

Opposing Effects of Plant-Community Assembly Maintain Constant Litter Decomposition over Grasslands Aged from 1 to 25 Years

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1	Opposing effects of plant-community assembly maintain constant
2	litter decomposition over grasslands aged from 1 to 25 years
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15	• Plant-community assembly impacts plant afterlife traits and decomposer communities
16	• Plant-community assembly drives litter decomposition at a given successional stage
17	• Effects of traits and decomposers on decomposition mutually cancel out each other
18	Short title: Community assembly drives litter decomposition
19	
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22	collection. LB analyzed the data, with help of AP, CM and VJ. LB wrote the manuscript, with help of
23	all authors.

25 SUMMARY

26 Litter decomposition is central to ecosystem functioning and depends, under constant abiotic conditions, on litter quality and decomposer activity. During the assembly of a plant 27 28 community following disturbance, litter quality is expected to decrease, due to an increasing proportion of resource-conservative species, whereas decomposer activity is expected to 29 increase, due to the establishment of decomposer populations and their response to local 30 vegetation ("Home-Field Advantage", HFA). To date, the combined effect of these processes 31 remains poorly understood. We studied 27 semi-natural grasslands in western France, ranging 32 33 from 1 to 25 years since last cultivation. We measured the functional composition of plant communities using litter traits (Specific Leaf Area, Leaf Dry Matter Content, C:N ratio, 34 phenolics), characterized the entire community of decomposers (macrofauna, mesofauna, 35 36 microbes) and performed reciprocal litter transplants to quantify HFA. We found that, overall, decomposition was rapid, and HFA was not evident. While there was substantial among-37 grassland variation in decomposition and HFA, neither changed with grassland age. Litter 38 39 quality and decomposer efficiency also remained, overall, unchanged. However, grassland age determined all measured litter traits, and caused soil microbial C:N ratio to decline. While 40 these changes impacted decomposition individually, together they cancelled out each other, 41 resulting in constant decomposition across the chronosequence. Our results suggest that 42 processes driving decomposition differ during grassland succession, and suggest that HFA 43 44 may be lower in communities with high litter quality. Moreover, simultaneous assembly processes have opposing, and therefore stabilizing effects on decomposition, possibly 45 explaining the outstanding resilience of primary production in temperate grassland 46 47 ecosystems.

Key-words: plant-community assembly, decomposers and detritivores, Home-Field
Advantage, grasslands, litter decomposition, plant functional traits

50 **INTRODUCTION**

51 The decomposition of plant litter is one of the main bottlenecks regulating carbon storage and nutrient cycling in terrestrial ecosystems (Swift and others 1979). Under a given set of abiotic 52 53 conditions, litter decomposition is controlled by two main biotic parameters and their interaction (Coûteaux and others 1995): litter quality (Cornelissen and others 1999; 54 Makkonen and others 2012), decomposer community (Petersen and Luxton 1982; Bardgett 55 and van der Putten 2014), and response of decomposers to local litter quality (Austin and 56 others 2014; Veen and others 2015). These biotic factors contribute to differences in 57 58 decomposition among biomes, and among successional stages (e.g., grassland versus forest), however, it remains unclear whether and how they operate during the assembly of a given 59 successional stage. Grasslands are the most widespread successional stage of temperate 60 61 terrestrial biomes, and the largest terrestrial ecosystems in the globe. Although the successional stage of grasslands is maintained by agricultural practices (grazing or mowing), 62 community assembly processes still operate, from young, species-poor grasslands dominated 63 64 by the sown species to old grasslands dominated by spontaneous species (i.e. grassland succession, Cramer and others 2008). In grasslands, between 50 and 90% of plant primary 65 production ends up as litter (Cebrian 1999). In contrast to temperate forest ecosystems, the 66 production of litter in temperate grasslands may be sustained through the year, due to 67 continuous growth and senescence of graminoid species. Consequently, litter decomposition 68 69 is a central ecosystem process in natural and semi-natural grasslands, providing many ecosystem services, including nutrient mineralization for plant regrowth. 70

Throughout the assembly of a grassland plant community, litter decomposition might decrease, due to decreasing litter quality of plant species. Litter quality is determined by the digestibility and the nutritional quality of litter for decomposers, which depends on functional traits of plants (Cornelissen and Thompson 1997). For instance, litter quality decreases with

high phenol content or high C:N ratio (Hättenschwiler and Vitousek 2000; Quested and others 75 76 2007; Bakker and others 2011). Along a succession sequence, these functional traits are likely to differ among successional stages, because traits are involved in plant-plant interactions and 77 78 community assembly (Hättenschwiler and Vitousek 2000; Garnier and others 2004; Violle and others 2009; Barbe and others 2017). Specifically, resource-conservative traits, which 79 cause litter quality to decline (for instance, high C:N or high leaf dry matter content [LDMC]) 80 may only be expressed in late-succession stages, where plant species are already established 81 and competition is high (Wright and others 2004). During the community assembly of a given 82 successional stage, similar mechanisms might occur and plant species present in older 83 84 communities might display resource-conservative traits rather than resource-acquisitive traits. These dynamics could result in litter quality, and hence litter decomposition, decreasing with 85 grassland community assembly. 86

