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3 **Lakeshore modification reduces secondary production of macroinvertebrates in littoral**
4 **but not deeper zones**

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22 **Abstract.** Littoral macroinvertebrates are an integral component of lake food webs, but their
23 productivity may be affected by shoreline alteration. We hypothesized that human
24 modification of lake shores simplifies habitat diversity, which, in turn, affects littoral
25 macroinvertebrate production and patterns of depth-production relationships. Furthermore, we
26 expected that lakeshore modification would favor non-native species, potentially
27 compensating for negative effects of lakeshore modification on production of native taxa. To
28 test these ideas, we estimated benthic macroinvertebrate production in the upper littoral,
29 middle littoral, and profundal zones of a large lowland lake (Lake Scharmützelsee) in
30 Northeast Germany. We collected samples between April and November 2011 along depth
31 transects established at both natural and modified shorelines. We found that production in the
32 upper littoral zone was significantly lower at beaches than natural shores or marinas, but no
33 difference existed between natural shorelines and marinas. The substantially lower production
34 at beaches was correlated with lower habitat diversity, resulting from a lack of macrophytes.
35 Additionally, production declined with increasing water depth at natural shores and marinas,
36 but at beaches, production was highest in the middle littoral zone. Production of native taxa
37 was lower at marinas than at natural shorelines, but production of non-native species offset
38 these declines. The increased productivity of non-native species in upper littoral habitats at
39 modified shorelines demonstrates that shoreline development has compromised the function
40 of the littoral zone in Lake Scharmützelsee. Extrapolating depth- and habitat-specific
41 production estimates to the entire lake showed that 33% of whole-lake benthic secondary
42 production occurred in the upper littoral zone, even though this depth zone comprised only
43 7% of total lake area. Additionally, we estimated that completely replacing natural habitats
44 with beaches would reduce whole lake benthic secondary production by 24%. Our results
45 highlight the crucial role of the littoral zone for whole lake ecosystem functioning and the

46 high susceptibility of littoral benthic secondary production to lakeshore modification by
47 human activities.

48 Keywords: depth-production relationship, ecosystem functioning, habitat diversity, lake, non-
49 native species, shoreline development

50

51

52 A significant portion of benthic secondary production in lakes occurs in the littoral
53 zone (e.g. Vadeboncoeur et al. 2002, Sierszen et al. 2014). Littoral macroinvertebrates are a
54 major trophic link between primary producers and fish in lake ecosystems (Covich et al. 1999,
55 Schindler & Scheuerell 2002), and macroinvertebrates can contribute >60% of the diet (based
56 on stable isotope estimates) of fish (Vander Zanden et al. 2006). Additionally, benthic filter
57 feeders can alter lake ecosystem structure by regulating phytoplankton biomass, and thus,
58 water transparency (MacIsaac 1996, Genkai-Kato et al. 2012). Secondary production is a
59 direct measure of the role macroinvertebrates play in littoral carbon flux and ecosystem
60 functioning, but it is rarely quantified because measuring macroinvertebrate biomass and
61 growth is time consuming.

62 In natural temperate and subpolar lakes, macroinvertebrate secondary production is
63 typically highest in the upper littoral zone and declines monotonically with water depth
64 (Lindegaard 1992, Babler et al. 2008, Butkas et al. 2010, Northington et al. 2010). The high
65 productivity in the upper littoral zone is a result of warm temperatures, high oxygen
66 availability, and high food quality (Downing 1984, Jónasson et al. 1990). In addition to
67 having higher production, the littoral zone also has higher macroinvertebrate diversity
68 because it is typically more heterogeneous than deeper zones of lakes that lack sufficient light
69 and structural complexity (e.g. James et al. 1998, Heino 2000, Vadeboncoeur et al. 2011).
70 Human modification of lakeshores and littoral zones reduces the abundance and changes the
71 taxonomic composition of macroinvertebrate assemblages (Brauns et al. 2007, McGoff et al.
72 2013, Pätzig et al. 2015), but how these changes affect secondary production remains
73 unknown. Shoreline development decreases habitat complexity when natural riparian
74 vegetation is replaced with pavement or highly manicured vegetation, or when stakeholders
75 remove within-lake habitat such as coarse woody debris, reed belts, or aquatic vegetation

76 (Christensen et al. 1996, Francis & Schindler 2006, Radomski 2006). Alteration or loss of
77 natural physical habitat structure may change the availability of organic matter resources that
78 support secondary production (Rosenberger et al. 2008, Francis et al. 2007, Brauns et al.
79 2011). In some instances, however, shoreline development can increase habitat complexity by
80 introducing new, sometimes novel, hard structures such as wood pilings or metal sheeting. In
81 a previous study, we showed that these structures, and their indirect effects, can provide
82 sufficient habitat to increase macroinvertebrate diversity (Pätzig et al. 2015), but it is not clear
83 if this increase in diversity translates into higher secondary production

