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6	Evidence of functional species sorting by rainfall and biotic
7	interactions: A community monolith experimental approach
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15	
16	Summary
17	1. Understanding the mechanisms that underlie species assembly is a central concern in
18	community ecology. Abiotic and biotic filters are probabilistic 'sieves' that allow species with
19	certain functional traits to become part of the community, or not. We manipulated natural
20	plant assemblies in order to identify variations in the timings of biotic and abiotic filters that
21	determine community trait assemblies.
22	2. We extracted soil portions when the investigated annual plant community was in its seed
23	phase ('community monolith'), thereby maintaining the structure and similar soil

characteristics to the field conditions. Community monoliths were subjected to experimental manipulation in terms of the rainfall timing and amount, and perturbations of the biological soil crust (BSC; intact vs. perturbed). We surveyed the experimental community assembly over time based on the functional diversity by considering important functional traits in different life stages.

29 **3.** We found that autumn droughts acted as abiotic filters by favouring the germination and 30 establishment of species with greater investment in the root biomass. Under severe droughts (66% water reduction), the experimental assemblies were dominated by species with 31 functional traits adapted to water shortage conditions: high leaf dry matter content, low 32 33 specific leaf area, small individual size, low reproductive ratio, and high root: shoot ratio. We identified two roles of BSCs in annual plant species assemblies: 1) as a biotic filter that limited 34 the establishment of species based on seed size, and 2) as a buffer against water stress 35 36 conditions by reducing soil evapotranspiration.

4. *Synthesis*. We demonstrated the importance of the timing and amount of rainfall for shaping 37 annual plant communities, and identified germination filters as the main process that 38 determined community assemblies. Our results suggest that the phenotypic integration of 39 functional traits facilitates resistance to drought during the life cycle. The BSC-annual plant 40 41 relationship shifted from negative, by acting as a germination filter, to positive, by acting as 42 a buffer in later stages. Climatic fluctuations and fine scale biotic determinants of spatial heterogeneity emerged as sources of changes in the community assembly in time and space 43 to possibly promote species coexistence and trait differences among the communities studied. 44

45

46 Key words: annual plant, biological soil crust, biotic and abiotic filters, coexistence,

47 community assembly, drought, functional diversity, gypsum soil, Mediterranean grassland,

48 precipitation seasonality.

49 **Resumen**

- Entender los mecanismos que intervienen en el ensamblaje de las especies ha sido una
 cuestión central en ecología de comunidades. En este contexto, los filtros abióticos y
 bióticos juegan un importante papel ya que pueden determinar la probabilidad de que las
 especies se incorporen a la comunidad en función de sus atributos funcionales. En este
 estudio se manipularon experimentalmente comunidades naturales de plantas de ciclo anual
 para identificar la importancia y el momento en el que distintos filtros ambientales
 determinan la estructura funcional de la comunidad.
- 2. Para ello se extrajeron porciones de suelo durante el periodo en el que la comunidad se 57 encuentra en fase de semilla, conservando su estructura vertical y la composición natural de 58 59 la comunidad. Estos "community monoliths" fueron sometidos a distintos tratamientos de cantidad y estacionalidad de precipitación, así como a distintos estados de la costra biológica 60 del suelo (costra intacta vs. perturbada). La composición de las comunidades experimentales 61 62 resultantes fue observada en distintos momentos a lo largo de su desarrollo y su estructura funcional se estableció a partir de datos propios para una serie de caracteres funcionales 63 relevantes. 64

3. La sequía otoñal actuó como un filtro abiótico favoreciendo la germinación y

establecimiento de las especies con una mayor inversión en biomasa radicular. Bajo sequía 66 severa (66% de reducción de la precipitación), el ensamble experimental estuvo dominado 67 68 por especies con caracteres funcionales adaptativos en escenarios de escasez de agua: LDMC elevado, SLA bajo, individuos de pequeño tamaño, ratio entre inversión en peso 69 70 seco reproductivo y vegetativo bajo y ratio entre peso seco radicular y aéreo alto. Se 71 identificaron dos roles de la costra biológica del suelo: 1) actuó como un filtro biótico dificultando el establecimiento de las especies con semillas grandes y 2) moderó el efecto de 72 73 la sequía reduciendo la evapotranspiración.

74	4.	Síntesis. Este estudio constata experimentalmente la importancia de la estacionalidad y la
75		cantidad de precipitación en la configuración de las comunidades de anuales. Además, los
76		datos obtenidos apuntan a la germinación como el proceso más determinante del ensamble
77		de las especies en comunidades. Al mismo tiempo, los resultados parecen sugerir la
78		existencia de integración fenotípica de los caracteres implicados en la resistencia a la sequía
79		a lo largo del ciclo vital. La interacción entre la costra biológica y las plantas anuales pasa
80		de restrictiva durante la germinación a positiva durante las fases siguientes. Podemos
81		concluir que las fluctuaciones climáticas y la estructura espacial que la costra biológica
82		presenta a pequeña escala, suponen una fuente de heterogeneidad tanto espacial como
83		temporal que determina el ensamble de las comunidades y promueve la coexistencia de
84		especies.
85		

86 Palabras clave: costra biológica del suelo, diversidad funcional, ensamble de la comunidad,

87 estacionalidad de la precipitación, gypsisoles, pastizales mediterráneos, plantas anuales, sequía.

88 Introduction

89 Understanding the mechanisms that underlie species assembly has been a crucial topic in ecology for many years. Plant assemblies are a consequence of deterministic and stochastic processes acting 90 together (Lortie et al. 2004; Vellend 2010, Weiher et al. 2011; Escudero & Valladares 2016), which 91 leave detectable signals in the properties of a community (McIntire & Fajardo 2009; Pavoine et al. 92 93 2011). Among the deterministic processes, which are usually called assembly rules (Diamond 1975; 94 Götzenberger et al. 2012), ecological filters are widespread probabilistic 'sieves' that allow some species with certain functional features to emerge and become part of the standing assembly (Shipley 95 96 2010). Filters are temporally and spatially variable abiotic or biotic factors. Biotic filters are related 97 to the complex network of interactions that each individual plant establishes throughout its ontogeny 98 with other plants or organisms (Lortie et al. 2004; Escudero et al. 2007; Rajaniemi et al. 2009; 99 Luzuriaga et al. 2012).

