

1 Structure of past and present food webs from a semiarid wetland subjected
2 to species invasion and environmental degradation

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18 **Abstract**

19 Species invasion and habitat degradation very often result in local species loss, which may
20 result in a cascade of secondary extinctions that typically end up disrupting whole ecological
21 networks. Herein, we used historical records and the natural abundance of stable isotopes
22 (^{13}C and ^{15}N) of primary producers, aquatic animals and sediment/detritus to derive the past
23 and present structure of food webs from the freshwater wetland “Las Tablas de Daimiel”, in
24 central Spain. Before the green revolution and agricultural transformation of the area, this
25 wetland was characterised by a high biodiversity of basal species, including primary consum-
26 ers such as bivalves and gastropods, which are currently absent or very scarce. Our results
27 demonstrate that the increase of anthropogenic disturbances, exotic species and changes in
28 primary productivity of this wetland is affecting the biodiversity at all trophic levels (mainly
29 herbivorous fish) but not the length of the food chain, which we estimated between 3.9 and
30 4.4 trophic levels. Using the mixing models, we showed that macrophytes represent an im-
31 portant contribution of matter and energy to higher trophic levels. Our model also suggested
32 that a currently expanding, allochthonous halophytic tree (*Tamarix canariensis*) may be the
33 main energy source for two species of commonly found butterflies (*Pieris rapae* and *Rho-*
34 *dometra sacraria*) as well as for invertebrates, while the macrophyte *Thypha dominguensis*
35 was the main diet source for the exotic crayfish *Procambarus clarkii*, which occupies the
36 niche left by the native crayfish. Our work demonstrates the importance of taking a whole-
37 systems approach to characterize the magnitude of human impacts on the functioning of wet-
38 land ecosystems.

39

40 **Keywords:** Tablas de Daimiel; Food web; SISUS; *Procambarus clarkii*; *Tamarix canar-*
41 *iensis*; Species invasion; Habitat degradation

42 **Introduction**

43 Species invasion and habitat degradation of wetlands, including water eutrophication, often
44 cause an initial loss of local species that can result in a cascade of secondary extinctions, thus
45 generating considerable challenges to conservation efforts (Sahasrabudhe and Motter, 2011).
46 Although it is well established that nutrient enrichment and species invasion typically de-
47 crease diversity within and across trophic levels (Guy et al., 2012; Post, 2002; Sahasrabudhe
48 and Motter, 2011; Schindler and Scheuerell, 2002; Vander Zanden et al., 1999), only a few
49 studies have sought to assemble complete food webs in ecosystems that have historically
50 been simultaneously subjected to multiple anthropogenic stressors and where both alien and
51 native species currently coexist (Costanzo et al., 2005; Gartner et al., 2002; Spies et al.,
52 1989). Studies related to the impacts of allochthonous species in wetlands usually report dra-
53 matic effects on the size, structure and species diversity of food webs, very often causing a
54 loss of connectivity between native species (Demopoulos et al., 2007; Ings et al., 2009;
55 Nilsson et al., 2012; Rennie et al., 2009; Woodward et al., 2008). However, other studies re-
56 port no alteration in the length of the food chain under disturbance (Marks et al., 2000;
57 McHugh et al., 2010; Pimm and Kitching, 1987; Walters and Post, 2008). In this context,
58 natural abundance of stable isotopes from current living and non-living samples, coupled
59 with information obtained from historical records, can be used to track changes in the struc-
60 ture of the food webs of ecosystems exposed to the simultaneous effects of eutrophication
61 and invasion by allochthonous species (Brauns et al., 2011).

62 The National Park Tablas de Daimiel (NPTD) is one of the few relict floodplain wet-
63 land of the Iberian Peninsula. However, it has been subjected to numerous environmental
64 pressures during the last 50 years, including drainage, sewerage, flooded area reduction, pol-
65 lution (mainly organic) and the introduction of exotic species, many of them introduced on
66 purpose for commercial reasons (Castaño et al., 2018). Although its biodiversity and the po-

67 tential causes of its reduction in the NPTD have been the subject of numerous studies
68 (Alvarez-Cobelas et al., 2001; Feilhauer et al., 2018), there is no previous study about the
69 structure of food webs and the effects of environmental degradation, including those derived
70 from exotic species and eutrophication, on this emblematic wetland. However, based on his-
71 torical information, it has been suggested that fifty years ago the wetland must have had a
72 very complex trophic structure that included, besides the European crayfish *Austropotamobi-*
73 *us pallipes*, up to ten endemic species of fish, all disappeared today due to widespread degra-
74 dation of the wetland (Alonso et al., 2000). Therefore, stablishing how the structure of the
75 food web and the links within and between trophic levels have changed over time is key to
76 the development of adequate conservation, mitigation and, eventually, restoration strategies.

77 There are many matter and energy sources that can potentially contribute to different
78 consumers in the food web. The use of natural abundances of the stable isotopes ^{13}C and ^{15}N
79 in organisms of a given ecosystem is useful to establish the range of possible contributions of
80 each source (isotope mixing; (Galván et al., 2011). Since food webs are overly complex to
81 solve due to multiple dietary sources (Layman et al., 2007), different mixing models have
82 been designed for situations in which n isotopes can be used to determine the range of contri-
83 bution of a mixture of $n + 1$ sources (Phillips and Gregg, 2003). These models are limited by
84 isotopic mass balances (Phillips, 2001) and the absence of a unique solution for each case
85 (Benstead et al., 2006). However, Bayesian mixing models have allowed the incorporation of
86 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ - $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures of multiple diets to generate potential solutions through probability
87 distributions (Holtgrieve et al., 2010; Solomon et al., 2011). For example, SISUS (Stable Iso-
88 tope Sourcing Using Sampling; Erhardt *et al.* 2014) is a mixing model based on Bayesian
89 statistics that has been developed to estimate the proportional contributions from different
90 sources to a mixture using stable isotope data (Erhardt and Bedrick, 2013), allowing many

91 exact solutions, unlike other probabilistic models such as the deterministic mixture IsoSource
92 (Phillips and Gregg, 2003), which yields only approximations.

93 In this study, we aimed to determine the past and present configuration of the food
94 web in Las Tablas de Daimiel. For this, we used historical sources and stable isotopes (^{13}C
95 and ^{15}N) of the main consumer species that are currently present in the ecosystem. We also
96 assessed the most important structural and functional changes, including the trophic effects of
97 introduced exotic species.

98

99 **Material and methods**

100 *2.1. Study site*

101 The study was conducted at the NPTD (39 ° 08'N, 3 ° 43'W), in the semiarid portion of cen-
102 tral Spain. The representative species of the local flora restricted to coastal areas are emerging
103 aquatic macrophytes such as the European sedge (*Cladium mariscus*), reed (*Phragmites aus-*
104 *tralis*) and cattail (*Typha dominguensis*) (Alvarez-Cobelas and Cirujano, 1996), along with
105 other species such as *Scirpus maritimus* and *Potamogeton pectinatus*, as well as submerged
106 macrophytes such as charophytes (*Chara* sp.). In addition to the common carp (*Cyprinus*
107 *carpio*), the local wildlife is represented exclusively by exotic species such as the American
108 crayfish (*Procambarus clarkii*), bluegill (*Lepomis gibbosus*), mosquitofish (*Gambusia*
109 *holbrookii*) and catfish (*Ameirus melas*).