The abundance of grassland detritivores and decomposers and their ability to decompose local 87 88 litter might increase with time because of processes such as adaptation, plasticity, or ecological sorting, thereby increasing litter decomposition. Both detritivore macrofauna 89 (earthworms) and mesofauna (Collembola, Acari and Enchytraeidae) fragment litter, 90 accelerating the mineralization and respiration of carbohydrates by fungi and bacteria 91 (Petersen and Luxton 1982; Coûteaux and others 1995; Bardgett and van der Putten 2014). 92 Many decomposers are largely immobile and have slow population growth rates. At the onset 93 of grassland community assembly, low decomposer abundance might limit litter 94 decomposition, because grasslands might inherit few decomposers from prior land use: the 95 96 abundance of detritivores and decomposers decreases considerably in row-crop agriculture, which is considered a major anthropogenic disturbance (Ponge and others 2003, 2013; 97 Chauvat and others 2007). Consequently, time might be required to recover decomposer 98 99 populations, from the same patch or from adjacent patches (Decaëns and others 2008).

Moreover, decomposer communities are able to adapt to locally-derived litter: the 100 communities sometimes break down litter more efficiently from "Home" compared to other 101 places, with this phenomenon being called Home-Field Advantage (HFA, Freschet and others 102 103 2012; Austin and others 2014; Veen and others 2015). This phenomenon occurs due to species sorting or selecting particular genotypes, which increase the decomposition rate of a 104 particular type of litter through time. However, there is mixed evidence about the consistency 105 and prevalence of HFA (Gießelmann and others 2011; Veen and others 2015). Of note, the 106 107 response of decomposers to litter quality may have a lag time, depending on particular litter traits or decomposer assemblages, and might more likely to occur in plant communities with 108 low litter quality (Milcu and Manning 2011; Veen and others 2018). Overall, the net effect of 109 changes to decomposer abundance and response to litter quality might therefore depend on the 110 duration of the assembly of grassland plant community, and might increase litter 111 112 decomposition in old grasslands, counteracting the effects of changes to litter quality.

113 In this study, we investigated how litter traits, decomposer community, and their interactions affect litter decomposition during community assembly using semi-natural grasslands as a 114 model system. We used a 25-years grassland chronosequence to test whether and how litter 115 decomposition changes with grassland age. Specifically, we tested the following hypotheses: 116 (i) grassland age slows down litter decomposition because litter quality declines and, (ii) 117 grassland age accelerates litter decomposition because decomposer abundance increases or 118 HFA emerges or increases. The chronosequence consisted of 27 grasslands in an agricultural 119 landscape in western France (Brittany), ranging from 1 to 25 years since the last crop. We 120 121 measured four functional traits aggregated at the plant community level; namely, specific leaf area (SLA), LDMC, C:N ratio, and phenolic concentration. We characterized the entire 122 decomposer community (macrofauna, mesofauna and microbes). We performed a reciprocal 123

litter transplant experiment, to quantify the response of decomposer communities to locallitter quality (HFA).

126 MATERIALS AND METHODS

127 Study Site and Grassland Selection

We carried out the study at the Long Term Ecological Site (LTER) «Zone Atelier 128 Armorique », which is a 150 km² research area in Brittany, France (48°36'N, 1°32'W). Row 129 crops and pastureland cover approximately 90% of the landscape, which is intersected by a 130 well-developed hedgerow network ranging from 50 to 100 m.ha⁻¹ (Thomas and others 2016). 131 We used ground-truthed aerial photos, which were taken every year since 1990, to construct a 132 detailed land-use history for all sites, allowing us to determine the time since cultivation for 133 134 each grassland precisely. Based on this land-use history and verification with grassland owners, we selected 27 grasslands ranging from one to 25 years since last row cropping. The 135 136 grasslands were similar with respect to the initial species that were sown (Lolium perenne (L.) and Trifolium repens or pratensis) and management practices (annual mowing and extensive 137 grazing, approximately 60 cows for two days once per month). The grasslands were also 138 139 similar regarding environmental conditions (mesophilic grasslands) and the type of soil (brown soil that drained freely with well-developped organic and mineral horizons). The total 140 soil C:N ratio of parcels, measured on the top 15 cm of parcels with a 20 cm diameter 141 stainless steel hand corer, was 13.4 ± 1.7 . Parcels were 3 ha ± 1.4 ha. 142

143 Characterization of Plant Community and Plant Functional Traits

We characterized the percentage coverage of plant species in each grassland during spring 2015 using 10 quadrats of $1m^2$ that were evenly distributed within the grassland. We identified the most abundant species(*i.e.* species accounting for 80% of the total abundance of the community; Pakeman and Quested 2007), which represented from two to five species for

