

1 Running head: Arctic pond macroinvertebrate abundance

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3 **In hot water? Patterns of macroinvertebrate abundance in Arctic thaw ponds and**
4 **relationships with environmental variables**

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24

25 **Abstract**

- 26 1. Ongoing environmental change across the Arctic is affecting many freshwater
27 ecosystems, including small thaw ponds that support macroinvertebrates, thus potentially
28 affecting important forage for fish and bird species. To accurately predict how fish and
29 wildlife that depend on these macroinvertebrates will be affected by ecosystem change at
30 high latitudes, understanding proximate factors that influence macroinvertebrate
31 abundance is critical.
- 32 2. To better understand factors that affect spatial and seasonal (i.e phenology) patterns in
33 abundance, we collected macroinvertebrates throughout the growing season of a single
34 year from 33 thaw ponds on the Arctic Coastal Plain in northern Alaska. We used
35 hierarchical *N*-mixture models to provide detection-corrected estimates of abundance (of
36 the population exposed to sampling) in relation to pond type and seasonal patterns in
37 potential environmental variables (i.e., cumulative water temperature, nutrient levels) for
38 five taxonomic groups representing key food items for birds and fish – Anostraca
39 (Arthropoda: Branchiopoda), Chironomidae (Insecta: Diptera), Cladocera (Arthropoda:
40 Branchiopoda), Limnephilidae (Insecta: Trichoptera), and Physidae (Mollusca:
41 Gastropoda)
- 42 3. For three of five taxa (Anostraca, Cladocera, Limnephilidae), abundance varied across
43 pond types and was lower in pond types where water temperatures increased more
44 rapidly. Further, seasonal temperature profiles in ponds affected phenology, suggesting
45 that seasonal patterns in abundance were influenced by changes in water temperature.
- 46 4. These findings suggest that increases in water temperature in northern areas could alter
47 macroinvertebrate phenology, possibly with consequences for upper level predators if
48 availability of macroinvertebrate prey is reduced or shifted seasonally. Our results will

49 facilitate improved predictions of how changing abiotic conditions could affect inland
50 waters in northern areas, a critical need for conservation of Arctic wildlife and
51 ecosystems.

52

53 1 INTRODUCTION

54 Across the circumpolar Arctic, annual averages for air temperature and precipitation
55 are increasing (Walsh *et al.*, 2011; Bintanja & Andry, 2017). Concurrent with these climatic
56 changes, hydrological shifts, including localized redistribution of water and increasing water
57 temperatures, are also occurring (Lougheed *et al.*, 2011; Jorgenson *et al.*, 2015; Liljedahl *et*
58 *al.*, 2016). In addition, permafrost thaw is mobilizing solute-rich water, leading to elevated
59 nutrient concentrations in many Arctic freshwater systems (Toohey *et al.*, 2016; Koch *et al.*,
60 2018b; Tank *et al.*, 2018). Increasingly, there is evidence that such changes are influencing
61 aquatic biota (Kendrick, Hershey & Huryn, 2019; Heino *et al.*, 2020; Pennock *et al.*, 2021),
62 and that ectothermic organisms, particularly freshwater macroinvertebrates, are likely to be
63 disproportionately affected, because many of the biological functions (i.e. metabolism,
64 reproduction) for these taxa are highly responsive to environmental conditions (Ellwood *et*
65 *al.*, 2012; Lento *et al.*, 2022a).

66 In Arctic areas of North America (hereafter, the Arctic), diverse communities of
67 freshwater macroinvertebrates, including aquatic insects and zooplankton (Van Geest *et al.*,
68 2007; Christoffersen *et al.*, 2008), inhabit small thaw ponds ($< 10^4$ m²), which can account
69 for as much as 95% of the number of water bodies on tundra landscapes (Muster *et al.*, 2013)
70 and store large amounts of carbon and nutrients (Rautio *et al.*, 2011; Koch *et al.*, 2018a).
71 Such ponds – including (i) deep troughs that form above thawing ice wedges, (ii) shallow,
72 low-centered polygons that form between troughs, and (iii) larger coalescent ponds that form
73 with further thawing of troughs and polygons – thus make important contributions to
74 biodiversity and provide key food resources for fish and bird species (Cunningham, Kesler &
75 Lanctot, 2016; McFarland, Wipfli & Whitman, 2018). How environmental change at high
76 latitudes will affect these resources, however, is unclear.

77 Variation in abundance of macroinvertebrates across the Arctic landscape is not well
78 quantified, and although within-season patterns in the abundance (i.e. phenology) of many
79 aquatic invertebrates has been well-documented, few studies have directly assessed factors
80 that control seasonal patterns, especially in northern systems (Laske *et al.*, 2021; Shaftel *et*
81 *al.*, 2021). As such, the specific environmental drivers of spatial and seasonal patterns of
82 abundance of macroinvertebrates in thaw ponds, as elsewhere, remain poorly understood
83 (Sánchez-Bayo & Wyckhuys, 2019; Woods, Kaz & Giam, 2021), limiting our ability to
84 anticipate the potential impacts of changing conditions across years (related to climate) and
85 within years (related to changes in the timing of seasonal events). For example, the influences
86 of increasing water temperatures and nutrient concentrations on invertebrate fauna in
87 lacustrine and riverine systems can be highly variable (Alric *et al.*, 2013; Nelson, Bennett &
88 Cardinale, 2013), depending on existing trophic interactions within each system and variation
89 in the physiology and life history strategies of different taxa (Wojtal-Frankiewicz, 2012;
90 Batzer, 2013; Abrego *et al.*, 2021). Additionally, in small thaw ponds, biotic responses to
91 warming air temperatures and thaw-derived nutrient enrichment are likely to depend on pond
92 morphology, with larger coalescent ponds being less likely to derive nutrients and provide
93 habitat during periods of change (Koch, Gurney & Wipfli, 2014).

