

Leaf litter morphological traits, invertebrate body mass and phylogenetic affiliation explain the feeding and feces properties of saprophagous macroarthropods

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2 explain the feeding and feces properties of saprophagous macroarthropods.

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11 Abstract

12 Saprophagous macroarthropods are important actors in litter decomposition as they process large amounts of litter and transform it into fecal pellets that differ in chemical and physical 13 14 properties compared to ingested litter. When having a choice among several litter types, 15 saprophagous macroarthropods exhibit feeding preferences depending on their nutritional 16 requirements and body size. However, how these preferences affect feces properties is not 17 well known. We compared the feeding preferences, production of fecal pellets and their properties for six widespread saprophagous macroarthropods species feeding on a litter mix 18 19 of four common tree species from Mediterranean forests. The six animal species showed 20 different feeding preferences that were not correlated to litter nutritional quality. Instead, 21 we suggest that the use as microhabitat of the leaves of one litter species with tubular shape 22 by macroarthropods induced its higher consumption despite having the lowest nutritional 23 value. Larger species consumed less litter per unit of body mass and had a more diverse diet 24 composition. Furthermore, feces properties could not be linked to the diet composition. 25 However, fecal pellets always had higher nutritional and water holding capacity value compared to the leaf litter. The three woodlice species consistently produced feces with 26 27 higher tannin concentration, higher specific area, and lower water holding capacity than that 28 of the three millipede species. Our study calls for the consideration of other leaf litter 29 properties than the generally studied physical and chemical ones, as well as quantifying the

30 difference between millipede and woodlice faeces properties that may have functional

31 implication for nutrient cycling.

32 Keywords

feeding preferences, litter transformation, palatability, microhabitat, consumption rate,feces production

35 Highlights

- Six widespread saprophagous macroarthropod species differed in their feeding
 preferences.
- Litter morphology rather than nutritional quality determined feeding preferences.
- Larger animals had lower feeding and feces production rates and higher diet
 diversity.
- Feces properties were not predictable from the animal diet composition and differed
 among classes
- 43

44 1. Introduction

45 During the decomposition of dead organic matter, soil fauna feed on leaf litter and therefore interact with microbial communities involved in the enzymatic breakdown of organic 46 47 molecules [1–4]. Saprophagous macroarthropods (e.g. millipedes, woodlice or some insect 48 larvae) are important for litter decomposition where they are abundant as they can 49 consume up to 50% of the total annual litter input [5] and produce large amounts of fecal 50 pellets composed of poorly digested material due to their typically low assimilation rate [6]. 51 Litter conversion into fecal pellets is associated with a number of physical and chemical 52 transformations of organic matter that alters considerably its further decomposition 53 compared to the initial litter material [3,7]. Physical transformations include litter 54 fragmentation into smaller pieces (litter comminution) of 2 to 40 µm [8] that are assembled 55 in fecal pellets of different size, shape, and compactness depending on the invertebrate 56 species [3,4]. Chemical transformations following litter conversion into fecal pellets are the 57 result of digestion through the activity of the enzymes produced by the animal itself or by its 58 microbiota and ingested bacteria [9,10]. This may homogenize the initial differences in litter properties and reduce variability in microbial abundance and activity among the feces compared to the original intact leaf litter [7,11]. Despite these transformations feces properties are still dependent on the properties of ingested litter, a mechanism described as the "litter identity effect" [3,12,13]. This means that the net change in feces compared to litter properties depends strongly on the diet composition of the animal.

64 Saprophagous macroarthropods feed on a wide variety of resources, but in most studies, 65 they exhibit feeding preferences related to the chemical and physical characteristics of their 66 food [10]. They prefer leaf litter with high nutrient contents (e.g. low C:N and C:P ratio, high 67 calcium content), low contents in deterrent compounds like tannins, and low toughness 68 related to low lignin concentration [10,14,15]. The intensity of microbial colonization of the 69 leaves also increases leaf palatability [10,16,17]. The morphology of individual leaves, such 70 as curliness (height of a leaf deposited on a flat surface), 3-dimensionality (volume occupied 71 by a defined mass of leaves), or tubularity (the capacity of a leaf to roll into a tube), shapes 72 microhabitats, and influence soil arthropod communities that live in a "house made of food" 73 [18–22]. The use of a leaf as a microhabitat may promote its decomposition through either 74 direct consumption or stimulated microbial activity by the deposition of arthropods feces on 75 the leaf surface [23]. However, leaf litter morphology is not assessed in studies on 76 saprophagous macroarthropods feeding preferences, despite being relevant in explaining 77 litter decomposition rate [18,24].

