# Do macroinvertebrate abundance and community structure depend on the quality of ponds located in peri-urban areas?

Florence D. Hulot[1][*], Christophe Hanot[1], Sylvie Nélieu[2], Isabelle Lamy[2], Sara Karolak[1], Ghislaine Delarue[2], Emmanuelle Baudry[1]

[1] Université Paris-Saclay, CNRS, AgroParisTech, Ecologie Systematique Evolution, 91190 Gif-sur-Yvette, France
[2] Université Paris-Saclay, INRAE, AgroParisTech, UMR ECOSYS, 91120 Palaiseau, France

*Corresponding author
Florence.hulot@universite-paris-sacly.fr

**ABSTRACT**

Contamination is one of the major threats to freshwater biodiversity. Compared to other aquatic ecosystems, peri-urban ponds are unique because they are embedded in human-dominated areas. However, it is poorly understood how different land uses such as urban or agricultural contribute multiple pollutants to ponds and thus affect pond biodiversity. In this work, 12 ponds located in a peri-urban area (Ile-de-France region, France) were monitored for 2 consecutive years in spring and fall. We surveyed macroinvertebrates and measured the physicochemical parameters and contaminants of different classes (trace elements, pharmaceuticals, pesticides and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons) in both water and sediment. The objective was twofold: to explore local and regional macroinvertebrate spatiotemporal diversity and to understand the effects of contaminants on community structure. We observed 236 macroinvertebrate morphotaxa, none of which were rare or sensitive to pollutants. Morphotaxa richness showed small differences between ponds but no difference between there was no effect of field campaign. There was no effect of ponds and field campaign on morphotaxa diversity and equitability. We did not observe a relationship between land use around the pond (agricultural, urban, or semi-natural) and diversity indices except agricultural area on equitability. Regional beta diversity (between ponds) showed that differences in morphotaxa composition reflected species replacement more than differences in species richness; these were primarily due to the high abundance of pollutant-tolerant species in some of the ponds. The effects of environmental parameters on community structure were studied using partial redundancy analysis based on the presence-absence of morphotaxa, showing that community assemblages are shaped by sediment levels of pharmaceuticals and and water conductivity and ammonium concentration. In conclusion, ponds in peri-urban areas are exposed to various human activities, with our results suggesting that this exposure leads to chronic and diverse contaminations that affect morphotaxa communities.

**Keywords**: beta diversity, land use, pollutant-tolerant morphotaxa, trace elements, PAH, pharmaceuticals, herbicides, insecticides, fungicides

## Introduction

Freshwater ecosystems, including lakes, reservoirs and rivers, host around 9.5% of all described species despite representing approximately 2.3% of the world's surface area and only 0.01% of its water (Reid et al. 2019). They therefore deserve special attention in terms of their protection and conservation. In a recent review, Reid et al. (2019) listed 12 emerging or intensifying threats to freshwater biodiversity. Among the different freshwater ecosystems, ponds are particularly vulnerable because of their small size (Biggs et al. 2017), although they are understudied probably on account of their presumed insignificance (Biggs et al. 2017; Cereghino et al. 2008). Several studies showed that small water bodies such as ponds, ditches and streams host a higher biodiversity than large water bodies (Biggs et al. 2017). In particular, because of their isolation or small size, they may have low local alpha diversity. However, a high dissimilarity between these aquatic systems may lead to high regional beta diversity (Clarke et al. 2008; Davies et al. 2008; Williams et al. 2004). The small habitat size of ponds may also support rare and scarce species. Scheffer et al. (2006) showed that shallow lakes and ponds support a higher richness of aquatic birds, plants, amphibians and invertebrates than large water bodies. This higher richness is accompanied by a low diversity of fish, if not their complete absence (Scheffer et al. 2006).

Peri-urban areas are characterised by complex landscapes with both agricultural and urban covers and a mixture of different uses and users (Poggi et al. 2021; Zoomers et al. 2017). They are typical zones of continuous transformation (Zoomers et al. 2017) or "restless landscape" (Friedmann 2016). However, ponds and wetlands in peri-urban environments are understudied (Wanek et al. 2021). Although urban ponds are less diverse than rural ponds, they may host threatened species, thus advocating for good management practices (Oertli

and Parris 2019). Likewise, motorway stormwater retention ponds can play a significant role

in macroinvertebrate diversity at the regional level (Le Viol et al. 2009; Meland et al. 2020).

Contamination by pollutants is one of the 12 threats to freshwater biodiversity identified by

Reid et al. (2019). Ponds are subjected to multiple contaminations depending on their

environment, whether in an agricultural, urban or highway setting. These stressors have been

studied both independently and in combination and include, among others, pesticides (Trigal

et al. 2007), major ions, nutrients and wastewater-associated micropollutants (Berger et al.

2018), polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) (Uher et al. 2016), pharmaceuticals and heavy

metals (Andreu et al. 2016), metals, ions and PAH in combination (Sun et al. 2018). The

distinctive feature of peri-urban ponds is that they are embedded in a human-dominated

matrix with different activities, which can be the source of multiple stressors. In peri-urban

areas, although ponds are not located far from each other, they might be exposed to different

dominant stressors or combine different categories of pollutants because of their small

catchment area (Biggs et al. 2017; Cereghino et al. 2008). In addition, contaminants in ponds

may change with time if the surrounding landscape is submitted to changes such as

urbanisation or temporary construction sites, or if it is exposed to new materials such as

nanomaterials or personal care product additives. Ponds may accumulate these

contaminants, particularly in their sediments and, consequently, freshwater life is affected by

changing contaminant cocktails.

Aquatic macroinvertebrates encompass a rich and diversified set of taxa that are universally

found in freshwater ecosystems. They exhibit a wide range of sensitivity to environmental

stressors and, as a consequence, their local diversity and abundance are commonly used as

indicators of perturbations (Sumudumali and Jayawardana 2021; Tachet et al. 2010). Aquatic

macroinvertebrates are mostly sedentary, at least during their larvae stage. They inhabit

different habitats and their life cycle, for the majority of macroinvertebrates, is annual (Tachet

et al. 2010). For these reasons, these organisms are good indicators of pollution, as the

recolonisation of perturbed areas takes time. Macroinvertebrate indices of water quality are

based on the presence-absence or abundances of macroinvertebrates. However, in addition

to the local diversity known as alpha diversity, spatial and temporal diversity give information

respectively about the spatial structuration and temporal changes of communities (Legendre

and Condit 2019). Thus, their spatial and temporal beta diversity might prove useful to assess

the impacts of stressors in changing peri-urban areas.

Here we report the results of a study in which we monitored 12 ponds in a peri-urban area

located in the Ile-de-France region (France). The chosen ponds were characterised by different

proportions of agricultural, urbanised, grassland and forest surfaces in a 100-m radius buffer.

