

Phylogeography of a salmonid fish, white-spotted charr (Salvelinus leucomaenis), in a historically non-glaciated region in the northwestern North Pacific

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# Species-specific foraging behavior and diets of stream salmonids: an implication for negative impacts on native charr by nonnative trout in Japanese mountain streams

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Abstract:	Salmonids have been introduced globally as a food source and recreational fishing target. In Japan, brown trout (Salmo trutta) and brook trout (Salvelinus fontinalis) were introduced in the 19th century and have since spread. In many headwater streams, native white- spotted charr (Salvelinus leucomaenis) are thought to be experiencing negative impacts from these species. The current study examined foraging behavior, microhabitat use, and diet overlap of these three species in Kamikochi, Nagano Prefecture: one of Japan's premier mountain areas. In Kamikochi, many spring-fed headwater streams are currently dominated by these invasive salmonids and white-spotted charr have declined drastically over the last half century. Underwater video analysis revealed that while total foraging rates and foraging modes were similar between the three species, brook trout and white- spotted charr foraged benthically more frequently than brown trout. Microhabitat water depth and flow velocity were similar between species, and fish size had a positive effect on water depth and flow velocity in all three species. Diet analysis indicated that brook trout and white-spotted charr diets were nearly identical, comprised primary of aquatic invertebrates, while brown trout preyed on a mix of terrestrial and aquatic invertebrates, as well as amphibians and fish. These results indicate that in Kamikochi, the decline of white-spotted charr is likely most influenced by direct competition with brook trout for prey resources. However, brown trout likely also predate on juvenile white- spotted charr, while also possibly causing a foraging niche shift of white-

spotted charr, and have ecosystem-level impacts due to predation on terrestrial prey.



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### 29 Abstract

30 Salmonids have been introduced globally as a food source and recreational fishing target. In 31 Japan, brown trout (Salmo trutta) and brook trout (Salvelinus fontinalis) were introduced in the 19th century and have since spread. In many headwater streams, native white-spotted charr 32 33 (Salvelinus leucomaenis) are thought to be experiencing negative impacts from brown and brook trout these species. The current study examined foraging behavior, microhabitat use, and diet 34 35 overlap of these three species in Kamikouchi, Nagano Prefecture: one of Japan's premier 36 mountain protected areas. In Kamikouchi, many spring-fed headwater streams are currently 37 dominated by these invasive salmonids and white-spotted charr have declined drastically over the last half century. Underwater video analysis revealed that while total foraging rates and 38 39 foraging modes -were similar between the three species, brook trout and white-spotted charr primarily foraged benthically but more frequently than brown trout utilized drift and benthic 40 foraging. Microhabitat water depth and flow velocity were similar between species, and fish size 41 42 had a positive effect on water depth and flow velocity in all three species. Diet analysis indicated that brook trout and white-spotted charr diets were nearly identical. (Schoener Index of Overlap: 43 >92%, comprised primary of aquatic invertebrates, while brown trout preved on a mix of 44 45 terrestrial and aquatic invertebrates, as well as amphibians and fish. These results indicate that in Kamikouchi, the decline of white-spotted charr is likely most influenced by direct competition 46 47 with brook trout for prey resources. -However, brown trout likely also predate on juvenile white-48 spotted charr, while also possibly causing a foraging niche shift of white-spotted charr, and and 49 have ecosystem-level impacts due to predation on terrestrial invertebrates and 50 amphibiansprey. --51 52 Keywords: brook trout, brown trout, white-spotted charr, competition, predation 53 54 55 56 57

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# 63 Introduction

Aquatic invasive species have spread globally, causing problems associated with predation, 64 competition, and hybridization with native species (Almela et al., 2021). In terms of freshwater 65 66 fish species, salmonids have been widely introduced in nearly all continents as a food source and recreational angling target (Buoro et al., 2016). Within the salmonid family, which has a wide 67 species diversity of both anadromous and landlocked forms, rainbow trout (Oncorhynchus 68 *mykiss*), brown trout (*Salmo trutta*), and brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) are commonly 69 70 introduced (Buoro et al., 2016). Rainbow trout and brown trout are ranked in the global 100 worst alien invasive species by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), due 71 72 to their negative impacts on native fish (Lowe et al., 2000). In areas such as the United States, 73 where brown trout were introduced from Europe in the 1800s and rainbow trout and brook trout were introduced domestically, these species have become dominant and have caused the severe 74 75 decline of native species such as cutthroat trout (Oncorhynchus clarkii) and bull trout (Salvelinus 76 confluentus) (Al-Chokhachy & Sepulveda, 2019; Bell et al. 2021; Kruegar & May, 1991). 77 However, due to the angling popularity of these introduced species, in many areas stocking 78 continues and these species make up the base of the recreational salmonid fishery in the United 79 States (Halverson, 2008; Swink, 1983). Although largescale stocking continues, in certain areas 80 with remnant populations of native species, these invasive salmonids have been removed and 81 targeted re-introduction of native species has shown success (Budy et al., 2021; Quist & Hubert, 2004). 82

