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9 Article type : Article

10

11

12 Journal: Ecology

13 Manuscript type: Articles

14

15 Running head: Plant removal and mineralization

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17 Plant removal across an elevational gradient marginally reduces rates, substantially
18 reduces variation in mineralization

19

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This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version of Record](#). Please cite this article as [doi: 10.1002/ECY.3546](https://doi.org/10.1002/ECY.3546)

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36 Manuscript received 30 April 2021; accepted 27 May 2021; final version received 14 September
37 2021.

38

39 **Abstract**

40 The loss of aboveground plant diversity alters belowground ecosystem function; yet, the
41 mechanisms underpinning this relationship and the degree to which plant community structure
42 and climate mediate the effects of plant species loss remain unclear. Here, we explored how
43 plant species loss through experimental removal shaped belowground function in ecosystems
44 characterized by different climatic regimes and edaphic properties. We measured plant
45 community composition as well as potential carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) mineralization and
46 microbial extracellular enzyme activity in soils collected from four unique plant removal
47 experiments located along an elevational gradient in Colorado, USA. We found that regardless of
48 the identity of the removed species or the climate at each site plant removal decreased the
49 absolute variation in potential N-mineralization rates and marginally reduced the magnitude of
50 N-mineralization rates. While plant species removal also marginally reduced C-mineralization
51 rates, C-mineralization, unlike N-mineralization, displayed sensitivity to the climatic and edaphic
52 differences among sites, where C-mineralization was greatest at the high elevation site that
53 receives the most precipitation annually and contains the largest soil total C pools. Plant removal
54 had little impact on soil enzyme activity. Removal effects were not contingent on the amount of
55 biomass removed annually, and shifts in mineralization rates occurred despite only marginal
56 shifts in plant community structure following plant species removal. Our results present a
57 surprisingly simple and consistent pattern of belowground response to the loss of dominant plant
58 species across an elevational gradient with different climatic and edaphic properties, suggesting a

59 common response of belowground ecosystem function to plant species loss regardless of which
60 plant species are lost or the broader climatic context.

61 **Keywords:** biodiversity loss, carbon mineralization, elevational gradient, nitrogen
62 mineralization, plant-soil linkages, plant removal

63 **Introduction**

64 Loss of plant species from communities will impact the structure and function of ecosystems as
65 interactions among plant species, evolutionary dynamics such as competition and facilitation that
66 shape plant communities, and plant-soil linkages shift in response to diminished biodiversity
67 (Pugnaire *et al.*, 2019). Ecologists often explore the impact of plant species loss on ecosystem
68 function by building correlations between ecosystem functions and aspects of plant community
69 structure such as dominant plant functional type, functional traits, species relative abundances,
70 and the diversity of the remaining plant community (Symstad *et al.*, 1998; Lyons and Schwartz,
71 2001; Gilman *et al.*, 2010; Ockendon *et al.*, 2014). However, the properties of communities or
72 ecosystems that determine ecosystem sensitivity to changes in plant communities or to abiotic
73 changes remain unclear (Klanderud, 2005; Gilman *et al.*, 2010; Wardle *et al.*, 2011; Adler,
74 2012). Furthermore, we know little about the sensitivity of belowground soil processes to
75 changes in species interactions relative to aboveground ecosystem functions (Zak *et al.*, 2003).
76 Despite ample research defining the relationship between species richness and ecosystem
77 function in experimental and observational frameworks (Tilman *et al.*, 1996; Grace *et al.*, 2016),
78 we also know that the loss of individual species from a plant community can have a different
79 impact on the biodiversity–ecosystem function relationship than is captured by studies that assess
80 this relationship in the direction of increasing diversity across a biodiversity gradient (Naeem *et*
81 *al.*, 1995; Fox and Kerr, 2011; Kardol *et al.*, 2018). Plant removal experiments, especially when
82 conducted across an environmental gradient, can be used as a tool to address many of these
83 problems that arise when attempting to quantify the impact of losing a plant species on
84 ecosystem function (Sundqvist *et al.*, 2013).

85

86 Some plant species have a disproportionately large impact on soil processes due to their
87 dominance (Smith and Knapp, 2003; Avolio *et al.*, 2019), the uniqueness of their traits in a
88 community, or their longevity on the landscape, i.e. long-lived perennial species. The loss of
89 these influential plant species from a community should have a greater impact on ecosystem

90 processes than the loss of a plant species with a less pronounced presence in the community
91 (Tilman *et al.*, 1997; Chapin *et al.*, 1998; McLaren and Turkington, 2010). In short, the identity
92 of the plant species that is lost from an ecosystem should matter when predicting the impact of
93 species loss on belowground processes (Wardle *et al.*, 1999; Johnson *et al.*, 2008). In a 2003
94 review, Díaz *et al.* proposed three mechanisms as pathways by which plant species removal
95 impacts ecosystem function as the loss of a single plant species shifts species interactions: 1)
96 Ecosystems could respond to the loss of the specific functional role filled by the removed
97 species, 2) changes to ecosystem function could be a response to the re-assembly of the
98 remaining community members following the loss of a species, and 3) changes to ecosystem
99 function could be a response to the disturbance of the removal treatment itself through loss of
100 aboveground biomass. By incorporating treatments that account for each of these mechanisms of
101 plant species removal impact, removal experiments are uniquely positioned as an experimental
102 framework to discern the pathways by which removing a single plant species can impact
103 belowground ecosystem function.

