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1 **Nutrient addition increases insect herbivory in *Nothofagus antarctica* on**

2 **North-Patagonian forests**

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28 **Abstract**

29 The change in nutrient availability in the soil can affect key functions of forest ecosystems,
30 such as insect herbivory. Although insect herbivory is particularly relevant because it can
31 impact on the growth and mortality of forest plant species, the evidence of the impacts of
32 fertilizers addition on herbivory patterns is limited. In this study, we specifically evaluated how
33 herbivory frequency on the timber species *Nothofagus antarctica* is affected by the
34 addition of nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), potassium (K) and their combinations to the soil,
35 using a long term full-factorial field experiment in a North-Patagonian Forest (Argentina). Our
36 study investigated the effects of fertilizers (N, P, and K) on herbivory frequency and leaf
37 nutrient concentrations of the studied species. We found that the addition of fertilizers to the
38 soil increased herbivory frequency, which was mediated by increases in leaf nutrient
39 concentrations. Furthermore, we observed that interactions between fertilizers in leaf
40 nutrient concentrations generally produced increases in herbivory, both in the amount of
41 leaf consumed and in the foliar damage percentage. These findings suggest that fertilization
42 can have complex effects on plant-herbivore interactions, and that the specific effects may
43 depend on the identity of the nutrients that combined, the plant species, and the level of
44 nutrient availability. Our results provide evidence that changes in soil nutrient availability are
45 important in forest ecosystems, and that should be considered to develop effective management
46 strategies for the sustainable use of natural resources in Patagonian forests.

47 **Keywords:** Herbivory; Phosphorus; Nitrogen; Potassium; Nutrient addition

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53 **1. Introduction**

54 Nutrient enrichment can promote changes in ecosystem processes, such as the patterns of
55 herbivory (Garibaldi et al., 2010). This is because the addition of fertilizers, such as nitrogen (N),
56 phosphorus (P), and potassium (K), can drive changes in plant growth and tissue quality, and
57 ultimately disturb trophic cascades (Forkner and Hunter 2000; Boyer et al., 2003). Due to
58 increased nutrient limits in the soil, leaf chemical composition may change, impacting leaf
59 palatability and herbivore feeding responses (Garibaldi et al., 2010; Cleland and Harpole 2010;
60 La Pierre and Smith 2016). Insect herbivores are directly influenced by changes in food quality
61 (Throop and Ler dau 2004; La Pierre and Smith 2016) and chemical and physical defences of
62 plants (Chen et al., 2010). The quantity and accessibility of selected food are decisive for the
63 physiological processes and population dynamics of herbivorous insects (Poorter et al.,
64 2004; Boersma and Elser 2006; Zehnder and Hunter 2009). The nutritional content of
65 herbivorous insects is lower than that of the plants they consume, leading to potential shifts in
66 their feeding behaviour in response to changes in the nutritional quality of available food
67 sources (Throop and Ler dau 2004). The herbivorous community can modify their feeding rates
68 because of changes in palatability and other leaf traits, mediated by the addition of fertilizers on
69 forest soils (Poorter et al., 2004). Forest populations may show variable responses to nutrient
70 additions, depending on environmental conditions and plant functional traits (Garibaldi et al.,
71 2010; Menge et al. 2002). Therefore, it is important to understand how native forests respond to
72 different soil management strategies to design sustainable management plans.

73 The availability of N for plants is a determining factor for their growth, morphology,
74 biochemistry and physiology (Barbour et al., 1991, Rashid et al., 2016). Under conditions of
75 high availability, a plant could invest more in defence metabolites that contain N (Muzika
76 1993; Gebauer et al., 1998; Mutikainen et al., 2000). In addition, plants can produce volatile
77 substances when subjected to herbivore damage, to repel pests or attract natural enemies,
78 and this can increase under conditions of higher N availability in the soil (Turlings and Erb
79 2018). This would lead to a decrease in the consumption of leaf matter by herbivorous
insects. In contrast, White and

80 collaborators (1984) found that high N availability can lead to an increase in soluble
81 proteins, sugars, and amino acids in leaves, which increases their palatability and,
82 consequently, their consumption by insect herbivores. In this way, the addition of N to the soil
83 could cause an increase in insect herbivory damage. Deciduous plant species, in particular,
84 store N in perennial organs and then mobilize it to the leaves during the growing season,
85 making them more attractive to generalist herbivores that feed on leaves (Millard and Grelet
86 2010). In contrast, perennial species may contain less N in the leaves because they distribute
87 resources more equitably due to their need for sustainable resource use and N efficiency
88 (González-Paleo et al., 2019). For example, in a previous study conducted under the same
89 experimental conditions, we observed that herbivory decreased with the addition of nitrogen
90 (Pérez-Méndez et al., 2022). This could be due to the lower N content in the leaves of the
91 perennial specie we worked with (*Berberis microphylla*), which would make it less
92 attractive to herbivores. Given the complex interplay between N availability, plant
93 strategies, and herbivore interactions, it is essential to further investigate how life history and
94 leaf traits influence N conservation and use strategies in plants (González-Paleo et al., 2019).
95 Consequently, we decided to conduct a new study using a deciduous species of the genus
96 *Nothofagus* as a model, under same experiment. Also, this genus is more consumed for
97 generalist insect herbivores in our study site (Nacif et al., 2020, Garibaldi et al., 2010).