100 Exploring plant assemblies from a functional viewpoint can allow us to identify the causal rules 101 associated with community assembly (Lavorel & Garnier 2002; Grime 2006; McGill et al. 2006). 102 This functional perspective relies on the prevalence of niche specialization and functional differences 103 among species (MacArthur 1970; Weiher & Keddy 1999; Kraft et al. 2015) as well as the 104 corresponding relationships between them, which are mainly competitive but also facilitative 105 (Bertness & Callaway 1994). Functional traits can indicate the different features of each species niche 106 related to critical life stages, such as germination (Donohue et al. 2010; Peco et al. 2009), nutrient 107 uptake (Carmona et al. 2014), pollinator attraction (Sargent & Ackerly 2008), and other processes 108 that determine species interactions and overall performance. Plant trait-based ecology is providing 109 new insights into old questions related to community ecology (Escudero & Valladares 2016; Shipley 110 et al. 2016). In particular, instead of common garden community designs that consider a selection of species for testing a particular hypothesis, experimental manipulations of monolith communities are 111 112 essential for merging the experimental approach with a realistic picture of the overall community,

and for testing hypotheses based on the species assemblies found in observational studies
(Götzenberger *et al.* 2012, HilleRisLambers *et al.* 2012).

115 Rainfall, specifically its amount and timing, is the most critical abiotic determinant of annual plant communities in drylands (Levine et al. 2011; Huxman et al. 2013). For instance, in the Mediterranean 116 117 gypsum soil steppes, climate variability among years (Luzuriaga et al. 2012; 2015) and the speciesspecific germination response to water availability (Sánchez et al. 2014) can yield different annual 118 119 plant community compositions and structures each year. Biological soil crusts (BSCs) increase water 120 infiltration and reduce evaporation (Chamizo et al. 2012; Berdugo et al. 2014), and thus the 121 interaction between BSCs and rainfall may be critical for annual plant assemblies. The importance of BSCs has been demonstrated during soil seed bank formation (Peralta et al. 2016), seed germination 122 123 and seedling establishment (Escudero et al. 2007), and for the mature-plant communities during the 124 community phenological peak (Luzuriaga et al. 2012, 2015).

125 Annual plant communities are an excellent model system for conducting experiments based on 126 community monoliths for the following four reasons (Huxman et al. 2013). (1) Annual plant 127 communities have a very rich regional species pool and high species densities in reduced areas due 128 to their small size (Luzuriaga et al. 2012, 2015). (2) According to soil seed bank studies conducted in similar communities (Caballero et al. 2008; Olano et al. 2012; Peralta et al. 2016), the soil seed 129 130 banks were very similar in terms of the species composition in all of the study systems, probably because species dispersal is not limited (Luzuriaga et al. 2018). (3) Annuals have short life spans, so 131 their complete life cycle can be observed in a few months. (4) Mediterranean annual plants are able 132 133 to germinate in different conditions but they are highly synchronized throughout their short life cycle, which results in the clear prevalence of different processes during the growing season (Sánchez et al. 134 2014). Moreover, annual plant communities are amenable to simple experimental manipulation 135 136 because they can be entirely translocated by taking pieces of intact soil from the field during the community dormancy period immediately before germination. These community monoliths 137

138 containing intact soil seed banks and intact BSC structures can be subjected to experimental139 treatments, and new assemblies will develop within a short period (6 or 7 months).

140 The main aim of this study was to test the simultaneous effects of probable abiotic and biotic filters on the assembly of annual plant communities. Given that plant communities can be structured 141 142 according to multiple factors and their interactions (de Bello et al. 2013; López-Angulo et al. 2018), we studied their simultaneous effects on the plant composition and richness, as well as on the 143 144 functional trait diversity in different life stages for the community, ranging from germination and 145 seedling establishment to the reproductive phenological peak. We selected functional traits related to 146 the leaf economics spectrum (specific leaf area (SLA) and leaf dry matter content (LDMC)), reproduction trade-offs (seed mass and reproductive ratio), establishment of size hierarchies (plant 147 148 height), and resource uptake (root:shoot dry mass ratio) (Cornelissen et al. 2003; Wright et al. 2004; 149 Hirose et al. 2005; Craine 2009). We extracted soil monoliths from the field with the intact annual plant community in the soil seed bank. Although this method has rarely been used (but see Insausti 150 151 et al. 1999; Weltzin et al. 2000, Harmens et al. 2004; Debouk et al. 2015), this technique allows the 152 experimental manipulation of the whole natural community, without the need for creating artificial communities. We manipulated previously established critical assembly factors in these communities 153 154 comprising the rainfall amount (i.e., drought intensity) and timing (Experiment 1: abiotic filters), as well as the rainfall amount and physical structure of the BSC (intact or highly perturbed; Experiment 155 2: abiotic and biotic filters). 156

We hypothesized that both the abiotic and biotic factors as well as their interactions would determine the community assemblies at fine spatial scales in the experimentally manipulated annual plant communities. These factors may filter species based on specific functional traits and eventually determine the final species composition in the community (Götzenberger *et al.* 2012). Thus, we considered the following hypotheses. (i) Experimental variations in the biotic and abiotic conditions would cause changes in the species composition (see our conceptual model in Fig. 2). (ii) Directional

shifts in the community-weighted means (CWMs) would probably be associated with the species 163 sorting process among contrasting scenarios. For example, we expected that the CWMs of traits 164 related to water-resource economy would tend to be more conservative under reduced water 165 166 availability conditions (i.e., low SLA values, high LDMC values, and high root: shoot ratios). (iii) The Rao index estimates the functional divergence of a community, so the Rao values should converge 167 168 when abiotic/biotic conditions become harsher, which may imply the existence of a probabilistic sieve 169 for certain functional traits. By focusing on traits measured at maturity, we assumed that changes in 170 the functional traits were determined only by changes in the species composition (Leps et al. 2011), which is a conservative expectation considering the potential amplifying effect of intraspecific trait 171 variability. 172

173 The expected effects of abiotic or biotic filters should appear throughout the ontogeny of the 174 community, although they may differ in terms of their intensities in each stage. In particular, 175 deviations from the typical rainfall amounts and timings should reduce the functional diversity of 176 traits related to water and resource economy (i.e., SLA, LDMC, root:shoot ratio, height, and 177 reproductive ratio). Physical perturbation of the BSC could also lead to effects that are more complex. 178 Thus, we expected an increase in the functional diversity of traits related to germination and seedling 179 establishment (i.e., seed mass and root:shoot ratio) in the perturbed BSC treatments due to the absence of physical restrictions on seedling establishment. In addition, we expected a reduction in the 180 181 functional diversity of traits related to water stress tolerance (SLA and LDMC) due to the reduced 182 capacity of the perturbed BSC to retain water.

