



**Assessing macroinvertebrate diversity and temporal changes in
groundwater- dependent pan wetland at Khakhea–Bray transboundary
aquifer**

By

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ABSTRACT

Wetlands are productive ecosystems that provide important ecological, hydrological, and socio-economic services. However, they are also one of the ecosystems that are most at risk around the world, especially in semi-arid areas. In southern Africa, pan wetlands primarily rely on groundwater and are becoming more susceptible to changes in land use, groundwater extraction, and climate variability. This research examined the impact of environmental gradients, elevation, and spatial positioning on physicochemical conditions and the macroinvertebrate community structure in pan wetlands located within the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer (KBTA), a semi-arid aquifer jointly managed by South Africa and Botswana.

A total of 221 pan wetlands were sampled, which were divided into four elevation groups: <1100 m, 1100–1149 m, 1150–1199 m, and >1200 m. We used standard field and lab methods to measure the physicochemical properties of water, the concentrations of nutrients, and the types of macroinvertebrates. To find out how community composition changed across elevation classes, we used multivariate statistical tests such as permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA), analysis of similarities (ANOSIM), similarity percentages (SIMPER), and non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS). Correlation analyses and boosted regression tree (BRT) models were used to investigate the relationships between environmental variables, spatial gradients, and macroinvertebrate communities.

Spatial analyses demonstrated that longitude served as the most significant predictor of macroinvertebrate richness and diversity, accounting for the majority of the variation in taxa richness based on the boosted regression trees model. Diversity increased along a longitudinal gradient, suggesting that landscape-scale processes have a more significant impact on community assembly than local water chemistry or short-range elevation variations. Longitudinal gradients show differences in how well groundwater connects, how the basin is shaped, the weather, and the effects of all the land use on the aquifer system. These factors together determine how long water stays, the availability of nutrients and how different habitats are, which has a big effect on biodiversity patterns. Local physicochemical variables only had a small effect on diversity patterns. This suggests that the water quality conditions were generally acceptable for the regional species pool.

The ecological patterns identified have significant implications for the conservation and management of groundwater-dependent pan wetlands within the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer region. Mid-elevation pans are biodiversity hotspots because they have the most macroinvertebrates and the most diverse communities. They are also very sensitive to changes in hydroperiod, nutrient inputs, and groundwater abstraction. Low- and high-elevation pans also add to regional beta diversity by providing habitats for specialised taxa that can live in very extreme or very stable conditions. The Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer pan systems are a major water source for the people living in these areas. More studies evaluating ecosystem integrity, functionality, and service dynamics are necessary to comprehend the importance of these systems to landscape and human community dynamics.

Keywords: Groundwater-dependent wetlands, macroinvertebrate diversity, spatial connectivity, environmental variables, hydroperiod dynamics.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
DECLARATION.....	vii
CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION.....	1
<i>General background</i>	2
<i>Overview and importance of wetlands</i>	2
<i>Problem statement</i>	9
<i>Objectives</i>	10
<i>Hypothesis</i>	10
<i>Thesis structure</i>	11
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	13
<i>Importance and complexity of pan wetland systems</i>	14
<i>Ecological significance of wetlands</i>	14
<i>Wetlands and biodiversity</i>	15
<i>Role of macroinvertebrates in pan wetland ecosystem</i>	16
Environmental drivers of macroinvertebrate communities	16
Habitat structure and substrate composition	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Biological and landscape–level influences	Error! Bookmark not defined.
<i>Dispersal and metacommunity dynamics</i>	21
<i>Influence of salinity on macroinvertebrate diversity and distribution ...</i> Error! Bookmark not defined.	
<i>Macroinvertebrate communities in wetlands</i>	23
<i>Impact of anthropogenic activities on macroinvertebrate diversity</i>	23
<i>Effects of pond size on macroinvertebrate assemblages</i> Error! Bookmark not defined.	
<i>Influence of water depth on macroinvertebrate community dynamics..</i> Error! Bookmark not defined.	
CHAPTER 3: MATERIALS AND METHODS	25
<i>Ethical consideration</i>	26
<i>Study area</i>	26
<i>Site selection</i>	27

<i>Spatial scale sampling approach</i>	28
<i>Data collection</i>	29
Surface area and water depth measurement	29
Water sampling	29
Water analysis	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Sampling of macroinvertebrates	30
Data analysis	31
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS	33
<i>Environmental variables</i>	34
Thermal regime	34
Morphometric characteristics	34
Nutrient concentrations	35
<i>Macroinvertebrates</i>	40
Macroinvertebrate metrics	47
Relationship between macroinvertebrates, elevation and environmental variables	48
<i>Spatial patterns of macroinvertebrate diversity</i>	49
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION	53
<i>Environmental variables</i>	54
<i>Macroinvertebrates</i>	56
<i>Macroinvertebrate metrics</i>	61
<i>Spatial patterns of macroinvertebrate diversity</i>	Error! Bookmark not defined.
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	67
<i>Overall synthesis of findings</i>	69
<i>Environmental drivers of macroinvertebrate communities</i>	69
<i>Macroinvertebrate community structure and functional patterns</i>	70
<i>Spatial and transboundary patterns</i>	71
<i>Implications for conservation and management</i>	71
<i>Conclusion</i>	72
REFERENCES	73

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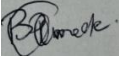
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DECLARATION

I, Busisiwe Precious Gumede, student number 201728788, hereby declare that the study of **“Assessing macroinvertebrates diversity and temporal changes in groundwater dependent pan wetland at khakhea–bray transboundary aquifer”** has not been submitted by anyone else or any other institution and is my own research work. I am fully aware of the University of Mpumalanga’s policy on plagiarism, and I have taken every precaution to comply with the regulations. This document has been submitted through a similarity detection software, and the report was reviewed by my supervisor(s). I declare there is no plagiarism in this dissertation.

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Date: 30 January 2026

CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION



Picture 1. *Phallocryptus spinosa* sampled from a salt wetland pan in the Khakhea–Bray transboundary aquifer region, South Africa. Photo by Busisiwe P Gumede.

General background

Overview and importance of wetlands

Wetlands are unique ecological systems characterised by the permanent or periodic presence of water, which has a substantial impact on their soils, vegetation, and biological processes (Yousaf, et al., 2021; Balwan et al., 2024). The National Water Act (NWA, 1998) of South Africa states that wetlands are fundamentally found where hydrology (i.e., saturation or inundation), low-oxygen soils, and hydrophytic plants converge (Marzini et al., 2021; Janardhan and Krishna., 2021). Wetlands provide important ecological purposes, but as socioeconomic development makes wetland problems more serious, wetland protection and restoration are crucial (Xu et al., 2019; Sharma and Naik, 2024). Between 35% and 50 % of wetlands in South Africa have already been lost or severely degraded, compared to an estimated 50 % of wetlands lost globally (Hu, et al, 2017; Adeeyo et al., 2022). Unsustainable social and economic factors, including mining, industry, agriculture, water abstraction, sewage waste disposal or outflow, and overgrazing, commonly impact wetlands in South Africa DWAF, 2004 (Nkosi et al., 2021; Wasserman and Dalu, 2022). This is problematic since wetlands such as pans and marshes provide important ecosystem services and are often groundwater dependent, supporting aquatic macroinvertebrates. They are essential for natural biota, the environment, and society (Gupta et al., 2019).

Wetlands are important ecologically because they are commonly recognised as hotspots for biodiversity, maintaining a remarkably diverse range of species in relation to their area (Figel, et al., 2019; Alikhani et al, 2021; Dalu and Wasserman, 2022). A diverse of emergent, and open water habitats creates different ecological niches that support a wide range of flora and fauna (Santoro et al., 2024). This biodiversity is further enhanced by seasonal variations in hydroperiod, which favour species adapted to alternating dry conditions (Catena et al., 2018; Hockaday et al., 2024). Therefore, wetlands can be considered to represent distinctive transitions between terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (Ren and Wang, 2022; Sicking., 2025).

Wetlands perform invaluable hydrological functions and deliver a suite of ecosystem services fundamental to environmental stability and human well-being (Janse et al., 2019; Mohanty et al., 2024;). Flood attenuation and water storage are two of their most important roles (Russi et al., 2013; Quinn et al., 2024; Pedrinho et al., 2024). Wetlands work as natural sponges, absorbing

floodwaters and excess rainfall, minimising erosion by slowing water flow, and reducing downstream flood peaks (Abdrabo et al., 2020; Balwan and Kour, 2021; Ahmed et al., 2024). They store 20–30 % of the world’s soil carbon despite making up only 5–8 % of the land surface (Lorenz et al., 2018; Harenda et al, 2017). Because of the waterlogged conditions of wetlands, organic decomposition is slowed down, allowing carbon to build up in soils and sediments over long periods of time (Jia et al., 2020; Lázaro–Lobo and Ervin., 2021).

Wetlands decrease the need for costly engineered infrastructure, enhance the quality of drinking water, and lessen the risk of flooding (Masi et al., 2018; Stefanakis., 2019; Xu., 2020). According to Abata., (2025) wetlands provide cultural and provisioning services, help rural people by supplying clean water, food, building materials, grazing, and medicinal plants (Mandishona and Knight., 2022; Metwane., 2023; Bedo et al., 2025). They also sustain traditional customs, tourism, recreation, education, and cultural identity, all of which enhance socioeconomic resilience (Al–Amin et al 2022 Berondo, 2023; Ayassamy, 2025;). According to Sharma and Naik (2024) and Mao et al. (2025), freshwater wetlands high plant diversity plays a pivotal role in maintaining ecosystem function and stability. Diverse plant assemblages offer a variety of litter inputs and enable complementary resource usage such as variation in litter quality (e.g., carbon–to–nitrogen ratios and decomposition rates), differences in rooting depth and structure, contrasting nutrient uptake strategies (Chen et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023; Philippot, 2023).

Land–use change conversion for agriculture, forestry, aquaculture, and urban development continues to be the most direct drivers of wetland loss (Nguyen et al., 2017; Newton et al., 2018; Hoque et al., 2022). Reduced species richness and compromised ecosystem functioning result from drainage and infilling, which also decrease the water table, cut off hydrological connectivity, and simplify habitat structure (Chakraborty, 2021; Krejčová et al., 2021). Wetland degradation and carbon loss are primarily caused by land–use conversion, particularly agricultural expansion and infrastructural development according to a recent global synthesis of inland wetlands (Tan et al., 2022). This leads to feedback to the climate through carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄) emissions from exposed peat and organic soils (Holzknecht., 2021; Shah., 2025). Many studies (e.g., Kuenzer et al., 2019; Mao et al., 2020; Demarquet., 2023). Many aquatic systems are being modified for agricultural or urban development, altering their hydrological regimes and water

chemistry (Lisetskii, and Buryak., 2023). Such changes may disrupt ecological balance, leading to reduced biodiversity and ecosystem resilience (Oliver et al., 2015; Vasiliev., 2022).

Studies have shown that wetlands particularly groundwater–dependent ecosystems such as spring–fed marshes, dune slacks, and fens rely on consistent groundwater inflows (e.g., Ghosh, 2016; Liley et al., 2021; Whiteman, 2023; Rawluk et al., 2020). Over–recharged pumping shifts plant communities to drought–tolerant species and makes peatlands more vulnerable to fire (Whitman et al., 2018). Multi–decadal satellite observations and field evaluations in Mediterranean systems provide compelling evidence that groundwater abstraction for irrigated crops (i.e., berries) has decreased the frequency and duration of pond flooding throughout the landscape (De Felipe et al., 2023; Green, 2024; Diodato et al., 2024). These findings support previous hydro–ecological reviews that found abstraction frequently degrades rivers and wetlands, albeit with site–specific sensitivity (Acreman, 2018; Palmer et al., 2019).

Climate change compounds hydrological stress through altered precipitation patterns, intensified droughts, and more frequent high–intensity rainfall events (Riedel, and Weber, 2020; Salimi and Scholz, 2022; Granata et al., 2025;). High temperatures and increased evapotranspiration rates can lead to prolonged water–level drawdowns, as shown by both process–based and empirical studies. In addition, changes in storm patterns may increase the risk of both drought and flooding within the same basin (Salimi et al., 2021; Pizzorni et al., 2024). With significant region variability and uncertainty linked to local hydrology and terrain, continental–scale modelling of inland wetlands predicts significant declines in wetland extent in the upcoming decades under mid–to–high warming scenarios (Settele et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2024;).

A diverse range of freshwater and marine environments, such as rivers, lakes, streams, ponds, springs, wetlands, lagoons, and other transitional systems, are home to aquatic macroinvertebrates, a broad class of relatively large, spineless organisms that are usually larger than 400–700 μm (Harper and Pacini., 2019; Gopal., 2020; Bonacina et al., 2023;). As bioindicators of environmental change and general water quality, macroinvertebrates are crucial to the functioning of ecosystems (Sumudumali, and Jayawardana., 2021). The health and stability of the ecosystems they live in are frequently reflected in their diversity, richness, and existence (Dalu et al., 2017;

Tecon and Or, 2017; Hauer and Resh, 2017). Aquatic invertebrates regulate primary production, decomposition, water quality, thermal stratification, and nutrient cycling in aquatic ecosystems (Dalu et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2019; Allan et al., 2021; Bonacina et al., 2023;). They are essential components of aquatic food webs since they are well recognised as a vital food source for fish, amphibians, and other invertebrates (Ruess and Müller–Navarra, 2019; Ozkan, 2024).

Dalu and Chauke (2020) highlighted that the abundance and diversity of macroinverts may be influenced by macrophytes, macrophytes play a crucial role in enhancing both the abundance and diversity of macroinvertebrates within wetlands. By providing protection from predators, establishing microhabitats, and giving organic matter that can be consumed, these aquatic plants add to the habitat complexity (Cheng et al., 2017; Celewicz–Gołdyn et al., 2017; Soukup et al., 2022;). A diversity of macroinvertebrate species can flourish in an environment that is more stable and resource–rich due to their presence, (Htay et al., 2023; Shokri et al., 2024). While tolerant species, such as Chironomidae and oligochaete worms, frequently grow in abundance under deteriorated conditions, sensitive taxa, such as several Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera, and Trichoptera groups in wetlands, or some freshwater beetles and odonate nymphs in lentic wetlands, drop (Enabulele and Olomukoro., 2024; Morse., 2017).

The pan wetlands, which occur as numerous small and isolated water bodies scattered across the landscape, form naturally fragmented habitat networks. These systems provide a strong example of the spatial structure described in metacommunity theory (Bertassello, 2020; Yang et al., 2021; Jeong & Kim, 2022). Their level of connectedness is shaped by factors such as geographical barriers, distance between pans, and the presence of corridors or stepping–stone habitats, all of which influence opportunities for dispersal (Quijada–Alarcón, 2023). As species disperse, they move through a complex matrix of potential colonisation pathways created by this variable connectivity (Van Moorter, 2021). The extent of connectivity often determines whether populations in individual pans persist through demographic rescue via immigration, or whether they face a higher risk of local extinction due to isolation (Benson et al., 2016; Khan, 2021). Within this context, a metacommunity is understood as a set of local communities linked by the dispersal of multiple interacting species across a patchy landscape, where community composition is shaped by both local processes (e.g., species interactions and abiotic conditions) and regional processes

(e.g., dispersal and connectivity) (Hayes and Anderson, 2018; Tonkin et al., 2018; Bergmann and Leveau, 2022; Gawecka and Bascompte, 2023; Musher, 2025). Species perseverance, and local richness arise from the interaction between local habitat conditions and regional dispersal among patches that are connected either hydrologically or overland (Heino et al., 2017; Gálvez et al., 2020). The metacommunity framework is particularly well suited to wetland systems composed of discrete, spatially separated water bodies such as pans, vernal pools, and temporary depressional wetlands (Patrick, 2021).

Macroinvertebrate communities in pan wetlands provide excellent model systems for testing metacommunity theory due to their diverse life histories, varying dispersal capabilities, and sensitivity to environmental gradients (Epele et al., 2022; Guan et al., 2024; Sicking., 2025). From slightly stable taxa for example snail mollusks to highly mobile aerial dispersers chironomid midges, these communities usually comprise representatives of several taxonomic groupings with unique ecological strategies (Frost. et al., 2024; Dole., 2024). Recent studies (e.g., Leboucher and Tison., 2024; Passy et al 2024; Fontaneto and Tao., 2025) have shown that several examples frequently function concurrently within a single metacommunity such as Species Sorting, Mass Effects, Patch Dynamics and Dispersal Limitation with the relative significance of each example varied according to the taxonomic level, environmental setting, and spatial scale (Olmo et al., 2024; Guerrero et al., 2025). Metacommunity theory represents a significant advancement in our understanding of how ecological communities are structured and maintained across fragmented landscapes (Tao et al., 2024) This show how ecological communities are organised and sustained across fragmented landscapes (Galiana et al., 2018; Pickerill et al., 2024). Metacommunity processes is crucial for creating conservation strategies that preserve the integrity of local communities and regional biodiversity patterns as these systems deal with growing anthropogenic stresses (Chase et al., 2020).

The structure of pan wetland communities is significantly influenced by species dispersal constraints (Bertassello et al., 2020). According to Liu (2021) study they used wetland metacommunity aquatic macroinvertebrates as model organisms, their research, species with poor dispersion abilities were frequently confined to a small number of closely related pans, which led to noticeable spatial clustering and an increased risk of local isolation (Coccia et al., 2021;

Walentowitz et al., 2023). Species that were better at dispersing were able to maintain wider regional distributions and colonize several wetlands (Deane et al., 2017). These species use a variety of dispersal mechanisms, such as passive movement by wind, water currents, animal vectors, and active flight by adult insects for example light-bodied larvae and eggs can be dispersed passively by wind; propagules and drifting individuals are carried between pans by surface and subsurface water flows; resting stages, like eggs or cysts, can be moved externally on the feet and feathers of water birds or internally after being consumed by animals; and many taxa with winged adult stages disperse actively through directed flight (Coughlan et al., 2017; Littlefield et al., 2019; Pires., 2021; Mason et al., 2022). Mobile species often perceive the landscape as connected, while species with limited distribution abilities experience greater isolation between pans due to differences in dispersal capacity (Vallespir Lower and Ursell, 2019; Diniz, 2020). Additionally, environmental gradients arising from variations in habitat among pans such as water chemistry, depth, vegetation structure, hydroperiod, and disturbance regimes can influence species sorting processes (Zhao et al., 2024; Ndadzungira et al., 2023).

