

**Title:**        **Effects of water temperature on summer periphyton biomass in shallow lakes: a pan-European mesocosm experiment**

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1 **Effects of water temperature on summer periphyton biomass in shallow lakes:**  
2 **a pan-European mesocosm experiment**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Periphyton communities play an important role in shallow lakes and are controlled by direct  
26 forces such as temperature, light, nutrients, and invertebrate grazing, but also indirectly by  
27 planktivorous fish predation. We performed a pan-European lake mesocosm experiment on  
28 periphyton colonization covering five countries along a north/south geographical/temperature  
29 gradient (Estonia, Germany, Czech Republic, Turkey, and Greece). Periphyton biomass on  
30 artificial polypropylene strips exposed at 50 cm water depth at low and high nutrient regimes  
31 (with mean total phosphorus concentration of 20 and 65  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , respectively) was compared  
32 during mid-summer. No significant effect of nutrient loading on periphyton biomass was  
33 observed as nutrient concentrations in the mesocosms were generally above limiting values.  
34 Water temperature significantly enhanced summer periphyton biomass development.  
35 Additionally, direct and indirect top-down control of snails and fish emerged as a significant  
36 factor in periphyton biomass control.

37

38 **Keywords:** climate change, epiphyton, eutrophication, grazing, top-down control

39 **Introduction**

40 Shallow lakes tend to exist in one of two stable states, a macrophyte-dominated state with  
41 high water transparency or a turbid, phytoplankton-dominated state without submerged  
42 macrophytes (Scheffer et al. 1993). Phillips et al. (1978) found that lakes that had switched  
43 from a macrophyte-dominated clear state to a phytoplankton-dominated turbid state during a  
44 period of eutrophication showed an increase in periphyton biomass prior to phytoplankton  
45 development. Jones and Sayer (2003) supported these findings of increased periphyton  
46 shading as the first step leading to the decline of submerged macrophytes in eutrophic lakes.  
47 However, they suggested that a top-down control cascade from fish via scraping invertebrates  
48 rather than nutrient concentrations would be responsible for periphyton control under  
49 eutrophic conditions. Liboriussen et al. (2005) also found a significant top-down control of  
50 periphyton biomass in a mesocosm experiment in Denmark. The relative importance of  
51 bottom-up and top-down control of periphyton biomass may, though, vary widely across  
52 spatial (i.e. between lakes) and temporal (i.e. between years) scales (Jeppesen et al. 1997).

53 Climate regimes are likely to affect lake biota communities (IPCC 2013). In  
54 productive lakes, climate warming accelerates a shift in trophic state (Mooij et al. 2005;  
55 Adrian et al. 2009) and consequently affects light conditions. The subsequent responses by  
56 plankton communities have been studied extensively (Adrian et al. 2006; Seebens et al. 2009;  
57 Wagner and Adrian 2009). How periphyton growth is affected by warming is debated and the  
58 results obtained so far are ambiguous. Some studies have shown an increase in periphyton  
59 biomass with increasing water temperature (Tarkowska-Kukuryk and Mieczan 2012; Patrick  
60 et al. 2012), while Shurin et al. (2012) in a mesocosm study demonstrated that periphyton  
61 chlorophyll *a* declined with elevated temperatures (3 °C above ambient). Such differences  
62 may be attributed to variations in the grazing pressure by invertebrates and fish. In microcosm  
63 experiments, Cao et al. (2014) observed as response to increased temperatures an increase in  
64 periphyton biomass when snails were absent but no effect when snails were present. McKee

65 et al. (2002) also found grazers to benefit more than periphyton from enhanced temperatures.  
66 Moreover, herbivory and omnivory among fishes increase with temperature (González-  
67 Bergonzoni et al. 2012; Meerhoff et al. 2012), and many fish species (or size classes of fish)  
68 feed on periphyton in subtropical and tropical lakes (Teixeira-de Mello et al. 2009).

69 Comparative studies on periphyton dynamics along latitudinal scales are scarce.  
70 Bécares et al. (2008) conducted a mesocosm experiment across a European latitudinal  
71 gradient from Finland to Spain and found that periphyton chlorophyll *a* concentrations were  
72 overall positively related to nutrient loading. Top-down effects by fish were significant only  
73 in a few sites and were assumed to be related to their contribution to the nutrient pool. Under  
74 these conditions southern lakes exhibited lower periphyton densities than northern lakes  
75 because of the larger phytoplankton biomass in the south and its shading effects on periphyton  
76 at similar nutrient loadings. In a comparative experimental field study by Meerhoff et al.  
77 (2007), a substantially lower periphyton biomass on artificial plants was found in lakes in  
78 subtropical Uruguay than in temperate Denmark. Despite a much lower biomass of  
79 invertebrate periphyton grazers due to high fish predation in Uruguay, the authors attributed  
80 the lower periphyton biomass in the warm lakes to direct control by fish grazing. Therefore,  
81 periphyton biomass might be directly or indirectly affected by nutrients, temperature, grazers,  
82 and fish, but the mechanisms of the underlying processes and potential interactions are still  
83 poorly understood.

84 We studied periphyton development on artificial polypropylene strips exposed in  
85 mesocosms with two different nutrient loadings resembling mesotrophic and eutrophic  
86 conditions and at moderate fish density in five European countries (Estonia, Germany, Czech  
87 Republic, Turkey, and Greece). A latitudinal temperature gradient was expected and effects  
88 on periphyton biomass were studied for a period of one month in July and August 2011. We  
89 hypothesize that higher nutrient loading and warmer temperatures increase summer  
90 periphyton biomass under these conditions.

