

1 **Community structure and sample size affect estimates of predation intensity and prey**
2 **selection: A model-based validation**

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7 RRH: COMMUNITY STRUCTURE AFFECTS INFERRED PREDATION

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16 *Abstract.* –

17 Predation estimates inferred from the preserved records of predation traces are
18 essential in evaluating the evolutionary effect of ecological interactions. It is, however,
19 rarely investigated how sampling intensity and community composition of an assemblage
20 influence the reliability of these measures.

21 Using a resampling technique, we evaluated the effect of evenness and sampling
22 intensity of a community on the inferred predation estimates. We theoretically simulated
23 model communities representing different levels of evenness (E_T), predation intensity (PI_T),
24 and predatory behavior (selective, non-selective). These communities were resampled
25 without replacement; we noted the variation in the inferred predation intensity ($PI_{T.inf}$) and
26 the number of prey species ($S_{prey.inf}$) during resampling. Our results demonstrate that E_T does
27 not influence $PI_{T.inf}$ for non-selective predation. However, communities with highly selective
28 predation are sensitive to evenness and sampling intensity; $PI_{T.inf}$ of these assemblages can
29 substantially deviate from the actual value. $S_{prey.inf}$ is also influenced by E_T , predation
30 selectivity, and PI_T . For non-selective predation, sampling intensity heavily influences
31 communities with low E_T and low PI_T ; $S_{prey.inf}$ is underrepresented at smaller sample size.
32 For prey-abundance guides selective predation, the sensitivity depends on the nature of
33 selection; for communities of low E_T and PI_T where rare species are attacked preferentially,
34 the $S_{prey.inf}$ deviates significantly at small sample size. We proposed a post-facto
35 standardization method for comparing predation estimates of discrete communities. We
36 validated its utility using the published predation data of the Plio-Pleistocene molluscan
37 fossil assemblage. This approach provides critical insight into the biological reliability of
38 predator estimates across time and space.

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Introduction

45 The role of predation as a major driving force of evolution in marine ecosystems has been a
46 common theme of study (Paine, 1966; Vermeij, 1977; Signor and Brett, 1984; Langerhans,
47 2007; Stanley, 2008). The relationship between the prey and predator is complex in
48 theoretical and inferential terms (Abrams, 1989; Leighton, 2002). It is important to note that
49 efforts to evaluate the evolutionary effects of predation relies on the correct measurement of
50 aspects of predation such as intensity, selectivity of prey. The accurate estimation of
51 predation measures is, therefore, of primary importance.

52 For establishing predation events and inferring predation intensities, ecological
53 studies use direct observations or indirect measures such as compositional characterization
54 of digested food and fecal matter (Nilsen et al., 2012; Pringle et al., 2019). Although it is
55 possible to recover direct observational evidence of predation events in past ecosystems by
56 studying “caught-in-the-act” occurrences, paleoecological studies primarily rely on
57 preserved predation traces (Klompaker et al., 2019). Traces, such as drill holes and repair
58 scars recording the predation attempts on the prey’s hard shells, are some of the best
59 quantifiable proxies for inferring predation intensity and prey selection (Kowalewski, 2002).
60 The frequency of these traces (repair scar frequency (RF) and drilling frequency (DF)) are
61 often used to evaluate the evolutionary impact of predation in deep time (Vermeij, 1987;
62 Kelley and Hansen, 1996).

63 Inferences about interactions from predation traces have their limitations. The
64 implicit assumption for such interpretation is that other processes do not alter the
65 quantitative data provided by predation traces (e.g., the overall frequency of traces,
66 distribution of traces across prey species, and prey size classes). It is recognized that biases

67 introduced through taphonomy may influence the biological reliability of these measures,
68 including frequency (Roy et al. 1994; Zuschin and Stanton, 2001, Chattopadhyay et al.,
69 2013a, b, Sarkar et al., 2021), prey selection (Sime and Kelley 2016; Forcino et al. 2017),
70 and size selection (Kowalewski, 2002). However, the effect of sampling on inferred
71 predation measures remains largely unexplored.

72 A few studies have examined the impact of size-specific sampling on inferred
73 predation intensities (Chattopadhyay et al., 2016; Hattori et al., 2014; Hausmann et al.,
74 2018; Kowalewski and Hoffmeister, 2003; Ottens et al., 2012; Visaggi and Kelley, 2015).
75 Smith et al. (2021) demonstrated the effects of overdispersion and zero inflation (e.g., the
76 poor model fits) using count data of predation traces. Aspects of a specific community such
77 as evenness, selectivity of predation, and sampling intensity may influence the estimates of
78 predation intensity. This becomes crucial for studies that combine predation data from
79 discrete samples and reconstruct temporal/spatial changes in predation patterns.
80 Using theoretical simulation based on a resampling technique, we developed a
81 methodological framework to understand the effect of community evenness, sampling
82 intensity, and nature of predation selectivity on the inferred predation estimates. We
83 attempted to estimate these effects on the inferred predation intensity and the number of
84 prey species. We also proposed a method of post-facto standardization and validated our
85 approach using predation data from four Plio-Pleistocene fossil assemblages of Florida.

86

87 **Materials and method**

88 Indices for predation intensity and community structure:

89 Predation intensity of total assemblage (PI_T) is calculated as

90 $PI_T = N_P/N$

91 Where,

92 N_P = Number of individuals with predation mark

93 N = Total number of individuals in the assemblage

94 The total number of prey species is S_{prey} . PI_{prey} denotes predation intensity in the species that
95 have been attacked.

96 The evenness of an assemblage (E_T) is calculated as

97 $E_T = H / \ln(S_T)$

98 Where,

99 H = Shannon's diversity index

100 S_T = Total number of species in the assemblage

101

102 Model assemblages:

103 We created 30 hypothetical model assemblages, each with 30 species and 3000
104 individuals with varying evenness, predation intensity, and prey preferences (Table 1). Each
105 model assemblage had a unique combination of evenness, predation intensity, and prey
106 preference. The evenness in these models ranged from a theoretical minimum of 0.1 to a
107 theoretical maximum of 1. Model assemblages with maximum evenness of one had 100
108 individuals for 30 species. Assemblages with intermediate evenness of 0.7 had five common
109 species with 500 individuals each and 25 rare species with 20 individuals each (Table 1).
110 Assemblages with low evenness of 0.5 had 910 individuals in each of the three common
111 species and ten individuals in each of the 27 rare species. Assemblages with a very low

112 evenness of 0.2, there is only one common species with 2710 individuals, and the remaining
113 29 rare species consists of 10 individuals each.

114 The predation intensity of the total assemblage (PI_T) was categorized into three
115 levels: low (0.2), medium (0.5), and high (0.8) (Table 1). A certain number of individuals
116 from specific species would be considered prey with predation marks as dictated by the
117 (PI_T). The prey-preference of the predator can either be non-selective or selective. In the
118 case of non-selective predation (Case 1), all species have an equal probability of being
119 attacked irrespective of their abundance (Fig 1). Selective predation represents assemblages
120 where prey species have an unequal chance of being attacked depending on their abundance.
121 In model assemblages with selective predation, we constructed two cases; the predator can
122 either attack the common species (Case 2) (Fig 2) or the rare species (Case 3) (Fig 3).
123 Selective predation has not been considered for assemblages with maximum evenness
124 because all the species are equally abundant and share an equal probability of attack.

125

126 Simulation design

127 We performed a simulation to evaluate the effect of sample size on inferred
128 predation intensity ($PI_{T.inf}$) and the number of prey species ($S_{prey.inf}$) for all the model
129 assemblages. In the simulation, 100 individuals were drawn randomly from a model
130 assemblage. The number of attacked individuals (N_P) and the number of prey species (S_{prey})
131 represented by the attacked individuals were counted in those 100 individuals. Inferred
132 predation intensity ($PI_{T.inf}$) for the drawn sample is calculated as a ratio of the number of
133 attacked individuals and the total number of individuals (i.e., 100 in the first draw). The
134 exact process is repeated 30 times without replacement until all the individuals from the

135 assemblage are sampled. This entire process was iterated 1000 times. The mean and
136 standard deviation are calculated for inferred predation intensity ($PI_{T.inf}$) and prey species
137 richness ($S_{prey.inf}$) for these 1000 iterations for a model assemblage. Deviation of predation
138 intensity (Dev_{PI}) is calculated as the difference between PI_T and $PI_{T.inf}$ for an assemblage.
139 Similarly, the difference between S_{prey} and $S_{prey.inf}$ is taken as the deviation of prey species
140 richness (Dev_S). The same technique is applied for all the model assemblages.

141

142 Predation dataset:

143 We used published data on predation records of molluscs from four Pleistocene
144 localities in Florida (Chattopadhyay and Baumiller, 2010) for validating the proposed
145 technique. The dataset consists of abundance, drilling frequency, and repair scar frequency
146 of 14 molluscan species. We drew samples without replacement from each locality with
147 increasing sample size. The sample size for each draw was a hundred until the last draw; in
148 the last draw, where the remaining sample size is less than 200, all are drawn. For Punta
149 Gorda (total=2418 individuals), 100 individuals were drawn 23 times, and 118 individuals
150 were drawn for the last (24th) draw. A similar procedure is followed for Miami Canal (total
151 = 4794 individuals), Mc Queens pit (total=659 individuals), and Chiquita (total=894
152 individuals).

