

1 **Enemy impact on plant communities in a changing world**

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## 24 **Highlights**

- 25     ▪ Predicting how global change affects our ecosystems remains a current challenge.  
26         Global change can directly affect plant communities, but it can also indirectly affect  
27         plant communities by altering species interactions.
- 28     ▪ Plant enemies, such as herbivores or pathogens, can strongly affect plant productivity,  
29         diversity and composition. Their impact on plant communities is notoriously context-  
30         dependent and may be strongly altered by global change drivers.
- 31     ▪ We synthesize current knowledge on the context-dependency of plant-enemy  
32         interactions and illustrate how nitrogen enrichment, climate change, and elevated CO<sub>2</sub>  
33         as well as a loss of plant diversity and insects, may alter enemy communities and their  
34         impact on plant communities.
- 35     ▪ Understanding the indirect effects of global change on our ecosystems can  
36         fundamentally improve our ability to predict the consequences of global change.

37

## 38 **Abstract**

39 Indirect effects of global change via changing species interactions have been largely ignored  
40 in studies predicting global change impacts on ecosystems. Antagonistic biotic interactions,  
41 however, can strongly affect ecosystems and are likely to be affected by global change drivers  
42 themselves. We synthesize current knowledge on the impact of invertebrate herbivores and  
43 pathogens on plant productivity, diversity and community composition, and outline theory and  
44 expectations on how important global change drivers – nitrogen enrichment, climate change  
45 and elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, and plant and insect diversity loss, may affect enemy impact on plant  
46 communities. We illustrate that our ability to predict global change impact requires a holistic  
47 perspective, taking into account direct as well as indirect effects via the biotic component of  
48 ecosystems.

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## 52 **Global change can indirectly affect plant communities by changing species interactions**

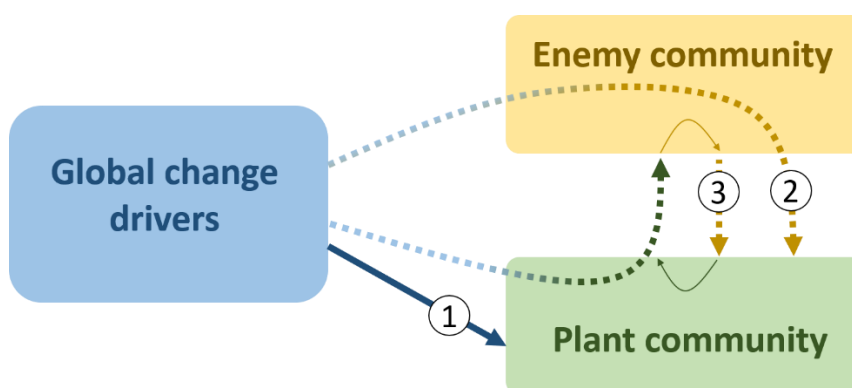
53 A major challenge is to predict how biodiversity and ecosystem functioning will respond to  
54 environmental global change. Global change can directly affect the productivity, functional  
55 composition and diversity of plant communities by changing environmental conditions [1–3],  
56 however, it can also affect communities indirectly by altering species interactions [4, Fig. 1].  
57 Indirect effects have just recently started to be explored in studies on global change, mainly  
58 mediated through changing competitive interactions [4,5] or plant mutualist interactions [6,7].  
59 However, we lack a general understanding of indirect effects mediated through altered  
60 antagonistic trophic interactions, such as between plants and their herbivores or pathogens [8].  
61 Altered plant-enemy interactions following global change may profoundly affect, and even  
62 reverse, ecosystem responses [9,10]. To predict ecosystem responses to environmental change,  
63 we need to also enhance our understanding of how global change drivers alter the interactions  
64 of plant communities with their enemies.

65 Herbivores and pathogens can have strong impacts on plant communities, with large effects on  
66 primary production, species composition, plant diversity and ecosystem functioning [11–14].  
67 The intensity of these interactions vary substantially in space [12,15,16], and enemy impact on  
68 ecosystems is likely to be altered by global change drivers. We still have a limited  
69 understanding of the key abiotic and biotic factors driving variation in enemy impact on plant  
70 communities [12,17], however developing general predictions is essential to understand how  
71 global change will affect our ecosystems.

72 In this review we summarize recent advances in our understanding of the impact of less  
73 well studied plant enemies, invertebrate herbivores and fungal pathogens, on three key aspects  
74 of plant communities: plant diversity, community composition and productivity, and highlight  
75 open questions and knowledge gaps. Then, we outline relevant ecological theory and empirical  
76 studies on how variation in environmental conditions will affect plant-enemy interactions, and

77 use this to develop predictions for how key global change drivers, nitrogen enrichment, climate  
 78 change, and increased CO<sub>2</sub>, could indirectly affect plant communities via changing enemy  
 79 impact. We unpack these overall indirect effects and consider how global change might affect  
 80 enemy communities alone or how it might alter feedbacks between plant and enemy  
 81 community structure. Finally, we consider how the current losses of plant and insect diversity  
 82 might alter enemy impact on plant communities. We do not discuss effects of global change  
 83 on the geographical distribution of plant species and their natural enemies (including biological  
 84 invasions), and effects on phenology.

