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1 **Rumen physiology constrains diet niche: linking digestive physiology and food selection**
2 **across wild ruminant species**

3

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16 **Rumen physiology constrains diet niche: linking digestive physiology and food selection**
17 **across wild ruminant species**

18

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20

21 **Abstract**

22 We propose a hypothesis for digestive constraints on the browsing and grazing options
23 available to ruminants: that the diet niche range (maximum and minimum grass intake) of a
24 species is dependent upon its predisposition to a stratified rumen contents, based on
25 observations that this characteristic is a critical step towards enhanced fibre digestion and
26 greater fluid throughput. We compare a physiological (heterogeneity of ingesta fluid content)
27 and an anatomical (the intraruminal papillation pattern) measure with dietary evidence for a
28 range of African and temperate species. Both measures are strongly related to the mean %
29 grass in species' natural diets, as well as to the maximum and minimum levels of grass
30 intake, respectively. The nature of these effects implies a stratification level threshold, below
31 which a species will not use a grass-based diet, but above which grass consumption can
32 increase exponentially. However, above this threshold, a minimum % grass in the diet is a
33 prerequisite for optimal performance. We argue that this second constraint is crucial, as it
34 depicts how a greater fluid throughput reduces potential for detoxification of plant secondary
35 compounds, and therefore limits the maximum amount of browse a stratifying species will
36 consume.

37

38 **Keywords:** Browsing; Carbon isotopes; Grazing; Rumen papillation; Rumen dry matter;
39 Stratification

40

41 **Introduction**

42 Ruminants are peculiar amongst herbivores, not only because of their unique digestive
43 systems, but also in the degree of anatomical and physiological convergence across species
44 sharing similar diet niches. At a broad, heuristic, but functionally realistic, scale, their diet
45 niches can be described as being either browse- or grass-based. Differences in digestive
46 morphology across these feeding styles were first described by Hoffman (1973). Since then,
47 numerous morphophysiological differences have been detailed across a wide range of species
48 (reviewed in Clauss et al. 2008*b*), and by now distinction can almost certainly be made
49 between two anatomical prototypes termed “moose-type” and “cattle-type”, respectively
50 (Clauss et al. 2010*b*). These terms are largely concordant with the more traditional terms
51 “browser” and “grazer”, respectively, but refer specifically to morphophysiological design,
52 upon which diet composition is at least partially dependent (Owen-Smith 1982; Clauss et al.
53 2003; Lechner et al. 2010).

54 One of the most consistent traits differentiating moose- from cattle-type ruminants is
55 the stratification of rumen contents. The rumen contents of moose-type species are
56 homogeneous, whereas in cattle-type species they are separated into a dorsal gas dome
57 overlaying a fibrous raft, a fluid layer below, and ‘sludge’ formed by very dense particles in
58 the most ventral strata (Hofmann 1973). Differences in stratification between species have
59 been demonstrated based on investigations on passage kinetics of fluids and particles in the
60 reticulorumen (Hummel et al. 2005; Clauss et al. 2006*b*; Lechner et al. 2010), physical
61 characteristics of rumen contents (Clauss et al. 2009*a*; Clauss et al. 2009*b*; Hummel et al.
62 2009), or by ultrasonographic investigations (Tschuor and Clauss 2008). Several anatomical
63 features appear to reflect differences in stratification across species, notably the papillation
64 pattern of the rumen wall. Whereas surface papillae are evenly distributed throughout the
65 rumen wall in moose-type species, cattle-type species show a consistent reduction of surface

66 papillae in the dorsal and ventral rumen wall, relative to the atrium (Hofmann 1973; Clauss et
67 al. 2009a; 2009b). The heterogeneous papillation pattern of the cattle-type rumen probably
68 reflects the absence of volatile fatty acids (VFAs) in the gas dome of the dorsal rumen, and
69 sludge layer of the ventral rumen, since VFAs are known to stimulate papillae development
70 (Sakata and Tamate 1978; 1979).

71 Differences in stratification are expected to have ecological significance for ruminants
72 because they might constrain a species to a browsing or grazing (or mixed-feeding) niche
73 (Owen-Smith 1982; Clauss et al. 2003; Lechner et al. 2010). Early research revealed that the
74 presence of a heterogeneous papillation pattern was typical of grazing species (Hofmann
75 1973; Owen-Smith 1982; Hofmann 1989). Indeed, stratification has long been accepted as a
76 mechanism for increased particle retention (and hence more efficient digestion of dietary
77 fibre that would benefit species feeding on grass) in the rumen of domestic taxa (Lechner-
78 Doll et al. 1991; Hristov et al. 2003). Several anatomical traits associated with stratification,
79 including the papillation gradient, showed significant correlations with the percent grass
80 composition of species' natural diets (Clauss et al. 2003; Clauss et al. 2009c). Thus, the
81 papillation gradient in cattle-type species was interpreted as the consequence of adaptations
82 to a grazing niche, adaptations that would have lead to elevated fluid throughput through the
83 rumen, with the resulting benefits of an increased microbial protein harvest and formation of
84 a fibre raft that aids in particle retention (Clauss et al. 2010b). The absence of a papillation
85 gradient in moose-type species was interpreted as the consequence of a viscous proteinaceous
86 saliva functioning as defense against secondary plant compounds common in browse forages
87 (Clauss et al. 2010b). However, these interpretations are largely contingent on whether
88 anatomical traits are reliable proxies for stratification, but such systematic associations
89 between anatomy and physiology have rarely been demonstrated. Two recent studies did
90 demonstrate a more heterogeneous rumen fluid content in species that habitually feed on

91 grass compared to browsing species, but included only a small number of taxa (Clauss et al.
92 2009a; Clauss et al. 2009b).

93 In this study we explore how rumen physiology, in particular the predisposition for a
94 stratified rumen content, could influence the facultative range of diet options available to, and
95 used by, ruminant species. We hypothesized that differences in average grass composition in
96 the natural diet closely reflects differences in stratification across species, and that the level
97 of stratification also defines the greater (maximum) and lesser (minimum) levels of grass
98 eaten. We test these predictions using new and previously published data (Clauss et al.
99 2009a; Clauss et al. 2009b) on variations in dry matter (DM) concentrations of ingesta within
100 the rumen of shot animals: in fistulated cattle (*Bos taurus* L., 1758), this measure, more than
101 differences in flotation characteristics and particles sizes, could be consistently demonstrated
102 irrespective of diet and time since feeding (Hummel et al. 2009), and thus represents species-
103 specific stratification trends. We compare these data with the anatomical papillation patterns
104 of the species in our sample (Clauss et al. 2009c), and with their diet compositions as
105 reported in the literature or inferred from stable carbon isotope analysis of body tissues of the
106 shot animals.

107

108 **Methods**

109 *Data Collection*

110 We determined DM concentrations in the dorsal and ventral rumen contents of six
111 African ruminant species from the Soetdoring and Tussen-die-Riviere Nature Reserves in the
112 Free State Province, South Africa. The region forms part of the grassland biome of the central
113 interior of the country (Rutherford and Westfall 1994), typified by sandy, open grassland
114 habitats that are largely treeless except along river courses. In our sample, four species are
115 grazers (average diet includes >80% grass: red hartebeest *Alcelaphus buselaphus* (Pallas,

116 1766), $n = 2$, blesbok *Damaliscus pygargus phillipsi* (Pallas, 1767), $n = 6$, black wildebeest
117 *Connochaetes gnou* (Zimmerman, 1780), $n = 5$, and gemsbok *Oryx gazella* (L., 1758), $n = 4$,
118 one species is a mixed-feeder (springbok *Antidorcas marsupialis* (Zimmerman, 1780), $n =$
119 10), and one a browser (average diet includes <20% grass: greater kudu *Tragelaphus*
120 *strepsiceros* (Pallas, 1766), $n = 3$). All animals had been shot during routine hunting
121 programs of Free State Nature Conservation in 2007. Rumen contents were sampled
122 following protocols applied in the previous studies (Clauss et al. 2009a; 2009b).

123 Samples were placed into plastic bags and stored frozen until dry matter analysis, i.e.
124 drying samples at 103°C for 24 hours to constant weight. We then combined these data with
125 published data for temperate zone ruminants, including one grazer (American bison *Bison*
126 *bison* (L., 1758), $n = 10$, Clauss et al. 2009b), two mixed-feeders (and mouflon *Ovis ammon*
127 *musimon* (L., 1758), $n = 19$, Clauss et al. 2009a; red deer *Cervus elaphus* L., 1758, $n = 17$,
128 Clauss et al. 2009b), and two browsers (moose *Alces alces* (L., 1758), $n = 17$, and roe deer
129 *Capreolus capreolus* (L., 1758), $n = 23$; Clauss et al. 2009a). Stratification was determined as
130 the arithmetic difference in DM concentration between dorsal and ventral rumen content of
131 each individual.

132 Anatomical stratification of the rumen was quantified by the surface enlargement
133 factor (SEF) of the dorsal rumen, expressed as a percentage of the SEF of the atrium. This
134 relative dorsal rumen SEF provides a measure of stratification because it reflects the
135 difference in papillation between the dorsal rumen and the site of maximum papillation (data
136 from Clauss et al. 2009c, and references therein).

