

## Aquatic and terrestrial drivers of dragonfly (Odonata) assemblages within and among north-temperate lakes

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**Abstract.** The physical structure of vegetation influences diversity, interactions, movement, and thermoregulation of animals. Vegetation structure might be a good indicator of habitat requirements of generalist predators, such as dragonflies and damselflies (order Odonata), and thereby affect species diversity. Odonates use aquatic and terrestrial habitats during larval and adult life stages, respectively, but the relative importance of vegetation in these habitats is poorly understood. We compared how aquatic and riparian habitat variables affected odonate larvae from 41 sites (each 30 m in shoreline length) on 17 lakes in northern Wisconsin. We used principal components analyses to reduce multiple habitat variables to 2 lake-level axes (lake size and development, lake wetlands and predators), 2 site-level littoral axes (littoral macrophytes, littoral muckiness), and 2 site-level riparian axes (riparian structural complexity, riparian tall wetland plants). Most (61.6%) of the variance in larval species richness occurred at the site level. Density of the most abundant family, Gomphidae, was positively related to riparian tall wetland plants, whereas species richness was positively correlated with abundance of littoral macrophytes (on the basis of multiple linear regression with an information theoretic approach). Surveys in 18 paired littoral microsites in 9 lakes indicated that larvae from the clasper and sprawler behavioral guilds were most abundant in microsites with submerged macrophytes. However, predation risk, assessed by tethering larvae in patches of submerged macrophytes, did not differ between habitats with and without macrophytes. We tested whether shoreline plants affected recruitment from the adult stage by comparing adult odonate behaviors in response to 2 riparian vegetation treatments. Adult damselfly abundance was higher where we placed potted wetland plants than at manicured lawns without tall vegetation. Our results indicate that odonate larvae might be influenced by vegetation structure in both aquatic and riparian habitats and demonstrate how animals with complex life histories link aquatic and terrestrial communities.

**Key words:** dragonflies, damselflies, riparian plants, habitat selection, insect behavior, vegetation structure, predator habitat, aquatic macrophytes, lakeshore development, complex life history, benthic insects.

Understanding how vegetation structure affects animal abundance and diversity has long been a fundamental objective in ecology (e.g., MacArthur 1965, Karr and Roth 1971). The physical structure of vegetation influences predator–prey interactions, thermoregulation, landscape permeability (ease of movement), and mate detection (McCoy and Bell 1991). Vegetation structure can successfully describe habitat suitability for predacious species on land (e.g., Pianka 1967, Brose 2003, De Souza and Martins 2005, Muntifer et al. 2006) and in the water (e.g., Werner et al. 1983, Carr 1991, Tupper and Boutilier 1995, Cheruvilil et al. 2002, Sass 2004, Milner and Gloyne-Phillips 2005).

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Animals that use multiple habitats for different behaviors or life stages might respond to vegetation structure in each of the habitats they occupy. Studies comparing the importance of aquatic and terrestrial habitat features for animals that inhabit both of these ecosystems generally have focused on amphibians (Marnell 1998, Scribner et al. 2001, Ficetola et al. 2004, Becker et al. 2007). Research investigating how Odonata (dragonfly and damselfly) species respond to both aquatic and terrestrial habitat structure is lacking, particularly for their larval phase. The long aquatic phase (1–4 y) of many odonates in temperate regions might increase the importance of aquatic habitat features for odonates relative to amphibians and other aquatic insects with shorter aquatic phases.

Land–water ecotones are often structurally complex and provide critical habitat for many animals (De-

campes et al. 2004). Structural complexity arises from the combination of abiotic characteristics (e.g., substrate, slope), littoral vegetation, and riparian vegetation. Human activity also interacts with natural drivers of structural complexity. Housing development is expanding rapidly in many riparian areas (Burger 2000, Hansen et al. 2005), leading to simplification of vegetation structure by removal of the shrub layer (Racey and Euler 1982, Elias and Meyer 2003), floating macrophytes (Jennings et al. 2003, Radomski and Goeman 2001), and coarse wood (Marburg et al. 2006). Those structural changes might have consequences for a variety of animals in both the riparian and littoral (near-shore aquatic) zones (Bryan and Scarnecchia 1992, Schindler et al. 2000, Lindsay et al. 2002, Woodford and Meyer 2003, Butler and DeMaynadier 2008, Henning and Rensburg, in press). The relative influence of natural and anthropogenic drivers on Odonata communities is not well known.

Odonates generally show little response to particular plant species (terrestrial or aquatic) (Buchwald 1992, Foote and Hornung 2005), but adult odonate diversity and abundance often are correlated positively with local abundance of vegetation (reviewed in Rensburg 2007). Vegetation provides adults with perching structures for thermoregulation, foraging, territory defense, mate attraction, copulation, nocturnal roosting, and protection from adverse weather (Buchwald 1992, Wildermuth 1993, McKinnon and May 1994, Rouquette and Thompson 2007), thereby potentially affecting their density and diversity.

