

*Ojeda, Pausas & Verdú (2010)*

# Soil shapes community structure through fire

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## Abstract

Recurrent wildfires constitute a major selecting force in shaping the structure of plant communities. At the regional scale, fire favours phenotypic and phylogenetic clustering in Mediterranean woody plant communities. Nevertheless, the incidence of fire within a fire-prone region may present strong variations at the local, landscape scale. This study tests the prediction that woody communities on acid, nutrient-poor soils should exhibit more pronounced phenotypic and phylogenetic clustering patterns than woody communities on fertile soils, as a consequence of their higher flammability and, hence, presumably higher propensity to recurrent fire. Results confirm the predictions and show that habitat filtering driven by fire may be detected even in local communities from an already fire-filtered regional flora. They also provide a new perspective to consider a preponderant role of fire as a key evolutionary force in acid, infertile Mediterranean heathlands.

**Key-words:** community phylogenetics, fire-traits, Mediterranean heathlands, nutrient-poor soils, phenotypic clustering.

## Introduction

The ecological advantage conferred by a trait (or set of traits) on individual members of a species under a given set of environmental conditions allows the species to occupy that particular habitat (i.e. environmental or habitat filtering). This habitat filtering is one of the key processes structuring community assemblages (van der Valk 1981, Keddy 1992, Webb et al. 2002).

In many ecosystems, recurrent wildfires constitute a major selecting force in shaping the structure and function of plant communities (Bond and van Wilgen 1996; Bond and Keeley 2005; Pausas and Keeley 2009). All Mediterranean-climate regions, except the Chilean, include fire-controlled plant communities (Cowling et al. 1996), which are characterized by species having traits that ensure the persistence of populations under recurrent fires (Keeley 1986). In woody plants, two basic fire-associated traits have been traditionally described: resprouting ability (R+/R-; resprouter/nonsprouter), and fire-induced germination (P+/P-; fire-induced/non-fire-induced) (Pausas et al. 2004, Pausas and Verdú 2005). Fire-induced germination (P+) is widely accepted as an adaptive trait state to the recurrent presence of fire (Bond and van Wilgen 1996; Keeley and Bond 1997; Pausas et al. 2006).

At the regional scale, frequent fires favour an over-representation of P+ species in woody plant communities of the Mediterranean basin (Verdú and Pausas 2007). This over-representation of a particular phenotype (i.e., phenotypic clustering) is a consequence of habitat filtering of those species having the focal trait state (P+). When the trait is evolutionarily conserved, phenotypic clustering subsequently determines phylogenetic clustering (Webb et al. 2002). Indeed, the fire-induced germination trait (P+/-) is strongly conserved in the woody flora of the Mediterranean Basin and woody plant communities under high fire frequency show both phenotypic and phylogenetic clustering (Verdú and Pausas 2007; Pausas and Verdú 2008). Cavender-Bares et al. (2004) found in Floridian oak communities strong phenotypic clustering among co-occurring *Quercus* species sharing fire related traits, thus evidencing habitat filtering.

Although this pattern of fire-driven phenotypic and phylogenetic clustering of Mediterranean plant communities has been reported at the regional scale, little is

known at the local, landscape scale, where marked differences in the fire regime may also occur (e.g. van Wilgen et al. 1990; Clarke 2002). At this scale, soil features such as rockiness (Clarke and Knox 2002) or fertility (e.g. Kellman 1984) may cause heterogeneous burn patterns and thus determine divergent fire regimes. Indeed, soil fertility decreases fire propensity of plant communities by decreasing the flammability of their plant fuels (Kellman 1984; Bowman 2000; Orians and Milewski 2007). On the contrary, plants on acid, nutrient-poor soils accumulate large amounts of polyphenolic compounds (Northup et al. 1998; Kraus et al. 2003), most of which are flammable (Orians and Milewski 2007). They hinder litter decomposition rates and may constitute a chemical defence against herbivory (Hättenschwiler and Vitousek 2000; Kraus et al. 2003), thus favouring the accumulation of flammable plant fuel.