We therefore aimed to link land use, contaminant concentrations in water and sediment as

well as macroinvertebrate distribution in ponds. Our objective was to understand whether

water and sediment pollutants and land-use characteristics are constraints to

macroinvertebrate distribution in ponds. To do so, we sampled macroinvertebrates and

measured pond quality parameters, including various urban and agricultural contaminants, to

quantify the main pesticides, pharmaceuticals, PAH and trace elements (TE) in water and

sediments. Depending on their chemical properties, contaminants may accumulate either in

water or in sediment. We therefore monitored both compartments. Nélieu et al. (2020)

showed that the water contamination profiles of these ponds differed depending on their

location, and that the agricultural landscape explained these differences more than urban land

uses. In some of the ponds, the environmental risk exceeded the thresholds of risk quotient

mainly due to pesticides (Nélieu et al. 2020). Here, we analysed the macroinvertebrate

communities and hypothesised that (1) local macroinvertebrate diversity is higher in ponds

located in environments dominated by grasslands and forests than in those dominated by

agriculture and urban areas; (2) ponds hosting rare and pollutant-sensitive macroinvertebrate

morphotaxa make a high contribution to regional diversity; and (3) water and sediment

contaminants influence morphotaxa distribution in ponds.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Study area

The selected study area is the Saclay Plateau (N: 48° 43' 59.99" E: 2° 10' 0.01), located in the junction zone between the Parisian agglomeration and its large surrounding plains. Until recently, the territory had a mainly agricultural vocation, although the ongoing development of a scientific and technological pole in the area has considerably increased the urban hold on the territory. At the same time, the Natural, Agricultural and Forest Protection Zone of the Saclay Plateau extending over more than 4,000 ha was created in 2010, thus perpetuating the agricultural use of land on the plateau. The Saclay Plateau thus presents major challenges in terms of the coexistence of urban and agricultural areas and biodiversity in a context of growing urbanisation. Within this plateau, we selected 12 ponds with surface areas ranging from 64 to 5,108 $m^2$ (mean ± SD: 896 ± 1,361 $m^2$; median: 566$m^2$) and with different potential exposures to agricultural and urban activities. The proportion of agricultural and urbanised surface around each pond was calculated in a 100 m radius buffer. As the aim was to study the effect on water quality of land use in the vicinity of ponds in a fairly fragmented landscape, we used a short-radius buffer. To calculate the different types of surface, we used the map of mainland France land cover produced by the Theia land data services using Sentinel 2 and Landsat 8 data (Theia 2017). The proportion of urbanised land was calculated by adding together three Theia categories: dense built-up areas, diffuse built-up areas and industrial and commercial areas. The proportion of agricultural land was calculated by adding two Theia categories: winter crops and summer crops. The remaining areas consist of forest and grassland. In the following, we refer arbitrarily to ponds A to L.

### 2.2 Sampling methods for invertebrates and for water and sediment

The sampling of invertebrates as well as water and sediment was systematically performed at

the same points in the 12 ponds. To ensure that water and sediment sampling and

invertebrate collection did not interfere with each other, they were carried out with a time

lag of about 1 week.

A preliminary analysis was conducted to determine the most appropriate timing for sampling

the invertebrates in the ponds. Several ponds were sampled every month from May to

October 2015 inclusive, which are the periods during which most species are active in our

geographical area. Eight of these ponds were included among the 12 ponds selected in our

study. Non-metric multi-dimensional scaling (NMDS) analysis of the collected taxa showed

that sampling in June and September covered almost all the diversity of the macroinvertebrate

species present in the ponds (Hanot, unpublished results). Sampling was thus performed in

June and September during 2016 and 2017 in the 12 ponds selected for the analysis. In the

following, we refer to the field campaigns as C1 (2016 June), C2 (2016 September), C3 (2017

June) and C4 (2017 September).

Macroinvertebrate sampling was carried out on two different main habitats on either side of

each pond to best represent the biodiversity of the ponds in a standardised manner. Sampling

was made using a pond-net with a 77 cm fiberglass handle, a trapezoid frame measuring 39 x

14 cm x 32 cm, a 1 x 1 mm mesh and a pocket depth of 40 cm. Samples were collected by

making an infinity symbol by hand eight times (i.e., a figure eight on its side), ending with a

fast move from the bottom to the top in the axis point of the symbol, to collect organisms

trapped in the vortex created by the sequence of movements. During this sequence, the frame

of the net pond was a few centimetres above the substratum, which allowed us to lift and

collect the benthos. To sample each pond in the same way, the same operator made the

movements at an arm's distance from the bank. In a small number of cases, the water level in

the ponds was too low to sample from the selected habitat. In this case, no collection was

made at this point or at any other to ensure that the samples were collected in the same

location during the entire study period.

During the collections in 2016, the content of the net pocket was quickly placed in a white

basin measuring 80 x 40 x 10 cm. All specimens were sorted by eye and fixed in absolute

ethanol 99% (Fisher Chemical, CAS 64-17-5) using entomological forceps. Collection stopped

when 5 min had elapsed without seeing any moving specimen. Thereafter, all samples were

kept at 7°C until the identification stage. During the 2017 campaigns, to speed up the sample

collection, water was squeezed from the net pocket as gently as possible to avoid destroying

the specimens, and the result was then fixed in absolute ethanol 99% in suitable containers

and kept at 7°C. Specimens were sorted using a Motic SMZ 171 binocular microscope and

entomological forceps, fixed again in absolute ethanol 99% and then kept at 7°C. Our sampling

protocol resulted in 88 invertebrate samples: 12 ponds x 2 points x 2 years x 2 seasons, minus

8 cases (4 ponds x 2 points) when the collection was not possible due to a low water level.

Invertebrate identifications (see next Section) were carried out separately for each sample.

In 2016 and 2017, in each of the 12 ponds, water and sediment samples were collected in

spring and autumn from the same two points selected for invertebrate sampling. The water

samples were taken approximately 1 m from the edge of the ponds using a stainless steel

beaker with an extendable handle. The sediment sampling was carried out using the same

device to collect the sediment surface.

**2.3 Identification of invertebrates**

Different books (Bameul 1985; Guignot 1947; Hansen 1987; Holmen 1997; Jansson 1986; Olmi

1976; Poisson 1957 ; Tachet et al. 2010) and websites (http://www.perla.developpement-

durable.gouv.fr/, http://coleonet.de) were used as a reference to perform the optical

identification of all specimens under a Motic SMZ 171 stereo microscope. Identifications were

made at the lowest possible taxonomic level. Specimens that could not be identified at the

species level were identified at a higher taxonomic level, while adding a numerical suffix when

more than one species was present (e.g., *Microvelia* sp.2). Because of these different levels of

determination, we hereafter refer to specimens as "morphotaxa", which are defined as taxa

that share the same morphological characteristics. When it was not possible to link the

different stages (larvae, nymph, adult) to the same species, they were assigned to different

morphotaxa. Some specimens of each taxon were kept in tubes of 2 mL, 5 mL or 40 mL

according to their size, in absolute ethanol 99%, to be used as a reference. This made it

possible to constitute a reference base for the invertebrates in the ponds by linking the

reference specimens with their morphotaxon names. Each specimen of each sample was then

identified using books, websites and the reference base. All specimens were counted by

morphotaxa for each sample.

