

1 **A newly developed dispersal metric indicates the succession of benthic invertebrates in restored rivers**

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3 **Fengqing Li^{a*}, Andrea Sundermann^a, Stefan Stoll^a, Peter Haase^{a,b}**

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5 ^a*Senckenberg Research Institute and Natural History Museum Frankfurt, Department of River Ecology and*
6 *Conservation, Gelnhausen, Germany*

7 ^b*Faculty of Biology, University of Duisburg-Essen, Germany*

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10 **Running head: Dispersal influences community succession**

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13 ^{*}Corresponding author: Fengqing Li

14 Postal address: Senckenberg Research Institute, Department of River Ecology and Conservation,

15 Clamecystrasse 12, Gelnhausen 63571, Germany

16 E-mail: qflee3@gmail.com

17 Tel: +49 (0)6051 61954-3126

18 Fax: +49 (0)6051 61954-3118

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21 Abstract

22 Dispersal capacity plays a fundamental role in the riverine benthic invertebrate colonization of new habitats that
23 emerges following flash floods or restoration. However, an appropriate measure of dispersal capacity for benthic
24 invertebrates is still lacking. The dispersal of benthic invertebrates occurs mainly during the aquatic (larval) and
25 aerial (adult) life stages, and the dispersal of each stage can be further subdivided into active and passive modes.
26 Based on these four possible dispersal modes, we first developed a metric (which is very similar to the well-
27 known and widely used saprobic index) to estimate the dispersal capacity for 528 benthic invertebrate taxa by
28 incorporating a weight for each mode. Second, we tested this metric using benthic invertebrate community data
29 from a) 23 large restored river sites with improvements of river bottom habitats dating back 1 to 10 years, b) 23
30 unrestored sites, and c) 298 adjacent surrounding sites in the low mountain and lowland areas of Germany. We
31 hypothesize that our metric will reflect the temporal succession process of benthic invertebrate communities
32 colonizing the restored sites, whereas no temporal changes are expected in the unrestored and surrounding sites.
33 By applying our metric to these three river treatment categories, we found that the average dispersal capacity of
34 benthic invertebrate communities in the restored sites significantly decreased in the early years following
35 restoration, whereas there were no changes in either the unrestored or the surrounding sites. After all taxa had
36 been divided into quartiles representing weak to strong dispersers, this pattern became even more obvious;
37 strong dispersers colonized the restored sites during the first year after restoration and then significantly
38 decreased over time, whereas weak dispersers continued to increase. The successful application of our metric to
39 river restoration might be promising in further applications of this metric, for example, in assessments of rivers
40 or metacommunity structure.

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42 **Key words:** integrated dispersal metric, weight approach, macroinvertebrate, community succession, river
43 restoration.

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45 Highlights

46 We develop a new dispersal metric for river ecosystems.

47 We test our metric using 23 restoration projects in Germany.

48 Our metric successfully elucidates community succession in restored rivers.

49 Strong and weak dispersers show an inverse successional trend in restored rivers.

50 Our metric is useful to detect environmental perturbation and community succession.

51 1. Introduction

52 In the natural state, many ecosystems are characterized by frequent disturbances that result in a dynamic
53 environmental mosaic. This process is being enhanced by unprecedented global change (e.g., human disturbance,
54 habitat fragmentation, pollution, and climate warming) on a local, regional or global scale, which is especially
55 true for river ecosystems (Revenga et al., 2005; Xenopoulos et al., 2005). However, whether and how an
56 organism's colonization capacity enables it to cope with new challenges is unclear. Colonization is a series of
57 processes that includes population dispersal, establishment, and reproduction (Wirth et al., 2008). As a key
58 attribute, dispersal capacity, which is a measure of the frequency and distance of an organism's movement
59 among different habitats, can greatly influence community dynamics (Beisner et al., 2006; Heino, 2013). This
60 topic has been well studied in terrestrial and marine ecosystems (Bowler & Benton, 2005; Clobert et al., 2012;
61 Grantham et al., 2003; Kinlan & Gaines, 2003; Lester et al., 2007). Although information on dispersal traits is
62 also available for a certain number of fish (Pépin et al., 2012; Radinger & Wolter, 2014; Stoll et al., 2013) and
63 benthic invertebrates from freshwater ecosystems (Furse et al., 2006; Kappes & Haase, 2012; Schmidt-Kloiber
64 & Hering, 2015; Tachet et al., 2010), no simple metric that can express the dispersal capacity of a community
65 exists. As a result, the application of community succession theory to freshwater ecosystems has not been
66 widely addressed yet (Milner et al., 2008).

67 Due to the diversity in life cycles, a direct measurement of dispersal capacity is notoriously difficult for
68 functionally important organism groups in freshwater ecosystems, such as benthic invertebrates (Brederveld et
69 al., 2011; Hughes, 2007). Most benthic invertebrates live at the bottom of a river channel (aquatic habitats) and
70 sometimes move overland (aerial habitats), such as the adult stages of most aquatic insects (Bilton et al., 2001;
71 Bohonak & Jenkins, 2003). For the aquatic dispersal mode, passive drift (with the aid of external water flow,
72 wind, or animal vectors) and active movement (self-generated) along the river bottom are of particular
73 importance, whereas for the aerial dispersal mode, the active flight (upstream) and the passive wind drift of
74 adult aquatic insects predominate (Bilton et al., 2001). Benthic invertebrates with life cycles restricted to aquatic
75 habitats show weaker dispersal capacities, whereas those with a flying adult stage tend to be stronger dispersers
76 (Hughes, 2007; Kappes & Haase, 2012; Miller et al., 2002). In addition to life cycle stages, the relative
77 importance of dispersal via active or passive modes also differs among taxonomic groups. These various
78 mobility and life cycle characteristics make benthic invertebrates an ideal model group for conducting
79 comprehensive ecological studies of river ecosystems.

