

# 1 Supplemental Materials

## 2 1 Supplemental Information

3 In many terrestrial systems, indirect effects of predator presence on herbivores have been shown to have dramatic effects on  
4 vegetation consumption (Apfelbach et al., 2005; Borowski, 1998), with resulting behavioral changes rippling through the  
5 ecosystem (Ripple and Beschta, 2003). In addition to our main experiment, we incorporated predator cues from major predators  
6 of lemmings in order to examine the potential for indirect effects of predators on herbivory rates (Beckerman et al., 1997; Schmitz,  
7 2005). These predators include the snowy owl, parasitic jaeger (arctic skua), arctic fox, and ermine (Fauteux et al., 2018a, b). In  
8 doing so, we wanted to better understand how the presence of predator cues could impact lemming behavior and thus impact  
9 vegetation. We predicted predator cues would elicit a fear response in the lemmings, therefore decreasing the time spent consuming  
10 vegetation and altering carbon cycling.

### 11 1.1 Experimental design

12 We introduced several indirect predator cues to some of the enclosure plot sets to record the effect lemmings in presence of  
13 predators may have on vegetation consumption compared to the effect of lemmings alone, without the predator cues. Four of the  
14 10 plot sets had an additional lemming plot to serve as a predator treatment. Once the initial experiment (with the control and no-  
15 predator lemming plots) was complete, we placed lemmings in these additional enclosures. Lemmings received a similar resting  
16 period between treatments and were presented cues representative of their main predators (fox, jaeger, owl, ermine) one at a time  
17 in a random order. After an hour of exposure to a random cue, each lemming had a resting period of approximately one hour and  
18 then was introduced to a new predator cue. To create an indirect fox cue, we used urine, a chemical cue known to induce fear and  
19 widely used in other studies of the antipredator behavior of rodents (Apfelbach et al., 2005; Borowski and Owadowska, 2001;  
20 Dickman and Doncaster, 1984; Fendt, 2006). As a control for predatory urine, we also exposed the lemmings to urine from caribou  
21 (an herbivorous ungulate, which is not a predator of lemmings). We measured the urine out in about 200 microliter (10 drops)  
22 aliquots, labeled, and placed that amount in individual Eppendorf tubes. We dispensed each of the urine samples from the tubes  
23 separately on paper towels in small plastic containers with holes in the lids to provide a scent cue when introduced to the lemmings,  
24 but also avoid direct contamination of the tundra with urine from foreign sources. We tested acoustic cues by playing back auditory  
25 calls of the snowy owl (Christe, 2015; Suvorov, 2015), parasitic jaeger (Boesman, 2016), and ermine (Free Information Society,  
26 2008). We downloaded the auditory calls onto a mobile phone that we used in the field. For auditory cues, we played the predator  
27 call repeatedly three times every 15 minutes for one hour (four playbacks of three calls during each playback). For chemical cues,  
28 the urine remained contained in the enclosure for the entirety of the allotted time to prevent indirect effect on the vegetation and  
29 carbon fluxes.

### 30 1.2 Camera

31 After the predatory simulation portion of the experiment, we examined the behavioral responses, or lack thereof, using the time-  
32 lapse footage. We examined these video data for noticeable changes in behavior to the different experimental treatments in order  
33 to gain insight into the possible effect of the indirect predator cues.

### 34 1.3 Statistical analyses

35 The same statistical analyses in the initial experiment were applied to the lemming with predator cue plots data to help reveal if  
36 predator cues had a different effect on vegetation than the lemming without predator cues plots.

#### 37 **1.4 Environmental variables within the plots**

38 During summer 2018, measurements of the control and lemming plots with predator cues were not significantly different for air  
39 temperature ( $P = 0.492$ ), soil temperature ( $P = 0.364$ ), and soil moisture ( $P = 0.291$ ). Due to the substantial spatial heterogeneity  
40 of these polygonised tundra ecosystems (because of the presence of continuous permafrost; Zona et al., 2011), predator cue  
41 experimental plots were shallower by 2-7 cm and had significantly different thaw depths than control plots ( $P = 0.011$ ). During  
42 summer 2019, measurements of the control and lemming plots with predator cues were not significantly different for air  
43 temperature ( $P = 0.333$ ), soil temperature ( $P = 0.984$ ), thaw depth ( $P = 0.144$ ), and soil moisture ( $P = 0.160$ ).

