1 # Direct and indirect influences of macrophyte cover on abundance and growth of

2 juvenile Atlantic salmon

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## Abstract

21    1.  The relationships between macrophytes and the physical and biological characteristics

22        of the environments that aquatic organisms inhabit are complex. Previous studies have

23        shown that the macrophytes, *Ranunculus* (subgenus *Batrachium*), which are dominant

24        in lowland chalk streams and widespread across Europe, can enhance juvenile

25        Atlantic salmon abundance and growth to a greater degree than other physical and

26        biological habitat characteristics. However, mechanistic understanding of how this

27        effect might arise requires consideration of the direct and indirect relationships among

28        habitat characteristics that are likely to be influenced by the presence of macrophyte

29        cover.

30    2.  We applied structural equation modelling to data collected during a two-year in-river

31        manipulative experiment in the river Frome (southern England, UK) designed to

32        quantify the magnitude and the relative importance of direct and indirect influences of

33        *Ranunculus* cover and other physical and biological variables, including water

34        velocity, water depth, prey biomass and body size, and abundance of con- and hetero-

35        specifics, on abundance and somatic growth of 0+ salmon.

36    3.  Results indicated a strongly positive direct influence of *Ranunculus* cover on salmon

37        abundance, as well as positive influences of *Ranunculus* on velocity heterogeneity and

38        water depth that are indirectly related to decreased salmon abundance. Interestingly,

39        there was no indication of a direct influence of *Ranunculus* cover on salmon growth,

40        although *Ranunculus* was indirectly related to increased salmon growth through its

41        positive influence on prey biomass, an effect mediated by velocity heterogeneity and

42        proportion of fast velocities.

43      4.  These findings provide novel mechanistic insights into the key role of *Ranunculus* in

44          their native lowland rivers to enhance abundance and improve conditions for multiple

45          food web components. Strategies to maintain or enhance naturally occurring

46          *Ranunculus* in these rivers are therefore likely to return wide ranging ecosystem

47          benefits, including for species of high conservation value, such as salmon. These

48          mechanistic impacts on habitat heterogeneity and ecosystem productivity could

49          generalise to native macrophytes in other river systems, particularly where habitat is

50          dominated by vegetation in the absence of large substrates.

51

## 1. Introduction

53

54   Terrestrial and aquatic vegetation form key ecosystem structures that provide resources,

55   shelter and physical conditions that benefit a variety of species and functional groups (Tews

56   *et al.,* 2004; Teixeira de Mello *et al.,* 2015; Wilkinson *et al.,* 2021). Density and morphology

57   of plants often underly habitat heterogeneity (Diehl & Kornijow, 1998; Tews *et al.,* 2004;

58   Warfe & Barmuta, 2004), which is essential for resilient, abundant and diverse animal

59   communities (Kovalenko, Thomaz & Warfe, 2012; Teixeira de Mello *et al.,* 2015).

60   Macrophytes are considered to be such foundation species that strongly structure freshwater

61   ecosystems (Scheffer *et al.,* 2015; Lürig, *et al.,* 2021) and their impacts on trophic

62   interactions (e.g. Dionne & Folt, 1991; Warfe & Barmuta, 2004), water velocities and

63   sediment retention (e.g. Wharton *et al.,* 2006) have been well studied. However, previous

64   research has primarily focused on direct responses of animal abundances to macrophyte

65   structures, with less consideration for how the habitat heterogeneity created by macrophytes

66   modulates animal responses (Kovalenko, Thomaz & Warfe, 2012).

67   In lowland rivers, which are typically more stable and less dynamic than upland river systems

68   (Berrie, 1992), macrophytes are particularly important for juvenile salmonids as they provide

69   a key source of habitat heterogeneity in the absence of other large substrate structures (Berrie,

70   1992; Riley *et al.,* 2009). While not studied as extensively as other habitat characteristics,

71   positive interactions between juvenile salmonids and macrophytes in lowland rivers have

72   been demonstrated across a wide geographical scale, including southern England (e.g. Riley

73   *et* al., 2009; Marsh *et al.,* 2021a), south-west Ireland (McCormick & Harrison, 2011),

74   northern Finland (Maki-Petays *et al.* 2011), and north-eastern United States (Beland *et al.*

75    2004) and are unlikely to be limited to these areas. Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*, hereafter

76    salmon) reach greater abundances and faster growth rates in habitats with high cover of the

77    dominant lowland macrophytes known as water crowfoot, *Ranunculus* spp. (Marsh *et al.*,

78    2020a, 2021a), although the mechanisms underlying these relationships remain unclear.

79    Cover is important for juvenile salmon (Armstrong *et al.*, 2003; Marsh *et al.*, 2020a, 2021a),

80    and so the vertical structure of *Ranunculus*, coupled with the floating canopy on the water

81    surface, offers direct protection from both aerial and aquatic predators (Johnsson, Rydeborg

82    & Sundstrom, 2004; Diehl & Kornijow, 1998), harsh environmental conditions (Gries &

83    Juanes, 1998), and potential competitors (Venter *et al.*, 2008).

84    In addition to the direct influence of macrophytes as shelter, the impacts of macrophyte cover

85    on individual salmon and populations might be mediated by physical habitat characteristics,

86    inter- and intra-specific competition, and resource quality and quantity. The structural

87    complexity of submerged macrophytes, particularly those with dense canopies such as

88    *Ranunculus* (Cotton *et al.*, 2006), dramatically increases the resistance to water flow. This

89    provides refuges of low water velocity and increased water depths, the latter of which might

90    be avoided by juvenile salmon due to increased presence of predators and larger conspecifics

91    (Gibson, 1993; Wharton *et al.*, 2006, Marsh *et al.*, 2020a). As water velocities slow within

92    the plant stands, water flow is accelerated around the plant beds, forming adjacent areas of

93    fast velocities (Wharton *et al.*, 2006). This results in heterogeneous water velocities, a

94    desirable habitat characteristic for juvenile salmonids to exploit for energy-efficient foraging

95    opportunities, with low velocity refuges alongside fast water velocities providing increased

96    supply of drifting prey, which might otherwise be energetically demanding environments to

97    forage in (Wankowski & Thorpe, 1979; Morantz *et al.*, 1987).

98    Heterogeneity in water velocities and depths can promote more abundant and diverse

99    macroinvertebrate communities, which juvenile salmon feed upon (Keeley & Grant, 1997;

100    Riley *et al.,* 2009). The reduced water velocities within plant stands result in increased

101    retention of fine sediment and organic material (Gregg and Rose 1982; Cotton *et al.,* 2006),

102    providing food for macroinvertebrate communities dominated by larger individuals. The

103    complexity provided by plant stands can also offer macroinvertebrates protection from

104    predators (Dionne & Folt, 1991) and thus, enables the coexistence of larger prey individuals

105    and their fish predators. Consequently, *Ranunculus* communities are often associated with

106    productive and abundant macroinvertebrate communities (Armitage & Cannan, 2000; Riley

107    *et al.,* 2009).

108    Teasing apart the direct and indirect influences of these habitat components to inform

109    fisheries management is challenging due to the interdependence among habitat factors

110    (Armstrong *et al.,* 2003), however, detailed understanding of the complex relationships

111    between *Ranunculus* and juvenile salmon populations is essential if we are to apply effective

112    management strategies. Populations of Atlantic salmon have suffered unprecedented declines

113    in the last few decades (ICES, 2021). Natural recovery of salmon populations is hindered by

114    a decline in both the numbers of juvenile salmon migrating to sea, and, in some regions, the

115    condition of the individuals prior to migrating. Recent works have quantified the relationship

116    between size of salmon pre-migration and the likelihood of individuals returning to

117    freshwater to reproduce (Armstrong *et al.,* 2018; Gregory *et al.,* 2019). Individual body

118    condition is strongly influenced by habitat conditions experienced during the first summer for

119    juvenile salmonids (Zabel & Achord, 2004), prompting calls for a better understanding of the

120    habitat conditions that maximise numbers and quality of juveniles (Armstrong *et al.,* 2018;

121    Gregory *et al.,* 2019). Macrophytes, such as *Ranunculus,* have also suffered population

122    crashes in lowland rivers within the last three decades, likely as a consequence of

123    anthropogenic impacts including flow modifications and increased agricultural inputs

124    (Cranston, 2004; Cotton *et al.,* 2006). There is, therefore, an urgency to understanding the

125   role of *Ranunculus* in promoting healthy juvenile salmon populations, to improve ecosystem

126   management benefiting salmon and anticipate the implications of macrophyte declines on

127   salmon productivity.