80 Recently, considerable advancement has been achieved through the compilation of a certain number of
81 dispersal trait attributes (at the genus level) into databases, for instance the STAR (Standardization of River
82 Classifications) project (www.eu-star.at; Furse et al., 2006), the www.freshwaterecology.info database
83 (Schmidt-Kloiber & Hering, 2015), and the Freshwater Invertebrates: Taxonomy, Biology, Ecology (Tachet et
84 al., 2010). The four major dispersal modes, aquatic active, aquatic passive, aerial active, and aerial passive, are
85 incorporated into these databases (Bis & Usseglio-Polatera, 2004; Furse et al., 2006; Schmidt-Kloiber & Hering,
86 2015). However, each of these four modes may provide different dispersal aspects to a certain extent, and a
87 comprehensive measure for quantifying integrated dispersal capacity is still lacking. Therefore, the main aim of
88 our study is to build a metric by incorporating these four dispersal modes to represent an integrative assessment
89 of dispersal capacity for several hundred riverine benthic invertebrates. The approach used to develop such a
90 metric and the resulting formula is very similar to the well-known and widely used saprobic index (Kolkwitz &
91 Marsson, 1909). The dispersal metric will be beneficial to future freshwater studies that investigate, for example,
92 colonization or metacommunity structure.

93 River restoration provides an opportunity to test the suitability of our metric because restored rivers need to
94 be (re-)colonized by benthic invertebrates following restoration. This colonization process particularly depends
95 on the dispersal capacity of benthic invertebrates: species with a high dispersal capacity are expected to colonize
96 the restored sites first, whereas species with low dispersal capacities will show up much later. To investigate this
97 pattern, we used riverine benthic invertebrate data from 23 large restored sites (Fig. 1) that have been
98 undergoing restoration for a span of 1 to 10 years. These 23 restoration projects involved significant changes to
99 the river bottom sediments, including removal of specimens. As we had data neither from these restored sites
100 prior to restoration nor from the yearly monitoring performed subsequent to site restoration, we applied a space-
101 for-time substitution approach, using each restoration as a temporal replicate. We compared the dispersal
102 capacity values of the 23 restored sites with dispersal capacity values from 23 unrestored sites, each located in
103 close proximity to one of the restored sites. As a second control group, we calculated the dispersal capacity
104 values of all other available community data from the river sites in the nearby surroundings (< 5 km) of the
105 restoration projects. This 5-km surrounding area has been shown to be the relevant species source pool for the
106 colonization of restored sites (Stoll et al., 2014; Stoll et al., 2013; Sundermann et al., 2011a; Sundermann et al.,
107 2011b).

108 Based on this study design and using our new developed metric, we calculated an average dispersal capacity
109 value for the 23 benthic invertebrate communities in the restored sites, the 23 communities in the nearby

110 unrestored sites, and the 298 communities from the 5-km surroundings. These data enabled us to test the
 111 following hypotheses: 1) the average dispersal metric of benthic invertebrate communities decreases over time
 112 at restored sites, whereas no such changes can be observed in the unrestored and surrounding sites, and 2)
 113 species that are strong dispersers are expected to rapidly colonize the restored sites, whereas weak dispersers
 114 need more time to colonize the restored sites and thus are expected to increase continuously in the early post-
 115 restoration stage.

116

117 2. Materials and methods

118 2.1. Dispersal capacity

119 The STAR database (www.eu-star.at; Furse et al., 2006) comprises information on four major dispersal modes
 120 (aquatic active, aquatic passive, aerial active and aerial passive) for 528 benthic invertebrates taxa (Table S1).
 121 Yet, information on active and passive terrestrial dispersal (e.g. overland crawling) is missing in this and other
 122 databases. There are only a few studies quantifying terrestrial dispersal distances as terrestrial dispersal is a
 123 comparatively rare event in benthic invertebrate species (Flecker & Allan, 1988; Hershey et al., 1993). Due to
 124 the missing information and low relevance of terrestrial dispersal for most benthic invertebrates, our dispersal
 125 metric is based on the most common aquatic and aerial modes only.

126 In the STAR database, an integer is assigned describing the affinity of each taxon to the four dispersal modes,
 127 ranging from 0 (no affinity) to 3 (high affinity). The simplest way to calculate an overall species-specific
 128 dispersal capacity metric (*sDCM*) for a given species is to sum up the dispersal capacity values of the four
 129 dispersal modes (aquatic active, aquatic passive, aerial active, and aerial passive) of the respective species. This
 130 *sDCM* could be converted into a standardized *sDCM* (*standsDCM*), which ranges between 0 and 1, using the
 131 minimum-maximum rescaling approach (equation 1).

$$132 \quad standsDCM = \frac{((aqa_i + aqp_i + aea_i + aep_i) - min_c)}{(max_c - min_c)} \quad (1)$$

133 where *standsDCM* refers to the standardized species dispersal capacity metric, *aqa_i* refers to the aquatic active
 134 dispersal mode of species *i*, *aqp_i* refers to the aquatic passive dispersal mode, *aea_i* refers to the aerial active
 135 dispersal mode, and *aep_i* refers to the aerial passive dispersal mode, *min_c* refers to the value at which the sum of
 136 assigned dispersal capacity values was lowest within the whole community *c* (*n* = 528), and *max_c* refers to the
 137 value at which the sum of assigned dispersal capacity values was highest.

138 For example, *Haplotaxis gordioides* (Oligochaeta) has 1 point for the aquatic passive mode, respectively, but
 139 0 points for aerial active, passive and aquatic active, resulting in a low value for *standsDCM* (i.e., 0.0) using

140 equation 1. In contrast, *Hydropsyche saxonica* (Trichoptera) has 2, 3, 3, and 1 points for aquatic active, aquatic
 141 passive, aerial active, and aerial passive, respectively, leading it to a high value of *standsDCM* (i.e., 1.0).

