

1 **Muddy Waters - tracing the functional response of high latitude lake communities to**
2 **'greening' and 'browning'**

3

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25

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30

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41 **Abstract**

42 Climate change and the intensification of land use practices are causing widespread
43 eutrophication of subarctic lakes. The implications of this rapid change for lake ecosystem
44 function remain poorly understood. To assess how freshwater communities respond to such
45 profound changes in their habitat and resource availability, we conducted a space-for-time

46 analysis of food web structure in 30 lakes situated on a temperature-productivity gradient
47 equivalent to the predicted future climate of subarctic Europe (temperature +3°C, precipitation
48 +30% and nutrient +45 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ total phosphorus). Along this gradient, we observed an increase in
49 the assimilation of pelagic-derived carbon from 25 to 75% throughout primary, secondary and
50 tertiary consumers. This shift was overwhelmingly driven by the consumption of pelagic detritus
51 by benthic primary consumers and was not accompanied by increased pelagic foraging by higher
52 trophic level consumers. These results, reflecting changes along a gradient characteristic of the
53 predicted future environment throughout the subarctic, indicate that climate and land use driven
54 eutrophication and browning are radically altering the function and fuelling of aquatic food webs
55 in this biome.

56

57 **Introduction**

58 Climate change and intensification of land use practices are modifying ecosystem productivity
59 across the globe (Vitousek 1994; Flynn *et al.* 2009). These changes are most pronounced in the
60 Arctic and subarctic where increases in temperature and precipitation exceed global averages,
61 resulting in an increase in the annual growth period (Bokhorst *et al.* 2008), an overall greening of
62 the landscape (Xu *et al.* 2013) and the range expansion of warm adapted species (Rolls *et al.*
63 2017). Increased exploitation of natural resources e.g. infrastructure development, forestry and
64 mining in these regions has increased supply of carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus from the
65 catchment into watercourses (Payette *et al.* 2001). The co-occurrence of both stressors and their
66 effect on biodiversity has been recognized for many years as a key driver of ecosystem level
67 response to climate change in lakes (Post *et al.* 2009). Increases in temperature and nutrient
68 availability in lakes intensifies pelagic productivity, leading to increased biomass of phyto- and

69 zooplankton (de Senerpont Domis *et al.* 2013), and ultimately changing the fish community
70 structure from large generalist taxa to smaller pelagic feeding fishes (Jeppesen *et al.* 2005, 2012;
71 Hayden *et al.* 2017). However, the majority of data collected regarding these changes relates to
72 shallow temperate lakes (Meerhoff *et al.* 2012), and considerably less is known regarding the
73 mechanisms through which climate change will modify subarctic or Arctic lakes (Adrian *et al.*
74 2009).

75 Subarctic lakes are generally cold, clear, nutrient-poor ecosystems. Primary production in these
76 systems is dominated by benthic algae with a seasonal plankton bloom in late summer
77 (Vadeboncoeur *et al.* 2003; de Senerpont Domis *et al.* 2013). The fish communities are primarily
78 comprised of cold-water adapted salmonid species which forage on both benthic and pelagic
79 prey, but predominantly assimilate carbon synthesised by benthic algae (Hayden *et al.* 2014a).

80 Increasing temperature and productivity in the region has lead to the eutrophication
81 (Vadeboncoeur *et al.* 2003) and browning (Leech *et al.* 2018) of these lakes, increasing the
82 duration and intensity of pelagic production and creating a habitat for warmer adapted consumers
83 which occupy distinct benthic and pelagic niches (Hayden *et al.* 2017). Evidence from marine
84 systems indicates that increased pelagic productivity may also result in an increase in pelagic-
85 benthic coupling, whereby benthic communities are increasingly fuelled by pelagic detritus
86 (Docmac *et al.* 2017). Initial descriptions of coupling within lake foods focussed on the degree to
87 which ecological communities integrate resources produced in different habitats through “a set
88 of processes that functionally link the ecological dynamics of benthic, riparian and pelagic
89 habitats of lakes” (Schindler & Scheuerell 2002). Although this definition explicitly focusses on
90 coupling of energy and resources which may be driven by sessile benthic organisms (e.g.
91 Higgins & Vander Zanden 2010) most investigations of this phenomenon in lakes have focussed

92 on foraging behaviour of fishes rather than nutrient pathways (Tunney *et al.* 2014; Guzzo *et al.*
93 2017), and comparatively few studies have detailed how changes in climate and productivity will
94 affect pelagic-benthic coupling and lake ecosystem function across multiple trophic levels.
95 Meerhoff *et al.* (2012) synthesised data from multiple space-for-time studies of shallow lakes
96 revealing that the response of biota to climate change are often counterintuitive and nonlinear
97 due to predator-prey dynamics within these ecosystems. Consequently, targeted research
98 containing a range of different lake types is necessary to understand how lake communities in
99 specific biomes will respond to environmental change. Such research is particularly relevant to
100 subarctic lakes as freshwater fishes comprise a significant proportion of human diet in this
101 region. Hence, changes to the quantity and quality of fishes are likely to impact subsistence
102 fisheries and may be subsequently detrimental to human health.

