

# Time-since-invasion increases native mesoherbivore feeding rates on the invasive alga, Sargassum muticum (Yendo) Fensholt Kurr, Martyn; Davies, Andrew J.

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1	TSI INCREASES FEEDING RATES ON S. MUTICUM
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3	Time-since-invasion increases native mesoherbivore feeding rates on the invasive alga,
4	Sargassum muticum (Yendo) Fensholt
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17 *Abstract* 

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Invasive algae can have substantial negative impacts in their invaded ranges. One widely-19 cited mechanism that attempts to explain how invasive plants and algae are often able to 20 spread quickly, and even become dominant in their invaded ranges, is the Enemy Release 21 Hypothesis. This study assessed the feeding behaviours of two species of gastropod herbivore 22 23 from populations exposed to the invasive alga Sargassum muticum for different lengths of time. Feeding-trials, consisting of both choice and no-choice, showed that the herbivores 24 25 from older stands (35–40 years established) of S. muticum were more likely to feed upon it than those taken from younger (10–19 years established) stands. These findings provide 26 evidence in support of the ERH, by showing that herbivores consumed less S. muticum if they 27 were not experienced with it. These findings are in accordance with the results of other 28 feeding-trials with S. muticum, but in contrast to research that utilises observations of 29 herbivore abundance and diversity to assess top-down pressure. The former tend to validate 30 the ERH, and the latter typically reject it. The potential causes of this disparity are discussed, 31 as are the importance of palatability, herbivore species, and time-since-invasion when 32 considering research into the ERH. This study takes an important, yet neglected, approach to 33 34 the study of invasive ecology. 35

*Key Words*: Behaviour, Enemy Release Hypothesis, Feeding trials, Herbivory, Invasive
species, Non-native species

# 39 1. INTRODUCTION

41	The introduction of invasive marine algae can have substantial negative impacts upon native
42	communities in their newly established range (Williams & Smith, 2007; Thomsen et al.,
43	2009). When an invasive plant or alga begins to proliferate in a new range, it presents a novel
44	food-source to native consumers. Although specialists may avoid the invasive organism,
45	generalist consumers can be attracted to such species and even prefer to consume them over
46	native species (Parker & Hay, 2005; Parker et al., 2006). However, this is not always the case
47	and in many instances both plants (e.g. Jogesh et al., 2008) and algae (e.g. Davis et al., 2005)
48	have been shown to be avoided by generalist consumers. Herbivore preference may therefore
49	account for the invasibility of some species, a scenario described by the Enemy Release
50	Hypothesis (ERH) (Keane & Crawley, 2002).
51	Sargassum muticum Yendo (Fensholt) is a highly invasive marine alga which is not
52	controlled by large herbivores such as fish and urchins (Britton-Simmons, 2004; Thomsen et
53	al., 2006; Engelen et al., 2015). Although it attracts a range of mesoherbivores (Strong et al.,
54	2009), many of these still prefer to feed upon native algae or the epiphytes on S. muticum
55	(Norton & Benson, 1983; Critchley et al., 1986; Viejo, 1999; Britton-Simmons, 2004;
56	Monteiro et al., 2009; Cacabelos et al., 2010a; Rossi et al., 2010; Engelen et al., 2011).
57	Because of their size, mesoherbivores are less mobile than large herbivores, and individuals
58	or localised populations can display strong host-plant specificity, even when the species as a
59	whole does not (Vesakoski et al., 2009; Bell & Sotka, 2012; Mattila et al., 2014). Specificity
60	is particularly evident in species that are slow-moving or brood their young (Sotka, 2005),
61	and may be because the host alga of a mesoherbivore is both its food and habitat, and some
62	algal species can provide better protection from predators (Watanabe, 1984; Jormalainen et
63	al., 2001). As such it can be hypothesised that mesoherbivores, particularly species that are

less mobile, will establish a feeding preference for an invasive species such as *S. muticum*when exposed to it, but the time scales involved in such development are unclear.

Optimally-foraging animals are expected to prefer readily available sources of food, 66 and in cases where host specificity is strong, an invasive population may therefore escape 67 local herbivores when it is first introduced to a new range (Maron & Vilá, 2001). However, 68 once an invasive species proliferates, encounter-rates with local consumers will increase and 69 70 these may then accept it as a food source. Therefore, it is likely that the longer such a species has been present in an environment, the greater the propensity of local consumers to feed on 71 72 it will be (Schultheis et al. 2015). This has been shown to take as little as 20 years in beetles that consume the leaves of invasive trees (Auerbach & Simberloff, 1988), and data on 73 74 introduced crops shows that species diversity can be as rich as that found in native 75 controphics after less than 200 years (Strong et al., 1977). However, little is known about the 76 lengths of time it might take marine mesoherbivores to consume a species such as S. muticum, and few studies that specifically incorporate time-since-invasion as a variable 77 78 utilise behavioural experiments (e.g. Trowbridge 2004). Most opt instead for observational surveys of abundance or diversity to infer consumer choice (sensu Maron & Vilá, 2007). 79 Time-since-invasion is a vital and understudied element of invasive ecology, since both the 80 invader and the local community change the longer an invasive population has been 81 82 established (Strayer et al., 2006).

