

# Trophic selectivity in aquatic isopods increases with the availability of resources

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#### 25 ABSTRACT

- 26 **1.** Trophic selectivity has major influences on consumers' fitness, stability of predator and prev populations, and nutrient fluxes in food webs. Trophic selectivity occurs when the relative 27 abundances of resources in a consumer's diet differ from their relative abundances in the 28 environment. This discrepancy between resources abundance and use has been predicted to 29 increase with the availability of resources in the environment. Trophic selectivity has also been 30 31 predicted to increase with the heterogeneity of resources quality in the environment. Despite their ecological and evolutionary implications, conclusive in situ tests of these predictions are still 32 lacking. 33
- 2. We challenged these two predictions by studying 15 closely related species of isopods distributed along a wide range of resource availability (from 1.3 to 57.6 grams of organic carbon per square meter). The dataset ranged from deep cave systems, considered as some of the most resource-limited environments on Earth, to highly-productive surface streams.
- 38 **3.** For each species, we quantified the relative abundance of all available resources in the environment and estimated the heterogeneity in the stoichiometric quality of these resources.

  40 Isopod diet was determined using C and N stable isotopes and a Bayesian mixing model. The degree of trophic selectivity was then calculated for each species.
- 42 **4.** By coupling a standardized quantification of trophic resources with a fine determination of diets using stable isotopes, we uncovered a positive relationship between resource availability and trophic selectivity. Contrary to our second prediction, trophic selectivity did not correlate with the heterogeneity of resources quality.
- 5. Our results have important implications in trophic ecology by highlighting that resource availability was a main driver of trophic choices in aquatic invertebrates across a broad range of environments. These findings call for further evaluation of the mechanisms (e.g. trophic competition) causing the positive relationship between trophic selectivity and resource

availability, as these mechanisms could be closely linked to those generating the documented relationship between species richness and productive energy.

# INTRODUCTION

Trophic selectivity has been recognized to have profound consequences for consumers' fitness (Cruz-Rivera & Hay, 2000; McMurray et al., 2016), for the stability of grazer and prey populations (Strom & Loukos, 1998; Meunier et al., 2016), and for nutrient fluxes and recycling in food webs (Marcarelli et al., 2011; Hood et al., 2014). Trophic selectivity occurs when the relative abundances of resource types in a consumer's diet differ from their relative abundances in the environment (Chesson, 1978). Therefore, selective feeders are consumers discriminating among the available resources in the environment by selecting specific resources (i.e. resources which are more represented in consumer's diet than in the environment; Feinsinger et al.; 1981; Peterson & Ausubel, 1984). 

The degree of trophic selectivity in organisms has been predicted to vary with the availability of resources in the environment (e.g. Anthony & Kunz, 1977; Tinker et al., 2008; Correa & Winemiller, 2014). According to the predictions of the optimal foraging theory (OFT; Roughgarden, 1972; Pyke et al., 1977; Krebs et al., 1997), an increase in resource availability for organisms feeding on a variety of resources should lead to an increased selectivity on their preferred resources. These OFT predictions have been experimentally demonstrated in rodents and wasps by Lacher (1982) and Armstrong & Stamp (2003), respectively. While informative, these intra-species experimental tests were effectively bound to a narrow range of resource availability change (3-fold) and hardly represented the actual resources distribution in natural ecosystems (controlled laboratory experiment; choice between two artificially-contrasted food

sources). Testing the relationship between resource availability and selectivity in a biologically realistic and relevant framework would thus require to study *in situ* a wide range of environmental trophic conditions, a condition hardly met without working at the species level. Although previous experimental validations of OFT predictions were only obtained at the individual and population levels, we can expect the same kind of relationship at the species level following the hypothesis developed by Evans et al. (2005). These authors predicted that an increase in total resource availability would increase the abundance of rare resources that would then become available in sufficient quantity to enable organisms to selectively feed on them. Consequently, trophic selectivity of species would increase with resource availability in the field.

Trophic selectivity in animals has also been expected to vary with the qualities of resources present in their environment (e.g. Cruz-Rivera & Hay, 2000; Zandona et al., 2011). Indeed, discriminating between the available resources would imply more benefit for the organism in an environment where resources span a wide range of nutritional qualities than in an environment where all resources have similar qualities. Many proxies of resource quality have been proposed, including the widely used C:N and C:P ratios (Hessen et al., 2007; Hillebrand et al., 2008). According to the ecological stoichiometry theory (Sterner & Elser, 2002; Elser, 2006; Hessen et al., 2013; Hood et al., 2014), organisms would select their trophic resources to minimize the stoichiometric mismatch between their elemental composition and that of their consumed resources. They are expected to feed selectively on the resources whose C:N and/or C:P ratios are as close as possible to their own ratios to optimize their nutrient acquisition. This selective stoichiometric choice would be achievable only in environments with resources of differing qualities. As a consequence, trophic selectivity would increase with the diversity (i.e. heterogeneity) of available resources in terms of stoichiometric quality.

Although theory predicts that the availability as well as the heterogeneity in the quality of the resources influences trophic selectivity, *in situ* explicit tests of their respective effects on selective feeding are still lacking. The present paper aims to fill this gap by studying in situ the trophic selectivity among species living along a gradient of resource availability. In this context, four analytical challenges widely recognized in the literature must be addressed (Evans et al., 2005). First, a wide environmental gradient in resource availability along which many closely related species can be sampled is necessary. Indeed, earlier comparisons between two contrasted environments are instructive (e.g. Huntsman et al., 2011), but lack support for generalization. Second, the quantification of resource availability along the studied gradients was often limited to coarse estimations using various databases and models without precise assessments of available resources in the field (Gende et al., 2001; Kaspari, 2001; Birkhofer & Wolters, 2012). Third, accurate long-term diet estimation requires to integrate resource assimilation over a large period of time. However, estimations of species diet relying on gut content analyses, measurements of resource consumption or visual observations (Lacher, 1982; Armstrong & Stamp, 2003; Huntsman et al., 2011; Zandona et al., 2011) provide a snapshot of the diet at a given time and do not consider differences in digestibility among resources (e.g. Trumble et al., 2003). Fourth, most broad-scale studies did not account for the phylogenetic relatedness among species even though it is now acknowledged that most biological traits are phylogenetically conserved (Felsenstein, 1985; Blomberg et al., 2003; Pienaar et al., 2013).