104

105 Environmental conditions such as growing season temperature and precipitation modulate the
106 relationship between above- and below-ground ecosystem components, meaning that the loss of
107 the same plant species could have a starkly different impact on belowground processes in
108 ecosystems characterized by different climates (Klanderud and Totland, 2005; Brooker, 2006;
109 Bardgett *et al.*, 2013). Changes in climate as well as the associated environmental stress alter
110 both the direction and magnitude of plant-soil feedbacks (van der Putten *et al.*, 2016; Baert *et al.*,
111 2018). The nature of this feedback effect is highly variable and depends on the context of both
112 present environmental conditions and the legacy of historical climate (Kaisermann *et al.*, 2017).
113 The soil microbial communities involved in carbon (C) and nitrogen (N) mineralization, the
114 nutrient recycling processes in terrestrial ecosystems, may also be limited by different abiotic
115 factors than is the aboveground community. Thus, global change drivers may decouple above-
116 and below-ground linkages as plant and microbial communities respond differently to
117 environmental change (Wardle *et al.*, 2013; Classen *et al.*, 2015).

118

119 Taken together, the effect of losing a plant species from a community on belowground
120 ecosystem processes likely depends on both the functional identity of the plant species removed,

121 climatic context, and the degree to which plant community structure shifts following the species
122 loss (Díaz *et al.*, 2003; McLaren and Turkington, 2010; Wardle *et al.*, 2011; Pugnaire *et al.*,
123 2019). However, the influence of the combination of factors described above on the relationship
124 between plant species removal and belowground ecosystem processes has yet to be empirically
125 tested using field experiments. Therefore, to understand the biotic and abiotic variables that
126 shape the impact of species loss on potential C- and N-mineralization, we sampled a series of
127 plant removal experiments established at different sites across an elevational gradient. We
128 predicted that the effect of removing a dominant plant species would vary across the
129 environmental gradient, with the greatest decrease in belowground mineralization rates following
130 plant removal occurring at the lowest elevational site where moisture limitation, i.e.
131 environmental stress, is the highest (García-Palacios *et al.*, 2018; Pugnaire *et al.*, 2019). We also
132 hypothesized that the impact of plant species removal on belowground processes would scale
133 with the amount of biomass removed from each plot (Díaz *et al.*, 2003; McLaren and
134 Turkington, 2015). Our results lend insight to how the loss of species from communities might
135 alter important nutrient cycles in climatically different ecosystems through the restructuring of
136 plant communities and ecosystem function.

137

138 **Materials and Methods**

139 To investigate the impact of removing a plant species on C- and N-mineralization, we sampled
140 four existing, independent plant removal experiments located at four locations along an
141 elevational gradient near the Rocky Mountain Biological Laboratory, Gothic, Colorado, USA.
142 Each of the four experiments removed different focal plant species, and the experiments have
143 been running from five to seventeen years. A dominant plant species was removed at each site
144 along the elevational gradient, but because there is nearly complete turnover of the plant
145 community across the elevational gradient, the identity of the removed species was different at
146 each elevation, confounding the functional type of the removed species as well as environmental
147 conditions across the elevational gradient.

148

149 At the low elevation site, located at 2740 m asl (38.71 N, -106.82 W), we removed the dominant
150 plant species *Wyethia x magna* (Asteraceae), a perennial forb that is a stable hybrid of *Wyethia*
151 *amplexicaulis* and *W. arizonica* (Weaver, 1915), by clipping aboveground biomass to the soil

152 surface annually for five years prior to sampling. Plots at this site were 2.0 m × 2.0 m in area (n
153 = 8). Soils at the low elevation site were classified as Mayoworth loam. At the mid-low elevation
154 site, located at 2890 m asl (38.95 N, -106.98 W), we maintained a seventeen-year removal of
155 *Linaria vulgaris* (Plantaginaceae), a perennial, invasive forb with an extensive horizontal root
156 system, in 2.0 m × 2.0 m (n = 6) (Wilke and Irwin, 2010). Plants were removed from the mid-
157 low elevation site by gently pulling on the base of the plant to remove the plant and a small
158 portion of the *L. vulgaris* root mat. Soils at the mid-low elevation site were classified as Tine
159 sandy loam and Bassel sandy loam, depending on the slope of each plot. At the mid-high
160 elevation site, we removed *Festuca thurberi* (Poaceae), a perennial grass that forms shallow but
161 dense root systems, by clipping to the soil surface annually for seven years prior to sampling.
162 Removal treatments at the mid-high elevation site (2904 m asl, 38.94 N, -106.99 W) were
163 applied in 1.5 m × 1.5 m (n = 4) (Read *et al.*, 2018, Henning *et al.*, 2019), with soils at this site
164 classified as Leaps silty clay loam. In the *W. magna* and *F. thurberi* removals at the mid-high
165 and low elevation sites, a small amount of glyphosate herbicide was applied to the remaining
166 base of the stems after the aboveground biomass was removed to attempt to kill belowground
167 biomass. Herbicide was only applied to stem bases at these sites for the first two years of the
168 removal treatments, and because of the meticulous way in which it was applied to the base of the
169 remaining stems following removal using a paintbrush, we are confident that herbicide
170 application had negligible effects on the fitness of the other plant species. At the high elevation
171 site (3460 m asl, 38.99 N, -107.06 W), we removed the dominant species *Juncus drummondii*
172 (Juncaceae), a perennial rush that grows in thick bunches, by clipping aboveground biomass to
173 the soil surface annually for five years before sampling. Plots at this site covered an area of 2.0 m
174 × 2.0 m (n = 8). Soils at the high elevation site were classified as Moran-Rubble land complex,
175 characterized by extremely gravelly loam/sandy loam. Roots of the removed plants species were
176 left intact at all sites that used clipping to removed aboveground biomass in removal treatments
177 (low, mid-high, and high elevation sites) in order to minimize disturbance caused by the removal
178 treatment for the remaining plant species and the soil community. While *L. vulgaris* individuals
179 were removed by tugging gently on the base of the stem, removing some root biomass in the
180 process, the majority of the root runners that extend horizontally just beneath the soil surface
181 remained behind in the soil.