Vegetation and other physical structures can interact with top-down controls on odonate larvae or on odonate teneral (immature adults that have recently emerged from the water) to influence population sizes. Riparian vegetation, for example, might harbor both emerging odonates and their predators (Duffy 1994, Whitaker et al. 2000). Mesocosm experiments have shown that odonate larvae find refuge from predators in aquatic macrophytes (Crowder and Cooper 1982, Thompson 1987, Dionne et al. 1990, Diehl 1992). However, local predator densities in lakes also tend to increase where macrophytes offer protection or higher prey densities (Werner et al. 1983, Weaver et al. 1997, Gamboa-Perez and Schmitter-Soto 1999). Littoral coarse wood or mucky substrates also might provide refugia from predators for some larval odonate species (Schmude 1998, Alzmann et al. 1999, Burcher and Smock 2002). In addition, predation on odonates can vary among water bodies as a result of differences in water chemistry or fish communities (Johnson and Crowley 1980, McPeck 1990, Johansson and Brodin 2003). For example, if littoral fish diversity and densities are lower in lakes than in streams (Willis

and Magnuson 2000), fish predation might exert less control on lacustrine odonate populations than is suggested by stream studies. Among lakes, we expected that odonate abundance and species richness would decline with increasing fish abundance, lake depth, and water clarity (Aksnes and Giske 1993, Davies-Colley and Smith 2001).

We used surveys of larval odonates at a variety of lake and site conditions and field experiments to address 3 questions: 1) How do abundance and community composition of larval odonates vary with habitat structure among and within lakes? 2) Does local macrophyte abundance within lakes affect predation on odonate larvae? 3) Does presence of tall riparian vegetation influence use of riparian sites by adult dragonflies?

## Methods

### *Study area*

We conducted our study in Vilas County in northeastern Wisconsin, USA, in the center of the Northern Highlands Lake District (NHLD). Curtis (1959) classified the vegetation as northern wet forest and boreal forest. The forested landscape is interrupted by a high density of glacial lakes (>1300 lakes in the 2639-km<sup>2</sup> county), which cover 13% of the NHLD surface area (Martin 1965). Lakeshores in the area have experienced unprecedented housing development (Schnaiberg et al. 2002, Gonzalez-Abraham et al. 2007).

We surveyed larval Odonata assemblages at 41 lake sites. We defined sites as 30-m segments along the shoreline, including the adjacent littoral zone to a water depth of 1 m and the riparian zone 6 m inland from the ordinary high water mark. We distributed sites among 17 lakes in Vilas County, Wisconsin; the number of sites/lake ranged from 1 to 5. We selected sites with qualitative differences in littoral or riparian vegetation structure when sites were on the same lake. We selected ½ of the sites from developed areas and the rest from undeveloped forested areas. All sites were at least somewhat sandy, had only moderate riparian slopes (<20°), and were separated from each other by ≥120 m (with only 2 pairs of sites <500 m apart).

### *Aquatic and terrestrial drivers of Odonata larval density and richness*

At each site, we collected odonate larvae with a D-frame net by scooping 12 m<sup>2</sup> of benthic material (0.6 m<sup>2</sup>/scoop) on 1 d/site during June to July 2004. Samples were collected along four 16-m-long transects that paralleled the shore. We centered transects along

the 30-m site shoreline and placed them at 0.25-, 0.50-, 0.75-, and 1.00-m water depths; transect distance from shore depended on littoral slope. Pilot studies suggested that odonate densities were highest in water >0.50 m deep, so we took 6 scoops along the 0.75- and 1.00-m transects and 4 scoops along the 0.25- and 0.50-m transects. Larvae of most species (except some Zygoptera and smaller Libellulidae) were present throughout the summer because odonates generally are semivoltine in northern Wisconsin lakes (R. DuBois, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources, personal communication). We sorted larvae from benthic material by hand, preserved them in 70% ethanol, and identified them to species or family (for suborder Zygoptera) using the keys of Needham et al. (2000) and Westfall and May (1996).

We characterized 12 lake-level variables, including fish abundance, human activity, vegetation, and water chemistry in each lake. We recorded 9 littoral and 10 riparian habitat variables at each site (Table 1). We conducted separate principal components analyses (PCA; PC-ORD, version 4; MjM, Gleneden Beach, Oregon) on lake, littoral, and riparian variables to reduce these predictor variables to a smaller set of orthogonal variables (Remsburg 2007). We based PCAs on centered, standardized matrices of Pearson correlation coefficients. We examined PCA eigenvalues and habitat variable correlations with the PCA scores, and chose to use the first 2 PCA axes from each category of variables in mixed-effects multiple linear regressions of larval densities.

We used mixed-effects multiple linear regression models to compare the effects of lake-level and littoral and riparian site-level habitat variables on odonate density, density of the most common family (Gomphidae), and species richness ( $\sqrt{[x]}$  transformed to meet normality assumptions) across the 41 sites. We assigned lake as a random effect because specific lakes were not of interest, but sites on the same lakes were not independent. We used similar mixed-effects logistic models, including a fixed-effects term for area sampled, to compare habitat effects on presence or absence of the less-abundant Zygoptera suborder and the 4 other Anisoptera families observed. We present  $R^2$  values for linear regressions using the most influential single independent variable. All analyses were completed using R software (version 2.4.1; R Core Development Team, Vienna, Austria).