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In the present paper, we addressed the aforementioned challenges through a dedicated sampling design and the use of accurate analytical and statistical methods. We focused on aquatic isopod species of the family Asellidae which represent ideal biological models due to their distribution along a wide environmental gradient ranging from deep cave systems (among the most energy-limited environments on Earth; Poulson & Lavoie, 2000; Gibert & Deharveng, 2002; Venarsky et al., 2014) to highly-productive surface streams. Moreover, their phylogeny has been precisely

described (Morvan et al., 2013), enabling to account for phylogenetic inertia. Based on a deep knowledge of their habitat and ecology (Simon et al., 2003; Leberfinger et al., 2011; Mermillod-Blondin et al., 2013; Eme et al., 2014; Francois et al., 2016a), a standardized sampling design was built to evaluate the abundance as well as the stoichiometric quality (based on C:N and C:P ratios) of all available resources in diverse environments. This precise characterization of trophic resources was combined with diet determination to measure the degree of selectivity of each species. Isopod diets were determined by analyzing the C and N stable isotope ratios of individuals and their resources. The isotopic composition of an individual is a long-term integrator of its trophic choices and reflects what has been actually assimilated in its tissues, summarizing ingestion and digestibility of each resource (Peterson & Fry, 1987; Fry & Sherr, 1989; Traugott et al., 2013).

Based on 15 closely related species of Asellidae, we obtained an original dataset enabling to test two predictions along one of the largest gradient of resource availability existing in natural ecosystems. First, trophic selectivity of aquatic asellids should increase with resource availability following the prediction of Evans et al. (2005). Second, trophic selectivity should increase with the diversity in stoichiometric quality of resources according to the ecological stoichiometric theory.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### **Biological** model

Our data set comprised 15 species of Asellidae collected in environments spanning a wide range (from caves to surface streams) of freshwater habitats in Southern Europe (Table 1). Species of isopods belonging to this family are known to feed on a wide range of food resources, including coarse and fine particulate organic matter (CPOM and FPOM), filamentous algae, aquatic

macrophytes, epilithic biofilm and periphyton (Moore, 1975; Marcus et al., 1978; Rossi & Fano, 1979; Basset & Rossi, 1987; Arakelova, 1996; Leberfinger et al., 2011; François et al., 2016a). Given this diversity of food resources, we used a commonly accepted procedure which consists in discriminating between broad food compartments (Simon et al., 2003; Leberfinger et al., 2011). These compartments correspond to coarse particulate organic matter (CPOM; 1 mm < particle size < 6 mm), fine particulate organic matter (FPOM; particle size < 1 mm), roots, algae, sedimentary biofilm developed on sand particles (200 μm < particle size < 1000 μm), biofilm attached to the debris of animal cuticle (epicuticular biofilm) and thick biofilm attached to submerged rocks (epilithic periphyton).

# Sampling

The 15 species were sampled from July to October 2011 in caves, springs and streams. Only one focal asellid species was present in each sampling site. For each species, from 9 to 18 individuals were collected (at sight or using the Bou–Rouch method (Bou, 1974) or a Surber sampler), except for the species *P. parvulus* with only 4 sampled individuals (see Table S1 in Supporting Information). In parallel, the trophic resources known to be edible by Asellidae were sampled in each environment. This sampling consisted in 3 replicates per environment, in order to be representative of the spatial heterogeneity. Following the approach of Huntsman et al. (2011), each replicated sampling consisted in collecting on a depth of 1 cm all available resources occurring on a standardized area (256 cm²). After sampling, both samples of trophic resources and isopods were flash-frozen with liquid nitrogen in the field for conservation during the journey back to the laboratory.

#### **Trophic resources in the environment**

At the laboratory, all collected trophic resources were unfrozen and sorted according to the food categories described above by using nets of different mesh sizes (200 µm, 1 mm and 6 mm). Food

categories were then frozen, freeze-dried and weighted to obtain a dry mass of each trophic resource per square meter (g of Dry Weight (DW) /  $m^2$ ) for each site (Table S2). All obtained resource samples were then ground using a ball mill grinder (Retsch MM-200) for homogenization before the determination of resource elemental composition (%OC, %N and %P, i.e. the organic carbon (OC), nitrogen and available phosphorus content of each resource, as % of dry mass; Table S2). For sedimentary biofilm and periphyton, samples were treated with 1N HCl before OC analysis to remove carbonates using the 'capsule method', as described in Brodie et al. (2011). Elemental composition was then measured alongside the determination of isotopic ratios (see below), allowing to calculate the C:N stoichiometric molar ratio of each resource (Table S2). The quantity of each resource (g of DW /  $m^2$ ) and its elemental composition (%OC) enabled to calculate the OC content for each resource per site (g of OC sequestered in a given resource .  $m^2$ ).

# Phosphorus content of isopods and trophic resources

Chemical analyses were performed to determine the phosphorus content of isopods and of their trophic resources (% of P per dry mass). For isopods and trophic resources (except sedimentary biofilm and periphyton), P content was determined on ground samples digested in an autoclave for 30 minutes at 121°C and 15-20 psi with potassium persulfate and sulfuric acid to convert all phosphorus to orthophosphate. Then, orthophosphate content of each sample was determined by the molybdate/ascorbic acid blue method (Murphy & Riley, 1958). For sedimentary biofilm and periphyton, as all fractions of total phosphorus are not available for the biota (Golterman, 2001), the quantity of P available for asellids was determined by measuring the available organic P. Following Ni et al. (2016), available organic P was extracted from resource samples (n = 3 per resource type) with NaOH 1M. After extraction during 16 hours, the supernatant was collected, its pH was stabilized with HCl (3.5M) and the extracted P that has been converted in orthophosphate was quantified using the molybdate/ascorbic acid blue method (Murphy & Riley, 1958).

## **Stable isotope measurements**

C and N stable isotope ratios were measured for all isopods (previously freeze-dried) and freeze-dried resource samples, jointly with the measure of their elemental composition (%OC, %N). This joint analysis was not possible for sedimentary biofilm and periphyton samples which were previously treated for carbonate removal using HCl ('capsule method'). For these samples, we performed separate analyses to avoid any damage of the isotope ratio mass spectrometer with chloride. According to Francois et al. (2016a), the 'rinse method' (Brodie et al., 2011) was used for chloride removal before measurement of isotopic ratios. Elemental composition and stable isotope ratios of C and N were measured using an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Isoprime100, Isoprime Ltd, Manchester, UK) coupled in continuous flow with an elemental analyzer (Thermo FlashEA 1112, ThermoElectro, Milan, Italy). In-house standards calibrated against IAEA-N1, IAEA-N2, IAEA-CH6 and IAEA-C3 reference materials were analyzed with the samples, and standard deviations of replicate analyses were lower than 0.20 ‰. C and N stable isotope compositions were expressed as δ in ‰ with V-PDB (δ<sup>13</sup>C) and Air (δ<sup>15</sup>N) as standards.

