1	Running title: Diet and temperature effects on Daphnia
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4	Seasonal effects of food quality and temperature on body stoichiometry, biochemistry, and
5	biomass production in Daphnia populations
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25 Abstract

Food quality and temperature can affect zooplankton production in lakes by altering 26 organismal metabolism. However, the influence of these factors on consumer nutritional 27 physiology and population biomass remains relatively understudied in natural populations. Here, 28 we examined seasonal changes in body stoichiometry, biochemistry, and population biomass in 29 30 two Daphnia species collected from two separate lakes differing in dietary phosphorus (P) supply. Food quality, measured as seston carbon: P (C:P) ratios, varied throughout the study in 31 32 each lake, and water temperatures generally increased across the growing season. Daphnid elemental composition was correlated with food quality in both populations, but relationships 33 between daphnid body stoichiometry and temperature were consistently stronger as Daphnia 34 body C:P ratios and content of major biochemical pools declined simultaneously throughout the 35 summer, which largely coincided with increased water temperatures. Warmer temperatures were 36 37 associated with relaxed %P-RNA coupling as daphnid body RNA content declined and P content 38 remained relatively high. These responses combined with temperature related decreases in Daphnia body %lipids and %C appeared to explain declines in daphnid body C:P ratios in both 39 lakes over the growing season. Seasonal changes in population biomass were related to both food 40 41 quality and water temperature in the lower nutrient lake. Biomass production under more eutrophic conditions however was unrelated to food quality and was instead associated with 42 43 seasonal temperature changes in the higher nutrient lake. Overall, our study shows that seasonal 44 changes in temperature and resource quality may differentially affect consumer stoichiometry 45 and biomass production in lake ecosystems by altering consumer elemental metabolism.

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48 Introduction

Freshwater zooplankton assemblages can show considerable phenological changes in 49 50 biomass production in temperate lake ecosystems (Sommer et al. 1986; Pantel et al. 2014). These seasonal dynamics have traditionally been considered to be predominantly regulated by 51 biological constraints such as predation and food quantity (McCauley & Kalff 1981; Carpenter et 52 53 al. 1985; Sommer et al. 1986). In addition, recent studies have demonstrated the importance of elemental food *quality* in controlling zooplankton production through its effects on consumer 54 55 nutritional physiology and community biomass (Elser et al. 1998, 2003; Hessen et al. 2005; 56 Sommer et al. 2012). Experimental work has also found that food quality can interact with other temporally dynamic variables such as temperature to alter consumer growth and metabolic rates 57 in laboratory environments (Makino et al. 2011; McFeeters and Frost 2011). Despite 58 considerable seasonal differences in dietary elemental composition and temperature in temperate 59 lakes (Kreeger et al. 1997; Hessen et al. 2005), their relative influence on consumer metabolism 60 61 and population dynamics in natural assemblages remains poorly understood. Here, we examine how zooplankton consumer (Daphnia spp.) body stoichiometry, biochemistry, and population 62 63 biomass relate to temporal changes in food quality and temperature in two different lake 64 ecosystems.

Nutrient availability differs widely within and among aquatic habitats (Elser et al. 2000a;
Sterner et al. 2008), and food elemental content is a well-known factor influencing consumer
nutritional physiology and life-history (Frost et al. 2005; Wagner et al. 2013). Imbalances
between the proportional supplies of key dietary elements like carbon (C), nitrogen (N), and
phosphorus (P) and consumer metabolic demands can alter the synthesis of major
macromolecules such as lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids, respectively (Elser et al. 1996;

Wagner et al. 2015). As these biochemical pools are tied to consumer elemental composition 71 (Elser et al. 1996), poor food quality could indirectly affect consumer body stoichiometry by 72 73 altering their elemental metabolism. Specifically, the growth hypothesis states that dietary Plimitation can slow the production of P-rich ribosomal RNA in animals and increase their body 74 N:P ratios (Elser et al. 2003; Loladze and Elser 2011). These metabolic changes are further 75 76 known to reduce individual growth, reproduction, and survivorship rates (Sterner et al. 1993; 77 Frost et al. 2005), which suggests that poor food quality could ultimately lead to decreased biomass production in consumer populations (Loladze et al. 2000). Thus, elemental imbalances 78 79 between producers and consumers represent potentially strong controls on aquatic food webs by regulating the proportion and amount of elements found within the consumer trophic level 80 (Andersen 1997; Cebrian et al. 2009). 81

