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22 **Abstract** Environmental heterogeneity plays a determinant role in structuring taxonomic and
23 functional composition of local assemblages via various interacting processes as synthesized
24 in the metacommunity theory. In this study we evaluate the relative roles of local
25 environmental and landscape filters, spatial constraints and seasonality in organisation of
26 assemblages of Chironomidae (Diptera), a diverse aquatic insect group with winged adults, in
27 an extremely heterogeneous wetland system, Kis-Balaton, Hungary. As expected, local
28 environmental variables explained a substantial proportion of assemblage variance mainly
29 along sediment structure, macrophyte coverage, and decomposing plant matter gradients.
30 Considering the narrow spatial range of the study area, pure spatial influence was
31 unexpectedly strong, likely because of the dispersal limitation related to tall terrestrial
32 vegetation patches and mass effect related to the uneven distribution and area of certain
33 microhabitats and their species pools. Whereas landscape- and season-related variability
34 proved to be low or negligible. Taxonomic and functional feeding guild (FFG) based
35 approaches revealed the same main trends in assemblage data; however, FFGs seemed to
36 track environmental changes more tightly. We argue for the common use of taxonomic and
37 functional based approaches, and advise the improvement of species optima and tolerance
38 spectra databases to expand bioassessment power.

39

40 **Keywords:** Bioassessment, Dispersal limitation, Environmental filtering, Functional feeding
41 guild, Metacommunity, Optimum and tolerance.

42 **Introduction**

43

44 The relative importances of different processes, such as dispersal, colonisation, and
45 environmental filtering in influencing distributional patterns and meta-community dynamics
46 of organisms depend on several factors; including scale of the observation, species-specific
47 characteristics, and environmental heterogeneity (Brown, 2007; Mykrä et al., 2007; Grönroos
48 et al., 2013; Heino, 2013a,b). For example, decreasing relevance of dispersal limitation and in
49 general of spatial effect can be observed from broader geographical to microhabitat scale,
50 where environmental control becomes dominant (Cottenie, 2005; Beisner et al., 2006; Capers
51 et al., 2009). According to their structural complexity, different types of habitats provide a
52 variety of niches and resources and therefore influence composition and distribution of
53 assemblages (Stewart et al., 2003). On the other hand, spatial structure of the environmental
54 conditions itself has an influence on habitat selection and along with the dispersal ability of
55 organisms defines the potential range of habitats they can reach (Vanormelingen et al., 2008;
56 Capers et al., 2009). At the same time, seasonality affects all of these relationships;
57 environment varies seasonally and determines available food sources and refuges, while life
58 cycles of organisms define their within year occurrences and colonization patterns (García-
59 Roger et al., 2011). Hence, it is difficult, but essential for effective biomonitoring and
60 conservation management programs to understand these community-environment
61 relationships.

62 Wetlands are productive, dynamic, and heterogeneous systems. Their ecological and
63 practical value is manifested among others in the important role in water treatment (i.e. water
64 quality improvement, water storage, and flood regulation), in hydrological and nutrient cycles,
65 and in the maintenance of biotic diversity (Batzer & Wissinger, 1996; Euliss et al., 2008).
66 Several types of wetlands are known from freshwater to marine, temporary to permanent,

67 natural to constructed, etc. with varied habitat structure, water level fluctuation, and
68 macrophyte coverage (Batzer & Wissinger, 1996), but universally they provide heterogeneous
69 environment for numerous species resulting generally high local diversity (Whiles &
70 Goldowitz, 2005; Euliss et al., 2008). Therefore, wetlands are perfect places to analyse the
71 roles of environmental heterogeneity and its spatial and seasonal variability on the small scale
72 distribution and meta-community organisation of aquatic organisms, and especially of those,
73 which are characterized by relatively short life cycle, good dispersal and colonisation
74 capacity, such as chironomids.

75 Chironomids (Diptera: Chironomidae) are widely distributed and abundant insects that
76 occupy a wide-range of aquatic habitats. Thanks to their well-defined and different taxon-
77 specific tolerances and environmental optima, chironomids have long been used as indicator
78 organisms in recent bioassessment and paleolimnological studies (Brundin, 1958; Sæther,
79 1979; Gajewski et al., 2005; Milošević et al., 2013; Nicacio & Juen, 2015). In this context,
80 proper taxonomic identification of Chironomidae could provide quite beneficial information
81 about their environment (King & Richardson, 2002). However, several authors revealed that
82 assessment of functional feeding groups (FFGs), which identification generally require less
83 specified taxonomical knowledge compared to species based approaches, may promote our
84 understanding about the relevant environmental gradients and general conditions of various
85 ecosystems as well, but in a less laborious way (Usseglio-Polatera et al., 2000; Merrit et al.,
86 2002; Cummins et al., 2005; Heino, 2005, 2008). Moreover, FFG based patterns are also
87 comparable across geographical areas with different species pools, and as such may more
88 directly facilitate the development of generalized ecological models (Heino et al., 2013).
89 Considering the above mentioned features and the important role of Chironomidae in nutrient
90 cycling of aquatic ecosystems (Porinchu & MacDonald, 2003), monitoring of their FFGs and
91 the related functional diversity may be a beneficial supplementary tool for disentangling rules

92 of natural assemblage organisation and ecosystem functioning, as well as human induced
93 alterations. However, our knowledge about the FFG based patterns of chironomid
94 assemblages is still scarce.

95 Effects of different environmental factors on the distribution of chironomids have been
96 thoroughly studied (e.g. Mousavi, 2002; Bitušík & Svitok, 2006; Ferrington, 2008; Puntí et
97 al., 2009; Tóth et al., 2012, 2013). We have some information about the role of spatiality in
98 their dispersal at larger scale (Delettre et al., 1992; Delettre & Morvan, 2000) as well, but how
99 it affects their distribution and metacommunity structure at smaller scale is hardly known. In a
100 recent study, Árvai et al. (2015a) have examined the role of local environmental conditions
101 and spatial processes on chironomid communities within the large, shallow, and relatively
102 homogeneous Lake Balaton. At this within lake scale, environmental filtering proved to be
103 predominantly substantial in accordance with recent metacommunity theorems (Leibold et al.,
104 2004; Cottenie, 2005; Beisner et al., 2006; Heino, 2013a,b), however, a significant pure
105 spatial effect could be identified as well. At the same time, correspondingly to other studies
106 (Suurkuukka et al., 2012; Specziár et al., 2013), we showed what a crucial role habitat
107 heterogeneity of the relatively narrow littoral zone has in shaping total species diversity and
108 taxon-environment relationship in a lentic environment dominated by homogeneous open
109 water habitat (Árvai et al., 2015a,b). Thus, the questions raise: how small scale
110 metacommunity structure of chironomids forms in en bloc heterogeneous environment, such
111 as a wetland is, and whether taxonomic and functional assemblage patterns provide the same
112 main picture or not.

113 Accordingly, our objective was to investigate chironomid metacommunity structure and
114 underlying environmental and spatial processes in a much heterogeneous environment, in Kis-
115 Balaton, Hungary, which is a unique Ramsar and Natura 2000 (HUBF30003) wetland area.
116 Specifically, in this study we analysed: (i) to what extent different local environmental,

117 landscape and spatial factors and season contribute to the structural organization of
118 chironomid assemblages examined at taxonomic and functional (FFG) basis, and distribution
119 of individual species and FFGs; and (ii) what optima and tolerance values characterize the
120 dominant taxa regarding the most influential environmental factors. We hypothesised the
121 predominant role of environmental factors in the community assembly at this limited spatial
122 scale (Mykrä et al., 2007; Heino, 2008, 2013c) and correspondingly the separation of optima
123 and tolerance ranges of the characteristic chironomid taxa along the most influential
124 environmental gradients (Puntí et al., 2009; Árvai et al., 2015a). Since certain functional traits,
125 which are selected by local environmental factors, may be represented by multiple taxa in the
126 regional species pool (Heino et al., 2013), we assumed that the distribution of FFGs could be
127 less affected by the spatial constraints and will more closely related to local environmental
128 conditions than that of the taxa. Moreover, since both environmental conditions (i.e. food
129 resource, refuge and physical and chemical environment) provided by different habitats and
130 the life cycle of these multivoltine organisms related to the time of the year, we expected also
131 some seasonal variability (phenology; Hawkins & Sedell, 1981; Heino et al., 2013) in the
132 assemblage structure.

133

134 **Material and methods**

135 **Study area**

136 Kis-Balaton (it can be translated as “Little Lake Balaton”) evolved simultaneously with the
137 ancient Lake Balaton about 12-15,000 years ago. On the course of time, its area and
138 connectivity to Lake Balaton varied depending on precipitation related water level changes,
139 along with its habitat characteristics that varied between wetland and lake status (Cserny &
140 Nagy-Bodor, 2000). However, as part of country-wide water regulation program, most of the
141 area of Kis-Balaton was drained in multiple steps, starting in the 19th century and

142 accomplished in the first half of the 20th century. Finally, when Lake Balaton, which is a
143 highly appreciated recreational water, became hypertrophic during the 1960-1980s, due to the
144 enormous amount of nutrients got into it primarily through the River Zala, the restoration of
145 Kis-Balaton was initiated in order to retain external nutrients and protect the water quality of
146 Lake Balaton (Pomogyi, 1993).

147 As far as concerning the present situation, Kis-Balaton is a highly diverse wetland area
148 situated at the mouth of River Zala (at ca. 46° 34' - 46° 42' N, 17° 07' - 17° 16' E. and ca.
149 106 m above sea level) and has ca. 147 km² surface area (Fig. 1). The re-established system
150 consists of two major parts separated by sluices. The upstream part (along the River Zala;
151 Phase I, called Lake Hídvégi) has been in operation since 1985 and it is mainly eutrophicated
152 open water (mean depth: 80 cm) with diverse littoral macrovegetation, and has an average
153 water retention time of 30 days. The downstream part (Phase II, including Lake Fenéki and
154 Ingói-grove) was inundated in 1992, but its construction was completed only in 2014.
155 Majority of this area is covered by macrophytes, dominantly by common reed grass
156 *Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin ex Steud.

157 The Kis-Balaton wetland system is exceedingly heterogeneous with natural and semi-
158 natural aquatic habitats, including large areas with open water, emergent, submerged and
159 floating leaved aquatic macrovegetation, riparian vegetation, wet and inundated forests and
160 meadows, canals either with and without currents, river habitats, ripraps, and separated
161 borrow pits of variable succession stages, as well as extended patches of terrestrial vegetation.
162 Most abundant submerged and floating leaved macrophytes are rigid hornwort *Ceratophyllum*
163 *demersum* L., Eurasian watermilfoil *Myriophyllum spicatum* L., water chestnut *Trapa natans*
164 L., water knotweed *Polygonum amphibium* (L.) Gray, European white water-lily *Nymphaea*
165 *alba* L. and yellow water-lily *Nuphar lutea* (L.) Sm. In addition, rootless duckweed *Wolffia*
166 *arrhiza* (L.) Horkel ex Wimm., common frogbit *Hydrocharis morsus-ranae* L., and water

167 soldier *Stratiotes aloides* L. occurs in smaller patches. Extended areas of emergent
168 macrophytes, especially in the downstream part, are composed primarily of common reed
169 grass *P. australis* supplemented with *Carex* (e.g. *Carex acutiformis* Ehrh., *Carex riparia*
170 Curtis) and *Typha* species. Hydrological conditions of the system are regulated by sluices,
171 dikes and pumping-stations, and two fish-passes provide the longitudinal permeability for
172 fishes along the route of Lake Balaton–Kis-Balaton–Zala River within the probable long-term
173 water level range.

174

175 Sampling design

176 To cover effects both from environmental variability and seasonality on chironomid
177 assemblages with a reliable effort, we conducted a two staged sampling during 2014-2015.
178 Moreover, in order to capture spatial effects from any constrained patterns in dispersion as
179 well, sampling sites were dispersed not only along environmental gradients but also in space
180 to an extent as it was feasible (Fig. 1).

