

Context-dependency of enemy impact on plant communities in a changing world

Anne Kempel^{1*}, Harald Auge² & Eric Allan¹

¹ Institute of Plant Sciences, Altenbergrain 21, 3013 Bern, Switzerland

² Helmholtz-Centre for Environmental Research – UFZ, Theodor-Lieser-Strasse 4, 06120 Halle (Saale), Germany

*Corresponding author: anne.kempel@ips.unibe.ch

Abstract

Global environmental change is strongly altering biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. Antagonistic biotic interactions affect the diversity and functioning of plant communities but are notoriously context dependent and are therefore likely to be altered by global change drivers. Global change can directly affect biotic interactions and can also indirectly alter the abundance, diversity and composition of plant enemy communities, via changes to plant productivity, diversity and functional composition. Changes in the enemy community feedback to alter the plant community. However, we lack predictions for how different global change drivers may alter enemy communities and their impact on plant communities. In this review we summarize current knowledge on the impact of invertebrate herbivores and fungal pathogens on plant productivity, diversity and community composition, and outline theory and expectations on how important global change drivers – nitrogen enrichment, warming and elevated CO², as well as the loss of plant and insect diversity, may affect the impact of plant-enemies on plant communities.

Keywords: Global change, plant-herbivore interactions, plant-pathogen interactions, coexistence, antagonistic biotic interactions

27 Introduction

28 A major current challenge is to predict how biodiversity and ecosystem functioning will respond to
29 ongoing environmental change. One key knowledge gap limiting our predictive ability, is how changes
30 in antagonistic biotic interactions will alter the diversity, composition and functioning of plant
31 communities. The few studies on effects of global change that explicitly considered antagonistic
32 interactions among species indicate, however, that such interactions may profoundly affect, and even
33 reverse, ecosystem responses (Suttle *et al.* 2007; Post & Pedersen 2008). Today, it is widely
34 appreciated that vertebrate herbivores can have strong impacts on plant communities with large
35 effects on plant primary production, species composition, plant diversity, or ecosystem processes (e.g.
36 Duffy *et al.* 2003, Borer *et al.* 2014b, Jia *et al.* 2018). However, for the vast majority of consumer
37 groups, such as invertebrate herbivores and plant pathogens, we still lack a general understanding of
38 their contribution to biodiversity and ecosystem functioning (Mordecai 2011; Myers & Sarfraz 2017;
39 Jia *et al.* 2018), as only a few studies have compared the impacts of the different enemy groups or
40 tested for interactions between them. Moreover, a large body of theoretical and empirical work
41 suggests that biotic interactions vary substantially in space and time. Hence, the impact of plant
42 enemies on plant communities might differ depending on many abiotic and biotic factors (e.g.
43 Dobzhansky 1950, Ford *et al.* 2014). However, there is no consensus on the key factors driving
44 variation in impact (Maron *et al.* 2014a; Jia *et al.* 2018), which is essential to predict effects of global
45 change on our ecosystems.

46 In this review we summarize recent advances in our understanding of the impact of invertebrate
47 herbivores and fungal pathogens on different aspects of plant communities: plant diversity, plant
48 community composition and plant productivity, and highlight open questions and knowledge gaps.
49 Moreover, we outline the ecological theory on how variation in environmental conditions will affect
50 plant-enemy interactions, and use this to develop predictions for how important direct global change
51 drivers - nitrogen enrichment, warming, and increased CO₂, and indirect global change drivers such as
52 plant and insect diversity loss, may affect the impact of plant-enemies on plant communities.

53

54 General impact of plant enemies on plant communities

55 Plant enemies can alter several aspects of plant community structure (Crawley 1997; Mordecai 2011;
56 Kempel *et al.* 2015; Jia *et al.* 2018). Enemies alter primary productivity by consuming or preventing
57 the accumulation of plant biomass. However, they will only do this if they are not limited by predation
58 (Fretwell 1987; Oksanen & Oksanen 2000). Herbivores and plant pathogens can also be important
59 drivers of coexistence between plant species and can therefore affect plant diversity (Holt 1977;
60 Chesson 2000). Even if enemies do not alter diversity, they frequently change competitive interactions
61 between plant species or sometimes even directly exclude plant species from communities, and can
62 therefore alter the composition of plant communities even if they do not alter diversity (Crawley
63 1997). We discuss the impact of plant enemies on these three aspects of plant communities.

64

65 Impact of enemies in plant productivity

66 Plants are consumed by a variety of organisms that feed in different ways and on different types of
67 plant tissue, above- or belowground. These enemies can be very restricted in their diet or can be very
68 generalist. Despite the high diversity and foraging strategies of plant enemies, studies aiming to
69 understand their role in determining plant community dynamics have mainly focused on vertebrate
70 herbivores (Olf & Ritchie 1998; Hillebrand *et al.* 2007). Their effect on *plant productivity* has intrigued
71 ecologists for many decades and early theory suggested that herbivores were typically top-down
72 regulated and therefore unable to affect plant biomass (Hairston *et al.* 1960). However, today there
73 is ample evidence for widespread, top-down effects of vertebrate herbivores on plant communities
74 (e.g. Borer *et al.* 2014b, Terborgh 2015, Jia *et al.* 2018). It has often been assumed that invertebrate
75 herbivores and pathogens are too small or specialised to have large effects (Olf & Ritchie 1998).
76 Invertebrate herbivores are also frequently assumed to be regulated by predators and therefore
77 unable to exert strong top down control on plant production. However, several individual studies have
78 now shown that invertebrate herbivores and fungal pathogens can affect plant productivity (e.g.

