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1	Interannual fluctuations in rainfall shift the functional structure of Mediterranean	
2	grasslands across gradients of productivity and disturbance	
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#### 13 ABSTRACT

14 Questions: How do interannual fluctuations in water availability affect the functional trait

15 patterns along spatial gradients of resource availability and disturbance?

16 Location: Mediterranean grasslands in central Spain, near Madrid

17 Methods: We surveyed plant communities from 66 sites under different grazing regimes (from

18 heavy grazing to grazing abandonment) in productive and unproductive habitats (corresponding

19 to upper and lower topographic zones) in two years with contrasting rainfall conditions.

20 Community weighted mean (CWM) and Rao quadratic entropy for three key plant ecology

21 strategy traits (specific leaf area, height and seed mass) were calculated for each community. We

22 used null models to estimate functional richness (FR) and functional divergence (FD), the two

components of functional diversity with the highest power to detect changes in communityassembly processes across environmental gradients.

25 **Results:** The patterns of CWM remained rather constant across years, with the only exception 26 being seed mass, which experienced considerable temporal changes that suggested that heavy-27 seeded species are favored under stressful conditions. Marked and unchanging differences in FR 28 between the two habitats revealed the existence of trait convergence -observed for vegetative 29 traits in unproductive habitats and seed mass in productive ones- and divergence -seed mass in 30 unproductive habitats and vegetative traits in productive ones- for different niche axes. In 31 contrast, the patterns of FD of the vegetative traits changed considerably between years. 32 **Conclusions:** Increased water availability during the wet year had a greater impact on the 33 functional structure of unproductive habitats. The appearance of taller species in unproductive 34 habitats during the wet year suggested a relaxation of the abiotic filters. In addition, differences 35 in the direction of the interannual changes of FD indicated that increased competition for light

36 can lead to increased niche partitioning in unproductive habitats, but also to the exclusion of

37 weak competitors in undisturbed productive sites. Our results show that the temporal changes in

the abundance of the species of Mediterranean grasslands largely depend on the species' traits,

39 leading to great interannual changes in its functional structure, and that the patterns of trait

40 convergence/divergence are, not only trait-dependent, but also depend on the complex

41 interaction between productivity and disturbance.

42 Keywords: Annual plants; community assembly; dehesa; functional divergence; functional

43 richness; grazing; productivity; species pool.

44 **Nomenclature**: Flora Europea (Tutin et al. 1964-1980)

45 **Running head:** Functional structure in Mediterranean grasslands

# 46 **INTRODUCTION**

47 Functional trait diversity is emerging as a powerful indicator of community assembly 48 processes in plant communities (Mason et al. 2005, 2012a; Villeger et al. 2008; de Bello et al. 49 2010). Recent work has used functional diversity indices to reveal changes in assembly processes 50 along spatial gradients of resource availability and disturbance (e.g. Cornwell & Ackerly 2009; 51 Pakeman et al. 2011; Mason et al. 2011, 2012). However, it remains unclear how temporal 52 variation in resource availability interacts with spatial gradients of stress and disturbance to 53 influence assembly processes in plant communities. This study uses functional diversity for plant 54 traits to explore how temporal and spatial variations in resource availability interact with grazing 55 disturbance to influence assembly processes in Mediterranean grassland communities.

Limitations in resource availability reduce the range of vegetative trait values that are viable within a given site, favouring species adapted to the local conditions (Grime 2006). This may increase the likelihood of co-existence between species with trait values similar to the local

59	optimum (Mouillot et al. 2007; Mason et al. 2012; Spasojevic & Suding 2012), leading to			
60	reduced functional diversity (convergence; Grime 2006). On the other hand, the principle of			
61	limiting similarity (MacArthur & Levins 1967) predicts that competition will impose a limit to			
62	how similar coexisting species can be. According to this principle, the traits of coexisting species			
63	should be more different than expected at random (divergence; Mason et al. 2012; Spasojevic &			
64	Suding 2012). However, competition can also increase similarity among coexisting species by			
65	excluding species bearing traits associated with low competitive ability (Chesson 2000, Grime			
66	2006, Mayfield and Levine 2010). Local increases in productivity produce a shift in the limiting			
67	factors for plant growth from soil resources to light, thus increasing the intensity of above-			
68	ground competition (Tilman 1988). For instance, low productivity selects for species with			
69	resource-retaining strategies (Cornwell & Ackerly 2009). Conversely, increased productivity,			
70	and hence increased competition for light, should enhance the abundance of fast-growing			
71	species, and lead to higher functional diversity for vegetative traits (Mason et al. 2011;			
72	Spasojevic & Suding 2012; Gross et al. 2013), although the latter may not be true when			
73	competition for light is very intense (e.g. Bernard-Verdier et al. 2012).			
74	Grazing also plays an important role as a determinant of the functional structure of plant			
75	communities (Carmona et al. 2012). Plants deal with grazing adopting two main strategies:			
76	avoidance and tolerance (Anderson & Briske 2005; Cingolani et al. 2005). The avoidance			
77	strategy involves vegetative traits that allow plants to reduce its accessibility and palatability			
78	(such as short statures, small leaves or rosette growth forms). In contrast, grazing-tolerant plants,			
79	which have the capacity to regrow quickly after defoliation, have traits associated with high rates			
80	of resource capture relative to their size, such as a high specific leaf area or high concentrations			
81	of Nitrogen in the leaves. As a result, tolerant plants are highly palatable and selected by			

82 herbivores, often leading to a positive feedback between grazing and plant quality (Cingolani et 83 al. 2005). Nevertheless, traits associated to grazing tolerance also entail a less efficient 84 conservation of resources, and therefore grazing tolerant responses are only expected to increase 85 with grazing when there is a sufficient availability of resources (Cingolani et al. 2005). With 86 respect to the distribution of trait values, disturbance has been considered as the most important 87 source of trait divergence, because biomass removal should prevent the exclusion of weak 88 competitors (Grime 2006; de Bello et al. 2013). However, recent studies have shown that 89 disturbance can also result in trait convergence (Mason et al. 2011; Pakeman et al. 2011; 90 Carmona et al. 2012; Laliberté et al. 2013), especially under harsh environmental conditions 91 (Carmona et al. 2012).