137 Data for the diets of temperate zone species were taken from the literature, averaging
138 results from a variety of studies that included % grass in the natural diet (see supplementary
139 material). For African species, however, more reliable and scale-specific data are available in
140 the form of stable carbon isotope compositions of body tissues of the same individuals as

141 sampled for rumen content. These data provide a proxy for % grass in the diet, because they
142 reflect relative proportions of C₃ (browse) and C₄ (grass) biomass consumed (Vogel 1978;
143 Lee-Thorp and van der Merwe 1987; Cerling and Harris 1999). We sampled a fragment of
144 the rumen epithelium from each individual, which was later cleaned, freeze-dried, and
145 analyzed for ¹³C/¹²C composition on a Delta XP Mass Spectrometer (Finnigan, Bremen,
146 Germany). Each sample was combusted in an automated elemental analyzer (Carlo Erba,
147 Milan, Italy), and CO₂ gas was introduced to the Mass Spectrometer via a continuous inlet
148 system. Stable carbon isotope ratios are reported in *per mil* (‰) relative to the Vienna
149 PeeDee Belemnite Standard (VPBD) using delta (δ) notation. The standard deviation of
150 replicate analyses of internal laboratory standards was less than 0.05 ‰. A linear two-source
151 mixing model was used to convert δ¹³C values to estimates of percent C₄ (grass) in the diet.
152 We assumed globally-averaged C₃ and C₄ endpoint values of -27.0 and -12.5 ‰, respectively
153 (Cerling and Harris 1999), and a diet-tissue enrichment factor of 1.5 ‰ as reported for
154 muscle tissue in alpaca *Llama pacos* (L., 1758) (Sponheimer et al. 2006).

155

156 *Statistical Analysis*

157 Hypotheses were tested using simple linear and nonlinear regression (Nonlinear
158 Estimation module of Statistica V8; Statsoft_Inc 2007) analysis of relationships between
159 physiological (differences in dorsal and ventral rumen DM concentrations) and anatomical
160 (relative SEF_{dorsal rumen}) stratification measures, and between both datasets with species' diets.
161 To investigate effects of stratification on diet, we used the mean, as well as the maximum and
162 minimum, percent grass in the diet of each species. We then extended these analyses to a
163 larger dataset of 59 taxa (SEF data only; see Clauss et al. 2009c). In all cases, we fitted a
164 variety of linear and non-linear equations to the data, and selected best-fit models based on
165 lowest residual variance and highest R^2 , with the criterion that slopes converged on estimates

166 that differed significantly from zero at 95% confidence. Residuals were consistently
167 homogeneous. Models yielding non-normally distributed residuals (Shapiro-Wilks Test) were
168 discarded. Depending on the data, selected models were either linear, exponential
169 ($y = ae^{bx}$), or logarithmic ($y = a + b \cdot \log(x + 1)$). We then explored the predictive capacity
170 of these relationships by comparing predicted grass intake for impala *Aepyceros melampus*
171 (Lichtenstein, 1812) (based on reported dry and wet season relative SEF_{dorsal rumen} of this, and
172 model parameters derived in this study) with an independent dataset of its dietary variations
173 in nature. Comparative data are from carbon isotope analysis of faeces from Kruger National
174 Park, South Africa, representing five southern African savanna habitat types over a full year
175 at monthly intervals (Codron et al. 2006).

176 To control for potential phylogenetic effects, we conducted independent contrasts
177 analysis, based on the phylogeny proposed by Bininda-Emonds et al. (2007). The tree and
178 data matrix were input into the Phylogenetic Diversity Analysis Program (PDAP) for
179 Mesquite Ver. 2.5 (Midford et al. 2003; Maddison and Maddison 2008). Analysis of
180 independent contrasts are not suitable for nonlinear effects (Quader et al. 2004), thus data for
181 the PDAP matrix was log_e-transformed prior to phylogenetic analysis. Branch lengths were
182 transformed using Grafen's Rho transformation, and relationships between contrasts
183 evaluated by linear least squares regression through the origin.

184 Often the types of analyses we used would also require controlling for effects of body
185 mass on morphology, physiology, and even diet, using, for example, ANCOVA or multiple
186 regression models. However, there were no significant effects of body mass on either
187 measure of stratification, nor on diet (see Table 1). Thus, there seemed no reason to include
188 body mass as a covariate in our analyses.

189

190 **Results**

191 Rumen stratification patterns

192 With regards to DM concentrations of rumen content, the prediction was that, as in
193 other ruminants, ventral rumen contents of the new taxa sampled for this study should be
194 more moist than dorsal rumen contents, especially amongst primarily grazing taxa. In most
195 individuals, a greater DM concentration was found in dorsal compared with ventral rumen
196 content (see supplementary material), although the sample is too small to make reliable
197 pairwise statistical comparisons. Nonetheless, the mean difference between DM
198 concentrations of the dorsal and ventral rumen content of each species was similar to that
199 reported for temperate zone ruminants (Fig. 1), and two-way ANOVA revealed no significant
200 differences between new and previously published data ($F_{1, 112} = 0.569$; $p = 0.45$). In the
201 combined dataset, there was an effect of feeding style on DM differences ($F_{2, 112} = 13.074$; p
202 < 0.0001), with grazers having greater mean differences than mixed-feeders and browsers
203 (Bonferonni-adjusted *post hoc* test; $p < 0.0001$); this pattern was consistent between the two
204 datasets (interaction $p = 0.82$).

205

206 Intraruminal papillation as an anatomical proxy for stratification

207 The rumen papillation pattern (relative $SEF_{\text{dorsal rumen}}$) closely reflected differences in
208 content stratification across the 11 species for which $DM_{\text{rumen content}}$ data are available ($R^2 =$
209 0.71 , $p < 0.001$; Fig. 2a), even after accounting for phylogeny ($R^2 = 0.80$, $p < 0.001$; Table 1).

210

211 Species diets

212 Stable carbon isotope data for the African specimens were congruent with previously
213 published data for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of other tissues of these and related taxa from the central
214 interior, and from elsewhere in southern Africa (Sponheimer 2003; Codron et al. 2007a;
215 Codron et al. 2008), and with dietary predictions of the literature (e.g. Gagnon and Chew

216 2000; but see Codron et al. 2007a) as reflected by results of the mixing model (see
217 supplementary material).

218

219 Relationships between stratification and diet

220 The mean % grass in species' diets increased consistently with an increase in ingesta
221 stratification across species ($R^2 = 0.93, p < 0.0001$; Fig. 3a). The maximum % grass eaten
222 also showed a significant, but slightly weaker, response to increases in stratification ($R^2 =$
223 $0.78, p < 0.0001$; Fig. 3b), but the minimum % grass intake was again very strongly
224 dependent on stratification ($R^2 = 0.91, p < 0.0001$; Fig. 3c). The differences in strengths of
225 these effects are also indicated by differences in their respective slopes (Table 1), but note
226 that while the mean and maximum % grass intake were nonlinearly related to stratification,
227 the effect on the minimum was linear. As predicted, and concurring with the significant
228 relationship between ingesta and anatomical stratification (Fig. 2), % grass in species' diets
229 decreased along an axis of increasing relative $SEF_{\text{dorsal rumen}}$, i.e. grass consumption was
230 lowest in species with a less stratified papillation pattern ($R^2 = 0.93, p < 0.0001$; Fig. 3d). The
231 effect was also significant for differences in maximum and minimum grass intake, but was
232 again weaker for the former ($R^2 = 0.76, p < 0.0001$; Fig. 3e) than the latter ($R^2 = 0.93, p <$
233 0.0001 ; Fig. 3f). Phylogeny did not seem to influence these results (Table 1), suggesting a
234 high degree of convergence in physiological and anatomical stratification with respect to diet.

235 The effect of a reduced grass intake along the axis of increasing relative $SEF_{\text{dorsal rumen}}$
236 is supported by analysis of a larger dataset (59 taxa; Clauss et al. 2009c). A similar negative
237 exponential relationship was found for these 59 species ($R^2 = 0.64, p < 0.0001$;
238 phylogenetically-controlled $R^2 = 0.54, p < 0.0001$; Fig. 4) as for the initial 11 taxa included in
239 the study. Importantly, despite the difference in sample size, models for the two datasets
240 yielded similar parameter estimates (Table 1) with overlapping 95% confidence intervals.

241 Interestingly, in our analysis of the larger dataset, there appeared to be two discernable
242 “grades”, which we identified as representing African and non-African species, respectively.
243 When analyzed separately, the model for African taxa predicted a significantly stronger slope
244 than for non-African taxa (95% CI: -0.038 to -0.073 and -0.023 to -0.032, respectively) but
245 similar intercept. A stronger effect of stratification on diet amongst African taxa was also
246 found for phylogenetically-controlled analyses (Table 1). No similar distinction between the
247 strength of the stratification effect on diet could be made for Cervidae (slope -0.026, CI -
248 0.010 to -0.041) compared with non-African Bovidae (slope -0.021, CI -0.007 to -0.036).

249

250 Testing effects of stratification: dietary variations in impala

251 Using model parameters derived for Figs 3d to 3f, and data for impala $SEF_{\text{dorsal rumen}}$
252 presented in Hofmann (1973), we calculated ‘expected’ diet values for this species. Although
253 not included in our sample, impala are an interesting species for investigating the nature of
254 ruminant diets because they are notorious mixed-feeders that switch and mix their diets
255 across almost all levels of the browser-grazer continuum. This behaviour was exemplified in
256 a study of regional and seasonal diet variations in the Kruger National Park, South Africa,
257 based on carbon isotope analysis of faeces (Codron et al. 2006). Actual diet (the mean %
258 grass intake for any one region or month) frequently exceeded the maximum predicted grass
259 intake, but was never less than the predicted minimum (Table 2). Hofmann (1989) also
260 proposed that seasonal diet switches, from browsing in the dry season to grazing in the wet
261 season, are preceded by a change in rumen papillation patterns from homogeneously plentiful
262 to a more stratified distribution. Adapting our calculations to incorporate seasonal differences
263 in the relative $SEF_{\text{dorsal rumen}}$ (data for “browsing” and “grazing” impala in Hofmann 1973) did
264 not impact the initial findings: impala never ate less grass than the predicted minimum, even

265 in the wet season when the predicted level was as great as 33%. The seasonally-explicit
266 approach also improved predictions for the maximum grass intake (Table 2).