We used an information theoretic approach, which avoids arbitrary cutoff values (e.g.,  $\alpha = 0.05$ ) and Bonferroni problems of multiple tests (Burnham and Anderson 2002), to compare alternative linear models containing 0 to 6 PCA scores. The 64 candidate models (permutations for all possible combinations) were

ranked by 2<sup>nd</sup>-order criterion Akaike's information criterion values (Sugiura 1978). Strength of evidence for each candidate model can be compared using Akaike weights,  $w_i$ , the log likelihood of model  $i$  divided by the sum of log likelihoods for all candidate models (Burnham and Anderson 2002). We used all candidate models to estimate the relative importance of each predictor by summing the Akaike weights ( $\Sigma w$ ) over all models in which a variable appeared (Burnham and Anderson 2002).

#### *Macrophyte effects on larval densities within sites*

*Submerged macrophyte biomass effects.*—To evaluate effects of submerged macrophytes on odonate larval densities at a finer scale than the site-level surveys, we sampled larvae at 18 microsites (5–10 m<sup>2</sup>) in 9 lakes in July 2006. In each lake, we chose 1 microsite with dense submerged macrophytes and 1 adjacent microsite with no macrophytes. The macrophyte and non-macrophyte microsites were separated by  $\geq 4$  m within each lake. Paired microsites had similar substrates and distances from man-made structures. Within each microsite, we used a D-net to collect benthos enclosed by a cylinder (diameter = 0.55 m) at 5 adjacent subsampling locations at 0.3-m depth and 5 adjacent subsampling locations at 0.5-m depth. We pooled the 10 subsamples and counted all larvae in 2.4 m<sup>2</sup> of benthos at each microsite as replicates.

We used a paired Wilcoxon test to compare densities of 3 larval behavioral guilds between microsites with and without macrophytes. Behavioral guilds provided more informative response variables than families because densities of some families were very low within the microsites. Guilds included burrowers, which hide in detritus or under the sand; sprawlers, which lie on top of detritus; and claspers, which climb on the leaves, stems, and roots of macrophytes (Appendix).

*Tethering experiment.*—In August 2006, we conducted a predation experiment at 42 microsites from 21 lakes (including the 18 microsites used for surveys). We paired microsites within lakes. Macrophytes varied among lakes, so we recorded macrophyte species and designated macrophyte biomass categories (none, low, moderate, or high). At each microsite, we used Superglue® to attach monofilament fishing lines (30–40 cm in length) onto the abdomens of 8 live larvae (in later instars) collected from nearby lakes or ponds. We used a variety of Anisoptera species and larval instars, but most larvae were *Cordulia shurtleffi* (2 cm long). We controlled for variations in larval behavior and vulnerability to predation by matching larval species and sizes (range: 15–30-mm length) for paired micro-

TABLE 1. Pearson correlation coefficients between habitat variables and the best 2 axes generated by 3 separate principal components analysis (PCA) procedures on lake-level, site-level littoral, and site-level riparian habitat descriptors at 17 lakes in Vilas County, Wisconsin (Remsburg 2007). Littoral sites consisted of 30 m along the lakeshore contour and the adjacent littoral zone with water depth <1 m. Riparian sites were 30 m along the shore × 6 m inland, but % cover variables were measured within 0.5 m of the ordinary high water mark. Descriptive labels provided for each axis and analysis refer to the major habitat features captured by the axis. CPUE = catch per unit effort.

Habitat descriptors	Pearson correlation coefficients	
	PCA axis 1	PCA axis 2
Lake-level	Lake size and development	Lake wetlands and predators
Insectivorous fish CPUE <sup>a</sup>	0.20	-0.73
Total fish CPUE <sup>a</sup>	0.24	-0.34
Conductance (µS/cm) <sup>b</sup>	0.67	-0.18
Secchi depth (m) <sup>b</sup>	-0.16	0.07
Morphometry <sup>b</sup>	0.60	0.54
Area (ha) <sup>b</sup>	0.75	-0.14
Maximum depth (m) <sup>b</sup>	0.49	0.22
Perimeter (km) <sup>b</sup>	0.87	0.30
Length of wetlands (m) <sup>c</sup>	0.15	0.85
% perimeter with wetlands <sup>c</sup>	-0.15	0.78
Building density (/km) <sup>d</sup>	0.56	-0.40
Number of buildings <sup>d</sup>	0.89	-0.03
Site-level littoral	Littoral macrophytes	Littoral muckiness
Sand (ordinal variable: 0, 1, 2) <sup>e</sup>	-0.23	-0.77
Rock (ordinal variable: 0, 1, 2) <sup>e</sup>	-0.44	0.21
Gravel (ordinal variable: 0, 1, 2) <sup>e</sup>	-0.63	-0.10
Muck (ordinal variable: 0, 1, 2) <sup>e</sup>	0.53	0.64
Mean macrophyte richness <sup>f</sup>	0.90	-0.09
Mean macrophyte % cover <sup>f</sup>	0.86	0.03
Mean frequency of emergent macrophytes <sup>f</sup>	0.66	-0.28
Coarse wood (number/50 m) <sup>e</sup>	-0.03	0.60
Slope (°)	-0.48	0.47
Site-level riparian	Riparian structural complexity	Riparian tall wetland plants
Canopy (ordinal variable: 1, 2, 3)	0.70	0.03
Slope (°)	0.35	-0.10
Length of shore with shrubs (m)	0.86	0.04
Length of shore with tall wetland plants (m) <sup>g</sup>	0.17	-0.84
Vegetation distance from water (m)	0.46	0.26
Maximum understory foliage height (m)	0.68	-0.25
Mean structural diversity (number of structure types intersected)	0.73	<0.01
Mean foliage height diversity (number of layers intercepted)	0.92	-0.08
% shore herbaceous	0.12	-0.82
% shore shrubs	0.56	0.58