**2.4 Determination of water and sediment quality parameters, including trace elements**

**and organic pollutants**

The choice of contaminants assessed here was based on the local activities: cereals, maize,

rapeseed, sunflower, orchard and vegetable crops for pesticides; nearby roads for TE and PAH;

and the presence of humans, farming, and domestic pets for pharmaceuticals. Samples were

used to determine the main physicochemical parameters, including major and TE as well as

organic contaminants (PAH, pesticides and pharmaceuticals) as described in Nélieu et al.

(2020).

For water samples, the following determinations were measured directly on site with probes:

pH, conductivity, temperature, dissolved oxygen (DO) and turbidity. Other data were obtained

rapidly in the laboratory (mainly within a day of sampling) using standardised methods:

dissolved organic carbon (DOC) by thermic oxidation and IR analysis of carbon dioxide,

chemical oxygen demand (COD, norm NF EN ISO 15705), suspended solids (SS, norm NF EN

872), nitrates ($NO_3^-$, norm NF EN ISO 10304-1), nitrites ($NO_2^-$, NF EN ISO 26777), total nitrogen

(TN) from the addition of Kjeldahl nitrogen (Kjeldahl method, norms NF EN 25663 and NF EN

ISO 11732) with nitrates and nitrites, total phosphorus (P, norm NF EN ISO 15681-2 and NF EN

ISO 6878.), anions (norm NF EN ISO 10304-1) and cations (norm NF EN ISO 14911), as well as

major and TE (norm NF EN ISO 17294-2: Al, As, B, Be, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sn, U and

Zn), 15 PAH, pesticides (25 herbicides, 1 safener, 7 fungicides and 2 insecticides) and 12

pharmaceuticals compatible with the multi-residue method applied after sample conservation

at -20°C (see the exhaustive list in Table S1). Details on the methods used for this

determination can be found in Nélieu et al. (2020).

Sediment samples were used to determine the contents in organic carbon (Corg), total

nitrogen (N) and thus C/N ratio (norms ISO 10694 and ISO 13878) as well as total major and

TE (after HF mineralisation and then ICP-AES or ICP-MS analysis according to the norm NF X

31-147/NF ISO 22036 - 17294-2), for the following: Cr, Cu, Ni, Zn, Co, Pb, Cd, Tl, Mo, Al, Ca, Fe,

K, Mg, Mn, Na, P ($P_2O_5$), Bi, In, Sb and Sn. All measurements were made in the Laboratory of

Soil Analysis of INRAe (Arras, France). The polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons were analysed

according to the European standard NF EN 16181 (2018) by pressurised liquid extraction and

HPLC-fluorescence quantification. The same pesticides, metabolites and pharmaceuticals

selected for analysis in water (Nélieu et al., 2020) were also monitored in sediments (see

Appendix 1 for the analysis methods used for sediments).

Not all the measured pesticides and pharmaceuticals were detected in water and sediment

(no detection or values below the quantification limits). Therefore, our study is based on

fifteen herbicides (Atrazine, Atrazine-desethyl, Simazine, Terbuthylazine, Terbuthylazine-

desethyl, Clomazone, Diflufenican, Napropamid, Acetochlore, Alachlore, Dimethachlore,

Metolachlore, Chlorsulfuron, Metsulfuron-methyl and Nicosulfuron), seven fungicides

(Boscalid, Dimoxystrobine, Epoxiconazole, Hexaconazole, Metconazole, Picoxystrobine,

Tebuconazole), two insecticides (Imidacloprid and Pyrimicarb) and one pharmaceutical

(Carbamazepine).

All the data were added to the Mendeley repository (DOI not yet available).

**2.5 Statistical analysis**

Prior to the data analysis, the invertebrate samples collected from both points in each pond

were pooled. This allowed us to produce a contingency table containing the number of each

morphotaxon for each pond and each sampling date. For the water quality parameters, TE

and organic pollutants, we computed the mean of the two sample point values. All statistical

analyses were performed with R 3.6.1 (Team 2020).

We performed analyses based on morphotaxa abundance and presence-absence. However,

due to differences in specimen determination levels, the analyses may be biased and should

therefore be taken with caution. To explore invertebrate community diversity, we computed

the morphotaxa richness (alpha diversity), Shannon diversity index and evenness for each

pond and each field campaign with the specnumber function in vegan 2.5-6 (Oksanen et al.

2019). We tested the effect of individual ponds and field campaign on these parameters with

an analysis of variance with additive effects of pond and field session followed by a pairwise

comparison with Tukey's HSD test.

To study the dissimilarities between invertebrate communities, we computed the total beta

diversity within each field campaign across all ponds using the beta.multi function of the

betapart package 1.5.2 (Baselga et al. 2020). The two additive components of beta diversity

namely, turnover and nestedness, reflect species replacement and species richness

difference, respectively (Baselga et al. 2020). The beta.multi function partitions the total beta

diversity into turnover and nestedness components.

We calculated the contribution of each pond to beta diversity, that is, the local contribution

to beta diversity (hereafter LCBD) following Legendre and Caceres (2013) using the beta.div

function of the adespatial package 0.3-8 (Dray et al. 2019). As pond dissimilarity may be

different if computed with the abundance or presence-absence (PA) of morphotaxa, we

calculated both using the Hellinger and Jaccard dissimilarity coefficients, respectively. The

LCBD values, which represent the uniqueness of a pond in terms of taxa composition, were

tested for significance with the null hypothesis of a random distribution of species among

ponds within a sampling campaign (Legendre and De Caceres 2013). We also computed the

species contributions to beta diversity (hereafter SCBD) to identify the morphotaxa that

contribute the most to beta diversity. This last index is calculated only with morphotaxa

abundance. We also explored the temporal beta diversity, that is, the variation of morphotaxa

diversity between two field campaigns using the temporal beta-diversity index (TBI) computed

using the TBI function of the adespatial package (Dray et al. 2019). The TBI is composed of the

morphotaxa losses (B) and the morphotaxa gains (C). The B-C plots were produced with the

plot.TBI function. The TBI were tested for significance (Legendre 2019).

To explore the relationship between the parameters describing diversity and land use, we

tested the proportion of urban, forested and agricultural areas on morphotaxa richness,

diversity, equitabilty and LCBD with a linear mixed effect model with the field campaign as a

random effect. We used the  lme4 package, v.1.1-23  (Capps et al. 2015).

