Hiding in the background: community-level patterns in invertebrate 1

herbivory across the tundra biome 2

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Abstract

Invertebrate herbivores depend on external temperature for growth and metabolism. Continued warming in tundra ecosystems is proposed to result in increased invertebrate herbivory. However, empirical data about how current levels of invertebrate herbivory vary across the Arctic is limited and generally restricted to a single host plant or a small group of species, so predicting future change remains challenging. We investigated large-scale patterns of invertebrate herbivory across the tundra biome at the community level and explored how these patterns are related to long-term climatic conditions and yearof-sampling weather, habitat characteristics and aboveground biomass production. Utilizing a standardized protocol, we collected samples from 92 plots nested within 20 tundra sites during summer 2015. We estimated the community-weighted biomass lost based on the total leaf area consumed by invertebrates for the most common plant species within each plot. Overall, invertebrate herbivory was prevalent at low intensities across the tundra, with estimates averaging 0.94% and ranging between 0.02% and 5.69% of plant biomass. Our results suggest that mid-summer temperature influences the intensity of invertebrate herbivory at the community level, consistent with the hypothesis that climate warming should increase plant losses to invertebrates in the tundra. However, most of the observed variation in herbivory was associated with other site level characteristics, indicating that other local ecological factors also play

- an important role. More details about the local drivers of invertebrate herbivory are necessary to predict
- the consequences for rapidly changing tundra ecosystems.
- Keywords: background herbivory, biomass loss, climate change, community-weighted average,
- 64 invertebrate, insects, tundra

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Introduction

68 studies of invertebrate herbivory in high-latitude systems have focused on outbreak events, when 69 herbivores consume massive amounts of plant biomass over a short time period. Outbreaks have most 70 frequently been reported for boreal forests and the forest-tundra ecotone (Jepsen et al. 2013; Karlsen et al. 71 2013; Kaukonen et al. 2013) whereas few have been described in true tundra systems (Post and Pedersen 72 2008; Lund et al. 2017). In contrast, under non-outbreak densities, invertebrates are responsible for low 73 but chronic biomass removal, referred to as background herbivory (Kozlov and Zvereva 2017). At these 74 low densities the immediate effects of invertebrates appear minimal (Kotanen and Rosenthal 2000), but 75 the longer-term nature of background herbivory may have prolonged effects on plant growth (Zvereva et 76 al. 2012), community interactions (Barrio et al. 2013), and nutrient fluxes (Metcalfe et al. 2016). The

current understanding of the patterns of background invertebrate herbivory in tundra environments is

based on only a few studies that focused on either a single host plant species (Betula glandulosa-nana

complex, Barrio et al. 2017) or on specific growth forms (shrubs, Kozlov et al. 2015a). No studies have

assessed patterns of invertebrate background herbivory at the community level across the tundra biome.

Invertebrate herbivores can have strong effects on the structure and function of Arctic ecosystems. Most

The interaction between invertebrate herbivores and plants in tundra ecosystems occurs under environmental conditions characterized by cold temperatures, a short growing season, and precipitation that falls mostly as snow (Strathdee and Bale 1998). Current trends associated with rapid climate change at high latitudes indicate that the tundra biome will continue to experience increased temperature and altered precipitation regimes, as well as a longer growing season (Post et al. 2009; IPCC 2013; Overland et al. 2017). Invertebrate ecophysiology strongly depends on temperature, so even moderate increases in temperature have the potential to alter the duration of the life cycles (or parts of them) of invertebrate herbivores, increase their densities and activity (Asmus et al. 2018), or alter their distribution ranges or those of their competitors (Hodkinson and Bird 1998; Bale et al. 2002; Bolduc et al. 2013). For example, higher summer temperatures can increase the intensity of herbivory (Birkemoe et al. 2016), create phenological mismatches between specialist herbivores and plant species (Kharouba et al. 2015) or

92 alternatively, induce stronger phenological matches between plants and herbivores (Jepsen et al. 2011; 93 Pureswaran et al. 2019), and/or alter herbivore feeding choices (Barrio et al. 2016a), although these 94 patterns are far from being general in either space or time (Kozlov and Zvereva 2015; Zvereva et al. 2016; 95 Kozlov et al. 2017). Moreover, changes in precipitation could affect the amount of damage caused by 96 invertebrate herbivores indirectly, through their influence on leaf traits, such as leaf toughness (based on 97 the structural materials that make up the leaf) or leaf chemistry. Stress due to dry conditions can either 98 increase the toughness of leaves, thus decreasing their palatability for invertebrate herbivores (Onoda et 99 al. 2011) or induce plants to decrease the production of herbivore defense chemicals, resulting in an 100 increase in the palatability of leaf tissues (Berg et al. 2008). Kozlov et al. (2015b) found that precipitation 101 contributed to latitudinal patterns observed in invertebrate herbivory, such that increased precipitation 102 resulted in higher levels of invertebrate-caused defoliation. With the potential for so many different 103 responses to climate change, it is essential to document the existing patterns of invertebrate herbivory and 104 to explore the drivers behind these patterns in order to predict future changes. 105 The level of herbivory on plants can also be driven by local site characteristics, such as habitat type, 106 productivity or plant community composition. Herbivory is generally lower in more diverse plant 107 communities, but this varies with the host specificity of insects, and plant species composition may be 108 more important than species richness per se (Jactel and Brockerhoff 2007). For example, different growth 109 forms or functional groups of plants differ in their palatability and responses to herbivory (Turcotte et al. 110 2014). In general, deciduous shrubs are more palatable than evergreen shrubs (MacLean Jr. and Jensen 111 1985; Turcotte et al. 2014), and shrubs, due to plant apparency, tend to be consumed more than 112 herbaceous plants (Turcotte et al. 2014). Graminoid species are often less palatable due to lower 113 nutritional content and stronger physical defenses (Tscharntke and Greiler 1995). Thus, local and site 114 level factors influencing variation in herbivory need to be considered in combination with climate drivers. 115 We assessed invertebrate herbivory within vascular plant communities across the tundra biome to 116 investigate the role of climatic drivers, specifically temperature and precipitation, habitat, and 117 aboveground plant biomass, in explaining the variation in plant losses to invertebrate herbivores. We 118 predicted that higher levels of invertebrate herbivory would be associated with sites experiencing higher 119 summer temperatures and higher precipitation, and would vary across habitats with different aboveground 120 biomass availability, such that sites with more plant biomass will experience higher levels of herbivory 121 (Bonser and Reader 1995). We also assessed the hypothesis that different plant functional groups 122 (deciduous shrub, evergreen shrub, graminoid, herbs) experience different levels of herbivory due to 123 differences in palatability, such that deciduous shrubs would have more damage than evergreen shrubs, 124 shrubs would have more damage than herbaceous plants, and that herbs would have more damage than

