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1           Effects of soil nutrient enrichment on trophic interactions between  
2           herbivorous insects and foliage spiders in Patagonian forests

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26 **Abstract**

27

28 The addition of nutrients to soil can induce changes through "bottom-up" effects in soil-plant-  
29 animal interactions, impacting higher levels in food chains. Changes in foliar nutrient content  
30 may influence diets of herbivorous insects, subsequently altering their feeding rates and  
31 abundance. Spiders established in foliage rely on these insects for sustenance; therefore,  
32 fluctuations in the abundance of herbivorous insect communities ultimately determine the  
33 population dynamics of their spider predators. We established a long-term field experiment to  
34 investigate the effects of nutrient addition of N (nitrogen), P (phosphorus), K (potassium) and  
35 their combinations on plant-arthropod interactions. We carried out sampling in 32 plots under  
36 different nutrient addition treatments, where we captured herbivorous insects and spiders on  
37 *Nothofagus antarctica* plants, the most abundant plant species in the Patagonian scrubland. Our  
38 results showed that foliar nutrient concentrations had cascading effects throughout the forest  
39 food chain. Herbivorous insects (Diptera, Coleoptera, Hemiptera and Lepidoptera orders)  
40 exhibited a positive response to the increased foliar phosphorus content, resulting in higher  
41 population densities. Additionally, we found a strong positive relationship between herbivorous  
42 insect abundance and spider abundance. Our findings indicate that variations in the availability  
43 of soil nutrients play a crucial role in defining the structure of predator-prey interactions in  
44 forest ecosystems.

45

46 **Key words**

47 Nitrogen; Phosphorous; Potassium; *Nothofagus antarctica*; arthropods.

48

49

50

## 51 **Introduction**

52 Nutrient enrichment of forest soils drive 'bottom-up' cascading effects that propagate  
53 throughout the trophic food web (Penuelas et al. 2020; Cuff et al. 2022; Zhu et al. 2023).  
54 Numerous studies have demonstrated that both plants (Garibaldi et al. 2010; Harpole et al. 2011;  
55 Hautier et al. 2020) and animals (Sperfeld et al. 2012; Kaspari and Powers 2016; Toft et al.  
56 2021) are often limited by multiple nutrients, including nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P) and  
57 potassium (K). However, responses can vary depending on ecological factors such as local  
58 biogeochemistry and species life history traits, making it difficult to forecast the effects of  
59 nutrient enrichment on plants and animals (Elser et al. 2000, 2007; Zhu et al. 2023). Arthropods  
60 are critical components of terrestrial ecosystems, as they support the life of many other animal  
61 groups (Rosenberg et al. 2023). As an extremely abundant group, changes in the composition of  
62 insect communities may directly impact the entire food chain that is supported by them (Senior  
63 et al. 2016; Timberlake et al. 2022). While several studies have linked nutrient supply to  
64 changes in arthropod abundance, biomass, and diversity, few have successfully identified the  
65 specific mechanisms or processes responsible for these community-level responses (Gruner and  
66 Taylor 2006; Poelman et al. 2008; Wimp et al. 2010; Rzanny et al. 2013; Nessel et al. 2023).  
67 Understanding how arthropod communities and predator-prey interactions respond to nutrient  
68 enrichment is crucial in the face of ongoing changes in land use, as these shifts can have  
69 profound impacts on biodiversity and ecosystem functioning (Cuff et al. 2022; Rosenberg et al.  
70 2023).

71 Herbivorous arthropods are strongly dependent on both the quantity and quality of foliar  
72 nutrient content to develop their life cycles, thus responding to alterations in nutrient  
73 stoichiometry (i.e., N, P, K) and other nutrient-related foliar traits (Elser et al. 2000, 2007;  
74 Fagan et al. 2002). Arthropods depend on N and P as vital nutrients for synthesizing proteins,  
75 nucleic acids and several biomolecules, which are essential for their growth, development, and  
76 reproductive processes (Elser et al. 2000). For instance, herbivorous insects may modulate their  
77 feeding behaviour by selectively consuming plant species or tissues with higher content of

78 limiting nutrients (Awmack and Leather 2002; Zhu et al. 2023). Therefore, plants with greater  
79 levels of limiting nutrients are expected to experience higher rates of herbivory (Garibaldi et al.  
80 2010; Martínez et al. 2024) and host more abundant populations of herbivores than individual  
81 plants with a poorer nutrient content (Haddad et al. 2000). Although the literature on this topic  
82 is growing, more experimental data is needed to understand how the abundance of herbivorous  
83 insects in nature is causally linked to changes in plant nutrient content and how the addition of  
84 nutrients to the soil may affect this process (Haddad et al. 2000; Zhu et al. 2023; Nessel et al.  
85 2023).

86         Predatory arthropods, such as spiders, are also impacted by the availability of food  
87 (Mayntz et al. 2005; Gruner and Taylor 2006; Michalko et al. 2019; Cuff et al. 2022). Several  
88 studies have found that the abundance and diversity of spiders can vary with the abundance of  
89 their prey (Horváth et al. 2005; Carvalho et al. 2015; Betz and Tschardtke 2017). This would  
90 indicate that individuals that have a more diverse diet and more abundant prey availability could  
91 have higher reproduction rates and therefore higher population densities (Uetz et al. 2002; Cuff  
92 et al. 2022). Furthermore, higher prey availability may reduce intraguild predation pressures and  
93 emigration, and therefore, their populations would remain constant or increasing (Vance-  
94 Chalcraft et al. 2007). Given that these predators feed on herbivores, changes in the abundance  
95 and quality of plant resources at lower trophic levels can propagate upwards, ultimately  
96 affecting the predators (Elser et al. 2000, 2007; Rzanny et al. 2013). In this way, disruptions of  
97 soil nutrient availability can trigger bottom-up effects across the entire food web, influencing  
98 diverse consumer levels (Elser et al. 2000; Zhu et al. 2023). Despite the importance of  
99 understanding how nutrient enrichment affects primary producers, primary consumers, and  
100 predators, in predicting potential effects on forest food web structure, there is currently very  
101 limited evidence available on this topic (Zhu et al. 2023; Nessel et al. 2023).

