

- 1 ASSESSING DIET & TROPHIC POSITION OF FISH IN CHENDEROH RESERVOIR,
- 2 MALAYSIA: SCA & SIA APPROACH
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- 5

6 **ABSTRACT**

7 The present study assessed and compared the diet and trophic positions (TP) of two carnivorous
8 fish *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* from Chenderoh Reservoir, Malaysia. The focal goal of
9 the study was to understand the effects of invasive non-indigenous species (NIS), *C. ocellaris*, on
10 the native indigenous (IS) fish species, *H. macrolepidota*. Data were acquired from September
11 2014 to February 2015 within the study area. The assessment was grounded in stomach content
12 analysis (SCA) and stable isotope analysis (SIA), which collectively clarified the feeding habits
13 and trophic positions (TP) of these selected fish. In total, 184 fish samples (comprising 64
14 individuals of *H. macrolepidota* and 120 individuals of *C. ocellaris*) underwent stomach content
15 analysis (SCA). Additionally, 24 individuals (12 of *H. macrolepidota* and 12 of *C. ocellaris*),
16 sampled from December 2014 to February 2015, were selected for stable isotope analysis (SIA).
17 The mean RGL values for *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* were 0.98 ± 0.18 and 1.10 ± 0.15
18 (Mean \pm SD), respectively, aligning with known ranges for carnivorous fish. These values also
19 clarified that both species occupy higher TP in the food web as tertiary or quaternary consumers.
20 SCA findings also revealed that fish and crustaceans were the predominant food categories for
21 *H. macrolepidota*, while *C. ocellaris* predominantly fed on fish. The mean stomach fullness
22 index (MSF) and the gastro-somatic index (GSI) corroborated the differences in the foraging
23 performance of the fishes, with *C. ocellaris* having a higher MSF (2.03) compared to *H.*
24 *macrolepidota* (0.65). These implied that *C. ocellaris* had plentiful of food and encountered
25 fewer diet-related challenges in the ecosystem. From SIA, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values indicated that the primary
26 carbon sources for both species are C3 plants, particularly aquatic vegetation. Further, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
27 values further ensured that both *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* are carnivorous in nature and
28 occupy higher TP in the ecosystem.

29

30

31 **Keywords:** Non-indigenous Species, NIS, IAS, Stomach Content Analysis, Stable Isotope
32 Analysis, SCA, SIA, *Hampalamacrolepidota*, *Cicla ocellaris*.

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34

35

36 **1. INTRODUCTION**

37 Unintentional and purposeful introductions of fish species to our freshwater ecosystems have
38 been a repeated phenomenon since the distant past (Hughes, 2003; Sultana & Hashim, 2016). It
39 is estimated that approximately 20% of the freshwater fish species of the world are already
40 extinct or endangered due to non-indigenous (NIS) fish introduction (Hanif *et al.*, 2016). Biotic
41 homogenization, in other words, the replacement of specific indigenous species (IS) by NIS
42 (Tabarelliet *al.*, 2012), results in freshwater ecosystems with lower diversity and species
43 extinction (Rahel, 2002; Drake & Lodge, 2004). Hence, it has become a top priority in the
44 present era to evaluate the introduction, diversity, distribution, magnitude, and impacts of non-
45 indigenous (NIS) and invasive alien (IAS) fish species (Sala *et al.*, 2000; Vörösmarty *et al.*,
46 2010) in freshwater ecosystems.

47 Alike some other reservoirs in Malaysia, Chenderoh Reservoir is also comprised of indigenous
48 (IS) fish and non-indigenous (NIS) fish. In Chenderoh, Bass fish, *i.e.*, *Cicla ocellaris*, were
49 introduced by the Department of Fisheries, Malaysia, mainly for sport-fishing or entertainment
50 purposes (Rahim *et al.*, 2013). This intentional introduction of *C. ocellaris* has traditionally been
51 viewed as a form of fishery enhancement in Chenderoh, and, until now, there have been little
52 concerns about their ecological consequences. Therefore, this study was a pioneer which is
53 exploring the preliminary conditions of the invasive Bass species in the reservoir.

54 Stomach content analysis (SCA) and stable isotope analysis (SIA) are both valuable tools in fish
55 ecology and food-web research for assessing the diets and trophic positions (TP) of freshwater
56 fish (Davis *et al.*, 2012). SCA offers insights into diet preferences and selections. Therefore, it
57 provides only a snapshot of a fish's diet over a short period and doesn't account for long-term
58 dietary patterns. In contrast, SIA is a strategic method that reveals the assimilated diet fraction
59 over a more extended time frame and also identifies carbon and nitrogen sources in the
60 ecosystem. However, SIA has its own limitations, as it can't directly pinpoint the specific prey
61 items consumed by fish. Therefore, combining these methods can offer a more comprehensive
62 understanding of a fish's trophic role and the larger ecological picture (Woodward & Hildrew,
63 2002; Renones *et al.*, 2002).

64 We selected two fish species, one indigenous (IS) and one non-indigenous (NIS) from
65 Chenderoh Reservoir, *Hampalamacrolepidota*, and *Cicla ocellaris*, respectively. The reasons
66 behind the selection were: 1) These two were the most abundant IS (indigenous) and NIS (non-
67 indigenous) fish caught on that time frame of fish sampling. 2) They had similar diet patterns. 3)

68 Assessment of similar diet patterns is crucial to understanding diet overlap, trophic position (TP)
69 overlap, and overall invasiveness posed by the NIS fish (if there is any).