128   Here, we analysed detailed data from an in-field *Ranunculus* manipulation experiment

129   designed to quantify ecological mechanisms governing the previously observed positive

130   impact of *Ranunculus* cover on salmon abundances and somatic growth (Figure 1, Marsh *et*

131   *al.,* 2021a). We aimed to determine whether these relationships represent direct influences

132   through a source of cover, or indirect via influences on the wider ecosystem dynamics

133   through impacts on physical habitat, food resources and/or competition. We hypothesised that

134   abundant *Ranunculus* positively influences heterogenous physical habitat characteristcs

135   (increased water depth and velocity heterogeneity), the amount of basal resources and prey

136   (organic material and macroinvertebrate prey biomass and body size), but also increases the

137   potential for intra- and inter-specific competition via increased abundance of juvenile salmon

138   and brown trout (*Salmo trutta*) respectively (Figure 2). We subsequently postulated indirect

139   influences of *Ranunculus* on salmon abundance through a positive influence of velocity

140   heterogeneity, fast velocities and prey biomass, and a negative influence of increased water

141   depths (and associated higher predation risk) on salmon abundance (Figure 2a). We also

142   hypothesised indirect influences of *Ranunculus* on salmon growth through a positive

143   influence of velocity heterogeneity and prey biomass and body size, as well as a negative

144   influence of fast velocities (and associated reduced foraging efficiency) and higher

145   abundances of salmon and trout competitors (Figure 2b).

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147   ## 2. Methods

148   Experimental design

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149   The in-field *Ranunculus* manipulation experiment took place over two years (2016-2017) on

150   the North Stream, an anabranch of the river Frome, a lowland river situated in Dorset, UK

151   (Figure 3). Three blocks, approximately 100 m in length, were selected on the North Stream

152   in locations with similar physical habitat, existing *Ranunculus* beds and no riparian canopy.

153   At each block, three sites, 20 m in length, were designated and each assigned a different

154   *Ranunculus* treatment, which was achieved by digging out and replanting *Ranunculus* plants

155   between sites. To simulate the natural mosaic of *Ranunculus* beds, we replanted plants in

156   random patches within the site.Following manipulation of the existing *Ranunculus* plant

157   cover in spring (March/April) of each year, the treatments of low (<10%), medium (30-40%)

158   and high (>60%) cover were maintained throughout the year, producing a gradient of

159   *Ranunculus* cover until the plants began natural senescence in autumn (see Marsh et al.,

160   2021a for full details of the manipulation procedure). On four sample occasions between June

161   and October of each year, juvenile salmonid populations, aquatic macroinvertebrates and

162   basal resources were sampled, and *Ranunculus* cover, water velocity and depths were

163   quantified. Previous findings from this experiment showed that both salmon abundance and

164   growth were enhanced by *Ranunculus* during summer months (Marsh *et al.,* 2021a, Figure 1).

165   We used these data to investigate potential direct or indirect effects of *Ranunculus* cover on

166   juvenile salmon (Figure 2).

167   <u>Salmon abundance and growth</u>

168   Juvenile salmon (0+ or young-of-the-year) abundance and biometric data were collected

169   between June and October of each year at each of the nine sites (see Marsh et al., 2021a for

170   full fish sampling procedure). We repeatedly electrofished each site in a upstream direction,

171   capturing and removing all juvenile salmonids encountered, until two consecutive fishing

172   passes yielded zero salmonid captures. We set stop nets at the downstream and upstream site

173   limits to maximise capture efficiency. Captured individuals were sedated, identified to

174　species, weighed (to nearest 0.2 g), and marked with a Passive Integrated Transponder (PIT)

175　tag (12.5 mm length, 2.12 mm diameter, Biomark, Idaho, USA), which was inserted into the

176　body cavity, and the adipose fin clipped to indicate a tagged individual. Growth of individual

177　salmon was calculated using change in the weight (g) measurements of tagged individuals

178　that were recaptured in the same site, with the assumption that the individuals had been

179　exposed to the site-specific *Ranunculus* cover for the duration of the growing period

180　measured.

181　<u>Physical habitat variables</u>

182　Physical habitat variables were recorded at 25 evenly spaced quadrats (0.5 x 0.5 m) per site,

183　on each sample occasion. *Ranunculus* cover was estimated as the percentage quadrat cover,

184　water depth was measured (cm), and water surface velocity was estimated visually as one of

185　five categories [1 = 0-25 cm s$^{-1}$; 2 = 25-50 cm s$^{-1}$; 3 = 50-75 cm s$^{-1}$; 4 = 75-100 cm s$^{-1}$; 5

186　>100 cm s$^{-1}$]. We calculated the site-level proportion of fast velocities as the proportion of

187　velocity categories 3, 4 and 5 recorded in quadrats at a site. Measures of *Ranunculus* cover,

188　water depth and proportion of fast velocities were averaged to create a site-level measure of

189　each variable. The steepness in velocity gradients between a quadrat and its neighbouring

190　quadrats was calculated using the Terrain Ruggedness Index (TRI, see Marsh et al., 2020a for

191　details). Absolute values of TRI were averaged to represent site-level velocity heterogeneity.

192　<u>Prey and basal resources</u>

193　To determine biomass and size of macroinvertebrate prey, and the resources potentially used

194　by the prey (basal resources), we sampled the benthos at three randomly selected locations

195　per site, on each sample occasion. Using a Surber sample (0.25 m x 0.25 m, mesh aperture

196　250 μm), we disturbed the substrate by hand for 30 seconds to collect macroinvertebrates and

197　organic material. Samples were preserved in 70 % ethanol solution for sorting, identification

198　and measuring individual macroinvertebrates, and processing of the organic material. All

199    macroinvertebrate specimens were identified to the lowest practical taxonomic level (usually

200    species), counted and measured. We used macroinvertebrate measurements to estimate

201    biomass of each taxon (Table S1) and multiplied the mean biomass by the abundance of each

202    taxon to generate a measure of prey biomass. We summed the biomass of each taxon and

203    calculated the average biomass of measured individuals within each Surber sample to

204    produce measures of total prey biomass and mean prey size, respectively. After

205    macroinvertebrate specimens had been picked from the sample, the remaining organic

206    material was dried to constant mass (70°C, 72 h) and weighed, prior to being combusted

207    (550°C, 4 h) and re-weighed. The ash-free dry mass of organic material was calculated by

208    subtracting the combusted weight from the dried weight, producing a measure of basal

209    resources. Measures of total prey biomass, mean prey size, and basal resources were averaged

210    across the three Surber samples to create a site-level variable of each.

211    Using data from the summer months in which *Ranunculus* had a positive relationship with

212    both salmon abundance and growth, led to the use of August and September data to

213    investigate salmon abundance ($n = 36$, i.e., abundance measures in three sites in each of the

214    three blocks at two months for two years, treated as independent data points), and June and

215    August data to investigate salmon growth ($n = 71$). Explanatory variables used in the growth

216    analysis were averaged across June and August to represent average conditions during the

217    growth period.

218    <u>Data analyses</u>

219    To investigate whether and how the effects of *Ranunculus* cover on salmon abundance and

220    growth were mediated by changes in the physical habitat, prey resources and/or competition,

221    we applied confirmatory path analysis (Grace, 2006) in a piecewise structural equation

222    modelling (SEM) framework (Lefcheck, 2016). SEM is a quantitative framework able to

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223    quantify and partition the relative direct and indirect conditional associations of key habitat

224    characteristics on natural populations (Grace, 2006). This approach has been commonly

225    applied to investigating complex theory-supported hypotheses about ecosystems and

226    ecological scenarios. Piecewise SEM fits multiple component sub-models within a global

227    model to allow for testing of direct and indirect effects within a single causal network

228    (Shipley, 2009; Lefcheck, 2016). The component models are solved separately and are

229    therefore appropriate for conventional requirements of generalised mixed models (Shipley,

230    2000; Shipley, 2009). We constructed the global path model for each main response variable

231    (abundance and growth) based on previously determined relationships (Marsh et al., 2021a),

232    and other hypothesised drivers of salmon abundance and growth (Table 1).

233    Firstly, we tested whether the observed positive influence of *Ranunculus* cover on salmon

234    abundance was best represented as a direct effect of cover, or an indirect effect operating

235    through changes to the physical environment and prey resources associated with *Ranunculus*

236    cover (Figure 2a). The path model consisted of a set of linear regressions (identity-link

237    function), describing the variation in variables representing physical environment or prey

238    sources, and a negative binomial regression (log-link function), describing the variation in

239    salmon abundance. A negative binomial distribution was used to account for potential

240    overdispersion in the abundance data with log site area ($m^2$) included in the model as an

241    offset to account for variation in abundance that might be due to differences in habitat size

242    (O'Hara & Kotze, 2010). Model residuals were inspected to ensure assumptions of

243    homogeneity, normality and independence were not violated.