94 To begin to assess the potential impacts of environmental change in the Arctic on
95 freshwater macroinvertebrate phenology and to identify potential wildlife outcomes
96 associated with these changes, evaluating mechanistic components that regulate abundance of
97 key taxa will be critical (Van Hemert *et al.*, 2015; Cardoso *et al.*, 2020). As filter-feeding
98 crustaceans that are often abundant in shallow freshwater habitats, both Anostraca
99 (Arthropoda: Branchiopoda, fairy shrimp) and Cladocera (Arthropoda: Branchiopoda, water
100 fleas) can affect nutrient cycling through impacts on abundance of bacteria and algae
101 (Hobbie, 1980; Vinebrooke *et al.*, 2014), with Cladocera being particularly important prey for

102 both birds and fish (Dodson & Egger, 1980; Laske *et al.*, 2017). Larval Chironomidae
103 (Insecta: Diptera, midges) and Limnephilidae (Insecta: Trichoptera, caddisflies) are similarly
104 important prey resources (Holmes, 1966; Gerik, 2018), as are Physidae (Mollusca:
105 Gastropoda, bladder snails), which can also comprise a substantial proportion of overall
106 biomass in northern wetlands (Bartonek & Murdy, 1970; Gurney *et al.*, 2017).

107 To address questions related to impacts of warming temperatures and elevated
108 nutrient availability on seasonal patterns of abundance of Arctic freshwater
109 macroinvertebrates and provide improved predictions, we modeled the impact of physical,
110 chemical, and biological variables in troughs, polygons, and coalescent ponds on the Arctic
111 Coastal Plain ecoregion of northern Alaska in relation to macroinvertebrate abundance
112 measures. We selected macroinvertebrate taxa documented as important to the structure
113 (biomass) and function (nutrient cycling, food resources) of Arctic thaw ponds. Specifically,
114 our objectives were to evaluate (i) variation in macroinvertebrate abundance among pond
115 types and (ii) the effects of water temperature and nutrient concentrations on
116 macroinvertebrate abundance throughout the growing season.

117 Due to the unique morphology of troughs, which results in increased drainage of
118 water and nutrients from the surrounding terrain relative to other pond types (Koch, Gurney
119 & Wipfli, 2014; Koch *et al.*, 2018b), we predicted that macroinvertebrate abundances would
120 be highest in these less ephemeral habitats. Although macroinvertebrates should be adapted
121 to seasonal changes in temperature, variable thresholds of thermal tolerance among
122 ectothermic species make it difficult to make generalized predictions about how phenology of
123 diverse taxa will vary across ponds with different seasonal temperature profiles (Musolin,
124 2007; Sunday, Bates & Dulvy, 2011). We did expect, however, that late season declines in
125 macroinvertebrate abundance would become more pronounced in ponds with greater changes
126 in temperature (Dallas & Rivers-Moore, 2012). Conversely, we predicted positive

127 associations between patterns of macroinvertebrate abundance and nutrient concentrations, as
128 freshwater biota in northern systems should be well-adapted to take advantage of seasonal
129 increases in nutrients and resources (Lewis *et al.*, 2014; Moquin *et al.*, 2014). We assert that
130 although our findings will not be directly relevant to predicting future changes associated
131 with global climate change, they will provide important insights regarding how freshwater
132 biota will respond to environmental conditions that vary across inter and intra-annual time
133 scales.

134

135 **2 METHODS**

136 *2.1 Study area and experimental design*

137 During 2013, we studied variation in macroinvertebrate abundance in small thaw ponds at the
138 Chipp River North Study Area (70.68°N, 155.30°W), located approximately 80 km southwest
139 of Utqiagvik (formerly Barrow), Alaska, within the Arctic Coastal Plain ecoregion (Figure
140 1A). The dry, polar climate of the region is characterized by short, cool summers and long,
141 cold winters, with average July temperatures ranging from 8 to 19°C and average annual
142 temperatures ranging from -13 to -10°C (Alaska Department of Fish and Game, 2006;
143 Woodward & Beaver, 2011). The landscape is characterized by polygonal-patterned terrain
144 that forms as massive subterranean ice wedges displace soil upward (Jorgenson, Shur &
145 Walker, 1998). Vegetation varies across the landscape and is strongly influenced by
146 microtopography. Pendantgrass (*Arctophila fulva*), water sedge (*Carex aquatilis*), cottongrass
147 (*Eriophorum spp.*), tundra grass (*Dupontia spp.*), forbs, and mosses dominate in low-lying
148 areas, whereas sedges (*C. aquatilis*, *C. bigelowii*), tussock cottongrass (*Eriophorum*
149 *vaginatum*), and shrubs such as entireleaf mountain-avens (*Dryas integrifolia*) and willow
150 (*Salix lanata*, *Salix planifolia*) are more abundant in areas of higher terrain between basins
151 (Billings & Peterson, 1980; Martin *et al.*, 2009).

152 Our stratified random sampling design was based on three main types of small thaw
153 ponds (troughs, polygons, and coalescent ponds), with the latter divided into small (<50 m
154 diameter) and large (50 – 150 m diameter) categories to account for differences in
155 geomorphology, water chemistry, and pond age (Koch, Gurney & Wipfli, 2014)(Figure 1B).
156 To select the ponds that populated the strata, we used ArcMap to limit the sampling area,
157 exclude lakes with diameter > 150 m (surface area > 0.018 km²), and randomly select study
158 ponds within our classification scheme.

159

160 2.2 Field methods

161 To keep a continuous record of water temperatures, we suspended a portable temperature
162 logger (Hobo® Tidbit V2, Onset Computer Corporation, Bourne, MA, USA) in the water
163 column of each pond (approximately 5 – 10 cm below the surface), following spring thaw of
164 surface water (9-June to 15-June), and logging continued for approximately 8 weeks. Pond
165 area, volume, electrical conductivity (EC), pH, dissolved oxygen (DO), nutrient
166 concentrations, and pelagic and benthic zone ash-free dry mass (AFDM) and chlorophyll-*a*
167 were measured in the pond biweekly (Koch et al., 2014; Koch et al., 2019). Measurements of
168 AFDM and chlorophyll-*a* (to approximate abundance of autotrophs) were repeated until the
169 end of the growing season, during each of five or six resampling events (i.e., visits), between
170 19-June and 4-August, 2013.

171 Additionally, we collected macroinvertebrates during each visit (n = 5 – 6 per pond).
172 We based our sampling protocol on other studies of shallow water wetland invertebrates
173 (Gleason & Rooney, 2018; Swartz *et al.*, 2019), selecting a sampler type and mesh size that
174 effectively captures larger-sized invertebrates in the absence of substantial vegetation
175 (Meyer, Davis & Bidwell, 2013). To collect each of four or five replicate samples per visit,
176 we pulled a D-frame net (500- μ m mesh, surface area = 0.0604 m²) upward through the extent

177 of the water column (to include nektonic and benthic species) at randomly selected locations
178 within the pond. Those macroinvertebrates large enough to be trapped by our net were
179 identified to family level, or the lowest taxonomic resolution possible, and enumerated in the
180 field when possible (Thorp & Covich, 2001; Merritt, Cummins & Berg, 2008); pupae were
181 excluded from all counts. When logistical constraints prevented processing of samples in the
182 field, specimens were preserved in 70% ethanol and counted later.