In addition to food quality, temperature also affects consumer nutrient metabolism. 82 Within biologically relevant ranges, temperature drives exponential changes in organismal 83 84 metabolic rates (Gillooly et al. 2001; Brown et al. 2004), which in turn influence animal biochemical composition and elemental content (Woods et al. 2003; Bullejos et al. 2014). For 85 example, higher temperatures can reduce cellular RNA and P demands due to increased 86 87 ribosomal translational efficiencies (Sievers et al. 2004; Toseland et al. 2013) and decrease body lipid stores by increasing C respiration (Evjemo et al. 2001; McFeeters and Frost 2011; Alcaraz 88 89 et al. 2013) leading to proportional changes in consumer body C:P ratios. Further, by influencing 90 consumer life-history trait expression and elemental composition, temperature can also affect 91 population growth rates and regulate elemental flows through ecosystems (Petchey et al. 1999; 92 Savage et al. 2004). In all, temperature and food quality play key roles in shaping consumer 93 metabolism, and changes in these variables may have cascading effects on organismal life94 history, body stoichiometry, and population dynamics in aquatic ecosystems (Hessen et al. 2005;
95 Cross et al. 2015).

96 In this study, we documented weekly variation in daphnid body elemental composition, gross biochemistry, and biomass production of two daphnid species (D. pulicaria and D. 97 98 *mendotae*) collected from two separate lakes across a summer growing season. As these species 99 show little overlap in our study region and are predominantly found in low and high P 100 environments, respectively (Prater et al. 2017), we examined changes in each species 101 independently. Food quality and temperature changed seasonally in each lake allowing us to 102 compare the compare their relative effects on 1) daphnid elemental-biochemical relationships and 2) biomass production within each population. By focusing on two elements and their major 103 molecular pools with well-known connections to daphnid nutritional physiology (P-RNA) and 104 105 that account for the majority of consumer biomass (C-lipids), we provide *in situ* observations to 106 better understand the effects of temperature and dietary nutrient supply on consumer elemental 107 metabolism within the context of stoichiometric theory.

108 Methods

Study Sites. We sampled Daphnia populations from two lakes that are geographically 109 110 close (~40 km apart) but are found in two distinct ecoregions in south central Ontario. Wolf Lake is located in the Kawartha Highland Provincial Park on the southern edge of the Canadian Shield 111 112 where landuse is mostly forested with little to moderate shoreline development (Hicks and Frost 113 2011). Pigeon Lake is in the Kawartha Lakes region, which is located just south of the Canadian 114 Shield. This area is characterized by significant agricultural landuse (~50%) and high lake shore residential development (Crins et al. 2009). These lakes were chosen due to their differences P 115 116 supply and trophic state (Suppl. Table 1) as Wolf Lake is considered to be an oligo-mesotrophic

lake and Pigeon Lake is meso-eutrophic (sensu, Carlson 1977). In addition, each site is also
inhabited by a different species of *Daphnia* (Pigeon: *D. mendotae* and Wolf: *D. pulicaria*, Prater
et al. 2017).

Field Sampling. Lake sampling began immediately after ice off, which occurred 2 weeks 120 earlier in Pigeon Lake than Wolf Lake. Lakes were sampled weekly from May through 121 122 September for a total of 22 and 20 weeks, respectively. This time span roughly represents a 123 normal growing season in many temperate regions of the northern hemisphere. Water samples 124 for total phosphorus (TP) and seston analyses (stoichiometry and biomass) were collected at the 125 surface of the water column and 1 m from bottom (8-10 m) using a Van Dorn sampler. These samples were poured into acid-washed 4 L carboys and transported back to the lab on ice. 126 Quantitative *Daphnia* biomass samples were collected by taking fixed-depth vertical tows at 127 these sites. These samples were rinsed into 500 ml plastic bottles and kept cool at \sim 4°C during 128 129 transport. Temperature depth profiles were measured during each collection period (YSI Pro20, 130 Yellow Springs, OH), and lakes were sampled at roughly the same time of the day (1000-1200h) to minimize the influence of diurnal temperature fluctuations. 131