103 To determine how climate and productivity influence pelagic-benthic coupling in lake
104 food webs, we quantified the food web structure in 30 lakes situated on a space-for-time gradient
105 reflecting the predicted future climate and land use scenarios for Northern Fennoscandia (Kovats
106 *et al.* 2014, Fig. S1). We hypothesized that increased primary production associated with higher
107 temperature and nutrient availability would incrementally shift food webs from a ‘clear’ to a
108 ‘murky’ state (Leech *et al.* 2018), whereby consumers would increasingly be supported by
109 pelagic production (Fig. 1). We predicted that a) increased pelagic-benthic coupling at the
110 primary consumer level (i.e. benthic macroinvertebrates) would propagate pelagic-derived
111 resources upwards through lake food webs to invertivorous and ultimately piscivorous fishes;
112 and b) consumers with different foraging strategies would display distinct functional responses to
113 this change, i.e. pelagic specialists would forage on pelagic prey throughout the gradient,
114 generalist consumers would switch from benthic to pelagic foraging, and benthic specialists

115 would feed on benthic prey, but assimilate an increased proportion of pelagic resources due to
116 strengthened pelagic-benthic coupling by primary consumers (Fig. 1).

117

118 **Methods**

119 Field sampling

120 *Environmental variables*

121 Sampling was conducted in a series of 30 lakes in Finnish Lapland in August or September
122 between 2004 and 2014 (Fig. S1, environmental classifications for each lake are provided in
123 Table S1). Principal Component Analysis was used to reduce variation in temperature,
124 precipitation, total nitrogen (TN), total phosphorus (TP) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) to
125 a single composite variable (the Climate – Productivity index; hereafter CPi) which explained
126 80% of this variation (Fig. S2, S3). Land use within the catchment of each lake was estimated
127 from the CORINE database, but was not included in final models as land use variables were
128 highly collinear with CPi (Supporting information, Supplemental Methods, Fig S4, S5).

129

130 *Benthic macroinvertebrates*

131 Benthic macroinvertebrate community structure was assessed along a depth transect from the
132 shoreline to the deepest point in each lake and subsamples from each depth were frozen for
133 stable isotope analysis. In subsequent analysis, we considered bivalves (*Pisidium* sp.) and
134 gastropods (*Valvata* sp. and *Lymnaea* sp.) to be obligate pelagic and benthic feeding specialists
135 respectively (Post 2002). Pooled Chironomidae, Oligochaeta and Trichoptera samples were each
136 classed as generalists, as these groups may contain multiple foraging guilds (Merritt *et al.* 2008).

137

138 *Fish*

139 Fish were sampled from littoral, pelagic and profundal zones using gill nets (Hayden *et al.*
140 2014b). All fish were identified to species level and individually weighed (wet mass, ± 0.1 g).
141 The relative abundance of each species in each lake was estimated as Biomass Per Unit Effort
142 (BPUE g net series⁻¹ hour⁻¹) and subsamples of each species (n = 30 where possible) were frozen
143 for subsequent stable isotope and stomach content analyses. Of invertivorous fishes, we collected
144 obligate planktivores (e.g. vendace *Coregonus albula*, bleak *Alburnus alburnus*), obligate
145 benthivores (e.g. small burbot *Lota lota*, ruffe *Gymnocephalus cernua*), and generalists which
146 forage in both benthic and pelagic habitats (e.g. whitefish *Coregonus lavaretus*, perch *Perca*
147 *fluviatilis*, roach *Rutilus rutilus*) from each lake (Hayden *et al.* 2017). The most abundant
148 piscivorous fishes found in pelagic (brown trout *Salmo trutta*), generalist (large perch and Arctic
149 charr *Salvelinus alpinus*) and benthic niches (large burbot and pike *Esox lucius*) were also
150 included in our analysis (Amundsen *et al.* 2003; Kahilainen & Lehtonen 2003).

151

152 Laboratory analysis

153 *Stable isotope analysis*

154 We assessed the carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) and nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) stable isotope ratios of a benthic invertebrates
155 and fishes and estimated pelagic resource reliance (SIApel) of each benthic invertebrate sample
156 and individual fish using stable isotope mixing models (Post 2002). Benthic grazers (principally
157 *Valvata* sp.) and pelagic zooplankton (pooled cladocerans and copepods), which integrate the
158 carbon isotope ratios of benthic and pelagic primary producers, respectively (Post 2002), were
159 selected as baseline endmembers in all mixing models (Fig S6). We subsequently calculated the

160 proportion (by biomass) of benthic invertebrates, invertivorous fishes and piscivorous fishes
161 supported by pelagic productivity in each lake (SIA β , Supplemental Methods).

162

163 *Diet analysis*

164 Fish stomach contents were identified to the lowest feasible taxonomic level (usually family) and
165 the relative contribution of each prey to the total stomach fullness points was determined using a
166 points method (Swynnerton & Worthington 1940). Invertebrate and fish prey items were
167 identified as pelagic, benthic or generalist in origin (Hayden *et al.* 2017). The relative proportion
168 of pelagic prey (GCA β a 0-1 scale of the relative abundance of benthic and pelagic prey in
169 fish stomach content) to the diet of each fish was calculated as the proportion of pelagic prey
170 plus 0.5 times the proportion of generalist prey, reflecting an assumption that generalist prey are
171 themselves foraging across both benthic and pelagic habitats. We then calculated the proportion
172 (by biomass) of invertivorous and piscivorous fish communities in each lake which forage on
173 pelagic prey (GCA β , Supplemental Methods).

174

175 Data analysis

176 We used Generalised Linear Models (GLM) and Generalised Linear Mixed Effects Models
177 (GLMM) to test whether littoral area (Litt), lake area (Area), fish species richness (Species), and
178 Climate-Productivity index (CPI) influenced community and individual level estimates of pelagic
179 resource reliance and pelagic foraging. Sample depth (Depth) was included in the GLMM
180 models of SIA β for benthic macroinvertebrates but not for fish, due to the assumption that fish
181 move between depths. Full methods and summary data supporting all analyses and plots are
182 provided in the Supplemental Methods (Supporting Information).