## 91 **Materials and methods**

### 92 Study sites and experimental set-up

93 We conducted a mesocosm experiment in five countries across Europe covering a climate  
94 gradient from Estonia (58° N 26° E) to Greece (38° N 21° E) (Fig. 1). The mesocosms were  
95 set up in the lakes listed in Table 1. The mesocosms were closed systems (i.e. no direct  
96 connection with the lake water column or bottom sediments) but were exposed to the same  
97 climatic forcing as the lakes. The periphyton experiment presented here is part of a  
98 comprehensive study of the effects of climate change on shallow lake ecosystems, which  
99 started in May 2011 and continued until the end of October of the same year. Set-up and  
100 sampling were standardized by a common protocol to ensure comparability between the  
101 countries (Landkildehus et al. 2014). The present study lasted four weeks between 15 July and  
102 15 August 2011, thus reflecting mid-summer growth conditions. The mesocosms included in  
103 this experiment (8 in each country) consisted of 2.2 m deep cylindrical enclosures made of  
104 fiberglass with a diameter of 1.2 m. The experimental treatment design comprised two  
105 nutrient levels, resembling mesotrophic and eutrophic conditions. Manipulation of nutrient  
106 levels was carried out using inorganic phosphate (P) [ $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4$ ] and nitrogen (N) [ $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ ]  
107 at an N:P mass ratio of 1:20. Nutrients were added to the mesocosms at the beginning of the  
108 experiment to get starting P and N concentrations of 25  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  and 0.5  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$  in the  
109 mesotrophic (low loading) treatment and 200  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  and 2  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$  in the eutrophic (high  
110 loading) treatment, respectively. Later, during the course of the experiment, monthly nutrient  
111 additions amounted to 10.8 mg of P and 216 mg of N per mesocosm at low loading and 172  
112 mg of P and 3440 mg of N at high loading (Landkildehus et al., 2014). These nutrient  
113 additions took place after monthly sampling of the mesocosms. For each nutrient treatment,  
114 four replicates were implemented in each country. During the mesocosm set-up in May 2011,  
115 a 10 cm layer of sediments was added to all mesocosms (90% washed sand and 10% natural  
116 sediment from oligotrophic local lakes). Subsequently, the mesocosms were filled with sieved

117 lake water (mesh size 500  $\mu\text{m}$ ) in all countries, except for Germany and the Czech Republic  
118 where tap water was used because the lake water TP concentration was higher than the target  
119 concentration of the low nutrient treatment (i.e.  $> 25 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ). The initial water level in each  
120 mesocosms was 2 m. To ensure that naturally occurring phytoplankton, zooplankton, and  
121 macroinvertebrate communities would emerge, the mesocosms were inoculated with plankton  
122 and sediment samples, which were collected from five different local lakes covering a range  
123 from oligotrophic to eutrophic conditions (Landkildehus et al. 2014). The mesocosm set-up  
124 also included the addition of apical shoots of macrophytes (*Myriophyllum spicatum*). Six  
125 adult planktivorous fish (length 2-4 cm, 3 males and 3 females to allow breeding) were  
126 stocked in each enclosure at the beginning of the experiment. Three-spined sticklebacks  
127 (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) were used in all countries except of Greece where mosquito fish  
128 (*Gambusia affinis*) were used. Both fish species are known to have similar diets (Offill and  
129 Walton 1999; Simpson 2008). Dead fish were replaced during the experiment. The water of  
130 the mesocosms was continuously circulated by using water pumps. A more detailed  
131 description of the entire experimental set-up can be found in Landkildehus et al. (2014).

132

133 Variables measured

134 Periphyton growth over the experimental period was quantified based on the biomass  
135 accumulation on artificial transparent polypropylene strips (2 strips, 16 x 2 cm) with a slightly  
136 textured surface (IBICO®, Germany; Roberts et al. 2003). The strips were exposed at a water  
137 depth of 0.5 m and kept 0.3 m away from the mesocosm walls facing south to prevent shading  
138 from the walls, and the backsides of the strips were covered with adhesive tape.

139 After five weeks of colonization, the periphyton strips were gently lifted to the surface  
140 to minimize disturbance and loss of periphyton mats. After removal of the adhesive tape from  
141 the backside of the strips, these were immediately placed in round plastic tubes and

142 transported to the laboratory in a portable cooler box containing tap water to prevent the  
143 samples from drying out.

144 For periphyton dry weight and chlorophyll *a* analysis, periphyton was scrubbed from  
145 the strips using a soft toothbrush and suspended in a defined amount of filtered mesocosm  
146 water (two cellulose acetate filters, diameter 50 mm, pore sizes 0.24 and 0.8  $\mu\text{m}$ ). Before  
147 scrubbing, invertebrate grazers (mostly cladocerans and chironomids) were removed from the  
148 strips using carbonated water (3-5 min exposure). After homogenization, aliquot subsamples  
149 of each suspension were filtered onto two pre-weighed and pre-washed glassfiber filters  
150 (Whatman GF/C, diameter 25 mm, pore size 0.7  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and dried at 105 °C for 12 h to analyze  
151 periphyton dry weight. Ash-free dry weight was determined after combustion at 500 °C for 5  
152 h. For chlorophyll *a* analyses, aliquot samples were filtered through glassfiber filters  
153 (Whatman GF/F; 25 mm). Concomitantly with the periphyton harvest, water samples were  
154 taken to determine concentrations of total phosphorus and total nitrogen, and phytoplankton  
155 chlorophyll *a*. In each country, chlorophyll *a* (periphyton and phytoplankton), total  
156 phosphorus, and total nitrogen concentrations were determined using the procedures  
157 described in Landkildehus et al. (2014). Macrophyte plant volume inhabited (PVI %) was  
158 calculated using the formula:  $\text{PVI (\%)} = \% \text{ coverage} \times \text{average height} / \text{water depth}$ , and  
159 percent coverage and average height were visually estimated.

160 Mean air temperature for the experimental period was calculated from daily mean air  
161 temperature data (hourly values). Air temperature and global radiation data were provided by  
162 the Centre for Limnology of the Estonian University of Life Sciences, Leibniz-Institute of  
163 Freshwater Ecology and Inland Fisheries (IGB), Czech Hydrometeorological Institute,  
164 Turkish State Meteorology Service, and Hellenic National Meteorological Service.

165 Daily mean water temperature (24 hour averages of samples taken every 2 hours) was  
166 measured on two occasions in July and August (11 July 2011 and 8 August 2011). The July–  
167 August average water temperature values were used in the analysis (Table 2) as they



168 represented well the average temperate conditions for the experimental period, established by  
169 the mean air temperature. The close link between air temperature and surface water  
170 temperature in shallow lakes is well established in the literature (McCombie 1959;  
171 Livingstone and Lotter 1998; Mooij et al. 2008). At midday of the 24 h measurement events,  
172 profiles of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) were taken at 0.1 m intervals from top to  
173 bottom. For each light profile and each concurrent light intensity measurement, an attenuation  
174 coefficient  $K_{di}$  ( $m^{-1}$ ) was estimated based on the Beer-Lambert law:

$$K_{di} = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{I_i}{I_{i+1}}\right)}{z_{i+1} - z_i} \quad (1)$$