#### Diet determination

The diets of the 15 species were determined by analyzing the C and N stable isotope signatures of isopods and their available resources with the Bayesian mixing model SIAR (Parnell et al., 2010). The model was run with 1 million of iterations, 50% of burn-in and a thinning of 250. As the diettissue discrimination has not been determined for isopod species, we used the commonly accepted values of  $2.54 \pm 1.27$  and  $0.4 \pm 1.3$  for nitrogen ( $\Delta$ 15N) and carbon isotope discrimination ( $\Delta$ 13C), respectively (Vander Zanden & Rasmussen, 2001; Post, 2002; Vanderklift & Ponsard, 2003). The choice of discrimination factors for non-model organisms is tricky and may impact the results of the mixing model. The isoplots (Fig. S1) suggest that the value chosen for  $\Delta$ 15N may be underestimated for some groundwater species, as some individuals fall outside the source polygon in terms of  $\delta$ 15N (exceeding by up to 2‰ the expected values) in four species (*P. arthrodilus*, *B*.

molinai, P. spelaeus and P. parvulus). Although a higher  $\Delta 15N$  would have corrected the discrepancies in isoplots for these four species, it would not have significantly changed diet estimations for these species. Thus, the commonly accepted value of 2.54  $\pm$  1.27 for  $\Delta$ 15N was used to be consistent in the analysis of the 15 species. Posterior probability distributions of the SIAR models were checked for unimodality. Median and 95% credibility interval were reported for each resource contributing to the diet (Table S3). To determine the sample size of consumers collected in each environment, we followed the guidelines of Jackson et al. (2011) who recommend a minimum of 10 individuals to properly quantify the species trophic niche, at the exception of P. parvulus for which only 4 individuals could be collected. For this species, the small sample size implied a higher uncertainty in the diet reconstruction, and a potential underestimation of trophic niche size. Including too many resources in Bayesian mixing models can lead to confounding results (e.g. inconsistent or bimodal posterior distributions). In this case, Hopkins & Ferguson (2012) and Phillips et al. (2014) advised to combine biologically related resources having similar isotopic signatures to increase the predictive power of the model. Thus, FPOM and CPOM were combined in a unique resource (hereafter 'FPOM + CPOM') when more than 3 resources were considered in the diet of isopods and when the average  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{15}$ N of FPOM and CPOM differed by no more than 1.3%. This resource combination successfully improved the diet determination for 2 species: P. coiffaiti and P. ibericus. For one species (P. coiffaiti), we measured differences between the C isotopic signatures of resources (algae) and consumers that were not consistent with the discrimination factor ( $\Delta 13C = 0.4 \pm 1.3$ ). This discrepancy did not influence our results as discussed in the Supporting Note S1. It is worth noting that the bayesian mixing models used for diet reconstruction usually generate large confidence intervals, as they integrate all biological uncertainties. If the bayesian mixing model does not properly converge, results are biased towards the null generalist assumption, i.e. a diet composed of n resources in proportion 1/n (Brett 2014). In our dataset, only 3 out of the 15 reconstructed diets display a pattern close to this

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equiproportional null scenario (*P. arthrodilus*, *P. granadensis* and to a lesser extent *B. peltatus*),

258 which may indicate uncertainty in diet reconstruction. The 15 isoplots are displayed in the Fig.

259 S1.

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## **Estimated variables and data analyses**

- 262 *Standardization of the availability of trophic resources*
- 263 Trophic resources had contrasted elemental composition (e.g. the %OC ranged from 0.06% for
- sedimentary biofilm per mass of dry sediment to 47% for roots). Thus, the absolute quantity of a
- 265 given resource (in g of DW / m²) is not representative of its energetic significance for a consumer.
- 266 The OC content sequestered in a given resource provides a much more accurate estimation of this
- 267 significance and thus the availability of each trophic resource was expressed as amount of OC . m
- 268 <sup>2</sup>.
- 269 Indices of trophic selectivity
- 270 Several indices have been proposed in the literature to measure the degree of selectivity of a
- 271 consumer (Hurlbert, 1978; Feinsinger et al., 1981; Smith, 1982). They all rely on a comparison
- between the proportions of resources in the environment (i.e. here their relative abundances in
- 273 terms of OC content) and their respective proportions in the consumer diet. If these environment
- and diet proportions match closely, this consumer is feeding non-selectively on all available
- 275 resources. If there is a strong mismatch between these proportions (i.e. between the availability
- and the use of resources), this consumer is feeding highly selectively.
- 277 We evaluated the degree of selectivity of the 15 studied species by calculating the Proportional
- 278 Similarity index (PS) proposed by Feinsinger et al. (1981):
- 279 PS =  $1 0.5 * \sum |q_i p_i|$  (1)
- where  $p_i$  stands for the availability of the resource i in the environment (i.e. the relative abundance
- in terms of OC content) and  $q_i$  stands for the dietary use of this resource i (i.e. the proportion in
- the diet, in terms of C and N atoms assimilated in the consumer tissues). This index measures the