Finally, we explored the relationship between the environmental parameters and the

macroinvertebrate assemblages to identify the parameters that best explain the community

structures. The concentrations of water TE, PAH and pharmaceuticals were very low, being at

the detection limit; for this reason, we did not include them in the analyses. Prior to the

analyses, to reduce the high number of TE in the sediments, we performed principal component analysis (PCA) in all ponds for the four field campaigns. The first two axes of the PCA explain 68.67% of the variability (Figure S1). The ponds are arranged on the first axis (TE1) from low to high TE concentrations. The second axis (TE2) discriminates ponds with high concentrations of TE (Sb, Cd) and those with high concentrations of major elements (Na, Mg, Fe). We collected the coordinates of each pond-field campaign combination for the first two axes of the PCA and then used them in the following statistical analyses as summaries of each contaminant group effects on ponds. We summed the concentration of the different PAH and used the total PAH concentration in the following analysis. We used redundancy analysis (RDA) (Borcard et al. 2011) and ran two analyses, one with the Hellinger-transformed abundances of morphotaxa and another with the PA of morphotaxa. In the RDA, the response matrix is the abundance or PA of morphotaxa in all ponds and the four field campaigns, whereas the explanatory matrix is the environmental parameters, including the contaminants for the same pond-field campaign combination. We used the following parameters in the RDA: (1) for water, conductivity, suspended matter, COD, DOC, concentrations of TN and phosphorus, orthophosphate, ammonium, organic carbon, herbicides and insecticides; and (2) for sediments, herbicides, fungicides, insecticides, pharmaceuticals, PAH and the first two PCA axes performed with TE.

We used the rda function of the vegan package v2.5-6 (Oksanen et al. 2019). We tested the significance of the two RDA results by the permutation of the overall analysis and each axis. The two RDA were significant with a threshold level of 5%. We tested for linear dependencies among the explanatory variables and computed the variance inflation factors (VIF) of the variables with the vif.cca function. We computed the adjusted $R^2$ with the RsquareAdj

329  function. The VIF was very high for several explanatory variables and so to reduce the

330  correlations between them, we computed a forward selection of the explanatory variables

331  using the forward.sel function. The method produces parsimonious models that we tested by

332  permutation and VIF.

## 3. Results

### 3.1 Morphotaxa richness, Shannon diversity index and evenness

In total, we identified 236 morphotaxa, which represent a total of 22 orders and 54 families including 13 orders and 42 families for arthropods and 8 orders and 37 families for insects (some morphotaxa could not be assigned to an order or family). The Baetidae *C. dipterum* was ubiquitous during campaigns C1, C2 and C3 but totally absent in C4. Morphotaxa diversity ranged from 7 to 49 with a median value of 25. Statistical analyses show a weak effect of pond on morphotaxa richness (Figure 1 and Table S2). Morphotaxa richness was significantly higher in pond J than in ponds E (p=0.023) and I (p=0.035). Morphotaxa richness changed between field campaigns (p≤ 0.001, Table S1), being significantly higher in C1 and C2 than in C4 (respectively p=0.004 and p=0.008). The Shannon index and evenness ranged from 1.07 to 2.9 and from 0.33 to 0.82, respectively. The field campaigns and ponds had no effect on the Shannon index. Only the field campaign had an effect on evenness (p=0.02) with a higher eveness in C4 than in C1 (p=0.02).

### 3.2 Beta diversity: Spatial dissimilarities between ponds

The total beta diversity based on morphotaxa PA was very similar for each field campaign with values between 0.92 and 0.93 (Table S3; for comparison, results for analyses based on morphotaxa abundances are in Table S2). The turnover, which reflects the level of species replacement between ponds as opposed to species loss, represents between 88% and 90% of this total beta diversity. The LCBD of each pond based on morphotaxa PA varied across the field campaigns (Figure 2, Table S3). Pond E makes a significant contribution to regional biodiversity in C1 and C2. Pond I makes a significant to highly significant contribution during the four field sessions and ponds J and L in C4 and C3, respectively.

**Figure 1. Morphotaxa richness (a), Shannon index (b) and evenness (c) in the 12 ponds for the four field sessions.** The legend for the four field sessions is given in panel (a). The horizontal segments in panel (a) link the ponds significantly different.

**Figure 2. Local contribution to beta diversity (LCBD) of each pond for the four field sessions.** The LCBD is computed with the presence-absence of morphotaxa. The LCBD are computed independently for each field session. The symbols show the significant contributions with: ***: p ≤ 0.001; **: 0.001<p ≤ 0.01; *: 0.01 < p ≤ 0.05.

To shed light on the LCBD results, we briefly present the Species (here morphotaxa) Contribution to Local Biodiversity (SCBD) based on morphotaxa abundances. The analysis reveals that a relatively low number of morphotaxa explains most of the dissimilarities between ponds. The 15 morphotaxa with the highest contributions are listed in Table S5 and the comprehensive list of morphotaxa SCBD is provided in Table S6. The 15 morphotaxa with the highest contributions account for 83%, 73%, 71% and 70% of the total SCBD in the C1, C2, C3 and C4 field campaigns, respectively. Some are common to all four campaigns (*Asellus* sp., two different *Chaoborus* sp., different Chironomini morphotaxa) or to three campaigns (*Cloeon dipterum*; Clitellata; *Physella acuta*; *Valvata macrostoma*,).

381 **Table 1. Results of the redundancy analyses (RA) parsimonious models**

| Variables | Cumulative adjusted R$^2$ | F value | *p* value |
|---|---|---|---|
| Water conductivity | 0.032 | 2.401 | 0.001 |
| Sediment pharmaceuticals | 0.057 | 2.111 | 0.001 |
| Water ammonium concentration | 0.077 | 1.922 | 0.006 |

**3.3 Relationship between land use, environmental parameters and macroinvertebrate**

**assemblages**

The linear mixed effect model testing the effects of the different types of land use around the

ponds on parameters characterising the macroinvertebrate diversity showed that equitability

increased significantly with the proportion of agricultural area in pond vicinity (p=0.026).

Morphotaxa richness and diversity, and LCBD were not significantly affected by land use.

To clarify the relationship between the environmental parameters for water and sediment

and the macroinvertebrate assemblages, we ran redundancy analysis (RDA) with morphotaxa

PA. The initial model with all the environmental parameters was significant (p = 0.009). As

some of these parameters had strong collinearities (as shown by the high VIF values), a

forward model selection procedure was used to obtain a more parsimonious model. The final

model describing the morphotaxa PA contained three explanatory variables:  conductivity,

pharmaceutical concentration in sediments and ammonium concentration in water (Table 1).

The parsimonious model is highly significant (Df = 3, 40, F-value = 1.740, p=0.002) with no

strong collinearity between the variables (all VIF are around 1) and can be decomposed into

one significant canonical axis (Figure 3). Pond C is associated with high concentration of

pharmaceuticals in the sediment; pond G is also associated with concentration of

pharmaceuticals in the sediment in addition to high water conductivity.

**Figure 3. Parsimonious redundancy analysis (RDA) based on morphotaxa presence-absence.** The biplots show the variables (blue arrows) with either the morphotaxa (numbers, panel a) or the ponds (letters, panel b). The number of morphotaxa is shown in brackets: Anophelinae 01 (17); *Asellus* sp. (19); Baetidae 02 (20); Ceratopogoninae 02 (31); *Chaoborus* sp. 01 (35); *Chaoborus* sp. 02 (36); Chironomini 04 (52); *Chironomus* sp. 01 (53); *Chironomus* sp. 02 (54); Clitellata 01 (59); *Cloeon dipterum* (60); *Coenagrion* sp.01 (62); *Dugesia* sp. 2 (93); *Erythromma viridulum* (99); Hesperocorixa 03 (137); *Hygrotus inaequalis* (157); *Physella acuta* (192); *Plea minutissima* (197); *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* (200); *Proasellus* sp. (201); and *Valvata macrostoma* (236). Conductivity: water conductivity; PharmaSed: concentration of pharmaceuticals in sediment; NH4: water ammonium concentration.