132 Sample Processing and Preservation: In the laboratory, we saved whole water samples 133 for TP analysis at 4°C until processing. We pre-filtered water samples for seston analysis with 80 µm mesh to remove inedible particles and then filtered the remaining suspended materials onto 134 135 pre-ashed 0.7 µm GF/F glass fiber filters. Samples for stoichiometric analysis of surface and 136 bottom samples (n=2 CN and n=2 P for each) were dried at 60°C and stored at 20°C, and chlorophyll a (Chl a, n=2 for each) was frozen and stored in the dark at -20°C until analysis. 137 138 Between 5-10 daphnids were pooled into 5 separate samples for elemental analysis (n=5 CN and 139 n=5 P analytical replicates). Animals were rinsed twice with deionized water, placed into pre-

weighed tins, dried at 60°C, and desiccated prior to weighing on a microbalance ($\pm 1 \mu g$; Mettler-140 Toledo, Markham, ON). For gross biochemical analysis, daphnids were also rinsed and saved in 141 142 separate 1.5 ml vials for each analysis. Lipid samples (10-20 pooled individuals, n=5 samples) were immediately flash-frozen using liquid nitrogen, stored at minus -80°C, and lyophilized. For 143 RNA samples, we measured lengths of 10 individuals (from the top of the eyespot to the base of 144 145 the tail), placed each animal into a numbered vial, added 100 µl RNA-later (ThermoFisher, Burlington, ON) to each vial, flash-froze all samples, and stored them at -80°C. Only live 146 147 animals were preserved for stoichiometric and biochemical analysis to prevent elemental leaching and molecular degradation. Samples used to estimate daphnid biomass (n= 3 tows) were 148 divided using a zooplankton splitting wheel (n=2 analytical replicates for each tow) and were 149 preserved using a 4% sugar buffered formalin solution (Haney and Hall 1973). 150 Elemental and biochemical analyses. Seston and Daphnia C and N content were 151 measured on an elemental analyzer (Vario EL III, Elementar Inc. Mt. Laurel, NJ). Seston P, 152 153 water TP, and daphnid P content were measured after persulfate digestion through molybdateblue ascorbic acid colorimetry (APHA 1992) and absorbance spectroscopy (Cary-50, Varian, 154 Palo Alto, CA). We then used daphnid masses to calculate %C, N, and P for each animal and 155 156 converted all elemental ratios to molar ratios. Prior to biochemical analyses we first weighed lyophilized *Daphnia* (lipids) or used 157

length/mass regressions (RNA, see below for details) to estimate total animal dry mass. All biochemical analyses were then conducted using procedures from Wagner et al. (2015), and to ensure proper extraction and analysis for all fractions, we included the same *D. magna* clone used in that study as an internal control in each run. We analyzed total lipid content by first homogenizing *Daphnia* tissues using a motorized pestle in 2:1 chloroform:methanol (v/v). Then,

