1	Spatiotemporal dynamics of stable carbon isotope ratios in two sympatric oligohaline copepods in
2	relation to the estuarine turbidity maximum (Chikugo River, Japan): implications for food sources
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- 4 KEITA W. SUZUKI¹*, HIROSHI UEDA², KOUJI NAKAYAMA³, MASARU TANAKA⁴
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¹MAIZURU FISHERIES RESEARCH STATION, FIELD SCIENCE EDUCATION AND 6 RESEARCH CENTER, KYOTO UNIVERSITY, NAGAHAMA, MAIZURU-SHI, KYOTO 7625-0025, JAPAN, ²USA MARINE BIOLOGICAL INSTITUTE, KOCHI UNIVERSITY, USA, 8 TOSA, KOCHI 781-1164, JAPAN, ³LABORATORY OF MARINE STOCK-ENHANCEMENT 9 BIOLOGY, GRADUATE SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE, KYOTO UNIVERSITY, OIWAKE-CHO, 10 KITASHIRAKAWA, SAKYO-KU, KYOTO 606-8502, JAPAN, ⁴INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE 11 FOR ADVANCED STUDIES, 9-3 KIZUGAWADAI, KIZUGAWA-SHI, KYOTO 619-0225, 12JAPAN 13

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15 *CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: suzuki.keita.3r@kyoto-u.ac.jp

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18 *Sinocalanus sinensis*

20 ABSTRACT

To improve our understanding of high copepod productivity in the estuarine turbidity maximum 21(ETM) of the macrotidal Chikugo River estuary in southwestern Japan, we determined stable 22carbon isotope ratios (δ^{13} C) in the sympatric oligonaline copepods Sinocalanus sinensis and 23Pseudodiaptomus inopinus from 2005 to 2006. Terrestrial-plant and phytoplankton detritus always $\mathbf{24}$ accumulated in the ETM (salinity 0.1-3), whereas outside the ETM phytoplankton dominated 25especially in the warm season (> 20° C). In contrast with the year-round concentration of S. sinensis 26in the ETM, P. inopinus occurred widely along the upper estuary under phytoplankton-dominated 27conditions. Terrestrial-plant detritus was characterized by relatively constant $\delta^{13}C$ (ca. -24‰), 28suggesting that significant spatiotemporal variability in copepod δ^{13} C was attributable to the feeding 29of copepods on phytoplankton and/or its detritus. Both copepods held relatively depleted $\delta^{13}C$ 30 values in the ETM, reflecting δ^{13} C in freshwater/oligohaline phytoplankton (< -24‰). However, 31 relatively enriched δ^{13} C values (> -24‰) associated with meso/polyhaline phytoplankton 32downstream from the ETM were found only in P. inopinus. Although the contribution of 33 terrestrial-plant detritus to copepod production remains to be determined, our results indicate that 34 35both copepods selectively utilize freshwater/oligohaline phytoplankton and/or its detritus in the ETM whereas only *P. inopinus* utilizes meso/polyhaline phytoplankton downstream from the ETM. 36 37

38 INTRODUCTION

The estuarine turbidity maximum (ETM) develops at low salinities in macrotidal estuaries through 39 the hydrodynamic function of tidal pumping and estuarine circulation (Allen et al., 1980; Uncles et 40 al., 2002). High densities of zooplankton are often associated with high concentrations of suspended 41solids in the ETM (Castel and Veiga, 1990; Laprise and Dodson, 1994; North and Houde, 2003). 42The ETM generally serves as a fish nursery, providing better feeding conditions to larval and 43juvenile fish than other habitats (Dauvin and Dodson, 1990; Sirois and Dodson, 2000; Martino and 44Houde, 2010). However, phytoplankton production is inhibited in the ETM, as light availability for 45photosynthesis is severely reduced by the high turbidities that exist here (Irigoien and Castel, 1997; 46Yokoyama et al., 2012). Therefore, detrital food sources of allochthonous origin (e.g. freshwater 47and marine phytoplankton and terrestrial plants) have been considered to subsidize high 48zooplankton productivity in the ETM (Heinle and Flemer, 1975; Heinle et al., 1977; Roman, 1984; 49David et al., 2006). 50

In Japan, the oligohaline copepod Sinocalanus sinensis occurs only in macrotidal estuaries 51in the innermost part of the Ariake Sea (Hiromi and Ueda, 1987; Ohtsuka et al., 1995; Ueda, 2005). 52On the contrary, the copepod Pseudodiaptomus inopinus is widely distributed in brackish waters of 53East Asia (Ohtsuka et al., 1995; Sakaguchi et al., 2011). Although both copepods coexist in the 54macrotidal Chikugo River estuary, the largest estuary flowing into the Ariake Sea, S. sinensis 55numerically dominates in and close to the ETM throughout the year except in the warm season 56when P. inopinus outnumbers S. sinensis (Suzuki et al., 2013). Given the vulnerability of eggs and 57nauplii to washout from the estuary, large floods characteristic of the warm season are more 58detrimental to the free-spawning species S. sinensis than to the egg-carrying species P. inopinus 59(Suzuki et al., 2012a). Besides their different reproduction strategies, differential food sources could 60 also explain the seasonal alternation of dominance between the two copepods. Terrestrial-plant and 61phytoplankton detritus continuously accumulates in the ETM and therefore could ensure minimum 62 food for the two copepods throughout the year (Suzuki et al., 2012b). In contrast, phytoplankton, 63

which proliferates outside the ETM in the warm season, could serve as nutritious food of limited
availability (Suzuki *et al.*, 2012b).