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90 Fig. 1: Global change drivers can *directly* affect plant communities (solid line, ①) but can also  
 91 *indirectly* (dashed lines) affect plant communities through changing interactions of plant  
 92 communities with their enemy communities. This can happen because global change drivers  
 93 directly affect the enemy community (②) and hence their impact on plants, or because global  
 94 change drivers directly affect the plant community which has consequences for the enemy  
 95 community and hence their impact on plant communities (③).

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## 98 **General impact of plant enemies on plant communities**

99 Plant enemies can alter several aspects of plant communities, including productivity, diversity  
100 and composition [12,13,18,19]. Enemies alter primary productivity by consuming or  
101 preventing the accumulation of plant biomass. For herbivores, the strength of such top-down  
102 control depends on whether they are limited by predation [20,21]. Herbivores and plant  
103 pathogens can further be important drivers of plant coexistence and affect plant diversity  
104 [13,22,23]. Even if enemies do not alter diversity, they frequently change competitive  
105 interactions between plant species and alter the composition of plant communities [18]. We  
106 discuss the impact of plant enemies on these three aspects of plant communities - productivity,  
107 diversity, and composition.

108

## 109 **Impact of enemies on plant productivity**

110 Plants are consumed by numerous organisms that feed in different ways and on different types  
111 of plant tissue, above- or belowground. These enemies can be very restricted in their diet or  
112 can be highly generalist. Despite the high diversity of plant enemies, studies aiming to  
113 understand their role in determining plant community dynamics have mainly focused on  
114 vertebrate herbivores [24,25]. While highly debated in the past [26], today there is ample  
115 evidence for their widespread, top-down effects on plant communities [11,12]. In contrast to  
116 vertebrates, it has often been assumed that invertebrate herbivores and pathogens are too small,  
117 specialised or strongly regulated by predators to have large effects on plant productivity [24].  
118 Several individual studies, however, have shown that invertebrate herbivores and fungal  
119 pathogens *can* affect plant productivity [e.g. 13,27–29], but effects are often variable between  
120 studies. While one meta-analysis on insecticide experiments in grassland found an increase in  
121 primary production when insects were removed [30], a recent meta-analysis showed no  
122 consistent top-down effect of aboveground invertebrate herbivores on plant biomass [12]. For

123 other groups, such as belowground invertebrates, molluscs or fungal pathogens, the impact on  
124 plant communities is even less clear, although strong effects have been shown in some studies,  
125 under certain conditions [28,29,31–33].

126

### 127 **Impact of enemies on plant diversity**

128 Enemies frequently alter competitive interactions between plants and can therefore alter the  
129 *diversity* of plant species in a community [22,23,34]. Enemies can promote coexistence if they  
130 more strongly attack the most abundant species within a community [34–37]. This can arise if  
131 attack rate declines with decreasing host frequency (negative-frequency dependence). Enemies  
132 then drive niche differences between plant species, stabilizing coexistence (e.g. [23]).  
133 Particularly the attack rate of specialist enemies has been suggested to decline non-linearly  
134 with host abundance as rare hosts are difficult to locate and escape attack (Janzen-Connell  
135 effect, e.g. [36,38]). Enemies can also promote coexistence and more strongly attack dominant  
136 plant species through a correlation between palatability and dominance or a correlation  
137 between sensitivity of plants to attack and dominance. This could be driven by, for instance, a  
138 trade-off between the growth of plants in a resource rich environment and their defense against  
139 enemies [39–42], or a trade-off between the competitive ability for belowground nutrients and  
140 defense [43]. In this case, enemies promote coexistence by reducing the competitive ability  
141 (fitness) of more vigorously growing plant species, equalizing fitness between dominant and  
142 less dominant species.

143 Empirical studies excluding plant enemies have found highly variable effects on plant diversity  
144 [24,25,28,29,44,45]. While large vertebrate herbivores were found to slightly promote  
145 grassland diversity (evenness) in a recent meta-analysis, effects of invertebrates were variable  
146 [12,32]. Evidence from the tropics [38,46] and also from plant-soil feedback experiments in  
147 temperate grasslands [36] suggest that soil-borne pathogens are able to maintain high levels of

