1 Not only mosses – lemming winter diets as described by DNA metabarcoding

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17 Abstract

The temporal dynamics of most tundra food webs are shaped by the cyclic population 18 dynamics of lemmings. While processes during winter may be behind the recent disruptions 19 20 of lemming cycles, lemming winter ecology is poorly known. We present here the first DNA 21 metabarcoding data on the winter diet of Norwegian lemmings (Lemmus lemmus), based on 22 feces collected after a winter of population increase. Prostrate willows, mosses, and 23 graminoids dominated the species winter diet, indicating that the conventional idea of 24 lemmings as moss-specialists should be revised. The behavior of lemming-plant models in 25 theoretical studies is conditional on the assumptions of mosses being their main winter food item. As shrubs have been excluded from the framework of these models, incorporating 26 27 them in future modeling studies should nuance our understanding on how plants affect 28 lemmings. We also sampled diet of a few individuals found dead on top of the snow. These individuals had relatively empty stomachs and had, prior to death, relied heavily on mosses. 29 This apparent lack of abundant good quality indicates spatial heterogeneity in local food 30 availability during the population increase phase. 31

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33 Key words: Arctic, bryophyte, *Lemmus lemmus*, prostrate *Salix*, snowbed, winter

34 Introduction

The temporal dynamics of most tundra food webs are shaped by the cyclic population 35 dynamics of lemmings, considered as key species in the Arctic (Ims and Fuglei 2005). 36 37 Wintertime processes are crucial for lemming population dynamics (Gilg et al. 2009; 38 Bilodeau et al. 2013a) and changes in snow properties may be behind the recent disruptions 39 of lemming population cycles in Fennoscandia (Kausrud et al. 2008; Ims et al. 2011). Yet, 40 winter ecology of lemmings is poorly known as Arctic winters up to nine months long and 41 snow packs up to several meters thick, combined with often difficult access to remote field 42 sites, make data collection challenging. 43 Lemming grazing during the periodic peaks can have a profound effect on vegetation 44 45 (Virtanen 2000; Olofsson et al. 2012) and interactions with food plants have been suggested 46 to be behind the cyclic dynamics (Turchin et al. 2000; Oksanen et al. 2008). Interactions 47 between lemmings and their food resources can be expected to be most pronounced during winter. No new plant growth occurs during this period, snow conditions may limit access to 48 49 some food items, and individuals tend to concentrate at locations with favorable snow 50 conditions such as snowbeds (Duchesne et al. 2011). However, descriptions of lemming winter diet are scarce (but see Soininen et al. 2015b). 51

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We present here the first DNA metabarcoding (Taberlet et al. 2012) analysis of the winter diet of Norwegian lemmings (*Lemmus lemmus*). The species feeds on a range of mosses, graminoids, forbs and shrubs during summer (Tast 1991; Saetnan et al. 2009; Soininen et al. 2013) but is thought to rely heavily on mosses during the winter (Kalela et al. 1961; Koshkina 1961; Calandra et al. 2015). Previous descriptions of the species winter diet are based on a cafeteria experiment (Kalela et al. 1961), a combination of microhistological analyses of
stomach content and grazing signs on vegetation (Koshkina 1961) and stable isotopes
analyses of tooth tissue (Calandra et al. 2015). Compared to these methods, DNA
metabarcoding enables taxonomically detailed analyses of a large number of samples and
allows for more precise and spatially extensive assessments of variability of herbivore diets
(Soininen et al. 2009).

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65 To describe Norwegian lemming winter diet in low Arctic landscapes, we analyzed feces collected in their winter habitat during a year of population peak in Finnmark, northeastern 66 67 Norway. We complement these data with samples collected from individuals found dead on top of the snowpack during the same winter. To achieve taxonomically detailed information 68 69 on both vascular plants and bryophytes, we used two different primer sets to identify the ingested plants (Taberlet et al. 2007) and compared the recovered plant DNA in feces to 70 reference libraries of Arctic and boreal vascular plants (Sønstebø et al. 2010; Willerslev et al. 71 2014b) and bryophytes (Soininen et al. 2015b). 72

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74 Material and methods

75 Study area and samples

All samples were collected in northeastern Norway (70-71° N, 28-31° E), from snowbed habitats where monitoring of Norwegian lemmings has been conducted since 2009 using feces removal plots. The snowbeds are distributed among three different watershed areas; Komagdalen (KO), Vestre Jakobselv (VJ) and Ifjordfjellet (IF). Within the watersheds, the sampled snowbeds are spread across an area of 32km², 18km², and 16 km² at KO, VJ and IF, respectively. They cover an altitudinal gradient of approximately 150 to 200m, from valley bottoms with willow thicket to barren highlands. Snowbeds occur in small-scale topographic
depressions, where the snowpack can be more than 4m thick in winter and persist until late
July. Characteristic plants are mosses (*Dicranum sp.* and *Polytrichum sp.*), a prostrate willow
(*Salix herbaceae*), graminoids (*Carex bigelowii, Avenella flexuosa*), and low statured forbs
(e.g. *Bistorta vivipara*).