244    Secondly, we investigated whether the observed positive effect of *Ranunculus* cover on

245    salmon growth in weight was best represented as a direct effect of cover, or an indirect effect

246    operating through changes to the physical environment, prey resources and/or abundance of

247    competitors (Figure 2b). This path model consisted of a set of linear and negative binomial

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248    regressions to describe physical habitat, prey resource and salmonid abundance variables as

249    described above, and a linear mixed effect model (identity link function) to describe variation

250    in salmon growth in weight. The growth model included an offset term of log initial weight to

251    account for the influence of initial weight on growth potential and a random intercept of site

252    to account for multiple measures (individuals) at each site.

253    Path models for both salmon abundance and growth were fitted and model performance was

254    evaluated using R package piecewiseSEM (Lefcheck et al., 2018), which applies Shipley's

255    (2000) directed-separation test to determine if all variables are conditionally independent and

256    identify any important missing links in the path model. Any missing links that were indicated

257    by the analyses and ecologically justifiable were incorporated into the model. Non-significant

258    links were dropped to ensure they did not have an undue influence on the remaining paths in

259    the system before refitting the model (Tables S2 – 3 outline the specific process of removal

260    and addition of links). The goodness-of-fit of models fitted to individual response variables

261    were summarized using marginal $R^2$ (and conditional $R^2$ where random effects were

262    included), and overall SEM adequacy was evaluated with the approximately distributed Chi-

263    squared Fisher's C-statistic (Shipley, 2009). Prior to model fitting: (1) collinearity of

264    explanatory variables was assessed using Pearson's correlation, none of which were highly

265    correlated ($r \geq |0.7|$, Dormann *et al.,* 2013, Figures S1 –2); and (2) all numerical explanatory

266    variables were standardised prior to analyses by subtracting their mean and dividing by their

267    standard deviation. All statistical analyses were performed in R version 4.0.5 (R

268    Development Core Team, 2021), using R packages lmerTest (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff &

269    Christensen, 2017) and MASS (Venables & Ripley, 2002), in addition to those previously

270    mentioned.

271    We of course recognize that scientific inferences based on quantitative models, as applied in

272    this study, depend on a number of mechanistic assumptions, as recently described by Grace

273    and Irvine (2020). In this study, the most general and vital assumptions associated with

274    network structure that we have included in our models are consistent with both known and

275    plausible mechanisms whereby *Ranunculus* can influence physical and other biological

276    system components. The use of experimental data in this study is a great asset in supporting

277    interpretations. As with all ecological studies, estimates are assumed to be approximate and

278    the confirmation of conclusions dependent on subsequent studies.

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280

281    ## 3. Results

282    ### 3.1. Salmon abundance

283    Results indicate a strong and positive direct influence of *Ranunculus* cover on salmon

284    abundances ($\gamma = 0.52$, $p < 0.001$) and an overall positive influence of *Ranunculus* (Table 2a),

285    which was mediated through water velocities and depths (Figure 4a). *Ranunculus* cover was

286    positively associated with increased velocity heterogeneity ($\gamma = 0.46$, $p < 0.01$), which had a

287    weakly supported, negative association with the proportion of fast velocities ($\beta = -0.30$, $p =$

288    0.08). Proportion of fast velocities in turn had a strongly supported, positive influence on

289    salmon abundances ($\beta = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$). *Ranunculus* cover was also positively associated

290    with increased water depths ($\gamma = 0.40$, $p = 0.02$), which was negatively related to salmon

291    abundance ($\beta = -0.29$, $p = 0.02$). There was no significant influence of velocity heterogeneity

292    or prey biomass on salmon abundance, and *Ranunculus* cover was not related to basal

293    resources or prey biomass. Consequently, these pathways were not retained in the final

294    model, though there was a positive relationship between basal resources and prey biomass ($\beta$

295    $= 0.31$, $p = 0.06$). The model was an adequate representation of the data (i.e. all paths were

296    judged to be independent: Fisher's $C_8 = 6.97$, $p$ value $= 0.54$), and explained a high amount of

297      variation in salmon abundance (marginal $R^2 = 0.70$). Model residuals did not violate

298      assumptions of homogeneity, normality or independence.

299      <u>3.2. Salmon growth</u>

300      The direct positive influence of *Ranunculus* cover on salmon growth was not retained in the

301      path model. Instead, there were multiple indirect influences of *Ranunculus* cover on growth

302      via physical habitat and prey resource variables (Figure 4b). *Ranunculus* cover was positively

303      directly related to prey biomass ($\gamma = 0.84$, $p < 0.001$) and velocity heterogeneity ($\gamma = 0.53$, $p$

304      $< 0.001$). Prey biomass had a strong, positive influence on salmon growth ($\beta = 0.81$, $p <$

305      $0.001$). Velocity heterogeneity was negatively related to proportion of fast velocities ($\beta = -$

306      $0.59$, $p = < 0.001$), which in turn was strongly, positively related to prey biomass ($\beta = 0.75$, $p$

307      $= < 0.001$). This latter relationship between proportion of fast velocities and prey biomass

308      was identified as an important missing link in the initial model. The influences of prey size,

309      salmon abundance and trout abundance on salmon growth were not significant, and so these

310      variables were not retained in the final model. Velocity heterogeneity and proportion of fast

311      velocities did not directly affect salmon growth, so these pathways were also removed. The

312      overall effect of *Ranunculus* cover on growth was positive (Table 2b), and the data were

313      judged to be consistent with the model (Fisher's $C_{10} = 10.27$, $p = 0.42$). The model explained

314      a high proportion of the variance in salmon growth in weight (marginal $R^2 = 0.56$, conditional

315      $R^2 = 0.66$). Model residuals did not violate assumptions of homogeneity, normality or

316      independence.

317

318      <u>4. Discussion</u>

319      This study uncovered evidence that the positive influences of *Ranunculus* cover on salmon

320      abundance and growth during summer (Marsh *et al.,* 2021a), are likely driven by a direct

321    effect of cover, and indirect effects operating through multiple pathways, respectively. These

322    findings provide mechanistic understanding of the key influence that macrophytes have on

323    salmon communities in lowland rivers. Salmon abundance was strongly influenced by a

324    direct effect of *Ranunculus* and indirectly, through influences on water depths and velocities.

325    By contrast, salmon growth appears to not be substantially affected by a direct effect of

326    *Ranunculus,* but instead predominantly influenced indirectly via impacts of *Ranunculus* on

327    prey resources and water velocities. Multiple indirect pathways were identified in each

328    analysis, via physical habitat and food resource variables, highlighting the potential of

329    *Ranunculus* to influence multiple ecosystem components in lowland rivers.

330    Higher *Ranunculus* cover was directly associated with higher salmon abundance, supporting

331    the hypothesis that densities of juvenile salmonids are determined by availability of shelter,

332    not just food resources (Riley *et al*., 2009). Greater plant cover increases the area of shelter

333    afforded by both the floating canopy on the water surface, to protect salmon from aerial

334    predators (Johnsson, Rydeborg & Sundstrom, 2004), and a complex vertical structure

335    throughout the water column to shield or aid evasion from aquatic predators (Dionne & Folt,

336    1991; Diehl & Kornijow, 1998). Such structural complexity could result in plant cover being

337    preferable habitat, attracting more individuals and resulting in reduced mortality rates from

338    predation. Higher salmon abundance in patches with high *Ranunculus* cover might also result

339    from visual isolation among competitors, which can reduce aggressive behaviour, and

340    consequently the territory size defended by an individual (Venter *et al.,* 2008), increasing the

341    effective carrying capacity of a site (Venter *et al.,* 2008). The presence and use of shelters by

342    salmon (e.g. boulders, tree roots, aquatic vegetation) can also lead to lower metabolic rates

343    (Millidine, Armstrong & Metcalfe, 2006), sheltering them from extreme daytime summer

344    temperatures (Gries & Juanes, 1998) and allowing rest out of fast water flows during night

345    (Riley *et al.,* 2006).

346 We found evidence of a strong, positive effect of fast velocities on salmon abundance, which

347 is consistent with suggestions that water velocity is a key determinant of juvenile salmon

348 habitat selection (Morantz *et al.,* 1987; Armstrong *et al.,* 2003; Girard, Grant &

349 Steingrimsson, 2004). Body morphology can influence habitat choice by fish (Armstrong *et*

350 *al.,* 2003), and the large pectoral fins and streamlined body assist juvenile salmon to maintain

351 position near the riverbed in fast flowing water (Arnold, Webb & Holford, 1991). Fast

352 velocities might be preferred by individual fish due to the continuous supply of drifting prey.