<sup>a</sup> CPUE based on electrofishing, minnow traps, and crayfish traps in 2001 to 2004 (Carpenter et al. 2006)

<sup>b</sup> Data collected 2001 to 2003 (Carpenter et al. 2006)

<sup>c</sup> Gergel (1996)

<sup>d</sup> Schnaiberg et al. (2002)

<sup>e</sup> Littoral substrate dominance and coarse wood abundance estimated at 0.5-m water depth in 2001 to 2004 (Marburg et al. 2006)

<sup>f</sup> Macrophyte species richness and % cover estimated in 2001 to 2003 along a transect extending 0 to 2-m depth (Alexander 2005)

<sup>g</sup> *Carex*, *Typha*, or *Iris* species

sites within the same lake. Laboratory observations indicated that fish predation occurred on tethered larvae. We assumed that empty lines indicated predation on odonates because larvae never became unglued from fishing lines in the laboratory. We attached tethered larvae just above the benthos by tying fishing lines to submerged metal stakes. We retrieved tethered larvae remaining after 3.5 to 6 h of

exposure to predation at all microsites (timing paired by lake). We did all tethering experiments during the afternoon (between 1200 and 1900 h), when fish densities in macrophytes are probably greatest (Hall et al. 1979, Gliwicz et al. 2006). We used larval mortality (proportion of larvae missing after exposure) to estimate relative predation rates.

We used analysis of variance (ANOVA) with lake as

a random effect to compare mortality of tethered larvae among 42 microsites with different macrophyte biomass categories. Variance partitioning indicated that a large portion of the variance occurred at the lake level. Therefore, we also used mixed-effects linear regressions to test effects of secchi depth and conductance at the lake level on larval mortality (fish catch per unit effort for these lakes was not available).

#### *Effects of riparian vegetation on adult abundance*

We experimentally investigated whether riparian vegetation affects adult site use, which could help explain larval distributions within lakes. We recorded adult Odonata behavioral responses to riparian vegetation treatments in 2 blocks of lakeshore home sites. One block had very dense aquatic macrophytes (dense-macrophyte block), whereas the other had very few (sparse-macrophyte block). Both blocks were on bays in the same lake (Little Saint Germain), had stone seawalls separating trimmed lawns from the water, similar aspect, and riparian slope  $\approx 0$ . Ten meters separated the 2 treatment plots; plots were 15 m along the shoreline  $\times$  2 m inland.

The 2 riparian vegetation treatments applied to each block were: 1) trimmed lawns with 20 dwarf cattail (*Typha minima*) plants in pots added at the shoreline (*Typha* plots), and 2) trimmed lawns without potted or other tall plants (no-*Typha* plots). We chose the dwarf cattails because they closely resembled the height (0.6 m) and rigidity of native sedges. We replicated both treatments on 21 d at the dense macrophyte block and on 19 d at the sparse macrophyte block. This design might have allowed repeated observations of some individuals, but we treated separate observation days as replicates because adults from the genera we observed move away from the shoreline to roosting sites each evening (Askew 1982, Bried and Ervin 2006) and probably do not demonstrate site fidelity across multiple days (Jacobs 1955, Logan 1971). At both blocks, we alternated the 2 treatments each day between the 2 plots to separate *Typha* treatment effects from littoral or location-specific influences.

On each observation day, we set up the *Typha* treatments  $\geq 3$  h before recording odonate behaviors in both treatments within the same block. To capture the period of greatest odonate activity, we made observations from 25 June to 18 August 2006 between 1200 and 1600 h on days with relatively low wind and cloud cover. A single observer (AJR) stood at 1 corner of the plot to survey odonates, including those over the water adjacent to the riparian plot (within  $\sim 5$  m of shore), in the whole plot simultaneously. The observer also walked slowly across the plot twice per observa-

tion period to improve detection of the less active odonates perched on shore. We recorded the total number of individuals present within the plot during 10 min of observation. We estimated instantaneous odonate abundance within the plot by counting all individuals visible at the end of 10 min.

We used blocked mixed-effects ANOVAs to compare Zygoptera and Anisoptera abundance estimates among treatments, where observation day was treated as a random effect. We pooled responses by suborder because odonate abundances were low overall, and the major differences in behaviors corresponded with suborder.

