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Novel species interactions and environmental conditions reduce foraging competency at the temperate range edge of a range-extending coral reef fish

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1 **Novel species interactions and environmental conditions reduce foraging**
2 **competency at the temperate range edge of a range-extending coral reef fish**

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12
13
14 **Abstract**

15 Poleward range extensions of coral reef species can reshuffle temperate communities by
16 generating competitive interactions that did not exist previously. However, novel
17 environmental conditions and locally-adapted native temperate species may slow tropical
18 invasions by reducing the ability of invaders to access local resources (e.g. food and shelter).
19 We test this hypothesis on wild marine fish in a climate warming hotspot using a field
20 experiment encompassing artificial prey release. We evaluated seven behaviours associated
21 with foraging and aggressive interactions in a common range-extending coral reef fish
22 (*Abudefduf vaigiensis*) and a co-shoaling temperate fish (*Microcanthus strigatus*) along a
23 latitudinal temperature gradient (730 km) in SE Australia. We found that the coral reef fish
24 had reduced foraging performance (i.e. slower prey perception, slower prey inspection,

25 decreased prey intake, increased distance to prey) in their novel temperate range than in their
26 subtropical range. Furthermore, higher abundance of temperate fishes was associated with
27 increased retreat behaviour by coral reef fish (i.e. withdrawal from foraging on released prey),
28 independent of latitude. Where their ranges overlapped, temperate fish showed higher
29 foraging and aggression than coral reef fish. Our findings suggest that lower foraging
30 performance of tropical fish at their leading range edge is driven by the combined effect of
31 environmental factors (e.g. lower seawater temperature and/or unfamiliarity with novel
32 conditions in their extended temperate ranges) and biological factors (e.g. increased
33 abundance and larger body sizes of local temperate fishes). Whilst a future increase in ocean
34 warming is expected to alleviate current foraging limitations in coral reef fishes at leading
35 range edges, under current warming native temperate fishes at their trailing edges appear able
36 to slow the range extension of coral reef fishes into temperate ecosystems by limiting their
37 access to resources.

38

39 **Keywords:** range extensions, tropical vagrants, ocean warming, behavioural interference,
40 foraging performance, aggressive interactions, temperate reefs

41

42

43 **Introduction**

44 Climate change is a major force driving global redistribution of species on land and in the
45 ocean (Poloczanska et al. 2013; Pecl et al. 2017). However, the successful establishment and
46 ecological impacts of range-extending species (i.e. species that change their distribution limits
47 to keep pace with their shifting temperature niches, Doak and Morris 2010) on recipient
48 communities will strongly depend on interaction strength with local species (Masciocchi et al.
49 2009; Gilman et al. 2010). It is common knowledge that the structure of natural communities

50 is shaped by biological interactions (Bolker et al. 2003; Wisz et al. 2013) and such
51 interactions are one of the pillars maintaining ecosystems in equilibrium. Thus, disruption of
52 species interactions that have established over long evolutionary periods may lead to
53 disruption of key ecosystem functions (Bascompte et al. 2006; Ives and Carpenter 2007;
54 O’Gorman and Emmerson 2009). For example, the poleward influx of tropical species has
55 already caused regime shifts in native temperate ecosystems in which recovery to the previous
56 natural stage has become difficult (Wernberg et al. 2016). In Japan, the arrival of tropical
57 herbivorous fishes caused the depletion of the principal habitat-forming species (kelp forests),
58 opening up space for the colonization of corals (Nakamura et al. 2013). There is evidence that
59 this phenomenon is rapidly occurring as well along the Australian temperate coasts, as the
60 abundance of tropical and subtropical herbivorous fishes and corals has increased in the last
61 few decades (Bennett et al. 2015; Booth and Sear 2018; Monaco et al. 2021). Yet, few studies
62 incorporate novel ecological interactions into predictions of species range shifts and their
63 establishment in novel ranges.

64 Without considering species interactions, it remains difficult to accurately forecast the
65 impacts of range-extending species (e.g. they may be more aggressive or have higher foraging
66 performance) on local species, and evaluate whether they are therefore likely to increase their
67 abundances at higher latitudes to the detriment of local species under global warming (Shinen
68 and Morgan 2009; Callaway and Ridenour 2004). Invasion theory postulates that competition
69 is one of the main mechanisms driving successful invasion of alien species because they are
70 usually superior competitors compared to native species (Sakai et al. 2001; Vila and Weiner
71 2004). Similar to alien species, the influx of range-extended species can reshuffle species
72 dominance in temperate systems or displace native species with lower competitive
73 performance (Nagelkerken and Simpson 2013; Milazzo et al. 2013). Although the pace of
74 invasion by range-extending species is typically slower than that of introduced species (Sorte

75 et al. 2010), the consequences and magnitude of their establishment might be very similar
76 (Kola and Lodge 2001; Sorte et al. 2010). Thus, given the potential emergence of competitive
77 interactions among range-extending and native species, there is a pressing need to understand
78 how native species might alter the establishment and persistence of range-extending species.

79 Whilst many invasive species are superior competitors, this is not always the case
80 (Kimbrow et al. 2013; Levine et al. 2004; Parker et al. 2007). The biotic resistance theory
81 postulates that native species sometimes exhibit higher competitive ability than invaders,
82 reducing establishment and persistence of invaders (Levine et al. 2004; de Rivera et al. 2005;
83 Von Holle 2005; Von Holle and Simberloff 2005; Fridley et al. 2007). Nevertheless, only few
84 studies on marine and terrestrial range extensions have focussed on success or failure of local
85 species to resist the establishment of novel species into their communities (Paini et al. 2008).
86 Hence, competitive effects of invaders as well as natives are critical to understand potential
87 changes to community structures under future climate (Vilá and Weiner 2004; Paini et al.
88 2008). Alternatively, species might change their behaviour through phenotypic plasticity and
89 avoid or reduce direct conflicts and enable coexistence (Perri and Randall 1999; Wilson et al.
90 1999; Lambert 2002). For example, avoidance of dominant species and adjusted retreat and
91 escape behaviours can facilitate the coexistence of some species by decreasing their risk of
92 injuries and agonistic-related stress (Rychlik and Zwolak 2005). However, such adaptive
93 behaviours might create trade-offs and incur costs to individual fitness (Chesson 2000;
94 Liancourt et al. 2005). Therefore, it is expected that range-extending species that exhibit
95 subordinate behavioural responses to native species may have lower likelihood to colonise
96 non-native communities than range extending species that are stronger competitors. However,
97 coexistence may occur if these new arrivals occupy a different niche than local species, or
98 display conflict-avoidance behaviours that are not to the detriment of other fitness-related
99 behaviours.