To test the hypothesis that the sympatric oligohaline copepods S. sinensis and P. inopinus 66 depend on differential food sources, we determined stable carbon isotope ratios (δ^{13} C) in the two 67 copepods along the Chikugo River estuary monthly between 2005 and 2006. Photosynthetic 68 pigment concentrations and $\delta^{13}C$ in particulate organic carbon (POC) were also measured in 69 ambient water. Since δ^{13} C in animals reflect δ^{13} C in their diet (DeNiro and Epstein, 1978; Fry and 70Sherr, 1984), spatiotemporal variability in copepod $\delta^{13}C$ was compared with that in POC $\delta^{13}C$. 71Significant spatiotemporal variability in copepod δ^{13} C was attributed to the feeding of copepods on 72phytoplankton and/or its detritus, as phytoplankton is characterized by spatiotemporally variable 73 δ^{13} C in contrast with relatively constant δ^{13} C in terrestrial plants (cf. Suzuki *et al.*, 2012b). 74Differences in δ^{13} C between copepods and POC were used to evaluate selective feeding and/or 75assimilation by copepods (cf. Del Giorgio and France, 1996). Dependence on differential food 76sources is discussed between S. sinensis and P. inopinus in light of their respective patterns of 77spatial occurrence relative to the ETM. 78

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80 **METHOD**

81 Study area

The Chikugo River estuary is the largest estuary in the Ariake Sea in terms of both catchment area 82 (2860 km²) and freshwater discharge (annual median of daily averages: 60 m³ s⁻¹). The estuarine 83 environment is characterized by one of the largest tidal ranges in Japan (up to 5 m during spring 84 tides). The tidal reach is 4–8 m in depth and 300–1000 m in width at spring high tide, extending to 85the Chikugo Weir 23 km upstream from the river mouth. Strong tidal currents completely mix the 86 water column during spring tides, whereas partial stratification occurs during neap tides (Suzuki et 87 al., 2007). The ETM is usually located 10-20 km upstream from the river mouth at spring high tide, 88 although it is transported back and forth over a 20-km range along the estuary with the semidiurnal 89

90 tidal cycle between high and low tides. Terrestrial-plant and phytoplankton detritus accumulates 91into the ETM throughout the year, whereas phytoplankton occurs abundantly outside the ETM during the warm season (Suzuki et al., 2012b). Benthic microalgae are considered to be negligible 92compared with phytoplankton and terrestrial plants (Suzuki et al., 2012b). Large floods 93occasionally affect the estuary and wash away the ETM especially in the warm season (Suzuki et al., 942009). The spatiotemporal dynamics of the horizontal distribution of S. sinensis and P. inopinus 95along the estuary is published elsewhere (Suzuki et al., 2012a). Moreover, the spatiotemporal 96 dynamics of both concentration and origin of POC has been studied in detail relative to the 97 fortnightly tidal cycle (Suzuki et al., 2007), freshwater discharge levels (Suzuki et al., 2009) and the 98seasonal succession (Suzuki et al., 2012b). 99

Seven regular sampling stations (R1–R7; Fig. 1) were set up at intervals of 1.5–5.5 km along the lower reaches of the Chikugo River, located between the river mouth and the upper limit of the tidal reach (23 km upstream). Three regular sampling stations (E1–E3; Fig. 1) were set up along the main tidal channel of the river so that E1 was near the river mouth and E3 was at the edge of the tidal flat (9 km offshore). The freshwater discharge was continuously monitored 26 km upstream and the data were uploaded to the web site by the Chikugogawa River Office.

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107 Field sampling

Monthly sampling was conducted at the ten regular sampling stations during the period March 2005 108to December 2006. All sampling dates coincided approximately with spring tides. Sampling 109involved vertical hauls of a plankton net (45-cm mouth diameter, 100-cm long, 0.1-mm mesh 110aperture) from close to the bottom to the surface at ~ 50 cm s⁻¹. Zooplankton was preserved in 5% 111 formalin seawater solution for taxonomic analysis of copepods. The volume of water filtered was 112estimated using a flow meter (2030R, General Oceanics, USA) attached to the mouth of the 113plankton net. For $\delta^{13}C$ analysis of copepods, zooplankton was immediately frozen on dry ice. 114Frozen samples were transported to the laboratory and stored at -30°C until further analysis. 115

