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1 COMPARISON OF BIGHEADED CARP REPRODUCTION IN TRIBUTARIES OF THE
2 ILLINOIS AND WABASH RIVERS

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6
7 A Thesis

8 Submitted for the Requirements for the Degree of
9 Master of Science

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14 By David J. Yff

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21 Department of Biological Sciences

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24	TABLE OF CONTENTS	
25	COMPARISON OF INVASIVE CARP REPRODUCTION IN TRIBUTARIES OF THE	
26	ILLINOIS AND WABASH RIVERS	1
27	ABSTRACT.....	3
28	ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	3
29	LIST OF TABLES	5
30	LIST OF FIGURES	6
31	INTRODUCTION	8
32	METHODS	13
33	<i>Study Sites</i>	13
34	<i>Sampling Techniques</i>	13
35	<i>Laboratory Techniques</i>	14
36	<i>Statistical Techniques</i>	16
37	RESULTS	19
38	DISCUSSION.....	21
39	TABLES	39
40	FIGURES.....	43
41		
42		
43		

44 ABSTRACT

45 Understanding environmental conditions that support bigheaded carp (*Hypophthalmichthys sp.*)
46 reproduction in tributary rivers provides key predictions of their invasion throughout the United
47 States. Past research, primarily in larger order rivers, identified factors such as discharge,
48 temperature, and turbidity as main environmental drivers of bigheaded carp reproduction. I used
49 the variable hydrologic conditions between the Illinois and Wabash Rivers to compare
50 environmental conditions between tributaries of each basin, determine which conditions
51 influence bigheaded carp reproduction in tributaries, and predict tributaries likely to support
52 bigheaded carp reproduction. Three tributaries of the Illinois and Wabash Rivers were sampled
53 for ichthyoplankton from March-September 2016-2020. I compared tributary conditions, such as
54 discharge, water temperature, chlorophyll *a*, and total phosphorus between each basins. Between
55 basins, I found Wabash tributaries had higher discharge, whereas Illinois tributaries had higher
56 dissolved oxygen. The Sangamon and Little Wabash had the highest peak larval densities, with
57 highest overall peak densities in the Illinois River basin. Bigheaded carp reproduction in Wabash
58 tributaries was positively influenced by discharge, whereas reproduction in Illinois River
59 tributaries was positively related to temperature and discharge. Additionally, I found that
60 tributaries can support similar reproduction to mainstem rivers likely due to increased hydrologic
61 variation. I used drainage area to predict tributaries susceptible to bigheaded carp reproduction,
62 such as the Grand and St. Joseph Rivers, in the Lake Michigan basin. Expanded monitoring of
63 these tributaries is needed as they can serve as sources of recruitment to basin-wide bigheaded
64 carp populations and their size is comparable to Great Lakes tributaries.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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I would first like to thank my family and friends for their constant support throughout all the difficult times along my path in the field of fisheries. The process of getting my master's degree was only the most recent of the many hurdles I will have as I follow one of my lifelong dreams. Their continued confidence has allowed me to recognize my potential and I can contribute many of my accomplishments to their unwavering support.

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LIST OF TABLES

89

90 TABLE 1. Location and number of United States Geological Survey (USGS) gauging stations on

91 the tributaries of Illinois and Wabash River. Gauges were used to obtain mean daily

92 river discharge. I developed simple linear regression between temperature

93 measurements I recorded in the field and air temperature recorded at nearest airport

94 temperature gauges to estimate water temperature when field measurements were not

95 taken..... 39

96 TABLE 2. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) for environmental data comparing the

97 Sangamon, Spoon, Mackinaw, Little Wabash, Embarras, and Vermilion tributaries in

98 addition to between Illinois and Wabash tributaries..... 40

99 TABLE 3. Repeated measures analysis comparing peak larval density of larval push samples at

100 lower tributary sites by tributary and year for 2016-2020. Factors including year or

101 tributary \times year have F-tests reported using Pillai's Trace..... 41

102 TABLE 4. Multiple logistic regression with stepwise model selection incorporating

103 environmental variables and invasive carp presence absence. Models incorporate data

104 from 2016-2020 and separate models were created for 2019-2020 to incorporate

105 chlorophyll *a* and total phosphorus. Directionality of variable relationship to invasive

106 carp presence is represented by the model coefficient. Variables greater than 1 were

107 positive and less than 1 were negative. Overall model fit was tested using a Hosmer-

108 Lemeshow test. 42

109

110

LIST OF FIGURES

111

112 FIGURE 1. Graph of coefficient of variation of mean daily discharge for tributaries and the

113 mainstem river of the A) Illinois and B) Wabash River basins from May-September

114 2020..... 43

115 FIGURE 2. Map of sampling locations on the six Illinois and Wabash River tributaries from

116 2016-2020 including both downstream and upstream sites on each tributary..... 44

117 FIGURE 3. Principal component analysis (PCA) of environmental data including dissolved

118 oxygen (DO), Secchi depth, mean daily discharge (DIS), CV discharge, temperature,

119 cumulative growing degree days (CGDD), and drainage area (Area) for tributaries of

120 the A) Wabash and B) Illinois River. Ellipses indicate 95% confidence intervals for

121 each tributary. 45

122 FIGURE 4. Graphs of mean environmental data \pm SE among tributaries incorporating field data

123 from 2016-2020. Tributaries were compared using either Kruskal-Wallis tests with a

124 Dunn post-hoc test or an ANOVA with a Tukey’s post-hoc test depending on

125 normality and homogeneity of variances. Tributaries that were statistically different

126 from each other were represented by unique letters. Mainstem grouped tributaries

127 were compared using either parametric (t-test) or non-parametric (Mann Whitney U)

128 two-sample tests..... 46

129 FIGURE 5. Lower tributary site peak larval density for larval push nets \pm SE from 2016-2020

130 compared by tributary with a Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn post-hoc test. Illinois

131 tributaries were compared to Wabash tributaries using a Mann Whitney U two-

132 sample test..... 47

133 FIGURE 6. Simple linear regression with 95% confidence intervals comparing drainage area to
134 mean invasive carp density using larval push nets for the Illinois and Wabash River
135 tributaries from 2016-2020 48
136

137 INTRODUCTION

138 One of the most problematic groups of invasive fishes currently in the U.S. are the
139 bigheaded carps (*Hypophthalmichthys* sp.), which include Bighead Carp (*Hypophthalmichthys*
140 *nobilis*) and Silver Carp (*Hypophthalmichthys molitrix*). Bigheaded carp are pelagic planktivores
141 introduced into the United States in the 1970's for the biological control of zooplankton and
142 phytoplankton in aquaculture ponds, where flooding lead to their eventual escapement into the
143 Mississippi River basin (Kolar et al. 2005). This escapement caused concern as bigheaded carp
144 display high growth and reproductive rates and are thought to compete with native fish for
145 planktonic prey (Sampson et al. 2009; DeBoer et al. 2018). The phytoplankton and zooplankton
146 that bigheaded carp consume are not only an important food source for native filter feeders
147 (Sampson et al. 2009), but also the larval and early juvenile stages of many native fish species
148 (Nunn et al. 2012). Additionally, bigheaded carp are highly fecund (Williamson and Garvey
149 2005), one of the many contributors to their rapid population expansion throughout the United
150 States.

151 Currently, one of the greatest unknowns concerning bigheaded carp range expansion is
152 their potential impact to the Laurentian Great Lakes. The Laurentian Great Lakes account for
153 nearly US\$7 billion in yearly revenue from sportfishing (Krantzberg and De Boer 2008; Tsehaye
154 et al. 2013). With populations of bigheaded carp as close to Lake Michigan as the Dresden Pool
155 of the Illinois River and their eDNA occasionally found within the Chicago Area Waterway
156 System (Song et al. 2017), there have been many questions about the possibility of bigheaded
157 carp becoming established in the Great Lakes and impacting this multi-billion dollar industry.
158 Should bigheaded carp reach the Great Lakes, there is a debate on their ability to become
159 established in these environments with some studies suggesting there are a lack of suitable
160 offshore habitats to support population establishment due to declining phytoplankton densities in

161 Lake Michigan (Vanderploeg et al. 2012; Alsip et al. 2019) with Lake Erie showing more
162 favorable food availability (Anderson et al. 2015). In addition to the suitability of foraging
163 habitat, there must also be sufficient spawning habitat and conditions to support establishment
164 and expansion of bigheaded carp populations within the Laurentian Great Lakes. Bigheaded carp
165 require long stretches of turbulent water to maintain eggs in suspension to promote hatching
166 (Garcia et al. 2015), indicating that the Great Lakes themselves offer little potential to support
167 reproduction compared to their tributaries. Within their invasive range, bigheaded carp show
168 highly plastic reproductive traits (Coulter et al. 2013) compared to within their native range
169 (Deters et al. 2013); therefore, additional research is needed to identify conditions that facilitate
170 successful reproduction of non-native populations of bigheaded carp.