153 All simulations and statistical analyses were performed in R (R Core Development
154 Team, 2012).

155

156

Results

157 Inferred predation intensity

158 The inferred predation intensity ($PI_{T.inf}$) may vary substantially from the actual value
159 of overall predation intensity (PI_T) and predation intensity of prey groups (PI_{prey}), especially
160 at smaller sample sizes (Fig 4). For non-selective predation (Case 1), Dev_{PI} is not affected
161 by the evenness; however, the deviation is high at a smaller sample size and converges to the
162 actual value with increasing sample size (Fig 5). Evenness influences inferred predation
163 intensity ($PI_{T.inf}$) when the predation is non-selective (Case 2 and 3) (Fig 4). When the
164 common species are preferentially attacked (Case 2), Dev_{PI} is low for communities with
165 lower evenness and low original predation intensity (PI_T) (Fig 6). Communities with higher
166 evenness showed high Dev_{PI} . This deviation does not change even at a higher sample size
167 except for the community with the lowest evenness ($E_T=0.2$) and predation intensity
168 ($PI_T=0.2$) (Fig 6). When rare species are attacked (Case 3), Dev_{PI} is high for communities
169 with higher evenness and high PI_T (Fig 7). Communities with higher evenness showed lower
170 $PI_{T.inf}$ values compared to PI_T . The deviation, however, is lower in comparison to
171 comparable communities in Case 2.

172

173 Inferred number of prey species

174 The inferred number of prey species ($S_{prey.inf}$) follows a rarefaction curve where
175 $S_{prey.inf}$ increases with increasing sample size before plateauing and converging to the actual
176 value of S_{prey} (Fig 8). In the case of non-selective predation (Case 1), the Dev_S decreases
177 with increasing sample size. Dev_S decreases with increasing evenness at a given sample size
178 and has lesser sensitivity to sample size when evenness is high. Dev_S approaches zero at a
179 smaller sample size in communities with higher evenness (Fig 9). When common species
180 are preyed upon (Case 2), Dev_S does not reflect any sensitivity to the sample size (Fig 10).

181 This is due to the low value of S_{prey} that converges to its actual value within the first few
182 draws.

183 However, when the rare species are attacked (Case 3), $S_{\text{prey.inf}}$ is highly sensitive to the
184 sample size. Communities with higher evenness tend to show lesser variation in Dev_S with
185 sample size than others (Fig 11-12). The overall Dev_S in all the communities is more in
186 lower PI_T .

187

188 Inferred predation estimates from Florida

189 The assemblages from the four localities of Florida are different in terms of their evenness
190 and sample size (Table 2). Except for Miami canal, all the localities show a case of non-
191 selective predation represented by the lack of correlation between the relative abundance of
192 the prey and prey-specific predation intensity (PI_{prey}) for drilling and durophagous predation
193 (Table 3). In Miami canal, the significant positive correlation implies that the abundant prey
194 species are preferentially attacked – a scenario described as Case 2 in our model.

195 For inferred predation intensity ($\text{PI}_{T.\text{inf}}$), there is substantial overlap between three localities
196 (Punta Gorda, Miami Canal, and Mc Queens pit) for both drilling and durophagy (Fig 13).

197 For inferred prey species richness ($S_{\text{prey.inf}}$), the assemblages show slightly different patterns
198 between drilling and durophagous predation. For drilling predation, all the assemblages
199 show a substantial overlap (Fig 13A, C, E). The durophagous predation record, however,
200 shows a separation between communities with low evenness (Punta Gorda) and high-
201 evenness (Mc Queens pit, Chiquita) (Fig 13 B, D, F).

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Discussion

205 Paleontological research on predation has expanded rapidly in scope, methods, and
206 goals over the years. Various studies have focused primarily on identifying the evidence of
207 fossil records of predation and their interpretation; such records have also been used for
208 testing ecological and evolutionary hypotheses. In contrast, studies exploring the reliability
209 of the methods to quantify predation intensity have been limited. While evaluating predation
210 intensity, the intensity matrices depend more on the number of individuals of a community
211 and less on the community structure. Our model provides a theoretical framework to
212 estimate inferred predation intensities for various community structures and sampling
213 intensities. It highlighted the importance of these factors in influencing the predation
214 estimates of fossil and recent assemblages; it also demonstrates why it is necessary to
215 develop a methodological framework of sample standardization before comparing predation
216 estimates of assemblages separated by time and space.

217

218 Effect on the inferred intensity

219 Our simulation results show that communities' evenness does not significantly change the
220 inferred predation intensity when random encounters between predator and prey guide
221 predation. It is, however, uncommon to find predation events to be completely random in the
222 natural world. The inferred predation intensity may deviate significantly from the original
223 predation intensity if the predation is selective.

224 Following the considerations of optimal foraging theory, two aspects make the predation
225 selective. The first is the relative ease with which a predator encounters a prey – a factor
226 primarily guided by the relative abundance of the prey. With the increasing dominance of a

227 prey species, the probability of encounter increases, and foraging time decreases; this
228 increases the net energy gain of the predator. The second aspect is the traits (morphological,
229 ecological, behavioral) of the prey that dictates the net energy gain of the predator. The final
230 selection by the predator is often a combination of these factors. A higher attack rate may be
231 found in an abundant prey species due to its higher encounter rate despite its high anti-
232 predatory defense than a rarer species (Johnson, 1980). This would lead to scenarios similar
233 to Case 2, where the inferred predation intensity of low-evenness communities would be
234 higher than the actual predation intensity. This inflation is because of the over-representation
235 of common species in smaller samples that are primarily attacked.

236 Most often than not, the encounter frequency does not finally dictate the attack frequency,
237 and the selection of prey is guided by the prey traits such as size (Chattopadhyay et al.,
238 2014, 2015, 2020). These would be similar to Case 3, where the most dominant groups are
239 not preyed upon. The inferred predation intensity of low-evenness communities would be
240 lower than the actual predation intensity. This apparent drop in predation intensity is
241 because of the lack of representation of rare species in smaller samples that are never
242 attacked. It is especially problematic because the deviation between PI_T and $PI_{T.inf}$ is
243 substantial for all evenness.

244

245 Effect on inferred selectivity

246 The structure of the community heavily controls the inferred number of prey species.

247 Communities with low evenness deviate significantly from the original prey species and
248 yield fewer inferred prey species even when the predation is non-selective (Case 1). This
249 may lead to the development of an artificial selectivity primarily driven by the preferential

250 counting of the dominant species and not by the biological preference demonstrated by the
251 predators. Therefore, any community with low evenness suffers from the high probability of
252 underrepresenting the number of prey species. The deviation from the true prey-species
253 richness is higher for smaller sample size and lower intensity of predation. Communities
254 with higher predation intensity will provide the true prey-species richness at a smaller
255 sample size than communities with lower predation intensity. Selective predation (as
256 indicated by Case 2 and 3) also creates similar deviations.

257 The sensitivity of inferred prey species richness on sample size, evenness, and original
258 predation selectivity makes the comparison of prey species richness in spatially or
259 temporally distinct assemblages somewhat unreliable unless they are normalized. This is
260 especially important when comparing predation estimates from assemblages representing
261 different time-bins or environments likely to show varying diversity/evenness.

262

263 **Proposed protocol of post-facto standardization of predation data**

264 The following protocol may be followed to compare predation intensity and selectivity of
265 spatially/temporally distinct assemblages to avoid misinterpretation. Using the protocol
266 described for generating Figure 4, all the assemblages need to be plotted and compared to
267 understand the sensitivity of the inferred predation intensity ($PI_{T.inf}$) on sample size. If this
268 plot shows a significant overlap between different assemblages, they should be considered to
269 represent the same predation intensity (PI_T), and the difference in sampling size explains the
270 difference in the absolute value. To understand the sensitivity of the inferred prey-species
271 richness ($S_{prey.inf}$) on sample size, the protocol described for generating Figure 5 needs to be
272 followed for all the assemblages and compared. If this plot shows a significant overlap

273 between different assemblages, they should be considered to represent the same prey-species
274 richness (S_{prey}), and the difference in sampling size explains the difference in the absolute
275 value. The assemblage with the smallest sample size can be considered as a reference. The
276 distribution of inferred predation intensity ($PI_{T.\text{inf}}$) and prey-species richness ($S_{\text{prey.inf}}$) at that
277 sample size should be compared for all the assemblages using Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S)
278 test. Unless the difference is significant, we cannot reject the possibility of inadequate
279 sampling generating the difference. We should select the assemblages from a pairwise
280 comparison of all the assemblages that yield statistical significance. We should choose
281 assemblages with a larger sample size among the pairs producing without statistical
282 significance. Using those selected assemblages, we should repeat the entire process at the
283 smallest sample size of the new subset of the original assemblage. We should continue this
284 iteration till all the pairs show significant differences. This difference cannot be explained
285 by sampling and reflects the biological difference. Estimating PI_{prey} is difficult, especially
286 for cases where rare species are attacked; excluding species without any predation trace
287 while calculating PI_T may give us some insight.

288

289 **Paleontological case study**

290 The assemblages from the four localities of Florida have been used for interpreting the
291 relationship between durophagy and drilling predation (Chattopadhyay and Baumiller,
292 2010). However, the study's conclusions did not consider sample size or community
293 structure. The assemblages are of these localities are pretty different in terms of their
294 evenness and sample size (Table 2). A selective nature of predation where common prey
295 species are preferentially attacked is observed for both predations (durophagy and drilling)

296 only in Miami Canal. For inferred predation intensity ($PI_{T.inf}$), the sample size-standardized
297 resampling protocol (described before) shows a significant difference (Table 4). This
298 implies that the difference across assemblages cannot be explained by the sampling intensity
299 or the evenness of the assemblage. Similarly, the sample size-standardized resampling
300 protocol (described before) yields a significant difference for all the assemblages for
301 inferred prey species richness ($S_{prey.inf}$) (Table 4). This implies that the difference in the
302 observed prey-species richness across assemblages cannot be explained by sample
303 intensity/evenness.

304 It is important to recognize that a number of factors played a role in this particular
305 case that made these assemblages less susceptible to community evenness and sampling
306 intensity. Because three localities (Punta Gorda, Mc Queens pit, Chiquita) are showing non-
307 selective predation, they are less likely to be affected by sample size. Moreover, they have
308 medium to high evenness that makes them less sensitive to sample size. Miami canal shows
309 evidence of selective predation where abundant species are preferentially attacked. The
310 expected deviation in predation intensity of the assemblage of Miami canal, characterized by
311 low evenness (0.31), low predation intensity ($PI_T < 0.2$) should follow Fig 6A that shows a
312 low value of Dev_{PI} at large sample size. Because Miami canal has the largest sample size
313 among the localities, makes it less likely to be affected by these factors. The expected
314 deviation in inferred prey species richness (Dev_S) of the assemblage of Miami canal should
315 follow Fig 10A that shows least sensitivity to sample size. Hence, the observed $S_{prey.drill}$ and
316 $S_{prey.repair}$ are least likely to be affected by these factors.