70 This research paper was centered around addressing three specific questions. 1) what does SCA
71 reveal regarding the diet preference of *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* (i.e., identity, quantity,
72 and size of prey items)? 2) what is the trajectory of isotopic signatures about the food
73 consumption of the selected fish species? 3) similarities and/or dissimilarities in food preferences
74 and trophic positions (TP) between the two species that may impact each other in the ecosystem.

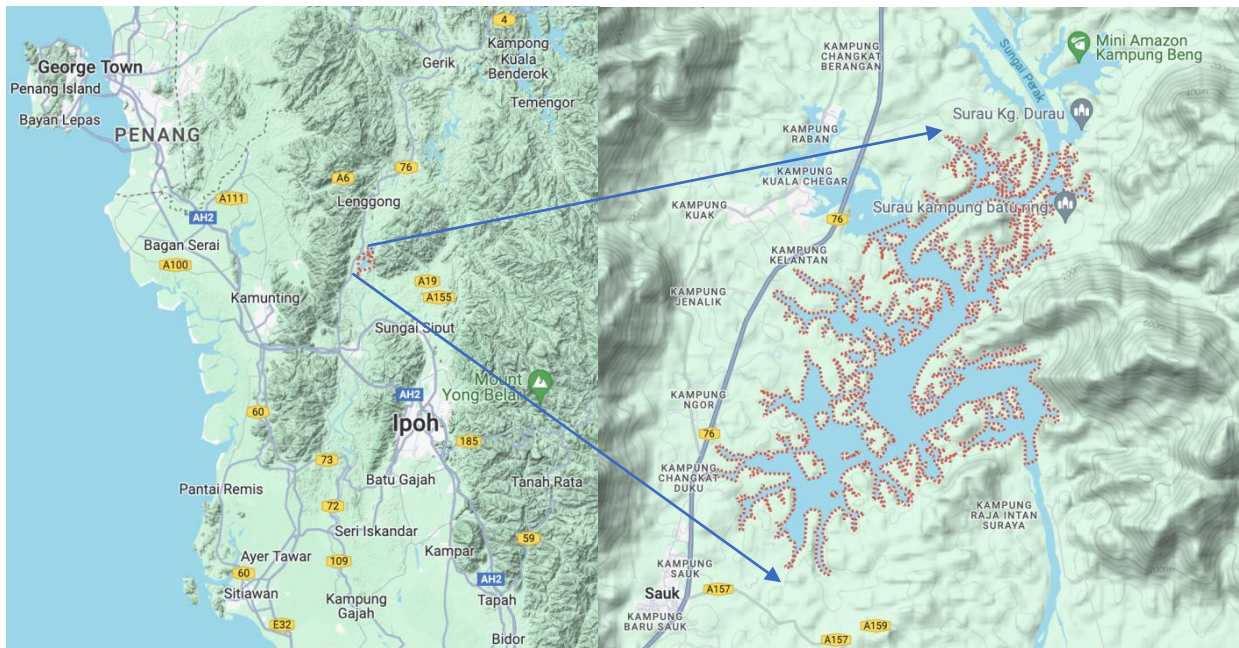
75

76 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

77 2.1. Location and General Features of Study Area, Chenderoh Reservoir:

78 The study was conducted from September 2014 to February 2015 in Chenderoh Reservoir, a
79 man-made reservoir on the Perak River, Malaysia (4°58'N, 100°57'E). With an elevation of 68
80 meters above sea level, the Chenderoh Reservoir covers a surface area of 25,910,000 meters
81 square with an average mean depth of nine meters (Sultana & Hashim, 2016) (Fig. 1).

82



83 **Figure 1:** Study area; Chenderoh Reservoir, Penang, Malaysia. Source: Google Map

84

85 2.2. Fish Sample Collection:

86 Three sets of experimental gill nets (250 cm vertical length and 2,976 cm total width) with five
87 different stretch mesh sizes (10 cm; 7.5 cm; 6.5 cm; 5 cm; and 3.7 cm) were deployed overnight

88 randomly to capture fish from the reservoir. SCA was conducted from fish samples captured
89 between September 2014 to February 2015 while SIA was carried out using fish samples
90 collected from December 2014 to February 2015.

91

92 **2.3. Stomach Sample Collection and Preparation For SCA:**

93 The selected fishes for SCA were preserved in formalin straightaway in the field to prevent food
94 digestion. Afterward, they were washed off thoroughly before further analysis. Total length (TL),
95 standard length (SL), and weight (W) of fish were measured to the nearest 0.1 cm/g. Fishes were
96 cautiously dissected to obtain the gut. Gut length (GL) was measured from the esophagus until
97 the tip of the anus. Gut weight (GW) was taken with and without its content, while the contents
98 of the stomachs were also measured using an electronic scale to the nearest 0.1 g. Each stomach
99 was placed into a sample bottle containing 10% formalin for further observation and analysis.

100

101 **2.4. Fish Fillet Collection and Sample Preparation for SIA:**

102 The white dorsal muscle tissue of fish was collected from each selected fish for analysis (Thomas
103 & Cahoon, 1993; Chipps & Garvey, 2007). This is because muscle-turnover rate for
104 that part is longer than those of other parts as well as liver, and blood (Tieszen et. al., 1983).
105 Besides, in temperate fishes, lipid concentration in white muscle is generally low and this tissue
106 was demonstrated to be the most suitable for stable isotope analysis (Pinnegar & Polunin,
107 1999; Cresson et al., 2014). Therefore fish samples were dissected cautiously and filleted at
108 laboratory to get the white dorsal muscle tissue and stored in a frozen state in the deep freezer (–
109 20oC) (Kim et al., 2014) with its remaining body parts until isotopic analysis.

