

1	The trophic importance of epiphytic algae in a freshwater macrophyte system
2	(Potamogeton perfoliatus L.): stable isotope and fatty acid analyses
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26 Abstract

27	Stable isotope and fatty acid analyses were used to study carbon sources for animals in a
28	submerged plant bed. Epiphytes growing on Potamogeton perfoliatus, sand microflora, and
29	alder leaves were the most important carbon sources. The most abundant macrophyte, P.
30	perfoliatus was unimportant as a food source. Modelling (IsoSource) showed that epiphytes
31	were the most important food source for the most abundant benthic invertebrates, the isopod
32	Asellus aquaticus (annual mean contribution 64%), the amphipod Gammarus pulex (66%),
33	and the gastropod Potamopyrgus antipodarum (83%). The mean annual contributions of sand
34	microflora were respectively 21, 19, and 9% and of alder leaves, 15, 15, and 8% for these
35	three species. The relative importance of carbon sources varied seasonally. The relative
36	contribution of epiphytes was lowest for all three grazer species in July: A. aquaticus 38%, G.
37	pulex 43%, and P. antipodarum 42% A decline in epiphyte biomass in summer may have
38	caused this switch to less attractive food sources. P. perfoliatus provided habitat and shelter
39	for consumers, but food was mainly supplied indirectly by providing space for attached
40	epiphytes, which are fast-growing and provide a highly nutritious food source.
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51	Key words: Epiphytes, Periphyton, Sand microflora, Grazing, IsoSource

52 Introduction

53 Shallow nutrient poor lakes dominated by aquatic plants are species-rich with complex 54 structure and food webs (Jeppesen et al. 1997). In contrast to nutrient rich plankton-55 dominated lakes, nutrient poor lakes have a higher diversity of carbon sources for their fauna: 56 the submerged plants, attached epiphytes, sand microflora, allochthonous material such as 57 leaves, and phytoplankton. Under extreme nutrient conditions only one primary producer 58 community - macrophytes or phytoplankton - is expected to dominate a lake ecosystem, but 59 within a range of intermediate nutrient levels alternating stable states are possible (Peckham 60 et al. 2006). Fauna associated with submerged plants includes isopods, amphipods, crayfish, 61 gastropods, various insect larvae, and small or juvenile fishes (Jeppesen et al. 1997). The food 62 web is often characterised by omnivory and a lack of dietary specialisation (Jones and 63 Waldron 2003). The links among epiphytes, grazing invertebrates, and fish seem to be 64 important in structuring these systems (Jones et al. 2002). Epiphytes on submerged plants 65 provide food for grazing invertebrates, which, by removing dense accumulations of epiphytes, 66 release macrophytes from competition for light and nutrients and facilitate their growth and 67 survival (Brönmark 1994; Hughes et al. 2004; Jaschinski and Sommer 2008). 68 Our detailed knowledge of the effects of plant-associated invertebrates in lakes is, however, 69 limited. Most studies of periphyton and grazing in freshwater systems have concentrated on 70 periphyton growing on stones or sediment (see Feminella and Hawkins 1995 for review). The 71 existing studies on epiphyte grazing suggest that grazing plant-associated invertebrate species 72 can control epiphyte accumulation (Cattaneo and Kalff 1980; Jones et al. 2002). 73 Past research suggests that epiphytic algae (mostly small filamentous green algae and 74 diatoms) may be important carbon sources in these communities (Underwood and Thomas 75 1990; James et al. 2000a; Jones and Waldron 2003; Hadwen and Bunn 2005). Macrophytes 76 make the greatest contribution to the organic carbon pool in the littoral zones of these lakes, 77 but may not be direct food sources for animals (Keough et al. 1996; Hecky and Hesslein

