



Title	Ecological value of gravel pit ponds for floodplain wetland fish
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Citation	Freshwater Biology, 68(2), 340-348 https://doi.org/10.1111/fwb.14029
Issue Date	2023-02
Doc URL	http://hdl.handle.net/2115/91105
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1 **Ecological value of gravel pit ponds for floodplain wetland fish**

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20
21 **Keywords:** artificial ecosystem, biodiversity, habitat loss, habitat restoration, threatened
22 species

24 **ABSTRACT**

- 25 1. Floodplain wetlands support high biodiversity, but they have been degraded and
26 geographically fragmented due to human activities. Some types of human-created
27 waterbodies have received growing attention as alternative habitats for conserving
28 wetland biodiversity. Gravel pit ponds (GPPs) are human-created wetlands formed
29 when a gravel pit is excavated at or below the water table and filled with
30 groundwater. Differences in community structure among GPPs and floodplain
31 wetlands with respect to habitat characteristics are scarcely known, resulting in
32 insufficient evaluations of the ecological value of GPPs for floodplain wetland
33 species. In this study, we evaluated the ecological value of GPPs for wetland fishes
34 in floodplain landscapes.
- 35 2. We surveyed fish abundance, community composition and ten environmental factors
36 in GPPs and two types of floodplain ponds (remnant ponds and river backwaters) to
37 clarify the biotic and abiotic differences among the pond types.
- 38 3. Environmental factors were similar among the pond types, with only water
39 temperature and the distance from the main channel to the pond significantly lower
40 in river backwaters. The richness and abundance of native fish species did not differ
41 among the pond types, but species composition did. *Rhynchocypris percnura*
42 *sachalinensis*, *Carassius* sp., and *Lethenteron* sp. N (one of the two cryptic species
43 of *Lethenteron reissneri*) were selected as indicator species in GPPs, remnant ponds
44 and river backwaters, respectively.
- 45 4. These results indicate that GPPs provide valuable habitats for wetland fishes in
46 floodplain landscapes and support regional gamma diversity. Since many species
47 inhabited the GPPs in this study, including red list species, appropriate management

48 of GPPs is important to conserve wetland fishes.

49 **1. INTRODUCTION**

50 Natural floodplain wetlands are among the most diverse and productive ecosystems on
51 Earth (Keddy et al., 2009; Kingsford, 2000; Tockner & Stanford, 2002). However, loss
52 and degradation of floodplain wetlands have occurred around the world because of
53 human activities (Davidson, 2014; Hein et al., 2016; Kingsford, 2015; Reis et al., 2017;
54 Tockner & Stanford, 2002), including river regulation, river channelization, and
55 conversion to agricultural land (Fickas et al., 2016; Kingsford et al., 2016; Kuiper et al.,
56 2014; Wilcock & Essery, 1991). The degradation of floodplains leads to a serious
57 decline in the abundance of floodplain wetland species (Poff et al., 1997). Conservation
58 of remnant natural or seminatural wetlands is one possible measure for the mitigation of
59 biodiversity decline. However, this conventional measure cannot be applied to the areas
60 wherein remnant natural and seminatural wetlands are seriously decreasing due to land
61 use development; therefore, alternative habitats should be considered to develop
62 conservation plans for wetland biodiversity.

63 The utilization of human-created wetlands is an alternative measure for the
64 conservation of declining wetland biodiversity. Recent studies have shown that human-
65 created wetlands (e.g., channelized watercourses, flood-control basins, and drainage
66 pumping stations) function as habitats for wetland species (Chester & Robson, 2013;
67 Ishiyama et al., 2022; Yamanaka et al., 2020). Conserving various wetlands, including
68 human-created wetlands, may increase the gamma diversity of wetland species in the
69 whole region because human-created waterbodies can support unique aquatic
70 communities (Ishiyama et al., 2016; Yamanaka et al., 2020). These ecological
71 advantages of human-created wetlands can contribute to wetland species conservation.

72 Gravel pit ponds (GPPs) are a type of human-created wetland where gravel pits

73 are excavated at or below the water table, fill with groundwater and become artificial
74 lakes (Mollema & Antonellini, 2016). Most GPPs are located in urban or agricultural
75 settings (Mollema & Antonellini, 2016). Globally, the demand for sand and gravel is
76 increasing, largely due to urban expansion, infrastructural improvements and the
77 enhancement of coastal protection (Bendixen et al., 2019). Given the increased demand
78 for geomaterials, the construction of GPPs may continuously increase in the future.
79 Diverse organisms, such as fish, birds, plants, zooplankton, and macroinvertebrates,
80 inhabit GPPs (including gravel pit lakes) (Emmrich et al., 2014; Santoul et al., 2009;
81 Seelen et al., 2021; Søndergaard et al., 2018; Vucic et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2016).
82 Previous studies on human-altered floodplain landscapes have examined the difference
83 in macrophyte community structures between GPPs and other pooled water bodies,
84 including artificial canals and natural lakes. For example, Seelen et al. (2021) have
85 suggested that GPPs have lower nutrient and chlorophyll-a concentrations, as well as
86 unique macrophyte communities, compared with pooled water bodies. However,
87 knowledge of the differences in community structure among GPPs and floodplain
88 wetlands with respect to habitat characteristics remains scarce; thus, the evaluation of
89 the ecological value of GPPs for floodplain wetland species is not sufficient. Species
90 composition in floodplain landscapes often differs among waterbody types (Ishiyama et
91 al., 2016), and the differences may contribute to the maintenance of gamma diversity.
92 Therefore, we should assess community structures and abiotic characteristics of GPPs in
93 floodplain landscapes by comparing them with other floodplain wetlands to deeply
94 understand the contribution of GPPs to regional aquatic biodiversity.

95 Freshwater fishes suffer severely from several human activities, including
96 agricultural activities, inland fisheries, habitat fragmentation, biological invasions, and

97 climate change (Allan et al., 2005; Barbarossa et al., 2021; Dudgeon, 2019; Gallardo et
98 al., 2016; Maitland, 1995; Reid et al., 2019; Weijters et al., 2009). Therefore, effective
99 conservation measures for freshwater fish are needed. This study aimed to evaluate the
100 ecological value of GPPs for floodplain wetland fish by comparing abiotic and biotic
101 conditions among three types of waterbodies. In this paper, ecological value is defined
102 as the capacity of a habitat to support an abundance and diversity of organisms. We
103 selected two floodplain ponds, a “remnant pond” and a “river backwater”, in addition to
104 GPPs. Remnant ponds are permanent water bodies that include cut-off channels and
105 remnants of the back marsh (Yamanaka et al., 2020). River backwaters are slow-flowing
106 areas that are separated from the influence of the main channel (Moore & Gregory,
107 1988). We compared fish assemblages and environments among the three pond types
108 based on the hypothesis that GPPs function as important habitats for fish communities,
109 similar to other pond types, and contribute to an increase in gamma diversity in a
110 region. We predicted that each of the three pond types would provide habitats for unique
111 fish species due to their different environments (e.g., water temperatures and distance
112 from the main channel).

113

114

115 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

116 **2.1 Study area**

117 Field surveys were conducted in the Tokachi Plain, Hokkaido, northern Japan. Since
118 1900, this region has been undergoing agricultural land expansion and river
119 channelization, and most of the wetlands have been converted to farmland. We
120 randomly selected five study sites for each pond type (Figure 1). All study ponds are

121 lentic and connected to main channels through waterways, although some ponds are
122 connected to main channels only when the water level rises. The mean and range for the
123 area of each pond type are as follows: GPPs, 4349.8 (range 247–10746) m²; remnant
124 ponds, 4837.8 (range 548–10197) m²; and river backwaters, 396.6 (range 219–665) m².

125

126 **2.2 Environmental factors**

127 Abiotic surveys were conducted from July 20th to August 6th, 2021. All environmental
128 measurements and fish surveys were conducted during the same season and completed
129 within 30 days after the fish survey. We measured the dissolved oxygen content,
130 electrical conductivity, turbidity, water temperature, and pH at three points randomly
131 selected at each site using a portable water quality metre (WQC-24, DKK-TOA
132 Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). These environmental factors were averaged for each pond
133 for data analysis. These measurements were taken within 5 h after sunrise. We also
134 measured water levels with a folding scale or a portable echosounder (Deeper Smart
135 Sonar CHIRP⁺, Deeper, Vilnius, Lithuania) at 20 points in each site, at 10 points on the
136 shore and at 10 points in the centre of the water body, and then an average was
137 calculated for each position (i.e., centre or shore). Distance from the main channel
138 (excluding ditches) was measured as an indicator of connectivity using Google Maps
139 (<https://www.google.co.jp/maps/>) for remnant ponds and GPPs and a laser rangefinder
140 (Tru-Pulse 200, Laser Technology Inc., Colorado, US) for river backwaters.