102         Here, we conducted a long-term field experiment involving the addition of multiple  
103 nutrients in a forest system in northern Patagonia, Argentina. By using a field-scale  
104 experimental study, we evaluated whether the addition of nutrients (i.e., N, P, K) to the soil

105 affects the abundance of herbivorous insects and, consequently, the abundance and family  
106 diversity of the foliage spider community. We hypothesize that the addition of fertilizers to the  
107 soil increases the concentration of nutrients in plant leaves, enhancing the nutritional quality of  
108 the available food for herbivorous insects. This improvement in resource quality is expected to  
109 translate into an increase in the abundance of different groups of herbivorous insects, which  
110 ultimately increases the abundance and diversity of foliage spiders, as they respond to the  
111 greater availability of prey. Previous research found that soil nutrient enrichment increases leaf  
112 nutrient content (Martínez et al. 2024), we therefore predict that: *i*) fertilized plots will have a  
113 greater abundance of herbivorous insects than control plots and *ii*) the greater abundance of  
114 herbivorous insects will lead to an increase in the total abundance and diversity of foliage  
115 spiders.

116

## 117 **Materials and Methods**

118

### 119 *Experimental site*

120 The study was conducted in El Foyel, Río Negro province, Argentina (41°38'37"S and  
121 71°26'54"W; Fig. 1). The experimental site is located within the framework of the project  
122 "CONCIENCIA" in a private area dedicated to the conservation of biodiversity, education, and  
123 the development of scientific projects (<https://www.proyectoconciencia.org/>). The region  
124 experiences a temperate-cold climate, with average annual temperatures ranging from 3°C in  
125 winter to 15°C in summer, and frequent frost events during the June to August period.  
126 Precipitation is concentrated predominantly in autumn and winter, with an annual average  
127 between 920 and 1300 mm (Reque et al. 2007). The study site lies at an elevation between 790  
128 and 880 m above sea level, and its soils are classified as Hapludands (Diehl et al. 2008),  
129 characterized by nutrient limitations, particularly in N and P (Perakis and Hedin 2002).

130 The experimental plots are situated in a field of native mixed scrubland, typical of the  
131 Andean-Patagonian region. The vegetation is primarily composed of shrubs and short-sized  
132 trees, including characteristic species such as *Schinus patagonicus* (Phil.) I.M. Johnst., *Discaria*  
133 *chacaye* (G. Don) Tortosa, *Berberis microphylla* a G. Forst, *Lomatia hirsuta* (Lam.) Diels,  
134 *Embothrium coccineum* J.R. Forst. and G. Forst., and *Dioatea juncea* a (Gillies and Hook. ex  
135 Hook.) Miers (Reque et al. 2007).

136 *Nothofagus antarctica* (G. Forst) was selected as the focal species for our study since it  
137 is the most dominant species of these scrublands. Furthermore, as a genus widely distributed  
138 throughout the Andean-Patagonian regions, it serves as a suitable model for investigating plant-  
139 animal interactions in this region (Peri et al. 2009). This deciduous tree exhibits a variable  
140 morphology, ranging from shrubs 2 to 4 meters in height to trees potentially reaching up to 15  
141 meters (Ramírez et al. 1985).

142

#### 143 *Experimental design*

144 The experimental design consists of 32 plots distributed across 4 complete randomized  
145 blocks, following a full factorial design. Each plot measures 31.5 x 45 m, and the treatments  
146 result from all possible combinations of N, P, and K. The initial fertilizations were carried out  
147 during the spring of 2016, 2017, and 2018. After a three-year interval, the final fertilization was  
148 applied in October 2021. The fertilizers were manually applied to the entire surface of each  
149 experimental plot, generating a total of 7 treatments (N, P, K, NP, NK, PK, NPK) and a control  
150 treatment (i.e., without fertilizer application), with each treatment replicated in each of the 4  
151 blocks (Fig. 1) (Pérez-Méndez et al. 2022; Martínez et al. 2024). The nutrient addition doses  
152 were calculated based on those used in other similar forest systems. The applied fertilizers were  
153 as follows: 100 kg/ha of extended-release urea for N (Lindberg and Persson 2004), 75 kg/ha of  
154 triple superphosphate for P, and 56 kg/ha of K sulfate for K (Kim 2008).

155

156 *Soil and leaf data collection*

157           In our previous study, we showed that soil nutrient additions increased foliar N, P and K  
158 levels in *N. antarctica* (Martínez et al. 2024) (Fig. S1). Here, and based on these findings, we  
159 investigated the potential impact of elevated foliar nutrients on the herbivorous insect  
160 community. Soil and leaf samples were collected in February 2022, coinciding with the same  
161 sampling season as the arthropod collection. In the soil samples, we measured nitrates (NO<sub>3</sub>)  
162 using the “Bremner method” (Bremner and Mulvaney 1982), available phosphorus using the  
163 “Bray-Kurtz method” (Bray and Kurtz 1945), and available potassium with the “Ammonium  
164 acetate method” (Novozamsky and Houba 1987). Leaf samples of *N. antarctica* were collected  
165 from eight individuals in each plot and combined into a single sample (1 g). We measured  
166 nitrogen using the “Kjeldahl method” (Kjeldahl 1883) and total phosphorus and total potassium  
167 using the “Sommer and Nelson method” (Nelson and Sommers 1973).

