1 Habitat deterioration despite protection: long-term declines of

2 littoral area of fishponds in Czech nature reserves

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17 Highlights

- Littoral vegetation in ponds supports high biodiversity but often lacks protection.
- We evaluated long-term changes in the littoral areas of fishponds in Czechia.
- The areas decreased markedly in both protected and unprotected ponds since 1950.
- Reserve duration, fishpond area and conservation target did not affect the trends.
- Changes in fishpond management are recommended for littoral area recovery.
- 23

24 Graphical abstract



27 Abstract

28 Fishponds play a key role in current pondscapes in many developed countries. Their littoral 29 areas, supporting multiple ecosystem functions including the maintenance of aquatic and 30 riparian biodiversity, have been adversely affected by the move shift towards more intensive aquaculture and widespread eutrophication in the middle 20th century. To counteract these 31 32 changes, many fishponds received some protection, but its long-term efficiency has not been 33 studied. Here we focus on the role of conservation status in protecting the area of littoral 34 areas of fishponds in Czechia between the years 1950 and 2019. We found that the 35 conservation status of these fishponds did not prevent habitat deterioration in most of the fishponds, especially during the second half of the 20th century. Moreover, we detected no 36 37 significant effects of the reserve establishment year, fishpond area and conservation target 38 on the littoral areas. This suggests that the conservation measures are insufficient across 39 fishpond reserve types. We attribute the negative trends to persisting high fish stocks, especially of common carp, and eutrophication resulting from additional feeding, pond 40 41 manuring, and ongoing nutrient inputs from the pond catchments. Sediment dredging and 42 high grazing pressure by waterfowl in some reserves can further aggravate the situation. We 43 conclude that effective protection of the littoral areas requires a paradigm shift towards less 44 intensive fish stock management, more frequent summer drainage, and effective reduction 45 of all nutrient inputs to increase the water quality. Such measures can help recover the 46 littoral areas and the associated biota.

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48 **Keywords:** Biodiversity, macrophytes, management, man-made habitats, nature 49 conservation

50 **1.** Introduction

51 Fishponds are the most common habitat of the central European pondscapes. Most of them 52 were created at natural or seminatural sites such as peat bogs, floodplain forests, and 53 wetland meadows centuries ago (Francová et al., 2019). While they primarily serve for fish 54 production and water retention, they have also become important biodiversity hotspots 55 after deterioration and destruction of many natural wetlands (Davidson, 2014; Reid et al., 56 2019, Kolar and Boukal, 2020). Environmental characteristics including the extent and 57 diversity of submerged and emergent vegetation vary immensely both within and among 58 fishponds, which makes them ideal to support high regional biodiversity (Wezel et al., 2014). 59 Consequently, some fishponds became protected by national and European law.

60 Traditional fishpond management in central Europe including fish stocking, 61 supplementary feeding, manuring, liming, drainage, and dredging intensified heavily during the 20th century to increase fish production. Moreover, phosphorus and nitrogen inputs in 62 63 fishponds increased 40 and 9 times, respectively (Potužák et al., 2007). These changes led to 64 an overall decline in the diversity of macrophytes (Francová et al., 2019), aquatic beetles 65 (Kolar and Boukal, 2020), dragonflies (Šigutová et al., 2015), macrozoobenthos and 66 zooplankton (Nieoczym and Kloskowski, 2014), amphibians (Kloskowski, 2010) and birds 67 (Broyer and Curtet, 2012). Moreover, high stocks of common carp suppress large 68 zooplankton, leading to a classical trophic cascade with frequent algal blooms and reduced 69 water transparency (Matsuzaki et al., 2007; Potužák et al., 2007), and disturb the sediment 70 that further reduces transparency (Roberts et al., 1995) and causes mechanical damage to 71 submerged macrophytes (Broyer and Curtet, 2012; Matsuzaki et al., 2007). All these effects 72 often lead to a substantial retreat of littoral areas.