181 First, between 23 June and 01 July, 2014 we performed an extended sampling at 79 sampling
182 sites to obtain a comprehensive picture of the chironomid assemblages, their spatial patterns
183 and environmental relationships across the whole system, including all the major habitat types
184 listed in the Sampling Area section. Then, to capture seasonal variability in chironomid
185 assemblages and their relationships with the influential environmental and spatial factors, the
186 sampling was repeated during 29-30 September, 2014 and 21-22 April, 2015 at 32 sampling
187 sites, representing most of the environmental heterogeneity and its spatial structure, and with
188 adequate density of larvae, based on the results of the summer survey. Unfortunately, two of
189 the sampling sites became dry in spring 2015 due to a faulty water regulation action, thus,
190 sampling was insensate there.

191 Three parallel samples were taken from the sediment at each sampling site using Ekman
192 grab and merged for analyses (total sampled area per site: 648 cm²). Sediment samples were
193 washed through a 0.25 mm mesh sieve and transported to the laboratory in a cooling box.
194 Riprap habitats were sampled by cleaning and washing algae or moss coating and sediment
195 from a measured rock surface being equivalent to Ekman grab samples into plastic containers.
196 In the laboratory, chironomids were sorted from sediment alive by sugar flotation method
197 (Anderson, 1959), euthanized, and preserved in 70% ethanol. For the identification, larvae
198 were cleared by digestion in 10% KOH and slide-mounted in Euparal[®]. Identification was
199 performed to species or the lowest possible taxonomic level according to the keys of Bíró
200 (1981), Cranston (1982), Wiederholm (1983), Janecek (1998), Vallenduuk (1999), Sæther et
201 al. (2000), Vallenduuk & Moller Pillot (2002) and Vallenduuk & Morozova (2005). In
202 addition, we also recorded the number of Ceratopogonidae and Chaoboridae larvae in the
203 samples without further taxonomic examination.

204

205 Local environmental, landscape and spatial variables

206 Parallel to sampling, we measured a series of local physical-, chemical- and biotic variables
207 (Appendix A) that have been found influencing assemblage structure of chironomids in the
208 region (Árva et al., 2015a) and elsewhere (e.g. Real et al., 2000; Rae, 2004; Free et al., 2009;
209 Puntí et al., 2009; Tóth et al., 2012). At each sampling site, we recorded water depth, Secchi
210 disc depth, and temperature, current, dissolved oxygen concentration, pH, and conductivity of
211 the water close to the bottom. Emergent, submerged, and floating leaved macrophytes,
212 filamentous algae, moss, riparian vegetation, and tree coverage (%) was estimated visually
213 within a circle of 3 m diameter around the sampling point. The substratum of the sites was
214 inspected for percentage compound of clay (grain size ≤ 0.002 mm), silt (0.002-0.06 mm),
215 sand (0.06-2 mm), gravel (2-4 mm), rock (>200 mm), and peat. Moreover, occurrence of fine

216 (FOM) and coarse (COM) decomposing organic matter particles, reed and tree leaves, and
217 woody debris (excluding leaves) in the sediment, and occurrence of dead trees at the site was
218 rated on a six category scale (0-5). Percentage organic matter content was assessed from dry
219 (at 50°C for 72-96 hours until constant mass was reached) samples of the upper 2 cm
220 sediment layer according to the loss-on-ignition method at 550°C for 1 hour (LOI550; Heiri et
221 al., 2001). Chlorophyll-a was extracted from whole water column samples by acetone method
222 (Aminot & Rey, 2000), and then, its concentration was measured spectrophotometrically
223 (Shimadzu UV-1601 spectrophotometer).

224 Considered landscape variables encompass distances from the closest clump, shore, reed
225 grass stand, floating leaved or submerged macrophyte meadow, and open water measured by
226 GPS equipment. In addition, sites were classified as undisturbed and disturbed, with the latter
227 indicating continuous or recent (i.e. within two years) habitat modifications (e.g. dredging,
228 inundation, vegetation cutting).

229 Relative position of each sampling site was determined by a set of theoretical spatial
230 variables modelling broad to fine scale spatial patterns among sampling sites by performing
231 principal coordinates of neighbour matrices (PCNM; Borcard et al., 2004).

232

233 Statistical analyses

234 To analyse the distribution of chironomids, we used both taxon and FFG based approaches.
235 Therefore, chironomid taxa were assigned to FFGs according to their feeding habits (Moog,
236 2002) based on the score table of IS Arrow database (Czech Hydrometeorological Institute,
237 2009; see Appendix B) prior to statistical analysis. FFGs presented in our samples were:
238 shredders (SHRs), grazers (GRAs), active filter-feeders (AFILs), passive filter-feeders
239 (PFILs), detritus feeders (DETs), miners (MINs), predators (PREs), and parasites (PARs).

240 We performed partial direct gradient and partial multiple second degree polynomial
241 regression analyses (MPRA) followed by a variance partitioning approach (Cushman &
242 McGarigal, 2002; Peres-Neto et al., 2006) to evaluate the role of local environmental,
243 landscape and spatial factors, and season in the distribution of benthic chironomids at the
244 assemblage (based both on taxa and FFGs), individual taxon, and FFG levels, respectively.
245 Two separate analyses, one with the summer samples only and a second with the seasonal
246 samples including just the relevant sites of the summer sampling, were performed for each
247 response variable groups (i.e. assemblages of taxa, assemblages of FFGs, dominant taxa, and
248 dominant FFGs).

249 Rare taxa and FFGs occurring in <2% of the samples or with <0.1% representation in the
250 total abundance were excluded from the analyses to reduce their disproportionate effect in the
251 multivariate statistics (Legendre & Legendre, 2012), and then abundance data were $\ln(x+1)$
252 transformed to improve their normality and reduce heteroscedasticity. Of explanatory
253 variables, season and disturbance of landscape variables were re-coded into binary dummy
254 variables (Lepš & Šmilauer, 2003). Variables measured on continuous scales and representing
255 percentage distribution were $\ln(x+1)$ and $\arcsin\sqrt{x}$ transformed, respectively. Whereas,
256 categorically scaled local environmental, pH and spatial PCNM variables were not
257 transformed (see Appendix A). PCNM variables model the position of each sampling site
258 relative to all the other sites, similarly as they distribute on the map (Borcard et al., 2004;
259 Dray et al., 2006). During the procedure, a matrix of $\ln(x+1)$ transformed Euclidean distances
260 between all pairs of sampling sites was constructed from the GPS coordinates and subjected
261 to a principal coordinate analysis using Past version 2.17 software (Hammer et al., 2001). The
262 procedure we applied differs somewhat from the original approach (Borcard & Legendre,
263 2002; Borcard et al., 2004; Dray et al., 2006), in respect of the distribution of our sampling
264 sites. The truncation procedure (Borcard & Legendre, 2002) lost its relevance as the truncated

265 distance (i.e. four times the largest distance between closest neighbouring sites; 9,103 m in
266 this case) was close to the maximum distance between any two sites (13,180 m). Therefore,
267 we did not truncate any distances; instead, based on the assumption that effect of dispersal
268 constraints, as long as they are valid, could be cumulated at a decreasing rate with distance,
269 we used logarithmic transformed distances for generating PCNM variables.

270

271 Assemblage level analysis: since detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) indicated
272 relatively long gradient length in both taxon (4.14 and 4.04 in S.D. units, for summer and
273 seasonal data respectively) and FFG (1.94 and 1.73 in S.D. units) based assemblage data, we
274 decided to use canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) for further evaluation (Lepš &
275 Šmilauer, 2003). Potential explanatory variables were filtered for collinearity at $r > 0.7$ and
276 subjected to a forward stepwise selection procedure (at $P < 0.05$) in CCA based on Monte
277 Carlo randomization test with 9,999 unrestricted permutations. Further, we added $\ln(x+1)$
278 transformed abundance data of Ceratopogonidae and Chaoboridae as supplementary variables
279 to the CCA model in order to support the graphical interpretation of the results. Then, to
280 partition the effects of significant variable groups on chironomid assemblages, a series of
281 CCAs and partial CCAs were conducted (Cushman & McGarigal, 2002). DCAs and CCAs
282 were performed using CANOCO version 4.5 software (ter Braak & Šmilauer, 2002).

283 Individual taxon and FFG level analyses: during the MPRA we followed basically the
284 same methodological approach (i.e. variable selection procedure followed by variation
285 partitioning based on the final model) as described above using STATISTICA 8.0 software
286 (www.statsoft.com). We performed regression analyses for the most abundant chironomid
287 taxa and FFGs occurring in ≥ 25 samples, and used pure and quadratic forms of the same
288 explanatory variables as in the case of assemblages, but excluding PCNM variables with $< 1\%$
289 eigenvalues (i.e. only PCNM1-20 were included in the primary selection procedure). This

290 type of regression enables modelling of both linear and unimodal responses of organisms
291 along different gradients (Legendre & Legendre, 2012). During the forward stepwise variable
292 selection in MPRA, pure and quadratic forms of each potential explanatory variable were
293 considered as independent variables.

294 In order to better understand the nature of the spatial effect, we examined the role of pure
295 distance related dispersal limitation in the observed spatial variability of chironomid
296 assemblages by correlating between sites assemblage similarities with the concerning
297 geographical distances, using the non-parametric Spearman rank correlation test (i.e. Distance
298 Decay Analysis). The spatial distance matrix of the sites was constructed by calculating
299 geographical distances between all pairs of the sites, whereas pairwise assemblage similarities
300 were quantified using the Bray-Curtis similarity index separately for taxon and FFG based
301 relative abundance data.

302 Optima and tolerances of the abundant chironomid taxa occurring in ≥ 10 samples for the
303 most influential environmental factors were assessed by weighted averaging regression
304 method using C2 version 1.7.4 software (Juggins, 2007).

305

306 **Results**

307 Chironomid assemblages

308 Samplings provided altogether 12,272 individuals of 64 chironomid taxa belonging to 4
309 subfamilies: Tanypodinae (11), Prodiamesinae (1), Orthoclaadiinae (12) and Chironominae
310 (40). The average taxon richness was 6 ranging between 0 and 25 taxa per sample. List of
311 captured taxa and their abundances are presented in Appendix B. Most abundant taxa were
312 *Glyptotendipes pallens*, *Chironomus plumosus* agg., *Cricotopus tremulus* gr., and
313 *Polypedilum nubeculosum*. Of the 8 FFGs presented in the samples, detritus feeders (DETs)
314 dominated in all seasons.

315
316 Chironomid assemblage–environmental relationships in summer
317 In the taxon based CCA model, local environmental, landscape, and spatial variables
318 explained 53.7% of the total variance in the relative abundance data. First CCA axis explained
319 10.5% of taxon variation and correlated positively with reed grass leaves and water depth, and
320 negatively with algae coverage and PCNM1 that reveal broader scale spatiality. The second
321 axis (8.4%) captured mainly a depth gradient in negative association with silt and water depth
322 and positive with algae coverage and disturbance (Fig. 2a). A large part of the variance was
323 related only to spatial variables (23.5% as pure effect), although local environmental variables
324 explained also considerable proportion (17.8% as pure effect and additional 9.3% as shared
325 effect). Explanatory power of landscape variables was relatively low both as pure and shared
326 effects (3.6% and 1.2%, respectively; Fig. 3a). Chironomid taxa scores and vectors of
327 explanatory variables distributed quite evenly in the ordination plane, indicating a highly
328 heterogeneous system without clearly separating habitat- and assemblage types.
329 Ceratopogonidae, used as supplementary indicator taxa in the analysis, primarily associated
330 with *Procladius choreus*, *Tanytus kraatzi*, and *C. plumosus* agg. dominated assemblages of
331 mainly deeper, open water habitats with silty sediment. Whereas, Chaoboridae, the other
332 supplementary taxa, occurred mainly in deep, vegetated areas with high amount of
333 decomposing reed grass leaves, and other macrophyte remains on the bottom, and with very
334 low oxygen concentration, but they did not clearly associate with any characteristic
335 chironomid assemblages (Fig. 2a).