84 Shoreline development may also facilitate the establishment of invasive species
85 (Johnson et al. 2008, Brabender et al. 2016), especially in lakes connected to navigable rivers
86 (Bobeldyk et al. 2005, Leuven et al. 2009). The New Zealand mud snail *Potamopyrgus*
87 *antipodarum* (Gray, 1843) and the Ponto-Caspian zebra mussel *Dreissena polymorpha*
88 (Pallas, 1771) are examples of widespread and successful invaders that can dominate
89 secondary production and material flux in new habitats (Alonso & Castro-Díez 2012,
90 Griffiths et al. 1991, Hall et al. 2006, Van der Velde et al. 2002). Invasions can result in large
91 increases in macroinvertebrate production as observed in Lake Simcoe (Canada) where *D.*
92 *polymorpha* increased total secondary production 14-fold after establishment (Ozersky et al.
93 2012). If shoreline modification facilitates the establishment and persistence of non-native
94 invertebrates, total production may not change, or could substantially increase, in spite of
95 reduction in littoral habitat complexity.

96 We hypothesized that reductions in habitat diversity caused by lakeshore modification
97 would decrease production in the upper littoral zone, thereby altering the expected
98 relationship between production and depth. We also hypothesized that the introduction of
99 novel substrates into the littoral zone, which in our study occurred at marinas, may shift the

100 contribution to production from a dominance of native to a dominance of non-native species.
101 Finally, we expected a decline in macroinvertebrate diversity and biomass caused by habitat
102 simplification would be associated with a reduction in total macroinvertebrate production at
103 the whole-lake scale.

104

105 **METHODS**

106 **Study site and sampling**

107 We measured benthic macroinvertebrate production at three depths in Lake Scharmützelsee, a
108 stratified, mesotrophic lake in the Northeast Germany lowlands (Fig. 1, Grüneberg et al.
109 2011). The lake has a surface area of 12.1 km², a mean depth of 8.9 m, and a maximum depth
110 of 29.5 m. It is connected to the navigable Dahme waterway system. Fifty seven percent of
111 the lakeshore is undeveloped. Of the remaining lakeshore, 25% has shore reinforcements such
112 as sheet pilings, and 18% is beaches, grasslands or parks (Fernando 2010).

113 We established 3 sampling transects at natural shorelines, 2 at marinas, and 3 at
114 beaches. We incorporated the natural variation in wind and wave exposure by choosing one
115 transect per shore type at the exposed east shore and one at the wind-sheltered western shore.
116 Each transect was 30 – 50 m wide and comprised one homogenous shore type to avoid edge
117 effects from neighboring habitats. The transects extended from the upper littoral zone (0 – 1.5
118 m water depth), through the middle littoral zone (1.5 – 4 m), and to the profundal (> 8 m)
119 zone (terminology following Hutchinson 1967) (Fig. 1). At natural transects, trees dominated
120 the riparian vegetation, and the upper littoral zone contained dense reed belts. In contrast, the
121 riparian vegetation of marinas and beaches was replaced by lawns. At marinas, natural
122 habitats in the upper littoral zone, such as reed belts, had been replaced by sheet pilings and

123 piers. In the upper littoral zone of beaches, natural habitats had been simplified to facilitate
124 swimming, and thus consisted predominantly of sandy substrate (Pätzig et al. 2015).

125 We sampled macroinvertebrates from each transect in the upper littoral, middle
126 littoral, and upper profundal zone. We sampled 2 natural shores, 1 marina, and 1 beach
127 monthly from April 2011 to November 2011 and sampled the remaining 4 transects in April,
128 July, September and November 2011. We sampled half of the transects less frequently
129 because of limited resources for sampling and laboratory work. We did not sample during
130 winter because macroinvertebrate growth is slowed by low water temperatures, which likely
131 resulted in an over estimation of total annual production (Dolbeth et al. 2012).

132 We sampled benthic macroinvertebrates from all habitats that occurred within each
133 transect, including reed, stones, soft bottom, submerged macrophytes, and two types of
134 artificial substrates (sheet piling and piles) following Pätzig et al. (2015). At each depth, we
135 matched sampling effort with the relative surface area of each habitat type. For soft-bottom
136 sediments and submerged macrophytes, we used a D-frame net with 500 μm mesh size to
137 sample the upper littoral zone and a Van-Veen-grab (30 \times 20 cm wide) to sample the deeper
138 zones. Separating submerged macrophytes from the remaining sample was done with a 10-
139 mm box sieve. Reed was sampled by cutting 10 stems between the lake bottom and the water
140 surface. In the laboratory, macroinvertebrates attached to emergent and submerged
141 macrophytes were collected alive from the plants and added to the corresponding
142 macroinvertebrate sample. For sheet pilings and timber sheet piles, we used a scrape net (500
143 μm mesh). Stones were collected randomly and macroinvertebrates were brushed off
144 carefully. After sampling, we pooled between one and four habitat-specific samples into a
145 single composite sample (total area of 0.18 m^2) for each depth in each transect and stored
146 them for further processing in 70% ethanol. We then subsampled the composite samples