110

111 All fillets were dried in an oven for dehydration at 60oC until a constant weight (Chipps &
112 Garvey, 2007). Afterwards, the samples were grounded to a fine powder with an agate mortar and
113 pestle. Two replicates of every classified (species × month × location) sample were planned to
114 use for SIA. Therefore, the sample powders were divided equally into two subsamples (Carabel et
115 al., 2006), where all the subsamples were weighted from 400 µg to 500 µg. Prior to stable isotope
116 analysis, about 0.8 to 10mg of samples was filled into small tin capsules (8 x 5 mm) in triplicates
117 (Chipps & Garvey, 2007). These samples were then folded and compressed before being
118 loaded into an auto-sampler.

119

120 Stable isotope analysis was performed at the laboratory of ABRC (AnalyticalBiochemistry
121 Research Centre) of Universiti Sains Malaysia. For the analysis of stablecarbon and nitrogen
122 isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$), Flash EA 2000 elemental analyzer (Thermo Scientific,
123 Waltham, MA) coupled to a Delta V Advantage isotoperatio mass spectrometer (Thermo, Milan,
124 Italy) was used in laboratory. Raw isotope ratios from the analysis were then normalized to the
125 international scales using USGS-40 and USGS-41 reference materials (~0.5 mg, respectively)
126 assayed with the unknown samples. Urea (IVA-Analysentechnik GmbH & Co., Germany)
127 was used as a quality control material to correct for drift and was measured for every 12 samples
128 with known values of $\delta^{13}\text{C} = -40.81\text{‰}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N} = -0.49\text{‰}$. The typical precision for the
129 triplicate samples was $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\pm 0.3\text{‰}$ for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

130

131 **2.5. Data Analysis for Stomach Content Analysis (SCA):**

132 **2.5.1. Relative Gut Length (RGL):** The gut length was measured with an accuracy of 0.5 cm in
133 order to obtain the relative gut length. RGL was calculated by using the formula given by
134 Montgomery (1997):

135

$$RGL = \frac{\text{Gut Length (cm)}}{\text{Standard Length (cm)}}$$

136

137 **2.5.2. Frequency Of Occurrence (%FOC):** To identify diet category and the usage of prey
138 resource, frequency of occurrence (%FOC) were calculated for each food item in each selected
139 fish species as outlined by Bowen (1996) as:

$$[\%] Fi = \frac{Mi}{M\Sigma} \times 100$$

140 Where, M_i = number of stomachs containing prey component i and M_Σ = number of stomachs
141 containing food

142

143 **2.5.3. Mean Stomach Fullness (MSF) Index:** In this study, stomachs were visually assessed
144 (Sarkar & Deepak, 2009) for the degree of SF (stomach fullness) using the following numerical
145 scale (Carniatto *et al.*, 2014): 0 = empty stomach; 1 = up to 25% SF; 2 = 25% to 75% SF; 3 \geq 75%
146 SF. The value of MSF was calculated as following calculation by Santos (1978):

$$MSF = \frac{(N_0 \times 0) + (N_1 \times 1) + (N_2 \times 2) + (N_3 \times 3)}{N}$$

147 Where N_0 , N_1 , N_2 , and N_3 are the number of stomachs with SF values of 0, 1, 2, and 3,
 148 respectively, and N is the number of individuals.

149

150 **2.5.4. Gastro-Somatic Index (GSI):** The gastro-somatic index indicates the feeding activities
 151 and foraging performances of fish (Sarkar & Deepak, 2009). In the present study, the gastro-
 152 somatic index of selected fishes was calculated as:

$$153 \quad GSI = \frac{GW}{BW} \times 100$$

154 Where, GW = gut weight in grams, and BW = body weight in grams.

155

156 **2.6. Data Interpretation and Analysis for Stable Isotope Analysis (SIA):**

157 SIA was performed at the Doping Control Centre (DCC) of University Sains Malaysia (USM),
 158 using an elemental analyzer Thermo Finnigan Flash EA2000 connected to Finningan DELTA V-
 159 AVANTAGE plus isotope ratio mass spectrometry by a Con Flo II interface with an analytical
 160 precision of $\pm 0.2\%$. Standards considered were VPDB (Pee Dee Belemnite) for Carbon and
 161 atmospheric Nitrogen for Nitrogen (Carabel *et al.*, 2006). In this study, isotopic ratios for Carbon
 162 ($\delta^{13}C$) and for Nitrogen ($\delta^{15}N$) were calculated as:

$$163 \quad \delta^{13}C = \left\{ \left(\frac{^{13}C/^{12}C_{\text{sample}}}{^{13}C/^{12}C_{\text{standard}}} \right) - 1 \right\} \times 1000 \text{ (‰)}$$

$$164 \quad \delta^{15}N = \left\{ \left(\frac{^{15}N/^{14}N_{\text{sample}}}{^{15}N/^{14}N_{\text{standard}}} \right) - 1 \right\} \times 1000 \text{ (‰)}$$

165

166 **2.7. Trophic Position (TP) of Fish Analysis from $\delta^{15}N$:**

167 To estimate the TP of selected fish species from SIA, the $\delta^{15}N$ values were converted into
 168 relative trophic positions using a modification of the model (Brasso & Polito, 2013) described by
 169 Hobson *et al.*, (1994):

$$170 \quad TP_{\text{selected consumer}} = \left[\left(\delta^{15}N_{\text{selected consumer}} - \delta^{15}N_{\text{primary consumer}} \right) / 3.4 \right] + 2$$

171 Where 3.4 represents a '1.0 Trophic Level' increment in $\delta^{15}N$ and 2 represents the trophic
 172 position (TP) for the primary consumers in the ecosystem.

