmented river (Rahel 2013) would warrant further investigation. Speckled  
362 Dace larvae are smaller than larvae of other native species with poorer swimming abilities  
363 (Robinson et al. 1998), contributing to this species' vulnerability to predation. Even as adults,  
364 Speckled Dace never achieve a size that exceeds the gape limitation of most Black Bass,  
365 exposing this species to predation at all life stages.

366           Small and large Desert Sucker abundance was unrelated to Black Bass presence,  
367 supporting our hypothesis that fish with less ecological overlap with the nonnative Black Bass  
368 would be least impacted. Less ecological niche overlap between these species is likely to reduce  
369 opportunities for negative interspecific interactions. Desert Sucker further reduced the  
370 opportunity for negative interspecific interactions via shifts to habitat selection. Small Desert  
371 Sucker strongly avoided pools in sampling reaches with Black Bass, while also altering  
372 microhabitat selection in riffles and runs, behaviors assumed to reduce spatial overlap with the  
373 largest and most piscivorous Black Bass (Schlosser 1988; Gaeta et al. 2018). Desert Sucker are  
374 known riffle and run inhabitants (Ward et al. 2003; Minckley and Marsh 2009). Their increased  
375 selection for lotic environments likely resulted in fewer fitness consequences than would be  
376 experienced by species less adapted to these environments. We did, however, observe a Black  
377 Bass consuming a small Desert Sucker, confirming some predation on this native fish.

378           Habitat selection is behavioral and inherently hierarchical (Johnson 1980; Mayor et al.  
379 2009). Microhabitat selection is conditional upon the available habitat features within a given  
380 mesohabitat, yet mesohabitat use is a product of selection at a higher hierarchical level (Bowers

381 and Dooley 1993). Modeling habitat selection at a single spatial scale is likely to result in  
382 misleading inferences by ignoring selection at larger spatial scales (Owen 1972; Mayor et al.  
383 2009). For example, when we pooled microhabitat data across all mesohabitats, as is often done  
384 in fisheries studies, we found that small Desert Sucker selected deep waters with slow flow  
385 velocity, implying a selection for pools. However, our multi-scale, hierarchical approach found  
386 that small Desert Sucker avoided pools and instead selected deep areas with slow flow velocity  
387 in riffles and runs; conditions that are consistent with “pocket-water” and previously described  
388 habitat selection for this species (Shipley and Booth 2012). Ignoring the hierarchical nature of  
389 habitat selection in native stream fishes, particularly in the presence of nonnative piscivores, may  
390 underestimate the value of these important environments for conserving native fishes.

391         Our study was observational, and we cannot derive causal relationships between the  
392 presence of Black Bass, observed shifts to native fish abundance, and habitat selection from this  
393 study, alone. However, our results combined with evidence from previous research (Gilliam and  
394 Frazier 1987; Brown and Moyle 1991; Barrett and Maughan 1995), strongly suggest that native  
395 fishes shift habitat to avoid Black Bass, specifically by shifting their selection from pools  
396 towards more lotic mesohabitat types. Alternatively, observed shifts in habitat selection might  
397 represent the selective removal of individuals from riskier environments rather than individual  
398 behavioral shifts. Finally, habitat selection was not modeled for Sonora Sucker and Speckled  
399 Dace due to limited observations and we were unable to model the impact of other native species  
400 as they were not present in Fossil Creek at the time of sampling. Possibly due to periodic  
401 flooding (Minckley and Meffe 1987), other nonnative species have been slow to recolonize the  
402 lower reaches of Fossil Creek.