98 Producers and consumers use P for key cellular processes such as ATP and nucleic acid (RNA
99 and DNA) synthesis, and protein production (Sterner and Elser 2017). Phosphorus is a
100 key nutrient that enables the maintenance of essential cell functions and, consequently, of
101 organisms. As a result, an increase in soil P availability can enhance plant P use
102 efficiency, ultimately affecting herbivorous consumers (Elser et al., 2000; Sterner and Elser
103 2017). An increase in available P in the diet can lead to significant alterations in the
104 survival, fecundity, oviposition rate, growth, and population density of herbivorous insects. In
105 this way, insects can increase their feeding rates because of an increment of their populations
106 (Huberty and Denno 2006). Finally, although there are few studies that have evaluated the
effect of K on herbivory patterns. In plants, K plays several physiological functions, including
the regulation of enzymatic activity, which can

107 alter the palatability of leaves (Wang and Wu 2017; Ibrahim et al., 2012). Additionally, K
108 is involved in the formation of soluble sugars, organic acids, amino acids, and amides in
109 plant tissues, which are ultimately important for the diet of insects that feed on the leaves
110 (Wang and Wu 2017). It is also an important regulator of secondary metabolites which can be
111 used by plants to repel herbivorous insects (Erb and Kliebenstein 2020). Therefore, the
112 direction and strength of the response of herbivores to nutrient addition may vary depending
113 on the specific nutrient, physiological traits of plants, coevolution with their associated
114 herbivores, and the context in which it is added (Kurze et al., 2018; Fischer and Fiedler 2000).
115 Despite the multiple ways through which nutrient addition can propagate towards higher trophic
116 levels, there is little evidence on the potential relationships between nutrient addition and
117 changes in herbivory patterns (Poorter et al., 2004). It is known that these nutrients can interact
118 with each other and thus affect foliar chemistry in different ways (Wu et al., 2020; Güsewell
119 2004). It is important to note that the interactions between nutrients can be both positive and
120 negative, and can significantly influence the plant nutrition (Güsewell 2004). For instance,
121 nitrogen fertilization can stimulate P mobilization through an increase in phosphatase
122 production or activity increasing their concentration (Treseder and Vitousek 2001). In
123 addition, low K availability could inhibit N uptake and significantly reduce its content in
124 leaves (Hu et al., 2017), although a positive synergistic effect of the two nutrients has also
125 been reported (Ruan et al., 1998; Ruiz and Romero 2002). Understanding these interactions is
126 essential for turn predicting how plant-herbivore interactions may be affected. Because of
127 this, we decided to set up a long-term field experiment of nutrient addition and evaluate
128 their interactive effects on insect herbivory.

129 In forest systems, herbivory patterns are especially relevant since herbivores can impact on the
130 growth and mortality of plant species with economic interest (Rusch et al., 2017). Patagonian
131 shrublands are used as silvopasture systems, for wood extraction and sheep and cattle
132 production (Collado 2009; Peri and Ormaechea 2013). Despite the fact that the shrublands of
133 *Nothofagus antarctica* (G. Forst.) represent a large part of the native forests in Patagonian
woodlands, there remain some important knowledge gaps for their sustainable management

134 (Peri et al., 2009; Grosfeld et al., 2019). Currently, there are no studies that evaluate how soil
135 management, particularly the addition of fertilizers, can affect plant-herbivore interactions in
136 this ecosystem. In this study, a manipulative field experiment on fertilization was conducted to
137 evaluate how the changes in soil nutrient availability impact on the foliar traits of *N. antarctica*
138 and herbivory frequency. Specifically, we used a full factorial experimental design that allow us
139 to evaluate all potential interacting effects among nutrients (no nutrient addition, N, P, K, NP,
140 NK, PK and NPK) on soil nutrient content, leaf nutrient concentration and insect herbivory. We
141 initially established two competing hypotheses about the relationships between nutrient addition
142 and the cascading effects that ultimately affect herbivory patterns. The first hypothesis (H1)
143 postulates that the addition of nutrients (N, P, and K and their combinations) to the soil would
144 affect the chemical composition of leaves, increasing both the concentration of leaf nutrients
145 and the attractiveness for herbivorous insects, ultimately increasing leaf consumption. On the
146 contrary, the second hypothesis (H2) suggests that insects require a greater amount of leaf
147 material to reach maturity when the material is low in nutrients, leading to an increase in the
148 consumption of leaves by these insects. We expect that: *i*) the addition of N, P, K and their
149 combinations, increases soil nutrient content, *ii*) the increase of soil nutrient content increases
150 foliar nutrient concentration, *iii*) an increase in foliar nutrient concentration enhances the
151 frequency of insect herbivory due to increased food quality (H1), or alternatively, *iv*) a decrease
152 in foliar nutrient concentration increases the frequency of insect herbivory by reducing food
153 quality (H2).

