
Functional diversity measures revealed impacts of non-native species and habitat degradation on species-poor freshwater fish assemblages

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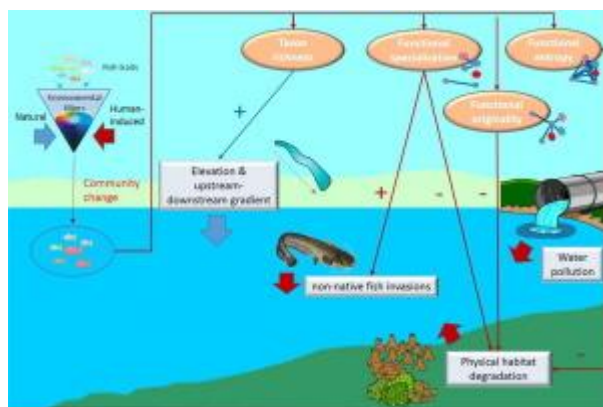
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Abstract :

Trail-based ecology has been developed for decades to infer ecosystem responses to stressors based on the functional structure of communities, yet its value in species-poor systems is largely unknown. Here, we used an extensive dataset in a Spanish region highly prone to non-native fish invasions (15 catchments, N 389 sites) to assess for the first time how species-poor communities respond to large-scale environmental gradients using a taxonomic and functional trait-based approach in riverine fish. We examined total species richness and three functional trait-based indices available when many sites have ≤ 3 species (specialization, FSpe; originality, FOri and entropy, FEnt). We assessed the responses of these taxonomic and functional indices along gradients of altitude, water pollution, physical habitat degradation and non-native fish biomass. Whilst species richness was relatively sensitive to spatial effects, functional diversity indices were responsive across natural and anthropogenic gradients. All four diversity measures declined with altitude but this decline was modulated by physical habitat degradation (richness, FSpe and FEnt) and the non-native total fish biomass ratio (FSpe and FOri) in ways that varied between indices. Furthermore, FSpe and FOri were significantly correlated with Total Nitrogen. Non-native fish were a major component of the taxonomic and functional structure of fish communities, raising concerns about potential misdiagnosis between invaded and environmentally-degraded river reaches. Such misdiagnosis was evident in a regional fish index widely used in official monitoring programs. We recommend the application of FSpe and FOri to extensive datasets from monitoring programs in order to generate valuable cross-system information about the impacts of non-native species and habitat degradation, even in species-poor systems. Scoring non-native species apart from habitat degradation in the indices used to determine ecosystem health is essential to develop better management strategies.

Graphical abstract



Keywords : Fish assemblages, Human disturbance, Functional diversity, Mediterranean rivers, Non-native species, Biomonitoring

55 **1. Introduction**

56 Biodiversity loss is occurring at unprecedented rates on Earth, and freshwater ecosystems
57 are a prime example (Strayer and Dudgeon, 2010; Tittensor et al., 2014). The EU's Water
58 Framework directive has been highly influential in Europe to take conservation actions
59 on major threats to freshwater ecosystems, mainly water pollution and
60 hydromorphological alterations (EU Commission, 2003). However, effective
61 management strategies can only be developed with a good knowledge of how multiple
62 impacts affect aquatic biota, including biological invasions (Thomsen et al., 2014).

63 The loss of sensitive species is a well-known response of aquatic communities to
64 stress (Kolkwitz and Marsoon, 1909; Friberg et al., 2011), and the basis of the myriad of
65 taxonomic-based procedures developed, hereafter referred to as indices of biotic quality
66 (IBQs), to assess the health status of rivers (Birk et al., 2012; Karr, 1981). Despite being
67 widely adopted by resource managers, many criticisms have arisen from their use (Friberg
68 et al., 2011; Jackson et al., 2016). Among the most important is that the extensive use of
69 IBQs may have limited our ability to develop theory on how aquatic assemblages respond
70 to stress. Ecological niche theory states that habitat acts as 'filter' selecting those species
71 with the best set of traits for a given condition (Chase and Leibold, 2003). That is,
72 communities geographically distant can differ in species composition but have similar
73 trait combinations (e.g. Bonada et al., 2007).

74 Towards predicting the response of communities, functional ecology has been
75 developing in recent decades (Petchey and Gaston 2006; Statzner et al., 2001) including

76 functional diversity (FD) measurements based on species' functional traits, i.e. attributes
77 of organisms linked to their response to environment or their role in ecosystem processes
78 (Maire et al., 2015; Mouillot et al., 2013; Petchey and Gaston, 2002). It is widely
79 recognised that FD measures are a superior alternative to taxonomic-based approaches to
80 detect the consequences of human impacts on animal assemblages (e.g. Gagic et al., 2015;
81 Hooper et al., 2005; Villéger et al., 2010). However, their advantages over IBQs have not
82 been specifically investigated. IBQs often use community traits in making diagnoses, but
83 resultant scores do not explicitly account for functional diversity.

84 Here, we assess how taxonomic richness and the functional structure of freshwater
85 fish assemblages respond to fish invasions and environmental degradation in an extensive
86 area of north-eastern Spain. This region has a long-history of anthropogenic disturbances
87 (e.g. water pollution, physical habitat degradation, and non-native invasions; Figuerola et
88 al., 2012; Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a; Mas-Marti et al., 2010) and allow us to assess the
89 relative contribution of these three factors to variation in the structure of fish assemblages
90 in a wide range of orographic conditions (Sabater et al., 2009). If suitable for river
91 biomonitoring programs, fish diversity measures should respond to three major threats to
92 riverine ecosystems, namely water pollution, physical habitat degradation and non-native
93 fish invasions and, to a minor degree, to natural factors, including altitude. However, the
94 low fish species richness in Mediterranean rivers (often <4 species, e.g. Maceda-Veiga et
95 al., 2017a) contrasts with the higher richness in other European rivers and may limit the
96 performance of FD indices to detect effect of stressors (see Maire et al., 2015).
97 Nonetheless, this region is highly prone to non-native fish invasions, with tributaries
98 containing mostly native species and lowland mainstems mostly non-native species (up
99 to six invasive species in Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a).

100 The life-histories of native fish populations, including endemic (*Barbus haasi*

101 Mertens 1925, *Luciobarbus graellsii* Steindachner, 1866) and widely distributed species
102 (*Salmo trutta* Linnaeus, 1758, *Anguilla anguilla* Linnaeus, 1758), are adapted to the
103 hydrological dynamism of Mediterranean rivers (e.g. Vinyoles et al., 2010; Doadrio,
104 2011). However, fish species introduced in this area, including globally distributed
105 invaders (e.g. *Alburnus alburnus* Linnaeus, 1758, *Cyprinus carpio* Linnaeus, 1758),
106 appear to perform better in hydrological regimes generated by damming and water
107 abstractions than in natural rivers (Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a).