403 Our study underscores the importance of protecting riffles and runs as within-stream  
404 refuges for native fishes when Black Bass are present (Rahel 2000; Schade and Bonar 2005). The  
405 desert Southwest is currently amid a  $\geq 21$ -year megadrought (Williams et al. 2022) and lotic  
406 mesohabitats are being lost via lenticification (i.e., the transformation of lotic river environments  
407 into a series of disconnected lentic environments via surface water reductions; Sabater 2008;  
408 Sabo et al. 2010). As surface waters recede, fishes will become increasingly concentrated into  
409 pools, mesohabitats dominated by nonnative fishes, exposing native fishes to greater predation  
410 risk (Bestgen and Platania 1991; Gibson et al. 2015). A reduction to surface water has not been  
411 observed in Fossil Creek, however, streamflow throughout the Verde River Basin has declined  
412 considerably since the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century (Serrat-Capdevilla et al. 2012; Jaeger et al. 2013; Schenk  
413 et al. 2022), with concurrent declines to native fish populations (Rinne et al. 1998; Neary and  
414 Rinne 1998; Rinne 2005; Rinne and Miller 2006). While studies have found that the  
415 enhancement of instream habitat is likely to benefit native fishes, most have concluded that  
416 habitat enhancements alone are insufficient to restore native fish populations if nonnative fishes  
417 remain (Marks et al. 2010; Walsworth and Budy 2015). Our study provides more evidence of  
418 this as habitat and flow conditions are similar throughout Fossil Creek (Marks et al. 2010);  
419 however, the abundance of native fishes was reduced and their selection for habitats altered  
420 when Black Bass were present. The removal of nonnative species combined with the intentional  
421 fragmentation of the stream preventing natural recolonization by nonnative fishes (Rahel 2013),  
422 as done in Fossil Creek, appears to be a viable solution to preserve native fish populations. When  
423 segregation from, or suppression of nonnative fish populations is not tenable, maintaining flows  
424 at a level that preserves or enhances the spatial availability and extent of lotic mesohabitats  
425 would provide some refuge to an imperiled native fish community.

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435 Author Contributions:

436 CJ and SB conceived and designed the investigation and performed all laboratory and field work.  
437 CJ and JB analyzed the data. CJ, JB, and SB wrote the manuscript.

Data availability:

Our data is publicly available and archived on the Open Science Framework (OSF):  
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TABLES:  
 Table 1: Number of fish (standard deviation in parentheses) observed per 100 m snorkeling reach ( $n = 15$ ) in Fossil Creek, Arizona where a fish barrier divides the river into two sections, one with only native fishes, and one where nonnative Black Bass are present. Fish  $\leq 127$  mm TL were classified as small (S, vulnerable to predation) and fish  $> 127$  mm TL were classified as large (L, invulnerable to predation). Significant  $P$ -values ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) are bolded.

Species / Size	Native Fish Only	Black Bass Present	Wilcoxon $P$ -value
Roundtail Chub (S)	60.68 (30.20)	13.83 (15.43)	<b>0.01</b>
Roundtail Chub (L)	31.33 (19.76)	4.33 (2.25)	<b>&lt;0.01</b>
Desert Sucker (S)	20.89 (29.03)	33.50 (47.23)	1.00
Desert Sucker (L)	11.58 (9.30)	14.17 (16.44)	0.95
Sonora Sucker (S)	2.89 (3.86)	0.17 (0.10)	<b>0.02</b>
Sonora Sucker (L)	7.67 (10.58)	5.16 (7.60)	0.51
Speckled Dace (S)	10.44 (12.46)	0.33 (0.52)	<b>0.01</b>
Black Bass (S)	<i>not present</i>	20.67 (20.18)	-
Black Bass (L)	<i>not present</i>	8.33 (5.01)	-

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Table 2: Relative abundance (standard deviation in parentheses) of fish per mesohabitat type: pool, riffle, or run in sampling reaches with exclusively native fishes and in sampling reaches with nonnative Black Bass present. We analyzed data from areas without Black Bass and areas with Black Bass separately. Small fish are those under  $\leq 127$  mm TL (vulnerable to predation) and large fish are those  $>127$  mm TL (invulnerable to predation). Speckled Dace and Sonora Sucker were not present in sufficient abundance in sampling reaches with Black Bass, and Black Bass were only present downstream of the fish barrier. Bolded numbers show  $P$ -values  $\leq 0.05$  from the Kruskal-Wallis tests.