141

142 **2.3 Fish**

143 From July 7th to August 5th, 2021, fish surveys were conducted using one fyke net (0.4
144 m diameter, 2.0 m bag length, and 3 m wing length) and two minnow traps (0.25 m

145 width, 0.48 m length, and 0.25 m depth) at each site. The fyke net and minnow traps
146 were set up near shores covered by aquatic vegetation for 24 h. The collected fish were
147 anaesthetized with 2-phenoxyethanol and identified to the species level, and the
148 abundance of each species was recorded. Then, all fish were released near the capture
149 sites. The collected fish were also categorized into native or nonnative species
150 according to the Hokkaido Blue List 2010 (Hokkaido, 2010), and the status of each fish
151 species was assessed according to national red lists (Ministry of the Environment,
152 2020). The samples from fyke net and minnow traps were pooled in each pond for data
153 analysis. Fish surveys were conducted at one or two ponds per day. The sampling effort
154 needed to comprehensively capture that community structure can vary among study
155 ponds. Prior to the statistical analyses, we compared the observed and estimated species
156 richness within each pond using an individual-based rarefaction curve (Colwell et al.,
157 2012) to test whether the community in each pond was well represented by the sampling
158 data. The difference between the observed and estimated species richness within each
159 pond was small (Figure S1; mean detection rate \pm SD, $95 \pm 8\%$ [range 75–100%]). The
160 result suggests that the sampling effort used in this study was appropriate for capturing
161 the community structure.

162

163 **2.4 Data analysis**

164 Since candidate water bodies were very few and unevenly distributed spatially due to
165 river regulation, river channelization, and conversion to agricultural land, our study sites
166 for each of the pond types exhibited an aggregated pattern (Figure 1). Thus, we
167 conducted a Moran's test to check for spatial autocorrelation of the abundance and
168 species richness of native species among the study sites in each pond type. The results

169 showed no significant correlations among sites and suggested that spatial
170 autocorrelation does not occur in the present study design, and the samples can be
171 treated as independent.

172 We constructed generalized linear models (GLMs) to estimate the effects of
173 pond type on environmental factors, species richness and abundance. In the GLMs, we
174 used environmental factors, species richness and abundance as response variables and
175 pond type as an explanatory variable. Due to the fact that environmental factors were
176 comprised of non-negative continuous data, species richness was comprised of non-
177 overdispersed count data and abundance was comprised of overdispersed count data, we
178 applied a gamma distribution with a log link function, a Poisson distribution with a log
179 link function and a negative binominal distribution with a log link function in the
180 GLMs, respectively (Zuur et al., 2009). In the GLMs with species richness or
181 abundance as a response variable, native and nonnative species were used in separate
182 models. Second, we conducted pairwise comparisons using the constructed models to
183 examine whether each environmental factor, species richness, and abundance
184 significantly differed among the pond types. *p*-values were corrected for pairwise
185 comparisons using the Holm procedure (Holm, 1979).

186 To compare species composition among the pond types, we ordinated species
187 composition by nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS). A dataset including both
188 native and nonnative species was used for this analysis. In the NMDS analysis, we used
189 the log-transformed species-abundance data and Bray–Curtis index as the length index.
190 We tested whether the environmental factors were significantly correlated with NMDS
191 ordination with 1000 permutations. Before the analysis, we calculated the variance
192 inflation factors (VIFs) to avoid multicollinearity; the results showed that depth near

193 shore and depth in the centre had values over 5, which is the threshold indicative of
194 problematic collinearity for regressions (Sheather, 2009). Therefore, we removed the
195 depth in the centre, which had a lower R^2 than the depth near the shore, from our
196 analysis. Finally, the VIF for every variable was <5 , suggesting that all variables were
197 suitable. Only environmental factors with significant correlation ($p < 0.05$) were fitted
198 and plotted on the given NMDS using the “ordisurf” function of the “vegan” R package
199 (Oksanen et al., 2020). We also conducted pairwise permutational multivariate analysis
200 of variance (pairwise PERMANOVA) to test for differences in species composition
201 among the pond types. p -values from pairwise PERMANOVA were corrected by using
202 the Holm procedure (Holm, 1979). The dispersion among the pond types was similar,
203 with no significant differences.

204 Furthermore, we used indicator species analysis to determine which species
205 were significantly associated with a specific pond type (Dufrene & Legendre, 1997).
206 Indicator species were determined based on significant p -values (< 0.05 , which was
207 computed by using 10,000 permutations).

208 All data analyses were conducted with R v. 4.2.0 (R Core Team, 2022) using
209 “emmeans” v. 1.7.4.1 (Lenth, 2022) for pairwise comparisons, “iNEXT” v. 2.0.20
210 (Chao et al., 2014) for rarefaction curve construction, “stats” v. 4.2.0 (R Core Team,
211 2022) and “MASS” v. 7.3.56 (Venables & Ripley, 2002) for GLM fitting, “vegan” v.
212 2.6.2 (Oksanen et al., 2020) for NMDS, “pairwiseAdonis” v. 0.4 (Martinez Arbizu,
213 2017) for pairwise PERMANOVA and “indicspecies” v. 1.7.12 (Cáceres & Legendre,
214 2009) for indicator species analysis.

215

216

217 3. RESULTS

218 3.1 Environmental factors

219 Water temperature was lower in river backwaters than in other pond types (Figure 2e;
220 Table S1; Table S2), and the distance from the main channel to river backwaters was
221 shorter than that to other pond types (Figure 2f; Table S1; Table S2). Other
222 environmental factors did not significantly differ among the pond types (Figure 2a–d, g,
223 h; Table S1; Table S2).

224

225 3.2 Fish

226 We caught 12193 and 708 individuals representing 12 native and 4 nonnative species,
227 respectively. Regarding red list species, *Rhynchocypris percnura sachalinensis* was
228 mainly found in GPPs, *Gymnogobius castaneus* and *Pungitius tymensis* were found only
229 in remnant ponds, *Lethenteron* sp. N (one of the two cryptic species of *Lethenteron*
230 *reissneri*) and *Salvelinus curilus* were found only in river backwaters, and *Lefua*
231 *nikkonis* was present in all pond types (Figure S2; Figure S3; Table S3). Additionally,
232 one or two species were dominant in each pond type, i.e., *Gasterosteus aculeatus* in
233 river backwaters (Figure S2; Figure S3; Table S3). There was no significant difference
234 in species richness or abundance among the pond types except for the abundance of
235 nonnative species (Figure 3a–c; Table S4; Table S5). The nonnative species abundance
236 of remnant ponds was significantly greater than that of river backwaters (Figure 3d;
237 Table S4; Table S5). Species composition significantly differed among the pond types
238 (Figure 4a; Table 1). The stress value, which is an index of the fit of the reproduced
239 similarity matrix to the observed similarity matrix, was 0.11, suggesting that the
240 goodness of the fit was ‘fair’ (Kruskal, 1964). Turbidity, water temperature, distance

241 from the main channel, and depth near shore were significantly correlated with NMDS
242 ordination (Figure 4b–e; Table S6). While river backwaters and other pond types clearly
243 separated along the water temperature gradient and differed in distance from the main
244 channel (Figure 4c, d), no clear pattern was found in other factors. The indicator species
245 analysis showed that one species was a significant indicator for each pond type (Table
246 2): GPPs, *Rhynchocypris percnura sachalinensis*; remnant ponds, *Carassius* sp. ; and
247 river backwaters, *Lethenteron* sp. N.

248

249

250 **4. DISCUSSION**

251 The degradation of floodplains leads to a serious decline in the abundance of floodplain
252 wetland species (Poff et al., 1997). In the present study, we clarified the ecological value
253 of GPPs by comparing biotic and abiotic conditions among multiple pond types in
254 modified floodplain landscapes. We found that species composition differed
255 significantly among the pond types, although the richness and abundance of native
256 species did not differ. Indicator species also differed among the pond types. These
257 results support our hypothesis that GPPs function as important habitats for fish
258 communities, similar to other pond types, and contribute to an increase in gamma
259 diversity in a region. Thus, appropriate management of GPPs is important to conserve
260 floodplain wetland biodiversity that is being lost.

