

Does regional diversity recover after local-scale restoration? A field experiment in constructed ponds

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The effects of disturbance on local species diversity have been well documented, but less recognized is the possibility that disturbances can alter diversity at regional spatial scales. Since regional diversity can dictate which species are available for recolonization of degraded sites, the loss of diversity at regional scales may impede the recovery of biodiversity following a disturbance. To specifically test this we used a chemical disturbance of rotenone, a piscicide commonly used for fish removal in aquatic habitats, on small fishless freshwater ponds. We focused on the non-target effects of rotenone on aquatic invertebrates with the goal of assessing biodiversity loss and recovery at both local (within-pond) and regional (across ponds) spatial scales. We found that rotenone caused significant, large, but short-term losses of species at both local and regional spatial scales. Using a null model of random extinction, we determined that species were selectively removed from communities relative to what would be expected if species loss occurred randomly. Despite this selective loss of biodiversity, species diversity at both local and regional spatial scales recovered to reference levels one year after the addition of rotenone. The rapid recovery of local and regional diversity in this study was surprising considering the large loss of regional species diversity, however many aquatic invertebrates disperse readily or have resting stages that may persist through disturbances. We emphasize the importance of considering spatial scale when quantifying the impacts of a disturbance on an ecosystem, as well as considering how regional species loss can influence recovery from disturbance.

1 **Does regional diversity recover after local-scale restoration?**

2 **A field experiment in constructed ponds**

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19 **Abstract**

20 The effects of disturbance on local species diversity have been well documented, but less
21 recognized is the possibility that disturbances can alter diversity at regional spatial scales. Since
22 regional diversity can dictate which species are available for recolonization of degraded sites, the
23 loss of diversity at regional scales may impede the recovery of biodiversity following a
24 disturbance. To specifically test this we used a chemical disturbance of rotenone, a piscicide
25 commonly used for fish removal in aquatic habitats, on small fishless freshwater ponds. We
26 focused on the non-target effects of rotenone on aquatic invertebrates with the goal of assessing
27 biodiversity loss and recovery at both local (within-pond) and regional (across ponds) spatial
28 scales. We found that rotenone caused significant, large, but short-term losses of species at both
29 local and regional spatial scales. Using a null model of random extinction, we determined that
30 species were selectively removed from communities relative to what would be expected if
31 species loss occurred randomly. Despite this selective loss of biodiversity, species diversity at
32 both local and regional spatial scales recovered to reference levels one year after the addition of
33 rotenone. The rapid recovery of local and regional diversity in this study was surprising
34 considering the large loss of regional species diversity, however many aquatic invertebrates
35 disperse readily or have resting stages that may persist through disturbances. We emphasize the
36 importance of considering spatial scale when quantifying the impacts of a disturbance on an
37 ecosystem, as well as considering how regional species loss can influence recovery from
38 disturbance.

39

40 **Introduction**

41 Given the magnitude of anthropogenic activities on natural systems (Vitousek et al.,
42 1997), understanding if and how biodiversity recovers from disturbances is an important focus of
43 ecology and conservation biology. The loss and recovery of biodiversity in response to
44 disturbances has been extensively studied in multiple systems (Niemi et al., 1990; Yount &
45 Niemi, 1990; Lake, 2000; Chazdon, 2003; Dunn, 2004; Flinn & Vellend, 2005). However, the
46 vast majority of these studies have focused strictly on the effects of disturbance on local, or
47 alpha, species richness, that is, the average number of species that occur in a particular habitat or
48 location. Less recognized is the possibility that widespread environmental disturbances can alter
49 species diversity at regional scales, or that species composition can be altered (Hamer & Hill,
50 2000; Smith, Lips & Chase, 2009). Because regional diversity can dictate which species are
51 available to recolonize degraded sites (Palmer, Ambrose & Poff, 1997; Zobel, van der Maarel &
52 Dupré, 1998), the loss of diversity at regional scales has important implications to restoration
53 ecology and the recovery of biodiversity after disturbances.

54 When both spatial scales of biodiversity are considered, it becomes clear that the loss and
55 recovery of biodiversity in response to widespread environmental disturbances can follow
56 multiple trajectories (Fig. 1A). For example, with some disturbances it is possible for
57 biodiversity loss, as measured by species richness, to be restricted entirely to the local spatial
58 scale, in particular if relatively widespread species are lost from some locations but never from
59 all locations in which they occur. As a result, some forms of disturbance may have strictly local
60 effects with essentially no loss of regional biodiversity (Powell, Chase & Knight, 2013). In
61 contrast, other types of disturbances may affect ecological communities by selectively removing
62 species due to species-specific interactions with environmental stressors (e.g., (Chase, 2007;

63 Smith, Lips & Chase, 2009; Chase et al., 2009)). As a result of this selective filtration of
64 particular species from all disturbed sites, species will also be lost from the larger regional scale,
65 potentially to a larger degree than what is observed at the local scale (Fig. 1A and (Smith, Lips &
66 Chase, 2009; Chase et al., 2009)). The overall effect of a disturbance on biodiversity can
67 therefore vary depending on the spatial scale considered and whether species loss from local
68 communities is selective or not. Ultimately, the outcome of these interactions will determine
69 whether the loss of biodiversity caused by a disturbance is restricted to local scales or leads to
70 species loss at regional scales as well.