108 The objectives of our study are: i) to test whether three FD indices (functional
109 specialization, originality and entropy) identify the impacts of human activities better than
110 does taxonomic richness in species-poor fish assemblages, and ii) to compare the
111 diagnostic value of traditional IBQs and FD indices in detecting two major threats to
112 rivers, namely habitat degradation and the release of non-native species, which may not
113 necessarily co-occur (see Benejam et al., 2009). We expected that FD indices would
114 provide better inferences of how fish invasions, water pollution and physical habitat
115 degradation affect fish assemblages than would do species richness alone, because
116 community-habitat relationships should be mediated via functional traits (e.g. Suding et
117 al., 2008). If FD indices have potential to become new monitoring tools in species-poor
118 systems, we expected them to perform better than a regional fish index and other IBQs
119 widely used by water agencies in compliance with the EU's Water Framework Directive.

120

121 **2. Materials and methods**

122 *2.1. Study area*

123 The study area is located in north-eastern Spain and comprises 15 catchments, including
124 the complete Ebro River and part of the Garonne basin (Fig 1). Except the Garonne, all
125 rivers flow east from the Cantabrian, Pyrenean or low mountains to the sea. Overall, the

126 selected river basins drain an extensive area of up to 99,700 km² and the variety of human
127 impacts over large-scale natural gradients provide an excellent study system (see also
128 Sabater et al., 2009). Approximately 40% of all sampling sites (N = 389) have non-native
129 species. The range of values for widely used indicators of pollution (e.g. conductivity and
130 nutrients) is wide in invaded (conductivity = 79-4108 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$; nitrate = 0-25 mg l⁻¹) and
131 non-invaded sites (conductivity = 20-4108 $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$; nitrate = 0-30 mg l⁻¹). Similarly, the
132 altitudinal range of sites with non-native (3-984 m.a.s.l.) and native species was wide (3-
133 1814 m.a.s.l.) (see Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017b for further details).

134 Most of these rivers are small and follow a typical Mediterranean hydrological
135 regime, with severe droughts in summer and torrential floods in autumn. In large rivers,
136 however, streamflow peaks in spring because of snowmelt. We surveyed in low flow
137 conditions because this is when fish populations can be most efficiently sampled using
138 electrofishing (see below). These conditions are also likely to intensify the effects of
139 anthropogenic stressors on aquatic organisms (Petrovic et al., 2011).

140

141 2.2. *Fish surveys*

142 We assembled fish data from 430 surveys performed in north-eastern Spain from 2002 to
143 2008 (e.g. Sostoa et al., 2003; Maceda-Veiga and de Sostoa, 2011). Our surveys followed
144 an international standardized fish sampling method (CEN standards EN 14962 and EN
145 14011), in compliance with the EU's Water Framework Directive.

146 We used a single-pass electrofishing approach using a portable unit which
147 generated up to 200 V and 3 A pulsed D.C. in an upstream direction. We covered the
148 whole wetted width of the 100-m long reaches surveyed in each site, which included a
149 variety of habitat types (pools, rifles and runs) (see Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a for further
150 details). Fish were kept in buckets provided with air pumps until the end of the survey

151 when they were released into the river. There was no mortality. Fish were anaesthetized
152 with a buffered MS222[®] solution (0.02% Tricaine methane-sulfonate, Sigma) to reduce
153 stress. Fish were identified to species level, counted and a representative set of individuals
154 of each species (40 individuals when possible) weighed to the nearest g. Fish biomass
155 was expressed as total fish weight divided by the area surveyed and sampling time in
156 minutes (kg/ha x min).

157

158 2.2. *Functional characterization of fish*

159 To describe the functional identity of each fish species, we used 9 traits that are related
160 to key biological functions such as food acquisition, locomotion and reproduction
161 weighted by the biomass of each species in each sampling site (Table 1) (Buisson et al.,
162 2013; Olden et al., 2006, Villéger et al., 2013). These traits have major implications for
163 ecosystem functions. For example, migratory species, including the European eel (*A.*
164 *anguilla*) are important for the transfer of energy along rivers (Flecker et al. 2010), and
165 prey consumption is related to predator's body size (e.g. Jardine et al., 2017).

166 Traits were coded as continuous or ordinal variables. We used regional fish
167 descriptions (Doadrio, 2011; Kottelat and Freyhof, 2007; Sostoa et al., 1990), electronic
168 databases (<http://www.fishbase.org>), the scientific literature, and our own expertise to
169 provide a functional description of all fish species (Table 2). Ordinal traits were assigned
170 a single state based on a majority rules approach according to adult preferences following
171 Olden et al. (2006). The lack of an in-depth ecological knowledge of some fish species
172 precluded the use of more traits. We acknowledge that species traits can differ among
173 populations (see Ackerly and Cornwell, 2007), but we lack this specific information for
174 the present study. Species mostly found in river mouths such as mullets (*Liza* spp., *Chelon*
175 *labrosus* Risso, 1827 and *Mugil cephalus* Linnaeus, 1758) were excluded from the

176 analysis, as they play a minor ecological role at the basin scale.

177

178 *2.3. Measuring functional diversity*

179 Functional diversity (FD) indices of fish assemblages were computed using different
180 measures of dissimilarity among the traits of a given species in relation to the trait
181 composition of the overall data-set ($N = 430$ sites) (Maire et al., 2015; Mouillot et al.,
182 2013; Villéger et al., 2008). We calculated overall differences in traits among species
183 using the Gower distance (Gower, 1966). We then used a principal coordinates analysis
184 to identify the number of axes that best represent the differences in trait composition (i.e.
185 the multidimensional Euclidean space in Villéger et al., 2008). The first four axes (mSD:
186 0.012) provided the best result based on the criterion of Maire et al. (2015) for species-
187 poor systems, where the species more separated had the most extreme traits. However,
188 the relative importance of the traits of a given species in relation to the complete data-set
189 can be weighted using different algorithms. This is why we used the three indices of FD
190 that can be calculated even with one species in each sampling site, namely functional
191 entropy (FEnt), functional specialization (FSpe), and functional originality (FOri; Maire
192 et al., 2015).

193 FEnt was calculated as $1/(1-Q)$, where Q is Rao's quadratic entropy computed as
194 the biomass-weighted sum of pairwise functional distance among species within the
195 community (Ricotta and Szeidl, 2009). FEnt increases when species with the greatest
196 biomass are functionally distinct (Mouillot et al., 2013). FSpe was calculated as the
197 biomass-weighted mean distance in the functional space to the average value of all the
198 species present at the regional scale (Bellwood et al., 2006). It reaches high values when
199 the species with the greatest biomass has the most extreme traits from the regional pool.
200 Finally, we calculated FOr as the biomass-weighted mean distance to the nearest species

201 within functional space (Mouillot et al., 2013). It increases when species with unique trait
202 combinations have the greatest biomass in the community.

