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1 **Title**

2 Meta-analyses of mowing and warming effects on grassland species richness and harvested biomass

3

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13

14 **Keywords**

15 Grasslands; harvested plant biomass; mowing treatment; plant species diversity; warming treatment

16

## 17 **Abstract**

18 Climate and management affect grassland plant diversity but studies vary regarding the magnitude of  
19 changes in plant species richness. Here we develop a comprehensive understanding of species richness  
20 modification due to management (mowing) and climate (warming) variation worldwide, and present  
21 the results of two meta-analyses from 999 and 1793 records (articles). Recorded articles had at least  
22 one experiment with a case-control design. The results show that both mowing (43 articles) and  
23 warming (34 articles) modify species richness, which on average increased by *c.* 32% with once-a-  
24 year mowing (against no mowing) and reduced by *c.* 13% with warming (against ambient  
25 temperature). Our meta-analysis on the mowing regime supports the humped-back model, with one or  
26 two cuts per year being the level of disturbance optimising species richness. We also observed that  
27 warming-induced reduction in species richness is lower in dry climates ( $< 300 \text{ mm yr}^{-1}$ ) and at low-  
28 elevations ( $< 1000 \text{ m a.s.l.}$ ). We also took into account, where available, a concomitant variable,  
29 harvested biomass (determined experimentally in both mown and unmown plots), and found that it  
30 overall decreased by *c.* 21% (mowing) and increased by *c.* 11% (warming). The evidence provided of  
31 an opposite response of species richness and harvested biomass to disturbance is consistent with the  
32 competitive-exclusion hypothesis of negatively correlated patterns between the two outcomes (high  
33 taxonomic diversity with low biomass production, and vice versa). Study results thus help develop a  
34 more complete picture of the role of increasing temperature and cutting regime on grassland species  
35 richness and add insights to published meta-analyses examining the outcomes of terrestrial  
36 ecosystems. The reported difficulties to retrieve representative studies in previous and the present  
37 meta-analyses highlight the need to focus on dedicated research for robust inference about  
38 environmental and management constraints on grassland performances.

39

## 40 **1. Introduction**

41 The intensification of agricultural practices from the 20<sup>th</sup> century onwards is partly responsible for the  
42 reduction of areas covered by grassland ecosystems, notably with a considerable loss of semi-natural  
43 grasslands and a decrease of their biodiversity in different regions worldwide (e.g., Fakarayi et al.  
44 2015; Munch et al. 2017; Schirpke et al. 2017; Gibson et al. 2018). Plant species' richness was also  
45 observed to decrease with the current warming trend (White et al. 2014), especially in climates that are  
46 becoming more arid and less productive (Harrison et al. 2015). These changes affect the human  
47 population broadly and may actually have a great socio-economic impact (Dunford et al. 2015). In  
48 fact, not only grassland replacement and biodiversity erosion alter the continuity of the forage  
49 production supporting livestock agriculture but also the delivery of a broad set of ecosystem services  
50 essential to society (Loreau 2010; Bengtsson et al. 2019) like carbon storage, pollination and the  
51 maintenance of the general aesthetic of landscapes (e.g., Oertel et al. 2016; Tribot et al. 2018). These  
52 services are related to the plant diversity of grasslands (Turnbull et al. 2016), whose high biodiversity  
53 is not only consisting of plants, but also of mammals, arthropods and microorganisms (Plantureaux et

54 al. 2005; Baur et al. 2006; van Klink et al. 2015). This biodiversity is recognized as an ecological and  
55 evolutionary insurance (after Yachi and Loreau 1999) thanks to the stabilizing effect of species  
56 diversity on aggregate ecosystem properties through fluctuations of component species (e.g.,  
57 phenotypic changes, Norberg et al. 2001). Different components of plant diversity (e.g., species  
58 richness, functional diversity, assemblage structures) would also make grasslands more resilient to  
59 hazards and extreme weather events (such as prolonged droughts, e.g., Vogel et al. 2012; Craven et al.  
60 2016) and would be able to stabilize forage production and maintain overall ecosystem services  
61 (Cleland 2011). It is thus essential to preserve these open spaces in order to preserve their biodiversity  
62 and the associated services, but also to study them to better appreciate their evolution under different  
63 constraints (Zeller et al. 2017). In hay meadows, which typically occur where the environmental  
64 constraints are less important compared to high-elevation pastures, the management practices and their  
65 intensity tend to be the main drivers of plant diversity (Pittarello et al. 2020), whose changes reflect  
66 the evolution of both environmental conditions (pedo-climate) and management practices (Pontes et  
67 al. 2015). While the effects of increased temperature on grassland production are systematically  
68 studied and understood (e.g., Parton et al. 1995; Song et al. 2019), the effects of warming on plant  
69 diversity is an evolving and multifaceted challenge (Cowles et al. 2018). This is because temperature  
70 changes are dynamic and their effects on grassland communities depend on a number of other factors  
71 like moisture and nutrient availability (e.g., Zavaleta et al. 2013). Likewise, the effects of cutting  
72 events on the botanical composition of a sward are related to environmental conditions (e.g., Wen and  
73 Jiang 2005).

74 Studies that have reported the response of grassland plant diversity to climate and management  
75 conditions (e.g., Su et al. 2019) indicate that the pattern of responses is complex and needs additional  
76 analyses based on quantitative assessments. An objective assessment is increasingly important as  
77 grasslands continue being vulnerable to warming conditions (e.g., Gao et al. 2018), and halting  
78 grassland abandonment is an emerging topic of interest (e.g., Lasanta et al. 2017), especially in  
79 mountain regions (Haddaway et al. 2014). The proportion of grassland plant species tends to decline  
80 following abandonment (Riedener et al. 2014) and plant species decline due to abandonment could not  
81 easily be reversed (and grasslands restored) by mowing alone (Stampfli and Zeiter 1999). However,  
82 the variability in the reported results is also likely due to the different challenges associated with the  
83 quantification of impacts on plant diversity. In particular, there is no standardized mode of conducting  
84 the experimental design and setup of control versus the experimental dataset (Christie et al. 2019). In  
85 the wake of diverse findings and conclusions, and because of the availability of an increasing number  
86 of peer-reviewed publications as well as the maturity of the results, there are science questions  
87 relevant to the issue of plant diversity modifications, e.g., is warming or mowing modifying species  
88 richness and, if yes, by what amount and under which conditions? We performed two meta-analyses  
89 using species richness as an indicator of plant diversity conditions. In fact, despite the growing  
90 knowledge about grassland modifications induced by temperature increase and mowing regime,

91 quantitative assessments and analyses are still limited (e.g., Tälle et al. 2016; Gruner et al. 2017).  
92 Here, we provide a conceptual framework (Fig. 1) of the direct and indirect effects of mowing (one cut  
93 per year versus abandonment) and climate change (warming) on the grassland ecosystem (after Li et  
94 al. 2018), using harvested biomass and species richness as expressions of functioning and stability  
95 (e.g., species richness can promote community stability through increases in asynchronous dynamics  
96 across species; Zhang et al. 2018). We highlight that the type of inference presented in Fig. 1 (which  
97 represents a simplified view of the grassland ecosystem) depends on the extent to which the meta-  
98 analysis can establish causality between the outcomes of interest and the hypothesized related factors.  
99 This means that for only a subset of the above questions, it may be possible to find consistency in the  
100 set of bibliographic data to code into the state-of-the art literature and develop meta-analyses of the  
101 extracted data. Specific objectives were to analyse (1) the mean effect of mowing (first meta-analysis:  
102 one mowing event per year versus abandonment) and (2) the mean effect of warming (second meta-  
103 analysis: warming versus ambient temperature), both conducted on species richness in grasslands (and  
104 concomitant harvested biomass when available). In this way, we have pursued standardized meta-  
105 analyses to review fragmented results in a common framework. For the impact of mowing on plant  
106 diversity worldwide, our study complements previous reports from Tälle et al. (2018) on the effects of  
107 different mowing frequency on the conservation value of semi-natural grasslands in Europe. It also  
108 completes the assessment with a meta-analysis on the effect of warming on the biodiversity of  
109 different ecosystems including plant terrestrial ecosystems (Gruner et al. 2017).

110

## 111 **2. Materials and methods**

112

### 113 **2.1 Literature search method**

114

115 Our meta-analysis method quantitatively combines and summarizes research results across individual  
116 and independent studies performed worldwide and published in peer-review journals (grey literature  
117 was not included in our meta-analyses). The first step was to find all the pertinent articles on the topic.  
118 We used a keyword search and expert recommendations to find the related articles in two international  
119 bibliographic databases. The literature search was initiated using the ISI Web of Science (WoS,  
120 <http://apps.webofknowledge.com>) with the following topic search terms:

121

122 *(Title)TI=(grassland OR meadow OR pasture OR pampa OR steppe OR prairie OR savanna OR*  
123 *tundra)). AND (Topic)TS=(diversity OR diverse OR richness OR evenness OR cover OR abundance*  
124 *AND plant OR "functional type\*")). AND (Title)TI=(cut OR mow OR clip OR treatment OR*  
125 *management)). NOT (Title)TI=(forest OR tree OR shrub\*))*

126

127 *TI=(temperature\* OR warm\* OR air OR heat\* OR stress\* OR "extreme temperature") AND*  
128 *TI=(grassland\* OR meadow\* OR pasture\* OR pampa\* OR steppe\* OR prairie\* OR savanna\* OR*  
129 *tundra\*) NOT TI=(forest\* OR tree\* OR shrub\*) AND TS=(diversity\* OR diverse\* OR richness OR*  
130 *evenness OR cover OR abundance\* AND plant\* OR "functional type\*")*

131

132 Searches were also undertaken with Scopus (<http://www.scopus.com>) in order to pick up publications  
133 that were not indexed in the WoS database:

134

135 *TITLE (grassland OR meadow OR pasture OR pampa OR steppe OR prairie OR savanna OR*  
136 *tundra) AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (diversity OR diverse OR richness OR evenness OR cover OR*  
137 *abundance AND plant OR "functional type\*") AND TITLE (cut OR mow OR clip OR treatment OR*  
138 *management) AND NOT TITLE (forest OR tree OR shrub\*) AND LANGUAGE (English) AND*  
139 *DOCTYPE (ar).*

140

141 *(TITLE (temperature\* OR warm\* OR air OR heat\* OR stress\* OR "extreme*  
142 *temperature") AND TITLE (grassland\* OR meadow\* OR pasture\* OR pampa\**  
143 *OR steppe\* OR prairie\* OR savanna\* OR tundra\*) AND NOT TITLE (forest\* OR tree\* OR shrub\*)*  
144 *AND TITLE-ABS-KEY*  
145 *(diversity\* OR diverse\* OR richness OR evenness OR cover OR abundance\* AND plant\* OR "functio*  
146 *nal type\*") AND LANGUAGE (english)) AND DOCTYPE (ar OR re) AND PUBYEAR >*  
147 *1984 AND PUBYEAR <2021 AND (LIMIT-TO (SUBJAREA, "AGRI") OR LIMIT-TO*  
148 *(SUBJAREA, "ENVI") OR LIMIT-TO (LIMIT-TO (SUBJAREA, "MATE") OR LIMIT-TO*  
149 *(SUBJAREA, "EART") OR LIMIT-TO (SUBJAREA, "BIOC") OR LIMIT-TO (SUBJAREA, "MULT"))*

150

151 This review covers articles published from 1985 to 2020. The cut-off date for data collection was 31  
152 December 2019, which ensured including 2020 articles web published in 2019. We also added other  
153 pertinent articles from peer-review journals to the extent that we are aware of them. In particular, for  
154 the effect of warming, we used part of the bibliography of a meta-analysis made by Gruner et al.  
155 (2017).

156

## 157 **2.2. Inclusion criteria and data extraction**

158

159 Care was taken to standardize and document the process of data extraction. The quantitative review  
160 followed a structured protocol, which included pre-setting objectives and the inclusion criteria for  
161 studies, approach for data collection, and the analyses to be done (Pullin and Stewart 2006). To  
162 facilitate the capture, organization and elimination of duplicate records from electronic WoS and  
163 Scopus databases searching, bibliographic records were imported into EndNote reference manager

164 (<https://endnote.com>) and outputted in BIBTeX format (Lorenzetti and Ghali 2013). Data extracted  
165 from articles were recorded on carefully designed spreadsheets and accompanying tables with details  
166 of the study characteristics, data quality, relevant outcomes, level of replication and variability  
167 measures.

