Does the invasion of *Caulerpa racemosa* var. *cylindracea* affect the feeding habits of amphipods (Crustacea: Amphipoda)?

${}_{9}$ Q1 maite vázquez-luis^{1,2}, pablo sanchez-jerez³ and just t. bayle-sempere³

¹I.E.O., Centre Oceanogràfic de les Balears, Moll de Ponent s/n, 07015 Palma de Mallorca, Spain, ²Centro de Investigación Marina de Santa Pola (CIMAR), Ayto. de Santa Pola y Universidad de Alicante, Torre d'Enmig s/n, Cabo de Santa Pola, Alicante, Spain, ³Departamento de Ciencias del Mar y Biología Aplicada. Edificio Ciencias V. Universidad de Alicante, POB. 99, E-03080 Alicante, Spain

Ecological interactions involving introduced seaweeds constitute an important research gap, since they could alter the trophic dynamics of native populations, but indirect effects on trophic levels are poorly known. The seaweed Caulerpa racemosa is one of the most notable invaders in the Mediterranean Sea. It is well known that C. racemosa modifies the amphipod community with respect to native habitats, but nothing is known regarding the common use of the same trophic resources. Therefore, the aim of this study was to assess if the feeding habits of amphipods associated with algal habitats are affected by the spread of the invasive C. racemosa, through stomach content analysis of amphipods living in both native and invaded seaweed assemblages. A total of 240 specimens of 14 species of amphipods were examined. Ten species were present in both studied habitats (native and invaded), while two were exclusive to native and invaded habitats, respectively. Ten individuals of each species at each habitat were selected and their gut contents were examined. A total of 11 different items was found in the gut contents: detritus; vegetal detritus; algae; animal tissue; Oligochaeta; Polychaeta; Foraminifera; Crustacea; Sipuncula; diatoms; and non-identified items. The expansion of C. racemosa into the native algal community changes the feeding habits of herbivorous amphipods, since their preferred food (epiphytic algae) is not available in the new habitat produced by C. racemosa. This community change occurs because of the presence of caulerpenyne in C. racemosa, which retards the growth of epiphytic algae. Nevertheless, other species are not affected or benefited by the invasion, such as detritivorous species whose main food source and habitat remains available. Altogether, slight changes in the trophodynamism of amphipod assemblages have been detected, which are not seen as relevant in an initial stage. However, they might be promoting some indirect effects in the energetic budget of populations, which may affect the life history. Further studies on food-web interactions in the ecosystems affected by invasive species are necessary.

Keywords: biodiversity, exotic species, detritus, feeding hat yut contents, impact, invasive species, trophic dynamics

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INTRODUCTION

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43 Habitat structure plays a very important role in marine 44 benthic ecosystems. Benthic organisms depend on substrates, 45 not only for physical support, but also for food supply and 46 shelter (Sebens, 1991). The increase of habitat structural com-47 plexity enhances the availability of microhabitats and trophic 48 niches which, in turn, affects species interaction and diversity 49 (Huston, 1979). Affecting the processes that shape the pres-50 51 ence, abundance and distribution of species (Orth et al., 1984; Beck, 2000), habitat structure may also influence the 52 functioning of food webs. Consumers will feed on prey 53 depending on: (i) their trophic guilds and the ability to 54 capture the prey; (ii) their preferences for a particular prey; 55 and (iii) the abundance of each prey in their habitat. 56 Moreover, in shallow rocky marine habitats, the particular 57 predator-prey combinations will be strongly influenced by 58 59

vegetation characteristics (Heck & Crowder, 1991), with marine algae being important contributors to structure the habitat in terms of complexity and heterogeneity. Indeed, macrophytes act as ecosystem engineers, creating or modifying the habitat and, consequently, influencing the associated epifauna.