92 Indeed, the predominant assembly processes can differ between niche axes; Grime (2006) 93 suggested that, while divergence is common for reproductive traits, patterns of convergence 94 predominate for vegetative traits. Traits related with the regeneration stage of plants, such as 95 seed mass, play a crucial role in Mediterranean grasslands, where annual species are very 96 abundant, accentuating the influence of the germination and establishment stages on the species 97 composition of these systems (Espigares & Peco 1995). Seedlings coming from larger seeds are 98 known to have higher survival rates (Metz et al. 2010), especially under stressful conditions, 99 such as low availability of light and water (Moles & Westoby 2004). Therefore, high levels of 100 productivity, associated with low light availability, should enhance the abundance of species 101 with large seeds. On the other hand, small-seeded species produce greater numbers of seeds, 102 which in turn result in a better capacity to colonise the gaps produced by livestock and leads to 103 the increased abundance of such species under grazing conditions (Kohler et al. 2006; Peco et al. 104 2012; Dobarro et al. 2013).

105 In this context, temporal increases in water availability are very likely to alter the functional 106 structure of annual plant communities, by selecting for species with higher growth rates over 107 species that can tolerate low resource levels (Angert et al. 2009). Moreover, given that the effect 108 of grazing is strongly mediated by resource availability (Díaz et al. 2007a; Carmona et al. 2012, 109 2013), increased water availability is also likely to affect the patterns of functional structure 110 across grazing gradients, by enhancing the abundance of grazing-tolerant species along grazing 111 gradients. In addition, temporal increases in water availability, and hence enhanced seedling 112 survivorship, should result in increases in the abundance of small seeded species, especially 113 considering that small seeds persist in the seed banks for longer periods (Thompson et al. 1993).

114 Mediterranean grasslands are an excellent system for testing whether or not spatial patterns 115 in functional community structure are stable in the face of temporal fluctuation in resource 116 availability. One of the main features of Mediterranean climate is the high level of interannual 117 variability in rainfall, which generates a great variability in the productivity of Mediterranean 118 grasslands. This translates into significant interannual differences in the productivity, species 119 composition and diversity of these systems (Peco 1989; St. Clair et al. 2009; Fernández-Going et 120 al. 2012; Pérez-Camacho et al. 2012; Carmona et al. 2012). In this paper, we examine the 121 functional structure for three key plant traits (specific leaf area, height and seed mass; Westoby 122 1998) between two habitats differing in resource availability situated along a grazing intensity 123 gradient, in a wet and a dry year. We test whether patterns in functional community structure 124 across spatial gradients of resource availability and grazing vary between years of differing 125 rainfall. We expect that interannual changes in rainfall will change the most successful functional strategies, resulting in changes in the functional structure patterns. Specifically, we hypothesize 126 127 that: (1) increased water availability during the wet year should favour traits associated with

128 resource-acquiring strategies, such as high SLA or height; (2) these changes should be particularly evident in unproductive environments, because of the relaxation of the strong abiotic 129 130 filters that impose a great constraint to trait values during the dry year; (3) because productivity 131 modulates the effect of disturbance, interannual differences in water availability should alter the 132 plant strategies selected by grazing, from grazing-avoidance strategies (characterised by low 133 SLA values) in the dry year to grazing-tolerance strategies (characterised by high SLA values) in 134 the wet year; (4) higher levels of water availability during the wet year should intensify 135 competition for light leading to increased divergence in traits related with light use and 136 acquisition; however, in productive habitats with little or no grazing, very intense competition 137 for light may result in convergence by the exclusion of traits that confer weak competitive 138 ability; (5) given that large-seeded species are more likely to overcome stressful germination and 139 establishment conditions, enhanced conditions for small-seeded species during the wet year 140 should be reflected in a reduction in average seed mass accompanied by an increase in the range 141 of values of this trait (Table 1).

### 142 MATERIAL AND METHODS

#### 143 Study area

The study area  $(5 \times 4 \text{ km})$  is situated 35 km north of Madrid, in central Spain  $(40^{\circ}38' \text{ N};$ 3°70' W; mean elevation 860 m). Climate is Mediterranean, with annual rainfall (average ca. 540 mm, with high interannual variability) concentrated mainly in spring and autumn, with very dry summers. Mean annual temperature is *c*. 13°C. The landscape is characterised by moderate slopes, shallow acidic soils over a gneiss substratum and many rocky outcrops. Clearing of the original forest, where *Quercus ilex* subsp. *ballota* L. and *Juniperus oxycedrus* L. were the dominant tree species, resulted in a typical "dehesa" landscape with *c*. 40 trees/ha over a
grassland understorey with a high proportion (ca. 70%) of annual species.

152 Extensive grazing has been the dominant use in the region for centuries, but currently there 153 is great spatial variability in grazing intensity, with intensification in some areas and 154 abandonment in others (Peco et al. 2006). In order to cover a wide range of situations, we 155 selected sites with four different levels of grazing intensity: (1) areas in which grazing has been 156 abandoned; (2) areas grazed only occasionally; (3) areas where livestock is permanently present, 157 but in which grazing pressure is moderate because they are distant from points of livestock 158 concentration such as water and feeding points; (4) areas under permanent high levels of grazing 159 because they are close to points of livestock concentration. We made sure that the grazing status 160 of all the selected areas has remained unchanged for at least 30 years. Two different habitat types 161 can be distinguished within each of the grazing intensity levels: (1) productive habitats, located 162 at the bottom of slopes, characterised by their deep soils, and that receive water and nutrient 163 inflows; (2) unproductive habitats, on the upper slopes with shallower soils, and nutrient and 164 water outflows. In each of these eight 'habitat × grazing' levels we selected eight or nine 165 independent sites, always situated in areas with slopes under 5% (total of 66 sites). In order to 166 guarantee the independency of our sampling units, we made sure that all sites were sufficiently 167 separated, with a minimum distance between adjacent sites of 45 m, and an average of 106 m. 168 The differing topographic positions of the two types of habitats have led to differences in 169 their levels of soil water availability, clay percentage, total nitrogen and soil organic matter (Peco 170 et al. 2006), which result in a much lower plant productivity of upper-slope habitats (Casado et 171 al. 1985). For instance, soil analyses in the same 66 sites have revealed that the two habitats 172 differ in Total N (0.39 g/100 g  $\pm$  0.03 in productive vs. 0.18 g/100 g  $\pm$  0.01 in unproductive