125 graminoids. To do this we examined invertebrate herbivory at the species level for 42 vascular plant 126 species grouped into broad functional groups. To our knowledge, this is the first survey of community 127 level invertebrate herbivory in the tundra. Our coordinated study may provide a framework for future 128 global monitoring efforts of invertebrate herbivory in other ecosystems too. 129 130 Methods 131 Study design 132 This study was conducted during the summer of 2015 and involved researchers working at 20 133 Arctic/alpine tundra sites in the Northern Hemisphere (Figure 1). In order to ensure consistent data 134 collection, we adopted a common protocol designed by the Herbivory Network (Barrio et al. 2016b; 135 Online Resource 1) that provided a simple, hierarchical design for sampling individual plants and plots 136 within each study site. The protocol was distributed to members of the Herbivory Network who generally 137 selected locations associated with their own long-term research efforts; these sites are described in more 138 detail in Rheubottom (2018). Sites spanned high-latitude tundra ecosystems ranging from 55.24 to 78.60 139 °N and one alpine site in the Swiss Alps (Val Bercla 46.47 °N). 140 A study site was broadly defined as an area of 0.25-25 km² where sampling was conducted. At each site, 141 the dominant habitat type was identified, avoiding areas influenced by extremes in moisture, soil 142 chemistry, or disturbances, so that study sites would represent a variety of habitats characteristic of the 143 tundra biome (Table 1). Habitat types were determined based on the broader habitat categories defined in 144 the Circumpolar Arctic Vegetation Map (CAVM; Walker et al. 2005), or were classified as alpine tundra. 145 Latnjajaure was included in the erect-shrub tundra category based on a similar definition from Virtanen et 146 al. (2016). Overall, a total of 6 habitat types were considered (**Table 1**). 147 At each site, five plots $(20 \times 20 \text{ m})$ were established at least 100 m apart. Three focal species of vascular 148 plants were identified in each plot based on their overall contribution to the community-wide foliar 149 biomass, with the exception of Toolik Lake where five focal species were sampled (**Table 1**). 150 Consequently, the focal species were plot-specific and could differ between plots within the same study 151 site. In total, 42 focal species were sampled across all sites, including 13 graminoids, 9 deciduous shrubs, 152 8 evergreen shrubs, and 12 herbs (**Table 2**).

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Sampling protocol

154 Three individual plants for each of the focal species at each plot were identified. Plants were considered 155 different "individuals" when they were at least 10 m apart. Leaf samples (ca. 100 leaves per plant 156 individual) were collected from each individual. In the case of plants that did not have enough leaves, 157 samples were collected from "aggregates", i.e. multiple stems growing close together (within 1–2 m). The 158 selection of individuals or aggregates was undertaken from a distance of 5-10 m to avoid recognition of 159 invertebrate herbivory during the selection process and avoid confirmation bias (i.e. picking individuals 160 specifically because they were damaged or undamaged; Kozlov et al. 2014). In many cases, branches or 161 stems were collected to avoid damaging leaves by detaching them in the field, or missing leaves with a 162 large amount of damage (i.e. only the petiole remaining). Samples were press-dried as herbarium 163 specimens and sent for analysis by the first author. 164 The contribution of each of the focal species to the biomass in each plot was estimated using the point-165 intercept method. In each plot, 16 sampling points were placed in a regular grid 5 m apart. Point-intercept 166 data were collected at each sampling point using a 50×50 cm frame with ten fixed pin positions. The 167 number of times a focal species touched each pin was recorded (i.e. multiple hits per pin per focal species 168 were possible). Three of the sampling points were randomly selected to harvest total aboveground plant 169 biomass using the same frame, after the point-intercept data were collected. Biomass samples were stored 170 in paper bags and air-dried in the field; in the lab, biomass samples were sorted into the three focal 171 species recorded for each plot and 'other' biomass, and weighed to the nearest mg. 172 The sampling points that had both point-intercept and biomass data were used to calculate a conversion 173 factor to estimate plant biomass based on point intercept data as described by Bråthen and Hagberg (2004; 174 Online Resource 2). Biomass estimates for each focal species in each plot were then calculated based on 175 the 16 sampling points, multiplying the mean number of hits per pin of each of the focal species by the 176 corresponding conversion factor. 177 Leaf damage assessment 178 Leaf sample preparation involved detaching the leaves from the branches/stems or, for graminoids, at the 179 ligule. All leaves were sampled starting from the uppermost one on each branch/stem, until the desired 180 number of leaves was obtained. A dissecting microscope was used to observe leaves for damage. Each 181 leaf was examined on both sides with a light source shinning down on to the leaf to assess external 182 damage, and then, both sides were examined with a light source shinning up through the leaf to evaluate 183 internal damage (Barrio et al. 2017). Leaf mine damage was identified by the presence of invertebrates 184 inside the mines, while galls that were unclear were reviewed by entomologists at the University of 185 Alberta.

