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4	Trophic plasticity in the sea urchin Paracentrotus
5	lividus: herbivory, detritivory and omnivory as a
6	function of resource availability and habitat features
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ABSTRACT

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Factors controlling herbivory pressure have a central importance in shaping the seascape. In the Mediterranean, the sea urchin Paracentrotus lividus is considered as a keystone herbivore in seagrass meadows and macroalgal communities. Here we explore the trophic behavior of this sea urchin in a shallow seagrass habitat of Cymodocea nodosa mixed with Caulerpa prolifera and interspersed with sandy areas in the Alfacs Bay, Ebro Delta (NW Mediterranean). The seasonal pseudo-indigenous bryozoan Amathia verticillata is locally very abundant, and there is also an important population of *Pinna nobilis*, providing hard substrate and hides, thus being a unique environment for assessing the sea urchin trophic behavior. To this end, an ensemble of food preference and foraging experiments, stomach contents and stable isotope analyses were conducted. Our results showed that sea urchins strongly prefer A. verticillata over other local resources, and there was also an important presence of the bryozoan in stomach contents (ca. 44 %), coupled with green and decayed seagrass leaves. Stable isotope analyses, evidenced that in the long-term, ca. 65 % of the diet of P. lividus appears to be based on decayed seagrass leaves, followed by the bryozoan and green seagrass leaves (21.7 and 13.3 %, respectively). The local availability of P. nobilis provides a preferred substrate for sea urchins which showed limited foraging movements into the surrounding seagrass beds, particularly when A. verticillata was attached to the pen shells. The apparently high contribution of animal and detrital food to P. lividus diet is unprecedented, and suggests an opportunistic feeding behavior in sea urchins in those habitats. **Key words:** Trophic behavior, *Amathia verticillata*, seagrass beds, *Pinna nobilis*, stable isotopes

Sea urchins, often regarded as keystone herbivores in rocky macroalgal

1. INTRODUCTION

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3 communities and seagrass meadows, are capable of causing shifts from vegetation-4 dominated to unvegetated barrens in shallow marine waters during population 5 outbreaks (see reviews by Eklöf et al. 2008, Ling et al. 2015). Factors triggering such 6 major herbivory events have been primarily attributed to alterations in the strength of 7 bottom-up regulation following nutrient enrichment, reduced control by top predators 8 due to hunting or overfishing (Shepherd 1987, Estes et al. 1998, Ruiz et al. 2001, 9 Tewfik et al. 2007), and to changes in ocean temperature due to global warming 10 (Vergés et al. 2016). However, our ability to accurately predict herbivory impacts may 11 also depend on a multiplicity of other variables related to foraging and feeding 12 behavior, resource availability and accessibility (Prado & Heck 2011, Marco-Mendez et 13 al. 2012, 2015), the effect of habitat (Boada et al. 2018), and the interplay between 14 these variables. 15 Sea urchins are a widely diversified group, and some of the most emblematic 16 species are voracious herbivores. The high C:N ratio found in macroalgae and, 17 especially, in seagrasses, suggests a low nutritional value (Duarte 1990) and dietary 18 deficit of nitrogen. Moreover, the abundance of refractory carbon such as lignin 19 decreases digestibility of seagrasses by complexing with cellulose and hemicellulose 20 (Bjorndal 1980). Sea urchins' tube feet are thought to be equipped with sensory 21 receptors that help the process of food detection and selection (Pisut 2004), 22 potentially related, at least in part, to the search of N sources. Foraging activity relies 23 on a chemosensory ability that aids them in moving towards the source of the 24 chemical cue and provides the capacity to discriminate among a variety of food items

- 1 (Lawrence et al. 2013). Chemical attractants indicative of palatability are believed to
- 2 be primarily amino acids, although there also may be effects of quaternary ammonium
- 3 bases, nucleotides and organic acids (Carr et al. 1996), which may account for
- 4 observed patterns of enhanced consumption of nutrient enriched seagrasses or
- 5 benthic macroalgae (Ruiz et al. 2001, Valentine & Heck 2001).

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Despite most species of sea urchins are herbivores, it is not rare to find facultative omnivory in sea urchins (Lawrence et al. 2013), mostly due to the consumption of animal epiphytic communities associated with macrophytes, though some urchin species have been also shown to prey on larger benthic animals such as mussels and crustaceans (Watts et al. 2007, Wangensteen et al. 2011). Ingesting animals can compensate for the low nutritional value of seagrasses (Boudouresque & Verlaque 2001, Prado et al. 2010) and, some urchin species (e.g. Paracentrotus lividus) use these food items as the in main source of dietary nitrogen (Tomas et al. 2005a, Marco-Mendez et al. 2012). Since patterns of leaf growth and senescence are strongly connected to those of epiphyte accrual (Cebrián et al. 1999), epiphyte biomass and distribution can also determine grazing preferences at the plant scale (see for instance Ott 1980, Prado et al. 2011). Hence, sea urchins can be regarded as generalist consumers with plastic feeding behavior (Lawrence 1975). In effect, new primary producers including both seagrasses and macroalgae may produce an assortment of secondary metabolites with potential deterrent activity that may also determine preferences, consumption rates, absorption efficiencies and ultimately the fitness of herbivorous invertebrates (Vergés et al. 2007a, Duarte el al. 2011). In addition, the shape and toughness of food resources may constrict the degree of manipulability by herbivores and further influence their trophic ecology (Vergés et al. 2007b).

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Aside from the availability (in terms of chemical and structural aspects) of suitable food items, structural features of the habitat and the presence of predators may also determine patterns of sea urchin movement and feeding strategy. For instance, the sea urchin P. lividus (Lamarck) does not usually move across unvegetated areas and, in patchy mosaics, individuals tend to cluster on isolated seagrass patches or rocks or shells, and not venture beyond their refuges (Zavodnik 1980, Boudouresque & Verlaque 2013). Also, under intense predation pressure, sea urchins may hide within rocky or rhizome crevices or beneath boulders (Sala & Zabala 1996, Farina et al. 2009, Pessarrodona et al. 2019), thus restricting foraging ability. To further explore the trophic plasticity of sea urchin, and how this plasticity interacts with habitat features, we took advantage of an uncommon species assemblage occurring in the Alfacs Bay, Ebro Delta (NW Mediterranean). There, seagrass meadows of Cymodocea nodosa (Ucria) Ascherson, sometimes mixed with the green alga Caulerpa prolifera (Forsskal) Lamouroux and sandy areas, constitute the dominant habitats in the shallower (0-1.5 m) margins of the bay (Mascaró et al. 2014). The bay also features one of the largest populations of the endangered pen shell, Pinna nobilis (Linnaeus) in the Mediterranean (Prado et al. 2014), which constitutes the only natural hard substrate in the area. The abundance of the urchin P. lividus within the seagrass is very low, as also reported for other meadows of *C. nodosa* (Boudouresque & Verlaque 2001, 2013), and individuals tend to aggregate on pen shells, which are located either in seagrass or isolated sand areas. The soft body branching bryozoan, Amathia verticillata (delle Chiaje) is locally very abundant during the summer period and this pseudo-indigenous species (Marchini et al. 2015) has likely

1 been possibly present in the Alfacs Bay for decades (see Zabala 1986) and could be a

- 2 potential feeding resource for sea urchins.
- In this context, the objective of this study was to investigate the trophic plasticity of
- 4 P. lividus in relation to the seasonal availability of A. verticillata and its habitat use. To
- 5 this end, an ensemble of food preference experiments, analyses of stomach contents
- 6 and stable isotope determinations coupled with mixing models were combined with an
- 7 assessment of habitat use and mobility, aimed at clarifying the trophic behaviour of
- 8 the sea urchin in the presence of *A. verticillata*.