336 The FFG based CCA model explained 75.6% of the variance in the chironomid
337 assemblages. Here, first CCA axis (37.4%) represented positive correlation with algae
338 coverage, disturbance, and current and negative correlation with silt and water depth. Second
339 CCA axis (22.3%) correlated positively with moss coverage and negatively with PCNM1

340 representing broad scale spatiality (Fig. 2b). Distribution of FFGs was affected the most by
341 local environmental variables (36.1% as pure effect and additional 15.7% as shared effect;
342 Fig. 3b). On the other hand, variation captured only by spatial variables proved to be also high
343 (21% as pure effect) again, while importance of landscape variables remained small (2.8% as
344 pure effect) in this case as well. FFGs provided a clearer grouping of habitats and associated
345 assemblage types, compared to the taxon based analysis. Deep areas with silty sediment were
346 predominated by PREs, DETs and AFILs, whereas algae coverage and current favoured the
347 occurrence of SHRs, GRAs, MINs, and PARs. PFILs occurred only at a few sites and
348 represented a clear outlier group in our dataset indicating their uniqueness in the system (Fig.
349 2b).

350

351 Distribution of abundant taxa and FFGs in summer

352 MPRA could be run with six taxa and six FFGs for the summer data. Proportion of explained
353 variance was much less than at the assemblage level and it ranged between 17.7-60.1% for
354 taxa, and 32.2-51.8% for FFGs (Fig. 4a). Generally, local environmental variables, especially
355 substrate type and organic matter related variables had higher explanatory power in taxa
356 abundance patterns than spatial and landscape variables. MPRA model proved to be less
357 effective in the *Procladius* sp. with only 17.7% of variance, explained mainly by landscape
358 variables (10.2% as pure effect). Spatiality per se affected notably only the distribution of
359 *Chironomus dorsalis* (28.6% as pure effect). At FFG level, influence of local environmental
360 variables should be highlighted, as well. However, PCNM variables captured also a
361 remarkable proportion of variance in AFILs, DETs, and PREs (Fig. 4a).

362

363 Effect of season on assemblage level patterns

364 CCA revealed a very similar pattern in seasonal samples than in the summer samples only,
365 with higher spatial and environmental resolution based either on taxa or FFGs (Figs 5a,b).
366 Mainly due to the important contribution of local environmental, landscape, and spatial
367 variables, the models explained again considerable 63.4% and 64.4% fractions of the total
368 variance of chironomid abundance data based on taxa and FFGs, respectively (Figs 6a,b).
369 However, surprisingly, seasonal variability proved to be marginal (3.3% as pure effect and
370 additional 2.4% as shared effect) in taxon based approach, and proved to be absolutely
371 insignificant in FFG based approach.

372

373 Effect of season on distribution of abundant taxa and FFGs

374 Seasonality had little influence on the distribution of individual taxa and FFGs as well (Fig.
375 4b). Only *Cricotopus sylvestris* gr., *C. dorsalis*, *C. plumosus* agg., and *Endochironomus*
376 *albipennis* taxa, and AFILs and DETs showed some seasonality to an extent of 3.4% to 16.9%
377 of their total abundance variability in samples. Abundances of *Cladopelma virescens*,
378 *Cryptochironomus defectus*, *G. pallens*, *Parachironomus varus*, and GRAs, MINs, and PARs
379 were highly influenced by local environmental and landscape variables. Like in summer
380 samples, considerable spatial variance was observed in the distribution of *C. dorsalis* (21.2%
381 as pure effect).

382

383 Distance decay in assemblage similarity

384 Correlation analysis revealed no or very little distance related variability in both taxon and
385 FFG based assemblage composition data regarding either the detailed summer or the seasonal
386 samples (Table 1).

387

388 Environmental optima and tolerances of abundant chironomid taxa

389 Optima and tolerances of dominant chironomid taxa, Chaoboridae and Ceratopogonidae
390 regarding some influential environmental factors are presented in Fig. 7. Within the studied
391 ranges, several chironomid taxa, especially those exhibiting higher optimum values, proved to
392 be rather tolerant for the variability of several environmental factors. Nevertheless, some quite
393 useful indicative patterns could also be identified. For instance, *Chironomus luridus* agg., *C.*
394 *dorsalis*, and *Glyptotendipes* sp., which had the lowest tolerance limits and optima for oxygen
395 concentration, seemed also to be capable of tolerating largest conductivity, LOI550, and
396 highest amount of decomposing reed leaves. *C. sylvestris* gr., *P. varus*, *Dicrotendipes*
397 *nervosus*, and *G. pallens* revealed highest optima for total macrophyte and algae coverage,
398 preferred shallow water with substratum characterized by low COM and low to moderate
399 FOM content. In addition, *P. varus* appeared mainly in harder surfaces and showed the
400 highest optima and tolerance values for water current.

401 Of the two supplementary taxa, Chaoboridae larvae typically positioned at either end of the
402 studied gradients giving some useful indication about the extremity (e.g. regarding the lower
403 limit of oxygen and chlorophyll-a concentration, and highest values of conductivity) not being
404 suitable for most chironomid taxa. Whereas, Ceratopogonidae showed high tolerance and
405 intermediate optima for most environmental factor and thus proved to represent less indicative
406 value in this respect within the studied system.

407

408 **Discussion**

409 Spatial structuring of taxa and FFGs

410 According to the metacommunity theory, local assemblages are structured by spatial dispersal
411 processes of species and prevailing environmental conditions (i.e. environmental filtering)
412 (Leibold et al., 2004; Cottenie, 2005). Importance of various landscape and local
413 environmental factors in selecting chironomid taxa for local chironomid assemblages is quite

414 well understood (e.g. Mousavi, 2002; Porinchu & MacDonald, 2003; Gajewski et al., 2005;
415 Ferrington, 2008; Tóth et al., 2012; Milošević et al., 2013). However, the role of pure spatial
416 influences (i.e. which are unrelated to local environmental conditions) and the rules of
417 function based metacommunity assembly across heterogeneous habitats are much less known,
418 especially at smaller spatial scale. Therefore, we investigated the contribution of different
419 spatial, landscape, and local environmental factors, and season to the organization of
420 assemblages of chironomid taxa and FFGs within an exceedingly heterogeneous wetland area.

421 As we expected, local environmental variables explained a substantial proportion of
422 variance in assemblage data in Kis-Balaton. At the same time, an unexpectedly high amount
423 of variance (13.0-25.6%) was related to pure spatial influence, especially in taxon based
424 analysis, where its effect was even higher than the pure environmental control. In agreement
425 with the results of Árvai et al. (2015a) on the metacommunity structure of chironomids within
426 the mainly homogeneous Lake Balaton, this finding suggests that small scale spatial processes
427 can be more important in aquatic insects with winged adults than supposed earlier, at least in
428 certain systems. As revealed by the results of the correlation analysis, underlying processes of
429 the identified spatial effect could be more complex than pure distance related trends in
430 assemblage structure. The relatively high significance of pure spatial patterning within this
431 wetland landscape probably could be related to the joint effect of two processes; (i) limited
432 dispersal of midge taxa and (ii) mass effect from certain habitat types with abundant stocks.
433 Chironomids with their winged adults are considered as moderate dispersers which dispersal
434 performances, beside the distance, are also influenced by landscape structures and winds even
435 at very short distances (Delettre et al., 1992; Delettre & Morvan, 2000). Kis-Balaton is a
436 diverse mixture of aquatic and terrestrial habitats with heterogeneous vegetation, including
437 clumps and forested areas as well. This taller terrestrial vegetation, along with the patchily
438 distributed emergent macrophyte stands, provide not just resting places for adults, but at the

439 mean time represent dispersal barriers, and therefore cannot be ignored as essential
440 component of population dynamics and metacommunity organisation of chironomids
441 (Delettre et al., 1992; Delettre & Morvan, 2000). Simultaneously, the highly variable area and
442 patchy distribution of certain microhabitat types likely support the influence of the mass effect
443 related metacommunity patterns. Namely, species which larvae are adapted to the dominant
444 microhabitats and thus have high larval abundances in the area have higher probability to
445 reach new habitats in adulthood than those require more specified larval environment and thus
446 occur sporadically and in low overall abundance (Leibold et al., 2004; Heino, 2013c).

447 Influences of dispersal limitation and mass effect on local assemblage structure are not
448 distinguishable on the basis of spatial models and variation partitioning approach (Heino,
449 2013b) and consequently, we cannot rate their relative importance in this specific case.
450 However, these two spatial processes act to the same direction and jointly determine the
451 composition and abundance of potential colonizers. The outcome of the above discussed
452 spatial processes perhaps also depends on species-specific traits, and their influence on FFGs
453 is thus largely indirect. Moreover, since FFGs are highly redundant taxonomically, spatial
454 processes that influence species composition of local assemblages do not necessarily alter
455 functionality. Therefore, it is not surprising that, in accordance with our assumption, pure
456 spatial effect was less important, while local environmental influence more pronounced in
457 assemblage structuring of FFGs than that of the taxa.

458

459 Landscape structuring of taxa and FFGs

460 Landscape has an important influence on taxonomic and functional variability of local
461 assemblages in aquatic macroinvertebrates, including chironomids, mainly at broader spatial
462 scale (Poff, 1997; Roque et al., 2010). In this study, with a relatively narrow spatial range,
463 landscape variables received, however, relatively little explanatory power and their influence

464 largely overlapped with the effect of spatial and local environmental variables. We consider
465 this result unsurprising, as sampling sites were quite close to each other and thus it was hard
466 to relate much landscape variability to particular sites. The sole landscape variable that was
467 retained in all of our assemblage level models (i.e. summer samples only, seasonal samples
468 and both based either on taxa or FFGs) was the disturbance. In this area, disturbance was
469 related to water regulation works, including the establishment of new habitats and sediment
470 dredging. Both of these interferences configured new colonisable environments with fresh
471 substrate, and less macrophytes and available food for chironomids than in the surrounding
472 habitats.

473

474 Environmental control of taxa and FFGs

475 Direct gradient analysis (i.e. CCA) revealed that sediment structure, degree and composition
476 of plant coverage, the amount and origin of decomposing plant material, and water depth were
477 the most influential environmental properties in structuring chironomid assemblages on either
478 taxonomic or functional basis. These results are highly congruent with findings of previous
479 studies on environment-chironomid relationships in various habitats (e.g. Ali et al., 2002; Rae,
480 2004; Tarkowska-Kukuryk, 2014; Árvá et al., 2015a). Although FFGs are defined roughly,
481 based only on the feeding habits of chironomids, these functional traits assigned in large the
482 same environmental variables to be influential on assemblage composition than those set by
483 the more detailed and direct taxonomic approach. Moreover, probably because being less
484 sensitive to spatial processes (due to a taxonomic redundancy; see above), FFGs seemed to
485 respond more sensitively to environmental changes than assemblages of species.

486 In accordance with the general knowledge, sediment physical structure had a marked
487 control on local assemblage structure in this wetland system as well. Similarly to Lake
488 Balaton (Árvá et al., 2015a) and Neusiedler See (Wolfram, 1996) the fraction of silt in the

489 sediment had the most marked segregation power among optima of *T. kraatzi*, *C. plumosus*
490 agg., *Procladius* sp. and *Tanytus punctipennis*, being associated with soft, silty sediment,
491 contrary mainly to taxa associated with algae coating on stones (e.g. *P. varus*, *C. sylvestris*
492 gr., *D. nervosus*) and other harder substrates (e.g. *C. mancus* gr.) in Kis-Balaton. The role of
493 filamentous algae coverage on the bottom surface in itself had a remarkable explanatory
494 power, as it was also usually associated with harder substrates, current and higher oxygen
495 concentration; conditions which are highly divergent from the dominant environmental
496 characteristics of this wetland area. In accordance with the results of Tarkowska-Kukuryk &
497 Kornijow (2008) and Tarkowska-Kukuryk (2014), for example *C. sylvestris* gr., *D. nervosus*,
498 *E. albipennis*, *Polypedilum sordens*, *G. pallens*, and *P. varus* were associated with these
499 microhabitats. The same gradient (i.e. silty sediment vs. harder substrate, algae coverage, and
500 current) proved to be the most important in structuring FFGs; PREs and DETs were
501 associated with silt and MINs, SHRs, and PARs with harder substrates.