Littoral areas are important hotspots of biodiversity in the fishpond ecosystems (Batzer 73 74 and Wissinger, 1996; Francová et al., 2019), as most species inhabit shallow parts with 75 submerged and emerged vegetation rather than open water (Kloskowski et al., 2020). Some 76 taxa use these structured habitats as a refuge against predators (Warfe and Barmuta, 2004), 77 while some predators seek littorals due to high prey availability (Kloskowski et al., 2020) or 78 use the habitat structure to facilitate their hunting (Klecka and Boukal, 2012). Furthermore, 79 littoral macrophytes can improve water quality, stabilize shores, and provide food for many 80 organisms (Batzer and Wissinger, 1996; Roberts et al., 1995). Thus, their effective protection 81 is necessary for many aquatic and semi-aquatic species, especially considering recent 82 massive species extinctions and population decline (Eichenberg et al., 2021; Sánchez-Bayo 83 and Wyckhuys, 2019).

84 While overall eutrophication and fish overstocking are known to severely affect the 85 littoral environment, we need to develop efficient strategies to mitigate their adverse effects 86 on pond ecosystems (Francová et al., 2019). In particular, we lack comparative studies of 87 long-term trends of environmental conditions in fishponds and the efficiency of conservation 88 measures such as legal protection of the fishpond habitats. To fill this gap, we analysed long-89 term trends in the extent of emerged macrophyte vegetation (hereafter 'littoral area') in 90 legally protected and unprotected fishponds in Czechia. We expected the littoral areas in 91 protected fishponds to remain stable or increase over time, especially in fishponds that were 92 declared as nature reserves earlier, had a larger littoral area, or are smaller. The latter are 93 used as nursery ponds and are usually less intensively managed than the larger 94 main/ongrowing ponds (Francová et al., 2019). Furthermore, we hypothesized that pond 95 reserves focused on macrophyte conservation will have larger littoral areas than those with 96 other conservation targets (i.e., wetland communities and animals). Finally, we expected to

97 observe declines of the total littoral areas in unprotected ponds, especially if they were large 98 and had initially large littoral areas that were destroyed by the intensive management 99 practices summarized above. We use our findings to highlight current issues arising in 100 effective protection of fishpond littoral areas and propose measures required to amend the 101 situation.

102

103 **2.** Materials and Methods

104 **2.1** Study area

We analysed the effect of conservation status on the littoral areas of fishponds in South Bohemia (Fig. 1). For the sake of this study, we define fishpond as a man-made standing water body larger than 0.5 ha. More than 7,000 (total area >30,000 ha) fishponds in this region also include over 60 fishponds with a legal protection status (hereafter 'fishpond reserves').

110 **2.2** Analyses

111 To quantify changes in the littoral area (i.e., the extent of the surface covered with emergent 112 macrophyte vegetation) of fishponds, we used orthophoto maps (CUZK, 2021) from the 113 years 1949–1953 (hereafter referred to as '1950'), 1998–2001 (as '2000'), and 2017–2019 114 (as '2017', Table A1). We chose current fishpond reserves and located them first on the 115 orthophoto maps from 1950; note that only three fishponds were already protected at that 116 time (Table A1). We selected only fishponds for which high-quality images were available, 117 and eliminated those with image noise (e.g., clouds over the fishpond) and those with 118 unclear limits of the littoral and open-water areas. We could not locate several protected 119 fishponds on the 1950 maps as they were likely built or restored later. This procedure

120 yielded 46 protected and 20 unprotected fishponds; the latter were randomly selected

121 within a radius of 20 km around a subset of the protected ones as controls (Fig. 1A).

122 Orthophoto maps were analysed by one person (V.K.) to avoid personal biases. All areas 123 estimated from the maps were processed and vectorized in ArcGIS software (v. 10.7.1, ESRI, 124 2011). We initially estimated the total surface area of each fishpond, excluding any islands if 125 present but including the littoral area, in the most recent maps from 2017. We then 126 estimated the total littoral area around the shores and islands of each fishpond in the same 127 year and years 1950 and 2000, and corrected for changes in the total surface area between 128 the earlier dates and 2017 if necessary (Fig. 1B–D and Table A1). Littoral area was expressed 129 as a proportion of the total fishpond area in that year. We collected the following 130 explanatory variables for each fishpond (only for protected ones): year of reserve 131 establishment, total surface area in 2017, littoral area in 1950, and conservation target 132 divided into three categories: macrophytes, wetland communities (i.e., animals including 133 amphibians, birds, insects and/or macrophytes together), and animals (amphibians and/or 134 birds) according to the official database of the Nature Conservation Agency of the Czech 135 Republic (AOPK ČR, 2020).

