

1 Empirical modelling of trait selection by partitioning
2 selection into direct selection and selection that is
3 mediated by interspecific interactions

4 *Christian Damgaard, Bioscience, Aarhus University, Vejlsøvej 25, 8600 Silkeborg,*
5 *Denmark – cfd@dmu.dk*

6 Abstract

7 Trait selection has received considerable attention in the pursuit to understand niche-based community
8 assembly processes and to generate ecological predictions. To further advance the study of trait selection,
9 a conceptual statistical model is presented that outlines and discuss the possibilities of i) estimating the
10 effect of interspecific interactions on traits rather than just testing whether selection has had an effect on
11 the observed trait distributions, ii) discriminating between environmental filtering and niche partitioning
12 processes and estimate the characteristic features and importance of both processes, and iii) predicting the
13 effect of environmental changes and gradients on trait selection. To achieve these goals a number of
14 necessary assumptions have to be specified and these assumptions are discussed and assessed. Simulated
15 plant cover data from a simple uniform environment was successfully fitted to the model and the results
16 indicates that it is possible to partition direct population growth and population growth that is mediated by
17 interspecific interaction. The data requirements of the model are modest, i.e. time series data on plant
18 species abundance and a species – trait matrix. Consequently, the model concept may be used to model
19 trait selection, including the effect of interspecific interactions, in many existing plant ecological datasets.

20 Keywords: interspecific interactions; competition; trait selection; selection model; directional selection;
21 stabilizing selection; disruptive selection; plant cover

Introduction

Interspecific interactions among neighbouring plants typically arise because the resources needed for plant growth and reproduction are limited, and the plant that extracts or monopolizes most of the limiting resources will grow faster and reproduce in greater numbers (e.g., Goldberg et al., 1990; Weiner, 1986). The possibly important role of interspecific interactions in regulating natural plant communities and determining community assembly rules (e.g., Gotelli and McCabe, 2002; Kraft et al., 2015b; Silvertown et al., 1999; Weiher et al., 1998) has been investigated in a multitude of studies using different methods (Damgaard, 2011). However, considering its high ecological relevance and status as a classic research question in plant population ecology, it is noteworthy that only relatively few studies have measured the direct effect of interspecific interactions on plant performance and its role for regulating plant communities in undisturbed natural communities, and the results are still too sparse to allow much generalization across different plant communities or even among years (Turnbull et al., 2004). This paradox is due to the fact that the measurement of interspecific interactions in natural ecosystems is a non-trivial task (Damgaard, 2011), and applicable methods for measuring interspecific interactions in natural ecosystems is needed in order to make progress in understanding community assembly rules and making quantitative ecological predictions on the effect of environmental changes on biodiversity.

An increasingly popular way of describing plant communities is to focus on the expressed phenotypes of the plant species, i.e. plant traits, rather than on the species itself. The advantage is that plant traits are characteristic features, which to a certain extent will determine the survival, growth and reproductive strategies of the species, and are expected to respond in a more predictable way to an altered environment than the observed change in species composition (Damgaard et al., 2014; Garnier et al., 2004; Pellissier et al., 2014; Shipley, 2010a). Furthermore, plant traits involved in resource acquisition and use at the species level will scale-up to ecosystem functioning, provided that traits are weighed by the species' contribution to the community (Garnier et al., 2007; Lavorel and Garnier, 2002).

46 Generally, the selection response for the individual traits may be classified into either i) directional
 47 selection, where either relatively high or low trait values are favored, ii) stabilizing selection, where specific
 48 intermediary trait values are favored over all other trait values, or iii) disruptive selection, where extreme
 49 values for a trait are favored over intermediate values. Furthermore, the selection response of different
 50 plants traits may be broadly classified into either i) competitive effect traits, which are traits that reduce
 51 resource availability to neighboring plants through plant activity, e.g. plant height, where a high plant
 52 reduces the amount and quality of light that is received by shorter neighboring plants and ii) competitive
 53 response traits, which are traits that capture the response of a plant to the change in resource availability
 54 due to the activity of other plants, e.g. decreasing leaf thickness as a response to decreasing light
 55 availability (Violle et al., 2009).