267

268 **Discussion**

269 Although several previous studies have demonstrated differences in stratification
270 across species with different diet niches (Hummel et al. 2005; Clauss et al. 2006b; Hummel et
271 al. 2008b; Tschuor and Clauss 2008; Clauss et al. 2009a; Clauss et al. 2009b; Hummel et al.
272 2009; Lechner et al. 2010), no African bovid, with exception of the addax antelope *Addax*
273 *nasomaculatus* (Blainville, 1816), was included in the investigations. African bovids were, so
274 far, only included in data collections on anatomical proxies for rumen contents stratification
275 and fluid throughput, such as the ruminal papillation pattern (Clauss et al. 2009c), and
276 reticular and omasal anatomy (Clauss et al. 2006a; 2010a). Findings of this study suggest that
277 physiological concepts on differences in rumen contents stratification and rumen fluid
278 throughput developed mainly on ruminant species from the temperate zone can probably be
279 transferred to many African species as well. The intraruminal papillation pattern, which
280 already showed a good correlation with a physiological parameter describing contents
281 stratification (the difference in fluid and particle passage, see Clauss et al. 2009c), also
282 correlates with a simple physical measurement related to the same phenomenon (the
283 difference in dorsal and ventral rumen fluid concentration), and can therefore be considered a
284 good proxy for this crucial characteristic in ruminants. Both measures in the present study
285 also produced similar results when related to botanical composition of species diets,
286 highlighting the connection between anatomical differences between moose- and cattle-type
287 ruminants and their respective diet niches.

288 It is necessary to consider some limitations to our data. The sample size is small, both
289 in terms of number of individuals per species and the number of species for which we present

290 data, and further observations are necessary to validate our results. Postmortem mixing of
291 rumen contents is another potential concern, especially as animals used were not kept upright
292 after being shot, but this is probably unavoidable for studies using dead rather than fistulated
293 live animals (Clauss et al. 2009*b*). Nonetheless, it seems unlikely that these factors
294 significantly altered arising patterns, qualitatively, and even quantitatively. For stratification
295 of ingesta content, we found no quantitative differences between our data and published data
296 for temperate species of similar feeding styles, despite the small sample size and thus greater
297 standard deviations in the African dataset. Both datasets also produced similar effects when
298 correlated with the relative SEF of the dorsal rumen. Although we only have data on ingesta
299 stratification for 11 species, we also found very similar relationships between diet and
300 relative SEF for both these data and a larger dataset of 59 taxa; therefore, it can be expected
301 that data for ingesta content in other species will yield similar relationships with diet.

302 Our approach using diet as the dependent variable differs conceptually from many
303 traditional approaches to ruminant diversification. In most studies, morphological and
304 physiological traits are either compared between categorical feeding types (as in Fig. 1 of this
305 study), or studied along a continuous axis of resource-use differentiation; for features related
306 to diet, this axis is typically % grass or % browse in the natural diet as the independent
307 variable (e.g. Pérez-Barbería et al. 2004; Mendoza and Palmqvist 2006; Codron et al. 2007*b*).
308 Maybe often used simply for (unconscious) historical reasons, this approach focuses on
309 functional morphophysiological differences of animals in different dietary niches. One major
310 exception is Owen-Smith (1997), who discussed the facultative range of species' diets with
311 respect to Hofmann's (1973) anatomical descriptions, and provided evidence to support
312 anatomical and physiological constraints on the foraging preferences of browsers and grazers.
313 Such an approach, although mainly a matter of choice rather than reflecting the nature of the

314 data themselves, shifts the focus from the evolution of adaptations to the ecological
315 consequences and implications of these adaptations.

316 The nonlinear relationships observed in some cases may have significance for
317 interpreting ecological consequences. Many morphophysiological traits do not show a
318 distinct linear relationship with dietary niche, i.e. % grass in the natural diet (Janis 1995;
319 Clauss et al. 2006a; Codron et al. 2007b; Clauss et al. 2008a; Hofmann et al. 2008; Clauss et
320 al. 2009c). Such effects could be expected if the two opposite ends of the perceived
321 dichotomy – grass and browse – do not require alternatively exclusive adaptations, but a
322 range of adaptations may correspond to the same dietary niche (see examples of hypsodont
323 grazers and browsers in Mendoza et al. 2002). Alternatively, a nonlinear shape could also
324 indicate threshold levels, above and below which utilization of the ‘other’ feeding niche
325 becomes an option. Lechner et al. (2010) proposed that diet niche is not continuously related
326 to rumen physiology, but above some threshold (where ruminants would be disadvantaged on
327 anything but a strictly browse diet), niches can be expanded to mixed-feeding or even pure
328 grazing. Their assertion is supported by the asymptotic-like (i.e. positive logarithmic) effect
329 of stratification on mean % grass in species’ natural diets observed in the current study. This
330 pattern can be interpreted as indicating that % grass intake is held low (say < 20%) in species
331 that lack stratification, but small increases in this capacity beyond a relatively low critical
332 level rapidly or exponentially increase faculties for grazing. This hypothesis also explains
333 why stratification appeared to place lesser constraints on the upper levels of grass
334 consumption.

335 However, stratification seems to strongly constrain the minimum amount of grass a
336 species will eat – at both inter- and intraspecific levels (see Fig. 3c, and Table 2), and thus
337 diet niche does not necessarily expand indefinitely with stratification, but at some point
338 becomes restricted to a maximum tolerable level of browse intake. A convenient explanation

339 for this pattern is that animals that rely on browse material only must cope with a very high
340 load of secondary plant compounds – which necessitate, apart from avoidance via selective
341 feeding (Cooper and Owen-Smith 1985), salivary proteins that neutralize some of these
342 compounds (Robbins et al. 1995; Fickel et al. 1998). These proteins might explain the
343 observed greater rumen fluid viscosity observed in these ruminants (Robbins et al. 1995;
344 Jones et al. 2001; Clauss et al. 2009a; Clauss et al. 2009b; Lechner et al. 2010), and the
345 necessity for their production may be a reason for the larger salivary glands in ‘moose-type’
346 ruminants (Hofmann et al. 2008). However, this size difference may still not be large enough
347 to allow ‘moose-type’ ruminants a greater saliva fluid production, which might represent a
348 compromising effect due to the concomitant dilution of salivary proteins (Hofmann et al.
349 2008). In ‘cattle-type’ ruminants, rumen contents can be more stratified because production
350 of high protein, viscous saliva is not necessary, and hence more non viscous saliva is
351 produced.

352

353 Ruminants in Africa: special constraints due to C₄-grasses

354 Owen-Smith (1997) suggested that African ruminants are more constrained in their
355 diet ranges because tropical C₄ grasses pose more of a challenge for digestion and nutrient
356 extraction compared with C₃ grasses to which most ruminants in temperate and other climates
357 are exposed. This phenomenon would account for the relative scarcity of true intermediate-
358 feeders in Africa, whereas globally this is the most prominent feeding style (Hofmann 1989;
359 Codron et al. 2008), and could also account for the lack of a true grazer guild amongst may
360 temperate groups, notably the Cervidae (Geist 1999). Our analyses revealed that the effect of
361 rumen stratification on diet is stronger in African ruminants compared with non-African
362 species. Thus grazing African ruminants required a more pronounced increase in stratification
363 (with presumably a greater intensity of the potentially advantageous effects of fluid

364 throughput and stratification mentioned above), followed by a very sharp transition at some
365 greater level. For non-African taxa, the slope of this trend approaches linearity, depicting an
366 easier transition from a browse to a grass-based diet. These findings are in accord with the
367 limited diet ranges of most African species, and suggest a physiological constraint to the
368 ability of African species that do graze to switch to browse-rich diets. The observed
369 difference could have been a historical coincidence because native cervids are absent from
370 Africa, but there was no difference in the effect between Cervidae and non-African bovids.
371 Phylogenetically-controlled analysis also indicate the effect was different for African versus
372 non-African species (Table 1), further indicating an environmental (i.e. C₄ grass abundance)
373 rather than taxonomic factor. A similar mechanism differentiating the evolution of
374 craniodental traits in African and non-African taxa has also been suggested (Cerling et al.
375 2005; MacFadden 2005). At the very least, differences between C₄- and C₃-grass feeding
376 warrant further investigation; we suggest, however, that all investigations of feeding style
377 incorporating African and non-African taxa will need to explicitly differentiate between
378 effects of these two very different grass sources.

