

Predator-prey interactions in a changing world: humic stress disrupts predator threat evasion in copepods

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27 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MS originally formulated the idea. MS, MOG, LM and ES conceived and designed the experiments. MS and LM performed the experiments. MS, ES and LM analyzed the data. MS, LM, ES and MOG wrote the manuscript.

31

32 ABSTRACT

33 Increasing inputs of colored dissolved organic matter (cDOM), which is mainly composed of humic substances (HS), are a widespread phenomenon of environmental change in aquatic 34 ecosystems. This process of brownification alters the chemical conditions of the environment, 35 36 but knowledge is lacking of whether elevated cDOM and HS levels interfere with the ability of prey species to evade chemical predator cues and thus affect predator-prey interactions. We 37 assessed the effects of acute and prolonged exposure to HS at increasing concentrations on the 38 39 ability of freshwater zooplankton to avoid predator threat (imposed by fish kairomones) in laboratory trials with two calanoid copepods (Eudiaptomus gracilis and Heterocope 40 appendiculata). Populations of both species clearly avoided water containing fish kairomones. 41 However, the avoidance behavior weakened with increasing HS concentration, suggesting that 42 HS affected the ability of copepods to perceive or respond to the predator cue. The behavioral 43 44 responses of the two copepod populations to increasing HS concentrations differed, with H. appendiculata being more sensitive than E. gracilis in an acute exposure scenario, whereas E. 45 gracilis responded more strongly after prolonged exposure. Both showed similar physiological 46 impairment after prolonged exposure, as revealed by their oxidative balance as a stress 47 indicator, but mortality increased more strongly for H. appendiculata when the HS 48 concentration increased. These results indicate that reduced predator threat evasion in the 49 presence of cDOM could make copepods more susceptible to predation in future, with variation 50 in the strength of responses among populations leading to changes in zooplankton communities 51 and lake food-web structure. 52

54 KEYWORDS

Brownification; chemical ecology; global change; zooplankton behavior; humic substances

57 INTRODUCTION

It has become increasingly clear during the past few decades that ecosystems are threatened 58 59 by global environmental change (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2005). Lakes have been recognized as sentinels of this change, because they are sensitive to climate, respond rapidly to 60 shifts in environmental conditions, and integrate information about changes occurring in their 61 62 catchments (Adrian et al. 2009). As predator-prey interactions are a primary structuring force in ecosystems (Schmitz 2005), any alteration of these interactions is likely to shift competition 63 among species, population dynamics, community structure, and ecosystem processes (Folke et 64 65 al. 2004; Frank et al. 2005). Thus, understanding the effects of environmental conditions on predator-prey interactions is important to predict ecosystem responses to global change. 66

One prominent facet of global environmental change in lakes is the widely observed 67 increase of colored dissolved organic matter (cDOM) (Hongve et al. 2004; Erlandsson et al. 68 2008), which is mainly composed of humic substances (HS) derived from the surrounding 69 70 terrestrial environment (Kullberg et al. 1993; Williamson et al. 1999; Brothers et al. 2014). This phenomenon is referred to as "browning" or "brownification" (Roulet and Moore 2006; 71 Kritzberg and Ekström 2012; Solomon et al. 2015). It leads to a yellowish-brownish coloration 72 of lakes, resulting in light regimes and water chemistry that can greatly differ from conditions 73 74 in clear waters, and effects on species and species interactions (Granéli et al. 1996; Monteith et 75 al. 2007; Robidoux et al. 2015; Solomon et al. 2015).

Many freshwater fishes have well-developed visual senses that are used as their primary source of information (Guthrie and Muntz 1993). Therefore, a significant body of research has addressed the consequences of changes in water optical properties by cDOM or HS on the

interactions between piscivorous fish, such as pike (Esox lucius) and pikeperch (Sander 79 80 lucioperca), and their prey, such as perch (Perca fluviatilis) and roach (Rutilus rutilus) (Ranaker et al. 2012, 2014; Jonsson et al. 2013). Very less attention has been given to interactions 81 between planktivorous fishes and their zooplankton prey, and the focus of those studies has 82 been on foraging efficiency (Estlander et al. 2010; Horppila et al. 2011; Jonsson et al. 2012). 83 Given the central role of zooplankton in lake food webs (Thorp and Covich 2010), it is 84 important also to understand to what extent brownification can affect this invertebrate prey, 85 either directly, or indirectly via chemically induced behavior. Previous studies found that HS 86 can have direct physiological effects on zooplankton (e.g. Meems et al. 2004; Steinberg et al. 87 88 2006) and could be an important factor determining zooplankton species composition and abundance in northern temperate lakes (Shurin et al. 2010; Robidoux et al. 2015). However, to 89 our knowledge, there have been no previous attempts to evaluate whether increased 90 91 concentrations of cDOM or HS alter the ability of zooplankton to evade predator threat by planktivorous fishes. 92

