Plant-insect interactions patterns in three European paleoforests of the late-Neogene-early-Quaternary
Benjamin Adroit, Vincent Girard, Lutz Kunzmann, Jean-Frédéric Terral, Torsten Wappler

To cite this version:
Benjamin Adroit, Vincent Girard, Lutz Kunzmann, Jean-Frédéric Terral, Torsten Wappler. Plant-insect interactions patterns in three European paleoforests of the late-Neogene-early-Quaternary. PeerJ, PeerJ, 2018, 6, 10.7717/peerj.5075. hal-01827091

HAL Id: hal-01827091
https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-01827091
Submitted on 8 Jun 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L’archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire HAL, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d’enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License
Plants and insects are constantly interacting in complex ways through forest communities since hundreds of millions of years. Those interactions are often related to variations in the climate. Climate change, due to human activities, may have disturbed these relationships in modern ecosystems. Fossil leaf assemblages are thus good opportunities to survey responses of plant–insect interactions to climate variations over the time. The goal of this study is to discuss the possible causes of the differences of plant–insect interactions’ patterns in European paleoforests from the Neogene–Quaternary transition. This was accomplished through three fossil leaf assemblages: Willershausen, Berga (both from the late Neogene of Germany) and Bernasso (from the early Quaternary of France). In Willershausen it has been measured that half of the leaves presented insect interactions, 35% of the fossil leaves were impacted by insects in Bernasso and only 25% in Berga. The largest proportion of these interactions in Bernasso were categorized as specialist (mainly due to galling) while in Willershausen and Berga those ones were significantly more generalist. Contrary to previous studies, this study did not support the hypothesis that the mean annual precipitation and temperature were the main factors that impacted the different plant–insect interactions’ patterns. However, for the first time, our results tend to support that the hydric seasonality and the mean temperature of the coolest months could be potential factors influencing fossil plant–insect interactions.
have now reached a global impact affecting components of the Earth system as a whole (Turner et al., 1990; Heller & Zavaleta, 2009). In terrestrial ecosystems, arthropods are one of the most important components in biodiversity (Yang & Gratton, 2014) and their interactions with plants are essential for terrestrial food webs (Forister et al., 2015). Many modern ecological studies are focusing on these interactions between plants and insects but interpretations may be limited, therefore a combination with studies focused on the fossil record is necessary (Wilf, 2008). Studies on fossil insect herbivory have provided a variety of ecological and evolutionary information over long periods of time, such as climate (Wappler, 2010; Wappler et al., 2012), the evolutionary impact of plant radiations (Labandeira, 2012; Labandeira & Currano, 2013), food web dynamics (Wappler & Grimsson, 2016), extinction patterns (Labandeira, 2002; Labandeira, Johnson & Wilf, 2002; Donovan et al., 2016), and ecosystem recovery after extinction events (Wappler et al., 2009; Labandeira, Kustatscher & Wappler, 2016). They have also shown that biodiversity loss may greatly impede trophic interactions and change the overall food web structure of ecological systems (Haddad et al., 2009). Moreover, there is increasing concern about the loss of biological diversity from ecosystems (Hooper et al., 2012).

The large amount of Plio–Pleistocene fossil records offers an exceptional possibility to estimate the evolution and dynamics of associations between plant species and their dependent insect-herbivore species, as descriptions of Plio–Pleistocene floral changes by combining different and complementary data (Tzedakis, Hooghiemstra & Pälike, 2006; Médail & Diadema, 2009; Postigo Mijarra et al., 2009; Magri, 2010; Migliore et al., 2012). Although a few isolated records of specialized phytophagy categories have been reported from the Pliocene (Straus, 1977; Givulescu, 1984; Titchener, 1999), only a single systematic survey of plant–arthropod interactions has been carried out on an early Pleistocene flora (Adroit et al., 2016).

Thus, an ideal setting for the evaluations of relationships among global climate and biodiversity under conditions warmer than today, but with a similar paleogeographic configuration (Raymo et al., 2011; Rohling et al., 2009) is possible throughout the famous upper Pliocene fossil Lagerstätten Willershausen (3.2–2.6 Ma; MN 16/17) (Hilgen, 1991; Mai, 1995) and the comparisons with Berga (Germany, late Pliocene) and the French Pleistocene locality of Bernasso (Adroit et al., 2016). Willershausen and Berga outcrops are of similar age (Piacenzian) and are located in the surroundings of the Harz Mountains, Germany (Fig. 1). The Willershausen paleoforest was dominated by typical taxa of hilly mesophytic woodland (Ferguson & Knobloch, 1998; Knobloch, 1998) such as Acer, Aesculus, Carpinus, Fagus, Quercus, Sassafras, Tilia (Mai, 1995; Knobloch, 1998) and other taxa such as Parrotia, Zelkova and Liquidambar were also characteristic elements of Willershausen (Mai, 1995). All of these taxa were also found in Berga (Mai & Walther, 1988). The presence of these taxa indicates relatively warmer conditions in Europe than today during the late Pliocene (Uhl et al., 2007; Thiel, Klotz & Uhl, 2012). Most plant fossil evidence from Central Europe outcrops (Haywood, Sellwood & Valdes, 2000; Uhl et al., 2007; Williams et al., 2009; Thiel, Klotz & Uhl, 2012) data from marine isotopes, and geological evidence (Driscoll & Haug, 1998; Haug, Tiedemann & Keigwin, 2004) also support the warmer climate condition estimated for the late Pliocene. Bernasso is younger
than the German outcrops, estimated at around 2.16–1.96 Ma (Suc, 1978; Leroy & Roiron, 1996). It is located in southern France, 5 km far away from Lunas in the department of Hérault (Suc, 1978; Leroy & Roiron, 1996; Adroit et al., 2016). The Bernasso fossil leaf assemblages are mainly dominated by the genera Carpinus, Parrotia, Acer and Sorbus (Leroy & Roiron, 1996; Adroit et al., 2016) wherein many plant species are in common with the German fossil leaf assemblages. Detailed descriptions are available in Leroy & Roiron (1996) and Adroit et al. (2016). The decreasing temperatures, from ca. 18 to 14 °C throughout the Pliocene (Thunell, 1979; Ravelo et al., 2004; Hansen et al., 2013) lead to the dominant European vegetation changing gradually from highly diverse subtropical and warm-temperate forests to temperate deciduous forests with East Asian and partly North American affinities (Mai, 1995).

Through the comparison of three European forest plant communities of the Plio–Pleistocene, the aim of this study was to understand how climatic parameters could have impacted plant–insect interactions of fossil leaves. It has been expected that the difference of estimated mean annual temperatures (MATs) between those paleoforests could have a major impact on the quantity of the plant–insect interactions (Coley & Aide, 1991; Zvereva & Kozlov, 2006; Currano, Labandeira & Wilf, 2010). Moreover, the estimated mean annual precipitations (MAPs) of the fossil outcrops should be negatively related to the gall proportions observed on the fossil leaves (Fernandes & Martins, 1985; Fernandes & Price, 1988; Price et al., 1998; Lara, Fernandes & Gonçalves-Alvim, 2002). Our results provide the first approach on plant–insect interactions from the Plio–Pleistocene in European paleoecosystems.
**STUDY AREA**

**Willershausen, Lower-Saxony, Germany**

Geological studies of Willershausen date back to the end of the 19th century (*Wegele, 1914*) (see details in *Wegele, 1914; Ferguson & Knobloch, 1998; Meischner, 2000*). The absence of bioturbation gave rise to one of the exceptionally well preserved floras and faunas (*Briggs et al., 1998*). The Willershausen site was a lake which developed in a pond due to the dissolution of underlying Permian evaporites and has been buried by Triassic and Early Jurassic sediments (*Briggs et al., 1998; Meischner, 2000; Kolibáč et al., 2016*).

Today, Willershausen is an abandoned clay mining operation and it is included in the Geopark Harz, Braunschweiger Land, Ostfalen since 2012. This paleolake was ca. 200 m in diameter and approximately 10 m deep with a narrow sand beyond which the sides inclined abruptly toward the bottom of the lake (*Meischner, 2000*). Willershausen geology has been described by *Von Koenen, 1895* and detailed compilations can be found in *Vinken (1967), Ferguson & Knobloch (1998)* and *Meischner (2000)*.