Pond J is associated with high water conductivity. Ponds, A, B, D, E, F, H, I, K and L are less

affected by environmental parameters although ponds K and L seem associated with low

water conductivity. A few morphotaxa stand out and are associated with some environmental variables (morphotaxa scores in the RDA are in Table S7). *Valvata macrostoma* is associated with high pharmaceutical concentrations in sediment; *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* is associated to high water conductivity; *Cloeon dipterum* and *Plea minutissima* are associated to both variables. Baetidae 02, *Chironomus* sp. 01, *Chironomus* sp. 02 and *Hygrotus inaequalis* are associated with ponds in which these environmental parameters have low values.

## Discussion

**4.1 Morphotaxa distribution in the ponds and effects of land use**

We changed our experimental design for macroinvertebrate sampling between the 2 years of the study. The results show a greater morphotaxa richness in the first year compared with autumn in the second year. The morphotaxa diversity was not affected and the eveness slightly affected by the field campaign. As a consequence, It is difficult to conclude on the effects of the protocol change, as the effects may be small or may have been buffered by an annual effect.

Our analysis is based on morphotaxa determined at different levels, which is open to criticism. The aim of our work is to compare the response of assemblages to the presence of pollutants and not to compare the diversity of the ponds studied with other ponds. In this sense, questions of determination level are less important, since the same precision has been maintained for all samples. Furthermore, studies on interaction networks have shown that the level of determination of specimens has little effect on network characteristics, provided that this level of determination does not fall below too high a threshold (Llopis-Belenguer et al. 2023; Renaud et al. 2020).

Among the 236 macroinvertebrate morphotaxa identified, we did not find endangered, vulnerable or even rare species. However, we observed exotic species: the molluscs *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* and *Physella acuta* and the crayfish *Procambarus clarkii* listed as an invasive alien species in the European Union (European Union 2016). Molluscs and crustaceans are the most frequent freshwater macroinvertebrate invaders (Oertli and Parris 2019; Patoka et al. 2017). The pet trade is one of the main introduction pathways, and both mollusc species can "hitchhike" on intended shipments (Patoka et al. 2017). One individual *P. clarkii* was found in pond F in C3. Pond F also hosted the two exotic molluscs, and pond J hosted *P. antipodarum*. We should stress here that pond F, though in a forested area, is located on the Paris-Saclay university campus with heavily frequented paths in close vicinity. The campus is open to the public, which may favour the dissemination of invasive species.

Overall, our results show that the ponds distributed along an urbanisation gradient are quite dissimilar, as beta diversity relies mostly on morphotaxa turnover with a comparable morphotaxa diversity. No pond stands out consistently across the four sampling campaigns in terms of the morphotaxa contribution to regional diversity except for pond I and, to a lesser extent, pond E. The LCBD indicates the uniqueness of communities either because they are rich and host typical species or because they are degraded with a limited number of common species (Legendre 2014; Legendre and De Caceres 2013). Here, the uniqueness highlighted by the significant LCBD points to degraded ponds. For instance, pond I has a low diversity, and its most striking feature is the absence of Baetidae in C4, whereas the mean abundance in other ponds was 81.2 individuals (± 47 SD). Despite the restrictions described above, we have calculated the SCBD, based on morphotaxa abundances, because it supports the idea that some ponds stand out because they are degraded. The lists of morphotaxa contributing the

most to regional diversity encompass common morphotaxa, some of which are characteristic

of degraded communities such as Chironomidae, *Chaoborus* sp., *C. dipterum*, and so on. For

instance, in C2, pond C was characterised by high abundances of *Chaoborus* sp. 01, *C.*

*dipterum*, *Corixa* sp. and *V. macrostoma*, and pond E by *C. dipterum*, Orthocladiinae and

Tanytarsini 01. Pond L in C3 had a low diversity and was dominated by *Notonecta* sp. 01. The

uniqueness of a community as shown by a high LCBD may also indicate the presence of

invasive species (Legendre 2014). However, the two ponds hosting exotic species as well as an

invasive species had no significant LCBD values.

We initially hypothesised that local macroinvertebrate diversity is higher in ponds located in

rural areas than in those located in agricultural or urban areas. This hypothesis is supported

by different studies (Blicharska et al. 2017; Johnson et al. 2013; Noble and Hassall 2015;

Thornhill et al. 2017). However, our results do not support this hypothesis, as we found only

an effect of the proportion of agricultural area on morphotaxa eveness. Our results likewise

do not support the second hypothesis regarding rare and pollutant-sensitive morphotaxa, as

we do not observe any of them. On the contrary, we found invasive and exotic species. LCBD

values could help to identify these ponds (Legendre 2014), although they only identified pond

J, probably because of the very high density of *P. antipodarum*.

**4.2 Effects of environmental parameters on macroinvertebrate assemblages**

Our results showed that among the numerous environmental parameters and pollutants

measured in water and sediment, very few are critical for macroinvertebrate assemblages in

ponds. The concentration of pharmaceuticals in sediment and water conductivity are the most

structuring parameters. Although these results should be treated with caution, the analysis

with morphotaxa abundances reveal other important parameters as the concentration of

fungicides in sediment as well as MTE1, insecticides, organic carbon, and COD in water. Nélieu

et al. (2020) highlighted the high environmental risks due to water column pesticide

concentrations in several ponds, pesticides other than insecticides do not seem to be critical

factors to explain the macroinvertebrate assemblages observed here. In contrast to sediment

pollution, pollutants measured in the water column provide a snapshot into water quality;

sediment pollution is relatively stable over time, and the measurements are more reliable as

an indicator of pollution level (Casey et al. 2007; Sun et al. 2019). Conductivity is a general

indicator of the presence of many ions in the solution, which is consistent with urban pollution

associated with de-icing salts and TE (Brand et al. 2010; Oertli and Parris 2019; Wu et al. 2020).

Surprisingly, conductivity is not associated with TE concentrations in our study, suggesting that

these two factors do not filter morphotaxa in the same way in different ponds. Conductivity

is associated with forest pond J and, to a lesser extent pond G,in addition to Ceratopogoninae,

*P. antipodarum* and *P. minutissima*. Though in a rural area, pond J is bordered by a road, which

may explain the high conductivity..

Based on morphotaxa abundances, we found two groups of parameters, COD and TE1, in

water on the one hand, and fungicide and pharmaceuticals in sediment with dissolved

insecticides on the other, generally in the same ponds but at different sampling campaigns.