183

184 2.3 Data analyses

185 For each macroinvertebrate sample, we calculated the sampled water volume as the
186 surface area of the net times sample depth and corrected all counts for volume sampled. We
187 subsequently used an N-mixture modelling approach for our analyses (Royle, 2004), whereby
188 the variation in replicate samples was used to estimate the average number of individuals of a
189 given taxon exposed to sampling during each replicate sampling event (hereafter,
190 abundance). Note that we do not compare measures of abundance among taxa given that
191 estimates do not represent absolute abundance (see Barker *et al.*, 2018; Link *et al.*, 2018).
192 Also note that because we used a 500- μm mesh, our inference was limited to individuals
193 large enough to be captured by this mesh size. Because we were not estimating absolute
194 abundance or directly comparing measures of abundance among taxonomic groups,
195 undersampling of smaller individuals within taxa did not influence our findings.

196 To evaluate variation in abundance across visits in relation to covariates representing
197 our hypotheses of interest, we structured our model to be open to changes in abundance
198 between visits to a given pond but closed within replicates within a visit. The basic model for
199 the observed counts can be written as:

$$n_{ijk} \sim \text{Bin}(N_{ij}, p_{ijk})$$

200

201 where the observed count, n_{ijk} , at pond i during visit j and replicate k is a binomial function
202 of abundance at each pond during each visit, N_{ij} , and detection probability, p_{ijk} , at the
203 observation level. For our study, p_{ijk} can be interpreted as a combination of incomplete
204 detection and spatial variation in invertebrate density within a pond on a given visit.
205 Abundance is assumed to arise from a Poisson distribution

$$N_{ij} \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_{ij})$$

206
207 and can be modeled as function of covariates:

$$\log(\lambda_{ij}) = \alpha_i + \beta_l x_{ijl} + e_{ij}$$

208
209 where α_i are intercepts, x_{ijl} are values for covariate l , β_l are the associated coefficients, and
210 e_{ij} are random effects. We used this basic model structure to assess the effects of measured
211 covariates on the spatial and seasonal patterns of abundance for each of five coarse
212 taxonomic groups that represent important prey items for consumers and that contribute
213 substantially to overall biomass, as well as to energy and nutrient cycling in Arctic ponds.

214 After assessing collinearity among predictor variables (Zuur, Ieno & Elphick, 2010),
215 we specified a single model for each taxonomic group. Based on a number of studies
216 highlighting the importance of pH and dissolved oxygen on abundance and productivity of
217 aquatic invertebrates (Table 1; Merritt et al. 2008), predictor variables for each group-specific
218 model included these variables, as well as factors related to our hypotheses of interest:
219 cumulative growing degree days (CGDD, calculated as the cumulative water temperature
220 above a minimum threshold of 0°C; Cayton et al. 2015), ammonium (NH₄), and two indices
221 of autotroph abundance: AFDM and chlorophyll-*a*, which were measured both in the pelagic

222 (pAFDM, pCHLA) and benthic (bAFDM, bCHLA) zones. These indices were correlated for
223 pelagic measurements (i.e. pAFDM and pCHLA), so only pCHLA was included in the
224 models tested.

225 Ammonium was chosen as the best indicator of nutrient availability and
226 biogeochemical cycling because other potentially limiting nutrients (e.g., nitrate and
227 phosphate) were often below detection limits (Koch et al., 2014). In contrast to other
228 nutrients, NH_4 is present in measurable quantities due to shallow thawing permafrost and has
229 proven useful as an indicator of active biogeochemical cycling in other ponds and lakes in
230 this region (Koch et al., 2014; 2018a; 2018b). To test for non-linear patterns in abundance
231 related to water temperature, we also evaluated a quadratic term for CGDD (Bolker, 2008).
232 Given that we were specifically interested in identifying the potential environmental
233 mechanisms associated with temporal patterns in abundance, rather than simply describing
234 the observed seasonal patterns, we did not include time itself (i.e. sampling day) as a
235 covariate.

236 To test for variation in abundance of macroinvertebrates in relation to pond type, we
237 included pond type as a fixed categorical term. A random effect term accounted for
238 remaining variation in the data and overdispersion (i.e., extra-Poisson variation) in the counts
239 that could lead to lack of fit. We also treated P_{ijk} as a random effect to address variation in
240 detection probability. For each taxon, we fit the corresponding model to the data using JAGS
241 4.3.0 (Plummer, 2003) and R 3.1.0 (R Team, 2014), following the basic approach of Kéry
242 and Schaub (2012). We used uninformative priors for all parameters, however, we did limit p
243 to values ≥ -3 on the logit scale to avoid boundary issues. We ran each model for 80,000
244 iterations with 20,000 discarded as burn-in, retaining the remaining 60,000 for inference. We
245 assessed model fit using the Bayesian p-value described by Kéry and Schaub (2012), and
246 based inference of fixed effects on the precision (95% Bayesian credible intervals) of

247 regression coefficients. If credible intervals of estimated parameters included zero, effects
248 associated with these parameters were considered to be uninformative.

249

250 **3 RESULTS**

251 *3.1 Physical and chemical characteristics of study ponds*

252 For all study ponds (n=33), pH measurements indicated circumneutral conditions, but
253 other physical and chemical characteristics (water temperature, dissolved oxygen, electrical
254 conductivity, nutrients, AFDM, and chlorophyll-*a* concentrations) were more variable (Table
255 2). Across pond types, troughs were distinct both physically (smaller, deeper, colder) and
256 chemically (lower pH and dissolved oxygen, higher electrical conductivity), and tended to
257 warm more slowly (Figure 2). Based on chlorophyll-*a* levels, troughs also tended to have
258 higher autotroph abundance in the benthic zone, compared to other pond types, but this
259 pattern was not observed for pelagic chlorophyll-*a*, which was typically higher in coalescent
260 ponds (Table 2).