175 where  $I_i$  and  $I_{i+1}$  are PAR values at depth  $z_i$  and  $z_{i+1}$ , respectively. Values with  $I_{i+1} > I_i$  were  
176 removed.  $K_d$  ( $m^{-1}$ ) was then taken as the mean over all  $K_{di}$ . The attenuation coefficients from  
177 July and August were subsequently averaged. Mean and maximum available PAR at 0.5 m  
178 were calculated as:  $I_{0.5(\text{mean or max})} = I_{0(\text{mean or max})} \exp(-0.5 K_d)$ , where  $I_0$  was set to average light  
179 hour PAR ( $I_{0.5\text{mean}}$ ) or maximum PAR ( $I_{0.5\text{max}}$ ) at the surface. Averages for the experimental  
180 period were calculated from daily  $I_{0.5(\text{mean or max})}$  values. PAR was estimated from global  
181 radiation as  $\text{PAR} = E \times \gamma \times 0.45$ , where  $E$  is global radiation and  $\gamma = 4.6$  is the mean photon  
182 flux in the wavelengths from 400 – 700 nm (Kirk 2010).  
183

184 At the end of the mesocosm experiment in November 2011, macroinvertebrates were  
185 sampled with the help of Kajak cores (diameter =52 mm) or an Ekman grab sampler.  
186 Subsequent identification and enumeration of snails were carried out to genus or species level.  
187 At the same time, all fish were captured and weighed. In Germany, three mesocosms (two in  
188 the high nutrient and one in the low nutrient treatment) sank during heavy storm events and  
189 were consequently omitted. A detailed description of the sampling procedure and processing  
190 can be found in Landkildehus et al. (2014).  
191

192 Data analyses

193 We analyzed the data using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) to test for significant  
194 differences in periphyton dry weight and chlorophyll *a* between the two nutrient treatments.  
195 We did not test for the effect of nutrient treatment on periphyton ash free dry weight because  
196 this variable was closely correlated with periphyton dry weight ( $r^2= 0.91, p= 0001$ ).  
197 ANCOVA was chosen because of the use of two discrete nutrient treatments (low and high)  
198 in the experimental mesocosm set-up, these being considered factors in the analysis.  
199 However, since the measured nutrient concentrations in the mesocosms showed considerable  
200 variation within and among treatments (i.e. low and high), we confirmed the suitability of  
201 applying ANCOVA by testing for significant differences in TP and TN concentrations  
202 between treatments using one-way ANOVA.

203         The appropriateness of including potential covariates in the model was tested prior to  
204 conducting the ANCOVA analysis. The candidate covariates were submerged macrophyte  
205 PVI, snail abundance, fish biomass, phytoplankton chlorophyll *a* concentrations, mean PAR  
206 at 0.5 m, and maximum PAR at 0.5 m. We used one-way ANOVA to test for significant  
207 differences for each variable between the two nutrient treatments. The appropriateness of  
208 including covariates was rejected if the factor nutrient treatment significantly affected a  
209 particular variable. Furthermore, pairwise Pearson product moment correlation coefficients  
210 were calculated between candidate covariates to ensure that selected covariates were not  
211 strongly correlated (not reported). Based on the analysis above, water temperature, snail  
212 abundances, and fish biomass were selected as covariates in the ANCOVA models. Because  
213 submerged macrophyte PVI, phytoplankton chlorophyll *a* concentrations, mean PAR at 0.5  
214 m, and maximum PAR at 0.5 m showed significant differences between nutrient treatments,  
215 these variables were not included as covariates (see Fig. 2a-f). Snail abundance and fish  
216 biomass were presumed to reflect the grazing pressure on periphyton. We assumed higher  
217 periphyton grazing with higher snail abundance and lower periphyton grazing with increasing

218 fish biomass due to their higher predation on invertebrates (cascading effect) (Liboriussen et  
219 al. 2005). A weak negative effect of fish on snails was found by regression analysis between  
220 fish biomass and snail abundance ( $b = 0.08$ ,  $t(35) = 1.96$ ,  $p = 0.06$ ) and logistic regression  
221 analysis between fish biomass and presence and absence of snails ( $b = -0.53$ ,  $z(35) = -2.08$ ,  $p$   
222  $= 0.04$ ). Therefore, two alternative ANCOVA models (using either snail abundance or fish  
223 biomass as a covariate) were analyzed for both periphyton dry weight and periphyton  
224 chlorophyll *a*. All models contained nutrient treatment (i.e. high and low) as the main factor  
225 and water temperature as a covariate. Although snail abundance data were used in this  
226 analysis, it should be noted that snail species composition varied between countries. The  
227 ANCOVA was executed using a Type III sums of squares method to account for the  
228 unbalanced design in our experiment arising from the loss of three mesocosms in Germany.  
229 Where necessary, data were either log or square root transformed to improve normality of the  
230 residuals and meet the assumption of homogeneity of variance.

231 Additionally, to the ANCOVA analysis, differences in periphyton dry weight and  
232 periphyton chlorophyll *a* between nutrient treatments were tested within each country. The  
233 non-parametric Mann-Whitney U-test was considered appropriate to test for statistical  
234 differences between treatments owing to the small sample size (i.e.  $N=8$ ) in each country.  
235 This test was not conducted for Germany due to the small sample size after losing three  
236 mesocosms during the experiment (see above).

237 To aid the interpretation of the ANCOVA and to potentially further isolate the effect  
238 of fish on periphyton biomass, an additional regression analysis was carried out between  
239 water temperature-adjusted periphyton dry weight and chlorophyll *a* and fish biomass.  
240 Adjustment involved calculating residuals of the regression equation of periphyton dry weight  
241 vs. water temperature and periphyton chlorophyll *a* vs. water temperature, respectively. All  
242 analyses were undertaken using STATISTICA 12 (StatSoft, Inc. USA) with a significance  
243 threshold for all tests of  $p \leq 0.05$ .

