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1	Quantifying the top-down effects of grazers on a rocky shore: selective grazing and
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15	
16	Abstract
17	Grazers affect the structure of primary producer assemblages, and the details of these
18	interactions have been well described for terrestrial habitats. By contrast, the effect of grazers on the
19	diversity, distribution, and composition of their principal food source has rarely been described for the
20	high intertidal zone of rocky shores, a model system for studying the potential effects of climate
21	change. Along rocky, wave-swept shores in central California, the microphytobenthos (MPB) supports
22	diverse assemblages of limpets and littorine snails, which, at current benign temperatures, could
23	potentially partition food resources in a complementary fashion, thereby enhancing secondary

24 productivity. Two limpet species in particular, Lottia scabra and L. austrodigitalis, may partition components of the MPB, and are likely to affect the composition of the MPB on which they graze. In 25 this study, we describe the composition, nutritional value (C:N ratio), and fluorescence (an index of 26 27 chlorophyll density) of ungrazed, L. scabra-grazed and L. austrodigitalis-grazed MPB assemblages, 28 each as function of temperature. Fluorescence decreased with increased average daily maximum 29 temperature for ungrazed MPB, but temperature had no discernible effects on either fluorescence or the composition of the MPB of grazed assemblages. L. austrodigitalis and L. scabra did not partition the 30 31 MPB, and did not exhibit complementarity. Both species exhibited an ordered grazing scheme, in 32 which limpets grazed down certain components of the MPB before others, and grazing increased the 33 C:N ratio of the MPB, decreasing its nutritional value. Taken together, these results suggest that L. 34 *austrodigitalis* and *L. scabra* may experience increased competition as warming temperatures reduce 35 the available MPB.

36

37 **Running page head:** Selective grazing and competition on rocky shores.

38 Keywords: Selective grazing; intertidal zone; biofilm; microalgae; microphytobenthos; *Lottia*; limpets
39

40 Introduction

The distribution and diversity of primary producers play a major role in structuring communities. In terrestrial environments, plant assemblages and the biological and physical factors that determine their structure have been extensively studied (e.g. Harper 1977, Tilman 1988). The diversity, distribution and abundance of plant species affect a number of ecosystem processes that include productivity (Naeem et al. 1994, Tilman et al. 1996, Hector et al. 1999, Cardinale et al. 2007), functional stability (McNaughton 1977), the distribution and abundance of consumers (MacArthur & 47 Pianka 1966, Tahvanainen & Root 1972) and resistance to invasive species (Fargione & Tilman 2005,
48 but see Levine & D'Antonio 1999).

49 Numerous studies have examined the effects of intertidal grazers on the structure of macroalgal assemblages in the wave-swept, rocky intertidal zone, a model system for experimental ecology (see 50 51 Underwood 1979, Coleman et al. 2006 and Poore et al. 2012 for relevant syntheses; Dayton 1975, 52 Littler & Littler 1984, Gee & Warwick 1994, Williams et al. 2013, Best et al. 2014 for specific 53 examples). However, relatively few have investigated the role of grazing on the epilithic 54 microphytobenthos (MPB) that dominates the upper intertidal environment (but see Castenholz 1961, 55 Nicotri 1977, Underwood 1984b and Underwood & Murphy 2008), and the composition and 56 distribution of the MPB in the upper intertidal environment has yet to be described at scales relevant to intertidal grazers. 57

58 The intertidal MPB is composed of a diverse assemblage of organisms, including 59 cyanobacteria, diatoms, macroalgal spores, germlings and juveniles and invertebrate larvae, all 60 embedded in an extracellular matrix (Wahl 1989, Underwood 1984, Davey & OToole 2000). The 61 MPB coats all hard surfaces submerged in water (Sekar et al. 2004), and extends to the top of the 62 splash zone in the intertidal environment (Ricketts et al. 1968). In the upper intertidal zone, where the 63 MPB is the only source of benthic primary productivity, it supports a diverse assemblage of limpets and 64 littorine snails (Ricketts et al. 1968). However, the composition and distribution of components within 65 the MPB, the potential for partitioning of these components by grazers, and the feedbacks between top-66 down consumption by grazers and bottom-up availability of nutrients in the MPB remain largely 67 unknown.

In diverse terrestrial plant assemblages, niche partitioning can reduce interspecific competition, resulting in enhanced primary productivity relative to the performance of the most productive singlespecies assemblage (Tilman 2000, Naeem 2002, Hooper et al. 2005, Cardinale et al. 2011). This idea, 71 called complementarity, is generalizable across trophic levels: increased predator diversity is also 72 associated with higher rates of prey capture due to resource partitioning (Ives et al. 2005, Byrnes et al. 73 2006; Griffin et al. 2008). Although early studies linking biodiversity to ecosystem functioning 74 highlighted the role of complementarity in temperate grassland assemblages, it also underpins 75 relationships between diversity and productivity in intertidal systems (Griffin et al. 2008, Byrnes & Stachowitz 2009, Cardinale et al. 2011, Bracken & Williams 2013). For example, Griffin et al. (2008) 76 77 used a factorial mesocosm experiment to explore how the species richness of prey assemblages affects 78 the rate of prey consumption by three species of intertidal crabs. They found that, due to 79 complementarity, all species of crabs ingested more food per individual when their prey was in 80 polyculture than in any single monoculture. Through complementarity, diverse assemblages may also 81 show increased resistance to the effects of climate change (Loreau et al. 2001): if resources become 82 more scarce (as a result of increasing temperature, for instance), organisms that partition resources are 83 more likely to survive and thrive. If upper intertidal grazers are complementary in their consumption 84 of components of the MPB, it may have implications for how those species coexist now, and how they 85 will be influenced by future climate shifts.

86 Nicotri (1977) measured the effects of foraging by the intertidal limpets Lottia pelta Rathke, 87 Lottia strigatella Carpenter and Lottia scutum Rathke and the littorine snail Littorina scutulata Gould 88 on MPB and observed that niche partitioning did not occur. She used transmitted light and scanning 89 electron microscopy to determine that these four species grazed statistically indistinguishable quantities 90 of the same species of cyanobacteria and diatoms from the MPB. However, her study organisms 91 typically exist in different microhabitats, and thus may not always have been in direct competition for 92 food resources. In addition, all four gastropod species supplement their diets with macroalgae, and so 93 may not have experienced evolutionary pressure to specialize on the MPB. Similarly, Hawkins et al. 94 (1989) examined three European gastropods, Gibbula umbilicalis da Costa, Littorina littorea Linnaeus

95 and *Patella vulgata* Linné, and found that their diets were indistinguishable despite differences in 96 radular structure and feeding movements. But again, these species overlap only in a subset of locations 97 across wide geographic ranges (Hawkins et al. 1989), and *G. umbilicalis* and *L. littorea* supplement 98 their diets with detritus and macroalgae, respectively. Organisms that specialize entirely on the MPB 99 and share the same microhabitat may be more likely to exhibit niche partitioning, and thus 100 complementarity.

