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1 Multiple stressor effects act primarily on microbial leaf decomposers in stream mesocosms

2

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20

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23

24 ABSTRACT

25 At the global level, stream ecosystems are impacted by multiple anthropogenic stressors such  
26 as eutrophication, habitat deterioration, and water scarcity. Multiple stressor effects on stream  
27 biodiversity are well documented, but multiple stressor effects on stream ecosystem processes  
28 have received only limited attention. We conducted one mesocosm (stream channel) and one  
29 microcosm (feeding trial) experiment to study how combinations of reduced flow, increased  
30 nutrient concentrations, and increased fine sediment cover would influence fungal and  
31 macroinvertebrate decomposer assemblages and their active contribution to leaf  
32 decomposition. In the stream channels, increased fine sediment cover significantly reduced  
33 fungal biomass, occurrence frequencies of most hyphomycete species, and microbial leaf  
34 decomposition rates compared to untreated controls. Macroinvertebrate mediated leaf  
35 decomposition rates were mainly correlated to total fungal biomass and resemblance in  
36 fungal community composition to untreated controls. Neither increased nutrient  
37 concentrations, nor reduced flow conditions significantly influenced leaf decomposer  
38 communities or decomposition rates. The feeding trials revealed significantly reduced leaf  
39 consumption in the freshwater amphipod *Gammarus pulex* when feeding on leaf material  
40 from treatments with increased fine sediment cover in the mesocosm experiment. When  
41 offered a food choice between sterile, unconditioned leaf material and leaf material from  
42 treatments with increased fine sediment cover, *G. pulex* foraged mainly on sterile material.  
43 This study showed that increased fine sediment cover can alter the flux of energy and  
44 material in the detrital food chain through bottom-up regulation of leaf conditioning by  
45 fungal decomposers. Our results suggest that increasing attention should be given to mitigate  
46 fine sediment transport and deposition in stream systems to preserve ecosystem functioning  
47 within the detrital food chain.

48

## 49 1. INTRODUCTION

50 The United Nations Intergovernmental Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services  
51 (IPBES) has emphasised that natural resources are severely overexploited and that land use  
52 change and intensity are primary causes of the accelerating biodiversity decline and loss of  
53 ecosystem services (IPBES, 2019). Relative to their global area, freshwater ecosystems  
54 support a disproportionately high amount of the global biodiversity (Strayer & Dudgeon,  
55 2010) but are severely under pressure by drivers of global change (Vörösmarty et al., 2010).

56

57 In streams, anthropogenic stressors are particularly intense and complex in terms of their  
58 composition and spatiotemporal variation (Birk et al., 2020; Lemm et al., 2021; Ormerod et  
59 al., 2010). Dominant stressors include, increased nutrient (Smith, 2003), contaminant (e.g.  
60 Malaj et al., 2014; Niyogi et al., 2007; Schäfer et al., 2016), or suspended sediment loads  
61 (Walling, 2006), habitat deterioration (e.g. Vörösmarty et al., 2010; Wagenhoff et al., 2011),  
62 and intensity, duration, and frequency of low flows (e.g. Hannaford & Buys, 2012; Xu et al.,  
63 2022). All of these stressors, especially frequency and duration of critical low flows, are  
64 expected to become more widespread and intense within coming decades threatening the  
65 structure and functioning of stream ecosystems through direct or indirect mechanisms (IPCC,  
66 2022).

67

68 While multiple stressor effects have been intensely studied in context of ecosystem structure  
69 (including ecological quality assessments), ecosystem functioning has received substantially  
70 less attention (Birk et al., 2020; Feckler & Bundschuh, 2020). Moreover, relationships  
71 between ecosystem structure and function are not always clear-cut (Feckler & Bundschuh,  
72 2020; Mulder et al., 2015; Verdonschot et al., 2020). The decomposition of organic matter is  
73 one of the most important processes in stream ecosystems and is integral to trophic ecosystem

74 dynamics (Handa et al., 2014; Marks, 2019). Leaf litter constitutes the most important part of  
75 allochthonous particulate organic matter input to streams, and its decomposition has been  
76 frequently used to quantify single stressor effects on stream ecosystem functioning (e.g.  
77 Chauvet et al., 2016; Gessner & Chauvet, 2002).

78

79 Leaf litter decomposes through abiotic and biotic processes that occur sequentially or  
80 simultaneously including leaching, microbial decomposition, and consumption by  
81 macroinvertebrate shredders (Abelho, 2001). Aquatic fungi (especially aquatic  
82 hyphomycetes) dominate microbial decomposition, typically comprising > 90% of the total  
83 litter-associated microbial biomass (Marks, 2019). The colonisation by aquatic fungi  
84 enhances the nutritional value and palatability of the leaf litter for macroinvertebrate  
85 shredders (Abelho, 2001; Gessner & Chauvet, 1994). Macroinvertebrate consumption of leaf  
86 litter produces fine particulate organic matter (FPOM) which is utilised by macroinvertebrate  
87 filter and deposit feeders, forming the primary link to higher trophic levels, such as fish  
88 (Bundschuh & McKie, 2016; Graca, 2001).

89

90 Anthropogenic stressors can impact leaf litter decomposition through effects on different  
91 trophic decomposer levels (Bärlocher et al., 2010; Ferreira et al., 2015; Marks, 2019):  
92 Elevated nutrient concentrations typically stimulate fungal activity and decomposition rates  
93 (Ferreira et al., 2015; Woodward et al., 2012). Fine sediment deposition can impair fungal  
94 colonisation and growth, especially if interstitial flow and oxygen concentrations are reduced  
95 (Bollinger et al., 2022; Bruder et al., 2016; Cornut et al., 2010; Medeiros et al., 2009).

96 Combinations of restricted access for macroinvertebrate shredders and reduced nutritional  
97 value of buried leaf litter can reduce overall leaf decomposition rates (Piggott, Niyogi, et al.,  
98 2015; Wagenhoff et al., 2011). Conversely, leaf litter burial in coarse substrates under oxygen

99 saturated conditions in interstitial water may accelerate microbial decomposition probably  
100 due to additional physical abrasion mediated by the substrates (Danger et al., 2012; Jyvasjarvi  
101 et al., 2021; Piggott, Townsend, et al., 2015). Reduced flow velocity can increase the  
102 boundary layer thickness of substrates reducing fluxes of oxygen and nutrients to fungal  
103 decomposers. Consequently, fungal growth and activity may be inhibited governing an  
104 overall reduction in leaf litter decomposition (Bruder et al., 2016; Medeiros et al., 2009).  
105 Moreover, reduced flow velocity can increase sedimentation rates of fine particles, leading to  
106 burial of deposited leaf litter.

107

108 Combinations of elevated nutrient concentrations, fine sediment deposition, and reduced flow  
109 velocity may generate non-linear and interactive effects on leaf litter decomposition rates.  
110 Stimulating effects of elevated nutrient concentrations on microbial decomposers may  
111 overrule negative effects of reduced flow velocities and fine sediment deposition. However,  
112 stressor interactions appear to be context dependent as a function of, for example, individual  
113 stressor intensities and oxygen reducing potential of the deposited sediments (Bruder et al.,  
114 2016; Danger et al., 2012; Jyvasjarvi et al., 2021; Matthaei et al., 2010; Piggott, Niyogi, et al.,  
115 2015; Piggott, Townsend, et al., 2015). Most studies addressing multiple stressor effects on  
116 leaf litter decomposition focused on macroinvertebrate-mediated leaf decomposition, whereas  
117 microbial decomposers have been studied less (Bollinger et al., 2022; Bruder et al., 2016;  
118 Mustonen et al., 2016). Moreover, multiple stressor effects on mechanistic interactions  
119 between microbial and macroinvertebrate decomposers have, to our knowledge, not been  
120 studied.

121

122 To address these knowledge gaps, we performed two experiments. We used a stream  
123 mesocosm experiment to examine effects of low flow, elevated nutrient concentrations, and

124 fine sediment deposition on fungal decomposer communities and on microbial and  
125 macroinvertebrate-mediated leaf litter decomposition. Leaf litter from mesocosm treatments  
126 were, subsequently, used in a microcosm experiment to study specific feeding preferences of  
127 macroinvertebrate shredders providing mechanistic insights of interactions between microbial  
128 and macroinvertebrate leaf decomposers. The shredding freshwater amphipod *Gammarus*  
129 *pulex* (L.), common in Northern European streams (Marchant, 1981) and abundant in the  
130 stream mesocosms, was selected as model organism for the microcosm experiment.

131

132 Overall, we hypothesised that treatments would alter leaf litter decomposition rates, primarily  
133 directly, and indirectly, through changes in fungal communities. Our specific hypotheses  
134 were: i) aquatic hyphomycete community structure would change in response to low flow and  
135 elevated fine sediment deposition towards a community dominated by few tolerant taxa, ii)  
136 fungal biomass would decrease in response to low flow and elevated fine sediment  
137 deposition, iii) elevated nutrient concentration would increase fungal biomass and mitigate  
138 negative effects from low flow and elevated fine sediment deposition, iv) microbial leaf litter  
139 decomposition would increase with increasing fungal biomass, v) macroinvertebrate-  
140 mediated leaf litter decomposition would track treatment-based differences in microbial leaf  
141 litter decomposition, vi) in the absence of a food choice (one leaf disc from stream mesocosm  
142 treatments), *G. pulex* would compensate for low nutritious value by increasing feeding  
143 activity, and vii) in the presence of an alternative food source with low nutritional value (i.e.,  
144 sterile beech leaf discs) *G. pulex* would exert active preference for conditioned leaf discs  
145 from stream mesocosm treatments.

146

## 147 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 148 2.1 Rationale behind the dual-experiment approach

149 Mesocosm experiments provide opportunities for testing stressor effects on complex  
150 biological systems that resemble natural conditions while maintaining reasonable control of  
151 stressor levels and deployed community assemblages. However, the increased realism gained  
152 from using e.g., complex introduced macroinvertebrate assemblages comes at the cost of  
153 losing mechanistic insights behind observed effects. While some species of stream  
154 macroinvertebrates utilise mainly one food resource, most species are somewhat plastic in  
155 terms of their ability to utilise different food resources (Cummins, 2018). Similarly, the  
156 dominant shredder in our mesocosm experiment (*G. pulex*) has a high feeding plasticity and  
157 can act as shredder, predator, and even grazer (Kelly et al., 2002). Consequently, reduced leaf  
158 litter decomposition in the mesocosm experiment could indicate a partial or full change in  
159 preferred food resources or a remaining preference for leaf litter although coupled with  
160 reduced feeding activity.