116Temperature, salinity and turbidity were also measured from the bottom to the surface at depth intervals of 1 or 2 m using environmental monitoring systems (6920 Sonde and 650 MDS Display, 117YSI, USA; Compact-CTD, Alec Electronics, Japan). Turbidity was not measured in April and July 1182005 and February 2006, due to mechanical faults of the turbidity sensor. Water samples were taken 119from the surface with a bucket and prefiltered through a nylon screen (0.1-mm mesh aperture) to 120remove zooplankton and plant debris before being packed in clean bottles. Plankton-net hauls and 121122environmental surveys were started at the uppermost station (R7) and finished at the lowermost 123station (E3) within 4-5 h around high tide in the morning. To assess temporal changes in copepod δ^{13} C in response to short-term environmental changes, a series of intensive sampling was conducted 124once every 5 or 6 days from 8 June to 9 August 2005. This period of the year is considered to 125represent the warm and wet season in southwestern Japan (Suzuki et al., 2012b). Three extra 126sampling stations (R2.5, R3.5 and R6.5; Fig. 1) were set to focus on the ETM and its surrounding 127waters, whereas sampling was not conducted at stations far downstream from the ETM. Given 128relatively weak mixing in the water column in summer, water samples were taken not only from the 129surface but also from approximately 1 m above the bottom using a Van Dorn water sampler. The 130other procedures for collecting biological and physical data were the same for those of the monthly 131sampling. 132

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134 Laboratory analysis

Water samples were filtered through Whatman GF/F filters that had been combusted at 400°C for 3h. Depending on turbidity, water volume for filtration was adjusted (20–1000 ml). Duplicates were made for each water sample to analyze photosynthetic pigments and δ^{13} C separately, although both analyses were done once for each sample. Filter samples were kept frozen at -30°C until further analysis. Half of the filters were extracted in the dark for 12 h with 90% acetone. Extracts were measured for chlorophyll *a* and phaeopigment concentrations by the fluorometric method using a calibrated Turner Designs TD 700 fluorometer (Japan Meteorological Agency, 1970). The fluorescence of phaeopigments, an indicator of plant detritus, was quantified after acidification with HCl. For δ^{13} C analysis of POC, the other half of the filters were dried at 60°C for 24 h and acidified by fuming with HCl for 24 h to remove CaCO₃. To neutralize the acid, samples were placed in a desiccator with NaOH for more than 72 h and then redried. The processed samples were wrapped separately in tin foil and kept dry in another desiccator.

To estimate density (ind. L^{-1}), adults and copepodids of S. sinensis and P. inopinus were 147extracted from the formalin samples and identified under a stereo microscope (× 20-50 148magnification). For δ^{13} C analysis of copepods, the frozen zooplankton samples were thawed slowly 149and identified to species under the stereo microscope during the period of thawing. Adults and 150copepodids of S. sinensis and P. inopinus were pooled by species (~50 individuals) at each station 151on each sampling date to obtain sufficient material for δ^{13} C analysis. Pooled samples were rinsed 152with distilled water and wrapped separately in tin foil before being dried at 60°C for 24 h. Neither 153acidification nor lipid extraction was conducted in zooplankton samples. All δ^{13} C values were 154determined using a stable isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Delta S, Finnigan MAT, Germany) in the 155continuous flow mode, equipped with an elemental analyzer (EA1108, Fisons Instrument, Italy). 156Stable carbon isotope ratios are described as a per mil (‰) deviation from the international standard 157(Peedee Belemnite) using the following equation: $\delta X = [(R_{sample}/R_{standard}) - 1] \times 1000$, where X and R 158represent ${}^{13}C$ and ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ ratio, respectively. To verify the accuracy of the analysis, _{DL}-alanine was 159used as a secondary standard. Standard deviations for the secondary standard were usually less than 160 0.1‰ for δ^{13} C. Organic carbon and nitrogen concentrations in each sample were determined 161simultaneously with δ^{13} C analysis using the elemental analyzer. The results were used to calculate 162163POC concentrations and organic carbon to nitrogen atomic ratios (hereafter, C:N ratios).

164 The C:N ratios in copepods were used as an indicator of lipid content, since depleted δ^{13} C 165 values are frequently associated with a high lipid content (Matthews and Mazumder, 2005; Smyntek 166 *et al.*, 2007). In contrast, enriched δ^{13} C values are sometimes attributable to a high carbonate 167 content and therefore acidification is recommended by some researchers (Jacob *et al.*, 2005; 168 Carabel *et al.*, 2006). However, the effect of carbonate on copepod δ^{13} C was not considered in the 169 present study, because carbonate content was considered to be minor in copepods and acidification 170 might increase inter-individual variation in δ^{13} C (cf. Bunn *et al.*, 1995). Although each sampling 171 station was represented by a single pair of POC and copepod samples per sampling date, this 172 laborsaving procedure is considered to be accurate enough to survey spatial variation in POC and 173 copepods along the estuary (cf. Suzuki *et al.*, 2012b).

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175 Data analysis

Temperature, salinity and turbidity were averaged through the water column. Average temperature 176was used to divide a year into cold (< 20°C) and warm (> 20°C) seasons. Average salinity was used 177as an indicator of distinctive water masses, because the distribution of water masses changes 178considerably along the estuary in response to the fortnightly tidal cycle as well as freshwater 179180 discharge levels (Suzuki et al., 2007, 2009). Based on the result of the present study, four water masses were distinguished empirically by salinity ranges of < 0.1, 0.1-3, 3-20, > 20 (without 181 statistics). To assess the spatiotemporal variability in environmental conditions, effects of salinity 182183 and temperature on environmental parameters (e.g. turbidity, POC and chlorophyll a) were analyzed by two-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (hereafter, two-way ANOVA) on the software 184JMP Ver. 5 (SAS Institute Inc., USA). In the intensive sampling campaign, surface and bottom 185values were averaged to determine concentrations of chlorophyll a, phaeopigments and POC, and 186 δ^{13} C in POC. Although all environmental parameters (absolute values for δ^{13} C) were 187logarithmically transformed to assure preconditions for two-way ANOVA, normality and/or 188homogeneity of variance were not always satisfied even after the logarithmic transformation. It 189190 follows that provisional results might be included in the two-way ANOVA tests.