171 Identifying local and catchment scale factors that characterize fish communities and
172 populations (Esselman and Allan 2010) can be useful in explaining seemingly sporadic and
173 inconsistent reproductive events and abundance estimates of ichthyoplankton (Cyr et al. 1992;
174 Michaletz and Gale 1999; Krabbenhoft et al. 2014). Past research has identified several local-
175 scale environmental factors that correlate with bigheaded carp reproduction, such as discharge
176 (Schrank et al. 2001) and water temperature (Kolar et al. 2007). River discharge peaks that
177 coincide with water temperatures between 17 to 30°C have been shown to trigger spawning
178 events in bigheaded carp (DeGrandchamp et al. 2007; Kolar et al. 2007; Kocovsky et al. 2012).
179 Often associated with increased river discharge, high turbidity has also been found to correspond
180 with increased bigheaded carp reproduction (Deters et al. 2013; Hintz et al. 2017). Although not
181 extensively compared to bigheaded carp reproduction, higher dissolved oxygen levels are needed
182 to support larvae survival and development of most species (Werner 2002) and has some
183 correlation to bigheaded carp reproduction (Roth et al. 2021). Adequate food availability is

184 considered one of the most important factors in determining the survival of larvae (Werner 2002)
185 and may influence adult fish reproductive behaviors and habitat selection (Bakun 2010). As
186 planktivorous fish, plankton availability could play a role in determining the spatiotemporal
187 variability in successful reproduction due to changing water chemistry, nutrients, and other
188 environmental conditions. For example, studies have found phytoplankton densities (estimated
189 with chlorophyll *a*) to inversely correlate with river discharge (Biggs 1995; Harvey et al. 1998).
190 Additionally, there has been evidence of fish assemblages and reproduction being influenced by
191 broader catchment scale variation (e.g., drainage area and latitude) rather than reach-scale
192 variation (Wang et al. 2006; Esselman and Allan 2010; Schaick et al. 2020) due in part to
193 catchment characteristics like drainage area correlating with more localized conditions such as
194 discharge (Knighton 2014) and nutrients (Lohman and Jones 1999).

195 Most previous research on bigheaded carp has focused on high order streams, such as the
196 Mississippi and Illinois Rivers, with various studies examining abundance and reproduction
197 (e.g., Sass et al. 2010; Larson et al. 2017; Parkos et al. 2021). However, there have been
198 relatively few studies (e.g., Camacho et al. 2020; Schaick et al. 2020) focusing on mechanisms of
199 reproduction in smaller order tributaries of these rivers. Smaller rivers, such as tributaries of the
200 Illinois and Wabash Rivers, often experience greater variation in their flow regime than their
201 mainstem counterparts (Figure 1). The flow variation in tributaries shows potential for bigheaded
202 carp reproduction at different times and increased frequency than larger rivers (Camacho et al.
203 2020). For example, a tributary may experience a greater change in river discharge than the
204 mainstem river at a time when other environmental factors are optimal, which could influence
205 bigheaded carp to select tributaries as spawning habitat over mainstem rivers that are slower to
206 respond to precipitation events. With evidence of protracted spawning by bigheaded carps

207 (Papoulias et al. 2006; Coulter et al. 2013), tributaries also have the potential to host spawning
208 events outside the typical spawning season as a product of localized precipitation events.

209 The contrasting hydrology of the Illinois River and Wabash River allows for a
210 comparison of bigheaded carp reproduction under a potentially wide range of environmental
211 conditions. The Illinois River is a 707-km-long river that drains approximately 75,000 km² of
212 agriculturally dominated landscape (Groschen et al. 2000) and has been heavily modified by
213 seven locks and dams that facilitate barge traffic (DeBoer et al. 2021). These modifications result
214 in severe channelization and regulated river discharge (Mattingly et al. 1993). In addition to
215 these modifications, alterations in fish populations and communities have been attributed to poor
216 water quality throughout the basin (Pegg and McClelland 2004; Whitten and Gibson-Reinemer
217 2018). The Wabash River is an 810-km-long river that drains nearly 85,500 km² of agriculturally
218 dominated landscape into the Ohio River. However, unlike the Illinois River, the Wabash River
219 is relatively shallow and largely unimpounded. The free-flowing portion of the Wabash River
220 extends for 662 km, the longest stretch of free-flowing river east of the Mississippi River
221 (Gammon 1998). Despite a more natural flow regime, anthropogenic changes to the river have
222 led to many extinctions and regional extirpations of species in Wabash's extremely diverse fish
223 community (Simon 2006). Though bigheaded carp invaded the Wabash River in a similar
224 timeframe as the Illinois River, their abundance never reached the hyperabundant levels found in
225 the Illinois River, potentially due to the Wabash River having less habitat degradation (Stuck et
226 al. 2015; Shields et al. 2021).

227 The aim of this study was to examine bigheaded carp reproduction in tributaries of two
228 hydrologically distinct rivers, the Illinois and Wabash Rivers, to determine the environmental
229 conditions that may influence reproductive success in these systems. Tributary information will

230 be useful in combination with large river research to provide a comprehensive management plan
231 targeting critical areas to prevent the spread of these bigheaded carp species. Several studies
232 have used thermal and hydrologic modeling to predict bigheaded carp reproduction in Great
233 Lakes tributaries (Kocovsky et al. 2012; Murphy and Jackson 2013). However, determining the
234 reproductive potential of Great Lakes tributaries can be aided by the examination of similarly
235 sized Illinois and Wabash tributaries that support bigheaded carp reproduction and the
236 environmental conditions that support them. My objectives in this study were to 1) compare
237 environmental conditions within and among the Illinois and Wabash tributaries and basins, 2)
238 quantify the environmental mechanisms leading to invasive carp reproduction in tributaries of
239 two hydrologically distinct rivers, and 3) use significant environmental drivers of bigheaded carp
240 reproduction to determine reproductive potential in uninvaded environments, such as Lake
241 Michigan tributaries. I hypothesized that hydrological variation would be the most important
242 factor in determining bigheaded carp reproduction followed closely by thermal variation, with
243 Wabash tributaries being primarily influenced by hydrology and the Illinois tributaries being
244 influenced by multiple environmental factors including hydrology due to contrasting basin wide
245 hydrology. Further, tributaries with the greatest overall river discharge, and by correlation
246 greatest drainage area, would likely have the highest bigheaded carp reproduction. Additionally,
247 I also predicted drainage area to be the best indication of tributaries susceptible to bigheaded
248 carp reproduction.

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METHODS

253

254 *Study Sites*

255 Three tributaries each of the Wabash River (Little Wabash, Embarras, and Vermilion)
256 and the Illinois River (Sangamon, Spoon, and Mackinaw) were sampled (Figure 2) from 2016-
257 2020. Tributaries were selected due to their connectivity to basins with established populations
258 of bigheaded carp that are known to support reproduction (Irons et al. 2010; Coulter et al. 2013).
259 Each tributary was sampled at two locations, one lower site near the mouth and one upper site, to
260 investigate the spatial extent of reproduction (Figure 2). Additionally, the mainstem river was
261 sampled upstream of each tributary confluence. Sampling was conducted monthly in April and
262 August-September and bi-weekly from May-July from 2016-2019. There was increased
263 sampling effort (weekly) during June and July of 2020 when conditions favorable for bigheaded
264 carp spawning were present (i.e., rising hydrograph with water temperatures exceeding 17°C,
265 Kolar et al. 2007).

266 *Sampling Techniques*

267 Fish eggs and larvae were collected using active (push) and passive (drift) netting
268 techniques at lower tributary and mainstem sites, while only drift nets were used at upper sites
269 because shallow water conditions precluded the use of push nets. Push nets had openings of 0.5m
270 with 3.0m of 500µm mesh netting and were mounted on a frame at the bow of the boat. Push
271 nets were submerged directly below the surface and driven upstream for five minutes at a speed
272 targeting 10,000 rotations on a General Oceanics flowmeter or approximately 50m³ of filtered
273 water. Drift nets had rectangular openings of 0.25m height x 0.45m width with 1.0m of 500µm
274 mesh netting. Drift nets were set just below the water surface and fished for time periods
275 determined by water velocities calculated using a Hach FH950 portable velocity meter in order

276 to filter approximately 50m³ of water. For both net types I sampled left-channel, mid-channel,
277 and right-channel habitats to account for varying habitat types and water velocities. Larval fish
278 and eggs collected in the nets were preserved in 95% ethanol until identification in the
279 laboratory.