The leaves used in this study are stored in different museum collections in Germany. The majority (6,546 leaves) is located at the Geoscience center of the University of Göttingen (GZG.W collection). Additional fossil leaves are stored in the Staatliches Museum für Naturkunde Stuttgart (SMNS.W collection; 957 leaves), in the collections of TU Clausthal of Clausthal-Zellerfeld (320 leaves), in the Naturkundemuseum im Ottoneum of Kassel (NMOK.W; 236 leaves) and in the Senckenberg Natural History Collections Dresden (14 leaves). Some of the best well-preserved fossil specimens are presented in Fig. 2A. The flora from Willershausen comprised a rich vegetation community including the presence of *Acer, Alnus, Betula, Carpinus, Caryya, Fagus, Pterocarya, Populus, Quercus, Tilia, Ulmus, Zelkova* (*Straus, 1977; Ferguson & Knobloch, 1998; Knobloch, 1998*). The vertebrates *Anancus (Mastodon) arvernensis* and *Tapirus* were found in Willershausen and seems to indicated a Piacenzian age (late Pliocene, ca. 3.2–2.4 Ma; MN 16/17; *Mai, 1995*), which is corroborated by the presence of *Parrotia persica* and *Liquidambar europaeum* (*Mai, 1995*).

Most plant fossil evidence from Willershausen indicates warmer conditions than today (*Ferguson & Knobloch, 1998*). The MAT in Willershausen was estimated between 10.6 and 15.6 °C on the base of the leaf morphology and of diversity of plant species niches (*Table S1; Uhl et al., 2007*); these different approaches explain the wide range of temperature estimated. The mean temperature of the coldest month (CMMT) is estimated between 0.6 and 3.2 °C and the MAP between 897 and 1151 mm per year (*Table S1; Uhl et al., 2007; Thiel, Klotz & Uhl, 2012*).

**Berga, Thüringen, Germany**

Berga was a lake in which compressions and impressions (some with the cuticles preserved) of leaves were found in silty sediments (*Mai & Walther, 1988*). It is 70 km far from the Willershausen outcrop. The stratigraphic age of the Berga sediments is estimated on the basis of sedimentological correlations referring to the Piacenzian (ca. 3–2.6 Ma) (*Bachmann et al., 2008*).
Figure 2 Well-preserved samples of fossil leaves morphotypes from Willershausen and Berga outcrops, late Pliocene from Germany. Plate 1. Fossil leaves from Willershausen (Göttingen coll.). (A) *Ulmus carpinifolia* with Hole feeding (DT05). (B) *Alnus spaethii* with Margin feeding (DT14). (C) *Fagus* sp with Piercing & Sucking (DT168); enlarged in (D). (F) *Ulmus campestris* with Mining (DT109) enlarged in (E). (G) *Quercus praeerucifolia* with Galling (DT145); enlarged in (H). (J) *Ulmus carpinifolia* with Skeletonization (DT17). (K) *Populus tremula* with Surface feeding (DT30); enlarged in (I). Plate 2. Fossil leaves from Berga (Dresden coll.). (L) *Cercidiphyllum crenatum*. (M) *Fagus attenuata* with Hole feeding (DT01). (N) *Juglans* sp. with Galls (DT34). (O) *Pterocarya paradisiaca*. (P) *Quercus pseudo-castanea* with Galling (DT116). (Q) *Quercus castaneifolia*. White scale bar represents 1 cm; black scale bar represents 0.5 cm. Photographs by Benjamin Adroit.
This leaf collection (534 specimens) is housed in the collection of the Senckenberg Natural History Collections Dresden, Germany. It contained many fossils of different origins (Mai & Walther, 1988), including 30 angiosperms leaf taxa (Fig. 2B). They represent different environments: a freshwater plant community, a swamp and riparian associations and a zonal mixed broadleaved conifer forest (which dominates the taphocoenosis). The temperatures were estimated with the same approach as Willershausen; MAT is estimated between 7.4 and 16.6 °C, the CMMT is between −4.3 and +0.6 °C and the MAP is between 897 and 1,297 mm per year (Table S1; Uhl et al., 2007; Thiel, Klotz & Uhl, 2012).

Bernasso, France

Bernasso was a lake developed when a basaltic flows shut off a canyon valley (Leroy & Roiron, 1996). Diatomites were formed and fossil leaves, often with rest of cuticle, were preserved. It is located close to Lunas (Hérault, Southern France) (Leroy & Roiron, 1996; Adroit et al., 2016). The fossil deposit is dated from the early Pleistocene on the basis of K/Ar analysis (Ildefonse et al., 1972) on a basaltic dyke that crosses the diatomite layers. A complementary analysis on cyclostratigraphy (Suc & Popescu, 2005) and paleomagnetism (Ambert et al., 1990) corroborated these results and estimated an age around 2.16–1.96 Ma.

The collection included 800 fossil leaves and 535 specimens well-preserved were described in (Adroit et al., 2016). These same specimens were also used for comparisons in the present study. The fossil leaves were conserved the Institut des Sciences de l’Evolution de Montpellier in France. Different preparation of fossil leaves were done by (Leroy & Roiron, 1996) and their impact on interpretation were discussed in (Adroit et al., 2016). The flora represents a mesothermic forest, mixing Mediterranean and Caspian elements (Suc, 1978; Leroy & Roiron, 1996). The MAT in Bernasso was estimated about 14–15 °C and the MAP is around 1,500 mm/year (Table S1; Leroy & Roiron, 1996). It is important to note that CLAMP results in Bernasso suggest a possibly lower temperature around 7 °C (Table S1; V. Girard et al., 2017, unpublished data).

DATA ANALYSES

Plant–insect interaction identifications

The plant–insect interactions were identified following the “Guide to Insect (and Other) damage types on compressed plant fossils” (Labandeira et al., 2007). The damages type (DT) are easily recognizable thanks to the black reaction mark surrounding them (Labandeira, 2002; Labandeira et al., 2007). They are divided in seven functional feeding groups (FFG): hole feeding, margin feeding, skeletonization, surface feeding, piercing & sucking, mining and galling. Leaves without damage were also categorized in an eighth FFG called the undamaged leaves. The leaves undamaged has been take into account as a proxy of the non-palatability of the leaves, thus can be considered as another FFG.

The leaves were examined under a binocular Leica MZ95 and all photographed with a Canon EOS 350D camera fitted with a Canon EF-S 60 mm f/2.8 macro lens. A Nikon Coolpix E4500 was used sometimes for precise pictures through the binocular. All pictures
were developed using Adobe Lightroom CC v.2015 especially in order to improve contrast of the leaf. The insect interactions on leaves were scored according to the richness, frequency and distribution on the different plant species for each outcrop. For each DT, a host specificity value has been attributed by Labandeira et al. (2007) that allowed to classify our DTs into generalist interactions (made by polyphagous organisms) and specialized interactions (made by monophagous organisms) (Labandeira, 2002). Detailed plates of fossil leaves from Willershausen are available in Table S2 including the original descriptions of the plant–insect interactions made by (Straus, 1977) and our actual updates with the guide of insect (and other) damage types on compressed plant fossils (Labandeira et al., 2007).

The results obtained for Willershausen and Berga were compared to those recently published for the outcrop of Bernasso (Adroit et al., 2016). For some comparisons with Bernasso, new values were calculated based on raw data.

**Statistical analyses**

For each outcrop, the statistical analyses were performed on two different databases as described in Knor et al. (2012). The first one is the whole assemblage of plant–insect interactions. The second one considers only the interactions of the species that are significantly represented (more than 20 leaves). The quantitative analyses were done in R version 3.1.2 (R Development Core Team, 2014). The differences among the proportions of occurrences from all FFG were tested with Chi-squared-test. The remaining information needed for this test was obtained by using the generalized linear model of binomial distribution. Sample-based rarefaction curves were done to compare the different damage richness and the different plant richness between the outcrops (Gotelli & Colwell, 2001). At last, in order to observe the distributions of plant species according to the FFG among the different fossil leaf assemblages, principal component analysis (PCA) were performed with the software Past3 (v3.14) (Hammer, Harper & Ryan, 2001) in a biplot. PCA has been useful to assess relationships of the plant species for each FFG. The data matrices used for it considered the frequency of each eight FFGs for each plant species of each outcrop (i.e., for each outcrops a matrix such as FFG frequency × leaf morphotype).

