

Trophic selectivity in aquatic isopods increases with the availability of resources

Clémentine François, Laurent Simon, Florian Malard, Tristan Lefébure,

Christophe Jean Douady, Florian Mermillod-Blondin

▶ To cite this version:

Clémentine François, Laurent Simon, Florian Malard, Tristan Lefébure, Christophe Jean Douady, et al.. Trophic selectivity in aquatic isopods increases with the availability of resources. Functional Ecology, 2020, 34, pp.1078-1090. 10.1111/1365-2435.13530 . hal-02492518

HAL Id: hal-02492518 https://univ-lyon1.hal.science/hal-02492518v1

Submitted on 10 Dec 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	Functional Ecology FE-2019-00460
2	Research Article
3	
4	
5	Trophic selectivity in aquatic isopods increases with the
6	availability of resources
7	
8	
9	
10	
11	Clémentine M. Francois ^{a*} , Laurent Simon ^a , Florian Malard ^a , Tristan Lefébure ^a ,
12	Christophe J. Douady ^{a,b} and Florian Mermillod-Blondin ^a
13	
14	^a Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CNRS, ENTPE, UMR5023 LEHNA, F-69622,
15	Villeurbanne, France
16	^b Institut Universitaire de France, Paris, France
17	* Corresponding author: clementine.francois@univ-lyon1.fr
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	Keywords
23	C and N stable isotopes - diet determination - freshwater isopods - resource availability - resource

24 diversity - selective feeding - stoichiometric quality - trophic choices

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

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
39 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
41 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
43 diets using stable isotopes, we uncovered a positive relationship between resource availability and
44 trophic selectivity. Contrary to our second prediction, trophic selectivity did not correlate with the
45 heterogeneity of resources quality.

46 5. Our results have important implications in trophic ecology by highlighting that resource
47 availability was a main driver of trophic choices in aquatic invertebrates across a broad range of
48 environments. These findings call for further evaluation of the mechanisms (e.g. trophic
49 competition) causing the positive relationship between trophic selectivity and resource

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

52

53

54

55 INTRODUCTION

Trophic selectivity has been recognized to have profound consequences for consumers' fitness 56 (Cruz-Rivera & Hay, 2000; McMurray et al., 2016), for the stability of grazer and prey 57 populations (Strom & Loukos, 1998; Meunier et al., 2016), and for nutrient fluxes and recycling 58 59 in food webs (Marcarelli et al., 2011; Hood et al., 2014). Trophic selectivity occurs when the 60 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 61 62 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; 63 Peterson & Ausubel, 1984). 64

65

The degree of trophic selectivity in organisms has been predicted to vary with the availability of 66 67 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; 68 Roughgarden, 1972; Pyke et al., 1977; Krebs et al., 1997), an increase in resource availability for 69 70 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 71 72 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 73 74 availability change (3-fold) and hardly represented the actual resources distribution in natural ecosystems (controlled laboratory experiment; choice between two artificially-contrasted food 75

sources). Testing the relationship between resource availability and selectivity in a biologically 76 realistic and relevant framework would thus require to study *in situ* a wide range of environmental 77 78 trophic conditions, a condition hardly met without working at the species level. Although 79 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 80 hypothesis developed by Evans et al. (2005). These authors predicted that an increase in total 81 82 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, 83 84 trophic selectivity of species would increase with resource availability in the field.

85

86 Trophic selectivity in animals has also been expected to vary with the qualities of resources 87 present in their environment (e.g. Cruz-Rivera & Hay, 2000; Zandona et al., 2011). Indeed, 88 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 89 90 where all resources have similar qualities. Many proxies of resource quality have been proposed, 91 including the widely used C:N and C:P ratios (Hessen et al., 2007; Hillebrand et al., 2008). 92 According to the ecological stoichiometry theory (Sterner & Elser, 2002; Elser, 2006; Hessen et 93 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 94 resources. They are expected to feed selectively on the resources whose C:N and/or C:P ratios are 95 96 as close as possible to their own ratios to optimize their nutrient acquisition. This selective 97 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. 98 heterogeneity) of available resources in terms of stoichiometric quality. 99

100

Although theory predicts that the availability as well as the heterogeneity in the quality of the 101 102 resources influences trophic selectivity, *in situ* explicit tests of their respective effects on selective 103 feeding are still lacking. The present paper aims to fill this gap by studying in situ the trophic 104 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). 105 106 First, a wide environmental gradient in resource availability along which many closely related 107 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. 108 109 Second, the quantification of resource availability along the studied gradients was often limited to 110 coarse estimations using various databases and models without precise assessments of available 111 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 112 113 of time. However, estimations of species diet relying on gut content analyses, measurements of resource consumption or visual observations (Lacher, 1982; Armstrong & Stamp, 2003; 114 115 Huntsman et al., 2011; Zandona et al., 2011) provide a snapshot of the diet at a given time and do 116 not consider differences in digestibility among resources (e.g. Trumble et al., 2003). Fourth, most 117 broad-scale studies did not account for the phylogenetic relatedness among species even though it 118 is now acknowledged that most biological traits are phylogenetically conserved (Felsenstein, 1985; Blomberg et al., 2003; Pienaar et al., 2013). 119

120

121 In the present paper, we addressed the aforementioned challenges through a dedicated sampling 122 design and the use of accurate analytical and statistical methods. We focused on aquatic isopod 123 species of the family Asellidae which represent ideal biological models due to their distribution 124 along a wide environmental gradient ranging from deep cave systems (among the most energy-125 limited environments on Earth; Poulson & Lavoie, 2000; Gibert & Deharveng, 2002; Venarsky et 126 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 127 128 knowledge of their habitat and ecology (Simon et al., 2003; Leberfinger et al., 2011; Mermillod-129 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) 130 131 of all available resources in diverse environments. This precise characterization of trophic 132 resources was combined with diet determination to measure the degree of selectivity of each 133 species. Isopod diets were determined by analyzing the C and N stable isotope ratios of 134 individuals and their resources. The isotopic composition of an individual is a long-term 135 integrator of its trophic choices and reflects what has been actually assimilated in its tissues, 136 summarizing ingestion and digestibility of each resource (Peterson & Fry, 1987; Fry & Sherr, 137 1989; Traugott et al., 2013).

138

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.