168 Using PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses; Liberati et al.  
169 2009) diagrams depicting the flow of information through the different phases of the literature review,  
170 we mapped out the number of records identified, included and excluded, and the reasons for  
171 exclusions. Any single article had at least one experiment with a case-control design. The control was  
172 defined as being identical to the experimental treatment (case) with regard to all variables apart from  
173 the type of factor applied. Here, the mowing and warming experiments included ambient temperature  
174 (no warming) and abandonment (no mowing) as controls, respectively. The articles from the literature  
175 search were filtered by title and abstract, discarding obviously irrelevant studies (e.g. when species  
176 richness referred to other organisms than grassland plant species). After the examination of abstracts,  
177 the full text of the remaining articles was examined in detail. Articles that quantitatively reported  
178 effects of mowing (or clipping or cutting) or warming on species richness (SR as species conservation  
179 metric) were selected. When available, concomitant harvested biomass (HB as provisioning service  
180 metric, g DM m<sup>-2</sup>) determinations were also considered in the analyses. Articles had to contain data in  
181 the form of experimental determinations together with a measure of variation (e.g., means and  
182 variance). Articles with unreported outcomes (e.g., no species richness available), ineligible  
183 experimental design (e.g., lack of control) and missing essential statistics (e.g., standard deviations or  
184 related variability metrics) were discarded. In our meta-analyses, experiments with and without  
185 fertilisation were pooled. We also took into account only the effect of mowing (one cut per year) even  
186 if there was a previous grazing period. Mowing once per year is the most commonly used mowing  
187 frequency in species-rich grasslands (e.g., Hejzman et al. 2013) and was used as a treatment in all  
188 included experiments regardless of the timing of the mowing event during the year. Articles  
189 comparing more frequent cuts during the same year were excluded from the meta-analysis, as these  
190 comparisons (often using once-a-year mowing, not abandonment, as control) were outside the scope  
191 of the present study, but their results were used as complementary elements to improve the discussion  
192 of our results.

193 For the articles that met the inclusion criteria, the sample size, mean and standard deviation (*sd*) of the  
194 response variables were extracted (or calculated where a variability measure other than *sd* was  
195 provided, e.g., standard error). With sample data collected at different dates, mean and *sd* were used as  
196 practical descriptors of time-series central tendency and spread. Critical appraisals were performed by  
197 two authors independently, i.e., the above data were extracted and ~ 50% of the extracted data were  
198 randomly cross-checked by another author. In case of disagreement on data extraction, a consensus  
199 was reached through discussion among all authors. As some studies had not reported the exact values

200 for relevant variables and experimental design details, more than 10 disagreements on the most  
201 appropriate inference for these missing data were discussed within the team.

202

### 203 **2.3. Effect sizes**

204

205 The goal of any meta-analysis is to provide an outcome estimate (or overall effect size) that is  
206 representative of all study-level findings. Effect sizes were characterized by the response ratio (*RR*),  
207 which is frequently used to quantify the proportion of changes due to experimental manipulations and  
208 thus provide a measure of the experimental effects (Hedges et al. 1999; Nagakawa and Santos 2012).

209 This is calculated as the ratio of the average values of a treatment ( $\bar{X}_T$ ) and its control ( $\bar{X}_C$ ). Then, log-  
210 response ratio (*LRR*) values,  $\ln\left(\frac{\bar{X}_T}{\bar{X}_C}\right)$ , are calculated as these are the size effects used in ecological

211 meta-analyses, primarily because they tend to be normally distributed around zero for small samples.

212 This means that a size effect with a value of zero represents no difference between the groups being  
213 compared (treatment vs. control). Meta-analysis, by pooling *LRR* values from several studies, also  
214 assigns a weight to each *LRR* that is inversely proportional to its sampling variance, equal to

215  $var(LRR) = \frac{(sd_T)^2}{N_T \bar{X}_T^2} + \frac{(sd_C)^2}{N_C \bar{X}_C^2}$ , where *sd* and *N* are the standard deviation and sample size of  $\bar{X}_T$  and  $\bar{X}_C$ ,

216 respectively (e.g., Lajeunesse 2011). The percent change (%) in the level of the outcome from baseline  
217 to the treatment is  $100 \cdot [\exp(LRR) - 1]$ .

218

### 219 **2.4. Meta-analysis models**

220

221 To perform the two meta-analyses, we referred to the set of dedicated functions of the *metafor* package  
222 (Viechtbauer 2010), implemented within the statistical software RStudio (<https://www.rstudio.com>)

223 for R version 3.5.3 x64. Meta-analysis models determine if an effect (*y*) is significant or not in a given  
224 experiment (*i*). In mathematical form, this is expressed as  $y_i = \theta_i + e_i$ , where  $\theta$  and  $e$  indicate the

225 unknown true effect and the known sampling error, respectively. Once effect sizes are extracted from  
226 the primary studies, they are pooled by applying a fixed- or random-effects model. A random-effects

227 model was used in our meta-analysis, because the fixed-effects model assumes that there is only one  
228 underlying population effect size and that the observed effect sizes deviate from this population effect

229 only because of sampling variation (an unrealistic scenario of heterogeneity among the population  
230 effect sizes). A random-effects model assumes that each study has its own population effect, i.e., effect

231 sizes vary due to sampling variation and also due to systematic differences among studies. In this  
232 model, not only is the combined effect size estimated, but also the variance of the overall effect among

233 studies. The mixed-effects model was also applied to explain heterogeneity in the data with the use of  
234 moderators (covariates). In this case, it is a challenge for the meta-analyst to find moderating variables



235 (moderator) that explain the variation in effect sizes among studies. Mixed-effects analyses were only  
236 conducted if at least half of the studies reported information on moderators.

237 The  $Q$ -statistic (or multiple significance testing across means; weighted squared deviations) was used  
238 to evaluate heterogeneity through  $0 < I^2 < 100$ , which quantifies the proportion of total variability that  
239 is due to heterogeneity rather than sample variations:  $I^2 > 75\%$  means high heterogeneity; values  
240 between 50 and 75% are considered as moderate heterogeneity; if the  $I^2$  is between 25 and 50%, it is  
241 considered as low heterogeneity; below 25%, it is considered as no heterogeneity (e.g., Gianfredi et al.  
242 2019). When  $p$ -values for the  $Q$ -test and effect sizes (random-effect model) were less than 0.1,  
243 homogeneity and no-effect assumptions were considered invalid. After quantifying variation among  
244 effect sizes beyond sampling variation ( $I^2$ ), we examined the effects of moderators (covariates) that  
245 might explain this additional variation. The significance of moderators was tested using the probability  
246 ( $P$ ) of an omnibus test (i.e., the  $Q_m$  statistic). For that, in addition to SR and HB determinations, we  
247 recorded information on moderators that may affect the response variables - from the  $k$  articles ( $k \leq n$ )  
248 and experiments ( $j$ ) for which this information was available. Plot size (S, m<sup>2</sup>), duration of the study  
249 (D, number of years), year of publication of articles (Y), site elevation (E, m a.s.l.) and two site-  
250 specific climatic variables (mean annual air temperature: T, °C; mean annual precipitation total: R,  
251 mm) were chosen as moderators of the SR and HB responses in the mixed-effects model. Year of  
252 publication of the studies can be a potential source of bias because changes in study methods and  
253 characteristics occurring over time can correlate to effect sizes (e.g., Jennions and Møller 2002). As  
254 well, since vegetation within smaller plots tends to be more homogeneous than within larger plots, plot  
255 size may influence the number of recorded species and the estimate of SR (Chytrý 2001). Some  
256 authors also found that as the duration of the study increased so did the plant species diversity and  
257 productivity (e.g., Cardinale et al. 2007; Pallett et al. 2016). Then, plant community composition can  
258 change along elevation gradients (e.g., Ohdo and Takahashi 2020), with global warming pushing  
259 species towards higher elevations (e.g., Engler et al. 2009), and temperature and rainfall are the  
260 climatic variables most used to explore the relationships between climate and plant community data  
261 (e.g., Harrison et al. 2020). For the effect of mowing, the cutting height (H, cm) was also considered  
262 because it can affect the community characteristics and biomass production (e.g. Wan et al. 2016). The  
263 temperature difference between control and warming treatments ( $\Delta T$ , °C) was instead used as  
264 moderator in the meta-analysis of the effects of warming because divergent effects may be due to  
265 different warming treatments among experiments and different temperature sensitivities of various  
266 plant species (e.g., Llorens et al. 2004). As well, the heating technique (M, 0: open-top chambers; 1:  
267 heaters) used in vegetation warming experiments (a categorical moderator) may lead to potential  
268 differences in plant responses for: (i) the different control on temperatures of passive (e.g., open-top  
269 chambers) and active (e.g., infrared heating) warming methods (e.g., De Boeck and Nijs 2011), and  
270 (ii) the size of the device, open-top chambers used in field experiments being generally relatively

271 small (i.e.  $\leq 3$  m in diameter), allowing the establishment of a well-controlled and essentially  
272 homogeneous environment (e.g., Cunningham et al. 2013).

273

## 274 **2.5. Potential data analysis bias and results**

275

276 Possible publication biases were tested, either visually by means of funnel plots, which show the  
277 observed effect sizes on the  $x$ -axis against a measure of precision (standard error) of the observed  
278 effect sizes on the  $y$ -axis, or statistically by means of the test for plot asymmetry (Egger et al. 1997).  
279 The results of meta-analysis were displayed in forest plots for each outcome, where individual  
280 experiments were plotted sequentially on the  $y$ -axis. The  $x$ -axis shows outcome measures (log-ratio  
281 and 0.95 confidence interval for each study). Point estimates are represented by square boxes, where  
282 the weight of a study is reflected by the size of the square. The point estimates are accompanied by a  
283 line, which represents their associated 0.95 confidence interval. A vertical midline (line-of-no-effect)  
284 divides the diagram into two parts. A confidence interval that crosses the line-of-no-effect indicates a  
285 statistically non-significant difference, whereas a confidence interval that does not cross the midline  
286 indicates a significant difference for either the treatment or control, depending on whether it is located  
287 at the left side or the right side of the midline. That is, right-sided (left-sided) result estimates ( $LRR >$   
288  $0$ ) for our two outcomes of interest, SR and HB, are higher (lower) in the treatment than in the control  
289 (and vice versa).

290

## 291 **3. Results and discussion**

292

### 293 **3.1. Literature search**

294

295 The heuristic search of the state-of-the art literature in the WoS and Scopus bibliometric databases  
296 yielded 999 articles for the effects of mowing (Fig. 2a) and 1793 articles for the effect of warming  
297 (Fig. 2b), after removing 467 and 411 duplicates from the original set of 1466 and 2204 records (with  
298 pairwise observations in the control and treatments), respectively. The two bulks of articles were  
299 reviewed, and initially screened, for their relevance to the study topic. After applying the criteria to the  
300 original set of articles and adding 31 articles from other sources, 43 and 34 articles (46 and 42  
301 experiments, respectively) met the criteria and were selected to quantify the effects on SR of mowing  
302 or warming, respectively (Supplementary material). In 16 articles for mowing (18 experiments) and 17  
303 articles (22 experiments) for warming the same analysis was performed to assess the effect of the same  
304 factors on HB.

305 Table S1 and Table S2 show the characteristics of the articles included in the meta-analysis on the  
306 effects of mowing and warming, respectively. The current literature did not provide a robust sample of  
307 articles and quantitative results corresponding to different subclasses (e.g., abandonment versus

308 management with two, three, etc. mowing events associated with associated with fertiliser supply  
309 gradients; warming under gradients of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and water status levels).The  
310 included studies report on grassland research conducted in 46 mowing experiments in 18 countries  
311 from Asia, Europe, North America and Oceania, and 42 warming experiments in nine countries from  
312 Asia, Europe and North America (Fig. 3). Using the Köppen- Geiger climate classification (Peel et al.  
313 2007), our research shows an uneven geographical distribution of the selected studies for the effect of  
314 mowing (Table S1), with most articles focusing on temperate-oceanic (44%) and warm- or hot-  
315 summer continental (37%) climate zones of the northern hemisphere (with the exception of one study  
316 from the southern hemisphere in the temperature-oceanic climatic zone of Australia). Studies from  
317 cold (12%), Mediterranean (2%) and subtropical (5%) areas remain rare. Climate zones only in part  
318 reflect the distinctive characteristics of grassland systems, which varied widely in environmental  
319 conditions, mowing regimes and experimental settings. All recorded articles on the effect of warming  
320 document studies carried out on grasslands in the northern hemisphere (Table S2): 15 in China, 10 in  
321 the USA, and nine in central and northern Europe. Most of them (41%) are from regions with ice cap  
322 and tundra climates, showing that manipulation studies focusing on the effects of warming on  
323 grassland systems are not gaining interest in the Mediterranean and developing regions of the world.  
324 They are all unfertilised treatments and include two main devices to simulate the experimental climate  
325 warming and to study plant responses, i.e., open-top chambers and infrared heaters. As with articles on  
326 the effects of mowing, the types and designs varied considerably also within the same study.

327

### 328 **3.2. Potential data analysis bias**

329

330 The statistical distributions of *LRR* values were determined to be nearly normal according to quantile  
331 plots (Fig. S1).

