

Recovery of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi root colonization after severe anthropogenic disturbance: four species assessed in old-growth Mediterranean grassland

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Short title: Arbuscular mycorrhizal root colonization recovery after disturbance

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- 38 Title: Recovery of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi root colonization after severe anthropogenic disturbance: four 39 species assessed in old-growth Mediterranean grassland.
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- 57
- 58 Abstract

59 Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) interact continuously with vegetation and soil and thus shape the dynamics 60 of plant communities. Yet the recovery of AMF after severe anthropogenic disturbance such as cultivation has 61 rarely been assessed. Here, to determine whether AMF root colonization recovers after such disturbance, we 62 compared AMF root colonization in abandoned fields last cultivated 2, 35, and 150 years ago in the La Crau area 63 (south-eastern France) with that of a grassland several thousands of years old (considered as the reference 64 ecosystem). We measured AMF root colonization of four species (Carthamus lanatus L, Carduus pycnocephalus 65 L, Brachypodium distachyon (L.) P. Beauv, and Bromus madritensis), and performed surveys of plant communities 66 and soil chemical properties. AMF root colonization was still significantly lower 35 years after disturbance for 67 one species (B. distachyon) and 2 years after disturbance for two species (B. distachyon and B. madritensis). The 68 main soil chemical properties (soil pH, phosphorus and potassium content) were similar to the reference ecosystem 69 35 years after disturbance. Average vegetation height and cover recovered after 35 years, whereas species richness 70 recovered only on the field abandoned for 150 years. Vegetation composition and structure did not recover in any 71 of the abandoned fields. Our results suggest that recovery of AMF root colonization is very low after a severe

- anthropogenic disturbance, despite the recovery of soil chemical properties.
- 73 Key Words: Cultivation; Diversity; Plant Community; Steppe; Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungi
- 74

75 Introduction

76 The importance of taking into account arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus (AMF) interactions when exploring plant 77 community dynamics is increasingly acknowledged (Grime et al. 1987; O'Connor et al. 2002; van der Heijden and 78 Horton 2009; Bever et al. 2010; Koziol and Bever 2015). However, there are far fewer studies of AMF than of 79 plants because access to AMF data is more difficult (Bever et al. 2001). Mycorrhizas can be found in most plant 80 communities (van der Heijden and Sanders 2002), principally arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF), and interact 81 with 80% of plant species (Wang and Qiu 2006). AMF increase plant water and phosphorus uptake mainly through 82 the increased soil volume available for foraging (Allen 1982; Bolan 1991; Koide 1991; Augé 2001) and may thus 83 impact growth of plant individuals and of their descendants (Koide and Lu 1992; Heppell et al. 2002). 84 Consequently, AMF modify competition between plants, thereby affecting their coexistence (Grime et al. 1987; 85 Smith et al. 1999; Mariotte et al. 2012) as well as the structure (Wilson and Hartnett 1997; O'Connor et al. 2002), species richness and composition of plant communities (Gange et al. 1993; Francis and Read 1994; Zobel and 86 87 Moora 1995). This makes AMF dynamics a key to improving our comprehension of ecosystem functioning, and 88 a topic that clearly warrants further investigation. Ecosystems in stressful environments are known to favor biotic 89 interactions such as facilitation within plant species (Callaway et al. 2002; He et al. 2013) or with AMF (van der 90 Heijden et al. 2003), especially old-growth grasslands. These ancient grassland ecosystems characterized by high 91 species richness, high endemism, and unique species composition (Veldman et al. 2015) have had time to develop 92 species-specific relationships with soil organisms (Tscherko et al. 2005; Bauer et al. 2015).