261 It is possible that the unique fish communities in each pond type were formed
262 by the occurrence of nonnative species and/or environmental factors. River backwaters
263 have lower temperatures and shorter distances from the main channel than the other
264 pond types, and these gradients explained the community structure of river backwaters.

265 The indicator species *Lethenteron* sp. N and several other species (*Salvelinus curilus*
266 and *Oncorhynchus mykiss*) that were found only in river backwaters prefer spring water
267 and/or cold water habitats (Hirano et al., 2020; Koizumi & Maekawa, 2004; Matthews
268 & Berg, 1997). Therefore, the cold water in river backwaters may have caused the
269 formation of a unique community. Also, river backwaters exhibited the lowest nonnative
270 species abundance, which was significantly lower than that in remnant ponds. Invasion
271 by lentic or low-flow nonnative species may be prevented by flood disturbance (Ho et
272 al., 2013). Therefore, a high frequency of flood disturbance in river backwaters may
273 cause a lower abundance of nonnative species.

274 Although GPPs and remnant ponds had more similar environments than we
275 predicted, their species composition and indicator species differed as predicted. In
276 GPPs, only one nonnative species (*Misgurnus anguillicaudatus*) was observed, although
277 no significant differences in the richness or abundance of nonnative species were found
278 between GPPs and remnant ponds. Since public access to the area near GPPs is
279 prohibited, the release of nonnative species may have been prevented. *Rhynchocypris*
280 *percnura sachalinensis* (categorized as near-threatened) was the indicator species in
281 GPPs but not in remnant ponds with similar environments. The reason for this
282 difference may be the effect of nonnative species. Invasion by nonnative *Pseudorasbora*
283 *parva*, with an ecological niche similar to that of *Rhynchocypris percnura*
284 *sachalinensis*, can reduce the abundance of *Rhynchocypris percnura sachalinensis*
285 (Ishiyama et al., 2020). Since *Pseudorasbora parva* inhabited three remnant ponds, the
286 abundance of *Rhynchocypris percnura sachalinensis* may have been low. In addition,
287 deeper ponds probably function as refuges for *Rhynchocypris percnura sachalinensis*
288 from *Pseudorasbora parva* (e.g., Ishiyama et al., 2020); therefore, deeper GPPs created

289 by gravel mining may function as refuges for *Rhynchocypris percnura sachalinensis* if
290 the nonnative *Pseudorasbora parva* invades.

291 Our results showed that GPPs provide habitats for floodplain wetland fishes,
292 including endangered species, and can help increase the gamma diversity of wetland
293 fishes in the studied region. Most species found in the studied ponds prefer lentic water
294 and have a weak swimming ability (Ishiyama et al., 2014). Thus, if habitat
295 fragmentation by river alteration proceeds, dispersion of wetland fishes may be limited,
296 and populations may not be sustained. Conservation of existing GPPs may contribute to
297 sustaining the habitat and populations of wetland fishes. However, the ecological value
298 of GPPs has been overlooked, and GPPs are disappearing in Japan. For example, GPPs
299 in some prefectures should be backfilled after mining projects due to past fatal water
300 accidents. GPPs often have steeper shores than natural lakes or ponds (Blanchette &
301 Lund, 2016; Emmrich et al., 2014; Santoul et al., 2004); however, this structure is not
302 conducive to the growth of macrophytes (Søndergaard et al., 2018). Inshore
303 macrophytes can serve as habitats for many organisms and increase overall biodiversity
304 (Santoul et al., 2004). Therefore, creating gently sloping shores for GPPs may be a
305 solution for biological conservation as well as the prevention of water accidents.

306 Our results indicated that GPPs have an important ecological role for
307 floodplain wetland fishes and can compensate for wetland loss. Although our study
308 focused only on floodplain wetland fishes, various types of organisms inhabit GPPs
309 (including gravel pit lakes) (Emmrich et al., 2014; Santoul et al., 2009; Seelen et al.,
310 2021; Søndergaard et al., 2018; Vucic et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2016). Since ecological
311 values often differ among taxa (e.g., Yamanaka et al., 2020), it is important to clarify the
312 ecological value of GPPs for other floodplain wetland taxa in future studies.

313

314

315 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

316 We thank the members of the Ecosystem Management Laboratory, who helped conduct
317 the field survey and gave valuable comments. We also thank Y. Oppata at the
318 Higashitaisetsu Museum for field support. The Hokkaido Government Tokachi General
319 Subprefectural Bureau provided permission (no. 7) to perform fish collection. This work
320 was funded by the Research Fund for the Ishikari and Tokachi Rivers provided by the
321 Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport, and Tourism of Japan.

322

323 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT**

324 Conceptualization: TY. Developing methods: HN, TY, NI. Conducting the research, data
325 analysis, preparation figures & tables: HN, TY. Data interpretation, writing: HN, TY, NI,
326 FN.

327

328 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

329 Data used in this study will be made available by the authors upon reasonable request.

330

331 **CONFLICTS OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

332 None declared.

333

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514

515 **TABLES**

516 **Table 1** Results of pairwise PERMANOVA.

Contrast	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Gravel pit pond vs. Remnant pond	2.31	< 0.05
Gravel pit pond vs. River backwater	6.49	< 0.05
Remnant pond vs. River backwater	4.81	< 0.05

517

518 **Table 2** Results of the indicator species analysis. Specificity is the probability that the
 519 surveyed site belongs to the target site group given that the species has been found.
 520 Sensitivity is the probability of finding the species in sites belonging to the site group.
 521 Only species with $p < 0.05$ are shown.

Pond type	Species	Specificity	Sensitivity	<i>p</i>
Gravel pit pond	<i>Rhynchocypris percnura</i>	0.96	1.00	< 0.01
	<i>sachalinensis</i>			
Remnant pond	<i>Carassius</i> sp.	0.82	0.80	< 0.05
River backwater	<i>Lethenteron</i> sp. N	1.00	0.80	< 0.01

522

523

524

525 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

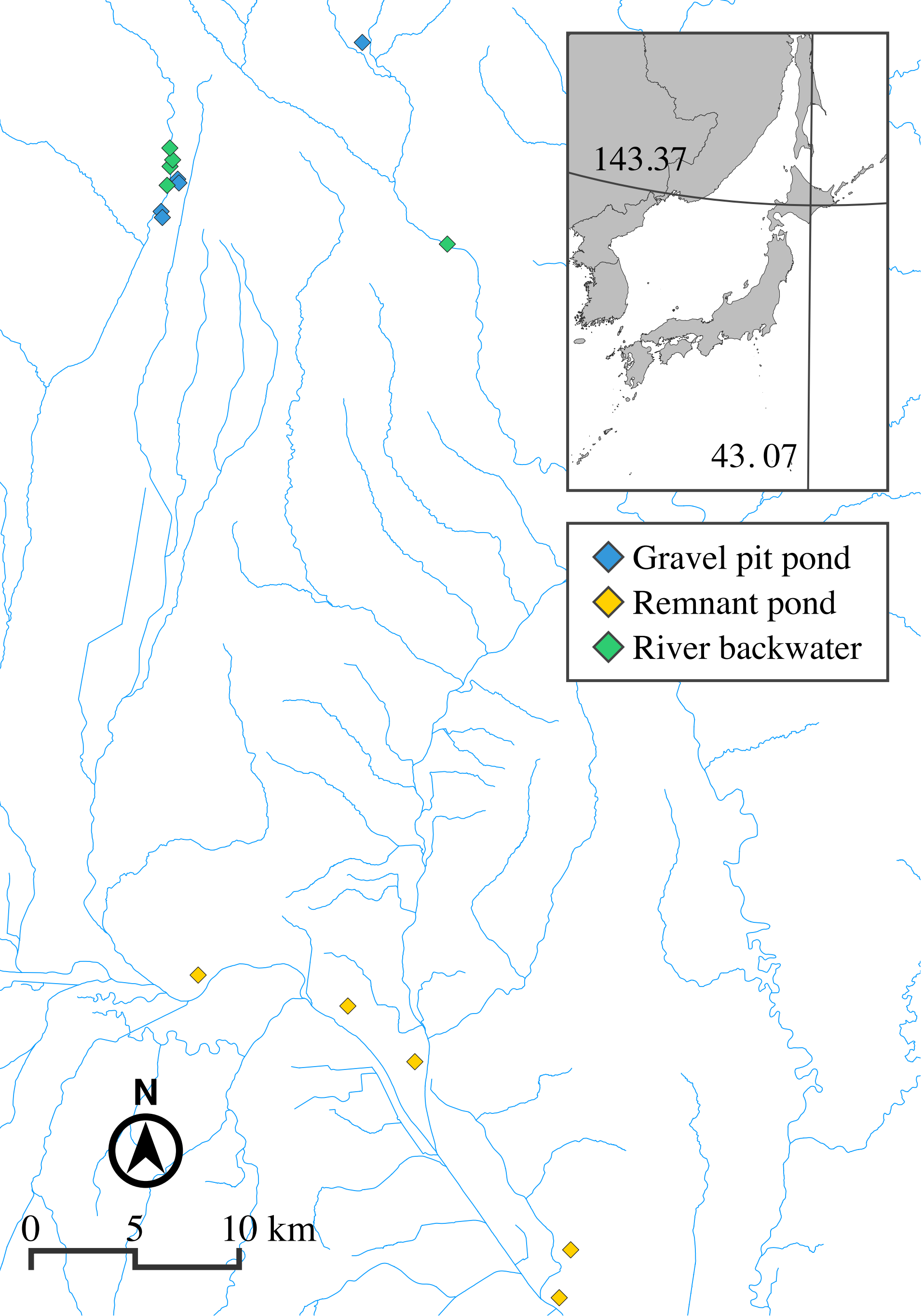
526 **Figure 1** Map of the study area and representative landscapes of the surveyed ponds.