244 **Results**

245 A clear temperature gradient was obtained by deploying mesocosms in five countries across  
246 Europe simultaneously (Fig. 3a). Average air temperatures over the study period ranged from  
247 17.0 °C in the Czech Republic to 27.3 °C in Greece. Established water temperatures were  
248 strongly correlated with average air temperature ( $R=0.97$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and were either equal or  
249 slightly warmer than average air temperatures, which is consistent with a high heat storage  
250 capacity of large water bodies (Table 2, Fig. S1). The measured average TP concentrations in  
251 the low nutrient treatment were  $20.1 \pm 6.9 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ , while the measured TP concentrations in  
252 the high nutrient treatment were  $65.4 \pm 27.8 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (Table 2). The mean TP concentration  
253 difference between the two treatments was significant (ANOVA,  $F_{1,36}= 81.57$ ,  $p< 0.001$ ; Fig.  
254 4a). Total nitrogen concentrations did not differ between the high and low nutrient treatments  
255 ( $F_{1,36}= 3.813$ ,  $p= 0.059$ , average of  $1.46 \pm 1.05 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  and  $0.82 \pm 0.36 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  for the high and  
256 low nutrient treatment, respectively; Fig. 4b).

257 The summary statistics of all potential candidate covariates for the ANCOVA model  
258 are presented in Table 2. Nutrient treatment had no significant effect on the candidate  
259 covariates snail abundance and fish biomass (ANOVA,  $F_{1,36}=0.042$ ,  $p=0.839$ ;  $F_{1,36}=0.11$ ,  
260  $p=0.742$ ;  $F_{1,36}=1.005$ ,  $p=0.323$ , respectively), but significant effects on macrophytes, water  
261 column chlorophyll *a*, and mean and the maximum PAR were observed (Fig. 2a-g). Snails  
262 were present in mesocosms in Estonia (*Valvata piscinalis*), the Czech Republic (*Lymnaea*  
263 *stagnalis*), and Turkey (members of Planorbidae, Physidae, Lymnaeidae) but absent in  
264 Germany and Greece.

265 The results of the ANCOVA analysis are summarized in Table 3. Overall, nutrient  
266 treatment had no significant effect on either periphyton dry weight or chlorophyll *a*. Water  
267 temperature was a significant covariate in all models, except for periphyton chlorophyll *a*  
268 when snail abundance was included as a second covariate. Snail abundance was a significant  
269 covariate in both models, for periphyton dry weight and chlorophyll *a*, respectively. Fish

270 biomass was a significant covariate for periphyton chlorophyll *a* but not for periphyton dry  
271 weight.

272 The results of the Mann-Whitney U test showed that nutrient treatment did not have a  
273 significant effect on periphyton dry weight (Fig. 3b) or chlorophyll *a*, except for periphyton  
274 chlorophyll *a* in Greece (Fig. 3c). Periphyton dry weight was significantly correlated with  
275 water temperature ( $r^2=0.41$ ,  $p=0.001$ ; Fig. 5a) and periphyton chlorophyll *a* ( $r^2=0.28$ ,  
276  $p=0.001$ ; Fig. 5c). Fish biomass showed a weak relationship with temperature-adjusted  
277 periphyton dry weight ( $r^2=0.1$ ,  $p=0.10$ ) (Fig. 5b) and a strongly significant relationship with  
278 temperature-adjusted periphyton chlorophyll *a* ( $r^2=0.45$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) (Fig. 5d).

279

## 280 **Discussion**

281 The present pan-European lake mesocosm experiment provided evidence that increasing  
282 water temperature can lead to increased development of summer periphyton biomass. Nutrient  
283 enrichment had no significant effect on periphyton biomass, probably due to very low nutrient  
284 limitation levels for periphyton. Indirect top-down effects of fish emerged as an important  
285 factor controlling periphyton biomass and appeared to be independent of water temperature.  
286 In addition, snails, when present, appeared to have a negative effect on periphyton chlorophyll  
287 *a*.

288 Our results showed that periphyton biomass (measured as dry weight) was  
289 significantly and positively correlated with water temperature in the 20-28°C temperature  
290 range. Given the projected rise in global air and water temperatures (IPCC 2013), our results,  
291 therefore, suggest that summer periphyton biomass is likely to increase in the future. Our  
292 results contradict those of Hansson (1992) who found that temperature was of minor  
293 importance for periphyton biomass. However, his study was conducted along a much larger  
294 productivity gradient (Swedish and Antarctic lakes) ranging from extremely low (meltwater  
295 lakes) to highly productive lakes. In our study, total phosphorus concentrations covered a

296 smaller range (20-65  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) and had no significant effect on periphyton biomass. Others have  
297 found a unimodal relationship between periphyton biomass and total phosphorus, peaking at  
298 39  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (Lalonde and Downing 1991) or between 60-200  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$  (Liboriussen and Jeppesen  
299 2006). The concentrations of dissolved reactive silicon were mostly above limiting levels (0.5  
300  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ) in the low and high nutrient treatments of the Czech Republic ( $0.9 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  and  
301  $0.3 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ) and Germany ( $1.8 \pm 1.5 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  and  $1.0 \pm 1.2 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ ). However, data are  
302 lacking for the other countries. Light levels ranged on average between 39 and 408  $\mu\text{mol}$   
303  $\text{photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and were always above the minimum light requirement for growth of  
304 microalgae (1-10  $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) given by Sand-Jensen & Borum (1991). Therefore,  
305 light limitation was unlikely in our study.

306 Furthermore, our results are different from those obtained in a pan-European study by  
307 Bécares et al. (2008), covering a temperature range of 17.7-29°C. They found higher  
308 periphyton chlorophyll *a* in northern lakes than in southern lakes and explained this by a  
309 stronger shading effect by phytoplankton on periphyton in southern lakes. The phytoplankton  
310 chlorophyll *a* concentrations in their study were generally higher (40-564  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ) than in our  
311 study (2-53  $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$ ), even if age of periphyton is comparable. The same applies for the  
312 maximum periphyton chlorophyll *a* concentration (84  $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ ), which with was five times  
313 higher than in our study (16  $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ ). Furthermore, they found nutrient concentrations to be an  
314 important driver (tested at six levels of  $\text{NO}_3^{-}\text{-N}$  and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}\text{-P}$  up to 100  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$  and 10  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ,  
315 respectively). In contrast, a positive top-down effect of fish on periphyton biomass was found  
316 in our study, which was indicated by the significant positive relation recorded between fish  
317 biomass and periphyton chlorophyll *a* in both ANCOVA and regression analysis. This result  
318 was probably due to the prevailing top-down control by fish of periphyton-scraping non-snail  
319 invertebrates, as suggested by Jones and Sayer (2003) and Danger et al. (2008). Körner and  
320 Dugdale (2003) showed a switch of fish to periphyton-scraping invertebrates at low  
321 zooplankton abundance. In our experiment, in all countries except Greece, we used

322 sticklebacks, a bottom-feeder that essentially feeds on plankton and benthic prey (Sánchez-  
323 González et al. 2001). However, periphyton biomass was highest in Greece where  
324 mosquitofish were used instead of sticklebacks. Although both species feed mainly on the  
325 same food items (planktonic and littoral zooplankton, chironomid larvae) (Offill and Walton  
326 1999; Simpson 2008), we cannot rule out the potential occurrence of confounding factors in  
327 the cascading effects of different fish species in the mesocosms.