191 To evaluate selective feeding and/or assimilation by copepods (cf. Del Giorgio and France, 192 1996), differences in δ^{13} C between copepods and POC were calculated by subtracting POC δ^{13} C 193 from copepod δ^{13} C at each station on each sampling date (hereafter, $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C). The significance of 194 correlations of copepod parameters (δ^{13} C, C:N ratios and $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C) with environmental parameters 195 (e.g. salinity, turbidity and POC) was tested by Spearman's correlation coefficient. Kruskal-Wallis 196 test was used to compare $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C values among salinity ranges (< 0.1, 0.1–3, > 3). The significance 197 level of the statistical tests was set at 5%.

198

199 **RESULTS**

200 Year-round environmental conditions

201Environmental conditions varied markedly with salinity along the estuary throughout the year. Turbidity usually exceeded 200 NTU at salinities 0.1-10 with highest values (up to 1000 NTU) at 202salinity 0.1-3 (Fig. 2A, Table I). The scatter pattern of POC concentrations differed from that of 203 chlorophyll a, but corresponded closely with that of phaeopigments (Fig. 2B–D). Concentrations of 204POC and phaeopigments were usually higher at salinities 0.1-3 under high turbidity conditions 205(Table I). Significant differences among salinity ranges combined with no clear seasonal change 206were found in turbidity, POC and phaeopigments (two-way ANOVA, P < 0.05, Table II). On the 207contrary, higher chlorophyll a concentrations were found at salinities < 0.1 and > 20 under low 208209 turbidity conditions (Table I). Chlorophyll a reached high concentrations mainly in the warm season (Table I). However, a significant interaction between salinity and temperature (two-way ANOVA, P 210< 0.05, Table II) obscured their respective effects on chlorophyll *a* concentrations. 211

Low POC:chlorophyll a ratios (< 100) occurred only at salinities < 0.1 and > 20 in the 212warm season, indicating the dominance of phytoplankton in POC (Fig. 2E). The δ^{13} C values in POC 213were depleted (< -25‰) at salinities < 0.1 and enriched (> -23‰) at salinities > 20 in the warm 214season (Fig. 2F). This was in contrast with relatively constant δ^{13} C values (-25--23‰) in POC at 215salinities 0.1-20 throughout the year (Table I). However, effects of salinity and temperature were 216not statistically confirmed in POC:chlorophyll a ratios and POC δ^{13} C values because of significant 217interactions between salinity and temperature (two-way ANOVA, P < 0.05, Table II). Exceptionally 218low salinities were observed through the tidal reach under recurring flood conditions in July 2006 219

(cf. Suzuki *et al.*, 2012b). Lowest concentrations of POC, chlorophyll *a* and phaeopigments were accompanied by high POC:chlorophyll *a* ratios (> 1000) and constant δ^{13} C values in POC (-24.5‰) in the flood period.

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224 Year-round comparisons between S. sinensis and P. inopinus

Irrespective of the season, S. sinensis exhibited a unimodal pattern of distribution along the 225estuarine salinity gradient, exceeding 1 ind. L⁻¹ at salinities 0.1–10 with highest densities close to 226salinity 1 (Fig. 3A). The δ^{13} C values in *S. sinensis* were distributed over -30--25‰ and slightly 227more enriched at higher salinities (Spearman's correlation coefficient: $r_s = 0.45$, P < 0.05). The 228majority of C:N ratios in S. sinensis ranged from 4.5 to 5.5, although higher C:N ratios occurred at 229higher salinities ($r_s = 0.38$, P < 0.05). In contrast to S. sinensis, P. inopinus exhibited a clear 230seasonal change in density, exceeding 1 ind. L^{-1} almost only in the warm season (> 20°C; Fig. 3B). 231Such high densities of *P. inopinus* were observed over a relatively wide salinity range (0.1–20). The 232 δ^{13} C values in *P. inopinus* were strongly correlated with salinity ($r_s = 0.71$, P < 0.05): -30–-27‰ at 233lower salinities and -26--23‰ at higher salinities. The C:N ratios in P. inopinus ranged from 4.5 to 2345.5 without a clear relationship with salinity ($r_s = -0.08$, P > 0.05). No seasonal change was evident 235in δ^{13} C values or C:N ratios in both *S. sinensis* and *P. inopinus*. 236

In S. sinensis, $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C values were scattered over -7--1‰ and weakly correlated with 237salinity ($r_s = 0.29$, P < 0.05; Fig. 4A). Lower $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C values, by definition, represent larger 238differences in δ^{13} C between copepods and POC. Although $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C values were significantly lower at 239higher phaeopigment concentrations ($r_s = -0.33$, P < 0.05), they were not correlated with any other 240241environmental parameters considered in S. sinensis (Table III). Pseudodiaptomus inopinus held significantly lower $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C values (-7--1‰) at salinities 0.1-3 compared with higher $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C values 242(-4–1‰) outside this salinity range (Kruskal-Wallis test, P < 0.05; Fig. 4B). The $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C differences 243among the salinity ranges were less obvious in the cold season (< 20°C) when P. inopinus seldom 244occurred at salinities < 0.1. In contrast with *P. inopinus*, such $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C differences among the salinity 245

ranges were not observed in *S. sinensis* (Kruskal-Wallis test, P > 0.05). Whereas *P. inopinus* held significantly lower $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C values at higher turbidities and higher concentrations of POC and phaeopigments throughout the year ($r_s = -0.28$, -0.61 and -0.60, respectively; P < 0.05; Table III), this species held higher and less variable $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C values at lower POC:chlorophyll *a* ratios in the warm season (> 20°C).