Here, we test the prediction that, at the landscape level within a region characterized by the recurrent occurrence of fire, woody plant communities on acid, infertile soils should exhibit more pronounced phenotypic and phylogenetic clustering patterns than neighbouring communities on non-acid, fertile soils. This may be so because of a presumably higher fire-propensity of infertile plant communities owing to their higher flammability. We focused on Mediterranean shrubland communities from two markedly different soil types frequent in *Los Alcornocales* Natural Park, at the northern side of the Strait of Gibraltar (S Spain). These shrub communities occur in coastal and subcoastal mountains under mild Mediterranean conditions and the region is characterized by a high fire incidence (Ojeda et al. 1995, 2000). They are thus assembled from a fire-filtered flora at the regional scale (Verdú and Pausas 2007). This scenario provides an excellent opportunity to explore whether (1) a presumably spatial variability in fire incidence at the landscape scale is reflected in differences in the phenotypic and phylogenetic structure of local communities and, if so, whether (2) fire may still act as a filter in an already fire-filtered regional flora. By using detailed inventories and functional information of the woody flora and soil data in local community samples we compare the structure of shrubland communities in two edaphically contrasting habitats under the hypothesis that acid, nutrient-poor soils shape the phenotypic and phylogenetic community structure through fire.

## Methods

### Study area

The northern (European) side of the Strait of Gibraltar region, at the westernmost of the Mediterranean Basin, stands out within the Mediterranean for the singularity of its plant biodiversity (Rodríguez et al. 2008). Most of this region lies inside *Los Alcornocales* Natural Park (ca. 1700 Km<sup>2</sup>) and has a rugged topography, albeit no high elevations (500 to 1100 m asl). These mountain chains are mainly formed by folded siliceous Oligo-Miocene sandstone (González-Donoso et al. 1987). In mountain tops and ridges, this sandstone gives rise to very acid, weathered soils, characterized by a high content of soluble aluminum (Ojeda et al. 1995, 1996), an indicative of severe nutrient deficiency (Woolhouse 1981; Prasad and Power 1999; Schroth et al. 2003). These acid, infertile soil patches are found in the region as edaphic islands surrounded by a matrix of non-acid and more fertile limestone and/or marl derived soils (Ojeda et al. 1996). Acid and infertile sandstone soils harbour open heathlands, dominated by fine-leaved, low shrubs, whereas marl and limestone soils are mostly covered by broad-leaved, sclerophyllous shrublands and thickets (Ojeda et al. 1995, 2000).

### Floristic, edaphic and functional data

We selected 16 plots, eight on acid, nutrient-poor, sandstone soils (hereafter LowFer) and eight on non-acid, fertile, limestone and marl soils (HiFer) from two previous studies (Ojeda et al. 1995; Garrido and Hidalgo 1998). Data on woody species composition in 100-m line transects were obtained for each plot from these two sources, as well as soil pH and soluble aluminum, as surrogates for soil fertility (see above; see also Ojeda et al. 1995). LowFer plots were open heathlands while the HiFer plots were sclerophyllous shrublands and thickets. Each species was classified as P+/- depending on the ability of its seeds to resist the action of fire and present fire-cued recruitment on the basis of published information (Paula et al. 2009) and field observations (see Fig. 1). Based on flammability tests of Mediterranean woody species by Elvira-Martín and Hernando-Lara (1989; see Appendix) we were able to

ascertain that flammability levels were higher in LowFer community samples (average 79% of high-flammable species) than in HiFer ones (average 53% of high-flammable species;  $t$ -test=-5.24,  $p$ -value = 0.0002).