71 Whether disturbances cause biodiversity loss at local, or at local and regional spatial
72 scales has important implications for restoration. Following a disturbance, the recovery of
73 species richness depends on the restoration of suitable environmental conditions, species
74 interactions within the disturbed area, and an adequate supply of propagules for the re-
75 establishment of species (Palmer, Ambrose & Poff, 1997). Extensive research has examined the
76 recovery of species richness at local spatial scales following a disturbance (reviewed in (Niemi et
77 al., 1990; Yount & Niemi, 1990; Lake, 2000; Chazdon, 2003; Dunn, 2004; Flinn & Vellend,
78 2005)), including identifying the importance of regional species pools for the recovery of local
79 species richness (Vellend, 2003; Patrick & Swan, 2011; Sundermann, Stoll & Haase, 2011;
80 Thrush et al., 2013). However, far fewer studies have investigated the recovery of species
81 richness at both local and regional scales (Patrick & Swan, 2011). This is an important gap in
82 the theory and practice of ecological restoration. For example, in the case of a selective
83 disturbance that leads to the loss of regional richness in addition to local richness, local richness
84 can recover without complete recovery of regional richness (Fig. 1B). This would occur if the
85 same species recolonize each local site. Additionally, the loss of regional richness in itself may

86 impede the recovery of species richness at both spatial scales since species would have to come
87 from outside the affected focal region in order for recovery to occur. Consequently, if local
88 richness is used to determine if restoration has been successful or complete, some species may
89 still be missing from the regional spatial scale.

90 We designed this study to specifically test if loss of species from the regional level
91 impedes the recovery of disturbed local communities, or if local recovery can occur without
92 recovery at the regional level (Fig. 1B). We applied a chemical disturbance of rotenone, a
93 piscicide commonly used for fish removal in aquatic habitats, to small fishless freshwater ponds.
94 Although rotenone is often used to restore the biodiversity of historically fishless ponds by
95 removing fish, rotenone is also widely recognized to have non-target effects on aquatic
96 invertebrates (Hamilton, 1941; Smith, 1941; Cushing & Olive, 1957; Almquist, 1959; Lindgren,
97 1960; Binns, 1967; Cook & Moore, 1969; Anderson, 1970; Meadows, 1973; Claffey & Costa,
98 1974; Chandler & Marking, 1982; Dudgeon, 1990; Beal & Anderson, 1993; Mangum &
99 Madrigal, 1999; Melaas et al., 2001). We focus on these non-target effects of rotenone on
100 aquatic invertebrate biodiversity, with the specific goal of assessing biodiversity loss and
101 recovery at both local (within-pond) and regional (across ponds in a treatment) scales. We
102 specifically predict that rotenone will be a selective disturbance, owing to past studies showing
103 that aquatic taxa differ in their sensitivity to rotenone (Hamilton, 1941; Cushing & Olive, 1957;
104 Lindgren, 1960; Claffey & Costa, 1974; Chandler & Marking, 1982; Dudgeon, 1990; Mangum
105 & Madrigal, 1999; Melaas et al., 2001). As a result of this selectivity, we further predict that the
106 number of species lost from the regional spatial scale (i.e., across all ponds in a treatment) will
107 be greater than the number of species lost from the local pond scale. Finally, we also predict that
108 recovery of regional species richness will be slower than recovery of local species richness

109 owing to this large predicted loss of species from across all ponds in the treatment (i.e. regional
110 scale)

111 **Materials & Methods**

112 **Ethics Statement**

113 Our research was conducted at Washington University's Tyson Research Center and
114 approved by the Washington University in St. Louis Institutional Animal Studies Committee
115 (protocol #20130058). All field research was conducted in accordance with the Missouri
116 Department of Conservation guidelines under MDC Wildlife Collector Permit #15246. A
117 licensed applicator (License #C18196) carried out the Rotenone application in accordance to the
118 Missouri Department of Agriculture Pesticide Use Act.

119 **Study Site and Experimental Setup**

120 This research was conducted in constructed ponds at Washington University's Tyson
121 Research Center (TRC) near St. Louis, MO in 2012. In 2008, twelve ponds 6 m in diameter and
122 1 m in depth were constructed throughout the research center nested within similar terrestrial
123 habitats of oak-hickory mixed forest. At their start, ponds were stocked with a mixture of
124 zooplankton and phytoplankton from more than 10 ponds in the region. Ponds were also stocked
125 with gastropods and emergent and submergent macrophytes. Other macroinvertebrates (e.g.,
126 dragonflies, beetles, true bugs) were allowed to colonize naturally from the local species pool.
127 Throughout the spring and summer of 2008, a large number of egg masses, larvae, and breeding
128 adults of eight common species of anurans (*Hyla versicolor*, *Acris crepitans*, *Pseudacris*
129 *crucifer*, *P. triseriata*, *Rana sphenoccephala*, *R. clamitans*, *R. sylvatica*, and *Anaxyrus*
130 *americanus*) were introduced from existing ponds at TRC to establish anuran populations. In

131 2011, at the conclusion of the initial research study conducted in these ponds, *Ambystoma*
132 *maculatum* had naturally colonized 8 of the 12 ponds (Burgett, 2011). In order to ensure that
133 there were no lingering effects of the previous study, we conducted presurveys of
134 macroinvertebrates and zooplankton. The two treatments in this study (control and rotenone
135 application) were stratified across past treatments to ensure that legacies of this past study would
136 not bias our results. Initial pre-treatment sampling supported this, as we found no differences in
137 aquatic community diversity or structure between ponds in the two treatment categories at the
138 beginning of the study (see Results).

139 **Rotenone Treatment**

140 Rotenone is commonly used as a pesticide and piscicide in North America. As a
141 piscicide, it has been used for fish removal as a restoration strategy for small lakes, ponds, and
142 other wetlands since the 1930s. Rotenone is most effective during the summer when water
143 temperatures are above 21°C, which is also when zooplankton and macroinvertebrate richness
144 and abundance are typically greatest. The half-life of rotenone in ponds is less than a day at
145 23°C (Gilderhus, Allen & Dawson, 1986; Gilderhus, Dawson & Allen, 1988), and it is largely
146 considered the most benign fish control chemical agent widely used in management applications.