203

204 *2.4. Environmental variables and indices of biotic quality*

205 In each sampling site, we quantified seven water quality variables (pH, conductivity,
206 ammonium, nitrite, nitrate and phosphate-P concentrations) prior to fish sampling (e.g.
207 Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a). These variables provide an overview of major stressors to
208 aquatic ecosystems, including nutrient pollution and changes in overall ionic composition
209 (e.g. Nielsen et al., 2003; Smallbone et al., 2016; Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a). To
210 describe physical habitat, we used 17 variables from two widely used habitat quality
211 indices in this region, namely the QBR (Munné et al., 2003) and RBA indices (a modified
212 version of the U.S. Rapid Bioassessment by Barbour et al., 1999). As geographical
213 features, we recorded the basin name and altitude (m.a.s.l.) in each site using Google
214 Earth[®]. Altitude was used as a surrogate for the position of the sampling site in the river,
215 and summarises the role of natural spatial gradients in fish indicators, as previously
216 validated in this region (Murphy et al., 2013).

217 As indices of biotic quality, we downloaded scores of three indices based on
218 diatoms, fish and invertebrates from the Catalan Water Agency ([http://aca-
219 web.gencat.cat/aca/appmanager/aca/aca/](http://aca-web.gencat.cat/aca/appmanager/aca/aca/)) for 50 sites that match with our fish surveys.
220 We used the Specific Polluosensitivity Index for diatoms (IPS, Coste, 1982), the Index of
221 Biotic Integrity for Catalan rivers for fish (IBICAT, Sostoa et al., 2003), and the Index of
222 the Iberian Biomonitoring Working Party for invertebrates (IBMWP, Alba-Tercedor et
223 al., 2002). Last, we calculated the median tolerance of all fish species to water and habitat
224 degradation in each sampling site using the tolerance indicator values (TIV) developed
225 by Maceda-Veiga and de Sostoa (2011).

226

227 *2.5. Statistical analyses*

228 All analyses were computed in R (R Development Core Team, 2013) using the packages
229 *stats*, *MASS*, *lme4* (Bates et al., 2016), *ade4* (Dray & Dufour, 2007), *psych* (Revelle and
230 Revelle, 2016), and *hier.part* (Walsh et al. 2013) and the functions outlined below.
231 Continuous variables were log-transformed and % were arc-sine square-root transformed
232 to aid in model fitting. The original set of 24 environmental variables was reduced by
233 excluding highly correlated variables (Spearman's $\rho > 0.7$), as reported in Maceda-
234 Veiga and de Sostoa (2011). A principal component analysis (the function *principal*) was
235 then applied to summarize variation in the remnant 11 water and habitat variables in form
236 of principal component axes, which we re-named as 'gradients of anthropogenic impact'.
237 The 'varimax' rotation facilitated the interpretation of axes, and the number of axes was
238 selected based on explanatory power.

239

240 *2.5.1. Modelling taxonomic and functional fish diversity as function of natural factors,*
241 *environmental degradation and non-native fish biomass*

242 Generalized linear mixed models (GLMM, the function *glmer*) were used to examine
243 relationships among fish diversity measures (taxonomic richness, FEnt, FSpe, and FOri),
244 altitude, and the gradients of anthropogenic impact. As other anthropogenic stressor, we
245 included in the models the proportion of non-native fish species in relation to the total
246 fish biomass to explore their contribution to the variation in taxonomic richness and FD
247 indices. Basin was included as random effect to control for potential systematic
248 differences among basins. Sampling year was also included as random factor but was
249 excluded from final models because the explained variance was close to 0. Proportional
250 data (FSpe, FOri, and FEnt) was analysed using binomial errors/logit link, and patterns

251 in species richness were examined using Poisson errors/log link. Models were validated
252 by visually inspecting diagnostic plots of residuals. The statistical threshold was
253 established at $P < 0.05$.

254 To further test the robustness of our results, we used a hierarchical partitioning
255 (HP) analysis (the function *hier.part*) using the error distributions validated in the GLMM
256 approach. HP models deal with collinearity among predictors (e.g. between altitude and
257 habitat degradation, see Murphy et al., 2013), which even in small amounts can bias
258 regression parameters (Freckleton, 2011). Whilst causality cannot be determined in
259 observational studies, HP decomposes the variation of dependent variables in unique and
260 joined fractions of a set of predictors (Mac Nally and Walsh, 2004). We assessed the
261 significance of HP models using a randomization test for hierarchical partitioning
262 analysis (the function *rand.hp*). As many regressors can generate rounding errors in HP
263 models, we validated their outputs by changing the order of predictors, as recommended
264 by Mac Nally and Walsh (2004).

265

266 2.5.2. *Effects of environmental degradation and non-native fish biomass on fish traits*

267 To determine the relative contribution of each functional trait in the fish community-
268 environment relationships, we used fourth-corner and RLQ analyses following the
269 guidelines of Dray et al. (2014). Both methods are based on the analysis of the fourth-
270 corner matrix, which crosses traits and environmental variables weighted by species
271 biomass. RLQ is a multivariate technique that provides ordination scores to summarize
272 the joint structure among species distributions across sampling sites, environmental
273 variables and species traits. In contrast, the fourth-corner method mainly tests for
274 individual trait-environment relationships (one trait and one environmental variable at a
275 time). We included the non-native status of fish as additional trait in this analysis to avoid

276 circularity in our reasoning (as non-native species contributed to the trait matrix). We
277 used model type 6 to avoid inflated rates of type I error (Dray and Legendre, 2008). The
278 significance of trait-environment relationships was assessed through Monte Carlo
279 permutation (999 iterations using the approach of ter Braak et al., 2012).

280

281 *2.5.3. Comparing the diagnostic value of fish diversity measures and traditional indices* 282 *of biotic quality in environmentally degraded or invaded river reaches*

283 We used Spearman rank correlation coefficients (at $P < 0.05$) to test to which extent the
284 fish diversity measures used (taxonomic richness, FEnt, FSpe and FOri) were associated
285 with other measurements of river health status, namely indicators of nutrient pollution,
286 conductivity and the number of non-native species) using an independent data-set from
287 the same study area ($N = 50$ sampling sites). Moreover, we compared these correlation
288 coefficients with those obtained from correlations with indices of biotic quality to assess
289 the potential superiority of FD indices in determining river health status.

290

291 **3. Results**

292 *3.1. Description of the taxonomic and functional diversity of fish assemblages*

293 We captured 26 fish taxa from 11 families, of which 12 species were Cyprinidae (Table
294 2). Fourteen taxa were native and 12 non-native, and the maximum total species richness
295 in each site was 11. The most frequently captured native species (>100 sampling sites)
296 were brown trout (*S. trutta*), Iberian redbfin barbel (*B. haasi*) and common barbel (*L.*
297 *graellsii*). The most common non-native species (captured in > 40 sampling sites) were
298 carp (*C. carpio*) and bleak (*A. alburnus*). Functional specialization (FSpe) and functional
299 originality (FOri) reached their maximum value (1), whereas the functional entropy index
300 (FEnt) ranged from 1 to 1.8. Species richness was significantly correlated to the three

301 functional diversity (FD) indices, with correlation coefficients slightly higher for FEnt (r
302 = 0.54; $P < 0.01$) than for FSpe ($r = 0.24$; $P < 0.01$) and FOr ($r = 0.26$; $P < 0.01$).

