

1 Dietary and seasonal variability in trophic relations at the base of the North Sea
2 pelagic food web revealed by stable isotope and fatty acid analysis

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4 Katherina L. Schoo^{1,2}, Maarten Boersma^{1,3}, Arne M. Malzahn^{1,5}, Martin G.J. Löder^{1,6}, Karen H.
5 Wiltshire¹ & Nicole Aberle^{1,4*}

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7 ¹Alfred-Wegener-Institut Helmholtz-Zentrum für Polar- und Meeresforschung, Biologische Anstalt
8 Helgoland, Postfach 180, 27483 Helgoland, Germany

9 ²GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research, Düsternbrooker Weg 20, 24105 Kiel, Germany

10 ³University of Bremen, Germany

11 ⁴Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Trondhjem Biological Station, Department of
12 Biology, 7491 Trondheim, Norway

13 ⁵Sintef Ocean, Environment & New Resources, Brattørkaia 17c, Trondheim, Norway

14 ⁶University of Bayreuth, Animal Ecology I, Universitätsstraße 30, 95440 Bayreuth, Germany

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16 *Corresponding author: nicole.aberle-malzahn@ntnu.no

17 **ABSTRACT**

18 A two-dimensional biomarker approach including fatty acids and stable isotopes of seston and
19 copepods was applied to examine how the variability at the base of the food web affects trophic
20 interactions between primary producers and copepod consumers over a sampling period of two years.
21 We investigated how the composition of the seston affected feeding behaviour by analysing the fatty
22 acid and stable isotope signals of the copepods *Calanus helgolandicus*, *Acartia* spp., *Centropages*
23 spp. and *Temora longicornis* at Helgoland Roads, North Sea. Our results indicate that the relative
24 contributions of autotrophic and heterotrophic fractions in the seston determined the stable isotope
25 signal of the seston and hence the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of copepods. Our findings show that the combination of stable
26 isotope and fatty acid analyses provides an ideal tool to address the complexity of trophic relations in
27 planktonic food-webs and to define relative trophic position and feeding preferences of e.g. copepods.
28 Defining accurate baselines from bulk seston samples containing a mixture of auto- and heterotroph
29 protist communities still remains a challenge when defining lower food-web dynamics in natural
30 plankton communities.

31

32 **Keywords:** planktonic food web; baseline variation; copepod feeding; lower food-web dynamics;
33 seston

34 INTRODUCTION

35 Despite decades of research, consumer-producer interactions in the pelagic zone are still not entirely
36 understood. There are several reasons for this. On the producer side, there are many organisms that
37 are at least partly heterotrophic, and on the consumer side, there is large variation in diets between
38 and within species. Especially copepods, which form an important link between primary producers
39 and higher consumers, require further study, as the trophic position of copepods plays a major role in
40 shaping aquatic food webs (Hairston and Hairston, 1993). Most copepods are omnivores feeding on
41 a wide range of dietary items, such as diatoms, flagellates and ciliates (Kleppel, 1993). However,
42 copepods are able to feed selectively (Fileman et al., 2007; Irigoien et al., 2000; Paffenhöfer, 1988)
43 and thus they are capable of switching between dietary items of different quality, even within species
44 (Meunier et al., 2016). This switch by copepods from feeding lower in the food web, as herbivores,
45 to carnivory has consequences for lower levels in the food web and for consumers at higher trophic
46 levels. As such, the trophic flexibility of copepods affects the structure of entire marine food webs.
47 Therefore, the objective of the present study was to establish the role of different copepod species in
48 the planktonic food web by using a combined tracer approach combining stable isotope and fatty acid
49 data to investigate seasonal patterns and shifts in trophic positions of major North Sea copepod
50 species.

51 The interactions in the marine pelagic food web are complex and subject to a great variety of
52 influences. Particularly at the base of the food web the interactions between primary producers and
53 consumers are characterized by a great variability in food quantity (e.g. Sommer, 1996; Wiltshire et
54 al., 2008) and quality (e.g. Boersma et al., 2008; Klausmeier et al., 2004; Malzahn et al., 2007; Schoo
55 et al., 2012). Strong seasonal changes in the availability and composition of microalgae occur due to
56 high peaks in productivity during blooms. During the spring bloom, for example, phytoplankton
57 biomasses reach a peak, which is usually followed by a rapid increase in zooplankton abundance. As
58 the increase of phytoplankton biomass during the bloom causes a depletion of nutrients available in
59 the seawater, the quality (in terms of nutrient stoichiometry) of the phytoplankton decreases over the

60 course of the bloom. At the same time, increasing numbers of micro- and mesozooplankton exert high
61 grazing pressure on phytoplankton and reduce its biomass substantially. This change in prey quality
62 (nutrient stoichiometry), composition and quantity at the base of the pelagic food webs has been
63 shown to not only affect the herbivores directly feeding on microalgae, but also potentially those
64 secondary consumers that feed on the herbivores (Malzahn and Boersma, 2009; Malzahn et al., 2010;
65 Schoo et al., 2010; Schoo et al., 2014).

66 As food sources have distinct biochemical compositions that can become incorporated into the
67 consumers' body, and tracers such as stable isotopes and fatty acids integrate the diet over a longer
68 period of time (days to weeks in small ectotherms, e.g. *Acartia tonsa* (Tiselius and Fransson, 2016;
69 Vander Zanden et al., 2015), tracer approaches are an effective way to investigate trophic interactions
70 (Aberle et al., 2010; El-Sabaawi et al., 2009; Richoux and Froneman, 2009). As such they have
71 allowed for detailed reconstructions of food sources and trophodynamic interactions (Dalsgaard et
72 al., 2003; Kurten et al., 2013; Peterson and Fry, 1987; Ponsard and Ardit, 2000). Stable isotopes are
73 commonly used in ecological studies to deduce trophic position and dietary source (El-Sabaawi et al.,
74 2013; Post, 2002; Vander Zanden and Rasmussen, 2001). As a rule, the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal is used to infer
75 the trophic position of an organism, as the percentage of ^{15}N relative to ^{14}N in the tissue increases
76 progressively and predictably with increasing trophic position of the consumer. $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ fractionates with
77 trophic level on average around 3.4‰ (Minagawa and Wada, 1984), however, the values observed in
78 aquatic animals may vary from 2.3‰ to 4.5‰ (McCutchan et al., 2003). Carbon stable isotopes are
79 used to infer the carbon dietary source (Fry, 2006; Minagawa and Wada, 1984), as the carbon source
80 and the different enzymes involved in carbon fixation show distinct fractionation, leading to different
81 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values. Trophic enrichment, however, is not static and it varies both between different consumer
82 species (Aberle et al., 2005; Gutierrez-Rodriguez et al., 2014; Post, 2002; Vander Zanden and
83 Rasmussen, 2001), as well as within species as a result of changing food qualities (Vander Zanden
84 and Rasmussen, 2001), and differences in specificity of different metabolic processes (Aberle and
85 Malzahn, 2007; Gorokhova and Hansson, 1999; Ponsard and Averbuch, 1999).