142 Yet, for the majority of benthic invertebrate species, the aerial dispersal distance is greater than the aquatic
 143 dispersal distance (Minshall & Petersen, 1985). For example, when water velocity was approximately 50 cm s⁻¹,
 144 nymphs of *Hydropsyche* spp. could drift 11.5 m on average while *Baetis rhodani* travelled 4.4 m (Elliott, 1971).
 145 In contrast, the flight distance of adult Hydropsychidae along the Detroit River and Lake St. Clair in Canada
 146 averaged 1.8 km; as much as 5 km were recorded when light traps were used (Kovats et al., 1996). Half of the
 147 emerging *Baetis* in an Arctic stream flew at least 1.6 km upstream from their emergence sites (Hershey et al.,
 148 1993). Therefore, it is necessary to assign more weight to the aerial dispersal mode to increase the accuracy of
 149 an overall dispersal metric. To determine a suitable weight factor, we tested 30 different possible weight values
 150 for the aerial dispersal modes (1–30). A value of 1 referred to equal weights for aquatic and aerial modes, while
 151 30 referred to a 30-fold weight for the aerial mode. Using these 30 different weight factors, we calculated a
 152 community dispersal capacity metric (*cDCM*) of a given sampling site as the average of the *standsDCMs*
 153 weighted by species abundance (Table S2). We tested the weighting approach using benthic invertebrate data
 154 from 23 river restoration projects in Germany ranging from 1 to 10 years after restoration (for more details
 155 please see the following sub-chapter). In total we made 30 regressions of each of the 10 years after restoration
 156 against the 30 dispersal capacity metrics (Fig. 2A). The most suitable weight value was 2, as it resulted in the
 157 regression model with the highest explanatory power and the lowest *P* value (Fig. 2 B). Accordingly, the most
 158 suitable overall species dispersal metric is as follows (equation 2):

$$159 \quad \text{standwsDCM} = \frac{((aqa_i + aqp_i + 2 \times aea_i + 2 \times aep_i) - \min_c)}{(\max_c - \min_c)} \quad (2)$$

160 where *standwsDCM* refers to the standardized weighted species dispersal capacity metric, *aqa_i* refers to the
 161 aquatic active dispersal mode of species *i*, *aqp_i* refers to the aquatic passive dispersal mode, *aea_i* refers to the
 162 aerial active dispersal mode, and *aep_i* refers to the aerial passive dispersal mode, *min_c* refers to the value at
 163 which the sum of assigned dispersal capacity values was lowest (*min_c*=1) within the whole community *c* (*n* =
 164 528), and *max_c* refers to the value at which the sum of assigned dispersal capacity values was highest (*max_c*=13).
 165 For simplification reasons from here on, the standardized weighted species dispersal capacity metric
 166 (*standwsDCM*) will be referred as *sDCM*.

167 Based on this approach, an overall community dispersal capacity metric (*cDCM*) of a given sample, reflecting
 168 the relative composition of weak and strong dispersers, would be the average *sDCM* weighted by species
 169 abundance or presence/absence. The *cDCM* is calculated as follows (equation 3):

$$cDCM = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n sDCM_i \times AP_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^n AP_{ij}} \quad (3)$$

170

171 where $cDCM$ refers to the community dispersal capacity metric at site j , $sDCM_i$ refers to the dispersal capacity
172 metric of the species i , AP_{ij} refers to the abundance or presence of the species i at site j . The calculation mode of
173 this new community dispersal capacity metric is very similar to the well-known and widely used saprobic index
174 (Kolkwitz & Marsson, 1909). Both formulas include very similar variables: the abundance of a given species, a
175 weighting factor and a value representing either the $sDCM$ or the saprobic index of a given species, respectively.

176

177 2.2. Study system and data collection

178 The 23 large restoration projects selected for this study (Table S3, Fig. 1) were carried out between 1997 and
179 2007 in the low mountain and lowland areas (26–268 m above sea level) of Germany; all sites had been restored
180 with the aim to improve the habitats, hydrological conditions, and species diversity. Principal measures
181 consisted of the removal of bank fixation, creation of new watercourses, wood placement and broadening of
182 rivers to create multichannel patterns (Stoll et al., 2013; Sundermann et al., 2011a; Sundermann et al., 2011b).
183 All these 23 restoration projects involved significant changes of river bottom sediments and initially led to a
184 significant removal of specimens and opening of new habitat for colonization, with the initial states following
185 restoration being similar for all sites. Consequently, the evolution of the colonization process among these
186 restoration projects is comparable. Benthic invertebrate community data were compiled from these 23 restored
187 sites for our analyses. In addition, community data from two control groups, unrestored and surrounding, were
188 used to differentiate the temporal colonization patterns of benthic invertebrate communities among these three
189 river treatment categories. An unrestored site was assigned to each of the 23 restored sites. The 23 unrestored
190 sites were selected because they represented the conditions of the restored sites prior to the restoration action,
191 meaning all unrestored sites were degraded. The unrestored sites were located upstream of the corresponding
192 restored site to avoid the influence of organisms drifting from the restored site. The mean distance between the
193 paired restored and unrestored sites was 1 km. In each river, both restored and unrestored sites were similar in
194 terms of geology, adjacent land use, river type, and catchment area. The surrounding sites were selected because
195 they have been shown to be the species source pool for the colonization of restored sites up to a distance of 5 km
196 away from the restored sites (Stoll et al., 2014; Stoll et al., 2013; Sundermann et al., 2011a; Sundermann et al.,
197 2011b). Only river sites within the same catchment where the restoration project was conducted were considered

198 for the surrounding site datasets, which resulted in 298 surrounding sites (ranging from 2 to 39 sites per project).