303

304 3.2. *Defining gradients of water and physical habitat degradation*

305 Only the first two axes of PCA were considered gradients of anthropogenic impact and
306 explained altogether 42.88 % of variance (Table 3). PC1 accounted for 29.6% of the
307 variance and was mainly driven by water pollution (e.g. nitrite, nitrate, and phosphates-
308 P). PC2 explained 13.8% of variance and was mainly related to physical habitat
309 degradation (riparian cover, habitat structure, and channel morphology).

310

311 3.3. *Relative contribution of natural factors, environmental degradation and non- 312 native fish biomass to variation in taxonomic and functional diversity of fish assemblages*

313 Since human activities often concentrate in the lowlands, it was necessary to
314 disentangle the relative effects of natural factors, water pollution, physical habitat
315 degradation, and the proportion of non-native fish species expressed as biomass on the
316 three FD measures. Hierarchical partitioning (HP) models revealed that altitude made the
317 largest individual contribution to the variation in all four fish diversity measures (Fig 2).
318 Patterns in taxon richness were mainly attributed to natural factors, namely altitude and
319 basin (Fig 3). All three functional diversity (FD) indices followed the altitudinal trend
320 observed for species richness (Figs 3 and 4). Physical habitat degradation also explained
321 a significant unique fraction of variation in FD indices (Fig 2).

322 HP results were mostly concordant with those from generalized linear mixed
323 models (Table 4). However, the two modelling techniques ranked the contribution of
324 altitude, physical habitat degradation and non-native fish biomass to variation in FD
325 measures in a different order (Fig 2, Table 4). While FSpe and FOr indices were

326 influenced by altitude and the biomass of non-native fish species in the same way, only
327 FSpe was significantly related to physical habitat degradation (Table 4). Water pollution
328 was not retained as having a significant effect in any of the four fish diversity measures
329 (Table 4). The random effect of basin was of major importance to explain variation in
330 species richness but not in FD (Table 5).

331

332 *3.4 Associations of fish traits with environmental degradation and non-native* 333 *biomass*

334 The first of three axes in the RLQ analysis explained the vast majority (68%) of variation
335 in the trait-environment relationship, which was largely driven by responses of non-native
336 species, velocity preference, shape factor and vertical position (Figure 5). Overall, there
337 was a significant link between traits and the environment (RLQ: $p = 0.04$). However, only
338 one individual environment-trait link was significant, namely a positive relationship
339 between water pollution (PC1) and non-native fish status (fourth-corner: $r = 5.06$, $p_{\text{adj}} =$
340 0.04 ; Table S1). There was a further notable, yet non-significant, negative relationship
341 between altitude and velocity preference (fourth-corner: $r = -2.66$, $p_{\text{adj}} = 0.11$; Table S1).

342

343 *3.5. Comparing the diagnostic value of fish diversity measures and traditional indices* 344 *of biotic quality in environmentally degraded or invaded river reaches*

345 The strongest correlations were found among all three FD indices (FSpe, FOr_i, and FEnt)
346 and the proportion of non-native fish in the fish assemblage expressed as richness or
347 biomass (Table 6). A weak but negative relationship was observed for the regional fish
348 index IBICAT and the two non-native fish metrics (Table 6). In contrast, a strong negative
349 relationship was found among non-native fish the diatom (IPS) and benthic
350 macroinvertebrate (IBMWP) indices, and the tolerance indicator values of fish to water

351 pollution (TIV_WATER) and physical habitat degradation (TIV_RBA) following the
352 methods outlined of Maceda-Veiga and de Sostoa (2011) (Table 6).

353 At least one indicator of environmental degradation was significantly correlated,
354 either with a fish diversity measure or an index of biotic quality (Table 6). IPS and
355 IBMWP showed a highly negative correlation with conductivity and total nutrient
356 concentrations. Conversely, nutrients were positively related to FSpe, FOri and the TIV
357 for water quality (Table 6). A positive association was also found for the habitat index
358 RBA and the index IPS and the TIV for physical habitat quality (Table 6). In contrast, the
359 physical habitat index RBA was negatively associated with FSpe and FOri (Table 6). All
360 water and habitat indicators were poorly related to total fish richness, the fish index
361 IBICAT, and the FD index FEnt (Table 6).

362

363 **4. Discussion**

364 Our study is a first in showing the potential of FD measures to identify the
365 mechanisms behind changes in the structure of species-poor fish assemblages. We
366 showed the superior performance of three functional diversity (FD) indices
367 (specialization, FSpe; originality, FOri; and entropy; FEnt) over taxonomic richness and
368 a regional fish index in response to habitat degradation and non-native fish invasions, two
369 major drivers of the freshwater biodiversity crisis around the world (Marr et al., 2010;
370 Strayer and Dudgeon, 2010; Vörösmarty et al., 2010).

371

372 *4.1. Relative contribution of natural factors, environmental degradation and non-* 373 *native fish biomass to variation in taxonomic and functional diversity of fish assemblages*

374 Our results support the notion that geographical features, including altitude, are
375 major shaping forces of the composition of fish assemblages (Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a;

376 Richards et al., 1996; Williams et al., 2003). In upstream sites above 1000 m, FD indices
377 and richness values were very low. As altitude declined below 500 m FD indices
378 increased rapidly, whereas species richness exhibited a more gradual change (Fig 3). The
379 most plausible explanation for these results is that rivers increase in size downstream as
380 do resources available (Angermeier and Schlosser, 1989; Lomolino, 2000). Such a trend
381 in the three indices of FD indicates that more species with extreme, unique trait values
382 were found downstream, as reported by Karadimou et al. (2016).

383 The relative effect of non-native fish biomass and physical habitat quality on FD
384 was index- and model-specific. Incongruence between generalized linear mixed models
385 (GLMMs) and hierarchical partitioning analyses of variance (HP) can be due to
386 collinearity. Even when highly correlated variables are excluded before running any
387 model, predictors are always correlated (see details in Mac Nally, 2002). Non-native fish
388 often occur in hydrologically-impacted rivers (e.g. dams, Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a;
389 Marchetti et al., 2004). This may have obscured our relationships between non-native fish
390 species and physical habitat degradation and FD indices, but HP models can shed light
391 into these associations (see also Buisson et al., 2008; Murphy et al., 2013). GLMMs and
392 HPs ranked biotic and abiotic predictors in a different order, which has management
393 implications because different actions are required to extirpate species and to restore
394 habitat. Nonetheless, hydromorphological restoration might solve both issues, as rivers
395 with natural flow regimes are often the least invaded (Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a,
396 Bernardo et al., 2003; Marchetti and Moyle, 2001; Poff et al., 1997).

