1 Title: Press-pulse interactions and long-term community dynamics in a Chihuahuan Desert

- 2 grassland
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18 Abstract

19 Questions: Reordering of dominant species is an important mechanism of community response 20 to global environmental change. We asked how wildfire (a *pulse* event) interacts with directional 21 changes in climate (environmental presses) to affect plant community dynamics in a Chihuahuan 22 Desert grassland. 23 Location: Sevilleta National Wildlife Refuge, Socorro County, New Mexico, USA 24 Methods: Vegetation cover by species was measured twice each year from 1989 to 2019 along 25 two permanently located 400 m long line intercept transects, one in Chihuahuan Desert 26 grassland, and the second in the ecotone between Chihuahuan Desert and Great Plains 27 grasslands. Trends in community structure were plotted over time, and climate sensitivity 28 functions were used to predict how changes in the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) affected 29 vegetation dynamics. 30 **Results:** Community composition was undergoing gradual change in the absence of disturbance 31 in the ecotone and desert grassland. These changes were related to the reordering of abundances 32 between two foundation grasses, Bouteloua eriopoda and B. gracilis, that together account for 33 >80% of aboveground primary production. However, reordering varied over time in response to 34 wildfire (a *pulse*) and changes in the PDO (a *press*). Community dynamics were initially related 35 to the warm and cool phases of the PDO, but in the ecotone these relationships changed 36 following wildfire, which reset the system. 37 **Conclusions:** Species reordering is an important component of community dynamics in response 38 to ecological presses. However, reordering is a complex, non-linear process in response to 39 ecological presses that may change over time and interact with pulse disturbances.

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41 Key words: *Bouteloua eriopoda*; *Bouteloua gracilis*; Climate change; Desert grassland; Fire,
42 Pacific Decadal Oscillation, Species reordering.

43

44 INTRODUCTION

45 Most ecological communities are undergoing directional change in response to a variety of 46 natural and anthropogenic forces even in the absence of disturbance (Blowes et al. 2019). These 47 forces include environmental presses, such as climate change or N deposition, that occur over the 48 long term. Presses can elicit gradual change in ecological communities toward tipping points at 49 which the system abruptly switches from one ecosystem state to another (Beisner et al. 2003). In 50 contrast, disturbance (*pulse*) events, defined as relatively discrete events (e.g., wildfire) that 51 reduce dominance and free up resources (Jentsch and White 2019), can cause abrupt changes in 52 composition that may initiate recovery processes or also result in a new alternative stable state 53 (e.g., Scheffer et al. 2001, Allen et al. 2015). Given the pervasiveness of both forces, it is likely 54 that presses and pulses will frequently interact to affect the dynamics and stability of ecological 55 communities now and in the future (Scheffer et al. 2001).

56 Under the Hierarchical Response Framework (Smith et al. 2009) ecosystems respond to 57 environmental presses through a series of processes, starting with phenotypic plasticity of 58 individuals, followed by a reordering of dominance (rank abundance) among species, and finally 59 by species turnover via colonization and local extinction. Phenotypic responses can be relatively 60 rapid but are unlikely to generate persistent change in ecosystem processes over time. Species 61 turnover, via dispersal and establishment, could take decades to occur, especially in ecosystems 62 dominated by long-lived species. Thus, community reordering, a change in the ranking of extant 63 species abundances (Avolio et al. 2019), may be a key mechanism for community change at

64 intermediate (multi-year) time scales.

65 Reordering among dominant species within and among functional groups may be a critical process for understanding how ecological communities will respond to global environmental 66 67 change (Magurran et al. 2010, Gravel et al. 2016). Reordering may occur among species in 68 similar or different functional groups (grasses, forbs, legumes) under ecological presses and 69 pulses. Moreover, species within the same functional group can differ widely in their biotic 70 interactions, traits, and influence on ecosystem processes (e.g., Magurran and Henderson 2010, 71 Griffin-Nolan et al. 2019). For example, reordering of species led to changes in total 72 aboveground net primary production (ANPP) in a long-term irrigation experiment (Collins et al. 73 2012, Knapp et al. 2012), and reordering was shown as the primary driver of community 74 composition change across taxa in a long-term observational study (Jones et al. 2017). 75 Predicting how plant communities respond to global environmental change requires 76 understanding differential sensitivities of species not only to mean trends in global 77 environmental drivers, but also to change in the variability around the mean (Rudgers et al. 2018, 78 Gherardi and Sala 2019). Dry grasslands in the Southwestern US can be especially sensitive to 79 climate variability (Knapp and Smith 2001, Gherardi and Sala 2019) as well as to disturbances, 80 such as exceptional drought or fire (Parmenter 2008, Knapp et al. 2015). Because these systems 81 are primarily water limited, precipitation can strongly regulate ecosystem processes in drylands 82 (Collins et al. 2008b, 2014, Knapp et al 2015). Major climate drivers in the Southwestern US 83 include the annual North American Monsoon, which regulates summer precipitation, and the El 84 Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO), which varies over 3-6 year intervals and influences 85 winter/spring precipitation. In addition, the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), a 10-20 year 86 ENSO-like pattern of Pacific sea surface variability (Zhang et al. 1997), modulates the ENSO

87 generating decades-long cycles between dry and wet conditions (Gutzler et al. 2002, Petrie et al. 88 2014). In the Southwestern US, precipitation typically increases during the warm phase of the 89 PDO. Around 1998, the PDO started to transition to the cool phase, corresponding to a period of 90 prolonged regional drought and years of low productivity, especially during the early 2000s 91 (Breshears et al. 2005, Muldavin et al. 2008). From 2013 to 2015, the PDO transitioned back to 92 the warm phase (Meehl et al. 2016) portending a likely increase in annual precipitation over the 93 next ~2 decades, consistent with regional rainfall trends over the past ~450 years in response to 94 the PDO (Milne et al. 2003).

