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Habitat suitability for oil and gas platformassociated fishes in Louisiana's nearshore waters

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ABSTRACT: River discharge and seasonal, eutrophication-driven hypoxia within coastal waters of the northern Gulf of Mexico create a wide range of environmental conditions for fishes. Environmental conditions are most dynamic on the Louisiana shelf, a region in which oil and gas platforms (hereafter platforms) are abundant and serve as artificial reefs. Platforms provide a unique, vertically oriented substrate for fouling organisms and nekton throughout the water column and often span substantial gradients of salinity, temperature, dissolved oxygen (DO), and water clarity. During the summers of 2013 and 2014, we used paired video and hydrographic samples taken at 150 small platforms sited in nearshore waters (3.7–18.0 m water depth) to document the responses of platform-associated fishes to coastal water quality. Responses of the 26 analyzed fish species included substantial changes in habitat selection coupled with vertical habitat compression. The vertical extent of the water column suitable for fishes was compressed due to avoidance of hypoxic bottom water (DO <50% saturation) and apparent avoidance of eutrophic surface strata with supersaturated oxygen conditions (140.7 \pm 7.0% saturation [95% CI]). Generalized linear mixed models, habitat suitability indices, and factor analysis suggested that fish habitat-selection patterns varied significantly in the presence of hypoxia by up to 10 salinity units, 10°C, 30 % DO saturation, 6 m water depth, and 4.5 m Secchi depth. The differences in intraspecific distributions occurring in the presence and absence of hypoxia were often greater than interspecies separations within comparisons. These findings demonstrate an important indirect effect of eutrophication-driven hypoxia on fishes.

KEY WORDS: Hypoxia · Habitat compression · Eutrophication · River-influenced ocean margins · Physicochemical fish responses · Artificial reefs

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1. INTRODUCTION

Eutrophication has been linked to the formation of extensive areas of recurring depleted bottom dissolved oxygen (DO) in a variety of aquatic habitats across the globe (Diaz & Rosenberg 2008). In general, systems that are eutrophic are highly productive aquatic ecosystems. However, excessive productivity coupled with stratification can cause bottom oxygen to be reduced to levels that lower habitat quality for marine life (hypoxia). When DO is reduced below the tolerance level of an organism, the organism must move or perish (Rabalais et al. 1991). The cumulative effects of eutrophication and hypoxia are, therefore, difficult to decipher. For example, although enhanced productivity in the surface waters of hypoxic zones (DO <2.0 mg l^{-1}) may lead to long-term increases in some pelagic fishes (Adamack et al. 2017, Glaspie et al. 2018), hypoxic bottom waters may also lead to long-term declines in some demersal fishes (Hondorp et al. 2010, Rose et al. 2018a,b).

Most of the world's largest hypoxic zones occur in enclosed and semi-enclosed basins (Diaz & Rosenberg 2008). Some of these systems are plaqued by persistent anoxia and hypoxia, such as the Baltic and Black Seas, while extensive hypoxia in other systems is seasonal and transient, such as Lake Erie, Chesapeake Bay, the Seto Inland Sea, the East China Sea, and the northern Gulf of Mexico (nGOM). Consequently, not all systems and their fauna respond to hypoxia in the same way at both the population and ecosystem level. Many of the systems affected by hypoxia, such as the Baltic Sea and Chesapeake Bay, have experienced dramatic changes in their demersal and pelagic fishes while other systems, such as the nGOM, have not shown significant declines in fisheries landings over recent decades (Chesney & Baltz 2001, Hondorp et al. 2010). Despite the different responses among these systems to eutrophication, effects on fishes and invertebrates are evident in all systems at some level. For example, hypoxia has been shown to affect the spatial distribution of fish and invertebrate populations (Craig & Crowder 2005, Langseth et al. 2014, Kraus et al. 2015) and this redistribution can make them more vulnerable to fishing gear (Kraus et al. 2015, Purcell et al. 2017). Spatial redistribution has the potential to indirectly affect organisms by increasing densities along hypoxic margins (Craig 2012, Craig & Bosman 2013, Kraus et al. 2015), by changing the community structure of fishes and invertebrates (Craig & Bosman 2013), by altering predator-prey dynamics (Taylor & Rand 2003, Costantini et al. 2008, Webster et al. 2015) and by altering the quality of habitat selected by marine organisms (Eby 2001, Craig & Crowder 2005, Zhang et al. 2014). Increased use of suboptimal environmental conditions for variables such as salinity, temperature, water depth, and DO can affect metabolism, growth or reproduction (Thomas et al. 2006) and might lead to population bottlenecks if access to suitable habitat is insufficient (Coutant 1985, Dieterich & Fulford 2012). Spatially explicit population studies coupled with water quality models have been used to better understand the complicated effects of eutrophication and hypoxia (Adamack et al. 2017). Increased understanding of the complex interactions involved in these types of models is important for integration of an ecosystem approach to fisheries management within eutrophic systems.

While systems around the world that are affected by low oxygen have many similarities, the nGOM has several attributes that stand out as unique. It is the world's only open-shelf system affected by eutrophication and hypoxia in a subtropical environment (Chesney & Baltz 2001). Coastal Louisiana is a deltaic landscape at the terminal drainage of the third largest watershed on Earth (Milliman & Meade 1983). Consequently, a mean annual discharge of 580 km³ (Milliman & Meade 1983) of fresh water drains into the nearshore waters off Louisiana's coast, resulting in estuarine conditions in the nearshore zone. Within the nearshore waters off Louisiana, salinity, temperature, turbidity, and nutrient distributions fluctuate in response to river discharge (Pokryfki & Randall 1987), winds (Rabalais et al. 1991), and currents (Wiseman et al. 1975, 1997) that influence the Mississippi and Atchafalaya river plumes, and their interactions with marine waters and bottom bathymetry (Hetland & Di-Marco 2008). River discharge typically peaks in early April (Turner & Rabalais 1991), and the inundation of nutrient-rich waters fuels intense phytoplankton blooms that co-occur with seasonal stratification of the water column and reduced shelf turnover (Cochrane & Kelly 1986). This stratification adds a vertical dimension to the existing lateral environmental gradients emanating from the river mouths. The water column can be dynamic, ranging from nearly fresh to fully marine, with temperature differences of several degrees (Wiseman et al. 1997), representing a substantial range of different habitat conditions for aquatic organisms like fishes.

The stratified, eutrophic conditions can cause depletion of DO in the lower water column during summer (Turner & Rabalais 1991, Justić et al. 1993, Rabalais et al. 2007). As a result, the seasonally recurring hypoxic zone of the nGOM is second in size only to the hypoxic zone of the Baltic Sea (Rabalais et al. 2002), with peak hypoxia typically forming by June and persisting through mid-September (Rabalais et al. 1991). Over several decades, the size of the hypoxic zone has grown in both area and total volume (Rabalais et al. 2002, Obenour et al. 2013) to a mean area of 16600 km² in recent years, with peaks $>22\,000$ km², and a 27 yr mean vertical extent of 3.9 m, with annual means as high as 6.2 and 6.3 m occurring in 2008 and 2009, respectively (Obenour et al. 2013). It is important to understand how hypoxia impacts fishes on the nearshore Louisiana shelf because coastal Louisiana supports many of the most highly productive US fisheries (Chesney et al. 2000), and eutrophication-driven hypoxia is increasing globally (Diaz & Rosenberg 2008, Breitburg et al. 2018).

Another distinctive feature of the Louisiana coastline is the multitude of oil and gas platforms (hereafter platforms) which extend from the bays and marshes seaward beyond the continental shelf. Platforms offer a unique opportunity to study the effects of hypoxia and how other physicochemical variables interact to influence fishes. In 2013 there were >2600 federally listed platforms in federal waters off Louisiana (BOEM 2018), as well as thousands of additional structures in state waters (Liu et al. 2018). These federal and state-regulated platforms are 'de facto artificial reefs' that provide hard substrate in a region that is otherwise dominated by soft sediments (Parker et al. 1983). Furthermore, many of these platforms are in areas where benthic hypoxia forms. A unique ecological service that platforms provide is vertical hard substrate that extends from the seafloor to above the sea surface. Platforms therefore serve as complementary features by providing vertical relief that extends into welloxygenated waters in a region where natural reefs are rare, and relief is low (Gallaway & Cole 1998).