145

146

147 MATERIALS AND METHODS

148 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

153 macrophytes, epilithic biofilm and periphyton (Moore, 1975; Marcus et al., 1978; Rossi & Fano, 154 1979; Basset & Rossi, 1987; Arakelova, 1996; Leberfinger et al., 2011; Francois et al., 2016a). 155 Given this diversity of food resources, we used a commonly accepted procedure which consists in 156 discriminating between broad food compartments (Simon et al., 2003; Leberfinger et al., 2011). 157 These compartments correspond to coarse particulate organic matter (CPOM; 1 mm < particle 158 size < 6 mm), fine particulate organic matter (FPOM; particle size < 1 mm), roots, algae, 159 sedimentary biofilm developed on sand particles (200 μ m < particle size < 1000 μ m), biofilm attached to the debris of animal cuticle (epicuticular biofilm) and thick biofilm attached to 160 161 submerged rocks (epilithic periphyton).

162

163 Sampling

The 15 species were sampled from July to October 2011 in caves, springs and streams. Only one 164 165 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 166 167 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 168 169 each environment. This sampling consisted in 3 replicates per environment, in order to be 170 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 171 172 occurring on a standardized area (256 cm²). After sampling, both samples of trophic resources and 173 isopods were flash-frozen with liquid nitrogen in the field for conservation during the journey back to the laboratory. 174

175

176 **Trophic resources in the environment**

177 At the laboratory, all collected trophic resources were unfrozen and sorted according to the food178 categories described above by using nets of different mesh sizes (200 µm, 1 mm and 6 mm). Food

179 categories were then frozen, freeze-dried and weighted to obtain a dry mass of each trophic 180 resource per square meter (g of Dry Weight (DW) / m²) for each site (Table S2). All obtained resource samples were then ground using a ball mill grinder (Retsch MM-200) for 181 182 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 183 184 dry mass; Table S2). For sedimentary biofilm and periphyton, samples were treated with 1N HCl 185 before OC analysis to remove carbonates using the 'capsule method', as described in Brodie et al. 186 (2011). Elemental composition was then measured alongside the determination of isotopic ratios 187 (see below), allowing to calculate the C:N stoichiometric molar ratio of each resource (Table S2). 188 The quantity of each resource (g of DW / m²) and its elemental composition (%OC) enabled to 189 calculate the OC content for each resource per site (g of OC sequestered in a given resource . m⁻²). 190

191 Phosphorus content of isopods and trophic resources

192 Chemical analyses were performed to determine the phosphorus content of isopods and of their 193 trophic resources (% of P per dry mass). For isopods and trophic resources (except sedimentary 194 biofilm and periphyton), P content was determined on ground samples digested in an autoclave 195 for 30 minutes at 121°C and 15-20 psi with potassium persulfate and sulfuric acid to convert all 196 phosphorus to orthophosphate. Then, orthophosphate content of each sample was determined by 197 the molybdate/ascorbic acid blue method (Murphy & Riley, 1958). For sedimentary biofilm and 198 periphyton, as all fractions of total phosphorus are not available for the biota (Golterman, 2001), 199 the quantity of P available for asellids was determined by measuring the available organic P. 200 Following Ni et al. (2016), available organic P was extracted from resource samples (n = 3 per 201 resource type) with NaOH 1M. After extraction during 16 hours, the supernatant was collected, its 202 pH was stabilized with HCl (3.5M) and the extracted P that has been converted in orthophosphate 203 was quantified using the molybdate/ascorbic acid blue method (Murphy & Riley, 1958).

204

205 Stable isotope measurements

206 C and N stable isotope ratios were measured for all isopods (previously freeze-dried) and freeze-207 dried resource samples, jointly with the measure of their elemental composition (%OC, %N). This 208 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 209 210 performed separate analyses to avoid any damage of the isotope ratio mass spectrometer with 211 chloride. According to Francois et al. (2016a), the 'rinse method' (Brodie et al., 2011) was used for 212 chloride removal before measurement of isotopic ratios. Elemental composition and stable isotope 213 ratios of C and N were measured using an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Isoprime100, Isoprime 214 Ltd, Manchester, UK) coupled in continuous flow with an elemental analyzer (Thermo FlashEA 215 1112, ThermoElectro, Milan, Italy). In-house standards calibrated against IAEA-N1, IAEA-N2, 216 IAEA-CH6 and IAEA-C3 reference materials were analyzed with the samples, and standard 217 deviations of replicate analyses were lower than 0.20 ‰. C and N stable isotope compositions were expressed as δ in ‰ with V-PDB (δ^{13} C) and Air (δ^{15} N) as standards. 218

219

220 Diet determination

221 The diets of the 15 species were determined by analyzing the C and N stable isotope signatures of 222 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 diet-223 224 tissue discrimination has not been determined for isopod species, we used the commonly accepted 225 values of 2.54 \pm 1.27 and 0.4 \pm 1.3 for nitrogen (Δ 15N) and carbon isotope discrimination 226 (Δ13C), respectively (Vander Zanden & Rasmussen, 2001; Post, 2002; Vanderklift & Ponsard, 227 2003). The choice of discrimination factors for non-model organisms is tricky and may impact the 228 results of the mixing model. The isoplots (Fig. S1) suggest that the value chosen for Δ 15N may be underestimated for some groundwater species, as some individuals fall outside the source polygon 229 in terms of δ^{15} N (exceeding by up to 2‰ the expected values) in four species (*P. arthrodilus, B.* 230

231 *molinai*, *P. spelaeus* and *P. parvulus*). Although a higher $\Delta 15N$ would have corrected the 232 discrepancies in isoplots for these four species, it would not have significantly changed diet 233 estimations for these species. Thus, the commonly accepted value of 2.54 ± 1.27 for $\Delta 15N$ was 234 used to be consistent in the analysis of the 15 species. Posterior probability distributions of the 235 SIAR models were checked for unimodality. Median and 95% credibility interval were reported 236 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.

242 Including too many resources in Bayesian mixing models can lead to confounding results (e.g. 243 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 244 245 signatures to increase the predictive power of the model. Thus, FPOM and CPOM were combined 246 in a unique resource (hereafter 'FPOM + CPOM') when more than 3 resources were considered in the diet of isopods and when the average δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N of FPOM and CPOM differed by no more 247 248 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 249 isotopic signatures of resources (algae) and consumers that were not consistent with the 250 251 discrimination factor ($\Delta 13C = 0.4 \pm 1.3$). This discrepancy did not influence our results as 252 discussed in the Supporting Note S1. It is worth noting that the bayesian mixing models used for 253 diet reconstruction usually generate large confidence intervals, as they integrate all biological 254 uncertainties. If the bayesian mixing model does not properly converge, results are biased towards 255 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 256

equiproportional null scenario (*P. arthrodilus*, *P. granadensis* and to a lesser extent *B. peltatus*),
which may indicate uncertainty in diet reconstruction. The 15 isoplots are displayed in the Fig.
S1.