527 **Figure 2** Differences in environmental factors among the pond types. The translucent
528 bars indicate 95% CIs. The circles denote each observed value. Different letters indicate
529 significant differences in the pairwise comparison ($p < 0.05$).

530 **Figure 3** Differences in species richness and abundance among pond types. The
531 translucent bars indicate 95% CIs. The circles denote each observed value. Different
532 letters indicate significant differences in the pairwise comparison ($p < 0.05$).

533 **Figure 4** Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of the fish community
534 structures in the surveyed pond types. (a) Site scores coded by pond types. (b-f) Contour
535 plots for each environmental factor. Greyscale bars in each panel indicate the range of
536 values for each environmental factor.

537



Gravel pit pond



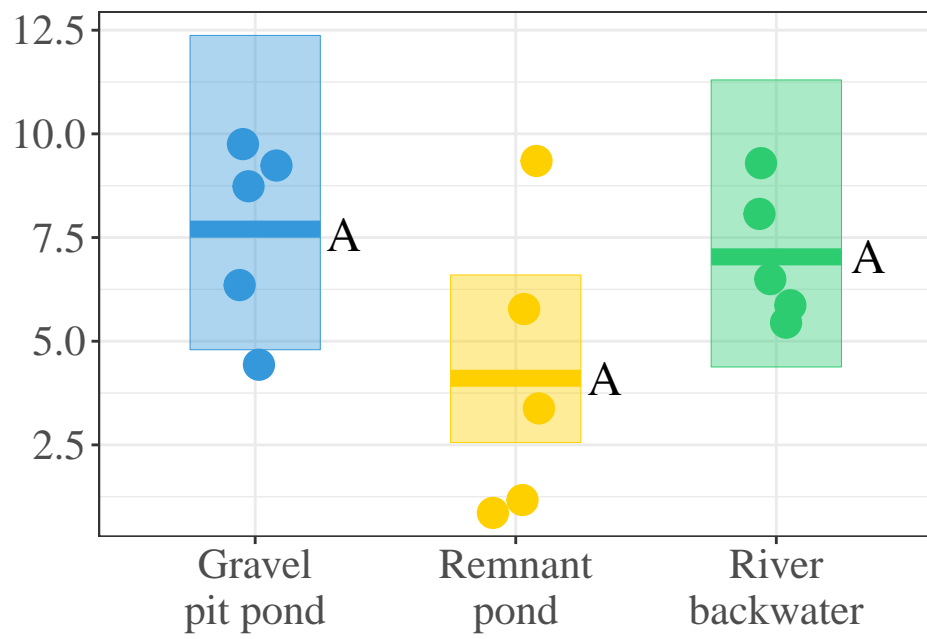
Remnant pond



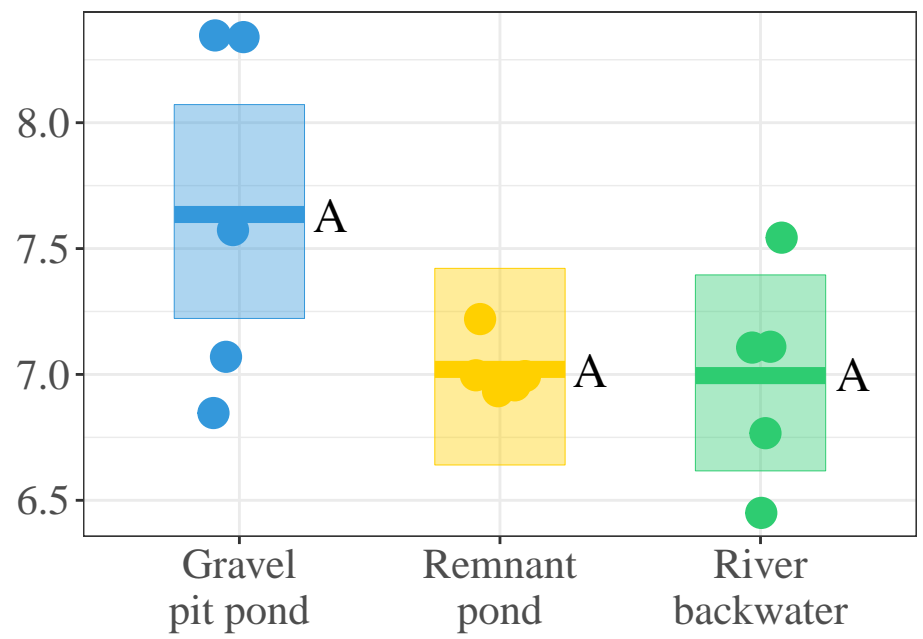
River backwater



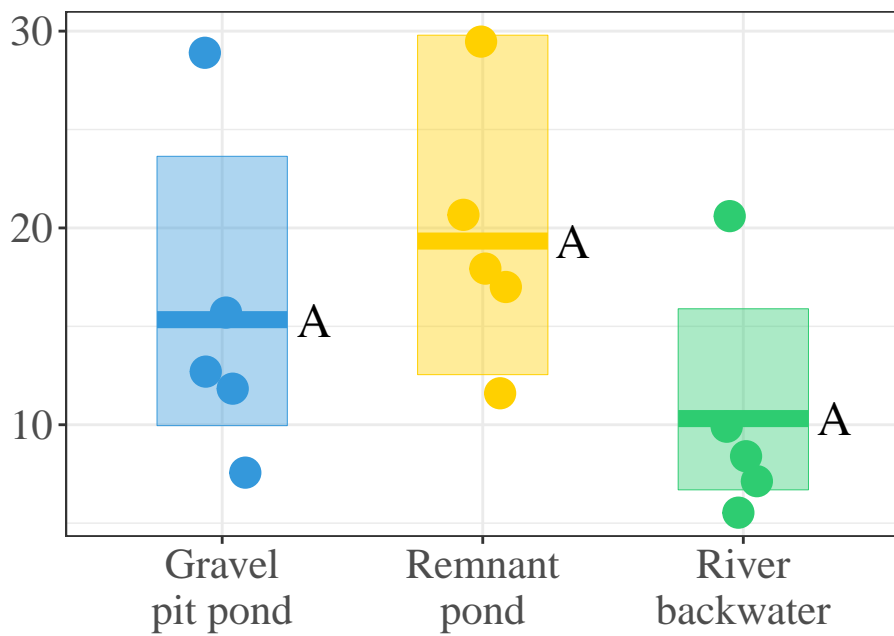
(a) Dissolved oxygen (mg/L)



