

1 Title: Disturbance accumulation hampers fish assemblage recovery long after the worst  
2 mining spill in the Iberian Peninsula

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14 Summary

15 The influence of environmental variables on native and exotic fish species richness and  
16 diversity was analyzed eight years after one of the most environmentally harmful toxic  
17 spills worldwide. Environment-diversity relationships were addressed at different scales,  
18 and values were also compared with those of six similar basins that were not affected by  
19 the spill, with the aim of determining whether this disturbance was still exerting an  
20 influence on the fish assemblage. Results showed higher native species richness in  
21 environments with low human influence, no reservoirs upstream, a large drainage area  
22 and coarse substrate reaches. For native fish, variables at both the catchment and site  
23 scales were equally relevant. Exotic fish were mainly favored by site-scale factors such as  
24 valley width downstream from the reservoir, where the alteration of the river channel and  
25 accumulated disturbances give them an advantage versus natives. Overall, eight years

26 after the accident, richness and diversity of the Guadiamar fish assemblage seemed more  
27 affected by anthropogenic impacts than by the long-term influence of the toxic spill. This  
28 work highlights that the potentially synergic effects of anthropogenic factors must be  
29 taken into account when monitoring the long-term effects of pollution events.

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#### 34 Introduction

35 On April 25th 1998 one of the largest tailing dam failures in Europe (Rico et al., 2008)  
36 occurred when a 50-meter breach opened in the tailing pond dike of the Aznalcóllar mine  
37 (SW Spain). This breach caused the release of about 4 hm<sup>3</sup> of acidic water with dissolved  
38 metallic compounds and 2 hm<sup>3</sup> of mud, mainly composed by floated pyrite (Aguilar et al.,  
39 2003). To stop the spill from reaching downstream Doñana National Park several dams  
40 were constructed (López-Pamo et al., 1999). Nevertheless, 67km of the Guadiamar  
41 River's main channel (a tributary of the Guadalquivir River) were polluted by toxic spill,  
42 composed mainly by Fe, S and several heavy metals (Aguilar et al. 2003). Unfortunately,  
43 the coarse mechanical removal of contaminants from the stream and flood plain  
44 aggravated the effects of the toxic spill, with major implications for the geomorphological  
45 characteristics of the river (Gallart et al., 1999). After these cleanup operations in the  
46 affected area, a Recovery Plan (PICOVER) was implemented, aimed at repairing the  
47 damaged ecosystems and transforming the affected area into a green corridor between  
48 two well conserved ecosystems: Sierra Morena in the north and Doñana National Park in  
49 the south (Márquez-Ferrando et al., 2009).

50 In spite of these efforts, it is difficult to assess whether restoration actions were successful  
51 for the recovery of the fish community of the Guadianar River, since very few studies  
52 addressed this issue in the years following the spill (but see Fernández-Delgado and  
53 Drake 2008). Recently, some studies have focused on the spill effects on fish somatic  
54 condition (De Miguel et al. 2013), described fish composition (De Miguel et al. 2014) or  
55 addressed population dynamics and recolonization processes (De Miguel et al. 2015).  
56 However, to date no studies have analyzed the influence of environmental variables and  
57 the potential residual effects of the spill on fish diversity.

58 Fish assemblage composition changes over time and space (Magalhaes et al., 2002), and  
59 fish have both local and catchment mobility (Pinto et al., 2006). Therefore, assemblage  
60 characteristics and structure will be determined by a wide range of biotic and abiotic  
61 processes that act at different scales. It is thus important to carry out analyses at both the  
62 catchment and site scales in order to identify the spatial scale at which the most important  
63 variables for fish assemblages are acting (Morán-López et al, 2012).

64 In this study, the main aims were 1) to identify the main environmental variables that  
65 determine both native and exotic fish species richness and diversity in the Guadianar  
66 River basin at different scales, and 2) to assess whether the toxic spill can still be  
67 considered influential for fish richness and diversity eight years after the accident.