79 Buschmann *et al.* 2005; Van Der Heijden *et al.* 2008; Allan *et al.* 2010; Allan & Crawley 2011; Mordecai
80 2011; Seabloom *et al.* 2018). Nevertheless, effects are often highly variable between studies. While
81 one meta-analysis on insecticide experiments in grassland found an increase in primary production
82 when insects were removed (Coupe & Cahill Jr 2003), a recent meta-analysis showed no consistent
83 top-down effect of aboveground invertebrate herbivores on plant biomass (Jia *et al.* 2018). For other
84 groups, such as belowground invertebrates, molluscs or fungal pathogens, the impact on plant
85 communities is even less well known, although strong effects have been shown in some studies (e.g.
86 Stein *et al.* 2010; Allan & Crawley 2011). It is therefore important to develop predictions about when
87 invertebrate herbivores and pathogens could affect plant productivity.

88

89 **Impact of enemies on plant diversity**

90 Plant enemies frequently alter competitive interactions between plants and can therefore alter the
91 *diversity* of plant species in a community (Holt 1977; Chesson 2000; Bever *et al.* 2015). Enemies can
92 promote coexistence if they preferentially attack the more abundant plant species within a
93 community (Carson and Root 2000, Petermann *et al.* 2008, Bever *et al.* 2015, Pacala & Crawley 1992).
94 This can arise either through a correlation between palatability and dominance or a correlation
95 between sensitivity of plants to attack and dominance (Pacala and Crawley 1992). If enemy attack rate
96 declines with decreasing frequency of the host plant (negative-frequency dependence), enemies can
97 drive niche differences between plant species and therefore stabilise plant coexistence (e.g. Chesson
98 2000). If the attack rate by specialist enemies declines non-linearly with host abundance, e.g. if rare
99 hosts are difficult to locate and therefore escape attack, then specialists will stabilise coexistence.
100 However, generalist enemies can theoretically also have stabilizing effects on plant communities if
101 they switch host or food plant species to disproportionately consume whichever species is most
102 abundant (Murdoch 1969; Chase *et al.* 2002; Ishii & Crawley 2011). Plant enemies can also promote
103 diversity by reducing average fitness differences between plant species. This also requires a trade-off
104 between dominance and palatability, e.g. if there is a trade-off between the growth of plants in a

105 resource rich environment and their defense against enemies, assuming that defense is costly and
106 constrains investment in other important traits (Coley *et al.* 1985; Herms & Mattson 1992; Kempel *et*
107 *al.* 2011). In this case enemies promote coexistence by reducing the competitive ability (fitness) of
108 more vigorously growing plant species, which can equalize fitness between dominant and less
109 dominant plant species, even if enemy attack is not frequency dependent. Such equalizing effects have
110 mainly been attributed to generalist enemies, however specialist enemies can theoretically also
111 equalize fitness differences between plant species if they specialize predominantly on fast growing
112 but poorly defended plant species (Chesson 2000; Chase *et al.* 2002).

113 Empirical studies excluding plant enemies have found highly variable effects on plant diversity (Olf &
114 Ritchie 1998; Proulx & Mazumder 1998; Hillebrand *et al.* 2007; Allan *et al.* 2010; Allan & Crawley 2011;
115 Korell *et al.* 2017). While large vertebrate herbivores were found to slightly promote grassland
116 diversity in a recent meta-analysis (evenness, Jia *et al.* 2018), effects of invertebrates were more
117 variable (Stein *et al.* 2010; Jia *et al.* 2018). Evidence from the tropics (Mangan *et al.* 2010; Bagchi *et al.*
118 2014) and also from plant-soil feedback experiments in temperate grasslands (Petermann *et al.* 2008)
119 suggest that soil-borne plant pathogens are able to maintain high levels of diversity through Janzen-
120 Connell effects.

