

1 **Title:** Habitat selection of a migratory freshwater fish in response to seasonal hypoxia as
2 revealed by acoustic telemetry

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16

17 **Abstract (250 words)**

18 Adaptive efforts to achieve water quality objectives by modifying nutrient loading can
19 have attendant impacts on fish habitats and fisheries. Thus, coordinating fishery and water
20 quality management depends on knowledge of fish behavioral responses to habitat change. This
21 study combined acoustic telemetry of fish with water quality modeling to understand how water
22 quality management might impact fishery management. We examined habitat use of a native
23 demersal fish, lake whitefish *Coregonus clupeaformis*, in Lake Erie. We focused on the summer
24 stratified period when habitat was expected to be most limiting and used a forecast model to
25 predict temperature and oxygen in the hypolimnion when fish were detected. As hypothesized,
26 lake whitefish occupied a subset of available conditions with occupied habitats characterized by
27 a cool, normoxic, hypolimnion. On some occasions fish were detected when the hypolimnion
28 was predicted to be hypoxic, suggesting that fish were either displaced vertically or horizontally
29 into marginal habitats or uncertainty in model predictions was high. Still, when hypolimnetic
30 conditions were hypoxic, fish tended to move toward normoxia as expected, but when initial
31 conditions were cold with high dissolved oxygen, fish movements were toward lower oxygen
32 (but still normoxic) conditions. We also observed a high affinity for fish to remain near the
33 southern shore in eastern Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York. If current nutrient reduction
34 objectives are achieved and the extent and severity of hypoxia is reduced, an expansion of lake
35 whitefish habitat and distribution may have significance to the spatial regulation of fishing effort
36 in Lake Erie.

37 **Keywords:** habitat selection, coregonine, acoustic telemetry, dissolved oxygen, lake stratification

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39

40 ***Introduction***

41 Quantifying habitat use of migratory fish is especially important for spatial management
42 of interjurisdictional species (Midway et al. 2016). When moving across an environment, fish are
43 potentially exposed to different fisheries and variable exploitation rates (e.g., Liljestrand et al.
44 2019). Further, habitat quality may influence the duration of time spent in an area and the
45 direction of movement in response to favorable or adverse cues. Complicating this situation,
46 variations in habitat quality and the resulting effects on fish behavior may influence the
47 vulnerability of fish to capture (Kraus et al. 2015, Chamberlin et al. 2020) or impaired health in
48 suboptimal environmental conditions (Scott and Bollinger 2014). In this study, we employed
49 acoustic telemetry to understand the influence of habitat availability on the habitat selection and
50 movement of a fish targeted by an interjurisdictional fishery.

51 Acoustic telemetry has become a standard method for developing data on the spatial
52 behaviors of fish (Cooke et al. 2013, Hussey et al. 2015), and extensive networks of passive
53 acoustic receivers have provided novel insights on numerous species (Welch et al. 2002;
54 Abecasis et al. 2018, Dembkowski et al. 2018, Ellis et al. 2019, Bangley et al. 2020). A key
55 advantage of acoustic telemetry is the ability, passively and autonomously, to record the
56 presence of tagged individuals wherever a receiver can be deployed. A researcher can then
57 observe the locations of fish and identify areas and times when fish are absent (Kraus et al.
58 2018). When this information is combined with time series data on other variables, the researcher
59 can evaluate whether occupied habitats represent a random sampling of available habitats to gain
60 greater insights about habitat selection.

61

62 We examined movements and habitat selection of lake whitefish (*Coregonus*
63 *clupeaformis*) in Lake Erie. Lake whitefish support an interjurisdictional fishery (cooperatively
64 assessed by United States (US) state and Canadian (CA) provincial authorities, Figure 1) which
65 has generated concerns about population decline, spatial patterns of exploitation, summer habitat
66 refugia, and a need to improve stock assessment and management plan objectives (Brenden et al.
67 2010). Lake whitefish require cold, oxygenated, hypolimnetic conditions during summer for
68 survival. Hypoxia is a recurring problem during the summer stratified period in the central basin
69 of Lake Erie (Scavia et al. 2014). In recent decades, increases in dissolved phosphorous loading
70 to Lake Erie have fueled algal blooms (Davis et al. 2019), which are associated with
71 deoxygenated hypolimnetic conditions lagged by one year (Burns et al. 2005). Long-term
72 increasing temperatures decrease the saturation level of oxygen and increase the summer
73 stratified period, exacerbating hypoxia in the hypolimnion (Blumberg and DiToro 1990, Jane et
74 al. 2021). Concerns about impacts on drinking water resources and fish habitats have prompted
75 new attention to water quality objectives for nutrients, algal blooms, and the extent and severity
76 of low oxygen in the central basin of Lake Erie through the renegotiated binational Great Lakes
77 Water Quality Agreement (GLWQA 2012). For coldwater fishes such as lake whitefish, cisco
78 (*Coregonus artedi*, Schmitt et al. 2020), and lake trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*), these water
79 quality objectives have immediate significance to ongoing management, conservation, and
80 restoration efforts.

81 To better understand the population structure, migration, survival, and summer habitat
82 refugia of lake whitefish, fishery managers initiated acoustic telemetry studies in 2015
83 (MacDougall et al. 2019). Initially, arrays of passive receivers targeted boundaries between sub-
84 sections of the lake to understand timing of walleye (*Sander vitreus*) movements in relation to

85 spawning migration and the execution of fishery assessment surveys (Raby et al. 2018). Starting
86 in 2016, a new, two-dimensional, systematic grid sampling design was gradually implemented to
87 provide more information about movements and spatial distribution of multiple species (Kraus et
88 al. 2018, Krueger et al. 2018). In parallel with this change to the passive telemetry receiver array,
89 a physical model was developed to forecast depth-resolved temporal and spatial conditions of
90 temperature and dissolved oxygen under seasonally stratified conditions in Lake Erie (Rowe et
91 al. 2019). Here we utilized the physical model to hindcast hypolimnetic temperature and oxygen
92 conditions at acoustic receivers during stratification for the first two years of full implementation
93 of the two-dimensional receiver array (2017 and 2018). These years also corresponded with a
94 peak in sample size of at-large, tagged lake whitefish, permitting an evaluation of seasonal
95 movements and habitat use.

96 Our goal was to better understand how changes in oxygen and temperature during
97 stratified conditions affected movements and habitat use of lake whitefish. The volume and
98 location of suitable habitat (as defined by adequate oxygen and cooler temperatures) for lake
99 whitefish and other species may shift rapidly (hourly) across large distances (several to tens of
100 kilometers), mostly due to meteorological forcing (Kraus et al. 2015, Rowe et al. 2019). Lake
101 whitefish tags were coded to allow tracking of individual fish, but did not provide additional
102 information (e.g., estimated depth). Although we did not know whether individual fish were
103 within depths encompassed by the hypolimnion, lake whitefish are demersal and we
104 hypothesized that hypolimnetic temperature and oxygen conditions would be within reported
105 ranges of suitability when fish presence was recorded on a receiver. As a corollary, we
106 hypothesized that the range of bottom conditions from throughout the array would encompass

107 supraoptimal temperatures and suboptimal dissolved oxygen values, such that fish would only be
108 present at a restricted subset of available conditions.

109 While this exercise was itself valuable and typical of previous fish telemetry studies, we
110 also considered that two dynamic processes were potentially interacting to produce the observed
111 fish distribution. One process - already mentioned - was the short-term habitat changes caused by
112 currents and meteorological forces. The second process was the movement of fish as they
113 encountered changing conditions and chose either to stay in a location or seek out a different
114 location. Here we developed an empirical linear model to predict conditions during the current
115 detection, time $t+1$, based upon conditions at the previous detection, time t . We hypothesized that
116 hypoxic (<1 mg/L) conditions at time t would result in a greater increase in dissolved oxygen
117 values at the location at time $t+1$ than if initial dissolved oxygen conditions were normoxic (>4.0
118 mg/L). We also tested whether temperature could modify this response.