154

155 **2. Materials and methods**

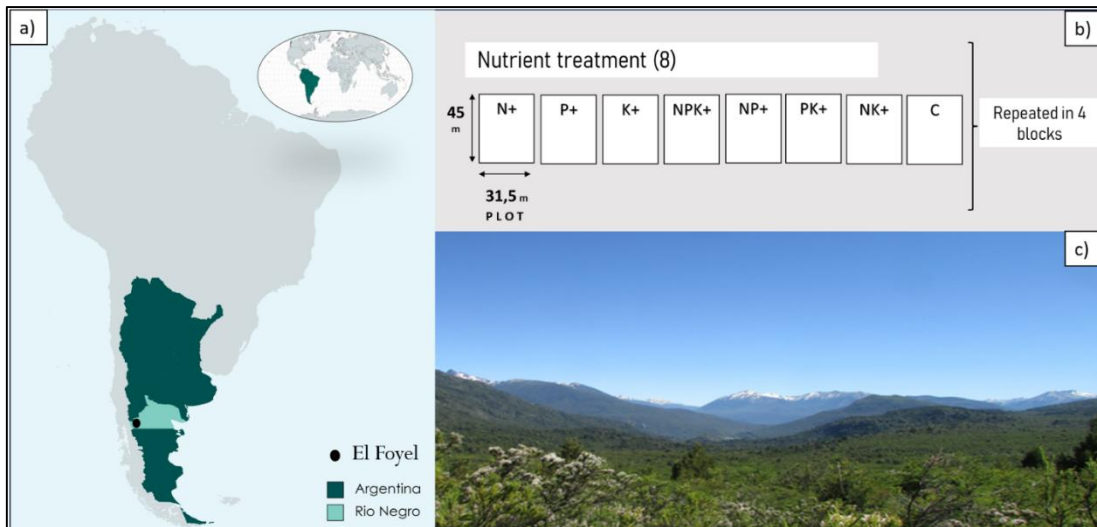
156 2.1 Study site

157 The study site is located in "El Foyel", Rio Negro, Argentina (41°38'37"S, 71°26'54"W). The
158 climate of the region is temperate-cold, with an average annual temperature of 3 °C in winter and
159 15 °C in summer, presenting frequent frosts during the months of June through August. Rainfall

160 is concentrated during autumn and winter with an annual average between 920 – 1300 mm (Reque
161 et al., 2007). The site is located at an altitude between 790 - 880 m asl and its soils are of the
162 Hapludands type (Diehl et al., 2008) limited in nutrients, mainly N (Perakis and Hedin, 2002).
163 The experimental plots are located within a private field composed of native mixed shrublands
164 typical of the northern Patagonian forest (Figure. 1). The vegetation is dominated by shrubs
165 species and some short trees, such as *N. antarctica* (focal species of this study),
166 *Schinus patagonica* (Phil.) I.M. Johnst., *Discaria chacaya* (G. Don) Tortosa, *Berberis*
167 *microphylla* G. Forst., *Lomatia hirsuta* (Lam.) Diels, *Embothrium coccineum* J.R. Forst. & G.
168 Forst. and *Diostea juncea* (Gillies & Hook. ex Hook.) Miers (Reque et al., 2007). We used *N.*
169 *antarctica* as our study focal species as *i*) it is one of the most abundant and dominant plant
170 species of North-Patagonian forests, and *ii*) it has a high commercial value as a timber species.
171 *N. antarctica* is a deciduous species that occurs in different morphotypes, from shrubs between
172 2 to 4 m tall, up to 15 m tall trees under favourable soil conditions (Ramírez et al., 1985). In our
173 study system, the community of herbivorous insects is represented by the orders
174 Lepidoptera (Geometridae, Noctuidae, Saturnidae, Heterobathmiidae), Coleoptera
175 (Curculionidae, Buprestidae), Hymenoptera (sawflies, Cynipidae), Homoptera (Psyllidae),
176 Diptera (Tephritidae) and Hemiptera (McQuillan 1993; Gentili and Gentili 1988).

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181 Figure 1. Study site and experimental design. (a) Location of the study region, El Foyel,
 182 Bariloche, Río Negro, Argentina. (b) The experiment contains 32 plots distributed in four
 183 complete random blocks in a full factorial design. The treatments result from addition of N, P and
 184 K and all possible combinations and a non-fertilization control (C). (c) Photography of the
 185 Patagonian mixed shrublands.

186

187 2.2 Experimental design

188 The nutrient addition experiment was set in 2016, six years prior to our study. The first
 189 fertilizations were carried out during November 2016, followed by two additional fertilizations in
 190 September 2017 and 2018. After two years, a last fertilization was carried out in October 2021.