353 In the study stream, salmon prey heavily on three taxonomic groups, *Baetis* sp. and *Serratella*

354 *ignita* (Ephemeroptera), and Simuliidae (Diptera), which are characteristic of drift taxa

355 (Waters, 1972; Marsh *et al.,* 2020b). Faster water velocity might therefore support a greater

356 number of salmon by providing an adequate supply of drifting invertebrates, to ensure

357 sufficient resources for greater number of individuals. *Ranunculus* cover mediates this effect

358 by its strong influence on velocity heterogeneity, that is, the steepness of adjacent velocity

359 gradients in and around plant stands (Wharton *et al.,* 2006). *Ranunculus* cover thus can be

360 particularly beneficial in habitats with fast water velocities as it offers a low velocity refuge.

361 The negative effect of water depth on salmon abundance suggests that shallower habitats are

362 preferred during the summer feeding period. Ontogenetic shifts in habitat selection occur in

363 salmonid species, and older and larger fish tend to shift to deeper habitats (Morantz *et al.,*

364 1987; Armstrong *et al.,* 2003). Subsequently, increased water depths are associated with

365 greater abundance of older, and potentially more successful, competitors and predators

366 (Gibson, 1993; Keeley & Grant, 1995). Therefore, juvenile salmon individuals might either

367 not select for, or suffer higher mortality rates in deeper water, and so are recorded in lower

368 abundance in these habitats. In contrast, juvenile salmonids in upland rivers avoid shallow

369 water in favour for intermediate depths (Morantz *et al.,* 1987; Girard, Grant & Steingrimsson,

370 2004), as depth benefits include increased prey encounter rates for drift-feeding salmonids

371   and protection from aerial predators and high flows (Gregory, 1993; Piccolo *et al.,* 2007).

372   *Ranunculus* can provide comparable habitat conditions, i.e. greater foraging opportunities and

373   shelter from high velocities and predators, in lowland rivers, which might diminish the

374   advantages of occupying deeper water over shallow habitats.

375   Velocity heterogeneity and prey biomass were not identified as important drivers of salmon

376   abundance, suggesting that shelter has a greater influence than access to prey resources. The

377   strong relationships between *Ranunculus* and velocity heterogeneity and water depth

378   illustrate how macrophytes can influence the physical environment, predominately through

379   altering water flow dynamics. *Ranunculus* had little influence on basal resources, contrasting

380   with existing knowledge on the ability of *Ranunculus* stands to retain substantial amounts of

381   organic material (Gregg & Rose, 1982; Cotton *et al.,* 2006). However, this finding should be

382   considered with caution as it could also indicate a limitation of the benthic sampling

383   procedure, i.e. not enough samples were collected to capture average levels of organic matter

384   associated with site-level *Ranunculus* cover accurately, due to patchy distributions (Downes,

385   Lake & Schreiber, 1993).

386   Salmon growth was not directly affected by *Ranunculus* cover in our models, suggesting that

387   the previously observed positive influence of cover on salmon growth (Marsh *et al.,* 2021a)

388   was mediated by the physical habitat and food resources associated with *Ranunculus* cover.

389   The influence of *Ranunculus* operated through positive impacts on velocity heterogeneity and

390   prey biomass, the latter of which in turn was related to greater growth. This finding supports

391   the expectation that higher *Ranunculus* cover allows for greater abundance and biomass of

392   macroinvertebrate prey. The strong association between *Ranunculus* cover and

393   macroinvertebrate prey in the growth model was not retained in the abundance model that

394   was parameterised on data collected later in the year when macroinvertebrate abundance

395   declines and *Ranunculus* plants begin to die back (Marsh et al. 2021a). Macrophytes provide

396    microhabitats that invertebrates can occupy (Hutchens *et al.,* 2004), and plants with complex

397    architectures are purported to support greater macroinvertebrate biomass due to increased

398    surface area for colonisation and protection from predators (Heck and Crowder 1991; Diehl

399    & Kornijow, 1998). Structural complexity from highly dissected *Ranunculus* leaves enhances

400    ability to trap detritus and support epiphytic biomass (Gregg and Rose 1982), that form food

401    resources for macroinvertebrates. These increased resources might therefore support greater

402    numbers of individuals and explain why prey biomass was greater in higher *Ranunculus*

403    cover.

404    High velocities were expected to be detrimental to salmon growth due to the increased

405    energetic demands of inhabiting fast flowing water (Wankowski & Thorpe, 1979), but a

406    direct influence of the proportion of fast velocities was not found to be important. Although

407    drift feeding in salmonids can be considered as energetically expensive (Puckett & Dill,

408    1985), behavioural responses to foraging in habitats with increased velocities, such as

409    reducing attack distances, can negate any additional energy costs (Godin & Rangeley, 1989).

410    The proportion of fast velocities indirectly influenced salmon growth through a positive

411    association with prey biomass, a relationship that was not originally hypothesised but

412    identified from the model fit. This could represent the habitat preferences of

413    macroinvertebrate taxa that were highly abundant in the Surber samples, particularly

414    rheophilic fauna, such as Baetidae, Simuliidae, Ephemerellidae, Elmidae and

415    Hydropsychidae (Marsh *et al.,* 2020b). High velocity conditions can afford benefits through

416    predator evasion and increasing oxygen supply, particularly for larger macroinvertebrate

417    individuals with greater resource requirements (Sagnes, Merigoux & Peru, 2008).

418    There was no significant influence of salmon or trout abundance on salmon growth detected,

419    suggesting that growth (and competition for resources) was not negatively impacted by the

420    abundance of con- or hetero-specifics in this experiment. This finding is likely context

421     specific, however, as other studies have shown negative effects of competitor densities

422     (salmon or trout) on juvenile salmon growth, linked to individuals competing for similar and

423     limited resources (e.g. Bal *et al.,* 2011; Gregory *et al.,* 2017). Additionally, due to the

424     recruitment crash in the river Frome catchment in 2016 (Marsh *et al.,* 2021b), there might

425     have been insufficient densities of con- or hetero-specifics to detect any influence of

426     competition on growth. In line with previous works that observed the territory sizes of

427     juvenile salmon to be within a few square metres (Armstrong et al. 1994; Venter et al. 2008),

428     in this study we assumed that the home ranges of juvenile salmon were mostly limited to the

429     individual 20 m study sites and thus, exposure to the *Ranunculus* treatments. Extending the

430     scale of the study, both temporally and spatially, would be required to discern whether the

431     relationships between *Ranunculus* and salmon abundance and growth sustained across larger

432     scales and, ultimately, resulted in a change at the population level. This work would be an

433     interesting future research direction.

434     Direct and indirect influences of *Ranunculus* underlie greater abundance of faster growing

435     salmon at a reach-scale. Even in these relatively simple path analyses, the important links

436     retained for the two salmon responses demonstrate the complex interactions, which govern

437     the impact of *Ranunculus* cover on multiple abiotic and biotic variables. This highlights the

438     role of *Ranunculus* as a key aquatic structure that mediates environmental conditions in

439     lowland streams promoting abundance, and growth conditions in individuals of species at

440     multiple trophic levels by creating suitable physical habitat with abundant resources. The

441     analytical approach taken in the study allowed us to test for salmon responses to varying level

442     of macrophyte cover as well as associated changes in habitat heterogeneity, providing new

443     mechanistic insights into how *Ranunculus* benefits juvenile salmon in lowland rivers. The

444     impact of macrophytes on habitat and ecosystem productivity could generalise to native

445     macrophytes and fish communities in river systems where large substrates that provide

19

446  structural complexity are infrequent. Only by elucidating the mechanisms driving change in

447  population dynamics, can we design and undertake effective restoration of ecosystems

448  degraded by anthropogenic activity. This study suggests that strategies to maintain or

449  enhance naturally occurring *Ranunculus* will likely return wide ranging ecosystem benefits,

450  including for species of high conservation value, such as salmon.

456  Author contribution statement

457  Conceptualisation: JM, JIJ, RL, PK. Developing methods; data interpretation; writing: JM, JIJ,

458  RL, JG, PK. Conducting the research, data analysis, preparation of figures and tables: JM.

459  Conflict of interest statement

460  The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

461  Data availability statement

462  The data supporting the original experiment and used in this study are available via the Dryad

463  Digital Repository https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.612jm643t (Marsh et al., 2021c); additional

464  data are available from the authors upon reasonable request.