101 Recently, strong evidence has emerged that three intertidal gastropod species native to Italy may exhibit complementarity through resource partitioning (Sanz-Lázaro et al. 2015). Sanz-Lázaro et al. 102 103 (2015) manipulated the density and richness of two limpet species (*Patella ulyssiponensis* and *P*. 104 rustica) and one topshell (Porchus turbinatus) and observed the effects on the photosynthetic efficiency 105 and photosynthetic biomass of the MPB. These gastropods share the same microhabitat in the 106 intertidal environment, and they specialize on microalgae as their primary food resource. When two of 107 these species grazed in concert, the photosynthetic efficiency of the MPB significantly increased while 108 photosynthetic biomass did not, suggesting complementarity via resource partitioning. However, these 109 effects were not additive: all three species grazing together reduced photosynthetic efficiency back to 110 levels typical of individual grazers.

111 Along the central coast of California, two limpet species, Lottia scabra Gould and Lottia 112 austrodigitalis Murphy, share the upper intertidal habitat, living above the Mytilus californianus mussel zone and often beyond the upper extent of the macroalga Endocladia muricata (Wolcott 1973). They 113 114 share this habitat with small barnacles (Chthamalus spp.) and a variety of littorine snails (Littorina 115 spp.) (Ricketts et al. 1968). Both L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis live on vertical rock surfaces, 116 although L. scabra can also be found on horizontal surfaces (Collins 1976, Hahn & Denny 1989). Both 117 species forage for microalgae twice per day during high tides, and exhibit a general dietary preference 118 for diatoms (Nicotri 1977).

Previous research suggests that *L. austrodigitalis* and *L. scabra* are in direct competition for at least some food resources, and this competition could be driven by several factors. Haven (1973) observed that when *L. austrodigitalis* were excluded from a plot containing *L. scabra* in the intertidal zone at Hopkins Marine Station (HMS) in Pacific Grove, California, the density of the MPB increased, as did *L. scabra* growth rates. This result provides evidence that at least some portion of the MPB is a shared resource between the two species. However, it does not exclude the possibility that there are other components of the MPB that may be partitioned between *L. austrodigitalis* and *L. scabra*.

126 Food quality might also drive competition between L. austrodigitalis and L. scabra. Gastropod 127 grazers, including limpets, are frequently selective in their preferences for intertidal algae (Della 128 Santina et al. 1993, Bracken & Low 2012). Often, the preferred species are those with higher internal 129 nitrogen concentrations or lower carbon-to-nitrogen (C:N) ratios (Pedersen & Borum 1996, Bracken et 130 al. 2011, Bracken et al. 2014). This preference for higher nitrogen food sources is consistent with 131 limitation of gastropod abundance and growth by nitrogen availability (Nielsen 2001, Sommer 2001). 132 Differences between the C:N ratios of MPB grazed by L. austrodigitalis and L. scabra would suggest 133 that they are targeting different food resources.

134 Lastly, temperature may influence the intensity of competition between these two Lottia species 135 by reducing the availability, composition, or quality of an already limited food resource. Dark-adapted 136 fluorescence of intertidal MPB can be used as a proxy for chlorophyll a density and is known to decrease as temperature increases (Miller et al. 2015). This suggests that less food is available to 137 138 epilithic grazers like limpets when rock surface temperatures are high. Additionally, temperature may 139 affect the composition and quality of the MPB. For example, Jackson et al. (2010) found that intertidal 140 MPB on an Australian subtropical beach contained fewer cyanobacteria than that on a temperate beach. 141 Diatoms may also be less plentiful at higher temperatures; they tend to be more abundant lower on 142 shore (Castenholz 1961) and decrease with increasing insolation (Thompson et al. 2004). Because

143 diatoms are a nitrogen-rich food source for intertidal grazers, an increase in temperature may lead to a

144 reduction in food quality, as well as food availability.

145 In this study, we investigated the effects of limpet grazing on the composition and quality of the 146 upper intertidal MPB. Specifically, we asked:

147

148 1) How does temperature influence the density and quality of the MPB?

149 2) How do *L. austrodigitalis* and *L. scabra* affect the density and composition of the MPB?

150 3) Do *L. scabra* and *L. austrodigitalis* exhibit complementarity by partitioning components of the
 151 MPB during grazing?

152 4) How does grazing by *L. austrodigitalis* and *L. scabra* affect the nutritional quality of the MPB?

153

154 To answer these questions, we examined the dark-adapted fluorescence (a proxy for chlorophyll

155 density) and C:N ratio (an index of food quality) of MPB as a function of average maximum

156 temperature of the substratum. We also compared the dark-adapted fluorescence and composition of

157 MPB that had not been grazed with MPB that had been grazed by *L. scabra*, MPB that had been grazed

by *L. austrodigitalis*, and MPB that had been grazed by the natural suite of upper intertidal gastropods.

159 Lastly, we quantified the percent cover of morphotypes in the MPB from each grazing treatment, and

160 compared the results between treatments. We expected that increased temperatures and limpet grazing

161 would decrease dark-adapted fluorescence values, change the composition of the MPB, and increase

162 the C:N ratio. Additionally, if resource partitioning was occurring at the microscopic level, we

163 expected that the composition of the *L. scabra*-grazed MPB would differ from that of the *L.*

164 *austrodigitalis*-grazed MPB.

167 Methods

168 Field experiment

169 We selected six vertically-oriented field sites in the rocky, wave-swept intertidal zone adjacent 170 to HMS (36.6217° N, 121.9043° W). Sites were between 3 m and 35 m apart. At each site, we 171 deployed four circular aluminum plates (10 cm in diameter, 12 mm thick) in horizontal transects at 1.7 172 m above mean lower low water (MLLW). The average diurnal tidal range at this site is 1.6 m. We 173 covered each plate with a thin layer of light gray rubber grip tape (Safety Walk Tape, 3M) to encourage 174 microalgal growth. Each plate was attached to the granite substratum with a central bolt, and a cement 175 pad was constructed beneath each plate to ensure good thermal contact with the underlying rock. At 176 each site, one plate held four L. scabra and one held four L. austrodigitalis. This density (500 limpets 177 m⁻²) corresponded to that observed in limpet-rich areas of the intertidal zone at HMS (Morelissen and 178 Harley 2007). Individuals of about 1 cm in shell length were selected for the experiment, and were 179 corralled using 20 mm tall, stainless steel mesh fences (5.5 mm square mesh size). These fences 180 deterred most limpets from leaving the plates, but an average of 0.11 ± 0.15 L. scabra and 1.31 ± 0.94 181 L. austrodigitalis were still lost per month. A third plate at each site had an identical fence and served 182 as a grazer exclusion control, while the fourth plate lacked a fence altogether and allowed access by grazers living on the neighboring natural rock surface. We deployed the plates in June of 2013, and 183 184 they remained in the field through December of that year. Fences were cleared of any macroalgal 185 growth in the late fall.

186 It is important to note that in Monterey Bay, *L. austrodigitalis* overlaps with a cryptic congener,
187 *L. digitalis* Rathke. The two species can be reliably identified only through genetic methods.