## Results

### *Aquatic and terrestrial drivers of Odonata larval density and richness*

We found larvae from 23 Odonata species at the 41 survey sites (Appendix). Species richness ranged from 0 to 10 species per site (mean = 5.2 species). *Gomphus spicatus* was the most abundant ( $0.45 \pm 0.86$  [SD] larvae/m<sup>2</sup>) and frequently occurring species (present at 67% of the sites). *Gomphus*, which included 3 other species (*Gomphus exilis*, *Gomphus lividus*, and *Gomphus fraternus*), was by far the most prevalent genus (occurring at 86% of the sites). The family Gomphidae occurred at 87.8% of sites, whereas Zygoptera, Macroptera, Cordulinae, Libellulinae, and Aeshnidae occurred at 44, 34, 22, 20, and 17% of sites, respectively.

Correlations of habitat variables with the 6 PCA axes used in the multivariate regressions had straightforward interpretations (Table 1). Total variance of the 12 lake-level variables summarized by the first 2 axes of the PCA was 52.4% (axis 1 = 30.4% [lake size and development]; axis 2 = 22.0% [lake wetlands and predators]). The first 2 axes of the PCAs from the 9 site-level littoral and 10 site-level riparian variables captured 53.9% (axis 1 = 34.9% [littoral macrophytes]; axis 2 = 19.0% [littoral muckiness]) and 56.4% (axis 1 = 37.8% [riparian structural complexity]; axis 2 = 18.6% [riparian tall wetland plants]) of the variance, respectively. The 3<sup>rd</sup> lake-level axis represented 14.6% of the variance (more of the variance than the 3<sup>rd</sup> site-level axes represented) and was correlated almost exclusively with secchi depth ( $r = -0.9$ ). However, we did not add the 3<sup>rd</sup> lake-level axis to the set of candidate models because secchi depth was not correlated with odonate density or diversity. Scores from the 3 separate PCAs generally were not correlated with each other (Pearson correlation coefficients  $< 0.3$ ), except for the 1<sup>st</sup> lake axis and 1<sup>st</sup> riparian axis ( $r = -0.41$ ).

More of the variance in density and richness of

TABLE 2. Relative importance (sums of Akaike weights) of lake- and site-level summary habitat descriptors in predicting Odonata larval densities at 41 Wisconsin lake sites. The 6 predictors are synthetic axes derived from 3 separate principal components analyses of 12 lake-level, 9 site-level littoral, and 10 site-level riparian variables (see Table 1). Bold font indicates statistical significance ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Model type/ dependent variable	Sums of Akaike weights from all candidate models with the predictor					
	Lake		Littoral		Riparian	
	Size and development	Wetlands and predators	Macrophytes	Muckiness	Structural complexity	Tall wetland plants
Linear regression						
Odonata density	0.33	0.20	<b>0.54</b>	0.20	0.21	<b>0.63</b>
Species richness	0.29	0.22	<b>0.60</b>	0.21	0.26	0.28
Gomphidae density	0.40	0.20	0.42	0.20	0.22	<b>0.73</b>
Logistic regression						
Zygoptera presence	0.23	0.22	<b>0.73</b>	0.33	0.31	0.34
Libellulinae presence	0.38	0.23	<b>0.58</b>	0.22	0.32	0.21
Macrominae presence	0.25	0.45	0.25	0.34	<b>0.59</b>	0.25
Cordulinae presence	<b>0.73</b>	0.23	0.24	<b>0.87</b>	0.32	0.25
Aeshnidae presence	0.34	0.20	0.35	<b>0.95</b>	0.45	<b>0.65</b>

odonates occurred at the site level (56.5 and 61.6%, respectively) than at the lake level (34.6 and 29.4%, respectively), and all of the variance in Gomphidae densities occurred at the site level. The information theoretic approach for model selection enabled us to assess the importance of predictor variables across all possible models, rather than only from a somewhat-arbitrary best model. Density of all odonates combined was best explained by increasing riparian tall wetland plants, followed by increasing littoral macrophytes (Table 2). Importance of the riparian tall wetland plant axis was even greater for the Gomphidae family, and the model fit was better than that of all odonates. The strongest predictor for Odonata species richness was

increasing littoral macrophyte abundance, which was also the best predictor for presence of Zygoptera and Libellulinae (Table 2). Littoral muckiness was the best predictor for presence of Aeshnidae and Cordulinae (Table 2).

*Macrophyte effects on larval densities within sites*

*Macrophyte biomass effects.*—At the 18 paired microsites, we found most of the same species as in our 2004 survey and 3 new Libellulids: *Leucorhinia hudsonica*, *Leucorhinia proxima*, and *Tramea carolina*. Unlike in the initial survey, the most abundant species was *Epitheca cynosura* ( $0.45 \pm 1.0$  larvae/m<sup>2</sup>), even though it occurred only at macrophyte microsites (Fig. 1). *Gomphus* species occurred at 67% of the microsites.

We found many more odonates in microsites with submerged macrophytes ( $5.2 \pm 3.8$  larvae/m<sup>2</sup>) than in microsites without ( $0.8 \pm 1.0$  larvae/m<sup>2</sup>; Wilcoxon rank sum test,  $W = 74, p = 0.004$ ). Clasper and sprawler larval behavioral guilds were significantly more abundant in microsites with than without submerged macrophytes (claspers:  $W = 66, p = 0.02$ ; sprawlers:  $W = 65, p = 0.03$ ), whereas the burrower larval behavioral guild did not differ significantly between microsites with and without submerged macrophytes ( $p > 0.1$ ; Fig. 2). We observed higher Anisoptera species richness at microsites with ( $5.22 \pm 3.35$ ) than without submerged macrophytes ( $2.11 \pm 1.83$ ; Wilcoxon rank sum test  $W = 63, p = 0.05$ ).