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252 **Responses to short-term environmental changes**

In summer 2005, the daily freshwater discharge was small ($< 50 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) in June before causing a 253large flood event (up to 1768 m³ s⁻¹) in early July (Fig. 5A). The discharge gradually settled down to 254the previous level by late July. Before the flood, chlorophyll a concentrations were highest close to 255the upper limit of the tidal reach in contrast with high phaeopigment concentrations observed 256slightly more downstream (Fig. 5B). Both chlorophyll a and phaeopigment concentrations 257decreased drastically during the flood, whereas after the flood they regained similar spatial patterns 258to those observed before the flood. The δ^{13} C values in POC remained relatively enriched (> -26‰) 259at all stations before and during the flood, with the exception of the most upstream station on 24 260June (Fig. 5C). After the flood, more depleted δ^{13} C values in POC (< -26‰) occurred especially at 261upstream stations. The δ^{13} C values in both S. sinensis and P. inopinus apparently reflected the 262spatiotemporal variability in POC δ^{13} C: relatively enriched at all stations before the flood and 263relatively depleted at upstream stations after the flood. 264

Different responses to flood-induced environmental changes between *S. sinensis* and *P. inopinus* were revealed when the data were analyzed in relation to salinity. Except during the flood, high chlorophyll *a* concentrations (> 20 µg L⁻¹), combined with low POC:chlorophyll *a* ratios (< 100), were observed close to salinity 0.1, in contrast with high phaeopigment concentrations (> 20 µg L⁻¹) observed at salinities 0.1–3 (Fig. 6A–C). The δ^{13} C values in POC were relatively enriched (> -26‰) over the whole salinity range before the flood, whereas after the flood they were drastically depleted (< -26‰) at salinities < 0.1 (Fig. 6D). During the flood, the whole sampling 272area was dominated by fresh water characterized by low concentrations of chlorophyll a and phaeopigments, high POC:chlorophyll *a* ratios and constant POC δ^{13} C values (ca. -24‰). 273Irrespective of salinity, S. sinensis showed completely different δ^{13} C values before and after the 274flood (> -27‰ and < -27‰, respectively; Fig. 6E). Although *P. inopinus* also showed relatively 275enriched δ^{13} C values (> -27‰) over the whole salinity range before the flood, this species exhibited 276a strong correlation of δ^{13} C with salinity ($r_s = 0.84$, P < 0.05) after the flood (Fig. 6F). This strong 277correlation was primarily attributable to δ^{13} C values in *P. inopinus* observed outside the salinity 278range of 0.1-3. 279

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281 DISCUSSION

Food sources for the sympatric oligohaline copepods *S. sinensis* and *P. inopinus* were estimated from detailed comparisons of spatiotemporal variability in δ^{13} C between copepods and POC. Both copepods selectively utilize freshwater/oligohaline phytoplankton and/or its detritus in the ETM, whereas only *P. inopinus* utilizes meso/polyhaline phytoplankton downstream from the ETM. To estimate food sources accurately, preconditions for the interpretation of δ^{13} C data are discussed first. Dependence on differential food sources is discussed between the two copepods in light of their respective patterns of spatial occurrence relative to the ETM.

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290 **Preconditions for interpretation**

Spatial heterogeneity in environmental conditions along the salinity gradient of the Chikugo River estuary was clearly demonstrated in the present study as compared with previous studies (Suzuki *et al.*, 2007, 2009, 2012b). High turbidities, accompanied by high concentrations of POC and phaeopigments, always occurred at salinities 0.1-3. Therefore we define the ETM by the salinity range of 0.1-3. Up- and downstream from the ETM, the dominance of living phytoplankton was often indicated by high chlorophyll *a* concentrations and low POC:chlorophyll *a* ratios especially in the warm season. Phytoplankton production is probably facilitated in relatively transparent and warm waters (Suzuki *et al.*, 2012b; Yokoyama *et al.*, 2012). On the contrary, terrestrial-plant and
phytoplankton detritus is likely to accumulate in the ETM throughout the year (Suzuki *et al.*,
2012b). Generally, such spatiotemporal changes in environmental conditions are considered
common in macrotidal estuaries where the ETM develops markedly (Irigoien and Castel, 1997;
Lemaire *et al.*, 2000; Modéran *et al.*, 2010; Savoye *et al.*, 2012).