While coastal migration to more suitably oxygenated waters is the only option for some fishes responding to hypoxia (Switzer et al. 2006, 2009, Keller et al. 2010), many demersal and pelagic species first move up in the water column where more suitable DO conditions exist (Rabalais et al. 2001, Stanley & Wilson 2004, Reeves et al. 2018b). Suitable conditions for platform-associated species can thus be found around platforms in areas that might be less suitable given inadequate vertical relief (Stanley & Wilson 2004, Reeves et al. 2017). Although many aspects of hypoxia have been well studied, coincident responses of fishes throughout the water column have received relatively little attention (Stanley & Wilson 2004, Ludsin et al. 2009, Vanderploeg et al. 2009, Reeves et al. 2018b). Impacts of hypoxia on pelagic species have also been understudied (Prince & Goodyear 2006, Vanderploeg et al. 2009, Zhang et al. 2009, 2014, Glaspie et al. 2018). More generally, fish responses to environmental variation in stratified waters have not been investigated outside of model simulations (Breitburg et al. 1999, Zhang et al. 2014). Given the dominant influence that physicochemical properties can play in driving estuarine fish distributions (Baltz et al. 1998), these are important considerations within dynamic aquatic environments like estuaries, enclosed and semi-enclosed seas, and river-influenced ocean margins, such as nearshore Louisiana. Assemblage compositions in these settings are likely to reflect interwoven distributions of individual species (Remmert 1983) or life stage tolerances to many variables within a complex environment (Livingston 1988, Baltz & Jones 2003). A compelling example of one such environment, the Gulf of Bothnia in the Baltic Sea, is described by Kautsky & Kautsky (2000, p.8), who write: 'A mix of freshwater and marine fish species such as perch, pike, cod and flounder can often be caught in the same net'. Lateral and vertical movement in aquatic settings like these in response to an environmental variable or prey distribution might result in a trade off by requiring a fish to accept less favorable conditions of other variables (Eby & Crowder 2002, Craig & Crowder 2005, Prince & Goodyear 2006). For example, a fish moving up in response to hypoxia, or displaced prey might find itself in significantly warmer waters than it would otherwise select (Prince & Goodyear 2006, Costantini et al. 2008, Zhang et al. 2014). Such an interaction could result in eventual movement away from the platform in search of more suitable habitat, or fishes may tolerate less favorable physical conditions and remain associated with the platform if other needs can be met.

The goal of this study was to examine the habitatselection patterns of platform-associated fishes for salinity, temperature, DO, water depth, and Secchi depth, and to compare patterns at platforms throughout the nearshore zone off coastal Louisiana. The regular presence of bottom-water hypoxia (DO <50%saturation or ~3.0–3.5 mg l⁻¹ across a wide range of observed salinities, temperatures, and pressures) throughout the study area presented a unique opportunity to evaluate the interactive effects of the vertical displacement of fishes in response to hypoxia, and habitat selection of other environmental variables. To our knowledge, this is the first study to evaluate habitat selection of fishes using a 3-dimensional approach that accounts for the vertical distributions of species occurring across the wide range of environmental variation associated with a stratified water column.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Field sampling

Platforms were sampled along Louisiana's coast from Mississippi to Texas in waters 3.7–18 m deep using a modified-random strategy (Fig. 1). Platforms were selected using the Bureau of Ocean Energy Management (BOEM) platform information and United States Geological Survey (USGS) datasets to sample evenly across known sources of variability (distance to shore, depth, dominant sediment type, platform complexity, date of deployment, and prox-

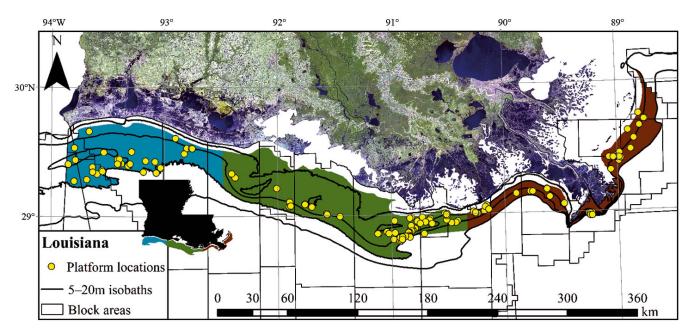


Fig. 1. Chart of the coastal zone off Louisiana. Yellow circles show the locations of all small platforms included in analyses (n = 150). The brown, green, and blue areas show the extent of the East, Central, and West regions referenced in the text

imity to other platforms). Sampling occurred during day trips aboard a small vessel and included 14 trips between 12 July and 6 September of 2013 and 14 trips from 2 July to 12 September of 2014.

The camera array consisted of a triangular-shaped aluminum frame with 3 outward-facing and 1 downward-facing synchronized GoPro Hero 3 cameras mounted to the underside of a PVC plate attached to the upper part of the frame. The array was lowered vertically (mean rate of $0.23 \pm 0.02 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ [95 % CI]) on the down-current side near each platform and left on the bottom for 90 s. The array was not baited and had no supplemental lighting. The 3 outward-facing cameras were mounted at 120° from one another to provide a circular and non-overlapping field of view. Two forward-facing lasers spaced 10 cm apart were mounted on either side of the camera that was oriented toward the platform. The downward-facing camera was centrally mounted and used to record fishes swimming under the array, to record a depth gauge, and to provide benthic substrate images. Each camera had a 62° (horizontal) $\times 36^{\circ}$ (vertical) field of view, and recorded images at 30 frames s^{-1} . Following array retrieval, salinity, temperature, depth, DO, turbidity, and Secchi depth were collected using a YSI model 6820 V2 water quality sonde (hereafter YSI) and a 20 cm Secchi disk. YSI measurements were taken every 2 s, within ~0.2 m of the surface and the bottom.

2.2. Video processing

Videos of the fish assemblages were determined to be adequate for analyses if the submerged platform structure (the 'jacket') was in view (mean distance of 3.0 ± 0.2 m [95% CI]). This standard was adequate for the purposes of this study due to the strong association of most fishes with the platforms, and the small footprint of the platforms we targeted. The fish assemblages were concentrated around the small nearshore platforms, and were more conducive to video-based sampling than prior studies on larger structures reported (Scarborough Bull & Kendell 1994). Video and water quality data from 150 unique platform locations were used for analyzing fish assemblages. Of these 150 samples, 65 were obtained in 2013, and 85 were obtained in 2014. Furthermore, 84 of these samples were recorded in the absence of hypoxia while 66 were recorded in the presence of hypoxia (bottom DO < 50% saturation).

Videos were analyzed to estimate the minimum number of individuals present for each species (MAXNO) and to generate relative abundance estimates for the assemblages at each platform (Ellis & DeMartini 1995). This approach precluded double counting by using the maximum number of each species simultaneously recorded on video as an index of abundance (Priede et al. 1994, Willis & Babcock 2000, Wells & Cowan 2007). Since there was potential for overlapping fields of view of the downward-facing camera with the outward-facing cameras, MAXNOs were compiled separately, and the higher of the 2 estimates for each species were used.

Of the 150 platforms analyzed, 37 were recorded with a single outward-facing camera and a synchronized downward-facing camera rather than the full array of 4 cameras. In these videos, the outwardfacing camera maintained a view of the submerged structure. Disparities in water volume sampled occurring between camera array configurations, as well as due to variation in water clarity, were accounted for with a covariate (effort). Midwater turbidity was multiplied by the number of outward-facing cameras and standardized relative to the lowest value encountered, effectively down-weighting counts at platforms that sampled a larger volume of water. Estimates of species richness, Shannon-Wiener diversity, and assemblage composition did not significantly differ between the 2 camera array configurations when effort was accounted for (Munnelly 2016).

2.3. Habitat suitability analyses

Habitat suitability reflects habitat use relative to habitat availability (Bovee 1982). This information can be used to characterize patterns of habitat selection, or resource use, and species-specific environmental responses (Baltz 1990, Switzer et al. 2009). Additionally, this information can be used to evaluate potential shifts in patterns of habitat use by fishes in response to physicochemical variables, including DO (i.e. hypoxia; Switzer et al. 2009, 2015). We chose a 50% DO saturation level instead of the 2.0 mg l^{-1} threshold typically used when defining hypoxia in aquatic environments (Breitburg 2002, Eby & Crowder 2002, Vaguer-Sunyer & Duarte 2008). We chose this standard because many fishes exhibit sub-lethal reactions, such as increased ventilation rates and decreased growth around 50% DO saturation (Breitburg 2002 and references therein), and avoid these conditions when possible (Howell & Simpson 1994, Eby & Crowder 2002, Vanderploeg et al. 2009).