182

183 In addition to the control (i.e. no plant biomass removed from plots with the focal species
184 naturally present) and individual species removal treatments present at all sites, the mid-low and
185 mid-high elevation sites had an additional random biomass removal treatment where biomass
186 from random plant species was removed to reflect the amount of biomass that was removed
187 annually from the treatments in which a specific plant species was removed. This treatment was
188 intended to isolate the disturbance effect that plant removal has on the remaining plant
189 community through loss of aboveground biomass. Finally, a natural control treatment, i.e. plots
190 where the focal plant species was naturally absent, existed at the mid-low elevation site. Table 1
191 summarizes site-level experimental design, climate data for the 2018 growing season, relative
192 abundance of the focal species at each site, and the average amount of biomass removed annually
193 from removal treatment plots at each site.

194

195 During the peak of the 2018 growing season, when aboveground biomass was greatest at each
196 site, we conducted plant community surveys by visually assessing the percentage of the plot area
197 covered by each plant species. Rare species were recorded as covering < 1 %. At the low, mid-
198 high, and high elevation sites, data were collected annually on the amount of plant biomass
199 removed from each plot that received a removal treatment by collecting removed biomass in
200 paper bags and drying the plant biomass for 48 h at 60 °C. We calculated the average amount of
201 biomass removed annually from each plot by pooling the total amount of biomass removed over
202 the entire length of the experiment at each site, and dividing this cumulative number by the
203 length of each experiment in years (Table 1). On July 23rd-25th, 2018, we took two separate soil
204 cores (< 15 cm deep), one for the potential mineralization incubation and one for extracellular
205 enzyme assays, from random locations within each plot. Soil samples were refrigerated and
206 transported to the University of Vermont, Burlington, VT USA for processing. We sieved each
207 sample to remove rocks and large plant material (> 2 mm) and measured gravimetric water
208 content (g H₂O g⁻¹ dry soil) by drying 10 g of field-moist soil in an oven at 105 °C for 48 hours
209 (Robertson *et al.*, 1999). We measured soil organic matter content using the loss on ignition
210 method (SOM-LOI) by combusting oven-dried soil samples (105 °C) at 550 °C for six hours,
211 and then measuring SOM-LOI (g C kg⁻¹ dry soil) by quantifying the mass difference between
212 oven-dried and combusted soil samples (Hoogsteen *et al.*, 2015).

213

214 To measure the effect of plant removal on potential C- and N- mineralization in soils under
215 standardized environmental conditions, we conducted a 30-day laboratory incubation of soils
216 exposed to ideal moisture and temperature conditions (30% volumetric water content, 20 °C)
217 (Robertson *et al.*, 1999). 30% volumetric water content was the maximum soil moisture content
218 recorded during the growing season at these four sites in the two years preceding this study, so
219 this moisture threshold was chosen to represent ‘ideal’ but realistic conditions under which we
220 could investigate the full capacity of the microbial community in sampled soils to mineralize C
221 and N. We divided field-moist soil samples from each plot into paired 10 g subsamples. One
222 subsample was extracted immediately using a 2.0 M KCl solution to measure extractable NH_4^+
223 and NO_3^- . We incubated the second subsample in the dark for 30 days in 1 L clear, glass jars
224 fitted with rubber septa in the metal lid. We measured the CO_2 evolved in the headspace of the
225 jars via direct injection by using a syringe to sample the air in each sealed jar and injecting 7 mL
226 of air into a LI-COR 7810 trace gas analyzer (LI-COR Instruments, USA) at six time points
227 (days 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and 30 of the incubation) to track potential C-mineralization ($\mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$ dry
228 soil day^{-1}). At the completion of the incubation, we extracted the incubated soil subsample with 2
229 M KCl to again measure extractable NO_3^- and NH_4^+ concentration. We measured the
230 concentration of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ in the extractions colorimetrically (Doane and Horwath, 2003)
231 using a Synergy HT microplate fluorimeter/spectrophotometer (Synergy HT, Biotek Inc.,
232 Winooski, VT, USA). We then calculated total N-mineralization rates by subtracting the sum of
233 NO_3^- and NH_4^+ (i.e. inorganic N) in the initial subsample from the sum of extractable inorganic
234 N in the final subsample and dividing the amount of inorganic N produced during the reaction by
235 the length of the incubation in days (mg N kg^{-1} dry soil day^{-1}).

236

237 In addition to a laboratory incubation of soils to measure N- and C-mineralization rates, we
238 measured the activities of six different soil extracellular enzymes to understand how plant
239 removal impacts potential microbial activity. Using the protocol established by Saiya-Cork *et al.*
240 (2002), we assayed the carbon degrading enzymes α -glucosidase (AG), β -glucosidase (BG),
241 Cellobiohydrolase (CBH), and β -Xylosidase (XYL), nitrogen acquiring enzyme β -N-
242 acetylglucosaminidase (NAG), and phosphorus acquiring enzyme Acid phosphatase (PHOS). All
243 assays were performed by incubating enzymes in a soil slurry prepared with a buffered solution
244 (pH 5.0 sodium acetate buffer) at an ideal temperature (20.0 °C) with non-limiting amounts of

245 substrate. Following incubation, potential enzyme activities were quantified using a Synergy HT
246 microplate spectrophotometer (Biotek Inc., USA).