502 Kis-Balaton, like wetlands in general, is inhabited by a dense and productive macrophyte
503 flora, and consequently, its nutrient cycle is largely based on the huge amount of
504 decomposing macrophyte particles from various origins (c.f. Magee, 1993; Spieles & Mitsch,
505 2000), although the role of the phytoplankton is also significant in some open water sites. In
506 accordance with these, DETs followed by AFILs proved to be predominant, indicating
507 nutrient rich habitats and confirming the importance of FOM and periphyton as food sources.
508 Though, in spite of that litter from different kind of plants was extremely abundant in most
509 sites, related environmental variables (i.e. reed grass leaves, tree leaves and debris) captured
510 little or no variance in chironomid assemblages. Moreover, SHRs which could process coarse
511 plant matters (i.e. reed or tree leaves, COM; Cummins et al. 1989) proved to be relatively rare
512 (likewise in Spieles & Mitsch, 2000 and Whiles & Goldowitz, 2005); actually, SHRs
513 associated with filamentous algae, water current, and disturbed habitats where coarse

514 decomposing plant matters hardly occur. In the light of these findings, it is highly probable
515 that chironomid taxa receiving high scores as SHRs, may rather prefer feeding on live
516 epiphytic algae than on coarse decomposing plant matters. Similarly, it is difficult to interpret
517 the marked separation of PFILs in the CCA ordination space. PFILs were characteristic
518 primarily for inundated forests with cooler water, presence of moss and dead tree parts and
519 little or no planktonic algae (assessed as Chl-a concentration), and FOM to be filtered out.

520

521 Effect of seasonality

522 Seasonality had little influence on the structure of local assemblages and the distribution of
523 individual taxa and FFGs in this study. This is seemingly surprising, since a series of
524 environmental processes show cyclic alteration on a yearly basis. Effect of seasonality could
525 often be observed in the structural variability of aquatic macroinvertebrate assemblages as
526 well (Hawkins & Seddel, 1981; Šporka et al., 2006; Milošević et al., 2013; Tóth et al., 2013;
527 but see Ali et al., 2002), but habitat heterogeneity can act as a stabilizing force even along the
528 temporal scale and mask the effect of seasonality on local assemblages (Brown, 2007).

529 Coincidentally, we consider that a marked environmental and spatial control of local
530 assemblages derived from the extreme habitat and landscape heterogeneity could dominate
531 over seasonality in this wetland area. In addition, it is highly probable that, in the forward
532 stepwise selection procedure, retained local environmental variables may cover also some
533 seasonal patterning and thence the importance of seasonality might be underestimated.

534

535 Implications for bioassessment: taxa vs. FFGs

536 Beside the classic taxonomic approach, trait based or functional analyses are recently
537 becoming increasingly popular in ecological and bioassessment studies. One of the
538 unquestioned advantages of trait based analyses, compared to the pure taxon based approach,

539 is that they may provide more direct answers about the functionality of assemblages and
540 characteristic ecological processes in the studied ecosystem (Heino et al., 2013). In addition,
541 some researchers also emphasize that this approach does not necessarily require strict species
542 level identification of organisms (e.g. Usseglio-Polatera et al., 2000; Merrit et al., 2002;
543 Cummins et al., 2005). However, in the case of Chironomidae, proper FFG classification is
544 also laboursome; it requires species level identification – as far as possible – (Moog, 2002),
545 and detailed autecological knowledge.

546 Of the 64 taxa presented in our samples, we found relevant FFG scoring information for
547 only 45 taxa. This implies that much more research is needed to broaden our knowledge about
548 the autecology of chironomids for improving function based analyses. The most important
549 weakness of the trait based approach is, however, that behavioural traits of many taxa are
550 highly plastic, and the function (i.e. the relevant FFG score) of a species may vary during the
551 ontogeny, seasonally, and in relation with the particular environmental conditions (Henriques-
552 Oliveira et al., 2003; Sanseverino & Nessimian, 2008). After all, due to their high feeding
553 plasticity, many chironomid taxa or at least some of their life stages are considered to be
554 omnivorous as a general rule (Moog, 2002). Since ecological plasticity and ontogenetic
555 variability in functionality is quite usual in many animal taxa, therefore, the original concept
556 of Root (1967) who defined functional guild as ‘a group of species that exploit the same class
557 of environmental resources in a similar way’ has also been refined and the recent theory is
558 that guilds (e.g. functional feeding groups) organize rather over intraspecific categories (i.e.
559 species life stages) and not on species level as well as they are often variable in time and
560 space (Werner & Gilliam, 1984; Cohen et al., 1993; Specziár & Rezsú, 2009). The functional
561 feeding group approach implemented by Moog (2002) appreciates this ecological plasticity
562 and therefore rates each taxon based on the diet, morphology of mouth parts and feeding
563 behaviour of their third and/or fourth larval instar stages using multiple feeding guild scores

564 to take into account their functional versatility and usual omnivory. Nevertheless, such a
565 general categorisation can model functionality only based on average patterns, but may
566 provide only a biased estimate at local scale. It is also problematic to include life stage
567 specific information in such a generalized scoring table because of the lack of the appropriate
568 information about the earlier life stages of most taxa and the environment related diet
569 ontogeny in many cases (c.f. Specziár & Rezsú, 2009). Accordingly, in FFG based analyses
570 classification of taxa should be based on direct ecological observations whenever it is possible
571 and the use of such general score tables be preferably restricted to large-scale comparisons.

572 In this study, taxa and FFGs provided very similar results about the roles of the most
573 important processes structuring local assemblages in the study area; although, FFG based
574 patterns tended to be even more closely related to environmental conditions than taxon based
575 patterns. Due to the taxonomic redundancy of functional groups, benefits of function based
576 approaches clearly increase with the increasing spatial extent of the study and in landscapes
577 with dispersal barriers (Heino et al., 2013). Whereas, because of the differences between the
578 species pools of biogeographic regions, a function based approach is practically the only
579 option for analysing assemblage-environment patterns at the largest spatial scales.

580 On the other hand, due to their more specified responses to a series of environmental
581 properties, species data in many respects are highly beneficial for bioassessment. Knowledge
582 of the environmental optima and tolerance ranges of species provide reliable chance to rate,
583 predict and reconstruct environmental conditions of present and past aquatic ecosystems,
584 based on information about the structure of local assemblages (Juggins & Birks, 2012). Our
585 species optima and tolerance results suggest, however, that environmental ranges of an
586 effective chironomid based bioassessment may be further expanded by including some other
587 Diptera groups (e.g. Chaoboridae and Ceratopogonidae) with extreme environmental optima
588 and tolerances.

589

590 **Conclusions**

591 In spite of the relatively small spatial extent and extreme environmental heterogeneity of the
592 studied wetland area, we found unexpectedly high spatial influence in local chironomid
593 assemblages. We consider that this phenomenon could be a result of dispersal limitation,
594 caused by the heterogeneous landscape structure including tall terrestrial vegetation as well,
595 and the mass effect, induced by the highly fragmented occurrence and variable area of certain
596 microhabitats (i.e. specified combinations of environmental filters) and related species pools.
597 Both processes result that local chironomid assemblages track environmental changes with a
598 bias which also should be kept in sight in bioassessment practice. At the same time, this high
599 heterogeneity could act as a stabilizing force considering temporal variability.

600 Beside the taxonomic approach, present results confirm the benefit of considering function
601 based patterns for evaluating assemblage-environment relationships as well, especially when
602 odds of dispersing species to reach certain habitat patches differ (e.g. in case of significant
603 dispersal limitation and mass effect). However, we need more information on the ecological
604 and functional traits of chironomids to be able to elucidate their responses to environmental
605 alterations more reliably and globally. For this purpose, investigations complemented with
606 habit traits or functional diversity and structure may be more conducting than FFG based
607 approach alone. As we could see, both taxon and function based analyses have their benefits
608 and weaknesses, and therefore it would be advisable to use them to supplement each other in
609 biological assessments. On the other hand, environmental optimum and tolerance spectrum
610 analyses also appreciably broaden our understanding about chironomid community–
611 environment relationships and the improvement of such databases would considerably extend
612 the potential of our bioassessment efforts.

613

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621

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857 **Figure captions**

858

859 **Fig. 1** Location of Lake Balaton watershed system in Hungary (A), position of Kis-Balaton
860 wetland area within the system (B) and map of Kis-Balaton showing the distribution of
861 sampling sites (C). Note, that Kis-Balaton is a highly divers wetland area including different
862 terrestrial habitats (not differentiated on the map) with very variable ranges as well. Examined
863 aquatic habitats included most characteristic habitat types such as open water areas, stands of
864 emergent, submerged and floating leaved macrophytes, riparian vegetation, wet and inundated
865 forests and meadows, artificial canals either with or without currents, river habitats, ripraps
866 and separated borrow pits of variable succession stages.

867

868 **Fig. 2** Canonical correspondence analysis plots along the first and second canonical axes
869 (CA) describing the relationship between the abundance data of chironomid taxa (a) and
870 chironomid feeding guilds (b) and forward selected (at $P < 0.05$) local environmental,
871 landscape and spatial variables in Kis-Balaton (Hungary), based on the detailed summer
872 survey with 79 sampling sites. Percentage variances represented by axes are indicated in
873 brackets (of taxa data; of taxa-explanatory variables relation) after the axis name. Scale
874 factors for biplotting are given in the upper right corners of the graphs. Explanatory variables
875 with highest correlation (r values are given in brackets) by axes are indicated. Chironomid
876 taxa and guilds (filled circles) as well as explanatory variables (arrows) with scores close to
877 the centre of the graph and thus with less effect on the general picture are not specified in
878 order to keep readability. Scores of supplementary assemblage members Chaoboridae
879 (Chaob) and Ceratopogonidae (Cerato) were also added to the plot (empty circles).

880 Explanatory variable, taxa and feeding guild names abbreviations are explained in
881 Appendixes A and B, respectively.

882

883 **Fig. 3** Result of the variation partitioning of the influence of local environmental, landscape
884 (Landsc.) and spatial variables on the abundance of chironomid taxa (a) and chironomid
885 feeding guilds (b) in Kis-Balaton (Hungary), based on the detailed summer survey with 79
886 sampling sites. The area of each rectangular cell is proportional to the variance accounted for
887 by that component. Significant local environmental variables are listed along with their
888 proportional pure and total effects (in brackets). Abbreviations of specified local
889 environmental variables are explained in Appendix A.

890

891 **Fig. 4** Result of the multiple second degree polynomial regression analyses based variation
892 partitioning showing the relative influence of local environmental, landscape and spatial
893 factors (a; detailed summer survey with 79 sampling sites) and also season (b; seasonal
894 surveys of 32 selected sampling sites) on the abundance of individual chironomid taxa and
895 feeding guilds in Kis-Balaton, Hungary. Taxa and feeding guild names abbreviations are
896 explained in Appendix B.

897

898 **Fig. 5** Canonical correspondence analysis plots along the first and second canonical axes
899 (CA) describing the relationship between the abundance data of chironomid taxa (a) and
900 chironomid feeding guilds (b) and forward selected (at $P < 0.05$) seasonal, local
901 environmental, landscape and spatial variables in Kis-Balaton (Hungary), based on seasonal
902 surveys of 32 selected sampling sites. Percentage variances represented by axes are indicated

903 in brackets (of taxa data; of taxa-explanatory variables relation) after the axis name. Scale
904 factors for biplotting are given in the upper right corners of the graphs. Explanatory variables
905 with highest correlation (r values are given in brackets) by axes are indicated. Chironomid
906 taxa and guilds (filled circles) as well as explanatory variables (arrows) with scores close to
907 the centre of the graph, and thus with less effect on the general picture are not specified in
908 order to keep readability. Scores of supplementary assemblage members Chaoboridae
909 (Chaob) and Ceratopogonidae (Cerato) were also added to the plot (empty circles).
910 Explanatory variable, taxa and feeding guild names abbreviations are explained in
911 Appendixes A and B, respectively.