86 Fatty acid markers commonly used in trophic studies can be either single fatty acids, associated with
87 a particular type of organism, or a ratio of fatty acids. Certain primary producers contain very specific
88 fatty acids, which can be used to characterize them. As fatty acids are often incorporated by their
89 consumers without being modified, they can be used to trace dietary sources. Palmitoleic acid
90 (16:1 ω 7), for example, is a diatom fatty acid marker (Lee et al., 2006). The ratio of 22:6 ω 3
91 (Docosahexaenoic acid, DHA) to 20:5 ω 3 (Eicosapentaenoic acid, EPA) is used to assess the
92 proportion of dinoflagellates to diatoms in the diet, because dinoflagellates contain high amounts of
93 DHA, while diatoms are rich in EPA (Budge and Parrish, 1998; Dalsgaard et al., 2003; El-Sabaawi
94 et al., 2010). A high ratio of DHA to EPA could also indicate a carnivorous diet (El-Sabaawi et al.,
95 2009). High amounts of 18:1 ω 9 relative to 18:1 ω 7 have been shown to indicate carnivory in copepods
96 and other crustaceans (Nyssen et al., 2005; Schmidt et al., 2003; Stevens et al., 2004a). Since
97 carnivorous copepods contain larger amounts of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) than herbivorous
98 copepods, the ratio of PUFA to saturated fatty acids (SFA) can be used to identify the degree of
99 carnivory (Stevens et al., 2004b). However, because some of the fatty acids, such as DHA and some
100 polar fatty acids, are sometimes preferentially retained by certain copepods, this can obfuscate the
101 dietary signature of primary producers (Dalsgaard et al., 2003; El-Sabaawi et al., 2009). Additionally,
102 some fatty acids can be metabolised and transformed by the consumers (Budge and Parrish, 1998).
103 Assertions about the trophic position of consumers based solely on fatty acids, without precise
104 knowledge of that particular consumer's metabolism and physiology, are therefore problematic.

105 While both fatty acid and stable isotope analysis have their limitations, the combination of these
106 techniques may provide a more powerful tool to determine trophic interactions in complex food webs
107 (Gaillard et al., 2017; Perga et al., 2006; Petursdottir et al., 2012; van der Bank et al., 2011) . The
108 advantage of this combined tracer approach is mainly attributed to the fact that FAs are more specific
109 to dietary source than stable carbon isotopes, particularly when differences in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of different carbon
110 sources are small (El-Sabaawi et al., 2009). Combining both techniques has thus a high potential to
111 enable investigations of seasonal changes in trophic relations and dietary variability in the plankton

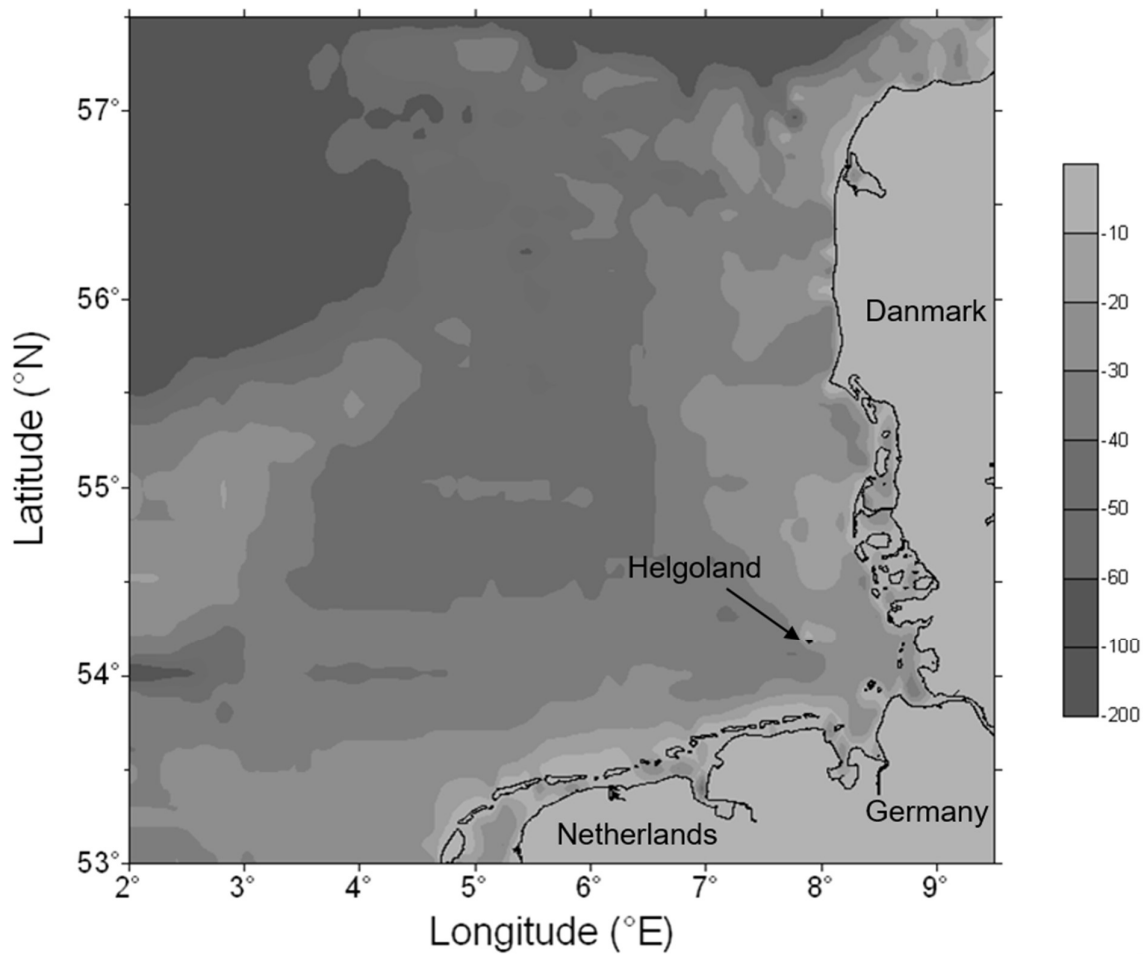
112 in detail. Hence, in this study we used these two markers to investigate inter- and intra-species
113 variation in key copepod species in the Southern North Sea. Further, by estimating the proportion of
114 autotrophs vs. heterotrophs in the seston fraction, we aimed to refine the estimate of baseline stable
115 isotope signals. Given the finding by previous authors (e.g. Kleppel, 1993) that different copepod
116 species have different diets, we investigated the trophic positions of four dominant copepod species
117 in the North Sea over the course of two years.

118

119 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

120 The rocky island of Helgoland is situated in the Southern North Sea, German Bight, about 70 km
121 from the mainland. The long-term sampling station Helgoland Roads is located between the main
122 island and the sand dune island (54°11' N, 7°54'E). Due to strong tidal currents and the shallow
123 depth, the water column is well mixed (Hickel, 1998). Surface water samples for the analysis of seston
124 composition, stable isotope signature, fatty acid content and nutrient concentrations as well as
125 zooplankton samples were gently taken with buckets by the RV Aade at Helgoland Roads between
126 January 2007 and December 2008.

127



128

129 *Figure 1: Location of the study site (Helgoland, North Sea)*

130

131 Sampling focused on the base of the food web, represented by the seston (particulate organic matter)
 132 and mesozooplankton consumers, represented by copepods. To provide a baseline relevant to the
 133 feeding of the primary consumers seston samples were collected at the same time as the zooplankton.
 134 Nutrient content of the seawater was measured as part of the Helgoland long-term data series
 135 (Wiltshire et al., 2008). For the determination of the seston stable isotope signature, surface water
 136 from Helgoland Roads was pre-screened with a 200 μm sieve to remove larger organisms and filtered
 137 onto pre-combusted glass fibre filters (GF/C). The filters were examined under a dissecting
 138 microscope to remove any mesozooplankton or large particles and dried at 60°C. In addition to the
 139 samples for stable isotope analysis, filters were taken for fatty acid analysis of the seston in the same
 140 manner. However, seston material for fatty acid analyses was freeze-dried prior to analysis.

