

Sources partitioning in the diet of the shipworm Bankia carinata (J.E. Gray, 1827): An experimental study based on stable isotopes

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19 Abstract

20 Adaptations that allow teredinids to maintain and thrive on wood, a nutritionally unbalanced food, make 21 these marine bivalves remarkable. Capable of filter-feeding, shipworms house endosymbiotic bacteria 22 synthesizing cellulolytic enzymes for digestion of wood carbohydrates and providing nitrogen to their 23 host through nitrogen fixation. To what extent each of these nutrition modes contributes to the 24 shipworm's metabolism remains an open question. In this experimental study, we estimated source 25 partitioning through the determination of δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values in original biological samples. For this 26 purpose, pieces of common alder (Alnus glutinosa) were immersed at a coastal station of the north-27 western Mediterranean Sea. The shipworm Bankia carinata infected wood logs and stable isotope 28 mixing models suggested it got most of the carbon and nitrogen it needs from separate sources. From 29 71 to 77% of the carbon was derived from the digestion of wood carbohydrates, whereas between 42 30 and 82% of the nitrogen originated from N₂ fixation. These first semi-quantitative estimations suggest 31 that the contribution of N_2 fixers to nitrogen requirements of this shipworm species is far from incidental. 32 33

- 34 **Keywords:** Teredinidae, Trophic ecology, Stable isotope, *in situ* experiment, Mediterranean Sea
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52 **1. Introduction**

53 Wood-boring teredinid bivalves occur on wood scattered at sea. In spite of being pests for all kinds of maritime wooden structures, these mollusks, commonly known as shipworms, are one of the 54 55 finest examples of adaptation within the tree of life (Cragg et al., 2015). The strategy that enables these 56 bivalves to digest wood and supplement a nutritionally imbalanced diet has been debated for over a 57 century. While it was shown some time ago that shipworms were able to digest carbohydrates from 58 wood (Dore and Miller, 1923; Miller and Boynton, 1926), the coverage of nitrogen requirements has 59 remained under discussion (Carpenter and Culliney, 1975; Greenfield, 1952; Lasker and Lane, 1953; 60 Nishimoto et al., 2009; Pechenik et al., 1979; Yamanaka et al., 2015) to explain how some species (Gallager et al., 1981) possess the ability to maintain and thrive in the absence of any other food source 61 62 than wood.

63 Rather than taking advantage of an association with its gut microflora which otherwise is scarce 64 (Betcher et al., 2012), shipworms produce endogenous lignocellulolytic enzymes (Sabbadin et al., 2018), but also rely on dense populations of intracellular bacterial symbionts hosted in the gland of 65 66 Deshayes, a cluster of bacteriocytes located within the gills (Popham and Dickson, 1973). The many types of bacteria housed in these eukaryotic cells can both digest wood carbohydrates and fix nitrogen 67 gas (Distel et al., 2002; Waterbury et al., 1983). It has been demonstrated that wood-degrading enzymes 68 69 produced by the endosymbionts were selectively translocated from the gills to the gut of the host 70 (O'Connor et al., 2014), and that dissolved nitrogen fixed by the intracellular bacterial symbionts within 71 the bacteriocytes could further be used for host metabolism (Lechene et al., 2007). All this makes 72 teredinids a unique model in animal endosymbiosis (Lechene et al., 2007) and may explain how 73 shipworms are able to use wood as a primary food source.

74 Marine wood-boring bivalves are indeed remarkable consumers in that the number of potential 75 feeding sources differs according to whether one considers their carbon or nitrogen requirement. With 76 regard to carbon sources, teredinids can rely on wood but also, as filter-feeding bivalves, on suspended 77 particulate organic matter from sea water. Regarding nitrogen sources, wood content is seemingly 78 inadequate to meet shipworms' requirements (Lasker and Lane, 1953; Carpenter and Culliney, 1975), 79 but nitrogen incorporation from this source cannot be excluded (Greenfield, 1952; Yamanaka et al., 80 2015). Suspended organic particles are also sources of nitrogen but may remain incidental (Gallager et 81 al., 1981) because the ability to filter feed in most shipworm species is reduced by the shortening of gill 82 lamellae (Turner, 1966, Distel et al., 2011). Nitrogen fixation by endosymbionts (Lechene et al., 2007) is one further source. Even though the routes of C and N are known and common among shipworm 83 84 species, the relative contribution of these routes to the shipworms' metabolism remains controversial 85 particularly with respect to nitrogen.