100 Over the last two decades, hundreds of coral reef fish species have been recruiting in
101 temperate Australia during summer (Booth et al. 2007; Feary et al. 2013). These tropical fish
102 species have not yet established breeding populations at temperate latitudes because the
103 winter temperatures there are still below their minimum thermal tolerance. Each year, new
104 pulses of tropical recruits arrive in temperate ecosystems, where they persist for several
105 months until seawater temperatures drop too low (Eme and Bennett 2008; Figueira and Booth
106 2010). However, ongoing intensification of ocean warming and strengthening of poleward
107 ocean currents is likely to relax these abiotic thresholds and facilitate the permanent
108 establishment of tropical species in the near future (Figueira and Booth 2010; Booth et al.
109 2018). Under current warming, other factors such as species interactions with temperate fishes
110 are also of importance, and these might buffer or retard the invasion of tropical range-
111 extending species at higher latitudes (e.g. Pigot et al. 2013, Coni et al. 2021). Whilst some
112 tropical and temperate fishes seem to positively interact (Smith et al. 2018) and co-exist in
113 their trophic niches (Kingsbury et al. 2019), competitive exclusion might still exist, especially
114 if tropical fishes have a reduced body condition due to environmental stress (Poulos and
115 McCormick 2013). Additionally, the unknown environment of recipient communities (e.g.
116 reduced water temperature and novel habitats, prey and predators) can affect some aspects of
117 species behaviour, leading to a competitive disadvantage in range-extending species, which in
118 turn would affect their behavioural interactions with local species (Figueira and Booth 2010;
119 Figueira et al. 2019). Hence, understanding the competitive ability (ability to respond to the
120 inhibitory effects of co-existing species) between tropical invader and temperate species may
121 give insights into the competitive hierarchies that are emerging due to climate change
122 (Lauchlan et al. 2019), and the identification of potential “winners” and “losers” (e.g.
123 Liancourt et al. 2005; Poulos and McCormick 2013) that could compromise novel
124 communities at high latitudes.

125 Native species could resist range-extending species through a variety of behaviours,
126 including aggressive interactions and behavioural interference during feeding (see Table S1).
127 Such behaviours are strongly mediated by body size (Robertson 1995; Munday et al. 2001).
128 At the current early stages of warming, most tropical range-extending fishes still only occur as
129 recruits and early-juveniles, with relatively small body sizes compared to co-shoaling
130 temperate species, which creates a body-size disadvantage that can mediate the colonisation of
131 these tropical range-extending species into novel environments where the native species are
132 bigger on average. Yet, very little attention has been given to the question of how differences
133 in body size might mediate the behavioural interactions of tropical range-extending species
134 with native species, and if such biological effects are stronger or weaker than abiotic stressors
135 (Louthan et al. 2015).

136 Here we test three hypotheses: (1) at cold-water leading edges where tropical fishes
137 are invading novel temperate ecosystems their aggressiveness and foraging efficiency is lower
138 than that of native temperate species, (2) tropical fishes exhibit reduced foraging ability and
139 aggressive interactions as a function of increasing latitude, and (3) temperate species do not
140 alter their foraging ability and aggressive interactions at their trailing warm-water edges
141 where tropical species are invading. We test these hypotheses by comparing the foraging
142 ability and aggressive interactions of a common tropical range-extending species (*Abudefduf*
143 *vaigiensis* - Pomacentridae) and co-shoaling native temperate fish (*Microcanthus strigatus* -
144 Microcanthidae) along a latitudinal temperature gradient (6° latitude, 730 km of coastline)
145 under current ocean warming. These species were chosen as a model for novel species
146 interactions because they are commonly observed using the same habitat and forming mixed-
147 species shoals, suggesting a strong overlap in their ecological niches (Smith et al. 2016). Such
148 a comparative approaches involving potential invaders and native species have often been
149 useful in explaining what increases invader success in recipient communities (Daehlet 2003).

150 To evaluate whether foraging competency of tropical and co-shoaling temperate fishes is
151 altered along a latitudinal temperature gradient (from subtropical to temperate waters) in a
152 climate warming hotspot, we quantified their aggressive interactions (chasing and escaping
153 rates) and foraging performance in terms of perceiving, inspecting, and consuming prey *in*
154 *situ*. Additionally, to reveal whether altered foraging performance and aggressive interactions
155 were related to composition of local species communities, we also quantified the abundance
156 of all temperate and tropical range-extending fishes that shared the same habitat and belonged
157 to the same trophic guild (omnivorous), and that could potentially interact behaviourally with
158 invading vagrants. Understanding whether interactions with native species might act in
159 synchrony with changing abiotic conditions is crucial to predict the likelihood of tropical fish
160 invasions in temperate environments, and their potential effects on temperate fish
161 communities under ongoing climate change.

162

163

164 **Materials and Methods**

165

166 **Study area and species**

167 The study was conducted at six sites ranging from low to high latitudes along the
168 south-eastern Australian coast (Fig. 1) during the summers of 2017 and 2018 when
169 recruitment of tropical fishes peaks (January to May). The lower latitude (two sites at South
170 West Rocks) is considered to be the most similar environment to the tropical fish's native
171 range, comprising subtropical reefs where the abundance of tropical fish species is highest
172 among the three latitudes studied (Fig. S1), and the mean seawater winter temperature (Table
173 S1) does not surpass their lower thermal tolerance (i.e. ~18-22 °C; Djurichkovic et al. 2019).
174 At this latitude, the benthic environment is mostly composed of bare rocks (site 1) or a mosaic

175 of sparse oyster reefs and rocks (site 2). The middle latitude is situated around Sydney, and
176 included three sites which reflect tropicalisation hotspots (Booth et al. 2007): Shelly Beach,
177 Little Manly, and Narrabeen. The benthic reef community at Shelly Beach and Little Manly is
178 composed of a mosaic of macroalgae (e.g. kelp), turf-forming algae, bare rock and sea urchin
179 barrens, while at Narrabeen it is mainly comprised of bare rock, turf algae and sparse oyster
180 reef. The high latitude site (Narooma) represented the coldest studied site (Table S2), and
181 comprised the most unfamiliar and hostile environment for tropical fishes where the
182 abundance of temperate fish species is highest among the sites (Fig. S1). At this site, tropical
183 fishes were found on shallow bare rocks and patches of sparse oyster reefs. The sites at the
184 low and middle latitudes were chosen based on an 18-yr study of ongoing tropical fish
185 settlement on shallow rocky reefs along the coast of south-east Australia (Booth et al. 2007;
186 Booth et al. 2018), while the site at the high latitude has been only recently monitored (~ 3
187 years). For each latitude, sites (if more than one sampled) were pooled due to the low number
188 of replicate fishes found at some sites.