110

111 **2.2. Sampling**

112 To examine the structure and composition of the food web of NPTD, we focused on the dom-
113 inant taxa from all trophic levels. We considered all potential sources of energy in the wet-
114 land, including detritus/sediment, dissolved organic matter (DOC), particulate organic matter
115 (POC), and primary producers (phytoplankton, epiphyton, filamentous algae, seaweed, aquat-

116 ic and terrestrial vegetation). We also considered microbial mats (i.e., benthic communities
117 composed of different layers of photosynthetic prokaryotes and eukaryotes, such as filamen-
118 tous and unicellular cyanobacteria and diatoms). The microbial mats were included due to
119 their key role in primary production and decomposition of organic matter (Goldsborough and
120 Robinson, 1996). Benthic macroinvertebrates and zooplankton were considered as primary
121 consumers, whereas crabs, fish and waterfowl were considered higher level consumers.
122 Winged insects were also included to assess their contribution and importance in the food
123 web. In the NPTD, no bivalve mollusks have been present since the mid-1970 (there are re-
124 mains of shells of freshwater mussel *Unio* sp.), and during this study there were none ob-
125 served in the substrate.

126

127 **2.2.1. Collection of consumer organisms**

128 The collection and preparation of samples of sediment/detritus, primary producers, zooplank-
129 ton and benthic macroinvertebrates was performed as follows: different species of winged
130 adult insects were collected in the vegetation, air (<2 m above the ground surface) and nests
131 in twelve random points along the wetland during June 2011. The sampled insects were iden-
132 tified to genus level and, when possible, to species level. The collection of secondary con-
133 sumers was conducted using different techniques. Fish and crabs were caught using gillnets
134 (light path of 8 cm) and pots (1.5, 2.5, 4, 7 and 10 cm mouth opening) at five and ten loca-
135 tions in the wetland, respectively. Smaller fish (*G. holbrookii* and catfish) were caught using
136 landing nets in wetland areas where they were present (Morenillo and Tablazo, mainly). For
137 isotopic analysis, 5-10 specimens of each species from each sampling site were frozen until
138 further preparation.

139 Samples of waterfowl were provided by the Toxicology Wildlife Research Institute of
140 Hunting Resources (IREC-CSIC) and were collected post-mortem in the wetland and its sur-

141 roundings during the spring and summer of 2011. Muscle tissue from the specimens were
142 taken, packaged and frozen in liquid N immediately after collection in the field. Waterfowl
143 were represented by stilt (*Himantopus himantopus*), black-headed gull (*Larus ridibundus*),
144 yellow gull (*Larus* sp.), coot (*Fulica atra*), white-headed duck (*Oxyura leucocephala*), shov-
145 eler (*Anas clypeata*), mallard frieze (*Anas strepera*) and cattle egret (*Bubulcus ibis*). Since the
146 specimens were exclusively collected post-mortem, we could not obtain samples from all
147 species of waterfowl present in the wetland.

148 Filamentous algae were represented mainly by *Cladophora glomerata*, *Spirogyra* sp.
149 and *Vaucheria dichotoma* (Aboal et al., 1996); charophytes consisted of the species *Chara*
150 *hispidata* var. *major*; microbial mats were mostly formed by the cyanobacteria *Schizothrix pen-*
151 *icillata* (Barón, 2011); the epiphyton was represented mainly by *Pseudonabaena catenata*, *P.*
152 *tenuis*, *Fragilaria acus*, *Nitzschia cf. capitelata* and *Navicula venta* and phytoplankton spe-
153 cies *Cyclotella meneghiniana*, *Cryptomonas erosa*, *Rhodomonas bill* and *Monoraphidium*
154 *griffithii* (Rojo and Rodrigo, 2010). The vegetation was represented by two species of vascu-
155 lar submerged macrophytes (*Potamogeton pectinatus* and *Ceratophyllum submersum*), four
156 species of emergent macrophytes (*Cladium mariscus*, *Phragmites australis*, *Typha*
157 *dominguensis* and *Scirpus maritimus*) and *Tamarix canariensis* as the dominant tree species.

158 Primary consumers consisted of zooplankton (rotifers and ciliates, mainly; Rojo &
159 Rodrigo 2010), benthic macroinvertebrates (one Odonata [*Crocothemis erythraea*] larvae),
160 one Heteroptera [*Naucoris maculatus* larvae] and one Diptera [*Chironomus* sp.] larvae), sev-
161 en species of winged insects, including Lepidoptera (*Leptotes pirithous*, *Pieris rapae*, *Poly-*
162 *ommatus icarus*, *Maniola jurtina*, *Pontia daplidice*, *Colias crocea*, *Rhodometra sacraria*),
163 two species of Odonata (*Lestes* sp. and *Sympetrum* sp.), one crustacean decapod (*Procamba-*
164 *rus clarkii*) and four species of fish (*Ameirus melas*, *Cyprinus carpio*, pumpkinseed and east-
165 ern mosquitofish). In some areas of the NPTD, we were also able to capture both juvenils and

166 adults of *A. melas*. To perform isotopic analysis, *G. holbrookii* individuals were separated by
167 size (1.5-3 mm, 3.1-4 mm and > 4.5 mm). Individuals of *P. clarkii* were separated between
168 females and males. At each sampling location individuals of each species of fish and crabs
169 were measured and weighed (Table 1).

170

171 **2.3 Sample preparation and analysis**

172 Prior to isotopic analysis, all samples were treated following the procedures cited in Lewis *et*
173 *al.* (2001), Parkyn *et al.* (2001) and (Oreilly *et al.*, 2002). We removed insect heads and ex-
174 tremities (Gratton and Denno, 2006; Gratton and E Forbes, 2006) Whenever there was
175 enough biomass available, a composite sample was prepared combining 3-7 individuals of
176 the same species for each capture site. Since the main limitation of the analysis was obtaining
177 enough material for isotopic analysis (0.5 to 1 mg dry mass), those less abundant insect spe-
178 cies whose presence was sporadic at any given sampling site had to be analysed together with
179 a sample composed of several individuals, combining sites that were closer to one another. In
180 samples of fish and crabs, muscle tissue was extracted by removing the viscera and digestive
181 tract. Muscle tissue lipids were removed from all samples with a solution of chloroform:
182 methanol (2: 1), following the procedures described in Hobson and Welch (1992), Murry *et*
183 *al.*, (2006) and Logan & Lutcavage (2008). Subsequently, all samples were washed with dis-
184 tilled water and oven-dried at 60 °C (insects) and 80 °C (crabs, fish and birds) for 24 to 48
185 hours. Once dried, samples were crushed with a grinder, pulverized in an agate mortar and
186 finally sieved through a 1-mm mesh. Finally, all samples were stored in sealed plastic con-
187 tainers (ependorf type) for shipment to the stable isotope laboratory.

188

189 **2.4 Stable isotope analysis**

190 The analysis of stable isotopes ^{13}C and ^{15}N were carried out at the Environmental Isotope
191 Laboratory of the University of Arizona, United States
192 (<http://www.geo.arizona.edu/node/153>) using a continuous flow isotope ratio mass spectrom-
193 eter (Delta Finnigan PlusXL) coupled to an elemental analyzer (Costech). Two standards,
194 Peedee belemnite and atmospheric N_2 , were used for C and N, respectively. The results are
195 presented as parts per thousand (‰). Units used to express the ratios of stable isotopes in the
196 notation (δ), a common form of isotopic measurement (Ben-David and Flaherty, 2012):

$$197 \delta^{13}\text{C} \text{ or } \delta^{15}\text{N} (\text{‰}) = [(R_{\text{sample}} / R_{\text{standard}}) - 1] \times 10^3$$

198 Where $R = ^{13}\text{C} / ^{12}\text{C}$ and $^{15}\text{N} / ^{14}\text{N}$. Analytical accuracy was greater than $\pm 0.2 \text{ ‰}$.

