

Biotic and abiotic drivers of aquatic plant communities in shallow pools and wallows on the sub-Antarctic Iles Kerguelen

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2 the sub-Antarctic Iles Kerguelen

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24 Author contributions statement

Agency (ANR).

- 25 AKB, FMB, LS, DR, and CS conceived and designed research. AKB and PD collected the
- 26 data. FV performed the chemical analyses of the samples. AKB, PED, and SD analysed data.
- 27 All authors contributed to the writing and approved the manuscript.

28 Abstract

In the sub-Antarctic region, climate change is particularly rapid, while their freshwater 29 ecosystems, such as ponds, host plant species with limited spatial distributions. These 30 31 particular systems and their plant communities remain however poorly known and the context of their changing habitat calls for deeper insights into these systems. We performed an 32 extensive survey of 45 ponds over three locations of the Iles Kerguelen during the winter and 33 summer seasons of two years, which included the measurement of 12 abiotic parameters and 34 the assessment of the plant community composition. Overall, our results showed that Iles 35 Kerguelen ponds are shallow freshwater ecosystems harboring species-poor plant 36 communities with high evenness, of which structure did not vary among the sampled 37 locations. Three different habitats were identified among ponds in relation with nutrient 38 supply by marine animals, which ultimately influenced plant community structure and cover. 39 40 We highlight that these habitats are mostly determined by water depth, nutrients, and temperature (mean and variance). Present plant community composition was more strongly 41 42 correlated with plant community composition in the previous year than with abiotic conditions. Overall, this study provides new knowledge on the aquatic plant communities and 43 the functioning of Iles Kerguelen freshwater ecosystems, which can serve as a basis for future 44 45 studies dealing with the impact of climate change in the sub-Antarctic region.

46

47 Keywords

48 Aquatic plants; Ponds; Seasonality; Plant community structure; Habitat; Spatio-temporal49 variability.

50 Introduction

There is now ample evidence that climate change affects a broad range of organisms (see e.g. 51 Walther et al. 2002), with severe effects for plant species in freshwater habitats (Lacoul and 52 Freedman 2006). In polar regions, including the sub-Antarctic region, climate change is 53 particularly rapid (Lebouvier et al. 2011; Leihy et al. 2018), calling for deeper insights into 54 sub-Antarctic ecosystems, characterized by species with restricted spatial distributions (Frenot 55 et al. 2001; van der Putten et al. 2010; Chau et al. 2021). This seems especially true for 56 freshwater ecosystems harboring aquatic plant species. Indeed, to our knowledge, their 57 ecology remains poorly known, probably because of technical difficulties associated with 58 sampling in harsh climatic conditions and remote locations. 59

Freshwater ecosystems of the sub-Antarctic region include numerous rivers and lakes, 60 but aquatic plants preferentially colonize shallow and lentic systems of small sizes, *i.e.* ponds 61 62 (Hennion et al. 1994) including elephant seal wallows. So far, most works dealing with sub-Antarctic aquatic plants have focused on their morphological (Hennion et al. 1994; Hennion 63 and Walton 1997) and genetic variations (Siljak-Yakovlev et al. 2020; Chau et al. 2021), 64 while no study has considered community assembly mechanisms. Nevertheless, two main 65 processes, dispersal and environmental filtering, often play key influences on plant 66 community assembly through space and/or time (Vellend 2010). Yet, the actual influence of 67 these processes in sub-Antarctic ponds has never been tested. Dispersal and environmental 68 filtering in sub-Antarctic ecosystems should be strongly modulated by the specific traits of 69 aquatic plants, and by the harsh environmental conditions encountered by the species. 70 Dispersal in the sub-Antarctic aquatic plant species appears limited, as they do not display 71 specific adaptations to zoochory, and seem alternatively prone to hydrochory (Hennion and 72 73 Walton 1997). Dispersal limitation usually results in spatial differentiation in plant communities. Specificities of climate and ecosystem functioning in the sub-Antarctic region 74

suggest that temporal (*i.e.* seasonal) variations in abiotic parameters may differ from what is usually observed in regions and habitats from lower latitudes (Smith 1985). In particular, Hennion et al. (1994) reported that alternating periods of evaporation and heavy precipitation (seasonality) resulted in frequent and sometimes drastic fluctuations in the water depth of ponds of the sub-Antarctic Iles Kerguelen. It is thus likely that these seasonal variations of the pond habitat characteristics ultimately result in temporal modifications of the plant community composition.

Seasonal variations of water depth should therefore shape pond habitat per se or by 82 modulating other physical and chemical parameters (Lacoul and Freedman 2006). Ponds are 83 84 small water bodies, and as such, their physical and chemical characteristics would highly differ from larger sub-Antarctic water bodies, such as lakes (see e.g. Camacho 2006; Saunders 85 et al. 2008). Changes in water temperature, which are linked to pond size (Bornette and 86 87 Puijalon 2011), should be especially critical in the rapidly warming sub-Antarctic region (Lebouvier et al. 2011). Water temperature influences not only plant metabolism (Bornette 88 89 and Puijalon 2011) but also microbial processes involved in nutrient cycling (MacKay et al. 90 2009; Biddanda 2017; Velthuis et al. 2017), as well as the concentrations of dissolved gasses (Bornette and Puijalon 2011). Additionally, ponds are enriched by nutrients conveyed by 91 marine animals, with these enrichments being temporarily variable depending on animal 92 migrations (Smith and Froneman 2008). Characterizing water depth, water temperature, and 93 nutrient availability within these freshwater ecosystems is thus crucial to improve our 94 understanding of the drivers of the assembly of aquatic plant community through time. 95

The current lack of knowledge on the sub-Antarctic aquatic biodiversity combined with recent works demonstrating that sub-Antarctic plants are already strongly affected by climate change (Le Roux et al. 2005; Frenot et al. 2006; Le Roux and McGeoch 2008; Bergstrom et al. 2015) call for scrutinizing how variations in abiotic and biotic characteristics

of ponds drive plant community assembly. Indeed, there is now ample evidence of climate 100 change across the sub-Antarctic region. In the Iles Kerguelen and Marion Island, temperatures 101 have increased while annual precipitation is strongly reduced (Lebouvier et al. 2011; 102 McClelland et al. 2018). In Macquarie Island, however, summers and winters become 103 respectively drier and wetter (Bergstrom et al. 2015). Given that under harsh environmental 104 conditions, the abiotic filter is known to be a strong driver of plant community composition, 105 in particular within sub-Antarctic terrestrial ecosystems (Bazzichetto et al. 2021; Momberg et 106 107 al. 2021), it is critically important to characterize and monitor the main abiotic parameters that are known to affect the physiological status, and thus survival, of aquatic plants like 108 109 Ranunculus species (Hennion et al. 2012; Labarrere et al. 2019).