189 We selected one model species for each temperature affinity (tropical vs temperate):
190 (1) the most common tropical range-extending species *Abudefduf vaigiensis*, and (2) the
191 common co-shoaling temperate species *Microcanthus strigatus*. The tropical species is a
192 common inhabitant of warm Indo-Pacific reefs including the Coral Sea (FishBase - Froese &
193 Pauly 2016), but is also a vagrant that occurs every summer along the south-eastern
194 Australian temperate coast (Booth et al. 2007). The temperate species occurs throughout
195 subtropical (Central Queensland) and temperate (southern New South Wales) Australian reefs.
196 These two species have coexisted for longer periods of time at our subtropical site at the low
197 latitude (during all seasons) than at the high latitude sites where they only co-occur on a
198 seasonal-basis, i.e. January to May (Feary et al. 2014). They often form mixed-species shoals,
199 usually share the same habitat, and belong to the same trophic guild (omnivorous feeders).

200 They were also the two species most attracted to the *in situ* experimental prey releases,
201 allowing for sufficient replication within each latitude (*Abudefduf vaigiensis*: low = 20,
202 middle = 24, high = 22 and *Microcanthus strigatus*: low = 20, middle = 20, high = 16). Most
203 of the tropical fishes observed from the low to high latitudes are recruits and early-juveniles.
204 Juvenile individuals also occurs, however, in a smaller quantity.

205

206

207 **Data collection and experimental design**

208 For each fish species, we (1) quantified aggressive interactions with all directly surrounding
209 species, and (2) tested their foraging performance based on various foraging behaviours, as a
210 function of latitude (ranging from warmer to cooler sea temperatures) and abundance of all
211 species attracted to the released prey. Abundance of species was separated into three groups:
212 (1) abundance of conspecifics (individuals of the same species) of each studied species, (2)
213 abundance of all native-temperate fishes, and (3) abundance of all tropical range-extending
214 fishes. The last two groups do not include individuals of the focal species.

215 As tropical fish are commonly found in shallow waters (water depth ranging from 50
216 cm to 2 m) along the shoreline of embayments, sampling was carried out by a maximum of
217 two divers on snorkel. Seven behaviours, five as a proxy of foraging performance and two as
218 a proxy of aggressive interactions (see Fish Behaviour section below), were quantified *in situ*
219 for each fish species using a maximum of 5 min. of video (GoPros) recording. A manipulative
220 underwater experiment was performed to attract fish and instigate species interactions
221 (foraging arena experiment) (Fig. S2). At each site, foraging arenas (low = 40, middle = 44,
222 high = 38) were deployed over three days. On a day to day basis, data collection was carried
223 out in different areas to avoid filming the same individuals. The experiment comprised
224 artificial release of dead prey (brine shrimp, *Artemia*). Prey were delivered through a tube of

225 2.5 cm in diameter and 1 m in length attached to a dive weight that was positioned on the reef
226 substratum at approximately 50 cm from a fixed camera (GoPro) with the camera lens
227 directed toward the prey released point. This distance was chosen to best observe the tropical
228 fish recruits that were usually < 5 cm in body size. A two-minute period was incorporated as
229 acclimation time to the experimental devices before releasing prey. The observer maintained a
230 distance of at least 2 m from the experimental prey release site during the entire video
231 recording, only briefly approaching when release of fresh prey through the tube was needed.
232 Recruits and early-stage individuals of tropical and temperate species are relatively site-
233 attached, minimising the chance that the same individual was repeatedly recorded across
234 replicate recordings. To allow for independent observations, foraging arena experiments were
235 randomly performed with a distance of at least 2 m of each other for both tropical and
236 temperate species. The prey were constantly released through the tube via a 60-ml syringe.
237 Each syringe contained ~1.25 g of brine shrimp (*Artemia*) mixed with ~60 ml of salt water,
238 but only half of the syringe content was released each time. At the start of each foraging arena
239 experiment, half of the syringe content was released at a constant rate through the tube to
240 attract fish and aggregate them within the field of view of the camera. Once all released prey
241 had been consumed by the fishes or had dissipated due to water currents, an additional release
242 of prey (i.e. another half of a syringe content) was performed. This procedure was repeated
243 until the end of each 5-min recording (~ 10 releases of ~12.5 g of brine shrimp each per
244 recording). Recordings were performed under the wide angle setting with a resolution of
245 1080p at a speed of 25 frames/sec.

246 The results should be interpreted within the context of experimental food provision, as
247 patterns may differ when natural prey are considered. Nevertheless, our study provides
248 experimental support from the wild of the inherent capacity of temperate fish to affect the
249 performance of tropical vagrants through interference behaviours.

