

Nutrient supply shifts successional paths but not speed of grassland recovery from disturbance

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Abstract

Disturbance and environmental change may cause communities to converge to a steady state, diverge towards multiple alternative states, or remain in long-term transience. Yet, empirical tests of these successional trajectories are rare, especially in systems experiencing multiple concurrent anthropogenic drivers of change. We compared competing models of succession in grassland communities subjected to disturbance and nitrogen fertilization using data from a long-term (22-year) experiment. Regardless of disturbance, after a decade communities settled on equilibrium states largely determined by resource availability, with species turnover declining as communities approached dynamic equilibria. Species favored by the disturbance were those that eventually came to dominate the highly fertilized plots. Furthermore, disturbance made successional pathways more direct, revealing an important interaction effect between nutrients and disturbance as drivers of community change. Our results underscore the dynamical nature of grassland succession, demonstrating how community properties such as beta-diversity change through transient and equilibrium states.

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1 **Abstract**

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3 diverge towards multiple alternative states, or remain in long-term transience. Yet, empirical
4 tests of these successional trajectories are rare, especially in systems experiencing multiple
5 concurrent anthropogenic drivers of change. We compared competing models of succession in
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13 the dynamical nature of grassland succession, demonstrating how community properties such
14 as beta-diversity change through transient and equilibrium states.

15 Introduction

16 Temporal change in ecological communities has long fascinated ecologists, prompting a
17 rich study of succession that underpins many theories in community ecology (Clements,
18 1916; Gleason, 1926; Pickett *et al.*, 2009; Chang *et al.*, 2019). In the modern era of rapid
19 environmental change, background disturbance and temporal dynamics are now interact-
20 ing with multiple global change drivers known to influence community composition and
21 structure (Chang *et al.*, 2019). Consequently, there is a renewed interest in updating and
22 revising our understanding of succession using contemporary approaches that capture the
23 complex determinants of community composition change through data-theory integration
24 (Avolio *et al.*, 2021). For example, a recent metaanalysis of global change experiments in
25 herbaceous plant communities determined that the effects of multiple global change drivers
26 on communities were often synergistic, but lagged, and often were only detectable over long
27 (≥ 10 years) timescales (Komatsu *et al.*, 2019). Building on foundational theory of ecological
28 succession and community assembly is essential for understanding community responses to
29 anthropogenic drivers of change, and to improve conservation and restoration outcomes in a
30 rapidly changing world (Chang *et al.*, 2019; Komatsu *et al.*, 2019).

31 Early models in successional theory predicted that communities change directionally over
32 time towards a climax system (Clements, 1916; Lepš & Rejmánek, 1991; Pickett *et al.*, 2009).
33 Inherent in this historical paradigm of succession is convergence: a process where spatially
34 segregated communities equilibrate to the same species composition and structure regardless
35 of any underlying spatiotemporal variability in starting conditions. The final stable state
36 community, which persists in perpetuity until a disturbance restarts the successional process,
37 is comprised of a suite of coexisting species with stable population dynamics (Law, 1999).
38 Resource-based competition models of community structure (e.g. R^* theory) predict that
39 nutrient supply rate is the primary determinant of equilibrium plant community assemblages

40 (Tilman & Wedin, 1991; Wilson & Tilman, 1991, 1993; Tilman, 1985) and that spatially
41 segregated communities with the same nutrient supply rate will converge on the same species
42 composition, regardless of disturbance or variable starting conditions assuming all species
43 can reach all locations (Inouye & Tilman, 1988). A change in nutrient supply, however, is
44 predicted to shift the equilibrium plant community towards a new, possibly irreversible stable
45 state (Suding *et al.*, 2004). For example in the grassland system we focus on here, Isbell
46 *et al.* (2013a) found that plant communities persisted in a low-diversity state more than two
47 decades after the cessation of nutrients, suggesting that fertilization caused a regime shift.

48 Directly contradicting a highly predictable, resource-based competition paradigm of suc-
49 cession, more recent theory has emphasized how stochastic and heterogeneous factors includ-
50 ing small scale abiotic variation, probabilistic dispersal, colonization, and local extinction can
51 lead to divergent communities that exhibit alternative stable states (Fukami & Nakajima,
52 2011; Fukami, 2015; Shoemaker *et al.*, 2020; Miller *et al.*, 2021). Priority effects including
53 niche preemption and niche modification from early arriving species can result in multiple,
54 alternative steady state pathways across locations that had different species arrival order,
55 even under the same environmental conditions (Fukami, 2015). For example, Chase’s (2003)
56 classic study demonstrated that successional trajectories in aquatic mesocosms with inter-
57 mediate productivity exhibited alternative stable states depending on the initial density
58 of a single organism (snails). Theoretical modelling further suggests that divergence be-
59 tween spatially segregated communities is more likely to occur with a large species pool,
60 low connectivity, high productivity, and infrequent disturbance (Chase, 2003). In parallel,
61 divergence in community composition can also depend on small-scale local heterogeneity
62 (spatial contingencies) (Young *et al.*, 2017; Kardol *et al.*, 2007) or the environmental drivers
63 experienced at a single point in time, especially early in succession (Werner *et al.*, 2020).
64 One empirical study examining patterns of plant succession after the eruption of Mt. St.
65 Helens, found evidence for multiple successional pathways within and among sites, which the

66 authors attribute to the interaction of disturbance, spatial contingencies, and other chance
67 factors (Chang *et al.*, 2019).

68 Though many community theories tend to focus on final equilibrium dynamics, it has long
69 been recognized that many real-world communities persist for long periods without reach-
70 ing an equilibrium (Cowles, 1899; Noy-Meir, 1975; Hastings, 2004; Fukami & Nakajima,
71 2011; DeAngelis & Waterhouse, 1987; Huston, 1979). In many cases of long-term tran-
72 sience, disturbance occurs frequently enough that species are consistently reshuffled, and the
73 community never reaches a point where composition is stable (Fukami, 2015). Even sim-
74 ple models of community assembly can produce prolonged transience when there is sufficient
75 temporal variability. For example, a Lotka-Volterra competition model of a grassland system
76 with periodic disturbance and seasonal changes, led to sustained dynamic transience, where
77 modelled species compositions continued to shift towards equilibria without enough time to
78 reach the predicted state before shifting yet again (Geijzendorffer *et al.*, 2011). Though sev-
79 eral long-term studies demonstrate dynamics that are consistent with long-term transience,
80 few studies provide quantitative metrics, such as the rate of community turnover, to accu-
81 rately identify transience. One exception is a recent study examining a long-term restoration
82 project in the drylands of China, which demonstrated a prolonged period of transience of
83 shrub dominance (around 37 years), followed by a rapid shift to the desired, restored, state
84 characterized by low shrub cover and high grass cover (Chen *et al.*, 2019).