These ponds include G, C, B and E. Ponds B, C and E are located in an agricultural area, ponds

C and G are near a farm and pond G is near a medical centre. The Chironomidae

Orthocladiinae, the mayfly *C. dipterum*, the mollusc *V. macrostoma* and the Annelid *Clitellata*

sp. characterise the assemblages found in these ponds. These morphotaxa, in particular

Chironomidae and Annelids, are typical of aquatic systems embedded in a degraded

environment (Hill and Wood 2014; Mackintosh et al. 2015; Wood et al. 2001)

When considering the PA of morphotaxa, water conductivity is associated with pond J

described above.

Compared with the analysis based on abundances, ponds C and G are characterised by high

concentrations of pollutants (i.e., pharmaceuticals and fungicides in the sediment). Another

set of ponds is associated with with high water conductivity and major ion concentrations.

This set includes pond J and, to a lesser extent, ponds A, K and L, characterised by the presence

of the dipterans Ceratopogoninae, *Chaoborus* sp. and *Chironomus* sp., the Heteroptera *P.*

*minutissima* and the Crustacea *Proasellus* sp. These ponds are mostly surrounded by

grasslands and forest, with pond K being the most urbanised pond with nearby dwellings. This

points to diffuse pollution associated with road traffic and occasional human activities. In both

analyses, the ubiquitous *C. dipterum* is distinguished by its association with high dissolved ion

concentrations and, to a lesser extent, by pharmaceuticals in sediment.

Legendre (2014) recommends using PA dissimilarity coefficients when community

assemblages are characterised by a high turnover and quantitative indices when the

assemblages differ in terms of abundances rather than species diversity. In our study, the high

turnover in macroinvertebrate assemblages favours an analysis based on PA, thus concluding

the RDA with the least factors: pharmaceuticals sediment and conductivity and ammonium

concentration in water. Our third hypothesis is thus partially validated, as contaminants allow

us to discriminate several ponds characterised by certain morphotaxa.

**4.3 Characteristics of the peri-urban environment**

The absence of a clear relationship between land use and morphotaxa diversity suggests that

the presence of roads, buildings, or impervious surfaces in close vicinity to the ponds is not a

critical parameter to explain the observed patterns of morphotaxa diversity at the regional

scale. Instead, traces of particular activities influence morphotaxa diversity. For instance, pond

A is located in a forest, which explains the hunting cartridges found in and around the pond.

We did not find a high level of contaminants in this pond, although its conductivity may be

due to the cartridges. Situated between a forest and fields, pond L is not far from residential

buildings; people walk to this pond and brush their dogs there (we found a bristle of hairs),

also allowing them to swim in the water. In this pond, Nélieu et al. (2020) found high

imidacloprid concentrations, which is a veterinary pharmaceutical used to treat dog fleas and

ticks. Ponds B and C are both located near farms. We observed that the farmer washed his

tractor and equipment in one pond, with the wastewater running off into the pond. Pond G is

located near a farm and medical centre where carbamazepine, a human anti-epileptic, is used.

Pharmaceuticals are markers of human activities, and carbamazepine, which is resistant to

biodegradation, is only used by humans (Kasprzyk-Hordern et al. 2009). These observations

illustrate the multi-functionality of peri-urban areas with a mixture of different users

(Friedmann 2016; Zoomers et al. 2017) at the local scale. Peri-urban ponds combine

contaminants typical of rural and urban environments, that is, a runoff of excess nitrogen (and

phosphorus) and an influx of heavy metals and salt from road applications (Wanek et al. 2021).

To this list, we may add pesticides and pharmaceuticals.

In their review, Oertli and Parris (2019) showed the diversity of criteria used to quantify the urbanisation of a site (presence of buildings, roads, etc.). We suggest here that local and recurrent human actions may blur these categories, particularly in semi-urban areas. Though embedded in a semi-natural matrix, peri-urban ponds are easily reached and may encounter small, chronic and various perturbations. Several authors have advocated for well-managed urban ponds to provide high-quality habitats and support greater biodiversity (Oertli and Parris 2019; Perron et al. 2021). Peri-urban areas tend to be well described, and their potential contribution to sustainable development thus becomes more evident (Wandl and Magoni 2017). As the water quality of peri-urban ponds tends to be more similar to urban ponds than rural ones (Wanek et al. 2021), efforts should be made to manage these systems, especially since they connect rural and urban systems in the blue grid. The use of the LCBD is an interesting approach to identify the ponds to restore (Legendre 2014).

## 1. Conclusion

Our study of macroinvertebrates and water and sediment contaminants in 12 peri-urban ponds over 2 consecutive years reveals a high morphotaxa turnover with the absence of rare and pollutant-sensitive morphotaxa. The macroinvertebrate assemblages were relatively stable, and those contributing the most to regional biodiversity are typical of degraded ponds. The pollutants best describing macroinvertebrate PA in assemblages are pharmaceuticals in sediment and conductivity and ammonium concentration in water. Although an environmental risk due to water column pesticides could be estimated, this factor is not structuring for macroinvertebrate community. Peri-urban areas are characterised by multi-functionality with a mixture of different uses and users. Ponds located in these environments

581  are exposed to various human activities, leading to small, chronic and diverse contaminations

582  that affect macroinvertebrate abundance and community structure.

**2. Acknowledgments**

Sébastien Breuil and Amélie Trouvé (Ecosys Versailles) are thanked for their help in sampling

and packaging during all the campaigns and for DOC analysis. Nathalie Bernet (Ecosys

Thiverval-Grignon) is acknowledged for PAH analysis. Philippe Beguinel and Henri Roche

(CEA) are thanked for their advice in carrying out the project and their participation in the

trace analyses. We would like to thank Yves Levi for his support and enriching discussions.

We thank Aurélie Goutte and two anonymous reviewers for their detailed comments, which

greatly improved the article. This work was supported by the PSDR4 program.

**Data, scripts, code, and supplementary information availability**
594

595 All the data and scripts are available online: Not accessible during the peer-review process.
596 Supplementary information is available online on BioRXiv.
597
598

599 **Conflict of interest disclosure**
600 The authors declare that they comply with the PCI rule of having no financial conflicts of
601 interest in relation to the content of the article. The authors declare the following non-
602 financial conflict of interest: Isabelle Lamy is a recommender of PCI Ecotoxicology.
603

604 **Funding**
605 This work was supported by the Region Ile-de-France (PSDR 4 IDF program, Project ID
606 "Dynamiques") and the labex BASC.

**References**

Andreu, V., E. Gimeno-Garcia, J. A. Pascual, P. Vazquez-Roig & Y. Pico, 2016. Presence of
   pharmaceuticals and heavy metals in the waters of a Mediterranean coastal wetland:
   Potential interactions and the influence of the environment. Science of the Total
   Environment 540:278-286 doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.08.007.

Bameul, F., 1985. Les Gyrinus de la Faune de france (Col. Gyrinidae) (Première partie).191-199.

Baselga, A., D. Orme, S. Villeger, J. De Bortoli, F. Leprieur & M. Logez, 2020. Betapart: Particitioning
   Beta Diversity Into Turnover and Nestedness components.