247

248 To analyze shifts in plant community structure in response to the plant removal treatments across
249 the elevational gradient, we performed non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) on the
250 plant community survey data in each plot using the ‘metaMDS’ function in the vegan:
251 Community Ecology Package in R (Oksanen *et al.*, 2019) with distance between plant
252 communities in plots within the same treatment calculated according to the modified Gower
253 (‘altGower’) method (Anderson *et al.*, 2006). We performed a permutational multivariate
254 analysis of variance using the ‘adonis’ function in the vegan package with two thousand
255 permutations to quantify the extent to which the removal treatment explains dissimilarity
256 between communities. To calculate dissimilarity among plant communities at each site and with
257 the removal treatments, we chose to use the modified Gower method (Anderson *et al.*, 2006)
258 (‘altGower’ in the ‘vegdist’ function in the vegan package). The modified Gower method for
259 calculating dissimilarity between communities is most appropriate for our study because it
260 explicitly weights an order-of-magnitude change in abundance equivalent to a change in species
261 composition. This feature is important because this analysis relies on our ability to detect
262 changes in abundance driven by our removal treatments despite high turnover in species
263 composition across the elevational gradient that would overwhelm changes in abundance in most
264 other dissimilarity indices that consider abundance (Anderson *et al.*, 2006). Finally, we used the
265 ‘betadisper’ function to evaluate the homogeneity of variances in community structure across
266 treatment groups to understand how the removal treatments, and separately, site, affect the
267 variation in plant community structure. This test calculates the average linear distance between
268 individual plots within a treatment group and the within-group centroid which represents the
269 median community structure for that group.

270

271 To measure the impact of plant removal on potential C- and N-mineralization, potential soil
272 enzyme activity, and SOM-LOI content, we performed ANOVAs using the ‘Anova’ function in
273 the car package to measure the extent to which elevation, removal treatment (dominant species
274 removal vs. non-removal), and the interaction between these two variables explained variation in
275 C- or N-mineralization (Fox and Weisberg, 2019). To account for heteroscedasticity in potential

276 N-mineralization rates among removal treatment and site groups, we used a White-adjustment
277 for corrected standard errors within the ‘Anova’ function (White, 1980). Additionally, to
278 understand if the effect of species removal on mineralization rates was mediated by simply the
279 removal of aboveground biomass, we again conducted ANOVAs to analyze variation in potential
280 mineralization rates across removal treatments using only the mid-low and mid-high elevations
281 where random biomass removal treatments were applied. To further understand whether
282 potential mineralization rates are influenced by the amount of biomass removed from each plot,
283 we analyzed linear relationships between average biomass removed annually from each plot and
284 the residual variation in C- and N-mineralization after accounting for the effects of removal
285 treatments and site. Finally, we conducted an ANOVA using only the mid-low elevation plots
286 which included a treatment where the focal species, *L. vulgaris*, was naturally absent to analyze
287 the similarity between mineralization rates in focal species removal plots and mineralization
288 rates in plots where the focal species was absent. A high degree of similarity between potential
289 mineralization rates in removal treatment plots and focal species absent plots would lend support
290 to one of the hypotheses proposed by Díaz *et al.* (2003), that the impact of removing a species
291 from a system is mediated by the loss of functions or influence uniquely attributed to that plant
292 species. To understand how site and removal treatment impact variation among potential C- and
293 N-mineralization rates, we also performed modified Levene’s tests (applying an ANOVA test to
294 the absolute deviation of each observation from the group median) using the ‘levene.test’
295 function in the lawstat package (Brown and Forsythe, 1974; Gastwirth *et al.*, 2019). All
296 statistical analyses were performed in RStudio (R version 3.6.3 “Holding the Windsock”)
297 (Rstudio Team, 2016).

298

299 **Results**

300 Plant species removal marginally decreased the magnitude of potential N-mineralization rates by
301 27% ($F_{1,43} = 3.32, p = 0.075$) and significantly decreased the variation in potential N-
302 mineralization ($p = 0.016$), regardless of plant species removed or climate at each elevation (Fig.
303 1a). Neither site ($F_{3,43} = 0.84, p = 0.481$) nor the interaction between site and removal treatment
304 ($F_{3,43} = 0.35, p = 0.791$) significantly affected N-mineralization. Variation in potential N-
305 mineralization rates within a single site was relatively homogenous across the elevational
306 gradient ($p = 0.462$). Conversely, potential C-mineralization rates varied significantly across the

307 elevational gradient ($F_{3,42} = 5.31, p = 0.003$), with notably higher C-mineralization rates at the
308 high elevation site confirmed by a Tukey HSD test (Fig. 1b). Plant species removal tended to
309 decrease potential C-mineralization rates by 9% ($F_{1,42} = 3.22, p = 0.08$), whereas the interaction
310 of site and plant removal treatment had no discernible impact on potential C-mineralization rates
311 ($F_{3,42} = 0.57, p = 0.637$). Rates of C-mineralization over the course of the incubation showed
312 consistent patterns across all treatments and sites, with CO₂ efflux peaking during the first days
313 of the incubation and stabilizing at a lower mineralization rate after the first week of the
314 incubation (Appendix S1: Fig. S1). SOM content, measured via LOI, reflected the same pattern
315 as potential C-mineralization rates, where SOM-LOI was greatest at the high elevation site ($F_{3,42}$
316 $= 3.93, p = 0.015$) with no detectable response to removal treatments ($F_{1,42} = 1.00, p = 0.322$) nor
317 an interaction between removal treatments and site ($F_{3,42} = 0.52, p = 0.669$) (Appendix S1: Fig.
318 S2). We did not find an effect of site or removal treatment on the variation in potential C-
319 mineralization rates within a treatment group at each site (site $p = 0.349$, removal treatment: $p =$
320 0.112).