161

162 Microcosm experiments aimed to provide insights into the mechanisms behind altered leaf  
163 decomposition rates observed in the mesocosm experiment. Leaf material subjected to  
164 treatments in the mesocosm experiment was offered to *G. pulex* as single food resource or in  
165 combination with other food resources with high (*Alnus glutinosa*) or low (autoclaved and  
166 unconditioned *Fagus sylvatica*) nutritional value. Hereby, potentially changed feeding  
167 preferences in *G. pulex* could provide mechanistic insights into observed changes in altered  
168 leaf decomposition rates in the mesocosm experiment.

169

## 170 2.2 Stream mesocosm experiment

### 171 2.2.1 Stream mesocosms

172 The experiment was conducted during summer in 2015 at the Lemming stream mesocosm  
173 facility, Denmark (56°4' N, 9°31' E). The stream channels (n = 12) were constructed of



174 stainless steel and dimensioned with length, width, and height of 12 m, 60 cm, and 30 cm,  
175 respectively. Inorganic sediments were deployed to create pool-riffle sequences (three riffles  
176 per stream channel), and the distribution of particle size classes resembled headwater streams  
177 in Denmark (Pedersen et al., 2004) (see Appendix S1 for details on stream channel set-up).

178

179 Unfiltered stream water from a neighbouring forest stream was continuously supplied to the  
180 stream channels using a main feeder pump via 1,000 L plastic feeder tanks ( $n = 12$ ). Each  
181 stream channel discharged into a 1,000 L plastic receiver tank. An additional recycling pump  
182 was deployed in each receiver tank to increase discharge when needed. This pump  
183 recirculated defined volumes of water from the receiver tank to the feeder tank, allowing to  
184 fine-tune the discharge in each stream channel. The maximum discharge capacity was  
185 approximately  $6 \text{ L s}^{-1}$  (see Appendix S1 for details).

186

### 187 *2.2.2 Stream mesocosm experimental design*

188 The experiment consisted of three succeeding phases: pre-treatment, normal flow, and low  
189 flow (see Appendix S1 for details). The pre-treatment phase was initiated on June 15<sup>th</sup> 2015  
190 and lasted eight weeks intending to condition inorganic substrates with benthic  
191 microorganisms and to deploy macroinvertebrate assemblages. All stream channels received  
192 discharge corresponding to the maximum capacity of the main feeder pump and the recycling  
193 pumps (target discharge =  $6 \text{ L s}^{-1}$ ). Macroinvertebrates were collected from Lemming stream  
194 using a kick sampling net (mesh size  $500 \mu\text{m}$ ) and transferred to the stream channels after  
195 two weeks of the pre-treatment phase. Five kick samples from riffles and five from  
196 depositional areas were transferred to each stream channel.

197

218 The normal-flow phase lasted four weeks and was initiated as a continuation of the pre-  
219 treatment phase (target discharge =  $6 \text{ L s}^{-1}$ ). Six randomly chosen stream channels were  
220 enriched with additional nutrients using nitrogen and phosphorous fertilisers (SweDane NPK  
221 21-3-10 and GrowHow NS 24-6, purchased from DLG, Copenhagen, Denmark).  
222 Consequently, the normal-flow phase comprised two treatment groups: Control and nutrient  
223 enriched (termed NP) ( $n = 6$ ) (Fig. S2). In brief, fertilizers were mixed with water from  
224 Lemming stream in a 600 L plastic tank. From this tank, peristaltic pumps transported the  
225 nutrient-enriched water to the feeder tanks, allowing for mixing with stream water, thus  
226 reaching the target nutrient concentration before the water entered the stream channels. This  
227 procedure ensured a continuous supply of water with elevated nutrient concentrations to the  
228 designated stream channels (see Appendix S1 for details). We intended to elevate background  
229 concentrations of nitrate-N, ammonium-N, and phosphate-P by a factor 2, 20, and 4,  
230 respectively. These nutrient concentrations correspond to typical Danish lowland agricultural  
231 streams (Wiberg-Larsen et al., 2012).

212

213 The low-flow phase lasted four weeks and was initiated as an immediate continuation of the  
214 normal-flow phase. In this phase, discharge was equally reduced in all channels to  
215 approximately 1 L/s while maintaining the water depth from the normal-flow phase (see  
216 Appendix S1 for details). The necessary flow reduction was achieved by turning off the  
217 recycling pumps and reducing the pumping capacity of the main feeder pump. The NP  
218 treatment was continued with adjustments in the supply of nutrient enriched water  
219 corresponding to the reduced discharge in order to maintain target values of elevated nutrient  
220 concentrations. In addition, we added organic rich fine sediment to six randomly chosen  
221 channels creating four treatments ( $n = 3$ ): control, NP, fine sediment addition (FS), and  
222 combined nutrient enrichment and fine sediment addition (NP+FS) (Fig. S2). The fine

223 sediment was collected from depositional areas in Lemming stream and deployed in the  
224 respective stream channels until a FS cover > 90 % was reached (see Appendix S1 for  
225 details).

226

### 227 *2.2.3 Flow, water chemistry, and fine sediment cover in the stream mesocosms*

228 In each experimental phase, discharge was measured at weekly intervals, and current velocity  
229 and water depth were measured once during each experimental phase (see Appendix S1 for  
230 details). Temperature was measured at 10 min intervals throughout the experiment using  
231 loggers (HOBO Pendant UA-001, Onset, USA). Fine sediment cover in all stream channels  
232 was visually quantified the last week of the normal-flow phase and with weekly intervals in  
233 the subsequent low-flow phase (see Appendix S1 for details). Water samples for water  
234 chemistry measurements were collected in 1 L glass bottles in each stream channel with  
235 three-day intervals during all experimental phases (see Appendix S1 for details). Analytical  
236 methods and applied standards for the water chemistry analyses are described in Appendix  
237 S1.

238

239 On average, discharge was reduced from 4.65 L s<sup>-1</sup> in the normal-flow phase to 1.05 L s<sup>-1</sup> in  
240 the low-flow phase. Concentrations of nitrate-N, ammonium-N and phosphate-P were  
241 elevated by a factor of 2.5, 20, and 4, respectively, in the NP treatments compared to  
242 treatments without added nutrients. Fine sediment cover was elevated by a factor of  
243 approximately 4 in the FS treatments compared to treatments without fine sediment additions  
244 (Appendix S1, Table S2).

245

### 246 *2.2.4 Macroinvertebrates*

247 Macroinvertebrates were sampled from the stream channels using surber sampler (sampling  
248 area = 195 cm<sup>2</sup>, mesh size 200 µm). One surber sample was collected on riffle and pool  
249 habitats, respectively, in each stream channel one week before the start of the normal-flow  
250 phase and with weekly intervals during the normal- and low-flow phases (9 sampling  
251 occasions in total). The number of surber samples was restricted to avoid removing an excess  
252 number of individuals which could influence the results.

253

254 All macroinvertebrate samples were preserved in 96% ethanol. The macroinvertebrates were  
255 identified to species level except Chironomidae (sub-family), Oligochaeta (class), and  
256 Empididae, Tipulidae, and Simuliidae (all to family). Feeding preferences were ascribed to  
257 each taxon according to Tachet et al. (2002) allowing quantification of shredder densities.

258

259 Importantly, the established macroinvertebrate assemblages resembled the taxon-specific  
260 densities and composition of macroinvertebrate communities in Lemming stream (Graeber et  
261 al., 2017).

262

### 263 2.2.5 Leaf bags

264 Leaf material of beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) was used to study leaf decomposition rates as  
265 function of the stream mesocosm treatments. The leaf material was collected directly from  
266 trees before abscission in November 2014, airdried for one week and stored at -20 °C until  
267 the start of the mesocosm experiment. A total of  $1 \pm 0.01$  g DW leaf material was transferred  
268 to each leaf bag, and 12 +12 leaf bags with coarse (15 mm) and fine mesh (500 µm),  
269 respectively, were deployed in each stream channel at the start of the normal flow phase (total  
270 n = 288) (see Appendix S1 for details). Two leaf bags with coarse mesh and two with fine  
271 mesh were collected from each stream channel after experimental weeks 1, 2, and 4 of the

272 normal-flow phase. All remaining leaf bags ( $n = 144$ ) were removed after experimental week  
273 4 in the transition towards the low-flow phase. At the start of the low-flow phase, another 12  
274 + 12 leaf bags with coarse and fine mesh, respectively, were deployed in each stream  
275 channel, and leaf bag collection followed the sampling protocol for the normal-flow phase.  
276 Note that remaining leaf bags with fine mesh size ( $n = 72$ ) were subsequently used in the  
277 microcosm experiment (see Methods section 2.2 below).

278

279 All leaf bags were conditioned in Lemming stream for 7 d before deployment (see Appendix  
280 S1 for details). The conditioning of leaf material in Lemming stream was conducted using  
281 nets (500  $\mu\text{m}$  mesh size) to exclude macroinvertebrate shredders. Collected leaf bags were  
282 stored in separate plastic bags and stored in a cooling box while transported to the laboratory  
283 and immediately subjected to further treatments as described below.