199 A sketch map of the relative localities of the restored, unrestored, and surrounding sites is shown in Fig. S1.

200 Benthic invertebrates were collected from March to July in 2007 and 2008 in the restored and unrestored sites.

201 Thus, the mean time period between restoration and our investigation ranged from 1–10 years. Because data

202 from consecutive yearly monitoring for those river sites were not available, the space-for-time substitution

203 approach was used to represent the riverine biological conditions during the 1–10 years. This is not generally the

204 best method, and repeated sampling at the same restored site over several years would be more valuable in

205 carrying out dispersal studies. Yet, due to a general lack of pre-restoration data, the substitution approach has

206 been widely used in previous studies (Blois et al., 2013; Haase et al., 2013; Januschke et al., 2011; Leps et al.,

207 2016; Lorenz et al., 2012; Lorenz et al., 2013; Stoll et al., 2013; Sundermann et al., 2011b). Sampling was

208 carried out following the EU Water Framework Directive (WFD) compliant sampling protocol (Haase et al.,

209 2004a; Haase et al., 2004b). Twenty multiple habitat samples were taken in each site within 200 m river reaches

210 using a shovel sampler (25 × 25 cm sampling area and 500 µm mesh size). All benthic invertebrates were

211 preserved in 70% ethanol and identified in the laboratory following the protocol of Haase et al. (2004a; 2004b).

212 The organisms were identified to the genus or species level, except for Chironomidae, Naididae and Tubificidae,

213 which were identified to the subfamily or family level. Based on the same sampling protocol data from the

214 surrounding sites were collected by governmental environmental agencies of the federal states of Hesse and

215 North Rhine-Westphalia from the same period of the year (March to July) during the period from 2004 to 2008.

216 All analyses of benthic invertebrates in our study were based on both quantitative (abundance of a given species

217 in one sampling site) and qualitative (presence/absence of a given species in one sampling site) data.

218 The multimetric index (MMI) of the EU Water Framework Directive compliant assessment system in

219 Germany (Hering et al., 2010) was used to quantify the quality of the sites involved in our study. The correlation

220 between MMI and *standcDCM* with abundance data showed a very weak correlation ($F_{1,67} = 4.72$, $R^2 = 0.07$, P

221 = 0.03) when the sites of all three river treatment categories were combined, indicating that the potential

222 differences in the habitat quality of restored, unrestored and surrounding sites do not have an effect on the

223 average species' dispersal capacity at our studied sites.

224

225 2.3. Statistical analysis

226 The first hypothesis was that a significant temporal change in the *cDCM* of benthic invertebrates only occurs in

227 the restored sites, and this was tested by plotting the *cDCM* at a given site as a function of time. Nonlinear

228 regressions (inverse first order, equation 4) were used to extract the temporal trends of the *cDCM* of benthic
229 invertebrates in the three river treatment categories. Inverse first order regression was selected because the
230 recolonization of benthic invertebrates followed the rule of community succession, namely fast changes in the
231 early period and then a long period of dynamic equilibrium. Similarly, inverse regressions were also used, e.g.,
232 to estimate the decomposition rate of leaf litter over time in river systems (Austin & Vitousek, 2000; Cusack et
233 al., 2009).

$$234 \quad y = y_0 + \frac{a}{x} \quad (4)$$

235 where y refers to dependence (*cDCM*), y_0 refers to *cDCM* at time zero, a refers to correlation coefficient, and x
236 refers to independence (years after restoration).

237 The second hypothesis was that strong dispersers rapidly colonize the restored sites while the colonization of
238 weak dispersers is slow, and to test this, we arranged all taxa in an ascending order according to their dispersal
239 metrics and then allocated them to four dispersal groups using a quartile approach. Taxa in the 1st quartile (Q1)
240 were defined as weak dispersers, and taxa in the 4th quartile (Q4) were strong dispersers. Taxa in the 2nd and 3rd
241 quartiles were categorized as weak to medium dispersers (Q2) and strong to medium dispersers (Q3),
242 respectively (Table S1; Fig. 3A). For the three river treatment categories, the temporal changes of four dispersal
243 groups in proportion were then made using inverse first order regressions.

244

245 3. Results

246 3.1. Dispersal metrics of various taxonomic groups

247 Similar results of estimated *sDCMs* were observed using abundance and presence/absence data, but only results
248 evaluated with abundance data are shown here. Values of the *sDCMs* were lower for Oligochaeta and
249 Turbellaria and higher for Ephemeroptera and Trichoptera (Fig. 3B). After splitting all taxa into four dispersal
250 groups representing weak to strong dispersers, the value of the *sDCM* for each taxonomic group became more
251 obvious; all taxa of Oligochaeta, Turbellaria, Hirudinea, Gastropoda, Crustacea, and Megaloptera were weak
252 dispersers, whereas most of the Ephemeroptera and Trichoptera were strong dispersers (Fig. 4).

253

254 3.2. Ecological application of the dispersal metric

255 Overall, the *cDCM* of benthic invertebrates in the restored sites decreased significantly (abundance: $F_{1, 21} = 5.37$,
256 $R^2 = 0.20$, $P = 0.03$; presence/absence: $F_{1, 21} = 8.49$, $R^2 = 0.29$, $P < 0.01$) during the 1–10 years after restoration

257 (Fig. 5), whereas no significant trends were observed in the unrestored and surrounding sites using both
258 qualitative and quantitative data (Fig. 5).

