| 1 | Meta-community processes supersede leaf subsidy effects on lake aquatic communities |
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20 Abstract

21 There is a growing consensus that cross-ecosystem fluxes significantly influence the structure 22 and stability of aquatic communities. What remains unclear, however, is the relative importance 23 and potential interactions of those fluxes to/with other well-studied factors affecting aquatic 24 community structure such as local environmental parameters or regional-scale influences related 25 to connectivity or habitat size. In this study we compare those different hypotheses by 26 investigating their individual and combined influence on the functional structure of littoral 27 benthic invertebrates' communities in 7 temperate Canadian lakes (total of 23 sites) located in a 28 semi-protected area. At each site, we sampled macro-invertebrates, we measured C, N, P content 29 of both benthic litter and terrestrial leaves, and we recorded several standard local (pH, dissolved 30 oxygen, turbidity, conductivity, temperature) and regional -scale (perimeter to area ratio, lake 31 connectivity) parameters. We then used a combination of model selection and ordination 32 approaches to disentangle the relative importance of local, regional, and cross-ecosystem factors 33 and their interactions. When considered alone, we found that local factors related to water quality 34 performed best at explaining variations macro-invertebrate community structure. When in combinations, models with both water quality and regional scale variables related to connectivity 35 36 performed best. However, some functional groups like predator abundances were well correlated 37 to C:N and N:P ratio in sediments (of terrestrial origin). Overall, those results suggest that if 38 stoichiometry (i.e. nutritional quality) of particulate terrestrial subsidies can have some effects 39 on lake benthic communities, local and regional factors still dominate in explaining invertebrate 40 biodiversity patterns, at least in lakes without steep human land-use gradients. Closing 41 knowledge gaps on cross-ecosystem subsidy effects is important to improve our understanding of 42 how communities and functioning may change under human and/or climate driven changes in 43 watersheds.

44 Introduction

45 It is becoming increasingly apparent that ecological systems, even distant ones, are linked to one another through a wide range of fluxes (Gounand et al. 2018; McCann et al. 2021; Polis, 46 47 Anderson, and Holt 1997). From atmospheric deposition of particles, organic and inorganic 48 nutrient diffusion to long range animal migrations, these exchanges of energy, matter and 49 organisms mean that changes in a single system may propagate to adjacent systems (Gravel et al. 50 2010; Harvey, Gounand, Little, et al. 2017; McCann et al. 2021). Whether reciprocal, 51 unidirectional, regular, asynchronous or asymmetric, these energy transfers can be major drivers 52 of ecosystem function for the receiving systems (Gounand et al. 2020; Marcarelli et al. 2011; 53 Richardson et Sato 2015; Yang et al. 2008). The meta-ecosystem framework is increasingly 54 adopted by ecologists for its capacity to bridge important gaps in our understanding of the 55 regulation of biodiversity and ecosystem function in space (Gounand, Harvey, Little, et al. 2017; 56 Richardson et Sato 2015). However, many challenges remain in the application of those frameworks (Gounand, Harvey, Little, et al. 2017). Among those challenges, it is still unclear 57 how important those cross-ecosystem exchanges are relative to other well-studied local and 58 59 regional drivers of community structure. Past studies on meta-communities have focused on the 60 relative importance of local (abiotic factors) versus regional (dispersal constraints) drivers 61 among same type habitats (i.e., aquatic to aquatic, terrestrial to terrestrial, Gounand et al., 2017), 62 while cross-ecosystem subsidy research has focused solely on isolating the effect of specific 63 sources of subsidy among different habitat types (e.g., aquatic-terrestrial, for a review see 64 Richardson & Sato, 2015). However, the ecological significance of cross-ecosystem subsidy is 65 likely contingent on local and regional conditions (Collins et al. 2016; Zhang et Richardson

2011). Thus, developing an integrative understanding of when cross-ecosystem subsidies are
ecologically relevant and by how much is essential to eventually predict how alterations to those
pulse dynamics (via human-induced perturbations such as harvesting, mining or climate change (Harvey, Gounand, Ward, et al. 2017) will propagate across ecosystem boundaries.