284

#### 285 *2.2.6 Processing of leaf material*

286 The leaf material in each leaf bag collected on experimental weeks 1, 2, and 4 during normal-  
287 and low-flow phases was carefully rinsed in tap water to remove fine sediment and  
288 macroinvertebrates. For leaf bags with coarse mesh size, remaining leaf material from each  
289 leaf bag was transferred to a paper bag, dried at 60  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 72 h and weighed on a Mettler  
290 Toledo scale (accuracy 0.1 mg). For each leaf bag with fine mesh size, 25 leaf discs (diameter  
291 = 10 mm) were punched with a cork borer. The cork borer, cutting board, and tweezers were  
292 rinsed in 96% ethanol and, subsequently, in tap water between cutting procedures for each  
293 leaf bag to avoid cross contamination of fungi. The leaf discs were used for hyphomycete  
294 sporulation ( $n = 5$ ), weight measurements ( $n = 5$ ), and quantification of ergosterol ( $n = 15$ ).  
295 Leaf discs for hyphomycete sporulation were processed immediately following the  
296 descriptions below. Leaf discs for weight measurements were transferred to paper bags, dried

297 at 60 °C for 72 h and weighed. Leaf discs for ergosterol measurements were freeze-dried and  
298 stored frozen (- 20 °C) until analysis. The remaining leaf material from each leaf bag was  
299 transferred to paper bags, dried at 60 °C for 72 h and weighed.

300

### 301 *2.2.7 Hyphomycetes sporulation and spore identification*

302 The five leaf discs from each leaf pack were transferred to a 50 mL Erlenmeyer flask  
303 containing 20 mL of treatment water (collected in 1 L glass bottles from the stream channels).  
304 All Erlenmeyer flasks were sealed with cotton to allow air flow but prevent cross  
305 contamination and placed on an orbital shaker (120 rpm) in darkness at 10 °C. After 48 h,  
306 produced conidia were prevented from agglomerating by adding 25 µL of 0.5 % Tween80  
307 and fixed by adding 1.14 mL 37 % formaldehyde to obtain a final concentration of 2 %. The  
308 samples were stored at 4 °C. An aliquot of the conidia suspension was homogeneously  
309 filtered over a gridded membrane filter (0.45 µm), and retained conidia were stained with  
310 lactophenol cotton blue. At least 300 conidia were identified for each replicate (100 – 400x  
311 magnification) primarily using the key provided by Gulis et al. (2005). The number of  
312 counted conidia was normalized to the total filter surface, sample volume, and dry weight of  
313 the respective set of leaf discs.

314

### 315 *2.2.8 Quantification of ergosterol*

316 Ergosterol, a component of eumycotic cell walls, was used as proxy for fungal biomass  
317 following Gessner (2005). Briefly, using alkaline methanol, ergosterol was extracted from  
318 freeze-dried leaf material and subsequently purified by solid-phase extraction (Sep-Pak® Vac  
319 RC tC18 500 mg sorbent; Waters, Milford, USA). The ergosterol concentration was  
320 quantified by high-performance liquid chromatography at a wavelength of 282 nm.

321

## 322 2.3 Microcosm experiment

### 323 2.3.1 Microcosm setup

324 The microcosm experiment was conducted as an immediate continuation of the mesocosm  
325 experiment in summer 2015. The microcosm setup comprised 100 small polystyrene  
326 containers (LxWxD = 10x10x1.2 cm), and the experiment was conducted in a cooling  
327 chamber (Aarhus University, Campus Silkeborg) at 10 °C with a 12h:12h light/darkness  
328 cycle. Each container was supplied with 100 mL unfiltered water from Lemming stream.

329

### 330 2.3.2 Microcosm experimental design

331 A 72h feeding trial was conducted using the freshwater amphipod *G. pulex* as model  
332 organism. One individual of *G. pulex* was introduced to each container (n = 100). Individuals  
333 of *G. pulex* were sampled in Lemming stream with a kick-net, and individuals with a body  
334 length of approximately 1 cm (visual inspection) were collected for the experiment using  
335 plastic pipettes. All selected individuals were acclimatised and starved for 48 h at 10 °C in  
336 darkness in a 100 L aquarium containing water from Lemming stream.

337

338 Each container was, additionally, supplied with one (n = 50) or two (n = 50) leaf discs (20  
339 mm diameter) providing five treatments with single and paired leaf discs, respectively (n =  
340 10) (overview of treatments available in Appendix S1, Table S3). The leaf discs were  
341 produced from 1) leaf material from remaining fine meshed leaf bags (*F. sylvatica*) of the  
342 mesocosm experiment, collected immediately after terminating the low-flow phase. A total of  
343 20 leaf discs were produced for each treatment of the mesocosm experiment (C, NP, FS, and  
344 NP+FS), 2) unconditioned beech leaf material collected directly from trees before abscission  
345 in November 2014, airdried for one week and stored at -20 °C until the start of the  
346 microcosm experiment. To ensure absence of living microorganisms, these leaf discs (n =

347 100) were autoclaved for 60 minutes at 121 °C (15 psi), and 3) alder (*Alnus glutinosa*) leaf  
348 discs were produced from material collected directly from trees just before abscission in  
349 October 2014 and stored frozen (-20 °C) until the microcosm experiment. A total of 10 alder  
350 leaf discs were produced. All leaf discs were produced using a cork borer and following the  
351 method described in section 2.2.6.

352

353 Before the feeding trial, all leaf discs were dried to constant weight at 15 °C and weighed  
354 (accuracy 0.1 mg) and, subsequently, soaked in tap water and deployed in the containers.

355 After the 72h feeding trial, all leaf discs and individuals of *G. pulex* were dried at 60 °C for  
356 72 h and weighed on a Mettler Toledo scale (accuracy 0.1 mg).

357

#### 358 2.4 Data treatment

359 All data analyses were performed using R (version 4.3) (R Core Team 2023). See Appendix  
360 S1 for details on packages, functions, and tests of assumptions.

361

362 Differences in leaf decomposition rates ( $k$ ) among treatments in the mesocosm experiment  
363 (last week of each flow phase) and feeding trials using Analysis of variance (ANOVA). A  
364 one-way ANOVA was used for the normal and low flow phase and the feeding trials.

365 Moreover, differences among treatments in ergosterol concentrations and decomposition rates  
366 in leaf bags with coarse mesh size, corrected for microbial leaf decomposition ( $k_{\text{invertebrate}}$ ),  
367 were tested separately for each flow phase using one-way ANOVA as described above.

368 Tukey's honest significant differences was used to assess pairwise differences in cases of a  
369 significant ANOVA ( $p < 0.05$ ).

370



371 Linear models were used to assess correlations between  $k_{\text{microbial}}$  and ergosterol concentration  
372 and between  $k_{\text{invertebrate}}$  and shredder abundance, respectively. Ergosterol concentrations from  
373 experimental week 4, integrating the entire experimental period, was selected as time-  
374 integrative representative for the experimental period of each treatment. Ergosterol  
375 concentration had to be log-transformed to reach normal distribution of the residuals.

376

377 We used principal response curves (PRC) to analyse differences among treatments in  
378 temporal developments of freshwater hyphomycete community composition in the stream  
379 channels (Van den Brink & Ter Braak, 1999). The PRC model is based on the first axis of a  
380 principal coordinate analysis using a measure of community similarity to generate species  
381 scores (Oksanen et al., 2018). The PRC analysis provides treatment scores and species  
382 weights, where treatment scores represent community responses to a treatment and species  
383 weights represent species specific responses to treatment patterns in the PRC (Van den Brink  
384 & Ter Braak, 1999). Species weights approximating zero represent no or weak treatment-  
385 related responses, and high negative or positive species weights represent strong negative or  
386 positive treatment-related responses, respectively (Van den Brink & Ter Braak, 1999). We  
387 only show species with species weight scores  $> 0.2$  or  $< -0.2$  (a more conservative score cut  
388 off of 0.5 was proposed by Van den Brink (1999)).

389

390 Since hyphomycete community composition data was comprised by spore production data,  
391 and since spore production potential varies by several orders of magnitude among species  
392 (Bärlocher, 2009), we used Jaccard's dissimilarity based on presence-absence as input data  
393 for the PRC models (please see Appendix S1 for details on the procedure).

394

395 For all PRC models, we used an ANOVA-like permutation test with 999 iterations to test if  
396 the PRC model (first axis of the principal-coordinates model described above) explained a  
397 significant proportion of the variation in community composition among treatments. Separate  
398 PRC models were produced for the normal and low flow phases. In cases of significant PRC  
399 models, we tested the correlation between hyphomycete community composition (PRC  
400 scores) and  $k_{\text{microbial}}$  using a linear model.

401

## 402 3. RESULTS

### 403 3.1 Mesocosm experiment

#### 404 3.1.1 Hyphomycete community structure

405 During the normal-flow phase, aquatic hyphomycete community structure was not  
406 significantly different between the NP treatment and untreated controls (PRC,  $F = 1.66$ ,  $p =$   
407  $0.16$ , Fig. 1A). In contrast, aquatic hyphomycete community structure was significantly  
408 different among treatments during the low-flow phase (PRC,  $F = 3.11$ ,  $p = 0.036$ , Fig. 1B).  
409 Increased fine sediment (FS) cover negatively influenced the presence of all hyphomycete  
410 species with the exception of *Anguillospora crassa* that was more frequently occurring in  
411 treatments with increased fine sediment cover (FS and NP + FS) (Fig. 1B; PRC score  $< 0$ ).  
412 Moreover, the hyphomycetes community composition in the FS treatment strongly deviated  
413 from untreated controls, while a treatment effect was less pronounced at elevated nutrient  
414 concentrations (NP + FS) (Fig. 1B). In fact, the community-based PRC scores indicated that  
415 hyphomycete community structure deviated from untreated controls by a factor of two more  
416 in the FS treatment compared to the NP + FS treatment (Fig. 1B) indicative of an almost  
417 complete absence of hyphomycete species (Appendix S2).

418

#### 419 3.1.2 Fungal biomass

420 Total fungal biomass (ergosterol concentration) generally increased through the normal and  
421 low-flow phases of the mesocosm experiment except in the FS treatment (low flow) (Fig. S4)  
422 in which average ergosterol concentrations remained constantly low (40-50  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  leaf  
423 material (DW)). During the normal and low-flow phases, ergosterol concentrations in NP  
424 treatments and untreated controls increased by 70-100%, whereas ergosterol concentrations  
425 in the NP + FS treatment during low flow only increased by approximately 50% (Fig. S4).  
426 After four weeks, we found a significant treatment effect on ergosterol concentrations under  
427 low flow (one-way ANOVA,  $p = 0.039$ , Fig. S4) but not under normal flow (one-way  
428 ANOVA,  $p = 0.73$ , Fig. S4). Thus, the average ergosterol concentrations were significantly  
429 lower in the FS treatment compared to the NP treatment and untreated controls (Tukey's test,  
430  $p = 0.003$  and  $p < 0.001$ , respectively, Fig. S4) after four weeks of treatment under low flow  
431 conditions.

