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Simulation of multi-species plant communities in perturbed and nutrient-limited grasslands: development of the growth model ModVege

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Abstract: Simulating the dynamics of plants species or types in grassland communities remains an open area of research for which 11 the Community Simulation Model (CoSMo) offers novel approaches. The grassland model ModVege was first parameterised based 12 on a functional vegetation typology, in which types "A" and "B" include fast-growing grass species with a phenology-dependent 13 nutrient-capture strategy inherent to fertile grasslands, while the nutrient conservation strategy and late flowering characterise the 14 other types as "b". ModVege was then coupled to the CoSMo rule set to dynamically simulate the relative abundance of plant func-15 tional types or individual species, assessed across fertilised and unfertilised, abandoned and mown conditions in a grassland site of 16 the Massif Central of France. While for the simulation of aboveground biomass, model performance is not unambiguously linked to 17 explicit consideration of plant diversity, the simulation of relative abundance for the whole community is satisfactory (relative root 18 mean square error of ~13-25% when simulating functional types and ~28-52% when simulating species). This study extends previous 19 studies by coupling CoSMo for the first time to a grassland-specific model and applying it to conditions (long-term observations, 20 extended number of plant species, absence of fertilisation, frequent mowing and abandonment) never investigated before. 21

Keywords: CoSMo; grassland modelling; ModVege; multi-species-grasslands; plant functional types; relative abundance

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1. Introduction

Grasslands often contain a high diversity of plants, which is of interest for wildlife conservation, for a diverse 25 forage resource in relation to feed quality and for the resources provided to micro- and macro-fauna [1, 2]. This plant 26 diversity can be described in different ways and studied using different approaches [3]. For instance, the number of 27 individual species present in a grassland (species richness) informs about the ecological or patrimonial status of the 28 communities. However, despite experimental evidence of causal relationships between species number, ecosystem 29 productivity and carbon sequestration [4, 5], species richness is not an accurate indicator of the agronomic value of 30 grasslands (e.g. productivity, quality, precocity). For that, herbaceous species are often classified into three taxonomic 31 groups, namely grasses, legumes and forbs, the latter two playing a decisive role in the overgrowth of mixtures [6]. Both 32 species richness and taxonomic diversity do not take into account whether plant species or groups of species are similar 33 or differ in their attributes (or traits). Taxonomic-based analyses have thus evolved to explore species coexistence [7] 34 and ecosystem functioning based on species traits (functional diversity). Functional groups highlight the traits of plant 35 species to identify the main types of plant species present in a grassland based on biological characteristics (functional 36 traits) that correspond to similar functioning or strategies [8]. In fact, plant functional traits mediated by plant species 37 composition affect most key ecosystem properties, depending on the relative contribution of a given species to the total 38 vegetation biomass [9-11]. As such, functional diversity characterises the agronomic value of grasslands, e.g. a grassland 39 with high functional diversity can be exploited for its resilience to extreme weather events [12], and functional diversity 40 can be an indicator of grassland ecosystem services [13, 14]. 41

The concept of functional traits (or plant functional diversity), which provides a generic approach to characterise 42 vegetation types [15], is attractive as a tool for inferring ecosystem processes (e.g. plant growth) through aggregated 43

traits of dominant species other than weather, soil and management factors [14]. Plant traits and trait-based plant clas-44 sifications thus provide a sound scientific basis for reckoning the provision of ecosystem services and guiding grassland 45 management [16, 17]. This can be done through a typology, i.e. a set of rules to define the characteristics of an observed 46 system (here the kind of grassland), which facilitates its classification and the assessment of the ecosystem services 47 provided [18]. Cruz et al. [19] conceived a grass species typology with the aim to provide support to grassland advisors 48 via a generic method facilitating the manipulation of complex information, namely on the linkage between biodiversity 49 and grassland performance (e.g. forage production). For that, Cruz et al. [19] and Theau et al. [20] proposed a classifi-50 cation of perennial forage grasses based on six functional characteristics to discriminate between biomass production 51 and fodder quality of species mixtures. This functional typology was based on 38 grass species commonly found in the 52 upland areas of central and southern France, which were characterised under similar and controlled pedo-climatic con-53 ditions in order to obtain differences only due to their physiological/morphological peculiarities. These peculiarities 54 include the growth strategies (capture or conservation of resources) and phenology (early- or late-growth and flower-55 ing) of the plants, which are rendered from six morphological and phenological traits [21]: leaf dry matter content, 56 specific leaf area, leaf lifespan, leaf resistance to breakage and, for the whole plant, flowering date and maximum plant 57 height. This functional composition, based on the identification of dominant grass species and four main types (A, B, C, 58 D) makes it possible to create a classification according to the dates of growth peaks, and the digestibility of leaves and 59 stems. Types A and B (fast growing, phenology-dependent nutrient-capture strategy) dominate in fertile grasslands, 60 while the opposite is observed for types C and D (slow growing, nutrient conservation strategy, late flowering). A-type 61 and B-type grasslands are characterised by a high nutritive value in terms of digestibility for livestock feed at the be-62 ginning of the first vegetation cycle (and a rapid decline in nutritive value with early-maturity plants) and a high bio-63 mass accumulation [22]. Conversely, types C and D species are generally characterised by low digestibility values at 64 the beginning of the cycle (followed by a slower decline during the rest of the vegetation cycle), due to later plant 65 maturity and lower biomass accumulation [23]. Cruz et al. [24] defined additional types to characterise tall, late-flow-66 ering species in fertile (type "b") or poor (type "d") soils. From this knowledge-based classification, it is possible to 67 parameterise alternative grassland types for modelling purposes, aimed at predicting the dynamics of herbage biomass, 68 structure and digestibility as a function of management practices and climate [25, 26]. Simulation models combining 69 community traits with soil, climate and management are widely used to predict grassland productivity and biophysi-70 cal/biogeochemical cycles [27, 28]. In these models, plant traits are generally considered as static inputs (i.e. model pa-71 rameters) that characterise the mean vegetation of the community, which become specific and dynamic when plant 72 diversity is taken into account. Modelling solutions linking the processes and dynamics of plant types to the processes 73 and dynamics of communities are mostly integrated to specific models and for a limited number of species in a com-74 munity [29-32]. A high detail of plant interactions can be achieved at the expense of detailed process descriptions, while 75 niche differentiation needs to be improved to simulate the coexistence of several species [33]. DynaGraM [34] is a mod-76 elling solution addressing theoretical questions about the response of a grassland species model to climatic, edaphic 77 and management forcing agents as a function of the state of the plant community. Conceived as a mechanistic model of 78 resource competition [35], it is a stand-alone solution representing the regulation of green biomass and plant competi-79 tion from the standpoint of resource dynamics [36], integrating eco-physiological and biophysical details inherited from 80 ModVege [25, 26], originally developed to predict vegetation growth from permanent grasslands in central France. 81 Another approach, the Community Simulation Model (CoSMo), provides means for incorporating plant diversity in 82 grassland models [37]. With a set of parameter values for each plant type in a community (individual species or groups 83 of species such as functional types), CoSMo updates the relative abundance of different plant categories (at the level of 84 individual species or taxonomic or functional groups of species) at each time step. The characterisation of the different 85 plant types is performed using different sets of values for the same parameters (common set of parameters for all plant 86 categories). As the biological parameters of plant models are generally sensitive to environmental changes and farming 87 practices, CoSMo translates these changes into a numerical framework through suitability functions (on a concept of 88 Confalonieri et al. [38]). Competition and changes in the relative abundance of plant categories are simulated in response 89 to hierarchical environmental drivers (biophysical and management factors, triggered or continuous), which represent 90 the suitability of different plant categories to the conditions explored at each time step. On this basis, CoSMo derives 91 (daily) vegetation parameter values for the plant community from the relative abundance of the different plant species 92 or groups and the parameter values initially set to characterise the same plant species or group. These dynamically 93 derived vegetation parameters are then used at each time step by the growth simulator (ModVege in our case). In doing 94 so, CoSMo goes beyond the conventional assumption that the values assigned to the model parameters (by calibration, 95 experimental measurement or from the literature) are time invariant and remain constant throughout the simulation 96 period. The simplification of time-invariance of parameter values may be too limiting to meet the challenges facing 97