A preliminary large field prospection performed during the Austral summer 2017, 110 together with the existing literature (Hennion et al. 1994), indicated that the ponds located 111 112 along the shore are the main habitat for aquatic plant species at the Iles Kerguelen. Thus, in this study, we surveyed the aquatic plant communities of 45 ponds over three locations across 113 114 the shore of the main island of the Iles Kerguelen over two years. We expected that (i) pond plant communities should vary both through time (season, year) and space (location) in the 115 Iles Kerguelen because of the stochastic impacts of marine animals on nutrient dynamics in 116 ponds, and the low dispersal ability of aquatic plant species, reducing potential community 117 homogenization among ponds; (ii) water depth, water temperature, and nutrient availability 118 should be major parameters characterizing ponds habitat; and (iii) under the harsh climatic 119 conditions of the archipelago, abiotic characteristics of ponds should prevail over biotic ones 120 (past plant community composition), in determining the present plant community 121 composition. 122

123

124 Materials and methods

125 *Study area*

126 This study was conducted on the main island of the Kerguelen archipelago (hereafter referred to as 'Kerguelen') located in the sub-Antarctic region (South Indian Ocean) (48°30'00" to 127 50°00'00" S, 68°27'00" to 70°35'00" E). The climate is characterized by cool temperatures 128 (annual mean of 4.6 °C with little variation over the year, from 2.1 °C to 7.7 °C) (Frenot et al. 129 2001, 2006; Lebouvier and Frenot 2007), and low to abundant precipitations *i.e.* ranging from 130 500 mm to 3200 mm per year along an East-West gradient (Frenot et al. 1998). However, 131 Kerguelen currently experiences rapid climate change with increasing mean and variability of 132 temperatures, and strongly reduced precipitation (Lebouvier et al. 2011). Overall, this leads to 133 134 harsh environmental conditions for species adapted to cold and stable temperatures.

We focused on the shallow freshwater ponds located near the eastern shoreline, including elephant seal wallows. These ponds are supplied with water largely by rainfall, and with nutrient inputs from marine animal (mostly elephant seals and birds) (Smith and Froneman 2008). These specific habitat conditions are comparable to those found in Spit Bay seal wallows of Heard Island (Bergstrom and Selkirk 2000).

140 Overall, the Kerguelen are characterized by a low species richness, hosting 22 native Angiosperms only (van der Putten et al. 2010). Based on the literature (Schotsman 1961; 141 Lourteig 1952, 1964; Hennion and Couderc 1992; Hennion et al. 1994), six perennial plant 142 species were expected to occur in the ponds, although aquatic plant communities of the 143 Kerguelen have never been thoroughly described so far. These six aquatic plant species were: 144 Limosella australis R.Br. (Scrophulariaceae), Callitriche antarctica Engelm (Plantaginaceae), 145 Juncus scheuchzerioides Gaudich. (Juncaceae), and three species of Ranunculaceae: 146 Ranunculus biternatus Smith, R. pseudotrullifolius Skottsb., and R. moselevi Hook.f. 147 Individuals of these six species are able to horizontally propagate through clonal growth (van 148 Groenendael et al. 1996). Due to water depth fluctuations, we also anticipated that additional 149

non-aquatic plant species (*i.e.* species that usually colonize terrestrial habitat) would colonizeponds from their edges.

152

153 *Field survey*

Sampling was conducted from the Austral summer 2018 to the Austral summer 2020, at three 154 locations on the main island of the Kerguelen archipelago. The locations were distributed 155 along the sea shore at low altitudes, and described a West-East gradient: Molloy, Isthme Bas, 156 157 and Cap Ratmanoff (Table 1, Fig. S1). Location flatness and proximity to the sea shore allows the presence of sea animals. At each location, fifteen ponds were randomly selected to 158 describe a gradient of pond size (Table 1, Fig. S2). Size was variable among ponds but also 159 within ponds, due to important fluctuations of water depth (Hennion et al. 1994). GPS 160 coordinates (precision of 1 m) of pond positions were recorded at each location. These 161 162 positions were then used in GIS (QGis 3.20.3) to calculate the distances between ponds and the sea shore as a proxy for the frequency of visitation by marine animals. 163

Within each pond and at each sampling date, we randomly positioned three to five 1 164 m^2 -quadrats to measure a range of biotic and abiotic parameters. The number of quadrats 165 depended on the pond size: five quadrats were realized for ponds whose surface was $>5m^2$, 166 while three to four quadrats were used for ponds $<5m^2$. At each sampling date, quadrat 167 positions and size allowed to sample both ponds' edges and centers. To characterize the 168 composition of pond plant communities, the abundance (i.e. percentage of quadrat surface 169 covered) of the different species, and of bare soil, were estimated for each quadrat. All these 170 abundances were recorded twice a year, once in November, and another time in May, which 171 correspond to the beginning and to the end of the vegetation growth season, respectively. This 172 growing season (November-April) will hereafter be referred as to summer, while the rest of 173 the year (May-October) will corresponds to winter (Bergstrom et al. 2015). In addition, 174

physical and chemical parameters were measured every three months, in November, 175 February, May, and August over the two consecutive years of the study. Within each quadrat, 176 we measured the mean water depth (based on three measurements), pH, specific conductance, 177 178 and mean dissolved oxygen concentration (calculated from three measurements performed near the surface, in the middle of the water column, and at the bottom of the pond; HQ20, 179 HACH_{TM}, Dusseldorf, Germany). At each pond, one 30 mL-water sample, and one 50 mL-180 sediment sample were also collected for further nutrient analyses in the lab. For these two 181 samples, water and sediments were collected from several points within the pond to account 182 for possible heterogeneity in nutrient distribution. 183

184

185 *Nutrient analyses*

After collection, water and sediment samples were stored at 6 °C and brought within 24h to the laboratory. Water samples were further filtered through Whatman GF/F filters (pore size: 0.7μ m, Cytiva, Amersham, United Kingdom). All samples (water and sediments) were then stored at -20 °C for several weeks before chemical analyses. N–NH₄⁺, N–NO₃⁻ and P–PO₄³⁻ concentrations were determined based on standard colorimetric methods (Grasshoff et al. 1983) using a sequential analyzer (SmartChem200, AMS Alliance, Frépillon, France).

Nitrogen and organic carbon concentrations in sediments were measured following the 192 "capsule" method (Brodie et al. 2011). Specifically, an amount of five mg (± 10%) of 193 homogeneous sediment was acidified with 2M HCl in silver capsules to eliminate carbonates. 194 Liquids were then evaporated on a 65 °C hot plate for 12 hours, before the entire drying out of 195 capsules at 80 °C for a few days. Carbon and nitrogen analyses were then performed using an 196 elementary analyzer (FlashEA 1112 NC Analyzers®, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, 197 198 Massachusetts, USA). Following Ni et al. (2016), available organic phosphorus was extracted from 50 mg of dry sediment samples with 5 ml of NaOH (1 M). After extraction during 16 199

hours on a rotatory shaker at room temperature, the supernatant was collected, and its pH was
stabilized at 7 with addition of HCl (4 M). The extracted P that has been converted into
orthophosphate was quantified using the molybdate/ascorbic acid blue method (Murphy and
Riley 1962), and results were reported in mg of available P (phosphorus available to plant
growth) per g of dry sediment.

205

206 Water temperature simulation

207 Water temperature was recorded every half hour (HOBO Pendant MX2202, ONSET_{TM}, Cape Cod, Massachusetts, USA) from September 2020 to October 2021, in the middle of the water 208 column of each pond. We performed linear regression analyses to determine the relationship 209 between water temperature within each pond and air temperature recorded at the 210 meteorological station of the Kerguelen (Météo France 2020-2021 records, Port-aux-211 212 Français), after confirming normality of the distribution of model residuals. All relationships between air and water temperatures were significant ($R^2 \ge 0.55$; P < 0.05), with the exception 213 214 of two ponds. These relationships were then used to infer water temperature occurring during 215 the whole study period (summer 2018-2020) based on Météo France 2018-2020 records.

