

1 **Consequences of fish for cladoceran, water beetle and**
2 **macrophyte communities in a farmland pond landscape:**
3 **implications for conservation**

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5 PARIS V. STEFANOUDIS^{1,2*}, CARL D. SAYER¹, HELEN GREAVES¹,
6 THOMAS A. DAVIDSON^{3,4}, HANNAH ROBSON^{1,5}, DAVID ALMEIDA⁶,
7 ELIZABETH SMITH¹,

8
9 ¹ Pond Restoration Research Group, Environmental Change Research Centre,
10 Department of Geography, University College London, Gower Street, London
11 WC1E 6BT, UK

12 ² Ocean and Earth Science, National Oceanography Centre Southampton,
13 University of Southampton Waterfront Campus, European Way, Southampton
14 SO14 3ZH, UK

15 ³ Lake Ecology and Arctic Research Centre, Department of Bioscience, Aarhus
16 University, 25 Vejlsøvej, Silkeborg 8600, Denmark

17 ⁴ Ecoinformatics & Biodiversity Group, Department of Bioscience, Munkegade
18 116, Aarhus University, Aarhus 8000, Denmark

19 ⁵ The Wildfowl and Wetlands Trust, Slimbridge, Gloucestershire, GL2 7BT

20 ⁶ Department of Ecology, Complutense University of Madrid, Madrid E-28040,
21 Spain

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23 *Corresponding author: pstefa@windowslive.com
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49 **Abstract**

50 Traditionally, fish have been neglected in pond ecology and conservation
51 studies although it has been often been assumed that they have a detrimental
52 impact on pond biodiversity and ecosystem function. In order to assess the
53 consequences of fish for pond biodiversity and ecosystem structure we
54 sampled a set of 40 small farmland ponds (20 with and 20 without fish) in
55 eastern England and compared their water chemistry as well as the
56 assemblage characteristics (abundance, diversity, species composition) of
57 three biological groups: cladocerans (zooplankton), water beetles and
58 macrophytes. Water depth was significantly greater in fish ponds, while pond
59 bottom oxygen levels and pH were significantly higher in the ponds without
60 fish. The presence of fish significantly reduced the abundance of macrophytes
61 and altered the community composition of cladocerans and macrophytes, but
62 had no detectable influence on water beetles. Variation partitioning using
63 environmental and spatial variables, indicated all three biological groups were
64 spatially structured. The inclusion of fish however, reduced the importance
65 attributed to space in the case of both cladocerans and macrophytes,
66 suggesting that space effects for these two groups were at least partly the
67 result of a spatially structured predator (i.e. fish) and not because of dispersal
68 limitation or mass effects. In most cases fish did not have an effect on
69 cladoceran and water beetle alpha diversity (number of species, Shannon's
70 and Simpson's index), although the opposite was true for macrophytes.
71 Nevertheless, at the landscape level, gamma diversity (i.e. total number of
72 species) was enhanced for all three biological groups. Our results suggest
73 that fish, at least small pond-associated species, are an important component
74 of heterogeneity in farmland pond networks, thereby increasing landscape-
75 scale diversity of several faunal and floral elements. Consequently, we
76 propose that fish should be more fully included in future pond biodiversity
77 surveys and conservation strategies.

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79 *Keywords:* cladocerans, farmland ponds, fish, gamma diversity, macrophytes,
80 water beetles.

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98 **Introduction**

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100 Freshwater research has, to a large extent, focused on rivers and lakes while
101 smaller water bodies, such as ponds, despite often being present at high
102 densities in the landscape, have generally been undervalued by scientists and
103 conservationists alike (Collinson et al. 1995; Angelibert et al. 2004; Biggs et
104 al. 2005; Oertli et al. 2009). This trend is starting to change, however, and an
105 increasing number of recent conservation biology and landscape and
106 dispersal ecology studies are now focusing on ponds (De Meester et al. 2005;
107 Ruggiero et al. 2008; Raebel et al. 2011; Sayer et al. 2012). In particular, a
108 number of studies have highlighted the value of ponds for supporting species
109 of conservation concern in Europe such as great crested newt *Triturus*
110 *cristatus* (Griffiths & Williams 2000; Edgar & Bird 2006; Gustafson et al.
111 2009), common spadefoot toad *Pelobates fuscus* (Nystrom et al. 2002;
112 Rannap et al. 2009), crucian carp *Carassius carassius* (Copp et al. 2008;
113 Sayer et al. 2011) and European otter *Lutra lutra* (Ruiz-Olmo et al. 2007;
114 Almeida et al. 2012).

115 The contribution of ponds to regional or landscape-scale (gamma)
116 species diversity has been an area of emerging research. For example,
117 comparisons between different aquatic habitats (ponds, ditches, streams and
118 rivers) in NW European agricultural landscapes suggest that ponds have the
119 highest regional (gamma) diversity for invertebrates and aquatic plants
120 (Williams et al. 2003; Davies et al. 2008a; Davies et al. 2008b). Likewise, in
121 NW Spain, several mountain ponds combined supported a greater number of
122 invertebrates than a single lake of the same surface area (Martinez-Sanz et
123 al. 2012). The substantial contribution of ponds to regional diversity is often
124 linked to high beta diversity (i.e. low faunal and floral similarity between
125 neighboring sites), in turn attributed to two factors: a) strong differences in
126 biotic and abiotic conditions among systems facilitating high species turn-over
127 between ponds at the landscape scale, and b) stochastic events that tend to
128 have greater influence over biotic assemblages in small waters, resulting in
129 high beta diversity (Scheffer et al. 2006). Clearly, despite their small size and
130 frequent hydrological isolation (Oertli et al. 2002), ponds are important for the
131 maintenance of aquatic diversity. Indeed, networks of ponds are potentially
132 crucial for regional populations of several aquatic groups thought to exist in
133 metapopulations including amphibians, dragonflies, reptiles and zooplankton
134 (Michels et al. 2001; Cottenie et al. 2003; De Meester et al. 2005; Ruggiero et
135 al. 2008; Curado et al. 2011). As a result, ponds have increasingly become
136 the subject of landscape-scale conservation initiatives such as the UK Million
137 Ponds Project (Williams et al. 2010) and the European Pond Conservation
138 Network (Oertli et al. 2005) that seek to increase pond density and
139 connectivity.

140 The majority of pond ecology and diversity studies have focused on
141 invertebrates (Cereghino et al. 2008; Fuentes-Rodriguez et al. 2013),
142 macrophytes (Della Bella et al. 2008; Williams et al. 2008) and amphibians
143 (Beja & Alcazar 2003; Hartel et al. 2010; Curado et al. 2011), while other
144 biological groups, especially fishes, have been comparatively understudied.
145 Furthermore, where fish have been included in pond studies, fish data has
146 typically been derived from interviews, observations or inadvertent catches

147 made during invertebrate surveys (e.g. Hassal *et al.*, 2011; Jeliaskov *et al.*,
148 2014) and not from actual fish sampling (e.g. fyke netting, electric-fishing) that
149 more accurately estimates fish presence/absence and community assembly.
150 As well as contributing to pond diversity in their own right, fish have an
151 important influence on community structure and diversity in ponds.