397 In our study, the indices FSpe and FOr were strongly associated with non-native
398 fish biomass and physical habitat degradation as opposed to species richness and FEnt,
399 both mostly affected by natural factors (Fig 3, Fig 4). These results proved the utility of
400 FD indices to detect human impacts, as has been demonstrated in many taxa including

401 birds (Huijbers et al., 2016), plants (Laliberté et al., 2013), aquatic invertebrates
402 (Gutiérrez-Cánovas et al., 2015) and fish (Villéger et al., 2010), but it had not yet been
403 tested in species-poor fish assemblages. A high number of endemic species but low
404 richness is a common trait in freshwater fish assemblages in Mediterranean basins, which
405 are home to among the most threatened faunas in the world (Smith and Darwall, 2006).
406 Studies examining species composition provide useful insights into how human
407 perturbations affect these assemblages (e.g. Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017a). However,
408 functional trait-based ecology transforms taxonomic information into a matrix of
409 ecological traits and allows researchers to make cross-taxa and cross-system comparisons
410 more easily (Mouillot et al., 2013; Villéger et al., 2010).

411

412 4.2. *Identifying the traits that best represent differences in the functional composition* 413 *of fish assemblages*

414 FSpe and FOr indices differed in their response to human impacts, supporting the
415 idea that multiple indices are required to fully describe functional diversity (Mouillot et
416 al., 2013; Villéger et al., 2008). FOr reduced if non-native fish dominated in biomass
417 because successful invaders shared traits (e.g. high fecundity, Marr et al., 2010). These
418 traits are very different from those of native species, and non-native fish traits have a
419 strong biomass weighting because of the large size of the fish (e.g. the predator *Silurus*
420 *glanis* Linnaeus, 1758, >100 Kg; Doadrio, 2011). The native fish fauna in our study-
421 system naturally lacks many predators, with most species being medium-size
422 omnivorous-invertivorous cyprinids (Doadrio, 2011), which may also explain an increase
423 in FSpe with the proportion of non-native fish species. A remarkable exception is the
424 native fish *A. anguilla* which has unique trait sets among native fish (e.g. predator,
425 catadromous) (de Sostoa et al., 1990). However, the traits of *A. anguilla* probably had a

426 minor weight in computing the FD indices because this species is currently rare in our
427 study area (Maceda-Veiga et al., 2010). Interestingly, traits such as fecundity seemed to
428 be related to water quality even when this factor did not have an overall effect on FD
429 indices. These results can be explained because nutrient pollution was one of our water
430 quality variables and energetic reserves increase body condition and hence fecundity
431 (Peig and Green, 2009), but may have not affected other functional traits. This result
432 indicates that it may be important to use a trait which has the strongest link with a function
433 of interest, instead of combining many traits in scores of multi-trait indices (see also Colin
434 et al., 2016b).

435 Although the indices FSpe and FOr better identified anthropogenic impact than
436 did species richness, this does not mean that modern ecology can be disconnected from
437 taxonomy. A good taxonomical and ecological knowledge of species is crucial to assign
438 traits properly (e.g. Rodríguez-Lozano et al., 2016; Sánchez-Hernández et al., 2011).
439 Even though the marine fish *Sarpa salpa* Linneo, 1758 and *Siganus luridus* Rüppell 1829
440 are both herbivores, the former feeds exclusively on vascular plants whereas the latter
441 feeds on macroalgae, affecting the ecosystem in a different manner (Vergés et al., 2014).
442 Similarly, detailed studies of two omnivorous species in our study (e.g. *B. meridionalis*,
443 *Squalius laietanus*) have shown differences in prey consumed in clean and polluted sites
444 among seasons (Colin, In preparation). These changes provide evidence further that a
445 good knowledge of natural history is essential to avoid a coarse assignment of traits, but
446 pragmatism is also needed as function of time invested in data acquisition and model
447 outcomes. In our study, there were also issues with species identity (genera *Phoxinus*,
448 *Gobio*, *Carassius*, *Barbatula*) which requires identification using genetic data (Maceda-
449 Veiga et al., 2017a).

450

451 4.3. *Congruence among fish diversity measures and other indicators of river health*

452 Riverine taxa integrate the effects of multiple stressors over variable spatio-temporal
453 scales based on their different life-histories (Barbour et al., 1999). Thus, biotic indices
454 may not correlate strongly with fluctuating variables such as water variables but inform
455 about diagnostic ability. However, strong correlations can indicate that aquatic taxa are
456 exposed to chronic pollution (e.g. Colin et al., 2016a), which is suggested in our study by
457 a strong relationship between diatom (IPS) and invertebrate-based indices (IBMWP) and
458 nutrient concentrations. These results support the idea that biotic indices were originally
459 developed to detect organic pollution, even though they are now used to determine the
460 ecological impact of many pollution sources (e.g. Colin et al., 2016a; Juttner et al., 2012;
461 Munné and Prat, 2009). A strong negative relationship was found in our study between
462 non-native fish and the indices IPS and IBMWP. As stated above, this association can be
463 attributed to the fact that non-native fish species tend to occur in degraded sites, although
464 these species are often ecosystem engineers which directly cause habitat degradation
465 (Shin-Ichiro et al., 2009). Nonetheless, there is still limited insight into how non-native
466 fish invasions affect native fish responses to water pollution and physical habitat
467 degradation (but see Maceda-Veiga et al., 2017b).

468 The confounding effect of non-native fish in ecosystem health diagnostic was
469 particularly problematic for fish-based measures. For example, the regional fish index
470 IBICAT did not significantly respond to water quality and physical habitat, and was
471 markedly affected by non-native fish occurrence, as has been highlighted by Benejam et
472 al., (2009). Fish richness was also poorly related to environmental degradation and mostly
473 driven by the presence of non-native fish. Conversely, functional indices (FSpe and FOri)
474 responded to both, even though the direction of the effects often differed from our large-

475 scale data-set, which indicates that the outputs of functional analyses depend on the pool
476 of traits of the assemblage under study (Mouillot et al., 2013; Vileger et al., 2008).

477 Last, our study showed that invaded sites were dominated by fish species
478 relatively tolerant to poor water and habitat quality according to tolerance indicator values
479 developed by Maceda-Veiga and de Sostoa (2011). These results support the prevailing
480 assumption in the literature that non-native fish species are highly tolerant (Hermoso et
481 al., 2011; Ribeiro et al., 2008; but see Kennard et al., 2005; Maceda-Veiga and de Sostoa,
482 2011). However, it may also indicate that native species living there have wider tolerance
483 ranges, if say, non-native fish species that typically occur in upstream reaches (e.g.
484 *Oncorhynchus mykiss*, *Phoxinus* spp.) are likely to be more tolerant than native fish
485 species from downstream reaches (e.g. *Luciobarbus graellsii*) (Maceda-Veiga and de
486 Sostoa, 2011). However, these inferences need testing with specific experiments because
487 the response of a species to stress is affected by many factors at play, including
488 acclimation, adaptation, and phenotypic plasticity (Biagianti-Risbourg et al., 2013).