183

184 **Results**

185 Carbon isotope ratios of food web endmembers and consumers displayed considerable variation
186 across the dataset. The littoral endmember values shifted from approximately -25‰ to -28‰,
187 whereas the pelagic endmember increased from -33‰ to approximately -30‰ (Fig. 2).

188 Commensurate with this, most consumers became depleted in ^{13}C with increasing CPi. Mixing
189 models performed on this dataset revealed a major shift in the productivity pathways fuelling
190 subarctic lake food webs along a climate and productivity gradient. The proportion of pelagic-
191 derived carbon assimilated by benthic macroinvertebrates displayed a strong positive relationship
192 with lake temperature and productivity (i.e. CPi). The assimilation of pelagic-derived carbon by
193 benthic macroinvertebrates increased from approximately zero to over 90% across the CPi
194 gradient (GLM: $\beta = 0.5 \pm 0.2$ SE; $p < 0.001$; Fig. 3, Table S2). The proportion of invertivorous
195 fish biomass supported by pelagic-derived carbon increased from approximately 25% to 75%
196 with increasing CPi ($\beta = 0.1 \pm 0.02$ SE; $p < 0.01$; Fig. 3, Table S3). However, this could not be
197 explained by increased pelagic productivity, as CPi was not included among the best fitting
198 models describing invertivore diet (Table S4, Fig. S6). Similar, albeit weaker, relationships were
199 observed in piscivorous fishes (Fig. 3), whose integration of phytoplankton derived carbon
200 displayed a positive relationship with CPi ($\beta = 0.1 \pm 0.02$; $p = 0.01$; Fig. 3, Table S3), despite
201 their being no change in their consumption of pelagic prey.

202

203 The assimilation of phytoplankton-derived carbon (SI_Apel) by benthic macroinvertebrates was
204 primarily explained by foraging guild, as pelagic specialists assimilated more pelagic-derived
205 carbon than benthic specialists, whilst generalists were intermediate (Fig. 4, Table 1).

206 Assimilation of pelagic-derived carbon by benthic specialist macroinvertebrates was positively
207 related to CPi ($\beta = 1.5 \pm 0.2$ SE, $p < 0.001$, Fig. 3, Fig. S6) and sampling depth ($\beta = 3.1 \pm 0.3$ SE,
208 $p < 0.01$) and negatively related to Lake Area ($\beta = -0.3 \pm 0.1$ SE, $p < 0.05$, Fig. S4, Table 1).

209 Despite occupying benthic habitats, generalist and benthic specialist invertebrates mainly
210 integrated phytoplankton-derived carbon in lakes with high CPi scores (Fig. 4, Table S2).

211

212 The level of assimilation of phytoplankton-derived carbon (SI_{Apel}) by invertivorous fishes was
213 positively related to CPi ($\beta = 1.1 \pm 0.2$ SE, $p < 0.001$) and Lake Area ($\beta = 0.5 \pm 0.2$ SE, $p <$
214 0.05), and differed between foraging guilds (Table 1). SI_{Apel} of pelagic specialist invertivorous
215 fishes was consistently high (approximately 65%) throughout the study region, whereas SI_{A α} of
216 benthic specialist invertivores increased from 25% to 100% with increasing CPi. A similar,
217 though less-pronounced increase (approx. 35% to 70%) was observed in generalist invertivores
218 (Fig. 4, Table 1). Strikingly, pelagic prey consumption of all invertivore feeding guilds
219 (GC_{Apel}) was unrelated to CPi, indicating that fishes did not change their foraging behaviour
220 along the gradient. However, variation in pelagic foraging associated with CPi was evident in
221 certain species (Fig S7). Perch, a cool-water generalist, and whitefish, a cold-water generalist,
222 integrated more pelagic derived carbon in high CPi lakes, however, pelagic foraging by perch
223 increased with increasing CPi, whereas pelagic foraging by whitefish decreased (Table S4).

224

225 Broadly similar patterns were observed in piscivorous fishes, though the strength of the
226 relationship was slightly lower than in invertivores (Fig. 4, Fig. S6). Across guilds, piscivore
227 SI_{Apel} was positively related to CPi ($\beta = 0.7 \pm 0.2$ SE, $p < 0.01$) and Lake Area ($\beta = 0.7 \pm 0.3$
228 SE, $p < 0.01$), while the slope of regression for benthivores was slightly lower than for

229 generalists or pelagic specialists (Fig. 4). Interestingly, piscivore pelagic foraging (GCApel) was
230 not related to CPi, but was primarily associated with Lake Area ($\beta = 0.5 \pm 0.1$ SE, $p < 0.01$) and
231 Fish Species Richness ($\beta = -0.3 \pm 0.1$ SE, $p < 0.01$, Fig. 4, Table 1).

232

233 **Discussion**

234 Elevated temperature and productivity was associated with a profound shift from benthic to
235 pelagic fuelled food webs in the 30 subarctic lakes analysed. The disconnect between pelagic
236 resource assimilation and pelagic foraging across all consumer communities indicates that this
237 shift was driven by pelagic-benthic coupling, i.e. a functional link between the ecological
238 dynamics of benthic, riparian and pelagic habitats of lakes (sensu Schindler & Scheuerell 2002),
239 at low trophic levels rather than increased pelagic foraging by higher trophic level consumers.
240 Our results highlight the establishment of an indirect ‘green’ food chain following eutrophication
241 of subarctic lakes. Phytoplankton synthesise organic carbon in the pelagic zone, and then settle
242 on the lake bed, where they are consumed by benthic macroinvertebrates and ultimately fuel a
243 benthic food chain. These results derived from a subarctic climate-productivity gradient are
244 likely relevant to lakes globally as temperature, light and nutrient availability determines the
245 dominant primary production pathway in all lakes (Adrian *et al.* 2009).