### **Phenotypic and phylogenetic structure**

The phenotypic structure of each community was evaluated by testing whether species with similar P phenotypes co-occurred more often than expected by chance (i.e. phenotypic clustering). The co-occurrence matrix was calculated as the pairwise binary distances between species occurrence in the sixteen samples; the phenotypic distance matrix was computed as the pairwise binary distances between P states of the species. A Mantel test correlating co-occurrence and phenotypic distance matrices was run and significance obtained after 1000 iterations (Legendre et al . 1994; Cavender-Bares et al . 2004) in the ADE4 software for R (Thioulouse et al. 1996; R Development Core Team 2007).

The phylogenetic relationships between the 133 species of the woody flora of *Los Alcornocales* Natural Park (Coca-Pérez 2001) were established with the help of the Phylomatic2 components (<http://www.phylodiversity.net/phylomatic/>). These components consist of a database of phylogenetic trees which can be assembled into a megatree by means of a GAWK script named makemega. We used all the trees stored in the phylomatic2 repository plus other trees resolving the relationship within Cistaceae (Guzman and Vargas 2005), Asteraceae (Bayer et al. 2000), Oleaceae (Wallander and Albert 2000), Ericaceae (Kron and Chase 1993) and Rosaceae (Dickinson's Lab +homepage at <http://www.botany.utoronto.ca/faculty/dickinson/DickinsonLab.html>).

The ordinal level trees were based on the Angiosperm Phylogeny Group data (Stevens 2001). Once we had assembled the megatree, we adjusted its branch lengths with the help of the phylocom BLADJ algorithm, which takes the age estimates for major nodes in the tree from Wikström et al. (2001) and distributes undated nodes evenly between nodes of known ages. Finally, our working phylogenetic tree was obtained after matching the genus and family names of our

study species to those contained in the angiosperm megatree. All these analyses were run with the Phylocom 4.0 package (Webb et al. 2005).

The phylogenetic community structure was assessed by testing whether the mean phylogenetic distance (MPD) of the species living in each site was significantly different from the MPD values obtained under a null model (i.e., reshuffling the species labels across the phylogenetic tree). An observed MPD significantly lower than the null expectation indicates phylogenetic clustering, while an observed MPD significantly higher than the null expectation indicates phylogenetic over-dispersion (Webb et al. 2005). MPDs were standardized to allow comparison among plots by calculating the Net Relatedness Index (NRI, Webb et al. 2005), as  $NRI = - (MPD - \text{rndMPD}) / \text{sd.rndMPD}$ , where  $\text{sd.rndMPD}$  is the standard deviation of the 999 random MPD (rndMPD) values. NRI increases with increasing phylogenetic clustering (Webb et al. 2002). We also used the Mean Nearest Neighbour Distance (MNND), and its standardized form, the Nearest Taxon Index ( $NTI = -(\text{MNND} - \text{rndMNND}) / \text{sd.rndMNND}$ ), as another metric to test for the phylogenetic structure of the community. All these analyses were run with the help of the comstruct algorithm implemented in Phylocom 4.0.1b (Webb et al. 2005). To ensure the robustness of our results against the topological uncertainty contained in the phylogenetic tree, we randomly resolved the polytomies and re-run the analyses 100 times. We also accounted for the uncertainty in the branch length estimation by adding random noise to the branch lengths; the noise was normally distributed, with variance proportional to current branch length. A variance multiplier of 0.1 was entered to add to branch lengths.

We explored which taxa were responsible for clustering in each community by testing which nodes in the phylogenetic tree had more species than expected by chance. This test was run with the help of phylocom NODESIG algorithm.

## **Results**

The number of woody species in the plots ranged from 7 to 27 (Table 1), with an overall of 72 species occurring in the 16 plots (Fig. 1). The percentage of P+ species in LowFer community samples ( $83.98\% \pm 12.0\%$ , Mean  $\pm$  SD) was four times higher than in HiFer ones ( $21.45\% \pm 7.5\%$ ; change in deviance = 110,  $df = 1$ ,  $p$ -value =

0.0001, binomial test) (Table 1, Figure 2a). The species with the same P trait state tended to co-occur more often than expected by chance, as indicated by the significant positive correlation between the phenotypic and co-occurrence distance matrices ( $r = 0.253$ ,  $p = 0.0009$ ; Mantel test).