#### 44 **1.5 Carbon fluxes in the treatment plots**

45 We found no indication that the indirect predator cues we used affected the impact of lemming behavior on carbon fluxes. Direct  
46 observations during the experiment showed that lemmings exhibited little or no response to auditory or olfactory predator cues,  
47 and even when they did respond, these cues did not affect their feeding behavior long enough to influence carbon fluxes relative  
48 to no-predator plots. NEE in treatment plots with and without predator cues had comparable outcomes. Similar to lemming plots  
49 without predator cues, lemming plots with cues showed a significant change in NEE values ( $P = 0.042$ ), and  $\text{CH}_4$  flux values did  
50 not significantly differ between treatments ( $P = 0.079$ ). By the end of summer 2018, the effect of brown lemmings' herbivory  
51 changed the mean  $\text{CO}_2$  flux for lemming plots with predator cues from  $-0.080 \pm 0.019 \text{ gC-CO}_2\text{m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$  to  $0.001 \pm 0.019 \text{ gC-CO}_2\text{m}^{-2}\text{h}^{-1}$ .  
52 Measurements from 2019 show that NEE, ER, GPP, and  $\text{CH}_4$  flux were all not significantly different between the control and  
53 lemming plots with predator cues (NEE  $P = 0.587$ , ER  $P = 0.950$ , GPP  $P = 0.737$ , and  $\text{CH}_4$  flux  $P = 0.863$ ).

#### 54 **1.6 Hyperspectral surface reflectance and NDVI**

55 Although they trended in the same direction as the NDVI values of the lemming plots without predator cues, the NDVI values for  
56 the lemming plots with predator cues were not statistically different from the control plot values during the first summer ( $P =$   
57  $0.103$ ). In the second summer, median NDVI values of all plots were similar. During this time, there was no significant difference  
58 in NDVI when comparing control plots to lemming plots with cues ( $P = 0.208$ ).

59 We did not find a strong indication that indirect predator cues impacted carbon fluxes or lemming foraging behavior, as lemmings  
60 continue to eat unless they perceive themselves to be in immediate danger. NEE from the lemming plots with predator cues had  
61 the same patterns as the no-predator treatment during both summer seasons. This result was likely due to the lack of fear responses  
62 of lemmings toward our auditory or olfactory cues; direct behavioral observations showed that lemmings scarcely paused in their  
63 vegetation consumption after encountering cues. This feeding behavior is consistent with a life history oriented toward very quick  
64 growth and reproduction and high mortality (Ims and Fuglei, 2005). However, extensive documentation of bank voles, a somewhat  
65 closely related rodent species to lemmings, reveals a strong response to olfactory cues from a predatory weasel species (Bleicher  
66 et al., 2018; Sievert et al., 2019).