68

## 69 Materials and Methods

### 70 Study area

71 The Guadianar River basin is located in the South-western Iberian Peninsula at latitude  
72 37° 10' to 37° 45' N and longitude 6° 10' to 6° 25' W, near the Guadalquivir River mouth  
73 in the Atlantic Ocean (Figure 1). The basin area is 1.325 km<sup>2</sup>, and altitude ranges from 4  
74 to 544 m.a.s.l. Climate is sub-humid Mediterranean with oceanic influences, with average

75 temperatures between 9°C in winter and 29°C in summer. Mean annual rainfall is 624  
76 mm, oscillating between 754 mm in the source and 543 mm in the mouth. Rain falls  
77 abundantly in autumn, winter and spring and is almost completely absent in summer. This  
78 severe drought causes the drying of most small streams or the creation of isolated pools of  
79 different sizes (Gasith and Resh, 1999). The basin shows a geological transition linked to  
80 river section type. The upper section (near the source) lies within the Sierra Morena  
81 mountain range, where forestry and livestock ranching land uses are predominant; the  
82 middle section is under agricultural and urban land uses; and the lower section forms a  
83 plain that precedes the marshland at the mouth. The hydrological network is interrupted  
84 by two small reservoirs that collect less than 4 hm<sup>3</sup> in the source area and one large  
85 reservoir (20 hm<sup>3</sup>) in the Agrio River. This reservoir was built in 1977 to supply mining  
86 industry needs, and it is located slightly upstream from the spill point (Borja et al. 2001)  
87 (Figure 1).

#### 88 Sampling protocol

89 The sampling period was divided into three campaigns to maintain the same capture  
90 method in all sites: winter (2006) for the low flow streams and spring and summer (2007)  
91 for the high flow courses that were not wadeable during the rainy period (winter). A  
92 Geographic Information System (ArcGIS v. 9.2) was used to divide the Guadamar River  
93 network into hydrological fragments, which were defined as the stretch between each  
94 junction of streams. One sampling site was located per 10km or per hydrological  
95 fragment, ensuring that the whole perennial stream network (except the marshland) was  
96 covered. This resulted in a total of 22 sampling sites.

97 Fish sampling was carried out by one-single-pass electrofishing (220 V, 2-5 A, C.C.).  
98 Battery or small engine backpack modality was used when stream was < 1 m deep and <5  
99 m wide; while a large engine on the riverbank was used when the stream was between 1  
100 and 1,4 m deep and wider than 5 m. The length of the sampling site was 100 m in streams

101 < 5 m wide, and for wider streams, the length was 20 times the width. Captured fish were  
102 identified to species and kept submerged in an appropriate container during sampling.

103 Habitat data were collected at two different scales: catchment and site. Site variables were  
104 mainly collected in situ before fishing. Catchment scale variables were obtained using  
105 ArcGIS 9.2® and data layers were either freely available or provided by the Regional  
106 Environment Agency (Consejería de Medio Ambiente y Ordenación del Territorio, 2015).  
107 Nevertheless, some site variables such as distances to source, mouth and reservoirs, and  
108 abiotic variables such as vegetation or valley width, altitude and stream order, were  
109 calculated using GIS. Water quality data were provided by the Regional Environmental  
110 Agency, and ran in a scale of 1-4 1 (low organic and inorganic pollution) – 4 (high  
111 organic and inorganic pollution) (Consejería de Medio Ambiente y Ordenación del  
112 Territorio, 2015). The bank stability Index was calculated at both catchment and site scale  
113 based on slope, vegetation cover, height and substrate of the river bank (Fernández-  
114 Delgado et al., 2014). Thereby, a total of 62 environmental variables thought to be  
115 relevant for fish species richness and diversity were recorded at each sampling site  
116 (Appendix 1). In several cases, variables were summarized by means of PCAs (see  
117 Statistical analyses section and Appendix 1).

#### 118 Statistical analyses

119 In order to identify the main factors that determine native species richness (S) and  
120 diversity (H, Shannon's diversity index; Shannon and Weaver, 1949) in the Guadiamar  
121 River basin General linear models were used. Predictor variables were considered at two  
122 different scales: catchment and site (Table 1). First, a general model was created using all  
123 variables at both scales, including their interactions. This model would reveal the scale at  
124 which the most important factors for fish diversity were acting. Second, two further  
125 models were derived, one for each scale, in order to find out which were the most  
126 relevant drivers at that particular scale.

127 A similar approach was used for exotic species. However, in this case models were not  
128 computed for diversity (H) because several sampling sites had none or just one exotic  
129 species, resulting in a large number of sites with zero values. This large proportion of  
130 zeroes would result in a weak model, so only species richness (S) was modeled for exotic  
131 species.