Regarding the phylogenetic structure of the community, species co-occurring in LowFer samples were more phylogenetically related (lower MPD and MNND, Table 1) than expected under the null model, while this was not true for HiFer samples. Indeed, NRI and NTI values were significantly higher in LowFer than in HiFer communities ( $t = -7.58$ ,  $p < 0.0001$  for NRI and  $t = -6.24$ ,  $p < 0.0001$  for NTI, Figure 2b). Differences between HiFer and LowFer in both NRI and NTI remained significant in all the 100 runs accommodating topological and branch length uncertainty.

Clades responsible for the clustering in LowFer plots were families dominated by P+ taxa, such as Ericaceae (5 out of 8 plots), Cistaceae (3 out of 8 plots), and Fabaceae (2 out of 8 plots). Only one LowFer plot showed a clade of P- species (Fagaceae) contributing significantly to phylogenetic clustering.

## **Discussion**

In this study, we have detected a differential occurrence of P+ species in woody plant communities from contrasting soil fertility conditions in such a way that P+ species are over-represented in communities on acid, infertile soils. This phenotypic clustering of a fire-related trait allows us to suggest that fire may be acting as an ecological filter by limiting P- and favouring P+ species to enter the LowFer community under high fire frequency. Another independent evidence that soil fertility shapes communities through fire is the differential flammability of woody communities found under different soil fertilities in our study area (see above; see also Ojeda 2001). Indeed, the existence of differences in fire incidence at the landscape scale tightly associated with soil fertility levels has been reported in other regions (e.g. Kellman 1984; van Wilgen et al. 1990; Bowman 2000). According to this scenario, our results show clearly that the occurrence of recurrent fires not only acts as a strong habitat filtering force structuring plant communities but, more importantly, that this process may also operate at the local, landscape scale. Similar phenotypes (e.g., P+) co-occur more often than expected by chance in local communities from low

fertility soils in a landscape where high and low fertility soils are intermixed. As P is an evolutionarily conserved trait (Verdú and Pausas 2007), such strong phenotypic filtering is reflected in the phylogenetic structure of local communities, in such a way that shrub communities on acid, nutrient-poor soils are phylogenetically clustered, whereas those on non-acid, fertile soils are not.

Finally, we shall emphasize that the habitat filtering by fire reported in this study has been detected in local communities from an already fire-filtered regional flora (e.g. see Verdú and Pausas 2007). To our knowledge, this is the first evidence in which the same environmental factor is found to drive community assembly at two different spatial scales. Previous attempts to separate the determinants of community structure have demonstrated the importance of scale but without considering the environmental factors or traits driving the pattern (Swenson et al. 2006, Helmus et al. 2007).

The extent at which fire may structure plant communities at the local scale depends on the variability of fire persistence traits in the regional flora from which species are assembled into communities. Regional floras may have low variability in fire traits either by a strong culling effect of fire-sensitive phenotypes or by rapid diversification. For instance, there is an overwhelming dominance of the P+ trait state in mediterranean floras of South Africa and Australia (Pausas et al. 2004; Pausas and Bradstock 2007) as a likely consequence of a high incidence of fire in these regions, at least since the Late Tertiary (Cowling et al. 1996). By contrast, an overall lower incidence of fire in the Mediterranean Basin (Cowling et al. 1996) provides its flora with a higher variability in fire persistence traits from which local communities can sample. Thus, fire may act simultaneously at different spatial scales (i.e. within-regional and between-regional floras) as a major habitat filtering process shaping the phenotypic – and phylogenetic – structure of plant communities.