141 Phytoplankton carbon concentrations were obtained from the Helgoland Roads long-term monitoring
142 program (Wiltshire et al., 2008). Samples of surface water for the determination of microzooplankton
143 were preserved with acid Lugol's solution (2% final concentration), and the organisms identified to
144 species level as described by Löder et al. (2010). Many of the dinoflagellates in the plankton are
145 considered to be mixotrophs and able to take up particles via phagotrophy, even if they contain
146 chloroplasts. Hence, for our division of heterotrophic versus autotrophic components in the plankton
147 they were assigned to the microzooplankton (Löder et al., 2010). Biovolume of microzooplankton
148 was calculated from the measurement of cell dimensions using geometrical formula according to
149 Hillebrand et al. (1999) and subsequent conversion to carbon content was done after Putt and Stoecker
150 (1989) and Menden-Deuer and Lessard (2000).

151 Zooplankton samples were obtained by oblique net hauls (mesh size 180 µm and 500 µm). Animals
152 were sorted shortly after collection. Four copepod taxa were sampled: *Calanus helgolandicus*,
153 *Temora longicornis*, *Centropages* spp. and *Acartia* spp. (mainly *A. clausi*). Copepod samples were
154 taken for the analysis of stable isotopes and fatty acids.

155

156 **Fatty acid analysis**

157 Seston was extracted for the analysis of fatty acids by filtering pre-screened surface water samples
158 through pre-combusted GF/F filters (Whatman). Three replicate filters were taken on each sampling
159 occasion. The filters were placed in reaction tubes and frozen at -80°C. Copepods for the fatty acid
160 analysis were sorted into reaction tubes and frozen at -80°C until further analysis. The fatty acids of
161 seston and copepods were measured as fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs). Lipids extraction followed
162 modified methods described by Folch (1957) and Bligh and Dyer (1959). Fatty acid samples were
163 extracted in Dichloromethane:methanol (2:1 vol:vol) using an ultrasound bath for 30 min. After
164 centrifugation, water-soluble fractions were removed by washing with 0.88% KCl buffer. Thereafter,
165 the aqueous phase was removed and the organic remainder evaporated using nitrogen gas.
166 Esterification was achieved using methanolic-sulphuric acid at 70°C for 75 min. FAMEs were washed

167 from the methanolic sulphuric acid using n-Hexane, excess n-Hexane evaporated using nitrogen and
 168 FAMES analysed using a Varian CP 8400 gas chromatograph equipped with a DB-225 column (J&W
 169 Scientific, 30 m length, 0.25 mm ID, 0.25 μ m film). 1 μ L aliquots of samples were injected using a
 170 split less mode. FAMES were quantified using calibrations set up for each fatty acid separately and a
 171 known amount of C 23:0 was added at the first step of the preparation as an internal standard. More
 172 detailed information on injector temperature, column oven set-up and carrier gases are described in
 173 Malzahn et al. (2010). A known amount of C23:0 was used as an internal standard to calculate fatty
 174 acid concentration.

175 In this study, we focussed on fatty acids as trophic markers in the lipid fractions and did not account
 176 for wax esters and fatty alcohols although a considerable amount of these can be found especially in
 177 calanoid copepods (Kattner et al., 2007; Kattner and Krause, 1989; Lee et al., 2006).

178 The tracer fatty acids and fatty acid trophic markers (FATM) used here are summarized in Table 1.

179 *Table 1: Fatty acid biomarkers and fatty acid trophic markers used in this study. Abbreviations: PUFA= sum of polyunsaturated*
 180 *fatty acids; SFA = sum of saturated fatty acids; D= sum of diatom markers; F= sum of dinoflagellate markers.*

181

Marker	Diet	Reference
16:1 ω 7	Diatom	Lee et al., 2006
18:1 ω 7	Bacteria or <i>de novo</i> synthesis	Stevens et al., 2004b
18:1 ω 9	Carnivory	Graeve et al., 1994
18:1 ω 9/18:1 ω 7	Carnivory	Stevens et al., 2004a Nyssen et al., 2005
18:4 ω 3	Dinoflagellates	Lee et al., 2006
20:5 ω 3 (EPA)	Diatoms	Dalsgaard et al., 2003
12:6 ω 3 (DHA)	Dinoflagellates	Budge and Parish, 1998
DHA/EPA	Dinoflagellates / Diatoms	Budge and Parish, 1998
	Carnivory	Dalsgaard et al., 2003
PUFA/SFA	Carnivory	Stevens et al., 2004b
D/F	Diatoms / Flagellates	Dalsgaard et al., 2003 El-Sabaawi et al., 2009

182

183 **Stable isotope analysis**

184 Copepods for stable isotope analysis were rinsed in distilled water and dried in tin capsules.

185 Depending on the size (biomass) of the copepods each tin cup contained between 3 and 30 individuals

186 to meet the analytical requirements for the isotope analysis.

187 Stable isotope analysis of the samples was performed in two laboratories, at the GEOMAR in Kiel,
188 Germany, and at the UC Davis Stable Isotope Facility in Davis, California, USA. At the GEOMAR
189 in Kiel the samples were analysed by using an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (ThermoFinnigan EA
190 1110 CHNS). Samples at UC Davis Stable Isotope Facility were analyzed using a PDZ Europa
191 ANCA-GSL elemental analyser interfaced to a PDZ Europa 20-20 isotope ratio mass spectrometer
192 (Sercon Ltd., Cheshire, UK). The standards used were PeeDee belemnite for C and atmospheric
193 nitrogen for N. During measurements, the ratio of the $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ and the ratio of the $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$ stable
194 isotopes were determined. Isotopic abundances are expressed in δ notation in parts per thousand (‰):
195 $\delta = ((R_{\text{sample}} / R_{\text{standard}}) - 1) * 1000$, where R is the ratio of the heavier isotope to the lighter isotope, i.e.
196 $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ or $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$. Trophic fractionation of stable isotopes is described as the difference of the δ
197 values among food sources, namely the seston, (A) and consumer (B) using Δ notation, where
198 $\Delta = \delta_B - \delta_A$. A positive Δ value indicates an enrichment of the heavier stable isotope in the consumer
199 B.

200 Apart from detritus and inorganic material, the seston samples consist of autotroph fractions (e.g.
201 diatoms, phytoflagellates) and heterotroph fractions (e.g. ciliates, mixo-/heterotrophic
202 dinoflagellates). To estimate the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal of these different fractions in the seston, we used the
203 following equation:

$$204 \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{seston}} = C_{\text{autotroph}} * \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{autotroph}} + C_{\text{heterotroph}} * (\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{autotroph}} + 2.2)$$

205 where $C_{\text{autotroph}}$ is the carbon biomass of the autotrophs expressed as fraction of total seston carbon
206 biomass and $C_{\text{heterotroph}}$ is the fraction of the heterotrophic biomass, estimated from the
207 microzooplankton counts, thus $C_{\text{autotroph}} + C_{\text{heterotroph}} = 1$. We assumed a 2.2‰ trophic fractionation
208 between the autotrophic and the heterotrophic fractions of the seston. This level of fractionation
209 between two trophic levels is generally accepted for invertebrates (McCutchan et al., 2003). In this
210 manner, the theoretical $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signals of the autotroph and the heterotroph fractions of the seston were
211 calculated and used to compute the delta signals of both fractions.