132 A priori variable selection was carried out due to the large number of predictor variables  
133 (see Appendix 1), their collinearity and ecological redundancy, and parsimony  
134 considerations. First, some groups of related variables that implied ecological redundancy  
135 were summarized by means of PCAs. In all cases, the Kaiser (1960) criterion (eigenvalue  
136 >1) was used to define the principal components to be chosen as the final variables:

137 PCA 1 – Habitat characteristics at the site scale (“Habitat” hereafter). The main axis  
138 represents a gradient from pools and fine material (negative end) to riffles and coarser  
139 substrates (positive end).

140 PCA 2 – Factors affecting bank stability at the site scale (“Stability” hereafter). The  
141 principal component represented a gradient from lowest (negative end) to highest  
142 (positive end) risk of erosion.

143 PCA 3 – Land uses at the site scale (“Site uses” hereafter). The main axis represented a  
144 gradient from greater human impact (urban and agricultural areas at the positive end) to  
145 less humanized uses (native forests at the negative end).

146 PCA 4 – Land uses at the catchment scale (“Catchment uses” hereafter). This main axis  
147 represented a gradient from greater human impact (urban and agricultural areas at the  
148 negative end) to less humanized uses (native forests at the positive end).

149 The second step to reduce the number of variables was to test for collinearity between the  
150 remaining ones (Appendix 1) using Pearson’s correlations. Whenever the correlation

151 coefficient between two variables was greater than 0.75, one of the variables was chosen  
152 for the regression models.

153 The final regression models were applied to a total of 22 cases (n=22) and a maximum of  
154 6 predictor variables, since a larger number of variables would lead to a Type 2 error  
155 (Field, 2005). The final variable list in each case included those that showed a high  
156 correlation with the relevant dependent variable and low collinearity with the other  
157 selected variables. A list of all the variables included in the 8 models is presented in Table  
158 1.

159 The best models supported by the data were selected using the Akaike Information  
160 Criterion (Burham and Anderson, 2002). This allowed us to decide which model  
161 explained the most variance whilst being most parsimonious (Johnson and Omland,  
162 2004). Variance partitioning of the significant variables selected for the general model  
163 was performed to identify the most important scale in each case.

164 Since the spill point is located 5 km downstream from the main reservoir in the Agrio  
165 River (Agrio reservoir hereafter), there is an almost complete overlap between both  
166 influences on fish. In order to clarify the effect of each factor, species richness and  
167 diversity values downstream from the Agrio reservoir were compared with values  
168 downstream of 6 reservoirs from similar watersheds within the Guadalquivir river basin.  
169 These watersheds had been sampled by the same research group, with the same methods,  
170 between 2006 and 2009 (Fernández-Delgado et al., 2014). The statistical comparison was  
171 carried out using ANOVA and post-hoc t-tests, applying the Holm p-value adjustment  
172 method.

173 All analyses were performed using R version 2.12 and packages: vegan, hier.part, gtools  
174 and asbio (R Development Core Team, 2012).

175

176 Results

177 Fish assemblage

178 A total of 13 fish species were found in the study area, 8 native and 5 exotic (Table 2).  
179 Both native species richness and diversity reached maximum values (6 and 1,60,  
180 respectively) in sampling site 7, located upstream from the affected area; while the  
181 maximum value for exotic species richness (4) was located in sampling site 22, the one  
182 furthest downstream from the affected area (Table 2).

183

184 Native species

185 a) General models

186 Significant models were obtained for native species richness (S-na) and diversity (H-na),  
187 which accounted for 70% ( $R^2 = 0.70$ ) and 52% ( $R^2 = 0.52$ ) of the variance, respectively.  
188 The main factors included in the best models were similar for S-na and H-na (Table 1).  
189 These models identified “Catchment uses” and “Number of reservoirs upstream” as the  
190 most influential factors. Variance partitioning using *hierpart* showed that they accounted  
191 for 33% and 28% of the explained variance, respectively, in the case of S-na; and 46%  
192 and 31%, respectively, in the case of H-na. A positive relationship was found between the  
193 main axis of PCA4 (“Catchment uses”) and both dependent variables, and this means that  
194 higher native fish richness and diversity are found in natural forest areas with respect to  
195 those with agricultural or urban land uses. In contrast, a negative relationship with  
196 “Number of reservoirs upstream” was found, which indicates that the more reservoirs  
197 upstream from a site, the lower the native fish richness and diversity. “Drainage area” and  
198 “Habitat” were a second group. These variables accounted for 20% and 19% of the  
199 explained variance, respectively, for S-na. For H-na, “Drainage area” explained 23% of  
200 the variance. Most likely, the positive relationship observed between S-na and H-na and



201 “Drainage area” simply reflects the species-area relationship that occurs as you go  
202 downstream: drainage area increases and so does the number of species found. The  
203 positive relationship found between Axis 1 of PCA1 (“Habitat”) and S-na reflects that S-  
204 na is higher in reaches with coarser substrate and clearer water.