260

261 Estimated variables and data analyses

262 Standardization of the availability of trophic resources

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 given resource (in g of DW / m^2) is not representative of its energetic significance for a consumer. The OC content sequestered in a given resource provides a much more accurate estimation of this significance and thus the availability of each trophic resource was expressed as amount of OC . m⁻ 268 ².

269 Indices of trophic selectivity

Several indices have been proposed in the literature to measure the degree of selectivity of a 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 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 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.

We evaluated the degree of selectivity of the 15 studied species by calculating the ProportionalSimilarity 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

similarity between the distribution of resource availability and resource use. To highlight the dissimilarity between these distributions (i.e. the selectivity), we modified PS to PS':

285 Trophic selectivity: PS' = 1 - PS (2)

286 The obtained index PS' thus actually reflects the degree of consumer selectivity and ranges from 0 (non-selective feeding) to 1 (highly selective feeding). Two other selectivity indices were 287 288 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 the PS index (Spearman correlation coefficients $\rho = 0.95$ and 0.98 for B and FT respectively). 290 291 Thus, we only presented the results obtained with the index PS'. To consider the uncertainty 292 inherent to Bayesian mixing models, for each species 1,000 diet proportion vectors (i.e. [p₁; p₂;...; p_n] for *n* resources contributing to the diet) were sampled from the posterior distributions output 293 294 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

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⁻²), summed over all collected resources
edible by asellids (an approach similar to Srivastava & Lawton, 1998; Thompson & Townsend,
2005).

301 *Quality of resources*

The quality of a given resource was estimated by the strength of the elemental imbalance between 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 less beneficial it is for the consumer to feed on this resource. For a given resource i, this stoichiometric mismatch (SM_{i(C:N)} or SM_{i(C:P)}) was measured by the difference between the C:N (or 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 and309 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)

The Resource Diversity in terms of Quality for C:N (RDQual_{C:N}) or for C:P (RDQual_{C:P}) was then estimated in each environment by calculating the weighted variance (σ^2) of the stoichiometric 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 μ* 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
weighted variance was corrected for sample size and transformed in a weighted standard
deviation:

319 Resource Diversity in terms of Quality: RDQual_(C:N or C:P) = sqrt (σ^2 / ((RR - 1) / RR)) (5)

320 This index measures the heterogeneity in the stoichiometric mismatches of all available resources in the environment. Low RDQual_(C:N or C:P) indicates that all available resources in the environment 321 have similar stoichiometric qualities for the consumer. On the opposite, RDQual_(C:N or C:P) increases 322 when the stoichiometric qualities for the consumer increasingly diverge among available 323 324 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 327 our prediction, trophic selectivity would increase when RDQual_(C:N or C:P) increases.

328 Number of trophic resources

In addition to Resource Availability (RA) and Resource Diversity in terms of Quality (RDQual_{(C:N} or C:P)), the number of trophic resources present in each environment can also influence trophic 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, the Resource Diversity in terms of Quantity (RDQuant, Table S1) was estimated in each
environment with a Shannon index that integrates resource number and evenness (relative
abundance) across all available resources:

337 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 339 amount of OC).

340 *Phylogenetic analyses*

341 Evaluating the relative influences of the Resource Availability (RA) and the Resource Diversity in terms of Quality (RDQual_(C:N or C:P)) and in terms of Quantity (RDQuant) on trophic selectivity 342 343 needs to take into account the phylogenetic relationships among the 15 species. Taking 344 advantages of whole transcriptome sequencing for the 15 species considered in the present study (Francois et al., 2016b), we extracted a set of 386 1-to-1 orthologous gene alignments present in 345 346 all species. The concatenated alignment was used to reconstruct a phylogram with phyML with a GTR+G+I model of evolution (Guindon et al., 2010). Using this topology, we estimated a 347 chronogram with mcmctree (Yang 2007) using default parameters, two independent runs to check 348 349 chains convergences and setting the divergence between the *Bragasellus* and *Proasellus* to be not 350 older than 150 MYA.

351 Statistical analyses

According to the recommendations of Warton & Hui (2011) for proportion data, the trophic 352 selectivity index PS' has been logit-transformed prior to statistical analyses. RA and RDQual_{C:P} 353 354 have been log-transformed prior to statistical analyses to correct for non-normality of the data. We checked for multi-collinearity among the four environmental variables (RA, RDQual_{C:N}, 355 356 RDQual_{C:P} 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-357 Squares models (PGLS; Martins & Hansen, 1997) to evaluate the influence of the four 358 359 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 360 361 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 362 interactions on trophic selectivity, we decided to perform two separate analyses with RA, 363 RDQual_{C:N} and RDQuant as explaining variables in one hand and RA, RDQual_{C:P} and RDQuant as 364 explaining variables in another hand. For each analysis, we performed a procedure of model 365 366 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 367 368 package), starting from the most comprehensive model (including all interactions). We checked 369 that the order of entry of each variable into the PGLS models did not change significantly the results. The adjusted McFadden's pseudo-R² (McFadden, 1974) was computed for all tested 370 models to provide for a comparable estimation of the amount of explained variance among 371 372 models with different number of parameters. The normality of the residuals of the final 'best' 373 model (with the smallest AICc) was checked.

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

- 375
- 376

377 **RESULTS**

378 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⁻² 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_{C:N} indexes ranging between 1.1 and 20.1, and RDQual_{C:P} indexes ranging between 4.0 and 633.4 (Table S1). There was no collinearity between the four predictor variables RA, RDQual_{C:N},RDQual_{C:P} 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 nonselective feeding (PS' close to 0) and highly selective feeding (PS' close to 1) species of isopods.