121

122 **Effects of plant enemies on plant species composition**

123 Plant enemies may also alter plant species composition without changing diversity. Plant enemies can
124 reduce the competitive ability of certain species, leading to competitive release for other plants and
125 in some cases the exclusion of the preferred species and its replacement by other less preferred
126 species (Crawley 1997). For instance, insects strongly changed species composition by increasing
127 seedling mortality for certain species, without altering diversity in tropical rainforest (Bagchi *et al.*
128 2014). In general, plant enemies might change *plant functional composition* by preferentially attacking
129 faster growing, less defended plant species rather than slower growing, and more defended ones (e.g.
130 Lind *et al.* 2013; Kempel *et al.* 2015; Cappelli *et al.* 2019). Recent work on fungal pathogens in grassland

131 has shown that plant species with a fast growth strategy are more likely to be infested by pathogens
132 than species with a slow growth strategy (Cappelli *et al.* 2019). Communities consisting of fast growing
133 species were also shown to be more strongly impacted by fungal pathogens (they lost more biomass)
134 than communities consisting of slower growing species (Cappelli *et al.* 2019), indicating that fungal
135 pathogens consistently shift plant communities towards more slow growing, better defended species.
136 Similarly, invertebrates have been shown to drive plant community composition (e.g. Allan & Crawley
137 2011; Kempel *et al.* 2015), however effects depended on the group of enemies excluded, or the
138 preference of herbivores, and were not necessarily linked to a fast or slow growth strategy of plants
139 (Maron *et al.* 2014a; Korell *et al.* 2017).

140

141 **Context-dependency of enemy impact on plant communities**

142 The outcome of biotic interactions are notoriously context-dependent (Chamberlain *et al.* 2014;
143 Maron *et al.* 2014a; Kempel *et al.* 2019) and the impact of enemies on plant communities might differ
144 depending on many abiotic and biotic factors. In general, enemy impact can be driven by changes in
145 the enemy and plant community. Changes in enemy abundance, diversity and per capita feeding rate
146 will alter the impact of enemies on plant productivity, while changes in enemy diversity and degree of
147 specialisation are likely to determine the impact of enemies on plant diversity and species composition
148 (Fig. 1). Global change can alter all of these characteristics of the enemy community. Global change
149 drivers might directly alter per capita feeding rate and/or they might indirectly alter enemy
150 communities by changing the plant community. For instance, increases in plant productivity might
151 increase enemy abundance (Haddad *et al.* 2000), increases in plant diversity are expected to increase
152 enemy diversity (Scherber *et al.* 2010) and perhaps the proportion of specialists (Schemske *et al.*
153 2009), while a shift to fast growing plant species might increase the abundance of generalists.
154 Characteristics of the plant community may also determine the impact that enemies can have on the
155 community, for instance enemies may have a larger impact in communities dominated by a few plant
156 species (resource concentration hypothesis) or in communities dominated by more palatable fast

157 growing species. Global change drivers can therefore alter the feedbacks between enemy and plant
158 communities and thereby drive changes in biotic interactions. Understanding how they do so is one
159 of the greatest current ecological challenges and would provide essential information for a range of
160 pressing problems, from improving global change forecasts to predicting the efficacy of weed
161 biocontrol (HilleRisLambers *et al.* 2012; Louthan *et al.* 2015). In the following, we provide a framework
162 for how important global change drivers, namely nitrogen enrichment, climate warming and an
163 increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide might modify the impact of plant enemies on plant
164 productivity, diversity and plant functional composition. In addition, we discuss the consequences of
165 the ongoing plant diversity loss and the massive insect die off for plant-enemy interactions.

166

167 **Effects of nitrogen enrichment on plant-enemy impact on plant communities**

168 Nitrogen enrichment is a key global change driver altering biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. It
169 typically causes a loss of plant diversity (Stevens *et al.* 2004) and increases plant biomass production
170 (Crawley *et al.* 2005) and tissue nitrogen concentrations (Wardle *et al.* 2012) and leads to a shift
171 towards faster growing plant species (Lavorel & Grigulis 2012). It is likely to alter enemy impact on
172 plant communities through several of these direct and indirect effects. Theory predicts that low
173 resource environments select for slow growing species with high levels of defence whereas high
174 resource environments select for fast growing, less defended species (Coley *et al.* 1985). Similarly, the
175 nitrogen disease hypotheses states that plants growing in nitrogen rich environments are more
176 attractive to enemies due to a higher nitrogen concentration in their tissue (Dordas 2008).
177 Consequently, fast growing, more acquisitive species, and species growing in nitrogen rich conditions,
178 should suffer higher levels of herbivory or pathogen infection than species with a conservative
179 strategy (Fine *et al.* 2004; Kempel *et al.* 2011; Seabloom *et al.* 2018). However, species with acquisitive
180 traits or with access to more soil resources might be more tolerant of enemy attack, meaning that the
181 actual impact of enemies could be lower, despite higher infestation (Cronin *et al.* 2010). In addition,
182 for herbivores, the exploitation ecosystem hypothesis (Fretwell 1987; Oksanen & Oksanen 2000)

183 predicts that in resource rich environments with a high primary production, natural enemies of
184 herbivores (predators) should control herbivore populations. This might lead to no change in enemy
185 impact on plant productivity, if all the additional plant productivity is transferred to predators,
186 however so far the pattern has been only shown for vertebrates and not for invertebrate herbivores
187 (Schädler *et al.* 2003).