205 Variance partitioning applied to the significant variables at both site and catchment scale  
206 accounted for a similar overall proportion of the variance (0.51 and 0.55, respectively) for  
207 S-na, and also for H-na (0.45 and 0.55, respectively). This means that both scales are  
208 equally important for native fish richness and diversity, so further models were developed  
209 including only variables measured at each scale.

210

#### 211 b) Catchment models

212 As expected given the general results, where only variables at the catchment scale were  
213 considered, significant models were obtained for native species richness (S-na\_C) and  
214 diversity (H-na\_C) at the catchment scale, which accounted for 23% ( $R^2 = 0.23$ ) and 11%  
215 ( $R^2 = 0.11$ ) of the variance, respectively (Table 1). Again, the main axis of PCA4  
216 (“Catchment uses”) was selected as the main driver for S-na\_C and H-na\_C. This positive  
217 relationship suggests that, at a wide scale, native fish richness and diversity are higher in  
218 areas where land uses are more natural.

219

#### 220 c) Site models

221 Site-scale models were significant for both native species richness (S-na\_S) and diversity  
222 (H-na\_S), accounting for 53% ( $R^2 = 0.53$ ) and 35% ( $R^2 = 0.35$ ) of the variance,  
223 respectively (Table 1). The main axis of PCA1 (“Habitat”) was identified as the most  
224 influential factor for S-na\_S and variance partitioning showed that it accounted for 45%  
225 of the explained variance, whereas it was not selected in the case of H-na\_S. This positive

226 relationship between the main axis of PCA1 (“Habitat”) and S-na\_S reinforces the same  
227 trend described for the General model (native richness is higher in those reaches with  
228 coarser substrate and clearer water). “Distance to source” however, was the most  
229 important factor for H-na\_S and the second most important for S-na\_S. According to  
230 variance partitioning, this factor accounted for 54% and 23% of the explained variance,  
231 respectively. This positive relationship between “Distance to source” and H-na\_S and  
232 Sna\_S, reflects a similar explanation to that suggested for “Drainage area” in the General  
233 model, showing the species-area relationship that occurs as you go downstream: distance  
234 to source increases and so does the number of species found. “Number of reservoirs  
235 upstream” was selected as the second most important factor for H-na\_S and the third for  
236 S-na\_S, accounting for 46% and 21% of the explained variance, respectively. This  
237 negative relationship concurs with that observed in the General model and reinforces the  
238 idea that the more reservoirs upstream from a site, the lower the native fish richness and  
239 diversity. The last variable selected by the model at the site scale was the main axis of  
240 PCA3 (“Site uses”), which accounted for 11% of the explained variance for S-na\_S. In  
241 this axis human impact is located at the positive end, so this negative relationship shows  
242 how, at the site scale, native fish richness is lower in areas where land uses are more  
243 humanized, the same trend as that observed in the General and catchment-scale models.

244

245 Exotic species

246 a) General model

247 A significant model was found for S-ex (Table 1). “Mean channel width” was the most  
248 influential variable, accounting for 42% of the variance ( $R^2 = 0.42$ ). This positive  
249 relationship suggests that exotic fish richness in the Guadianar River is greater in the  
250 wider valleys of the lower sections of the river, away from the narrow valleys near the  
251 source. The final model included only this variable, measured at the site scale, which

252 suggests that this is the most important scale for exotic species richness. Therefore, only a  
253 more detailed site model was computed for exotic species richness.