328         Snail abundance had a significant effect on periphyton biomass in our study, but snails  
329 were absent in Germany and Greece. Snails may have directly scraped periphyton as known  
330 from various other studies (e.g. Brönmark 1989) and thus contributed to the low periphyton  
331 biomass observed in the Czech Republic, Estonia, and Turkey. Nutrient recycling from snail  
332 faeces and excreta might also have increased nutrient availability for periphyton in the low  
333 nutrient treatments and contributed to the lack of differences in periphyton biomass compared  
334 to the high nutrient treatments in these countries (Liess and Haglund 2007). Periphyton  
335 biomass was, however, also low in Germany without the presence of snails. Given the size of  
336 sticklebacks, top-down effects of fish on snails (Brönmark et al. 1992) seem unlikely (snail  
337 size: 5 mm – 7 cm). Yet, snail abundance tended to be lower if fish were present.

338         In general, in Mediterranean shallow lakes fish seem to exert strong trophic cascading  
339 effects due to dominance by frequently spawning omnivores and benthivores and absence of  
340 efficient piscivores (Beklioglu et al. 2007; Papastergiadou et al. 2010). Gyllström et al. (2005)  
341 found that the ratio between prey and predators and fish:zooplankton biomass increased from  
342 northern to southern Europe, while the zooplankton:phytoplankton biomass ratio decreased.  
343 The absence of large-bodied zooplankton due to strong fish predation seems to be the reason  
344 for lack of phytoplankton control, and a similar mechanism may explain the lack of top-down  
345 control of periphyton by scraping invertebrates in Greece. In contrast, fish biomass in the  
346 Turkish mesocosms was low, which might explain the low periphyton biomass despite  
347 warmer conditions. Therefore, the overall effect of temperature on periphyton seems to

348 depend on nutrient level (Hansson 1992; Liboriussen et al. 2005; Trochine et al. 2014), fish  
349 abundance and composition (some being periphyton grazers; Gonzáles-Bergonzoni et al.  
350 2012), and the strength of the cascading effects of fish on invertebrate periphyton grazers  
351 (Cao et al. 2014; Meerhoff et al. 2007).

352 In conclusion, our results indicate a stimulating effect of water temperature on summer  
353 periphyton biomass. Due to non-limiting nutrient levels and low differences between the  
354 treatments, no significant effect of nutrient loading on periphyton biomass was observed.  
355 However, apart from temperature, direct and indirect top-down control of snails and fish  
356 proved to be important factors for explaining a significant amount of variation in periphyton  
357 biomass.

358

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524

525 **Table 1:** Lake mesocosm experiment – basic information about sites and mean conditions during the entire experimental period from May to  
 526 October (modified from Landkildehus et al. 2014).

<b>Experimental site</b>	<b>Coordinates</b>	<b>Climate</b>	<b>Altitude</b> (m a.s.l)	<b>No. of mesocosms</b>	<b>Total precipitation</b> (mm)	<b>Mean air temperature</b> (°C)
Czech Republic, Vodňany	49°09'14"N; 14°10'11"E	Transient maritime/continental	395	8	401	15.3
Germany, Müggelsee	52°26'0" N; 13°39'0" E	Transient maritime/continental	32	5	431	16.9
Estonia, Võrtsjärv	58°12'17" N; 26°06'16" E	Boreal	35	8	298	14.4
Turkey, ODTU-DSI Golet	39°52'38" N; 32°46'32" E	Transient continental/Mediterranean	998	8	223	18.8
Greece, Lysimachia	38°33'40" N; 21°22'10" E	Mediterranean	16	8	252	23.9



527 **Table 2:** Mid-summer (i.e. 15 July – 15 August) means ( $\pm$  standard deviation) of selected variables in mesocosms with different nutrient  
528 treatments (high and low) in five European countries. All means are treatment means apart from mean air temperature, which is averaged  
529 over daily mean values.