The incidence of fire in the south-western Iberian Peninsula, dominated by nutrient-poor, acid substrates seems to have been high at least since the Late Pleistocene and not related to human activity (Daniau et al. 2007). Although the phenotypic and phylogenetic structure of local community has been traditionally treated as the output of the ecological sorting of species traits by the environment



(Webb et al 2002), the role of evolutionary diversification and trait divergence is starting to be considered in community-assembly theory (Prinzing et al. 2008). Hence, the results presented in this study, plus the fact that many P+ species from these poor-soil communities are narrow endemics (Rodríguez et al. 2008) invite to consider a preponderant role of fire as a key evolutionary force for species living in nutrient-poor Mediterranean heathlands.

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Table 1. Soil pH values (pH) and concentration of soluble aluminum (Al, in ppm) and percentage of P<sup>+</sup> species (%P<sup>+</sup>) in the eight LowFer and eight HiFer plots. Soil data have been obtained from Ojeda et al. (1995) and Garrido & Hidalgo (1998).

Plot	pH	Al	%P <sup>+</sup>
<b>LowFer</b>			
L1	4.9	239	76.2
L2	4.7	486	100.0
L3	4.7	49	81.3
L4	4.7	263	88.9
L5	4.9	48	92.3
L6	4.8	69	85.7
L7	5.4	82	60.0
L8	4.3	310	87.5
<b>HiFer</b>			
H1	6.0	0	31.6
H2	6.0	0	18.8
H3	6.4	0	14.3
H4	6.6	0	11.5
H5	6.5	0	30.8
H6	6.5	0	27.3
H7	6.6	0	17.4
H8	7.0	0	20.0

Table 2. Number of taxa (n), observed mean phylogenetic distances (MPD), mean nearest neighbour distances (MNND), and the corresponding standardized indices, i.e., the net relatedness index (NRI) and nearest taxon index (NTI), for the eight LowFer and eight HiFer plots. The p-value reflects the departure of the observed MPD and MNND values from the null model.

Plot	n	MPD	NRI	p	MNND	NTI	p
<b>LowFer</b>							
L1	21	219.42	1.18	0.08	95.02	1.89	0.02
L2	10	198.58	1.25	0.02	81.66	2.38	0.01
L3	16	209.84	1.33	0.02	86	2.42	0.00
L4	18	212.14	1.37	0.03	85.82	2.36	0.01
L5	13	219.08	1.02	0.11	121.15	1.38	0.08
L6	14	215.83	1.17	0.06	119.01	1.46	0.07
L7	11	198.28	1.35	0.01	54.46	3.24	0.00
L8	16	217.75	1.14	0.07	95.61	2.05	0.01
<b>HiFer</b>							
H1	19	232.29	0.6	0.37	135.9	0.25	0.41
H2	17	249.16	0.14	0.52	161.96	-0.47	0.69
H3	7	231.79	0.38	0.49	164.17	0.47	0.33
H4	26	252.83	0.02	0.5	120.18	0.61	0.28
H5	27	240.09	0.6	0.31	133.17	-0.08	0.54
H6	23	250.52	0.14	0.47	125.7	0.55	0.31
H7	23	238.37	0.59	0.36	142.79	-0.21	0.59
H8	15	250.63	0.14	0.57	199.16	-1.45	0.91