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318

319

Implications

320 The fossil record of predation has shaped our understanding of how the nature of biotic
321 interaction changed over time and its role as an evolutionary mechanism. Preserved traces,
322 such as drill holes and repair scars, are some of the best quantifiable proxies of predation
323 and they are often used to assess the evolutionary impact of predation in deep time (Vermeij,
324 1987; Kelley and Hansen, 1996, Huntley and Kowalewski, 2007). Studies aiming to
325 evaluate the predation trend through time, however, are often forced to use predation data
326 from discrete assemblages that differ in sample size, inherent community evenness, and the
327 type of predation selectivity. Our study demonstrates the effect of such factors on the
328 inferred predation intensity and the recognized prey richness. Comparison between
329 temporally separated collections, such as Paleozoic and Cenozoic predation records that are
330 known to be different in the sample size (and probably predatory behavior), are susceptible
331 to such factors. Our proposed method of post-facto standardization will be essential for such
332 comparisons and to establish the true nature of biotic interaction through time.

333

334

Conclusions

335 The effect of community structure and sampling intensity on the inferred predation
336 estimates is rarely explored. Using a resampling technique, our study demonstrates the
337 impact of these aspects on the estimates of predation intensity and the number of prey
338 species. Our results show that the communities with highly selective predation are the most
339 sensitive to sampling intensity, and the inferred predation intensity of these assemblages can
340 substantially deviate from the actual value. In contrast, predation intensity for non-selective
341 predation tends to be unaffected by sampling intensity. Inferred prey-species richness is also

342 influenced by the nature of community evenness, predation selectivity, and actual predation
343 intensity. For non-selective predation, communities with low evenness and low predation
344 intensity are highly sensitive to sample size. The inferred prey-species richness can be
345 underrepresented significantly at smaller sample size. For selective predation, the sensitivity
346 depends on the nature of selection. The inferred prey-species richness deviates significantly
347 when rare species are attacked preferentially. Our study also provides a framework of post-
348 facto standardization of the predation data to remove the effect of sample size/evenness
349 during comparison. The proposed method will be essential for temporal comparison of pre-
350 and post-Cretaceous assemblages as they are often characterized by a difference in sample
351 size/selectivity.

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442 taphonomic interpretation. *Palaios* 16: 161-170.

443 **Table caption**

444 Table 1. A summary of the model assemblages used for this study with varying evenness,
445 predation intensity and predator preference.

446

447 Table 2. A summary of the published predation data from four Plio-Pleistocene fossil
448 assemblages of Florida (Chattopadhyay and Baumiller, 2010).

449

450 Table 3. The result of Spearman rank order correlation test for proportional abundance and
451 PI_{prey} for the predation estimates across four Plio-Pleistocene fossil assemblages of
452 Florida (Chattopadhyay and Baumiller, 2010). The statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)
453 results are marked in bold.

454

455 Table 4. The test-statistic (D) of Kolmogorov–Smirnov test comparing the predation
456 estimates across four Plio-Pleistocene fossil assemblages of Florida using sample-
457 standardization protocol. All the results are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).

458

459 **Figure caption**

460 Figure 1. An illustrative diagram of nine different molluscan communities with varying
461 degrees of evenness (E_T) and predation intensity (PI_T). The predators attacking the
462 prey are non-selective in their choice (Case 1). Mollusc drawings are from
463 publicdomainpictures.net with subsequent modification. [Figure 1. Two-column;
464 Grayscale]

465 Figure 2. An illustrative diagram of nine different molluscan communities with varying
466 degrees of evenness (E_T) and predation intensity (PI_T). The predators attacking the
467 prey are selective and preferentially attack the most abundant prey species (Case 2).
468 Mollusc drawings are from publicdomainpictures.net with subsequent modification.
469 [Figure 2. Two-column; Grayscale]

470 Figure 3. An illustrative diagram of nine different molluscan communities with varying
471 degrees of evenness (E_T) and predation intensity (PI_T). The predators attacking the
472 prey are selective in their choice and preferentially attack prey species rare in this
473 assemblage (Case 3). Mollusc drawings are from publicdomainpictures.net with
474 subsequent modification. [Figure 3. Two-column; Grayscale]

475 Figure 4. Plot showing variation in inferred predation intensity (PI_{inf}) with varying sample
476 sizes for different model assemblages. The warmer colors represent higher
477 evenness. The columns indicate increasing predation intensity in the original
478 assemblage (PI_T) from left to right. The rows indicate the different degrees of the
479 selectiveness of predation, denoted by Case 1, 2, and 3 from top to bottom. [Figure 4.
480 Two columns; Color]

481 Figure 5. Plot showing deviation of the inferred predation intensity (PI_{inf}) from the overall
482 predation intensity (PI_T) with varying sample size for the model assemblages
483 representing Case 1 (non-selective predation). The rows indicate increasing evenness
484 from top to bottom. The columns indicate increasing predation intensity in the
485 original assemblage (PI_T) from left to right. The red line represents the overall
486 predation intensity (PI_T), and the grey represents the simulated values for specific
487 model assemblage. [Figure 4. Two columns; Color]

488 Figure 6. Plot showing deviation of the inferred predation intensity (PI_{inf}) from the overall
489 predation intensity (PI_T) with varying sample size for the model assemblages
490 representing Case 2 (selective predation of the common species). The rows indicate
491 increasing evenness from top to bottom. The columns indicate increasing predation
492 intensity in the original assemblage (PI_T) from left to right. The red line represents
493 the overall predation intensity (PI_T), and the grey represents the simulated values for
494 specific model assemblage. [Figure 6. Two columns; Color]

495 Figure 7. Plot showing deviation of the inferred predation intensity (PI_{inf}) from the overall
496 predation intensity (PI_T) with varying sample size for the model assemblages
497 representing Case 3 (selective predation of the rare species). The rows indicate
498 increasing evenness from top to bottom. The columns indicate increasing predation
499 intensity in the original assemblage (PI_T) from left to right. The red line represents
500 the overall predation intensity (PI_T) and the grey represents the simulated values for
501 specific model assemblage. [Figure 7. Two columns; Color]

502 Figure 8. Plot showing variation in the inferred number of prey species ($S_{prey.inf}$) with
503 varying sample sizes for different model assemblages. The warmer colors represent
504 higher evenness. The columns indicate increasing predation intensity in the original
505 assemblage (PI_T) from left to right. The rows indicate the different degrees of the
506 selectiveness of predation, denoted by Case 1, 2, and 3 from top to bottom. [Figure 8.
507 Two columns; Color]

508 Figure 9. Plot showing deviation (Dev_s) of the inferred prey species richness ($S_{prey.inf}$) from
509 the original prey species richness (S_{prey}) with varying sample size for the model

510 assemblages representing Case 1 (non-selective predation). The rows indicate
511 increasing evenness from top to bottom. The columns indicate increasing predation
512 intensity in the original assemblage (PI_T) from left to right. The red line represents
513 the original prey species richness (S_{prey}), and the grey represents the simulated values
514 for specific model assemblage. [Figure 9. Two columns; Color]