173 habitats) and organic matter contents (7.02 g/100 g  $\pm$  0.77 in productive vs. 2.68 g/100 g  $\pm$  0.16 174 in unproductive habitats), but not in P content (7.78 ppm  $\pm$  1.50 ppm in productive vs. 8.34 ppm 175  $\pm$  1.73 ppm in unproductive habitats; Navarro 2013). In order to corroborate the differences in 176 soil water content between habitats, we collected and oven-dried a soil sample (5-cm cylinder of 177 98.17 cm<sup>3</sup>) from each site in April 2012. We defined the water content of these soil samples as 178 the ratio of the mass of water to the dry weight of the sample. As expected, we found significant 179 differences between the mean soil water contents of productive  $(33.04\% \pm 1.39\% \text{ SE})$  and 180 unproductive habitats (14.60%  $\pm$  1.09%). Accordingly, total plant cover in lower-slope habitats 181 is substantially higher than in upper-slope ones (ca. 82% vs 62%; Carmona et al. 2013).

### 182 Vegetation and functional traits sampling

183 At each site we set up three sampling quadrats  $(20 \times 20 \text{ cm})$ , always in the same relative 184 positions (1 m N, E and W from the site centre). We surveyed these quadrats twice, in the spring 185 of 2009 (dry year, with 315 mm of precipitation between October and June, which is ca. 65% of the long term average during that period) and 2010 (wet year, with 575 mm of precipitation, ca. 186 187 119% of the average precipitation between October and June). Interannual differences in 188 precipitation have an important effect on the productivity of grasslands, especially of those 189 situated in dry environments such as the studied ones (Yang et al. 2008; St. Clair et al. 2009). We 190 estimated the abundance of each species in each quadrat, using six cover classes: (0) absent; (1) 191 cover <1%; (2)  $1\% < \text{cover} \le 12\%$ ; (3)  $12\% < \text{cover} \le 25\%$ ; (4)  $25\% < \text{cover} \le 50\%$ ; and (5) 192 cover >50%. Subsequently, we assigned to each species the median value of its cover class, and 193 transformed these covers, by ensuring that the sum of all the covers of the species at each quadrat 194 was always 1.

195 We found a total of 177 species in the surveys (Appendix S1). For each species we collected 196 data on three functional traits -height, specific leaf area (SLA) and seed mass - related to 197 species' strategies in response to disturbance and productivity. Data on SLA and height were 198 taken from Peco et al. (2005) or measured in the cases in which such information was not 199 available. Plant height (distance between the plant base and the highest photosynthetic leaf) was 200 measured on 10 non-grazed mature individuals of each species, at least 25 m from each other, in 201 the areas where the species was more abundant. Height regulates plant responses to resource 202 availability and disturbance and can be interpreted as an indicator of successional status and 203 response to grazing (Westoby et al. 2002; Díaz et al. 2007a). Specific leaf area (SLA; mm<sup>2</sup>/mg) 204 was measured on the same individuals, dividing the leaf area by its oven-dried mass. SLA is an 205 indicator of resource-use strategies, with low SLA values being associated with long-lived 206 leaves, low relative growth rates and long residence times of nutrients (Westoby et al. 2002). 207 Seed mass was obtained in most cases from Azcárate et al. (2002), and new measurements were 208 taken for the species not included in that paper, following the same protocol (30 dry seeds per 209 species). Seed mass influences seedling survival -large-seeded species produce large seedlings 210 that survive better under difficult conditions such as shade, drought or defoliation- as well as the 211 colonisation capacity of species -species with large seed produce smaller numbers of seeds per 212 unit of mass (Westoby 1998; Moles & Westoby 2004). The three traits were independent, as 213 revealed by Mantel tests (9,999 permutations) performed between the respective matrices of trait distances between species (SLA-Height: r = -0.006, p = 0.495; SLA-Seed mass: r = -0.007, 214 215 p=0.423; Height-Seed mass: r = 0.02, p=0.249)

216 Functional structure calculation

217 The study of the variation in community functional structure along ecological gradients 218 requires the combined use of indicators of shifts in the functional composition and in the patterns 219 of trait convergence and divergence (Spasojevic & Suding 2012; Bernard-Verdier et al. 2012). 220 Changes in the functional composition of communities can be detected by analysing the patterns 221 of community average trait values (Pakeman et al. 2011; Mason et al. 2012). On the other hand, 222 functional diversity reveals the changes in the patterns of trait convergence/divergence 223 associated to changes in community assembly. Among the different components of functional 224 diversity, we analysed functional richness and functional divergence. Functional richness, an 225 indicator of the amount of niche space occupied by the species in a community (Mason et al. 226 2005), reveals the influence of trait-based assembly processes on species' occurrence. 227 Additionally, functional divergence, an indicator of the degree of trait divergence between the 228 most abundant species, can reveal effects of trait-based assembly processes on species' relative 229 abundances (Mason et al. 2012, 2013). While limiting similarity is associated with high 230 functional richness and divergence, abiotic filters reduce the values of these indicators (Mouchet 231 el at. 2010; Mason et al 2012). 232 To calculate these indices, we first log-transformed and standardised the SLA, height, and 233 seed mass values to a 0-1 scale. For each quadrat *i* we calculated the community weighted mean 234 (Díaz et al. 2007b) of each trait (CWM<sub>SLA</sub>, CWM<sub>Height</sub> and CWM<sub>Seed</sub>). Additionally, we 235 calculated, for each trait, a matrix of Euclidean distances between all possible species-pairs. In 236 order to have an indication of functional richness and functional divergence, we calculated the