246 Our results show that pelagic-benthic coupling by benthic invertebrates is capable of
247 shifting an entire lake food web towards a reliance on pelagic-derived carbon. A similar
248 mechanism of pelagic-benthic coupling by primary consumers is responsible for pelagic fuelled
249 littoral food chains in productive marine habitats (Docmac *et al.* 2017). Although Vadeboncoeur
250 *et al.* (2003) demonstrate that the contribution of pelagic primary production to zoobenthos
251 scales with lake productivity, evidence of this pathway in freshwater systems is mostly limited to

252 a small number of taxa specific examples of diatom blooms fuelling deep-water chironomid
253 communities and fluvial snails feeding on phytoplankton (Goedkoop & Johnson 1996; Kathol *et*
254 *al.* 2011). Comparable coupling has been recorded in lake food webs following the establishment
255 of invasive bivalves, e.g. Dreissenid mussels. These mussels filter phytoplankton and pelagic
256 detritus from the water column and transfer it to the lake bed in the form of pseudofaeces, where
257 it becomes a resource for benthic consumers (Higgins & Vander Zanden 2010). The majority of
258 studies analysing this dynamic report an increase in benthic production due to increased water
259 clarity following invasion (Madenjian *et al.* 2013; Fera *et al.* 2017), which is a reversal of the
260 shift detailed in our results. It would be extremely interesting to assess the degree to which
261 benthic consumers in those systems are fuelled by pelagic derived energy. In contrast to littoral
262 invertebrates, both marine (France 1995) and freshwater profundal communities are known to
263 be fuelled by pelagic detritus. Our results reveal that this trait is also characteristic of benthic
264 consumers within the photic zone of subarctic lakes. This mechanism may also explain a widely
265 observed phenomenon whereby benthic and pelagic invertebrates have distinct $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ isotope
266 values in oligotrophic lakes, but comparatively similar values in more productive systems
267 (Vadeboncoeur *et al.* 2003). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of littoral grazers are regularly used as a proxy for
268 benthic algal primary production in stable isotope mixing models (Post 2002). However, in
269 productive lakes these values are often identical to those of pelagic consumers, negating the
270 ability to distinguish between pelagic and benthic resource use using $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ alone (Phillips *et al.*
271 2014). Indeed, in this study we were forced to omit data from one eutrophic lake as we could not
272 accurately determine the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the littoral baseline (Supplemental Methods). The
273 widespread integration of pelagic derived carbon by the littoral invertebrate community is

274 commensurate with the convergence of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values between pelagic and benthic endmembers in
275 eutrophic lakes (Vadeboncoeur *et al.* 2003).

276 The conversion of carbon isotope ratio values in our data also indicate that terrestrial
277 derived carbon is increasingly important in eutrophic lakes as land use intensifies with increasing
278 CPi. Low CPi lakes are associated with ecotourism and reindeer herding, this shifts first to mild
279 and then intensive forestry at the high CPi extreme of the gradient (Hayden *et al.* 2017). This
280 shift in land use leads to increased terrestrial carbon entering the water system resulting in lower
281 light penetration and brownification of the waterbody (Graneli 2012). Primary consumers,
282 pelagic zooplankton, may utilise poor quality terrestrial carbon, especially when phytoplankton
283 is not available (Taipale *et al.* 2016). Carbon isotope ratios of the pelagic and benthic primary
284 consumer end-members in our study system showed some evidence of this phenomenon. Littoral
285 endmembers became depleted in ^{13}C , shifting from approximately -22 to -25‰, whereas pelagic
286 zooplankton became ^{13}C -enriched, shifting from -32 to -29‰. Terrestrial primary consumers in
287 this region typically have $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of approximately -28 to -27‰ (Milardi *et al.* 2016), and
288 convergence of both endmembers towards this value is commensurate with brownification of the
289 food web. The degree to which aquatic primary producers and consumers utilise terrestrial
290 derived carbon has been a topic of considerable debate in the limnological literature (Brett *et al.*
291 2017) and while our data cannot resolve that debate it does indicate increasing terrestrial carbon
292 along intensification of land use will change the base of lake food webs, adding a further
293 dimension the pelagic-benthic convergence detailed by Vadeboncoeur *et al.* (2003).

294 The space-for-time approach we used to assess the relationship between environmental
295 drivers and ecosystem function allowed us to observe and record changes in the actual
296 environment rather than extrapolating from micro- or mesocosm studies. However, it also

297 conferred several disadvantages; collinearity between our key predictor variables, namely
298 temperature and productivity, negates our ability to determine the effects of climate and land use
299 change independently, along with any characterisation of synergistic or additive effects
300 associated with these variables (Thomaz *et al.* 2012; Blois *et al.* 2013). As land use
301 intensification occurs in conjunction with climate change across the globe, it is challenging to
302 identify locations where these factors may be disentangled in the field. Further investigation on
303 this topic may require additional mesocosm based studies. In addition, though we consider lakes
304 as independent replicates in our models, variation in lake morphometry in conjunction with light
305 availability may alter the relative abundance of pelagic, littoral and profundal habitat amongst
306 lakes with clear implications for the relative contribution of pelagic and benthic primary
307 production to the food web (Hayden *et al.* 2014b). In our study, lake area had a positive
308 association with the degree to which fishes foraged on pelagic prey and assimilated pelagic-
309 derived carbon. Though these effects were weaker than the shift associated with CPI, they do
310 raise interesting questions regarding the interaction between lake productivity change and
311 morphometry. In larger lakes the ‘greening’ of the food web extends an already existing
312 pathway, whereas in small lakes it could potentially create novel pelagic niches, facilitating the
313 encroachment of warm water adapted taxa adapted to foraging in such conditions (Hayden *et al.*
314 2017). Additional studies in a controlled environment or specifically comparing large and small
315 lakes would necessary to test this conclusively.