152 Given a lack of studies of fish effects on pond biological structure that
153 include active fish sampling, we studied cladoceran (zooplankton), water
154 beetle and macrophyte community assembly and diversity in a set of 40 small
155 English ponds with and without fish, with fish presence established by fyke net
156 sampling. Ponds containing common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) and northern pike
157 (*Esox lucius*) were excluded from the study, as we wanted to focus
158 predominantly on small typical European pond-associated fish, especially
159 crucian carp (*Carassius carassius*), roach (*Rutilus rutilus*), rudd (*Scardinius*
160 *erythrophthalmus*), three-spined stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) and
161 tench (*Tinca tinca*). For each biological group we hypothesized that: i) local
162 (i.e. per site) diversity will be similar irrespective of fish presence/absence; ii)
163 community structure will be markedly different due to fish influence via
164 predation and habitat modification; iii) landscape-scale (gamma) diversity will
165 be enhanced by the presence of fish in ponds, thus highlighting their potential
166 beneficial role within pond networks.

167

168 **Methods**

169

170 *Study area*

171 Our study focused on 20 ponds containing fish and 20 ponds without fish (n =
172 40) in Norfolk, eastern England. The ponds were selected based on previous
173 fyke net based investigations of fish populations (Sayer *et al.* 2011). Norfolk is
174 a low-lying (altitude <100 m above the sea level) predominately agricultural
175 region. The geology of the study area is composed of Cretaceous chalk
176 bedrock overlain by Quaternary glacial drift deposits and sandy loam soils. In
177 winter, the ponds are usually iced over for 2–3 weeks, often in short
178 separated intervals. The study ponds are all small (<50 m in maximum
179 diameter, mean surface area = 920 m²), shallow (0.3–2.4 m, mean = 1 m),
180 man-made and have their origins dominantly as marl pits (n = 30) (Prince,
181 1964). Other sites originated as livestock watering ponds (n = 3), recently
182 created conservation ponds (n = 4), medieval fish ponds (n = 2), and a small
183 gravel pit (n = 1). Groundwater is the main source of water to the ponds. The
184 majority of the ponds are situated in arable or pasture land and all of the
185 arable ponds are buffered by grass margins (minimum c. 5–10 m diameter).
186 Degree of terrestrialisation and overhead shading by trees and bushes is
187 known to be a key influence on macrophyte and invertebrate diversity in
188 ponds (Sayer *et al.* 2012). Consequently, to minimise this effect, only
189 relatively open canopy ponds with low-moderate shading (mean = 13% ± 17%
190 standard deviation) were selected for study.

191

192 *Environmental data collection*

193 Dissolved oxygen profiles (10 cm intervals) were generated for each pond
194 over May-June 2012: only surface (0 cm) and bottom (just above sediment
195 surface) oxygen values were used as explanatory variables in this study. Data

196 for pH, conductivity and alkalinity (measured in the field), total phosphorus
197 (TP), soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP) and nitrate nitrogen (NO₃⁻-N) were
198 derived from previous surveys undertaken over May-June 2010 and 2011.
199 Conductivity, pH and dissolved oxygen were determined with a HACH HQ30d
200 meter and alkalinity was measured by sulphuric-acid titration undertaken in
201 the field using a HACH AL-DT kit. Water samples for SRP and NO₃⁻-N were
202 filtered on-site using Whatman GF/C (1.2 µm) filter papers. SRP was
203 determined using the molybdenum blue procedure (Murphy & Riley 1962) and
204 NO₃⁻-N was measured using the procedures described by Wetzel & Likens
205 (2000). Total phosphorus (TP) was determined for unfiltered water samples
206 by the same method as SRP after microwave digestion (Johnes & Heathwaite
207 1992). Shading of the pond was estimated visually as the percentage of the
208 pond overhung by trees and bushes (%shading).

209

210 *Fish surveys*

211 Fish were surveyed (March 2010-2012) by deploying double-ended fyke nets
212 exposed overnight (approx. 16 hours), with the number of nets used
213 proportional to pond size. Fyke nets were set such that they bisected the
214 largest dimension of each pond. Further details on the methods used for fish
215 sampling are given in Sayer et al. (2011). Due to the high number of fish
216 species captured and variable capture efficiency for each species, fish data
217 was used as presence/absence in this study.

218

219 *Zooplankton sampling*

220 Zooplankton samples were taken from the 40 ponds between May-June 2012.
221 To account for the often observed patchiness of zooplankton in shallow
222 waterbodies (Cryer & Townsend 1988), five whole water column samples
223 were collected from different locations in each pond using a 2.5 m plastic tube
224 (diameter 74 mm) deployed from a small inflatable boat. All samples were
225 filtered through a 53-µm mesh plankton net and subsequently pooled and
226 preserved in ethanol (≥40% industrial methylated spirit IMS).

227 Cladocerans were enumerated using a Sedgewick-Rafter cell on a
228 compound microscope at 10–40 × magnification. Counting in each sample
229 was stopped when at least 100 individuals of the dominant taxon were
230 encountered in a sub-sample of known volume, although in some instances (n
231 = 12) this was not possible due to low abundances (≤ 50 indiv.). Cladocerans
232 were identified to species-level wherever possible, according to the taxonomic
233 schemes of Scourfield & Harding (1966), Amoros (1984), Flössner (2000) and
234 Szeroczyńska & Sarmaja-Korjonen (2007). Identification proved difficult for
235 some groups. Therefore, species in the genus *Ceriodaphnia* were amalgamed
236 as *Ceriodaphnia* spp., and specimens of *Alona costata* and *Alona guttata*,
237 *Alona affinis* and *Alona quadrangularis*, *Pleuroxus aduncus* and *Pleuroxus*
238 *trigonellus* were also combined. Furthermore, the closely related daphnids,
239 *Daphnia longispina*, *Daphnia rosea* and *Daphnia hyalina* were aggregated
240 under *D. longispina* agg. as recommended by Petrusek et al. (2008).

241

242 *Water beetle sampling*

243 Using a standard pond net (mesh size 1 mm, frame size 0.2 × 0.25 m) water
244 beetle samples were collected in June 2014 by vigorous sampling of the pond

245 margins for a period of 2 minutes. Collected material was sorted in the field for
246 a maximum of 30 minutes or until the worker was confident that all the water
247 beetles had been picked out. The sorted specimens were then preserved in
248 the field using 70% IMS. Species identifications was conducted using a Zeiss
249 Stemi 2000 stereomicroscope (6.5–45 × magnification) and identifications and
250 nomenclature followed Friday (1988), Foster & Friday (2011) and Foster et al.
251 (2014).

252

253 *Macrophyte sampling*

254 The macrophyte flora of each pond was surveyed once during May–August
255 2010–2013. Submerged, floating-leaved and free-floating aquatic
256 macrophytes were recorded on the DAFOR scale (see also Palmer et al.,
257 1992; Sayer et al., 2012) as dominant (5), abundant (4), frequent (3),
258 occasional (2), and rare (1) by visual observation (approx. 30 minutes of
259 searching per pond) assisted by collections made using a double-headed
260 rake.