- 283 similarity between the distribution of resource availability and resource use. To highlight the
- 284 dissimilarity between these distributions (i.e. the selectivity), we modified PS to PS':
- 285 Trophic selectivity: PS' = 1 PS (2)
- The obtained index PS' thus actually reflects the degree of consumer selectivity and ranges from 0
- 287 (non-selective feeding) to 1 (highly selective feeding). Two other selectivity indices were
- proposed in the literature: the index B of Hurlbert (1978) and the index FT of Smith (1982). These
- 289 two indices (described in the Supporting Methods S1 and Table S1) were highly correlated with
- 290 the PS index (Spearman correlation coefficients  $\rho = 0.95$  and 0.98 for B and FT respectively).
- 291 Thus, we only presented the results obtained with the index PS'. To consider the uncertainty
- inherent to Bayesian mixing models, for each species 1,000 diet proportion vectors (i.e. [p<sub>1</sub>; p<sub>2</sub>;...;
- 293  $p_n$ ] for n resources contributing to the diet) were sampled from the posterior distributions output
- by SIAR and subsequently used to draw a distribution of PS' values and calculate the 95%
- 295 credibility interval for PS'.
- 296 Resource availability per site
- 297 Based on our OC quantifications, the resource availability (RA) in each sampling site was
- estimated by the mass of OC per surface unit (g of OC . m<sup>-2</sup>), summed over all collected resources
- 299 edible by asellids (an approach similar to Srivastava & Lawton, 1998; Thompson & Townsend,
- 300 2005).
- 301 *Quality of resources*
- The quality of a given resource was estimated by the strength of the elemental imbalance between
- 303 this resource and the consumer according to the theory of ecological stoichiometry (Sterner &
- Elser, 2002; Frost et al., 2005; Hessen et al., 2013). The stronger is this elemental imbalance, the
- 305 less beneficial it is for the consumer to feed on this resource. For a given resource i, this
- 306 stoichiometric mismatch (SM<sub>i(C:N)</sub> or SM<sub>i(C:P)</sub>) was measured by the difference between the C:N (or
- 307 C:P) ratio of the resource i and the C:N (or C:P) ratio of the consumer (Elser & Hassett, 1994;

- 308 Sterner & Elser, 2002) (see Table 1 for the C:N and C:P of isopods and Table S2 for the C:N and
- 309 C:P of resources):
- 310  $SM_{i(C:N)} = C:N_{resource i} C:N_{consumer}$  and  $SM_{i(C:P)} = C:P_{resource i} C:P_{consumer}$  (3)
- 311 The Resource Diversity in terms of Quality for C:N (RDQual<sub>C:N</sub>) or for C:P (RDQual<sub>C:P</sub>) was then
- 312 estimated in each environment by calculating the weighted variance ( $\sigma^2$ ) of the stoichiometric
- 313 mismatches in C:N or C:P of all available resources:
- 314  $\sigma^2 = \sum p_i \cdot (SM_{i(C:N \text{ or } C:P)} \mu^*)^2$  (4)
- where  $\mu^*$  is the weighted mean of the SM of all resources weighted by their relative abundance  $p_i$ .
- As the total number of available resources (RR; Resource Richness) differed between sites, this
- 317 weighted variance was corrected for sample size and transformed in a weighted standard
- 318 deviation:
- Resource Diversity in terms of Quality: RDQual<sub>(C:N or C:P)</sub> = sqrt ( $\sigma^2/((RR-1)/RR)$ ) (5)
- 320 This index measures the heterogeneity in the stoichiometric mismatches of all available resources
- 321 in the environment. Low RDQual<sub>(C:N or C:P)</sub> indicates that all available resources in the environment
- have similar stoichiometric qualities for the consumer. On the opposite, RDQual<sub>(C:N or C:P)</sub> increases
- 323 when the stoichiometric qualities for the consumer increasingly diverge among available
- 324 resources and when these resources having different stoichiometric qualities are available in even
- 325 proportions (this latter property is similar to an evenness index which is maximal when all
- 326 resources are in even proportions and minimal when one resource is predominant). According to
- our prediction, trophic selectivity would increase when RDQual<sub>(C:N or C:P)</sub> increases.
- 328 Number of trophic resources
- 329 In addition to Resource Availability (RA) and Resource Diversity in terms of Quality (RDQual<sub>(C:N</sub>
- 330 or C:P), the number of trophic resources present in each environment can also influence trophic
- 331 selectivity by a purely probabilistic effect. Indeed, an increase in the number of resources
- enhances the trophic choice and influences the probability of selective feeding by organisms,
- independently of resources quality. To include this probabilistic hypothesis in our data analyses,

- 334 the Resource Diversity in terms of Quantity (RDQuant, Table S1) was estimated in each
- 335 environment with a Shannon index that integrates resource number and evenness (relative
- 336 abundance) across all available resources:
- Resource Diversity in terms of Quantity: RDQuant =  $-\sum p_i \cdot \ln(p_i)$  (6)
- 338 where  $p_i$  is the relative abundance of the resource i in the environment (relative to the total
- amount of OC).
- 340 Phylogenetic analyses
- Evaluating the relative influences of the Resource Availability (RA) and the Resource Diversity in
- 342 terms of Quality (RDQual<sub>(C:N or C:P)</sub>) and in terms of Quantity (RDQuant) on trophic selectivity
- 343 needs to take into account the phylogenetic relationships among the 15 species. Taking
- advantages of whole transcriptome sequencing for the 15 species considered in the present study
- 345 (Francois et al., 2016b), we extracted a set of 386 1-to-1 orthologous gene alignments present in
- 346 all species. The concatenated alignment was used to reconstruct a phylogram with phyML with a
- 347 GTR+G+I model of evolution (Guindon et al., 2010). Using this topology, we estimated a
- 348 chronogram with mcmctree (Yang 2007) using default parameters, two independent runs to check
- 349 chains convergences and setting the divergence between the *Bragasellus* and *Proasellus* to be not
- 350 older than 150 MYA.
- 351 Statistical analyses
- 352 According to the recommendations of Warton & Hui (2011) for proportion data, the trophic
- 353 selectivity index PS' has been logit-transformed prior to statistical analyses. RA and RDQual<sub>C:P</sub>
- have been log-transformed prior to statistical analyses to correct for non-normality of the data. We
- 355 checked for multi-collinearity among the four environmental variables (RA, RDQual<sub>C:N</sub>,
- 356 RDQual<sub>C:P</sub> and RDQuant) using variance inflation factors (VIF) and found them to be in
- acceptable range (all VIF < 2.4; see Zuur et al., 2010). We used Phylogenetic Generalized Least-
- 358 Squares models (PGLS; Martins & Hansen, 1997) to evaluate the influence of the four
- 359 environmental variables on trophic selectivity while accounting for the phylogenetic relationships

among the focal species (using the R package caper). Blomberg's K was estimated using the function phylosig in phytools R package (Revell, 2012). As a dataset based on 15 asellid species did not enable to statistically test the influence of four environmental variables and their interactions on trophic selectivity, we decided to perform two separate analyses with RA, RDQual<sub>C:N</sub> and RDQuant as explaining variables in one hand and RA, RDQual<sub>C:N</sub> and RDQuant as explaining variables in another hand. For each analysis, we performed a procedure of model selection based on information theory (Burnham & Anderson, 2002) and the ranking of models according to Akaike's Information Criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc, MuMIn R package), starting from the most comprehensive model (including all interactions). We checked that the order of entry of each variable into the PGLS models did not change significantly the results. The adjusted McFadden's pseudo-R<sup>2</sup> (McFadden, 1974) was computed for all tested models to provide for a comparable estimation of the amount of explained variance among models with different number of parameters. The normality of the residuals of the final 'best' model (with the smallest AICc) was checked.