The diversity and quantity of aquatic organisms within the systems can be influenced by anthropogenic activities as mining, urbanisation, and agriculture within and among temporary pans (Rezende et al., 2019; Ogidi, and Akpan., 2022; Bănađduc et al., 2024;). By altering the water and sediment quality, increasing pollution intake, and organising diversity patterns across different systems, such perturbation results in temporary pan degradation and loss (Khudhair et al., 2019; Chakraborty., 2021;). According to Lomnický et al. (2019), a disturbance is any reasonably discrete occurrence in time or space that removes and creates resources or space that can be utilised by the same or different species. Macroinvertebrates react to disturbances by altering their biomass, abundances, and community structure (Phiri et al., 2012; Park et al., 2018; Datry et al., 2023;). Loss of interstitial space and shelter, increased water turbidity, which hinders photosynthesis and reduces food availability (Jacobsen and Engström-Öst., 2018). Oxygen depletion and substratum type change, physical removal of organisms through scouring, and loss of hold ability due to fine sediment coating on the substrate surface are potential causes of macroinvertebrate disturbance (McKenzie et al., 2020; Chakraborty et al., 2023). Pans with little to no human disturbance exhibit high macroinvertebrate diversity (; Burger et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2021).

Environmental influences have a significant impact on the distribution and abundance of biological communities in aquatic ecosystems, which are dynamic and complex systems (Datry et al., 2016). They are crucial for the cycling of nutrients, decomposition of organic matter, and transfer of energy to high trophic levels for example fish and amphibians (Chakraborty, 2021). Macroinvertebrates provide an accurate measure of ecosystem stability because of their extended life cycles and sedentary lifestyles, which allow them to internalise the effects of environmental conditions over time (Baker et al., 2014; Carter et al., 2017; Hamid et al., 2024;). Both natural environmental variation and man-made stresses for example pollution, eutrophication, and hydrological modification are reflected in the organisation of macroinvertebrate communities (Pilotto et al., 2015; Hamid et al., 2020; Arenas-Sánchez, et al., 2021). Even small changes in salinity can significantly alter species composition, as only certain taxa are tolerant to brackish or saline conditions (Mrozińska et al., 2021; Sarmanov, et al., 2024). Freshwater taxa such as mayflies (Ephemeroptera) and caddisflies (Trichoptera) are generally less tolerant of high salinity levels compared to dipterans for example chironomids (Perera, et al 2024). Increased salinity can also reduce macroinvertebrate richness and abundance by excluding sensitive taxa (Paradise., 2024).

Pond size influences habitat complexity, resource diversity, and the presence of predators (Arenas-Sánchez., 2021; Aranbarri, et al., 2025). Larger ponds generally support more diverse macroinvertebrate communities due to increased habitat heterogeneity, more stable environmental conditions, and greater connectivity with other water bodies (Hill et al., 2018; Cunillera-Montcusi et al., 2020; Castro, et al., 2025). In contrast, small ponds often experience greater fluctuations in temperature, dissolved oxygen, and nutrient concentrations, which can limit species survival and reproduction (Boyd et al., 2017; Meerhoff, et al., 2022). Water depth plays a significant role in regulating environmental gradients within a pond, including light penetration, temperature stratification, and oxygen distribution (Goncharov, et al., 2024). Shallow ponds often have high primary productivity due to greater light availability, which can enhance food resources for macroinvertebrates (Benvenuto et al., 2015; Rousi et al., 2018; Meyerhof et al., 2022; Burton., 2024). Changes of environmental variables influence macroinvertebrate assemblages is vital for

biodiversity conservation, particularly in regions facing water scarcity, habitat fragmentation, or pollution (Thornhill, et al., 2017; Reid et al., 2019; Sowa, 2020).

Problem statement

Wetland ecosystems are essential for preserving ecological balance, controlling hydrological cycles, and preserving biodiversity (Jisha, and Puthur., 2021). However, human activity, climate change, and unsustainable water resource management are posing a growing danger to these ecosystems (Dixit et al., 2022; Edo et al., 2024). The Khakhea–Bray transboundary aquifer landscape is characterised by numerous shallow pans that provide critical but poorly understood aquatic habitats in an otherwise arid region. The Khakhea–Bray transboundary aquifer basin, shared by multiple states, faces increasing pressure due to its complex hydrological dynamics and growing human demands. This makes it particularly susceptible to overexploitation, resource conflicts, and environmental degradation, threatening both water security and the ecosystems dependent on it (Ngobe., 2022; Mishra et al., 2021).

(Mereta et al., 2012; Carter et al., 2017). There is limited understanding of how spatial and hydrological gradient's structure macroinvertebrate communities in groundwater-dependent pan wetlands of the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer (Masina et al., 2023). Evaluating the effects of natural and man–made changes on wetland biodiversity is difficult due to a lack of thorough baseline data and ongoing monitoring (Rebelo et al., 2018; Munging., 2023;). Effective conservation and management of these pan wetlands is further complicated by a lack of knowledge about how hydrological variability, water dependence, and spatial heterogeneity shape macroinvertebrate metacommunity patterns (Dube et al., 2019; Munyai et al., 2023). The absence of integrated ecological assessments across the broader Khakhea–Bray system inhibits the ability of policymakers to recognise early signs of ecosystem degradation (Dhyani et al., 2022; Tsopoe et al., 2025). Developing scientific information on the ecological variables impacting macroinvertebrate communities is vital for informing sustainable groundwater use, enhancing long–term monitoring systems, and promoting evidence–based transboundary wetland management (Arthington et al., 2023; Izah et al., 2024; Kant, and Wrat., 2025;). By assessing macroinvertebrate diversity and recording temporal changes in the wetland ecosystems of the Khakhea–Bray transboundary aquifer basin, this study aims to close this gap (Rampheri et al.,

2023). The focus of this study focused on assessing macroinvertebrate diversity, metacommunity dynamics, and temporal changes in groundwater-dependent pan wetlands of the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer. Pans were selected to represent a range of environmental and ecological conditions relevant to the assessment of macroinvertebrate diversity, metacommunity dynamics, and temporal changes.

Aim

This study aims to quantify how biodiversity and community structure vary across the landscape, identify key environmental controls, and assess the degree to which spatial and environmental factors shape ecological patterns.

Objectives

1. Characterise, assess spatial and transboundary patterns of macroinvertebrate diversity and community composition across the pans of the Khakhea–Bray aquifer landscape.
2. Evaluate the influence of local environmental conditions on macroinvertebrate richness and assemblage structure.
1. 3 Evaluate the influence of elevation–driven environmental filters on macroinvertebrate assemblage patterns.

Hypotheses

1. Macroinvertebrate richness and community composition vary significantly among pans and are strongly influenced by local environmental conditions such as salinity and hydroperiod. Therefore, pans located on different sides of the Khakhea–Bray transboundary boundary support significantly different macroinvertebrate assemblages due to differing environmental conditions, land–use patterns, or hydrological influences.
2. Macroinvertebrate community similarity declines with increasing geographic distance between pans, indicating spatial autocorrelation and limited connectivity.
3. Macroinvertebrate taxonomic and functional diversity will decrease with increasing elevation, following a pattern of reduced species richness in colder, more variable high–elevation habitats. Therefore, harsh environmental conditions and reduced habitat

heterogeneity at high elevations are expected to limit niche availability and favour fewer, more specialised taxa.

4. Community composition will differ significantly among elevation bands, with high-elevation assemblages being distinct from low- and mid-elevation communities. Environmental filtering is expected to select for cold-adapted, resilient taxa at higher elevations, while lower elevations support more diverse and temperature-sensitive species.

Thesis structure

The thesis is comprised of one data chapter encompassed by introduction and synthesis chapters, respectively. The specifics of each chapter are as follows:

Chapter One: Introduces and outlines the study. It also includes background information, problem statement study's aims and objectives, hypotheses, and research structure.

Chapter Two: The literature review describes the theoretical literature related to the topic and looks at the empirical literature focusing on recent findings on macroinvertebrates community structure in freshwater ecosystem. The theoretical foundations of macroinvertebrate ecology are first described, including concepts such community organization, functional groups, ecological niches, and bioindicator principles. The chapter looks at regional and worldwide trends in macroinvertebrate diversity, emphasizing the ecological processes and environmental gradients that influence species abundance and composition.

Chapter Three: This chapter outlines the study's methodological framework, including the description of the study area, sampling design, data collection procedures, and analytical approaches. Data collection included GPS-based measurement of surface area, manual depth assessments, land-use observations, and water quality measurements. Water samples were collected for laboratory analysis of key nutrients, while macroinvertebrates were sampled using a standard SASS net, preserved, and identified to genus level. Statistical analyses included descriptive statistics, PERMANOVA results that showed that the structure of the assemblage was very different between elevation categories. SIMPER analysis showed that this was mostly due to a small number of dominant taxa, not a complete turnover of species.

Chapter Four: This chapter outlines the study's results and shows revealed clear spatial and temporal variation in macroinvertebrate diversity across the groundwater-dependent pan wetlands of the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer. Species richness and abundance differed significantly between pans and temperature levels in each pans reflecting changes in hydroperiod, groundwater influence, and temperature conditions. Taxa were identified and classified according to functional feeding groups and tolerance levels, allowing patterns in community composition to be linked to underlying environmental drivers. Temporal shifts in metacommunity structure showed that fluctuations in groundwater availability and environmental variables played an important role in shaping assemblage dynamics each study site. Variation among sites further indicated that connectivity, pan morphology, and surrounding land use habitat availability.

Chapter five: This chapter outlines the study's discussion about the links differences in species richness and abundance across pans and sampling periods to shifts in hydroperiod, groundwater influence, and temperature, highlighting how these drivers shape community structure. Patterns in functional feeding groups and tolerance traits are examined to explain how environmental filtering, dispersal limitations, and resource availability influence assemblage composition. The chapter further explores how temporal changes in metacommunity structure correspond to fluctuations in groundwater availability and salinity, and how site-level factors such as connectivity, pan morphology, and surrounding land use and habitat availability. Finally, the implications of these findings are considered into ecosystem resilience, groundwater dependency, and the conservation management of pan wetland biodiversity.

Chapter Six: The main focus was the summary, conclusions and recommendations. This chapter provided a synthesis of all the chapters in the study. It also provides recommendations, action plans and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW



Picture 2. One of the biggest pan wetland at Morokweng (Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer region) in the North West Province of South Africa. Photo by Tatenda Dalu.

Importance and complexity of pan wetland systems

The importance and complexity of wetland pan systems are widely recognised. These ecosystems are ecologically distinctive and highly productive, enabling them to support rich and diverse biological communities (Kingsford et al., 2016; Masina et al., 2023). Wetland pan systems as unique, highly productive ecosystems with intricate ecological dynamics that sustain disproportionately high levels of biodiversity relative to their spatial extent (Wang et al., 2020). As interfaces between terrestrial and aquatic environments, wetlands in general including transient and endorheic pan systems create a mosaic of microhabitats with different water depths, hydroperiods, and water quality conditions (Schofield et al., 2018; Eckardt et al., 2022). Wetlands make a significant contribution to biodiversity worldwide; freshwater wetlands alone represent an important percentage of known species and serve as habitat for numerous endemic, rare, and migratory taxa (such as plants, vertebrates, and invertebrates) despite making up a small portion of the planet's land area (Keddy., 2009; Butt et al., 2021; Coleman et al., 2023; Richardson., 2023). Pan wetlands are biodiversity hotspots, with ephemeral pans supporting diverse macroinvertebrates and crustaceans that exploit short wet phases before entering dormancy or completing rapid life cycles (Hlophe–Ginindza et al., 2021; Leshaba., 2023; Munyai et al., 2023). When flooded, they also serve as vital breeding and foraging grounds for terrestrial fauna and waterbirds (Waliczky et al., 2019; Pan et al., 2025). Pans vary substantially according on their origin, geographic location, water composition and patterns, dominating species, and soil and sediment characteristics (Bassie et al., 2014; Twilley et al., 2019). Over centuries, wetland sediments have the capacity to trap and store significant amounts of carbon (Fennessy et al., 2018; Nag et al., 2023). This is especially crucial because wetlands stop the release of methane (CH₄) and carbon dioxide (CO₂) into the atmosphere (Gedney et al., 2019). Despite making up a very small portion of the freshwater surface of the Earth, wetlands play a huge role in climate regulation and carbon sequestration, preserving water quality, and sustaining biodiversity, hence their preservation and restoration are essential for reducing the effects of climate change (Nayak and Bhushan., 2022; Moomaw et al., 2018; Hesslerová et al., 2019).

Ecological significance of wetlands

Wetland services: hydrological and regulating functions

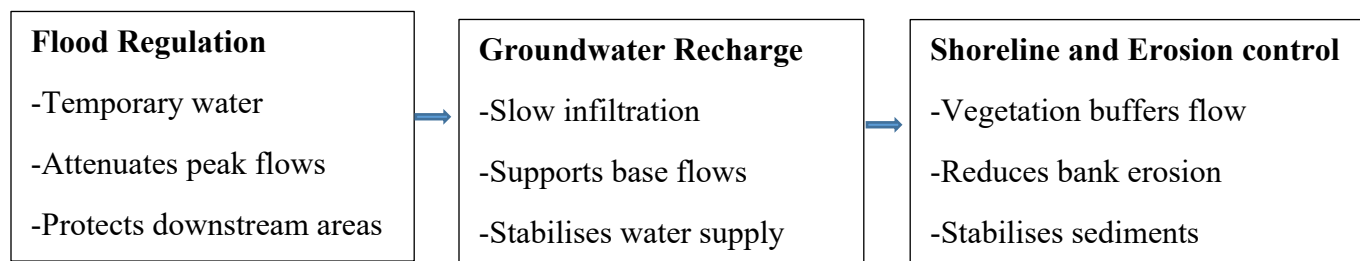


Figure 2.1: Hydrological functions of wetlands showing their role in flood regulation, groundwater recharge, and shoreline and erosion control. Adapted from general wetland ecosystem service frameworks (Sharma and Naik., 2024).

According to Mitsch and Gosselink (2015), wetlands serve as crucial components of the planet’s biologically significant habitats and natural systems (Sharma and Naik, 2024). Their importance has increased as their role in environmental sustainability is better understood (Wu et al., 2023; Siraj et al., 2022). Wetlands act as natural filters that improve the quality of the water by absorbing pollutants, sediments, and nutrients before they enter larger bodies of water for example rivers, lakes, and oceans (Boyd et al., 2019; Majumdar et al., 2020; Ferreira et al., 2023;). They help regulate water flow, reducing the impact of droughts and floods by acting as natural sponges that absorb excess water during times of influential rainfall and release it gradually during dry spells (Nguyen et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2023).

Wetlands and biodiversity

Several studies (Kolka et al., 2021; Poulter et al., 2021; Raturi et al., 2024) indicate that although wetlands make up only 6–8% of the Earth’s freshwater surface area, they play a disproportionately important role in the global carbon cycle. (Bernal and Mitsch, 2012; Limpert et al., 2021). Although wetlands occupy only a small proportion of the global freshwater surface area, several studies demonstrate that they make a disproportionately large contribution to both ecological functioning and biodiversity conservation (Cronan et al., 2016; Were et al., 2019; Cantonati et al., 2020; Gallagher., 2022). Temporary wetland systems are increasingly recognized as biodiversity hotspots in addition to their known role in carbon storage, where wetland sediments accumulate diverse microhabitats created by varying hydroperiods and environmental gradients support aquatic plants, macroinvertebrates, amphibians, zooplankton, and water birds adapted to cycles of

inundation and drying. (Kingsford et al., 2016; Masina et al., 2023). Long-term species persistence in changeable landscapes and metacommunity dynamics depend on processes like settlement, dispersion, dormancy, and quick life-cycle completion, all of which are facilitated by these systems (Springthorpe and Penfield., 2015; Almeida-Gomes et al., 2020; Rey et al., 2021). As a result, pan wetlands are essential for preserving regional biodiversity, ecological connectedness, and ecosystem resilience to helping to regulate the global climate through carbon storage (Imran., 2025)

Role of macroinvertebrates in pan wetland ecosystem

According to Chakravarty and Gupta (2021), macroinvertebrates are important markers of aquatic ecosystem health examining the composition of macroinvertebrate communities. In relation to environmental and human effects, macroinvertebrates are essential for effective biomonitoring and conservation efforts in temporary wetlands (De Mello et al., 2023; Mohebbi et al., 2022)). Environmental variables such as substrate type, dissolved oxygen, pH, and water temperature influence the diversity and composition of macroinvertebrate communities. While some species, such as leeches and certain fly larvae, can tolerate polluted environments, others including mayflies, caddisflies, and stoneflies prefer clear, well-oxygenated waters (Cabrera et al., 2021; Varadinova et al., 2022; Rai et al., 2019). (Cabrera et al., 2021; Varadinova et al., 2022; Rai et al., 2019).

Environmental drivers of macroinvertebrate communities

Macroinvertebrate assemblages are shaped not only by water-quality variables such as temperature, conductivity, pH, salinity and dissolved oxygen (Tampo et al., 2021; Dalu et al., 2022; Brysiewicz et al., 2022). Macroinvertebrates are also influenced by biological elements such as predation pressure, competition, food availability, primary productivity, and the presence of aquatic vegetation and fish communities, as well as by physical habitat features such as hydroperiod, substrate type, water depth, vegetation structure, flow conditions, and habitat heterogeneity (Latli et al., 2019; Pille et al., 2023; Dubour et al., 2025; Gobel et al., 2025). While pollution-tolerant species such as Chironomidae and Oligochaeta dominate in degraded environments, sensitive taxa, particularly Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera, and Trichoptera (EPT), are linked to clean, oxygen-rich environments (Ratterman., 2016; Joash., 2017). Reduced oxygen

levels, eutrophication, and a shift toward tolerant species are all facilitated by increased nutrient loads from agricultural runoff (O'Hare et al., 2018; Wurtsbaugh et al., 2019; Omoregie et al., 2025). Particularly in transient or shallow water bodies, temperature variations also affect metabolic and reproductive rates, changing distribution patterns (Bonacina et al., 2023). According to Dong (2021), the main factors influencing the organisation of macroinvertebrate communities are hydrological regimes, which include flow velocity, water level variations, hydroperiod, and connectedness. Food availability, sediment transport, and habitat stability are all influenced by flow variability (Worrall et al., 2014; Rolls et al., 2018). Drying and flooding cycles in transient wetlands and sporadic streams lead to repeated migration and extinction events, which drive distinctive adaptive features in macroinvertebrates, such as rapid development cycles or desiccation-resistant offspring (Stracha., 2016; Batzer and Boix., 2016; Loskotová., 2022). The promoting dispersal and recolonisation, hydrological connection support regional biodiversity through metacommunity dynamics (Sarremejane et al., 2021).

Macroinvertebrates are important biological groupings that live in freshwater, brackish and saline habitats and are essential to the preservation of ecosystem structure and function (Nieto, et al., 2017; Chakraborty et al., 2022). Insects, mollusks, crustaceans, annelids, are examples of macroinvertebrates, which are effective bioindicators of ecosystem health and water quality (López-López et al., 2017; Adesakin et al., 2023). Understanding the relationship between environmental factors and the composition of macroinvertebrate communities offers significant understanding of ecosystem processes, human impacts, and habitat quality (Juvigny-Khenafou et al., 2021; Hamid et al 2021;). Researchers can identify both natural and man-made changes in aquatic habitats because macroinvertebrates react strongly to changes in water chemistry, hydrological patterns, and habitat structure (Cantonati et al., 2017; Denis., 2019; Brooks et al., 2021).