212

213 **Statistical analyses**

214 Correlations between seston fatty acids and copepod fatty acids as well as $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the copepods and
215 their fatty acid markers were conducted using linear regression analyses.

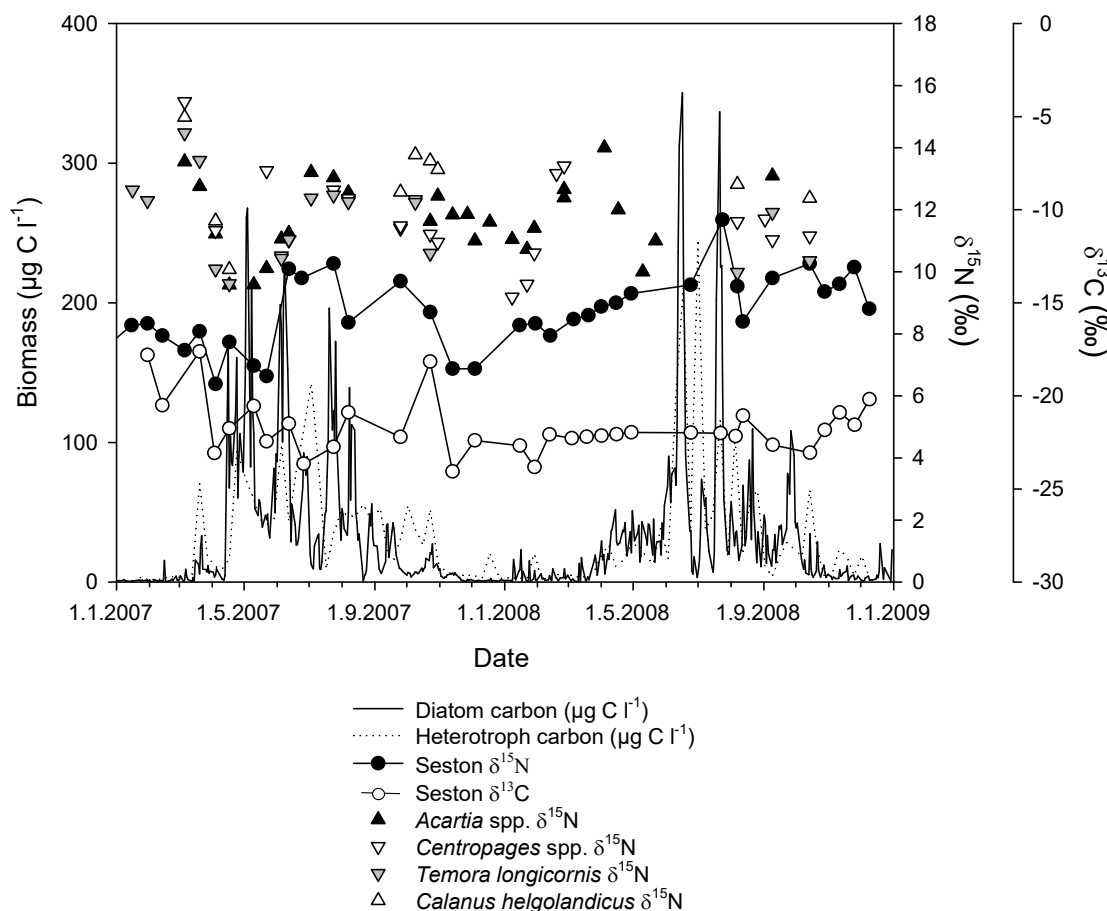
216 Linear regressions were also performed for: (1) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signals of autotroph and heterotroph fractions,
217 (2) $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the seston and the biomass of the heterotrophic organisms as well as (3) between the fatty
218 acids from the seston and the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal.

219

220 **RESULTS**

221 *Seston*

222 The spring bloom in 2007 was dominated mainly by diatoms (Figure 2). The diatom bloom developed
223 rapidly from mid-April onwards and diatom biomass reached a maximum of $270 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ in early
224 May. The diatom bloom was instantaneously followed by a bloom of microzooplankton dominated
225 by ciliates. Throughout the rest of the year, the microzooplankton was dominated by mixo- and
226 heterotrophic dinoflagellates reaching a maximum of about $140 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ in July. Total biomass then
227 decreased to about $100 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ for the remainder of the summer and declined further following a
228 short secondary bloom in October. During the winter months the biomass remained low at around 20-
229 $30 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$. The spring bloom of 2008 occurred later than in the previous year, with a higher peak
230 diatom biomass ($335 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$) recorded only in June. The microzooplankton peak biomass of 240
231 $\mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$ was reached in July.



232

233 Figure 2: $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) of the seston and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) of the four copepod species as well as carbon biomass ($\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$) of
 234 diatoms and heterotrophic microzooplankton at Helgoland Roads from January 2007 to December 2008. Note the two different axes
 235 for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰).

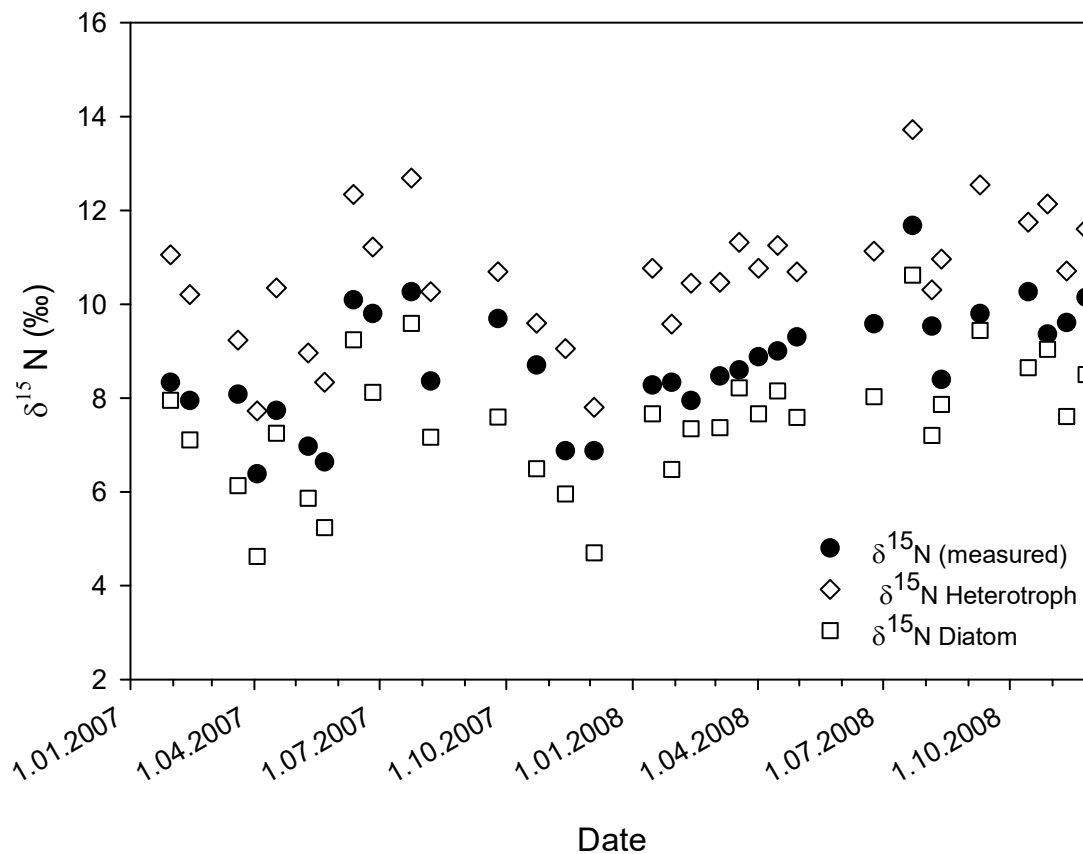
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237 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ stable isotope signal of the seston ranged from 6.3‰ in spring 2007 to 11.7‰ in summer
 238 2008 (Figure 2). The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the seston decreased from 8‰ in winter to 6‰ at the start of the spring
 239 bloom. Following the diatom bloom peak the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ increased again, reaching values of 10‰ in July.
 240 This corresponded to the period of the highest heterotrophic biomass. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ decreased during the
 241 winter months, with decreasing seston biomass. The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal of the seston increased again rapidly
 242 in February of 2008 and continued to increase until the summer. A drop in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ stable isotope
 243 values was observed in August 2008, followed by an increase during an autumn bloom of diatoms
 244 and mixo-/heterotrophic dinoflagellates in October (Figure 2).