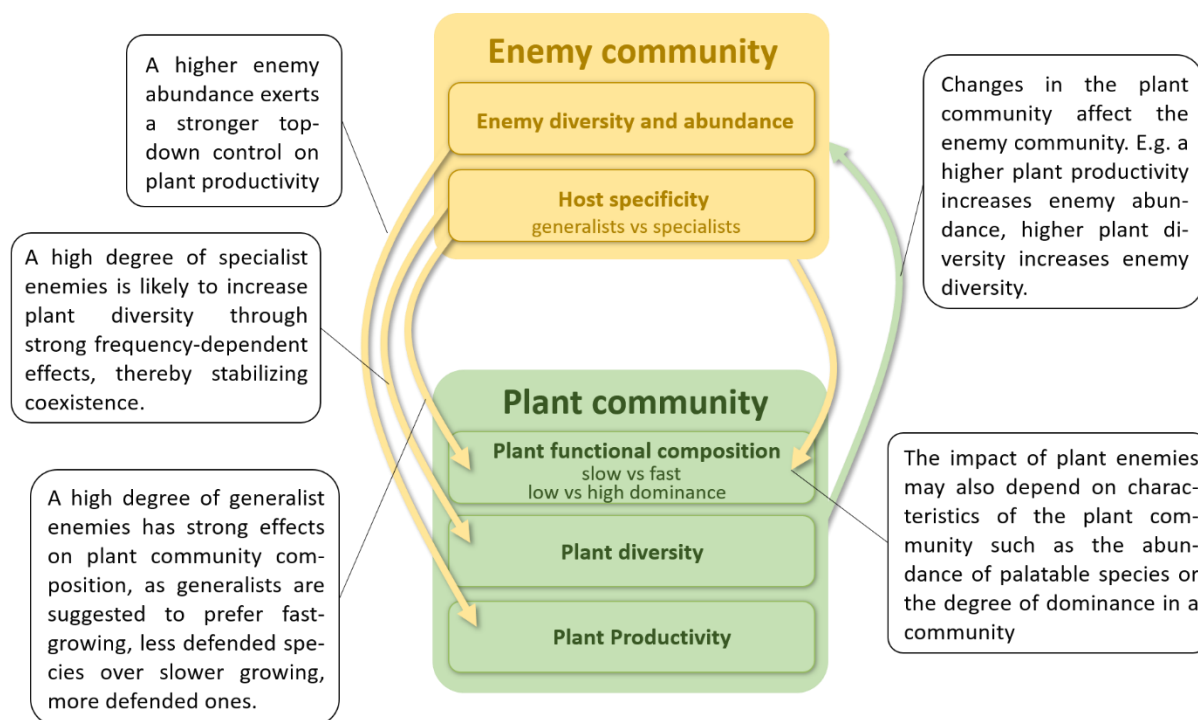
148 diversity through Janzen-Connell effects. However, pathogens or invertebrate herbivores may  
149 also destabilize coexistence by creating positive feedbacks or by increasing fitness differences  
150 among plant species [13]. Apparent competition through shared enemies could enhance fitness  
151 differences, for instance through spillover of pathogens from a tolerant to a less tolerant host  
152 [13,47].

153

#### 154 **Effects of plant enemies on plant species composition**

155 Plant enemies may also alter plant species *composition* without changing diversity.  
156 Compositional changes are driven by the same basic mechanisms that also affect diversity.  
157 Plant enemies can reduce the competitive ability of certain species, leading to competitive  
158 release for others [18]. Plant enemies might generally change *plant functional composition* by  
159 preferentially attacking faster growing, less defended plant species rather than slower growing,  
160 and more defended ones [19,41,42]. Recent work on fungal pathogens in grasslands has shown  
161 that fast-growing plant species were more likely to be infested than slow-growing species [42].  
162 Communities consisting of fast-growing species were thus more strongly impacted by  
163 pathogens (they lost more biomass) than communities consisting of slower growing species,  
164 leading to a shift towards more slow- growing species [42]. Similarly, invertebrates have been  
165 shown to affect plant community composition [e.g. 19,29], however the effects depended on  
166 the group of enemies excluded, or herbivore preference, and were not linked to plant growth  
167 strategy [16,45]. Pathogens and invertebrate herbivores might also change composition by  
168 favouring later successional species [48]: Studies have shown that early successional plant  
169 species experience stronger and more negative feedbacks with root-feeding invertebrates than  
170 mid- or late-successional ones [49], and that species replacement during primary or secondary  
171 succession can be driven by soil pathogens [50] and insect herbivores [51].

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174 Fig. 2: Illustration of the general effects of the enemy community on different aspects of the  
 175 plant community (plant productivity, diversity, and functional composition).