Berger, E., P. Haase, R. B. Schaefer & A. Sundermann, 2018. Towards stressor-specific
   macroinvertebrate indices: Which traits and taxonomic groups are associated with
   vulnerable and tolerant taxa? Science of the Total Environment 619:144-154
   doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.11.022.

Biggs, J., S. von Fumetti & M. Kelly-Quinn, 2017. The importance of small waterbodies for biodiversity
   and ecosystem services: implications for policy makers. Hydrobiologia 793(1):3-39
   doi:10.1007/s10750-016-3007-0.

Blicharska, M., J. Andersson, J. Bergsten, U. Bjelke, T. Hilding-Rydevik, M. Thomsson, J. Osth & F.
   Johansson, 2017. Is there a relationship between socio-economic factors and biodiversity in
   urban ponds? A study in the city of Stockholm. Urban Ecosyst 20(6):1209-1220
   doi:10.1007/s11252-017-0673-2.

Borcard, D., F. Gillet & P. Legendre, 2011. Numerical ecology with R. Springer.

Brand, A. B., J. W. Snodgrass, M. T. Gallagher, R. E. Casey & R. Van Meter, 2010. Lethal and Sublethal
   Effects of Embryonic and Larval Exposure of Hyla versicolor to Stormwater Pond Sediments.
   Arch Environ Contam Toxicol 58(2):325-331 doi:10.1007/s00244-009-9373-0.

Capps, K. A., K. A. Berven & S. D. Tiegs, 2015. Modelling nutrient transport and transformation by
   pool-breeding amphibians in forested landscapes using a 21-year dataset. Freshwater Biology
   60(3):500-511 doi:10.1111/fwb.12470.

Casey, R. E., J. A. Simon, S. Atueyi, J. W. Snodgrass, N. Karouna-Renier & D. W. Sparling, 2007.
   Temporal trends of trace metals in sediment and invertebrates from stormwater
   management ponds. Water Air Soil Pollut 178(1-4):69-77 doi:10.1007/s11270-006-9132-z.

Cereghino, R., J. Biggs, B. Oertli & S. Declerck, 2008. The ecology of European ponds: defining the
   characteristics of a neglected freshwater habitat. Hydrobiologia 597:1-6 doi:10.1007/s10750-
   007-9225-8.

Clarke, A., R. Mac Nally, N. Bond & P. S. Lake, 2008. Macroinvertebrate diversity in headwater
   streams: a review. Freshwater Biology 53(9):1707-1721 doi:10.1111/j.1365-
   2427.2008.02041.x.

Davies, B., J. Biggs, P. Williams, M. Whitfield, P. Nicolet, D. Sear, S. Bray & S. Maund, 2008.
   Comparative biodiversity of aquatic habitats in the European agricultural landscape.
   Agriculture Ecosystems & Environment 125(1-4):1-8 doi:10.1016/j.agee.2007.10.006.

Dray, S., D. Bauman, G. Blanchet, D. Borcard, S. Clappe, G. Guénard, T. Jombart, G. Larocque, P.
   Legendre, M. Madi & H. Wagner, 2019. adespatial: Multivariate multiscale spatial analysis. R
   package version 0.3–8. https://cran.r-project.org/package=adespatial.

European Union, 2016. Commission Implementing Regulation (EU) 2016/1141 of 13 July 2016
   adopting a list of invasive alien species of Union concern pursuant to Regulation (EU) No
   1143/2014 of the European Parliament and of the Council. In: EU (ed) 32016R1141. vol
   C/2016/4295.

Friedmann, J., 2016. The future of periurban research. Cities 53:163-165
   doi:10.1016/j.cities.2016.01.009.

Guignot, F., 1947. Coléoptères Hydrocanthares, vol 48, Faune de France edn. Faune de France.

Hansen, M., 1987. The Hydrophiloidea (Coleoptera) of Fennoscandia and Denmark, vol 18. Brill.

Hill, M. J. & P. J. Wood, 2014. The macroinvertebrate biodiversity and conservation value of garden
and field ponds along a rural-urban gradient. Fundamental and Applied Limnology
185(1):107-119 doi:10.1127/fal/2014/0612.
Holmen, M., 1997. The Aquatic Adephaga (Coleoptera) of Fennoscandia and Denmark, Volume I.
Gyrinidae, Haliplidae, Hygrobiidae and Noteridae : Gyrinidae, Haliplidae, Hygrobiidae and
Noteridae, vol 20. Brill.
Jansson, A., 1986. The Corixidae (Heteroptera) of Europe and some adjacent regions, vol 47.
Johnson, P. T. J., J. T. Hoverman, V. J. McKenzie, A. R. Blaustein & K. L. D. Richgels, 2013. Urbanization
and wetland communities: applying metacommunity theory to understand the local and
landscape effects. Journal of Applied Ecology 50(1):34-42 doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12022.
Kasprzyk-Hordern, B., R. M. Dinsdale & A. J. Guwy, 2009. Illicit drugs and pharmaceuticals in the
environment - Forensic applications of environmental data, Part 2: Pharmaceuticals as
chemical markers of faecal water contamination. Environ Pollut 157(6):1778-1786
doi:10.1016/j.envpol.2009.02.019.
Le Viol, I., J. Mocq, R. Julliard & C. Kerbiriou, 2009. The contribution of motorway stormwater
retention ponds to the biodiversity of aquatic macroinvertebrates. Biological Conservation
142(12):3163-3171 doi:10.1016/j.biocon.2009.08.018.
Legendre, P., 2014. Interpreting the replacement and richness difference components of beta
diversity. Global Ecology and Biogeography 23(11):1324-1334 doi:10.1111/geb.12207.
Legendre, P., 2019. A temporal beta-diversity index to identify sites that have changed in exceptional
ways in space-time surveys. Ecology and Evolution 9(6):3500-3514 doi:10.1002/ece3.4984.
Legendre, P. & R. Condit, 2019. Spatial and temporal analysis of beta diversity in the Barro Colorado
Island forest dynamics plot, Panama. Forest Ecosystems 6:7 doi:10.1186/s40663-019-0164-4.
Legendre, P. & M. De Caceres, 2013. Beta diversity as the variance of community data: dissimilarity
coefficients and partitioning. Ecology Letters 16(8):951-963 doi:10.1111/ele.12141.
Llopis-Belenguer, C., J. A. Balbuena, I. Blasco-Costa, A. Karvonen, V. Sarabeev & J. Jokela, 2023.
Sensitivity of bipartite network analyses to incomplete sampling and taxonomic uncertainty.
Ecology 104(4):14 doi:10.1002/ecy.3974.
Mackintosh, T. J., J. A. Davis & R. M. Thompson, 2015. The influence of urbanisation on
macroinvertebrate biodiversity in constructed stormwater wetlands. Science of the Total
Environment 536:527-537 doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.07.066.
Meland, S., Z. Sun, E. Sokolova, S. Rauch & J. E. Brittain, 2020. A comparative study of
macroinvertebrate biodiversity in highway stormwater ponds and natural ponds. Science of
the Total Environment 740: 140029 doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020. 140029.
Noble, A. & C. Hassall, 2015. Poor ecological quality of urban ponds in northern England: causes and
consequences. Urban Ecosyst 18(2):649-662 doi:10.1007/s11252-014-0422-8.
Oertli, B. & K. M. Parris, 2019. Review: Toward management of urban ponds for freshwater
biodiversity. Ecosphere 10(7): e02810 doi:10.1002/ecs2.2810.
Oksanen, J., F. G. Blanchet, M. Friendly, R. Kindt, P. Legendre, D. McGlinn, P. R. Minchin, R. B. O'Hara,
G. L. Simpson, P. Solymos, M. H. H. Stevens, E. Szoecs & H. Wagner, 2019. vegan: Community
Ecology Package. R package version 2.5-6.
Olmi, M., 1976. Fauna d'Italia, Coleoptera, Dryopidae - Elminthidae, vol XII, Edizioni Calderini Bologna
edn.
Patoka, J., O. Kopecky, V. Vrabec & L. Kalous, 2017. Aquarium molluscs as a case study in risk
assessment of incidental freshwater fauna. Biological Invasions 19(7):2039-2046
doi:10.1007/s10530-017-1412-6.
Perron, M. A. C., I. C. Richmond & F. R. Pick, 2021. Plants, water quality and land cover as drivers of
Odonata assemblages in urban ponds. Science of the Total Environment 773: 145467M
doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.145467.
Poggi, S., F. Vinatier, M. Hannachi, E. S. Sanz, G. Rudi, P. Zamberletti, P. Tixier & J. Papaix, 2021. How
can models foster the transition towards future agricultural landscapes? In Bohan, D. A. & A.