147 Rotenone was applied to six of the twelve ponds with the remaining six ponds left as
148 untreated controls. A licensed pesticide applicator mixed a liquid formulation of Rotenone
149 (Noxfish, 5% by volume active ingredient) solution to a 3mg/L concentration, which was applied
150 to each pond with a pesticide sprayer. This concentration is consistent with fish management
151 strategies used in North America (Tate et al., 2003; Finlayson et al., 2010; Wynne & Masser,
152 2010). After application, the concentration of Rotenone that invertebrates were exposed to was
153 approximately 0.15 mg/L. We sampled pond macroinvertebrates and zooplankton before

154 Rotenone application on June 26th, 2012. The Rotenone treatment was applied on June 28, 2012.
155 The first round of post-disturbance biodiversity sampling occurred on July 9, 2012 followed by a
156 second round of biodiversity sampling 6 weeks post disturbance on August 13, 2012. We
157 sampled macroinvertebrates and zooplankton again the following year on July 8, 2013 to monitor
158 recovery.

159 **Zooplankton Sampling and Data Collection**

160 We sampled zooplankton from ponds using a 2 L plastic pitcher. Eight 2 L samples of
161 pond water were taken from the edge and center of the pond at varying depths and locations. We
162 combined these samples and filtered them through an 80 μ m zooplankton net to concentrate the
163 sample to 50mL. We preserved and dyed zooplankton samples immediately after collection
164 using a standard Acid Lugol's iodine solution.

165 We processed zooplankton samples after each field season. Each concentrated
166 zooplankton sample was shaken and 10 mL was extracted and put into a petri dish. We used this
167 10 mL subsample to identify zooplankton species presence and abundance in a pond using a
168 compound microscope at 20x-100x magnification. Species were identified to the lowest
169 taxonomic level possible using keys from (Pennak, 1989; Thorp & Covich, 2010; Haney et al.,
170 2013).

171 **Macroinvertebrate Sampling and Data Collection**

172 We performed macroinvertebrate sampling using standard methods similar to those
173 described in (Chase et al., 2009). We placed a plastic cylinder stovepipe sampler measuring
174 36cm in diameter and 1m tall in three randomly selected areas of the pond. We then used a 15
175 cm wide aquarium net to exhaustively sample macroinvertebrates from each stovepipe location.
176 We sampled each stovepipe until 5 consecutive empty sweeps of the net. Every individual was

177 collected and stored in one bin for all three stovepipes. In order to account for rare and fast
178 swimming species, 20 additional net sweeps were conducted throughout the pond at varying
179 depths and locations using a 30cm-wide, 1mm mesh D-net. These samples were collected in a
180 separate container. We preserved all macroinvertebrates from these samples in 70% ethanol for
181 later identification. We used a dissecting microscope for species identification to the lowest
182 possible taxonomic group according to the keys of (Needham, Westfall & May, 2000; Merritt,
183 Cummins & Berg, 2008; Thorp & Covich, 2010).

184 **Analyses**

185 We combined zooplankton and macroinvertebrate data for each pond and each sampling
186 period into species-by-pond matrices and conducted all analyses using these combined
187 invertebrate (macroinvertebrate and zooplankton) biodiversity data. We quantified species
188 richness as the number of species per pond (i.e. local richness) and using the Chao1 index (Chao,
189 1984) to account for any potential sampling bias. Chao1 values were calculated for each pond
190 using the program Past(Hammer, Harper & Ryan, 2001). All analyses were run using both raw
191 species richness and the Chao1 index.

192 We used *T*-tests in R (R Core Team, 2013) to verify that there were no differences in the
193 number of species per pond between treatments prior to the addition of rotenone. In order to
194 determine if rotenone addition impacted local richness both within and among sampling dates,
195 we used linear mixed effects modeling (lme function in the nlme package in R(Pinheiro et al.,
196 2013)). The mixed effects model accounted for the non-independence of the repeated measures
197 of species richness in ponds over time. The fitted model included fixed effects for differences in
198 species richness between rotenone treatments, between sampling dates, and the interaction
199 between rotenone treatment and sampling date, as well as the random effect of pond identity.

200 The ANOVA results for the full model are provided in the supplementary material. When there
201 were significant differences between treatments or among sampling dates, pair-wise multiple
202 comparisons were used. Since the main results of this study are the same using Chao1 estimates
203 of species richness or actual measured richness, only the results for the actual measured species
204 richness are presented.

205 For analyses of pond species composition we calculated among-pond dissimilarity using
206 Jaccard's and Bray-Curtis dissimilarities for each treatment at each sampling date using the
207 program PRIMER (Clarke & Gorley, 2006). We then used PERMANOVA to ask if pond
208 invertebrate composition differed between control and rotenone ponds (Anderson, Gorley &
209 Clarke, 2008). We used a repeated measures PERMANOVA design with the fixed effects of
210 rotenone treatment, sampling date, and the interaction between rotenone treatment and sampling
211 date, and the random effect of pond identity nested within treatment. Post-hoc pair-wise
212 PERMANOVA tests were used to identify if there were differences between control and
213 rotenone ponds at each sampling date. Since the main effects of rotenone on species
214 composition were the same using both Jaccard's and Bray-Curtis dissimilarities, only the
215 PERMANOVA results for Jaccard's dissimilarity are presented. Finally, we visually assessed
216 differences in species composition between treatments using nonmetric multidimensional scaling
217 (NMDS) plots based on Jaccard's dissimilarity in PRIMER (Clarke & Gorley, 2006).