From these estimated data, we calculated the mean and the variance (square of standard deviation) of daily water temperatures over a period of three months *i.e.* between two dates separating other abiotic parameters measurements.

219

220 Data analyses

Before statistical analyses, abiotic parameters and plant species abundances recorded from different quadrats per pond were averaged for each sampling date. We used plant species abundances to calculate their relative frequencies *i.e.* proportion of vegetation cover occupied by the species. Species richness, Shannon diversity, and evenness (Pielou index) of plant community were calculated using the *vegan* R package (Oksanen et al. 2016). Pairwise correlations between these indexes were tested using non-parametric Spearman's rank correlation tests. Species richness and evenness were not correlated while Shannon diversity was strongly correlated with the two other indexes (r > 0.75, and P < 0.05). We therefore removed Shannon diversity from subsequent analyses.

We tested the effects of year, season, and location (Molloy, Isthme Bas, and Cap Ratmanoff) on the two community indexes using general mixed-effect models with pond as random factor (Bolker et al. 2009). Richness index was square-rooted to satisfy normal distribution of residuals. The statistical significance of the fixed factors and their interactions was determined through type II ANOVA. Calculation of marginal and conditional R^2 associated to the model was performed with the *performance* R package (Nakagawa et al. 2017).

237 We further used Between-Classes Principal Component Analysis (BCA-PCA; Dolédec and Chessel 1987) as implemented in the ade4 R package (Dray et al. 2007; 238 239 Thioulouse et al. 2018) to quantify the amount of variance delivered by time (season, year) 240 and space (location, pond) and explaining plant community composition (i.e. relative frequencies of plant species in each pond at each sampling date). BCA-PCA belongs to the 241 constrained analysis techniques (ter Braak and Verdonschot 1995) and is a particular case of 242 PCA in which the sample grouping (e.g. in time or space) is accounted for in the analysis. The 243 index characterizing the effect of time (or space) is quantified by between-class variance, 244 which represents the ratio of the amount of variance explained by the sample grouping and the 245 total variance among samples. Between-class variance was tested against simulated values 246 obtained after 9,999 permutations of the rows of the plant species composition tables and 247 allowed to assess the significance of the effects of year, season, location, and pond on plant 248 community composition. 249

To characterize the habitat of plant species, we performed Principal Component 250 251 Analysis (PCA) on the pond abiotic parameters using the FactoMineR R package (Lê et al. 2008), followed by Hierarchical Clustering on PCA scores (Ward method based on Euclidean 252 253 distances) to discriminate pond clusters based on abiotic parameters. The mean of each abiotic parameter was then compared between clusters through ANOVA tests based on general linear 254 255 models, and significant differences between clusters were assessed through Tukey HSD post*hoc* tests (P < 0.05). A similar procedure was applied to determine the relationships between 256 257 clusters and (i) the plant community indexes, and (ii) the total vegetation cover within the pond. The parameter values were log or arctan transformed when necessary, to satisfy the 258 259 assumption of the normal distribution of residuals.

To investigate the relationships between plant community composition and abiotic 260 parameters across seasons, we used the STATICO method (Simier et al. 1999; Thioulouse et 261 262 al. 2004). The method has been shown to be useful to investigate the temporal dynamics of the relationship between environment and diatoms (Mendes et al. 2009), Copepods (Marques 263 264 et al. 2011), and macroinvertebrate assemblages (Shieh and Chi, 2010). This method allows the simultaneous analysis of several pairs of tables in one run. In our case, we had four tables 265 *i.e.* two seasons (for each season, we averaged the measurements of two dates) across two 266 years, from summer 2018 to winter 2020 (see Fig. S3). This multivariate method combines 267 the potential of (i) co-inertia analysis that allows matching two tables providing a new table 268 (cross-covariance table), which describes the covariance between each environmental variable 269 and each plant species (Dolédec and Chessel 1994; Dray et al. 2003), and (ii) partial triadic 270 analysis allowing the simultaneous analysis of several tables in one run with the aim of 271 depicting their similarity (Thioulouse and Chessel 1987), i.e. in our case, across seasons and 272 years. In practice, the first step (co-inertia analysis) crossed the two tables (*i.e.* the physical 273 and chemical parameters and the plant community composition) associated to each season of 274

each year. This step ended up with the production of four cross-covariance tables depicting 275 276 the covariance between each environmental variable and each plant species, at each season of each year. In a second step, the series of cross-covariance tables (one per season and per year) 277 278 were analyzed with partial triadic analysis, looking for temporal variations in the speciesenvironment relationships. The strengths of these relationships between plant communities 279 and abiotic parameters across seasons were then assessed using the Rv-coefficient, which is a 280 multidimensional equivalent of the ordinary correlation coefficient between two variables 281 (Robert and Escoufier 1976). We further evaluated the statistical significance of each of the 282 four computed Rv-coefficients by a random permutation test using 999 replicated matches of 283 two tables (after random permutations of array rows), and we compared the observed Rv-284 coefficient and the distribution of values obtained from permutations. 285

Finally, to assess the relative contributions of biotic (plant community composition of 286 287 preceding seasons) vs. abiotic (physical and chemical parameters of preceding seasons) characteristics of ponds to the variability of the plant community composition observed at a 288 289 given date, we used the analysis proposed by Townsend et al. (2003) and used by de Castro et al. (2017). This analysis was performed between the plant community composition recorded 290 in summer 2020 (at the end of the survey), and the biotic and abiotic characteristics of ponds 291 from summer 2018 to summer 2020. Let PCPi and PCCi denote respectively the physico-292 293 chemical parameter table and the plant community composition table at the *ith* sampling date, and consider PCC_{S20} as the plant community composition table in summer 2020. Assuming 294 295 that the physico-chemical parameters at the *ith* sampling date would be a more efficient driver of the plant community composition in summer 2020 than the plant community composition, 296 we tested the null hypothesis $Rv(PCPi,PCC_{S20}) = Rv(PCCi,PCC_{S20})$ against the alternative 297 $Rv(PCPi,PCC_{S20}) > Rv(PCCi,PCC_{S20})$ and we performed bootstraps on the statistics t =298 Rv(PCPi,PCC_{S20}) - Rv(PCCi,PCC_{S20}) using 999 replicates. We assessed the statistical 299

300 significance of the observed difference between pairs of *Rv*-coefficient by comparing it to the 301 distribution of the simulated values. We used this approach for the 36 pairs of potential 302 differences between the four physical and chemical parameters and the four plant community 303 composition tables.

All data simulations and statistical analyses were performed using R 4.1.2. (R Core Team 2021).