259 Succession of the benthic invertebrate communities was observed in the restored sites over the 10-year period
260 with weak and strong dispersers showing contrasting responses in the first half decade and later reaching
261 dynamic equilibrium (Fig. 6A, B). Specifically, the strong dispersers rapidly colonized the restored sites in the
262 first year after restoration, and the proportion of species richness attributable to them dramatically decreased
263 from the second year following restoration onwards ($F_{1, 21} = 9.00$, $R^2 = 0.30$, $P < 0.01$; Fig. 6B). The proportion
264 of weak dispersers in the communities significantly increased over the 10-year period (abundance: $F_{1, 21} = 4.78$,
265 $R^2 = 0.19$, $P = 0.04$; species richness: $F_{1, 21} = 7.48$, $R^2 = 0.26$, $P = 0.01$; Fig. 6A, B). However, no significant
266 trend was observed in the relative abundance of strong dispersers (Fig. 6A), nor was a significant trend noted for
267 the weak to medium and strong to medium dispersers in either the quantitative and qualitative data (Fig. 6A, B).
268 As expected, no changes were observed for the four types of dispersers in the unrestored and surrounding sites.
269

270 4. Discussion

271 4.1. Strengths, weaknesses and challenges in the dispersal traits of benthic invertebrates

272 In our study, we developed a dispersal capacity metric based on the widely used dispersal modes from the
273 STAR database. Our metric provides an initial estimate of dispersal capacity of benthic invertebrates, and is
274 valuable because our metric leads to the proper interpretation of community succession in the restored habitats.
275 However, there is still a large number of species for which dispersal information is lacking (Bilton et al., 2001;
276 Bohonak & Jenkins, 2003; Brederveld et al., 2011). In addition, the values from the STAR database and most
277 other sources are based on expert judgements, and as such, prone to misinterpretation. To fill in these
278 knowledge gaps, further real data on species dispersal capacities are needed so that more comprehensive
279 analyses can be carried out in future studies.

280 The dispersal capacity of most benthic invertebrates is constrained in comparison to terrestrial organisms due
281 to both the distinct boundaries of freshwater ecosystems and the often short-lived flying adult stages (Bohonak
282 & Jenkins, 2003; Tonkin et al., 2014). In contrast, some recent genetic studies indicate that aerial dispersal over
283 long distances within and across catchments may be common (Hughes, 2007; Miller et al., 2002), most likely by
284 means of passive dispersal modes (Bohonak & Jenkins, 2003) or because the distance between the two adjacent
285 headwaters is within the dispersal range of some flying adults (Geismar et al., 2015; Griffith et al., 1998).
286 Nevertheless, these various studies are in line with the conclusion that in general the dispersal capacity of

287 benthic invertebrates is remarkably stronger via air than via water. In our study, we took care of this general
288 finding by doubling the weight of the aerial modes based on the statistical results of 30 regression models.

289

290 4.2. Dispersal in restored rivers

291 Our approach is based on the assumption that in undisturbed rivers, the community dispersal capacity metric
292 (*cDCM*) of benthic invertebrates is stable and should not change over time, whereas in recently disturbed rivers,
293 strong dispersers have higher probabilities of arriving earlier than weak dispersers, and thus, the *cDCM* of
294 benthic invertebrates should change over time. This was reflected in our study design, which included restored,
295 unrestored, and surrounding river treatment categories. By applying our metric to these three river treatment
296 categories, a significant decrease in the *cDCM* of benthic invertebrates was observed in the restored sites,
297 particularly in the first 3–5 years, whereas there were no significant trends in either the unrestored or the
298 surrounding sites (Fig. 5), which supports our first hypothesis. In addition, a nonsignificant trend in the
299 unrestored sites indicated that the *cDCM* of benthic invertebrates shows no remarkable differences among the
300 restored sites prior to the restoration activities.

301 However, these results raise another question: Why was there a decrease in the *cDCM* of benthic invertebrates
302 in the restored sites over time? To answer this question, we investigated the community succession of benthic
303 invertebrates in the restored sites. Communities in the newly restored habitats were rapidly assembled by strong
304 dispersers. Species with low dispersal capacity needed longer time to arrive at the restored sites. However,
305 generally, species that are poor at dispersing tend to be better competitors once habitats have stabilized and,
306 hence, replace the early arriving but less competitive strong dispersers. *Simulium* spp., for example, possess
307 strong dispersal capacities, but other freshwater species outcompete and displace the *Simulium* spp. in the
308 ongoing process of succession, which results in their absence or low abundance after a certain period of time
309 (Downes & Lake, 1991). An increase in *Simulium* spp. following disturbance was also reported by Milner et al.
310 (2008), who investigated Glacial Wolf Point Creek in Alaska between 1977 and 2005. Taxa with good dispersal
311 capacity but poor competitive ability are defined as fugitive species (Horn & MacArthur, 1972; Milner et al.,
312 2008). Beside *Simulium* spp., many other taxa also belong to fugitive species, such as the chironomids,
313 *Cricotopus intersectus* (Milner et al., 2008) and *Baetis* spp. (Minakawa & Gara, 2003). Therefore, identification
314 of the nonrandom establishment and persistence of strong and weak dispersers in the succession of communities
315 answered the above question and also support our second hypothesis.

316 Although clear temporal trends of the entire benthic invertebrate communities in the restored sites were
317 observed, the temporal trend of strong dispersers using abundance data was not significant. This is most likely
318 because a few strongly dispersing individuals can colonize the restored sites in the early post-restoration stage,
319 but they may not establish substantial populations in the short term. Such an effect can greatly influence the
320 responses of communities to environmental changes, thereby leading to a relatively low proportional abundance
321 of strong dispersers in the early stage and a nonsignificant trend in reduction over time.

322 Milner et al. (2008) noted that dispersal constraints largely influenced the community succession, as non-
323 insect taxa required at least 20 years to colonize. In our case, the colonization speed of non-insect taxa (e.g.,
324 Oligochaeta, Turbellaria, Hirudinea, Gastropoda, and Crustacea) was slower than that of insect taxa (e.g.,
325 Ephemeroptera and Trichoptera). However, in comparison to the study conducted by Milner et al. (2008), the
326 colonization speed was relatively high in our case, taking approximately 3–5 years for those non-insect taxa to
327 colonize the restored sites in this temperate climatic region. Minshall et al. (1983) also reported that it took three
328 years to obtain the full colonization of the original taxa in the Teton River (Idaho) following a major flash flood.