### 433 *3.1.3 Leaf litter decomposition*

434 During normal flow, we found no significant treatment effect on leaf decomposition rates in  
435 bags with coarse or fine mesh size (one-way ANOVA,  $p = 0.36$  and  $p = 0.34$ , respectively,  
436 Fig. 2A and 2B). During low flow, however, we found significant treatment effects on leaf  
437 decomposition rates in bags with coarse and fine mesh size (one-way ANOVA,  $p = 0.001$  and  
438  $p = 0.0007$ , respectively) (Fig. 2C and 2D). For leaf bags with coarse mesh size, leaf  
439 decomposition rates were significantly reduced in FS and NP+FS treatments compared to  
440 untreated controls (Tukey's test,  $p < 0.05$ , Fig. 2C). For leaf bags with fine mesh size, leaf  
441 decomposition rates were significantly lower in the FS treatment compared to the NP  
442 treatment and untreated controls (Tukey's test,  $p < 0.05$ , Fig. 2D). Notably, when  
443 decomposition rates in leaf bags with coarse mesh size were corrected for microbial induced  
444 decomposition (bags with fine mesh size) to obtain macroinvertebrate induced decomposition

445 ( $k_{\text{invertebrate}}$ ), the treatment effect became insignificant (one-way ANOVA,  $p = 0.10$ , Fig. S5).  
446 Moreover,  $k_{\text{invertebrate}}$  was not significantly correlated to total shredder densities in the stream  
447 channels (Pearson  $r = 0.03$ ,  $p = 0.65$ , data not shown) or abundance of the most dominant  
448 macroinvertebrate shredder, *G. pulex* (Pearson  $r < 0.01$ ,  $p = 0.97$ , Fig. S6)

449

450 Including all leaf bags with fine mesh size across all treatments during low flow, we found a  
451 significant linear relationship between normalised decomposition rates ( $\Delta k_{\text{treatment-control}}$ ) and  
452 hyphomycetes community composition (PRC scores) (Fig. 3,  $r^2 = 0.49$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). In this  
453 context, higher dissimilarities in hyphomycetes community composition between treatments  
454 and untreated controls was correlated with reduced decomposition rates. Moreover,  
455 normalised ergosterol concentrations (treatment:control) were significantly and positively  
456 correlated with normalised decomposition rates (Fig. 3,  $r^2 = 0.57$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

457

### 458 3.2 Microcosm experiment

#### 459 3.2.1 Feeding trials

460 In feeding trials with one leaf disc offered to *G. pulex*, we found significantly different leaf  
461 consumption among treatments (Fig. 4A, one-way ANOVA,  $p = 0.004$ ). Consumption of  
462 leaves from control treatments was significantly higher compared to consumption of  
463 autoclaved beech leaves (sterile) and of leaves from the FS and NP + FS treatments (Fig. 4A,  
464 Tukey's test,  $p < 0.05$ ). Consumption of leaves from the NP treatment was higher compared  
465 to sterile beech leaves and to leaves from the FS and NP + FS treatments, but the differences  
466 were not statistically significant (Tukey's test,  $p > 0.05$ ).

467

468 In feeding trials with paired leaf discs, we found significant treatment effects on the leaf  
469 consumption by *G. pulex* (Fig. 4B, one-way ANOVA,  $p = 0.001$ ). In general, *G. pulex*

470 consumed more leaf material from unconditioned alder and leaf discs from NP, NP + FS, and  
471 control treatments when compared to leaf consumption of sterile beech leaf discs (Fig. 4B).  
472 In contrast, *G. pulex* consumed more leaf material from sterile beech leaf discs compared to  
473 leaf discs from FS treatments (Fig. 4B). Consumption of alder and leaf discs from the NP  
474 treatment were significantly higher compared to leaf discs from the FS treatment (Fig. 4B,  
475 Tukey's test,  $p < 0.01$ ). Moreover, consumption of alder leaf discs was significantly higher  
476 compared to leaf discs from control and NP + FS treatments (Fig. 4B, Tukey's test,  $p < 0.05$ ).  
477

## 478 4. DISCUSSION

### 479 4.1 Mesocosm experiment

#### 480 4.1.1 Hyphomycete community structure

481 Generally, hyphomycete species occurring in control treatments during normal flow also  
482 occurred in control treatments during low flow although supplemented by several additional  
483 species belonging to the genus *Anguillospora* (Fig. 1). Partly contradicting our first  
484 hypothesis, these results suggest that the reduced flow conditions did not influence  
485 community composition of aquatic hyphomycetes compared to normal-flow conditions.  
486 Moreover, all occurring hyphomycete species in control treatments of the normal and low-  
487 flow phases have been characterised as generalists with no particular sensitivity or tolerance  
488 towards critical low-flow episodes (Arias-Real et al., 2023). However, the relatively short  
489 experimental period may have acted as temporal filter, generally favouring generalist  
490 colonisers.

491

492 During low-flow, increased fine sediment cover governed significant changes in  
493 hyphomycete community composition generally reducing occurrence frequencies of all but  
494 one species (*Anguillospora crassa*). Partly confirming our first hypothesis, these results

495 suggest that fine sediment deposition might have inhibited colonisation and/or growth of  
496 hyphomycetes. However, since the community composition data was produced based on  
497 forced sporulation, these results should be interpreted with care. The observed differences in  
498 community composition may originate from reduced oxygen availability beneath the  
499 deposited fine sediment directly impeding colonisation and growth, but other factors such as  
500 reduced surface area available for colonisation or modified leaf surface characteristics may  
501 have influenced colonisation or sporulation activity of the hyphomycetes. However, we  
502 observed several black patches on leaf material in treatments with increased fine sediment  
503 cover which is indicative of hydrogen sulphide and thus local anoxic conditions beneath the  
504 deposited fine sediment. Supporting our results, the single hyphomycete species with  
505 increased occurrence frequency in treatments with increased fine sediment cover (*A. crassa*)  
506 has been previously characterised as tolerant to burial within the hyporheic zone (Arias-Real  
507 et al., 2023; Cornut et al., 2012).

508  
509 In general, colonisation and growth of microbial decomposers on buried leaf litter strongly  
510 depends on the flow of oxygen-rich water in remaining interstitial spaces. When interstitial  
511 flow can provide sufficient oxygen and nutrients, the structure and growth of microbial  
512 decomposer communities can be relatively unaltered compared to unexposed communities  
513 (Cornut et al., 2012; Danger et al., 2012). However, even small reductions in oxygen  
514 concentrations in interstitial water can impede colonisation and growth of freshwater fungi  
515 (Bruder et al., 2016; Cornut et al., 2010; Medeiros et al., 2009) or change microbial  
516 decomposer communities towards dominance of terrestrial endophytes (Mustonen et al.,  
517 2016). Consequently, fine organic sediments commonly deposited in agricultural and urban  
518 streams (Paul & Meyer, 2001; Wagenhoff et al., 2011) and similar to the fine sediments

519 applied in our study, may have substantial effects on microbial decomposer communities  
520 mediated through interstitial water with poor oxygen conditions (Bollinger et al., 2022).

521

#### 522 *4.1.2 Fungal biomass*

523 In contrast to our second hypothesis, ergosterol concentrations (serving as proxy for fungal  
524 biomass) increased through the experiment in control treatments of both normal and low-flow  
525 conditions reaching approximately  $150 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  showing no clear effect of flow reduction.  
526 Partly confirming our second hypothesis, however, ergosterol concentrations remained at  
527 approximately  $50 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  throughout the low flow phase when exposed to fine sediment  
528 deposition, which was significantly lower than in the controls. This result further suggests  
529 that hyphomycete colonisation and/or growth was reduced by fine sediment deposition  
530 probably due to insufficient interstitial flow and oxygen supply beneath the deposited fine  
531 sediment. Several studies support that biomass accrual or respiration for microbial  
532 decomposers is reduced when buried in stream sediments (e.g., Bruder et al., 2016; Cornut et  
533 al., 2010; Medeiros et al., 2009; Piggott, Niyogi, et al., 2015). However, burial in stream  
534 sediments does not necessarily impede fungal growth when interstitial flow and oxygen  
535 supply is sufficient to support metabolic requirements (Bollinger et al., 2022; Cornut et al.,  
536 2012; Danger et al., 2012).

537

538 Elevated nutrient concentrations did not significantly increase ergosterol concentrations  
539 during normal or low-flow conditions. Partly confirming our third hypothesis, however,  
540 elevated nutrient concentrations reduced (although not significantly) negative effects of  
541 increased fine sediment cover on fungal biomass. Similar trends were found for the  
542 hyphomycete community composition with reduced occurrence frequency of most  
543 hyphomycete species in treatments with increased fine sediment cover. These results

544 congruently suggest that moderately elevated nutrient concentrations to limited extent can  
545 reduce negative effects of increased fine sediment cover on hyphomycete communities.  
546 Stimulating effects of elevated nutrient concentrations on hyphomycete growth has, however,  
547 been consistently confirmed in numerous controlled experimental studies (Bruder et al.,  
548 2016; Ferreira et al., 2015; Ferreira & Graca, 2016; Piggott, Niyogi, et al., 2015) and in the  
549 field (Gulis et al., 2006; Noel et al., 2016; Robinson & Gessner, 2000). Based on a meta-  
550 analysis from Woodward et al. (2012), we propose that nutrient concentrations in our control  
551 treatments probably provided optimal conditions for hyphomycete growth. Consequently, if  
552 untreated controls provided optimal growth conditions, this would plausibly explain why  
553 further elevated nutrient concentrations did not govern significantly increased fungal biomass  
554 production.