245 There was a significant positive correlation between the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the seston and the biomass of the
246 heterotrophic organisms (linear regression analysis, $r^2 = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$), indicating an influence of the
247 heterotrophic organisms on the seston $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ stable isotope signal. No correlation was found between
248 the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature of the seston and the diatom biomass ($r^2 = 0.04$, $p > 0.05$).

249 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal of the seston showed a range from -17 to -24‰. A steep change in the signal from -17
250 to -23‰ was observed in early spring 2007. The seston signal showed strong variations during the
251 summer before a sharp increase in November 2007. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was not significantly correlated to the
252 biomass of the diatoms or the heterotrophs.

253 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signals for autotroph and heterotroph fractions showed a strong linear correlation between
254 the total signal (measured $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) and the computed $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal of the two fractions ($r^2 = 0.18$, $p < 0.05$,
255 and $r^2 = 0.20$, $p < 0.001$ for diatoms and the heterotrophic fraction, respectively) (Figure 3). Thus, the
256 primary driver of the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal of the total seston is the relative proportion of heterotrophic
257 organisms, combined with the total available living biomass.



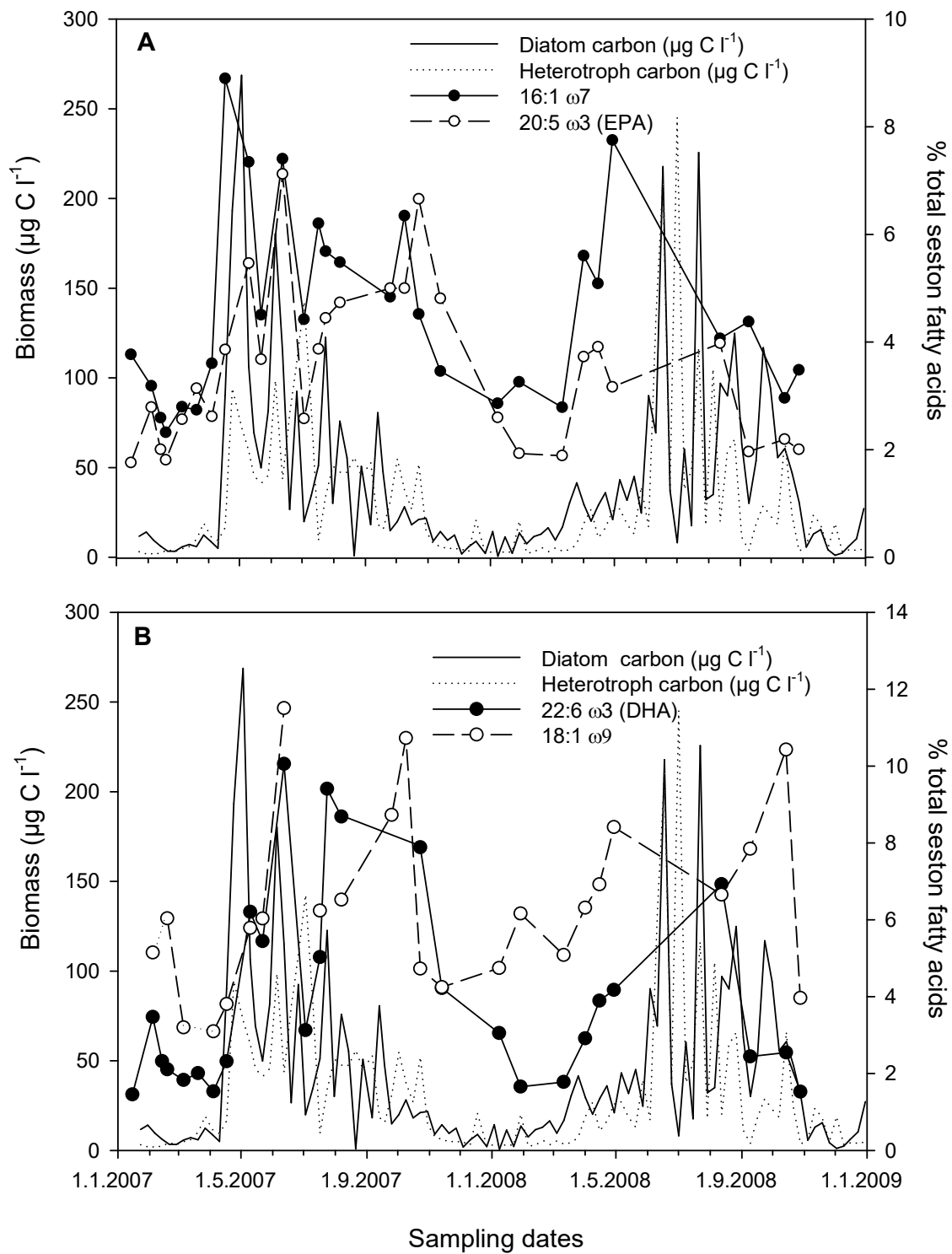
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259 *Figure 3: Seston δ¹⁵N (‰) and calculated δ¹⁵N for diatom and heterotroph fractions.*

260

261 The fatty acid content of the seston changed according to the seston composition (Figure 4). There
 262 was a strong seasonal change in the relative amounts of certain fatty acids. During the diatom bloom
 263 in May 2007 high amounts of eicosapentanoic acid (20:5 ω₃, EPA), prevalent in diatoms, were
 264 recorded (Figure 4A). Concurrently to the increase in heterotrophic biomass in June 2007 increased
 265 amounts of the dinoflagellate tracer fatty acids 18:1 ω₉ and 22:6 ω₃ (docosahexaenoic acid, DHA)
 266 were measured (Figure 4B). Throughout summer and autumn the concentration of 18:1 ω₉ remained
 267 high in the seston, while 22:6 ω₃ (DHA) displayed a second peak in late summer. The dominant fatty
 268 acids during the winter months were again those associated with heterotrophic organisms, in
 269 particular 18:1 ω₉.