168

169 *Arthropod sampling*

170           The collection of foliage arthropods was conducted during February 2022 (fourth month  
171 after the last fertilization). We selected six *N. antarctica* individual trees per experimental plot  
172 and applied 10 strokes per tree with an entomological net over the canopy. During each sweep,  
173 we collected all the specimens that fell into the net and placed them in 100-ml jars containing  
174 70% alcohol for subsequent classification. During the sampling, the number of leaves on each  
175 sampled tree was visually estimated to determine the average biomass per plot. In the  
176 laboratory, the spiders were separated from the rest of the collected arthropods and identified,  
177 with individuals classified according to family, sex, life stage and hunting behaviour. For spiders  
178 we calculated abundance and Shannon diversity index for each plot. We used the Shannon  
179 diversity index because it combines the richness of families found with their relative abundance,  
180 providing a synthetic measure of diversity. For the collected insects, classification was

181 performed at the order level (i.e., Diptera, Hemiptera, Coleoptera, Hymenoptera and  
182 Lepidoptera). The individuals were counted to estimate total abundance for each insect order.

183

#### 184 *Statistical Analysis*

185 Statistical analyses were conducted in the R statistical software (Core, 2021). We  
186 constructed models using a generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) approach to assess the  
187 effects of foliar nutrient concentrations and their interactions on the abundance of herbivorous  
188 insects (Prediction *i*). Separate models were made for each of the insect orders (i.e., Diptera,  
189 Hemiptera, Coleoptera, Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera) and the response variable was their  
190 abundance in each plot, considering negative binomial error. The fixed factors included the  
191 concentrations of foliar nutrients (N, P and K) and their interactions, while the experimental  
192 block was incorporated as a random factor. The total abundance for each order of herbivorous  
193 insects was calculated as the sum of all individuals collected from the six trees sampled in each  
194 plot. To account for the influence of biomass (average of the total number of leaves of all the  
195 trees sampled per plot) on insect responses, it was included as a fixed factor in each model.

196 Additionally, we built another model in which we used the Shannon diversity of spiders  
197 as the response variable (with Gaussian error distribution) and the abundance of insects of each  
198 order for fixed factor, following the same approach as in the previous models. Shannon diversity  
199 index was calculated by the R Vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2019). In order to estimate  
200 possible direct effects that soil nutrient addition could have on the spider community, we built a  
201 GLMM to evaluate the interactive effects of adding N, P, and K to the soil on spider abundance.  
202 The response variable was the abundance of spiders on each plot, considering negative binomial  
203 error distribution. The addition of each nutrient with values of presence or absence were used as  
204 interacting fixed effects, and the blocks were included in the model as random factor. We used  
205 *glmmTMB* package for GLMMs models (Brooks et al. 2017) and *DHARMA* package (Hartig  
206 2020) to verify the assumptions of the models. We used Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRT) with the

207 Anova function in the *car* package (Fox and Weisberg 2018) to evaluate the significance of the  
208 variables.

209 Finally, to evaluate how spiders were affected by the abundance of their potential prey  
210 (Prediction *ii*) we conducted a structural equation model (SEM) in R-package *piecewise*  
211 (Lefcheck 2016). We applied a set of models in which the abundance of the insect orders  
212 (Diptera, Hemiptera, Coleoptera, Hymenoptera, and Lepidoptera) was used as the response  
213 variable. The predictor variables identified as significant in the previous GLMMs were  
214 incorporated as fixed factors in these models (foliar P content and biomass, see results). In all  
215 the component models, we included block as random variable, and used Poisson error  
216 distributions. The final SEM included sub models in which we evaluated the response of spider  
217 abundance in relation to insect orders and biomass. We evaluated the overall goodness of fit of  
218 the model using directed separation tests (Shipley 2000; Lefcheck 2016).

219

## 220 **Results**

221

### 222 *Effects of nutrient foliar on insects*

223 Using the entomological net on the tree foliage, a total of 1,709 insects that were  
224 potential spider prey was collected. The most abundant order was Diptera, representing 53% of  
225 the specimens, followed by Hemiptera (25%), Coleoptera (10%), Hymenoptera (8%) and  
226 Lepidoptera (4%) (Table S1). The models revealed that insect abundance was positively related  
227 to foliar P content for Diptera, Hemiptera, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera and to biomass for  
228 Hemiptera and Lepidoptera (Table 1, Fig. 2). We did not find significant differences for the  
229 Hymenoptera in relation to foliar P content (Table 1). On the other hand, no significant  
230 differences were found for the other nutrients and their combinations on insect abundance  
231 (Table 1).

232

233 *Effects of abundance of insect on spider diversity and abundance*

234 Overall, 3,518 spider individuals were collected, of which 3,477 were juveniles. Of the  
235 remaining 41 adults, 32 were females and 9 were males. The most abundant family was  
236 Anyphaenidae representing 78% of the collected individuals. The second most abundant family  
237 was Theridiidae with 13% followed by Araneidae with 4% (Table S2). The remaining families  
238 each accounted for less than 1% (Table S2). We did not find an effect of insect abundance on the  
239 diversity of spiders (Table 2; Table S3). Finally, the addition of nutrients (N, P, K and  
240 combinations) to the soil was not related to the abundance of spiders (Table 3).