147 following the methods of the AQEM consortium (2002) and identified individuals to species
148 or the lowest taxonomic level possible (for more details see Pätzig et al. 2015). Information
149 about non-native taxa was obtained from the software ASTERICS Version 4.0.4 (Schmidt-
150 Kloiber et al. 2014).

151

152 **Environmental variables**

153 We collected environmental variables that were potentially associated with biological
154 differences among shore types and depth zones. We calculated wind exposure (Brodersen
155 1995) to account for the effects of wind and waves at each location (Table 1). Wind data were
156 obtained from a nearby weather station (Lindenberg 52° 13' N, 14° 07' E; source: National
157 Meteorological Service) between 2009 and 2011. We used ArcGis 10 (Esri, Redlands, CA
158 USA) and maps with water depth contours (MLUL 2002) to determine bed slope (°) of each
159 depth zone (Table 1).

160 At each depth zone in each transect, we measured total macrophyte biomass as the
161 sum of the dry weight of submerged macrophytes and reeds. Our estimates of submerged
162 macrophytes and reed biomass were based on samples taken during peak biomass in
163 September 2011. We used a D-net (500 µm mesh, area 0.16-0.18 m²) to sample submerged
164 macrophytes together with macroinvertebrates in the upper littoral and a Van-Veen-grab (area
165 0.18 m²) in deeper depth zones at each location. We quantified reed biomass in the upper
166 littoral zone by determining stem density from an area of 0.16 m² (dense stands) and 1 m²
167 (sparse stands) replicated 3 times per transect. From each transect, we cut 10 stems between
168 the water surface and the lake bottom, dried them at 60 °C for 24 h, and weighed them to the
169 nearest 0.01 g (Table 1).

170 We also obtained measurements of the organic matter content in bottom sediments at
171 each sampling location in each transect. In the upper and middle littoral zone, we took five 6-
172 cm diameter sediment cores. We then extracted the uppermost 2 cm of each core, dried it at
173 60°C for at least 12 hours, and determined ash free dry mass by combusting samples for 3 h at
174 500°C. We averaged unpublished ash free dry mass data previously (April 2007) obtained by
175 staff at Brandenburg University of Technology Cottbus-Senftenberg from three locations in
176 the profundal zone near our transects. These data were treated with a similar procedure as
177 describe above.

178 We calculated mean annual temperature in each transect for the upper and middle
179 littoral zones and for the profundal zone at east and west sides of the lake. We recorded water
180 temperature with 16 temperature loggers in total (VEMCO Minilog, VEMCO Division,
181 AMIRIX Systems Inc., Bedford, Canada) placed at each transect at upper (0.5-0.8 m depth)
182 and middle littoral (2 m depth) zones at 20-minute intervals from May 2011 through
183 September 2011. We also used a multiparameter probe (Hydrolab DS5, OTT Hydromet,
184 Kempten, Germany) to measure temperature twice each month in different depths of the
185 pelagic zone at various sites of Lake Scharmützelsee. We used these monthly temperature
186 data to complete the logger data of the upper and middle littoral zones to calculate mean
187 annual temperature during 2011 (Table 1). For all profundal sites, we used only the bi-
188 monthly roughly 30-centimeter interval measurements from the multiparameter probe at
189 depths between 8 to 15 m (Table 1).

190 We characterized habitat diversity in each depth zone of each transect by counting the
191 number of habitat types and visually estimating their percentage contribution to total area
192 (Table 1). We used the Hill number, $N1 = Exp(H')$, to quantify habitat diversity, because its
193 properties allow direct comparison (Jost 2006). $N1$ is the exponential version of the Shannon

194 index, $H' = -\sum_i^S p_i \ln p_i$, where p_i is the proportion of the area belonging to the i^{th} habitat,
195 and S is the total number of all habitats (Jost et al. 2006).

196

197 **Macroinvertebrate diversity, biomass, and secondary production between shore types** 198 **and depth zones**

199 We also used the Hill number to quantify macroinvertebrate diversity, but in this case
200 p_i is the proportion of the individuals belonging to the i^{th} species, and S is the total number of
201 all species (Jost et al. 2006).