329 We are fully aware that no single mechanism can completely describe community succession. In addition to
330 dispersal capacity, extrinsic (e.g., competition and landscape barriers) and intrinsic drivers (e.g., species' life
331 cycles and parasite loads) are also of utmost importance (Grabner et al., 2014). Overall, our study provides a
332 dispersal capacity metric that has proven to be a useful tool to assess riverine organism colonization patterns of
333 new habitats after dramatic anthropogenic disturbances. By means of this metric, our study demonstrates that
334 benthic invertebrate communities in new river habitats can rapidly develop, and the nonrandom succession of
335 benthic invertebrate communities indicates that a period of 3–5 years is needed after restoration to reach
336 equilibrium in terms of community dispersal capacity. To further improve our metric, direct measurements of
337 dispersal frequency and distance for individual benthic invertebrates will be important. Beyond stimulating
338 work to refine taxon-specific estimates of dispersal capacity, our dispersal capacity metric might be used in
339 multiple ways. For example, this metric could be incorporated into conventional bioassessment indices that may
340 improve the sensitivity of assessment indices to detect perturbations and increase the ability of assessment
341 indices to explore changes in river benthic invertebrate communities. It may also allow for further investigation
342 into the precise role of dispersal capacities in shaping metacommunities in headwaters and main streams or at
343 larger spatial scales to allow for scrutiny of potential differences between highland and lowland communities.

344

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352

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471

472 **Figure legends**

473 **Fig. 1.** Geographic locations of the restoration projects and their surrounding sites in the low mountain and
474 lowland areas of Germany. Unrestored sites were not shown in the figure because the mean distance between
475 the paired restored and unrestored sites was 1 km, and all restored and unrestored sites were overlapped at the
476 defined spatial scale. The full names of the restored sites are given in Table S3.

477

478 **Fig. 2.** The 10-year trends in the standardized community dispersal capacity metric (*standcDCM*) of benthic
479 invertebrates in 23 restored sites. In total, 30 curves in (A) are displayed with partial overlap, referring to 30
480 weights (1–30) of aerial dispersal modes with abundance data. The R^2 and P value of each regression model are
481 presented in (B).

482

483 **Fig. 3.** Summary plots of the standardized species dispersal capacity metrics (*standsDCM*) for (A) 528 species
484 and (B) 15 taxonomic groups with low to high dispersal capacity. The classification of the four dispersal groups
485 is based on the weight calculated with abundance data, i.e., 2 in (A). Four dispersal groups are defined by a
486 quartile approach: weak dispersers = 0–25th; weak to medium dispersers = 25th–50th; strong to medium
487 dispersers = 50th–75th; and strong dispersers = 75th–1. The dot refers to the mean value, the whisker refers to the
488 standard error, and the number above and below the whisker refers to the number of species on which the
489 calculation is based in (B). The full names of taxonomic groups are given in Fig. 4.

490

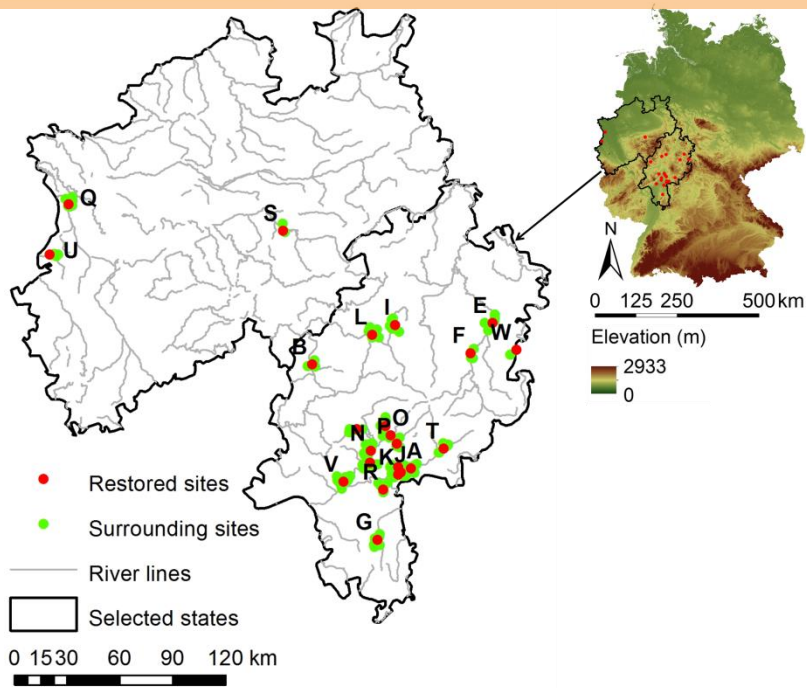
491 **Fig. 4.** The proportion of the species richness among the four dispersal groups for each taxonomic group.

492

493 **Fig. 5.** The 10-year trends in the standardized community dispersal capacity metric (*standcDCM*) of benthic
494 invertebrates in the restored, unrestored, and surrounding sites using (A) abundance and (B) presence/absence
495 data.