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2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Study site

- 12 The study was conducted in the Alfacs Bay (Ebro Delta, NW Mediterranean). The
- 13 Alfacs Bay is a semi-confined estuarine area of 50 km² with an average depth of
- 14 approx. 3 m and a maximum depth of 6 m. The northern shore of the bay receives
- 15 nutrient and organic matter-rich freshwater discharges from rice agriculture between
- April and October (Garcés et al. 1999), while the southern shore (the Banya Sandspit)
- is more influenced by marine waters due to the proximity to the bay mouth (Sanmartí
- et al. 2018). The Banya Sandspit was included in the Ebro Delta Natural Park in 1986
- and is also a part of the Natura 2000 network of the European Union because of the
- importance of local seagrass beds of *C. nodosa* and, the presence of a large population
- of *P. nobilis* (Prado et al. 2014).
- Sampling was conducted at two sites in summer 2018 along the Banya Sandspit
- 23 (Site A: 40°35'N, 0°39'E, 0.6 m depth, and site B: 40°35'N, 0°39'E, 0.8 m depth; see Fig.
- 1). Temperature in the area was 28.3 \pm 0.49 °C (mean \pm SE), salinity 36.6 \pm 0.35, pH 8.1

 \pm 0.05, and dissolved oxygen 6.1 \pm 0.29 mg per liter. The Alfacs bay is subjected to minor tidal fluctuations typical from the Mediterranean Sea (Llebot et al. 2014), and storms are rare during the summer period, which is characterized by very calm waters. Both zones feature large meadows of Cymodocea nodosa (monospecific in site A and mixed with the green alga Caulerpa prolifera in site B) and are adjacent to the seagrass limit and sandy habitats. Other macroalgae (living or drift) were relatively scarce in the area and were not considered as major potential diet items. Sea urchins are frequently observed attached to the shells of Pinna nobilis which occurs both in seagrass and sandy areas. The soft-bodied, branching bryozoan Amathia verticillata is widely distributed within the Alfacs Bay during the summer period, growing at shallow depths (0-1 m) either attached to wooden pylons, seagrass and pen shells or as large detached floating mats similar in aspect and consistency to floating algae. The occurrence of A. verticillata in seagrass beds of C. nodosa in the presence of sea urchins is, to our experience, very rear, since the bryozoan usually appears in brackish sites with some freshwater influence which are close to the limit of tolerance for sea urchins (e.g., Farrapeira 2011, Beiras et al. 2012).

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2.2. Distribution and abundance of *P. lividus* and *P. nobilis*

The abundance of sea urchins was estimated: (i) in seagrass (*C. nodosa*) meadows; (ii) pen shells (*P. nobilis*) dwelling in seagrass meadows and (iii) pen shells dwelling in unvegetated areas (sand), simultaneously with pen shell abundances in each habitat. At each site, randomly placed 50 x 50 cm quadrats (N=60) were used to assess abundances within the seagrass meadows (unattached to shells), whereas the number of pen shells and the number of sea urchins on pen shells was determined by using

randomly placed 10 m x 1 m transects across seagrass and sand habitats (N=10 for
each habitat). The diameter of the test (excluding spines) of all sea urchins found in the
quadrats or in the transects was measured to the nearest mm with Vernier plastic
callipers (Prado et al. 2009).

Abundance of food items

The biomass (g dry weight [DW] m⁻²) of the two main macrophytes, the seagrass C.

The biomass (g dry weight [DW] m⁻²) of the two main macrophytes, the seagrass *C. nodosa* and the green alga *C. prolifera*, as well as of the bryozoan *A. verticillata*, were estimated in August 2018.

For *C. nodosa*, five 30 x 30 cm quadrats were haphazardly placed at each study site, and all the shoots within the quadrat were collected using a sharp knife, placed into a plastic bag and transported to the laboratory for shoot counts. Fifty shoots were also collected haphazardly from each site and dry-weighed (60° C until constant weight) order to convert the number of shoots per m² into g DW m². For *C. prolifera*, biomass was estimated by direct sampling, collecting all blades within 5 haphazardly-placed 30 x 30 cm quadrats in each site. Each sample was dry-weighed in the laboratory. For *A. verticillata*, 5 x 5 m quadrats (N = 5) were haphazardly placed in both *C. nodosa* and sand habitats of each study site. The biomass within each quadrat was collected and transported to the laboratory where was determined as previously for dry weighting in plastic bags.

2.4. Food preference experiments

Three food choice experiments were conducted at different times (due to time and space restrictions) during August 2018, with sea urchins of different sizes: sub-adults

1 (1.5-2 cm), young adults (2-3 cm) and adults (> 3 cm). We use this modified 2 terminology from Grosjean et al. (1998), because in their study authors refer to sub-3 adult categories as already strict herbivorous, whereas smaller sizes considered as 4 juveniles (< 0.5-1 cm) still regularly ingest some animal material such as amphipods. All 5 individuals (N = 18 of each size) were collected by snorkelling on a subtidal rocky area 6 in the locality of Les Cases d'Alcanar (40°33'N, 0°31'E) located immediately outside the 7 Alfacs Bay, and where abundant individuals of the different sizes were readily 8 available, and transported to the laboratory in an aerated ice-box. Food items for the 9 experiment (C. nodosa, C. prolifera and A. verticillata) were not available at the site of 10 sea urchin collection and were gathered in the Alfacs Bay (site B) and transported to 11 the laboratory in aerated containers. For all experiments, environmental conditions 12 (salinity, temperature, pH, and oxygen) in the laboratory were kept as in the field, 13 since seawater within the facilities is pumped from the Alfacs Bay. The photoperiod 14 during the experiment was also maintained under natural light conditions. 15 For each food choice experiment (one per sea urchin size-class), individuals were 16 kept randomly in six different tanks (40 L) with aeration (N = 3) individuals per tank 17 and allowed adjustment to laboratory conditions for 24 h with no food prior to each 18 feeding trial. Individuals within each tank were separated by a mesh net and offered a 19 simultaneous combination of the seagrass C. nodosa, the green alga C. prolifera, and 20 the bryozoan A. verticillata. We randomly deployed 3 food bunches of a similar weight 21 (5 to 6 g) of each species attached to a picket. A fourth group of 3 food bunches, which 22 was separated from grazers by a mesh net, was used as a control to correct for 23 autogenic changes in the bryozoan over the 24 h period. All bryozoan bunches were 24 weighed before deployment (0.001 g accuracy). However, in the case of the seagrass