Salinity, pond size, and water depth are some of the most important environmental factors affecting macroinvertebrate diversity and distribution in aquatic systems such ponds, wetland, and small lakes (Oertli and Parris, 2019; Labat, et al., 2024). Changes in salinity have an impact on species tolerance levels and osmotic control, while pond depth and size have an impact on thermal stratification, predator-prey relationships, and microhabitat availability (Huber et al., 2023; Dildar

et al., 2025). These elements control the distribution of resources, oxygen availability, and habitat heterogeneity, which in turn control the biodiversity of these systems (Gebrekiros 2016; Moniruzzaman et al., 2021). As main consumers and decomposers, macroinvertebrates serve as the cornerstone of many aquatic food webs (Ozkan, 2024).

a). *Habitat structure and substrate composition*

Diverse macroinvertebrate assemblages are supported by the variability of aquatic habitat, which is supplied by plants, leaf litter, stones, sand, and organic sediments (Ntloko et al., 2021; Akhtar et al., 2023; Leshaba et al., 2025). This heterogeneity provides refugia, feeding substrates, and breeding sites (Lo et al., 2024; Harrison et al., 2025; Mervyn., 2025). Species composition is influenced by the kind of substrate; for example, fine silt tends to build in habitats with slow flow or pollution, whereas coarse substrates sustain more diversified invertebrate populations (Tadesse and Lakew, 2025; Elvira et al., 2021). According to Jones (2021), the type of substrate significantly influences species composition in aquatic ecosystems. Coarse substrates such as gravel, pebbles, and cobbles generally support a greater diversity of macroinvertebrates, whereas fine sediments like silt are more likely to accumulate in areas with slow water flow or in environments affected by pollution. By regulating oxygen availability, habitat stability, and the kinds of feeding and locomotion techniques that organisms can employ (Effert–Fanta et al., 2019; Dingman., 2021; Hunt., 2022). These substrate variations change community structure, because fine particles diminish interstitial space and restrict water circulation within the substrate, they frequently create low–oxygen, unstable conditions that promote opportunistic, tolerant organisms such as deposit feeders (Natsumeda and Iguchi., 2019; Miao et al., 2024). This, communities in silt–dominated environments are usually less diversified and primarily made up of species that can withstand stress and have quick life cycles (Humphries and McCarthy, 2022). Several studies (Mathers et al., 2019; Wahl, 2020; Bustos et al., 2022) found that a greater variety of functional groups can find microhabitats on coarse and diverse surfaces because they offer more surface area, cracks, and stable attachment sites. Because oxygen penetration and habitat stability are better on these substrates, clingers, scrapers, filter feeders, and species that are vulnerable to disturbance and pollution are supported (Mattone, 2016; Drover et al., 2020). In addition to providing refuge from high flows and predators, interstitial spaces encourage increased species cohabitation and functional redundancy (Datry et al., 2017). The decomposition of leaf litter and the flow of energy

through food webs are two ecosystem processes that are improved by coarse substrates because they are linked to higher richness, trait variety, and more balanced community composition (Richardson and Hanna., 2021; Potapov et al., 2022).

b). Biological and landscape-level influences

The distribution and diversity of macroinvertebrates in aquatic environments are also significantly influenced by competition and predation (Nieoczym et al., 2023). Predators including fish, amphibians, and big invertebrates can drastically diminish or reorganise community assemblages through direct ingestion or behavioural changes, frequently favouring species with predator-avoidance features (Buatois et al., 2022; Root., 2022; Gomo and Ngobe., 2024). Community structure is further influenced by competitive interactions, especially when species compete for scarce food supplies or habitat. Specialist feeders are more susceptible to environmental stress and resource scarcity because they are frequently more sensitive to competitive exclusion than generalists (Sponsler et al., 2023; Weideli et al., 2023; Bailey–Steinitz et al., 2024). Macroinvertebrate metacommunities are shaped by the combined effects of competition and predation, which have an impact on both local dynamics and regional biodiversity patterns (Burdon et al., 2020). According to Gebrekiros (2016), community structure is further influenced by competitive interactions, especially when species share habitat or food supplies. In situations of resource scarcity or environmental stress, specialized feeders and habitat specialists are frequently more susceptible to competitive exclusion due to exploitative and interference competition, which can limit the distribution of functionally similar taxa (Sherry et al., 2020; Leimberger et al., 2022; Bailey–Steinitz et al., 2024; Weideli et al., 2023). By changing the relative dominance of shredders, grazers, filter feeders, and detritivores, these dynamics impact not only species richness but also the functional makeup of communities, which in turn affects ecosystem processes including nutrient cycling and leaf-litter breakdown (Hines and Eisenhauer., 2021; Cereghetti., 2024).

Predation and competition outcomes are significantly affected by landscape-level processes that go beyond local interactions that affect the diversity of macroinvertebrates (Sanders and Frago., 2024). The dispersal, environmental filtration, and biotic interactions are balanced in macroinvertebrate metacommunities, the composition of local communities reflects both the

strength of interactions once existent and the ability of species to colonize habitats (Burdon et al., 2020; Thuile Bistarelli, 2025; Villsen et al., 2025). Colonization opportunities following disturbance are influenced by hydrological connection, patch size, and habitat isolation. In connected systems, these factors facilitate rescue effects, whereas in isolated wetlands and pans, they promote priority effects and assembly history reliance (Buono, 2024; Thakur et al., 2025). Predator presence, resource availability, and habitat structure are further altered by land–use change, riparian degradation, and catchment–scale pollution, which can lead to changes in trait composition and patterns of regional biodiversity (Miserendino et al., 2022; Oester, R., 2024; Rumschlag et al., 2025).

c). Influence of salinity on macroinvertebrate diversity and distribution

Several studies (e.g., Botwe et al., 2018; Bray et al., 2019; Kaczmarek, 2023; Gordon, 2025) indicated that salinity is widely recognised as one of the most powerful environmental variables shaping macroinvertebrate assemblages in freshwater wetland ecosystems, largely because many taxa possess specific physiological tolerances that restrict their distribution along salinity gradients. Raising salinity levels can result in changes of the osmoregulatory demands on aquatic organisms, decreasing overall diversity and favouring halotolerant or halophilic groups (Dildar et al., 2025). This happens through natural processes, groundwater inputs, or human–induced drives such as agriculture (Narany et al., 2018). Elevated salinity has been shown to reduce sensitive species including Ephemeroptera, Plecoptera, and Trichoptera while increasing the dominance of more tolerant groups such as Chironomidae and several Coleoptera (Haggag et al., 2018; Cai et al., 2024; Golovatyuk et al., 2025;). According to Doney et al, (2020), the change in primary productivity, ionic balance, and predator–prey interactions, salinity variations have an indirect impact on macroinvertebrate ecosystems. Macroinvertebrate populations show substantial functional turnover and temporal variability in wetland systems such as pans, where salinity can vary significantly due to evaporation and groundwater recharge (O'Keefe, 2022). Furthermore, especially for species with limited ecological niches, excessive salinity occurrences might hinder colonisation success and interfere with metacommunity dispersal pathways, many ephemeral wetlands may see an increase in salinity as climate change increases evaporation rates and modifies rainfall patterns (Huynh et al., 2019; Cantonati et al., 2020; Bundschuh et al., 2023). Altering the distribution of biodiversity and ecosystem functioning and predicting species persistence,

robustness, and long-term ecological dynamics in inland aquatic systems thus requires an understanding of the effect of salinity (Harvey et al., 2017; Pennekamp et al., 2018;).

d). Influence of water depth on macroinvertebrate community dynamics

Water depth is another key environmental variable that shapes macroinvertebrate diversity, distribution, and ecological functioning by regulating light penetration, temperature stability, predation pressure, and availability of oxygenated microhabitats (Pop et al., 2023; Trau et al., 2023). For taxa with longer developmental cycles in particular, deeper water basins frequently offer more stable thermal settings and less vulnerability to desiccation (Smith et al., 2019; Dahlke et al., 2020;). There is more light available in shallow places, primary productivity is usually higher (Ardyna et al., 2020; Wetzel., 2022). This leads to the establishment of macrophytes and periphyton, which provide food and shelter for macroinvertebrates (Wolters et al., 2019). Sediment properties are also influenced by water depth gradients; deeper zones tend to accumulate fine organic matter that supports burrowing species, whilst shallow zones frequently have coarser substrates that are preferred by mobile taxa (Das et al., 2017; Prentice et al., 2019; Wiesebron et al., 2021; Gnanasekaran et al., 2023;). Seasonal variations in water depth can significantly control colonisation possibilities, favouring species with quick life cycles and drought-resistant characteristics, particularly in ephemeral wetlands and pans (Brendonck et al., 2017; Mwajjengoa et al., 2020; Zinck and Montero, 2023). The depth reductions change the composition and functional variety of communities by making them more susceptible to fish and avian predation (Villéger et al., 2017; Costa et al., 2020). The variations in depth frequently reflect alterations in groundwater recharge in groundwater-dependent wetland systems, which in turn cause temporal changes in macroinvertebrate communities (Havril et al., 2018; Deane et al., 2018; Olanrewaju and Aladejana., 2025).

Dispersal and metacommunity dynamics

Several studies (e.g., Firmiano et al., 2021; Farooq et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2025) indicate that macroinvertebrate populations are influenced not only by local environmental conditions but also by regional dispersal processes operating across the broader landscape. These dispersal processes enable species to colonize new habitats and maintain connectivity between aquatic ecosystems, thereby shaping community composition and biodiversity patterns at different spatial scales. The

propagules can be carried by water birds, wind, and hydrological channels, facilitating quick recolonisation after disturbances and supporting the long-term persistence of biodiversity (Johnston et al., 2017; Van der Stocken et al., 2019). By increasing communication between remote wetlands, these dispersal processes lower the danger of local extinction and encourage genetic interchange between populations (Rohde et al., 2017; Cantonati et al., 2020). The balance between environmental filtering and dispersion dynamics determines whether species successfully establish within aquatic environments, according to metacommunity theory (Heino et al., 2017; Tonkin et al., 2018; Cid et al., 2020). The predicting community composition and ecosystem resilience in wetland systems requires an understanding of both local and regional dynamics (Pelletier et al., 2020).

In macroinvertebrate communities, dispersal processes also influence temporal turnover, trait filtering, and spatial organization (Bush., 2025). Different taxa have different dispersion capacities, which result in different dynamics, while more isolated pans primarily rely on episodic dispersal events for community renewal, well-connected wetlands serve as regional species reservoirs (Lawton et al., 2016; Coelho., 2018; Naidoo et al., 2025). Limited dispersal may exacerbate historical contingency and priority effects in highly fragmented settings, indicating that the order and time of colonization have a significant impact on the community structure and functional composition of macroinvertebrates (Westveer et al., 2018; Sarremejane et al., 2022; Arias Font., 2023; Baumann et al., 2025). The mass-effects dynamics can be fostered by frequent dispersal in interconnected systems, enabling macroinvertebrates species to continue migrating into less effective habitats (Bottrell and Schoenly., 2018). Spatial patterns of biodiversity are produced by these mechanisms together with environmental filtration, where communities represent both the regional dispersion pool and local habitat limitations (Lessard et al., 2016; Heino et al., 2017; Swan et al., 2021).

Metacommunity dynamics also influence ecosystem functioning by regulating the flow of functional traits across wetland networks (Bauer et al., 2021). By increasing functional abundance and response diversity, the mobility of taxa with various feeding strategies biological traits and stress tolerances can protect ecosystems from disturbance (Raffard et al., 2022; Machado et al., 2014; Harisena., 2025). However, these dispersal channels may be disrupted by altered connection

due to drainage, land–use change, or climate–driven hydrological shifts, which would decrease recolonization capacity and make isolated wetlands more susceptible to long–term biodiversity loss (Smith and Goetz., 2021; Uddin et al., 2021; Sánchez–Montoya et al., 2023). These dynamics produce strong temporal turnover, where assemblages reflect not only current environmental conditions but also the inheritance of past dispersal events and hydroperiod variability (O’Sullivan et al., 2021; Czeplédi et al., 2022). While isolated basins typically show more environmental filtering and stronger priority effects because of infrequent immigration opportunities (Lampou et al., 2025). Wetlands that are more frequently connected during flood pulses frequently serve as regional source habitats, supplying colonists to ephemeral or more isolated pans (Saros et al., 2022; Moliner Cachazo et al., 2023). Therefore, rather of being solely dependent on local habitat conditions, species–specific dispersal features, hydrogeomorphic connectivity, and dispersal pathways interact to produce spatial patterns of variety throughout the wetland network (Chen et al., 2023; Klunzinger et al., 2024).

Macroinvertebrate communities in wetlands

Impact of anthropogenic activities on macroinvertebrate diversity

Sharma (2024) argues that phosphate and nitrogen from fertilisers and pesticides are introduced via agricultural runoff those nutrients are critical drivers of eutrophication, as elevated N and P concentrations stimulate excessive algal and plant growth, which in turn reduces oxygen availability and degrades water quality. Eutrophication, which lowers the water's oxygen content and damages macroinvertebrate taxa such as Ephemeroptera (mayflies), Plecoptera (stoneflies), and Trichoptera (caddisflies), which require well–oxygenated conditions to survive, can be brought on by excessive nutrient loads (Jacobus et al., 2019; Serra et al., 2019; Fekadu, 2021; Kapsalis and Kalavrouziotis., 2021). Chironomid larvae (non–biting midges) and Oligochaetes (aquatic worms) are examples of pollution–tolerant organisms that tend to proliferate in contaminated environments, changing the composition of the macroinvertebrate communities (Hall et al., 2021; Kopel., 2024; Ferzoco et al., 2023). The biomonitoring of macroinvertebrates has yielded important insights into how different stressors affect biodiversity and ecological stability (Zhang et al., 2024; Ndatimana et al., 2023). By analysing the structure of macroinvertebrate communities across different locations and pollution gradients, wetlands’ ecological health may be determined, and priority areas for conservation can be identified

(Cortelezzi and Paz, 2022; Byeon and Kim, 2025). According to Buçinca et al. (2024); Enabulele and Olomukoro (2024), the prevalence of pollution-sensitive species in some regions suggests generally good water quality, whereas the predominance of tolerant taxa in other regions reflect ongoing degradation.

CHAPTER 3: MATERIALS AND METHODS



Picture 3. Sampling for macroinvertebrates in the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer region pan wetland system. Photo by Tatenda Dalu

Ethical consideration

The study was approved by the School of Biology and Environmental Sciences Research Ethics Committee. University of Mpumalanga ethics number: AS/UMP/Gumede201728788/BIO/MSc/2025/1.

Study area

The study area is situated in the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer (KBTA) region in southern Africa. This aquifer system extends across parts of the border between Botswana and South Africa, surrounding the seasonal Molopo River (Gomo & Ngobe, 2024). South Africa and Botswana both share this aquifer, which has a low population density of 1–10 people/km² and covers an area of approximately 29,700 km² (Modie, 2022). As an essential groundwater system, the KBTA plays a critical role in providing water to both South Africa and surrounding areas (Bolivian et al., 2021). The aquifer is vital to the region's hydrology, sustaining various ecosystems, including wetlands that experience seasonal fluctuations in water levels.

The climate of the KBTA is mainly semi arid, characterized by low annual rainfall during the wet season (approximately 376 mm per year) and high rates of evapotranspiration (Murray et al., 2006). The months of November through March make up an unequal distribution of the region's rainy season. August through March are the region's summer months, with temperatures between 22 and 34 °C. In contrast, the winter season, which lasts from May to July, with average minimum temperatures of 2 degrees Celsius and maximum temperatures of 20 degrees (DWAF, 2004).

The vegetation area is covered most by thorn trees that are sparsely distributed, with clumped grass cover on relatively level ground (Chenchouni et al., 2023). In regions where Aeolian sand covers the surface, this vegetation cover is especially common. There is minimal grass cover but a preponderance of closely spaced prickly camel trees in regions with surface outcrops of dolomites or calcrete. This is because dense vegetation cannot grow because of the scant soil cover. Large trees and dense vegetation are especially evident near river channels (Mpakairi., 2022.).

The topography is characterized by very flat terrain and gradually raised portions that range from roughly 1027 to 1231 meters above mean sea level (Davies.,2013). The escarpments from the

extremely resistant iron stone formation are the elevated regions to the south of the dolomite unit. There are no discernible highland regions on the Northern side of the area which is primarily flat at around 1078 meters above sea level. Mostly river channels covered in sand deposits make up the observably low-lying regions of roughly 1027m. These wetlands, particularly temporary pans and other water bodies, provide critical habitats for a range of species, including macroinvertebrates, which depend on them for survival (Voli et al., 2023).

Site selection

A total of 221 were divided into four elevation groups: <1100 m, 1100–1149 m, 1150–1199 m, and >1200 m and the wetland pans were then selected for macroinvertebrate sampling across the KBTA region. Site selection was based on key hydrological and geomorphological parameters, Size of wetland pans were classified into small, medium, and large categories to capture variability in surface area, which influences the extent of available niche space, primary productivity, and the capacity of pans to sustain diverse and functionally distinct macroinvertebrate communities. The KBTA wetland pan system is scientifically relevant because it represents a characteristic endorheic wetland landscape of semi-arid southern Africa. These pans form a network of temporary and semi-permanent wetlands that function as important biodiversity refugia and provide ideal natural gradients for studying ecological processes. The system also spans a transboundary landscape between Botswana and South Africa, allowing investigation of spatial ecological patterns across political and environmental boundaries. Consequently, the KBTA pans provide a suitable model system for examining macroinvertebrate diversity patterns, environmental filtering processes, and elevation-related ecological gradients, directly supporting the objectives of this study. Larger pans typically support greater habitat complexity and resource availability, whereas smaller pans are more disposed to environmental fluctuations and disturbance. Pan width was recorded as a proxy for lateral habitat heterogeneity. Wider pans generally exhibit greater shoreline complexity and spatial variation in vegetation and substrate composition, which in turn promotes differentiation in refuge habitats, feeding zones, and breeding sites for macroinvertebrates. Pan depth was recorded both shallow and deep pans were included to represent variation in hydroperiod and water-retention capacity. Depth manages thermal stability, desiccation risk, and dissolved-oxygen dynamics, thereby shaping species persistence, colonisation potential, and the dominance of either opportunistic or disturbance-tolerant taxa within macroinvertebrate assemblages. (Dong et al.,

2022). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for significant differences in each environmental variable across the four elevation bands: <1100 m, 1100–1149 m, 1150–1199 m, and >1200 m.

Spatial scale sampling approach

To ensure comprehensive water quality analysis across the study area, a spatially distributed sampling approach was implemented. At each of the 221 wetland pan sites, 10 water samples were drawn randomly per pan and mixed in a bucket to get an integrated sample. Thus, at each pan, two integrated water samples for nutrient analysis were collected.