85 Identifying successional trajectories in practice necessitates high spatial and temporal
86 replication that can capture the long-term behavior of the system (Hastings, 2004, 2010;
87 Inouye & Tilman, 1988). Thus, despite a rich body of theoretical work on succession and
88 community assembly, there are few experimental studies with time series sufficiently long
89 to capture asymptotic trends in community structure and composition and to distinguish
90 between competing theories of successional dynamics (Hastings, 2004, 2010). For this study,
91 we analyzed a long-term (22 year) experiment from the Cedar Creek Ecosystem Reserve in

92 Minnesota, USA to examine competing models of community succession in a prairie system
93 experiencing two simultaneous anthropogenic drivers of change: disturbance and nutrient
94 addition. This an ideal system to test competing theories of succession due to a long his-
95 tory of study at Cedar Creek (Tilman, 1987; Wilson & Tilman, 1991, 1993; Isbell *et al.*,
96 2013a), including a rich natural history of the common species in this system (Sullivan
97 *et al.*, 2018; Catford *et al.*, 2019). We focus on the joint effects of both drivers, as both
98 community response to nutrient supply (Tilman, 1987; Wilson & Tilman, 1991, 1993; Is-
99 bell *et al.*, 2013a) and recovery from agricultural disturbance (Holt *et al.*, 1995; Debussche
100 *et al.*, 1996; Li *et al.*, 2016; Pickett *et al.*, 2009) have been well-studied individually, but
101 their joint effects are less understood (Seabloom *et al.*, 2020). If the community tended
102 towards alternative stable states or prolonged periods of transience, disturbance would alter
103 the predictions from adding nutrients alone. An earlier short-term analysis of successional
104 change from this experiment found that species composition changed rapidly in response to
105 nutrient addition, but that a 4 year timeseries was not sufficient to determine community
106 convergence to resource-controlled equilibria versus divergence caused by alternative stable
107 states or long-term transience (Inouye & Tilman, 1988). A more recent analysis from this
108 experiment suggests an interactive effect between nutrients and disturbance on species di-
109 versity and total biomass that emerges after approximately a decade of recovery (Seabloom
110 *et al.*, 2020); however this study did not evaluate the joint effects of nutrients and disturbance
111 on community composition nor successional trajectories.

112 Here, we revisited Inouye and Tilman’s (1988) initial investigation of succession, extend-
113 ing from their focus on convergence versus divergence to additionally ask: 1) Do communities
114 tend towards equilibrium states, remain in long-term transience, or reach alternative stable
115 states? 2) Do resources determine long-term composition? and 3) Are successional trajecto-
116 ries altered by disturbance? To address whether communities settled into a steady state, or
117 persisted in long-term transience, we examined the rate of community compositional change

118 between years, and the directionality of those changes. If communities progressed along a
119 successional pathway towards a stable equilibrium (single or multiple equilibria), then we
120 expected community turnover to decline, and community trajectories to display low sinusoidal
121 oscillation in multivariate space as they headed towards equilibria. To address whether fertilization
122 led to the development of resource-controlled stable equilibria, or if disturbance or variable
123 starting conditions yielded alternative stable states, we looked for evidence of convergence or
124 divergence in composition between spatially segregated communities both within and across
125 experimental treatments.

126 **Materials and methods**

127 **Study site and data collection**

128 Data were collected in mixed-grass prairie habitats at the Cedar Creek Ecosystem Science
129 Reserve in Minnesota, USA (CDR, Lat: 45.4 Long: 93.2 W) from 1982 to 2004. CDR has
130 well-drained sandy soils that are low in nitrogen (N), resulting in low productivity relative to
131 other grasslands worldwide (Fay *et al.*, 2015). The mean annual temperature from 1982 to
132 2004 was 6.7°C (± 0.02 SE) and the mean annual precipitation was 818 mm (± 35 SE). There
133 were two notable drought years in the time series (1987 and 1988) where annual precipitation
134 was below 600 mm.

135 The experimental design is described briefly here, with additional details in Tilman (1987)
136 and Seabloom *et al.* (2020). In 1982, identical disturbance by nutrient addition experiments
137 were established in three abandoned agricultural fields that were last tilled and farmed in
138 1968 (Field A), 1957 (Field B), and 1934 (Field C). Within each field, two experimental grids
139 (35 X 55 m) were established for nutrient application, one in an area that was thoroughly
140 disked in the spring of 1982 (E002), and another in an adjacent area that remained intact
141 (E001). Each grid consisted of 54, 4 X 4 m vegetation plots, receiving one of eight nutrient

142 treatments (applied annually in mid-May or late-June) plus an unmanipulated control in
143 a randomized block design, with 6 replicate plots per field. Importantly, the disturbance
144 occurred once at the beginning of the experiment, while the nutrient additions were applied
145 annually throughout the experiment.

146 For this study, we compared community trajectories with increasing N across the undis-
147 turbed (E001) and disturbed (E002) grids. To capture a gradient of increasing resource
148 supply, we focused our analyses on the following treatments: No nutrients, $0 \text{ g N} + \mu \cdot \text{m}^2$
149 $\cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, $1 \text{ g N} + \mu \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, $3.4 \text{ g N} + \mu \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, and $9.5 \text{ g N} + \mu \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$.
150 Matching previous studies in the system (Clark & Tilman, 2008; Seabloom *et al.*, 2020), we
151 chose $9.5 \text{ g N} + \mu \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$ as our maximum “high” N treatment because previous work
152 in this study system and elsewhere indicates this treatment overcomes N limitation without
153 inducing toxicity (Elser *et al.*, 2007; Isbell *et al.*, 2013a; Fay *et al.*, 2015). Throughout the
154 experiment nitrogen was added as NH_4NO_3 and the micronutrients (μ) consisted of of P, K,
155 Ca, Mg, S and citrate-chelated trace metals (P_2O_5 at $20 \text{ g} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, K_2O at $20 \text{ g} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot$
156 year^{-1} , CaCO_3 at $40 \text{ g} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, MgSO_4 at $30 \text{ g} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, CuSO_4 at $18 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$,
157 ZnSO_4 at $37.7 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, CoCO_2 at $15.3 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$, MnCl_2 at $322.0 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$,
158 and NaMoO_4 at $15.1 \mu\text{g} \cdot \text{m}^2 \cdot \text{year}^{-1}$).

159 Beginning in 1982, vegetation was sampled by clipping a 10 X 300 cm strip each year at
160 the ground level. After clipping, biomass was sorted into previous year’s growth (litter), and
161 current year’s growth (live biomass). Live biomass was sorted by species, dried, and weighed
162 to the nearest 0.01 g. All plots in all fields were sampled annually from 1982 to 2004, with
163 the exception of years 1995 (only E001 sampled), 2001 (only E001 sampled), and 2003 (only
164 E001 and field C in E002 sampled). Due to a change in the fire regime of E001 after 2004,
165 we restrict analyses to years before 2004. Prior to all multivariate analyses, we applied a
166 $\ln(1 + x)$ data transformation where $x =$ biomass (in g) of individual plant species within a
167 plot in a given year.