173

174 **2.8. Statistical Analysis:**

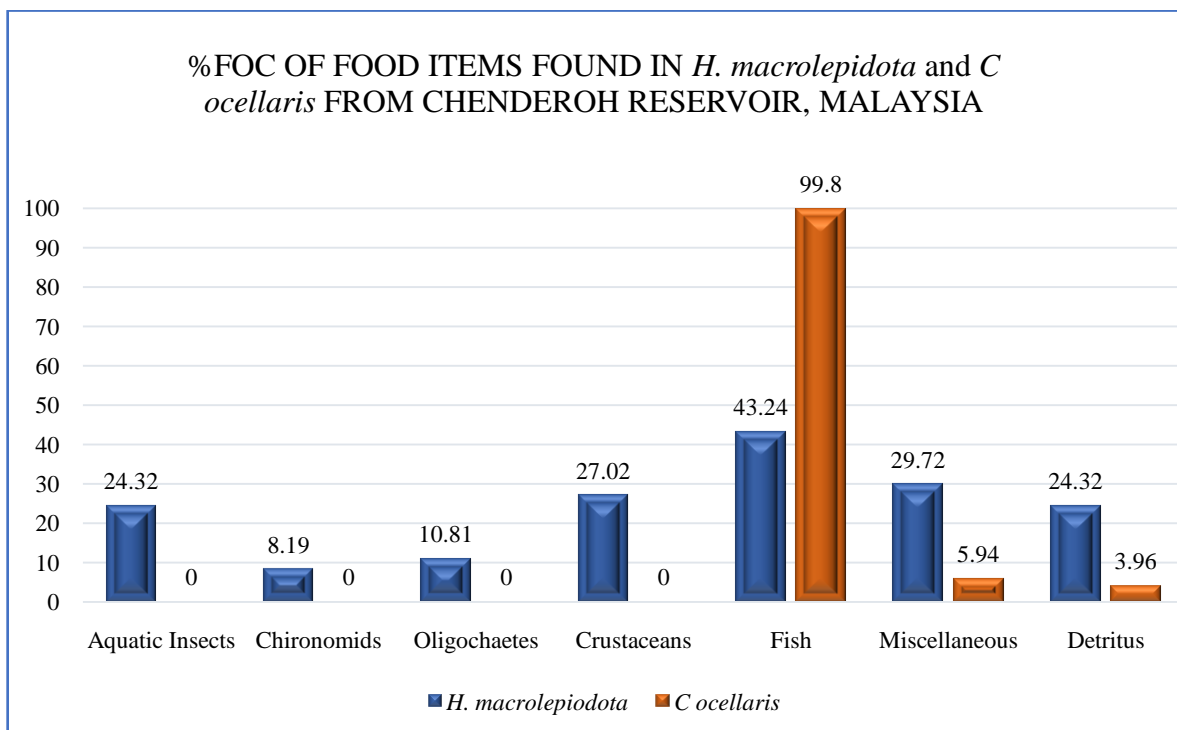
175 All data were subjected to a normality test by using SPSS (version 19.0). Subsequently, based on
 176 low P values ($P < 0.05$) from the test statistics, parametric analysis with permutation was
 177 performed. Besides, descriptive statistics, Student's t-test, one-way ANOVA, and post-hoc
 178 analysis were done.

179

180 3. RESULTS

181 3.1 Diet Composition of *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris*:

182 Out of 64 stomachs analyzed for *H. macrolepidota*, 37 had food in them (57.81%) and 27 were
 183 empty (42.18%) whereas, out of 120 stomachs observed for *C. ocellaris*, 101 were with food
 184 (84.16%), and the remaining 19 were (15.83%) empty. In the present study, out of seven food
 185 categories identified for *H. macrolepidota*, fish and crustaceans were the most common items
 186 with 43.24% and 27.02% occurrence respectively (Fig. 2), while fish fingerlings were the only
 187 perceived food item in the stomachs of *C. ocellaris* with nearly 100% occurrence. The other
 188 significant food items of *H. macrolepidota* include aquatic insects (24.32%), Oligochaetes
 189 (10.81%), and Chironomids (8.19%). Similar findings were observed in a study conducted by
 190 Makmur (2014) in Indonesia, where *H. macrolepidota* was characterized as a carnivorous fish
 191 primarily preying on other fish. It was also found to feed on a variety of other organisms,
 192 including shrimp, crabs, insects, and mollusks (Makmur, 2014).



193

194 **Figure 2:** Percentage of identified food items observed in the stomachs of *H. macrolepidota*.

195

196 From this study, it can be perceived that a significant proportion of *H. macrolepidota* had empty
197 stomachs, indicating potential challenges in finding food. Among those with food in their
198 stomachs, fish and crustaceans were the primary food items, but their occurrence was notably
199 lower compared to *C. ocellaris*, which exclusively fed on fish.