each grassland (total richness from 8 to 27). For these species, we measured four functional 148 traits related to litter quality; namely, specific leaf area (SLA), leaf dry matter content 149 (LDMC), leaf C:N ratio and leaf phenolic concentration. These traits mainly reflect the 150 physical and chemical properties of the litter (Hättenschwiler and Vitousek 2000; Pérez-151 Harguindeguy and others 2000; Santiago 2007; Quested and others 2007). To obtain a 152 representative mean value for each trait from each species, we measured the traits of 10 153 individuals that were collected from randomly selected grasslands in our experiment. Phenolic 154 155 concentration was measured colorimetrically, according to the Folin-Ciocalteu colorimetric method (Folin and Denis 1915) modified by Santonja and others (2015), using gallic acid as a 156 157 standard. A 0.25 g litter sample was dissolved in an aqueous methanol solution, that was shaken for 1-h and then filtered. The filtered extract was mixed with Folin-Ciocalteu reagent, 158 a color-reaction stabilizer (Na₂CO₃), and distilled water. After 1-h, phenolics concentration 159 was measured at 765 nm on a spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific[®], USA). We measured 160 SLA and LDMC following the standard protocols of Pérez-Harguindeguy and others (2013), 161 162 and we measured C:N ratio using an elemental analyzer (FLASH EA 1112 Thermo Finnigan, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA). For each grassland, we aggregated the values of species 163 traits to obtain an abundance-weighted mean for each trait (see Appendix Table S1 for species 164 trait values). Correlations between traits (Appendix Table S2), with only two significant 165 correlations being detected among the six trait correlations that we tested for, indicates low 166 multicollinearity among traits. 167

168 Characterization of the Decomposer Community

We sampled detritivore macrofauna (*i.e.* earthworms) in each grassland during spring 2016, according to the method of Ponge and others (2013) and Cluzeau and others (2012). In brief, three 1x1m quadrats were watered three times with 10 l formalin at increasing concentration every 15 min (0.075, 0.075 and 0.12% formaldehyde solution), and a soil block (25x25cm and

20cm depth) was extracted at the end of sampling and hand sorted. Earthworms that were 173 expelled to the surface by the irritant solution, or were recovered during the sorting of the soil 174 block, were collected. Identification was done in the laboratory following the identification 175 key of Cluzeau and others (unpublished, available upon request), based on Bouché (1972). 176 Earthworms were characterized by abundance and biomass (fresh weight) and were grouped 177 into ecological categories: epigeic or anecic - we excluded endogeic earthworms as they do 178 not directly influence decomposition of surface litter (Bouché 1977). Then, we sampled soil 179 180 detritivore mesofauna using a cylindrical soil corer (5 cm diameter \times 8 cm depth; three soil cores per grassland on two sampling dates). Mesofauna was extracted from the soil cores 181 using the Tullgren funnel method (Berlese 1905) over a 10-day period. Collected organisms 182 were stored in 95% ethanol, counted using a binocular scope and separated into three groups: 183 Acari (Oribatids), Collembola and Enchytraeidae. Finally, we measured soil microbial C:N 184 185 ratio, as a proxy of the composition of the microbial community, illustrating dominance of fungi or dominance of bacteria (Paul and Clark 1996; Van Elsas and others 2006). We 186 187 measured the microbial C:N ratio using the fumigation-extraction method from Brookes and others (1985) and Vance and others (1987). We collected and aggregated 15 soil cores from 188 the top 10 cm layer for each grassland to obtain a representative soil sample. From this 189 sample, we used a 30 g soil sample that was passed through a 2-mm sieve, and was then hand-190 191 sorted to remove any visible organic material (plant roots, litter fragments). Before and after fumigation-extraction, we measured microbial C concentration using a Wet Oxidation Total 192 Carbon Analyzer 1010 (OI-Analytical, USA) and microbial N concentration using a 193 continuous flux AutoAnalyzer (measuring total dissolved N, AA3 Bran & Luebbe, USA). The 194 microbial C and N concentrations were obtained by substracting the values obtained before 195 fumigation-extraction from the values obtained after. Microbial C:N ratio was then calculated 196 by dividing microbial C concentration with microbial N concentration. 197

198 Abiotic Parameters and Local Landscape and Management

Abiotic parameters such as soil moisture and soil pH can also affect plant traits, decomposer 199 200 community and litter decomposition (Coûteaux and others 1995). Thus, we quantified soil 201 moisture and pH in each grassland during spring 2016 using soil samples from the top 15 cm layer collected with a 20 cm diameter stainless steel hand corer. After the manual removal of 202 203 rocks and roots > 2 mm, soil moisture (ω) was determined by mass loss at 105°C for 24 h according to the formula: $\omega = \frac{(W-D)}{D} \times 100$, where W is the wet soil mass on the sampling 204 date and D is the dry soil mass. Soil pH was determined with a 1:10 soil, de-ionized water 205 suspension, following standard methods (Robertson and others 1999). We also accounted for 206 207 the local landscape surrounding the selected grasslands, which might influence plant traits and decomposer community. Using the database of historical land-use data, we quantified the 208 percentage of each grassland perimeter that was in contact with grasslands older than 5 years, 209 which are adjacent grasslands that represent a significant source of propagules and fauna for 210 the selected grasslands. 211