168 **Statistical Analyses**

169 **Explained variability and overall trends in community composition**

170 To assess how the disturbance event in 1982, yearly fertilization regime, initial conditions,
171 and historical contingencies of each field explained community composition throughout the
172 experiment, we used a Permutational ANOVA (PERMANOVA) using the *adonis* function
173 from package *vegan* (Oksanen *et al.*, 2008) in R version 4.1.2 (R Core Team, 2020) with
174 the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix generated from log-transformed species' biomass data
175 between all plots in all fields in both experiments (E001 and E002) for each year from 1982 to
176 2004. The Bray-Curtis matrix of a given year was the dependent variable, with three additive
177 categorical independent variables: disturbance, nutrient treatment, and field identity. We
178 included field as a fixed effect, as there are only three replicates, and we were additionally
179 interested in how differences among fields may explain differences in composition through
180 time. We examined yearly trends in the explained variation (partial R^2) for each independent
181 variable over the 22 years of the experiment in the PERMANOVA model, evaluating which
182 variables explained the most variation in community composition, and the longevity of those
183 effects.

184 To provide species-level and community-level context for our multivariate results, we
185 report trends in biomass, species richness (alpha diversity), and the relative proportion of
186 plant functional groups across nutrient and disturbance regimes. To determine which plant
187 species were driving variation in species composition we performed an indicator species
188 analysis using the *multipatt* function from package *indicspecies* (De Cáceres & Legendre,
189 2009) in R. Indicator species analyses assess the association between species patterns and
190 combinations of groups of sites, and perform permutation tests for statistical significance
191 of the best matching associations (Cáceres & Legendre, 2009). For the indicator species
192 analysis we grouped sites according to disturbance treatment (E001 and E002), nutrient

193 treatment (focusing on control and high nutrient plots only) and timing relative to the start
194 of the experiment (early: 1982 - 1985, and late: 2000 - 2004). We constrained the indicator
195 species analysis to include species associated with one to three of the aforementioned groups.

196 **Assessing convergence vs. divergence**

197 To test if plots converged or diverged in community composition over time, we calculated
198 the average Bray-Curtis distance of replicate communities within treatments to their group
199 centroids using the *betadisper* function from the R package *vegan* (Oksanen *et al.*, 2008) in
200 R. If the distance between plots to their group centroids declined over time, this indicated
201 convergence. We evaluated the trends of the average distance to the centroid over the 22-
202 year time series for each nutrient by fertilization treatment. One way to evaluate whether
203 systems have reached an equilibrium is to look for asymptotic behavior, or stasis in the
204 eventual long-term dynamics of the system (Hastings, 2004; Isbell *et al.*, 2013b). Thus, we
205 performed AIC model selection to determine whether a linear or saturating function best
206 described convergence within a treatment over the 22-year time series. For our saturating
207 function, we utilized the model $y = Asym + (R_0 - Asym) * exp(-exp(lrc) * year + \epsilon)$ due
208 to the ease of interpretation of estimated parameters, where *Asym* represents the horizontal
209 asymptote of the response variable, R_0 represents the response at year 0 and *lrc* represents
210 the natural log of the rate constant.

211 To test if plots receiving different nutrient treatments diverged in composition, we calcu-
212 lated the distances between treatment group centroids each year using the *betadisper* function
213 from package *vegan* (Oksanen *et al.*, 2008), assessing dispersion trends over the time series.
214 If the distance between group centroids increased over time, this indicated divergence among
215 plots receiving different nutrient treatments. As above, we performed AIC model selection
216 to determine whether a linear or saturating function best described the trend over time.
217 For both convergence within a give a nutrient treatment, and divergence between nutrient

218 treatments, we compared model parameters across disturbance treatments (E001 and E002)
219 to see if disturbance altered the rate or asymptotic behavior of the system.

220 **Direction and speed of succession**

221 To examine how communities changed through time with disturbance and nutrient ad-
222 dition, we conducted a suite of community trajectory analyses (CTA) (De Cáceres *et al.*,
223 2019) by projecting data from spatially segregated communities (plots) into a multivariate
224 space, and analyzing various geometric properties of their trajectories over time. We defined
225 a multivariate space to study temporal compositional dynamics, using the abundance-based
226 Bray-Curtis dissimilarities in community composition among all plots across the entire time
227 series. We conducted a principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) using the *pcoa* function from
228 package *ape* (Paradis & Schliep, 2019) to summarize the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix of
229 plots through time in Euclidean space.

To visualize the directionality of succession, we plotted yearly and decadal trends across
disturbance and fertilization regimes. Then, to quantitatively assess directionality of succe-
sional pathways, we calculated a sinuosity index (ie: how meandering is a given community's
path in multivariate space), using the index defined by Benhamou (2004):

$$S = 2[p(\frac{1+c}{1-c}) + b^2]^{-0.5}$$

230 where p is step length (here, annual step length), b is the the coefficient of variation of step
231 lengths, and c is the mean cosine of turning angles. Sinuosity indices express the amount of
232 angular change over a given path length with smaller values representing straighter, or more
233 directional paths, and larger values representing more meandering paths.

234 Lastly, we assessed the speed of succession across disturbance and fertilization regimes,
235 to address whether communities tended towards a stable state with lower temporal turnover,

236 or persisted in a state of long-term transience with high turnover. We did so by calculating
237 trajectory lengths between subsequent annual surveys in the same plots using the *trajecto-*
238 *rylengths* function from package *ecotraj* (De Cáceres *et al.*, 2019) and regressing inter-annual
239 trajectory distances (also in Bray-Curtis distance) over time. Inter-annual trajectory dis-
240 tances practically represent the amount of species turnover between years, with larger values
241 indicating more turnover and smaller values indicating similar species composition between
242 years. As above, we performed AIC model selection to determine whether a linear or sat-
243 urating function best described changes in the speed of succession, and if that varied by
244 nutrient and disturbance treatments.

245 Results

246 Explained variability and overall trends in community composition

247 Prior to the disturbance event and beginning of fertilization, variation in community
248 composition was dominated by among-field spatial variation, likely reflective of differences
249 in age since abandonment. Variation in community composition explained by the disturbance
250 event in 1982 was high (15%) in the first year, but quickly declined to almost 0% explained
251 over a period of about five years (Figure 1a). Meanwhile, the variation explained by annual
252 fertilization increased over the first decade, and then plateaued at about 40% (range 35-45%
253 from years 9 to 22) (Figure 1b). During the first 5 years, the three fields initially varied in
254 composition, but then began to converge due to treatment effects, although variation among
255 fields still persisted after 20 years of fertilization (range 15-25% from years 9 to 22, Figure 1c).
256 Total aboveground biomass fluctuated throughout the experiment (Figure S1). Immediately
257 after the disturbance in 1982, biomass was greater in the disturbed grids, and especially in the
258 fertilized and disturbed plots; however this increase in biomass from disturbance dissipated
259 around year 5 of the experiment (Figure S1).

260 Early successional communities that established after the disturbance in 1982 included the
261 C3 grasses *Panicum oligosanthos* and *Agrostis scabra*, the C4 grass *Setaria lutescens*, and a
262 variety of forbs including *Polygonum convolvulus* and *Rumex acetosella* (Table 1). After two
263 decades, high nutrient plots in both intact and disturbed grids were characterized by the C3
264 grasses *Agropyron repens* and *Poa pratensis*. Meanwhile, control (unfertilized) plots in both
265 intact and disturbed grids were characterized by the C4 grasses *Schizachyrium scoparium* and
266 *Sorghastrum nutans*. Legumes disappeared from high nutrient plots, but persisted in control
267 plots, regardless of disturbance (Table 1). For both the disturbed and undisturbed grids,
268 community composition changed annually, with fertilization moving successional trajectories
269 towards higher values of PCoA 1 and lower values of PCoA 2 (Figure 2 a-j). Moreover,
270 changes in communities during the first decade of the experiment were more directional in
271 PCoA ordination space, especially in high nutrient plots, whereas changes in the second
272 decade were more meandering in ordination space (Figure 2 a-j).