78	1995). The importance of periphyton/benthic productivity compared to pelagic productivity
79	depends on the size and shape of the lake and on nutrient and light availability (Vadeboncoeur
80	et al. 2008). A review on 193 studies showed that benchic productivity constituted on average
81	46% of whole-lake productivity, and that benthic and pelagic food webs can be strongly
82	linked (Vadeboncoeur et al. 2002).
83	Analytical tools, such as stable carbon and nitrogen isotope, and fatty acid analyses, may add
84	detail to these generalisations. (Desvilettes et al. 1997; James et al. 2000b; Jones and Waldron
85	2003; Hadwen and Bunn; 2005; Jaschinski et al. 2008a). The fractionation of $\delta^{13}C$ is though
86	to be low – maximally 1‰ per trophic level – and $\delta^{13}C$ is therefore useful to identify different
87	carbon sources. The $\delta^{15}N$ content is enriched by 3 to 4‰ per trophic level on average and can
88	be used to construct food webs (Eggers and Jones 2000). Fatty acid analysis can trace food
89	sources in aquatic food webs because specific fatty acids are conserved in structure (Lee et al.
90	1971; Brett et al. 2006). "Indicator" fatty acids, specific to diatoms, dinoflagellates or aerobic
91	and anaerobic bacteria can be used as markers (Viso and Marty 1993; Desvilettes et al. 1997).
92	Fungi, which provide an important link between detritus and invertebrates, might be traced
93	indirectly by $18:1\omega9$ and $18:2\omega6$. These fatty acids originate from plant detritus. The strong
94	correlation with ergosterol (a proxy for fungal biomass) supports the use as indicator fatty
95	acid for fungi (Arts and Wainman 1999; Frostegård and Bååth 1996, Wurzbacher et al. 2010).
96	We tested the hypothesis that epiphytes growing on Potamogeton perfoliatus L.were the most
97	important primary source of organic matter for animals in a lake and we used stable isotope
98	and fatty acid analyses to do this.
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103 Methods

104 Study site

105 The study was carried out from May to September 2003. Field work began when P. 106 perfoliatus appeared in spring, and ended when the plants started to senescence. All samples 107 were obtained from Schluensee in north Germany (54° 11' 24" N, 10° 28' 12" E). The lake is 108 small (1.27 km²), mostly shallow with one deep depression (45 m) and is surrounded by alder 109 and willow trees. P. perfoliatus is the dominant submerged macrophyte down to 5 m water depth. Water temperature was about 12 °C in May, 20 °C in June, 22 °C in July, 23 °C in 110 August, and 18 °C in September. The mean conductivity was 420 μ S* cm⁻² and the mean pH 111 112 was 8.6 ± 0.1 SD (n = 5) from May to September. All measurements were made around 113 midday. The sediment was sandy with a low content of organic material. 114 The nutrient supply was lowest in June and July with nitrate/nitrite concentrations of about 115 2.5 μ mol l⁻¹, ammonium ~ 1 μ mol l⁻¹, silicate ~ 1.8 μ mol l⁻¹ and phosphate ~ 0.2 μ mol l⁻¹ 116 (Table 1). 117 118 Sample collection 119 Samples of alder leaves (Alnus sp.), P. perfoliatus, attached epiphytes, sand microflora, and 120 the most common macrozoobenthic organisms and fish species were analysed in this study. 121 Samples were collected at 1 m water depth in a small wind exposed bay every month from 122 May to September. We collected 20 P. perfoliatus shoots and 10 alder leaves from inside the 123 plant stand on each sampling date. We swept the submerged plants with a net (mesh size 1 124 mm) to obtain invertebrate samples. At each sampling date we swept about six to ten times in 125 a straight line from the shore to 1 m water depth (about 5 m distance) until we had at least 20 126 individuals of the main potentially epiphyte grazing species Asellus aquaticus and Gammarus 127 *pulex.* We tried to sample - if possible – at least 3 individuals of other species present. The 128 lines were approximately 1 m apart. Fish were caught with a dip net. Additionally we sampled 129 60 Potamopyrgus antipodarum from plants and sediment and 10 Dreissena polymorpha from

stones. All samples were placed in plastic containers with water from the collection site and
transported to the laboratory for sorting and further processing. We took 15 sediment cores (1
cm inner diameter) in plant-free patches within the macrophyte stand at each sampling date.
The sediment cores were taken at 1 m water depth 1 m apart in a line parallel to the shore
(distance from the shore about 3m). Additionally, we collected *Asellus aquaticus* (L.) from
the alder leaves of a nearby unvegetated area.