379

380 Predictions for Ruminant Nutritional Ecology

381 Explanations for diet variations of ruminants, and their ecological consequences, are
382 an important component of wildlife ecology and conservation biology (du Toit 2003; Owen-
383 Smith 2008). Previously, reconciliation of the different approaches and outcomes of
384 physiological investigations on gut constraints compared with ecological approaches to
385 consumer behaviour have been approached mainly in terms of effects of gut capacity on
386 intake (Owen-Smith 1994; Whelan and Brown 2005). We have advanced a physiological
387 mechanism in ruminants that could define variations in specific diet compositions (see Searle
388 and Shipley 2008 for further discussion on food selection). Diet variations in ruminants are

389 mostly facultative, thus we do not suggest limitations imposed by digestive
390 morphophysiology do not have to make feeding in alternate niches impossible. It is possible,
391 for instance, to maintain a 'moose-type' ruminant on a purely grass-based diet or a 'cattle-
392 type' ruminant on a purely browse-based diet – at least for a period of several weeks to
393 months (Lechner et al. 2010), but there may be reductions in animal performance. As an
394 example, differences in dental design (Kaiser et al. 2010) and mastication muscles (Clauss et
395 al. 2008a) between browsing and grazing ruminants do not mean that the ingestion of the
396 'other' resource is a physical or physiological impossibility – it just translates into slight
397 differences in chewing efficiency (Hummel et al. 2008a; Lechner et al. 2010). An important
398 prediction we make is that whereas a ruminant might ingest a greater proportion of grass than
399 indicated by its 'predisposition to stratified rumen contents' (because grass can
400 physiologically be exploited even without a distinct stratification of rumen contents), it
401 should not ingest a greater proportion of browse than indicated by this predisposition
402 (because this predisposition is assumed to be the consequence of the production of defensive
403 salivary proteins). We suggest that external factors of ecology and the environment are likely
404 to become drivers of diet choice only when diet deviates above or below maximum and
405 minimum levels of grass intake predicted by rumen stratification level; within this range
406 nutrient acquisition might be such that diet choice is largely random, which could explain
407 why herbivores are so often observed to feed, apparently, sub-optimally. Whether a reduction
408 in grass intake below a predicted minimum leads to reduced fitness, e.g. body condition,
409 growth, survivorship, or fertility, presents an interesting question for future study.

410

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422

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- 592

Table 1. Statistics for regression models relating anatomical and physiological stratification proxies to % grass in the natural diet, including models based on raw data, and on phylogenetically independent contrasts. The lack of significant effects of body mass on these data are also shown.

Effect	Response variable	Analysis of raw data				Analysis of independent contrasts		
		R ² (best-fit)	<i>p</i>	Intercept	Slope	R ²	<i>p</i>	Slope
<i>11 taxa with DM data available</i>								
DM difference	% grass (mean)	0.93 (log)	<0.0001	11.558	42.310	0.91	<0.0001	39.160
	% grass (max)	0.78 (log)	<0.0001	32.136	36.765	0.71	<0.01	37.554
	% grass (min)	0.91 (lin)	<0.0001	3.284*	13.645	0.82	<0.001	37.689
SEF _{dorsal rumen} (% of SEF _{atrium})	% grass (mean)	0.93 (exp)	<0.0001	122.684	-0.055	0.89	<0.0001	-40.019
SEF _{atrium}	% grass (max)	0.76 (exp)	<0.0001	113.648	-0.027	0.82	<0.001	-37.689
	% grass (min)	0.93 (exp)	<0.0001	138.525	-0.104	0.76	<0.001	-39.852
Body mass	DM difference	0.08 (lin)	0.31	1.658*	0.008*	0.13	0.28	-0.286
	SEF _{dorsal rumen} (% of SEF _{atrium})	0.04 (lin)	0.06	29.572*	-0.046*	0.16	0.23	0.324
	% grass (mean)	0.02 (lin)	0.05	48.536*	0.050*	0.06	0.46	8.456
	% grass (max)	0.00 (lin)	<0.05	70.076	0.005*	0.01	0.73	4.289
	% grass (min)	0.06 (lin)	0.24	28.031*	0.090*	0.12	0.30	11.745
<i>59 taxa from (Clauss et al. 2009c)</i>								
SEF _{dorsal rumen} (% of SEF _{atrium})	% grass (mean)	0.64 (exp)	<0.0001	101.821	-0.034	0.54	<0.0001	-29.550
Body mass	SEF _{dorsal rumen} (% of SEF _{atrium})	0.01 (lin)	0.38	30.782	-0.016*	0.00	0.60	-0.051
	% grass (mean)	0.03 (lin)	0.16	41.888	0.038*	0.00	0.96	0.205
<i>29 African Bovidae and Giraffe (Giraffa camelopardalis):</i>								
SEF _{dorsal rumen} (% of SEF _{atrium})	% grass (mean)	0.82 (exp)	<0.0001	114.072	-0.055	0.73	<0.0001	-35.744
<i>30 non-African taxa:</i>								
SEF _{dorsal rumen} (% of SEF _{atrium})	% grass (mean)	0.57 (exp)	<0.0001	93.197	-0.023	0.50	<0.0001	-25.628

DM difference = arithmetic difference in dry matter concentration between dorsal and ventral rumen content; SEF = surface enlargement factor; % grass = % grass in the natural diet (models for mean % grass, maximum % grass, and minimum % grass in the diet); BM = body mass; exp = exponential regression model, log = logarithmic regression model, lin = linear regression model (selected on best-fit, i.e. lowest residual variance); Analysis of phylogenetically independent contrasts was by linear least squares regression through the origin, using ln-transformed data for DM difference, relative SEF, and Body mass.

* Indicates parameter estimate not significantly different from zero.

Table 2. Comparison between measured % grass in the diet of impala *Aepyceros melampus* (Lichtenstein, 1812), estimated from $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of faeces from Kruger National Park, South Africa (Codron et al. 2006), with diet ranges predicted based on ruminal papillation patterns.

Season	SEF dorsal rumen (% of atrium)	Empirical data			Predicted			% occurrences:	
		Mean	Max	Min	Mean	Max	Min	> Max	< Min
Overall	25	60	88	16	31	58	10	63	0
Dry season	33	54	82	5	20	46	4	33	0
Wet season	14	66	88	33	57	78	32	10	0

Predicted diets modeled using derived relationships between % grass in the natural diet with the relative SEF of the dorsal rumen (Fig. 3; Table 1). Data for seasonal differences in SEF are based on Hofmann (1973) for “browsing” and “grazing” seasons, respectively.