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Populations of Norwegian lemmings peaked in the area autumn 2011, followed by a 88 89 population crash during the winter 2011-2012 (Ims et al. 2013). To assess the species winter diet during an increase phase of the population cycle (i.e. winter 2010-2011), we sampled 90 91 feces soon after snowmelt in 2011. In each snowbed (n= 18, 18, and 16 snowbeds for KO, VJ and IF, respectively) we collected a sample of 5-20 pellets, aiming at five pellets from each 92 93 feces removal plot within a snowbed (n=4 plots per snowbed). However, this was sometimes impossible as some snowbeds had few pellets. Thus, three of the samples had 94 only one pellet. The feces removal plots were cleaned the previous time in July 2010. We 95 assume that the feces collected in July 2011 represent winter 2011 instead of 96 97 summer/autumn 2010, because i) snowbeds are typically winter habitats of the Norwegian 98 lemming, and ii) we excluded feces that had clear signs of decomposition, i.e. feces potentially originating from summer 2010. Further, we assume that the feces did not 99 100 originate from after snowmelt in 2011 as the sampling was conducted relatively soon after 101 snowmelt (on average 17 days, as the average snowmelt date of the sampled snowbeds was June 23rd and the average sampling date July 10th). In addition, during snowmelt the 102 103 snowbed habitats are very wet, colder than the ambient air, provide little fresh plant foods, 104 and lemmings seem to move away from these habitats before the snow melts (Bilodeau et 105 al. 2013b).

We also collected dead individuals opportunistically in March 2011 (n=6 individuals found on
top of the snow, all from VJ). We initially aimed to sample stomach content of these
individuals, but as the stomachs were mainly empty we sampled pellets from the intestines
(n=1 stomach content and n=5 samples of pellets). The number of samples is summarized in
Online Resource 1, Supplementary Table S1.

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113 **Diet analysis**

114 We analyzed 58 samples for this study as a part of a larger batch of samples (n=192), using 115 DNA metabarcoding. Other parts of the dataset have previously been described in Soininen et al. (2013); Soininen et al. (2014); Soininen et al. (2015a). The method is based on 116 117 amplifying and high-throughput DNA sequencing a targeted plastid DNA region (P6-loop of 118 the chloroplast *trn*L (UAA) intron) with universal primers for plants. (Taberlet et al. 2007; 119 Soininen et al. 2009). We used two complementary primer pairs, *g*-*h* which targets seed plants and *c*-*h* which is universal to plants, to get data on both vascular plants and 120 121 bryophytes (Taberlet et al. 2007). See details in Online Resource 1, Supplementary Text S1. 122

Sequence reads were analyzed using the OBITools software package (Boyer et al. 2016). As taxonomic reference libraries for the primer pair *g-h*, we first used a combined library of 815 Arctic (Sønstebø et al. 2010) and 835 boreal vascular plant species (Willerslev et al. 2014b). For the *c-h* primer pair, we used the same taxonomic reference libraries of Arctic and boreal vascular plant species, supplemented with a library of 455 Arctic and boreal bryophyte species (Soininen et al. 2015b). Sequences that matched poorly against these references were further compared with references retrieved from the EMBL Nucleotide Sequence

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Database (version 111, available at <u>http://www.ebi.ac.uk/embl/</u>). We then carefully checked
these taxonomic assignments using both the known regional flora and the reference libraries
coverage of all relevant taxa. See details in Online Resource 1, Supplementary Text S1.