218 We also aimed to test our prediction that species losses associated with the application
219 with rotenone would be selective. Using R programming language (R Core Team, 2013), we
220 applied a null model for random species extinction using the conceptual framework proposed by
221 (Smith, Lips & Chase, 2009). This model develops a prediction for the expected number of
222 extinctions under a null scenario of random extinction, given the magnitude of a series of local

223 disturbances (in this case, rotenone). We compared actual species loss at the treatment level to
224 this null prediction, which allowed us to determine if rotenone addition selectively removed
225 species from local ponds resulting in a greater loss of regional species richness than would occur
226 if species were randomly removed from local ponds. The number of species lost from each
227 treatment pond between the pre sampling date and one week following rotenone addition was
228 calculated and used to develop of random probability of extinction in the model. For each model
229 run, the identity of the species that were removed (i.e., a local extinction) in each of the six-
230 rotenone treatment ponds was chosen at random. The total regional (six pond) species richness
231 was calculated after each run and saved. This model was executed 10 000 times, and mean
232 expected regional richness and upper and lower 95% range values were calculated. We then
233 compared these simulated values to our actual observed regional species richness after rotenone
234 addition in order to obtain a p-value.

235

236 **Results**

237 Prior to the application of rotenone, there were no detectable differences in local or
238 regional richness between the two treatment groups (Fig. 2, “Pre Rotenone”). On average, each
239 individual pond had 17.4 invertebrate species, and the control treatment group of six ponds had a
240 regional species richness of 49, while the rotenone treatment group had a regional richness of 50
241 species of invertebrates.

242 The addition of rotenone had a significant effect on local species richness ($p < 0.008$,
243 Table S1, Fig. 2), but this effect varied across sampling dates (rotenone x sampling date
244 interaction, $p < 0.03$, Table S1; Fig. 2). One week after the application of rotenone to the six
245 treatment ponds, mean local species richness was 48% lower in rotenone treatment ponds than in

246 control ponds (Fig. 2 and 3; $t = 4.47$, $df = 10$, $p < 0.005$). Rotenone treatment ponds had, on
247 average, 9.5 species fewer than control ponds. After the rotenone treatment, regional species
248 richness of treated ponds dropped by a large margin, almost 40%, having only 31 species across
249 the six rotenone-treated ponds as compared to 50 species across the six control ponds (Fig. 2).
250 These results are consistent with our hypothesis that a greater number of species would be lost
251 from the regional than local scale following rotenone addition (Fig. 3).

252 Six weeks after the application of rotenone, both local and regional species richness had
253 increased as compared to one week after rotenone application (Fig. 2). However, paired t-tests
254 revealed that local species richness of rotenone ponds six weeks after rotenone addition was
255 indistinguishable from both rotenone pond species richness before rotenone application and
256 rotenone pond species richness one week after the application of rotenone. Qualitatively, the
257 recovery of species richness at the local scale was more moderate than at the regional scale, with
258 increases of 4.5 and 13 species, respectively. This suggests that there was among-pond turnover
259 in which species re-colonized each of the six treatment ponds. Despite this recovery, mean
260 species richness was still significantly lower in rotenone ponds than in control ponds (14.5
261 versus 18.8 species, respectively; $t = 2.37$, $df = 10$, $p < 0.05$).

262 One year after the application of rotenone to half the ponds, mean invertebrate species
263 richness was similar among control and treatment ponds and no longer statistically
264 distinguishable (Fig. 2). Further, the regional species richness across the six rotenone ponds had
265 increased to 54 species, exceeding the regional species richness of the control ponds at that date.

266 The fact that the loss of regional richness was greater than the loss of average local
267 richness suggests that rotenone selectively filters invertebrates from the affected ponds. This
268 selectivity is further supported by comparison of actual regional species loss to our simulation of

269 random species loss (Fig. 3). A random pattern of local extirpations would have resulted in a
270 regional species richness of 40 species (mean: 39.61 95% confidence interval: 39.57, 39.65).
271 However, significantly more species were lost from the six-rotenone treatment ponds than would
272 be expected if local extirpations were nonselective ($p < 0.0001$).

273 Selective extirpations among ponds would be expected to lead to differences in
274 community composition between control and treatment ponds, which is what we observed (Fig.
275 4). Prior to the application of rotenone, ponds from both treatments were intermingled in
276 ordination space and could not be distinguished (Fig 4). We found a significant effect of
277 sampling date (PERMANOVA, $F_{2,20} = 2.95$ and $P = 0.0001$) and an interaction between rotenone
278 and sampling date (PERMANOVA, $F_{2,20} = 1.56$ and $P = 0.0089$) on invertebrate species
279 composition. One week after rotenone application, control and rotenone ponds were
280 significantly different in their invertebrate species composition as measured by Jaccard's
281 dissimilarity (Fig. 4; PERMANOVA, $t = 1.34$ and $P = 0.013$). Control and rotenone ponds
282 continued to diverge in their species composition six weeks after rotenone application (Fig. 4;
283 PERMANOVA, $t = 1.32$ and $P = 0.008$). One year after the rotenone treatment, invertebrate
284 community composition was again indistinguishable between the two treatments, providing
285 further evidence that re-colonization and recovery of species richness and pond community
286 structure relative to control ponds had occurred.

287

288 **Discussion**

289 Overall, we found that rotenone causes a significant short-term loss of aquatic species
290 richness at local and regional scales, resulting in changes to aquatic community structure. Yet
291 despite the large loss (ca. 38%) of regional species richness from rotenone-treated ponds, the

292 recovery of species richness at local and regional scales was not hindered and recovery was
293 relatively complete by all measures within one year after the rotenone disturbance. We discuss
294 each of these main results below.