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94 Such old-growth grasslands (e.g. dehesa in Spain or continental steppes in Siberia) are particularly threatened. 95 Technical progress in agronomy in the last century allowed agricultural intensification in low-productivity 96 ecosystems (Huston 2005). Understanding how such changes in land-use can alter these ecosystems is important, 97 especially when environmental authorities aim to stop biodiversity loss and target 15% ecosystem restoration 98 (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2005; Convention on Biological Diversity 2011). In this context, 99 abandonment of intensive land-use can be viewed as an opportunity both to restore former ecosystems and to study 100 ecosystem natural recovery (Prach and Walker 2011). While old-growth grasslands usually show poor recovery 101 after severe anthropogenic disturbance (Forey and Dutoit 2012; Veldman et al., 2015), little seems to be known 102 about the recovery of other ecosystem components, such as soil or AMF.

103 Cultivation can be seen as a severe anthropogenic disturbance for natural or semi-natural plant communities: 104 during cultivation, disturbance occurs over a large scale exceeding plant community processes (Peterson et al. 105 1998; Huston 1999) and its strength (i.e. the force of the disturbance; Sousa 1984) is high. The severity of 106 disturbance (i.e. the damage caused by the disturbance; Sousa 1984) is also high, as the majority of mature plants 107 initially present are killed prior to and during a cultivation event. As a consequence, anthropogenic disturbance 108 such as cultivation is followed by low recovery in many ecosystems, such as grasslands, heathlands or forests 109 (Bellemare et al. 2002; Dupouey et al. 2002; Römermann et al. 2005; Elmore et al. 2007; Gustavsson et al. 2007). 110 In the medium term (i.e. decades), vegetation recovery has been proven to be very poor (Römermann et al. 2005; 111 Buisson et al. 2006). Cultivation disturbance generally leads to leaching of amended nutrients and therefore a 112 progressive recovery of soil chemical properties, except for phosphorus, which is known to remain in soil (Smits 113 et al. 2008; Henkin et al. 2010). Due to their low dispersal and competitive abilities, most steppe plant species can 114 recolonize only a few meters from remnant steppe patches (Buisson et al. 2006). This means recovery of vegetation

115 composition is usually poor even when abandoned fields are surrounded by remnant steppe patches.

To address AMF recovery dynamics, we chose the La Crau area of south-eastern France, an old-growth Mediterranean dry grassland or steppe plant community impacted by thousands of years of interaction between (1) Mediterranean climate, (2) a particularly well-draining soil and (3) extensive sheep grazing (Devaux et al. 1983; Buisson and Dutoit, 2006). Almost 20% of this species-rich plant community was once cultivated and then abandoned. As AMF root colonization depends not only on AMF dispersal abilities but also on host abundance and soil conditions, our hypothesis was that the more recent and intense the disturbance is, the less AMF root colonization recovers.

We assessed AMF root colonization on four plant species from this Mediterranean steppe after three disturbance events (a vineyard abandoned for 150 years, a melon field abandoned for 35 years and an intensive orchard abandoned for 2 years), compared to an undisturbed ecosystem, to determine whether AMF root colonization recovers after cultivation disturbance.

127

128 Materials and methods

129 Study area

130 The La Crau area is the last xeric steppe of south-eastern France (ca. 10,000ha). It is shaped by i) a dry 131 Mediterranean climate, ii) a 40cm-deep soil with about 50% of siliceous stones overlying an almost impermeable

- 132 conglomerate layer, making the alluvial water table unavailable to plant roots and iii) itinerant sheep grazing over
- 133 a period of several thousand years (Devaux et al. 1983; Buisson and Dutoit 2006). This has led to a unique and
- species-rich vegetation association composed mainly of annuals and dominated by *Brachypodium retusum* Pers.