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The resulting datasets consisted of a sequence count per taxon and sample, from which we 134 135 calculated the proportion of different taxa in each sample. Even though DNA metabarcoding 136 data for plants probably reflects herbivore diets well (Soininen et al. 2009; Willerslev et al. 137 2014a), the amount of DNA sequences per sample may be biased for some taxa (Soininen et al. 2009; Pompanon et al. 2012). Hence, we also report the number of samples in which a 138 given taxon was found. We used the *c*-*h* dataset to compare the proportions of seed plants, 139 140 ferns and fern allies (i.e. vascular non-seed plants) and bryophytes (i.e. mosses and 141 liverworts) in the diet and to assess the proportions of different bryophyte taxa. We used data from primer pair *g*-*h* to assess the proportions of seed plant taxa. Preliminary 142 multivariate analyses (PCA on centered log-ratio transformed proportions of families with 143 >1% mean proportion of the diet) revealed little differences in Norwegian lemming diets 144 145 between the three watershed areas. Furthermore, the difference in sample size between 146 snowbeds (n=50) and dead individuals (n=6) was large. For these reasons, we here focus on 147 descriptive analyses.

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149 Results

150 Taxonomic precision of diet data

A total of 12 190 sequences were obtained with the *g*-*h* primer pair (210 sequences/sample on average) and 19 199 sequences with the *c*-*h* primer pair (343 sequences/sample on average). We removed two samples from the dataset because we were unable to amplify any DNA with the *c-h* primer from them. Overall, 98.2% of the sequences were identified at the family level, 60.1% at the genus level and 17.1% at the species level. The large amount of sequences assigned to the family level were mainly assigned to Salicaceae, a common plant family in the study area and for which the *g-h* region is almost identical between members of this group (Sønstebø et al. 2010). Excluding this family, 77.0% of sequences were identified to the genus level. However, as only the genus *Salix* is present in the study area, we considered all sequences assigned to Salicaceae to belong to this genus.

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162 Composition of Norwegian lemming winter diet

For the samples collected during the population cycle increase phase (i.e. snowbed samples), 163 we retrieved 17 species, 29 genera and 25 families of vascular plants, and 9 species, 18 164 165 genera and 13 families of bryophytes (Table 1; Online Resource 1, Table S2). Proportion of vascular plants was on average 0.54 (range from 0.03 to 0.99) (Figure 1a). The most common 166 family was Salicaceae. Other common vascular plant families were Poaceae and 167 Polygonaceae. The vascular plant component of Norwegian lemming diets thus 168 169 encompassed deciduous shrubs, grasses and forbs (Figure 1a). The three most common 170 moss families were Polytrichaceae, Dicranaceae and Rhabdoweisiaceae. In the study area, all of these families are mainly represented by acrocarpous species, with Polytrichaceae 171 172 growing as scattered stems, while the two other families usually form carpets. We obtained very similar results by using the frequency of occurrence instead of relative abundance 173 174 (Table 1; Online Resource 1, Table S2). Plant family composition differed little between the 175 three watershed areas (Online Resource 1, Figure S1). In the samples collected from dead 176 individuals, bryophytes of the family Dicranaceae largely dominated the diet while the mean 177 proportion of vascular plants was 0.30 (range from zero to 0.97) (Figure 1b).

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179 Discussion

We found that mosses, grasses, and willows dominated the winter diet of the Norwegian 180 181 lemming in snowbed habitats during the increase phase of the population cycle. This 182 indicates that vascular plants have a more prominent role in the species winter diet than 183 previously assumed. Use of food plants varied little between the sampled watershed areas. 184 In contrast, dead individuals sampled on top of the snow pack had relied heavily on mosses. 185 This suggests that Norwegian lemming winter diets may differ substantially between individuals remaining in their normal subnivean habitat and individuals dispersing on the 186 snow surface. 187

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189 Based on DNA metabarcoding, we were able to identify food items that have previously been considered unimportant. Furthermore, we were able to describe Norwegian lemming 190 winter diet at an unprecedented level of taxonomic detail, showing a previously undescribed 191 diversity of food items. DNA metabarcoding has previously been used to successfully 192 193 describe diets in a semi-quantitative way in various herbivores (Kowalczyk et al. 2011; 194 Newmaster et al. 2013; Willerslev et al. 2014a), including lemmings (Soininen et al. 2013; Soininen et al. 2015a). Still, DNA metabarcoding of faeces has several potential biases, in 195 196 particular differential PCR amplification between taxa and differential digestion between 197 plant taxa (Pompanon et al. 2012). The abundance of *Salix* in our results is unlikely to be an 198 artifact due to preferential amplification of short fragments. The DNA fragment amplified by 199 the primer pair *g*-*h* for Salix is of similar length (56bp) as that of the two most abundant 200 grass genera we identified (Avenella and Festuca, 52bp in the species occurring in the study 201 area; A. flexuosa, F. rubra, and F. ovina). Furthermore, differential digestion is unlikely a