261

262 *Statistical analysis*

263 Trends in the diversity and structure of cladoceran, water beetle and
264 macrophyte communities were explored using analysis of similarity (ANOSIM)
265 and 2D non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) using PRIMER 6 (Clarke
266 & Gorley 2006), based on Bray-Curtis similarity matrices generated from log
267 (x+1) abundance (cladocerans, water beetles) and relative abundance
268 (macrophyte DAFOR) data. For improved visualisation of the results, sites
269 with no recorded individuals for a biological group were omitted from the
270 respective nMDS plots. Multivariate dispersion (MVDISP), a measure of
271 community heterogeneity (Anderson et al. 2006), was estimated using the
272 vegan package (Oksanen et al. 2013) in RStudio version 0.99.489 (R Core
273 Team, 2016). Variation in MVDISP in relation to fish presence/absence was
274 assessed by analysis of variance (ANOVA). Controls on community structure
275 for the three organism groups were examined using variance partitioning
276 analysis (Peres-Neto et al. 2006). Three explanatory models were generated
277 using redundancy analysis (RDA): i) an environmental model with forward
278 selected environmental variables following Blanchet et al. (2008); ii) a spatial
279 model with forward selected “spatial variables” (based on the geographical
280 distance between sites) obtained from distance-based Moran’s eigenvector
281 maps (MEM) (Dray et al. 2006). In brief, MEM used geographic coordinate
282 data (latitude, longitude) for each of our study sites to determine spatial
283 relationships between them. These were translated into explanatory (spatial)
284 variables that we could be used in the multivariate analysis; and iii) a fish
285 model based on presence/absence data for each site. Variation in biological
286 assemblages was separated into purely environmental, spatial, and fish
287 components respectively. We ran the analysis twice in each case using
288 different environmental models: one containing information from abiotic
289 variables only; and the other containing information from abiotic as well as
290 biotic variables (cladoceran, water beetle and macrophyte abundance) to
291 identify any significant interactions between the three studied biological
292 groups (i.e. in the case of cladocerans we used water beetle and macrophyte
293 abundance as biotic variables etc). Monte Carlo random permutations were

294 used to test the significance of the three components (environmental, spatial,
295 fish model) and R^2 adjusted values were used for estimates of explained
296 variation (Peres-Neto et al. 2006). Fish are seldom sampled in pond
297 metacommunity studies, but fish presence/absence may often be spatially
298 structured, thus overemphasising the importance of spatial processes. To
299 investigate this, we re-ran the analysis as described above, however, this time
300 we omitted the fish model. Prior to analysis all biotic data were Hellinger-
301 transformed (Legendre & Gallagher 2001). Where appropriate, environmental
302 data were log-transformed (water depth, TP, SRP and NO_3^- -N), standardised
303 (i.e. each variable has zero mean and unit variance) (alkalinity, conductivity,
304 bottom and surface oxygen) or arcsine transformed (%shade).

305 Alpha (per pond) diversity for each biological group (cladocerans, water
306 beetles, macrophytes) was assessed with three different indexes (species
307 richness, Shannon's index, Simpson's index) in Estimates S9 (Colwell 2013)
308 based on raw counts (cladocerans and water beetles) or relative abundance
309 (macrophyte DAFOR) data. The Shannon's Index ($\exp(-\sum p_i \log p_i)$) weights
310 species in proportion to their frequency of occurrence, and can be roughly
311 interpreted as the number of 'typical species' in an assemblage. Simpson's
312 index ($1 / \sum p_i^2$) is heavily weighted towards the most common species and
313 can be interpreted to represent the number of very abundant species in an
314 assemblage. Significant differences in alpha diversity between ponds with and
315 without fish were tested for using Mann-Whitney tests. To compensate for
316 unequal sampling effort in the case of cladocerans (i.e. more water was
317 filtered in deeper ponds), data was rarefied to 55 individuals. Subsequently,
318 we created sample-based rarefaction curves rescaled by individuals
319 (Chazdon et al. 1998; Gotelli & Colwell 2001) comparing species richness in
320 ponds with fish and without fish and all ponds combined. This effectively
321 estimated the effect of fish on gamma (total) diversity for each of the three
322 studied biological groups.

323

324 **Results**

325

326 *Water chemistry*

327 With the exception of one site, all ponds were base-rich (Table 1) with pH,
328 conductivity and alkalinity ranging from 6.6–9.7 (mean = 8, $\sigma = 0.6$), 79–762
329 $\mu\text{s cm}^{-1}$ (mean = 490.9, $\sigma = 162.7$) and 2.46–306 $\text{mg CaCO}_3 \text{ L}^{-1}$ (mean =
330 160.8, $\sigma = 68.1$) respectively. Most ponds were eutrophic with total
331 phosphorus (TP), soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP) and nitrate nitrogen
332 (NO_3^- -N) ranges of 28.5–1108.5 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (mean = 234.9, $\sigma = 237.5$), 0–709.89
333 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ (mean = 70.6, $\sigma = 128.9$) and 0–1.59 mg L^{-1} (mean = 0.2, $\sigma = 0.39$)
334 respectively.

335 A number of significant differences in environmental descriptors were
336 found between ponds with and without fish (Table 1). In particular, water
337 depth was significantly greater in ponds containing fish ($P = 0.001$), while
338 bottom oxygen concentration and pH were significantly higher in the non-fish
339 ponds ($P = 0.024$ and $P = 0.05$ respectively).

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Fish

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In total, nine fish species and three fish-hybrids were recorded in the 20 fish-containing ponds. In order of decreasing abundance these included crucian carp (present in 10 ponds), three-spine stickleback (5 ponds), rudd (6 ponds), Eurasian perch *Perca fluviatilis* (3 ponds), roach (7 ponds), tench (4 ponds), nine-spine stickleback *Pungitius pungitius* (2 ponds), European eel *Anguilla anguilla* (2 ponds), goldfish *Carassius auratus* (including natural brown and shubunkin varieties) (2 ponds), hybrids of crucian carp and goldfish (1 pond), hybrids of common carp *Cyprinus carpio* and goldfish (1 pond), and hybrids of roach and rudd (2 ponds).

353

Cladocera

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A total of 21 cladoceran species were recorded from 38 ponds, 16 species from ponds with fish and 16 species from fishless ponds, with each pond type harbouring five unique species not found in the other category (Table 2). Four species were present in more than ten sites (*Chydorus sphaericus* – 33 ponds, *Simocephalus expinosus* – 22 ponds, *Simocephalus vetulus* – 18 ponds, *D. longispina* agg. – 14 ponds). *Daphnia longispina* agg., *D. pulex*, *Ceriodaphnia* spp., *S. expinosus* and *S. vetulus* were significantly more abundant in fishless ponds, while *B. longirostris* was more common in ponds with fish (Table 2).

364

Cladoceran community composition was significantly related to fish presence/absence (ANOSIM, $P = 0.001$), as visually confirmed in the nMDS plot (Fig. 1a), with fish-containing ponds clearly separated from non-fish ponds, despite a relatively high stress value (0.15). Although ponds with fish were more widely scattered throughout the plot (MVDISP = 0.43) compared to ponds with no fish (MVDISP = 0.35), additional permutation tests did not find this to be significant (ANOVA, $P > 0.05$).