241 The relationships between spider abundance and the predictors variables were  
242 adequately represented by the piecewise SEM (global goodness of fit: Fisher's C = 7.664, df =  
243 12, p = 0.811; tests of directed separation in Table S4). This causal model indicates that the  
244 effect of foliar nutrient content on spider abundance was indirect, through an effect on  
245 abundance of herbivorous insects (Fig. 3, Table S5). The relationship between foliar P content  
246 and orders of insects was positive from Coleoptera, Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera, in keeping  
247 with the result from GLMMs, (Fig. 3, Table S5). In turn, spider abundance was positively  
248 related to the orders Coleoptera, Hymenoptera, Hemiptera and Lepidoptera (Fig. 3, Table S5).  
249 Thus, the positive effect of foliar P content on herbivorous insects cascaded into an increased  
250 abundance of spiders. Notice also that an additional effect negative of biomass on the spider  
251 abundance and positive on order Hemiptera (Fig. 3, Table S5). All non-significant relationships  
252 are presented in Table S5 of the supplementary material.

253

254 **Discussion**

255

256 We found a strong relationship between the supply of limiting nutrients to the leaves and  
257 the change in the abundance of herbivorous insects and foliage spiders. Our long-term field  
258 experiment allowed us to test the central hypothesis of our research and partially corroborate our  
259 predictions. While we confirmed that increased foliar P levels lead to higher herbivore abundance  
260 on four insect orders (Diptera, Hemiptera, Coleoptera and Lepidoptera), supporting our first  
261 prediction, we found no effect of foliar nutrients on the order Hymenoptera. The second prediction  
262 was only partially upheld, as we found that spider abundance correlates positively with herbivore  
263 abundance, but no effect was detected on spider diversity. Likewise, we did not find evidence that  
264 soil nutrient addition had a direct impact on the spider community.

265 Populations of herbivorous insects exhibited higher densities in P-fertilized plots  
266 compared to non P-fertilized plots, suggesting that they are more limited by P than by other  
267 nutrients. This is interesting because this nutrient is not typically considered as limiting for insects  
268 like N, and there are few studies that have been conducted on this topic (Huberty and Denno 2006;  
269 Butler et al. 2012; Nessel et al. 2023). The P content in terrestrial insects is more variable than the  
270 N content, both in leaf-chewing species, such as lepidopteran larvae, and those that feed on  
271 phloem, such as aphids (Elser et al. 2000, 2007). Therefore, the variation in the nutritional content  
272 of the food may cause insects to consume more of the tissues with a higher P content (Elser et al.  
273 2000). Phosphorus is particularly important for animals since RNA and protein molecules are  
274 synthesized from it (Schade et al. 2003; Huberty and Denno 2006). Therefore, higher availability  
275 of this element in their food sources could lead to improved individual fitness and population  
276 growth (Schade et al. 2003), as we observed in our experiment. Fecundity, defined as the number  
277 of viable offspring produced, is directly affected by the quality of food consumed by females  
278 (Awmack and Leather 2002). For example, it has been studied that in lepidopterans (Stern and  
279 Smith 1960; Boggs and Ross 1993), coleoptera (Hopkins and Ekbom 1999) and aphids (Dixon et  
280 al. 1982) the quality of the host plant determines fecundity during the larval and adult stages  
281 (Awmack and Leather 2002). This could explain why we found a greater abundance of insect  
282 populations in plots with higher P levels. It is important to note that not all insects analysed are

283 herbivorous at some stage of their life. Many could be carnivorous or parasitic, which could distort  
284 our results. This is particularly true for Hymenoptera (mainly wasp species), which often act as  
285 predators or parasitoids and may not show a relationship with foliar nutrient levels (Huber 2017).  
286 However, they can be affected by other factors such as changes in plant species richness, plant  
287 productivity, plant composition, as well as the quality and quantity of resources such as nectar  
288 (Haddad et al. 2000).

289         Plots where P was combined with other nutrients did not show any effect on the herbivore  
290 abundance. This could be due to the fact that the positive effect of P was seen to be diminished  
291 by other nutrients (i.e. N and K). For example, the addition of nitrogen can increase plant  
292 defensive compounds against herbivorous insects while also reducing leaf digestibility, which  
293 may lead to a decline in populations feeding on these leaves in N-fertilized plots (Chen et al.  
294 2010). Moreover, N enrichment can result in smaller, high-density leaves that are less palatable  
295 to herbivorous insects, leading to a decrease in their populations (Stiling and Moon 2005). On the  
296 other hand, it has been observed that plants with higher potassium availability are less susceptible  
297 to herbivorous insect attacks and disease incidence (Wang et al. 2013). This could explain why,  
298 in plots with the addition of K and N, the positive effect of P in the populations of insects, they  
299 can be reduced.

300         Multiple studies in forests have shown that mature trees reaching the canopy support a  
301 greater richness of herbivorous insects compared to smaller trees (Basset et al. 2001; Neves et al.  
302 2014). In our study, we found that Hemiptera and Lepidoptera were the orders that were positively  
303 affected by biomass. This may be because bigger trees may offer greater availability of resources  
304 to herbivores (Stiling and Moon 2005; Neves et al. 2014). Furthermore, insect herbivores that live  
305 in larger host trees decrease their risk of being encountered by predators (Boege 2005; Rijhimäki  
306 et al. 2006). Additionally, different feeding guilds will respond differently to changes in the forest  
307 canopy structure (Vehviläinen et al. 2008; Sobek et al. 2009). We found that changes in biomass  
308 also affected certain herbivorous insect orders, including sap-feeders and chewers, consistent with  
309 Neves et al. (2014), who observed increased abundance of these groups with larger tree canopies.

310 Spider abundance was positively associated with the abundance of four orders of  
311 herbivorous insects, although we did not find an effect on spider diversity. Most of spiders  
312 captured in our experiments were generalist predators, which feed mainly on insects such as  
313 dipterans, coleopterans, hemipterans and hymenopterans (Michalko and Pekár 2019), as well as  
314 other spiders (Pekár et al. 2012). This is congruent with the strong positive relationship that we  
315 found among spider abundance and the abundance of the above-mentioned groups of insects.  
316 Additionally, we observed a negative relationship between biomass and total spider abundance,  
317 which we interpret as a dilution effect resulting from the increased amount of foliage. This  
318 could be attributed to a sampling effect, for instance, in canopies with a greater quantity of  
319 leaves, spiders were more difficult to capture using an entomological net.