Stable isotope compositions of marine organic matter, terrestrial plants and N₂ dissolved in seawater are different (Peterson and Fry, 1987), and can therefore help in deciphering the composition of the shipworm's diet. To our knowledge, the few studies published on this topic were not conclusive about source partitioning (Nishimoto et al., 2009; Paalvast and van der Velde, 2013; Yamanaka et al., 2015). In this context, the aim of the present study was thus to investigate carbon and nitrogen source 91 partitioning by shipworms via an *in situ* experimental approach and through the use of stable isotopes 92 ($\delta^{13}C, \delta^{15}N$).

93 94

2. Material and methods

95 2.1 Experimental design

96 The experiment was performed from June 6 to October 24, 2016 in the Bay of Banyuls-sur-Mer, 97 in the north-western Mediterranean Sea, France. Twelve 15 cm long sections were sawn from, a branch 98 of a common alder tree, Alnus glutinosa (L.) Gaertner, a widespread tree species along the banks of La 99 Massane, a local river which drains a small forested basin on the foothills of the French Pyrenees 100 mountains. The bark-intact small logs were air-dried indoors for a full year before being arranged into 101 packs and deployed at a coastal station (26 m depth; 42°29'302 N; 03°08'700 E). Each pack consisted 102 of four 2.5 to 5.5 cm cross-section wooden pieces tied together with a Colson[™] collar. Two packs were 103 installed in June and an additional one on August 20. Wood packs were attached at one end to an 104 anchor and at the other end to a polyethylene buoy in such a way that the wood blocks remained 105 suspended between 1 and 1.5 m above the seabed (Fig. S1).

106

107 2.2 Sampling and preparation for stable isotope analyses

108 Potential food sources, namely alder wood within the experimental wood packs and suspended 109 particulate organic matter (SPOM) from the surrounding sea water, were sampled on several occasions 110 during the experiment. Alder wood was sampled on June 6, at the time of deployment of the first wood packs, and on October 24 after time intervals of nearly 2 and 4.5 months from submersion. SPOM was 111 112 sampled when installing the experiment, at two intermediate dates, July 7th and September 8th, and at the end of the experiment. Consumers, namely animals present either on (i.e. Mytilus galloprovincialis, 113 114 Hiatella arctica, Musculus subpictus, Serpula vermicularis, Spirobranchus triqueter, Ascidia conchilega) 115 or inside (Bankia carinata) the wood logs, were sampled once, on October 24.

Three water samples were collected for SPOM near the submerged wood with a Niskin bottle (10 L) and pre-filtered through a 200 µm mesh to remove large zooplankton and detritus. SPOM was then recovered by filtration on pre-combusted Whatman GF/F filters, 25 mm in diameter, 0.7 µm pore size. The filters were then placed in individual petri dishes and dried in an oven at 50°C overnight. Dry filters were kept away from light in a desiccator until analysis.

121 Invertebrate species present at the surface of the wood packs were collected manually. Wood 122 logs were then cut with a chisel for the collection of wood samples and shipworms. All the animals 123 present were kept alive for 24h in filtered sea water to allow evacuation of the gut contents and, if 124 necessary, were then dissected to separate flesh from the shells. Wood chips and animal tissues were 125 rinsed with deionised water and stored in aluminium foil at -20°C until analysis. Freeze-dried tissues and 126 wood samples were ground into a fine powder using a ball mill (MM 400, Retsch) and a sander (R3000, 127 Dremel), respectively. These samples were then weighed into tin capsules (ca. 0.3 to 0.4 mg for all 128 sample tissue and wood carbon analysis, and ca. 4 to 5 mg for wood nitrogen analysis).