321
322 While the activity of all soil extracellular enzymes differed significantly across the elevational
323 gradient (AG: $p = 0.002$, BG: $p < 0.001$, CBH: $p = 0.007$, XYL: $p = 0.010$, NAG: $p < 0.001$,
324 PHOS: $p < 0.001$), we did not detect a response of potential soil enzyme activity to the plant
325 removal treatments (AG: $p = 0.232$, BG: $p = 0.113$, CBH: $p = 0.241$, NAG: $p = 0.533$, PHOS: p
326 $= 0.220$), with the exception of XYL activity that decreased marginally with plant removal ($F_{1,36}$
327 $= 3.65 p = 0.064$) (Appendix S1: Fig. S3). Activity of NAG, a nitrogen degrading enzyme, and
328 XYL, a carbon degrading enzyme involved in the breakdown of hemicellulose, both showed
329 significant differences in response to the interaction between site and removal treatment (NAG:
330 $F_{3,41} = 3.55, p = 0.023$; XYL: $F_{3,36} = 4.33 p = 0.010$).

331
332 Plant species removal at all sites had only a marginal impact on plant community structure ($F_{1,43}$
333 $= 1.81, p = 0.060$), but community structure shifted significantly across the elevational gradient,
334 largely driven by species turnover ($F_{3,43} = 7.76, p < 0.001$; Fig. 2). We did not detect a
335 significant interactive effect between plant removal treatment and site on plant community
336 structure ($F_{3,43} = 0.054, p = 0.125$). Overall, site, removal treatment, and the interaction of these
337 two parameters explained 40% of the variation in plant community structure across all plots.

338 Furthermore, neither site nor removal treatment altered the dispersion or within-group variation
339 in plant community structure (site: $F_{3,47} = 1.23, p = 0.310$; removal treatment: $F_{1,49} = 0.10, p =$
340 0.750 ; Appendix S1: Fig. S4).

341
342 Our comparison of plant community structure and potential soil mineralization rates in random
343 biomass removal plots vs. focal plant species removal plots verified that the effect of removal
344 treatments does not stem from biomass removal alone. However, we could not detect a distinct
345 effect of plant removal on plant community structure or potential mineralization rates in data
346 from this subset of field sites. When analyzing the plant community structure at the two sites that
347 included random biomass removal treatments (mid-high and mid-low elevation sites), we found
348 only a marginally significant difference in plant community dissimilarity across removal
349 treatments ($F_{2,23} = 1.45, p = 0.083$) and did not find a significant change in the distribution of
350 variation in plant community structure in response to either of the removal treatments ($F_{2,26} =$
351 $0.135, p = 0.875$). Likewise, potential C-mineralization ($F_{2,22} = 0.68, p = 0.519$) and potential N-
352 mineralization ($F_{2,23} = 0.98, p = 0.389$) were seemingly unaffected by removal treatments, and
353 mineralization rates in random biomass removal plots were indistinguishable from the rates in
354 control plots (C-mineralization: $p = 0.750$, N-mineralization: $p = 0.667$) and species removal
355 plots (C-mineralization: $p = 0.928$, N-mineralization: $p = 0.912$). Linear regressions correlating
356 the amount of biomass removed annually with the residual variation in N- and C-mineralization
357 rates after accounting for the effects of site and removal treatment further supported our finding
358 that the amount of aboveground biomass removed was not significantly correlated with
359 belowground mineralization rates in these meadow ecosystems (C-mineralization: $p = 0.588$, N-
360 mineralization: $p = 0.455$). These results indicate that the mechanism driving changes in
361 belowground ecosystem function in response to plant removal treatments stems beyond loss of
362 aboveground biomass.

363
364 By isolating the mid-low elevation site “natural removal control” plots where the focal species,
365 *L. vulgaris*, was naturally absent from plots, our results showed that none of our removal
366 treatments had a discernible effect on any plant community properties or ecosystem function
367 rates as measured above (community dissimilarity: $F_{3,18} = 0.86, p = 0.735$; community
368 dispersion: $F_{3,18} = 0.48, p = 0.703$; potential C-mineralization: $F_{3,17} = 1.41, p = 0.275$; potential

369 N-mineralization: $F_{3,18} = 0.83$, $p = 0.494$). Furthermore, potential C-mineralization and N-
370 mineralization in the plots where *L. vulgaris* was naturally absent were indistinguishable from
371 potential mineralization rates in control plots (C-mineralization: $p = 0.906$, N-mineralization: $p =$
372 0.993) and *L. vulgaris* removal plots (C-mineralization: $p = 0.9997$, N-mineralization: $p =$
373 0.905), indicating that the effect of removing the dominant species cannot be attributed to the
374 loss of the specific influence of this species on belowground processes.