*Tethering experiment.*—Tethered larvae mortality ranged from 0 to 100% among the 42 microsites ( $53\% \pm 32\%$ ). On separate occasions, we observed 2 bluegills and 1 small painted turtle feeding on tethered

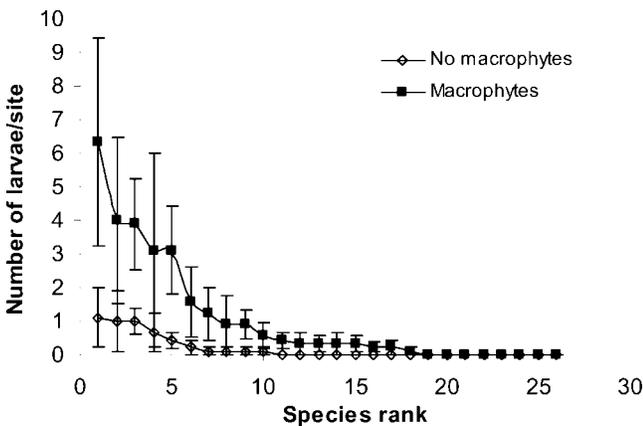


FIG. 1. Rank-abundance curves showing mean ( $\pm 1$  SE) number of individual larvae for each odonate species found in 2.4 m<sup>2</sup> lake microsites with and without dense submerged macrophytes.

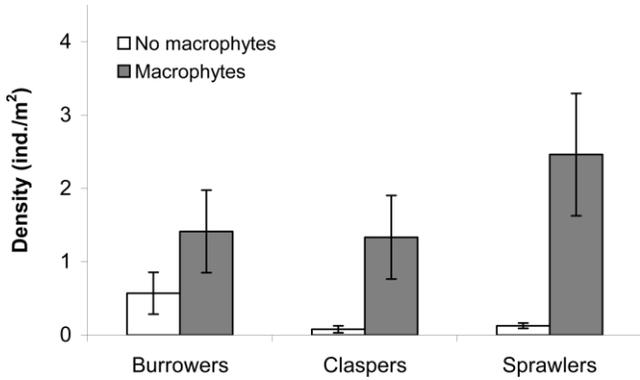


FIG. 2. Mean densities ( $\pm 1$  SE) of 3 larval behavioral guilds among paired 7-m<sup>2</sup> lake microsites with and without submerged macrophytes.

larvae in the field. Mortality did not vary with submerged macrophyte biomass category ( $F_{1,20} = 1.19, p = 0.3$ ) or with macrophyte presence (paired  $t$ -test:  $t_{20} = -1.13, p = 0.3$ ). Mean larval mortality was 47% ( $\pm 32\%$ ) at microsites with submerged macrophytes and 56% ( $\pm 35\%$ ) at microsites without submerged macrophytes. Much of the total variance in mortality (39.1%) occurred at the lake level, but mortality was not correlated significantly with lake clarity or conductance ( $p > 0.1$ ).

Effects of riparian vegetation on adult abundance

We observed adult odonates from 15 different genera at the experimental plots but only *Enallagma* (Zygoptera:Coenagrionidae), *Leucorrhinia*, and *Libellula* spp. (Anisoptera:Libellulinae) were present on >50% of the observation days (96%, 65% and 56%, respectively). Abundances of Gomphidae adults at these plots were much lower than those of Libellulidae adults, probably because Gomphidae spend more time perched in treetops than do Libellulidae. Anisoptera abundance was greatest at the dense-macrophyte block and did not differ significantly between *Typha* treatments ( $p > 0.1$ ; Fig. 3A). Zygoptera abundance was significantly higher at the *Typha* than at the no-*Typha* treatment ( $F_{1,51} = 9.2, p = 0.004$ ; Fig. 3B).

Discussion

Riparian vegetation influenced larval odonate assemblages in the adjacent aquatic ecosystem. Previous studies on ecological links between riparian landscapes and aquatic communities have focused primarily on detrital, nutrient, and structural subsidies (Wallace et al. 1997, Nakano et al. 1999, Bastow et al. 2002, Sass 2004, Baxter et al. 2005, Roth et al. 2007). Our results suggest that adult habitat selection by