agricultural systems, which implies that aspects related to plant diversity cannot be ignored in modelling studies [39]. 98 Designed as a re-usable component, CoSMo was already coupled with generic crop models (CropSyst [40], WOFOST 99 [41]) to explicitly and dynamically simulate the relative abundance of plant species in grasslands, and satisfactorily 100 applied to annually mown grasslands in central Italy [42]. 101

Here, the CoSMo suitability functions are exploited as a means of improving the grassland-specific model 102 ModVege. A first approach, consistent with the level of complexity of the generic grassland simulator, dynamically 103 models the relative abundance of functional types in a grassland community. A second approach adds complexity to 104 ModVege to represent the dynamics of individual plant species in the community. The assessment of three modelling 105 solutions - a grassland model in standalone, coupled versions for functional groups and individual species - was thus 106 carried out for aboveground biomass and relative abundance of plant groups/species using multi-year field data from 107 mown (fertilised or not) and undisturbed (abandoned) multispecies grasslands in the Massif Central of France. 108

2. Materials and Methods

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2.1. The modelling framework

2.1.1. Generic grassland model (ModVege)

ModVege is a relatively simple process-based model that estimates herbage quantity and quality in managed, 112 multi-species grasslands. It implements the conceptual framework originally proposed by [43, 44] to calculate the mass 113 flow in four structural compartments of aboveground biomass on a daily time-step (Supplementary material, Figure 114 A). The model development is based on the assumption that community behaviour can be explained by the mean traits 115 of dominant grasses. The model addresses six basic functional groups of grasses [45] that can be combined in different 116 proportions to simulate a wide range of grassland communities [25]. Environmental constraints are associated with 117 water scarcity, high radiation levels and temperature extremes, within a purely source-driven model, where potential 118 growth is expressed as a function of the photosynthetic active radiation intercepted [46]. The processes contributing to 119 biomass turnover are growth, senescence and abscission. The onset of growth is assumed to occur when the cumulative 120 thermal time since 1 January exceeds 200 °C-d for the first time. Water availability is related to the fractional water 121 content, W=WR/WHC, where WR is the current water reserve and WHC is the water holding capacity. A simple bucket 122 approach is used to evaluate WR, where precipitation is considered as an input and actual evapotranspiration (AET) 123 and drainage as outputs. Drainage is assumed to occur whenever the difference between precipitation and AET exceeds 124 the soil's absorption capacity, given by the difference between WHC and WR. Herbage growth is further controlled by 125 the overall nutrient availability through a nutrient index, i.e. a relative measure of the overall nutritional status of the 126 canopy, which can range from 0.35 in nutrient deficiency to 1.20 in heavily fertilised systems [47]. As there is no model 127 component that simulates the nitrogen (N) cycle dynamically, the nutrition index is considered a site-specific parameter 128 that can be reduced over time to represent the progressive depletion of N availability in unfertilised fields. Despite its 129 simplifications, ModVege has been shown to perform well in a variety of environmental contexts and management 130 regimes [48, 49], and is being developed [50] for application as a decision-support system [51]. 131

2.1.2. Generic grassland model (ModVege)

CoSMo simulates plant communities through a mean parameterisation based on the relative abundance of each 134 group/species. Its approach can be coupled with any generic grassland simulator. The relative abundance of plants 135 species (or groups of species) depends on the hierarchical aggregation of several drivers (each one assuming values 136 between 0 and 1), which are estimated to characterise the suitability and competitiveness of each group/species in a 137 given context. The generic simulator community parameterisation (ycommunity) is updated at a daily time-step, for each 138 simulator parameter (y) based on the relative abundance (SCP) of each group/species (i) of n simulated groups/species 139 in a mixed cover, as follows:

$$y_{community} = \forall_y \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i \cdot SCP_i) \tag{1}$$
here the universal quantifier is encoded as \forall ("for all").

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$$\frac{dsCP_i}{dt} = \left(\frac{sfs_i(t) - \overline{sfs(t)}}{1 - \overline{sfs(t)}}\right)$$
(2)

where $Sfs_i(t)$ is the suitability factor for group/species *i*, Sfs(t) is the mean suitability factor for all groups/species 145 and $80 \le I \le 120$ is an inertial replacement coefficient (suggested to be set at 100). 146

The term $Sf_{si}(t)$ is calculated from the hierarchical suitability function of driver q for the species i, $HSf_{i,q}(t)$:

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where z is the number of drivers. In the current version, six drivers are hierarchically arranged: 1, management (cutting/grazing); 2, phenology; 3, air temperature; 4, light interception; 5, water availability; 6, N availability. They are hierarchically arranged as follows: 151

$$HSf_{i,q}(t) = \begin{cases} Sf_{i,q}(t) & q = 1\\ \sqrt{HSf_{i,q-1}(t)} \cdot Sf_{i,q}(t) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
(4)

Applying Eq. (3) to the case of
$$z=6$$
, the result is:
 $HSf_{-}(t) = Sf_{-}(t)$
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$$HS_{f_{i,1}(t)} = S_{f_{i,1}(t)}$$

$$HS_{f_{i,2}(t)} = \sqrt{S_{f_{i,1}(t)}} \cdot S_{f_{i,2}(t)}$$

$$HS_{f_{i,3}(t)} = \sqrt[4]{S_{f_{i,1}(t)}} \cdot \sqrt{S_{f_{i,2}(t)}} \cdot S_{f_{i,3}(t)}$$

$$US_{f_{i,3}(t)} = \sqrt[4]{S_{f_{i,1}(t)}} \cdot \sqrt{S_{f_{i,2}(t)}} \cdot S_{f_{i,3}(t)}$$
(5) 154

$$HSf_{i,4}(t) = \sqrt[3]{Sf_{i,1}(t)} \cdot \sqrt[3]{Sf_{i,2}(t)} \cdot \sqrt{Sf_{i,3}(t)} \cdot Sf_{i,4}(t)$$

$$HSf_{i,5}(t) = \sqrt[16]{Sf_{i,1}(t)} \cdot \sqrt[8]{Sf_{i,2}(t)} \cdot \sqrt[4]{Sf_{i,3}(t)} \cdot \sqrt{Sf_{i,4}(t)} \cdot Sf_{i,5}(t)$$

$$= \sqrt[32]{26} + \sqrt$$

$$HSf_{i,6}(t) = \sqrt[32]{Sf_{i,1}(t)} \cdot \sqrt[16]{Sf_{i,2}(t)} \cdot \sqrt[8]{Sf_{i,3}(t)} \cdot \sqrt[4]{Sf_{i,4}(t)} \cdot \sqrt{Sf_{i,5}(t)} \cdot Sf_{i,6}(t)$$