489

490 **5. Conclusions**

491 Official biomonitoring schemes are firmly rooted in more than 200 indices of biotic
492 quality which appraise the ecological status of water-bodies in Europe alone (Birk et al.,
493 2012). The principal disadvantages are that they are not generalisable beyond the region
494 they were designed for and they do not reflect ecological processes. Without
495 underestimating their value, our study provides evidence of the potential of the indices
496 FSpe and FOr_i based on fish traits as new diagnostic tools in species-poor systems. The
497 FD indices were sensitive to both abiotic and biotic degradation, and showed more
498 sensitivity to anthropogenic impacts than did species richness and a regional fish index.
499 By identifying which traits make species more vulnerable to human actions in extensive

500 data-sets collected through official monitoring schemes, it is possible to identify the taxa
501 at most-risk in the highly threatened Mediterranean rivers (Smith and Darwall, 2006).
502 Therefore, FD indices are a promising tool to better understand the causes of decline in
503 freshwater fish and develop more effective conservation strategies.

504

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511

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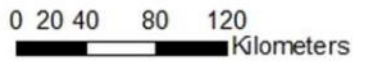
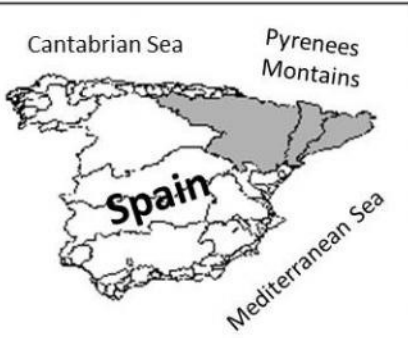
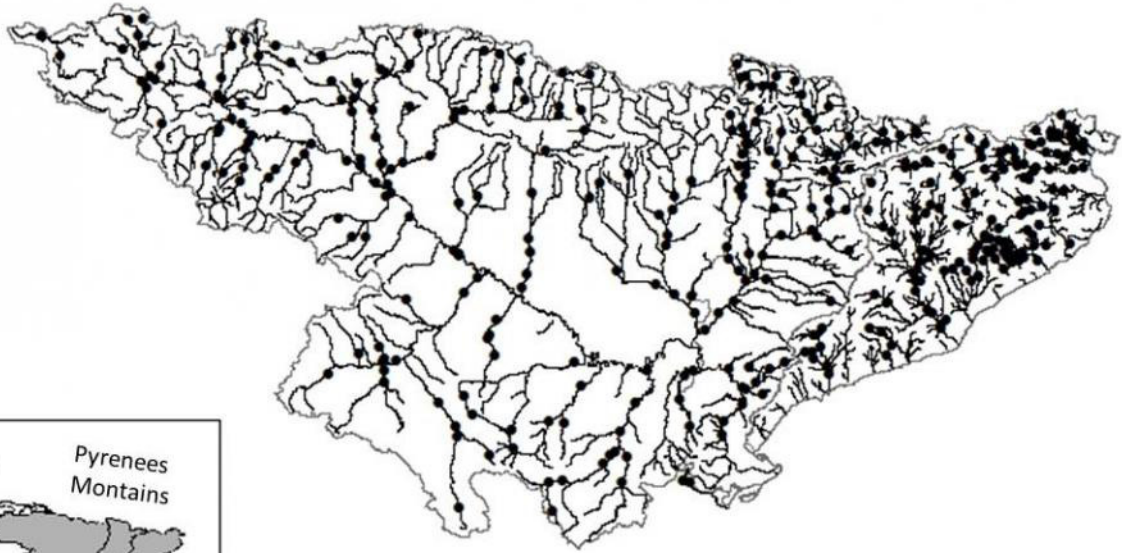
771 **Figure 1.** Location of study area in northeastern Spain. The 389 sampling sites are
772 shown with black points.
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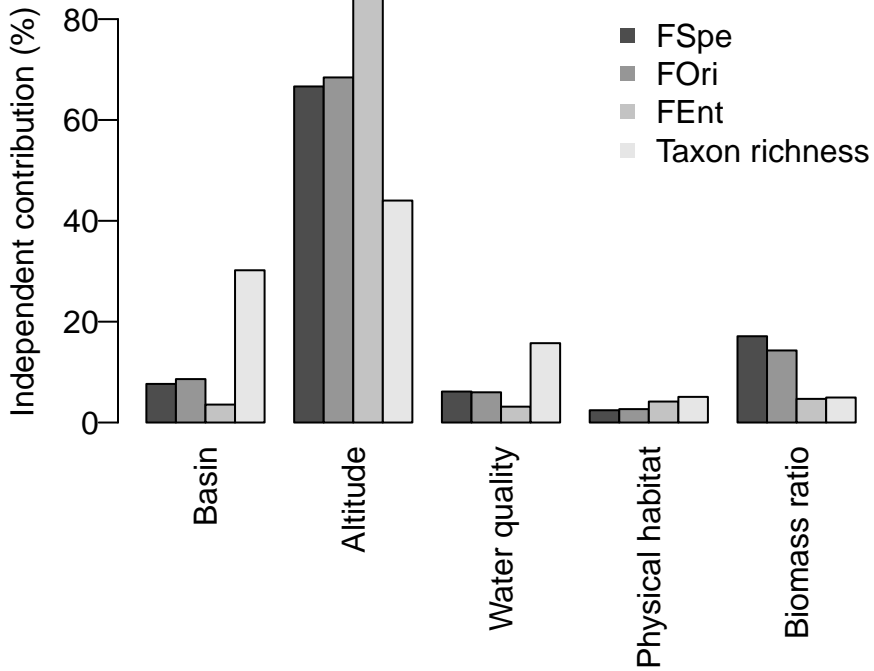
774 **Figure 2.** Independent contribution (%) of the five predictors to explain variation of 3
775 functional diversity measures (FSpe, FOr, FEnt) and taxonomic richness. All predictors
776 were significant at the 95% confidence interval based on a randomized permutation test.
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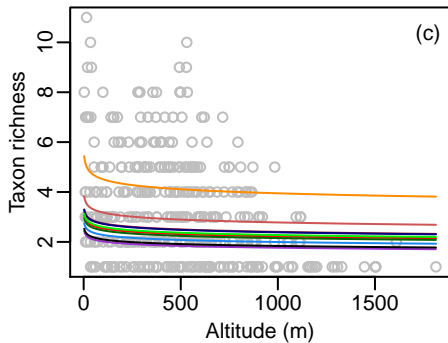
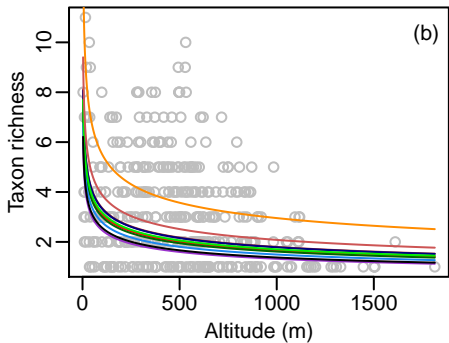
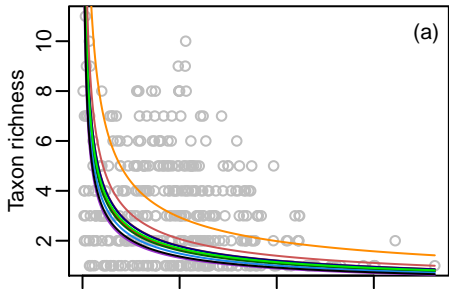
778 **Figure 3.** Relationship (mean fitted values from GLMM) between taxon richness and altitude
779 (with basin as random effect) at three levels of physical habitat quality (PC2): PC2 = maximum
780 (a); PC2 = median (b); and PC2 = minimum (c).
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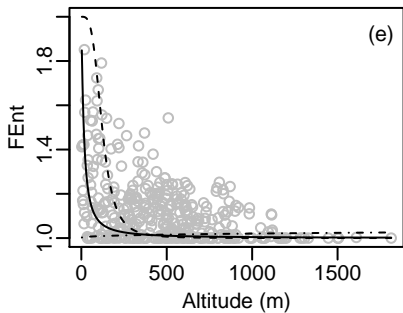
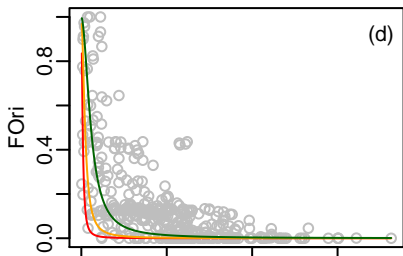
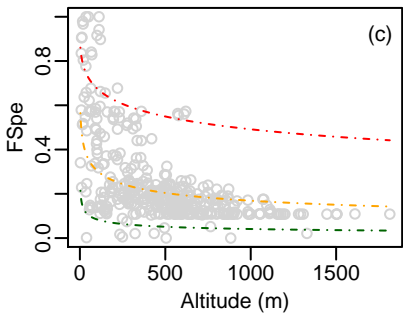
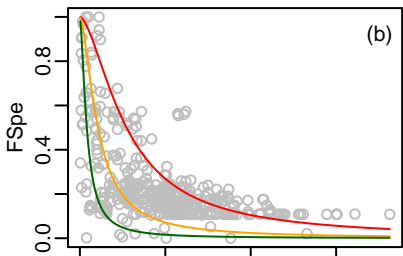
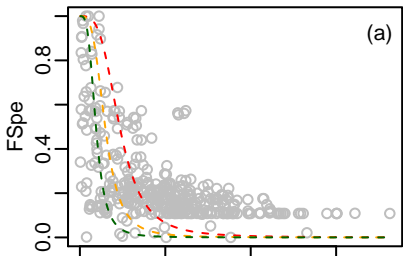
783 **Figure 4.** Relationships between FD indices (FSpe, FOr and FEnt) and significant drivers
784 according to GLMMs accounting for altitude, physical habitat (PC2) and ratio of non-native to
785 native biomass ('ratio'); a-c) FSpe vs altitude for 3 levels of non-native fish biomass (100%, 50%
786 and 0%, colors) and three types of physical habitat (maximum, median, minimum value of PC2,
787 respectively); d) FOr vs altitude for 3 levels of non-native fish biomass; e) FEnt vs altitude for
788 3 levels physical habitat (maximum, median, minimum value of PC2, respectively).
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792 **Figure 5.** Results of the first two axes of the RLQ analysis: (a) species scores (see Table 1 for
793 species codes); (b) coefficients for environmental variables (PC1=water quality, PC2=physical
794 habitat); (c) coefficients for traits (see Table 1 for descriptions); and (d) eigenvalues with the
795 first two axes in grey. Note: water quality is negatively correlated with PC1.