95 In addition to climate fluctuations driven by ENSO and the PDO, the Southwestern US has 96 experienced an increase in mean annual temperature (Gutzler and Robbins 2011), but no change 97 in mean annual precipitation during the summer monsoon over the past 100 years (Petrie et al. 98 2014). As a consequence of the increase in mean annual temperature, aridity has increased over 99 the last century (Gutzler and Robbins 2011). Furthermore, Rudgers et al. (2018) found that both 100 mean and variability in aridity increased in central New Mexico, USA, over the past 100 years. 101 Changes in mean and variance of aridity were strongly related to differential, nonlinear responses 102 of net primary production in Great Plains grassland dominated by blue grama (Bouteloua 103 gracilis) versus Chihuahuan Desert grassland dominated by black grama (B. eriopoda). Under 104 wetter/cooler conditions, increasing climate variability favored production in Great Plains (blue 105 grama) grassland, whereas under hotter/dryer conditions greater variability favored Chihuahuan 106 Desert (black grama) grassland. Thus, the current trend of increasing aridity and variability are 107 likely to accelerate reordering of these dominant grasses where they co-occur. 108 In this study, we used long-term species composition data from two 400-m long line

109 intercept transects, one in desert grassland dominated by black grama and the other in an ecotone

110 where both blue and black grama co-occur, in central New Mexico, USA, to quantify how 111 increasing aridity (an ecological press) and wildfire (an ecological pulse) interact to affect 112 species reordering and community dynamics. Prior to a wildfire in 2009, abundance of black 113 grama in the ecotone grassland was increasing at more than twice the rate of blue grama over a 114 20-year period (Collins and Xia 2015). However, unlike blue, black grama is highly sensitive to 115 fire. Therefore, natural disturbances, such as wildfire, might reverse the trajectory of change 116 across this ecotone, despite background increases in aridity. We focused on responses by the two 117 dominant grasses because these foundation species govern community structure and ecosystem 118 functioning in this system (Peters and Yao 2012). Here, we addressed the following questions. 119 (1) Is community composition undergoing directional change in the absence of disturbance, and 120 how does fire affect these dynamics? (2) Is reordering of dominant species a consistent driver of 121 directional change, and are these changes related to cycles of the PDO? (3) Do species-specific 122 sensitivities to the average and variability in climate aid in predicting the reordering process? 123

124 METHODS

125 Study site. This study was conducted from 1989 through 2019 at the Sevilleta National Wildlife 126 Refuge (SNWR, latitude 34°20'N and longitude 106°43'W), Socorro County, New Mexico, 127 USA. As noted above, two grassland communities occur in the SNWR separated by a narrow 128 ecotone – Chihuahuan Desert grassland to the south and Great Plains grassland to the north 129 (Hochstrasser et al. 2002). Together, the two grasses that dominate, blue and black grama, 130 account for >80% of total plant cover (Collins and Xia 2015), and they influence the abundances 131 of subdominant species (Peters and Yao 2012, Mulhouse et al. 2017). Other common species at 132 this site include scattered shrubs or subshrubs (e.g., Yucca elata and Ephedra torrevana), as well

133 as a mix of other grasses (e.g., Pleuraphis jamesii, Sporobolus spp., Aristida spp.) and some 134 common forbs (Machaeranthera spp., Astragalus spp., Sphaeralcea spp. Chaetopappa ericoides, 135 Solanum elaeagnifolium, Hoffmannseggia drepanocarpa and Melampodium leucanthum) 136 (Mulhouse et al. 2017). Soils are Typic Haplargids derived from piedmont alluvium. Soil texture 137 in the upper 20 cm, where highest root biomass occurs (Kurc and Small 2007), is 68% sand, 22% 138 silt, and 10% clay, with 2% calcium carbonate (Kieft et al. 1998). Water-holding capacity and 139 nutrient reserves are very low (Zak et al. 1994), and these soils are highly erodible when 140 vegetation cover is removed following fire (Ravi et al. 2007). 141 Although congeners, the two dominant grasses differ in a number of key functional traits. 142 Black grama is a shallow-rooted, perennial, C₄ grass that spreads primarily via stolons (Fields et 143 al. 1999). Blue grama, on the other hand, is a long-lived, perennial, C₄ bunchgrass (Gibbens and 144 Lenz 2001) that grows via basal tillering and often forms rings (Ravi et al. 2008). Populations of 145 both species also exhibit considerable local genetic variability indicative of sexual reproduction 146 (Whitney et al. 2019; Hoffman et al. 2020). 147 The climate of the region is mid-elevation continental, with relatively hot summers and 148 cold winters. Average annual temperature is 13.2°C (average daily temperature is 1.6°C in 149 January and 25.1 °C in July). Average annual precipitation at the site is ~250 mm, ~60% of 150 which occurs during the summer monsoon that typically extends from early July through early

152 during fall, winter and early spring.