1 and alga, photographs and measures of each leaf (length and width) and frond 2 (maximum length and width) included in each ramet were taken to determine 3 consumption and avoid the larger methodological error associated to biomass loss over time and the need to use procedural controls, particularly in C. prolifera. Then, 4 5 conversion to initial biomass (g wet weight [WW]) was conducted through the mean 6 weight-area relationship in 1 cm² pieces (6 replicates for each species, 0.0150 ± 0.0008 7 g WW for C. nodosa and 0.0194 \pm 0.0016 g WW for C. prolifera). In C. nodosa, the bite 8 marks already present at the beginning of the experiment were removed by cutting 9 the leaf tips. In all cases, feeding trials were conducted over a 24 h period (usually, 10 12:00 to 12:00 h). 11 After this period, the remaining food items were removed from each tank, the 12 numbers of bite marks counted (seagrass and alga), and then blot-dried, and weighed 13 (bryozoan) or photographed (macrophytes) for estimating weight and area losses. In 14 the case of the bryozoan, control bunches were subjected to considerable weight loss 15 (ca. 10 % over 24 h), and weight corrections were applied to the results (not applicable 16 to macrophytes since conversions from area losses were based on initial WW). Losses 17 by consumption in C. nodosa and C. prolifera were calculated as area differences 18 between initial and final photographs using ImageJ v.1.52a. All results were expressed 19 as the biomass consumed per individual per day. 20 For all individuals, the consumption of food items over the 24 h period was verified by 21 sacrificing the animals and examination of gut contents.

Dietary analyses of sea urchins

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Stomach contents analyses. Sea urchin were collected in August 2018 from site B (30 individuals from pen shells in the mixed seagrass meadow and 30 individuals from pen shells in sand at 2-4 m distance) and used for the analysis of stomach contents. The test of each individual was severed around the Aristotle's lantern with the aid of scissors and the stomach content preserved within sterile 50 mL glass vials in absolute ethanol for later examination under the stereomicroscope. A pseudo-quantitative approach (modified from Jones 1968) was adopted for determining the relative abundance of C. nodosa (green and detrital leaves), C. prolifera, and A. verticillata. To this end, the surface of a Petri dish (90 mm diameter) was divided into 36 cells of 1 x 1 cm and we noted the number of times that each target item was present in each cell. Stable isotopes ($\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$) and nutrient content. Five individuals from each habitat (mixed seagrass beds and sandy areas) among those sacrificed for stomach contents analyses were used for stable isotope analyses. The tissue for isotopic analyses was obtained by carefully removing buccal muscles from the Aristotle's lantern (Prado et al. 2010). For food items, green (N = 5) and detrital leaves (N = 5) of C. nodosa were collected, as well as the bryozoan (N = 5) in site A whereas C. prolifera was not analyzed due to its absence from stomach contents and zero consumption during food preference assays. We decided to analyze seagrass samples combined with their epiphytes because the extent of the importance of epiphyte communities in the diet of P. lividus has already been investigated in previous studies (Tomas et al. 2006). Hence, we wanted to maximize the observation of differences between contributions of overall seagrass material coated with epiphytes (in green and decayed leaves) and that of A. verticillata.

1 All samples were dried separately at 60°C during 24 h and reduced to fine 2 homogeneous powder in a ceramic mortar. Inorganic, non-dietary carbon from 3 carbonate in encrusting epiphytic algae, bryozoans or other calcareous epiphytes on 4 seagrass leaves was removed by acid wash with HCl 1M until no bubbling was observed (Prado et al. 2010). Since this procedure may alter δ^{15} N values (Bunn et al. 5 6 1995), samples containing carbonate traces were divided into two aliquots, one acid 7 washed for δ^{13} C and the other one (untreated) for δ^{15} N. 8 Samples were analyzed with a Flash 1112 IRMS delta C series EA, Thermo Finningan 9 mass spectrometer connected to an elemental analyzer at the isotopic ratio mass 10 spectrometry facility in the Serveis Científico-Tècnics of the University of Barcelona 11 (Spain). Isotope ratios in samples were calculated from linear calibration curves 12 constructed with standard reference materials of known composition and a blank 13 correction. The difference in isotopic composition between the sample and reference 14 materials is determined by: 15 $\delta_{sample-standard} = [(R_{sample} - R_{standard}) / R_{standard}] \times 1000$ where R_{sample} is the $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ or $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$ in the sample; $R_{standard}$ is the $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ or 16 17 $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$ in the calibration material and δ sample-standard is the difference in isotopic 18 composition of the sample relative to that of the reference (Vienna Peedee Belemnite 19 and atmospheric nitrogen for carbon and nitrogen, respectively). 20 Isotope mixing models. The MixSiar Bayesian mixing model (Semmens et al. 2009) 21 was used to identify the long-term biomass contributions of food items to sea urchin 22 diet. The model was first outlined by Moore & Semmens (2008) and modified later to

improve the robustness of results. MixSiar v.1.0.4 uses stable isotope signatures with

their standard error (SE), and tissue-diet fractionation factors to estimate the

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probability distributions (5th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 95th percentiles) of each food item 1 2 contribution to a mixture and accounts for uncertainty associated with multiple 3 sources. The estimated median contribution (i.e., the 50 % percentile) represents the 4 median source contribution value for each source and is usually given for comparative 5 purposes. For $\delta^{15}N$ we fed the model with the 3.18 \pm 0.08 fractionation value indicated 6 for sea urchins feeding on seagrass habitat (Prado et al. 2012), whereas for δ^{13} C we 7 considered no fractionation (Michener & Schell 1994, Post 2002). 8 9 2.5. **Mobility experiment** 10 The movement of sea urchins dwelling on *P. nobilis* shells in seagrass and sandy 11 habitats was assessed in the presence and in the absence of the bryozoan A. 12 verticillata. To this end, locally available empty shells of P. nobilis were collected and 13 placed within the seagrass meadow and in sand habitats within site A. Each pen shell 14 was oriented in the same direction and separated from other replicates by ca. 3 m. 15 Half of the pen shells in each habitat were attached a considerable amount of A. 16 verticillata with a large cable tie (N = 5 per habitat and bryozoan treatment, except for 17 the seagrass habitat without A. verticillata in which N = 10), and two individuals of P. 18 lividus were carefully placed on each of them, considering always the same valve 19 according to shell orientation. 20 After 24 h, the number of individuals that were either on the same or opposite 21 valve, of the pen shell at a close distance (10-30 cm) or at a far distance (in a radius of 22 2 m), or not found, was recorded for each habitat and bryozoan (presence/absence) 23 treatment. Simultaneously, feeding activity and the food item being used were also

1 noted. Care was taken to avoid floating mats of *A. verticillata* around replicates

2 without bryozoan addition.