119 Our study provided important ecological information for the management of lake
120 whitefish in Lake Erie and potentially other Great Lakes populations that are a focus of concern
121 for declining recruitment (Ebener et al. 2021). Further, it elucidated some generalizable insights
122 through comparative evaluation of i) habitat characterizations based upon conditions where fish
123 were present, ii) habitat selection from a range of potential habitat conditions, and iii) habitat
124 conditions that may cue movement. We discuss how this information could help develop or
125 improve future studies of fish migration and habitat use.

126

127 **Methods**

128 Lake whitefish were tagged as part of an interagency field effort coordinated between
129 Ohio Department of Natural Resources and Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources and Forestry.
130 In the fall months (primarily November), historic spawning areas (Figure 1) were targeted with
131 gillnets and electrofishing to capture adult fish for tag implantation. To obtain adult lake
132 whitefish, standard gillnet assessment gears were deployed (Kraus et al. 2017), using overnight
133 and short-term sets. Briefly, fish were captured, held in tanks, anesthetized with either
134 continuous direct current or pulsed direct current (Vandergoot et al. 2011), implanted with
135 acoustic telemetry tags, and released as soon as possible after regaining and maintaining
136 equilibrium. The protocol for fish handling and tag implantation followed each agency's
137 approved animal care policies, American Fisheries Society policies (Jenkins et al. 2014), and
138 previous successful tagging studies on Lake Erie fish (Schoonyan et al. 2017; Reid et al. 2022).

139 Tags were a mixture of new tags and a small number of repurposed tags that were
140 recovered by anglers from walleye in a separate project (Raby et al. 2018; Bade et al. 2019).
141 Coordination through the Great Lakes Acoustic Telemetry Observation System (GLATOS,
142 <https://glatos.glos.us>) ensured that sequential deployments of the same tag in different species
143 were distinguished for this study. The tags were model V16-4H (16 mm diameter, 68 mm long,
144 24 g, estimated battery life = 2 to 5 years, power output = 158 dB; Innovasea, Halifax, Canada)
145 and nominal delays had the same mean (120 s) across tags. Because tag supply and deployment
146 were opportunistic, n=10, 37, and 105 tags were deployed, respectively in 2015, 2016, and 2017.

147

148 As GLATOS is a participatory system, detection histories of lake whitefish from 2017
149 and 2018 were compiled from receivers that were deployed and serviced by multiple individual
150 agencies and researchers (Kreuger et al. 2018). Data were primarily recovered from a systematic
151 grid of passive receivers (69 kHz VR2W, VR2TX, and VR2AR, Innovasea, Halifax, Canada)
152 with 10-minute spacing in latitude and longitude across Lake Erie's central and eastern basins
153 and slightly closer spacing (6-minute) in the western basin (Figure 2). Because the spacing was
154 in minutes of longitude (or latitude) instead of arc-minutes of a circle, the longitudinal spacing
155 decreased a small amount with latitude. Additional linear arrays from legacy projects during this
156 period were more slowly decommissioned (e.g., from an area near Cleveland, OH, and along a
157 division between the central and eastern sub-basins of Lake Erie; see <https://glatos.glos.us>).
158 Because these other receivers had overlapping detection ranges with grid receivers, small
159 portions of the lake had a substantial increase in detection probability, potentially skewing our
160 view of habitat use. We excluded these redundant linear arrays from our analyses, focusing on
161 the non-overlapping detection ranges provided by the grid design (Figure 2).

162 For each of the receiver locations served by the GLATOS network, predictions of
163 hypolimnetic temperature and dissolved oxygen were estimated with a forecasting model
164 developed by NOAA-Great Lakes Environmental Research Laboratory
165 (https://www.glerl.noaa.gov/res/HABs_and_Hypoxia/hypoxiaWarningSystem.html). The NOAA
166 model produces three-dimensional, hourly, predictions of temperature and oxygen based upon
167 the Finite Volume Community Ocean Model (FVCOM; Rowe et al. 2019) in which advection-
168 diffusion and exchange of oxygen with the atmosphere were simulated, and oxygen depletion
169 rates assigned to the sediment and water column were temperature-dependent but otherwise
170 uniform through time. Model inputs were meteorological data (e.g., wind direction and speed)

171 and recorded water levels. Extensive skill assessment of model-predicted bottom temperature
172 and dissolved oxygen in comparison to observations indicated that the model simulated much of
173 the observed spatial and temporal variance in hypoxia, although the model exhibited limited skill
174 in some aspects, for example hypoxia was overpredicted on average in the south-eastern central
175 basin (Rowe et al. 2019). To focus on stratified conditions when hypoxia typically occurs, we
176 censored our analyses to the months of July, August, and September during focal years of the
177 study. We further censored data to include only the central and eastern basins of the lake (Figure
178 1), where a seasonal hypolimnion develops every year and because no lake whitefish tags were
179 detected in the western basin during the stratified months of July, August, and September. The
180 model provided predictions at each receiver location in hourly time steps. We used time to match
181 lake whitefish detections with temperature and dissolved oxygen estimates for the bottom layer
182 (ca. 1 meter) of the model output.

183 Each year was analyzed separately because fall tagging events resulted in different
184 individuals and total numbers of fish at-large in the following year. A few detection histories
185 were truncated due to recapture by the fishery, short-term mortality, or unknown factors that
186 resulted in only detections near the tagging sites immediately after tagging; these cases were
187 removed from the data. To understand the geographic distribution and spatial extent of
188 movements during stratified months, maps of lake whitefish detections were examined. We
189 considered that a large fraction of detections from only one or two fish would restrict our ability
190 to draw inferences for the broader population of lake whitefish in Lake Erie. We evaluated this
191 possibility by summarizing detection counts for each fish at each receiver. Additionally, we
192 examined detections on each receiver geographically.

193 To understand habitat use or avoidance by tagged fish, we constructed bivariate kernel
194 density distributions of tag detections within dimensions of water temperature and dissolved
195 oxygen. To accomplish this, detections were categorized hourly. We found no cases when an
196 individual fish was detected on more than one receiver within a particular hour. Thus,
197 hypolimnetic values for temperature and dissolved oxygen were determined by temporal
198 matching of hourly model predictions with timestamps of tag detections. Bivariate kernel
199 distributions were then estimated from proportions of detections at each observed combination of
200 temperature and dissolved oxygen. The distribution of these variables was evaluated graphically
201 by comparison with previously published habitat preferences for lake whitefish from other
202 ecosystems, indicating an oxythermal habitat envelope of suitable conditions defined as $<19.5^{\circ}\text{C}$
203 and $>3\text{ mg/L}$ (Jacobson et al. 2010). In our experience, the habitat envelope encompasses
204 marginal values that are rarely observed when lake whitefish are captured during population
205 assessment surveys (H.A. Cook, personal observations); therefore, we expected to detect fish in a
206 more limited subset of oxythermal conditions. We described oxythermal conditions by
207 estimating bivariate kernel densities of the proportions of temperature and dissolved oxygen
208 observations from the entire data set of hourly model predictions at each acoustic telemetry
209 receiver (including hours with and without a detection). The result was evaluated graphically by
210 overlaying habitat use and oxythermal distributions.