555

#### 556 *4.1.3 Leaf litter decomposition*

557 Microbial leaf litter decomposition was significantly different among treatments during low-  
558 flow but not during normal-flow conditions. During low-flow, increased fine sediment cover  
559 significantly reduced microbial leaf litter decomposition compared to controls, and elevated  
560 nutrient concentrations only partially mitigated this effect. These results mirror the treatment  
561 effects on ergosterol concentrations suggesting that higher fungal biomass governed higher  
562 microbial leaf litter decomposition rates. This is fully in line with our fourth hypothesis and  
563 numerous existing studies (e.g., Feckler & Bundschuh, 2020; Ferreira et al., 2015; Gessner &  
564 Chauvet, 1994; Mustonen et al., 2016; Noel et al., 2016).

565

566 Leaf litter decomposition in leaf bags with coarse mesh size was significantly different  
567 among treatments during low-flow but not during normal-flow conditions. During low-flow,  
568 increased fine sediment cover significantly reduced decomposition rates, even in the presence



569 of elevated nutrient concentrations. However, macroinvertebrate induced leaf litter  
570 decomposition was not significantly different among treatments during low-flow conditions.  
571 Instead, and confirming our fifth hypothesis, macroinvertebrate mediated decomposition in  
572 individual stream channels significantly increased with increasing average ergosterol  
573 concentrations and with resemblance of the hyphomycete community composition to  
574 untreated controls (Fig. 3). These results probably reflect a combination of increased  
575 nutritional value and palatability of the leaf material due to increased fungal biomass, and  
576 macroinvertebrate shredder preference for specific hyphomycete species.

577

#### 578 *4.2 Microcosm experiment*

##### 579 *4.2.1 Feeding trials*

580 Confirming our sixth hypothesis, when offered single leaf discs from stream channel  
581 treatments, or a sterile beech leaf disc, leaf litter consumption by *G. pulex* was consistent with  
582 observed differences in leaf litter decomposition in the stream channels. Leaf litter  
583 consumption by *G. pulex* was significantly reduced, and to similar extent, for leaf discs from  
584 fine sediment treatments and for sterile leaf discs when compared to controls (Fig. 4). In  
585 other words, *G. pulex* foraged less on leaf discs with lower nutritional value. Since no  
586 alternative food sources were available, this suggests that *G. pulex* probably minimised  
587 activity levels to reduce metabolic requirements (sensu the scope for growth concept (Naylor  
588 et al., 1989)). This is further supported by Graca et al. (1993) who found that *G. pulex* could  
589 maintain their growth rates when feeding on unconditioned leaf material, and the authors  
590 suggested that *G. pulex* can reduce metabolic costs allocated to body maintenance when fed  
591 on low quality food sources.

592

593 In contrast to the seventh hypothesis, *G. pulex* did not consistently prefer feeding on leaf  
594 discs from the low-flow stream channel treatments over sterile beech leaf discs. Instead, *G.*  
595 *pulex* consumed more sterile leaf material when the alternative food source was leaf material  
596 from the treatment with increased fine sediment cover (FS). However, leaf discs from stream  
597 channels with increased fine sediment cover and elevated nutrient concentrations (NP + FS)  
598 were preferred over sterile leaf discs. Since fungal biomass more or less remained at constant  
599 low levels on leaf material from the treatment with deposited fine sediment, the nutritional  
600 value (C:N:P ratio) was probably comparable to sterile leaf discs. This indicates a repelling  
601 effect of leaf material from the treatment with increased fine sediment cover on *G. pulex*.  
602 Such repelling effects could originate from specific hyphomycete species (e.g., *A. crassa*)  
603 occurring in the treatment with increased fine sediment cover or from bacterial communities  
604 established under partly anaerobic conditions (e.g., hydrogen sulphide producing species), but  
605 this remains unexplored in existing literature.

606

## 607 5. CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

608 In this study, we showed that increased fine sediment cover can alter the flux of energy and  
609 material in the detrital food chain through bottom-up regulation of leaf conditioning by  
610 fungal decomposers. The observed reduction in biomass and occurrence frequencies of most  
611 species of fungal decomposers in treatments with fine sediment deposition prompted a  
612 substantial change in food preference by macroinvertebrate shredders where *G. pulex* even  
613 preferred sterile leaf material over leaf material from the fine sediment treatments.

614

615 Freshwater fungi, typically accounting for > 90% of the microbial biomass of submerged leaf  
616 material (Baldy et al., 1995; Marks, 2019), produce extracellular enzymes to break down  
617 complex compounds and contain essential nutrients for macroinvertebrate shredders that are

618 not found in the leaf material (Marks, 2019). In addition, mycelia of freshwater fungi that  
619 penetrate the leaf material can serve as vector for colonising bacteria into otherwise  
620 inaccessible leaf tissue (Gessner & Chauvet, 1994). As such, the absence of fungi on leaf  
621 material likely has detrimental consequences for detrital stream food webs causing increased  
622 C:N:P ratios of the leaf material and absence of essential nutrients available for  
623 macroinvertebrate shredders. This may further propagate into reduced growth and  
624 reproduction of the shredders (Abelho, 2001).

625

626 Faster decomposition of leaf material does not necessarily equal increased ecosystem health,  
627 however (Marks, 2019; Woodward et al., 2012). A broader suite of different leaf species with  
628 different elemental composition and associated decomposition rates can ensure that palatable  
629 and nutritious leaf material is available for decomposers for longer windows of time. In this  
630 context, well oxygenated hyporheic zones plays an important role in the prolongation of these  
631 temporal windows (Marks, 2019). Conversely, fine sediment deposition can lead to anoxic  
632 hyporheic zones converting deposited leaf material from nutritional sources to sinks (Marks,  
633 2019) and partly obstructing microbial conditioning and general energy flux within the  
634 detrital food chain.

635

636 CRediT Author Contribution Statement

637 **Jes J Rasmussen:** Writing – original draft, Conceptualisation, Formal analysis, Investigation,  
638 Methodology, Supervision. **Mirco Bundschuh:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation.

639 **Tinna Mia Jensen:** Writing – review & editing, Investigation. **Peter Wiberg-Larsen:**

640 Writing - review & editing, Methodology, Investig (Placeholder1)ation. **Annette Baattrup-**

641 **Pedersen:** Writing - review & editing, Conceptualisation, Project administration,

642 Supervision. **Nikolai Friberg:** Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition, Project

643 administration. **Daniel Gräber:** Writing – original draft, Conceptualisation, Project  
644 administration, Supervision, Investigation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Visualisation.

645

646 Data availability statement

647 All R codes and data are available in the following open repository under the BSD-3 clause

648 license (code) or the license of the journal (data): <https://git.ufz.de/graeber/leaf-litter->

649 [degradation-mesocosm-microcosm](https://git.ufz.de/graeber/leaf-litter-degradation-mesocosm-microcosm)

650

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659

660

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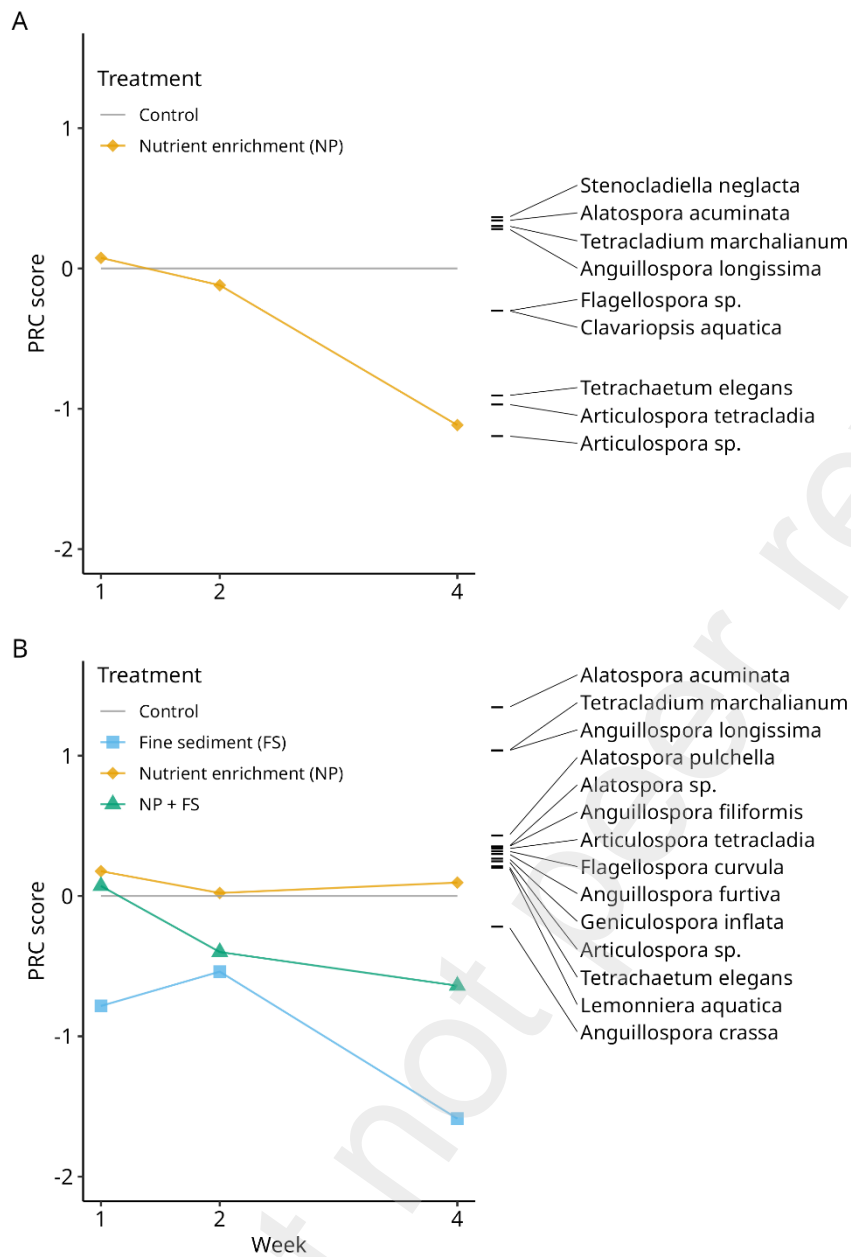
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883 Fig. 1. Principal response curves (PRC) of hyphomycete community composition affiliated