To interpret spatiotemporal variability in stable isotope ratios in animals, it is important to 303 304 determine both fractionation and turnover of stable isotope ratios in animals through laboratory 305experiments (Gannes et al., 1997). Since such experiments were not conducted in the present study, the fractionation and turnover of δ^{13} C in copepods are estimated from our field observations and the 306 literature. The fractionation of δ^{13} C is generally small between animals and their diet (i.e. ± 1 %); 307 DeNiro and Epstein, 1978; Fry and Sherr, 1984), whereas it is often affected by the lipid content of 308 animals due to distinctly depleted δ^{13} C values in lipids (DeNiro and Epstein, 1977). Differences in 309 lipid content can be responsible for variability in δ^{13} C within a copepod species (Matthews and 310Mazumder, 2005; Smyntek et al., 2007). However, relatively low and invariable C:N ratios indicate 311 that lipid content is unlikely to have affected copepod $\delta^{13}C$ values in the present study. Therefore it 312is possible to estimate the fractionation of δ^{13} C between copepods and their food sources at ±1‰ 313(DeNiro and Epstein, 1978; Fry and Sherr, 1984). Although food quality can be another 314complicating factor in isotopic fractionation, laboratory experiments are necessary to obtain the 315relevant information (cf. Aberle and Malzahn, 2007). 316

In response to flood-induced environmental changes in summer 2005, copepod δ^{13} C values varied drastically between late June and late July (or early August), although new cohorts could have replaced old ones to some extent (Suzuki *et al.*, 2012a). This indicates that copepod δ^{13} C values possibly reflect environmental changes within several weeks in the warm season. Based on high growth rates reported in *Sinocalanus tenellus* (Kimoto *et al.*, 1986) and *Pseudodiaptomus marinus* (Uye *et al.*, 1983) at 20°C, the δ^{13} C values in *S. sinensis* and *P. inopinus* should converge on a δ^{13} C value in new diet within one week after a diet switch (cf. Klein Breteler *et al.*, 2002). Such quick turnover rates of δ^{13} C in copepods would justify our simple method in which copepod δ^{13} C values were compared with POC δ^{13} C values without taking account of time lag. At lower temperatures, turnover rates of δ^{13} C in copepods may be slower due to lower growth and metabolic rates (cf. Tamelander *et al.*, 2006). Nevertheless, our overlooking of time lag is unlikely to have affected the results considerably, because POC δ^{13} C values were less variable in the cold season. Our monthly comparisons of copepod δ^{13} C with POC δ^{13} C would therefore provide reliable information about food sources for copepods throughout the year.

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332 Food sources for S. sinensis and P. inopinus

In the ETM, S. sinensis and P. inopinus are considered to prefer freshwater/oligohaline 333 phytoplankton and its detritus over terrestrial-plant detritus. The δ^{13} C values in terrestrial-plant 334detritus are relatively constant (ca. -24‰), as is well represented in POC δ^{13} C values during floods 335(Suzuki *et al.*, 2012b). Consequently, more depleted δ^{13} C values observed in copepods throughout 336 the year should be attributable to freshwater/oligohaline phytoplankton. This idea is supported by 337 temporal changes in copepod δ^{13} C values observed during the intensive sampling campaign. As the 338 δ^{13} C values in freshwater/oligohaline phytoplankton became depleted after the flood, S. sinensis and 339 *P. inopinus* gradually displayed depleted δ^{13} C values in the ETM, probably feeding on 340freshwater/oligohaline phytoplankton and its detritus. Generally, feeding preferences of copepods 341for phytoplankton and its detritus are considered common in many estuaries (Tackx et al., 2003; 342Martineau et al., 2004; Hoffman et al., 2008). Copepods feed selectively on more nutritious food 343sources (Cowles et al., 1988; DeMott, 1995; Tackx et al., 1995), although selection processes may 344345differ among species (Richman et al., 1977; Irigoien et al., 1996). Feeding on terrestrial-plant detritus is nevertheless attractive especially in the cold season when phytoplankton is scarce 346 (Suzuki et al., 2012b). Specifically, S. sinensis might utilize terrestrial-plant detritus to maintain its 347year-round large biomass in the ETM (Suzuki et al., 2012a, 2013). 348

349

The stenohaline copepod S. sinensis always concentrated close to salinity 1 in the ETM,

350where terrestrial-plant and phytoplankton detritus accumulated throughout the year (Suzuki et al., 2012b). The $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C values in S. sinensis were usually distant from the estimated fractionation of 351 δ^{13} C between copepods and their food source (i.e. ±1‰). Given that larger differences in δ^{13} C 352between copepods and POC are associated with greater selectivity in feeding and/or assimilation by 353copepods (cf. Del Giorgio and France, 1996), S. sinensis is considered to be highly selective about 354its food source in favor of freshwater/oligohaline phytoplankton and its detritus. Moreover, the total 355absence of relatively enriched δ^{13} C values (> -24‰) in *S. sinensis* indicates little or no dependence 356on meso/polyhaline phytoplankton. We argue that the feeding strategy of S. sinensis is closely 357 linked to the accumulation of detritus in the ETM, which constitutes an irreplaceable habitat for S. 358sinensis compared with other estuarine environments (Suzuki et al., 2012a, 2013). In contrast, the 359less stenohaline copepod P. inopinus occurred not only in the ETM but also in its surrounding 360 waters. Up- and downstream from the ETM, this species often exhibited $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C values of $\pm 1\%$. 361 clearly reflecting δ^{13} C values in phytoplankton. The most enriched δ^{13} C values in *P. inopinus* were 362 comparable with the average δ^{13} C value in the herbivorous copepod *Acartia omorii* in the lower 363 estuary (Uchima, 1988; Suzuki et al., 2008). These findings suggest that P. inopinus feeds 364365 unselectively on living phytoplankton outside the ETM whereas in the ETM P. inopinus is selective about its food source like S. sinensis. 366

