

Water volume differentially modifies copepod predatory strengths on two prey types

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1 Short Communication

2	Water volume differentially modifies copepod predatory strengths on two prey types						
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22 Abstract

23	Predatory interaction strengths are highly context-dependent, and in temporary aquatic
24	ecosystems, may be affected by water volume changes. We examine the influence of water
25	volume on Lovenula raynerae (Copepoda) functional responses towards two temporary pond
26	prey types. Daphnia prey risk was not affected by increasing water volume, whereas for
27	Culex prey risk was reduced. Accordingly, water volume changes through the hydroperiod
28	may have species-specific effects on prey, with implications for population persistence under
29	environmental change.
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31	Keywords
32	Search area; functional response; interaction strength; copepod; daphnid; culicid
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Determining factors which influence the strength of interactions between species is essential 43 for understanding community-level stabilities and dynamics within ecosystems (McCann et 44 al., 1998; Vázquez et al., 2015). Context-dependencies can modify prey risk from predators 45 in heterogeneous environments and can be measured experimentally to help predict 46 population persistence (Dick et al., 2014). Search area may be a particularly important 47 context-dependency that influences the strength of trophic interactions through, for example, 48 49 alterations to prey encounter and clearance rates (Uiterwaal and DeLong, 2018). In temporary pond ecosystems, water volume is highly changeable spatiotemporally owing to naturally 50 51 periodic wet and dry states, potentially altering the nature of trophic dynamics therein. Such undulations in water volumes through the hydroperiod may be an important contributor to 52 species extirpations and reported 'boom-bust' dynamics (Wasserman et al., 2018). The effect 53 54 of water volume on trophic interactions among temporary pond specialist biota is, however, poorly understood. This limits understandings of the influence of predicted future droughts 55 and land use changes for ecological functioning of these biodiverse systems (Dalu et al., 56 2017). 57

58

Prey risk is known to differ between species where they coexist within aquatic communities 59 (Cuthbert et al., 2018). Differences in behavioural traits between prey species may modify the 60 influence of context-dependencies on predation risk (Laverty et al., 2015). For pelagic 61 predators and prey which occupy three-dimensional space throughout the water column, 62 interaction strengths may be relatively unaffected by increasing search area than towards prey 63 species which remain at the surface or benthos. Likewise, predators which forage in two-64 dimensional space may be affected to a lesser extent by water volume change towards benthic 65 or surficial prey compared to pelagic prey items. Accordingly, the influence of water volume 66

change could differ between predator-prey participants and may alleviate or exacerbatepredation risk depending on fundamental behavioural traits and spatial occupancies.

69

70 The present study uses a functional response approach to comparatively quantify the influence of water volume change for interaction strengths towards two temporary pond prey 71 types. We consider functional responses comparatively as our results are not bolstered by 72 empirical validation of parameters which could facilitate mechanistic interpretation (see Dick 73 et al., 2014). Functional responses quantify resource use as a function of resource density and 74 75 their shape and magnitude can be a useful indicator of prey population stability outcomes (Holling, 1959; Dick et al., 2014). Focusing on the pelagic temporary pond specialist 76 copepod Lovenula raynerae as a predator, functional responses are quantified under five 77 78 different water volumes towards two common prey types, Daphnia longispina (i.e. water flea) and *Culex pipiens* (i.e. mosquito larva). This predator is often numerically dominant in 79 80 temporary ponds within the study area (Wasserman et al., 2018). In our predator-prey system, given that D. longispina is a pelagic species whilst C. pipiens is a surface-dweller, we expect 81 interactions with the latter species to be more profoundly affected by the experimental water 82 83 volume gradient.

84

Adult male *L. raynerae* (4.5 – 5.0 mm total length) were collected from a temporary pond
close to Makhanda (Grahamstown) in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa during
April 2019 (33°15'02.6"S 26°26'13.1"E). Copepods were transported in source pond water to
a controlled environment (CE) room at the Department of Zoology and Entomology, Rhodes
University that was maintained at 25 °C (± 1 °C) and under a 14:10 light and dark
photoperiod regime, corresponding with natural local conditions. Copepods were starved in

91 filtered source water from the collection site for 24 hours prior to experimentation, to allow92 for gut clearance and standardisation of hunger levels.

93

Two prey types were collected and used in the experiment, *D. longispina* and *C. pipiens*.
Daphnids (total length (excluding spine): 1.8 – 2.1 mm) were collected from a reservoir
adjacent to the copepod collection site (33°15'04.2"S 26°26'17.1"E). Culicids (total length:
2.0 – 3.0 mm) were collected from container-style aquatic habitats on the university campus.
Both prey types were housed in the same CE room as the copepod predators until
experimentation.