151

Vegetation sampling. We measured vegetation cover by species in May and September
each year from 1989 to 2019, along two permanently located 400 m long line intercept transects
(Collins 2020). Each transect, one in Chihuahuan Desert grassland (hereafter referred to as desert

September (Notaro et al. 2010). Remaining precipitation comes as a mixture of snow and rain

156 grassland) dominated by black grama, and one in the ecotone between Chihuahuan Desert and 157 Great Plains grassland (hereafter referred to as ecotone) where black and blue grama co-occur, 158 was oriented north-south, with the end of the ecotone transect located approximately 0.5 km 159 north of the start of the desert grassland transect. In August 2009 a lightning-caused wildfire 160 burned all of the ecotone transect where strong reordering had been occurring, but not the more 161 stable desert grassland transect. To sample vegetation cover in each site, a 100-m measuring tape 162 was affixed to the 0-m rebar stake and run south to the 100-m transect marker. To minimize vear-to-vear variation in transect location, the tape was attached to permanent pieces of rebar 163 164 spaced along the 100-m segment and stretched as tightly as possible to get the straightest line. 165 Sampling on windy days was avoided. Each species or substrate (e.g., litter, bare soil) 166 encountered along the line was recorded at 1 cm resolution, noting the place the species or 167 substrate first crossed the tape. Plants smaller than 1 cm were assigned a cover interval of 1 cm. 168 The ending point was considered to be the starting point of the next species or substrate. Thus, 169 there are no gaps in the data stream along each transect. This procedure was then repeated for 170 each of the remaining three 100 m long segments along each 400 m sampling transect. These 171 transects have been sampled annually in spring and fall since 1989 yielding a very high 172 resolution data set on species composition and vegetation change under increasing aridity and 173 climate variability over the past 30 years. We used start-stop distances by species to determine 174 total cover for each species along each transect in each year. The maximum cover value (May or 175 September) recorded for each species along each transect was used to assess community 176 structure and dynamics. 177

178 Data analysis.

179 In the following sections analyses were organized in relation to phases of the PDO and fire. 180 Ecotone analyses were partitioned as follows: from 1989-1998 during the prior warm phase of 181 the PDO, from 1999-2008 during the cool phase of the PDO and prior to the wildfire, and during 182 post-fire recovery from 2009-2019, which occurred over the most recent transition from the cool 183 to warm phase of the PDO. At the desert grassland site, which did not burn, the analyses were 184 partitioned from 1989-1998 (warm phase of PDO), 1999-2014 (cool phase of the PDO), and 185 2015-2019 (warm phase of the PDO). 186 Is community composition undergoing directional change in the absence of disturbance, and 187 how does fire affect these dynamics?

188 To address this question, we used separate 2-axis non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) 189 ordinations to visualize long term community dynamics for the desert grassland and ecotone 190 transects. In addition, species richness and total cover of grasses and forbs were calculated at the 191 transect scale and plotted by year to visualize how fire and climate affected these components of 192 the vegetation. We then used perMANOVA with unrestricted permutation of raw data to 193 determine if community composition differed pre- and post-fire in the ecotone grassland, or 194 between the warm and cool phases of the PDO in the ecotone and desert grasslands. 195 Is reordering a consistent driver of directional change and if so, are these dynamics related to

196 the PDO cycle?

197 To answer this question, we correlated changes in the abundance of the dominant grasses 198 with year, and with year partitioned by the different phases of the PDO. Abundance of the 199 dominant perennial grasses can change via two quantifiable mechanisms, a change in the number 200 of "individuals" (by clonal reproduction, seed reproduction, or death) and by a change in the 201 average size of individuals. In this case, an individual is a segment of the line intercept tape

202 covering a species. Obviously, the tape intersects both the edge and center of individual grass 203 clones, but averaging over hundreds of individuals along each transect minimizes this bias. We 204 quantified the number of occurrences of "individuals" and average clone size for blue and black 205 grama across each 400 m transect. We used linear regression to determine if the abundance of 206 the dominant species, average size of dominants, or number of individual clones changed over 207 time, and how those changes were affected by fire at the ecotone site. We then used ANOVA to 208 determine if these variables differed pre- and post-fire (ecotone grassland transect) or during the 209 warm and cool phases of the PDO (desert grassland transect).

210

Do species-specific sensitivities to the average and variability in the PDO aid in predicting the
reordering process?

213 Finally, to answer this question, we used a long-term *biomass* data set and climate 214 variables collected at multiple sites across this grassland from 1999 to 2019 to explore how 215 aboveground biomass of black and blue grama correlated with changes in the Pacific Decadal 216 Oscillation Index. We related peak fall biomass of blue and black grama to the average PDO 217 Index during each growing season (March-September) each calendar year from 1989-2019. 218 For this analysis, we used data from replicated $1-m^2$ permanent plots, rather than line 219 transect data, because these widely distributed quadrats covered a much broader range of climate 220 and environmental conditions than the line intercept transects, maximizing our ability to make 221 inferences about the relationship of the dominant grasses to the PDO. Peak biomass was 222 estimated for each species using a nondestructive volumetric method that estimates biomass 223 allometrically via linear regression models developed for each species over multiple years from 224 plants collected outside of the permanent sampling plots (Muldavin et al. 2008; Rudgers et al.

225 2019). In each permanently located 1-m² plot, we measured percentage cover and height (to the 226 nearest cm) for all individual plants at peak biomass (September) in each year, then used these 227 data to predict live biomass for each species in each quadrat. For black grama, this included 2404 228 plot by year combinations; blue grama had 1280 plot by year observations. Only quadrats in 229 which the grasses occurred were used in these analyses.

230 We determined PDO climate sensitivity functions (Rudgers et al. 2018) using linear and 231 nonlinear regressions of peak biomass against the six-month averaged PDO Index. Because 232 plants were repeatedly measured in permanent plots, we included the random effects of both 233 sampling site, quadrat and year to account for non-independence of observations. Mixed effects 234 models were fit via maximum likelihood using lme in package <nlme> (Pinheiro et al. 2018, R 235 Core Team 2018). We selected the best model from among a linear, quadratic, or cubic model 236 via model selection procedures with the AICc criterion and determined marginal and conditional 237 r^2 values (Burnham and Anderson 2002).

238

239 **RESULTS**

240 **Community dynamics**.