136 We used a model selection approach in which we built a set of candidate models and 137 used the corrected Akaike information criterion (AICc) to rank these models and identify the 138 most parsimonious ones (Burnham and Anderson, 2002). Temporal differences in the littoral 139 area proportions were first analysed with generalised linear mixed models (GLMMs) using 140 beta regression with a logit link function. Zero proportions were adjusted to 0.0001 (n = 11) 141 prior to analysis. We first considered year as an explanatory variable with three levels 142 ('1950', '2000' and '2017') and then the actual year of orthophoto imaging as a continuous 143 explanatory variable. In both analyses, we also considered protection status as another explanatory variable and used fishpond identity as a random intercept and slope (Table A1).
In the latter analysis, we considered year as a linear term or second-order polynomial and

146 added a random intercept for the year effect. This yielded five and seven candidate models

147 in each respective analysis (Table A2A).

148 We further calculated the *In*-transformed ratio of the total littoral area in each fishpond 149 reserve in 2017 and 1950 to measure its rate of change, with negative values corresponding 150 to declining littoral areas. The data were approximately normally distributed with four 151 strong outliers corresponding to nearly lost littoral areas. We fitted them with a set of eight 152 robust linear regressions linking the rate of change to the conservation target (always 153 included in the models; its significance in the most parsimonious model was assessed by an 154 ANOVA) and a linear combination of up to three additional explanatory variables: year of 155 establishment, total littoral area in 1950, and \log_{10} -transformed total fishpond area (Table 156 A2C).

We used the function *glmmTMB* (Brooks et al., 2017) to analyse the GLMMs, the function *rlm* (Venables and Ripley, 2002) for the robust regressions, and function *emmeans* (Lenth, 2021) for planned comparisons in the most parsimonious model (Table A3 for details). All analyses were conducted in R (R Core Team, 2020).

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162 **3. Results and Discussion**

163 3.1 Shrinking of littoral areas in fishponds: main patterns and likely causes

Model selection for the temporal differences with year as a factor showed that the proportion of littoral area depended on the interaction of time and protection status (Fig. 2A and Table A2). Planned comparisons confirmed that (future) reserves had more developed 167 littoral areas than unprotected fishponds both in 1950 and in 2000 and 2017, and that 168 littoral areas in 2000 and 2017 were significantly smaller than in 1950 in both fishpond 169 categories (Table A3). As a result, littoral areas of the protected fishponds are now 170 comparable to their extent in unprotected fishponds in 1950 (Fig. 2A).

171 The most parsimonious model for the continuous temporal trends identified strong 172 declines in the extent of littoral areas in both protected and unprotected fishponds until ca. 173 year 2000 with a weak trend towards subsequent recovery in protected but not in 174 unprotected fishponds, in which the decline continued (Fig. 2B). Indeed, decreases in littoral 175 areas in protected fishponds were more common (n=38) and on average more dramatic 176 (mean: -22.5%, range: -0.5 to -58.2%) than increases (*n*=8, mean: 12.5%, range: 0.8–43.0%), 177 while littoral areas declined in all unprotected fishponds (n=20, mean: -16.0%, range: -2.4178 to -54.0%; Table A1).

179 The observed degradation of littoral areas is likely connected to the intensification of 180 fishpond management since the 1950s. Increased manuring and supplementary feeding, 181 overstocking dominated by common carp, and spread of invasive species such as topmouth 182 gudgeon and Prussian carp led to decreased water quality (Potužák et al., 2007). The 183 resulting eutrophic to hypertrophic conditions cause frequent long periods of turbid water 184 and light limitation for macrophytes, further aggravated by bioturbation and grazing on 185 macrophytes by common carp and other cyprinids. Moreover, summer drainage can help 186 restore littoral areas and increase the diversity of macrophytes (Šumberová et al., 2006; 187 Broyer and Curtet, 2012; Francová et al., 2021) but is often omitted in intensive 188 management.