Because of the complex structure of the water column around platforms, salinity, temperature, and DO were plotted by depth for all hydrographic profiles, and all major and minor haloclines, thermoclines, and oxyclines were identified (Fig. 2). This approach partitioned the water column into 2 to 8 distinct layers of varying vertical extent (strata) at each platform for 684 total strata among the 150 platforms analyzed. Environmental variation within each stratum was minimal and so a single point was used to characterize the conditions occurring throughout its vertical extent. Frequency distributions of the summed extent of all water-column strata (in vertical meters) falling within the assigned ranges were created for salinity, temperature, DO, water depth, and Secchi depth to account for both lateral and vertical gradients and represent the habitat availability associated with each variable in 3 dimensions.

At platforms, species distributions often occurred across multiple vertical strata. In order to account for this and to determine how fishes were distributed over the larger environmental gradients occurring across all 684 strata, patterns of habitat use were described by weighted occurrences based on the relative abundance estimates of fishes at each platform (MAXNOs). Since MAXNO estimates could not be made for each individual stratum without potentially double counting individuals, proportional use was assumed for all strata in a water column, excluding strata that were clearly being avoided. Proportional MAXNOs were calculated by multiplying the MAXNOs by the fraction of the water column represented by each stratum not being avoided. Speciesspecific habitat use for each variable was represented by frequency distributions of the summed extent of all occupied strata (m). This approach provided a conservative microhabitat description (Baltz et al. 1993, Hurlbert 1981) of species-specific habitat suitability within a compressed water column that reflected weighted use patterns and described species responses along each environmental gradient.

This information was incorporated into a community microhabitat analysis evaluating the responses of the 26 species that were reliably detected and identified on video (all species with >10 observations and occurring at >5 platforms, see Supplement 1 at www. int-res.com/articles/suppl/m608p199_supp/). Factor analysis was used to resolve 6 variables into 4 factors. The variables included in the analysis were: salinity, temperature, DO, Secchi depth, water depth, and the extent of habitat compression (based on the number of vertical meters of the water column that fishes were not avoiding). A varimax rotation was used to scale orthogonal, multivariate factors relative to one another and to create a 3-dimensional environmental space useful for comparing patterns in the species-specific distributions relative to water quality. Factor centroids were weighted by abundances for 26 species each in the presence and absence of hypoxia. Centroids were plotted as bubbles representing 2 SE radii around the centroid means. Non-overlapping error bubbles suggested significant differences in habitat selection

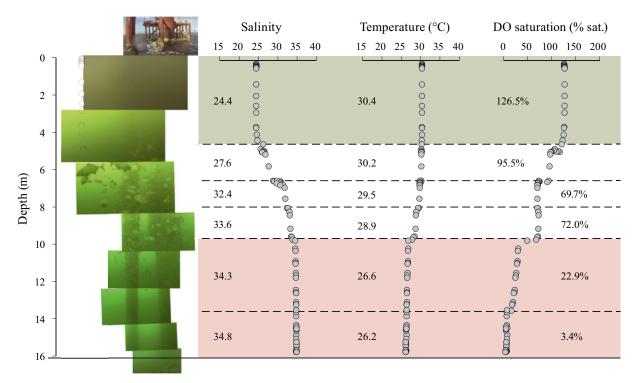


Fig. 2. Scaled photo-collage reconstruction of the submerged structure of platform ST 21-GC, recorded 20 August 2014. Plotted to the right are continuous salinity, temperature and DO profiles by depth relative to vertical fish distributions. Grey circles show individual YSI water quality sonde readings. Dashed lines indicate partitioned layers of the water column within which environmental readings were assumed constant in the analyses. Pink and green shading indicate layers of avoidance, while unshaded layers were used by fishes. Note: fishes present in images within the shaded layers were following the camera array. See Video S1 in Supplement 2 at www.int-res.com/articles/suppl/m608p199_supp/

among fishes in the presence and absence of hypoxia. In addition, the position of the weighted centroid means indicated the ways in which fish distributions varied with regard to the 6 physicochemical variables included in the 4 factors.

Habitat suitability indices (HSIs) were plotted for the 11 species that together composed >96% of the total number of fishes observed: Atlantic bumper Chloroscombrus chrysurus (~56%), Atlantic spadefish Chaetodipterus faber (~18%), blue runner Caranx crysos (~9%), bluefish Pomatomus saltatrix (~4%), sheepshead Archosargus probatocephalus (~3%), gray snapper Lutjanus griseus (~2%), sergeant major Abudefduf saxatilis (~1%), Bermuda chub Kyphosus sectatrix (<1%), young-of-the-year (YOY) greater amberjack Seriola dumerili (<1%), gray triggerfish Balistes capriscus (<1%), and adult red snapper Lutjanus campechanus (<1%). Suitability plots were constructed for each of 5 environmental gradients (salinity, temperature, DO, Secchi depth, and water depth) in the presence and absence of hypoxia. Also indicated within each plot is the overall suitability calculated for fishes in the presence and absence of hypoxia. Habitat suitability (S) was calculated within

each interval of the smoothest possible habitat availability frequency curve following: S = P(E | F) / P(E). *P* is the probability of a value of an environmental variable, *E*, given the presence of fish, *F*, in that interval, and *P*(*E*) is the probability of a value of an environmental variable in that interval regardless of the presence of fish. The terms P(E | F) and P(E) represent the relative frequency distributions of fish occurrence and of environmental conditions for all samples, respectively (Baltz 1990). Raw suitability was normalized to 1 by dividing each interval value by the greatest suitability value for a given distribution.

2.4. Statistical models

We tested for significant shifts ($\alpha = 0.10$) in habitat suitability during the presence and absence of hypoxia using generalized linear mixed models (GLMMs) following Switzer et al. (2015). Combining GLMMs and HSI provides an analysis that indicates environmental drivers of fish habitat selection and describes the magnitude of variation between habitat selection comparisons. The response variable was the MAXNO-derived relative abundance of each species, fit as lognormal distributions. Explanatory variables were fixed effects for hypoxia (presence vs. absence) and year (2013 vs. 2014), and continuous variables for salinity, temperature, DO, depth, and Secchi depth, and first-order interactions among all the continuous environmental variables and the presence of hypoxia. We also used a covariate to adjust for effort (SAS 9.4 Proc GLIMMIX). Sites were designated as repeated measures subjects to account for the clustered structure of the data (Breslow & Day 1980) and to preclude pseudo-replication (Hurlbert 1984). Additionally, denominator degrees of freedom were conservatively downscaled by fixing them at 126 for each term in the model, despite the repeated blocking structure. All other assumptions were met, and there was no indication of multicollinearity among environmental variables.

The extent of habitat compression from avoidance of the bottom-water hypoxic and surface strata was evaluated regionally at all hypoxic sites, including sites where videos were not used in analyses do to inadequate visibility (n = 131 of 343 water quality profiles) across the entire Louisiana coast for areas designated as East, Central, and West nearshore regions

(Fig. 1), by dominant sediment types of sand (majority composition $\geq 63 \, \mu m$) or mud (majority composition $<63 \mu m$), and by year (2013 and 2014). Regional and sediment type comparisons were based on Munnelly (2016), and sediment composition data was from IN-STAAR (2011). A 3-way ANCOVA compared region, dominant sediment type, and year ($\alpha = 0.05$), and included first-order interactions, and a covariate for depth, fit as a negative binomial distribution (SAS 9.4 Proc GLIMMIX). Tukey-Kramer post hoc adjustments were used for comparing significant interactions.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Observations

Video and diver observations suggested that fishes avoided water with low and high DO concentrations. All fishes observed near small platforms in nearshore Louisiana waters generally avoided strata with DO <50% saturation, which occurred at 64 platforms. Included among these fishes were the small, cryptic species or early life stages that we regularly observed while diving (see Munnelly 2016 for a complete list). Additionally, fishes avoided surface strata $(3.5 \pm 0.3 \text{ m})$ thickness; means \pm 95% CI) of 46 of the platforms that were often turbid $(1.6 \pm 0.2 \text{ m Secchi depth})$ and DO supersaturated, or hyperoxic $(140.7 \pm 7.0\% \text{ satu-})$ ration). Fish distributions were, therefore, often compressed into midwater strata. Under low-DO conditions, YOY lane snapper Lutjanus synagris and L. campechanus were regularly displaced from their strong association with the bottom to a strong association with the platform jacket higher in the water column (Fig. 3D, Video S2). Similarly, southern stingray Dasyatis americana, red drum Sciaenops ocellatus, and black drum Pogonias cromis were observed as high as 4.7, 3.7, and 3.7 m, respectively, off the bottom and into waters ≥50% DO saturation when low-DO bottom conditions were present. Conversely, species with strong associations with the more structurally complex platform features near the surface, including Kyphosus sectatrix and Abudefduf saxatilis, also moved down in the water column to depths immediately underlying surface strata. Fishes, in-