One of the dominant groups of freshwater zooplankton is copepods (Balian et al. 2008; 93 Heuschele and Selander 2014). In contrast to fish, most copepod species have limited visual 94 abilities and are instead often restricted to chemosensory and hydro-mechanical information 95 96 (Folt and Goldman 1981; Heuschele and Selander 2014). Therefore, any alteration of their olfactory system or chemical cues in lake water could reduce the ability of copepods to detect 97 and avoid predators. Thus, HS could disrupt chemical signaling pathways between organisms 98 in aquatic ecosystems with potential consequences on individual fitness, species interactions, 99 100 and zooplankton community structure (Ferrari et al. 2010). In addition, HS could impair the 101 ability of prey to respond to predator cues, which could have the same ecological effect.

102 The objective of the present study was to evaluate the effect of HS on the ability of 103 copepods to respond to fish scent. We performed olfactory trials with single individuals of two 104 different copepod species in a two-armed choice flume to assess the avoidance response of 105 copepods exposed to water containing both HS at increasing concentrations and olfactory cues 106 released by fish (kairomones). We assessed the ability of the copepods to respond to the fish 107 cues after acute and prolonged exposure to HS and also determined the oxidative balance of the 108 copepods as a physiological stress marker to assess potential negative effects on fitness.

109

110 MATERIALS AND METHODS

111 Plankton collection and maintenance

The study was conducted in August 2015 with two species of calanoid copepods: 112 *Eudiaptomus gracilis* (ovigerous females; mean length \pm SD, 1.01 ± 0.04 mm) and *Heterocope* 113 114 appendiculata (females and males; 1.71 ± 0.05 mm). The animals were collected with a plankton net (250 µm mesh size) on one occasion in Lake Stechlin, a deep clear-water lake in 115 northeastern Germany (53° 8' 35" N, 13° 1' 41" E), and kept separately at constant 116 117 temperature (18 \pm 1 °C) in gently aerated 10-L aquaria containing filtered lake water. The photoperiod of 16 h light: 8 h darkness reflected summer conditions in the field. The copepods 118 were fed a Cryptomonas culture (strain SAG 26.80, Culture Collection of Algae at Göttingen 119 University, Germany) every 3 days (density $6.5 \pm 1.9 \times 10^3$ cells mL⁻¹, ~0.35 mg C L⁻¹). The 120 algae were kept in semi-continuous culture in aerated 1-L flasks containing 500 mL of WC 121 medium (Guillard and Lorenzen 1972) modified by using TES buffer (0.5 mM) instead of Tris. 122 Exposure to low light conditions and frequent dilution ensured that the copepods were supplied 123 with a highly nutritious food. 124

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126 Humic substances and fish kairomones

HuminFeed[®] (http://www.humintech.com; henceforth HF) was used as source of HS. HF
is an industrially processed leonardite containing 43% organic carbon, 82% humic substances,
18% low-molecular-weight compounds, and no polysaccharides (Meinelt et al. 2007). HF has
been previously used as a standard source of humic substances to investigate effects of humic

stress on the physiology of aquatic organisms (Meinelt et al. 2007; Euent et al. 2008; Steinberg et al. 2010). HF of a single batch was mixed into water with and without fish kairomones shortly before use in the olfactory trials. Five concentrations were used, resulting in DOC exposure scenarios for the copepods within an environmentally relevant range from very low to mesohumic (Table 1). For comparison, DOC concentrations across numerous lakes in Quebec ranged from 3.0 to 15.5 mg L⁻¹ (Robidoux et al. 2015) and in Sweden from 3.9 to 19.4 mg L⁻¹ (Granéli et al. 1996).