189 Degradation or complete disappearance of some littorals could be attributed to dredging 190 (Fig. 1D). Until recently, many fishponds were either completely or partially dredged with 191 heavy machinery (IUCN, 1997) to increase the open water area and volume to accommodate 192 larger fish stocks. The dredged material was often left around the banks and sometimes 193 used to build islands providing additional bird habitats (IUCN, 1997). However, the material 194 left on the banks devastated an important water-land transitional ecotone in many reserves 195 and disabled littoral renewal. Widespread lack of data on the extent and timing of dredging 196 after 1950 prevented us from quantifying its effect.

197 Traditional management also includes direct mowing of macrophytes (Francová et al., 198 2019). This practice should be strictly prohibited in fishpond reserves unless it protects focal 199 protected species from excessive macrophyte growth and establishment of invasive species.

Finally, high waterfowl densities can degrade and destroy the littoral vegetation even in shallow parts that are inaccessible to fish. They can do so directly by grazing (e.g., geese and swans) and indirectly by release of additional nutrients (Hoyer and Canfield, 1994; Noordhuis et al., 2002).

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205 3.2 Effects of fishpond area, conservation period and target conservation category on the
 206 relative change of littoral area

The most parsimonious model suggests that the relative change in the littoral area between 1950 and 2017 was unaffected by the fishpond area, littoral area in 1950, year of reserve establishment (Table A2, Fig 1A), and target conservation category (ANOVA: $F_2 = 0.345$, P =0.71). The other plausible model with fishpond area as another predictor (Table A2) showed

that larger fishponds tended to more pronounced declines in the littoral area than smallerones (details not shown).

213 The missing relationship between the reserve age and littoral area recovery is surprising. 214 Our data show that neither >50 years of a reserve status may protect the littoral areas, nor 215 up to 30 years of protection may enable recovery (see Table A1 for details). This is likely due 216 to inappropriate management of protected fishponds. Similar negative temporal trends are 217 known in terrestrial biota (Gray et al., 2016a; Rada et al., 2019). Site-specific conservation 218 management for each reserve is thus needed (Gray et al. 2016), especially for fishponds that 219 are strongly affected by both target conservation management and human impacts on the 220 surrounding landscape and catchment (Wezel et al., 2013).

221 Littoral areas tended to retreat more in larger fishponds, while all cases in which the 222 littoral area increased between 1950 and 2017 were confined to smaller ponds (surface area 223 <10 ha). This is most likely related to fishpond management types: while smaller fishponds 224 are usually used for fish fry breeding, larger ones are used as main ongrowing ponds 225 (Francová et al., 2019, 2021). This does not mean that larger reserves are less valuable but 226 highlights that they deserve proper conservation and less intensive fishery management. We 227 thus recommend protecting fishponds with well-developed littoral areas and harbouring 228 protected species irrespectively of the fishpond size (Francová et al. 2021; Kolář & Boukal 229 2020).

Interestingly, we found no link between the changes in the littoral area and the conservation target category. The trends were most variable in reserves with wetland communities as the declared conservation target and least variable (and always negative) in reserves focused on macrophytes. This intriguing result suggests a systemic failure of nature conservation across fishponds with different conservation focus. More detailed studies in

these reserves should confirm whether our, admittedly coarse, measures of the ongoing changes in the littoral areas also signal changes in population sizes or species richness of the target groups.

238

239 4. Conclusions

240 Our study shows that legal protection did not avert a widespread decline of littoral areas in 241 fishponds in Czechia since mid 20th century. This trend is detrimental as littoral areas 242 support biodiversity across pondscapes (Vanacker et al., 2018). The observed declines signal 243 the need for conservation agencies to balance fishpond management, focused on other 244 services such as fish production, with conservation needs. We focused on littoral areas as 245 indicators of overall habitat availability for various biota; further studies are required as 246 many taxa inhabiting the littoral areas differ in their environmental requirements such as the 247 extent or species composition of the submerged and emerged macrophytes. Requirements 248 of different taxa could even be antagonistic (Broyer and Curtet, 2012), making general 249 recommendations difficult. Another challenge lies in the implementation of desirable 250 changes in fishpond management. Most Czech fishponds (including reserves) are privately 251 owned, which limits options for externally imposed management plans.