70 Freshwater ecosystems such as lakes are especially relevant to address those questions 71 given the extensive amount of research previously done on the relative importance of local 72 environmental filtering and regional scale factors in driving biodiversity patterns (for a review 73 see Heino et al., 2021). Interestingly, despite past pioneer studies showing that coarse terrestrial 74 carbon sources (leaf falls) could constitute a significant part of lake metabolism (France et Peters 1995; Gasith et Hosier 1976) and trophic energetic pathways (Cole et al. 2006; Scharnweber et 75 76 al. 2014), a lot of the work on cross-ecosystem subsidy (excluding dissolved organic carbon, see 77 Prairie, 2008) have focused on river ecosystems (Richardson et Sato 2015). Thus, there is a clear 78 gap in our understanding of how sensitive lakes are to particulate cross-ecosystem subsidy 79 (compared to rivers) and of how important those cross-ecosystem fluxes are relative to local and 80 regional drivers. This knowledge is necessary to develop an accurate "meta-system" view of lake 81 ecosystems (sensu Heino et al., 2021). Known for their sensibility to local abiotic factors, 82 freshwater benthic macro-invertebrates are often used as proxies of water quality as their 83 diversity and richness is linked to pH, dissolved oxygen saturation and other physico-chemical processes (Heino 2005; Jacobsen 2008). These organisms are also in close contact with terrestrial 84 85 particulate organic matter (e.g. leaf litter) in aquatic systems and are key to the decomposition, 86 recycling and integration of terrestrial carbon (Wetzel 2001), making them a suitable focal group 87 for investigating terrestrial to aquatic linkages.

From an applied perspective, human activities such as logging or farming are modifying 88 the exports of matter and energy from the terrestrial system to the aquatic system (Canham et al. 89 90 2004; Little et Altermatt 2018) and we know that these subsidies can modify community stability 91 and productivity in streams (Wallace et al. 1997). Freshwater systems receive large quantities of 92 low-quality subsidies from their terrestrial matrix, as dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and (to a 93 lesser extent) as fallen leaves when in forested area. This important import of carbon drives up 94 microbial production and ecosystem respiration rate (Marcarelli et al. 2011). Beyond purely 95 quantitative effects, it has been proposed that the stoichiometry (i.e. nutritional value) of 96 subsidies may also be an important factor in community structure and ecosystem functions 97 (Bartels et al. 2012; Marcarelli et al. 2011; Sitters et al. 2015). While terrestrial carbon subsidies 98 tend to push freshwater systems toward heterotrophy, it is unclear if the stoichiometry (or 99 nutritive value) of allochthonous materials varies enough naturally to drive difference in 100 community structure. It is likely that context-dependency in subsidy effects is caused by 101 interactions occurring among factors acting at different scales (water quality and/or subsidy 102 quality and/or spatial variables).

103 With this study, we aimed to untangle the effects of leaf subsidy quality (i.e. 104 stoichiometric ratio of C, N and P) on community structure of lake littoral benthic invertebrates, 105 its relative importance and its potential interactions with other factors such as environmental 106 parameters, spatial connectivity, or habitat size. To achieve this, we compared models based on 107 the competing hypotheses that A) subsidy quality drives community structure (classic 'cross-108 ecosystem subsidy' perspective), B) water quality drives community structure (local drivers), C) 109 spatial parameters (regional drivers) drive community structure. We tested those competing 110 views alone and in combination. Subsidy quality was characterized as sediment stock and leaf

111 subsidy C:N and N:P ratios; water quality metrics included pH, Oxido-reduction potential 112 (ORP), specific conductance, turbidity, and dissolved oxygen (DO); spatial parameters 113 considered were perimeter to area ratio as a proxy of land to water linkages and lake connectivity 114 within the watershed. Thus, our study integrates both cross-ecosystem subsidy and meta-115 community perspectives, which are usually studied independently (Gounand, Harvey, Little, et 116 al. 2017) into a more explicit meta-ecosystem view. Based on the limited evidence available on 117 the effect of particulate subsidy in lake ecosystems (France et Peters 1995; Gasith et Hosier 118 1976; Scharnweber et al. 2014), we expected that local and regional drivers would dominate, but 119 that the inclusion of subsidy stoichiometry would significantly enhance the models and that 120 higher nutritional value would lead to higher richness and diversity.