316 The range of trophic states evident along this gradient of lakes mirrors the alternative
317 stable states of shallow temperate lakes, in which a regime shift from ‘clear’ water, macrophyte-
318 dominated state to a turbid, phytoplankton-dominated state is initiated by changes to lake
319 productivity and maintained by a shift in the functional community structure of the consumers

320 (Scheffer & Carpenter 2003). Previously documented ‘regime shifts’ are often associated with a
321 critical tipping point and may be reversed when one or both of these forcing mechanisms is
322 relaxed (Scheffer & Carpenter 2003). However, our data show that climate-productivity induced
323 shifts in subarctic lakes are incremental and it is therefore likely that a much stronger
324 environmental forcing is needed to return these lakes to their original ‘clear’ state (Scheffer *et al.*
325 1993). Our data are commensurate with a considerable body of work from temperate, shallow
326 lakes that such regime shifts in response to climate change occur slowly and are only reversed
327 following considerable forcing spanning multiple trophic levels (Moss *et al.* 2011; Hilt *et al.*
328 2013). Earlier studies of subarctic lakes in the region have shown that the CPi gradient is
329 characterised by an increase in fish biomass, a decrease in mean fish size and a change in
330 community structure from dominance by few large-bodied generalists, to functionally diverse
331 communities of intermediate-sized specialists, and finally to communities dominated by small-
332 sized pelagic foraging fishes (Hayden *et al.* 2017). Despite these changes in functional diversity,
333 the degree to which fishes foraged on pelagic prey remained remarkably consistent along the CPi
334 gradient, diminishing the chances of return to ‘clear’ state through a modification of the
335 ecological community alone.

336 Subarctic lakes provide opportunities for transport, drinking water and year-round
337 subsistence fisheries to indigenous local communities (Sjölander 2011). Eutrophication caused
338 by increasing water temperature and intensification of land use is threatening these ecosystem
339 services, reducing water quality (Przytulska *et al.* 2017), shifting fish fauna towards less
340 nutritious and smaller-sized species (Hayden *et al.* 2017), and reducing the growth and condition
341 of resident cold water adapted salmonids (Guzzo *et al.* 2017). Our results indicate a further
342 sensitivity, as a shift towards pelagic reliance represents a major ecological change in food webs

343 that, in their original state, are reliant on benthic algae (Sierszen *et al.* 2003). Benthic algal
344 communities in the subarctic are strongly dominated by diatoms, an algal group capable of
345 producing abundant quantities of essential fatty acids, whereas highly productive lakes typically
346 support blue-green algae, diminishing the capacity to provide equivalently high-quality resources
347 to pelagic consumers (Goedkoop & Johnson 1996; Müller-Navarra *et al.* 2004). This a shift from
348 benthic to pelagic productivity pathways may correspond to a negative shift in nutritional
349 capacity of food webs has major bottom-up effects, reducing the quality of local fish catches
350 (Hayden *et al.* 2017). In addition, the reduction of benthic energy pathways will diminish food
351 web complexity and associated stability in subarctic lakes (Rooney & McCann 2012; McMeans
352 *et al.* 2015), making them more vulnerable to annual and long-term fluctuations of pelagic
353 production, a feature which is characteristic of eutrophic lakes (Donohue *et al.* 2016).

354 In conclusion, we detail a major regime shift from benthic- to pelagic-fuelled food webs,
355 driven not only by an increased prevalence of pelagic consumers (Hayden *et al.* 2017), but also
356 by the amplification of a pelagic-fuelled, benthic food chain following eutrophication. Such a
357 profound change in the basis of food webs along a 3°C temperature and land use gradient reveals
358 that the eutrophication of subarctic lakes is radically altering lake ecosystem function.
359 Furthermore, the fundamental importance of temperature, light and nutrient availability to
360 primary production pathways in lakes (Erik *et al.* 2003) suggest that the mechanisms outlined in
361 this study have relevance to freshwater ecosystems across the globe.