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137 Sample processing

138 In the laboratory, the plant material (Alnus sp. leaves and P. perfoliatus with epiphytes) was 139 rinsed in distilled water to remove fine detritus and attached animals. Epiphytes were 140 carefully scraped from the P. perfoliatus leaves and transferred to small amounts of distilled 141 water using a plastic scraper and filtered on precombusted (450 °C, 24 h) Whatmann GF/F 142 filters. The sediment cores were deep-frozen, the top 0.5 cm was cut off, and 3 at a time were 143 pooled to yield a single sample (n = 5). Sand microflora, which consisted mostly of small 144 epipsammic diatoms and bacteria in our study, was measured as detritus-free sediment. 145 Visible detritus was manually removed and the sediment samples were carefully rinsed with 146 water, which was discarded. We used this method, because the removal of the fine detritus 147 particles was more important in this study than to loose a small part of the epiphyte biomass 148 in form of epipelic diatoms. Observations with a dissecting microscope before and after the 149 cleaning procedure of epiphytes and sediment showed the successful removal of unwanted 150 material. All samples for stable isotope analysis were dried to constant weight (60 °C, 24 h) 151 and stored in a dessicator. All samples for fatty acid analysis were deep-frozen at -80 °C. 152 All invertebrate species were kept alive overnight in lake water to clear their guts. Muscle 153 tissue was analysed for all fish species, the invertebrate species were processed as whole 154 organisms. Consumer and plant samples for stable isotope analysis were dried to constant 155 weight (60 °C, 48 h). The samples were ground in an agate mortar with a pestle as fine as

156 possible and then stored in airtight plastic vials. The shells of the molluscs, apart from

157 unavoidable small fragments were discarded before this procedure.

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159 Stable isotope analysis

160 P. perfoliatus and Alnus sp. leaf subsamples were transferred into tin cups. Consumer and 161 sediment subsamples were transferred into silver cups, treated with 0.2 µl 10% HCl to remove 162 carbonates and then dried again. The use of HCl to remove nondietary carbon in tissue used for stable isotope analysis has been questioned, because the δ^{15} N values can be influenced 163 164 too, but the elimination of carbonates is absolutely necessary for some organisms, especially 165 small gastropods and crustaceans that could only be sampled by crushing their shell or 166 carapace. Preliminary analyses showed no statistically significant differences of δ^{15} N in acid 167 or no-acid treatments (Jaschinski et al., 2008a). 168 All consumer species were measured as individuals, except the small gastropod Potamopyrgus antipodarum, where 10 individuals were pooled in order to obtain sufficient 169 170 material for analysis (n = 3). All samples were combusted in a CN-analyser (Fisons, 1500N) connected to a Finnigan Delta plus mass spectrometer. $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values were calculated 171 172 as 173 174 δX (%) = [(R_{sample}/R_{standard})-1] x 1000 175 where $X = {}^{15}N$ or ${}^{13}C$ and $R = {}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ or ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$. Pure N₂ and CO₂ gases were used as 176 177 primary standards and calibrated against IAEA reference standards (N1, N2, N3, NBS22 and

178 USGS24). Acetanilide was used as internal standard after every sixth sample. The overall

179 analytical precision was $\pm 0.1\%$ for δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C.

180 The model of Phillips and Gregg (2003), which provides a range of feasible source mixtures,

181 was used to determine the carbon sources:

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$$\delta_{\rm M} = f_{\rm A} \delta_{\rm A} + f_{\rm B} \delta_{\rm B} + f_{\rm C} \delta_{\rm C}$$

 $1 = f_{\rm A} + f_{\rm B} + f_{\rm C}$

186	f_A , f_B and f_C are the proportions of source isotopic signatures (δ_A , δ_B and δ_C) which
187	coincide with the observed signature for the mixture (δ_M). All possible combinations of
188	primary producer contributions were analysed with an increment of 1%. These predicted
189	mixture signatures were compared with the measured values in the animals. If they were
190	within a tolerance of 0.01%, they were considered feasible solutions. We only used $\delta^{13}C$
191	values in the modelling because of the sensitivity of the model to fractionation corrections
192	(Connolly et al., 2005). The fractionation is much larger for ¹⁵ N than for ¹³ C and can vary
193	considerably between different species. We chose 0.2% as average fractionation increase of
194	¹³ C for freshwater ecosystems (France and Peters, 1997). Calculations were carried out with
195	IsoSource, a Visual Basic program, which is available for public use
196	(http://www.epa.gov/wed/pages/ models.htm). Epiphytes, Alnus sp. leaves and sand
197	microflora were used as possible carbon sources for the most abundant consumers (A.
198	aquaticus, Gammarus pulex, and P. antipodarum)
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200	Fatty acid analysis
201	The plant and consumer samples were freeze-dried for 48 h, ground in an agate mortar with a
202	pestle and weighed. Plants were processed as individuals, while consumers were pooled into
203	three replicate samples, each containing three individuals, with the exception of <i>P</i> .
204	antipodarum where 10 individuals were pooled to obtain sufficient material for analysis. Fatty
205	acids were extracted with a mixture of CH_2Cl_2 and MeOH (2:1) with the addition of butylated
206	hydroxytoluene (BHT; Sigma) to avoid auto-oxidation of the unsaturated fatty acids and
207	trans-esterified with 2 ml of 3% H_2SO_4 in methanol for four hours at 70 $^{\circ}C$ following the