121

122 Methods

123 Site Location and Selection:

124 The sampling for this project was done at the University of Montreal's research station in 125 the meridional Laurentians mountains, approximately 75 kilometers north-west of Montreal. 126 Sampling was done in 7 lakes with low human influence (mostly from research projects), during 127 the spring (May) and summer (July) of 2021. During each campaign, 23 sites were sampled with 128 20 sites repeating in both sampling campaigns. Three sites sampled in spring were abandoned 129 and replaced because of logistical difficulties. Prior to sampling, the area and perimeter of all 130 lakes were measured using satellite imagery and Google Earth Pro (Google, LLC). To determine 131 sampling effort, lakes were binned together based on their perimeter. Four size categories were

generated. Smallest lakes were sampled at 2 different locations with larger lakes being sampled
up to 5 times. Perimeter was chosen over area as a measure of size due to its closer relation to
terrestrial subsidies and littoral habitats.

135 Sampling:

136 Sampling of invertebrates was based on the Ontario Benthos Biomonitoring Network's 137 protocol (Jones et al. 2007). At every site, invertebrates were sampled in three 1.25m transects 138 perpendicular to shoreline, using a rectangle 500 micrometer mesh hand-held net with a 139 collection cup. Material captured by the net was transferred into sieves (2mm, 1mm and 0.5mm) 140 and abundantly rinsed with water. Material caught by the wider mesh sieve (>2mm) was sorted 141 on site using a white tray to increase contrast. Sorted invertebrates were preserved in 95% 142 ethanol and stored in cool and dark containers. The remaining coarse material (i.e. coarse 143 sediments sorted from the larger invertebrates) was kept in sealed plastic bags for stoichiometry 144 analyses, some of these samples were sub-sampled as material volume was too big. The 145 remainder of the net samples (0.5mm < 2mm, unsorted) were preserved in 95% ethanol, in a 1L 146 container to be sorted later.

For each site, measures of water quality (i.e. pH, turbidity, conductivity, temperature
ORP and dissolved oxygen) were taken using a YSI ProDSS handheld multiparameter probe
(YSI Inc/Xylem Inc.). Three measures were taken at every site and averaged.

Each site was revisited in the Fall, after leaf fall, to sample fallen leaves. Three 0.25m² quadrats were deposited in the water upon arrival on site, on top of the collection transects, and leaves within the quadrats were collected and stored in sealed plastic bags. Only recognizable leaves were collected as we presumed these were only recently fallen onto the sites.

154 **Processing samples:**

155 The fine material (< 2mm) that was collected by the net was sorted using a stereoscopic 156 microscope. The volume of material varied a lot ranging from around 200mL to over 1L. The 157 sorting was limited to 150mL (randomly collected from the 1L container) for each site, to keep 158 the task manageable while reducing size bias in the sample. Identification of invertebrates was 159 done using An Introduction to the Aquatic insects of North America (Merritt, Cummins, et Berg 160 2009) and Guide d'identification des principaux macroinvertébrés benthiques d'eaux douces du 161 Québec (Moisan 2010), as well as online resources such as www.macroinvertebrates.org for 162 images and additional information on groups. Individuals were identified at the family level, 163 except for Annelids that were identified at the phylum. The resulting dataset includes about 19 164 000 organisms divided into 79 taxonomic groups. We attributed each taxonomic group to one of 165 seven functional groups (i.e. filterers, gatherers, macrophyte piercers, parasites, predators, 166 scrapers and shredders) based on Merritt, Cummins and Berg 's grouping from An Introduction 167 to the Aquatic insects of North America, with Annelids being ignored because of the higher 168 degree of incertitude concerning their identification.