This study aimed to enhance our understanding of the ERH by investigating the feeding behaviours of slow-moving mesoherbivore grazers, taken from stands of *S. muticum* that have been established for different lengths of time. The Space-for-Time Substitution methodology is well established in invasive ecology and climate change studies, and although it is not fool-proof it provides a convenient alternative to the time-for-time approach which is often not viable (Pickett, 1989; Thomaz *et al.*, 2012; Blois *et al.*, 2013). *Sargassum muticum* 

89 is an ideal species with which to investigate mesoherbivore responses with this approach, because it is well known beyond the scientific community as a pest. It is large, conspicuous, 90 intertidal, and prefers sheltered habitats and so is quickly reported when it spreads to 91 92 harbours and inlets frequented by fishermen and sailors. As such, and in contrast to many other marine invasions, a detailed and reliable chronology of its spread around western-93 Europe and the British Isles exists (Davison, 2009). As a brown alga, S. muticum produces 94 quantifiable polyphenolic chemicals as a defence against herbivory (Van Alstyne & Paul, 95 1990; Pavia & Toth, 2000). Although not deterrent against all species, these phlorotannins 96 97 impede herbivory by a broad range of mesoherbivores, particularly slow-moving generalist gastropod grazers (Pavia & Toth, 2008). Brown algae have been shown to increase 98 phlorotannin production in response to increased herbivory, making themselves less-palatable 99 100 (Van Alstyne & Paul, 1990; Pavia & Toth, 2008), although investigations into invasive plants 101 have shown variable responses in the production of chemical defences in their invaded ranges (i.e. increases: Caño et al., 2009; decreases: Willis et al., 1999; no recorded change, but still 102 lowered palatability (i.e. the attractiveness of the food in the absence of others) in herbivore 103 performance trials: Hull-Sanders et al., 2007). Using laboratory-based feeding experiments 104 105 with S. muticum and two species of common generalist gastropod grazers, this study tested two hypotheses. Firstly, generalist gastropods are more likely to accept S. muticum as a food 106 107 source the longer it has been present in their local habitat. Secondly, the palatability of S. 108 *muticum* will be lower in long-established populations, compared to those recently established. Testing these hypotheses furthers our knowledge of invasive ecology and time-109 since-invasion effects, specifically with respects to the ERH. 110 111

#### 113 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

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### 115 **2.1 Study organisms**

Sargassum muticum was used as a model invader because it bares all of the hallmarks of a 116 classic invasive marine species, being temperate, pseudo-annual, fast-growing and r-selected, 117 with broad physiological tolerances and a propensity for high dispersal rates and rapid growth 118 119 in areas of strong anthropogenic influences, such as harbours (Norton, 1977; Critchley et al., 1986; Arenas et al., 1995; Andrew & Viejo, 1998; Claridge & Franklin, 2002; Engelen & 120 121 Santos, 2009). Sargassum muticum was first sighted in the British Isles in 1973, on the eastern coast of the Isle of Wight, and has subsequently spread as far east as Kent, and as for 122 north-west as the Firth of Clyde. 123

124 Ascophyllum nodosum (L.) Le Jolis and Fucus serratus (L.) were used as control organisms to assess typical feeding rates of snails from the different sites. Both are common 125 native intertidal algal species, which are closely related to S. muticum. These three species are 126 all fucoids and as such, they bear a similar chemical composition (Davis et al. 2003), grow 127 well on sheltered shores, and are often found attached to hard substratum in the mid to lower 128 intertidal (Boaden et al., 1975; Dudgeon & Petraitis, 2005). The two native control species 129 are consumed by the selected grazers, Littorina obtusata (L.) and Littorina fabalis (Turton), 130 131 which are common herbivores of seaweeds throughout Western Europe (Watson & Norton, 132 1987; Hayward & Ryland, 2006). Both grazers can be found on Fucus spiralis, F. vesiculosus, A. nodosum, F. serratus, S. muticum, Halidrys siliquosa, Ulva lactuca, and U. 133 intestinalis in high abundances on sheltered shores, both in the intertidal and shallow subtidal 134 135 (Kurr, unpublished data). Littorina obtusata lives for 2-3 years and is therefore often slightly larger than the annual L. fabalis, both of which spawn in late winter (Williams & Brailsford 136 1998). Although L. obtusata is slightly more common on the mid-shore and L. fabalis more 137

common on the low shore, both species share near-identical habitat preferences and 138 distributions (Hayward & Ryland, 2006). Adults of both species have similar preferences for 139 macroalgae, although epiphytic microalgae probably accounts for a larger component of the 140 diet of L. fabalis than L. obtusata, owing to the weaker buccal musculature and more 'comb-141 like' radula of the former (Watson & Norton 1987). Both show an aversion towards algal 142 tissues containing high levels of phlorotannins, making them viable indicators for 143 ecologically relevant differences in algal defensive investment (Pavia & Toth, 2000; Pavia et 144 al., 2002)." 145