56 The trait selection process has previously been described by a two-step process in a meta-community
 57 model, where plants from a regional species pool are dispersed to a local habitat, and trait filtering
 58 excludes individuals with unfit trait values, and within the local species pool, trait values may influence
 59 performance, which may lead to patterns of trait convergence or divergence (e.g. Bernard-Verdier et al.,
 60 2012; Webb et al., 2010). The selection due to performance differences in the local species pool is thought
 61 to be mediated by interspecific interactions as the difference between the fundamental niche and the
 62 realized niche of the local species (Hutchinson, 1957). Under this framework, the effect of interspecific
 63 interactions is detected from deviations of the observed trait distribution from random expectations in the
 64 local species pool. If the variance of the observed trait distribution is lower than the random expectations,
 65 this is an indication of directional or stabilizing selection (convergent trait distribution pattern). Conversely,
 66 if the variance of the observed trait distribution is higher than the random expectations, this is an indication
 67 of disruptive selection (divergent trait distribution pattern) (Bernard-Verdier et al., 2012).

68 Using such test procedures, several plant ecological studies have reported non-random trait dispersion
 69 distributions in favor of different niche-based community assembly hypotheses compared to the neutral

hypothesis of plant community assembly (Weiher et al., 2011). However, this test procedure has been criticized by e.g. Adler et al. (2013), who argue that trait dispersion tests have low power to detect niche partitioning, and that patterns typically interpreted as either environmental filtering or niche partitioning may be generated by the same process. Most importantly, Adler et al. (2013) note that: “The common interpretation is that species interactions play no role in the abiotic environmental filtering process, while abiotic factors play no role in the competitively driven niche partitioning process. However, the dichotomy between environmental filtering and niche partitioning can arise from an arbitrary decision about the spatial scale of analysis, not from distinct biological processes”. Furthermore, since multiple assembly processes can lead to the same pattern of trait dispersion and the same process can lead to different patterns of trait dispersion (Herben and Goldberg, 2014), it is not possible to generate ecological predictions on the effects of e.g. environmental changes on plant traits simply by comparing observed trait distributions with random expectations.

In a seminal work using maximum entropy models Shipley (2010a; 2010b) estimated the selection response from change in plant abundance. The maximum entropy models have the large advantage that it is not necessary to specify detailed models on selection mechanisms or how the different traits interact (Baastrup-Spohr et al., 2015; Shipley, 2010a; Shipley, 2010b), but this advantage is also their main drawback, since the method does not allow for discriminating between different selection models or whether selection is occurring due to environmental filtering or niche partitioning processes, which is the main objective of this study.

Consequently, in order to make progress in the understanding of the role and nature of niche-based community assembly processes in the structuring of plant communities, it would be beneficial to be able i) to estimate the effect of interspecific interactions on traits rather than just testing whether selection has had an effect on the observed trait distributions, ii) to discriminate between environmental filtering and

niche partitioning processes and estimate the characteristic features and importance of both processes, and iii) to predict the effect of environmental changes and gradients on trait selection.

To meet these objectives, I present a method for estimating the effect of species trait values on observed population growth in a plant community by estimating parameters in two complementary population growth functions that model both environmental filtering processes (in the following denoted *direct* population growth) and niche partitioning processes (in the following called population growth that is *mediated by interspecific interaction*). The underlying idea of the method is to mathematically partition the effect of traits on direct population growth and population growth that is mediated by interspecific interaction by two complementary functions. The resulting model is a one-step trait selection process that operates locally and thus is conceptually simpler than the two-step process meta-community model that previously has been used (e.g. Bernard-Verdier et al., 2012; Webb et al., 2010). Furthermore, a one-step trait selection response is probably a more realistic model of the selection process, since there are no compelling reasons for why the processes of environmental filtering and niche partitioning should not operate simultaneously.

The aim of this paper is to present a model where the effects of plant traits on population growth is estimated from simple longitudinal plant cover data and where the effect of traits is partitioned into direct population growth and population growth that is mediated by interspecific interaction.

Model

A plant community has n plant species that are characterized by m species-specific plant traits, which are known to be important for plant growth and demography. The plant traits are stored in a species-trait matrix, $\mathbf{T}_{n,m}$, with n rows and m columns.

The local abundance of the plant species is measured by their relative abundance measured by either biomass or cover at time t , where $\sum_{j=1}^n q_{j,t} = 1$. The plants grow, die and reproduce under the influence of

interspecific interactions at a given environment where certain combinations of plant traits have a positive effect on growth and reproduction and other combinations of plant traits have a negative effect on growth and reproduction.