188 However, prior research at our field site suggests that *L. austrodigitalis* are most commonly found on

189 vertical rocky surfaces, while *L. digitalis* is associated with the micro-environment provided by the

190 gooseneck barnacle, *Pollicipes polymerus* Sowerby (Crummett & Eernisse 2007). More recent work

191 has also shown that *L. austrodigitalis* makes up 88-89% of the cryptic species pair in high shore

192 habitats at HMS (Dong et al. 2008, Dong & Somero 2009), where our limpets were collected. We refer

193 to *L. austrodigitalis* throughout the remainder of this study, acknowledging that a small percentage of

194 our organisms may in fact be *L. digitalis*.

195

196 *Temperature*

197 Temperature measurements were obtained for each plate using iButton temperature dataloggers 198 (0.5°C resolution, Maxim Integrated, San Jose, CA, USA). We machined a circular pocket in the back 199 of each plate to hold the iButton. The iButtons recorded temperature every 12 minutes, and we 200 downloaded the data every 2 weeks.

At the conclusion of the experiment, the average maximum daily temperature for December 202 2013 was calculated for each plate. We checked that these temperatures were consistent across sites 203 and grazing treatments using 2-factor ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test for multiple comparisons. Visual 204 checks were performed to ensure that model assumptions of normality and equal variances were met. 205 Analyses were carried out in MATLAB 2014a.

206

207 Dark-adapted fluorescence

We surveyed plates on July 10, August 6, September 6, October 6, November 6 and December 1, 2013 during favorable tides and wave conditions. During each survey, we replaced any limpets lost during the previous month and measured the density of the MPB. The density of the MPB was approximated using a PAM fluorometer (Diving-PAM, Walz, Effeltrich, Germany). We took six darkadapted fluorescence measurements haphazardly on each plate during night time low tides. The dark-

213 adapted fluorescence value (F_{θ}) from the fluorometer serves as a proxy for the chlorophyll a density of 214 the MPB (Barranguet & Kromkamp 2000, Honeywill et al. 2002, Serodio et al. 2008). The tip of the fiber-optic measuring head of the fluorometer was fitted with a 10 mm spacer to maintain a fixed 215 216 distance from the experimental plate, and the opening covered an area of 53 mm². The tip was held in 217 place at each measurement site until the F_{θ} value stabilized (typically 3-5 seconds) before recording a value, as recommended by the manufacturer. Because changes in surface moisture can affect F_0 values 218 (Maggi et al. 2013), we restricted sampling to periods when the plates were moist but not actively 219 splashed or submerged by the tide. 220

221 2-factor ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test for multiple comparisons were used to compare dark-222 adapted fluorescence for December 2013 across sites and grazing treatments. Temperature and dark-223 adapted fluorescence are known to be negatively correlated (Miller et al. 2015); analysis of covariance 224 was used to determine whether the relationship between temperature and dark-adapted fluorescence 225 was influenced by grazing treatment. Visual checks were performed to ensure that model assumptions 226 of normality and equal variances were met. Analyses were carried out in MATLAB 2014a.

227

228 Scanning Electron Microscopy

229 After plates were removed from the field, we haphazardly selected and cut three 1 cm² samples 230 of rubber tape from each plate. The samples were soaked in a 2.5% gluteraldehyde solution for 15-45 minutes to preserve cell shape, washed in phosphate-buffered solution (pH 7.9) for 15 minutes, rinsed 231 in de-ionized water and air dried. Samples were then gold-coated using a SPI-MODULE sputter coater 232 233 (Structure Probe Inc., West Chester, PA, USA), and were viewed under a scanning electron microscope (SEM; FEI Quanta 200, hv = 25kV, spot size = 4 nm) at a magnification of 300x. This magnification 234 235 resulted in a 0.159 mm² field of view. Nine fields were chosen haphazardly from each sample and 236 photographed, for a total of 648 images (162 images per treatment).

238 Identification and Quantification of Morphotypes

We processed each image using the photoQuad image analysis program

240 (http://www.mar.aegean.gr/sonarlab/photoquad/index.php). A spatially stratified, random field of 50 points was overlaid on the entire image, from which percent cover of the components of the MPB was 241 242 calculated. Points that fell in areas that were not in focus were excluded from the analysis. We chose 243 the magnification of 300x to visualize diatoms and cyanobacteria, which are the components of the 244 MPB thought to be the preferred food sources for *Lottia* spp. (Castenholz 1961, Haven 1973, Nicotri 245 1977, Connor 1984). This resolution did not allow us to identify each organism at the species level. 246 Instead, components of the MPB were classified by morphotypes, which took into account general shape, size and other features observable at 300x (Figure 1). These morphotypes were based on the 247 248 organisms described, identified and pictured by Nagarkar and Williams (1997) and Hawkins et al. 249 (1989). Morphotypes 1-5 were long, narrow organisms and were classified as filamentous 250 cyanobacteria. Morphotypes 6-12 were smaller, boxy or rod-like organisms and were classified as 251 diatoms. Organisms described as morphotype 13 formed encrusting mats with individual components 252 that were impossible to distinguish at 300x. Morphotype 14 were also small encrusting organisms, but 253 they grew in a characteristic diamond pattern. This pattern did not correspond in scale to the 254 topographical features of the rubber grip tape or the radulae of L. scabra or L. austrodigitalis. 255 Morphotype 15 were small, round organisms, and were classified as coccoidal cyanobacteria. Lastly, 256 morphotype 16 described any other organism observed, while morphotype 17 indicated empty rubber 257 grip tape.

From the random field of 50 points, percent cover of each morphotype was calculated as the number of points covering a particular morphotype divided by the total number of points (usually 50, minus any points not scored due to focus issues). Percent cover of organism type (filamentous

261 cyanobacteria, diatoms, encrusting organisms or coccoidal cyanobacteria) was also calculated. We 262 averaged percent cover of morphotypes and organism types within each plate (n = 27) and we calculated average percent cover of morphotypes and organism types for each grazing treatment across 263 264 sites (n = 6). To determine a) how grazing by L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis affected MPB composition, and b) whether the two species were partitioning the MPB, we used PRIMER v6 software 265 (http://www.primer-e.com/) to generate MDS plots to visualize organism- and morphotype-level 266 267 variation in assemblage structure among grazing treatments. Analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) was used to assess the relative size of these differences (Clarke & Warwick 2001). Because untransformed 268 269 data place heavy emphasis on similarities in abundant organisms between assemblages (Clarke & 270 Warwick 2001), square-root and fourth-root transformations of the raw data were also performed. 271 These transformations put increasing emphasis on similarities in rare organisms between assemblages. 272 Finally, the top contributors to differences in MPB composition were identified using similarity 273 percentage tests (SIMPER; Clarke & Warwick 2001).

274

275 Carbon and Nitrogen Elemental Analysis

A second, larger field experiment was deployed from June 2014 through January of 2015. It was assembled as described above, except six replicate plates of seven grazing treatments were placed at each field site: an ungrazed treatment, three *L. scabra*-grazed treatments with four, eight or twelve limpets, and three *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed treatments with four, eight or twelve limpets. A subset of these plates with visually apparent MPB were used to evaluate the effects of limpet grazing on the nutritional content of the MPB.