**RESULTS**

**Comparisons of insect interactions and plant species richness**

In Willershausen 50.4% of the leaves are damaged, and only 25.1% in Berga. This percentage was 34.6% in Bernasso (Adroit et al., 2016). These differences are statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 3; Table 1).

The frequencies of generalist interactions are 42.8% for Willershausen, 17.8% for Berga and 19.8% for Bernasso (Adroit et al., 2016). Only Willershausen frequency is significantly different from the others ($p < 0.001$). Willershausen leaves have especially much more hole feedings (26.9%) and margin feedings (9.9%) than Berga (respectively 12.7% and 1.9%) and Bernasso leaves (respectively 9.8% and 7%) (Fig. 3).
Figure 3  Quantitative distribution of plant–insect interactions from Willershausen, Berga outcrops (late Pliocene) and the fossil deposit of Bernasso (early Pleistocene). Bernasso data come from the publication of Adroit et al. (2016). For each damage frequency, significant difference ($\alpha < 0.05$) from an outcrop to another one is marked by an asterisk. The percentage of generalized and specialized damages are computed only with the damaged leaves; consequently their sum on each outcrop is 100% in this figure. According to the whole amount of leaves the percentage of generalist interactions are 42.8% for Willershausen, 17.8% for Berga and 19.8% for Bernasso and the percentage of specialist interactions are 11.2% for Willershausen, 8.4% for Berga and 17.9% for Bernasso.

Full-size DOI: 10.7717/peerj.5075/fig-3
The frequencies of specialized interactions are 11.2% for Willershausen, 8.4% for Berga and 17.9% for Bernasso (Adroit et al., 2016). Only the Bernasso frequency is significantly different from the others ($p < 0.001$). This difference is mainly due to the important quantity of galling in Bernasso (12%) which is significantly higher than in Willershausen and Berga, respectively 7% and 6% ($p < 0.01$) (Fig. 3).

Rarefaction tests on plant species richness highlight that Willershausen has more plant species (>100) than Berga (33) and Bernasso (20) which has the less one (Fig. 4). However, the DT richness in Willershausen (36 DTs) and Berga (25 DTs) are lower than in Bernasso (40 DTs) (Fig. 4).

**Structure of the paleoforests with the damage distribution on plant species**

Figure 5 presents the different PCA realized for the three outcrops with the data of plant and DT diversities. For each outcrop, only the first two axes are presented as for Willershausen they represent 77% (Fig. 5A), for Berga 93% (Fig. 5B) and for Bernasso 91% (Fig. 5C) of the whole distribution.

For Willershausen (Fig. 5A) the FFGs hole feeding and skeletonization are positively correlated with PCA-axis 1 (respectively, 0.76 and 0.61) and undamaged is negatively correlated with this axis ($-0.97$) (Data S1). Skeletonization and galling are positively correlated with PCA-axis 2 (respectively, 0.62 and 0.63) while hole feeding is negatively correlated with this axis ($-0.73$) (Data S1). Concerning the species, three pools of plant species can be distinguished. The *Tilia* (*T. saportae, T. cf. saviana*), the *Ulmus* (*U. carpinifolia, U. campestris*), the *Fagus* (*F. grandifolia, F. pliocenica*), *Acer integerrimum* and *Quercus roburoides* are all along the positive part of the PCA-axis 1. The leaves of these species have the highest DT frequency of hole feeding and skeletonization. A second set of taxa is composed, for the most evident species, by *Acer cappadocicum, Acer laetum, Carya minor*, cf. *Magnolia sp1 and 2, Populus willershausensis, Q. praerucifolia* and *Zelkova ungeri*. They are along the negative part of the PCA-axis 1 and along the positive part of the PCA-axis 2. They are mainly affected by the FFG galling (specialized interaction) or have no damage. At last, the third set of species is composed of Fagales (*F. sylvatica*, all the *Quercus, Alnus* and *Betula* species) and is in the negative part of the PCA-axis 2. These leaves are mainly undamaged or only impacted by hole feeding (generalist interaction).

---

**Table 1** Frequency of the leaves damaged per FFG based on the whole flora.

| Outcrops       | # of leaves | Damaged | Generalist | Specialist | External | Galling | Mining | MarginF | HoleF | Skeletonization | SurfaceF | P&S |
|----------------|-------------|---------|------------|------------|----------|---------|-------|---------|-------|-----------------|----------|-----|
| WILLERSHAUSEN  | 7,932       | 50.43   | 42.80      | 10.16      | 1.11     | 7.01    | 1.59  | 9.86    | 26.94 | 11.01           | 1.64     | 1.10|
| BERGA          | 534         | 25.09   | 17.79      | 7.12       | 1.31     | 6.18    | 0.19  | 1.87    | 12.73 | 2.62            | 2.06     | 0.94|
| BERNASSO       | 535         | 34.58   | 19.81      | 15.70      | 2.24     | 11.78   | 1.68  | 7.10    | 9.72  | 7.66            | 0.93     | 0.00|

Notes: It happens that there is more than one FFG on a leaf damaged; consequently the sum of the percent of galling, mining, margin feeding, hole feeding, skeletonization, surface feeding and piercing & sucking exceed the value of the damaged leaves. Bernasso data originate from Adroit et al. (2016). Details of damaged leaves per species are presented in Table S3.
For Berga (Fig. 5B) the FFGs hole feeding, skeletonization and undamaged are positively associated with the PCA-axis 1, respectively with a correlation of 0.56, 0.73 and 0.99 (Data S1). Hole feeding and skeletonization are also correlated with the PCA-axis 2, negatively for hole feeding (−0.79) and positively for skeletonization (0.66) (Data S1). Concerning the species, we can note that Taxodium dubium, Z. ungeri, Cercidiphyllum crenatum and A. integerrimum are correlated with this undamaged category. F. attenuata, Acer tricuspidatum and Quercus sp. are mainly correlated with hole feeding.

For Bernasso (Fig. 5C; Adroit et al., 2016), the skeletonization and galling are positively correlated with the PCA-axis 1 (0.82 and 0.92) while undamaged is negatively correlated with this axis (−0.94) (Data S1). Hole feeding and skeletonization are positively correlated with PCA-axis 2 (0.92 and 0.25) while undamaged and galling are negatively correlated with this axis (−0.25 and −0.37) (Data S1). Acer monspessulanum and Sorbus domestica are in the positive part of the PCA-Axis 1 while the other are in the negative one (to note that Parrotia persica is close to zero). Concerning the PCA-axis 2, A. monspessulanum, Carpinus orientalis and Carya minor are in the positive part of the PCA-axis 2 while the others are in the negative part (to note that Z. ungeri is close to zero).
Furthermore, *Z. ungeri* is a species found in the three outcrops (Fig. 5) and compared to its position in the different PCAs, we can note that *Z. ungeri* is mostly associated with the FFG undamaged. However, for other common plant species, their relative position on the PCAs could be different. *A. integerrimum* in Berga (Fig. 5B) is mostly associated with the FFG undamaged while in Willershausen is opposite to this FFG as it is mainly associated to the FFG hole feeding and more weekly with skeletonization, margin and galling (Fig. 5A).

Comparing Willershausen and Bernasso (Figs. 5A and 5C), *A. monspessulanum* is mainly associated to skeletonization and galling in Willershausen (Fig. 5A) and in Bernasso it is with skeletonization, galling too but also with hole feeding (Fig. 5C). *Sorbus domestica* and *Carpinus orientalis* are both associated to the FFG undamaged in Willershausen (Fig. 5A). In Bernasso, *S. domestica* is associated with galling and skeletonization and *C. orientalis* is associated with hole feeding and undamaged (Fig. 5C). *Carya minor* is associated to skeletonization and galling in Willershausen (Fig. 5A) while in Bernasso it is associated to undamaged and hole feeding (Fig. 5C). *Parrotia persica* is associated to galling and undamaged in Bernasso (Fig. 5C) while in Willershausen, it is associated with the FFGs skeletonization and galling (Fig. 5A).