250

251 **Fish Behaviour**

252 The video recordings were evaluated using VLC media player 2.1.3 on a desktop computer.

253 The following behaviours were quantified for each focal individual in each recording (Table

254 S1): (1) prey attraction time, measured as the time (seconds) it took for the fish to swim

255 towards the tube (i.e. prey release point) and take a bite at the prey upon their first release, (2)

256 minimum distance to prey, measured as the shortest distance (cm) (i.e. visually estimated

257 using a ruler) that the fish approached the prey release point during its observation time, (3)

258 prey inspection rate, measured as the number of times an individual approached (distance of \leq

259 5 body lengths) the prey release point as soon as the prey was released, (4) bite rate,

260 continuously counted during the observation and measured as the total number of successful

261 bites taken at the released prey, (5) retreat rate, continuously counted during the observation

262 and measured as the number of times a fish approached the prey release point within 5 body

263 lengths but decided to abruptly return to its previous position, (6) chasing rate, continuously

264 counted during the observation and measured as the number of times that the focal individual

265 swam aggressively (e.g. attacking an individual and forcing it away from the released prey)

266 towards another individual, and (7) escaping rate, continuously counted during the

267 observation and measured as the total number of times that the focal individual fled from an

268 aggressor. The behaviours that were measured as continuous counts (prey inspection, bites,

269 retreats, chasing, and escaping) were then expressed as rates per unit of time (e.g. bite

270 rates/sec.). These were calculated by dividing the respective behavioural counts of each

271 individual by its total observation time. When a chasing event was observed, the body size of

272 the individuals involved in this interaction was registered to check if this behaviour could be

273 related to differences in body size. For example, when a temperate fish chased the focal

274 tropical individual, the size of the aggressor (if it was larger or smaller) was registered in
275 comparison with the size of the focal fish.

276 To avoid pseudo-replication only one individual of each species was randomly chosen
277 (e.g. the first individual seen in the group was selected) and analysed for each video
278 recording, especially when they were shoaling with individuals of the same species. All
279 behaviours of an individual were analysed from the same recording. The video recordings
280 were a maximum of 5 min, but as fishes were mobile, the time that they were within the view
281 of the camera ranged between 20 sec. and 5 min (average observation time ~ 2 min). Short
282 observation times have been found to be sufficient to obtain a representative estimate of our
283 focal behaviours (Figueira et al. 2009; Biro et al. 2010; Francini-Filho et al. 2010; Beck et al.
284 2016). The life stage (recruit, early-juvenile, juvenile) of the tropical fishes was recorded for
285 each focal individual.

286 In each video where we recorded the behaviours of a single focal fish, we also quantified
287 the abundance of all tropical and temperate fishes, and other individuals of *A. vaigiensis* and
288 *M. strigatus* (i.e. their respective conspecific abundances) present within the field of view, and
289 that were attracted to the released prey. For each individual section of the recording, the
290 abundances of these three fish groups were quantified in intervals of 10 sec. These replicate
291 abundance estimates were afterwards averaged for each individual recording.

292

293 **Statistical Analyses**

294 As tropical range-extending species were more abundant at lower latitudes and the
295 opposite was true for the temperate species, first a permutational multivariate analysis of
296 covariance (MANCOVA) was used to examine the effect of latitude (three levels of
297 categorical and fixed factors – “low”, “middle”, “high”) on the behaviour (dependent
298 variables: all seven behaviours) of the tropical and temperate species (species as a fixed factor

299 – “*A. vaigiensis*” and “*M. strigatus*”) using the total abundance of temperate fishes, total
300 abundance of tropical fishes, and total abundance of conspecific individuals of *A. vaigiensis*
301 and *M. strigatus* across latitudes as covariates. This analysis was performed only to evaluate if
302 the effect of latitude on species behaviour was related to abundances of local species
303 (covariate). Observation time was also included in this analysis as a covariate, because the
304 observation time varied among the observed fishes (ranging from 20 sec to 5 min); not
305 including it could provide a bias of the mean behavioural responses between latitude and
306 species. Interactions between the categorical factors (latitude and species) and the four
307 covariates were removed from the final model (MANCOVA) because their initial inclusion
308 did not show a significant effect (i.e. meaning that the effect of latitude on species behaviour
309 is independent of temperate, tropical, conspecific abundances and observation time) (Table
310 S3), and maintaining them in the final model could lead to misinterpretation of the results
311 (Engqvist 2005; Beck and Bliwise 2014). Univariate permutational analysis of covariance
312 (ANCOVA) was then performed for each behaviour in order to clarify the interpretation of the
313 MANCOVAs and evaluate the individual behaviours that were responsible for any latitudinal
314 differences as revealed by the MANCOVAs. Fish life stage was also included as an
315 explanatory variable with three levels of categorical and random factors: recruits (≤ 3 cm),
316 early-juveniles (>3 – 4.5 cm), and juveniles (>4.5 – 7 cm). However, only the tropical species
317 could be grouped in these three categories. Most of the temperate fish in the view of the
318 camera were juveniles. Thus, the effect of the factor life stage is tested only for tropical fish.

319 Because the behaviours were measured using different units (which could bias the
320 analyses), prior to all analyses, all behavioural data were standardised (i.e. scaling technique
321 used for standardizing scores on the same scale by dividing a score’s deviation by the
322 standard deviation in a data set). As a result, all behaviours are transformed to the same scale.

323 *A posteriori* pairwise comparisons of the means was used to evaluate differences among
324 latitudes, species, and species within latitude when a significant interaction was present.

325 All analyses were performed on square root transformed data, and used Euclidian
326 resemblance matrices. Where the number of permutations was low, a Monte Carlo test was
327 used and post-hoc pooling of interaction terms was performed to enable a more powerful test
328 of the main effect (only if their p-value was > 0.25 ; Winer et al. 1991). For significant effects
329 ($p < 0.05$) pairwise tests were used to compare the respective means (Anderson 2001).

330 For the behaviours that showed a significant effect of the covariates in the ANCOVAs,
331 we calculated their adjusted R^2 (also known as the coefficient of determination) to evaluate
332 the strength of their relationships for each species separately. The R^2 can indicate to what
333 extent (expressed in %) the variance of the covariate (abundance of temperate or tropical
334 fishes, or individuals of the same species) explains the variance of dependent variables
335 (behaviour) (Miles 2005).

336 The MANCOVAs, ANCOVAs, and *a posteriori* pairwise comparisons of the means were
337 performed using the software Primer version 6.

338 Differences in density between species per body sizes, measured as small (individuals < 5
339 cm), medium (5-10 cm) and large (> 10 cm) individuals during field surveys (see details in
340 Booth et al. 2007) conducted at the same sites and years as for the videos recordings, were
341 compared between the focal tropical and temperate fishes using permutational ANOVA. This
342 analysis was performed to evaluate if differences in body size between tropical and temperate
343 species across latitude could explain the differences detected in species behaviours.