208	method of Wiltshire et al. (2000). The Fatty Acid Methyl Esters (FAMEs) were analysed on
209	a Hewlett Packard 5890 Series II gas chromatograph using the GC temperature settings of von
210	Elert (2002). We used a JW Scientific column (30 m length, 0.25 mm I.D., and 0.25 μm film
211	thickness). To quantify the fatty acid content an internal standard of heptadecanoic (17:0) and
212	tricosanoic fatty (23:0) acid methyl esters was used.
213	
214	Epiphyte and P. perfoliatus biomass
215	Epiphyte biomass was measured as chlorophyll a. Ten P. perfoliatus shoots were randomly
216	selected on each sampling date. Epiphytes were carefully scraped from the shoots into small
217	amounts of filtered lake water. This suspension was filtered on precombusted (450 $^{\circ}$ C, 24 h)
218	Whatmann GF/F filters. Chlorophyll a and phaeophytin concentrations were measured
219	according to Lorenzen (1967). The cleaned P. perfoliatus shoots were dried to a constant
220	weight for 48 h at 60 °C and subsequently combusted for 8 h at 540 °C to determine the ash-
221	free dry mass (AFDM). The surface area was calculated using the formula surface $(mm^2) =$
222	AFDM (g) x 1362.4 (R^2 =0.96), determined by measuring and weighing 100 shoots. All
223	epiphytic chlorophyll concentrations were normalized to unit P. perfoliatus surface area.
224	
225	Statistics
226	Temporal variability of carbon sources and trophic position of consumers was analysed using
227	third-order polynomial regressions to find the best correlation between time and changes in
228	food sources and trophic position (Statistica).
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232	Results
233	Isotopic composition of food sources and consumers

Possible carbon sources fell into three categories based on δ^{13} C values during the main 234 235 growing season: (1) an enriched source P. perfoliatus; (2) a source of intermediate value for 236 epiphytes growing on P. perfoliatus; (3) depleted sources consisting of sand microflora and alder leaves (Fig. 1). Alder leaves always had the most depleted δ^{15} N signature (annual mean 237 -0.9%), whilst δ^{15} N values of epiphytes (annual mean 4.8%) and *P. perfoliatus* (annual mean 238 239 4.5%) were the most enriched. Sand microflora had intermediate δ^{15} N values (annual mean 240 2.2%%). 241 Observations with the microscope showed that epiphytes mostly consisted of filamentous 242 green algae with an increasing amount of diatoms as the season progressed. Cyanobacteria 243 were found in very small amounts with an increase in autumn. Sand microflora consisted 244 mostly of prostrate diatoms, but green algae and cyanobacteria were also present. The 245 proportions of these two algae groups increased from May to September. 246 Table 2 shows the consumers found and analysed in submerged macrophytes at the 247 Schluensee in the growing season of 2003. The stable isotope signatures found are shown in 248 Fig. 1. The crustaceans A. aquaticus and G. pulex, the ephemerid larvae Cleon dipterum, 249 Ephemera danica, Paraleptophlebia. submarginata and Torleya major and the gastropod P. antipodarum had relatively similar δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values suggesting herbivory with a mixed 250 251 contribution of epiphytes, sand microflora and alder leaves. All other gastropods Galba 252 trunculata, Lymnea stagnalis, Radix ovata, and Theodoxus fluviatilis had more positive δ^{13} C 253 signals closer to that of P. perfoliatus. The δ^{15} N values ranged from 4.7% in G. trunculata to 254 7.3% for T. fluviatilis. 255 Predators were dragon fly larvae *Calopteryx virgo* and *Orthetrum cancellatus*, crayfish 256 Orconectes limosus, fish including stone loach Barbatula barbatula, and three-spined 257 stickleback Gasterosteus aculeatus, and juveniles of the European perch Perca fluviatilis.

258 Their δ^{13} C signals indicated a mixed nutrition based ultimately on epiphyte, sand microflora,

259 alder leaf, and *P. perfoliatus* carbon. The perch were probably still in their planktivorous

260 phase. Small crayfish and perch had lower δ^{15} N values than the larger ones.