186 The percent area of each leaf that was damaged by invertebrates (either chewing or skeletonization caused 187 by external feeders, mining, or gall damage) was visually attributed to one of the following damage 188 categories: intact leaves, <1%, 1-5%, 5-25%, 25-50%, 50-75%, and >75% of leaf area damaged or 189 removed by herbivores (Kozlov 2008; Barrio et al. 2017). When two different types of invertebrate 190 herbivory were present on the same leaf (3.3% of leaves), the second damage type (smaller percentage) 191 was recorded as secondary damage and included in the analysis (see below), but the leaf was not counted 192 twice in the total number of leaves. Data for the damage assessment of Betula nana was previously used 193 in Barrio et al. (2017) which focused on examining variation in invertebrate herbivory for a single species 194 complex across the Arctic. 195 Calculation of community weighted estimates of biomass lost (CWBL) 196 As an approximation of foliar loss to invertebrate herbivores, the percent leaf area damaged (PLAD) was 197 calculated as the mean leaf area damaged for each of the focal species in a plot. The number of leaves in 198 each damage category was multiplied by the median value of damage in that category (for example, a leaf 199 in the 25-50% bin was assigned as having 37.5% damage), summed over all damage categories and 200 divided by the total number of leaves in the sample (Barrio et al. 2017). 201 The community weighted biomass lost (CWBL, %) due to total invertebrate leaf damage was calculated 202 for each plot (Online Resource 3), taking into account the proportion of biomass contributed by each of 203 the focal species, and how much of this was consumed by invertebrates, as estimated by PLAD. CWBL 204 takes into account the effect of different species composition at different study sites, and allows for 205 comparisons across sites with different habitat types. In order to control for the biomass of the focal 206 species being only a proportion of the total community biomass, the percent contribution of each focal 207 species to the total biomass was incorporated into the CWBL calculation. In the case of Toolik Lake, no 208 total biomass harvest data was available but five focal species were reported; it was assumed that these 209 five focal species represented most of the biomass at the community level and the contribution of each 210 focal species to the biomass of these five focal species was included in the CWBL calculations (Online 211 **Resource 3**). CWBL was expressed as a percentage of the total biomass in a plot to control for the 212 variation in biomass across tundra sites, from polar deserts to shrub tundra. 213 Statistical analyses 214 The combined leaf damage caused by different feeding guilds of invertebrate herbivores (defoliators, 215 miners and gallers) was used in our analysis because some types of leaf damage, such as mining or 216 galling, tend to be infrequent in tundra (Barrio et al. 2017). The variation in CWBL was analyzed using

Linear Mixed Effects Models (LMM) (Zuur et al. 2009), including study site as a random factor to
account for the study design of multiple plots sampled within each site. Predictor variables included
climatic variables (long-term mean July temperature and precipitation, and July 2015 temperature and
precipitation relative to the long-term average), total plant biomass per m², and the habitat type of the
study site (Table 1; Online Resource 3). Temperature and precipitation data were compiled from the
CRU TS3.10 Dataset (Harris et al. 2014), and divided into long-term July means (based on data from
1990-2015) and the deviations from the respective means in July 2015. Long-term means incorporated
interannual variation in temperature and precipitation, while the 2015 values indicated deviations in the
weather conditions during the sampling year relative to the long-term average (i.e. if the summer 2015
was colder and/or wetter than average at a particular site). July was used to indicate mid-summer
conditions that coincide with peak temperatures and peak plant biomass (Myers-Smith et al. 2015; Barrio
et al. 2017). The six different habitats included wetlands, erect-shrub tundra, prostrate-shrub tundra,
barren tundra, graminoid tundra, and alpine tundra (Table 1).
Five models were constructed (Table 2) based on one with the object back backing a would be driven
Five models were constructed (Table 3) based on our <i>a priori</i> hypotheses that herbivory would be driven
by: 1) the long-term mean July temperature; or by more additional variables: 2) the long-term mean
precipitation, 3) the 2015 deviations from average temperature and precipitation, 4) aboveground plant
biomass or 5) habitat type. The five models were compared using AICc values (Table 3). Collinearity
between the predictors was assessed across the 20 sites, and only combinations of variables with
correlations $r < 0.55 $ were included in the models (Table 3). Running the analyses with and without the
alpine site and with and without Murmansk, which showed the largest value of CWBL (Figure 2) did not
change the results, so these sites were retained in the analyses.
In a separate analysis, we examined whether different plant growth forms and/or functional groups
experienced different levels of invertebrate herbivory. Using a Welch's two-sample t-test, we compared
woody plants to herbaceous plants, deciduous shrubs to evergreen shrubs, and herbs to graminoids.
Model assumptions were checked by visually examining plots of the residuals versus fitted values to
determine homoscedasticity of variances; normality of residuals was examined via QQ-plots. In order to
meet the assumptions the CWBL values were log ₁₀ -transformed prior to analysis. All statistical analyses
were carried out in R 3.5.1 (R Development Core Team 2017), and LMMs were built using the <i>lme4</i>
package (Bates et al. 2015).