129 SPOM samples may contain carbonates that are more enriched in ¹³C than plant and animal 130 tissues (DeNiro and Epstein, 1978). Accordingly, δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N were analysed separately. For measurements of δ^{13} C values, one half of each filter was acidified for 4 h with 37 % HCl acid vapours under moderate vacuum in a glass desiccator to remove carbonates (Malet et al., 2007). For measurements of δ^{15} N values, the remaining half of each filter was analysed without any pre-treatment, as acidification may alter nitrogen isotope composition (Bunn et al., 1995; Kennedy et al., 2005). The two sets of sub-samples (i.e. acidified half-filters and non-acidified half-filters) were packed separately into individual tin capsules.

137

138 2.3 Stable isotope ratio measurements

139 Carbon and nitrogen isotope composition was determined using an elemental analyser (Flash 140 EA 1112, Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy) coupled to a continuous-flow isotope-ratio mass spectrometer 141 (Delta V Advantage with a Conflo IV interface, Thermo Scientific, Bremen Germany). Analyses were 142 conducted at the LIENSs stable isotope facility at the University of La Rochelle, France. Data are 143 expressed in the δ notation (in ‰) as deviations from international standards (Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite for δ^{13} C and N₂ in air for δ^{15} N) following the formula: $\delta X = [(Rsample / Rreference) - 1] \times$ 144 10³, with R = ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ for carbon and ${}^{15}N/{}^{14}N$ for nitrogen. Calibration was done using reference materials 145 146 (USGS-24, IAEA-CH6, IAEA-600 for carbon; IAEA-N2, IAEA-NO-3, IAEA-600 for nitrogen). Analytical 147 precision was 0.15 ‰ for both C and N isotope analyses based on the analyses of acetanilide (Thermo 148 Scientific) and peptone (Sigma-Aldrich) used as internal laboratory standards.

149

150 2.4 Data analysis and statistical treatment

All statistics were performed using R, released by the R Foundation for Statistical Computing (R Core Team, 2013). First, from the R commander package (Fox and Vialat, 2017), non-parametric Mann-Whitney U tests were run for testing the hypothesis that the distribution of data was the same between groups. In this context, data accounted for either δ values or C/N ratio; groups for exposure intervals to seawater (2 vs 4.5 months), food sources (wood vs SPOM), or feeding modes (suspensionfeeding vs xylotrophy).

157 The Bayesian mixing model SIAR (Stable Isotope Analysis in R; Parnell et al., 2010) was used 158 to infer the feasible contributions of carbon and nitrogen sources to the diet of the shipworms. Models 159 were run for 200,000 iterations and the first 50,000 iterations were discarded. For SIAR calculations, A. 160 glutinosa wood and SPOM were considered as potential sources of carbon while A. glutinosa, SPOM 161 and dissolved N₂ were considered as potential sources of nitrogen. Isotope compositions of SPOM and 162 wood used as end-members into mixing models were averages of values measured all along the study 163 to account for potential temporal variations of their isotope compositions. Trophic fractionation factors 164 used in mixing models were 0.30 ± 0.21‰ for δ^{13} C values and 2.5 ± 0.25‰ for δ^{15} N values, 165 corresponding to values for invertebrate species (whole body) as reviewed by Caut et al. (2009). 166 Concerning the specific utilization of dissolved N₂ by the bivalves, we thus used the $\delta^{15}N$ of 0.6% given 167 by Sigman et al. (2009) for the marine dissolved N_2 and a fractionation of -1‰ as suggested by these 168 authors for the fixed N input to the ocean from N₂ fixation. No fractionation was expected between the 169 endosymbionts and their host (Conway et al., 1989).

170

171 3. Results

172 3.1 Stable isotope compositions

173 $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values of alder wood remained in narrow ranges around mean values of -2.2‰ 174 and -29.2‰ for N and C isotopes, respectively (Table 1, Figure 1). Ranges of SPOM isotope 175 compositions were slightly wider around mean time-integrated values of 3.4‰ and -23.8‰ for $\delta^{15}N$ and 176 $\delta^{13}C$ values, respectively. Alder wood was significantly more¹⁵N depleted and ¹³C depleted than SPOM 177 and contained two orders less nitrogen relative to its carbon content compared to SPOM (one-sided 178 Mann-Whitney U-test, *p* = 1 in all cases).