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- 262 Seasonal change in nutrition of main consumer species
- 263 The most abundant macrozoobenthic organisms were A. aquaticus, G. pulex and P.
- 264 antipodarum (Gohse-Reimann 2007). Modelling of feasible mixtures showed that epiphytes
- 265 were the most likely carbon source for all three species, but the relative contributions varied
- 266 with time and species. The relative contribution of epiphytes to the nutrition of A. aquaticus
- 267 (Fig. 2a) was high in June (85%), decreased strongly in July (38%) and increased again in
- autumn (63-72%). Sand microflora and alder leaves inevitably had complementary
- 269 contributions to A. aquaticus nutrition with the highest values in July (33% and 29%,
- 270 respectively). In contrast, A. aquaticus collected in a nearby unvegetated area had
- significantly lower δ^{13} C values (around -29%), and alder leaves (93-100%) were the most
- 272 likely contributors to their nutrition (Table 3).
- 273 The relative contributions of epiphytes, sand microflora, and alder leaves to the nutrition of G.
- 274 pulex (Fig. 2b) showed essentially the same pattern as for A. aquaticus in summer and
- autumn, with high values for epiphyte contribution in June (91%), a decrease in July (43%),
- and an increase in autumn (60-75%). The relative contribution of these autotrophs was
- intermediate in May (63%).
- 278 The most likely contributor to *P. antipodarum* nutrition was again epiphytes (90-100%), with
- the exception of July (Fig. 2c). The other possible carbon sources sand microflora and alder
- 280 leaves had a low likelihood of making a substantial contribution to the gastropod's nutrition,
- but in July the importance of epiphytes as carbon source for *P. antipodarum* was strongly
 reduced (42%).
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- 284

285 Biomarker fatty acids in dominant consumers

286	The biomarker fatty acid for <i>P. perfoliatus</i> $18:3\omega 3$ (Rozentsvet et al. 2002) was present in all
287	consumer species (Fig. 3a), but only in insignificant amounts ($\leq 1.2\%$). Concentrations of
288	$20:5\omega 3$, characteristic for diatoms (Viso and Marty 1993; Desvilettes et al. 1997) were low in
289	all consumers (Fig. 3b). A specific unsaturated fatty acid for green algae was not found in the
290	epiphyte samples. We found 18:1009, a fatty acid occurring in high amounts in Alnus leaf
291	litter, and thought to be characteristic for angiosperm detritus (Arts and Wainman 1999), in all
292	animal species. A. aquaticus living on Alnus leaves (18%) and G. pulex (33%) had the highest
293	levels of this fatty acid (Fig. 3c). The G. pulex value was derived from only one sample taken
294	in September. Another biomarker fatty acid for angiosperm detritus $18:2\omega 6$ was found in
295	lower amounts.
296	
297	Epiphyte biomass and phaeophytin content

298 The biomass of epiphytes on *P. perfoliatus*, measured as chlorophyll *a* per surface area was

299 highest in May, and then declined to approximately one third of the initial values in summer.

300 Epiphyte biomass increased again in late summer/autumn (Fig. 4). The phaeophytin values

301 were generally low and ranged from 1 to 5% of the chlorophyll *a* values.

302

303 Discussion

- 304 Plant beds in littoral zones provide a variety of allochthonous and autochthonous organic
- 305 matter (Jeppesen et al. 1997). Our stable isotope and fatty acid analyses strongly argue in
- 306 favour of a food web based mainly on epiphytic algae and to a lesser degree on sand
- 307 microflora and alder leaves in Lake Schluensee from May to September. The negligible
- amount of the characteristic biomarker fatty acid for *P. perfoliatus* 18:3ω3 found in
- 309 consumers strongly suggests that the macrophyte is of minor importance for the carbon flow
- 310 in this food web. Feeding experiments with some of the dominant grazers in Lake Schluensee