295 The application of rotenone reduced aquatic invertebrate species richness at local and
296 regional spatial scales and significantly changed pond species composition. We expected this
297 result, given rotenone's known toxicity to non-target aquatic invertebrates. The loss of species
298 richness and change in species composition of local ponds was similar to previous observational
299 and experimental studies, which found negative effects of rotenone on non-target species
300 (Hamilton, 1941; Smith, 1941; Cushing & Olive, 1957; Almquist, 1959; Lindgren, 1960; Binns,
301 1967; Cook & Moore, 1969; Anderson, 1970; Meadows, 1973; Claffey & Costa, 1974; Chandler
302 & Marking, 1982; Dudgeon, 1990; Beal & Anderson, 1993; Mangum & Madrigal, 1999; Melaas
303 et al., 2001). Although rotenone reduced species richness at both spatial scales, there was a
304 larger number of species lost from the regional level than the local level due to the selective
305 nature of the rotenone disturbance, as expected (Fig. 3). We found a reduction in pond
306 occupancy for a few taxa with known lethal concentrations or 24-hour LC50 concentrations of
307 rotenone at or below what was added in this experiment (Hamilton, 1941; Chandler & Marking,
308 1982). Specifically, the occupancy of *Notonecta irrorata* was reduced from four out of six
309 ponds to only one pond after rotenone application, while species in the class *Hirudinae* (leeches)
310 were reduced from three to zero ponds, and *Pachydiplax longipennis* was extirpated from the
311 four ponds in which it occurred. Although documented only rarely, this kind of selective
312 removal of species from a focal region is not unique to this rotenone disturbance, as a similar
313 pattern has been documented in other systems subjected to disturbances including drought
314 (Chase, 2007), emerging disease (Smith, Lips & Chase, 2009), and flooding (Lepori &

315 Malmqvist, 2009). A critical question in restoration and conservation ecology is whether
316 selectively extirpated species can recolonize from the species pool, post-disturbance, or whether
317 they have been entirely removed from the region.

318 Local and regional species richness began to recover six weeks after the application of
319 rotenone. However, there was a larger recovery of species richness at the regional level than the
320 local level (Fig. 2). This difference in recovery between spatial scales suggests that multiple
321 species colonized a small subset of ponds, allowing regional species richness to increase more
322 rapidly than local species richness. This is further supported by the increase in divergence of
323 species composition between control and rotenone ponds six weeks after rotenone application
324 compared to one week after application.

325 One year after rotenone application, local richness, regional richness, and species
326 composition of invertebrate communities had recovered and were indistinguishable from control
327 ponds. The full recovery of local pond invertebrate communities one year after rotenone
328 application was not surprising as local recovery has been documented in previous studies (Beal
329 & Anderson, 1993; Melaas et al., 2001), and many of these species readily disperse (Bilton,
330 Freeland & Okamura, 2001; Havel & Shurin, 2004; Louette & De Meester, 2005; Van De
331 Meutter, De Meester & Stoks, 2007) or have resting stages which may persist through
332 disturbances (Brendonck & De Meester, 2003). Although each of the ponds in this study was at
333 least 500m away from other lentic habitats, the study site was located within a broader network
334 of aquatic habitats, which may have provided a source of colonists. Additionally, some
335 multivoltine species are capable of internal recovery via reproduction following disturbances
336 (Hanson et al., 2007; Trekels, Van De Meutter & Stoks, 2011), which could have also
337 contributed to the recovery of species richness in these ponds. Rotenone degrades quickly

338 (Gilderhus, Allen & Dawson, 1986; Gilderhus, Dawson & Allen, 1988), allowing any legacy
339 effects it had on pond communities to be quickly erased by colonization and internal recovery
340 dynamics.

341 Very few studies have examined the recovery of regional species diversity after
342 disturbances. We predicted that the loss of species from the region (a network of 6 ponds) would
343 lead to a slow recovery of regional species diversity owing to the fact that species would have to
344 come from outside the affected focal region in order for recovery to occur. We therefore did not
345 expect the rapid recovery of regional species richness and community composition that we
346 documented in this study, and a similarly rapid recovery of local and regional species richness
347 would not be expected for all disturbance scenarios. In particular, if the loss of regional species
348 richness represents the removal of species from the entire regional species pool, then
349 recolonization by these species may not occur for many years, if at all. In contrast, if species are
350 lost only from some sites in the landscape (ponds in this case), but still persist in the species pool
351 as potential colonists, as in the case of this study, then recolonization by these species may occur
352 very quickly. Ultimately, the rate of recovery will depend on the interaction between the
353 dispersal ability of extirpated species, isolation of the disturbed habitat, the suitability of local
354 habitats for recolonization, and the presence of a source pool of potential colonists.

355 Organisms in aquatic systems vary greatly in their dispersal ability (Bilton, Freeland &
356 Okamura, 2001), and recovery is expected to take longer with more dispersal limited taxa.
357 Habitat isolation is also known to have a negative impact on the recovery of species richness
358 following a disturbance (Caquet et al., 2007; Trekels, Van De Meutter & Stoks, 2011),
359 particularly for species that do not have the potential for internal recovery (Trekels, Van De
360 Meutter & Stoks, 2011). Even if disturbed habitats are not isolated, widespread disturbances that

361 affect the entire regional species pool (e.g. acid rain, climate change) may reduce the source pool
362 of potential colonists (Keller & Yan, 1998; Gray & Arnott, 2011), which would further impede
363 recovery, potentially leading to the permanent loss of some species from the regional scale.

364 In our study, the six disturbed ponds were only moderately isolated (500-800 m) from the
365 control undisturbed ponds. Furthermore, they were in the same landscape as additional ponds
366 and were imbedded in a region with other aquatic habitats, including temporary and permanent
367 ponds, ephemeral and seasonal streams, and major rivers. For these reasons it is clear that the
368 loss of invertebrate species from our six disturbed ponds did not lead to loss of those species
369 from the pool of potential colonists, especially for species with complex life cycles and volant
370 adults (e.g., Odonata). Despite this, we still predicted that recovery of regional diversity would
371 occur relatively slowly, owing to the passive dispersal of some aquatic taxa (Bilton, Freeland &
372 Okamura, 2001; De Bie et al., 2012). Moreover, the fact that community structure recovered as
373 well (PERMANOVA results and Fig. 4) suggests that many species that were filtered out by
374 rotenone successfully recolonized via dispersal or emergence from dormant life stages.