202 major problem in small rodents, as there is a good correspondence of DNA metabarcoding 203 data between samples collected from stomach and rectum of the same individuals (Soininen 2012). In ruminants, DNA metabarcoding has been compared with known diets, recorded by 204 205 animal-born video footage Newmaster et al. (2013) or by controlling the diet of a captive 206 individual (Willerslev et al. 2014a; Nakahara et al. 2015). While population-level average 207 diets were found to have good correspondence (Newmaster et al. 2013), the 208 correspondence of individual-level diets appears to be variable (Willerslev et al. 2014a; 209 Nakahara et al. 2015). For small rodents, the method has been evaluated in terms of its 210 correspondence with microhistology, the two methods yielding a taxonomically similar 211 picture of small rodent diets (Soininen et al. 2009). We thus believe that our results reflect actual diet proportions of Norwegian lemmings rather well, although assessing the 212 213 quantitative correspondence between food intake and DNA metabarcoding would be required to confirm this. 214

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216 The most common food item of the Norwegian lemmings' winter diet was the vascular plant 217 family Salicaceae. Although we could not identify the species with DNA metabarcoding, we 218 do know that the predominant species within the family Salicaceae in the snowbed habitats 219 in northern Norway is the prostrate Salix herbaceae. Our findings thus contrast most previous studies on Norwegian lemming diets, which have highlighted the importance of 220 221 mosses and grasses during winter (Kalela et al. 1961; Koshkina 1961; Calandra et al. 2015) 222 and summer (Stoddart 1967; Hansson 1969; Tast 1991; Saetnan et al. 2009). Yet, the 223 biomass of prostrate willows in snowbeds is affected by Norwegian lemmings (Moen et al. 1993; Virtanen 2000), supporting our interpretation of these plants as important winter food 224 225 for the species. Accordingly, a recent DNA metabarcoding study of winter diets of two other

226 lemming species from Arctic Canada showed that Salix was an important winter food item for both the collared lemming, *Dicrostonyx groenlandicus*, and brown lemming, *Lemmus* 227 trimucronatus (Soininen et al. 2015a). The conventional wisdom that lemmings are "moss-228 eaters, in particular so during the critical winter period" (cf. Turchin et al. 2000) has had a 229 230 profound implication for how their dynamics have been modelled in theoretical studies 231 (Turchin et al. 2000; Turchin and Batzli 2001). In these studies, the destabilizing effect of 232 plants on lemmings is conditional on the plants re-growth corresponding to logistic growth. 233 This has been argued to apply for mosses but not graminoids, whereas woody plants were excluded from this modeling framework (Turchin and Batzli 2001). Hence, further 234 development of rodent-plant interaction models would benefit from considering how the 235 functional diversity of vascular plants in lemming diets would best be incorporated. 236

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We found three moss families to be common in the Norwegian lemmings' winter diet, 238 namely Rhabdoweisiaceae, Polytrichaceae and Dicranaceae. This contrasts with the summer 239 diet, where Dicranaceae has been found to be the dominant moss in the same study area 240 241 (Soininen et al. 2013). In addition, the species appears also to use more mosses during 242 winter than summer, as indicated by a higher mean proportion of bryophytes (50% in this study vs 32% in Soininen et al. 2013). The use of mosses seems thus to be more important 243 244 and diversified during winter. The winter diet differs from the summer diet in terms of the 245 diversity and importance of vascular plants: winter diet contains i) larger proportion of Salix, 246 ii) a lower vascular plant diversity, and iii) lower proportion of the grass A. flexuosa. 247 Norwegian lemmings thus appear to compensate for the low availability of herbaceous 248 plants in winter by feeding more on woody plants and mosses. Such seasonality contrasts 249 the findings by Calandra et al. (2015) who found little differences between summer and

250 winter diets based on stable isotope analyses of Norwegian lemming teeth. However, the isotopic signatures of for instance mosses, forbs and shrubs overlap largely (Calandra et al. 251 252 2015). Thus, seasonal differences in diet taxonomic composition do not necessarily result as a change in the isotopic diet. Even though we found no clear indication of regional 253 254 differences in diets, it is possible that some of the variation (e.g. the proportion of vascular 255 plants that ranged almost between zero and one [0.03 and 0.99]) could be caused by local 256 differences in available vegetation. Yet, a proper assessment of active selection or 257 alternatively, avoidance, of plants and potential seasonal patterns in it, would require 258 comparisons of available biomass and ingested biomass.