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2.6. Data analyses

5 Distribution and abundance of sea urchins. Patterns in the abundance of sea urchins 6 between seagrass and pen shells (fixed factor, two levels) and between sites (A and B, 7 random factor, two levels) were investigated with a 2-way factorial ANOVA. Similarly, 8 differences in the number of sea urchins on pen shells dwelling on seagrass and sandy 9 habitats (fixed factor, two levels) and between sites (random factor, two levels) were 10 also investigated with a 2-way factorial ANOVA. The association between pen shell and 11 sea urchin abundances was assessed with regression analysis. The effects of the 12 habitat where the pen shell was found (fixed factor, seagrass vs. sand) and site 13 (random factor) on size frequencies of sea urchins (1 cm size classes) were assessed 14 with a 2-way MANOVA. 15 Abundance of food items. Patterns in the biomass abundance of the main local food 16 resources of P. lividus (fixed factor with two levels, the seagrass C. nodosa and the 17 bryozoan A. verticillata) at the two study sites were investigated with a 2-way factorial 18 ANOVA. 19 Stomach contents analyses. Differences in the abundance of food items (C. nodosa, 20 C. prolifera, and A. verticillata) in stomach contents of individuals from seagrass and 21 sand habitats was investigated with a one-way repeated measures ANOVA, using food 22 item as the within-subject variable (see Martínez-Crego et al. 2015 for a similar 23 approach) and the habitat (sand vs. seagrass) as a between-subject variable.

1	Food preference experiments. For each sea urchin size class (i.e., sub-adults, young
2	adults, and adults), the Friedman ANOVA by ranks (Obremski & Conover 1981) and the
3	Kendall's concordance coefficient (Kendall 1957) were used to assess differences in
4	consumption rates among food items (C. nodosa, C. prolifera and A. verticillata), and
5	the degree of agreement among the rankings (see Prado & Heck 2011 for a similar
6	approach). Food items consistently showed evidences of grazing on at least one of the
7	3 offered species; therefore, all replicates were included in the analyses. For each size
8	class group, the entire set of observed consumption values (g WW) was ranked from
9	the smallest to the largest, and then, non-parametric post hoc comparisons (Wilcoxon
10	matched pairs test) were used to assess significant differences between diets.
11	Stable isotopes and nutrient contents. Differences in the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ composition
12	of sea urchins between habitats (seagrass vs. sand) and in the stable isotope signatures
13	and nutrient contents of food items used in food preference experiments were
14	investigated with a one-way ANOVA.
15	Mobility experiment. Patterns of movement in and out pen shells within seagrass
16	beds and sand habitats in the presence and in the absence of the bryozoan A.
17	$\mbox{\it verticillata}$ were investigated with a χ^2 goodness of fit test. Individuals were assigned
18	two categories of movement: within the pen shell and outside the pen shell, and
19	differences between observed and expected frequencies used to built a chi-square
20	statistic for testing the overall significance of the patterns. Given the low power
21	available for this type of analysis, patterns of movement were tested separately for
22	habitat and bryozoan availability factors.
23	For all parametric analyses, homogeneity of variances and normality assumptions
24	were tested by Cochran's test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov distribution-fitting test of the

- 1 residuals, respectively and transformed when necessary to meet ANOVA assumptions.
- The critical level of significance was fixed at p=0.05. Student-Newman-Keuls (SNK)
- 3 post hoc comparisons were used when necessary to identify significant differences in
- 4 the interaction between habitats and zones. All ANOVA analyses were conducted using
- 5 the Statistica v12.0 software.

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3. RESULTS

3.1. Distribution and abundance of *P. lividus* and *P. nobilis*

- 9 There were not significant differences in the number of pen shells between habitats 10 (seagrass vs. sand), sites, and their interaction (Table. 1a). However, the number of 11 pen shells in site A (5.6 \pm 1.4 and 4 \pm 1.4 individuals per 10 m²; in seagrass and sand, 12 respectively) tended to be higher than in site B (5.4 \pm 0.6 and 1.2 \pm 0.6 individuals per 13 10 m²), also respectively in seagrass and sand). Sea urchins were clumped on pen 14 shells and were seldom on the seagrass meadow. Consequently, densities were much 15 higher on pen shells than in the seagrass beds (0.47 \pm 0.09 and 0.1 \pm 0.1 individuals per 16 m², respectively), with no effects of site (Table 1b; Fig. 2a). A significant and positive 17 association between the abundances of sea urchins and pen shells was therefore 18 detected ($r^2 = 0.602$, p < 0.001, N = 40).
 - The number of sea urchins per pen shell was between 4 and 6, with no influence of the habitat (sand or seagrass) where the pen shells occurred (Table. 1c, Fig. 2b).
- The analysis of size distribution of sea urchins on pen shells showed no significant differences among habitats or sites (Table. 1d, Fig. 2c). The dominant size class was, consistently, that of large individuals of 5 to 6 cm test diameter or larger (6 to 7 cm), with no urchins smaller than 4 cm.

3.2. **Abundance of food items**

2 The green alga Caulerpa prolifera was only found at site B, with an average biomass 3 of 54.44 ± 10.79 g DW m⁻², and always mixed with Cymodocea nodosa. In contrast, the 4 bryozoan Amathia verticillata was ubiquitous and the biomass did not differ by 5 habitats, sites, or their interaction (Table 2a). The average biomass of seagrass was 6 much higher than that of A. verticillata (255.62 \pm 28.71 and 3.86 \pm 1.21 g DW m⁻², 7 respectively), particularly at site B (i.e., significant Site and Food item x Site effects) 8 (Table. 2b, Fig. 3). 9 10 3.3. **Food preference experiments** 11 The preferred food for *P. lividus* was the bryozoan *A. verticillata*, as indicated by 12 Friedman's tests for all sea urchin size classes including subadult, young adult and 13 adult individuals (Table. 3, Fig. 4). There was no detectable consumption of the green 14 alga C. prolifera, and seagrass was barely consumed. Although the same pattern was 15 observed for the three size classes, the amount of bryozoan consumed increased 16 proportionally to the size of the sea urchin (Table. 3, Fig. 4). 18 Dietary analyses of sea urchins 3.4.