**DISCUSSION**

**Floristic richness and herbivory representativeness**

All genera and at least 22 plant species from Berga leaf assemblage are also present in the Willershausen assemblage (Table S3). It can be explained by the geographical and stratigraphical proximity of the two outcrops. Bernasso had nearly the same composition of plant genera found in Willershausen (except *Ilex* only found in Bernasso) and also the majority of plant species (Table S3) despite its geographical situation and its younger age. There is quite a difference of plant richness between Bernasso and Berga, but the genera are the same (Table S3). This may suggest a difference in specific richness between those paleoforests. Rarefaction data indicated for the Willershausen leaf assemblage a highest plant species richness than the ones of Berga and Bernasso (Fig. 4). However, the original sample size is considerably larger in Willershausen and could have led to artificial differences of plant species richness between the outcrops (Table 1). However, a bias due to the sample size is unlikely as Bernasso has the highest DT richness while the plant species and the quantity of leaves are lower than the one of the Willershausen assemblage.

Sampling effort tests indicate that enough specimens were taken into account to have a representative overview of the interactions on plant species found into the different outcrops (Fig. 4). The large standard deviation observable on the Willershausen
rarefaction curves on Fig. 4 is due to this size of the fossil collection that includes around 8,000 specimens while the others are only 534 for Berga and 535 for Bernasso.

Relations between herbivory and the different mean annual temperatures estimated

Climatic conditions seem to be in relation with variations in richness and frequency of plant–insect interactions (Currano, Labandeira & Wilf, 2010). If an increase of temperature seems to stimulate insect herbivory (Coley & Aide, 1991; Coley & Barone, 1996; Zvereva & Kozlov, 2006; Currano, Labandeira & Wilf, 2010), it is still difficult to understand the complete role of temperature in the modulation of herbivory (DeLucia et al., 2012).

Thiel, Klotz & Uhl (2012) indicated, through leaf morphological analyses, that temperatures estimated for Willershausen were approximately 3 °C higher than those for Berga. These paleoforests were geographically very close to each other (less than 70 km) and at a similar latitude (51°N) (Fig. 1). Today the nearest meteorological stations of these locations (Willershausen: Göttingen, Lower-Saxony; Berga: Nordhausen, Thüringen) indicates the same MAT also for the coldest and warmest months over the last years (http://www.worldweatheronline.com). Such current similarities make the argument for similar paleoclimates of the two fossil localities if they were strictly of the same age. However, between 3 and 2.5 Ma, CO₂ concentration progressively decreased (Küpperschner et al., 1996; van de Wal et al., 2011) implicating a continuous decrease of MATs (Willeit et al., 2015). Consequently, as Willershausen was warmer than Berga, the paleoforest of Willershausen grew under higher atmospheric CO₂ concentration than the Berga paleoforest. It seems to corroborate by the higher damage frequency observed in Willershausen that can have been favored by an increase of C/N ratios and an increase of photosynthesis rates (due to the high CO₂ concentration) (Bezemar & Jones, 1998; Stiling & Cornelissen, 2007; DeLucia et al., 2012). However, Willershausen and Berga had different sedimentological contexts and the preservation of the fossil leaves did not follow the same taphonomical constrains in the two outcrops. This could have influenced interpretation of the climate through morphological analyses.

For this reason, Thiel, Klotz & Uhl (2012) were in favor of the Coexistence Approach for climate interpretation which estimated similar temperature for Berga and Willershausen. It has been highlighted that the diversity of insects is often correlated to richness of plant species (Siemann, Tilman & Haarstad, 1996; Wright & Samways, 1998; Knops et al., 1999; Mulder et al., 1999) and should be expected to have higher damage richness in the more diverse paleoforest (Price, 1991, 2002). Thus, the higher richness and frequency of damage in Willershausen than in Berga could also be due to a higher insect diversity. Nevertheless, despite its higher plant richness Willershausen had less DT richness than the fossil leaf assemblage of Bernasso (Figs. 3 and 4). Bernasso had also more damage richness and frequency than Berga (Figs. 3 and 4). Thus, these observations make this assumption unsustainable for our study. It is also conceivable that the relative abundance of a plant species in those paleoforests could partly explain the herbivory measured. Indeed, more a plant species is represented in the forest community, then more
individuals of the plant species have had a chance to be damaged by insect feeding (Feeny, 1976). Unfortunately, for the fossil record, it is not possible to support this assumption because the leaf quantity of a plant species from an outcrop cannot be correlated to the relative abundance of this plant species in the paleoforest. Consequently, the difference of plant species richness observed between the outcrops could be firstly due to differences of fossil preservation than more to differences among paleoecosystems.

For Bernasso, the latitudinal position is different from Berga and Willershausen, as it located 1,000 km to the South. It has been highlighted that the insect diversity increases getting closer to the tropics (Hutchinson, 1959; Klopfer, 1959; Klopfer & MacArthur, 1960; MacArthur, 1972; Coley & Barone, 1996; Fraser, 2017). The southern position of Bernasso could partly explain the measured damage type richness. Nevertheless, the quantity of damage is not exclusively linked to the insect diversity (Currano, Labandeira & Wilf, 2010). Latitudinal differences could led to a difference of thermal seasonality (Saikkonen et al., 2012) which is the key to the latitudinal gradient of insect diversity (Archibald et al., 2010). Leroy & Roiron (1996) indicated that Bernasso paleoforest grew under temperatures of 14–15 °C and precipitations around 1,500 mm/a. Recently, V. Girard et al. (2017, unpublished data) re-estimated Bernasso climate with different approaches and some results, based on leaf morphological traits, estimated temperatures in Bernasso to be cooler than estimations of Leroy & Roiron (1996), while the pollen analysis from the same study tend to corroborate previous estimations done by Leroy & Roiron (1996).

Relations between herbivory rates and temperatures of the coldest months

Berga has a low temperature of the coldest months (from −6.4 to 2 °C) compared to Willershausen which had the highest temperatures (from −0.5 to 5.1 °C) (Uhl et al., 2007; Thiel, Klotz & Uhl, 2012). These lower temperatures during the cold period could explain the lowest damage frequency observed in Berga. Indeed, insects are poikilotherms, meaning that their body temperature is extremely dependent to the environment temperature (Meglitsch, 1972). Cooler temperatures decrease the insect metabolism (leading to diapause of insects) and the quantity of generations per year (Archibald et al., 2010), consequently it could also reduce the herbivory rates during the year (Bale & Hayward, 2010). Concerning Bernasso, the different estimations of temperatures, included the CMMT, are lower than those of Willershausen (Uhl et al., 2007; Thiel, Klotz & Uhl, 2012), thus the lowest frequency of damage could also be due to a lower insect metabolism in Bernasso than in Willershausen. The lowest frequency of damage in Berga than in Bernasso could also be due to insect diapause in the case of coolest temperatures being lower in Berga. However, the estimated temperatures of Bernasso overlap with the ones of Berga (especially for the coolest temperatures) and therefore complicate any interpretations about the damage frequency between these two fossil leaf assemblages.

Moreover, it is important to note that no data about insect richness of these different paleoforests are available. Although it could be assumed that insect richness between
Willershausen and Berga could be similar because outcrops are geographically and
temporally similar, the insect richness of Bernasso could be quite different. Consequently,
in cases of differences in the insect faunas, the previous relation could be disturbed as
some insects, such as larvae of *Thaumetopoea pityocampa*, feed on plants during the winter
season (*Battisti et al.*, 2005; *Buffo et al.*, 2007), when others insects have no or lower
activity (*Hahn & Denlinger*, 2007).

**More precision provided by proportion of generalized/specialized
damages**

The comparison of plant–insect interaction between different locations or through
different time periods could still be upset by local disturbances (fires, floodings, etc.) or
other constraints (such as different soils) that are not perceptible in fossil record and could
impacted damage pattern in general (*Currano et al.*, 2011; *García, Castellanos & Pausas*,
2016). Moreover, taphonomic biases, especially fossil preservation and different
excavation histories, could also interfere with our analyses. For example, the damage
frequency observed in fossil record could be partly distorted because the damaged leaves
had less chance to be preserved in the fossil record than the complete and undamaged
leaves (*Ferguson*, 2005). For all these reasons, we suggested complementing analyses
by comparison of the proportions of generalized and specialized damage patterns.