199

200 **2.5 Determination of trophic levels of consumers in Daimiel**

201 We used the equation developed by (Vander Zanden et al., 1997), and subsequently modified
202 by Post (2002), to estimate the trophic levels of each of the organism: trophic level (TL) $\text{TL} =$
203 $\lambda + (\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{C}} - \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{base}}) / \Delta_n$. Where λ ($\lambda = 1$ or 2) is the basis of the trophic level, whether pri-
204 mary producers or primary consumers, respectively. In this study the trophic levels with both
205 λ (1 and 2) were determined to check whether there were differences. For the baseline $\lambda = 2$
206 (primary consumers), the average value of the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature of zooplankton was used since
207 bivalve mollusks were absent in this wetland. The use of primary consumers as a baseline (λ
208 $= 2$) reduces the error in the estimation of trophic levels (Wolf et al., 2009). $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ represents
209 the isotopic composition of the N consumers, and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{base}}$ is the isotopic composition of the
210 base used. Finally, Δ_n is the trophic level enrichment, which was set at 2.54 as suggested in
211 the meta-analysis by (Vanderklift and Ponsard, 2003).

212

213 **2.6. Data analysis of present-day and past food webs**

214 To explore the functional relationships between predators and potential prey, first, the eating
215 habits of each species was investigated through literature search and, subsequently, using the
216 Bayesian statistical model SISUS (vO.09 workbook template, (Erhardt et al., 2014) in R. This
217 model uses $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signatures to estimate the proportional contribution of each source
218 to each consumer. To apply the SISUS model, and prior to resolving each consumer's diet,
219 increases were made in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values and potential sources $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ according to the values
220 suggested by previous studies ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$: 0-1 ‰ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$: 2.54, 3.4 and 4 ‰; Minagawa & Wada,
221 1984; McCutchan Jr *et al.* 2003; Post 2002; Vanderklift & Ponsard 2003). Finally, we chose a
222 value between 0 and 1 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 3 ‰ for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ because we found that the average in-
223 crease in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ with increasing trophic level was around 3 ‰. In addition, this combination
224 showed a greater number of relationships between consumers and sources studied in the eco-
225 system.

226 We complemented the isotopic analyses with literature search and records containing
227 historical information that would allow us to reconstruct the foodweb of the wetland around
228 1950 (Alvarez-Cobelas and Cirujano, 1996). However, due to the lack of data and samples
229 from that time, this part of the study was necessarily categorical rather than quantitative.

230

231 **Results**

232 **3.1 Isotopic composition of the primary and secondary consumers of the wetland**

233 ^{13}C and ^{15}N signatures and ratios of C and N of all components of the NPTD are shown in
234 Fig. 1. None of the species differed in terms of ^{13}C and ^{15}N depending on the sampling loca-
235 tion, except in the case of *A. melas* and *P. clarkii* (Figs. 2 and 3). Catfish showed a signifi-
236 cantly different isotopic signature depending on their size, stage of development and weight

237 (Fig. 2a and 2b). The crayfish also showed a different ^{15}N signature depending on its size but
238 showed no difference regarding sex (Fig.3).

239

240 **3.2 Food chain length and trophic levels**

241 The food chain length in the NPTD was estimated at 3.9 trophic levels, where primary pro-
242 ducers are considered as the base, and at 4.4 trophic levels (Fig. 4a and 4b), when the primary
243 consumers are used as the base. Food chain length description, hereinafter, is based on the
244 results obtained with primary consumers as the chain base.

245 Invertebrates, zooplankton, three species of birds (*B. ibis*, *Larus* sp. and *L. ridibun-*
246 *dus*) and the most abundant winged insects (butterflies) and the damselfly (*Sympetrum* sp.),
247 were placed in the primary consumers level. Secondary consumers were represented by two
248 species of birds (*H. himantopus* and *F. atra*) and the winged insect *Lestes* sp. The fish species
249 *C. carpio*, *G. holbrooki*, three species of birds (*Anas clypeata*, *A. strepera*, and *Aythya ferina*)
250 and *P. clarkii* were integrated into the tertiary consumers group. Finally, *A. melas*, *L. gibbosus*
251 and the white-headed duck (*O. leucocephala*) were at the top of the food web.

252

253 **3.3 Organic source's contribution to consumers of the NPTD**

254 The estimates of the SISUS model using two stable isotopes ^{13}C and ^{15}N -consumers are
255 shown in Table 2 and Fig. 5. Concerning waterfowl, the diets of black-headed gull and stilt
256 showed connection with microbial mats, perhaps a reflection of their opportunistic feeding
257 behaviour in the mud. The laughing gull also revealed dependence on benthic macro inverte-
258 brates and sediment in their diet. The American crab and invertebrates were the main diet
259 source of the shoveler. The diet of the coot reflected a varied eating habit with a similar dis-
260 tribution between zooplankton, macrophytes and crayfish. The main food source of Odonata

261 class, represented by *Lestes* sp. And *Sympetrum* sp., was invertebrates (41 to 60.47% and
262 from 23.05 to 60.25%, respectively).

263 Macrophytes were, in most cases, a primary or secondary energy source for organisms
264 of higher trophic levels. For example, *P. clarkii* (trophic level = 3.2) based its diet intake on
265 emergent macrophytes, representing up to 81.98% and 76.91% of its diet (*T. dominguensis*
266 and *S. maritimus*, respectively). Another clear example is the secondary consumers *H. himan-*
267 *topus* and *F. atra* (trophic level= 2.0 and 2.9, respectively), which can base a significant per-
268 centage of their diet on submerged macrophytes. The isotopic signatures of *Tamarix canar-*
269 *iensis* indicated that it was one of the main food sources for winged such as insects *Rhodom-*
270 *etra sacraria* and *Pieris rapae*, and also for the cattle egret. The mixing model indicated that
271 the contribution of macrophytes to the diet of the fish species collected is negligible.

272

273 **3.4 Past and present foodweb in NPTD**

274 In the mid-twentieth century, up to twelve native fish species in the wetland coexisted with
275 carp and mosquito fish, including sea lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*), eel (*Anguilla anguil-*
276 *la*), common catfish, comiza and cabecicorto (*Barbus bocagei*, *B. comiza*, *B. microcephalus*,
277 respectively), boga (*Condrostoma willkommii polylepis*), chub (*Leuciscus pyrenaicus*) pardila
278 (*Rutilus lemmingii*), tench (*Tinca tinca*), calandino (*Tropidophoxinellus alburnoides*), loach
279 (*Cobitis malaria*) and monk (*Blennius fluviatilis*) (Elvira and Barrachina, 1996), along with
280 other species of gastropods (*Lymnaea peregra*, *Pisidium* sp., *Bithynia tentaculata* and *Physel-*
281 *la acuta*, among others; (Casado de Otaola, 1996). Nowadays, they have all disappeared.
282 Based on historical information (Alvarez-Cobelas and Cirujano, 1996), we reconstructed the
283 foodweb of the wetland around 1950 when, before the introduction of the mosquito fish, the
284 NPTD was still a series of fish reserves (Fig. 6). The food web of NPTD for 1950 was com-
285 posed of fish species, all autochthonous, and species of waterfowl supported by mollusks,

286 macroinvertebrates, and zooplankton and accompanied by the autochthonous crab *Austro-*
287 *potamobius pallipes*. Filter-feeding mollusks fed on phytoplankton, clarifying the water and
288 contributing to the development of submerged macrophytes. These should have been food for
289 the native crayfish and ducks, who also consumed soft macroinvertebrates. The food chain
290 length was probably similar to the one present today. In contrast, Fig. 5 shows the configura-
291 tion of the current food web in 2011, strictly constructed with the results obtained with the
292 results from the SISUS model. Here, we have included species of winged insects, although
293 most butterflies do not show interactions with the species sampled. In today's food web, there
294 are no shellfish, and the autochthonous crab has been completely replaced by the crayfish,
295 which has a reduced number of interactions compared to those that *A. pallipes* could have
296 potentially had in the food web of 1950. Higher trophic level organisms showed no trophic
297 interactions with the rest of the organisms. Sediment/detritus is a food source for only egrets
298 and gulls, while for benthic organisms like crayfish, its only of marginal importance. Some
299 examples of food chains obtained through SISUS estimates are: *T. dominguensis* - *P. clarkii*-
300 *A. clypeata*; *Tamarix canariensis* -invertebrates - *Lestes sp.*; or *C. submersum* - zooplankton -
301 *F. atra*.