371

Variance partitioning using three models (environmental, spatial and fish) demonstrated that compositional patterns in cladoceran assembly were primarily driven by fish presence/absence (Table 3). When fish was removed, however, spatial patterns became important, suggesting a strong spatial structure of fish distribution in the pond dataset.

376

Despite differences in community composition, statistical comparisons of cladoceran abundance and rarefied alpha diversity (species richness, Shannon's index) showed little variation across the two pond categories (Fig. 1b). The only exception was Simpson's index that was significantly higher in ponds without fish ($P = 0.05$). Rarefaction curves demonstrated that cladoceran species richness was comparable in fish and fishless ponds (Fig. 1c). However, when data from the two pond types were combined, species richness at the landscape-scale (i.e. gamma diversity) was marginally enhanced.

385

Water beetles

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Thirty-five species of water beetle were identified from 34 ponds (27 from fish ponds and 26 from fishless ponds; Table 2). The majority of species had sporadic to rare occurrences with only four being 'common' (i.e. present in >8 sites), *Haliphys ruficollis* (12 ponds), *Hyphydrus ovatus* and *Noterus clavicornis* (9 ponds) and *Haliphys* sp. (8 ponds). Some nine and eight

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392 species were recorded only in fish and non-fish ponds respectively. *Agabus*
393 *bipustulatus* and *Ilybius fenestratus* were significantly more common in
394 fishless ponds (Table 2).

395 Composition of water beetle communities was not affected by fish
396 presence/absence (ANOSIM, $P > 0.05$), as evident by the scatter in the nMDS
397 plot (Fig. 2a) and similar levels of community heterogeneity within each pond
398 category (MVDISP = 0.65 and 0.61 for fish and non-fish ponds, respectively).
399 In fact, variation in water beetle communities was largely driven by spatial
400 variables (Table 3).

401 Although alpha diversity and abundance were comparable between the
402 two pond groups (Fig. 2b), rarefaction curves highlighted that fish-containing
403 ponds supported more speciose communities compared to fishless ponds.
404 Notably, when data from all sites were combined, estimated species richness
405 (i.e. gamma diversity) lied between that of the two pond categories (Fig. 2c).
406

407 *Macrophytes*

408 Thirty-five aquatic macrophyte species were found in 38 ponds (Table 2), from
409 which nine were present in >10 sites (*Lemna minor* – 30 ponds, *Potamogeton*
410 *natans* – 19 ponds, *Lemna triscula* – 18 ponds, *Cladophora* sp. – 17 ponds,
411 *Ranunculus aquatilis* – 15 ponds, *Ranunculus sceleratus* – 14 ponds,
412 *Persicaria amphibia* – 13 ponds, Bryophyte sp. – 11 ponds, *Alisma plantago-*
413 *aquatica* – 10 ponds). Fish and fishless ponds supported 31 (9 unique) and 26
414 species (4 unique), respectively. *Ceratophyllum demersum* and *Nymphaea*
415 *alba* were more common in fish ponds, whereas *Fontinalis antipyretica*, *L.*
416 *triscula*, *R. aquatilis*, *R. sceleratus*, and *Veronica anagalis-aquatica* were
417 more common in fishless ponds (Table 2).

418 Fish presence/absence had a significant effect on macrophyte
419 community composition (ANOSIM, $P = 0.001$; Fig. 3a). Macrophyte
420 assemblages in ponds with fish had significantly ($P = 0.001$) greater
421 compositional heterogeneity (MVDISP = 0.55) compared to ponds with no fish
422 (MVDISP = 0.4).

423 Variance partitioning showed that environmental conditions (forward
424 selected variables: water depth and $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$), space and fish
425 presence/absence alike was significant for macrophytes (Table 3). When the
426 fish factor was removed both the environmental and spatial factors remained
427 important, although for space the significance level was greatly reduced. On
428 average, individual fishless ponds had higher macrophyte abundance and
429 diversity (species richness, Shannon's index, Simpson's index, $P = 0.001$ in
430 all cases) compared to fish ponds. However, rarefaction analysis indicated
431 that collectively fish ponds were relatively more species rich compared to
432 fishless ponds (Fig. 3c), while species richness for all ponds combined (i.e.
433 gamma diversity) lied between that of the two pond groups (Fig. 3c).
434

435 **Discussion**

436
437 Fish are thought to be important determinants of community assembly and
438 diversity for several biological groups in both ponds and shallow lakes
439 including amphibians (Jeliazkov et al. 2014), water beetles (Fairchild et al.
440 2000; Bloechl et al. 2010), nematodes (Weber & Traunspurger 2015),

441 cladocerans (Davidson et al. 2010) and macrophytes (van Donk & Otte 1996).
442 While fish occurrence in shallow lake studies has almost always been
443 determined via active sampling, for ponds fishes have generally been
444 recorded by casual field observations, landowner interview and inadvertently
445 via invertebrate surveys (e.g. Ruggiero et al., 2008; Le Viol et al., 2009;
446 Raebel et al., 2011; Jeliaskov et al., 2014). Such an approach is likely prone
447 to underestimating the occurrence of pond fish, especially less visually
448 evident benthic species such as crucian carp and tench. The present study, is
449 one of the few pond ecology studies to employs active fish sampling, in this
450 case fyke netting, a highly effective method for detecting fish presence in
451 ponds, even at low densities (Sayer et al., 2011). The results of our study
452 demonstrated that fish exert a significant influence on some biological
453 components of ponds (cladocerans and macrophytes) but are less important
454 to others (water beetles).

455 Studies conducted in shallow lakes have found a predominantly
456 negative relationship between fish and cladoceran abundance and diversity
457 (Vanni et al. 1997; Cottenie et al. 2001), although insignificant effects (e.g.
458 Chumchal et al., 2005) and opposing trends have also been reported (e.g.
459 Hessen et al., 2006). In our study fish did not show a significant influence on
460 cladoceran alpha diversity or abundance, but nevertheless clearly affected
461 composition (Fig. 1a), with larger members of the Daphniidae significantly less
462 common in fish-containing ponds (e.g. *Daphnia pulex*; Table 2) undoubtedly
463 due to size-selective fish predation (Brooks & Dodson 1965). Similar effects
464 have been widely documented for shallow lakes (e.g. Lauridsen & Lodge
465 1996; Jeppesen et al., 2000; Davidson et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2013), and
466 clearly the same applies for ponds. Indeed, the dominance of larger-bodied
467 Daphniidae in non-fish ponds was likely responsible for the suppressed
468 evenness of cladoceran communities compared to ponds containing fish (Fig.
469 1b; Simpson's index).

470 For water beetles, neither abundance, diversity or community
471 composition were affected by fish (Fig. 2a, b). However, other studies from
472 shallow lakes and ponds have highlighted a negative effect of fish on water
473 beetles in terms of both species diversity and abundance (Weir 1972;
474 Fairchild et al. 2000). For example, Schilling et al. (2009) showed water
475 beetles to be significantly less abundant and speciose in fish-containing USA
476 lakes, compared to those lacking fish. Similarly, in a survey of 425 English
477 farmland ponds, similar to those studied here, Hassall et al. (2011) found a
478 negative correlation between water beetle species richness and fish. Such
479 negative correlations suggest a reduced ability of water beetles to avoid fish
480 predation, but our study does not confirm this observation. Clearly further
481 work, based on actual fish sampling, is required to gain a clearer
482 understanding of fish influence over water beetles in small farmland ponds.