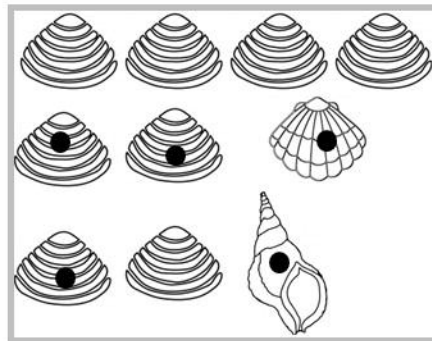
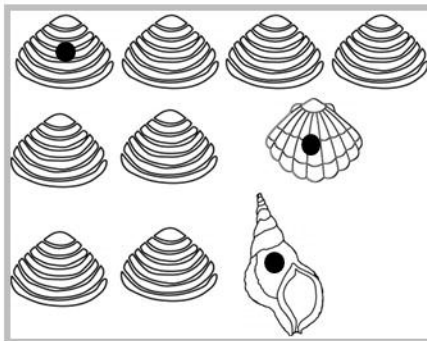
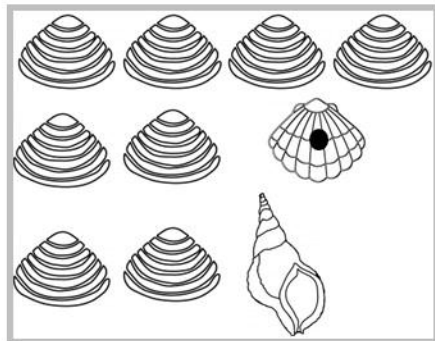
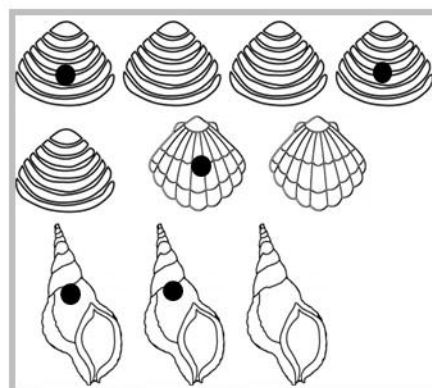
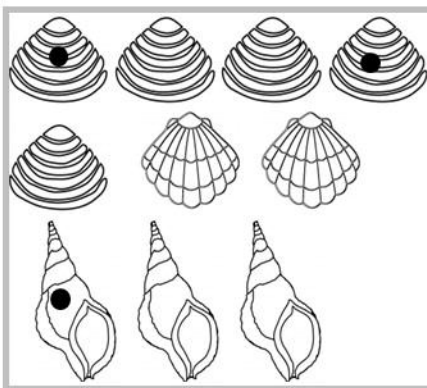
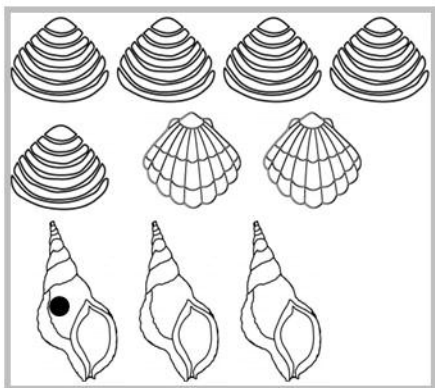
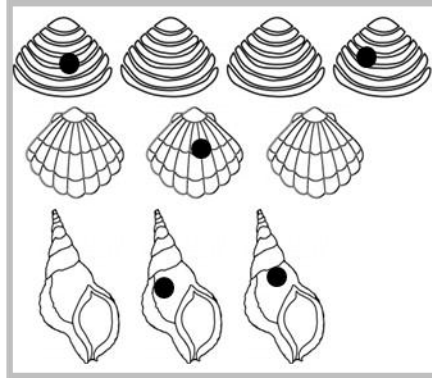
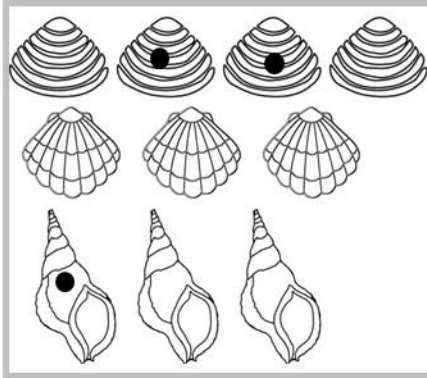
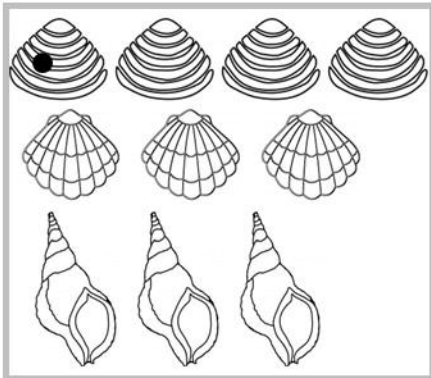
515 Figure 10. Plot showing deviation (Dev_s) of the inferred prey species richness ($S_{prey.inf}$) from
516 the original prey species richness (S_{prey}) with varying sample size for the model
517 assemblages representing Case 2 (selective predation of the common species). The
518 rows indicate increasing evenness from top to bottom. The columns indicate
519 increasing predation intensity in the original assemblage (PI_T) from left to right. The
520 red line represents the original prey species richness (S_{prey}), and the grey represents
521 the simulated values for specific model assemblage. [Figure 10. Two columns;
522 Color]

523 Figure 11. Plot showing deviation (Dev_s) of the inferred prey species richness ($S_{prey.inf}$) from
524 the original prey species richness (S_{prey}) with varying sample size for the model
525 assemblages representing Case 3 (selective predation of the rare species). The rows
526 indicate increasing evenness from top to bottom. The columns indicate increasing
527 predation intensity in the original assemblage (PI_T) from left to right. The red line
528 represents the original prey species richness (S_{prey}), and the grey represents the
529 simulated values for specific model assemblage. [Figure 11. Two columns; Color]

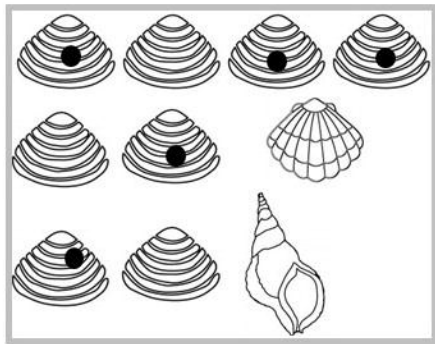
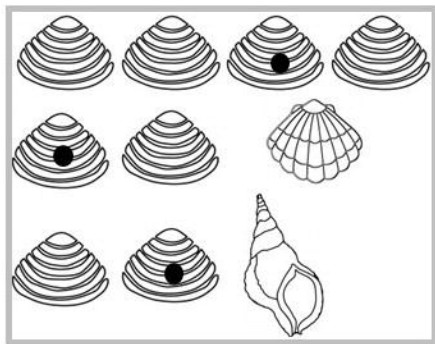
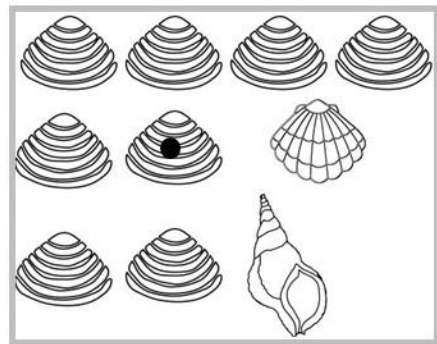
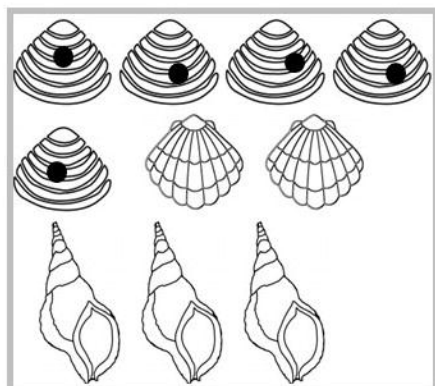
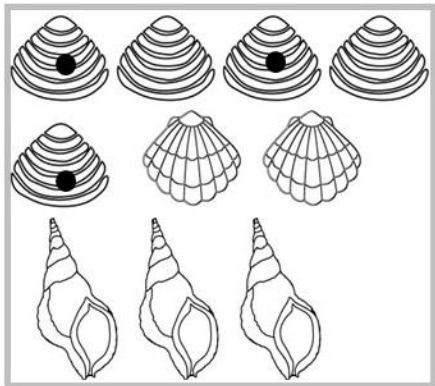
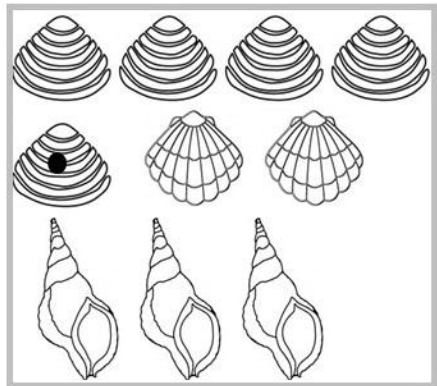
530 Figure 12. The plot shows variation in inferred predation intensity (PI_{inf}) and inferred the
531 number of prey species ($S_{prey.inf}$) with specific sample sizes for different model

532 assemblages. The warmer colors represent higher evenness. The columns indicate
533 increasing predation intensity in the original assemblage (PI_T) from left to right. The
534 rows indicate the different degrees of the selectiveness of predation, denoted by Case
535 1, 2, and 3 from top to bottom. [Figure 12. Two columns; Color]

536 Figure 13. Plot showing variation in inferred estimates of drilling and durophagous
537 predation with varying degrees of sampling for four Pleistocene molluscan
538 assemblages of Florida with different evenness (E_T). The top row represents the
539 sample size variation in inferred predation intensity (PI_{inf}). The middle row shows
540 the inferred number of prey species ($S_{prey.inf}$) with varying sample sizes. The bottom
541 row represented the relationship between the inferred predation intensity (PI_{inf}) and
542 inferred number of prey species ($S_{prey.inf}$) at specific sizes for the four assemblages.
543 [Figure 13. Two columns; Color]

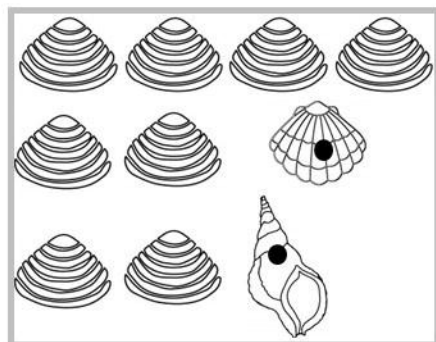
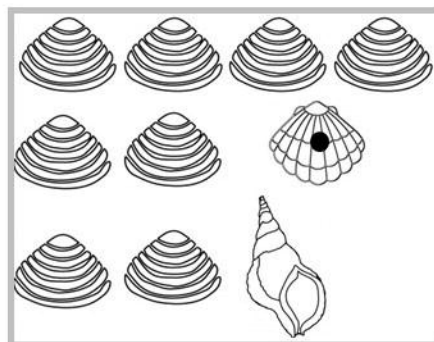
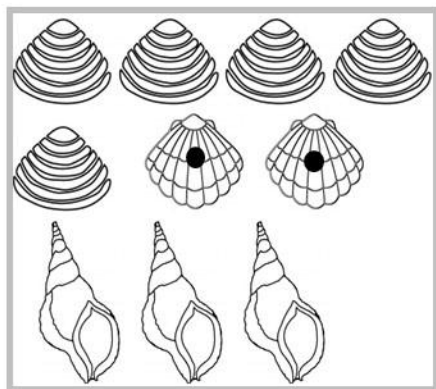
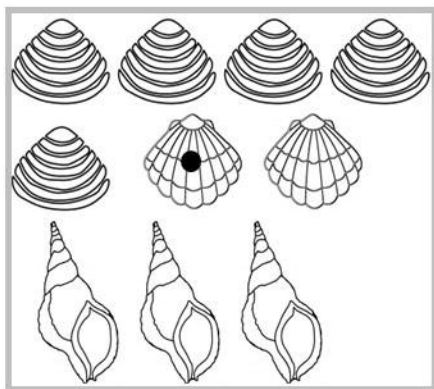
E_T  P_{I_T}