280 Environmental data was collected at each sampling location during reproduction surveys
281 to investigate which conditions facilitate bigheaded carp reproduction. To quantify
282 phytoplankton and nutrient levels, I collected surface water samples to determine sestonic
283 chlorophyll *a* (µg/L) and total phosphorus (mg/L) concentrations during 2019-2020. Water
284 temperature (°C), dissolved oxygen (mg/L), and water velocity (m/s) were determined in the
285 field during each sampling period using a YSI Pro DSS and Hach FH950 portable velocity
286 meter. Secchi depth (cm) was also measured and used as a surrogate for water turbidity. Mean
287 weekly discharge and gauge height were taken from USGS gauges nearest each sampling site
288 (Table 1). Cumulative growing degree days were calculated for each tributary using a base
289 temperature of 10°C (Coulter et al. 2016). When field measurements of water temperature were
290 not available, I used site-specific regression equations that modeled water temperature as a
291 function of air temperature to estimate water temperature (Table 1).

292 *Laboratory Techniques*

293 I identified ichthyoplankton and determined their relative densities to quantify the
294 magnitude of bigheaded carp reproductive events. Larval fish were identified to the lowest
295 taxonomic level possible based on morphometric and meristic features (Auer 1982; Chapman
296 2006). I identified most individuals to family level, except for fish in the families Cyprinidae and
297 Centrarchidae. Cyprinid larvae were categorized as *Cyprinus carpio* (common carp), native
298 cyprinids, *Ctenopharyngodon idella* (grass carp), and *Hypophthalmichthys* sp. (bighead carp and

299 silver carp). Larval centrarchids were identified to genus when possible. Eggs > 3.5 mm in
300 diameter were identified as *Hypophthalmichthys* (Parkos et al. 2021). Larval fish density was
301 determined for each net type by standardizing number of captured bigheaded carp larvae to
302 volume of water filtered (fish/m³ filtered water). Densities between gear types were not
303 combined due to differences in catch rates between these active and passive gear types. For drift
304 nets, volume of water sampled was estimated using:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Water filtered (m}^3\text{)} \\ & = \text{area of drift net opening (m}^2\text{)} \times \text{water velocity } \left(\frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}\right) \\ & \times \text{duration of sample (s)} \end{aligned}$$

308 The amount of water filtered using larval push nets was determined using a General Oceanics
309 Flowmeter and the following equations:

$$\text{Water filtered (m}^3\text{)} = \left(\frac{3.14 \times \text{net diameter}^2}{4} \right) \times \text{distance (m)}$$

$$\text{Distance (m)} = \left(\text{flow count} \times \frac{26,873}{999,999} \right)$$

312 Sestonic chlorophyll *a* was analyzed by filtering 100 mL of surface water sample onto
313 Whatman GF/C filters. Filters were immersed in 90% ethanol and placed in the dark at 4°C to
314 extract pigments for 24 hours. The extract was clarified by syringe filtering and absorbances
315 (665 and 750 nm) were measured with spectrophotometer before and after acidification with 2N
316 HCl to calculate chlorophyll *a* concentrations (APHA 2017). Chlorophyll *a* concentrations were
317 calculated using:

318
$$\text{Chlorophyll } a \left(\frac{\mu\text{g}}{\text{L}} \right) = 29.6 \times ((665 \text{ nm absorbance} - 750 \text{ nm absorbance}) -$$

319
$$(\text{acid } 665 \text{ nm absorbance} - \text{acid } 750 \text{ nm absorbance})) \times \text{ethanol dilution} /$$

320
$$(\text{pathlength (cm)} \times \text{volume filtered (L)})$$

321 Total phosphorus concentration was analyzed in the laboratory using a Hach DR3900
322 spectrophotometer and Hach TNTPlus vials that test for phosphorus with the Ascorbic Acid
323 Method.

324 *Statistical Techniques*

325 The first step in my approach for identifying environmental parameters that influence
326 invasive carp reproduction involved finding the environmental variables that account for the
327 greatest variation among tributaries and then quantifying that variation. I narrowed down
328 environmental parameters of interest in each set of tributaries, grouped by Illinois and Wabash
329 Rivers, using Principal Components Analysis (PCA). The PCA included water temperature,
330 cumulative growing degree days (CGDD), mean daily discharge, CV of mean daily discharge,
331 drainage basin area, dissolved oxygen, and Secchi depth. Environmental variables with axis
332 loading $> |0.5|$ and principal components (PCs) with eigenvalue > 1 were deemed important and
333 selected for further analyses (Kaiser 1960). Directionality of the environmental loadings (+ / -)
334 determines what tributaries show higher or lower values of the associated environmental
335 parameter. Next, I used Pearson's product-moment correlation analysis to see which of the
336 parameters were most collinear, retaining only variables with low ($|r| < 0.50$) correlation for
337 future analysis. I compared the remaining environmental parameters among basins and basin-
338 nested tributaries using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) based on individual
339 observations at all sites and times periods on each tributary. Environmental data from individual

340 tributaries were compared using either a one-way Kruskal-Wallis test with a Dunn post-hoc test
341 when environmental variables did not conform to the assumptions of normality and homogeneity
342 of variances, or a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a Tukey's post-hoc test for
343 variables that did meet these assumptions.

344 I compared spatiotemporal variation of bigheaded carp reproduction between tributaries
345 and between tributaries and their associated mainstem river. To compare tributaries over time, I
346 used a repeated measures analysis of variance (RMANOVA) using yearly peak larval densities
347 from push net collections for each tributary. I only used push net data in this analysis due to the
348 higher capture efficiency of larvae from push nests compared to drift nets (Roth et al. 2021) and
349 to avoid issues associated with combining active and passive gear type effort. Comparisons
350 consisted of tributaries and between years as the repeated factor. I used a Kruskal-Wallis test
351 with a Dunn post-hoc test to determine individual differences between tributaries and a Mann-
352 Whitney U two sample test to determine differences between basins. Additionally, I used a Z-test
353 to determine if mean density of larval bigheaded carp in 2020 differed between the Wabash
354 River and its tributaries. Mean larval densities for Wabash mainstem-tributary comparisons were
355 calculated from push-net densities measured across all sample periods and used densities from
356 the lower tributary locations for tributary values. Inconsistencies in sample sites and sampling
357 frequency between mainstem and tributary locations precluded mainstem to tributary
358 comparisons in the Illinois River basin.

359 To relate the environmental conditions identified in the previous analyses to bigheaded
360 carp reproduction and determine the differences between tributaries and basins, I used multiple
361 logistic regressions with stepwise model selection. For these logistic regressions, I used presence
362 or absence of bigheaded carp larvae which incorporates all gear types (push and drift nets) and

363 sample periods to maximize sample size along and allows for inclusion of all instances of
364 reproduction. Larval presence for each site was modeled against site-specific environmental
365 parameters. I modelled each basin individually using data from 2015 to 2020 along with separate
366 basin-specific models that used only 2019 to 2020 data so as to assess the potential importance of
367 chlorophyll *a* and total phosphorus. Model parameter additions/subtractions were ranked based
368 on Akaike’s information criterion (AIC), and the lowest AIC model was retained for final
369 comparison. Regression coefficients from the multiple logistic regression models indicated the
370 strength and direction (+ or –) of the association between environmental factors and the presence
371 of bigheaded carp larvae in the tributaries. I determined overall model fit using the Hosmer-
372 Lemeshow test.

373 To easily apply significant bigheaded carp environmental parameters to uninvaded
374 system, I used drainage area because it incorporated the environmental variables of interest from
375 the multiple logistic regression due to their high correlation determined with Pearson’s product-
376 moment correlation. This helped identify individual parameters that incorporate variation from
377 significant factors for bigheaded carp reproduction. Next, I used simple linear regression to
378 model the environmental parameter identified against bigheaded carp densities giving a basis for
379 comparison to predict reproduction in uninvaded systems. All statistical analyses for this study
380 were performed in Program R (version 4.1.2) using packages “car”, “e1071”,
381 “ResourceSelection”, and “FSA”.

382
383
384

RESULTS

385
386 Bigheaded carp ichthyoplankton were collected at a variety of sites, time periods, and
387 environmental conditions throughout the five-year sampling period. From 1,741 drift net samples
388 taken at upper and lower tributary sites and 774 push net samples at lower tributary sites, I found
389 relatively high numbers of bigheaded carp larvae in the Sangamon (n = 4,485), Little Wabash (n
390 = 2,267), and Embarras (n = 415) Rivers compared to the Spoon (n = 48), Mackinaw (n = 16),
391 and Vermilion (n = 65) Rivers for a total of 7,296 larval bigheaded carp collected. This trend was
392 mirrored with egg collection, with the Sangamon (n = 1,962), Little Wabash (n = 1,417), and
393 Embarras (n = 2,070) comprising the majority of egg collections compared to the Spoon (n = 5),
394 Mackinaw (n = 5), and Vermilion (n = 325) Rivers for a total of 5,784 bigheaded carp eggs
395 collected. Of these collections, very few larvae (n = 0 to 153) and eggs (n = 0 to 428) were
396 collected at upper tributary sites. Additionally, when both gear types were used, drift net catches
397 only accounted for between 6 and 37% of total bigheaded carp catches. Across our yearly sample
398 period (April to September), 61% of all bigheaded carp were collected in the month of July. I
399 calculated the discharge (mean = 145.6 m³/s, SE = 9.6), temperature (mean = 24.6 °C, SE = 0.2),
400 dissolved oxygen (mean = 5.94 mg/L, SE = 0.2), Secchi depth (mean = 19.56 cm, SE = 0.8),
401 chlorophyll *a* (mean = 14.2 µg/L, SE = 2.2), and total phosphorus (mean = 0.89 mg/L, SE = 0.1)
402 among all the tributaries when bigheaded carp larvae were collected.