200

201 **3.2. Categorization of Fish According to RGL:**

202 The relative gut length (RGL) of fish facilitates comparisons among fishes with varying diets,
203 such as herbivores, carnivores, and omnivores (Ahmed *et al.*, 2022). In this study, *H.*
204 *macrolepidota* had a RGL value (mean \pm SD) of 0.98 ± 0.18 . Besides, *C. ocellaris* had an RGL
205 value (mean \pm SD) of 1.10 ± 0.15 . The RGL values of *H. macrolepidota* were similar to those
206 proposed by Bertin (1958) for carnivorous fish (0.2 to 2.5) and the RGL values for *C.*
207 *ocellaris* were close to those found by Pouilly *et al.* (2003) for neotropical piscivores (0.93 to
208 1.23). Therefore, this can be concluded from the study that both of the species are carnivores.

209

210 **Table 1:** The (mean \pm SD) values of Standard Length, Weight, Gut Length, Gut Weight, Relative
211 Gut Length, and category of fishes according to their relative gut length of *H. macrolepidota* and
212 *C. ocellaris*.

Species	SL (cm)(Mean \pm SD)	W (g)(Mean \pm SD)	GL (cm)(Mean \pm SD)	GW (g)(Mean \pm SD)	RGL (cm)(Mean \pm SD)	Category of fish
<i>H. macrolepidota</i>	$16.94 \pm$ 2.84	128.21 \pm 69.05	$16.41 \pm$ 3.06	$1.75 \pm$ 0.58	$0.98 \pm$ 0.17	Carnivore
<i>C. ocellaris</i>	$15.73 \pm$ 2.10	$97.91 \pm$ 46.60	$17.26 \pm$ 3.03	$2.47 \pm$ 1.71	$1.10 \pm$ 0.15	Carnivore

213

214 Note: SD = standard deviation; SL = standard length; W = weight; GL = gut length; GW = gut
215 weight; RGL = relative gut length; cm = centimeter; g = gram

216

217 **3.3. Diet Consumption Frequency and Foraging Performance:**

218 Subjective methods “mean stomach fullness index” (MSF index) and gastro somatic index (GSI)
 219 were used in the present study to quantify the diet consumption frequency and foraging
 220 performance of selected fishes (Phelps *et al.*, 2007, Suvarna & Sivan 2017). In this study, the
 221 NIS fish *C. ocellaris* had a higher MSF value (2.03) than that of *H. macrolepidota*(0.65), which
 222 means *C. ocellaris* had plenty of food in the system and it could consume its prey without any
 223 competition with similar species (i.e., *H. macrolepidota*). Garrido *et al.* (2008) also supported
 224 this statement while working on stomach fullness of Horse Mackerel in Portugal. According to
 225 Kihlberg *et al.* (2023), the greater MSF value also ensures the establishment and necessary
 226 adaptation and spread of any NIS fish species in the wild.

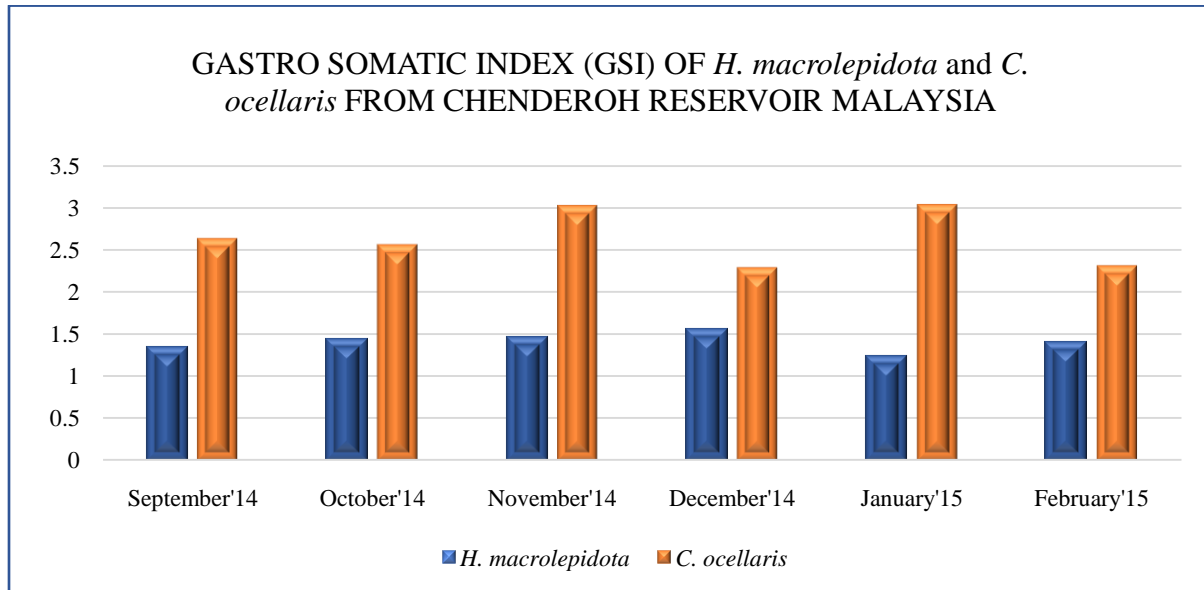
227 Bass fishes are voracious predators and tend to consume their diet by encountering any species
 228 of similar feeding habits. This assertion was corroborated by the findings of the present research,
 229 while comparing the MSF value of *C. ocellaris* with that of *H. macrolepidota*, it becomes
 230 evident that *H. macrolepidota* faced challenges in obtaining adequate diet in the reservoir.
 231 However, the low MSF value observed from *H. macrolepidota* can further be attributed to
 232 various causes including the strong predatory behavior of *C. ocellaris*, the limited availability of
 233 preferred prey, adverse ecosystem conditions, and other contributing factors, which need further
 234 and extensive research.