483 Macrophyte abundance and alpha diversity were significantly lower and
484 species composition significantly different in ponds with fish compared to
485 fishless ponds in our study (Fig. 3a, b). Foraging activities of benthic fish such
486 as tench and crucian carp may influence macrophytes through direct
487 sediment and macrophyte disturbance, although both of these fish are widely
488 associated with macrophyte-dominated conditions in shallow lakes (Perrow et
489 al. 1996; Holopainen et al. 1997). It is also possible that fish-induced

490 reductions in *Daphnia*-grazing could decrease aquatic vegetation by
491 increasing phytoplankton densities (Van De Bund & Van Donk 2004). In
492 addition, fish may directly impact on macrophyte abundance through
493 herbivory (Nurminen et al. 2003; Matsuzaki et al. 2009), and, although these
494 reductions are not usually severe (Marklund et al. 2002), it has been
495 suggested that shifts in macrophyte species composition could be a result of
496 preferential grazing by fish (Roberts et al. 1995; Lake et al. 2002). For
497 example it has been demonstrated that rudd and roach preferentially feed on
498 macrophyte species such as *C. demersum*, *Elodea canadensis*, and
499 *Potamogeton pectinatus* in shallow lakes (Prejs 1984; van Donk & Otte 1996).
500 This finding was not supported by our data, however, with all three of these
501 plants more common in fish-containing ponds, even where rudd and roach
502 were present (Table 2).

503 Several pond landscape studies have found space to be an important
504 factor determining assemblage structure for aquatic taxa (e.g. Cottenie et al.,
505 2003; Shurin et al., 2009; De Bie et al., 2012). When fish were not
506 incorporated in the analysis, spatial variables had a significant effect in
507 structuring all three biological groups; suggesting dispersal limitations or mass
508 effects in a metacommunity context. However, when fish were included,
509 space stopped being a significant structuring variable for cladocerans, while
510 significance was greatly reduced in the case of macrophytes, suggesting the
511 presence of a spatially structured predator. Fish are known to have strong
512 dispersal potential within well-connected river and wetland systems, but
513 dispersal of this group among isolated farmland ponds, as in this study,
514 mainly depends on human translocation (Sayer et al., 2011). Clearly, more
515 work is required to understand how fish distribution patterns affect landscape-
516 scale pond biological structure and diversity.

517 From a pond-conservation perspective a key finding our study was the
518 impact of fish on landscape-scale species diversity. For the cladocerans,
519 water beetles and aquatic macrophytes, a comparable number of species
520 were found in the fish and non-fish ponds. Importantly, by considering all
521 study sites (fish and fishless ponds) species richness at the landscape-scale
522 (gamma diversity) tended to be similar or somewhat higher compared to
523 fishless ponds for all three biological groups (Figs. 2c, 3c, 4c). These results
524 suggest that landscape diversity of all trophic levels is not harmed by the
525 presence of fish in some ponds but in contrast it can be occasionally slightly
526 increased. Thus, similar to other key structuring variables such as tree-
527 shading and terrestriation level (Hassall et al. 2011), fish may be an
528 important hitherto largely neglected driver of biological heterogeneity and
529 species diversity in pond landscapes.

530

531 **Conclusions**

532

533 While there are exceptions (e.g. Copp et al., 2005, 2008; Casas et al., 2011;
534 Sayer et al., 2011), fish have mostly been neglected in pond conservation
535 projects. In addition, within the pond conservation literature, fish have
536 frequently been viewed in a predominantly negative way due to presumed
537 detrimental impacts on pond diversity, especially for invertebrates (e.g.
538 Zambrano, Scheffer & Martinez-Ramos, 2001; Broyer & Curtet, 2011) and

539 amphibians (e.g. Hamer & McDonell, 2008; Wright, 2010). Although we did
540 not include amphibians in this study, we show that fish did not pose a threat to
541 pond communities, but instead tend to increase landscape-scale diversity of
542 several faunal and floral elements, in particular cladocerans and macrophytes.
543 Fish are also likely to attract other components of the local fauna such as
544 birds (e.g. kingfisher *Alcedo atthis*, grey heron *Ardea cinerea*) and mammals
545 (e.g. Eurasian otter *Lutra lutra*) that feed on them (Ruiz-Olmo et al. 2007;
546 Almeida et al. 2012), thereby further increasing pond food web complexity.
547 Finally, some pond fish species are highly worthy of conservation in their own
548 right, due to documented European-scale declines, with this especially true of
549 crucian carp (Sayer et al. 2011; Tarkan et al. 2016) and European eel (Dekker
550 2003). Nonetheless, linked to land reclamation (and consequent pond loss),
551 drought and in particular widespread pond terrestrialisation, due to the
552 cessation of traditional pond management practices, fish are undergoing
553 major declines in farmland ponds (Sayer et al. 2011; Sayer et al. 2013;
554 Tarkan et al. 2016). Our paper suggests that fish, at least typical “pond-
555 associated species”, are important biological components in farmland pond
556 networks that should be more fully included in future biodiversity surveys and
557 pond conservation strategies.

558

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560

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571

572 **Author contributions**

573 CDS conceived the study. Data collection for cladocerans, water depth and
574 oxygen levels was conducted by PVS and DA; water beetles by HR and ES;
575 nutrients by HG; aquatic macrophytes, fish, %shade, pH, conductivity,
576 alkalinity by CDS. PVS identified the cladocerans; HR and ES the water
577 beetles; CDS the macrophytes and fish. PVS compiled and analysed the data.
578 TAD provided advice on data analysis and interpretation. PVS prepared the
579 figures and tables. PVS and CDS wrote the main manuscript text with
580 assistance from TAD and DA and all authors provided comments and
581 reviewed the manuscript.

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930 **Table Legends**

931 **Table 1** Summary of mean values with standard deviations for environmental and community
932 descriptors for ponds with and without fish. Comparisons between the two pond groups were
933 explored using Mann-Whitney tests. Significance levels: * = 0.1, ** = 0.05, *** = 0.01.

934 Alkalinity (Alk – mg CaCO₃ L⁻¹), pH, conductivity (Cond – μs cm⁻¹), % shade, surface
935 dissolved oxygen (O₂ surf – mg L⁻¹), bottom dissolved oxygen (O₂ bot – mg L⁻¹), water depth
936 (m), total phosphorus (TP – μg L⁻¹), soluble reactive phosphorus (SRP – μg L⁻¹), and nitrate
937 nitrogen (NO₃⁻-N – mg L⁻¹), cladoceran abundance (Clad abund – individuals L⁻¹), water
938 beetle abundance (Beet abund – individuals per unit of sampling effort), macrophyte
939 abundance (Macr abund – DAFOR scale).

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941 **Table 2** Cladoceran, water beetle and macrophyte species recorded in the study ponds with
942 and without fish. N_{tot}, N_{FP} and N_{NFP} = number of occurrences in all ponds, fish-containing and
943 non-fish ponds respectively. Species with an asterisk have significantly different abundances
944 between the two pond categories (P ≤ 0.05; Mann-Whitney test).