183 Materials and methods

184 STUDY SITE

185 We collected soil monoliths containing the entire annual plant community in the soil seed bank from a semiarid gypsum steppe. In this system, plants experience limiting environmental 186 conditions, such as the nutrient poor soil derived from gypsum outcrops containing large amounts 187 188 of calcium sulphate, which can interfere with nutrient uptake (Bosccaiu *et al.* 2011). In addition, the high rate of evapotranspiration develops physical soil crusts on the soil surface, which may hinder 189 seedling establishment (Escudero et al. 2015). The collection area was located in Ciempozuelos (40 190 191 km south of Madrid, Central Spain, 40°08'36.9"N 3°36'60.0"W) at 568 m.a.s.l. with annual mean rainfall of 365 mm m⁻². The habitat comprises a gypsum steppe where specialist shrubs 192 193 (Helianthemum squamatum (L.) Dum. Cours., Lepidium subulatum L., Centaurea hyssopifolia Vahl, and Gypsophila struthium L. in Loefl.) are scattered in a matrix of BSCs dominated by 194 lichens (e.g., Diploschistes diacapsis (Ach.) Lumbsch, Squamarina lentigera (G.H. Weber) Poelt, 195 196 Fulgensia subbracteata (Nyl.) Poelt, and Psora decipiens (Hedw.) Hoffm) and seasonally covered by a very rich annual plant community (ca. 38 plant species/0.25 m², Luzuriaga *et al.*, 2012), which 197 develops mainly on bare ground areas. Annuals mainly germinate during the autumn months and 198 the plants remain as seedlings until early spring when they grow and reproduce to complete their 199 200 life cycle before May. This annual community comprises tiny plants (mean height = 10 cm) and 201 some are strict gypsophytes (Luzuriaga et al. 2015). The most abundant annual species in the 202 community are Campanula erinus L., Neatostema apulum (L.) I.M. Johnst, Micropyrum tenellum 203 (L.) Link, and Plantago afra L., as well as Chaenorrhinum revesii (C. Vicioso and Pau) Benedí and 204 *Campanula fastigiata* Dufour *ex* DC among the strict gypsophytes.

We collected community monoliths from open areas, which were at least 50 cm away from the perennial vegetation patches, and they had well-developed and non-perturbed BSCs (>50% cover)

207 (see details in Fig. 1). The first 3 cm of the soil layer containing the soil seed bank (Russi *et al.*, 1992)

208 was extracted with a square coring device measuring 10×10 cm. Before extracting the community monoliths, the soil surface was watered in order to facilitate BSC conservation and to avoid the loss 209 210 of the soil's vertical structure. The extracted samples were placed on plastic trays and transported to 211 the experimental station at Rey Juan Carlos University (Móstoles, Madrid, Spain: 40°18'48"N, 3°52'57''W) located 40 km west of the field site, but with a similar elevation and climate. Community 212 213 monoliths were collected in September during 2013 and 2014 (384 community monoliths were taken each year from a surface area of ca. 0.02 ha) before the autumn germination commenced. Thus, the 214 samples contained the complete soil seed bank, i.e., seeds from the persistent seed bank and seeds 215 216 dispersed in the previous spring. The meteorological conditions were average in the previous year.

217 The day after collection, the community monoliths were carefully placed in plastic pots with a 218 diameter of 30 cm and depth of 10 cm, which had previously been filled with 5 kg of seed free gypsum 219 soil. Broken or damaged samples were discarded. We randomly placed four community monoliths measuring 10×10 cm in each pot to give a total surface of 20×20 cm, which constituted a replicate 220 of the community and our experimental unit. A surface of 20×20 cm was sufficiently representative 221 222 of the soil seed bank and the micro-heterogeneous variability in this community (data from Peralta et 223 al., 2016). The gypsum soil used to fill the pots was collected near the field site from a deep soil layer 224 in order to ensure that no seeds were present. However, five pots containing only gypsum soil were 225 also included to control for seed contamination. The pots containing the experimental communities 226 were placed under two rainout shelters, where the principal structure measured 6 m long \times 5 m wide 227 with slotted angle steel bars and a sloping methacrylate roof. The height varied from 2.4 m to 2 m to allow water evacuation. The soil under the shelters was covered with geotextile in order to prevent 228 229 the growth of external plants, thereby avoiding shadows or seed contamination. The pots containing 230 the experimental communities were placed in two rows inside the shelters and at least 1 m away from the edges to avoid rain. Each year, 96 pots were monitored (16 replicates \times six experimental 231 scenarios). Each pot was a sampling unit. 232

233 EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

In order to test our specific hypotheses, we set up two complementary experiments. The first experiment evaluated the effects of two critical abiotic factors on the communities (rainfall amount and timing). In the second experiment, the abiotic factor was exacerbated (rainfall amount) and combined factorially with a biotic factor (perturbation of BSC).

238 *Experiment 1 (abiotic filters)*

239 In 2013, the rainfall timing (three levels) and rainfall amount (two levels) were manipulated according 240 to an orthogonal design to generate six experimental rainfall scenarios. The three rainfall timing treatments simulated in this study were: typical distribution of rainfall (typical timing), dry autumn 241 242 with a wet spring (dry autumn), and wet autumn with a dry spring (dry spring). In addition, two 243 rainfall amount levels were considered: mean rainfall amount (270 mm/growing period, from October 244 to April) and slight drought treatment (25% rainfall reduction) (Appendix S1). All of the treatments were based on rainfall data recorded at the nearest weather station in Getafe, which is located ca. 30 245 246 km away from the study site and at a similar altitude (www.aemet.es). The typical rainfall timing throughout the growing season (October-April) in our study area comprised wetter autumns than 247 springs (40% and 25% of the annual precipitation, respectively). The remaining precipitation 248 249 occurred outside the growing season, mainly in May and September. The rainfall amounts imposed in the dry autumn and dry spring treatments in our experiment were highly realistic because they 250 251 occurred naturally in 16% and 20% of the last 30 years, respectively. The typical distribution 252 treatment was considered as the mean rainfall in the last 30 years (1981-2010). We performed 253 separate calculations of the rainfall during autumn (October, November, and December), winter 254 (January), and spring (February, March, and April). The rainfall was distributed equally among the 255 three months of each season in every scenario. In order to set the rainfall timing for the dry autumn 256 and dry spring treatments, we considered the mean rainfall in the five wettest springs and five wettest 257 autumns during the last 30 years, respectively. We divided this quantity equally among the three

spring/autumn months. We also maintained a constant rainfall amount (30 Lm^{-2}) for January in all of the treatments. Finally, the remaining rainfall up to the average of 270 Lm⁻² recorded for the whole period was divided equally among the three autumn/spring months. In the slight drought scenario, we reduced the amount of water during each month by 25% in each timing scenario, thereby yielding six experimental treatments.