306

307 **Results**

308 Description of plant communities within ponds at Kerguelen

Pond plant communities of the Kerguelen were characterized by a low species richness (S), 309 and a high evenness (E). On average, ponds provide a habitat for five to six plant species, 310 while evenness was on average > 0.7 suggesting that plant species displayed similar relative 311 312 frequencies. Marginal R² indicated that year and season explained a very low percentage of species richness and evenness variance respectively, while these indices did not vary with 313 314 location (Table 2). However, pond explained a large percentage of variance of both indices 315 (conditional R², Table 2). Species richness was higher in the second sampling year $(S_{summer2019}=5.77 \pm 1.27; S_{winter2020}=5.64 \pm 1.26)$ as compared with the first one 316 ($S_{summer2018}$ =5.45 ±1.33; $S_{winter2019}$ =5.22 ±1.57), while evenness slightly increased in winter 317 $(E_{winter2019}=0.81 \pm 0.14; E_{winter2020}=0.79 \pm 0.12)$ compared to summer $(E_{summer2018}=0.76 \pm 0.15;$ 318 $E_{summer2019}=0.72 \pm 0.16$). 319

Analyzing the composition of plant communities showed that relative frequencies of aquatic species varied from 0.00 to 0.35 across all locations and dates of sampling (Figs. 1, S4). Overall, the most abundant aquatic species was *Juncus scheuchzerioides* while the rarest ones were *Limosella australis* and *Ranunculus moseleyi*. *R. moseleyi* was almost absent from the three sampled locations during the two winter periods, suggesting that the species was sensitive to seasonal variations in environmental factors. Non-aquatic species altogether [*i.e. Poa annua*, *Acaena magellanica*, *Agrostis magellanica*, and *Montia fontana*] generally
dominated pond communities with mean relative frequencies ranging from 0.20 to 0.55 (Figs.
1, S4).

The first three axes of the BCA-PCA performed on the mean relative frequencies of 329 plant species, explained 49.3% of total inertia. Permutation tests revealed that the season had 330 no significant effect on plant community composition in ponds (between-class variance = 331 0.011; *simulated-P* > 0.05), while the year and the location respectively explained only 1.0%332 (between-class variance = 0.010; simulated-P=0.046) and 7.1% (between-class variance = 333 0.070; simulated-P=0.001) of their variation. In contrast, a high proportion of variation in 334 plant community composition (*i.e.* between-class variance= 0.595; *simulated-P*=0.001) was 335 explained by differences among ponds, suggesting that mechanisms driving plant community 336 337 structure operated at the local scale of the pond.

338

339 *Physical and chemical characteristics of ponds*

340 Kerguelen ponds appeared as shallow freshwater ecosystems (mean water depth < 16cm, although they can easily exceed 30 cm in depth depending on rain supply) with highly 341 variable availability in nutrients (Tables 3, S1). pH was very close to neutral on average but 342 its range indicated strong variation between ponds of the same location (Table 3). Water 343 temperature was cool and overall stable among days (mean temperature and temperature 344 variance, Tables 3, S1) but variations in pond size and water depth could cause strong within-345 day variation (up to ±10 °C, A.-K. Bittebiere - field observation). Locations and time (year, 346 season) affected all these physical and chemical parameters with varying strengths (Tables 3, 347 S1, S2), either alone or in interactions, with no general pattern in the observed responses. For 348 instance, all abiotic parameters varied with the sampling year except NH_4^+ , and this response 349

additionally depended on the season (mean and variance of water temperature, specific conductance, dissolved oxygen, C/N, N_{tot}) and/or the location (temperature variance, dissolved oxygen, PO_4^{3-}). Yet, most of the variance in physical and chemical parameters was explained by ponds (Table S2).

We performed a PCA on all abiotic parameters measured in the ponds. The first-354 three axes explained 46.7% of total variance (Fig. 2). The first axis described the trophic 355 status of ponds based on water and sediment nutrient concentrations, and dissolved oxygen 356 concentration (Fig. 2a), while the second and third axes were related to physical parameters, 357 (temperature variance and water depth on the one hand, mean temperature and pH on the 358 other hand; Fig. 2b). We detected three different pond clusters regardless of time (year, 359 season), and locations (Table S3). Cluster 1 corresponded to ponds with a high variance in 360 water temperature together with high concentrations of dissolved oxygen, low concentrations 361 of phosphorus (bioavailable P in sediments and PO_4^{3-}) and nitrogen (N_{tot} in sediments, NH₄⁺, 362 NO₃) (Fig. 2c). Cluster 2 was characterized by the deepest water, low temperature variance, 363 and intermediate concentrations of phosphorus (bioavailable P and PO₄³⁻) (Fig. 2c). Cluster 3 364 was related to occasionally extreme values in nutrient concentrations in water and sediments 365 $(NH_4^+, NO_3^-, PO_4^{3-})$, and bioavailable P), high water temperature and low dissolved oxygen. 366

We detected a significant difference in pond distance to sea shore among pond clusters (ANOVA, $F_{2/332}=25.4$, P < 0.001; Fig. 3a). Ponds of clusters 2 and 3 were significantly closer to sea shore than ponds of cluster 1. In addition, the total vegetation cover significantly changed with the pond cluster (ANOVA, $F_{2/164}=13.8$, P < 0.001; Fig. 3b). Indeed, ponds of cluster 1 had significantly lower vegetation cover than those of cluster 2, while cluster 3 showed intermediate vegetation cover. Regarding plant community structure, species richness did not depend on the pond cluster (ANOVA, $X_{1/165}=1.7$, P > 0.05; Fig. 3c), while evenness was respectively the highest and the lowest in ponds of cluster 2 and 1, those

of cluster 3 displaying an intermediate evenness (ANOVA, $F_{2/164}$ =8.0, P < 0.001); Fig. 3d).

376

377 Abiotic and biotic drivers of plant community composition

The composition of the plant community was significantly related to the physical and 378 chemical parameters of ponds with a slightly stronger response in summer compared to winter 379 (Table 4). No strong covariation of relative frequencies was detected among aquatic plant 380 species (Figs. S5a, c, e, g). The plant community composition was similar in summers 2018 381 and 2019 (Figs. S5a, e), and more seasonally stable during the second sampling year in 382 383 comparison with the first year (Figs. S5a, c, e, g). In addition, plant community composition was very similar between locations of sampling (Figs. S6a, c, e, g). Importantly, regardless of 384 the sampling season and year, bioavailable P (P_{bio}) and total N (N_{tot}) in the sediments, together 385 386 with the variance of daily water temperature were the strongest drivers of the plant community composition unlike mean water temperature (Figs. S5b, d, f, h). Ponds with higher 387 388 water temperature variance among days were preferentially inhabited by Juncus 389 scheuchzerioides (summer 2018-2019 and winter 2020; Figs. S5a, e, g). During winter, the importance of abiotic parameters for plant community composition was more variable across 390 sampling years, but nitrogen availability in water and sediments seemed determinant (N_{tot}, 391 392 and NO_3^- or NH_4^+) (Figs. S5d, h). Sampling locations were mostly differentiated by the abiotic parameters especially along the second STATICO axis (Fig. S6) *i.e.* by the specific 393 conductance of water (winter 2019 and summer 2019, Figs. S5d, f), and by the availability in 394 NH₄⁺ (winter 2020, Fig. S5h). 395

Most tested relationships between the present (summer 2020) and past (summerwinter 2018-2020) physical and chemical parameters and plant community composition, and the present plant community composition (summer 2020; Table 5) were statistically

significant, indicating the influence of past physical and chemical parameters (in winter and 399 summer 2019 only), and of all past plant community compositions on present plant 400 community composition. The differences in Rv-coefficients between plant community 401 composition and physical and chemical parameters were all negative when significant (Table 402 S4), indicating that the relationships between present and past plant community compositions 403 were overall stronger than the relationships between present plant community composition 404 and present and past physical and chemical parameters. In addition, plant community 405 composition of the two preceding seasons (winter 2020 PCC_{M20} and summer 2019 PCC_{N19}) 406 similarly influenced present plant community composition (summer 2020). Indeed, 407 differences in the strengths of the relationships between present plant community composition 408 and PCC_{M20} on the one hand, and PCC_{N19} on the other hand, were not significant (Table S4). 409

410

411 **Discussion**

In this study, indices of plant community structure mostly varied between ponds with an additional low effect of time (either season or year depending on the index). Water depth, water temperature, and nutrient availability were the major parameters differentiating sub-Antarctic ponds habitat. Surprisingly, and contrary to our hypothesis, abiotic characteristics of ponds did not prevail over biotic characteristics in determining the plant community composition.