403 Tributaries within each basin showed association to different environmental variables.
404 The Wabash tributaries PCA explained 56.6% of total variation between PC1 (30.9%) and PC2
405 (25.7%), while the Illinois tributaries PCA explained 60% of total variation between PC1
406 (38.2%) and PC2 (22.2%). PC1 for the Wabash tributaries positively loaded discharge and
407 negatively loaded both Secchi and dissolved oxygen and PC2 negatively loaded water
408 temperature, CGDD, and drainage area (Figure 3). PC1 for the Illinois tributaries negatively

409 loaded discharge and positively loaded CV discharge and CGDD, while PC2 positively loaded
410 both temperature and drainage area (Figure 3). While there was overlap in confidence intervals
411 between some tributaries, the Sangamon and Mackinaw Rivers were different for the Illinois
412 basin and the Little Wabash and Vermilion were different for the Wabash basin (Figure 3).

413 Environmental variables that were identified as important in the PCA varied between
414 basins (MANOVA; $P < 0.0001$) and by tributary ($P < 0.0001$; Table 2). Univariate tests show the
415 effect of tributary was significant for discharge ($P < 0.0001$), temperature ($P = 0.036$), dissolved
416 oxygen ($P < 0.0001$), Secchi depth ($P = 0.014$), total phosphorus ($P < 0.0001$), and chlorophyll *a*
417 ($P = 0.007$), while the effect of basin was only significant for discharge ($P = 0.0001$) and
418 dissolved oxygen ($P = 0.013$; Table 2). Between basins, the Wabash experienced greater
419 discharge than the Illinois (Figure 4a), whereas the Illinois experienced greater mean dissolved
420 oxygen (Figure 4b). I found that most tributaries significantly varied by discharge, with the
421 highest discharge in the Sangamon and the lowest in the Mackinaw and Vermilion (Figure 4a).
422 Water temperatures were relatively homogeneous among tributaries, except for the Mackinaw
423 which tended to be lower than the Little Wabash and Embarras (Figure 4c). Dissolved oxygen
424 tended to be highest in the Sangamon River and lowest in the Little Wabash (Figure 4b). Secchi
425 depth was highest in the Mackinaw and Vermilion Rivers, with similar Secchi depth between the
426 remaining tributaries (Figure 4d). The Mackinaw and Vermilion Rivers had significantly lower
427 total phosphorus concentrations than the other four tributaries, which had similar mean
428 concentrations (Figure 4e). Mean chlorophyll *a* was relatively similar among tributaries with
429 higher chlorophyll *a* in the Sangamon and Embarras Rivers compared to the Vermilion River
430 (Figure 4f).

431 Tributaries differed in the amount of bigheaded carp reproduction that they supported.
432 The repeated measures analysis of variance indicated that peak larval bigheaded carp densities
433 varied by tributary ($P < 0.001$), year ($P < 0.001$), and a tributary \times year interaction ($P < 0.001$;
434 Table 3). By comparing individual tributaries using a Kruskal-Wallis test and a Dunn post-hoc
435 test, I found that on average the Little Wabash, Sangamon, and Embarras Rivers had the highest
436 mean peak densities (Figure 5). I compared the Illinois and Wabash tributaries peak larval
437 densities using a Mann Whitney U test ($P = 0.042$) and found that the Illinois River tributaries
438 had the highest overall peak densities (Figure 5). By comparing Wabash tributary densities to
439 densities measured in the mainstem Wabash River, I found that the Embarras and Vermilion
440 Rivers had lower larval bigheaded carp densities than the mainstem Wabash ($z < 0.0001$ and $z =$
441 0.049 respectively), whereas the density of larval bigheaded carp in the Little Wabash was
442 greater than or equal to densities in the Wabash River ($z = 0.548$) during the 2020 field season.

443 Additionally, I used tributary environmental characteristics to help explain variation in
444 bigheaded carp presence/absence and applied these characteristics to predict reproduction in
445 uninvaded environments. Stepwise multiple logistic regressions for the Illinois tributaries
446 retained two parameters and indicated a positive correlation and significant effect of temperature
447 ($P = 0.002$; $\exp\beta = 1.03$) and discharge ($P = 0.02$; $\exp\beta = 1.14$), whereas the Wabash tributaries
448 indicated a significant positive correlation with discharge ($P < 0.001$; $\exp\beta = 5.48$) and retained
449 dissolved oxygen ($P = 0.119$; $\exp\beta = 0.81$; Table 4). After introducing measures of primary
450 production into 2019-2020 models, I found negative association of total phosphorus ($P = 0.034$;
451 $\exp\beta = 0.002$) for the Illinois tributaries and chlorophyll a ($P = 0.12$; $\exp\beta = 0.23$) for the
452 Wabash tributaries compared to larval bigheaded carp presence (Table 4). The addition of
453 chlorophyll a and total phosphorus improved the models by reducing AIC, however chlorophyll

454 *a* was not significant in the model. All multiple logistic regression models fit the data well with
455 Hosmer-Lemeshow $P \geq 0.25$. As drainage area for all tributaries was highly correlated ($|r| \geq 0.5$)
456 with river discharge, temperature, and total phosphorus, I used drainage area in a further
457 regression analysis to be able to easily predict systems that have the potential to support
458 bigheaded carp reproduction. Simple linear regression analysis indicated that drainage area
459 significantly correlated ($P = 0.004$, $R^2 = 0.90$) to the mean larval density in the tributaries from
460 2016-2020 with larger tributaries showing higher mean bigheaded carp densities (Figure 6).

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479 DISCUSSION

480 This study demonstrates the effects of spatiotemporal environmental variability in
481 relation to bigheaded carp reproduction. There were differences present between tributaries for
482 many environmental factors, while basin-level differences in environmental conditions were only
483 apparent for river discharge and dissolved oxygen. Mean peak larval densities were highest
484 among Illinois tributaries compared to the Wabash, while the tributaries with the highest mean
485 peak densities were the Sangamon, Little Wabash, and Embarras Rivers. Additionally, when
486 relating larval production of Wabash tributaries compared to the mainstem river, I found that the
487 Little Wabash has the potential to produce similar invasive carp densities compared to the
488 mainstem Wabash. By relating the environmental data to the presence of bigheaded carp, I was
489 able to find patterns in reproduction between tributaries and basins. Overall, discharge was the
490 most consistent predictor of bigheaded carp larval presence at the basin level, while temperature
491 was more important for Illinois tributaries, and measures of primary production show some
492 association with invasive carp presence between basins. By representing these environmental
493 parameters by a catchment scale variable such as drainage area, I provided a basis for
494 comparison of reproductive potential to currently uninvaded systems such as Lake Michigan.

495 Quantifying environmental variation between basin and tributaries was my first step in
496 explaining reproductive variation among systems. My findings show that between the Illinois
497 and Wabash River tributaries there were relatively few variables that differed at the basin level.
498 As expected, discharge was significantly greater in tributaries of the Wabash River than the
499 heavily impounded Illinois River. The Illinois River tributaries retained some amount of flow
500 variation consistent with more unaltered rivers (Poff et al. 1997); however, most of this variation
501 was reduced in magnitude mirroring hydrological trends in heavily altered rivers (Magilligan and
502 Nislow 2005; Zhang et al. 2010; Lian et al. 2012). The only other environmental variable that

503 differed between basins was dissolved oxygen which was higher overall in Illinois tributaries.
504 Other studies have found that dissolved oxygen is dependent on factors such as primary
505 production and temperature which may indicate increased primary production on Illinois
506 tributaries (Morgan et al. 2006). Among tributaries, lower Secchi depth experienced in the
507 Mackinaw and Vermilion compared to other tributaries could be due to their relatively low
508 average discharge which reduces suspended solids (Hintz et al. 2017). While also typically
509 related to discharge (Banner et al. 2009), Royer et al. 2008 found that increased sestonic
510 chlorophyll *a* in rivers of Illinois were more dependent on increased drainage area due to reduced
511 canopy cover which was consistent with our larger tributaries having the highest mean
512 chlorophyll *a*. The variability in total phosphorus concentrations among tributaries is consistent
513 with other research in rivers of Illinois and is often attributed to discharge, but varies with point
514 and non-point source pollution (Morgan et al. 2006; Royer et al. 2008). Overall, this shows that
515 there was more variation in environmental conditions at a local, tributary scale than a regional,
516 basin scale. This local variation will be important in determining bigheaded carp reproduction as
517 other studies have found that despite the importance of one environmental condition, bigheaded
518 carp reproduction is often determined by many factors (Garcia et al. 2015).