320 Only Diptera did not affect spider abundance, which could be attributed to several  
321 factors. Generalist predators, such as most of the captured spiders, can adjust their prey  
322 consumption based on the nutritional quality, relative availability of the prey, size and mobility  
323 (Mayntz et al. 2005; Schmidt et al. 2012; Cuff et al. 2024). Spiders have been shown to be  
324 highly selective regarding their food sources and to make precise decisions about their prey  
325 choices. Some studies indicate that the availability of prey does not always correlate positively  
326 with the selection of those prey by predators (Schmidt et al. 2012). In scenarios with multi-  
327 taxon prey abundance, like our P-fertilized plots, spiders may have a wider variety of prey and  
328 choose those that are nutritionally superior (Cuff et al. 2024). This could explain why Diptera  
329 were not selected as prey by spiders and why no relationship was found between their  
330 abundances. On the other hand, hunting spider species, such as Anyphaenidae spiders  
331 (representing more than 70% of our samples) are typically more effective at capturing sedentary  
332 prey (Kuusk and Ekbohm 2012; Sweeney et al. 2013), which could explain the avoidance of  
333 dipterans by predators, as they are highly mobile and difficult to capture.

334 Although predators are expected to act as insect controllers, which would mean that a  
335 greater number of predators (spiders), would produce a decrease in insects, we found a positive  
336 relationship between both groups. This may be because, at the time of sampling, most of the

337 spiders captured were juveniles, indicating that the feeding peak was just beginning. If sampling  
338 had been done later, the number of insect individuals might have started to decrease due to the  
339 predator pressure exerted by spiders.

340           Through the analysis of the direct effects of adding N, P and K to the soil on spider  
341 abundance, we were able to rule out the influence of other mechanisms on the spider community  
342 in our experiment. This finding contrasts with a meta-analysis by Nessel et al. (2023), which  
343 reported a decrease in arachnid abundance following the addition of N and the combination of N  
344 and P. Therefore, this effect may be attributed to multiple factors and may not be related to foliar  
345 nutrient content. It is known that nutrient addition can affect predators through various  
346 mechanisms, such as increasing plant biomass, which in turn is positively correlated with the  
347 biomass of herbivores and predators (Kempel et al. 2023). In contrast, other studies have found  
348 that increased productivity and improved nutrition of host plants lead to higher densities of  
349 herbivorous insects, which in turn enhances the abundance of their predators (Hartvigsen et al.  
350 1995; Fraser and Grime 1998; Polis et al. 1998; Forkner and Hunter 2000). For example, Denno  
351 et al. (2002) found in a laboratory experiment that increasing the N content of plants resulted in  
352 increased reproduction of spiders, associated with increased populations of their prey. These  
353 results support instead the mechanism proposed by our hypothesis. Here, we show that the  
354 abundance of prey insects is influenced by nutrient additions (particularly P), and this has a  
355 direct relationship with spider abundance, thereby revealing a strong bottom-up effect.

356           We were able to determine that prey availability is a factor that influences spider  
357 abundance but does not affect spider diversity. We did not find significant results for spider  
358 family diversity; which could be due to the fact that we obtained very few representatives from  
359 spider families other than juvenile of Anyphaenidae. Also, the Anyphaenidae family was  
360 dominant in all treatments, representing more than 70% of the spiders found in all plots.  
361 Working at the family level rather than the species level may have limited our ability to detect  
362 changes in the diversity index. This limitation was due to the impossibility of determining the  
363 juvenile spiders at the species level. Therefore, we propose conducting more exhaustive

364 sampling using methods that capture a greater number of spider families to obtain a more  
365 comprehensive diversity index in future studies. Additionally, sampling should be repeated at  
366 various stages of the spiders' life cycle to capture a greater number of adult individuals, thereby  
367 enhancing the specificity of species identification. Although our study is limited to a single,  
368 temporary sampling event, we believe that the data collected are representative of the arthropod  
369 community. This is supported by the fact that the sampling was conducted during the summer  
370 months, which correspond to the peak period of arthropod activity in our study system.

371           Our study represents a first step towards understanding how food webs function in  
372 forest ecosystems through soil management induced changes. These findings are valuable for  
373 predicting future changes in arthropods population dynamics and interactions under the  
374 pressures of anthropogenic global change, such as soil nutrient enrichment. Overall, our  
375 findings have important implications for the management plans for native mixed scrublands in  
376 Patagonian forest.

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388 **Declarations**

389

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399

400 **Conflicts of interest**

401 The authors declare there are no conflicts of interest.

402

403 **Ethics approval**

404 (Not applicable)

405

406 **Consent to participate**

407 (Not applicable)

408

409 **Consent for publication**

410 (Not applicable)

411 **Availability of data and material**

412 Data generated or analyzed during this study are available from the corresponding author upon  
413 reasonable request.

414

415 **Code availability** (Not applicable)

416

417 **Authors' contributions**

418 All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection  
419 and analysis were performed by Lucía C. Martínez, Justina Panchuk, Joana P. Haedo, Néstor  
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423

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639 **Table 1.** Results of GLMMs evaluating the relationship between insect orders (Diptera,  
640 Hemiptera, Coleoptera, Hymenoptera, and Lepidoptera), foliar nutrient content (N, P, K, and their  
641 combinations) and biomass. For each variable that appear in the models, the estimate, standar  
642 error (SE), value Z and p-value are shown. Variance and standard deviation (Std. Dev) belong to  
643 the random effects (block). The table also includes the analysis of deviance for the models,  
644 reporting chi-square test statistics (Chisq) and degrees of freedom (Df). Significant differences  
645 are highlighted in bold (\*\*p < 0.001; \*p < 0.01; p < 0.05).