78 Macroarthropod feeding (consumption rate, diet composition and diversity) is related to 79 body size. Metabolic rate (linked to consumption and feces production rate) is known to 80 decrease with body mass according to the metabolic scaling theory [25], with smaller 81 saprophagous individuals consuming more food per unit of body mass, both within and 82 across species [26-31]. Body size may also be linked to diet diversity, as was demonstrated 83 for phytophagous insects (Lepidotpera, Orthoptera) where large individuals with larger 84 mouthparts and higher digestive capacity are able to process a wider range of food [32]. 85 Secondly, phylogenetically distant taxa may exhibit anatomical and/or ecological niche differences that translate into different feeding specialization [33,34]. In the case of 86 87 millipedes and woodlice, their digestive tracts differ in terms of relative length and function 88 of the fore-, mid-, and hindgut, total length of the gut, type and form of the organs 89 dedicated to produce and secret enzyme into the gut, and possibly in terms of microbiota

90 [10,35,36]. Besides the distinction between millipede spheric and woodlice tile-shape feces
91 [4], these differences and how they influence feeding behavior and feces properties remain
92 poorly understood so far.

93 Feeding preferences, fecal pellets properties, animal size and phylogenetic affiliation are 94 therefore important to explain the role of saprophagous macroarthropods in organic matter 95 decomposition but were never studied together. Here, we experimentally assessed the 96 feeding behavior of six different macroarthropod species (three woodlice and three 97 millipedes) feeding on a mix of four litter species with contrasting chemical, physical, and 98 morphological characteristics, and describe changes in these characteristics upon 99 transformation into feces. We hypothesized that (H1) litter chemical and physical properties 100 are a major predictor for macroarthropod consumption with preferential consumption of 101 leaf litter with high nutrient concentrations and low tannin concentrations, and high water 102 holding capacity and low thickness. Regarding litter transformation, we expected that (H2) 103 feces properties are predictable from diet composition (plant identity effect). Additionally 104 we hypothesized that (H3) larger species will exhibit lower consumption rate but higher diet 105 diversity. Finally we expected that (H4) woodlice and millipede differences regarding their 106 digestive track structure and enzymes will result in different feces properties, notably in 107 millipede feces with lower specific area due to their spheric shape.

108 2. Material and methods

109 2.1. Leaf litter and animal collection

We selected six saprophagous macroarthropod species that often co-occur and are 110 111 widespread in Western Europe, including the woodlice (Crustacea: Isopoda: Oniscidea) 112 Armadillidum vulgare Latreille 1804 (Armadillidae), Armadillo officinalis Duaméril 1816 (Armadillidae), Porcellio laevis Latreille 1804 (Porcellionidae), and the millipedes (Myriapoda: 113 114 Diplopoda) Glomeris marginata Villiers 1978 (Glomeridae), Cylindroiulus caerulocinctus 115 Wood 1864 (Julidae), and Ommatoiulus sabulosus L. 1758 (Julidae). Individuals were collected by litter hand sorting in different Mediterranean forests surrounding the city of 116 117 Montpellier in Southern France (Table S1). Animals were kept in large plastic boxes with leaf litter and placed in climatic chambers (natural light fluctuations, constant temperature at 118 119 12°C). Leaf litter from four common Mediterranean tree species were selected: Acer 120 monspessulanum L. 1753 (Sapindaceae), Arbutus unedo L. 1753 (Ericaceae), Quercus ilex L. 121 1753 (Fagaceae), and Quercus pubescens Willd. 1796 (Fagaceae). These species are 122 widespread in the French Mediterranean basin, often found in mixed forests, and strongly 123 differ in their leaf chemical, physical, and morphological traits, leaf lifespan, and litterfall 124 phenology. Leaf litter was collected in different forests located nearby Montpellier (Table S1) 125 with suspended litter traps for A. monspessulanum and both Quercus species, and from the 126 ground for A. unedo, since for this species, field work was done a little bit after the peak of 127 leaf litter fall. For this last species, the freshly fallen leaves were however clearly 128 distinguishable on the forest floor and we selectively collected only these recently fallen 129 leaves. This and the dry weather between leaf litter fall and litter collection makes it 130 reasonable to assume that decomposition did not yet start. Litter material was dried at 30 °C 131 for 48 hours in a drying oven.