519 Spatiotemporal variability of bigheaded carp reproduction was present between basins
520 and individual tributaries during this sample period. By examining peak larval densities among
521 basins, I found the Illinois River tributaries to have the highest mean reproduction which
522 contradicts my prediction of the Wabash River tributaries having higher reproduction due to
523 increased hydrological variation. This difference, however, can mostly be attributed to two
524 instances of exceptionally high reproduction on the Sangamon River in 2018. This temporal
525 variability in the magnitude of reproduction was present among all the tributaries and is often

526 attributed to differences in hydrologic conditions (Gibson-Reinemer et al. 2017; Sullivan et al.
527 2018; Camacho et al. 2020). Despite high temporal variation in reproduction, the Sangamon and
528 Little Wabash Rivers showed consistently higher reproduction than the other tributaries. My
529 comparison of densities between Wabash tributaries and the mainstem river show that under the
530 right conditions, some high-density tributaries (i.e., the Little Wabash River) have the capacity to
531 support reproduction on the same scale as the mainstem river demonstrating the importance of
532 tributaries to population expansion. Although the capacity of tributary reproduction to influence
533 mainstem river populations has not been extensively studied for bigheaded carp (Camacho et al.
534 2020), other studies have found positive impacts of tributary reproduction on mainstem
535 populations of native species due to the availability of ideal hydrologic conditions and spawning
536 habitats within tributaries (Pracheil et al. 2009; Vasconcelos et al. 2021).

537 The dynamics of thermal and hydrologic variation in rivers are conventionally viewed as
538 the central catalysts for bigheaded carp reproduction (Schrank et al. 2001; Kolar et al. 2007;
539 Lohmeyer and Garvey 2009). Regardless of the basin, I found that river discharge is the
540 strongest and most consistent predictors of larval bigheaded carp presence during this sampling
541 period with higher river discharge values showing increased evidence of larval invasive carp
542 reproduction. I hypothesized that the Wabash River, which is less hydrologically restricted than
543 the Illinois River, would have invasive carp reproduction mostly influenced by hydrological
544 variables. My findings generally support this prediction, however the magnitude of reproduction
545 based on discharge in each basin is variable. Although the Wabash tributaries had the highest
546 mean discharge, the Illinois tributaries had the highest mean peak densities. This could be
547 partially due to a larger population of adult bigheaded carp in the Illinois River (Stuck et al.
548 2015; Shields et al. 2021) or due to the Sangamon River having the highest discharge out of all

549 the study tributaries, with peak densities for 2018 being considerably higher than any other
550 tributary peak density. Despite the necessity of 17 to 30°C water temperatures to trigger the
551 release of bigheaded carp gametes (DeGrandchamp et al. 2007; Kolar et al. 2007), our findings
552 show that temperature was a less consistent predictor of reproduction than discharge. Among
553 Illinois tributaries, temperature showed a strong positive association with bigheaded carp
554 reproduction, whereas no model for the Wabash tributaries retained temperature. Fluctuations in
555 water temperature stability have been shown to negatively influence silver carp reproduction
556 (Majdoubi et al. 2022) and the greater hydrologic variability of the Wabash tributaries compared
557 to the Illinois could also lead to greater temperature variability (Sinokrot and Gulliver 2000; van
558 Vliet et al. 2011), causing reduced reproductive success. Sullivan et al. (2018) measured similar
559 discharge and temperature dynamics in the Wabash River tributaries, where discharge primarily
560 influenced year class strength of bigheaded carp and temperature showed no association. Due in
561 part to close geographic proximity of my study tributaries, mean temperature variation between
562 tributaries and basins were minimal. Additionally, most larval bigheaded carp were collected
563 well within the thresholds of reproduction, with the mean temperature of collection (24.6 °C)
564 falling within the bounds of peak reproduction (22-26 °C; Schrank et al. 2001). Because of this,
565 when temperatures are within known reproductive boundaries, discharge is likely the dominant
566 environmental predictor of reproduction.

567 Surrogates for primary productivity and food resources show potential as secondary
568 factors in determining reproductive variability of tributaries. Bigheaded carp presence was
569 negatively associated with total phosphorus concentrations, however the two tributaries with the
570 lowest mean total phosphorus (Mackinaw and Vermilion Rivers) also showed some of the lowest
571 peak densities. Total phosphorus alone may be a difficult parameter to use to quantify

572 reproductive variability as these concentrations are highly dependent on point and non-point
573 source pollution that vary with land use and drainage area (Lohman and Jones 1999) and
574 discharge (Banner et al. 2009). While not significant, chlorophyll *a* helped improve Wabash
575 regression models and may be improved with additional years of sampling. Total phosphorus and
576 chlorophyll *a* together have been found to relate to discharge during extreme flooding events
577 (Banner et al. 2009) and although they didn't highly correlate here it is likely a product of
578 sampling during a wide range of hydrological conditions. Although not examined in this study,
579 zooplankton diversity and abundance may be a more direct measurement of food resources as it
580 relates to fish reproduction due to impacts of bigheaded carp on zooplankton communities (Sass
581 et al. 2014; DeBoer et al. 2018; Tillotson et al. 2022), but even direct measurements of food
582 availability such as these are often subject to environmental variation from factors such as water
583 level (Bonecker et al. 2013). Therefore, determining reproductive viability of rivers may be aided
584 by a more simplistic approach of using variables such as discharge or drainage area that
585 encompass the variation of many factors.

586 The environmental predictors of bigheaded carp reproduction identified in this study can
587 be applied to predicting tributaries susceptible to reproduction in uninvaded environments, such
588 as Lake Michigan. Using a catchment scale variable such as drainage area due to its correlation
589 with significant parameters found in my analyses (e.g. discharge and total phosphorus; Lohman
590 and Jones 1999; Knighton 2014) could be beneficial to account for additional variation in
591 reproduction. By comparing drainage area of all major tributaries of Lake Michigan, I found that
592 the Menominee (6,550 km²), Oconto (3,888 km²), Fox-Wolf (10,139 km²), Kalamazoo (3,251
593 km²), Grand (6,116 km²), and St. Joseph (7,540 km²) rivers are the only rivers of comparable or
594 greater drainage area to the Illinois and Wabash River tributaries that showed high reproduction.

595 The rivers on the Wisconsin side (Menomonee, Oconto, and Fox-Wolf) along with the
596 Kalamazoo in Michigan all have dams or barriers < 40km from Lake Michigan to allow for eggs
597 to remain in suspension, based on findings from Garcia et al. 2015. The Grand and St. Joseph
598 Rivers are either undammed or dammed in a way that allows fish passage. These two rivers also
599 have the most comparable sized (>6,000 km²) drainage areas to the Sangamon and Little Wabash
600 Rivers which have the highest mean larval bigheaded carp densities of our study tributaries. Prior
601 research has also identified that the St. Joseph River (Murphy and Jackson 2013) has the
602 capability to support bigheaded carp reproduction based on factors such as unimpounded river
603 kilometers and discharge. These rivers are not currently connected to bodies of water with
604 known bigheaded carp populations, but they do correspond with areas of Lake Michigan
605 predicted to have suitable habitat to promote growth of bigheaded carp under various conditions
606 and time periods due to the influx of nutrients they provide (Alsip et al. 2018). Additionally, as
607 both the Grand and St. Joseph Rivers are in the southern portion of Lake Michigan, they are
608 more likely to have water temperatures that fall within the reproductive threshold during higher
609 discharge events in the spring. By applying drainage area in this manner, I do not mean to
610 disregard potential reproduction in smaller tributaries that experience high discharge fluctuations
611 and proper spawning temperatures, but rather identify the tributaries that could contribute the
612 most reproduction based on our findings in the Illinois and Wabash tributaries.

613 These findings illustrate the importance of accounting for hydrologic, thermal, and other
614 environmental variation (e.g., primary production and food availability) in determining
615 reproductive suitability of tributary rivers along with the overall importance of tributaries to
616 bigheaded carp reproduction. Overall reproductive output in tributaries of the unimpounded
617 Wabash River was primarily influenced by hydrologic conditions, whereas Illinois River

618 tributaries were influenced by a combination of thermal and hydrological variation. Additionally,
619 some tributaries show potential to contribute similar reproduction to the mainstem river, likely a
620 product of increased hydrologic variation. Future research should include expanding the sample
621 size for measures of primary productivity (currently limited to 2019-2020) along with adding
622 mainstem Illinois River sites upstream and downstream of the confluences to help quantify the
623 contribution of bigheaded carp from each tributary. Continued and expanded monitoring of these
624 tributary systems is needed due to their potential to serves as sources of recruitment to basin-
625 wide bigheaded carp populations and their comparability in size to Great Lakes tributaries.
626 Expanding on the approach of predicting tributaries susceptible to bigheaded carp reproduction
627 can provide a method of risk assessment along invasion fronts and help direct monitoring efforts.