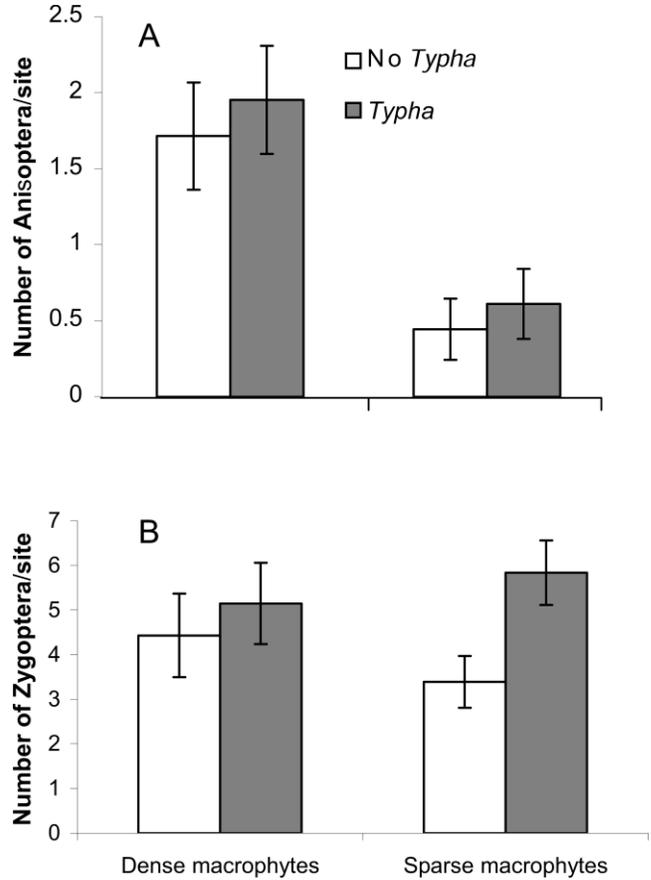


FIG. 3. Mean ( $\pm 1$  SE) number of adult Anisoptera (A) and Zygoptera (B) within 15-  $\times$  7-m experimental plots at 2 blocks of lakeshore home sites in northern Wisconsin (1 with sparse and 1 with dense emergent macrophytes in the littoral zone). *Typha* treatments consisted of 20 potted *Typha minima* placed on the seawalls. *Typha* treatments were rotated between 2 plots/site on 21 d during June to August 2006.

animals with complex life histories provides an additional link between terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems. A growing body of research on agricultural systems has demonstrated that vegetation structure in one ecosystem affects insect abundances in an adjacent system (Langellotto and Denno 2004, Tschardt et al. 2005, Bianchi et al. 2006). In our study, site-level riparian vegetation was a better predictor of total larval Odonata density, Gomphidae density, and Macrominae presence than site- or lake-level aquatic habitat features. In particular, larval density of the most abundant family, Gomphidae, increased with the amount of riparian tall wetland plants adjacent to—but not in—the lakes. Previous studies have linked abundance of *adult* odonates to riparian sedge or rush abundance (Van Buskirk 1986, Clark and Samways 1996, Foote and Hornung 2005, Hofmann and Mason 2005b, Rouquette and Thompson 2007, Butler and

DeMaynadier 2008), but our study shows that the abundance of *larval* odonates is correlated with abundance of terrestrial herbaceous vegetation.

The stronger relationship between larval abundance and riparian tall wetland plants than with riparian structural complexity might reflect the role of the plant structure. Riparian tall wetland plants (*Carex*, *Typha*, and *Iris* spp.) are rigid and provide stable vertical structures on which emerging larvae complete hardening of the wings (Corbet 1999). However, Gomphidae (unlike most other Anisoptera families) also can emerge on horizontal surfaces (Eda 1963). A cause-effect relationship between the availability of suitable emergence structures and odonate population abundances remains to be demonstrated. Adult odonates might prefer rigid plants for perching because their height and open structure facilitate thermoregulation (May 1976, Pezalla 1979) or mate attraction (McKinnon and May 1994). Riparian vegetation also could affect adult abundances if it were correlated with terrestrial prey densities (Baird and May 1997, Whitaker et al. 2000, Garono and Kooser 2001, Henning and Remsburg, in press).

The correlations we observed between larvae and riparian vegetation also might reflect adult selection for oviposition sites with highest survivorship of eggs and larvae (Storch and Frynta 1999). Adults cannot assess all aspects of aquatic habitat suitability for larvae (Wildermuth 1993). However, adult odonates might use emergent aquatic plants or riparian plants as proximate cues of macrophyte, substrate, prey availability, or predator conditions for larvae in littoral sites (Buchwald 1992, Wildermuth 1992, McKinnon and May 1994). Adult riparian site use generally corresponds with oviposition locations (Corbet 1999), and larvae are unlikely to move >20 m from the littoral site where eggs were laid (Ubukata 1984, Schaffner and Anholt 1998, but see Alzmann et al. 1999), so adult habitat use could help explain larval distributions. Other studies have demonstrated indirectly that adding artificial perches can lead to higher adult odonate densities (Wolf and Waltz 1988, Rehfeldt 1990, Baird and May 1997, May and Baird 2002, De Marco and Resende 2004). Our field experiment provides some support for a link between adult site selection and larval densities at sites with riparian wetland plants, but more observations of Gomphidae oviposition are needed to resolve the question directly.

Aeshnidae, which are endophytic species, were most likely to occur at sites with greater littoral muckiness and riparian tall wetland plants; but their presence was not predicted by littoral macrophytes, possibly because we observed so few Aeshnidae larvae in surveys. As the strongest fliers of all odonates,

Aeshnidae also might respond to littoral macrophytes at a larger spatial or temporal scale than do other odonates.