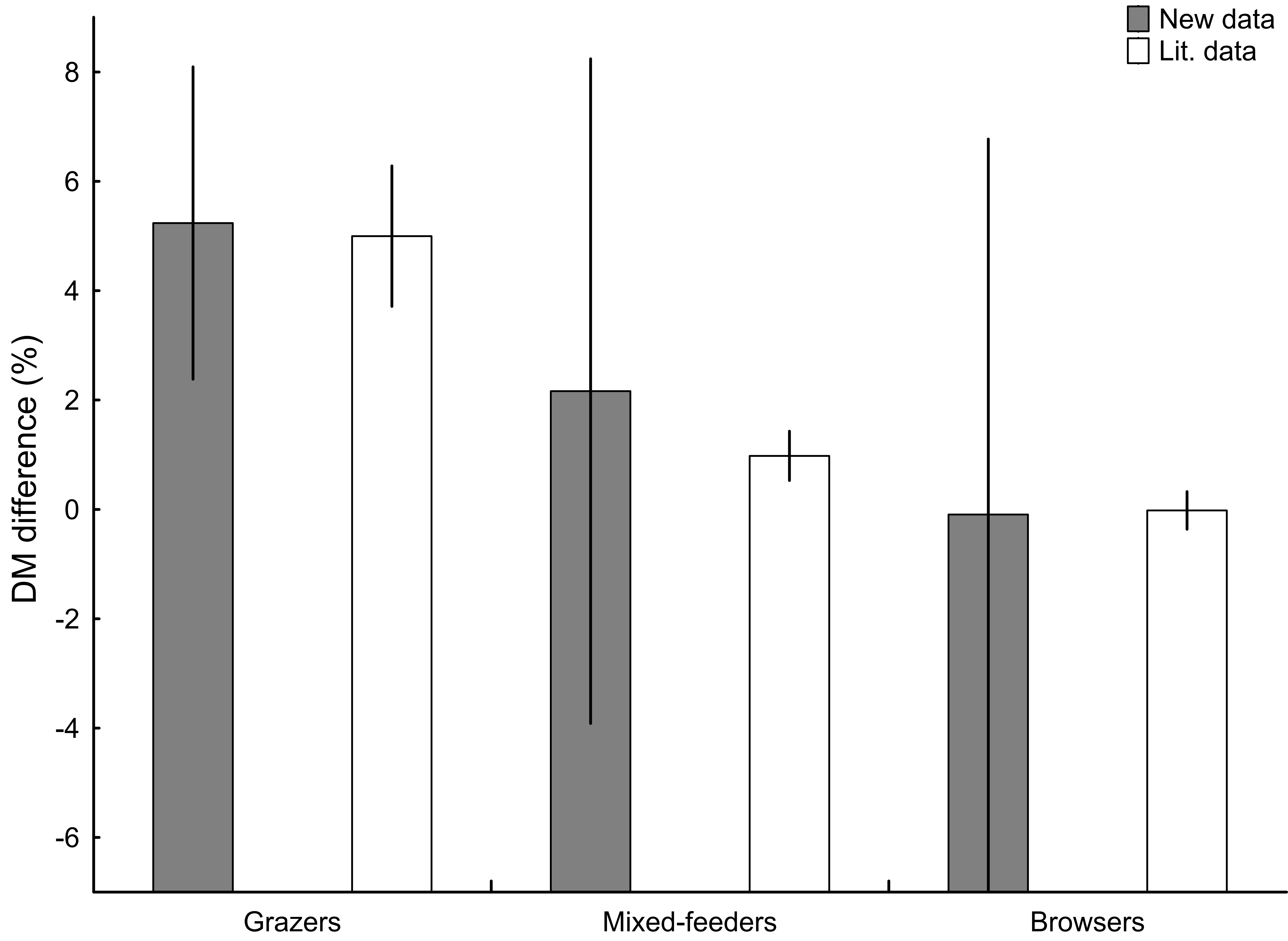
Figure Legends

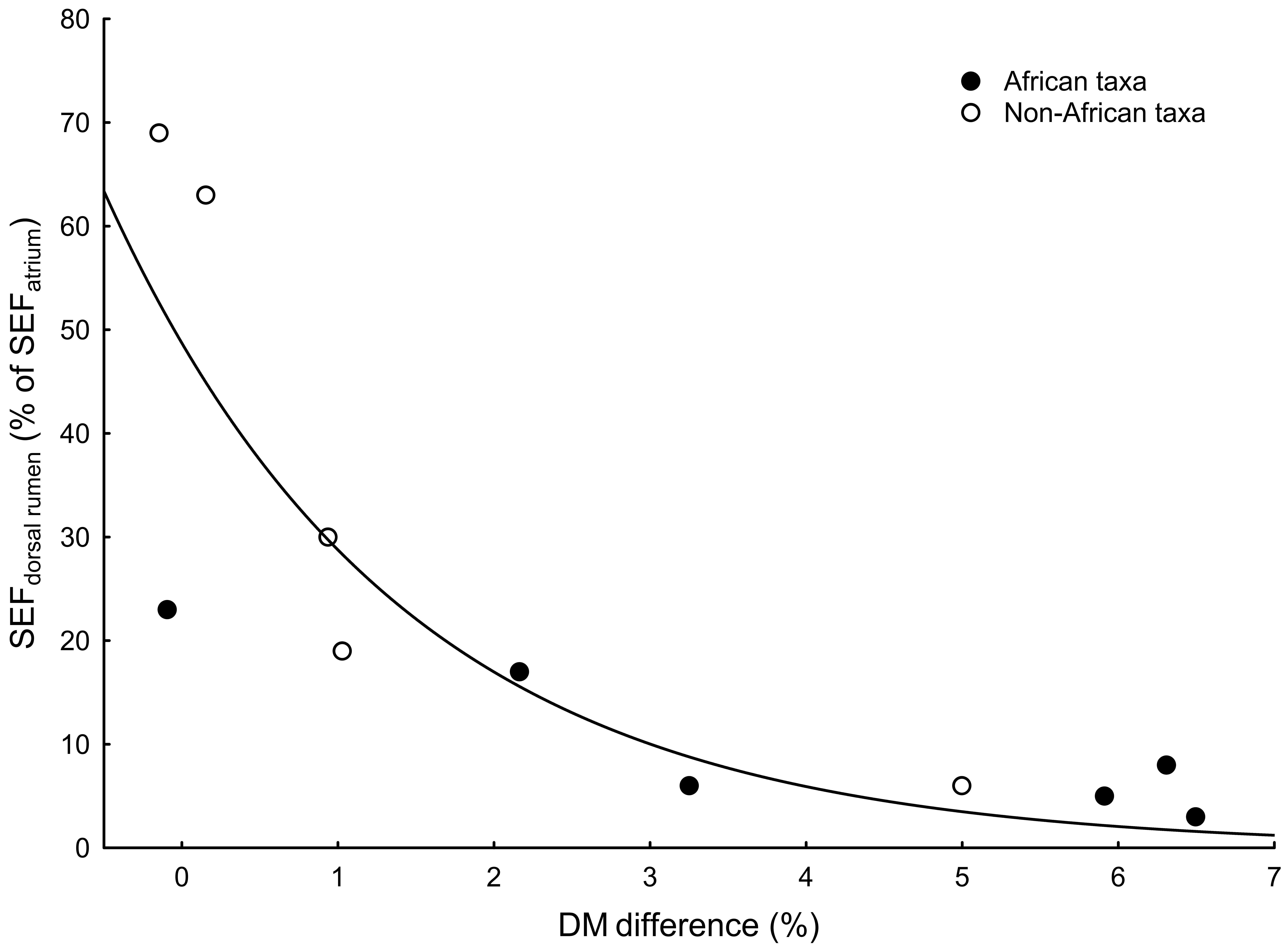
Figure 1. Mean pairwise differences (with 95% confidence intervals) between dorsal and ventral rumen DM (% dry matter) content across 11 ruminant species with different feeding styles. Grazers are species with mean % grass consumption >80%, browsers consume <10% grass on average; New data = data for African ruminants generated in this study; Lit. data = previously published data (see supplementary material for details).