Therefore disturbance events, such as the introduction of invasive seaweed species can modify habitat structure and consequently, result in large ecological effects (see a review in Williams & Smith, 2007). Such species can restructure and radically change the functioning of the recipient habitat (Crooks, 2002), determining the biota that will become associated with the habitat. For instance, some studies have shown negative effects on feeding habits of herbivorous, such as littorine snails, sea urchins and fishes, caused by different invasive seaweeds in Atlantic and Pacific Ocean (Stimson et al., 2001; Britton-Simmons, 2004; Chavanich & Harris, 2004). In the Mediterranean Sea, which is the most heavily invaded marine region in the world with respect to introduced seaweeds (Williams & Smith, 2007), it was found that the invasive alga Caulerpa taxifolia is not a suitable diet for the widespread sea urchin Paracentrotus lividus (Boudouresque et al., 1996).

64 *Caulerpa racemosa* var. *cylindracea* (hereafter *C. racemosa*) is one of the most invasive seaweeds in the Mediterranean Sea. 65 Some studies have demonstrated negative effects of C. race-66 mosa on native seaweeds (Piazzi et al., 2001, 2003; Balata 67 et al., 2004), on invertebrate assemblages (Vázquez-Luis 68 et al., 2008, 2009a), on food choice of invertebrates (gastro-69 pods) (Gianguzza et al., 2002) and on prey availability for 70 fish (Vázquez-Luis et al., 2010). Other studies have found 71 positive effects by increasing abundances of polychaete assem-72 blages (Argyrou et al., 1999; Box et al., 2010). In addition, 73 recent studies have demonstrated that some fish species, 74 such as Sarpa salpa and Spondyliosoma cantharus, consume 75 C. racemosa (Box et al., 2009; Tomas et al., 2010, 2011); 76 although the first one suggested that this ingestion might be 77 unintentional. In the case of seagrass density no consistent 78 pattern was found (Ceccherelli & Cinelli, 1997; Ceccherelli 79 80 & Campo, 2002). Therefore, the possibility that positive or negative effects happen cannot be ruled out (Dumay et al., 81 82 2002).

Amphipods are one of the most ubiquitous and abundant 83 invertebrate groups in marine vegetated habitats, with den-84 sities often reaching several thousands of individuals per 85 square metre (Brawley, 1992; Vázquez-Luis et al., 2008). 86 They are important secondary producers and exhibit diverse 87 88 feeding strategies: grazing, filter and detritic feeding, predation and scavenging (macrophagy and microphagy) (Carrasco & 89 Arcos, 1984; Highsmith & Coyle, 1990; Sarvala & Uitto, 90 91 1991). These various feeding modes are sometimes used simultaneously or successively according to ambient conditions 92 (Ruffo, 1998). Morever, amphipods are a food source for a 93 large variety of marine predators (Stoner, 1979; Beare & 94 Moore, 1997; Sanchez-Jerez et al., 1999; Stål et al., 2007), 95 hence playing a key role in energy flow through food webs 96 (Vázquez-Luis et al., 2010). 97

Amphipods are also known to respond to habitat modifi-98 cation (Sanchez-Jerez et al., 1999); some species exhibit high 99 habitat specificity while others tolerate a range of habitat 100 alteration that may result from pollution, invasion by alien 101 species and other disturbance. Therefore some species of 102 amphipods are good indicators of environmental impacts on 103 vegetated habitats (Bellan-Santini, 1980; Virnstein, 1987; 104 Conradi et al., 1997; Sanchez-Jerez et al., 2000; Carvalho 105 et al., 2006). It is known that C. racemosa changes the amphi-106 pod community in terms of abundance and species richness, 107 and some amphipod species exist in both native and 108 invaded habitats (Vázquez-Luis et al., 2008, 2009b). 109 However, it is still poorly known if these species are using 110 the same trophic resources. The main objective of this study 111 is to asses if the feeding habits of amphipods associated with 112 coastal seaweeds are affected by the spread of the invasive C. 113 racemosa, through stomach content analysis of amphipods 114 living in both native and invaded seaweed assemblages. 115