270



271

272 *Figure 4: Seasonal variability of diatom fatty acid markers (A) and dinoflagellate fatty acid markers (B) overlaid on diatom and*
 273 *microzooplankton biomass.*

274

275 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal of the seston correlated with 18:1 $\omega 7$ (linear regression analysis: $r^2= 0.19$, $p<0.05$),
276 18:1 $\omega 9$ ($r^2= 0.48$, $p<0.001$) and the diatom-specific fatty acid 18:4 $\omega 3$ ($r^2= 0.27$, $p<0.01$). No
277 significant correlations between the fatty acids from the seston and the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal were found.

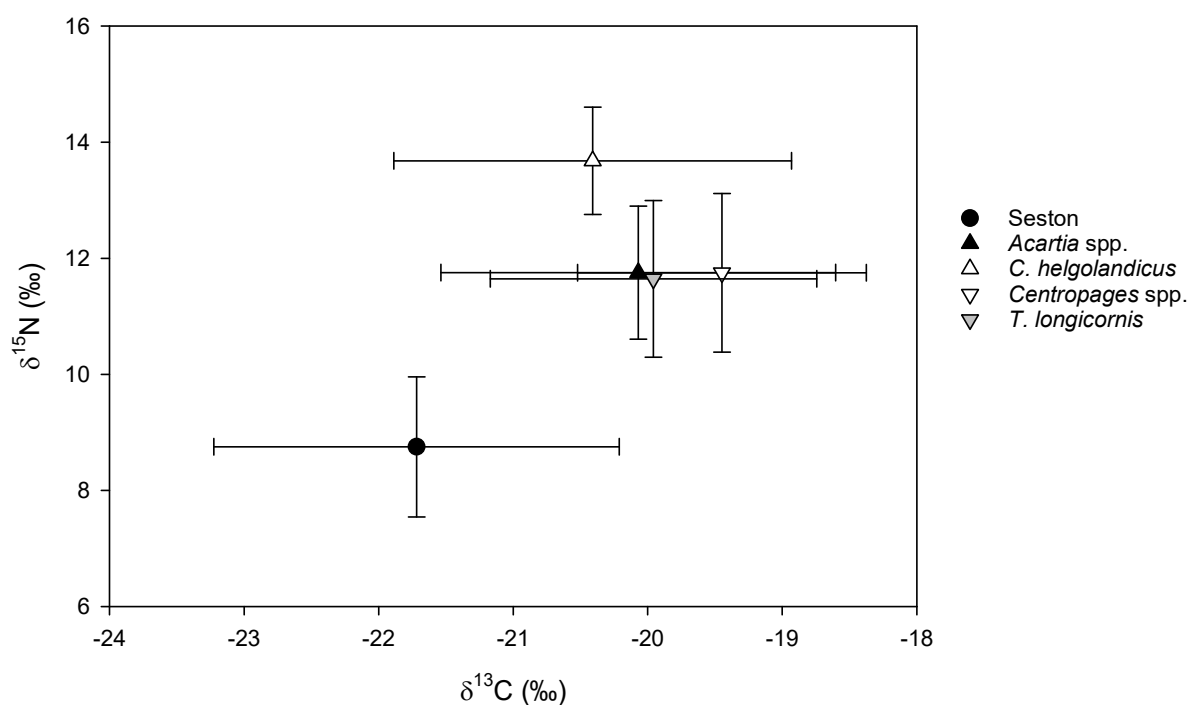
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279 *Copepods*

280 The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature of the copepods showed strong seasonal fluctuations (Figure 2). The $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signals
281 ranged from 9‰ to 15‰. Overall, the highest average $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ throughout the sampling period was
282 recorded in *Calanus helgolandicus*, followed by *Centropages* spp. and *Acartia* spp., while the lowest
283 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was observed in *Temora longicornis* (Figure 2 & Figure 5).

284 The trophic fractionation of the copepods relative to the seston was calculated and expressed as $\Delta\delta^{15}\text{N}$
285 of the copepods. This value also showed a wide range over the time sampled, from as low as 1‰ to
286 8‰, with strong differences between species and seasons. Generally, the $\Delta\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the copepods was
287 highest in winter, declined with the onset of the spring bloom and reached its lowest level in early
288 summer. This pattern displays the opposite trajectory to the diatom biomass and could indicate an
289 increased feeding on autotrophic organisms during the spring bloom. The $\Delta\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of most copepods
290 increased again in July and remained elevated through the autumn. The highest difference in trophic
291 enrichment between species was observed in autumn, where the $\Delta\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values ranged from 1.8‰ to
292 6.4‰. In *Acartia* spp. the lowest enrichment coincided with the spring bloom, indicating that this
293 copepod species fed on a herbivorous diet during that particular time. Enrichment was higher in late
294 autumn and winter, when the diatom biomass was lowest. A similar pattern was observed in *C.*
295 *helgolandicus*. *T. longicornis* showed a high level of enrichment in spring and late summer, while the
296 highest level of enrichment for *Centropages* spp. was recorded in July and August. *Centropages* spp.
297 displayed the highest increase in $\Delta\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in the winter with values rising from 0.9‰ in January to 5.5‰
298 in late February.

299 The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of copepods showed strong fluctuations (Figure 2). The highest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signals were recorded
 300 in May 2007 around the time of the diatom spring bloom. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal of *Acartia* spp. varied from
 301 -23 to -18‰. The highest $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signals for this copepod were observed in May 2007 and September
 302 2008. The lowest values (-23‰) were found in early March 2007, with another strong decrease in the
 303 spring of 2008. A very similar pattern was observed for the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *T. longicornis* and *Centropages*
 304 spp.. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ for *C. helgolandicus* was slightly lower, i.e. less enriched, than that of the other
 305 copepods throughout the sampling period (Figure 2 & Figure 5).



306

307 *Figure 5: Isotope biplot of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) of seston and zooplankton collected at Helgoland Roads from 2007-2008. Shown*
 308 *are means and standard deviations.*

309

310 *Table 2: Correlations between seston fatty acids and copepod fatty acids. * denotes $p < 0.05$, ** denotes $p < 0.01$, n.s. identifies no*
 311 *significant correlation.*

Fatty acid	<i>Acartia</i> spp.	<i>T. longicornis</i>	<i>Centropages</i> spp.	<i>C. helgolandicus</i>
18:1 ω 7	**	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
18:1 ω 9/18:1 ω 7	*	**	n.s.	n.s.
18:4 ω 3	n.s.	*	*	*

20:5 ω3 (EPA)	**	*	n.s.	**
22:6 ω3 (DHA)	*	*	**	*
DHA/EPA	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
PUFA/SFA	**	**	n.s.	n.s.
D/F	*	**	**	**

312

313 The fatty acid content of the four copepod species sampled was correlated with some specific fatty
314 acid markers in the seston (see Table 2). *Acartia* spp. showed significant correlations with the diatom
315 fatty acid 20:5 ω3 (EPA), and the dinoflagellate fatty acid 22:6 ω3 (DHA). The fatty acid signature
316 of *T. longicornis* was strongly correlated to the FATM 18:1 ω9/18:1 ω7 and PUFA/SFA, both
317 indicators of carnivory. Fatty acids in *Centropages* spp. were significantly correlated to the fatty acids
318 18:4 ω3 and DHA, which are associated with dinoflagellates, in the seston. *C. helgolandicus* showed
319 significant correlations with the diatom fatty acids (16:1 ω7 and EPA) and to the dinoflagellate fatty
320 acids (18:4 ω3 and DHA), indicating that *Calanus* fed on a mixed diet.