884 with leaf material in leaf bags with fine mesh size. Hyphomycete communities were

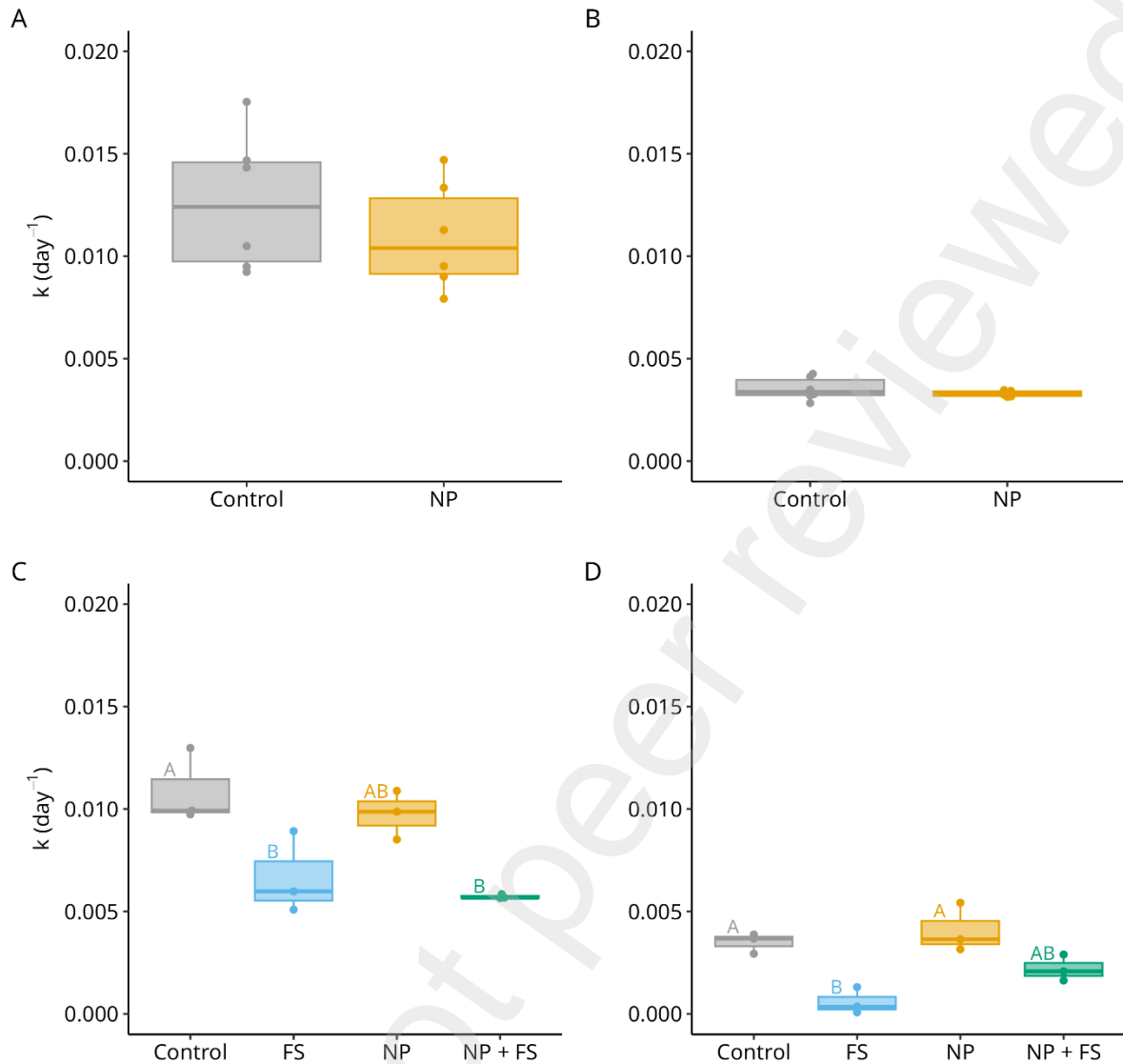
885 characterised on experimental weeks 1, 2, and 4 during normal (A) and low (B) flow. The

886 PRC curves represent treatments with increased nutrient concentrations (NP), increased fine

887 sediment cover (FS), increased nutrient concentrations and fine sediment cover (NP + FS),

888 and untreated controls.

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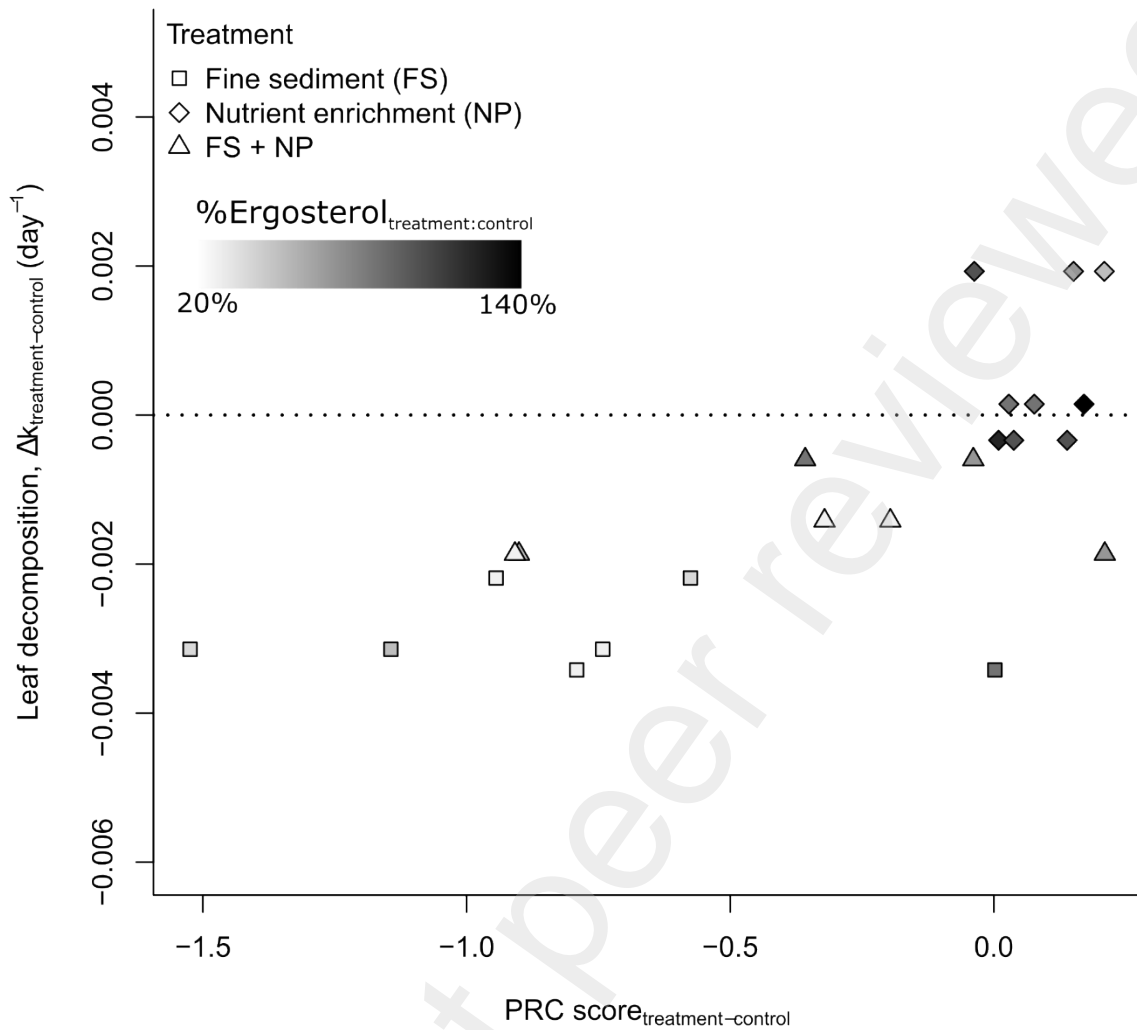


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891 Fig 2. Decomposition rates ( $k$ ) of beech leaves in bags with coarse (A and C) and fine (B and  
 892 D) mesh size, respectively. The box plot shows decomposition rates during normal (A and B)  
 893 and low flow conditions (C and D) with treatments of increased nutrient concentrations (NP),  
 894 increased fine sediment cover (FS), increased nutrient concentrations and fine sediment cover  
 895 (NP + FS), and untreated controls. Capital letters indicate significantly different leaf  
 896 decomposition rates ( $p < 0.05$ ). Bold lines indicate median values, upper and lower box edges  
 897 represent 25 and 75 percentiles, respectively, and error bars indicate 95% confidence limits.