Ecotone grassland. From 1989 through 2008 this grassland community was undergoing weak directional change, with some degree of year to year fluctuations in community composition (Figure 1A). Community change also occurred during the cool phase of the PDO from 1999 through 2008. The wildfire in 2009 altered community composition, which exhibited post-fire dynamics during the cool and warm phases of the PDO from 2009-2015 and 2015-2019, respectively. This community has been relatively stable over the past five years despite a likely transition to the warm phase of the PDO around 2015. Based on perMANOVA results,

248 overall community composition at the ecotone differed significantly pre- vs. post-fire (Pseudo F249 = 4.93, P = 0.0021), and in the warm and cool phases of the PDO (Pseudo F = 11.73, P = 0.001). 250 Desert grassland. Grassland composition at this site also showed weak directional change 251 from 1989 through 1999 during the last warm phase of the PDO (Figure 1B). Community change 252 shifted to an alternate state when the PDO changed to the cool phase from 1999 through 2015. 253 Although this transect was not burned in 2009, community composition nevertheless has again 254 undergone directional change primarily during the cool phase of the PDO. After the PDO 255 switched back to the warm phase in 2015, community composition has continued on a trajectory 256 away from the prior state during the previous warm phase of the PDO from 1989 through 1998. 257 Based on perMANOVA results overall community composition differed significantly between 258 the warm and cool phases of the PDO (Pseudo F = 11.73, P = 0.001). 259 **Species richness** 260 Species richness was relatively low along both transects during the first five years of data 261 collection (Figure 2). From 1994 through 2019 mean annual species richness along each 400 m 262 transect was 32.5 ± 5.2 sd at the ecotone and 33.1 ± 4.5 sd in the desert grassland. Annual

263 species richness over time was highly correlated between the two sites (r = 0.66, P < 0.001) yet

species richness was not correlated to monsoon or annual precipitation at either site (P > 0.06 in

both cases). At both sites, species richness declined dramatically in 2009, the year of the

266 wildfire. However, mean species richness across years did not differ pre- $(32.0 \pm 5.5 \text{ sd})$ versus

267 post-fire $(32.4 \pm 4.1 \text{ sd})$ at the ecotone $(F_{1,29} = 0.04, P = 0.84)$, nor in the desert grassland

268 between the warm (28.6 \pm 6.9 sd) and cool (32.5 \pm 5.4 sd) phases of the PDO ($F_{1,29} = 3.17, P =$

269 0.09).

270 Functional types

271	Total vegetation cover along each 400-meter line intercept transect averaged 192.7 ± 60.3
272	m sd (48% \pm 15%) and 221.4 \pm 43.4 m sd (55% \pm 11%) at the ecotone and desert grassland,
273	respectively, from 1989 through 2019. Grasses accounted for $84.6\% \pm 4.8\%$ and $87.0\% \pm 11.2\%$
274	of total cover at the ecotone and desert grasslands, respectively. Total cover of grasses generally
275	increased at the ecotone until the wildfire in 2009. Grass cover at the ecotone declined 96%
276	between 2008 and 2009, directly after the fire, and 41% between 2008 and 2010, after one year
277	of recovery (Figure 3A). Grass cover then peaked in 2013, a year with high monsoon rainfall.
278	Grass cover did not decline along the unburned desert grassland transect in 2009 but cover also
279	peaked in 2013 (Figure 3B). Grass cover then declined and remained relatively constant from
280	2014 through 2019 at both sites. Grass cover was positively correlated to monsoon precipitation
281	in the ecotone ($r = 0.23$, $P = 0.009$) but not in the desert grassland ($r = 0.07$, $P = 0.172$).
282	Forbs accounted for $6.3\% \pm 5.2\%$ sd and $9.7\% \pm 11.7\%$ sd of total cover at the ecotone
283	and desert grassland, respectively. Forb cover was positively correlated with grass cover at the
284	ecotone ($r = 0.27$, $P < 0.005$) but not in the desert grassland ($r = 0.03$, $P > 0.10$). Forb cover was
285	positively correlated to monsoon precipitation at the ecotone ($r^2 = 0.18$, $p = 0.018$) and desert (r^2
286	= 0.30, p $= 0.002$) grasslands.

287 Dynamics of blue and black grama

Ecotone grassland. Cover of blue grama increased significantly from 40 to 80 m (out of a possible 400 m) across all years from 1989 to 2019 (r = 0.37, P < 0.001; Figure 4A). Cover of blue grama did not change during the earlier warm phase (1989-1998) of the PDO (r = 0.07, P =0.45) nor the cool phase from 1999-2008 ($r \sim 0.0$, P = 0.85), but did significantly increase from 35.2 to 58.4 m in the PDO cool phase after the fire ($F_{1,18} = 38.1$, p < 0.001). Cover of blue grama remained high, 71.2 m, throughout the PDO cool and warm phases following the wildfire

from 2010 to 2019, which was a significant increase from its pre-fire cover ($F_{1,29} = 5.67$, P =294 295 0.02). Similarly, there was no overall change in cover of black grama from 1989 to 2019 (r \sim 0, p 296 = 0.80; Figure 4A). During the early warm phase from 1989-1998 cover of black grama 297 increased significantly (r = 0.65, P = 0.005) but, like blue grama, cover of black grama did not 298 change during the cool phase of the PDO from 1999 to 2008 ($r \sim 0$, P = 0.89), and cover of this 299 foundation species decreased >50% following the wildfire causing a reordering of dominance 300 (Appendix S1). Cover has since fluctuated but generally increased since 2010 (r = 0.45, p =301 0.03), whereas cover of blue grama has not increased (r = 0.02, p = 0.70) since the wildfire 302 reversing the reordering process. 303 Prior to the fire the average size of blue and black grama individuals was 0.13 and 0.22 304 m, respectively. After the fire, average size of blue grama individuals increased significantly to 305 0.18 m ($F_{1,29} = 4.29$, P=0.05), whereas average size of black grama individuals remained the 306 same at 0.19 m ($F_{1,29} = 1.80$, P = 0.19; Figure 4B). Prior to the fire the average number of 307 individuals of blue and black grama was 369.7 and 446.8 per 400 m, respectively. After the fire, 308 the average number of individuals of blue grama increased significantly to 407.6 per 400 m ($F_{1.29}$ 309 = 0.70, P = 0.41), whereas average number of individuals of black grama decreased significantly 310 to 348.2 per 400 m ($F_{1,29} = 6.32$, P = 0.02; Figure 4C). The average size of both species has 311 increased steadily, and the average number of individuals has declined since the wildfire in 2009 312 (Figure 4). 313 Desert grassland. Cover of black grama did not change across all years from 1989 to 314 2019 (r = 0.06, P = 0.182; Figure 4D) with total cover ranging from ~100 m in 1990 to ~200 m in 2013. Total black grama cover was significantly greater ($F_{1,29} = 39.0$, p < 0.001) during the