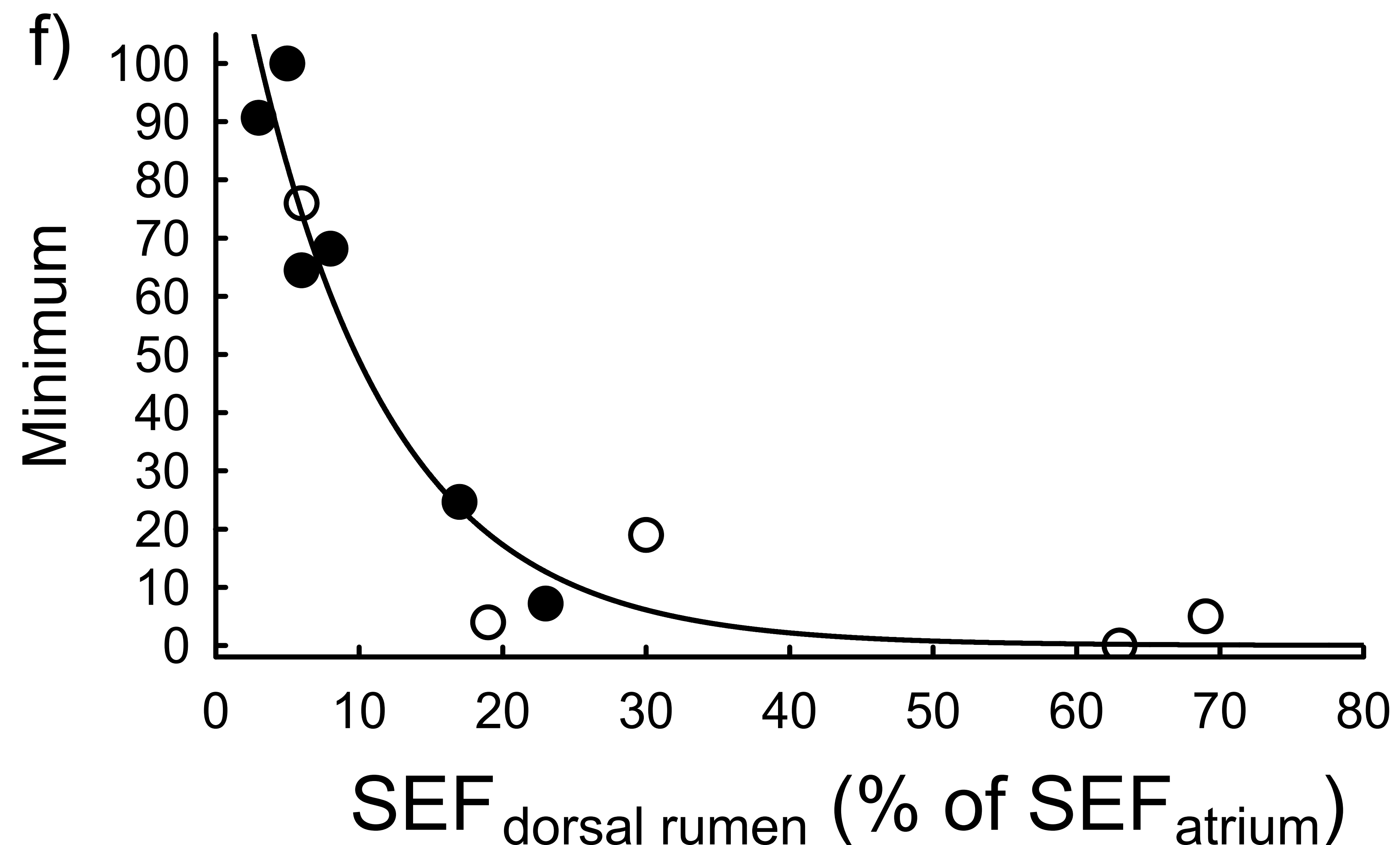
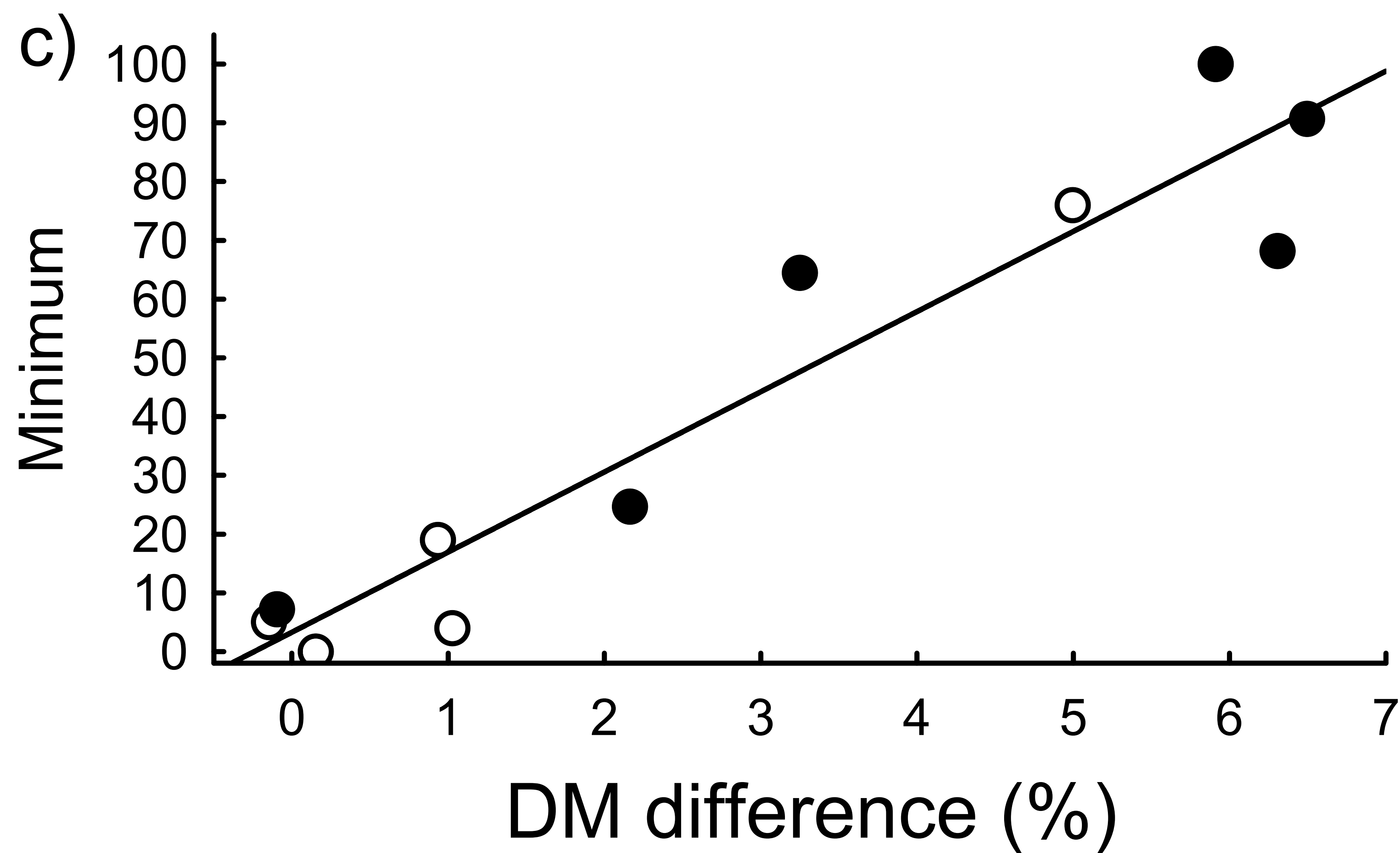
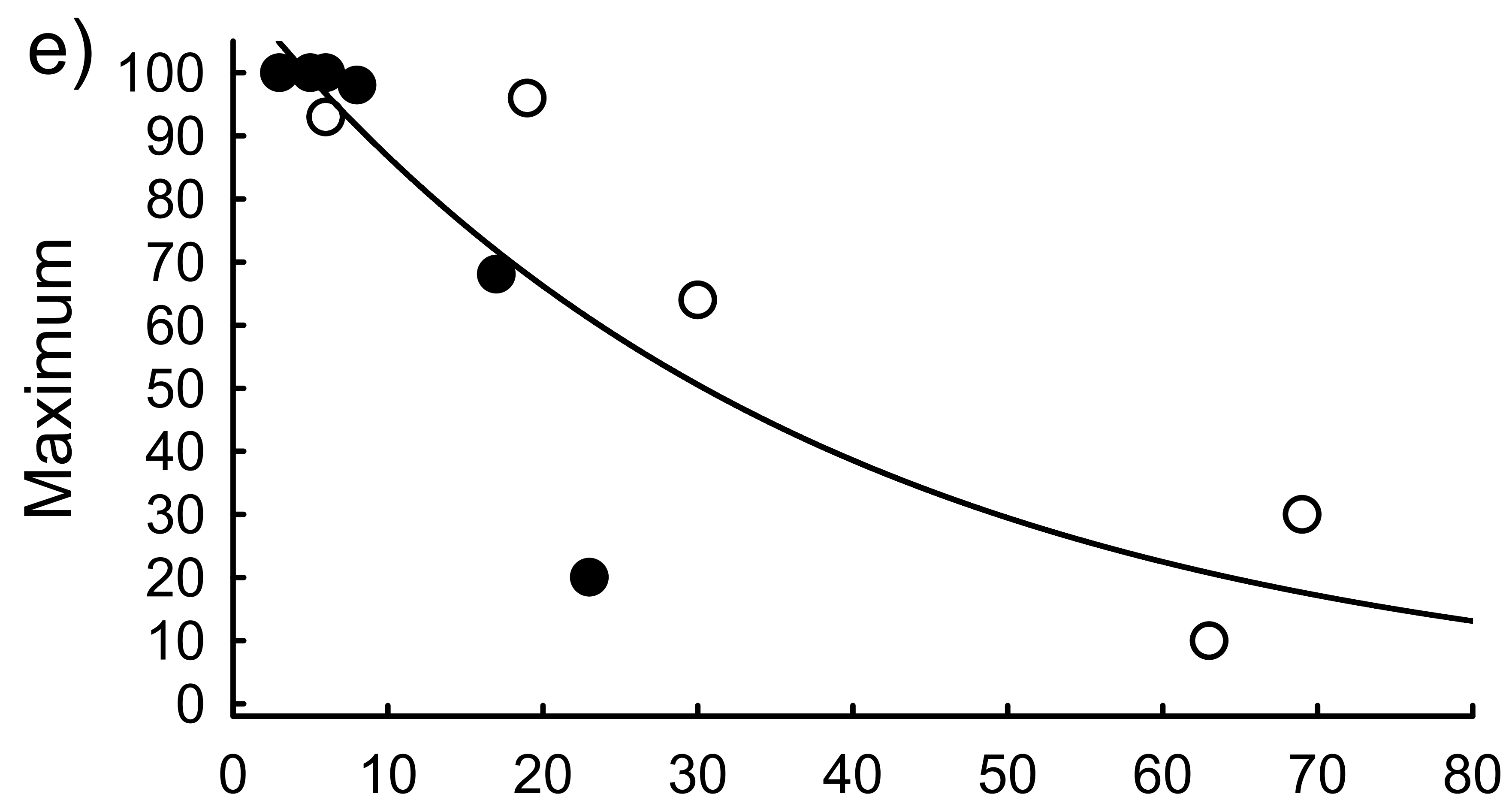
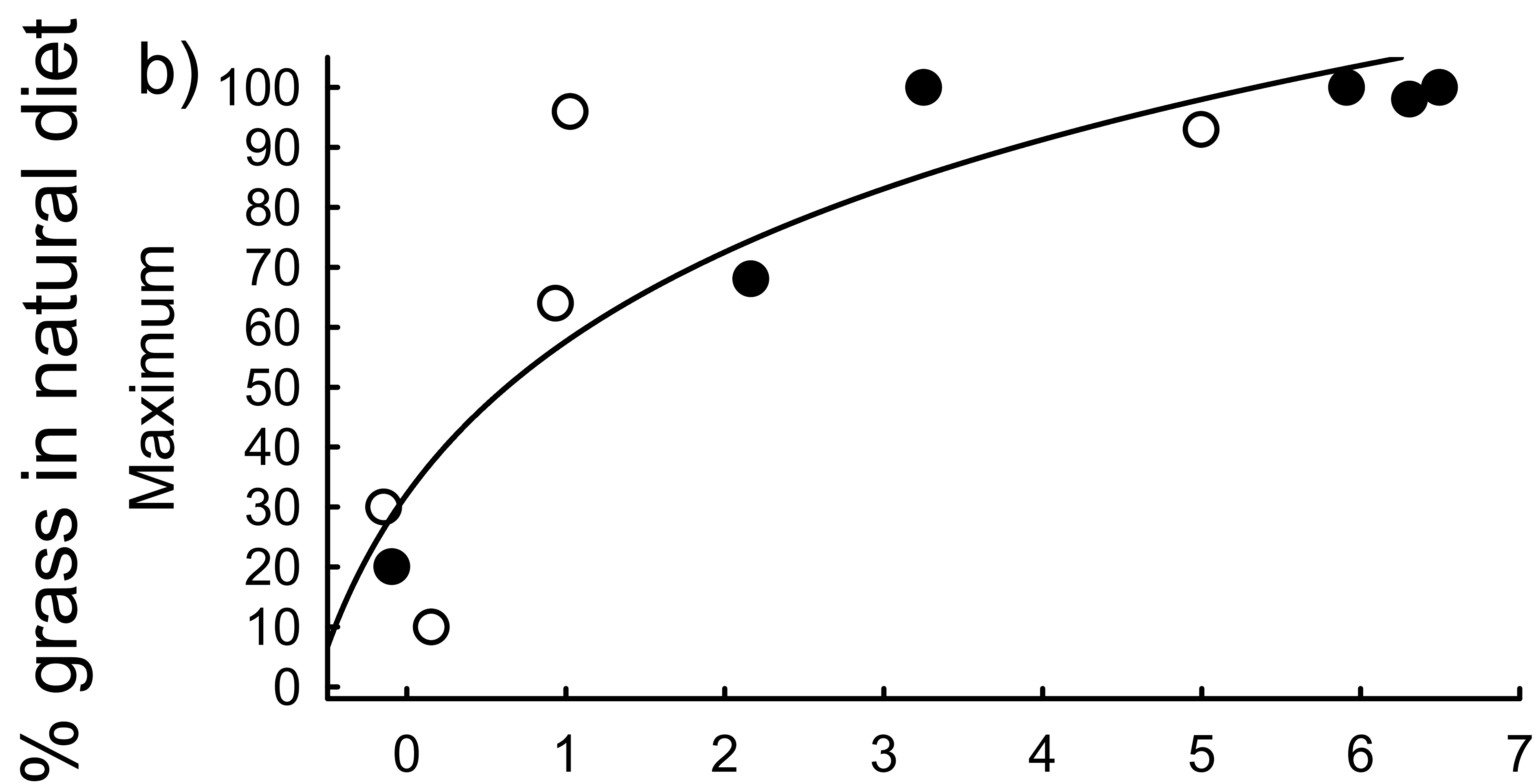
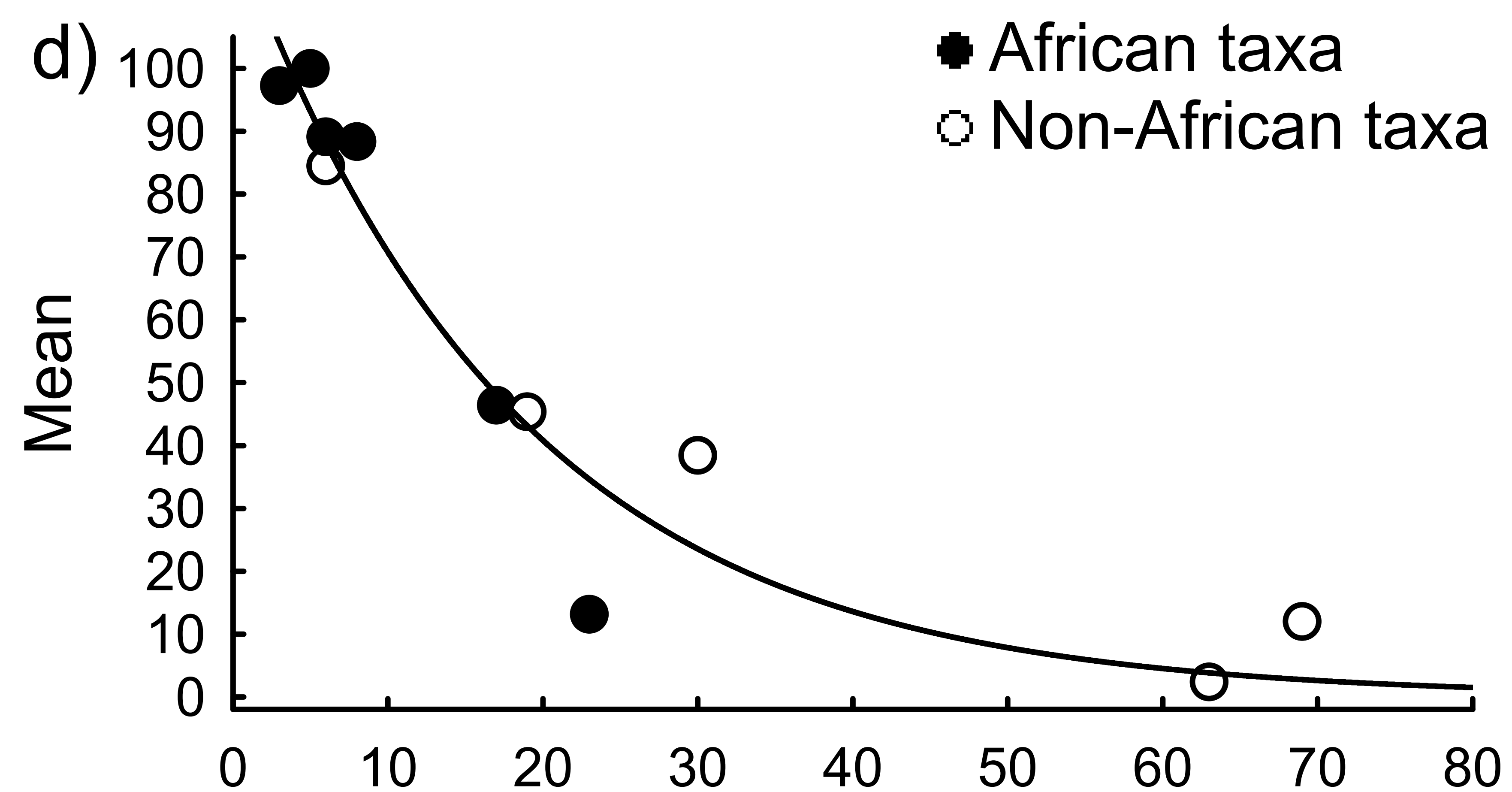
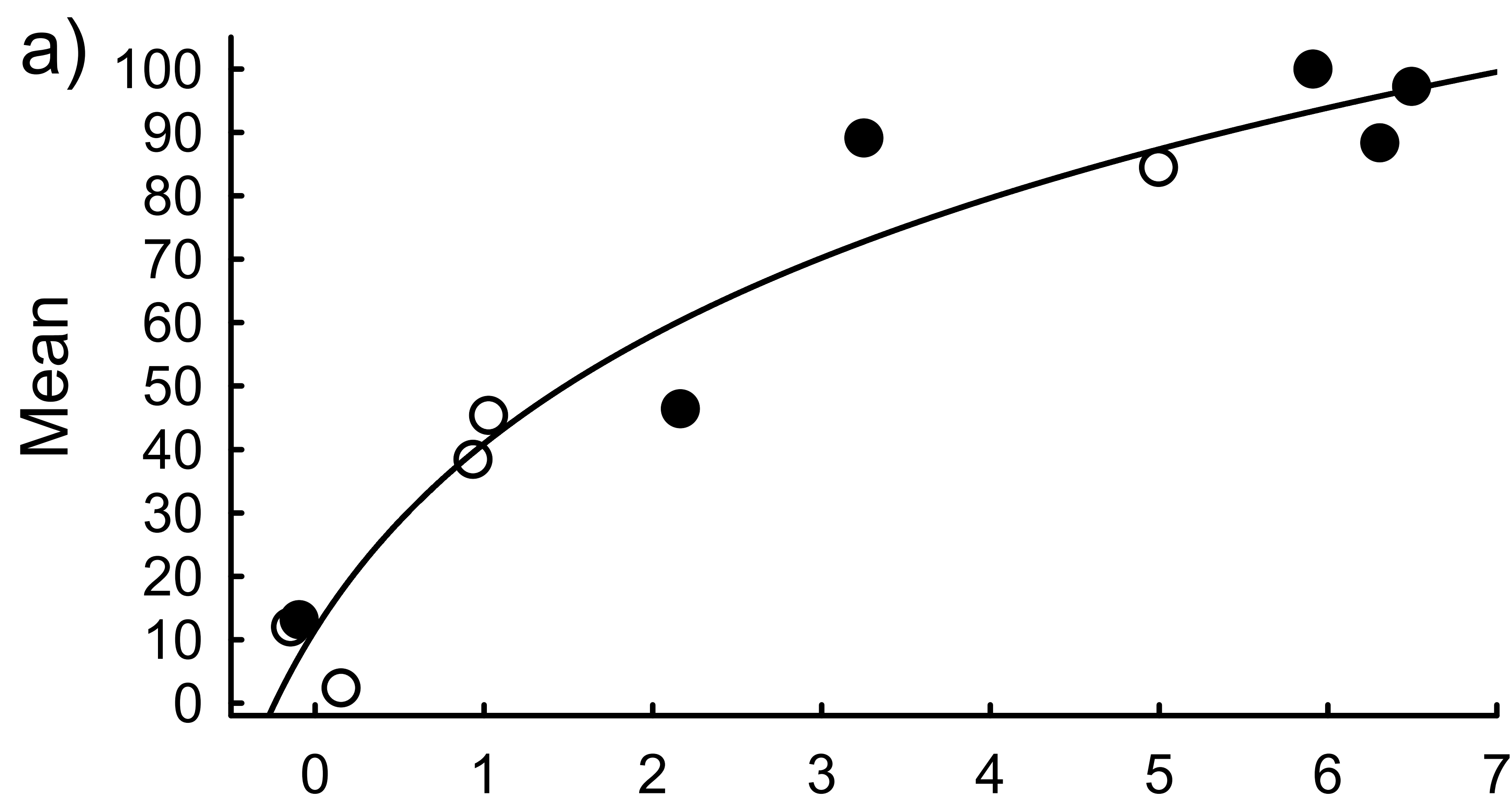
Figure 2. Relationship between physiological (difference between DM concentration between dorsal and ventral rumen) and the intraruminal papillation pattern. Note that a decrease in relative SEF reflects a larger difference in papillation of the dorsal rumen relative to the atrium, and hence an increased 'anatomical stratification'. The curve represents least-squares exponential regression ($y = 48.706e^{-0.527x}$; $R^2 = 0.71$, $p < 0.001$). DM data for African taxa were generated in this study; data for non-African taxa are from Clauss et al. (2009a; 2009b). Rumen papillation data are from Clauss et al. (2009c).