All data analyses were performed with R 3.4 software (R Development Core Team 2016).

#### RESULTS

# Trophic resources, isopod diets and trophic selectivity

Our dataset comprised 15 environments characterized by a wide range of resource availability (RA) with amounts of OC . m<sup>-2</sup> varying from 1.3 g to 57.6 g (Fig. 1, Tables S1 & S2). The Resource Diversity in terms of stoichiometric Quality was also contrasted among environments with RDQual<sub>C:N</sub> indexes ranging between 1.1 and 20.1, and RDQual<sub>C:P</sub> indexes ranging between 4.0 and 633.4 (Table S1). There was no collinearity between the four predictor variables RA, RDQual<sub>C:N</sub>,RDQual<sub>C:P</sub> and RDQuant (VIF = 1.65, 1.60, 2.44 and 1.49 respectively). Seven trophic resources were collected and quantified in the environments. Three resources (epicuticular

biofilm, periphyton and algae) were found in only one or two environments whereas three resources (fine and coarse particulate organic matter, and sedimentary biofilm) were present in almost all environments (Table 2, Fig. 2). Each trophic resource was dominant (> 50%) in at least one environment, at the exception of periphyton and algae (Table 2). Isotopic measurements and analyses using Bayesian mixing models showed that all available trophic resources were found in the diets of at least one asellid species (Fig. 2, Table 2). For the three resources found in almost all environments (fine and coarse particulate organic matter, and sedimentary biofilm), their contributions to animal diets widely varied across species (Fig. 2). For example, the sedimentary biofilm could be minor (< 10 %) or dominant (> 50 %) in the diets of asellid species. 

The PS' trophic selectivity indexes based on the match between isopod diets and resource availabilities ranged from 0.042 to 0.919 (Fig. 1, Table S1). The dataset thus comprised non-selective feeding (PS' close to 0) and highly selective feeding (PS' close to 1) species of isopods.

# Relationships between trophic selectivity and environmental variables

The first procedure of model selection starting from the comprehensive model including resource availability (RA), resource diversity in terms of quantity (RDQuant) and in terms of quality based on C:N ratios (RDQual<sub>C:N</sub>) and all interactions as predictors of trophic selectivity (Table 3) resulted in the selection of a model with the amount of available resources (RA) as unique predictor of trophic selectivity (PS') (PGLS; P-value = 0.0031 and R² = 0.46; equivalent to Fig. 3a). A comparable result was obtained when resource diversity in terms of quality based on C:P ratios (RDQual<sub>C:P</sub>) replaced RDQual<sub>C:N</sub> as predictor of trophic selectivity (Table S4). PS' was positively correlated with RA (Fig. 3a). PS' was not correlated with the resource diversity in terms of quality for C:N (RDQual<sub>C:N</sub>, Fig. 3c) or for C:P (RDQual<sub>C:P</sub>, Fig. 3d), neither with the resource diversity in terms of quantity (RDQuant, Fig. 3b). Trophic selectivity showed no phylogenetic signal among the 15 species (Blomberg's K = 0.09, P-value = 0.94; Blomberg et al. 2003).

Among the 15 species studied, we found that 4 out of the 5 species living in environments with more than 25 g of OC . m<sup>-2</sup> were selective-feeders (i.e. with a PS'>0.5, Fig. 1): *P. solanasi*, *P. beticus*, *P. ibericus* and *B. peltatus*. These species always fed selectively on resource types that were not dominant in the environment. For example, the diet of *P. beticus* comprised 56% of sedimentary biofilm whereas this resource type represented less than 2% of OC resources in the environment (Fig. 2). There was a tendency across species for feeding selectively on sedimentary biofilm but other resource types were also selected. If *P. solanasi* and *P. beticus* selected solely sedimentary biofilm in the environment, the two other selective-feeding species fed selectively on 2 or more resources: sedimentary biofilm and roots for *P. ibericus*, and CPOM, FPOM and sedimentary biofilm for *B. peltatus*.

#### DISCUSSION

The dataset collected for the present study allowed to test the influence of trophic environmental conditions (resource availability and diversity) on the trophic selectivity of aquatic speciesacross a broad range of environments. In this dataset, the absence of collinearity between the predictor variables allowed to discriminate the relative influences of trophic conditions on selectivity. Coupling an accurate quantification of trophic resources in a wide range of environments with a fine determination of animal diets using stable isotopes showed that the amount of available resources rather than the diversity of resource (in terms of quality and quantity, respectively RDQual<sub>(C:N or C:P)</sub> and RDQuant) increases trophic selectivity of aquatic isopod species. The positive relationship between resource availability and trophic selectivity was probably uncovered in this study thanks to the wide range of resource availability studied (from 1.3 to 57.6 g of OC . m<sup>-2</sup>) which incorporated both surface and cave streams, these latter being considered as one of the most energy-limited environments on Earth (Poulson & Lavoie, 2000; Simon et al., 2003; Venarsky et al., 2012, 2014). By contrasting environmental conditions, we demonstrated that

species tend to feed non-selectively at lower bounds of resource availability whereas selective-feeding species were detected in resource-rich environments. Intraspecific niche partitioning (*sensu* Bolnick et al., 2002) could theoretically affect this pattern, as non-selective species can be composed of individuals feeding selectively on different resources. However, non-selective species at the lower bound of resource availability do not display particularly dispersed individuals (see the isoplots in Fig S1; except for *B.molinai*), neither do they display distinct groups of individuals feeding on (i.e. isotopically close to) different resources, suggesting that the observed selectivity pattern should be similar at the species and individual levels. The analysis also suggested that trophic selectivity was not phylogenetically conserved among the focal species.