254

#### 255 b) Site model

256 The model for exotic species richness at the site scale (Sex\_S) was significant and  
257 explained 53% of the variance ( $R^2 = 0.53$ ) (Table 1). As in the General model, “Mean  
258 valley width” was identified as the most influential variable, followed by “River length  
259 covered by reservoirs upstream” (RLCRU, Table 1) in this case, accounting for 55% and  
260 45% of the explained variance, respectively. The positive relationship between “Mean  
261 valley width” and exotic species richness confirms the results of the General model: an  
262 increase in the number of exotic species as the channel becomes wider further away from  
263 the source. The other positive relationship (“River length covered by reservoirs  
264 upstream”) shows how exotic species are linked to reservoirs upstream.

265

#### 266 Spill Effect

267 The ANOVA that compared species richness in the reach downstream from the Agrio  
268 reservoir vs. the six selected reservoirs in similar watersheds yielded a significant result  
269 ( $F_{(6,19)} = 5.465$ ,  $p = 0.002$ ). The post-hoc t-tests revealed significant differences between  
270 the Guadiamar reach and reaches downstream from three reservoirs (Cala, Pintado and  
271 Rumblar,  $t = 3.67$ ,  $p = 0.020$ ;  $t = 3.72$ ,  $p = 0.020$ ; and  $t = -0.90$ ,  $p = 0.040$ ; respectively),  
272 whereas there were no differences with four others (Huesna, Montoro, Rumblar and  
273 Fernandina) (Table 3). On the other hand, no significant differences were found ( $F_{(6,19)} =$   
274  $2.384$ ,  $p = 0.069$ ) between native species diversity downstream from the Agrio reservoir  
275 and any of the other six selected reaches. Similarly, no significant differences were found

276 neither for exotic species richness ( $F_{(6,19)} = 1.126$ ,  $p = 0.384$ ) nor diversity ( $F_{(6,19)} = 0.917$ ,  $p$   
277  $= 0.504$ ) (Table 3).

## 278 Discussion

279 Results revealed the main environmental variables that influence the Guadamar River  
280 fish assemblage 8 years after the mining accident. Richness and diversity followed similar  
281 trends for native species, and differences were found at the site and catchment scales for  
282 both native and exotic species. It was difficult to determine whether there is still an  
283 influence from the spill on these parameters, since there were very few significant  
284 differences between Guadamar data and data from other watersheds, and the Agrio  
285 reservoir exerted a confounding effect.

286 There was a strong influence of a catchment-scale factor such as land use on the native  
287 species assemblage of this basin. In agreement with other authors (e.g., Corbacho and  
288 Sánchez, 2001; He et al., 2010), natural areas present higher native species richness and  
289 diversity than those with some human impact (agricultural or urban land uses). This is  
290 probably because the life cycle requirements of the fish species considered are not  
291 fulfilled in areas with increasing denaturalization of environmental conditions (Hughes et  
292 al., 2010). Deforestation at the catchment scale and elimination of local riparian  
293 vegetation due to agricultural practices decreases shelter availability in riverbanks and  
294 increases erosion and water turbidity (Aguiar and Ferreira, 2005). Furthermore, urban  
295 land uses raise the organic load through sewage discharges, thus reducing the  
296 concentration of oxygen in the water (Ferreira et al., 2005). The extent of these effects  
297 will determine the presence or absence of certain species and therefore, affect the overall  
298 diversity of the fish assemblage.

299 At the site scale, the number of reservoirs upstream acts as the other main influence for  
300 native richness and diversity, representing a pivotal point for fish distribution in the basin  
301 under study. According to variance partitioning, upstream reservoirs are even more

302 important than the well-known species-area relationship trend of higher richness with  
303 greater drainage area (McArthur and Wilson, 1967; Sheldon, 1988), which is evident near  
304 the Agrio reservoir (Figure 1). At this point, however, the trend is reversed and native  
305 species richness decreases dramatically downstream from the dam. This decline is  
306 probably due to the artificial conditions of the reach immediately downstream from the  
307 reservoir (R.J. De Miguel, personal observation), where there is an absence of necessary  
308 habitat elements and fish may be suffering from heavy predation pressure from exotic  
309 species after dam release periods (Clavero and Hermoso, 2011).

310 In addition, and in agreement with Ferreira et al. (2007), the analysis shows how at the  
311 site scale native species prefer coarser substrates and fast-flowing water, typical of natural  
312 areas. A coarse substrate implies the absence of fine material overload from agricultural  
313 erosion, reservoir deposits upstream or urban pollution (Doadrio, 2001). Fast flowing  
314 water is characteristic of less-disturbed source areas, while calm waters are found in  
315 higher proportion in the middle and lower sections of the river. In these lower sections  
316 there is often greater habitat degradation and an accumulation of exotic species, resulting  
317 in an unsuitable environment for native species (Ferreira et al., 2007).