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Based on a previous study (Vázquez-Luis *et al.*, 2008) we
selected 10 species of amphipods that were common to the
studied habitats (native algae and *C. racemosa*).
Additionally, 4 other species (2 exclusive of each habitat)
were also selected. Ten individuals per species and habitat
were used in the present study (for further details on distribution and characteristics of habitats see Vázquez-Luis

et al., 2008). Therefore, the gut contents of a total of 240 specimens of 14 amphipod species were examined following the methodology proposed by Bello & Cabrera (1999) with slight variations (Tierno de Figueroa *et al.*, 2006; Guerra-García & Tierno de Figueroa, 2009). Each individual was added to a vial with Hertwig's liquid (consisting of 270 g of chloral hydrate, 19 ml of chloridric acid 1 N, 150 ml of distilled water and 60 ml of glycerin) and heated in an oven at 65° C for 3 to 6 hours, depending on the cuticle thickness of the specimens. After this, they were mounted on slides for examination under the microscope, equipped with an ocular micrometer.

The relevance of stomach contents in the amphipods studied was evaluated by calculating the percentage of the absolute gut content (%GC = total area occupied by the content in the whole digestive tract), and vacuity index $(VI = 100 \times [number of empty stomachs/total number of$ stomachs analysed]); both values will help to evaluate the importance of gut contents. The importance of different prey types was evaluated by calculating the relative gut content (Ab = area occupied for each component within the total gut content), and the frequency of occurrence (Oc = $100 \times [number of stomachs containing prey$ *i*/total numberof stomachs containing prey]) of each prey item. A permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PRIMER 6 and PERMANOVA: Clarke & Gorley, 2006) was used to test differences in amphipod gut content composition between the two habitats studied. When factors showed significant differences, a pairwise test was carried out to test differences among groups. The PERMANOVA analyses incorporated two factors: (i) 'Habitat' (fixed and orthogonal) with two levels: native algae and C. racemosa; and (ii) 'Species' (fixed and orthogonal) with ten levels (the ten species presented in both habitat types): Apocorophium acutum, Ampithoe ramondi, Caprella grandimana, Caprella hirsuta, Dexamine spiniventris, Elasmopus brasiliensis, Elasmopus pocillimanus, Lysianassa costae, Microdeutopus obtusatus and Stenothoe monoculoides. Non-parametric multidimensional scaling (MDS) was used as the ordination method for exploring affinities among species and habitats according to the dietary analysis (PRIMER software: Clarke, 1993). The similarity matrix, which was calculated using the Bray-Curtis index and using fourth root transformed data, was used to construct bivariate MDS plots.

RESULTS

Two hundred and forty specimens of 14 species and from two habitats were examined (Table 1). The VI or percentage of empty stomachs ranged from 0 to 30 (Table 1). For the species common to both habitats, the higher proportions of empty guts were observed in specimens collected within *C. racemosa* when compared to native habitats, more specifically in species *Stenothoe monoculoides* (VI = 30), *Dexamine spiniventris* (VI = 20), *Elasmopus brasiliensis* (VI = 20) and *Caprella grandimana* (VI = 10). Among the species exclusive of a single habitat, only *Melita hergensis* showed VI = 0 (Table 1). Digestive contents were found in 229 specimens (95.4%) belonging to all species.

The total area occupied by the content in the whole digestive tract ranged from 16.7% for *S. monoculoides* to 55% for *Microdeutopus obtusatus*, both in native algae. Gut contents

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Table 1. Gut contents of the species studied in the different habitats. Hab, habitat; VI, vacuity index; %GC, total gut content occupied in the whole digestive tract; V detritus, vegetal detritus; Ab, mean abundance of each
item (%); Oc, frequency of occurrence of each item (%); ALG, native seaweeds; CAU, Caulerpa racemosa.