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### 177 **Context dependency in plant enemy impact: predicting indirect effects of global change**

178 The outcome of biotic interactions are notoriously context-dependent, with enemy impact  
 179 depending on many abiotic and biotic factors [16,52,53]. In general, variation in impact can be  
 180 driven by changes in the enemy or the plant community. Changes in the abundance and per  
 181 capita feeding rate of enemies will alter their impact on plant productivity [54], while changes  
 182 in enemy diversity and in their degree of specialisation will alter impact on plant diversity and  
 183 species composition (Fig. 2). At the same time, characteristics of the plant community may  
 184 determine the impact that enemies can have, e.g. enemies may have a larger impact in  
 185 communities dominated by a few plant species [55,56] or in communities dominated by  
 186 palatable, fast growing species [42, Fig.2]. Indirect effects of global change on plant  
 187 communities through altered biotic interactions can thus arise because global change alters the  
 188 enemy community alone (Fig. 1, ②) or because it alters feedbacks between plant and enemy



189 community structure (Fig. 1, ③). For example, increased temperature might directly alter  
190 enemy per capita feeding rates (Fig. 1, pathway ②). In addition, global change drivers might  
191 alter enemy communities by changing the plant community: increases in plant productivity  
192 might increase enemy abundance [57], increases in plant diversity are expected to increase  
193 enemy diversity [58] and perhaps the proportion of specialists [59], while a shift to fast growing  
194 plant species might increase the abundance of generalists (Fig. 1, pathway ③). Understanding  
195 how global change drivers alter the feedback between enemies and plants would fundamentally  
196 enhance our ability to improve global change forecasts. Here, we provide a framework for how  
197 important global change drivers, namely nitrogen enrichment, climate change, and an increase  
198 in atmospheric carbon dioxide might modify the impact of plant enemies on plant productivity,  
199 diversity and plant functional composition (Box 1). In addition, we discuss the consequences  
200 of plant diversity loss and declines in insect abundance arising from other global changes.

201

### 202 **Effects of nitrogen enrichment**

203 Nitrogen enrichment is a key global change driver. It typically causes a loss of plant diversity  
204 [60], increases plant biomass production [61] and tissue nitrogen concentrations [62] and leads  
205 to a shift towards faster-growing plant species [63]. Nitrogen may alter enemy impact through  
206 several of these mechanisms. Theory predicts that low-resource environments select for slow-  
207 growing, highly defended species whereas high-resource environments select for fast-growing,  
208 less defended species [39]. Similarly, the nitrogen disease hypotheses predicts that plants  
209 growing in fertile environments are more attractive to enemies due to higher tissue nitrogen  
210 concentrations [64]. Consequently, fast-growing, acquisitive species, and species growing in  
211 nitrogen rich conditions, should suffer higher levels of herbivory or pathogen infection than  
212 species with a conservative strategy [40,65,66]. However, fast-growing species or species with  
213 access to more soil resources might be more tolerant of enemy attack, meaning that the actual

214 impact of enemies on them, in terms of plant biomass loss, could be lower despite higher  
215 infestation [67]. In addition, the exploitation ecosystem hypothesis [20,21] predicts that in  
216 resource rich environments with high primary production, natural enemies of herbivores  
217 (predators) should control herbivore populations and herbivores should only have large impacts  
218 at lower productivity. In this case nitrogen enrichment would not change enemy impact on  
219 plant productivity, if all the additional plant biomass is transferred to predators, however so far  
220 the pattern has been only shown for vertebrates and not for invertebrate herbivores [68].  
221 The evidence for changes in herbivore and pathogen impact with productivity and fertility is  
222 mixed. Herbivore biomass has been shown to increase with plant productivity [69,70],  
223 however, herbivore *impact* (see Box 2) has sometimes been shown to be unaffected or even to  
224 decrease with increasing productivity [30,69]. Results from a recent meta-analysis were  
225 surprisingly uninformative for understanding patterns in the strength of herbivore impact  
226 among systems differing in net primary production (indicator of soil fertility, [12]). For  
227 pathogens, enhanced disease and impact with nitrogen enrichment has been shown in  
228 agricultural studies, but findings from grasslands are contradictory, with some studies finding  
229 support [71] and others not [42]. Whether the *impact* of plant enemies increases with increasing  
230 soil fertility is therefore not fully resolved.