235
 236 **Table 2:** Level of foraging activities of *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* according to their
 237 mean stomach fullness (mean \pm SD).

Species	Mean stomach fullness (mean \pm SD)						Foraging performance
	Sep'20	Oct'2	Nov'20	Dec'20	Jan'	Feb'20	
	14	014	14	14	2015	15	
<i>C. ocellaris</i>	1.90 \pm 1.33	2.25 \pm 1.06	1.85 \pm 1.13	2.15 \pm 1.03	2.00 \pm 1.13	2.05 \pm 1.14	Very High
<i>H. macrolepidota</i>	0.10 \pm 0.31	0.70 \pm 1.05	0.60 \pm 0.96	0.80 \pm 1.03	0.90 \pm 1.10	0.85 \pm 0.94	Medium

238
 239 Like MSF, the GSI of *C. ocellaris* was higher than that of *H. macrolepidota*(Fig. 3). The foraging
 240 activities of Bass fish are always harsh and voracious compared to the other species in any

241 community, as it is an invasive species (IAS) (Gomiero & Braga, 2004). This proclamation was
242 proved to be true while the GSI index of *C. ocellaris* was compared to the GSI index of *H.*
243 *macrolepidota*.



244
245 **Figure 3:** Monthly Gastro Somatic Index (GSI) of *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris*.

246
247 According to the above results and discussions from stomach content analysis (SCA) of *H.*
248 *macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* it can be hypothesized that 1) the foraging activities of the NIS
249 species *C. ocellaris* may cause diet inadequacy in the ecosystem for *H. macrolepidota*; 2) the
250 predatory and violent behavior of *C. ocellaris* may resist *H. macrolepidota* to become more
251 dynamic and lively to catch the prey. However, both of the hypotheses were preliminary
252 predictions and expectations from an ecosystem consisting of predatory NIS fishes, especially
253 Bass fishes (Novaes *et al.*, 2004), and need to be assessed further.

254 255 **3.4. Trophic Positioning (TP) of Fish According to RGL:**

256 The trophic position (TP) of fish is closely related to their gut morphology. Relative gut length
257 (RGL) is a common method used to correlate a fish's TP with its diet (Elliott & Bellwood, 2003;
258 Karachle & Stergiou, 2010). Generally, carnivorous and predatory fish have shorter and simpler
259 gut structures, while omnivores and herbivores exhibit longer and more complex digestive tracts.
260 In this study, both indigenous (IS) fish *H. macrolepidota* and non-indigenous (NIS) fish *C.*
261 *ocellaris* displayed similar gut structures characterized by short digestive tracts, muscular and

262 elastic stomachs, and short intestines, aligning with the typical features of carnivorous fishes.
 263 These findings are consistent with similar results reported by Yap et al. (2016), conducted in the
 264 Chenderoh reservoir.

265

266 **3.5. Carbon Sources of the Reservoirs According to SIA:**

267 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values are often used to track energy flows and energy sources of fish in a community
 268 (Finlay, 2001; Syväranta *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, in this research, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the fish were
 269 used to understand the core energy source of the reservoir. It also helped us make baseline data
 270 of isotopic signatures from selected fishes from Chenderoh Reservoir.

271 All the values of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of fishes ranged from (mean \pm SD) $-34.3 \pm 0.49\text{‰}$ to $-23.0 \pm 0.05\text{‰}$
 272 (Table 3). According to Garcia *et al.* (2007), the isotopic values of carbon ranged from -25‰ to $-$
 273 19‰ indicating that the carbon sources of the water body are C3 plants. Similar studies suggest
 274 alike clarifications of carbon sources of water bodies (Larsen *et al.*, 2009; Daniele *et al.*, 2012)
 275 for tropical lakes and reservoirs. Here, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for *H. macrolepidota* ranged from -35.318
 276 $\pm 0.088\text{‰}$ to $-34.096 \pm 0.250\text{‰}$; whereas, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values for *C. ocellaris* ranged from $-33.624 \pm$
 277 0.466‰ to $-32.182 \pm 1.376\text{‰}$. The values of isotopic carbon from the SIA interpretation
 278 indicated that the main energy source of the reservoirs is emergent, submerged, floating, or
 279 exotic C3 plants using the C3 photosynthetic pathway (diatoms, cyanobacteria, freshwater algae,
 280 macrophytes). Yap *et al.* (2016) also made a similar statement while working on Chenderoh
 281 Reservoir. However, to affirm the species diversity, abundance, and distribution of the primary
 282 producers, further and detailed research is required.

283

284 **Table 3:** Monthly $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris*.