146 2.2 Study sites

Multiple potential sites were initially identified based on public records of first reported S. 147 muticum establishment. The suitability and comparability of these sites was estimated as far 148 149 as possible remotely, before being visited in July. Samples of S. muticum, the most abundant 150 native fucoid in close proximity to the S. muticum stands, and a suitable number of whichever littorinid was most common in the area were taken from each location. The experimental 151 designs and decisions about which grazer and native fucoid were to be used were site-152 specific, constrained predominantly by the necessity to find sites with comparable topography 153 and suitable time-since-invasion. Material from four S. muticum populations was used in 154 feeding trials (Figure 1). All stands of S. muticum grew on the upper sub-tidal of moderately 155 exposed sandy shores, in lagoons formed in the lee of a rock formations or sand-bars (Figure 156 157 2). Salinity and temperature differences at time-of-sampling were minimal (salinity within 1 unit, and temperature within 2 °C), and all populations were amongst or very near to common 158 native algae such as F. serratus, A. nodosum and/or F. vesiculosus (Figure 2). The 159 northernmost and southernmost sites differed by 3° of latitude, and whilst UV exposure 160 causes induction of phlorotannins (Pavia et al., 1998), UV-R levels (which account for a 161 small percentage of total solar irradiance) differ by only 0.72% (estimated from Šúri et al., 162

2007; Escobedo et al., 2009). If S. muticum responds to UV in the same way as other fucoids, 163 this would equate to an approximate difference of 0.4% in phlorotannin abundance between 164 the northernmost and southernmost sites (Pavia et al., 1998), a negligible amount, 165 considering that herbivory can induce phlorotannin production by 70% (Pavia & Toth, 2000). 166 For clarity, locations have been named by the length of time since the first 167 observation of S. muticum (Davison, 2009), as follows; '40YR': Bembridge Ledge, on the 168 eastern coast of the Isle of Wight. '35YR': Eastbourne on the south eastern coast of England. 169 '19YR': West Angle Bay, near Milford Haven in south Wales. '10YR': The northern shore of 170 171 the Foryd estuary near Caernarfon in North Wales (Figure 1). It can be assumed that the first observation equates to time-since-invasion in S. muticum populations as it expresses limited 172 DNA polymorphism within UK and European populations, suggesting that it has spread from 173 174 a single point of invasion (Hallas, 2012; Le Cam, 2015). Communities impacted by an invasive population with a time-since-invasion of 10 years or less, are expected to experience 175 considerably different effects to those exposed for 30 years or more, making the timescale 176 investigated here valid for detecting shifts in behaviour (see Strayer et al., 2006). 177

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## 179 **2.3 Feeding trials**

Four experiments were conducted: (1) Sargassum muticum from stands of different ages were 180 presented to L. obtusata collected from a site where S. muticum has not been recorded, to 181 182 assess the palatability of the algae (i.e. the attractiveness of the food in the absence of other foods). (2) Littorina obtusata from S. muticum stands of different ages were presented with S. 183 muticum and F. serratus from one site, to assess the willingness-to-feed of the snails (i.e. how 184 185 eager the animals are to feed in the material in the absence of others). Finally, L. fabalis from an 'old' and a 'young' S. muticum stand were presented with S. muticum, and the common 186 187 native alga A. nodosum from both sites in (3) no-choice trials to assess the willingness-tofeed of grazers, and with *S. muticum* from the 'young' and 'old' stands in (4) choice trials to determine feeding preferences of the snails (i.e. which material will be selected when given a choice).

