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Fragmentation modulates the strong impact of habitat quality and plant cover on fertility and microbial activity of semiarid gypsum soils

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Received: 12 August 2011 / Accepted: 13 February 2012
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Abstract

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Background and aims Plant-soil interactions are a crucial component of ecosystem functioning. However, most global change studies focus on plant communities, with information on soil properties and performance being scarce. Our goal was to assess the individual and joint effect of habitat heterogeneity and three global change drivers (fragmentation, loss of habitat quality and climate change) on nutrient availability and soil microbial activity in Mediterranean gypsum soils.

Methods We collected soil samples from an experimental field site from large/small fragments, with high/low habitat quality, subjected to two levels of water availability (dry/mesic) and from two microhabitats (under the canopy of shrubs and in the open). We analyzed nutrient concentrations (C, N and P) and enzymatic activities (β -glucosidase, urease and acid phosphatase). *Results* C, N, P content, β -glucosidase, urease and acid phosphatase activities were higher under the canopy than in the open and in high- than in poor- habitat quality sites. These differences were exacerbated in small fragments.

Conclusions The strong interdependence between plant and soil was modulated by fragmentation in the Mediterranean gypsum soils studied. Drought did not exert a direct negative effect on soil properties, although the effect might arise under more intense drought or under drought taking place at times of the year different from those explored here. Results highlight the importance of considering several drivers simultaneously to forecast realistic ecosystem responses to global change.

Responsible Editor: Jeff R. Powell.

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (doi:10.1007/s11104-012-1184-9) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

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Keywords Enzymatic activities · Global change · Habitat quality · Fragmentation · Gypsum soil · Mediterranean ecosystem

Introduction

Soil nutrient availability is one of the most important factors influencing plant growth and ecosystem

Q1

50 functioning (Lambers et al. 1998). The distribution of
 51 nutrients in the soil is highly heterogeneous, which in
 52 turn affects the structure and composition of plant
 53 communities (Kruger 1979; Henkin et al. 1998).
 54 Moreover, several studies have shown that soil hetero-
 55 geneity can modulate the impact of global change
 56 drivers on plant communities (Maestre and Reynolds
 57 2006; Wacker et al. 2008). Soil nutrient heterogeneity
 58 is also associated with microbial activity (Gallardo and
 59 Schlesinger 1994), which in turn are responsible for
 60 essential processes in the ecosystem such as energy
 61 transformation, mineralization of plant litter and nutri-
 62 ent cycling (Panikov 1999). In agreement with this,
 63 recent studies have evidenced the importance of con-
 64 sidering the below-aboveground interactions of the
 65 biota to properly understand ecosystem functioning
 66 (van der Putten et al. 2009; Kardol and Wardle 2010;
 67 Garcia-Palacios et al. 2011).

68 Climatic conditions such as soil and air temperature
 69 and water availability affect enzyme activity through
 70 increased microbial growth and substrate availability
 71 (Noy-Meir 1973; Parkinson and Coleman 1991). Sev-
 72 eral studies have shown the importance of water avail-
 73 ability for both microbial activity (Kramer and Green
 74 2000; Li and Sarah 2003; Sardans and Penuelas 2005)
 75 and soil nutrient availability (Jensen et al. 2003; Sardans
 76 and Penuelas 2004). Consequently, changes in temper-
 77 ature or precipitation promoted by climate change are
 78 likely to alter nutrient cycles (Sardans and Penuelas
 79 2007) and nutrient availability for plants (Michelsen et
 80 al. 1999). This becomes especially important in Medi-
 81 terranean ecosystems, where global circulations models
 82 forecast reductions in precipitation and an increase in
 83 maximum temperatures together with heavier storms
 84 (Christensen 2007). Higher temperatures will further
 85 decrease soil water availability and exacerbate the
 86 effects of drought in these environments (Larcher
 87 2000), while heavy storms increase nutrient loss by
 88 lixiviation (Reynolds et al. 2004), and increased runoff
 89 decreases water infiltration (Wainwright 1996).

90 Besides climate change, other global change drivers
 91 such as land use changes and habitat fragmentation can
 92 have dramatic effects on microbial and enzymatic activ-
 93 ity and nutrient availability (Matias et al. 2010). Medi-
 94 terranean ecosystems have been profoundly
 95 transformed over centuries due to human activities such
 96 as farming or agriculture (Valladares et al. 2008). These
 97 have caused fragmentation and reductions in habitat
 98 quality, important threats for biodiversity and natural

99 resources conservation (Lavorel et al. 1998; Foley et
 100 al. 2005). Fragmentation decreases plant population size
 101 and increases isolation, which can lead to lower genetic
 102 variability and lower individual fitness and plant surviv-
 103 al (Lienert 2004; Aguilar et al. 2006). As a consequence,
 104 soils in fragmented landscapes may have reduced or-
 105 ganic inputs and thus reduced nutrient availability and
 106 cycling (Garcia et al. 2002). Reduced habitat quality has
 107 often been considered a result of habitat fragmentation
 108 (Harrison and Bruna 1999; Schleuning et al. 2008).
 109 However, in agricultural landscapes, changes in habitat
 110 quality may occur independently from fragmentation,
 111 through factors such as runoff and fertilizer drift into
 112 adjacent areas, intense ploughing, trampling or soil ero-
 113 sion (Boutin and Jobin 1998; Matesanz et al. 2009).
 114 Reduced habitat quality has also been associated to
 115 decreased plant cover and biological soil crust, which
 116 is translated into a meagre input of dead organic matter
 117 and a consequent decrease of microbial activities (Zak et
 118 al. 1994). However, the direct effect of habitat fragmen-
 119 tation and reduced habitat quality on soils attributes and
 120 performance remains largely unknown.