169 Stoichiometry:

To measure spatial variation in the quality of terrestrial subsidy, carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus content were extracted from i) coarse material sampled with the collection net (littoral sediment) and ii) leaves collected in the Fall. The coarse material sampled with the net served as a proxy of terrestrial (CN ratios all higher than 15; Ishiwatari & Uzaki, 1987; Prahl et al., 1994) resource stocks in the littoral zone, while freshly fallen leaves represented the yearly pulse of terrestrial resources. 176 Coarse (>2mm) material sorted on site was shredded before being freeze-dried and
177 ground to a fine powder. Collected leaves were identified to the genus level (when possible) and
178 dried in an oven at 40 Celsius for 12 hours. Dried leaves were then weighed before being
179 grinded.

180 Carbon and Nitrogen content were measured by gas chromatography and electro-thermal
181 detection using a Thermo Fisons EA1108 elemental analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific, U.S.A).

182 Concentration of phosphorus was measured using a colorimetry method (Murphy et Riley
183 1962) on a solution of digested material (Wilson, Braithwaite, et Brian Pyatt 2005). Analysis was
184 conducted using Environment Canada's TH-2 Standard for phosphorus, with an average
185 extraction efficiency of 88.6% ±0.73%.

186 Data analysis:

187 *db-RDA Models*

188 To untangle the effects of subsidy stoichiometry on spatial variations in community 189 structure, we built several multivariate models to compare their fit. Explanatory variables were 190 split into four categories. Each category was based on a generic hypothesis concerning 191 determination of community structure. The first category included variables relating to the 192 stoichiometry of the collected material (first hypothesis; cross-ecosystem subsidy), it included: 193 C:N ratio of sediments, N:P ratio of sediments, C:N ratio of leaf subsidy, N:P ratio of leaf 194 subsidy. The second category included variables relating to water quality (second main 195 hypothesis; local parameters) captured by the multiparameter probe, it included : specific 196 conductance (μ S/cm), turbidity (FNU), pH, oxidation-reduction potential (ORP, mV), optical

197 dissolved oxygen (ODO, mg/L). Category 3 (perimeter to area ratio) and 4 (lake degree 198 connectivity) represented our third main hypothesis (spatial drivers) but they were split for 199 conceptual clarity because they represent different spatial processes. Perimeter to area ratio is a 200 proxy for lateral connectivity with the terrestrial matrix and relates to inputs of dissolved organic 201 carbon from the watershed. Lake degree connectivity represents longitudinal connectivity among 202 lakes and thus represents limitations in the exchange of organisms (dispersal) and matter. All 203 possible combinations of one, two, three or all four categories were tested (n=15). All models 204 included sampling season (Spring or Summer) to factor in the effect of time on community variations. All 15 models were compared using adjusted-R². Unlike with linear models, an 205 206 Akaike Information Criterion score cannot be calculated on multivariate models. However, similarly to AIC, adjusted- R^2 imposes a penalty on each variable addition. Models were 207 208 constructed using *vegan*'s *capscale()* function (Oksanen et al. 2022). A Hellinger transformation 209 was applied to community data and explanatory variables were scaled and centered around 210 means to make variables of different scales and units comparable. We used a bray-curtis 211 dissimilarity to emphasize changes in community composition and relative abundances 212 (Anderson et al. 2011). Ordination of these db-RDA models were done with weighted-average 213 scores because these scores are less sensitive to environmental noises (Oksanen 2020) and 214 scaling 2 was used to illustrate correlation between variables/vectors (Legendre and Legendre 215 2012).

216 Linear Models

Using the same methodology to construct models, we compared 15 linear models of
species richness and Shannon-Wiener diversity index based on their AIC scores. We included a
null linear model to this comparison.

220 Simple Regressions

To further investigate apparent correlations shown by the db-RDA ordination, we constructed simple linear regressions of vectors that had similar direction (angles between vectors reflect correlation in ordination scaling 2 (Legendre & Legendre, 2012).