*Leckey et al.* (2014) indicate that the proportion of generalist and specialist herbivores
may change between different forests because the difference of abiotic parameters (such as
climate). There are the lowest proportions of specialist interactions (mainly based on
galling) in Willershausen and Berga, and conversely the highest proportion is in Bernasso
(Fig. 3), this may due to climatic factors (*Leckey et al.*, 2014). Indeed, precipitation in
Bernasso was higher than in Willershausen and Berga (*Leroy & Roiron*, 1996; *Uhl et al.*, 2007).
Also, the hydric seasonality was possibly more important in Bernasso as indicated
by some CLAMP estimations (other CLAMP estimations minimize Bernasso hydric
seasonality; V. Girard et al., 2017, unpublished data. This is also in agreement with the
supposed Mediterranean climate for Bernasso (based on the plant species diversity; *Leroy & Roiron*, 1996) that provided heavy constrain to plants here due to less water availability
during the dry season (*Bagnouls & Gaussen*, 1957; *Daget*, 1977, 1984). The higher
seasonality conditions in Bernasso compared to conditions proposed for Berga and
Willershausen could also be supported the idea that regional conditions of Northern
Atlantic realm were more marked by higher seasonality during Pleistocene than the
Pliocene (*Williams et al.*, 2009; *Hennissen et al.*, 2015; *Utescher et al.*, 2017). Water stress
should have a positive impact on galling quantity, as many studies already mentioned
that galling is an adaptation of stressful environment (*Fernandes & Martins*, 1985;
*Fernandes & Price*, 1988, 1992; *Price et al.*, 1998; *Lara, Fernandes & Gonçalves-Alvim*, 2002).
In addition, *Cuevas-Reyes et al.* (2003), who studied the development of galling,
showed that it exists a negative correlation between gall-forming insect species richness
and plant species richness. It could also partly explain the highest proportion of
specialized interactions in Bernasso. Additionally, a forest in its late successional stage, as
it has been proposed for Bernasso (*Leroy & Roiron*, 1996; *Adroit et al.*, 2016), tend to favor
the richness of gall-inducing insects (that increase the proportion of specialized interaction) (Fernandes, Almada & Carneiro, 2010; Adroit et al., 2016).

**Inputs of the comparisons between the common plant species from the different outcrops**

This global comparison of specialized and generalized damages between the fossil leaf assemblage of Bernasso, Willershausen and Berga are also observable precisely on the common plant species statistically represented in each outcrop. However, the FFGs and especially the undamaged feature on some plant taxa are similar or could be slightly different between the fossil leaf assemblage (Fig. 5). It tends to confirm that the abiotic parameters are important determinant factors involving significant variation of herbivory between different paleoenvironments (Cuevas-Reyes et al., 2004, 2003; Leckey et al., 2014). Biotic parameters can also be involved in the difference of interaction structures. For example, a decrease in food quality caused by higher concentration of carbon in plants could also have a negative impact on herbivory (Stiling & Cornelissen, 2007), but in general, it is compensated by an increase of insect feeding (Bezemer & Jones, 1998). The impact of biotic factors seems to be further confirmed as in Willershausen we can note that most Fagales (Betulaceae: Alnus, Betulus, Carpinus; Fagaceae: Fagus, Quercus; Juglandaceae: Carya, Juglans) are all associated to hole feeding and to undamaged feature (Fig. 5A). This measurement cannot be due to hazard but it probably reflects an effect of some biotic parameters (such as genetic background, plant competition, host specificity, etc.).

**CONCLUSION**

Despite their similar plant species and their relative geographical and stratigraphical proximity (at least for Berga and Willershausen), trophic structures of those paleoforests were different. On the contrary to different hypotheses made on previous studies (Fernandes & Martins, 1985; Fernandes & Price, 1988; Coley & Aide, 1991; Coley & Barone, 1996; Price et al., 1998; Lara, Fernandes & Gonçalves-Alvim, 2002; Zvereva & Kozlov, 2006; Currano, Labandeira & Wilf, 2010), there was no relationships between the MAT and the quantity of plant–insect interactions, as well as between the MAP and the proportion of some specialist damages. The comparison of the fossil records of Willershausen, Berga and Bernasso allowed discussion about the potential impacts of seasonality of the precipitation on the high proportion of galling. In addition, results suggested also that the herbivory rates could be impacted by the CMTTs of these paleoenvironments. Such observations can be related to the insects’ response to climatic variation, which is very sensitive (Bale & Hayward, 2010). The next step should be to conduct a meta-analysis in order to improve the knowledge of the relations between plant–insect interactions and climate, to this end, further studies are needed. Concerning European paleoforests, the studies of other late Pliocene outcrops such as the one of Frankfurt-am-Main in Germany (Thiel, Klotz & Uhl, 2012) or Fossano in Italy (Macaluso et al., 2018) should provide interesting data in that way. Lastly, this study points out that comparisons of plant–insect interactions from different paleoforests are limiting by the fossil preservation
which significantly affects the fossil leaf collections available in the outcrops. Comparisons with some similar modern forests could be relevant in order to better discern the differences in proportions of plant species in the paleoforests communities.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

We wish to thank Tony Jijina (University of Wyoming, Laramie, WY, USA), Gentry Catlett (Miami University, Oxford, OH, USA) and Samantha Moody (Bonn University, Germany) for English improvement in our manuscript. Thank you to Dr. Alexander Gehler from Geoscience Centre of the University of Göttingen for giving us access to Willershausen’s fossil collections. Special thanks to Dr. Allowen Evin (ISEM - Montpellier) and Dr. Zdeněk Janovský (Charles University, Prague) for their advices on statistical methods. We are grateful to the anonymous reviewers and Dr. Kenneth De Baets who significantly contributed to improve our manuscript. This article is the ISEM contribution n° ISEM 2018-102.

**ADDITIONAL INFORMATION AND DECLARATIONS**

**Funding**

The present study was financially supported by grants of the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, grant no WA 1492/8-1; 11-1). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

**Grant Disclosures**

The following grant information was disclosed by the authors:
Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG): grant no WA 1492/8-1; 11-1.

**Competing Interests**

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

**Author Contributions**

- Benjamin Adroit conceived and designed the experiments, performed the experiments, analyzed the data, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, prepared figures and/or tables, approved the final draft.
- Vincent Girard conceived and designed the experiments, analyzed the data, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.
- Lutz Kunzmann contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, detailed on Berga location.
- Jean-Frédéric Terral contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.
- Torsten Wappler conceived and designed the experiments, analyzed the data, contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools, prepared figures and/or tables, authored or reviewed drafts of the paper, approved the final draft.
Data Availability
The following information was supplied regarding data availability:

The raw data are provided as Supplemental Files.

Supplemental Information
Supplemental information for this article can be found online at http://dx.doi.org/10.7717/peerj.5075#supplemental-information.

REFERENCES

Adroit B, Wappler T, Terral J-F, Ali AA, Girard V. 2016. Bernasso, a paleoforest from the early Pleistocene: New input from plant–insect interactions (Hérault, France). Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology 446:78–84 DOI 10.1016/j.palaeo.2016.01.015.

Ambert P, Boven A, Leroy SAG, Lovlie R, Seret G. 1990. Révision chronostratigraphique de la séquence paléobotanique de Bernasso (Escandorgue, Midi de la France). Comptes rendus de l’Académie des Sciences 311:413–419.

Archibald SB, Bossert WH, Greenwood DR, Farrell BD. 2010. Seasonality, the latitudinal gradient of diversity, and Eocene insects. Paleobiology 36(3):374–398 DOI 10.1666/09021.1.

Bachmann GH, Ehling BC, Eichner R, Schwab M. 2008. Geologie von Sachsen-Anhalt. Stuttgart: Schweizerbart Science Publishers.

Bagnouls F, Gaussen H. 1957. Les climats biologiques et leur classification. Annales de Géographie 66(355):193–220 DOI 10.3406/geo.1957.18273.

Bale JS, Hayward SAL. 2010. Insect overwintering in a changing climate. Journal of Experimental Biology 213(6):980–994 DOI 10.1242/jeb.037911.

Battisti A, Stastny M, Netherer S, Robinet C, Schopf A, Roques A, Larsson S. 2005. Expansion of geographic range in the pine processionary moth caused by increased winter temperatures. Ecological Applications 15(6):2084–2096 DOI 10.1890/04-1903.