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**Table 1.** Summary of the variables used in path analysis of salmon abundance ($n = 36$) and growth rates ($n = 71$) with mean and standard error (prior to standardising).

| Model | Variable (unit) | Type | Error | Mean (± SE) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abundance | Salmon abundance (N) | Response | Negative binomial | 14.47 (2.07) |
| | Proportion of fast velocities | Response/Explanatory | Gaussian | 0.62 (0.04) |
| | Velocity heterogeneity (Index) | Response/Explanatory | Gaussian | 0.80 (0.06) |
| | Water depth (cm) | Response/Explanatory | Gaussian | 31.58 (1.82) |
| | Total biomass of prey (mg) | Response/Explanatory | Gaussian | 221.27 (17.31) |
| | Basal resources (mg) | Response/Explanatory | Gaussian | 0.83 (0.07) |
| | *Ranunculus* cover (%) | Explanatory | - | 34.00 (4.28) |
| | | | | |
| Growth | Salmon growth in weight (g) | Response | Gaussian | 4.55 (0.20) |
| | Average salmon abundance (N) | Response/Explanatory | Negative binomial | 33.97 (1.47) |
| | Average trout abundance (N) | Response/Explanatory | Negative binomial | 13.23 (1.06) |
| | Average proportion of fast velocities | Response/Explanatory | Gaussian | 0.72 (0.01) |
| | Average velocity heterogeneity (Index) | Response/Explanatory | Gaussian | 0.95 (0.05) |
| | Average total biomass of prey (mg) | Response/Explanatory | Gaussian | 191.62 (11.73) |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Average size of prey (mg) | Response/Explanatory | Gaussian | 0.32 (0.01) |
| Average *Ranunculus* cover (%) | Explanatory | - | 53.50 (3.57) |

**Table 2.** Standardised effects of the paths retained in the best fitting model between *Ranunculus* cover (R) and salmon abundance (A) and growth in weight (G), shown in section (a) and (b), respectively. Variables represented as VH – velocity heterogeneity, FV – fast velocity, WD – water depth, P – total biomass of prey. Indirect effects are calculated by multiplying the partial path coefficients and represent the effect of *Ranunculus* on salmon abundance and growth directly and mediated by the physical habitat/food resource variables. The overall effect of *Ranunculus* on salmon abundance and growth is calculated by summing all direct and indirect effects.

| Response variable | Pathways | Direct effects | Indirect effects | Overall effect |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **(a)** | | | | **0.35** |
| Salmon | R → A | 0.52 | - | |
| abundance | R → VH → FV → A | - | -0.05 | |
| | R → WD → A | - | -0.12 | |
| **(b)** | | | | **0.64** |
| Salmon growth | R → P → G | - | 0.68 | |
| in weight | R → VH → FV → P → G | - | -0.04 | |

Figure Captions

**Figure 1**. Partial effects showing the influence of *Ranunculus* through time on (a) juvenile (0+) salmon abundance during August and September, and on (b) 0+ salmon growth of marked individuals caught in June and recaptured in August. These partial effects were predicted from separate models including other explanatory variables that together described the effects of a *Ranunculus* manipulation experiment on salmon abundance and growth (for full details see Marsh et al. 2021a). The solid line and shaded area represent the mean estimate and 95% confidence interval of the marginal effect of *Ranunculus* cover and the solid circles show the raw data points. These data points form the response variables of this study.

**Figure 2**. Hypothesised relationships of the piecewise SEMs to describe variation in (a) 0+ salmon abundance, and (b) 0+ salmon growth. The path diagrams represent hypothesis of direct and indirect effects of *Ranunculus* cover on salmon abundance and growth, $\gamma$ represents links between an exogenous and endogenous variable, $\beta$ represents links between two endogenous variables, numbers correspond to the variable number, e.g. $x_1, y_2$, that are linked. Black arrows denote positive links and red arrows denote negative links, and the strength of effect is highlighted by arrow thickness.

**Figure 3**. Schematic illustration of the study locations and experimental manipulations: (a) location of the River Frome in Dorset, UK; (b) locations of the three experimental blocks on the North stream (black triangles); and (c) a schematic representation showing that each experimental block consisted of three sites (20 m in length), each manipulated to maintain contrasting *Ranunculus* cover (high / medium / low) and bounded by *Ranunculus* denuded buffer strips (5 m in length), from Marsh et al. 2021a.

**Figure 4.** Outcomes of the final piecewise SEMs testing direct and indirect effects of *Ranunculus* cover on (a) 0+ salmon abundance and (b) 0+ salmon growth. Non-significant pathways were omitted from the final model, and missing paths were identified using d-separation tests and incorporated. Coefficient estimates are shown for each pathway with significance levels are denoted as *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, · $p < 0.1$, marginal $R^2$ values for each component response variable are shown under the response variable name. Black arrows denote positive links and red arrows denote negative links, and the strength of effect is highlighted by arrow thickness.
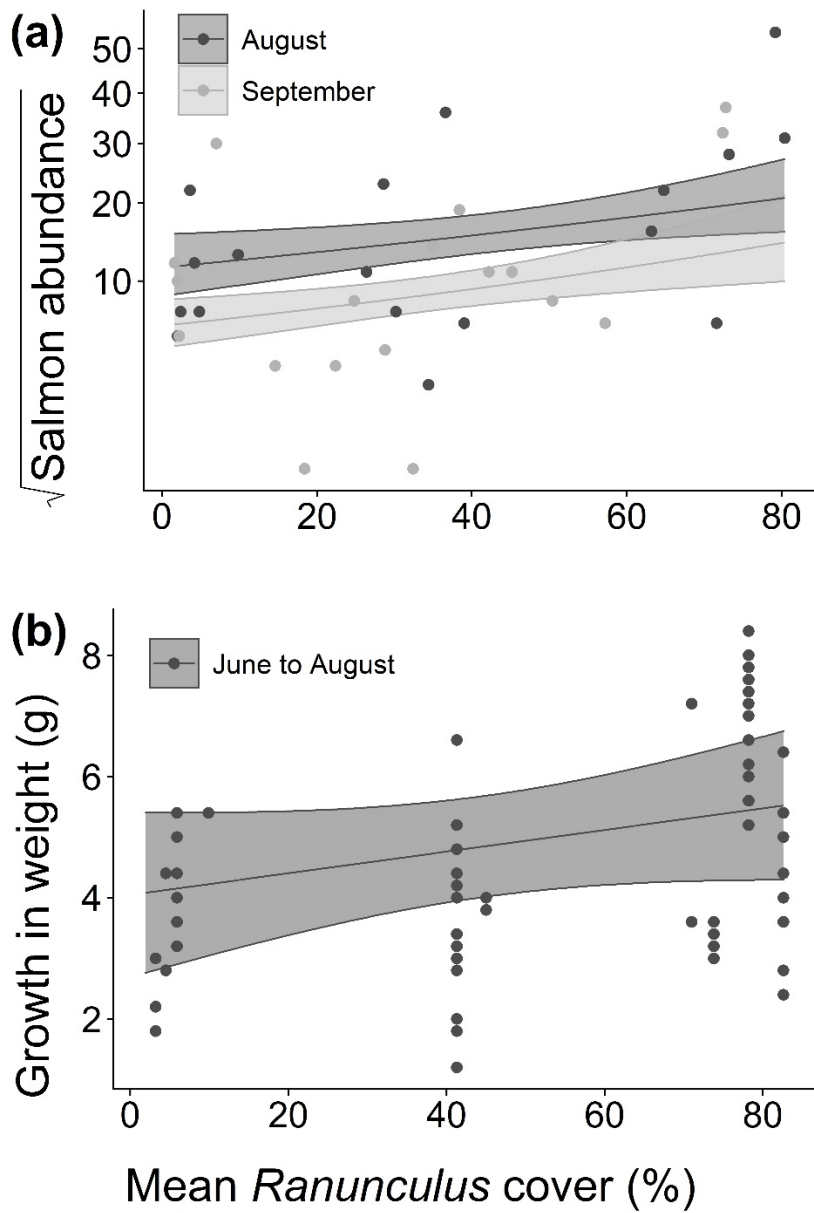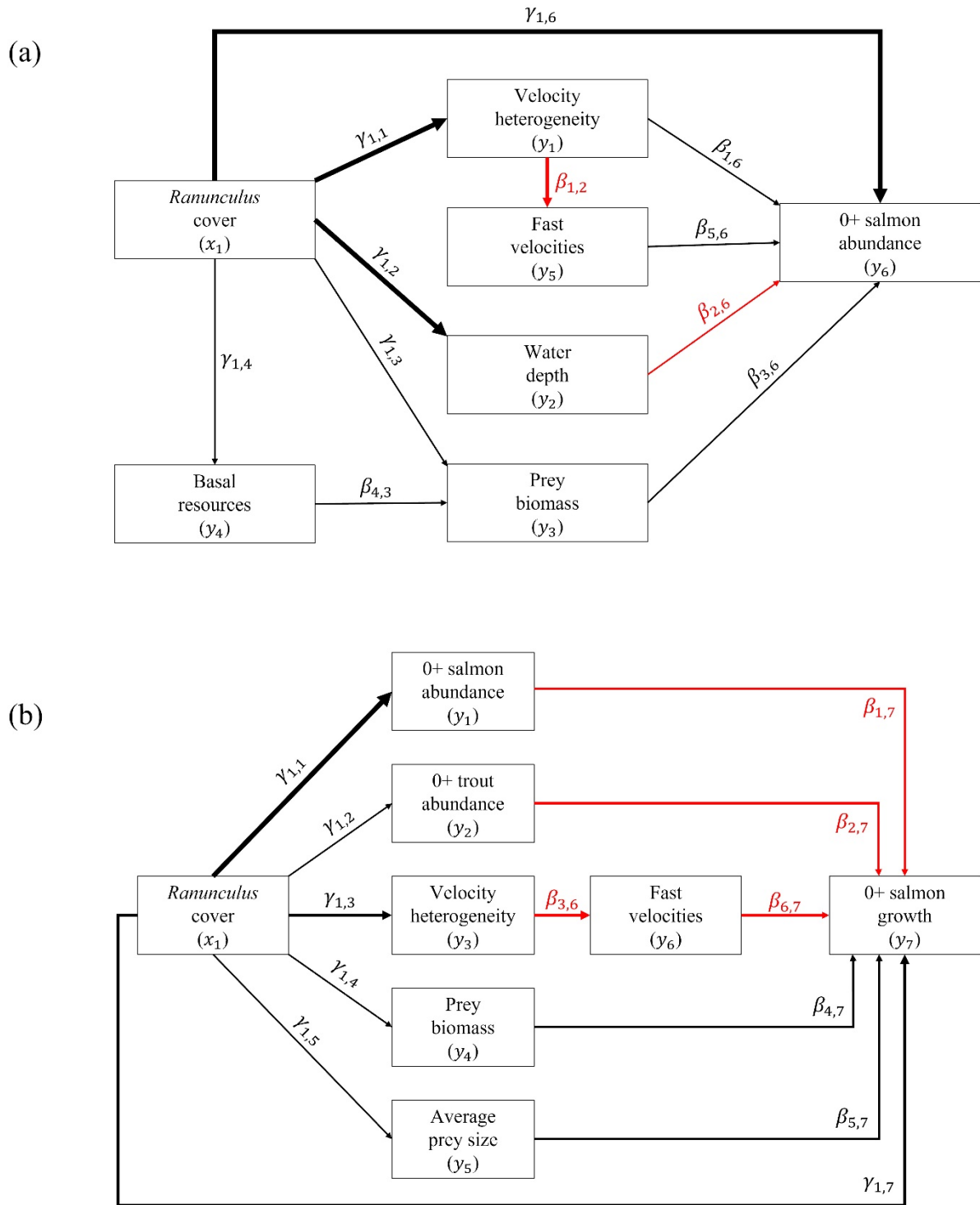
**(a)**