261

262 *3.2 Macroinvertebrate abundance*

263 Our data summaries indicated that the three taxa we most commonly sampled in our study
264 ponds (n=702 samples) were non-insect arthropods: Cladocera, Copepoda
265 (Crustacea:Maxillopoda), and Collembola (Arthropoda:Hexapoda), followed by larval
266 Chironomidae and Physidae. Conversely, for several taxa – larval Ephemeroptera (Insecta)
267 and some Coleoptera (Insecta), as well as Oligochaeta (Clitellata), counts were exceptionally
268 low. More taxonomically detailed summaries of the macroinvertebrate data (total estimated
269 counts) are available as Supporting Information (see Table S1), and raw physical, chemical,
270 and macroinvertebrate data are available at: <https://doi.org/10.5066/P9K5EV4N> (Koch *et al.*,
271 2019).

272 Results were generally consistent with our expectation of higher abundance in
273 troughs, relative to all other pond types, but statistical differences varied among taxa.
274 Anostraca was an exception to the general pattern – being essentially absent from trough
275 ponds and only rarely collected from large coalescent ponds, with the highest numbers in
276 polygons and small coalescent ponds. Cladocera were detected in all pond types, with the
277 greatest abundance in troughs and small coalescent ponds. Whereas limnephilid larvae were
278 primarily absent from polygon ponds, chironomid larvae and Physidae tended to be equally
279 abundant across all pond types (Figure 3).

280 As with the effect of pond type, the relative influences of water temperature and NH_4
281 on abundance were variable across taxa. For four of the five taxa that we examined
282 (Anostraca, Chironomidae, Cladocera, Limnephilidae), there was a relationship between
283 cumulative temperature and abundance – and the effect of water temperature was consistent
284 across pond types. We identified a negative relationship between water temperature and
285 abundance for Anostraca, Limnephilidae, Chironomidae, and Cladocera, with evidence of a
286 quadratic (non-linear) relationship for the latter taxon (Figure 4). Contrary to our expectation
287 of positive relationships between abundance and nutrients, we did not detect an effect of NH_4
288 levels, and only the limnephilid larvae became more abundant with increasing autotroph
289 abundance (as indexed by bCHLA). Physid abundance was related neither to temperature nor
290 NH_4 – but was most strongly related to pH levels, with lower numbers in more alkaline water
291 (Table 3).

292 We found large variation among replicate samples, with low estimates of detection
293 probability ($p < 0.2$) for all five taxa considered, reflecting the substantial variation in counts
294 among replicates (2 – 200 fold) that we observed in our samples. Despite large amounts of
295 observed variation, our posterior predictive checks (as represented by Bayesian p -values)
296 indicated that model fit was adequate for all taxa (Table 3).

297

298 **4 DISCUSSION**

299 Our findings suggested that macroinvertebrate abundance in small thaw ponds of the Arctic
300 Coastal Plain was variable across pond types, with troughs tending to support more abundant
301 populations for most of the taxa we studied. In these high latitude ecosystems – as in other
302 freshwater habitats where macroinvertebrate communities have been assessed – seasonal
303 patterns of abundance were generally related to accumulated water temperatures (Everall *et*
304 *al.*, 2015). Conversely, levels of a key nutrient – ammonium – had no detectable effect on
305 seasonal patterns of abundance for any of the taxa that we assessed, and only in one case
306 (limnephilid larvae), did we find evidence of a relationship between indices of primary
307 productivity (chlorophyll-*a*, AFDM) and seasonal patterns of abundance. As environmental
308 conditions and freshwater resources in the Arctic continue to change, including drying of
309 polygons and increased numbers of troughs (Jorgenson *et al.*, 2015), these findings will
310 facilitate an improved understanding of how populations of pond macroinvertebrates may
311 respond, thereby contributing to more-informed decisions about conservation.

312

313 *4.1 Variables associated with seasonal patterns of abundance for key wetland* 314 *macroinvertebrates*

315 As expected, trough ponds tended to have larger populations of the macroinvertebrates we
316 studied, although specific differences related to pond type varied across taxa and were not
317 statistically significant for larval Chironomidae or Physidae. Anostraca were an exception to
318 the general pattern, and were not observed in troughs, possibly due to their inability to
319 actively disperse into these habitats (Wiggins, Mackay & Smith, 1980). Consequently, this
320 group may be vulnerable to landscape changes forecast for the Arctic Coastal Plain (i.e.,
321 increasing prevalence of trough habitats; Liljedahl *et al.*, 2016), whereas a shift toward more

322 troughs on the Arctic Coastal Plain may be beneficial to other macroinvertebrates that appear
323 to thrive in these habitats (e.g., limnephilids and Cladocera). However, we caution that
324 predicting the specific responses of macroinvertebrate productivity to increasing trough
325 habitat will require careful study across broader spatial and temporal scales.

326 Wetland macroinvertebrate communities are highly dynamic, varying substantially at
327 both local and regional spatial scales (Batzer & Ruhí, 2013; Gurney *et al.*, 2017). Studies
328 attempting to link this variability to causative factors, however, are limited and often provide
329 conflicting results (Culler, Smith & Lamp, 2014; Kneitel *et al.*, 2017). In particular, whereas
330 the ecological significance of water temperature in riverine ecosystems has been well
331 established (Olden & Naiman, 2010; Lento *et al.*, 2022b), the consequences of thermal
332 changes for the functioning of freshwater wetlands are less clear (Lee *et al.*, 2015; Helbig *et*
333 *al.*, 2017). By directly assessing the relationship between cumulative water temperature and
334 macroinvertebrate count data across the growing season, our study identifies relationships
335 with water temperature for a number of taxa. For sampled Cladocerans in our study ponds,
336 seasonal changes in abundance are related to water temperature in a curvilinear fashion, and
337 across all pond types, abundance decreases above a cumulative water temperature of 450
338 degree days. This suggests that phenology of Cladocera is influenced by early-season
339 warming, although the presence of different species in ponds with different seasonal
340 temperature profiles may also contribute to the observed effect (Stross, Miller & Daley,
341 1980). Further studies, at a finer taxonomic resolution, are needed to understand species-
342 specific thermal tolerance ranges and responses to warming (Wojtal-Frankiewicz, 2012).
343 With respect to phenology, our results suggest that increasing water temperatures could
344 advance the seasonal timing of peak abundance of Cladocera, but to directly evaluate this
345 potential outcome, longer-term studies are necessary.