121 Interactions among global change drivers frequent-
 122 ly generate non-additive effects, which in turn either
 123 attenuate or exacerbate ecosystem responses to indi-
 124 vidual drivers (Zavaleta et al. 2003; Matesanz et al.
 125 2009). Several studies have addressed the interacting
 126 effects of global change drivers on ecosystems, but
 127 most of them have focussed on their influence on plant
 128 communities (Sala et al. 2000; Maestre and Reynolds
 129 2006; Matesanz et al. 2009), while information on
 130 microbial communities and soil nutrient availability
 131 is particularly scarce (Cookson et al. 2007; Casals et
 132 al. 2009; Matias et al. 2010).

133 Our main goal was to assess the individual and joint
 134 effects on nutrient availability and soil microbial activity
 135 of three global change drivers that are especially impor-
 136 tant for Mediterranean ecosystems: habitat fragmenta-
 137 tion, loss of habitat quality and water availability.
 138 Moreover, we assessed the influence of microhabitat
 139 heterogeneity (i.e. open vs. the understory of woody
 140 plants) and its interaction with these global change
 141 drivers on the same microbial and soil properties. We
 142 conducted a field experiment in a Mediterranean gyp-
 143 sum steppe with plots following a factorial design for
 144 the three drivers. Our working hypotheses were: (1)
 145 Habitat fragmentation, loss of habitat quality and reduc-
 146 tions in rainfall decrease plant survival and productivity
 147 which are strongly related to soil attributes and

148 performance (Garcia et al. 2002; Zak et al. 2003). This
149 in turn, will exert a negative effect on nutrient availabil-
150 ity and microbial activity of Mediterranean gypsum
151 soils; (2) synergistic interactions among drivers will
152 amplify the negative impact of loss of habitat quality
153 on soil nutrient availability (Matias et al. 2010); and (3)
154 nutrient availability and microbial activity will increase
155 under the canopy of shrubs in comparison with open
156 interspaces and this microhabitat heterogeneity will
157 modulate the influence of other global change drivers
158 as suggested on other plant communities (Reich et al.
159 2001; Maestre and Reynolds 2006).

160 Materials and methods

161 Study site

162 The study was carried out near Belinchón in central
163 Spain (745 m above sea level; 40° 03' N, 3° 03' O).
164 The landscape is composed by gypsum soil hills (av-
165 erage slope was $11.7 \pm 0.3^\circ$) with remnants of natural
166 vegetation interspersed in a matrix of dry-farm crops.
167 Natural vegetation is dominated by creeping and
168 cushion-like chamaephytes such as *Centaurea hysso-*
169 *pifolia* Vahl. (Compositae), *Helianthemum squama-*
170 *tum* (L.) Dum. Cours (Cistaceae), *Lepidium*
171 *subulatum* L. (Cruciferae), *Thymus lacaitae* Pau
172 (Labiatae) and *Teucrium pumilum* L. (Labiatae). Plant
173 cover is usually low (<30%), and bare soil areas are
174 often covered by a conspicuous biological soil crust,
175 dominated by specialised lichens (Martínez et al.
176 2006). The area has a Mediterranean semiarid climate,
177 with a mean annual precipitation of 433 mm, a pro-
178 nounced summer drought, and a mean annual temper-
179 ature of 13.8°C. The study was conducted over
180 2 years: 2005, which was the second driest year of
181 the 56-year series (298 mm annual precipitation), and
182 2006, also a drier-than-average year, with annual pre-
183 cipitation of 371 mm (see detailed precipitation data of
184 the study site in Online resource 1)

185 Experimental design and soil sampling

186 To test the effects of three global change drivers and
187 their interactions on soil features and performance and
188 to explore the effect of microhabitat, we conducted an
189 experiment with four controlled factors: fragmentation,
190 habitat quality, water availability and microhabitat. For

each factor two levels were selected: large (L) and small
191 (S) fragments, high (H) and poor (P) habitat quality,
192 mesic (M, watered plants) and dry (D, non watered
193 plants). Two microhabitats were considered for each
194 combination of factors, under the understory of *C. hys-*
195 *sopifolia* (U, Understory) and open areas near the target
196 plants (O, Open). We selected this plant species because
197 it is the largest and most abundant chamaephyte in the
198 local community.
199