311	support this assumption (Gohse-Reimann 2007). Unfortunately, we found no characteristic
312	fatty acid for green algae in the epiphyte samples to further support the results of the stable
313	isotope analyses. The use of fatty acid analyses seemed to be somewhat limited in freshwater
314	macrophyte systems, although the fatty acid composition of green algae is species-specific
315	and under other circumstances a biomarker fatty acid for epiphytic green algae might be
316	found.
317	The question of the importance of fresh macrophytes as food source is still in debate.
318	Originally, submerged vascular plants were supposed to be only relevant as substratum for
319	epiphytes and refuge from predation, and many studies found a low degree of herbivory (e.g.
320	Porter 1977; Otto and Svensson 1981). But reviews of the literature and additional studies
321	revealed that herbivory might be more common than generally thought (Newman 1991;
322	Lodge 1991; Lodge et al. 1994; Jacobsen and Sand-Jensen 2006).
323	Epiphytes were the most important contributors to the nutrition of the most abundant
324	invertebrates in our study. <i>P. antipodarum</i> had δ^{13} C values closest to those of epiphytes. <i>P.</i>
325	antipodarum is indigenous to New Zealand and colonised freshwater and brackish habitats in
326	Australia, Europe, and North America during the 19th and 20th centuries and can reach
327	densities as high as 800.000 ind. m^{-2} (Kerans et al. 2005). It is a generalist feeder (i.e., both
328	grazing herbivore and detritivore) and can feed on sand microflora, periphyton, fungi,
329	bacteria, and detritus (James et al. 2000b; Aberle et al. 2005). Our findings concerning P.
330	antipodarum nutrition are consistent with another study in New Zealand, where stable isotope
331	signatures and gut analyses indicated that epiphytes are the predominant carbon source for
332	this species (James et al. 2000a).
333	The most important source of nutrition for the two major crustacean species A. aquaticus and
334	G. pulex were also epiphytes. Traditionally, both species are considered detrivorous shredders
335	mainly feeding on decaying allochthonous leave material and on attached fungi and bacteria

336 (Graça et al. 1993), but some studies suggest microscopic algae and macrophytes as

337 additional food sources (Moore 1975; Marcus et al. 1978). In laboratory studies even 338 predation and cannibalism occurred (Kelly et al. 2002; Gohse-Reimann, 2007). Our results 339 imply that both grazers show a great plasticity in feeding habits in accordance with the food 340 sources available to them (Moore 1975). A. aquaticus from a nearby unvegetated area had 341 δ^{13} C values indicating alder leaves as ultimate carbon source. High content of 18:109, a fatty 342 acid found in high amounts in leaf litter supports this assumption. The δ^{15} N values of both crustaceans (about 6.7%) indicated a mostly herbivorous lifestyle. In 343 344 particular, it was not possible that chironomid larvae were a preferred food item, as found in 345 feeding experiments (Gohse-Reimann 2007). The chironomid larvae had higher δ^{15} N values 346 (annual mean 7.9%) than both crustacean species in the plant bed. In contrast, the A. *aquaticus* specimen from the unvegetated area showed unusually high δ^{15} N values (annual 347 348 mean 13.4%). The trophic fractionation from detritus to fungi and bacteria may explain the high δ^{15} N values of A. *aquaticus* as this species preferentially feeds on fungi and bacteria 349 350 colonizing the leaves (Graca et al. 1993). Otherwise predation on chironomid larvae may be an 351 option in this environment, where alder leaves with associated fungi and bacteria provided the 352 main food source. 353 In July, the proportional contribution of epiphyte carbon to the nutrition of *P. antipodarum*, *A.* 354 *aquaticus*, and *G. pulex* was reduced by half compared with all other months. The 355 contributions of sand microflora and alder leaves increased accordingly. This drastic change 356 in food sources occurred along with a strong decrease in epiphyte biomass. Reduction in the 357 quantity of the preferred food seems to induce a switch in nutrition to less attractive food 358 items. Furthermore, these results support the hypothesis that grazing invertebrates can control 359 the density of epiphytes and, thus, the competition between epiphytes and macrophytes for 360 light and nutrients (Jones et al. 2002). A strong increase in the abundances of main consumers 361 in summer (Gohse-Reimann 2007) in combination with low nutrient levels probably reduced

362 epiphyte biomass and production until autumn, when early storms and a decrease in consumer

363 abundance changed the situation.