344

345

346 **Results**

347

348 The behavioural repertoire (all seven behaviours combined) differed significantly across
349 latitudes (Table S4, MANCOVA, $F = 3.809$, $p = 0.033$) and between tropical (*A. vaigiensis*)
350 and temperate (*M. strigatus*) species (MANCOVA, $F = 17.804$, $p = 0.0002$). Pairwise tests
351 revealed that the behavioural repertoire differed between low and middle latitudes, but not
352 from high latitude, respectively, for both species. Only the abundance of temperate fishes
353 (MANCOVA, $F = 3.972$, $p = 0.004$) had a significant effect on the species behaviours.
354 Overall, the behaviours of the tropical fish were not affected by different life stage (recruits,
355 early-juveniles, juveniles) (MANCOVA, $F = 0.836$, $p = 0.559$). The observation time of
356 individuals was significantly related to the species behaviour (MANCOVA, $F = 3.972$, $p =$
357 0.004), but the interactions with latitude and species did not show a significant effect,
358 meaning that the latitudinal differences of species behaviour were not influenced by the time
359 of observation (Table S3).

360

361 **Tropical fish species**

362 Four out of seven behaviours that acted as proxies for foraging and aggressive performance
363 differed as a function of latitude at least in one of the life stage categories (recruit, early-
364 juvenile, juvenile). Bite rates (ANCOVA, latitude: $p = 0.0002$) and prey inspection rates
365 (latitude \times species interaction: $p = 0.039$) were lower at middle and high latitudes than at low
366 latitude, while prey attraction time (latitude \times species interaction: $p = 0.009$) and, minimum
367 distance to prey for recruits of *A. vaigiensis* (latitude \times life stage: $p = 0.023$) all increased
368 from low to middle and high latitudes. Additionally, recruits showed a shorter distance to prey
369 than juveniles at the low latitude (Fig. 2, Fig S3, Table S5). The behaviours that indicate
370 direct aggressive interactions (chasing and escaping rates) did not differ as a function of
371 latitude or among individuals of each species, heterospecific tropical and temperate fish
372 species (Fig. S4). Only two behaviours of the tropical fish were significantly related to the

373 abundance of temperate fishes and conspecifics: retreat rates were positively related to the
374 total abundance of temperate fishes ($R^2 = 0.28$; ANCOVA, $p = 0.0002$, Fig. 3a and Table S5)
375 but negatively related to the abundance of conspecific individuals ($R^2 = 0.24$, $p = 0.032$, Fig.
376 3b), whilst bite rates were negatively related to the abundance of temperate fishes ($R^2 = 0.08$,
377 $p = 0.016$, Fig. 3c), but positively related to the abundance of conspecifics ($R^2 = 0.20$, $p =$
378 0.013 , Fig. 3d).

379

380 **Temperate fish species**

381 Temperate fishes differed in three out of seven behaviours as a function of latitude. Bite rates
382 (ANCOVA, latitude: $p = 0.0002$) and chasing rates (latitude: $p = 0.003$) were higher at low
383 latitude than middle and high latitudes, respectively, while prey attraction time (ANCOVA,
384 latitude: $p = 0.0002$) was higher at middle latitude than at high latitude, but the low latitude
385 did not differ from middle and high latitudes (Fig. 2, Table S5). Unlike the tropical fish, *M.*
386 *strigatus* exhibited higher chasing behaviour against individuals of the same species and
387 tropical fishes at low latitude than at middle and high latitudes, while they escaped more from
388 heterospecific temperate fish at the high latitude (Fig. S4). Retreat rate was positively related
389 to abundance of other temperate fishes ($R^2 = 0.41$; ANCOVA, $p = 0.0002$, Fig. 3a and Table
390 S4). A weak negative relationship was observed between retreat rates and abundance of
391 conspecific individuals ($R^2 = 0.06$, $p = 0.032$, Fig. 3b), and bite rate and abundance of other
392 temperate fishes ($R^2 = 0.11$, $p = 0.016$, Fig. 3c). Bite rate also had a weak positive relationship
393 with the abundance of conspecifics ($R^2 = 0.09$, $p = 0.013$, Fig. 3d).

394

395 **Tropical vs temperate fish species**

396 In five out of seven behaviours, the temperate fish showed a higher foraging performance than
397 the tropical species at least in one of the latitudes: higher bite rate ($p = 0.029$), higher prey
398 inspection ($p = 0.039$), higher chasing rate ($p = 0.006$), prey attraction time ($p = 0.009$), and a
399 shorter distance to prey (ANCOVA, $p = 0.002$), respectively (Fig. 2, Table S5).

400 Whilst the density of small, medium and large sizes of individuals of the focal tropical
401 (*A. vaigiensis*) and temperate (*M. strigatus*) species were higher at the low latitude than at
402 middle and high latitudes, the densities of large individuals of the focal temperate fish (*M.*
403 *strigatus*) were higher than the densities of large individuals of *A. vaigiensis* independent of
404 the latitude, and the tropical fish showed higher densities of small individuals than their co-
405 shoaling temperate species, irrespective of latitude (Fig. S5, Table S6).

406

407

408 **Discussion**

409

410 The central tenet of biological invasion theory is that alien species are often competitively
411 stronger than non-native species and therefore experience successful invasions with
412 substantial impacts on the communities in their novel environments (Carlton et al. 1999;
413 Branch and Steffani 2004; Davis et al. 2003; Vila and Weiner 2004). However, we here show
414 that the foraging competency (using various foraging behaviours as a proxy) of a common
415 tropical range-extending fish, regardless of life stage (i.e., recruit, early-juvenile, or juvenile),
416 is lower in its novel temperate range than in its native subtropical range and lower than that of
417 its co-shoaling temperate fish species, which may compromise its fitness in its novel invaded
418 range. Reduced foraging performance of tropical fish at their high-latitude range edges was
419 expressed through (1) increased prey attraction time, (2) increased distance to prey (for
420 recruits), (3) reduced prey inspection rates, and (4) reduced bite rates, respectively, compared

421 to their native ranges. In contrast, the aggressive interactions with local temperate fish
422 (chasing and escaping behaviours) during foraging did not increase in their novel ranges.
423 Although for coral reef fishes the expectation is that feeding rates reduce in cold-temperate
424 waters (Barneche et al. 2009, Kingsbury et al. 2020), we observed that other behaviours
425 related to foraging performance were also compromised (i.e. increased distance and attraction
426 time to prey, reduced prey inspection rates). Thus, the reduced foraging performance as a
427 function of latitude suggests that tropical fishes are still poorly behaviourally adapted to either
428 lower temperatures and the novel biological conditions (e.g. surrounding habitats), which
429 might increase their vulnerability to local competitors and predators (Figueira et al. 2019).
430 Cooler-temperate waters are known to cause lower metabolic rates and foraging performance
431 in *Abudefduf vaigiensis* and this is linked to a reduced energy allocation towards somatic
432 growth (Kingsbury et al. 2020). Our observed decline from low to high latitude in foraging
433 performance by tropical range-extending fishes may be restricting their growth, survival, and
434 consequent permanent establishment in temperate ecosystems under current ocean warming.