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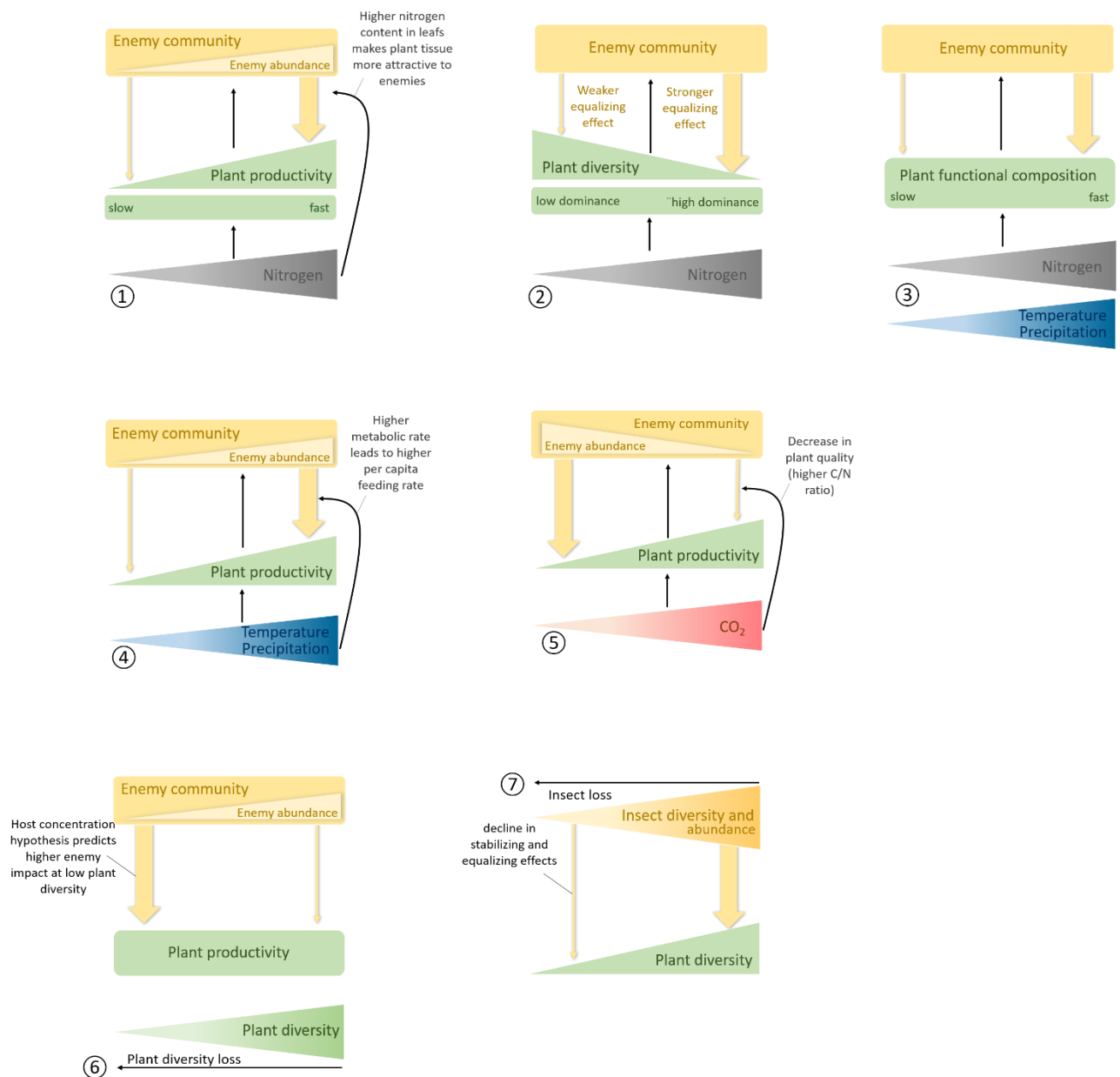
### 232 **Effects of temperature and precipitation**

233 Increases in temperature and changes in precipitation following climate change will not only  
234 affect plant growth directly but are likely to change plant communities indirectly by modifying  
235 their pathogen and herbivore communities. Warming is expected to increase the impact of  
236 herbivores and pathogens because higher temperatures lead to higher metabolic rates [72,73],  
237 accelerated development and reproduction [74,75]. However, this will only occur if  
238 precipitation remains high - warming in arid environments would be expected to reduce enemy

239 attack. Theory on how plant-enemy interactions change with temperature largely come from  
240 latitudinal and altitudinal gradients. Biotic interactions have long been predicted to be strongest  
241 in the warm, low latitudes [15,59]. The mechanisms driving this latitudinal gradient are likely  
242 to emerge over long time scales and involve increased coevolution and speciation in more  
243 predictable and benign climates [59,76]. Similarly, herbivore pressure is expected to be higher  
244 at lower elevations, which are warmer and less variable climatically [77,78]. This should result  
245 in decreased plant defense at high elevations and a higher proportion of generalist consumers.  
246 Plant-fungal interactions are also likely to vary with elevation, as fungal communities are  
247 sensitive to changes climatic conditions [79,80]. Altitudinal gradients occur over much smaller  
248 scales and are less confounded by historical or macro-evolutionary processes [81]. They may  
249 therefore be more promising than latitudinal gradients for predicting changes in enemy impact  
250 with climate change [5,80].