273 Consistent with the notion that fertilization increasingly explained community composi-
274 tion over the first decade of the experiment, annual fertilization yielded predictable changes
275 in the dominance of plant functional types throughout the experiment (Figure S2). For both
276 disturbed and undisturbed grids, unfertilized plots had a more even distribution of plant
277 types over the time-series, while the highly fertilized plots quickly became dominated by
278 C3 grasses (Figure S2). Plot-level species richness (11.65 ± 0.24 species in year 1) declined
279 throughout the experiment at a similar rate in both disturbed and undisturbed grids (Fig-
280 ure S3). The rate and overall amount of decline varied across fertilization treatments, with
281 species richness plateauing to 8.55 ± 0.30 species for the control plots and 5.67 ± 0.21 species
282 for the highly fertilized plots (Figure S3)

283 **Assessing convergence vs. divergence**

284 For both intact and disturbed grids, communities that received the same annual nutrient
285 supply converged in composition (Figure 3 a, b). The average Bray-Curtis distance between
286 each community (plot) to its group centroid (18 plots with the same nutrient X disturbance
287 regime) was best fit with a decreasing saturation function through time (Table S1) where
288 community change was rapid during the first decade and plateaued during second decade
289 to an average distance between 0.23 and 0.37 (Table S2). The asymptote, representing
290 within-treatment spatial beta diversity, was determined by fertilization regime, with a lower
291 distance (spatial beta diversity) in medium and high nutrient treatments compared to low
292 nutrient and control plots (Figure 3 a, b Table S2). Interestingly, this relationship was
293 most pronounced in disturbed grids, indicating an interaction effect between fertilization
294 and disturbance on the overall level of convergence in grassland plant communities that
295 emerges after about 10 years of recovery, affecting the asymptotic level of beta diversity of
296 plots within the same treatment (Figure 3 a, b).

297 While communities within a given nutrient treatment converged in composition, commu-
298 nities receiving different nutrient treatments diverged through time (Figure 3 c, d). Bray-
299 Curtis distances between group centroids (across nutrients treatments) were best fit with an
300 increasing saturation function (Table S3) where the overall level of divergence accumulated
301 rapidly in the first decade of the experiment, and began to slow towards an asymptote in the
302 second decade (Figure 3 c, d). The distance between centroids in the intact grid plateaued
303 at 0.174 ± 0.007 while the distance between centroids in the disturbed grid plateaued at
304 0.170 ± 0.010 (*Asym* parameter in Table S4).

305 **Direction and speed of succession**

306 The sinuosity of community change, indicating how meandering a community's suc-
307 cessional pathway is in multivariate space, showed strong differences with both nutrient

308 addition and disturbance (Figure 4 a and b). For both intact and disturbed grids, increasing
309 fertilization moved pathways towards higher values of PCoA 1 (Figure 4 c and d). In the
310 intact grids, plots that did not receive fertilizer had higher sinuosity, and increasing nutrient
311 supply rate decreased sinuosity, indicating more directional change in community composi-
312 tion (Figure 4 a). Meanwhile in the disturbed grids, sinuosity was lower overall, and did
313 not vary significantly among fertilization treatments, with overlapping confidence intervals
314 amongst all treatments. (Figure 4 b). Sinuosity also varied by decade, with lower sinuosity
315 in the first decade of the experiment, as communities were in a transient successional state,
316 and higher sinuosity in the second decade, as communities reached an equilibrium state (Fig-
317 ure S4). Higher sinuosity in the equilibrium state suggests communities settled on a dynamic
318 equilibrium, rather than a point equilibrium at stasis.

319 Interannual community trajectory distance, a measure of temporal turnover, declined by
320 over 50% throughout the duration of the experiment for both disturbed and intact grids
321 (Figure 5). This relationship was best described with a linear function with a negative
322 slope rather than a saturating function, (Table S5). All estimated slope parameters for
323 intact and disturbed grids were < 0 including 95% confidence intervals. Though highly
324 fertilized plots in both intact and disturbed grids initially had higher levels of community
325 turnover (as indicated by intercept parameters in Table S6), community turnover declined
326 at a similar level for both fertilized and unfertilized plots (as indicated by overlapping slope
327 parameters between nutrient treatments in Table S6). This suggests that neither disturbance
328 or fertilization had a strong effect on the rate of community turnover (Figure 5).

329 Discussion

330 Collectively, our results demonstrated that both disturbed and undisturbed grassland
331 communities tended towards resource-mediated equilibrium states (Figure 4 c, d). Species

332 turnover declined linearly over time (Figure 5), while most other community metrics dis-
333 played asymptotic long-term behavior, suggesting the emergence of equilibria (Figure 3).
334 Successional trajectories emerged from two processes: convergence within communities with
335 the same nutrient treatments (Figure 3 a, b) and divergence between communities with dif-
336 ferent nutrient treatments (Figure 3 c, d). Though patterns of convergence and divergence
337 were similar across disturbed and undisturbed grids, disturbed plots that were unfertilized
338 or received low levels of nitrogen settled on a higher distance between group centroids com-
339 pared to their undisturbed counterparts, indicating greater levels of spatial beta diversity
340 at equilibria (Figure 3 b). Though the equilibrium state was mostly determined by nutrient
341 conditions, disturbance made the successional pathway towards arriving at the equilibrium
342 state more direct (lowered sinuosity in Figure 4 b), revealing an important interaction effect
343 between drivers. In particular, species that were favored by the pulse disturbance event in
344 1982, were those that came to dominate the highly fertilized plots, (Table 1).

345 Plant communities at Cedar Creek persisted in a distinct phase of transience for ap-
346 proximately 10 years before they settled on resource-mediated equilibrium states (Figure
347 1 b, Figure 3). Inter-annual rates of change in community composition decreased as the
348 communities reached these states (Figure 5); however communities still experienced rel-
349 atively high levels of community turnover in the later stages of succession. These results
350 align with a study examining post-agricultural secondary succession in New Jersey where
351 temporal turnover of dominant species decreased over time, but remained relatively high
352 at later successional stages (Li *et al.*, 2016). Both our study and Li *et al.* (2016) suggest
353 that communities undergoing succession can ultimately settle on a “dynamical equilibrium”
354 or steady state distribution, rather than a point equilibrium with highly consistent com-
355 munities. At a steady state equilibrium, community turnover can still be quite high as
356 communities sample compositions within the steady state distribution (Naselli-Flores *et al.*,
357 2003; Shoemaker *et al.*, 2020)(Compositional changes between 1992 and 2004 in Figure 2).