346 For Anostraca and larval Limnephilidae, the relationships we observed between
347 abundance and water temperature seemed to indicate that seasonal warming did not influence
348 phenology – at no point, did higher water temperatures correspond to increased abundance of
349 these taxa. We speculate that the lower numbers of larval limnephilids we observed as pond
350 temperatures warmed over the season are, in part, explained by increasing rates of emergence
351 under such conditions. Development times and timing of adult emergence for insects can be
352 highly sensitive to increases in water temperatures, with earlier emergence closely linked to
353 heating treatments in several studies (Hogg & Williams, 1996; Braegelman, 2016). The
354 seasonal decrease in abundance of limnephilid larvae that we observed (Koch *et al.*, 2019) is
355 consistent with this idea.

356 Seasonal patterns of abundance of larval Chironomidae, which show initial declines
357 as pond temperatures warm, before slightly increasing, might also be related to more rapid
358 emergence in ponds that warm more quickly, although the temporal patterns that we observed
359 in these species are less clear. Instead, the observed effect of temperature on chironomid
360 larvae might reflect different species assemblages in warmer habitats, or potentially the
361 addition of a new cohort of larvae later in the season (Butler & Braegelman, 2018; McFarlin
362 *et al.*, 2018). Studies on timing of emergence of aquatic insects in relation to water
363 temperatures and finer-scale taxonomic assessments will add valuable insight (Laske *et al.*,
364 2021), especially because faster development in warmer water may negatively affect body
365 mass or size at maturity for adult insects, particularly for females (Sweeney, Vannote &
366 Dodds, 1986; Rempel & Carter, 1987). Because larger size tends to confer greater fecundity
367 to female insects, temperature-induced changes in development rates – in combination with
368 shifting sex ratios in warmer water – might reduce reproductive output for insect fauna in
369 small thaw ponds and lead to population-level declines (Peckarsky *et al.*, 2001; Sardiña *et al.*,
370 2017). Yet, it remains unclear whether such effects are being realized in northern ecosystems.

371 Lewis et al. (2016) suggest that warming water temperatures may be impacting populations
372 of freshwater invertebrates in subarctic lakes, but Loughheed et al. (2011) report no change in
373 pond invertebrate communities on the Arctic Coastal Plain in response to decadal changes in
374 water temperature.

375 Based on our data, relative to other pond types, trough ponds are likely to reach the
376 optimum growing degree days for certain taxa more slowly, with peak abundance of
377 macroinvertebrates potentially occurring later in these habitats. Directed long-term studies
378 are needed to fully understand the effects of sustained increases in water temperature on
379 invertebrates in small thaw ponds. A clearer understanding of how changes in water
380 temperature on the Arctic Coastal Plain will affect phenology of invertebrates is a particularly
381 important research need in the context of phenological mismatch. The Match-Mismatch
382 Hypothesis, which suggests that survival and recruitment of consumer populations decline
383 when consumers and their prey become temporally decoupled during key life cycle events
384 (Durant *et al.*, 2007), has been proposed as a mechanism linking climate change to declining
385 populations across diverse animal taxa (Donnelly, Caffarra & O'Neill, 2011; McKinnon *et*
386 *al.*, 2012).

387 For the taxa that we studied, we detected no direct influence of ammonium levels on
388 abundance, which is generally consistent with other studies that highlight variable responses
389 of aquatic invertebrates to nutrient concentrations. Collectively, such studies suggest that
390 invertebrate responses to nutrients are likely indirect and dependent on how nutrient
391 concentrations affects available food resources (i.e. autotrophs, detritus)(Cross *et al.*, 2006;
392 Batzer, 2013). The magnitude of ammonium entering small trough ponds, and thus the
393 potential for assimilation, can vary greatly depending on trough pond age (Koch *et al.*,
394 2018b), which may limit our ability to detect an impact through our indices of food resources
395 for invertebrates (chlorophyll-*a* concentration and ash-free dry mass in the benthic and

396 pelagic habitats). These indices were only weakly correlated to ammonium concentration,
397 and resource availability (benthic chlorophyll-*a*) was related to abundance for only one of our
398 study taxa (Limnephilidae).

399 Larval limnephilids are generally detritivores that primarily feed on decaying plant
400 material or benthic algae (Merritt, Cummins & Berg, 2008; Klemmer *et al.*, 2012), and our
401 results suggest that increasing nutrient inputs to small thaw ponds may positively influence
402 their abundance, if such inputs lead to increases in benthic productivity. Whether detritivores,
403 in general, are more likely to be impacted by increasing nutrients in the small thaw ponds of
404 the Arctic Coastal Plain warrants further investigation. For example, abundance of Physidae
405 was influenced by neither temperature nor nutrient levels, but was instead negatively
406 correlated with pH, in contrast to previous studies in snails (Lodge *et al.*, 1987). Given the
407 relatively narrow range of pH in the ponds we studied (6.6 – 8.9) and the low abundance of
408 Physidae across all pond types, the effect we observed may have been related to covariance
409 of pH with another more biologically relevant parameter, potentially macrophyte biomass or
410 diversity (Lombardo & Cooke, 2002; Watson & Ormerod, 2004).

411

412 *4.2 Conclusion*

413 By identifying variables that influence the phenology of specific macroinvertebrate taxa
414 occurring in small Arctic thaw ponds, our study highlights how seasonal patterns of
415 abundance for these species might be affected by environmental change. Specifically,
416 variation in seasonal patterns of warming in freshwater habitats is likely to exert a
417 considerable influence on invertebrate fauna. Conversely, we found limited support for a
418 direct influence of a key nutrient on seasonal changes in invertebrate numbers. Identifying the
419 variables that influence invertebrate populations will facilitate improved predictions of how

420 ongoing changes on the land will affect wildlife and ecosystems, a critical need for
421 conservation, particularly in northern areas.

422

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428

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432

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434 Conceptualisation: KBG, JK, JAS, MW. Developing methods: KBG, JK, JAS, JHS, MW.
435 Conducting the research: KBG, JK. Data analysis: KBG, JK, JHS. Data interpretation: KBG,
436 JK, JHS. Preparation of figures and tables: KBG, JK, JHS. Writing: KBG, JK, JAS, JHS,
437 MW.

438

439 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

440 Raw physical, chemical, and invertebrate data generated in this study for the Chipp North
441 ponds are reported in Koch et al., 2019 (<https://doi.org/10.5066/P9K5EV4N>).