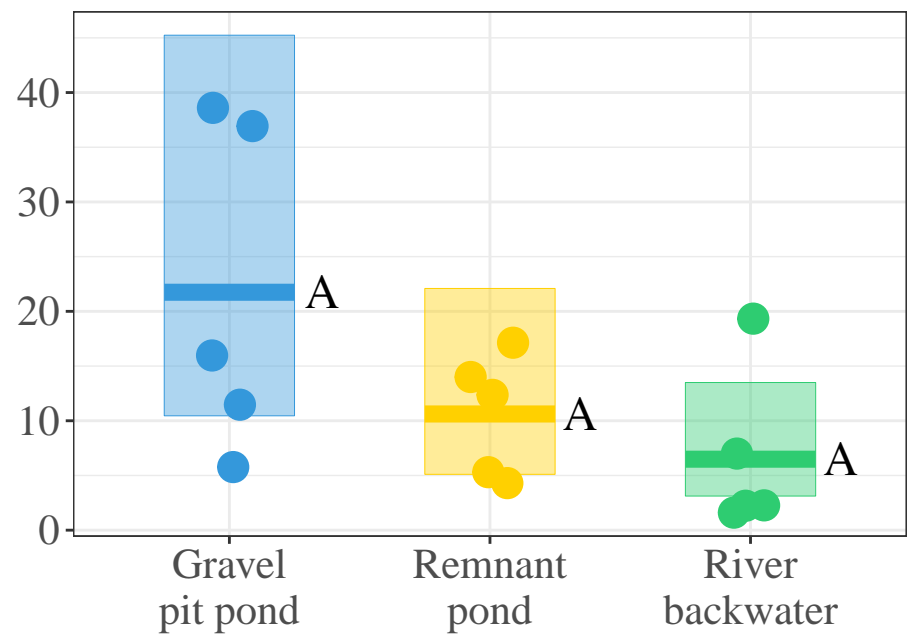
(b) pH



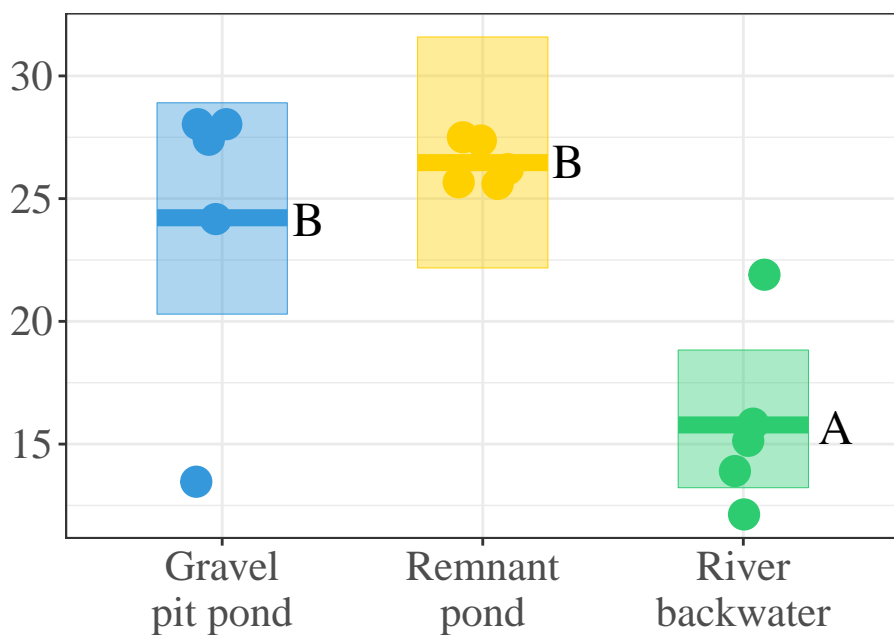
(c) Electrical conductivity ($\mu\text{s}/\text{cm}$)



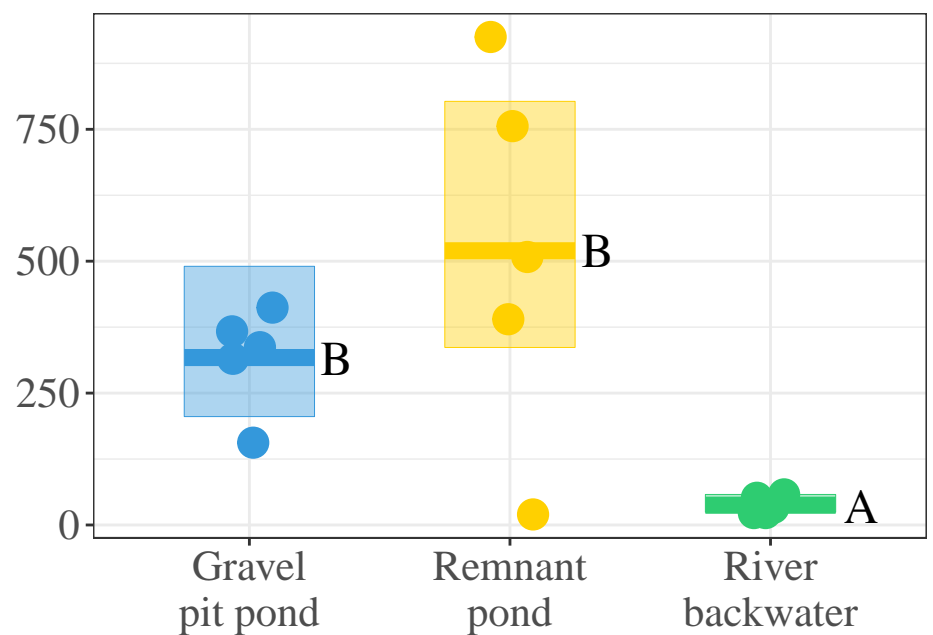
(d) Turbidity (NTU)



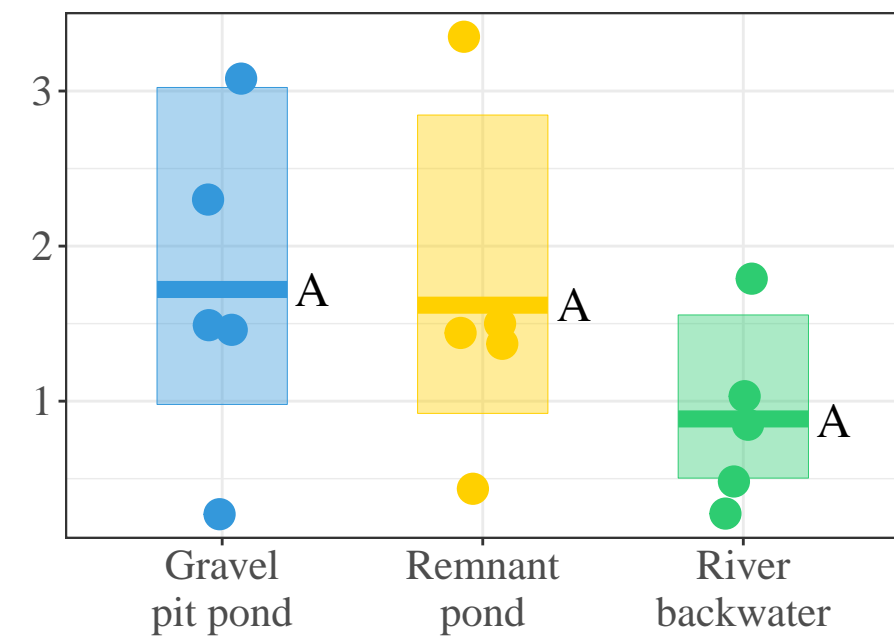
(e) Water temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)