The predicted cover the following year of plant species j with trait values $t_k = x$ is determined by (Fig. 1),

$$q'_j = q_j \sum_{k=1}^m \left(F_k(x) \left(\sum_{y \in \Omega(t_k)} C_k(x, y) q_{t_k=y} \right) \right) + \varepsilon \quad (1),$$

where $F_k(x)$ is the direct population growth function of plant species with trait value x for plant trait k , and $C_k(x, y)$ is a function that models the effect of interspecific interactions on population growth of plant species with trait value x for plant trait k with a distance function between trait value x and y , where $\Omega(t_k)$ is all trait values for plant trait k in the community, and where $C_k(x, x) = 1$. The effects of the m traits on plant population growth were in this simple analysis assumed to be additive; but see the later discussion on the possibilities of relaxing this important assumption. The predicted cover of plant species is not bounded between zero and one and, consequently, the predicted cover was fitted to the observed cover using a normal distribution, where the standard deviation was scaled by the observed cover times one minus the observed cover, i.e. $\varepsilon \sim N(0, q_j(1 - q_j)\sigma)$. Most importantly, the parameter, ε , estimates the structural variance in the change in cover, which is the variance that is not explained by the model (1), and may consequently be used to get an estimate on the quantitative importance of the simplifying assumptions used in the modelling process.

The population growth functions $F_k(x)$ and $C_k(x, y)$ may vary according to plant life forms, habitat type, and existing prior knowledge of e.g. the type of selection on the different traits, but here two simple directional selection functions are chosen in order to illustrate the method,

$$F_k(x) = a_k x + b_k \quad (2a),$$

$$C_k(x, y) = \text{Exp}(-c_k(y - x)) \quad (2b).$$

138

139 After inserting (2a) and (2b) into (1), the resulting model may be fitted to N observed plots with cover data
140 from two consecutive years, i.e. the parameters of interest may be estimated by the likelihood function,

$$L(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c}, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^N \prod_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} q_{j,t+1} (1 - q_{j,t+1}) \sigma} \text{Exp} \left(- \frac{(q'_{j,t} - q_{j,t+1})^2}{(q_{j,t+1} (1 - q_{j,t+1}) \sigma)^2} \right) \quad (3).$$

142 Example data

143 In order to present and discuss the nature of the underlying assumptions and illustrate the possible use of
144 the model, the above-outlined method was applied on a simple toy example of an ecological realistic data
145 type.

146 An arbitrary species-traits matrix with ten species and three traits, $\mathbf{T}_{10,3}$, was constructed with random
147 integer values (Table 1) and using an arbitrary directional selection scheme of the population growth based
148 on the values of the three traits, $5(x_1 - \bar{x}_1) + 3(x_2 - \bar{x}_2) - 2(x_3 - \bar{x}_3) + 100$, where x_k is the trait value
149 of trait k .

150 The initial cover of ten species was generated for a hundred plots using a Dirichlet distribution with all
151 parameters set to one.

152 The selection scheme was used on the generated initial covers of the hundred plots and afterwards
153 normalized to obtain resulting cover values that sum up to one for each plot.

154 Only the species-trait matrix, $\mathbf{T}_{10,3}$, and the initial cover data, $\mathbf{q}_{i,1}$, and resulting cover data, $\mathbf{q}_{i,2}$, at plot i
155 ($i = 1, \dots, 100$) were used in the further analysis, thus resembling the conditions in a real plant ecological
156 study.

157 Estimation

158 The joint posterior distribution of the parameters in likelihood function (3) was simulated using a Bayesian
 159 MCMC algorithm (Metropolis-Hastings), where the parameters were assumed to have a uniform prior
 160 distribution, except for σ , where the prior was assumed to have an inverse gamma distributed with the
 161 parameters 0.001 and 0.001. The MCMC iterations had fair mixing properties and were judged to have
 162 converged to a stable joint posterior distribution after a lag phase of 50.000 iterations (results not shown).
 163 The joint posterior distribution was estimated from 50.000 iterations after the lag phase.

164 Statistical inferences on the individual parameters were based on the 95% credible intervals of the marginal
 165 posterior distributions.

166 All calculations were done using *Mathematica* version 10 (Wolfram, 2015).

167 Results and Discussion

168 The generated cover data was successfully fitted by likelihood function (3) and the marginal posterior
 169 distributions of the parameters are summarized in Table 2. There were significant differences among
 170 several of the growth parameters and all nine growth parameters differed significantly from zero (Table 1).
 171 This indicates, although by using artificially generated plant cover data, that it is possible to estimate the
 172 effect of traits on population growth with an acceptable signal-to-noise relationship when fitted to hundred
 173 plots, which is a realistic number of replicates in ecological studies.

174 The covariance matrix of the joint posterior distribution and the graphs of the parameter iterations (not
 175 shown) showed almost no covariance between a_k and c_k . This generally indicates that it is possible to
 176 partition direct population growth and population growth that is mediated by interspecific interaction.