211 We considered that comparisons of habitat use and availability are only one facet of
212 habitat selection. The concept of habitat selection (or other types of ecological selectivity like
213 diet selectivity; Chesson 1978) entails situations when habitat use is disproportionately higher
214 than habitat availability. The opposite of this would be interpreted as avoidance, or when habitat
215 use is disproportionately lower than availability. We examined habitat selectivity for each

216 combination of temperature and dissolved oxygen (each variable was rounded to whole units) by
217 the ratio of the proportion of tag detections to the proportion of observations from all acoustic
218 receivers. This formula represents the most basic formula for selectivity indices (Manly et al.
219 2002). As the raw ratio was bound by zero on the left side, we took the natural log and centered
220 (i.e., subtracted the mean) the index such that high positive values could be interpreted as
221 selection and low negative values interpreted as avoidance. Because the index was based on a
222 ratio of proportions, which would be highly influenced by small sample size, we censored cases
223 with less than 10 observations. Though alternate formulations of selectivity can incorporate more
224 restrictive assumptions (Jacobs 1974; Chesson 1978; Vanderploeg and Scavia 1979), none were
225 appropriate to use without the ability to match model predictions more precisely with fish depth.
226 Future applications of electronic tagging methods that would advance estimation of selectivity
227 are suggested in the discussion.

228 Telemetry data provide an advantage over basic distributional occurrences in that a
229 sequence of locations representing movement across a landscape (or, in this case, seascape) can
230 be determined. When the underlying habitat is also dynamic and moving on a similar time scale
231 (such as with temperature and oxygen in the hypolimnion), the researcher can develop additional
232 complementary analyses to better understand the behavior of habitat selection. We tested
233 whether movements of lake whitefish exhibited avoidance of low oxygen (or attraction to high
234 oxygen habitats) by subsetting the dataset based on pairs of adjacent detections on different
235 receivers. From this we estimated the change in dissolved oxygen, using a generalized linear
236 mixed model with a Gaussian error distribution. Predictors were initial dissolved oxygen and
237 temperature, and we were able to account for individual variations by treating unique fish as a
238 random effect. Models with initial temperature, initial dissolved oxygen, both factors, and their

239 interaction were compared using Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) model selection with
240 maximum likelihood estimation (Burnham and Anderson 2002). Once a best model was selected,
241 we compared models with and without the random effect of individual fish using analysis of
242 variance, and then we estimated marginal (least-squares) means with Restricted Maximum
243 Likelihood (REML) to construct confidence intervals and graphically evaluate separate models
244 for each year. Graphical inspection of residuals against time, initial dissolved oxygen, or
245 temperature revealed no patterns for either year.

246 ***Results***

247 Tag detections from open-lake grid stations during stratified months of July, August, and
248 September in 2017 and 2018 totaled $n=457,737$ (once dead individuals and false detections were
249 filtered from the data; Simpfendorfer et al. 2015). Mortality was inferred either by lack of
250 evidence of movement after release or by recaptures reported by the fishery. The filtered data
251 reflected fish that were tagged and released in 2015, 2016, and 2017. A total of $n=91$ unique
252 individuals were available for analysis, of which $n=19$ and $n=87$ were detected in stratified
253 months during 2017 and 2018, respectively. As the tagging effort increased and more fish were
254 at large in the second year of the study, more detections were recorded in 2018 ($n=417,313$) than
255 2017 ($n=40,424$). At the time of tagging, total length of these fish ranged from 436 to 721 mm
256 (average TL = 608 mm), indicating that all were adults capable of spawning.

257 Detections during July through September occurred primarily south of the US-CA border
258 in the eastern half of the lake (Figure 2). These detections were concentrated on relatively few
259 receivers (primarily 7 or 8 depending on the year; Figures 2 & 3). To understand whether high
260 levels of detections on a few receivers resulted from only a few individuals, we examined how
261 detections were distributed with respect to individual fish and stations. Visual exploration did not

262 reveal any prominent influence of a single or few individuals; rather, stations with high numbers
263 of detections were spread across numerous individual fish (Figure 3). Further, stations with the
264 highest detections were in the central basin in 2017 and the eastern basin in 2018 (Figures 2 &
265 3). For individual fish, the average number of detections per station was significantly higher in
266 2018, $n=1304$, than 2017, $n=391$ (ANOVA: F-statistic = 7.5, p-value = 0.007, with 117
267 denominator degrees of freedom).

268 Hypolimnetic oxythermal conditions (i.e., habitat availability) were more variable
269 between years in August than July or September. In both years, oxythermal conditions in August
270 peaked around 10°C and 7 mg/L (Figure 4). During July, hypoxia was present in 2017 but not in
271 2018. During August, conditions in 2017 were warmer with lower oxygen than in 2018 (Figure
272 4). In July of 2017, hypoxia was present and oxythermal conditions were diffuse without a
273 prominent peak. By comparison in July of 2018, hypoxia was infrequent and oxythermal
274 conditions showed a prominent peak at around 11°C and 5 mg/L (Figure 4). In both years,
275 hypoxic conditions were well established in September, but oxythermal conditions peaked
276 around 21°C to 22°C and 8 mg/L (Figure 4).

277 Peaks in habitat use of lake whitefish either overlapped or were shifted away from peaks
278 in oxythermal conditions. For example, in 2017, some lake whitefish detections overlapped with
279 hypoxia conditions (<2.5 mg/L) around 15°C in all three months (Figure 4). Other peaks in
280 habitat use were either more diffuse (in July and August) or were concentrated at temperatures
281 <20°C in normoxic conditions (Figure 4). By comparison, in 2018, peaks in habitat use did not
282 overlap with oxythermal conditions in any month. During July of 2018, lake whitefish habitat
283 use peaked at warmer (11°C) and included slightly lower oxygen (6 mg/L) levels than the
284 primary peak in oxythermal conditions (Figure 4). In August, detections were more diffuse and

285 completely separated from the primary peak in oxythermal distribution, with the majority of
286 detections occurring where hypolimnetic conditions were around 12.5°C and 8 mg/L (Figure 4).
287 In September of 2018 (similar to September of 2017), peak habitat use was shifted away from
288 peak oxythermal distribution toward cooler (<20°C) normoxic conditions (Figure 4). The
289 significance of adjacent but non-overlapping distributions of habitat use and peak oxythermal
290 conditions are suggestive of an edge effect as explained in the discussion.

291 Selectivity index calculation provided a complementary view, emphasizing either
292 selection or avoidance of hypolimnetic oxythermal conditions. Each year was somewhat
293 different. In 2017, low sample size was a factor, and weaker values of selectivity or avoidance
294 were mixed across the range of temperature and dissolved oxygen. In 2017, no prominent pattern
295 of selection or avoidance was evident in August or September, but in July, two positive peaks in
296 selectivity occurred: one at 17.5°C and 6 mg/L and a second at 15°C between 1.5 and 3.5 mg/L
297 (Figure 5). Despite a larger sample, in 2018, all months showed wide variation in
298 selectivity/avoidance across the ranges of temperature and dissolved oxygen. Although the
299 categories were quite granular, there was a consistent region of weak selectivity from
300 approximately 10°C to 20°C in normoxic conditions (5 to 9 mg/L). This somewhat diffuse area
301 tended to be surrounded by a band of negative values indicating avoidance (Figure 5). A
302 prominent peak in selectivity was only present in August in cold normoxic conditions (ca. 9°C
303 and 9 mg/L).

304

305 Analyses of movement with paired detections supported the hypothesis that lake
306 whitefish would tend to move toward sites with higher hypolimnetic oxygen conditions, but only
307 when initial oxygen concentrations were very low or hypoxic. As with the previous analyses of
308 static conditions, sample sizes were more limited in 2017 than in 2018. An important context
309 was the time difference between paired samples in our analysis. In 2018, 90% (n=411,963) of
310 paired detections were separated by 60 hours or less, but in 2017 when sample size was more
311 limited, only 30% (n=677) of paired detections were separated by 60 hours or less. While this
312 contributed to more variable results in 2017, the overall trend was similar between years, with
313 the exception of the lowest temperature (10°C) case in 2017 when confidence intervals
314 overlapped zero across a range of low oxygen conditions (Figure 6).