One major finding of the present study is the demonstration of a positive relationship between resource availability and trophic selectivity in aquatic isopods. This relationship supports the hypothesis that trophic selectivity was low in resource-poor environments probably because species cannot fulfill their energy requirements by foraging on a reduced set of the available resources (Thompson & Colgan, 1990; Tinker et al., 2008). Nevertheless, the mechanisms explaining selective feeding by isopods in resource-rich environments remain elusive. Our results did not validate the mechanism proposed by Evans et al. (2005) to explain the positive relationship between resource availability and trophic selectivity. These authors hypothesized that an increase in total resource availability could increase some rare resources which would then become available in sufficient quantity for species to selectively feed on them. However, sedimentary biofilm was selected by many selective-feeding isopods in resource-rich environments even when the amount of this trophic resource was lower than in resource-poor environments (eg. see *P. ibericus*, Fig. 2). These results did not give a strong support to the mechanism presented by Evans et al. (2005) to explain the positive relationship between resource availability and trophic selectivity. The mechanisms leading to increased trophic selectivity with

increasing resource availability might also have been associated with other ecological factors. For instance, the species-energy theory indicates that species richness increases with resource availability in the environment (Bonn et al., 2004). In such condition, interactions among species would be stronger in resource-rich than in resource-poor environments, which could increase niche partitioning among species (MacArthur & Levins, 1967). This niche partitioning for food and/or habitat would therefore enhance the mismatch between the relative abundances of resources in species diet and their relative abundances in the environment (i.e. leading to an increased trophic selectivity). For example, the microhabitat partitioning reported for marine amphipods to avoid competitive exclusion and predation (Cruz-Rivera & Hay, 2000; Best & Stachowicz, 2014) indicates that each amphipod species does not have access to the whole range of resources present in the environment. We can expect the same mechanism to occur in our experiment for isopod species living in resource-rich environments where biotic interactions are expected to be strong. Demonstrating this mechanism will represent a significant advance in our understanding of ecosystem structure and functioning, but represents a difficult task as it requires to finely describe the spatial distributions of all species in each environment but also the biotic interactions among these species.

Our results demonstrated that trophic selectivity was associated with resource availability but not with the diversity (i.e. heterogeneity) in resource quality. We expected that the stoichiometric constraints would have determined the resource used by consumers in accordance with the stoichiometric ecological theory (Sterner & Elser, 2002). In other words, a high diversity of resource stoichiometric qualities would have generated selective feeding whereas non-selective feeding was expected in environments harboring resources of comparable stoichiometric qualities. These predictions were not validated because asellid species fed selectively or non-selectively regardless of the diversity in resource quality in their environment. For example, three species of selective feeders (PS' > 0.5) were observed in environments displaying comparatively low

diversity in resource quality for C:N (RDQual<sub>C:N</sub> < 5 in our dataset, figure 3b), whereas no selective feeding was expected under the stoichiometric hypothesis in these environments. Admittedly, some criticisms can be drawn concerning the use of stoichiometric C:N or C:P ratios to evaluate resource quality. Measuring C:N and C:P ratios of a given trophic resource as a 'bulk' can skew our analyses, as detritivores can selectively ingest and/or assimile only a subfraction of the considered pool (e.g. the conditioned leaves colonized by fungi; Constantini and Rossi, 1995). Besides, detrimental chemicals such as phenolic compounds may reduce the palatability of trophic resources without affecting their C:N and C:P ratios (Oates et al., 1980; Dorenbosch & Bakker, 2011) and compounds which cannot be synthetized by animals such as sterols or essential fatty acids may influence resource selectivity in a different way than C:N and C:P ratios (Wagner et al., 2013; Sperfeld et al., 2017). However, our results gave support to the idea of a dietary mixing strategy in asellids because most selective-feeding species (eg. *P. ibericus* and *B. peltatus*) selected at least 2 trophic resources that were largely contrasted in terms of C:N and C:P (e.g. averaged C:N:  $10.2 \pm 4.2$  for sedimentary biofilms,  $21.4 \pm 8.2$  for FPOM,  $22.4 \pm 11.8$  for roots, and 29.3 ± 18.9 for CPOM; Table S2). This suggests that asellid species need to mix trophic resources for nutrient acquisition (nutrient complementation hypothesis; Hägele & Rowell-Rahier, 1999). Thus, we can assume that trophic selectivity in aquatic isopod species was not driven by the stoichiometric diversity of available resources because of the need for essential compounds that were not contained in the trophic resources having the lowest C:N or C:P mismatches with organisms (ie. best resources in terms of stoichiometric quality). To address this topic, use of specific markers such as amino acids and fatty acids and their isotopic compositions would be pertinent to have more precise reconstructions of asellid diets and more precise quantifications of the diversity of trophic resources in the environment than those obtained from bulk analyses of N and C (Bec et al., 2011).

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Although we observed that asellid species could selectively feed on several trophic resources, sedimentary biofilm was generally found in higher proportion in the diet of selective-feeding isopods than in their environment. Besides, a previous study by Francois et al. (2016a) demonstrated that two asellid species exhibited a strong specialization (i.e. a higher performance; Irschick et al., 2005; Whitfield et al., 2009; Devictor et al., 2010; Poisot et al., 2011) on sedimentary biofilm. Feeding experiments in the laboratory showed that both species assimilated about 10 times more carbon and at least 4 times more nitrogen from sedimentary biofilm than from coarse and fine particulate organic matter. Thus, the fact that selective feeding on sedimentary biofilm was common in the present study might have resulted from a positive fitness consequence for isopods to use this resource. Nevertheless, we cannot conclude from the present experiment that selective feeding on sedimentary biofilm conferred a better performance to asellid species than feeding on other resources without measurements of the fitness of all isopod species when feeding on individual resources present in their environments. Coupling our original dataset on trophic selectivity of asellid species with measures of their performance on the available resources would provide a unique opportunity to document and understand the relationship between trophic specialization and selectivity in regard to resource availability.

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### FIGURES CAPTION

Figure 1: Phylogenetic tree of the 15 isopod species, plotted along with the resource availability in their environments and their trophic selectivity PS'. Resource availability in the environment is expressed in grams of Organic Carbon (OC) per square meter.

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Figure 2: Relative abundance and use of trophic resources in the 15 sampling sites.

For each site, the upper panel presents the relative abundance of all available resources in the environment (in %; see Methods for details on the underlying calculations), while the lower panel presents the contribution of these resources to the diet of isopods (in %).

For a given environment, the total resource availability (indicated on the left hand side of the barplots, in grams of Organic Carbon per square meter) is summed over all available resources.

