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1	The Missing Angle: Ecosystem Consequences of Phenological Mismatch
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20 Climate change leads to unequal shifts in the phenology of interacting species, such as consumers and their resources, leading to potential phenological mismatches. While studies 21 have investigated how phenological mismatch affects wild populations, we still lack studies 22 and a framework for investigating how phenological mismatch affects ecosystems, 23 particularly nutrient cycling. 24 25 **Climate Change, Phenological Mismatch and Nutrient Cycling** 26 Shifts in the seasonal timing of recurring biological events (i.e., phenology) are among the 27 28 most notable ecological responses to climate changes. In general, spring phenological events, such as reproduction and migration, are occurring earlier [1]. However, among-species 29 30 variation in response to climate change has fueled concern that key interactions between 31 species are becoming mismatched over time, with documented consequences for wild populations [1, 2]. 32

However, phenological mismatch is not developing in all situations and recent syntheses 33 provide a framework for understanding when they are most likely to occur [e.g., 2]. For example, 34 lower trophic levels and smaller-bodied organisms are more likely to keep up with changing 35 36 climates. Further, species in mutualistic relationships (i.e., plant-pollinators) appear more synchronized [3]. In contrast, antagonistic interactions (i.e., consumer-resource) appear most 37 likely to realize diverging phenologies [3]. Plus, we are beginning to appreciate how two-species 38 39 temporal disruptions can be felt beyond their direct interactions, and across communities and landscapes [4]. 40

In fact, there have been numerous assertions that phenological mismatches may have
ecosystem consequences [1, 2, 4], yet virtually no studies focus on these consequences. Here, we

highlight the importance of broadening the scope of phenological mismatch studies to include
ecosystems and improve our understanding of global change impacts in terrestrial environments.
While there are many ways to measure ecosystem responses to phenological mismatch, here we
focus on a supporting service, and more specifically, the impacts of carbon (C) and nitrogen (N)
cycling because of its importance in ecosystem productivity and climate feedbacks.

48

49 A Case Study: Sedge-Goose Mismatch

We conducted what we believe to be the only experiment designed to investigate how 50 51 phenological changes influence ecosystem functioning, namely C and N cycling. The experiment focused on a developing mismatch between a sedge (*Carex subspathacea*) and Pacific black 52 brant (Branta bernicla nigricans) in Alaska, USA. We found that even though migratory geese 53 54 are arriving earlier each year (a change beneficial to their populations) this change has adverse effects on primary producers and the ecosystem (Figure 1A). Earlier goose arrival reduces plant 55 biomass, sexual reproduction, and possibly genetic diversity. This, in turn, increases soil N 56 availability and potential leaching, and shifts the system from being a summer-season C sink to a 57 58 C source [5-7]. However, if geese are delayed, and the growing season comes earlier, we see the 59 opposite responses (Figure 1B). This contrast illustrates how a simple change in the timing of herbivory, a trophic relationship typically focused on the impact to consumers, can have 60 cascading ecosystem consequences and even climate feedbacks. 61

It was possible to conduct this experiment and have it produce meaningful predictions for the effects of phenological mismatch on nutrient cycling because: 1) we had long-term datasets on the phenology of both species, 2) the phenologies of both species are influenced by climate change; 3) the species have a strong interaction; and 4) both species alter resource pools, so their

asynchrony was bound to alter ecosystem functions, like C uptake and N cycling. Over the three 66 years we conducted this experiment, some variables changed the direction of their response to 67 the timing of these species suggesting that combining experiments with long-term datasets is 68 critical [7]. 69 70 71 **Some Hypothetical Examples** Here we provide other examples of potentially developing mismatches to illustrate how 72 they may influence nutrient cycling at least over the short-term (Figure 2). 73 74 Example #A - Vegetation-caribou mismatch 75 Migratory caribou (Rangifer tarandus) arriving late to breeding areas in Greenland experience 76 77 lower forage quality [8], but this mismatch may also have other ecosystem consequences. If caribou are delayed, longer periods of growth may result in greater plant biomass and stronger 78 79 vegetation sinks for C and N. 80 **Example #B – Caterpillar-bird mismatch** 81 If Great tit (*Parus major*) migration to breeding grounds in western Europe does not match peak 82 caterpillar biomass, it may be more than the chicks that are affected [9]. Increased caterpillar 83 abundance early season could result in greater oak (Quercus robur) herbivory and decreased 84

85 aboveground leaf biomass reducing the C and N sink strength of these trees.