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TABLES

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843 TABLE 1. Location and identification number of United States Geological Survey (USGS) gauging stations on the tributaries of
 844 Illinois and Wabash River used to obtain mean daily river discharge. Simple linear regressions between air and water temperature
 845 measurements were based on water temperatures recorded in the field and air temperature recorded at nearest airport air temperature
 846 gauges. Regression equations were used to estimate water temperature when field measurements were not taken. N refers to
 847 temperature sample sizes used to formulate regressions.

	Site	Gauging Station	Location	Air Temperature Location	Water Temperature Equation	R ²	n
Illinois	Sangamon (SA)	USGS 5583000	Oakford, IL	Quincy Regional Airport	$y = 0.9214x + 0.1273$	0.76	72
	Spoon (SP)	USGS 5570000	Seville, IL	Peoria Internation Airport	$y = 0.9342x - 0.3034$	0.85	75
	Mackinaw (MA)	USGS 5568000	Green Valley, IL	Peoria Internation Airport	$y = 1.0397x - 0.7702$	0.81	66
Wabash	Little Wabash (LW)	USGS 3381500	Carmi, IL	Evansville Regional Airport	$y = 0.7538x + 4.7624$	0.71	51
	Embarras (EM)	USGS 3346500	Lawrenceville, IL	Lawrenceville–Vincennes Airport	$y = 0.7843x + 4.1229$	0.72	49
	Vermilion (VE)	USGS 3339000	Danville, IL	Willard Airport	$y = 0.9194x + 0.4626$	0.67	57

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855 TABLE 2. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) for environmental data comparing the
 856 Sangamon, Spoon, Mackinaw, Little Wabash, Embarras, and Vermilion tributaries in addition to
 857 between Illinois and Wabash tributaries for 2016-2020 for every parameter except total
 858 phosphorus and chlorophyll *a* which include only 2019-2020.

	df	MS/Pillai's Trace	F	p859
Multivariate test				
Mainstem	6, 84	0.27761	5.38	<0.0001
Tributary	24, 348	1.433	8.092	<0.0001
Univariate tests				
Discharge				
Mainstem	1	0.66532	16.56	0.0001
Tributary	4	1.535	38.197	<0.0001
Error	89	0.040		
Temperature				
Mainstem	1	1.8499	0.3208	0.57257
Tributary	4	15.510	2.689	0.03615
Error	89	5.767		
Dissolved Oxygen				
Mainstem	1	16.010	6.481	0.01262
Tributary	4	21.089	8.537	<0.0001
Error	89	2.470		
Secchi				
Mainstem	1	0.0002	0.003	0.95914
Tributary	4	0.233	3.337	0.01355
Error	89	0.070		
Total Phosphorus				
Mainstem	1	0.004	0.072	0.7886
Tributary	4	0.496	8.811	<0.0001
Error	89	0.056		
Chlorophyll <i>a</i>				
Mainstem	1	0.053	0.321	0.572683
Tributary	4	0.613	3.736	0.007398
Error	89	0.164		

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861 TABLE 3. Repeated measures analysis comparing peak larval density of larval push samples at
 862 lower tributary sites by tributary and year for 2016-2020. Factors including year or tributary ×
 863 year have F-tests reported using Pillai's Trace.

Source of variation	DF	F	p
Tributary	5, 12	25.82397	<0.001
Year	4, 9	19.1885	<0.001
Tributary x Year	20, 48	3.11716	<0.001

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886 TABLE 4. Multiple logistic regression with stepwise model selection incorporating
 887 environmental variables and invasive carp presence absence. Models incorporate data from
 888 2016-2020 and separate models were created for 2019-2020 to incorporate chlorophyll *a* and
 889 total phosphorus. Directionality of variable relationship to bigheaded carp presence is
 890 represented by the model coefficient. Variables greater than 1 were positive and less than one 1
 891 were negative. Overall model fit was tested using a Hosmer-Lemeshow test.

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	Tributary System	Model Parameters	Model Coefficient (exp β)	p-value	Hosmer-Lemeshow p-value
2016-2020	Illinois	Temperature	1.030	0.002	0.827
		Log Discharge	1.140	0.024	
	Wabash	Log Discharge	5.480	<0.001	0.2626
		Dissolved Oxygen	0.810	0.119	
2019-2020	Illinois	Log Discharge	37.960	0.024	0.9823
		Log Phosphorus	0.002	0.034	
		Temperature	1.450	0.084	
	Wabash	Log Discharge	4.570	0.027	0.253
Log Chlorophyll <i>a</i>		0.230	0.123		

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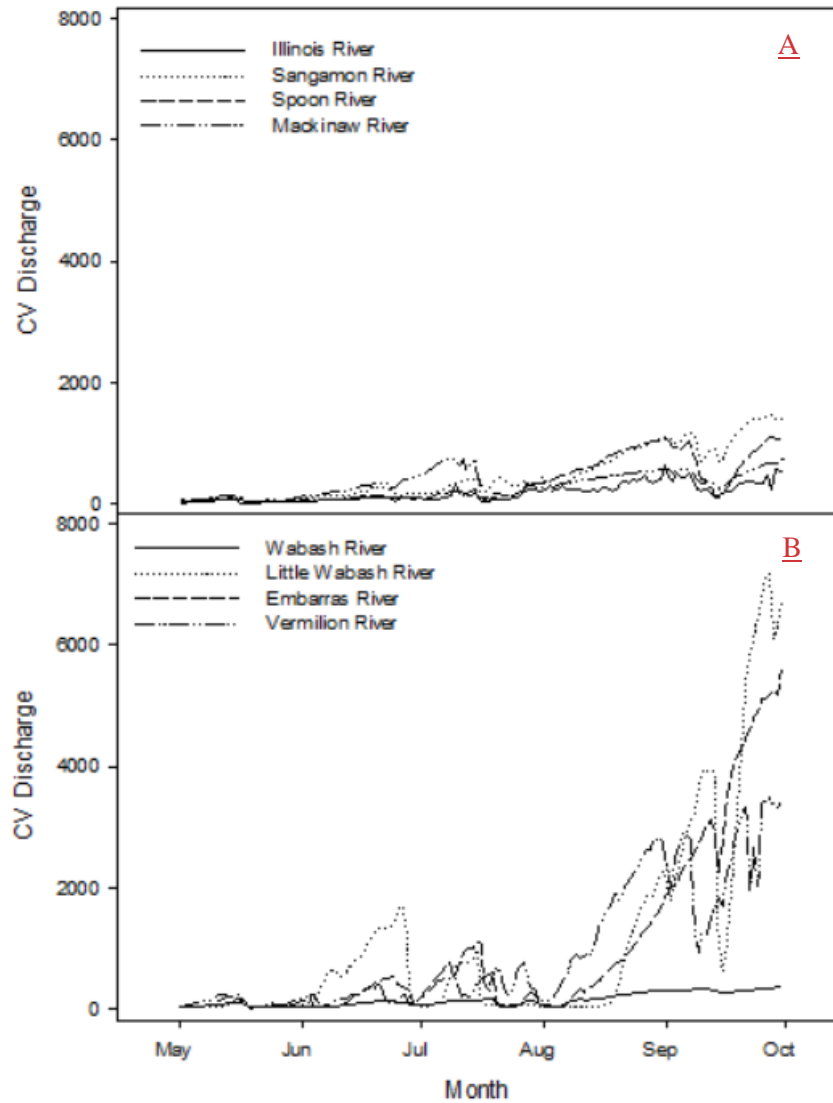
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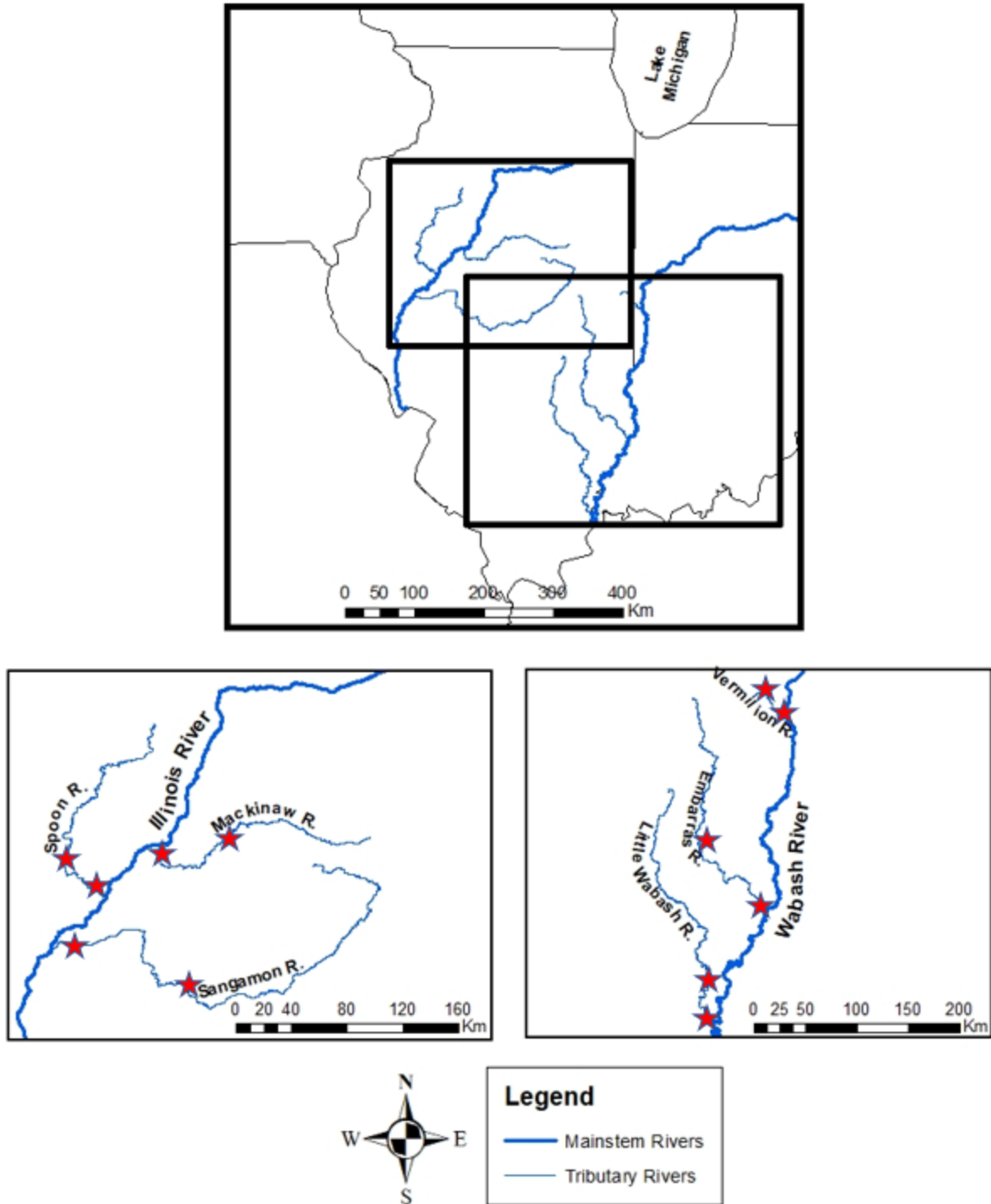
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FIGURES