302

303 **4. Discussion**

304 Nowadays, the fish fauna of Las Tablas de Daimiel is only represented by opportunistic exot-
305 ic species, such as in other heavily disturbed freshwater ecosystems (Copp et al., 2005). Four
306 species, three of them exotic, make up the fish fauna of this wetland; three from North Amer-
307 ica: the bluegill (*Lepomis gibbosus*), the mosquitofish (*Gambusia holbrooki*), introduced for
308 the control of malaria in 1950 (Alvarez-Cobelas and Cirujano, 1996) and catfish (*Ameirus*
309 *melas*), emerging in the wetland (first sightings in 2010; National Park team, personal com-
310 munication) and carp (*Cyprinus carpio*), which had already been mentioned in Las Tablas

311 around 1910 (Elvira and Barrachina, 1996). NPTD has also been invaded by the American
312 crayfish (*Procambarus clarkii*), native to the southeastern United States, replacing the Euro-
313 pean crayfish (*Austropotamobius pallipes*), also introduced in the late nineteenth century, and
314 that was very abundant in these waters until the end of the 1960s, until it became extinct by
315 the crayfish plague (Alvarez-Cobelas et al., 2010).

316

317 **4.1 Food chain length of NPTD**

318 The input of nutrients (including N, P and trace elements, etc.) and the invasion of exotic spe-
319 cies greatly influence energy pathways, C balance, and nutrient budget of many habitats (Guy
320 et al., 2012), but little is known about the effects on the food webs of these ecosystems. Las
321 Tablas de Daimiel is a hypertrophic ecosystem (Alvarez-Cobelas et al., 2001), but the food
322 chain may be considered moderate in length (from 3.9 to 4.4 trophic levels; Briand & Cohen,
323 1987; Beaudoin *et al.*, 2001). Several authors have cited that disturbances and changes in
324 primary productivity resulting from nutrient enrichment do not necessarily exert direct im-
325 pacts on the food chain length (McHugh et al., 2010; Walters and Post, 2008). However, there
326 are clear indications that, among others, primary productivity (McHugh et al., 2010; Vander
327 Zanden et al., 1999), the size of the ecosystem (Post, 2002; Schoener, 1989) and disruptions
328 (Briand, 1983; Menge and Sutherland, 1987) are key in determining the configuration of food
329 webs in aspects such as species diversity within trophic levels, the connection between spe-
330 cies, and the influence of the trophic position of an organism.

331 The size of the ecosystem influences the food chain length, generating an increase or
332 decrease in the number of trophic levels, allowing the coexistence of two predatory species in
333 the same niche and even conditioning the abundance of a particular species (Takimoto et al.,
334 2008). Disturbances, however, seem more crucial in controlling the abundance of species at
335 higher trophic levels (Takimoto et al., 2008). In this situation it is expected that the inflow of

336 nutrients in NPTD has helped to increase net primary productivity, changing the structure of
337 the food web from the bottom-up (bottom-up effects; (Sahasrabudhe and Motter, 2011).
338 However, changes in consumer species also alter the structure of the food chain via trophic
339 cascades (i.e., top-down; (Scheffer, 1998). The nutrient enrichment registered in NPTD and
340 the consequent deterioration of the habitat has contributed to the disappearance of many spe-
341 cies of consumers, which has significantly modified the structure of the network (see Angeler
342 *et al.* 2001; 2002)

343 The highest trophic level in Las Tablas is occupied by two species of exotic fish (*A.*
344 *melas* and *L. gibbosus*) with a very irregular abundance over time (Sánchez-Carrillo and
345 Angeler, 2010), probably conditioned by extreme changes suffered in the wetland from year
346 to year (e.g., drought-flood cycles). In fact, *A. melas* has not been observed in recent surveys
347 in the park, in contrast to what happens downstream (Llanos Gabaldón Lozano and Peña,
348 2009). Large fluctuations in the flooded area as well as disturbances have favored the inva-
349 sion of the exotic species that are more resistant to the new hydrological conditions (Dudgeon
350 *et al.*, 2006). In fact, populations of *C. carpio* in the Upper Guadiana Basin are concentrated
351 in Las Tablas. Apparently, the disruption suffered by the NPTD and the consequent reduction
352 in both the size of the habitat and its quality is a key factor in the disappearance of popula-
353 tions of native fish species, which can still be seen in the upper reaches of the Záncara,
354 Gigüela and Riansares rivers (seven-eight endemic species: (Elvira and Barrachina, 1996;
355 Llanos Gabaldón Lozano and Peña, 2009). If the flooded area remained constant for a long-
356 term cycle (over 10 years) and if the water quality improved, then it would be likely that
357 some of these native species arrive to populate the NPTD again, which may eventually lead
358 to a readjustment of the structure of trophic niches (Gathman *et al.*, 2005; Wilcox *et al.*,
359 2008).

360 Recently, the presence of comiza barbel (*Barbus comiza*) has been reported in the
361 NPTD when the surface of the flooded area increased significantly after almost a decade
362 without water. But its passage through the ecosystem has been ephemeral and it is unknown if
363 this is related to its niche being occupied by other exotic species. Changes in the ecosystem
364 can also alter the eating habits of certain species indirectly. For example, (Takimoto et al.,
365 2008) showed that with the reduction of the ecosystem, the trophic cascade effect is magni-
366 fied, and species of higher trophic levels seek food at lower trophic levels, consequently re-
367 ducing their trophic position and length of the chain. This may be the reason why the speci-
368 mens studied here of the genus *Larus*, which in other ecosystems reach a trophic level of 4
369 (e.g. on the Mediterranean coast; Navarro *et al.* 2011), are located at trophic level 1 (i.e., pri-
370 mary consumers) at NPTD.

371

372 **4.2 Source contribution to the support of the food web of NPTD**

373 There has been some controversy about the importance of macrophytes as the base of aquatic
374 food webs because of their high biomass and production in these ecosystems (Hamilton et al.,
375 1992; Hart and Lovvorn, 2002). Some studies using stable isotopes in aquatic food webs
376 show that vascular plants are not as important in C flow for aquatic food webs (France,
377 1995). In wetlands, traditionally it is considered that food webs are supported by the decom-
378 position of macrophytes as they are an important source of C for benthic macroinvertebrates
379 (James et al., 2000; Kornijów, 1996). Numerous studies show that phytoplankton may be-
380 come more important as secondary producers (Hamilton et al., 1992; Hart and Lovvorn,
381 2002). To our knowledge, only one study found vascular plants as major actors in wetland
382 food webs through herbivores and detritivores (France R. L., 1995). Despite this, macro-
383 phytes are known to play a main role in trophic interactions in shallow lakes as they condition
384 numerous chemical, behavioral and structural interactions (Burks et al., 2006).