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In Japan, rainbow trout, brown trout and brook trout were introduced in the 1800s (Kitano, 2004). Although rainbow trout have not spread wildly (except for certain areas in Hokkaido and Nagano), likely due to juvenile-survival limitations (Fausch et al., 2001), brown trout are currently spreading throughout the country (Hasegawa, 2020). Therefore, rainbow trout and brown trout are also listed in the 100 worst invasive species in Japan (Ecological Society of Japan, 2002). Brook trout have also not spread widely, but are found in a few particular springfed streams (Kitano, 2004). The spread of invasive salmonids in Japan is concerning as native

91 salmonids such as white-spotted charr (Salvelinus leucomaenis) and masu salmon 92 (Oncorhynchus masou) will likely occur negative impacts based on direct predation and resource 93 competition. Hybridization between white-spotted charr and brook trout, as well as rare hybridization between white-spotted and brown trout, have been found in Japan (Kitano et al. 94 95 2009; Kitano et al., 2014) and appear to be an increasing concern as these invasive salmonids 96 continue to spread, especially in Hokkaido. In Honshu Island of the Japanese archipelago, white-97 spotted charr are a headwater species typically found at high elevations in cold water. In many 98 areas, white-spotted charr populations are currently under threat from rising water temperatures 99 and habitat degradation and fragmentation (Dunham et al., 2008; Takami et al., 1997). Whitespotted charr habitat use and diet has been studied in detail throughout their distribution range in 100 101 Japan. On Honshu they are typically found exclusively in high altitude headwater streams while in Hokkaido, where water temperatures are colder, they can be found in a range of habitats 102 103 (Morita, 2019; Yamamoto et al., 2004). White-spotted charr distribution often overlaps with 104 other native salmonids such as masu salmon and southern Asian Ddolly Vvarden (Salvelinus 105 *curilus*), and habitat and diet niche partitioning has been studied in great detail, especially in 106 Hokkaido (Miyasaka et al., 2003). In headwater stream habitat, white-spotted charr commonly 107 forage on a variety of aquatic insects such as caddisflies (Trichoptera), mayflies 108 (Ephemeroptera Ephemeratpera) and stoneflies (Plecoptera Plectoptera) (Iguchi et al., 2004). 109 Terrestrial insects such as camel crickets and grasshoppers have also been shown to be an 110 important part of white-spotted charr diets in certain settings (Miyasaka et al., 2003; Sato et al., 111 2011). Foraging modes have been described as typically benthic or drift foraging with occasional 112 surface foraging (Nakano & Furukawa-Tanaka, 1994).

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114 In stream settings, larger individuals maintain favorable focal points and typically utilize 115 drift foraging to prey on terrestrial and aquatic invertebrates while smaller subordinate 116 individuals take up less favorable focal points and when drift prey is scarce, shift to benthic 117 foraging (Nakano et al., 1991). In larger white-spotted charr individuals, especially in large river 118 or lake habitats, fish prey can also make up a large part of diets (Takami & Nagasawa, 1996). 119 Brown trout and brook trout habitat and foraging niches have also been studied in detail in the 120 native and invasive ranges (Horka et al., 2017), although detailed studied are still lacking in 121 Japan. Brown trout inhabit a wide range of habitats and have been found foraging on aquatic and terrestrial invertebrates in streams (Becer et al., 2011; Cochran-Biederman & Vondracek, 2017),

while large individuals often prey on fish (Jensen et al., 2008), amphibians (Bylak, 2018), and in

some cases even small birds and mammals (Milardi et al., 2016a; Milardi et al. 2016b). Brook

trout inhabiting stream habitat also typically forage on aquatic and terrestrial invertebrates

(Hubert and Rhodes, 1989; Tiberti et al., 2016) and have been shown to have overlappingforaging niches with brown trout when found in sympatry (Horka et al., 2017).

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129 The Kamikouchi area of Nagano Prefecture, in the Chubu Sangaku National Park, 130 provides a stark example of just how damaging these invasive salmonids can be and a unique opportunity to study their interactions with native white-spotted charr. Brown trout and brook 131 132 trout were introduced through larval stocking in 1925-1933, and have rapidly spread and 133 established in the Azusa River which drains into the central Kamikouchi area, and current 134 dominate many of the small spring-fed tributaries. The Kamikouchi area historically had 135 abundant white-spotted charr populations. Despite all recreational angling being banned in 1975, white-spotted charr have nearly been complexly expatriated from many of the tributaries over the 136 137 last 50 years (Azumi Village, 1998; Environment Agency, Government of Japan (EAGJ), 1982). Currently white-spotted charr remain abundant only in the very upper reaches of the Azusa 138 139 watershed where brown trout and brook trout have yet to establish (Azumi Village, 1998). These 140 select small tributaries in the Kamikouchi area where brown trout, brook trout and white-spotted 141 charr are found in sympatry provide a unique opportunity to examine this rare three species 142 assemblage. In Japan, white-spotted charr are typically found in sympatry with other native 143 salmonids such as masu salmon or Deolly Vyarden, and in certain areas with either brown trout 144 or brook trout. In North American streams, it is rare to find brown trout and brook trout in 145 sympatry as brook trout are typically found in more headwater habitat (Dieterman & Mitro, 146 2019; Hoxmeier & Dieterman, 2015; Mitro et al., 2019). However, there is global concern that in 147 areas where brown trout have been introduced, they are likely to expand their range into more 148 headwater habitat due to rising water temperatures associate with climate change and in doing so 149 displace native headwater fish species (Al-Chokhachy et al., 2016, Bell et al., 2021). The 150 Kamikouchi area provides a setting where interactions between brown trout, brook trout, and 151 native white-spotted charr can be studied. The results of this study will not only have 152 implications for Japanese headwater streams where brown trout are likely to invade in the near