179 The number of animals present either on or inside the wood logs increased with exposure time 180 intervals. Only one species of shipworm (Table 2), namely, Bankia carinata (J.E. Gray 1827), was 181 observed. Most other taxonomic groups consisted of suspension-feeding species. As no significant 182 difference for both δ^{15} N and δ^{13} C values was observed between the two exposure intervals to seawater 183 (two-sided Mann-Whitney U test, p = 0.09, p = 0.10), *B. carinata* was considered a homogenous group. 184 The average δ^{15} N value of the shipworm bodies was close to 0‰ and their content was highly depleted in ¹³C with a mean δ¹³C value of -27.5‰. Shipworms were much more ¹⁵N and ¹³C depleted than known 185 186 strict seston feeders such as M. galloprovincialis, H. arctica, M. subpictus, S. vermicularis, S. triqueter or A. conchilega (one-sided Mann-Whitney U-tests, p = 1 for all cases). Higher C/N ratios were observed 187 in shipworms (one-sided Mann-Whitney U-tests, p = 1) due to higher carbon (39.9 ± 1.9% versus 34.9 188 189 \pm 3.3%) and lower nitrogen contents (5.2 \pm 1.6% versus 8.4 \pm 1.6%) than in other consumers. The 190 addition of trophic fractionation factors to alder wood isotope compositions demonstrates a slight shift 191 between expected and measured of δ^{13} C values in shipworms (Figure 1).

192

193 3.2 Stable isotope mixing models

Based on 95% Bayesian credible intervals, wood and SPOM proportions to shipworms carbon diet ranged from 71 to 77% (mode = 74%), and 23 to 29% (mode = 26%), respectively (Figure 2A). As a result, alder wood contributed to most of the carbon assimilated by the shipworms during the experiment as compared to local SPOM. Among the three nitrogen sources (Figure 2B), the Bayesian mixing model suggested a major contribution from N₂ fixation (ranging from 42 to 82%, mode = 54%) and from *A. glutinosa* (from 9% to 51%, mode = 37%), much higher than contribution of SPOM (7 to 13%, mode = 9%).

201

202 4. Discussion

Bankia carinata resorted to all the pathways of carbon and nitrogen acquisition described in shipworms. The approach permitted us to determine estimates of nitrogen source contribution, even though the number of sources was too large to get a unique solution from standard linear mixing models. As expected, the conversion of isotope compositions into contributions to the shipworm diet confirmed that wood was the main source of carbon, but it primarily revealed the significant contribution of nitrogen fixation pathways to the nitrogen content.

209

210 4.1 Source partitioning in the diet of *B. carinata*

211 Bankia carinata possesses a large caecum storing wood particles and all features associated 212 with xylotrophy in shipworms, including the presence of dense populations of endosymbiotic bacteria 213 within the large interlamellar space of the single demibranch gills (Distel et al., 2011). In European 214 waters, this shipworm has only been reported in the Mediterranean Sea (Turner, 1966) probably 215 because of a preference for hypersaline conditions (Borges et al., 2014). Bankia carinata is a broadcast 216 spawning species that releases fertilized eggs into the water for long periods of development, increasing 217 larval dispersion. Growth in the genus Bankia is generally fast and produces adults of large size 218 (Haderlie and Mellor, 1973; MacIntosh et al., 2014). This species is reported in the studied area together 219 with Lyrodus pedicellatus, Teredo navalis and Nototeredo norvagica (Charles et al., 2018). As 220 population dynamics patterns depend on reproductive modes, differences must be expected in food 221 source partitioning between shipworm species according to the level of exhaustion of the wood resource.

The measurement of isotope ratios on the whole body of the borers corresponded to the isotopic signature of the flesh of the shipworms including those of the bacteria from the digestive tract and the endosymbionts from the gills. The digestive tract, however, contains relatively few bacteria (Betcher et al, 2012) and endosymbiont bacteria represent a negligible amount of matter compared to the tissues of the shipworm. Thence, it is reasonable to assume that the measurements made on the shipworms were essentially the values of the isotopic ratios in the tissues of the host.