Water containing fish kairomones was freshly prepared before use in the experiments. Four 138 individuals of zooplanktivorous perch (*Perca fluviatilis*, 71.3 ± 4.3 mm length) were immersed 139 140 for 4 h in a 40-L (0.1 fish per L) aerated tank kept in the dark to produce the kairomones. Although average fish densities in Lake Stechlin are considerably lower (0.01-0.02 per m³; 141 Mehner et al. 2011), densities of shoaling fish can be locally very high and potentially close to 142 those used in our experiment. Perch were pre-fed with live zooplankton (>250 µm) from Lake 143 Stechlin. Water in the tank was fully oxygenated groundwater that had been passed over a sand 144 145 filter and an ion exchange resin to reduce its high concentrations of calcium and iron. Before use in the experiments, the water was filtered (Whatman grade no. 4 filter paper, 25 µm average 146 pore size) and transferred to five 8-L tanks. 147

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149 Experimental design and procedures

A two-armed choice flume designed to conduct pairwise choice experiments was used to determine the olfactory ability of copepods to discriminate between water previously containing fish and untreated control water in both the presence and absence of HS (Fig. 1). Two tanks containing water either with or without fish cues were connected to the choice flume with tubing to create a constant gravity-driven flow of ~5 mL min⁻¹. Individual copepods were released at the junction of the horizontal arms where flow from the two different water sources meets. The released copepods were free to move 15 cm into either of the two arms (4 cm diameter) 157 connected to the tanks (Fig. 1). The horizontal alignment of the flume prevented the copepods158 from vertical migrations.

Each trial consisted of a 60-s acclimatization period followed by a test period of 120 s, 159 where the position of the copepod on the right or left side of the flume was recorded at 5-s 160 intervals. The flume was completely emptied after the test period and thoroughly rinsed with 161 162 tap water. Water sources were switched from one side of the flume to the other after every 163 fourth trial to control for potential side preferences not related to the water source. A total of 20 individual copepods were tested per treatment combination. Two copepods that did not swim 164 in either direction against the water flow during the acclimatization period were removed from 165 166 the study. We recorded the time (s) the individual copepods spent (1) in each of the two arms of the choice flume (i.e. with or without kairomones) and (2) in each of three 5-cm 167 compartments on the left and right side of the flume (Fig. 1). Additionally, we recorded the 168 169 number of visited compartments during the test period as a measure of locomotor activity. All observations were made under indirect, dim visible light with no light source pointing directly 170 171 on the flume. There was no evident effect of light source on behavior since the copepods showed no preference for either side of the choice flume. 172

173 We tested responses of the copepods under the following conditions:

Water on either side of the flume contained neither fish kairomones nor HS to assess
the horizontal distribution of copepods in the choice flume when both predator cues
and HS are absent (control).

- 177 (ii) Water contained fish kairomones on one side of the flume and control water without
 178 kairomones in the other to assess responses of freshly collected copepods to acute
 179 stress by exposure to HS at different concentrations (acute HS stress).
- (iii) Water contained fish kairomones on one side of the flume and control water without
 kairomones on the other to assess responses to HS exposure at different

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concentrations after maintaining the copepods at the respective test concentration for 5 days (prolonged HS stress).

To assess the effects of prolonged exposure, 50 individuals of each species were kept at 184 the five different HS concentrations (Table 1) for 5 days in 2-L glass beakers containing 1.5 L 185 of lake water that had been passed over a 90-µm mesh. Two glass beakers were used per 186 treatment, one for the olfactory experiment and the other to assess copepod physiological status. 187 188 Water with a given HS concentration was prepared in a single batch and distributed among all beakers to avoid any potential differences in HS concentration between species. The copepods 189 were fed at the beginning and after 3 days with the Cryptomonas culture (cell density: 6.5 ± 1.9 190 $\times 10^3$ mL⁻¹, ~0.35 mg C L⁻¹). Twenty individuals of one beaker were haphazardly chosen for 191 each treatment of the olfactory trials described above. 192

193

194 Physiological stress indicator

The effect of HS on the physiology of the two copepod species was assessed by 195 determining the oxidative balance between antioxidant capacity and oxidative damage at the 196 cellular level as an indicator of oxidative stress. Oxidative stress occurs when the cellular 197 balance between the production of reactive oxygen species and antioxidant defenses shifts 198 towards the former (Sies 1991) and can adversely affect life-history traits and fitness 199 (Monaghan et al. 2009). After 5 days of exposure to HS (see above), all copepods were 200 collected, allocated to 3-5 subsamples per HS concentration, each comprising 4 H. 201 appendiculata or 9 E. gracilis, which were placed in Eppendorf tubes, flash-frozen in liquid 202 nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C. The frozen samples were later homogenized in 250 µL cold 203 (4°C) potassium phosphate buffer (PPB; 0.1 M, pH 7.2) by bead-beating for 2 min at 20 Hz 204 205 with stainless steel milling balls (4 mm diameter) in a Mixer Mill MM 400 (Retsch®, Haan, Germany). The homogenate was centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 min at 4 °C and the supernatant 206 was used for analyses. Intracellular soluble antioxidant capacity was determined using the 207