Species Hab VI	Hab	VI	%GC	Detritus		V detritus		Algae		An. tissue		Oligochaeta		Polychaeta		Foraminifera		Crustacea		Sipuncula		Diatomea		Non ident	
			Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	Ab	Oc	
Apocorophium acutum	ALG	0	47	100	100	_	_	_	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
(Chevreux, 1908)	CAU	0	49.5	100	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ampithoe ramondi	ALG	0	44.7	1.5	20	-	-	98.5	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Audouin, 1826)	CAU	0	51.5	72.5	100	-	-	27.5	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Caprella grandimana	ALG	0	29.7	87.9	90	-	-	10	10	2	10	-	-	-	-	0.1	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Mayer, 1882)	CAU	10	35	87.5	100	-	-	-	-	2.5	22.22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Caprella hirsuta	ALG	0	22.3	94	100	-	-	-	-	5	40	-	-	1	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Mayer, 1890)	CAU	0	34	93.5	100	-	-	-	-	6.5	40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Dexamine spiniventris	ALG	0	24.7	-	-	-	-	100	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(A. Costa, 1853)	CAU	20	21.9	29.5	37.5	-	-	50.5	75	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Elasmopus brasiliensis	ALG	0	42.7	50	90	1.5	10	26	30	16.7	40	-	-	0.5	10	0.3	10	5	10	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Dana, 1855)	CAU	20	35.5	30.1	87.5	-	-	10.5	50	33.3	75	-	-	-	-	5.1	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Elasmopus pocillimanus	ALG	0	39.3	71.9	100	-	-	3.5	20	15.5	50	-	-	-	-	0.1	10	9	20	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Bate, 1862)	CAU	0	42.5	37.8	80	-	-	3	10	58.5	90	-	-	-	-	0.7	30	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lysianassa costae	ALG	0	20	52.5	100	7.5	30	3	10	37	90	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Milne Edwards, 1830)	CAU	0	21.7	36	90	23	80	9	40	31	80	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	10	-	-	-	-
Microdeutopus obtusatus	ALG	0	55	99.9	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.1	10	-	-
(Myers, 1973)	CAU	0	42.8	93	100	-	-	-	-	7	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Stenothoe monoculoides	ALG	0	16.7	1	10	-	-	39.9	40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	59	60	-	-	0.1	10	-	-
(Montagu, 1813)	CAU	30	17.5	-	-	-	-	10	12.5	-	-	-	-	5	12.5	-	-	50	75	-	-	-	-	5	12.5
Atylus guttatus	ALG	10	32.8	4	22.22	1	11.11	85	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(A .Costa, 1851)																									
Atylus massiliensis	ALG	20	31.5	10	50	-	-	69	100	-	-	1	12.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Bellan-Santini, 1975)																									
Caprella acanthifera	CAU	10	22.3	82.5	100	-	-	-	-	7.5	22.22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Leach, 1814)																									
Melita hergensis	CAU	0	19.1	80.5	90	-	-	10	10	7.5	20	2	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Reid, 1939)																									

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of the studied amphipod species included 11 items: detritus 190 (organic and inorganic thin particles); vegetal detritus 191 (vegetal debris); algae; animal tissue; oligochaeta; polychaeta; 192 foraminifera; crustacea (mainly copepods); sipuncula; 193 diatoms; and non-identified items. Food items for each 194 species and by habitat are described in Table 1. The multi-195 variate response of amphipod gut content composition 196 showed significant differences between the two habitats 197 studied (PERMANOVA, Ha \times Sp, P < 0.01: Table 2). After 198 the pair-wise test, A. ramondi, E. pocillimanus and L. costae 199 present different feeding habits in the two habitat types. For 2.00 the rest of the species no significant differences were found. 201