912

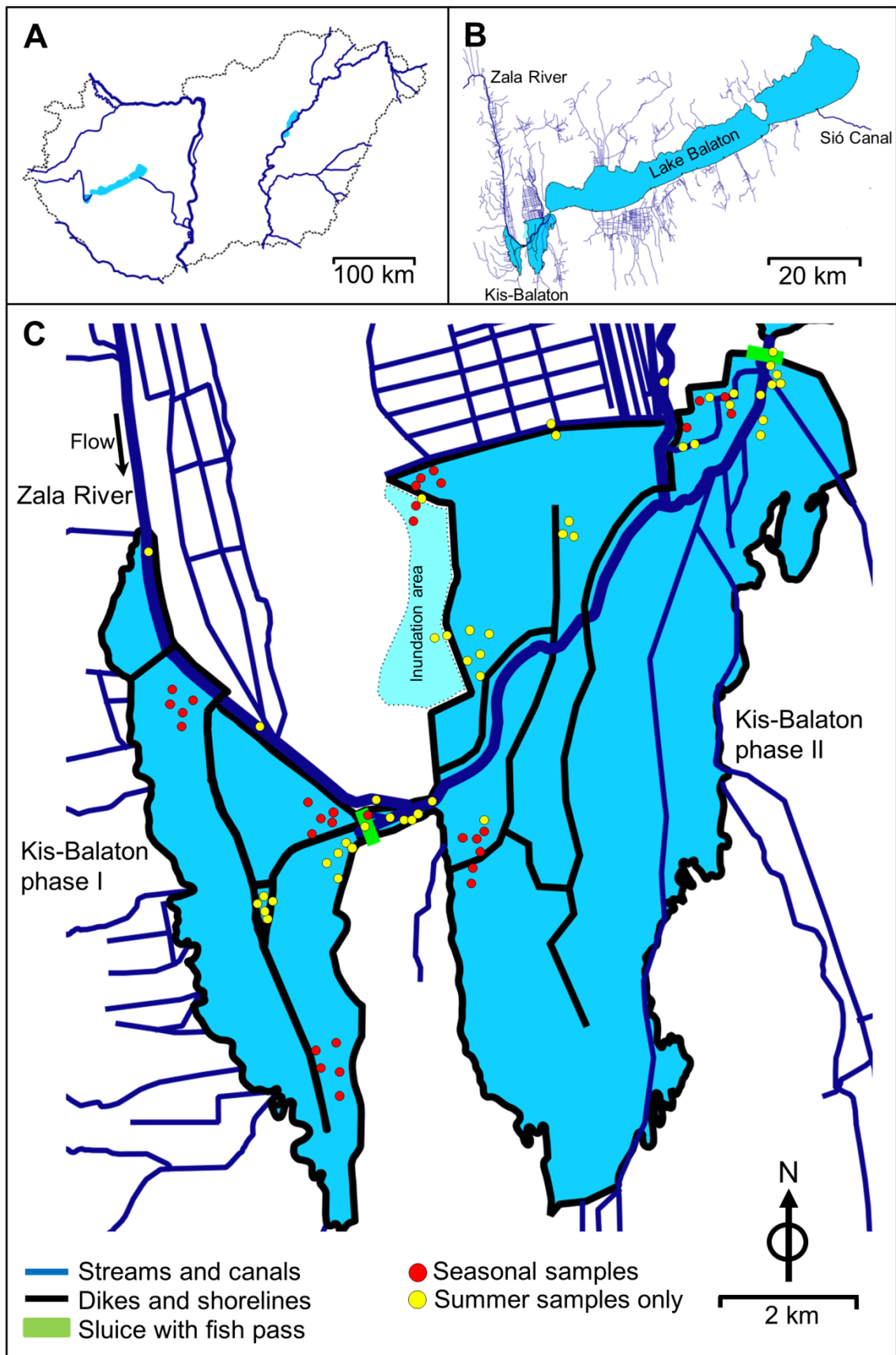
913 **Fig. 6** Result of the variation partitioning of the influence of seasonal, local environmental
914 (Local env.) and landscape (Landsc.), and spatial variables on the abundance of chironomid
915 taxa (a) and chironomid feeding guilds (b) in Kis-Balaton (Hungary), based on seasonal
916 surveys of 32 selected sampling sites. The area of each rectangular cell is proportional to the
917 variance accounted for by that component. Significant local environmental and landscape
918 variables (only for Fig. 5a) are listed along with their proportional pure and total effects (in
919 brackets). Abbreviations of specified local environmental and landscape variables are
920 explained in Appendix A.

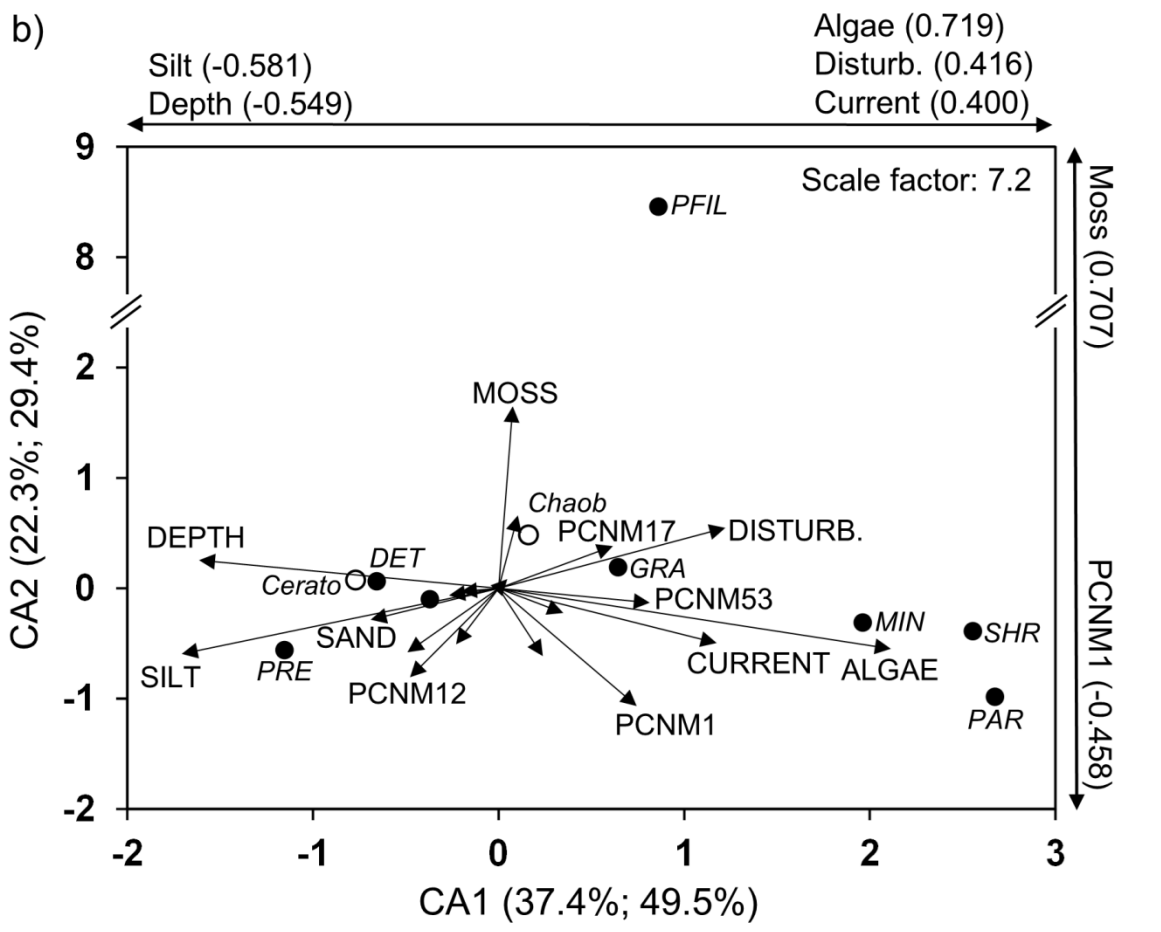
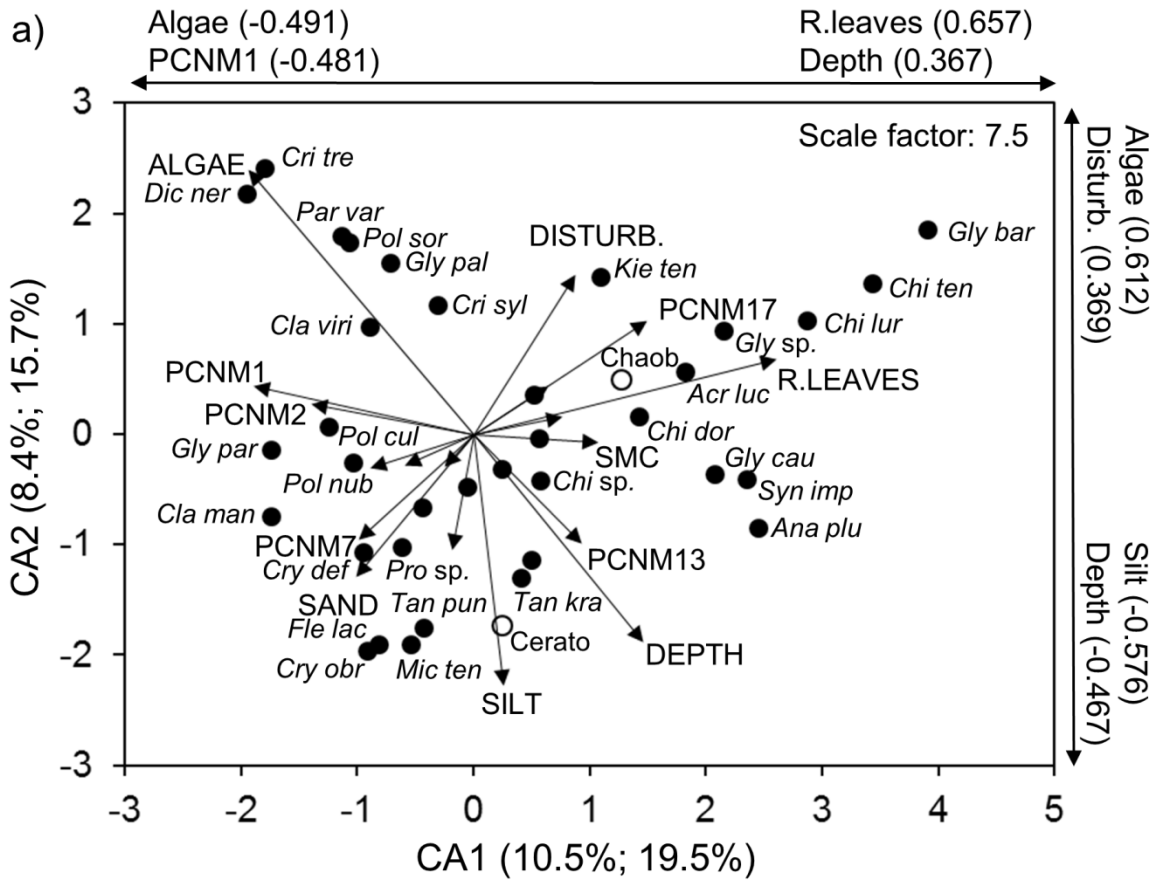
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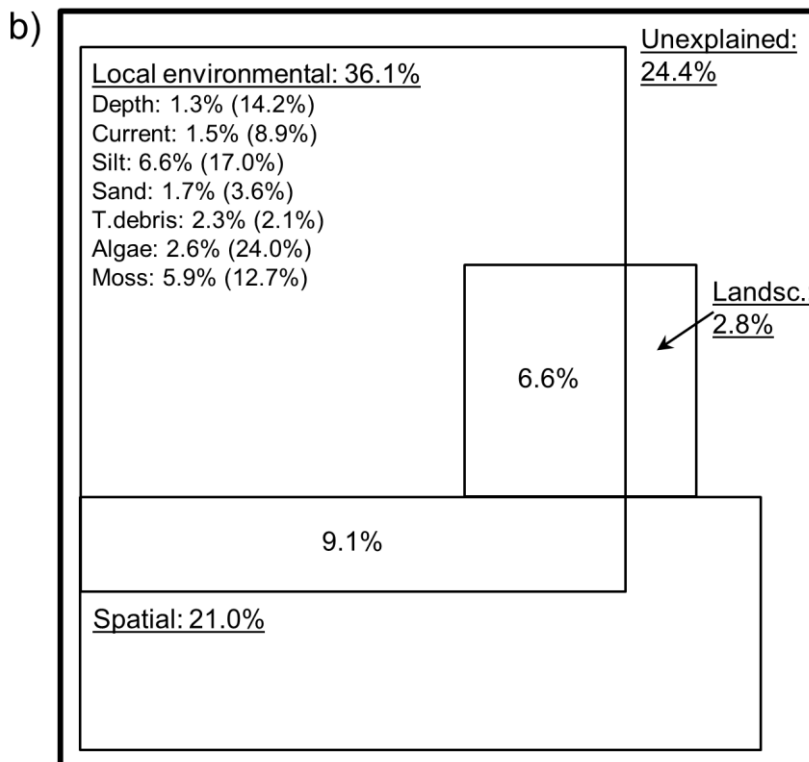
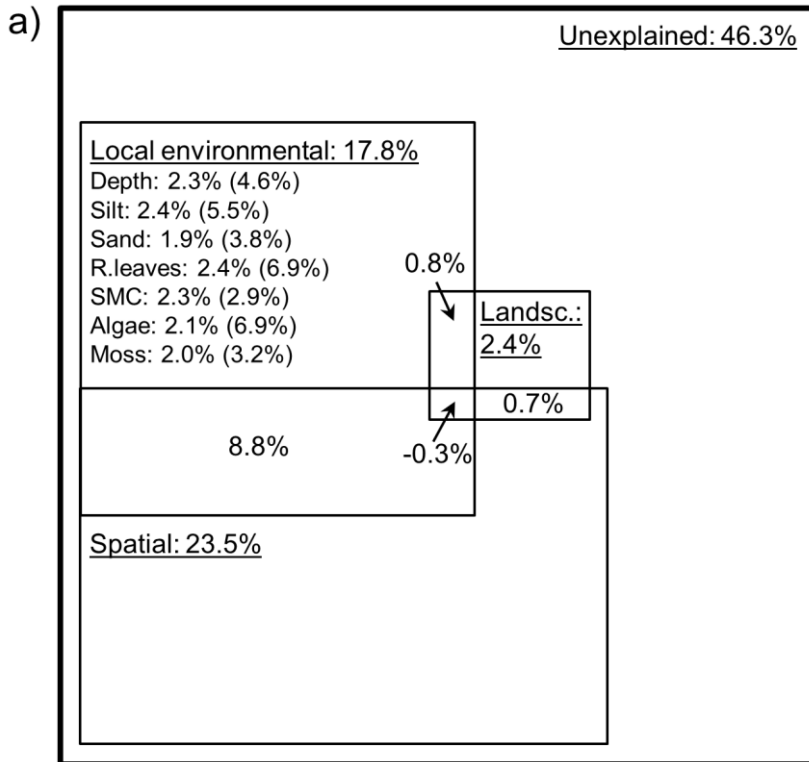
922 **Fig. 7** Optima and tolerance ranges of individual chironomid taxa regarding some influential
923 environmental factors such as: water depth (a); water current (b); dissolved oxygen in the
924 water (c); conductivity (Cond) of the water (d); percent silt in the sediment (e); percent sand
925 in the sediment (f); amount of coarse decomposing organic matter particles (COM) on the
926 sediment surface (g); amount of fine decomposing organic matter particles (FOM) on the