oxygen radical absorption capacity (ORAC) assay (Prior et al. 2003, modified for copepods by
Gorokhova et al. 2013), and oxidative damage was measured using the thiobarbituric acid
reactive substances (TBARS) assay (Oakes and Van Der Kraak 2003). Total protein content
was measured according to Bradford (1976) using bovine serum albumin as standard. The raw
data of the ORAC and TBARS assays were first normalized to the quantity of proteins and the
ratio between ORAC and TBARS was used as an indicator of the oxidative balance.

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215 Statistical analyses

All statistical analyses and tests of their underlying assumptions (normality of the residuals, 216 homogeneity of variance) were performed in R version 3.2.3 (R Core Team 2012). The 217 significance level was set at P < 0.05 unless specified otherwise. To investigate the effect of 218 HS on the ability of copepods to avoid predation threat, we analyzed the time that the copepods 219 220 spent in the arm of the flume containing water with kairomones (square root-transformed to meet assumptions of normal distribution and homogeneous variances) and the number of visited 221 222 compartments (as a proxy of locomotor activity) using general linear models with copepod identity and duration of exposure to humic stress as factorial and HS concentration as 223 continuous explanatory variables. The response variable 'time copepods spent in the flume arm 224 225 containing kairomone water' accounts for the avoidance response of the copepods to fish kairomones and thus includes the kairomone effect. 226

To assess differences in the horizontal distribution of individuals in the choice flume, we calculated the mean distance of the 20 individuals from the center of the flume where the right and left arm meet and the animals were placed. Mean compartment distances from zero (i.e. -12.5, -7.5, -2.5, 2.5, 7.5, and 12.5 cm, see Fig. 1) were used in the calculation of an individual's mean distance from the center. From the individual mean distances of 20 copepods, a mean value and its 95% confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated to compare the avoidance of 233 copepods to water containing fish kairomones across the different treatment combinations.234 Significance was based on non-overlapping 95% CIs.

To assess the effects of prolonged HS stress on the oxidative balance of copepods, we compared the treatments with HS addition to the control treatment without HS. Dunnett's post hoc tests with P-values adjusted according to Holm were conducted to compare responses to HS addition with the controls (0.1 mg DOC L⁻¹). Statistical tests to assess oxidative stress were based on the log response ratio of the oxidative balance (i.e. ORAC:TBARS ratio). Taking the logarithm ensured that any increases or decreases of the ratio were given the same weight.

241

242 **RESULTS**

243 Olfactory trials without kairomones or HS

In the absence of fish kairomones and HS, the average time individuals of both copepod 244 species spent on either side of the choice flume during the 120-s trials was not significantly 245 different from the expected 60 s (Fig. S1; one sample t-test, E. gracilis: t = 1.05, df = 19, P = 246 247 0.31, *H. appendiculata*: t = 0.73, df = 19, P = 0.47). This lack of preference for the left or right side of the flume was also reflected in the horizontal distribution of the copepods in the choice 248 flume in that the mean distance from the centre of the flume was near zero (Fig. 2a, b). The 249 distribution of copepods across the flume was more variable for E. gracilis than for H. 250 appendiculata, as shown by larger CIs, indicating that E. gracilis moved further away from the 251 starting point (i.e. the center of the choice flume) than *H. appendiculata*. In addition, the larger 252 number of compartments visited by E. gracilis revealed a higher locomotor activity than shown 253 by *H. appendiculata* (Fig. S2; two sample *t*-test, t = 2.93, df = 38, P = 0.006). 254

255

256 Effects of population identity, HS concentration, and exposure duration

The two copepods were strongly affected by HS concentration and exposure duration (Fig.3; Table 2, high variance explained by these main effects). In general, both species spent

increasingly more time in compartments containing fish kairomones when the HS concentration increased (Fig. 3; Table 2, HS concentration main effect), and this increase differed between the two tested populations (Fig. 3; Table 2, significant interaction of HS concentration and population identity). Prolonged exposure reduced the ability of both copepods to avoid water containing fish kairomones, but the strength of this effect depended on the population tested (Fig. 3; Table 2, main effect of exposure time, significant interaction of population identity and exposure time).