332 For mowing, high heterogeneity was found with both SR ( $I^2 = 92\%$ ;  $Q = 499$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and HB ( $I^2 =$   
333  $66\%$ ;  $Q = 55$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) determinations. However, no evidence of publication bias was found in our  
334 meta-analysis for the effect of mowing on SR and HB that would reflect bias toward not reporting  
335 small positive or negative effect sizes, as demonstrated by the substantial symmetry of the funnel plots  
336 (SR:  $z = -1.06$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ; HB:  $z = -2.00$ ,  $p = \sim 0.05$ ). The points falling outside both funnels (Fig. S2,  
337 top graphs) are located on both sides of the funnel, hence indicating no clear-cut direction in the bias.  
338 For SR, Fig. S2 (left) shows that the majority of the data are clustered in one-point cloud (same order  
339 of magnitude), with the exception of the study of Lanta et al. (2009), whose high variability is found in  
340 the forest plot (Fig. 4a). For warming, significant results with both SR ( $I^2 = 92\%$ ;  $Q = 815$ ,  $p < 0.01$ )  
341 and HB ( $I^2 = 55\%$ ;  $Q = 60$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) are taken as evidence of heterogeneity. The overall funnel plots  
342 are however relatively symmetric (Fig. S2, bottom graphs) and consistent with low likelihood of  
343 publication bias (SR:  $z = 1.40$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ; HB:  $z = -0.94$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ).

344

### 345 3.3. Effect of mowing on SR and HB

346

347 A forest plot for all 43 recorded articles combined (46 experiments) indicates a significantly positive  
348 effect of mowing (one cutting event per year) on SR compared to abandonment (Fig. 4a): pooled  $LRR$   
349 = 0.28 (c. 32% increase), 0.95 confidence interval from 0.19 to 0.37 ( $p < 0.01$ ). There are however  
350 three studies, which showed an opposite effect. This was distinctly observed in Finnish meadow  
351 patches ( $LRR = -0.50$ , Huhta and Rautio 1998), where an increase in SR due to a successional change  
352 may have only been apparent, plausibly related to short-term effects and creating (according to  
353 authors) the illusion that abandonment is more desirable than management. In fact, early succession  
354 was characterized by a transient loss of plant species diversity (Velbert et al. 2017) in wet meadows of  
355 north-west Germany ( $LRR = 0.22$ ). While in the Qinghai-Tibetan plateau (Xu et al. 2015) SR was  
356 observed not to be sensitive to the short-term effects of mowing ( $LRR = -0.02$ ), in a mesic hay  
357 meadow of Western Hungary (near the Slovenian border), Szépligeti et al. (2018) noted that mowing  
358 once a year may not be efficiently preventing ( $LRR = -0.15$ ) the spread of tall goldenrod (*Solidago*  
359 *gigantea* Ait.) and control native competitive species (which hinder the growth of rare and less  
360 competitive species).

361 Without including the unmanaged option in their analysis, Tälle et al. (2018) observed small  
362 differences in the effects of different mowing intensities on the SR of European semi-natural  
363 grasslands ( $LRR < 0.13$ , with 0.1 representing the difference between a SR of two communities  
364 consisting of 10 and 11 species, respectively). The authors highlighted that while lower and higher  
365 mowing frequency can be expected to have both positive and negative effects on plant diversity at the  
366 same time, they concurred with other authors (e.g., Batáry et al. 2010; Tóth et al. 2018) that any kind  
367 of management which is actually applied tends to be more important than the intensity of the  
368 management itself. We show that the difference can indeed be high when moving from abandoned  
369 fields to once-a-year mowing. The highest estimated mean effect size of  $LRR = 1.53$  (wet experiment  
370 from Truus and Puusild 2009), in particular, reflects the substantial decrease in SR on long-abandoned  
371 floodplain grasslands, which is likely a consequence of increased light competition and the  
372 accumulation of dense litter layers, as several low-growing plant species are outcompeted by strong  
373 competitors during succession or germination and establishment are inhibited by litter layers.

374 In addition to the results of our meta-analysis, some results by individual studies were also informative  
375 on the effect of alternative mowing schemes on SR. Fig. 5 shows the changes in the SR of grassland  
376 plants under combinations of mowing frequency beyond one cut per year versus no cut, which were  
377 identified in the systematic review and in additional sources (section “References of the review on the  
378 effect of different mowing regimes”), and not included in the meta-analysis. Overall, it appears that a  
379 moderate mowing intensity of one or two cuts per year is positive for maintaining or enhancing a high  
380 plant SR. With two cuts per year over abandonment, we observe a similar mean response ( $LRR = 0.28$ )  
381 but greater variability across studies compared to just one cut (that is the core of this meta-analysis),

382 likely associated with the influence of varying situations of soil fertility. Then, the potential benefits of  
383 mowing are progressively lost with more frequent cuts (i.e., three to four cutting events per year  
384 compared to one cut). It is known that regular disturbance by mowing can trigger niche partitioning,  
385 leading to higher species diversity (e.g., Mason et al. 2011), but too frequent harvests may threaten the  
386 long-term survival of certain plant species (e.g., Loydi et al. 2013) by suppressing their seed stock.  
387 Our results can be interpreted in terms of the humped-back model (Huston 1979), a dynamic  
388 equilibrium model predicting that taxonomic richness may be greatest at intermediate biomass  
389 production and at intermediate levels of available resources (stress) and disturbance factors (Pierce  
390 2014). In fact, a hump-shaped relationship between vegetation biomass and SR, based on the balance  
391 between competition and abiotic stress, has been found in a large number of case studies (van Klink et  
392 al. 2017), and with SR likely peaking at intermediate productivity levels (Boch et al. 2019).  
393 Consistently with the pattern predicted by the intermediate disturbance hypothesis, SR may be  
394 maintained by extensive agricultural practices (Uchida and Ushimaru 2014). By alleviating understory  
395 light limitation thorough the removal of plant biomass, both mowers and grazers play an important  
396 role in maintaining plant diversity in grassland ecosystems, where they increase ground-level light  
397 availability (Borer et al. 2014).

398 However, even if mowing frequency only marginally affecting plant diversity measures like SR might  
399 still affect the species composition in a grassland and, considering that mowing is costly, it is  
400 important to find a balance between mowing frequency and conservation benefits beyond SR (Tälle et  
401 al. 2018). The most suitable mowing frequency can be highly site-specific because the mechanisms  
402 linking mowing to conservation value are complex, and there is often no need or no resource for a  
403 second cut (beneficial for the feeding of herbivores), or weather conditions may make hay making  
404 difficult in autumn (Szépligeti et al. 2018). The level of detail of the present study, aiming at assessing  
405 the overall SR, does not allow to refer to the richness (and abundance) of plant species of nature  
406 conservation interest (which would be a more valuable indicator than the overall richness). Studying  
407 the effects of disturbances requires measures of species abundance, rather than just their presence, and  
408 an experimental approach to complete the understanding of the mechanisms involved (e.g., Debussche  
409 et al. 1996). For instance, it is possible that the abundance of each plant species decreases or the plant  
410 species turnover increases while the SR remains the same. In this case, different results would be  
411 expected when assessing biodiversity outcomes taking species abundance into account, e.g., Shannon  
412 diversity, which is calculated on the proportion of each species relative to the total number of species  
413 (Milberg et al. 2017).

414 A possibly important factor not taken into account in the present study is the timing of mowing during  
415 the year (either this information was not available for some included studies or too small subgroups  
416 would have been created by including this factor). In fact, the effects can be different depending on  
417 whether the harvest occurs early or late in the growing season. Early mowing can have negative effects  
418 on plant species with late seed-setting. In combination with more frequent harvesting this can affect

419 the ability of species to re-grow back (e.g., Humbert et al. 2012). Then, the two American studies of  
420 the review (Dickson and Foster 2008; Foster et al. 2009) in which fertilisers were used during the  
421 study period, were also combined in the meta-analysis.

422 In the study of Lanta et al. (2009), the estimate of  $LRR = 0.14$  was obtained with a wide confidence  
423 interval (from -1.58 to 1.86), likely due to the wide variation in the original dataset. We also note that  
424 five experiments showed effects that are about three- to five-fold higher ( $LRR$  from 0.71 to 1.53) than  
425 the average. Fenner and Palmer (1998) in Belgium ( $LRR = 0.92$ ), and Jacquemyn et al. (2011) in  
426 United Kingdom ( $LRR = 0.71$ ), noticed that several small herbs and rosette plants were quickly lost in  
427 abandoned plots, with mowing reducing the proportion of tall-growing plants and increasing light  
428 penetration to the ground surface. As Truus and Puusild (2009), with  $LRR = 1.53$  (wet experiment),  
429 Metsoja et al. (2014) -  $LRR = 1.17$  (tall forb meadow) - and Neuenkamp et al. (2013) -  $LRR = 1.14$   
430 (tall forb meadow) - observed that mowing had a distinct role in activating the soil seed bank in  
431 Estonian flooded, well drained meadows dominated by tall forb meadow communities. These are  
432 highly productive communities (e.g.,  $\sim 1000 \text{ g m}^{-2}$  in Neuenkamp et al. 2013), where plant SR is  
433 determined primarily by light and litter rather than nutrient availability.

434 Opposite to SR, over the 16 independent studies (18 experiments) for the effect of mowing on HB  
435 (Fig. 4b), the pooled  $LRR$  value equal to -0.23, or *c.* -21% (0.95 confidence interval from -0.31 to -  
436 0.14,  $p < 0.01$ ) suggests an overall negative influence of disturbance. In the included studies, mowing  
437 (which had a positive effect on SR) distinctly had a negative effect on HB. Although this is  
438 undoubtedly a trade-off between a provisioning service (forage production) and biodiversity-mediated  
439 ecosystem services (e.g., pollination, pest control, soil fertility and yield stability), there are studies  
440 which indicate that vegetation density and biomass production may be reduced in unmanaged  
441 treatments because litter accumulated on the sward surface prevents plants sprouting (as observed, for  
442 instance, in Czech Republic by Pavlů et al. 2016). A stimulating effect of cutting on grassland  
443 productivity was also observed by Sasaki et al. (2011) in temperate Japan, which was attributed to the  
444 over-compensatory growth because of changes in floristic composition owing to the mowing  
445 treatment.

446 In the mixed-effects model, planned moderators were mostly not significant ( $p > 0.10$ ). When a  
447 grassland is abandoned, changes in SR can be expected as a function of time since abandonment  
448 (vegetation succession; e.g., Tasser and Tappeiner 2002) but we could not confirm an effect of the  
449 duration of the experiment. Only the year of publication was a significant moderator ( $p < 0.05$ ) of the  
450 effect of mowing on HB ( $k = 16, j = 18$ ) when this covariate was assessed alone (with more negative  
451  $LRR$  values observed in the oldest experiments, i.e., mean  $LRR$  of about -0.20 in 2010-2019 and -0.31  
452 in 1993-2009). The covariate explained  $\sim 33\%$  of the heterogeneity (Table S3) but the effect was not  
453 significant ( $P > 0.05$ ) when different moderators were assessed together.

454

### 455 **3.4. Effect of warming on SR and HB**

456

457 A forest plot for all 34 recorded articles combined (42 experiments) indicates a significantly negative  
458 effect of warming (different treatments) on SR compared to control (Fig. 6a): pooled  $LRR = -0.14$  (c. -  
459 13%), 0.95 confidence interval from -0.21 to -0.06 ( $p < 0.01$ ). The decline in SR, observed here for an  
460 average temperature increase of  $1.8 \pm 0.9$  °C (range: 0.15 to 4.10 °C), is consistent with the response  
461 of terrestrial ecosystems (-10.5% of SR) as observed by Gruner et al (2017) for an average warming of  
462 3 °C. It cannot be excluded that short-term simulation of warming, without considering temporal  
463 adaptation, has exacerbated the warming effect on terrestrial ecosystems (Leuzinger et al. 2011).

464 The results of the mixed-effects model showed that SR was somewhat significantly moderated by the  
465 year of publication ( $p \sim 0.05$ ) when this moderator, which explained only  $\sim 9\%$  of the heterogeneity  
466 (Table S3), was assessed alone ( $k = 34, j = 42$ ). We note that more recently published studies were  
467 more numerous and yielded larger effect sizes, with an imbalance with only eight studies published  
468 prior to 2010 (giving an average  $LRR$  of -0.05). This could be due to the widespread use of small, low-  
469 cost open-top chambers (passive warming) in climate change experiments, especially on short-statured  
470 vegetation like grassland steppe and temperate grasslands (Frei et al. 2020). According to Leuzinger et  
471 al. (2011), a diminishing effect size is expected with a longer duration and a larger spatial scope of  
472 experiments. In light of this, we would have expected an influence of the experimental methodology  
473 on SR/HB responses since infrared heaters (active heating) can be applied to larger plots than open-top  
474 chambers. The three experiments of Wang et al. (2017) do indeed indicate that a smaller open-top  
475 chamber of different sizes could have an impact on the response to warming on both SR (which tends  
476 to become even more negative,  $LRR = -0.87$ , with a smaller chamber) and HB (which, conversely,  
477 tends to become more positive,  $LRR = 0.40$ , with a smaller chamber). The duration of experiments  
478 could also have had an influence on the grassland response to warming since SR changes slowly (e.g.,  
479 Galvanek and Lepš 2008), but we have no confirmation of these effects in our study.