The methods for estimating the suitability functions of these drivers are described in Confalonieri [37] and Movedi 156 et al. [42]. The application within ModVege required some adaptations of the CoSMo suitability functions to the features 157 of the generic simulator. The ModVege-based implementation of the CoSMo suitability functions is described in the Supplementary material (section 2). 159

2.2. Study-site and experimental design

We refer to the long-term observational system of Theix (45° 43' N, 03° 01' E, 880 m a.s.l.), located in the Massif 161 Central of France (Supplementary material, Figure B). A designed experiment was established in 2005 on an area of ~3 162 ha, with the aim of analysing the response of permanent grasslands to changes in management practices [52] (Louault 163 et al., 2017). The site is equipped with a meteorological station, which provides hourly values of global radiation, air 164 temperature and precipitation, as well as soil temperature. The climate is semi-continental with a mean annual temper-165 ature of 8.7 °C and a mean yearly rainfall of 770 mm. It is essentially humid or sub-humid, according to the De Martonne-166 Gottmann aridity index [53], calculated annually as $b = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left[\frac{P_y}{T_y + 10} + 12 \cdot \left(\frac{p_a}{t_a + 10} \right) \right]$, where P_y (mm) is total annual precipi-167 tation, T_y (°C) is the mean annual temperature, p_a (mm) is the total precipitation of the driest month, T_a (°C) is the mean 168 monthly temperature of the driest month. The index *b* offers the possibility of discriminating different thermo-pluvio-169 metric conditions during the study period (Figure 1), based on the ranges of values published by Diodato and Ceccarelli 170 [54]: *b*<5: extreme aridity; 5≤*b*<14: aridity; 15≤*b*<19: semi-aridity; 20≤*b*<29: sub-humidity; 30≤*b*<59: humidity; *b*≥59: high 171 humidity. The highest value of the aridity index (the lowest aridity), *b*=46, was observed in 2010, a year with the highest 172 rainfall (885 mm). Exceptionally, 2015 was a semi-arid year with below average rainfall (585 mm) and the aridity index 173 *b*=18. 174

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Figure 1. Thermo-pluviometric regimes of the study-site according to the De Martonne-Gottmann aridity (yearly values).

The soil developed from granitic bedrock and has different characteristics in the upper layer of the experimental179site. The experimental design was thus repeated on two blocks or cambisol units, with block 1 being a eutric cambisol180and block 2 being a colluvic material (heterogeneous mixture). Differences in soil characteristics (Table 1) were also181observed in terms of botanical composition. At the initial stage, the most abundant species with a cumulative frequency182of ~80% were, in block 1, Cerastium glomeratum, Elymus repens, Festuca arundinacea, Lolium perenne, Poa pratensis, Taraxa-183cum officinale, i.e. six species, and in block 2, Agrostis capillaris, Alopecurus pratensis, Holcus lanatus, Lolium perenne, Poa184pratensis, Taraxacum officinale, Trifolium repens, Trisetum flavescens, i.e. eight species.185

Soil properties	Unit	Block 1		Block 2	
Layer thickness	m	0.10-0.20	0.20-0.40	0.10-0.20	0.20-0.40
Clay	%	19.7	17.0	23.0	25.0
Silt	%	26.9	27.4	26.1	24.2
Sand	%	53.4	55.6	51.0	50.8
Carbon content	g kg-1	40.3	18.5	43.1	15.1
рН	_	5.9	6.2	6.0	6.5
Bulk density	g cm ⁻³	0.94	1.23	0.89	1.18

Table 1. Soil properties of the grassland study-site.

Management prior to 2003 consisted of a mixed regime with one to two cuts for silage or hay, with applications of 189 mineral and organic fertilisers, followed by grazing in autumn. In the two years prior to the implementation of the 190 experiment (2003-2004), three annual cuts were applied without fertilisation. Since 2005, treatments were applied, dis-191 tinguishing between i) level of herbage utilisation by rotational grazing of cattle without fertilisation (i.e. disturbance 192 gradient; three treatments) and ii) level of fertilisation under a fixed mowing regime (i.e. nutrient availability gradient; 193 three treatments). Each treatment was repeated twice in each block, resulting in 28 plots. Cattle grazing treatments (not 194 used in this study) were applied on 2200 m² plots while smaller plots (350-400 m²) were either abandoned (Ab) or used 195 for fertilisation treatments. The fertiliser application was split in early spring, after the first and after the second mowing. 196

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Fertilisation treatments were: (1) NPK: annual addition of mineral nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium (on average 264 197 kg N ha⁻¹, 33 kg P ha⁻¹ and 189 kg K ha⁻¹); (2) PK: annual addition of mineral phosphorus and potassium (on average 26 198 kg P ha⁻¹ and 143 kg K ha⁻¹); (3) Null: no fertilisation. More details are in Louault et al. [52]. For the modelling, the data 199 corresponding to the NPK, Null and Ab treatments were used as a block mean (the PK treatment was not used). 200

2.3. Experimental data

Aboveground standing biomass and relative abundance of plant species were determined experimentally in mown and unmown plots. Biomass was harvested from the unmown (i.e. abandoned) plots for research purposes. Aboveground biomass (AGB hereafter) was determined in four sampling areas per plot $(0.3 \times 0.6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ in the abandonment and} 204$ $0.6 \times 0.6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ otherwise})$ at ~0.055 m height, harvested up to three times a year in May, July and October, after a cleaning cut at the end of winter. The sampling area was moved within the plot at each cutting date and the aboveground biomass was removed at the beginning of the regrowth period. Herbage samples were oven dried (60 °C, 48 h). For mown plots, annual herbage production was calculated as the sum of the three sampling dates. 208

The relative abundance of plant species in each treatment was determined from 2006 to 2018 (all years except 2009), 209 using 40 pinpoints regularly spaced along two to three fixed transects. Presence/absence of species was recorded at each 210 of the 40 pinpoints. The relative abundance of each species was calculated at the plot level [55], normalised to the sum of presences of all species and expressed as a percentage. 212