153	future, but also globally where brown trout establishment would put them in sympatry with other
154	salmonids.
155	
156	The current study aims to use detailed underwater observation and diet and habitat
157	analysis to understand the species interactions between brown trout, brook trout, and white-
158	spotted charr in small tributaries of the Kamikouchi area. By examining foraging modes,
159	aggressive behavior, diet composition and microhabitat use, direct impacts on white-spotted
160	charr from each invasive species will be determined, and will contribute to future white spotted
161	charr restoration projects throughout Japan and also to global native salmonid management in
162	areas where brown trout are invading.
163	
164	Materials and Methods
165	Study Area
166	This study was conducted in six headwater streams (Table 1) in the Kamikouchi area of Nagano
167	Prefecture, Japan (36°14'55.84"N, 137°38'16.20"E, 1,500 m.a.s.l.) (Fig. 1). Underwater
168	observation and electrofishing surveys were conducted periodically during June-September 2021
169	(see Table 1 for details). Kamikouchi is one of Japan's most popular mountain recreation areas
170	and is characterized by many short headwater streams that flow into the Azusa River which is

171 surrounded by 3,000 m peaks (Fig. 2). These headwater streams are mostly spring-fed and have

consistently cool water temperatures throughout the year. Of the six headwater streams selected,

- 173 <u>station 1 was a mountain stream with a steep gradient and large boulders, while the other five</u>
- 174 <u>stations were all spring-fed streams with low gradient and fine substrate (Table 1, Fig. 2).</u>
- 175

176 Underwater Observation

177 At each stream-reach, fish behavior and microhabitat use were examined using underwater

snorkel observation. <u>Study reaches at stations 1, 2 and 4, were the downstream (from confluence</u>

179 with the main Azusa River) 300m, and at stations 3, 5 and 6, the entire stream was surveyed.

- 180 Researchers entered each stream reach from downstream and slowly snorkeled upstream through
- 181 <u>the entire study reach</u> observing each all individual fish (> 80mm Total Length: TL, estimated
- 182 <u>from pre-measured stream-bottom substrate and rounded to the first nearest integer to account</u>
- 183 <u>for limitations of underwater observation</u>) for at least one minute. Five-minute underwater video

184 recordings (Go Pro Hero 7, 8, 9) were taken for each individual fish after allowing the fish to 185 adjust to the snorkeler's presence for three minutes, to determine foraging and agnostic behavior 186 as well as microhabitat use (Fig. 3). After video recording, a marker was placed on the bottom 187 substrate at the location of each individual fish at the end of filming, and microhabitat data was 188 taken. At each fish marker, water depth, focal point water depth (distance from the bottom substrate), flow velocity (60% of water depth), focal point flow velocity (flow velocity of each 189 190 individual's focal point) and dominant and subdominant substate types were recorded. 191 Substratesize class was estimated following Bain et al. (1985), with modification for 192 prevalent algae cover, and separated into five categories: 1: algae, 2: silt or sand (< 2 mm), 3: 193 gravel (2–16 mm), 4: pebble (17–64 mm), 5: cobble (65–256 mm), and 6: boulder (>256 194 mm). Mean substrate score was calculated for each individual microhabitat. Fish density of 195 each reach was calculated by measuring the reach length, wetted channel width, and water depth 196 to calculate the surface area.

197 198

# 199 Video Analysis

200 Video files were analyzed to determine foraging and agonistic behavior of each-all fish observed 201 in each study reach. Foraging modes were set as surface, drift and benthic. A fish's mouth 202 breached the surface during surface foraging, touched the bottom substrate during benthic 203 foraging, and all other foraging was considered drift (Fausch et al., 1997). All foraging attempts 204 were counted for fish individuals that remained in the camera frame for at least 30 seconds. Foraging attempts were counted up to 60 seconds, and if an individual left the camera frame 205 prior to 60 seconds, the time in frame was recorded and used as an offset in the statistical 206 207 modeling. Agnostic behavior was categorized as either aggressive or defensive and the total 208 length (TL) of both individuals involved in the interaction was recorded. Due to the prevalence 209 of hybridization between white-spotted charr and brook trout and the difficulty of visually 210 distinguishing white-spotted charr from hybrids (Iguchi et al. 2001), all fish that visually 211 appeared as white-spotted charr were categorized as white-spotted charr and fish that appeared as 212 brook trout were categorized as brook trout.