163	we followed a sulfophosphovanillan (SPV) heat block procedure to extract the lipid fraction
164	(Gardner et al. 1985). Standards were prepared by dissolving cholesterol in 2:1 chloroform:
165	methanol (v/v), and samples and standards were analyzed with a spectrophotometer. Total
166	nucleic acid content (DNA/RNA) was analyzed as described by Gorokhova et al. (2002).
167	Daphnia were rinsed to remove residual RNA-later and homogenized in 200 μ l of TE buffer.
168	Then, we pippetted 50 μ l of daphnid homogenate two 2 separate tubes, added 50 μ l of 5 μ g L ⁻¹
169	DNAse and RNase to separate tubes, and incubated them at 37°C for 15 min. We ran samples
170	and RNA/DNA standards using a RiboGreen fluorometric analysis on a microplate reader
171	(Synergy HT, Biotech, Winooski, VT). We divided total biochemical concentrations by total
172	animal mass to calculate %RNA and %Lipids. We also estimated the proportion of daphnid body
173	%P in the RNA pool (%P-RNA) by assuming a fixed P content (9%) for RNA (Elser et al. 2003;
174	Acharya et al. 2004) and dividing RNA bound P by total body %P.
175	Daphnia biomass estimates. Daphnid biomass estimates were made with methods
176	described in McCauley (1984). Briefly, we divided each tow replicate (n=3) into analytical
177	subsamples (n=2), and for each subsample we counted individuals in 5 separate 1 ml samples on
178	a Sedgewick-Rafter slide using a compound microscope. While counting, we also measured the
179	body lengths of at least 25 individuals using digital photo software (iSolution, iMTechnology,
180	Coquitlam, BC). Length-mass relationships for individual species from each lake were
181	determined by growing field-caught Daphnia to different 0.1 mm size classes (n=10-20 per
182	class) in the lab while feeding them lab cultured algae (Scenedesmus Obliquus Canadian
183	Physiological Culture Centre strain 10). Pooled individuals for each size class were then dried at
184	60°C, desiccated, and weighed using a microbalance. We then used power functions to estimate
185	the mass of each daphnid from length measurements ($R^2 = 0.96-0.98$) and multiplied the mean

186 *Daphnia* mass by the total number of individuals found in each 1 ml sample to obtain a biomass 187 estimate for each subsample. Finally, we scaled these mass estimates up from the 1 ml samples 188 to the volume of water sampled in each tow (μ g L⁻¹).

Statistical Analyses. Before conducting temporal analyses, we plotted temperature depth 189 profiles and top and bottom seston stoichiometry values for each lake. Pigeon Lake was well 190 191 mixed for most of the year, and seston C:P values were similar in top and bottom waters. 192 Therefore, we used integrated seston stoichiometry values and water column temperature 193 measurements in our subsequent data analyses. In contrast, Wolf Lake showed seasonal 194 stratification and had systematically higher C:P ratios in the top waters (Fig. 1A). As we could not track daphnid diel migration patterns and thus could not determine their precise daily food 195 quality regimes, we analyzed relationships between daphnid response variables and top, bottom, 196 and integrated food C:P and measurements separately. 197

All other data were also visualized using scatter plots. Temperature and seston 198 199 stoichiometry were highly skewed due to our sampling regime, and we also detected non-linear and non-monotonic trends in the data. As traditional parametric time-series analysis methods 200 were inappropriate, we estimated the strength of relationships between variables through a 201 202 distance correlation (dcor) approach using the 'energy' package in R (Rizzo and Szekely 2008; Székely and Rizzo 2009). This technique is similar to other traditional non-parametric 203 204 correlational statistics such as Spearman's (ρ) or Kendall's (τ). However, distance correlation 205 does not assume monotonic relationships between variables, and the test statistic (D) is reported 206 from 0-1 with a value of 0 indicating a complete independence of two variables and values 207 approaching 1 indicating stronger correlations.

In general, daphnid correlations in Wolf Lake were more strongly related with top seston C:P values than with bottom values (Suppl. Table 2). Although correlation strength differed slightly between top and integrated measurements, relationships between these values and daphnid responses were qualitatively similar. Therefore, our inferences do not change using either measurement, and we report our Wolf Lake results using top seston C:P and temperature values to minimize the influence of bottom waters on our analyses.

214 **Results**

Seasonal changes in food quality, temperature, and Daphnia elemental content. Seston 215 216 C:P ratios changed over the growing season and differed for most of the year between the two 217 lakes (Fig. 1A&B). In general, seston stoichiometry in Wolf Lake was P poor and varied considerably over the summer (c.v.= 40%), whereas Pigeon Lake seston was P rich throughout 218 219 the study and varied less (c.v.= 19%). Temperature regimes were similar in these lakes with a 220 peak in temperature occurring in mid-July (Fig. 1 C&D). In both Wolf and Pigeon Lake, daphnid 221 body C:P ratios were relatively more constrained than their food resources (c.v.= 10-12%) and declined steadily across the growing season (Fig. 1 E&F). 222