315 For each year, we found unequivocal support for the interaction model (with temperature,
316 starting dissolved oxygen and their interaction as main effects) as measured by delta-AIC and
317 weight of evidence (Table 1). Fixed effects explained a moderate amount of variability: $R^2_{\text{model}} =$
318 0.45 and 0.52 in 2017 and 2018, respectively. Analysis of variance demonstrated the necessity of
319 including individual fish as a random effect (Table 1), and conditional models (i.e., inclusion of
320 random effects) explained only slightly more variability than fixed effects alone: $R^2_{\text{conditional}} =$
321 0.55 and 0.66 in 2017 and 2018, respectively. The characteristics of the response (i.e., movement
322 observed as a change in hypolimnetic dissolved oxygen) were significantly modified by
323 temperature and substantially different between years.

324 To evaluate the model results with marginal means, estimates with confidence intervals
325 were calculated for 5° increments of temperature and whole unit values of dissolved oxygen,
326 limited to values within the observed ranges in the data. In 2017, under hypoxic initial conditions
327 (<2.5 mg/L), lake whitefish moved to higher dissolved oxygen concentrations at 15°C, but not at

328 10°C (Figure 6). In 2017, when initial conditions were normoxic, lake whitefish moved to lower
329 dissolved oxygen concentrations between successive detections and the decrease in dissolved
330 oxygen was greater at 15°C than at 10°C (Figure 6). In 2017, there were not enough observations
331 at 20°C to develop marginal mean estimates of the change in dissolved oxygen, but in 2018, it
332 was possible to contrast three temperatures across a wide range of initial dissolved oxygen
333 values. Significant increases in dissolved oxygen between successive detections were observed
334 whenever initial hypolimnetic dissolved oxygen was <5.0 mg/L, and the magnitude of the
335 change was largest at 10°C and smallest at 20°C (Figure 6). At initial conditions of 5.0 mg/L, the
336 change in dissolved oxygen was positive but no effect of temperature was detected (Figure 6).
337 The response shifted from increasing (positive values) to decreasing (negative values) at an
338 initial dissolved oxygen value of around 6.0 mg/L (Figure 6). In other words, hypolimnetic
339 dissolved oxygen tended to decrease between successive detections when initial values were >
340 6.0 mg/L, and the magnitude of the change was again largest at 10°C and smallest at 20°C
341 (Figure 6).

342

343 *Discussion*

344 Fish habitat selection can be difficult to quantify and predict when there are multiple
345 dimensions and contributing variables (Beck et al. 2001, Peterson 2003, Rice 2005, Larson et al.
346 2013, Elliot et al. 2016). Results presented here highlighted three interrelated perspectives on the
347 habitat selection of a coldwater fish species in a large, temperate, lacustrine ecosystem. These
348 perspectives a) concerned the geography of the ecosystem, b) involved correlation with two key
349 abiotic variables, and c) elucidated cues to movement, resulting in the habitat selection process.

350 Each of these perspectives is addressed below, and taken together, they can provide a basis for
351 improving acoustic telemetry studies as well as informing strategies for resource management
352 under future climate scenarios.

353 At a fundamental level, it is often of interest to describe the habitat use of animals in
354 terms of geography to identify where they spend most of their time. Such areas may represent
355 territorial home ranges, breeding or foraging sites, or refugia, and often vary through time at
356 scales that range from diel, seasonal, and annual (Kie et al. 2010). Designation of areas with high
357 habitat utilization typically benefits from subsequent analysis of habitat variables, in which
358 observations include both locations where animals were present and absent. The advantage of the
359 passive receiver array in Lake Erie is broad, non-overlapping spatial coverage (Kraus et al.
360 2018). For lake whitefish, the grid sampling design revealed a pattern of concentrated habitat use
361 in the southeastern portion of the lake during stratified conditions. In particular, US waters along
362 the Ohio-Pennsylvania border and along the New York shoreline had most of the detections in
363 both years (Figure 2). Despite the presence of lake whitefish in survey sampling and commercial
364 fishing catches (Cold Water Task Group 2022), our tagged fish that rarely occupied waters in
365 Ontario, CA, were not detected in the western end of the lake during stratification.

366 Reasons for the geographical pattern of detections are not immediately obvious but invite
367 speculation. One hypothesis of interest is that historical patterns of fisheries exploitation have
368 significantly reduced migratory or behavioral modalities that would have utilized more northern
369 habitats of central and eastern Lake Erie. There is certainly evidence from other species that this
370 can happen (e.g., Hilborn et al. 2003, Kess et al. 2019, but also see Turner et al. 2021), and since
371 the most recent glacial recession, other species in Lake Erie have evolved divergent migratory
372 behaviors to colonize new spawning habitat (Stepien et al. 2018, Euclide et al. 2021).

373 Coregonine (e.g., lake whitefish, and cisco) harvest in Lake Erie once supported the largest
374 freshwater fishery in the world, but cisco harvest collapsed during the 1920s (Koelz 1926, Regier
375 et al. 1969), and lake whitefish harvest collapsed shortly thereafter (Applegate and Van Meter
376 1970). Whether this extraordinary level of fishing pressure could have resulted in a loss of
377 behavioral migratory diversity remains an open question, in part because almost nothing is
378 known of the behavioral modalities that existed prior to commercial exploitation in Lake Erie.
379 Further investigation to examine potential effects of exploitation on spatial distributions of lake
380 whitefish may be warranted, but the recent pattern of exploitation has exhibited a shift toward the
381 west in fall and winter where we obtained fish for tagging. The largest fractions of Ontario's
382 annual lake whitefish harvest were taken in the central or eastern basin during 18 of 31 years
383 from 1980 to 2010, (OMNRF 2020). Since 2011, Ontario's largest fraction of lake whitefish
384 harvest was from the western basin as whitefish abundance declined during an extended period
385 of low recruitment (Cold Water Task Group 2022). Lake whitefish harvest since 2014 was
386 incidental in Ontario waters as quotas were reduced in response to declining abundance (Cold
387 Water Task Group 2022). The limitation of the analysis in this study is that it lacks tagged fish
388 from spawning aggregations other than those in the western basin. Spawning aggregations in or
389 near the eastern basin are less well known, but some of these may represent alternative migration
390 patterns or behavioral modalities (e.g., Kraus et al. 2004, or Gahagan et al. 2015) that occupy
391 Canadian waters more frequently.

392 A second potential explanation for the geographical pattern of lake whitefish detections
393 involves gradients of primary productivity in Lake Erie. First, while most of the freshwater
394 supply to Lake Erie comes from the Detroit River on the Michigan-Ontario border, nutrient
395 loading is highest from the Maumee River followed by smaller but significant contributions from

396 other Ohio tributaries (Scavia et al. 2014). The Detroit River ultimately drains the highly
397 oligotrophic waters of Lake Huron (by way of the St. Clair River and Lake St. Clair), which
398 contrasts sharply with the more turbid, eutrophic outflows from Ohio tributaries. Combined with
399 a predominantly west-to-east flow of river plumes, an additional north-south gradient of
400 increasing turbidity, nutrient concentration, and algal blooms is present. Lake whitefish may
401 favor the combined advantages that low visibility waters provide as protection from predators
402 and the increased zooplanktonic food supply fueled by higher nutrient and algal concentrations
403 along the southern shore (Nieman et al. 2018). Clearly, trade-offs exist as eutrophic conditions
404 may also bring increased levels of hypoxia that fish must contend with (Almeida et al. 2022).
405 Linking water quality to lake whitefish habitat is indirect because this species is demersal and
406 tends to feed on benthic macroinvertebrates (Lumb et al. 2007). Areas with lethal durations of
407 hypoxia have a lower abundance of benthic organisms (Karatayev et al. 2017), but benthic
408 macroinvertebrate abundance response to limiting nutrients and pollution along the US shoreline
409 is more variable and instead results in a change in species composition (Krieger 1984, Scharold
410 et al. 2015). Because the north-south gradient of visibility, nutrients, zooplankton diminishes and
411 benthic macroinvertebrate prey availability changes toward the eastern end of the lake, spatially
412 explicit diet analysis (beyond the scope of this study) would be needed to understand how
413 macroinvertebrate communities influence lake whitefish habitat use.