251 Results from existing elevational gradients and warming experiments indicate that herbivore  
252 pressure is indeed higher at lower elevations [77,78], however, recent studies questioned the  
253 generality of previous findings [78,81]. Similarly, results from a global field survey suggests  
254 that the relative abundance of soil-borne fungal pathogens increase with warming [82]. Most  
255 warming experiments have shown an increase in pathogen and herbivore attack at higher  
256 temperatures in the field [75,83–85] or in the lab [86,87]. However, other warming experiments  
257 found no change [88] or even a decrease [89] in herbivory. Results from agriculture indicate  
258 that temperature effects on pathogen impact are species-specific. While several cold-sensitive  
259 pathogens would benefit from mild winters [90], others are impeded in their infection potential  
260 by higher temperatures [91]. This suggests that species-specific changes in plant quality (leaf  
261 nutrients, defensive compounds), herbivore and pathogen thermal limits [89] or changes in  
262 herbivore natural enemy activity or abundance [92,93] also determine enemy attack and hence  
263 their impact on plants. Rarely, studies assess *impact* of enemies on plant communities or

264 functioning along altitudinal gradients, i.e. by using exclusions [80], or combine warming  
265 experiments with the exclusion of pathogens and herbivores (but see [94]. More studies are  
266 needed to reliably predict the impact of plant enemies on plant communities in a warmer world.  
267 The effects of changes in precipitation or extreme weather events on enemy impact are more  
268 difficult to predict, as water on the one hand affects habitat characteristics for enemies (soil  
269 and air humidity), but also acts as a resource, affecting plants and enemies via changes in  
270 productivity. Effects on habitat characteristics are likely to be species or group-specific. While  
271 many pathogens, e.g. rusts, may depend on humidity during infection and may decrease during  
272 drought, others may benefit [95,96]. Changes in soil moisture may affect habitat conditions  
273 differently for herbivores or predators, with consequences for predator-prey interactions  
274 [97,98]. Extreme weather events such as storms may facilitate natural dispersal for pathogens,  
275 whereas other enemy groups may decrease [99,100]. When water acts as a resource, changes  
276 in precipitation affect enemies indirectly via changes in plant quality and community  
277 composition. E.g. periodic drought stress in plants may impede the ability of plants to  
278 compensate for enemy attack, making plants more susceptible to disease. Continuing drought  
279 may shift plant community composition towards more stress tolerant, well-defended species,  
280 at the expense of fast-growing more competitive ones. A reduction in precipitation may further  
281 increase mutualistic interactions, which can play an important role in plant resistance [101].  
282 This may decrease plant quality and the impact of enemies on plant communities, similar to  
283 the opposite effects of increases in temperature and nitrogen. Because changes in precipitation  
284 may result in complex responses of plants and enemies, drawing predictions on how such  
285 changes affect the impact of enemies on plant communities is challenging.



286

287

288 Fig. 3. ①-⑤ Illustrations indicate how the global change drivers nitrogen, temperature and

289 elevated CO<sub>2</sub> may affect the impact of plant enemies (yellow arrows) on plant productivity.

290 Moreover, we depict how nitrogen enrichment may affect the impact of plant enemies on

291 plant diversity and functional composition. ⑥ depicts the consequences of plant diversity

292 loss on the impact of enemies on plant productivity, and ⑦ the effect of insect decline on

293 plant diversity. Explanations see Box 1.

294

295 **Box 1: Expectations of how global change drivers affect enemy impact**

296 ① **Nitrogen enrichment affects impact of enemies on plant productivity.** The nitrogen  
297 disease and resource availability hypotheses would both suggest that the impact of herbivores  
298 and pathogens on plant productivity should be higher following N enrichment, due to changes  
299 in plant nutrient contents or functional composition. Moreover, a high soil fertility may reduce  
300 the presence of beneficial soil microbes, which have been shown to provide plants with  
301 resistance against enemies [128–130], further increasing enemy impact. While both plant and  
302 herbivore biomass have been shown to increase with soil fertility, herbivore impact has not  
303 [69]. This might suggest that fast-growing plant species are more tolerant and compensate for  
304 leaf loss, or that top-down control of herbivores by predators is stronger at high soil fertility.  
305 Predicting how the impact of enemies on plant productivity will change with nitrogen  
306 enrichment will therefore require more information on variation in plant tolerance and predator  
307 communities with nitrogen addition.

308 ② **Nitrogen enrichment increases impact of enemies on plant diversity.** Nitrogen  
309 enrichment usually reduces plant diversity and evenness, through an increase in light  
310 competition, which is expected to alter enemy impact. We expect that the impact of enemies  
311 on plant diversity is stronger at high soil fertility because there is more opportunity for plant  
312 enemies to equalise fitness differences and promote diversity by reducing the dominance of the  
313 good light competitors [25]. Enemies might also be particularly likely to reduce the dominants  
314 in resource rich environments because they are less defended (growth-defense trade-off), or  
315 because they are tall and are therefore more likely to be removed by vertebrate grazers. Changes  
316 in the feedbacks between enemies and plants may therefore offset some of the negative effects  
317 of nitrogen enrichment on plant diversity.