For each experiment, a standardised protocol was used. Firstly, all algae were 191 collected within one week of being used in trials, and maintained in ambient seawater (~19 192 °C, salinity 34) within the same outdoor aquaria used for feeding trials. Sargassum muticum 193 is notoriously fragile, and difficult to maintain in the laboratory. To minimise the degradation 194 of the fronds, whole individuals were collected by pulling the holdfast from the substrata. 195 196 Epiphytised fronds were removed, and all individuals were returned to the laboratory within cool-boxes, inside of one day. Algae were inspected daily and gently washed with seawater. 197 198 Material showing signs of degradation was removed, and the whole individual was rotated in 199 the aquaria to limit self-shading. Only healthy material was used for feeding trials. From each 200 alga used, 500mg (+/- 50 mg) blotted-wet-weight clippings were taken from the apical region (one clipping per apex) and autogenic changes in algal mass were corrected for by taking 201 202 control clippings and maintaining these in parallel to the experimental trials. For no-choice trials, mean autogenic changes in mass were calculated and subtracted from the change in 203 204 mass in experimental trials to estimate change in mass due to consumption (Toth et al., 2007). Additionally, ~5 clippings were taken for phlorotannin analysis in palatability trials. 205 206 Handling of algae was kept to a minimum, and great care was taken during blotting of fronds 207 to avoid dislodging vesicles or causing other damage. To further limit degradation, midway through the trials aquaria were carefully upturned into a 1 mm sieve to remove snails and 208 algal material, the aquaria were cleaned using an abrasive pad, and all material was then 209 210 returned for the remainder of the experiment. Some, but not all, of the S. muticum clippings used in autogenic trials lost mass, notably those used in Experiment 4 (Section 3.4, Figure 5). 211 This was probably due to loss of vesicles over the course of the trial because the clippings 212

appeared to in generally good condition. However some necrosis was evident near to theclipping site at the base of some replicates in both experimental and control trials.

Secondly, all animals used in the trials were collected one week prior to experiments 215 and maintained as above, without food to ensure even levels of hunger. Because starved 216 herbivores can display compensatory feeding for the first two days (Cronin & Hay, 1996) 217 change in algal masses were only recorded after seven days. Change in algal mass was 218 corrected for snail ash-free dry mass and compared with autogenic changes in the controls 219 220 (identical treatments without grazers) (Monteiro et al., 2009; Forslund et al., 2010). All trials 221 were conducted in separate 250 ml aquaria with an individual water-line providing a flushing-time of around 30 s. 222

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# 224 2.3.1 The palatability of *S. muticum* to naïve grazers

To determine whether S. muticum's palatability was different depending on time-since-225 invasion, six algal individuals were collected at random from each of the 35YR, 19YR, and 226 227 10YR populations (n = 18). To capture individual S. *muticum* variation, three clippings from each individual were provided to three *L*. *obtusata* (n = 54) collected from Bull Bay in North 228 Wales (53.422543°N, 4.368959°W) in a no-choice trial. Sargassum muticum does not grow 229 at Bull Bay, nor on the adjacent coastline, and so these individuals were extremely likely to 230 be naïve to this food-source. This was done to avoid biasing the study by using 231 232 mesoherbivores with a history of S. *muticum* consumption, thereby ensuring differences in feeding responses were a product of the algal condition, and not that of the consumer. 233 Although the no-choice technique has been criticised for not producing 'true' feeding 234 235 responses (Roa, 1992), no-choice trials were used for two reasons. Firstly, S. muticum fragments as it is fed upon, making it impossible to differentiate between algae from most 236 sites at the end of the trials. Secondly, the technique still holds value when determining the 237

'willingness-to-feed' of a particular herbivore on a plant or alga (i.e. how much material are 238 herbivores willing to consume; sensu Jogesh et al., 2008), or 'palatability' of a particular 239 plant or alga (i.e. how easy the material is to consume; sensu Toth et al., 2007), as opposed to 240 purely 'preference' of consumers, which requires that a choice be offered. No-choice trials 241 can therefore be useful in predicting the results of direct interaction between grazers and 242 hosts (Pearse et al., 2013). Data were analysed in a One-way ANOVA, with site as a fixed 243 244 factor, the response variable was the mean of the three clippings (minus mean autogenic mass-change in controls) from each individual alga to provide a better estimate of the 245 246 palatability of an individual S. muticum and to avoid non-independence arising from using clippings from individual alga in the analysis (n = 18). 247

Phlorotannin abundances in each of the six S. muticum individuals were determined. 248 249 Samples from the upper frond were washed in distilled water, frozen at -20 °C, and then 250 freeze-dried to constant weight. These were ground until homogenous, and 0.2 g subsampled for chemical assay. 60 % aqueous acetone was used to extract phlorotannins over 1 hour 251 under constant agitation, in the dark. The algal pulp was separated by centrifugation (5300 252 rpm for 10 minutes) and the acetone removed using *in-vacuo* cold-distillation (80 kPa, 38 253 °C). Lipophilic compounds were filtered from this extract (Pavia & Toth, 2000) and 40% 254 Folin-Ciocalteu's phenol reagent (Sigma-Aldrich F9252) was used in conjunction with 1M 255 aqueous sodium carbonate decahydrate solution (Sigma-Aldrich 71360) to act as a buffer. 256 257 The resultant solution was incubated in the dark for 30 minutes and analysed by spectrophotometry at 760 nM, using phloroglucinol (1,3,5-trihydroxybenzene, Sigma-Aldrich 258 P3502) as a standard (Van Alstyne, 1995). Replicates were run in triplicate and phlorotannin 259 260 abundances compared with a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with 'site' as a fixed factor. Differences in means were compared using Tukey's post-hoc tests. 261