Countries	Czech Republic		Germany		Estonia		Turkey		Greece	
	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Periphyton AFDW (g m <sup>-2</sup> )	0.5 $\pm$ 0.3	0.5 $\pm$ 0.2	1.5 $\pm$ 0.2	1.7 $\pm$ 0.2	2.2 $\pm$ 1.6	1.0 $\pm$ 0.2	0.9 $\pm$ 0.8	0.3 $\pm$ 0.3	9.2 $\pm$ 4.1	6.0 $\pm$ 1.6
Periphyton chl <i>a</i> (mg m <sup>-2</sup> )	5.0 $\pm$ 3.4	2.8 $\pm$ 1.0	0.9 $\pm$ 0.1	0.7 $\pm$ 0.0	0.1 $\pm$ 0.0	0.04 $\pm$ 0.0	0.4 $\pm$ 0.4	0.1 $\pm$ 0.1	16.8 $\pm$ 5.7	3.1 $\pm$ 0.9
TP ( $\mu$ g L <sup>-1</sup> )	84.6 $\pm$ 31.3	15.2 $\pm$ 3.2	40.0 $\pm$ 5.7	25.0 $\pm$ 8.5	45.0 $\pm$ 9.6	14.0 $\pm$ 0.8	65.7 $\pm$ 35.9	19.9 $\pm$ 4.6	79.0 $\pm$ 17.2	29.0 $\pm$ 2.9
TN (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	0.8 $\pm$ 0.3	0.9 $\pm$ 0.31	3.4 $\pm$ 0.5	0.6 $\pm$ 0.1	1.4 $\pm$ 0.2	0.8 $\pm$ 0.0	0.7 $\pm$ 0.1	0.4 $\pm$ 0.1	1.1 $\pm$ 0.4	1.4 $\pm$ 0.2
Fish biomass (g m <sup>-2</sup> )	1.3 $\pm$ 0.2	0.9 $\pm$ 0.2	1.4 $\pm$ 0.5	0.9 $\pm$ 0.2	0.0 $\pm$ 0.0	0.0 $\pm$ 0.0	0.3 $\pm$ 0.4	0.2 $\pm$ 0.2	0.7 $\pm$ 0.1	0.7 $\pm$ 0.7
Phytoplankton chl <i>a</i> ( $\mu$ g L <sup>-1</sup> )	5.4 $\pm$ 2.1	5.7 $\pm$ 1.3	72.5 $\pm$ 11.0	6.9 $\pm$ 1.6	20.4 $\pm$ 12.4	13.4 $\pm$ 3.6	9.8 $\pm$ 3.4	2.2 $\pm$ 1.1	52.5 $\pm$ 61.7	7.0 $\pm$ 8.1
Mean PAR at 0.5 m ( $\mu$ mol photons m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	146.3 $\pm$ 17.7	178.8 $\pm$ 21.6	125.7 $\pm$ 30.4	119.7 $\pm$ 13.8	140.9 $\pm$ 13.1	178.4 $\pm$ 21.6	304.4 $\pm$ 68.5	408.4 $\pm$ 55.5	38.6 $\pm$ 11.7	218.6 $\pm$ 53.3
Max PAR at 0.5 m ( $\mu$ mol photons m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	447.3 $\pm$ 54.1	546.6 $\pm$ 66.0	265.0 $\pm$ 64.0	252.3 $\pm$ 29.1	313.2 $\pm$ 29.1	396.4 $\pm$ 48.0	614.0 $\pm$ 138.2	823.9 $\pm$ 111.9	70.9 $\pm$ 21.4	401.9 $\pm$ 98.0
Submerged macrophytes (% plant volume inhabited)	0.0 $\pm$ 0.0	1.0 $\pm$ 1.0	0.0 $\pm$ 0.0	6.6 $\pm$ 0.4	11.9 $\pm$ 12.9	10.2 $\pm$ 10.3	4.8 $\pm$ 5.6	8.2 $\pm$ 3.3	2.4 $\pm$ 2.1	10.8 $\pm$ 2.1
Snail abundance (individuals m <sup>-2</sup> )	2.5 $\pm$ 2.7	0.08 $\pm$ 0.2	0.0 $\pm$ 0.0	0.0 $\pm$ 0.0	1.4 $\pm$ 1.6	5.2 $\pm$ 2.5	0.3 $\pm$ 0.2	0.5 $\pm$ 0.2	0.0 $\pm$ 0.0	0.0 $\pm$ 0.0
Mean water temperature (°C)	20.0 $\pm$ 0.2	20.0 $\pm$ 0.2	20.8 $\pm$ 0.0	20.8 $\pm$ 0.1	22.6 $\pm$ 0.2	22.4 $\pm$ 0.1	25.1 $\pm$ 0.1	25.1 $\pm$ 0.1	28.3 $\pm$ 0.1	28.3 $\pm$ 0.1
Mean air temperature (°C)	17.0 $\pm$ 2.4		18.0 $\pm$ 1.9		19.2 $\pm$ 3.2		25.8 $\pm$ 2.5		27.3 $\pm$ 1.4	

530 **Table 3:** Summary of results from the ANCOVA models testing for the effect of nutrient  
 531 treatments on periphyton dry weight and periphyton chlorophyll *a*. Water temperature, snail  
 532 abundance, and fish biomass were used as covariates in the models. Bold *p* values denote  
 533 significant effects.

<b>Dependent variable</b>	<b>Effect</b>	<b>SS</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>F</b>	<b><i>p</i></b>
Periphyton dry weight	Intercept	6.561	1	13.386	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Water temperature	9.415	1	19.211	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Snail abundance	4.782	1	9.756	<b>0.003</b>
	Nutrient treatment	0.020	1	0.041	0.84
	Error	16.173	33		
Periphyton dry weight	Intercept	10.369	1	17.983	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Water temperature	14.803	1	25.674	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Fish biomass	1.927	1	3.342	0.076
	Nutrient treatment	0.003	1	0.005	0.942
	Error	19.028	33		
Periphyton chlorophyll <i>a</i>	Intercept	0.214	1	0.304	0.585
	Water temperature	0.045	1	0.065	0.801
	Snail abundance	7.089	1	10.096	<b>0.003</b>
	Nutrient treatment	1.343	1	1.912	0.176
	Error	23.173	33		
Periphyton chlorophyll <i>a</i>	Intercept	4.179	1	8.543	<b>0.006</b>
	Water temperature	2.94	1	6.011	<b>0.019</b>
	Fish biomass	14.121	1	28.869	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	Nutrient treatment	0.279	1	0.57	0.456
	Error	16.142	33		

534 **Figure captions**

535 **Fig. 1.** Map of Europe showing the five experimental locations: Estonia (Võrtsjärv), Germany  
536 (Müggelsee), Czech Republic (Vodňany), Turkey (ODTÜ-DSİ Gölet), and Greece  
537 (Lysimachia).

538

539 **Fig. 2.** Box and whisker plots representing the median values of (a) macrophyte plant volume  
540 inhabited (PVI), (b) snail abundance, (c) fish biomass, (d) water column chlorophyll *a*  
541 concentrations, (e) mean PAR measurements between July and August, and (f) maximum  
542 PAR measurements between July and August for each nutrient treatment (high and low) in the  
543 mesocosm experiments conducted in five European countries. Horizontal lines denote the  
544 medians, boxes denote the 25th and 75th percentile, whiskers denote non-outlier range, circles  
545 are outliers, and the asterisks are extreme values. *P* values were derived from a one-way  
546 ANOVA to test for significant differences between nutrient treatments.

547

548 **Fig. 3.** Box and whisker plots representing the median values of (a) water temperature, (b)  
549 periphyton dry weight, and (c) periphyton chlorophyll *a* content for each nutrient treatment  
550 (high and low) in five European countries. Horizontal lines denote the medians, boxes denote  
551 the 25th and 75th percentile, and whiskers denote non-outlier range. Asterisk indicates  
552 significant differences between nutrient treatments based on Mann-Whitney U test at  $p \leq 0.05$ .

553

554 **Fig. 4.** Box and whisker plots representing the median values of (a) total phosphorus  
555 concentrations and (b) total nitrogen concentrations for each nutrient treatment (high and low)  
556 in the mesocosm experiments conducted in five European countries. Horizontal lines denote  
557 the medians, boxes denote the 25th and 75th percentile, the whiskers denote non-outlier  
558 range, circles are outliers. *P* values were derived from a one-way ANOVA to test for  
559 significant differences between nutrient treatments.