435 Species composition at high latitudes can alter the foraging performance of tropical
436 species in their novel temperate ranges. We show that tropical fishes were more efficient in
437 approaching (decreased retreat rates) and consuming (increased bite rates) prey with increased
438 abundances of conspecifics (irrespective of latitude), but contrastingly an increased abundance
439 of temperate fishes increased their retreat rates. At sites with higher abundances of typically
440 larger temperate fishes, these aggregated around the released prey and formed a physical
441 barrier, preventing tropical fishes from approaching the released prey (Fig. S2). Such physical
442 displacement has also been observed in native vs invasive terrestrial organisms (Masciocchi et
443 al. 2009). Density-dependent competition is often observed among fishes. For example, at
444 elevated abundance, coral-dwelling damselfishes become more aggressive and interference
445 competition for refuge increases, leading to inferior competitors being more susceptible to

446 predation (Holbrook and Schmitt 2002). Unexpectedly, a higher abundance of temperate
447 fishes was not related to an increased aggression (escaping and chasing rates) between the
448 tropical and temperate species. No signs of aggressive interactions between tropical and
449 temperate species have been reported before. Instead, Smith et al. (2018) revealed that *A.*
450 *vaigiensis* increased their growth rates at temperate reefs when schooling with temperate
451 species. Additionally, Kingsbury et al. (2019) found that these tropical and temperate species
452 occupied segregated trophic niches that did not overlap significantly probably due to their
453 generalist feeding strategies. Nevertheless, in our experiment we observed *M. strigatus* and
454 other temperate fishes (e.g. mado, *Atypichthys strigatus*; sweep, *Scorpiis lineolatus*; yellow
455 bream, *Acanthopagrus australis*) all to be aggressively interacting with *A. vaigiensis* and
456 interfering in their performance by inhibiting their access to food resources during their
457 feeding, indicating that native temperate fishes were capable of interfering in the performance
458 of tropical fishes by inhibiting their access to food resources. Although *A. vaigiensis* are
459 considered diet generalists (zooplankton, algae and invertebrates) and thus experience less
460 competition for specific prey species (Anderson et al. 2017; Kingsbury et al. 2019), such food
461 items differ in nutritional values. This means that temperate fishes can still limit the foraging
462 performance and fitness of generalist tropical fishes on temperate reefs by restricting their
463 access to more nutritious food items. With accelerating ocean warming, a higher diversity and
464 abundance of tropical fishes is expected in temperate ecosystems (Fowler et al. 2017). Whilst
465 under current warming, larger-sized native temperate fishes may slow the pace of tropical
466 invasions through behavioural interference during feeding, increasing abundances and body
467 sizes of tropical fishes under future warming can counter these species interaction effects
468 through increased foraging performance when shoaling with their own species.

469 Tropical fishes appear to have a lower competency than temperate fishes in cool-water
470 environment, as indicated by an overall lower foraging and aggressive performance (four out

471 of seven behaviours) in their novel ranges (mid and high latitudes) than the temperate species.
472 Inferior competitors often suffer high mortality rates by being more susceptible to predation
473 and competition (Forrester and Steele 2000; Holbrook and Schmitt 2002; Almany 2003). In
474 addition to low temperatures, this reduced competency compared to the temperate fish may be
475 related to differences in body size. Most of the tropical fishes at temperate latitudes were
476 smaller than the temperate fishes and are therefore likely to be behaviourally subordinate to
477 larger juvenile or adult local temperate fishes in terms of feeding competency (Persson 1985;
478 Young et al. 2003; Poulos and McCormick 2013). For instance, 91% of the escaping events
479 registered for the tropical species were from temperate fish species, and all of the temperate
480 fishes (100%) were larger than the tropical ones, indicating the propensity of tropical range-
481 extending fish to be competitively excluded from native fishes in at least the initial stage of
482 tropicalisation. However, shoaling with temperate fishes (including *M. strigatus*) can
483 sometimes also facilitate the performance of tropical fishes in temperate ecosystems by
484 enhancing access to resources and hence increasing growth (Smith et al. 2018) and survival
485 rates (Paijmans et al. 2020). Under current warming, temperate fishes still seem to have a
486 behavioural advantage at their trailing edges over range-extending tropical fishes through
487 larger body sizes, higher foraging and aggressive performance and higher abundances.

488 As expected, the performance of the temperate fish species was largely similar across
489 latitude. Only three out of seven behaviours were affected by latitude (i.e., increased bite rate
490 and chasing rate at the warmer low-latitude and increased prey attraction time at the middle
491 than high latitudes). Such higher foraging and aggressive performance at low latitude might
492 be explained by the fact that the natural range of *M. strigatus* covers all sites that we studied
493 across the latitudinal gradient (Tea et al. 2019), and that they perform best at subtropical-
494 warmer temperatures in the centre of their distributional range (Payne et al. 2016). A similar
495 pattern was found in other temperate marine fish species in the Tasman Sea (Neuheimer et al.

496 2011). As temperate species have a wider thermal niche than tropical species (Tewksbury et
497 al. 2008; Perez et al. 2016), current ocean warming initially has positive rather than negative
498 effects on some of the performance traits of temperate fishes at their trailing edges.

499 We demonstrate that at higher latitudes (in novel temperate environments) and at
500 elevated abundance and larger body sizes of temperate fishes, the foraging performance of
501 range-extending tropical species is currently compromised. This suggests that both physical
502 and biological factors might be acting in synchrony to restrict the establishment of tropical
503 species in temperate ecosystems under current warming. Behavioural interference for prey
504 resources by larger temperate fishes can limit resource access and might force tropical species
505 to use less desirable resources slowing the initial stages of tropicalisation of temperate
506 ecosystems during which tropicals are overrepresented by small recruits. However, when the
507 thermal stress of temperate environments is relaxed under future warming and the
508 performance and survival of vagrant tropical fishes is no longer affected by low water
509 temperatures, they will persist until adulthood and the likelihood of stronger behavioural
510 interactions with native species may increase in temperate ecosystems.