202 We estimated taxon-specific mean annual macroinvertebrate biomass by averaging
203 taxon-specific mass across sampling dates after summing individual mass-estimates obtained
204 from taxon-specific length-mass relationships. We measured the body length from each
205 individual to the nearest 0.01 mm with a digital microscope (Nikon SMZ 1500, Düsseldorf,
206 Germany). For 7 of 91 taxa we did not have enough measurements from our own data to
207 accurately estimate length-mass relationship, so we therefore used literature-based length-
208 mass regressions (Online supplement 1). For the majority of observed taxa (83 of 91), we
209 calculated individual dry mass (ash free dry mass for Gastropoda and Sphaeriidae) based on
210 allometric regression equations developed from our own data (Online supplement 1, Mährlein
211 et al. 2016). Back transformation of these log-log-regressions to the usually applied power
212 function for the non-linear length-mass relationship introduces a systematic underestimation
213 into estimates. This underestimation arises because logged data predict geometric rather than
214 the arithmetic mean mass. We therefore corrected our dry weight estimates with Duan's
215 smearing factor, $SF = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{\varepsilon_i}$, where ε_i are the residuals from the fitted log-linear model
216 and n the number of observations (Duan 1983, Mährlein et al. 2016). We also applied
217 conversion factors to correct for preservation effects for all dry mass estimates, because we

218 used preserved specimens (Online supplement 1, Mährlein et al. 2016). The final equation
219 was $M_{SE} = e^{\ln a + b \cdot \ln L} \cdot SF \cdot CF$, where M_{SE} represents the mass with standard error, $\ln a$ and b
220 are the intercept and slope of the linear regression function, L is the length of body dimension,
221 SF is Duan's smearing factor, and CF is the conversion factor from preserved to unpreserved
222 mass (Mährlein et al. 2016). Additionally, estimating the dry mass of large individuals outside
223 of the length range can lead to serious errors, because mass increases more rapidly for older,
224 larger individuals than it does for younger, shorter ones (Johnston and Cunjak 1999). To
225 avoid these errors, we assigned length measures of large individuals outside the specific
226 length range of a taxon's regression to the maximum length value used in each regression. We
227 only had to make this adjustment for 0.2% of almost 48,500 individuals across taxa. Dry mass
228 of Oligochaeta (1 of 91 taxa) was determined directly by weighing fragmented individuals
229 present in our samples to the nearest 0.01 mg.

230 We used the empirical, multi-parameter artificial neural network (ANN) model
231 developed by Brey et al. (Brey et al. 1996, Brey 2012) to estimate secondary production.
232 Cohort based production methods are prohibitively expensive because of the high number of
233 samples needed to adequately characterize growth and biomass over time and space. ANNs
234 are powerful machine learning techniques that represent a multilayer architecture of nodes
235 (artificial neurons) that are highly interconnected. Based on self-learning, ANNs are able to
236 generalize, and therefore predict, complex patterns when they are calibrated with training data
237 (Dayhoff and DeLeo 2001). The Brey ANN model (Brey et al. 1996, Brey 2012) is based on
238 the experiences gained from multiple linear regression models that describe relationships
239 between production to biomass ratios (P/B) and various biotic and abiotic predictors (e.g.
240 Banse and Mosher 1980, Plante and Downing 1989). It includes 20 input variables that
241 account for the effects of organism traits (e.g. alimentation, feeding, and mobility type) and

242 environmental conditions (e.g. type of water body, water temperature, and water depth) to
243 estimate the P/B ratio (Online supplement 2). Of the 20 input variables, the average individual
244 body mass for each taxon influences production estimates the most (Brey 2012). We used the
245 geometric mean mass to calculate the average individual body mass for each taxon in the
246 ANN model, because organism growth is an exponential function of time (Benke and Huryn
247 2007). After estimating the P/B ratio for each taxon and sampling site with the ANN model,
248 we estimated taxon-specific production by multiplying the P/B ratio by taxon-specific mean
249 annual biomass. Rare taxa, including Coleoptera, Heteroptera, Lepidoptera, other Diptera,
250 Turbellaria, and Unionidae, with abundances < 1% of total annual abundance were excluded
251 from the statistical analysis as their occurrences are subject to large uncertainties. By
252 excluding Unionidae, we underestimated total biomass to some extent, but we do not expect
253 that this error substantially affected production estimates because Unionidae grow slowly
254 (Negus 1966).

255 Finally, we tested if differences in sampling frequency (4 transects in 8 m, 4 transects
256 in 4 m) affected estimates of secondary production by comparing the production values based
257 on the total dataset (including half of transects sampled at 8 and the other half at 4 dates) with
258 a subset (4 dates) of the total dataset. We fit a major-axis regression (R 3.4.1, function 'ma'
259 from the package 'smart' (Han and Liu 2015) based on log-transformed data to examine
260 correlations between the two different data sets. Production estimates based on four sampling
261 dates were highly correlated with those from eight dates ($R^2 = 0.97$), indicating that the bias
262 due to different sampling frequency was negligible. We therefore used all transects in further
263 analyses without correcting for differences in sampling frequency.