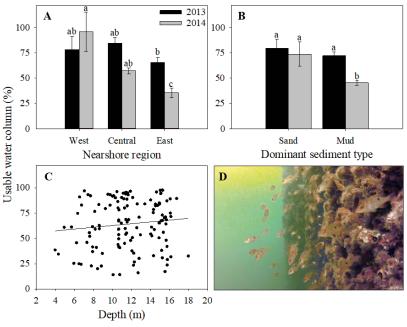


Fig. 3. Comparisons of the vertical extent of the fraction of the nearshore water column used by fishes for (A) all hypoxic sites (n = 131). Comparisons across nearshore Louisiana included significant effects of region (West, Central, and East); (B) dominant sediment type (sand or mud), year (2013 and 2014; A,B); and (C) depth. Bars represent 1 SE, and significant differences occurred between groups not sharing a letter. (D) Video frame showing young-of-the-year red and lane snapper up in the water column at nearshore platform SS 93-66 in response to hypoxic bottom conditions on August 21, 2014. The snapper were feeding in the current. See Video S2 in Supplement 2

(n in parentheses). See Supplement 1 for full species names. Analyses were based on 684 water column layers at 150 platforms. Hypoxia is defined as bottom dissolved oxy-gen (DO) <50% saturation (n = 64). Denominator degrees of freedom were fixed at 126 for all analyses. \bullet indicates significance of *F*-ratios at $\alpha = 0.10$ for variable × hypoxia Table 1. Generalized linear mixed model results for the physicochemical responses of the 11 dominant species comprising the nearshore Louisiana platform fish assemblage

cluding Archosargus probatocephalus and L. griseus, were occasionally observed entering strata with <50% saturation but these fishes were usually alone and MAXNOs were never obtained from strata with DO <50% saturation.

3.2. Habitat compression

The extent of habitat compression associated with the avoidance of hypoxia and surface strata varied significantly across nearshore Louisiana by region ($F_{2,122} = 6.64$, p = 0.002), dominant sediment type ($F_{1,122} = 5.01$, p = 0.027), year ($F_{1,122} = 12.15$, p < 0.001), and depth ($F_{1,122} = 27.37$, p < 0.001), and there was a significant region × year interaction ($F_{2,122} = 9.47$, p < 0.001), and a significant dominant sediment type × year interaction ($F_{1,122} = 6.21$, p = 0.014). Habitat compression was greater in 2014 than 2013, particularly in the East region (Fig. 3A; see Fig. 1 for regional boundaries), and greater over muddy sediments than over sand (Fig. 3B). In both years, there was a trend of decreasing habitat compression from east to west (Fig. 3A) and as water depth increased (Fig. 3C).

When habitat use was restricted due to avoidance of surface strata and DO-depleted bottom waters, GLMMs identified the physicochemical variables that fishes responded to, after accounting for year and effort (Table 1). Significant interaction terms involving hypoxia and other environmental variables indicated shifts in habitat use in the presence of hypoxia. Interactions between hypoxia and at least 1 other environmental variable significantly influenced the distributions of the 11 most abundant species.

3.3. Microhabitat factor analysis and habitat suitability indices

The factor analysis resolved 6 variables into 4 factors that together explained 90.72% of the environmental variation (Table 2). Factor 1 included increasing DO and decreasing salinity, which typified the upper water column strata. Factor 2 included increasing Secchi depth and increasing temperature, which most often reflected increasing distance from the Mississippi and Atchafalaya river deltas. Factor 3 was simply increasing depth, and Factor 4 was simply increasing habitat compression due to bottom-hypoxia and surface-strata avoidance. Factors 3 and 4 had identical eigenvalues and are interchangeable for interpretations when plotted against Factors 1 and 2 in 3 dimensions, explaining a cumulative 72.72% of the

	`	7		(- - -						p	
Environmental variable	-	Chrysurus (17 261)	s C. raber C. crys (5418) (2605)	C. crysos . (2605)	P. saltatrix A (1240)	C. chrysurus C. taber U. crysos P. saltatrix A. probatocephalus L. griseus A. saxatilis K. sectatrix S. dumenli B. capriscus L. campechanus (17 261) (5418) (2605) (1240) (840) (708) (414) (295) (263) (254) (254) (252)	L. griseus (708)	A. saxatilis (414)	K. sectatrix (295)	S. dumerili (263)	B. capriscus (254)	L. campechanus (252)
Salinity	F	0.02	8.78	0.00	2.00	4.23	0.48	8.78	04.02	0.81	0.25	0.31
	d	0.881	0.004	0.956	0.160	0.042	0.492	0.004	0.047	0.371	0.620	0.580
Temp	Н	1.09	3.26	0.01	1.50	03.01	0.02	3.26	1.53	0.31	2.19	0.32
	d	0.299	0.074	0.907	0.222	0.085	0.876	0.074	0.219	0.576	0.141	0.575
DO	Н	0.02	1.13	0.02	0.00	0.23	0.72	1.13	0.13	0.00	0.86	0.91
	d	0.875	0.074	0.875	0.972	0.635	0.398	0.290	0.721	0.982	0.356	0.342
Depth	Ч	8.43	3.88	0.26	1.73	8.39	1.13	3.88	1.64	14.85	4.01	0.00
	d	0.004	0.290	0.614	0.191	0.005	0.290	0.051	0.203	< 0.001	0.048	0.980
Secchi	F	7.16	3.41	0.12	0.06	0.00	0.49	3.41	0.37	1.31	0.70	16.71
	d	0.008	0.067	0.727	0.810	0.981	0.486	0.067	0.542	0.254	0.406	< 0.001
Hypoxia	F	12.42	0.00	0.55	0.13	0.92	5.67	0.00	0.82	5.60	0.24	3.87
	d	0.001	0.981	0.461	0.718	0.339	0.019	0.981	0.367	0.020	0.626	0.051