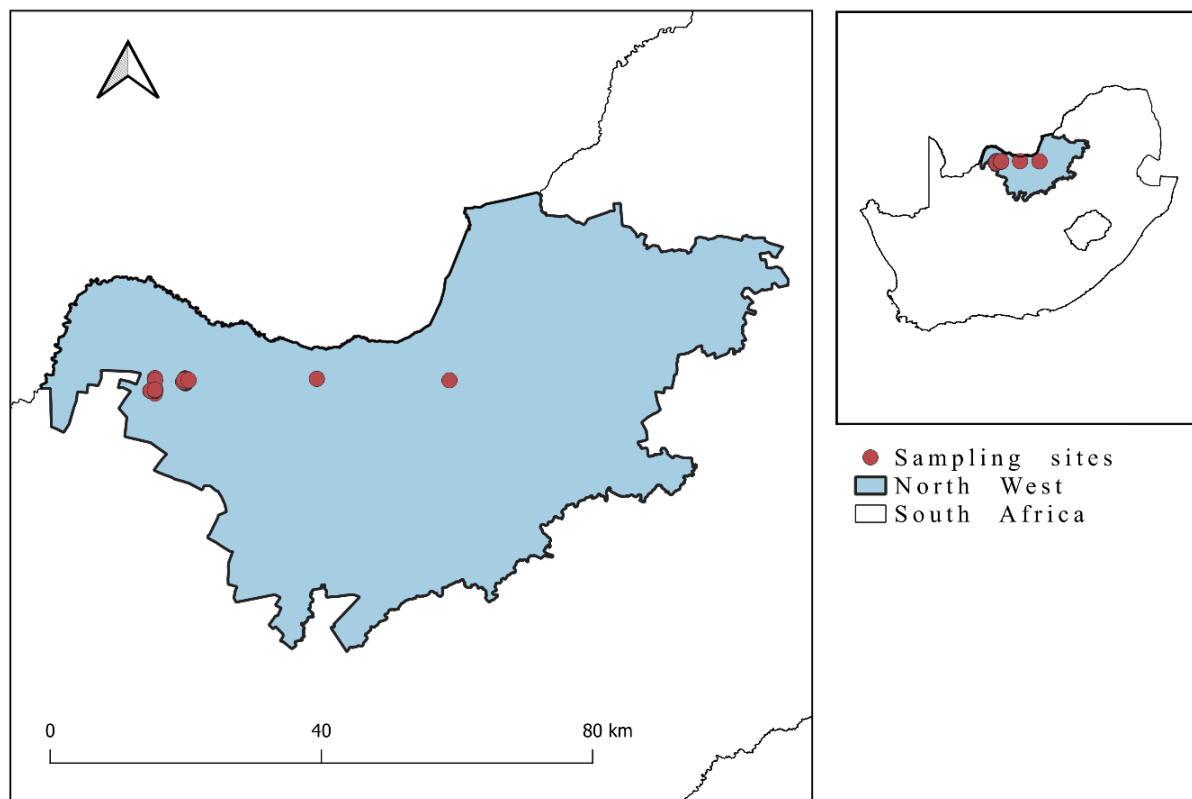


Figure 3.1. Map showing morokweng wetland pans in Khakhea–Bray Transboundary aquafer North West Province, South Africa.



Figure 3.2. Materials used during sampling at Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer. Photo by Sobahle Hlophe.

Data collection

Surface area and water depth measurement

Each wetland pan's surface area was calculated using a handheld GPS in accordance with typical field-based perimeter-mapping techniques. The GPS device was carried while walking along the edges of each pan. An estimate of the surface area for each wetland pan in the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer system was obtained by calculating the final area using the GIS area-calculation function. Water depth was measured using a wading method, carefully moving through the wetland until the leg made contact with the silted bottom. At each selected point, the depth was determined by recording the distance from the water surface to the point on the leg where contact with the substrate occurred.

Water sampling

A portable handheld multiparameter Cyberscan Series (version HI98192, HANNA Instruments, Rhode Island) was used to measure conductivity ($\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$), salinity (ppt), pH, water temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), dissolved oxygen (DO) (mg L^{-1}), and total dissolved solids (TDS) (mg L^{-1}) in all 221 study sites. 250 mL water bottles were then used to collect water samples and placed in cooler box for transportation.

Environmental variables

Pan wetlands were sampled across four altitudinal categories: <1100 m (n = 55), 1100–1149 m (n = 40), 1150–1199 m (n = 123), and >1200 m (n = 3). Sampling effort was highest at mid-elevations (1150–1199 m), while high-altitude pans (>1200 m) were comparatively rare, reflecting their limited spatial occurrence in the landscape and in each environmental variable across the four elevation bands: <1100 m, 1100–1149 m, 1150–1199 m, and >1200 m. Water samples were collected using pre-rinsed 250 mL polyethylene bottles and immediately stored in an ice-filled cooler box to minimize biological and chemical alteration during transport. All samples were transported to the University of Mpumalanga laboratory and for further analysis. Nutrient analysis targeted phosphate (PO_4^{3-}), ammonium (NH_4^+), and nitrate-nitrogen (NO_3^- -N) using a HI 83203 multiparameter photometer (Hanna Instruments Inc., Rhode Island, USA). The instrument operates with an optical LED/photodiode system and uses reagent-based colorimetric methods compliant with standard wet-chemistry protocols (Jun et al., 2016). For each parameter, the instrument's working range and precision, Phosphate (PO_4^{3-}): measurement range 0.00–2.50 mg/L, Ammonium (NH_4^+ -N): measurement range 0.00–5.00 mg/L; And Nitrate-nitrogen (NO_3^- -N): measurement range 0.0–30.0 mg/L. Hanna Instruments were used for each parameter, and the instrument was zeroed and calibrated prior to each batch of analyses using distilled water blanks. All measurements were conducted twice to ensure reliability, and mean values were calculated for statistical analysis.

Sampling of macroinvertebrates

Macroinvertebrates were collected at various wetlands pan at khakhea-Bray transboundary aquifer during different wetlands pans using a standardized SASS net (Dickens and Graham, 2002). This square net (30x30 cm) has an aluminium rim and a 1 mm mesh size. It is affixed to a handle that extends to a length of 1.5 m. The square net (30x30 cm) was fully immersed in the aquatic environment, and the collection of macroinvertebrates were conducted by systematically sweeping a designated transect measuring 10–15 meters in length. The methodology encompassed the act of traversing the water while utilizing a sampling net, as well as employing forceful movements to displace aquatic macrophytes, plants, sand, and boulders (Mondal and Pal, 2018). This method was undertaken with the purpose of removing the macroinvertebrates that had been attached. To avoid the potential escape of active organisms, the sass sample net was expeditiously retrieved

from the aquatic environment. Subsequently, it was subjected to a thorough rinsing process using a coarse mesh filter, which effectively eliminated sizable detrital organic material while ensuring the retention of macroinvertebrates. Collected macroinvertebrates were then transferred into plastic containers with a volume of 500 mL and preserved using a solution of 70% ethanol to maintain sample integrity. To ensure proper preservation, all macroinvertebrate samples were stored in a cool, dark environment at approximately 4°C before laboratory processing. Samples were transported to the laboratory within 24 hours of collection and processed within a maximum of seven days to minimize degradation. In the laboratory the quantification and classification of macroinvertebrates were classified up to the Genus level using the identification guidelines provided by Thoron et al. (1995), Gerber and Gabriel (2002). Macroinvertebrate specimens were identified morphologically using both the unaided eye and a dissection microscope.

Data analysis

Environmental variables measured at each sampling pan wetland were tested for normality using Shapiro–Wilk tests and for homogeneity of variances using Levene’s test. Variables that violated assumptions of normality or homoscedasticity were log–transformed prior to analysis. A one–way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test for significant differences in each environmental variable across the four elevation bands: <1100 m, 1100–1149 m, 1150–1199 m, and >1200 m. Where ANOVA indicated a significant main effect ($p < 0.05$), Tukey’s Honest Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc test was applied to identify which elevation pairs differed significantly (Dar, et al., 2022).

Macroinvertebrate community data were analysed using multivariate methods to test for differences in community composition across the four elevation bands (<1100 m, 1100–1149 m, 1150–1199 m, and >1200 m) (Rubio–Polania et al., 2026). All analyses were conducted in SPSS version 25. Prior to analysis, species abundance data were square–root transformed to reduce the influence of highly abundant taxa and to improve multivariate normality. A Bray–Curtis dissimilarity matrix was calculated to represent ecological distances between samples based on community composition. Permutational Multivariate Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) was used to test the null hypothesis of no difference in community composition among elevation groups. The analysis was based on the Bray–Curtis matrix with 9,999 permutations. Where a

significant main effect was detected, pairwise PERMANOVA tests with Bonferroni correction were performed to identify which elevation bands differed significantly (Araújo et al., 2022).

Analysis of Similarities (ANOSIM) was applied as a complementary, rank-based test to assess the degree of separation among groups. ANOSIM generates an R -statistic ranging from -1 to 1 , where values >0 indicate greater dissimilarity between groups than within groups. An R close to 1 suggests strong separation. Significance was assessed using 9,999 permutations. Similarity Percentage Analysis (SIMPER) was used to identify the taxa primarily responsible for the observed differences between elevation groups. This procedure decomposes the average Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between pairs of groups into contributions from individual species. Taxa with high contributions to dissimilarity and low within-group variability were considered important discriminators. All multivariate tests were considered significant at $p < 0.05$.

Community data were analysed using non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS), an ordination technique well-suited for ecological data that are non-normal or on arbitrary scales. The analysis was performed on a site-by-species matrix of macroinvertebrate relative abundance data. A Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix was calculated to quantify compositional differences between sites. The nMDS ordination was run with 50 random starts to ensure convergence on a stable solution, and a two-dimensional solution was selected based on stress values and interpretability. Stress values below 0.10 were considered indicative of a good ordination, while values between 0.10 and 0.20 were considered acceptable.

Univariate method was conducted to evaluate relationships between macroinvertebrate diversity indices and the measured environmental variables (Schober et al., 2018; Adino, and Mengistou., 2025). Correlation coefficients were used to describe the direction and strength of associations, while statistical significance was assessed using corresponding p -values (Her and Wong., 2020; Ware et al., 2019). Furthermore, relationships between macroinvertebrate richness and environmental variables were modelled using boosted regression trees (BRTs) (Theodoropoulos et al., 2018). The BRT analyses were implemented in R (R Core Team, 2022) with the `gbm` package (Ridgeway, 2006) following the approach of Elith et al. (2008).

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS



Picture 4. Anthropogenic stressors of wetlands in the Khakhea–Bray region, excavation currently being done on some wetlands. Photo by Tatenda Dalu.

Environmental variables

Across all altitude classes, pan wetlands were generally neutral to alkaline, with mean pH values ranging from 7.6 to 8.6. The lowest-altitude pans (<1100 m) exhibited the widest pH range (3.6–10.1), indicating substantial heterogeneity, including occasional acidic conditions. In contrast, high-altitude pans (>1200 m) were consistently alkaline (mean pH = 8.6 ± 0.4), suggesting more buffered systems at higher elevations (Table 3.1). The Oxidation–reduction potential (ORP) values showed pronounced variability across elevations. Low-altitude pans (<1100 m) had strongly oxidising conditions on average (mean = 513.7 mV), but with extremely broad ranges, indicating fluctuating redox states (Table 3.1). Mid-elevation pans (1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m) exhibited lower and more stable ORP values, while high-altitude pans (>1200 m) included negative ORP values, suggesting periodic or persistent reducing conditions (Table 3.1).

Mean dissolved oxygen concentrations were moderate at lower and mid-elevations (~5 mg/L) but declined substantially in high-altitude pans (>1200 m; mean = 2.4 ± 0.4 mg/L). This pattern suggests increasing prevalence of hypoxic conditions with elevation, possibly linked to greater depth, and high temperatures (Table 3.1). Electrical conductivity increased from lower to mid-elevations, peaking in the 1150–1199 m category (mean = 301.0 ± 99.9 $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$), before declining at the highest elevations. A similar pattern was observed for TDS, with highest mean concentrations recorded at mid elevations. These results indicate solute enrichment in mid-altitude pans, potentially reflecting greater evaporative concentration or catchment inputs (Table 3.1).

Thermal regime

Water temperature varied widely across in high altitude classes, with mean temperatures ranging from 13.0 to 17.7°C. Mid- to high-altitude pans tended to exhibit slightly warmer mean temperatures, although large standard deviations suggest strong seasonal or diel variability. Temperature did not decline monotonically with altitude, indicating the influence of pan depth, surface area, and exposure (Table 3.1).

Morphometric characteristics

Pan surface area varied by several orders of magnitude across all altitude classes. The largest pans occurred at mid-elevations (1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m), with mean surface areas exceeding

7 500–10 000 m² (Table 3.1). Low–altitude pans were generally smaller, while high–altitude pans exhibited intermediate mean sizes but high variability. Mean pan depth increased with altitude. Low–altitude pans were generally shallow (mean = 7.7 ± 2.7 cm), whereas high–altitude pans (>1200 m) were substantially deeper (mean = 34.7 ± 26.6 cm). This trend suggests that higher–elevation pans may retain water for longer hydroperiods (Table 3.1).

Nutrient concentrations

Ammonium concentrations were highest in low–altitude pans (<1100 m; mean = 21.1 ± 32.4 mg/L), with values declining markedly at mid–elevations. High–altitude pans showed ammonium concentrations again (mean = 10.3 ± 11 mg/L), possibly reflecting reduced nitrification under hypoxic conditions (Table 3.1). Nitrate concentrations were highest at 1100–1149 m (mean = 71.7 ± 41.8 mg/L), with lower but still substantial concentrations across other altitude classes. Wide ranges across all categories indicate episodic nutrient inputs or strong temporal variability. Phosphate concentrations increased with altitude, peaking at mid– and high–elevations (means = 6.5 ± 1.9 mg/L and 5.3 ± 3.3 mg/L, respectively). This suggests enhanced internal loading or sediment release under reduced redox conditions at higher elevations (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1. Environmental variables and macroinvertebrate metrics recorded among pan wetlands at different elevations within the Khakhea–bray Transboundary aquifer region, South Africa. Abbreviations: ORP – oxygen reduction potential, DO – dissolved oxygen, TDS – total dissolved solids,

Taxa	<1100 m (<i>n</i> = 55)		1100–1149 m (<i>n</i> = 40)		1150–1199 m (<i>n</i> = 123)		>1200 m (<i>n</i> = 3)	
	Range	Mean ± SD	Range	Mean ± SD	Range	Mean ± SD	Range	Mean ± SD
<i>Environmental</i>								
pH	3.6 ± 10.1	7.7 ± 1.4	3.6 ± 10.1	7.6 ± 1.4	4.8 ± 10.4	7.9 ± 1.1	7.9 ± 8.9	8.6 ± 0.4
ORP (mV)	194.1 ± 2009	513.7 ± 732.6	130.1 ± 184.9	159.6 ± 19	22.8 ± 226.8	97.7 ± 75.8	–98.7 ± 161	102.1 ± 99.7
DO (mg/L)	4.8 ± 5.8	5.2 ± 0.3	4.8 ± 5.3	5.1 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 6.7	4.7 ± 1.8	2 ± 3.1	2.4 ± 0.4
Conductivity (µS/cm)	164 ± 342	242.3 ± 68.2	106 ± 402	186.5 ± 109.6	192 ± 445	301 ± 99.9	119 ± 216	167.6 ± 37.4
TDS (mg/L)	96 ± 221	133 ± 46.1	60 ± 94	81 ± 15.8	131 ± 221	157.8 ± 34.5	68 ± 108	86.1 ± 16.1
Temperature	12.4 ± 13.8	13 ± 0.5	11.5 ± 19.7	17.2 ± 3.1	12.1 ± 17.6	15 ± 2.5	16 ± 19	17.7 ± 1.1
Surface area (m ²)	50 ± 1500	550 ± 736.2	50 ± 30000	10033.3 ± 15466.1	200 ± 20000	7566.6 ± 9685.5	150 ± 5500	2883.3 ± 2394.2
Water depth (cm)	4 ± 10	7.7 ± 2.7	15 ± 34	21.3 ± 6.9	5 ± 15	8.3 ± 4	9.4 ± 61	34.7 ± 26.6
Ammonium (mg/L)	0 ± 63	21.1 ± 32.4	3.1 ± 10.7	5.7 ± 3.8	0 ± 4.6	1.6 ± 2.3	1.1 ± 24.4	10.3 ± 11
Nitrate (mg/L)	0 ± 77.6	34.3 ± 35.3	18.2 ± 104.8	71.7 ± 41.8	11.6 ± 24.4	16.2 ± 6.3	6.7 ± 29.6	16.5 ± 10.5
Phosphate (mg/L)	0 ± 5.1	1.7 ± 2.6	0 ± 5.9	2.3 ± 2.8	4.1 ± 8	6.5 ± 1.9	2.2 ± 9.4	5.3 ± 3.3
<i>Macroinvertebrate metrics</i>								
Taxa richness	16 ± 23	19.6 ± 3	19 ± 22	20.1 ± 1.1	16 ± 24	19.3 ± 3	13 ± 17	15.1 ± 1.4
Abundance	72 ± 118	85 ± 17.7	70 ± 595	232.8 ± 236.9	34 ± 210	106.5 ± 74	35 ± 91	60.6 ± 23.4
Simpson	0.6 ± 0.9	0.8 ± 0	0.3 ± 0.9	0.7 ± 0.2	0.7 ± 0.9	0.8 ± 0	0.6 ± 0.9	0.8 ± 0.1

Shannon–Wiener	1.8 ± 2.7	2.3 ± 0.3	0.9 ± 2.7	2.1 ± 0.7	2 ± 2.7	2.3 ± 0.2	1.5 ± 2.7	2.2 ± 0.4
Evenness	0.3 ± 0.7	0.5 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.7	0.5 ± 0.2	0.3 ± 0.8	0.5 ± 0.2	0.3 ± 0.8	0.6 ± 0.2
Altitude	1096.5 ± 1098.1	1097.1 ± 0.7	1128.3 ± 1129.4	1129 ± 0.5	1182.9 ± 1196.1	1187.8 ± 6.4	1210.2 ± 1327	1287.4 ± 59.7

One-way ANOVA revealed that several key physicochemical variables differed significantly among altitude classes (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2. Analysis of variance of environmental variables and macroinvertebrate metrics recorded among pan wetlands at different elevations within the Khakhea–bray Transboundary aquifer region, South Africa.