Rao quadratic entropy (henceforth "Rao"; Rao 1982; de Bello et al. 2010) for each trait in each

238 quadrat and year. The Rao Index can be expressed as:

239 
$$Rao = \sum_{i=1}^{S} \sum_{j=1}^{S} d_{ij} p_{i} p_{j},$$

240 where  $d_{ii}$  expresses the dissimilarity between each pair of coexisting species *i* and *j* and 241 varies from 0 (two species with exactly the same trait values) and 1 (two species with completely 242 different traits).  $p_i$  and  $p_i$  indicate the relative abundances (in this case relative cover) of species i 243 and *j*. Rao is a combination of both functional richness and functional divergence (Mouchet et al. 244 2010). We chose Rao because it has been found to be a reliable index when analysing changes in 245 assembly processes across gradients of stress (Mason et al. 2012, 2013) and can take species' 246 relative abundances into account (de Bello et al. 2010). For each quadrat and year we calculated 247 two Rao values. The first one was calculated taking into account species' covers ("Rao<sub>ab</sub>"). For 248 the second Rao value we took into account only species' presences (i.e. assigning the same 249 abundance value to all the species in a quadrat; "Rao<sub>pr</sub>").

250 Both raw Rao values may be influenced by species richness (i.e. may be correlated with 251 species richness even in randomly generated data), especially when using presence/absence data 252 (Pavoine et al. 2013). Consequently, relationships between Rao and environmental gradients can 253 arise simply due to variation in species richness. To remove spurious effects of species richness 254 on Rao values, we compared observed Rao values with two different null models. First, we 255 compared the observed Rao<sub>pr</sub> of each quadrat with null values generated using a matrix-swap 256 null model (using 2000 initial swaps and 2000 swaps between calculation of each null value) 257 based on the species presence-absence matrix (177 species x 198 quadrats; Manly 1995). Given 258 the reduced geographical extension of our study area, we considered a common species pool for 259 all quadrats. Comparisons of observed Rao<sub>pr</sub> values with null values obtained following this 260 procedure are a powerful method to detect the effects of ecological processes on species'

261 occurrences, and are good estimators of functional richness (Mason et al. 2013). Second, we compared observed Rao<sub>ab</sub> with null values generated by randomising abundances across species 262 263 but within quadrats (Hardy 2008; Mason et al. 2012). This procedure preserves all the processes 264 that led to the observed composition, except those determining the abundances of species (Mason 265 et al. 2012). Comparing the observed Rao<sub>ab</sub> values with the Rao<sub>ab</sub> obtained in this second type of 266 randomisation provides a pure estimation of functional divergence. Simulation studies indicate 267 that these indices collectively provide a high level of power to detect changes in assembly 268 processes along environmental gradients (Mason et al. 2013). This method has been used before 269 in field-based studies (Mason et al 2011, 2012), showing its reliability to detect changes along 270 gradients.

We performed 10,000 randomisations of each null-model in order to calculate the standardised effect size (SESRao = [observed Rao – mean of simulated Rao]/standard deviation of simulated Rao; Gotelli &McCabe 2002). Subsequently, we averaged the values of the three quadrats of each site, thus obtaining two SESRao values per site: SESRao<sub>pr</sub> (observed Rao<sub>pr</sub> compared with the matrix-swap null model) and SESRao<sub>ab</sub>, (observed Rao<sub>ab</sub> compared with the null model randomising abundances across species but within 20 cm x 20 cm sampling quadrats). For convenience, we refer to them respectively as FR and FD henceforth.

# 278 Statistical analyses

We examined the influence of grazing intensity, habitat type and year on the CWM, FR and FD of the three studied traits by means of mixed effects models, with site as a random factor (Table 1). Given that in many occasions the variability between the groups was not uniform, we fitted 7 different models for each response variable: one model with no different spread per stratum and 6 models in which we allowed the variance to vary within groups. Such groups were 284 defined as the levels of each of the studied factors (grazing intensity, habitat type and year), as 285 well as their pairwise combinations. Subsequently, for each response variable, we selected the 286 model with the lowest AIC value (Zuur et al. 2009). We checked for spatial autocorrelation in 287 the residuals of the models using Mantel tests. Because our models included two observations of 288 each site (two different years), we performed two Mantel test for each model, with the matrix of 289 distances of the residuals of the dry and of the wet year, respectively, and the matrix of spatial 290 distances. Finally, for each model, we performed Bonferroni-corrected pairwise comparisons to 291 detect differences between grazing intensities within habitat types and year as well as interannual 292 changes within sites (differences between years within habitat types and grazing intensities). All 293 analyses were performed using R (R Development Core Team 2013).

#### 294 **RESULTS**

For CWM and FD, AIC values indicated that the models that considered different variances within groups were generally more parsimonious than those that assumed equal variance across strata. In contrast, the models with the lowest AIC scores for FR were those that did not considered differences in variance among groups (Appendix S2). In addition, the Mantel tests performed for each year and model revealed that there was not spatial autocorrelation in the residuals of the models (Appendix S3).

# **301 Patterns in the functional structure of vegetative traits**

302 Species with high SLA and low stature were more abundant under higher grazing intensities, 303 regardless of the year or habitat type (Table 2a; Fig. 1; Appendix S4). The communities of 304 productive habitats were composed of taller plants with lower SLA values than those of 305 unproductive habitats (Table 2a; Fig. 1). Although the patterns of average values of the studied 306 traits across grazing intensities and habitat types were consistent across years, the CWM<sub>SLA</sub> of the communities sited in unproductive habitats experienced significant interannual variations
(Table 2; Appendix S4). Importantly, the direction of this change was modulated by grazing
intensity, resulting in increased SLA values during the wet year in the most intensively grazed
areas and the opposite pattern in the less intensively grazed areas (Fig. 1a). In contrast,
CWM<sub>Height</sub> was rather constant across years in both habitat types across the whole grazing

312 gradient (Fig. 1b; Appendix S4).