188 The evidence for changes in herbivore and pathogen impact with productivity and fertility is mixed.
189 Herbivore biomass has been shown to increase with increases in plant productivity (Chase *et al.* 2000;
190 Lind *et al.* 2017, Kempel *et al.* in prep), however, herbivore *impact* has sometimes been shown to be
191 unaffected or even to decrease with increasing productivity (Chase *et al.* 2000; Coupe & Cahill Jr 2003).
192 Results from a recent meta-analysis were surprisingly uninformative for understanding patterns in the
193 strength of herbivore impact among systems differing in net primary production (indicator of soil
194 fertility, Jia *et al.* 2018). Yet, whether the impact of plant enemies increases with increasing soil fertility
195 is not fully resolved.

196 **Expectations. ① Nitrogen enrichment affects impact of enemies on plant productivity.**

197 The nitrogen disease hypothesis suggests that the impact of enemies on plant productivity is higher in
198 resource rich environments, because a higher nitrogen content in leaves makes plants more attractive.
199 The resource availability hypothesis further predicts that fast-growing plant species, which are
200 favoured by nitrogen enrichment, are less defended and should therefore suffer more from enemy
201 attack. Moreover, a high soil fertility may reduce the presence of beneficial soil microbes, which have
202 been shown to provide resistance against herbivores to plants (Pozo & Azcón-Aguilar 2007; Koricheva
203 *et al.* 2009; Kempel *et al.* 2010), further increasing enemy impact. While plant and also herbivore
204 biomass have been shown to increase with soil fertility, impact has not. This might suggest that fast-
205 growing plant species are more tolerant and compensate leaf loss, or that top-down control of
206 herbivores by predators might be stronger at high soil fertility. It is therefore not clear how the impact
207 of enemies on plant productivity will change with nitrogen enrichment.

208 ② **Nitrogen enrichment affects impact of enemies on plant diversity.** At high soil fertility plant
209 communities are *dominated* by fast growing plant species, which usually reduces plant diversity. We
210 therefore expect that the impact of enemies on plant diversity is stronger at high soil fertility, as plant
211 enemies reduce plant dominance of good light competitors, equalizing fitness. (Hillebrand *et al.* 2007).
212 The mechanisms behind this might be that in resource rich environments dominant species are less
213 defended (growth-defense trade-off), or that good light competitors are tall and are therefore more
214 likely to be removed by grazers. The latter would mainly apply to vertebrates.

215 ③ **Nitrogen enrichment affects impact of enemies on plant functional composition.** We expect that
216 the impact of enemies on plant functional composition is stronger at high soil fertility, because fast-
217 growing but less defended plant species from fertile environments are held in check by generalist
218 enemies, allowing slower growing but more defended species to persist. Excluding enemies from
219 fertile communities would result in a loss of slower growing species, shifting functional composition
220 towards even faster growing species. In resource poor conditions however, slower growing species
221 with high levels of defences are favoured as they are usually better at competing for soil resources
222 than fast growing, poorly defended plant species (Lind *et al.* 2013). Excluding enemies in resource
223 poor environments would therefore have minor effects on plant functional composition, as fast
224 growing species will still be outcompeted by the slow growing species and are therefore unlikely to be
225 able to increase.

226

227 **Effects of temperature on plant-enemy impact on plant communities**

228 Increases in temperature following global climate change will not only affect plant growth directly but
229 are also likely to change plant communities indirectly by modifying their pathogen and herbivore
230 communities. The current prediction for herbivores and pathogens is that their impact on plants will
231 increase because warmer temperatures tend to increase insect and pathogen metabolic rates (Brown
232 *et al.* 2004), accelerating their development and reproduction (Coakley *et al.* 1999; Malmström &
233 Raffa 2000; Roy *et al.* 2004). However, this will only occur if precipitation remains high and increases

234 in temperature in arid environments would be expected to reduce herbivore and pathogen attack.
235 Existing environmental gradients in climate can be used to predict changes in plant enemy impact with
236 changes in temperature and precipitation. For example, it has long been predicted that the
237 importance of biotic interactions is strongest at low latitudes and declines towards the poles
238 (Dobzhansky 1950, Schemske et al. 2009), which would suggest a potential increase in biotic
239 interactions with increased temperature. However, the mechanisms driving this emerge over long
240 time scales and are typically thought to be that a more predictable and benign climate in the tropics
241 leads to stronger and more specialized biotic interactions, promoting coevolution and speciation
242 (Coley and Kursar 2014), and further diversification of species (Vermeij 2005, Schemske et al. 2009).
243 Particularly, a stronger impact of plant herbivores and soil fungal pathogens is suggested to be a major
244 mechanism for the maintenance of high tropical diversity (Janzen 1970, Connell 1971, Mangan et al.
245 2010, Bagchi et al. 2014). It is therefore unlikely that current changes in temperature and precipitation
246 will lead to an increase in the strength of biotic interactions. Further, evidence for the so-called biotic
247 interaction hypothesis from studies comparing herbivory rates across latitudes is mixed (Schemske et
248 al. 2009, Moles et al. 2011, Anstett et al. 2016, Jia et al. 2018). Similarly, evidence for a higher degree
249 of specialist herbivores (Dyer et al. 2007, Novotny et al. 2007, Slove and Janz 2010), and plant defense
250 (Moles et al. 2011) in the tropics is conflicting, so that the generality of the biotic interaction
251 hypothesis has been questioned (Anstett et al. 2016, Moles and Ollerton 2016, Jia et al. 2018).
252 Latitudinal gradients in the intensity of biotic interactions may not predict changes with climate
253 change but altitudinal gradients are frequently used as proxies of future climate change (Sundqvist *et*
254 *al.* 2013; Alexander *et al.* 2015). They are ideal to address the question how abiotic factors drive
255 variation in species interactions, as they occur over much smaller scales and are less confounded by
256 historical or macro-evolutionary processes, such as dispersal limitation, or regional variation in day
257 length or inter-annual climatic variations (Moreira et al. 2018). Accordingly, several studies have
258 shown that herbivore pressure is higher at lower elevations, which are warmer and less variable
259 climatically with reduced wind and sun exposure, (Rasmann *et al.* 2014; Galmán *et al.* 2018). This