J. Vanbergen (eds) Future of Agricultural Landscapes, Pt Ii. Advances in Ecological Research, vol 64. Elsevier Academic Press Inc, San Diego, 305-368.

Poisson, R., 1957. Hétéroptères aquatiques, vol 61, Faune de France edn. Faune de France.

Reid, A. J., A. K. Carlson, I. F. Creed, E. J. Eliason, P. A. Gell, P. T. J. Johnson, K. A. Kidd, T. J. MacCormack, J. D. Olden, S. J. Ormerod, J. P. Smol, W. W. Taylor, K. Tockner, J. C. Vermaire, D. Dudgeon & S. J. Cooke, 2019. Emerging threats and persistent conservation challenges for freshwater biodiversity. Biological Reviews 94(3):849-873 doi:10.1111/brv.12480.

Renaud, E., E. Baudry & C. Bessa-Gomes, 2020. Influence of taxonomic resolution on mutualistic network properties. Ecology and Evolution 10(7):3248-3259 doi:10.1002/ece3.6060.

Scheffer, M., G. J. van Geest, K. Zimmer, E. Jeppesen, M. Sondergaard, M. G. Butler, M. A. Hanson, S. Declerck & L. De Meester, 2006. Small habitat size and isolation can promote species richness: second-order effects on biodiversity in shallow lakes and ponds. Oikos 112(1):227-231 doi:10.1111/j.0030-1299.2006.14145.x.

Sumudumali, R. G. I. & J. Jayawardana, 2021. A Review of Biological Monitoring of Aquatic Ecosystems Approaches: with Special Reference to Macroinvertebrates and Pesticide Pollution. Environ Manage 67(2):263-276 doi:10.1007/s00267-020-01423-0.

Sun, Z.H., J. E. Brittain, E. Sokolova, H. Thygesen, S. J. Saltveit, S. Rauch & S. Meland, 2018. Aquatic biodiversity in sedimentation ponds receiving road runoff - What are the key drivers? Science of the Total Environment 610:1527-1535 doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.06.080.

Sun, Z. H., M. Majaneva, E. Sokolova, S. Rauch, S. Meland & T. Ekrem, 2019. DNA metabarcoding adds valuable information for management of biodiversity in roadside stormwater ponds. Ecology and Evolution 9(17):9712-9722 doi:10.1002/ece3.5503.

Tachet, H., P. Richoux, M. Bournaud & P. Usseglio-Polatera, 2010. Invertébrés d'eau douce, systématique, biologie, écologie. CNRS Editions.

Team, R. C., 2020. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. . R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.

Theia, 2017. Pôle thématique surfaces continentales. In. https://theia.cnes.fr/ Accessed November 13, 2017.

Thornhill, I., L. Batty, R. G. Death, N. R. Friberg & M. E. Ledger, 2017. Local and landscape scale determinants of macroinvertebrate assemblages and their conservation value in ponds across an urban land-use gradient. Biodiversity and Conservation 26(5):1065-1086 doi:10.1007/s10531-016-1286-4.

Trigal, C., F. Garcia-Criado & C.-F. Alaez, 2007. Macroinvertebrate communities of mediterranean ponds (North Iberian Plateau): importance of natural and human-induced variability. Freshwater Biology 52(10):2042-2055 doi:10.1111/j.1365-2427.2007.01805.x.

Uher, E., C. Mirande-Bret & C. Gourlay-France, 2016. Assessing the relation between anthropogenic pressure and PAH concentrations in surface water in the Seine River basin using multivariate analysis. Science of the Total Environment 557:551-561 doi:10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.03.118.

Wandl, A. & M. Magoni, 2017. Sustainable Planning of Peri-Urban Areas: Introduction to the Special Issue. Planning Practice & Research 32:1-3 doi:10.1080/02697459.2017.1264191.

Wanek, A., C. L. M. Hargiss, J. Norland & N. Ellingson, 2021. Assessment of water quality in ponds across the rural, peri-urban, and urban gradient. Environmental Monitoring and Assessment 193: 694 doi:10.1007/s10661-021-09471-7.

Williams, P., M. Whitfield, J. Biggs, S. Bray, G. Fox, P. Nicolet & D. Sear, 2004. Comparative biodiversity of rivers, streams, ditches and ponds in an agricultural landscape in Southern England. Biological Conservation 115(2):329-341 doi:10.1016/s0006-3207(03)00153-8.

Wood, P. J., M. T. Greenwood, S. A. Barker & J. Gunn, 2001. The effects of amenity management for angling on the conservation value of aquatic invertebrate communities in old industrial ponds. Biological Conservation 102(1):17-29 doi:10.1016/s0006-3207(01)00087-8.

Wu, T. H., G. W. Zhu, M. Y. Zhu, H. Xu, Y. L. Zhang & B. Q. Qin, 2020. Use of conductivity to indicate long-term changes in pollution processes in Lake Taihu, a large shallow lake. Environmental Science and Pollution Research 27(17):21376-21385 doi:10.1007/s11356-020-08590-x.

763 Zoomers, A., F. van Noorloos, K. Otsuki, G. Steel & G. van Westen, 2017. The Rush for Land in an
764   Urbanizing World: From Land Grabbing Toward Developing Safe, Resilient, and Sustainable
765   Cities and Landscapes. World Dev 92:242-252 doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2016.11.016.