399

400 Relationships between trophic selectivity and environmental variables

401 The first procedure of model selection starting from the comprehensive model including resource 402 availability (RA), resource diversity in terms of quantity (RDQuant) and in terms of quality based 403 on C:N ratios (RDQual_{C:N}) 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 404 predictor of trophic selectivity (PS') (PGLS; P-value = 0.0031 and $R^2 = 0.46$; equivalent to Fig. 405 3a). A comparable result was obtained when resource diversity in terms of quality based on C:P 406 407 ratios (RDQual_{C:P}) replaced RDQual_{C:N} as predictor of trophic selectivity (Table S4). PS' was 408 positively correlated with RA (Fig. 3a). PS' was not correlated with the resource diversity in terms of quality for C:N (RDQual_{C:N}, Fig. 3c) or for C:P (RDQual_{C:P}, Fig. 3d), neither with the resource 409 diversity in terms of quantity (RDQuant, Fig. 3b). Trophic selectivity showed no phylogenetic 410 signal among the 15 species (Blomberg's K = 0.09, P-value = 0.94; Blomberg et al. 2003). 411

Among the 15 species studied, we found that 4 out of the 5 species living in environments with 412 more than 25 g of OC . m⁻² were selective-feeders (i.e. with a PS'>0.5, Fig. 1): *P. solanasi*, *P.* 413 beticus, P. ibericus and B. peltatus. These species always fed selectively on resource types that 414 were not dominant in the environment. For example, the diet of P. beticus comprised 56% of 415 sedimentary biofilm whereas this resource type represented less than 2% of OC resources in the 416 417 environment (Fig. 2). There was a tendency across species for feeding selectively on sedimentary 418 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 419 420 2 or more resources: sedimentary biofilm and roots for P. ibericus, and CPOM, FPOM and 421 sedimentary biofilm for *B. peltatus*.

- 422
- 423

424 **DISCUSSION**

The dataset collected for the present study allowed to test the influence of trophic environmental 425 426 conditions (resource availability and diversity) on the trophic selectivity of aquatic species across 427 a broad range of environments. In this dataset, the absence of collinearity between the predictor 428 variables allowed to discriminate the relative influences of trophic conditions on selectivity. 429 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 430 resources rather than the diversity of resource (in terms of quality and quantity, respectively 431 RDQual_(C:N or C:P) and RDQuant) increases trophic selectivity of aquatic isopod species. The 432 positive relationship between resource availability and trophic selectivity was probably uncovered 433 in this study thanks to the wide range of resource availability studied (from 1.3 to 57.6 g of OC. 434 m⁻²) which incorporated both surface and cave streams, these latter being considered as one of the 435 most energy-limited environments on Earth (Poulson & Lavoie, 2000; Simon et al., 2003; 436 Venarsky et al., 2012, 2014). By contrasting environmental conditions, we demonstrated that 437

species tend to feed non-selectively at lower bounds of resource availability whereas selective-438 439 feeding species were detected in resource-rich environments. Intraspecific niche partitioning 440 (sensu Bolnick et al., 2002) could theoretically affect this pattern, as non-selective species can be 441 composed of individuals feeding selectively on different resources. However, non-selective species at the lower bound of resource availability do not display particularly dispersed 442 individuals (see the isoplots in Fig S1; except for *B.molinai*), neither do they display distinct 443 444 groups of individuals feeding on (i.e. isotopically close to) different resources, suggesting that the 445 observed selectivity pattern should be similar at the species and individual levels. The analysis 446 also suggested that trophic selectivity was not phylogenetically conserved among the focal 447 species.

448

One major finding of the present study is the demonstration of a positive relationship between 449 450 resource availability and trophic selectivity in aquatic isopods. This relationship supports the hypothesis that trophic selectivity was low in resource-poor environments probably because 451 452 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 453 454 explaining selective feeding by isopods in resource-rich environments remain elusive. Our results 455 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 456 457 an increase in total resource availability could increase some rare resources which would then 458 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 459 460 environments even when the amount of this trophic resource was lower than in resource-poor 461 environments (eg. see P. ibericus, Fig. 2). These results did not give a strong support to the 462 mechanism presented by Evans et al. (2005) to explain the positive relationship between resource 463 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 464 465 instance, the species-energy theory indicates that species richness increases with resource 466 availability in the environment (Bonn et al., 2004). In such condition, interactions among species 467 would be stronger in resource-rich than in resource-poor environments, which could increase 468 niche partitioning among species (MacArthur & Levins, 1967). This niche partitioning for food 469 and/or habitat would therefore enhance the mismatch between the relative abundances of 470 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 471 472 amphipods to avoid competitive exclusion and predation (Cruz-Rivera & Hay, 2000; Best & 473 Stachowicz, 2014) indicates that each amphipod species does not have access to the whole range 474 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 475 476 expected to be strong. Demonstrating this mechanism will represent a significant advance in our 477 understanding of ecosystem structure and functioning, but represents a difficult task as it requires 478 to finely describe the spatial distributions of all species in each environment but also the biotic 479 interactions among these species.

480

481 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 482 483 constraints would have determined the resource used by consumers in accordance with the 484 stoichiometric ecological theory (Sterner & Elser, 2002). In other words, a high diversity of 485 resource stoichiometric qualities would have generated selective feeding whereas non-selective 486 feeding was expected in environments harboring resources of comparable stoichiometric qualities. 487 These predictions were not validated because asellid species fed selectively or non-selectively 488 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 489

490 diversity in resource quality for C:N (RDQual_{C:N} < 5 in our dataset, figure 3b), whereas no 491 selective feeding was expected under the stoichiometric hypothesis in these environments. 492 Admittedly, some criticisms can be drawn concerning the use of stoichiometric C:N or C:P ratios 493 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 494 495 the considered pool (e.g. the conditioned leaves colonized by fungi; Constantini and Rossi, 1995). 496 Besides, detrimental chemicals such as phenolic compounds may reduce the palatability of 497 trophic resources without affecting their C:N and C:P ratios (Oates et al., 1980; Dorenbosch & 498 Bakker, 2011) and compounds which cannot be synthetized by animals such as sterols or essential 499 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 500 501 mixing strategy in asellids because most selective-feeding species (eg. *P. ibericus* and *B. peltatus*) 502 selected at least 2 trophic resources that were largely contrasted in terms of C:N and C:P (e.g. 503 averaged C:N : 10.2 ± 4.2 for sedimentary biofilms, 21.4 ± 8.2 for FPOM, 22.4 ± 11.8 for roots, 504 and 29.3 ± 18.9 for CPOM; Table S2). This suggests that asellid species need to mix trophic 505 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 506 507 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 508 organisms (ie. best resources in terms of stoichiometric quality). To address this topic, use of 509 510 specific markers such as amino acids and fatty acids and their isotopic compositions would be 511 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 512 and C (Bec et al., 2011). 513

Although we observed that asellid species could selectively feed on several trophic resources, 515 516 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) 517 demonstrated that two asellid species exhibited a strong specialization (i.e. a higher performance; 518 Irschick et al., 2005; Whitfield et al., 2009; Devictor et al., 2010; Poisot et al., 2011) on 519 520 sedimentary biofilm. Feeding experiments in the laboratory showed that both species assimilated 521 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 522 523 sedimentary biofilm was common in the present study might have resulted from a positive fitness 524 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 525 species than feeding on other resources without measurements of the fitness of all isopod species 526 527 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 528 resources would provide a unique opportunity to document and understand the relationship 529 between trophic specialization and selectivity in regard to resource availability. 530

- 531
- 532
- 533
- 534

535 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.