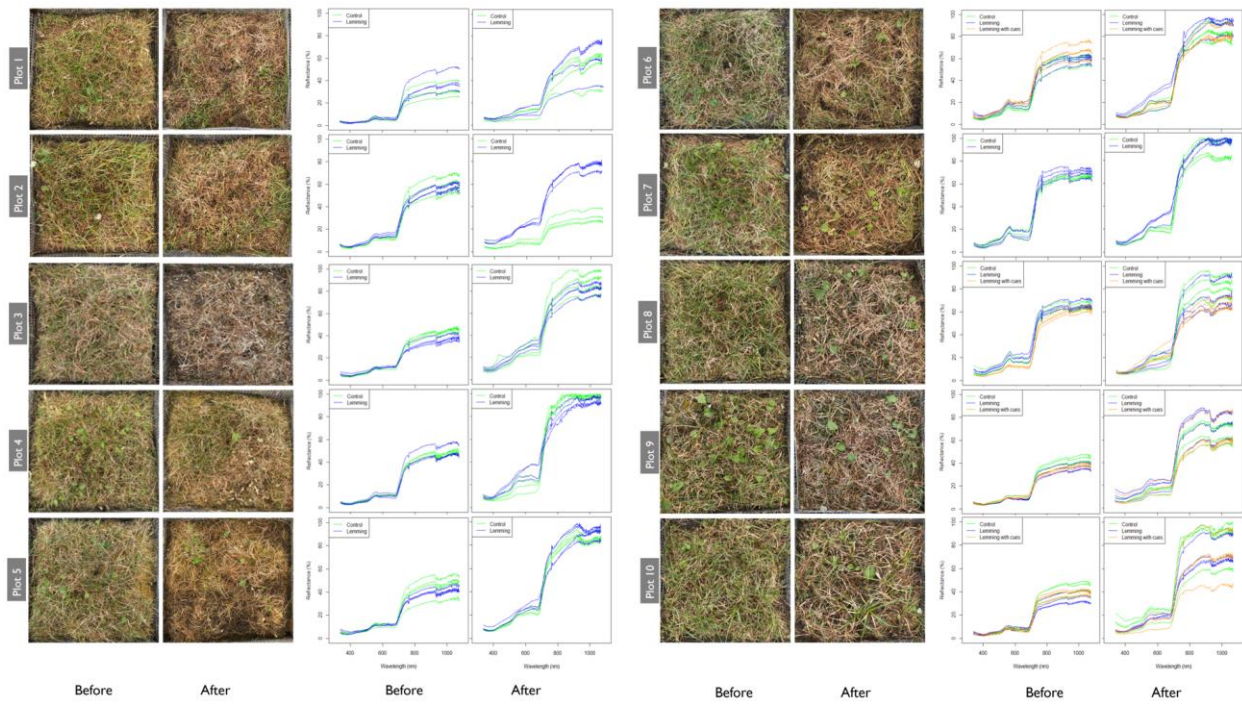
67 In light of these studies, our findings suggest that brown lemmings may need a much stronger indirect cue to indicate predatory  
68 risk, or a direct cue (i.e., an imminent attack), before altering their feeding behavior enough to substantially impact carbon fluxes.  
69 There may also be a species difference between bank voles and brown lemmings, in which lemmings are much less risk-adverse

70 than the average *Myodes* species. It is worth noting that the enclosure design may have also provided enough cover and a sense of  
 71 safety to ease the behavioral response of lemmings to the predatory cues.

	First Quartile	Median	Third Quartile
<b>2018</b>			
Air Temperature	7.08	7.65	7.90
Soil Temperature	2.95	3.15	3.55
Thaw Depth	20.75	22.50	24.25
Soil Moisture	54.20	58.60	65.00
NEE CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Before)	-0.09422	-0.07085	-0.05774
NEE CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (After)	-0.01969	-0.00060	0.01957
CH <sub>4</sub> Flux (Before)	0.03367	0.08756	0.13483
CH <sub>4</sub> Flux (After)	0.07430	0.10798	0.15843
NDVI (Before)	0.4905	0.5705	0.6603
NDVI (After)	0.4730	0.5253	0.5650
<b>2019</b>			
Air Temperature	12.68	13.70	14.88
Soil Temperature	1.63	3.90	4.63
Thaw Depth	18.50	34.00	37.25
Soil Moisture	56.33	63.00	71.53
NEE CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Pre-Growing Season)	0.00790	0.01026	0.01404
NEE CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Early Growing Season)	-0.04556	-0.04074	-0.03633
NEE CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Peak Growing Season)	-0.1182	-0.1168	-0.1057
ER CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Pre-Growing Season)	0.04078	0.05325	0.06991
ER CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Early Growing Season)	0.06832	0.07968	0.09032
ER CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Peak Growing Season)	0.06267	0.06466	0.06575
GPP CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Pre-Growing Season)	0.03039	0.04399	0.05936
GPP CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Early Growing Season)	0.10468	0.12057	0.13600
GPP CO <sub>2</sub> Flux (Peak Growing Season)	0.1676	0.1796	0.1830
CH <sub>4</sub> Flux (Pre-Growing Season)	-0.00100	0.01523	0.14569
CH <sub>4</sub> Flux (Early Growing Season)	0.01652	0.03931	0.08447
CH <sub>4</sub> Flux (Peak Growing Season)	0.5968	0.8729	1.9053
NDVI (Pre-Growing Season)	0.2452	0.2515	0.2596
NDVI (Early Growing Season)	0.5447	0.5724	0.5872
NDVI (Peak Growing Season)	0.7031	0.7111	0.7133