177 Most importantly, a number of quite specific assumptions on the nature of selection and how the different
 178 traits interact (eqn. 1 and 2), is needed to set up the model and to meet the objectives of the empirical

179 modelling, i.e. to estimate the selection forces on traits while at the same time to discriminate between
 180 environmental filtering and niche partitioning processes. Such a modelling approach is in sharp contrast to
 181 the more simple and elegant maximum entropy models, where it is not necessary to specify detailed
 182 models on selection forces and how the different traits interact (Shipley, 2010a; Shipley, 2010b).
 183 Consequently, in the modelling approach presented in this study it is critical to assess or test the different
 184 necessary assumptions using either prior knowledge or model selection techniques.

185 As an additional tool in the model selection process valuable information may be obtained by estimates the
 186 structural variance, which is the variance that is not explained by the model and the underlying
 187 assumptions. If the structural variance is relative small then this is indirect evidence that the underlying
 188 assumptions to a certain degree are supported by the data. In the presented simple case-study the median
 189 estimate of the structural standard deviation was 0.0984 (Table 2), which should be compared with the
 190 expected cumulative cover changes of ten species with three traits. However, more worked-out empirical
 191 examples of real data are needed in order to assess the importance of this level of structural variation.
 192 Finally, the conclusions of the model should of course be compared with independent information or
 193 hypotheses on the nature of trait selection.

194 Regarding the used assumption on the nature of selection, the cover data in the presented case-study were
 195 generated using a directional selection model and, consequently, analysed using directional selection
 196 models (2). However, if there is prior knowledge that indicates either stabilizing or disruptive selection is
 197 occurring for a subset of the traits, then the selection models (2) may be replaced by more relevant
 198 selection models for these traits. For example, the following model may be relevant in the case of
 199 stabilizing selection,

$$200 \quad F_k(x) = a_k (x - z_k)^2 + b_k \quad (4a),$$

$$201 \quad C_k(x, y) = \text{Exp}(-c_k (y - z_k)^2) / \text{Exp}(-c_k (x - z_k)^2) \quad (4b),$$

202 where z_k is an optimum intermediary trait value. Likewise the following model may be relevant in the case
203 of disruptive selection,

$$204 \quad F_k(x) = a_k (x - z_k)^2 + b_k \quad (5a),$$

$$205 \quad C_k(x, y) = (1 - m_k) (1 - \text{Exp}(-c_k (y - z_k)^2)) / (1 - \text{Exp}(-c_k (x - z_k)^2)) + m_k \quad (5b),$$

206 where z_k is a minimum intermediary trait value with fitness m_k .

207 Generally, using model selection techniques, it will be possible to test what type of selection (directional
208 selection, stabilizing selection, or disruptive selection) is best supported by the data and, consequently, to
209 generate and test hypothesis on trait based assembly rules and possible mechanisms underlying plant
210 species coexistence. Furthermore, if plant abundance of perennial plants is measured several times during
211 a growth season, e.g. in spring and autumn (Damgaard, 2011; Damgaard et al., 2013; Damgaard et al., in
212 press), then the trait selection processes during summer growth may be estimated independently from the
213 trait selection processes during over-wintering and, consequently, allows the generation and testing of
214 temporal coexistence mechanisms (storage effects, Chesson, 2000).

215 Regarding the used assumption on the interactions between traits, model (1) assumes additivity among the
216 traits in regulating population growth. Generally, little information exists on the interaction among traits
217 (Kraft et al., 2015b), but perhaps it will be beneficial to aggregate co-varying traits into higher-order traits.
218 For example, it could be relevant to construct a compound leaf trait function that takes both SLA and LDMC
219 as arguments, which is established from prior knowledge. Again, the above-discussed model selection
220 techniques may be used to discriminate between different hypotheses, and in the case that some modes of
221 interactions are not supported by data it may be concluded that new ecological insight has been
222 established.

223 Quite generally, I would argue that only if you risk the neck and make specific assumptions on the nature of
 224 different ecological processes, it will be possible to falsify some of those assumptions that are not
 225 supported by data, which ultimately will lead to an increased understanding of the ecological processes.

226 In the presented simple demonstration case, the used cover data were generated assuming a uniform
 227 environment, but if the cover data had been sampled along an environmental gradient, then the selection
 228 models (2) can be made dependent on the environmental gradient; and the effect of traits on population
 229 growth can then be estimated as functions of the environmental gradient. In similar ways, the selection
 230 models (2) can be modified to fit many different ecological circumstances and the demonstrated model in
 231 this paper is only one possibility of a large class of models that may be fitted using the outlined
 232 methodology. The model is currently being used to examine the effect of plant competition on trait
 233 selection along a hydrological gradient (Damgaard et al, in prep.)