Species	Sz	Native Fish Only				Nonnative Black Bass Present			
		Pool	Riffle	Run	$P$ -value	Pool	Riffle	Run	$P$ -value
Desert Sucker	S	0.39(0.87)	0.39(0.54)	0.52(0.59)	0.48	0.02(0.04)	0.57(0.73)	0.77(1.22)	0.06
	L	0.13(0.27)	0.33(0.32)	0.23(0.30)	0.12	0.12(0.20)	0.42(0.51)	0.15(0.32)	0.26
Roundtail Chub	S	2.14(2.64)	1.38(1.20)	0.94(0.37)	0.95	0.04(0.10)	0.45(0.52)	0.09(0.10)	0.09
	L	0.55(0.89)	0.71(0.45)	0.68(0.41)	0.38	0.12(0.21)	0.14(0.17)	0.04(0.06)	0.40
Sonora Sucker	S	0.05(0.11)	0.02(0.04)	0.08(0.08)	0.14	<i>not present</i>			
	L	0.11(0.13)	0.09(0.13)	0.18(0.31)	0.61	0.25(0.61)	0.12(0.19)	0.06(0.13)	0.61
Speckled Dace	S	0.02(0.03)	<b>0.41(0.47)</b>	0.12(0.17)	<b>0.01</b>	<i>not present</i>			
Black Bass	S	<i>not present</i>				0.12(0.20)	0.29(0.38)	0.16(0.16)	0.58
	L	<i>not present</i>				0.92(1.77)	0.11(0.08)	0.10(0.11)	0.87

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722 FIGURE CAPTIONS:

723 Figure 1: Map of Fossil Creek, Arizona, and the location of the fish barrier and 15 sampling  
724 reaches (~100 m) snorkeled during summer of 2019 and 2020. Six reaches were located  
725 downstream of the fish barrier (nonnative fishes are present) and nine snorkeling reaches  
726 were located upstream (native fishes only) of the fish barrier. Two reaches were removed  
727 due to poor visibility at the time of snorkeling. Fossil Creek is a tributary of the Verde  
728 River, AZ. Two major washes, Sally May and Boulder Canyon, are also pictured.

729 Figure 2: Relative abundance of small  $\leq 127$  mm TL (panel a.) and large  $> 127$  mm TL (panel b.)  
730 fish per 100 m sampling reach. Grey boxes show abundance in sampling reaches with  
731 Black Bass present and white boxes show abundance in sampling reaches with native  
732 fishes only. Significance of the Wilcoxon-signed rank test is symbolized as follows: P  
733  $< 0.01$  \*\*\* |  $0.01 < P < 0.05$  \*\* |  $0.05 < P < 0.10$  \*

734 Figure 3: Small fish ( $\leq 127$ -mm TL; vulnerable to predation) mesohabitat selection. Coefficient  
735 estimates and 95% confidence intervals from resource selection functions (RSF) for  
736 mesohabitat selection of small fish in the presence and absence of Black Bass. “Run” was  
737 the reference level for the explanatory categorical variable mesohabitat (levels: pool,  
738 riffle, run). Coefficients estimate relative selection strength of pools and riffles relative to  
739 runs. White shapes represent selection in sampling reaches with native fish and grey  
740 shapes represent selection when Black Bass are present. Significant change to selection is  
741 represented by non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals.

742 Figure 4: Small fish ( $\leq 127$ -mm TL; vulnerable to predation) microhabitat selection. Coefficient  
743 estimates and 95% confidence intervals from resource selection functions (RSF) for  
744 microhabitat features (depth (m), flow velocity(m<sup>3</sup>/s), substrate composition (modified  
745 Wentworth Scale, and canopy cover (proportion)) for small fish within each mesohabitat  
746 (pool, riffle, and run). White shapes represent selection in sampling reaches with native  
747 fish and grey shapes represent selection when Black Bass are present. Insufficient  
748 observations of small native fishes in pools and small Black Bass in runs prevented the  
749 modeling of microhabitat selection in those areas. Significant change to selection is  
750 represented by non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals.

751 Figure 5: Large fish ( $> 127$ -mm TL; invulnerable to predation) mesohabitat selection.  
752 Coefficient estimates and 95% confidence intervals from resource selection functions  
753 (RSF) for large fish in the presence and absence of Black Bass. Run was the reference  
754 level for the RSF, so coefficients estimate relative selection strength of pools and riffles  
755 relative to runs. White shapes represent selection in sampling reaches with native fish and  
756 grey shapes represent selection when Black Bass are present. Significant change to  
757 selection is represented by non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals.