#### 263 2.3.2 Willingness of grazers experienced with S. muticum to feed upon it

To determine whether L. obtusata consumed more S. muticum when their population had 264 been exposed to it for longer, 30 individuals were collected at random from each of the 265 266 35YR, 19YR, and 10YR sites (n = 90). One S. muticum individual and one F. serratus individual were collected from the 10YR site. Apex material from one large individual was 267 used for each algal species to keep phlorotannin abundances, algal condition, and any other 268 269 variables that may influence palatability, as constant as possible between treatments, given that the focus in this experiment was on the grazers. Fifteen L. obtusata individuals were 270 271 provided with one clipping of the S. muticum individual each, and the other fifteen were provided with one clipping of the F. serratus individual each to gauge for population-specific 272 differences in feeding-rates on a typical sympatric native alga. Mass change at the end of 273 274 trials were corrected for mean autogenic change in control clippings to estimate change in mass due to consumption. Differences in 'willingness-to-feed' did not conform to the 275 assumption of homogeneity of variance because the variability in F. serratus consumption 276 was greater than that for S. *muticum* consumption. Therefore, means were compared using a 277 Kruskal-Wallis test, and paired Mann-Whitney U tests for *post-hoc* analysis. 278

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## 280 **2.3.3** The willingness to consume *S. muticum* and a native alga by *L. fabalis*

To compare willingness-to-feed on *S. muticum* and a native sympatric alga by mesoherbivores (*L. fabalis*) from a site invaded by *S. muticum* 40 years prior, to grazers from a site invaded 10 years prior, three *S. muticum* and three *Ascophyllum nodosum* individuals were collected at random from 40YR and 10YR sites (n = 6 of each species). *Littorina fabalis* were collected at random from adjacent stands of fucoids, and from the substrata nearby to the *S. muticum* and *A. nodosum* stands at these locations. One clipping of each alga was provided to three randomly-assigned *L. fabalis* from each site, and all trials were run in triplicate (n = 72). Changes in algal mass were analysed using a three-way nested-ANOVA
with 'algal species', 'algal origin, and 'grazer origin' as fixed orthogonal factors, and
'individual' (alga) nested in the interaction between 'algal species' and 'algal origin'.
Differences in means were compared using Tukey's *post-hoc* tests.

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# 2.3.4 *L. fabalis* preference for *S. muticum* from sites with different time-since-invasion

Clippings from the same algal individuals used for the willingness to feed experiment 295 296 (Experiment 3) were used to compare the preference of L. fabalis collected from the 40YR and 10YR sites when offered S. muticum from their site of origin, against algae collected 297 from the other site. Each treatment was allocated to six L. fabalis individuals in the following 298 299 randomly assigned treatments: (1) 40YR L. fabalis with 40YR S. muticum & 10YR S. muticum, and (2) 10YR L. fabalis with 40YR S. muticum & 10 YR S muticum. All trials were 300 run in triplicate (n = 18). To capture autogenic changes in algal mass each experimental 301 302 aquaria (i.e. with grazers) was paired with a control aquaria containing the same algal combination but no grazers. Following Forslund *et al.* (2010), a paired *t* test approach was 303 used to compare the differences in algal mass-change between clippings in both the 304 experimental and control aquaria, whereby, a significant result indicates that one clipping has 305 306 changed mass more than the other in the presence of grazers.

# 309 **3.1** The palatability of *S. muticum* to naïve grazers

Sargassum muticum from 35YR contained the highest abundance of phlorotannins 310 (5.0% DW, S.E. = 0.15), and that from 19YR (3.6% DW, S.E. = 0.23) and 10YR (3.8%, S.E. 311 = 0.14) bore similar concentrations (ANOVA  $F_{2.15}$  = 18.66, SS = 7.07, p < 0.001, Tukey's 312 313 HSD; 35YR > 19YR = 10YR). However, the consumption of *S. muticum* tissue from different sites was not significantly different (ANOVA  $F_{2.15} = 0.0741$ , SS = 1902, p = 0.929; 314 315 Figure 3a), suggesting that naïve L. obtusata taken from Bull Bay did not respond to differences in phlorotannins and/or any differing palatability of S. muticum from sites with 316 different time-since-invasion. 317 318 3.2 Willingness of grazers experienced with S. muticum to feed upon it 319 There were significant differences between the willingness-to-feed on the S. muticum 320 individual by L. obtusata from all three sites (Kruskal-Wallis, H = 28.69, p < 0.001; Figure 321 3b). *Littorina obtusata* consumed broadly similar amounts of the F. serratus individual per 322 mg of animal dry mass regardless of site, although those from 19YR consumed more F. 323 serratus than those from 35YR. Consumption of the S. muticum individual relative to the F. 324 serratus individual showed an incremental increase with time-since-invasion. The 10YR 325