191 The experimental design consisted in 32 plots distributed in 4 complete random blocks in a full
 192 factorial design. The size of the plots was 31.5 x 45 m and the treatments resulted from addition
 193 of N, P and K, and all possible combinations, resulting in a total of 7 experimental treatments (N,
 194 P, K, NP, NK, PK, NPK) and a control treatment (i.e., no fertilizer used), replicated in each of the
 195 4 blocks (Figure 1). Fertilizers were applied by hand on the total surface of each experimental
 196 plot, and the doses of nutrient addition were calculated based on those used in other similar forest
 197 systems. The fertilizers applied were the following: 100 kg ha⁻¹ of prolonged release urea for
 198 nitrogen (Lindberg and Persson 2004), 75 kg ha⁻¹ of triple superphosphate for phosphorus, and 56
 199 kg ha⁻¹ of potassium sulphate for potassium (Kim, 2008).

200

201 2.3 Soil and leaf sampling for nutrient content analysis

202 Soil and leaf samples were taken from the 32 experimental plots in February 2022. Soil samples
203 were sieved with a 2 mm mesh and dried at room temperature. For soil samples we measured
204 nitrates (NO₃) using the Bremmer method (Bremmer and Mulvaney 1996), available phosphorus
205 using the Bray-Kurtz method (Bray and Kurtz 1945) and available potassium by extracting with
206 ammonium acetate method (Novozamsky and Houba 1987). To analyse *N. antarctica* nutrient,
207 leaves were taken from eight individuals in each plot (including the six individuals on which HF
208 was measured) and stored in paper bags. A pool of leaves from all the individuals was ground and
209 drying for analysis. We measured nitrogen using the Kjeldahl method (Kjeldahl 1883), total
210 phosphorus and total potassium using the Sommer and Nelson (1973) method.

211

212 2.4 Herbivory sampling

213 During February 2022 (three months after the last fertilization), six individuals of similar size,
214 were selected in each experimental plot. On each individual, four branches of the middle
215 stratum were cut, each oriented towards a different cardinal point, and collected in paper bags.
216 For each branch, we counted the number of both healthy and damaged leaves mediated by
217 different functional groups of herbivores. For this, we utilized the approach proposed by
218 previous researchers (Pérez-Méndez et al., 2022, Nacif et al., 2020; Garibaldi et al., 2010),
219 which included leaf chewers (consumers of leaf area), skeletonizers and miners. However, we
220 found that miners and skeletonizers accounted for less than 1% of the leaf damage so we
221 decided to only use data from leaf chewers. These results later were used to estimate the
222 frequency of damaged leaves for each sampled branch ($n = 768$). Finally, we randomly selected
223 20 leaves damaged by chewers of four individual per plot and estimated the percentage of
224 damage for leave ($n = 2560$). We used this measure to assess whether the leaf area consumed
225 per leaf changed with the treatments.

226 2.5 Statistical analysis

227 To evaluate how the addition of fertilizers modified the composition of nutrients in the soil and
228 leaves we constructed linear mixed models (LMMs). The response variable was the
229 concentration of each nutrient found in soil and leaves. The addition of each nutrient with
230 values of presence or absence was used as interacting fixed effects and the block were included
231 in the model as random effects.

232 To evaluate the effects of leaf nutrient concentrations on herbivory we build two models, by
233 a generalized linear mixed modelling (GLMM) approach. For the first model the response
234 variable (i.e., herbivory) was represented of healthy leaves/damaged leaves in each plot and
235 we used a binomial distribution of errors that accounts for differences in sample size. For the
236 second model the response variable (i.e., foliar damage percentage) was represented of area
237 consumed by chewers/total area per leaves and we used beta distribution. In both cases the
238 fixed factors were a concentration of nutrients and their interactions (i.e., all possible
239 combinations between the three nutrients) and the experimental block was included in the
240 model as a random effect. We used the *lme4* package (Bates et al. 2014) for LMMs models and
241 *glmmTMB* package for GLMMs models (Brooks et al., 2017) in R statistical program (R
242 Development Core Team 2020). For all models, we used the *DHARMA* package (Hartig 2020)
243 to verify the models' assumptions. To assess the significance of the variables we use
244 Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRT) using the Anova function in *car* r-package (Fox and Weisberg
245 2018).

246

247 **3. Results**

248 3.1 Effects of fertilization treatments on soil and leaf nutrient

249 The results of significance of variables showed that the addition of N to the soil increased
250 the concentrations of nitrates on soil and total nitrogen in leaves (Table 1, Figure 2). The
251 addition of P increased available phosphorus on soil and total phosphorus in leaves (Table
1, Figure 2). Finally, the addition of K to the soil increased the available potassium in the
soil and total

252 potassium in the leaves (Table 1, Figure 2). Also, we found a significant interaction between N
 253 and P for leaf nitrogen content and leaf potassium content (Table 1, Figure 2). In addition, we
 254 found a significant interaction between the addition P and K for soil phosphorus content and leaf
 255 potassium (Table 1, Figure 2).