375

376 **Discussion**

377 By incubating soils sampled from plant species removal experiments spread across an elevational
378 gradient, our results show that species removal consistently decreases the variation in potential
379 N-mineralization rates, with the magnitude of N-mineralization rates in plant removal plots being
380 marginally lower. These results were consistent across the entire elevational gradient, with no
381 differences in potential N-mineralization rates among sites, a finding that stands in contrast to
382 our hypothesis that the effect of dominant plant species removal would be mediated by variation
383 in climate and environmental stress across the elevational gradient. While potential C-
384 mineralization rates also decreased subtly with removal treatments, we found significantly higher
385 mineralization rates at the high elevation site where soil moisture across the growing season is
386 relatively higher. This result likely reflects SOM content across the elevational gradient, where
387 potential C-mineralization rates are highest at the high elevation site where SOM content was
388 significantly greater than at all other sites (Appendix S1: Fig. S2). We also found that variation
389 in soil potential N-mineralization rates was significantly lower in the plant species removal
390 treatment, indicating convergence in potential N-mineralization with the loss of a plant species
391 regardless of its identity. Interestingly, we observed these changes in belowground processes in
392 response to plant species removal despite little to no change in overall plant species composition
393 and potential extracellular enzyme activity with the removal of a focal species in each
394 ecosystem.

395

396 Why might there be an interactive effect of elevation and removal on XYL and NAG enzyme
397 activities? We suspect that shifts in NAG activity in response to removal might be sensitive to
398 the changes in edaphic properties like soil total C and soil moisture that vary across the
399 elevational gradient. The NAG activity patterns revealed here likely mirror our N-mineralization

400 results because this enzyme is a key agent in the nitrogen mineralization process. Additionally,
401 the interactive effects of site and removal treatment might be linked to the functional identity of
402 the plant species removed at each site. XYL enzymes hydrolyze specific linkages in β -(1,4)-
403 xylose compounds found in the cell walls of plant species. As the cell walls of monocot species
404 substitute a different xylan compound as the structural backbones of cell walls, the biomass of
405 dicot species contains more of the β -(1,4)-xylose XYL substrate (Hatfield *et al.*, 2017).
406 Therefore, removal of a monocot (as at the high and mid-high elevational sites) vs. the removal
407 of a dicot (mid-low and low elevational sites) could have contrasting effects on the synthesis and
408 activity of extracellular enzymes like XYL that aid in the decomposition of lignocellulosic
409 biomass.

410
411 Previous work in these meadow ecosystems revealed fairly strong resistance to change in both
412 above- and belowground communities to *F. thurberi* removal, where plant community
413 composition, community-weighted plant functional traits, and fungal colonization of plant roots
414 showed no clear response to removal of the dominant species or nitrogen fertilization (Read *et*
415 *al.*, 2018; Henning *et al.*, 2019). Alpine ecosystems experience frequent disturbances at a variety
416 of scales, from burrowing mammals to avalanches and landslides, possibly conditioning these
417 ecosystems and the plant and soil communities that inhabit montane meadows to a relatively
418 large degree of disturbance, resulting in resilience to more minor disturbances plant species
419 removal. These results suggest that plant species loss impacts belowground processes by some
420 other mechanism beyond the loss of the specific influence of the removed plant species on
421 belowground nutrient cycling.

422
423 By comparing the response of potential N-mineralization to removal of four distinct species
424 along an elevational gradient, we can discern between the mechanisms by which plant removal
425 might impact ecosystem function proposed by Díaz *et al.* (2003). Because removal decreased
426 potential N-mineralization at all field sites, regardless of the functional identity of the plant
427 species removed, our results suggest that this ecosystem response is not due to the loss of the
428 influence of a particular species, eliminating the first mechanism as a plausible explanation.
429 When considering the “natural removal control” plots at the mid-low elevation, we find that any
430 response of N-mineralization rates to the removal of this species was not due to the loss of a

431 specific function performed by the removed species, *L. vulgaris*, because N-mineralization rates
432 did not differ between plots where *L. vulgaris* was present and plots where *L. vulgaris* was
433 naturally absent. The results from our analysis of shifts in the structure of the plant communities
434 in each experiment in response to removals (Fig. 1a) showed that the removal had only a
435 marginal effect on plant community structure, making it unlikely that community re-assembly
436 following removal could be driving the shift in ecosystem function found here. Finally, potential
437 N-mineralization rates did not differ significantly between control plots and random biomass
438 removal plots, indicating that disturbance is also unlikely to be the dominant driver of shifts in
439 potential N-mineralization rates in response to removal. Our experimental design therefore
440 allows us to speculatively rule out all three of the mechanisms that drive removal effects as
441 proposed by Díaz *et al.* (2003), so we turn to other more indirect mechanisms that might drive
442 variation in mineralization rates following species removal.

443

444 Plant removal may have several indirect impacts on belowground microbial processes that could
445 explain our results. Removals across all experiments were conducted by either clipping
446 aboveground biomass of the removed species to ground level, or by gently pulling on
447 aboveground biomass to break shoots from the extensive network of belowground roots, as in the
448 *L. vulgaris* removal. This method of removal leaves much of the belowground biomass of the
449 removed plant behind, potentially constituting a significant pool of N that is immobilized in plant
450 root litter. Several studies estimate that root mean residence time is approximately four years for
451 fine roots in ecosystems characterized by a -1.8 to 2.7 °C range in mean annual temperature (Gill
452 and Jackson, 2000; Leifeld *et al.*, 2015), and root turnover in grasslands globally is limited by
453 precipitation (Wang *et al.*, 2019). Estimates of fine root decomposition in arid grasslands with
454 precipitation regimes similar to the climate of this study system indicate that as much as 60% of
455 root biomass remains after 4-10 years of decomposition, immobilizing 60% of the N content of
456 root litter at the onset of decomposition (Parton *et al.* 2007). Delay in root decomposition
457 following the onset of plant removal could lead to a short-term decrease in the size of the soil N
458 pool that is available to microbes and plants until the roots of removed plants are decomposed.
459 Our data lend some support to this explanation when N-mineralization rates are analyzed within
460 the context of each individual experiment across the elevational gradient. Results from the mid-
461 low elevation site, where *L. vulgaris* has been actively removed for seventeen years, show no

462 effect of removal—or any of other treatments—on potential N-mineralization rates, possibly
463 indicating that the legacy of the removal treatment has faded as roots have decomposed
464 following removal to release N immobilized in belowground *L. vulgaris* root litter. In contrast,
465 the effect of species removal on soil N-mineralization rates remains across all three younger
466 experiments. Immobilization of N in belowground root litter might therefore be a mechanism by
467 which loss of species locally could reduce ecosystem N cycling in the short-term.