212 Litter Decomposition and Transplant Experiment

In each grassland, we collected litter in the fall of 2015 for the 2–5 species accounting for 213 214 80% of total plant abundance. We did not collect stems. For all species, we collected green material for litter as in semi-natural grasslands the main portion of plant material contributing 215 to the litter pool is green material, not senesced litter (due to mowing and grazing, Mazzanti 216 217 and others 1994; Sanaullah and others 2010). The duration of leaf decomposition is very short for the main grassland species in our experiment (especially Lolium perenne and legumes 218 219 from the genera Trifolium, see Results for mass losses) such their leaves decompose before achieving complete senescence. Litter was cleaned, air-dried, and placed into 8x8 cm mesh 220 221 bags. Litterbags had 2 mm mesh on the upper side to avoid contamination by allochthonous

litter, and 5 mm mesh on the lower side to allow numerous detritivores to shuttle between the 222 soil and litter to freely access the litter - during the period of exposure. Litter always 223 remained moist and was never brittle. Litterbags were positioned on bare ground by gently 224 225 pushing aside grasses (*i.e.* without removing any plants). Each litterbag contained 1g of litter, that was oven-dried equivalent (air-dry/oven-dry ratio calculated from subsamples that were 226 oven-dried but not exposed to decomposition), and were constructed with the relative 227 proportion of species from the grassland. We constructed 15 litterbags for each grassland, five 228 of which were placed in the original grassland ("Home" decomposition) and 10 of which we 229 randomly placed in 10 other grasslands of the experiment ("Away" decomposition) to 230 measure HFA. We performed decomposition experiments during early spring 2016 and 231 litterbags were collected 10 days later, when they reached 30-60% mass loss. Mass loss was 232 measured on all 15 samples per grassland after cleaning the litter, and were oven-dried at 65 233 °C for three days. Mass loss (%) was calculated as $(1 - \frac{m1}{m0}) \times 100$, where m₀ is the initial 234 oven-dried equivalent dry weight and m_1 is the oven-dry weight at collection. 235

We calculated HFA, litter quality and soil ability (*i.e.* abiotic conditions and decomposer efficiency) for each grassland by running the Decomposer Ability Regression Test (Keiser and others 2014) using SAS University Edition (SAS Institute, Cary, NC). This analysis disentangles, for a given mass loss, the effects of HFA, litter quality, and soil ability, estimated respectively by the parameters η_h , β_l and γ_s in the following equation:

$$\mathbf{Y}_{i} = \alpha + \sum_{l=1}^{N} \beta_{l} Litter_{l_{i}} + \sum_{s=1}^{M} \gamma_{s} Soil_{s_{i}} + \sum_{h=1}^{K} \eta_{h} Home_{h_{i}} + \varepsilon_{i}$$

241

where Y_i is the decomposition of obervation i, and Litter_l, Soil_s, and Home_h are dummy variables that equal 1 or 0, respectively, depending on the presence or absence of the litter mixture (from the litter mixture 1 to N), soil community (from soil community 1 to M) and home combination (from home combinations 1 to K). The average decomposition in the data set is α (*i.e.* the intercept of the model) and ε is the error term. β_1 and γ_s were restricted to prevent perfect collinearity. The value of a given parameter that was estimated (η_h , β_1 and γ_s) indicated, as a single percentage per grassland, the difference to the mean decomposition of the dataset due to this parameter. These single parameters per grassland will be further correlated with grassland age, because there is no variation of age within grasslands.

To explore whether and how HFA is driven by litter traits and detritivore and decomposer descriptors, we calculated the HFA for the five "Home" replicates of each grassland, because plant traits vary within grasslands (similar to Veen and others 2018). We used the following equations (Gießelmann and others 2011, Pérez and others 2013):

$$255 \qquad (1) \text{ HFA}_{a1} = \text{HDD}_{a1} - \text{ADD}_{a} - \text{H}$$

256 (2)
$$HDD_{a1} = \sum (D_{a1a} - D_{ia})$$

257 (3)
$$ADD_a = \sum (D_{ai} - D_{ii})$$

258 (4)
$$H = \sum HDD/(n-1)$$

HFA_{a1} represents the Home-Field Advantage for litter replicate 1 of grassland a. Positive 259 values indicated, as a percentage, faster home decomposition than expected, while negative 260 261 values indicated slower home decomposition than expected. HDD_{a1} represents the Home Decomposition Difference for litter replicate 1 from grassland a. This value was the sum of 262 the differences between the decomposition of this litter in its original grassland a (D_{a1a}) and 263 the decomposition in this grassland of litters from other grasslands i (D_{ia}). ADD_a represents 264 the Away Decomposition Difference for grassland a. This value was the sum of the 265 266 differences between the decomposition of litter from grassland a in other grasslands i and the home decomposition of grasslands i. H represents the sum of all HDD for all litters divided by 267 268 amount of litters minus one. Overall, we quantified HFA per litter bag, as established in the literature (see above), however, we stress that quantification per grassland (*i.e.* using means)
led to very similar results and are hence not presented.

To explore the role of litters traits and decomposer community on litter decomposition per se, 271 we calculated three mass loss values for each grassland, by averaging mass loss within the 272 three treatment types: home litter at home, home litter away, and away litter at home. This 273 274 approach allowed us to test for the numerous effects of plant traits and decomposer communities, that may vary within a grassland (similar to Veen et al. 2018). Analyses based 275 on all values within grasslands led to the same conclusions (except that explained variance 276 was slightly smaller and P-values were even more significant, due to the larger sample) and 277 278 are therefore not presented.