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Stomach contents analyses. The stomach contents of sea urchins from pen shells in seagrass habitats did not differ significantly from those inhabiting pen shells in sand, as indicated by one-way repeated measures ANOVA (Table. 4). The abundance of A. verticillata (43.9 ± 1.00 %) in stomach contents was significantly higher than that of green (29.41 ± 0.97 %) and decayed seagrass (26.59 ± 0.81). There was also significant

1 Diet x Habitat interaction, apparently due to slightly higher contribution of A. 2 verticillata to sea urchin diet in sand habitats (Table. 4). 3 Stable isotopes ($\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{15}N$) and nutrient content. There were no significant differences in the stable isotopes signatures (δ^{13} C: -13.02 ± 0.12 and δ^{15} N: 12.72 ± 0.10) 4 5 and nutrient content (% C: 38.35 ± 0.36 and % N: 12.61 ± 0.17) between sea urchins in 6 pen shells from seagrass and sandy habitats (two-tailed t test, p > 0.05). In contrast, there were significant differences in all stable isotopes signatures and 7 8 nutrient content among the three potential food items (Table. 5a,d, Fig. 5a). The δ^{13} C 9 signature was highest in green seagrass (-10.41 ± 0.33) followed by decayed seagrass (-10 12.88 \pm 0.31) and lowest in A. verticillata (-15.12 \pm 0.09). The $\delta^{15}N$ signature showed 11 highest values in decayed (10.27 ± 0.28) and green seagrass (9.26 ± 0.36), and lowest in 12 A. verticillata (7.89 ± 0.04). For elemental content, C was highest in green seagrass 13 $(28.41 \pm 0.33 \%)$ and lower in decayed seagrass and A. verticillata $(15.63 \pm 0.31 \text{ and } 13.25 \text{ m})$ 14 ± 0.09 %, respectively), whereas N was much higher in A. verticillata and green seagrass 15 $(2.72 \pm 0.07 \text{ and } 2.57 \pm 0.04 \%$, respectively) than in decayed seagrass $(1.71 \pm 0.09 \%)$. 16 Isotope mixing models. Given that no significant differences were observed in 17 isotopic signatures of sea urchins from seagrass and sandy habitats, all data were pooled 18 for use in the MixSiar Bayesan mixing model. Results for the 50% percentile using a 19 tissue-diet fractionation factor of 3.18 \pm 0.08 for $\delta^{15}N$ (Prado et al. 2012), and no 20 fractionation for δ^{13} C (Michener & Schell 1994, Post 2002) showed that the main local 21 component of the sea urchin diet was decayed seagrass (65 %), followed by the

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bryozoan A. verticillata (21.7 %) and to a lesser extent green seagrass (13.3 %) (Fig. 5b).

3.5. Mobility experiment

The presence of *A. verticillata*, as indicated by a χ^2 goodness of fit test had a significant influence on the mobility patterns of sea urchins (χ^2 = 4.54, df = 1, p < 0.05) with higher numbers of individuals found outside the pen shells when the bryozoan was absent (Fig. 6). In contrast, the effect of type of habitat on the mobility is uncertain because two individuals from pen shells on exposed sandy habitats disappeared after 24 h (χ^2 = 1.98, df = 1, p > 0.05). Yet, in the likely case that they were lost to predators differences between habitats would have been significant (χ^2 = 2.89, df = 1, p < 0.05).

DISCUSSION

The sea urchin *Paracentrotus lividus* is not only a keystone seagrass herbivore but also a facultative omnivore (Prado et al. 2007, 2010, Wangensteen et al. 2011).

Although animal epiphytes can be an important component of the sea urchin diet (Prado et al. 2010), to our knowledge, this is the first time the species has been shown to ingest such large quantities of animal material (22 to 44 % of the bryozoan *Amathia verticillata*, according to stable isotope and stomach contents analyses, respectively).

Moreover, experimental results demonstrated a strong preference for this food item across size classes (sub-adults, young adults and adults), under the same environmental parameters than in the field. In the Mediterranean, the bryozoan *A. verticillata* is considered a pseudo-indigenous species, mostly associated to manmodified environments such as harbors and marinas (Ferrario et al. 2014) and its contribution to the diet of *P. lividus* might have passed unnoticed due to the infrequent occurrence of the two species in the same habitat. In some natural ecosystems, however, such as seagrass beds of the Alfacs and Fangar Bays in the Ebro

1 Delta, A. verticillata has been present for decades (see Zabala 1986, Camps & Prado 2 2018), and seems to constitute an alternative food item for sea urchins during summer 3 period. In other ecologically similar species such as the variegated sea urchin, 4 Lytechinus variegatus, which is also reported as a major grazer in seagrass ecosystems 5 of the Central American region (Rose et al. 1999), predation on a variety of benthic 6 animals including mussels, crustaceans and epibionts is also common (McClintock et al. 7 1982, Hammer et al. 2006, Watts et al. 2001, 2007). Besides, mixed formulated diets 8 have been shown to boost growth compared to diets based only on vegetal material 9 (Taylor et al. 2009, Prado et al. 2012). Despite the preference for the bryozoan, and its 10 prevalence in stomach content during summer months, its long-term (ca. yearly, as 11 indicated by isotopic analysis) contribution to sea urchin diet showed to be moderate 12 (ca. 22 %), probably due to its patchy distribution in drifting mats and its seasonal 13 (mostly summer) occurrence. According to isotopic analysis, detrital seagrass leaves 14 appear to be the main diet source for sea urchins (ca. 65 %), particularly for C (δ^{13} C of 15 sea urchins and detrital material, -13.02 and -12.88, respectively), although this can be 16 potentially explained by the preference of P. lividus for brown and epiphytised leaf 17 tips. In effect, Ott (1981) defined P. lividus as a "pseudograzer" due to the large 18 consumption of epiphytized brown tips which can be considered as a sort of standing 19 debris. Further evidence comes from Ott & Maurer (1977) who showed enhanced 20 consumption of decayed seagrass leaves compared to green leaves of Posidonia 21 oceanica during food preference experiments, although they do not report whether 22 the study was conducted in the presence or absence of epiphytes. However, the 23 observations of a feeding behavior targeting leaf tips (brown and heavily epiphytized) 24 are ubiquitous (Shepherd 1987, Cebrián et al. 1996, Pinna et al. 2009, Prado et al.