318 ③ **Nitrogen enrichment increases the impact of enemies on plant functional composition.**  
319 Nitrogen enrichment tends to shift plant functional composition towards dominance by fast

320 growing species. We expect that this will increase enemy impact on plant functional  
321 composition because fast-growing plants are preferentially attacked by generalist enemies,  
322 allowing slower growing but more defended species to persist. Excluding enemies from fertile  
323 communities would result in a loss of slower growing species, shifting functional composition  
324 towards even faster growing species. However, excluding enemies from resource poor  
325 environments would have minor effects on plant functional composition, as fast-growing  
326 species will still be outcompeted by the slow growing ones and are therefore unlikely to be able  
327 to increase.

328 ④ **Temperature affects impact of enemies on plant productivity.** A higher plant  
329 productivity as well as an accelerated development and reproduction of plant enemies with  
330 warmer temperatures and higher precipitations are both likely to increase enemy abundance  
331 and consumption, and therefore enemy impact on *plant productivity*. However, this might be  
332 offset by changes in plant nutrients and defences, or – for herbivores - by altered top-down  
333 control of predators. For example, it has been shown that spiders produce a second clutch in  
334 arctic environments with climate warming [93]. Thus, whether the impact of invertebrate  
335 herbivores and fungal pathogens on productivity increases with climate warming is not fully  
336 resolved.

337 Predictions for how enemy impact on *plant diversity* and *composition* will change with  
338 alterations in the climate are even less clear, as only few studies have interactively manipulated  
339 temperature and enemy abundance [94].

340 ⑤ **Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> reduces impact of enemies on plant productivity.** An increase in  
341 atmospheric carbon dioxide is expected to decrease plant quality via an increase in the C:N  
342 ratio and carbon-based secondary compounds. We therefore expect that, at least for herbivores,  
343 enemy abundance and hence impact will decrease. For pathogens, we need more studies to  
344 draw general conclusions on how increases in CO<sub>2</sub> affect pathogen impact on plants,

345 particularly in natural systems [108]. We also expect that the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> on plant functional  
346 composition will remain stable as herbivores will prevent an increase in N-fixing species with  
347 elevated CO<sub>2</sub>.

348 ⑥ **Plant diversity loss affects impact of enemies on plant productivity.** We would expect  
349 that the impact of natural enemies on plant productivity increases with plant diversity loss (host  
350 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 [131]: if  
352 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,  
354 the 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  
356 diversity is likely to weaken the stabilizing and equalizing effects of herbivores on plant  
357 coexistence. This might have far reaching consequences for plant diversity.

358

### 359 **Effects of elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide**

360 Another key element of anthropogenic climate change is an increase in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels.  
361 The drastic rise in CO<sub>2</sub> is likely to not only affect plant growth but also plant interactions with  
362 their enemies either by changing plant nutritional quality or functional composition and hence  
363 the feedbacks between plant and enemy communities [102,103]. Experiments have shown that  
364 elevated CO<sub>2</sub> generally enhances plant growth and increases tissue C:N ratios [104,105].  
365 Moreover, it is likely that an increased C supply to plants leads to an increase in C-based  
366 secondary and structural compounds, and a dilution of nutrients [103], decreasing plant quality  
367 [104,106]. As invertebrate herbivores and pathogens are N-limited, an increase in C:N ratios  
368 is likely to lead to lower food quality.



369 Results from meta-analyses suggest that while chewing herbivores respond with increased food  
370 consumption in the short term to compensate for the lower nutritional quality, they also grow  
371 more slowly and have a longer development time, which increases exposure to enemies, all of  
372 which reduce herbivore abundance under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> [104,106]. Phloem feeding insects  
373 instead tend to increase with elevated CO<sub>2</sub> [104]. For pathogens, studies suggest that elevated  
374 CO<sub>2</sub> can have positive, negative or neutral effects on infection intensity, as different pathogens  
375 might respond differently [71,74,107,108].

376 In addition to changes in plant quality, changes in plant functional composition with elevated  
377 CO<sub>2</sub> might alter enemy impact. While C<sub>4</sub>-plants are relatively unresponsive to elevated CO<sub>2</sub>,  
378 C<sub>3</sub>-plants often increase their growth [109]. Even more positively affected are legumes thanks  
379 to their close mutualistic interaction with nitrogen fixing bacteria in root nodules. Legumes  
380 shunt excess carbon to their mutualists which stimulates their growth and subsequently the  
381 growth of legumes [110]. However, the positive effect on legumes is likely to be offset by a  
382 shift in preference of generalist plant enemies to the more nutritive N-fixing species, preventing  
383 them from increasing.