316 cool phase of the PDO (152.17 ± 18.6 m) than in the warm phases (113.59 ± 15.1 m). Likewise,

315

317

517	cover of once grania enanged nucle from 1969 to 2019 (1. 6, p. 6.6, 1 igure 1D) out was
318	significantly greater during the cool phase of the PDO ($F_{1,29} = 15.4$, p < 0.001), increasing from
319	26.2 ± 5.7 m to 35.6 ± 7.3 m.
320	During the warm phase of the PDO, the average size of blue and black grama individuals
321	was 0.12 and 0.21 m, respectively (Figure 4E). During the cool phase of the PDO, the average
322	size of blue grama individuals was essentially unchanged (0.13 m; $F_{1,29} = 1.23$, $P = 0.28$),
323	whereas average size of black grama individuals increased significantly to 0.25 m ($F_{1,29} = 5.50$, P
324	= 0.027). Also, during the warm phase of the PDO, the number of individuals of blue and black
325	grama was 237 and 560 per 400 m, respectively (Figure 4F). During the cool phase of the PDO,
326	the average number of individuals of blue grama increased significantly to 276 per 400 m ($F_{1,29}$ =
327	5.96, $P = 0.021$), whereas average number of individuals of black grama decreased slightly to
220	(10 mor 100 m (E) - 2.22 B - 0.14)

cover of blue grama changed little from 1989 to 2019 (r~0, p=0.8; Figure 4D) but was

328 619 per 400 m ($F_{1,29} = 2.22, P = 0.14$).

329 Climate sensitivity functions.

The relationships between aboveground biomass and the PDO index differed between blue and black grama (species identity * PDO index, $X^2 = 7.40$, P = 0.007). Black grama had a steeper slope and some evidence in support of a nonlinear relationship (quadratic PDO term: P = 0.06; linear model: Beta = 11.8, s.e. = 5.58, $X^2 = 4.48$, P = 0.03). For blue grama, the strength of association with the PDO was weaker, and nearly significantly different from zero (Beta = 5.6, s.e. = 3.12, $X^2 = 3.27$, P = 0.07)

337

338 **DISCUSSION**

Both desert grassland and ecotone communities have been undergoing compositional change in
the absence of disturbance, caused primarily by species reordering. However, the rate of change

341 has varied over time and between the ecotone and desert grassland. In the ecotone, dynamics 342 appear to be driven partly by climate presses that shift along with the Pacific Decadal 343 Oscillation, in combination with a pulse disturbance, wildfire. We found evidence of reordering 344 among dominant species in the ecotonal community, but the direction of reordering changed with 345 wildfire and climate variability. Following wildfire, both the number of individuals and average 346 plant size of black grama decreased, whereas these parameters increased for blue grama. In 347 contrast, in the desert grassland, which did not burn, black grama increased on three occasions 348 and then gradually declined over time. Species richness initially increased along both transects 349 and then fluctuated over most of the study period. The fire in 2009 negatively affected richness 350 along the ecotone transect but richness recovered rapidly following the fire. The PDO based 351 climate sensitivity functions were consistent with the observed temporal patterns of species 352 reordering. These functions suggested that black grama was more sensitive to changes in the 353 PDO than blue grama. If precipitation increases, as expected during the warm phase of the PDO, 354 interannual variability in climate should favor the abundance of black over blue grama. It 355 remains unclear, however, how these dynamics may change as aridity increases under climate 356 change.

Over the 31-year study, cover of black grama increased in some years in both grassland sites (e.g., 1999). Peters and Xao (2012) found that black grama quickly colonized vacant space via stolons following the removal of blue grama in a long-term experiment. Thus, this species is capable of rapid growth when conditions are appropriate. Growth of blue grama, a much longerlived species (Gibbens and Lenz 2001), is constrained by its caespitose morphology at this site (Ravi et al. 2008; Hoffman et al. 2020). Following the fire at the ecotone, however, cover of black grama declined to levels less than in 1989 when measurements started, whereas cover of

364 blue grama was unaffected by fire. Prior research has shown that black grama recovers slowly 365 following fire (Parmenter 2008), whereas abundance of blue grama is generally insensitive to fire 366 (Ladwig et al. 2014). Since the fire, however, black grama has been recovering at a similar rate 367 comparable to its growth from 1989-1998, during the prior warm phase of the PDO, whereas 368 cover of blue grama has not changed. It remains to be seen if this pattern will continue under the 369 warm phase when precipitation is generally expected to increase over the next ~ 2 decades, or if 370 the steep rise in interannual variability in aridity (Rudgers et al. 2018) may increasingly 371 influence these dominant species.