266

267 Olfactory trials under acute stress

268 The time individuals of both copepod species spent in compartments containing fish kairomones was very short in the absence of HS (Fig. 2c, d). Instead, the copepods stayed 269 270 almost exclusively in the arm of the flume supplied with water not previously containing fish 271 (Figs. 3a, b, S3), indicating a distinct ability of copepods to perceive predator cues and avoid potential predation threat. This response pattern was maintained, although gradually weakened, 272 with the concentration of added HS increasing up to 7.2 mg C L⁻¹ (Fig. 3a, b). At 19.3 mg C L⁻ 273 274 ¹, however, predator threat evasion appeared to be partly diminished for *E. gracilis* (Fig. 3a) and completely impaired for H. appendiculata (Fig. 3b). This pattern is also reflected in the 275 276 mean distance of the copepods from the center of the choice flume (Fig. S4), which increased 277 with increasing HS concentration for *H. appendiculata* (Fig. 4b) and above 3.6 mg C L⁻¹ also for E. gracilis (Fig. 4a). The locomotor activity of E. gracilis decreased with increasing HS 278 concentration (Fig. 5a), whereas no consistent change was observed for *H. appendiculata* along 279 the HS gradient (Fig. 5b). 280

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282 Olfactory trials after prolonged stress

The ability of *E. gracilis* to sense predatory cues was greatly reduced by prolonged HS exposure (5 days), as indicated by individuals spending more time in compartments with fish

kairomones already at 1.8 mg C L⁻¹ (Figs. 3c, 4a, S5) compared to acute exposure, where the 285 copepods showed a significant response only at 7.2 mg C L^{-1} (Figs. 3a, 4a). For H. 286 appendiculata, the mean distance from the flume center continuously increased with increasing 287 HS concentration in the trials testing for both acute and prolonged stress (Fig. 4b). A significant 288 difference in predator cue recognition between the two exposure times was only apparent at 7.2 289 mg C L^{-1} (Figs. 3b, d, 4b). Predator avoidance by *E. gracilis* under prolonged exposure was 290 completely suppressed at 3.6 mg C L⁻¹ (Fig. 4a), and that of *H. appendiculata* only at 19.3 mg 291 C L⁻¹ (Figs. 4a, S5). Copepod locomotor activity was unaffected by exposure duration (Fig. 5; 292 Table 2); whereas the activity of *E. gracilis* decreased with increasing HS concentration, there 293 was no consistent change along the HS gradient for *H. appendiculata*. 294

295

296 Physiological stress

297 HS also affected the oxidative balance of both copepod species. The pattern observed along the HS gradient is best described as a biphasic response known as hormesis, which is 298 299 characterized by stimulation at low and inhibition at high concentrations (Fig. 6). Specifically, the oxidative balance was higher than that in the controls at the lowest HS concentration (5 mg 300 L^{-1}) but lower at 3.6 and 7.2 mg C L^{-1} (Fig. 6). The magnitude of the increase and decrease was 301 similar (i.e. about a doubling and halving of the oxidative balance, respectively) and there were 302 303 no notable species-specific differences along the HS gradient. At the highest HS concentration, the oxidative balance approached the level of the controls (Fig. 6), suggesting that other 304 physiological pathways than those involving antioxidant defenses might counteract stress 305 306 caused by HS at very high concentrations. Prolonged exposure to HS also had a direct negative effect on copepod survival, as mortality increased with increasing HS concentration after 5 days 307 of exposure (Table 3; linear regressions, E. gracilis: $R^2 = 0.51$, P = 0.02; H. appendiculata: R^2 308 = 0.43, P = 0.04).309

311 **DISCUSSION**

312 The observed responses of the two copepod populations to the presence of fish kairomones revealed that both E. gracilis and H. appendiculata are clearly capable of detecting olfactory 313 cues and avoiding predator threat. This result is in line with previous experimental studies on 314 other copepod species that observed avoidance behavior by kairomone-induced vertical 315 migration (Neill 1990, 1992; Cohen and Forward 2005; Jamieson 2005; Minto et al. 2010; 316 317 Gutierrez et al. 2011). More important, our results also show that HS can impair the ability of copepods to evade predator threat by interfering with the recognition of chemical cues released 318 by fish or by inducing stress that alters copepod behavior. The implication is that by preventing 319 320 predator evasion, increases in HS concentrations in surface waters can reduce the fitness of prey species. This, together with the finding that females of a freshwater fish (Xiphophorus 321 *birchmanni*) lose their preference for conspecific male cues upon HS exposure (Fisher et al. 322 323 2006), reinforces the conclusion that chemical signal transduction both within and between species, ranging from cue perception to behavioral responses, can be disrupted as a result of 324 325 surface water brownification.