358 Multiple factors, including demographic stochasticity, environmental fluctuations, and small-
359 scale spatial heterogeneity (Furey *et al.*, 2022) can yield temporal turnover and variability
360 in community composition at this dynamical equilibrium. Cross-system comparisons could
361 shed light on dynamical equilibria, and how the amount of turnover and variability at an
362 ecosystem’s steady state distribution may depend on species traits (e.g. fast-growing versus
363 slow-growing systems, seedbanks), the size of the species pool, and the inherent amount of
364 environmental variability under which the system has evolved (Chase, 2003; Fernandez-Going
365 *et al.*, 2012).

366 The long-term nature of this experiment reveals that the effects of disturbance and nutri-
367 ent additions operate on different time scales, but both have sustained, long-term impacts.
368 Consistent with theory, the disturbance (pulse perturbation) initially had a strong effect on
369 species abundances, but had minimal impacts on long-term composition (Figure 1) (Bender
370 *et al.*, 1984). Early in succession, we found a higher number of indicator species, and distinct
371 communities in the disturbed grids, characterized by forbs including *Erigeron canadensis*,
372 *Polygonum convolvulus*, and the C4 grass *Setaria lutescens* (Table 1). These species tend to
373 have high fecundity and dispersal ability (Sullivan *et al.*, 2018), and germinate quickly from
374 the seedbank after disturbance. Meanwhile annual fertilization (a press perturbation) cre-
375 ated a sustained change in species composition, and the emergence of new, nutrient-mediated
376 equilibrium states (Bender *et al.*, 1984), with unfertilized plots dominated by the C4 grass
377 *Schizachyrium scoparium* which is a strong competitor for nitrogen (Wilson & Tilman, 1991),
378 and highly fertilized plots dominated by the rhizomatous C3 grass *Agropyron repens* (Ta-
379 ble 1). In our study, initial starting conditions varied in two ways: the fields (which varied
380 in time since agricultural abandonment) and the disturbance treatment in 1982. Though
381 among field differences at Cedar Creek were initially strong, these effects declined as the
382 effect of fertilization explained more variation in community composition in the first decade
383 of the experiment (Figure 1 b, c). Collectively, these findings support Inouye and Tilman’s

384 prediction based on a few years of data collection (1988) that communities at Cedar Creek
385 would eventually move towards resource-mediated equilibrium states regardless of variation
386 in starting conditions .

387 While grassland community shifts in this system were mostly attributed to nutrient
388 addition, the single pulse disturbance event in 1982 resulted in some long-term unexpected
389 systematic community differences. Disturbed plots that were unfertilized or received low
390 levels of nitrogen settled on a higher distance between group centroids compared to their
391 undisturbed counterparts, indicating greater levels of spatial beta diversity at equilibria
392 (Figure 3 c ,d). Other investigators have found long-lasting effects of pulse perturbations on
393 ecological communities. For example, in a microcosm experiment with protozoa, there was
394 a long-term effect of “ghost of disturbance past,” where communities that received intense
395 pulse disturbances settled on a community with lower species richness than communities
396 than received less or no disturbance (Jacquet & Altermatt, 2020). Future cross-system
397 comparisons across environmental gradients and communities with different levels of species
398 richness will be helpful to inform when disturbance is likely to lead to predictable successional
399 dynamics, systemic community changes, or alternative stable states (Török *et al.*, 2021)

400 Despite both intact and disturbed plots settling on long-term equilibria, the initial dis-
401 turbance treatment made successional pathways more direct, as evidenced by a reduction in
402 the sinuosity of community trajectories (Figure 4). This is likely because the disturbance fa-
403 vored species that also eventually dominated the fertilized plots (Table 1). Soil disturbances,
404 such as tilling, typically create environments with high levels of light and soil resources and
405 low levels of competition. For example, tilling aerates the soil which can cause a short-term
406 release of nutrients such as nitrogen (Hassink, 1992; Kristensen *et al.*, 2003). A variety of
407 models suggest that recently disturbed patches will be colonized by fast-growing species
408 that are poor resource competitors (Bolker & Pacala, 1999; Pacala & Rees, 1998) consis-
409 tent with the competition-colonization tradeoff, a stabilizing force for coexistence (Hastings,

410 1980; Levins & Culver, 1971). This relationship is apparent at our study site, where early
411 successional species (e.g., C3 grasses) also have low nitrogen-use efficiency (Tilman, 1994),
412 and come to dominate in fertilized plots (Tilman & Wedin, 1991; Isbell *et al.*, 2013a). The
413 coupling of species that prefer disturbance and high-resource requirements may not occur in
414 other systems or for other types of disturbance. For example, some types of disturbances,
415 such as fires, reduce limiting nutrient availability. Similarly, severe disturbances that initiate
416 primary succession (e.g., glaciation or volcanoes) can create very harsh low nutrient environ-
417 ments. In these cases, the early colonizers must be nutrient efficient (e.g., nitrogen-fixers),
418 which are ultimately at a disadvantage in higher nutrient environments (Tognetti *et al.*,
419 2021).

420 **Conclusion**

421 Our study simultaneously tested competing theories of community assembly (HilleRisLam-
422 bers *et al.*, 2012; Kraft *et al.*, 2015), stability (Connell & Slatyer, 1977; Hallett *et al.*, 2018),
423 and coexistence (Tilman, 1985) while informing potential future avenues of theoretical de-
424 velopment using community metrics that capture the speed, sinuosity, and direction of com-
425 munity change over time (De Cáceres *et al.*, 2019). Taken together, our results imply that
426 grassland communities at Cedar Creek tended towards resource-mediated equilibrium states
427 regardless of initial conditions, but that disturbance caused changes to successional path-
428 ways that persisted for over two decades. In particular, disturbance moved successional
429 trajectories towards changes eventually induced by fertilization. Importantly, our results
430 also demonstrated that the rate of community turnover can remain high as communities
431 approach equilibrium states (Figure 5). As such, we advocate that future work on succes-
432 sion and community assembly theory should incorporate fluctuation dependent coexistence
433 and stochastic theory, as communities at their dynamical equilibrium can be highly variable

434 (Hallett *et al.*, 2019; Shoemaker *et al.*, 2020; Aoyama *et al.*, 2022).

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Table 1: Indicator species analysis depicting plants associated with groups based on disturbance (E001 and E002), nutrients (control (9) and high nutrient plots (6)), and timing relative to the start of the experiment (early: 1982 - 1985, and late: 2000 - 2004). We allowed for species to be associated with 1 to 3 groups. Species associations were generated using permutation tests for statistical significance. We report only the species with the strongest group associations (test statistic > 0.4), and their associated functional group. Plant functional groups: F = Forb, L = Legume C3 = C3 grass, C4 = C4 grass, S = Sedge.