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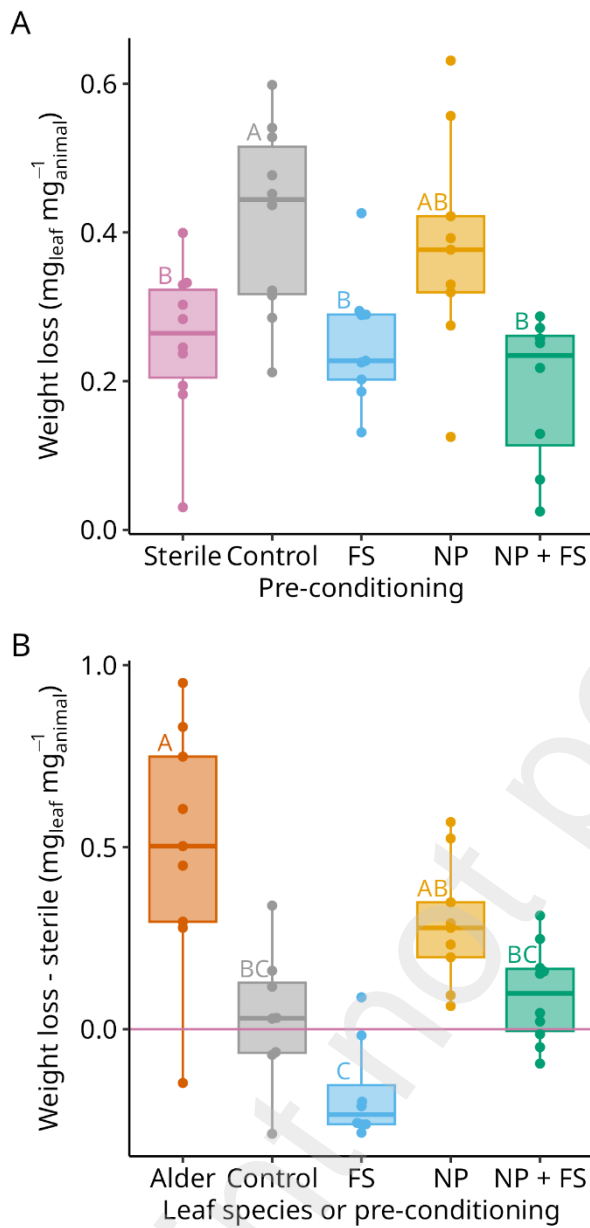
900

901 Fig. 3. Normalised leaf decomposition rates ( $k$ ) in leaf bags with fine mesh size as function of  
 902 normalised PRC scores for the hyphomycete communities. Normalised leaf decomposition  
 903 rates and PRC scores represent differences between untreated controls and NP, FS, and  
 904 NP+FS treatments, respectively. Relative ergosterol concentrations (normalised to untreated  
 905 controls) for the respective leaf bags are depicted using a colour gradient. All data points  
 906 represent leaf bags collected after experimental week 4 in the low flow phase.



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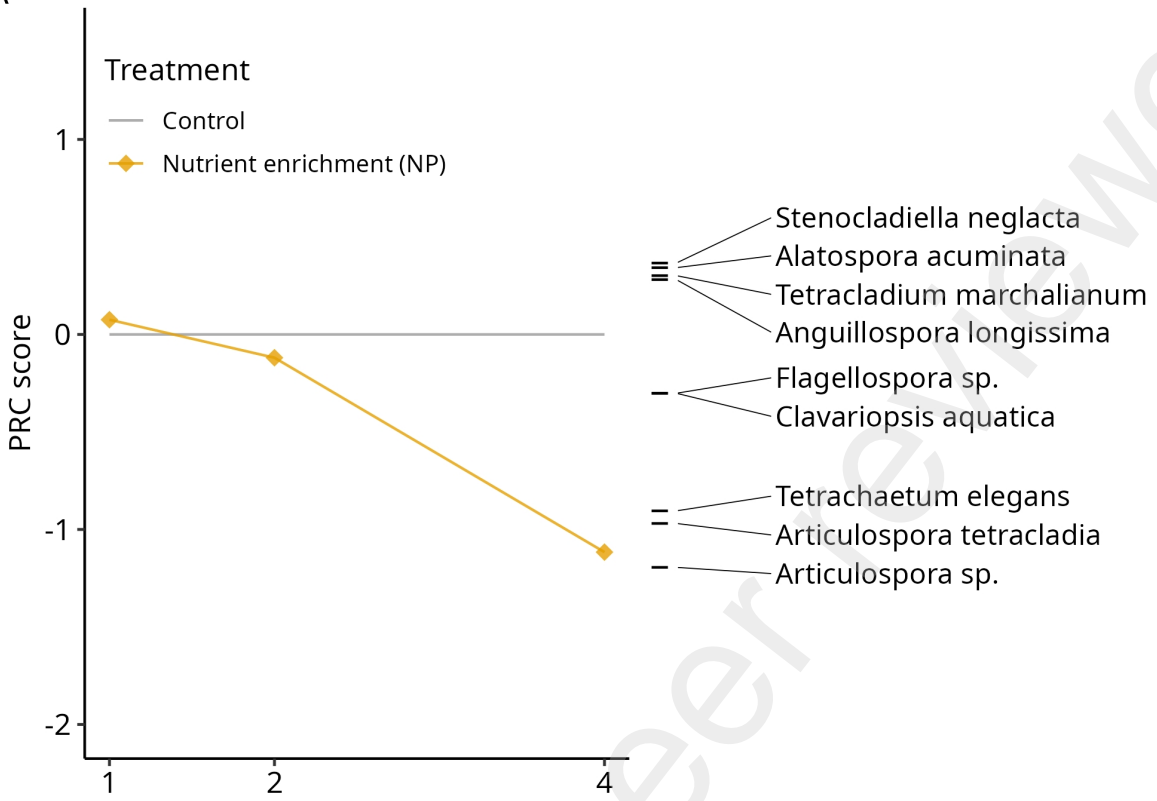
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910 Fig. 4. Weight loss of leaf discs due to *G. pulex* leaf consumption. Leaf discs originating from  
911 experimental treatments were offered to *G. pulex* as the only food source (A) or in paired  
912 combination with a sterile beech leaf disc (B). Weight loss from leaf disc pairs is presented as  
913 the difference between treatment and sterile leaf discs. Hence, negative values indicate higher  
914 consumption of sterile leaf discs compared to treatment leaf discs. Experimental treatments  
915 include increased nutrient concentrations (NP), increased fine sediment cover (FS), increased

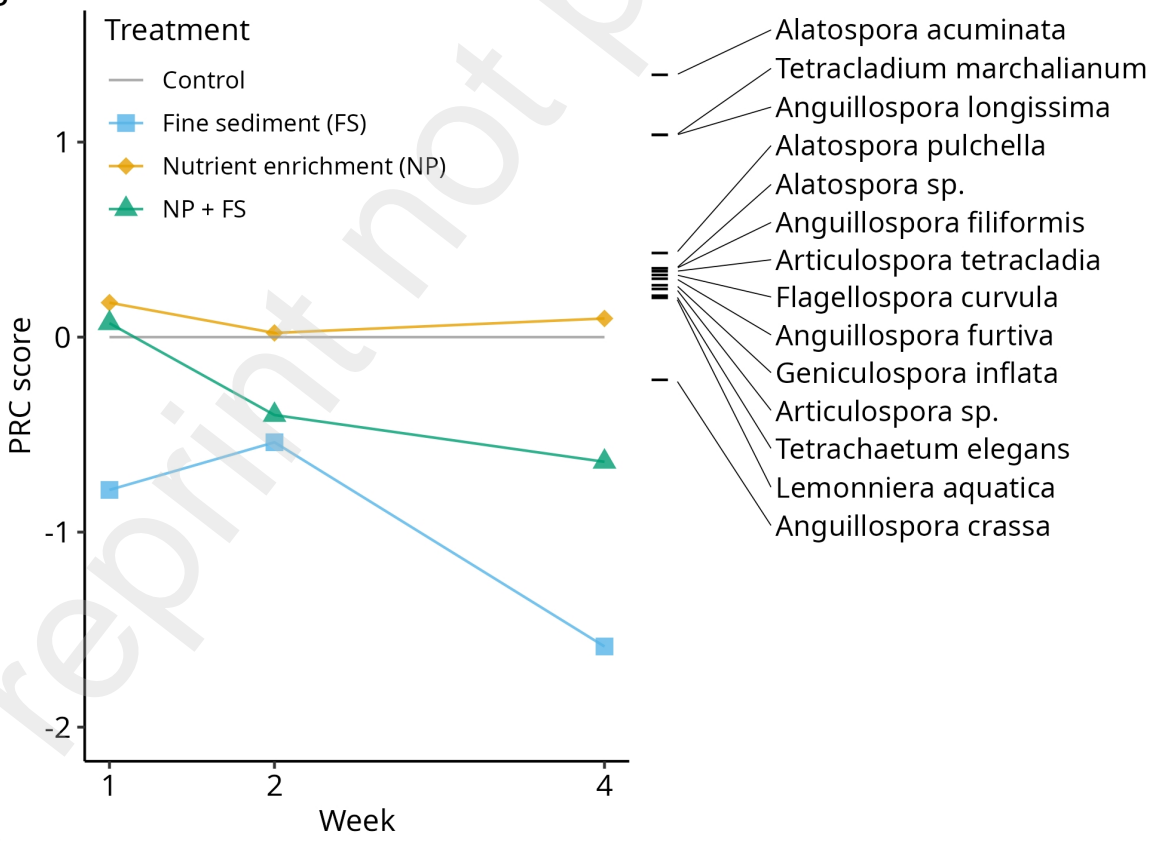
916 nutrient concentrations and fine sediment cover (NP + FS), and untreated controls. The leaf  
917 material was retrieved after 4 experimental weeks in the low flow phase. Capital letters  
918 indicate significantly different leaf decomposition rates ( $p < 0.05$ ).