375 Our results are relevant to the widespread use of rotenone as a piscicide for the
376 restoration of ponds that were historically fishless but now contain fish. Rotenone has broad and
377 well-documented negative effects on non-target aquatic organisms such as zooplankton and
378 macroinvertebrates. We document these effects in this study, seen as the extirpation of multiple
379 taxa from each pond, leading to a significant loss of local and regional species richness from
380 ponds where rotenone was applied. Despite this, our results suggest that rotenone use for fish
381 removal from aquatic habitats does not pose a long-term threat to aquatic biodiversity assuming
382 that recolonization from other habitats in the landscape is possible. However, our results may
383 not apply to extremely isolated habitats or to the universal application of rotenone across an

384 entire landscape of aquatic habitats. In each of these cases recolonization of locally extirpated
385 species may be more restricted resulting in delayed recovery of diversity. Moreover, owing to
386 well-documented effects introduced fish have on aquatic diversity and composition (Brooks &
387 Dodson, 1965; Hall, Cooper & Werner, 1970; Crowder & Cooper, 1982; Knapp, Matthews &
388 Sarnelle, 2001; Chase et al., 2009), the temporary loss of biodiversity seen in our study may not
389 be observed in habitats that are already impacted by fish.

390 Despite our conclusion that local and regional diversity and community structured
391 recovered quickly after the disturbance in our study, we emphasize the importance of considering
392 the impacts of disturbance at different spatial scales, including a specific consideration of how
393 regional species loss can influence recovery from disturbance. We found that the addition of
394 rotenone to experimental ponds selectively removed non-target invertebrate species from ponds
395 resulting in a loss of local and regional species richness. Future research disentangling the
396 relative importance of these processes for the recovery of species richness following a
397 disturbance would have important implications for restoration practices, especially in other
398 systems where isolation and dispersal limitation may present more significant barriers to
399 recolonization.

400

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407

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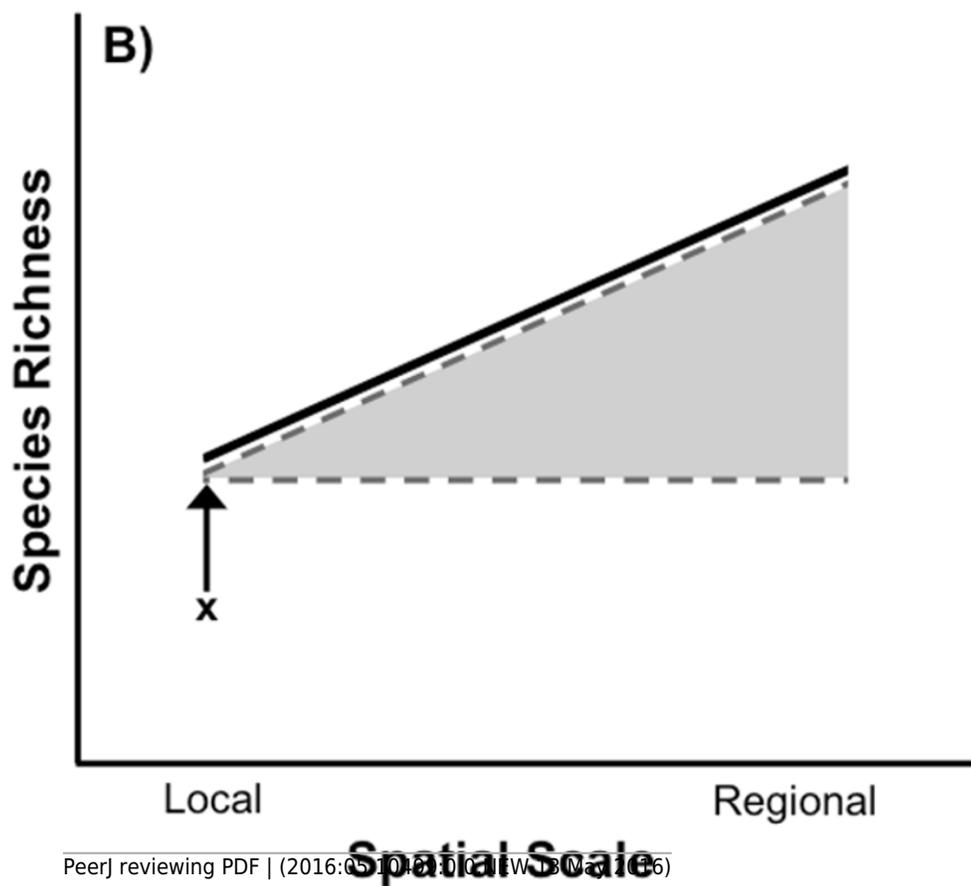
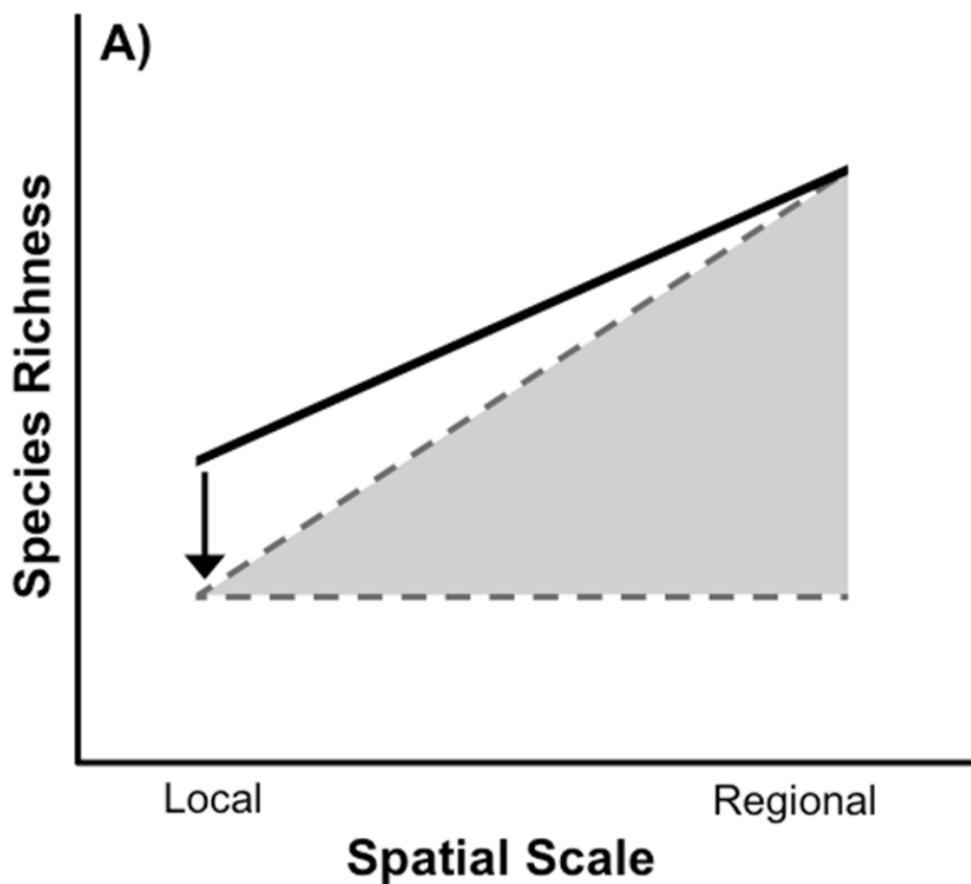
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1