282 Scrapings of the MPB were obtained from 34 ungrazed, 10 *L. scabra*-grazed and 9 *L.* 283 *austrodigitalis*-grazed plates with sufficient MPB to permit sampling. To determine internal carbon 284 and nitrogen concentrations, scrapings were dried to constant mass (60 °C for 72 hours), ground to a fine powder in stainless steel microvials (Retsch Mixer Mill MM 400, Verder Scientific, Newtown,
Pennsylvania, USA) and analyzed on a Flash 2000 Elemental Analyzer configured for analyses of C
and N in organic samples (Thermo Fisher, Cambridge, UK). Carbon-to-nitrogen (C:N) ratios were then
calculated for each plate.

289 We tested a set of linear models using likelihood ratio tests to determine whether F_0 , grazing 290 treatment, average daily maximum temperature, or an interaction between these factors helped 291 determine C:N ratios. Due to the relatively small number of limpet-grazed plates with visually 292 apparent MPB growth for the C:N analysis, the number of limpets per plate for limpet-grazed 293 treatments could not be included in our model. ANOVA and Tukey's HSD tests were used to 294 determine differences in log-transformed C:N ratios among grazing treatments. Visual checks were 295 performed to ensure that model assumptions of normality and equal variances were met. Analyses 296 were carried out in R 3.1.1.

297

298 Effects of Limpet Density

Although each limpet-grazed plate was initially seeded with four limpets in the 2013 experiment, some animals either escaped from or fell off the plates each month. This prompted us to explore the effects of limpet loss on the composition of the MPB. We examined the relationships between the number of limpets remaining on a plate the month prior to plate recovery from the field (December 2013) and the percent cover of morphotypes at recovery using ANOVA and Tukey's HSD multiple comparisons test. Visual checks were performed to ensure that model assumptions of normality and equal variances were met. Analyses were carried out in MATLAB 2014a.

307

309 **Results**

310 *Temperature*

311 Grazing treatments in the 2013 experiment experienced average daily maximum temperatures that were statistically indistinguishable from each other (mean \pm SE = 14.68 \pm 0.42°C; $F_{3,15}$ = 0.71, p = 312 313 0.561). However, the average daily maximum temperature at site six $(18.73 \pm 0.51^{\circ}C)$ was 314 significantly higher than that at the five other sites $(13.87 \pm 0.03^{\circ}\text{C}; F_{5,15} = 20.62, \text{ p} < 0.001)$. To determine whether temperature might be influencing the composition of the MPB, we 315 divided our ungrazed plates into cool samples (average maximum daily temperature of less than 14°C) 316 317 and warm samples (average maximum daily temperature of 14°C or greater). An analysis of similarity 318 was performed. We found no evidence of a difference between the composition of the MPB on warmer and cooler ungrazed plates (R = -0.179, p = 0.667), although our sample size for this test was small (n 319 320 = 4 cool plates, n = 2 warm plates). Additionally, the average difference in daily maximum 321 temperature between warm and cool plates was only 3°C.

322

323 Dark-adapted fluorescence

F₀, our proxy for microalgal density, was significantly higher for the ungrazed treatment than for the natural-grazed, *L. scabra*-grazed and *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed treatments ($F_{3,15} = 5.94$, p = 0.005) (Figure 2). Site was not a significant factor in this analysis ($F_{5,15} = 2.62$, p = 0.068). F_0 was affected by an interaction between grazing treatment and average maximum daily temperature ($F_{1,16} =$ 9.47, p < 0.001); F_0 was inversely proportional to temperature for the ungrazed treatment (slope of linear model = -27.23 °C⁻¹), but the two variables were uncorrelated for the three grazed treatments (Figure 3).

332 Organism-Level Assemblage Data

333 Analysis of similarity on untransformed data indicated that the MPB of the ungrazed treatment was significantly different from that of either the L. scabra-grazed treatment (R = 0.284, p = 0.035) or 334 335 the *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed treatment (R = 0.247, p = 0.048) (Figure 4). Additionally, the MPB of the 336 natural-grazed treatment was different from that of the L. scabra-grazed treatment (R = 0.185, p =337 0.041), but not from the other treatments. No significant difference was observed between the L. 338 scabra and L. austrodigitalis-grazed treatments (R = 0.117, p = 0.123). As increasing emphasis was placed on the presence or absence of rare organisms by square-root and fourth-root transforming the 339 340 data, the ungrazed MPB differed more from the three grazed MPBs (Table 1). 341 Similarity percentage tests indicated that differences between the ungrazed MPB and the L. 342 scabra-grazed MPB were driven by percent cover of filamentous cyanobacteria, diatoms and 343 encrusting organisms. On average, the ungrazed MPB exhibited a higher percent cover of filamentous 344 cyanobacteria and diatoms, and a lower percent cover of encrusting organisms (Table 2). Similar 345 differences were identified between the ungrazed MPB and the L. austrodigitalis-grazed MPB, except 346 these differences were also driven by percent cover of coccoidal cyanobacteria, which was more abundant in the *L.austrodigitalis*-grazed MPB. Differences between the natural-grazed MPB and the *L*. 347 348 scabra-grazed MPB were driven by filamentous and coccoidal cyanobacteria. The former assemblage 349 exhibited higher percent cover of both organisms relative to the latter.

350

351 Morphotype-Level Assemblage Data

Similar trends were exhibited at the morphotype level as those at the organism-level. The ungrazed treatment was significantly different from both the *L. scabra*-grazed treatment (R = 0.559, p = 0.002) and the *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed treatment (R = 0.274, p = 0.006) when analyses were done on untransformed data (Figure 5). Once again, the natural-grazed treatment and the *L. scabra*-grazed treatment also differed (R = 0.293, p = 0.039), although this difference became non-significant after transforming the data (Table 1). The specific morphotypes driving these differences in composition were identified. Limpet-grazed treatments exhibited lower percent cover in morphotypes 2 and 5 (cyanobacteria), 8, 9 and 11 (diatoms) and 13 (encrusting organisms), but higher percent cover in morphotype 14 (encrusting organisms) (Table 2).

361

362 Evidence for Resource Partitioning

Both the organism-level and morphotype-level data indicate no significant differences in composition between the MPB grazed by *L. scabra* and that grazed by *L. austrodigitalis* (Table 1; R =0.117, p = 0.123 and R = -0.069, p = 0.652 respectively). Emphasizing rare organisms by transforming the MPB composition data makes these communities appear more similar (Table 2). An MDS plot was generated using only *L. scabra*-grazed and *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed treatments that had the full quota of four limpets during the month prior to sample collection (n = 8 out of 12 limpet-grazed plates); after controlling for limpet density, there was no significant difference between *L. scabra* and *L.*

370 *austrodigitalis*-grazed plates (R = -0.031, p = 0.393).

371

372 Nutrient Concentrations and Ratios

The best linear model describing trends in the log-transformed C:N ratio data included no significant interactions between F_0 , average maximum daily temperature and the grazing treatment. However, C:N ratios were related independently to both F_0 and the grazing treatment ($F_{1,49} = 4.236$, p = 0.045 and $F_{2,49} = 12.977$, p < 0.001 respectively). C:N ratios were found to be negatively related to increased F_0 , while *L. scabra*-grazed plates were found to be significantly depleted in nitrogen (C:N = 2.832 ± 0.201) relative to ungrazed plates (C:N = 2.180 ± 0.029), resulting in higher C:N ratios (p < 0.001) (Figure 6). *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed plates (C:N = 2.501 ± 0.138), however, were not significantly different from either the *L. scabra*-grazed plates or the ungrazed plates (p = 0.0634, p = 0.127 respectively).