384

### 385 **Declines in plant and insect diversity – consequences for plant-enemy interactions**

386 Other global change factors such as invasive species or pesticides may cause declines in plant  
387 and insect diversity [1,111]. A decline in plant diversity is likely to alter the impact that  
388 invertebrate herbivores and pathogens have on plant communities. The idea that plant  
389 communities with higher densities of a few species should be more vulnerable to negative  
390 effects of specialized enemies, and that communities with high plant diversity harbour a larger  
391 community of natural enemies, has a long history in ecology ([55], host concentration  
392 hypothesis, [112]). Indeed, studies manipulating plant diversity of grasslands have shown that  
393 pathogen attack is generally higher in species poor compared to species rich communities

394 [56,113–117]. For herbivores, previous results have been ambiguous, and abundance, diversity  
395 and impact of herbivores have also been shown to increase be highest at high plant diversity  
396 [32,33,118–121]. However, results for specialist insect pests are more consistent and resource  
397 concentration effects are commonly observed [122]. Most of the evidence for resource  
398 concentration effects comes from experiments in which diversity is manipulated and species  
399 compositions are random [117]. Responses of herbivores and pathogens to real world gradients  
400 of diversity are less well known [123] and will depend on how plant functional composition  
401 changes at the same time.

402 Recent studies have also suggested that insect populations are declining in abundance  
403 [111,124] and this loss of insect abundance and diversity is likely to have consequences for  
404 plant communities. A loss of herbivore abundance and diversity is likely to result in a decline  
405 in their impacts on plant communities. This might have far reaching consequences for plant  
406 diversity by disrupting coexistence mechanisms and allowing competitive species to dominate.

407

#### 408 **Concluding remarks and future avenues**

409 Our review highlights the multiple indirect effects that global change can have through altering  
410 enemy impact. Global change is expected to profoundly alter feedbacks between plants and  
411 enemies and to have strong indirect effects on biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. This  
412 review also points out the gaps in our understanding of the context-dependency of plant-enemy  
413 interactions [16]. The reason why we know so little about how enemy impact varies along  
414 abiotic or biotic gradients is that large-scale patterns are usually pieced together from data  
415 obtained by a variety of methods and protocols [125]. Moreover, while effects on enemy  
416 communities are rather well studied, we often know little of whether such changes translate  
417 into changes in *impact* of plant enemies, as studies often rely on comparing herbivore or  
418 pathogen *attack* along gradients and rarely measure *impact* experimentally (see Box 2), i.e. by

419 using exclusions [80,126,127]. To predict the consequences of global change on ecosystems  
420 we need to develop a predictive understanding of why and how antagonistic biotic interactions  
421 vary in space. Exclusion of different plant enemies along environmental gradients is one way  
422 to find general predictors of context-dependency. Moreover, experiments simultaneously  
423 manipulating various global change drivers while excluding enemy groups can inform us about  
424 potential changes in plant-enemy impacts on plant communities under global change.  
425 Enhancing our knowledge on how antagonistic biotic interactions alter the diversity and  
426 functioning of plant communities, and how their impact depend on abiotic and biotic factors is  
427 a pressing priority given accelerating global change.

428

429 **Box 2: Assessing plant-enemy impact: impact does not equal damage!**

430 The interactions of plants with their enemies are notoriously context dependent and the impact  
431 of plant enemies therefore differs strongly in space. For example, ecological theory suggests  
432 that enemy impact on plant communities is strongest at low latitudes, low elevation or in very  
433 fertile habitats [15,39,77]. Most studies that test for such patterns collect data on herbivore or  
434 pathogen attack [78,132]. However, damage by herbivores or pathogens is not necessarily  
435 related to their impact, i.e. their effect on plant biomass, demography or other community  
436 components. Some plant species might be more tolerant to enemy attack than others  
437 (particularly species with an acquisitive, fast-growing strategy) and the actual *impact* of  
438 enemies on them might be lower than one would expect based on enemy infestation. Similarly,  
439 some plant species might be highly susceptible to already low levels of enemy damage and  
440 decline in abundance, and these strong effects of enemies on plant community structure cannot  
441 be assessed with damage assessments alone [133].

442 To best predict the impact of plant enemies on plant productivity, diversity or community  
443 composition a comparison of plant communities in the presence and absence (low densities) of  
444 enemies would be necessary, e.g. with addition/infection or exclusion experiments. Addition  
445 or infection experiments are only meaningful for determining the role of enemies in natural  
446 communities if the added enemy community composition and density mirrors the naturally  
447 occurring one, which is challenging and has so far not been done in terrestrial systems.  
448 Exclusion experiments have the advantage that they reduce natural levels of enemies, allowing

449 to draw realistic inferences about the role of enemies in plant communities. However, reducing  
 450 invertebrate herbivores and pathogens from plant communities often requires the use of  
 451 chemical biocide application. While this approach has sometimes been criticized as not being  
 452 effective and having non-target effects [133], as long as ecologists are careful about the  
 453 inferences and mindful of the limitation of this approach the chemical exclusion of plant  
 454 enemies offers a valuable opportunity to study the importance of enemy-plant interactions in  
 455 terrestrial ecosystems. Combined with investigations along environmental gradients [32] or  
 456 global change experiments (e.g. warming, [94]), the exclusion of enemies might reveal  
 457 important insights into how enemy impact in plant communities may change in the future.

458

459 **References**

460

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