The total number of plant species recorded at least once in blocks 1 and 2 during the study period of ~50 in the 213 Null treatments, compared to ~35-40 with full fertilisation or abandonment (Supplementary material, Table A), reflects 214 the positive effect of cutting and no N input on species richness [56]. In this study (and in agreement with Movedi et al. 215 [42]), we based the modelling work on the relative abundances of dominant species or functional groups. In order to 216 limit the uncertainties related to the initialisation and parameterisation of minor groups/species, a practical threshold 217 of 0.04 (4%) of the mean relative abundance during the simulated period was set in order to exclude groups/species 218 present with an abundance lower than this threshold. For modelling purposes, the relative abundances of the dominant 219 types/species were then recalculated by relating the relative abundance of each species (Table 2) or functional types 220 (Table 3) to the sum of the abundances. For instance, Lolium perenne was excluded from the list of dominant species in 221 the block 1 treatments, with 2.0% (NPK) and 2.8% (Null), and in the block 2 abandonment, with 0.3%. On the other 222 hand, it was included in the simulated species of the NPK and Null treatments in block 2, where its relative abundance 223 is ~9%. Similarly, Holcus lanatus was excluded from the NPK treatment in block 1, where it is present at ~1%, while its 224 presence amounts to ~8% in the same treatment in block 2, and is below the critical threshold in all other treatments 225 except the Ab treatment in block 2, where it is at the 4% abundance threshold. We also underline that, when present, 226 Stellaria media is at the 4% abundance threshold in the fertilised treatment of both blocks. It can also be seen that Poa 227 pratensis is the only species present in all situations, while occasional forbs such as Galium aparine (block 1) and Urtica 228 dioica (both blocks) are only present in the abandoned plots (about 4-7% on average and mostly absent in the first years; 229 Table D in Supplementary material). One only legume species, Trifolium repens, is present above the 4% threshold (10-230 11%) in both the unfertilised mown treatments. The selected species have a total abundance \geq 70%, and even \geq 80% in 231 the NPK treatments (Table 2). 232

NPK				Null			Ab		
Species	Relative abundances		Species	Relative a	bundances	Species	Relative abundances		
	Obs	Rec		Obs	Rec		Obs	Rec	
				Block 1					
Elymus repens	0.26	0.31	Achillea millefo- lium	0.04	0.06	Alopecurus pratensis	0.13	0.17	
Festuca arun- dinacea	0.09	0.11	Elymus repens	0.05	0.07	Arrhe- natherum ela- tius	0.04	0.05	

Table 2. Relative abundances of dominant species (two blocks and three treatments). Mean values observed over the233study period (Obs) were recalculated (Rec) with respect to the dominant species.234

Lolium multi- florum	0.07	0.09	Festuca arundi- nacea	0.09		0.13	Dactylis glo- merata	0.04	0.05
Poa pratensis	0.15	0.17	Holcus lanatus	0.05		0.07	Elymus re- pens	0.27	0.35
Stellaria media	0.04	0.05	Poa pratensis	0.12		0.17	Festuca arun- dinacea	0.06	0.07
Taraxacum of- ficinale	0.21	0.25	Poa trivialis	0.05		0.08	Galium apa- rine	0.04	0.05
			Taraxacum offi- cinale	0.16		0.22	Poa pratensis	0.16	0.20
			Trifolium repens	0.14		0.29	Urtica dioica	0.04	0.05
Sum	0.82	1.00	Sum	0.70		1.00	Sum	0.78	1.00
Nb. of		6	Nh of species		8		Nb. of		8
species		0	ind. of species		0		species		0
				Block 2					
Achillea millefolium	0.06	0.07	Achillea millefo- lium	0.04		0.07	Alopecurus pratensis	0.30	0.46
Alopecurus pratensis	0.18	0.23	Alopecurus pra- tensis	0.08		0.11	Arrhe- natherum ela- tius	0.06	0.08
Holcus lana- tus	0.07	0.08	Festuca arundi- nacea	0.05		0.07	Elymus re- pens	0.04	0.07
Lolium pe- renne	0.06	0.07	Lolium perenne	0.09		0.13	Holcus lana- tus	0.04	0.07
Poa pratensis	0.17	0.20	Poa pratensis	0.12		0.18	Poa pratensis	0.11	0.18
Stellaria media	0.04	0.05	Taraxacum offi- cinale	0.13		0.18	Urtica dioica	0.09	0.14
Taraxacum of- ficinale	0.15	0.19	Trifolium repens	0.11		0.15			
Trisetum fla- vescens	0.08	0.10	Trisetum flaves- cens	0.08		0.12			
Sum	0.80	1.00	Sum	0.70		1.00	Sum	0.72	1.00
Nb. of species		8	Nb. of species		8		Nb. of species		6

In terms of functional grass typologies, type C was only marginally present in the unfertilised and abandoned treatments of block 2 (or absent for the rest), where the dominating groups A, B and b covered nearly 100% of abundances (Table 3).

Table 3. Relative abundances of functional groups (grass species in two blocks and three treatments). Mean values observed over240the study period (Obs) were recalculated (Rec) with respect to the dominant groups.241

NPK Null Ab	
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Functional	Relative abundances		Relative a	bundances	Relative abundances				
group	Obs	Rec	Obs	Rec	Obs	Rec			
Block 1									
А	0.07	0.07	0.21	0.21	0.24	0.24			
В	0.45	0.45	0.49	0.49	0.34	0.34			
b	0.48	0.48	0.30	0.30	0.42	0.42			
Sum	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00			
Block 2									
А	0.47	0.47	0.39	0.40	0.59	0.61			
В	0.33	0.33	0.32	0.32	0.27	0.28			
b	0.20	0.20	0.28	0.28	0.11	0.11			
Sum	1.00	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.97	1.00			

Biomass yield and abundance data for plant types and species used for the modelling work are summarised in Table B and Tables C and D of Supplementary material, respectively. 244

2.4. Simulation design and model evaluation

Simulations were designed and model evaluation carried out to determine whether (i) CoSMo-based ModVege 246 solutions simulated the relative abundance of plant (grass) functional types and species, and (ii) differences in simulated 247 AGB were caused by the explicit simulation of plant diversity, by comparing the CoSMo-based and stand-alone 248 ModVege solutions. Standalone (ModVege) and coupled (ModVege-CoSMo) modelling solutions were configured us-249 data retrieved from the CLIMATIK database (through ing daily weather the INRAE portal, 250 https://www6.paca.inrae.fr/agroclim/Les-outils) and management data as determined at the experimental site, and pa-251 rameterised for each treatment of both blocks (Supplementary material). In particular, simulations were performed with 252 common sets of ModVege and CoSMo parameters (Table E and Table H) and type- and plant-specific parameters for 253 either ModVege (Tables F and G) or CoSMo (Tables I and J). Some ModVege parameters were extracted from published 254 literature for (grass-based) functional types [25]. Otherwise, the datasets described in Section 2.3 were used for the 255 calibration of models parameters. ModVege stand-alone was first run for each functional type separately (A, B and b) 256 and then the daily community AGB was obtained as a weighted mean of the three functional types, using for each 257 treatment the mean abundances of each type over the period 2006-2018 (Table 3) as a weighting factor. The calibration 258 work was carried out through a trial-and-error process comparing the model estimates with observational data while 259 ensuring biologically interpretable plant parameters by modifying their values within plausible ranges. For instance, 260 the parameters ST1=800 °C-d and ST2=1200 °C-d of Galium aparine (Table G) were adapted from the ranges of values 261 provided by Theau et al. [20], and a similar approach was adopted for the other species. For the functional types, the 262 maximum leaf area index values (LAImax>9 m² m⁻²; Table I) were calibrated to the upper limit of the LAI of grasslands, 263 which is rarely higher than 10 [57]. As well, as the canopy height varies by several folds, mainly from 0.25 to 1.50 m 264 [58], the maximum plant height (MaxHeight) was calibrated below the upper limit of 2.0 m [59]. For specific leaf area 265 (SLA), we used (Table G) the values provided by Bourdôt [60] for Achillea millefolium (0.017 m² g⁻¹) and by Ianovici et al. 266 [61] for Taraxacum officinale (0.048 m² g⁻¹), while the SLA value used for Urtica dioica (0.023 m² g⁻¹) is the one provided by 267 Gulías et al. [62] for Urtica atrovirens, and for Galium aparine and Trifolium repens, 0.048 m² g⁻¹ and 0.018 m² g⁻¹, are within 268 the ranges of values provided by Poorter and de Jong [63] and Nölke et al. [64], respectively. Theau et al. [20] also 269 provided ranges of values for maximum plant heights (e.g. from <0.4 for Taraxacum officinale, Stellaria media and Trifolium 270 repens to >0.9 m for Galium aparine, Achillea millefolium and Urtica dioica) to which we have referred for the calibrated 271 values attributed to this CoSMo parameter (Table J). For each type/species, the first determined (and recalculated) rela-272 tive abundance was used to initialise CoSMo at the start of the simulation (2006, 1 January). 273