468
469 Species removal likely affects ecosystem function more generally by reducing ecosystem
470 resilience to climatic extremes (Tilman and Downing, 1994). This response to species removals
471 may be a belowground manifestation of an effect that Kardol *et al.* (2018) found in a long-term
472 plant removal experiment where plant species loss led to greater temporal variability in
473 aboveground plant biomass. Perhaps plant species loss leads to similar variability belowground
474 where properties such as soil microbial community composition, microbial biomass, or microbial
475 activity and carbon use efficiency in communities that have lost plant species are especially
476 vulnerable to climatic extremes, driving marked shifts in belowground processes that are not
477 seen in more diverse and resilient communities. Heightened temporal variability of above- and/or
478 below-ground ecosystem components in response to species loss may also negatively impact
479 ecosystem resilience (Oliver *et al.*, 2015). As 2018 was an especially dry summer in our study
480 area, loss of the ability of plant and microbial communities to function in spite of climatic events
481 like a severe drought may explain lower mineralization rates in plant removal plots.

482
483 In conclusion, we found that removing the dominant plant species consistently reduces the
484 variation in soil N- mineralization rates, while marginally decreasing the magnitude of C- and N-
485 mineralization rates, in alpine meadows. We find these changes to belowground function in
486 response despite only subtle shifts in aboveground plant community structure and no clear
487 changes in extracellular enzyme activity in response to plant removal. While our results are
488 limited in their ability to pinpoint a clear mechanism by which species loss affects potential soil
489 mineralization rates, the results do offer an unexpectedly simple pattern describing the overall
490 effect of species loss on soil N and C cycling that holds across an elevational gradient. Moreover,
491 our study offers insight into how loss of aboveground plant species might indirectly impact

492 belowground processes with implications for ecosystem function in a future world characterized
493 by global change.

494

495 **Acknowledgements**

496 We would like to thank Pamela Templer and all reviewers of our manuscript for their thoughtful
497 comments and valuable feedback. This study was partially supported by a Semper Ardens grant
498 from the Carlsbergfondet. Installation, maintenance and publication of data from the RMBL
499 weather stations has been supported by NSF award (MRI- 0821369) and DOE funding as well as
500 ongoing operational support from RMBL, the Upper Gunnison River Water Conservancy
501 District and the LBNL Science Focus Area 2.0 project. This research is also based upon work
502 supported by the National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship Program under
503 Grant No. NSF-16-588 awarded to KR. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or
504 recommendations expressed in this material are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily
505 reflect the views of the National Science Foundation. Author contributions: AC, NS, JH, QR,
506 and RI designed the field experiments that were sampled as part of this study. All authors
507 contributed to maintaining the plant removal treatments and together collected annual estimates
508 of biomass removed and plant community composition across all field sites. KR collected field
509 samples, conducted laboratory analyses, and analyzed all data with support from AC, NS, JH,
510 QR, and RI. KR was primarily responsible for writing the manuscript with contributions and
511 revisions from all co-authors.

512

513 **Supporting Information**

514 Additional supporting information may be found online at: [link to be added in production]

515

516 **Open Research**

517 All data (Rewcastle et al. 2021) have been made publicly available through the Environmental
518 Data Initiative (EDI): <https://doi.org/10.6073/pasta/11a8123a58cbb45d76c61fbb1f5b88d7>

519

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647 **Table 1.** Focal species removed, experimental design, and climate variables for each of the four field experiments included in this
 648 study.

Site	Length of Experiment (yr)	Plant Species Removed	Replication (n)	Elevation (m asl)	Mean Growing Season Temp. (C)	Growing Season Precipitation (mm)	Mean Growing Season Soil Moisture (VWC)	Relative Abundance of Focal Species	Average Biomass Removal Rate (dry g y ⁻¹)	Average Soil Total C (g kg ⁻¹ dry soil)
Low Elevation	5	<i>Wyethia x magna</i>	8	2740	15.6	61.4	3.61%	19.9%	173.02	111.6
Mid-Low Elevation	17	<i>Linaria vulgaris</i>	6	2890	12.1	98.3	9.67%	19.8%	—	109.4
Mid-High Elevation	7	<i>Festuca thurberi</i>	4	2904	—	—	—	29.5%	29.51	104.2
High Elevation	5	<i>Juncus drummondii</i>	8	3460	12.2	127.6	7.71%	19.1%	52.49	153.5