135 and Thymus vulgaris L.. The steppe, which experienced recurring anthropogenic disturbance until 400 BP from 136 sheep grazing and pastoral fires, has lost more than 80% of its original 45,000 ha area due to other anthropogenic 137 disturbances such as intensive cultivation (Buisson and Dutoit 2006). Our study focuses on three types of cultivation, all initiated on the original steppe, applied for several years and today abandoned: (1) a vineyard 138 139 abandoned approximately 150 years ago (AF-150) as revealed from consultation of old cadastral maps and land 140 registers (Dutoit et al. 2005), (2) two melon fields, cultivated for one year only before being abandoned 35 years 141 ago (AF-35) (Römermann et al. 2005) and an orchard cultivated for 17 years, abandoned in 2006 and which 142 underwent its last disturbance comparable to ploughing in 2009, two years before sampling (Jaunatre et al. 2014) 143 (AF-2) (Fig. 1). The control was the surrounding steppe, whose available history (Cassini et al. 1778) showed no 144 severe anthropogenic disturbance. The three types of cultivation represent a gradient both of time since 145 abandonment and of disturbance intensity: the vineyard probably underwent only one ploughing and no herbicide applications (Dutoit et al. 2005), the melon field underwent one ploughing and one fertilizer and herbicide 146 147 application (Römermann et al. 2005), while the orchard underwent repeated ploughing, fertilizer and herbicide 148 applications (Jaunatre et al. 2014).

149 *2.2. Sampling*

150 We concentrated our sampling areas around the former vineyard (AF-150, n=3) and the former orchard (AF-2,

- n=3) as they are unique in the La Crau area (Fig. 1). Two steppe sites (ST-6000, n=6) and two sites in fields abandoned for 35 years (AF-35, n=6) were selected, one of each in proximity to either AF-150 or AF-2. The
- 153 imbalance in design is due to the fact that there was only one site abandoned for 150 years before sampling and
- 154 only one site abandoned for 2 years before sampling in the entire La Crau area (10 000 ha). We considered the
- distance between sampling areas (>70m; Fig 1c) sufficient because of the very weak dispersal ability of La Crau
- plant species (i.e. after 19 years of abandonment, half the species had colonized less than a few meters, Buisson
- and Dutoit 2004; Buisson et al., 2006). In each of the six sites selected, three sampling areas were set up to sample
- 158 AMF root colonization, vegetation and soil (Fig. 1d).
- 159 *AMF root colonization*
- 160 Colonization by AMF was assessed from roots of four species occurring over almost the entire gradient described
- above: i) Carthamus lanatus L, an Asteraceae more abundant in the steppe, ii) Carduus pycnocephalus L, an
- 162 Asteraceae more abundant in the abandoned fields, iii) *Brachypodium distachyon* (L.) P. Beauv, a Poaceae more
- abundant in the steppe and iv) *Bromus madritensis* L, a Poaceae more abundant in the abandoned fields. When
- possible, in each sampling area three individuals of each species were collected; however, some species were not
- 165 present in some sampling areas. Air-dried roots were colored with black Schaeffer ink using the vinegar coloration 166 method (Vierheilig et al. 1998). For total percentage AMF root colonization, internal hyphae, vesicles or arbuscules
- method (Vierheilig et al. 1998). For total percentage AMF root colonization, internal hyphae, vesicles or arbuscule
 were counted with the magnified intersections method using 100 intersections (McGonigle et al. 1990).
- 168 Soil analyses
- 169 In each sampling area, three 70g sub-samples of soil were taken from depths of 1-10cm (Fig. 1d) and pooled to
- 170 constitute one soil sample. Soil was sieved (2mm mesh) for analyses carried out by INRA (Institut National de la
- 171 Recherche Agronomique, Arras, France). Granulometry without decarbonation (percentage content of clay
- 172 (<0.002 mm), fine silt (0.002-0.02 mm), coarse silt (0.02-0.05 mm), fine sand (0.05-0.2 mm) and coarse sand (0.2-
- 173 2 mm)), nutrients (organic C, total N, P_2O_5 (Olsen et al. 1954), CaO, and K_2O) and pH were measured according 174 to the methods described in Baize (2000).
- 175 Vacatation and
- 175 Vegetation survey
- 176 Vegetation relevés were performed on three 2x2m quadrats for each sampling area using Braun-Blanquet
- 177 coefficients (Braun-Blanquet et al. 1952). In addition, average vegetation height (i.e. height of the dominant
- 178 stratum) and cover (in percentage) were estimated in each quadrat.
- 179 Data analysis
- 180 Generalized Linear Mixed Models (GLMM) were used to determine whether the cultivation disturbance continued
 181 to affect AMF root colonization, soil chemical variables and plant community characteristics. We compared two
 182 models: in the first, age was implemented as a categorical fixed factor and blocks (i.e. around the AF-2 or around
- 182 Inducts, in the first, age was implemented as a categorical fixed factor and blocks (i.e. around the AT-2 of around the AT-
- 184 categorical random factor. If the first model containing age had a lower Aïkake Information Criterion (AIC) with
- a difference greater than 2, age effect was declared significant (Burnham and Anderson 2004) and difference
- 186 between ages was assessed by a multiple comparison test using Tukey's method. To obtain a global overview of
- 187 soil parameters and of plant communities, we ran a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for soil parameters and
- 188 a Correspondence Analysis (CA) for plant community (Borcard et al. 2011). To measure similarity of plant
- 189 communities to those of the undisturbed control, we used the normalized Community Structure Integrity Index
- 190 (CSIInorm) and the Higher Abundance Index (HAI) to distinguish the percentage of recovery of reference species
- abundances (CSIInorm) from new abundances not occurring in this reference (HAI) (Jaunatre et al., 2013).
- All analyses were performed with R 2.13.0 (R Development Core Team 2011), univariate analyses with its package
- "Ime4" and "multcomp" (Hothorn et al. 2008; Bates et al. 2012) and multivariate analyses with its packages "ade4"
 (Chessel et al. 2004; Dray and Dufour, 2007; Dray et al. 2007) and "vegan" (Oksanen et al. 2008).