100

Two separate feeding experiments were conducted according to prey type, given different 101 feeding durations were required to reach asymptotic consumption rates towards each prey 102 type. Five water volume treatments were applied to glass jars of 5.6 cm diameter (20, 40, 60, 103 80 and 100 mL) using filtered source water from the copepod collection site (as before). Five 104 105 supplies of each prey type were distributed among each water volume level (2, 4, 8, 16 and 32 individuals arena⁻¹; densities as per Table 1). The range of prey densities used in the 106 present study reflects the abundances and high natural variability of biota within temporary 107 wetland ecosystems (Wasserman et al., 2018), and a large range of prey densities is required 108 109 to facilitate asymptotic declines in feeding rates in functional response experiments (see Dick et al., 2014). Each prey type was allowed to settle for one hour prior to the addition of 110 individual copepod predators. After introduction, predators were allowed to feed on daphnids 111 or culicids for 18 and 4 hours, respectively. Each treatment group was replicated four times 112 for each prey type, and a further replicate of predator-free controls was run for each prey 113

114 type, water volume and prey density (i.e., 2 prey \times 5 volumes \times 5 supplies \times 4 replicates + 115 controls = 250 experimental units overall).

116

Given differences in feeding times towards each prey type (see before), statistical analyses 117 were conducted separately for daphnids and culicids. Poisson generalised linear models with 118 log links were used to examine overall prey consumption as a function of water volume and 119 prey supply, and their interaction. A dispersion test was used to confirm that residuals were 120 not over/underdispersed in models (Kleiber and Zeileis, 2008). Second-order derivations of 121 Akaike's information criterion were used to select models for each prey type which 122 minimised information loss (Barton, 2018), with $\Delta AICc \leq 2.00$ considered interchangeable 123 124 (Burnham and Anderson, 2002).

125

Functional response types were first characterised used binomial generalised linear models
and logit links separately for each prey type and water volume (Juliano, 2001; Pritchard et al.,
2017). A significantly negative linear coefficient is indicative of a Type II functional
response. Second, we fit Rogers' random predator equation to each treatment to account for
the non-replacement of prey during the experimental trials (Rogers, 1972):

131
$$N_e = N_0(1 - \exp(a(N_e h - T)))$$

132

where N_e is the number of prey eaten (i.e., number killed), N_0 is the initial density of prey, *a* is the attack rate, *h* is the handling time and *T* is the total experimental period (hours). The Lambert W function was used to solve the random predator equation (Bolker, 2008). Third, functional response parameters (*a*, *h*) were non-parametrically bootstrapped 2000 times to

(1)

generate 95 % confidence intervals across curves for each prey type and water volume.
Statistical analyses were performed in R v 3.4.2 (R Development Core Team, 2018).

139

Approximately 97 % of control prey survived overall, and therefore we did not deem it 140 necessary to adjust experimental feeding rates for background prey mortality. The top model 141 examining feeding rates towards daphnids included water volume, prey supply and their 142 interaction ($\Delta AICc \leq 1.46$). Feeding rates related significantly positively with prey supply 143 (GLM: z = 8.10, p < 0.001), but not water volume (GLM: z = 0.20, p = 0.84) or their interaction 144 (GLM: z = 0.96, p = 0.34). The top model considering feeding rates upon culicids also included 145 water volume and prey supply, but excluded the interaction term ($\Delta AICc = 2.11$). Here, feeding 146 rates again related significantly positively to prey supply (GLM: z = 10.53, p < 0.001), yet also 147 148 related significantly negatively to water volume (GLM: z = 4.55, p < 0.001). Therefore, the effect of water volume differed between prey types, with a greater negative effect on feeding 149 rates towards surface-dwelling culicids as compared to pelagic daphnids (Figure 1). 150

151

152 Feeding rates towards both prey types always related significantly negatively to prey supplies across water volumes, and thus functional responses were categorised as Type II (Table 1). 153 Attack rates and handling times were significant for the majority of treatment groups (Table 154 155 1). Confidence intervals consistently overlapped across prey densities towards daphnids, indicating a lack of significant differences in functional responses among water volume 156 157 treatments (Figure 2a). By contrast, functional responses towards culicids were influenced to a greater extent by water volume, with significant differences between 20 mL volumes and all 158 other groups at low-intermediate prey supplies (Figure 2b). This, in turn, reflects greater attack 159 160 rates and lower handling times under the lowest water volume here (Table 1).