Results

- 248 Distribution of damage among herbivore feeding guilds
- 249 Invertebrate damage was found in 9,062 of 77,586 leaves examined (11.7%). The majority of damaged
- leaves (7,265 or 80.2%) had feeding marks of externally defoliating invertebrates. We found only 772
- mined leaves and 1,025 leaves with insect or mite galls (8.5% and 11.3% of all damaged leaves,
- respectively). Damage by defoliators was recorded in leaves of 35 of the 42 focal plant species, by leaf
- 253 miners in 21 species, and by gall-forming herbivores in 21 species (**Table 2**).
- Variation in herbivory among focal species
- The 42 focal species included in our analyses experienced varying levels of invertebrate herbivory. The
- highest average percent leaf area damaged (PLAD) from all samples combined was 26.05% (Vaccinium
- 257 myrtillus), while seven plant species had no invertebrate damage at all (**Table 2**). Only 13 species
- experienced leaf area losses greater than 1%, with only three of those species experiencing more than 5%
- 259 (V. myrtillus, Salix reticulata (9.13%), and Oxyria digyna (6.13%); **Table 2**).
- We found differences in invertebrate herbivory between plant growth forms and/or functional groups.
- Foliar losses of woody plants were four times higher than that of herbaceous plants (2.93% vs. 0.70%;
- $t_{561.42}$ =5.16, p<0.0001). Within woody plants, the losses of deciduous shrubs were 14 times greater than
- 263 the losses of evergreen shrubs (5.20% vs. 0.37%; $t_{285,17}$ =5.38, p<0.0001). Within herbaceous plants, the
- losses of herbs were four times as large as the losses of graminoids (1.16% vs. 0.28%; $t_{121.15}$ =2.50,
- 265 p=0.0137).
- Variation in herbivory among study sites
- At the site level, the CWBL due to invertebrate herbivores varied from 0.02% (Bogstranda, in Svalbard)
- to 5.68% (Murmansk, Russia), with an average (\pm SE) of 0.94 \pm 0.31% (n=20; **Figure 1**; **Online**
- **Resource 3**). Aboveground biomass of vascular plants at our plots ranged from 2.56 to 854.68 g/m².
- 270 CWBL ranged between 0.002 and 10.68% across all plots examined, with an average (±SE) of 0.98 ±
- 271 0.17% (n=92).
- Two models received similar support (\triangle AICc<2; models 1 and 4 in **Table 3**). Both models included the
- effect of long-term mean July temperature (**Table 3**); the second best model also included total
- aboveground biomass, but its effect was not significantly different from zero (estimate = -0.001, 95% CI=
- 275 (-0.002, 0); **Online Resource 4**). The models predicted a linear positive relationship between the log-
- transformed community weighted biomass lost (CWBL) and July temperature (Figure 2), with an
- estimated increase of 0.11% CWBL per 1 °C (model 1: *estimate*= 0.106, 95% CI= (0.028, 0.184); model

278 4: estimate = 0.114, 95% CI = (0.038, 0.190)). However, the models still had a high percentage of 279 unexplained variability between the different tundra sites, associated with the random effect (model 1: 280 67.73%, model 4: 65.14%; **Online Resource 4**). 281 282 **Discussion** 283 Invertebrate herbivory was detected at all our 20 study sites, suggesting that it is a widespread 284 phenomenon throughout the tundra biome. However, the intensity of herbivory was generally low and 285 seemed to be influenced by summer temperature and other unknown local site characteristics. 286 At the community level, the mean foliar biomass lost to invertebrates was 0.94% (n=20), ranging from 287 0.02% to 5.69%. These levels are consistent with the average value of 0.56% reported from shrubs 288 growing in tundra regions of the European Arctic (Kozlov et al. 2015a) and with an estimate of 1.20% 289 loss calculated from the regressions of woody plant herbivory vs. latitude (after Kozlov et al. 2015b) for 290 the average latitude of our Arctic study sites (68.1 °N). Thus, we conclude that in tundra, plant foliar 291 losses to invertebrate herbivores at background (i.e., non-outbreak) levels are around 1% of foliar 292 biomass. This value is 5–13 times lower than reported in temperate plant communities. For example, in 293 temperate herbaceous communities, invertebrates reduced plant biomass by 13% (Coupe and Cahill 294 2003), and tissue loss due to invertebrates in temperate forests was 5–8% (Kozlov et al. 2015b). This 295 discrepancy may be partially attributed to the species-specific data used for the temperate studies 296 compared to the community-weighted method used in our study, or may simply reflect the lower levels of 297 invertebrate herbivory in the tundra (Kozlov et al. 2015a). 298 The variation in community weighted biomass lost to background invertebrate herbivory was associated 299 with long-term summer temperatures. Our sites spanned a range of summer (July) temperatures across the 300 tundra biome, from 2.9 to 14.8 °C. Warmer sites had significantly higher levels of invertebrate herbivory 301 despite a large variation among sites. Our model indicated a logarithmic relationship between long-term 302 July temperature and CWBL, suggesting that sites with higher temperatures have a more pronounced 303 increase in herbivory than cooler sites. As a first step to approximate the effects of future warming on 304 tundra invertebrate herbivory, we can adopt a space-for-time substitution approach to broadly infer 305 changes in herbivory from locations with different climatic variables (see for example Barrio et al. 2017).

Given the lack of long-term monitoring data on invertebrate herbivory in tundra and despite its

limitations, this approach provides the best solution and allows generating predictions that can then be

tested through monitoring or manipulative field experiments. According to our model, a single degree