Intact		Disturbed in 1982		Timing
Control	High nutrients	Control	High nutrients	
<i>Agrostis scabra</i>	C3 <i>Panicum oligosanthes</i>	<i>Agrostis scabra</i> <i>Panicum oligosanthes</i>	C3 <i>Agropyron repens</i> C3 <i>Agrostis scabra</i> C3 <i>Panicum oligosanthes</i>	C3 C3 C3
<i>Aristida basiramea</i>	C4 <i>Aristida basiramea</i> <i>Schizachyrium scoparium</i>	<i>Aristida basiramea</i> <i>Setaria lutescens</i>	C4 <i>Setaria lutescens</i> C4	C4 C4
<i>Cyperus sp.</i>	S	<i>Sorghastrum nutans</i> <i>Cyperus sp.</i>	C4 S <i>Cyperus sp.</i>	Early (1982 - 1985) S
<i>Achillea millefolium</i>	F <i>Achillea millefolium</i>	<i>Ambrosia artemisiifolia</i>	F <i>Ambrosia artemisiifolia</i>	F
<i>Anemone cylindrica</i>	F <i>Ambrosia artemisiifolia</i>	<i>Artemisia ludoviciana</i>	F <i>Artemisia ludoviciana</i>	F
<i>Artemisia ludoviciana</i>	F <i>Anemone cylindrica</i>	<i>Berteroa incana</i>	F <i>Berteroa incana</i>	F
<i>Berteroa incana</i>	F <i>Berteroa incana</i>	<i>Crepis tectorum</i>	F <i>Crepis tectorum</i>	F
<i>Crepis tectorum</i>	F <i>Crepis tectorum</i>	<i>Erigeron canadensis</i>	F <i>Erigeron canadensis</i>	F
<i>Erigeron canadensis</i>	F <i>Hedeoma hispida</i>	<i>Erigeron strigosus</i>	F <i>Erigeron strigosus</i>	F
<i>Erigeron strigosus</i>	F <i>Lepidium densiflorum</i>	<i>Hedeoma hispida</i>	F <i>Hedeoma hispida</i>	F
<i>Hedeoma hispida</i>	F <i>Polygonum tenue</i>	<i>Lepidium densiflorum</i>	F <i>Lepidium densiflorum</i>	F
<i>Polygonum tenue</i>	F <i>Potentilla recta</i>	<i>Mollugo verticillata</i>	F <i>Mollugo verticillata</i>	F
<i>Potentilla recta</i>	F <i>Rumex acetosella</i>	<i>Polygonum convolvulus</i>	F <i>Polygonum convolvulus</i>	F
<i>Rumex acetosella</i>	F <i>Solidago nemoralis</i>	<i>Rumex acetosella</i>	F <i>Rumex acetosella</i>	F
<i>Solidago nemoralis</i>	F			

Intact		Disturbed in 1982		Timing
Control	High nutrients	Control	High nutrients	
<i>Agropyron repens</i>	C3 <i>Poa pratensis</i> C3	<i>Agropyron repens</i>	C3 <i>Poa pratensis</i>	
<i>Schizachyrium scopar- ium</i>	C4	<i>Schizachyrium scopar- ium</i>	C4	Late (2000- 2004)
<i>Sorghastrum nutans</i>	C4	<i>Sorghastrum nutans</i>	C4	
<i>Achillea millefolium</i>	F	<i>Euphorbia corollata</i>	F	F
<i>Asclepias syriaca</i>	F	<i>Viola pedatifida</i>	F	F
<i>Euphorbia corollata</i>	F			
<i>Viola pedatifida</i>	F			
<i>Lathyrus venosus</i>	L	<i>Lathyrus venosus</i>	L	

Table 1 – continued from previous page

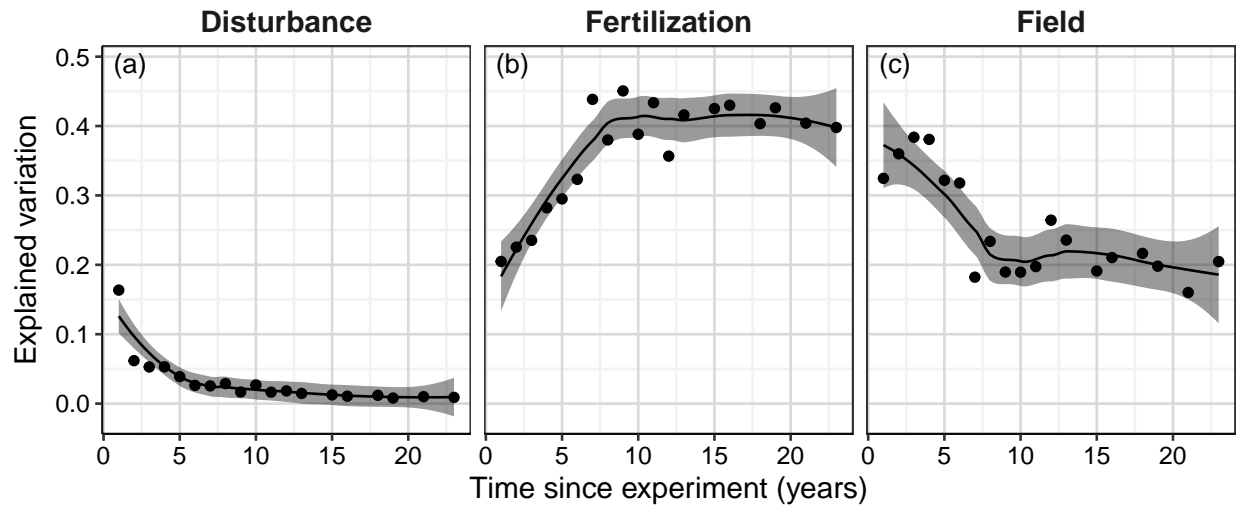


Figure 1: Variation in aboveground plant community composition explained by (a) disturbance (single plowing event in 1982), (b) fertilization (annual nutrient addition) and (c) field identity (A, B, C) from 1982 to 2004. Plotted values are the R^2 of each independent variable from a PERMANOVA model. Lines represent loess fits with 95% confidence intervals.