414 A third hypothesis to explain the geographic concentration of detections partially
415 involves the second hypothesis regarding productivity. Although north-south productivity
416 differences diminish toward the eastern end of the lake, conditions of temperature and oxygen
417 may limit lake whitefish habitat utilization in more productive regions in the western part of the
418 lake. The obvious endpoint for this third hypothesis is the supra-optimal temperatures and lack of

419 hypolimnion that occur seasonally in the western basin of the lake. High temperature and
420 absence of a cold hypolimnion explains the seasonal summer absence of lake whitefish in the
421 west despite the higher concentration of food (i.e., behavioral thermoregulation, *sensu* Raby et al.
422 2018). By comparison, the central basin of the lake is deeper (Figure 1), and the abiotic
423 conditions are more variable. Greater depth permits development of a seasonal thermocline,
424 which isolates a cold hypolimnion as the season progresses. Isolation also limits replenishment
425 of oxygen from surface water diffusion and mixing; therefore, oxygen depletion is another
426 characteristic of the hypolimnion in the central basin (DeLorme 1982). Linked to increased
427 nutrient loading, oxygen depletion leading to hypoxia has become more intense and widespread
428 in recent decades (Zhou et al. 2013, Jabbari et al. 2021). Recent modeling work has
429 demonstrated that hypoxic zones can shift rapidly on short time scales from meteorological
430 forcing (Rowe et al. 2019). Although, upwelling events have been quantified on both the north
431 and south shores of the central basin (Rao et al. 2014, Beletsky et al. 2012), the hypolimnion is
432 thinner along the US coastline and tends to be more variable (Rowe et al. 2019). The eastern end
433 of the central basin is slightly deeper and less frequently affected by hypoxia (Ludsin et al.
434 2001). Prevailing southwest winds in Lake Erie may contribute to a sustained, imbalanced north-
435 south hypolimnetic distribution in the central basin, offering more habitat volume in the east-
436 central basin for lake whitefish. In addition, a deep channel north of Pennsylvania's shoreline
437 connects the variable habitat of central Lake Erie with more stable, oligotrophic conditions of
438 eastern Lake Erie. This passage may represent an important conduit for lake whitefish
439 movement, making them less susceptible to upwelling-induced mortality. Thus, the combination
440 of a small increase in productivity near the south shore combined with unfavorable hypolimnetic

441 conditions in the rest of the central basin, may account for the high frequency of detections near
442 the Ohio-Pennsylvania-New York border.

443 Clearly, more definitive tests of the third hypothesis are needed. Moreover, the third
444 hypothesis contributes little explanation to why only a small number of receivers accounted for
445 the vast majority lake whitefish detections (Figures 2 & 3). As noted above, no single individual
446 or sub-group of individuals accounted for the high numbers of detections on these receivers;
447 thus, we can posit that this may represent a population-level phenomenon or at least a
448 phenomenon of the tagged population of adult lake whitefish. Some fine-scale factors may exist
449 that account for a high habitat preference near these few receivers, but data from this study do
450 not provide information to examine whether local resources can explain the detection histories.
451 Alternatively, detection efficiency of acoustic telemetry receivers can vary greatly through time
452 and space (Binder et al. 2016; Huvneers et al. 2016; Klinard et al. 2019). While a
453 comprehensive evaluation of acoustic transmitter detection efficiency is lacking for Lake Erie
454 compared to other Great Lakes systems (e.g., see Hayden et al. 2016), acoustic receivers
455 deployed offshore (i.e., > 10 km) in Lake Erie exhibit high annual detection efficiency (>80%)
456 along the northern and southern shorelines of the central basin (Vandergoot, unpublished).
457 Although the thermocline can be variable on time scales of minutes to hours in Lake Erie, the
458 receivers in this area straddled the typical depth of 15 m. This arrangement could have reduced
459 detection efficiency up to 50% if the tag and receiver were on opposite sides of the metalimnion
460 (Kuai et al. 2021), highlighting the need for depth resolved telemetry information. Currently,
461 data are not available to evaluate the specific receivers or locations in question for this study;
462 thus, we cannot completely rule out variation in detection efficiency among receivers to account
463 for the pattern.

464 Acknowledging that small-scale, site-specific factors may increase variation, the
465 observed correlations of habitat use in dimensions of hypolimnetic temperature and dissolved
466 oxygen remained evident. The distribution of hypolimnetic temperature and oxygen values that
467 were matched to fish detections showed more variability than expected based upon habitat
468 requirements reported in the literature. While the majority of detections occurred at suitable
469 hypolimnetic temperatures $<19.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ and dissolved oxygen values $>3\text{ mg/L}$ (Jacobson et al.
470 2010), there were a substantial number of detections in hypoxic conditions in 2017 (Figure 4).
471 This result in part may be due to inaccuracies of predicted hypolimnetic conditions. In the
472 southeastern region of the central basin, the water quality model tended to overpredict hypoxia
473 (Rowe et al. 2019), which may have led to erroneous associations of lake whitefish and hypoxic
474 conditions. In addition, uncertainty in depth of habitat of tagged fish and the possibility of tag
475 detection at a distance in part explains why lake whitefish were sometimes associated with
476 hypoxic hypolimnetic conditions. Previous research using bottom trawls and hydroacoustics for
477 other species has shown that fish may occupy the metalimnion adjacent to hypoxia through
478 horizontal or vertical displacement (Roberts et al. 2009, Vanderploeg et al. 2009, Kraus et al.
479 2015). This hypothesis could be tested in future tagging studies of lake whitefish through the
480 application of tags that record or report depth (e.g., V16P-6H acoustic transmitters equipped with
481 depth-pressure sensors, 69 kHz; InnovaSea, Bedford, Nova Scotia, see Gorman et al. 2019).

482 Although depths of tagged fish were unknown, it remains illustrative to estimate
483 hypolimnetic conditions when fish were detected and compare these values with the range of
484 oxythermal conditions from throughout the telemetry receiver array. The mismatched
485 distributions of fish habitat versus peak oxythermal conditions supported the hypothesis that lake
486 whitefish would occupy only a subset of available habitats (rather than a random sampling of

487 available habitat). As fish seek preferred habitats and avoid unfavorable ones, this result is
488 simply confirmatory of a general aspect of fish behavior. Rather, shifts in peak habitat use
489 relative to peak habitat availability remind us that lake whitefish habitat selection involves other
490 variables that are not completely represented in the space of temperature and oxygen. As
491 mentioned above, some of these other factors may include spatial uncertainty in fish position,
492 water quality model uncertainty, and lack of understanding in fish responses to gradients in
493 turbidity and prey. Despite being coarse-grained and limited by sample size, habitat selection
494 was apparent. Future tagging efforts in Lake Erie would benefit from the addition of vertical data
495 logger strings on buoys or acoustic receivers to provide depth-matched observations with fish
496 tags. More importantly, understanding habitat selection for summer refugia provides valuable
497 information for managing lake whitefish fisheries near the southern extent of their range.

498 To extend the analysis further, comparison of paired detections provided an indication of
499 how lake whitefish may behaviorally respond to hypolimnetic conditions. Without the benefit of
500 depth measurements, fish could have been within or adjacent to the hypolimnion, but they
501 responded predictably by moving toward areas with higher oxygen. The movement toward areas
502 with lower hypolimnetic oxygen when initial conditions were normoxic is more difficult to
503 explain. Some insight can be obtained from 2018, when our results showed that the highest
504 initial oxygen levels were associated with the lowest temperatures (Figure 6). For lake whitefish,
505 movement toward lower oxygen, but still normoxic, conditions would place fish in warmer
506 conditions. This situation could provide a metabolic advantage especially in the early part of the
507 stratified season when the hypolimnion is colder, but hypoxia has not become widespread.
508 Bioenergetics modeling could be one way to investigate this idea but was beyond the scope of
509 this present study.