252 While not a direct focus of our study, we reiterate that effective protection of the littoral 253 part of fishpond ecosystems requires several well-known measures (Broyer and Curtet, 254 2012; Kloskowski, 2010): (i) use of optimal fish stock size tailored for local abiotic conditions, 255 (ii) use of fish polyculture with a higher proportion of predatory species, (iii) more effective 256 or no use of supplementary feed, and (iv) no manure application. Wherever possible, this 257 should be accompanied by reducing nutrient inputs from the surrounding catchment. In

258	addition, more frequent use of summer drainage could support the littoral area
259	development. Taken together, these measures can reduce the nutrient loads and support
260	growth of submerged and emerged macrophytes in the predominantly eutrophic central
261	European pondscape.
262	
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267	
268	Declaration of competing interest
269	None.
270	
271	Author statement
272	Vojtech Kolar: Conceptualization; Methodology; Data curation; Investigation; Visualization;
273	Writing – Original Draft
274	Kateřina Francová: Writing – Original Draft
275	Jaroslav Vrba: Writing – Review & Editing
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	Stanislav Grill: Data curation
277	Stanislav Grill: Data curation David S. Boukal: Methodology; Validation; Investigation, Writing – Review & Editing
277 278	

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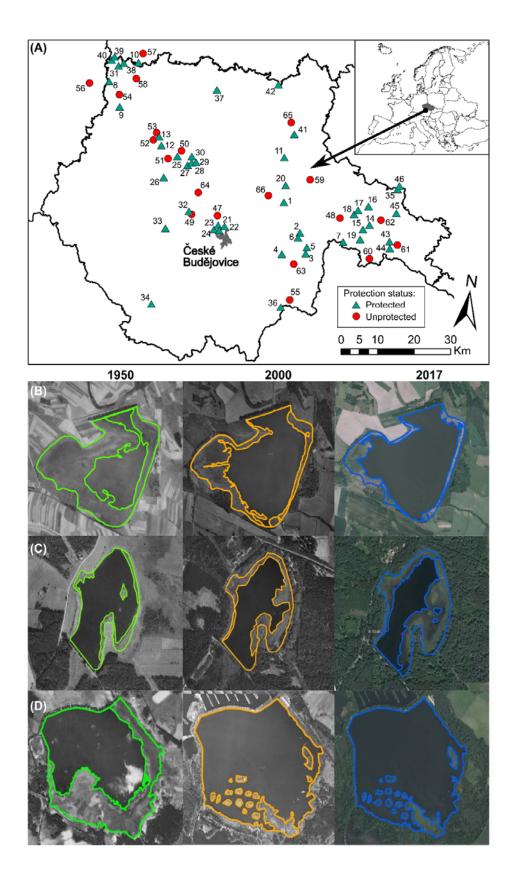
Figure captions:

367	Fig. 1. Study area and examples of temporal changes in the littoral areas of fishponds. (A)
368	Map of South Bohemia with the studied fishponds. (B–D) comparison of three different
369	fishponds between years 1950 (green), 2000 (orange), and 2017 (blue): decrease of the
370	littoral area in the Řežabinec fishpond (B), increase of the littoral area in the Blanko fishpond
371	(C), and example of dredging that resulted in artificial islands in the Staré Jezero fishpond
372	(D). Orthophoto maps of each fishpond are on a different scale. See Table A1 for details.

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Fig. 2. Temporal trends in the proportion of littoral area (as % of total fishpond surface area)
in fishponds between 1950, 2000 and 2017. (A) changes within each fishpond category;
larger symbols show mean values and error bars 95% confidence intervals. (B) overall trend
predicted by the most parsimonious model; dashed lines show 95% confidence intervals.
Data for individual fishponds shown as small symbols.

379 Fig. 1



382 Fig. 2