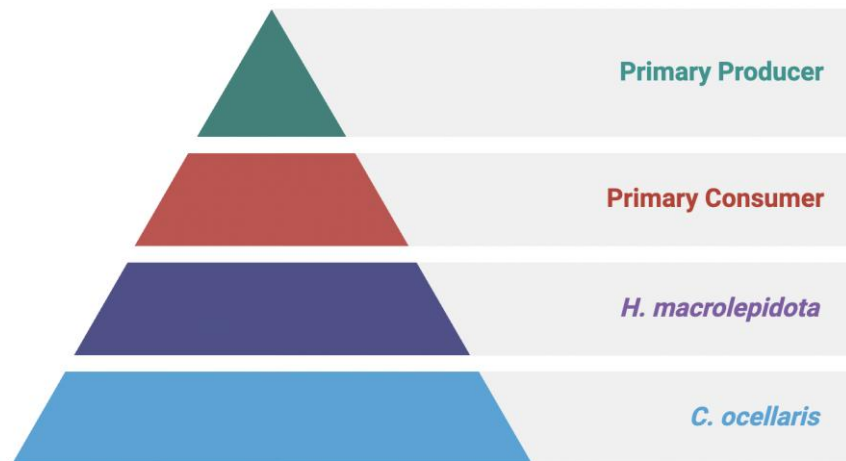
Month	<i>H. macrolepidota</i>		<i>C. ocellaris</i>	
	Carbon (‰)	Nitrogen (‰)	Carbon (‰)	Nitrogen (‰)
December	-34.311 ± 0.477	9.202 ± 0.173	-32.182 ± 1.376	12.690 ± 0.231
January	-34.096 ± 0.250	10.837 ± 0.409	-33.624 ± 0.466	13.356 ± 0.396
February	-35.318 ± 0.088	11.385 ± 1.380	-32.265 ± 0.058	13.085 ± 0.091

285

286 **3.6. Trophic Positioning (TP) of Fish According to $\delta^{15}\text{N}$:**

287 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of fishes are considered worthwhile categorizing TP of fish in an ecosystem (Kim *et*
288 *al.*, 2014). The higher the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ value is, the higher the TP of that species is supposed to be.
289 However, it is considered to be relatively difficult to identify the TP of upper-level consumers,
290 such as *C. ocellaris*, within a freshwater community. The main reason is logistical limitations,
291 such as the difficulty of long-term sampling.

292 In present study, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values for *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* ranged from $9.202 \pm$
293 0.173‰ to $11.385 \pm 1.380\text{‰}$ and from $12.690 \pm 0.231\text{‰}$ to $13.356 \pm 0.396\text{‰}$ respectively
294 (Table 3), and the mean values calculated of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* are
295 $10.157 \pm 1.125\text{‰}$ and $13.044 \pm 0.29\text{‰}$ respectively. Moreover, the trophic level calculated for *C.*
296 *ocellaris* (TP = 4.2) (Fig. 4) suggested that this species occupies an upper TP (*i.e.*, tertiary or
297 quaternary consumer level) and are high-order carnivore, more specifically defined as a
298 piscivore. TP identified for *H. macrolepidota* was 3.4, which means this species also occupies an
299 upper TP in the ecosystem (*i.e.*, secondary consumer level) and are carnivore. A similar study
300 conducted by Yap *et al.* (2016) also suggested that *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* from the
301 Chenderoh Reservoir occupy higher trophic positions (TP) as secondary or tertiary consumers
302 within the food web of the reservoir.



303
304 **Figure 4:** Schematic Trophic Positioning (TP) of *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris*.
305

306 4. DISCUSSION

307 *Cicla ocellaris* is a ravenous predator and feeds extensively on fish; therefore, it has the potential
308 to modify the diversity and distribution of a habitat to which it is introduced (Gomiero & Braga
309 2004; Novaes *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, it can generate negative environmental impacts by

310 competing with similar native species for food and space, predating on juveniles and eggs, and
311 disrupting the habitat by grazing on detritus and benthic algae (Canonico *et al.*, 2005; Ansah *et*
312 *al.*, 2014). These threats include flow modification, habitat alteration (Johnson *et al.*, 2008),
313 overexploitation, pollution (Dudgeon *et al.*, 2006), and overall environmental modification
314 (Kiruba-Sankar *et al.*, 2018), which all can lead to biodiversity degradation of a particular
315 ecosystem. Several similar studies have demonstrated a significant decline in fish densities over
316 the past two decades, with a particular impact on species like *Hampala macrolepidota* in riverine
317 systems, especially the Perak River system of Malaysia (Department of Fisheries, 2005; Radhi *et*
318 *al.*, 2017; Ambak & Mohd Zaidi, 2010).

319 In a recent study conducted in Perlis, Malaysia, the Peacock Bass was reported to exert
320 significant predation pressure on the fry of Tinfoil Barb (*B. schwanefeldii*) (Saba *et al.*, 2021).
321 Notably, it was observed that the Peacock Bass heavily preyed upon approximately 50,000 fry of
322 Tinfoil Barb, which had been intentionally released into Timah Tasoh Lake, Perlis by the
323 Department of Fisheries (DOF) Malaysia with the aim of enhancing the fish population within
324 the lake. This predation highlights the potential impact of Peacock Bass on native fish
325 populations and the challenges posed by NIS in local ecosystems (Isa *et al.*, 2012; Zulkefli,
326 2017).