560

561 **Fig. 5.** Relationship between (a) periphyton dry weight (DW) and water temperature (WT),  
562 (b) periphyton dry weight (DW) adjusted for water temperature and fish biomass ( $\text{g m}^{-2}$ ), (c)  
563 periphyton chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*) and periphyton dry weight (DW), and (d) periphyton  
564 chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*) adjusted for water temperature (WT) and fish biomass ( $\text{g m}^{-2}$ ) in  
565 mesocosm experiments in five European countries. Only significant *p*-values were included.

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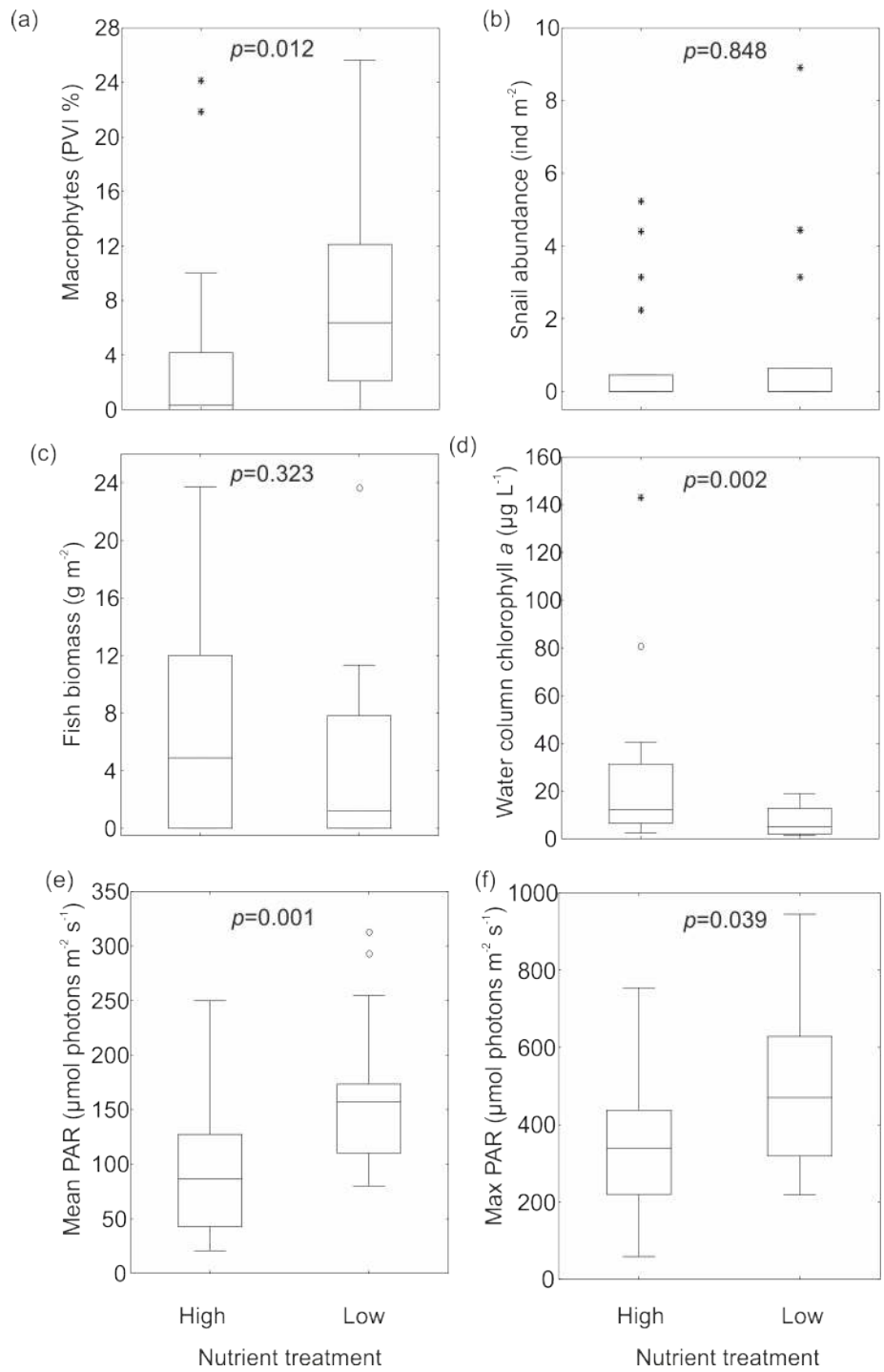
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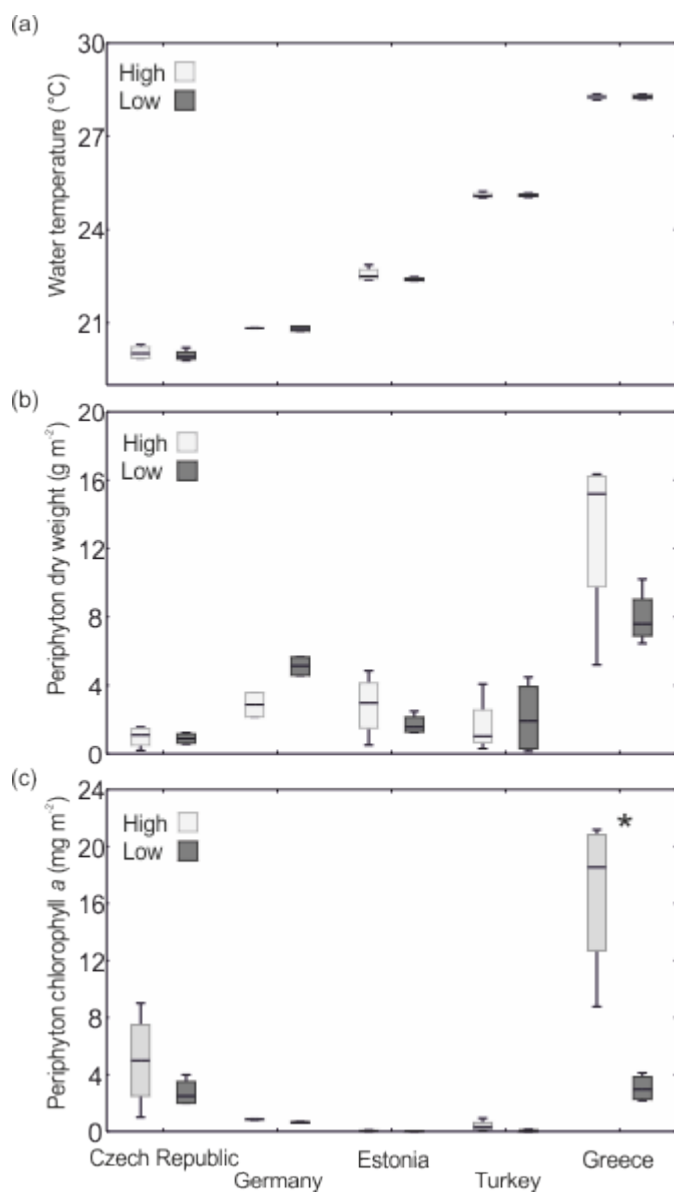
Fig. 1