539

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

541 For each site, the upper panel presents the relative abundance of all available resources in the 542 environment (in %; see Methods for details on the underlying calculations), while the lower panel 543 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 thebarplots, in grams of Organic Carbon per square meter) is summed over all available resources.

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

547

548 Figure 3: Relationships between the trophic selectivity PS' and (a) the Resource Availability 549 (RA) as grams of OC . m⁻²; (b) the Resource Diversity in terms of Quantity (RDQuant); (c) 550 and (d) the Resource Diversity in terms of stoichiometric Quality based on C:N and C:P 551 ratios respectively (RDQual_{C:N} and RDQual_{C:P}).

552 These plots present biological data prior to transformation. Only significant regression lines are 553 drawn. See M&M for details on the credibility intervals drawn for PS'.

- 554
- 555

556 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank the following collaborators and organizations for their precious help in collecting
biological material: Alhama de Granada municipality, M. Isabel Carreira, T. Datry, D. Eme, Cueva
de Valporquero, Junta de Andalucia (Hundidero – Gato) and Rafael Orozco. We are grateful to
David Eme for valuable comments on statistical analyses and Pierre Marmonier for a careful
reading and editing of the manuscript. We thank the editors and the anonymous reviewers for their
valuable comments on an earlier version of this manuscript.

563

564 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.
569	
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).
574	
575	COMPETING INTERESTS
576	We have no competing interests.
577	
578	FUNDING
579	This work was supported by grants from the Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR-08-JCJC-
580	0120-01 DEEP) and the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (APEGE 2012
581	'Stoichiogenomics' No. 70632 and EC2CO 2013-2014 'Ecosphere Continentale et Cotiere' -
582	'CoCoNutS' project).
583	
584	
585	
586	REFERENCES
587	Arakelova, E. S. (1996). Feeding strategy and energy allocation in Asellus aquaticus L. Russian
588	Journal of Aquatic Ecology, 5, 65-73.
589	
590	Armstrong, T. R., & Stamp, N. E. (2003). Effects of prey quantity on predatory wasps (Polistes
591	dominulus) when patch quality differs. <i>Behavioral ecology and sociobiology</i> , 54(3), 310-319.

592 <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00265-003-0624-1</u>

594	Basset, A., & Rossi, L. (1987). Relationships between trophic niche breadth and reproductive
595	capabilities in a population of Proasellus coxalis Dollfus (Crustacea: Isopoda). Functional
596	Ecology, 13-18. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/2389352</u>
597	
598	Bec, A., Perga, M. E., Koussoroplis, A., Bardoux, G., Desvilettes, C., Bourdier, G., & Mariotti, A.
599	(2011). Assessing the reliability of fatty acid–specific stable isotope analysis for trophic studies.
600	Methods in Ecology and Evolution, 2(6), 651-659. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2041-</u>
601	<u>210X.2011.00111.x</u>
602	
603	Best, R. J., & Stachowicz, J. J. (2014). Phenotypic and phylogenetic evidence for the role of food
604	and habitat in the assembly of communities of marine amphipods. <i>Ecology</i> , 95(3), 775-786.
605	https://doi.org/10.1890/13-0163.1
606	
607	Birkhofer, K., & Wolters, V. (2012). The global relationship between climate, net primary
608	production and the diet of spiders. <i>Global Ecology and Biogeography</i> , 21(2), 100-108.
609	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1466-8238.2011.00654.x
610	
611	Blomberg, S. P., Garland Jr, T., & Ives, A. R. (2003). Testing for phylogenetic signal in
612	comparative data: behavioral traits are more labile. <i>Evolution</i> , <i>57</i> (4), 717-745.
613	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0014-3820.2003.tb00285.x
614	
615	Bolnick, D. I., Yang, L. H., Fordyce, J. A., Davis, J. M., & Svanbäck, R. (2002). Measuring
616	individual-level resource specialization. <i>Ecology</i> , 83(10), 2936-2941.
617	https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-9658(2002)083[2936:MILRS]2.0.CO;2

```
618
```

- Bou, C. (1974). Methods to sample in interstitial groundwaters (Les méthodes de récolte dans les
 eaux souterraines interstitielles). *Annls Spéléol*, *29*, 611-619.
- 621
- 622 Brett, M. T. (2014). Resource polygon geometry predicts Bayesian stable isotope mixing model

bias. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 514, 1-12. <u>https://doi.org/10.3354/meps11017</u>
624

- Brodie, C. R., Leng, M. J., Casford, J. S., Kendrick, C. P., Lloyd, J. M., Yongqiang, Z., & Bird, M.
- 626 I. (2011). Evidence for bias in C and N concentrations and δ 13C composition of terrestrial and
- 627 aquatic organic materials due to pre-analysis acid preparation methods. *Chemical Geology*, 282(3-

628 4), 67-83. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemgeo.2011.01.007</u>

629

- 630 Burnham, K. P., & Anderson, D. R. (2002). Formal inference from more than one model:
- 631 multimodel inference (MMI). Model Sel. Multimodel inference. A practical information-theoretic

632 approach, 2nd edn. Springer, New York.

633

634 Chesson, J. (1978). Measuring preference in selective predation. *Ecology*, 59(2), 211-215.

635 <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/1936364</u>

- 636
- 637 Constantini, M. L., & Rossi, L. (1995). Role of fungal patchiness on vegetal detritus in the trophic
- 638 interactions between two brackish detritivores, Idotea baltica and Gammarus insensibilis.

639 *Hydrobiologia*, 316(2), 117-126. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00016893</u>

640

641	Cruz-Rivera, E., & Hay, M. E. (2000). Can quantity replace quality? Food choice, compensatory
642	feeding, and fitness of marine mesograzers. <i>Ecology</i> , <i>81</i> (1), 201-219.
643	https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-9658(2000)081[0201:CQRQFC]2.0.CO;2
644	
645	Devictor, V., Clavel, J., Julliard, R., Lavergne, S., Mouillot, D., Thuiller, W., & Mouquet, N.