418

419 *Pond habitats and their plant communities through space and time*

The studied ponds were shallow freshwater ecosystems characterized by intermediate level of specific conductance and dissolved oxygen concentration, which were consistent with rainfall supply. Indeed, Voisin et al. (2018) showed that specific conductance of urban wetlands receiving stormwater runoff ranged from 50 to 200 μ S.cm⁻¹. Nutrient availability in the water

was highly variable, and pH was on average close to neutral (*i.e.* softwater habitat; see Lacoul 424 425 and Freedman 2006) although the maximal and minimal values indicate heterogeneity among the ponds, likely reflecting different levels of photosynthetic activity (e.g. Buapet et al. 2013). 426 At similar latitudes, equivalent mean values of pH were recorded within lakes of the 427 Macquarie and Kerguelen islands (Tyler 1972), and of South Georgia (Hansson et al. 1996). 428 However, these ecosystems display higher specific conductance and lower phosphate 429 concentration (Hansson et al. 1996) than that observed in our studied ponds. Phosphorus 430 appears to be the limiting nutrient as usually observed in freshwater systems (Toivonen and 431 Huttunen 1995; Sarneel et al. 2011). Indeed, the mean N:P atomic ratio in the water column 432 (using N-NH₄⁺, N-NO₃⁻ and P-PO₄³⁻ concentrations reported on Table 3) was strongly higher 433 (55:1) than the Redfield N:P ratio of 16:1, suggesting that P was a more limiting nutrient for 434 primary producers than N (Geider and La Roche 2002). Mean daily temperature of water was 435 436 about 4.7 °C, and was similar on average among consecutive days, albeit strong within days' variations were recorded. 437

Location and time (year, season) affected all of the considered physical and chemical 438 parameters measured from the ponds with varying strengths, either alone or in interaction. 439 Although we could not detect any general pattern in the observed changes through location 440 441 and time, we evidenced that pond explain a large part of the variability in most physical and chemical parameters. These complex patterns may result from factors such as variations in 442 pond morphometry (pond size, depth) (Hanson et al. 2007; Nõges 2009) and climatic 443 conditions (air temperatures, rainfall) (Dodds et al. 2019) interacting through space and time, 444 although this hypothesis remains to be thoroughly tested. 445

The studied ponds were poorly colonized by plants, with only five to six species being present, which is consistent with former studies performed at high latitudes on aquatic ecosystems (Lacoul and Freedman 2006; Heino and Toivonen 2008). Field observations also

reveal the presence of algae and cyanobacteria in these systems (AK. Bittebiere, field 449 450 observations). Plant species like Poa annua and Acaena magellanica colonized ponds from their edges, likely benefiting from more frequent decrease in water depth related to rainfall 451 452 reduction (Casanova and Brock 2000). These species even became the most frequent, although not dominant (high evenness), probably because they display faster expansion rate 453 than the aquatic species like Ranunculus biternatus and R. pseudotrullifolius (Chapuis et al. 454 2004). Different mechanisms were suggested to explain high evenness of aquatic plant 455 communities in the literature, such as low pressure of vegetative propagules, high water level 456 (Li et al. 2015), or disturbance (e.g. through grazing, reducing the dominance of the most 457 abundant species) (Wood et al. 2012). In the shallow ponds of Kerguelen, as all species are 458 clonal, we can hypothesize that disturbance, probably by sea animals, is the mechanism 459 460 preventing species from becoming dominant.

461 Contrary to our expectations, this composition of pond communities did not vary much at the spatial scale, suggesting that aquatic species dispersal was not limited within 462 Kerguelen (Capers et al. 2010). Our observations reveal that most variation of the plant 463 community composition was actually detected among ponds, and not between sites. 464 Mechanisms driving pond community assembly thus operated at local scale, likely involving 465 466 abiotic and biotic filters (Violle et al. 2012) such as water trophic level (Alahuhta 2015) and species interactions (Sarneel et al. 2011). Based on our results, we argue that future studies of 467 pond systems of the Iles Kerguelen, have to be conducted at this spatial scale. 468

469

470 *Different pond habitats*

Three pond clusters, *i.e.* habitats, related expectedly to water nutrients, water depth, and temperature, could be discriminated across ponds. Importantly, not only the mean temperature, but also its variance, determined pond habitats. These differences could be, at

least partially, explained by the distance to sea shore, *i.e.* by the frequency of visitation by sea 474 animals such as elephant seals and penguins. Indeed, inland ponds that were the most distant 475 from the sea shore (cluster 1) displayed the lowest nutrient concentrations. By contrast, ponds 476 477 close to the sea shore, *i.e.* more easily reachable by sea animals, showed intermediate (cluster 2 - coastal ponds) to high concentrations of phosphorus (P bioavailable, PO₄³⁻) and nitrogen 478 (N_{tot}, NH_4^+, NO_3) leading to eutrophication episodes associated with high water temperature, 479 and involving low dissolved oxygen (cluster 3 - wallows). Differences in nutrient availability 480 between coastal ponds and wallows may have resulted from stochastic visitation of different 481 sea animals. Indeed, penguins and elephant seals may supply pond water into varying source 482 of nitrogen (NH_4^+, NO_3^-) , urea, and uric acid) that can be differentially assimilated by plant 483 species (Erskine et al. 1998). In addition, seasonal variation in feeding habits and use of ponds 484 of sea animals (Cherel et al. 2007) may explain the observed nitrogen dynamics in water and 485 486 sediments. This interpretation suggests that these ecosystems rely heavily on trophic exchanges with surrounding oceanic waters, as suggested by Smith (2008) and Lebouvier et 487 488 al. (2011). Similar influence of sea animals that deposit substantial amount of feces, urine, and molted skin or feathers together with carcasses, have been demonstrated in other 489 Antarctic and sub-Antarctic ecosystems such as terrestrial grasslands at Marion Island 490 (Panagis 1985) or larger freshwater ecosystems (lakes) in the Antarctic (Smith 1985). 491 Interestingly, the habitat differentiation that we have highlighted here, occurred within 492 restricted area (at the location scale) along a few hundred meters. 493

Ultimately, changes in pond habitat caused variations in plant community structure and aquatic ecosystem functioning. Coastal ponds (with intermediate level of nutrient availability) had higher vegetation cover and evenness compared to wallows and inland ponds. In plant communities with low evenness, fertilization usually enhances the dominance of already successful competitors, and accelerates local extinction rates (Wilsey and Polley 499 2004). However, in our studied ponds, dominance within plant communities was low and the 500 different species were equally abundant. It has been shown in the literature that sea animal 501 fertilization could enhance species persistence, by increasing population sizes (Hillebrand et 502 al. 2007) and stimulating greater plant growth. Nevertheless, higher fertilization did not seem 503 to benefit to plant cover in the present survey, probably because of eutrophication 504 phenomenon, involving water turbidity that would have limited light availability.