86

87 Example #C – Salmon-grizzly mismatch

88	In Alaska, earlier emergence of elderberries (Sambucus racemosa) is causing grizzly bears
89	(Ursus arctos middendorffi) to switch food sources away from salmon (Oncorhynchus nerka)
90	early in the summer [10]. Delayed bear consumption of salmon could reduce available C and N
91	in riparian and forest ecosystems, where carcasses are an important source of nutrients.
92	
93	Example #D – Plant-pollinator mismatch
94	An important ecosystem service that phenological mismatch may affect is pollination of fruit-
95	producing trees [11]. If apple trees, for example, are not pollinated then the C a tree would
96	dedicate to fruit may be shunted to growth and storage making the plant a greater C sink.
97	
98	Incorporating Ecosystem Consequences
99	Hypotheses like these could be developed and tested for other phenological asynchronies.
100	Here we propose a framework for studying ecosystem responses to phenological mismatches.
101	(1) Focus the research on systems where long-term phenological data exists and thus changes
102	over decades, perhaps even longer, can be modelled and investigated.
103	(2) Identify species with a degree of seasonality influenced by climate change.
104	(3) Investigate ecosystems where the interactions of the study species (ideally only a few) are
105	primary drivers of ecosystem functioning. While any interaction may have a measurable
106	effect on some ecosystem function, such a focus will ensure that the results are relevant
107	and will address the difficulty of including additional study species (although this will be
108	required in some systems).
109	(4) Design experiments that manipulate the timing of at least two species in different trophic
110	levels in ways that represent current and potential future conditions. Experimental studies

111 may, by necessity, focus on short-term responses. If possible, the experiment should be 112 conducted over multiple years with the phenological shifts in the same direction to 113 determine the ecosystem response of interest in the longer term.

- 114 (5) Measure and model the ecosystem response of interest under both current conditions and
- 115 future climate scenarios. Ecosystem measurements, such as CO₂ trace gas exchanges or
- 116 forage nutrition, should not be any more difficult to measure in phenological mismatch
- 117 studies than in any other study measuring ecosystem responses.

118 (6) Combine experimental and modeling approaches where possible to address the

- 119 limitations of both methods.
- 120

121 Future directions

122 Phenological mismatch studies should no longer ignore ecosystem responses. Long-term 123 datasets showing phenological change, particularly of more than one trophic level, are key to 124 designing and conducting future studies investigating these responses. Long-term phenology data 125 are being extracted from herbarium specimens and collected by organizations, including USA-126 NPN (National Phenology Network) and NEON (National Ecological Observatory Network) in 127 the USA, and globally by ILTER (International Long Term Ecological Research Network) and 128 eBird, but multi-trophic level studies may require combining datasets in creative ways. It is 129 critical that phenological data collection continues for decades to inform realistic experiments. 130 A recent study showed that changing phenology between overstory and understory 131 vegetation in Thoreau's Woods in Massachusetts, USA, influenced C budgeting, and provides an example of how long-term datasets can be used to make these types of projections [12]. Here we 132 133 focus on how phenological mismatch influences ecosystem functioning, namely nutrient cycling,

134 but future studies could focus on the effects to ecosystem services that more directly link to

135 humans, such a food provisioning or flood regulation.

136

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- 144

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170 Figure Legends

Figure 1: Ecosystem consequences of mismatch between Pacific black brant and their dominant 171 forage (Yukon-Kuskokwim Delta, Alaska, USA). We measured ecosystem responses to 172 173 manipulated changes in the timing of both the growing season and arrival (grazing) by migratory geese. We compared both "current" and "future" climate scenarios to historical baseline 174 175 conditions. (A) To reflect changes already underway, the "current" scenario represents a natural springtime start date and an earlier than historical goose arrival time, which has occurred 176 frequently in the past decade [5]. (B) The "future" scenario includes an earlier springtime start 177 178 date and a later than historical goose arrival time. This treatment was selected because we expect 179 both spring to advance and geese to arrive later in the coming decades as environmental cues for 180 migration from the wintering grounds diverge from those at the breeding grounds. In the current 181 scenario, there is less above- and belowground biomass, higher quality goose forage, greater soil available N, and greater CO₂e (CO₂ equivalent greenhouse gas emissions). In the future, we 182 expect an increase in above- and belowground biomass, a reduction in forage quality, less soil 183 184 available N, and greater CO_{2e} uptake even as CH₄ emissions increase [5-7]. While late goose 185 arrival is worse for geese in terms of forage quality, it will result in greater C sequestration and 186 lower greenhouse gas emissions.

187

Figure 2: Examples of hypothetical ecosystem responses to phenological mismatches, focusing on consequences for plant biomass and forage quality, carbon (C) source and sink strength, and nitrogen (N) uptake and cycling. In (A), delayed herbivory increases the C sink strength in vegetation, which increases N demand by plants. Delayed herbivory also means longer periods without N returned to soils as feces, slowing N-cycling, and potentially limiting N availability. 193 When caribou arrive, they find leaf tissue of lower quality because the tissue is older and the N 194 pool is diluted across more biomass. (B) mirrors (A), but at a higher trophic level. Here, lack of insectivorous birds increases herbivory, reduces C sink strength in the plant, and increases N 195 196 availability in the soil. In (C) grizzly bears switch food sources in response to earlier phenology 197 of fruits. This reduces the transport and consumption of salmon, and plants lose a critical nutrient 198 resource reducing C sink strength, lowering forage quality, reducing soil microbe C, and slowing 199 N cycling. In (D) lack of pollination due to mismatch reduces fruit set. The lack of fruit shifts the C pool in the ecosystem away from labile fruits and towards recalcitrant roots and shoots, and 200 201 the increased fine root growth and rhizodeposition may result in greater soil respiration. Blue = C sink and sources, green = vegetation variables, orange = soil N, veg bio = aboveground plant 202 biomass. +/-/? = hypothesized direction of relationships. 203