442

443 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

444 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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446

447

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718

719

720 TABLE 1. To evaluate the influence of environmental factors on abundance, for each
721 invertebrate taxon, we constructed a single model that included known factors of influence
722 (from previous assessments), as well as factors related to our hypotheses of interest. NH₄ =
723 ammonium, bAFDM = ash-free dry mass (benthic), CGDD = cumulative growing degree
724 days (> 0°C), bCHLA = chlorophyll-*a* concentration (benthic), pCHLA = chlorophyll-*a*
725 concentration (pelagic), DO = dissolved oxygen.
726

Taxon	Model specification
Anostraca	NH ₄ + bAFDM + CGDD + CGDD ² + pH ^a
Chironomidae (larvae)	NH ₄ + bCHLA + CGDD + CGDD ² + pCHLA
Cladocera	NH ₄ + bAFDM + CGDD + CGDD ² + pH ^b
Limnephilidae (larvae)	NH ₄ + bCHLA + CGDD + CGDD ² + DO ^c
Physidae	NH ₄ + bAFDM + CGDD + CGDD ² + pH ^d

727 ^a (Prophet, 1963; Havas & Hutchinson, 1982) ^b (Price & Swift, 1985) ^c (Nebeker *et al.*, 1996)

728 ^d (Holcombe, Phipps & Marier, 1984; Økland, 1992)

TABLE 2. Physical and chemical parameters (range shown, with mean (standard deviation) below) varied across pond types (n = number of ponds sampled).

	Trough (n = 15)	Polygon (n = 5)	Coalescent, small (n = 6)	Coalescent, large (n = 7)
Pond area (m ²)	5.0 – 49.0 22.3 (9.8)	38.3 – 292.8 133.5 (63.8)	228.1 – 1349.0 624.2 (308.7)	473.7 – 3594.0 11642.0 (827.5)
Average pond depth (m)	0.08 – 0.43 0.24 (0.07)	0.05 – 0.23 0.12 (0.04)	0.07 – 0.37 0.16 (0.08)	0.04 – 0.26 0.14 (0.06)
Water volume (m ³)	0.7 – 18.9 5.6 (3.5)	1.9 – 50.8 16.8 (12.9)	1.2 – 463.7 117.3 (122.4)	22.5 – 802.8 230.0 (192.2)
pH	6.59 – 7.92 7.26 (0.31)	6.99 – 8.49 8.00 (0.32)	7.14 – 8.56 8.07 (0.38)	7.34 – 8.88 8.19 (0.41)
DO (%)	4.0 – 134.1 52.8 (31.5)	80.4 – 137.5 108.8 (13.9)	66.2 – 152.0 113.4 (13.3)	79.9 – 146.4 117.1 (13.9)
EC (mS/cm)	0.084 – 0.709 0.36 (0.13)	0.079 – 0.421 0.212 (0.083)	0.036 – 0.327 0.161 (0.073)	0.151 – 0.465 0.263 (0.076)
Temperature (C)	4.2 – 16.6 8.8 (2.8)	5.0 – 20.9 12.8 (4.4)	5.4 – 19.9 12.4 (3.7)	4.5 – 21.5 14.1 (4.4)
NH ₄ (mg/L)	<0.010 – 0.070 0.019 (0.012)	0.011 – 0.086 0.021 (0.013)	<0.010 – 0.039 0.020 (0.008)	<0.010 – 0.033 0.020 (0.005)
Chlorophyll- <i>a</i> , benthic (mg/L)	0.000 – 15.621 3.496 (3.008)	0.179 – 2.848 0.929 (0.680)	0.299 – 6.264 1.777 (1.288)	0.000 – 4.234 1.813 (1.323)
Chlorophyll- <i>a</i> , pelagic (mg/L)	0.047 – 11.833 0.913 (1.365)	0.311 – 4.473 1.243 (1.082)	0.139 – 10.816 1.168 (1.773)	0.232 – 9.891 2.287 (2.677)
Ash-free dry mass, benthic (mg/m ²)	30.0 – 260.0 100.6 (37.2)	30.0 – 160.0 83.1 (27.6)	60.0 – 150.0 88.5 (17.9)	40.0 – 258.2 80.8 (36.6)

TABLE 3. Mean parameter estimates (standard deviation) for the taxon-specific models highlighted key effects of temperature (for four key taxa). General goodness-of-fit for each model is represented by the Bayesian p -value (values between 0.01 and 0.99 indicate adequate fit).

Covariates with an interpretable effect are indicated in bold. Cells with a ‘–’ indicate that the covariate was not included in the specified model.

	Bayesian p -value	pH	Dissolved Oxygen	CGDD	CGDD ²	NH ₄	pChla	bChla	bAFDM
Anostraca	0.95 (0.01)	0.66 (0.37)	–	-0.92 (0.29)	-0.30 (0.27)	-0.43 (0.31)	–	–	-0.65 (0.36)
Chironomidae (larvae)	0.76 (0.02)	–	–	-0.22 (0.10)	0.19 (0.10)	-0.01 (0.10)	-0.11 (0.09)	0.18 (0.10)	–
Cladocera	0.76 (0.02)	-0.17 (0.24)	–	1.36 (0.22)	-1.16 (0.20)	-0.26 (0.23)	–	–	0.19 (0.17)
Limnephilidae (larvae)	0.93 (0.01)	–	0.01 (0.30)	-1.35 (0.28)	0.18 (0.24)	0.13 (0.14)	–	0.37 (0.16)	–
Physidae	0.81 (0.02)	-0.47 (0.18)	–	-0.04 (0.11)	0.16 (0.10)	0.14 (0.12)	–	–	-0.15 (0.13)

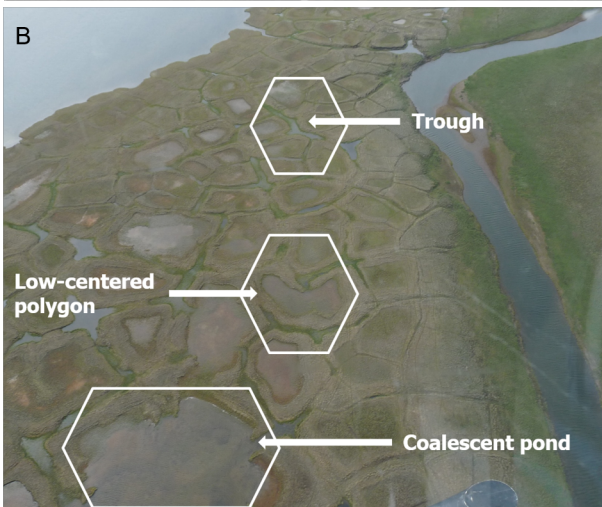
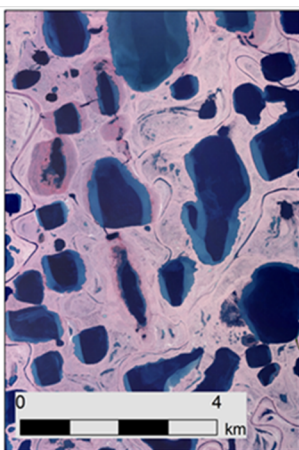
FIGURE LEGENDS