228 The differences of δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values between *B. carinata* and SPOM highlighted that, 229 despite being able to capture organic particles from water, B. carinata food resources drastically differ 230 from those of strict filter feeders living in the same trophic conditions (Figure 1). Accordingly, from these 231 results, most of the carbon in shipworms is clearly derived from the consumption of alder wood (Figure 232 2a). The carbon isotope mixing model suggested that SPOM could seemingly represent 25% of 233 shipworm's diet. Structural tissues of wood mainly consist of carbohydrates and lignin but shipworms 234 only digest carbohydrates (Dore and Miller, 1923; Miller and Boynton, 1926; Sabbadin et al., 2018). 235 Carbohydrates are more enriched in ¹³C than lignin (Benner et al., 1987), and this gives whole wood a 236 δ^{13} C value which probably led to underestimate the contribution of wood source. This was further 237 suggested by the outputs of the mixing models based on $\delta^{15}N$ values. High carbon content in the 238 shipworms reflects the accumulation of large amounts of glycogen (Greenfield, 1952; Potts, 1923) which 239 serves as an energy store in bivalves (De Zwaan and Zandee, 1972) and has been shown to be 240 exclusively derived from digestion of wood carbohydrates in the shipworm Lyrodus pedicellatus (Lane 241 et al., 1952).

242 According to the SIAR mixing model, SPOM contributed about 10% in average of the nitrogen 243 of the shipworms. Out of the two other potential sources, the mixing model suggested that nitrogen 244 coming from endosymbiosis contributed to the nitrogen pool of the shipworm tissues at an equal or even 245 greater level than alder wood. From the C/N ratio, it appears that B. carinata had reduced nitrogen 246 requirements relative to other bivalves but a nitrogen content 20 times higher than that of alder wood. 247 Shipworms can rely on wood to acquire their nitrogen (Lasker and Lane, 1953; Yamanaka et al., 2015) 248 but also through the association with the N₂-fixing endosymbionts hosted in their gills (Lechene et al., 249 2007). Even though, by minimizing excretory losses, shipworms are extremely conservative with respect 250 to nitrogen (Gallager et al., 1981), wood source alone can barely cover all their nitrogen needs. Together

with recycling mechanisms, a polytrophic capacity is probably the best feeding strategy for balancing requirements in poor-nitrogen environments (Muscatine and Porter, 1977). Intracellular bacteria populations from the gland of Deshayes produce cellulolytic enzymes which presumably in combination with enzymes produced endogenously (Sabbadin et al., 2018) allow shipworms to digest efficiently large amounts of wood carbohydrates. Endosymbiotic bacteria probably fulfill their N₂ fixing function with an equal efficiency to the benefit of their host. Accordingly, the conversion of dissolved nitrogen gas into shipworm biomass is likely far from being incidental as suggested by the present study.

258

4.2 Carbon and nitrogen sources: scope of the study

260 The $\delta^{15}N$ value of marine dissolved N₂ was not measured but dissolved N₂ in equilibrium with 261 atmospheric N₂ in the surface ocean has a δ^{15} N value that does not vary greatly from 0.6‰ (Sigman et 262 al., 2009). Molecular nitrogen fixation commonly results in weak, slightly negative isotope fractionation 263 (Wada and Hattori, 1979) and no fractionation between endosymbionts and their host was expected (Conway et al., 1989). As a result, the $\delta^{15}N$ value of dissolved gas nitrogen and fractionation factor 264 265 implemented into the mixing model must be relatively close to the actual values. The slight ¹⁵N 266 enrichment of shipworm tissue relative to dinitrogen suggests that N_2 fixation through endosymbiotic interaction contributed significantly to the nitrogen content of the shipworm. The contribution of other 267 268 pathways of dinitrogen-fixing (i.g., ingestion of planktonic diazotrophs or wood particles from nitrogen-269 fixing tree species) would imply trophic enrichment factors and that would have led to the higher ¹⁵N 270 enrichment of the shipworm.