Environments (and their corresponding species) are sorted by increasing resource availability.

Figure 3: Relationships between the trophic selectivity PS' and (a) the Resource Availability (RA) as grams of OC  $\cdot$  m<sup>-2</sup>; (b) the Resource Diversity in terms of Quantity (RDQuant); (c) and (d) the Resource Diversity in terms of stoichiometric Quality based on C:N and C:P ratios respectively (RDQual<sub>C:N</sub> and RDQual<sub>C:P</sub>).

These plots present biological data prior to transformation. Only significant regression lines are drawn. See M&M for details on the credibility intervals drawn for PS'.

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#### **AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS**

All authors conceived the ideas and designed methodology; CF, LS, TL, FM and CD collected field data; CF, FMB and LS carried out the elemental and stable isotope analyses, analysed the

567	data and wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final
568	approval for publication.
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570	DATA ACCESSIBILITY
571	Datasets supporting this article are available in the electronic supplementary material. Raw
572	isotopic data are available from the Dryad Digital Repository
573	(https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.v9s4mw6qw).
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# SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- 912 Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.
- 913 Figure S1: Isoplots (carbon and nitrogen stable isotope compositions of trophic resources and
- 914 individuals) for the 15 isopod species.
- 915 Methods S1: Calculation of the selectivity indices of Hurlbert and Smith.
- 916 Note S1: Discussion of the isotopic analyses (for *P. coiffaiti*).
- 917 Table S1: Environmental variables and indices of trophic selectivity.
- 918 Table S2: Environment characterization: abundance and elemental composition of available
- 919 trophic resources.

- 920 Table S3: Diet determination: median and 95% credibility interval of resource contributions to the
- 921 diet.
- 922 Table S4: Procedure of model selection with RDQual  $_{C:P}$  (Resource Diversity in terms of Quality,
- 923 based on C:P ratios).
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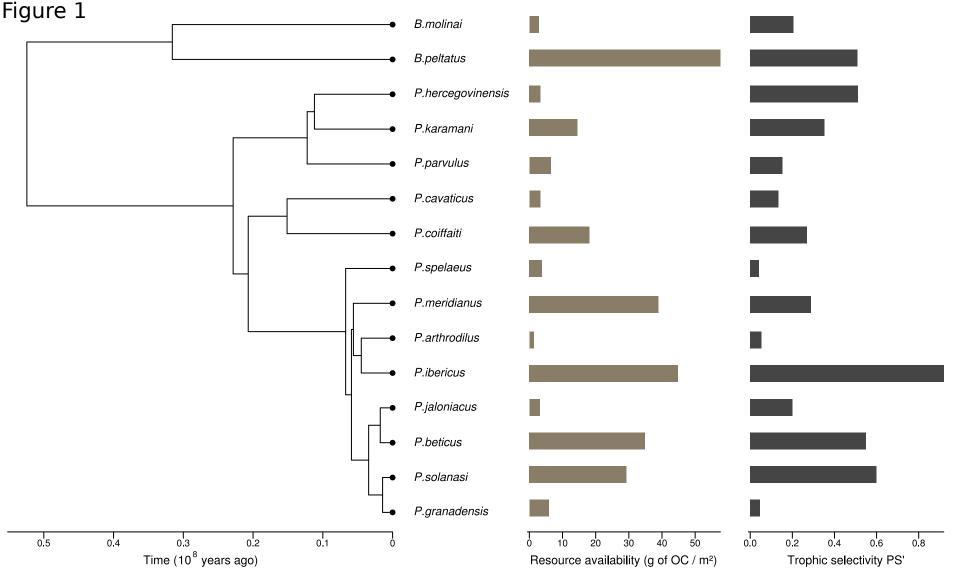
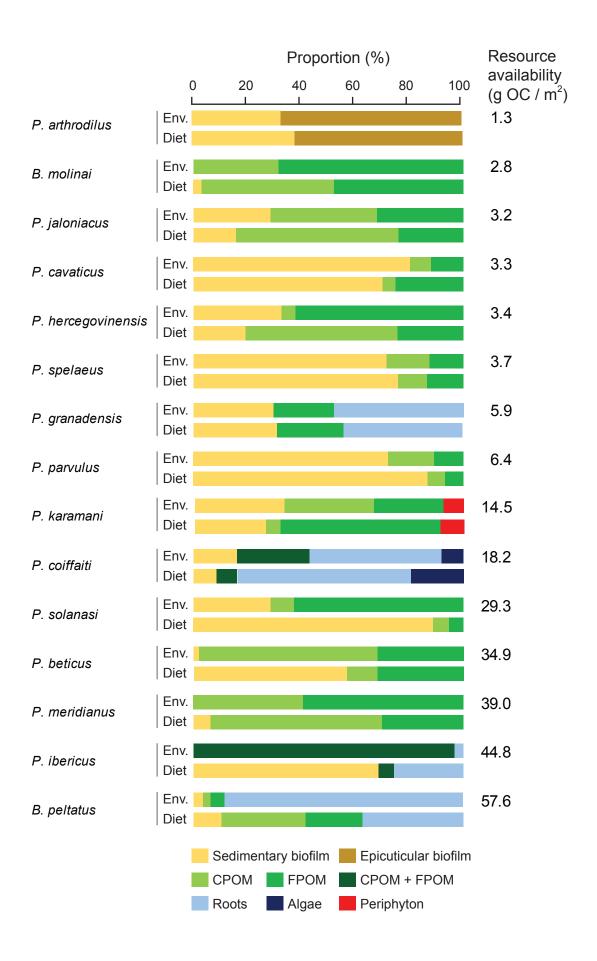
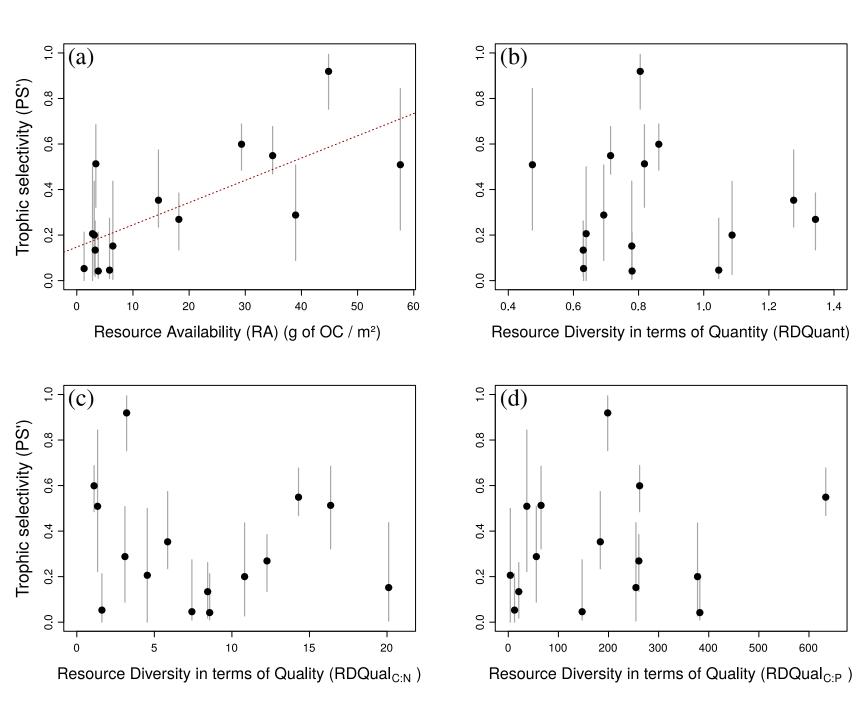