646

<b>Order Diptera</b>								
<b>Foliar nutrient content</b>	Estimate	SE	z	Pr(> z )	Variance (block)	Std.Dev (block)	Chisq	Df
<b>Intercept</b>	1.6e+00	1.2e+00	1.33	0.18	3.9e-10	1.9e-05	1.79	1
N	1.0e-02	1.2e-01	0.08	0.93			0.00	1
<b>P</b>	4.3e-01	1.4e-01	3.13	<b>0.001</b>			<b>9.80***</b>	1
<b>K</b>	1.3e-01	1.3e-01	1.03	0.30			1.06	1
<b>N:P</b>	5.8e-05	1.4e-01	0.00	0.99			0.00	1
<b>N:K</b>	2.1e-01	1.3e-01	1.60	0.10			2.58	1
<b>P:K</b>	-2.3e-01	1.3e-01	-1.83	0.06			3.37	1
<b>N:P:K</b>	-2.1e-01	1.3e-01	-1.59	0.11			2.54	1
<b>Biomass</b>	2.0e-01	1.7e-01	1.15	0.24			1.33	1
<b>Order Hemiptera</b>								
<b>Intercept</b>	-0.18	1.18	-0.15	0.87	4.8e-10	2.2e-05	0.02	1
N	0.00	0.11	0.02	0.97			0.00	1
<b>P</b>	0.31	0.12	2.61	<b>0.008</b>			<b>6.83**</b>	1
<b>K</b>	-0.14	0.13	-1.08	0.27			1.17	1
<b>N:P</b>	-0.12	0.13	-0.95	0.33			0.91	1
<b>N:K</b>	0.08	0.13	0.63	0.52			0.40	1
<b>P:K</b>	0.08	0.12	0.68	0.49			0.46	1
<b>N:P:K</b>	-0.09	0.12	-0.74	0.45			0.55	1
<b>Biomass</b>	0.37	0.16	2.28	<b>0.02</b>			<b>5.22*</b>	1
<b>Order Coleoptera</b>								
<b>Intercept</b>	0.14	1.39	0.10	0.91	7.7e-10	2.7e-05	0.01	1
N	0.02	0.15	0.16	0.87			0.02	1
<b>P</b>	0.52	0.14	3.71	<b>0.0002</b>			<b>13.8***</b>	1
<b>K</b>	0.01	0.16	0.06	0.94			0.00	1
<b>N:P</b>	-0.15	0.18	-0.87	0.38			0.76	1
<b>N:K</b>	0.13	0.16	0.83	0.40			0.69	1
<b>P:K</b>	0.21	0.14	1.49	0.13			2.22	1
<b>N:P:K</b>	-0.26	0.15	-1.66	0.09			2.77	1
<b>Biomass</b>	0.20	0.14	1.03	0.30			1.06	1

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**Order Hymenoptera**

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<b>Intercept</b>	3.12	1.52	2.04	<b>0.0</b>	0.34	0.58	<b>4.18*</b>	1
<b>N</b>	0.05	0.14	0.36	0.71			0.13	1
<b>P</b>	-0.10	0.23	-0.43	0.66			0.13	1
<b>K</b>	-0.08	0.16	-0.50	0.61			0.25	1
<b>N:P</b>	0.009	0.16	0.05	0.95			0.003	1
<b>N:K</b>	-0.15	0.16	-0.91	0.35			0.84	1
<b>P:K</b>	0.06	0.13	0.44	0.65			0.20	1
<b>N:P:K</b>	-0.02	0.15	-0.18	0.85			0.03	1
<b>Biomass</b>	-0.24	0.21	-1.13	0.25			1.29	1

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**Order Lepidoptera**

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<b>Intercept</b>	-2.46	1.45	-1.69	0.08	8.1e-07	0.0009	2.88	1
<b>N</b>	-0.18	0.15	-1.17	0.24			1.38	1
<b>P</b>	0.36	0.16	2.27	<b>0.02</b>			<b>5.18*</b>	1
<b>K</b>	0.15	0.15	0.96	0.33			0.93	1
<b>N:P</b>	-0.08	0.20	-0.43	0.66			0.19	1
<b>N:K</b>	0.19	0.17	1.12	0.25			1.27	1
<b>P:K</b>	0.08	0.14	0.54	0.58			0.29	1
<b>N:P:K</b>	-0.11	0.16	0.54	0.49			0.46	1
<b>Biomass</b>	0.42	0.20	2.11	<b>0.03</b>			<b>4.46*</b>	1

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661 **Table 2.** Results of GLMMs assessing the relationship between spider diversity and insect orders  
662 (Diptera, Hemiptera, Coleoptera, Hymenoptera, and Lepidoptera). For each variable that appear  
663 in the models, the estimate, standar error (SE), value Z and p-value are shown. Variance and  
664 standard deviation (Std. Dev) belong to the random effects (block). The table also includes the  
665 analysis of deviance for the models, reporting chi-square test statistics (Chisq) and degrees of  
666 freedom (Df). Significant differences are highlighted in bold (\*\*p < 0.001; \*p < 0.01; p < 0.05).