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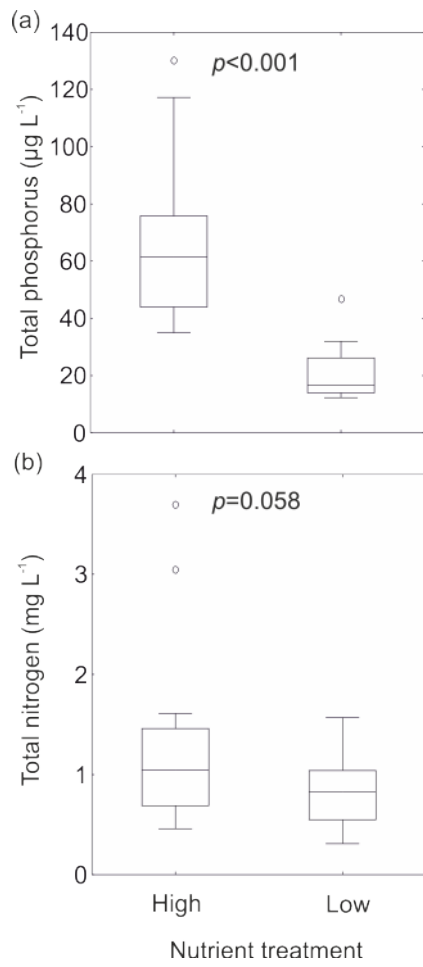
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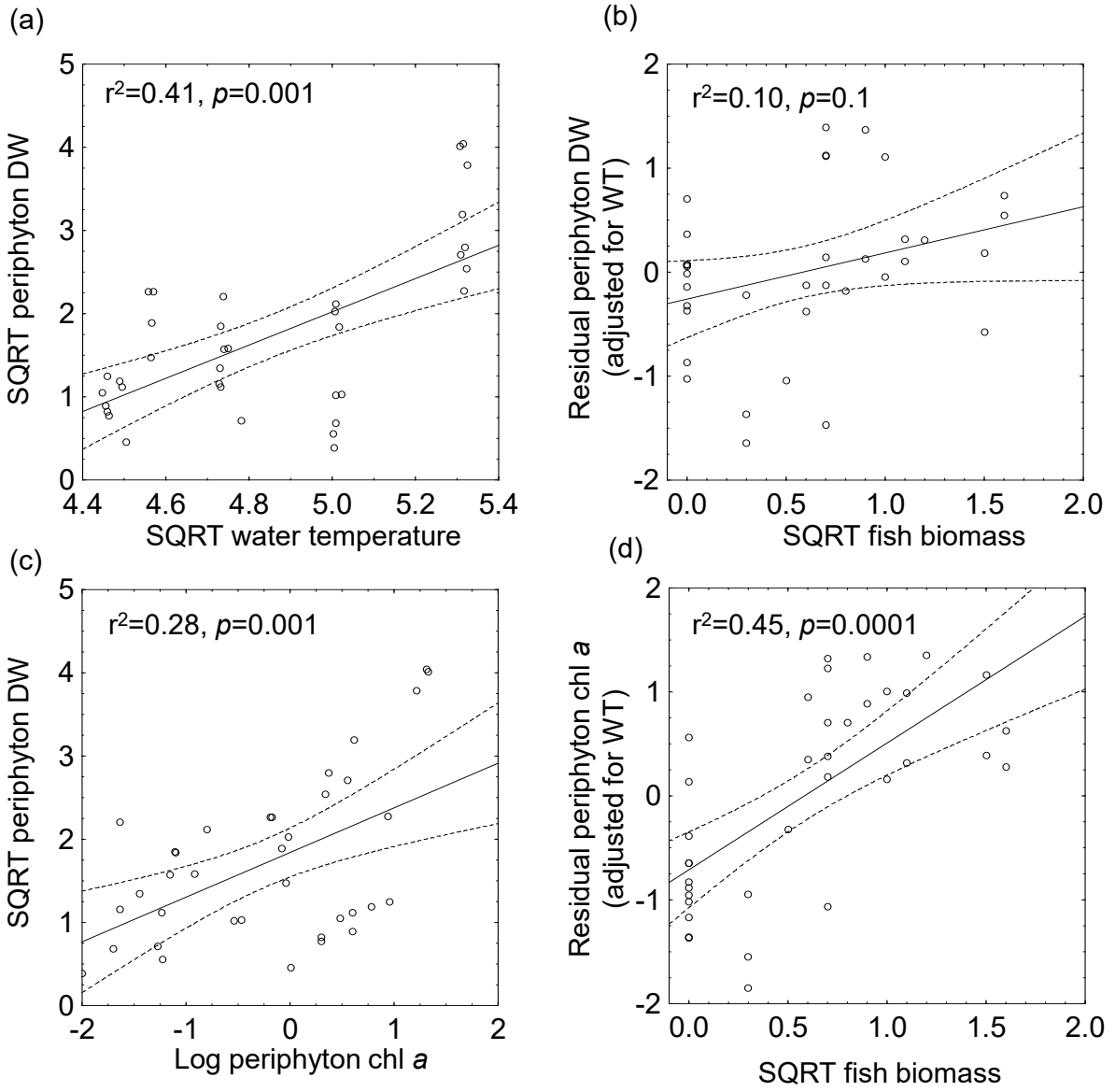
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617 **Supplementary material**

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619 Figure S1. Comparison of mean daily air temperature values at study sites, with established

620 mean water temperatures (dashed horizontal lines) for the experimental period. Daily mean air

621 temperatures are based on hourly air temperature values. Average water temperature is based

622 on two daily mean values (24 hour averages of samples taken every two hours) measured on

623 11 July and 8 August 2011. CZ = Czech Republic, EE = Estonia, GE = Germany, GR =

624 Greece, and TR = Turkey.

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