649

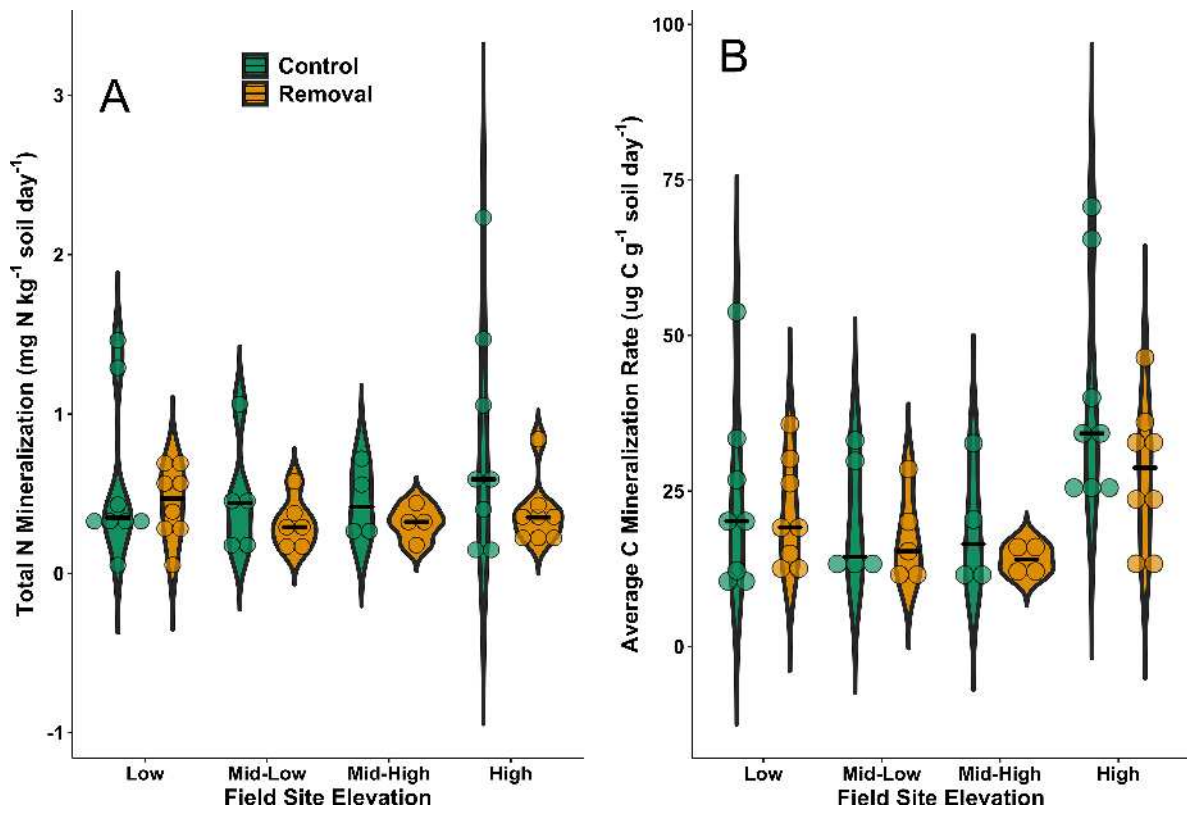
650 Notes. Both mid-elevation sites are located in close proximity to one another and therefore share climate data. Collection of growing
 651 season climate data for all sites began on June 1st, 2018, and ended on August 31st, 2018, with the exception of the high-elevation field
 652 site where the weather station was installed on June 27th at the beginning of the growing season. The relative abundance of the focal
 653 species targeted in removal treatments at each site was calculated by dividing the percent of the plot area covered by the focal species
 654 in control plots by the total area covered by all plant species in each control plot. Data quantifying the amount of biomass removed
 655 annually from removal treatments at the mid-low elevation site were not collected. Climate data for the mid-elevation sites are made
 656 available through the Rocky Mountain Biological Laboratory (RMBL, see Acknowledgements).

657

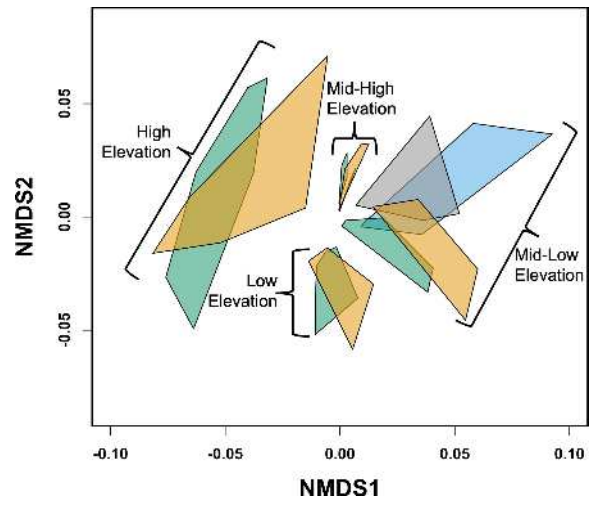
658 **Figure Captions**

659 **Figure 1:** A) Plant removal decreased the variation in and, marginally, the magnitude of N-
660 mineralization rates. Site and the interaction between elevation and removal treatment had no
661 discernible effect. B) C-mineralization rates varied significantly among sites and were
662 marginally impacted by plant species removal while the interaction between site and species
663 removal treatment did not significantly impact C-mineralization rates. Crossbars indicate group
664 medians.

665
666 **Figure 2:** An NMDS ordination of plant community structure in response to plant removal
667 treatments at four different sites along an elevational gradient. Polygons encompass communities
668 in all plots within a specific removal treatment at each site. Teal polygons indicate control
669 treatments, gold polygons encompass communities that received the plant removal treatment,
670 blue polygons indicate the random biomass removal treatment, and the gray polygon at the mid-
671 low elevation site indicates a natural removal control treatment where the focal plant species,
672 *Linaria vulgaris*, naturally did not occur. Community structure varied by site but only varied
673 marginally with removal treatments and was not significantly impacted by an interaction
674 between removal treatment and site.



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