260 should result in decreased plant defense at high elevations and a higher proportion of generalist
261 consumers, however, recent studies reported inconsistent patterns between elevation and herbivory,
262 questioning the generality of previous findings (Galmán et al. 2018, Moreira et al. 2018). Interactions
263 between plants and fungi are also likely to vary with elevation as fungal communities are sensitive to
264 changes in temperature and precipitation (Bryant et al. 2008, Vacher et al. 2008, McGuire et al. 2012,
265 Sundqvist et al. 2013). Previous studies have shown that soil microbial diversity (Fierer et al. 2011,
266 Singh et al. 2012), community structure (Margesin et al. 2009, Pellissier et al. 2014) and abundance
267 (Djukic et al. 2010) vary along several elevational gradients. However, studies rarely assess *impact* of
268 enemies on plant communities or functioning along altitudinal gradients, i.e. by using exclusions
269 (Sundqvist *et al.* 2013). Thus, whether the impact of invertebrate herbivores and fungal pathogens on
270 ecosystems increases with climate warming is not fully resolved.

271 **Expectations.** ④ **Temperature affects impact of enemies on plant productivity.** Plant productivity
272 increases with warmer temperatures and higher precipitation, and this would be predicted to increase
273 enemy abundance and therefore enemy impact on plant productivity. Evidence for this comes from
274 increased rates of herbivory in the tropics and at low elevations, and an increase in pathogen and
275 herbivore attack also in warming experiments (Roy *et al.* 2004; Liu *et al.* 2011; Gillespie *et al.* 2013;
276 Birkemoe *et al.* 2016). However, other warming experiments found no change (Richardson *et al.* 2002)
277 or even a decrease (Barrio *et al.* 2016) in herbivory, suggesting that species-specific changes in plant
278 quality (leaf nutrients, defensive compounds) also determine enemy attack.

279 Predictions for how enemy impact on plant diversity and composition will change with alterations in
280 the climate are not so clear, as only few studies have interactively manipulated temperature and
281 enemy abundance (but see Suttle *et al.* 2007; Lemoine *et al.* 2017).

282

283 **Effects of elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide on enemy impact on plant communities**