Bezemer TM, Jones TH. 1998. Plant-Insect Herbivore Interactions in Elevated Atmospheric CO₂: Quantitative Analyses and Guild Effects. Oikos 82(2):212 DOI 10.2307/3546961.

Briggs DE, Stankiewicz BA, Meischner D, Bierstedt A, Evershed RP. 1998. Taphonomy of arthropod cuticles from Pliocene lake sediments, Willershausen, Germany. Palaios 13(4):386–394 DOI 10.2307/3515326.

Buffo E, Battisti A, Stastny M, Larsson S. 2007. Temperature as a predictor of survival of the pine processionary moth in the Italian Alps. Agricultural and Forest Entomology 9(1):65–72 DOI 10.1111/j.1461-9563.2006.00321.x.

Coley PD, Aide TM. 1991. Comparisons of herbivory and plant defenses in temperate and tropical broad-leaved forests. In: Peter WP, Thomas ML, Wilson F, Woodruff WB, eds. Plant-Animal Interactions: Evolutionary Ecology in Tropical and Temperate Regions. New York: Wiley-Interscience, 25–49.

Coley PD, Barone JA. 1996. Herbivory and plant defenses in tropical forests. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 27(1):305–335 DOI 10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.27.1.305.

Cuevas-Reyes P, Quesada M, Hanson P, Dirzo R, Oyama K. 2004. Diversity of gall-inducing insects in a Mexican tropical dry forest: the importance of plant species richness, life-forms, host plant age and plant density. Journal of Ecology 92(4):707–716 DOI 10.1111/j.0022-0477.2004.00896.x.
Cuevas-Reyes P, Siebe C, Martínez-Ramos M, Oyama K. 2003. Species richness of gall-forming insects in a tropical rain forest: correlations with plant diversity and soil fertility. *Biodiversity and Conservation* **12**:411–422 DOI 10.1023/A:1022415907109.

Currano ED, Jacobs BF, Pan AD, Tabor NJ. 2011. Inferring ecological disturbance in the fossil record: A case study from the late Oligocene of Ethiopia. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* **309**(3–4):242–252 DOI 10.1016/j.palaeo.2011.06.007.

Currano ED, Labandeira CC, Wilf P. 2010. Fossil insect folivory tracks paleotemperature for six million years. *Ecological Monographs* **80**:547–567 DOI 10.1890/09-2138.

Daget P. 1977. Le bioclimat Mediterraneen: analyse des formes climatiques par le systeme d’Emberger. *Vegetatio* **34**(2):87–103 DOI 10.1007/bf00054477.

Daget P. 1984. Introduction à une théorie générale de la méditerranéité. *Bulletin de la Société Botanique de France. Actualités Botaniques* **131**(2–4):31–36 DOI 10.1080/01811789.1984.10826644.

DeChaine EG, Martin AP. 2006. Using coalescent simulations to test the impact of quaternary climate cycles on divergence in an alpine plant-insect association. *Evolution* **60**(5):1004 DOI 10.1554/05-672.1.

DeLucia EH, Nabity PD, Zavala JA, Berenbaum MR. 2012. Climate Change: Resetting Plant-Insect Interactions. *Plant Physiology* **160**(4):1677–1685 DOI 10.1104/pp.112.204750.

Donovan MP, Iglesias A, Wilf P, Labandeira CC, Cúneo NR. 2016. Rapid recovery of Patagonian plant–insect associations after the end-Cretaceous extinction. *Nature Ecology & Evolution* **1**(1):12 DOI 10.1038/s41559-016-0012.

Driscoll NW, Haug GH. 1998. A short circuit in thermohaline circulation: a cause for northern hemisphere glaciation? *Science* **282**(5388):436–438 DOI 10.1126/science.282.5388.436.

Feeny P. 1976. Plant apparency and chemical defense. In: Wallace JW, Mansell RL, eds. *Biochemical Interaction between Plants and Insects*. New York: Plenum Press, 1–40.

Ferguson DK. 2005. Plant taphonomy: ruminations on the past, the present, and the future. *Palaios* **20**(5):418–428 DOI 10.2110/palo.2005.p05-25p.

Ferguson DK, Knobloch E. 1998. A fresh look at the rich assemblage from the Pliocene sink-hole of Willershausen, Germany. *Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology* **101**(1–4):271–286 DOI 10.1016/s0034-667x(97)00078-x.

Fernandes GW, Almada ED, Carneiro MAA. 2010. Gall-inducing insect species richness as indicators of forest age and health. *Environmental Entomology* **39**(4):1134–1140 DOI 10.1603/EN09199.

Fernandes GW, Martins RP. 1985. As galhas: tumores de plantas. *Ciência Hoje* **4**:58–64.

Fernandes GW, Price PW. 1988. Biogeographical gradients in galling species richness. *Oecologia* **76**(2):161–167 DOI 10.1007/bf00379948.

Fernandes GW, Price PW. 1992. The adaptive significance of insect gall distribution: survivorship of species in xeric and mesic habitats. *Oecologia* **90**(1):14–20 DOI 10.1007/bf00371805.

Forister ML, Novotny V, Panorska AK, Baje L, Basset Y, Butterill PT, Cizek L, Coley PD, Dem F, Diniz IR, Drozd P, Fox M, Glassmire AE, Hazen R, Hrcek J, Jahner JP, Kaman O, Kozubowski TJ, Kursar TA, Lewis OT, Lill J, Marquis RJ, Miller SE, Morais HC, Murakami M, Nickel H, Pardikes NA, Ricklefs RE, Singer MS, Smilanich AM, Stireman JO, Villamarín-Cortez S, Vodka S, Volf M, Wagner DL, Walla T, Weiblen GD, Dyer LA. 2015. The global distribution of diet breadth in insect herbivores. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **112**(2):442–447 DOI 10.1073/pnas.1423042112.
Adroit et al. (2018), *PeerJ*, DOI 10.7717/peerj.5075

Frank D, Reichstein M, Bahn M, Thonicke K, Frank D, Mahecha MD, Smith P, van der Velde M, Vicca S, Babst F, Beer C, Buchmann N, Canadell JG, Ciais P, Cramer W, Ibrom A, Miglietta F, Poulter B, Rammig A, Seneviratne SI, Walz A, Wattenbach M, Zavala MA, Zscheischler J. 2015. Effects of climate extremes on the terrestrial carbon cycle: concepts, processes and potential future impacts. *Global Change Biology* 21(8):2861–2880 DOI 10.1111/gcb.12916.

Fraser D. 2017. Can latitudinal richness gradients be measured in the terrestrial fossil record? *Paleobiology* 43(3):479–494 DOI 10.1017/pab.2017.2.

García Y, Castellanos MC, Pausas JG. 2016. Fires can benefit plants by disrupting antagonistic interactions. *Oecologia* 182(4):1165–1173 DOI 10.1007/s00442-016-3733-z.

Givulescu R. 1984. Pathological elements on fossil leaves from Chiuzbaia (galls, mines and other insect traces). *Dari Seama Ale Sedintelor Institutul Geologie Si Geofizica* 68:123–133.

Gotelli NJ, Colwell RK. 2001. Quantifying biodiversity: procedures and pitfalls in the measurement and comparison of species richness. *Ecology Letters* 4(4):379–391 DOI 10.1046/j.1461-0248.2001.00230.x.

Haddad NM, Crutsinger GM, Gross K, Haarstad J, Knops JMH, Tilman D. 2009. Plant species loss decreases arthropod diversity and shifts trophic structure. *Ecology Letters* 12(10):1029–1039 DOI 10.1111/j.1461-0248.2009.01356.x.

Hahn DA, Denlinger DL. 2007. Meeting the energetic demands of insect diapause: Nutrient storage and utilization. *Journal of Insect Physiology* 53(8):760–773 DOI 10.1016/j.jinsphys.2007.03.018.

Hammer Ø, Harper DAT, Ryan PD. 2001. PAST: Paleontological statistics software package for education and data analysis. *Palaeontologia Electronica* 4:1–9.

Hansen J, Sato M, Russell G, Kharecha P. 2013. Climate sensitivity, sea level and atmospheric carbon dioxide. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences* 371(2012):20120294 DOI 10.1098/rsta.2012.0294.

Haug GH, Tiedemann R, Keigwin LD. 2004. How the Isthmus of Panama put ice in the Arctic. *Oceanus* 42:94–97.