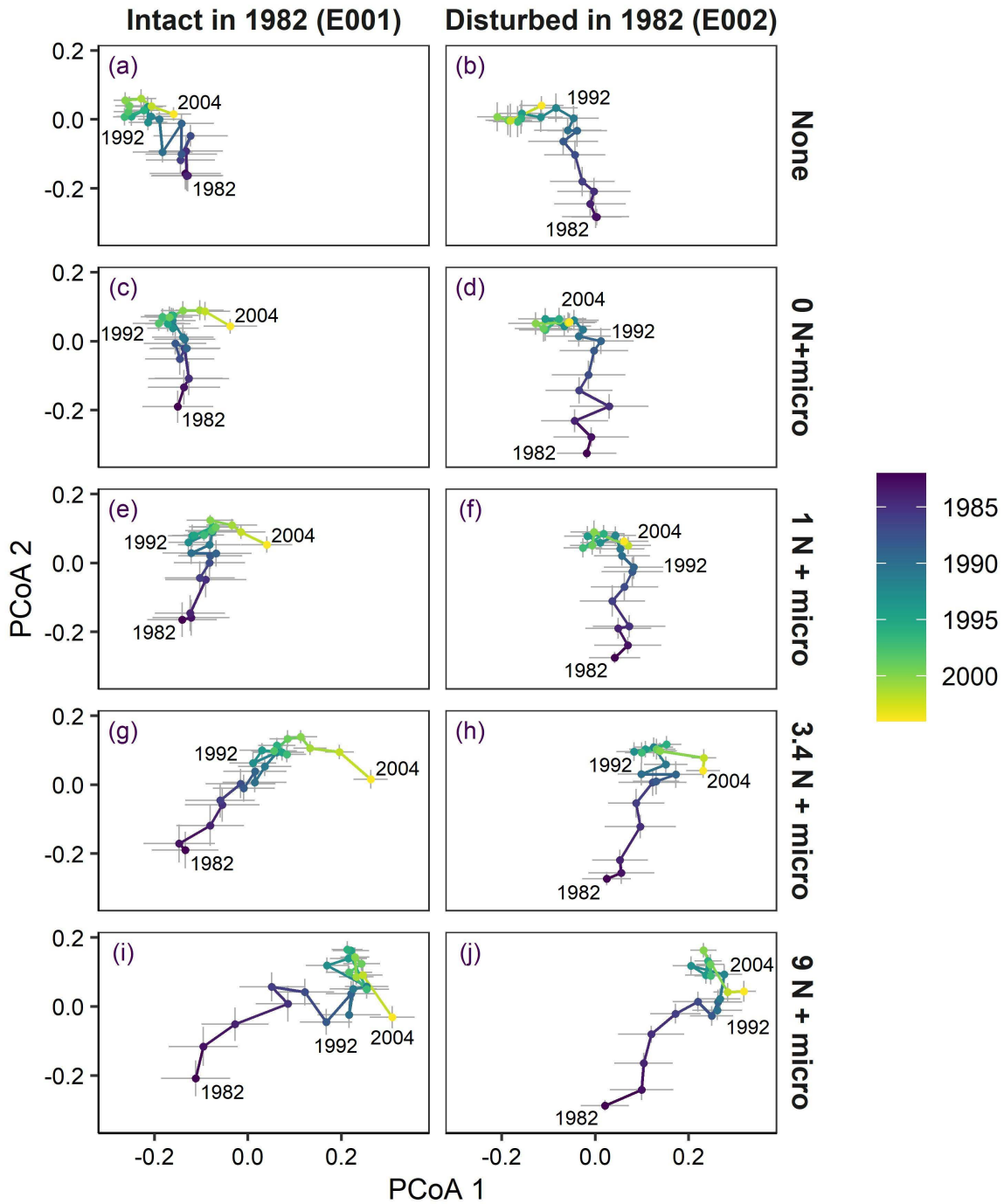


Figure 2: Yearly community trajectories in PCoA ordination space. Points represent mean PCoA scores \pm 1 SE (in gray bars) from aboveground plant community composition data in intact (left column) and disturbed (right column) communities across annual fertilization regimes (rows; $n=18$ plots per treatment). Points are connected through time to show yearly trajectories throughout the experiment from 1982 (purple) to 2004 (yellow).

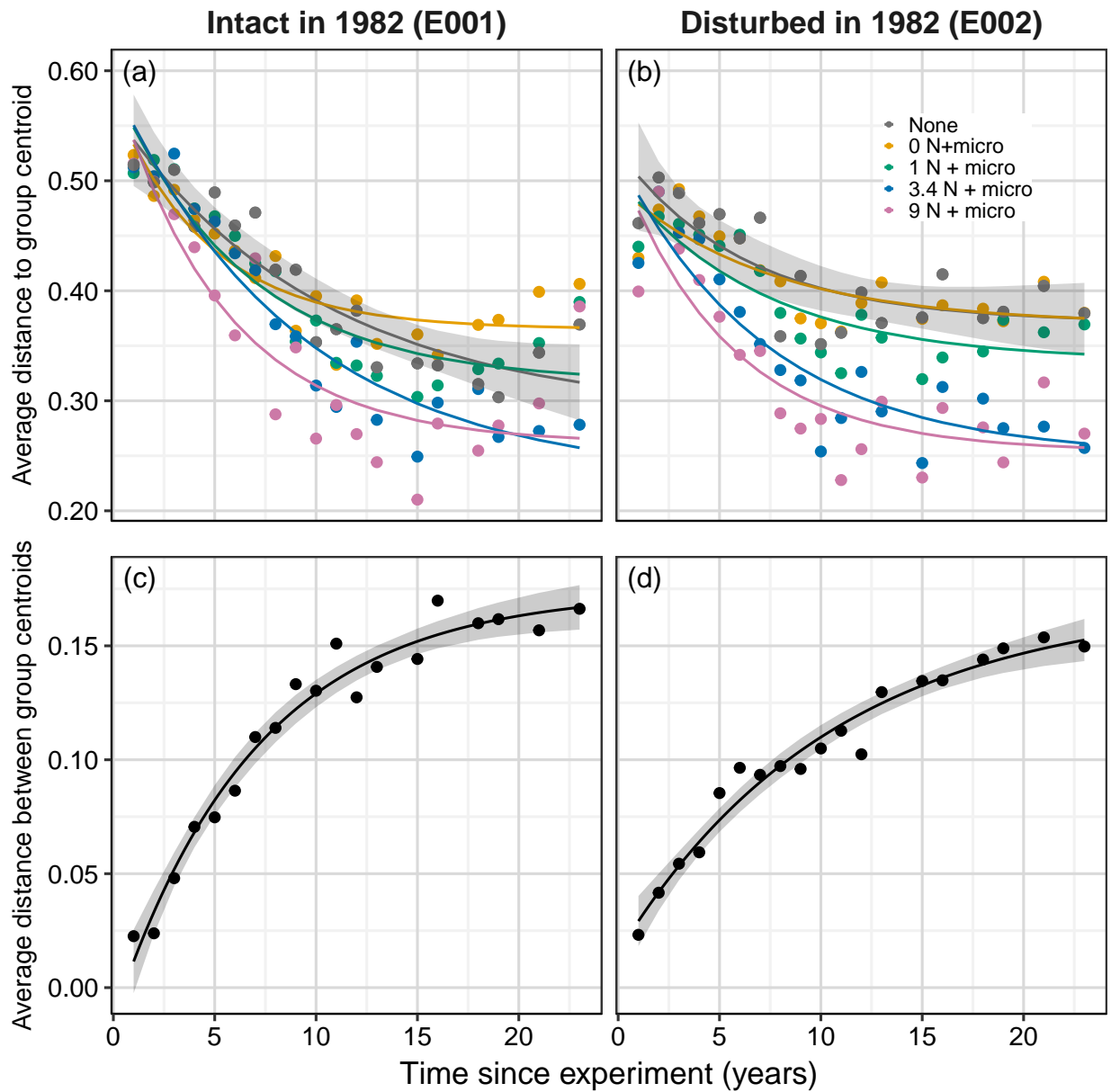


Figure 3: (a & b) Average Bray-Curtis distance from each plot to its treatment group centroid through time in intact (a) and disturbed plots (b). Lines represent asymptotic regressions, with 95% confidence intervals shown for the control. AIC values of competing models and parameter estimates for regressions are in Table S1 and S2. (c & d) Average Bray-Curtis distance between treatment group centroids through time in intact (c) and disturbed plots (d). Lines represent asymptotic regressions with 95% confidence intervals. AIC values of competing models and parameter estimates for regressions are in Table S3 and S4.