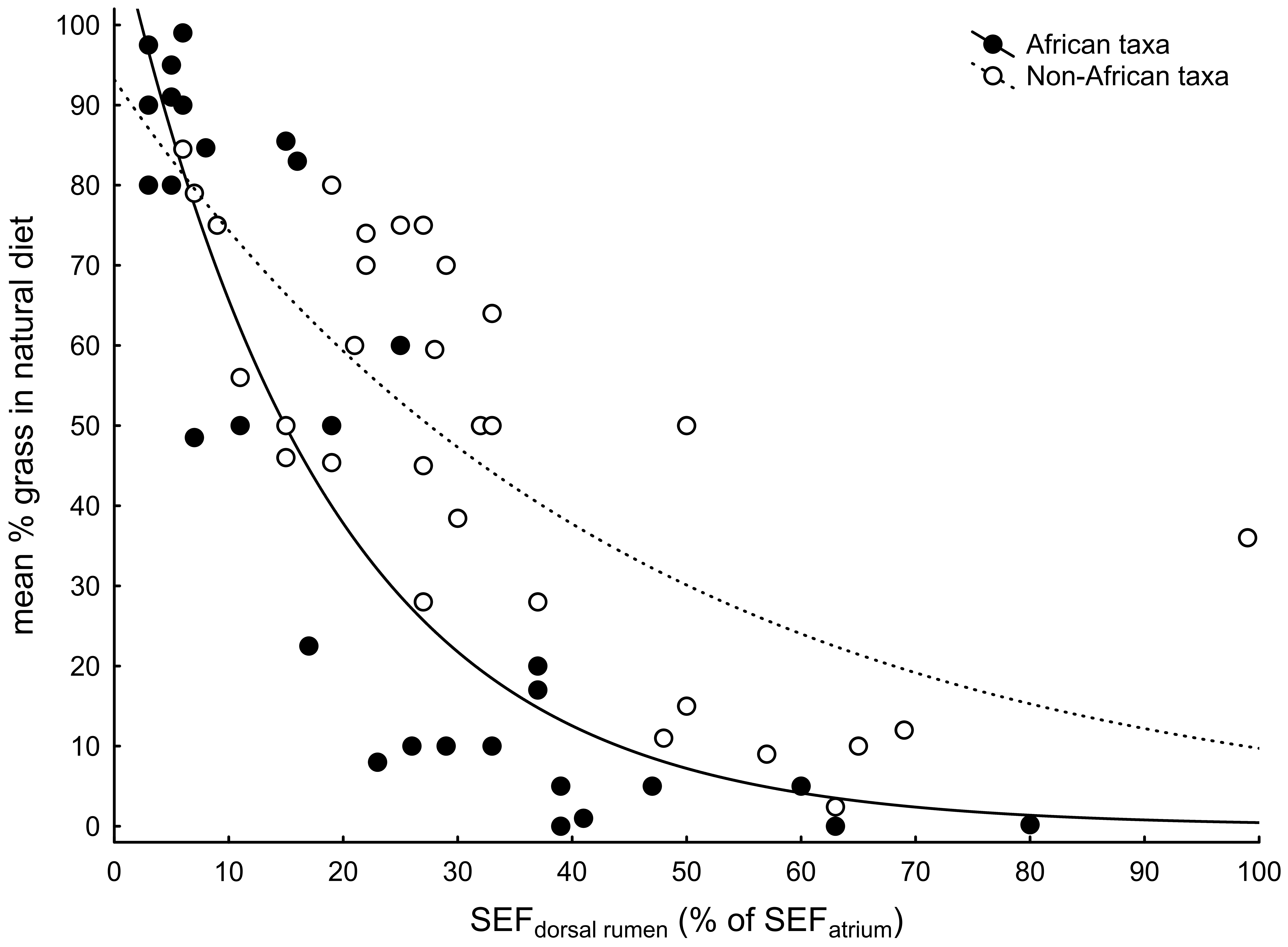
Figure 3. Relationships between rumen contents stratification (a-c) and rumen papillation pattern on the mean (a, d), maximum (b, e), and minimum (c, f) % grass in the natural diet of 11 ruminant species. Curves represent least-squares linear or exponential regression models (see Table 1 for details).