224

225 Results

226 Our primary objective was to disentangle the relative influence of meta-ecosystem (i.e. 227 cross-ecosystem subsidy) and meta-community (i.e. local and regional) drivers on community 228 structure and biodiversity. The results from our multivariate model comparison indicated that the 229 model including all parameters was the best and most parsimonious at explaining variations in community structure (adj.- R^2 = 0.644, see Table 1). When looking at one-way models, the model 230 including only variables related to local water quality performed the best (adj.- $R^2 = 0.330$, which 231 232 corresponds to more than half of the explained variance by the full model). Among the different 233 model comparisons, any models combining local water quality and regional connectivity 234 variables performed better than models excluding either (Table 1). Models with terrestrial 235 subsidy attributes explained less community variation than other models, except when in 236 combination with water quality and connectivity metrics. Our results showed evidence of interactions among parameter sets. For instance, the $adj.-R^2$ of the two-way models including 237 238 water quality and terrestrial subsidy stoichiometric variables did not correspond to the sum of the 239 corresponding one-way models, suggesting that the effect of terrestrial subsidy varies depending 240 on local water quality attributes (Table 1).

241

242 Figure 1 presents the ordination for the best model, combining all variables. Overall, a 243 centroid-to-centroid permutation analysis revealed that lakes differed significantly in functional 244 group composition (F=4.2196, p-value=0.0001), but had similar intra-group variance (no 245 difference in beta-diversity, F=1.1592, p-value=0.3494). A marginal test of significance on the 246 db-RDA (at p=0.05) identified perimeter to area ratio, lake connectivity, specific conductance, 247 turbidity and sediments N:P ratio to be the most important variables to the model. The ordination 248 showed several apparent correlations between functional groups abundance and explanatory 249 variables that we further tested with linear regression analyses. Among these, scrapers abundance increased with increasing specific conductance ($R^2=0.48$, Figure 2); predator abundance declined 250 with higher C:N ratios ($R^2=0.29$, Figure 2, middle panel); and gatherer abundance declined with 251 increasing pH (R^2 =0.24, Figure 2 bottom panel). Phosphorus concentrations were excluded from 252 253 the db-RDA analysis due to collinearity concerns, but nonetheless it had significant influences on 254 some functional group abundances. Notably its concentration in sediments was positively correlated to predator abundance ($R^2=0.44$) and shredder abundance ($R^2=0.12$). Interestingly its 255 256 concentration in sediments (positive relation, $R^2=0.3$) and leaves (negative relation, $R^2=0.11$) had 257 opposite effects on gatherer abundance (see Appendix S1, Figure S1).

258

All linear models of macro-invertebrate species richness (range = 6 to 26 species) scored similarly or above the null model. (as expressed by AICc, see Table 1). Therefore, none of the considered variables seemed to have any effect on species richness. On the other hand, variation of diversity indexes (range = 0 :4.37, the latter being the theoretical maximum since 79 taxonomic groups were considered) was best explained by a two-way model. The best model combined water quality related factors and lateral connectivity (perimeter to area ratio). Adding

stoichiometry of terrestrial subsidies did not enhance the model fit. Analysis of variance showedperimeter to area ratio, turbidity and pH be the significant terms.

267

268 Discussion

269 Our main objective was to disentangle the relative influence of cross-ecosystem subsidy 270 and meta-community related drivers on lake macroinvertebrates community structure and 271 biodiversity. Comparison of multivariate models showed that, when considered separately, local 272 water quality best predicted macro-invertebrate community structure. Nutritional quality of 273 subsidies and spatial variables, on their own, explained significantly less variation. However, 274 adding among-lake connectivity to water quality led to an important gain in explanatory power (adj.-R² of 0.470 vs. 0.330), suggesting that longitudinal connectivity can interact with local 275 276 water quality in driving benthic community structure. The addition of both spatial variables 277 (longitudinal and lateral connectivity) leads to an even greater gain in explanatory power (adj.-278 $R^2=0.533$). The inclusion of terrestrial material nutritional quality in the models did increase 279 predictive power marginally (adj.-R2=0.354 vs. adj.-R2=0.330). Nutritional quality of leaf 280 subsidy does seem to affect species abundances and community structure to some degree, but the 281 increase in predictive power is especially important when also including longitudinal connectivity (adj.- R^2 =0.567). The complete model, including all variables, scored the highest 282 283 adjusted- R^2 (0.644). Marginal testing of its variables indicates that among-lake connectivity 284 (longitudinal connectivity) and lake perimeter to area ratio (lateral connectivity) were among the 285 most important variables. These regional factors scored lowest when considered alone, but this 286 result underlines the interacting influence of spatial drivers on local ones and highlights the

importance of considering space in studying communities (and meta-communities), andespecially their interacting influence.