920 FIGURE 1. Coefficient of variation of mean daily discharge for tributaries and associated
921 mainstem rivers of the A) Illinois River and B) Wabash River basins from May-September 2020.



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923 FIGURE 2. Map of six Illinois and Wabash River tributaries sampled from 2016-2020, and the
 924 downstream and upstream sampling sites on each tributary.

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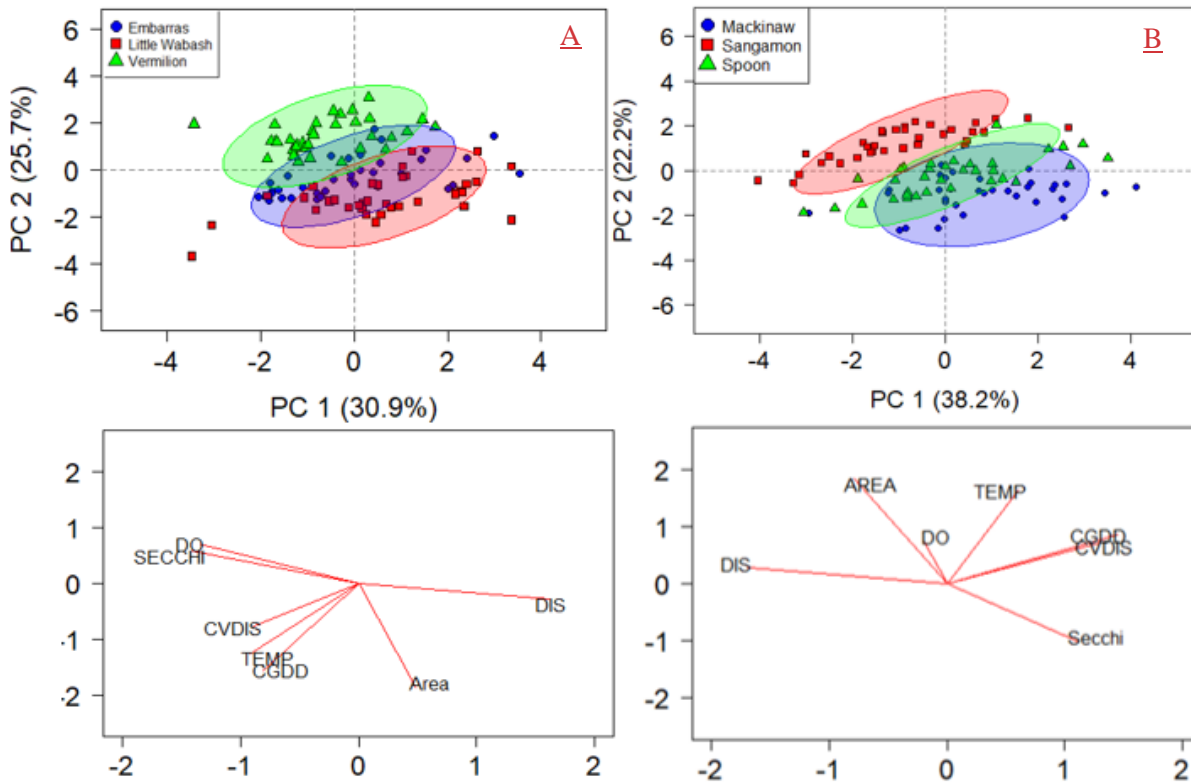


FIGURE 3. Principal component analysis (PCA) of environmental data including dissolved oxygen (DO), Secchi depth, mean daily discharge (DIS), CV discharge, temperature, cumulative growing degree days (CGDD), and drainage area (Area) for tributaries of the A) Wabash and B) Illinois River. Ellipses indicate 95% confidence intervals for each tributary.

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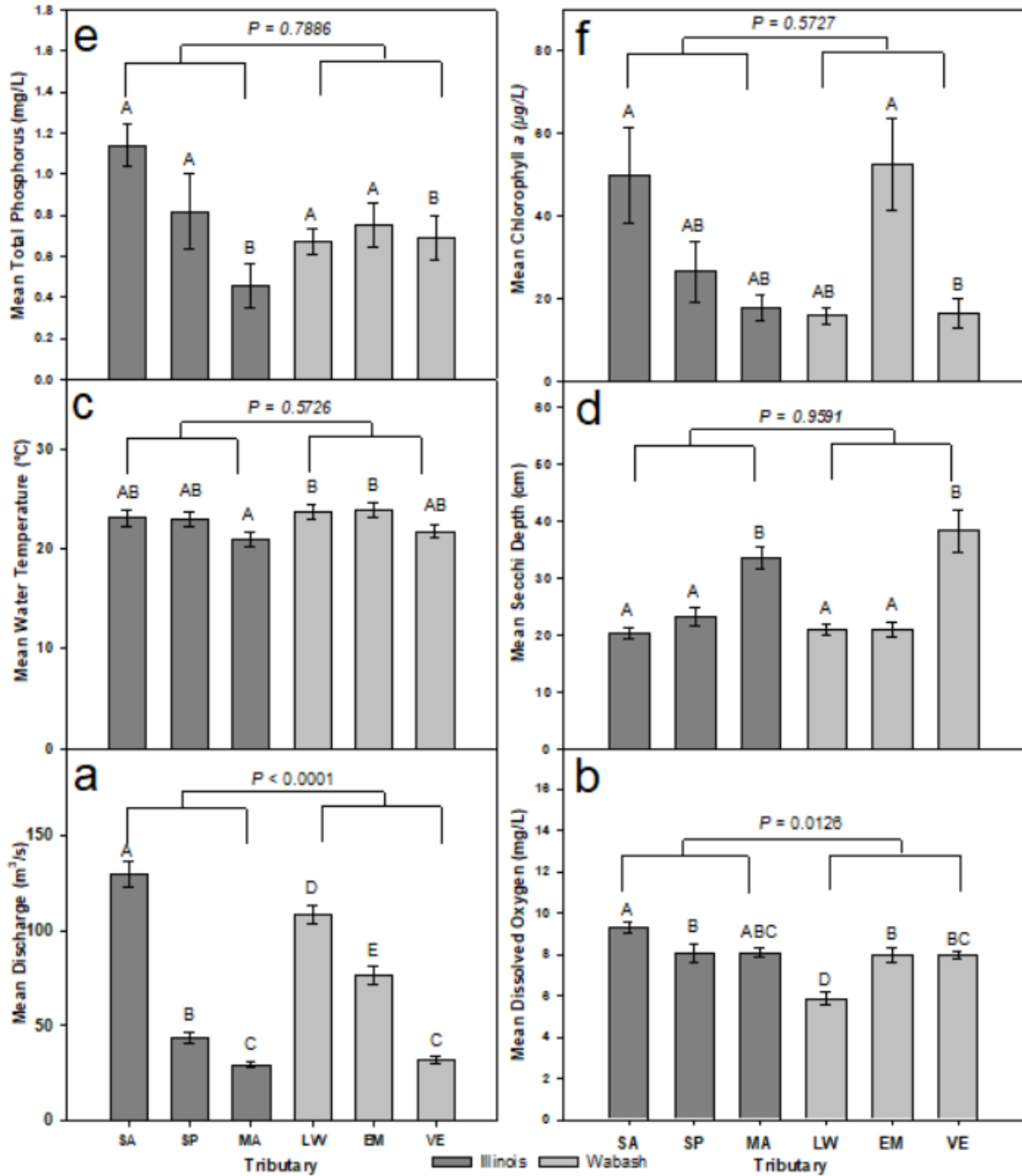