313 High grazing pressures reduced the range of height values in unproductive habitats in both 314 years, but did not have any effect on productive habitats (Table 2b; Fig. 2b). In contrast, FR<sub>SLA</sub> 315 was not affected by grazing in any of the studied scenarios (habitats and years). Again, habitat 316 type played a very important role (Table 2b), with higher FR values in productive than in 317 unproductive habitats, for both SLA and height, during both years (Fig. 2b; Appendix S4). With 318 the exception of FR<sub>Height</sub> in unproductive habitats, which generally increased during the wet year, 319 the temporal variability in FR within habitats and grazing intensities was minor compared to the 320 differences between habitats (Fig. 2b).

321 On the contrary, the values of FD for vegetative traits experienced a much higher degree of 322 interannual variability. For instance, the effect of grazing on FD<sub>SLA</sub> contrasted markedly between 323 years, regardless of habitat type, with grazing having a significant and generally negative effect 324 on FD<sub>SLA</sub> during the dry year, and no effect during the wet year (Fig. 3). Interestingly, the 325 interannual variability in FD<sub>SLA</sub> within sites was contingent on habitat type: during the wet year 326  $FD_{SLA}$  increased in unproductive habitats throughout the grazing gradient, whereas it underwent 327 an important decrease in the communities of the productive habitats where grazing had been 328 abandoned (Fig. 3a). The high within-site temporal variability of FD<sub>SLA</sub> contrasted with the 329 temporal constancy observed in FD<sub>Height</sub> (Fig. 3a; Appendix S4).

#### **330** Patterns in the functional structure of seed mass

331 The average values of seed mass displayed a very complex response to grazing and 332 productivity. During the dry year, CWM<sub>Seed</sub> was higher in unproductive than in productive 333 habitats, but that relationship reversed during the wet year, especially in the most intensively 334 grazed sites, that experienced great interannual increases (in productive habitats) or reductions 335 (in unproductive habitats) in seed mass (Fig. 1c; Appendix S4). Seed mass decreased with 336 grazing, but only during the dry year in productive habitats and during the wet year in 337 unproductive ones (Fig. 1c). 338 The lack of any effect of grazing on the functional richness of seed mass contrasted with the 339 remarkable differences between habitats in this parameter. FR<sub>Seed</sub> was much higher in 340 unproductive than in productive habitats, a tendency that became even more evident during the 341 wet year (Fig. 2c; Appendix S4). Finally, none of the studied factors affected FD<sub>Seed</sub> or its 342 temporal variability (Table 2b and Fig. 3c).

# 343 **DISCUSSION**

344 Temporal and spatial variations in resource availability interact with disturbance in complex 345 ways, altering the functional structure of plant communities. Our results show that temporal 346 fluctuations can drive considerable variation in the functional trait patterns across gradients. As 347 we expected, the functional structure of unproductive habitats experienced greater interannual 348 variations than that of productive habitats (Hypothesis 2). Interannual changes in unproductive 349 habitats indicated a relaxation of the strength of abiotic filters during the wet year. The habitat-350 dependent direction of the interannual changes in functional divergence patterns suggested that 351 the outcome of competition for light depend on its intensity (Hypothesis 4). Grazing selected for 352 tolerance strategies more strongly during the wet year in unproductive environments, confirming 353 the role of productivity as a modulator of the effects of grazing on plant communities

354 (Hypothesis 3). Below, we discuss our main results in more detail, focussing successively on the

355 different traits considered.

# 356 **Patterns in vegetative traits**

357 Average SLA increased with grazing in all but the less productive scenario -unproductive 358 environments, dry year-, showing that grazing selects for tolerance strategies when there is 359 sufficient resource availability (Eskelinen et al. 2012). In addition, higher mean SLA values 360 during the wet year in the most intensively grazed sites of unproductive habitats was consistent 361 with the expected shift towards grazing-tolerance strategies when water availability increased 362 (Hypothesis 3). This shift can be mediated by a few abundant species; for instance, the 363 abundance of *Poa bulbosa*, a species with fast growth rates and a relatively high SLA value, 364 increased remarkably during the wet year (Appendix S5; Fig. A1). This increase is probably 365 related to the high sensitivity of *P. bulbosa* to water deficits (Mamolos et al. 2001) and with its 366 increased tolerance to grazing under high-resource-availability conditions (Staalduinen et al. 367 2010). Simultaneously, the abundances of species with rosette form and intermediate SLA 368 values, such as Leontodon taraxacoides or Hypochaeris glabra, decreased in unproductive 369 habitats during the wet year, suggesting that dry conditions favour grazing-avoidance strategies, 370 whereas more humid conditions favour grazing-tolerance strategies (Díaz et al. 2007a). On the 371 contrary, mean SLA decreased in the non-grazed sites during the wet year (Fig. 1a), suggesting 372 that within-site interannual changes in the most successful resource-use strategies are mediated 373 by the disturbance regime.

There were important differences between habitats in the patterns of functional richness for SLA, which were much higher in productive than in unproductive habitats. In contrast, habitat 376 type did not stand out as the main determinant of the patterns of functional divergence of SLA 377 (Table 2c). According to Hypothesis 4, we expected to observe trait convergence among the 378 most abundant species under low water availability and increased divergence under higher water 379 availability. The generalised increase in the divergence of SLA in unproductive habitats during 380 the wet year partially confirmed these predictions. The enhanced abundance of Vulpia myuros, a 381 graminoid with a much lower SLA value than the dominant *P. bulbosa*, contributed decisively to 382 this increase (Fig. 3a and Appendix S5; Fig. A2). In contrast, we also observed a great decrease 383 in the functional divergence of SLA during the wet year in the grazing-abandoned productive 384 habitats' communities (Fig. 3a and Appendix S5; Fig. A3). Apparently, under conditions that 385 favor strong competition for light (i.e. wet year, productive habitats and no grazing disturbance), 386 large differences in competitive abilities led to the preeminence of equalizing fitness mechanisms 387 and, as a consequence, to trait convergence (Chesson 2000; Grime 2006; Mayfield & Levine 388 2010). Our results suggest that functional divergence for SLA peaks at intermediate productivity 389 levels, a pattern similar to that reported by Bernard-Verdier et al. (2012) in Mediterranean 390 rangelands.