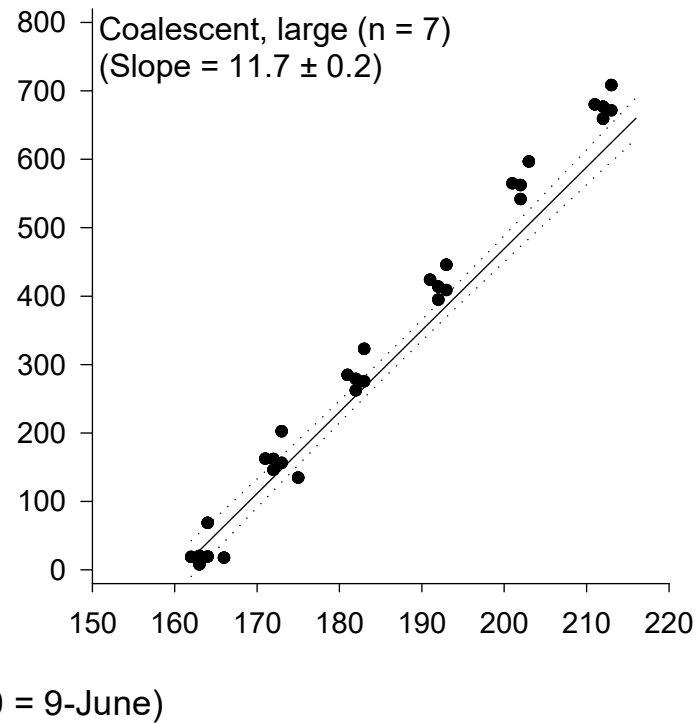
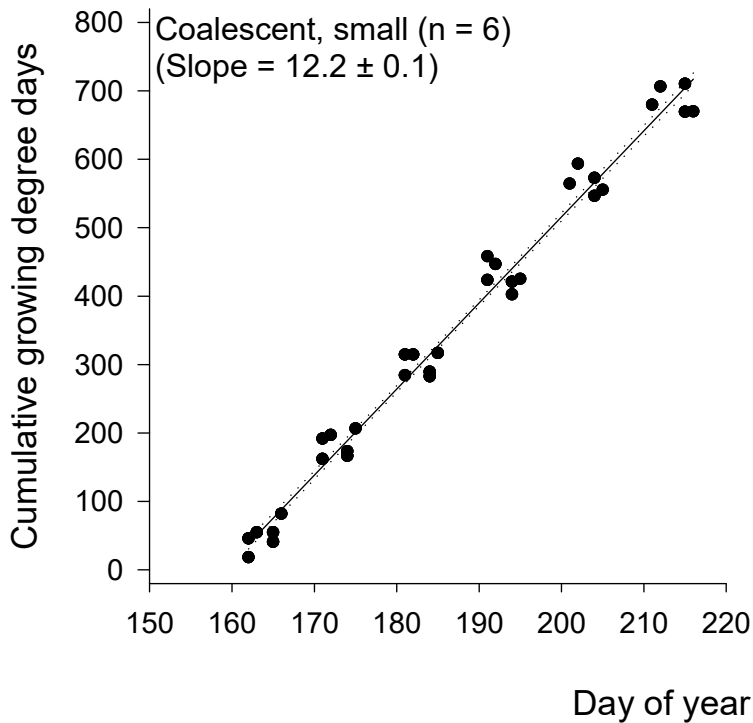
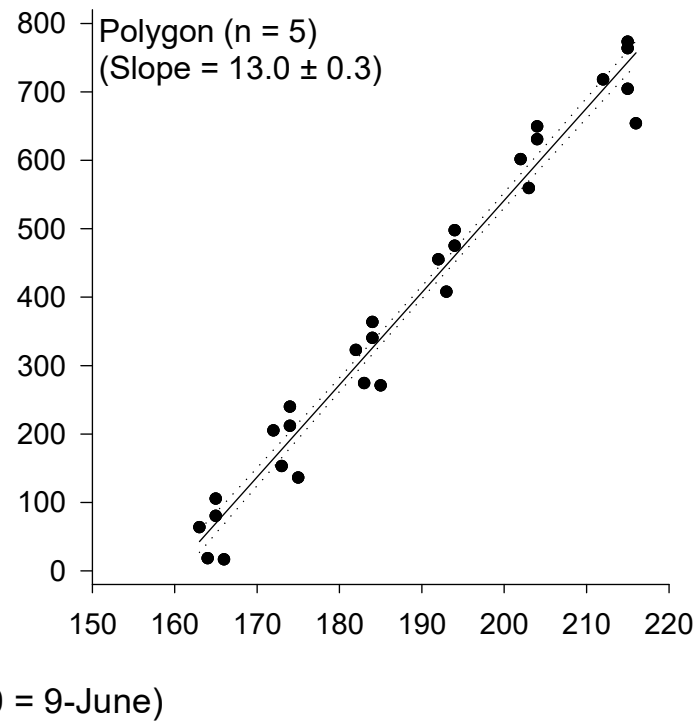
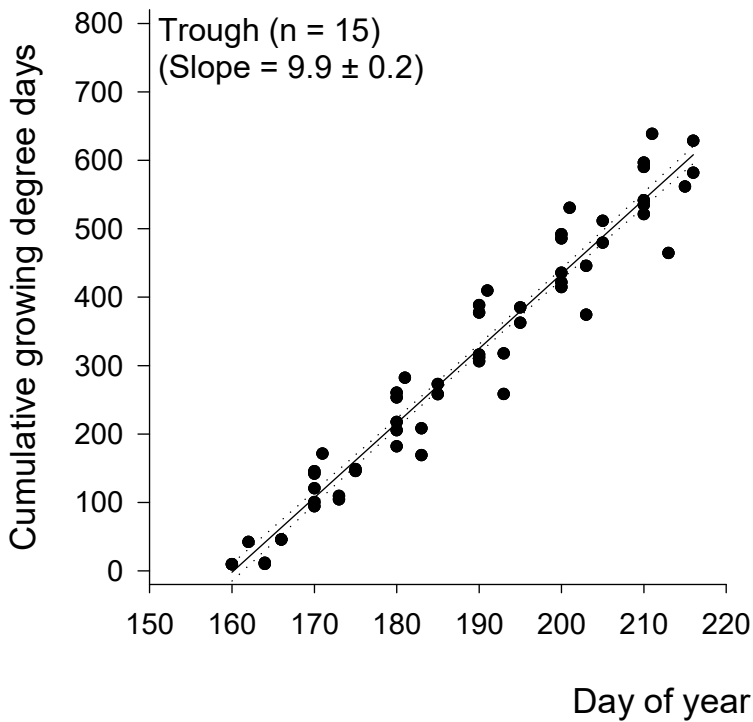
FIGURE 1 Invertebrates were collected from small thaw ponds on the Arctic Coastal Plain of Alaska: (A) Chipp River North Study Area (black rectangle, left panel, satellite view, right panel), and sampled ponds included (B) deep troughs, shallow, low-centred polygons, and larger coalescent ponds.