132 2.2. Leaf litter properties

133 2.2.1. Chemical properties

134 Five subsamples per litter species were ground to a uniform particle size of 1 mm (Cyclotec 135 Sample Mill, Tecator, Höganäs, Sweden). Total carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) concentrations 136 were measured with a flash CHN Elemental Analyzer (Flash EA1112 Series, ThermoFinnigan, 137 Milan, Italy). Phosphorus (P) concentration was measured colorimetrically after a 138 mineralization step (Fanin et al, 2011) with an autoanalyzer (SmartChem 200, Alliance 139 Instruments, Roma, Italy). Tannin concentrations were measured with the protein-140 precipitable phenolics microplate assay, a microplate protocol adapted from Hagerman and 141 Butler [37], following [38]. Calcium (Ca) concentration was measured using an atom absorption spectrometer (AAS, ICE 3000 series, ThermoScientific, China). 142

143 2.2.2. Physical properties

To measure litter water holding capacity (WHC), six individual leaves per species were rewatered by dumping them in deionized water during one minute before removing adhering water drops. We then were weighing leaves before and after drying (48 hours at 105 °C). Immediately after WHC measurement (before drying), leaf thickness was measured on 8 points per leaf avoiding leaf veins with a caliper to the nearest micrometer (Digimatic micrometer, Mitutoyo 0-25 mm). Specific Leaf Area (SLA) was measured on 20 leaves per

species as the ratio between leaf total surface area (A_{total}) after re-moistening and flattening
them in a scanner and their dry mass (after 48 hours at 105 °C).

152 2.2.3. Morphological properties

Litter curliness was measured on 20 leaves per litter species by measuring the height of a leaf when it is deposited on a flat surface [21]. On the same leaves, we developed a measure of litter tubularity by calculating the ratio of dry leaf projected surface area (A_{folded}) over its total surface area (A_{total}) after re-moistening the leaves and flattening it in a scanner. Tubularity was then calculated with the formula:

158
$$Tubularity = 1 - \frac{A_{folded}}{A_{total}}$$
 eq. 1

Tubularity is comprised between 0 and 1, with increasing values for highly folded leaves. Litter 3-dimensionality [22] was estimated by measuring the volume occupied in an Erlenmeyer flask with three different batches of leaves of known dry mass for each species. The size of glass flasks varied depending on the leaf size for accurate measurements and we used mean species SLA value to convert the mass of litter per unit of volume into surface of litter per unit of volume [22]. All litter characteristics of each litter species are summarized in Table 1.

166 2.3. Microcosms and experimental conditions

167 One day before the start of the experiment, we moistened one gram $(1.04 \pm 0.03 \text{ g})$ of each 168 litter type again by dumping it in deionized water during one minute before removing adhering water drops. Fifty individuals of each saprophagous macroarthropod species were 169 170 selected, taking care not to include gravid females and to have a representative sample of 171 species body size range. The individuals were kept in plastic boxes with a moistened tissue 172 for 24 hours to empty their guts. Litter of the four species were evenly mixed and placed with 10 randomly chosen animals per species in 115 x 85 x 43 mm transparent plastic boxes 173 174 with a lid, with five replicate boxes per animal species. An additional 15 boxes without fauna 175 were set up as controls. We used five climatic chambers (LMS, Sevenoaks, England) as the 176 unit of replication, with one box of each animal species treatment and three boxes without 177 animals in each climate chamber (i.e. nine boxes in each climate chamber). Every three days, 178 the positions of the boxes within each climatic chamber were randomized and 0.8 mL of 179 deionized water was added to all boxes to keep litter moisture visually constant without

resulting in water accumulation in the bottom of the boxes. The experiment lasted 15 days
with a day/night duration of 12/12 h and a temperature of 17/12 °C.