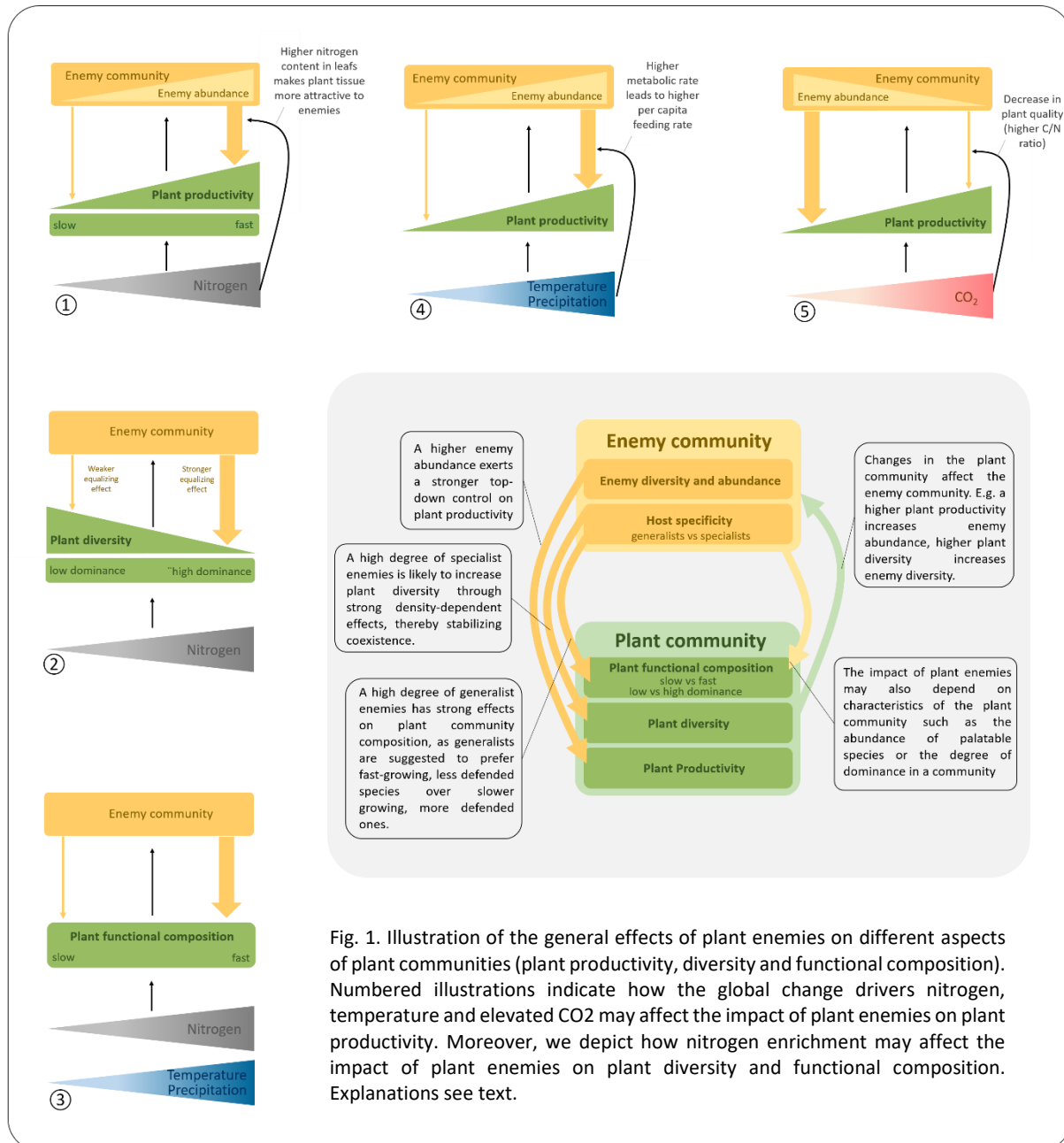
284 Another key element of anthropogenic climate change is an increase in atmospheric CO₂ levels. The
285 drastic rise in CO₂ is likely to not only affect plant growth but also their interactions with their enemies.

286 Experiments have shown that elevated CO₂ has large impacts on plant physiology, generally enhancing
287 plant growth and increasing the C:N ratio in plants (Robinson *et al.* 2012; Sardans *et al.* 2012).
288 Moreover, it is likely that an increased C supply to plants leads to an increase in C-based secondary
289 and structural compounds, further decreasing plant quality (Stiling & Cornelissen 2007; Robinson *et*
290 *al.* 2012). As invertebrate herbivores and also pathogens are largely N-limited an increase in C:N ratios
291 is likely to lead to lower food quality. Results from meta-analysis suggest that while chewing
292 herbivores respond in the short term with increased food consumption to compensate for the lower
293 nutritional quality, they also grow more slowly and have a longer development time, which increases
294 exposure to enemies all of which reduce herbivore abundance under elevated CO₂ (Stiling &
295 Cornelissen 2007; Robinson *et al.* 2012). Phloem feeding insects instead tend to respond positively to
296 elevated CO₂ (Robinson *et al.* 2012). In addition, the effect of elevated CO₂ on plant pathogen disease
297 might be different for plants with a C₄ metabolism. C₄ plants are suggested to be less water stressed
298 under elevated CO₂, which will increase pathogen disease severity (Thompson & Drake 1994; Mitchell
299 *et al.* 2003). Concordantly, pathogen load has also been shown to increase under elevated CO₂ for
300 certain species (Coakley *et al.* 1999; Mitchell *et al.* 2003; Lake & Wade 2009).

301 Results from global change experiments further suggests that plant community composition might
302 change in response to CO₂ enrichment. Legumes have been shown to increase in response to elevated
303 CO₂, whereas C₃ and C₄ grasses are less responsive (Jablonski *et al.* 2002). As C₃ and C₄ plants respond
304 to elevated CO₂ with an increase in the C:N ratio, it is likely that enemy preference may shifts towards
305 N-fixing plant species, counteracting enhanced growth in these functional groups. Thus, plant
306 community shifts that are predicted to occur under elevated CO₂ might be modified by variation in
307 enemy impact driven by changes in host preference. However, current knowledge on how plant
308 enemy affect plant functional composition under elevated CO₂ is limited.

309 **Expectations.** ⑤ **Elevated CO₂ affects impact of enemies on plant productivity.** An increase in
310 atmospheric carbon dioxide is expected to decrease plant quality via an increase in the C:N ratio and
311 carbon-based secondary compounds. We therefore expect that enemy abundance and hence impact

312 will decrease. However, for pathogens effects might be different, depending on a plants
 313 photosynthetic pathway: for C₄ plants pathogen load might increase under elevated CO₂, as their
 314 water stress decreases which can increase fungal sporulation (Thompson & Drake 1994).