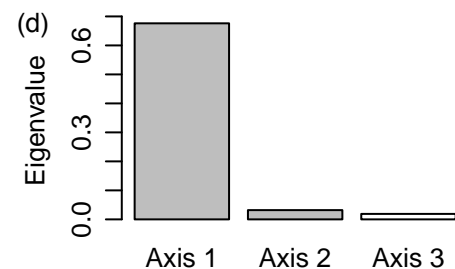
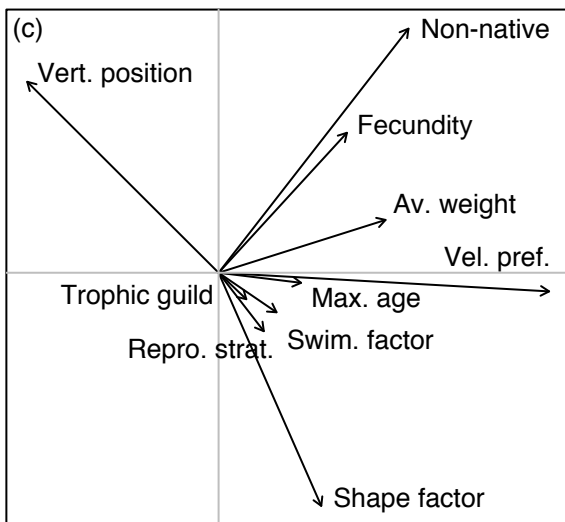
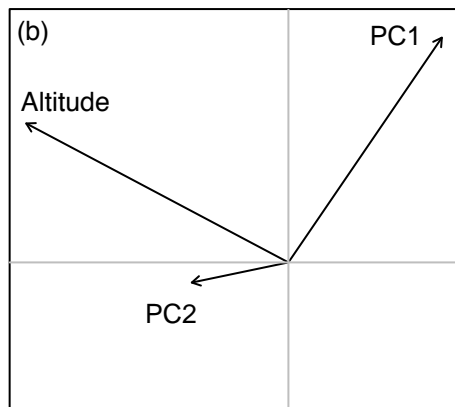
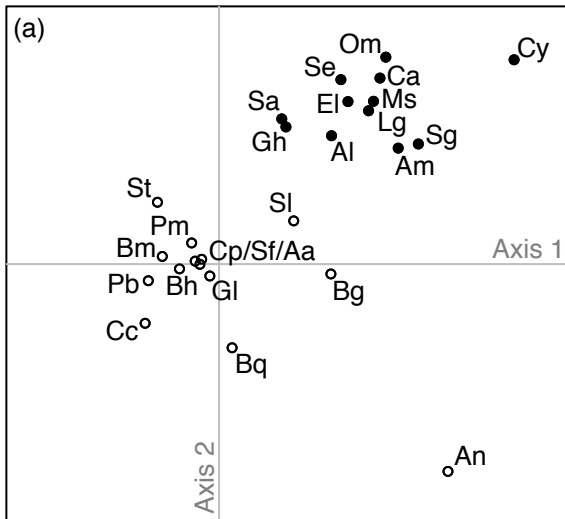


Table 1. Functional traits used to characterize fishes in the present study.