Variable	df	F	p
<i>Environmental</i>			
pH	3	1.987	0.115
Oxygen reduction potential	3	0.515	0.672
Dissolved oxygen	3	12.372	<0.001
Conductivity	3	0.207	0.891
Resistivity	3	1.158	0.326
Total dissolved solids	3	1.380	0.248
Temperature	3	20.735	<0.001
Surface area	3	0.474	0.700
Water depth	3	16.345	<0.001
Ammonium	3	10.581	<0.001
Nitrate	3	18.923	<0.001
Phosphate	3	10.998	<0.001
<i>Macroinvertebrate metrics</i>			
Taxa richness	3	5.045	0.002
Abundance	3	1.007	0.390
Simpson	3	0.195	0.900
Shannon–Wiener	3	0.829	0.478
Evenness	3	0.661	0.577

Pairwise comparisons across elevation categories revealed variable-specific patterns of change in physicochemical conditions along the elevation gradient (Table 3.3). The DO did not differ significantly between the lowest elevation (<1100 m) and 1100–1149 m sites ($p = 0.683$) or between <1100 m and 1150–1199 m ($p = 0.054$), suggesting relatively consistent oxygen levels across these lower to mid-elevation sites (Table 3.3). Significant differences were observed between <1100 m and the highest elevation (>1200 m; $p < 0.001$), as well as between 1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m ($p = 0.003$) and 1100–1149 m and >1200 m ($p < 0.001$), indicating that higher elevations generally had distinct DO levels (Table 3.3). Similarly, 1150–1199 m and >1200 m sites differed significantly ($p < 0.001$), reflecting an elevational gradient in dissolved oxygen at higher altitudes (Table 3.3).

Temperature showed significant variation among most mid- and high-elevation comparisons. Specifically, <1100 m and 1150–1199 m ($p < 0.001$), and 1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m ($p < 0.001$) differed significantly (Table 3.3). Water depth differed significantly between <1100 m and 1100–1149 m ($p < 0.001$) and between 1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m ($p < 0.001$) (Table 3.3).

For nutrients, nitrates had significant differences were detected between <1100 m and 1100–1149 m ($p < 0.001$) and between 1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m ($p < 0.001$) (Table 3.3). (Table 3.3). For ammonium, significant differences occurred between <1100 m and 1150–1199 m ($p < 0.001$) and between 1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m ($p = 0.010$).

Table 3.3. Tukey’s posthoc analysis of environmental variables and macroinvertebrate metrics recorded among pan wetlands at different elevations within the Khakhea-bray Transboundary aquifer region, South Africa.

Dependent variable	Altitude 1	Altitude 2	<i>p</i>	Dependent variable	Altitude 1	Altitude 2	<i>p</i>
Dissolved oxygen	<1100	1100–1499	0.683	Nitrate	<1100	1100–1149	<0.001
	<1100	1150–1199	0.054		<1100	1150–1199	0.786
	<1100	>1200	<0.001		<1100	>1200	0.955
	1100–1149	1150–1199	0.003		1100–1149	1150–1199	<0.001
	1100–1149	>1200	<0.001		1100–1149	>1200	0.251
	1150–1199	>1200	<0.001		1150–1199	>1200	0.994
Temperature	<1100	1100–1149	1.000	Phosphate	<1100	1100–1149	<0.001
	<1100	1150–1199	<0.001		<1100	1150–1199	0.624
	1100–1149	1150–1199	<0.001		1100–1149	1150–1199	<0.001
	1150–1199	>1200	0.924		1150–1199	>1200	0.978
	>1200	<1100	0.627		>1200	<1100	1.000
	>1200	1100–1149	0.634		>1200	1100–1149	0.220
Water depth	<1100	1100–1149	<0.001	Taxa richness	<1100	1100–1149	0.697
	<1100	1150–1199	0.472		<1100	1150–1199	0.244
	<1100	>1200	0.112		<1100	>1200	0.164
	1100–1149	1150–1199	<0.001		1100–1149	1150–1199	0.020
	>1200	1100–1149	1.000		>1200	1100–1149	0.338
	>1200	1150–1199	0.239		>1200	1150–1199	0.045
Ammonium	<1100	1100–1149	0.466				
	<1100	1150–1199	<0.001				
	<1100	>1200	0.708				

1100–1149	1150–1199	0.010
1150–1199	>1200	0.978
>1200	1100–1149	0.945

Macroinvertebrates

Based on PERMANOVA significant differences were observed in macroinvertebrate community structure (Pseudo-F(MC) = 1.984, $p = 0.0001$), with pairwise comparisons indicating significant differences for <1100 and 1100–1149 ($t = 1.316$, $p = 0.021$), <1100 and 1150–1199 ($t = 1.506$, $p = 0.001$) and 1100–1149 and 1150–1199 ($t = 1.649$, $p = 0.0002$). Macroinvertebrate assemblages in pan wetlands were dominated by a small number of taxa in most altitude classes. However, total macroinvertebrate abundance and taxonomic composition varied along the altitudinal gradient, with higher elevations generally supporting lower overall abundances but relatively higher proportions of environmentally sensitive taxa, while lower elevations were characterised by higher abundances of tolerant taxa. These shifts in community structure suggest that altitude-related environmental factors, such as temperature, hydroperiod, and oxygen availability, act as ecological filters influencing macroinvertebrate distribution. (Table 3.4).

Low-altitude pans were strongly dominated by large branchiopods, particularly Anostraca, which exhibited the highest mean relative abundance in this altitude class ($29.8 \pm 21.8\%$), certain taxa dominate at low altitude especially large branchiopods. Spinicaudata ($12.2 \pm 8.8\%$) and Notostraca ($10.7 \pm 7.4\%$) were also prominent, together accounting for a substantial proportion of total assemblage composition. Aquatic Coleoptera and Hemiptera were present but generally occurred at low relative abundances, with most taxa contributing <5% on average. Dipteran larvae (e.g. Ceratopogonidae, Culicidae) and molluscs were comparatively rare (Table 3.4).

Assemblages at 1100–1149 m retained a strong branchiopod signal, although mean relative abundance of Anostraca declined slightly ($24.8 \pm 21.5\%$). Spinicaudata and Notostraca were noticeable reduced relative to low-altitude pans (Table 3.4). In contrast, aquatic insects increased in representation, particularly Coleoptera (e.g., Dytiscidae, *Cybister* sp., *Hydaticus* spp.), Hemiptera (e.g., Corixidae, *Gerris swakopensis*), and Odonata (e.g., *Anax* sp., *Sympetrum* sp.). Gastropods and dipterans (e.g., Tabanidae and *Dixella* sp.) also increased in relative abundance, indicating a more taxonomically heterogeneous community structure (Table 3.4).

At 1150–1199 m, macroinvertebrate assemblages showed the greatest compositional complexity (Table 3.4). Although Anostraca remained dominant (27.3 ± 21.8 %), relative abundances of insects and molluscs were higher and more evenly distributed than at lower elevations. Hemiptera (e.g., *Laccocoris* sp., Nepidae), Coleoptera (i.e., Elmidae, Dytiscidae), Odonata, and Diptera (i.e., Ceratopogonidae, *Dixella* sp., Oligoneuriidae) contributed substantially to overall assemblage structure. Molluscs such as *Gyraulus connollyi*, *Lamellidens* sp., and *Pila occidentalis* were more consistently represented, reflecting broader habitat use within this altitude band (Table 3.4).

High-altitude pans supported simpler assemblages, characterised by lower overall abundance but relatively high dominance by a few taxa (Table 3.4). Anostraca remained a major component (26.7 ± 21.0 %), while Notostraca increased in relative importance compared to mid-altitude pans (8.7 ± 8.0 %). Several macroinvertebrate taxa, including *Rhantus* sp., *Haliphus* sp., *Dixella* sp., *Anax* sp., and *Gyraulus connollyi*, exhibited elevated mean relative abundances, although large standard deviations reflect strong among-site variability and low sample size (Table 3.4). Many taxa were absent or occurred sporadically, resulting in comparatively even but species-poor communities.

Table 3.4. The relative abundances of macroinvertebrate taxa recorded among pan wetlands at different elevations within the Khakheabray Transboundary aquifer region, South Africa.

Taxa	<1100 m		1100–1149 m		1150–1199 m		>1200 m	
	Range	Mean ± SD	Range	Mean ± SD	Range	Mean ± SD	Range	Mean ± SD
Anostraca	0 ± 92	29.8 ± 21.8	0 ± 86.2	24.8 ± 21.5	0 ± 89.6	27.3 ± 21.8	4 ± 52.8	26.7 ± 21
Spinicaudata	0 ± 25.4	12.2 ± 8.8	0 ± 11.3	4.3 ± 5.5	0 ± 23.6	10.9 ± 9.6		
Notostraca	3.9 ± 25	10.7 ± 7.4	0 ± 4.4	2.2 ± 1.8	0 ± 4.3	1.8 ± 2	0 ± 20.6	8.7 ± 8
<i>Rhantus</i> sp.	0 ± 8	3 ± 3.3	0 ± 9.5	1.8 ± 3.7	0 ± 2.8	0.8 ± 1.3	0 ± 16.3	3.5 ± 6.5
<i>Hydaticus exclamationis</i>	0 ± 2.6	0.4 ± 1	0 ± 2.8	0.4 ± 1.1	0 ± 4.6	0.7 ± 1.8	0 ± 2.8	0.4 ± 1.1
Daphniidae	0 ± 4	0.8 ± 1.6	0 ± 2.8	0.7 ± 1.1	0 ± 4.6	1.2 ± 1.8	0 ± 5.7	0.9 ± 2.3
<i>Locobius</i> sp.	0 ± 5.3	1.2 ± 2	0 ± 1.4	0.5 ± 0.6	0 ± 2.9	0.4 ± 1.2	0 ± 4.7	1.2 ± 2
Acidocerinae	0 ± 4	1 ± 1.5	0 ± 2	0.3 ± 0.8	0 ± 2.8	0.4 ± 1.1	0 ± 8.3	1.3 ± 3.4
Gyrinidae	0 ± 17.1	2.8 ± 6.9	0 ± 7.8	1.3 ± 3.1	0 ± 5.8	1.9 ± 2	0 ± 4	0.6 ± 1.6
Hydroporinae	0 ± 4.2	1.2 ± 1.6	0 ± 2.8	0.4 ± 1.1			0 ± 4.7	0.7 ± 1.9
<i>Stenelmis</i> sp.	0 ± 1.3	0.2 ± 0.5	0 ± 1.3	0.4 ± 0.6			0 ± 1.1	0.3 ± 0.5
Elmidae	0 ± 3.9	0.6 ± 1.6			0 ± 5.7	1.6 ± 2.4	0 ± 2.8	0.8 ± 1.2
<i>Cybister</i> sp.	0 ± 10.5	3.4 ± 4.1	0 ± 11.2	2.3 ± 4.4	0 ± 2.9	0.9 ± 1.2		
<i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp.	0 ± 6.7	1.4 ± 2.7	0 ± 5.2	2.1 ± 2.2	0 ± 1.1	0.1 ± 0.4	0 ± 5.4	2.1 ± 2.5
Dytiscidae	0 ± 7.8	1.6 ± 3			0 ± 8.8	1.9 ± 3.5	0 ± 2	0.3 ± 0.8
<i>Haliphus</i> sp.	0 ± 4.3	0.9 ± 1.7	0 ± 2	0.5 ± 0.9	0 ± 2.1	0.5 ± 0.9	0 ± 2.2	0.3 ± 0.9
<i>Anisops</i> sp.	0 ± 1.3	0.2 ± 0.5	0 ± 2.6	0.4 ± 1	0 ± 4.6	1.2 ± 1.8	0 ± 6.1	1.2 ± 2.4
<i>Appasus</i> sp.	0 ± 6.7	1.6 ± 2.8	0 ± 2	0.3 ± 0.8	0 ± 8.8	1.4 ± 3.6	0 ± 2.1	0.3 ± 0.8
<i>Corixidae</i>	0 ± 2.7	0.4 ± 1.1	0 ± 7.8	2.1 ± 3	0 ± 6	1 ± 2.4	0 ± 10	1.6 ± 4
<i>Gerris swakopensis</i>	0 ± 1.3	0.2 ± 0.5	0 ± 7.1	2.1 ± 3.1	0 ± 2.1	0.6 ± 0.9	0 ± 6.1	2.9 ± 2.6
Hydrometridae	0 ± 10.6	3.5 ± 4.1			0 ± 3.8	1.1 ± 1.7	0 ± 6.8	1.1 ± 2.8
<i>Laccocoris</i> sp.					0 ± 22.8	5.6 ± 9.1	0 ± 10	1.6 ± 4
<i>Paraplea</i> sp.	0 ± 3.2	0.5 ± 1.3	0 ± 6.1	1.2 ± 2.4	0 ± 0.4	0 ± 0.1	0 ± 2.8	0.4 ± 1.1
Notonectidae	0 ± 4.1	0.6 ± 1.7	0 ± 1.4	0.2 ± 0.5				
Nepidae	0 ± 1.3	0.2 ± 0.5	0 ± 0.4	0 ± 0.1	0 ± 8.5	2.8 ± 3.1	0 ± 1	0.1 ± 0.4
<i>Sigara</i> sp.	0 ± 1.3	0.2 ± 0.5	0 ± 2.3	0.3 ± 0.9	0 ± 0.4	0 ± 0.1	0 ± 6.1	1.8 ± 2.4
Veliidae	0 ± 1	0.1 ± 0.4	0 ± 5.1	1 ± 2	0 ± 1.1	0.1 ± 0.4		

<i>Micronecta</i> sp.			0 ± 2.8	0.6 ± 1.1	0 ± 4.3	0.8 ± 1.7	0 ± 10	1.6 ± 4
<i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp.	0 ± 5.9	2.1 ± 2.4	0 ± 7.8	1.3 ± 3.2	0 ± 5.8	0.9 ± 2.4	0 ± 8.1	3 ± 3.7
<i>Mesovelia vittigera</i>					0 ± 1	0.1 ± 0.4	0 ± 3.3	0.9 ± 1.4
<i>Ranatra</i> sp.					0 ± 1.9	0.4 ± 0.8	0 ± 0	0 ± 0
<i>Sympetrum</i> sp.	0 ± 3.9	1.1 ± 1.5	0 ± 8.3	2.5 ± 3.5	0 ± 5.8	0.9 ± 2.4	0 ± 2.3	0.3 ± 0.9
Chironomidae							0 ± 3.3	0.5 ± 1.3
Ceratopogonidae	0 ± 3.9	1 ± 1.7	0 ± 10	1.6 ± 4	0 ± 5.7	0.9 ± 2.3	0 ± 4.7	0.7 ± 1.9
Culicidae	0 ± 2.6	0.6 ± 1	0 ± 7.1	1.4 ± 2.8	0 ± 1.6	0.2 ± 0.6	0 ± 12.2	2 ± 4.9
<i>Dixella</i> sp.			0 ± 1.4	0.2 ± 0.6	0 ± 3.8	1.3 ± 1.6		
Tabanidae	0 ± 3.9	0.9 ± 1.6	0 ± 18.4	3 ± 7.5	0 ± 11.7	2.4 ± 4.7		
<i>Tomopterna</i> sp.	0 ± 1.3	0.2 ± 0.5	0 ± 0.8	0.1 ± 0.3	0 ± 5.8	0.9 ± 2.4	0 ± 8.1	1.3 ± 3.3
<i>Lestes</i> sp.	0 ± 3.9	0.9 ± 1.6	0 ± 0.5	0 ± 0.2			0 ± 1.6	0.4 ± 0.7
<i>Anax</i> sp.	0 ± 4.1	1.3 ± 1.7	0 ± 7.8	3 ± 3.6	0 ± 11.7	2.6 ± 4.5	0 ± 8.5	1.4 ± 3.4
<i>Crocothemis erythraea</i>	0 ± 2.1	0.5 ± 0.9	0 ± 4.2	0.8 ± 1.6	0 ± 2.8	0.4 ± 1.1		
<i>Diplacodes lefebvri</i>	0 ± 3.9	0.6 ± 1.6	0 ± 3	0.7 ± 1.2				
<i>Orthetrum chrysostigma</i>	0 ± 2.5	0.6 ± 1			0 ± 3.8	1.1 ± 1.7	0 ± 4.7	1.4 ± 1.8
<i>Trithemis arteriosa</i>			0 ± 21.4	5.5 ± 8.8	0 ± 1.1	0.3 ± 0.5	0 ± 1.1	0.1 ± 0.4
<i>Pseudagrion</i> sp.	0 ± 2.7	1.1 ± 1.3	0 ± 3.9	0.6 ± 1.5	0 ± 5.8	0.9 ± 2.4	0 ± 2.8	0.6 ± 1.1
<i>Phaon iridipennis</i>	0 ± 1.6	0.5 ± 0.7	0 ± 14.2	2.5 ± 5.7	0 ± 1	0.1 ± 0.4		
<i>Ceratophallus natalensis</i>	0 ± 2.7	1.1 ± 1.3	0 ± 2.6	0.4 ± 1	0 ± 5.7	1.5 ± 2	0 ± 11.4	2 ± 4.5
<i>Corbicula fluminalis africana</i>	0 ± 1.6	0.2 ± 0.6	0 ± 0.6	0.1 ± 0.2			0 ± 3.3	0.5 ± 1.3
Gastropoda	0 ± 1.3	0.4 ± 0.6	0 ± 15.3	3.8 ± 5.8	0 ± 4.6	1.7 ± 1.9	0 ± 4.3	0.7 ± 1.7
<i>Gyraulus connollyi</i>	0 ± 4.1	1.1 ± 1.6			0 ± 9.7	2.1 ± 3.9	0 ± 8.5	3 ± 3.5
<i>Pisidium langleyanum</i>			0 ± 1.2	0.3 ± 0.5	0 ± 2.9	0.5 ± 1.1	0 ± 2	0.3 ± 0.8
<i>Lamellidens</i> sp.	0 ± 1.3	0.2 ± 0.5	0 ± 5.7	1.3 ± 2.1	0 ± 5.7	1.1 ± 2.2	0 ± 2.8	1 ± 1.2
<i>Lymnaea truncatula</i>	0 ± 1.3	0.4 ± 0.6	0 ± 0.6	0.1 ± 0.2	0 ± 3.2	0.5 ± 1.3		
<i>Pila occidentalis</i>	0 ± 11.8	3.7 ± 5	0 ± 3.5	0.5 ± 1.4	0 ± 5.7	1.2 ± 2.2	0 ± 6.5	1.8 ± 2.5
<i>Gyrinus</i> sp.	0 ± 10.5	2.2 ± 4.1	0 ± 7.1	2.3 ± 3.3	0 ± 3.8	1.4 ± 1.6	0 ± 8.5	1.9 ± 3.4
<i>Haliphus</i> sp.	0 ± 2.6	0.8 ± 1.3	0 ± 11.2	3.4 ± 5	0 ± 5.8	1.7 ± 2.6	0 ± 26.1	4.9 ± 10.5
<i>Crenigomphus</i> sp.					0 ± 3.2	0.9 ± 1.4	0 ± 5	1 ± 2
<i>Dixella</i> sp.	0 ± 5.3	1.1 ± 2.1	0 ± 10	4.5 ± 4.3	0 ± 2.9	0.5 ± 1.1	0 ± 9.8	3.2 ± 4
Oligoneuriidae			0 ± 1.4	0.6 ± 0.6	0 ± 11.4	2.8 ± 4.7	0 ± 1	0.1 ± 0.4

<i>Pinheyschna</i> sp.	0 ± 1	0.3 ± 0.5			0 ± 5.7	1.6 ± 2.1	0 ± 7.1	1.1 ± 2.9
<i>Ephemerellina</i> sp.	0 ± 2.7	0.7 ± 1.2	0 ± 2.8	1 ± 1.1			0 ± 11.4	2.4 ± 4.5

Analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) revealed no significant overall differences in macroinvertebrate community composition across the four elevation categories (Global $R = -0.004$, $p = 0.571$; 9999 permutations), indicating that, at the scale of the entire dataset, communities were broadly similar. Pairwise comparisons between elevation groups, however, identified some significant differences. macroinvertebrate communities at low elevations are not the same as those at high elevations, and this difference is meaningful, not due to chance. A smaller but significant difference was also observed between the 1100–1149 m and >1200 m groups ($R = 0.223$, $p = 0.03$), and between <1100 m and 1100–1149 m sites ($R = 0.042$, $p = 0.005$). All other pairwise comparisons showed minimal or non-significant differences ($R < 0.177$, $p > 0.05$), indicating that macroinvertebrate communities were largely similar among mid-elevation sites.