256

Nutrient Added	Soil nutrient			Leaf nutrient		
	N	P	K	N	P	K
N	38.7***	2.46	0.74	11.46**	0.66	0.60
P	0.38	7.10*	0.53	1.41	11.87**	0.13
K	4.04	0.42	17.1 ***	2.20	1.48	6.60*
N:P	0.18	0.04	1.42	6.99*	0.01	7.36*
N:K	2.72	0.26	0.05	1.11	2.03	0.79
P:K	0.07	4.99*	0.11	0.06	0.57	4.68*
N:P:K	0.00	3.79	1.31	0.00	1.32	0.03

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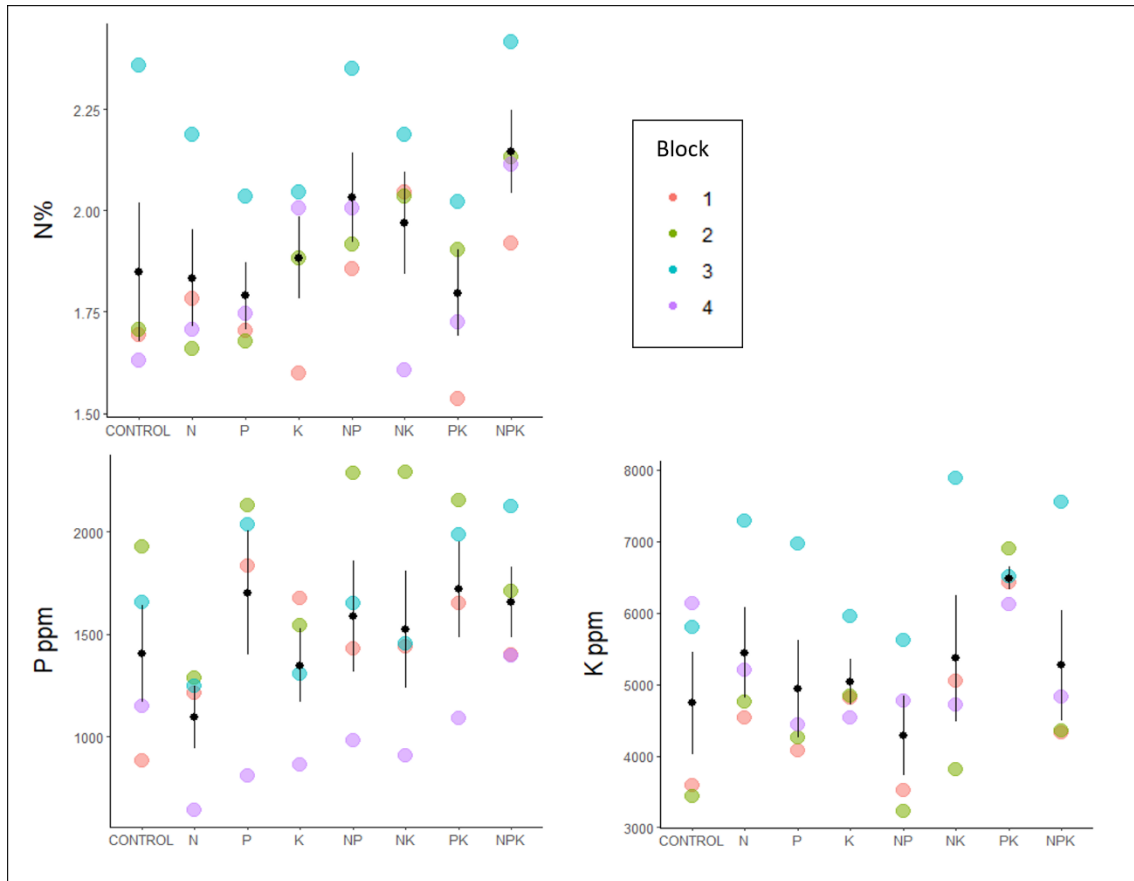
258 Table 1. Analysis of deviance for the effects of nutrient addition (N, P, K) on their own and
 259 combined on: soil nitrogen, soil phosphorus, soil potassium, leaf nitrogen, leaf phosphorus and
 260 leaf potassium. Values reported are F-statistic. Values in boldface indicate significant differences
 261 (**p < 0.01; *p < 0.05).

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268 Figure 2. Leaf nutrient content measured in *N. antarctica* under different fertilization treatments
 269 (N, P, K, NP, NK, PK and NPK) and control. Data shown are the observations of each
 270 block (identified with different colours) and the mean \pm SE (point black and line) of each
 271 treatment.