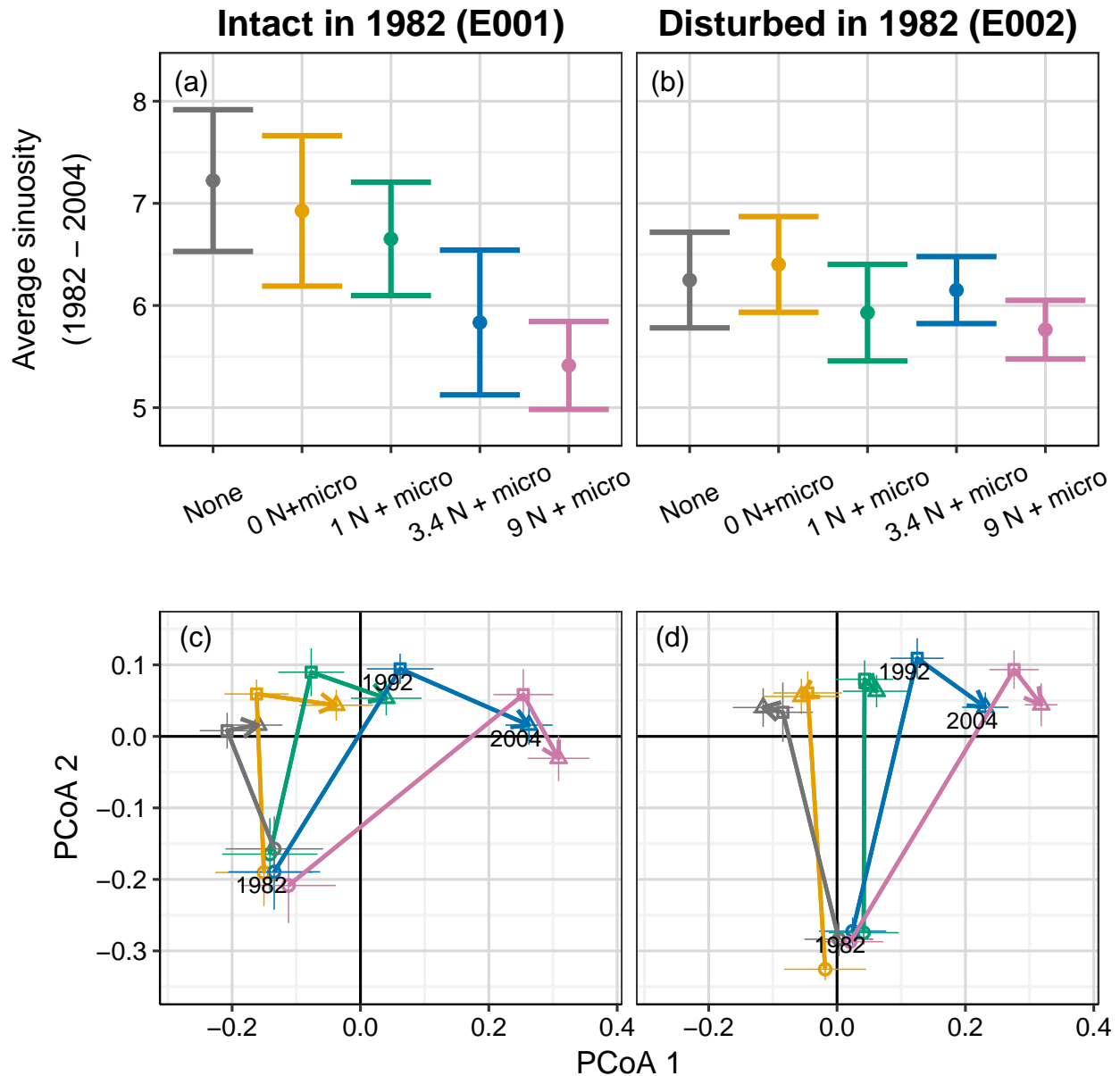


Figure 4: Community trajectories including average sinuosity (a & b) and decadal trajectories (c & d) in PCoA ordination space in intact (a & c) and disturbed (b & d) communities across different levels of N fertilization. Trajectories in c & d are shown for each decade (1982 to 1992 and 1992 to 2004). Each point represents the average sinuosity across the entire time series (a & b) of 18 communities with the same disturbance X nutrient treatment and the average PCoA score in a given year (b & c) or . Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals (a & b) and ± 1 SE (c & d).

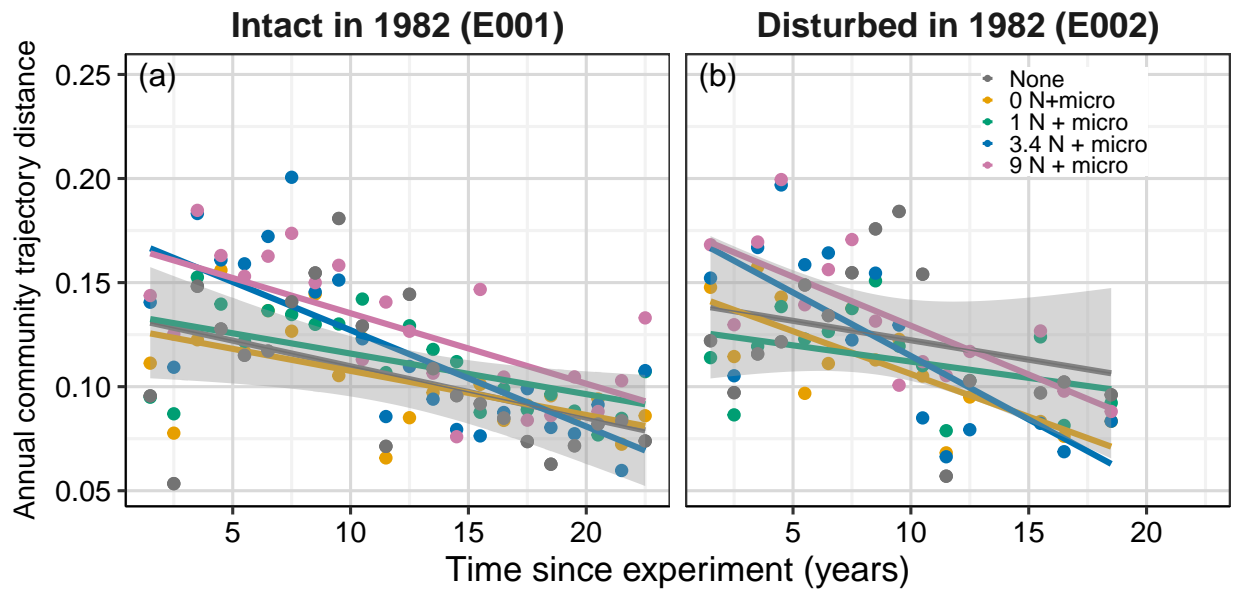


Figure 5: Annual community trajectory distance (temporal species turnover) in aboveground plant community composition in intact (a) and disturbed (b) communities across fertilization treatments. Points represent the average trajectory distance of 18 replicates per treatment. Lines represent linear regression fits, with 95% confidence intervals shown for the control for clarity.