The SIMPER analysis revealed that macroinvertebrate communities were moderately similar within each elevation category but exhibited substantial dissimilarity between elevations, with differences primarily driven by a few dominant taxa (Table 3.5). The within-group similarity showed that the average similarity within groups ranged from 26.1 % at the highest elevation (>1200 m) to 34.7 % at the lowest elevation (<1100 m), indicating moderate homogeneity within each elevation. Across all elevations, the fairy shrimp Anostraca consistently contributed the most to within-group similarity, accounting for 43–55 % of similarity depending on elevation (Table 3.5). Other taxa contributing to similarity varied by elevation: Notostraca, Spinicaudata, *Pila occidentalis*, and *Rhantus* sp. were consistently important in lower to mid elevations, while high-elevation sites (>1200 m) included additional contributors such as *Gerris swakopensis*, *Gyraulus connollyi*, *Dixella* sp., and *Hydrocanthus* sp. (Table 3.5).

Between-group dissimilarity, the dissimilarity between elevation pairs was substantial, ranging from 67.9 % (<1100 m and 1150–1199 m) to 73.4 % (1100–1149 m and >1200 m), reflecting marked shifts in community composition along the elevation gradient (Table 3.5). Differences were primarily driven by changes in the abundance or presence of dominant taxa such as the Anostraca which consistently contributed the largest portion to dissimilarity (16–18 %), reflecting changes in its relative abundance across elevations (Table 3.5). Spinicaudata contributed 5–8 % to dissimilarity in comparisons where it was present at one elevation but absent at another (notably absent above 1200 m) (Table 3.5), whereas Notostraca also consistently contributed 5–7 % to

dissimilarity in most comparisons. Other taxa contributing to dissimilarity included *Haliphus* sp., *Rhantus* sp., *Pila occidentalis*, *Hydrocanthus* sp., and *Dixella* sp., particularly in comparisons involving the highest elevation (>1200 m), reflecting the emergence of taxa unique to or more abundant at high altitudes (Table 3.5).

The elevation-specific patterns showed that low elevations (<1100 m) were characterised by high abundances of Anostraca, Notostraca, and Spinicaudata, which together accounted for more than 78 % of within-group similarity (Table 3.5). Mid elevations (1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m) showed similar dominant taxa, but their relative contributions shifted slightly, with Spinicaudata increasing in importance at 1100–1149 m and Anostraca remaining dominant (Table 3.5). High elevation (>1200 m) communities were more compositionally distinct, with Anostraca, Notostraca, and a suite of additional taxa (e.g., *Haliphus* sp., *Dixella* sp., and *Hydrocanthus* sp.) driving both within-group similarity and between-group dissimilarity (Table 3.5). The absence of certain lower-elevation taxa (e.g., Spinicaudata) at high elevations further increased dissimilarity, highlighting an elevational turnover in macroinvertebrate assemblages (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5. SIMPER analysis of macroinvertebrate communities across elevation categories.

Comparison	Average similarity / dissimilarity (%)	Top contributing taxa (%)
Within-group		
<1100 m	Avg. similarity = 34.65	Anostraca (51.56), Notostraca (14.66), Spinicaudata (12.39), <i>Pila occidentalis</i> (1.66), <i>Rhantus</i> sp. (1.51)
1100–1149 m	Avg. similarity = 29.55	Anostraca (43.82), Spinicaudata (20.19), Notostraca–T (7.73), <i>Pila occidentalis</i> (3.24), <i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp. (2.75), <i>Rhantus</i> sp. (2.01)
1150–1199 m	Avg. similarity = 30.11	Anostraca (50.34), Spinicaudata (11.11), Notostraca (9.24), <i>Rhantus</i> sp. (1.93), <i>Pila occidentalis</i> (1.24)
>1200 m	Avg. similarity = 26.07	Anostraca (54.06), Notostraca (14.72), <i>Gerris swakopensis</i> (4.99), <i>Gyraulus connollyi</i> (3.63), <i>Dixella</i> sp. (3.55), <i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp. (3.29), <i>Sigara</i> sp. (1.78)
Between-group		
<1100 m and 1100–1149 m	Avg. dissimilarity = 68.52	Anostraca (17.65), Spinicaudata (8.2), Notostraca (6.91), <i>Pila occidentalis</i> (4.71), <i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp. (3.34), <i>Rhantus</i> sp. (3.08), <i>Sigara</i> sp. (1.83)
<1100 m and 1150–1199 m	Avg. dissimilarity = 67.94	Anostraca (17.8), Spinicaudata (7.2), Notostraca (7.02), <i>Rhantus</i> sp. (2.96), <i>Pila occidentalis</i> (2.92), <i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp. (2.14), <i>Anisops</i> sp. (1.73)
1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m	Avg. dissimilarity = 70.65	Anostraca (16.97), Spinicaudata (8.44), Notostraca (5.36), <i>Pila occidentalis</i> (4.32), <i>Rhantus</i> sp. (3.31), <i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp. (3.0), <i>Haliphus</i> sp. (1.67)
<1100 m and >1200 m	Avg. dissimilarity = 70.24	Anostraca (16.62), Notostraca (6.82), Spinicaudata (6.32), <i>Haliphus</i> sp. (3.81), <i>Rhantus</i> sp. (3.27), <i>Pila occidentalis</i> (2.49), <i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp. (2.41), <i>Dixella</i> sp. (2.38)
1100–1149 m and >1200 m	Avg. dissimilarity = 73.38	Anostraca (15.68), Spinicaudata (8.41), Notostraca (5.84), <i>Haliphus</i> sp. (3.93), <i>Pila occidentalis</i> (3.87), <i>Rhantus</i> sp. (3.55), <i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp. (2.89)
1150–1199 m and >1200 m	Avg. dissimilarity = 71.97	Anostraca (16.16), Notostraca (5.99), Spinicaudata (5.91), <i>Haliphus</i> sp. (3.79), <i>Rhantus</i> sp. (3.52), <i>Dixella</i> sp. (2.39), <i>Gyraulus connollyi</i> (2.29), <i>Hydrocanthus</i> sp. (2.23), <i>Pila occidentalis</i> (2.07)

Macroinvertebrate metrics

Mean taxa richness was remarkably consistent across altitude classes, ranging from 15.1 to 20.1 taxa. The highest richness was recorded at 1100–1149 m, while high-altitude pans (>1200 m) supported slightly fewer taxa on average (Table 3.1). Invertebrate abundance showed strong altitudinal variation. Mid-elevation pans (1100–1149 m) supported substantially higher mean

abundances (232.8 ± 236.9 individuals) compared to both lower and higher elevations. High-altitude pans supported the lowest abundances (Table 3.1). Simpson and Shannon–Wiener diversity indices were consistently moderate to high across all altitude classes, with mean Simpson values around 0.7–0.8 and Shannon–Wiener values around 2.1–2.3. Evenness was also relatively stable, though slightly higher in high-altitude pans, suggesting more equitable species distributions despite lower richness and abundance (Table 3.1).

Macroinvertebrate taxa richness differed significantly among altitude classes ($F = 5.045$, $p = 0.002$), indicating an altitudinal influence on community composition. However, no significant differences were detected for total abundance ($F = 1.007$, $p = 0.390$) or for diversity indices, including Simpson’s index ($F = 0.195$, $p = 0.900$), Shannon–Wiener diversity ($F = 0.829$, $p = 0.478$), and evenness ($F = 0.661$, $p = 0.577$) (Table 3.2). Based on the Tukey’s posthoc analysis, taxa richness differed significantly between 1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m ($p = 0.020$) and between 1150–1199 m and >1200 m ($p = 0.045$), but not for other elevation comparisons.

Relationship between macroinvertebrates, elevation and environmental variables

Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) ordination revealed no clear separation in macroinvertebrate community structure across the four altitudinal bands (<1100 m, 1100–1149 m, 1150–1199 m, >1200 m) (Figure 4). Macroinvertebrate communities from the lowest elevation (<1100 m) were not distinctly clustered in ordination space, similarly, those from middle elevations (1100–1199 m) showed partial overlap, indicating some shared taxa (Figure 4). The highest elevation band (>1200 m) showed no clear separation from the rest of the elevations, suggesting no distinct assemblage adapted to higher altitudes. Stress for the ordination was low (stress < 0.20), indicating a good representation of community dissimilarities in two-dimensional space (Figure 4).

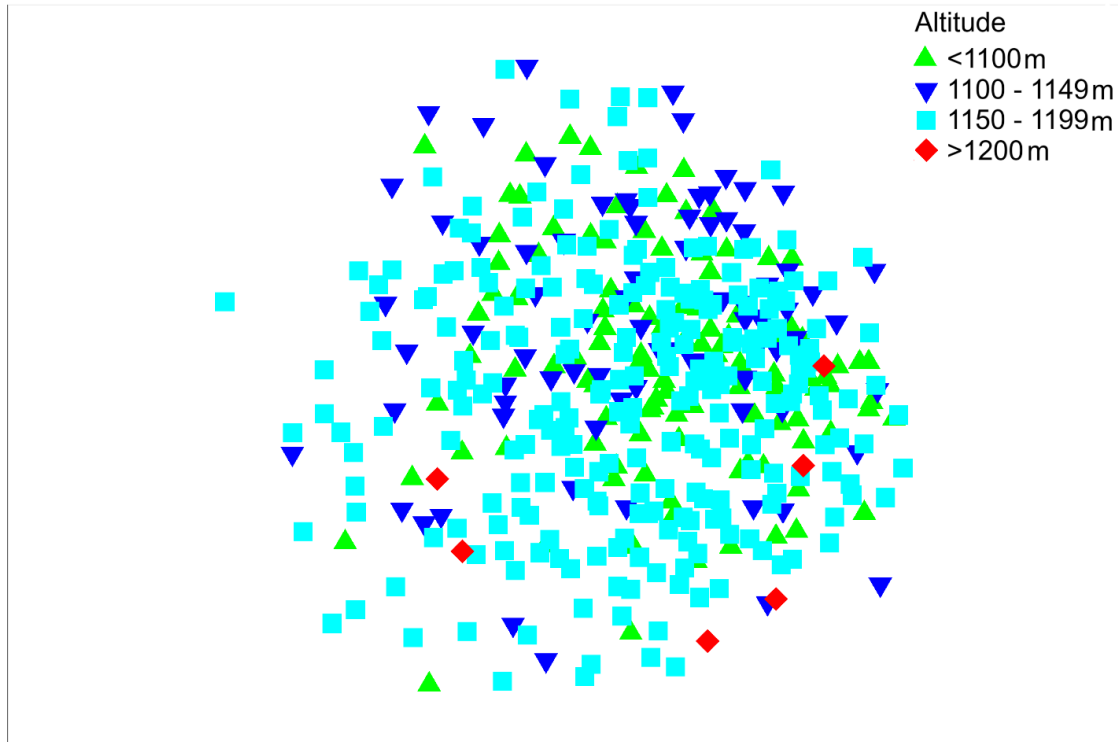


Figure 4. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) ordination of macroinvertebrate community composition across four altitudinal bands in Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer region pan wetlands. Points represent sample sites, with symbols and colours corresponding to elevation categories. Stress = 0.19 indicate a reliable ordination.

Spatial patterns of macroinvertebrate diversity

Analysis of macroinvertebrate communities across the sampled transect revealed clear spatial structuring in both species' richness and Shannon–Wiener diversity. The most pronounced gradient was latitude, and the degree of confidence is high compared to longitude. Communities at the westernmost sites exhibited substantially higher diversity values compared to the depauperate eastern sites (Figure 4). In contrast, patterns related to altitude were negligible within the studied range (1–3 meters above sea level). Statistical analysis confirmed no significant relationship between either richness or Shannon H' and the minimal elevational gradient captured in this dataset. Given the study design, which sampled a narrow latitudinal band (approximately –25.0° to –25.1° S), latitude was effectively held constant. Consequently, no latitudinal diversity gradient could be assessed, and the observed variation is attributed primarily to longitudinal position. Thus, macroinvertebrate diversity in the study region was strongly and positively

correlated with longitude, while showing no relationship with the subtle altitudinal variation present across the sampling sites (Figure 3.2).

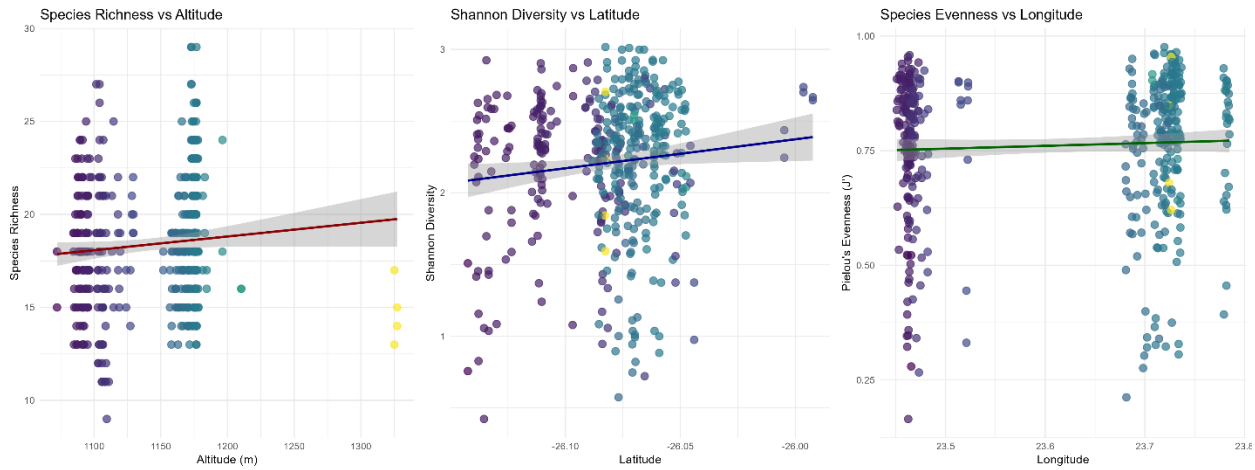


Figure 3.4. Spatial variation in macroinvertebrate community diversity across the study transect. plots show (a) species richness and (b) Shannon–Wiener diversity index plotted against longitude, latitude, and altitude/elevation.

Correlation analysis revealed no significant relationships between altitude and any of the macroinvertebrate diversity indices. correlations were observed between altitude and taxa richness ($r = 0.09$, $p = 0.063$) and between altitude and Shannon–Wiener diversity ($r = 0.09$, $p = 0.063$), although these relationships were not statistically significant. Similarly, altitude showed weak and non–significant correlations with Simpson’s diversity index ($r = 0.054$, $p = 0.255$) no relationship and Pielou’s evenness ($r = 0.07$, $p = 0.159$), indicating minimal influence of altitudinal variation on macroinvertebrate community structure within the study area.

Latitude exhibited modest but statistically significant weak relationships with Shannon diversity ($r = 0.107$, $p = 0.024$) and evenness ($r = 0.101$, $p = 0.034$). These results suggest a slight increase in overall diversity and a more even distribution of taxa along the latitudinal gradient. In contrast, the correlation between latitude and taxa richness was weak and non–significant ($r = 0.049$, $p = 0.3035$), as was the relationship with Simpson’s diversity index ($r = 0.091$, $p = 0.056$), indicating that changes in diversity were driven primarily by relative abundance patterns rather than by an increase in the number of taxa in (Figure 3.4).

Longitude showed the strongest spatial association with macroinvertebrate assemblages, exhibiting a significant weak correlation with taxa richness ($r = 0.147, p = 0.002$) in (figure 3.4). This finding indicates an increase in macroinvertebrate taxa richness along the longitudinal gradient of the reservoir shoreline. However, correlations between longitude and Shannon diversity ($r = 0.091, p = 0.056$), Simpson's diversity index ($r = 0.043, p = 0.369$), and evenness ($r = 0.050, p = 0.299$) were weak and not statistically significant, suggesting that while the number of taxa varied spatially, overall community dominance and evenness remained relatively consistent.

The BRT results demonstrate that macroinvertebrate richness in pan wetlands is structured predominantly by broad-scale spatial driverrather than by local physicochemical conditions. The dominance of longitude and the secondary influence of altitude and latitude imply that regional landscape position, historical connectivity, and dispersal processes are likely more important drivers of macroinvertebrate richness than instantaneous water quality parameters Figure 3.5. The predictive performance of boosted regression trees (BRT) models relating macroinvertebrate taxa richness to environment variables was as follows: 4 000 number of trees fitted (boosted models), with a mean total and residual deviance of 0.589 and 0.001, respectively. The estimated cross-validated deviance \pm standard error was 0.001 ± 0.001 and the cross-validated correlation of 0.99 (with a training data correlation of 0.98). 99.99% of variation was explained, retained as significant terms in the BRT model relating macroinvertebrate species richness to environmental variables, with the first 6 variables accounting for ~99.98 % of macroinvertebrate taxa richness variation, with high predictor contributor to model fit being observed for longitude (76.8 %), latitude (8.6 %) and altitude (14.5 %).

Boosted regression tree analysis indicated that macroinvertebrate richness in pan wetlands was primarily influenced by spatial variables, with longitude emerging as the dominant predictor. Longitude accounted for 76.8 % of the total relative influence in the model, indicating a strong longitudinal gradient in macroinvertebrate richness across the study area (Figure 3.3). The fitted response showed an abrupt increase in richness within a narrow longitudinal range, followed by a plateau, suggesting the presence of a threshold beyond which additional longitudinal change did

not result in further increases in richness. Altitude contributed 14.5 % to the model and exhibited a moderate positive effect on macroinvertebrate richness (Figure 3.3). The fitted function indicated stepwise increases in richness with increasing altitude, implying that elevation–related factors such as hydrology, basin morphology, or climatic gradients may influence habitat suitability in pan wetlands. Latitude accounted for a smaller but still measurable proportion of the explained variation (8.6 %), with richness showing a modest increase across the latitudinal gradient before stabilising, suggesting secondary spatial structuring of communities (Figure 3.3). In contrast, water quality variables made a negligible contribution to explaining macroinvertebrate richness. The pH, dissolved oxygen, and electrical conductivity each contributed less than 0.1 % to the model (0.04 %, 0.04 %, and 0.01 %, respectively). The fitted response curves for these variables were effectively flat across their observed ranges, indicating no discernible influence on richness within the conditions sampled. This suggests that water quality across the pan wetlands was relatively homogeneous or within tolerance limits for most macroinvertebrate taxa.