391 Unproductive habitats had, on average, shorter species than productive ones, which suggests 392 that the importance of competition for light increased with higher resource availability (Bernard-393 Verdier et al. 2012; Spasojevic & Suding 2012). In addition, grazing decreased average height, in 394 agreement with the results of previous studies (Peco et al. 2005; de Bello et al. 2005; Díaz et al. 395 2007a). Again, habitat type was the main driver of FR<sub>Height</sub>, with higher functional richness in 396 productive than in unproductive environments. This result, along with the above-mentioned for 397 FR<sub>SLA</sub>, corroborates that environmental filters impose significant restrictions to the range of 398 vegetative trait values present at a given site (Hypothesis 2; Grime 2006). This was further

399 confirmed by the increase in FR<sub>Height</sub> in unproductive habitats during the wet year (Fig. 2b), 400 where reduced water stress increased the occurrences of tall species. However, the enhanced 401 presence of these species was not accompanied by great increases in their abundances, as 402 suggested by the temporal consistency of mean height. Additionally, high grazing intensities 403 reinforced the effects of aridity, further reducing the small FR<sub>Height</sub> values in unproductive 404 habitats (Cingolani et al. 2005; Carmona et al. 2012). These results provide support for the 405 notion of disturbance as a force that leads to convergence in trait patterns (Mason et al. 2011; 406 Pakeman et al. 2011; Laliberté et al. 2013).

407 In general, the patterns of vegetative traits across the grazing gradient depended strongly on 408 rainfall conditions. Functional divergence decreased with grazing during the dry year, with the 409 only exception of height in productive habitats. However, the non-significant effect of grazing on 410 functional divergence observed during the wet year (Fig. 3) confirms that the effects of grazing 411 are highly influenced by the productivity level (Milchunas et al. 1988, de Bello et al. 2006; 412 Carmona et al. 2012). Future studies including a wider range of productivity conditions would 413 help to discern the conditions in which disturbance acts as a driver of trait divergence (Grime 414 2006) or convergence.

### 415 Seed mass

As expected, grazing reduced mean seed size (Peco et al; 2005; Kohler et al. 2006; Dobarro et al. 2013), but these reductions were highly context-dependent. Interannual differences in mean seed size increased with grazing intensity, but the direction of this change depended on habitat type. As a result, average seed size was higher in unproductive habitats during the dry year, whereas it maximized in productive habitats during the wet year (Fig. 1c). These results, which are in agreement with Hypothesis 5, suggest that increased stress levels, manifested as increased 422 shading in productive habitats during the wet year, and as severe constraints on water availability 423 in unproductive habitats during the dry year, select for large-seeded species with higher 424 survivorship rates in stressed conditions (Moles & Westoby 2004). In addition, the increase in 425 average seed mass experienced by the most intensively grazed productive sites during the wet 426 year is consistent with a reduction in the availability of regeneration gaps -of which small seeded 427 species take advantage (Kohler et al. 2006)- caused by livestock trampling and defoliation. 428 Between-habitat differences in productivity played a major role determining the functional 429 richness of seed mass, which was greater in unproductive than in productive habitats. These 430 differences further increased during the wet year (Table 2b), associated with the aforementioned 431 reduction in average seed mass in unproductive habitats and the increase in productive habitats. 432 For instance, in unproductive habitats, we observed increased presence and abundance of small-433 seeded species (e.g. Tuberaria guttata, Spergula arvensis or Vulpia myuros) during the wet year, 434 combined with a decline of species with heavy seeds (e.g. Biserrula pelecinus, Brassica 435 barrelieri or Erodium cicutarium). The functional richness of seed size displayed the opposite 436 pattern in productive habitats (Appendix S5; Fig. A4). The interannual changes observed for 437 FR<sub>Seed</sub> can be caused by the capacity of small seeds to persist in the seed bank for longer times 438 than large seeds (Thompson et al. 1993). Thus, small-seeded species present in the seed bank 439 probably experienced buffered population growth (Chesson 2000), i.e. enhanced germination and 440 seedling survivorship under less stressful environmental conditions (higher water availability in 441 unproductive habitats during the wet year and higher light availability in productive habitats 442 during the dry year, respectively). The appearance of small-seeded species along with the 443 presence of large-seeded ones in the communities regardless of water availability would 444 therefore explain the increase in FR<sub>Seed</sub> values under favourable conditions.

Finally, the lack of effect of any of the studied factors on the functional divergence of seed mass is in line with previous results (Viard-Crétat et al. 2011). In this sense, it is important to note that patterns of divergence or convergence in seed size would indicate a great importance of seedling-seedling interactions, which rarely occur in natural or experimental conditions (Peco & Espigares 1994; Moles & Westoby 2004; Ben-Hur et al. 2012).

# 450 **Concluding remarks**

451 Our results suggest that wet years foster trait diversity in unproductive habitats, while dry 452 years allow resource-retaining species, which are poor competitors for light, to remain in the 453 communities. Therefore, resource fluctuations seem to promote the diversity of trait values, 454 playing an important role in the maintenance of diversity (Chesson et al. 2004). The present 455 study provides support for the consideration of disturbance as a driver of functional convergence 456 (e.g. Pakeman et al. 2011), rather than a source of trait divergence (Grime 2006).