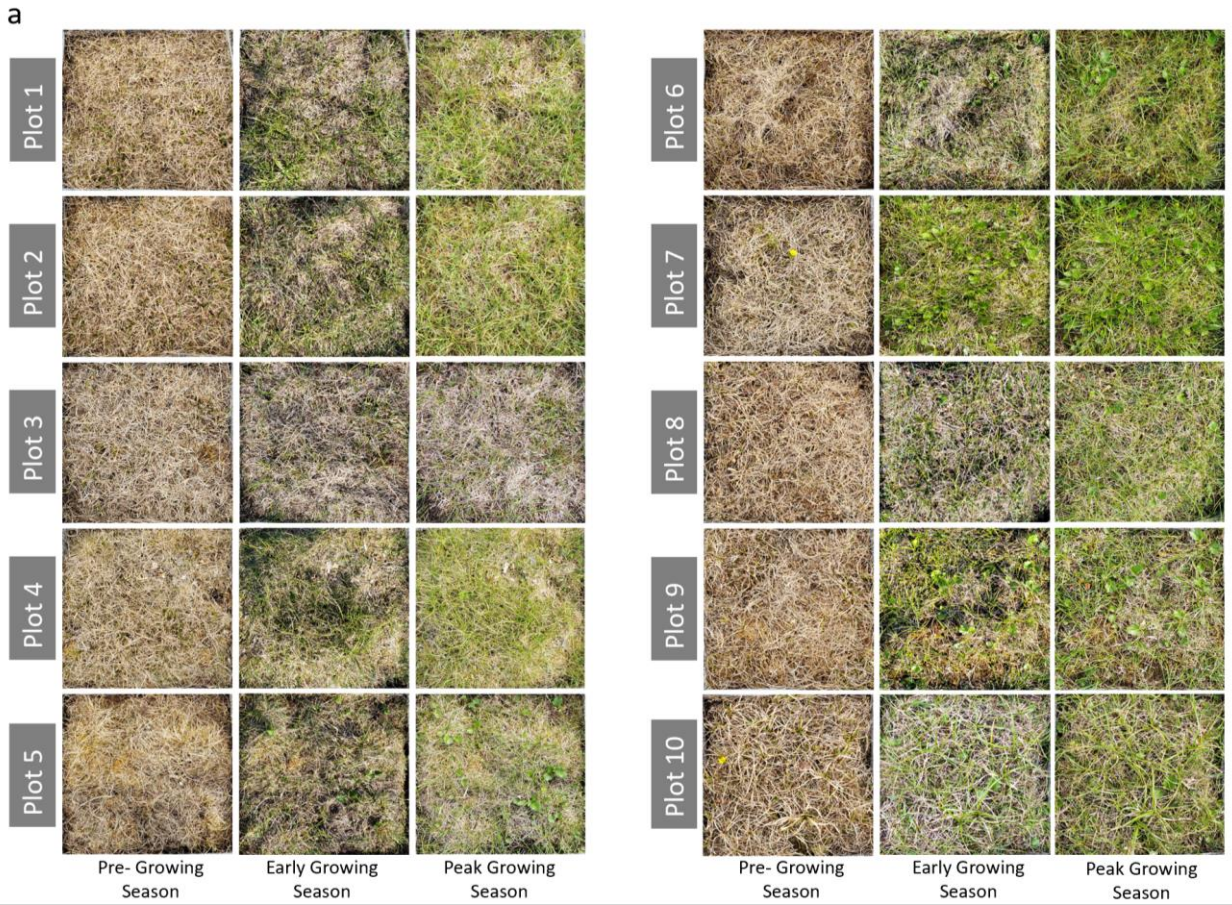
72 **Supplemental Table 1.** First quartile, median, and third quartile values for the various data measurements collected from the experimental  
 73 lemming plots with predator cues during summer 2018 and summer 2019.