(continued)
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Table

3 333 16.11 2.98 1.14 27.28 25.28 16.11 12.07 ~ 0001 $\circ 0001$ $\circ 0081$ $\circ 0286$ $\circ 0206$ $\circ 0201$ $\circ 0001$ <	Environmental variable		C. chrysurus C. faber C. crysos (17261) (5418) (2605)	: <i>C. faber</i> (5418)	1 1	P. saltatrix A. (1240)	P. saltatrix A. probatocephalus L. griseus (1240) (840) (708)	us L. griseus (708)	1 1	A. saxatilis K. sectatrix (414) (295)	S. dumerili (263)	B. capriscus . (254)	capriscus L. campechanus (254) (252)
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Year	P P	33.33 < 0.001	16.11 < 0.001	2.98 0.087	$1.14 \\ 0.288$	27.28 < 0.001	25.28 <0.001	16.11 <0.001	12.07 0.001	$2.25 \\ 0.136$	6.22 0.014	3.42 0.067
F 0.28 5.18 0.05 0.112 1.32 0.339 0.025 0.019 F 0.38 1.60 0.75 0.025 0.829 0.221 0.011 1.60 0.055 0.019 F 0.08 1.60 0.75 0.023 0.292 0.025 0.023 0.025 0.023 0.026 0.013 0.025 0.010 0.025 0.010 0.025 0.013 0.025 0.013 0.025 0.013 0.025 0.013 0.025 0.013 0.025 0.013 0.025 0.023 0.013	Effort	ц	0.98 0.324	0.09 0.762	1.25 0.266	0.79 0.376	3.94 0.049	8.46 0.004	0.09 0.762	0.03 0.856	2.08 0.152	0.09 0.770	7.49 0.007
F 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.037 0.238 0.001 0.013 0.003 0.003 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.004 0.003 0.014 0.003 0.014 0.003 0.014 0.003 0.014	Salinity × Temp	L LL C	0.28 0.500	5.18	0.05 0.820	01.12	1.32	0.38	5.18 0.025	5.63 0.010	2.28	0.17 0.683	0.36
F 0.58 1.4.50 0.28 1.1.2 9.40 0.57 14.50 2.30 1 F 0.09 9.81 0.85 0.291 0.003 0.452 <0.001	Salinity \times DO	д Ц Q	0.08 0.775	0.020 1.60 0.208	0.75	0.02 0.901	0.739 0.739	01.12	0.208 0.208 0.208	0.05 0.823	0.360 0.560	0.06 0.813	0.16
	Salinity × Depth	d H d	0.58 0.446	14.50 < 0.001	0.28 0.595	1.12 0.291	9.40 0.003	0.57 0.452	14.50 <0.001	2.30 0.132	15.23 <0.001	0.04 0.837	0.23 0.635
	Salinity \times Secchi	, ц d	4.09 0.045	9.81 0.002	0.82 0.367	5.69 0.019	4.43 0.037	0.38 0.536	9.81 0.002	0.05 0.826	0.05 0.825	$0.74 \\ 0.392$	0.03 0.863
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	Temp ×DO	ь ч	$0.16 \\ 0.693$	1.43 0.235	$0.01 \\ 0.940$	0.06 0.807	0.16 0.685	$\begin{array}{c} 1.54 \\ 0.217 \end{array}$	1.43 0.235	0.00 0.959	0.07 0.790	0.59 0.443	0.54 0.465
F 9.41 0.05 0.23 0.11 4.44 0.68 0.05 1.10 P 0.003 0.818 0.633 0.741 0.037 0.611 0.818 0.295 F 0.06 9.59 0.87 0.51 0.037 0.112 0.818 0.235 F 0.06 9.59 0.87 0.51 0.347 0.120 0.369 2.45 9.59 2.19 F 2.42 15.93 0.71 1.75 15.65 0.25 15.93 0.712 P 2.42 15.93 0.71 1.75 15.65 0.25 15.93 0.742 P 0.122 <0.001 0.400 0.188 <0.001 0.776 0.776 P 0.77 0.99 0.15 0.302 0.136 0.776 P 0.77 0.99 0.166 0.96 0.016 0.777 0.786 0.776 P 0.382 0.336	Temp × Depth	P D	$11.25 \\ 0.001$	0.45 0.503	$0.36 \\ 0.549$	$1.64 \\ 0.203$	4.92 0.028	0.65 0.421	0.45 0.503	$0.50 \\ 0.480$	9.91 0.002	8.22 0.005	0.42 0.519
F 0.06 9.59 0.87 0.51 0.89 0.476 0.347 0.120 0.002 0.142 F 2.42 15.93 0.711 1.75 15.65 0.25 15.93 0.07 F 2.42 15.93 0.711 1.75 15.65 0.25 15.93 0.07 F 1990 1.166 0.966 10.166 0.966 10.166 0.930 0.016 0.250 15.93 0.07 P 1990 1.66 0.966 10.166 0.022 0.0016 0.255 10.786 0.279 P 0.0122 <0.001 0.200 0.0330 0.002 0.016 0.072 0.200 0.786 P <0.001 0.200 0.330 0.002 0.016 0.072 0.200 0.668 P <0.001 0.200 0.0330 0.015 0.002 0.016 0.072 0.200 0.608 P <0.001 0.212 0.020 0.032 0.020 0.072 0.226 0.233 0.303 P <0.001 0.212 0.233 0.071 0.052 0.200 0.608 0.303 P <0.001 0.212 0.033 0.012 0.033 0.012 0.033 0.012 0.033 0.012 0.033 0.012 0.033 0.012 0.033 0.012 0.033 0.012 0.033 0.012 0.033 0.012 0.012 0.012 0	Temp × Secchi	Чd	$9.41 \\ 0.003$	0.05 0.818	0.23 0.633	$0.11 \\ 0.741$	4.44 0.037	0.68 0.411	$0.05 \\ 0.818$	$1.10 \\ 0.295$	2.02 0.158	7.00 0.009	25.70 <0.001
F 2.4215.930.711.7515.650.2515.930.07 P 0.122<00010.4000.188<00010.615<00010.786 F 19:901.660.9610.165.983.841.660.27 P <0.0110.2000.3300.0020.016 0.615 <00010.786 P <0.0010.2000.3300.0020.016 0.615 <001 0.786 P <0.0110.2000.3300.0020.016 0.052 0.200 0.608 P <0.770.990.1570.302 0.177 0.136 0.323 0.303 P <0.382 0.323 0.701 0.585 0.177 0.136 0.323 0.303 P <0.001 0.212 0.635 0.328 0.177 0.136 0.323 0.303 P <0.001 0.212 0.635 0.328 0.779 0.136 0.323 0.303 P <0.001 0.212 0.635 0.328 0.779 0.136 0.323 0.303 P <0.001 0.212 0.635 0.328 0.779 0.177 0.136 0.303 P <0.005 0.039 0.635 0.328 0.718 0.039 0.186 P <0.005 0.039 0.036 0.032 0.077 0.06 4.04° P <0.003 0.012 0.039 0.055 0.728	DO ×Depth	Чd	0.06 0.807	9.59 0.002	0.87 0.353	$\begin{array}{c} 0.51 \\ 0.476 \end{array}$	0.89 0.347	2.45 0.120	$9.59 \\ 0.002$	$2.19 \\ 0.142$	$0.16 \\ 0.694$	0.73 0.395	0.09 0.767
F 19.90 1.66 0.96 10.16 5.98 3.84 1.66 0.27 p <0.001	DO × Secchi	Ч	2.42 0.122	15.93 < 0.001	$0.71 \\ 0.400$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.75\\ 0.188\end{array}$	15.65 <0.001	$0.25 \\ 0.615$	15.93 <0.001	0.07 0.786	$\begin{array}{c} 1.54 \\ 0.216 \end{array}$	7.27 0.008	6.78 0.010
a 0.77 0.99 0.15 0.30 1.85 2.25 0.99 1.07 p 0.382 0.323 0.701 0.585 0.177 0.136 0.323 0.303 F 25.89^{*} 1.57 0.233 0.701 0.585 0.177 0.136 0.323 0.303 P <0.001 0.212 0.635 0.328 0.779 0.003 0.212 0.550 F 8.05^{*} 4.34^{*} 0.033 0.311 2.48 1.77 4.34^{*} 1.77 p 0.0055 0.033 0.311 2.48 1.77 4.34^{*} 1.77 p 0.0055 0.331 2.48 1.77 4.34^{*} 1.77 p 0.0055 0.331 2.48 1.77 4.34^{*} 1.77 p 0.0055 0.336 0.336 0.339 0.032 0.0077 0.066 0.047^{*}	$Depth \times Secchi$	Цd	19.90 < 0.001	1.66 0.200	0.96 0.330	10.16 0.002	5.98 0.016	3.84 0.052	1.66 0.200	0.27 0.608	0.13 0.723	2.80 0.097	3.90 0.051
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Salinity × Hypoxia		0.77 0.382	0.99 0.323	$0.15 \\ 0.701$	$0.30 \\ 0.585$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.85\\ 0.177\end{array}$	2.25 0.136	0.99 0.323	1.07 0.303	7.70* 0.006	3.90*0.051	3.43* 0.067
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Temp × Hypoxia	P P	25.89* < 0.001	1.57 0.212	0.23 0.635	0.96 0.328	0.08 0.779	9.09* 0.003	$1.57\\0.212$	0.36 0.550	3.74^{*} 0.055	0.76 0.385	0.80 0.373
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	DO × Hypoxia	Чd	8.05* 0.005	4.34^{*} 0.039	0.03 0.861	$\begin{array}{c} 0.31 \\ 0.577 \end{array}$	2.48 0.118	$\begin{array}{c} 1.77\\ 0.185\end{array}$	4.34^{*} 0.039	$\begin{array}{c} 1.77\\ 0.186\end{array}$	$1.92 \\ 0.168$	7.70* 0.006	4.31^{*} 0.040
F 9.26* 6.44* 4.35* 8.38* 0.65 25.14* 6.44* 0.17 p 0.003 0.012 0.039 0.005 0.423 <0.011 0.012 0.680	Depth imes Hypoxia	Ъd	0.56 0.455	0.06 0.808	11.39* 0.001	$0.36 \\ 0.552$	4.70* 0.032	0.07 0.787	0.06 0.808	4.04* 0.047	$2.00 \\ 0.160$	$2.44 \\ 0.121$	3.43* 0.067
	Secchi × Hypoxia	Ъ	9.26^{*} 0.003	6.44^{*} 0.012	4.35*0.039	8.38* 0.005	0.65 0.423	25.14* <0.001	6.44* 0.012	0.17 0.680	1.05 0.307	4.15*0.044	6.58* 0.012

Table 2. Rotated factor loadings of 6 variables. The sign of each loading indicates whether variables are increasing or decreasing, while the magnitude indicates the strength of contribution to each factor. Underlines indicate the loadings used to guide interpretations about the system as described by these variables. var. expl.: variance explained

Environmental variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
DO	0.91	-0.06	0.07	-0.26
Salinity	- <u>0.87</u>	-0.11	0.21	-0.22
Secchi	-0.22	0.86	0.06	-0.34
Temperature	0.48	<u>0.78</u>	-0.23	0.05
Depth	-0.08	-0.06	0.94	0.25
Compression	-0.04	-0.21	0.30	<u>0.89</u>
Eigenvalue	1.86	1.42	1.08	1.08
Percent of var. expl.	31.05	23.67	18.00	18.00
Cumulative var. expl.	31.05	54.72	72.72	90.72

total variance (Fig. 4). Most species distributions occurred in significantly different physicochemical conditions when compared at platforms in waters above and below 50% DO saturation. For many fishes, habitat shifts due to hypoxia were greater within species than were interspecific differences at platforms in waters above or below 50% DO saturation. The general trend for most species was an increased loading on factors 1, 3, and 4 in the presence of hypoxia. Thus, in general, the fish assemblages selected fresher, more highly oxygenated waters, in addition to occupying waters with a greater water depth as habitat compression increased. These shifts were, however, species specific, and the change in the centers of abundance relative to one another suggested that assemblage-level shifts in community structure occurred between comparisons.