√Salmon abundance

- August
- September

**(b)**

Growth in weight (g)

- June to August

Mean *Ranunculus* cover (%)

Figure 1.

(a)

(b)

Figure 2.

(a)

(c)

High
>60% cover

Medium
30-40% cover

Low
<10% cover

Buffer

5m

20m

(b)

Direction of flow

North stream

3  2  1

Main river

1  0  1  2  3  4 km

N

Figure 3.

(a)

| | |
|---|---|
| 0.52 *** | |

Ranunculus cover ($x_1$)

0.46 **

0.40 *

Velocity heterogeneity $R^2 = 0.21$

-0.30 ·

Fast velocities $R^2 = 0.09$

0.34 **

Water depth $R^2 = 0.16$

-0.29 **

0+ salmon abundance $R^2 = 0.70$

(b)

Ranunculus cover ($x_1$)

0.53 ***

Velocity heterogeneity $R^2 = 0.28$

-0.59 ***

Fast velocities $R^2 = 0.35$

0+ salmon growth $R^2 = 0.56$

0.84 ***

Prey biomass $R^2 = 0.82$

0.75 ***

0.81 ***
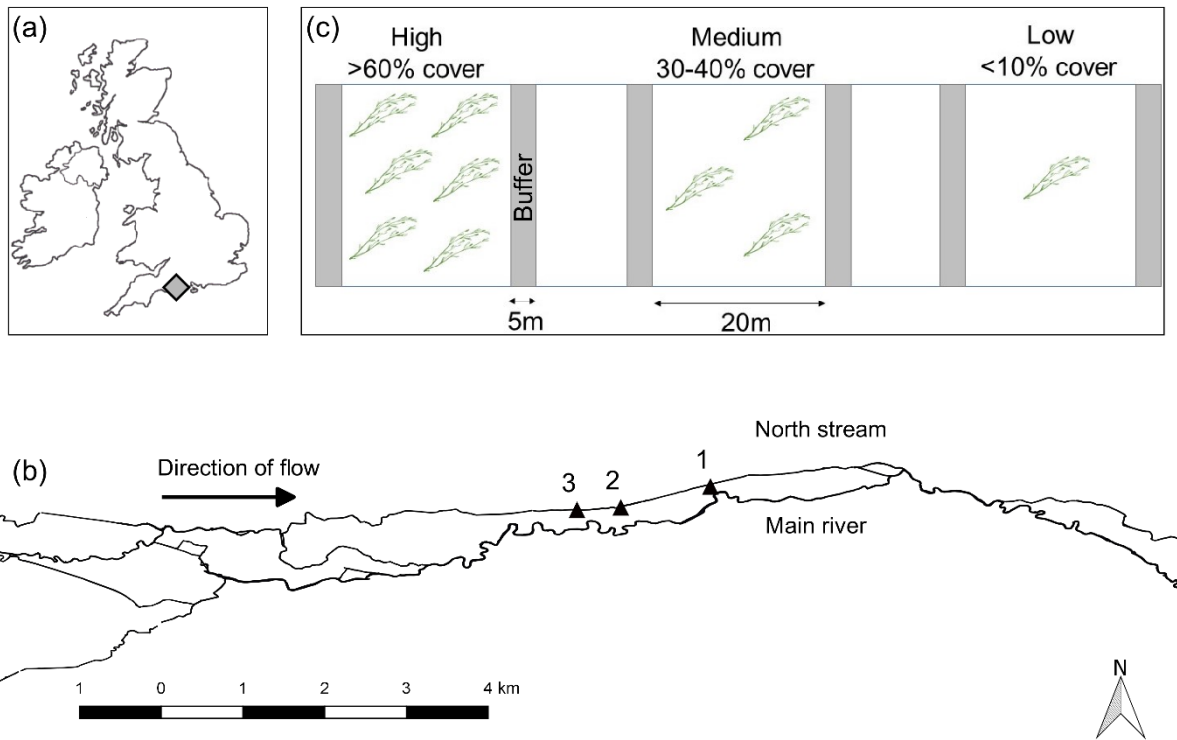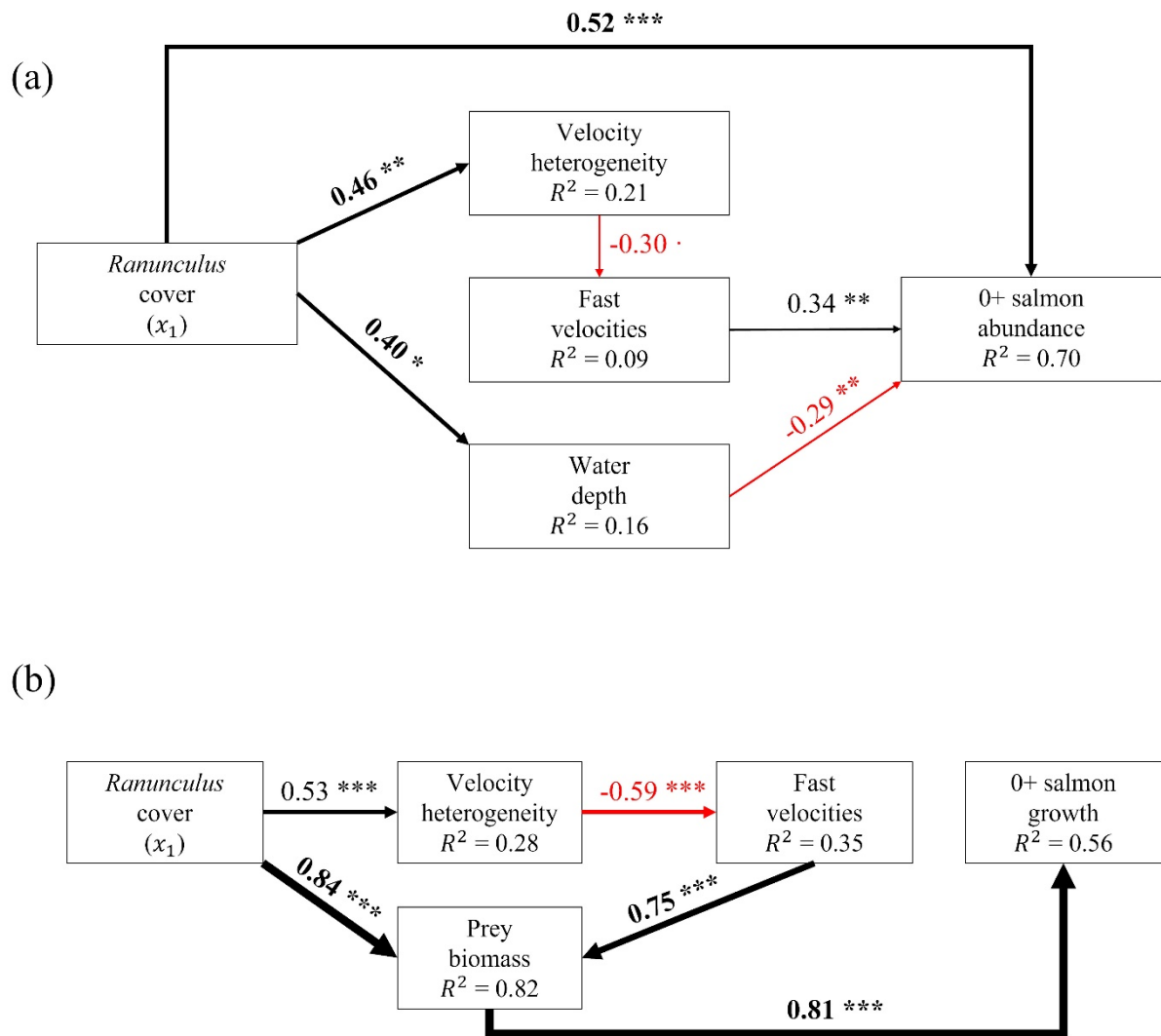
Figure 4.