510 Additionally, some of the variation could be attributed to seasonal warming and overall
511 oxygen depletion in the hypolimnion (Burns et al. 2005). If sufficient time passed between paired
512 detections, hypolimnetic oxygen will decline no matter where the fish is detected. This effect is
513 unlikely to account for the pattern in lake whitefish because the oxygen depletion rate for Lake
514 Erie's hypolimnion is typically constant around 2.5 mg/L per month (Conroy et al. 2011)
515 compared with a decline ≤ 5 mg/L over the course of <60 hours (in 2018, see Figure 6 and notes
516 on paired detection intervals above). The interactive effect of temperature lends indirect support
517 for the hypothesis that fish habitat selection (rather than an underlying abiotic process) is driving
518 the pattern. During the stratified season, hypoxia spreads throughout the central basin to
519 encompass a larger volume of hypolimnion (Zhou et al. 2013, Rowe et al. 2019), naturally
520 reducing spatial variation in dissolved oxygen as temperature increases. This can be observed in
521 the fish detection data when comparing the reduced range of oxygen differences at 20°C with
522 10°C (Figure 6).

523 For lake whitefish, results presented here illustrated novel linkages between fisheries
524 management and efforts to improve water quality through nutrient reduction. Binational nutrient
525 reduction goals are aimed both at reducing algal blooms and hypoxia in Lake Erie (IJC 2012).
526 Results from this study demonstrated that the success or failure in achieving nutrient reduction
527 may have attendant consequences for the distribution of lake whitefish during a period when
528 normoxic hypolimnetic habitats represent important refugia (Schmitt et al. 2020). An important
529 consideration in the context of habitat change is how Lake Erie fisheries are managed according
530 to spatial management units. Nutrient reductions could expand available habitat further west
531 during stratification, and this could change the vulnerability of lake whitefish as incidental catch
532 in percid fisheries (i.e., walleye and yellow perch *Perca flavescens*) if they spend more time in

533 other management units. Because Lake Erie is a dimictic lake (i.e., seasonally stratified), it is not
534 clear whether this speculative outcome would elevate concern for managing lake whitefish.

535 In more general terms, these results reinforce advancements in acoustic telemetry
536 technology and electronic tagging methods to develop more detailed information about fish
537 habitat use. These advancements allow for field testing of hypotheses related to habitat selection
538 as well as evaluation of potential environmental cues to understand movements more precisely.
539 As we demonstrated, in combination with hydrographic modeling and an appropriate sampling
540 design for passive receivers, directional predictions of fish movement can be tested. Although
541 prior research indicated that lake whitefish are likely in the hypolimnion during stratification,
542 detections during hypoxic conditions calls this assumption into question. Application of depth
543 and temperature sensors to tagged fish would not only address this assumption, but also extend
544 our analyses to three-dimensions. It has long been recognized that accounting for dynamic
545 aspects of habitat selection in telemetry studies could transform current concepts of fish habitat
546 (Jacoby et al. 2012). Future work toward improving concepts of fish habitat, either functional or
547 theoretical, has the potential to improve management adaptation to long-term environmental
548 change.

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550

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810 **Table(s)**

Table 1. Generalized linear mixed model selection results based on AICc. Delta-AICc (Δ) values <2.0 and weight of evidence (ω) values > 0.99 , provided support for choosing the interaction model as the best alternative. A Chi-squared (χ^2) test of the random effects was conducted once the best model was chosen. Model details are described in the text.

<i>2017 Models:</i>	<u>K</u>	<u>AICc</u>	<u>Δ</u>	<u>ω</u>	<u>LL</u>
Interaction	6	1057	0.00	>0.99	-522.44
T + DO	5	1070	13.24	<0.0001	-530.12
DO	4	1073	16.15	<0.0001	-532.61
T	4	1170	113.4	<0.0001	-581.24
Interaction model test of random effects: $\chi^2 = 4.937$, d.f. = 1, p-value = 0.026					
<i>2018 Models:</i>					
Interaction	6	8068	0.00	>0.99	-4028.37
T + DO	5	8117	48.68	<0.0001	-4053.71
DO	4	8137	68.96	<0.0001	-4064.86
T	4	9079	1010.6	<0.0001	-4535.70
Interaction model test of random effects: $\chi^2 = 469.12$, d.f. = 1, p-value <0.001					

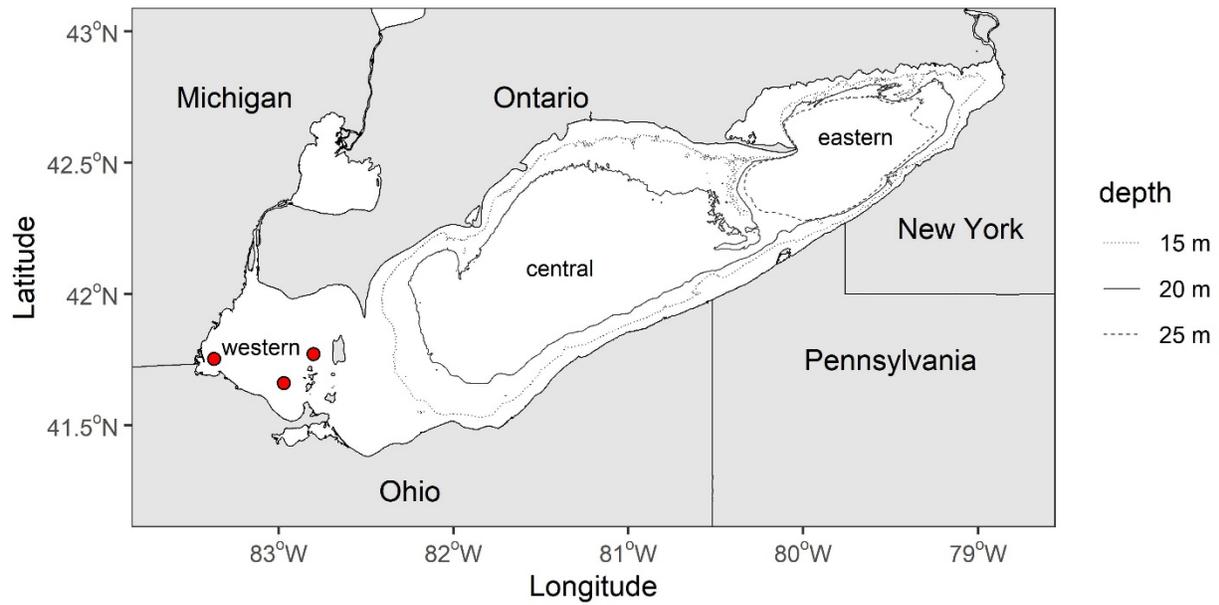
T = water temperature; DO = dissolved oxygen; K = number of fixed factors; LL = log-likelihood.