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195 Results

- 196 AMF root colonization
- AMF root colonization recovered to ST-6000 values (approximately 90%) in all three abandoned fields for forbs
 (*Carthamus lanatus* and *C. pycnocephalus*; Fig. 2, Table 1). However, both grasses did not recover in all the
 locations: *Bromus madritensis* shows lower AMF root colonization in AF-2 (40.7±3.8) than in ST-6000 (63.9±4.2)
- 200 (Fig. 6, Table 1) and *B. distachyon* shows a significant difference in AMF root colonization between AF-35
- 201 (51.4±5.9) and ST-6000 (64.2±2.1) (no *B. distachyon* was found in AF-2).
- 202 *Soil analyses*
- The PCA of soil properties (Fig. 3) clearly discriminates among the four locations. The first axis (35.2%) shows a clear distinction in age between the field abandoned 2 years previously (AF-2) and the three other locations, with
- higher concentrations of P_2O_5 , pH and K_2O (Fig. 4), although only pH is significantly higher (Table 1). The second
- axis (24.5%) discriminates the steppe (ST-6000) from the longest-abandoned field (AF-150), with higher carbon
- and nitrogen content (Fig. 4), although only carbon differences are significant (Table 1).
- 208 Vegetation survey
- 209 Compared to the reference, all three abandoned fields have significantly different values for composition and
- 210 structure (Table 1, Fig. 5). Their CSIInorm is lower: AF-150 and AF-35 have recovered less than 60% of the 211 vegetation structure, while AF-2 has recovered less than 20%. Their HAI is higher: in AF-150 and AF-35, 50% of
- the structure is composed of species whose abundances are higher than in ST-6000 (both new species and the same
- species); while in AF-2, more than 70% of species have abundances higher than in ST-6000. These differences in
- plant community variables are also discernible on the correspondence analysis (Fig. 6): AF-2 is dominated by
- 215 Bromus madritensis L, Bromus lanceolatus Roth and Carduus pycnocephalus L. AF-35 is also characterized by
- Poaceae and Asteraceae (*Bromus hordeaceus* L, *Bromus rubens* L, *Carthamus lanatus* L. etc.). AF-150 and ST-
- 217 6000 share many species (e.g. Aegilops ovata L, Brachypodium distachyon (L.) P. Beauv, Carlina corymbosa L,
- 218 Erodium cicutarium (L.) L'Hérit. or Plantago bellardii All.), although i) some dominant ST-6000 species are
- absent from AF-150 (e.g. Brachypodium retusum (Pers.) P. Beauv.) and ii) some AF-150 species are absent from
- 220 ST-6000 (e.g. Bothriochloa ischaemum (L.) Keng, Crucianella angustifolia L.). The species richness of AF-150
- is not significantly different from that of ST-6000; however, it is significantly lower for AF-35 and AF-2. All the
- abandoned field locations except AF-2 have recovered ST-6000 average height and vegetation cover, while AF-2
 shows significantly higher values (Table 1, Fig. 5).