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low Arctic) compared with lower temperatures (i.e. in the high Arctic). For example, an increase in temperature from 4°C to 5°C results in an increase in CWBL of 0.02%, while increasing from 13°C to 14°C results in an increase of 0.20%. Depending on the scenario, global temperatures are predicted to increase by 1.1–2.9°C to 2.4–6.4°C over the next century, and this increase is expected to be more pronounced in the Arctic (IPCC 2013; Overland et al. 2017). These predicted increases in temperature would shift even our coldest sites (in Svalbard, Norway; 2.9 °C) into the temperature range where herbivory levels begin to increase more rapidly (**Figure 2**). We also found that for sites with mean temperatures <6 °C, there was very little variation in herbivory level – it was always very low and all observations were clustered near the trend line. However, at sites with mean July temperatures >8 °C, the intensity of herbivory becomes much more variable, with some sites showing low herbivory while others had much higher levels. This suggests that a threshold may exist, below which invertebrate herbivory is consistently low. Once this threshold is crossed at higher temperatures, herbivory can sometimes be very high but other site-specific factor(s) may be constraining the levels of herbivory, resulting in the variability observed in the present study (Figure 2). However, our assessment was based on a single year and temporal variation may not be consistent across sites, highlighting the need for long-term monitoring of invertebrate herbivory across multiple sites in tundra ecosystems. Our models indicate that long-term mid-summer temperatures are partially responsible for this trend rather than the climatic conditions in the year of sampling. This may be partially related to the life histories of high latitude insects, which tend to have life cycles that span multiple years (Danks 1992). Warmer summers year after year may thus have a greater effect than one single warm season, if, for example, insects are able to complete their life cycle in fewer growing seasons, or if species are able to complete multiple generations in a single summer. Further, long-term warming could allow lower-latitude species (with shorter generation times, higher growth rates, and warmer temperature requirements) to persist at higher latitudes. In contrast, other studies have found that weather in the year of sampling has a stronger effect on herbivory than long-term climate data (Kozlov et al. 2013, Barrio et al. 2017). These studies however, were investigating herbivory levels on a single or a few plant species rather than at the community level. The number of plant species involved in studies estimating herbivore damage can affect the inferences of these studies, with studies including fewer species tending to overestimate damage (Zvereva and Kozlov 2019). Warming can also influence the feeding choices of invertebrate herbivores (Barrio et al. 2016a, Gamarra et al. 2018), so patterns of herbivory of a single species may not be representative of what happens at the community level. An alternative explanation could be simply that the weather in the year of sampling in the present study might have been unusual. Most sites had a colder

increase in temperature will have a stronger effect on herbivory levels at higher temperatures (i.e. in the

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342 (14 out of 20) and drier (16 out of 20) summer than their long-term average. Longer-term monitoring may 343 be able to capture the effects of interannual temperature variation on herbivory, and this could be 344 effectively implemented through coordinated efforts like the Circumpolar Biodiversity Monitoring 345 Programme (CBMP; e.g. Gillespie et al. 2019). 346 Our models including precipitation had little support in explaining the variation in background 347 invertebrate herbivory (Table 3), but this does not rule out an important role for precipitation as a 348 mediating factor in changing tundra environments (Bintanja and Andry 2017). Barrio et al. (2017) found a 349 positive effect of both temperature and precipitation when examining herbivory on dwarf birch (B. 350 glandulosa-nana) across the tundra biome. Again, this could be an indication that patterns at the species 351 level may not hold at the community level. Precipitation can influence invertebrate herbivory through its 352 effects on leaf toughness, yet at the community level this effect could be masked because the community 353 can be made up of plant species with varying levels of drought tolerance. 354 A large percentage of the variation in invertebrate herbivory however was not explained by the effect of 355 long-term mean summer temperature (i.e. the variance associated with the random effect of site was 356 67.73%). This suggests that local site characteristics other than temperature are driving differences in 357 herbivory between the sites, and emphasizes the usefulness of longitudinal studies, such as the present 358 one, to better explore the role of climate on biotic interactions at a biome-wide scale. This site-specificity 359 is consistent with recent studies that have found strong local effects in the structuring of Arctic arthropod 360 communities (Hansen et al. 2016). For example, local variation in shrub cover can influence the 361 composition of the arthropod community assemblage, through locally increasing habitat structural 362 complexity, such that higher shrub cover leads to a larger and more diverse community of arthropods 363 (Rich et al. 2013; Asmus et al. 2018). At a local scale, herbivory rates can also be influenced by nutrient 364 concentrations in the soil that influence leaf quality (Semenchuk et al. 2015). Higher nutrient 365 concentrations can lead to increased palatability of plant species, and ultimately higher levels of herbivory 366 (Torp et al. 2010a, b; Semenchuk et al. 2015). Presence of vertebrate herbivores may also affect the 367 intensity of invertebrate herbivory through their direct and indirect effects on the abundance of 368 invertebrate herbivores (Suominen et al. 1999, 2003). 369 Other local drivers, such as snow cover, can also contribute to small-scale heterogeneity in tundra 370 landscapes (Kankaanpää et al. 2018). Snow cover can vary substantially on a local scale due to variations 371 in topography (e.g. hollows with deep snow vs. windswept areas with little snow) (Torp et al. 2010a, b). 372 Variation in the duration of snow cover can influence overwinter protection of plants (Torp et al. 2010a) 373 and invertebrates (Danks 2004), timing of emergence for plants (Torp et al. 2010a) and invertebrates

(Høye and Forchhammer 2008), the level of nitrogen in the soil (Semenchuk et al. 2015) and subsequently in leaf tissue (Torp et al. 2010a, b; Semenchuk et al. 2015), as well as the local composition of arthropod communities in tundra (Kankaanpää et al. 2018). Accounting for the variation in these local drivers and their effects on invertebrate herbivory would require site-specific measurements, but represent a critical step to understand the variability in the observed patterns of herbivory.

Lastly, the structure and composition of plant communities may also influence invertebrate herbivory. In general, different growth forms have differing leaf tissue palatability such that deciduous plants are more palatable than evergreens (MacLean Jr. and Jensen 1985; Turcotte et al. 2014). Within this study, the 13 species that had >1% of their leaf area lost were deciduous shrubs (7 species), herbaceous species (4), graminoids (1), and one palatable evergreen shrub (Vaccinium vitis-idaea). As well, deciduous shrubs had an average of 5.20% of their leaf area consumed compared with 1.16% for herbs, 0.37% for evergreen shrubs, and 0.28% for graminoids. This result supports our hypothesis that different plant functional groups experience different levels of herbivory, with more palatable groups experiencing more damage. These differences in the palatability of growth forms can translate into the differences observed between sites. For example, we measured the highest levels of background herbivory in Murmansk, where a large proportion (49.5%) of the focal species biomass corresponded to V. myrtillus and B. nana, both of which are palatable deciduous shrubs (MacLean Jr. and Jensen 1985). In contrast, Theistareykir in Iceland had one of the lowest levels of herbivory (0.06%) and two of the three focal species at this site were unpalatable evergreen shrubs (Empetrum nigrum and Calluna vulgaris). In the long term, shifts in plant community composition due to climate change – if more palatable plant species are favored – could amplify the effects of warming on insect herbivory predicted by our model. In this sense, assessing herbivory at the plant community level, while masking some of the individual species-specific responses, may be more representative of a more diverse invertebrate herbivore community, and ultimately of ecosystem responses to environmental changes.