234 Generally, it will be possible to generate ecological predictions with a known degree of uncertainty from
 235 the outlined trait selection model by inserting values from the joint posterior distribution of the parameters
 236 into numerical iterations or a numerical solution of equation (1). Such ecological predictions may be used
 237 directly in applied plant ecological questions, e.g. effects of climate change, pesticides, or nitrogen
 238 deposition on plant communities.

239 The outlined trait selection model is a one-step trait selection process that only operates locally and is,
 240 thus, conceptually simpler than the two-step process meta-community model that previously has been
 241 used (e.g. Bernard-Verdier et al., 2012; Webb et al., 2010). One of the advantages of this simpler model is
 242 that it allows ecological predictions to be generated without knowledge on meta-community dynamics
 243 which, typically, is unknown. The data requirements of the presented model are modest, i.e. time series
 244 data on plant species abundance and a species – trait matrix. Consequently, the model may be used to
 245 model trait selection, including the effect of interspecific interactions, in many existing plant ecological

246 datasets. Naturally, the method is extendable so that time series longer than two years or time series data
 247 with irregular sampling intervals also may be fitted.

248 In the used modelling approach interspecific interactions are measured directly using time series plant
 249 abundance data as the effect neighboring plants have on growth (Damgaard, 2011; Damgaard et al., 2009;
 250 Damgaard et al., 2013; Damgaard et al., in press), and this allows us to model the underlying ecological
 251 processes. In my opinion, the filter analogy has been overused in empirical plant ecological trait literature,
 252 e.g. when loosely referring to a “competitive filter” or “biotic filter” without specifying the details of the
 253 underlying ecological processes (Kraft et al., 2015a). Since multiple assembly processes can lead to the
 254 same pattern of trait dispersion and the same process can lead to different patterns of trait dispersion
 255 (Herben and Goldberg, 2014), it is a clear advantage of the outlined model that it operates on the process
 256 level and that it is possible to mathematically describe the details of different ecological processes within
 257 the framework.

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260 Tables and figures

261 Table 1. The used species-traits matrix with ten species and three traits, $T_{10,3}$.

Species	Trait 1	Trait 2	Trait 3
1	3	2	3
2	2	4	2
3	4	1	6
4	7	5	3
5	2	3	8
6	9	4	4
7	2	3	6
8	4	6	5
9	6	3	1
10	5	1	5

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264 Table 2. The marginal distribution of the parameters of likelihood function (4) summarized by their 2.5%,
265 50%, 97.5% percentiles and the probability that the parameter is larger than zero.

Parameter	2.5%	50%	97.5%	P(X > 0)
a_1	0.0911	0.0952	0.1011	1
a_2	0.0907	0.0957	0.1003	1
a_3	0.0615	0.0658	0.0696	1
b_1	0.0019	0.0038	0.0063	1
b_2	0.0001	0.0012	0.0032	0.986
b_3	0.0033	0.0052	0.0070	1
c_1	-0.0894	-0.0817	-0.0740	0
c_2	-0.2092	-0.1968	-0.1818	0
c_3	-0.3053	-0.2933	-0.2820	0
σ	0.0941	0.0984	0.1029	1

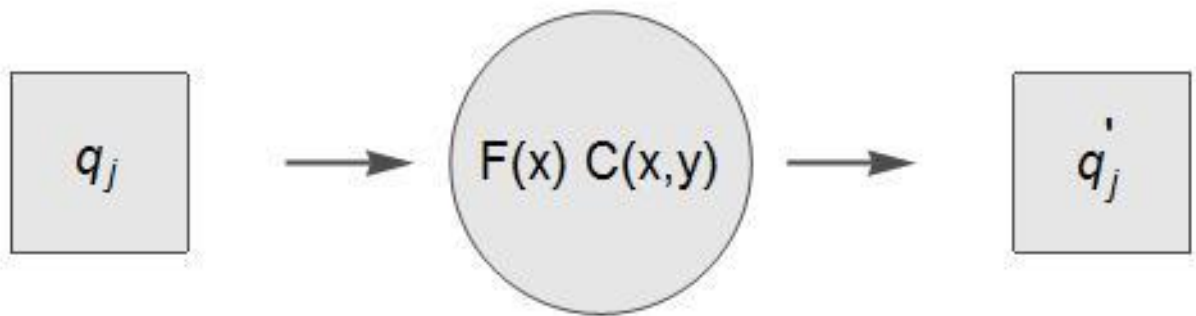
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270 Fig. 1. Conceptual figure of the selection model, where q_j is the cover of plant species j with trait
 271 values $t_k = x$, q'_j is the predicted cover of plant species j the following year under the influence of both
 272 direct selection forces, $F(x)$, and selection forces mediated by interspecific interactions, $C(x, y)$.



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