FIGURE 2 Relationship between water temperature (as measured by cumulative growing degree days) and Julian date for each of 4 pond types. All plots show raw data, as well as regression lines and estimated slope values (\pm 95% confidence intervals).

FIGURE 3 Predicted values for abundance for selected freshwater invertebrate taxa (restricted to individuals exposed to sampling using a net with a 500- μ m mesh) at the Chipp River North Study Area in 2013 (note variable scales for each taxon). All plots show model-based estimates (mean \pm 95% credible interval) of abundance for each pond type, as indicated on the x-axis. Means that do not share a letter are significantly different based on Bayesian *p*-values.

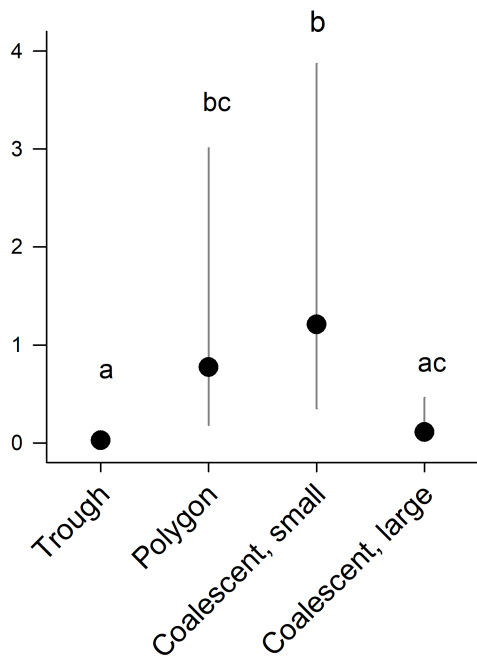
FIGURE 4 Predicted values (lines) for abundance of selected freshwater invertebrate taxa (restricted to individuals exposed to sampling using a net with a 500- μ m mesh) at the Chipp River North Study Area in 2013 (note variable scales for each taxon). All plots show model-based estimates (mean \pm 95% credible intervals) of abundance for each pond type. Raw observation data (points) are also plotted on the same scale for visual comparison.



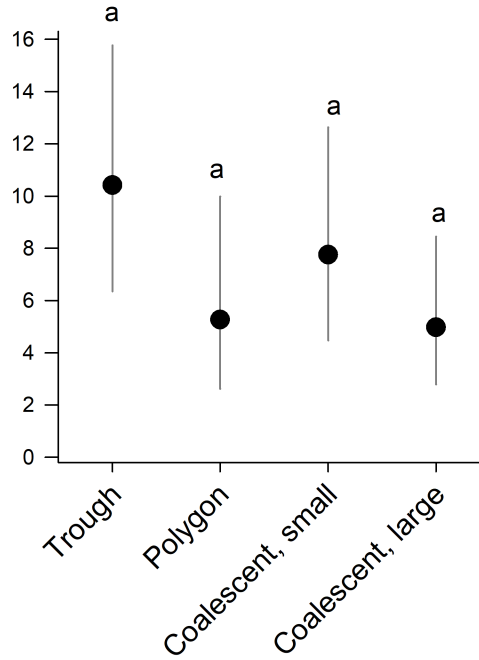


Abundance (# of individuals per m³)

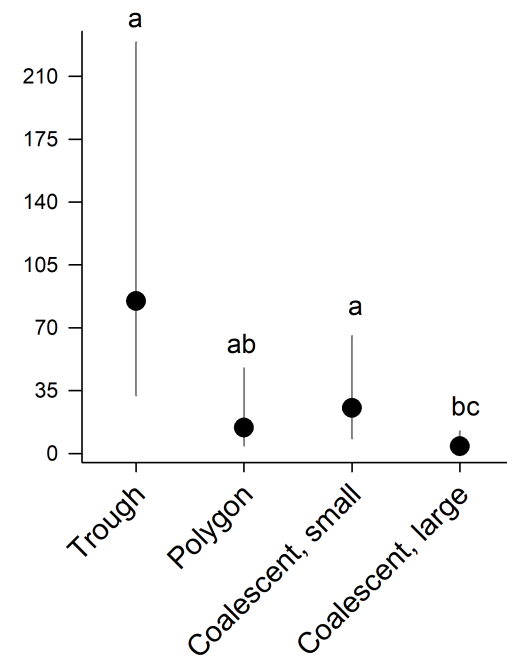
Anostraca



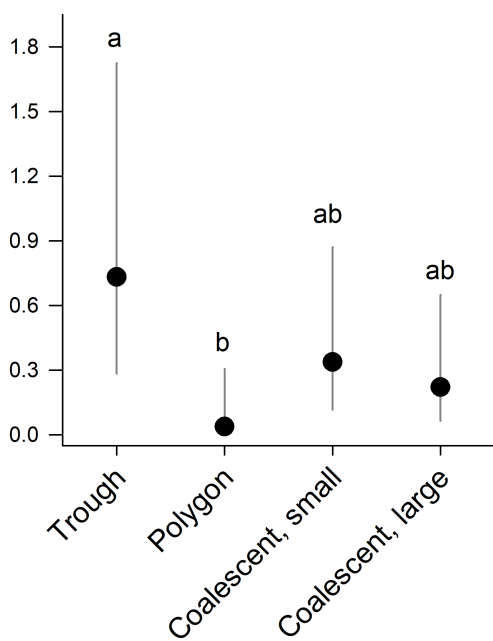
Chironomidae (larvae)



Cladocera



Limnephilidae (larvae)



Physidae