Apocorophium acutum in both habitats fed exclusively on 202 detritus (Figure 1A). Ampithoe ramondi consumed mainly 203 epiphytic algae (family Rhodomelacea, genera Polysiphonia 204 or Neosiphonia) living in algae, while in C. racemosa showed 205 higher values of detritus consumption (Figure 1B), those 206 differences being significant (Ha \times Sp, P < 0.01: Table 2). 207 Caprella grandimana showed similar diet across habitats 208 feeding mainly on detritus and some algal fragments when 209 living on native algae (Figure 1C). Caprella hirsuta showed 210 similar feeding habits among habitats, with detritus being 211 the most important item (Figure 1D). Dexamine spiniventris 212 living in native algae consumed mainly epiphytic algae 213 (family Rhodomelaceae, family Ulvaceae and family 214 Sphacelariaceae), while those in C. racemosa showed higher 215 values of detritus consumption (Figure 1E). Elasmopus brasi-216 liensis and Elasmopus pocillimanus showed a wide diversity of 217 218 items in their gut contents, feeding on detritus, algae and 219 different animal prey (Figure 1F. G). In the case of E. pocilli-220 manus significant differences were detected by PERMANOVA showing that the diet was different for this 221 species in both habitat types (Ha \times Sp, P < 0.01: Table 2). 222 Lysianassa costae had a higher presence of vegetal detritus 223 in each habitat, but detritus, animal tissue and algae were 224 also found in their guts (Figure 1H), and the diet was also 225 different for this species in both habitat types (Ha × Sp, 226 P < 0.01: Table 2). Microdeutopus obtusatus fed mainly on 227 detritus and some animal prey in both habitats (Figure 1I). 228 Stenothoe monoculoides showed the highest values of con-229 sumed crustaceans, but fed also on algae in native algae habi-230 tats and Polychaeta in C. racemosa habitats (Figure 1J). 231 Regarding the gut content of the species that appeared only 232 in one habitat, those living on algae (Atylus guttatus and A. 233 massiliensis) showed high percentages of consumed algae 234 235 tissues; and those species living in C. racemosa (Caprella 236

Table 2. Results of the multivariate analysis PERMANOVA for gut contents of amphipods among habitats. MS, mean square; *P*, level of significance; df, degrees of freedom; **, significant (*P* < 0.01).

Source of variarion	Df	Amphipo assembla	F versus		
		MS	Р		
Habitat = Ha	1	2528.5	0.027*	Res	
Species = Sp	9	28010	0.001**	Res	
Ha × Sp	9	3356.4	0.001**	Res	
Residual	172	676.25			
Transformation		Fourth ro	ot		

251 Post-hoc test: Ampithoe ramondi, Elasmopus pocillimanus and Lysianassa
 252 costae: Caulerpa racemosa ≠ native algae.

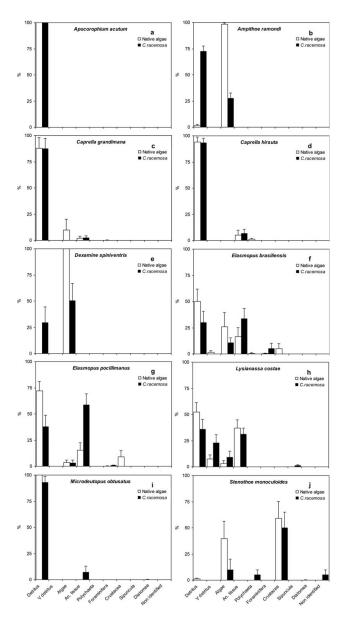


Fig. 1. Values of mean abundance (percentage of item \pm standard error) of ten amphipods: Apocorophium acutum (a), Ampithoe ramondi (b), Caprella grandimana (c), Caprella hirsuta (d), Dexamine spiniventris (e), Elasmopus brasiliensis (f), Elasmopus pocillimanus (g), Lysianassa costae (h), Microdeutopus obtusatus (i) and Stenothoe monoculoides (j).

acanthifera and *Melita hergensis*) fed mainly on detritus and animal tissues (Table 1).

The two-dimensional MDS plot showed segregation of sampling stations mainly by trophic groups; at 70% of similarity four groups can be distinguished represented by dtritivores, herbivores, omnivores and predators (Figure 2). The dietary composition of detritivores and omnivores was relatively similar, showing a clear segregation from the herbivorous group and further from the predators' group.