**Supplementary information in support of: Marsh, J. E., Jones, J. I, Lauridsen, R. B., Grace, J. B & Kratina, P. Direct and indirect influences of macrophyte cover on abundance and growth of juvenile Atlantic salmon. Submission to Freshwater Biology**

<u>**Supplementary Tables**</u>

**Table S1**. Mass-length relationships used to calculate macroinvertebrate biomass. All macroinvertebrate specimens were identified to species, except Oligochaeta (sub-class), Hydrachnidae (family), Simuliidae (family) and Chironomidae (tribe), and counted to determine total abundances per sample. Measures of parasitic Nematoda and Nematomorpha were omitted from these calculations, as these were not considered to represent prey for salmon. We recorded body-size measurements of up to 30 randomly selected specimens of each taxon in each sample and used published length-mass relationships to estimate the mean biomass of each taxon. We then multiplied the mean biomass by the abundance of each taxa to estimate a total biomass of each taxon per sample.

| Taxa (Class/Sub-Class) | Reference |
| --- | --- |
| Hydrozoa, Insecta, Turbellaria | Benke, A.C., Huryn, A.D., Smock, L.A. & Wallace, J.B. (1999). Length-mass relationships for freshwater macroinvertebrates in North America with particular reference to the southeastern United States. *Journal of the North American Benthological Society*, 18, 308-343. |
| Insecta | Burgherr, P. & Meyer, E.I. (1997). Regression analysis of linear body dimensions vs. dry mass in stream macroinvertebrates. *Archiv fur Hydrobiologie*, 139, 101-112. |
| Copepoda | Dumont, H.J., Van de Velde, I. & Dumont, S. (1975). The dry weight estimate of biomass in a selection of Cladocera, Copepoda and Rotifera from the plankton, periphyton and benthos of continental waters. *Oecologia*, 19, 75-97. |
| Hirudinea | Edwards, F.K., Lauridsen, R.B., Armand, L., Vincent, H.M. & Jones, J.I. (2009). The relationship between length, mass and preservation time for three species of freshwater leeches (Hirudinea). *Fundamental and Applied Limnology*, 173, 321-327. |
| Gastropoda | Hawkins, J.W., Lankester, M.W., Lautenschlager, R.A. & Bell, F.W. (1997). Length-biomass and energy relationships of terrestrial gastopods in northern forest ecosystems. *Canadian Journal of Zoology*, 75, 501-505. |
| Branchiopods | Herzig, A. (1974). Some population characteristics of planktonic crustaceans in Neusiedlersee. *Oecologia*, 15, 127-141. |
| Insecta | Hildrew, A.G. & Townsend, C.R. (1982). Predators and prey in a patchy environment: A freshwater study. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 51, 797-815. |
| Insecta | Johnston, T.A. & Cunjak, R.A. (2001). Dry mass-length relationships for benthic insects: a review with new data from Catamaran Brook, New Brunswick, Canada. *Freshwater Biology*, 41, 653-674. |
| Malacostraca, Hirudinea, Gastropoda, Oligochaeta | Mason, C.F. 1977. Populations and production of benthic animals in two contrasting shallow lakes in Norfolk. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, 46, 147-172. |
| Gastropoda, Insecta, Turbellaria | Meyer, E. (1989). The relationship between body length parameters and dry mass in running water invertebrates. *Archiv fur Hydrobiologie*, 117, 191-203. |

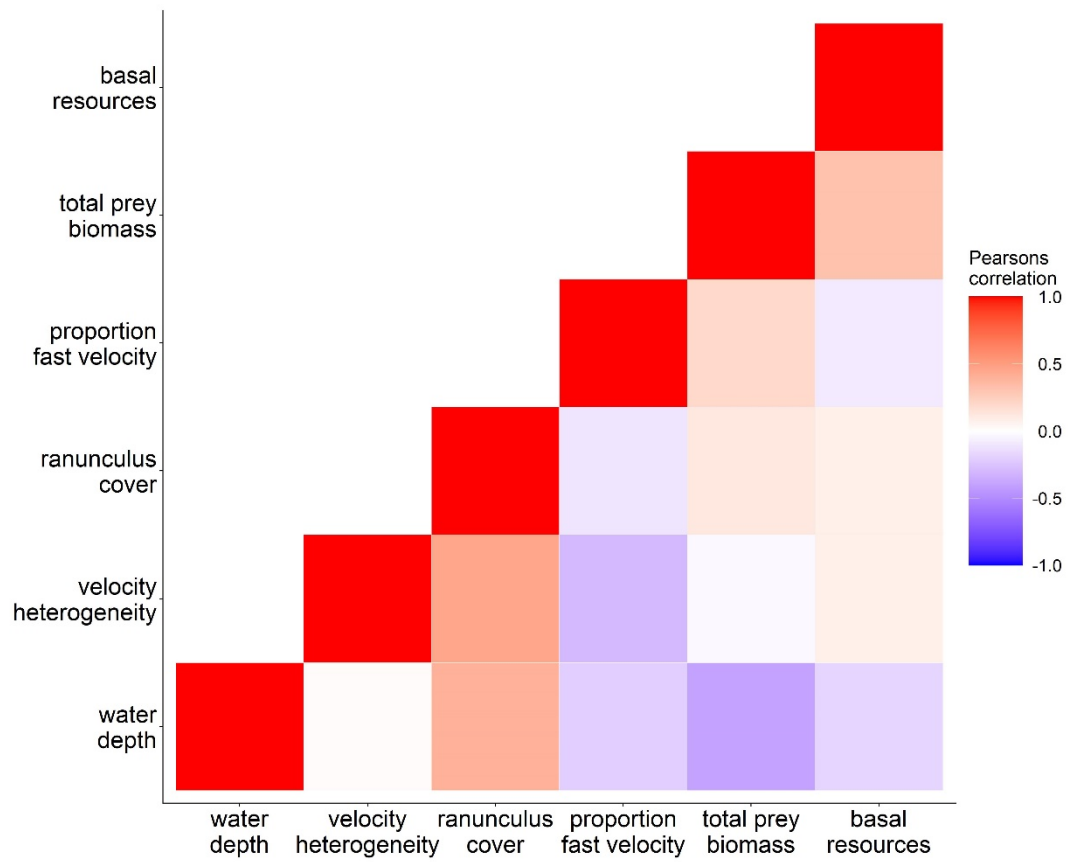| | |
|---|---|
| Arachnida, Insecta | Sabo, J.L., Bastow, J.L. & Power, M.E. (2002). Length-mass relationships for adult aquatic and terrestrial invertebrates in a California watershed. *Journal of the North American Benthological Society*, 21, 336-343. |
| Insecta | Smock, L.A. (1980). Relationships between body size and biomass of aquatic insects. *Freshwater Biology*, 10, 375-383. |
| Gastropoda | Vincent, H.M. (2010). Algal resource depression by macro-invertebrate herbivory in a chalk stream: An empirical approach. *Unpublished PhD thesis*. Available online at http://etheses.bham.ac.uk/550/. |