182 2.4. Saprophagous macroarthropod characteristics

183 2.4.1. Physiological traits and feeding properties

At the end of the experiment, fecal pellets and remaining litter of each species were sorted and placed in the oven at 30 °C for 48 h and then weighed to the nearest 0.01 mg. Animals were sorted out, their gut emptied by keeping them 24 hours in a plastic box lined with a moistened tissue, and weighed before being released. The final animal fresh mass was used for later calculations. To quantify animal consumption of each litter species we used the formula [39]:

190
$$C = \frac{M_0 - M_0 D - M_f}{\sqrt{1 - D}} with D = \frac{M'_0 - M'_f}{M'_0}$$
 eq.2

191 with M_0 the initial litter dry mass, M_f the final litter dry mass, D the contribution of 192 microbial-driven decomposition to each litter species mass loss, i.e. the mean proportion of 193 litter mass loss in the absence of saprophagous macroarthropods for each species, M'_0 and 194 M'_{f} the initial and final litter dry mass in control boxes, respectively. The calculated consumption C was then referred to the duration of the experiment (15 days) and to the 195 number of individuals (10) to obtain individual consumption rate (Ci, g ind⁻¹ dav⁻¹) and to the 196 final fresh mass of fauna to obtain mass-specific consumption rate (Cm, g $g_{\text{fresh weight}}^{-1}$ day⁻¹) 197 198 [5]. Consumption values were calculated for each litter species separately and summed up to 199 obtain total litter consumption by saprophagous macroarthropods. Individual (Fi) and mass-200 specific (Fm) fecal pellet production rates were calculated by dividing total feces mass by the 201 experiment duration and the number of macroarthropod individuals or their total fresh 202 weight, respectively. Assimilation rates (A) were estimated by calculating the difference between mass-specific consumption and feces production rate. To quantify animal diet 203 204 diversity, we calculated the Shannon diversity [40] of the saprophagous macroarthropod 205 mass-specific feeding rates of each litter species, with the following formula:

206
$$H_i = -\sum_{j=1}^{S} Cm_{i,j} \log Cm_{i,j}$$
 eq. 3

with H_j the diet diversity of animal species i, $Cm_{i,j}$ the mass-specific consumption rate of litter species j by animal species i. This index informs on the diversity of the litter species constituting the animals' diet.

210 2.4.2. Diet and feces characteristics

To estimate the quality of the available litter and diet (ingested litter), we calculated the community weighted mean [41] of litter trait using the following formula:

213
$$CWM(X)_m = \sum_{i=1}^4 p_i * trait_i$$
 eq. 4

Where p_i is the relative proportion of litter available in the mixture, or saprophagous 214 macroarthropod mass-specific consumption rate of litter species (g $g_{\text{fresh weight}}^{-1}$ day⁻¹) and 215 216 trait_i is the mean value of trait X for litter species *i*. Feces C, N, P, and tannin contents were 217 measured following the same protocol as for leaf litter. Feces WHC capacity was measured 218 by placing c. 2 mg of feces in an Eppendorf tube with 2 ml of deionised water for 1 hr, weighing it wet after gently removing excess water and reweighing after drying at 60°C for 219 48 hr [7]. Feces specific area (mm² mg⁻¹) can be linked to C and N cycling, water holding 220 221 capacity, and is influenced by litter species identity [7]. It was measured by calculating the projected surface area of 10 fecal pellets from photographs using a stereo-microscope and 222 223 reporting it to their total dry mass.

224 2.5. Statistical analysis

Differences in feeding properties (consumption, feces production, assimilation, diet 225 226 diversity) and feces characteristics between macroarthropod species and orders, and 227 differences between litter species physico-chemical and morphological properties were 228 tested using one-way ANOVA (using Im function from stats package [42]) followed by post-229 hoc Tukey test (HSD test function, package agricolae [43]) on the R software v.4.0.5 [42]. 230 Normality and homoscedasticity of variance were assessed visually and with Shapiro and Breusch-Pagan test (bptest function, Imtest package [44]), and data were log-transformed if 231 232 necessary. Differences in diet composition among species and orders were assessed 233 separately with two permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, [45]) with the 234 metaMDS function (vegan package [46]) on the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix of animal mass-specific consumption rate of the four litter species, after homogeneity of variance was 235 236 checked with the betadisper function [46]. Results were visualized with NMDS ordination.

237 The relationships between feeding properties and body mass were tested with linear-mixed 238 models with body mass as fixed effect and species identity as random factor since nesting 239 species within order led to models with higher AIC [47,48]. Differences between available 240 litter and diet quality, and available litter and feces quality were separately tested by one-241 way ANOVA. The relationships between diet and feces properties were tested by linear 242 regressions with the properties that were measurable on both material i.e. C:N, C:P, tannins 243 content and WHC. Further, we tested the effect of saprophagous macroarthropod mass-244 specific consumption and feces production rate, assimilation rate, and diet diversity on feces properties (C:N, C:P, tannins content and WHC). The best models were selected with the 245 dredge function (MuMIn package [49]) by keeping the best models within a Δ AIC of 2, or 246 247 rejecting all models if the null model was included [47]. To assess which litter properties 248 influenced animal feeding preferences, we constructed individual regression between each 249 litter species relative consumption and the different litter properties [50]. This approach was 250 used because the limited number of litter species and the high collinearity between litter 251 properties (Fig. S1A) made impossible to include all litter properties as independent 252 variables in the same model.

253

254 **3. Results**

255 3.1. Litter properties

256 Litter species differed strongly in their chemical, physical and morphological traits (Table 1). 257 A. monspessulanum had the lowest C:N and C:P and the highest WHC and SLA. It also 258 showed high curliness value and three-dimensionality but low tubularity. A. unedo was of 259 poor nutritional quality with the highest C:N ratio and tannins concentration and lowest 260 WHC, but had the highest tubularity value due to its cylindrical shape. Quercus ilex was N-261 rich but P-poor with low tannins concentration and was the thickest litter species. It was the 262 only species with simultaneously low values of curliness, tubularity, and 3-dimensionality. 263 Finally, Q. pubescens had the lowest tannin concentration, intermediate value of P, and physical traits, and similar morphological characteristics as A. monspessulanum. 264

265 3.2. Saprophagous macroarthropod feeding preferences

266 All saprophagous macroarthropod species fed on all litter species. Across all animal species 267 A. unedo litter was consumed the most, constituting on average 42 % of the diet, followed by A. monspessulanum (32 %), Q. ilex (9%), and Q. pubescens (7 %). However, the 268 269 PERMANOVA test identified different diet composition among species (F_{5.24}=3.69, pval 270 <0.001) and between the two classes ($F_{5,24}$ =2.99, pval=0.03; Fig. S2). In line with the overall 271 average, the two millipede species G. marginata and C. caerulocinctus showed the highest 272 consumption rates on A. unedo litter (Fig. 1). In contrast, the isopod P. laevis consumed A. 273 monspessulanum at the highest rate (though not significantly different from A. unedo and Q. 274 ilex), and isopods in general consumed A. monspessulanum litter at comparatively high rates 275 similar to A. unedo. The only species without significant feeding preferences was O. 276 sabulosus. Among the ten litter properties, only tannin concentration and tubularity 277 explained litter preferences by saprophagous macroarthropods (Table 3).

278

279 3.3. Saprophagous macroarthropod feeding properties

280 Consumption rates per unit fresh mass across all litter species were highest in A. vulgare 281 (Table 2, Fig. 2), intermediate in *P. laevis* and *C. caerulocinctus*, and lowest in *A. officinalis*, *G.* 282 marginata, and O. sabulosus. No differences between species were observed when 283 consumption rates were expressed per individual (Table 2, Fig. S3). The rate of feces 284 production (per capita and per unit animal fresh mass) mirrored largely that of consumption 285 with A. vulgare producing more than three times the amount of feces compared to A. 286 officinalis that had the lowest feces production rate (Table 2). The per capita consumption 287 and feces production rates did not appear to depend on total animal fresh body mass, while 288 both, consumption and feces production rates decreased with increasing total animal body 289 mass (Fig. 2, Table S2). Diet diversity (Shannon) did not differ between saprophagous 290 macroarthropod species but increased with total animal body mass. The assimilation rate did 291 not differ significantly among species and was not influenced by animal body mass, but there 292 was considerable variability within species.

293 3.4. Links between litter, diet, and feces traits

294 When all saprophagous macroarthropod species were pooled, diet properties differed 295 significantly from the available litter properties with lower C:N ratios and tannin 296 concentrations in the available litter (Fig. 3). When evaluated at the species level, only C. 297 caerulocinctus diet showed significant differences compared to the available litter with a higher C:P ratio and lower WHC in their diet. Across all species, feces showed lower C:N and 298 299 C:P ratios, lower tannin concentrations, and higher WHC compared to the initial litter, 300 except for tannin concentration of *A. vulgare* feces that did not differ from that of the litter. 301 There were no significant correlations between feces and diet traits (Fig. S4). Some feces 302 traits differed among saprophagous macroarthropod species (Fig. 3A, Table S3). Across all 303 macroarthropod species, the feces of G. marginata had the lowest C:N and C:P ratios and 304 the lowest tannin concentrations. On the opposite side of the gradient, A. officinalis feces 305 showed the highest C:N and C:P ratios and A. vulgare feces showed the highest tannin 306 concentrations. Cylindroiulus caerulocinctus produced feces with the highest WHC value 307 while A. officinalis produced low-WHC feces, and overall, feces from woodlice had lower 308 WHC than those from millipedes. Saprophagous macroarthropod feces differed in their specific area with the highest values measured in A. officinalis feces, and low values 309 measured for all three millipede species. The difference between the two classes were 310 311 significant (Table S3). Tannin concentrations of feces correlated positively with consumption 312 and feces production rate (Fig. S1B), but no other correlations among feeding properties 313 were observed.

314 **4. Discussion**

315 Our study shows for the first time how leaf litter properties affects feeding preferences and consequently feces characteristics among six widespread saprophagous macroarthropods of 316 317 to two distinct class, allowing to test the differences between phylogenetically distant taxa commonly considered functionally similar. If we confirm the existence of feeding 318 319 preferences among four contrasted litter type, we show that they can be species-specific, 320 and strongly influenced by litter morphology rather than its nutritional value. Additionally, 321 feeding behavior and diet composition could be linked to species identity, and interestingly to animal body mass, supporting the use of this trait as a pertinent proxy of saprophagous 322 323 macroarthropods role in litter transformation. We further confirmed the strong changes in physical and chemical properties of organic matter during gut passage as frequently 324 325 reported in the literature. However, we identify key feces properties that differ between 326 millipedes and woodlice, stressing the importance to question the traditional functional327 group used to classify soil organisms. *4.1. Feeding preferences explained by litter properties*

328 In our study, A. unedo was the most consumed litter species, which is surprising given its 329 high C:N ratio, tannin concentrations, and thickness, and low WHC and opposite to our first 330 hypothesis. These trait values are usually indicative of rather poor food quality, and hence 331 low preference by saprophagous macroarthropods. On the other hand, the tubular-shaped 332 leaves of A. unedo may have allowed favorable microclimatic conditions such as higher 333 moisture and lower light exposure. Microclimatic conditions such as small scale variation in 334 moisture and light exposure are in fact important for the abundance and diversity of 335 macroarthropods [51] that likely consumed the litter they inhabited according to the "house made of food" concept [19,52]. While study does not allow to clearly disentangle nutritional 336 337 and microhabitat properties of leaf litter, we observed throughout the experiment 338 macroarthropods inside the leaves of the lowest physico-chemical quality litter species, the 339 latter being the most consumed. The use of leaf litter as microhabitat strongly suggests that 340 other litter characteristics linked to their morphology such as tubularity can be as important 341 or more important than nutritional traits in determining macroarthropod feeding.

342 The deposition of fecal pellets on A. unedo litter might have been an additional non-343 exclusive reason for high feeding rates on this litter. Feces deposition may promote 344 microbial communities along with the assumed more favorable microclimatic conditions, 345 which is known to increase litter palatability to saprophagous macroarthropods [16,53,54]. It 346 is important to note that A. unedo litter was the only one collected on the ground. Even if we 347 took great care to select leaves with no sign of early decomposition (supported by the very 348 low microbial decomposition in control microcosms, Table 1), it is not possible to rule out 349 microbial colonization of the litter before collection, and that microbial necromass may have 350 further attracted saprophagous macroarthropods in the experiment.