Conclusions

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Our study provides a first assessment of herbivory at the community level across the tundra biome, providing a valuable baseline reference for evaluating future changes. Background invertebrate herbivory in the tundra biome at the community level is low (the average loss of foliar biomass is 0.94%). Our study suggests that plant losses to invertebrate herbivores in the tundra biome should increase, at least at some sites, as the climate warms, even if some of these losses could be offset by increased plant biomass production under warming (Day et al. 2008). Clarifying to what degree the relationship between climate and invertebrate herbivory is a direct effect of warmer temperature, or an indirect effect of warming

temperatures on plant phenology, physiology, or abundance will help predict how the level of invertebrate herbivory on tundra plants will change in response to a warmer climate. Our results also emphasize that most of the variation in background invertebrate herbivory is associated with local site characteristics and highlights knowledge gaps in our understanding of invertebrate herbivory in tundra. It is important however, to keep in mind that our results represent a single-year snapshot: future studies should include observations over longer periods of time to estimate year-to-year variation in the intensity of herbivory, as temporal variation is also likely to play an important role. Ideally, future research should also include characterizations of the invertebrate herbivore communities and their changes over time.

Acknowledgements

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This study is a contribution of the Herbivory Network (http://herbivory.lbhi.is). SIR and DSH were supported by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (RGPNS-305471); ICB was supported by a postdoctoral fellowship funded by the Icelandic Research Fund (Rannsóknasjóður, grant nr 152468-051) and AXA Research Fund (15-AXA-PDOC-307); JMA was supported by Carl Tryggers Stiftelse för Vetenskaplig Forskning (Sweden) and Qatar Petroleum; MVK and VZ were supported by the Academy of Finland (project 276671); AS and NS were supported by the grant of Russian fund for basic research (18-05-60261); Field work on Bylot Island was supported by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada, the network of Center of excellence ArcticNet, and the Polar Continental Shelf Program to GG and EL; SK and the Burntpoint Creek Research Station was supported by the Waterfowl, Wetlands and Far North research unit of the Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources and Forestry, with assistance from K. Bennet, R. Brook and L. Pollock; O. Krasheninnikova assisted with the collection plant samples on Erkuta; SS was partly supported by a state assignment of the Institute of Plant and Animal Ecology UB RAS; DDE was supported by a grant to JO from the Swedish Research Council Formas 2012-1039, 2012-230, 2015-1091 and a grant to DDE from Gunnar and Ruth Björkmans fund for botanical research in northern Sweden; Sampling in Syalbard was conducted during an UNIS field course (ISJ); JSP was supported by the WSL Institute for Snow and Avalanche Research, and an INTERACT Transnational Access Research Grant; Research at Toolik Field Station by ALA was supported by National Science Foundation Grants DEB 102683 to support the Arctic LTER and OPP 0908502; JDMS was supported by the Research Council of Norway (262064); C. Brachmann assisted with Figure 1; H.C. Proctor and B.A. Keddie assisted with gall damage determination.

Compliance with Ethical Standards

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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622 Figures and Tables

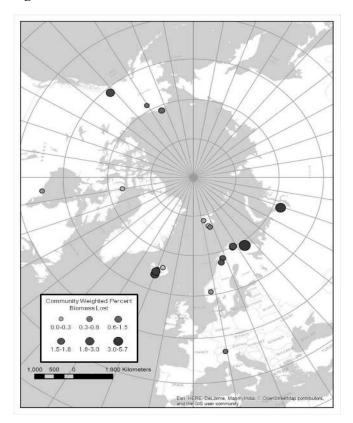


Fig. 1 Community weighted biomass lost (CWBL) to invertebrate herbivores at each of the 20 tundra sites. Size and shade of dots indicate intensity of herbivory, grouped into 6 bins. Audkuluheidi (Iceland) and Ailigas (Finland) (see Table 1) are covered by nearby sites, and belong in the 0.0-0.3 bin and 0.3-0.6 CWBL bins, respectively

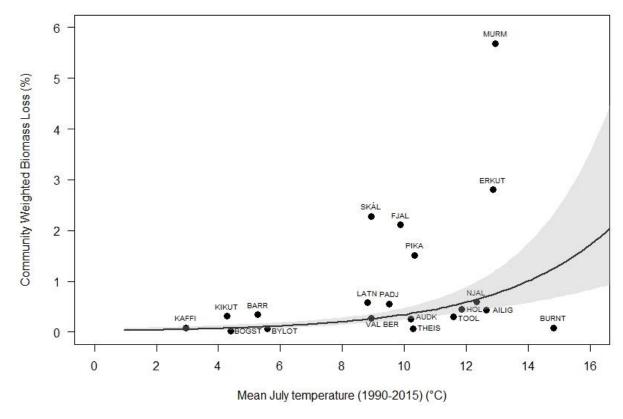


Fig 2 The relationship between the mean community weighted biomass lost (CWBL) to invertebrate herbivores and the mean long-term July temperature. Each point represents a study site (n=20); site names are indicated with abbreviations (see Table 1). The fitted line and 95% confidence interval (shaded) are shown. The point with the highest CWBL corresponds to Murmansk (MURM); running the analyses with and without this point did not change the overall trend

Table 1. Description of the 20 study sites across the tundra biome: name abbreviation in capital letters and coordinates in decimal degrees are shown in brackets; sampling date(s) in 2015, elevation, dominant habitat type (broad habitat types as defined by Walker et al. (2005); more specific CAVM sub-categories are included in brackets when possible), number of plots sampled, identity of the focal species (and the number of plots in which each focal species was found at each site) and climate variables: long-term average (1990-2015) and 2015 July temperature and precipitation (CRU data from Harris et al. (2014) for the nearest grid cell with complete information). Sites with 2015 temperatures that differ by more than $\pm 1^{\circ}$ C from the long-term average are in bold, similarly sites that have 2015 precipitation levels that differ from the long-term mean by more than \pm 10 mm are also in bold. Sites are listed geographically.