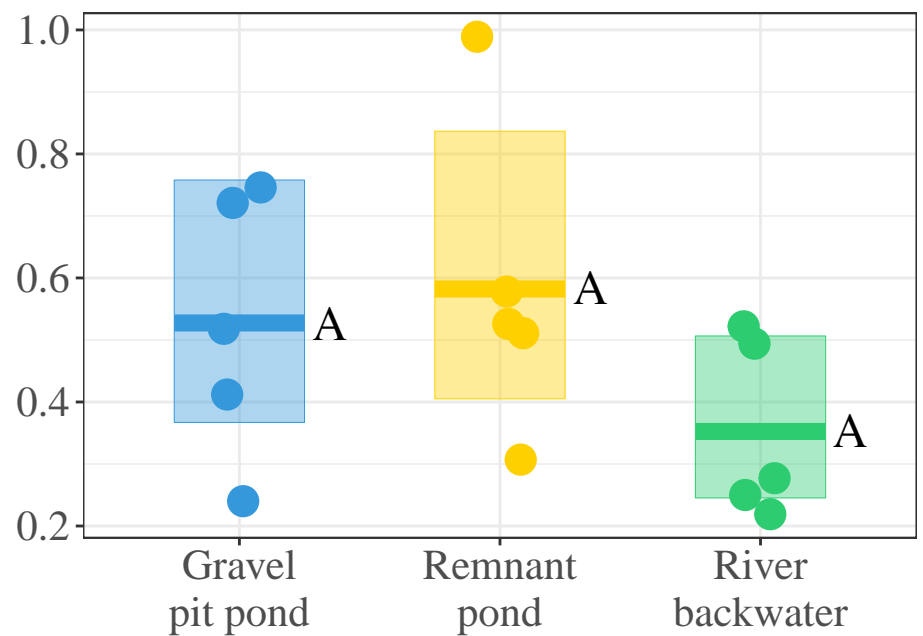
(f) Distance from the main channel (m)



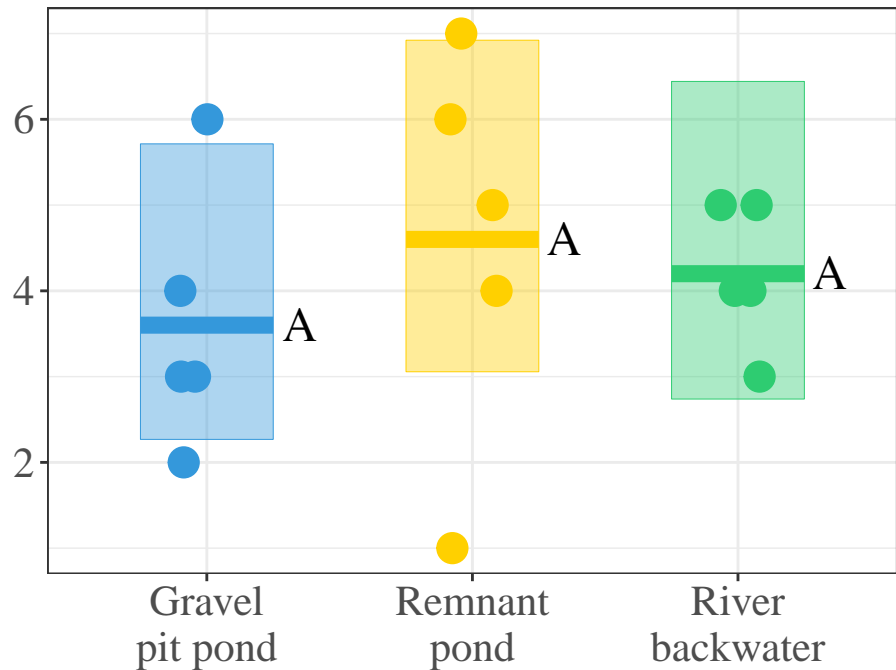
(g) Depth in the center (m)



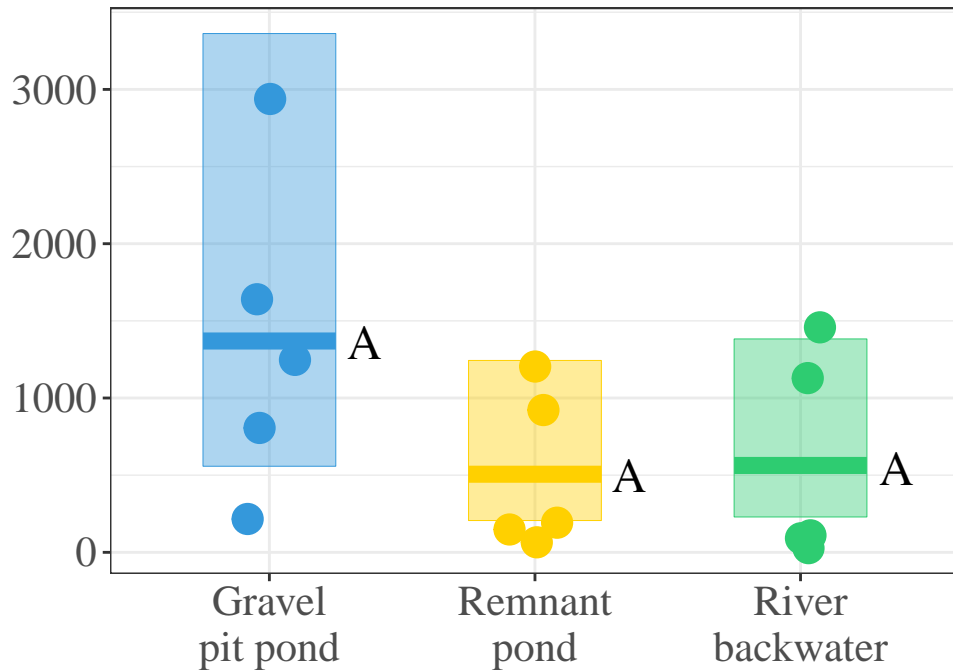
(h) Depth near shore (m)