758 Figure 6: Large fish ( $> 127$ -mm TL; invulnerable to predation) microhabitat selection.  
759 Coefficient estimates and 95% confidence intervals from resource selection functions  
760 (RSF) for microhabitat features (depth (m), flow velocity (m<sup>3</sup>/s), substrate composition  
761 (modified Wentworth Scale, and canopy cover (proportion)) large fish within each  
762 mesohabitat (pool, riffle, and run). White shapes represent selection in sampling reaches  
763 with native fish and grey shapes represent selection when Black Bass are present.  
764 Insufficient observations of large native fishes in pools and runs and poor model

765 convergence for Black Bass in runs prevented the modeling of microhabitat selection in  
766 those areas. Significant change to selection is represented by non-overlapping 95%  
767 confidence intervals.

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Figure 1:

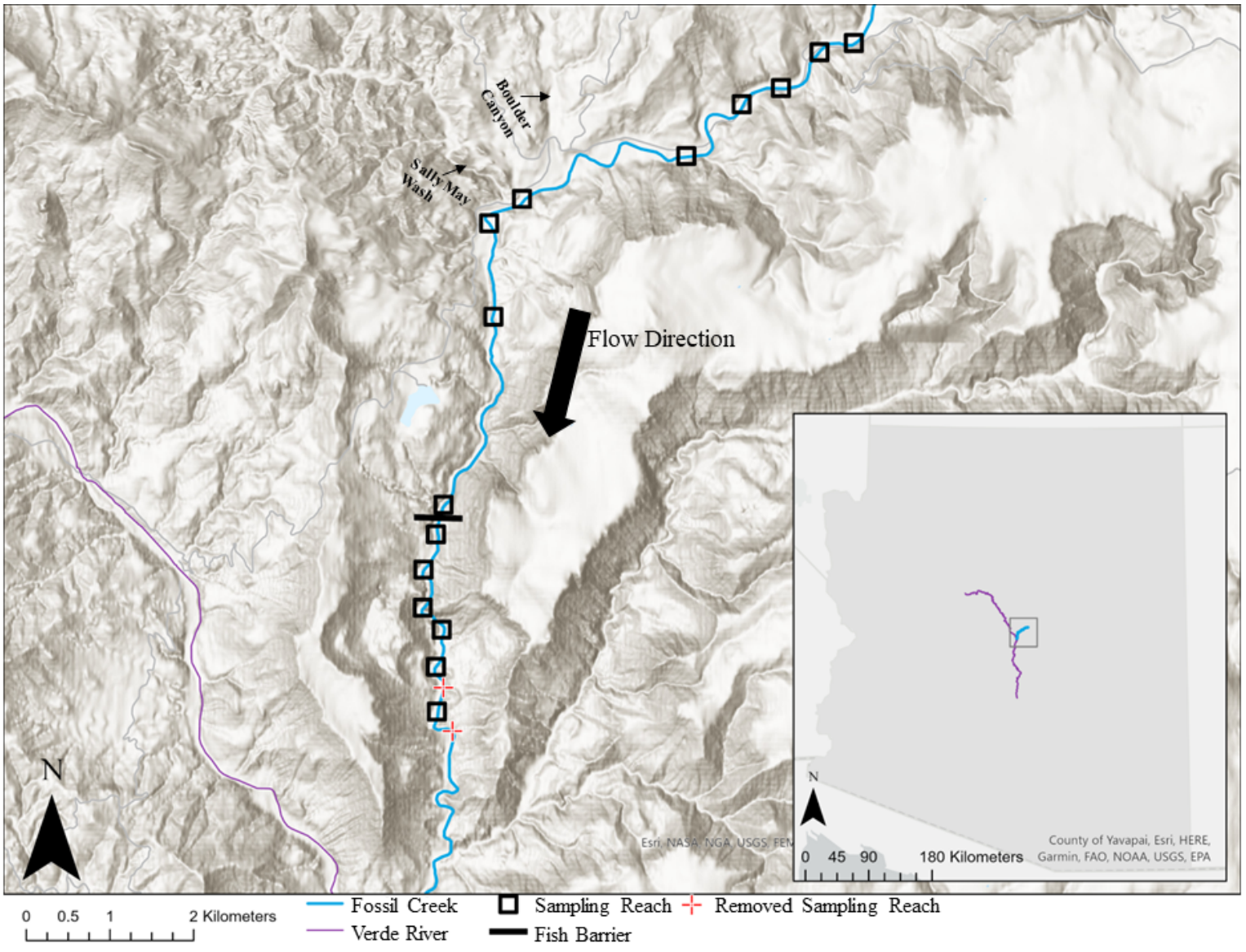


Figure 2:

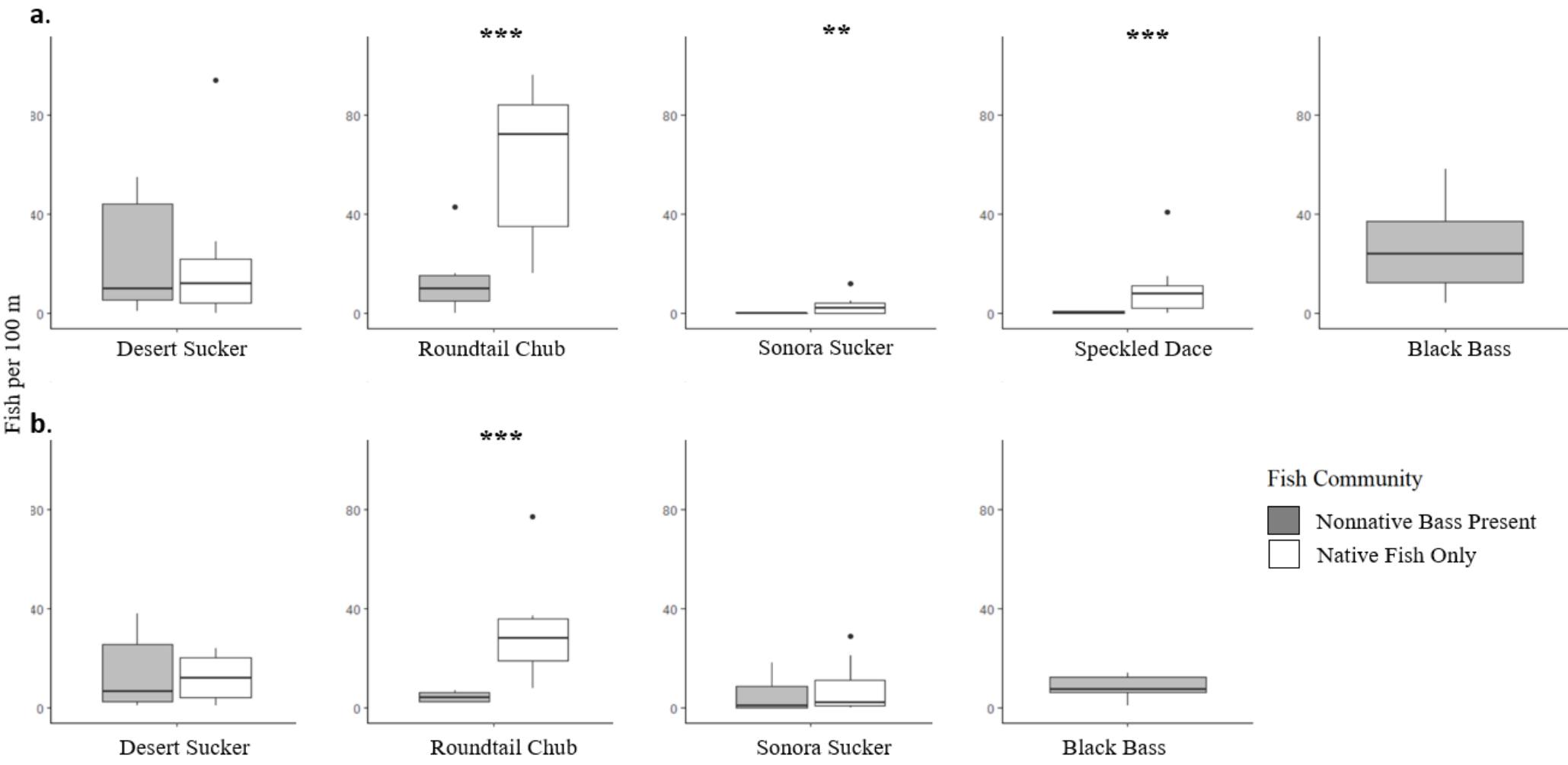


Figure 3:

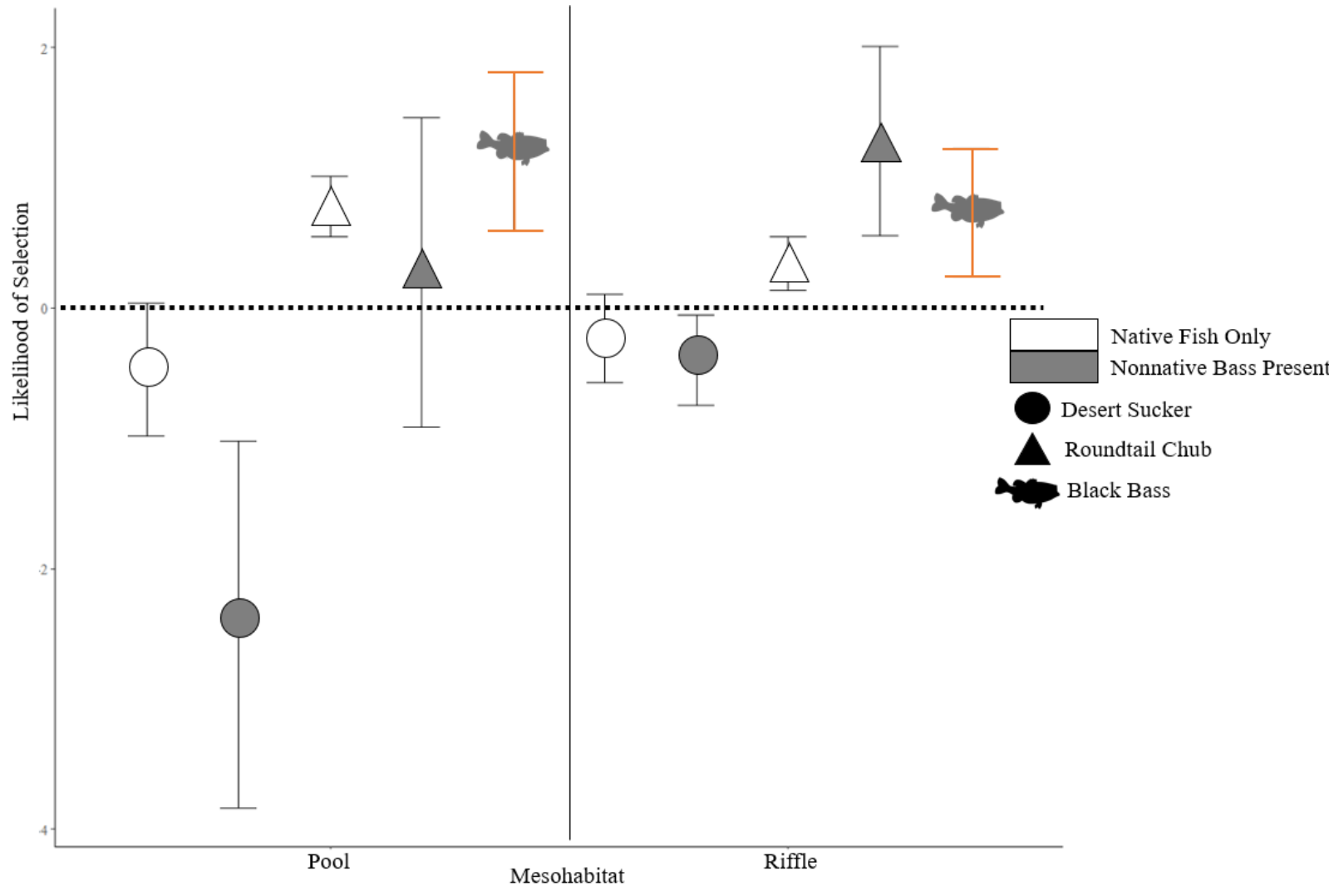


Figure 4:

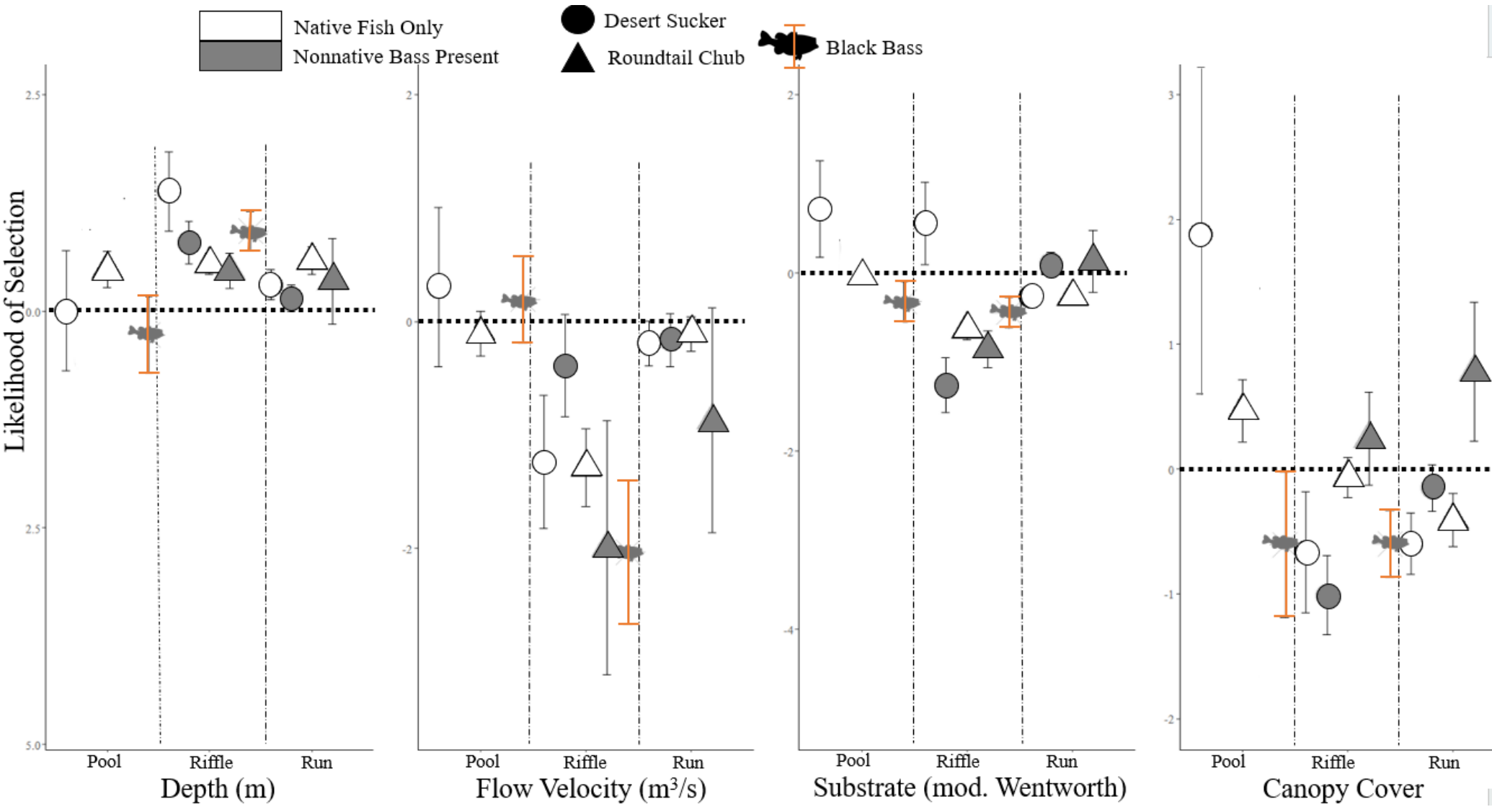


Figure 5:

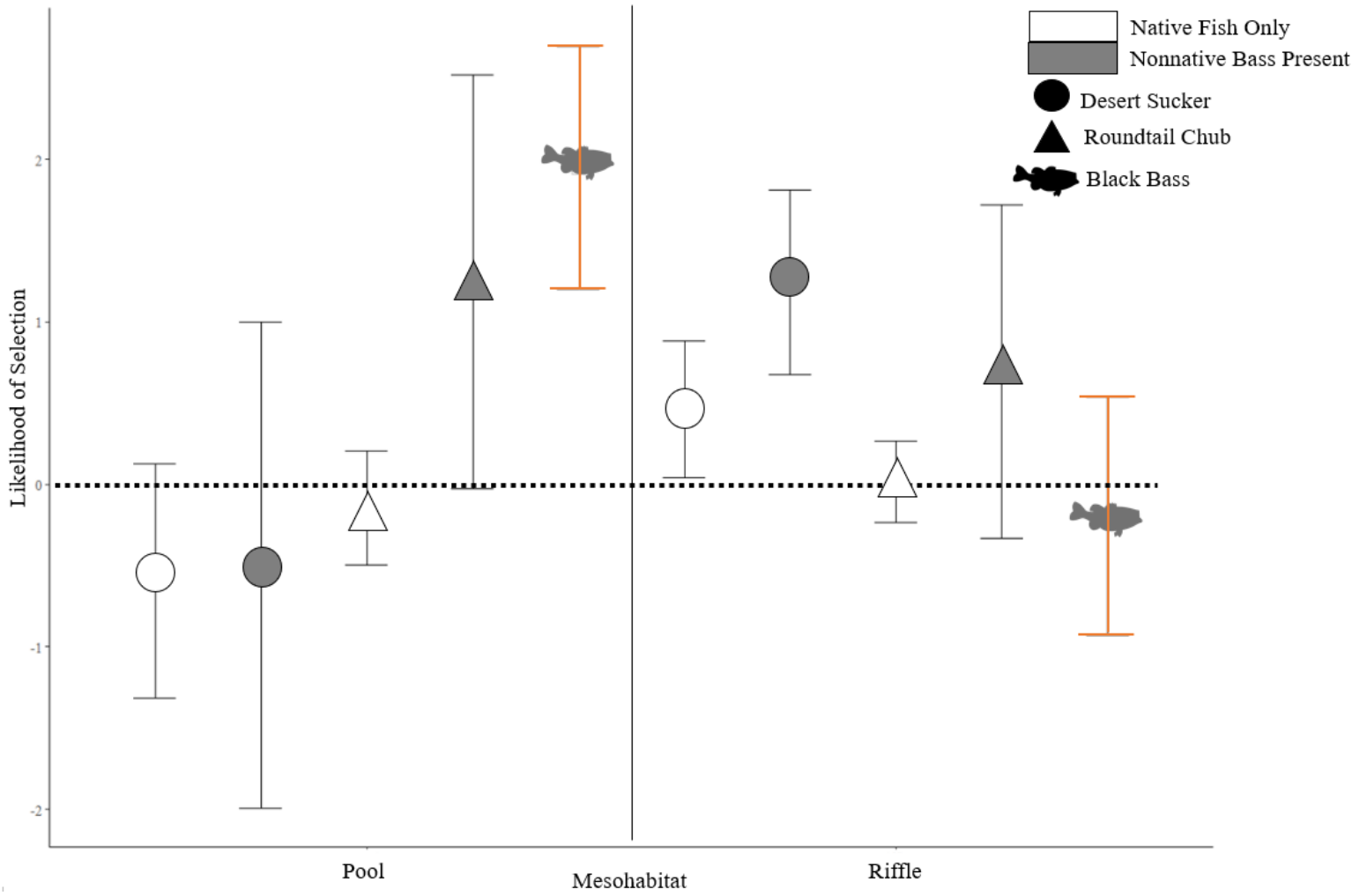


Figure 6:

