

**Evidence in stable isotope ratios for lichen-feeding by Lithosiini moths from a tropical rainforest but not from a temperate forest**

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## Abstract

Lithosiini (Lepidoptera: Erebidae: Arctiinae) is characteristic in having some species that feed on lichens, whereas the majority of moths, feeds on vascular plants. However, larval diet of most Lithosiini species is poorly known. This study examines if Lithosiini species, collected in a tropical rainforest of Borneo (nine species) and a temperate forest of Japan (eight species), feed on lichens as larvae, based on stable isotope analyses. As a result, the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values for eight of nine Lithosiini species collected from Borneo were notably lower than those of nine co-occurring herbivorous non-Lithosiini species, and were similar to those of sympatric, lichen-feeding termites; however,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of one Lithosiini species (*Adites* sp.) were significantly higher than those of the other moth species and similar to those of humus-feeding termites and predatory insects occurring at the same site. These results have suggested that the Lithosiini in the Southeast Asian tropical rainforests contain some species that feed on lichens as their larval main diet and at least one species whose larvae feed on humus or animal-derived materials. In contrast, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of all examined Lithosiini species (eight species) in the temperate forest have suggested that their larvae fed on plants and not on lichens. Our stable isotope ratio analysis presented quantitative evidence suggesting lichen-feeding by Lithosiini moths in a tropical rainforest without observation of feeding behavior during the larval stages.

**Key words:** larval diet, Lepidoptera, Lithosiini, Sarawak, stable C and N isotopes.

## INTRODUCTION

The Lithosiini (Lepidoptera: Erebidae: Arctiinae) contain ca. 3,150 known species and are estimated to contain approximately twice as many unknown species (Conner 2009). This tribe is distinctive in having some lichen-feeding species as larvae (Hampson 1900; Holloway 2001; Pöykkö & Hyvärinen 2003; Wagner *et al.* 2008; Conner 2009), although most lepidopteran species feed on vascular plants at the larval stages (Powell *et al.* 1998; Richardson *et al.* 2010; Table S1). In addition, there are known to be some Lithosiini species in each of which both lichen-feeding larvae and larvae that exclusively feed on non-lichen food resources, such as vascular plants and mosses, coexist within a population (Holloway 2001; Conner 2009).

Presently, however, the diversity and phylogenetic distribution of the lichen-feeders in Lithosiini are poorly known (Anderson *et al.* 2017). The scarcity of the information is partly because a tremendous amount of time, effort and labor power is required to find, collect, rear and observe a sufficient number of larvae (Novotny *et al.* 2002; Bodner *et al.* 2010), taking into account of intraspecific and within-population variations in diets (Novotny *et al.* 2002).

Stable isotope ratio analysis is useful for reconstructing the larval diet of Lithosiini using the trophic relationship between the moths and their food resources. This method is based on the empirical relationship of nitrogen and carbon isotope ratios between animal and their food resources: the nitrogen isotope ratio ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ) values of the animals are

approximately 3.4‰ higher than those of the food resources, and the carbon isotope ratio ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) values of the animals are approximately the same as those of the food resources (DeNiro & Epstein 1978; Minagawa & Wada 1984). The nitrogen that composes the tissue of lichens is mainly derived from inorganic nitrogen in rainwater (Hietz *et al.* 2002; Ellis *et al.* 2003; Fogel *et al.* 2008), while plants obtain nitrogen mainly by absorbing soluble nitrogen from the soil (Högberg 1997). The  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in those lichens thus tends to be lower than the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in plants (Högberg 1997). Assuming that this empirical rule is the case, moths that feed mainly on lichens can be distinguished from those that feed mainly on plants by measuring the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  of the body tissue of the moths (Adams *et al.* 2016; Shin *et al.* 2018). A fraction of lichens are known to obtain nitrogen through nitrogen fixation by symbiotic cyanobacteria (Lücking *et al.* 2009). Because nitrogen in such nitrogen-fixing lichens tends to be close to the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  value of atmospheric nitrogen (0‰) (Hietz *et al.* 2002), the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values in Lithosiini moths feeding on nitrogen-fixing lichens should be different from those in plant-feeding moths. However, the difference is not always distinct, because the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of plants are empirically known to be sometimes close to 0‰ as those of nitrogen-fixing lichens in tropical areas (Hietz *et al.* 2002).

To date, five Lithosiini species in the European temperate zone and two Lithosiini species in the Southeast Asia have been examined by the stable isotope ratio analysis, suggesting that only one of the five examined species (*Lithosia quadra*) fed on lichens (Adams *et al.* 2016; Shin *et al.* 2018). Although the previous studies supported a view

that there are some Lithosiini species which do not use lichens as the primary food, the number of investigated species and study sites are not enough for concluding so. It is therefore necessary to examine whether larvae feed on lichens, for sufficient number of Lithosiini species, in various climate regions, particularly in tropical regions, where the species richness of Lithosiini is considered to be notably high (Holloway 2001).

In this study, we assess the larval diet of several Lithosiini species in a tropical rainforest and in a temperate forest, with special reference to the lichen-feeding. We thus measure and analyze the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  of their tissues and those of co-occurring moth species. This study adds new information on the phylogenetic distribution of lichen-feeding species in Lithosiini.

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **Study site**

We conducted our study in the following two sites: Lambir Hills National Park (hereafter, ‘Lambir’), located at 4°12’ N and 114°02’ E (100–250 m a.s.l.) in tropical rainforest climate areas in Sarawak, Malaysia on Borneo; and Kamigamo Experimental Station, Kyoto University (hereafter, ‘Kamigamo’), located at 35°04’04’’ N and 135°45’38’’ E (224 m a.s.l.) in temperate and humid climate areas on the main island of Japan.

The main type of vegetation at Lambir is a primary lowland mixed dipterocarp forest (Ashton & Hall 1992). The mean annual temperature and rainfall are 27°C and 2,600 mm,

respectively, with no clear dry season (see Kumagai *et al.* 2009 for the details of meteorological conditions in Lambir). Construction facilities at this study site include two observation towers, ladders attached to trunks of several emergent trees, and aerial walkways suspended between emergent trees at approximately 20 m above the ground, which allow access to the branches and leaves in the forest canopy ranging from the ground to approximately 60 m above the ground (Inoue *et al.* 1994; Yumoto & Nakashizuka 2005).

The vegetation at Kamigamo is mainly composed of secondary evergreen coniferous forests dominated by *Pinus densiflora* and *Chamaecyparis obtusa*, and secondary broad-leaved forests dominated by *Quercus serrata* (Osada *et al.* 2003). The mean annual temperature and rainfall are 14.7°C and 1,578 mm, respectively (Field Science Education and Research Center, Kyoto University 2016).

### **Moth sampling**

In Lambir, adult moths were sampled with a light trap set at the forest floor in a plot located in the primary mixed dipterocarp forest at approximately 250 m above sea level, three times on August 27, 2017, March 19, 2019, and November 22, 2019. On each sampling, light trapping was started immediately after dusk. The light trap was equipped with six 4-W ultraviolet tubes (2-way black light, MBL-LB, MAXER DENKI Co.) and a 200 cm wide and 180 cm high white cloth, which was suspended from a height of 170 cm

above the ground. All moths attracted and approached to the light trap were collected with insect nets for three hours after sunset, and they were then killed in a bottle containing ethyl acetate.

In addition, we conducted another type of light-trapping from the sunsets on the 28th of June and the 30th of August to the following mornings in 2019. At each of the dates, we set up light traps that were different from the above-mentioned light-trapping, at five locations. The light trap was designed to collect moths without human operations and each trap was equipped with an ultraviolet LED light (375 THREE, Association of Wildlife Research (<http://www.npo-wildlife.com/>)), a board for intercepting light-attracted flying moths, a funnel, and a vessel to collect the fallen moths. Flying moths were attracted to the trap by ultraviolet light, hit the board, and fell into a vessel filled with volatilized ethyl acetate. All moths trapped in the vessel were collected the following morning.

In Kamigamo, light-trapping was conducted at a plot near the summit of the highest hill at an elevation of approximately 224 m on May 25, June 22, July 16, August 20, and September 17, 2020, in the same way as conducted three times (the former method) in Lambir. Similar to the Lambir survey, we captured all individual moths that flew onto the white cloth for approximately three hours after sunset.

The moths were pinned and then dried in an oven at 60°C for 48 h. Among the collected moths, only the species of Lithosiini, as well as the species whose larvae have

been confirmed to feed on plants by previous studies using more than three individuals, were analyzed. In Lambir, nine species (27 individuals) of Lithosiini, and nine species (27 individuals) of non-Lithosiini moths that had been confirmed to feed on plants based on the rearing or observation by Holloway (1983, 1987, 1993, 1998, 2001, 2005) were analyzed for their isotopic compositions (Table S2). In Kamigamo, the isotopic signatures were measured for eight species (24 individuals) of Lithosiini, and 37 species (111 individuals) of non-Lithosiini moths that had been confirmed to be herbivores by Kishida (2011a; 2011b, 2020), Hirowatari *et al.* (2013), and Nasu *et al.* (2013) on the basis of rearing and observations (Table S3).

#### **Leaf litter sampling**

Leaf litter was collected from 20 plots near the site where moths were sampled in Kamigamo on June 22, 2020. Ten fallen leaves were collected from the ground litter in a plot of approximately 30 cm<sup>2</sup>; each plot was set at least 10 m away from each other. Each sample of the collected leaf litter was gathered in a paper bag, dried up in an oven at 60°C for 48 h, and grinded using a ball mill.

#### **Stable isotopic measurements**

The moth legs and powdered samples of leaf litter materials were weighed on a micro-balance and placed in Sn capsules. The  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values were measured using a mass spectrometer (Delta V Advantage; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA)



coupled with an elemental analyzer. These isotope ratios are expressed in standard  $\delta$ -unit notation, defined as  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  or  $\delta^{13}\text{C} = (\text{R}_{\text{sample}}/\text{R}_{\text{standard}} - 1) \times 1,000$ , where, R is either the  $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$  ratio for nitrogen or the  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  ratio for carbon. The standards were atmospheric nitrogen and Vienna Pee Dee belemnite for nitrogen and carbon, respectively. The analytical precision was better than 0.2‰ for  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values.

#### **Data analysis**

We performed a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to compare the values of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of Lithosiini moths with those of non-Lithosiini moths collected from the two sites. Tukey-Kramer HSD post hoc tests were performed for multiple comparisons of the ANOVA results. All analyses were conducted using RStudio Desktop version 3.5.2 (R Development Core Team 2018).

Hyodo *et al.* (2011) measured the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of leaf litter at the same tropical study site as ours in Lambir. By incorporating these values into the empirical rules for the increment of the values at higher trophic levels (DeNiro & Epstein 1978; Minagawa & Wada 1984, see Appendix S1), the ranges of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of herbivores at the locality were estimated (Fig. 1). The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of each target moth species were assessed by comparing with the estimated ranges of herbivores. Similarly, based on the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of the litter sampled at Kamigamo, we estimated the ranges of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values that most herbivores present there were

expected to show (Fig. 2).

## RESULTS

### Stable isotope ratios of moths in the tropical rainforest

The  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values significantly varied among the moth species (ANOVA,  $F_{17, 36} = 18.85$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ , Fig. 3). Eight Lithosiini species had significantly lower  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values than four non-Lithosiini species (*Eupterote* sp., *Hyposidra talaca*, *Phalera javana*, and *Biston insularis*). Four Lithosiini species (Lithosiini sp. 2, sp. 3, *Barsine crustata*, and *Teulisna* sp.) had significantly lower  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values than all nine non-Lithosiini species. One Lithosiini species (*Schistophleps* sp.) had significantly lower  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values than all the non-Lithosiini species (Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc test,  $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 3). Among eight Lithosiini species, there was no significant difference in the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values (Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc test,  $P > 0.05$ , Fig. 3).

The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of nine non-Lithosiini moths were within, or were considerably close to, the estimated ranges of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values for herbivores at the study site, whereas the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of eight (other than *Adites* sp.) of nine Lithosiini species were markedly out of the ranges (Fig. 1).

The remaining one Lithosiini species, *Adites* sp., was considerably different from the other above-mentioned Lithosiini species in the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  value, which was significantly higher than in the other Lithosiini species and higher among four of non-Lithosiini species

(*Hypochrosis binexata*, *Daphnusa ocellaris*, *Petelia medardaria*, and *Hamodes propitia*).

There were no significant differences in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values between *Adites* sp. and the other five non-Lithosiini species (*Lyssa zampa*, *Eupterote* sp., *Hyposidra talaca*, *Phalera javana*, and *Biston insularis*) (Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc test,  $P > 0.05$ , Fig. 3).

The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value was significantly different among all moth species (ANOVA,  $F_{17, 36} = 8.43$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ , Fig. 4). *Adites* sp. had the highest and significantly higher  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values than most of the other moth species studied, except for the three non-Lithosiini species (*Hypochrosis binexata*, *Hamodes propitia*, and *Hyposidra talaca*). The non-Lithosiini species, *Phalera javana*, had the lowest and significantly lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values than the three Lithosiini species (*Trischalis stomata*, *Asura* sp., and *Adites* sp.) and five non-Lithosiini species (*Lyssa zampa*, *Petelia medardaria*, *Hypochrosis binexata*, *Hamodes propitia*, and *Hyposidra talaca*) (Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc test,  $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 4). There were no significant differences in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values among the six Lithosiini species (*Teulisna* sp., Lithosiini spp. 1–3, *Barsine crustata*, and *Schistophleps* sp.) and three non-Lithosiini species (*Biston insularis*, *Daphnusa ocellaris*, and *Eupterote* sp.) (Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc test,  $P > 0.05$ , Fig. 4). Thus, based on the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values, the eight Lithosiini species that showed lower  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values than those of the non-Lithosiini species (Fig. 3), were not discriminated as a group from the non-Lithosiini species (Fig. 4).

## Stable isotope ratios of moths in the temperate forest

The  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  value was significantly different among the moth species ( $F_{53, 105} = 6.45$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ , multiple comparisons by Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc test,  $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 5). A non-Lithosiini species, *Comostola subtiliaria nympha*, showed the lowest  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  value, which was significantly lower than those of 17 species, including one Lithosiini species, *Cyana hamata hamata* (Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc test,  $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 5). Another non-Lithosiini species, *Athetis stellata*, showed the highest  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  value, which was not significantly different from those of 29 species, including all Lithosiini species (Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc tests,  $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 5). Thus, the distribution of the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values for all Lithosiini species overlapped with that of all non-Lithosiini species (Fig. 5).

The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value was significantly different among the moth species ( $F_{53, 105} = 5.34$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ , Fig. 6). A non-Lithosiini species, *Herpetogramma luctuosale zelleri*, showed the lowest  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value, which was significantly lower than those of 13 species, including the two Lithosiini species, *Eilema japonica japonica* and *Miltochrista miniata* (Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc test,  $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 6). Another non-Lithosiini species, *Paragona cleorides*, showed the highest  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  value, which was significantly higher than those of 23 species, including the three Lithosiini species, *Cyana hamata hamata*, *Eilema aegrota*, and *Eilema deplana pavescens* (Tukey-Kramer HSD post-hoc test,  $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 6). Thus, similar to the distribution of the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values, the distribution of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in all Lithosiini species overlapped with that of all non-Lithosiini species (Fig. 6).

The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of the eight Lithosiini species overlapped considerably with the range of 37 non-Lithosiini species, and with the range of expected values that was estimated based on the values of litter, for herbivores in the study site (Fig. 2).

## DISCUSSION

The remarkable overlap between the ranges of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values expected for herbivores in the tropical rainforest (Lambir) and those of the nine non-Lithosiini moth species targeted the expected ranges of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values for herbivores can be inferred from the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values measured for leaf litters in the same habitat, as mentioned above (DeNiro & Epstein 1978; Minagawa & Wada 1984). The overlap between the expected ranges and the ranges of the values measured for moths in a habitat suggests that the moths are herbivores. The remarkable overlap between them in the tropical rainforest (Lambir) in this study (Fig. 1) strengthens the suggestions of Holloway (1983, 1987, 1993, 1998, 2001, 2005) with quantitative evidence that these nine moth species are plant-feeders. On the other hand, there was a difference in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values between eight (other than *Adites* sp.) of the nine Lithosiini species collected from Lambir and the above-mentioned plant-feeding moth species (Fig. 3). Furthermore, the ranges of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of the eight Lithosiini species deviated remarkably from those estimated for herbivores at the study site (Fig. 1). These results suggest that the eight Lithosiini species feed mainly on lichens during their larval stages at the study site. The

similarity between the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of these eight Lithosiini species and the values measured by Hyodo *et al.* (2011) for a lichen-feeding termite species, *Hospitalitermes hospitalis* (Fig. 7), at the same study site also strongly supports this suggestion.

Adams *et al.* (2016) and Shin *et al.* (2018) used methods similar to those used in this study and examined whether Lithosiini were lichen feeders by measuring the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of the moths and lichens in the European temperate zone and the Southeast Asian subtropical zone, respectively. Their results demonstrated that the majority of their target Lithosiini species were not lichen feeders. In addition, these results seem to be consistent with our results of stable isotope ratio analysis of Lithosiini moths collected from Kamigamo, suggesting that the majority of Lithosiini moths do not feed on lichens in the temperate region (Figs. 5, 6). Thus, the results of stable isotope analysis of Lithosiini moths inhabiting non-tropical forests are inconsistent with those of Lithosiini moths inhabiting tropical rainforests.

The great difference in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values between Lithosiini moths in the tropical rainforest and those in temperate forests could be explained by the following hypothetical scenario. The food habits of the majority of Lithosiini moth species differ between tropical and non-tropical zones; a majority of Lithosiini species do not feed on lichens in the temperate zone, or in sub-tropical and temperate zones, whereas a majority feed on

lichens in tropical rainforests. Some differences in environmental conditions between tropical and non-tropical zones may affect the differences in food habits. However, there is another explanation. The difference could be a randomly derived result due to unintended selection biases: the sample size (the number of target species) and the number of study sites were limited. Although the food resources during larval stages have been clarified for most Lithosiini species in a particular region (*e.g.*, European temperate zone, Table S1), they have not been sufficiently investigated for the majority of described Lithosiini species. For example, this has been investigated at most for 38% and 6% of Lithosiini species recorded from Japan (East Asian temperate zone) and Borneo (the Southeast Asian tropics), respectively (Table S1). To explore these possibilities, or to determine whether there are any significant differences in the percentage of lichen-feeding species in Lithosiini species between non-tropical and tropical zones, the stable isotope ratios of nitrogen and carbon should be analyzed for a larger number of Lithosiini species in both climatic zones at much broader spatial scales.

In Lambir, the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of *Adites* sp. were remarkably different not only from those of the other eight Lithosiini species, which are suggested to be lichen feeders as mentioned above, but also from those of the plant-feeding non-Lithosiini moth species (Fig. 1), as well as those measured by Hyodo *et al.* (2010) for eight species of herbivorous insects at the same study site (Fig. 7). On the other hand, the values were similar to those of animals that feed on matter derived from animal bodies, such as predatory and

detritivorous insects (e.g., Carabidae spp. inhabiting the same site, Hyodo *et al.* 2010), and those of animals that feed on soil organic matter, including humus or litter of dead plant tissues, such as soil-feeding termites (e.g., *Prohamitermes mirabilis* inhabiting the same site, Hyodo *et al.* 2011) (Fig. 7). These similarities suggest that *Adites* sp. possibly feeds on animal-derived matter or soil organic matter during the larval stages. Although no Lithosiini species has been found to feed on animal-derived matter or humus during larval stages, several species of the tribe Arctiini and Syntomini, which belong to the subfamily Arctiinae together with the tribe Lithosiini, have been found to feed on animal-derived matter or humus (Krasnoff & Roelofs 1989; Pierce 1995; Conner 2009). This fact supports the possibility of animal-derived matter or humus feeding in *Adites* sp.

Larvae of three Lithosiini species have been suggested to feed on lichens in the tropical rainforest zone of Southeast Asia (Holloway 2001). However, to the best of our knowledge, food habits remain to be clarified with robust evidence, such as records of larval rearing, for almost all of the 300 described Lithosiini species in this zone (Holloway 2001), except for the eight Lithosiini species that have been suggested to feed on lichens in this study. To understand the diversity, evolution, and ecology of Lithosiini, it is necessary to identify food resources for many Lithosiini species whose larval food preferences are not yet known. This may require finding or collecting a sufficient number of larvae for observation to determine their dietary habits under a wide range of environmental conditions or under well-controlled laboratory conditions in captivity.



Under the conditions in which larval food resources vary plastically in response to changes in environmental conditions, it is extremely difficult to identify the larval food resources of Lithosiini only by direct observation of the feeding behavior of larvae. Therefore, the stable isotope ratio analysis performed in this study, which can provide evidence supporting food resources during larval stages without observation of feeding behavior, would be useful for future studies attempting to determine phylogenetic distribution of lichen-feeding in and around the lineage of Lithosiini for better inference of the origin(s) of lichen feeding in moths.

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432

## **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

Appendix S1. A method for estimating the range of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values that herbivores in a site are expected to exhibit, based on the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of litter in that site.

Table S1. The numbers of Lithosiini species whose larval food resources have been confirmed to be lichens, both lichens and non-lichens, and non-lichens in the European temperate zone, Japan, and Borneo. The percentages among all of the recorded Lithosiini species from each region are provided in the parentheses.

Table S2. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of moths in Lambir Hills National Park. The sample size (the number of individuals examined in this study) was three for each species.

Table S3. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of moths in Kamigamo Experimental Station, Kyoto University. The sample size (the number of individuals examined in this study) was three for each species.

## Figure legends

Fig. 1 Scatter plot of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of Lithosiini, non-Lithosiini, and litter in a tropical rainforest (Lambir). The plots and bars indicate their mean values and standard deviations. The rectangle area enclosed by the red broken line indicates the predicted ranges of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values estimated for plant-feeding insects based on the empirical rules for the increase of their values through an elevation of trophic level from the values of litter, which were obtained from Hyodo *et al.* (2011).

Fig. 2 Scatter plot of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of Lithosiini, non-Lithosiini, and litter in a temperate forest (Kamigamo). The plots and bars indicate their mean values and standard deviations. The rectangle area enclosed by the red broken line indicates the predicted ranges of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values estimated for plant-feeding insects based on the empirical rules for the increase of their values through an elevation of trophic level from the values of litter.

Fig. 3  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of Lithosiini (solid circles) and non-Lithosiini (open circles) moths in a tropical rainforest (Lambir). A plot and horizontal bar indicate the mean and standard deviation, respectively, for each moth species. The sample size was three for each moth species and 15 for litter. The same letters indicate no significant difference in the value between the compared species (Tukey-Kramer post hoc test,  $P > 0.05$ ).

Fig. 4  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of Lithosiini (solid circles) and non-Lithosiini (open circles) moths in a tropical rainforest (Lambir). A plot and horizontal bar indicate the mean and standard deviation, respectively, for each moth species. The sample size was three for each moth species and 15 for litter. The same letters indicate no

significant difference in the value between the compared species (Tukey-Kramer post hoc test,  $P > 0.05$ ).

Fig. 5  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of Lithosiini (solid circles) and non-Lithosiini (open circles) moths in a temperate forest (Kamigamo). A plot and horizontal bar indicate the mean and standard deviation, respectively, for each moth species. The sample size was three for each moth species and 20 for litter. The same letters indicate no significant difference in the value between the compared species (Tukey-Kramer post hoc test,  $P > 0.05$ ).

Fig. 6  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of Lithosiini (solid circles) and non-Lithosiini (open circles) moths in a temperate forest (Kamigamo). A plot and horizontal bar indicate the mean and standard deviation, respectively, for each moth species. The sample size was three for each moth species and 20 for litter. The same letters indicate no significant difference in the value between the compared species (Tukey-Kramer post hoc test,  $P > 0.05$ ).

Fig. 7 Scatter plot of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of Lithosiini, lichen-feeding termite, soil-feeding termites, herbivorous insects, predatory insects, and litter in a tropical rainforest (Lambir). The plots and bars indicate their mean values and standard deviations. The rectangle area enclosed by the red broken line indicates the predicted ranges of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values estimated for plant-feeding insects based on the empirical rules for the increase of their values through an elevation of trophic level from the values of litter, which was obtained by Hyodo *et al.* (2011). The values for lichen-feeding termite, soil-feeding termites, herbivorous insects, and predatory insects were obtained from Hyodo *et al.* (2010, 2011).



**Appendix S1. A method for estimating the range of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values that herbivores in a site are expected to exhibit, based on the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of litter in that site.**

Many previous studies have shown that the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of herbivores in a site can be estimated from the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of leaf litter in that site, respectively, from the empirical rule expressed by the following equations (DeNiro & Epstein 1978; Minagawa & Wada 1984):

$$\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{herb}} = \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{litt}} + \Delta^{15}\text{N},$$

$$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{herb}} = \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{litt}} + \Delta^{13}\text{C},$$

where,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{herb}}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{litt}}$ , and  $\Delta^{15}\text{N}$  are the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values for herbivores, leaf litter, and the trophic enrichment, respectively, and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{herb}}$ ,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{litt}}$ , and  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  are the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for herbivores, leaf litter, and the trophic enrichment, respectively. In general, the  $\Delta^{15}\text{N}$  is estimated to be  $3.4 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$  (mean  $\pm$  SD) (Minagawa & Wada 1984), and the  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  is estimated to be  $0.8 \pm 1.1\text{‰}$  (DeNiro & Epstein 1978).

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**Table S1** The numbers of Lithosiini species whose larval food resources have been confirmed to be lichens, both lichens and non-lichens, and non-lichens in European temperate zone, Japan, and Borneo, respectively. The percentages among all of the recorded Lithosiini species from each region are provided in the parentheses. Among the larval food resources of Lithosiini used in this study, five species were lichen, one species was both lichen and non-lichen and two species were unknown in Japan (Kishida 2020), and all species were unknown in Borneo (Holloway 2001).

<i>Region</i>	Food resource(s)	No. of species (%)	References
<b><i>European temperate zone</i></b>			Paolo <i>et al.</i> (1999), Leraut (2006)
	Lichen	26 (59.1)	
	Both lichen and non-lichen	8 (18.2)	
	Non-lichen	5 (11.4)	
	(Food resources detected)	39 (88.6)	
	(Unknown)	5 (11.4)	
	(Total: All recorded species)	44 (100)	
<b><i>Japan</i></b>			Kishida (2020)
	Lichen	13 (19.4)	
	Both lichen and non-lichen	7 (10.4)	
	Non-lichen	5 (7.5)	
	(Food resources detected)	25 (37.3)	
	(Unknown)	42 (62.7)	
	(Total: All recorded species)	67 (100)	
<b><i>Borneo</i></b>			Holloway (2001)
	Lichen	3 (1.0)	
	Both lichen and non-lichen	0 (0.0)	
	Non-lichen	13 (4.4)	
	(Food resources detected)	16 (5.4)	
	(Unknown)	281 (94.6)	
	(Total: All recorded species)	297 (100)	

**Table S2** The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of moths in Lambir Hills National Park.

The sample size (the number of individuals examined) was three for each species.

Taxa	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) (mean $\pm$ SE)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) (mean $\pm$ SE)
Eupterotidae		
Eupterotinae		
<i>Eupterote</i> sp.	$-30.7 \pm 0.1$	$3.8 \pm 1.1$
Sphingidae		
Smerinthinae		
<i>Daphnusa ocellaris</i>	$-31.7 \pm 0.9$	$1.1 \pm 1.7$
Uraniidae		
Uraniinae		
<i>Lyssa zampa</i>	$-29.3 \pm 1.6$	$2.7 \pm 0.8$
Geometridae		
Ennominae		
<i>Biston insularis</i>	$-32.0 \pm 2.3$	$5.3 \pm 1.9$
<i>Hypochrosis binexata</i>	$-27.7 \pm 1.1$	$-0.4 \pm 0.4$
<i>Hyposidra talaca</i>	$-26.4 \pm 0.7$	$4.1 \pm 0.4$
<i>Petelia medardaria</i>	$-28.0 \pm 0.6$	$1.2 \pm 0.9$
Notodontidae		
<i>Phalera javana</i>	$-35.2 \pm 1.5$	$4.2 \pm 1.8$
Erebidae		
Arctiinae		
Lithosiini		
<i>Adites</i> sp.	$-23.1 \pm 0.9$	$6.4 \pm 1.1$
<i>Asura</i> sp.	$-27.9 \pm 1.1$	$-3.8 \pm 1.3$
<i>Barsine crustata</i>	$-30.9 \pm 0.3$	$-2.3 \pm 1.9$
<i>Schistophleps</i> sp.	$-29.7 \pm 0.3$	$-5.5 \pm 1.6$
<i>Teulisna</i> sp.	$-32.7 \pm 1.1$	$-1.0 \pm 0.6$
<i>Trischalis stomata</i>	$-28.8 \pm 1.1$	$-4.2 \pm 1.1$
Lithosiini sp.1	$-29.8 \pm 2.2$	$-5.0 \pm 0.2$
Lithosiini sp.2	$-30.7 \pm 0.4$	$-1.5 \pm 2.0$
Lithosiini sp.3	$-31.4 \pm 0.6$	$-3.5 \pm 1.6$
Calpinae		
<i>Hamodes propitia</i>	$-27.4 \pm 0.9$	$1.7 \pm 0.5$

**Table S3** The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values of moths in Kamigamo Experimental Station, Kyoto University.  
The sample size (the number of individuals examined) was three for each species.

Taxa	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) (mean $\pm$ SE)	$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) (mean $\pm$ SE)
Limacodidae		
Limacodinae		
<i>Phrixolepia sericea</i>	-31.6 $\pm$ 1.2	2.8 $\pm$ 1.2
Zygaenidae		
Chalcosiinae		
<i>Pidorus atratus</i>	-32.7 $\pm$ 0.6	-1.3 $\pm$ 1.3
Tortricidae		
Tortricinae		
<i>Archips audax</i>	-32.1 $\pm$ 2.2	-4.3 $\pm$ 1.6
Olethreutinae		
<i>Hystrichoscelus spathanum</i>	-28.5 $\pm$ 2.1	1.9 $\pm$ 3.0
<i>Rhopobota ilexi</i>	-31.5 $\pm$ 0.8	-6.7 $\pm$ 1.4
Pyalidae		
Pyalinae		
<i>Hypsopygia regina</i>	-27.3 $\pm$ 0.5	0.8 $\pm$ 1.5
Phycitinae		
<i>Addyge confusalis</i>	-28.6 $\pm$ 1.5	1.9 $\pm$ 0.8
Crambidae		
Crambinae		
<i>Chrysoteuchia distinctella</i>	-32.0 $\pm$ 0.1	0.4 $\pm$ 0.5
Pyraustinae		
<i>Herpetogramma luctuosale zelleri</i>	-33.1 $\pm$ 0.8	4.5 $\pm$ 3.0
<i>Palpita nigropunctalis</i>	-27.7 $\pm$ 1.4	4.1 $\pm$ 1.8
Drepanidae		
Drepaninae		
<i>Macrocilix mysticata watsoni</i>	-30.3 $\pm$ 0.2	-0.5 $\pm$ 0.2
Geometridae		
Ennominae		
<i>Alcis angulifera</i>	-28.4 $\pm$ 1.4	0.6 $\pm$ 2.3
<i>Euchristophia cumulata cumulata</i>	-29.5 $\pm$ 0.9	-2.0 $\pm$ 0.3
<i>Garaeus specularis mactans</i>	-29.8 $\pm$ 1.9	-2.6 $\pm$ 2.0
<i>Nothomiza formosa</i>	-28.8 $\pm$ 1.8	-2.7 $\pm$ 3.0
<i>Ourapteryx nivea</i>	-30.1 $\pm$ 1.7	-3.2 $\pm$ 1.4
<i>Ourapteryx obtusicauda</i>	-28.6 $\pm$ 1.1	-2.1 $\pm$ 0.7
<i>Paradarisa chloauges kurosawai</i>	-27.7 $\pm$ 0.8	-1.1 $\pm$ 4.0
<i>Plagodis pulveraria japonica</i>	-32.3 $\pm$ 1.0	-2.7 $\pm$ 2.0
<i>Platycerota incertaria</i>	-27.5 $\pm$ 0.7	-5.3 $\pm$ 2.5
<i>Plesiomorpha flaviceps</i>	-26.3 $\pm$ 0.2	-5.5 $\pm$ 2.5
<i>Rhynchobapta cervinaria</i>	-30.4 $\pm$ 0.9	-0.3 $\pm$ 1.2
<i>Synegia hadassa</i>	-26.2 $\pm$ 0.3	-5.3 $\pm$ 2.3
Geometrinae		
<i>Comostola subtiliaria nympa</i>	-27.5 $\pm$ 0.3	-8.5 $\pm$ 0.3

Sterrhinae		
<i>Idaea remissa</i>	-28.4 ± 0.5	-2.0 ± 1.6
<i>Idaea denudaria</i>	-28.0 ± 0.7	3.6 ± 0.6
<i>Scopula epiorrhoe</i>	-26.9 ± 1.8	-0.9 ± 1.8
Larentiinae		
<i>Chloroclystis excisa</i>	-27.6 ± 1.9	-4.2 ± 2.4
<i>Chloroclystis v-ata lucinda</i>	-27.3 ± 1.6	-5.5 ± 1.1
Notodontidae		
Notodontinae		
<i>Cnethodonta grisescens grisescens</i>	-31.1 ± 1.8	2.2 ± 0.2
Noctuidae		
Eriopinae		
<i>Callopistria japonibia</i>	-29.2 ± 1.7	0.9 ± 0.5
Noctuinae		
<i>Sineugraphe oceanica</i>	-28.8 ± 0.7	1.3 ± 3.0
Hadeninae		
<i>Athetis stellata</i>	-29.6 ± 0.5	7.2 ± 1.7
Erebidae		
Lymantriinae		
<i>Kidokuga piperita</i>	-29.4 ± 2.4	2.7 ± 0.1
Herminiinae		
<i>Zanclognatha helva</i>	-28.7 ± 0.8	-3.4 ± 0.2
Arctiinae		
Lithosiini		
<i>Cyana hamata hamata</i>	-31.0 ± 0.1	-0.3 ± 0.9
<i>Eilema aegrota</i>	-30.0 ± 0.9	-2.4 ± 1.8
<i>Eilema deplana pavescens</i>	-29.8 ± 0.9	-1.8 ± 2.2
<i>Eilema japonica japonica</i>	-27.3 ± 0.2	-4.1 ± 1.8
<i>Eilema nankingica</i>	-28.2 ± 0.4	-6.4 ± 0.6
<i>Macrobroschis staudingeri staudingeri</i>	-28.1 ± 0.5	-1.7 ± 0.5
<i>Miltochrista miniata</i>	-26.9 ± 0.8	-0.5 ± 0.8
<i>Philenora latifasciata</i>	-28.4 ± 0.2	-1.7 ± 1.3
Calpinae		
<i>Oraesia excavata</i>	-27.7 ± 0.6	2.1 ± 0.5
Erebinae		
<i>Paragona cleorides</i>	-23.3 ± 1.2	0.1 ± 2.6

Fig. 1

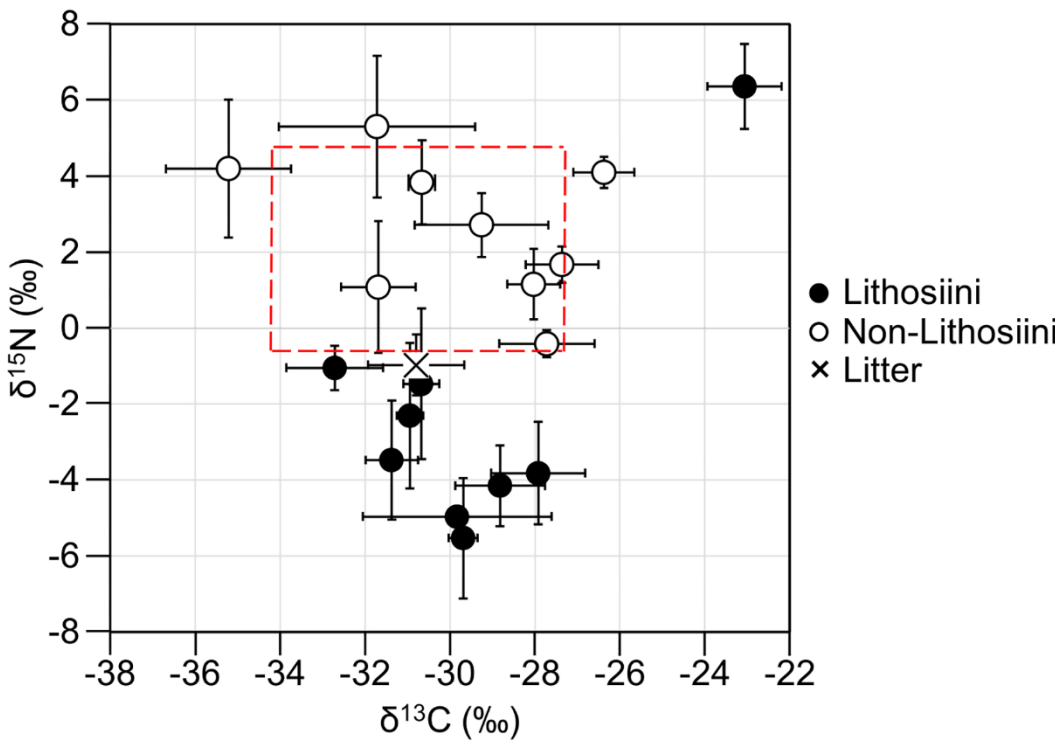


Fig. 2

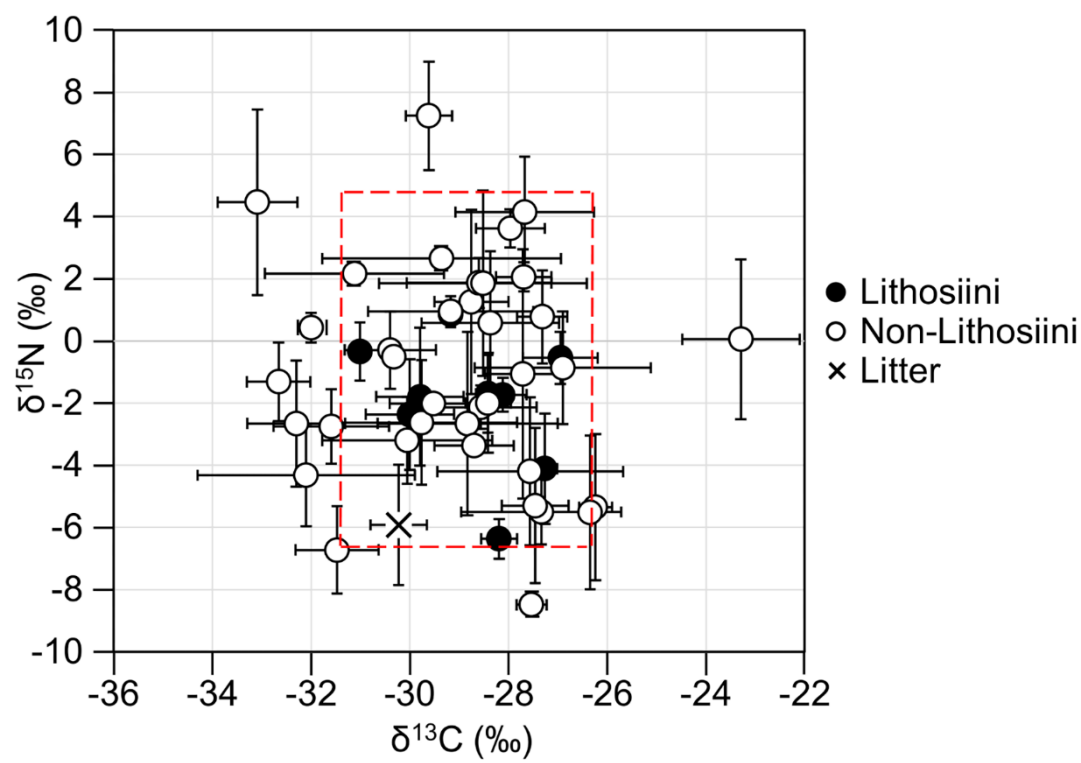


Fig. 3

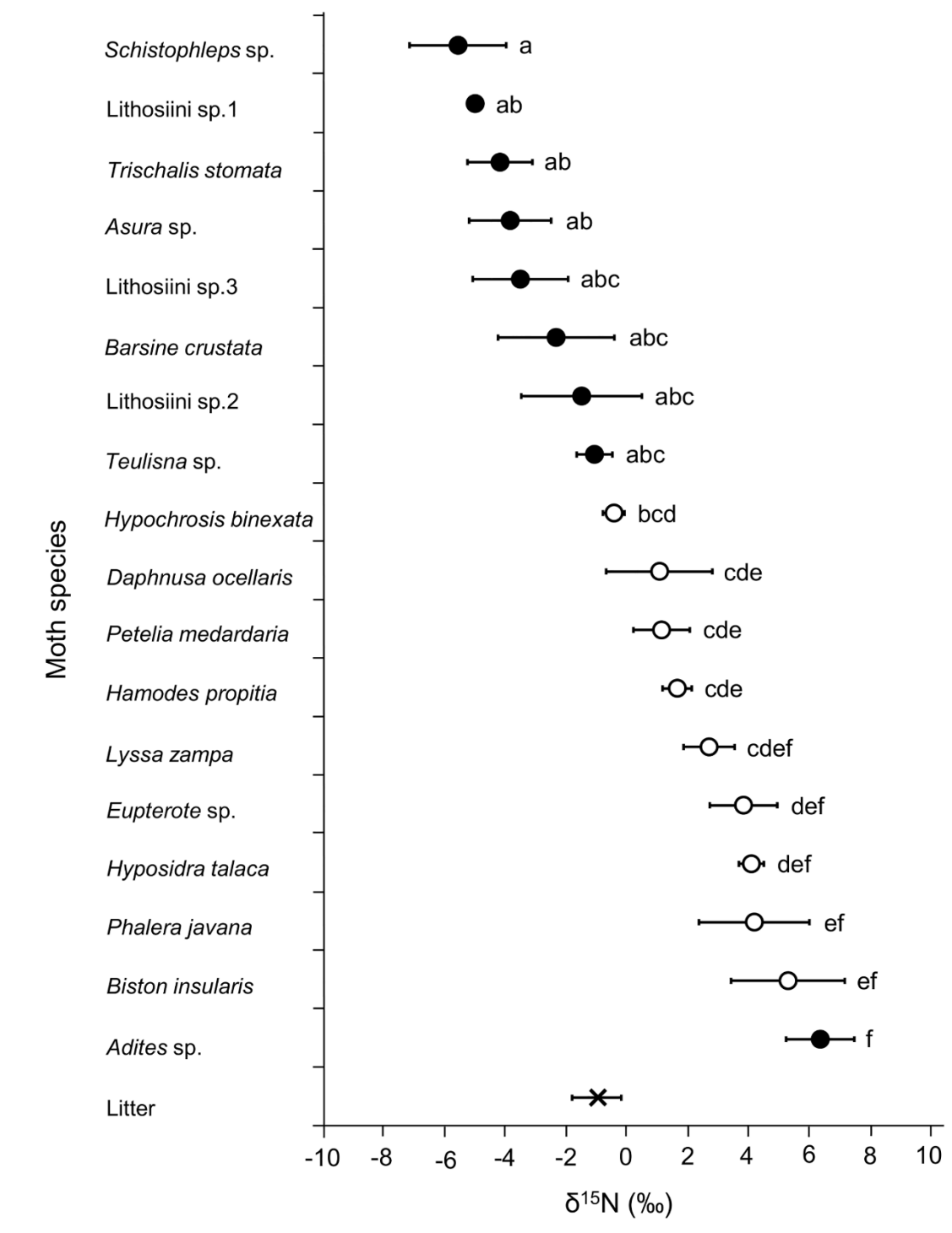




Fig. 4

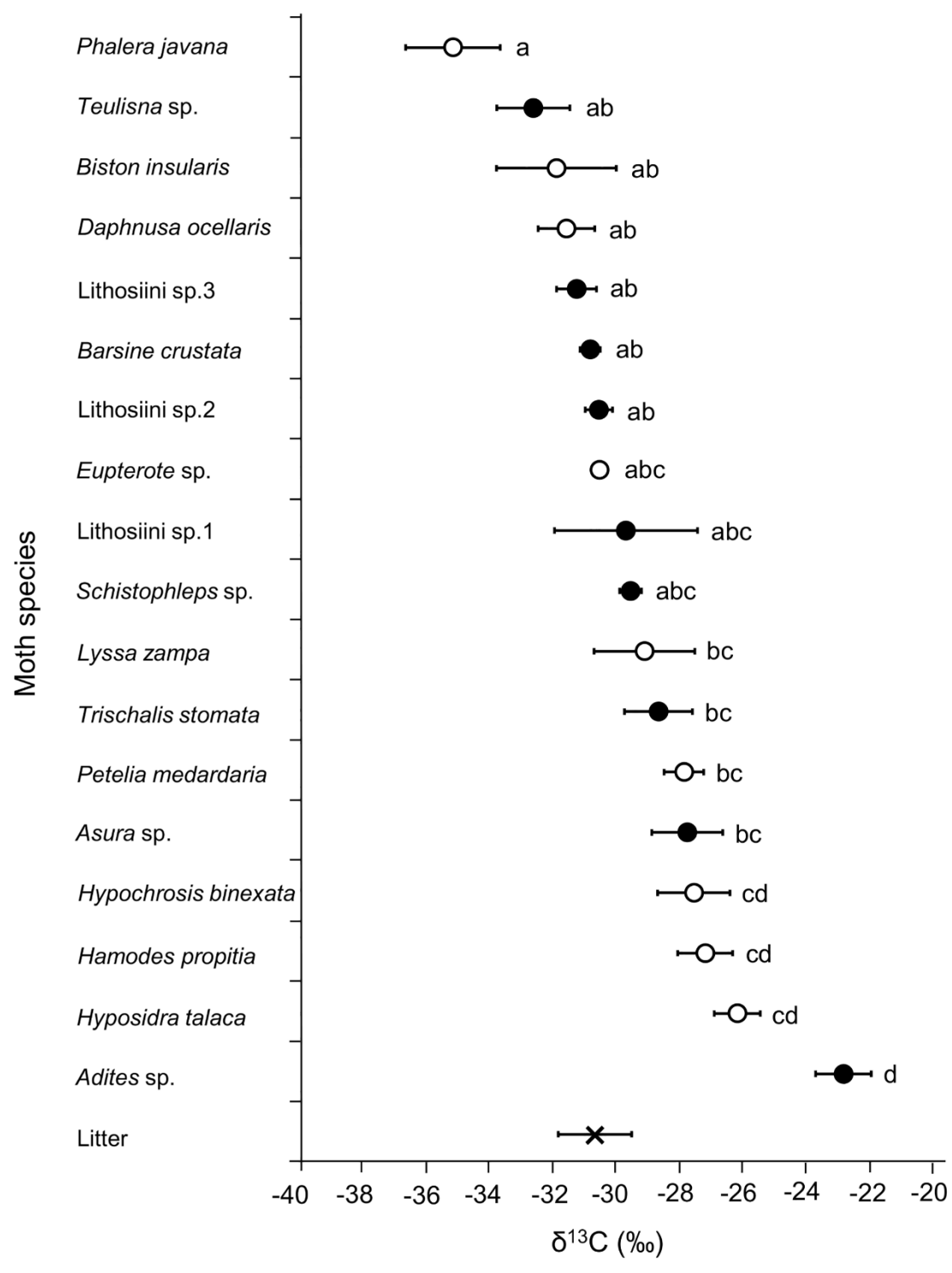


Fig. 5