646 (2010). Defining and measuring ecological specialization. Journal of Applied Ecology, 47(1), 15-

647 25. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2664.2009.01744.x</u>
648

649 Dorenbosch, M., & Bakker, E. S. (2011). Herbivory in omnivorous fishes: effect of plant

650 secondary metabolites and prey stoichiometry. *Freshwater Biology*, 56(9), 1783-1797.

651 <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2427.2011.02618.x</u>

652

Elser, J. J., & Hassett, R. P. (1994). A stoichiometric analysis of the zooplankton–phytoplankton
interaction in marine and freshwater ecosystems. *Nature*, *370*(6486), 211.

655 <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/370211a0</u>

656

Elser, J. (2006). Biological stoichiometry: a chemical bridge between ecosystem ecology and
evolutionary biology. *The American Naturalist*, *168*(S6), S25-S35. <u>https://doi.org/10.1086/509048</u>

Eme, D., Malard, F., Colson-Proch, C., Jean, P., Calvignac, S., Konecny-Dupré, L., ... & Douady,
C. J. (2014). Integrating phylogeography, physiology and habitat modelling to explore species
range determinants. *Journal of biogeography*, *41*(4), 687-699. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.12237</u>

- 664 Evans, K. L., Warren, P. H., & Gaston, K. J. (2005). Species–energy relationships at the
- 665 macroecological scale: a review of the mechanisms. *Biological Reviews*, 80(1), 1-25.

666 <u>https://doi.org/10.1017/S1464793104006517</u>

667

Feinsinger, P., Spears, E. E., & Poole, R. W. (1981). A simple measure of niche breadth. *Ecology*,
669 62(1), 27-32. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/1936664</u>

670

- 671 Felsenstein, J. (1985). Phylogenies and the comparative method. *The American Naturalist*,
- 672 125(1), 1-15. <u>https://doi.org/10.1086/284325</u>

673

- 674 Francois, C. M., Mermillod-Blondin, F., Malard, F., Fourel, F., Lécuyer, C., Douady, C. J., &
- 675 Simon, L. (2016). Trophic ecology of groundwater species reveals specialization in a low-
- 676 productivity environment. *Functional Ecology*, 30(2), 262-273. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-</u>
- 677 <u>2435.12484</u>

678

679 Francois, C. M., Duret, L., Simon, L., Mermillod-Blondin, F., Malard, F., Konecny-Dupré, L., ...

680 & Lefébure, T. (2016). No evidence that nitrogen limitation influences the elemental composition

- of isopod transcriptomes and proteomes. *Molecular biology and evolution*, 33(10), 2605-2620.
- 682 <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msw131</u>
- 683
- Frost, P. C., Evans-White, M. A., Finkel, Z. V., Jensen, T. C., & Matzek, V. (2005). Are you what
 you eat? Physiological constraints on organismal stoichiometry in an elementally imbalanced
- 686 world. *Oikos*, *109*(1), 18-28. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0030-1299.2005.14049.x</u>
- 687

688	Fry, B., & Sherr, E. B. (1989). δ 13 C measurements as indicators of carbon flow in marine and
689	freshwater ecosystems. In Stable isotopes in ecological research (pp. 196-229). Springer, New
690	York, NY.

- 691
- 692 Gende, S. M., Quinn, T. P., & Willson, M. F. (2001). Consumption choice by bears feeding on

693 salmon. Oecologia, 127(3), 372-382. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s004420000590</u>

694

- 695 Gibert, J., & Deharveng, L. (2002). Subterranean Ecosystems: A Truncated Functional
- 696 Biodiversity. *BioScience*, 52(6), 473-481. <u>https://doi.org/10.1641/0006-</u>
- 697 <u>3568(2002)052[0473:SEATFB]2.0.CO;2</u>

698

Golterman, H. L. (2001). Fractionation and bioavailability of phosphates in lacustrine sediments:
a review. *Limnetica*, *20*(1), 15-29.

701

- 702 Guindon, S., Dufayard, J. F., Lefort, V., Anisimova, M., Hordijk, W., & Gascuel, O. (2010). New
- algorithms and methods to estimate maximum-likelihood phylogenies: assessing the performance
- of PhyML 3.0. *Systematic biology*, 59(3), 307-321. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syq010</u>

705

- 706 Hägele, B. F., & Rowell-Rahier, M. (1999). Dietary mixing in three generalist herbivores: nutrient
- 707 complementation or toxin dilution? *Oecologia*, *119*(4), 521-533.
- 708 https://doi.org/10.1007/s004420050815

710	Hessen, D. O., Jensen, T. C., Kyle, M., & Elser, J. J. (2007). RNA responses to N-and P-
711	limitation; reciprocal regulation of stoichiometry and growth rate in Brachionus. Functional
712	<i>Ecology</i> , <i>21</i> (5), 956-962. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2435.2007.01306.x</u>
713	
714	Hessen, D. O., Elser, J. J., Sterner, R. W., & Urabe, J. (2013). Ecological stoichiometry: an
715	elementary approach using basic principles. Limnology and Oceanography, 58(6), 2219-2236.
716	https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2013.58.6.2219
717	
718	Hillebrand H Frost P & Liess A (2008) Ecological stoichiometry of indirect grazer effects on
710	
719	periphyton nutrient content. <i>Oecologia</i> , 155(3), 619-630. <u>https://doi.org/10.100//s00442-00/-</u>
720	<u>0930-9</u>
721	
722	Hopkins III, J. B., & Ferguson, J. M. (2012). Estimating the diets of animals using stable isotopes
723	and a comprehensive Bayesian mixing model. <i>PloS one</i> , <i>7</i> (1), e28478.
724	https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0028478
725	
726	Huntsman, B. M., Venarsky, M. P., Benstead, J. P., & Huryn, A. D. (2011). Effects of organic
727	matter availability on the life history and production of a top vertebrate predator (Plethodontidae:
728	Gyrinophilus palleucus) in two cave streams. Freshwater Biology, 56(9), 1746-1760.
729	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2427.2011.02609.x
730	
701	$\mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \\ \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{u}} & $
/31	Huribert, S. H. (1978). The measurement of hiche overlap and some relatives. <i>Ecology</i> , 59(1), 67-
732	77. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/1936632</u>
733	

734	Irschick, D., Dyer, L., & Sherry, T. W. (2005). Phylogenetic methodologies for studying
735	specialization. <i>Oikos</i> , 110(2), 404-408. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0030-1299.2005.13927.x</u>
736	