496

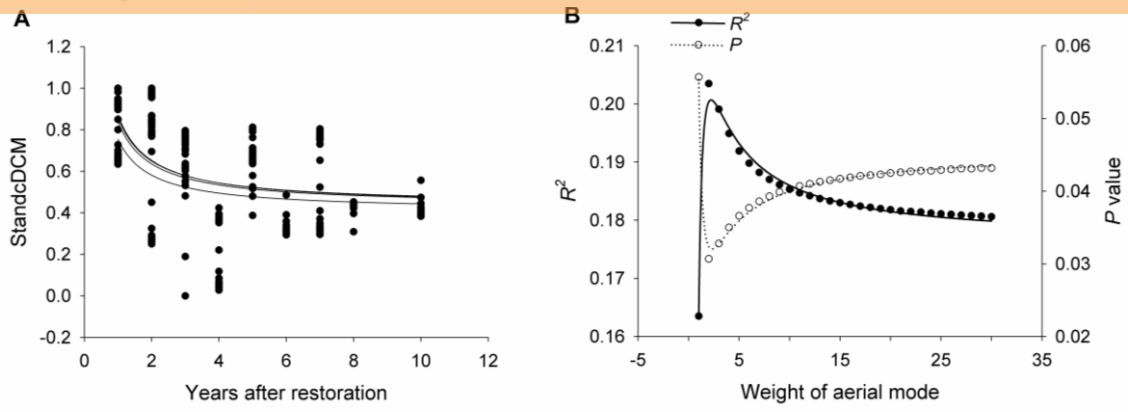
497 **Fig. 6.** The 10-year trends in proportion of abundance and species richness of the four dispersal groups in the
498 restored sites using (A) abundance and (B) presence/absence data. The trends in the unrestored and surrounding
499 sites are not presented because they are not significant. The four dispersal groups are defined by a quartile
500 approach: weak dispersers = 0–25th; weak to medium dispersers = 25th–50th; strong to medium dispersers =
501 50th–75th; and strong dispersers = 75th–1.



502

503 **Fig. 1.**

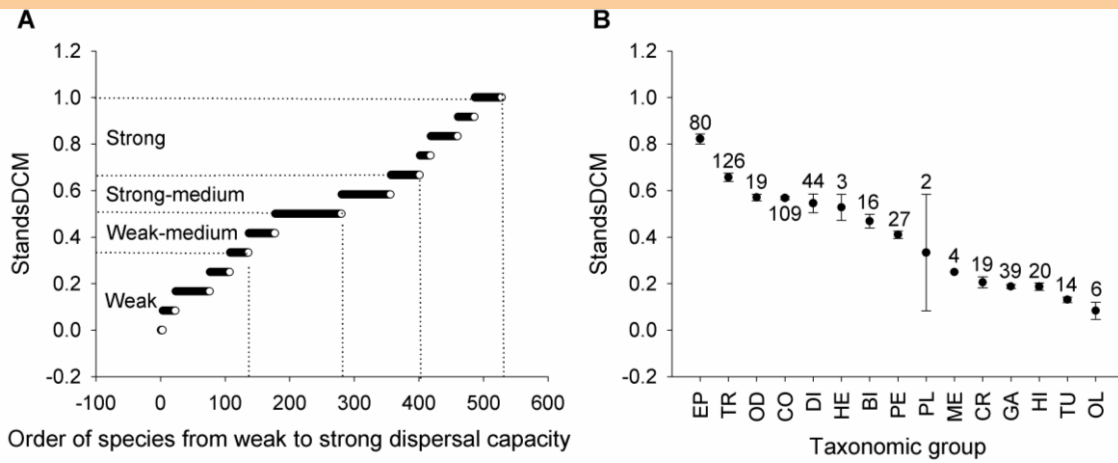
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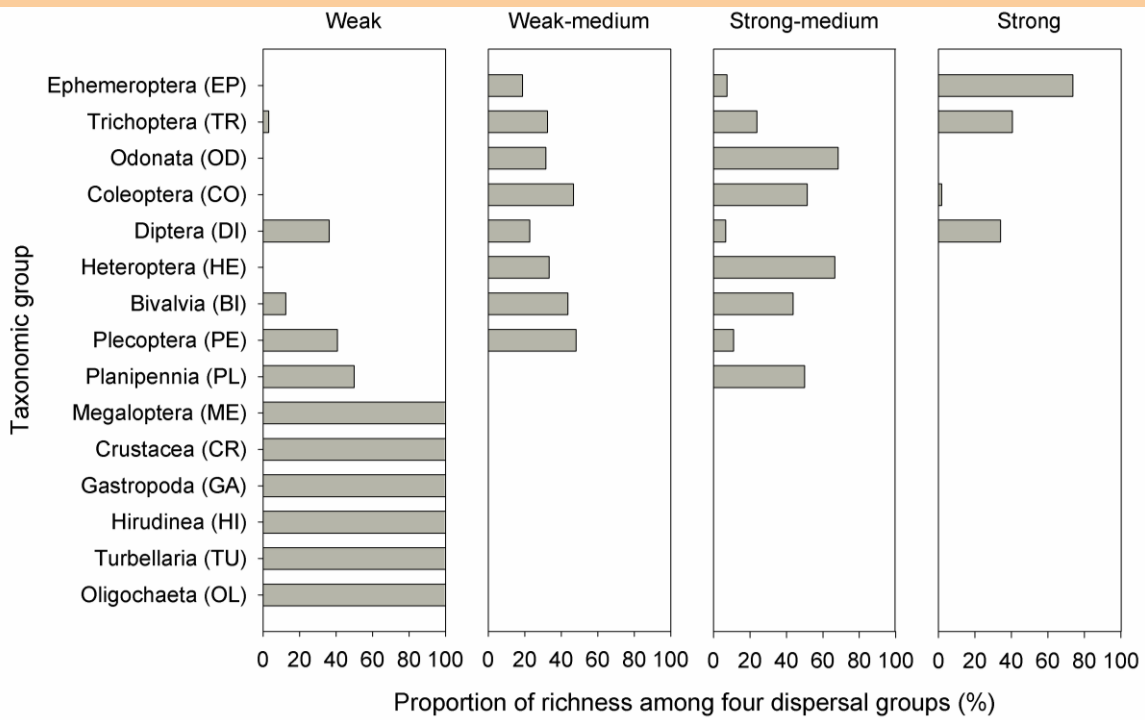
506 **Fig. 2.**