326

327 Physiological stress and altered behavior

328 Direct physiological effects of HS on freshwater invertebrates have been attributed to the induction of oxidative stress, production of chemical defense proteins, and variations in 329 detoxification enzyme activities (Steinberg et al. 2006; Timofeyev et al. 2006; Steinberg et al. 330 2010). Our assessment of oxidative balance indicates that HS caused oxidative stress also in the 331 two populations of copepods we investigated. The biphasic pattern observed along our 332 experimental HS gradient suggests a hormetic effect for both copepods, with stimulation at low 333 and a negative response at elevated HS concentrations. This pattern is consistent with previous 334 results showing HS-mediated hormesis of antioxidant enzymes in other crustaceans, Gammarus 335 lacustris and Daphnia galeata (Meems et al. 2004; Timofeyev et al. 2006). According to 336

hormesis theory (e.g. Calabrese 2005), the stimulation at low HS concentration may be 337 338 beneficial for organisms by training their defense systems, whereas HS becomes toxic at elevated concentrations. That our copepods showed greater oxidative stress at high HS 339 concentrations is also in line with the greater mortality observed in these conditions after 5 days 340 of exposure, indicating direct toxicity of HS on both copepods. This toxic effect could have 341 influenced the results we obtained after prolonged exposure, at least for *E. gracilis*, whose 342 343 avoidance ability was more strongly reduced than after acute exposure. However, potentially reduced fitness was unlikely to affect our results on acute stress, because the acute stress trials 344 were limited to 120 s and used freshly caught copepods that had not previously experienced 345 346 stress by HS. Thus, our results on acute stress are unlikely to be notably influenced by toxic effects on copepod performance, although copepod behavior could have been affected. 347 Prolonged exposure to HS, however, could exacerbate the negative effect on avoidance ability 348 349 by directly increasing mortality or by physiologically weakening the copepods as a result of oxidative stress. 350

351 It currently remains unknown which mechanism was responsible for the observed effects. HS could alter the chemical structure of fish kairomones such that these molecules become 352 undetectable to the chemoreceptors of the copepods. However, since HS bind to hydrophobic 353 354 chemicals such as steroid pheromones (Mesquita et al. 2003), rather than to hydrophilic ones such as fish kairomones (von Elert and Loose 1996), this scenario is rather unlikely. 355 Alternatively, HS could block or damage the chemoreceptors, as found in a goldfish where HS 356 reduced the response of the olfactory epithelium and olfactory bulb to sexual pheromones 357 (Hubbard et al. 2002). Both of these mechanisms could cause the observed impairment of 358 information flow. In addition, HS could alter copepod behavior by imposing stress. Thus, future 359 studies need to distinguish between the modification by HS of kairomone chemical structure, 360 impairment of copepod chemosensory ability as a cause of infodisruption, and HS-induced 361 stress that elicits other behavioral effects on copepods. 362

364

A Population-specific responses to humic stress

A notable outcome of our experiments is that the two tested copepod populations showed 365 differences in their abilities to respond to fish kairomones. Under conditions of acute exposure, 366 367 the avoidance ability of *H. appendiculata* was reduced at low HS concentrations compared to that of *E. gracilis*, suggesting a higher sensitivity to HS of *H. appendiculata*. After prolonged 368 369 exposure, the two species showed opposite patterns, but this result needs to be interpreted with caution because of potentially concomitant direct toxic effects of HS after 5 days of exposure. 370 371 Furthermore, the threshold-like response of E. gracilis to increasing HS concentrations was 372 dependent on exposure time, whereas *H. appendiculata* showed a similar and steady reduction in its ability to avoid water containing fish kairomones at both exposure times. This suggests 373 that surviving *H. appendiculata* is better at evading predator threat after prolonged HS stress 374 375 than E. gracilis, in spite of a higher mortality at elevated HS concentrations than E. gracilis. It is important to note, however, that our experiment was not designed to assess the response of 376 377 both species in general, because populations from different lakes could deviate in their sensitivities to both HS and predator kairomones. 378