1	2011). In our study sites, detrital leaves are readily available to sea urchins dwelling on
2	pen shells as detached debris, but results could be also partly due to the preference
3	for leaf tips mentioned above. While the latter is a reasonable assumption for sea
4	urchins found in pen shells within seagrass meadows, the former is, apparently, the
5	only mechanism accounting for the observations (isotopic signals and stomach
6	contents) in pen shells standing in bare sand. Similarly, the 13 % contribution of green
7	seagrass leaves to sea urchin diet is possibly the resulting of recently detached
8	material (storms, intense boating activity) from adjacent beds located only 2-4 m away
9	from sandy areas. Yet, the species has been indicated to account for a 17 % removal of
10	the leaf production of <i>P. oceanica</i> (Prado et al. 2007) and other authors such as
11	Nedelec & Verlaque (1984) have found that green fragments of seagrass leaves were
12	dominant over decayed leaves within stomach contents. In contrast, the avoidance of
13	Caulerpa prolifera during food-choice experiments and its absence from stomach
14	contents despite large local availability confirms the undergoing of chemical
15	deterrence (see also Boudouresque & Verlaque 2001, 2013). Overall, this variability of
16	results supports the trophic plasticity of <i>P. lividus</i> (Mazella et al. 1992, Prado et al.
17	2010) and a certain opportunistic feeding strategy, in which the type of available
18	drifting material seems to play a determinant role.
19	The availability of food items, palatability, and mechanisms for herbivore choice
20	have been shown to have a major role in the foraging ecology of seagrass consumers
21	(e.g. Prado et al. 2010, Prado & Heck 2011, Marco-Méndez et al. 2012, 2015). The
22	nitrogen content of A. verticillata (2.7 \pm 0.07 %) was similar to that of green leaves
23	(2.6%), but in terms of nutritional value, the bryozoan showed ca. two times lower C: N
24	ratios than seagrass resources, suggesting a more favorable assimilation of dietary

1 elements. In fact, the lower C: N ratio of epiphytes is regarded as a central factor 2 mediating plant consumption, rich in refractory materials (i.e., structural 3 carbohydrates) and have low assimilation (Tomas et al. 2005a, Marco-Mendez et al. 4 2012). Hence, epiphytes may contribute to up to ca. 50 % of the diet of P. lividus, and 5 to up to ca. 90% of the dietary N (Tomas et al. 2006). A similar mechanism has been 6 indicated for determining the preference of C. nodosa over P. oceanica (higher C:N 7 ratios) in P. lividus (Marco-Mendez et al. 2015). A plausible explanation could be that 8 the animal component of seagrass leaves may constitute an enhanced source of N, 9 often a limiting element for grazers which increases palatability, as evidenced by 10 enhanced consumption of epiphytes and plant material during nutrient-enrichment 11 experiments (Lapointe et al. 2004, Heck et al. 2000, 2006, Prado et al. 2010). 12 According to our mobility experiment and patterns of sea urchin distribution in the 13 field P. lividus has a great pen shell fidelity, which can indirectly affect its foraging 14 behavior. Most of the sea urchins (88 % of individuals) remained in the same pen shell 15 after 24h. Although a low N value was used and further study is needed to confirm 16 observed patterns, sea urchins appeared to be less prone to move away from their site 17 and seek for food when A. verticillata was available. For connectivity patterns, the 18 results of the experiment are inconclusive due to the disappearance of two individuals 19 from pen shells in the sandy habitat but the total absence of individuals in this habitat 20 (Zavodnik 1980, this study) suggest they could have been lost to predation (e.g., large 21 sea breams; see Sala & Zabala 1996, Farina et al. 2014) since pen shells were ca. 4 m 22 away from the seagrass bed. Also, relatively reduced foraging trips (only 3 individuals) 23 were observed moving into the seagrass bed in the absence of A. verticillata. Recent 24 research in the same study area has suggested that sea urchins can create barren sand

flats or seagrass "halos" (ca. 40-60 cm) around the pen shells where they dwell
(Sanmartí et al. unpubl), which further support the long-term persistence of individuals
within the same exact site. Individuals located on sandy areas or in seagrass halos have
granted a large supply of detached plant material from the adjacent beds (2-4 m
distance) as well as drifting mats of A. verticillata during the summer period. In a
similar but more extreme instance, shallow individuals of P. lividus living under very
exposed conditions may resist dislodgement by waves by burrowing cup-shaped
cavities in the rocky substrate where they may remain for a long period of time or
even permanently and such behavior completely determines their feeding on arriving
algal propagules (Boudouresque & Verlaque 2001). In contrast, significant mobility
may occur in connected seascapes when densities of individuals are high and food
resources become scarce in the original habitat. For instance, Boada et al. (2018)
suggested that migration of individuals from rocky macroalgal substrates into adjacent
seagrass beds was responsible for the abundance and demographic structure of
populations across sublittoral habitat mosaics. Since post-settlement mortality can be
a considerable bottleneck in seagrass habitats (Prado et al. 2009), this process can
explain the presence of similar adult densities across connected seascapes (Boada et
al. 2018) and account for the large proportion of the plant primary production
reported to be consumed by sea urchins (ca. 17 %; Prado et al. 2007).
The preferred qualities of hard substrate habitats may be related to enhanced
recruitment success (Tomas et al. 2004) due to facilitation of anchorage and/or
locomotion (Boudouresque & Verlaque 2001) and to greater structural complexity
favoring the survival of individuals (Farina et al. 2014). In patchy seagrass beds of <i>C.</i>
nodosa, attributes of habitat complexity affecting refuge availability and modulating

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sea urchin predation such as shoot density and depth of the root-rhizome layer (Farina et al. 2009) are comparatively lower than in more robust P. oceanica meadows. Hence, pen shells appear to constitute the most similar and readily available alternative to the substrate provided by rocky habitats (Zavodnik 1980), and habitat preference may constrict foraging trips into less suitable environments more exposed to predators and/ or local hydrodynamics. For instance, the bottom predatory snail Hexaplex trunculus (Farina et al. 2014) is very abundant within local seagrass beds of C. nodosa and might significantly increase predatory risk within this habitat. Besides, the relatively rapid migration of subaqueous dunes over the seagrass beds (average speed of 13 m yr⁻¹) is a natural process (see Marbà & Duarte 1995, Marbà et al. 1994) that may negatively affect sea urchin mobility and from which pen shells can provide a long-term protection. To conclude, although the importance of *P. lividus* as a keystone herbivore in shallow seagrass ecosystems is irrefutable (e.g. Tomas et al. 2005b, Prado et al. 2007, 2008), the results of this study document the great trophic plasticity and opportunistic feeding behavior of the species. This shift to a strongly preferred animal species such as A. verticillata differs from the traditional herbivorous role of this sea urchin. Individuals appear to be largely constricted in mobility within pen shell habitats, and to feed on drifting A. verticillata during the summer period, and on detached seagrass material when the bryozoan is not available. Foraging trips of P. lividus are also reduced when it dwells in pen shells within sandy areas where sea urchins are not usually found. Overall, our study shows that the feeding plasticity of *P. lividus* is strongly related to both nutritional factors and connectivity features of the habitat which determine its trophic role. Given that A. verticillata is often regarded as

1 unwanted fouling organism (Marchini et al. 2015), our findings might also have an 2 application in pest control. 3 4 **Acknowledgements:** Authors are grateful to professor Kenneth Heck for his 5 extensive review that greatly improved the manuscript. Also, we thank Dr. Jordi 6 Sorribas, the UTM-CSIC technician Xavier Rayo and the Dr. David Amblàs for help on 7 creation Ebro Delta map with QGis. We thank Pep Cabanes and Josep Maria Costas for 8 technical assistance during fieldwork and David Mateu for this help with sample 9 processing in the laboratory. We are also grateful to Neus Sanmartí for help during 10 stable isotope processing and to Joan Camps for help during food preference 11 experiments. 12

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Table 1. Two-way ANOVA for: a) density of *P. nobilis* (habitats: seagrass and sand); b)

density of sea urchins (substrates: seagrass and pen shells); and c) density of sea urchins

on pen shells (habitats: seagrass and sand). Densities of sea urchins in seagrass and pen

shells were square root transformed to meet ANOVA assumptions. d) Two-way

MANOVA for sea urchin size classes observed on pen shells across habitats (*C. nodosa*and sand) at the two study sites. PN= pen shells, CN= *C. nodosa*. Statistically significant

results are indicated in **bold**.