74 **2 Supplemental Figures**

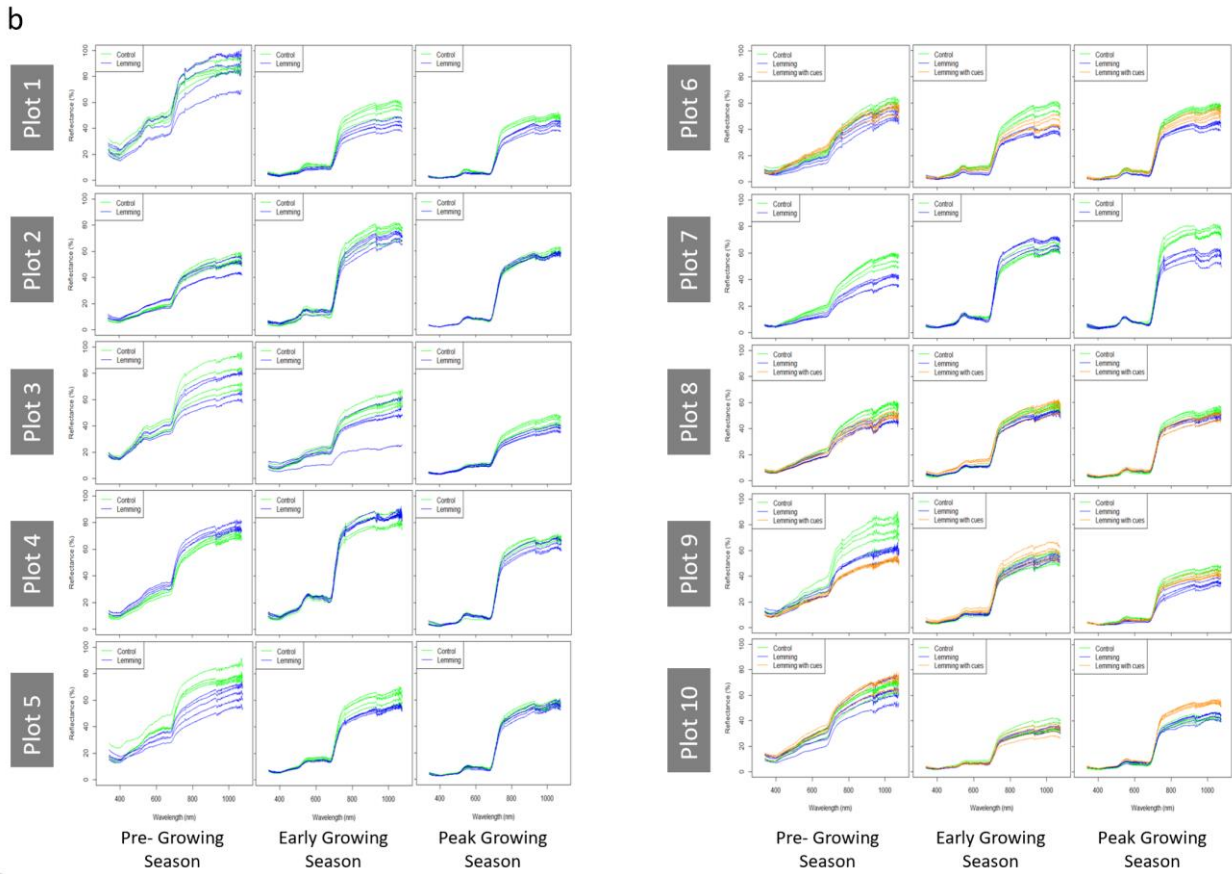


75

76 **Supplemental Figure 1.** Ground photos and hyperspectral reflectance curves for plot sets with pre-lemming (before) and post-lemming (after)  
 77 plots (summer 2018). Photos and reflectance curves show the impact one lemming has on each enclosed plot over the 16-hour experiment. The  
 78 hyperspectral surface reflectance for wavelengths ranging from 338.9-1075.1 nm. Reflectance recorded before and after treatments are shown.