264

265 **Statistical analyses**

266 *Comparison among shore types and depth zones* – The small sample sizes ($N=3$ for
267 both beaches and natural sites and $N=2$ for marinas) precluded us from using inferential
268 statistics to test for differences among shore types and depth zones. Instead, we interpreted
269 95% confidence intervals (CI) of habitat, species diversity, biomass, and secondary
270 production estimates by considering means with non-overlapping CIs as implying real
271 differences between shore types and depth zones (Babler et al. 2008, Cross et al. 2011).
272 Similarly, 95% confidence intervals (CI) and the proportions of native and non-native
273 production were calculated to account for shifts in dominance relations between shore types
274 and depth zones.

275 *Correlating habitat diversity with production* – To determine if secondary production
276 was associated with habitat diversity across shore types and depth ($N=24$), we conducted a
277 linear regression analysis with R's standard function 'lm' (R Core Team 2017). Residuals of
278 the fitted model were checked for normal distribution and homoscedasticity.

279

280 **Estimating whole-lake secondary production**

281 To estimate how changes in depth-specific production scale up to the whole-lake, we
282 first estimated mean production for each shore type in the upper littoral. We then multiplied
283 these values by the proportion of upper littoral area represented by the different shore types to
284 estimate total production at this depth zone. For the middle littoral and profundal zone, we
285 calculated mean production across all shoreline types, and multiplied these values with the
286 area of each depth zone. We added the values of all zones together to estimate whole-lake
287 benthic secondary production.

288 To determine how lakeshore development influenced secondary production at the
289 lake-scale, we examined 7 scenarios that described how varying the amount of shoreline

290 development changed whole-lake secondary production. The proportional amount of the three
291 shore types on total shoreline length were set to range between 30 and 100 %. At the extremes
292 of these scenarios, we calculated whole-lake littoral production assuming the entire upper
293 littoral zone consisted of natural sites and compared this value with values based on scenarios
294 where the entire upper littoral zone consisted of marinas or beaches, respectively. We
295 propagated the individual errors of shoreline-specific production through each calculation and
296 obtained a 95% CI for the estimated whole-lake secondary production for each scenario.
297 Scenarios were considered significantly different when 95% CI's did not overlap.

298

299 **RESULTS**

300 **Effects of lakeshore modification on habitat diversity**

301 Habitat diversity appeared to differ between some shore types and depth zones, but not
302 all (Fig. 2). In the upper littoral zone, beaches tended to have lower habitat diversity (1.5
303 ± 0.7) than natural sites (2.1 ± 0.3) or marinas (2.4 ± 0.6). No differences in habitat diversity
304 were apparent between shore types based on data from middle littoral and profundal zones.
305 Habitat diversity generally decreased with increasing depth irrespective of shore type. Mean
306 habitat diversity across all shore types ($\pm 95\text{CI}$) in the upper littoral zone (2 ± 0.4) was not
307 clearly different from that in the middle littoral (1.5 ± 0.2), but mean habitat diversity in both
308 littoral zones was higher than that in the profundal zone (1.0 ± 0) (Fig. 2).

309

310 **Effect of lakeshore modification on macroinvertebrate diversity, biomass, and** 311 **production**

312 Macroinvertebrate diversity, biomass, and production did not always exhibit expected
313 patterns (Fig. 3, Table 2). Diversity appeared to be clearly lowest in the profundal zone, but
314 differences were less apparent between the two littoral zones (Fig. 3A). Mean annual biomass
315 and annual secondary production in the upper littoral was significantly higher at natural sites
316 than at beaches (Fig. 3B, C). There were no differences in biomass and secondary production
317 among shore types in the middle littoral and profundal zone (Fig. 3B, C). Biomass and
318 secondary production at natural sites and marinas were highest in the upper littoral and
319 declined with increasing water depth. At beaches, biomass and secondary production was
320 highest in the middle littoral and significantly lower in the upper littoral and profundal zones
321 (Fig. 3B & C). However, production of just native species in the upper littoral zone at marinas
322 was about 40% lower than that observed at natural shorelines. In the upper littoral zone of
323 both modified shore types, non-native taxa such as *Potamopyrgus antipodarum* and
324 Pontogammaridae accounted for roughly half of the secondary production, whereas non-
325 native species contributed only 15% to secondary production in the upper littoral zone at
326 natural transects (Fig. 3D). In the middle littoral zone, the contribution of native and non-
327 native taxa to total secondary production did not differ among the shore types (Fig. 3D). Non-
328 native taxa were absent from the profundal zone.