279 Statistical Analyses

Before all the statistical tests, we center-scaled all variables (*i.e.* transformed variables by 280 281 subtracting their mean and dividing by their standard deviation) to permit comparisons of regression coefficients within and among models. We used multiple ordinary least square 282 (OLS) regression models to test the effect of grassland age on plant functional traits (SLA, 283 284 LDMC, C:N ratio, phenolics) and decomposer community (soil microbial C:N ratio, abundance and biomass of epigeic earthworms and anecic earthworms, and abundance of 285 Acari, Collembola and Enchytraeidae), accounting for abiotic parameters and local landscape 286 (soil moisture, soil pH and percentage of adjacent grasslands). We used simple OLS 287 regression models to test the effect of grassland age on HFA, soil ability, litter quality, and 288 289 litter mass loss. We used multiple OLS regression models to test the effect of plant functional 290 traits and decomposer community on litter mass loss and HFA (as calculated in Gießelmann 291 and others 2011, Pérez and others 2013) also accounting for abiotic parameters, local 292 landscape and grassland age. Of note, in the model explaining mass loss we also included the

transplantation treatment (home litter at home, home litter away, away litter at home), 293 however, this factor was not significant and we do not present the results. To summarize the 294 results of the individual regression analyses, we conducted a path analysis (Wright 1934), 295 which allowed us to visualize the strength of the indirect effects of grassland age on litter 296 mass loss and HFA, which were effects mediated by plant functional traits and decomposer 297 community. For each indirect effect, we calculated a compound path by multiplying: (i) the 298 standardized regression coefficient from the model that related grassland age to plant 299 300 functional traits or decomposer community with (ii) the standardized regression coefficient from the model that related plant functional traits or decomposer community to litter mass 301 loss. Finally, we compared, for litter mass loss and HFA, the sum of the indirect effects of 302 grassland age with the single overall effect of grassland age. We graphically examined 303 residuals using probability plots and predicted versus residual plots, indicating that all residual 304 305 distributions fulfilled the assumption of normality and homogeneity. All statistical analyses were performed with R 3.0.3 (R Development Core Team 2016). 306

307 **RESULTS**

308 Plant Functional Traits and Decomposer Community Depend on Grassland Age

309 We observed large differences in the functional traits of the plant community and in the composition of the decomposer community among entire grasslands. Grassland age strongly 310 311 explained all functional traits of the plant community (simple regression analyses, Figure 1). Specifically, age increased leaf C:N ratio ($F_{18}=11.07$, $P=7.10^{-4}$, adj-R²=0.50), leaf phenolic 312 concentration (F_{18} =4.19, P=0.03, adj-R²=0.24), and SLA (F_{19} =3.71, P=0.04, R²=0.20), while 313 it decreased LDMC ($F_{25}=31.64$, $P=7.10^{-6}$, adj-R²=0.52). Old grasslands hence harbored a 314 plant community with mainly thin, moist leaves; however, these leaves contained lower 315 nitrogen concentration and higher phenolic content. Grassland age also increased soil 316

microbial C:N ratio ($F_{20}=5.32$, P=0.03, $R^2=0.17$, Figure 1), as well as the abundance of Acari ($F_{23}=9.20$, $P=6.10^{-3}$, $R^2=0.25$, Figure 1). Earthworm abundance, as well as the abundance of Collembola and Enchytraeidae, was not associated with grassland age; however, the percentage of adjacent grasslands increased the abundance of anecic earthworms (Figure S1). Despite multiple relationships between age and either litter traits or decomposer community, we found one significant correlation between litter traits and detritivore and decomposer community (Acari vs LDMC, r=-0.54, P<0.05, see Table S2).

Litter Decomposition and Home-Field Advantage Differ Among Grasslands and Depend on Plant Functional Traits and the Decomposer Community

We observed large among-grassland differences in litter mass loss and HFA (Figure S2). 326 Overall, across all of the litters in our experiment, we did not observe a positive mean HFA 327 328 (no significant difference from a mean of 0, t=1.41, df=133, P=0.16). Grassland age did not directly influence litter mass loss (F₂₅=0.29, P=0.60, Figure 2), HFA (F₂₅=0.41, P=0.53, 329 Figure 2), soil ability ($F_{25}=0.71$, P=0.41, Figure 2) nor litter quality ($F_{25}=0.22$, P=0.4, Figure 2) 330 2). However, several plant functional traits and the soil microbial C:N ratio, related to 331 grassland age, strongly explained litter mass loss ($F_{56}=12.43$, $P=7.10^{-9}$, adj-R²=0.53, Figure 332 3): the leaf C:N ratio decreased litter mass loss, as did LDMC and SLA (Figure 3). Decrease 333 in soil microbial C:N was associated with decrease in litter mass loss (Figure 3). Moreover, 334 soil moisture decreased litter mass loss (Figure S3). None of the plant functional traits 335 influenced HFA, but HFA increased when anecic earthworms were more abundant (Figure 336 S1, F_{101} =6.37, P=0.044, semi-partial R²=0.06) and when soil moisture was low (Figure S3, 337 F_{101} =6.37, P=0.013, semi-partial R²=0.03). We also note that, when explaining litter mass 338 339 loss by functional traits and decomposer community, a positive, direct effect of grassland age on litter mass loss was detected after removal of all other significant effects (Figure S4). 340 Finally, as plant functional traits and soil microbial C:N were influenced by grassland age, we 341

obtained the following indirect effects of grassland age on litter mass loss (Figure S4): -0.42
via leaf C:N ratio, -0.26 via SLA, 0.53 via LDMC, -0.15 via the soil microbial C:N ratio and
0.22 via an unmeasured parameter. The sum of all indirect effects of grassland age on litter
mass loss was -0.08, indicating no significant total effect, which was consistent with the lack
of an overall effect of grassland age on litter mass loss that we initially observed (Figure 2).