ANOVAs				
a) P. nobilis abundances	df	MS	F	р
Habitat= H	1	8.07	0.22	0.64
Site= Si	1	0.004	0.0001	0.99
H x Si	1	8.86	0.24	0.62
Error	36	10.63		
b) Sea urchin abundance	df	MS	F	р
Habitat= H	1	2.77	7.23	0.009
Site= Si	1	0.17	0.44	0.50
H x Si	1	0.23	0.60	0.44
Error	76	0.38		
SNK	PN>	> CN		
c) Sea urchin abundance on pen shells	df	MS	F	p
Habitat= H	1	8.07	0.22	0.63
Site= Si	1	0.004	0.0001	0.99
H x Si	1	8.85	0.24	0.62
Error	36	36.21		
MANOVA				
d) Abundances of sea urchin size classes		Wilk's λ	F _{4, 33}	p
Habitat= H		0.978	0.179	0.947
Site= Si		0.861	1.326	0.280
H x Si		0.884	1.074	0.384

- 1 **Table 2.** Two-way ANOVA results testing for: a) differences in the biomass of the
- 2 bryozoan A. verticillata between habitats and sites; and b) differences in the biomass of
- 3 the two major food items (A. verticillata and C. nodosa) at the two study sites.
- 4 Abundances of bryozoan (AV) and *C. nodosa* (CN) were square root transformed to meet
- 5 ANOVA assumptions. Statistically significant results are indicated in **bold.**

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7	ANOVAs				
	a) Biomass A. verticillata	df	MS	\overline{F}	р
8	Habitat= H	1	112.68	7.35	0.22
	Site= Si	1	640.89	0.08	0.000
	H x Si	1	15.33	0.53	0.47
	Error	15	28.81		
	b) Biomass of food items	df	MS	F	р
	Food item= F	1	50.10	447.28	0.000
	Site= Si	1	0.59	5.28	0.029
	F x Si	1	0.81	7.22	0.012
	Error	27	0.11		
	SNK (F)	CN>	AV		
	SNK (Si)	Site 1	B> Site A		
	SNK (R x Si)	CN-S	Site B> CN-Si	ite A> AV-Site	A= AV-Site B

1 Table 3. Friedman's ANOVA X^2 and Kendall's coefficient of concordance (W) for ranked

2 consumption rates on offered food items including leaves of *C. nodosa* (CN), the

3 bryozoan A. verticillata (AV) and the green alga C. prolifera (CP). In Wilcoxon matched

4 pairs (WMP) post hoc comparisons, significant differences in consumption rates

between pairs of diet items are indicated in **bold**.

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Consumer	Friedman's ANOVA χ ²	Kendall'sW	p
(n=19, df=2)			
Subadults	25.72	0.714	0.000
WMP post hoc:	AV > CN = CP		
Young adults	27.25	0.75	0.000
WMP post hoc	AV > CN = CP	0.73	0.000
-			
Adults	28.00	0.77	0.000
WMP post hoc:	AV> CN= CP		

- 1 **Table 4.** One-way repeated measures ANOVA results for differences in the composition
- of food items within stomach contents (Diet within subjects' factor: A. verticillata (AV),
- 3 green C. nodosa (G-CN) and decayed C. nodosa (D-CN)) between sea urchins from pen
- 4 shells located in *C. nodosa* (CN) and sand (S) habitats. Statistically significant results are
- 5 indicated in **bold.**

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7	RM-ANOVA					
		df	MS	F	р	
8	Habitat= H	1	154.94	1.41	0.23	
	Error	58	109.83			
	Diet= Di	2	925.52	51.38	0.000	
	Di x H	2	3313.87	14.43	0.000	
	Error	116	18.01			
	SNK (Di)	AV > D-C	N= G-CN			
	SNK (Di x Ha)	AV(S)>A	V(CN) = G-CN(CN)	= D-CN(S) $=$ G-C	CN(S) = D-CN(S)	

- **Table 5.** One-way ANOVA for differences in isotopic signatures and nutrient content
- among food items (A. verticillata: AV, green C. nodosa: G-CN, and decayed C. nodosa: D-
- 3 CN): a) δ^{13} C; b) δ^{15} N; c) % C; and d) % N. Statistically significant results are indicated in

bold.

ANOVAs				
a) δ^{13} C	df	MS	F	p
Food item= F	2	27.682	24.73	0.000
Error	12	0.370		
SNK	AV	< D-CN<	G-CN	
b) δ^{15} N	df	MS	F	p
Food item= F	2	7.164	20.36	0.000
Error	12	0.352		
SNK	ΑV	< G-CN<	CD-CN	
c) %C	df	MS	F	p
Food item= F	2	332.07	24.60	0.000
Error	12	13.495		
SNK	AV	= D-CN<	G-CN	
d) %N	df	MS	F	p
Food item= F	2	1.489	60.03	0.000
Error	12	0.024		
SNK		CN< G-C		

1	Fig. 1. Map of the study zone (Alfacs bay, Ebro Delta), showing the sampling sites (A
2	and B).
3	
4	Fig. 2. Distribution and abundance of <i>P. lividus</i> . a) Number of sea urchins per 10 m ² found
5	directly on the seagrass C. nodosa (CN) and on P. nobilis (PN) substrates at the two study
6	sites. b) Abundance of sea urchins per 10 m² on <i>P. nobilis</i> (PN) dwelling in seagrass (CN)
7	or sand (S) habitats at the two study sites. c) Abundance of sea urchins (number per 10
8	m²) of the different size classes on <i>P. nobilis</i> (PN) dwelling in <i>C. nodosa</i> (CN) and sand (S)
9	habitats at the two study sites. Error bars are SE.
10	
11	Fig. 3. Biomass of potential food items for the sea <i>P. lividus</i> , i.e. the macrophytes <i>C.</i>
12	nodosa (CN) and C. prolifera (CP), and the bryozoan A. verticillata (AV) (g DW m ⁻²), in
13	both seagrass (CN) and sand (S) habitats at the two study sites (A and B). Error bars are
14	SE.
15	
16	Fig. 4. Biomass (g WW) consumed in 24h-lasting experiments of the three food items
17	offered to P. lividus (C. nodosa (CN), C. prolifera (CP) and the bryozoan A. verticillata
18	(AV)), categorized by sea urchins size classes (sub-adults, young adults and adults). Error
19	bars are SE.
20	
21	Fig. 5. Dietary analyses of <i>P. lividus</i> dwelling on pen shells from seagrass and sand
22	habitats (pooled data, since there were no significant differences; for further details see
23	text). a) Stable isotope signatures ($\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$) of $\it{P. lividus}$ (PL) tissue and of food
24	items including A. verticillata (AV), and green and detrital C. nodosa (G-CN and D-CN,