Finally the consumption of *A. unedo* may have been facilitated by the parallel consumption of *A. monspessulanum* that was the second most consumed litter species. This litter species was of high physico-chemical quality and showed the highest microbial decomposition rate. The mixed diet of all saprophagous macroarthropod species likely permitted them to reach their nutritional demands, allowing them to feed on poor-quality litter [10,55].

4.2. Feeding behavior and diet diversity are linked to saprophagous macroarthropod speciesidentity and body mass

358 Based on physiological and morphological traits, A. vulgare, P. laevis, and C. caerulocinctus 359 formed a distinct group of smaller bodied taxa with high rates of consumption and feces 360 production per unit animal biomass and low diet diversity (Table 2, Fig. S5, Table S5). The 361 negative relationship between body mass and mass-specific consumption and excretion rate 362 is in line with the metabolic theory [25,27] and with several studies done on the same or 363 closely related species, namely G. marginata, C. caerulocinctus, and Ommatoiulus rutilans 364 (C.L. Koch, 1847) feeding on grass litter [30,56] and G. marginata, G. hexasticha, C. 365 caerulocinctus, and Porcellio scaber feeding on Alnus glutinosa litter [28]. Interestingly, diet diversity was positively related to organism body mass. Higher food specialization of smaller 366 367 taxa have been reported for phytophagous insects [57–60] but are less studied for soil 368 saprophagous invertebrates. Larger organisms may have a more diverse diet because their 369 higher mandibular gape and chewing strength offset the consumption limits set by leaf 370 thickness and toughness [61,62]. If litter thickness partially explained feeding preferences (high consumption of A. monspessulanum that was the thinnest), additional measurement of 371 372 litter toughness and mandibular strength would be required to support this hypothesis. Our data suggest that fresh body mass may be a good and easy to measure proxy to predict 373 374 saprophagous macroarthropod consumption and diet diversity without complex 375 measurement of consumption or metabolic rate [31]. Further studies including taxa with a 376 wider spectrum of body size than that in our study and body size variation within species, 377 would be interesting to explore how body size and diet diversity and consumption rates are 378 related [63,64]. This also could improve our understanding of species coexistence through niche partitioning which is a mechanism of great importance for the positive role of 379 380 macroarthropod diversity and community composition for litter decomposition through 381 complementarity effects [55,64-69].

382 4.3. Chemical and physical transformation of organic matter during gut passage

383 Saprophagous macroarthropod species differed in their feces properties, but these 384 differences are not easily explained by the differences in their diet. This highlights that, in 385 our study, feces characteristics are poorly predictable from litter and diet characteristics. It 386 must be noted that litter traits were measured using the whole leaf, including veins that are

387 of lesser quality and usually avoided by macroarthropods that prefer leaf lamina [4]. This 388 may induce difference between the quality of what the animals actually ingested and how 389 we measured it, limiting the detection of correlation between litter and feces properties. 390 Nevertheless, on average, feces were of higher chemical quality (lower C:nutrient ratio, and 391 tannin concentration) than the initial litter, which may have important consequences on 392 microbial activity and the further decomposition of feces [3,35]. Indeed, by changing organic 393 matter C:N and C:P ratio from 95.6 \pm 0.7 and 2942 \pm 32 in the available litter mix to 32.6 \pm 394 6.9 and 95.6 ± 29 in their feces, saprophagous macroarthropods likely promote microbial 395 activity that usually is limited by substrate C:N and C:P ratios above 30 and 92 [7,70,71]. 396 Additionally, preferential consumption of the lowest-quality litter led to a higher proportion 397 of high-quality litter in the remaining litter layer. All these effects combined result in 398 improved organic matter quality (both in litter layer and feces) that may favor microbial 399 activity in the remaining litter [72]. In addition to chemical changes, feces exhibited a 2.2 400 fold increase in WHC compared to the litter mix. Therefore, conversion of litter into feces 401 may therefore improve humidity conditions in the organic layer, which may significantly 402 promote microbial activity.