271 Regarding wood source, Alnus glutinosa is a common tree species on the banks of European 272 rivers. Alder wood, therefore, has good chance to end up at sea after events of river flooding. During 273 this study, the characteristics of wood which was initially introduced dry into the water changed very 274 little. δ^{13} C values and C/N ratios were representative of most terrestrial C₃ primary producers and in the 275 range of those found in the literature for tree wood (Nishimoto et al 2009; Paalvast and van der Velde 276 2013, Yamaka et al., 2015). δ^{15} N values of wood are more variable, showing particularly negative values 277 as previously reported at this site by Carlier et al. (2007) or for terrestrial plants (Fogel et al., 2008; 278 Zapata-Hernandez et al., 2016), including alder tree species (Chambers et al., 2004). Nitrogen 279 incorporation pathways differ among tree species. Alder, which grows on poor quality soils is, for 280 instance, able to supplement its needs through an association with nitrogen-fixing bacteria hosted in its 281 roots (Hooker and Wheeler, 1987). Alnus incana is known to derive almost all its nitrogen from the 282 atmosphere (Chambers et al., 2004). This assigned to the wood source a trophic position which probably 283 led us to overestimate its contribution to the nitrogen content of the shipworm, at the expense of the 284 other sources. It, therefore, should be kept in mind that the scope of this study concerns a nitrogen-285 fixing tree species.

286 δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values of SPOM were consistent with previous measurements at the studied site 287 (Carlier et al., 2007; Nahon et al., 2012) with ranges of temporal changes of nearly 2‰ for both elements. 288 Marine SPOM is a mixture of living and dead particles (Fry, 1988) of which the total amount and the 289 individual contribution changed according to the seasons and weather conditions. For instance, particles 290 collected in July, when the weather was calm, had δ values and C/N ratio representative of what is

reported for plankton (Peterson et al., 1986), while low δ^{13} C values and high C/N ratio measured in June 291 292 and October were characteristic at the studied site of surficial sediment resuspended after windy 293 weather conditions (Charles et al., 2012). On these occasions, debris of vascular plants could be 294 observed in the water samples and most photosynthetic pigments were degraded (data not shown). The 295 sampling approach allowed thus to produce average values of δ and C/N that best reflected the food 296 source for the shipworms and the co-occurring common filter-feeding species over the study period. It, 297 however, should be noted that sampled SPOM particles ranged from 0.7 to 200 µm, and there is considerable heterogeneity in natural abundances of ¹³C and ¹⁵N among the discrete size classes of 298 299 SPOM (Rau et al., 1990). δ^{13} C and δ^{15} N values of the smallest size fractions of SPOM can be as low as 300 -25.3‰ and -0.5‰, respectively (Rau et al., 1990). At the study site, the contribution of 301 picophytoplankton is maximal at periods of low total chlorophyll a biomass, that is to say in summer and 302 fall, with contribution reaching more than 60% in September (Charles et al 2005). This, according to the 303 findings of Rau et al. (1990), may to some extents explain the depletion in heavy isotopes measured in 304 the SPOM fraction during the sampling, and so the gap between the bulk SPOM value and strict-filter 305 feeding consumers which retain, sort and select particles differentially according to their size and 306 nutritional quality (Dubois and Colombo, 2014, Cresson et al., 2016). As a consequence, even though 307 this cannot dramatically change the general scheme of food source contributions, the comparison of 308 particle sorting efficiency needs to be investigated to further understand interspecific variations in trophic 309 niches among shipworm species (Cresson et al., 2016, Paalvast and van der Velde, 2013).

310

311 5. Conclusion

312 This study, involving alder wood, provides a first quantitative estimate of the contribution of food 313 sources to the diet of *B. carinata*. Most of the assimilated carbon originated from the wood and N₂ fixers 314 contributed significantly to nitrogen requirements of the shipworm. However, it must be stressed that in 315 a previous study conducted on Teredo navalis (Paalvast and van der Velde 2013), the overwhelming 316 amount of carbon and nitrogen was derived from SPOM rather than from the wood source. Availability 317 of food sources may change over time and space between studies, but stable isotope composition of 318 wood also varies according to tree species and each species of teredinids has its own traits of life. As a 319 consequence, the relative importance of the symbiotic association could then be better appreciated by 320 testing, on the one hand, several tree and shipworm species, and, on the other hand, by performing ¹³C 321 and ¹⁵N labelling experiments to quantitatively estimate the C and N pathways within the different 322 potential components of the shipworms diet.