224 Discussion

- 225 It takes a very long time to recover ecosystem characteristics. This has been proved for many different old-growth
- grassland types, such as Midwest prairie, Scandinavian semi-natural grasslands, Mediterranean steppe or limestone 226 227 grassland (Tomanek et al. 1955; Bonet et Pausas 2004; Öster et al. 2009; Forey and Dutoit 2012), and our study confirms it. Most of these low-resilient ecosystems have similar characteristics: harsh environmental conditions, 228 229 which are attenuated by the disturbance event (i.e. nutrient or water availability is increased). In such a context, 230 some plant species adapted to higher nutrient content can colonize and generate relatively stable mutualistic 231 associations with soil organisms, such as AMF or microbial communities, thus slowing down the potential 232 recovery of the original state (Spiegelberger et al. 2006; Wardle et al. 2014). Our study shows that it is not only 233 vegetation and soil components that are durably affected by a severe anthropogenic disturbance such as cultivation: 234 there is an impact on AMF root colonization too. The results also confirm our hypothesis that the more recent and 235 intense the disturbance is, the less AMF root colonization recovers. Our findings are in line with those from studies 236 on different components under harsh environmental conditions, which reacted in a similar way (Hejcman et al. 237 2007; Spiegelberger et al. 2010, 2006). However, new evidence is provided here on ecosystem recovery via the
- recovery of AMF root colonization, rarely studied in parallel with soil and plant communities.
- 239 AMF root colonization
- 240 AMF root colonization can decrease due to any soil disturbance (Jasper et al. 1989). Agricultural practices in 241 particular are known to impact AMF communities, modifying their abundance, their diversity and their 242 composition (Douds et al. 1995; Jansa et al. 2003), and their reproduction dynamics (Oehl et al. 2009). Areas 243 cultivated with more fertilizer show less AMF root colonization (Douds et al. 1995; Mäder et al. 2000). In our 244 study, the AMF root colonization rate increases with time since cultivation abandonment for two plant species out 245 of four. It has previously been shown that AMF root colonization can recover with time (Eriksson 2001; Gibson-246 Roy et al. 2014) but that this depends on plant community composition (Fitzsimons et al. 2008). This is supported 247 by our results: AMF root colonization recovered and was no longer significantly different from the steppe after 35 248 years, except for B. distachyon, and the field abandoned for 35 years showed over 50% recovery of plant 249 community structure (Figure 5). It should be noted that the major finding here is the difference between AMF root 250 colonization in abandoned fields and in the reference. The similar values found here for AMF root colonization 251 may in fact mask an absence of recovery of certain AMF species, since it is likely that different AMF species are 252 involved. This hypothesis is supported by the fact that AMF community composition can be altered by a change 253 in plant community composition (Klamer and Hedlund, 2004), and such a change occurred in our abandoned fields. 254 We did not find any difference in root colonization recovery between species more abundant in the steppe (C.

lanatus and *B. distachyon*) and species more abundant in the abandoned fields (*C. pycnocephalus* and *B. madritensis*). We found, however, that grasses (*B. distachyon* and *B. madritensis*) have higher average mycorrhizal root colonization and higher recovery of mycorrhizal root colonization than forbs (*C. lanatus* and *C. pycnocephalus*), which confirms that plant functional type is the most important driver of plant response to mycorrhizal fungi (Hoeksema et al. 2010).