Finally, the HSI plots show the magnitude of change in habitat selection in the presence and absence of hypoxia occurring within the nearshore part of the hypoxic zone without modeling other effects. Availability is expressed in meters (m) and reflects the cumulative vertical extent of all 684 layers as if stacked atop one another. In many cases, HSI plots in the presand absence of hypoxia differed substantially.

ence and absence of hypoxia differed substantially; however, the range of tolerance for every species was wide (Figs. 5–9).

Results from the HSI analysis are best interpreted when compared with the significant interaction terms (p-values <0.10) between hypoxia and other environmental variables from the GLMMs. These significant

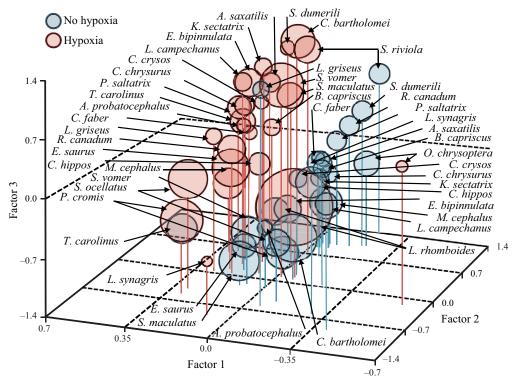


Fig. 4. Microhabitat plot describing the environmental use patterns of 26 species with respect to 3 principal component factors for (red) hypoxic (DO <50% saturation) and (blue) non-hypoxic water columns. Bubbles represent 2 SE around the centroid means for each species. See Supplement 1 for full species names

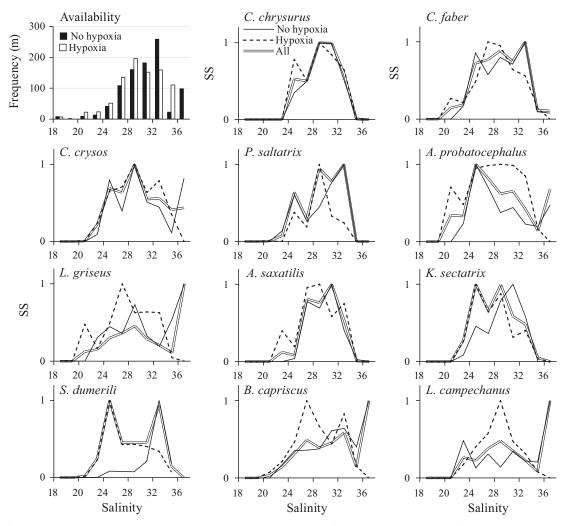


Fig. 5. Standardized suitability (SS) of 11 species responses to salinity. See Supplement 1 for full species names. Overall suitability is described by solid double-lines, while solid single-lines reflect responses at non-hypoxic sites, and broken lines reflect responses at hypoxic sites. Availability (top left panel) is shown as a frequency distribution of the summed extent of water column strata (m) within each salinity interval

interactions indicate that the effects of hypoxia and those of the additional variable were not independent. For example, there were significant shifts in salinity selection in the presence of hypoxia. Based on the significant salinity \times hypoxia interactions (Table 1), the –10 salinity unit shift in the peak frequency of the salinity selected by *Balistes capriscus* (Fig. 5) likely reflected the significantly different habitat selection of salinity in the presence of hypoxia (p = 0.051). Similarly, there was a –8 salinity unit shift in the salinity selected by *Seriola dumerili* and *L. campechanus* (p = 0.006 and 0.067, respectively).

There were significant shifts in temperature selection in the presence of hypoxia. Significant temperature × hypoxia interactions (Table 1) helped explain a +10°C shift in the peak frequency of the temperature selected by *L. griseus* (p = 0.003; Fig. 6). Similarly, there was a -5° C shift in the temperature selected by *Chloroscombrus chrysurus* (p < 0.001). Finally, there was a -4° C shift in the temperature range selected by *S. dumerili* (p = 0.055).

There were significant shifts in DO selection in the presence of hypoxia. Significant DO × hypoxia interactions (Table 1) helped explain a -30% shift in the peak frequency of the DO selected by *Chaetodipterus faber* and *B. capriscus* (p = 0.039 and 0.006, respectively; Fig. 7). Similarly, there was a +15% shift in the DO selected by *A. saxatilis* and *L. campechanus* (p = 0.039 and 0.040, respectively). The significant DO × hypoxia interactions for *C. chrysurus* (p = 0.005) did not lead to apparent shifts in DO selection.

There were significant shifts in water depth selection in the presence of hypoxia. Significant water

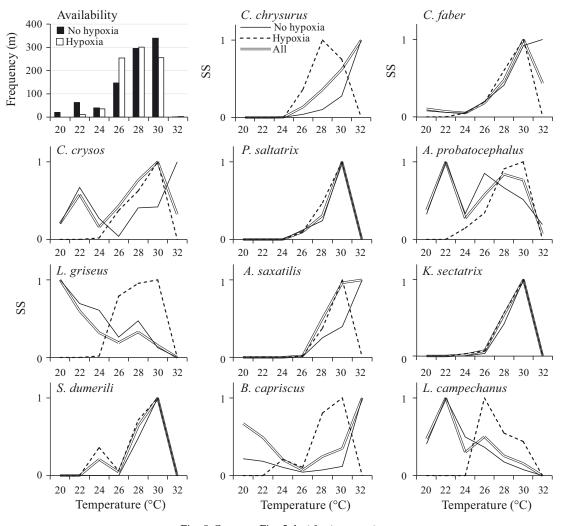


Fig. 6. Same as Fig. 5, but for temperature

depth × hypoxia interactions (Table 1) helped explain +6 m and +2 m shifts in the peak frequency and range of water depth selection by *K. sectatrix* (p = 0.047; Fig. 8). Similarly, there were +2 m shifts in water depth selection by *L. campechanus* (p = 0.067). We also observed a -2 m shift in the peak frequency of water depth selected by *A. probatocephalus* (p = 0.032). Finally, there was a +4 m shift in the water depth range selected by *Caranx crysos* (p = 0.001).

There were significant shifts in surface-water clarity selection in the presence of hypoxia. Significant Secchi depth × hypoxia interactions (Table 1) helped explain +1.5 m and -1.5 m shifts in the peak frequency and range of surface-water clarity selection by *Pomatomus saltatrix* (p = 0.005; Fig. 9). Similarly, there were +4.5 m and +1.5 m shifts in surface-water clarity selection by *L. campechanus* (p = 0.005). Also, a -1.5 m shift in the peak frequency of surface-water clarity selected by the planktivorous *C. chrysurus* and *C. crysos* occurred (p = 0.003 and 0.039, respectively). Although the peak frequency of surfacewater clarity selected by *C. faber* remained consistent, waters with lower surface-water clarity were selected with greater frequency (p = 0.012). The significant Secchi depth × hypoxia interactions for *L. griseus* (p < 0.001), *A. saxatilis* (p = 0.012), and *B. capriscus* (p = 0.044) did not lead to apparent shifts in surface-water clarity selection.