213

214 Fish Collection

215 Fish were collected by electro-fishing (Model LR-24, Smith-Root Inc., Vancouver, Washington) 216 at four of the streams, throughout the same reaches as the underwater observation (details in 217 Table 1) to determine species assemblage, size and diet. At each reach, fish were kept alive in mesh bags and buckets, sedated with anesthesia FA 100 (DS Pharma Animal Health Co., Ltd.) 218 219 and stomachs were pumped (Strange & Kennedy, 1981) in all individuals greater than 50mm TL. 220 The stomach contents of each individual were placed in labeled mesh bags (<1mm mesh, Eiken 221 Chemical Co., Ltd.), preserved in 99.5% ethanol, and transported on ice to the lab for analysis. Total length and fork length (FL) were also measured for each individual and fish were allowed 222 223 to recover for 30 minutes and then released at the site of capture. Hybridization was dealt with as above in video analysis. 224

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## 226 Diet Analysis

Each mesh bag containing an individual fish's stomach contents were emptied into a petri dish 227 228 and the total wet weight of the contents was recorded. Stomach contents were examined under a microscope (Model SMZ, Nikon Instruments Inc., Tokyo, Japan) on a gridded petri dish and 229 prey were classified into a variety of categories down to the family level. Each prey category was 230 231 recorded as a percentage of the entire stomach content wet weight (%WT) and prey size was also recorded. Percent wet weight was determined by evenly spreading the stomach contents and 232 233 visually determining the ratio of the total surface area occupied by each prev category. Percent 234 occurrence (%OC); the ratio of fish individuals with each prey category present and the total number of fish examined was also calculated, and the alimentary index (%AI) was calculated to 235 take into account the differing weights of each prev type by multiplying the %WT and %OC of 236 237 each prey category and expressed as a percentage. To compare diet similarity between the three 238 study species the Schoener Index of Overlap or Percent Similarity Index (PSI) (Schoener, 1974) was used and is calculated as 239

240 PSI =  $[1 - 0.5\sum_{i=1}^{n} |Pik - Pjk|] \times 100$ 

where *P* is the proportion of wet-weight of the *k*th prey category consumed by predator species  $\underline{i}$ and *j*. PSI values greater than 60% are considered to be biologically significant (Wallace and Ramsay, 1983).

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245	When stomachs contained fish or amphibians that were unidentifiable due to digestion,
246	DNA barcoding was applied using the Cytochrome Oxidase Subunit 1 (COI) molecular marker.
247	The components were separated macroscopically into fish, frogs or salamanders and weighed.
248	Samples for DNA analyses were washed with water and stored separately in an bottle containing
249	95% ethanol at 4°C prior to DNA extraction. Genomic DNA was extracted from the muscle or
250	vertebrae tissue by Qiagen DdNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Inc., Hilden, Germany)
251	following the manufacturer's protocol. A fragment of the COI gene was amplified using
252	universal primers LCO1490 and HCO2198 (Folmer et al., 1994), which have been commonly
253	used in DNA barcoding studies of vertebrates (e.g. Becker et al., 2015; Xia et al., 2012).
254	Amplifications were performed with 30 cycles and 55°C annealing temperature, with AmpliTaq
255	Gold 360 Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc.) Amplified DNA was purified using
256	ExoSAP-IT (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc.) and sequenced directly using the BigDye
257	Terminator v3.1 Ready Reaction Cycle Sequencing Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc.) with an
258	automated DNA sequencer ABI PRISM 3730-XL DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems <sup>TM</sup> ).
259	Sequences generated in this study have been deposited in DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ
260	accession numbers: LC760029-LC760032, LC761623-LC761626). AB*** AB***).
261	The obtained COI sequences were assembled and edited in MEGA 5.0 (Tamura et al.
262	2011). After ambiguous nucleotides in the first and last 100bp of the sequences were removed,
263	the sequences (ca. 400-600bp) were blasted in GenBank using NCBI software version 2.2.28+
264	(Camacho et al 2009). The sequence was accepted as correct species identification when it
265	showed a higher similarity of over 98% with the regionally listed fish and amphibians (EAGJ,

266 267

## 268 Data Analysis

1982, EBHAV, 1998).

In fish behavior and microhabitat use analysis, each individual fish observation was considered
as an individual data point. To determine the effects of a variety of factors on foraging and
microhabitat use, Generalized Linear Mixed Models (GLMM) were used. Fish species, fish size
(TL), days after start (days after the first survey date), and density of invasive salmonids were set
as fixed effect variables and surface foraging count, drift foraging count, benthic foraging count,
total foraging count, water depth, focal point water depth, flow velocity, focal point flow