480 Site elevation ( $p < 0.05$ ) and annual rainfall ( $p < 0.01$ ) emerged as significant moderators when all  
481 moderators were included in the mixed-effects model ( $P < 0.05; k = 22, j = 30$ ). The latter explained  $\sim$   
482 36% of the heterogeneity (Table S3). We note that smaller size effects of warming on SR (lesser plant  
483 diversity loss) tend to be associated with dry areas ( $< 300$  mm precipitation per year, with  $LRR$  of  
484 about -0.01 on average). In fact, the response of SR to warming was observed to be stronger the lower  
485 the aridity (e.g. Peñuelas et al. 2007). Similarly, less negative  $LRR$  values (i.e., more limited decline in  
486 plant diversity) were found for grassland sites below 1000 m a.s.l. (about -0.06 on average), where SR  
487 is generally lower (e.g., Dengler et al. 2014). The more pronounced decline of SR in high-elevation  
488 grasslands may reflect that plant species that are adapted to cold areas tend to be more sensitive to  
489 warming. It can be assumed that the thermal niche of plant species may be narrower than at low  
490 altitudes, which considerably hinders adaptation/acclimation in the short-term (e.g., Löffler and Pape  
491 2020). While changes in species cover and the composition of plant communities indicate an  
492 acceleration of the transformation towards more heat-demanding vegetation, this colonisation process

493 could take place at a slower pace than the continued decrease in cryophilic species, thus favouring  
494 periods of accelerated species decline (Lamprecht et al. 2018).

495 Of the few experiments in which  $LRR > 0$  (i.e., increased SR under higher temperatures), the one from  
496 Zhu et al. (2015), with  $LRR = 0.15$ , is consistent with the situation of a meadow steppe dominated by a  
497 perennial rhizome grass species - *Leymus chinensis* (Trin.) Tzvelev (Chinese rye grass) - which is the  
498 first to germinate each year. A higher accumulation of plant community biomass in the warmed plots  
499 leads to more plant litter, which suppresses the germination and regrowth of *L. chinensis*, reducing its  
500 dominance and allowing other species (annual forbs) to quickly colonize the plant community. In  
501 Eskelinen et al. (2017), warmer climate increased SR ( $LRR = 0.11$ ) via recruitment in conditions  
502 where competition with the residents was relaxed (e.g., in disturbed sites), where herbivores kept  
503 vegetation open and in habitats with relatively low nutrient availability.

504 Over the 17 recorded articles (22 experiments) for the effect of warming on HB (Fig. 6b), the pooled  
505  $LRR$  value equal to 0.10, or c. 11% increase (0.95 confidence interval from 0.04 to 0.17), suggests an  
506 overall positive influence of increasing temperatures ( $p < 0.05$ ). This is in accordance with Song et al.  
507 (2019) for terrestrial ecosystems and Liang et al. (2013) who, in a meta-analysis, found that across  
508 warming experiments conducted worldwide, warming overall had positive effects on plant  
509 photosynthetic rates of terrestrial plants, with varying effects depending on plant functional types.  
510 Similarly, Wu et al. (2011) reported in a meta-analysis that experimental warming has led to an overall  
511 increase in aboveground biomass production of terrestrial ecosystems. However, plant gas exchanges  
512 can be constrained by other environmental factors (e.g., water availability) that can inhibit  
513 photosynthetic and transpiration rates (Song et al. 2016). In fact, warming-induced soil water deficit  
514 indirectly affects biomass production by decreasing soil moisture availability (e.g., Wagle and Kakani  
515 2014). In Hoepfner and Duke (2009), the maximum HB was obtained with  $+2.7$  °C ( $LRR = 0.30$ ),  
516 while with  $\Delta T = +4.0$  °C the increase in HB was smaller ( $LRR = 0.22$ ). The mixed-effects model with  
517 year of publication, site elevation and heating method as moderators ( $k = 15, j = 20$ ) was significant ( $P$   
518  $< 0.05$ ) and explained ~ 63% of the heterogeneity (Table S3), but only year of publication was  
519 significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). In fact, negative effects of warming on HB were mostly observed in  
520 experiments conducted after 2015, reducing the  $LRR$  values for the period 2015-2019 (which  
521 nevertheless remained positive on average, i.e., ~ 0.04). In our meta-analysis, the most negative effect  
522 of warming on HB ( $LRR = -0.20$ ) was obtained in a Tibetan alpine steppe (Jingxue et al. 2019), where  
523 experimental warming ( $+2$  °C) under ambient precipitation significantly caused reductions in biomass  
524 because of induced water deficit. Xu et al. (2015) also showed how warming and mowing combined (a  
525 treatment not included in our meta-analysis) negatively affected HB ( $LRR = -0.08$ ) and positively  
526 affected SR ( $LRR = 0.04$ ), indicating the dominant role of management (which tends to favour SR and  
527 limit HB) over an environmental change (which, conversely, is supposed to favour HB and limit SR).  
528 Higher biomass production under warming conditions could explain the decline in SR, through  
529 competitive exclusion, for which all environmental conditions likely to favour high levels of HB could



530 lead to a decline of SR. However, as warming increases evapotranspiration, greater drought conditions  
531 could dampen the biomass response, thus reducing competitive exclusion, which favours the stability  
532 of SR.

533

#### 534 **4. Conclusion**

535

536 Our results provide a close look towards two major effects of using mowing as a management practice  
537 and warming as an environmental stressor in grasslands. Using a meta-analytical methodology, we  
538 generated an integrated analysis of a large amount of observation data from different regions of the  
539 world, which better reflect the general patterns of grassland response than several fragmented studies  
540 performed so far. First, we found higher SR and lower HB in plots that were mown, suggesting the  
541 importance of management practices based on the application of disturbances such as prescribed  
542 mowing to enhance plant species diversity. Second (and opposite to the first result), we found that HB  
543 can be higher in plots that are exposed to higher temperatures while warming tends to decrease the  
544 number of plant species. The opposite responses of SR and HB to disturbances in the two meta-  
545 analyses suggest possible competitive exclusion mechanisms, which have not been investigated in this  
546 study. This is supported by the importance of site elevation (narrow thermal niche preventing plant  
547 species from adapting quickly at high altitudes) and annual rainfall (competitive exclusion in humid  
548 areas) in explaining the response of SR to warming. However, the present results of meta-analyses  
549 have some limitations. First, SR and HB are kinds of ecosystem response influenced by multiple  
550 factors and there are complex interactions between them. We are aware that we have not addressed  
551 such interactions due to the lack of data. Second, even if publication bias was substantially avoided,  
552 we have no access to unpublished researches or studies published in other language than English,  
553 which may have influenced our results. Despite some limitations, the present meta-analyses provide  
554 the latest evidence regarding the positive effect of moderate physical disturbance (i.e., limited  
555 mowing) on the creation and maintenance of highly diverse, ecologically and agriculturally valuable  
556 grasslands. In parallel to that, our results confirm the importance of considering plant species'  
557 response to environmental stresses together with competition when predicting community dynamics  
558 under warming scenarios. Further quantitative analysis of these relations may contribute to improve  
559 grassland simulation models addressing the dynamics of plant diversity. Overall, we argue for long-  
560 term, two-factor warming and mowing experiments that incorporate both SR and HB assessment to  
561 guide discussions of how best to meet the relevant goal of improving our understanding of grassland  
562 responses to global changes. Our results are a step in that direction.

563

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565

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567

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582

583 **Consent to participate**

584

585 All authors agree to participate in this paper.

586

587 **Consent for publication**

588

589 All authors agree to the publication of this paper.

590

591 **Availability of data and material**

592

593 Supplementary files are available online as ‘database\_mowing\_meta-analysis\_one\_cut.xlsx’,  
594 ‘database\_mowing\_review\_different\_cuts.xlsx’ and ‘database\_warming\_meta-analysis.xlsx’ at Data  
595 INRAE portal (<https://data.inrae.fr/...>). Additional data that support the findings of this study are  
596 available upon request from the authors.

597

598 **Author contributions**

599

600 CPC designed the study, conducted the data collection and implemented the analysis. FP completed  
601 the data collection and performed the analysis. GB provided suggestions for these meta-analyses and  
602 wrote the first draft of the article, which was revised by all authors.

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607

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1361

1362 **Figure captions**

1363

1364 **Figure 1** Conceptual framework of this study. Direct (blue arrows) and indirect (red arrows) effects of  
1365 climate change (i.e., warming) and management (i.e., mowing) jointly determine (degraded cross-  
1366 hatched line) the functioning (expressed by harvested biomass) and stability (expressed by species  
1367 diversity) of grassland ecosystem, as mediated by plant growth and community properties

1368

1369 **Figure 2** PRISMA-flow diagram of studies' selection process on the effect of mowing and warming  
1370 on species richness ( $n$ , number of articles) Some articles included more than one experiment and, in  
1371 this case, these experiments ( $j$ ) were considered as separate experiments ( $j = 46$  with mowing,  $j = 42$   
1372 with warming) Subsets of the identified records also included the effect of mowing (16 articles, 18  
1373 experiments) or warming (17 articles, 22 experiments) on harvested biomass

1374

1375 **Figure 3** Global map of study sites that provided data for meta-analysis of the effects of mowing (red  
1376 triangles) or warming (blue dots) on species richness only (empty markers) or on species richness and  
1377 harvested biomass (solid markers)

1378

1379 **Figure 4** Forest plots of the meta-analysis (log-response ratios and 0.95 confidence limits) comparing  
1380 species richness, SR (**a**) and harvested biomass, HB, g DM m<sup>-2</sup> (**b**) in unmown (0, control) and once-a-  
1381 year mown (1, treatment) grasslands, with the relative standard deviations ( $sd$ ). RE model stands for  
1382 random-effects model

1383

1384 **Figure 5** Log-response ratios ( $LRR$ ) and 0.95 confidence bars comparing species richness for different  
1385 mowing regimes (number of cuts per year). The number of studies behind these data is given in  
1386 brackets (to the left). For  $LRR$ , the values of the mean and standard deviation are to the right. The  
1387 reference articles are listed in the section "References of the review on the effect of different mowing  
1388 regimes"

1389

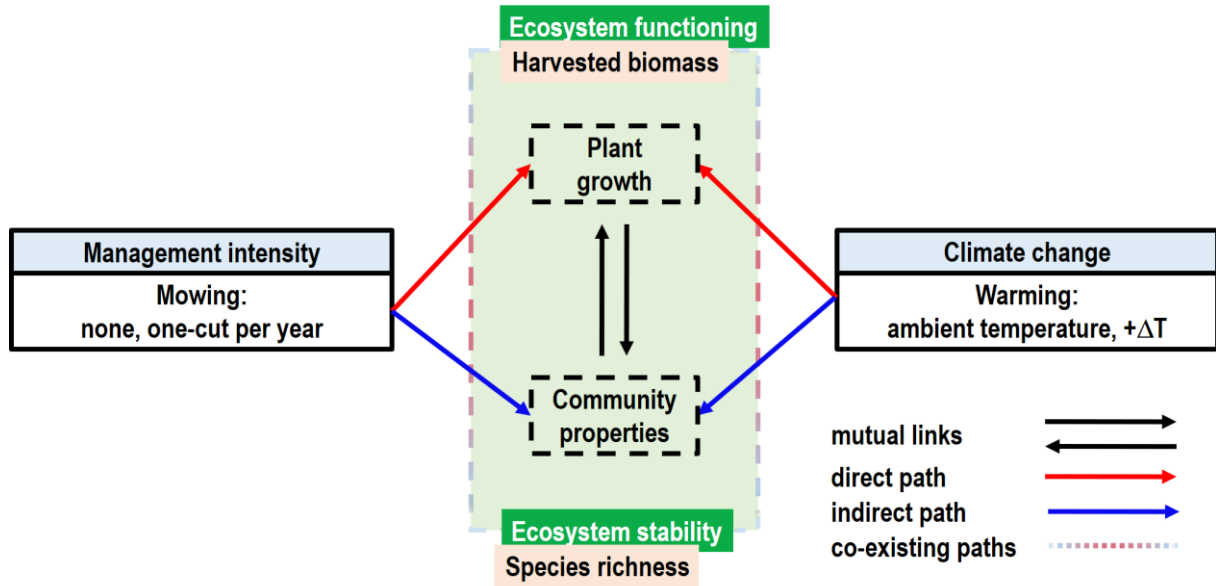
1390 **Figure 6** Forest plots of the meta-analysis (log-response ratios and 0.95 confidence limits) comparing  
1391 species richness, SR (**a**) and harvested biomass, HB, g DM m<sup>-2</sup> (**b**) in ambient (C, control) and warmed  
1392 (W, treatment) grasslands, with the relative standard deviations ( $sd$ ). RE stands for random effects-  
1393 effects model