The agreement between simulated and observed values of AGB and relative abundance of plant types/species (the 274 latter only for CoSMo-based modelling solutions) was evaluated according to five commonly used metrics (*RRMSE*, 275 *RMAE*, R^2 , *R*, *CRM*) of model performance [65]. The relative root mean square error (optimum, $0 \le RRMSE$ (%)< ∞) and 276

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the relative mean absolute error (optimum, $0 \le RMAE$ (%) $\le \infty$) indicate how far the estimates are from the actual data: 277 both explain this concept in relative terms (percentage over the mean), the former in square terms and the second in 278 absolute terms. Squaring emphasises larger differences, a feature that results in giving more weight to large deviations. 279 Algebraically, *RMAE* < *RRMSE* (due to the influence of squaring larger values), with these metrics being approximately 280 equal if the absolute differences are of similar magnitude. This suggests that the absolute differences are more robust 281 (less sensitive) to large biases than squared differences. The coefficient of determination ($0 \le R^2 \le 1$, optimum) is the 282 squared measure of the linear correlation coefficient ($-1 \le R \le 1$, optimum) between the estimates and the observations: it 283 assesses the goodness-of-fit of the model, i.e. the proportion of the observed variance explained by the estimates. The 284 coefficient of residual mass (CRM) is a measure of the tendency of the model to overestimate (CRM<0) or underestimate 285 (CRM>0) the observations. 286

We also evaluated the mean values of grassland community traits as estimated on a daily basis with CoSMo-based 287 solutions according to the relative abundance of species/types. In the absence of observations, the values of two canopy 288 traits (maximum height and specific leaf area) were appreciated for their variation over time, compared to the constant 289 values attributed to the corresponding parameters of the species/types composing the community. 290

3. Results

Results are presented via a set of performance metrics calculated separately by output, block and treatment for the 292 whole simulation period (Supplementary material). For AGB, we compared standalone ModVege and its CoSMo-based 293 solutions (Table K). The estimates of relative plant abundances obtained with the two CoSMo-based modelling solutions 294 were evaluated for both functional types (Table L) and species (Table M), either taken individually or aggregated by 295 taxonomic groups and for the whole community. 296

3.1. Evaluation of modelling solutions for grassland biomass production

CoSMo-based and standalone modelling solutions performed similarly (Supplementary material, Table K) with 298 <1.2 t ha⁻¹ AGB difference between simulations and observations on average (*RRMSE~70%*, *RMAE~54%* on average). In 299 most cases, CRM values were negative, indicating a general model overestimation of the observed AGB (with the ex-300 ception of CoSMo-based versions in the abandoned plots, with CRM from 0.07 to 0.12). The unfertilised (stressed and 301 perturbed) plots were the most difficult to simulate (RRMSE>100%). Although error amounts were lower for abandoned 302 plots (RRMSE~40%, RMAE<40%), with no substantial differences between modelling solutions, simulated and observed 303 data were less correlated (R~0.4) under these stressed (unperturbed) conditions, reflected in a limited fit ($R^2 \le 0.20$) as 304 data points do not line up around the 1:1 identity line (Figures C, D and E in Supplementary material). Overall, all three 305 modelling solutions accounted for the decreasing trend in biomass production (annual anomalies) over the simulation 306 period (Figure 2). In the NPK and Null treatments, R-values ranged from 0.60 (with ModVege-CoSMo for functional 307 types under NPK 1) to 0.85 (with ModVege-CoSMo for the functional types under Null 2), while the quality of the 308 simulations of the abandoned plots was deteriorated towards the end of the simulation period. Some discrepancies 309 between simulations and observations were also observed in the years 2008 to 2011, in the transition between mostly 310 positive and mostly negative observed anomalies. 311

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Figure 2. Annual anomalies of aboveground biomass (AGB), observed and simulated with alternative modelling solu-313tions in three treatments (NPK: fertilised; Null: unfertilised; Ab: abandoned) and two blocks (1, 2). Annual mean values314of AGB: NPK 1: 2895 kg DM ha⁻¹; NPK 2: 2477 kg DM ha⁻¹; Null 1: 1417 kg DM ha⁻¹; Null 2: 1197 kg DM ha⁻¹; Ab 1: 5245315kg DM ha⁻¹; Ab 2: 4683 kg DM ha⁻¹.316

3.2. Evaluation of modelling solutions for grassland biomass production

3.2.1. Relative abundance of plant (grass) functional types

Overall, the accuracy of ModVege-CoSMo in simulating the relative abundance of plant functional types was satisfactory (Table L in Supplementary material, Figure 3). Type b had the highest correlation coefficient in block 2 NPK (R=0.95), and type A had the lowest in block 2 abandonment (R=0.04). However, the model accurately simulated the fluctuations of functional types with sufficient accuracy in all treatments, with *RRMSE* rarely >30% (i.e. types B and b in block 2 abandonment with 35.4% and 36.1%, respectively; Figure J), and <10% in fertilised treatments (i.e. type A and type b in block 2, with 9.0% and 9.2%, respectively; Figure F). The performance metrics improved at the community level (R>0.70 and *RRMSE*<25%).

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Figure 3. Observed (dots) and ModVege-CoSMo simulated (lines) fluctuations in the relative abundance of plant (grass) 328 functional types in three treatments (NPK: fertilised; Null: unfertilised; Ab: abandoned) and two blocks (1, 2). Type A: 329 grass species of fertile environments, small, with an early phenology and a short life span of the leaves; Type B: grass 330 species of fertile environments, larger, with a moderately early phenology and a longer leaf life than type A; Type b: 331 grass species preferring relatively fertile environments but differing from the two previous groups in their late 332 phenology. Graphs of the individual plant (grass) functional types are in Supplementary material (Figures F-J). 333

3.2.2. Relative abundance of plant (grass) functional types

The accuracy of ModVege-CoSMo in simulating the relative abundance of plant species was generally satisfactory 336 (Table M, Figure 4). For the grasses, i.e. the dominant taxonomic group, the mean *RRMSE* is <40% (*RMAE*<30%). Mean 337 RRMSE~50% (RMAE~40%) calculated for forbs reflects the inaccuracies associated with two minor species (with three 338 RRMSE values >100%): Galium aparine (block 1 abandonment; Figure O) and Stellaria media (NPK in both blocks; Figures 339 K and L). While both are present at the 4% limit on average (Table 2), Galium aparine was notably absent in the first years 340 of the study period (from 2006 to 2012), when the model estimated some presence of this species (Figure O). Observed 341 and simulated means for all grasses or forbs tend to converge, with a maximum departure of 6% abundance in block 1 342 Ab (0.90 versus 0.84 for grasses and 0.10 versus 0.16 for forbs). 343