263 *Experiment 2 (abiotic x biotic filters)*

In 2014, we performed an additional experiment to simultaneously evaluate the effect of a biotic (BSC) and abiotic (rainfall amount) factor on the community assembly process. We set three rainfall levels and two BSC treatments in a factorial design, thereby testing six scenarios. We used the same temporal rainfall distribution employed in the typical rainfall timing treatment in experiment 1 and we only manipulated the amount of rainfall (not the timing).

We established three rainfall treatments: mean rainfall with no drought = 100% of the mean rainfall recorded in every month during the last 30 years; moderate drought = 33% reduction of the mean rainfall during every month; and severe drought = 66% reduction of the mean during every month. Two BSC perturbation levels were tested: intact and perturbed. In the perturbed replicates, the BSC structure was mechanically destroyed with a mace (Fig. 1).

In both experiments, irrigation was provided each week with the corresponding quantities of water for each month and scenario (S1). The effects of the treatments on the soil moisture levels were recorded in two pots per treatment with Hobo data loggers and a time domain reflectometer. We also placed three Hobo data loggers inside and outside the rainout shelters to control for potential warming due to a greenhouse effect and the size effect throughout the area covered by the shelter. The rainout shelters increased the mean temperature by 0.7°C and we did not detect any fine scale effects within the shelter.

281 Sampling of the experimental communities

Community sampling was conducted at three different times in experiment 1 (December, February, and April) in order to observe different life stages throughout community development, i.e., the emergence and seedling stage, vegetative stage, and reproductive peak. In Experiment 2, only seedlings and reproductive plants were recorded. For each experimental community and sample date, we registered each individual of every species and we then calculated the species richness and plant abundances as the total number of individuals in each pot.

288 Measurement of species functional traits and community functional estimates

Species functional traits were estimated based on at least 10 individuals per species, all of which were 289 290 randomly collected from the study area where the community monoliths were sampled (not from the 291 pots). We obtained functional trait data for about 90% of the species found in our experimental 292 communities. We selected non-correlated functional traits related to different functions and processes 293 associated with plant development and community assembly: (1) seed mass; (2) maximum plant 294 height (omitting inflorescences); (3) SLA; (4) LDMC; (5) reproductive ratio (reproductive:vegetative 295 dry mass ratio); and (6) root: shoot ratio (below ground: above ground dry mass ratio). All of the traits 296 were measured according to the protocols described by Cornelissen et al. (2003). The period from 297 the first to the last sampling was three months, so it was highly probable that the seedling and adult trait values would be highly correlated (see Grzesiak et al. 2012; Dodig et al. 2015 for studies on 298 299 maize). In addition, we were mostly interested in assessing the main functional strategies in coexisting species, and thus we focused on trait differences at comparable life stages (Cornelissen et al. 2003). 300 301 We calculated CWMs and Rao indices for each trait with the *melodic* function in R, where these 302 functional indices indicated the mean value and functional diversity of each trait at the community 303 level, respectively.

304 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

We conducted repeated measures generalized linear mixed model analyses to model CWM and Rao for each trait across all sampling times. Sequential observations of the same pot throughout the

growing season were considered to be repeated measures. The rainfall timing, rainfall amount, life 307 308 stage, and the interactions between them were used as fixed predictors in the first experiment. In the second experiment, the explanatory variables were the rainfall amount, BSC perturbation, life stage, 309 310 and the interactions between them. We used the glmer function from the lme4 package in R (Bates et 311 al., 2014) to fit the repeated measures models, and we considered pot as a repeated measures random 312 factor. We assumed Gaussian distributions and identity link functions for all CWM and Rao indices. 313 To ensure that the data conformed with the assumption of normality, we log-transformed seed 314 mass_{CWM} and height_{CWM} in the analyses of the first experiment, and seed mass_{CWM} in the analyses of the second experiment. Poisson and negative binomial distributions were assumed for species 315 316 richness and plant abundance (total number of individuals per pot), respectively, in Experiment 1 and negative binomial for both in Experiment 2. We used Type III sum of squares. Post hoc Tukey tests 317 318 were performed with the lsmeans package (Russell 2015).

319 PERMANOVA models were constructed to evaluate changes in species compositions between the 320 rainfall timing treatments and rainfall amount treatments in experiment 1, as well as between the 321 rainfall amount treatments and BSC perturbation treatments in experiment 2. The community data 322 were square root-transformed to reduce the weightings of the dominant species. We used dissimilarity 323 matrices based on the Bray-Curtis distance (Legendre and Legendre, 1998) and type III sums of squares. The significance of each model was tested using a Monte-Carlo test based on 9999 324 permutations. In addition, we manually conducted three pairwise PERMANOVA analyses to evaluate 325 326 differences in the species composition between the three rainfall timing treatments in Experiment 1 327 and the three drought treatments in Experiment 2. Differences were only considered significant when the p-values were smaller than 0.0166 (0.05 divided by the number of analyses). Finally, we 328 329 performed non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) for each life stage (seedlings, vegetative, and reproductive community) to visualize the differences in the species compositions between the 330 331 three rainfall timing treatments in Experiment 1, and between the drought treatments and BSC

treatments in Experiment 2. PERMANOVA and NMDS analyses were performed in R ('vegan'
package, Oksanen *et al.* 2015).

334 **Results**

335 EXPERIMENT 1

336 In the first experiment, we registered 2663 individuals from 70 species (Appendix S2), where 53.4% of the individuals belonged to five species: Campanula erinus L., Micropyrum tenellum (L.) Link, 337 338 Plantago afra L., Asterolinon linum-stellatum (L.) Duby in DC, and Sherardia arvensis L. The timing 339 of rainfall determined the species composition from the beginning (seedling stage) and subsequently during community development (Table 1, Fig. 3). The rainfall timing treatments did not affect the 340 341 species richness or plant abundances (Table 2), but they led to significant differences in the species 342 composition. Thus, the communities that developed in dry autumn conditions and dry spring 343 conditions had similar plant abundances or species richness in the adult stage, but they differed in terms of their species composition (pairwise PERMANOVA, p < 0.003). Slight drought (-25%) or 344 345 its interaction with rainfall timing had no effect on species composition (Table 1).