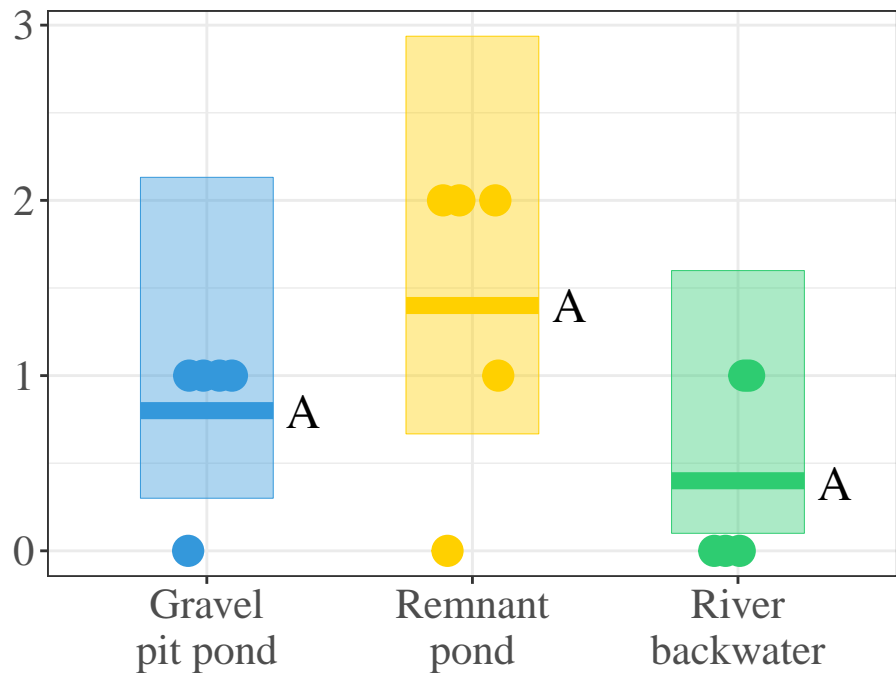
(a) Richness of native fishes



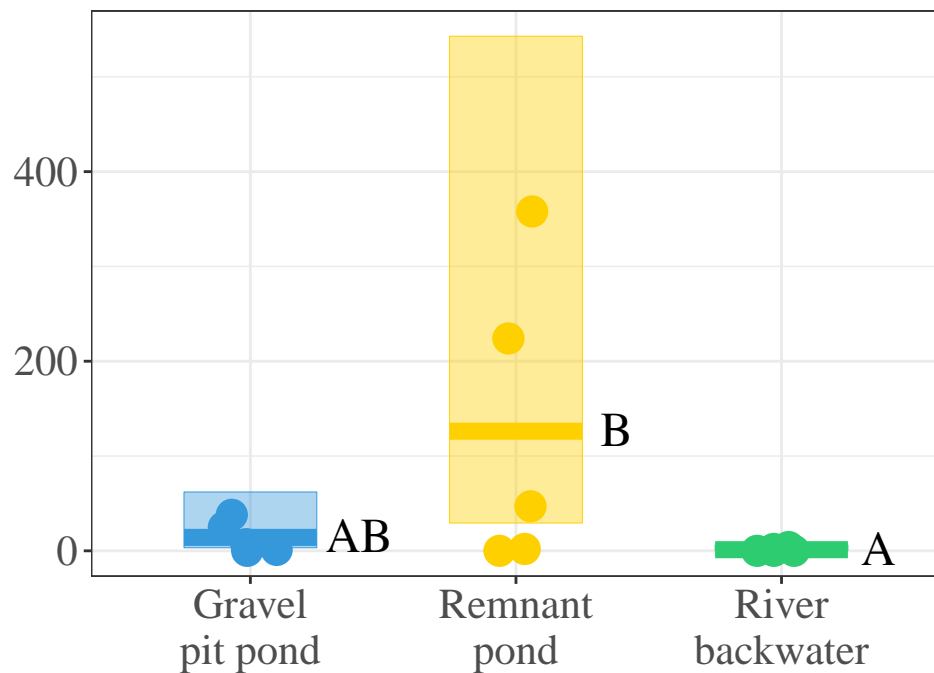
(b) Abundance of native fishes



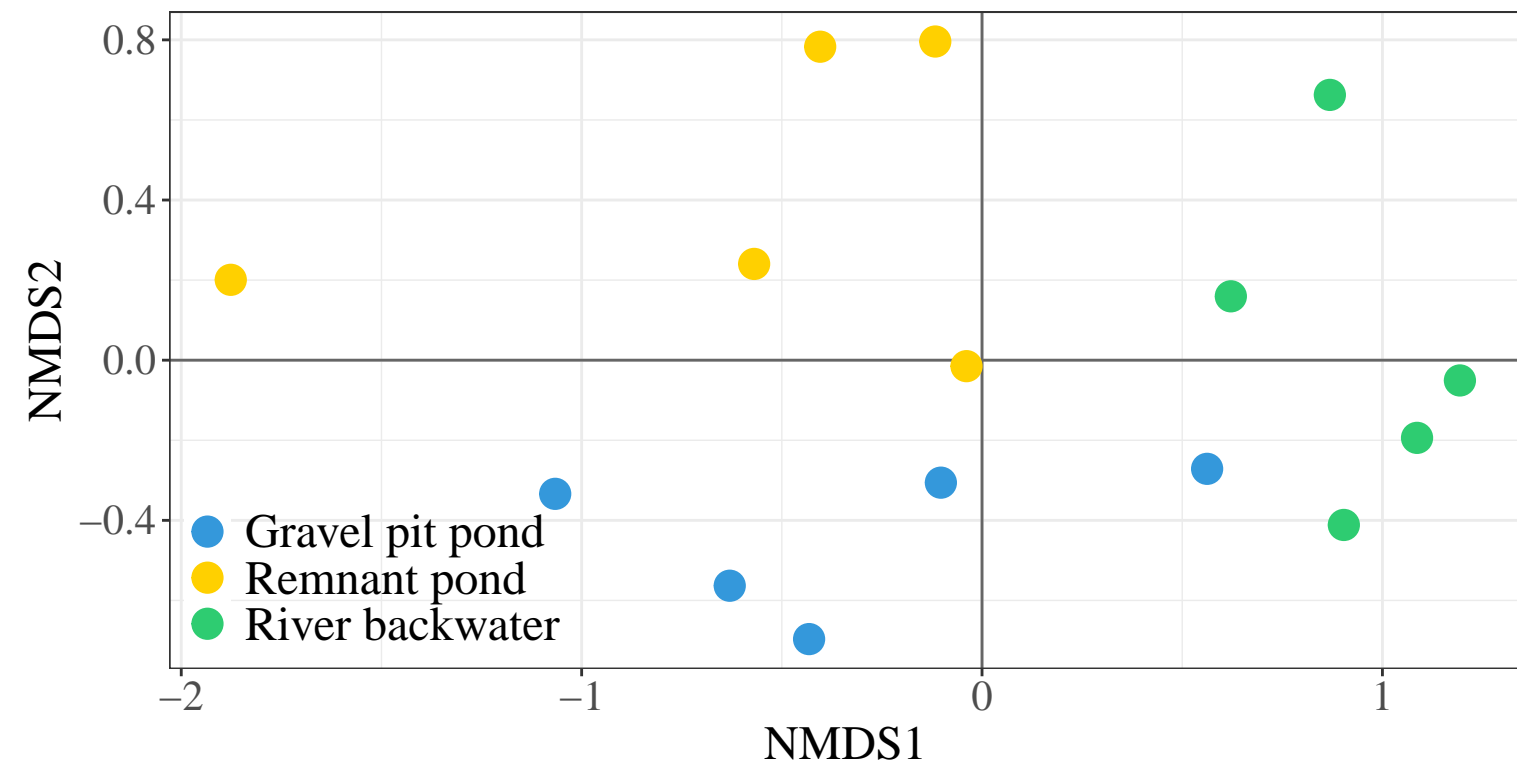
(c) Richness of nonnative fishes



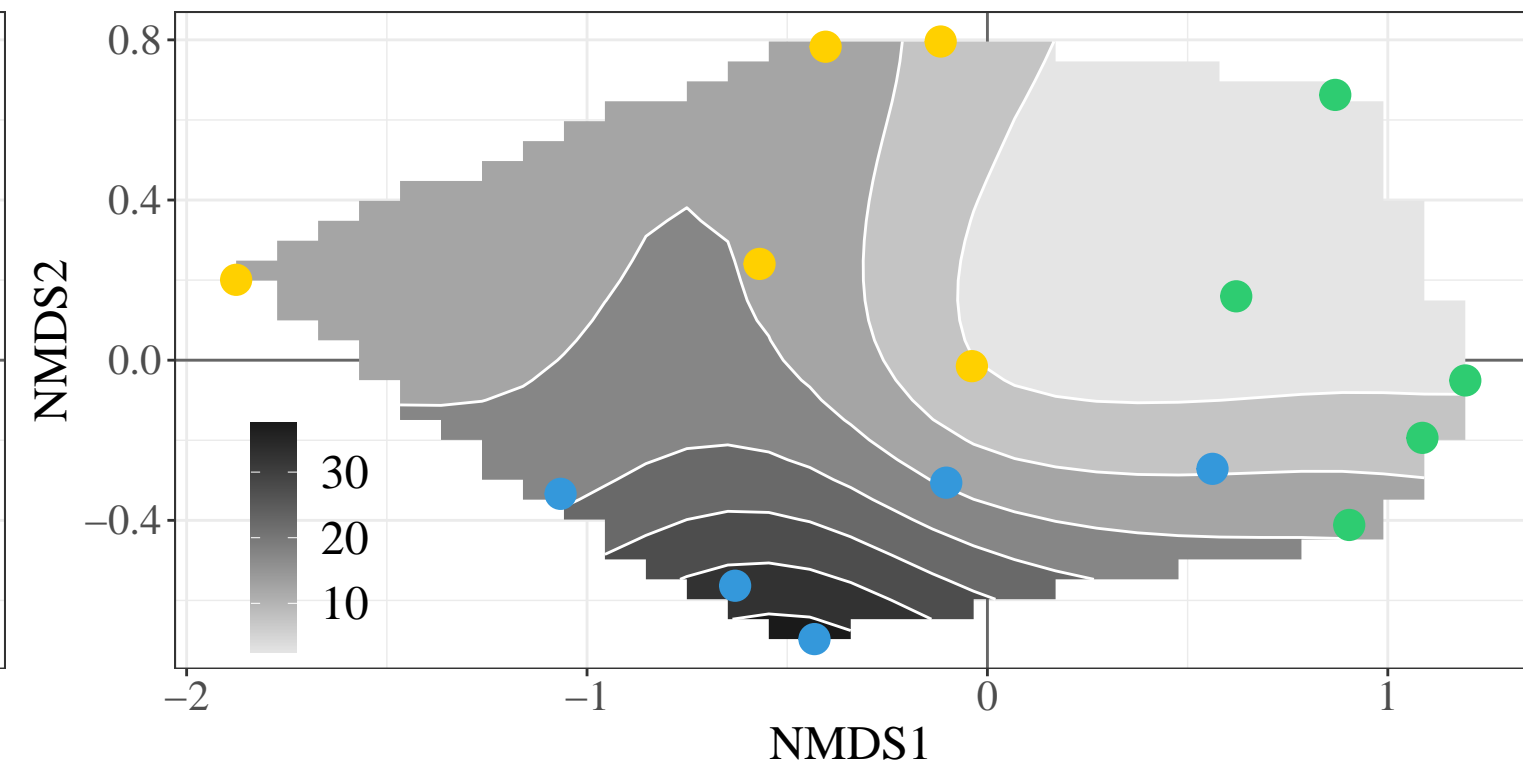