Irrespective of lake and species, *Daphnia* body elemental composition was more strongly 223 224 correlated with temperature than food quality (Figs. 2&3). In Wolf Lake, D. pulicaria body %C 225 and C:P ratios were negatively related to seston C:P ratios and temperature. In contrast, daphnid 226 body %P was positively correlated with seston C:P and increased with higher seasonal 227 temperatures. In Pigeon Lake, D. mendotae body %C was positively correlated to seston C:P ratios but declined precipitously at higher temperatures (Fig. 3 A&B). Daphnid body P content 228 229 was not significantly related to seston C:P ratios and instead increased non-linearly with 230 temperature (Fig. 3 C&D). Similar to body %C, Daphnia body C:P ratios were differentially

related to food quality and temperature with temperature effects showing relatively strongercorrelations.

233 *Correlations between temperature, Daphnia biochemistry, and body stoichiometry.* Temperature effects on daphnid body stoichiometry seemed to be mediated by changes in their 234 biochemical and elemental metabolism. In both species, body %RNA declined with higher 235 236 seasonal temperatures (Fig. 4 A&B), but body %P remained relatively high (~1.2-1.6%) 237 resulting in weak correlations between daphnid body %P and RNA in Daphnia from both Wolf 238 and Pigeon Lakes (Fig. 4C&D). These temperature related metabolic changes appeared to alter 239 organismal P investment into RNA production (Fig. 4E&F) as reduced %P-RNA ratios corresponded with lower body C:P ratios in each study population. Similar to %RNA, body lipid 240 content also decreased with higher seasonal temperatures in both daphnid species (Fig. 5A&B). 241 However, unlike %P-RNA relationships, daphnid body %lipid was more strongly related to body 242 243 C content (Fig. 5C&D), and reduced lipid stores corresponded with lower *Daphnia* body C:P 244 ratios in each population (Fig. 5E&F).

Relationships between Daphnia biomass, food quality, and temperature. In Wolf Lake, 245 daphnid biomass displayed a large population increase soon after ice-off, which was quickly 246 247 followed by a rapid population decline (Fig. 6A). Population biomass remained near zero during the middle of the growing season but was reestablished to moderate levels in the later summer 248 249 months. Daphnia biomass in this low P lake was related to both food quality and temperature 250 with the highest biomass occurring at low seston C:P ratios and moderate temperatures (Fig. 6 C&E). In the more eutrophic Pigeon Lake, daphnid biomass also showed a large early season 251 252 spike, but biomass quickly decreased and remained low afterwards for the remainder of the study 253 (Fig. 6B). Biomass production was not significantly related to seston C:P ratios in this lake

(Figure 6D) where daphnid biomass was instead correlated with temperature and peaked atmoderate temperatures (Figure 6F).

256 Discussion

In each study lake, Daphnia elemental composition was related to seasonal changes in 257 both food quality and temperature. However, we found negative correlations between seston C:P 258 259 and daphnid C:P in Wolf Lake and weak relationships between these variables in Pigeon Lake 260 suggesting that daphnid stoichiometry was poorly related to food quality overall. Instead, 261 temperature appeared to more strongly alter *Daphnia* elemental composition as body C:P 262 declined with higher summer temperatures. These changes were consistent with temperature effects on daphnid biochemical pools as higher temperatures were associated with relaxed 263 coupling between body P and RNA content and reduced C-rich lipid stores. Although 264 temperature seemed to be mostly responsible for driving seasonal variation in *Daphnia* 265 stoichiometry, both temperature and food quality were related to total biomass production in 266 267 study lakes.