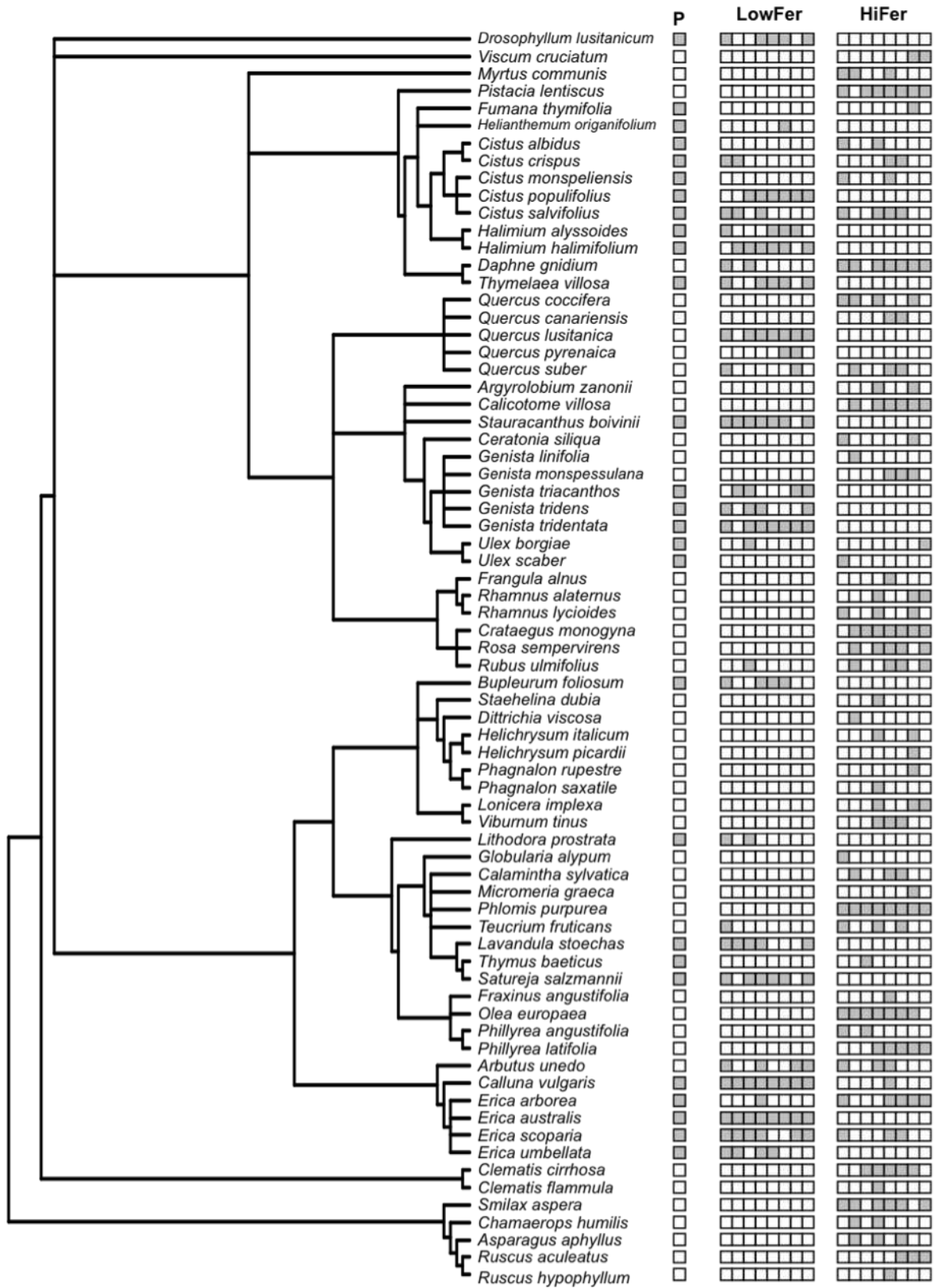


Fig.1. Phylogenetic tree of the woody species considered, including their P trait states (P+ and P- in solid and open squares, respectively) and the presence-absence matrix (solid and open squares, respectively) for the eight LowFer and the eight HiFer sites.