1394 **Figures**

1395

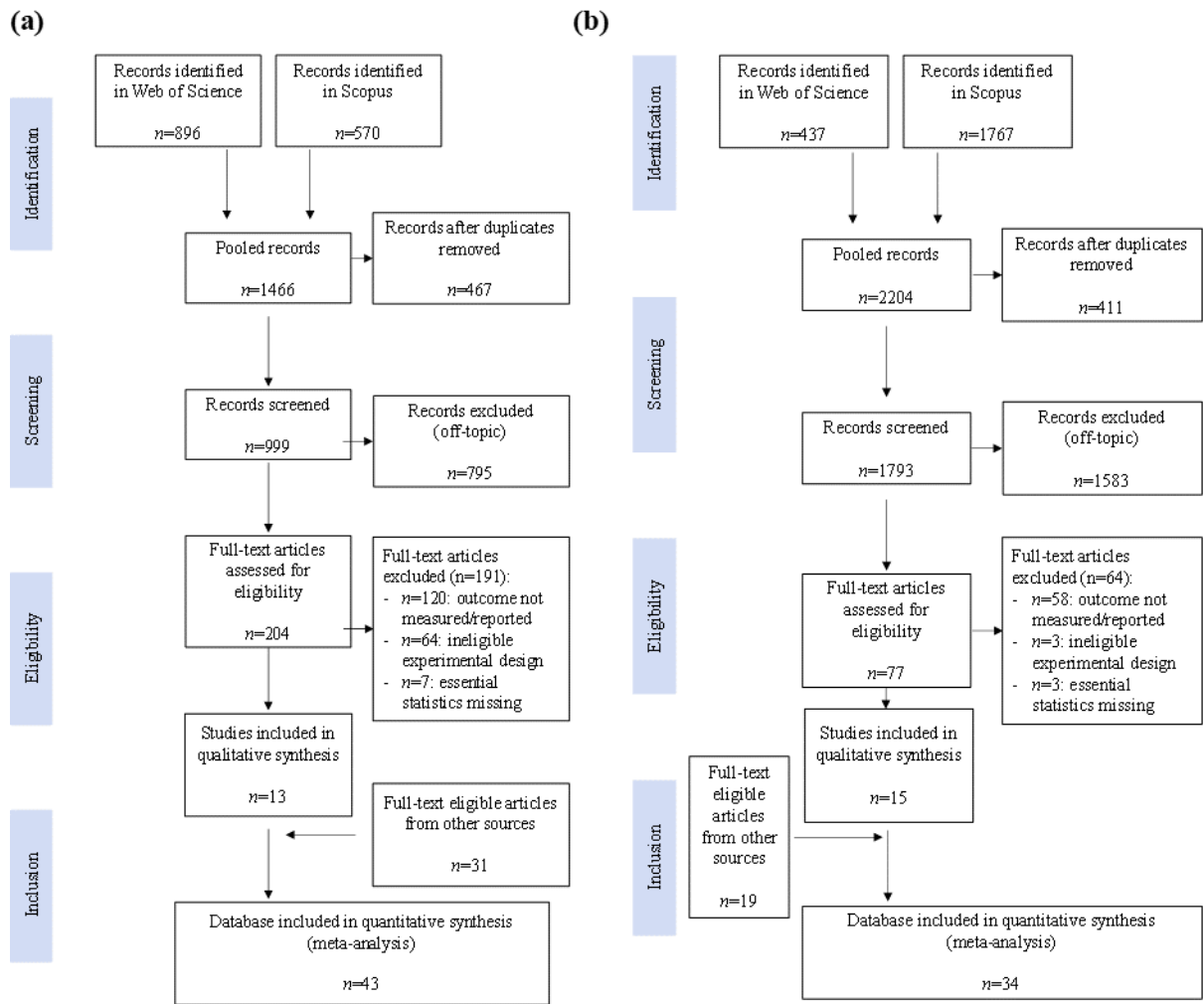
1396 **Figure 1**

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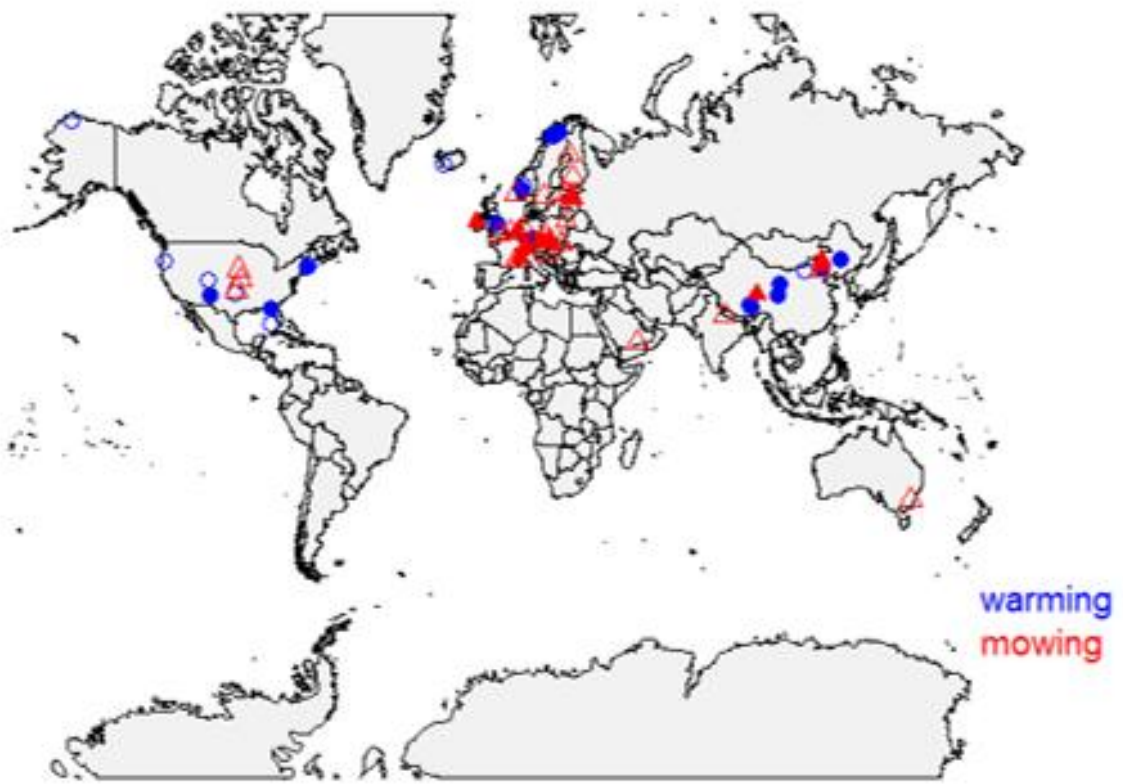
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1404 **Figure 3**

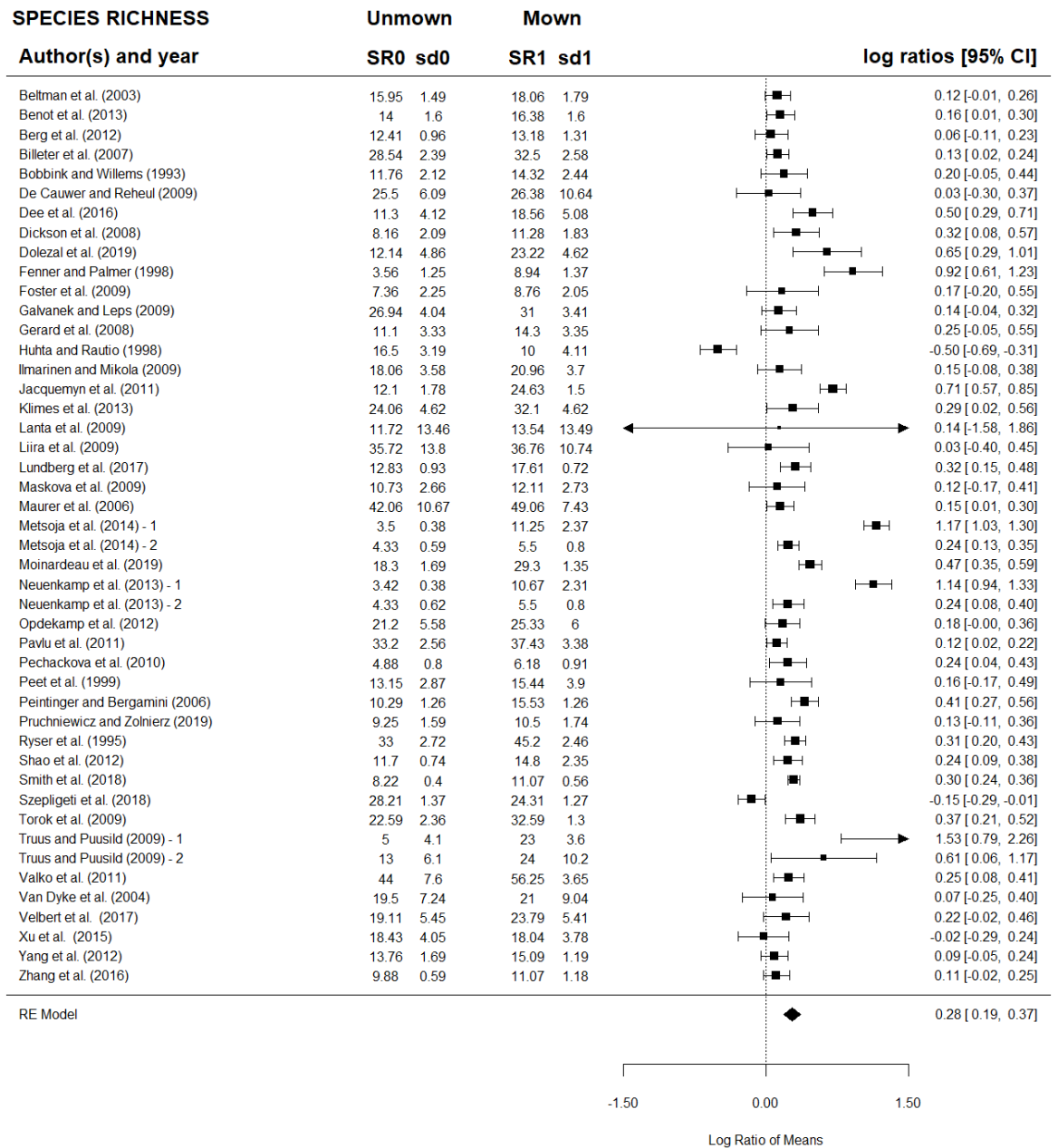
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1407 **Figure 4**

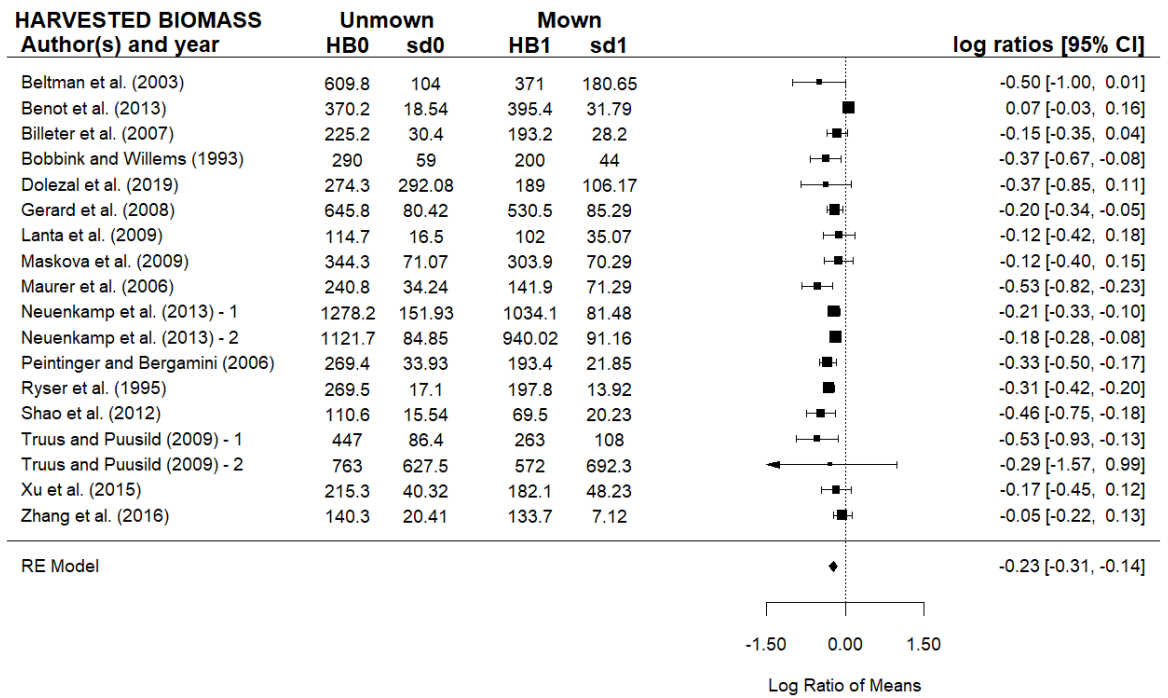
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(a)



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1411  
(b)