- 364 Our epiphyte chlorophyll *a* values are in the range of values found for epiphytes growing on
- 365 *P. perfoliatus* in brackish water in the Chesapeake Bay (Neundorfer and Kemp 1993). The
- 366 same seasonal development and similar absolute chlorophyll *a* values were found in a
- 367 phosphate limitated temperate lake for epiphytes growing on Scirpus subterminalis
- 368 (Burkholder and Wetzel 1989). The phaeophytin content, which might be used as an indirect
- 369 indicator for bacteria in the epiphyte community, was about ten times higher than in our study
- 370 indicating that bacteria play a minor role as food source at our study site.
- 371 Other gastropod species than *P. antipodarum* occurred only occasionally and in low densities.
- 372 The stable carbon signatures of *R. ovata* and *T. fluviatilis* indicated a possible contribution of
- 373 the macrophyte *P. perfoliatus* to their nutrition. May flies (*C. dipterum*, *E. danica*, *P.*
- 374 submarginata, T. major) were only found in May and June and their δ^{13} C values suggested a
- 375 mixed diet of epiphytes, sand microflora, and alder leaves.
- 376 Stable isotope analyses indicated that the main predators, American crayfish (O. limosus),
- 377 loach (B. barbatula) and three-spined stickleback (G. aculeatus) ultimately depend on
- 378 epiphyte, sediment microflora, Alnus leaves and P. perfoliatus carbon in about equal
- 379 proportions. Crayfish are considered omnivorous, though preferring aquatic invertebrates, but
- 380 may take macrophytes and leaf litter, when more nutritious food is scarce (Nyström et al.
- 381 1999; Dorn and Mittelbach 2004). Feeding experiments with O. limosus showed that this
- 382 crayfish preferentially fed on animals, but small amounts of leaf litter and macrophyte tissue
- 383 were also ingested (Gohse-Reimann 2007). The relatively low δ^{15} N values (annual mean
- 384 8.7‰) give further evidence for an omnivorous life style of this species.
- 385 The basic food of loach is dipteran larvae, mostly chironomids, while other insect larvae are
- 386 fed upon only in spring, and benthic crustaceans, amphipods and isopods become more
- important in autumn (Michel and Oberdorff 1995). This is in good accordance with the $\delta^{15}N$
 - 15

- 388 content of the loach, which decreased from 12.1% in spring to 9.1% in autumn while the
- δ^{15} N of chironomid larvae decreased simultaneously from 9.7% to 6.5. The δ^{13} C of the loach,

390 however, suggested that chironomids are not the only food source.

- 391 Sticklebacks are the top predator in this macrophyte system showing the highest δ^{15} N values
- 392 (14%). This fish species is a generalist, feeding on insect larvae, benthic crustaceans,
- 393 copepods and fish eggs, which may explain its high trophic position. The perch in our study

394 were probably still in their zooplanktivorous phase (Hargeby et al. 2005).

- 395 Our assumption that there is no strong direct link between living macrophytes and higher
- 396 trophic levels is consistent with other stable isotope analyses in plant-dominated lake systems
- 397 (Hecky and Hesslein 1995; James, et al. 2000b; Jones and Waldron 2003). In contrast to most
- 398 other studies on freshwater macrophyte systems, Keough et al. (1996) found that
- 399 phytoplankton was the dominant carbon source in the littoral zone of Lake Superior and

400 epiphytes played only a minor role in invertebrate nutrition. In addition, Solomon et al. (2008)

401 showed that the importance of periphyton is species-dependent for aquatic insect larvae in a

402 whole-lake ¹³C addition experiment. In marine seagrass beds, similar analyses also supported

403 the importance of epiphytic algae (Moncreiff and Sullivan 2001; Jaschinski et al. 2008b) and

- 404 benthic microalgae can also be relevant in salt marsh food webs (Teal 1962; Sullivan and
- 405 Moncreiff 1990).
- 406 Epiphytes on submerged plants in temperate regions are generally believed to have the

407 potential to fix more carbon than the macrophytes they grow on (Cattaneo and Kalff 1980;

408 Jaschinski et al. 2008b) despite their relatively low biomass and provide a more nutritious and

409 less toxic or repellent food than most macrophytes. Epiphytes usually contain more nitrogen

- 410 and phosphorus in relation to carbon compared to macrophytes and leaf litter, and the content
- 411 of essential fatty acids (ω 3 and ω 6 groups) is higher than in *Alnus* leaves (Brepohl, unpubl.
- 412 data). Both amount and nature of the food sources thus influence what animals eat.