Species loss and recovery at local and regional spatial scales.

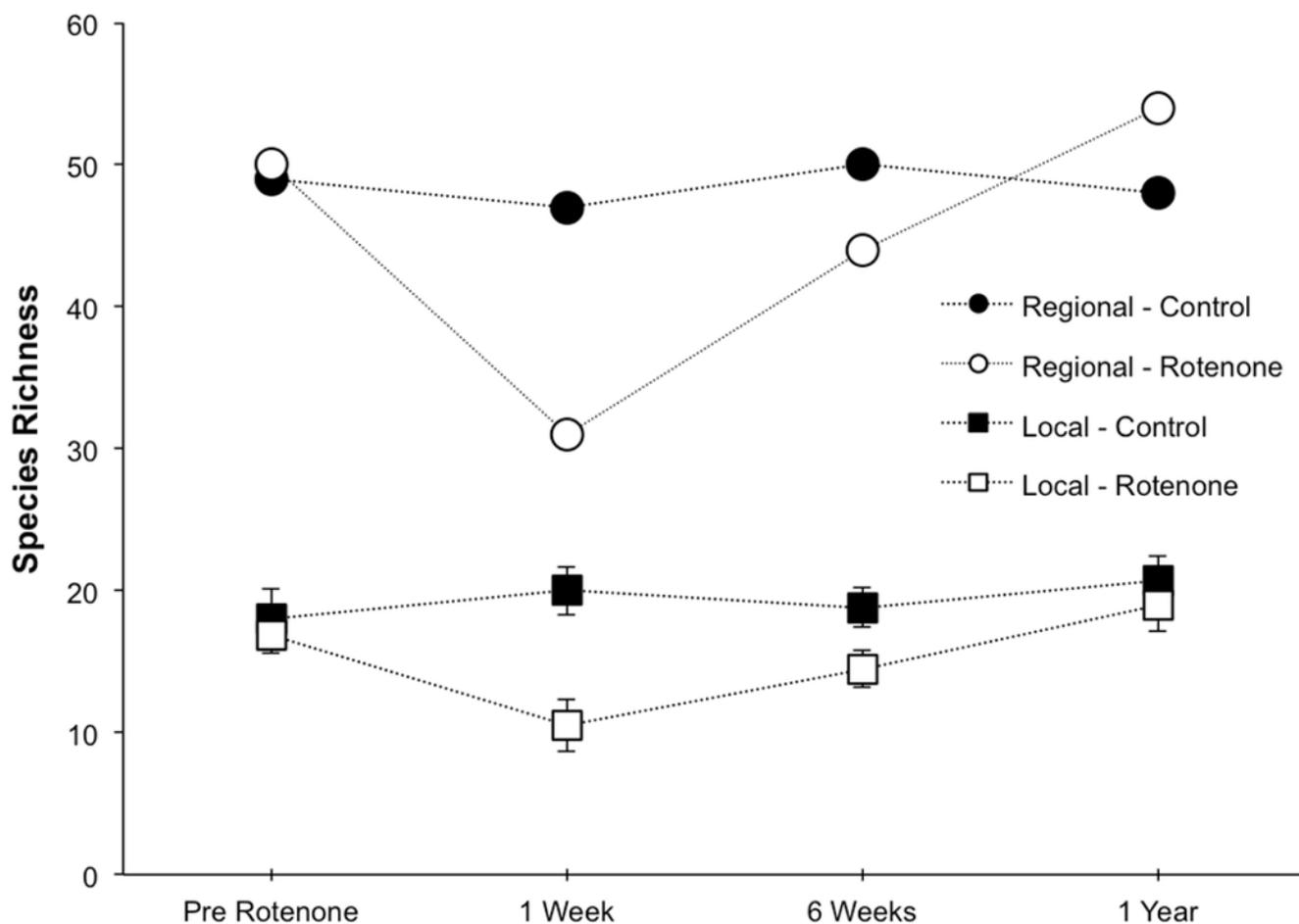
A) Disturbance can result in a loss of species from local communities relative to control communities (solid black line), but have differing effects on regional species richness depending on the type of disturbance (grey shaded area). For instance, if a widespread disturbance randomly removes species from local communities but not from every site in which it occurs, local species richness will be lost, but regional species richness across all sites will remain unaffected (sloped grey dashed line). However, if some species are selectively removed from every local community in which they occur then both local and regional species richness will be lost. In the most extreme case, local and regional species richness would be identical (flat grey dashed line). Most disturbances will result in species loss somewhere between the two extremes (grey shaded area). B) After a disturbance, local species richness can recover from its post-disturbance level (denoted by x) relative to control communities (solid black line), but species richness may or may not recover at the regional level (grey shaded area). After a completely selective disturbance, if the same species recolonize each site, local and regional richness will be identical (flat grey dashed line).