E_T

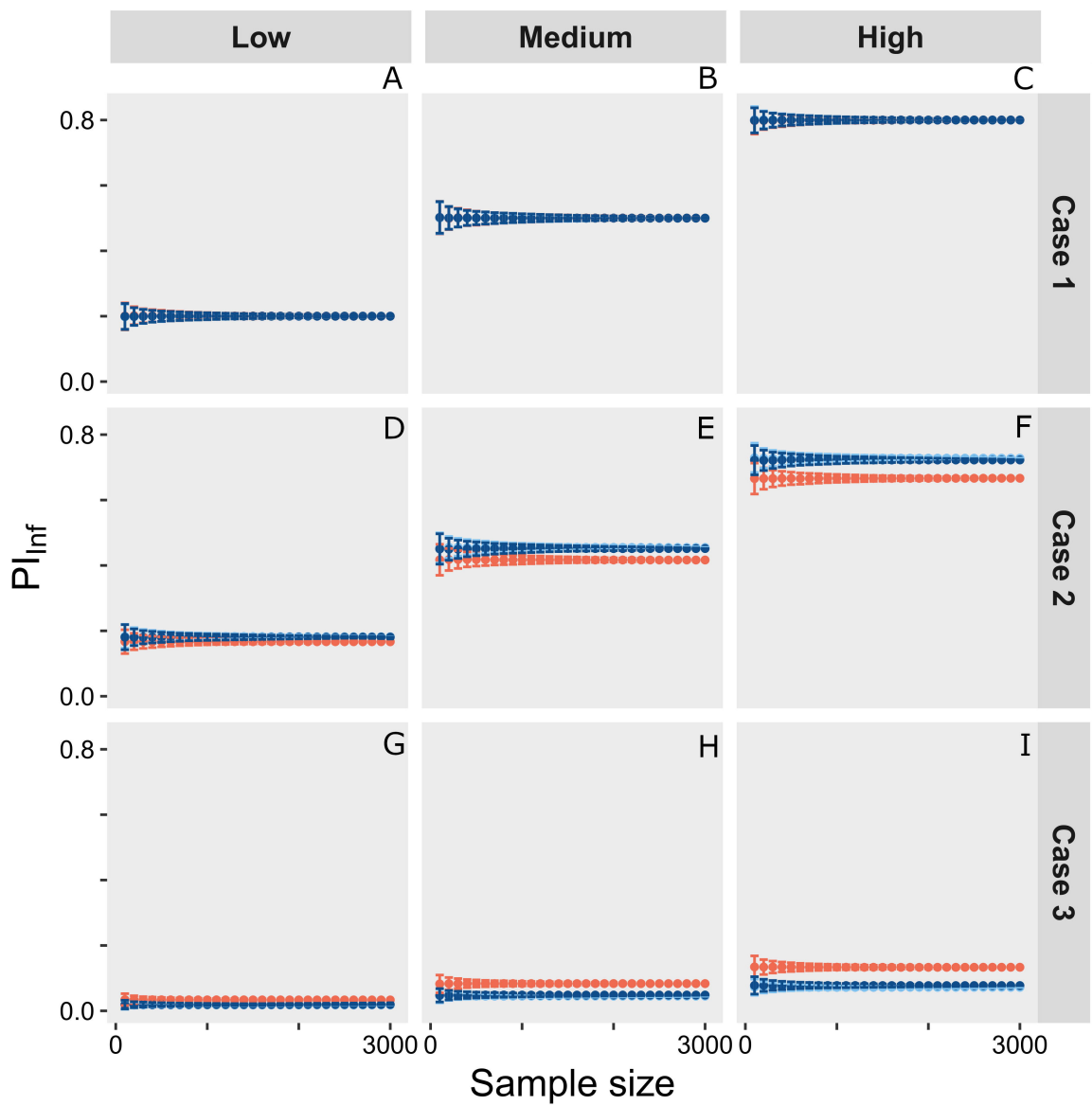


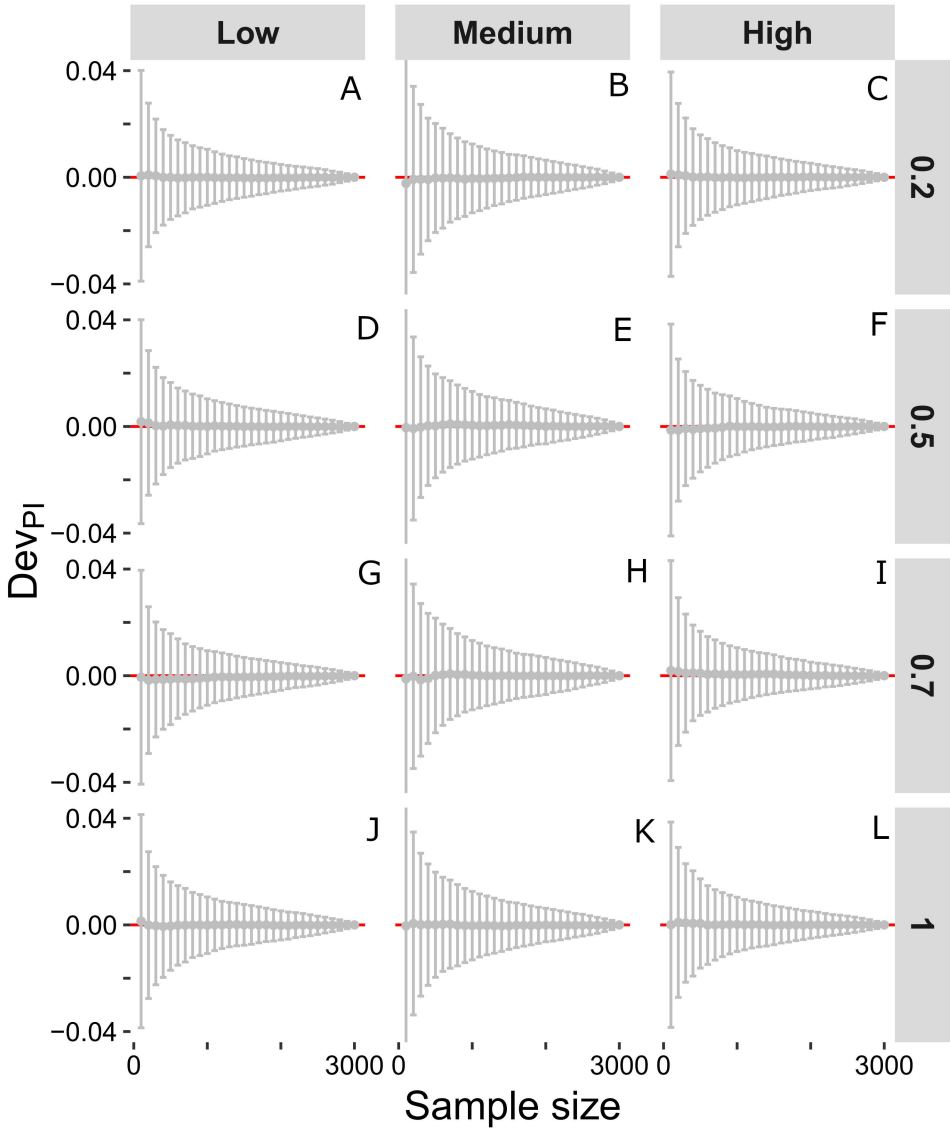
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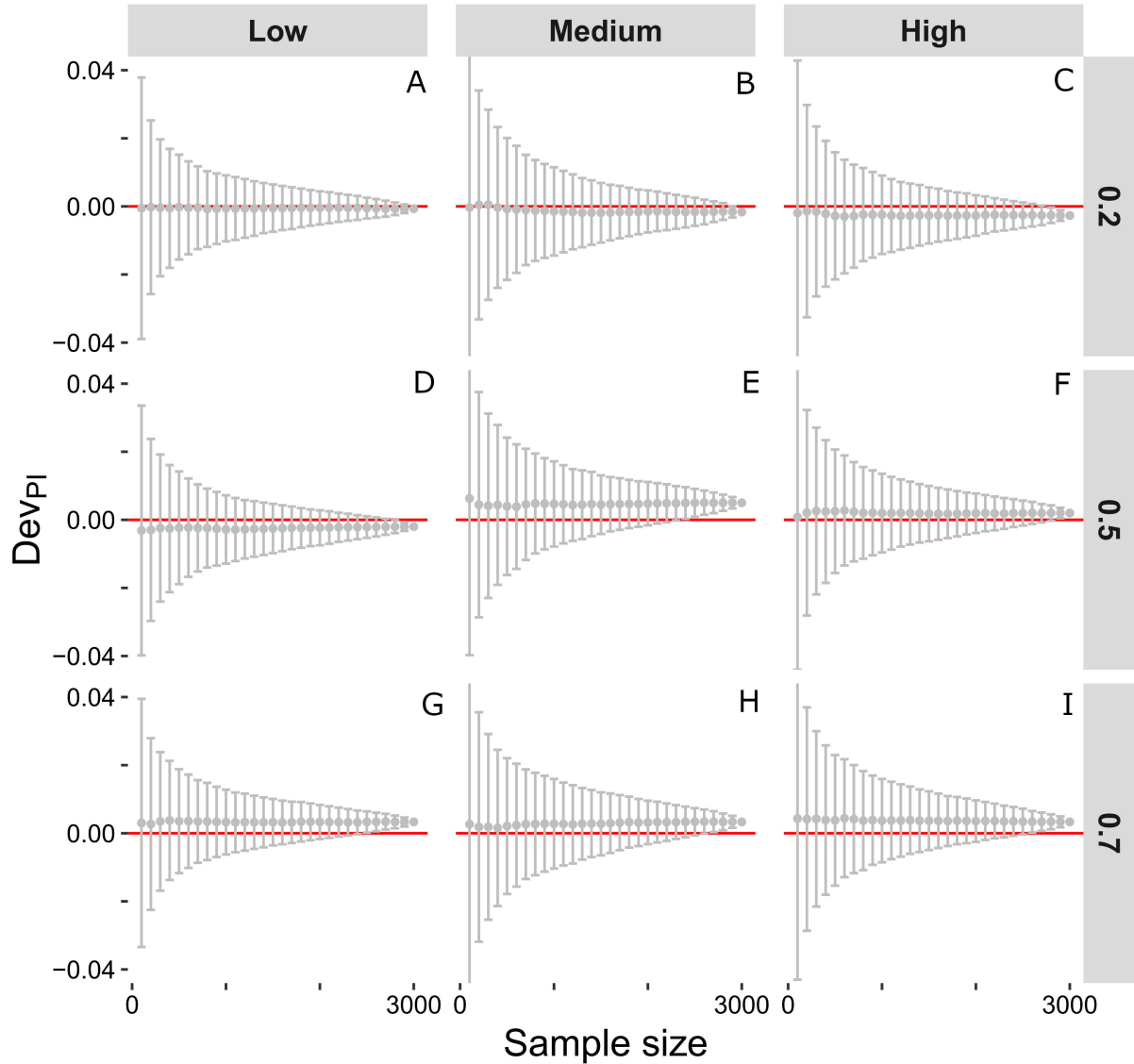
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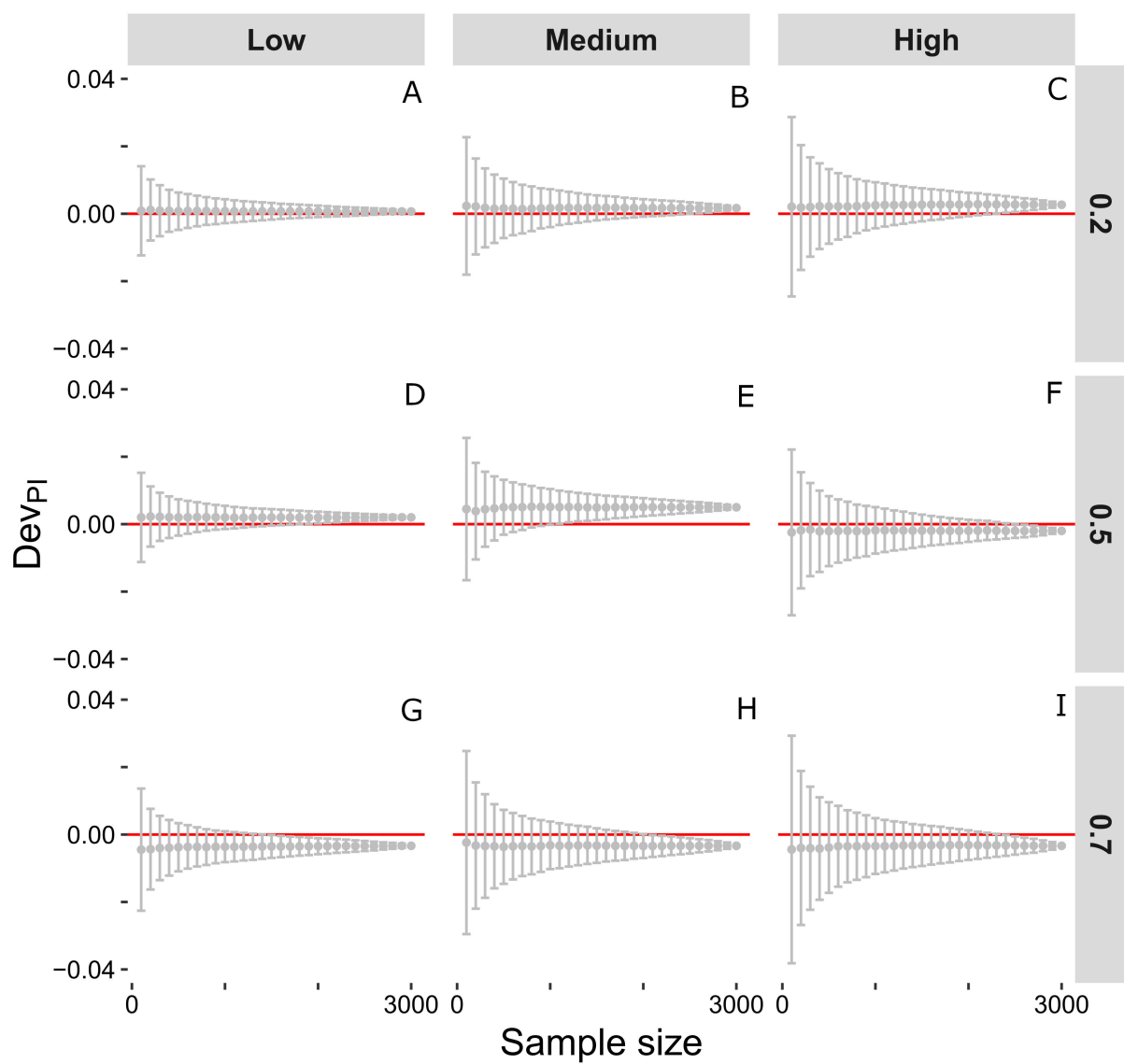