The alteration of predator avoidance under HS stress that we observed could increase the 379 380 susceptibility of copepods to predation in the future as brownification of surface waters continues, because this effect may ultimately reduce the distance between copepods and 381 planktivorous fish. The differences we observed between the two copepod populations further 382 383 suggest that H. appendiculata populations could be more prone to predation than E. gracilis under conditions of acute humic stress, whereas E. gracilis population could be more affected 384 when exposed to prolonged humic stress. Conversely, the direct negative effect of HS on 385 copepod survival observed here may favor E. gracilis over H. appendiculata populations, 386 because the latter showed a higher mortality after prolonged exposure. Selection is expected to 387 act more strongly on populations less tolerant to humic stress, as a result of both direct 388

physiological effects and changes in predator avoidance, potentially leading to changes in community composition. For instance, since *E. gracilis* is much smaller than *H. appendiculata*, it is harder for fish to visually detect this prey species, even though the ovigerous (egg saccarrying) females of *E. gracilis* we used are more susceptible to fish predation than males or females without egg sacs (Winfield and Townsend 1983; Svensson 1992).

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395

Potential zooplankton community effects of lake brownification

Increasing evidence indicates that chemical cues of predators induce diel vertical migration 396 (DVM) in copepods as a defense strategy against predation (Neill 1990, 1992; Cohen and 397 398 Forward 2005; Jamieson 2005; Heuschele and Selander 2014). This includes E. gracilis, where the migration amplitude depends on season and other factors (Ringelberg et al. 1991). E. 399 gracilis can use fish kairomones as a warning signal triggering DVM (Jamieson 2005) but, as 400 401 our data show, may lose this ability under elevated HS levels resulting from surface water brownification. Very little is known about the DVM behavior of *H. appendiculata*, probably 402 403 because this species is rarely dominant in lake zooplankton communities (Walseng et al. 2006). However, H. appendiculata more often than E. gracilis appears to occur in lakes characterized 404 by lower HS concentrations (Berzins and Bertilsson 1990), suggesting that E. gracilis may cope 405 406 better with increased lake brownification expected in the future.

The HS-mediated reduction in the ability to evade predator threat could increase the 407 susceptibility of copepods to predation in lakes. Alternatively, however, brownification could 408 protect zooplankton by impairing the visual detection ability of fish, although experimental 409 410 studies on fish predation in relation to brownification have shown mixed results. Brownification has decreased predation efficiency of some visually hunting planktivorous fishes (Estlander et 411 al. 2010, 2012), but no effects have been observed in other cases (Horppila et al. 2011; Jonsson 412 et al. 2012). For instance, perch (Perca fluviatilis) consumed significantly less phantom midge 413 larvae (Chaoborus flavicans) in highly humic than in clear water (Estlander et al. 2012), 414

whereas a significant effect of reduced water clarity on roach (Rutilus rutilus) feeding on 415 copepods has not been observed (Jonsson et al. 2012). Further, the average body size of 416 zooplankton in lakes with fish increases with increasing cDOM concentrations (Symons and 417 418 Shurin 2016), suggesting that brownification weakens top-down control of large zooplankton species, which is consistent with the hypothesis that fish predation is less intense at high HS 419 levels. Thus, the consequences on the zooplankton community resulting from species-specific 420 421 differences in both zooplankton and fish responses to HS could be complex and entail cascading effects on lake food webs and ecosystem functioning. 422

423

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- 617

Table 1 Summary of water-chemical and physical characteristics along the experimental humic
substance gradient prepared using HuminFeed[®] (HF). Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and
water color increased along the HF gradient

6	2	1
υ	~	Τ.