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Interestingly, the samples collected from dead individuals that were found on top of the 260 261 snow pack show a contrasting diet composition. These relied heavily on Dicranum mosses, 262 while other food items were scarce in their diets. The samples collected from the snowbeds 263 represent an average diet of several individuals, across a longer time window and larger spatial scale, in the normal subnivean winter habitat of Norwegian lemmings. In contrast, 264 265 the diet description of the dead individuals represents the last meal of these individuals that 266 were likely searching for better grazing grounds as we found them on top of the snow. In particular, the mostly empty stomachs and the difference in diet composition compared to 267 268 the feces samples from snowbeds suggest a lack of abundant good quality food prior to 269 death. Indeed, limited access to food due to poor snow conditions (Kausrud et al. 2008) and 270 overgrazing of food resources (Turchin et al. 2000) have been assumed to cause population 271 crashes in lemmings, and similar causes could explain the movement of individuals on top of 272 the snow during the increase phase. Although some of the differences in the diet between 273 the two sets of samples could be due to lower sample size, they indicate spatial

- heterogeneity in local food availability during the population increase phase. Consequently,
 lemming-plant interactions may show substantial spatial heterogeneity during a given
 population cycle phase.
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- 286

287 Conflict of interest

- 288 We would like to mention that Ludovic Gielly is one of the co-inventors of a patent
- concerning *g*-*h* primers and the subsequent use of the P6 loop of the chloroplast *trn*L (UAA)
- intron for plant identification using degraded template DNA. These patents only restrict
- 291 commercial applications and have no impact on the use of this locus by academic
- 292 researchers.

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Table 1. Composition of winter diets of Norwegian lemmings (*Lemmus lemmus*) during a population 401 cycle increase phase (mean proportion of DNA sequences of fecal pellets analyzed primer pairs *g*-*h* 402 and *c*-*h*) in northern Norway (n=50 snowbeds). At each taxonomic level, also the proportions from 403 lower levels are included. Only taxa with mean proportion >0.01 are included. Column frequency 404 refers to the number of samples in which the taxa were found. When this differed between family 405 and genus resolution data, both values are given.

Family	Genus	Species	Mean (±SE)	Frequency
Vascular plants				
Salicaceae	Salix		0.21 (±0.03)	45
Poaceae			0.10 (±0.02)	46
	Avenella	Avenella flexuosa	0.04 (±0.01)	40
	Festuca		0.01 (±0.00)	15
Polygonaceae			0.09 (±0.02)	27
	Rumex		0.02 (±0.01)	18
	Bistorta	Bistorta vivipara	0.07 (±0.02)	20
Juncaceae			0.05 (±0.02)	23
	Juncus		0.04 (±0.02)	16
	Luzula		0.01 (±0.01)	11
Asteraceae			0.03 (±0.01)	25
Ericaceae	Empetrum	Empetrum nigrum	0.01 (±0.00)	26/20
Cyperaceae	Carex		0.01 (±0.00)	22/21
Rosaceae			0.01 (±0.00)	12
Ranunculaceae	Ranunculus		0.01 (±0.00)	12
Bryophytes				
Polytrichaceae			0.16 (±0.02)	47
	Polytrichum		0.08 (±0.01)	44
	Psilopilum		0.03 (±0.01)	12
Dicranaceae			0.15 (±0.03)	42
	Dicranum		0.14 (±0.03)	40
Rhabdoweisiaceae			0.14 (±0.03)	37
	Kiaeria		0.10 (±0.02)	36
	Kiaeria	Kiaeria glacialis	0.01(±0.01)	9
Hylocomiaceae	Pleurozium	Pleurozium schreberi	0.01 (±0.00)	5/4

421 Figure captions

- 422 **Figure 1.** Proportion of plant families in winter diets of Norwegian lemmings (*Lemmus lemmus*).
- 423 Families are arranged with increasing mean proportion towards the right. Families with mean
- 424 proportion < 0.01 are omitted from the figure. Families to the left of the vertical line are vascular
- 425 plants, to the right mosses.
- 426 **a.** Feces samples from snowbeds (n= 50 snow beds).
- 427 **b.** Samples from intestines (n=5) and stomachs (n=1) of dead lemmings.
- 428
- 429

Proportion of sequences per sample C_{i} Ň ∞ တ Ranunculaceae Rosaceae Cyperaceae Ericaceae -Asteraceae Juncaceae -Polygonaceae Poaceae -Rhabdoweisiaceae Dicranaceae Polytrichaceae F Salicaceae - \mathbf{F}