Life stage explained the highest proportion of the variation in the plant functional trait CWMs, both directly and through the interaction with rainfall timing (Table 3). Seed mass_{CWM} and LDMC_{CWM} (except for the initial high LDMC_{CWM} for the seedlings in the dry autumn) increased and SLA_{CWM} decreased consistently throughout the life stages in all treatments, whereas the other plant traits exhibited different temporal patterns of variation in the different rainfall timing scenarios.

With the typical rainfall timing, the CWMs were similar throughout the whole growing season (except LDMC_{CWM} increased significantly in the final reproductive stage) (Fig. 4). However, the dry autumn or dry spring rainfall timing affected the functional traits of the experimental communities throughout the growing season. The dry spring treatment resulted in similar height_{CWM} values to those with the typical timing, but the dry autumn treatment led to significant increases in height_{CWM} from the

356 seedling to the vegetative life stages. The reproductive ratio_{CWM} values differed greatly between the 357 timing treatments, where they were fairly constant under the typical rainfall timing conditions, whereas they decreased in the dry spring and increased in the dry autumn from the seedling stage to 358 359 reproductive adults. The opposite pattern was determined for the root:shoot ratio_{CWM} where the values decreased with the dry autumn timing and increased with the dry spring timing throughout the 360 361 community life stages. A reduction of 25% in the mean rainfall amount had no significant effects on 362 most of the trait CWMs (except for the interaction with timing for the root:shoot CWM; Table 3). 363 The Rao functional diversity index tended to be maximized under the typical rainfall timing for all of the plant traits considered in this study (Fig. 4). The reproductive ratio_{Rao} was significantly different 364 365 at each rainfall timing and it remained higher in the typical treatment.

366 EXPERIMENT 2

367 We registered 6559 individuals from 61 species (Appendix S2), where 54.2% of the individuals 368 belonged to five species: Asterolinon linum-stellatum, Campanula erinus, Sedum gypsicola Boiss. and Reuter, Micropyrum tenellum, and Erodium cicutarium (L.) L'Hér. ex Aiton. The rainfall amount 369 370 was critical for the species compositions from the seedling to the reproductive stages (Table 1, Fig. 371 3). At the seedling stage, all three treatments differed (pairwise PERMANOVA, p = 0.036 between 372 100% and 33% rainfall reduction; p < 0.003 between 66% rainfall reduction and the other two 373 treatments). At the reproductive stage, significant differences in the species composition were only observed between 66% rainfall reduction and the other two treatments (p < 0.003). No effects of BSC 374 375 perturbation or its interaction with rainfall amount were detected on the species composition (Table 376 1).

The species richness and abundance decreased according to the drought severity (Table 2, Appendix S3). The plant abundance also decreased throughout the community life stages. BSC perturbation led to an initial increase in richness, followed by a decrease to values similar to those observed under the intact BSC. 381 The increase in the drought severity compared with Experiment 1 allowed us to determine the effects 382 of drought on the annual plant assemblies. Moderate drought (33% rainfall reduction) only decreased the taxonomic diversity slightly, but severe drought (66% rainfall reduction) reduced it dramatically 383 384 and shifted the mean community values for most of the functional traits. The effects of severe drought on the CWMs were indicated by the higher seed mass_{CWM}, LDMC_{CWM}, and root:shoot ratio_{CWM}, and 385 lower values for the SLA_{CWM} and reproductive ratio_{CWM} (Table 4, Fig. 5). BSC perturbation changed 386 387 the functional patterns of the experimental assemblies by leading to a generally lower height_{CWM} and reproductive ratio_{CWM}, but an increase in LDMC_{CWM} during the reproductive community life stage. 388 389 The severe drought treatment significantly reduced the Rao functional diversity indices, except for seed mass_{Rao} (Table 4, Fig. 6). In addition, BSC perturbation increased SLA_{Rao} throughout the 390 growing season under moderate drought conditions (-33%) but decreased it under severe drought (-391

392 66%) conditions. BSC perturbation also increased seed mass_{Rao} but decreased height_{Rao}, especially 393 with severe drought. Finally, BSC perturbation also reduced LDMC_{Rao}, reproductive ratio_{Rao}, and

root:shoot ratio_{Rao} only in the interaction with the reproductive life stage, especially under severe

drought conditions (Table 4, Fig. 6).

396 **Discussion**

Our results provide experimental evidence for the effects of abiotic and biotic filters throughout the community assembly process. Moreover, these filters operate via functionally driven mechanisms (assembly rules *sensu* Götzenberger *et al.* 2012) to determine the community functional diversity. Both the rainfall pattern and BSC structure favoured the entry of species with certain functional traits in the final assembly (Shipley 2010), thereby inducing shifts in the CWMs (Chacón-Labella *et al.* 2016) and reducing the functional diversity associated with these traits in some cases, and thus they operated as ecological filters (Bernard-Verdier *et al.* 2012).

The rainfall treatments that replicated the average conditions (typical timing and average rainfall 404 405 amount) produced the maximum niche width and diversification throughout the whole growing 406 season in terms of the measured species richness and functional diversity. The population dynamics are highly synchronous in these communities, so we could more clearly identify the filters that 407 408 operated in the early life stages during the assembly process. The effects of these filters during germination and seedling emergence involved most of the plant functional traits, and they determined 409 410 the overall plant functional diversity in the phenological peak. Overall, our findings demonstrate that 411 germination was the key process for the assembly of these communities (Donohue et al. 2010), where 412 they suggested the phenotypic integration of multiple characters in annual plant species (Freschet et 413 al. 2015). Our analyses highlight the importance of evaluating the effects of environmental factors on 414 community assemblies throughout community development (Schiffers & Tielbörger 2006) and of 415 considering the interactions among factors (López-Angulo et al. 2018) because processes that lead to 416 opposite effects can hinder their detection and interpretation (Conti et al. 2017). The effect of 417 manipulating the BSCs illustrated the influence of environmental factors because BSCs acted as a germination filter for seed size and as a buffer to attenuate drought severity during the following life 418 419 stages. This complex network of effects sometimes occurred in opposed directions and it was difficult to unravel, but the functional signals determined based on the species assembly were compatible with 420

421 recognizable ecological assembly rules. Furthermore, these functional shifts were related to422 detectable changes in the species compositions of the communities.