Haywood AM, Sellwood BW, Valdes PJ. 2000. Regional warming: Pliocene (3 Ma) paleoclimate of Europe and the Mediterranean. *Geology* 28(12):1063–1066 DOI 10.1130/0091-7613(2000)28<1063::AID-GEO2>2.0.CO;2.

Heck KL, van Belle G, Simberloff D. 1975. Explicit calculation of the rarefaction diversity measurement and the determination of sufficient sample size. *Ecology* 56:1459–1461 DOI 10.2307/1934716.

Heller NE, Zavaleta ES. 2009. Biodiversity management in the face of climate change: A review of 22 years of recommendations. *Biological Conservation* 142(1):14–32 DOI 10.1016/j.biocon.2008.10.006.

Hennissen JAI, Head MJ, De Schepper S, Groeneveld J. 2015. Increased seasonality during the intensification of Northern Hemisphere glaciation at the Pliocene–Pleistocene boundary ~2.6 Ma. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 129:321–332 DOI 10.1016/j.quascirev.2015.10.010.

Hilgen FJ. 1991. Astronomical calibration of Gauss to Matuyama sapropels in the Mediterranean and implication for the geomagnetic polarity timescale. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 104(2–4):226–244 DOI 10.1016/0012-821x(91)90206-w.

Hooper DU, Adair EC, Cardinale BJ, Byrnes JEK, Hungate BA, Matulich KL, Gonzalez A, Duffy JE, Gamfeldt L, O’Connor MI. 2012. A global synthesis reveals biodiversity loss as a major driver of ecosystem change. *Nature* 486(7401):105–108 DOI 10.1038/nature11118.

Hutchinson GE. 1959. Homage to Santa Rosalia or why are there so many kinds of animals? *American Naturalist* 93(870):145–159 DOI 10.1086/282070.
Ildefonse J-P, Bellon H, Pantaloni A, Philippet JC. 1972. Mise en évidence de la transition paléomagnétique Gauss-Matuyama dans les formations volcaniques de l’Escandorgue, Hérault, France. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 14(2):249–254 DOI 10.1016/0012-821x(72)90015-5.

Klopfér PH. 1959. Environnemental determinants of faunal diversity. *American Naturalist* 93(873):337–342 DOI 10.1086/282092.

Klopfér PH, MacArthur RH. 1960. Niche size and faunal diversity. *American Naturalist* 94(877):293–300 DOI 10.1086/282130.

Knobloch E. 1998. Der pliozäne laubwald Laubwald von willershausen Willershausen am harz (Mitteleuropa). *Documenta Naturae* 120:1–302.

Knops JM, Tilman D, Haddad NM, Naeem S, Mitchell CE, Haarstad J, Ritchie ME, Howe KM, Reich PB, Siemann E, Groth J. 1999. Effects of plant species richness on invasion dynamics, disease outbreaks, insect abundances and diversity. *Ecology Letters* 2(5):286–293 DOI 10.1046/j.1461-0248.1999.00083.x.

Knor S, Prokop J, Kváček Z, Janovský Z, Wappler T. 2012. Plant–arthropod associations from the Early Miocene of the Most Basin in North Bohemia—palaeoecological and palaeoclimatological implications. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* 321–322:102–112 DOI 10.1016/j.palaeo.2012.01.023.

Kolibáč J, Adroit B, Gröning E, Brauckmann C, Wappler T. 2016. First record of the family Trogossitidae (Insecta, Coleoptera) in the Late Pliocene deposits of Willershausen (Germany). *PalZ* 90(4):681–689 DOI 10.1007/s12542-016-0316-6.

Kürschner WM, van der Burgh J, Visscher H, Dilcher DL. 1996. Oak leaves as biosensors of late Neogene and early Pleistocene paleoatmospheric CO₂ concentrations. *Marine Micropaleontology* 27(1–4):299–312 DOI 10.1016/0377-8398(95)00067-4.

Labandeira CC. 2002. The history of associations between plants and animals. *Plant Animal Interactions: An Evolutionary Approach* 248:261.

Labandeira CC. 2012. *Evidence for Outbreaks from the Fossil Record of Insect Herbivory*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell, 267–290.

Labandeira CC, Currano ED. 2013. The fossil record of plant-insect dynamics. *Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences* 41(1):287–311 DOI 10.1146/annurev-earth-050212-124139.

Labandeira CC, Johnson KR, Wilf P. 2002. Impact of the terminal Cretaceous event on plant–insect associations. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 99(4):2061–2066 DOI 10.1073/pnas.042492999.

Labandeira CC, Kustatscher E, Wappler T. 2016. Floral assemblages and patterns of insect herbivory during the Permian to Triassic of Northeastern Italy. *PLOS ONE* 11(11):e0165205 DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0165205.

Labandeira CC, Wilf P, Johnson KR, Marsh F. 2007. *Guide to Insect (and other) Damage Types on Compressed Plant Fossils*. Washington, D.C.: National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution.

Lara ACF, Fernandes GW, Gonçalves-Alvim SJ. 2002. Tests of hypotheses on patterns of gall distribution along an altitudinal gradient. *Tropical Zoology* 15(2):219–232 DOI 10.1080/03946975.2002.10531176.

Leckey EH, Smith DM, Nufio CR, Fornash KF. 2014. Oak-insect herbivore interactions along a temperature and precipitation gradient. *Acta Oecologica* 61:1–8 DOI 10.1016/j.actao.2014.08.001.

Leroy SA, Roiron P. 1996. Latest Pliocene pollen and leaf floras from Bernasso palaeolake (Escandorgue Massif, Hérault, France). *Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology* 94(3–4):295–328 DOI 10.1016/s0034-6667(96)00016-4.
Macaluso L, Martinetto E, Vigna B, Bertini A, Cilia A, Teodoridis V, Kvaček Z. 2018. Palaeofloral and stratigraphic context of a new fossil forest from the Pliocene of NW Italy. Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology 248:15–33 DOI 10.1016/j.revpalbo.2017.08.005.

MacArthur RH. 1972. Geographical Ecology: Patterns in the Distribution of Species. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Magri D. 2010. Persistence of tree taxa in Europe and Quaternary climate changes. Quaternary International 219(1–2):145–151 DOI 10.1016/j.quaint.2009.10.032.

Mai DH. 1995. Tertiäre Vegetationsgeschichte Europas: Methoden und Ergebnisse. Stuttgart: Fischer.

Mai DH, Walther H. 1988. Die pliozänen Floren von Thüringen, Deutsche Demokratische Republik. Quartiärpaläontologie 7:55–297.

Médail F, Diadema K. 2009. Glacial refugia influence plant diversity patterns in the Mediterranean Basin. Journal of Biogeography 36(7):1333–1345 DOI 10.1111/j.1365-2699.2008.02051.x.

Meehl GA, Stocker TF, Collins WD, Friedlingstein P, Gaye AT, Gregory JM, Kitoh A, Murphy JM, Noda A, Raper SCB, Watterson IG, Zhao Z-C. 2007. Global Climate Projections. In: Solomon S, Qin D, Manning M, Chen Z, Marquis M, Averyt KB, Tignor M, Miller HL, eds. Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 748–845.

Meglitsch PA. 1972. Invertebrate Zoology. New York: Oxford University Press.

Meischner D, ed. 2000. Europäische Fossilagerstätten In: Der Pliozäne Teich von Willershausen Am Harz. New York: Pinna G, 223–228, 261.

Migliore J, Baumel A, Juin M, Médail F. 2012. From Mediterranean shores to central Saharan mountains: key phylogeographical insights from the genus Myrtus: phylogeography of the genus Myrtus. Journal of Biogeography 39:942–956 DOI 10.1111/j.1365-2699.2011.02646.x.

Mulder CPH, Koricheva J, Huss-Danell K, Högborg P, Joshi J. 1999. Insects affect relationships between plant species richness and ecosystem processes. Ecology Letters 2(4):237–246 DOI 10.1046/j.1461-0248.1999.00070.x.

Postigo Mijarra JM, Barrón E, Gómez Manzaneque F, Morla C. 2009. Floristic changes in the Iberian Peninsula and Balearic Islands (south-west Europe) during the Cenozoic. Journal of Biogeography 36(11):2025–2043 DOI 10.1111/j.1365-2699.2009.02142.x.