507



508

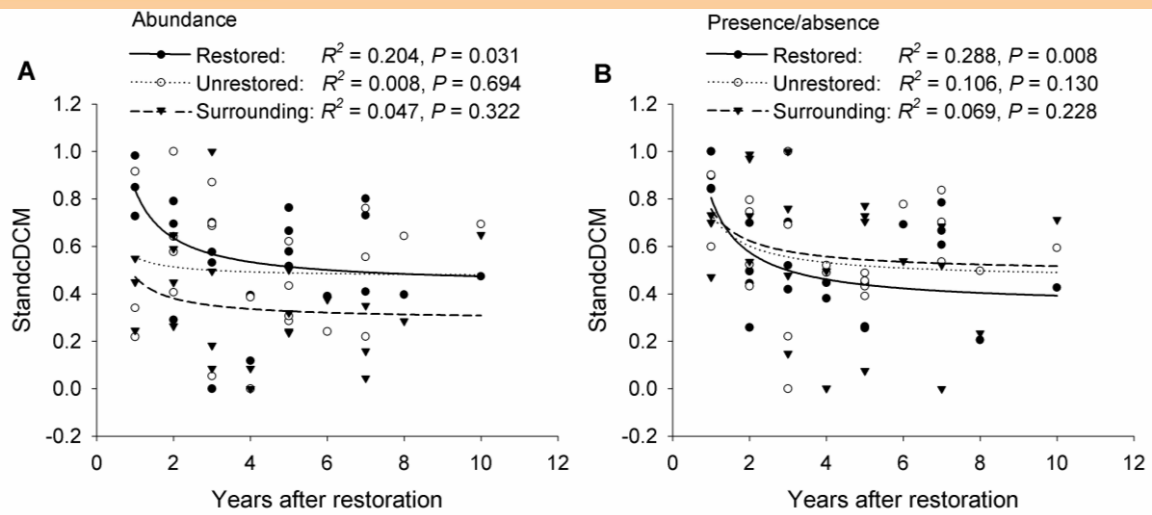
509 **Fig. 3.**



510

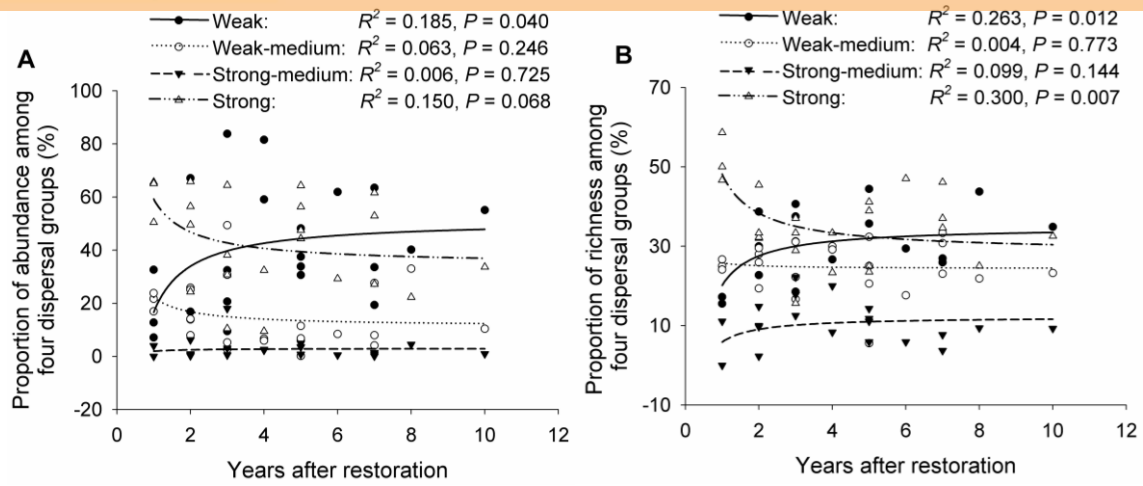
511 **Fig. 4.**

512



513

514 **Fig. 5.**



515

516 **Fig. 6.**

517 **Supplementary**

518

519 **Table S1.** Values of the four dispersal modes and the standardized species dispersal capacity metric (*sDCM*),
520 based on the weight of aerial dispersal mode calculated with abundance data, i.e., 2, as well as the group
521 information for 528 species of benthic invertebrates using a quartile approach. A positive integer, ranging from
522 0 (no affinity) to 3 (high affinity), is assigned to each taxon and describes the affinity to each dispersal mode.
523 The *sDCM* ranges between 0 and 1 and is produced using the minimum-maximum rescaling approach. Gen.
524 refers to general family group; Ad. refers to the adult; and Lv. refers to the larval. All information is available in
525 the attached Adobe Acrobat file.

526

527 **Table S2.** Statistical results (R^2) of the standardized community dispersal capacity metric of benthic
528 invertebrates in the restored, unrestored, and surrounding sites based on the following weights of aerial dispersal
529 modes: 1–10, 15, 20, 25, and 30. Instead of all weights of 10–30, only 15, 20, 25, and 30 are involved in the
530 table because there are no significant changes when the different weights are incorporated. Rest. = Restored,
531 Unre = Unrestored, Surr = Surrounding, Q1 = weak, Q2 = weak to medium, Q3 = strong to medium, and Q4 =
532 strong dispersers. The results of the four dispersal groups in these three river treatment types are identical when
533 the weight exceeds 4. **indicates $P < 0.01$ and *indicates $P < 0.05$.

534

535 **Table S3.** Characteristics of 23 restored sites in the low mountain and lowland areas of Germany.

536

537 **Fig. S1.** Sketch map of the relative localities of the restored, unrestored, and surrounding sites.