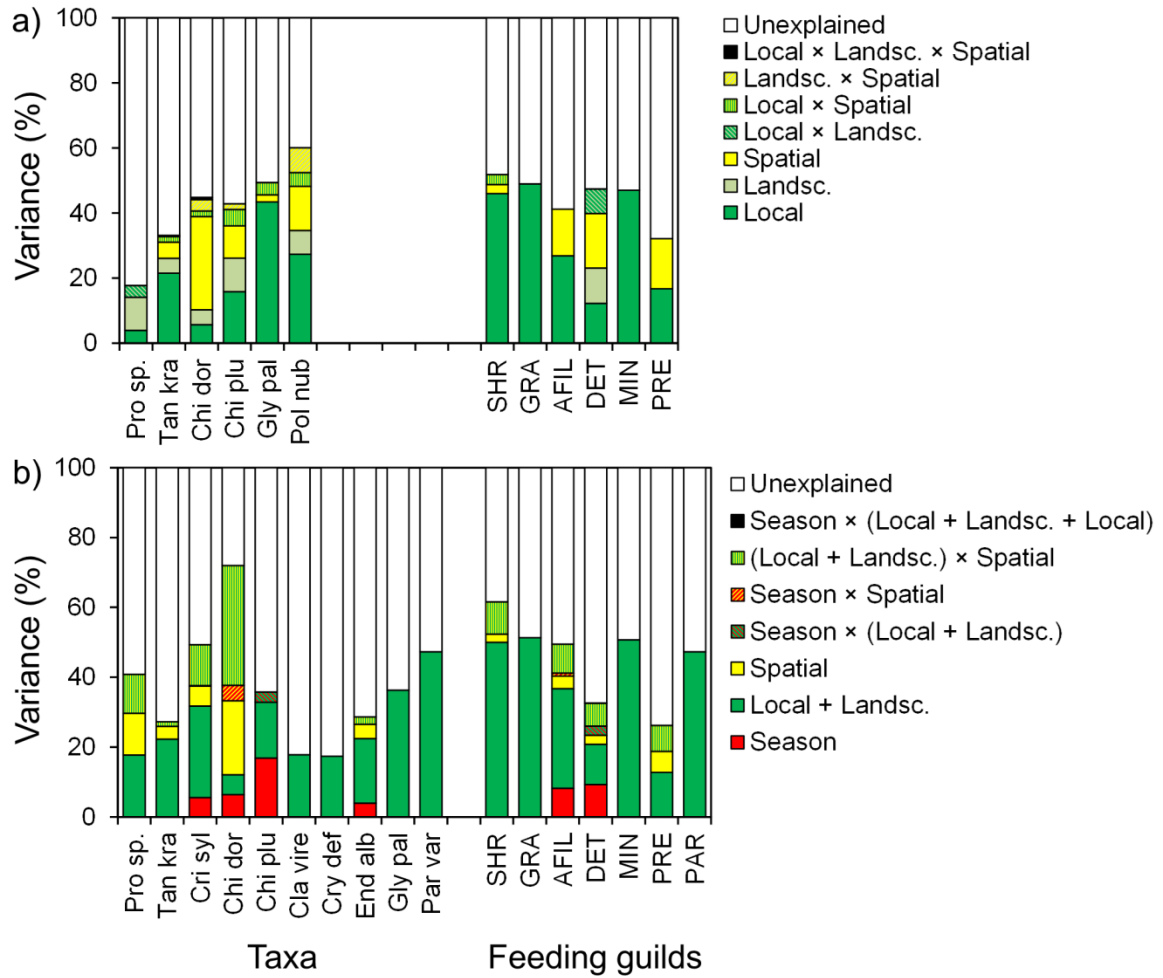
927 sediment surface (h); loss-on-ignition of the sediment (LOI550; i); percent total macrophyte
928 coverage (TMC; j); percent algae coverage (k); and chlorophyll-a concentration in the water
929 (Chl-a; l) in Kis-Balaton, Hungary. For reference, optima and tolerance ranges of
930 Chaoboridae (Chaob) and Ceratopogonidae (Cerato) were also indicated. Note that estimated
931 tolerance ranges were cut at the edge of the studied ranges of particular gradients. Taxa names
932 abbreviations are explained in Appendix B.

933



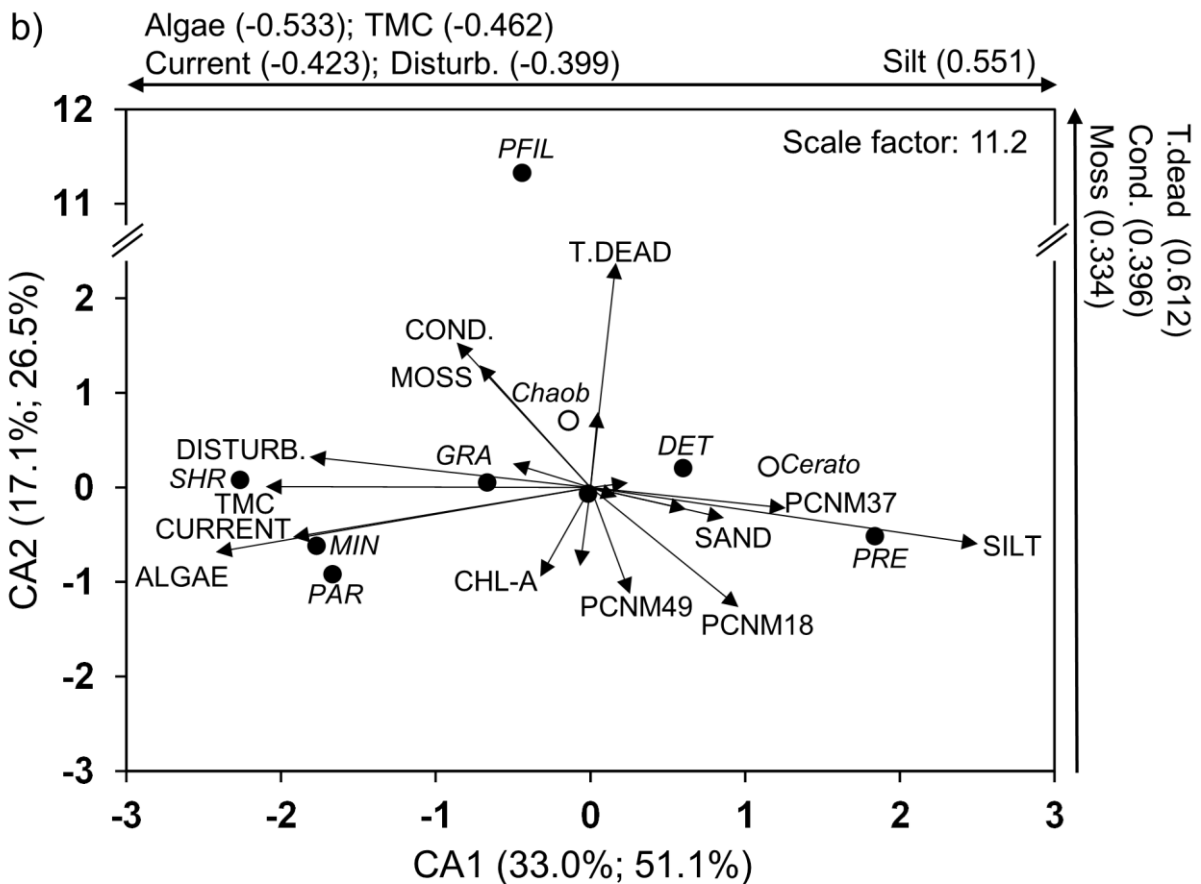
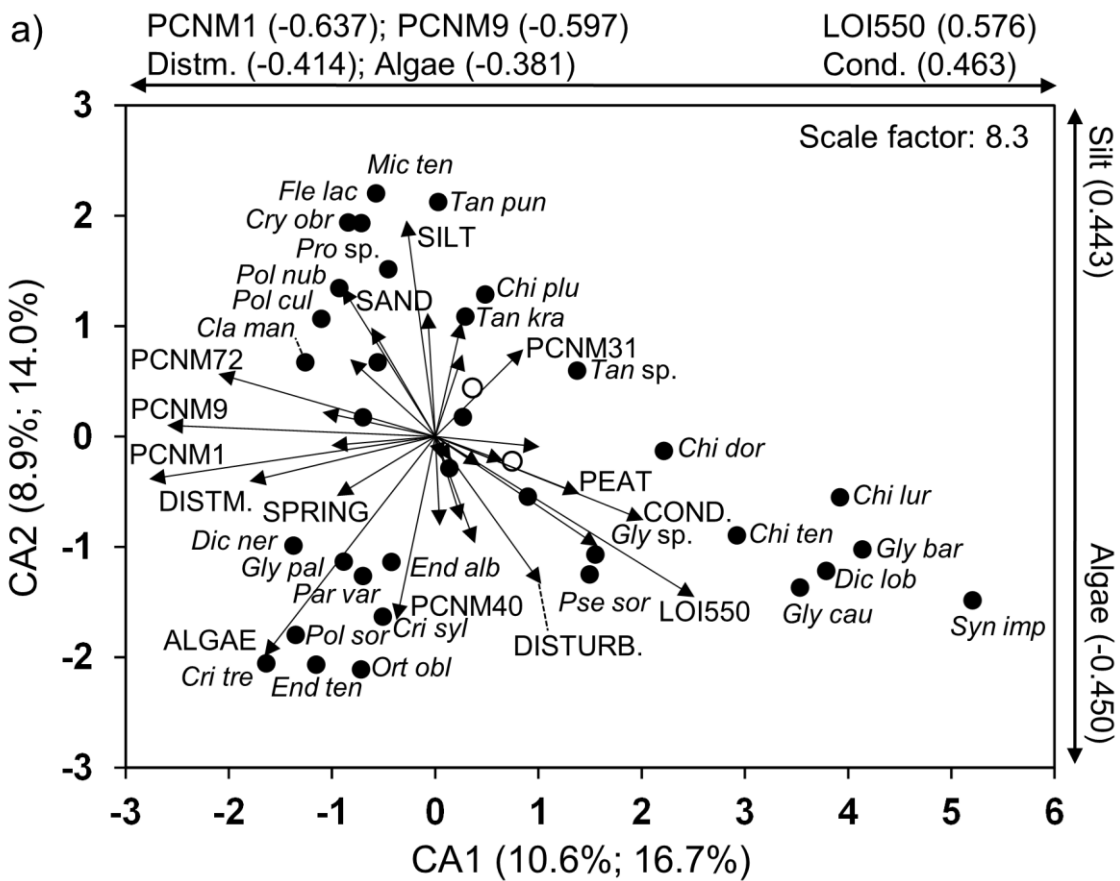