327 The potential for the establishment of NIS is strongly influenced by environmental factors also,
328 (e.g., Herborg *et al.*, 2007; Kilroy *et al.*, 2008; Kulhanek *et al.*, 2011) and is often associated
329 with disturbances (Minchinton, 2002; Marchetti *et al.*, 2004a). Degraded water quality, for
330 example, plays an important role in the establishment of NIS in aquatic ecosystems. Factors such
331 as turbidity and water disturbances, coupled with the presence of invasive aquatic plants and
332 fauna, can significantly influence the successful establishment of NIS (Diagne *et al.*, 2017). For
333 instance, degraded water quality in Chenderoh Reservoir, as evidenced by Ismail *et al.* (2019),
334 has created an environment that may be conducive to the establishment of species like *C.*
335 *ocellaris*. The combination of water turbidity and disturbances, along with invasive aquatic
336 plants (Ismail *et al.*, 2019), can provide favorable conditions for the successful colonization of
337 NIS, contributing to their persistence in this ecosystem. Additional characteristics that increase
338 the invasive potential of NIS include high reproductive rates, extended lifespans, the ability for
339 long-distance dispersal, a high degree of physiological tolerance, a generalist lifestyle, and

340 significant trophic adaptability (Kolar & Lodge, 2001; Marchetti *et al.*, 2004b; Funk, 2008;
341 Barrett, 2011).

342 Physical barriers, such as dams, are known to enhance the potential for the establishment of NIS
343 in ecosystems (Rahel & Olden, 2008). Within the context of the Perak River system in Malaysia,
344 a series of cascading hydroelectric dams can be observed (Mohd Sidek *et al.*, 2020), namely,
345 Temengor Dam, Bersia Dam, Kenering Dam, and Chenderoh Dam. Chenderoh Reservoir, being
346 the terminal reservoir in this series of dams from upstream to downstream along the Perak River
347 system, is particularly susceptible to increased water turbidity originating from inflows from the
348 upstream reservoirs (Zarul, 2013). This elevated turbidity as well as mineralization of the water
349 may significantly raise the likelihood of NIS fish invasion in Chenderoh reservoir. Nyanti *et al.*
350 (2021) have also demonstrated the impact of cascading dams on the development of complex
351 ecosystems, such as those observed in the Murum River, Malaysia. This study indicates a
352 transitional zone in the Murum River, displayed reduced fish species diversity, richness, and
353 evenness, particularly degraded water quality with high turbidity, which may facilitate the
354 establishment of NIS species (Tan & Rohasliney, 2013).

355 The significance of this study lies in its contribution to understanding the potential impact of the
356 introduced Bass fish, *C. ocellaris*, in Chenderoh Reservoir. Assessing trophic position, feeding
357 habits, and foraging activities are essential components of this understanding, complementing
358 other ongoing studies in Chenderoh Reservoir, which were mentioned in this paper. While our
359 research provides valuable insights, further investigations are required to comprehensively assess
360 the impact of invasive species on the food web and the overall ecosystem health.

361

362 **5. CONCLUSION**

363 Based on the findings of the present study, it is evident that both *H. macrolepidota* and *C.*
364 *ocellaris* in Chenderoh Reservoir, Malaysia, are carnivorous fish occupying higher trophic
365 positions in the ecosystem and both species primarily derive their carbon sources from C3 plants.
366 Overall, these findings contribute to a better understanding of the dietary dynamics and trophic
367 interactions between native and non-indigenous fish species in Chenderoh Reservoir, providing
368 valuable insights for the conservation and management of aquatic ecosystems facing the
369 challenges of invasive species.

370 However, there are several limitations associated with the study. Firstly, only the isotopic value
371 of nitrogen of a fish species alone cannot be considered to represent the trophic position (TP) of
372 that particular fish, since the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of primary producers (defined as organisms that convert
373 inorganic N to organic N) are highly involved in the systems (Kling *et al.*, 1992). It necessitates
374 that the TP of fish should be measured considering a lake-specific “baseline” of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature of
375 primary producers/ primary consumers. However, there were no baseline data available for
376 Chenderoh Reservoir. Secondly, the TP analyses of fish were calculated excluding the
377 considerations of fish age, sex, and TL (total length) of fish which may influence the result
378 (Cortes, 1999). However, the outcome obtained from the calculation of this study was an average
379 trophic positioning of *H. macrolepidota* and *C. ocellaris* which is supported by several authors
380 such as Hobson *et al.* (1994), and Pauly (1998). And, finally, the study excluded considerations
381 of seasonal variation, age, sex of fishes, and spatial influences in the stomach content analysis.
382 As a result, the precise feeding capacity and feeding behaviors of the selected fishes could not be
383 precisely determined.

384 Research on freshwater invasions by non-indigenous and invasive fish in Malaysia is crucial.
385 Regular updates to statistical data are necessary to understand the extent and impact of these
386 invasions. Comprehensive documentation and research are essential to grasp the biology of
387 invasion and the effects of invasive species on freshwater ecosystems. Assessments of various
388 freshwater bodies, including lakes, rivers, and reservoirs, are needed to evaluate water quality,
389 ecological conditions, and anthropogenic activities. Understanding the distribution and diversity
390 of both native and introduced fish species is vital for effective management.

391 Molecular and genetic technologies can enhance our ability to manage invasive species, but
392 baseline data for Malaysian fish species are limited. More research is needed to gather genetic
393 information and understand the impacts of invasive species on native biodiversity. In particular,
394 detailed research on non-indigenous fish in Chenderoh Reservoir should include habitat
395 preferences, ecological traits, and genetic variations. Continuous monitoring is necessary to track
396 abundance, distribution, and interactions with native species. Socio-temporal background
397 information, such as introduction methods and spread velocity, is also crucial for effective
398 management strategies.

399

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