To select the two levels of fragmentation we identified
200 three small (area <1.5 ha) and three large (area >11 ha)
201 fragments of natural vegetation (six fragments total)
202 which were further characterized by measuring several
203 vegetation attributes such as percentage of soil covered
204 by plants, lichens and mosses, annual plants, perennial
205 plants, litter and bare soil (see Online resource 2). Within
206 each fragment, we randomly selected two plots of ca.
207 15×15 m of contrasting high- and poor-habitat quality
208 (12 plots in total) according to plant cover as an integra-
209 tive indicator of habitat suitability (see Matesanz et al.
210 2009 for a detailed characterisation of each habitat qual-
211 ity level). Each plot was further divided into two contig-
212 uous halves that were randomly assigned to one watering
213 treatment. The irrigation experiment was conducted in
214 the spring (May and June) of 2005 and 2006, simulating
215 two different scenarios of water availability: non-
216 watered plants (dry treatment) and watered plants (mesic
217 treatment). Water was added to reach the median of the
218 long-term series (1948–2004) in each month (Fig. 1).
219 Plants were randomly selected within the mesic plot.
220 Irrigation was then applied at the plant-level and con-
221 sisted of adding 1 l of dechlorinated tap water per plant
222 and application time. A 50×50 cm (0.25 m^2) rigid frame
223 was placed around each watered plant so that the entire
224 surface was watered and all the plants received the same
225 amount of water, independently of their size. Each water
226 application was equivalent to 4-mm rainfall events. Irri-
227 gation was performed at 5–6 days intervals. The non-
228 watered (dry treatment) plants received ambient precipi-
229 tation (equivalent to future drier scenarios due to the
230 very dry spring conditions of the study years) and the
231 irrigated plants received ambient precipitation plus the
232 added water (equivalent to a typical year).
233

In July 2006, we randomly selected five plants per
234 irrigation treatment and we collected soil samples
235 from each microhabitat. The total number of soil sam-
236 ples was 240 (10 plants per plot x 12 plots x 2 micro-
237 habitats). We collected four sub-samples within the
238 perimeter where the irrigation treatment was carried
239

240	out with a 6×6×10 cm metal soil core for each sub-	within each level of the second factor. Normality and	285
241	sample, which were thoroughly mixed afterwards.	homogeneity of variance in the dependent variables	286
242	Once in the laboratory, soil samples were sieved	was tested prior to analyses by means of the	287
243	(2 mm grain) and air dried.	Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Levene's test. All sta-	288
244	Biochemical and microbiological analysis	tistical analyses were performed using Statistica 6.0	289
245	Total nitrogen (N) and total phosphorous (P) contents	(StatSoft Inc., Tulsa, OK, USA).	290
246	were determined by the Kjeldahl method (Radojevic		
247	and Bashkin 1999). Each soil sample was digested in	Results	291
248	96% sulphuric acid for 3 h at 415°C and nutrient	Soil nutrients	292
249	contents were determined through colorimetry by an	Total organic carbon, total N and total P were signif-	293
250	automatic wet chemistry analyzer (Skalar 4000 SAN	cantly higher in high quality habitats and under the	294
251	System, Segmented Flow Analyzer; Skalar, Breda,	understory of <i>C. hyssopifolia</i> (Fig. 2, Table 1). Loss of	295
252	The Netherlands). Total organic carbon (C) was deter-	habitat quality had the strongest impact. Fragmenta-	296
253	mined by Walkley and Black method (1934) modified	tion and water availability had no significant direct	297
254	by Yeomans and Bremmer (1989) by oxidation with	effects on total organic C, N and P.	298
255	potassium dichromate in acid medium and evaluating	We found significant interactions between factors	299
256	the excess of dichromate with 0.5 N ferrous ammoni-	ffecting all nutrients. The interaction between habitat	300
257	um sulphate.	quality and fragmentation had a significant effect on	301
258	β -glucosidase and acid phosphatase activities were	organic C (Table 1, Fig. 4a) and total N (Table 1,	302
259	estimated using Tabatabai method (1982), which deter-	Fig. 4b). Organic C was lower in small than in large	303
260	mined colorimetrically the amount of p-nitrophenol	fragments in poor habitat quality plots ($F=8.319$ $p=$	304
261	produced from p-nitrophenyl- β -D-glucopyranoside,	0.005), but not in high habitat quality plots ($F=0.299$,	305
262	and p-nitrophenyl-phosphate, respectively, after 1 h	$p=0.586$). Total N did not differ significantly between	306
263	of incubation at 37°C. The activities are expressed as	large and small fragments neither in high habitat qual-	307
264	grams of p-nitrophenol per gram of soil and hour	ity ($F=3.295$, $p=0.072$), nor in poor habitat quality	308
265	(Moreno et al. 2003). Urease activity was determined	plots ($F=3.451$, $p=0.066$). The interaction between	309
266	colorimetrically by Nannipieri method (1980) measur-	habitat quality and microhabitat had a significant ef-	310
267	ing total ammonium produced from a buffered urea	fect on total N (Table 1, Fig. 4c): total N did not differ	311
268	solution.	between open and understory in high habitat quality	312
269	Statistical analysis	plots ($F=3.237$, $p=0.075$), but it was significantly	313
270	The effects of the different fixed factors (fragmenta-	lower in poor habitat quality plots ($F=21.875$, $p<$	314
271	tion, habitat quality, water availability and microhab-	0.001). Finally, total P was affected by a significant	315
272	itat) on the dependent variables (total organic C, total	interaction between habitat quality and water avail-	316
273	N, total P, β -glucosidase, urease and acid phosphatase	ability (Table 1, Fig. 4d), but we did not find signifi-	317
274	activity) were analyzed using a four-way nested	cant differences between watering treatments within	318
275	ANOVA model. The model included fragmentation	levels of habitat quality ($F=0.340$, $p=0.560$; $F=$	319
276	(F, 1 df), habitat quality (Q, 1 df), water availability	4.248, $p=0.061$ for high- and low-habitat quality,	320
277	(W, 1 df) and microhabitat (MH, 1 df) as main fixed	respectively).	321
278	factors. Each sampling point was considered as a	Soil enzymatic activity	322
279	random factor nested within fragmentation level (sam-	β -glucosidase and acid phosphatase activities were	323
280	pling point (F), 4 df). We tested main effects of these	significantly affected by habitat quality and microhab-	324
281	fixed factors and also included all possible interactions	itat, with habitat quality having the strongest impact	325
282	between them. When significant interactions between	(Table 1, Fig. 3a, c). Urease activity was significantly	326
283	two factors were found, we performed a one-way	affected by microhabitat (Table 1, Fig. 3b). The	327
284	ANOVA to test for significant effects of one factor		