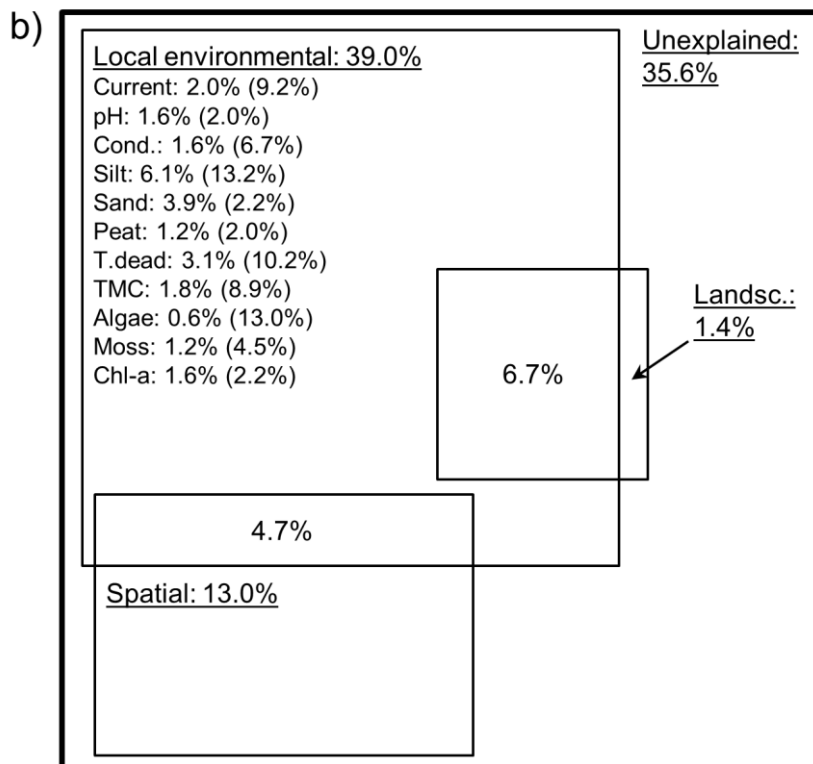
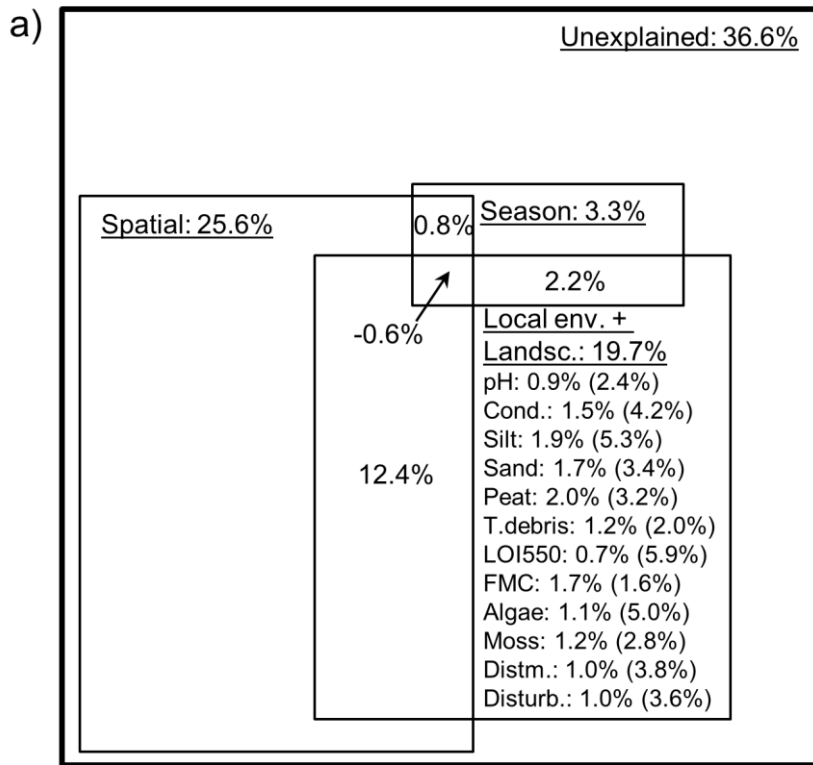


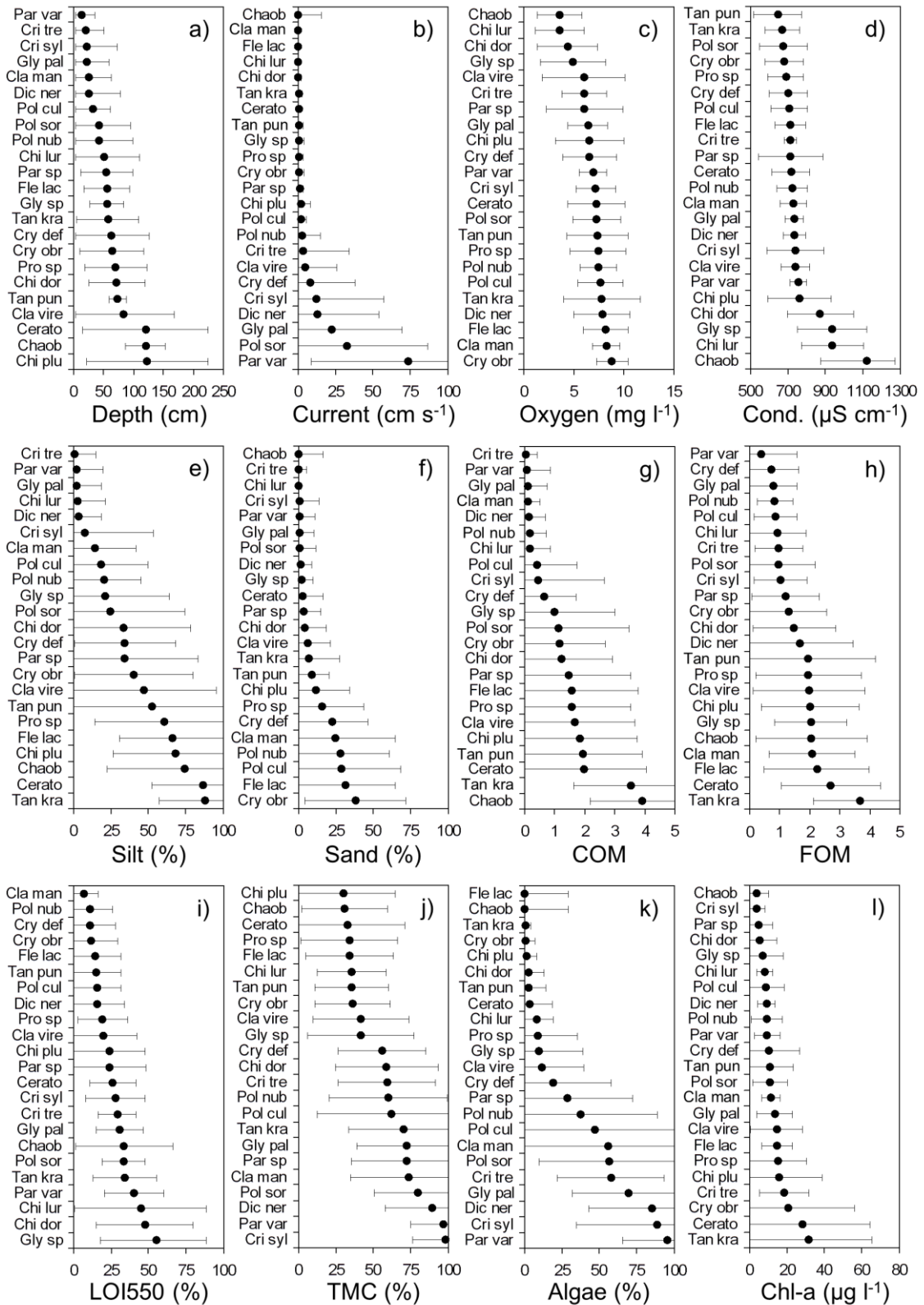


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Table 1 Spearman rank correlation (r) of between sites Bray-Curtis taxonomic and functional feeding guild (FFG) based assemblage similarities with geographical distances for summer and seasonal samples in Kis-Balaton wetland, Hungary.

	r	df	P
Summer samples, taxon based	-0,076	3079	P<0.05
Summer samples, FFG based	0,009	3079	ns
Seasonal samples, summer data, taxon based	-0,027	494	ns
Seasonal samples, summer data, FFG based	0,054	494	ns
Seasonal samples, autumn data, taxon based	-0,201	494	P<0.05
Seasonal samples, autumn data, FFG based	-0,058	494	ns
Seasonal samples, spring data, taxon based	-0,332	433	P<0.05
Seasonal samples, spring data, FFG based	-0,057	433	ns

948
949

Appendix A Seasonal, local environmental, landscape and spatial variables used to model variability of chironomid assemblages in Kis-Balaton (Hungary), their abbreviations used in figures, classification, variable type, type of transformation for multivariate analyses, median, minimum and maximum values.

	Abbreviation	Variable group	Variable type	Transformation	Median	Min.	Max.
Spring (dummy)	Spring	season	dummy	-	-	-	-
Summer (dummy) *	Summer	season	dummy	-	-	-	-
Autumn (dummy)	Autumn	season	dummy	-	-	-	-
Water depth (cm)	Depth	local environmental	quantitative	ln(x+1)	70	0	450
Current (cm s ⁻¹)	Current	local environmental	quantitative	ln(x+1)	0	0	120
Water temperature (°C) *	T	local environmental	quantitative	ln(x+1)	18.9	6.1	28.4
pH	pH	local environmental	quantitative	-	8.3	6.6	10.2
Dissolved oxygen (mg l ⁻¹)	Oxygen	local environmental	quantitative	ln(x+1)	6.9	1	22.4
Secchi depth (cm)	Secchi	local environmental	quantitative	ln(x+1)	37	0	200
Conductivity (µS cm ⁻¹)	Cond.	local environmental	quantitative	ln(x+1)	725	348	1441
Clay (≤ 0.002 mm; %)	Clay	local environmental	quantitative	arcsin(0.01x) ^{0.5}	0	0	100
Silt (0.002-0.06 mm; %)	Silt	local environmental	quantitative	arcsin(0.01x) ^{0.5}	55	0	100
Sand (0.06-2 mm; %)	Sand	local environmental	quantitative	arcsin(0.01x) ^{0.5}	0	0	100
Gravel (2-4 mm; %)	Gravel	local environmental	quantitative	arcsin(0.01x) ^{0.5}	0	0	90
Rock (> 200 mm; %) *	Rock	local environmental	quantitative	arcsin(0.01x) ^{0.5}	0	0	100
Peat (%)	Peat	local environmental	quantitative	arcsin(0.01x) ^{0.5}	0	0	100
Reed grass leaves (classes 0-5)	R.leaves	local environmental	cathegorical (semiquantitative)	-	0	0	5
Coarse (>1 mm) decomposing organic matter particles (classes 0-5)	COM	local environmental	cathegorical (semiquantitative)	-	1	0	5
Fine (≤ 1mm) decomposing organic matter particles (classes 0-5)	FOM	local environmental	cathegorical (semiquantitative)	-	1	0	5
Tree leaves (classes 0-5)	T.leaves	local environmental	cathegorical (semiquantitative)	-	0	0	5
Tree debris (classes 0-5)	T.debris	local environmental	cathegorical	-	0	0	5