272 3.2 Effects of leaf nutrient content on herbivory

273 The total number of leaves analysed was 8500, from 192 individuals distributed across 32
 274 experimental plots. We found at least one type of damage in 7016 leaves representing 82% of
 275 the analysed material. Both GLMMs results for nutrient concentrations and their
 276 interactions on herbivory and foliar damage percentage were significant (Appendix 1, Table
 277 A.1; Table A.2). In addition, the deviation analysis for the effects of each variable and their
 278 interactions was also significant (Table 2).

279 Our results showed that herbivory increased as leaf nutrient content increased, with the highest
 280 values of herbivory occurring when the three nutrients were at their maximum concentrations

281 (Figure 3a). However, we observed a reversal in the patterns of N when there was
 282 less concentration of K. In this case, when there was a lower concentration of K in the leaves,
 283 higher N concentrations decreased herbivory. (Figure 3a). We observed that herbivory
 284 generally increased when two nutrients were combined (Figure 3a). For foliar damage
 285 percentage, we found that in general it also increased with increasing nutrient concentrations
 286 (Figure 3b). The combined N and P increased the percentage of damage in low and medium K
 287 conditions. On the contrary, when the three nutrients were in high concentration the percentage
 288 of damage tends to be lower (Figure 3b).

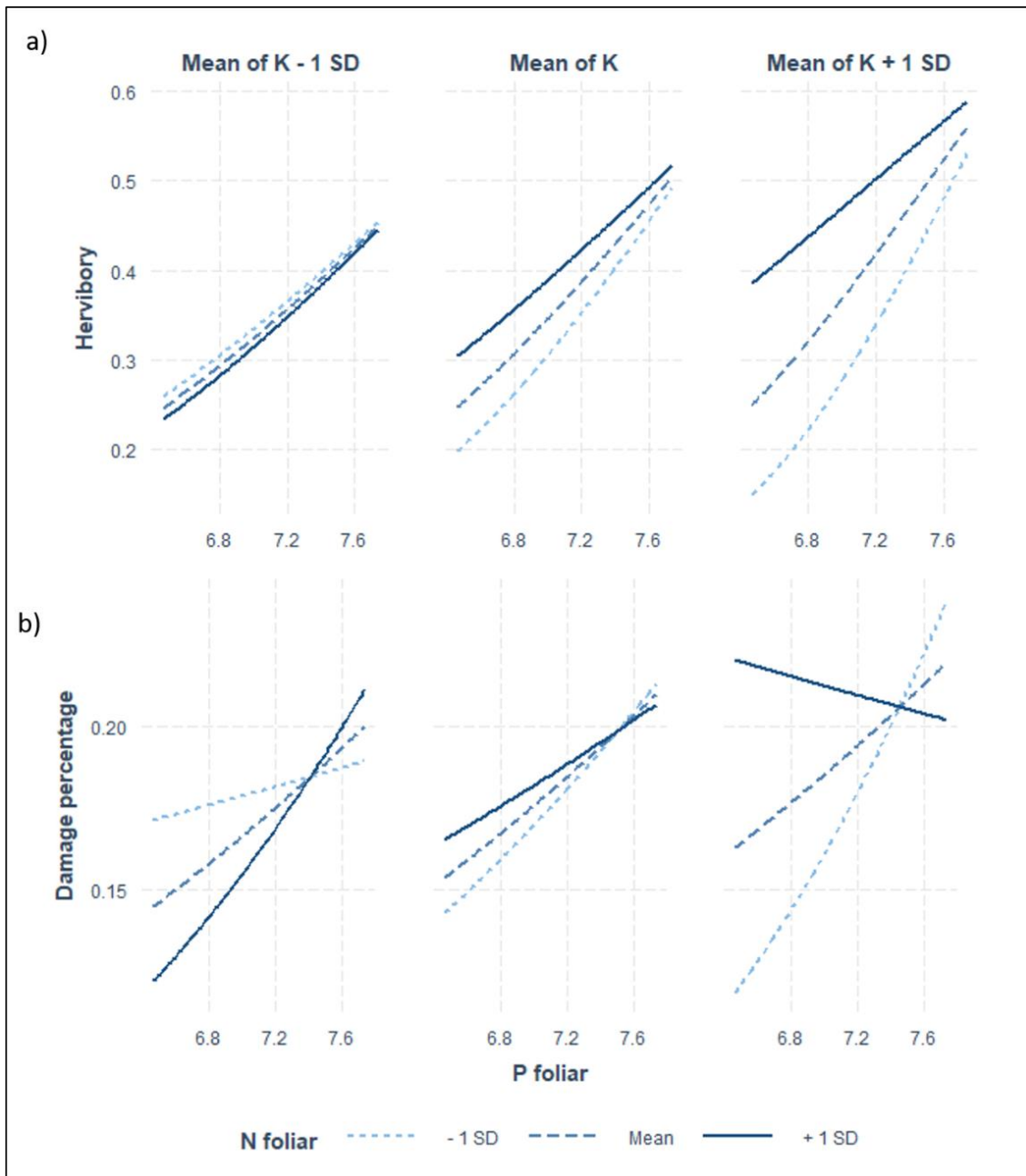
289

LEAF NUTRIENT CONTENT	HERBIVORY	FOLIAR DAMAGE PERCENTAGE
N	4.5557 *	10.793 **
P	4.8617 *	10.656 **
K	5.7832 *	10.786 **
N:P	3.9501 *	10.916 ***
N:K	4.8022 *	11.063 ***
P:K	5.2310 *	10.928 ***
N:P:K	4.1655 *	11.190 ***

290

291 Table 2. Analysis of deviance for the effects of leaf nutrient concentration (N, P and K) on their
 292 own and combined on herbivory and foliar damage percentage. Values reported are chisquare
 293 tests. Values in boldface indicate significant differences (***p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05).