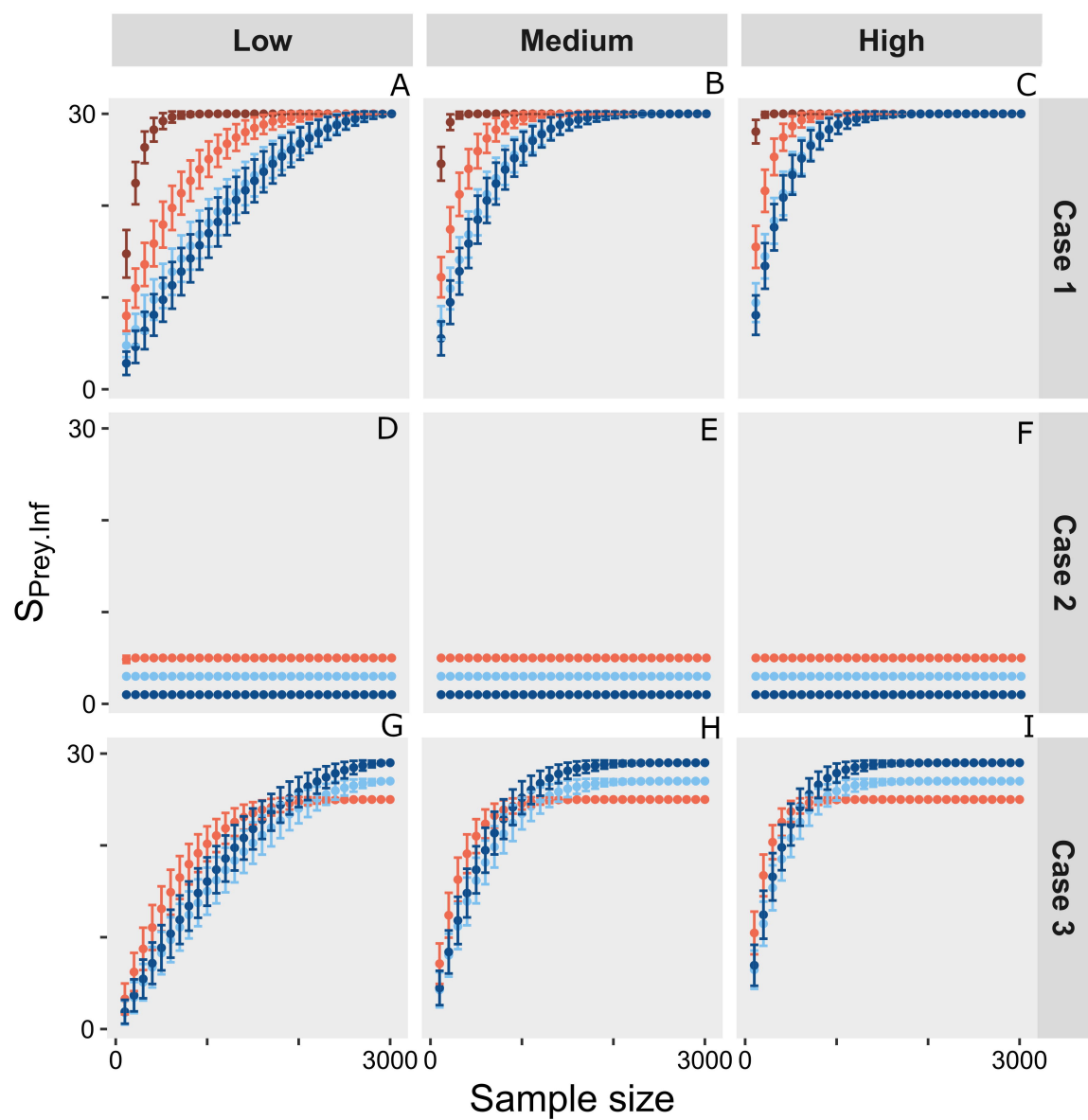
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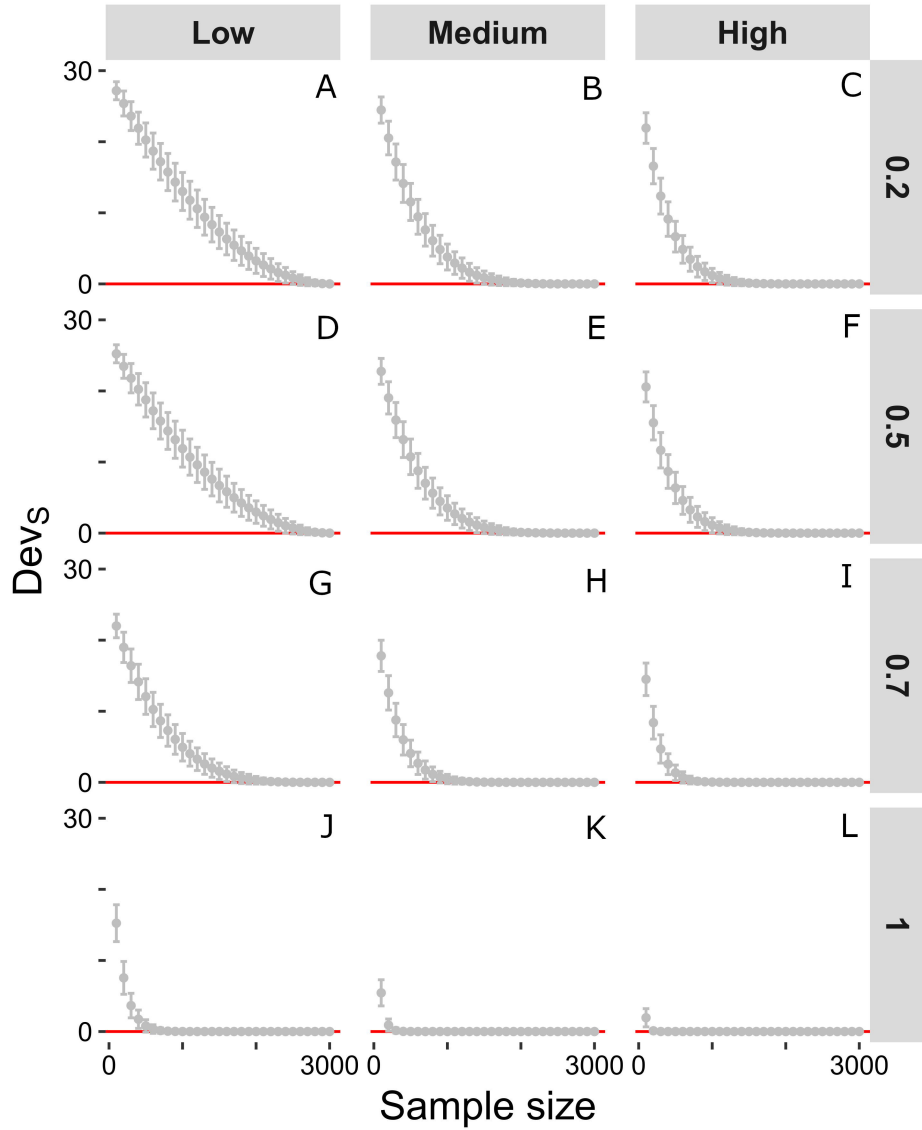