289 The ordination of the best model showed interesting correlation between specific 290 functional group abundances and variables relating to nutritional quality, local and regional 291 drivers. Specifically, the abundance of scrapers was correlated with water conductance (simple linear regression with a R^2 of 0.48, see Figure 2), which is probably related to the presence of 292 293 calcium (Ca, among other ions) necessary to snails (the most abundant scraper organisms) for 294 their shells. The abundance of predators was negatively correlated to the C:N and N:P ratio of sediments (a proxy of subsidy accumulation) ($R^2 = 0.29$ and 0.25 respectively, see Figure 2), but 295 positively correlated to phosphorus concentration ($R^2=0.44$, see Appendix). This is interesting 296 297 because predators do not feed directly off this material, therefore this supports the idea that 298 terrestrial subsidy quality can drive bottom-up trophic cascades (Bartels et al. 2012; Polis et 299 Strong 1996). Results also show that gatherer abundances were negatively associated with pH $(R^2=0.24, \text{ see Figure 2})$ and concentration of phosphorus in leaves (fresh subsidy, $R^2=0.11$, see 300 Appendix), but positively associated with phosphorus concentration in sediments ($R^2=0.3$, see 301 302 Appendix). This result could suggest that fresh material does not follow the same energy 303 pathway as sediment material. It would be in line with a recent study showing that initial 304 phosphorus excretion in leaf subsidy mainly feeds the plankton loop (Hirama et al. 2022). 305 Shredder abundances were negatively associated with phosphorus content of sediments 306 $(R^2=0.12)$, see Appendix). Overall, our results suggest that subsidy nutritional quality influences 307 the structure of the community by affecting the abundance of specific functional groups. Our 308 study was done in a relatively homogeneous protected area representing a sort of baseline 309 variation and effects of leaf subsidy on communities. Those influences on specific functional

groups suggest that perturbations leading to abrupt changes in subsidy quality could potentiallylead to more noticeable changes in community structure.

312 The comparison of linear models of diversity index also shows that water quality and 313 spatial parameters seem of great importance. The best fit (as suggested by AICc) was obtained 314 with the model combining water quality metrics with lateral connectivity. Contrary to our initial 315 hypothesis, we found no relation to species richness and therefore variation in diversity index 316 score seems mostly driven by changes in evenness. As with the multivariate models, the 317 exclusion of local water quality metric significantly lowers model fit. Although regional drivers 318 and to some extent terrestrial subsidy nutritional quality can modify community structure, these 319 results suggest that local drivers are essential to the determination of community.

320 Our results indicate that natural variation of leaf subsidies stoichiometry is not big enough 321 to drive major differences in macroinvertebrate community structure, in lakes. While terrestrial 322 subsidy nutritional quality did appear to impact community structure as it was correlated to some 323 groups' abundance and increased predictive power of db-RDA models of community structure, 324 the effect of local water quality and spatial connectivity (lateral or longitudinal) supersedes the 325 influence of terrestrial particulate organic matter stoichiometry. Possibly, insects' dispersion and 326 colonization occur independently from ecosystems subsidy dynamics, and therefore terrestrial 327 leaf nutritional quality would influence communities only after their initial establishment from 328 egg deposition. Hence it appears to modulate groups' abundance and community structure mostly 329 through evenness. All sites were adjacent to forested shorelines and within watersheds 330 dominated by forest cover. Therefore, none of the variation is linked to changes in land-usage. 331 Introduction or exclusion of new tree species through species distribution shifts northwards 332 (Chen et al. 2011) or human intervention may lead to greater variation in riparian plant

333 communities. Whether this would lead to greater variation in benthic communities would need to 334 be investigated, but the results showed here suggest it could be the case. This also has implications for restoration projects targeting riparian habitats, as it suggests the choice of plants 335 336 used to revegetate will impact functional groups of benthic communities adjacent to these sites. 337 Overall, our results illustrate well the need for more empirical tests of the meta-ecosystem 338 concept and the potential context-dependency of cross-ecosystem subsidy effects on community 339 structure and functioning. This is essential to developing an integrative biodiversity and 340 ecosystem function management framework at landscape extent.