Finally, our results reemphasize the tight trophic interaction that exists between marine and terrestrial ecosystems at the sub-Antarctic islands (Smith 1985; Convey and Lebouvier 2009). Elephant seals may additionally structure aquatic plant communities through trampling and soil compaction (Tejedo et al. 2009) although this effect was not considered in our study. To this end, this suggests that decrease in sea animal populations, as observed for example in Macquarie Islands (Hindell et al. 2017), could have serious impacts on the plant community dynamics in ponds (Jenkin 1997; Erskine et al. 1998).

512

513 *Physical and chemical parameters of ponds determine plant community composition*

514 Our result showed how the physical and chemical parameters of ponds could drive plant community composition. This abiotic control appeared slightly stronger in summer, *i.e.* the 515 516 growing season, than in winter, and was mostly attributed to the availability of nutrients in 517 sediments (P_{bio}, N_{tot}) and to the variance in daily water temperature within ponds, regardless of the sampling season and the year. In Kerguelen, water temperature appears independent 518 from pond area and water depth (Douce et al., 2023). Ponds with higher variation in water 519 temperature among days were preferentially inhabited by J. scheuchzerioides, suggesting that 520 this aquatic species could be more tolerant than the five others to the instability of 521 522 temperatures resulting from climate changes of Kerguelen, although this assertion remains to be tested. This finding additionally raises the question of the ability of the other species to 523

cope with these changes in the upcoming years (Lebouvier et al. 2011). Aquatic plant species found in the sub-Antarctic region have restricted distribution areas (*R. moseleyi* may even be endemic to Kerguelen) (Hennion et al. 1994; Chau et al. 2021), and conservation issues are also of concern in the face of climate change. More widely, since aquatic plants play a major role in the functioning of freshwater ecosystems (Jeppesen et al. 1997; Iacarella et al. 2018; Reitseman et al. 2018; Lürig et al. 2020), the resistance of pond ecosystem to the on-going rising of water temperature is highly questionable.

A new finding emanated from our study, which demonstrated that the past abiotic 531 conditions in ponds acted more significantly on the present plant community composition 532 than present abiotic conditions. However, and contrary to our expectations, these abiotic 533 conditions did not prevail on the past plant community composition in determining the present 534 plant community composition. Indeed, it may be expected that under the harsh abiotic 535 536 conditions of Kerguelen combined to the high variability in pond abiotic parameters observed through years and seasons, abiotic conditions would be the strongest determinant of plant 537 538 community composition. The effect of past plant community composition in aquatic plants 539 can be explained by two non-mutually exclusive hypotheses related to their clonal properties (as studied communities were dominated by perennials). First, aquatic plants display both 540 ramets and connections of which lifespans exceed the year, ensuring the stability of their 541 population sizes (Winkler and Fischer 2002; Stöcklin and Winkler 2004) within ponds. 542 Connections are in particular involved in resources storing (carbohydrates) through time, to 543 support further individual growth (Stuefer and Huber 1998, 1999). Second, clonal plants are 544 545 known to integrate their past interactions and adjust their present growth accordingly (Turkington et al. 1991; Bittebiere and Mony 2015), ultimately determining their persistence 546 547 within the present community (Bittebiere and Mony 2015). This process is based on the availability of resources: ramets share information on resource depletion by neighbors within 548

the clone, depending on the integration distance that mimic the duration of clone memory of the habitat conditions (Louâpre et al. 2012). Therefore, longer term studies are needed to precisely determine the actual duration of the influence exerted by abiotic and biotic parameters on pond plant communities.

553

554 *Conclusions*

To our knowledge, this study is the first focusing on pond ecosystems at Kerguelen. It provides new insights on the relationships between the dynamics and functioning of pond plant communities and their habitat, which can serve as a basis for future studies dealing with the impact of climate change within the whole sub-Antarctic region. Indeed, other archipelagos like Prince Edward Islands (Chau et al., 2021), and Heard and MacDonald Islands (Bergstrom and Selkirk 2000) harbor the same aquatic species and pond habitats.

561 In particular, we have demonstrated the importance of past abiotic and biotic parameters on pond plant communities, highlighting the need for long-term studies dedicated 562 to these threatened ecosystems, especially in a context of climatic warming. Our study 563 additionally showed that water temperature variability influences plant community 564 composition and subsequently the whole pond ecosystem. This result motivates for 565 conducting new studies on the mechanisms underlying the responses of aquatic plants to 566 567 temperature by investigating how thermal stress may affect plant growth (Riis et al. 2012) and physiological strategies (Arbona et al. 2013). 568

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855

Table 1. Description of the surveyed ponds at the three locations. Means and ranges of pond

	Molloy	Isthme Bas	Cap Ratmanoff
Latitude, longitude	49.36°S - 70.06°E	49.36°S - 70.24°E	49.32°S - 70.53°E
Mean altitude of ponds above sea (±SD, m, $N = 15$)	11.2 (8.4)	3.4 (2.6)	8.8 (3.6)
Mean pond size (\pm SD, m ² , $N = 45$)	58.9 (±56.9)	140.3 (±344.7)	54.0 (±62.9)
Pond size range (min-max, m^2 , $N = 45$)	2.4 - 166.5	4.8 - 1,252.2	2.9 - 164.6
859			

size were calculated based on measurements replicated on three consecutive years.

Table 2. Variations of plant community indexes in space (location) and time (year, season) assessed with mixed-models and pond as random factor. The significance of the explanatory variables was determined by ANOVA tests. Marginal R^2 indicates the percentage of index variance explained by the fixed effects; Conditional R^2 indicates the percentage of index variance explained by the whole model (including fixed and random effects).

	Margina	Condition	Yea	ar	Sea	son	Loc	atio	Year×	Seaso	Year×I	Locatio	Season×	Locatio	Year×Se	ason×Locati
	1 R ²	al R ²	(df=	-1)	(df	=1)	r	1	r	1	n	l	n	l I		on
							(df	=2)	(df	=1)	(df=	=2)	(df=	=2)	(0	lf=2)
			X ²	Р	X ²	Р	X ²	Р	X ²	Р	X ²	Р	X ²	Р	X ²	Р
Richness	0.07	0.48	6.	*	1.7	ns	2.8	ns	0.2	ns	2.3	ns	0.5	ns	2.3	ns
			1													
Evenness	0.07	0.50	3.	t	12.	**	1.2	ns	0.7	ns	2.3	ns	1.0	ns	0.3	ns
			3		8	*										

864 *Notes:* t 0.1 < P < 0.05, *P < 0.05; ***P < 0.001; ns = not significant. \Box square-root-transformed.