329

330 **Habitat diversity predicts secondary production**

331 We examined the potential of habitat diversity to predict benthic secondary production
332 across shore types and depth zone. The model showed that habitat diversity was significantly
333 positively related to secondary production (adjusted $R^2 = 0.68$, $F_{1,22} = 49.2$) (Fig. 4).

334

335 **Effect of lakeshore modification on whole-lake secondary production**

336 Benthic secondary production weighted by area of shore type differed by almost 30-
337 fold across depth zones (Table 2). Mean production was $36 \text{ g DW m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ in the upper littoral
338 zone, $17 \text{ g DW m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ in the middle littoral zone, and $1.3 \text{ g DW m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ in the profundal zone
339 (Table 2). At the whole-lake scale, 33% of the benthic secondary production occurred in the
340 upper littoral zone, although the surface area of this depth zone comprised only 7% of total
341 lake area. The middle littoral zone contributed more than half of the estimated whole-lake
342 benthic production, although it represented only 25% of the total lake area. Production in the
343 profundal zone accounted for only 12% of whole lake benthic production, even though the
344 profundal zone covered almost 70% of the lake area.

345 Our scenario analysis showed that whole-lake macroinvertebrate production could
346 range from $5.8 \pm 2.1 \text{ g DW m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (scenario with 100% beach), to 7.6 ± 2.6 (100% marina),
347 and to 7.7 ± 2.0 (100% natural shores) $\text{g DW m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$. Thus, if the entire upper littoral zone
348 consisted of beaches, production would be 24% lower than if the entire upper littoral zone
349 consisted of natural shores or marinas.

350

351 **DISCUSSION**

352 Human shoreline development is a widespread practice that reduces littoral habitat
353 complexity and degrades the ecological integrity of lakes (Christensen et al. 1996, Francis &
354 Schindler 2006, Brauns et al. 2011). We assessed whether a decrease in zoobenthic
355 production accompanies the previously described reduction in benthic macroinvertebrate
356 diversity associated with shoreline development (Brauns et al. 2007, Pätzig et al. 2015). In
357 Lake Scharmützelsee, shoreline development lowered zoobenthic production in the upper
358 littoral zone, altering the inverse relationship between production and water depth that is

359 typical of natural shorelines. However, this alteration was only evident at beaches where
360 modifications to promote the enjoyment of swimmers reduced littoral habitat heterogeneity.
361 In contrast, areas of the lake modified for boating (marinas) contained novel substrates that
362 supported high biomass of non-native species. Zoobenthic production at marinas was
363 comparable to that at natural shorelines, but non-native species were a larger proportion of
364 production at marinas.

365 Humans intentionally modify habitat complexity in littoral zones to promote specific
366 uses. Beaches had the lowest habitat diversity of the 3 types of shoreline habitat in Lake
367 Scharmützelsee because the structural complexity provided by macrophytes and reed beds is
368 unsuitable for swimming areas (Table 1). In contrast, to support use by boats, marinas
369 incorporated novel substrates such as sheet metal barriers and wood jetty pilings (Table 1).
370 Macrophyte biomass at marinas was lower than in natural habitats, but they were not
371 altogether absent. The natural shores of Lake Scharmützelsee lack much of the structural
372 complexity provided by tree roots and coarse woody debris that is present in the littoral zones
373 of many lowland lakes (Brauns et al. 2007, 2011). Thus, littoral habitat diversity in
374 constructed marinas was comparable to that of natural areas, but the types of habitats that
375 contributed to this diversity differed between the two shoreline types.

376 The low variation in habitat diversity among shoreline types was associated with low
377 variation in macroinvertebrate diversity and a dominance in habitat generalists, such as
378 Oligochaeta and Chironomidae. Beaches appeared to have slightly lower macroinvertebrate
379 diversity than marinas or natural areas, but we had limited ability to detect differences in
380 diversity among habitats because we excluded rare species (abundances lower 1%) from our
381 analysis to improve secondary production estimates. In a previous publication on the same

382 lake, we showed that rare species contributed to shoreline-specific responses of
383 macroinvertebrate diversity to lakeshore modification (Pätzig et al. 2015).

384 There is abundant evidence from rivers and oceans that sand and mud support lower
385 secondary production than more complex-structured habitats that include submerged wood or
386 macrophytes (Benke et al. 1984, Grubaugh et al. 1997, Dolbeth et al. 2003, Wong et al. 2011).
387 In lakes, littoral habitats with dense macrophyte beds typically support high
388 macroinvertebrate diversity (e.g. James et al. 1998, Gabel et al. 2008, Thomaz & Chuna
389 2010), and the limited data available suggests that secondary production in littoral zones is
390 directly related to habitat structural complexity (Jónasson 1979, Gong et al. 2000). In Lake
391 Scharmütelsee, marinas and natural shorelines had more types of habitats and higher
392 macroinvertebrate biomass and secondary production than beaches, even when a component
393 of that complexity was associated with human created structures. Habitat diversity may
394 generate higher secondary production because littoral zones consisting only of sand and mud
395 have less total surface area for macroinvertebrates to colonize than littoral areas containing
396 vertical surfaces that extend into the water column. Our data suggest that human
397 modifications that add structure to the littoral zones (e.g., marinas) have a less obvious effect
398 on total macroinvertebrate production than modifications (e.g., beach development) that
399 simplify littoral areas.