DISCUSSION

With respect to feeding habits some species are not affected by the presence of the alien algae, nevertheless for a few species some differences become apparent depending on the habitat

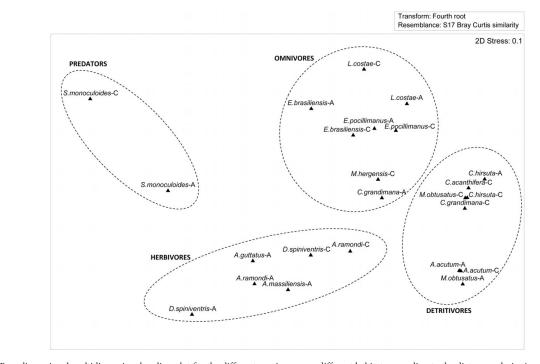


Fig. 2. Two-dimensional multidimensional scaling plot for the different species among different habitats according to the dietary analysis. A, native seaweeds; C, *Caulerpa racemosa*.

they lived in. Changes of feeding habits were more significant
on herbivorous amphipods, since their preferred food (epiphytic algae) was not available in the habitat colonized by *C*. *racemosa* and they fed on detritus as an alternative. On the
other hand, detritivore species showed the least differences
with respect to habitat type because their main food source
remains available.

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The changes in the ecological niche due to C. racemosa do 288 not seem to affect some species, but others need to look for 289 new trophic resources. The higher availability of detritus 290 found within invaded habitats compared to native algae 291 meadows, has consequences for amphipod assemblages 292 (Vázquez-Luis et al., 2008). Therefore, it is not surprising 293 that detritivores were the least negatively affected by the pro-294 liferation of C. racemosa. Indeed, A. acutum, a fine-particle 295 suspension feeder, was more abundant in C. racemosa than 296 in native seaweeds (Vázquez-Luis et al., 2008). The detritus 297 accumulated within C. racemosa habitats seems to favour 298 the construction of tubes where they live, while population 299 growth is further supported by the amounts of preferred 300 food resource within this habitat. Similar findings had 301 already been reported for C. sextonae (Casu et al., 2009). 302 The feeding habits of other detritivore species such as M. obtu-303 satus were not highly affected by the spread of C. racemosa. 304 Similar patterns have been found in three caprellid species, 305 C. grandimana, C. hirsuta and C. acanthifera, which feed 306 mostly on detritus (Guerra-García & Tierno de Figueroa, 307 2009). 308

The herbivorous species, such as *A. ramondi* and *D. spiniventris*, are scarce in *C. racemosa* habitat and when using this habitat, they slightly modify their feeding habits due to changes in the availability of food. However, the possibility cannot be ruled out that those individuals could be recent immigrants. They usually feed on epiphytic algae that are absent in *C. racemosa* because of the presence of caulerpenes (Léeme *et al.*, 1997). Thus, apart from habitat structure, the availability of food is crucial for those species to live in one habitat or another. Some individuals of herbivorous species were found living in *C. racemosa* (Vázquez-Luis *et al.*, 2008), but probably the scarce food for them on this habitat could generate metabolic problems and may lead to survivor-ship problems for the juveniles. Probably for this reason *A. guttatus* and *A. massiliensis* were not found in *C. racemosa* habitats; indeed more than 75% of their gut contents were epiphytic algae.

It should be noticed that within the same trophic guild, the feeding habits of some species were more similar according to the type of habitat than the species itself, such as the herbivorous A. ramondi and D. spiniventris and the omnivorous E. brasiliensis and E. pocillimanus. Regarding other omnivores, M. hergensis appeared only in C. racemosa, probably benefiting from the spread of the invasive algae. However, the abundance of this species in C. racemosa was very low (Vázquez-Luis et al., 2008). It must be taken into account that within the omnivorous species some, such as L. costae, show scavenging habits. It was the most different species in this group and seemed little affected by the spread of C. racemosa. The only predator found in the present study, S. monoculoides, does not seem to have changed or modified their feeding habits by the spread of C. racemosa, since it is able to find prey in both habitats.

Vegetal content of *C. racemosa* has not been found in any of the analysed guts of amphipods. Our results are similar to those found on other invasive seaweeds where amphipods and other herbivores and omnivores fed very little on the invasive species, and therefore the spread of introduced seaweeds is not under herbivore control (Trowbridge, 1995; Levin *et al.*, 2002; Britton-Simmons, 2004; Chavanich & Harris, 2004; Conklin & Smith, 2005; Davis *et al.*, 2005; Sumi & Scheibling, 2005; Gollan & Wright, 2006; Box *et al.*, 2009).