Of grass species, Festuca arundinacea (RRMSE~38-56%) and Lolium perenne (RRMSE~24-34%) had the best R-values, 344 respectively in the abandoned plot of block 1 (R=0.91) and in the fertilised plot of block 2 (R=0.90). The worst R-value, 345 observed for Trisetum flavescens in block 2 Null (R=0.04), reflects only a few data departing from the observations at the 346 end of the simulation period (e.g. 2015, 2016, 2017; Figure N), which are compatible with satisfactory error amounts 347 (RRMSE=36.4%, RMAE=27.4%). The lowest simulation errors (RRMSE=11.4%, RMAE=8.5%) were obtained with Elymus 348 repens in the abandonment of block 1 (Figure O). Another dominant grass, Poa pratensis (Figures K-P), shows mostly 349 RRMSE<30% - in NPK 1 and 2 (Figures K-L), Null 2 (Figure N) and Ab 1 (Figure O) - or RRMSE<50% in Null 1 (45.5%, 350 Figure M) and Ab 2 (36.2%, Figure P). A dominant forb (absent in abandoned plots), Taraxacum officinale, shows RRMSE 351 values <25% (RMAE<20%) in block 1 NPK (16.2% and 12.6%; Figure K) and Null (12.4% and 9.8%; Figure M) and in 352 block 2 Null (22.8% and 18%; Figure N), with RRMSE=31.1% (RMAE=24.1). Overall, the dynamics of Trifolium repens in 353

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the unfertilised mown treatments were also reproduced (Figure M and Figure N), although some discrepant values in 354 the most recent years (RRMSE~62-77%; RMAE~49-62%). It was then shown that changes in ModVege-CoSMo accuracy 355 are not related with the number of plant species in the community, with community RRMSE values ranging from ~30% 356 to ~46% with six species (block 1 NPK and block 2 Ab) and from ~28% (block 2 Null) to ~52% (block 1 Null) with eight 357 species. 358



Figure 4. Observed (dots) and ModVege-CoSMo simulated (lines) fluctuations in the relative abundance of plant species 361 in three treatments (NPK: fertilised; Null: unfertilised; Ab: abandoned) and two blocks (1, 2). Graphs of the individual plant species are in Supplementary material (Figures K-P). 363

The resulting feedback between plant species parameter values and modelled relative abundance of species (or 365 types; Supplementary material, Figure Q and Figure R) permits a dynamic in defining community traits like, e.g. SLA 366 (Figure 5) and maximum canopy height (Figure 6), whose values change during the simulation depending to the relative 367 abundance of the species. For instance, the SLA values of the block 1 NPK community fluctuating around ~35 m² kg⁻¹ 368 correspond to the value assigned to *Poa pratensis* and *Elymus repens* (Supplementary material, Table F), dominant b-type 369 grasses (with 31% and 17%, respectively; Table 2) with the environmental and management factors at work in the 370 fertilised block 1 community. In this treatment, the modelled decline in community SLA is largely explained by the 371 modelled (and observed) decline of Taraxacum officinale (Supplementary material, Figure K), a forb with high SLA (48 372 m² kg⁻¹; Supplementary material, Table G). Likewise, in block 2 NPK, dominated by the A-type grass Alopecurus pratensis 373 (with 23% and SLA=44 m² kg⁻¹; Table 2 and Supplementary material, Table G), community SLA declines below ~35 m² 374 kg⁻¹ as a consequence of the decline of *Taraxacum officinale* (Supplementary material, Figure L). 375

With regard to the estimated values of maximum canopy height, their increase in the Ab community of block 1 376 reflects the (observed and simulated) increased abundance of two tall grass species, Alopecurus pratensis and 377

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Arrhenatherum elatius (Supplementary material, Figure O), which have calibrated maximum heights of 1.1-1.2 m 378 (Supplementary material, Table J). 379

Figure 5. Daily changes in the specific leaf area (SLA) of the community during the simulation period compared to the fixed values set for the plant species (coloured lines as in Figure 4) present in the community (horizontal lines, 383 overlapping for the same values) for three treatments (NPK: fertilised; Null: unfertilised; Ab: abandoned) and two 384 blocks (1, 2). 385



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Figure 6. Daily changes in the maximum height of the community during the simulation period compared to the fixed 388 values set for the plant species (coloured lines as in Figure 4) present in the community (horizontal lines, overlapping 389 for the same values) for three treatments (NPK: fertilised; Null: unfertilised; Ab: abandoned) and two blocks (1, 2). 390

4. Discussion

4.1. Plant biomass simulation

Our results show that there is not always an adequate estimate of AGB by ModVege under different treatments, 393 which also holds true with CoSMo-based modelling solutions. This indicates that the investigated grassland model is 394 not yet sufficiently developed to capture the complexity of interactions between weather fluctuations, soil properties, 395 floristic composition and the resilience of grassland communities to environmental stresses and management factors. 396 However, discontinuous biomass measurements contain rather large uncertainties, mainly due to the spatial 397 heterogeneity of grassland covers [66], which make model evaluation difficult [67, 68]. Even in this study, it is worth 398 examining some issues with the experimental data, which may explain some of the discrepancies observed between the 399 modelling solutions and the measurements. In 2008, the first biomass determination was postponed to the end of June 400 (instead of the normal end of May; Table B in Supplementary material) because the soil was waterlogged and the 401 harvesting machine could not be put into the field earlier (due to the reduced bearing capacity of the soil). The biomass 402 measurements were thus carried out on a canopy that had accumulated a lot of biomass at a very early stage of 403 reproductive development. The high biomass observed in the first determination (after the clean-up determination) of 404 2008 (up to ~9 t DM ha-1 in block 1 NPK, Table B in Supplementary material), compared to other years, is thus more 405 likely due to a late harvest (which allowed time for biomass accumulation) than to different weather conditions. Plants 406 experienced some dry conditions early in the growing season in subsequent years with, for instance, a total reported 407 precipitation of 161 mm from January to May in 2011 against ~300 mm in other years (from 211 mm in 2015 to 453 mm 408 in 2016). In particular, in 2011, precipitation data indicate a relatively dry winter and spring (309 mm of total 409 precipitation between November 2010 and June 2011), with a water deficit in April and soil water content remaining 410 below average during May [69]. Thus, biomass production was lower than in other years in the first determinations of 411 2011, which is also one of the warmest year in the time-series, with three days with maximum air temperature >35 °C 412 detected at a nearby station [70]. This likely also reflects the lasting effects of the sequence of heatwaves that had 413 occurred since 2009 [69]. 414