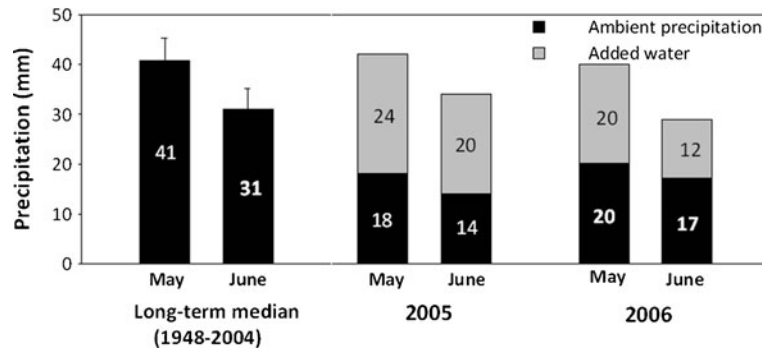


Fig. 1 Irrigation experiment. May and June precipitation medians (1948–2004 series) were used as a threshold for the irrigation treatment. Plants in the dry treatment received ambient

precipitation, and plants in the mesic treatment received ambient precipitation plus added water (through 4 mm events and up to the median for the corresponding month)

328 activity of enzymes decreased in poor habitat quality
 329 plots, and it was lower in the open than under the
 330 understory (Table 1, Fig. 3). We found no significant
 331 main effects of fragmentation and water availability on
 332 β -glucosidase, phosphatase and urease activity.

333 Phosphatase activity was significantly affected by the
 334 interaction between habitat quality and water availabil-
 335 ity (Table 1, Fig. 4e). Yet, we did not find significant
 336 differences between watering treatments within levels of
 337 habitat quality ($F=1.513, p=0.221$; $F=4.141, p=0.064$,