**Table S2**. Model fitting procedure undertaken to identify the final model fit to describe salmon abundance. Non-significant pathways were removed iteratively, and model adequacy was assessed after each removal by calculating Fisher's C test. A – Abundance, R – Ranunculus, FV – Fast velocities, D – water depth, VH – velocity heterogeneity, P – biomass of prey, BR – basal resources.

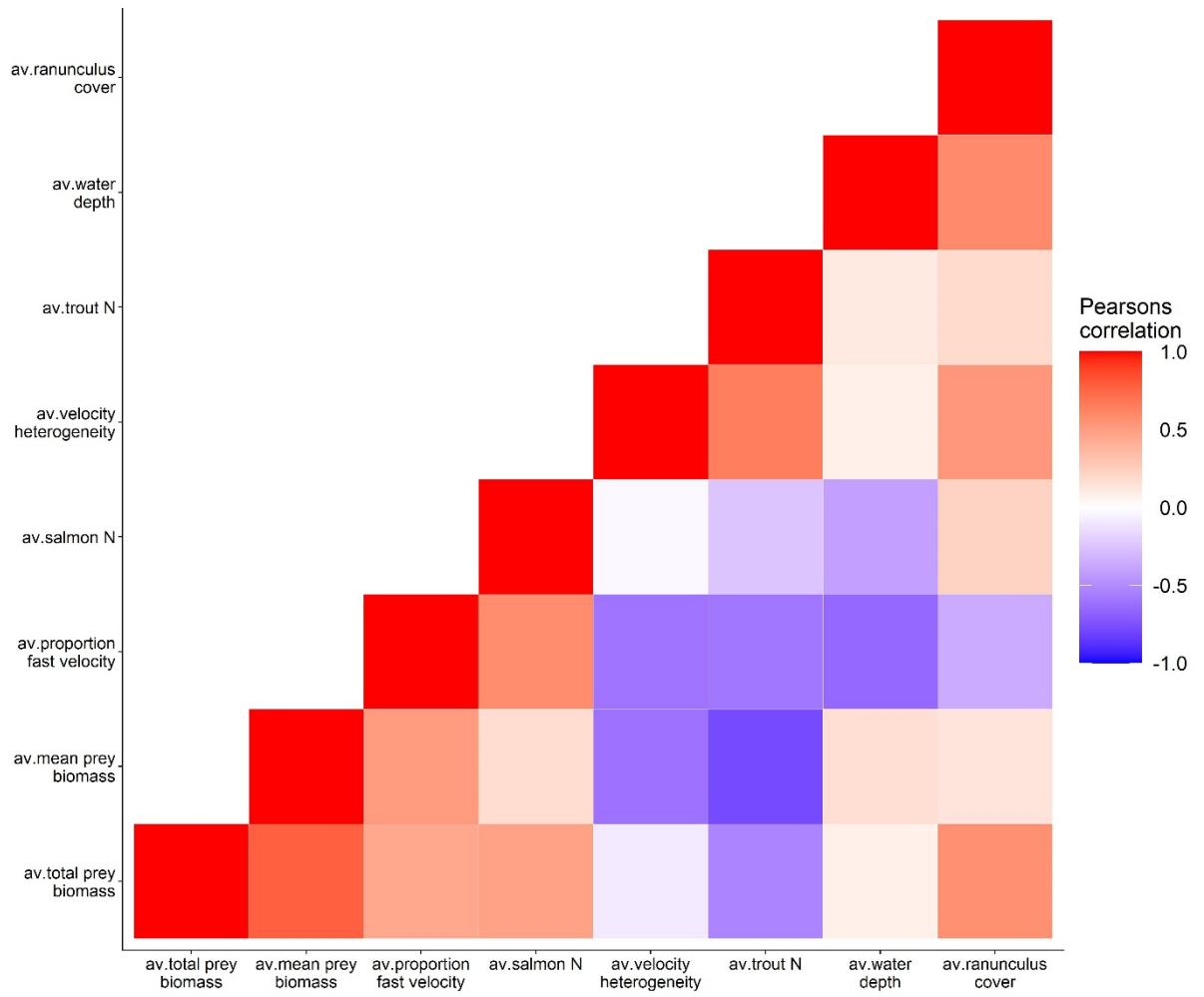| Model | Model terms | Model term change | Fisher's C | df | *P* value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | A ~ R + FV + D + VH + P<br>D ~ R<br>FV ~ R + VH<br>VH ~ R<br>P ~ R + BR<br>BR ~ R | Full model | 28.11 | 18 | 0.06 |
| 2 | A ~ R + FV + D + P<br>D ~ R<br>FV ~ R + VH<br>VH ~ R<br>P ~ R + BR<br>BR ~ R | Removed velocity heterogeneity (VH) from abundance (A) model | 28.26 | 20 | 0.10 |
| 3 | A ~ R + FV + D + P<br>D ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R<br>P ~ R + BR<br>BR ~ R | Removed Ranunculus (R) from fast velocities (FV) model | 28.55 | 22 | 0.16 |
| 4 | A ~ R + FV + D + P<br>D ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R<br>P ~ R | Removed basal resources (BR) model and BR term in prey (P) model | 22.60 | 14 | 0.07 |
| 5 | A ~ R + FV + D<br>D ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R | Removed prey (P) model and P term in abundance (A) model | 6.97 | 8 | 0.54 |

**Table S3**. Model fitting procedure undertaken to identify the final model fit to describe growth in weight of salmon individuals. Non-significant pathways, and important missing pathways were identified using Shipley's d-sep test and were removed/added iteratively. Model adequacy was assessed after each removal/addition by calculating Fisher's C test.

| Model | Model terms | Model term change | Fisher's C | df | *P* value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | G ~ R + VH + FV + PS + P + SA + TA<br>PS ~ R + P<br>P ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R<br>SA ~ R<br>TA ~ R | Full model | 558.51 | 28 | 0 |
| 2 | G ~ R + VH + FV + PS + P + TA<br>PS ~ R + P<br>P ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R<br>TA ~ R | Removed salmon abundance (SA) model, and SA term in growth (G) model | 455.04 | 18 | 0 |
| 3 | G ~ VH + FV + PS + P + TA<br>PS ~ R + P<br>P ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R<br>TA ~ R | Removed Ranunculus (R) from growth (G) model | 455.01 | 20 | 0 |
| 4 | G ~ VH + FV + PS + P<br>PS ~ R + P<br>P ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R | Removed trout abundance (TA) model, and TA term in growth (G) model | 254.59 | 12 | 0 |
| 5 | G ~ FV + PS + P<br>PS ~ R + P<br>P ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R | Removed velocity heterogeneity (VH) from growth (G) model | 256.2 | 14 | 0 |
| 6 | G ~ FV + P<br>P ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R | Removed prey size (PS) from growth (G) model | 101.19 | 10 | 0 |
| 7 | G ~ P<br>P ~ R<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R | Removed fast velocity (FV) from growth (G) model | 102.40 | 12 | 0 |
| 8 | G ~ P<br>P ~ R + FV<br>FV ~ VH<br>VH ~ R | Included fast velocity (FV) in prey biomass (P) model after identified as an important missing pathway | 10.27 | 10 | 0.42 |

**Figure S1**. Correlation matrix for explanatory variables included in salmon abundance SEM.

**Figure S2.** Correlation matrix for explanatory variables included in salmon growth SEM.