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946 **Table 3** Results of variation partitioning using three models (environmental, spatial and fish
947 presence/absence) and two models (environmental, spatial) for cladoceran, water beetle and
948 macrophyte communities respectively. Only the unique effect of each model is shown. E1:
949 environmental model without biotic component, E2: environmental model including biotic
950 component, S: spatial model, F: fish model, Total: total explained variation of E1+S+F.
951 Significance levels: * = 0.1, ** = 0.05, *** = 0.01.

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989 Table 1

	Fish-containing ponds	Non-fish ponds
Abiotic variables		
Alk	156 ± 74.1	165.6 ± 63
pH *	7.8 ± 0.4	8.1 ± 0.6
Cond	479.3 ± 158.7	502.4 ± 170
% shading	10.8 ± 7.1	15.25 ± 22.7
O ₂ surf	9.5 ± 5.7	8.7 ± 4.1
O ₂ bot **	1.8 ± 2.8	4.6 ± 5
Water depth ***	1.3 ± 0.5	0.8 ± 0.4
TP	240.1 ± 217.6	229.7 ± 261.5
SRP	56.8 ± 85.4	84.4 ± 162.6
NO ₃ ⁻ -N ⁻	0.3 ± 0.5	0.1 ± 0.1
Biotic variables		
Clad abund	104 ± 128.5	144.2 ± 147
Beet abund	4 ± 3.6	7.2 ± 5.7
Macr abund ***	10.6 ± 5.6	18 ± 7

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Table 2
Group

Group	Family	Species	N _{tot}	N _{FP}	N _{NFP}
Cladocera	Daphniidae	<i>Ceriodaphnia</i> spp.*	8	Absent	8
		<i>Daphnia longispina</i> agg. *	14	2	12
		<i>Daphnia magna</i>	2	Absent	2
		<i>Daphnia pulex</i> *	4	Absent	4
		<i>Scapholeberis mucronata</i>	4	3	1
		<i>Simocephalus expinosus</i> *	21	5	16
		<i>Simocephalus vetulus</i> *	18	1	17
	Bosminidae	<i>Bosmina longirostris</i> *	7	7	Absent
	Euryceridae	<i>Eurycerus lamellatus</i>	1	Absent	1
	Chydoridae	<i>Acroperus harpae</i>	1	Absent	1
		<i>Alona affinis</i>	5	2	3,
		<i>Alona affinis/</i> <i>quadrangularis</i>	2	2	Absent
		<i>Alona costata/guttata</i>	8	4	4
		<i>Alona intermedia</i>	1	1	Absent
		<i>Chydorus ovalis</i>	5	2	3
		<i>Chydorus sphaericus</i>	33	17	16
		<i>Graptoleberis testudinaria</i>	1	1	Absent
		<i>Pleuroxus aduncus</i>	4	3	1
		<i>Pleuroxus</i> <i>aduncus/trigonellus</i>	3	2	1
		<i>Pleuroxus denticulatus</i>	1	1	Absent
<i>Pleuroxus truncatus</i>		3	2	1	
Water beetles		Dytiscidae	<i>Agabus bipustulatus</i> *	3	Absent
	<i>Agabus paludosus</i>		1	1	Absent
	<i>Agabus sturmii</i>		2	2	Absent
	<i>Colymbetes fuscus</i>		2	1	1
	<i>Hygrotus</i> <i>impressopunctatus</i>		1	Absent	1
	<i>Hygrotus inaequalis</i>		6	3	3
	<i>Hyphydrus ovatus</i>		9	2	7
	<i>Ilybius ater</i>		1	1	Absent
	<i>Ilybius fenestratus</i> *		4	Absent	4
	<i>Ilybius fuliginosus</i>		5	2	3
	<i>Laccophilus minutus</i>		6	2	4
	<i>Liopterus haemorrhoidalis</i>		1	Absent	1
	<i>Rhantus suturalis</i>		1	1	Absent
	<i>Suphrodytes dorsalis</i>		1	Absent	1

Gyrinidae	<i>Gyrinus substriatus</i>	2	1	1
Haliplidae	<i>Haliplus lineatocollis</i>	2	1	1
	<i>Haliplus ruficollis</i>	12	4	8
	<i>Haliplus</i> sp.	8	5	3
Helophoridae	<i>Helophorus aequalis</i>	1	1	Absent
	<i>Helophorus brevipalpis</i>	2	1	1
	<i>Helophorus grandis</i>	2	Absent	2
Hydrophilidae	<i>Anacaena bipustulata</i>	2	1	1
	<i>Anacaena globulus</i>	3	1	2
	<i>Anacaena limbata</i>	4	1	3
	<i>Enochrus coarctatus</i>	1	1	Absent
	<i>Enochrus testaceus</i>	2	1	1
	<i>Hydrobius fuscipes</i>	3	Absent	3
	<i>Hydroporus angustatus</i>	1	1	Absent
	<i>Hydroporus memnonius castaneus</i>	1	1	Absent
	<i>Hydroporus palustris</i>	7	3	4
	<i>Hydroporus planus</i>	1	1	Absent
	<i>Laccobius colon</i>	1	Absent	1
Hygrobiidae	<i>Hygrobia hermanni</i>	5	2	3
Noteridae	<i>Noterus clavicornis</i>	9	3	6
Scirtidae	Scirtidae sp.	3	1	2

Macrophytes

Alismataceae	<i>Alisma plantago-aquatica</i>	10	3	7
Apiaceae	<i>Apium inundatum</i>	5	1	4
	<i>Oenanthe aquatica</i>	1	Absent	1
Callitrichaceae	<i>Callitriche</i> spp.	9	3	6
Ceratophyllaceae	<i>Ceratophyllum demersum</i> *	8	7	1
	<i>Ceratophyllum submersum</i>	4	1	3
Characeae	<i>Chara globularis</i>	3	1	2
	<i>Chara hispida</i>	1	1	Absent
	<i>Chara vulgaris</i>	1	Absent	1
Crassulaceae	<i>Crassula helmsii</i>	2	1	1
Fontinalaceae	Bryophyte sp.	11	1	10
	<i>Fontinalis antipyretica</i> *	4	Absent	4
Haloragaceae	<i>Myriophyllum spicatum</i>	2	1	1
	<i>Myriophyllum verticillatum</i>	2	1	1
Hydrocharitaceae	<i>Elodea canadensis</i>	1	1	Absent
Lemnaceae	<i>Lemna minor</i>	30	14	16
	<i>Lemna minuta</i>	6	5	1
	<i>Lemna triscula</i> *	18	4	14
Nymphaeaceae	<i>Nuphar lutea</i>	2	2	Absent
	<i>Nymphaea alba</i> *	6	6	Absent
Menyanthaceae	<i>Nymphoides peltata</i>	1	1	Absent
Plantaginaceae	<i>Hippurus vulgaris</i>	3	1	2