362

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372

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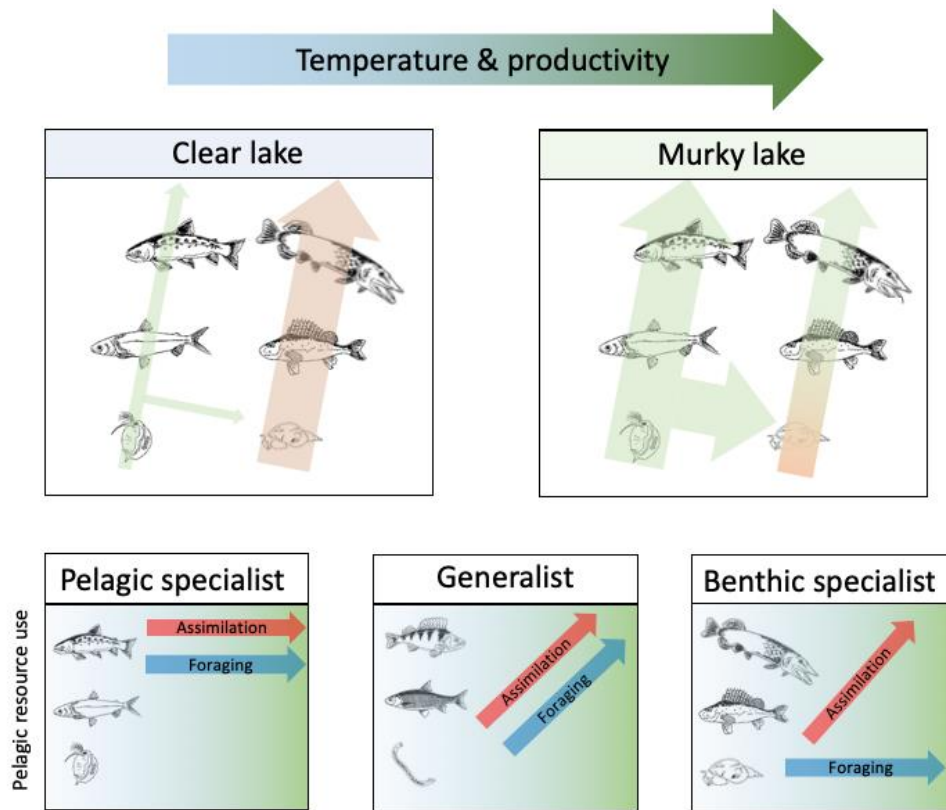
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526 **Table 1.** Summary of Generalised Linear Mixed Effects Models assessing the influence of climate-productivity index (CPi),
527 Sampling Depth (Depth), relative littoral area (Litt), Lake area (Area), fish species richness (Species), and foraging guild
528 (benthic/generalist/pelagic) on variation pelagic-derived carbon (SIA) and pelagic foraging (GCA) of benthic macroinvertebrates
529 (BMI), invertivorous and piscivorous fishes. The values present Parameter Estimates ($\beta \pm SD$, equivalent to effect size) for each
530 explanatory variable, with significant effects highlighted with asterisks. Taxon, Lake and the interaction between the latitude and
531 longitude of the midpoint of each lake were included as random effects in each model. Sample Depth was solely included in models
532 assessing variation in benthic macroinvertebrates (BMI) due to an assumption that fishes move between depths.

Variable	<u>BMI</u>	<u>Invertivores</u>	GCA	<u>Piscivores</u>	GCA
	SIA	SIA		SIA	
<i>Fixed Effects</i>					
CPi	1.49 (0.17)***	1.11 (0.18)***	-	0.74 (0.23)**	-
Depth	3.14 (0.27)***	NA	NA	NA	NA
Litt	-	-	-0.26 (0.15)	-	-
Area	-0.29 (0.11)*	0.52 (0.19)*	-	0.72 (0.27)**	0.48 (0.09)***
Species	-	-	-	-	-0.27 (0.08)**
Guild - Benthic	-0.55 (0.51)	0.03 (0.28)	-2.79 (0.21)***	-1.28 (0.29)***	-1.69 (0.14)***
Guild - Generalist	0.83 (0.26)**	-0.55 (0.21)*	-0.52 (0.15)***	-0.51 (0.28)	-0.83 (0.11)***
Guild - Pelagic	2.35 (0.42)***	0.55 (0.26)*	1.76 (0.18)***	-0.26 (0.32)	-0.43 (0.14)**
<i>Random Effects</i>					
Taxon	0.01 (0.01)	1.21 (1.09)	3.09 (1.76)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)
Lake	0.24 (0.49)	0.21 (0.46)	0.30 (0.54)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)
Lat*Long	0.04 (0.19)	0.41 (0.63)	0.34 (0.58)	0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)