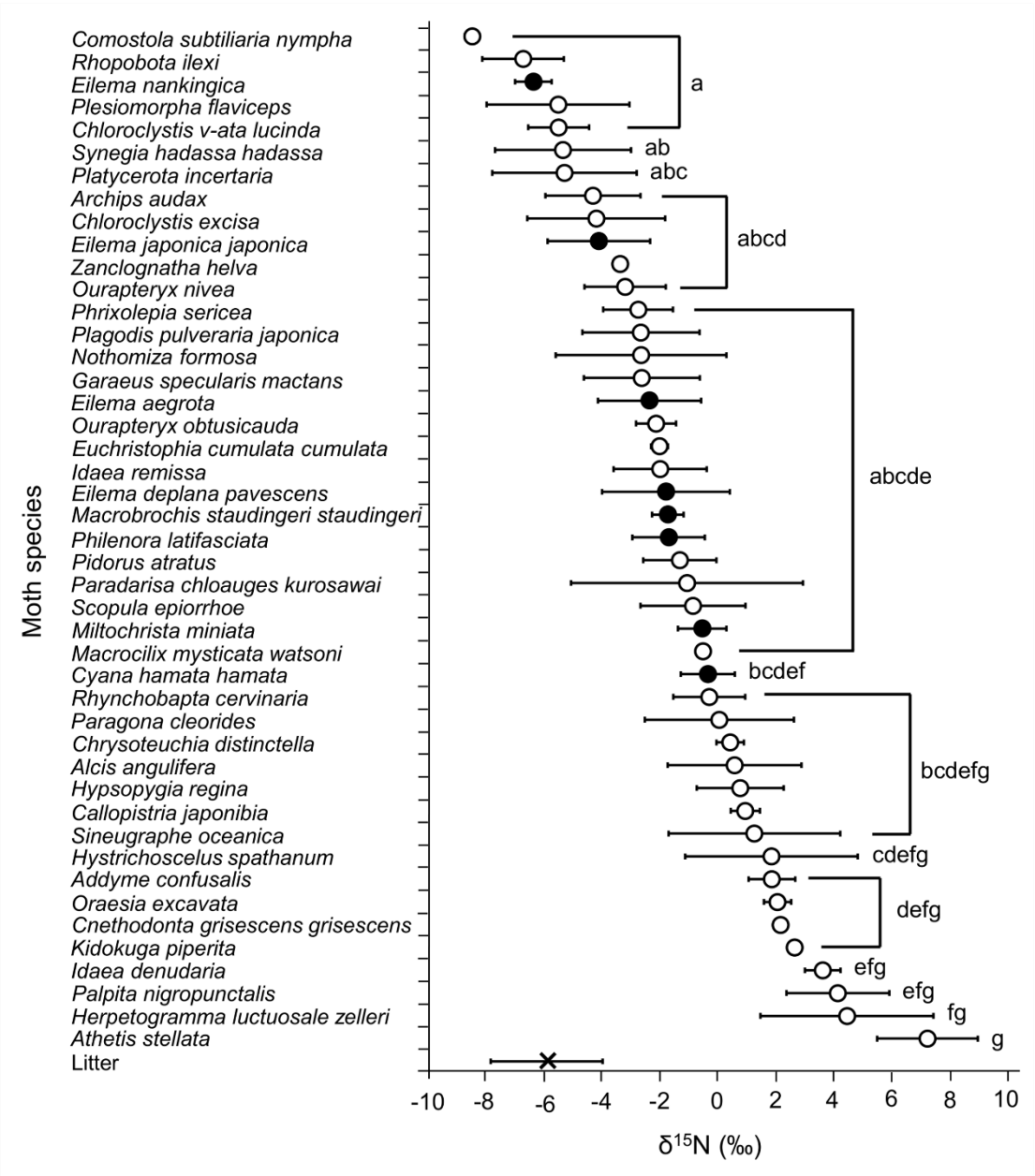


Fig. 6

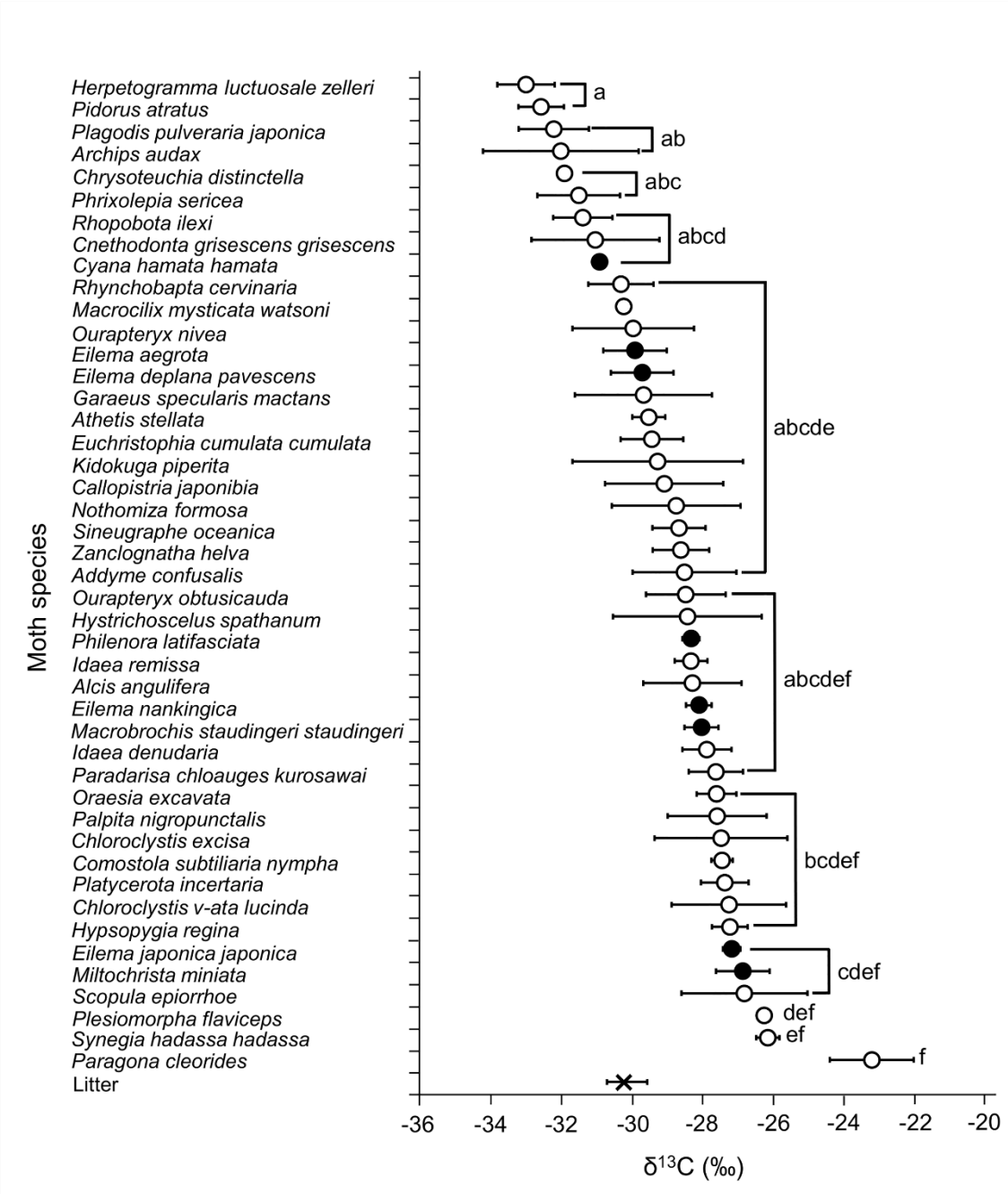


Fig. 7