- Jackson, A. L., Inger, R., Parnell, A. C., & Bearhop, S. (2011). Comparing isotopic niche widths
 among and within communities: SIBER–Stable Isotope Bayesian Ellipses in R. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, *80*(3), 595-602. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2656.2011.01806.x</u>
- 741 Kaspari, M. (2001). Taxonomic level, trophic biology and the regulation of local abundance.
- 742 *Global Ecology and Biogeography*, *10*(3), 229-244. <u>https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1466-</u>
- 743 <u>822X.2001.00214.x</u>
- 744
- Lacher Jr, T. E., Willig, M. R., & Mares, M. A. (1982). Food preference as a function of resource
 abundance with multiple prey types: an experimental analysis of optimal foraging theory. *The*
- 747 American Naturalist, 120(3), 297-316. <u>https://doi.org/10.1086/283992</u>
- 748
- 749 Leberfinger, K., Bohman, I., & Herrmann, J. A. N. (2011). The importance of terrestrial resource
- subsidies for shredders in open-canopy streams revealed by stable isotope analysis. *Freshwater*
- 751 *Biology*, 56(3), 470-480. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2427.2010.02512.x</u>
- 752
- 753 McFadden D. Conditional logit analysis of qualitative choice behavior. Pp. 105-142 in P.
- 754 Zarembka (ed.), *Frontiers in Econometrics*. Academic Press. 1974.
- 755
- 756 Marcus, J. H., Sutcliffe, D. W., & Willoughby, L. G. (1978). Feeding and growth of Asellus
- 757 aquaticus (Isopoda) on food items from the littoral of Windermere, including green leaves of

Elodea canadensis. *Freshwater Biology*, *8*(6), 505-519. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-</u>
<u>2427.1978.tb01473.x</u>

760

Martins, E. P., & Hansen, T. F. (1997). Phylogenies and the comparative method: a general
approach to incorporating phylogenetic information into the analysis of interspecific data. *The American Naturalist*, *149*(4), 646-667. <u>https://doi.org/10.1086/286013</u>

764

- Mermillod-Blondin, F., Lefour, C., Lalouette, L., Renault, D., Malard, F., Simon, L., & Douady,
 C. J. (2013). Thermal tolerance breadths among groundwater crustaceans living in a thermally
 constant environment. *Journal of Experimental Biology*, *216*(9), 1683-1694.
- 768 <u>https://doi.org/10.1242/jeb.081232</u>

769

- 770 Moore, J. W. (1975). The role of algae in the diet of Asellus aquaticus L. and Gammarus pulex L.
- 771 The Journal of Animal Ecology, 719-730. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/3714</u>

772

- 773 Morvan, C., Malard, F., Paradis, E., Lefébure, T., Konecny-Dupré, L., & Douady, C. J. (2013).
- 774 Timetree of Aselloidea reveals species diversification dynamics in groundwater. *Systematic*

775 Biology, 62(4), 512-522. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syt015</u>

- 776
- 777 Murphy, J., & Riley, A. J. (1958). A single-solution method for the determination of soluble
- phosphate in sea water. Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom,
- 779 37(1), 9-14. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0025315400014776
- 780

782	sediment and its contribution to lake eutrophication in China. <i>Environmental pollution</i> , 219, 537-
783	544. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2016.05.087</u>
784	
785	Oates, J. F., Waterman, P. G., & Choo, G. M. (1980). Food selection by the south Indian leaf-
786	monkey, Presbytis johnii, in relation to leaf chemistry. <i>Oecologia</i> , 45(1), 45-56.
787	https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00346706
788	
789	Paradis, E., Claude, J., & Strimmer, K. (2004). APE: analyses of phylogenetics and evolution in R
790	language. Bioinformatics, 20(2), 289-290. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btg412</u>
791	
792	Parnell, A. C., Inger, R., Bearhop, S., & Jackson, A. L. (2010). Source partitioning using stable
793	isotopes: coping with too much variation. <i>PloS one</i> , <i>5</i> (3), e9672.
794	https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0009672
795	
796	Peterson, W. T., & Ausubel, S. J. (1984). Diets and selective feeding by larvae of Atlantic
797	mackerel Scomber scombrus on zooplankton. Marine ecology progress series. Oldendorf, 17(1),
798	65-75.
799	
800	Peterson, B. J., & Fry, B. (1987). Stable isotopes in ecosystem studies. <i>Annual review of ecology</i>
801	and systematics, 18(1), 293-320. <u>https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.es.18.110187.001453</u>
802	

Ni, Z., Wang, S., & Wang, Y. (2016). Characteristics of bioavailable organic phosphorus in

32

803	Phillips, D. L., Inger, R., Bearhop, S., Jackson, A. L., Moore, J. W., Parnell, A. C., & Ward, E.
804	J. (2014). Best practices for use of stable isotope mixing models in food-web studies. <i>Canadian</i>
805	Journal of Zoology, 92(10), 823-835. <u>https://doi.org/10.1139/cjz-2014-0127</u>
806	
807	Pienaar, J., Ilany, A., Geffen, E., & Yom-Tov, Y. (2013). Macroevolution of life-history traits in

808 passerine birds: adaptation and phylogenetic inertia. *Ecology Letters*, *16*(5), 571-576.

809 <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12077</u>

810

- 811 Poisot, T., Bever, J. D., Nemri, A., Thrall, P. H., & Hochberg, M. E. (2011). A conceptual
- framework for the evolution of ecological specialisation. *Ecology letters*, *14*(9), 841-851.

813 <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1461-0248.2011.01645.x</u>

814

815 Post, D. M. (2002). Using stable isotopes to estimate trophic position: models, methods, and

816 assumptions. *Ecology*, 83(3), 703-718. <u>https://doi.org/10.1890/0012-</u>

817 <u>9658(2002)083[0703:USITET]2.0.CO;2</u>

- Poulson, T. L., & Lavoie, K. H. (2000). The trophic basis of subsurface ecosystems. Chapter 12 in
 'Ecosystems of the World. Vol. 30. Subterranean Ecosystems'.(Eds. H. Wilkens, DC Culver and
 WF Humphreys.) pp. 231–249.
- 822
- R Development Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna,Austria; 2016.
- 825