Study Site	Region	Sampling Date(s)	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	Habitat Type	Number of Plots	Focal Species (number of plots present)	Mean July Temperature (1990-2015) (°C)	Mean July Precipitation (1990-2015) (mm)	Mean July Temperature (2015) (°C)	July Precipitation (2015) (mm)
Burntpoint Creek BURN (55.24, -84.32)	Canada	June 25	7-8	Wetlands (W2)	4	Carex aquatilis (4), Trichophorum cespitosum (4), Andromeda polifolia (4)	14.8	85.3	14.6	80.0
Bylot Island BYLOT (73.15, -79.99)	Canada	July 16	44-102	Graminoid (G2)	5	Cassiope tetragona (4), Salix arctica (5), Arctagrostis latifolia (4), Oxyria digyna (1), Papaver radicatum (1)	5.6	36.6	7.5	18.0
Pika Camp PIKA (61.22, -138.27)	Canada	July 27	1637-1774	Prostrate-shrub (P1)	5	Dryas octopetala (5), Salix arctica (4), Carex bigelowii (5), Salix reticulata (1)	10.3	58.0	10.5	80.4
Ailigas AILIG (69.89, 27.07)	Finland	Aug 11-13	339-346	Erect-shrub (S1)	5	Betula nana (5), Empetrum nigrum (5), Vaccinium vitis- idaea (5)	12.7	77.8	10.5	32.7
Njallavaara NJAL (70.04, 27.60)	Finland	Aug 20-21	266-281	Erect-shrub (S1)	5	Betula nana (5), Empetrum nigrum (5), V. vitis-idaea (5)	12.4	70.9	10.3	27.2
Audkuluheidi AUDK (65.13, -19.67)	Iceland	Aug 4	479-498	Prostrate-shrub (P1)	5	Betula nana (5), Empetrum nigrum (5), Silene acaulis (2), Vaccinium uliginosum (3)	10.2	48.5	8.4	40.5

Fjallabak FJAL (63.83, -19.91)	Iceland	Aug 29	648-657	Barren (B1)	5	Salix herbacea (5), Armeria maritima (4), Cerastium alpinum (1), Salix arctica (2), O. digyna (2)	9.9	94.5	8.5	57.4
Skálpanes SKÁL (64.52, -19.91)	Iceland	Aug 15	622-641	Barren (B1)	5	Salix herbacea (5), Silene acaulis (5), Juncus trifidus (2), Armeria maritima (2), Luzula spicata (1)	8.9	66.6	7.2	49.0
Theistareykir THEIS (65.9, -17.08)	Iceland	Aug 2	326-341	Prostrate-shrub (P1)	5	Betula nana (5), Empetrum nigrum (5), Calluna vulgaris (5)	10.3	54.8	7.9	76.7
Hol HOL (60.70, 7.94)	Norway	July 17-20	1092-1147	Erect-shrub (S2)	4	Betula nana (4), Vaccinium myrtillus (4), V. uliginosum (1), Avenella flexuosa (3)	11.9	80.9	10.7	74.9
Erkuta ERKUT (68.23, 69.15)	Russia	Aug 1-3	18	Wetlands (W3)	5	Betula nana (5), V. vitisidea (5), Carex sp. (5)	12.9	41.0	11.2	60.1
Murmansk MURM (68.87, 34.54)	Russia	Aug 11	246-265	Erect-shrub (S1)	5	Betula nana (5), Empetrum nigrum (5), V. myrtillus (5)	13.0	69.3	10.3	46.6
Bogstranda BOGST (77.02, 15.75)	Svalbard	July 18	20-37	Prostrate-shrub (P1)	5	Salix polaris (5), Saxifraga oppositifolia (5), Festuca rubra (5)	4.4	46.0	4.6	32.5
Kaffiøyra KAFFI (78.60, 12.24)	Svalbard	July 14	27-31	Prostrate-shrub (P1)	5	D. octopetala (3), Salix polaris (5), Silene acaulis (5), Saxifraga oppositifolia (1), Bistorta vivipara (1)	2.9	53.1	3.6	56.0
Kikutodden KIKUT (76.61, 16.96)	Svalbard	July 17	11-18	Barren (B1)	3	Luzula confusa (3), Cochlearia groenlandica (1), Poa arctica (1), Salix polaris (1), Saxifraga hyperborea (1), Cerastium arcticum (2)	4.3	48.2	4.3	35.0

Latnjajaure LATN (68.21, 18.29)	Sweden	Aug 4	1000	Erect-shrub (Low Arctic dwarf birch tundra*)	1	Salix herbacea (1), Empetrum nigrum (1), Betula nana (1)	8.8	102.8	7.1	63.5
Padjelanta PADJ (67.31, 16.69)	Sweden	Aug 2-3	580-641	Erect-shrub (S2)	5	Betula nana (5), Empetrum nigrum (5), V. vitis-idaea (3), V. uliginosum (2)	9.5	106.4	7.8	85.3
Val Bercla VAL BER (46.47, 9.58)	Switzerland	July 9	2490	Alpine tundra*	5	Primula integrifolia (5), Kalmia procumbens (5), Helictochloa versicolor (5)	8.9	229.0	12.1	104.4
Barrow BARR (71.30, -156.67)	USA	Aug 7-8	10	Wetlands (W1)	5	Salix rotundifolia (2), Arctagrostis latifolia (3), Carex aquatilis (5), Salix pulchera (3), Petasites frigidus (1), V. vitis-idea (1)	5.3	21.8	5.1	5.8
Toolik Lake TOOL (68.64, 149.57)	USA on et al. (2016)	Aug 1	730-746	Graminoid (G4)	5	Betula nana (5), Rhododendron tomentosum (5), V. vitis-idaea (5), Eriophorum vaginatum (5), Carex bigelowii (5)	11.6	45.0	11.4	38.6