Prey risk differed considerably between prey types across the water volume gradient in the 162 present study, with risk for pelagic daphnid prey less affected by the water volume gradient 163 than the surficial culicid prey. Despite search volumes increasing by several multitudes, and 164 thus prey densities decreasing, daphnid consumption was relatively unaffected and thus higher 165 166 than expected under higher water volumes. For active pelagic predator-prey pairs, encounter rates are likely less affected by differences in water volume compared to pelagic predators 167

feeding on inactive surface-dwelling prey. In the latter case, prey risk is more variable because 168 the likelihood of being in proximity to surface-dwelling prey increases in shallow waters, 169 whilst prey 'crowding' across densities is more prevalent for daphnid prey. Accordingly, for 170 larval mosquito prey, predatory impact is intensified as water volumes decrease given greater 171 encounter rates at the surface, yet predation is less efficient at greater depths. These findings 172 corroborate Dalal et al. (2019), where the strength of notonectid functional responses towards 173 larval mosquitoes differed according to aquatic search areas. However, despite differences in 174 feeding rates, functional response types were unchanged in the present study, with L. raynerae 175 consistently displaying saturating Type II curves towards both prey types irrespective of water 176 177 volume. Given Type II functional responses are characterised by high feeding rates at low prey 178 densities (see Dick et al., 2014), L. raynerae is consistently able to capture daphnids and 179 culicids across different water volumes. Nonetheless, attack rates towards mosquitoes were 180 reduced at the highest compared to lowest volume, indicating reduced interaction strengths at low prey densities. Handling times also generally lengthened with increasing water volume for 181 both prey types, causing reduced maximum feeding rates. Previous research has demonstrated 182 183 large and consistent effects of arena size (i.e. search area) for the determination of foraging rates in laboratory experiments (Uiterwaal et al., 2018), and particularly at low prey densities. 184

Here, we further show that search area can alter foraging efficiencies and functional responseparameterisation, but that these effects are prey type-dependent.

187

The present study thus demonstrates the importance of search area for trophic interactions in 188 highly dynamic temporary aquatic ecosystems. Whilst empirical inferences arising from 189 laboratory studies should be treated with necessary caution, applications of comparative 190 functional responses can provide useful insights into environmental context-dependencies in a 191 controlled manner. Alterations to hydrological regimes in future associated with climatic and 192 land use changes may influence interaction strengths differentially among prey species, in turn 193 potentially altering population stabilities and community composition. In particular, deepening 194 of temporary ponds for water storage could reduce the efficacy of specialist predators in 195 196 controlling vector mosquito populations. Indeed, larval mosquitoes have been observed to be more abundant in deep as compared to shallow ponds in the study area (Dalu pers. comm.). 197 This study further highlights the potential for temporary pond specialist predatory zooplankton 198 to regulate mosquito populations which vector pathogens and parasites, and thus to provide an 199 ecosystem service in terms of public health. If these ecosystems are compromised, such as 200 201 through being deepened by land owners for water storage purposes, the potential for vector mosquito proliferation may increase. Whilst recent work has also demonstrated strong prev 202 selectivity patterns by predators in temporary ponds (Cuthbert et al., 2019), future studies 203 should also examine the influence of water volume on prey preferences in these systems to 204 further elucidate the implications of search area for trophic interactions concerning vector 205 mosquito populations. Field-based surveys to examine how culicid and daphnid prey 206 abundances shift spatiotemporally according to pond characteristics are also warranted. 207

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266	to copepod sex-skewed ratios. Oikos 127, 970–980.
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273	Table 1. Functional response linear coefficients, attack rates and handling times for each prey
274	type (daphnid, Daphnia longispina; culicid, larval Culex pipiens) and water volume treatment

- 275 group by *Lovenula raynere*, as well as associated *p*-values. Functional response parameters are
- 276 standardised hourly towards each prey group.

Prey	Volume	Density range	Linear	Attack rate,	Handling
	(mL)	(prey mL ⁻¹)	coefficient, p-	<i>p</i> -value	time, <i>p</i> -value
			value		
Daphnid	20	0.1 - 1.6	-0.06, < 0.001	0.15, < 0.001	0.69, < 0.001
Daphnid	40	0.05 - 0.80	-0.08, < 0.001	0.24, < 0.001	1.11, < 0.001
Daphnid	60	0.03 - 0.53	-0.05, < 0.001	0.12, < 0.001	0.77, < 0.001
Daphnid	80	0.03 - 0.40	-0.07, < 0.001	0.16, < 0.001	1.14, < 0.001
Daphnid	100	0.02 - 0.32	-0.08, < 0.001	0.21, < 0.001	1.26, < 0.001
Culicid	20	0.1 – 1.6	-0.09, < 0.001	0.77, < 0.001	0.31, < 0.001
Culicid	40	0.05 - 0.80	-0.05, < 0.001	0.40, 0.001	0.40, < 0.001
Culicid	60	0.03 - 0.53	-0.05, < 0.001	0.29, < 0.001	0.38, < 0.001
Culicid	80	0.03 - 0.40	-0.05, < 0.001	0.67, 0.07	0.72, < 0.001
Culicid	100	0.02 - 0.32	-0.05, < 0.001	0.21, 0.002	0.48, < 0.001





Figure 2. Type II functional response curves of *Lovenula raynerae* towards daphnid
(*Daphnia longispina*, a) and larval culicid (*Culex pipiens*, b) prey under different water
volume treatments, irrespective of experimental duration. Shaded areas are bootstrapped 95
% confidence intervals.