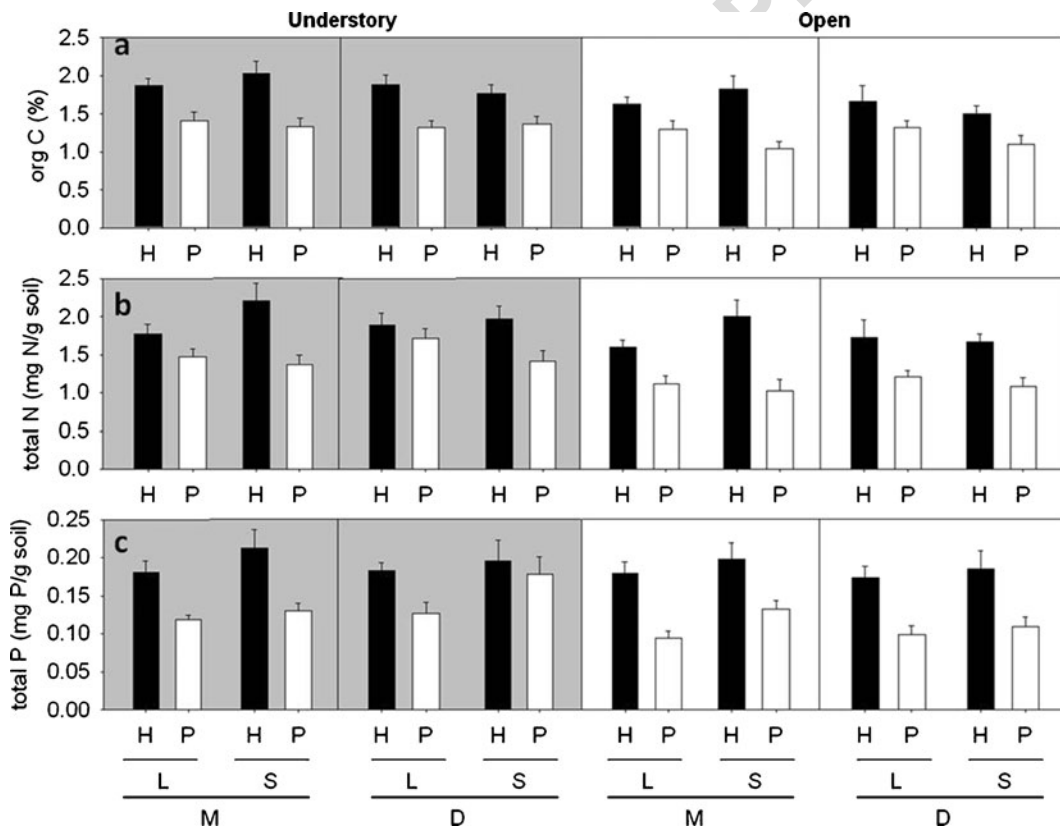


Fig. 2 Soil nutrient content across treatments. **a** Total organic C; **b** total N; **c** total P. Each half of a panel corresponds to data from understory (left) and open (right) microhabitats. Values are mean \pm SE in each treatment. Different colours indicate significant differences between microhabitats (background color) and

between high and poor habitat quality (bar colours). Abbreviations are: H, high-habitat quality; P, poor-habitat quality; L, large fragment; S, small fragment; M, mesic treatment (watered plants); D, dry treatment (non-watered treatments)

t1.1 **Table 1** ANOVA results (F and *p*-values) for the soil nutrient contents and soil enzymatic activity. *N*=240 soil samples. NS: not significant. See results section for direction of the effects. Significant effects (*p*<0.05 are indicated in bold)

t1.2		Total organic C		Total N		Total P		β- glucosidase		Phosphatase		Urease	
t1.3		F	<i>p</i>	F	<i>p</i>	F	<i>p</i>	F	<i>p</i>	F	<i>p</i>	F	<i>p</i>
t1.4	Fragmentation (F)	0.561	NS	0.002	NS	0.324	NS	0.642	NS	3.214	NS	2.850	NS
t1.5	Habitat quality (Q)	56.560	0.000	70.872	0.000	92.861	0.000	20.160	0.000	4.575	0.034	0.045	NS
t1.6	Water availability (W)	0.045	NS	0.259	NS	1.257	NS	1.005	NS	0.668	NS	2.482	NS
t1.7	Microhabitat (MH)	19.750	0.000	23.658	0.000	7.870	0.005	65.711	0.000	26.369	0.000	20.809	0.000
t1.8	Q × F	6.056	0.015	9.393	0.002	0.347	NS	3.505	NS	2.554	NS	4.214	0.041
t1.9	F × W	2.121	NS	1.865	NS	0.576	NS	3.260	NS	1.642	NS	1.085	NS
t1.10	Q × W	3.315	NS	2.902	NS	4.735	0.031	0.251	NS	6.214	0.013	0.169	NS
t1.11	F × MH	0.109	NS	0.000	NS	0.290	NS	0.011	NS	0.361	NS	0.286	NS
t1.12	Q × MH	0.008	NS	4.024	0.046	2.216	NS	0.597	NS	0.122	NS	0.153	NS
t1.13	W × MH	0.949	NS	0.098	NS	0.284	NS	0.610	NS	0.462	NS	2.436	NS
t1.14	F × Q × W	0.214	NS	0.596	NS	3.195	NS	0.664	NS	0.594	NS	0.431	NS
t1.15	F × Q × MH	0.132	NS	0.088	NS	0.000	NS	0.342	NS	2.435	NS	1.796	NS
t1.16	F × W × MH	0.048	NS	0.175	NS	0.032	NS	0.048	NS	0.102	NS	0.003	NS
t1.17	Q × W × MH	0.075	NS	0.039	NS	0.238	NS	0.017	NS	0.176	NS	0.158	NS
t1.18	F × Q × W × MH	1.467	NS	0.071	NS	0.354	NS	0.005	NS	0.099	NS	0.262	NS
t1.19	Sampling point(F)	4.291	0.002	10.440	0.000	85.840	NS	13.757	0.000	1.622	NS	14.997	0.000

338 for high- and low-habitat quality, respectively). Urease
 339 activity was also affected by the interaction between
 340 habitat quality and fragmentation (Table 1, Fig. 4f);
 341 the difference between large and small fragments
 342 was greatest in poor habitat quality plots. Urease
 343 activity was greater in small fragments, both under
 344 poor ($F=7.227$, $p=0.008$) and under high habitat
 345 quality ($F=28.861$, $p<0.001$).