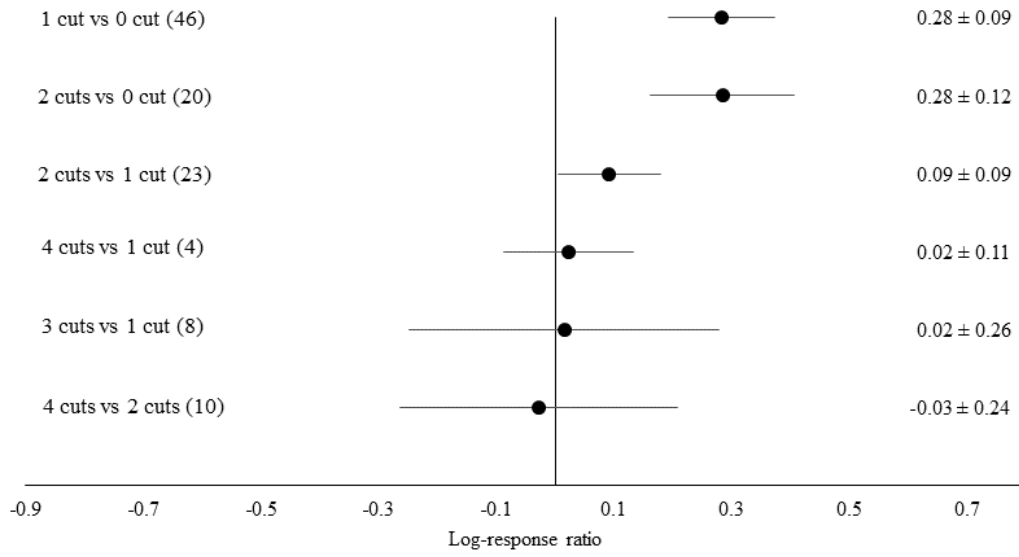
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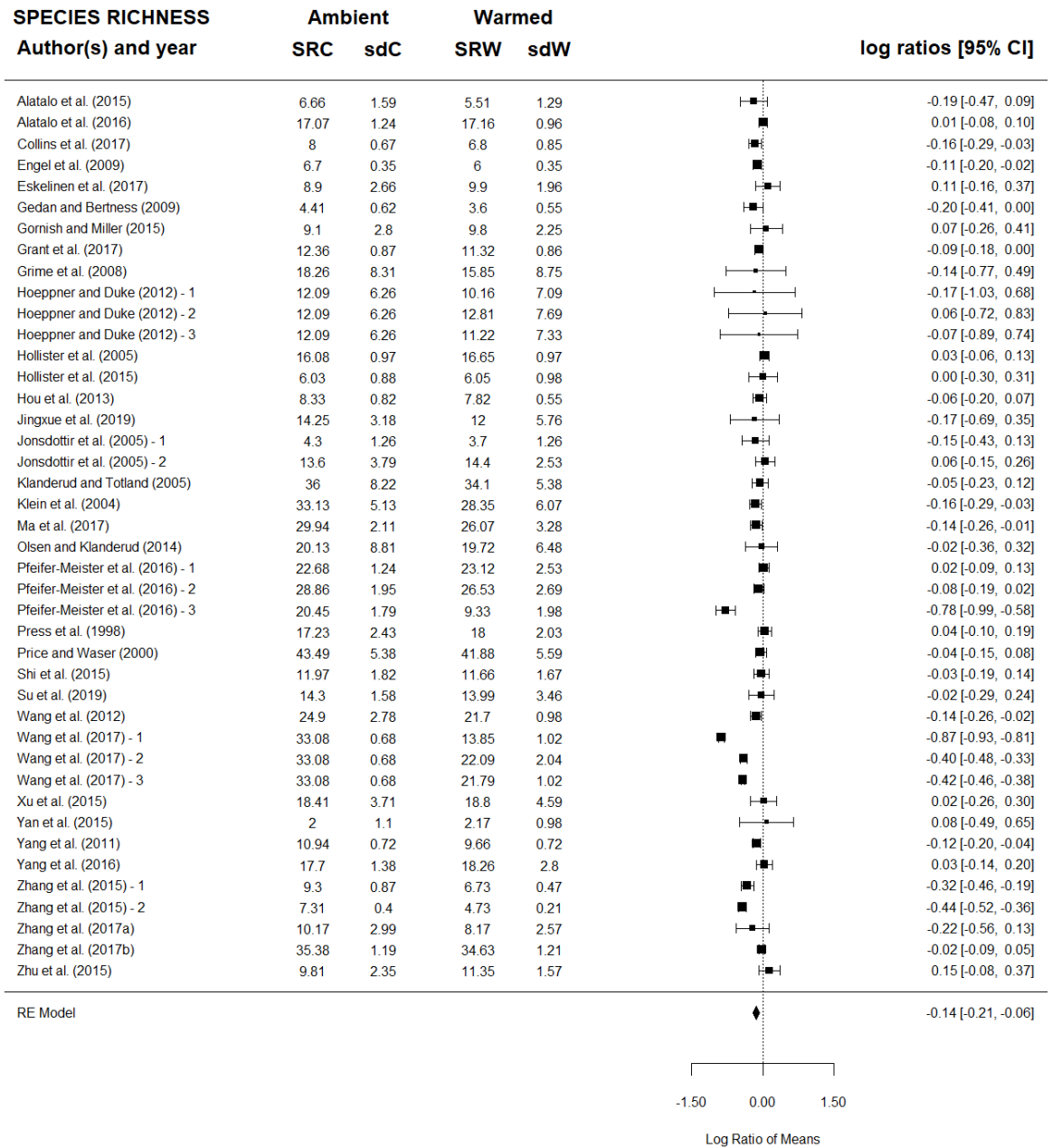
1414 **Figure 5**

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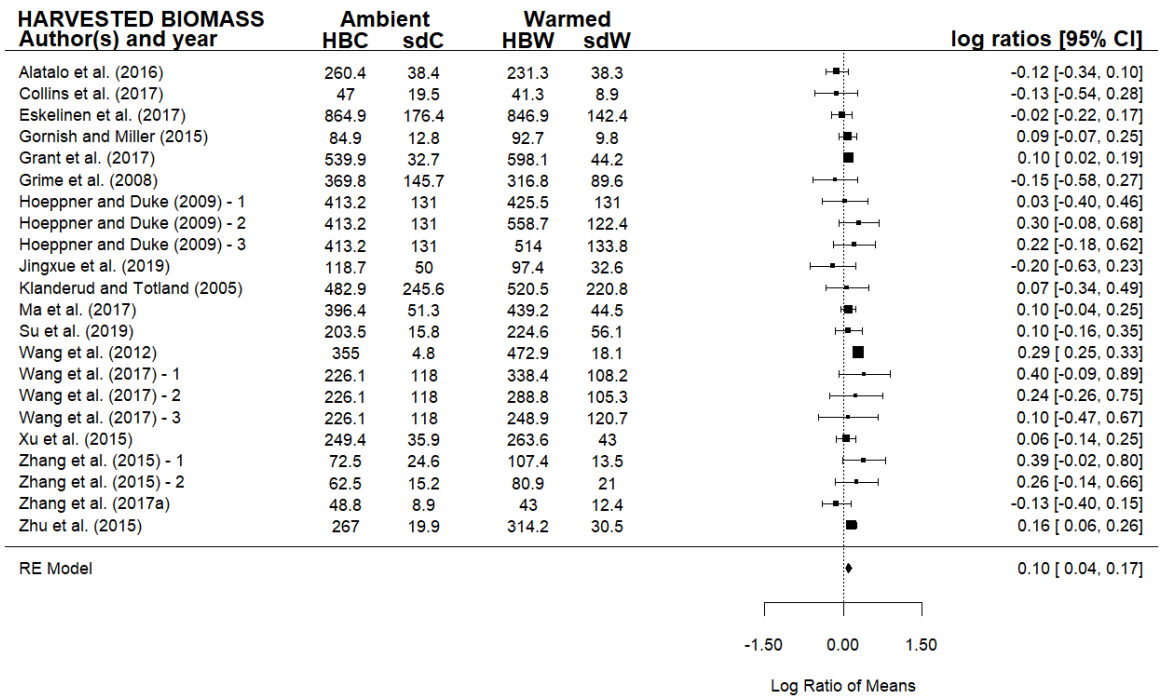


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(b)



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1422 **Supplementary materials**

1423

1424 **Supplementary tables**

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1428 **Table S1** Data source, location (country and Köppen-Geiger climate classification) and survey methodologies for the 43 articles present in the meta-analysis on the  
 1429 effect of mowing on species richness (with greyed areas highlighting the subset of 16 articles present in the meta-analysis on the effect of mowing on harvested biomass). NA  
 1430 (not available) indicates that sufficient information could not be extracted or derived from the original articles. For studies in the United States of America (USA), states are  
 1431 indicated: IA: Iowa; KS: Kansas; OK: Oklahoma. For climate classification: Bsk: cold semi-arid; Cfa: humid subtropical; Cfb: temperate-oceanic; Csa: hot-summer  
 1432 Mediterranean; Cwa: dry-winter humid subtropical; Dfa: hot-summer humid continental; Dfb: warm-summer continental; Dfc: subarctic continental; ET: tundra. For multi-  
 1433 treatment experiments, the information on mowing time is given here for one-cut-per-year treatment only. On botanical method, the mentioned works provide evidence of a  
 1434 vast amount of visually determined plant-cover data that were classified by different methods. A common way to measure plant cover in herbal plant communities is to make  
 1435 a visual assessment of the relative area covered by the different species in a small circle or quadrat, and the visual estimates of cover percentages are categorized using  
 1436 different ordinal classification scheme. For vegetation analyses of permanent quadrats, Londo (1976) used a modified scale with smaller intervals derived from difference-  
 1437 and change quotients based on coverage percentages. In its development, the initially 12-scale grades by Hult (1881) and Sernander (1912) were merged to five grades,  
 1438 describing the cover abundance of species: 1: ≤6.25%, 2: 6.25-12.5%, 3: 12.5-25%, 4: 25–50%, 5: 50-100% cover. Braun-Blanquet (1946) developed a cover-  
 1439 abundance/dominance scale with six categories (+: ≤1%, 1: 1-5%, 2: 5-25%, 3: 25-50%, 4: =50-75%, 5: 75-100% cover), and a seventh one (r) representing single occurrence  
 1440 of plants of particular species. The scale that van der Maarel (1979) derived from the previous one includes a differentiation into subclasses (e.g., of the category 2). De Vries  
 1441 (1948) developed a combined frequency and rank determination method. Zobel and Liira (1997) developed a humped pattern between species richness and biomass within  
 1442 quadrats.

Reference	Country	Climate classification	Grassland characteristics	Mowing technique	Mowing time	Botanical method	Observation period	Cutting height (cm)	Plot size (m <sup>2</sup> )	Duration (years)	Fertilisation / other practices
Beltman et al. (2003)	Ireland	Cfb	species-rich limestone	manual removal	May-June or August	Braun-Blanquet (1964) scale	June or August	≤ 5	1	11	No

Benot et al. (2013)	France	ET	subalpine	manual removal	August	cover with point quadrat	before the peak of biomass	$\leq 5$	1	2	No
Berg et al. (2016)	Estonia	Dfb	wetland (substrate composed of marine sands covered by saline littoral soil)	scissors removal	end July	percent cover values	end July, before cut	$\leq 5$	4	5	No
Billeter et al. (2007)	Switzerland	Cfb	montane calcareous wet	manual removal	mid-September	visual cover estimate	late July or early August	$\leq 5$	0.04	2	No
Bobbink and Willems (1993)	Netherland	Cfb	Chalk	electric hand mowing device	end August early September	biomass sorting	August	$\leq 5$	0.125	3	No
De Cauwer and Reheul (2009)	Belgium	Cfb	wetland	NA	June	De Vries (1948) rank method	June and July	NA	0.01	5	No
Dee et al. (2016)	USA - OK	Cfa	tallgrass prairie	NA	March or June or September	abundance cover values	May	NA	1	18	No
Dickson and Foster (2008)	USA - KS	Dfa	secondary grassland dominated by <i>Bromus inermis</i> and <i>Poa pratensis</i> (introduced perennial C <sub>3</sub> grasses)	manual removal	June	percent cover values	June	$\geq 10$	2	3	16 g N m <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>
Doležal et al. (2019)	Czech Republic	Cfb	oligotrophic wet meadow	mowing removal	April, June, August, October	biomass sorting into species	April, June, August, October	$\leq 5$	0.04	1	No
Fenner and Palmer (1998)	England	Cfb	neutral grassland community on a sandy soil	NA	June and August	percent cover values	late June	NA	0.25	13	No
Foster et al. (2009)	USA - KS	Dfa	deciduous forest-tallgrass prairie ecotone	mowing removal	mid-late June	biomass sorting	mid-late June	$\leq 5$	100	7	8 and 14 g N m <sup>-2</sup>
Galváneek and	Slovakia	Cfb	perennial grassland	scythe	June-July	presence and	second half	NA	0.25	5	No