Date	Location	Mean	Temp.	Water	Conduct.	pН	DO	$N-NH_4^+$	N-NO ₃ ⁻	P-PO ₄ ³⁻	\mathbf{P}_{bio}	C/N	N _{tot}
		Temp.	variance	depth	$(\mu S.cm^{-1})$		(mg.L ⁻	$(\mu g.L^{-1})$	$(\mu g.L^{-1})$	$(\mu g.L^{-1})$	(mg.g ⁻		$(g.g^{-1})$
		(°C)	(°C²)	(cm)			1)				1)		
Summer	Isthme	4.55	2.72	16.07	240.23	7.00	7.25	233.27	201.14	24.98	0.88	13.84	0.017
2018	Bas	(±1.34)	(±2.10)	(±11.75)	(±85.82)	(±0.81)	(±4.73)	(±298.24)	(±268.35)	(±38.97)	(±0.59)	(±2.35)	(±0.007)
		6.34-	7.66-0.57	<i>50.53</i> –	452.00-	8.98-	14.65-	1597.00-	1379.50-	197.85-	2.26-	19.99-	0.032-
		1.82		3.60	142.35	5.88	0.08	76.60	45.50	0.00	0.17	8.95	0.003
	Molloy	4.64	6.03	15.04	155.66	7.04	9.84	566.13	254.30	25.65	0.79	12.63	0.013
		(±1.95)	(±1.48)	(±7.55)	(±51.85)	(±0.56)	(±4.86)	(±1415.07)	(±329.60)	(± 54.60)	(±0.56)	(±1.43)	(±0.007)
		6.92-	9.34-3.59	35.11-	336.80-	8.07-	15.90-	7545.00-	1275.50-	221.97-	2.34-	17.32-	0.029-
		1.89		4.22	102.54	6.10	0.15	59.55	28.00	0.00	0.00	10.06	0.002
	Cap	4.41	4.05	10.66	255.34	6.73	5.77	924.19	236.54	33.95	0.83	11.75	0.021
	Ratmanoff	(±1.63)	(±1.08)	(±4.86)	(±77.13)	(±0.74)	(±4.16)	(±1677.30)	(±435.32)	(±50.44)	(±0.58)	(±1.25)	(±0.009)
		6.55-	6.02-2.15	27.50-	482.00-	9.09-	17.95-	7840.00-	2341.00-	199.55-	1.95-	13.87-	0.043-
		2.15		1.47	164.46	5.58	0.14	68.10	29.50	0.95	0.01	8.02	0.006
Winter	Isthme	3.31	3.00	14.10	238.10	6.78	8.57	95.48	103.31	31.38	0.70	16.38	0.015
2019	Bas	(±1.46)	(±2.43)	(±8.83)	(±117.77)	(±1.23)	(±4.39)	(±123.55)	(±39.55)	(±35.80)	(±0.32)	(±2.26)	(±0.006)
		5.17	9.87-0.52	37.33-	605.20-	10.25-	13.54-	681.50-	198.50-	147.62-	1.24-	21.69-	0.029-
		0.31		2.33	125.86	3.62	0.15	22.10	35.50	1.25	0.15	12.03	0.003
	Molloy	2.66	6.64	14.76	121.07	6.70	10.11	117.56	583.78	13.74	0.72	14.40	0.010
		(±1.91)	(±2.10)	(±8.00)	(±48.22)	(±0.60)	(±4.33)	(±247.10)	(±1085.69)	(±35.39)	(±0.37)	(±1.36)	(±0.005)
		5.04	12.03-3.25	29.20-	230.34-	7.70-	16.14-	1401.70-	4793.00-	181.17-	1.45-	17.45-	0.022-
		0.30		0.83	66.92	5.28	0.15	8.15	50.50	0.00	0.04	11.49	0.003
	Cap	2.79	4.46	12.48	184.62	6.63	8.44	112.08	267.74	20.90	0.71	14.05	0.014
	Ratmanoff	(±1.63)	(±1.49)	(±4.23)	(±53.31)	(±0.38)	(±4.17)	(±111.13)	(±711.41)	(±35.12)	(±0.38)	(±1.76)	(±0.006)
		5.20-	7.76-1.95	22.93-	319.00-	7.55-	15.84-	651.05-	3813.00-	152.66-	1.51-	18.66-	0.025-
		0.33		5.00	116.84	5.70	0.14	29.55	25.00	2.08	0.17	10.89	0.004

Table 3. Mean (±SD) abiotic parameters measured in the ponds of Iles Kerguelen depending on the year, season, and location of sampling.

867 Values in italic indicate the maximum and the minimum (*i.e.* the range) recorded for each season per year on each location.

Summer	Isthme	5.68	4.51	17.00	197.00	6.85	10.87	71.61	75.38	28.24	0.70	16.11	0.015
2019	Bas	(±2.37)	(±4.02)	(±9.25)	(±29.18)	(±0.70)	(±2.74)	(±61.49)	(±24.59)	(±21.27)	(±0.45)	(±2.13)	(±0.005)
		9.77-	16.82-0.62	44.93-	275.33-	8.47-	16.83-	324.50-	136.50-	79.62-	1.70-	20.92-	0.026-
		2.12		2.80	147.86	5.41	4.40	31.00	13.50	4.30	0.23	12.25	0.004
	Molloy	6.44	9.99	18.63	141.47	7.21	12.99	629.84	72.15	6.97	0.96	15.23	0.010
		(±3.50)	(±4.40)	(±6.57)	(±115.35)	(±0.86)	(±2.76)	(±1195.31)	(±54.43)	(±6.72)	(±0.60)	(±2.42)	(±0.005)
		10.99-	20.51-3.93	32.73-	688.00-	9.53-	19.03-	5630.50-	259.50-	32.53-	2.25-	19.92-	0.019-
		2.20		8.25	73.52	6.00	6.39	51.00	21.50	0.00	0.09	10.63	0.002
	Cap	5.88	6.71	13.84	198.35	6.89	11.91	770.34	380.83	18.62	0.65	14.86	0.014
	Ratmanoff	(±2.87)	(±3.05)	(±5.92)	(±81.01)	(±0.48)	(±1.89)	(±1566.66)	(±1121.00)	(±33.20)	(±0.40)	(±1.41)	(±0.006)
		9.27-	13.22-2.35	28.33-	411.40-	8.23-	17.09-	7330.00-	4590.00-	145.38-	1.69-	17.76-	0.022-
		2.40		4.00	5.70	5.61	9.03	31.50	23.00	0.00	0.11	11.19	0.003
Winter	Isthme	5.04	3.72	22.65	212.45	7.11	10.40	126.34	116.59	49.57	0.59	14.29	0.018
2020	Bas	(±1.60)	(±3.33)	(±13.93)	(±43.76)	(±0.41)	(±2.19)	(±46.37)	(±102.82)	(±50.71)	(±0.39)	(±1.83)	(±0.007)
		7.37-	13.94-0.51	67.07-	333.60-	8.09-	14.88-	223.00-	425.00-	237.60-	1.52-	18.65-	0.041-
		2.22		6.43	151.18	6.39	4.62	65.50	3.00	5.01	0.01	9.72	0.004
	Molloy	5.41	8.24	17.41	112.13	6.83	10.97	395.76	180.07	7.04	0.59	13.61	0.011
		(±2.36)	(±3.68)	(±7.84)	(±54.82)	(±0.46)	(±2.90)	(±804.68)	(±324.14)	(±6.86)	(±0.35)	(±1.48)	(±0.005)
		8.34-	16.99-3.21	34.67-	332.67-	8.10-	14.15-	3334.50-	1575.00-	33.61-	1.65-	17.47-	0.027-
		2.31		4.00	54.94	6.08	1.70	37.50	3.00	0.00	0.07	11.30	0.004
	Cap	5.04	5.54	13.79	192.86	6.80	10.93	299.50	77.70	5.29	0.59	12.48	0.018
	Ratmanoff	(±1.95)	(±2.54)	(± 6.86)	(±53.34)	(± 0.64)	(±3.17)	(±908.52)	(±182.17)	(±4.21)	(±0.37)	(±2.39)	(± 0.008)
	Ratmanoff	(±1.95) 7.37-	(±2.54) 10.96-1.92	(±6.86) <i>31.33-</i>	(±53.34) <i>326.00-</i>	(±0.64) 7.68-	(±3.17) <i>14.38-</i>	(±908.52) 4836.00-	(±182.17) <i>1030.50-</i>	(±4.21) 21.50-	(±0.37) 1.48-	(±2.39) 16.86-	(±0.008) 0.034-

Notes: Temp. temperature; Conduct. specific conductance; Pbio: phosphore bioavailable. N = 30.