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297 Figure 3. Plots regression lines to explore interactions between leaf nutrient content (N, P and K)
 298 on the herbivory (a) and foliar damage percentage (b) of *N. antarctica*. Note that for K and N
 299 variable show less content (-1 SD), medium content (mean) and high content (+1 SD). Herbivory
 300 and foliar damage percentage (axis Y) and nutrient P (axis X) are shown as a continuous variable.

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306 4. Discussion

307 Our long-term field experiment provides strong evidence of how changes in soil
308 nutrient availability produce effects that propagate through trophic levels and affects key
309 ecosystem functions, such as herbivory. In this study, we found that the addition of fertilizers to
310 forest soil increased the herbivory on *N. Antarctica*. We observed that the increases in
311 leaf nutrient concentrations were related to increases to the patterns of herbivory found
312 and that their combination in general showed a stronger response of herbivory. This
313 supports our initial hypothesis H1, as we expected to find a positive relationship
314 between foliar nutrient concentrations and herbivory. Contrary to the hypothesis H2, our
315 findings revealed a consistent positive correlation between foliar nutrient concentrations and
316 herbivory in the majority of cases, contradicting the expected negative relationship proposed
317 by the hypothesis. In turn, the foliar damage percentage increased with the increase in nutrient
318 concentration, except when the three nutrients were combined in high concentrations. This
319 result highlights the importance of soil nutrient availability in plant-herbivore interactions.
320 Among the various ways nutrients can affect herbivores, our study reveals that food quality
321 strongly influences their food consumption.

322 The addition of N to the soil modified the concentrations of N in the leaves increasing
323 their concentration. The foliar N content was related in different ways to herbivory, depending
324 on its interaction with other nutrients, but in general was positive relationship. In contrast, when
325 K levels were low, N reversed its effect and showed a negative relationship with herbivory,
326 leading to a reduction in herbivore activity. A previous study conducted on *Berberis*
327 *microphylla*, a native shrub of the same region and under the same fertilization experiment in
328 previous years, showed the reduced herbivory with N addition, yet this effect was diluted in
329 the presence of K (Pérez-Méndez et al., 2022). This indicates that both species behave
330 differently regarding the interaction between N and K. Leaf physiology or resource allocation
331 within the organism itself could explain the different responses of the two species to
332 fertilization (González-Paleo et al., 2019). Perennial leaf species, such as *B. microphylla*,
allocate more nitrogen to photosynthetic tissue and achieve higher overall nitrogen use
efficiency, while investing more in defences (Lundgren and Marais

333 2020). In contrast, deciduous species such as *N. antarctica*, could store nitrogen in other organs
334 (roots or stems). This stored nitrogen can then be utilized during the subsequent growth seasons
335 for the development of new leaves (Muhammad et al., 2020), making them more attractive
336 to herbivores. On the other hand, the addition of N to the soil can lead to a decrease in the
337 diversity of plant species and can subsequently impact in functional diversity of the
338 community of herbivorous consumers (Joseph et al., 1993). Consequently, this scenario may
339 contribute to the dominance of generalist herbivores, which can increase the consumption of
340 foliar matter (Joseph et al., 1993; Blubaugh et al., 2021). As we explained previously, we know
341 that *N. antarctica* is consumed by generalist herbivores which could be taking advantage of
342 these conditions to increase their population density and also their level of food consumption.
343 This mechanism could be occurring within *N. antarctica*, explaining the high herbivory found
344 in this study.

345 The addition of P to the soil influenced leaf P content, which in turn are positive correlated with
346 increases of herbivory. This may be due to the fact that many physiological processes, such as
347 proteins, DNA and RNA synthesis, depend on the corporal P content, which ultimately will
348 be determined by the composition of the food consumed by herbivores (Poorter et al., 2004;
349 Hrubá et al., 2022). Consequently, it is possible that an increase in P availability could lead to a
350 greater population growth rate or faster development, ultimately resulting in increased food
351 consumption (Schade et al., 2003). Our results are consistent with the findings of Schade and
352 collaborators (2003) who observed a positive relationship between leaf P content and
353 herbivory rates. These authors investigated the Growth Rate Hypothesis (GRH) (Elser et al.
354 1996), which suggests a positive link between soil P availability, plant tissue P content, and the
355 P and nucleic acid content of herbivores. According to hypothesis, insects growing under high P
356 availability conditions are expected to have higher P and RNA contents, as well as faster
357 growth rates. This mechanism could explain the increase in leaf consumption and the
358 frequency of herbivory observed in our experiment due to the presence of P. In general, we
359 observed a stronger increase in herbivory when N was combined with high levels of P. This
could be attributed to the potential of N to enhance the absorption of phosphorus by plant
roots (Grunes 1959), thereby intensify the impact

360 of both nutrients. As a result, the food may exhibit a higher content of both nutrients, potentially
361 offering better nutritional quality for herbivores and this increases food consume
362 producing population growth.