323

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Tables and figures' captions

Table 1. Stable isotope compositions and C/N ratios of potential food sources; n, number of samples. SPOM: Suspended particulate organic matter, SD: Standard deviation.

Table 2. Stable isotope compositions and C/N ratios of consumers. Feeding modes are: Xylo, xylotrophy, SF, suspension-feeding; n, number of individuals; SD: Standard deviation.

Fig. 1. Carbon and nitrogen isotope compositions of potential food sources and consumers. The broken line indicates the $\delta^{15}N$ average value expected for products resulting from the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen. The ellipse indicates the range of theoretical expected $\delta^{15}N$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values for consumers of alder wood, considering trophic enrichments of 0.30‰ and 2.5‰ for δ^{13} C for δ^{15} N, respectively. Dotted lines account for trophic shift of carbon and nitrogen.

Fig. 2. Bayesian mixing model dietary analyses for carbon (A) and nitrogen (B). Boxplots with 50 (in dark gray), 75 (in medium gray) and 95% (in light gray) credible intervals representing the proportion of Alnus glutinosa: Wood, suspended particulate organic matter: SPOM, and dissolved nitrogen: N2 in the diet of the shipworm Bankia carinata.

Figure S1: Experimental setup. Image of the alder wood packs at the study site within the Bay of

- Banyuls-sur-Mer, Mediterranean Sea, France.

Table 1. Stable isotope compositions and C/N ratios of potential food sources; n, number of samples.

518 SPOM: Suspended particulate organic matter, SD: Standard deviation.

Sources	Date or exposure duration in months	n	δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	δ ¹³ C (‰)	C/N
SDOM	lune 0	2	24.04	245.04	65.00
	June 9	3	2.4 ± 0.1	-24.5 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.2
	July 11	4	4.8 ± 0.5	-22.6 ± 0.1	5.8 ± 0.6
	Sept 12	3	3.9 ± 0.5	-23.7 ± 0.1	6.2 ± 0.8
	Oct 24	4	2.6 ± 0.3	-24.3 ± 0.7	9.6 ± 2.7
	Time integrated		3.4 ± 1.1	-23.8 ± 0.8	7.0 ± 1.7
Alder	0	5	-2.8 ± 0.7	-28.8 ± 0.5	158 ± 9
	2	4	-2.7 ± 0.1	-29.8 ± 0.1	195 ± 11
	4.5	4	-1.3 ± 0.5	-29.8 ± 0.3	157 ± 11
	Time integrated		-2.2 ± 0.8	-29.3 ± 0.5	170 ± 22

Table 2. Stable isotope compositions and C/N ratios of consumers. Feeding modes are: Xylo,
xylotrophy, SF, suspension-feeding; n, number of individuals; SD: Standard deviation.

Class	Feeding	n	815NI (%_)	δ ¹³ C (‰)	C/N
species	type		0 11 (700)		
Bivalvia					
Bankia carinata	Xylo/SF	25	0.5 ± 0.4	-27.5 ± 0.6	8.3 ± 2.5
Mytilus galloprovincialis	SF	1	4.4 ± n.d.	-20.3	3.5 ± n.d.
Hiatella arctica	SF	2	4.0 ± 0.07	-20.1 ± 0.2	3.8 ± 0.2
Musculus subpictus	SF	1	4.1± n.d.	-20.8	4.0± n.d.
Polychaeta					
Serpula vermicularis	SF	4	4.9 ± 0.1	-20.1 ± 0.3	3.9 ± 0.1
Spirobranchus triqueter	SF	4	4.84±0.2	-19.8 ± 0.2	3.9 ± 0.1
Ascidiacea					
Ascidia conchilega	SF	1	4.6 ± n.d.	-21.3 ± n.d.	4.9 ± n.d.



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542 Fig. 2. Bayesian mixing model dietary analyses for carbon (A) and nitrogen (B). Boxplots with 50 (in dark gray), 75 (in medium gray) and 95% (in light gray) credible intervals representing the proportion of 543 544 Alnus glutinosa: Wood, suspended particulate organic matter: SPOM, and dissolved nitrogen: N2 in the 545 diet of the shipworm Bankia carinata.



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