347 **DISCUSSION**

Grassland age influenced all measured functional traits of the plant community, as well as the soil microbial C:N ratio. These changes, in turn, impacted litter mass loss, but they cancelled each other out, resulting in constant litter decomposition across the chronosequence. Litter overall mass loss, litter quality (*i.e.* litter decomposability), decomposer efficiency, and HFA did not change with grassland age.

353 Plant Functional Traits Change with Age, but not towards Resource-Conservatism

The four functional traits that we measured on plant communities strongly responded to 354 grassland age. Specifically, the plant communities of old grasslands displayed a higher leaf 355 356 C:N ratio and phenolic concentration, along with higher SLA and lower LDMC. Thus, grassland assembly favored resource-conservative trait values as much as resource-acquisitive 357 trait values. This result contrasted with what we expected from other studies (Wright and 358 others 2004; Quested and others 2007). These changes in functional traits were probably due 359 360 to plant turnover during grassland assembly, with new species establishing and dominating initial species that had higher C:N and phenolic concentration (for instance, Ranunculus 361 repens or Dactylis glomerata, Figure S5). These characteristics might enhance the resistance 362 of these new species against herbivores (Bernays and others 1989). Moreover, high SLA and 363 low LDMC might facilitate high resource acquisition and hence regrowth to compensate for 364 herbivory (Briske 1996). This observed plant succession during grassland assembly might be 365

attributed to the immigration of new plant species from the surrounding landscape or by the germination of seeds already present in the soil seed bank. Overall, these results show that shifts to plant afterlife traits arise during the assembly of a successional stage (*i.e.* grasslands), not only across successional stages, for example after grassland abandonment (Kahmen and Poschlod 2004; Quested and others 2007).

371 Offsetting Effects of Plant Traits on Litter Decomposition

Individually, each of these changes to plant traits (except changes to phenolics) influenced 372 litter decomposition, but they did not reduce litter decomposition, which remained unchanged 373 374 with grassland age overall: an increase in SLA and C:N ratio decreased litter decomposition, but this was compensated by a decrease in LDMC which increased litter decomposition. 375 While the effects of the C:N ratio and LDMC are consistent with the literature (Bakker and 376 377 others 2011; Pakeman and others 2011), the negative effect of SLA on mass loss was inconsistent with the literature (Santiago 2007; Makkonen and others 2012). However, studies 378 on SLA usually focus on SLA values distinctly smaller than ours. This negative relationship 379 might be explained by the higher compaction of litter with very thin leaves (*i.e.* high SLA), 380 slowing down the colonization of litters by detritivores and decomposers. Alternatively, 381 382 compensatory feeding (i.e. enhanced consumption rate on poor-quality litter to ensure sufficient resource assimilation to meet metabolic needs; Gessner and others 2010) on litter 383 with low SLA might also explain the negative effect of SLA on mass loss. Finally, the lack of 384 influence of leaf phenolic concentration on decomposition was possibly due to the lower leaf 385 386 phenolic concentration of grassland plants compared to other systems (Hättenschwiler and Vitousek 2000) which might have prevented the effects from being detectable. Taken 387 388 together, our results suggest, contrary to what we expected, that community assembly processes result in similar litter quality during grassland succession, likely due to 389 compensatory effects on afterlife traits and litter quality. 390

391 Little Impact of Grassland Age on Detritivores and Decomposers

Only some components of decomposer communities responded to grassland age, partially 392 supporting our predictions. Anecic and epigeic earthworms (macrofauna) did not respond to 393 grassland age; however, the abundance of anecic earthworms increased in grasslands that 394 shared more edges with other grasslands, suggesting the immigration of anecics from the 395 396 surrounding landscape, consistently with their high dispersal ability (Caro and others 2013). Considering mesofauna and microbes, we observed two shifts: the abundance of Oribatids 397 (Acari, detritivore mesofauna) increased with grassland age, as did the soil microbial C:N 398 ratio. The increase in the abundance of Oribatids might be attributed to the recovery of 399 populations of these soil organisms after land-use turnover and the disruptive agricultural 400 401 practices before the sowing of grasslands (Hülsmann and Wolters 1998). Recovery might be permitted by the immigration of new species from an adjacent landscape, or by the 402 demographic development of the remaining initial species. Finally, the increase in soil 403 404 microbial C:N ratio with grassland age might be attributed to a reduction in mineral N input after cropping, ultimately causing the depletion of microbial N (Wardle 1992). 405