275 velocity, substrate size, interspecific aggressive behavior count, intraspecific aggressive behavior 276 count, interspecific avoidance behavior count, and intraspecific avoidance behavior count were 277 set as response variables. Poisson error structure was used for all response variables with time in 278 frame set as an offset, video file as a random effect variable and brook trout set as the reference 279 category for species as they were most prevalent in the study area. For the aggressive and avoidance behavior models, the ratio of conspecific individuals visible in each video file was 280 281 calculated and added as a random effect variable to take into account the differing species 282 interaction potentials of each area. Measurements of fish size and water depth were rounded to 283 the nearest whole number (cm) to account for limitations of underwater observation. An explanatory variable was considered significant when the estimate coefficient did not include 284 zero in a 95% confidence interval. Model selection was determined step-wise using the model 285 with the lowest Akaike's information criterion (AIC) for each GLMM (Burnham & Anderson, 286 287 2002). Variables were checked for multicollinearity using the Pearson's correlation prior to 288 inserting into each model and highly correlated variables were removed.- All analysis were conducted in R software: version 4.1.2. (R core team, 2021). 289

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## 291 Results

292 Study Area and Species Assemblage

293 Six headwater tributary streams were surveyed by snorkeling and electrofishing from June-

September 2021 (see Table 1 for survey details). Brook trout and brown trout were found in each
of the six study streams while white-spotted charr were rare, and only found in two streams
(Table 1). Out of the six streams, brook trout has the highest density in four streams while brown
trout had the highest density in two (Table1). No other fish species were observed in any of the
study streams.

299

300 Microhabitat

The three study species, observed by snorkeling (brook n= 141, brown n= 130, white-spotted charr n= 20), were found in overlapping habitat where present in sympatry within the study area.

Although overall mean habitat water depth, flow velocity, and substrate size values have slight

- differences between species (Table 2), GLMM analysis, with brook trout set as the reference
- 305 category, showed no significant species effects for water depth, flow velocity and substrate size

306 (Table 3). However, GLMM analysis indicated that fish size had a positive effect on flow

807 velocity and ,-water depth and substrate size, while white-spotted charr had a positive effect on

308 focal point flow velocity and fish size has a negative effect. For focal point water depth, brown

trout and fish size had positive effects while white-spotted charr and invasive salmonid density

310 had negative effects (Table 3).

- 311
- 312 Foraging

Total foraging rates were similar between the three species, approximately 1.8 attempts min<sup>-1</sup>.

All three species foraged primary using drift foraging with brown trout exhibiting the highest

rate and brook trout and white-spotted charr having similar rates (Fig. 4). Brook trout and white-

spotted charr also foraged benthically at a higher rate than brown trout. Brown trout exhibited

317 occasional surface foraging while brook trout and white-spotted charr did not. GLMM analysis

- showed brown trout had a positive effect while fish size had a negative effect on drift foraging.
- For benthic foraging, brown trout had a negative effect and no significant effects were found forsurface foraging (Table 3).
- 321

# 322 Aggression

323 Inter and intra-specific aggressive and defensive behavior was infrequent (approximately 0.2 aggressive behaviors min<sup>-1</sup>), however brown trout were primarily aggressive toward other 324 325 species while brook trout were aggressive conspecifically. In general, throughout the three species, aggressive and defensive behavior followed a size gradient as the aggressor was larger 326 327 in size in almost all interactions. GLMM analysis indicated that brown trout, white-spotted charr 328 and fish size had positive effects on interspecific aggression and brown trout has a negative 329 effect on intraspecific aggression while the effect of fish size was positive. Brown trout and fish 330 size had negative effects on interspecific avoidance (Table 3).

331

332 *Diet* 

333 The three study species, collected by electrofishing (brook n=193, brown n=74, white-spotted

charr n=36), were found to prey on a variety of aquatic and terrestrial prey items with terrestrial

Hemipetra and aquatic Trichoptera being the most prevalent prey items in all three species.

336 Brown trout preyed most on terrestrial Hemiptera followed by aquatic Trichoptera, while brook 337 trout and white-spotted charr preved most on aquatic Trichoptera followed by terrestrial 338 Hemiptera (Table 4). The ratio of "others" was also higher in brown trout as numerous large 339 individuals were found to be preying on amphibians. Three individuals (brown: n=2, brook: n=1) 340 were found preying on fish (prey ID: brook: n=4, white-spotted charr: n=1, brown: n=1), while five brown trout were found preying on amphibians (prey ID: salamander: Onvchodactylus 341 342 *japonicus*: n=1, toad: *Bufo japonicus formosus*: n=4) (Table 5). The Percent Similarity Index 343 (PSI) showed that brook trout and white-spotted charr diets were nearly identical with high biological significance while brown trout diets were not significantly similar to either brook trout 344 or white-spotted charr (Table 6). 345