372 By nearly all outcomes of interspecific interactions, blue grama should be replacing black 373 grama, and yet the opposite has been occurring. In both field and greenhouse experiments, blue 374 grama was a superior competitor to black grama (Peters and Yao 2012, Chung and Rudgers 375 2017). Further, blue grama responded positively to additions of as little as 2 g N m⁻²yr⁻¹ 376 reflecting trends in N deposition expected to occur over the next century (Báez et al. 2007), 377 whereas cover of black grama declined after 15 years of high rates of experimental N addition 378 (10 g N m⁻²yr⁻¹) at this site (Ladwig et al. 2012). Finally, rates of leaf-level carbon fixation were 379 greater and lasted longer in blue compared to black grama after rainfall pulses in plots where the 380 species co-occurred (Thomey et al. 2014). Only one manipulation has promoted superiority of 381 black grama thus far: black, but not blue, grama increased rapidly under experimental nighttime 382 warming during an above average monsoon, and average temperatures have warmed in this 383 region over the last century (Gutzler and Robbins 2011). Thus, black grama is negatively 384 impacted by pulse disturbance (fire) and N fertilization, but can respond favorably to large 385 rainfall pulses and climatic presses (Thomey et al. 2011).

386 As noted above, reordering is not an orderly process, and the rate of change can be cyclic in

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387 response to presses, such as the PDO. Beyond the influence of climate and interspecific 388 competition, an additional hypothesis for reordering dynamics observed here is negative plant-389 soil feedbacks (PSF; Bever et al. 1997). Negative PSFs, perhaps operating in conjunction with 390 fluctuations in the PDO, could promote coexistence between these two foundation grasses. 391 Negative feedbacks occur when plants promote the development of microbial communities in 392 their rooting zone and adjacent soil that are more detrimental to themselves than to their 393 competitors (Bever et al. 1997). Negative PSFs increase the strength of intraspecific vis-à-vis 394 interspecific competition, which theory predicts will stabilize species coexistence over the long 395 term (Crawford et al. 2019). Field experiments conducted next to the ecotone transect found 396 evidence for the existence of negative PSFs (Chung et al. 2019). Moreover, the strength of PSF 397 effects was a function of plant frequency, such that the abundance of each foundation species 398 increased when it was rare, which theory predicts will also promote long-term, stable coexistence 399 of competitors (Chesson 2000). Thus, large-scale, long-term fluctuations in climate (presses) 400 along with local scale, short-term negative PSFs could interact to generate long-term coexistence 401 of these dominant C₄ perennial grasses.

402 Is there evidence that community reordering matters? As noted earlier, a long-term irrigation 403 experiment in tallgrass prairie led to reordering among dominant grasses (Collins et al. 2012) 404 resulting in a significant increase in net primary production (Knapp et al. 2012). In prairies at 405 Cedar Creek, Minnesota, chronic N addition caused a decline in species richness and a 406 reordering of species abundance rankings over a 5-8 year period (Tilman 1987). Under N 407 addition, the non-native, C₃ annual grass, Agropyron repens, gained dominance over the native, C4 perennial grass, Schizachyrium scoparium (Collins et al. 2008a). As an ecosystem-scale 408 409 consequence, total plant production in N plots was less resistant and resilient to a one-year severe

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drought compared to higher diversity plots dominated by native grasses (Tilman and Downing
1994). Furthermore, changes in dominant species under high levels of N addition have reduced
net primary production as rapidly growing forbs replace the larger perennial grasses (Isbell et al.
2013).

414 How might community reordering affect ecosystems in the Southwestern US? Over the 415 long-term, data suggest that black grama is replacing blue grama as aridity increases, however, 416 fire resets this pattern by dramatically decreasing black grama abundance. For 20 years prior to 417 the fire, black grama increased in the ecotone at a rate twice as fast as blue grama (Collins and 418 Xia 2015). This change in abundances in response to climate drivers has impacts for carbon 419 dynamics. For example, above and belowground production was higher in black compared to 420 blue grama grassland (Collins, unpublished). This suggests that reordering (higher cover of black 421 and lower cover of blue grama) would increase above- and belowground NPP over the long term, 422 and potentially increase soil carbon content. However, this is not the case. Belowground standing 423 crop biomass (live plus dead) was 27% higher in blue compared to black grama grassland 424 (Holguin et al. unpublished). Less carbon is stored in black grama grassland despite higher 425 above- and belowground production because ecosystem respiration rates were higher in desert 426 grassland under increasing aridity (Petrie et al. 2015).

In addition to carbon dynamics, woody plant encroachment is an ongoing global
phenomenon in which native C₃ shrubs and trees are invading and replacing C₄ dominated
grasslands (Eldridge et al. 2011). It has been estimated that nearly 20 million ha of grassland
have been invaded by woody species across the southwestern US during the last 150 years (van
Auken 2000). In our system, shrub encroachment occurs primarily in areas dominated by black
grama (Peters et al. 2006). If reordering results in black grama replacing blue grama, the stage

433 may be set for further shrub encroachment, which, in turn, may increase carbon sequestration in 434 this region (Petrie et al. 2015). Thus, reordering of the foundation grasses, driven primarily by 435 increasing aridity, has clear consequences for carbon cycle processes along with the potential to 436 facilitate shrub encroachment into grassland.

437 In conclusion, we found that community composition was undergoing gradual change in the 438 absence of disturbance primarily in response to climate, especially in the ecotone grassland. 439 These changes reflected reordering of abundances between the two foundation grasses that 440 account for >80% of aboveground primary production in this system. Community dynamics 441 were strongly related to the warm and cool phases of the PDO, but these relationships changed 442 following wildfire, a pulse disturbance, which reset the system. None of the patterns reported 443 here would be detectable without high-resolution, long-term data sets. This is especially true for 444 the ecotone transect which was formerly reported to be transitioning from dominance by blue 445 grama to black grama prior to the wildfire in 2009 (Collins and Xia 2015). Within shorter 446 intervals of this long-term time series, abundance of black grama can be seen as increasing, 447 staying the same or decreasing over time. Moreover, our long-term record of vegetation change 448 allowed us to begin to tease apart how these two dominant species responded to long-term 449 ecological climate presses, the PDO and increasing aridity, and how those presses interacted with 450 a pulse disturbance, wildfire, to not only drive change but also reset the system.