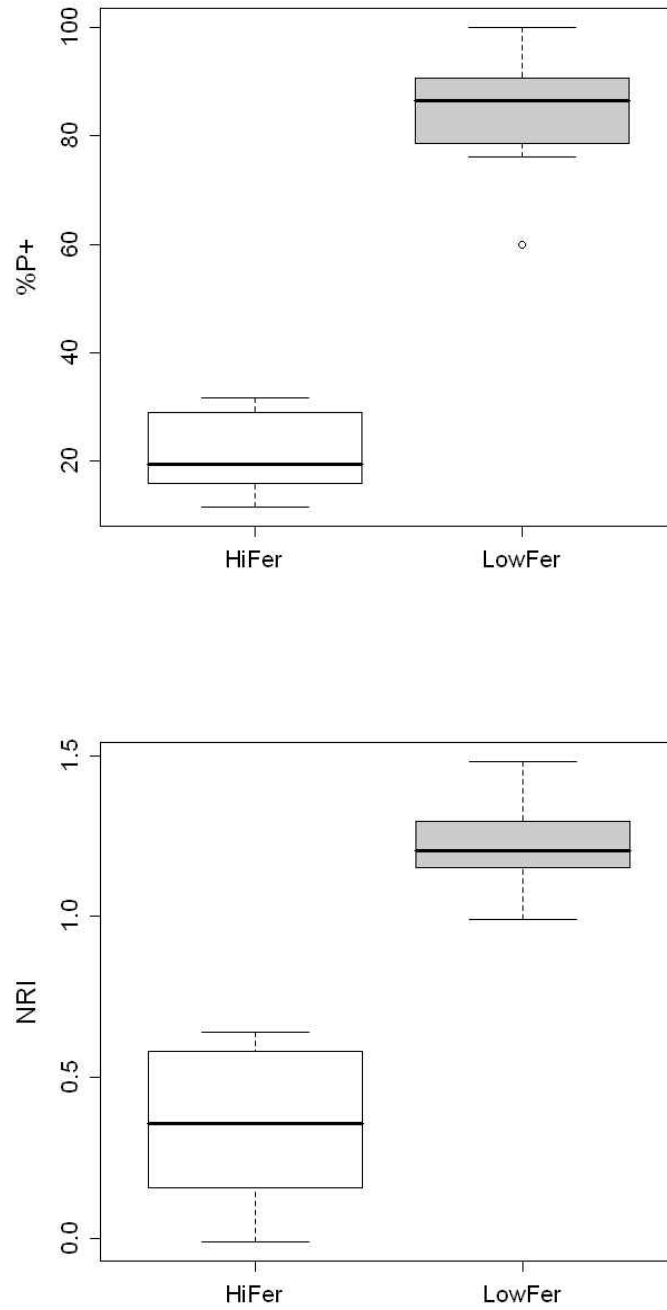


Figure 2. Percentage of P+ species (%P+, top panel) and net relatedness index (NRI, bottom panel) of communities living under high (HiFer) and low (LowFer) soil fertility regimes.

### Appendix

Flammability assignment based on the summer flammability tests performed by Elvira-Martín and Hernando-Lara (1989). Two measures were combined, the time to produce a flame (TF, seconds) and the proportion of flammability test that successfully produced a flame (PF, %).

Table 1

TF	PF				
	95-100	90-94	85-89	80-84	<79
<12.5	High	High	High	High	Low
12.5-17.5	High	High	High	Low	Low
17.5-22.5	High	High	Low	Low	Low
22.5-27.5	High	Low	Low	Low	Low
>27.5	Low	Low	Low	Low	Low

Table 2

Species	Flammability
<i>Pistacia lentiscus</i>	Low
<i>Cistus albidus</i>	High
<i>Cistus crispus</i>	High
<i>Arbutus unedo</i>	High
<i>Calluna vulgaris</i>	High
<i>Erica arborea</i>	High
<i>Erica australis</i>	High
<i>Erica scoparia</i>	High
<i>Calicotome villosa</i>	High
<i>Genista linifolia</i>	High
<i>Genista tridentata</i>	Low
<i>Stauracanthus boivinii</i>	High
<i>Quercus coccifera</i>	High
<i>Quercus suber</i>	Low
<i>Lavandula stoechas</i>	High
<i>Phlomis purpurea</i>	High
<i>Olea europaea</i>	Low

<i>Phillyrea angustifolia</i>	High
<i>Rhamnus alaternus</i>	Low
<i>Rhamnus lycioides</i>	Low
<i>Rubus ulmifolius</i>	Low
<i>Daphne gnidium</i>	Low