406 Strong Functional Redundancy of Detritivores and Decomposers in Grassland Ecosystems?

Unexpectedly, the abundance of macrofauna and mesofauna did not influence decomposition 407 408 (Milcu and others 2008), suggesting that microbial and fungal decomposition were not limited by the fragmentation of leaves. The only decomposer-mediated effect we could identify was 409 410 the increase in soil microbial C:N ratio that was associated with decreasing litter mass loss. 411 Possibly, high soil microbial C:N also reflected a change in the composition of the microbial 412 community, from a dominance of bacteria to a dominance of fungi (Paul and Clark 1996; Van 413 Elsas and others 2006), which might be less efficient at decomposing labile litter (Santonja 414 and others 2018). This slight, microbial C:N-mediated, decrease in litter mass loss was

probably compensated for by a slight increase of litter mass loss due to a statistically direct 415 416 effect of grassland age in the full model; this effect was necessarily that of age on one or several parameters that we did not measure (and it may be a biologically indirect effect, like 417 418 the effects of plant traits and decomposers that we observed), and it explains why soil ability, which represents decomposer efficiency and abiotic conditions, remained globally similar 419 among grasslands. Overall, the lack of relationships between detritivores and decomposers 420 with decomposition might be attributed to the high functional redundancy of these groups for 421 decomposing grassland litter (Gessner and others 2010). Despite variation in the abundance of 422 detritivores and decomposers in our grasslands, there was no effect of any particular group on 423 decomposition. Given the high decomposability of litter in grasslands, the effects of 424 detritivores and decomposers on decomposition might be particularly redundant, with this 425 feature being very stable across time. 426

427 No Impact of Grassland Age on Home-Field Advantage, Due to High Litter Decomposability?

We found, overall, a low HFA, with a substantial variation across grasslands. We found only 428 one significant relationship between the numerous plant traits and detritivores and 429 decomposers that we sampled, not indicating ecological sorting or abundance shifts of 430 detritivores and decomposers in response to litter traits. Overall, we found no relationship 431 between grassland age and HFA: grassland age did not influence HFA, nor did plant 432 functional traits and soil microbial C:N ratio. Besides, litter decomposition rates were very 433 high in our experiment, resulting from the very high decomposability of the green litter of 434 435 graminoids and Trifolium sp. (Sanaullah and others 2010 for similar decomposition rates). High decomposition also resulted from the humid and relatively warm, frost-free winter in the 436 437 study region which increases decomposer activity (this rapidity is also illustrated by the absence of a distinct litter layer in the grasslands). Therefore, our results support that strong 438 HFA may only arise when home litter is very recalcitrant or very dissimilar to other litter 439

(Milcu and Manning 2011; Li and others 2017; Lu and others 2017; Palozzi and Lindo 2018; 440 Hoyos-Santillan and others 2018). Only increased abundance of anecic earthworms triggered 441 some HFA. This interesting phenomenon might reflect, for instance, the response of digestive 442 enzymes of anecic earthworms to local litter (Eisenhauer and others 2012): the digestive 443 metabolism of earthworms could acclimate to home litter, and then secrete more enzymes that 444 are adapted to home litter, which would increase digestion and hence litter consumption. 445 Alternatively, in their permanent galleries, the mucus of anecic earthworms might have been a 446 durable, high quality substrate for decomposer microorganisms, giving them time to adapt to 447 local litter, ultimately triggering HFA. Finally, high soil moisture triggered a slight Home-448 Field Disadvantage. This might be due to waterlogging triggering anoxy in the top soil, 449 decreasing bacterial and fungal activity (thus decreasing mass loss per se) especially in soft, 450 easily hydratable and compactable litters produced within the home environment. Overall, 451 these results show that grassland maturation did not drive HFA, and that HFA might only 452 occur when litter is very recalcitrant or dissimilar, which was not the case in our system. 453 454 Hence, HFA did not require experience of local decomposers with local plants, but rather environments favorable for macrofauna and aerobic decomposition. Earthworms might have a 455 role in this process, despite being quite generalist organisms, with microbes not being the only 456 biotic drivers of HFA (Freschet and others 2012; Austin and others 2014). Further studies, 457 including the sampling of detritivore and decomposer traits, and including the exclusion of 458 fauna, are required to elucidate the precise role of fauna and microbes on HFA. 459

460 **CONCLUSIONS**

We found that community assembly maintained similar litter decomposition along a 25-years chronosequence, and that HFA was not associated with plant community assembly or age. HFA was quite low and was only associated with the macrofauna community and soil moisture, which were not related to grassland age. However, our results showed that several 465 plant functional traits and the soil microbial C:N ratio changed during community assembly.
466 In turn, these changes acted on decomposition, but cancelled out each other, resulting in the
467 same decomposition rate across succession. These results also suggest that in temperate
468 grassland ecosystems, where decomposition is very fast, numerous and important changes in
469 plant and decomposer communities lead to the same levels of ecosystem functions, possibly
470 explaining the outstanding resilience of many grassland ecosystems despite being often a
471 transitional stage.

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658 **Figure captions**

Figure 1. Grassland age significantly influenced all aggregated functional traits of the plant community (phenolics, leaf C:N ratio, Leaf Dry Matter Content, and Specific Leaf Area) as well as the abundance of soil Acari (mesofauna) and soil microbial C:N ratio. Green points represent plant trait values, orange points represent values of decomposer and detritivore indicators. See Results for all model parameters.

Figure 2. Grassland age did not influence Home-Field Advantage (HFA), soil ability (illustrating soil conditions and decomposer efficiency), litter quality (*i.e.* litter decomposability) nor litter overall mass loss (calculated as the mean per grassland across all litters). See Material and Methods for the transplantation treatment and calculations.