451 Overall, community reordering is a key process embedded in the Hierarchical Response 452 Framework, but reordering is not an orderly process. Rather, community dynamics reflect the 453 interactions among ecological presses (e.g., climate drivers), pulses (e.g., wildfire) and small-454 scale species interactions, such as negative PSFs, that can shift reordering processes over the 455 long-term. Initial conditions favor one species over the other and as conditions change this

456 pat	tern is reversed.	Nevertheless,	more attention	to the	causes and	l consequence	es of	f community
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- 457 reordering is needed because reordering can alter key ecosystem processes and potentially
- 458 promote transitions to alternative stable states.
- 459

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- 464

465 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

466 Date were collected as part of the Sevilleta Long-term Ecological Research Program. S.L.C.

467 conceived of the analyses, all authors performed statistical analyses, S.L.C. wrote the first draft

468 and all authors contributed to writing and editing the manuscript.

469

470 DATA ACCESSIBILITY

471 Raw data are available through the Environmental Data Initiative at

472 https://doi.org/10.6073/pasta/63f506aaf52e7a6ecb3fb296b9e83478

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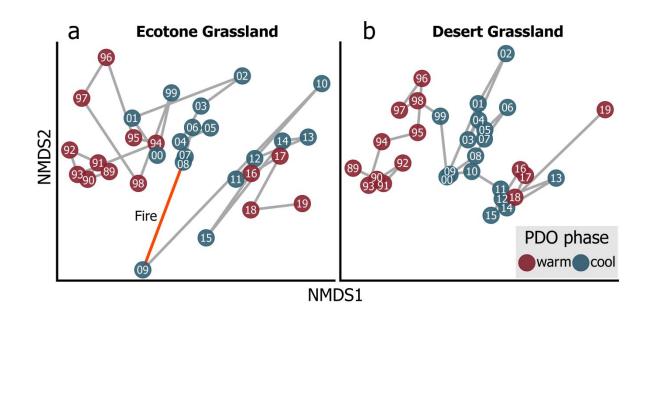
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- 671
- 672 Appendix S1. Proportional change in abundance of the dominant grasses.
- 673 674
- Appendix S2. Climate sensitivity function models for *Bouteloua gracilis* and *B. eriopoda*.

Figure 1. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordinations of community composition from two 400-m long line intercept transects (Desert Grassland and Ecotone Grassland) in the Sevilleta National Wildlife Refuge, New Mexico, USA. Colors correspond to the warm and cool phases of the Pacific Decadal Oscillation. Numbers correspond to years starting in 1989 and ending in 2019. A wildfire burned through the ecotone transect in August 2009 (red line). Stress values were 0.18 and 0.19 for the Ecotone and Desert grasslands, respectively.



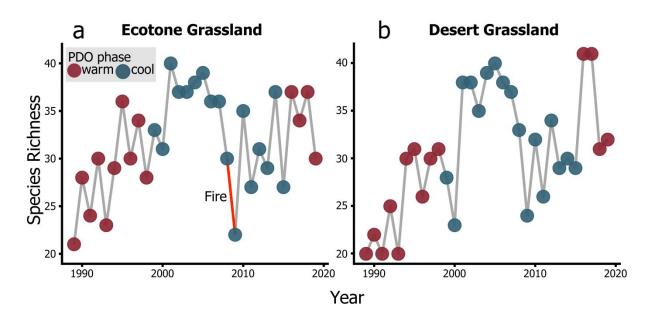
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Figure 2. Plant species richness from 1989 through 2019 along two 400-m long line intercept transects, one in desert grassland dominated by *Bouteloua eriopoda* and one in an ecotone area where *B. eriopoda* and *B. gracilis* co-occur in the Sevilleta National Wildlife Refuge, New Mexico, USA. Colors correspond to the warm and cool phases of the Pacific Decadal Oscillation. A wildfire burned through the ecotone transect in August 2009 (red line).



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Figure 3. Cover of grasses and forbs from 1989 through 2019 along two 400-m long line
intercept transects, one in desert grassland dominated by *Bouteloua eriopoda* and one in an
ecotone area where *B. eriopoda* and *B. gracilis* co-occur in the Sevilleta National Wildlife
Refuge, New Mexico, USA. Colors correspond to the warm and cool phases of the Pacific
Decadal Oscillation. A wildfire burned through the ecotone transect in August 2009 (red line).

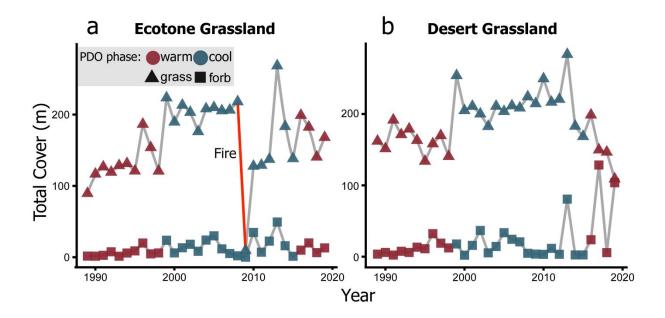
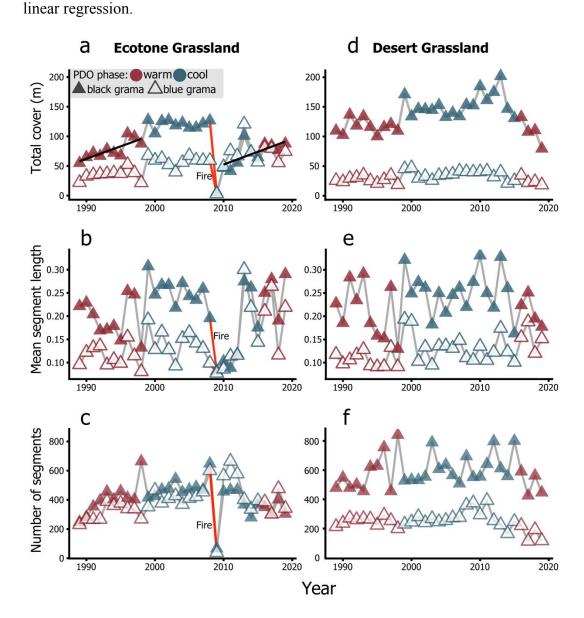