828	<u>210X.2011.00169.x</u>
829	
830	Rossi, L., & Fano, A. E. (1979). Role of fungi in the trophic niche of the congeneric detritivorous
831	Asellus aquaticus and A. coxalis (Isopoda). Oikos, 380-385. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/3544749</u>
832	
833	Simon, K. S., Benfield, E. F., & Macko, S. A. (2003). Food web structure and the role of epilithic
834	biofilms in cave streams. <i>Ecology</i> , 84(9), 2395-2406. <u>https://doi.org/10.1890/02-334</u>
835	
836	Smith, E. P. (1982). Niche breadth, resource availability, and inference. <i>Ecology</i> , 63(6), 1675-
837	1681. <u>https://doi.org/10.2307/1940109</u>
838	
839	Sperfeld, E., Wagner, N. D., Halvorson, H. M., Malishev, M., & Raubenheimer, D. (2017).
840	Bridging ecological stoichiometry and nutritional geometry with homeostasis concepts and
841	integrative models of organism nutrition. Functional Ecology, 31(2), 286-296.
842	https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2435.12707
843	
844	Srivastava, D. S., & Lawton, J. H. (1998). Why more productive sites have more species: an
845	experimental test of theory using tree-hole communities. <i>The American Naturalist</i> , 152(4), 510-
846	529. <u>https://doi.org/10.1086/286187</u>
847	
848	Sterner, R. W., & Elser, J. J. (2002). Ecological stoichiometry: the biology of elements from
849	molecules to the biosphere. Princeton university press.

Revell, L. J. (2012). phytools: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other

things). *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 3(2), 217-223. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2041-</u>

34

826

```
850
```

- Thompson, I. D., & Colgan, P. W. (1990). Prey choice by marten during a decline in prey
 abundance. *Oecologia*, *83*(4), 443-451. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00317193</u>
- Thompson, R. M., & Townsend, C. R. (2005). Energy availability, spatial heterogeneity and

ecosystem size predict food-web structure in streams. *Oikos*, *108*(1), 137-148.

856 <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0030-1299.2005.11600.x</u>

857

858 Tinker, M. T., Bentall, G., & Estes, J. A. (2008). Food limitation leads to behavioral

859 diversification and dietary specialization in sea otters. *Proceedings of the national Academy of*

860 *Sciences*, *105*(2), 560-565. <u>https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0709263105</u>

861

862 Traugott, M., Kamenova, S., Ruess, L., Seeber, J., & Plantegenest, M. (2013). Empirically

863 characterising trophic networks: what emerging DNA-based methods, stable isotope and fatty

acid analyses can offer. In *Advances in ecological research* (Vol. 49, pp. 177-224). Academic

865 Press. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-420002-9.00003-2</u>

866

- Trumble, S. J., Barboza, P. S., & Castellini, M. A. (2003). Digestive constraints on an aquatic
 carnivore: effects of feeding frequency and prey composition on harbor seals. *Journal of Comparative Physiology B*, *173*(6), 501-509. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00360-003-0358-4</u>
- 871 Vanderklift, M. A., & Ponsard, S. (2003). Sources of variation in consumer-diet δ 15 N
- 872 enrichment: a meta-analysis. *Oecologia*, *136*(2), 169-182. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442-003-</u>

873 <u>1270-z</u>

875	Zanden, M. J. V., & Rasmussen, J. B. (2001). Variation in δ 15N and δ 13C trophic fractionation:
876	implications for aquatic food web studies. <i>Limnology and oceanography</i> , 46(8), 2061-2066.
877	https://doi.org/10.4319/lo.2001.46.8.2061
878	
879	Venarsky, M. P., Benstead, J. P., & Huryn, A. D. (2012). Effects of organic matter and season on
880	leaf litter colonisation and breakdown in cave streams. <i>Freshwater Biology</i> , 57(4), 773-786.
881	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2427.2012.02742.x
882	
883	Venarsky, M. P., Huntsman, B. M., Huryn, A. D., Benstead, J. P., & Kuhajda, B. R. (2014).
884	Quantitative food web analysis supports the energy-limitation hypothesis in cave stream
885	ecosystems. Oecologia, 176(3), 859-869. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00442-014-3042-3</u>
886	
887	Wagner, N. D., Hillebrand, H., Wacker, A., & Frost, P. C. (2013). Nutritional indicators and their
888	uses in ecology. <i>Ecology letters</i> , 16(4), 535-544. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/ele.12067</u>
889	
890	Warton, D. I., & Hui, F. K. (2011). The arcsine is asinine: the analysis of proportions in ecology.
891	Ecology, 92(1), 3-10. <u>https://doi.org/10.1890/10-0340.1</u>
892	
893	Whitfield, D. P., Reid, R., Haworth, P. F., Madders, M., Marquiss, M., Tingay, R., & Fielding, A.
894	H. (2009). Diet specificity is not associated with increased reproductive performance of Golden
895	Eagles Aquila chrysaetos in Western Scotland. Ibis, 151(2), 255-264.
896	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1474-919X.2009.00924.x
897	

- Yang, Z. (2007). PAML 4: phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood. *Molecular biology and evolution*, 24(8), 1586-1591. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msm088</u>
- 901 Zandona, E., Auer, S. K., Kilham, S. S., Howard, J. L., López-Sepulcre, A., O'Connor, M. P., ... &
- 902 Reznick, D. N. (2011). Diet quality and prey selectivity correlate with life histories and predation
- regime in Trinidadian guppies. *Functional Ecology*, *25*(5), 964-973.
- 904 <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2435.2011.01865.x</u>
 905
- 206 Zuur, A. F., Ieno, E. N., & Elphick, C. S. (2010). A protocol for data exploration to avoid common
- 907 statistical problems. *Methods in ecology and evolution*, 1(1), 3-14. <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2041-</u>
 908 <u>210X.2009.00001.x</u>
- 909
- 910

911 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. coiffait*i).
- 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 the921 diet.
- 922 Table S4: Procedure of model selection with RDQual_{C:P} (Resource Diversity in terms of Quality,
- 923 based on C:P ratios).
- 924 Please note: Wiley Blackwell are not responsible for the content or functionality of any
- 925 supporting information supplied by the authors. Any queries (other than missing material)
- should be directed to the corresponding author for the article.



Figure 2





Species		Site	Habitat	C:N _{org}	C:P _{org}	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	РТ	41.28	-8.31

Table 1: Description of the 15 isopod species. Species are sorted by increasing resource availability in their environment. C:N_{org} and C:P_{org} 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 / m^2). 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 ²
$PS' \sim RA * RDQuant * RDQual_{_{C:N}}$	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
$PS' \sim RA + RDQuant + RDQual_{C:N}$	54.90	0.37
PS' ~ RA * RDQuant	54.76	0.38
$PS' \sim RA * RDQual_{C:N}$	54.10	0.41
$PS' \sim RA + RDQuant$	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.