385 Our isotopic results suggest that plants from NPTD contribute to the diet of some con-
386 sumers that occupy the highest trophic levels. For example, *Tamarix canariensis* appeared as
387 an important food source for benthic macroinvertebrates and for butterflies through its flow-
388 ers (in fact, on the days of collection we noted that leaves were coated with pollen, indicating
389 that it was their blooming time). In fact, the use of *Tamarix* sp. flowers by *Pieris rapae* has
390 been described in the Mojave Desert (USA; Andersen & Nelson, 2013). Moreover, *T.*
391 *dominguensis* and *S. maritimus* seem to be the main food sources of *P. clarkii* in the park. In
392 support of this, other studies have reported that the diet of the American crab includes differ-
393 ent macrophytes such as *Callitriche brutia*, *Chara connivens*, *Ranunculus peltatus* (Alcorlo et
394 al., 2004) and *T. dominguensis* (Rosenthal et al., 2005).

395 Six of the nine species of waterfowl evaluated in this study showed isotopic signa-
396 tures consistent with the sources studied (Carpenter and Lodge, 1986). *Fulica atra* bases its
397 diet on submerged macrophytes, while the coot has a varied diet, feeding on macrophytes and
398 other aquatic plants. However, its diet also includes invertebrates, filamentous algae, detritus,
399 seeds, herbs, insects, snails, worms and even tadpoles (Perrow et al., 1997; Phillips et al.,
400 1978). In contrast to waterfowl, the contribution of macrophytes to the fish fauna was negli-
401 gible, something also noted by others (Bunn and Boon, 1993; Keough et al., 1996). This same
402 pattern has been observed in Ruidera Laguna Complex (Cave Morenilla; Ruiz-Jimenez,
403 2015). Also, isotopic composition of fish does not reflect any consistency in the carbon
404 sources evaluated in this study, as some authors also observed in other ecosystems (Matthews
405 and Mazumder, 2003; Post, 2002). This may be because the fish community is subsidized by
406 external habitats (Sierszen et al., 2019), all potential food sources of the wetland that were not
407 captured, or because the park's isotopic variation of zooplankton is more heterogeneous than
408 what was recorded in this study. Consistent with this, a study in several lakes in Finland
409 showed that the ^{13}C -zooplankton can vary up to 19 delta ^{13}C (from -46.0 ‰ to -27.2 ‰;

410 (Jones et al., 1999), depending on the hydro-geomorphological conditions (E. Sierszen et al.,
411 2006). The isotope fractionation accompanying the anaerobic decomposition of vascular
412 plants in wetlands may result in that C fluxes between microbial populations and the rem-
413 nants of macrophytes become decoupled, with the consequence that the isotopic signatures of
414 the fish do not reflect the values of the vascular plants (Boon and Sorrell, 1991). Another fac-
415 tor may be the high concentration of sulphates in the wetland, mainly in the summer
416 (Sánchez-Carrillo and Angeler, 2010), which makes $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -consumer values appear more de-
417 pleted than their food source (Alongi, 1998; Brooks et al., 1987; Robinson and Cavanaugh,
418 1995).

419 The contribution of *P. australis*, the most abundant and productive macrophyte in the
420 NPTD (Cirujano et al., 2010), to the food web of this wetland is almost insignificant, except
421 for zooplankton and crawfish, for which it represented up to 54% and <20% of their diet.
422 However, this species has a high range of isotopic variability (Hines et al., 2006; Treydte et
423 al., 2009) and its consumption may remain masked by other sources (Chapin III et al., 1995;
424 Hines et al., 2006). If this is confirmed, this would have major implications for ecosystem
425 management, as the withdrawal of biomass would not critically affect trophic interactions, at
426 least directly. To date, only in a marsh in the Delaware Bay, United States, there is knowledge
427 of *P. australis* having a direct contribution to the diet of secondary producers (73% mixing
428 models ^{13}C and ^{34}S ; (Wainright et al., 2000). Moreover, most studies show adverse effects of
429 proliferation of *P. australis*, including lower abundance of fish (Able and Hagan, 2003;
430 Hunter et al., 2006) and lower abundance of some groups of algae, which indirectly influence
431 higher trophic levels (Perez et al., 2013) and the reduction of birds and mammals due to the
432 decrease in favourable areas (Hauber et al., 1991).

433

434 **4.3 Las Tablas food web: past and present**

435 More than five decades ago, the food web in Las Tablas was represented by a high diversity
436 of organisms, including ten species of fish (Alvarez-Cobelas and Cirujano, 1996). Around the
437 mid-twentieth century, it is likely that fish species coexisted at all trophic levels and with a
438 trophic role of the crayfish *Austropotamobius pallipes* very similar to the American crayfish,
439 based on the eating habits of this species (Reynolds and O'keeffe, 2005). Although it is likely
440 that in the past the baseline wetland resources were much higher (with the presence of, for
441 examples, bivalves and gastropods), a currently poorly connected trophic system suggests
442 that ecosystem resources are currently not being fully exploited. Main causes may be related
443 to the quality of the ecosystem or the presence of populations of certain opportunistic, versa-
444 tile species that undermine potential competitors. The trophic configuration presented in Fig-
445 ure 5 shows a wide variety of fish species, mainly in the lower trophic levels, with high im-
446 portance of benthic macroinvertebrates in sustaining the food web.

447 The water restrictions limit the diversity of intermediate predatory fish species
448 (Hairston Nelson G. and Hairston Nelson G., 1993, 1997). It is more likely that in Las Tablas
449 the lack of species populating the lower niches (trophic level 1 and 2), rather than resource
450 constraints, may have allowed the expansion of opportunistic and resistant species such as *A.*
451 *melas* and *P. clarkii*, as reported in other studies (Braig and Johnson, 2003; Novomeská and
452 Kováč, 2009; Winemiller and Rose, 1992). This influences the low trophic complexity of the
453 wetland present today, although the deterioration in water quality also has harmful effects on
454 the diversity of fish species (e.g Serrano-Grijalva *et al.*, 2011). Likewise, the American cray-
455 fish may also be contributing indirectly to an important control of certain fish populations and
456 may also be key for consumer interactions. It has been said that *P. clarkii* benefits limne-
457 philus species, such as *A. melas*, that depends on specific substrate conditions to lay eggs and
458 build nests (Braig and Johnson, 2003; Cucherousset *et al.*, 2006). It has also been suggested

459 that *P. clarkii* controls the abundance of certain species like *L. gibbosus* through the reduction
460 of the macrophytes they depend on (Roth et al., 2007). The indirect influence of *P. clarkii* in
461 the presence of amphibians for the removal of sediments has also been reported (Nyström et
462 al., 1999). Opportunistic species such as *P. clarkii* and *A. melas* have a high trophic versatility
463 and can occupy more than one trophic level throughout their life cycle (Matěna, 1995). The
464 low abundance of carp, in decline since 1983 in the NPTD, may be allowing the entry of oth-
465 er exotic species to the ecosystem, altering the trophic structure of the wetland. The American
466 crayfish can efficiently extract resources from niches left by other local and even exotic spe-
467 cies that have disappeared from the ecosystem due to environmental degradation (Angeler et
468 al., 2002; Leunda et al., 2008). The lack of success in capturing the diet of other species very
469 adapted to the NPTD such as the mosquitofish may be due to its peculiar diet based on inver-
470 tebrates captured in a wide range of microhabitats from the benthos (Diptera, Odonata and
471 ostracods), surface water column (Hemiptera, Coleoptera, copepods, cladocerans), and even
472 those that swarm on aquatic vegetation (Hymenoptera) (Rodríguez-Jimenez A. J., 1987). In
473 our study, the mosquitofish occupies the 3.18-3.6 trophic level, demonstrating the plasticity
474 of this species, whereas its previously described trophic level was lower (2.2; Capps *et al.*,
475 2009).

476 In summary, the food chain length of the NPTD wetland does not appear to have
477 changed significantly during the last 50 years. In contrast, environmental variations sustained
478 over time associated with the entry of nutrients from different sources and species invasion
479 have reduced the diversity within trophic levels and also resulted in a loss of connectivity
480 between species, which has allowed the success of versatile, opportunistic organisms at all
481 trophic levels.