315

316

317 Consequences of decline in plant and insect diversity for plant-enemy interactions

318 In addition, to the impacts of nitrogen and climate change, other global change factors such as invasive
 319 species or pesticide use may cause declines in plant and insect diversity (Sala *et al.* 2000; Seibold *et al.*

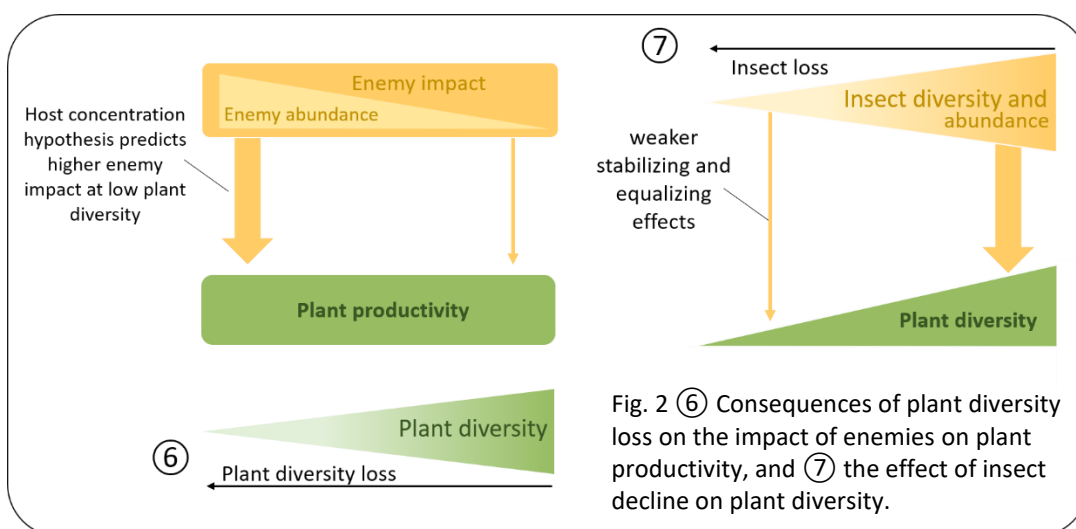
2019). A decline in plant diversity is likely to alter the impact that invertebrate herbivores and pathogenic fungi have on plant communities. The idea that plant communities with higher densities of a few species should be more vulnerable to negative effects of specialized pathogens and herbivores, and that communities of high plant diversity harbour a larger community of natural enemies has a long history in ecology (Root 1973, host concentration hypothesis, Pimentel 1961). Indeed, studies manipulating plant species diversity of grassland communities have shown that pathogen attack is generally higher in species poor compared to species rich communities (Mitchell *et al.* 2002; Maron *et al.* 2011; Schnitzer *et al.* 2011; Schnitzer & Klironomos 2011; Johnson *et al.* 2013; Rottstock *et al.* 2014). For herbivores, results from previous studies have been ambiguous, and abundance, diversity and impact of herbivores have also been shown to be highest at high plant diversity (Haddad *et al.* 2001; Stein *et al.* 2010; Borer *et al.* 2012; Loranger *et al.* 2014; Seabloom *et al.* 2017, but see Koricheva *et al.* 2000). However, results for specialist insect pests are more consistent and resource concentration effects are commonly observed (Jactel & Brockerhoff 2007). However, most of the evidence for resource concentration effects comes from experiments in which diversity is manipulated and species compositions are random (e.g. Rottstock *et al.* 2014) and responses of herbivores and pathogens to real world gradients of diversity are less well known (Halliday & Rohr 2019).

Several recent studies have also suggested that insect populations are declining in abundance (Hallmann *et al.* 2017) and this loss of insect abundance and diversity is likely to have consequences for plant communities. In German grasslands it has been shown that all trophic guilds of insects, including herbivores, have declined in their biomass, abundance and diversity (by 67%, 78 and 34% respectively) since 2008 (Seibold *et al.* 2019). The decline has been associated with land-use intensification at the landscape level. Because herbivores are suggested to promote plant coexistence by preferentially attacking fast-growing dominant plant species (equalizing fitness differences), or by exerting frequency dependent effects on their specific host plants (increasing niche differences which are necessary for stable coexistence, Chesson 2000; Bartomeus & Godoy 2018), a decline in herbivore

346 abundance and diversity is likely to result in a decline in their diversity-promoting effects. This might
 347 have far reaching consequences for plant diversity.

348 **Expectations. ⑥ Plant diversity loss affects impact of enemies on plant productivity.** We would
 349 expect that the impact of natural enemies on plant productivity increases with plant diversity loss
 350 (host concentration hypothesis, diversity-disease hypothesis). However, the effect of plant diversity
 351 loss on enemies will also depend on the species that are lost first from the community (Keesing *et al.*
 352 2010): if susceptible or palatable species are lost last, for instance if fast growing species remain
 353 following nutrient enrichment, then diversity loss will enhance disease transmission. However, the
 354 opposite will occur if resistant species are lost last.