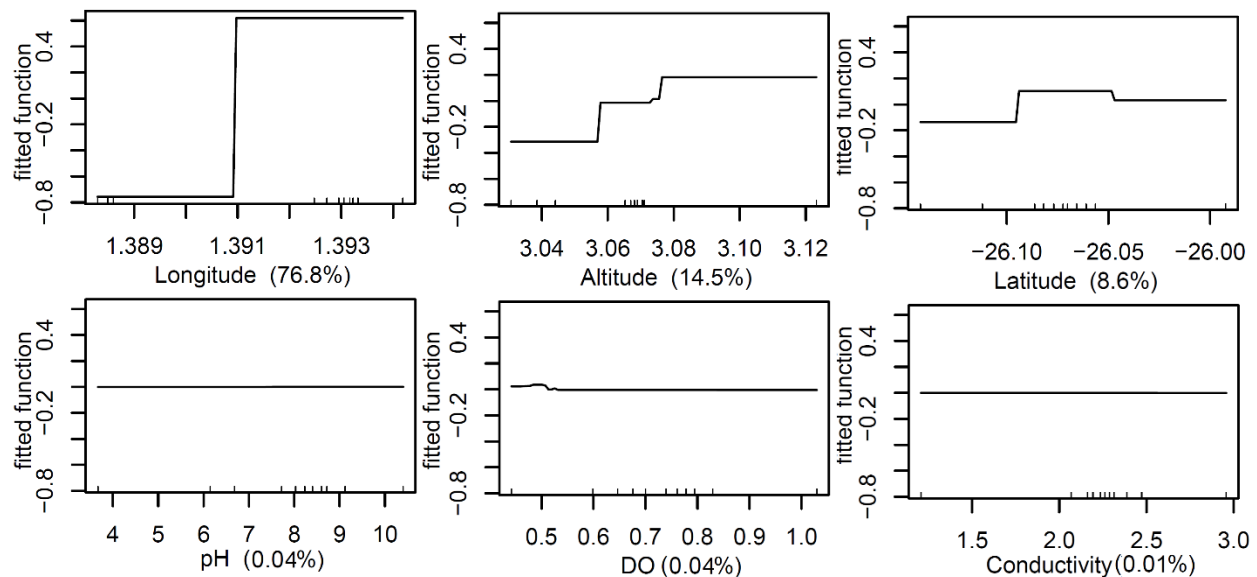


Figure 3.5. Variation in macroinvertebrate taxa richness predicted by a boosted regression trees (BRT) model for the first 6 environmental variables and using environmental characteristics as predictors.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION



Picture 5. Some of the most common birds feeding on the diverse macroinvertebrate taxa in the pan wetlands, brown bird – glossy ibis *Plegadis falcinellus* and white bird – cattle egret *Bubulcus ibis*. Photo by Tatenda Dalu.

Environmental variables

Pan wetlands were primarily neutral to alkaline across all elevation classes, a pattern consistent with the carbonate-rich geology of the region and the strong influence of groundwater inputs. However, the wider pH range observed in low-altitude pans indicates greater environmental variability within these systems. This variability likely results from episodic surface runoff, fluctuating hydroperiods, and evaporative concentration during dry periods, which can alter the chemical composition of wetland waters (Jacobsen and Dangles, 2017; Ge et al., 2025). Such processes introduce pulses of dissolved ions and nutrients, contributing to short-term shifts in water chemistry. In contrast, pans located at higher elevations exhibited more stable and consistently alkaline conditions. This trend may reflect stronger groundwater control, reduced influence of surface runoff, and longer water residence times, which together promote greater buffering capacity and chemical stability within these systems, the observed patterns suggest that elevation influences the degree of hydrological connectivity and water balance processes, which in turn shape the physico-chemical characteristics of pan wetlands.

The findings of the study are in with findings from Masina et al. (2023), who found that the indication of macroinvertebrate contrast diversity in Khakhea–Bray pan wetlands is maximized under intermediate environmental conditions, where hydroperiod stability, oxygen availability, nutrient enrichment, and habitat complexity intersect. Their study results highlighted the ecological importance of mid–elevation pans and emphasise the sensitivity of macroinvertebrate communities to changes in groundwater–surface water interactions (Fair et al., 2017). Given increasing pressures from groundwater abstraction and climate variability, protecting the hydrological integrity of these pan wetlands is essential for maintaining biodiversity and ecosystem functioning across the transboundary aquifer (Jeethu, 2025; Moomaw et al., 2018).

We observed that significant changes in water temperature were found between lower and mid–elevation sites, especially between <1100 m and 1150–1199 m. The results show that the higher elevations, shows that differences were less pronounced. This finding is consistent with the study by Pandey et al. (2021), which also reported minimal temperature variation among high-elevation pans, suggesting that the influence of altitude may be overridden by local factors such as pan depth, surface area, and shading.

Significant variations in water depth were found mostly between adjacent elevation groups, especially between <1100 m and 1100–1149 m and between 1100–1149 m and 1150–1199 m. It also indicates that rather than throughout the entire elevation gradient, hydrological variation is most visible during lower to mid–elevation transitions. The findings of the study are consistent with findings from Adams (2016) who reported that the longer hydroperiods are probably encouraged by increased depth at mid–elevations, improving habitat stability and enabling a greater variety of species to finish their life cycles. According to Shrestha et al. (2021) research, they reported that depth and hydroperiod length are among the best indicators of macroinvertebrate abundance and richness in pan wetlands, frequently surpassing the direct impacts of elevation.

The study results show that strong elevation–specific patterns were seen in the dynamics of nutrients, especially phosphate and nitrate. This is in contrast to a study by Martin et al (2018), which highlighted that significant variations in nitrate concentrations between low and mid–elevation locations point to increased nitrification or external inputs at these altitudes, which may be related to oxygen availability and watershed processes in contrast, the present study demonstrates that macroinvertebrate assemblage patterns vary significantly across the altitudinal gradient, with shifts in dominant taxa and community composition occurring between elevation classes. By explicitly examining spatial patterns across multiple elevation categories, this study provides new insights into how elevation–driven environmental filters structure macroinvertebrate assemblages within the Khakhea–Bray aquifer landscape. We observed that phosphate displayed a similar pattern, with variations focused in the elevation area between 1100 and 1149 meters. Johnson et al. (1997) findings are consistent with those of other groundwater–dependent wetlands, where a combination of surface runoff, groundwater inflow, and internal recycling frequently results in the highest nutrient concentrations at intermediate altitudes. Higher macroinvertebrate abundance can be indirectly supported by increased primary productivity brought about by elevated nutrients, but if enrichment becomes excessive, it may also favor tolerant taxa (Wagenhoff, et al., 2012; Davis et al., 2018; Kendrick et al., 2019;)

Specific deposition at mid–elevations is suggested by the considerable differences in ammonium concentrations between low and mid–elevation locations, especially in the 1150–1199 m category (Taylor et al., 2021). According to Whitby (2025), specific deposition could be the result of higher

organic matter decomposition in pans with longer hydroperiods or decreased nitrification under varying oxygen conditions.

Macroinvertebrates

This study shows that significant differences in macroinvertebrate community structure across elevation categories, as indicated by PERMANOVA results, demonstrate that elevation-related environmental gradients play a key role in shaping assemblage composition in groundwater-dependent pan wetlands of the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer region. These findings were consistent with those by Cukusic (2025); Mungenge et al. (2023) They also found that the Variations in relative abundance and dominance patterns indicate that community organization responds sensitively to changes in hydrology, water chemistry, and habitat stability, even though pan wetlands across elevations share a core group of organisms. Bird et al. (2019) reported that elevation-related differences in macroinvertebrate assemblages are common worldwide, where elevation acts indirectly by reflecting variations in hydroperiod, oxygen availability, and nutrient dynamics.

Largebranchiopods, especially Anostraca, Spinicaudata, and Notostraca, dominated low–altitude pans and made up a significant portion of the assemblage composition. These taxa predominate in shallow, short–hydroperiod wetlands that undergo frequent drying and abrupt environmental changes (Demeter et al., 2008; Van den Broeck et al., 2015). According to Moyo (2023), Anostraca, Spinicaudata, and Notostraca have quick life cycles and ability to produce drought-resistant resting eggs. Large branchiopods are well suited to these circumstances and can take advantage of transient habitats before they dry out. Mataba (2023), found that ephemeral pan wetlands in southern Africa and other arid and semi–arid regions, where branchiopods frequently outcompete aquatic insects under extremely variable conditions.

Increased taxonomic heterogeneity was observed in macroinvertebrate assemblages at 1100m–1149 m, as evidenced by a decrease in branchiopod dominance and an increase in aquatic insects, such as Coleoptera, Hemiptera, and Odonata These findings are consistent with those of Gerstle et al. (2023), who reported that lower-elevation wetlands are often associated with longer hydroperiods and greater habitat stability. Such conditions support the establishment of taxa with

longer developmental cycles and more specific habitat requirements. Similar transitions from assemblages dominated by branchiopods to communities rich in insects have been documented by Boix and Batzer. (2016) in wetlands undergoing moderate hydroperiods, where more diverse functional groups are favored by improved oxygen conditions and increased structural complexity.

The study showed a trend most compositionally complex macroinvertebrate communities, with comparatively high and uniformly distributed abundances of insects, mollusks, and branchiopods, were found in mid-elevation pans (1150–1199 m). The results show that the increased habitat heterogeneity and ecological stability within this elevation band are suggested by the persistent presence of Coleoptera, Hemiptera, Odonata, Diptera, and molluscs such as *Gyraulus connollyi* and *Pila occidentalis*. Wetlands influenced by groundwater have also been shown to support higher macroinvertebrate diversity when hydroperiods are intermediate, as these conditions balance environmental disturbance with habitat persistence (Orsholm and Elenius, 2022). . A greater variety of ecological niches, such as benthic, littoral, and vegetated microhabitats, are probably offered by these pans (Gleason., 2017).

Macroinvertebrate diversity were found to be significantly influenced by dissolved oxygen conditions. Strongly oxidising but highly variable ORP values at low elevations indicate fluctuating aerobic conditions, whereas negative ORP values and low dissolved oxygen concentrations at high elevations indicate persistent or intermittent hypoxia (Niu et al., 2015; Lipson et al., 2012). These reduced conditions are likely linked to longer hydroperiods, deeper water, and less mixing in high-altitude pans (Tianzhu et al., 2017). According to Harrison et al. (2018) hypoxic environments typically favor taxa to adapt to low oxygen availability, for example Diptera, while restricting oxygen-sensitive groups may account for the decreased abundance and taxonomic richness seen at >1200 m. Despite lower richness, relatively high evenness and diversity indices at higher elevations point to more stable community structures dominated by fewer, well-adapted taxa (Lalbiaknunga et al., 2025).

This study results show that the highest macroinvertebrate abundance and consistently high diversity metrics were found in mid-elevation pans (1100–1199 m). The increased surface area and intermediate depths at these elevations likely enhance habitat heterogeneity by maintaining a

mosaic of littoral and benthic microhabitats, which are known to support macroinvertebrate diversity. At mid-elevations, higher phosphate and nitrate concentrations boosted primary productivity, which in turn supported higher secondary production and macroinvertebrate abundance (Everall et al., 2019). The findings of the study are in contrast with findings from Weyer et al. (2018) who reported that nutrient patterns highlight the connection between hydrology and biogeochemistry, their results show that high ammonium concentrations in low-altitude pans suggest strong external inputs or rapid mineralization under different redox conditions, whereas lower ammonium but higher nitrate at mid-elevations indicate active nitrification under more oxic conditions. The return of raised ammonium and increasing phosphate concentrations at high elevations could be due to reduced nitrification and internal nutrient loading from sediments under reducing conditions (Ma et al., 2023; Ding et al., 2022). These nutrient regimes can influence the makeup of macroinvertebrate communities by altering food availability and favoring taxa that can thrive in enriched or oxygen-deprived conditions (Dangles., 2023). These results show that the constant change of these groundwater-dependent wetlands is highlighted by temporal variability, which is inferred from wide ranges and significant variances across most variables. According Fornaroli et al., (2020) study shows that the temporal changes in macroinvertebrate assemblages are probably caused by seasonal variations in temperature, water depth, and nutrient concentrations, especially in shallow low-altitude pans with brief hydroperiods. Which align with this study because deeper high-altitude pans, they operate as chemically limited but more temporally stable systems.

Macroinvertebrate community similarity declines with increasing geographic distance between pans, indicating spatial autocorrelation and limited connectivity, with regards to second hypothesis. We found that across low to mid-elevation pans, dissolved oxygen (DO) conditions were comparatively consistent, with no discernible variations between sites below 1100 m and those between 1100–1149 m or 1150–1199 m. This indicates that the oxygen availability in these elevation bands is generally similar, which is probably due to the shallow depths and frequent mixing linked to shorter hydroperiods (Dodds et al., 2019; Herbst et al., 2019). This results show that was significant variations in the highest elevation category (>1200 m), there was a significantly higher DO in the highest elevation category (>1200 m) however, show a definite shift toward different oxygen conditions at higher elevations. According to Nyman et al. (2008), longer water

retention, and less mixing are frequently linked to lower oxygen levels at higher elevations, which favor oxygen-tolerant macroinvertebrate species and may restrict the occurrence of sensitive groups. Which align with this study because from the results, there study show that groundwater-fed wetlands, are steady but low-oxygen conditions result in simpler but more uniform macroinvertebrate groups, are consistent with this pattern.

The results show that macroinvertebrate metabolism and development rates are all significantly influenced by temperature and increased thermal variability at low and mid elevations probably leads to larger temporal turnover in species composition. Similar results by Gutierrez. (2024) have been documented in transient wetlands, where seasonal macroinvertebrate succession is shaped by temperature variations and hydroperiod. McCormick (2004) in their study they found that wetland systems, ammonium enrichment has been linked to changes toward opportunistic and detritivorous macroinvertebrate taxa, which may account for observed variations in community composition rather than significant alterations in total taxonomic richness. In this study we observed that macroinvertebrate metrics indicated significant but comparatively small elevation-related variations. This is in contrast to a study by Amundrud and Srivastava. (2020) which highlighted that some mid- and high-elevation comparisons showed considerable differences in taxonomic richness, suggesting that communities may be structured by environmental thresholds rather than progressive gradients. According to Ferrari et al. (2016) the changes in abundance and community composition are more sensitive indicators of environmental change, the lack of widespread substantial alterations in richness shows that many macroinvertebrate taxa in pan wetlands are generally tolerant. This pattern align with our study is in line because we found that groundwater-fed wetlands, where assemblage structure and dominance patterns change in response to oxygen, nutrients, and hydroperiod, but richness stays constant across gradients.

Simpler assemblages with lower overall abundance but comparatively high dominance by a few taxa were found in high-altitude pans (>1200 m). Increases in Notostraca and certain insect taxa such as *Rhantus*, *Haliphus*, *Dixella*, and *Anax*. indicate adaptation to deeper, longer-lasting, and frequently lower-oxygen conditions, even though Anostraca remained predominant. Other wetland studies by (Schriever et al., 2014; Birrell et al., 2020; Obertegger et al., 2021) have documented decreased species richness at higher elevations, which is typically explained by lower

temperatures, less oxygen availability, and longer hydroperiods that exclude taxa adapted to ephemeral conditions.

The results show that Anostraca's were persistence across all elevation categories emphasizes the critical role that groundwater–dependent hydrology plays in preserving pan–wetland biodiversity this was because both transient and semi–permanent taxa can coexist throughout the landscape. These findings were consistent with those of Yihdego et al. (2017) who also found that wetlands, where groundwater connectivity increases resilience but also increases sensitivity to hydrological alteration. According to Deane (2018) study shows that the elevation–related shifts in macroinvertebrates community, changes in overall richness that provide a sensitive indicator of ecological change in groundwater–dependent wetlands. These findings align with this study because we also found that the importance of protecting natural groundwater regimes to maintain biodiversity and ecosystem functioning in transboundary pan wetland systems.

The ANOSIM results show that the macroinvertebrate communities in the Khakhea–Bray groundwater–dependent pan wetlands were mostly the same when looked at across the whole elevation gradient. We found that pans are strongly connected ecologically and share species pools. These findings were consistent with those of Leshaba (2023) their study found similarity in line with the fact that many generalists and disturbance–tolerant taxa are found in temporary wetland systems. According to Mpakairi. (2022) documented that pairwise disparities between the lowest and highest elevation sites, as well as between high and certain mid–elevation sites, found that community composition varies at elevational extremes. The finding aligns with Ramírez (2024), study because the found differences due to changes in hydroperiod, water depth, oxygen availability, and habitat stability, all of which are known to affect macroinvertebrate assemblages in pan and ephemeral wetlands. Similar study by Arts (2022) observed that other groundwater–influenced wetlands, where general compositional similarity conceals nuanced yet ecologically significant turnover along environmental gradients.

The SIMPER analysis revealed that both within–group similarity and between–group dissimilarity was predominantly influenced by a limited number of dominant taxa, especially Anostraca, which consistently represented the largest proportion of similarity and dissimilarity across all elevations.

The result of this study shows that high relative abundances of large branchiopods such as Anostraca, Spinicaudata, and Notostraca were found in low- and mid-elevation pans. According to Chertoprud (2024) study shows that these organisms have adapted to changing hydroperiods and in drying periods. The results show that high-elevation pans had more compositionally distinct communities. I also observed that they also had more aquatic insects and mollusks, such as *Halipлу*, *Dixella*, *Hydrocanthus* and *Gyraulus connollyi*. Some low-elevation taxa were missing. According to McDaniel. (2022) turnover in elevation suggests that while groundwater inputs make regions more similar, environmental factors at higher elevations create simpler but different groups of macroinvertebrates. The study results show that changes in dominance and relative abundance, rather than complete species replacement, are what cause macroinvertebrates to respond to changes in elevation in groundwater-dependent pan wetlands.