Lepš (2009)			on limestone bedrock	removal		absence	of June					
Gerard et al. (2008)	Belgium	Cfb	former natural floodplains	NA	mid-July	modified Braun-Blanquet scale (van de Maarel, 1979)	beginning July	NA	4	1	No	
Huhta and Rautio (1998)	Finland	Dfc	semi-natural meadow	lawn mower removal	late June	cover percent values	June	NA	1	1	No	
Ilmarinen and Mikola (2009)	Finland	Dfc	NA	NA	August	record of all species cover	June	≤5	1	3	No / re-seeding	
Jacquemyn et al. (2011)	Belgium	Cfb	calcareous	manual removal	end August	Braun-Blanquet (1964) scale	mid-May	NA	1	11	No	
Klimeš et al. (2013)	Czech Republic	Cfb	wooded	manual removal	June or September	cover percent values	first half June	≤ 5, ≥ 10	0.56	3	No / mulching	
Lanta et al. (2009)	Czech Republic	Cfb	calcareous mountain	manual removal	June	percent cover values	June	NA	1	3	No	
Liira et al. (2009)	Estonia	Dfb	flooded meadow	- scythe cutting and removal - machine cutting and hay removal - mulching (machine cutting and without hay removal)	end June-beginning July	record of all species	end June-beginning July	≤ 5, ≥ 10	0.25	6	No / mulching	
Lundberg et al. (2017)	Norway	Dfb	semi-natural dune meadows	motorized grass mower	August	cover abundance scale by Hult (1881) and Sernander (1912)	August every two years	≤ 5	1	16	No	
Mašková et al. (2009)	Czech Republic	Cfb	species-rich mountain meadow	manual removal	July	Braun-Blanquet scale	July	≤ 5	1	10	No	
Maurer et al. (2006)	Switzerland	Dfb	grassland parcels	NA	NA	Braun-Blanquet scale	NA	≤ 5	25	1	No	
Metsoja et al. (2014)	Estonia	Dfb	1: tall forb meadow 2: sedge meadow	NA	June	cover percent values	June	NA	1	1	No	

Moinardeau et al. (2019)	France	Csa	artificial dykes	NA	May	Braun-Blanquet scale	NA	NA	10000	3	No
Neuenkamp et al. (2013)	Estonia	Dfb	1: tall forb meadow 2: sedge meadow	scissors removal	late July	cover percent values	NA	$\leq 5$	1	10	No
Opdekamp et al. (2012)	Poland	Cfb	fen meadow	NA	July	point quadrat	beginning of July	NA	4	12	No
Pavlů et al. (2011)	Czech Republic	Cfb	mountain hay meadow	NA	mid July	cover percent values	every year	NA	25	10	No
Pecháčková et al. (2010)	Czech Republic	Cfb	mountain	scythe removal	mid July	point quadrat or cover percent values	before cut, July	$\leq 5$	1	5	No
Peet et al. (1999)	Nepal	Cwa	NA	manual removal	early December	cover percent values	late November-December	$\geq 10$	1	3	No
Peintinger and Bergamini (2006)	Switzerland	Dfb	calcareous fen meadows	manual removal	late summer	record of all species	late summer	NA	0.04	1	No
Pruchniewicz and Żolnierz (2019)	Poland	Cfb	mountain meadows	NA	mid-June, mid-June + mid-August	record of all species	NA	NA	NA	4	No
Ryser et al. (1995)	Switzerland	Dfb	mountain limestone calcareous nutrient-poor	NA	summer (mid-June, mid-July) and October	modified scale by Londo (1976)	late June	$\leq 5$	1 and 40	2	No
Shao et al. (2012)	China	Dfb	semi-arid steppe	clipping with a push mower and removal of biomass	late August	cover percent values	mid-August	$\leq 5, \geq 10$	1	4	No
Smith et al. (2018)	Australia	Cfb	natural temperate	10-cm high retained on site	late spring / early summer	NA	spring	$> 5$	1	10	No
Szépligeti et al. (2018)	Hungary	Dfb	mesic hay-meadow	with tractors	September; May and September	cover percent values	second half of May	NA	4	7	No
Török et al. (2009)	Hungary	Dfb	mountain hay meadow	scythe removal	end of July	record of all species	end of July	NA	1	12	No
Truus and	Estonia	Cfb	1: wet:	NA	NA	method of Zobel	NA	NA	0.815	1	No

Puusild (2009)			regularly flooded, well drained										and Liira (1997)
			2: moist: poorly drained to saturated										
Valkó et al. (2011)	Hungary	Dfb	acidic fen and dry-mesophilous meadows	scythe removal by hand raking	July	record of all species in permanent quadrats	July	NA	4	9			No
Van Dyke et al. (2004)	USA - IA	Dfb	tall grass prairie	tractor-drawn removal	April-May	cover percent values	April-May	≥ 10	0.129	2			No
Velbert et al. (2017)	Germany	Cfb	wet meadow	hand-held machinery removal	early June/July or late September	cover percent values	mid-June every second year	NA	16	26			No
Xu et al. (2015)	China	Bsk	alpine meadow	NA	NA	record of all species	from May to September	≤ 5	4	1			No
Yang et al. (2012)	China	Dfb	semiarid steppe	manual removal	August	cover percent values	June	≥ 10	1	7			No
Zhang et al. (2016)	China	Dfb	semiarid steppe	NA	August	biomass sorting	August	NA	1	3			No



1443 The data were acquired from 46 experiments (43 articles) varying over durations of only one year (eight studies) to 26 years (one study), conducted between  
1444 1993 (one study) and 2019 (three studies) from about 65° N (Keminmaa, Finland; Huhta and Rautio 1998) to 35° S (Canberra, Australia; Smith al. 2018) and  
1445 from about 97° W (Stillwater OK, USA; Dee et al. 2016) to 149° E (Canberra, Australia; Smith al. 2018). Three Estonian studies included two case-control  
1446 designs each (i.e., tall forb and sedge meadows in Metsoja et al. 2014 and Neuenkamp et al. 2013; two flooded meadows, differing in the degree of soil  
1447 moisture, in Truus and Puusild 2009) and were analysed separately. The meta-analysis integrated several ecological zones, from the cold and arid Tibetan  
1448 Plateau (> 4600 m a.s.l.), with -5.9 °C mean air temperature and 277 mm annual precipitation (Xu et al. 2015) to the humid Swiss pre-Alps (with ~ 2000 mm  
1449 annual precipitation, Peintinger and Bergamini 2006) and the mild slopes (14 °C on average) of the lower course of the Rhone River, France (Moinardeau et  
1450 al. 2019).

1451 **Table S2** Data source, location (country and Köppen-Geiger climate classification) and survey methodologies for the 34 articles present in the meta-analysis on the  
1452 effect of warming on species richness (with greyed areas highlighting the subset of 17 articles present in the meta-analysis on the effect of warming on harvested biomass).  $\Delta T$   
1453 is the temperature difference ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) between control and warming treatments. NA (not available) indicates that sufficient information could not be extracted or derived from the  
1454 original articles. For studies in the United States of America (USA), states are indicated: AK: Arkansas; CO: Colorado; FL: Florida; MA: Massachusetts; NM: New Mexico;  
1455 OR: Oregon; OK: Oklahoma; RI: Rhode Island; TN: Tennessee; WA: Washington. For climate classification: Bsk: cold semi-arid; Cfa: humid subtropical; Cfb: temperate-  
1456 oceanic; Csa: hot-summer Mediterranean; Csc: cold-summer Mediterranean; Dfa: humid continental; Dfb: warm-summer continental; Dfc: subarctic continental; Dwa: humid  
1457 continental; Dwb: warm-summer humid continental; EF: ice cap; ET: tundra. On survey sampling, year 0 measurements were taken at the beginning of the study (before the  
1458 experimental treatment began)

References	Country	Climate classification	Grassland characteristics	Warming methods	$\Delta T$ ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	Timing of the warming treatment	Botanical method	Observation period	Plot size ( $\text{m}^2$ )	Survey sampling (years)	Biomass determination
Alatalo et al. (2015)	Sweden	Dfc	heathland	open-top chamber	2.25	all the time	record of all species in 1 m x 1 m grid	peak growing season	1	1, 5, 7	No
Alatalo et al. (2016)	Sweden	Dfc	rich meadow	hexagonal open-top chamber	1.87	all the time	record of all species in 1 m x 1 m grid	early August	1	0, 1, 2	Estimation using cover and plant height
Collins et al. (2017)	USA – NM	Bsk	desert grassland	lightweight aluminium-framed shelters	1.10 (winter), 1.50 (summer)	passive night-time	record of all species	May and September	1	1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7	Mowing in May and September
Engel et al. (2009)	USA – TN	Cfa	old-field community with grasses, forbs and legumes (plots seeded with seven common plant species)	circular open-top chamber	2.60	all the time	visual estimation	monthly	0.49	2	No
Eskelinen et al. (2017)	Finland	Dfc	species-rich treeless tundra meadow	hexagonal open-top chamber	1.58	spring and autumn	point-transect method taking data from 100 points in each transect every 0.3 m (Daget and Poissonet 1971)	end of July	0.56	5	Plant biomass removal

Gedan and Bertness (2009)	USA – RI	Dfb	salt marsh (three sites)	open-top chamber	1.40	from May to September	percent cover	June and August	0.25	3	No
Gornish and Miller (2015)	USA – FL	Cfa	native grasses and legumes for agricultural use	hexagonal open-top chamber	2.50	all the time	percent cover	August	1.00	1, 2	Plant biomass removal
Grant et al. (2017)	Germany	Dfa	semi-natural grassland	infrared heaters	0.90-1.30	winter or summer	Biomass sorting	June-September	0.81	3	Mowing in June and September
Grime et al. (2008)	United Kingdom	Cfb	unproductive, grazed grassland	soil surface heating	3.00	November-April	point-quadrat	June-July	0.18	13	Mowing in October
Hoepfner and Dukens (2012)	USA – MA	Dfb	old-field herbaceous community	ceramic infrared heaters	1: 1.00 2: 2.70 3: 4.00	all the time	record of all species	summer	0.25 and 0.5	1, 2	0.015 to 0.100 m-height hand clipping in June and at the end of growing season
Hollister et al. (2005)	USA – AK	ET	dry heath/wet meadow	hexagonal open-top chamber	1.40	growing season	point-framing method	mid-July early August	1	1, 6	No
Hollister et al. (2015)	USA - AK	ET	tundra	hexagonal open-top chamber	1.40	open-top chambers installed every year shortly after snowmelt and removed at the end of the growing season	point-framing method	NA	1	2, 5, 12, 17	No
Hou et al. (2013)	China	Bsk	desert steppe	infrared lamps	4.1 (2011), 1.58 (2012)	all the time	record of all species	late August	1	1, 2	No
Jingxue et al. (2019)	China	ET	alpine steppe	infrared lamps	2.0	growing season	record of all species	mid-August	1	2	Plant biomass removal
Jónsdóttir et al. (2005)	Iceland Thingvellir (64° 17' N, 21° 05' W)	ET	alpine I: species-poor moss heath	hexagonal open-top chamber	1.50	summer	point-framing method	end of June	0.5625	3-5	No

	Audkuluheid i (65°16' N, 20°15' W)		2: species- rich dwarf shrub heath								
Klanderud and Totland (2005)	Norway	EF	heathland	open-top chamber	1.50	all the time	record of all species	August	0.18	1, 4	Plant biomass removal
Klein et al. (2004)	China	ET	four sites: meadow and shrubland	open-top chamber	1.30	all the time	record of all species	mid-July	0.56	4	No
Ma et al. (2017)	China	Bsk	Alpine grassland	infrared radiators	2	NA	biomass sorting	late August	0.07	1, 2, 3, 4	Plant biomass removal
Olsen and Klanderud (2014)	Norway	EF	tundra	hexagonal open-top chamber	1.50	growing season	record of all species	summer	0.36	0, 3, 7, 12	No
	USA - WA		1: Tenalquot Prairie (46° 53' N, 122° 44' W)								
Pfeifer- Meister et al. (2016)	USA - OR	Csc	2: Willow Creek (44° 01' N, 123° 10' W)	infrared radiators	2.75	growing season	point-intercept method	May-June	1	0, 1, 2	No
	USA - OR		3: Deer Creek Center (42° 16' N, 123° 38' W)								
Press et al. (1998)	Sweden	Dfc	tundra	open-top tents	4.00	from May to September	point-intercept method	first half of August	0.56	5	No
Price and Waser (2000)	USA - CO	ET	subalpine meadow	electric heaters	1.20	all the time	record of all species	June	0.06	0, 1, 2, 3	No
Shi et al. (2015)	USA - OK	Cfa	tallgrass prairie not grazed for ~ 40 years	infrared heaters	1.75	all the time	point-quadrat method	August	2.00	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14	No
Su et al.	China	ET	semiarid steppe	hexagonal open-top	0.33	not specified	biomass	August	0.25	1	Soil-level