79



84 **Supplemental References**

85 Apfelbach, R., Blanchard, C. D., Blanchard, R. J., Hayes, R. A., and McGregor, I. S.: The effects of predator odors in mammalian

86 prey species: a review of field and laboratory studies, *Neurosci. Biobehav. R.*, 29, 1123-1144,

87 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2005.05.005>, 2005.

88 Beckerman, A. P., Uriarte, M., and Schmitz, O. J.: Experimental evidence for a behavior-mediated trophic cascade in a terrestrial

89 food chain, *P. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 94, 10735-10738, <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.94.20.10735>, 1997.

90 Bleicher, S. S., Ylönen, H., Käpylä, T., and Haapakoski, M.: Olfactory cues and the value of information: voles interpret cues

91 based on recent predator encounters, *Behav. Ecol. Sociobiol.*, 72, 187, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00265-018-2600-9>, 2018.

92 Boesman, P.: XC323090: Parasitic Jaeger (*Stercorarius parasiticus*) call, <https://www.xeno-canto.org/323090>, 2016.

93 Borowski, Z.: Influence of predator odour on the feeding behaviour of the root vole (*Microtus oeconomus* Pallas, 1776), *Can. J.*

94 *Zool.*, 76, 1791-1794, <https://doi.org/10.1139/z98-094>, 1998.

95 Borowski, Z. and Owadowska, E.: Spatial responses of field (*Microtus agrestis*) and bank (*Clethrionomys glareolus*) voles to

96 weasel (*Mustela nivalis*) odour in natural habitat, *Chem. Signal.*, 9, 289-293, [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4615-0671-3\\_39](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4615-0671-3_39),

97 2001.

98 Christe, P.: XC267009: Snowy Owl (*Bubo scandiacus*) call, <https://www.xeno-canto.org/267009>, 2015.

99 Dickman, C. R. and Doncaster, C. P.: Responses of small mammals to red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*) odour, *J. Zool.*, 204, 521-531,  
100 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7998.1984.tb02384.x>, 1984.

101 Fendt, M.: Exposure to urine of canids and felids, but not of herbivores, induces defensive behavior in laboratory rats, *J. Chem.*  
102 *Ecol.*, 32, 2617–2627, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10886-006-9186-9>, 2006.

103 Free Information Society: Ermine, <http://www.freeinfosociety.com/media.php?id=296#>, 2008.

104 Ripple, W. J. and Beschta, R. L.: Wolf reintroduction, predation risk, and cottonwood recovery in Yellowstone National Park,  
105 *Forest Ecol. Manag.*, 184, 299-313, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1127\(03\)00154-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1127(03)00154-3), 2003.

106 Schmitz, O. J.: Behavior of predators and prey and links with population-level processes, In: Barbosa, P. and Castellanos, I.:  
107 *Ecology of predator-prey interactions*, Oxford University Press, New York, NY, 256-278, 2005.

108 Sievert, T., Haapakoski, M., Palme, R., Voipio, H., and Ylönen, H.: Secondhand horror: effects of direct and indirect predator cues  
109 on behavior and reproduction of the bank vole, *Ecosphere*, 10, e02765, <https://doi.org/10.1002/ecs2.2765>, 2019.

110 Suvorov, P.: XC219348: Snowy Owl (*Bubo scandiacus*) call, <https://www.xeno-canto.org/219348>, 2015.

111 Zona, D., Lipson, D. A., Zulueta, R. C., Oberbauer, S. F., and Oechel, W. C.: Microtopographic controls on ecosystem functioning  
112 in the Arctic Coastal Plain, *J. Geophys. Res.-Biogeo.*, 116, 1-12, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009JG001241>, 2011.

113