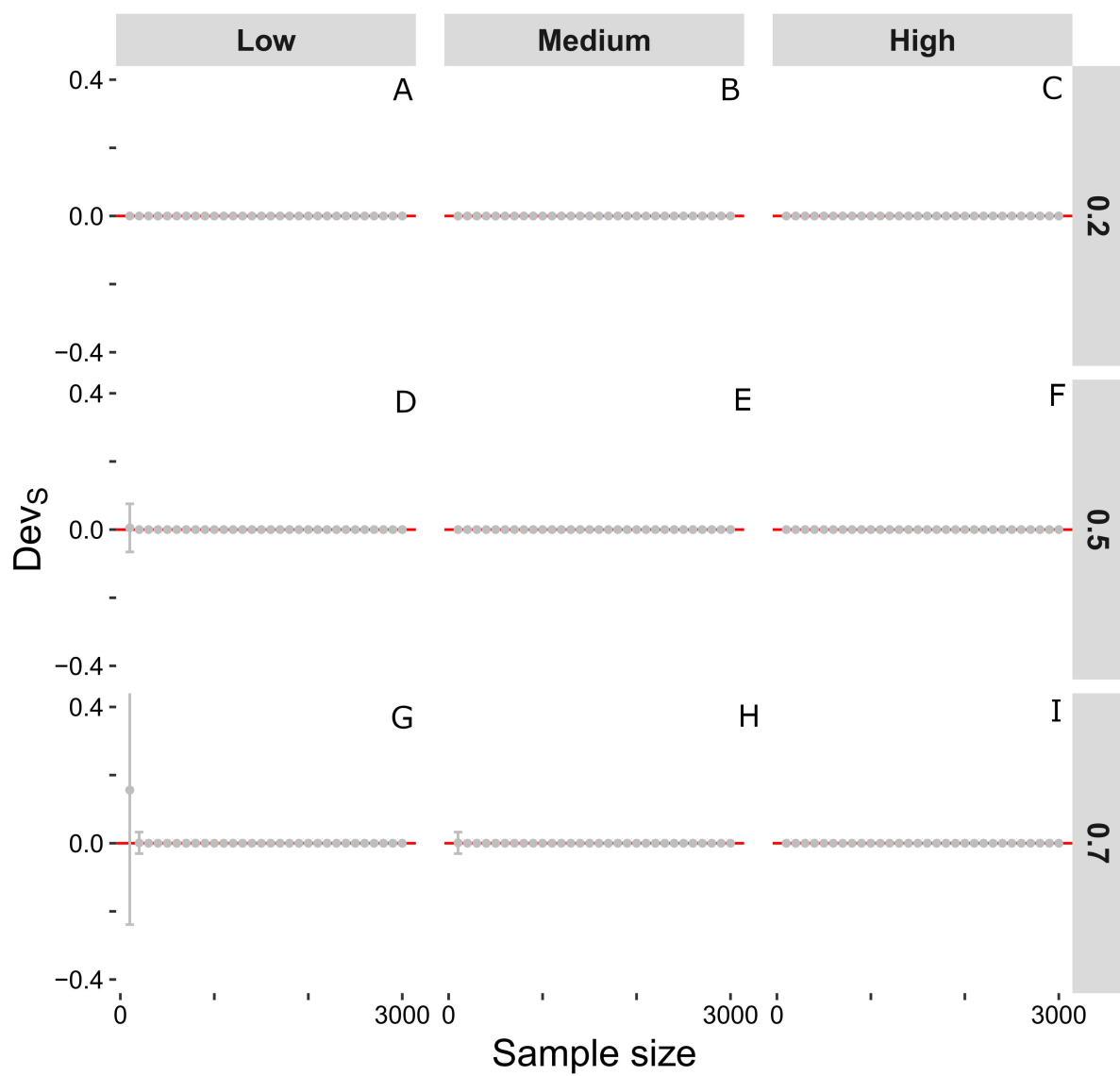


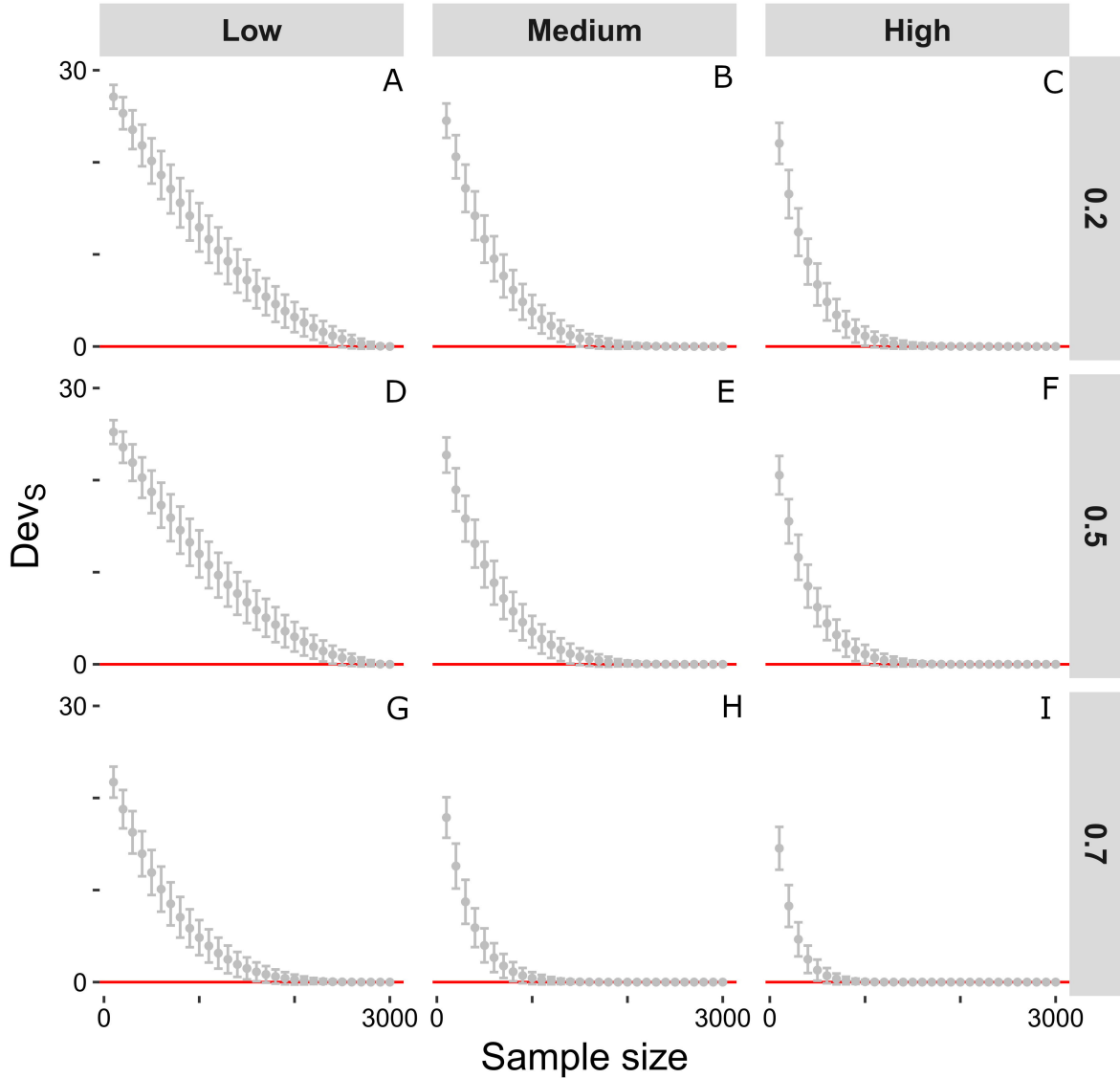


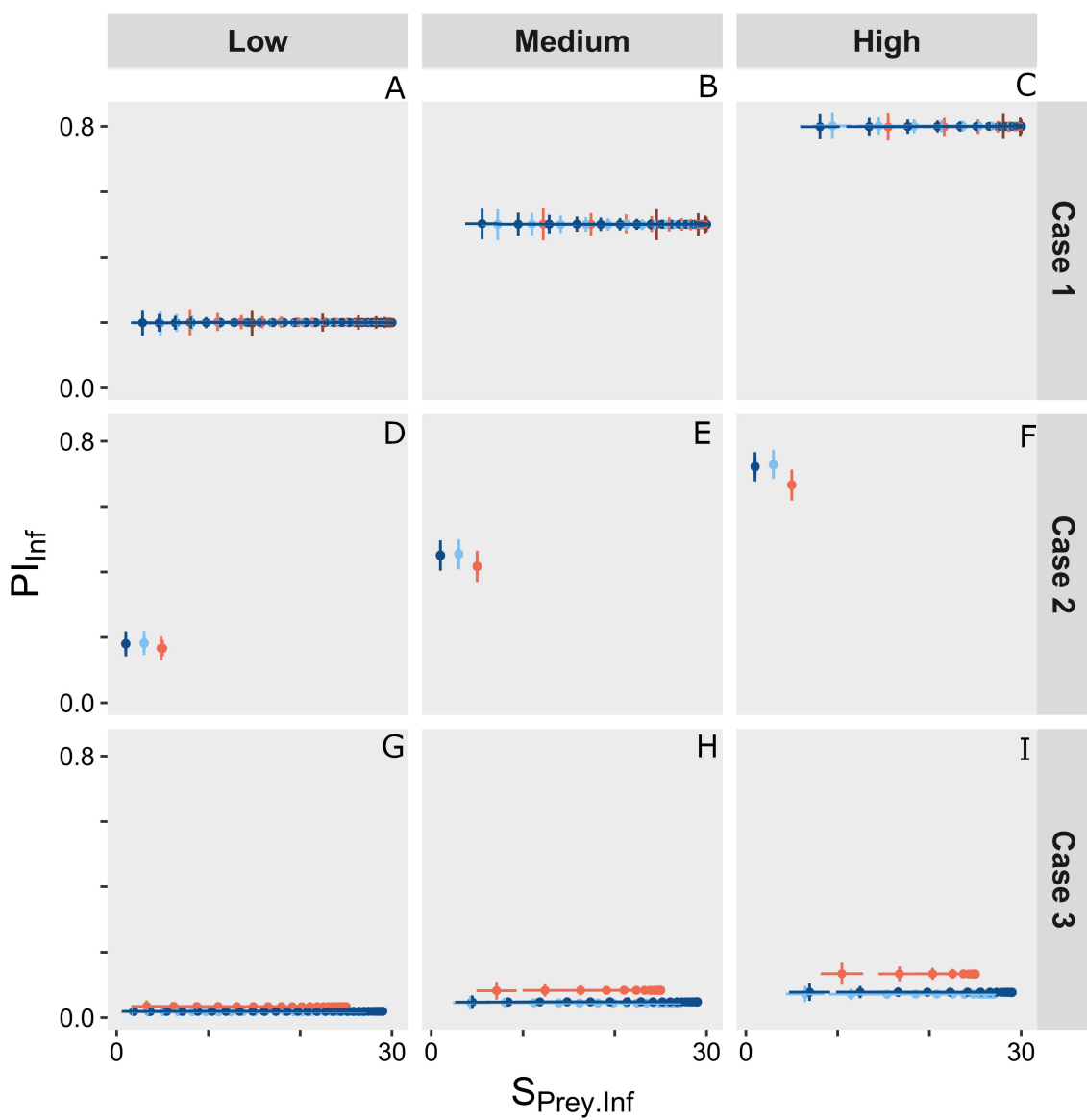












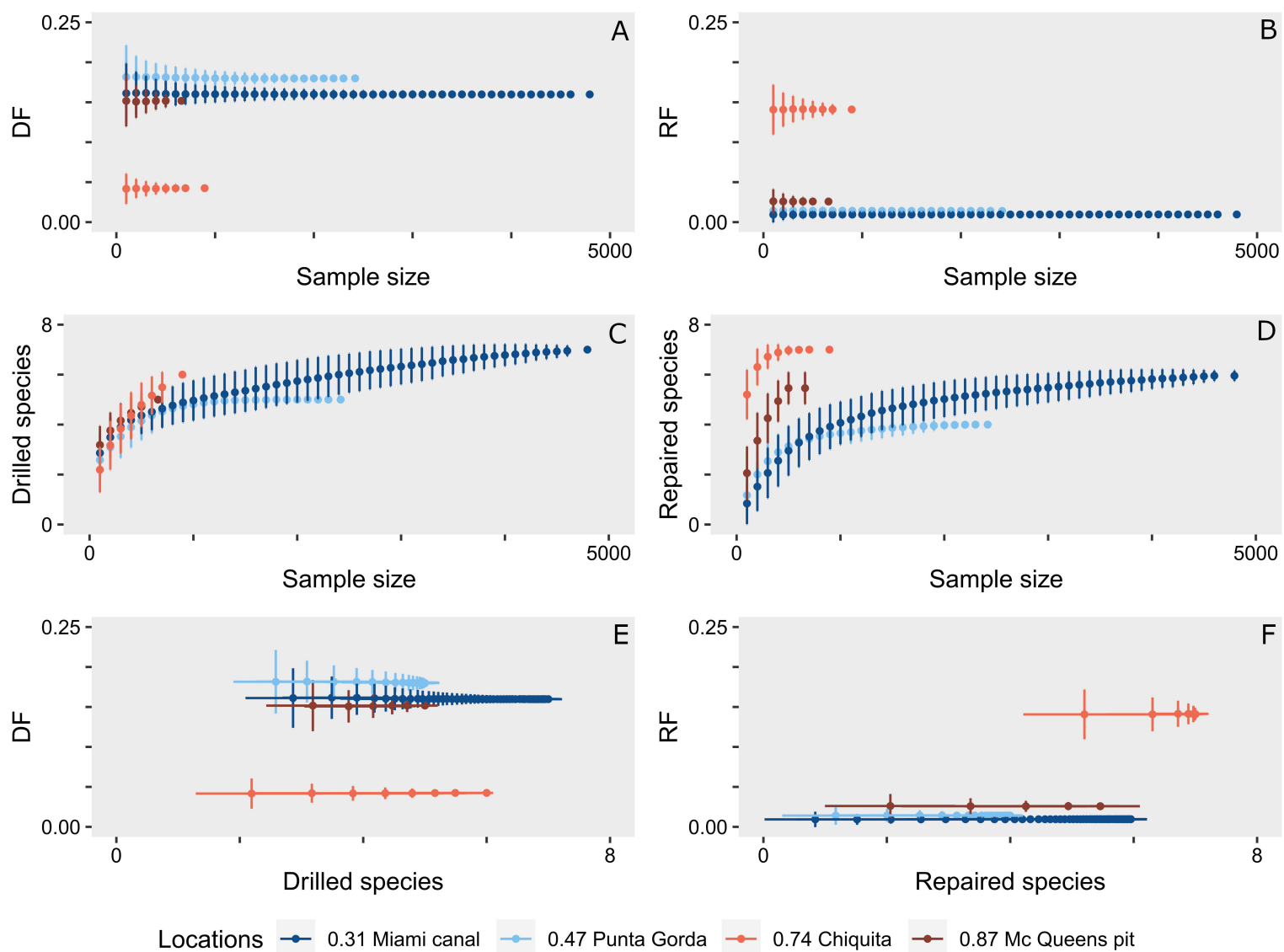


Table 2. A summary of the published predation data from four Plio-Pleistocene fossil assemblages of Florida (Chattopadhyay and Baumiller, 2010).

Locality	Evenness (E_T)	Sample size	S_T	Drilling frequency	$S_{\text{prey.drill}}$	Repair scar frequency	$S_{\text{prey.repair}}$
Miami Canal	0.31	4794	7	0.16	7	0.01	6
Punta Gorda	0.47	2417	5	0.18	5	0.01	4
Chiquita	0.74	894	7	0.04	6	0.14	7
McQueen's pit	0.87	657	6	0.15	5	0.03	6

Table 3. The result of Spearman rank order correlation test for proportional abundance and PI_{prey} for the predation estimates across four Plio-Pleistocene fossil assemblages of Florida (Chattopadhyay and Baumiller, 2010). The significant results are marked in bold.

Predation	Location	rho	p	Inferred scenario
Drilling	Punta Gorda	0.87	0.05	Case 2
	McQueen's pit	0.83	0.06	Case 1
	Chiquita	0.68	0.08	Case 1
	Miami canal	0.99	<0.001	Case 2
Durophagy	Punta Gorda	0.21	0.74	Case 1
	McQueen's pit	0.46	0.35	Case 1
	Chiquita	0.24	0.61	Case 1
	Miami canal	0.79	0.03	Case 2

Table 4. The test-statistic (D) of Kolmogorov–Smirnov test comparing the predation estimates across four Plio-Pleistocene fossil assemblages of Florida using sample-standardization protocol. All the results are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$).

Estimate	Predation	Location	McQueen's pit	Chiquita	Miami Canal
Predation intensity	Drilling	Punta Gorda	0.8	1	0.53
		McQueen's pit		0.24	0.31
		Chiquita			1
	Durophagy	Punta Gorda	0.9	1	0.19
		McQueen's pit		0.96	0.85
		Chiquita			1
Prey species richness	Drilling	Punta Gorda	0.38	0.31	0.13
		McQueen's pit		0.24	0.36
		Chiquita			0.29
	Durophagy	Punta Gorda	0.84	1	0.41
		McQueen's pit		1	0.95
		Chiquita			1