2

Local and regional species richness in rotenone and control ponds.

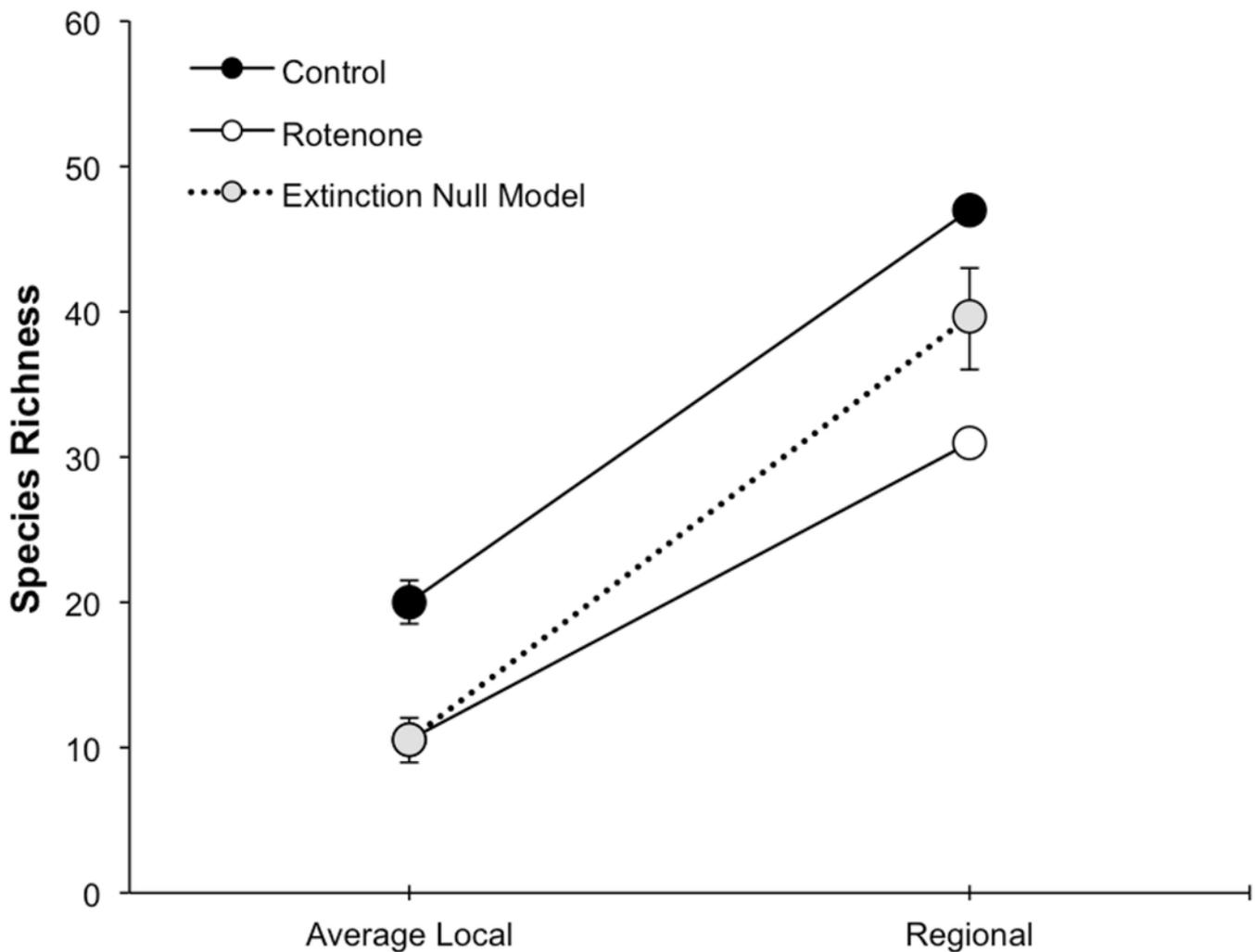
Average local (1 pond) and regional (6 ponds) invertebrate species richness over time. Error bars denote standard error.



3

Species loss at local and regional spatial scales.

The scaling of local and regional richness in control and rotenone ponds one week after rotenone addition and the null model expectation for species loss. Error bars represent standard error for average local species richness and the 95% range for the null model expectation of regional species richness.



4

Invertebrate composition of rotenone and control ponds.

NMDS plots of invertebrate species composition in ponds at each sampling date as measured by Jaccard's dissimilarity. Differences between control (black circles) and rotenone (open circles) ponds was determined using PERMANOVA.