Figure 3. Three aggregated functional traits of plant community and soil microbial C:N ratio 668 decreased litter mass loss. Each graph presents partial residuals, so accounts for the 669 simultaneous effect of the other variables in the model. SP-R² represents semi-partial 670 671 residuals. Green points represent plant trait values, and orange points represent values of decomposer and detritivore indicators. The three data points per grassland are the mean of the 672 three treatments (home litter exposed at home, home litter exposed away, and away litter 673 674 exposed at home; the factor containing these treatments did not significantly interact with age in the statistical model explaining mass loss). See Material and Methods for the 675 transplantation treatment and calculations, and Results for all model parameters. 676

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Figure 3.

689 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Table S1. Mean values of functional traits measured on plant species representing 80% of the grassland communities in our experimental design (see Material and Methods) and that were accounted for in the decomposition experiment. Phenolics and LDMC (Leaf Dry Matter Content) are in %, SLA (Specific Leaf Area) is in mm².g⁻¹, and C:N ratio has no unit.

	Functional traits							
	Phenolics		C:N ratio		LDMC		SLA	
Species	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean SD	
Agrostis stolonifera	3.32	0.19	10.78	1.35	21.67	2.09	36.22	3.38
Agrostis tenuis	3.02	0.07	10.36	0.07	32.90	0.66	22.60	1.23
Dactylis glomerata	3.58	0.27	10.47	0.30	16.81	1.19	37.48	8.03
Holcus lanatus	2.92	0.09	9.79	0.16	19.92	2.40	43.53	9.50
Lolium italicum	2.56	0.12	9.30	0.09	22.11	1.78	36.25	5.65
Lolium perenne	2.80	0.10	9.17	0.05	25.00	2.78	22.81	2.71
Ranunculus repens	3.58	0.30	12.22	0.51	14.79	2.62	31.70	7.61
Trifolium pratense	3.82	0.15	9.36	0.20	21.31	1.45	18.90	4.59
Trifolium repens	3.76	0.16	8.93	0.09	20.22	2.01	29.45	5.64

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Table S2. Correlations between plant functional traits, between decomposers and between705plant functional traits and decomposers (Leaf Dry Matter Content, LDMC; Specific Leaf706Area, SLA). For each correlation, the given parameter is the Pearson's or Spearman's707coefficient (depending on the normality of variable distribution) with its significance (*:708P < 0.05; ***: P < 0.001).

	Plant functional traits					Decomposer community				
		LDMC	SLA	Leaf C:N ratio	Phenolics	Microbial C:N ratio	Collembola	Acari	Enchytraeidae	Anecics
t inal s	SLA	-0.13								
Plan Ictio Frait	Leaf C:N ratio	-0.07	0.45*							
fur	Phenolics	0.01	0.20	0.79***						
	Microbial C:N ratio	-0.34	0.26	0.26	0.18					
ser ity	Collembola	-0.22	-0.24	0.07	0.23	0.15				
odu	Acari	-0.54*	0.14	0.39	0.35	0.43*	0.54*			
omr	Enchytraeidae	-0.13	-0.16	-0.03	0.31	-0.09	-0.09	0.07		
ã c	Anecis	0.01	-0.34	-0.10	0.22	-0.04	0.30	0.17	0.25	
_	Epigeics	0.08	0.04	0.02	-0.01	-0.17	-0.23	-0.10	0.40	0.14



Figure S1. Percentage of adjacent grasslands increased the abundance of anecic earthworms, which, in turn, increased Home-Field Advantage (HFA). SP-R² represents semi-partial residuals. See Figure S4 for parameters of models, and see Material and Methods for the transplantation treatment and calculations of HFA.



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Figure S2. Boxplot of mass loss and Home-Field Advantage (HFA) for all litters from the grasslands in our experiment. Grasslands are ordered by age, from the youngest (A, one year old) to the oldest (AA, 25 years old). We observe that, while there is substantial intragrassland variation, there is still important inter-grassland variation for mass loss (ANOVA with grassland as explicative factor: $P < 10^{-16}$, r²=0.27) and HFA (ANOVA with grassland as explicative factor: $P = 4.9 \times 10^{-4}$, r²=0.23).





Figure S3. Soil moisture decreased litter mass loss and Home-Field Advantage (HFA). SP-R²
represents semi-partial residuals. See Results and Figure S4 the model parameters, and see
Material and Methods for the transplantation treatment and calculations of HFA.



Figure S4. Path analysis model for the indirect effects of grassland age on litter mass loss and Home-Field Advantage. These effects are mediated by the functional traits of plant community and by the decomposer community. The figure also presents the effects of abiotic and landscape variables accounted for in the models. Effects are indicated as the standardized regression coefficients of the model, that is the sign and magnitude of the effect. Explained variances are indicated in with each dependent variable, with adj-R². The dotted line represents a statistically direct effect of grassland age on litter decomposition in the model (*i.e.* a biological indirect effect of grassland age that was not mediated by any of the parameters that we measured). The relationship between soil pH and phenolics might be the least causal within the analysis.





Figure S5. Trend lines of mean cover percentage of the nine species used in the decomposition experiment across grassland ageing. These species represent 80% of the total abundance of the plant community. See Table S1 for species traits.