HF	DOC	Color intensity	
(mg L ⁻¹)	(mg L ⁻¹)	(absorption at 436 nm)	pН
0	0.1	<0.01	7.1
5	1.8	0.03	7.2
10	3.6	0.06	7.2
20	7.2	0.13	7.1
50	19.3	0.32	7.2

Table 2 ANOVA results of general linear models testing for the effects of copepod population (P), duration of exposure to humic stress (= exposure time; E) and humic substance concentration (HS; continuous) on copepod avoidance behavior assessed as the time spent by copepods in the arm of the choice flume containing kairomones (square root transformed data) and on the number of visited compartments (untransformed data). Significant effects are indicated by asterisks: * for P < 0.05, ** for P < 0.01 and *** for P < 0.001

Source of variation	Time spent in the choice-flume arm containing kairomones				Number of visited compartments			
	df	Sum of squares	Variance (%)	F-value	df	Sum of squares	Variance (%)	F-value
Copepod population (P)	1	0.37	< 0.1	0.1	1	17.4	2.3	11.3***
Exposure time (E)	1	327.4	9.6	68.1***	1	0.1	< 0.1	0.1
HS concentration (HS)	1	1115.5	32.7	231.9***	1	78.3	10.2	50.6***
$P \times E$	1	64.5	1.9	13.4***	1	7.5	1.0	4.9*
$P \times HS$	1	22.7	0.7	4.7*	1	54.0	7.1	35.0***
$\mathbf{E} \times \mathbf{HS}$	1	1.3	< 0.1	0.3	1	1.0	0.1	0.7
$P \times E \times HS$	1	0.11	< 0.1	0.0	1	3.7	0.5	2.4
Residuals	390	1875.8	55.0		390	602.8	78.8	

631

Table 3 Mortality of E. gracilis and H. appendiculata after 5 days of exposure to humic substance (HS; HuminFeed) at different concentrations

		Glas	ss 1	Glass 2		
Population	HS (mg C L ⁻¹)	No. dead individuals	Mortality (%)	No. dead individuals	Mortality (%)	
E. gracilis	0.1	2	4	1	2	
	1.8	1	2	1	2	
	3.6	8	16	5	10	
	7.2	7	14	7	14	
	19.3	8	16	7	14	
H. appendiculata	0.1	3	6	5	10	
	1.8	8	16	11	22	
	3.6	12	24	10	20	
	7.2	15	30	12	24	
	19.3	12	24	14	28	

638 FIGURE LEGENDS

639

Fig. 1 Schematic of the experimental choice flume. Individual copepods were released at the 640 center of the horizontally aligned experimental arena (location zero), where they could freely 641 choose to move 15 cm in opposite directions of the flume. Both arms of the flume (4 cm 642 diameter) were divided into three compartments (left side: -15 to -10 cm, -10 to -5 cm, -5 to 0 643 cm; right side: 0 to 5 cm, 5 to 10 cm, 10 to 15 cm). Mean compartment distances from the centre 644 of the flume are indicated in **bold**. The two arms were connected to tanks supplying water that 645 either contained or did not contain fish kairomones. Dashed arrows symbolize direction of the 646 647 water flow (~5 mL min⁻¹)

648

Fig. 2 Responses of *Eudiaptomus gracilis* (a, c) and *Heterocope appendiculata* (b, d) in acute stress trials without (a, b) and with (c, d) fish kairomones expressed as time spent in different compartments of the choice flume. The black vertical lines indicate the center of the flume and the thick solid lines indicate the mean distance of 20 individual copepods from the center with the dashed lines denoting 95% confidence limits

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Fig. 3 Responses of (a,c) *Eudiaptomus gracilis* and (b,d) *Heterocope appendiculata* to
increasing humic substance (HS) concentrations in (a,b) acute and (c,d) prolonged exposure
trials, expressed as time spent in compartments without (white boxes) and with (gray boxes)
fish kairomones. N = 20 copepods in each trial

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Fig. 4 Responses of (a) *Eudiaptomus gracilis* and (b) *Heterocope appendiculata* to increasing humic substance (HS) concentrations in acute and prolonged exposure trials, expressed as the mean distance of 20 individual copepods from the flume center. Negative values indicate avoidance of fish kairomone containing water. Differences between HS levels within a given exposure treatment are indicated by different letters, based on non-overlapping 95% confidenceintervals (error bars)

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667Fig. 5 Number of choice-flume compartments visited as an estimate of locomotor activity of668(a) *Eudiaptomus gracilis* and (b) *Heterocope appendiculata* at increasing humic substance (HS)669concentrations during acute and prolonged exposure trials. N = 20 copepods in each trial670671671Fig. 6 Normalized oxidative balance (ORAC:TBARS ratio) as an indicator of oxidative stress672of *Eudiaptomus gracilis* and *Heterocope appendiculata* after prolonged exposure to increasing673humic substance (HS) concentrations. Error bars indicate standard deviations. Asterisks674indicate significant differences from the controls at the P < 0.05 (*) and P < 0.01 (**) level

Fig. 1





