951

Dead tree parts (classes 0-5)	T.dead	local environmental	cathegorical (semiquantitative)	-	0	0	5
Loss-on-ignition at 550 °C (%)	LOI550	local environmental	quantitative	$\ln(x+1)$	27.6	0	92.2
Total macrophyte coverage (%)	TMC	local environmental	quantitative	$\arcsin(0.01x)^{0.5}$	50	0	100
Emergent macrophyte coverage (%)	EMC	local environmental	quantitative	$\arcsin(0.01x)^{0.5}$	0	0	90
Submerged macrophyte coverage (%)	SMC	local environmental	quantitative	$\arcsin(0.01x)^{0.5}$	0	0	100
Floating leaved macrophyte coverage (%)	FMC	local environmental	quantitative	$\arcsin(0.01x)^{0.5}$	0	0	100
Algae coverage (%)	Algae	local environmental	quantitative	$\arcsin(0.01x)^{0.5}$	0	0	100
Moss coverage (%)	Moss	local environmental	quantitative	$\arcsin(0.01x)^{0.5}$	0	0	100
Tree coverage (%)	Tree	local environmental	quantitative	$\arcsin(0.01x)^{0.5}$	0	0	50
Riparian vegetation coverage (%)	Riparian	local environmental	quantitative	$\arcsin(0.01x)^{0.5}$	0	0	20
Water chlorophyll-a concentration (mg l^{-1})	Chl-a	local environmental	quantitative	$\ln(x+1)$	13.4	0	230.6
Distance from the nearest reed stand (m)	Distr.	landscape	quantitative	$\ln(x+1)$	10	0	250
Distance from the nearest macrophyte stand (m)	Distm.	landscape	quantitative	$\ln(x+1)$	0	0	1000
Distance from the nearest open water (m)	Disto.	landscape	quantitative	$\ln(x+1)$	0	0	1000
Distance from the shore (m) *	Dists.	landscape	quantitative	$\ln(x+1)$	10	0	300
Distance from the nearest clump (m) *	Distc.	landscape	quantitative	$\ln(x+1)$	15	0	300
Disturbance	Disturb.	landscape	binary	$\ln(x+1)$	-	-	-
PCNM 1-78	PCNM	spatial	quantitative	-	-	-	-

952

*Variables discarded due to collinearity.

953

PCNM = spatial variables derived from principal coordinate analysis of neighbouring matrix.

954

Appendix B List of chironomid taxa, their abbreviations used in figures, numbers of individuals collected (N), relative abundance (A%), frequency of occurrence (FO%) and feeding guild scores (Moog, 2002) according to the score table of IS Arrow database (Czech Hydrometeorological Institute, 2009) in samples of Kis-Balaton, Hungary.

	Abbreviation	N	A%	FO%	Feeding group scores								
					SHR	GRA	AFIL	PFIL	DET	MIN	XYL	PRE	PAR
Tanypodinae													
<i>Ablabesmyia longistyla</i> Fittkau, 1962	Abl long	3	0.02	1.4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	8	0
<i>Ablabesmyia monilis</i> (Linnaeus 1758)	Abl mon	4	0.03	1.4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	8	0
<i>Ablabesmyia phatta</i> (Egger, 1864)	Abl pha	2	0.02	1.4	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	8	0
<i>Anatopynia plumipes</i> (Fries 1823)	Ana plu	8	0.07	3.6	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	9	0
<i>Clinotanypus pinguis</i> (Loew 1861)	Cli pin	2	0.02	0.7	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	9	0
<i>Guttipelopia guttipennis</i> (van der Wulp, 1861)	Gut gut	21	0.17	2.9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0
<i>Monopelopia tenuicalcar</i> (Kieffer, 1918)	Mon ten	3	0.02	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0
<i>Procladius (Holotanypus) sp.</i> (Meigen, 1804)	Pro sp	584	4.76	46.4	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	6	0
<i>Tanypus (Tanypus) kraatzi</i> (Kieffer, 1912)	Tan kra	241	1.96	29.7	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	3	0
<i>Tanypus (Tanypus) punctipennis</i> Meigen, 1818	Tan pun	92	0.75	9.4	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	3	0
<i>Zavreliomyia sp.</i>	Zav sp	2	0.02	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0
Prodiamesinae													
<i>Prodiamesa olivacea</i> (Meigen 1818)	Pro oli	8	0.07	0.7	0	0	1	0	9	0	0	0	0
Orthoclaadiinae													
<i>Acricotopus lucens</i> (Zetterstedt 1850)	Acr luc	7	0.06	2.9	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0
<i>Corynoneura scutellata</i> Winnertz 1846	Cor scu	1	0.01	0.7	0	7	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
<i>Cricotopus (Cricotopus) albiforceps</i> (Kieffer 1916)	Cri alb	2	0.02	0.7	0	8	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
<i>Cricotopus (Cricotopus) bicinctus</i> (Meigen 1818)	Cri bic	606	4.94	1.4	1	6	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
<i>Cricotopus (Cricotopus) flavocinctus</i> (Kieffer 1924)	Cri fla	15	0.12	2.2	0	8	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
<i>Cricotopus (Cricotopus) tremulus</i> gr.	Cri tre	1175	9.57	15.9	1	7	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
<i>Cricotopus (Cricotopus) trifascia</i> Edwards 1929	Cri tri	4	0.03	0.7	1	6	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
<i>Cricotopus (Isocladus) sylvestris</i> gr.	Cri syl	644	5.25	28.3	2	6	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Orthocladus (Orthocladus) oblidens</i> (Walker, 1856)	Ort obl	5	0.04	2.2	0	4	0	0	6	0	0	0	0
<i>Paralimnophyes longiseta</i> (Thienemann 1919)	Par lon	1	0.01	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Psectrocladius (Allopectrocladius) obvius</i> (Walker 1856)	Pse obv	1	0.01	0.7	5	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0

<i>Psectrocladius sordidellus</i> gr.	Pse sor	48	0.39	7.2	5	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
Chironominae													
<i>Chironomus (Lobochironomus) dorsalis</i> Meigen, 1818	Chi dor	646	5.26	41.3	0	0	1	0	9	0	0	0	0
<i>Chironomus (Chironomus) luridus</i> agg.	Chi lur	112	0.91	8.7	0	3	0	3	4	0	0	0	0
<i>Chironomus (Chironomus) plumosus</i> agg.	Chi plu	1199	9.77	58.7	0	0	4	0	6	0	0	0	0
<i>Chironomus</i> sp.	Chi sp	32	0.26	15.2	0	0	4	0	6	0	0	0	0
<i>Chironomus (Chironomus) tentans</i> Fabricius 1805	Chi ten	314	2.56	7.2	1	0	3	0	6	0	0	0	0
<i>Cladopelma virecens</i> (Meigen, 1818)	Cla vire	226	1.84	26.8	0	1	0	0	8	0	0	1	0
<i>Cladopelma viridulum</i> (Linnaeus, 1767)	Cla viri	8	0.07	2.2	0	1	0	0	8	0	0	1	0
<i>Cladotanytarsus mancus</i> gr.	Cla man	376	3.06	17.4	0	4	4	0	2	0	0	0	0
<i>Cryptochironomus (Cryptochironomus) defectus</i> (Kieffer, 1913)	Cry def	118	0.96	26.8	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	6	0
<i>Cryptochironomus (Cryptochironomus) obreptans</i> (Walker 1856)	Cry obr	62	0.51	13.8	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	6	0
<i>Demeijerea rufipes</i> (Linnaeus 1761)	Dem ruf	1	0.01	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
<i>Dicrotendipes lobiger</i> (Kieffer, 1921)	Dic lob	18	0.15	5.1	0	4	3	0	3	0	0	0	0
<i>Dicrotendipes nervosus</i> (Staeger, 1839)	Dic ner	331	2.70	18.1	0	4	3	0	3	0	0	0	0
<i>Dicrotendipes notatus</i> (Meigen 1818)	Dic not	4	0.03	1.4	0	4	3	0	3	0	0	0	0
<i>Dicrotendipes pulsus</i> (Walker 1856)	Dic pul	1	0.01	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Endochironomus albipennis</i> (Meigen 1830)	End alb	253	2.06	21.7	0	2	6	0	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Endochironomus tendens</i> (Fabricius, 1775)	End ten	43	0.35	6.5	0	1	7	0	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Fleuria lacustris</i> Kieffer, 1924	Fle lac	78	0.64	15.2	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0
<i>Glyptotendipes (Glyptotendipes) barbipes</i> (Staeger 1839)	Gly bar	572	4.66	5.1	0	0	2	0	8	0	0	0	0
<i>Glyptotendipes (Glyptotendipes) cauliginellus</i> (Kieffer 1913)	Gly cau	17	0.14	4.3	0	2	6	0	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Glyptotendipes (Caulochironomus) imbecillis</i> (Walker 1856)	Gly imb	1	0.01	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Glyptotendipes (Glyptotendipes) pallens</i> (Meigen 1804)	Gly pal	1483	12.08	41.3	0	2	6	0	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Glyptotendipes (Glyptotendipes) paripes</i> (Edwards 1929)	Gly par	116	0.95	10.9	0	2	3	0	5	0	0	0	0
<i>Glyptotendipes</i> sp.	Gly sp	88	0.72	15.9	0	2	6	0	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Kiefferulus (Kiefferulus) tendipediformis</i> (Goetghebuer, 1921)	Kie ten	47	0.38	3.6	0	0	2	0	8	0	0	0	0
<i>Lipiniella moderata</i> Kalugina 1970	Lip mod	1	0.01	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<i>Microchironomus tener</i> (Kieffer, 1918)	Mic ten	19	0.15	10.1	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0
<i>Micropsectra atrofasciata</i> (Kieffer 1911)	Mic atr	1	0.01	0.7	0	2	1	0	7	0	0	0	0

<i>Microtendipes chloris</i> agg.	Mic chl	11	0.09	2.9	0	1	2	0	7	0	0	0	0
<i>Parachironomus varus</i> (Goetghebuer, 1921)	Par var	711	5.79	26.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
<i>Paratanytarsus</i> sp.	Par sp	98	0.80	23.2	0	4	3	0	3	0	0	0	0
<i>Phaenopsectra flavipes</i> (Meigen 1818)	Pha fla	1	0.01	0.7	0	4	2	0	4	0	0	0	0
<i>Polypedilum</i> cf. <i>cultellatum</i>	Pol cul	131	1.07	16.7	0	1	1	0	8	0	0	0	0
<i>Polypedilum (Polypedilum) nubeculosum</i> (Meigen, 1804)	Pol nub	1017	8.29	29.0	0	1	1	0	8	0	0	0	0
<i>Polypedilum (Pentapedilum) sordens</i> (van der Wulp, 1875)	Pol sor	262	2.13	19.6	0	2	6	0	2	0	0	0	0
<i>Stictochironomus</i> sp.	Sti sp	1	0.01	0.7	0	0	2	0	8	0	0	0	0
<i>Synendotendipes impar</i> gr.	Syn imp	31	0.25	6.5	0	2	6	0	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Tanytarsus</i> sp.	Tan sp	361	2.94	13.8	0	3	1	0	6	0	0	0	0
<i>Xenochironomus xenolabis</i> (Kieffer 1916)	Xen xen	1	0.01	0.7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
<i>Zavreliella marmorata</i> (van der Wulp 1859)	Zav mar	1	0.01	0.7	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	0	0
Total		12272											

957 Abbreviations for feeding guilds: SHR, shredder; GRA, grazer; AFIL, active filter-feeder; PFIL, passive filter-feeder; DET, detritus feeder; MIN,
958 miner; XYL, xylophagous; PRE, predator; PAR, parasite.
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