260 Soil parameters

261 The different abandoned fields are found to have contrasting soil properties. The former vineyard, which is the 262 longest abandoned field, has the lowest pH and potassium and phosphorus content. However, the difference in 263 fertilization practices can also introduce biases; fertilizer use was more sparing and more organic-based 150 years 264 ago than 3 years ago (Dutoit et al. 2005). Annual, and therefore cumulative, fertilizer quantities are difficult to 265 estimate. Despite these potential biases, our results are consistent with findings from other studies: as in Wong et 266 al. (2010), potassium and phosphorus content tend to decrease with time since last cultivation, and as in studies on 267 Mediterranean or calcareous grasslands (Smits et al. 2008; Henkin et al. 2010), high soil phosphorus content is maintained even 35 years after cessation of fertilization. Soil properties are known to be very important in 268 269 determining plant community diversity, structure and composition. For instance, Kulmatiski et al. 2006 showed 270 how soil legacies impact invasive plant species distributions and Janssens et al. (1998) suggested that 5 mg of 271 phosphorus per 100 g of dry soil is a threshold value limiting establishment of species-rich plant communities. 272 Despite the fact that in our abandoned fields current soil phosphorus content remains close to (AF-2) or below this 273 level (AF-35 and AF-150), it is possible that a previous higher phosphorus content had a long-term effect which 274 can still be observed, even after the recovery of lower values (Semelová et al. 2008).

275 *Plant communities*

276 As with soil, the longer the time since abandonment, the more plant community characteristics in abandoned fields 277 differ from the reference. More recently abandoned fields have lower species richness or CSII, while they have 278 higher HAI, average vegetation height and cover. Moreover, vegetation composition, which is mainly dominated 279 by grasses such as Bromus spp. in the most recently abandoned fields, gains in species richness and in the number 280 of forbs with time since abandonment. Similar slow recolonization was observed in other ecosystems after severe 281 disturbances (Tomanek et al. 1955; Coffin et al. 1996; Meiners et al. 2002; Bonet and Pausas 2004). However after 282 150 years, while the vegetation composition of the abandoned field is close to that of the steppe it is still slightly 283 different, notably due to the absence of B. retusum, the dominant steppe species. Interestingly, the species with the 284 lowest AMF root colonization recovery rate (B. distachyon) is phylogenetically closest to B. retusum (The 285 Angiosperm Phylogeny Group 2009). B. retusum is not present in any part of this long-abandoned field, although 286 it is the dominant steppe species and occurs at the abandoned field boundaries, and despite the fact that all measured 287 environmental characteristics are not significantly different. Low seed production and fertility, and hence poor 288 dispersal abilities, have already been hypothesized (Buisson et al. 2006; Coiffait-Gombault et al. 2012). The slow 289 recovery of AMF root colonization rates in a phylogenetically close species would suggest that B. retusum not 290 only has low seed production (Caturla et al. 2000) but also suffers from a lack of AMF interaction. This interaction 291 would likely enhance its growth by higher phosphorus uptake (López-Sánchez et al. 1992), enabling it to establish 292 in abandoned fields.

293 *Ecosystem recovery*

294 Our results on vegetation are consistent with previous studies, where: vegetation was still affected 70 years after a 295 fertilization event, even though the soil almost recovered its properties (Spiegelberger et al. 2006); only half the 296 species were able to colonize abandoned fields 50 years later (Öster et al. 2009); or differences in plant 297 communities were still significant more than 2000 years after a cultivation event in a forest community (Dupouey 298 et al. 2002). The filter model is often used to describe vegetation dynamics (Keddy 1992; Lortie et al. 2004): i) 299 plant species have to be able to disperse, which depends on species dispersal abilities and proximity of source site 300 (Gibson and Brown 1991; Pärtel and Zobel 1999; Lindborg and Eriksson 2004; Herault and Thoen 2009); ii) plant 301 species have to be able to withstand environmental constraints, which depends both on historical environmental 302 conditions and on disturbance legacies (Foster et al. 2003) and iii) the first two filters will be modified by biotic 303 interactions and will depend on the presence of facilitators or competitors in the community (Bruno et al. 2003). 304 This model explains the low resilience of plants after cultivation in the La Crau area: species have low dispersal 305 abilities and no permanent seed bank (Graham and Hutchings 1988; Römermann et al. 2005), soil nutrient content is still different in recently abandoned fields, and finally, some species are better competitors under higher nutrient 306 conditions (Baeten et al. 2009; Öster et al. 2009), especially if they arrived first due to chance or better dispersal 307 308 abilities (Fukami et al. 2005).