457 The application of an approach similar to the one presented here can help to reduce the 458 number and importance of possible confounding factors, opening a new and promising venue for 459 the study of changes in patterns of trait convergence/divergence associated to shifts in resource 460 availability or disturbance. However, we are aware of the potential confounding effects of factors 461 other than the total amount of rainfall, which are likely to have changed between years. For 462 example, small-seeded species are favored in years with early autumn rains, whereas large-463 seeded species are more abundant after dry autumns (Peco et al. 2009). Another possible caveat 464 of our study is the lack of consideration of dispersal limitation, which might reduce the 465 functional pool available at each site (Myers & Harms 2009), and have a confounding effect on 466 our FR analyses. Finally, we want to stress that we only considered a single average trait value 467 per species regardless of the year. Therefore, our study only considers differences in functional

468 structure caused by changes in species composition, but not those due to within-species 469 variability (Lepš et al. 2011). Among the studied traits, height is the most likely to experience 470 within-species variation associated to environmental changes (Garnier et al. 2007), a feature that 471 can be behind the lack of interannual changes in mean height values. Studies using a similar 472 research framework, but including a higher number of years, as well as considering the possible 473 effects of dispersal limitation and within-species variability in trait values, are needed in order to 474 adequately describe the role of temporal variation in resource availability.

475 The temporal consistency and the importance of the differences in average trait values and 476 functional richness between habitats indicate that long-term and sustained differences, such as 477 the ones produced by the different topographical positions between unproductive and productive 478 habitats, have a great influence on these values through trait-mediated changes in the species 479 pool. This contrasted with the great interannual changes observed for the functional divergence 480 of the vegetative traits, particularly for SLA. Interannual changes in functional divergence show 481 that the temporal fluctuations in the abundance of the species of Mediterranean grasslands 482 largely depend on the species' traits. Our results illustrate that the patterns of trait 483 convergence/divergence are, not only trait-dependent, but also depend on the complex 484 interaction between productivity and disturbance. Most importantly, we provide evidence 485 showing that the conclusions drawn from studies analysing the trait patterns across ecological 486 gradients can be substantially modified by temporal fluctuations in resource availability. Our 487 findings indicate that the results derived from a single year should be considered with caution. 488 Consequently, we recommend that future studies analysing these patterns should take into 489 account the temporal fluctuations in resource availability, especially in plant communities 490 dominated by annual species.

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# 674 Supporting Information

- 675 Appendix S1. Species recorded in the study.
- 676 **Appendix S2**. AIC values of the different linear mixed effects models.
- 677 Appendix S3. Results of the Mantel tests performed to check for spatial autocorrelation in the
- 678 residuals of the models
- 679 Appendix S4. Mean values of the different indicators of functional structure for each functional
- trait and combination of grazing, habitat productivity and year.
- 681 Appendix S5. Additional figures.

683	Table 1 Main hypotheses tested	, reasoning for each and expected results.
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Hypothesis	Reasoning	Expected results
1. Higher SLA or Height during	Increased water availability favours	Significant Year effect.
the wet year.	resource-acquiring strategies.	
2. Greater increases in SLA or	The constraint to trait values imposed	Significant Year x Habitat
Height in unproductive habitats.	during dry years is greater in unproductive habitats.	interaction.
3. Plant strategies selected by grazing differ among years.	Productivity modulates the effect of grazing.	Significant <i>Year x Grazing</i> interaction.
4. Higher FD for traits related	Intensified competition for light	Significant Year x Grazing x
with light acquisition during the wet year; especially in	during the wet year may leave to greater trait divergence, but can also	Habitat interaction.
unproductive habitats or	increase dominance in undisturbed	
ungrazed and productive sites.	productive environments.	
5. Smaller seeds, and greater	Enhanced conditions for small-seeded	Significant Year effect.
FRSeed during the wet year.	species during the wet year, but no	
	reason for heavy seeds to dissapear.	

**Table 2** Results of the linear mixed models analysing the values of the community weighted686mean (CWM), functional richness (FR) and functional divergence (FD) for each687functional trait. Grazing intensity, habitat type and year as well as their interactions were688used as fixed-effects explanatory variables. Site was used as a random factor. *P*-values689are shown in brackets. Significant results (P < 0.05) are in bold.

	SLA		Height	Seed mass
	df	F	F	F
	<i>a</i> )	CWM		
Grazing intensity	3	19.88 (<0.001)	65.02 (<0.001)	4.99 (0.004)
Habitat	1	109.64 (<0.001)	208.73 (<0.001)	1.47 (0.230)
Year	1	<0.001 (0.989)	0.02 (0.877)	5.46 (0.022)
Grazing × Habitat	3	3.39 (0.012)	3.21 (0.029)	1.19 (0.321)
Grazing × Year	3	9.93 (<0.001)	1.31 (0.279)	0.03 (0.993)
Habitat × Year	1	10.96 (0.002)	1.31 (0.257)	57.75 (<0.001)
$Grazing \times Habitat \times Year$	3	0.39 (0.764)	1.39 (0.253)	4.20 (0.009)
-	<b>b</b> )	FR		
Grazing intensity	3	0.57 (0.639)	7.28 (<0.001)	1.02 (0.393)
Habitat	1	122.75 (<0.001)	128.78 (<0.001)	99.11 (<0.001)
Year	1	0.93 (0.338)	3.36 (0.072)	0.04 (0.834)
Grazing × Habitat	3	0.23 (0.873)	14.94 (<0.001)	1.59 (0.201)
Grazing × Year	3	0.72 (0.546)	1.82 (0.154)	0.270 (0.847)
Habitat × Year	1	0.20 (0.660)	14.46 (<0.001)	16.16 (<0.001)
$Grazing \times Habitat \times Year$	3	2.28 (0.089)	0.485 (0.694)	0.01 (0.999)
-	c) FD			
Grazing intensity	3	5.21 (0.003)	3.93 (0.013)	0.21 (0.890)
Habitat	1	5.28 (0.025)	26.21 (<0.001)	2.21 (0.143)
Year	1	17.32 (<0.001)	6.60 (0.013)	< 0.001 (0.987)
Grazing × Habitat	3	1.64 (0.191)	2.25 (0.093)	0.56 (0.643)
$Grazing \times Year$	3	3.24 (0.028)	0.97 (0.414)	0.43 (0.735)
Habitat × Year	1	49.70 (<0.001)	0.219 (0.641)	0.11 (0.739)
$Grazing \times Habitat \times Year$	3	5.21 (0.003)	5.36 (0.003)	0.23 (0.874)

### 691 FIGURE LEGENDS

**Figure 1.** Boxplots showing the effect of grazing intensity (1: abandoned; 2: grazed

693 occasionally; 3: grazed moderately; 4: overgrazed) and year (dry and wet) on the community

694 weighted mean values of the different functional traits for each grazing intensity level and year,

695 in productive (left) and unproductive (right) habitats. When the effect of grazing is significant,

696 different letters for each year (lower case for the dry year and upper case for the wet year)

697 indicate significant differences between grazing intensity levels. Similarly, asterisks show

698 significant differences between years for a given habitat type and grazing intensity level. Outliers

are not shown to improve the clarity of the figures.