355 **⑦ Insect decline alters effects on plant diversity.** A loss of insect biomass, abundance and diversity
 356 is likely to weaken the stabilizing and equalizing effects of herbivores on plant coexistence. This might
 357 have far reaching consequences for plant diversity.



358

359

360 **Global change effects on plant-enemy interactions at a population level**

361 In addition to the indirect effects taking place at the community level, global change drivers may also
 362 strongly affect host plants and their enemies at the individual and population level. For instance, global
 363 change may affect host plant populations and enemy populations in parallel, leading to a temporal

364 mismatch due to changing phenology or spatial mismatch (due to changing geographic ranges, e.g.
365 (Schweiger *et al.* 2012) of interacting species, which in turn may alter enemy impact. For example
366 range expanding plant species have been shown to move faster than their belowground enemies,
367 leading to enemy release in their new range (e.g van Grunsven *et al.* 2010; Zuppinger-Dingley *et al.*
368 2011), similarly to the hypothesized release of enemies of exotic plant species in their new range
369 (Keane & Crawley 2002; Maron *et al.* 2014b). Moreover, interactions of plants with belowground
370 mutualists such as mycorrhizal fungi might be affected by global change drivers such as warming or
371 nitrogen enrichment (Egerton-Warburton *et al.* 2007), which might also indirectly affect plant-enemy
372 interactions. Thus, global change drivers will not only affect resident plant communities (and their
373 interactions with insects and pathogens), but will also lead to novel species assemblages with different
374 interactions (Tylianakis *et al.* 2008; Alexander *et al.* 2015).

375

376 **Concluding remarks and future avenues**

377 Global environmental change may strongly alter the impact of plant enemies on several aspects of
378 plant communities, and our review revealed several patterns. Results from studies comparing enemy
379 impact along natural environmental gradients suggests that an increase in nitrogen as well as
380 temperature may both lead to an increase in enemy abundance. Whether this will feedback on plant
381 productivity and will increase the *impact* (loss of biomass due to enemies) of enemies, however, is
382 less clear. Contrarily, elevated CO₂ might reduce certain enemy groups via a reduction in plant quality,
383 potentially counteracting nitrogen and temperature effects. However, studies mainly focussed on
384 enemy groups such as lepidopteran caterpillars and the few studies on other enemy groups (e.g.
385 sucking herbivores or fungal pathogens) suggest that responses depend on enemy guild. Nitrogen
386 enrichment and warming might both lead to a shift in the plant functional composition towards more
387 fast growing plant species with a high competitive ability in nutrient rich environments, elevated CO₂
388 might specifically favour N-fixing plant species. In these fast-growing communities plant enemies may
389 be particularly important for the maintenance of plant diversity, as they equalize fitness differences

390 between plant species by preferentially attacking the dominant, less defended species. Thus, the
391 importance of plant-enemies as diversity-promoting agents might increase with global change. The
392 ongoing decline in insect species, biomass and abundance, including herbivores, might therefore have
393 far-reaching consequences for plant diversity, particularly in a warmer and nutrient richer world as a
394 lower top-down control by enemies might lead to a greater dominance by certain species, potentially
395 leading to competitive exclusion and a loss of plant diversity.

396 In sum, our review revealed several general patterns in how global change affects enemy communities
397 directly and indirectly via changes in the plant community, however it also revealed gaps in our
398 understanding of the context-dependency of plant-enemy interactions (Maron *et al.* 2014a). The
399 reason for this is that experiments are typically not designed to identify drivers of context-dependence
400 and that large-scale patterns are usually pieced together from data obtained by a variety of methods
401 and protocols (Gurevitch & Mengersen 2010). Moreover, while effects on enemy communities are
402 well studied, we often have a limited idea of whether such changes also translates into changes in the
403 *impact* of plant enemies on plant communities, as studies often rely on comparing herbivore or
404 pathogen *attack* along environmental gradients and rarely measure *impact* experimentally, i.e. by
405 using exclusion to look at the consequences of herbivory or fungal infection for plant diversity,
406 composition or functioning (Anstett *et al.* 2016, Burdon *et al.* 2006, Sundqvist *et al.* 2013, Louthan *et al.*
407 *et al.* 2015). Thus, to predict the consequences of global change on the diversity and functioning of our
408 ecosystems we need to develop a predictive understanding of why and how antagonistic biotic
409 interactions vary in space. Exclusion of different plant enemies along environmental gradients might
410 be one way forward to obtain generality in the impact and context-dependency of plant enemies on
411 the diversity, composition and functioning of plant communities. Moreover, experiments
412 simultaneously manipulating various global change drivers while also excluding enemy groups can
413 inform us about potential changes in plant-enemy impacts on plant communities under global change.
414 Enhancing our knowledge on how antagonistic biotic interactions alter the diversity and functioning

415 of plant communities, and how their impact depend on abiotic and biotic factors is a pressing priority
416 given current global change scenarios, and the recently observed insect die-off.

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420 **References**

421

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