Table 4. Relationships between the plant community composition and the physical and chemical parameters recorded in ponds at each sampling date. Parameters from the permutation test in STATICO analysis are given with Rv quantifying the strength of the relationship (on a 0-1 scale), and *simulated-P* as the statistical significance of the observed Rv.

	Rv	Simulated-P
summer 2018	0.285	***
winter 2019	0.229	**
summer 2019	0.276	***
winter 2020	0.238	**

Table 5. Relationships between present plant community composition *i.e.* recorded during the
last campaign of survey (summer 2020), and past plant community compositions (PCC), and
past and present physical and chemical parameters (PCP, *i.e.* recorded during summer 2020
and the preceding seasons). *Rv*: strength of the relationship; *simulated-P*: statistical
significance of the observed *Rv*.

	Rv	Simulated-P
PCC, winter 2020	0.575	< 0.001
PCC, summer 2018	0.568	< 0.001
PCC, summer 2019	0.553	< 0.001
PCC, winter 2019	0.458	< 0.001
PCP, winter 2019	0.227	< 0.030
PCP, summer 2019	0.216	< 0.040
PCP, winter 2020	0.196	ns
PCP, summer 2020	0.191	ns
PCP, summer 2018	0.179	ns

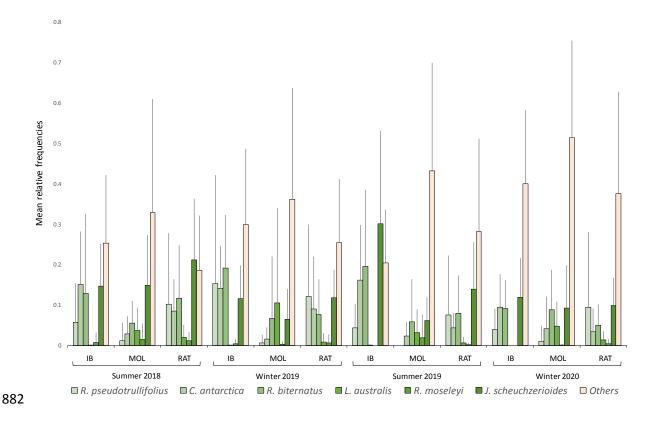


Figure 1. Mean (±SD) composition of pond plant communities depending on the season and
year. Varying shades of green represent different aquatic plant species (see accompanying
legend), while light orange was used to represent relative frequencies of all non-aquatic
species. IB: Isthme Bas, MOL: Molloy, RAT: Cap Ratmanoff.

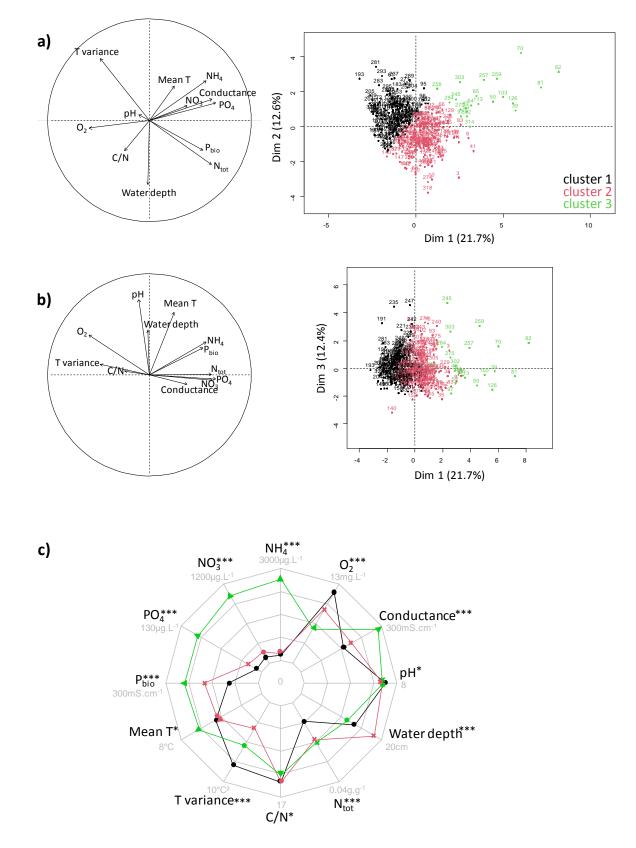




Figure 2. Principal component analysis and hierarchical clustering performed on the abiotic parameters of all ponds. Abiotic parameters and pond scores projected along a) axes 1 and 2, and b) axes 1 and 3. c) Mean abiotic parameters characterizing the clusters shown with

- 892 different colors). Asterisks indicate significant difference of mean abiotic parameters between
- 893 clusters (ANOVA tests) *P < 0.05; *** P < 0.001, different symbols indicate different means
- 894 (Tukey post-hoc tests). Tvariance temperature variance, mean T water temperature, O_2 –
- 895 dissolved oxygen, P_{bio} bioavailable P. In a) and b) different numbers refers to different
- ponds at varying dates of sampling, and within different locations (N = 360 in total).

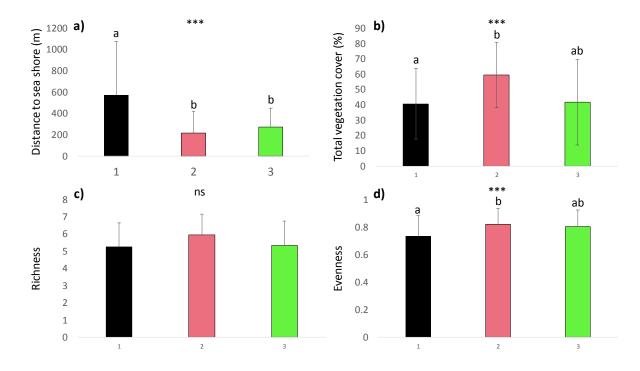


Figure 3. Mean (\pm SD) cluster values (labelled from 1 to 3 along the first axis of the PCA performed on abiotic parameters) for a) distance from sea shore, b) percentage of vegetation cover within the pond, c) plant community richness, d) plant community evenness. Asterisks above the figures indicate the significance of the clustering on the response variable (ANOVA tests), ns P > 0.05; *** P < 0.001, different letters indicate significant differences in mean response variable among clusters (Tukey post-hoc tests).