346

### 347 Discussion

This study produced an overview of salmonid distribution in Kamikochi's small, predominantly 348 349 spring-fed, headwater tributaries -Kamikouchi headwater streams and showed clear niche overlap 350 between native and invasive species. The lack of native white-spotted charr and abundance of 351 invasive brown and brook trout was glaringly evident. While habitat use analysis indicated that 352 all three species utilize similar habitat in the small headwater streams (Table 3), foraging mode (Fig. 4) and diet analysis (Table 4, 6) clearly showed that brook trout and white-spotted charr had 353 354 nearly identical foraging niches while brown trout were distinct. Brook trout and white-spotted 355 charr primarily foraged in drift and also benthically, with diets composed largely of aquatic Trichoptera while brown trout foraged primarily in drift and diets were composed largely of 356 357 terrestrial Hemiptera. Diets composed of Trichoptera and Hemipetra are consistent with previous 358 studies on white-spotted charr (Iguichi et al., 2004) and brook trout (Tiberti et al., 2016) residing 359 in small streams. These results indicated that while the three species inhabit similar habitat in 360 these small headwater streams, they occupy slightly different foraging niches with brook trout 361 and white-spotted charr being similar and distinct from brown trout. The habitat niche overlap of 362 all three species in the current study area is likely influenced by the small scale of the tributaries 363 and the lack of potential habitat for habitat partitioning. In larger-scale streams where brown trout and brook trout are found sympatrically, habitats are often partitioned with brook trout in 364 365 headwater areas with cooler water temperatures and faster flow velocity (Dieterman & Mitro, 366 2019; Hoxmeier & Dieterman, 2015; Mitro et al., 2019).

367	
368	With these three species occupying similar habitat niches in Kamikouchi headwater
369	streams, the possibility of foraging niche shifts due to pressure from the other species is likely.
370	White-spotted charr have been shown to have flexible foraging niches that can shift from
371	predominantly drift foraging for terrestrial prey, to benthic foraging for aquatic invertebrates
372	when prey resources change (Fausch et al., 1997; Nakano et al., 1999a) or a dominant individual
373	pushes them out of their preferred focal point (Fausch et al., 2020; Nakano et al., 1999a). This
374	niche shift in white-spotted charr has also been shown in relation to introduction of brown trout
375	and rainbow trout (Hasegawa & Maekawa, 2006), with these invasive salmonids pushing white-
376	spotted charr individuals out of their preferred foraging position. The high rate of brown trout
377	drift foraging for terrestrial prey in the current study may be a product of large brown trout
378	individuals outcompeting white-spotted charr and brook trout for drift foraging focal points. This
379	is corroborated by the GLMM analysis that showed white-spotted charr and invasive salmonid
380	density having a negative effect on focal point water depth. This means that in areas where
381	invasive salmonid density is high, focal points of white-spotted charr become closer to the
382	bottom substrate. Numerous studies in North America have shown that brook trout are negatively
383	affected by the presence of brown trout, due to the combined effects of direct predation,
384	interspecific competition and induced behavior changes (Dieterman & Mitro, 2019; Fausch &
385	White, 1986). Brook trout are displaced from preferred foraging and resting positions, exhibit
386	reduced aggressive and foraging behavior, which result in weight loss and disease susceptibility
387	(DeWald & Wlizbach, 1992).
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389 With the nearly identical foraging and habitat niches and of brook trout and white-spotted 390 charr in the current study, brown trout likely have similar impacts on white-spotted charr as they 391 do on brook trout in North America. However, it is interesting that in the study area, brook trout and brown trout are found at similar densities (Table 1) while only white-spotted charr are 392 393 severely reduced. The specific mechanisms by which brook trout outcompete white-spotted charr 394 are unclear, and the impact of hybridization as well as reproductive interference from brook trout 395 and brown trout using redds where white-spotted charr have already spawned also requires 396 further study. Habitat characteristics and stream type likely also influence the persistence of white-spotted charr and warrant study, as the Zenroku stream, which is the only non-spring fed 397

398 stream in the study area, had the highest densityies of white-spotted charr. The prevalence of 399 white-spotted charr and brook trout, and the lack of brown trout in the Zenroku stream is likely 400 influenced by the mountain stream type which has high flow during spring snowmelt. Brown trout invasion success in Japan has been shown to be negatively influenced by flood disturbance 401 402 (Kawai et al. 2013) and therefore, in the current study area, the high densities of brown trout in spring-fed streams with relatively stable flow levels is likely a product of their stream type 403 404 preference. These results of brown trout primarily drift foraging for terrestrial invertebrates while brook trout and white-spotted charr forage benthically for aquatic invertebrates also offer 405 important insights into the potential interactions of brown trout globally, which are likely to 406 expand their habit range into more headwater areas due to climate change (Al-Chokhachy et al., 407 2016, Bell et al., 2021). If brown trout are dominant over native salmonids they will likely take 408 up favorable focal points and forage on the most energy rich prey items, often terrestrial 409 invertebrates in summer (Eros et al., 2012; Nakano et al., 1999b; Sweka & Hartman, 2008) 410 411 In terms of fish species distribution and density, the lack of native white-spotted charr 412 and prevalence of invasive salmonids was strikingly evident and highlights the drastic decline of 413 414 white-spotted charr in this area over the last 100 years (Azumi Village, 1998). Of the six streams surveyed only one (Zenroku) had prevalent white-spotted charr while the other streams had 415

either no white-spotted charr or very few individuals. This lack of white-spotted charr limited the
sample size for this species compared to brook and brown trout in this study and required
combining of the survey dates and stream locations in the foraging mode and diet analysis. <u>Also</u>,
as white-spotted charr were not found in four of the streams, the three species could not be

420 observed in sympatry in many parts of the study area. -Ideally, to further understand the negative

421 impacts of invasive salmonids on white-spotted charr, streams with differing species densities

422 (i.e. Recently invaded state: white-spotted charr are predominant with few invasive salmonids.