Function	Trait	Trait type	Categories	Categorical value
Reproduction	Reproductive strategy	Ordinal	Fractional Spawner	1
			Up the river	2
			Migratory	3
			Parental care	4
			Ovoviviparous	5
			Spawns several substrate	6
	Fecundity (egg number)		<2000	1
			2000-10000	2
			>10000	3
Trophic interaction	Trophic guilds		Herbivore-detritivore	1
			Omnivore	2
			General invertivore	3
			Surface/water column invertivore	4
			Benthic invertivore	5
			Piscivore	6
Habitat use	Vertical position		Benthic	1
			Benthopelagic	2
			Pelagic	3
	Velocity preference		Fast	1
			Moderate	2
			Slow-None	3
Locomotion	Shape factor	Continuous	General	4
	Swimming factor		(Ratio)	
			(Ratio)	
Survival	Average weight		(Continuous)	
	Maximal age		(Integer)	

Table 2. List of fish species captured with indication of their status (N, native or A, non-native) in rivers from north-eastern Spain

Family	Species	Code	Common name	Origin
Anguillidae	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	An	European eel	N
Blenniidae	<i>Salaria fluviatilis</i>	Sf	Freshwater blenny	N
Centrarchidae	<i>Lepomis gibbosus</i>	Lg	Pumpkinseed	A
	<i>Micropterus salmoides</i>	Ms	Largemouth bass	A
Cobitidae	<i>Barbatula quignardi</i>	Bq	Pyrenean stone loach	N
	<i>Cobitis calderoni</i>	Cc	Northern iberian spined-loach	N
	<i>Cobitis paludica</i>	Cp	Southern iberian spined-loach	N
Cyprinidae	<i>Achondrostoma arcasii</i>	Aa	Bermejuela	N
	<i>Alburnus alburnus</i>	Al	Bleak	A
	<i>Barbus haasi</i>	Bh	Iberian redfin barbel	N
	<i>Barbus meridionalis</i>	Bm	Western Mediterranean barbel	N
	<i>Carassius auratus</i>	Ca	Goldfish	A
	<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	Cy	Carp	A
	<i>Gobio lozanoi</i>	Gl	Pyrenean gudgeon	N
	<i>Luciobarbus graellsii</i>	Bg	Ebro barbel	N
	<i>Parachondrostoma miegii</i>	Pm	European nase	N
	<i>Phoxinus</i> spp.	Pb	Pyrenean minnow	N
	<i>Squalius laietanus</i>	Sl	Ebro chub	N
	<i>Scardinius erythrophthalmus</i>	Se	Rudd	A
	Ictaluridae	<i>Ameiurus melas</i>	Am	Bullhead
Esocidae	<i>Esox lucius</i>	El	Pike	A
Percidae	<i>Sander luciperca</i>	Sa	Pike-perch	A
Poeciliidae	<i>Gambusia holbrooki</i>	Gh	Mosquitofish	A
Salmonidae	<i>Oncorhynchus mykiss</i>	Om	Rainbow trout	A
	<i>Salmo trutta</i>	St	Brown trout	N
Siluridae	<i>Silurus glanis</i>	Sg	Welscatfish	A

Table 3. Loadings for axes 1 and 2 according to PCA built using water physico-chemical variables and habitat quality features measured in rivers from north-eastern Spain. Values ≥ 0.4 are in bold font.

Environmental Variables	PC1	PC2
Habitat structure	-0.24	0.67
Riparian coverage	-0.09	0.79
Channel conservation	-0.05	0.80
pH	0.03	0.02
Temperature	0.27	-0.28
Ammonium	0.80	-0.08
Nitrite	0.79	-0.13
Nitrate	0.76	-0.09
Phosphates	0.49	-0.23
Conductivity	0.43	-0.31
Macrophytes	-0.06	0.04

Table 4. Statistics from generalized linear mixed models for fish diversity measures (taxon richness and FSpe, FOri and FEnt functional diversity indices) as a function of non-native fish biomass and indicators of water and physical habitat quality. Bold values indicate significance at $P < 0.05$.

	Estimate	SE	<i>z</i>	<i>p</i>
Taxon richness				
(Intercept)	2.540	0.234	10.876	<0.001
log(altitude + 1)	-0.294	0.038	-7.829	<0.001
Physical habitat	0.733	0.218	3.361	<0.001
Water quality	-0.184	0.131	-1.407	0.1594
Non-native biomass ratio	0.148	0.102	1.446	0.1481
log(altitude + 1)*Physical habitat	-0.128	0.036	-3.565	<0.001
log(altitude + 1)*Water quality	0.022	0.027	0.817	0.4141
FSpe				
(Intercept)	6.640	1.432	4.636	<0.001
log(altitude + 1)	-1.742	0.282	-6.177	<0.001
Physical habitat	3.691	1.443	2.559	0.0105
Water quality	-0.692	0.719	-0.962	0.3362
Non-native biomass ratio	3.072	0.546	5.625	<0.001
log(altitude + 1)*Physical habitat	-0.700	0.278	-2.518	0.0118
log(altitude + 1)* Water quality	0.164	0.160	1.026	0.3048
FOri				
(Intercept)	9.147	1.840	4.971	<0.001
log(altitude + 1)	-2.189	0.364	-6.017	<0.001
Physical habitat	1.970	1.681	1.172	0.2413
Water quality	-0.720	0.723	-0.996	0.3190
Non-native biomass ratio	-3.423	1.279	-2.677	0.0074
log(altitude + 1)*Physical habitat	-0.400	0.341	-1.175	0.2399
log(altitude + 1)* Water quality	0.145	0.176	0.826	0.4088
FEnt				
(Intercept)	4.529	1.472	3.077	0.002
log(altitude + 1)	-1.478	0.298	-4.958	<0.001
Physical habitat	5.808	2.111	2.752	0.006
Water quality	-0.991	0.987	-1.005	0.315
Non-native biomass ratio	0.343	0.973	0.353	0.724
log(altitude + 1)*Physical habitat	-0.981	0.406	-2.416	0.016
log(altitude + 1)* Water quality	0.186	0.227	0.820	0.412

Table 5. Spearman rank correlation coefficients between water biochemistry, habitat quality indices (RBA), relative biomass and taxon richness of non-native species, and several biodiversity indicators: taxon richness, 3 functional diversity measures (FEnt, FSpe and FOri), 5 bioindicators based on biotic integrity of fish (IBICAT), diatoms (IPS) and macroinvertebrates (IBMWP) as and tolerance indicator values of fish communities to water (TIV_WATER) and habitat deterioration (TIV_RBA).

Environmental stressors	Functional diversity measures and IBIs								
	Taxon Richness	FSpe	FOri	FEnt	IBICAT	IBMWP	IPS	TIV_RBA	TIV_WATER
Conductivity	-0.059	0.197	0.124	-0.060	-0.104	-0.481***	-0.396**	-0.498**	0.306
Total Nitrogen	-0.001	0.436**	0.427**	0.160	0.112	-0.576***	-0.684***	-0.398*	0.439*
RBA	-0.072	-0.469***	-0.454**	-0.060	-0.017	0.357	0.466***	0.401*	-0.531**
Non-native relative biomass	0.332*	0.609***	0.666***	0.445**	-0.282*	-0.440**	-0.592***	-0.804***	0.900**
Non-native relative richness	0.305*	0.525***	0.575***	0.325*	-0.297*	-0.584***	-0.688***	-0.762***	0.793***

Note: Significance codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.'