Figure 2





Species		Site	Habitat	C:N <sub>org</sub>	C:P <sub>org</sub>	Locality	CO	LA	LO
Proasellus arthrodilus	(Braga, 1945)	1	cave stream	8.86	158.9	Rabacal	PT	40.03	-8.47
Bragasellus molinai	(Henry & Magniez, 1988)	2	cave pool	9.18	152.1	Vegacervera	ES	42.91	-5.56
Proasellus jaloniacus	(Henry & Magniez, 1978)	3	hyporheic zone	5.06	101.5	Benichembla	ES	38.76	-0.10
Proasellus cavaticus	(Leydig, 1871)	4	cave stream	5.41	105.3	Thoiria	FR	46.53	5.73
Proasellus hercegovinensis	(Karaman, 1933)	5	cave pool	5.74	94.1	Zavala	BA	42.85	17.98
Proasellus spelaeus	(Racovitza, 1922)	6	cave stream	4.86	97.8	Ancille	FR	43.14	-1.20
Proasellus granadensis	(Henry & Magniez, 2003)	7	spring	4.43	64.8	Alhama de Granada	ES	37.05	-4.06
Proasellus parvulus	(Sket, 1960)	8	cave stream	4.57	75.6	Crnomelj	SI	45.60	15.17
Proasellus karamani	(Remy, 1934)	9	surface stream	5.45	88.0	Kljuc	BA	43.09	18.49
Proasellus coiffaiti	(Henry & Magniez, 1972)	10	surface stream	5.41	108.0	Cauneille	FR	43.54	1.04
Proasellus solanasi	(Henry & Magniez, 1972)	11	cave entrance	5.89	80.9	Benajoan	ES	36.73	-5.24
Proasellus beticus	(Henry & Magniez, 1992)	12	sinkhole	5.29	108.5	Vallada	ES	38.88	-0.69
Proasellus meridianus	(Racovitza, 1919)	13	surface stream	4.97	78.6	Alfoz de Lloredo	ES	43.35	-4.18
Proasellus ibericus	(Braga, 1946)	14	surface stream	5.97	76.8	Ponte de Lima	PT	41.85	-8.57
Bragasellus peltatus	(Braga, 1944)	15	surface stream	5.65	102.0	Lousada	PT	41.28	-8.31

Table 1: Description of the 15 isopod species. Species are sorted by increasing resource availability in their environment. C:N<sub>org</sub> and C:P<sub>org</sub> refers respectively to the molar carbon-to-nitrogen and carbon-to-phosphorus ratios of isopods (whole organism). CO stands for the ISO country code and LA / LO stand for the latitude / longitude (in decimal degrees) of the sampling site location.

	Minimum	Maximum
Proportion of resources in the environment (%)		
Fine particulate organic matter (FPOM)	0	68
Coarse particulate organic matter (CPOM)	0	66
Sedimentary biofilm	0	80
Epicuticular biofilm*	0	67
Periphyton*	0	7
Algae *	0	8
Roots	0	88
Proportion of resources in isopod diet (%)		
Fine particulate organic matter (FPOM)	5	57
Coarse particulate organic matter (CPOM)	5	63
Sedimentary biofilm	3	87
Epicuticular biofilm *	-	62
Periphyton*	-	8
Algae *	-	19
Roots	25	64

**Table 2**: Overview of the range of resources abundance and use across the 15 sampling sites.

This table presents the minimum and maximum abundances of each trophic resource across the 15 surveyed environments (as % of the total OC / m²). The minimum and maximum proportions of each resource in the diet of isopods are presented in the same way (considering only the sites where the given resource was available).

\* denotes the 3 resources present in only one of the 15 sampling sites.

PGLS models	AICc	adjusted R <sup>2</sup>
$PS' \sim RA * RDQuant * RDQual_{C:N}$	73.71	0.47
$PS' \sim RDQuant * RDQual_{C:N}$	65.19	-0.24
$PS' \sim RDQuant + RDQual_{C:N}$	61.49	-0.15
PS' ~ RDQuant	58.52	-0.08
$PS' \sim RDQual_{C:N}$	58.31	-0.06
$PS' \sim RA + RDQual_{C:N}$	54.90	0.37
PS' ~ RA * RDQuant	54.76	0.38
$PS' \sim RA * RDQual_{C:N}$	54.10	0.41
PS' ∼ RA + RDQuant	51.21	0.42
$PS' \sim RA + RDQual_{C:N}$	51.20	0.42
PS' ∼ RA	48.10	0.46

**Table 3 :** Procedure of model selection.

Models are ranked by decreasing Akaike's information criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc). A difference of AICc between two models is considered as a significant improvement in favour of the model with the lowest AICc (Burnham & Anderson, 2002). PS', RA, RDQual  $_{C:N}$  and RDQuant represent the trophic selectivity, the Resource Availability (as g of OC /  $m^2$ ), the Resource Diversity in terms of Quality (based on C:N ratios), and in terms of Quantity, respectively (see main text for details). The 'adjusted R²' (modified R² that has been adjusted for the number of predictors in the model) is indicated here as an estimation of the proportion of variance explained by the corresponding model.