482

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493

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793 **Table 1.** Length and weight of the species of fish and crabs captured in NPTD n summer 2011. Small: <10.5 cm, Medium: 10.5-12 cm, large >12
 794 cm.
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Species	Common name	Stage	No.	Length (cm)				Weight (g)			
				Average	SD	MIN	MAX	Average	SD	MIN	MAX
<i>Lepomis gibbosus</i>	Pumpkinseed sunfish	Adult	1	11.5	11.5	11.5	11.5	14.8	14.8	14.8	14.8
<i>Cyprinus carpio</i>	Carp	Adult	61	35.3	1.7	32.0	39.0	648.1	91.0	500.0	800.0
<i>Ameiurus melas</i>	Cat fish	Adult	38	18.0	2.5	11.5	22.0	114.5	90.5	21.6	400.0
<i>Ameiurus melas</i>	Cat fish	Fry	40	2.4	0.3	1.8	3.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.4
<i>Gambusia holbrookii</i>	Gambusia	Fry	76	3.4	1.2	1.7	5.6	0.7	0.7	0.1	2.3
<i>Procambarus clarkii</i>	American crab	Small	106	9.3	1.0	6.5	10.5	24.1	8.7	4.3	41.8
<i>Procambarus clarkii</i>	American crab	Medium	54	11.4	0.4	11.0	12.0	47.0	7.3	30.2	64.5
<i>Procambarus clarkii</i>	American crab	Large	16	13.0	0.6	12.5	14.5	61.0	11.1	47.7	14.5

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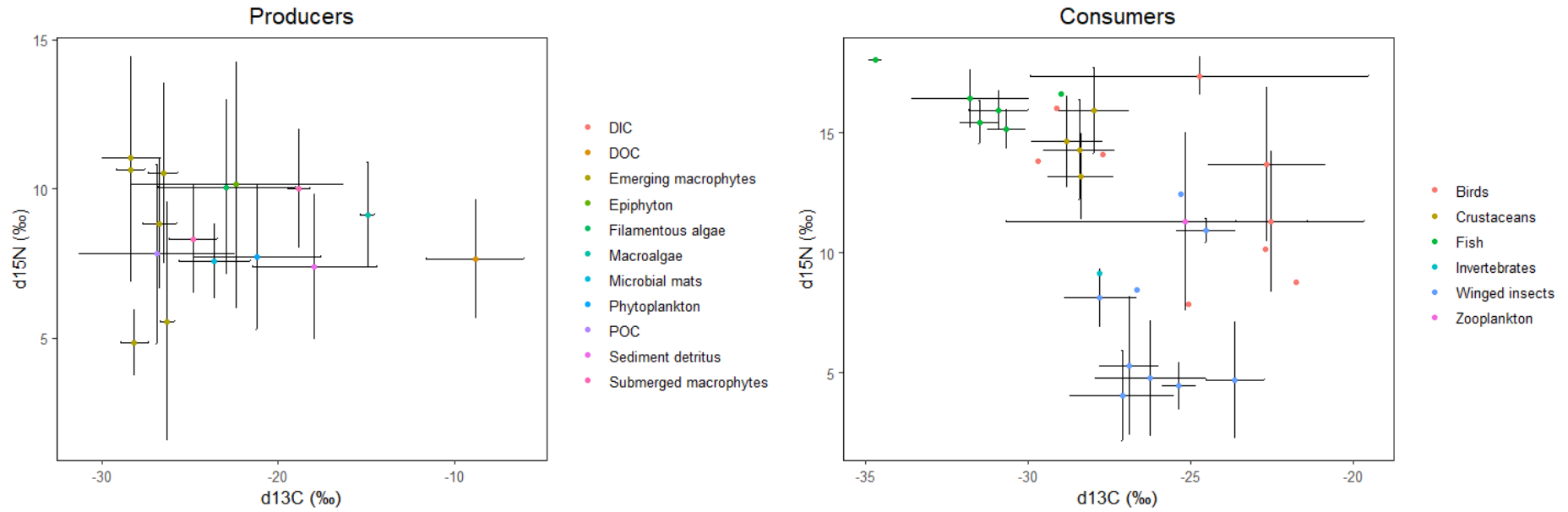
798 **Table 2.** Range of contribution (minimum and maximum) of the different food sources to consumers in the NPTD based on the mixing model
 799 SISUS through the use of stable isotopes (¹³C and ¹⁵N).
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	Winged insects								Crustaceans		Birds											
	<i>R. saccharia</i>		<i>Pieris rapae</i>		<i>Lestes</i> sp.		<i>Sympetrum</i> sp.		<i>P. clarkii</i>		<i>L. ridibundus</i>		<i>H. himantopus</i>		<i>Fulica atra</i>		<i>A. clypeata</i>		<i>Larus</i> sp.		<i>B. ibis</i>	
	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX	MIN	MAX
Sediment					0.00	14.63	0.00	27.95	0.00	2.89	0.00	27.82	0.00	52.03					43.06	62.92	17.46	30.20
POC									0.00	23.12												
Phytoplankton					0.00	20.75	0.00	39.64			0.00	51.67	0.00	73.80					0.00	29.04	0.00	18.63
Periphyton					0.00	40.27	0.00	32.29			0.00	17.48	0.00	29.22					0.00	8.71	0.00	5.59
Filamentous algae					0.00	44.58	0.00	35.75			0.00	19.35	0.00	30.39					0.00	8.57	0.00	5.50
Microbial mats					0.00	26.73	0.00	51.07			16.90	83.51	0.00	73.53					0.00	20.84	0.00	13.37
<i>C. hispida</i> var. <i>major</i>	0.00	11.45	0.00	2.69					0.00	2.22			0.00	23.44	0.00	43.85	0.00	6.76				
<i>C. submersum</i>	0.00	5.15	0.00	6.35					0.00	8.59			0.00	72.74	0.00	21.33	0.00	25.33	0.00	12.68	0.00	8.14
<i>P. pectinatus</i>	0.00	5.76	0.00	3.79					0.00	3.13					0.00	61.45	0.00	9.37				
<i>S. maritimus</i>	0.00	1.97	0.00	2.43					0.00	76.91												
<i>T. dominguensis</i>	0.00	2.10	0.00	2.59					0.00	81.98									0.00	5.73	0.00	3.68
<i>C. mariscus</i>	0.00	80.64	0.00	18.94					0.00	15.65												
<i>P. australis</i>	0.00	2.39	0.00	2.95					0.00	16.14												
<i>T. canariensis</i>	18.68	86.88	78.80	95.08					3.02	21.53									25.66	33.76	62.47	67.67
Invertebrates					41.00	60.47	23.05	60.25			2.48	39.49	0.00	47.82	0.00	20.86	0.00	50.18	0.00	7.95	0.00	5.10
Zooplankton					0.00	32.27	0.00	25.88			0.00	14.01	0.00	20.36	0.00	76.06	0.00	16.88	0.00	6.31	0.00	4.05
<i>P. clarkii</i> small															0.00	27.89	0.00	67.08				
<i>P. clarkii</i> medium															0.00	45.77	0.00	83.35				
<i>P. clarkii</i> large															0.00	41.76	0.00	49.53				