318 Regarding exotic species in the Guadianar River basin, results confirm that there is a  
319 greater number of exotics towards the mouth of the river (Moyle and Light, 1996; Kopp  
320 et al., 2009). This is probably due to greater anthropogenic impacts as the river reaches its  
321 lower section (Sheldon, 1988), and the accumulation of exotic individuals from upstream  
322 reservoirs plus those going upstream from the mouth (Clavero et al., 2004). Moreover, in  
323 the Guadianar River basin, initial habitat degradation after the spill favored the rapid  
324 colonization of exotic species (Olias et al., 2005). Toxic mud removal works inevitably  
325 caused the elimination of important natural elements for native species such as riparian  
326 vegetation or rocky shelters. This left an altered area where exotic species, generalists and  
327 better adapted to degraded zones (Corbacho and Sánchez, 2001), have established more  
328 successfully than natives.

329 Exotic species establishment in the Guadianar River basin is a consequence of fishermen  
330 and government introductions for sport fishing (Fernández-Delgado, 2003). The reservoir  
331 therefore becomes a source of exotic species, but their dispersal is not homogeneous  
332 along the river course. Downstream colonization is more effective than upstream, since  
333 individuals barely go upriver towards the source streams. This asymmetrical movement  
334 may have a twofold explanation. First, the exotic species in the Guadianar River basin  
335 possess either a flattened body adapted to lentic ecosystems, such as centrarchids and  
336 cyprinids, or a small size, such as the eastern mosquitofish *G. holbrooki*. Both body  
337 shapes have not evolved to be efficient in dealing with upstream colonization of the  
338 turbulent streams that fill the reservoir (Bernardo et al., 2003), while the fusiform native  
339 species find no problems to overcome these currents and even use upstream areas as  
340 spawning sites (Nikolsky, 1963; Herrera and Fernández-Delgado, 1992). The second  
341 cause may also be related to the adaptation of exotic species to the stable conditions of  
342 the water bodies where they originally inhabit (Elvira and Almodóvar, 2001). These  
343 stable conditions can be found in reservoirs and their regulated downstream tailwaters,  
344 but reaches immediately upstream suffer large fluctuations with strong flows during rainy  
345 periods and drought during summer, so they are inappropriate environments for exotics  
346 (Magalhaes et al., 2002).

347 Unfortunately, the attempt to discern between spill and reservoir effects did not yield a  
348 clear result, but suggests a combination of events. The observed native species richness  
349 and diversity depletion caused by reservoirs in other river basins, similar to Guadianar,  
350 provides a range of values, and those observed in the Guadianar River fit within that  
351 range. Therefore, the current potential effects of spill remnants are not strong enough to  
352 cause abnormal fish species richness and diversity values. The same result is obtained for  
353 exotic species, which suggests that the set of factors that promote exotic species richness  
354 in the Guadianar River basin are equal to those found in other similar river basins, not  
355 affected by the spill. This may be because the habitat recovery works have minimized the

356 spill effect and the reach originally affected is now exposed to the same impacts that it  
357 suffered before this event.

358 In summary, the native species of the Guadamar River basin are favored by  
359 environments with low human or reservoir influence, a large drainage area and coarse  
360 substrate reaches where flow sweeps along fine materials. Therefore, both catchment and  
361 site scale approaches must be taken into account when relevant factors for native species  
362 are addressed. On the contrary, exotic species thrive mainly due to site-scale factors  
363 downstream from the reservoir, where increasing valley width entails accumulated  
364 disturbances as the river flows towards the mouth that may give them an advantage  
365 versus natives. Eight years after the spill, it is difficult to determine whether there is still  
366 exerts an effect on fish species richness and diversity. Its influence does not seem greater  
367 than that of other human disturbances acting on this watershed and on the other  
368 biogeographically similar watersheds considered. Currently, the Agrio reservoir seems to  
369 be the main disruptor of natural fish diversity in the Guadamar River basin. This work  
370 highlights that studies that aim to assess or monitor similar accidents should take into  
371 account the previous and current impacts of other anthropogenic factors, such as upstream  
372 reservoirs or humanized land uses.

373

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381

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