(2019)				chamber			sorting	(soil-level mowing at the peak of biomass)			mowing at the peak of biomass
Wang et al. (2012)	China	ET	alpine meadow	infrared heaters	1.28 (daytime), 1.78 (night-time)	all the time	visual estimation	end of August	1.00	average of four years	Estimation using cover and plant height
Wang et al. (2017)	China	Bsk	alpine meadow	hexagonal open-top chamber (bottom diameter)	1: 0.85 m 2: 1.45 m 3: 2.05 m	0.15 1.10 1.80	all the time	biomass sorting	August	0.25	0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 Sampling at the peak of biomass
Xu et al. (2015)	China	Bsk	alpine meadow	infrared heaters	NA	all the time	percentage cover values	NA	0.06	2	Plant biomass sampling
Yan et al. (2015)	China	Dwa	homogeneous grassland dominated by <i>Chloris virgata</i> Sw.	hexagonal open-top chamber	0.93	not specified	NA	mid-June, August and October	0.04	3	No
Yang et al. (2011)	China	ET	temperate steppe	infrared radiators	1.14	from March to November	visual estimation	August	1	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	No
Yang et al. (2016)	China	ET	semi-arid temperate steppe	infrared radiators	0.71-0.78	daytime and night-time	record of all species	August	1	2	No
Zhang et al. (2015)	China	Bsk	1: alpine meadow 2: alpine steppe	conical open-top chamber	1.73	all the time	record of all species	from July to August	0.25	0.25	Plant biomass sampling

Zhang et al. (2017a)	China	ET	temperate steppe	infrared radiators	1.10	all the time	biomass sorting	August	0.15	5	Plant biomass sampling
Zhang et al. (2017b)	China	ET	alpine meadow (with a history of low or high grazing intensity)	open-top chamber	1.10	all the time	record of all species	NA	0.56	1, 2, 3, 4, 18	No
Zhu et al. (2015)	China	Dwb	meadow steppe	infrared radiators	1.70	from March to November	record of all species	from June to September	0.06	3	Mid-August plant biomass sampling

1459

1460 Data were acquired from 42 experiments (34 articles) varying in duration and number of sampling instances per year (up to 14 in the study period in Shi et al.  
1461 2015), conducted between 1998 (one article) and 2019 (two articles). They include the study by Xu et al. (2015), also used in the meta-analysis for the effect  
1462 of mowing (with no warming) on SR and HB (Table S1). Here, we assess the effect of warming on the abandoned plot and discuss the results obtained by Xu  
1463 et al. (2015) with the combined treatment of the effects of mowing and warming without including this treatment in the meta-analyses. Broad altitudinal  
1464 ranges up to above 4700 m a.s.l. in the Tibetan Plateau (Zhang et al. 2015; Jingxue et al. 2019) imply broad ranges of mean air temperatures (from -5.9 °C in  
1465 the Tibetan Plateau, Xu et al. 2015, to 20 °C in USA - Florida, Gornish and Miller 2015) and annual precipitation (> 1400 mm in the southern Pacific  
1466 Northwest, Pfeifer-Meister et al. 2016, down to < 90 mm in Norway, Klanderud and Totland 2005; Olsen and Klanderud 2014). Where this was clearly  
1467 established, alternative experimental treatments and conditions were analysed separately. This is the case in the study by Wang et al. (2017), who examined  
1468 warming impacts in experiments with open-top chambers having different bottom diameters (i.e., 0.85 m, 1.45 m and 2.05 m). Hoepfner and Dukes (2012)  
1469 described the response of a grassland community by comparing three levels of warming (up to +4 °C) to the control case. Jónsdóttir et al. (2005) studied two  
1470 grassland communities (i.e., species-poor moss heath and species-rich dwarf shrub heath) at two sites in Iceland. Likewise, Pfeifer-Meister et al. (2016)  
1471 quantified how warming affects the relative dominance of plant functional groups and the diversity of Mediterranean prairies at three sites across a 520- km  
1472 latitudinal gradient in the Pacific Northwest (USA).

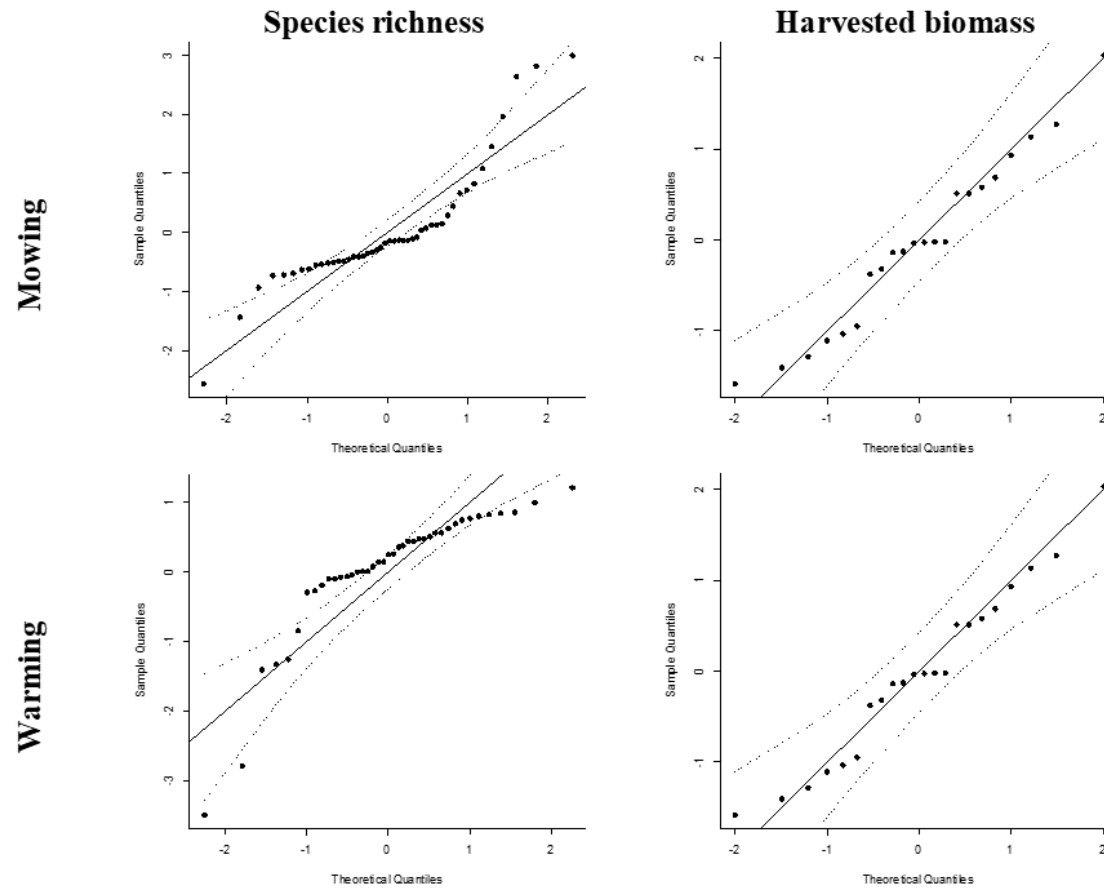
1473 **Table S3** Mixed-effects model analysis of moderators for species richness (SR) and harvested biomass (HB): standardized coefficients (slopes), standard errors (*se*),  
 1474 z-values (*z*), lower (*LCI*) and upper (*UCI*) 0.95 confidence intervals, significance probability of slope estimates (*p*), omnibus test of heterogeneity (*Q<sub>M</sub>*), its significance  
 1475 probability (*P*), amount of residual heterogeneity accounted for by the whole model (*R<sup>2</sup>*). Moderators are: Y: year of publication; D (years): duration of the experimental  
 1476 study; S (m<sup>2</sup>): plot size; ΔT (°C): temperature difference between control and warming treatments; T (°C): mean annual temperature of the site; R (mm): mean annual  
 1477 precipitation of the site; E (m a.s.l.): site elevation; M: warming method (not enough data were available to examine the effects of cutting height). The probabilities of  
 1478 significant slope estimates are marked in red (*p*<0.05) and bold red (*p*<0.01)

Factor	Effect size	Moderator	Estimates						Omnibus test		
			slope	<i>se</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>LCI</i>	<i>UCI</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Q<sub>M</sub></i>	<i>P</i>	<i>R<sup>2</sup></i> (%)
Mowing	HB	Y	0.0172	00082	2.1117	0.0012	0.0332	<b>0.0347</b>	4.4593	0.0347	33.03
		Y	-0.0087	0.0044	-1.9764	-0.0173	-0.0001	<b>0.0481</b>	3.9060	0.0481	9.40
Warming	SR	Y	-0.0005	0.0078	-0.0703	-0.0158	0.0147	0.9439	17.2876	0.0272	31.13
		D	-0.0142	0.0212	-0.6685	-0.0557	0.0274	0.5038			
		S	0.1608	0.1410	1.1404	-0.1156	0.4372	0.2541			
		ΔT	-0.0078	0.0855	-0.0916	-0.1754	0.1598	0.9270			
		T	-0.0064	0.0167	-0.3816	-0.0391	0.0263	0.7028			
		R	-0.0004	0.0002	-2.2202	-0.0007	-0.0000	<b>0.0264</b>			
		E	-0.0001	0.0000	2.7952	-0.0002	-0.0000	<b>0.0052</b>			
		M	-0.0178	0.1360	-0.1312	-0.2845	0.2488	0.8956			
		Y	-0.0203	0.0086	-2.3685	-0.0371	-0.0035	<b>0.0179</b>			
		M	-0.0178	0.1360	-0.1312	-0.2845	0.2488	0.8956			
	HB	E	0.0000	~ 0.0000	1.3952	-0.0000	0.0001	0.1630	8.9215	0.0304	63.05
		M	0.0363	0.0610	0.5946	-0.0833	0.1559	0.5521			

1479

1480 **Supplementary figures**

1481 **Figure S1**



1482

1483 **Figure S1** Normal quantile plots of the natural logarithms of the response ratios (*LRR*) for species richness (left) and harvested biomass (right) with mowing

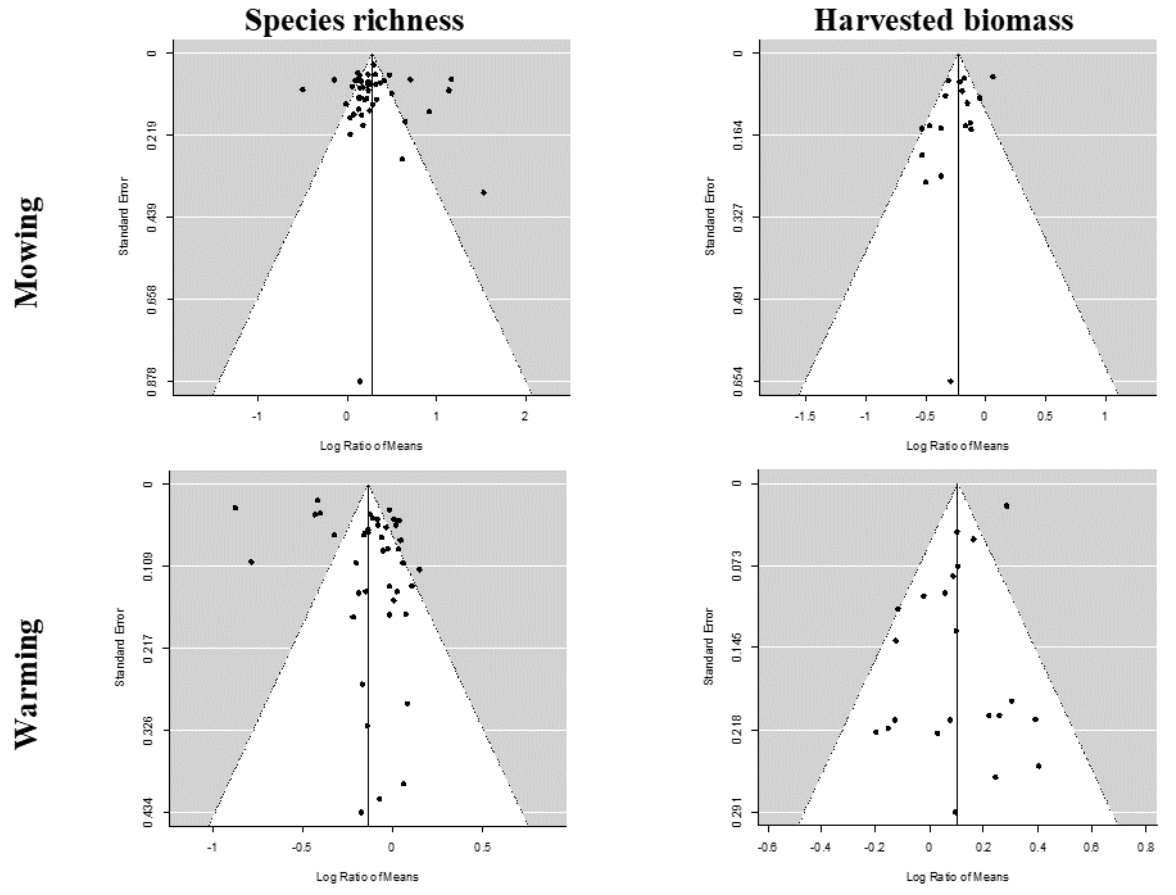
1484 (top) and warming (bottom) effects. The solid line is the diagonal reference line. The dashed lines show 0.95 Lilliefors (1967) confidence bounds

1485



1486 **Figure S2**

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1489 **Figure S2** Funnel plots of the meta-analysis comparing species richness (left) and harvested biomass (right) with mowing (top) and warming (bottom) effects

1490

1491 **Supplementary references**

1492

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