Low herbivore diversity and abundance, combined with very 316 little feeding on and weak habitat preference for invasive 317 algae result in limited grazing pressure, as has been reported 318 for the amphipod Cymadusa setosa on C. taxifolia (Gollan 319 & Wright, 2006). Therefore, primary production generated 320 by the spread of C. racemosa appears not to be exploited by 321 herbivores or primary consumers, but rather acts by activating 322 the detritivore pathway. Recent experimental studies reveal 323 that species richness and total abundance of amphipods 324 increased with an increase in detrital content. The same 325 applies to species abundance since values of this attribute 326 increased with an increase in detritus content (Vázquez-Luis 327 et al., 2009c). Detritus plays a very important role as a 328 trophic resource for marine invertebrates and serves as one 329 of the main trophic pathways in marine ecosystems (Valiela, 330 1995); it is also one of the most important features of 331 habitat structure in vegetated habitats (Allesina et al., 2005). 332 It was already suggested that some amphipods did not 333 consume algal biomass directly, but feed on associated 334 resources such as detritus (Enequist, 1949). Caprellids feed 335 clearly on detritus (Guerra-García & Tierno de Figueroa, 336 2009) and some zoobenthic taxa feed significantly on detritus 337 accumulated by C. racemosa (Casu et al., 2009). Such results 338 support the findings of the present study. Therefore, detritus 339 appears to play a very key role for amphipods as a food 340 source and the detritus stock associated with C. racemosa is 341 playing an important role in trophic dynamics of littoral 342 habitats. 343

As we can see, trophic preferences of amphipods can change 344 if the trophic resources are modified by environmental factors, 345 346 such as the establishment of an invasive species. Traditionally, species have been classified into specific trophic guilds, usually 347 based on mouthpart morphology. However a recent study on 348 caprellid amphipods found no relationships between gut con-349 tents and features of the mouthpart structure (Guerra-García 350 & Tierno de Figueroa, 2009). The only relationship that they 351 found is that a predatory way of life is directly related to the 352 absence of the mandibular molar. In our study we found a 353 single predator, Stenothoe monoculoides, which lacks a molar 354 on the mandible. Therefore, in most cases mouthpart structure 355 (mostly mandibular features) on its own is not a good tool to 356 determine the feeding habits of amphipods. Gut content analyses 357 are widely used to show the feeding habits of species. Moreover, 358 the results obtained from gut contents are usually correlated with 359 360 those from other analyses investigating over longer times, such as fatty acid composition (Graeve et al., 2001) and stable 361 isotope analyses (Kelly & Hawes, 2005). However, it is necessary 362 to include a combination of mouthpart studies with behavioural 363 observations, gut contents, feeding assays, fatty acids and stable 364 isotopes analyses to draw a complete knowledge of the feeding 365 habits of amphipods and food-web interactions in the ecosys-366 tems affected by invasive species. 367

We conclude that the expansion of C. racemosa on native 368 algal community changes the feeding habits of herbivorous 369 amphipods, which stop using plant tissues because of the lack 370 of an epiphytic community. In addition, the detritus accumu-371 lated by the rhizoid network of C. racemosa plays an important 372 role in the plasticity of the diet of herbivores, changing greatly 373 their trophic strategy. Nevertheless, other species are not 374 affected and some are benefited by the invasion, such as detri-375 tivorous species. Altogether, slight changes in the trophodyna-376 mism of amphipod assemblages have been noted, which are not 377 detected as important in an initial stage. However, they might 378

be promoting some indirect effects in the benthic community and in the life history of the species, with further unknown consequences in the marine trophic net.

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Correspondence should be addressed to:

M. Vázquez-Luis Centro de Investigación Marina de Santa Pola (CIMAR) Ayto. de Santa Pola y Universidad de Alicante Torre d'Enmig s/n, Cabo de Santa Pola, Alicante, Spain email: MT.Vazquez@ua.es