423 Water availability (rainfall timing and amount) is a well-known abiotic filter for semi-arid annual plant communities (Chesson et al. 2004; Miranda et al. 2011; Espigares & Peco 1995; Carmona et 424 425 al. 2012). In particular, the rainfall timing explained the taxonomic and functional changes in the 426 observed assemblies better than slight and moderate changes in the rainfall amount. Timing shifts are known to be specific cues for germination pulses (Sánchez et al. 2014) and they are also associated 427 with differential species mortality in drier seasons (Espigares & Peco 1995). In addition, autumn 428 429 droughts were more critical for the species assemblies than spring droughts. The dry autumn timing 430 decreased the species richness and restricted the range of root:shoot ratio values in the community, 431 which is consistent with the selection of long-rooted species under water restriction scenarios in 432 another study (Craine 2009). Unexpectedly, we found that the Rao values for reproductive:vegetative and root:shoot traits increased throughout the life cycle of the annual plant communities in the dry 433 434 autumn treatment. Dry autumn conditions limited germination, whereas subsequent irrigation to 435 simulate wet spring triggered the germination of a few new species to increase Rao in the community's final stages. 436

In terms of the rainfall amount, only extreme droughts acted as a filter by changing the species 437 438 composition and leading to the convergence of functional traits. Drought events are relatively frequent in this environment (one in five years), which suggests that a long-term adaptive scenario 439 has shaped the regional species pool by favouring species that can cope with the average semiarid 440 441 conditions but also with their stochastic variability (Tielbörger et al. 2014). Thus, annual species can 442 experience a wide range of conditions and they must be highly resilient to drought events. However, we found that when drought surpassed a certain threshold of severity, water shortage acted as a strong 443 444 abiotic filter to yield a simplified community in terms of species richness and functional diversity.

Under severe drought, species with functional traits that facilitated coping with water scarcity 445 446 dominated the communities. In particular, larger seeded species were favoured under water shortage conditions (Metz et al. 2010; Leishman et al. 2000) as well as short species and species with low 447 448 reproductive ratios, which indicated their more efficient water use (Karlsson & Méndez 2005; Huxman et al. 2013; Eskelien & Harrison 2015). Similarly, species with high root:shoot ratios that 449 could acquire water more efficiently during drought events (Lloret et al., 1999; Craine 2009; Zeppel 450 451 et al. 2014) were also favoured in severe drought scenarios. By contrast, plant traits that indicated 452 high growth rates, such as a high SLA and low LDMC (Reich et al. 1997; Freschet et al. 2010; Wright et al. 2004; Gibert et al. 2016), were rare in the assemblies under water shortage scenarios. Therefore, 453 454 we found that species had a higher probability of occurring in the assemblies under drought conditions when they had a higher seed mass, LDMC, and root:shoot ratios, but a lower SLA, reproductive ratio, 455 456 and height.

457 These findings suggest that evolution operates on the entire plant rather than on isolated plant traits 458 (Reich et al. 2003b), which is in agreement with other studies that found evidence of multi-trait 459 syndromes across plant organs at the species level (Wright & Westoby 1999; Liu et al. 2010; Reich 2014). Overall, our results suggest that traits are phenotypically integrated as an adaptation to multiple 460 461 ecological dimensions of the Mediterranean climate (Tielbörger et al. 2014; Laughlin & Messier 2015). In fact, under severe droughts, the constant CWM and Rao values indicate that the germinated 462 463 species were already equipped with this set of traits. Thus, germination and seedling establishment 464 appeared to control the community functional diversity throughout the whole growing season 465 (Donohue et al. 2010; Jiménez-Alfaro et al. 2016).

The importance of BSCs for annual plant community attributes (Luzuriaga *et al.* 2012; Peralta *et al.* 2016) as well as for germination and seedling establishment (Escudero *et al.* 2007; Langhans *et al.* 2009) are widely recognized, but their effects on community assemblies have not been assessed in previous experimental studies. Our results support the ecological importance of BSCs in semi-arid

ecosystems (Chamizo et al. 2012; Luzuriaga et al. 2012, 2015; Maestre et al. 2013; Berdugo et al. 470 471 2014; Peralta et al. 2016). When the BSCs were mechanically perturbed, the traits related to plant economics (i.e. height, LDMC, SLA, root:shoot, and reproductive ratio) converged, especially under 472 473 severe drought conditions. The values of the CWMs for the assemblies formed under perturbed BSCs were similar to those when the availability of water was scarce (i.e., shorter species with higher 474 475 LDMC values, lower reproductive ratios, lower SLA values, and larger root:shoot values). The most 476 likely explanation for these effects is that the BSCs alleviated the scarcity of water by reducing soil 477 evapotranspiration. Lichens are known to retain water inside their thallus or to seal the soil surface (crustose thallus), thereby creating wetter and more benign conditions at the fine scale at which annual 478 479 plants are established (Berdugo et al. 2014). Thus, BSCs can buffer the effects of drought, which may be critical in future conditions under global warming. These findings support the BSC-annual plant 480 481 interaction suggested by Luzuriaga et al. (2012) who found no relationship between BSC and annuals 482 in wet years and positive associations in dry years. In addition, when the BSCs were perturbed, the species in the communities had more diverse seed sizes, whereas the species had more homogeneous 483 seed sizes in the well-conserved BSCs, thereby suggesting that the BSCs acted as a filter during 484 485 germination and seedling establishment via the seed mass (Escudero et al. 2007; Hernández & Sandquist 2011). 486

487 **Conclusions**

The results obtained in this study demonstrate the important effects of abiotic factors that lead to interannual environmental variability (Carmona *et al.* 2014; Stark *et al.* 2017) as well as biotic factors that operate at fine spatial scales (Conti *et al.* 2017) on the functional diversity of annual plant communities. We measured functional traits for adult plants but we still detected the meaningful sorting of species related to environmental filters in our study. Thus, the functional traits measured in the adult stages of annual plants are useful for understanding species assembly in other life stages based on the high correlations between seedling and adult traits in annual plants (Grzesiak *et al.* 2012; 495 Dodig *et al.* 2015). Furthermore, our results strongly suggest that many plant functional traits are496 highly correlated.

497 We found that rainfall, specifically autumn droughts, acted as a critical filter by favouring species with better characteristics in terms of stress resistance (high LDMC and low SLA) and resource 498 499 economy (short species with low reproductive ratio and higher root:shoot ratios). In addition, we 500 identified two roles for BSCs acting: i) as a biotic filter that prevented the germination and 501 establishment of species with larger seeds; and ii) as a buffer against abiotic stressful conditions by reducing soil evapotranspiration. Thus, climatic fluctuations and fine scale biotic determinants of 502 503 spatial heterogeneity emerged as sources of niche differentiation in time and space, thereby promoting 504 species coexistence and leading to the high diversity levels found in these communities. However, 505 extreme droughts can reduce the community diversity, especially when they are combined with BSC 506 perturbations. These extreme conditions may yield a simplified (filtered) community with fewer species and lower functional diversity. 507

508 Authors' contributions

A.M.S., A.L.L., and A.E. designed the experimental study and statistical analyses. A.L.P. prepared the community monoliths and conducted the community surveys and traits measurements. A.L.P. and F.B. performed the statistical analyses. A.L.P. wrote the first draft and all authors contributed to subsequent versions.