511

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516

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519

520

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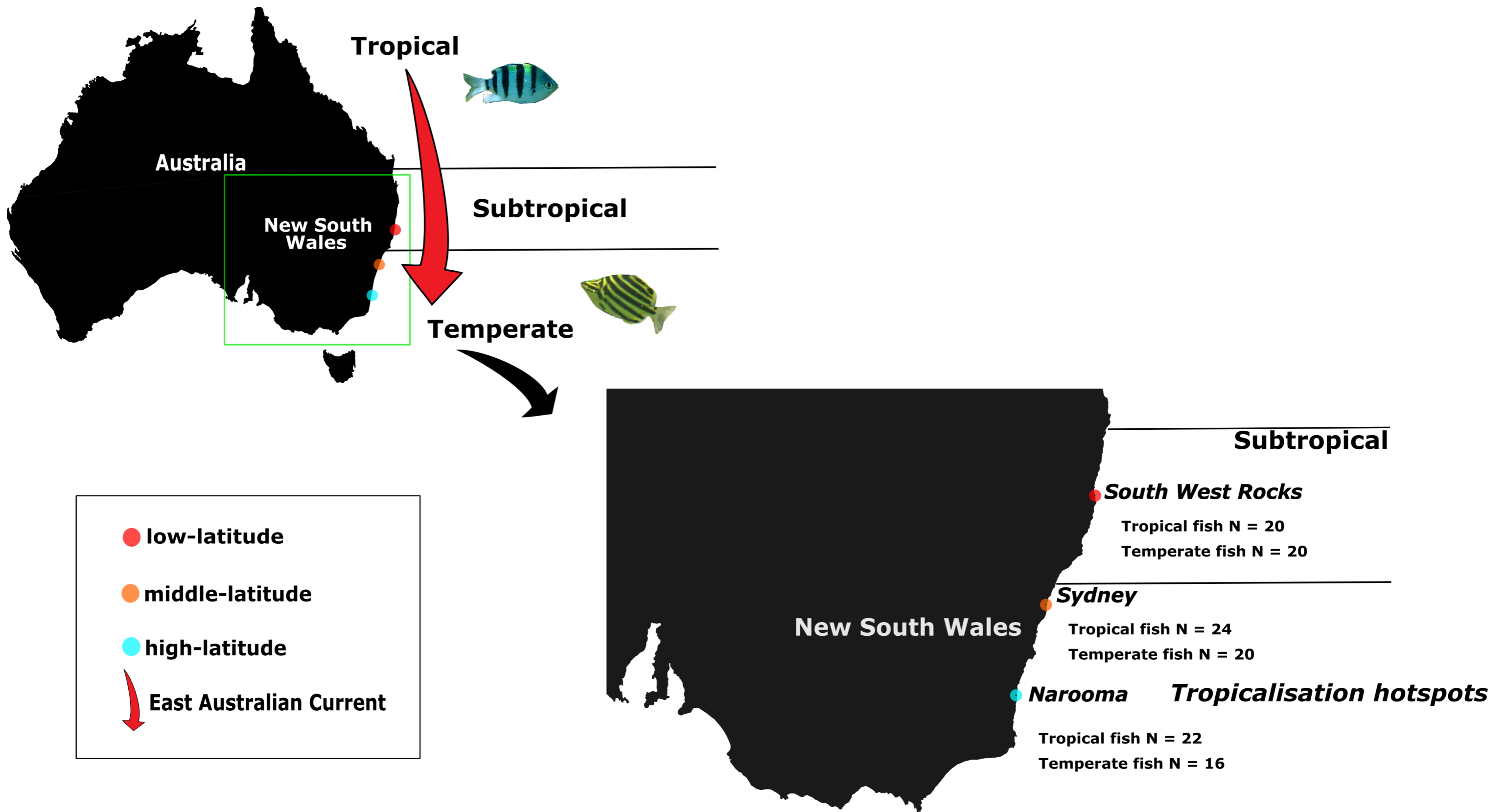
740 **Figure 1.** Map showing the sites of the *in situ* manipulative experiments and the tropical
741 (*Abudefduf vaigiensis* - top photo) and temperate (*Microcanthus strigatus* - bottom photo)
742 fishes studied. Red circle indicates the low latitude region: two sites at South West Rocks
743 (30°52'34"S, 153°4'2"E and 30°53'0"S, 153°2'17"E). Orange circle indicates the middle
744 latitude region: Shelly Beach (33°48'1.13"S, 151°17'31.23"E), Little Manly (33°48'23"S,
745 151°17'8"E) and Narrabeen (33°42'7"S, 151°18'21"E). Blue circle indicates the high latitude
746 region: Narooma (36°12'54"S, 150°7'51"E). N = sample size of fishes.