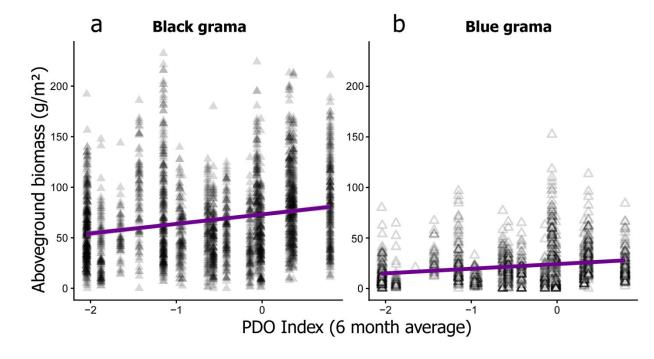
Figure 4. Change in abundance, mean number of individuals and mean individual size for black grama (*Bouteloua eriopoda*) and blue grama (*B. gracilis*) from 1989 through 2019 along two 400-m long line intercept transects, one in desert grassland dominated by *Bouteloua eriopoda* and one in an ecotone area where *B. eriopoda* and *B. gracilis* co-occur in the Sevilleta National Wildlife Refuge, New Mexico, USA. Colors correspond to the warm and cool phases of the Pacific Decadal Oscillation. A wildfire burned through the ecotone transect in August 2009 (red lines). Solid line segments in (a) represent significant increases in cover of black grama based on linear regression.



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Figure 5. Climate sensitivity functions for 13-15 years of aboveground net primary production by
(A) blue grama (*Bouteloua gracilis*), and (B) black grama (*B. eriopoda*) in relation to the Pacific
Decadal Oscillation. The Chihuahuan Desert grass, black grama, is more responsive to changes
in the PDO than the Great Plains dominant, blue grama. Significance is based on mixed effects
models. See Methods for details.

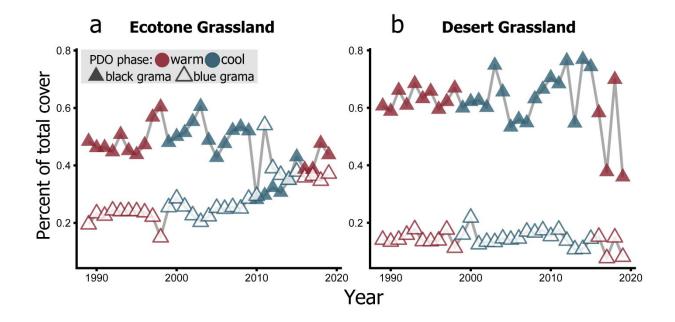
724



Supporting information to the paper

Collins, S.L. et al. Press-pulse interactions and long-term community dynamics in a Chihuahuan Desert grassland. *Journal of Vegetation Science.*

Appendix S1. Relative cover (total cover of a species in meters divided by 400m) of blue grama (*Bouteloua gracilis*) and black grama (*B. eriopoda*) from 1989 through 2019 along two 400-m long line intercept transects, one in desert grassland dominated by *B. eriopoda* and one in an ecotone area where both grasses co-occur in the Sevilleta National Wildlife Refuge, New Mexico, USA. Colors correspond to the warm and cool phases of the Pacific Decadal Oscillation.



Supporting information to the paper

Collins, S.L. et al. Press-pulse interactions and long-term community dynamics in a Chihuahuan Desert grassland. *Journal of Vegetation Science*.

Appendix S2. Climate sensitivity function models for *Bouteloua gracilis and B. eriopoda*.

Model selection procedures

B. gracilis	df	AICc	marginal R ²
	·		
			0.060
Linear	6	10510.23	
Quadratic	7	10512.23	0.062
Cubic	7	10512.25	0.060

Parameter estimates for the cubic model

Marginal r^2 = 0.060, Conditional r^2 = 0.562.

B. gracilis	Estimate	s.e.	X ²	P
Intercept	20.86	3.82	29.79	<0.0001
Linear PDO	5.64	3.12	3.27	0.07

Model selection procedures

B. eriopodadf		marginal r ²	
		0.056	
6	23422.88		
7	23423.90	0.080	
7	23424.49	0.066	
	6 7	6 23422.88 7 23423.90	

Parameter estimates for the linear model

Marginal r^2 = 0.056, Conditional r^2 = 0.610.

B. eriopoda	Estimate	s.e.	X ²	P
Intercept	58.06	8.04	52.14	<0.0001
Linear PDO	11.81	5.58	4.48	0.03

Reordering of dominant species is one mechanism of community dynamics in response to environmental presses. Over a 31-year period, the abundance of the desert grass, *B. eriopoda*, was increasing faster than that of *B. gracilis* under increasing aridity until wildfire reset the system. We conclude that species reordering is a complex, non-linear process that can be reversed by pulse disturbances.



363x241mm (300 x 300 DPI)