382

383 *Effects of Limpet Density*

384 Although each limpet-grazed plate was initially seeded with four limpets in the 2013 experiment, some animals either escaped from or fell off the plates each month. These animals were 385 replaced during monthly surveys. The month prior to SEM sample collection (December 2013), no L. 386 scabra were lost, but the L. austrodigitalis plates lost between 0 and 2 individuals, resulting in an 387 average retention of 3.167 ± 0.753 limpets per plate (approximately 400 limpets m⁻²). Significant 388 389 correlations were found between the number of limpets on the plates at the end of December 2013 and the percent cover of coccoidal cyanobacteria and encrusting organisms (Figure 7). Percent cover of 390 391 coccoidal cyanobacteria was highest at the intermediate densities of 2 or 3 limpets per plate. Percent cover of encrusting organisms was positively related to limpet density ($F_{10.12} = 5.200$, p = 0.046); 392 393 however, at the morphotype level, morphotype 13 decreased with limpet density while morphotype 14 394 increased. Finally, during both the 2013 and 2014 experiments, significant negative correlations were 395 found between F_0 and the number of limpets remaining on the plates during the final month of each experiment ($F_{1,10} = 5.57$, p = 0.04 and $F_{1,17} = 6.9$, p = 0.012 respectively). In 2013, increasing grazer 396 397 density from approximately 250 limpets m⁻² (2 limpets per plate) to 400 limpets m⁻² (4 limpets per 398 plate) resulted in a decrease in F_0 from 77.167 (n = 1) to 48.083 ± 1.977 (n = 8). In 2014, increasing grazer density from approximately 125 limpets m⁻² (1 limpet per plate) to 1000 limpets m⁻² (8 limpets 399 400 per plate) resulted in a decrease in F_0 from 82.667 (n = 1) to 17.833 (n = 1).

401

403 **Discussion**

404 On the ungrazed plates, high average maximum daily temperatures were correlated with low F_0 405 values. MPB is reduced in biomass and therefore less fluorescent when exposed to warm conditions 406 (Jackson et al. 2010, Miller et al. 2015). However, limpet grazing reduced F_{θ} values to those typical of warm, ungrazed plates, regardless of temperature, suggesting that in intertidal regions where grazers 407 408 are very sparse, F_0 values will be low if the region is warm, and high if the region is cool. The 409 presence of grazers masks this signal, corroborating prior observations that limpet grazing suppresses 410 natural variation in the density of the MPB along intertidal shores (Miller et al. 2015). Our results also 411 indicate that a low F_{θ} value on a warm, ungrazed plate does not necessarily signify a change in assemblage structure at the microscopic level. However, a more extensive study designed to observe 412 the composition of the MPB across a larger range of temperatures and with higher replication would 413 414 better address this question.

415

416 Dark-adapted fluorescence

417 Dark-adapted fluorescence (F_{θ}), our proxy for chlorophyll *a* density within the MPB, was significantly higher on ungrazed plates than on grazed plates, indicating that intertidal grazers reduce 418 419 the abundance of photosynthesizing organisms in the MPB. However, the average grazed F_{θ} (mean \pm 420 $SE = 55.8 \pm 18.22$) was much greater than the zero value obtained from new clean safety walk grip tape, suggesting that photosynthesizing organisms are still plentiful even under constant grazing 421 422 pressure. Small organisms that limpets are unable to graze may be the primary contributors to this F_0 423 value, and it may represent a baseline signifying the limit to which grazers can deplete food resources. Herbivorous intertidal sea stars, in addition to a variety of gastropod grazers, have been found to have 424 425 limited ability to deplete epilithic MPB, possibly because certain components are inaccessible, toxic or

426 indigestible (Nicotri 1977, Underwood 1984, Jackson et al. 2009). However, higher densities of L. 427 scabra and L. austrodigitalis than our experimental density of about 500 limpets m⁻² might graze down photosynthesizing organisms even further. Our data from 2014 indicated that densities of 1000 limpets 428 429 m^{-2} should deplete F_0 to about half the level observed at 500 limpets m^{-2} . However, this observation 430 was based on data from a single plate. Excluding this sample, the negative correlation between limpet density and F_0 was not statistically significant; limpet densities between 125 and 500 m⁻² grazed the 431 MPB down to an average F_0 value of 44.5 \pm 0.9. It is worth noting that all of these limpet densities 432 433 have been observed at HMS. Although Morelissen and Harley (2007) observed 515 L. scabra m⁻² in 434 limpet-rich regions of the intertidal zone at HMS, both L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis have clumpy 435 distributions that can sometimes result in even higher local densities (D. LaScala-Gruenewald, personal 436 observation).

437

438 Effects of Grazers and Grazer Density

439 The composition of grazed MPB was significantly different from that of ungrazed MPB. The 440 limpet-grazed MPB contained fewer diatoms and filamentous cyanobacteria in particular, which may 441 be the preferred food sources of Lottia spp. (Nicotri 1977, Connor 1984, Haven 1973, Hahn & Denny 442 1989). On plates where fewer than four limpets grazed, there were higher percentages of coccoidal 443 cyanobacteria, and lower percentages of encrusting organisms. This suggests an ordered grazing 444 scheme, where filamentous cyanobacteria and diatoms are consumed first, followed by coccoidal 445 cyanobacteria. This pattern may be due to animal preference (Schmitt 1996), but it is more likely due 446 to topographical constraints. Lateral teeth in L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis are typically 100 µm long 447 and 50 μ m wide at the widest point, while tooth tips are typically separated by distances of 100 μ m in 448 the cross-radula direction and 200 µm in the along-radula direction (D. LaScala-Gruenewald, 449 unpublished data). In contrast, coccoidal cyanobacteria and some other organisms common on grazed

450 plates (morphotypes 5 and 9 for example) are under 30 µm in maximum dimension, and are possibly
451 difficult to consume, especially if the substratum is rugose at the µm-scale.

452 Plates open to the natural suite of upper intertidal grazers had compositions that were 453 intermediate between ungrazed and limpet-grazed plates. Although the number and species of grazers 454 on the natural-grazed plates were not monitored throughout the experiment, both *Littorina* spp. and Lottia spp. were capable of ascending the 12 mm plate edge (D. LaScala-Gruenewald, personal 455 observation), and the former were occasionally observed foraging on the plates during monthly 456 457 surveys. Because no limpets were confined on the natural-grazed plates, they probably experienced 458 reduced grazing pressure, resulting in higher percent cover of filamentous cyanobacteria and diatoms 459 relative to the limpet-grazed plates. These results indicate that, at HMS, we should expect to see 460 assemblages of primarily encrusting organisms where limpets are very dense, and assemblages of 461 primarily filamentous cyanobacteria and diatoms in regions where limpets and other grazers are very 462 sparse.