326 grazers consumed less of the *S. muticum* individual than those from the other populations,

and more of the *F. serratus* individual. The 19YR grazers consumed as much of the *S.* 

328 *muticum* as those from 35YR, but consumed more of the *F. serratus* than the *S. muticum*. The

329 35YR grazers consumed as much of the S. muticum as they did the F. serratus individual,

indicating that they were equally willing to feed on the invasive and native algae.

332	3.3 The willingness-to-feed on S. muticum and a native alga, by L. fabalis
333	Willingness to feed differed between species and grazer origin (Table 1, Figure 4). 40YR S.
334	muticum was the most readily consumed by both groups of grazers, however the 40YR
335	grazers consumed more of the invasive overall. Additionally, whilst the 10YR grazers were
336	willing to consume 10YR A. nodosum in similar quantities to 40YR S. muticum, 40YR
337	grazers consumed more of the invasive. No differences in consumption of the native A.
338	nodosum were detected between grazer populations, both consuming more of that from
339	the10YR site.

# 341 **3.4** *L. fabalis* preference for *S. muticum* from sites with different time-since-invasion

The experienced grazers demonstrated a clear preference for *S. muticum* from one location, but these preferences were not evident in the more naïve group. 40YR *L. fabalis* preferred 40YR *S. muticum* to 10YR *S. muticum* ( $t_9 = 2.44$ , p = 0.041, Figure 5a), whereas no preferences were observed for *S. muticum* from either site by 10YR grazers ( $t_9 = 0.87$ , p =0.411, Figure 5b).

#### 348 4. DISCUSSION

There were considerable differences in the acceptance and selection of Sargassum muticum 349 as a food source, by mesoherbivores from populations exposed to it for different lengths of 350 351 time. Overall, the greater the time-since-invasion, the greater the feeding rates on S. muticum by grazers from those sites (Hypothesis 1, Experiments 2, 3 and 4). Chemical defences in S. 352 muticum were highest at the site with greatest time-since-invasion (Hypothesis 2, Experiment 353 354 1), although palatability, when tested by naïve grazers, did not differ (Hypothesis 2, Experiment 1). Likewise, more experienced grazers demonstrated a clear preference for S. 355 356 muticum from one site when offered a choice, whereas naïve conspecifics consumed indiscriminately (Hypothesis 1, Experiment 4). This suggests that some exposure to an alga 357 may be required to develop subjectivities based on chemical defence or condition 358

359 (Hypothesis 1, Experiment 1 and 4).

It is unclear whether the increased acceptance of S. muticum as a food source is the 360 result of exposure over decadal timescales, or differences in encounter rate because of greater 361 proliferation of the alga in older populations. However this point is probably moot, since the 362 abundance of a non-native species in an introduced range is also dependent on time (Bennett 363 et al. 2013; Byers et al., 2015; Vicente et al., 2014). Therefore the longer S. muticum has 364 been present, the more the local population of grazers will encounter it, and therefore the 365 366 more likely they will be to consume it. These results provide evidence in support of the 367 Enemy Release Hypothesis (ERH), which posits that non-native species experience lower herbivore pressures in their introduced ranges because local consumers are unfamiliar with 368 them (Keane & Crawley, 2002). The ERH is a popular and widely cited explanation for the 369 370 invasibility of many photoautotrophs, but it is now apparent that the hypothesis typically fails verification (Parker & Hay, 2005; Parker et al., 2006). Only a few studies have specifically 371 tested the ERH with respect to time-since-invasion (Strayer et al. 2006, Heger and Jeschke 372

2014, Schultheis *et al.* 2015), and fewer still incorporate feeding-trials to directly assess
preferences or willingness-to-feed of consumers with TSI, particularly in the marine
environment (Trowbridge 2004).