High species richness at sites with more littoral macrophytes can be attributed to more Zygoptera and Libellulinae occurrences at those sites, consistent with previous studies showing the strongest associations of odonate richness with macrophyte biomass (Weatherhead and James 2001, Michaletz et al. 2005, Osborn 2005, Butler and DeMaynadier 2008). Zygopterans require emergent macrophytes for endophytic oviposition, and both Zygoptera and Libellulinae larvae use macrophytes. Last, all Zygoptera and Libellulinae species are perchers as adults, so emergent macrophytes also might serve as important perching structures for adults at oviposition sites (McKinnon and May 1994, Switzer and Walters 1999, De Marco and Resende 2004).

Predation risk for tethered larvae did not help explain why larval densities were highest at microsites with dense macrophytes. Our results differ from those of mesocosm predation experiments in other systems that have shown the importance of macrophytes in predator avoidance by odonate larvae (Crowder and Cooper 1982, Thompson 1987, Dionne et al. 1990, Diehl 1992). Tethering can interfere with predator avoidance behaviors (Curran and Able 1998, Kneib and Scheele 2000), but field and aquarium observations gave us no reason to suspect that effects of tethering on larval behavior differed among microsite treatments. Nevertheless, unnaturally high predation rates resulting from tethering might have overwhelmed the effects of vegetation in our experiment. Differences among fish communities among lakes also might have obscured the predator avoidance effect in our field experiment. Alternatively, competition or foraging behaviors of odonate larvae might better explain their associations with macrophytes than predator avoidance (Johansson 1991, Schmude 1998, Elkin and Baker 2000, Hofmann and Mason 2005a), potentially because of higher predator densities inside than outside macrophyte beds (Werner et al. 1983, Weaver et al. 1997, Gamboa-Perez and Schmitter-Soto 1999). Additional field experiments, such as fish exclusion cages, will be necessary to clarify the specific role of macrophytes for odonate larvae.

Our findings that both riparian and littoral vegetation structure influence lentic Odonata assemblages have several implications for conservation. Odonate abundances and diversity could decline as a consequence of the vegetation simplification and removal of macrophytes and coarse wood that often accompanies lakeshore development (Racey and Euler 1982, Radomski and Goeman 2001, Elias and Meyer 2003,

Marburg et al. 2006). Our observation that site-level vegetation structure affects abundance and diversity of charismatic insects potentially could motivate homeowners to maintain or restore wetland and littoral vegetation. Furthermore, invasion by rusty crayfish (*Orconectes rusticus*) leads to severe macrophyte reduction in north-temperate lakes (Wilson et al. 2004) and might indirectly reduce odonate diversity and density.

Last, Odonata abundances can influence many other components of aquatic and riparian communities because Odonata are predators of smaller invertebrates throughout their complex life cycle (Thorp and Cothran 1984, Johnson et al. 1987, Van Buskirk 1988). High predation by adult odonates on terrestrial pollinators, including bees, moths, and flies, might even alter riparian plant reproduction (Knight et al. 2005). At critical times, odonates make up a significant portion of the diets of fish (Crowder and Cooper 1982, Johnson et al. 1995, Sass 2004) and birds (Orians and Horn 1969, Wissinger 1988), so habitat variables that drive odonate abundances could lead to widespread changes in both aquatic and terrestrial food webs.

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APPENDIX. Odonata species collected as larvae from 59 littoral sites during a broad-scale survey of 41 sites (12 m<sup>2</sup> of littoral benthos sampled per site) in 2004 and a fine-scale survey of 18 microsites (½ with macrophytes, ½ without macrophytes; 2.4 m<sup>2</sup> of littoral benthos sampled per microsite) in northern Wisconsin lakes in 2006. Behavioral guild classifications are shown for larval and adult stages. Three Libellulinae species (*Leucorrhinia hudsonica*, *Leucorrhinia proxima*, and *Tramea carolina*) were observed only in 2006; all other species were found in both years.

Taxon	Larval behavior			Adult behavior	
	Clasper	Sprawler	Burrower	Flier	Percher
<b>Aeshnidae</b>					
<i>Basiaeschna janata</i>	X			X	
<i>Boyeria vinosa</i>	X			X	
<b>Gomphidae</b>					
<i>Arigomphus furcifer</i>			X		X
<i>Dromogomphus spinosus</i>			X		
<i>Gomphus spicatus</i>			X		X
<i>Gomphus exilis</i>			X		X
<i>Gomphus lividus</i>			X		X
<i>Gomphurus fraternus</i>			X		X
<i>Hagenius brevistylus</i>		X	X		
<b>Libellulinae</b>					
<i>Celithemis elisa</i>	X				X
<i>Ladona julia</i>	X	X			X
<i>Leucorrhinia hudsonica</i>		X			X
<i>Leucorrhinia proxima</i>		X			X
<i>Somatachlora cingulata</i>		X			X
<i>Tramea carolina</i>		X	X		X
<b>Cordulinae</b>					
<i>Cordulia shurtleffi</i>		X		X	
<i>Drorocordulia libera</i>		X		X	
<i>Epitheca cynosura</i>		X		X	
<i>Epitheca princeps</i>		X		X	
<i>Epitheca spinigera</i>		X		X	
<b>Macrominae</b>					
<i>Didymops transversa</i>		X	X	X	
<i>Macromia illinoiensis</i>		X	X	X	
<b>Coenagrionidae spp.</b>	X				X