It should be feasible to apply a similar model to AMF, to explain their recovery after a severe anthropogenic
disturbance, as suggested by Lekberg et al. (2007). If AMF have been eliminated during the cultivation event
(Douds et al. 1995; Jansa et al. 2003), they have to disperse through the disturbed area. Wind seems to be a poor

312 long-distance disperser (Egan et al., 2014), but faunal agents may also provide some local-scale dispersal (Warner

et al. 1987; Allen 1989; Harinikumar and Bagyaraj 1994). Hyphae not killed by cultivation can also be a rich

source of AMF; however, they are highly affected by soil disturbance (Jasper et al. 1989; Brundrett and Abbott,

315 1994). AMF root colonization thus depends on environmental conditions: the more available nutrients are, the less

316 roots are colonized by AMF (Koide, 1991). Our findings support this: AMF root colonization was higher in the 317 abandoned fields with lower soil nutrient content. Finally, AMF root colonization depends on biotic interactions.

318 In our study, the abandoned field with the highest vegetation average height and the highest vegetation cover (AF-

2) was found to have the lowest mycorrhizal root colonization. These results are in accordance with the negative

320 relationship between vegetation biomass and AMF biomass already found in abandoned fields (Hedlund et al.,

321 2003). Despite the fact that mechanical soil disturbance plays a greater role than plant communities in shaping

322 AMF communities (Schnoor et al. 2011), plant species richness has been shown to increase the diversity and fitness

- 323 of AMF (Burrows and Pfleger, 2002). Moreover, the diversity of AMF infecting an individual plant depends on
- the diversity of the whole plant community (van de Voorde et al. 2010), and the composition of the plant community has a significant effect on the composition of the AMF community (Johnson, 1993; Eom et al. 2000;
- 326 Hiiesalu et al., 2014).
- Our study is a first step towards exploring the relationship between a proxy of AMF (AMF root colonization), soil
 conditions and plant communities. In accordance with our hypotheses, recovery of these three ecosystem
 components differs, increasing from vegetation (lowest recovery) to AMF root colonization (intermediate
 recovery), to soil conditions (highest recovery). All three components assessed are moving towards the undisturbed
- state, but full, unassisted recovery is highly unlikely within a human lifetime.
- Feedbacks occurring between different ecosystem components, as in a panarchy model, need to be taken into account to understand the overall recovery process. One component starts to recover while being influenced by another component; based on these dynamics, the recovery of the first component is affected, and in turn the recovery of other components is further influenced (Allen et al. 2014). To our knowledge, although few studies have measured the recovery of different components of an ecosystem after disturbance, most of them found, like
- us, staggered responses for each component (García-Tejero et al. 2013; Wardle and Jonsson, 2013). Determining
- the limiting components able to affect, slow down or stop the recovery dynamics of the whole ecosystem wouldbe of particular interest in a restoration context. AMF communities affect plant communities in complex ways:
- 340 like plants, not all AMF species play the same role in ecosystems (Hart et al. 2003). The effects of AMF on plants
- 341 are species-specific (Hoeksema et al. 2010; Endresz et al. 2013), but also depend on environmental conditions
- 342 (Grime et al. 1987; Hartnett and Wilson, 1999; Kytöviita et al. 2003), and higher AMF root colonization is not
- always linked with better vegetation recovery (Richter et al. 2002). Further research is required to explore how
 different ecosystem components can affect overall ecosystem recovery, and how they could be used to facilitate
- 344 different ecosystem components can affect overall ecosystem recovery, and now they could be used to facilitate345 or to accelerate this recovery in a restoration context (Allen, 1989; Herrera et al. 1993; Callaway et al. 2001; Kardol
- et al. 2009).