463

464 Evidence for Resource Partitioning

465 No significant differences were observed between the composition of the MPB grazed by L. 466 scabra and that grazed by L. austrodigitalis. This result is consistent with previous findings (Haven 467 1973) indicating that these two species are in direct competition for food resources, and fails to support 468 our hypothesis of complementarity. However, microscopic-level analyses of the MPB may be 469 important in determining resource partitioning in other scenarios. L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis have 470 very similar morphology; in fact, their radulae show only very subtle differences in lateral tooth shape, and in the length of their ribbon segments (Lindberg 1981, D. LaScala-Gruenewald personal 471 472 observation). Complementarity might still be observed if a wider array of grazers were considered. In particular, the abundant upper intertidal periwinkle, *Littorina keenae* Phillippi, which was not included 473

474 in this experiment, has distinctly different radula morphology, radula hardness, and feeding behavior,

475 and may be able to access and consume components of the MPB that are unavailable to limpets

476 (Goodwin & Fish 1977, Hawkins et al. 1989).

477

478 Effects of Grazing on Nutrient Ratios

Limpet grazing also affected the C:N ratio of the MPB. Cyanobacteria have been hypothesized 479 480 to be nutritionally inferior to diatoms (Hargrave 1970, Nicotri 1977), and we found that the ratio of the 481 percent cover of diatoms to the percent cover of cyanobacteria was significantly reduced in MPB 482 grazed by L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis (ANOVA; $F_{3,20} = 4.150$, p = 0.019). L. scabra-grazed 483 samples also had significantly increased C:N ratios relative to ungrazed samples, indicating preferential 484 consumption of high-nitrogen portions of the MPB. However, L. austrodigitalis-grazed samples had 485 C:N ratios that were intermediate between L. scabra-grazed and ungrazed samples. Due to the 486 relatively low number of limpet-grazed plates that had sufficient coverage of MPB to be used for the 487 C:N analysis, we grouped plates foraged by four, eight and twelve limpets, which raises the possibility 488 that differences in C:N ratios on limpet-grazed plates were driven by limpet density. The L. 489 austrodigitalis-grazed plates suitable for C:N analysis were initially seeded with an average of 8.4 490 limpets while the L. scabra-grazed plates were seeded only with 4.4 limpets, but by the end of our 491 study, the number of limpets on L. austrodigitalis and L. scabra-grazed plates were statistically 492 indistinguishable (3.53 ± 0.35). This was likely due to the fact that *L. austrodigitalis* have a higher 493 propensity for escaping our field enclosures than L. scabra (Miller et al. 2015). Additionally, no 494 relationship was found between the number of limpets remaining on the plates at the end of the study 495 and C:N ratio.

496 Prior research does not indicate that cyanobacteria have increased C:N ratios relative to
497 diatoms; both groups of organisms tend to have C:N ratios between 3 and 30 (Brzezinski 1985, Fukuda

et al. 1998, Geider & La Roche 2002, Fu et al. 2007). However, C:N ratios are species- and locationspecific, and vary with nutrient availability and physical parameters such as temperature (Geider & La
Roche 2002). More specific data on C:N ratios of diatoms and cyanobacteria native to the upper
intertidal zone at HMS would be necessary to better evaluate our hypothesis of depleted nutritional
quality.

503

504 Relevance and Implications

505 Our results corroborate previous work investigating potential partitioning of the MPB by 506 intertidal gastropods. Nicotri (1977) showed that the limpets L. pelta, L. strigatella and L. scutum, in 507 addition to the littorine snail L. scutulata, did not partition food resources at the microscopic scale. 508 Similarly, Hawkins et al. (1989) examined three European gastropods, G. umbilicalis, L. littorea and P. 509 vulgata, and found that their diets were indistinguishable despite differences in radula structure and 510 feeding movements. The species in Nicotris (1977) study occupy different microenvironments, and 511 both studies considered some species that supplement the MPB in their diets with macroalgae. 512 However, it appears that their results are generalizable to species that compete in the field for the 513 entirety of their food resources. This is somewhat surprising: if food is limiting in the upper intertidal 514 environment (Haven 1973, Branch & Branch 1981, Underwood 1979, Underwood 1984a, b, c), there 515 should be strong selective pressure favoring individuals who can partition the MPB. Nicotri suggests that the MPB may be too difficult to partition successfully, and the relative sizes of lateral teeth, ventral 516 517 plates and maximum dimension of the components of the MPB considered here are consistent with that 518 conclusion. However, Lottia spp. may still be partitioning resources with the littorine snails Littorina 519 keenae, L. scutulata and L. plena, which graze on the MPB in the upper intertidal environment at HMS 520 but have different radula structure. It would be interesting to observe whether the overlaps in diet 521 reported by Nicotri (1977) and Hawkins (1989) are also true for L. austrodigitalis, L. scabra and

522 Littorina spp.

523 In general, we conclude that L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis are in direct competition for resources, and that their density affects the composition of the MPB. However, this conclusion has a 524 525 number of caveats. First, although a large number of SEM images were taken for each treatment, the 526 percent cover of each plate that was imaged was very small (< 1%). It is possible that the lack of significant differences between grazing treatments reported in our results was affected by low sampling 527 528 area, although we doubt that our general conclusions would change given wider sampling. Additionally, we were unable to identify organisms to the species level. Again, doing so would be 529 530 unlikely to change our general results, but more information might be provided by performing genomic 531 analyses to determine the species involved. Finally, all of our experiments took place on rubber grip 532 tape rather than the limpets natural rock habitat. While this difference in substratum likely influenced 533 the composition of both the ungrazed and grazed MPB, it allowed for consistency across sites and 534 treatments. The native substratum at HMS is granite, an igneous rock containing feldspar, quartz and 535 an array of other rock types that vary based on where and when the rock was formed. Each of these 536 rock types has unique chemical and physical properties, which may affect patterns of growth in the 537 MPB (Cattaneo-Vietti et al. 2002, Faimali et al. 2004, Perotti 2008). The granite at HMS is also 538 topographically variable on scales ranging from meters to millimeters, and topography has been shown 539 to influence the settlement and growth of MPB (Johnson 1994, Schmitt 1996, Keough et al. 1997, Hutchinson et al. 2006). Using rubber grip tape as the substratum for this experiment eliminated 540 541 potential variability due to rock type and topography, which might otherwise have masked differences 542 in the composition of the MPB due to grazing.

Rubber grip tape as an experimental substratum has some drawbacks. Although it is highly rugose across small scales, it does not mimic the larger (5-10 mm) topographic features typical of the native granite substratum at HMS. Additionally, granite is much harder than rubber tape. Prior

research has found that it takes less force to remove crustose algae from a harder surface (Padilla 1985), suggesting that limpets might feed more efficiently on granite. However, granite cannot be deformed by a radula, and limpets on granite may not be able to completely remove the MPB from small-scale topographical features. It is likely that both the rugosity and flexibility of rubber tape influenced the MPB composition observed on both grazed and ungrazed plates.