413

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 Table 1 Dissolved nutrients in the Schluensee from March to November 2003

	Nutrient (µmol/l)	March	April	Мау	June	July	August	September	October	No
	Nitrate/nitrite Ammonium Silicate Phosphate	21.448 0.774 2.977	2.260 3.546 0.731	3.334 1.417 6.435 0.212	2.847 1.149 1.574 0.199	2.068 0.928 2.057 0.165	1.643 0.816 22.697	1.394 1.798 21.980	2.769 1.124 47.672	1
594 595	Phosphate	1.741	0.204	0.212	0.199	0.165	0.133	0.082	0.179	
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Table 2 Species analysed (SI/FA) in a Potamogeton perfoliatus stand in the Schluensee,

Germany, 2003

Species	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Crustacea					
Asellus aquaticus (Linnaeus)		10/9	10/9	10/9	10/9
Gammarus pulex (Linnaeus)	10/9	10/9	10/9	10/9	10/9
Orconectes limosus (Rafinesque)		10/5	10/5		
Diptera					
Chironomus sp.	10/0	10/0	10/10	10/0	
Ephemeroptera					
Cloeon dipterum (Linnaeus)	5/6				
Ephemera danica Müller	8/1	3/0			
Paraleptophlebia submarginata (Stephens)		4/0			
Torleya major (Klapalek)		3/0			
Odontata					
Calopteryx virgo (Linnaeus)		3/1	3/0	3/0	3/0
Oethetrum cancellatum (Linnaeus)				1/0	
Mollusca					
Bithynia tentaculata (Linnaeus)			1/0		
Dreissena polymorpha Pallas	10/3	10/3	10/3	10/3	10/3
Galba trunculata			1/0		
Lymnaea stagnalis (Linnaeus)			1/1		
Potamopyrgus antipodarum (J. E. Gray)	30/30	30/30	30/30	30/30	30/30
Radix ovata (Draparnaud)		1/1			
Theodoxus fluviatilis (Linnaeus)		3/0	3/0	3/0	3/0
Pisces					
Barbatula barbatula (Linnaeus)		1/1	1/1	1/1	1/1
Gasterosteus aculeatus Linnaeus	1/0		1/0		
Perca fluviatilis Linnaeus	4/4	4/4	4/4		

Table 3 Results of the IsoSource model for the most abundant consumers. Mean contributions

628 of primary producers to consumer nutrition and the 1 to 99 percentile ranges are given (in

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629 parentheses).

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Month	Epiphytes	Alder leaves	Sand microflora
A. aquaticus			
June	85 (84-87)	6 (0-13)	9 (0-16)
July	38 (35-41)	29 (5-55)	33 (4-60)
August	63 (58-67)	16 (0-30)	22 (3-42)
September	72 (64-79)	11 (0-20)	18 (1-36)
A. aquaticus (unv	egetated area)		
June	0	99 (99-100)	1 (0-1)
July	0	93 (88-98)	7 (1-12)
August	0	100	0
G. pulex			
May	63 (50-75)	13 (0-25)	25 (0-50)
June	91 (90-92)	4 (0-8)	5 (0-10)
July	43 (40-46)	28 (2-52)	28 (2-58)
August	60 (54-64)	18 (2-35)	23 (1-44)
September	75 (68-81)	11 (2-19)	15 (0-30)
P. antipodarum			
May	100	0	0
June	88 (87-89)	5 (0-9)	7 (2-13)
July	42 (39-45)	31 (5-55)	27 (0-56)
August	90 (89-91)	3 (0-7)	7 (2-11)
September	96 (95-96)	2 (1-2)	3 (2-4)

639	Figure legends
640	
641	Fig. 1 Seasonal variation in δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values (%) for food sources and consumers
642	collected from a Potamogeton perfoliatus stand in the Schluensee in 2003.
643	
644	Fig. 2 Seasonal variation in carbon sources for the most abundant consumers (a) Asellus
645	aquaticus, (b) Gammarus pulex, and (c) Potamopyrgus antipodarum.
646	
647	Fig. 3 Biomarker fatty acids in dominant animals and primary food sources: (a) for
648	Potamogeton perfoliatus, (b) for diatoms, and (c) for Alnus leaves. The dotted lines separate
649	primary producers and consumer species. (PA = Potamopyrgus antipodarum, LA = Asellus
650	<i>aquaticus</i> on leaves, EA = A. <i>aquaticus</i> on epiphytes, GP = Gammarus pulex, OP =
651	$Or conectes\ limosus, PF = Perca\ fluviatilis, BB = Barbatula\ barbatula, PP = Potamogeton$
652	<i>perfoliatus</i> , AL <i>Alnus</i> leaves, EP = epiphytes, SM = sand microflora).
653	
654	Fig. 4 Epiphyte biomass and phaeophytin content in a <i>P. perfoliatus</i> stand in the Schluensee,
655	Germany, from May to September. Shown are means and standard deviation.
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671 Figure 3



674 Figure 4

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