367

368 CONCLUSIONS

The present study demonstrates that freshwater/oligohaline phytoplankton and its detritus constitute the main food sources for both *S. sinensis* and *P. inopinus* in the ETM, although the possible contribution of terrestrial-plant detritus to their production remains to be determined. The less stenohaline copepod *P. inopinus* utilizes relatively diverse food sources depending on environmental conditions along the estuarine salinity gradient. Feeding on living phytoplankton outside the ETM, combined with an egg-carrying strategy in reproduction, could explain the large biomass of *P. inopinus* during the warm season (Suzuki *et al.*, 2012a). In contrast, the stenohaline

copepod S. sinensis is restricted within the ETM and unlikely to utilize meso/polyhaline 376phytoplankton. To estimate the relative contribution of phytoplankton and terrestrial plants to 377copepod production, additional tracers will be useful (e.g. fatty acid composition, ¹³C and ¹⁵N 378labeling). It is also a challenge to reveal biological mechanisms of S. sinensis underlying its 379 year-round large biomass in the ETM (e.g. ecological and physiological tolerance for high 380turbidities). As the production of larval and juvenile fish is entirely supported by S. sinensis and P. 381inopinus in the Chikugo River estuary (Hibino et al., 1999; Suzuki et al., 2008, submitted), further 382investigations on the two copepods will improve our understanding of the productive food web in 383 the ETM. 384

385

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389

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- 549

551 LEGENDS

Table I: Average of turbidity, particulate organic carbon (POC), chlorophyll a (Chl. a), phaeopigments (Phaeo.), POC:Chl. a ratios, and stable carbon isotope ratios (δ^{13} C) observed in the Chikugo River estuary from March 2005 to December 2006. The average values were calculated for each combination of salinity (S <0.1, 0.1–3, 3–20, >20) and temperature (T <20°C, >20°C) ranges.

557

Table II: Summary of the two-way repeated-measures analysis of variance of environmental parameters observed in the Chikugo River estuary from March 2005 to December 2006. Four salinity ranges (S < 0.1, 0.1-3, 3-20, >20) and two temperature ranges ($T < 20^{\circ}C, >20^{\circ}C$) were set to assess the spatiotemporal variability of the environmental parameters.

562

Table III: Spearman's correlation coefficients of $\Delta \delta^{13}C$ in *S. sinensis and P. inopinus relative to* salinity, turbidity, particulate organic carbon (POC), chlorophyll a (Chl. a), phaeopigments (Pheo.) and POC:Chl. a ratios in the Chikugo River estuary from March 2005 to December 2006. $\Delta \delta^{13}C$ values were calculated by subtracting $\delta^{13}C$ in POC from $\delta^{13}C$ in copepods at each station on each sampling date. Significant coefficients are indicated by asterisks.

568

Fig. 1. Sampling stations along the Chikugo River estuary on Kyushu Island in southwestern Japan.
Black and white circles represent our regular and extra sampling stations, respectively. The
Chikugo Weir is represented by a black rectangle.

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Fig. 2. Environmental conditions observed along the salinity gradient of the Chikugo River estuary
from March 2005 to December 2006. Turbidity (A), particulate organic carbon (POC)
concentrations (B), chlorophyll *a* concentrations (C), phaeopigment concentrations (D),
POC:chlorophyll *a* ratios (E) and stable carbon isotope ratios (δ¹³C) in POC (F) are shown.

577 Crosses and exes represent values observed in the cold (< 20°C) and warm (> 20°C) seasons, 578 respectively.

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Fig. 3. Adult/copepodid density, stable carbon isotope ratios (δ^{13} C) and carbon to nitrogen atomic ratios (C:N) observed in *S. sinensis* (**A**) and *P. inopinus* (**B**) along the salinity gradient of the Chikugo River estuary from March 2005 to December 2006. Black and white symbols represent values observed in the cold (< 20°C) and warm (> 20°C) seasons, respectively. Spearman's correlation coefficients are indicated by r_s .

585

Fig. 4. Differences in δ^{13} C ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C) between copepods and particulate organic carbon (POC) observed in *S. sinensis* (**A**) and *P. inopinus* (**B**) in the Chikugo River estuary from March 2005 to December 2006. $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C values are shown in relation to salinity, phaeopigment concentrations and POC:chlorophyll *a* ratios. See Fig. 3 for details.

590

Fig. 5. Temporal changes in freshwater discharge (**A**), in horizontal distributions of chlorophyll *a* and phaeopigments (**B**), and in interrelations of stable carbon isotope ratios (δ^{13} C) among particulate organic carbon (POC), *S. sinensis* and *P. inopinus* (**C**) observed along the Chikugo River estuary in summer 2005. Arrows indicate sampling dates.