400 Total macroinvertebrate production in marinas was similar to natural shorelines,
401 because non-native species, especially *P. antipodarum*, contributed greatly to secondary
402 production at marinas with high habitat diversity and novel substrates. In contrast, although
403 the proportion of non-native species production to total production at beaches was similar to
404 marinas, non-native species did not compensate for the loss of native species productivity at
405 beaches, because of overall low habitat diversity. Similarly, Brabender et al. (2016) found that

406 non-native species contributed substantially to total secondary production in a large lowland
407 river with abundant novel habitats (boulders). Modified shorelines of navigable rivers or lakes
408 connected to them, such as Lake Scharmützensee, are vulnerable to invasion by non-native
409 species, but the ability of non-native species to compensate for native secondary production
410 depends on the local habitat diversity and the level of physical disturbance (e.g., wave
411 exposure, human trampling) (Table 1).

412 In lake littoral zones, habitat diversity and complexity often decreases with depth as
413 light availability, wave action, and sediment particle size decrease (e.g. Rowan et al. 1992,
414 Cyr 1998, Vadeboncoeur et al. 2011). Habitat diversity, macroinvertebrate biomass, and
415 productivity declined with depth at marinas and natural shorelines, whereas macroinvertebrate
416 productivity exhibited a unimodal relationship with depth at beaches. We suspect that
417 macroinvertebrates in the upper littoral zone of beaches respond negatively to shoreline
418 modifications that reduce habitat complexity, but that the mid-littoral zone was less affected
419 by human activities. For instance, macrophytes were almost absent from the upper littoral
420 zone at beaches, but macrophyte abundance in the mid-littoral did not differ among lakeshore
421 types. Secondary production was similar in this zone across all three shore types.
422 Macroinvertebrates, such as *Gyraulus crista* L. (1758), that are typically associated with
423 macrophytes were absent from the upper littoral zone of beaches, but contributed to secondary
424 production of the middle littoral zone. To assess if the observed unimodal depth-productivity
425 relationship is a general phenomenon at beaches requires further studies in other lake types.

426 The low habitat diversity in the upper littoral zone of beaches relative to marinas and
427 natural shorelines may indicate lower food availability for macroinvertebrates at beaches
428 (Brauns et al. 2011). Reeds, stones, and novel substrates were not present at beaches. These
429 surfaces support the growth of attached algae and bacteria (periphyton), and this major food

430 resource for macroinvertebrates (Vadeboncoeur and Power, 2017) may have been less
431 abundant at beaches. The availability of another food resource, benthic organic matter, was
432 lower at developed shores compared with unmodified shores in lakes in the USA (Francis et
433 al. 2007). However, in this study we found no significant differences among shore types in
434 organic matter in sediments, an important resource for collector-gatherer species (Table 1).
435 We did not measure all possible food types, and cannot critically evaluate the role resource
436 availability or quality had in controlling secondary production.

437 Lakeshore modification also may alter secondary production by changing fish
438 predation pressure. Decreases in resources and habitat availability at developed shores can
439 reduce the densities of littoral fish (Scheuerell and Schindler 2004, Gaeta et al. 2011, Lewin et
440 al. 2014). Low fish densities, in turn, may have released macroinvertebrates from predation at
441 the marinas in our study, leading to the observed higher production. We could not test this
442 hypothesis, though, because we did not estimate fish abundance in our study.

443 Our results support the generalization that macroinvertebrate production is highest in
444 the littoral zone at natural shorelines (e.g. Kajak 1978, Dermott 1988, Lindegaard 1992,
445 Babler et al. 2008, Butkas et al. 2010, Northington et al. 2010). However, we found that at
446 beaches, habitat complexity, biomass, and productivity were all reduced relative to natural
447 shorelines. When we simulated converting all of Lake Scharmützel's shoreline to beaches,
448 whole-lake secondary production was reduced by 24%. The effects of human lakeshore
449 modification on whole lake benthic secondary production make therefore be less strong in
450 lakes with naturally simple littoral zones or lakes with small littoral zones and steep slopes. It
451 may therefore be important for managers to consider ways to mitigate negative impacts on
452 littoral macroinvertebrates, which are key links between primary producers and fish, as well
453 as between benthic and pelagic lake compartments (Vander Zanden et al. 2006).