1 respectively). b) Results of the MixSiar Bayesian mixing model showing the contribution 2 of each considered food items (A. verticillata (AV), green and detrital C. nodosa, (G-CN 3 and D-CN, respectively)) to sea urchin diet. The boxes of boxplot indicate the median 4 and the interquartile range. Error bars are SE. 5 6 Fig. 6. Number of sea urchins observed on and outside P. nobilis (PN) 24 h after their 7 manipulative placement in treatments with and without the supply of A. verticillata 8 (AV). The habitat factor (seagrass vs. sand) was pooled due to limitations in the 9 necessary power for the analysis, for further details see the materials and methods

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section.

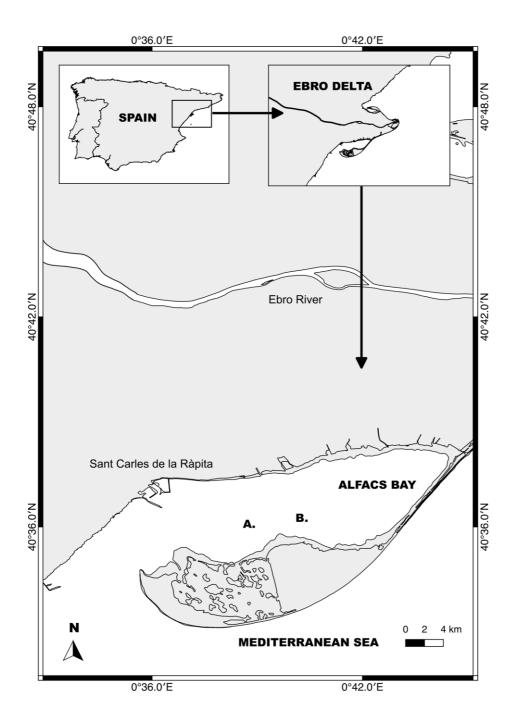
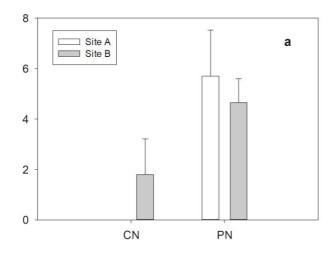
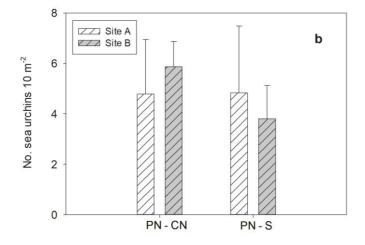


Fig. 1.





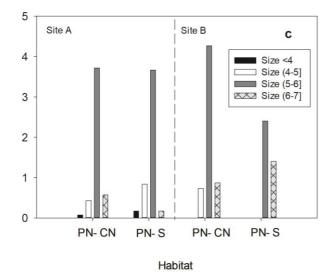


Fig. 2.

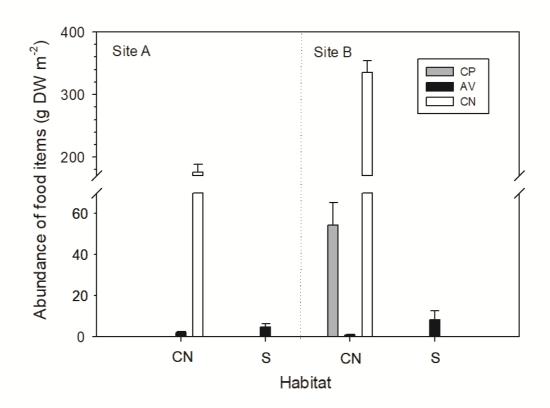


Fig. 3.

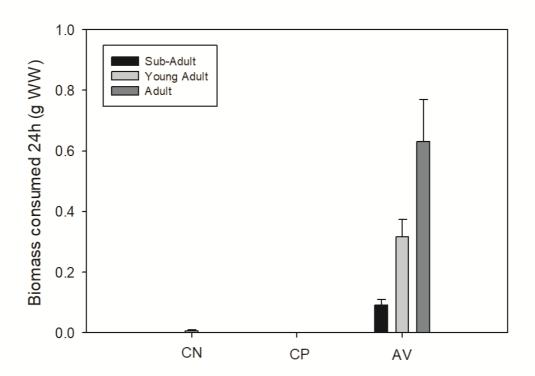
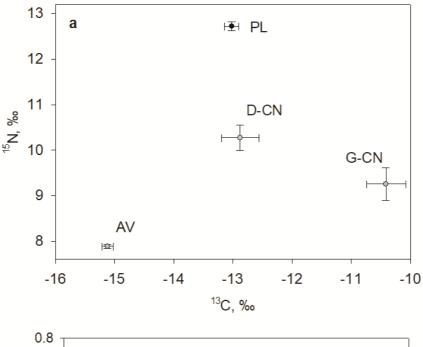


Fig. 4.



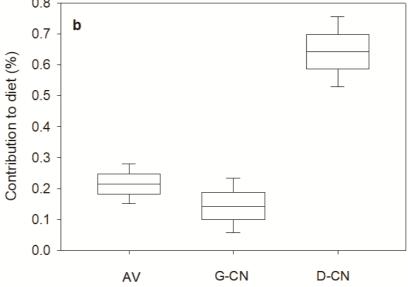


Fig. 5.

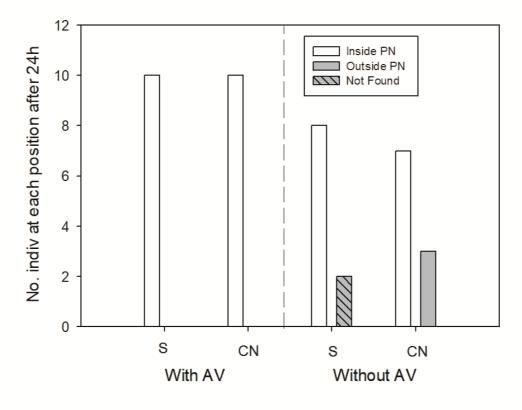


Fig. 6.