Virtanen et al. (2016)

Table 2. List of all 42 focal vascular plant species, their growth form, total number of sites and plots they were found in, number of samples, total number of leaves analyzed for each species, number of leaves with external damage, gall damage, and mining damage, number of total damaged leaves for each species, and the corresponding average percent leaf area damaged (PLAD) for those samples. Some leaves experienced more than one type of herbivory and therefore the total number of leaves damaged is less than the sum of the three damage types in some plant species. In total, 77,586 leaves were examined. Species taxonomy follows Roskov et al. (2017).

Focal Species	Growth Form	Study Sites	Plots	Samples	Leaves	External Damage	Gall Damage	Mine Damage	Total Damaged	Average PLAD (%)
Betula nana L.	Deciduous shrub	10	45	135	14779	2176	12	15	2176	2.08
Salix arctica Pall.	Deciduous shrub	3	11	23	2299	843	63	9	899	3.18
Salix herbacea L.	Deciduous shrub	3	11	33	3400	1007	3	10	1020	3.89
Salix polaris Wahlenb.	Deciduous shrub	3	11	33	3330	40	34	5	79	0.11
Salix pulchra Cham.	Deciduous shrub	1	3	3	293	8	2	0	10	0.03
Salix reticulata L.	Deciduous shrub	1	1	3	301	168	9	110	231	9.13
Salix rotundifolia Trautv.	Deciduous shrub	1	2	2	200	17	0	0	17	1.29
Vaccinium myrtillus L.	Deciduous shrub	2	9	27	2756	1334	13	59	1384	26.05
Vaccinium uliginosum L.	Deciduous shrub	3	6	18	1883	75	8	8	91	1.08
Andromeda polifolia L.	Evergreen shrub	1	4	12	1203	28	40	0	67	0.30
Calluna vulgaris (L.) Hull	Evergreen shrub	1	5	15	1500	1	0	0	1	0.01
Cassiope tetragona (L.) D. Don	Evergreen shrub	1	4	4	400	0	0	0	0	0
Dryas octopetala L.	Evergreen shrub	2	8	23	2308	212	3	3	216	0.78
Empetrum nigrum L.	Evergreen shrub	7	31	93	9368	70	1	0	71	0.16
Kalmia procumbens (L.) Gift, Kron & P.F. Stevens ex Galasso, Banfi & F. Conti	Evergreen shrub	1	5	5	500	9	13	0	22	0.25
Rhododendron tomentosum Harmaja	Evergreen shrub	1	5	15	1502	3	1	1	5	0.03
Vaccinium vitis-idaea L.	Evergreen shrub	6	25	69	6935	408	720	66	1181	1.46
Arctagrostis latifolia (R. Br.) Griseb	Graminoid	2	7	7	692	6	1	0	7	0.01
Avenella flexuosa (L.) Drejer	Graminoid	1	3	9	947	0	0	0	0	0
Carex aquatilis Wahlenb.	Graminoid	2	9	17	1666	33	0	57	90	0.11
Carex bigelowii Torr.	Graminoid	2	10	30	2955	191	0	21	211	0.76
Carex spp. L.	Graminoid	1	5	15	1471	143	0	283	407	0.93
Eriophorum vaginatum L.	Graminoid	1	5	15	1471	10	0	7	17	0.03

Festuca rubra L.	Graminoid	1	5	15	1510	1	0	0	1	0
Helictochloa versicolor (Vill.) Romero Zarco	Graminoid	1	5	5	500	1	0	2	3	0.11
Juncus trifidus L.	Graminoid	1	2	6	600	0	0	0	0	0
Luzula confusa Lindeberg	Graminoid	1	3	9	904	74	0	0	74	1.65
Luzula spicata (L.) DC.	Graminoid	1	1	3	304	3	0	0	3	0.03
Poa arctica R. Br.	Graminoid	1	1	3	300	0	0	0	0	0
Trichophorum cespitosum (L.) Hartm.	Graminoid	1	5	12	1175	0	0	0	0	0
Armeria maritima (Mill.) Willd	Herb	2	6	18	1802	145	16	0	161	0.90
Bistorta vivipara (L.) Delarbre	Herb	1	1	3	195	10	0	1	11	0.33
Cerastium alpinum L.	Herb	1	1	3	299	4	0	7	11	1.57
Cerastium arcticum Lange	Herb	1	2	6	604	15	7	1	23	0.27
Cochlearia groenlandica L.	Herb	1	1	3	300	3	14	0	16	0.54
Oxyria digyna (L.) Hill	Herb	2	3	7	690	65	51	95	199	6.13
Papaver radicatum Rottb.	Herb	1	1	1	97	0	0	10	10	0.73
Petasites frigidus (L.) Fr. s.l.	Herb	1	1	1	104	57	0	0	57	1.60
Primula integrifolia L.	Herb	1	5	5	437	35	0	2	37	1.36
Saxifraga hyperborea R. Br.	Herb	1	1	3	303	5	1	0	6	0.18
Saxifraga oppositifolia L.	Herb	2	6	17	1701	0	0	0	0	0
Silene acaulis (L.) Jacq.	Herb	3	12	36	3602	65	13	0	78	0.36

Model	Predictors	df	AICc	AICc Weight
Null	N/A	3	142.3	0.06
1	LTMT	4	138.5	0.38
2	LTMT + LTMP	5	140.8	0.13
3	LTMT + DT2015 + DP2015	6	140.8	0.13
4	LTMT + TBM	5	139.6	0.23
5	LTMT + Habitat	9	141.5	0.09

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