Invaded state: similar densities of white-spotted charr and invasive salmonids) would provide a
clearer picture of how the negative impacts of these invaders directly causes the decline of white-

425 spotted charr. Unfortunately, in the Kamikouchi area, this is no longer possible as in many of the

426 small headwater streams, white-spotted charr populations have experienced drastic decline over

427 the last century (Azumi Village, 1998). It is also important to note that the current study was

428 conducted only during summer (June-September) and habitat use likely differs especially in the429 fall when all three species spawn.

430

431 The current study indicates that in Kamikouchi, brook trout directly compete with white-432 spotted charr for prey resources. Brown trout also compete with white-spotted charr for prey resources, although to a lesser extent than brook trout, and likely have ecosystem-level impacts 433 434 due to high predation rates of terrestrial insects as well as amphibians and fish. The combined 435 impacts (prey resource competition, direct predation, and hybridization) of these two invasive 436 salmonid species have likely contributed to the drastic decline of white-spotted charr in tributary 437 habitat, while also significantly altering the headwater stream ecosystems found in the 438 Kamikouchi area. Although white-spotted charr have nearly been wiped out in the studied 439 tributary habitat, they can still be found in relatively high densities just a few kilometers 440 upstream in the Azusa River where brook trout and brown trout have yet to invade. Conservation of these areas is paramount, and the prevention of further spread of the invasive salmonids 441 should be highly prioritized. The small spring-fed streams in the current study, which are very 442 443 short (from headwater to confluence with the Azusa River) (Table 1) also provide an opportunity 444 for complete removal of the invasive salmonids and reintroduction of white-spotted charr. The 445 effectiveness of such practices in restoring native headwater stream biodiversity should be examined in future studies. 446

447

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464	The authors declare no conflict of interest.
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780	Figure Contions
781	rigure Captions
782	Fig. 1 (a) Man of the study area (Kamikouchi Nagano Janan) and (b) the six study streams. St 1
782	= Zenroku St 2 = Nakagawa St 3 = Kitano St $A = MyoiinMiyagawa St 5 = Shimizu St 6 =$
787	ReikamoNameless Stream
785	Darkamo <u>rvanciess Stream</u>
786	<b>Fig. 2</b> Photos of the study area (a) Main flow of the Azusa River (b) Zenroku (St 1) (c) Kitano
787	(St 3) and (d) Nakagawa (St 2)
788	
789	<b>Fig. 3</b> Underwater photos taken from video recordings (GoPro Hero) (a) Brook and brown trout
790	located in Raikamo the Nameless Stream (St 6) and (b) brown trout located in Raikamo the
791	Nameless Stream (St 6)
792	<u>Indificiess Stream</u> (St. 6)
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793	Fig. 4 Mean foraging attempts/min for brook trout, brown trout, and white-spotted charr in the
794	study area

(St. #) Stream	Lat/Long	Elevation (m)	Stream length (km)	Туре	Gradient (m/km)	Snorkel Dates	Fish Collection Dates (2021)	Brook (Ind. m <sup>-3)</sup>	Brown (Ind. m <sup>-3)</sup>	WSC (Ind. m <sup>-3)</sup>
(1) Zenroku	36°15'11 N/ 137 °38'12E	1817-1514	1.70	Mountain	178.23	22 Jun, 16 Sep	10 Jun, 15 Jul, 16 Sep	0.07	0.01	0.03
(2) Nakagawa	36°15'2 N/ 137 °38'18E	1530-1508	0.86	Spring	25.58	6, 28 Jul, 16 Sep	15 Jul, 16 Sep	0.08	0.01	0.01
(3) Kitano	36°15'7 N/ 137 °38'29E	1524-1511	0.31	Spring	41.94	6, 28 Jul, 16 Sep	28 Jul, 16 Sep	0.17	0.15	NA
(4) <del>Myojin<u>Miyaga</u> wa</del>	36°15'13 N/ 137 °40'57E	1535-1529	0.91	Spring	6.59	22 Jun	16 Sep	0.20	0.07	NA
$\overline{(5)}$ Shimizu	36°14'58 N/ 137 °38'20E	1519-1506	0.34	Spring	38.26	6 Jul, 16 Sep	NA	0.05	0.17	NA
(6) <del>Baikamo</del> <u>Nameless</u> <u>Stream</u>	36°15'10 N/ 137 °38'14E	1520-1511	0.41	Spring	21.95	22 Jun, 16Sep	NA	0.02	0.03	NA

Table 1: Descriptions of the six survey streams in the Kamikochi area. Stream length is the stream distance from headwaters to confluence with the Azusa River. Fish densities are calculated from a single pass snorkel survey. WSC = White-spotted charr.