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804 **Figure 1.** Scatterplot of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (mean and standard deviation) of the main sources, primary producers and consumers from the present
805 food web in the NPTD. DIC = dissolved inorganic C. DOC = dissolved organic C. POC = particulate organic C.
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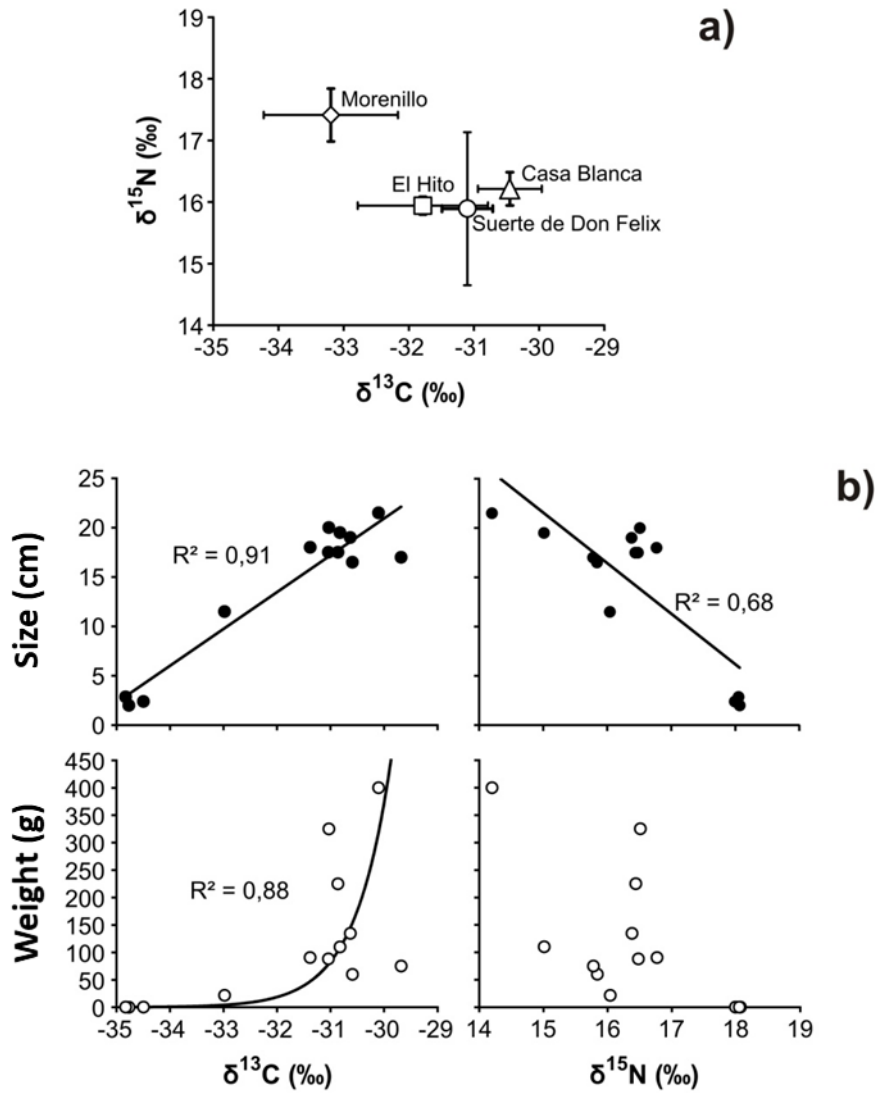


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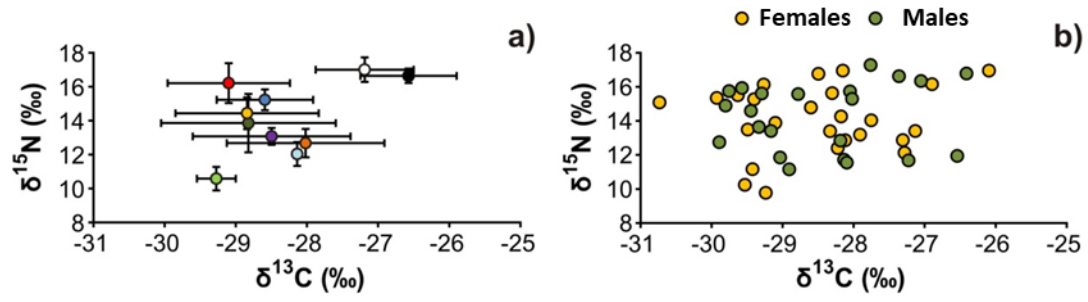
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810 **Figure 2.** a) Mean \pm SE of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ y $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of *Ameirus melas* in the four sites where it was
811 collected. ANOVA: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ p=0.003 and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ p=0.036. b) Relationships between size and
812 weight with isotopic signatures of *A. melas*.
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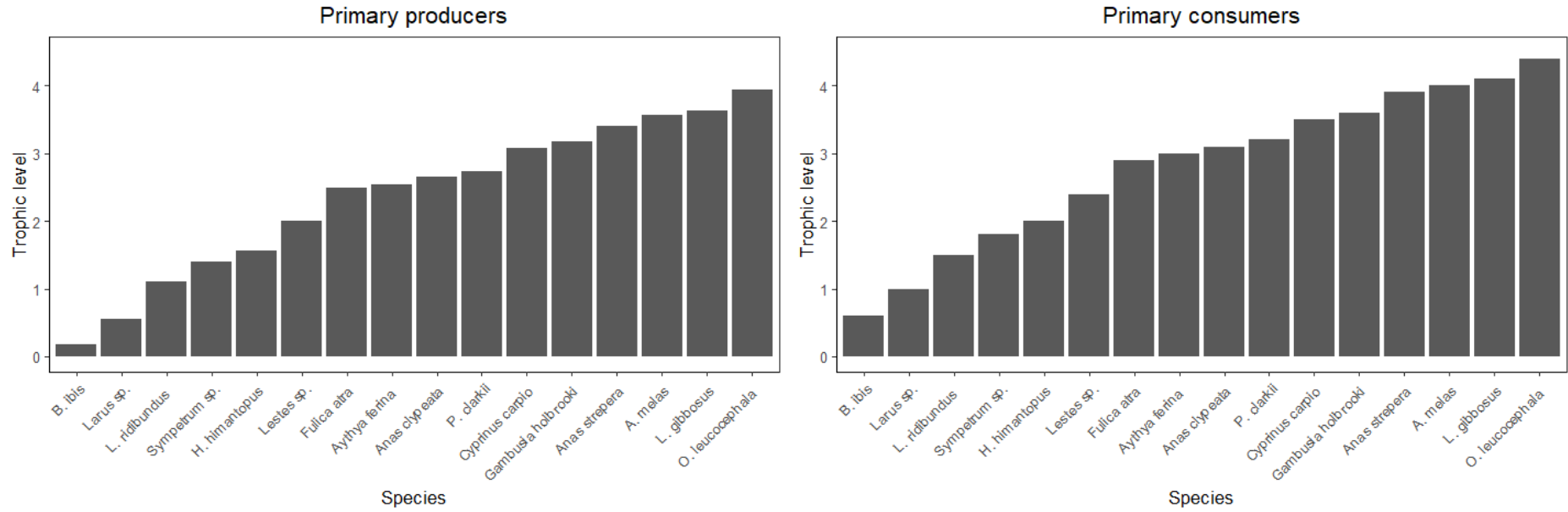
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819 **Figure 3.** Scatterplot of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of *P. clarkii* based on (a) sampling location (b) and
820 sex (ANOVA $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ $p > 0.05$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ $p > 0.05$).
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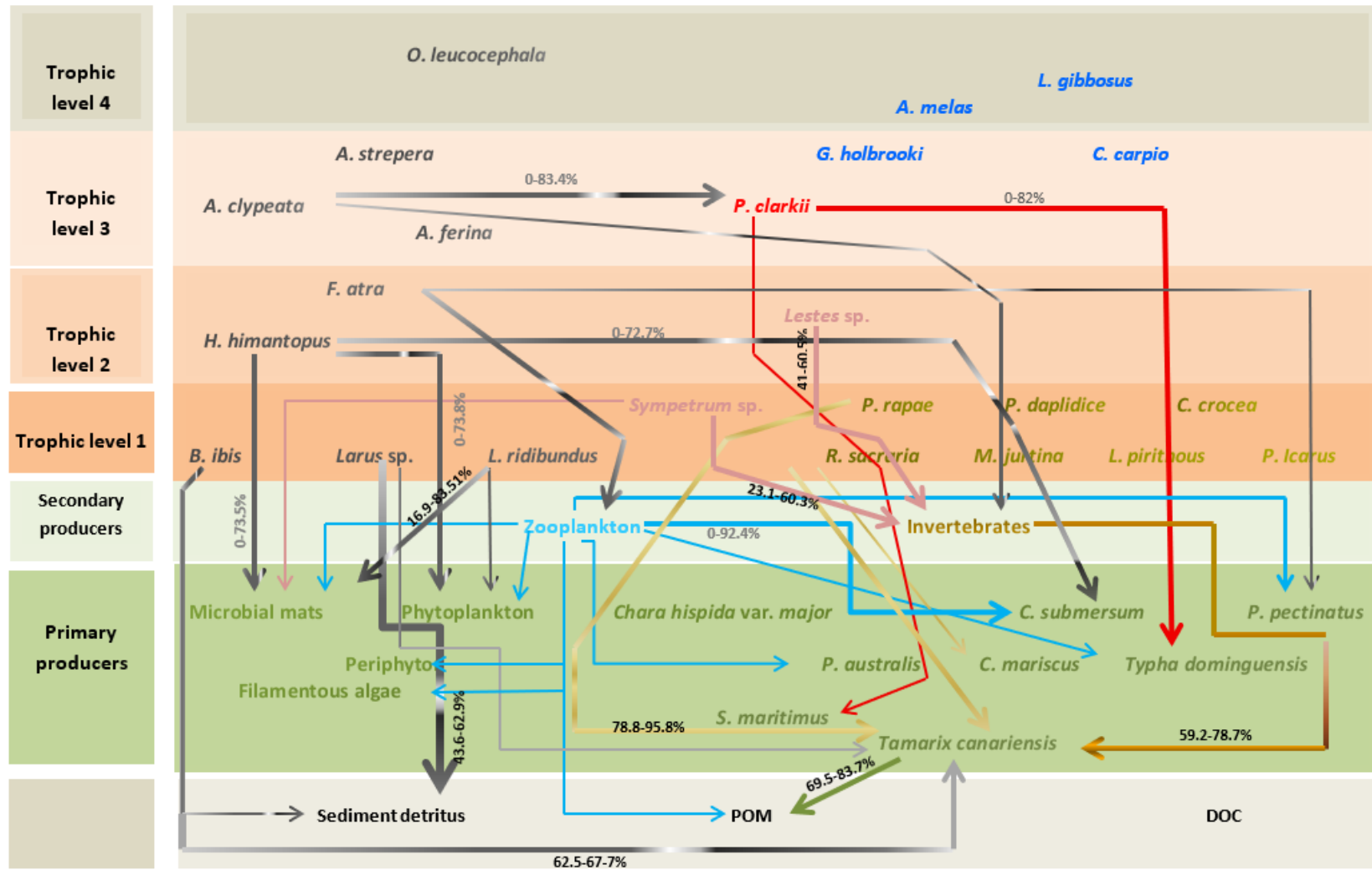
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829 **Figure 4.** Trophic levels of the main consumers from NPTD when (a) producers or (b) primary consumers are considered as the base of the
830 foodweb.