454

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469

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674

675 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

676

677 Fig. 1: Lake Scharmützelsee and the positions of the eight sampling transects.

678 Fig. 2: Habitat diversity quantified as Hills number for beaches (triangle), marinas (squares)
679 and natural shorelines (circle) versus depth in Lake Scharmützelsee. Data are means and 95%
680 confidence intervals.

681 Fig. 3: Macroinvertebrate diversity (A), biomass (B), total production (C), and production by
682 native macroinvertebrates (D) for beaches (triangle), marinas (squares), and natural shorelines
683 (circle) versus depth in Lake Scharmützelsee. Data are means and 95% confidence intervals.

684 Fig. 4: Associations between macroinvertebrate secondary production and habitat diversity
685 (Hill number N1) across shore types (beaches = triangle, marinas = squares, and natural
686 shorelines = circles) and depth zones (upper littoral = black, middle littoral = dark grey, and
687 profundal = grey).

688 Table 1: Mean values (\pm 95% CI) of environmental variables per shore type and depth zone. Habitat diversity was quantified as Hills number,
 689 relative wind exposure was calculated as $\log_{10}(1 + fwhd^{-2})$, where f is the mean weighted wind fetch (km), w is the fraction of year with wind
 690 directed toward the station, h is the mean wind velocity (m/s), and d is the sampling depth (m) (Brodersen 1995). DM is dry mass.

Variable	Upper littoral			Middle littoral			Profundal		
	Natural	Marina	Beach	Natural	Marina	Beach	Natural	Marina	Beach
Habitat diversity	2.1 \pm 0.2	2.4 \pm 0.6	1.5 \pm 0.7	1.5 \pm 0.4	1.7 \pm 0.6	1.2 \pm 0.3	1 \pm 0	1 \pm 0	1 \pm 0
Relative wind exposure	0.3 \pm 0.2	0.4 \pm 0.0	0.7 \pm 0.3	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.1 \pm 0.1	0.0 \pm 0.0	0.0 \pm 0.0	0.0 \pm 0.0
Shore slope [°]	1.7 \pm 0.5	2.1 \pm 0.3	1.6 \pm 0.1	3.0 \pm 4.9	6.8 \pm 6.7	1.9 \pm 1.3	7.0 \pm 10.0	3.3 \pm 5.0	2.5 \pm 1.8
Sediment organic matter [% DM]	2.3 \pm 1.5	1.4 \pm 1.0	1.1 \pm 0.5	3.5 \pm 4.6	3 \pm 4.5	2.8 \pm 1.3	20.7 \pm 0.0	20.7 \pm 0.0	20.7 \pm 0.0
Reed and macrophyte biomass [DM g/m ²]	304 \pm 62	35 \pm 33	8 \pm 14	26 \pm 22	53 \pm 63	72 \pm 109	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0	0 \pm 0
Annual water temperature [°C]	11.9 \pm 0.1	12.2 \pm 0.3	12.4 \pm 0.2	12.1 \pm 0.2	12.0 \pm 0.2	12.1 \pm 0.2	9.0 \pm 0.6	9.2 \pm 1.0	9.0 \pm 0.6

691

692

693 Table 2: Benthic macroinvertebrate secondary production ($P \pm 95\%$ CI) at different shore types and depth zones in Lake Scharmützelsee. In the
 694 middle littoral and profundal zones, secondary production of all shore types were averaged. For the calculation of whole lake benthic secondary
 695 production the shore type area-weighted estimates for the upper littoral zone were used.

Depth zone	Shore type	Area (m ²)	P _{total} (g m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	P _{non-native} (g m ⁻² y ⁻¹)	Area-weighted P g m ⁻² y ⁻¹	Total P t y ⁻¹	% P of whole lake	% area of whole lake
Upper littoral	Natural	515,004	36.7 ± 1.6	5.5 ± 1.7	36.2	18.91	20.70	4.3
	Marina	324,298	35.9 ± 17.3	14.4 ± 2.6		11.65	12.75	2.7
	Beach	6,618	10.3 ± 4.0	5.1 ± 2.7		0.07	0.08	0.1
	Mean Sum	845,920				30.63	33.52	7.1
Middle littoral	Natural	2,960,168	16.5 ± 6.7	6.8 ± 4.4	16.91	50.06	54.80	24.5
	Marina		17.1 ± 0.6	8.2 ± 2.3				
	Beach		17.2 ± 4.7	7.5 ± 3.6				
	Mean Sum							
Profundal	Natural	8,263,911	1.4 ± 1.0		1.29	10.67	11.68	68.5
	Marina		1.1 ± 0.4					
	Beach		1.3 ± 0.2					
	Mean Sum							
Whole lake	Mean Sum	12,069,999			7.57	91.45	100	100

696

697