341

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Authors contributions 347

348 GEH and EH designed the research project, GEH conducted the field work, conducted data 349 processing and statistical analyses with support from EH and wrote the first draft of the 350

manuscript. Both authors contributed to further manuscript revisions.

352 Conflict of interest statement

353 Authors do not have any conflict of interest to declare.

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| | |

490 Tables

- 491 **Table 1: Comparison of multivariate and linear models.** Comparison is based either on their Adjusted-R² or their second order
- 492 Akaike Information Criterion Score. For all three model types, the better model's score is framed by a black box.

| Models | Comparative Criteria | 0.Null | 1.Terrestrial | 2. Water Quality | 3.Lateral Connectivity | 4.Longitudinal Connectivity | 5.Terrestrial + Water | 6.Terrestrial + Lat. Co | 7.Terrestrial + Lon. Co. | 8.Water + Lat. Co. | 9.Water + Lon. Co. | 10.Lat. Con. + Lon. Co. | 11.Terr. + Water + Lat. Co. | 12.Terr. + Water + Lon. Co. | 13.Terr. + Lat. Co. +Lon. Co. | 14.Water + Lat. Co. +Lon. Co. | 15.Complete |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|--------|---------------|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------|
| db-RDA, Funct.Gps. | R ² - ajd. | NA | 0.140 | 0.330 | 0.059 | 0.123 | 0.354 | 0.161 | 0.304 | 0.345 | 0.470 | 0.179 | 0.385 | 0.567 | 0.351 | 0.533 | 0.644 |
| Linear, Richness | AICc | 243.0 | 247.4 | 248.2 | 244.5 | 245.4 | 259.4 | 250.4 | 250.4 | 250.9 | 251.2 | 246.5 | 263.4 | 263.5 | 253.1 | 254.3 | 267.9 |
| Linear, Diversity | AICc | 30.8 | 30.2 | 28.6 | 29.4 | 33.7 | 31.8 | 32.3 | 32.2 | 23.7 | 26.6 | 31.7 | 30.1 | 27.7 | 35.3 | 26.6 | 31.7 |

494 Figure Captions

| 495 | Figure 1: Ordination of sites community structure, db-RDA model (Adjusted-R ² =0.644). |
|-----|---|
| 496 | This ordination uses weighted-average scores and scaling 2. It shows sites distanced by their |
| 497 | community composition and related to 12 explanatory variables (complete model). Sites were |
| 498 | clustered in 7 groups showing the seven lakes that were sampled for this project. Sites were |
| 499 | sampled for invertebrates in spring 2021 (n=20) and again in summer 2021 (n=23), each point |
| 500 | representing a single invertebrate sample (n=43). |
| 501 | |
| 502 | Figure 2: Simple regressions showing linear relations suggested from vectors association of |
| 503 | the db-RDA ordination. Top panel shows a strong linear relationship between scraper |
| 504 | abundance and specific conductance. Middle panel shows strong linear relationships between |
| 505 | predator abundance and nutritional quality of sediments (terrestrial subsidy stock). In red, |
| 506 | regression and R ² for C:N ratio. In blue, regression and R ² for N:P ratio. Bottom panel shows a |
| 507 | good linear relationship of gatherer abundance with pH. |
| 508 | |
| 509 | Figure 3: Simple linear regressions of Shannon-Wiener diversity index in relation with the |
| 510 | significant variables from the linear model scoring the lowest AIC. Top graph shows the |
| 511 | relation of the diversity index with pH (water quality). Middle panel shows the relation between |
| 512 | diversity index and turbidity (water quality). Bottom panel shows the relation between diversity |
| 513 | index score and lateral connectivity (perimeter to area ratio). |
| 514 | |

515 Figures

516 Figure 1:

517 518