363 Our results showed that the addition of K to the soil resulted in an increase in leaf K
364 concentration and this is positively correlated with herbivory. Potassium plays an
365 important role in plant physiology, such as water osmoregulation and cell turgor (Wang and
366 Wu 2017; Kassen et al., 2022), which could affect the foliar water content and ultimately
367 determine leaf palatability (Poorter et al., 2004). For instance, Poorter (2004) found that foliar
368 traits, such as water content and leaf area, were associated with higher rates of herbivory. This
369 could partly explain our results, which show a positive correlation between the herbivory and
370 the presence of all three nutrients together. Specifically, the high concentration of K in leaves,
371 could enhance the effects of foliar nitrogen and phosphorus content, making the leaves more
372 palatable and attractive for insects. Despite the importance of plant nutrients for herbivores, K
373 has received little attention in previous research, and there are no studies that have explored
374 whether K and their interactions with others nutrients can affect herbivory. We believe that
375 our results provide valuable information, indicating that the addition of K to the soil
376 increased the herbivory on our focal species.

377 Conversely, when we observed the foliar damage percentage in the presence of all three
378 nutrients in high levels, the foliar damage decreased, despite a high frequency of consumed
379 leaves. This highlights the interactive role of the three nutrients, since their high concentrations
380 in combination determine some mechanism by which insects reduce leaf area
381 consumption. For example, secondary metabolites can function as toxins for consumers (van
382 Genderen et al., 1996), and these increase with N (Vogels et al., 2023) and K additions (Erb and
383 Kliebenstein 2020). The combined high levels of N, P, and K may lead to increased production
384 of toxins, which in turn can cause herbivorous insects to reduce their consumption of leaf
385 material. However, the frequency of herbivory was found to be greater in the presence of high
386 levels of all three nutrients, potentially due to the presence of more abundant populations of
generalist insects. Although the percentage of damage to each leaf may decrease, the overall
amount of leaves consumed remains high,

387 because the due to population growth. This implies that K likely plays a significant role
388 in influencing aspects of foliar chemistry or physical aspects that can impact herbivorous
389 feedings. Further research is needed to explore the mechanisms underlying the relationship
390 between K, leaf nutrient ratios and herbivory patterns.

391 Our long-term field experiment is the first to investigate the interactive effects of nutrients N, P,
392 and K on insect herbivory. We observed that an increase in the foliar concentrations of N, P and
393 K was associated with a corresponding increase in herbivory, except in levels lower of K. The
394 fertilizer interaction can have different implications for nutrient uptake by plants,
395 warranting further investigation in future studies. The importance of considering plant
396 functional traits (deciduous vs perennial species) is highlighted in order to potentially
397 forecast the response of forest species to nutrient fertilization and their interactions.

398

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Appendix A

Herbivory frequency	Estimate	Standar error	z	Pr(> z)
Intercept	365.932	157.864	2.318	0.0204 *
N	-526.458	246.653	-2.134	0.0328 *
P	-46.684	21.172	-2.205	0.0275 *
K	-44.637	18.561	-2.405	0.0162 *
N:P	65.504	32.958	1.988	0.0469 *
N:K	63.189	28.835	2.191	0.0284 *
P:K	5.694	2.489	2.287	0.0222 *
N:P:K	-7.863	3.852	-2.041	0.0413 *

Table A.1

Results of the GLMMs evaluating the relationship between herbivory frequency and addition individual fertilizer (N, P, K) and combinations. Values in boldface indicate significant statistical differences (***p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05)

Foliar damage percentage	Estimate	Standar error	z	Pr(> z)
Intercept	395.473	122.390	3.231	0.001232 **
N	-632.155	192.420	-3.285	0.001019 **
P	-53.667	16.440	-3.264	0.001097 **
K	-47.232	14.382	-3.284	0.001023 **
N:P	85.015	25.732	3.304	0.000954 ***
N:K	74.804	22.490	3.326	0.000881 ***
P:K	6.386	1.932	3.306	0.000947 ***
N:P:K	-10.059	3.007	-3.345	0.000822 ***

Table A.2

Results of the GLMMs evaluating the relationship between foliar damage percentage and addition individual fertilizer (N, P, K) and combinations. Values in boldface indicate significant statistical differences (***p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05)