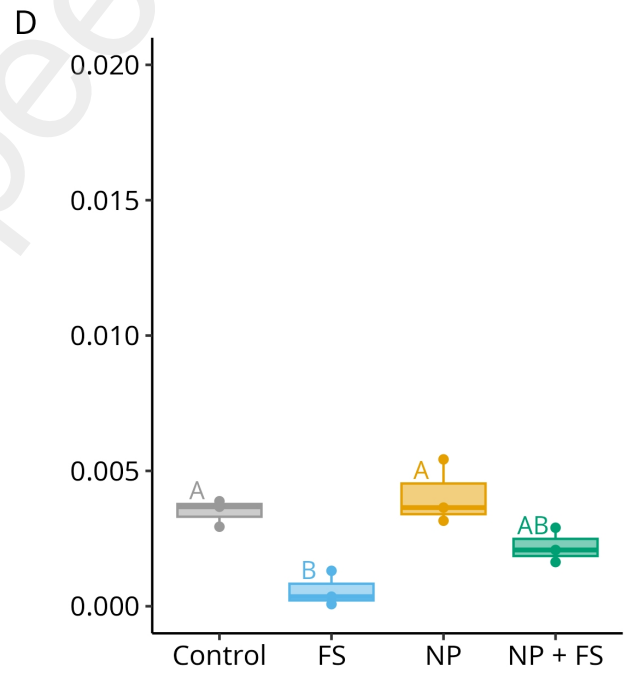
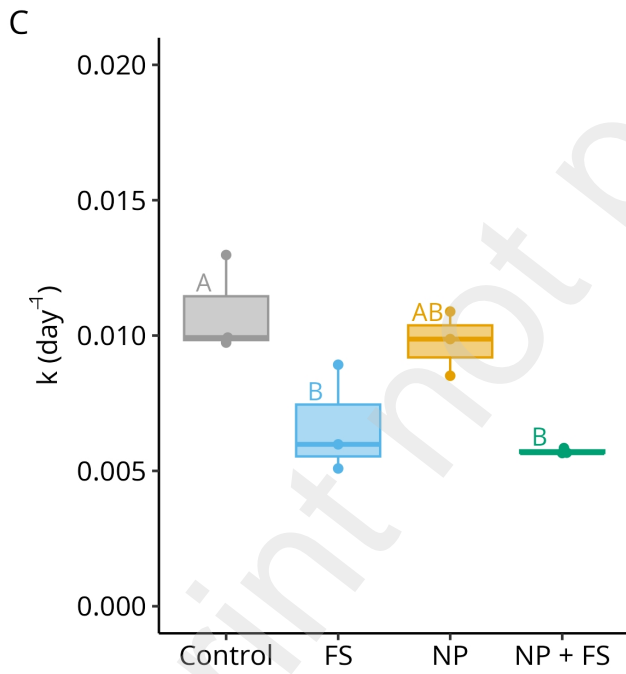
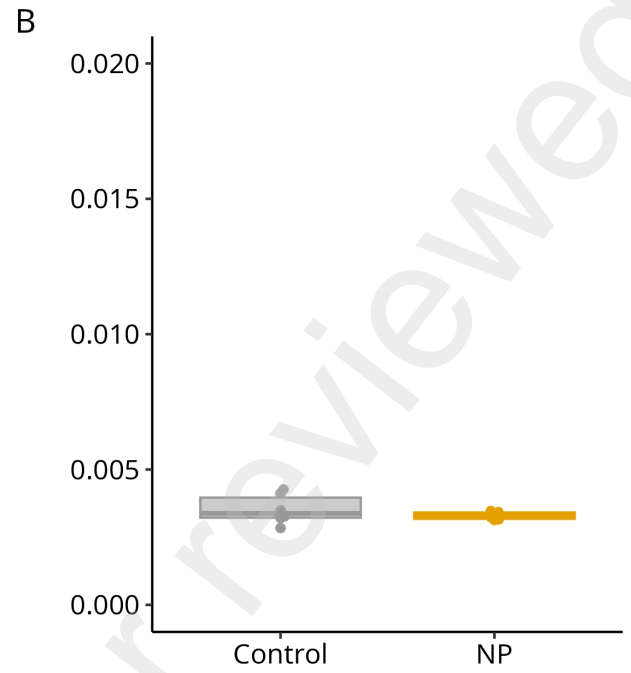
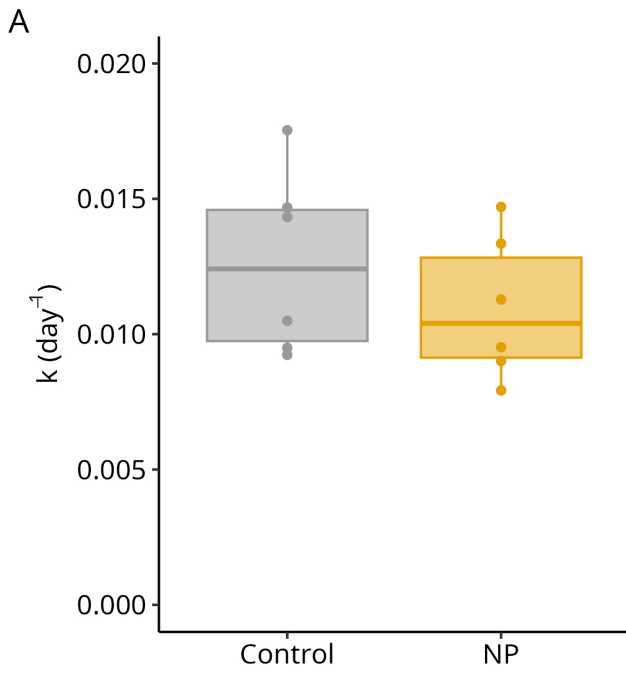
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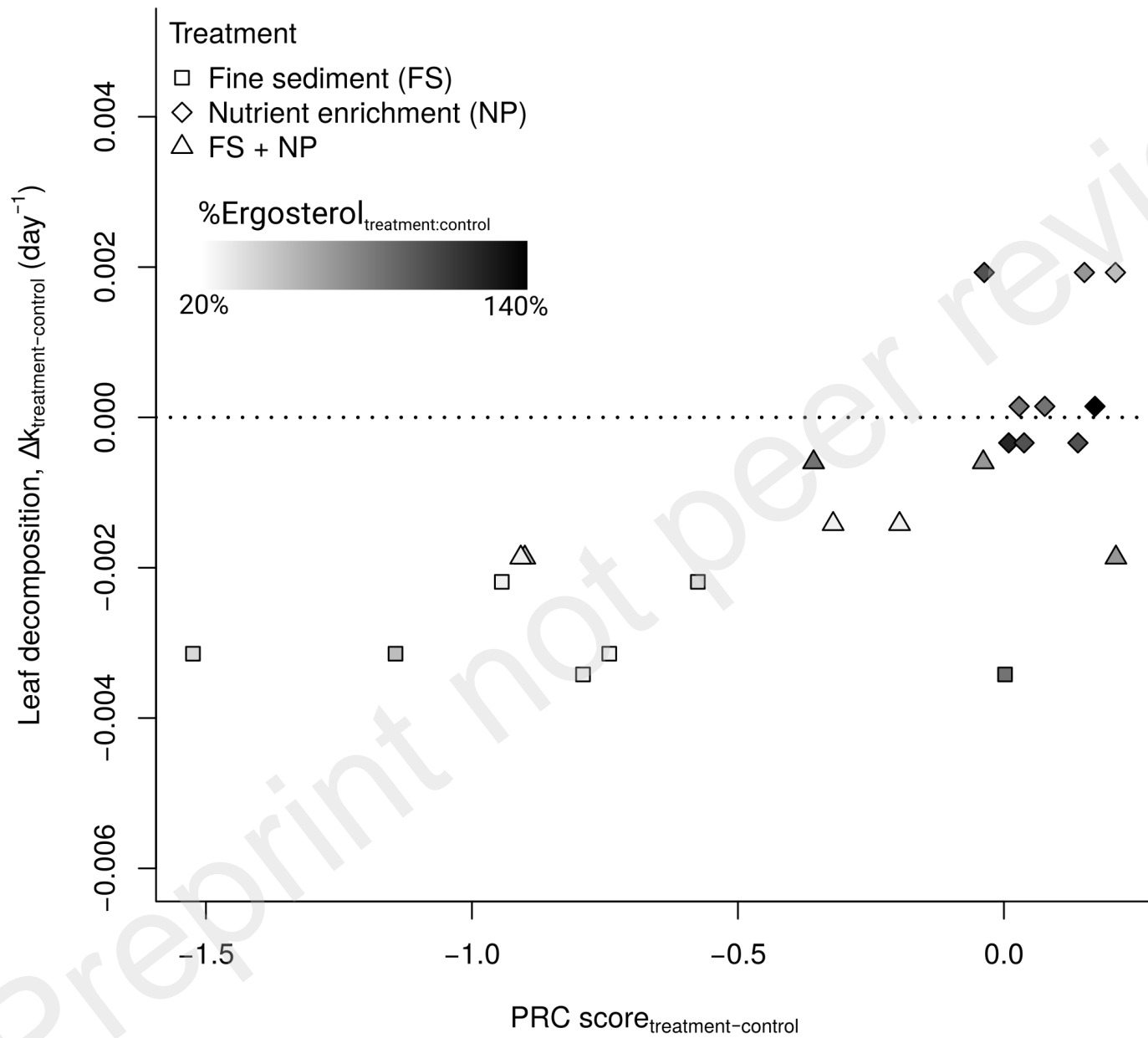
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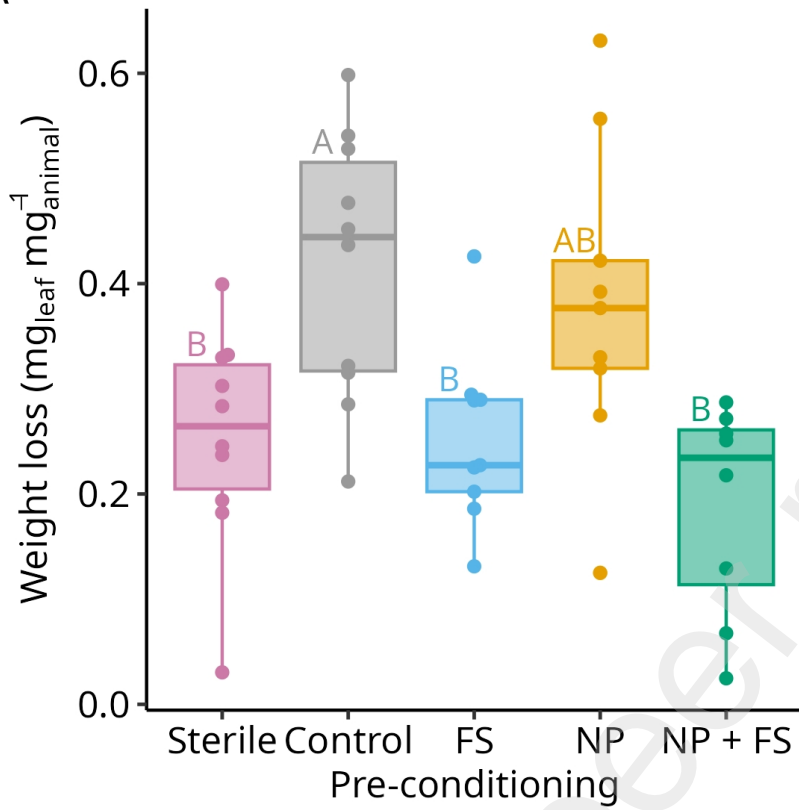
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B