4. DISCUSSION

Patterns of habitat selection by fishes that aggregate around small nearshore platforms in the nGOM are complex, especially because of the river discharges and the added effects of eutrophication and seasonal hypoxia. Eutrophication and hypoxia exert an influence on fishes throughout the water column,

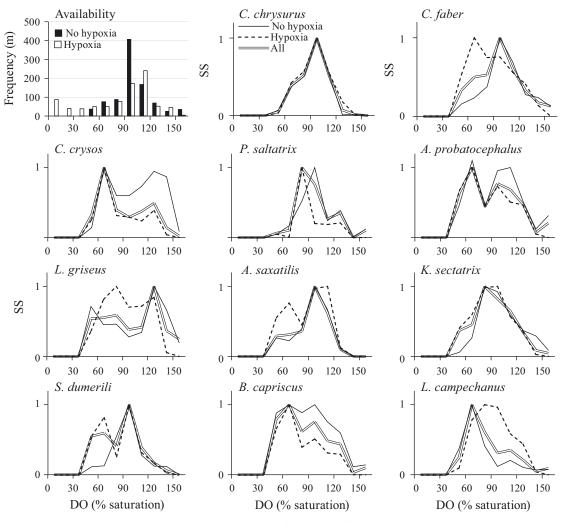


Fig. 7. Same as Fig. 5, but for dissolved oxygen (DO)

leading to habitat compression that limits access to the entire water column. During this study, DO reached concentrations where species-specific or life-history-stage tolerances were probably exceeded at high, as well as low tolerance levels. Habitat compression associated with the avoidance of hypoxic lower-water column strata and unsuitable surface strata significantly altered habitat selection for the most common fishes associated with nearshore platforms. Habitat compression also significantly shifted the assemblage structure of the fish community as a whole. This is an important finding given that physicochemical conditions and prey distributions are the primary factors determining species or life-stage distributions of fishes in dynamic estuarine environments (Remmert 1983, Baltz et al. 1993, 1998). Among the most important physicochemical variables structuring fish communities across marine-estuarine gradients are salinity (Gunter 1961, Rakocinski et al. 1992), temperature (Rakocinski et al. 1992, Szedlmayer & Able 1996), DO (Rakocinski et al. 1992), water depth (Rakocinski et al. 1992), and water clarity (Blaber & Blaber 1980, Cyrus & Blaber 1992). At small nearshore platforms, shifts in habitat-selection patterns of up to 10 salinity units, 10°C, 30% DO saturation, 6 m water depth, and 4.5 m Secchi depth were observed when fishes were forced into midwater strata because of the need to avoid hypoxic lower water-column strata and unsuitable surface strata. On a community level intraspecific shifts in habitat selection in the presence of hypoxia were, in many cases, greater than those between species distributions, given the same habitat availability.

During the 2 yr that we observed fishes around platforms, we never saw any evidence of direct lethal effects of coastal hypoxia on fishes. However, the distributional responses of fishes within this DO-

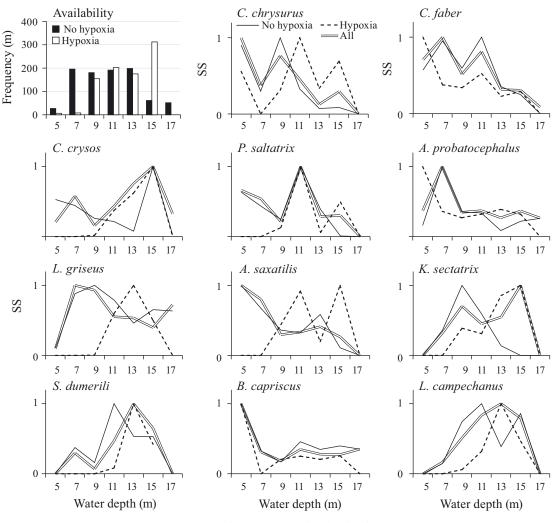


Fig. 8. Same as Fig. 5, but for depth

stressed environment demonstrated that sub-lethal effects of eutrophication might have important consequences. Several studies reported altered metabolic and growth rates associated with salinity (Lankford & Targett 1994, Bœuf & Payan 2001, Sampio & Bianchini 2002) and temperature variation (Wuenschel et al. 2004, Craig & Crowder 2005) within the range of environmental conditions that platformassociated fishes experienced when forced to avoid hypoxic lower water-column strata and surface strata. Altered reproductive potential within the nGOM hypoxic zone has also been documented (Thomas & Rahman 2010, 2012), and models have shown that the combined effects of temperature and reduced reproductive potential can have substantial negative effects on the long-term stability of displaced fish populations (Rose et al. 2018a,b).

Displacement of fishes or their prey due to environmental factors can also alter direct and indirect trophic interactions (Keister et al. 2000, Webster et al. 2015). Distributions of prey are greatly influenced by eutrophication (Dagg & Breed 2003) and hypoxia (Pihl 1994, Briggs et al. 2017). Fishes might remain in areas they would otherwise leave in order to exploit emerging benthic prey or leave areas they might otherwise occupy due to depletion of prey during a persistent event (Pihl et al. 1991, Rahel & Nutzman 1994). Pelagic and planktivorous fishes within the hypoxic zone might benefit from the concentration of zooplankton biomass (Dagg & Breed 2003, Glaspie et al. 2018) and increased predator-prey interactions that occur when water column habitats are compressed by hypoxia (Prince & Goodyear 2006, Costantini et al. 2008, Roman et al. 2012). There is also evidence that areas fishes avoid can serve as a refuge for prey (Zhang et al. 2009, Kimmel et al. 2010, Webster et al. 2015), resulting in predator and prey spatial disconnects (Taylor & Rand 2003, Ludsin et al. 2009,

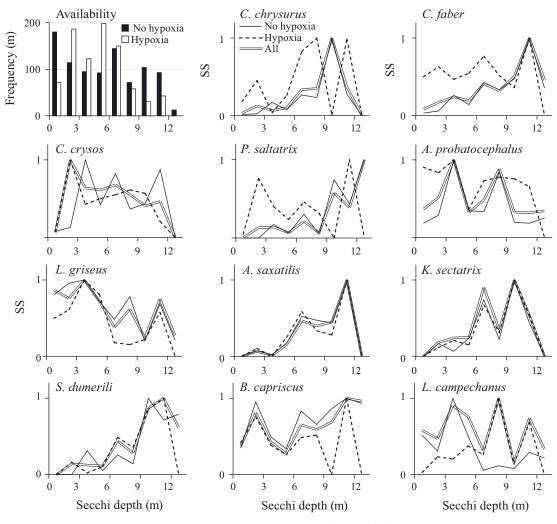


Fig. 9. Same as Fig. 5, but for Secchi depth

Vanderploeg et al. 2009). Habitat compression may also increase interspecific and intraspecific interactions when high densities of fishes become restricted by physiological demands (Coutant 1985, Eby & Crowder 2002, Dieterich & Fulford 2012). Further, displacement of fishes can alter fishing effort, and therefore impact fisheries, and management decisions (Craig & Crowder 2005, Langseth et al. 2014, Kraus et al. 2015).

Because of the large-scale perturbations that occur when bottom-water hypoxia forms in the nGOM, habitat selection in the absence of hypoxia might not mirror behavior patterns of the same fishes outside of the hypoxic zone. The overall suitability for each species (Figs. 5–9) describes habitat selection occurring within the hypoxic zone during the hypoxic season. These patterns might be useful for comparing selection from the same area pre- and or post-hypoxia, among years of varying hypoxia severity, or those generated from other areas not influenced by a large region of depressed-DO concentrations. Also, if the avoidance of surface strata was caused by supersaturated DO, this restriction might be limited to part of the day when oxygen production was excessive.

When evaluating the effects of hypoxia on aquatic organisms, the threshold used to define hypoxia should carefully reflect the study objectives. We selected 50% DO saturation as the break point for our analyses because fishes were observed to avoid waters with <50% DO saturation, and a primary objective was to evaluate some of the effects of displacement by fishes capable of moving up in the water column. In a 3-dimensional environmental space as dynamic as nearshore Louisiana, this definition of hypoxia for fishes provides important habitat-selection information that would be lost if the 2.0 mg l⁻¹ standard had been used. Although some fishes were occasionally observed in waters <50% DO sat-

uration (and <2.0 mg l⁻¹), they did not remain there for long, and MAXNOs for all species were always obtained in DO saturations \geq 50%. Archosargus probatocephalus and Lutjanus griseus were regularly observed entering waters <50% saturation, a behavior consistent with previously observed forays into hypoxic water (Pihl et al.1991, Rahel and Nutzman 1994, Webster et al. 2015). This behavior may also reflect physiologies of these species that make them more tolerant of low DO, but oxygen tolerances have not been established for these species.