Seston and Daphnia stoichiometry varied seasonally within each lake. As in other 268 studies, we observed phenological changes in seston C:P ratios (Kreeger et al. 1997; Hessen et 269 270 al. 2005), which fell within previously documented measurements (C:P 100-800; Elser et al. 271 2000a; Sterner et al. 2008). Fine-scale (weekly) variation was also high in the low P Wolf Lake 272 due to differences in seston stoichiometry between the epi- and hypolimnion. While Daphnia 273 *pulicaria* body stoichiometry also changed temporally in Wolf Lake, their body stoichiometry 274 seemed to decouple from seston C:P as daphnid and seston C:P ratios were negatively correlated 275 across the growing season. Stoichiometric food quality was high for the entire study period in 276 Pigeon Lake (C:P <200) where Daphnia mendotae body C:P ratios were positively correlated

with seston C:P, similar to patterns observed in other temperate lakes (DeMott et al. 2004).
However, this relationship was not as strong in our study due to extensive stoichiometric
variation in this taxon. Together, the decoupling of seston C:P and daphnid C:P in Wolf Lake
and weak relationships in Pigeon Lake suggest that food quality likely played a minor role in
shaping *Daphnia* body stoichiometry in both populations. Instead, seasonal declines in daphnid
C:P appeared to be more connected to temperature effects on daphnid elemental composition and
biochemistry.

Temperature was strongly related to daphnid P and RNA content in field-caught animals. 284 Seasonal temperature increases were associated with linear increases in D. pulicaria body %P in 285 Wolf Lake and non-linear responses in D. mendotae from Pigeon Lake. Our results resemble 286 those from a previous laboratory experiment showing species differences in body %P across 287 temperature gradients (McFeeters and Frost 2011). But unlike this study, daphnid responses in 288 289 our lakes appeared to be mostly independent from food quality effects, suggesting that 290 organismal responses to temperature in natural populations are likely to be both context and species dependent (Bullejos et al. 2014; Moody et al. 2017). Body RNA content declined in both 291 of our study species with increased temperatures, which is consistent with adaptive physiological 292 293 thermal responses commonly observed across many taxa in the wild (Woods et al., 2003). However, relationships between daphnid body %P and %RNA were weak for D. mendotae and 294 295 were even negative in D. pulicaria suggesting that temperature unexpectedly modified consumer 296 nutrient metabolism in our lakes.

Investment of P into *Daphnia* RNA pools declined substantially with higher seasonal
temperatures. This observation contrasts with many studies that have found consistent positive
relationships between organismal body %P and %RNA (Elser et al., 2000; Bullejos et al., 2014;

Zhang et al., 2016). Our results could thus at first glance seem to contradict the central premise 300 of the growth rate hypothesis. However, this hypothesis as currently formulated is most 301 302 applicable to consumers experiencing P-limitation and growing at the same temperature (Elser et al. 2003; Moody et al. 2017). Since relaxed coupling of daphnid body %P and %RNA has been 303 documented outside of these narrow set of conditions (Elser et al. 2003; Acharya et al. 2004; 304 305 Wagner et al. 2015), temperature mediated changes in elemental-biochemical coupling may explain the weak relationships between *Daphnia* C:P and seston C:P in our study. As a majority 306 307 of consumer body %P is thought to be associated with ribosomal RNA (Elser et al. 1996), it 308 remains unclear how *Daphnia* in our study maintained a high body %P despite exhibiting reduced body RNA content. We can eliminate the possibility of increased investment into DNA 309 since it was a relatively small component of daphnid biomass (<0.4%; Suppl. Fig. 1A&B). As 310 we did not measure additional P pools (e.g., phosphosugars, phospholipids), more work is 311 required to identify the molecular form of the remaining unaccounted-for body %P. These 312 313 studies should include other important elemental-biochemical relationships, such as body %Nprotein content, which also seemed to be temperature dependent in our populations (Suppl. Fig. 314 1C&D). Understanding how consumers regulate their nutrient metabolism across temperature 315 316 gradients is clearly an important step towards the further integration of temperature effects into stoichiometric theory. 317

Seasonal changes in water temperature were also related to daphnid body C and lipid content. In both populations, we saw sharp declines in daphnid body %C, which corresponded to a reduction of ~10-15% of their total body dry mass at higher temperatures. These changes were likely due to elevated metabolic rates (Darchambeau et al. 2003; McFeeters and Frost 2011), which have been shown to decrease *Daphnia* body lipid and C content (Zhang et al. 2016). We provide further support for this mechanism as we observed synchronous declines in C-rich *Daphnia* body lipid stores and C:P ratios with higher seasonal temperatures in these two
ecologically distinct species. These changes along with altered P metabolism provide a likely
explanation for declines in *Daphnia* body C:P ratios across the growing season and highlight the
important role of temperature in shaping consumer elemental composition in field assemblages
(Bullejos et al. 2014).