346 Discussion

347 Effects of habitat quality and habitat heterogeneity

348 As expected, total organic carbon, N and P, β-
 349 glucosidase and acid phosphatase activities were sig-
 350 nificantly reduced in open interspaces and in low
 351 quality habitat sites. The relative influence of fragmen-
 352 tation, water availability and habitat quality was dif-
 353 ferent with a maximum impact associated with habitat
 354 degradation. The reduction of aboveground plant pro-
 355 ductivity in poor quality habitats underlies reduced
 356 organic C inputs, the main energy source for hetero-
 357 trophic microbial communities (Zak et al. 2003; Allen
 358 and Schlesinger 2004). This result agrees with

previous studies showing that microbial community
 composition and function depend directly on plant
 cover and soil organic matter content (Zak et al.
 1994; Garcia et al. 2002). Limited nutrient input also
 explains the decrease in N and P content and conse-
 quent decrease in β-glucosidase and phosphatase ac-
 tivities. These results suggest that plant abundance
 significantly affects soil microorganisms and the eco-
 system processes they mediate, like nutrient cycling
 (Schlesinger and Pilmanis 1998; Stephan et al. 2000;
 Tilman et al. 2001; Zak et al. 2003). Given that soil
 nutrient deficiencies limit plant growth (Henkin et al.
 1998; Fenner 2001; Sardans and Penuelas 2004), we
 can expect reduced enzymatic activity to indirectly
 affect plant growth, highlighting the strong interde-
 pendence between plant and microbe soil communi-
 ties, which involves positive feedbacks.

Microhabitat heterogeneity played an important
 role for soil properties, affecting both nutrient content
 and soil enzymatic activities. Higher enzymatic activ-
 ity underneath the canopy of *C. hysopifolia* and in
 high-quality sites may be due to the larger microbial
 and root biomass densities beneath the plants, which
 entails a faster nutrient intake and stimulates the syn-
 thesis and excretion of enzymes (Garcia et al. 2002;