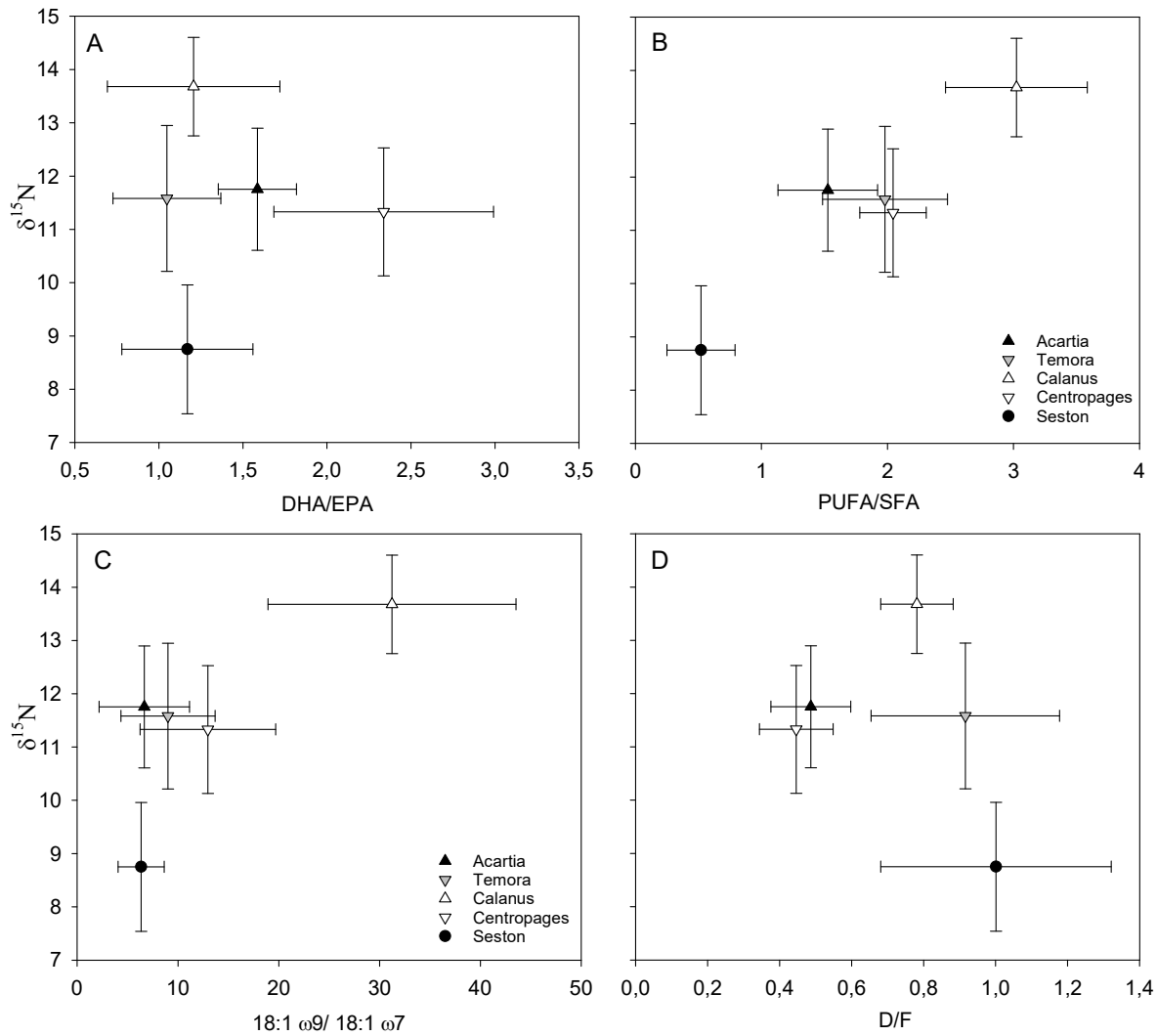
321

322 *Combined tracer approach: Stable isotopes and fatty acids*

323 Some strong correlations between the δ¹⁵N of the copepods and their fatty acid markers, i.e. the fatty
324 acids incorporated by the copepods were observed. The δ¹⁵N of *Acartia* spp. correlated significantly
325 with two fatty acid markers for diatoms (16:1 ω7 and D/F). There was also a strong correlation to the
326 carnivory marker DHA/EPA in *Acartia* spp. *Centropages* spp. displayed the strongest correlations
327 between δ¹⁵N and fatty acid markers for carnivory, such as DHA/EPA and PUFA/SFA. No
328 correlations were found between the δ¹⁵N of *T. longicornis* or *C. helgolandicus* and the fatty acid
329 markers. Significant correlations between the δ¹³C signal and FATMs were only observed for *T.*
330 *longicornis*.

331 To investigate whether the combination of stable isotope data and fatty acid markers is useful in
332 determining the trophic position of consumers the δ¹⁵N values were plotted against fatty acid trophic

333 markers (Figure 6). The relative positions of the copepods on the plot give an indication of the dietary
334 preference and the resulting trophic position. By using the combined FA and SI approaches we could
335 depict a distinct trophic position of *C. helgolandicus* compared to other copepod species, showing the
336 highest $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, almost one trophic level above that of the other copepods, and also the highest
337 concentration of the carnivory markers PUFA/SFA (Figure 6 B) and 18:1 ω 9/18:1 ω 7 (Figure 6 C).
338 In terms of the ratio of diatoms to dinoflagellates in the diet, however, *C. helgolandicus* showed a
339 rather balanced diet (Figure 6 D). This stresses the outstanding trophic role of *C. helgolandicus* when
340 compared to other North Sea copepods. In contrast, the other three copepods examined in this study
341 show similar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values, but have slightly different fatty acid profiles. The fatty acid composition
342 of *T. longicornis* reveals a preference for dinoflagellates, indicated by the high D/F ratio (Figure 6
343 D). Confounding this is the relatively low DHA/EPA ratio observed, which indicates a larger amount
344 of diatoms (EPA) relative to dinoflagellates (DHA) in the diet of this copepod. *Centropages spp.* on
345 the other hand contained a relatively high ratio of DHA/EPA, indicating a preference for
346 dinoflagellates, and a comparatively low amount of D/F (Figure 6 A). Both the fatty acid spectrum
347 and the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values of *Acartia spp.* indicate the omnivorous diet of this copepod, not exhibiting any
348 clear feeding preference.



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Figure 6: $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) and concentration of different fatty acid biomarkers (A) DHA/EPA, (B) PUFA/SFA, (C) 18:1 ω 9/18:1 ω 7 and (D) D/F expressed as % of total fatty acids for four species of copepods. Mean values for one year. Error bars indicate standard deviation.

355 DISCUSSION

356 Due to their pivotal role in the marine food web, the feeding of copepods has important consequences
357 both for lower and higher trophic levels. Copepod grazing can exert a top-down control on primary
358 producers and their survival and food quality greatly affects their consumers.

359 Disentangling the trophic linkages in a complex multi-trophic system requires the establishment of
360 an appropriate baseline against which the variations of the higher trophic levels can be gauged.