(d) Abundance of nonnative fishes



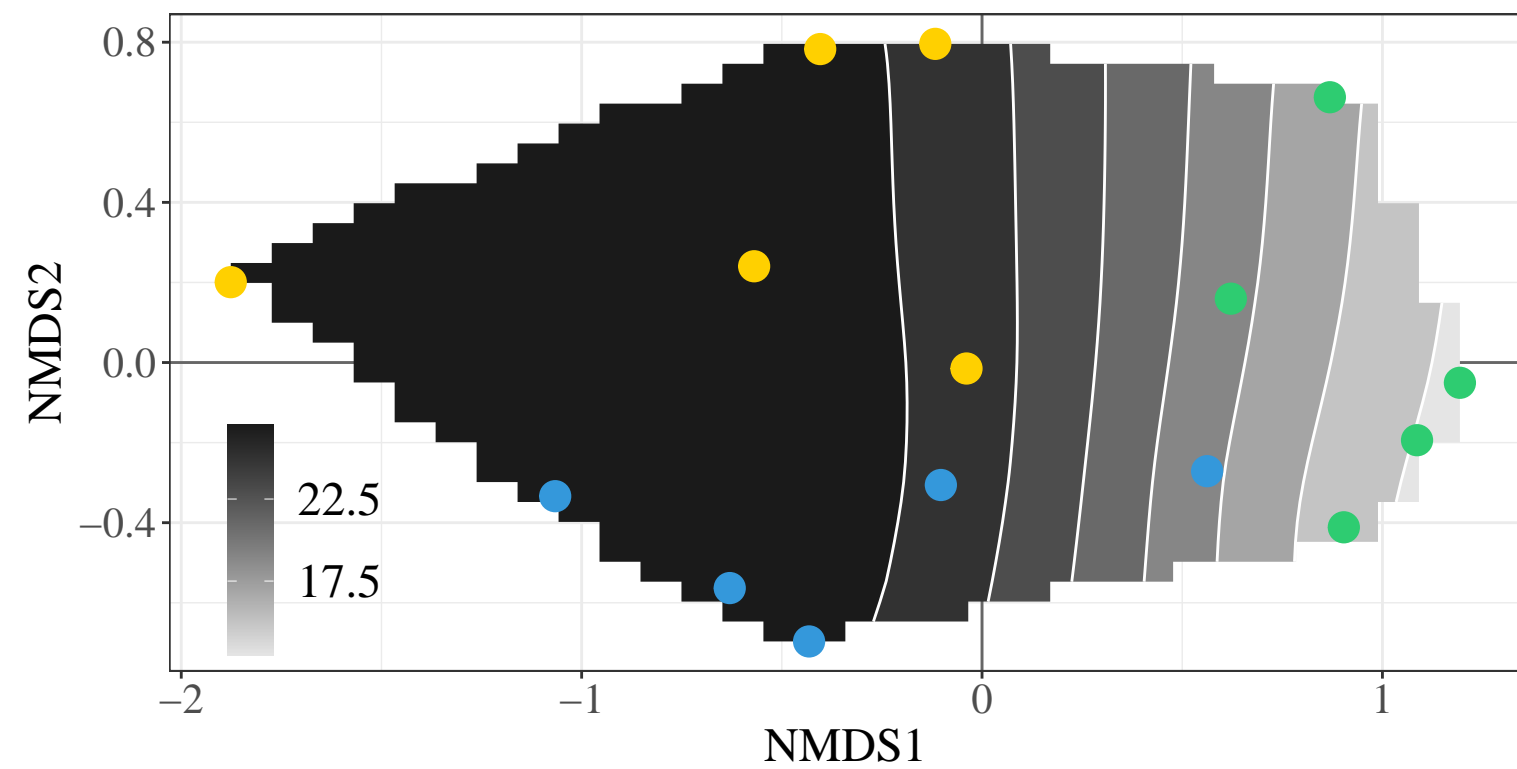
(a) Site scores



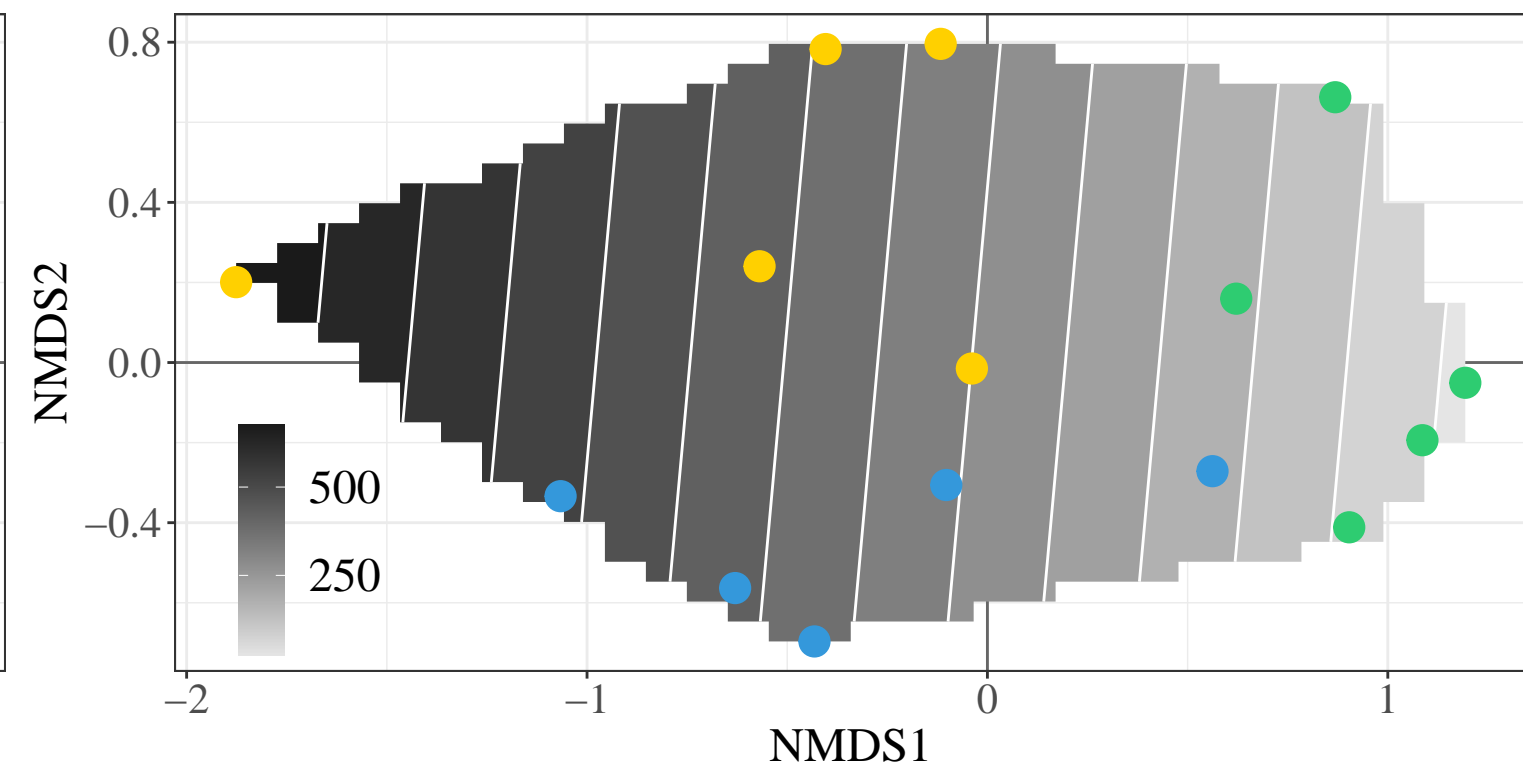
(b) Turbidity (NTU)



(c) Water temperature (C°)



(d) Distance from the main channel (m)



(e) Depth near shore (m)