FIGURE 4. Graphs of mean environmental data \pm SE among tributaries incorporating field data from 2016-2020. Tributaries were compared using either Kruskal-Wallis tests with a Dunn post-hoc test or an ANOVA with a Tukey's post-hoc test depending on normality and homogeneity of variances. Tributaries that were statistically different from each other were represented by unique letters. Mainstem grouped tributaries were compared with univariate MANOVA P values. Significance was determined using $\alpha = 0.05$. Refer to Table 1 for tributary abbreviation key.

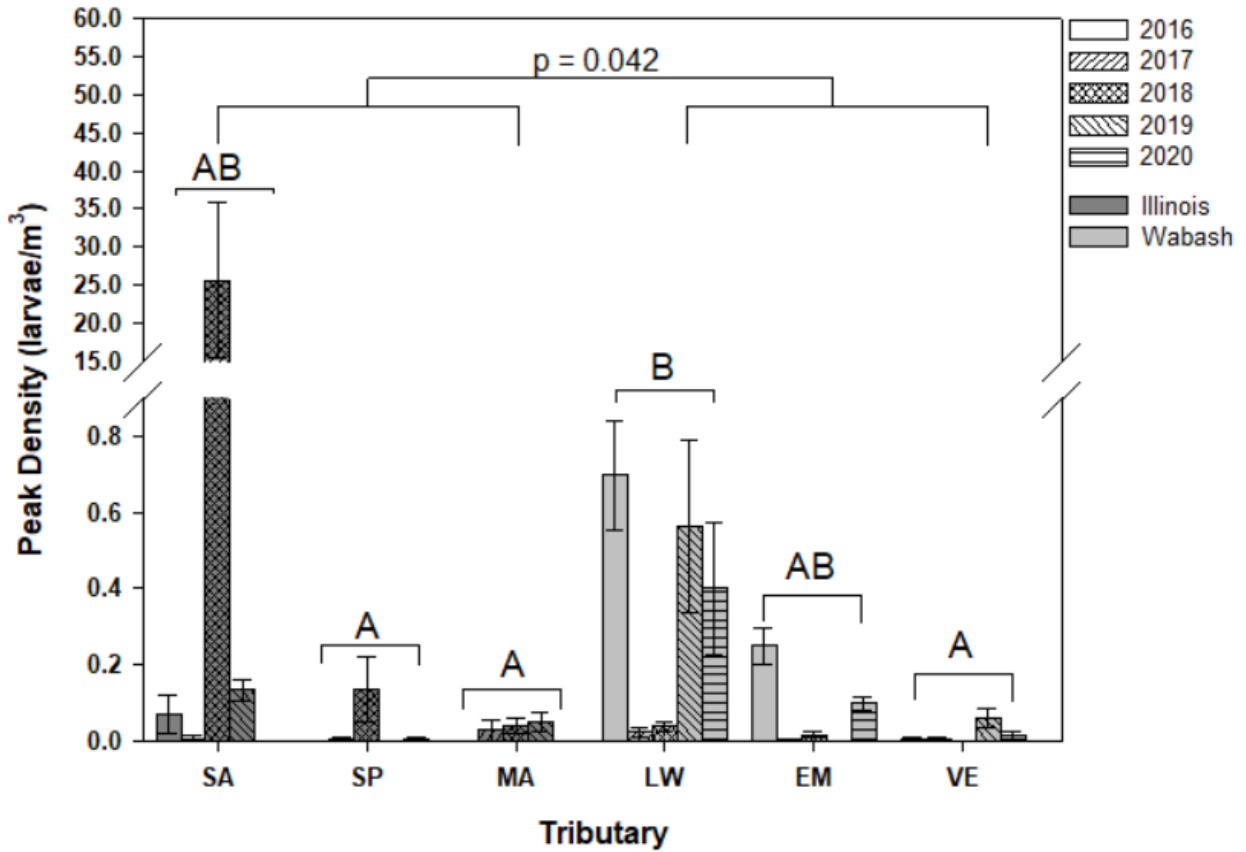
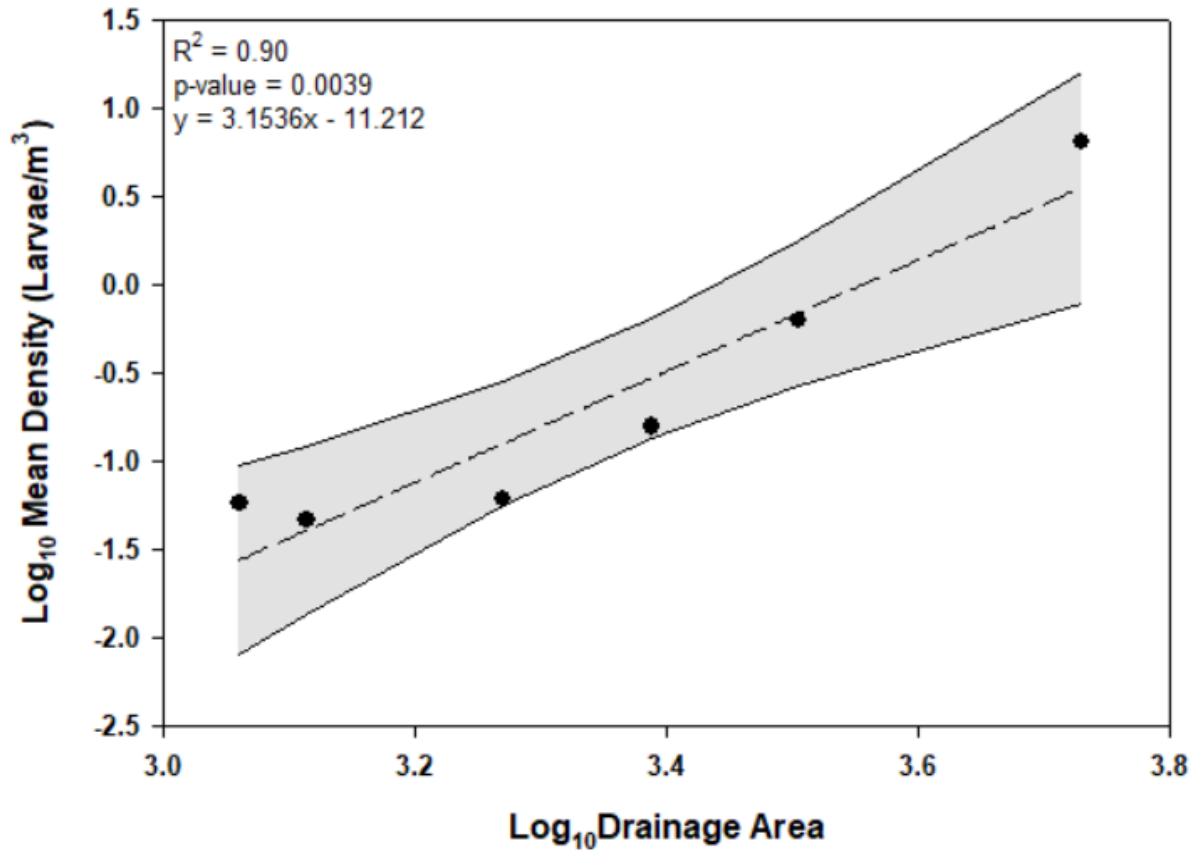


FIGURE 5. Lower tributary site peak larval density for larval push nets \pm SE from 2016-2020 compared by tributary with a Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn post-hoc test. Illinois tributaries were compared to Wabash tributaries using a Mann Whitney U two-sample test. Significant differences were indicated by unique lettering and significance was determined using $\alpha = 0.05$. Refer to Table 1 for tributary abbreviation key.

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950 FIGURE 6. Simple linear regression with 95% confidence intervals comparing drainage area to
951 mean invasive carp density using larval push nets for the Illinois and Wabash River tributaries
952 from 2016-2020

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