551 The deposition of pedal mucus by limpet grazers may also have had an effect on the 552 compositions of the observed MPB. Limpet locomotion leaves behind a thin mucus layer that, in some species, has been shown to persist in the field and attract components of the MPB relative to adjacent 553 554 mucus-free substratum (Davies & Hawkins 1998). Connor and Quinn (1984) and Connor (1986) 555 examined the capacity for mucus from L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis to act as a persistent adhesive 556 trap for components of the MPB. They found that mucus from both species do recruit components of 557 the MPB at +1.7 m above MLLW in the intertidal zone adjacent to Bodega Bay Marine Laboratory in 558 Sonoma County, California, but mucus from L. scabra was more effective in doing so. Additionally, 559 they found that the median persistence time for trails from both species in the field was 7 days. 560 Research on another limpet species, *Patella vulgata*, indicated that its mucus was especially effective in trapping diatoms relative to other components of the MPB, and especially effective during the first 561 562 24 hours after deposition (Davies et al. 1992). It is highly likely that our limpet-grazed plates were 563 coated in pedal mucus throughout the duration of our field study, and that this mucus recruited additional MPB to grazed areas. However, the effects of this mucus were not sufficient to counter the 564 effects of grazing. L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis-grazed plates showed statistically indistinguishable 565 566 percentages of diatoms and cyanobacteria, and dark-adapted fluorescence. Additionally, L. scabra 567 exhibited a significantly lower growth rate than L. austrodigitalis throughout the study, which fails to 568 reflect a relative increase in food consumed (D. LaScala-Gruenewald, unpublished data). Differences in mucus properties between our study species were likely masked by grazing intensity. Both limpets 569

570 cover an average area of about 50 cm² during a foraging bout (D. LaScala-Gruenewald, unpublished 571 data); the plate area (78.54 cm^2) was too small to accommodate four limpets without regrazing. 572 The fact that L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis appear not to partition resources may have 573 implications in the face of future climate change. Prior research indicates that moderate increases in 574 temperature may create a temporary benefit for ectothermic organisms such as limpets (Miller et al. 2015). Increases in limpet growth rate have been observed at higher temperatures, and it has been 575 576 hypothesized that either temperature effects on physiological processes or a shift towards consuming higher value food items may be mechanistically responsible (Miller et al. 2015). Our data indicate that 577 578 the former is more likely, since the composition of MPB does not appear to vary across a small 579 temperature range (13-16°C). Provided that sufficient food resources are available, moderate increases 580 in temperature during aerial exposure should result in increases in limpet metabolism and growth 581 (Sanford 2002, Miller et al. 2015). However, our study also suggests that it may be possible for moderate densities of limpets $(200 - 500 \text{ m}^{-2})$ to reduce the MPB to a level where little or no food is 582 583 available. Furthermore, the MPB that remains is of lower quality (i.e., higher C:N). Limpets under 584 future climate change conditions may not be able to obtain sufficient resources at current spatial 585 densities, and we may observe declines in densities of upper-intertidal limpets. We might also expect 586 to see more success from organisms that do partition resources; complementarity has been documented 587 between a number of intertidal organisms (e.g. Byrnes & Stachowicz 2009, Griffin et al. 2008, Sanz-Lázaro et al. 2015) and is a leading explanation for how assemblages may cope with a changing 588 589 climate (Loreau et al. 2001). Additionally, because increased temperatures correspond to decreases in 590 F_0 , less food may be available as the climate warms, particularly in the summer. The density and 591 composition of the MPB vary seasonally (Underwood 1984, Jackson et al. 2010), and our samples for 592 this study were collected in December, when the MPB biomass was relatively high. As the MPB 593 decreases over the summer months, there will be a corresponding decrease in food availability

(Thompson 2000). Individuals with limited access to resources are at greater risk of temperature stress,
as they are less able to mitigate potential costs through physiological mechanisms such as the heat
shock response (Fitzgerald-DeHoog et al. 2012).

597 Although L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis do not appear to partition resources at the 598 microscopic level, the density of grazers does have an effect on the composition of the MPB. Both 599 species consume large filamentous cyanobacteria and diatoms before eating the smaller filamentous 600 and coccoidal cyanobacteria. Therefore, we should expect to see MPB relatively rich in filamentous 601 cyanobacteria and diatoms in regions where limpets are sparse. It is also likely that small filamentous 602 and coccoidal cyanobacteria form some baseline density of the MPB that is unavailable to upper 603 intertidal grazers. Prior research suggests that differences in feeding behavior and radula morphology 604 between limpet species may result in differing abilities to graze on certain species of macroaglae 605 (Padilla 1985). Similarly, L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis may graze on certain morphotypes in the 606 MPB first because of preference, or because of radula morphology and function. The microtopography 607 of the substratum may also play a role. Hutchinson et al. (2006) examined the effects of substratum 608 roughness on the composition of the MPB and molluscan grazing patterns using SEM. Diatoms were 609 more abundant on rougher substrata, and both diatoms and filamentous cyanobacteria were more 610 abundant around surface features. Finally, different species of molluscan grazers varied in their 611 abilities to remove certain diatoms and cyanobacteria. It is likely that an interaction between grazing behavior, radula morphology and physical properties of the substratum (such as roughness and 612 613 hardness) are responsible for our observed grazing patterns.

In summary, although the MPB contributes strongly to the primary productivity that fuels the upper intertidal ecosystem (Nicotri 1977, Underwood 1984, Thompson et al. 2000), relatively few studies have considered the composition of intertidal MPB at the microscopic level (Nagarkar & Williams 1997, Hill & Hawkins 1990, Hutchinson et al. 2006), and even fewer have examined the

618 impacts of environmental factors on the composition of the MPB (but see Nicotri 1977, Underwood 619 1984, Thompson et al. 2004). Here we found that two limpet species, L. scabra and L. austrodigitalis, appear to compete directly for food resources even at the microscopic scale, and that grazer density 620 621 influences the composition of the MPB. C:N ratios on grazed and ungrazed plates suggest that limpet 622 grazing may reduce the nutritional content of the MPB via selective consumption of high-N organisms. Additionally, we found that moderate increases in temperature decreased the density of the MPB, but 623 did not change its composition. As the climate continues to warm, we expect to see decreases in the 624 density of the MPB and consequent decreases in grazer density, especially among species that do not 625 partition resources at the microscopic level. 626

627

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843 **Tables**

844

845 Table 1. Transforming MPB composition data results in larger differences between grazed and

846 ungrazed assemblages. P-values are displayed from analysis of similarity tests for the treatments

847 being compared when the data underwent no transformation, a square-root transformation, and a

848 fourth-root transformation. These transformations place increasing emphasis on the presence of rare

849 species in assemblages. Data from both the organism-level analysis and morphotype-level analysis are

850 shown. Significant p-values are in bold type; associated R-values are in parentheses.