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522 Data Accessibility

523 Data deposited in the Dryad repository: <u>https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.tf7s2s5</u>

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	Seedlings						Vegetative					Reproductive									
Experiment 1	df	SS	MS	F	R2	<i>p</i> - value		Df	SS	MS	F	R2	<i>p</i> -value	I	Df	SS	MS	F	R2	<i>p</i> -value	
Rain Timing	2	2.31	1.15	4.40	0.09	< 0.001	***	2	1.33	0.66	2.29	0.05	<0.001 *	*	2	2.26	1.13	3.85	0.09	< 0.001	***
Rain Amount	1	0.22	0.22	0.86	0.01	0.59		1	0.14	0.14	0.48	0.01	0.93		1	0.22	0.22	0.75	0.01	0.68	
$\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	0.63	0.32	1.21	0.03	0.22		2	0.32	0.16	0.55	0.01	0.96		2	0.37	0.18	0.63	0.01	0.91	
Residuals	83	21.77	0.26		0.87			78	22.55	0.29		0.93		7	77	22.61	0.29		0.89		
Total	88	24.92			1.00			83	24.36			1.00		8	32	25.49			1.00		
Experiment 2																					
Rain Amount	2	4.26	2.13	10.21	0.19	< 0.001	***								2	3.33	1.67	7.57	0.15	< 0.001	***
BSC	1	0.21	0.21	1.01	0.01	0.40									1	0.38	0.38	1.71	0.02	0.06	
$A \times BSC$	2	0.33	0.16	0.79	0.01	0.73									2	0.55	0.28	1.26	0.02	0.18	
Residuals	87	18.15	0.21	0.79										8	34	18.48	0.22	0.81			
Total	92	22.95	1.00											8	39	22.74	1.00				

Table 1. PERMANOVA analyses of the species composition in Experiment 1 with respect to the rainfall timing (T) and amount (A) treatments in the seedling, vegetative, and reproductive life stages (n = 89, n = 84, n = 83, respectively). Only the dry autumn pots differed from the dry spring and typical timing in the germination (pairwise PERMANOVA p < 0.003 for both) and vegetative stages (p = 0.027 and p = 0.009,

respectively). In the reproductive stage, significant differences in species composition were observed among the three rainfall timing treatments (p < 0.003 between all treatments). In Experiment 2, PERMANOVA analyses were conducted based on the species composition relative to the rainfall amount and biological soil crust (BSC) perturbation treatments in the seedling and reproductive life stages (n = 93, n = 90, respectively). In the seedling stage, all three treatments differed (pairwise PERMANOVA p = 0.036 between 100% and 33% rain reduction; p < 0.003 between 66% rain reduction and the other two treatments). In the reproductive stage, significant differences in species composition were observed between 66% rain reduction and the other two treatments (p < 0.003).

		Exp	erim	ent 1				Experiment 2						
		Spp)	Plan	nt			Spp		Plant				
	Richness ab			abunda	abundance			Richne	ess	abunda	nce			
	Df	Chis	q	Chis	q		Df	Chise	1	Chis	q			
(Intercept)	1	336.22	***	436.80	***	(Intercept)	1	1455.60	***	1408.14	***			
Life Stage	2	30.98	***	4.62	•	Life stage	1	2.79	•	38.73	***			
Rain Timing	2	4.95		3.02		Rain amount	2	56.85	***	54.37	***			
Rain Amount	1	0.79		0.34		BSC	1	0.13		0.37				
$\mathbf{S} imes \mathbf{T}$	4	95.23	***	36.34	***	$\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	0.91		0.12				
$\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	3.71		0.56		$S \times BSC$	1	5.48	*	3.11				
$\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	2.44		2.77		$A \times BSC$	2	3.87		2.16				
$S \times T \times A$	4	2.28		7.00		$\begin{array}{l} S \times A \times \\ BSC \end{array}$	2	1.97		2.40				

Table 2. Generalized linear mixed models (GLMM) employed to explain the variations in plant abundance and species richness. In Experiment 1, rainfall timing (T), rainfall amount (A), and life stage (S), as well as their interactions, were included in the models as fixed effects. In Experiment 2, rainfall amount (A), biological soil crust perturbation (BSC), and community life stage (S), as well as their interactions, were included in the models as fixed effects. Pot was also included in the models as a repeated measures random factor. Significant results are shown in bold and indicated with asterisks: ***, p < 0.001; **, 0.001 ; *, <math>0.01 .

		Seed mass	Height	SLA	LDMC	Reproductive ratio	Root:shoot		
CWM	Df	Chisq	Chisq	Chisq	Chisq	Chisq	Chisq		
(Intercept)	1	8136.62 ***	18761.54 ***	6070.62 ***	23341.83 ***	810.39 ***	5149.65 ***		
Life Stage	2	17.98 ***	4.68 .	26.35 ***	32.32 ***	8.67 *	5.41 .		
Rain Timing	2	1.02	2.00	4.38	3.19	7.60 *	1.35		
Rain Amount	1	0.88	0.04	0.20	1.17	0.08	1.02		
$\mathbf{S} imes \mathbf{T}$	4	7.61	21.34 ***	7.75	37.62 ***	52.23 ***	27.57 ***		
$\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	1.40	0.78	3.17	0.84	4.10	0.66		
$\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	1.77	3.89	0.59	1.30	2.30	8.33 *		
$S \times T \times A$	4	2.52	10.26 *	1.63	1.69	4.56	1.11		
Rao									
(Intercept)	1	177.08 ***	288.71 ***	581.61 ***	343.82 ***	489.76 ***	448.28 ***		
Life Stage	2	0.16	5.61 .	1.12	17.87 ***	5.48 .	5.25 .		
Rain Timing	2	0.93	3.26	1.51	2.82	9.41 **	4.02		
Rain Amount	1	0.25	0.09	2.06	1.56	4.52 *	0.60		
$\mathbf{S} imes \mathbf{T}$	4	3.32	7.27	2.23	8.97 .	17.00 **	27.84 ***		
$\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	2.39	1.09	0.10	0.75	0.55	1.04		
$\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	0.44	0.23	2.72	1.29	1.61	2.29		
$\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{A}$	4	2.00	2.33	0.69	0.51	1.14	1.59		

Table 3. Generalized linear mixed models employed to explain the variations in the CWMs and Rao values for each trait in Experiment 1. Rainfall timing (T), rainfall amount (A), and life stage (S), as well as their interactions, were included in the models as fixed effects. Pot was also included in the models as a repeated measures random factor. Significant results are shown in bold and indicated with asterisks: ***, p < 0.001; **, 0.001 ; *, <math>0.01 ; '.', <math>0.05 .