376 Despite our findings, the question of whether or not the ERH applies to S. muticum remains unclear since top-down control by specialist grazers in its native range has never 377 been demonstrated. Certainly the impacts of any increase in grazer preference have not been 378 sufficient to limit the spread of this species around the UK. Evidence for the ERH in S. 379 *muticum* can be divided into those studies that assessed grazer abundance and diversity (e.g. 380 381 Withers et al., 1975; Norton & Benson, 1983; Viejo, 1999; Wernberg et al., 2004; Strong et al., 2009; Cacabelos et al., 2010a; Engelen et al., 2013) and those like this the current study 382 that assessed feeding by grazers (e.g. Norton & Benson, 1983; Critchley et al., 1986; 383 384 Pedersen et al., 2005; Monteiro et al., 2009; Strong et al., 2009; Cacabelos et al., 2010b; Engelen et al., 2011). Typically, observational studies on faunal abundance and diversity 385 demonstrated similar patterns between S. muticum and sympatric native algae, and therefore 386 show evidence against the ERH (e.g. Cacabelos et al., 2010a; Engelen et al., 2013) However, 387 the results of feeding-trials usually show an aversion towards S. muticum or a preference for 388 native species in feeding-trials, in support of the ERH (e.g. Monteiro et al. 2009, Cacabelos et 389 al. 2010b). Although different to previous feeding-trials because of the incorporation of time-390 391 since-invasion, the present study also supports the ERH. These apparently contradictory 392 conclusions may be the result of animals moving into S. muticum stands during the day for protection against visual predators, but then returning to native alga to feed during the night 393 (Buschmann, 1990; Machado et al., 2015). Alternatively, grazers on S. muticum could be 394 395 feeding mainly on epiphytic material and detritus in the field (Viejo, 1999; Cacabelos et al., 2010b), and may therefore avoid S. muticum under laboratory conditions due to experimental 396 397 removal of epiphytes or the selection of individuals that are relatively epiphyte free.

398 However, a small number of previous studies have found preferences for S. muticum over native algae (e.g. Pedersen et al., 2005), or a lack of preference for native algae when 399 paired with it (e.g. Engelen et al., 2011). Strong et al. (2009) demonstrated that the amphipod 400 401 Dexamine spinosa from Strangford Lough in Northern Ireland, exhibited a clear preference for S. muticum in feeding trials. The amphipod fed directly upon S. muticum's fronds even 402 when they were epiphytised, showing neither the preference for, nor the aversion towards, 403 404 epiphytes seen in other species of crustacean (Karez et al., 2000). Sargassum muticum was present in Strangford Lough for eight years prior to these feeding-trials, although it was 405 406 probably abundant for less than five (Davison, 2009). These preferences therefore developed quickly, far less than the 23 years Cacabelos et al. (2010a) show it took for grazers to adapt to 407 408 S. muticum, or the 19–35 years in this study. The findings by Strong et al. (2009) may be due 409 to the grazer studied, as swimming crustaceans are more mobile than benthic gastropods and 410 their feeding-modes differ, making it easier for them to feed on thinner algal fronds (Pavia & Toth, 2000) such as those of *S. muticum*. In addition, the gastropods in Monteiro *et al.* (2009) 411 412 exhibited preference for native algae, whereas the crustaceans (both amphipods and isopods) in Engelen et al. (2011) did not. These studies therefore arrive at different conclusions for the 413 414 ERH, possibly because of the capabilities of the grazers used.

Engelen et al. (2013) did not specifically test time-since-invasion in field 415 416 observations, but noted that the older S. muticum populations sampled had greater faunal 417 diversity with respect to sympatric native algae. Had the experiment been undertaken at the older sites only, the ERH would also have appeared not to apply. Likewise, Monteiro et al. 418 (2009) discuss that the feeding-preferences for native algae over S. muticum in the grazers 419 420 they assayed, did not differ with time-since-invasions of 22, 12, and 7 years. However, the results presented here suggest modifications of gastropod preferences do not begin until 421 somewhere between 19 and 35 years after invasion. Therefore, when drawing conclusions 422

from both field observations and feeding-trials with a view to testing the ERH, the nature of the grazers included (their relative mobility, feeding-modes, and diet), and the time-sinceinvasion at the site or sites being sampled (Strayer *et al.*, 2006; Schultheis *et al.*, 2015) must be taken into consideration.

It is curious that despite differences in phlorotannin concentration in the S. muticum 427 sampled, palatability appeared unaffected in the first experiment. The younger two 428 populations bore similar abundances of phlorotannins, but the older population had around 429 1.5% more phlorotannin by dry mass. *Littorina obtusata* responds to differences in 430 431 phlorotannin of around 1% DM when feeding on A. nodosum (Pavia et al., 2002). The lack of differences in feeding response could have arisen because the animals used were entirely 432 naïve to S. muticum, since gastropods may display high rates of indiscriminate feeding on 433 434 novel foods (e.g. Whelan, 1982; Morrison & Hay, 2011). The naïve L. obtusata in the palatability trials (experiment 1) consumed much more S. muticum material than the 435 experienced L. obtusata in the willingness-to-feed trials (experiment 2). These findings 436 437 suggest that biotic resistance in the very early stages of an invasion may be exceptionally high (Parker & Hay, 2005), albeit temporary if the invasive species proves unpalatable (see 438 Whelan 1982). 439