Fig. 6. Environmental conditions and stable carbon isotope ratios (δ^{13} C) observed along the salinity gradient of the Chikugo River estuary in summer 2005. Chlorophyll *a* concentrations (**A**), phaeopigment concentrations (**B**), POC:chlorophyll *a* ratios (**C**), δ^{13} C in POC (**D**), δ^{13} C in *S. sinensis* (**E**) and δ^{13} C in *P. inopinus* (**F**) are shown. Black, white and grey symbols represent values observed before, during and after the flood of early July, respectively.

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- 602

1 **Table I:** Average of turbidity, particulate organic carbon (POC), chlorophyll a (Chl. a),

2 phaeopigments (Phaeo.), POC:Chl. a ratios, and stable carbon isotope ratios (δ^{13} C) observed in the

3 Chikugo River estuary from March 2005 to December 2006. The average values were calculated for

	Turbidity (NTU)		POC (mg L^{-1})		Chl. $a (\mu g L^{-1})$		Phaeo. ($\mu g L^{-1}$)		POC:Chl. a		δ ¹³ C (‰)	
	T<20°C	T>20°C	T<20°C	T>20°C	T<20°C	T>20°C	T<20°C	T>20°C	T<20°C	T>20°C	T<20°C	T>20°C
S<0.1	62	57	1.8	1.4	6.6	13.4	3.7	5.3	357	442	-25.3	-26.1
0.1 <s<3< td=""><td>413</td><td>461</td><td>10.1</td><td>7.3</td><td>8.8</td><td>17.8</td><td>22.5</td><td>20.0</td><td>1726</td><td>693</td><td>-24.4</td><td>-24.0</td></s<3<>	413	461	10.1	7.3	8.8	17.8	22.5	20.0	1726	693	-24.4	-24.0
3 <s<20< td=""><td>132</td><td>228</td><td>3.1</td><td>3.2</td><td>4.5</td><td>7.0</td><td>7.4</td><td>9.4</td><td>1094</td><td>845</td><td>-24.1</td><td>-23.3</td></s<20<>	132	228	3.1	3.2	4.5	7.0	7.4	9.4	1094	845	-24.1	-23.3
S>20	36	101	1.1	1.8	2.3	11.9	2.8	3.4	664	209	-23.3	-22.3

4 each combination of salinity (S < 0.1, 0.1-3, 3-20, >20) and temperature ($T < 20^{\circ}C, >20^{\circ}C$) ranges.

 $\mathbf{5}$

Table II: Summary of the two-way repeated-measures analysis of variance of environmental parameters observed in the Chikugo River estuary from March 2005 to December 2006. Four salinity ranges (S < 0.1, 0.1-3, 3-20, >20) and two temperature ranges ($T < 20^{\circ}C, >20^{\circ}C$) were set

	Turbidity $(df_E = 181)$	$\frac{POC}{(df_E = 210)}$	Chl. a (df _E = 210)	Phaeo. $(df_E = 210)$	POC:Chl. a (df _E = 210)	$\delta^{13}C$ (df _E = 209)
$\frac{S}{(df_S = 3)}$	F = 48.7	F = 70.8	<i>F</i> = 7.3	F = 37.0	F = 20.8	F = 67.0
	P < 0.01	P < 0.01	<i>P</i> < 0.01	P < 0.01	P < 0.01	P < 0.01
$\begin{array}{c} T\\ (df_{T}=1) \end{array}$	F = 1.2	F = 0.2	F = 40.3	F = 0.0	F = 38.4	F = 5.4
	P = 0.27	P = 0.62	P < 0.01	P = 0.89	P < 0.01	P = 0.02
$S \times T$ $(df_{S \times T} = 3)$	F = 1.9	F = 2.2	F = 7.1	F = 1.8	F = 2.7	F = 6.7
	P = 0.13	P = 0.09	P < 0.01	P = 0.15	P = 0.05	P < 0.01

10 to assess the spatiotemporal variability of the environmental parameters.

The *F* and *P* values were calculated after logarithmic transformation for turbidity, particulate organic carbon (POC), chlorophyll *a* (Chl. *a*), phaeopigments (Phaeo.), POC:Chl. *a* ratios and stable carbon isotope ratios (δ^{13} C). Degrees of freedom for salinity (df_s), temperature (df_T), interaction between them (df_{S×T}) and error (df_E) are given in parentheses. Boldface type indicates statistically significant values.

17 **Table III:** Spearman's correlation coefficients of $\Delta \delta^{I3}C$ in S. sinensis and P. inopinus relative to 18 salinity, turbidity, particulate organic carbon (POC), chlorophyll a (Chl. a), phaeopigments (Pheo.) 19 and POC:Chl. a ratios in the Chikugo River estuary from March 2005 to December 2006. $\Delta \delta^{I3}C$ 20 values were calculated by subtracting $\delta^{I3}C$ in POC from $\delta^{I3}C$ in copepods at each station on each

	Salinity	Turbidity	POC	Chl. a	Pheo.	POC:Chl. a
$\Delta \delta^{13}$ C in <i>S. sinensis</i>	0.29*	-0.02	-0.24	-0.02	-0.33*	-0.12
$\Delta \delta^{13}$ C in <i>P. inopinus</i>	0.27	-0.28*	-0.61*	-0.09	-0.60*	-0.35*

21 sampling date. Significant coefficients are indicated by asterisks.

Fig. 1









20

Phaeopigments (µg L⁻¹)

40

10

100

POC:chlorophyll a

1000

-8

0.01

0.1

10

1 Salinity