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Orders of insects		Estimate	SE	z	Pr(> z )	Variance (block)	Std.Dev (block)	Chisq	Df
<b>Diptera</b>	diversity	0.002	0.002	1.032	0.302			1.065	1
	intercept	0.932	0.090	10.256	<b>2e-16</b>	0.011	0.105		
<b>Hemiptera</b>	diversity	-0.005	0.006	-0.960	0.337			0.921	1
	intercept	1.068	0.124	8.614	<b>2e-16</b>	0.027	0.164		
<b>Coleoptera</b>	diversity	0.007	0.015	0.455	0.649			0.207	1
	intercept	0.954	0.110	8.610	<b>2e-16</b>	0.013	0.117		
<b>Hymenoptera</b>	diversity	0.0009	0.016	0.062	0.951			0.003	1
	intercept	0.986	0.106	9.309	<b>2e-16</b>	0.019	0.139		
<b>Lepidoptera</b>	diversity	0.010	0.037	0.293	0.769			0.086	1
	intercept	0.968	0.111	8.680	<b>2e-16</b>	0.017	0.131		

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678 **Table 3.** Results of the GLMM for the effects the relationship between nutrient added to soil (N,  
679 P and K) and their combinations on abundance of spiders. The estimate, standar error (SE), value  
680 Z and p-value are shown. Variance and standard deviation (Std. Dev) belong to the random effects  
681 (block). The table also includes the analysis of deviance for the models, reporting chi-square test  
682 statistics (Chisq) and degrees of freedom (Df). Significant differences are highlighted in bold  
683 (\*\*p < 0.001; \*p < 0.01; p < 0.05).

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<b>Abundance of spiders</b>								
<b>Soil nutrient added</b>	Estimate	SE	z	Pr(> z )	Variance (block)	Std.Dev (block)	Chisq	Df
<b>Intercept</b>	4.89	0.22	21.46	<b>2e-16</b>	0.09	0.31	<b>460.85***</b>	1
<b>N</b>	-0.32	0.24	-1.30	0.19			1.69	1
<b>P</b>	-0.26	0.24	-1.08	0.27			1.16	1
<b>K</b>	-0.45	0.25	-1.78	0.07			3.17	1
<b>N:P</b>	0.20	0.36	0.56	0.57			0.31	1
<b>N:K</b>	0.19	0.38	0.50	0.61			0.25	1
<b>P:K</b>	0.69	0.35	1.94	0.05			3.79	1
<b>N:P:K</b>	-0.08	0.51	-0.17	0.86			0.02	1

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696 **Figure captions**

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698 Figure 1. Study site and experimental design. (a) El Foyel, Río Negro, Argentina. (b)  
699 Experimental design with 32 plots distributed across four blocks. Each plot contains a nutrient  
700 addition treatment (N, P, K, NP, NK, PK and NPK) and a control (Co). (c) Photograph of the  
701 study site in the Patagonian forest.

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703 Figure 2. Relationship between the abundance of herbivorous insects (Diptera, Hemiptera,  
704 Coleoptera and Lepidoptera) and foliar phosphorus content (P). The points represent the total  
705 number of individuals found for each order across the experimental plots. The p-value of the  
706 GLMM is shown for each order.

707

708 Figure 3. Structural equation model (SEM) testing the direct and indirect effects of orders of  
709 insects (Diptera, Hemiptera, Coleoptera, Hymenoptera and Lepidoptera) on abundance of  
710 spiders and biomass. Boxes represent measured variables. Continuous arrows show significant  
711 ( $p < 0.05$ ) unidirectional relationships among variables, whereas dashed arrows show not  
712 significant correlated, being positives marked in black and negatives in red.

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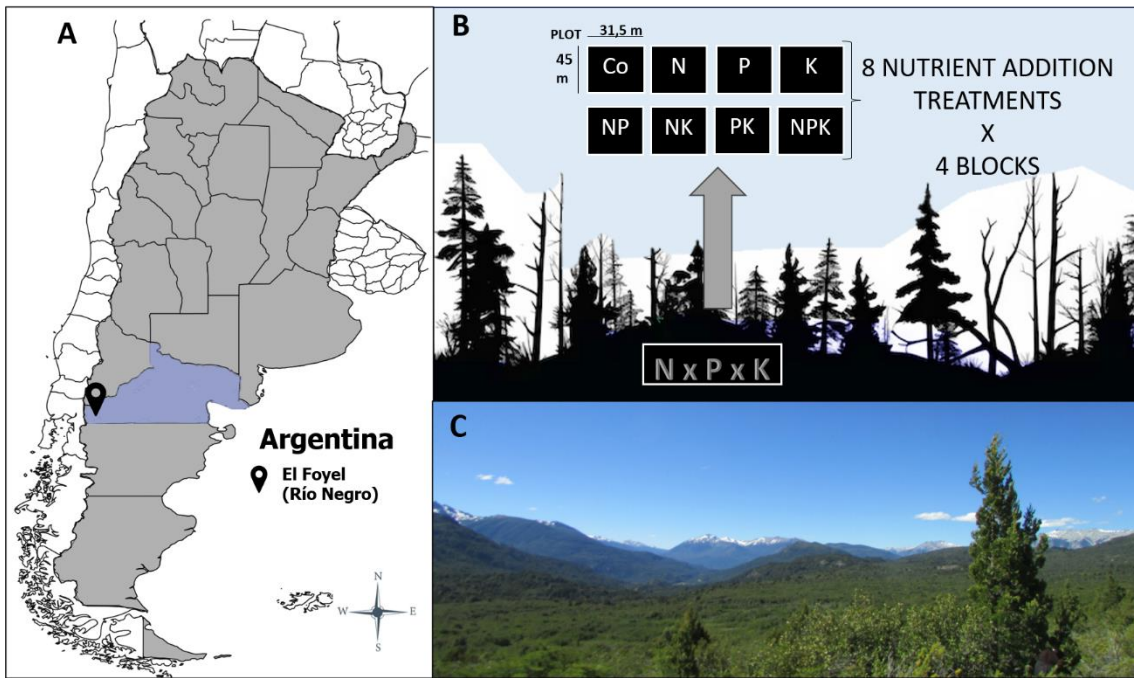
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720 Figures