851

	Organism-level		Morphotype-level			
Treatments being	No	Square-	Fourth-	No	Square-	Fourth-
compared	transformation	root	root	transformation	root	root
Ungrazed and	0.093	0.087	0.093	0.301	0.035	0.011
Natural	(0.127)	(0.159)	(0.144)	(0.026)	(0.281)	(0.393)
Ungrazed and L.	0.035	0.024	0.015	0.002	0.002	0.002
scabra	(0.284)	(0.306)	(0.294)	(0.559)	(0.711)	(0.661)
Ungrazed and L.	0.048	0.028	0.022	0.006	0.004	0.002
austrodigitalis	(0.247)	(0.285)	(0.233)	(0.274)	(0.515)	(0.631)
Natural and <i>L</i> .	0.041	0.069	0.067	0.039	0.026	0.169
scabra	(0.185)	(0.191)	(0.250)	(0.293)	(0.307)	(0.122)
Natural and <i>L</i> .	0.766	0.814	0.461	0.229	0.331	0.297
austrodigitalis	(-0.068)	(-0.076)	(0.004)	(0.078)	(0.026)	(0.044)
L. scabra and L.	0.123	0.249	0.372	0.652	0.578	0.645
austrodigitalis	(0.117)	(0.069)	(0.002)	(-0.069)	(-0.044)	(-0.054)

852

854 Table 2. Comparison of percent cover of organisms and morphotypes across grazing treatments.

855 In general, grazed treatments showed fewer filamentous cyanobacteria (morphotypes 2 and 5) and

856 diatoms (morphotypes 8, 9 and 11) than the ungrazed treatment. Percent cover of encrusting organisms

857 were also higher on average, due to the larger percentage of morphotype 14. Coccoidal cyanobacteria

858 (morphotype 15) were higher in the natural-grazed and *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed treatments.

859 Organisms that were relatively abundant in grazed treatments are in **bold** type, while those that were

860 relatively scarce in grazed treatments are italicized.

861

	Ungrazed	Natural	L. scabra	L. austrodigitalis	
Organism-level					
Filamentous cyanobacteria	20.83	16.00	9.83	12.83	
Encrusting organisms	63.83	71.83	84.17	76.50	
Coccoidal cyanobacteria	3.50	9.17	4.67	9.50	
Diatoms	10.00	3.00		1.00	
Morphotype-level					
2	1.60	0.02	0.05	0.02	
5	17.11	15.15	8.92	11.56	
8	1.68	0.83	0.14	0.12	
9	6.18	1.11	0.36	0.52	
11	2.10	0.65	0.74	0.19	
13	60.53	58.76	44.61	45.01	
14	3.09	12.83	39.05	32.21	
15	3.58	9.35	4.88	9.12	

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868 Figures



869

870 Figure 1. Descriptions and images of morphotypes observed in the MPB. Each morphotype is

871 identified by a number (1-17), and pictured above at 300x unless otherwise indicated. Scale bars are

- 872 10µm unless otherwise indicated, circles highlight the specific organism being described and all
- 873 measurements provided are approximate. Arrows point to features referred to in the right-hand panel.
- 874 The bottom panel includes each morphotype number, in addition to the organisms broader
- 875 classification (filamentous cyanobacteria, diatom, encrusting organism or coccoidal cyanobacteria) and
- a summary of the shape and size details used to identify the organism.



878

Figure 2. The effect of grazing treatment on F_0 . The *L. scabra*-grazed, *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed and natural-grazed treatments exhibited decreased chlorophyll density ($F_0 = 55.2 \pm 5.2$) relative to the ungrazed treatment ($F_0 = 117.5 \pm 22.2$) during the month prior to SEM sample collection. Black lines indicate the mean values for each treatment, grey rectangles represent one standard deviation and white rectangles represent 95% confidence intervals (n = 6 for all treatments). Letters indicate significantly different F_0 values, as determined by Tukey's HSD test for multiple comparisons.

886





889 Figure 3. Correlations between average maximum daily temperature and F_{θ} differed between

treatments. Average maximum daily temperature and F_0 were significantly more negatively correlated on ungrazed plates (n = 6) than on grazed plates (n = 18, $F_{3,16}$ = 9.47, p < 0.001). Temperatures above 16°C reduced F_0 values on ungrazed plates to those typical of grazed plates. Grazing masked this effect of temperature, keeping F_0 values at about half of those on ungrazed plates even when temperatures were less than 16°C.

895





Figure 4. Ungrazed MPB was significantly different from grazed MPB at the organism level. The assemblage structure of the ungrazed treatment was significantly different from that of the *L. scabra*grazed and *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed treatments when considering untransformed data (R = 0.284, p =0.035 and R = 0.247, p = 0.048 respectively); the natural-grazed treatment was significantly different from the *L. scabra*-grazed but not the *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed treatment (R = 0.185, p = 0.041 and R =-0.068, p = 0.766 respectively); and no significant difference was observed between *L. scabra* and *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed assemblages (R = 0.117, p = 0.123).

905



908 Figure 5. Ungrazed MPB was significantly different from grazed MPB at the morphotype level.

909 The assemblage structure of the ungrazed treatment was significantly different from that of the *L*.

910 scabra-grazed and L. austrodigitalis-grazed treatments when considering untransformed data (R =

911 0.559, p = 0.002 and R = 0.274, p = 0.006 respectively); the natural-grazed treatment was significantly

- 912 different from the *L. scabra*-grazed but not the *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed treatments (R = 0.293, p =
- 913 0.039 and R = 0.078, p = 0.229 respectively); and no significant difference was observed between *L*.
- 914 *scabra* and *L. austrodigitalis*-grazed assemblages (R = -0.069, p = 0.652).
- 915
- 916





Figure 6. Effects of grazing treatment on C:N ratio. Grazing by L. scabra significantly increased the log(C:N) ratio of the MPB ($F_{2,45} = 12.98$, p < 0.001). However, C:N ratios of L. austrodigitalis-grazed samples were intermediate between ungrazed and L. scabra-grazed samples, and were not significantly different from either sample. Site was not a significant factor in this analysis ($F_{5,45} = 1.38$, p = 0.248), and Tukey's HSD multiple comparisons test was used to determine differences between grazing treatments. Black lines indicate the mean values for each treatment, grey rectangles represent one standard deviation and white rectangles represent 95% confidence intervals ($n_{ungrazed} = 34$, $n_{L. scabra-}$ grazed = 10, $n_{L, austrodigitalis-grazed} = 9$). Letters indicate significantly different C:N ratios.





- 942 95% confidence intervals ($n_0 = 6$, $n_2 = 1$, $n_3 = 3$, $n_4 = 8$). Letters indicate significantly different percent
- 943 covers of morphotypes.

944 Supplementary Materials

946 Table S1. ANOVA table for Figure 4.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Prob>F
Grazing	17879.2	3	5959.74	5.94	0.0045
Treatment					
Site	9341.9	5	1868.38	2.62	0.068
Error	10709.5	15	713.97		
Total	37930.7	23			

948 Table S2. ANOVA table for Figure 5.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Prob>F
Grazing	15375.4	3	5125.13	15.55	0.0001
Treatment					
Temperature	5412.3	1	5412.3	16.42	0.0009
Interaction	9364.9	3	3121.63	9.47	0.0008
Error	5274.2	16	329.64		
Total	35426.8	23			

950 Table S3. ANOVA table for Figure 7.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Prob>F
Grazing	3.3804	2	1.6902	14.73	0
Treatment					
Site	0.7939	5	0.15878	1.38	0.2484
Error	5.16375	45	0.11475		
Total	9.46316	52			