403 4.4. Differences between woodlice and millipede in OM transformation

404 An interesting result of our study was that tannin concentrations remained higher in 405 woodlice feces than in millipedes' feces, especially in A. vulgare feces where tannin 406 concentrations in feces were similar to those in leaf litter. Our study is the first to our 407 knowledge to show such differences that may be explained by the different digestive track 408 structure between woodlice and millipede. Similar to woodlice, the digestive track of 409 millipedes consists in a straight tube, but likely is longer as it occupies the major part of the 410 longer body of julid-form milliped compared to woodlice. This may result in longer food 411 retention time in the digestive system in millipedes, resulting in a prolonged digestion of 412 complex molecules and reduction of tannins concentration in feces [73]. The body length of the pill millipede *G. marginata* is similar to that of woodlice, but its digestive track (hindgut) 413 414 is composed of two limbs that increase its volume that can lead to longer retention time 415 food as well. Low if not undetectable tannin concentrations in G. marginata feces have 416 already been reported when feeding on different litter types varying in tannin 417 concentrations and in decay stage [12,74]. Additionally, species and phylum-specific

418 microbiota composition in the digestive tube may also explain these differences since 419 microbial communities largely contribute to saprophagous macroarthropod food digestion 420 and assimilation [14], but complete description of microbial communities in these animals 421 digestive tube and detailed comparison between distant phylogenetic groups are lacking 422 [35,36]. Finally, highest tannin concentrations in feces were negatively correlated to mass-423 specific consumption rate (and therefore feces production rate) but not to assimilation. A. 424 *vulgare* showed the highest consumption rate and feces production and therefore processed 425 litter faster than other species, likely resulting in less time for tannins and protein to 426 complex in the animal digestive track, making tannins more detectable by the method 427 employed. If not complexed to proteins, tannins would also be more impacting for microbial 428 activity and feces and litter decomposition [75].

429 In addition to tannins transformation, physical differences in feces were observed with 430 higher WHC in millipede than in woodlice feces. This difference was notably due to the highest feces WHC of C. caerulocinctus whilst its diet, dominated by low WHC-leaves of A. 431 432 unedo and Q. ilex particles, was of lower WHC compared to the litter mix. This means that 433 feces WHC is not linked to the physical properties of the particles that constitute them, but rather to feces specific area. Millipede produce thicker and rounded fecal pellets compared 434 435 to the thin, flat and squared woodlice feces, with lower specific area [14]. This is important 436 as it may imply that those two phylogenetic groups, generally grouped in the same 437 "functional group", actually have quite a different impact on organic matter transformation 438 and therefore on the carbon and nutrient cycle [4,7].

439 **5. Conclusion**

440 Our study provides support for the important chemical and physical transformation of 441 organic matter due to the feeding activity of woodlice and millipedes, notably with improved 442 nutritional quality and water holding capacity in feces compared to leaf litter. In addition, we 443 show clear differences in the feeding preferences of six widespread species that, contrarily 444 to current knowledge, cannot be predicted only by the nutritive value of the litter but is 445 rather linked to morphological attributes of the leaves which were previously largely 446 overlooked [19]. Our study showed a clear distinction between woodlice and millipedes that 447 usually are considered functionally similar. The differences in tannins digestion as well as 448 feces shape and water holding capacity deserve more interest as polyphenols and water

449 availability are major drivers of microbial activity [1,75]. If further confirmed, differences 450 observable at the class level (Malacostraca vs Diplopoda) would suggest that traditional functional groups [76], that nowadays are confounded with taxonomic groups ("all woodlice 451 452 and millipedes species are equivalent litter transformers"), hides important differences among saprophagous arthropods class, families or genera. Functionally meaningful 453 454 differences at high taxonomic ranks would allow a more detailed and accurate description of 455 soil food-web which would improve our understanding of C and nutrient cycles [3,77]. Since 456 obtaining species-specific information can be tedious, the links between body mass and 457 consumption rate and diet diversity that we observed (Fig. S5), are valuable as they could be more easily incorporated in C and N cycling models [78] and improve the integration of 458 459 biological control on these processes [79].

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