Polygonaceae	<i>Persicaria amphibia</i>	13	4	9
Potamogetonaceae	<i>Potamogeton berchtoldii</i>	5	1	4
	<i>Potamogeton crispus</i>	6	5	1
	<i>Potamogeton natans</i>	19	6	13
	<i>Potamogeton pectinatus</i>	2	2	Absent
	<i>Potamogeton polygonifolius</i>	1	1	Absent
	<i>Potamogeton trichoides</i>	3	Absent	3
Ranunculaceae	<i>Ranunculus aquatilis</i> *	15	1	14
	<i>Ranunculus lingua</i>	1	1	Absent
	<i>Ranunculus sceleratus</i> *	14	1	13
Ricciaceae	<i>Riccia fluitans</i>	1	1	Absent
	<i>Cladophora</i> sp.*	17	5	12
Scrophulariaceae	<i>Veronica anagallis-aquatica</i> *	7	1	6

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Table 3

Three models		E1	E2	S	F	Total
Cladocera	Adj.R ²	-	-	-0.002	0.048*	0.128
Coleoptera	Adj.R ²	-	-	0.015*	-0.006	0.011
Macrophytes	Adj.R ²	0.016*	0.016	0.053**	0.048***	0.157

Two models		E1	E2	S	Total	
Cladocera	Adj.R ²	-	-	0.081**		0.081
Coleoptera	Adj.R ²	-	-	0.017*		0.017
Macrophytes	Adj.R ²	0.018*	0.018*	0.058***		0.109

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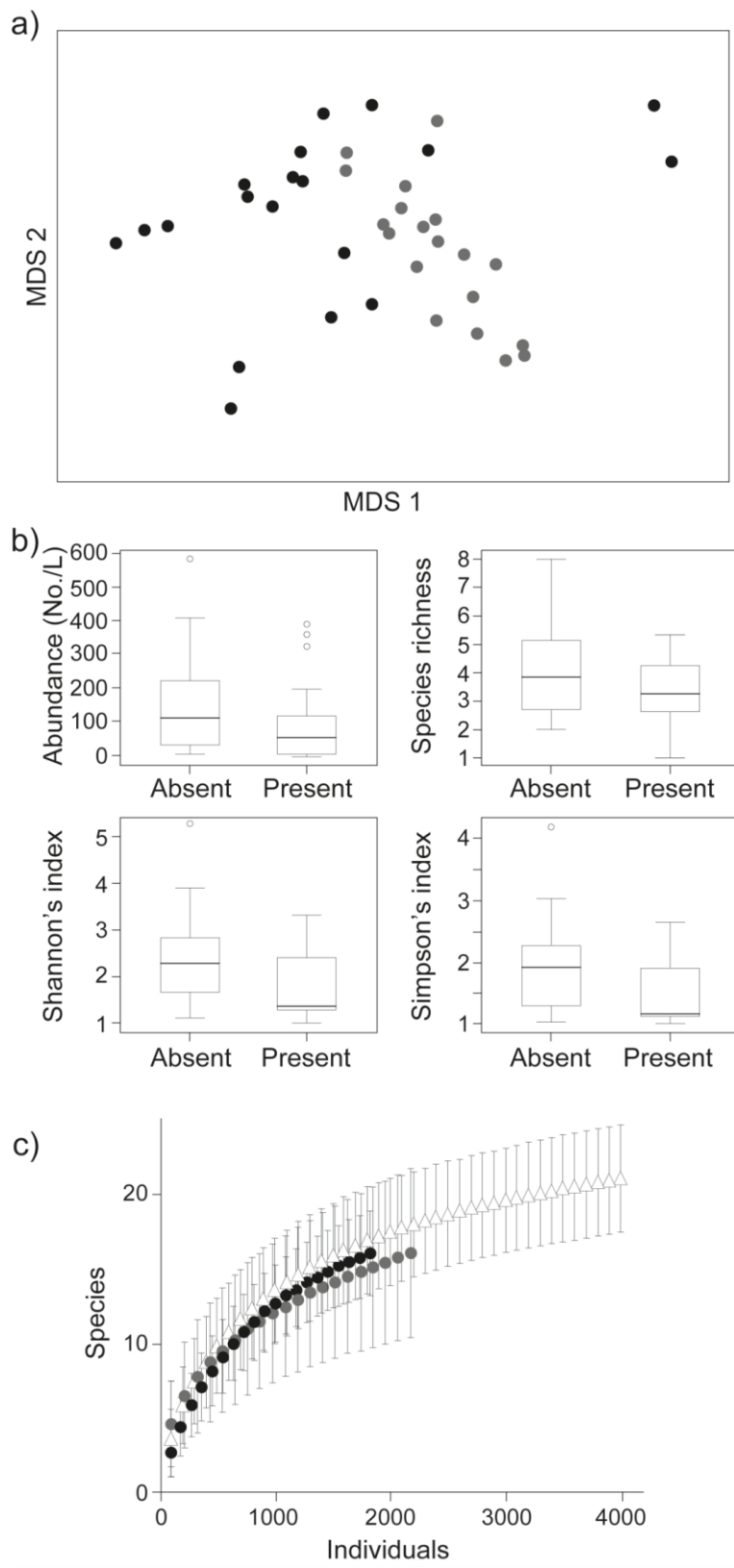
Figure Legends

Fig 1. a) nMDS on 21 cladoceran species from 38 ponds. Presence and absence of fish in ponds is indicated by black and grey circles respectively. **b)** Cladoceran abundance, species richness, Shannon's index and Simpson's index in relation to fish presence/absence. Significance level: *= 0.05. **c)** Cladoceran rarefaction curves for ponds with fish (black circles) and without fish (grey circles) and all ponds combined (white triangles).

Fig 2. a) nMDS on 35 water beetle species from 32 ponds. Presence and absence of fish in ponds is indicated by black and grey circles respectively. **b)** Water beetle abundance, species richness, Shannon's index and Simpson's index in relation to fish presence/absence. **c)** Water beetle rarefaction curves for ponds with fish (black circles) and without fish (grey circles) and all ponds combined (white triangles).