Figure 4. Relationship between rumen papillation pattern and mean % grass in the natural diet of 59 ruminant species (data from Clauss et al. 2009c). Note the differences between African compared with non-African species. Curves represent least-squares exponential regression models (see Table 1 for details).









Supplementary Table S1. Mean percent dry matter, DM, (± 1 standard error) of dorsal and ventral rumen content, surface enlargement factor (SEF) for the dorsal rumen, mean body mass of females, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the rumen epithelium (and/or % grass in the natural diet), for 11 ruminant species used in this study.

Species	Common name	n	DM _{rumen content} (%)			SEF _{dorsal rumen} (% of SEF _{atrium})	BM (kg)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ rumen tissue		% Grass in natural diet		
			Dorsal	Ventral	Difference			n	% (VPDB)	Mean	Max	Min
<i>Alcelaphus buselaphus</i>	Red hartebeest	2	26.7	20.8	5.9	5 ^C	174 ^C	2	-10.9	100*	100	100
<i>Antidorcas marsupialis</i>	Springbok	10	21.5 \pm 1.3	19.3 \pm 1.9	2.2 \pm 2.7	17 ^C	41 ^C	9	-18.8 \pm 0.8	46*	68	25
<i>Connochaetes gnou</i>	Black wildebeest	5	29.0 \pm 1.6	22.5 \pm 3.3	6.5 \pm 3.8	3 ^C	170 ^D	5	-11.4 \pm 0.4	97*	100	91
<i>Damaliscus pygargus phillipsi</i>	Blesbok	6	21.5 \pm 1.1	18.2 \pm 1.1	3.3 \pm 1.9	6 ^C	61 ^D	6	-12.6 \pm 0.8	89*	100	64
<i>Oryx gazella</i>	Gemsbok	4	26.8 \pm 1.9	20.5 \pm 3.1	6.3 \pm 2.3	8 ^C	182 ^C	4	-12.7 \pm 1.0	88*	98	68
<i>Tragelaphus strepsiceros</i>	Greater kudu	3	23.3 \pm 2.0	23.4 \pm 0.9	-0.1 \pm 1.6	23 ^C	214 ^C	3	-23.6 \pm 0.5	13*	20	7
<i>Alces alces</i>	Moose	17	15.2 \pm 0.8 ^A	15.1 \pm 0.8 ^A	0.2 \pm 0.4	63 ^C	258 ^C			2 ¹⁻¹²	10	0
<i>Bison bison</i>	Bison	10	13.2 \pm 0.3 ^A	8.2 \pm 0.6 ^A	5.0 \pm 0.6	6 ^C	335 ^C			85 ^{13,14}	93	76
<i>Capreolus capreolus</i>	Roe deer	23	12.9 \pm 0.3 ^B	13.1 \pm 0.3 ^B	-0.1 \pm 0.1	69 ^C	25 ^C			12 ^{1,4,15-19}	30	5
<i>Cervus elaphus</i>	Red deer	17	15.0 \pm 0.2 ^A	13.9 \pm 0.3 ^A	1.0 \pm 0.2	19 ^C	170 ^C			45 ^{15,20-47}	96	4
<i>Ovis ammon musimon</i>	Mouflon	19	16.7 \pm 0.4 ^B	15.8 \pm 0.4 ^B	0.9 \pm 0.4	30 ^C	40 ^C			38 ⁴⁸⁻⁵⁴	64	19

n = number of individuals; * = estimated from stable C isotope data, using a linear two-source mixing model; other data sources sourced from the literature (note that SEF data representing *Connochaetes gnou* and *Damaliscus pygargus phillipsi* are for *C. taurinus* and *D. lunatus*, respectively):^AClauss et al. (2009a),^BClauss et al. (2009b),^CClauss et al. (2009c),^DSkinner and Smithers (1990);¹Cederlund et al. (1980);²Cushwa and Coady (1976);³Dorn (1983);⁴Dzięciołowski et al. (1975);⁵Harry (1957);⁶Hosley (1949);⁷Knowlton (1960);⁸McMillan (1953);⁹Morow (1976);¹⁰Peterson (1955);¹¹Schwartz (1992);¹²Stevens et al. (2006);¹³Breymeyer and Dyne (1980);¹⁴Larter and Gates (1991);¹⁵Gębczyńska (1980);¹⁶Henry (1978);¹⁷Hosey (1981);¹⁸Jackson (1980);¹⁹Schröder and Schröder (1984);²⁰Albon et al. (1992);²¹Baker and Hobbs (1983);²²Chen et al. (1998);²³Collins and Urness (1983);²⁴Constan (1972);²⁵Dzięciołowski (1967);²⁶Dzięciołowski (1970);²⁷Edge et al. (1983);²⁸Hansen and Clark (1977);²⁹Harper et al. (1967);³⁰Hobbs et al. (1981);³¹Homolka (1990);³²Jensen (1968);³³Kirchhoff and Larsen (1998);³⁴Korfhage et al. (1980);³⁵Kuen and Bubenik (1980);³⁶Kufeld (1973);³⁷Latham et al. (1999);³⁸Leslie et al. (1984);³⁹McCorquodale (1993);⁴⁰Morris and Schwartz (1957);⁴¹Olsen and Hansen (1976);⁴²Pickford and Reid (1943);⁴³Rowland et al. (1983);⁴⁴Staines and Crisp (1978);⁴⁵Staines et al. (1982);⁴⁶Vaag (1980);⁴⁷Wydeven and Dahlgren (1983);⁴⁸Briedermann (1986);⁴⁹Faliu et al. (1990);⁵⁰Garcia-Gonzalez and Cuartas (1989);⁵¹Hadjisterkotis (1996);⁵²Heroldova (1988);⁵³Homolka (1991);⁵⁴Thiele et al. (1989)

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