These results represent a preliminary assessment of grazing preference with time-440 since-invasion. Sampling a greater number of both sites and grazers would permit a more 441 442 concrete understanding of the potential behavioural shifts undertaken by these consumers, in response to invasions. The logistical constraints of including time-since-invasion are notably 443 restrictive. Even equipped with the chronology of S. muticum's spread, selecting sites similar 444 445 to one another proved to be difficult. Sites differed in terms of species composition and compromises had to be made in the design of experiments. Caution must also be applied in 446 interpreting the broader ecological significance of these trials, since mesoherbivore feeding-447

448	behaviours in the laboratory are not necessarily reflected in the field (Monteiro et al., 2009),
449	and presence of grazers on algae in the field does not necessarily indicate direct herbivory on
450	the tissues of the macrophyte (Viejo, 1999; Pearse et al. 2013). It is worth noting that S.
451	muticum is vastly more abundant at both of the 'older' sites sampled (35YR and 40YR), and
452	although grazing marks are visible upon the fronds, they grew to similar thallus lengths as
453	observed from other sites elsewhere (Kurr, unpublished data). However, these findings do
454	suggest that native marine mesoherbivores have the potential to alter their behaviour in the
455	presence of non-native species, developing an ability to feed on novel foods over time
456	(Trowbridge 2004). This adds to the growing body of literature (e.g. Dostál et al., 2013;
457	Harvey et al., 2013; Byers et al., 2015; Schultheis et al., 2015, and references therein) which
458	shows that time-since-invasion is a fundamental component of invasive ecology.
459	
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- 752 Figures
- 753 Fig 1. Locations of Sargassum muticum populations sampled for algal material and
- mesoherbivores. Sites are named by the time-since-invasion of S. muticum. Grey arrows
- represent general invasion path from first observed occurrence. Site 40YR: Bembridge Ledge
- 756 (50.680466°N, 1.072554°W). Site 35YR: Eastbourne (50.750541°N, 0.270442°E). Site
- 19YR: West Angle Bay, near Milford Haven (51.688676°N, 5.110854°W). Site 10YR: The

northern shore of the Foryd estuary near Caernarfon (53.131581°N, 4.304016°W).



Fig 2. The lagoonal system at Site 35YR: Eastbourne showing the typical topography (upper plate), and the typical position of *Sargassum muticum* individuals in relation to native algae (lower plate), at the four sites sampled. *Sargassum muticum* fronds can be seen floating on the surface waters close to *Fucus serratus*, *Ascophyllum nodosum*, *Ulva spp.*, and a number of rhodophytes including *Heterosiphonia plumosa* and *Plumaria plumosa*.









Fig. 4. Change in algal mass (m g/mg) of *Sargassum muticum* and *Ascophyllum nodosum*fronds collected from populations established for different lengths of time (named by
reported time-since-invasion of *S. muticum*), after seven days of exposure to *Littorina fabalis*collected from those same sites in no-choice feeding trials. All data are adjusted for autogenic
changes in algal mass. *Post hoc* analysis is presented in Table 1, and error bars show +/- 1
S.E.







- **Table 1.** Three-way Nested ANOVA for the change in mass of algal individuals exposed to
- *Littorina fabalis* collected from two sites, one bearing *Sargassum muticum* for 40 years, and

one for 10 years, in no-choice feeding trials on Sargassum muticum and

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Ascophyllum nodosum.

		DF	MS	F	Р
	Algal species	1	48724	8.01	0.007
	Algal origin	1	54066	8.89	0.004
	Grazer origin	1	37037	6.09	0.017
	Algal species*Algal origin	1	458084	75.32	< 0.001
	Algal species*Grazer origin	1	53737	8.84	0.005
	Algal origin*Grazer origin	1	2952	0.49	0.489
	Individual (Algal species*Algal origin)	1	23747	3.90	0.001
	Algal species*Algal origin*Grazer origin	1	12827	2.11	0.153
	Individual (Algal species*Algal origin)*Grazer origin	8	9899	1.63	0.142
	Error	68	6082		
800 801 802 803 804 805 806	<ul> <li>Algal Species*Algal Origin; 10YR S. muticum (A), 40YR A. nodo muticum (C)</li> <li>Algal Species*Grazer Origin; A nodosum and 40YR grazers (A), nodosum and 10YR Grazers (A), S. muticum and 40YR Grazers (B)</li> <li>Algal Origin*Grazer Origin; 10YR Algae with 10YR Grazers (A)</li> <li>40YR Algae with 10YR Grazers (AB), 40YR Algae with 40YR Grazers (A)</li> </ul>	osum (A S. muti ) ), 10YI azers (1	A), 10YR <i>A</i> . <i>cum</i> and 10 R Algae wit B)	nodosum YR Graze h 40YR G	(B), 40YR <i>S</i> . rs (A), <i>A</i> . razers (AB),
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