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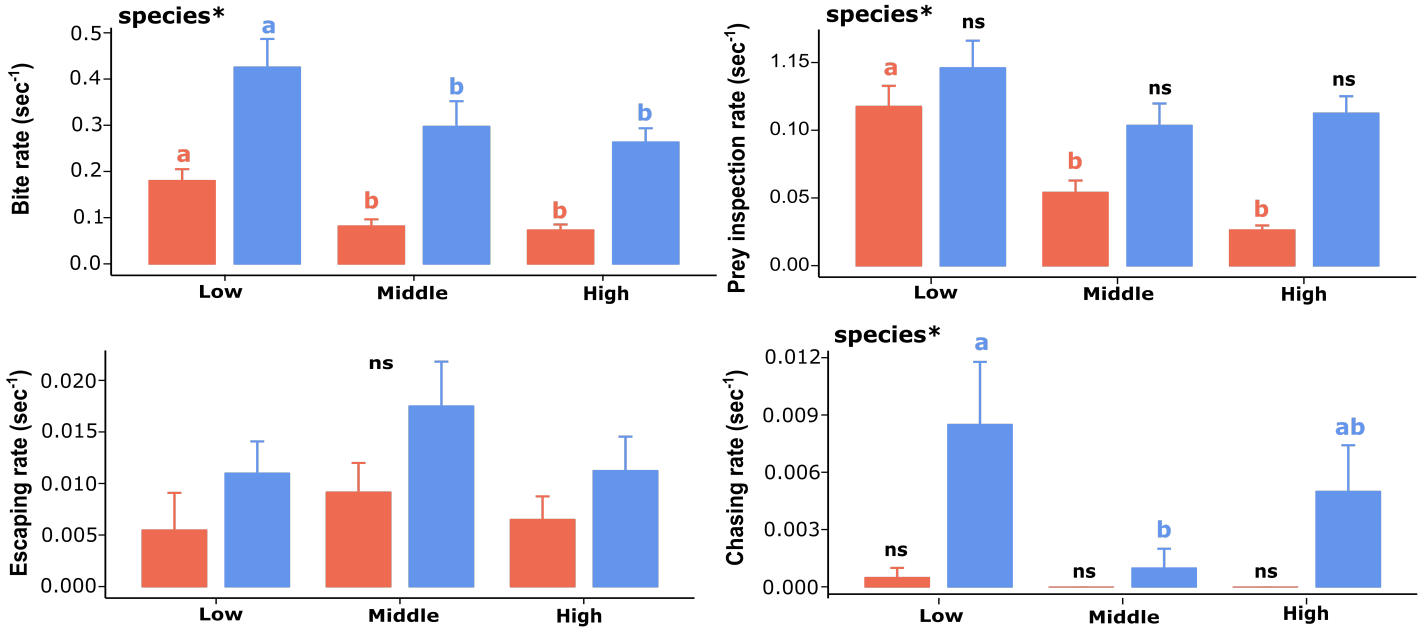
748 **Figure 2.** Behavioural proxies (mean + SE) of foraging competency in tropical and temperate
749 fishes across a latitudinal gradient (see Fig. 1) based on the food acquisition and on aggressive
750 interactions (escaping and chasing rates). The graphs are grouped into behaviours that show
751 reduced performance when they decrease (above 4 panels) or when they increase (lower 3
752 panels) from low to high latitudes, respectively. Letters indicate significant latitudinal
753 differences within species ($p < 0.05$; see Tables S5). ns = no significant differences.
754 Significant difference between the tropical and temperate fish species within latitudes are
755 indicated as 'species*' and life stage among latitude is indicated as 'Latitude \times life stage *'
756 (only for the tropical fish as indicated by the orange colour) (see Table S5).

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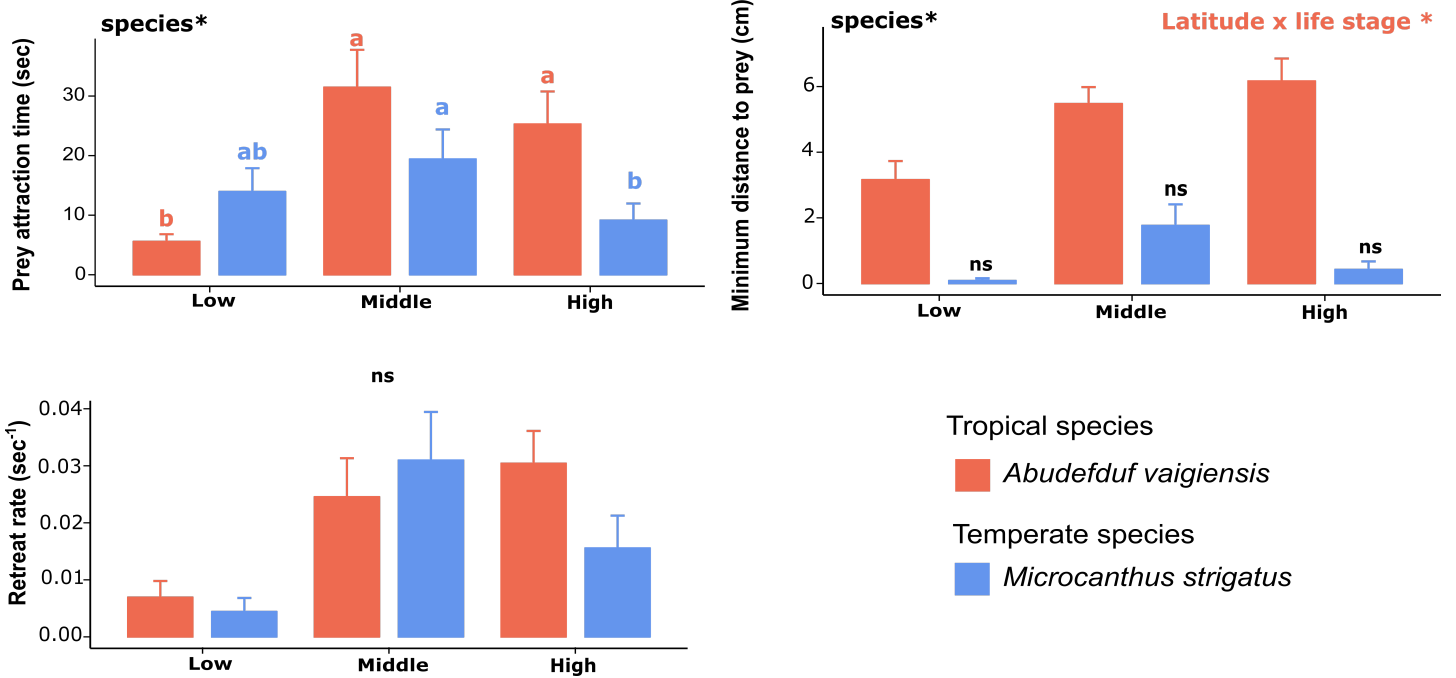
758 **Figure 3.** Relationship between behaviours (a, b: retreat rates; c, d: bite rates) of *Abudefduf*
759 *vaigiensis* and *Microcanthus strigatus* and the abundance of temperate fishes and conspecific
760 individuals (average of total number of temperate fishes and same individuals of each focal
761 species per sample). Adjusted R^2 show the proportion that the respective covariate contributed
762 to the variability of the model. Model p-values for the covariates are shown inside each panel.



A decrease from low to high latitude indicates reduced performance



An increase from low to high latitude indicates reduced performance



Tropical species
■ *Abudedefduf vaigiensis*
 Temperate species
■ *Microcanthus strigatus*