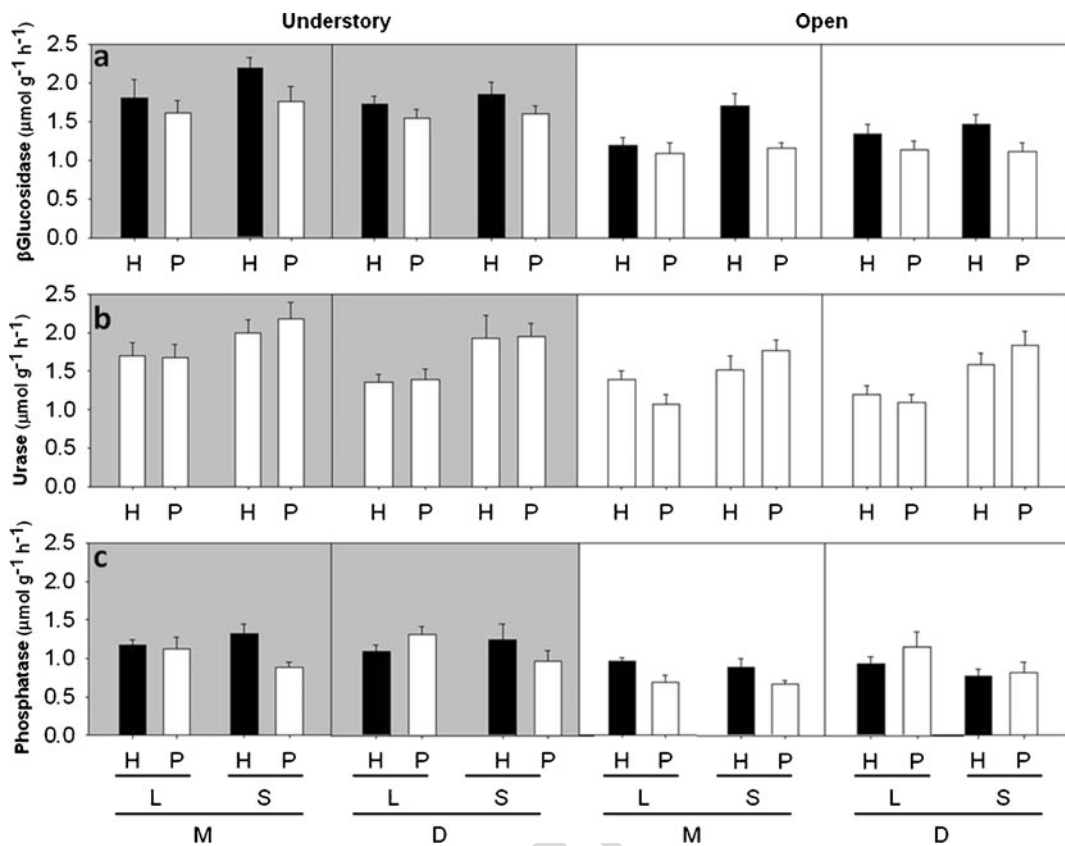


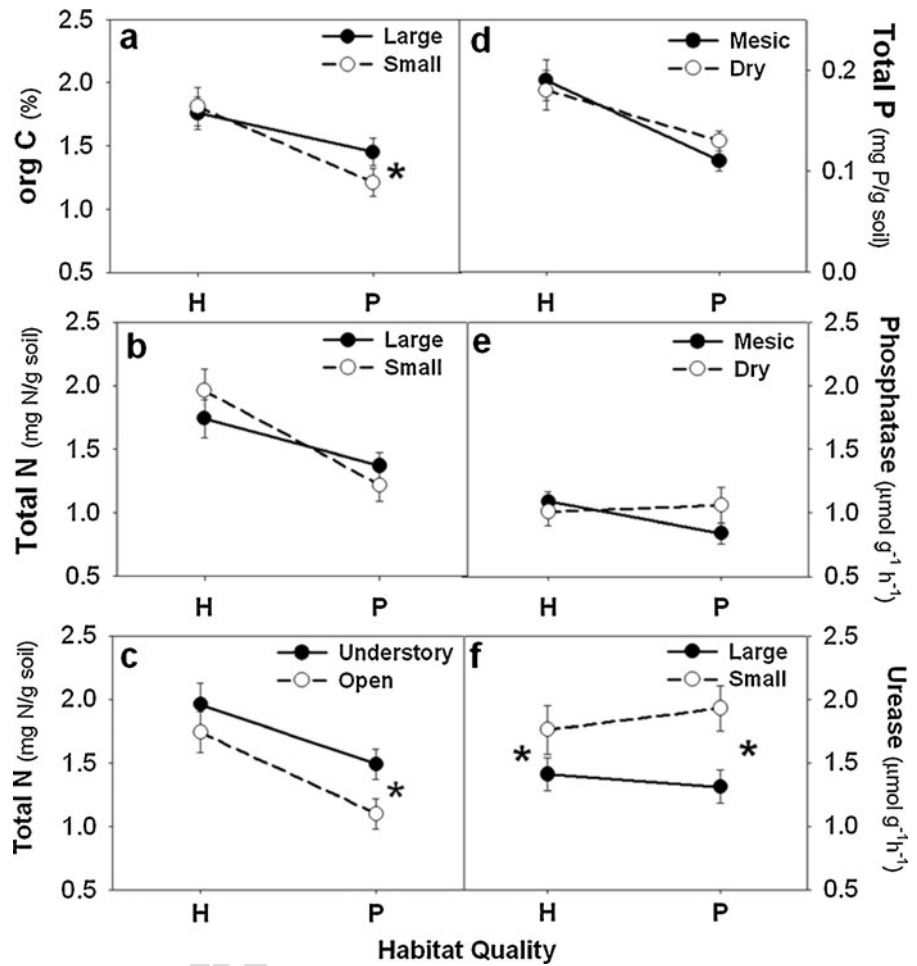
Fig. 3 Soil enzyme activity across treatments. **a** β -Glucosidase; **b** Urease; **c** Phosphatase. Values are mean \pm SE in each treatment. Each half of a panel corresponds to data from understory and open microhabitats. Different colours indicate significant differences between microhabitats (background color) and

between high and poor habitat quality (bar color). Abbreviations are: H, high-habitat quality; P, poor-habitat quality; L, large fragment; S small fragment; D, dry treatment (non-watered plants); M, mesic treatment (watered plants). See text for details

384 Allen and Schlesinger 2004). Moreover, greater levels
 385 of plant production (e.g. litter production) also stimu-
 386 late microbial enzymatic activity (Zak et al. 2003;
 387 Allen and Schlesinger 2004). β -glucosidase, urease
 388 and acid phosphatase are hydrolases involved in the
 389 decomposition of complex compounds. In particular,
 390 β -glucosidase has a key role in the C cycle, it is
 391 responsible for the transformation of large chains of
 392 carbohydrates into assimilable sugars (Eivazi and
 393 Zakaria 1993). Thus a decrease in β -glucosidase ac-
 394 tivity has negative effects on the activity of other
 395 enzymes (Sardans and Penuelas 2005). These findings
 396 together with the patchy distribution of plants in Med-
 397 iterranean gypsum soils support the idea that plant
 398 cover clumps in dry ecosystems function as resource
 399 islands with milder living conditions arranged in a
 400 barren matrix of bare soil (Maestre and Cortina
 401 2002; Goberna et al. 2007).

The lack of direct effect of water availability could
 be explained by the different time scale at which this
 driver can impact on ecosystem properties. For exam-
 ple, in our study case, the 2 years of manipulative
 changes in water availability contrasts with the long
 term processes associated with loss of habitat quality.
 Nutrient availability usually shows a lagged response
 to climatic variations, sometimes taking even decades
 to respond to environmental variation in the case of
 so-called slow variables (Reynolds et al. 2007). How-
 ever, enzymatic activities are rapid soil functional
 surrogates and therefore short-term effects of our wa-
 ter treatment can be expected. We did not detect these
 effects for the different water treatments due to our
 experiment mimicking either a mild or too short
 drought or a drought not affecting soils at the most
 responsive time of the year; it must be noted, however,
 that our drought simulation was guided both in extent

Fig. 4 Significant interactions between Habitat Quality and global change drivers (Fragmentation, Water availability and Micro-habitat). Values are mean \pm SE in each treatment. Graphs only show significant interactions between factors. An *asterisk* indicates significant differences (at $p < 0.05$) between levels of a factor. Abbreviations are: H, high-habitat quality; P, poor-habitat quality