Table 2: Means ±	: SE for mi	crohabitat c	characteristics	of each species.	WSC = White-spotted charr.
				1	1

Species	Fish Size (cm TL)	Water Depth (cm)	Flow Velocity (cm· s <sup>-1</sup> )	Substrate (Size Class)	
Brook n= 141	$15.7 \pm 0.45$	$56.4 \pm 2.20$	$25.5 \pm 1.14$	$3.2 \pm 0.10$	
Brown n= 130	$20.3\pm0.58$	$65.7 \pm 2.13$	$31.3 \pm 1.46$	$3.2 \pm 0.12$	
WSC $n=20$	$19.5 \pm 1.10$	$49.0 \pm 3.46$	$34.1 \pm 3.47$	$3.7 \pm 0.19$	

Table 3: Generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) results for factors affecting microhabitat, foraging and aggressive response variables. Only explanatory variables with significant effects are shown.  $\triangle$ AIC values are between the chosen (best) model and the next best model. Abbreviations: FP = Focal point, Inter = Interspecific, Intra = Intraspecific, WSC = White-spotted charr, Days = days after start.

Response	Effect Variable	Coefficient	Standard	Z-Value	$\Pr(> z )$	ΔAIC
Variable		Estimate	Error			
Flow Velocity	Fish Size	0.01	0.01	3.48	0.001	1.62
FP Velocity	WSC	0.24	0.09	2.54	0.01	1.98
	Fish Size	-0.01	< 0.01	-2.07	0.04	
Water Depth	Fish Size	0.01	< 0.01	6.29	< 0.001	3.87
FP Water Depth	Brown	0.48	0.06	7.03	< 0.001	2.51
	WSC	-0.35	0.16	-2.20	0.03	
	Fish Size	0.03	< 0.01	6.19	< 0.001	
	Invasive Density	-2.00	0.82	-2.45	0.01	
Benthic Foraging	Brown	-2.21	0.38	-5.75	< 0.001	2.19
Drift Foraging	Brown	0.34	0.10	3.43	0.001	2.37
	Fish Size	-0.02	0.01	-2.09	0.04	
Inter-aggression	Brown	2.08	0.78	2.66	0.01	1.75
	WSC	2.62	0.98	2.56	0.01	
	Fish Size	0.12	0.04	3.27	0.001	
Intra-aggression	Brown	-1.65	0.58	-2.86	0.004	1.99
	Fish Size	0.13	0.04	3.34	< 0.001	
Inter-avoidance	Brown	-1.67	0.77	-2.18	0.03	2.12
	Fish Size	-0.14	0.06	-2.42	0.02	

Prey taxa	Brook		Brown		WSC	
	%WT	%AI	%WT	%AI	%WT	%AI
Aquatic						
Trichoptera	60.4	84.1	22.1	34.6	60.7	80.9
Ephemeroptera	6.2	1.4	1.6	0.4	2.7	0.4
Plecoptera	4.4	1.4	2.9	1.0	6.5	3.1
Fish	1.0	< 0.1	11.4	1.0	< 0.1	<0.1
Terrestrial						
Coleoptera	2.1	0.1	NA	NA	3.1	0.4
Hemiptera	17.8	11.5	29.9	52.4	18.0	13.4
Lepidoptera	6.4	1.1	5.9	1.7	2.1	0.1
Hymenoptera	2.9	0.2	9.8	2.3	5.9	1.3
Others	2.2	0.2	20.3	6.5	1.6	0.2

Table 4: Stomach content % weight (% WT) and % alimentary index (% AI) of brown trout, brook trout and white-spotted charr (WSC).

Table 5: Fish and amphibian prey	species found ir	n brook and brown	trout stomachs, i	identified by DNA	barcoding
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Predator	Size	Location	Date	Prey Species (weight mg)
Species	(mm FL)			
Brook	215	Nakagawa	16 Jul	Brook (261)
Brown	206	Nakagawa	16 Jul	Brook (432)
Brown	270	Kitano	28 Jul	Brook (355), Brook (263), White-spotted
				charr (1252), Brown (2994)
Brown	178	Nakagawa	17 Sep	Onychodactylus japonicus (386)
Brown	275	Nakagawa	16 Jul	Bufo japonicus formosus (340)
Brown	215	Zenroku	16 Jul	Bufo japonicus formosus (283)
Brown	403	Zenroku	16 Jul	Bufo japonicus formosus (896)
Brown	225	Zenroku	16 Jul	Bufo japonicus formosus (1493)

japonicus formosus (1-7-2-,

Table 6: Schoener Index of Overlap values of diet overlap between brown trout, brook trout and white-spotted charr (WSC). Diet overlap is considered biologically significant if  $PSI \ge 60\%$  and is indicated by bold lettering.

Species	Brook	Brown
Brook		
Brown	52.8	
WSC	92.2	52.1

-1 For Review Only



Figure 1 254x190mm (200 x 200 DPI)





254x190mm (200 x 200 DPI)



Figure 3

254x190mm (200 x 200 DPI)







GTOC: This study examines habitat, foraging, and diet niche overlaps of invasive salmonids (brown trout and brook trout) and native white-spotted charr in headwater streams. All three species are found in similar habitat, while brook trout and white-spotted charr have nearly identical foraging and diet niches. The combined effects of brown trout and brook trout have likely lead to the decline of white-spotted charr over the last century.

254x190mm (200 x 200 DPI)