Most problematic was the simulation of biomass in the abandonment treatment, a condition for which ModVege 415 was not explicitly developed. Abandoned grasslands have complex vegetation structures that share environmental 416 conditions with both open habitats and forests. At the study site, the abandoned grasslands are in an early succession 417 stage, their vegetation structure is still more similar to open habitats than to forests, and we hypothesised that 418 abandoned plots partly may act as managed grasslands. However, community similarity was relatively low, indicating 419 that the dense sward found in abandoned plots created different environmental conditions (e.g. shade limiting light 420 availability for emerging plants) compared to the mown grasslands. In particular, the vegetation cut at ground level 421 included much of dead biomass components, which have increased along the years. The biomass sampled in summer 422 (in July or August) was more similar to that of the mown grasslands, as it did not contain much dead biomass from the 423 previous year's growth or that of the current growing season (which is more present in the autumn sample). The 424 assessment at the summer sampling date (Table 4) indicates that, on average, the three modelling solutions tended to 425 converge with the observations: <1.0 t ha-1 deviation down to ~0.1 t ha-1 with the CoSMo-based functional group solution 426 in block 2. The simulations continue to indicate difficulties for all three modelling solutions to capture interannual 427 variability in AGB. Deviations from observations of up to ~3.7 t ha-1 with ModVege standalone in 2018 in block 1 were 428

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Table 4. Evaluation of alternative modelling solutions for the simulation of aboveground biomass in the summer431sampling of the abandoned plots (two blocks). Grey cells indicate the best performance. FG: functional groups.432

		Observed	ModVege		ModVege-	CoSMo FG	ModVege-CoSMo Species		
Year	doy	biomass	Simulated biomass	Difference	Simulated biomass	Difference	Simulated biomass	Difference	
					Block 1				
2006	200	6742	6302	-440	5509	-1233	5503	-1239	
2007	213	5781	8465	2684	7581	1800	7678	1897	
2008	218	8116	7955	-161	7049	-1067	7072	-1044	
2009	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
2010	201	7734	6372	-1362	5445	-2289	5592	-2142	
2011	201	5674	4736	-938	3848	-1826	3675	-1999	
2012	201	8560	6934	-1626	5992	-2568	6111	-2449	
2013	198	6655	6495	-160	5587	-1068	5579	-1076	
2014	203	6755	6357	-398	5447	-1308	5401	-1354	
2015	202	4056	3591	-465	2890	-1166	2717	-1339	
2016	202	4789	6955	2166	6026	1237	6051	1262	
2017	205	4498	6332	1834	5376	878	5370	872	
2018	204	3005	6744	3739	5822	2817	5758	2753	
Me	an	6030	6437	406	5548	-483	5542	-488	
Minir	num	3005	3591	-1626	2890	-2568	2717	-2449	
Maxiı	num	8560	8465	3739	7581	2817	7678	2753	
					Block 2				
2006	199	4576	6069	1493	5240	664	5124	548	
2007	213	6822	8197	1375	7250	428	7285	463	
2008	218	5832	7810	1978	6867	1035	6866	1034	
2009	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
2010	201	8061	5982	-2079	5005	-3056	5135	-2926	
2011	201	3867	5048	1181	4211	344	3945	78	
2012	200	8227	6576	-1651	5664	-2563	5739	-2488	
2013	198	7003	6395	-608	5494	-1509	5440	-1563	
2014	203	6592	7859	1267	6948	152	5401	-1191	
2015	202	3652	3911	259	3107	-545	2923	-729	
2016	202	5131	6670	1539	5738	607	5786	655	
2017	205	4312	6101	1789	5198	886	5169	857	
2018	204	3656	6631	2975	5728	2072	5630	1974	
Me	an	5661	6437	776	5538	-124	5405	548	
Minir	num	3652	3911	-2079	3107	-3056	2910	-2926	

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Maximum	8227	8197	2975	7250	2072	6989	1974

Beyond the observational issues, the low modelling performance is not surprising, as simulations for grassland 434 biomass are generally less accurate compared to cereal crops [71]. It is also a fact that the simulated biomass dynamics 435 are essentially dissimilar between different grassland models, with shortcomings in the estimation of soil water content 436 dynamics [72] (Sándor et al., 2017). As well, ModVege simplifies plant growth simulation, with constant ratios of the 437 above- to below-ground biomass allocation and plant water availability linked to fractional water content through a 438 simple bucket approach used to assess the water reserve [49]. Taken together, these simplifications affect the accuracy 439 of simulations of transpiration and soil water content. Consequently, to improve the performance of plant water 440 demand and consumption simulation, a more detailed hydrological model should be integrated with the growth model. 441

Another important limitation of ModVege is that it assumes fixed values of the nutrition index, whereas in reality 442 the availability of N and other nutrients varies with season, environmental conditions and management. In the context 443 of the present study, the issue is relevant because N availability is highly dependent on management. The scope of the 444 model thus needs to be extended to include important processes that determine the nutritional status of the plant 445 community, such as a root compartment, components to simulate mineral and organic N cycling in the soil, and a 446 description of fertilisation [73]. Since legume fixers represent an important component of grassland communities, 447 contributing to maintaining high productivity under low N-fertiliser supply, consideration should also be given to 448 including a model component to simulate symbiotic N fixation [74]. 449

In addition, drought can cause changes in grassland dynamics through physiological responses [75]. The ability of 450 some species to resist or avoid water stress through enhanced water uptake at low soil water potentials [76, 77], which 451 is not currently taken into account in ModVege, may be important for understanding the disparity of responses 452 observed in field studies. 453

Beyond eco-physiological responses, long-term changes related to grassland-community composition should be 454 considered [78, 79]. Here, the aim was not merely to assess the quality of AGB simulations by ModVege, but to evaluate 455 this grassland model in comparison with solutions that introduce complexity in the modelling structure to represent 456 plant dynamics (either species or functional types). The results are encouraging because, although the quality of the 457 biomass simulations did not improve, it was not degraded by the complexity introduced. A pertinent point is that with 458 CoSMo, it becomes possible for grassland simulators to obtain estimates of AGB while dynamically representing the 459 relative abundance of plant species/types in mixed communities, a useful outcome for obtaining valuable information 460 on a variety of ecosystem services provided by grasslands [80]. The use of a simplified plant-growth model structure, 461 in conjunction with a plant dynamics module, proved useful as it allowed the properties of CoSMo to emerge, without 462 interactions with the detailed biogeochemical processes of C and N cycles. CoSMo-like approaches could thus be more 463 effective in simulating grassland biomass than in this study, as biophysical and biogeochemical issues are resolved. 464

4.2. Relative abundance simulation

The accuracy of ModVege-CoSMo in simulating the relative abundance of plant species in a community (RRMSE 466 in the range ~28-52%; Supplementary material, Table M) was similar to that found by Movedi et al. [42] with CropSyst-467 CoSMo (~28-64%) and Soussana et al. [81] with GEMINI (51%), the latter (individual-centred model) being much more 468 complex than CoSMo. The performances are also comparable to those of GRASSMIND (individual-based 469 biogeochemical model [82]), which, however, was only applied to represent the vegetation cover a limited number of 470 species (mixture of two grass and one forb species). 471

With a total of 17 species simulated (up to eight per treatment, Table 2), this study goes beyond Movedi et al. [42], 472 where a maximum of seven species were simulated together in a simplified grassland system (once a year mowing). In 473

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our study, seven CoSMo parameters (Table I in Supplementary material) were added to 40 vegetation parameters in 474 ModVege (24 functional type-specific parameters and 16 plant species-specific parameters; Tables F and G in 475 Supplementary material). In comparison, the generic crop model WOFOST [41] and the grassland model GEMINI [81] 476 would need ~100 parameters to characterise each species, and rapidly become increasingly complex as the number of 477 species in the community increases, which obscures their interpretability and ultimately limits the applicability of the 478 model. 479

Although limited to a single site, this study covers a variety of contrasting situations. They were not simulated 480 with the same accuracy, which allows some strengths and weaknesses of the modelling framework to be identified. The 481 satisfactory simulation of abundant grass species like Elymus repens and Alopecurus pratensis, but also Festuca arundinacea, 482 Lolium perenne and the ubiquitous Poa pratensis, is important in view of modelling studies in support of agronomic and 483 ecological objectives. Despite its classification as a weedy perennial grass for row crops, Elymus repens (couch grass) has 484 in fact characteristics (erect stem growth habit, high feeding quality, vegetative reproduction through rhizomes, 485 adaptation to a wide range of soil fertility and long seasonal growing periods) that make it an acceptable species for 486 pastures [83], which may play a role for forage production and erosion control in northern temperate climates [84]. Its 487 seeds are also eaten by several species of grassland birds [85]. Alopecurus pratensis (meadow foxtail) is also a pasture 488 grass, usually mown before flowering to preserve its feed value, and used by some lepidopterans and other insects as 489 a food plant [86]. Festuca arundinacea (tall fescue) is also an important forage crop under various fertility conditions, 490 whose beneficial attributes for low-fertility soils are the result of a symbiotic association with an endophytic fungus, 491 which increases soil C storage by limiting microbial and macro-faunal activity to decompose endophyte-infected 492 organic matter inputs and by increasing C inputs through plant production [87]. Lolium perenne (perennial ryegrass) is 493 an important perennial grass for turf grasses, globally one of the most important forage grasses, forming the basis of 494 grassland production in temperate pastures as it has a low, dense vegetation with good regrowth and tillering [88]. The 495 forage yield of *Poa pratensis* (bluegrass) is lower compared to other temperate grasses, but it has a good regrowth 496 capacity, responds well to intensive grazing, has good nutritional quality, is a food plant for various insects and is used 497 in mixtures with taller species [89]. 498

The performance indices highlighting some inaccuracies in the estimates for two minor edible wild forbs, *Stellaria* 499 *media* (common chickweed) and *Galium aparine* (cleavers), which are often considered as weeds, and thus of no interest 500 for fodder crops [90]. For instance, we obtained *RRMSE* values >100% (Table M in Supplementary material) for *Stellaria* 501 *media* in both fertilised plots and for *Galium aparine* in the abandoned plot of block 1, which can be explained by the 502 presence of a few data points deviating (with small absolute differences) from the general observed trend. In fact, 503 although the performance metrics are not entirely satisfactory, the visualisation of the simulated species dynamics 504 shown in the time-series plots is generally consistent with that of the observations (Figures K, L and O). 505

Our study also confirms other findings of a change in the abundance of some dominant species as an effect of the abandonment [91, 92]. For instance, this shift of species can be seen in the abandoned block 1 plot with a decline of important grass species (i.e. *Elymus repens, Festuca arundinacea, Poa pratensis*) and an increase of the grass *Alopecurus pratensis* and forbs (i.e. *Galium aparine, Urtica dioica*). Here, the important point is that the model was able to reproduce these dynamics (Figure O). For the one legume species (white clover), present in unfertilised mown treatments, the spikes in the simulated lines (Figures M-N) indicate that the N provided by the symbiotic fixation option of ModVege-CoSMo coupling needs to be refined.

These satisfactory simulations also support the expression of the distribution of plant trait values at the community 513 level by averaging the trait values weighted by the respective abundance of each species (community weighted mean 514 by Garnier et al. [93]), which functionally characterises plant communities in different environments in order to better 515 understand community assemblages [94]. For the SLA, for instance, the simulated trends (here estimated from the dominant species) reflect those determined by Louault et al. [52] up to 2012 for the entire set of species present in the canopy. 518

5. Conclusions

Based on the suitability-function rules of the Community Simulation Model (CoSMo), this study is one of the few 520 to consider explicit and dynamic modelling of the relative abundance of plants in grassland communities. Although 521 specific to the grassland model ModVege, it holds potential for extension to other vegetation models of similar structure, 522 as CoSMo provides a framework for estimating the response of grassland systems with biophysical models that is more 523 robust and comprehensive for complex vegetation covers than the mean parameterisation-based modelling paradigm. 524 The substantial agreement between the simulations and the experimental data, obtained in a set of environmental and 525 management options at a representative site of semi-natural grasslands of central France, demonstrates that CoSMo is 526 an appropriate approach for estimating the dynamic behaviour of plant species (or functional or taxonomic groups) in 527 a community. This is important because CoSMo has fewer parameters than other modelling approaches representing 528 plant abundance, is relatively easy to calibrate and allows the use of a single instance of a generic vegetation model. We 529 explored the parameter space of ModVege and its CoSMo-based solution under the specific climatic conditions of a 530 single study site, under varying soil and management situations, with manual calibration to obtain a set of reference 531 parameter values reflecting expert knowledge and simple adjustment strategies. The calibration work carried out 532 through a trial-and-error process allowed the model estimates to be compared with observed data, and the solution 533 obtained constitutes a satisfactory performance for two output variables (aboveground biomass and relative 534 abundances) according to a set of metrics. By contrasting trait values for individual species to aggregated values at the 535 community level, dynamically estimated functional traits can support predictions of community composition along 536 environmental gradients and provide a greater understanding of changing ecosystem functioning. However, the site-537 specific study and the limited number of situations used for modelling raises the need for broader model evaluation 538 work. First, this means that CoSMo-based ModVege may potentially be suitable for applications at other grassland sites 539 if the model parameters are documented for those sites other than the one investigated here. Then, it is desirable to 540 better understand the evolution of ecosystem functioning in the current context of global change in order to investigate 541 whether measures of aggregate traits at the community level can be modelled at local scales, projected over the long 542 term and upscaled across regions. 543

In conclusion, this study confirms that CoSMo-based solutions for grassland modelling can be easily implemented, 544 although some background knowledge is required to parameterise each individual species/type in a grassland 545 community. As the biophysical structure of CoSMo reflects important determinants of the functioning of grassland 546 systems, we thus advocate its use to predict the behaviour of relevant grassland outputs, with three caveats. We first 547 recommend further testing with grazing animals. Further tests are also required at a variety of sites, given the need to 548 evaluate the CoSMo approach in contrasting biogeographic regions (e.g. the Mediterranean region where annual self-549 seeding species are dominant). Then, the present study highlights the need to orient grassland research towards the 550 framing of dedicated functional trait measurements in the context of plant diversity and productivity observations for 551 the CoSMo-based modelling purposes. By advancing modelling to highlight the role of plant functional diversity in 552 grassland performance, this study is a springboard for supporting agro-ecological farming. More research on these lines 553 can be seen as the natural evolution of this study, with the aim of developing scalable solutions open to a wide range of 554 grassland types, while addressing the issues of re-use and interconnection of model components. 555

Supplementary Materials: Additional information is included in the supplementary file attached to the article.

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