721 Figure 1



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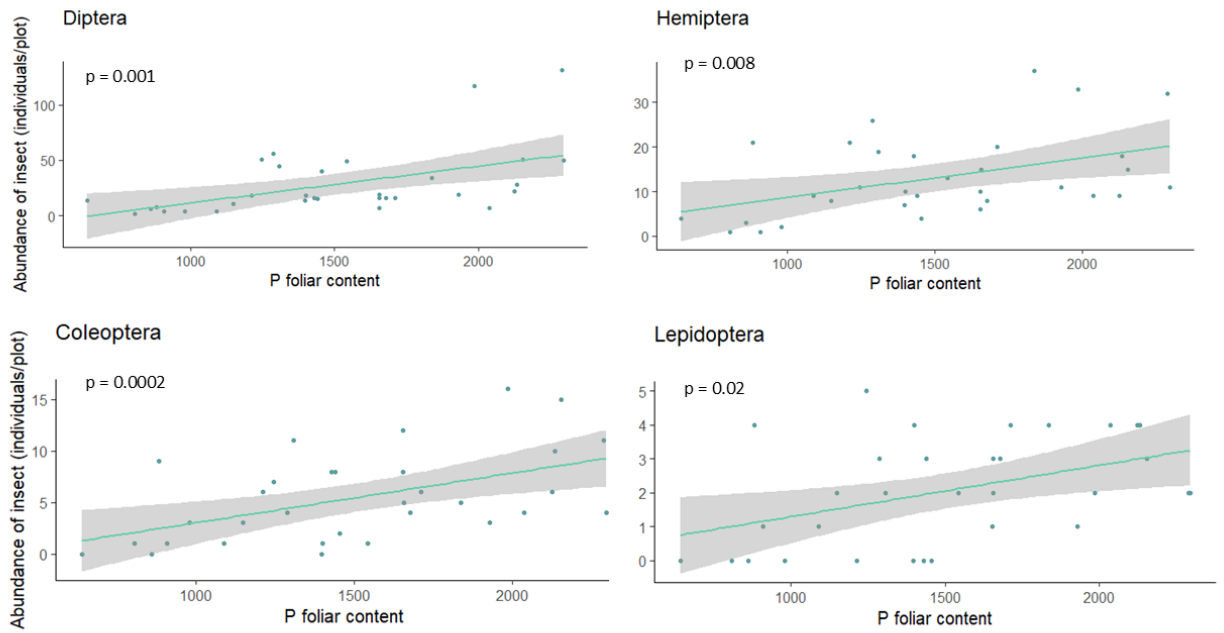
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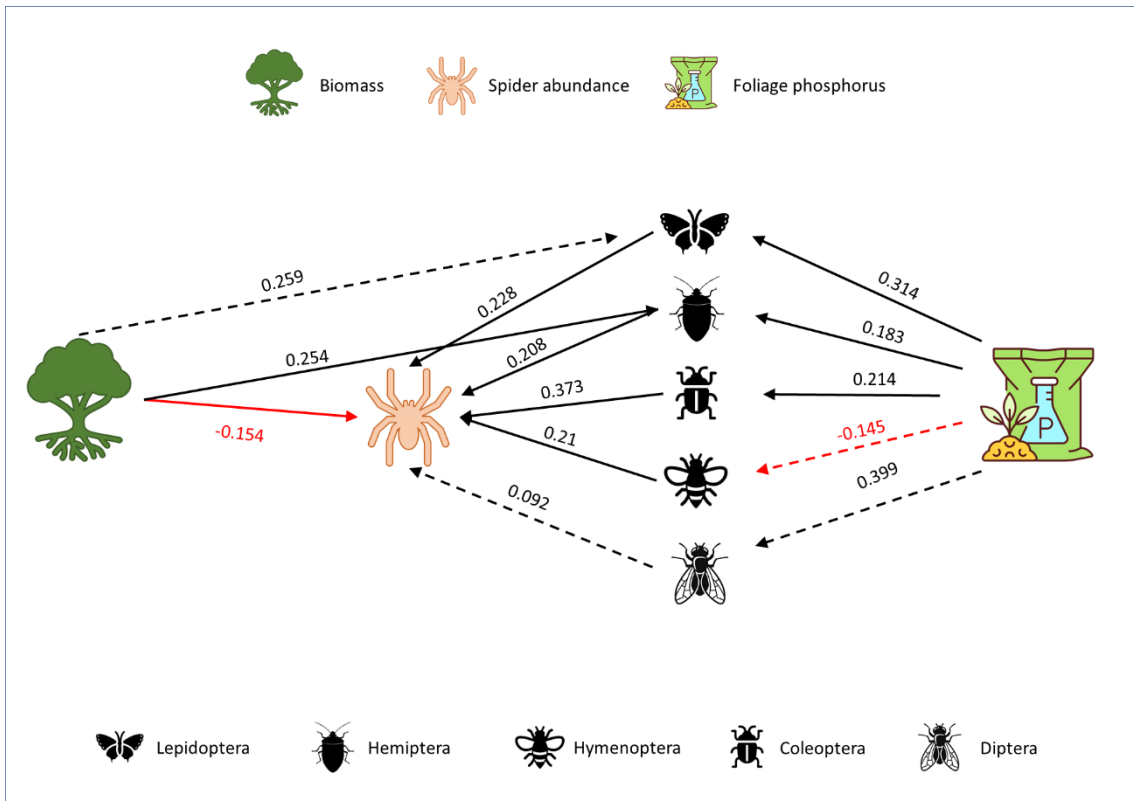
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