Avoidance of surface strata was an unexpected finding which we cannot attribute to any one variable with absolute certainty. However, fishes often avoided surface strata despite otherwise suitable salinities, temperatures, and water clarity. The avoidance might have been caused by complex interactions among these and other abiotic or biotic factors which we did not measure, such as light availability, or predator-prey dynamics. However, the presence of supersaturated DO conditions (hyperoxia) was a variable observed at all sites where fishes avoided the surface-strata (mean DO of $140.7 \pm 7.0\%$ saturation [95% CI]). Consequently, the scarcity of fishes in waters of DO >125%, and the lack of any fishes detected in waters of DO >140% saturation, strongly suggest that DO supersaturation was the factor driving the observed avoidance behavior.

Although it is rarely documented in natural systems, supersaturation of atmospheric gases (nitrogen and oxygen) can cause gas bubble disease in fish (Gorham 1899, Marsh & Gorham 1905). Gas-supersaturated environments can cause diffusion of gases into body tissues, which can cause internal and external lesions, disrupt buoyancy control, and, if persistent, can fatally reduce circulation. Nitrogen has a more potent effect than oxygen supersaturation (Nebeker et al. 1978), while total gas pressure is the most important factor controlling gas bubble disease (Colt 1983).

Many aquatic organisms respond negatively to oxygen supersaturation (Nebeker et al. 1978). In tropical and subtropical marine environments surface waters are naturally slightly supersaturated with nitrogen (Emerson et al. 1995). Consequently, the total gas pressure found there is often high, a situation that could amplify the effects of photosynthetically derived oxygen supersaturation (Crunkilton et al. 1980). However, dissolved nitrogen was not measured during this study, and variation in total gas pressure throughout surface waters of the nGOM has not been documented.

Nevertheless, avoidance of supersaturated waters has been previously documented at levels of ${\sim}125\,\%$

gas saturation, so exclusion from the surface waters in the nGOM related to supersaturation of gases is a feasible explanation for the avoidance of surface strata (Gray & Haynes 1977, Nebeker et al. 1978, Chamberlain et al. 1980, Parker et al. 1984). Mortality is only a risk where fishes cannot avoid gas-supersaturated environments such as in aquaculture settings or below dams, where bubble injection or heating of water supersaturates waters with dissolved gases. Renfro (1963) reported a fish kill in Galveston Bay during 1959 of more than 300 adult spotted seatrout Cynoscion nebulosus, many Atlantic croaker Micropogonias undulatus, various eels, and other fishes. He attributed the kill to photosynthetically derived oxygen supersaturation of 250 % in shallow waters where fishes could not avoid these conditions. In our study, a total of 109 of the 343 water quality samples (including the 150 paired with video data) had surface strata with DO saturation >125%, and, while uncommon, DO values upward of 295% were recorded in nearshore waters of coastal Louisiana. However, in openwater environments such as nearshore Louisiana, these conditions are easily avoided by fishes, as was observed at 46 of the 150 platforms included in the analyses. As with hypoxia, the indirect effects of displacement, rather than direct mortality, have greater overall impact on mobile organisms like fishes because they can affect every fish that remains in the area of the hypoxic zone.

Video-based sampling provided information on the distribution and behavior of fishes at a scale not obtainable with other methods. While trawling studies have attempted to evaluate habitat compression due to hypoxia and the effects of displacement of fishes within the water column (Hazen et al. 2009), video provided the finer spatial resolution needed in nearshore Louisiana waters. Our sampling was based on discrete points with paired video and continuous water quality profiles with a mean reading every 0.08 ± 0.0074 m (95 % CI), allowing us to characterize species-specific selection patterns. Despite their advantages, even unbaited and unlighted video arrays can alter fish behavior, with some species being attracted and others repelled. Video methods are also vulnerable to poor visibility and large schools of fish, for which MAXNO-derived relative abundance estimates become non-linear relative to actual abundance (Schobernd et al. 2014, Campbell et al. 2015), and post processing of the data becomes labor intensive. Hydroacoustic methods are less intrusive than video cameras and complement visual studies because they can greatly expand the sampling area beyond the limitations of visibility and camera fields of

view (Stanley and Wilson 2004, Zenone et al. 2017, Reynolds et al. 2018). However, standard hydroacoustic methods also have limitations, such as difficulty monitoring fish very close to boundaries (near bottom, hard objects or the water surface) plus the inability to definitively or reliably identify species directly. Future studies of biotic and environmental interactions in complex settings such as nearshore Louisiana and other river-influenced ocean margins could benefit from a combined video-hydroacoustic sampling approach that accounts for the high variation in water quality.

Unbaited remote video systems did allow the observation of some behaviors in a minimally invasive way and without the chaotic behavior that bait can cause. In 1 interesting video, habitat compression by surface strata with supersaturated DO of 172% restricted Spanish mackerel Scomberomorus maculatus, Caranx crysos, Chloroscombrus chrysurus, cobia Rachycentron canadum, red drum Sciaenops ocellatus, black drum Pogonias cromis, and age 1-2 juvenile Lutjanus campechanus to within 3.5 m of the well-oxygenated seafloor in a 9 m water column. The pelagic species appeared to be feeding at the lower edge of a phytoplankton bloom within the surface strata (a commonly observed behavior) and a school of S. ocellatus was observed in apparent pursuit of the vertically compressed, and exploitable school of C. chrysurus.

In the example illustrated in Fig. 2 (see Video S1 in Supplement 2), 10 species of pelagic and demersal fishes in a 15.9 m water column were restricted to 4.7 m at midwater. Fishes were compressed into ~30% of the entire water column by DO levels < 23 % saturation $(1.5 \text{ mg } l^{-1})$ below and >126% saturation (8.3 mg $l^{-1})$) above. In another instance of more extreme compression, the fish assemblage was restricted within a 1.4 m layer of a 14.3 m water column, constrained by waters containing <32% DO saturation (2.5 mg l⁻¹) below and 204 % DO saturation (15.2 mg l^{-1}) above. This assemblage consisted of high abundances of densely packed Chaetodipterus faber, C. crysos, L. griseus, and A. probatocephalus (73 total fishes). In the latter case, the salinity and temperature within the usable part of the water column, 23.1 salinity units and 31°C, were near or beyond the tolerance levels of many species in this study (Figs. 5 & 6).

Many fishes do not readily leave nearshore platforms in the face of extreme environmental change but continue their strong association with them (Reeves et al. 2018b). Such fidelity often comes at the cost of reduced habitat suitability. Reasons to stay may accrue from reduced predation risk (Rountree 1989), greater prey availability on the platform itself (Beaver 2002, Reeves et al. 2018a, Reeves et al. in press a,b), or in surrounding waters (Keenan et al. 2003), or the use of platforms as current breaks that allow fishes to remain in an area where they would otherwise struggle to maintain position. This observation supports the hypothesis that use of suboptimal habitat generally increases as availability of optimal habitat is decreased by DO restrictions (Eby 2001, Zhang et al. 2014). This pattern of behavior is consistent with optimization theory (Kramer 1987) which predicts that fishes will minimize energetic costs and risks of predation in order to select an adequate if suboptimal set of environmental conditions. Prince & Goodyear (2006) noted such a response in the form of an interplay of DO, temperature, depth, and predator-prey dynamics in Pacific pelagic fishes. Elliott et al. (2012) found a similar interaction in the responses of zooplankton to salinity and temperature in the presence of hypoxia.

A benefit of platforms is that their fish aggregating device effects facilitate study of detailed responses to extremes of hydrographic conditions that sometimes approach or exceed the tolerances of fishes when habitat compression creates ephemeral habitat bottlenecks. These responses would be far more difficult to document elsewhere within the hypoxic region where fish densities are low or unaggregated. At the current rate of platform removal from nearshore Louisiana (~180 platforms yr⁻¹ net loss from 2008-2017; BOEM 2018), soon few will remain to serve this purpose and they may be gone before their ecological role is fully understood. The apparent absence of negative population-level effects on fishery landings within the hypoxic region of the nGOM suggests that degradation of suitable fish habitat has not been severe enough to limit populations of most species (Chesney & Baltz 2001, Cowan et al. 2008, Breitburg et al. 2009). Even the most severely restricted waters sampled during this study (that had acceptable visibility) were being used by fishes. Nevertheless, avoidance of hypoxic bottom waters and surface strata significantly influenced habitat-selection patterns and probably influenced the spatial distributions for the most common fishes. Habitat compression reduced the volume and quality of suitable habitat, where tolerances to some physicochemical variables were exceeded or suboptimal conditions were tolerated. Ultimately, the perturbed physicochemical conditions and the amplified inter- and intraspecific interactions strongly influence species and life-history stage distributions at shallow-water nearshore platforms throughout the hypoxic zone

during the summer season. Although complex, new tools and approaches are helping to understand the overall impact these interactions have on fishes of the region (Chesney & Baltz 2001).

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