Although temperature was strongly related to *Daphnia* stoichiometry in our study, it is 329 330 necessary to consider temperature effects within the hierarchy of other factors potentially 331 affecting animal C:P ratios in nature. Consumer body stoichiometry reflects the influence of a number of environmental and biological factors that operate simultaneously across spatial and 332 temporal scales (Cherif et al. 2017). Within individuals (level-1; L1), consumer body 333 stoichiometry is proximately controlled by the biochemical/elemental content of its subcellular 334 components and body tissues (Elser et al. 1996). For instance, differences in the elemental 335 336 content of somatic vs. reproductive tissues such as eggs can alter daphnid body stoichiometry and account for size-specific differences across developmental stages (Ventura and Catalan 337 2005; Frost et al. 2008). At an environmental-level (L2), variables that affect consumer 338 339 physiology, life-history, or behavior can alter the intake and investment of dietary elements at L1 (Frost et al. 2005). In addition to food quality, this list includes a suite of abiotic variables (e.g., 340 341 light and CO₂), biotic factors such as food quantity and algal taxonomic composition, and food 342 web dependent factors such as predation and parasitism (Dickman et al. 2008; Yamamichi et al. 2015). Finally, organismal stoichiometry is shaped by the evolutionary history (L3) of a given 343 344 taxon, which can influence both immediate responses of organisms to environmental conditions 345 (i.e., elemental plasticity) and shape species and population differences through space and time

(Elser et al. 2000b; Frisch et al. 2014; Prater et al. 2017). As our study examined the seasonal
effects of temperature and food quality (L2) on organismal stoichiometry (L1) of two separate
species (L3) in complex natural environments, we are unable to fully differentiate among the
effects of all of these factors and their interactions. Nevertheless, our results suggest that
temperature is likely to be an important variable controlling organismal elemental content in
field populations, despite the possible roles of other factors, as it accounted for a substantial
amount of variation in daphnid stoichiometry in both study lakes.

353 Both temperature and stoichiometric food quality appeared to influence *Daphnia* biomass 354 production in our study lakes. Biomass in the lower nutrient Wolf Lake was correlated with both food quality and temperature and was highest at low food C:P ratios and moderate temperatures, 355 which occurred in the early spring and fall. Thus, although temperature seemed to predominantly 356 control daphnid stoichiometry in this lake, nutrient availability represents an important factor 357 determining zooplankton production and likely interacts with temperature to influence seasonal 358 359 patterns in Daphnia biomass in oligo- and mesotrophic systems (Elser et al. 1998; Makino et al. 2002). Daphnia biomass was not related to food quality in Pigeon Lake where seston was P-rich 360 361 year-round. Instead, biomass peaked at moderate temperatures early in the year and remained 362 low for the remainder of the growing season. We were unable to quantify predation pressure in our study, which could have influenced seasonal variation in Pigeon Lake biomass. Similarly, we 363 364 did not measure differences in algal taxonomic composition, but daphnid biomass remained low 365 despite high food quantities and was negatively related to algal biomass (Suppl. Fig 2). As 366 cyanobacteria blooms can develop in the mid-summer and persist throughout the growing season 367 in Pigeon Lake, it is possible that either feeding inhibition (Abrams and Walters 1996; DeMott et 368 al. 2001) or reduced growth and reproductive rates due to fatty acid-limitation (Ravet et al.,

2012; Ger et al., 2016) could explain failed *Daphnia* recruitment following the spring die off. If
true, our results suggest that food quality effects on daphnid nutritional physiology and biomass
production may act along a continuum controlled by dietary elemental stoichiometry in
oligotrophic systems and switching to physical and/or biochemical regulation under more
eutrophic conditions.