533 * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$

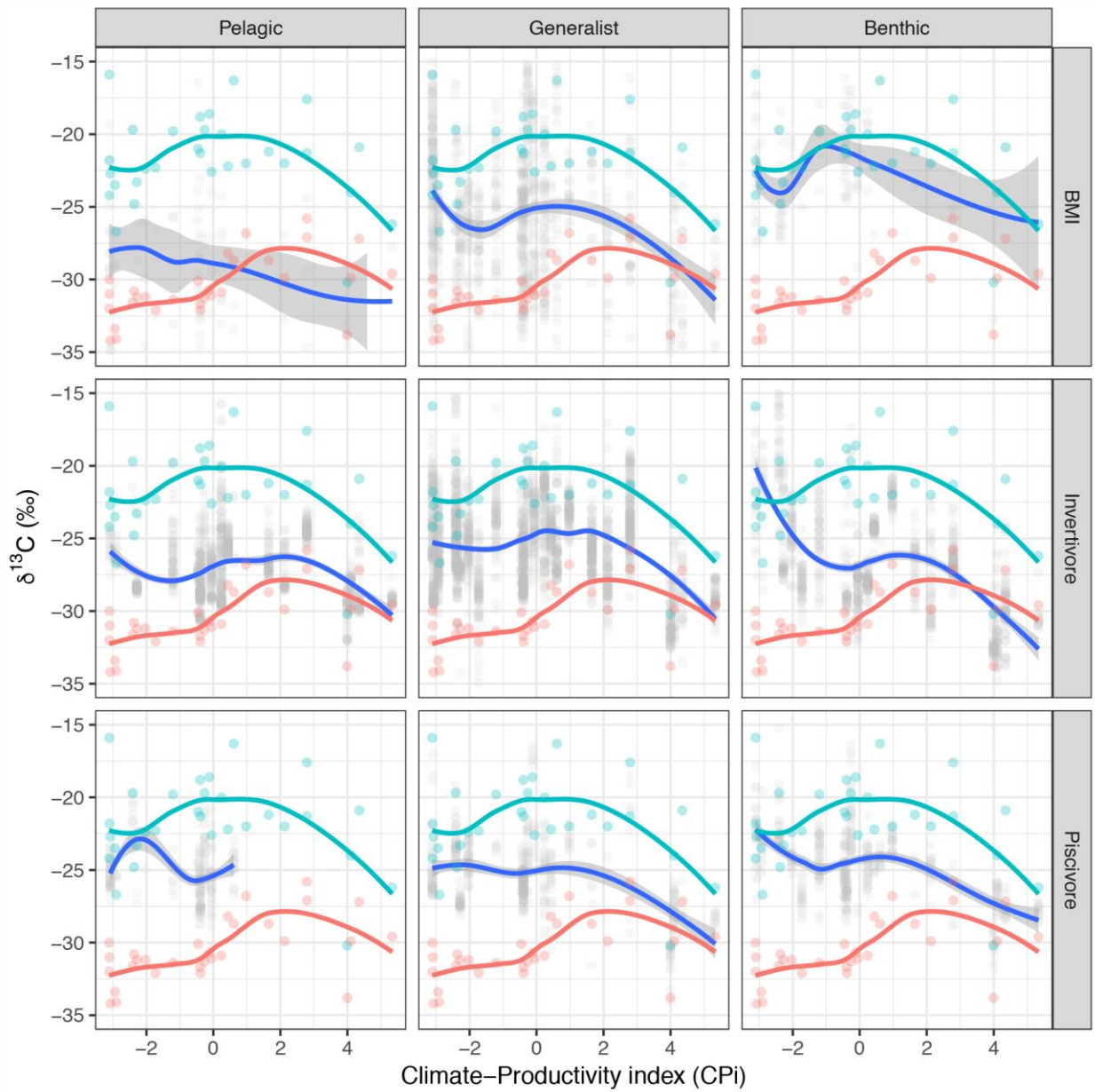


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535 **Fig. 1.** Conceptual model of the predicted changes in subarctic lake food webs in response to
 536 increasing temperature and productivity. Top row: lake food webs are fuelled by either pelagic
 537 (green arrows) or littoral benthic (brown arrows) production, with arrow size reflecting
 538 importance of each pathway. Pelagic-benthic coupling due to benthic primary consumers
 539 assimilating pelagic detritus is elevated in ‘green’ state lakes, resulting in a benthic food chain
 540 fuelled by pelagic-derived resources. Bottom row: we predicted that lakes would shift from
 541 ‘clear’ to ‘green’ states with greater temperature and productivity, and that this shift will have
 542 complex repercussions: pelagic specialists continue to assimilate and forage on the pelagic food
 543 chain, generalists shift from benthic to pelagic prey, and benthic specialists continue to forage on
 544 benthic prey but increasingly assimilate pelagic carbon resources.

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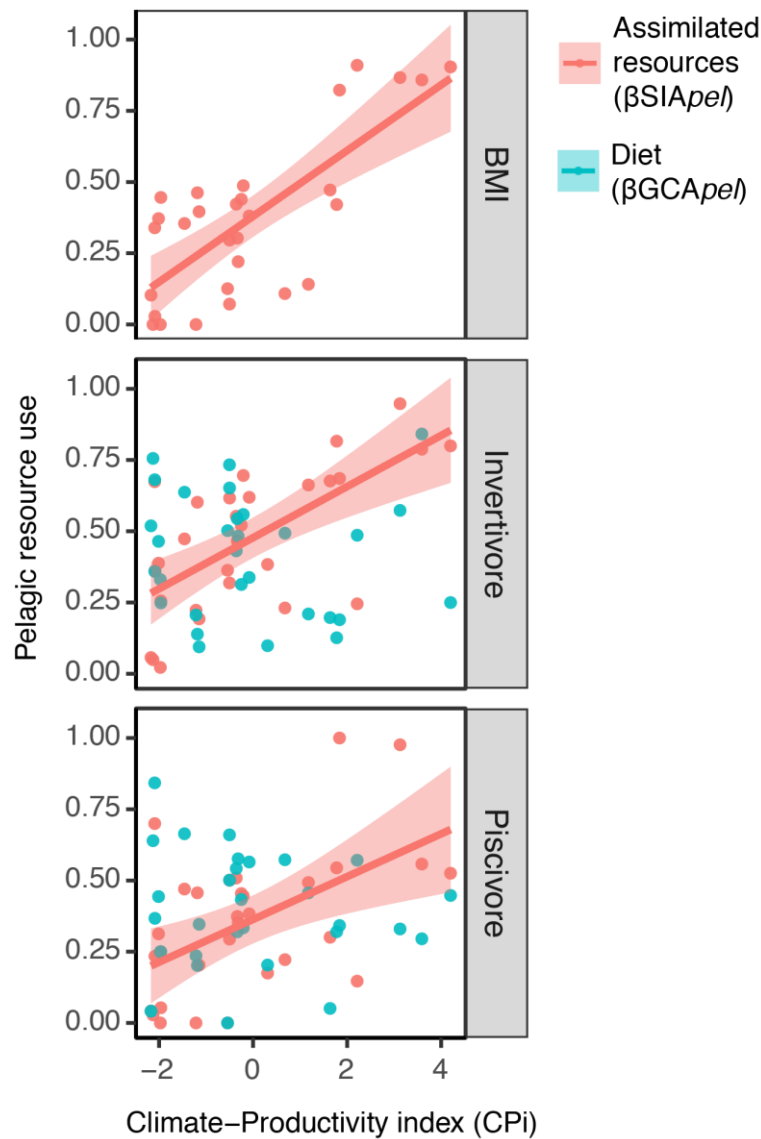


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548 **Fig 2.** Scatter plots outlining the variation in littoral (light blue) and pelagic (red) food web
 549 endmembers and consumers (grey circles and dark blue smoother) along the climate -
 550 productivity gradient. Loess smoothers (shaded area denotes 95% confidence interval) are fitted
 551 to the data for illustrative purposes.