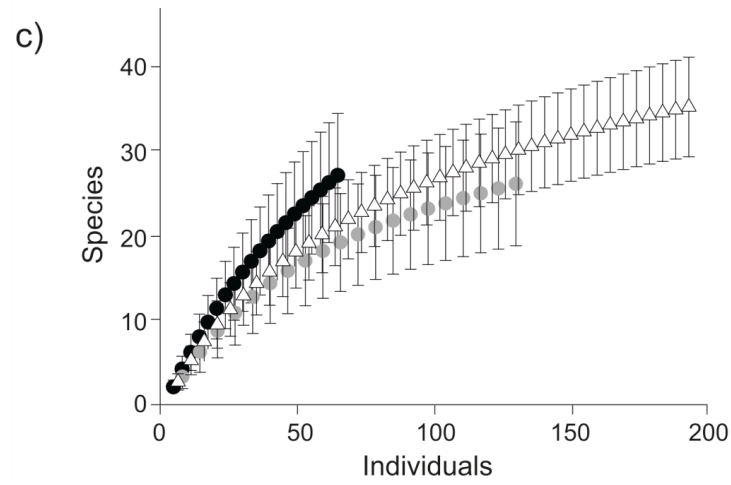
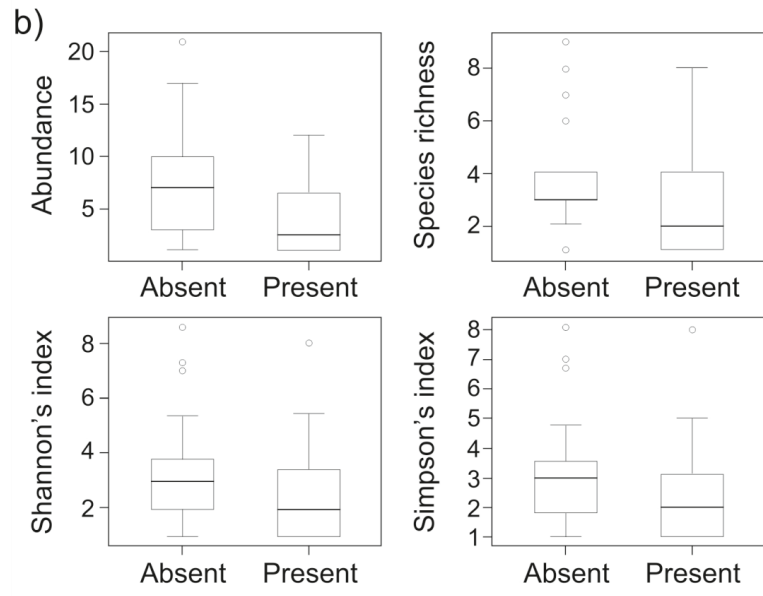
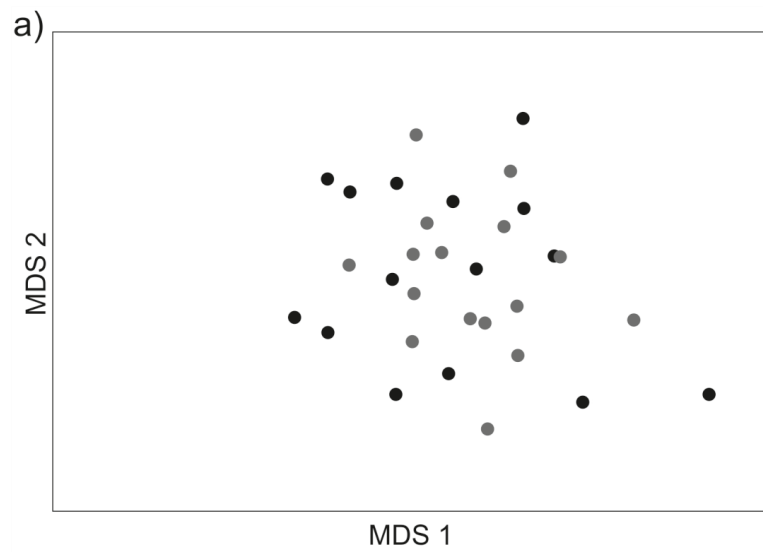
Fig 3. a) nMDS on 35 macrophyte species from 38 ponds. Presence and absence of fish in ponds is indicated by black and grey circles respectively. **b)** Macrophyte abundance, species richness, Shannon's index and Simpson's index in relation to fish presence/absence. Significance level: *= 0.001. **c)** Aquatic macrophyte rarefaction curves for ponds with fish (black circles) and without fish (grey circles) and all ponds combined (white triangles).

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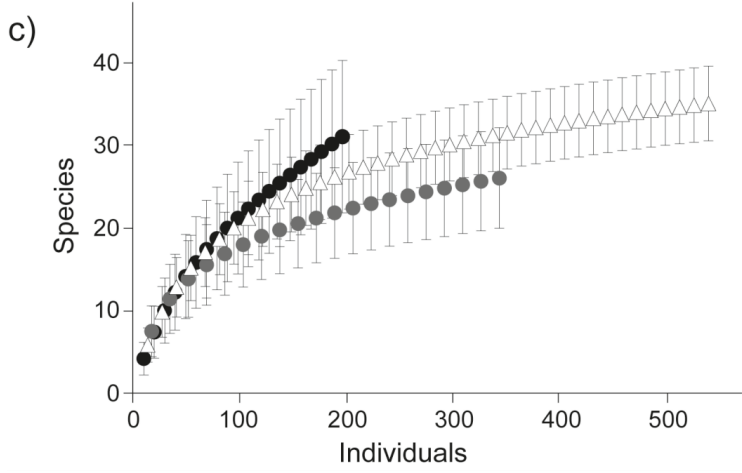
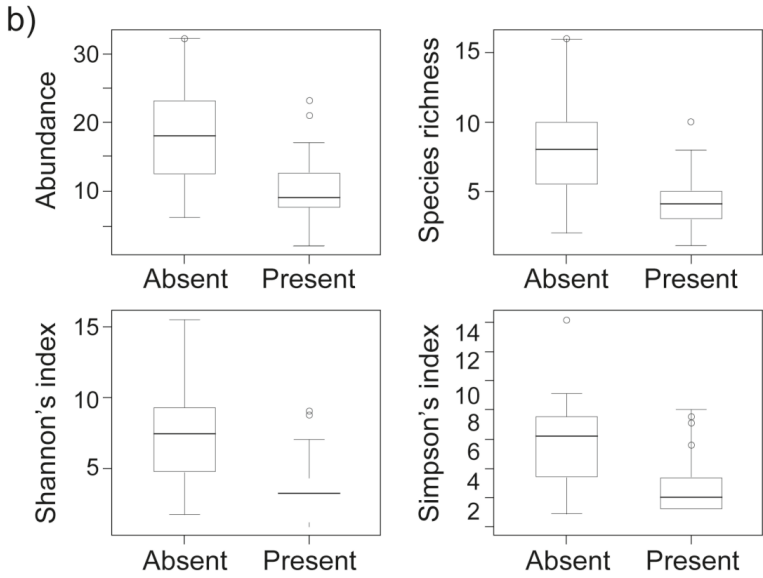
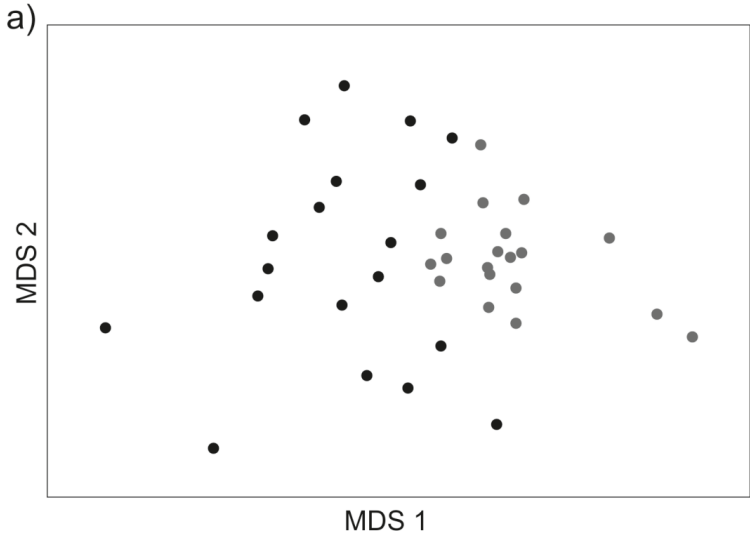
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