374 In this study, we documented complex relationships between seston food C:P ratios and temperature and consumer elemental metabolism and biomass production over a summer 375 376 growing season in two separate lake ecosystems. While the correlational nature of our study 377 necessarily limits the strength and breadth of our conclusions, we provide observational evidence that seasonal temperature changes were likely responsible for decoupling producer-consumer 378 379 stoichiometry and altering consumer elemental-biochemical investment in natural populations. These observations provide important insights for stoichiometric theory as they might partially 380 explain contrasting responses to elemental limitation among species adapted to different habitats 381 382 (Bullejos et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016) and could account for the weak relationships sometimes found between consumer biochemistry and elemental composition (Wilder and 383 Jeyasingh 2016). However, metabolic changes in our populations did not translate into straight-384 385 forward predictable biomass responses in either lake highlighting current theoretical limitations in linking organismal-level physiology and life-history to higher-order ecological processes 386 387 (Cherif et al. 2017). Moving ahead, careful laboratory studies in conjunction with manipulative 388 field-based experiments are needed to better understand these cross-scale dynamics while controlling for and estimating the relative influence of other important ecological factors. These 389 390 studies will allow for temperature effects on consumer metabolic physiology to be more fully 391 integrated into existing stoichiometric models (e.g., Cross et al. 2015) to better predict how

consumer population dynamics and ecosystem functions may change under increasingly variableclimatic conditions occurring across the planet.

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Figure Captions

Fig 1. Seasonal variation in seston carbon:phosphorus (C:P) ratios, lake temperature, and *Daphnia* body C:P ratios. Weekly means ± standard error are plotted for C:P ratios. Top (white) and bottom (light grey) seston C:P values and top water column temperature values are shown for Wolf Lake. Water column integrated seston C:P and temperature values are displayed for Pigeon Lake (dark grey).

Fig 2. Changes in *Daphnia* body elemental composition across seston stoichiometry and temperature gradients in Wolf Lake. Distance correlations are reported for: A) seston carbon:phosphorus (C:P) ratios and daphnid body %C, B) temperature and daphnid body %C, C) seston C:P ratios and daphnid body %P, D) temperature and daphnid body %P, E) seston C:P ratios and daphnid body C:P ratios, and F) temperature and daphnid body C:P ratios. *P*-values and correlation coefficients (D) are reported for each correlation.

Fig 3. Changes in *Daphnia* body elemental composition across seston stoichiometry and temperature gradients in Pigeon Lake. Distance correlations are reported for: A) seston carbon:phosphorus (C:P) ratios and daphnid body %C, B) temperature and daphnid body %C, C) seston C:P ratios and daphnid body %P, D) temperature and daphnid body %P, E) seston C:P ratios and daphnid body C:P ratios, and F) temperature and daphnid body C:P ratios. *P*-values and correlation coefficients (D) are reported for each correlation.

Fig 4. Correlations between temperature, *Daphnia* body RNA content, and body elemental composition. Distance correlations are shown for: A&B) temperature and daphnid body RNA content, C&D) daphnid body phosphorus (%P) content and body %RNA, and E&F) daphnid body C:P ratios and the proportion of body P bound in RNA (%P-RNA). *P*-values and

correlation coefficients (D) are reported separately for each lake. Wolf Lake values are shown in white, and Pigeon Lake values are displayed in grey.

Fig 5. Correlations between temperature, *Daphnia* body lipid content, and body elemental composition. Distance correlations are shown for: A&B) temperature and daphnid body %lipid, C&D) daphnid body carbon (%C) content and body %lipid, and E&F) daphnid body C:phosphorus (P) ratios and body %lipid. *P*-values and correlation coefficients (D) are reported separately for each lake. Wolf Lake values are shown in white, and Pigeon Lake values are displayed in grey.

Fig 6. Changes in *Daphnia* biomass across the growing season and correlations between seston nutrient content, temperature, and daphnid biomass production. Weekly means \pm standard error are plotted for seasonal changes (A&B). Scatterplots and distance correlations are shown for: C&D) seston carbon:phosphorus (C:P) ratios and daphnid biomass and between E&F) temperature and daphnid biomass. *P*-values and correlation coefficients (D) are reported separately for each lake. Wolf Lake values are shown in white, and Pigeon Lake values are displayed in grey.













Figure 4.