Price PW. 1991. The plant vigor hypothesis and herbivore attack. Oikos 62(2):244–251 DOI 10.2307/3545270.

Price PW. 2002. Resource-driven terrestrial interaction webs. Ecological Research 17(2):241–247 DOI 10.1046/j.1440-1703.2002.00483.x.

Price PW, Fernandes GW, Lara ACF, Brawn J, Barrios H, Wright MG, Ribeiro SP, Rothcliff N. 1998. Global patterns in local number of insect galling species. Journal of Biogeography 25(3):581–591 DOI 10.1046/j.1365-2699.1998.2530581.x.

R Development Core Team. 2014. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. Vienna: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Available at http://www.R-project.org/.

Ravelo AC, Andreasen DH, Mitchell L, Lyle AO, Wara MW. 2004. Regional climate shifts caused by gradual global cooling in the Pliocene epoch. Nature 429(6989):263–267 DOI 10.1038/nature02567.

Raymo ME, Mitrovica JX, O’Leary MJ, DeConto RM, Hearty PJ. 2011. Departures from eustasy in Pliocene sea-level records. Nature Geoscience 4:328–332 DOI 10.1038/ngeo1118.

Rohling EJ, Grant K, Bolshaw M, Roberts AP, Siddal M, Hemleben C, Kucera M. 2009. Antarctic temperature and global sea level closely coupled over the past five glacial cycles. Nature Geoscience 2:500–504 DOI 10.1038/ngeo557.
Saikkonen K, Taulavuori K, Hyvönen T, Gundel PE, Hamilton CE, Vänninen I, Nissinen A, Helander M. 2012. Climate change-driven species’ range shifts filtered by photoperiodism. *Nature Climate Change* 2(4):239–242 DOI 10.1038/nclimate1430.

Siemann E, Tilman D, Haarstad J. 1996. Insect species diversity, abundance and body size relationships. *Nature* 380(6576):704–706 DOI 10.1038/380704a0.

Stiling P, Cornelissen T. 2007. How does elevated carbon dioxide (CO₂) affect plant–herbivore interactions? A field experiment and meta-analysis of CO₂-mediated changes on plant chemistry and herbivore performance. *Global Change Biology* 13(9):1823–1842 DOI 10.1111/j.1365-2486.2007.01392.x.

Straus A. 1977. Gallen, Minen und andere Fraßspuren im Pliozän von Willershausen am Harz. *Verhandlungen des Botanischen Vereins der Provinz Brandenburg* 113:41–80.

Suc J-P. 1978. Analyse pollinique de dépots Plio-Pléistocènes du sud du massif basaltique de l’Escandorgue (Site de Bernasso, Lunas, Hérault, France). *Pollen Spores* 20:497–512.

Suc J, Popescu S. 2005. Pollen records and climatic cycles in the North Mediterranean region since 2.7 Ma. *Geological Society, London, Special Publications* 247(1):147–158 DOI 10.1144/gsl.sp.2005.247.01.08.

Taylor LL, Banwart SA, Valdes PJ, Leake JR, Beerling DJ. 2012. Evaluating the effects of terrestrial ecosystems, climate and carbon dioxide on weathering over geological time: a global-scale process-based approach. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 367(1588):565–582 DOI 10.1098/rstb.2011.0251.

Thiel C, Klotz S, Uhl D. 2012. Palaeoclimate estimates for selected leaf floras from the late Pliocene (Reuverian) of Central Europe based on different palaeobotanical techniques. *Turkish Journal of Earth Sciences* 21:263–287 DOI 10.3906/yer-1007-41.

Thunell RC. 1979. Pliocene-Pleistocene paleotemperature and paleosalinity history of the Mediterranean Sea: results from DSDP Sites 125 and 132. *Marine Micropaleontology* 4:173–187 DOI 10.1016/0377-8398(79)90013-6.

Titchener FR. 1999. Leaf feeding traces from the upper Pliocene fossil Lagerstätte of Willershausen, lower saxony, Germany. *Acta Palaeontologica* 5:403–409.

Turner BLI, Clark WC, Kates RW, Richards JF, Mathews JT, Meyer WB. 1990. *The Earth was formed by Human Action: Global and Regional Changes in the Past 300 Years*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tzedakis PC, Hooghiemstra H, Pälike H. 2006. The last 1.35 million years at Tenaghi Philippon: revised chronostratigraphy and long-term vegetation trends. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 25(23–24):3416–3430 DOI 10.1016/j.quascirev.2006.09.002.

Uhl D, Klotz S, Traiser C, Thiel C, Utescher T, Kowalski E, Dilcher DL. 2007. Cenozoic paleotemperatures and leaf physiognomy—a European perspective. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* 248(1–2):24–31 DOI 10.1016/j.palaeo.2006.11.005.

Uthescher T, Dreist A, Henrot A-J, Hickler T, Liu Y-S(Christopher), Mosbrugger V, Portmann FT, Salzmann U. 2017. Continental climate gradients in North America and Western Eurasia before and after the closure of the Central American Seaway. *Earth and Planetary Science Letters* 472:120–130 DOI 10.1016/j.epsl.2017.05.019.

van de Wal RSW, de Boer B, Lourens LJ, Köhler P, Bintanja R. 2011. Reconstruction of a continuous high-resolution CO₂ record over the past 20 million years. *Climate of the Past* 7(4):1459–1469 DOI 10.5194/cp-7-1459-2011.

Vinken R. 1967. Kurzer Überblick über die Geologie der Umgebung von Willershausen. *Berichte der Naturhistorischen Gesellschaft Hannover* 115:5–14.
Von Koenen A. 1895. Blatt Westerhof. Erl. Geol. Specialkt. Preußen und Thüringischen Staaten, 71. Lief. Grababtheilung 55:18.

Wappler T. 2010. Insect herbivory close to the Oligocene–Miocene transition—a quantitative analysis. *Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology* 292(3–4):540–550 DOI 10.1016/j.palaeo.2010.04.029.

Wappler T, Currano ED, Wilf P, Rust J, Labandeira CC. 2009. No post-Cretaceous ecosystem depression in European forests? Rich insect-feeding damage on diverse middle Palaeocene plants, Menat, France. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 276(1677):4271–4277 DOI 10.1098/rspb.2009.1255.

Wappler T, Grimsson F. 2016. Before the ‘Big Chill’: Patterns of plant-insect associations from the Neogene of Iceland. *Global and Planetary Change* 142:73–86 DOI 10.1016/j.gloplacha.2016.05.003.

Wappler T, Labandeira CC, Rust J, Frankenhaus H, Wilde V. 2012. Testing for the effects and consequences of mid paleogene climate change on insect herbivory. *PLOS ONE* 7(7):e40744 DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0040744.

Wegele H. 1914. *Stratigraphie und Tektonik der Tertiären Ablagerungen*. Göttingen: Druck von A. Rüttgerodt.

Wilf P. 2008. Fossil angiosperm leaves: paleobotany’s difficult children prove themselves. *Paleontological Society Papers* 14:319–333 DOI 10.1017/S1089332600001741.

Willeit M, Ganopolski A, Calov R, Robinson A, Maslin M. 2015. The role of CO₂ decline for the onset of Northern Hemisphere glaciation. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 119:22–34 DOI 10.1016/j.quascirev.2015.04.015.

Williams M, Haywood AM, Harper EM, Johnson AL, Knowles T, Leng MJ, Lunt DJ, Okamura B, Taylor PD, Zalasiewicz J. 2009. Pliocene climate and seasonality in North Atlantic shelf seas. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences* 367(1886):85–108 DOI 10.1098/rsta.2008.0224.

Wright MG, Samways MJ. 1998. Insect species richness tracking plant species richness in a diverse flora: gall-insects in the Cape Floristic Region, South Africa. *Oecologia* 115(3):427–433 DOI 10.1007/s004420050537.

Yang LH, Gratton C. 2014. Insects as drivers of ecosystem processes. *Current Opinion in Insect Science* 2:26–32 DOI 10.1016/j.cois.2014.06.004.

Zvereva EL, Kozlov MV. 2006. Consequences of simultaneous elevation of carbon dioxide and temperature for plant-herbivore interactions: a metaanalysis. *Global Change Biology* 12:27–41 DOI 10.1111/j.1365-2486.2005.01086.x.