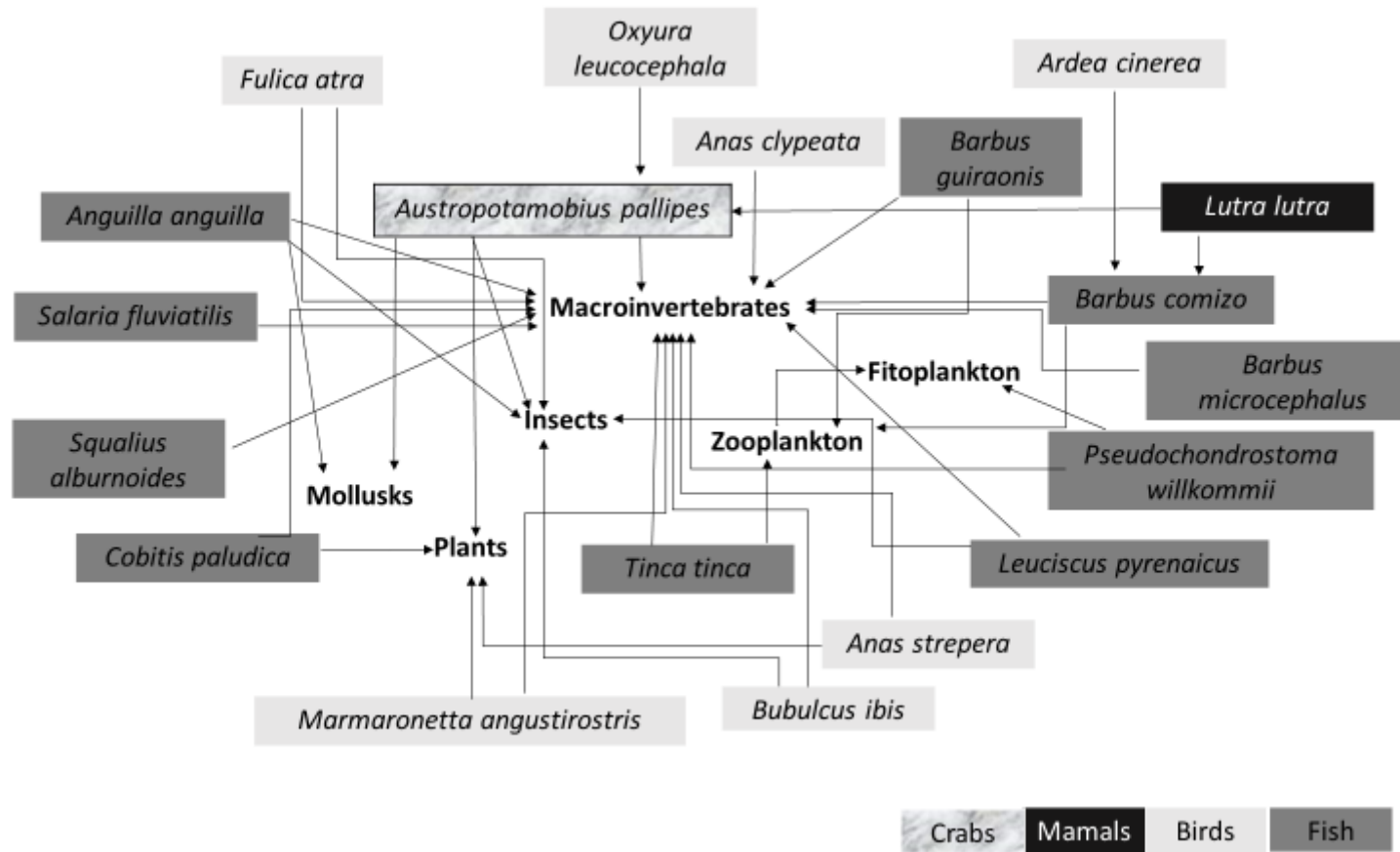
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839 **Figure 5.** Representation of the present foodweb. The range of contribution (minimum and maximum) of the different food sources to consumers
 840 in the NPTD are based on the mixing model SISUS through the use of stable isotopes (^{13}C and ^{15}N).
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844 **Figure 6.** Schematic representation of the trophic network of NPTD around 1950 based on Alvarez-Cobelas and Cirujano (1996) and Cirujano
 845 Bracamonte et al. (1998).
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