Macroinvertebrate metrics

Patterns of macroinvertebrate metrics across altitude classes show that elevation had a subtle rather than dominant effect on the community structure in the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer pan wetlands. Although taxa richness differed significantly among altitude classes, the overall ordination pattern indicated that elevation explained only a small proportion of the variation in macroinvertebrate community structure. The considerable overlap among elevation groups in the nMDS ordination suggests that a large proportion of community variation remained unexplained by altitude alone, likely reflecting the influence of other environmental variables such as hydroperiod stability, substrate composition, and water quality. Mean taxa richness remained relatively stable across elevations, exhibiting only a slight decrease at the highest altitudes (>1200 m). This indicates that regional species pools and dispersal mechanisms significantly influence assemblages throughout the landscape (Onditi et al., 2024; Leberg et al., 2024). The findings of the study are in contrast with findings from Rubin et al., (2024) they reported similar patterns that have been observed in other temporary and groundwater-dependent wetlands, where extensive environmental tolerances and significant dispersal capabilities of numerous taxa diminish pronounced richness gradients along elevation. This study uniquely demonstrates that in the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer pan wetlands, macroinvertebrate richness peaks at mid-elevations (1100–1149 m) where hydroperiod conditions allow coexistence of early-colonizing branchiopods and later-successional insect taxa. This suggests that hydroperiod dynamics rather

than elevation structure macroinvertebrate assemblages in these groundwater-dependent pan wetlands. We observed that there was a slightly higher richness at mid-elevations (1100m–1149m) this may be due to the harsh hydroperiod conditions, where pans hold water long enough to support both early-colonizing branchiopods and later-successional insect taxa without drying out or being stressed by the weather for too long (Keith et al., 2022; Dalu et a., 2025).

The findings of this study is that abundance of macroinvertebrates showed significant changes with altitude, reaching its highest point at mid-elevations and dropping off at both lower and higher altitudes. Increased abundances at 1100m–1149 m probably indicate good combinations of water permanence, productivity, and habitat stability. The findings of the study are in contrast with findings from Dolmans et al. (2025) who find that those conditions that are known to help ephemeral wetland invertebrates grow in number. Similar mid-elevation abundance peaks have been observed in African and semi-arid wetland ecosystems, where intermediate disturbance regimes optimize population size while accommodating disturbance-adapted taxa (Culp et al., 2022; Dorji., 2024; Granath et al., 2024). The lower numbers seen at higher elevations may be because of cooler temperatures, shorter hydroperiods, and lower primary productivity, which all make it harder for new plants to grow and survive (Dolabela et al., 2022). We also observed that the abundance of species varied, diversity indices and evenness stayed stable across all the elevations.

The notable disparities in taxa richness across elevation classes, especially between mid- and high-elevation bands, indicate nuanced environmental filtering along the elevational gradient. The findings of the study are in contrast with findings from Che et al. (2025), who reported that the lack of substantial differences in abundance, Simpson's diversity, Shannon–Wiener diversity, and evenness suggests that the overall organisation of the community remains largely consistent across elevations. Many studies (Lechêne et al., 2018; Coccia et al., 2021; Keith et al., 2025) have found that separation of richness from diversity metrics in temporary wetlands, where functional redundancy and shared life-history traits protect communities from changes in the environment. The results from Tukey posthoc analysis show that elevational thresholds between 1150m and 1200 m may be transitional zones where some taxa become less common or disappear altogether, rather than clear ecological boundaries.

The boosted regression tree (BRT) analysis from this study shows that spatial gradients, not local physicochemical variables, are what mostly shape the richness of macroinvertebrates in pan wetlands of the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer. I found that longitude was the most important factor, explaining (76.8%) of the variation in taxa richness. This pattern indicates that extensive landscape factors, including historical connectivity, dispersal mechanisms, or basin morphology, significantly affect community composition (Rampheri et al., 2023; Uroy et al., 2019). We observed that Altitude had a moderate effect (14.5 %) on richness, with higher elevations leading to more richness. This suggests that factors related to elevation, like hydrology or microclimate, are not the main factor that determine habitat suitability (Stark et al., 2022). The result shows that latitude had a smaller effect (8.6 %), with richness going up a little along the gradient. This suggests that communities are not very structured by latitude (Ren et al., 2018). The findings of this study do not strongly support those of Olmedo et al., (2021) who reported that water quality parameters such as pH, dissolved oxygen, and conductivity had minimal influence on macroinvertebrate communities (<0.1%), with fitted response curves remaining largely flat. In contrast, the present study suggests that environmental gradients may still contribute to shaping macroinvertebrate assemblages within the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer pan wetlands. From our results we observed that the water chemistry was either fairly uniform or within acceptable ranges for the macroinvertebrate taxa that were sampled. Correlation analyses corroborated these results, revealing weak and predominantly non-significant relationships among altitude, latitude, and diversity indices, with the exception of minor positive correlations between latitude and Shannon diversity and evenness (Burger., 2017; Alavaisha et al., 2019; Munyai et al., 2023b). This study results show that the diversity of macroinvertebrates in these pan wetlands is mostly affected by where they are in the landscape, with water quality having little effect these patterns show how important it is to think about factors on a regional scale when measuring biodiversity.

The nMDS ordination analysis shows that macroinvertebrate communities are not significantly differentiated by altitude in the study area. The significant overlap among elevation categories in ordination space indicates that the majority of taxa inhabit various altitudinal bands, underscoring the significance of regional connectivity, dispersal, and groundwater influence in shaping pan

wetland communities. The findings of the study are in contrast with findings from Jacobsen et al. (2020) and Devi et al (2020), because they found similar ordination patterns that have been documented in other groundwater-fed and temporary wetland systems, where localized environmental variability surpasses extensive topographic gradients. The absence of a distinct high-altitude assemblage suggests that elevation alone does not impose sufficiently robust environmental constraints to foster unique macroinvertebrate communities (Chaves et al., 2008). According to Fu et al. (2018) found that patterns we see are probably caused by small changes in relative abundance, hydroperiod length, and habitat conditions. Our results show that macroinvertebrate communities in the Khakhea-Bray pan wetlands are organized along a continuum rather than separate elevation zones because the elevation is one of the secondary factors that interacts with hydrology and local habitat conditions.

According to Nsor et al. (2020) who reported that spatial pattern indicates that spatial coordinate, serving as a proxy for underlying environmental gradients, significantly influences the composition of macroinvertebrate assemblages along the study transect. Similar longitudinal structuring has been observed in aquatic ecosystems where alterations in climatic conditions, hydrology, substrate composition, or land-use intensity manifest along east-west gradients (Shah et al., 2018; Mayfield., 2020; Valente-Neto et al., 2025). In many areas, longitudinal variation signifies alterations in moisture availability, productivity, or water permanence, all of which are essential determinants of macroinvertebrate diversity (Smith et al., 2017). We found that the diversity at the western sites may signify more stable or heterogeneous habitats that accommodate a broader range of ecological niches in contrast to the more environmentally restricted eastern sites.

Ecological mechanisms to longitudinal diversity gradients, the positive correlation between longitude and macroinvertebrate diversity identified in this study corresponds with the species habitat heterogeneity (Frainer et al., 2018; Dézerald et al., 2023; Scott et al., 2025). More complex habitats, better water quality, or less disturbance in the western part of the transect could make it easier for species to settle in and less likely for them to be excluded by competition, this would lead to more species richness and evenness (Brown et al., 2011; Tolonen, 2018). Similar research by Starr (2014) and Van Looy (2017), has shown that macroinvertebrate communities exhibit

significant responses to spatial gradients associated with hydrological connectivity and nutrient availability, which frequently fluctuate longitudinally across landscapes. The significant gradient observed from our study corroborates the perspective that spatial position, rather than plain geographic distance, is a principal factor influencing community assembly in freshwater invertebrates.

Absence of altitudinal impact on community structure, unlike longitude, altitude did not have a noticeable effect on species richness or Shannon diversity in this study. We observed that there was a very small range of elevations that were sampled (1–3 m level). Similar research by Hou et al. (2025) shown that altitude affects the diversity of macroinvertebrates mostly over wide elevation gradients where temperature, oxygen levels, and flow patterns change. According to Zaharescu et al. (2016) found that restricted altitudinal range, environmental conditions are probably quite uniform, leaving little room for altitudinal variation in community structure. We observed that the lack of an altitudinal signal in this study indicates methodological and geographical limitations rather than the ecological irrelevance of elevation itself.

We found that the latitude is often linked to extensive biodiversity patterns, such as the well-established latitudinal diversity gradient, this study was not intended to evaluate these effects. The sampling was confined to a limited latitudinal range (approximately -25.0° to -25.1° S), thereby maintaining latitude at a constant level, no significant latitudinal trends in macroinvertebrate diversity were detected. This result aligns with Milner et al. (2023) and Heino et al. (2013) study because they reported that other fine-scale investigations that indicate minimal or non-existent latitudinal effects when geographic extent is constrained. The results from the study show that the absence of a latitudinal signal substantiates has led us to conclusion that the observed variation in diversity is predominantly influenced by longitudinal differences rather than extensive biogeographic gradients.

We found that the pronounced longitudinal structuring of macroinvertebrate diversity identified in this study emphasizes the necessity of incorporating spatial gradients in the evaluation of freshwater biodiversity (Schmera et al., 2017). Macroinvertebrates are extensively utilized as bioindicators of ecosystem health, and the findings indicate that longitudinal position must be

explicitly integrated into monitoring and conservation strategies (Assie et al., 2014; Heino et al., 2015). The findings of the study differ with findings from Yirigui et al. (2019) because they reported that regional and global assessments of freshwater biodiversity have made similar suggestions, stressing how the spatial context affects biological communities.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS



Picture 6. Some fairy shrimp swimming and feeding the pan wetland. Photo by Busisiwe Gumede.

The aim of the study is to quantify how biodiversity and community structure vary across the landscape, identify key environmental controls, and assess the degree to which spatial and transboundary factors shape ecological patterns. These insights are essential for informing conservation planning and long-term monitoring of groundwater-linked surface ecosystems in this shared aquifer system. In this study, I evaluated water nutrients, environmental variables and diversity of macroinvertebrates in relation to anthropogenic wetlands activities that may be taking place in the Khakhea-Bray TBA in South Africa. This study shows that macroinvertebrate diversity and community structure in groundwater-dependent pan wetlands of the Khakhea-Bray Transboundary Aquifer are strongly influenced by altitudinal gradients through their effects on physicochemical conditions, morphometry, and nutrient dynamics. In line with the first hypothesis, therefore hypothesis one was supported, the study results indicated that altitude is not a direct ecological driver, it integrates multiple interacting environmental variables that collectively shape habitat suitability and temporal variability in these systems. The study results show that the macroinvertebrate community similarity declines with increasing geographic distance between pans, indicating spatial autocorrelation and limited connectivity Therefore second hypothesis was supported, Harsh environmental conditions and reduced habitat heterogeneity at high elevations and they were limited niche availability and favour fewer, more specialised taxa, therefore hypothesis three is rejected. This study shows that community composition from the results differ significantly among elevation bands, with high-elevation assemblages being distinct from low- and mid-elevation communities and environmental filtering selected for cold-adapted, resilient taxa at higher elevations, while lower elevations support more diverse and temperature-sensitive species, therefore hypothesis four was supported.

Overall synthesis of findings

This study was to assess macroinvertebrate diversity, community structure, and temporal variability in groundwater-dependent pan wetlands within the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer (TBA), with particular emphasis on environmental controls, spatial drivers, and transboundary ecological dynamics. The findings demonstrate that macroinvertebrate assemblages in these wetlands are shaped by a complex interplay of hydrological stability, physicochemical conditions, and landscape scale spatial gradients rather than by altitude as a single, direct ecological driver. Across the study area, pan wetlands supported diverse macroinvertebrate communities dominated by taxa adapted to hydroperiod variability and groundwater influence. Elevation emerged as an integrative variable that reflects changes in hydroperiod length, water depth, oxygen availability, and nutrient dynamics, rather than acting as an independent determinant of biodiversity (Sgarzi et al., 2025; Taurozzi and Scalici, 2026). This supports the view that groundwater-linked surface ecosystems operate as coupled systems in which biological responses are governed by indirect environmental filtering processes (Bjerring et al., 2013; Barba et al., 2019). The study further revealed that spatial structuring, particularly along a longitudinal gradient, played a more influential role in shaping macroinvertebrate diversity than local water chemistry alone. Community similarity declined with increasing geographic distance, highlighting limited connectivity among pans and reinforcing the importance of dispersal constraints and spatial autocorrelation in this semi-arid landscape. These findings underscore the need to interpret biodiversity patterns in groundwater-dependent wetlands within a multi-scale framework that integrates local habitat conditions with broader landscape processes.

Environmental drivers of macroinvertebrate communities

Physicochemical conditions across the Khakhea–Bray pan wetlands were generally consistent with groundwater influence, particularly neutral to alkaline pH conditions associated with carbonate-rich geology. However, variability in dissolved oxygen, redox conditions, nutrient concentrations, and water depth exerted strong indirect controls on macroinvertebrate assemblages (Majdi et al., 2016; Michael, 2024). Mid-elevation pans consistently supported higher macroinvertebrate abundance and more balanced community structures, reflecting optimal combinations of hydroperiod stability, nutrient availability, and habitat heterogeneity. These systems appear to function as ecological transition zones where both disturbance-tolerant taxa and

species with longer developmental requirements can coexist (Jentsch et al., 2022). In contrast, low-elevation pans were characterised by high environmental variability and episodic disturbance, favouring opportunistic and fast-colonising taxa, while high-elevation pans supported simpler but more stable assemblages dominated by taxa adapted to deeper, longer-lasting, and frequently low-oxygen conditions (Chong et al., 2013; Villarreal and Coronato, 2017). Importantly, the relative stability of diversity indices across elevation classes indicates that changes in community structure were driven primarily by shifts in dominance and relative abundance rather than wholesale species loss. This suggests a degree of functional redundancy within macroinvertebrate communities, which may confer resilience to moderate environmental fluctuations but also masks early ecological degradation if assessments rely solely on richness-based metrics (Brandl et al., 2016; Worischka et al., 2023).

Macroinvertebrate community structure and functional patterns

Macroinvertebrate assemblages across the Khakhea–Bray pan wetlands exhibited clear compositional difference along elevation-linked and hydrological gradients, despite sharing a common regional species pool. Large branchiopods were a defining feature across all elevation classes, reflecting the ecological importance of temporary and semi-permanent hydroperiods in shaping wetland biodiversity within the TBA (Mabidi and Perissinotto, 2017). Their persistence across the landscape highlights the buffering role of groundwater inputs, which allow both transient and longer-lived taxa to coexist within these systems (Alfonso et al., 2016; McLean et al., 2020). At lower elevations, communities were dominated by taxa adapted to frequent drying and rapid environmental change, whereas mid-elevation pans supported the highest compositional complexity, with a diverse mix of aquatic insects, molluscs, and branchiopods (MacLeod, 2013; Sarkar, 2023). High-elevation pans, although less taxonomically rich, supported distinct assemblages characterised by oxygen-tolerant and cold-adapted taxa, indicating strong environmental filtering under more stable but restrictive conditions (Schaefer et al., 2016). Multivariate analyses confirmed that while elevation alone did not create discrete ecological zones, subtle but ecologically meaningful shifts in community organisation occurred along environmental continua (Cordeiro et al., 2023; Niculita-Hirzel et al., 2024). These shifts were primarily reflected in dominance patterns rather than in overall richness or diversity indices, reinforcing the

importance of abundance-based and compositional metrics in the assessment of groundwater-dependent wetlands (Salazar Flórez et al., 2025).

Spatial and transboundary patterns

One of the most significant findings of this study is the pronounced longitudinal structuring of macroinvertebrate diversity across the Khakhea–Bray TBA. Species richness and Shannon–Wiener diversity increased from east to west, indicating that spatial position within the landscape exerts a stronger influence on community assembly than altitude or latitude within the limited gradients sampled (Derartu, 2023; Gabriel et al., 2025). The decline in community similarity with increasing geographic distance between pans provides clear evidence of spatial autocorrelation and limited connectivity, particularly relevant in a transboundary context (Peng et al., 2024). Although groundwater connectivity enhances hydrological stability, it does not necessarily translate into biological connectivity for macroinvertebrates, many of which rely on passive dispersal mechanisms (Sarremejane et al., 2022; Land and Peters., 2023) These findings emphasise that pan wetlands within the Khakhea–Bray TBA should not be viewed as ecologically uniform units, but rather as spatially structured systems requiring coordinated management across national boundaries. The absence of strong latitudinal and altitudinal signals further indicates that biodiversity patterns in this system are driven more by landscape-scale spatial organisation than by classical biogeographic gradients (Stevens et al., 2019; Mikryukov et al., 2023; García-Beltrán, et al., 2025). This highlights the importance of incorporating spatial context into monitoring programmes and conservation planning for transboundary aquifer-dependent ecosystems (Msesane et al., 2025).

Implications for conservation and management

The results of this study have important implications for the conservation of groundwater-dependent pan wetlands in semi-arid regions. The sensitivity of macroinvertebrate communities to changes in hydroperiod stability, oxygen availability, and nutrient dynamics underscores the vulnerability of these systems to groundwater abstraction, land-use change, and climate variability (Chiloane et al., 2022; Rampheri et al., 2023). Mid-elevation pans, in particular, emerge as biodiversity hotspots that warrant priority protection due to their high abundance, compositional complexity, and functional importance (Kidane et al., 2022). Given that biodiversity responses

were more strongly linked to spatial gradients than to local water chemistry, conservation strategies should move beyond site-specific assessments and adopt landscape-scale approaches (Morris et al., 2019; Graziano et al., 2022). Protecting hydrological connectivity, maintaining natural groundwater regimes, and limiting cumulative impacts across the transboundary aquifer are essential for sustaining ecosystem functioning and resilience (Maass-Morales et al., 2024; Sabzevari and Eslamian, 2026).

The finding highlights the need for coordinated conservation and management strategies for groundwater-dependent pan wetland in the Khakhea-Bray Transboundary Aquifer. To keep hydroperiod stability, coordinated transboundary governance should enforce limits on sustainable groundwater abstraction (Loucks and Van Beek, 2017; Golovina et al., 2021). Mid-elevation pans should be prioritized for protection because they are home to a lot of different species and are important for the environment (Kafle et al., 2020; Jaiswal and Jayakumar, 2024). Biodiversity monitoring programs ought to integrate spatial gradients, especially longitudinal patterns, and prioritize macroinvertebrate community composition and abundance as sensitive indicators of environmental change (Van Looy et al., 2017; Mureithi et al., 2025). Future research should focus on long-term, multi-seasonal monitoring, functional and trait-based assessments, and integrated hydrological-ecological studies. Such approaches will improve understanding of landscape connectivity, ecosystem resilience, and biodiversity dynamics within groundwater-dependent pan wetland systems.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study demonstrates that macroinvertebrate diversity and community structure in groundwater-dependent pan wetlands of the Khakhea–Bray Transboundary Aquifer are shaped by interacting environmental and spatial covariance operating across multiple scales. Elevation functions as an indirect integrator of hydrological and physicochemical conditions, while spatial position within the landscape exerts a dominant influence on biodiversity patterns. These findings highlight the ecological significance of pan wetlands as dynamic, groundwater-linked ecosystems and reinforce the urgent need for integrated, transboundary management to safeguard their biodiversity and ecosystem services under increasing environmental pressure.

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