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814 **Figures**

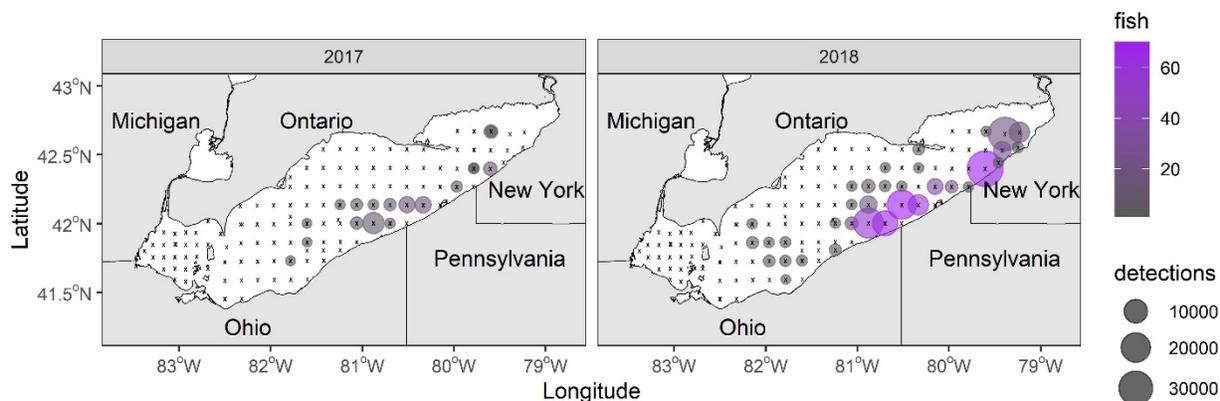


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816 **Figure 1.** Reference map of Lake Erie depicting US states and the province of Ontario (gray-
817 shaded land areas), important depth contours (see key), approximate locations of basin
818 subdivisions (annotated on the lake) and tagging locations for lake whitefish (red dots in the
819 western basin).

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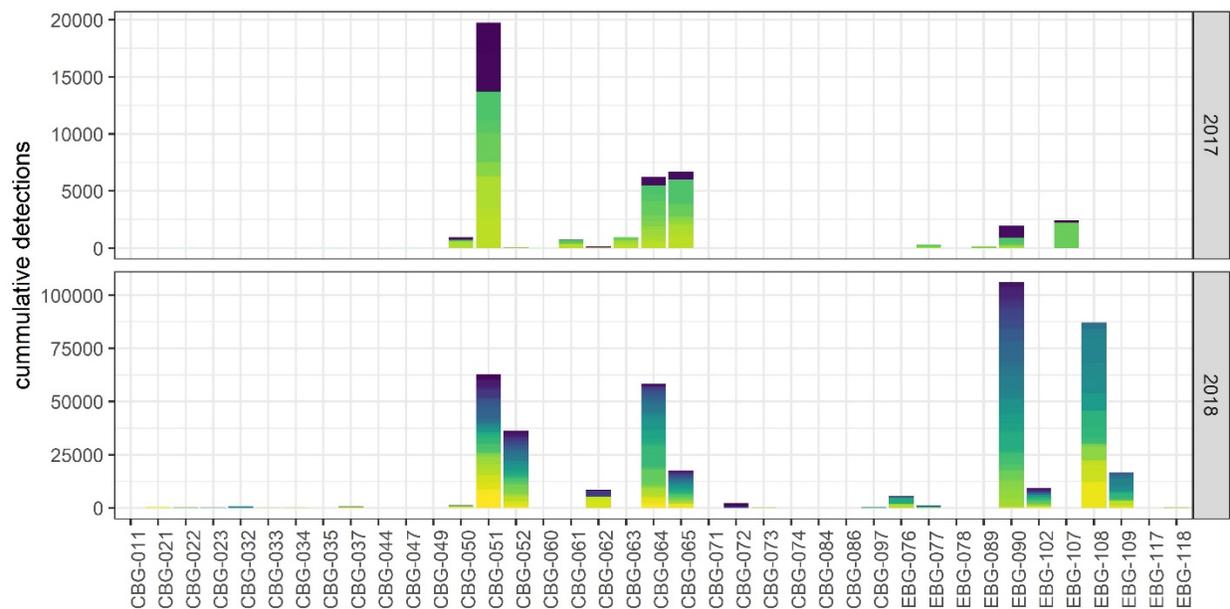


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823 **Figure 2.** Maps of acoustic telemetry receiver stations in Lake Erie. Stations at which lake
824 whitefish were detected during the months of July, August, and September are indicated by
825 circles that are sized according to the total number of detections and shaded according to how
826 many unique fish are represented by the detections. Receiver stations marked only with an x
827 were locations for which hypoxia model results were predicted but no fish tags were detected.

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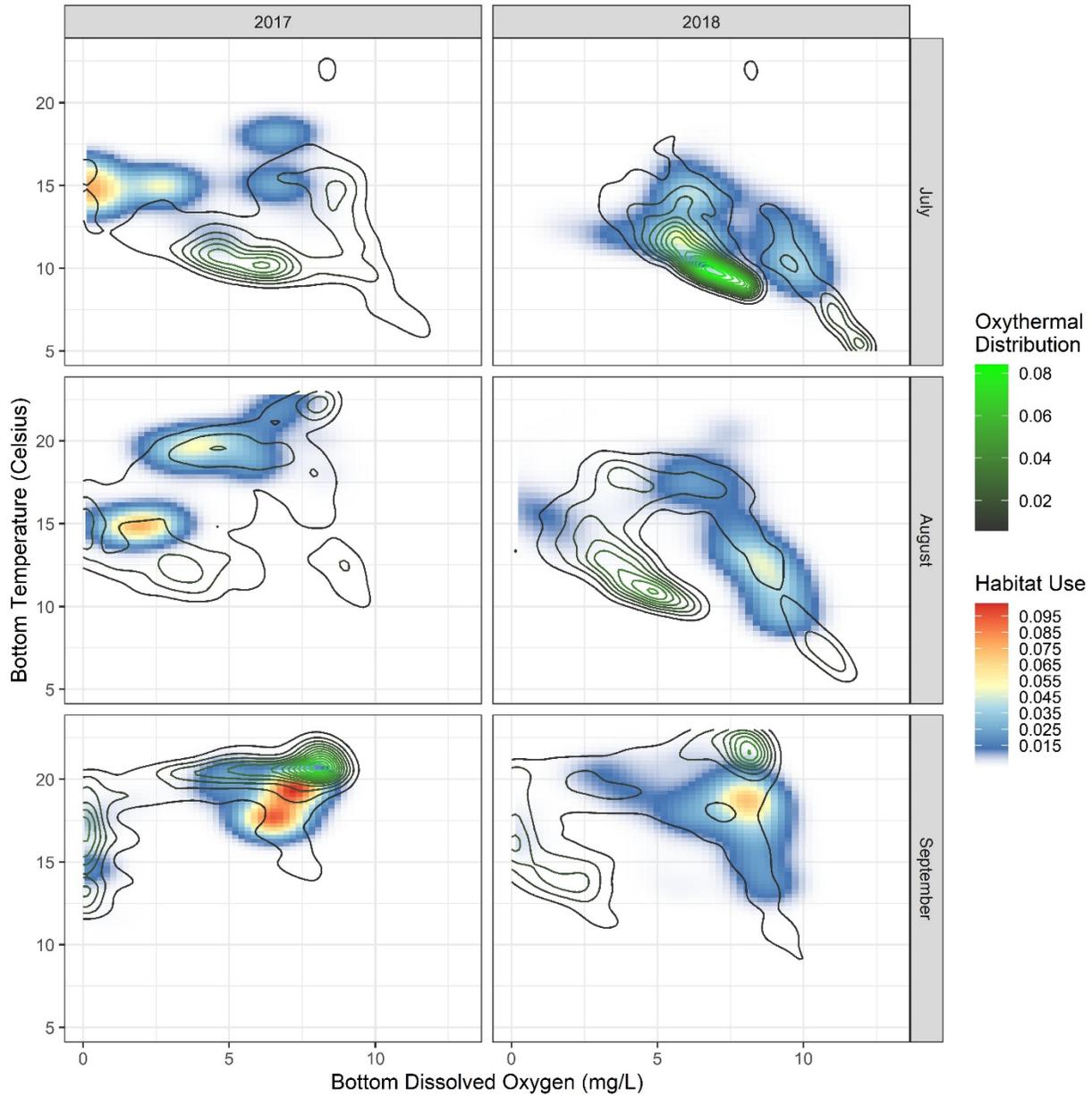
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831 **Figure 3.** Acoustic telemetry receiver stations (horizontal axis) at which tagged lake whitefish
832 were detected during months July, August, and September during 2017 and 2018. Total
833 detections are indicated by the height of the bars, while the contribution of individual fish is
834 indicated by each unique color (stacked). Note that vertical scaling is different between panels,
835 and coding of stations provides an index to the data files associated with this manuscript.