**Figure 2.** Boxplots showing the effect of grazing intensity (1: abandoned; 2: grazed

701 occasionally; 3: grazed moderately; 4: overgrazed) and year (dry and wet) on functional richness

702 (FR; SESRao<sub>pr</sub>) values of the different functional traits for each grazing intensity level and year,

in productive (left) and unproductive (right) habitats. Interpretation of the statistical results is as

in Fig. 1. Outliers are not shown to improve the clarity of the figures.

**Figure 3.** Boxplots showing the effect of grazing intensity (1: abandoned; 2: grazed

occasionally; 3: grazed moderately; 4: overgrazed) and year (dry and wet) on functional

707 divergence (FD; SESRao<sub>ab</sub>) values of the different functional traits for each grazing intensity

role level and year, in productive (left) and unproductive (right) habitats. Interpretation of the

statistical results is as in Fig. 1. Outliers are not shown to improve the clarity of the figures.

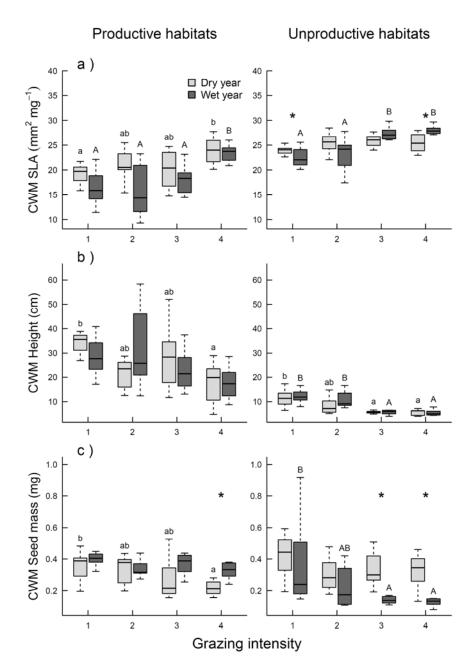
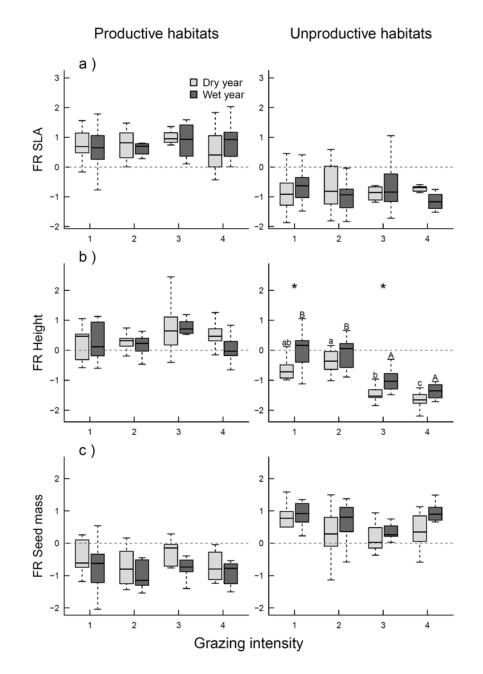
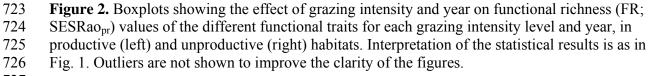
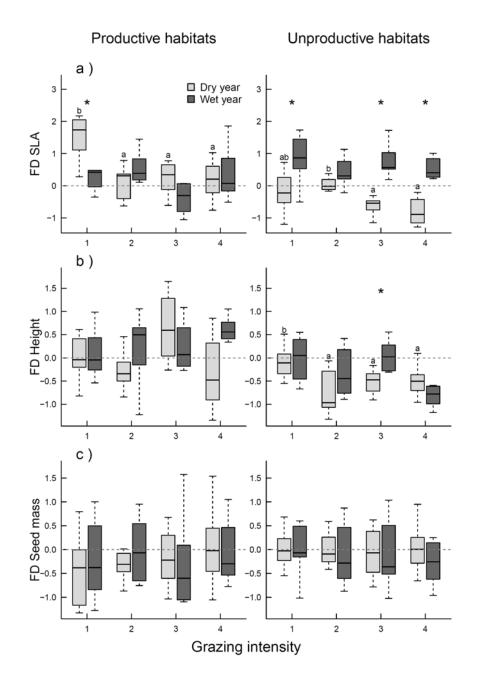


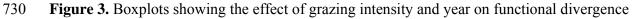
Figure 1. Boxplots showing the effect of grazing intensity and year on the community weighted mean values of the different functional traits for each grazing intensity level and year, in productive (left) and unproductive (right) habitats. When the effect of grazing is significant, different letters for each year (lower case for the dry year and upper case for the wet year) indicate significant differences between grazing intensity levels. Similarly, asterisks show significant differences between years for a given habitat type and grazing intensity level. Outliers are not shown to improve the clarity of the figures.











(FD; SESRao<sub>ab</sub>) values of the different functional traits for each grazing intensity level and year,

732 in productive (left) and unproductive (right) habitats. Interpretation of the statistical results is as

733 in Fig. 1. Outliers are not shown to improve the clarity of the figures.