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555 **Fig. 3.** Scatter plots outlining the relationship between community-level pelagic resource use of

556 benthic invertebrates (BMI), invertivores and piscivores and the Climate-Productivity index

557 (CPI, a principal component explaining 81% of environmental variation among lakes). Each

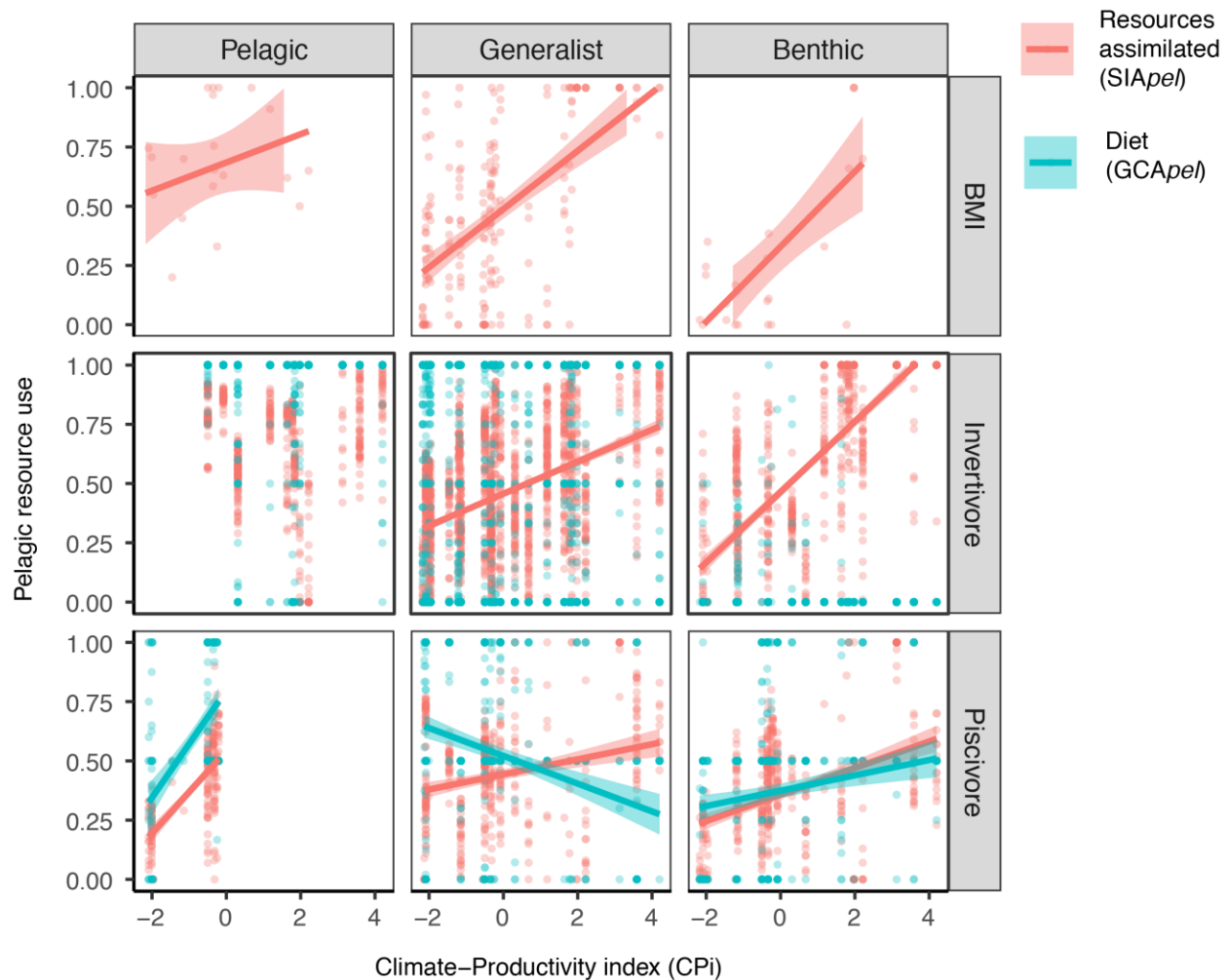
558 datapoint represents the mean assimilation of pelagic-derived carbon (red) or pelagic prey

559 consumed (blue) weighted by population density (BMI) or biomass (fish) for a single lake.

560 Linear trendlines lines with 95% confidence intervals (shading) denote statistically significant

561 relationships, full model fits are provided in Table S2, S3 and S4.

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565 **Fig. 4.** Scatter plots outlining changes in individual pelagic resource use, inferred from stable
566 isotope (red lines) and gut content (blue lines) analyses along a gradient of increasing lake
567 temperature and productivity (CPI, a principal component explaining 81% environmental
568 variation among lakes). Each datapoint represents an individual sample of benthic
569 macroinvertebrates (BMI), invertivore or piscivore fish. Linear trendlines with 95% confidence
570 intervals (shading) denote statistically significant relationships, full model fits are provided in
571 Table 1.

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