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13

606 Tables

607Table 1: Aikaike Information Criterion of Generalized Linear Mixed Models, one including Age as a fixed effect608and Block as a random effect, the other including only Block as a random effect. Stars preceding variable names609indicate that the model including age is better (i.e. $\Delta AIC > 2$; Burnham and Anderson, 2004) and age can

610 therefore be considered as affecting the variable.

	Variable	AIC Age+Block	AIC Block
Mycorrhizal root colonization	*Brachypodium distachyon	276.1	289.8
	*Bromus madritensis	344.2	368.5
	*Carthamus lanatus	274.7	286.0
	*Carduus pycnocephalus	187.0	198.1
Vegetation	*Species-richness	364.7	472.6
	*CSII	-50.5	40.8
	*HAI	-110.5	-14.9
	*Average height	351.5	410.0
	*Vegetation cover	430.7	474.5
Soil	*Carbon	69.2	76.8
	*pH	9.5	19.5
	C:N	23.2	25.0
	Nitrogen	3.1	-6.9
	Phosphorus	-54.8	-69.8
	Potassium	-30.8	-40.3

611

612 **Figure Captions**

613

614 Fig. 1 Study site and sampling design. a: location of La Crau area in France. b: location of study area in La Crau

615 area. c: location of sites: the two steppe sites (ST-6000) and the field sites abandoned for 150 (AF-150), 35 (AF-616

35) and 2 (AF-2) years. Dark grey areas represent sampled abandoned fields. d: detailed scheme of design per 617 sampling area, large circle represents the area prospected for individuals of the four species for mycorrhizal root

618 colonization assessment, grey squares represent the three 2x2m quadrats where plant species abundances were

619 recorded and black dots represent the three soil samples before pooling for soil physical and chemical analyses

- Fig. 2 Mean mycorrhizal root colonization for the four species in steppe (white, ST-6000) and abandoned fields 620
- 621 (grey, AF-2/35/150). Error bars represent standard error; bars having a common letter are not significantly different
- 622 (Tukey; p>0.05). Numbers inside plots indicate the number of individual plants on which mycorrhizal root
- 623 colonization was counted. Missing bars indicate that the species was not found in any plot of the abandoned field
- 624 Fig. 3 Ordination plot of the Principal Component Analysis based on soil granulometry and nutrient content in 625 steppe (white, ST-6000) and abandoned fields (grey, AF-2/35/150). Arrows represent soil variables (coarse sand,
- 626 fine sand, coarse silt, fine silt, clay, organic matter, C:N: Carbon/Nitrogen ratio; C: total carbon; N: total nitrogen;
- 627 K₂O: potassium, P₂O₅: Olsen phosphorus; CaO: Calcium oxide and pH). Polygons surround the points 628
- corresponding to one age class 629 Fig. 4 Soil nutrient content in steppe (white, ST-6000) and abandoned fields (grey, AF-2/35/150). Mean values \pm
- 630
- standard error of carbon (C), nitrogen (N), C/N ratio (C/N), phosphorus (P₂O₅), and potassium (K₂O) in steppe 631 (ST-6000) and abandoned fields (AF-2/35/150). Bars having a common letter are not significantly different
- 632 (Tukey; p>0.05)
- 633 Fig. 5 Mean species richness per 4 m² (a), normalized Community Structure Integrity (b), Index Higher Abundance
- 634 Index (c), average height (d) and percentage of vegetation cover (e) in steppe (white, ST-6000) and abandoned
- 635 fields (grey, AF-2/35/150). Error bars represent standard error; bars having a common letter are not significantly
- 636 different (Tukey; p>0.05)
- 637 Fig. 6 Ordination plot of the Correspondence Analysis based on vegetation abundances on steppe (white, ST-6000)
- 638 and abandoned fields (grey, AF-2/35/150). Based on 54 relevés and 110 species, showing the 35 most correlated 639 with the axes. Polygons surround the points corresponding to one age class
- 640