420 and timing by climate change scenarios and not by the
 421 responsiveness of soil biota. This explanation is sup-
 422 ported by results from other studies showing that
 423 drought significantly decreased soil enzymatic activity
 424 when more intense rainfall reductions were simulated
 425 (Sardans and Penuelas 2005) or when long-term rain-
 426 fall variations were explored (Li and Sarah 2003).
 427 Likewise, fragmentation did not have a significant
 428 direct effect on any of the response variables. Accord-
 429 ing to the literature, microbial communities are, in
 430 general, not sensitive to habitat fragmentation and
 431 habitat size (Rantalainen et al. 2005 and 2008). How-
 432 ever, this does not mean that fragmentation is irrele-
 433 vant for soil functioning. We found that fragmentation
 434 indirectly affected soil performance (e.g. the effects of
 435 loss of habitat quality on nutrient availability were
 436 exacerbated in small fragments). Therefore, studying
 437 the effect of habitat fragmentation on soil features and

performance is critical, especially in combination with
 other global change drivers.

Interactive effects of global change drivers

As hypothesised, habitat quality, fragmentation and
 water availability interactively affected nutrient
 availability and microbial activity of Mediterranean
 gypsum soils (Sala et al. 2000; Brook et al. 2008;
 Matesanz et al. 2009; Pias et al. 2010). First of
 all, we found that the negative impact of habitat
 quality loss on total organic C and total N was
 exacerbated in small fragments, which is relevant
 to predict the final outcome of land degradation on
 ecosystem functioning since, both drivers usually act
 together (Schleuning et al. 2008). Second, we found that
 the reduction of total N from high- to poor- habitat
 quality sites was greater in open areas than under the

454 understory of *C. hyssopifolia*. This result agrees with
 455 other studies showing that microhabitat heterogeneity
 456 modulates the impact of global change drivers such as
 457 loss of habitat quality (Maestre and Reynolds 2006).
 458 Furthermore, given that soil nutrient heterogeneity
 459 exerts a strong influence on the development of plant
 460 individuals and communities (Hodge et al. 2000; Day et
 461 al. 2003), we can expect ecological processes mediated
 462 by environmental heterogeneity (such as plant distribu-
 463 tion or plant-plant interactions) to be indirectly affected
 464 by habitat quality loss. Finally, we found an interaction
 465 between habitat quality and water availability. Contrary
 466 to our expectations, we did not find significant differ-
 467 ences in total P and phosphatase activity between water-
 468 ing treatments. Our results contrast with other studies
 469 showing that enzymatic activity is correlated with soil
 470 water availability in semiarid (Kramer and Green 2000)
 471 and dry Mediterranean soils (Li and Sarah 2003; Sardans
 472 and Penuelas 2004, 2005).

473 Fragmentation affects plant survival due to de-
 474 creased genetic variation and increased inbreeding
 475 (Ellstrand and Elam 1993; Fischer et al. 2003). This
 476 has been also suggested by Matesanz et al. (2009) in a
 477 previous study in the same system, where the interac-
 478 tion between habitat quality and fragmentation affect-
 479 ed survival and relative growth of *C. hyssopifolia*.
 480 This reduction in plant survival, and therefore in plant
 481 cover, reduces organic matter content in the soil and
 482 could, in turn, affects soil microbial activity, in small
 483 fragments. According to these results, fragmentation
 484 did not have a significant direct effect on soils features
 485 and performance, but it modulated the effect of habitat
 486 quality through synergistic interactions having an in-
 487 direct effect on soil properties mediated by plant cover
 488 decline.

489 **Conclusions**

490 Our results highlight the importance of considering
 491 several drivers simultaneously to forecast realistic eco-
 492 system responses to global change impacts (Sala et al.
 493 2000; Matesanz et al. 2009). Each driver operates on
 494 different time scales: year to year change for water
 495 availability versus decades for habitat quality loss and
 496 fragmentation. This different time scale of the drivers
 497 could explain the greater effect of habitat quality on
 498 soils properties, which could be exacerbated by the
 499 interactive effect of habitat fragmentation over a long

time scale. Moreover, there are feedbacks between 500
 plant and microbial activity so cumulative effects of 501
 drivers affecting plant productivity and microbial ac- 502
 tivity and interactions among them can be expected in 503
 the long-term and could accelerate the degradation of 504
 Mediterranean gypsum habitats. 505
 506

Acknowledgements Thanks are due to Fernando Maestre for 507
 help and wise advice on soil and microbial analyses. Funding 508
 was provided by the Spanish Ministry for Innovation and Sci- 509
 ence with the grants Consolider Montes (CSD2008_00040) and 510
 VULGLO (CGL2010-22180-C03-03), and by the Community 511
 of Madrid grant REMEDINAL 2 (CM S2009/AMB-1783). 512

We thank MNCN colleagues for field assistance and support 513
 and Y. Valiñani and B. Cuartero for their valuable help and 514
 advice with chemical analysis. 515

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AUTHOR QUERIES

AUTHOR PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUERIES.

- Q1. Please check capturing of Affiliations 1–3 if appropriate.
- Q2. The citation “Garcia et al. 2000” (original) has been changed to “Garcia et al. 2002”. Please check if appropriate.

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