361 However, obtaining a reliable baseline for food web studies is a challenge.

362 Stable isotopes of particulate organic matter (POM) are typically used as a proxy for primary
363 producers in studies aiming to elucidate consumer diets. This is problematic since the isolation of
364 pure primary producers from the plankton is impossible and filtration results in bulk seston samples
365 containing a mixture of phytoplankton, mixo- and heterotrophic flagellates, ciliates, bacteria and
366 detritus, each with different trophic positions and isotope signals. Even size fractionation does not
367 alleviate this problem, as there are no natural size-borders separating primary producers from primary
368 consumers. Although in the present study we had detailed data on the composition and temporal
369 patterns of the autotrophic and mixo-heterotrophic organisms present at the base of the food web, the
370 seston isotope signal did not entirely match the composition of the known fractions from our data.
371 The seasonal variability in seston stable isotope signatures is commonly attributed to shifts in the
372 species composition, with higher $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signals usually related to a higher amount of heterotrophic
373 organisms (Aberle et al., 2010; Agurto, 2007). This pattern was visible in our data, with the main
374 drivers of this signal seeming to be the mixo- and heterotrophic fraction. The range of the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the
375 seston, i.e. at the base of the food web, measured over the sampling period was larger than the 2-5‰
376 difference normally attributed to a one step difference in trophic levels within food webs (Post, 2002).
377 The stable isotope signature of phytoplankton is known to be influenced by a variety of factors, such
378 as the CO_2 concentration, temperature, salinity, nutrient availability species, and cell size (Aberle and
379 Malzahn, 2007; Burkhardt et al., 1999; Needoba et al., 2003). The enrichment of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ therefore varies
380 greatly within and between phytoplankton taxa and seasons (Vuorio et al., 2006). Furthermore, the
381 nitrogen source and content of the algae can affect the fractionation and enrichment of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in the
382 consumers (e.g. Jones et al., 2004; Vanderklift and Ponsard, 2003; Vuorio et al., 2006). The
383 enrichment of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ between primary producers and their consumers can as a consequence range from
384 0‰ to 8‰ (Schmidt et al., 2003), a range which is similar to the results observed in this present study.
385 This further complicates the description of trophic linkages based entirely on stable isotope data.
386 One of the other major problems underlying this approach is the vast array of potential food sources
387 in complex ecosystems such as the marine ecosystem studied here. Additionally, consumers tend to

388 feed on more than one food source and change their feeding strategy in relation to the food
389 availability. The signal of e.g. the different diatom species, as well as that of the organisms making
390 up the microzooplankton, may have varied greatly due to interspecific differences in fractionation
391 (Aberle and Malzahn, 2007; Needoba et al., 2003).

392 Recent studies have used compound specific isotope analysis (CSIA) to investigate trophic linkages
393 in marine food webs (e.g. Chikaraishi et al., 2014; Reiffarth et al., 2016). This technique measures
394 the stable isotopes of biomarkers such as fatty acids or some amino acids (CSIA-AA) in the consumer
395 and thereby determines its trophic level. While this method bypasses some of the potential issues of
396 variable isotopic baselines it remains very labour- and cost-intensive and analytically demanding. In
397 addition, CSIA has some lingering issues, notably an underestimation of trophic positions based on
398 CSIA-AA in the field (Decima et al., 2013).

399 *Combining stable isotope and fatty acid data*

400 While the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal shows the trophic level an organism feeds on, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal is habitually used
401 to infer the dietary source of carbon. In our study, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the different copepod species were
402 within similar ranges thus not allowing for food source differentiation based on stable carbon isotopes
403 only. Herein lies the advantage of combined stable isotope and fatty acid analysis as with the help of
404 the fatty acid composition we were able to trace the actual dietary preferences of the copepods
405 (Dalsgaard et al., 2003; El-Sabaawi et al., 2009; Rossi et al., 2006; Stevens et al., 2004a). The fatty
406 acid composition of the copepods helped strengthen and further elucidate the trophic linkages and
407 food preferences between these consumers and their prey.

408 *Acartia* spp., *Centropages* spp. and *Temora longicornis* shared a similar $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature, which is in
409 line with observations by Agurto (2007) and Aberle et al. (2010), and could therefore be assumed to
410 feed on the same dietary items. A closer look at the fatty acid markers, however, showed some slight
411 differences in feeding preference. Both *T. longicornis* and *Acartia* spp. only show relatively low
412 amounts of carnivorous fatty acid markers and biomarkers indicate an omnivorous diet. *Centropages*
413 spp. was richer in the carnivorous marker DHA/EPA than *T. longicornis* and *Acartia* spp., indicating

414 a higher proportion of heterotrophic dinoflagellates in the diet and hence a carnivorous tendency.
415 Previous studies have reported that while *Centropages* is considered an omnivorous copepod, it
416 selectively feeds on large motile prey, including ciliates and dinoflagellates, particularly at times of
417 high dinoflagellate biomass (Calbet et al., 2007; Saage et al., 2009). In the case of this copepod, the
418 fatty acid signatures presented in this study show selective feeding on microzooplankton invisible
419 from the stable carbon isotope signal. *Temora longicornis* is also known to be an omnivorously
420 feeding copepod, whose trophic position is highly variable throughout the year and shows great
421 flexibility in its feeding behaviour (Dam and Lopes, 2003; Gentsch et al., 2009). The fatty acid
422 markers found in *T. longicornis* reflect a flexible and omnivorous diet; the levels of the dietary fatty
423 acid markers DHA/EPA and the ratio of D/F in *T. longicornis* closely echo those of the seston. In a
424 recent study *T. longicornis* has been shown to feed selectively depending on temperature, preferring
425 autotrophic prey under warmer conditions and selectively feeding on heterotrophic organisms under
426 lower temperatures (Boersma et al., 2016). Higher $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ found in *T. longicornis* in winter might hence
427 not only reflect a passive feeding behaviour following the higher share of heterotrophic organisms in
428 the plankton, but also the temperature related selectivity for heterotrophic prey at colder temperatures
429 described by Boersma et al (2016).

430 While the annual mean $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of *Calanus* spp. was higher than that of the other copepods sampled,
431 indicating feeding on a higher trophic level and a more carnivorous diet, the fatty acid biomarkers
432 showed that the diet also contained diatoms. *Calanus* is known to be omnivorous, feeding on both
433 dinoflagellates and diatoms (Harris et al., 2000; Meyer-Harms et al., 1999), although some studies
434 have shown *C. helgolandicus* to have a slight preference for diatoms (Irigoiien et al., 2000). As
435 *Calanus* are known to occasionally feed selectively based on the size of the food particles (Frost,
436 1972), the relatively larger size of some diatoms could explain the marked presence of these
437 organisms in their diet. This was highlighted in the fatty acid composition of the *Calanus* in the
438 present study, while the trophic level based on stable isotope data alone would have indicated a strong
439 preference for heterotrophic prey.

440 In conclusion, combining the stable isotope and fatty acid biomarker approach to investigate food
441 web interactions and trophic linkages has proven to be a powerful tool, disentangling the relative
442 trophic position and feeding preferences of copepods at Helgoland Roads. This combination is
443 particularly valid since seston stable isotope signals display such an amount of unexplained variance.
444 Finding a proper baseline for stable isotope studies on plankton communities is still a major challenge
445 for further research.

446

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