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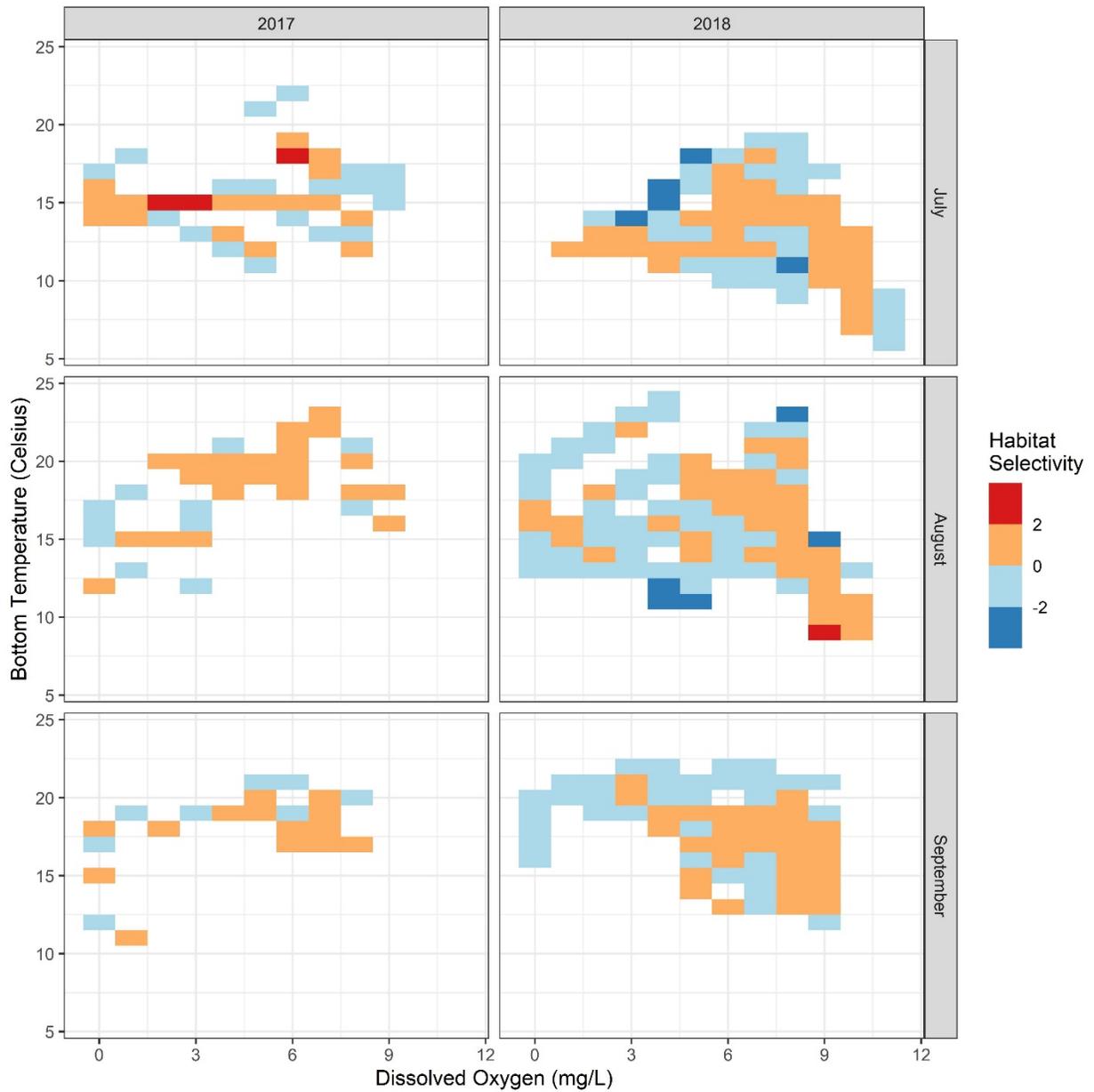
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840 **Figure 4.** Bivariate kernel density distributions of hypolimnetic temperature and dissolved
 841 oxygen estimated hourly at acoustic telemetry receivers during months July, August, and
 842 September of 2017 and 2018. Oxythermal conditions are depicted as green shaded contour lines,
 843 representing all observed values for the acoustic telemetry stations. Habitat use is depicted as a
 844 color gradient map of low (blue) to high (red) proportions of total detections that were indexed to
 845 temperature and oxygen values in the hypolimnion.

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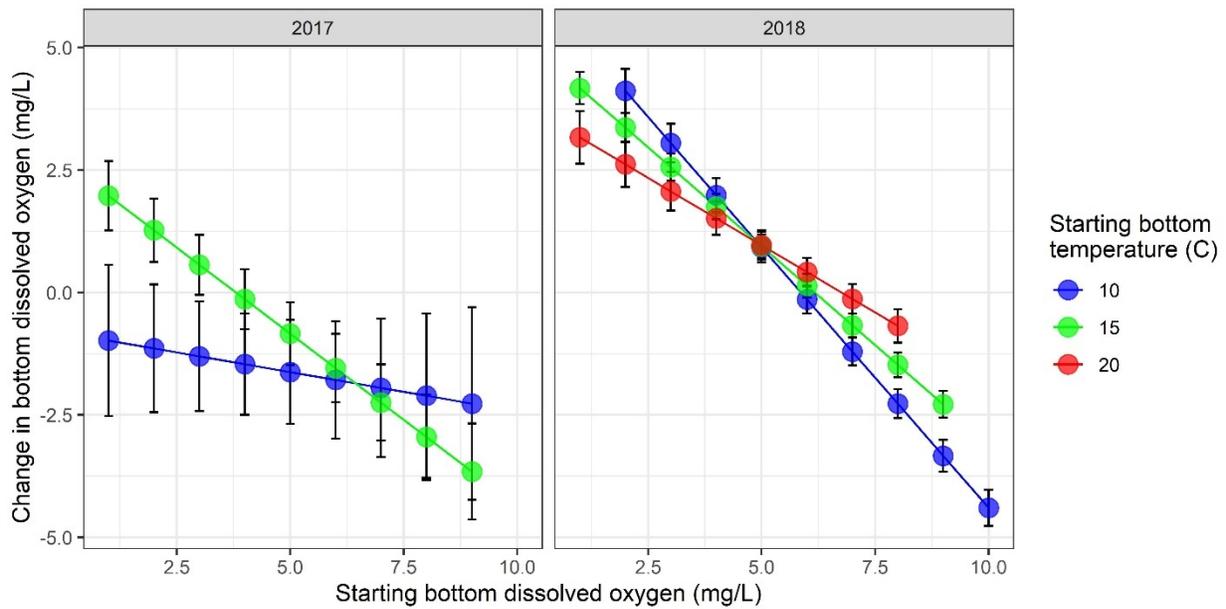
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850 **Figure 5.** Habitat selectivity indices of hypolimnetic conditions based upon where tagged lake
 851 whitefish were detected on passive acoustic telemetry receivers during July, August, and
 852 September in Lake Erie. High positive values (red) indicated strong habitat selection, and low
 853 negative values (blue) indicate avoidance of conditions. Calculation of the index is explained in
 854 the text.

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859 **Figure 6.** Movement of lake whitefish in Lake Erie expressed as change in hypolimnetic
860 dissolved oxygen on successive detections of acoustic tags on different receivers. Data were
861 modeled with a generalized linear mixed model as described in the text, and marginal means are
862 plotted with 95% confidence intervals for three temperature values according to initial dissolved
863 oxygen (covariate).