	Seed mas		Height	SLA	LDMC	Reproductive ratio	Root:shoot
CWM	Df Chisq		Chisq	Chisq	Chisq	Chisq	Chisq
(Intercept)	1	7360.79 ***	470.23 ***	8638.49 ***	17781.82 ***	2214.52 ***	4343.27 ***
Life Stage	1	6.69 **	0.52	4.35 *	9.42 **	0.04	0.68
Rain Amount	2	17.94 ***	2.58	9.20 *	22.40 ***	58.67 ***	26.89 ***
BSC	1	3.46 .	6.57 *	0.58	0.05	2.65	3.08 .
$\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	5.35 .	5.09 .	1.69	2.70	1.94	8.69 *
$S \times BSC$	1	0.78	0.26	0.05	5.02 *	5.24 *	0.54
$A \times BSC$	2	1.83	0.78	0.87	4.22	2.76	0.30
$S \times A \times BSC$	2	0.62	3.49	0.55	0.28	1.74	2.68

Rao

Itao													
(Intercept)	1	329.92	***	740.21	***	1215.69	***	746.56	***	833.43	***	1137.11	***
Life Stage	1	0.00		0.24		0.15		2.27		1.14		2.41	
Rain Amount	2	0.05		40.83	***	24.43	***	63.65	***	67.72	***	39.21	***
BSC	1	5.53	*	5.55	*	0.80		0.72		0.56		1.63	
$\mathbf{S} \times \mathbf{A}$	2	4.66	•	0.13		7.07	*	0.99		4.43		1.94	
$S \times BSC$	1	3.10	•	2.32		3.04	•	7.69	**	6.05	*	4.65	*
$A \times BSC$	2	4.95	•	8.19	*	1.68		2.94		5.87		9.20	*
$S \times A \times BSC$	2	1.67		2.21		6.55	*	8.42	*	8.92	*	6.52	*

Table 4. Generalized linear mixed models employed to explain the variations in CWMs and Rao values for each trait observed in Experiment 2. Rainfall amount (A), biological soil crust perturbation (BSC), and life stage (S), as well as their interactions, were included in the models as fixed effects. Pot was also included in the models as a repeated measures random factor. Significant results are shown in bold and indicated with asterisks: ***, p < 0.001; **, 0.001 ; *, <math>0.01 ; '.', <math>0.05 .

Figure 1







Figure 3







Figure	5
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Fig. 1. Study site where the community samples were collected (1). Detailed illustration of the extraction process for the community monoliths (2–5). Arrangement of the community monoliths in plastic pots filled with gypsum (6–7). Biological soil crust perturbation treatment (8–9). Placement of pots under the rainout shelters (10) and irrigation (11). Community developed in a plastic pot after five months (12).

Fig. 2. Conceptual model illustrating the expected effects of abiotic (rainfall) and biotic (biological soil crust) factors on community assembly and functional diversity. Our experimental approach allowed us to observe the assembly processes for annual plant communities after manipulating the rainfall amount and timing scenarios, as well as contrasting with the biological soil crust status (mechanically perturbed *vs.* intact). We evaluated the effects related to the experimental manipulation of abiotic factors throughout the community ontogeny (represented by the red arrows) from the seedling stage immediately after germination until the adult stage when the plants flowered. We expected that the manipulated factors would determine the species that might enter the community from the species pool, thereby leading to changes in the species composition (top panel) and functional trait values (middle panel) among the contrasting scenarios and along the community ontogeny. Moreover, they might modify the community functional diversity by promoting trait-based species sorting and/or the convergence of functional strategies, i.e., functional filtering (bottom panel).

Fig. 3. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination based on the species compositions in pots. Centroids and error bars for the rainfall timing treatments are shown. Seedling (t_1) , vegetative (t_2) , and reproductive (t_3) life stages in experiment 1 are represented in the three upper panels (black circles = typical rainfall timing treatment, dark grey triangles = dry spring timing, and light grey squares = dry autumn timing). Seedling (t_1) , and reproductive (t_3) life stages in experiment 2 are represented in the three lower panels (black circles = 100% mean rainfall treatment, dark grey

triangles = 33% reduction, and light grey squares = 66% reduction of mean rainfall). Stress values for all the ordinations were always below 0.22.

Fig. 4. Experiment 1: Mean values for community weighted means (CWM) and functional diversity indices (Rao) for the significant terms shown in Table 3 for the seedling (t_1), vegetative (t_2), and reproductive (t_3) life stages. The three rainfall timing treatments are shown (black circles = typical rainfall timing, dark grey triangles = dry spring timing, and light grey squares = dry autumn timing). Vertical bars represent standard errors. See appendices S4 (CWM) and S6 (Rao) for the post hoc Tukey's test differences in the least square mean differences among treatments.

Fig. 5. Experiment 2: Mean values of the community weighted Means (CWM) for the significant terms shown in Table 4 for the seedling (t_1) and reproductive (t_3) life stages. Three rainfall treatments (black circles = 100% rainfall amount, dark grey triangles = 33% reduction of the average rainfall values, and light grey squares = 66% reduction of the average rainfall values) and biological soil crust (BSC) perturbation treatments (circles = intact BSC and triangles = perturbed BSC) are shown. Vertical bars represent standard errors. See appendix S5 for the post hoc Tukey's test differences in the least square mean differences among treatments.

Fig. 6. Experiment 2: Mean values of the functional diversity indices (Rao) for the significant terms shown in Table 4 for the seedling (t_1) and reproductive (t_3) life stages. Three rainfall treatments (black circles = 100% rainfall amount, dark grey triangles = 33% reduction of the average rainfall values, and light grey squares = 66% reduction of the average rainfall values) and biological soil crust (BSC) perturbation treatments (circles = intact BSC and triangles = perturbed BSC) are shown. Vertical bars represent standard errors. See appendix S7 for the post hoc Tukey's test differences in the least square mean differences among treatments.